

## Le rôle respectif des différents populations de neurones épineux moyens du noyau accumbens dans la motivation et la prise alimentaire

Roman Walle

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## THÈSE PRÉSENTÉE

### POUR OBTENIR LE GRADE DE

## DOCTEUR DE L'UNIVERSITÉ DE BORDEAUX

ÉCOLE DOCTORALE DES SCIENCES DE LA VIE ET DE LA SANTÉ SPÉCIALITÉ NEUROSCIENCES

## Rôle respectif des différentes populations de neurones épineux moyens du noyau accumbens dans les différentes phases du comportement de prise alimentaire

Par Roman Walle

Sous la direction du Dr Pierre Trifilieff

Soutenue le 26 Février 2021

Membres du jury :

Dr Serge Luquet, Directeur de recherche, CNRS, Paris, France, Rapporteur

Dr Sébastien Carnicella, Chargé de recherche, Inserm, Grenoble, France Rapporteur

Dr Shauna Parkes, Chargée de recherche, CNRS, Bordeaux, France Examinatrice

Dr Daniela Cota, Directrice de recherche, Inserm, Bordeaux, France Présidente du Jury

Dr Francis Chaouloff, Directeur de recherche, Inserm, Bordeaux, France Invité

Dr Pierre Trifilieff, Chargé de recherche, INRAE, Bordeaux, France Invité Invité/Directeur de thèse

Titre : Rôle respectif des différentes populations de neurones épineux moyens du noyau accumbens dans les différentes phases du comportement de prise alimentaire

Résumé : Les dérégulations de la prise alimentaire observées dans certaines formes d'obésité et d'anorexie nerveuse (AN) peuvent être considérées comme des pathologies opposées sur la base de augmentation/diminution leur symptomatologie, i.e. une de la prise alimentaire, diminution/augmentation de l'activité physique et de la motivation respectivement dans l'obésité et l'AN. Bien que les mécanismes physiopathologiques de ces pathologies restent encore obscurs, plusieurs évidences suggèrent un dysfonctionnement du système mésolimbique et en particulier du noyau accumbens (NAc). Mon projet de thèse vise à manipuler l'activité des sous populations neuronales du NAc et à déterminer dans quelle mesure ces manipulations peuvent mimer certaines dimensions symptomatiques caractéristiques de l'obésité et l'AN. Le NAc est principalement composé de neurones épineux moyens (MSNs) ségrégés en 2 populations sur la base des récepteurs dopaminergiques qu'ils expriment, les D1 (D1-MSNs) ou D2 (D2-MSNs). Par le biais d'une approche pharmacogénétique associée à une analyse de la i) motivation ii) de la prise alimentaire et iii) de l'activité physique chez la souris, nous montrons que la modulation aigüe ou chronique des D2-MSNs ou D1-MSNs provoque des phénotypes opposés pour chacun des paramètres comportementaux précédemment énoncés, démontrant une dichotomie fonctionnelle entre les deux sous populations. L'activation des D1-MSNs induit une forte augmentation de l'activité physique se traduisant alors par une diminution de la prise alimentaire immédiate aussi bien dans un cadre évoqué que spontané. Néanmoins, lors d'une activation chronique des D1-MSNs, l'augmentation de l'activité physique semble être contrebalancée par une augmentation de la prise alimentaire. A l'inverse, tandis que l'activation aigüe des D2-MSNs joue un rôle de frein dans la motivation à travailler pour obtenir une nourriture palatable, une activation prolongée augmente la consommation spontanée de nourriture alors que les animaux présentent des dépenses énergétiques plus faibles. Cela suggère alors que le rôle du NAc dans la prise alimentaire s'étend au-delà d'un simple effet d'anticipation de la nourriture définie comme récompensante. Finalement, par le biais d'une approche double transgénique, l'activation/l'inhibition des D1-MSNs/D2-MSNs simultanée chez un même animal induit un phénotype rappelant certaines caractéristiques de l'anorexie (augmentation de l'activité physique au détriment de l'apport énergétique), à l'inverse de l'inhibition/l'activation des D1-MSNs/D2-MSNs qui mime certains paramètres de l'obésité (diminution de la dépense énergétique au regard de l'apport calorique). Ces résultats laissent entendre qu'il existe un équilibre dans l'activité des différentes populations de MSNs : les D1 et D2-MSNs joueraient un rôle bidirectionnel dans l'homéostasie énergétique qui, dans le cadre d'une altération opposée de l'excitabilité neuronale, pourrait favoriser l'occurrence de troubles du comportement alimentaire.

Mots clés : Noyau Accumbens ; prise alimentaire ; motivation ; système mésolimbique

Title: Respective roles of the distinct populations of medium spiny neurons of the nucleus accumbens in reward processing and feeding behavior.

Abstract: Compulsive eating, found in some forms of obesity, and anorexia nervosa (AN) can be considered as opposite pathologies in light of their symptomatology, i.e. increased/decreased food intake, decreased/increased physical activity and decreased/increased motivation in obesity and AN, respectively. Even though little is known regarding the pathophysiological mechanisms of these diseases, accumulating evidence points to a dysfunction of the mesolimbic pathway, and of the Nucleus Accumbens (NAc) in particular. My PhD project aimed at determining whether manipulating the activity of discrete neuronal subpopulations of the NAc could be sufficient to mimic some symptomatic dimensions of compulsive eating and/or AN. The NAc is mainly composed of medium spiny neurons (MSNs) that are segregated in 2 populations based on the dopamine receptors they express, either D1 (D1-MSNs) or D2 (D2-MSNs). Using a chemogenetic approach coupled with analysis of i) incentive processes, ii) food intake and iii) physical activity in mice, we found that acute activation of D2-MSNs or D1-MSNs leads to opposite findings, supporting a functional dichotomy between the two subpopulations of MSNs. In fact, while chronic activation of D1-MSNs leads to excessive wheel running, animals counteract this energetic expenditure by increasing their food consumption. On the contrary, chronic activation of D2-MSNs triggers weigh gain due to low physical activity and increased food consumption. Thanks to a unique double-transgenic mouse model, we were able to concomitantly manipulate both MSN subpopulations of the NAc. We show that simultaneous activation/inhibition of D1-MSNs/D2-MSNs overrides the compensatory mechanism observed under D1-MSNs activation, resulting in weight loss due to excessive physical activity in regard to food intake. In opposite, chronic simultaneous D1-MSN inhibition and D2-MSN activation induces weigth gain due to excessive energy intake in regard of activity-mediated energy expenditure. Our results suggest that the balance between D1- and D2-MSN activity bidirectionally modulate energetic homeostasis and that an alteration of such balance could promote the occurrence of eating disorders.

Keywords: Nucleus accumbens; food consumption; motivation; medium spiny neurons

Laboratoire NutriNeuro UMR INRA 1286 Université de Bordeaux, site de Carreire Bâtiment UFR Pharmacie - 2ème Tranche - 2ème Etage –Université de Bordeaux ; 146 rue Léo Saignat 33076 BORDEAUX

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## Table des matières

Abrév	iations	. 8
Préar	nbule :	10
Introd	uction	14
l. systèi	Le contrôle du comportement alimentaire : l'homéostasie énergétique et le me mélanocortinergique	15
1.	Les senseurs des substrats énergétiques	15
1.1.	Les signaux à court terme	16
1.2.	Les signaux à long terme	18
1.2.1.	Le cas particulier du glucose et de la sensibilité au nutriment	20
2.	Les acteurs centraux de l'homéostasie énergétique	21
2.1.	Le complexe vagal dorsal	21
2.2.	L'hypothalamus	23
2.2.1.	Le système mélanocortinergique du noyau arqué	23
2.2.2.	Les neurones de second ordre	26
П.	Composantes sensorielles et cognitives du contrôle de la prise alimentaire.	31
1.	Le système olfactif et gustatif	31
2.	Les circuits mnésiques dans la prise alimentaire	36
3.	La valence émotionnelle dans la prise alimentaire : le circuit amygdalien	38
4.	Le contrôle cortical du comportement ingestif	40
111.	Le circuit mésolimbique : à l'interface entre cognition et prise alimentaire	44
1.	Le rôle fonctionnel des ganglions de la base	44
2.	Le système mésolimbique dopaminergique : le circuit de la récompense	46
2.1.	Composante motivationnelle d'un comportement dirigé vers un but	46
2.2.	Les acteurs des systèmes dopaminergiques	50
2.2.1.	Les structures et rôles du mésencéphale dopaminergique dans l'anticipation d'une récompense	51
2.2.2	Le Striatum	57
2.2.2.	1. L'organisation cyto-architecturale et neurochimique du striatum	57
2.2.2	2. Les afférences striatales	60
2.2.3.	Le rôle des MSNs et le modèle du « GO-NO GO » comportemental	62

2.2.3	.1. Le striatum dorsal et la voie nigrostriée	62
2.2.3	.2. Le striatum ventral et la motivation	63
2.2.3	.3. Le cas particulier des opioïdes au sein du striatum ventral	67
3.	Le système mésolimbique : entre une régulation homéostatique et cognitive de la prise alimentaire	69
3.1.	La sensibilité du système dopaminergique aux signaux énergétiques	69
3.2.	Le striatum ventral et la prise alimentaire	74
3.2.1	. La sensibilité du striatum aux signaux énergétiques	74
3.2.2	. Les afférences glutamatergiques sur le striatum ventral et la prise alimentaire	77
3.2.3	. Le rôle respectif des D1- et D2-MSNs dans la prise alimentaire	80
3.3.	Le circuit mésolimbique et les troubles de la prise alimentaire	81
3.3.1	. L'obésité et l'addiction à la nourriture	82
3.3.2	. L'anorexie	84
Obje	ctifs	87
Résu	Itat	89
Articl	e n°1	90
Articl	e n°2	. 117
Discu	ission	. 158
I.	Synthèse des résultats	. 159
П.	Evaluation du phénotype motivationnel et de l'activité physique	. 162
1.	Le rôle des MSNs : entre motivation pour l'activité consommatoire et l'activité physique	. 162
2.	Hypothèses neurobiologiques et mécanistiques de nos effets comportementaux	. 164
2.1.	Les MSNs et le rétrocontrôle dopaminergique	. 164
2.2.	La distinction Core / Shell du noyau accumbens dans la phase anticipatoire du comportement dirigé	. 166
2.3.	Le rétrocontrôle dopaminergique dans les effets contradictoires entre pharmacogénétique et optogénétique	. 168
2.4.	Implication de l'inhibition latérale et de la plasticité dépendante des récepteurs donaminergiques	170

III.	Évaluation du phénotype consommatoire	172
1.	Le rôle des D1- et D2-MSNs dans le contrôle de la balance dépenses/apports en énergie	172
2.	Les réseaux de la consommation et de la balance énergétique recrutés par les MSNs	175
IV.	La place du système mesolimbique dans les circuits de la prise alimentaire physiologique et pathologique	179
1.	Le système mésolimbique : centre névralgique des comportements associés à la balance énergétique	179
2.	La connectivité cortico-striatale et les pathologies associées aux troubles alimentaires	181

Références	. 185
Articles annexes :	. 208

## Abréviations

5-HT : Sérotonine

ABA : Activity based anorexia

ACTH : Melanocortin peptides adrenocorticotropic hormone

AGPI n-3 : Acide gras polyinsaturé n-3

AgRP : Agouti Related Peptide

AMPA : A-Amino-3-Hydroxy-5-Methyl-4-Isoxazolepropionic Acid

AN : Anorexie nerveuse

AP : Area postrema

ATV : Aire Tegmentale ventrale

BAT : Tissu adipeux brun

BDNF : Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor

BG : Ganglions de la base

BHE : Barrière hémato-encéphalique

BLA : Noyau basolatérale de l'amygdale

CA1 : Corne d'Ammon

CamKII : Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase type II

CART : Cocaine and Amphetamine Regulated Transcript

CB1R : Récepteur Cannabinoid 1

CBGTC : Cortico-basal ganglia-thalamocortical loop

CCK : Cholecystokinine

CeA : Noyau central de l'amygdale

CNO : Clozapine n-oxyde

CP : Cortex pyriforme

CRH : Corticotropin-releasing hormone

D1R : Dopamine receptor 1

D2R : Dopamine receptor 2

DLS : Striatum dorso-latéral

DMH : Noyau dorsomédian de l'hypothalamus

DMS : Striatum dorso-médian

DMV : Noyau moteur dorsal du nerf vague

DOR: Delta opioid receptor

DREADD : Designer Receptor Exclusively Activated by Designer Drugs

dSTR : Striatum dorsal

DVC : Complexe vagal dorsal

EPSC : Courants excitateurs post synaptiques

FSI : Fast spiking interneuron

GABA : γ-aminobutyric acid

GE : Neurones glucosensibles activés

GHS-R: Growth hormone secretagogue receptor

GI : Neurones glucosensibles inhibés

GLP: Glucagon-Like-Peptides

GPe: Globus pallidus externe

GPi: Globus pallidus interne

GWAS : Genome-wide association studies

HCRT : Hypocretine

HPA : Axe hypothalamo-hypophysosurrénalien

IMC : Indicateur de masse corporelle

KOR : Kappa opioid receptor

LDTg : Laterodorsal tegmental nucleus

LH : Noyau latéral de l'hypothalamus

LTD: Dépression à long terme

LTSI : Low-threshold spiking interneuron

- MC : Cellules mitrales
- MCH: Melanin concentrating hormone
- MCR : Récepteurs à la melanocortine
- MOR: Mu opioid receptor
- MSH : Mélanocytes stimulating hormone
- MSN: Medium spiny neurons
- NA : Noyau de l'hypothalamus arqué
- NAc: Noyau accumbens
- NAcC : Noyau accumbens core
- NAcS : Noyau accumbens shell
- NO : Neurones olfactifs
- NPY: Neuropeptide Y
- NTR1 : Récepteur à la neurotensine 1
- NTS : Noyau du tractus solitaire
- Nts : Neurotensine
- OFC: Cortex orbitofrontal
- OMS : Organisation mondiale de la santé
- **ORX** : Orexine
- OXT : Ocytocine
- PBN : Noyau parabrachial
- PET : Positron emission tomography
- PFC : Cortex prefrontal
- $PKC\delta$  : Phospho-kinase C  $\delta$

POMC : Pro-opiomélanocortine

PPTg : Pedunculopontine tegmental nucleus

PVH : Noyau paraventriculaire de l'hypothalamus

PVT : Thalamus paraventriculaire

PYY: Peptide YY

RCPG : Récepteurs couplés à des protéines G

- **RPE** : Reward prediction error
- SF1 : Steroidogenic factor 1
- SNc : Substantia nigra pars compacta
- SNC : Système nerveux central
- SNr : Substantia nigra pars reticulata
- STN : Noyaux sous thalamique
- TC: Tufted cell

TCA : Troubles du comportement alimentaire

- TRC : Cellules réceptrices gustatives
- TRH : Thyrotropin-releasing hormone
- TrkB : Tropomyosin receptor kinase B
- TTX: Tetrodotoxine
- VP: Pallidum ventral

VMH : Noyau de l'hypothalamus ventromédian

vmPFC : Partie ventro-médiane du PFC

## Préambule :

L'une des notions clé de cette thèse est l'homéostasie qui se définit comme la capacité d'un organisme à maintenir un équilibre interne malgré des conditions externes variables. Ce terme s'illustre tout particulièrement dans le contrôle du comportement alimentaire qui désigne l'ensemble des conduites d'un individu vis-à-vis de la consommation d'aliments.

Que ce soit chez l'animal ou l'homme, les espèces assurent leur survie et atteignent à l'âge adulte une taille et un poids corporel approximativement stables. La composition corporelle, en particulier la proportion en eau, masse sèche et masse grasse, est plus ou moins identique chez tous les individus d'une même espèce à l'âge adulte. Ces constantes impliquent l'existence d'une homéostasie physiologique fondamentale : celle du bilan de l'apport et des dépenses en énergie et matière. Les apports proviennent exclusivement de l'alimentation et sont fournis par les glucides, les lipides et les protéines. Les dépenses correspondent à l'énergie et à la matière dépensées lors des processus de métabolisme basal, d'activité physique et de thermogénèse. Cet équilibre est défini comme étant l'homéostasie énergétique, exigeant que la dépense d'énergie représentée par le métabolisme « normal » d'un individu soit couverte par une prise alimentaire équivalente. Si un déséquilibre est maintenu pendant un certain temps, peuvent alors apparaître des désordres métaboliques ou non, menant à des troubles du comportement alimentaire (TCA) tels que l'anorexie ou l'obésité.

D'un point de vue physiologique, les variations énergétiques sont majoritairement détectées au niveau d'organes périphériques (gastro-intestinaux, tissu adipeux) mais aussi au niveau du système nerveux central (hypothalamus). Par le biais de différents senseurs aussi bien biochimiques que mécaniques (hormones, nutriments, mouvements péristaltique etc...) ces organes s'informent en permanence sur le statut énergétique de l'individu, induisant un échange d'informations constant entre eux. Au niveau du système nerveux central (SNC), de nombreuses régions forment un réseau capable d'ajuster le comportement de la prise alimentaire dans le but de maintenir un équilibre énergétique.

Historiquement, les études visant à déterminer les mécanismes neuronaux impliqués dans la prise alimentaire se sont principalement concentrées sur l'hypothalamus. Au

début du XX<sup>ème</sup> siècle, les premières études du syndrome de Frohlich, une maladie métabolique infantile rare, ont associé cette pathologie à des altérations de l'hypothalamus (Frohlich, 1901; Erdheim, 1904). Quelques années plus tard, des études chez l'animal ont montré qu'une lésion de l'hypothalamus induisait un phénotype obésogène (Smith, 1930; Hetherington & Ranson, 1940). A partir de là, l'attention s'est concentrée sur le rôle de l'hypothalamus. Notamment, les études de J.R Brobeck ont mis en évidence une surconsommation alimentaire comme cause de l'obésité produite par une lésion de l'hypothalamus ventro-médian, alors qu'une lésion de l'hypothalamus latéral induisait une aphagie pouvant entrainer une mort par inanition (Brobeck et al., 1943; Anand & Brobeck, 1951). Il a alors été admis qu'au sein de l'hypothalamus, il existait deux systèmes anatomiquement dissociés, l'un étant impliqué dans la satiété et l'autre dans la faim. Ces nouvelles découvertes ont alors placé l'hypothalamus comme une aire cérébrale majeure, senseur énergétique de l'organisme, modulateur de la prise alimentaire et indispensable à la survie. D'autre part, ces découvertes corroborent la théorie behavioriste de l'homéostasie de réduction des besoins (Cannon, 1929; Hull, 1943) qui définit qu'une situation déficitaire liée à la survie engendre un comportement visant à la réduction de cet état de besoin procurant un plaisir subjectif.

Néanmoins cette doctrine va être rapidement remise en cause suite aux expériences de J. Olds et P. Milner en 1954. Ces deux chercheurs avaient implanté des électrodes dans différentes aires du cerveau d'un rat, telle que l'aire tegmentale ventrale (ATV). Celui-ci pouvait lui-même stimuler électriquement ces aires cérébrales en appuyant sur un levier. Ils observèrent qu'une fois la tâche apprise, l'animal s'auto-stimulait sans arrêt, sans prendre le temps de manger. Ils mirent alors en évidence un circuit de la récompense dont la stimulation directe était tellement puissante que l'animal en négligeait ses besoins fondamentaux et notamment la prise alimentaire (Olds & Milner, 1954). Ainsi une nouvelle dimension complétant la théorie homéostatique de réduction des besoins apparut, la théorie homéostatique de l'induction des besoins (Deutsch & Howarth, 1963). Cette découverte fut le point d'origine qui permit de redéfinir la prise alimentaire comme un comportement multifactoriel, qui n'est pas uniquement stimulée par des besoins énergétiques mais également des besoins non homéostatiques, d'origine cognitive regroupant des aspects sensoriels, mnésiques, émotionnels,

motivationnels et nécessitant l'implication d'autres régions cérébrales (cortex, hippocampe, amygdale, striatum).

Peu de temps après cette remise en question du contrôle de la prise alimentaire, la découverte de nouvelles techniques de marquage immuno-histochimique fluorescent des circuits catecholaminergiques (Falck & Hillarp, 1959) permit de caractériser le circuit de la récompense comme le système mésocorticolimbique composé de neurones dopaminergiques projetant du mésencéphale (l'aire tegmentale ventrale, substance noir) sur les ganglions de la base (striatum), le septum et le cortex (Anden et al., 1964; Fuxe, 1965). Depuis lors, ce système fut intensivement étudié et son rôle dans les comportements dirigés vers une récompense, qu'elle soit alimentaire, sexuelle ou sociale, n'est plus à démontrer. En outre, les différentes connexions entre les structures du système mésolimbique ont pu être associées à un nombre conséquent de « sous » comportements qui permettent à eux tous de définir les comportements volontaires dirigés vers une récompense. Tandis que les opioïdes et les endocannabinoïdes au niveau du striatum ventral, aussi appelé novau accumbens (NAc), et du pallidum ventral (VP) sont impliqués dans l'hédonie (Castro & Berridge, 2014), les réseaux GABAergiques de ces mêmes structures vont jouer un rôle dans l'évaluation de l'utilité d'un comportement et dans son déclenchement (Kroemer et al., 2016). D'autre part, les connexions cortico-striatales ont un rôle essentiel dans le traitement de la récompense, son initiation ou sa planification (Chong et al., 2017). En revanche, la compréhension des corrélats neurobiologiques et anatomiques associant/dissociant le contrôle direct de la prise alimentaire et le système mésocorticolimbique reste encore incomplète. Le nombre de références puisées dans PubMed est de 1041 résultats pour le mot clé « food intake and nucleus accumbens » contre 10101 avec « food intake and hypothalamus ».

Pourtant de nombreuses études épidémiologiques ont démontré l'implication du système mésolimbique, plus particulièrement dans les troubles du comportement alimentaire. Auparavant, l'amphétamine, une drogue d'abus activatrice des réseaux monoaminergiques, était utilisée pour ses effets anorexigènes comme traitement de l'obésité (Harris *et al.*, 1947). Plus récemment, une étude a montré une relation bidirectionnelle entre des mutations de gènes codant pour les récepteurs dopaminergiques et des troubles du comportement alimentaire (TCA) (Vucetic *et al.*, 2012). D'autre part, des modifications de l'expression de ces récepteurs et de l'activité

12

au niveau du NAc dans le cadre de l'obésité chez l'humain et l'animal ont été démontrées (Alsiö *et al.*, 2010; Michaelides *et al.*, 2012; Tomasi & Volkow, 2013). Finalement, des protocoles de stimulation cérébrale profonde de cette même structure peuvent diminuer les symptômes de l'obésité (Oterdoom *et al.*, 2018).

Le NAc joue-t-il un rôle de senseur nutritionnel de l'organisme ? Existe-t-il une ségrégation des réseaux neuronaux sous-tendant la prise alimentaire et la composante motivationnelle d'un comportement dirigé vers une récompense alimentaire ? Ou à l'inverse, les modifications du comportement de prise alimentaire ne sont que la résultante d'un contrôle comportemental du système mésolimbique surpassant l'hypothalamus ? A l'heure actuelle, la réponse à ces questions reste partielle.

Dans un premiers temps ce manuscrit présentera dans l'introduction les mécanismes généraux du contrôle de la prise alimentaire associés à l'homéostasie énergétique, depuis l'absorption gastro-intestinale jusqu'au contrôle hypothalamique. Par la suite, je m'intéresserai aux mécanismes en lien avec des aspects non homéostatiques de la prise alimentaire incluant la perception de stimuli environnementaux associés à la nourriture et traités par différentes structures impliquées dans la cognition. Puis, je détaillerai plus précisément le rôle du système mésolimbique, depuis ses caractéristiques neurobiologiques jusqu'à son contrôle du processus de motivation et tout particulièrement dans le cadre de la prise alimentaire. Après avoir exposé les objectifs et problématiques de ma thèse, les résultats obtenus seront présentés sous forme de publication. La troisième et dernière partie concernera la discussion générale sur les apports scientifiques des résultats obtenus et leurs perspectives.

Introduction

## I. Le contrôle du comportement alimentaire : l'homéostasie énergétique et le système mélanocortinergique

Le contrôle comportemental de la prise alimentaire a fait l'objet de nombreuses études scientifiques au cours des cent dernières années. Pour autant, le circuit sous-jacent reste incomplet et sa complexité reste entière. La prise alimentaire est un comportement extrêmement régulé par l'organisme tant par la quantité d'informations détectées que par l'évaluation constante de ces informations au cours du temps et des différentes phases de la prise alimentaire : les phases de jeûne, préprandiale, prandiale et postprandiale. Nous nous placerons dans le contexte de l'absorption d'un bol alimentaire afin de présenter de manière générale les principaux signaux périphériques engagés et leurs effets sur la prise alimentaire. Puis, je détaillerai leur intégration au niveau central.

#### 1. Les senseurs des substrats énergétiques

Suite à la prise alimentaire, le bol alimentaire arrive dans le système digestif et stimule des mécanorécepteurs (distension gastrique et péristaltisme) et chémorécepteurs (nutriment, osmolarité et le pH) de la paroi gastrique. Cela provoque une cascade de signaux modulant la sécrétion de nombreux peptides et hormones. Des signaux à court terme vont être libérés au niveau gastrique alors que les signaux à long terme vont dépendre d'organes périphériques tels que le pancréas, le foie et les tissus adipeux. Tous ces peptides vont agir sur le système nerveux central de deux manières



possibles via le nerf vague et/ou via la circulation sanguine (Figure 1 ; Schwartz *et al.*, 2000; Zheng & Berthoud, 2008).

Figure 1: Représentation schématique des différents signaux périphériques et leurs transmissions au niveau cérébral (Extrait de Zheng & Berthoud, 2008)

#### 1.1. Les signaux à court terme

La cholecystokinine (CCK) est une hormone peptidique produite par les cellules I de l'intestin durant la phase post prandiale, plus particulièrement suite à un repas riche en graisse (Gibbons *et al.*, 2016). Elle module les sécrétions gastriques et la prise alimentaire via ses récepteurs (Owyang & Logsdon, 2004). De plus, elle a aussi été impliquée dans le stockage des lipides, la sécrétion de leptine au niveau du tissu adipeux blanc et dans l'homéostasie du glucose (Attoub *et al.*, 1999; Cheung *et al.*, 2009; Plaza *et al.*, 2018). Bien que ses deux récepteurs soient présents au niveau cérébral, l'effet anorexigène de la CCK est principalement médié par son action sur le nerf vague (Raybould, 2007). Des études ont montré par la même occasion que l'administration intracrânienne et intravasculaire de CCK réduisait la prise alimentaire (Covasa et al., 2001; Zhang & Ritter, 2012), néanmoins son transport à travers la barrière hémato-encéphalique (BHE) reste limité, remettant en cause l'idée d'un contrôle par son transport via la circulation sanguine (Zhu et al., 1986).

Les Glucagon-Like-Peptides (GLP) sont des peptides dérivés du proglucagon et majoritairement synthétisés par les cellules L du tractus intestinal pendant la phase postprandiale, proportionnellement à la valeur énergétique du repas (Elliott et al., 1993). Leurs récepteurs sont majoritairement localisés dans l'hypothalamus et le tronc cérébral (Merchenthaler et al., 1999). Tandis que l'administration intravasculaire et intracérébrale de GLP-1 diminue la prise alimentaire et le poids corporel, l'altération de l'expression du récepteur GLP-1 dans l'hypothalamus induit des effets opposés (Tang-Christensen et al., 1996; Hayes et al., 2008 ; Liu et al., 2017; López-Ferreras et al., 2018). De récentes études montrent que diminuer l'expression du récepteur plus spécifiquement sur les neurones du nerf vague induit une augmentation de la prise alimentaire (Krieger et al., 2015, 2016; Iwasaki et al., 2018). Ces résultats, en plus de la caractérisation de neurones secrétant GPL-1 au niveau bulbo-pontique, soustendent une forte implication du système nerveux périphérique dans les effets anorexigènes de GLP-1 (Larsen et al., 1997). GPL-1 reste néanmoins capable de traverser la BHE, ce qui n'exclut pas complètement une modulation par voie humorale (Kastin et al., 2002).

Le peptide YY (PYY) est un peptide co-synthétisé avec GLP-1 durant la phase post prandiale (Adrian *et al.*, 1985). R.L Batterham et son équipe ont mis en évidence que la concentration de PYY3-36 endogène (forme active) est diminuée chez des patients obèses mais son administration exogène inhibe tout de même la prise alimentaire et diminue le poids corporel chez ces mêmes patients (Batterham *et al.*, 2002, 2003). Cette réponse anorexigène est au moins en partie médiée par les neurones du nerf vague (Koda *et al.*, 2005). De plus, l'inactivation de son récepteur Y2 au niveau hypothalamique et des afférences vagales, induit dans les deux cas une diminution de l'effet dose-réponse du peptide, capable de traverse la BHE par diffusion (Nonaka et al., 2003 ; Abbott et al., 2005; Huston et al., 2019). Cependant, ces observations ne permettent pas de définir complètement une signalisation humorale du peptide PYY périphérique modulant le comportement de prise alimentaire. En effet, il existe au niveau central un autre peptide secrété par des neurones, qui partage une certaine homologie avec le PYY et capable d'interagir avec son récepteur. Il s'agit du neuropeptide Y (NPY) qui sera présenté par la suite (Adrian *et al.*, 1985).

Enfin, la ghréline, définie comme étant « l'hormone de la faim », est l'unique signal périphérique orexigène connu à ce jour (Kojima *et al.*, 1999). Ce peptide est synthétisé principalement par les cellules de l'estomac et du duodénum, en fonction du statut énergétique de l'organisme et sera donc fortement exprimé durant la phase de jeûne puis réprimé suite à l'arrivée du bol alimentaire (Date *et al.*, 2000; Sánchez *et al.*, 2004). En se fixant sur son récepteur GHS-R (Growth hormone secretagogue receptor) présent au niveau cérébral et sur les afférences vagales, la ghréline induit une augmentation de la prise alimentaire et du poids corporel (Guan *et al.*, 1997; Nakazato *et al.*, 2001; Wren *et al.*, 2001; Okada *et al.*, 2018). Ce récepteur est en partie impliqué dans le transport de la ghréline à travers la BHE (Rhea *et al.*, 2018).

Finalement, bien qu'ils soient prédominants au niveau périphérique, il est important de garder à l'esprit que quelques-uns de ces signaux à court terme sont aussi secrétés au niveau central par certains types de neurones. De ce fait, l'importance du transport sanguin de ces molécules dans la modulation alimentaire reste relativement floue.

#### 1.2. Les signaux à long terme

Ce second groupe se caractérise par des signaux de nature hormonale, liés à l'adiposité, ayant une action retardée par rapport à la prise alimentaire. Ils exercent des effets directs sur les voies centrales mais aussi en régulant les fonctions métaboliques. De plus, les signaux à court terme précédemment cités vont eux aussi

agir sur l'expression de ces hormones.

L'insuline est une hormone majoritairement produite par les cellules β du pancréas, étant principalement connue pour son rôle critique sur la régulation du glucose sanguin. En effet, l'arrivée de glucose dans la circulation stimule la sécrétion d'insuline pendant la période post prandiale. Celle-ci va avoir un rôle anabolique majeur en agissant au niveau hépatique et musculaire en favorisant le stockage du



Figure 2 : Effets de l'insuline sur le métabolisme au sein des principaux organes péripheriques régulant l'homéostasie énergétique (Figure extraite de Akhtar et al., 2019)

glucose, résultant en une hypoglycémie. De plus, l'insuline exerce un rôle important au niveau du tissu adipeux en favorisant le stockage des acides gras, en inhibant la lipolyse et en modulant la croissance des adipocytes (Laviola et al., 2006). Elle apparaît ainsi comme un signal reflétant l'interaction entre les processus métaboliques immédiats et le niveau d'adiposité (Figure 2 ; Akhtar et al., 2019). La variation de ces différents processus est aussi à l'origine d'une modulation de la prise alimentaire qui sera détaillée par la suite (glucose et lipide sensing). En raison de son effet hypoglycémiant (suite à une injection en périphérie) entrainant des symptômes tels gu'une transpiration excessive, des tremblements, une asthénie et une faiblesse générale, son impact direct sur le comportement de prise alimentaire reste difficile à identifier chez l'homme. Néanmoins, l'insuline circulante est capable de traverser la BHE (Banks et al., 1997) et d'atteindre l'hypothalamus où son récepteur est fortement exprimé (Havrankova et al., 1978). Des études employant des injections intracérébrales chez l'animal ou intra-nasales d'insuline chez l'homme ont montré une diminution de la faim et du poids corporel (Brown et al., 2006; Hallschmid et al., 2004; Jauch-Chara et al., 2012). Plus précisément, une délétion génétique du récepteur à l'insuline au niveau de l'hypothalamus est en partie responsable de ses effets

anorexigènes et d'une inhibition de la production hépatique de glucose suggérant un contrôle central du glucose systémique, confirmant que son rôle régulateur dans la prise alimentaire dépend en partie de cette structure (Brüning *et al.*, 2000; Obici *et al.*, 2002; Loh *et al.*, 2017; Pozo & Claret, 2018). De plus, l'injection quotidienne d'insuline dans le tronc cérébral au niveau du complexe vagal dorsal (DVC) diminue la prise alimentaire et le poids corporel d'animaux sains (Filippi *et al.*, 2014). Bien que K. Iwasaki et son équipe aient pu mettre en évidence une certaine sensibilité des efférences vagales intestinales à l'insuline, aucune modification de la prise alimentaire n'a pu y être associée (Iwasaki *et al.*, 2013, 2017).

La leptine est une hormone sécrétée principalement par le tissu adipeux blanc dont le taux circulant est proportionnel au degré d'adiposité et à l'insuline. Ainsi, elle diminue lors du jeûne et s'élève 4 à 5 heures après le repas. Elle est exprimée à partir du gène Ob dont le polymorphisme a largement été impliqué dans l'obésité (Considine et al., 1996). Son récepteur est présent dans la majorité des tissus, avec toutefois une très forte expression dans l'hypothalamus, et aurait aussi pour fonction d'assurer le transport de la leptine à travers la BHE (Bates & Myers, 2004; Scott et al., 2009). Dans plusieurs études précliniques, les souris déficientes en leptine (ob/ob) développent une obésité, une hyperphagie, une hyper-glycémie et hyper-insulinémie (Friedman & Halaas, 1998; Mantzoros, 1999; Borba-Murad et al., 2005). Néanmoins, des études mesurant le glucose plasmatique, ne détectent aucune variation immédiate lors d'injections centrales ou tissulaires de leptine. Ce serait une exposition prolongée qui induirait une inhibition dose-dépendante de l'insuline et donc l'arrêt de ses effets sur le métabolisme glucidique et lipidique (Müller et al., 1997; Zierath et al., 1998; Moran & Phillip, 2003). Quelques études suggèrent également un contrôle direct du métabolisme adipocytaire et de la thermogenèse (tissus adipeux brun) par le système sympathique dépendant de la leptine (Minokoshi et al., 1999; Song et al., 2008). La leptine inhibe la prise alimentaire et augmente la dépense énergétique par l'intermédiaire de son interaction avec ses récepteurs spécifiques de l'hypothalamus (Cowley et al., 2001). Plus récemment, des équipes ont mis en évidence une expression de la leptine au niveau des cellules P de la muqueuse stomacale, qui participe aux effets anorexigènes en stimulant directement les afférences vagales et en co-régulant les autres peptides satiétogènes du tube digestif (Mix et al., 2000; Peters et al., 2005; Kentish et al., 2013).

# 1.2.1. Le cas particulier du glucose et de la sensibilité au nutriment

Bien qu'il fasse intervenir un nombre conséquent d'intermédiaires, comme illustré précédemment, la molécule de glucose va permettre la modulation directe du système nerveux central et périphérique et va moduler la prise alimentaire. Il a été mis en évidence que des systèmes de détection du glucose présents dans la veine porte vont, suite à l'arrivé de glucose, agir sur les sécrétions d'hormones, diminuer directement l'activité électrique des afférences vagales et spinales, et moduler la prise alimentaire (Niijima, 1982; Liu et al., 1999; Fukaya et al., 2007; Langhans & Geary, 2010). Plus récemment, une étude chez l'animal a mis en évidence une signalisation vagale spécifiquement activée par le glucose, qu'il soit métabolisable ou non, orientant alors le choix de consommation des animaux vers celui-ci au détriment d'une solution de sucre artificiel (Tan et al., 2020). Ces données sous-tendent alors l'existence de neurones gluco-sensibles dans le système nerveux entérique, dont l'activité électrique est modifiée par la concentration en glucose. D'autre part, le glucose est



Figure 3 : Transport du glucose à travers la barrière hématoencéphalique et les tanycytes au niveau de l'éminence médiane de l'hypothalamus (Figure extraite de Banks, 2019)

la principale source d'énergie au niveau central avec une concentration plasmatique strictement régulée. Cependant dans les années 70, plusieurs études ont démontré que la BHE était semi-perméable au niveau de l'hypothalamus et dans plusieurs régions du tronc cérébral (Gross & Weindl, 1987; Bennett *et al.*, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2014). Associé à cela, la présence de tanycytes, un sous type particulier de cellules gliales, a pu être récemment et spécifiquement mis en évidence au niveau de l'éminence médiane et contre le 3<sup>ème</sup> ventricule (Figure 3 ; Banks, 2019). Leurs rôles dans la régulation de la BHE, le transport des signaux métaboliques et une habilité dans la détection des niveaux de glucose ont pu être établis (Prevot *et al.*, 2018). Cette perméabilité résulte en une subtile modulation des concentrations en glucose

hypothalamique, un reflet direct d'une hypo ou hyper-glycémie périphérique (Silver & Erecinska, 1998; Mayer *et al.*, 2006). Ces changements sont alors détectés par des neurones gluco-sensibles influant directement sur l'activité hypothalamique et la prise alimentaire (Guillod-Maximin *et al.*, 2004; Pénicaud *et al.*, 2006; Papp *et al.*, 2007). Comme pour le glucose, il existe dans l'hypothalamus des neurones sensibles aux acides gras, dont l'activité électrique varie en fonction de leur concentration (Wang et al., 2006; Le Foll et al., 2009). Les acides gras injectés au niveau central diminuent de façon transitoire la prise alimentaire (Obici *et al.*, 2002; Schwinkendorf *et al.*, 2011). Pour ces raisons, l'éminence médiane est décrit au sein de la littérature comme une plateforme de transport capitale, permettant de manière plus générale un transfert uni ou bidirectionnel des signaux métaboliques entre les systèmes périphériques et centraux.

Finalement, il existe des réseaux senseurs complexes et interconnectés de la prise alimentaire au niveau périphérique. Bien qu'ils soient de natures différentes, ils ont tous pour point commun d'agir de manière ubiquitaire au niveau central directement sur l'hypothalamus ou via le DVC. Ceux-ci s'illustrent par des particularités physiologiques les rendant hypersensibles aux signaux énergétiques. Je vais maintenant présenter l'organisation anatomo-fonctionnelle de ces structures.

#### 2. Les acteurs centraux de l'homéostasie énergétique

#### 2.1. Le complexe vagal dorsal

La région bulbo-pontique offre une voie d'accès privilégiée connectant les systèmes nerveux central et périphérique. La présence de plusieurs noyaux, tels que ceux du DVC, permet une modulation des réseaux hypothalamiques intégrant les signaux périphériques et centraux, afin d'orchestrer la prise alimentaire et de maintenir l'équilibre homéostatique. Le DVC comprend plusieurs noyaux tels que le noyau du tractus solitaire (NTS), l'area postrema (AP) et le noyau moteur dorsal du nerf vague (DMV).

Le NTS se démarque comme noyau central du DVC et par une certaine organisation anatomo-fonctionnelle puisque sa partie rostrale relaie les signaux gustatifs, que j'évoquerai ultérieurement, et que sa partie caudale intègre les signaux viscéraux. Cette partie caudale est contactée par les afférences glutamatergiques vagales ascendantes transmettant les signaux périphériques et présente une sensibilité aux signaux humoraux (CCK, PYY, GLP-1...) de par sa perméabilité de la BHE qui l'entoure. Tandis que l'AP va elle aussi participer à l'intégration des signaux homéostatiques et contacter le NTS, le DMV va être sous la dépendance du NTS. Le DMV est composé de neurones pré-ganglionnaires parasympathiques cholinergiques, ayant une activité rythmée (pacemaker), qui vont permettre un contrôle moteur de la motilité et des sécrétions gastriques par le biais du plexus mésentérique et des cellules interstitielles de Cajal. Il a été montré que cette activité pacemaker est modulée par les projections glutamatergiques, GABAergiques et catecholaminergiques du NTS (Travagli *et al.*, 2006; Travagli & Anselmi, 2016). Ainsi, l'ensemble de ces structures serait impliqué dans un phénomène défini comme une satiété spécifique de la perception viscérale.

Néanmoins, le DVC ne reste qu'une plateforme d'échanges qui envoie et reçoit l'information, il est donc beaucoup trop réducteur de le caractériser uniquement par cet effet anorexigène. L'hypothalamus reste un centre décisionnel, que ce soit via le noyaux arqué (NA) projetant sur le NTS et le DMV, exerçant une modulation dépendante de la mélanocortine, ou alors via ses parties latérale et para-ventriculaire qui vont agir par d'autres types de neurones (Davis *et al.*, 2003; Blevins *et al.*, 2004; Sohn *et al.*, 2013). Il est important d'évoquer que cet échange entre l'hypothalamus et le DVC est aussi indirect. En effet, le noyau parabrachial (PBN) a été identifié comme échangeant de nombreuses connexions avec les deux structures, et une activation glutamatergique de cette structure inhibe la prise alimentaire (Wu et al., 2012). Enfin, l'une des particularités du NTS est la présence exclusive de neurones secrétant directement la GLP-1 ou la CCK (Figure 4 ; van Bloemendaal *et al.*, 2014; D'Agostino *et al.*, 2016; Andermann & Lowell, 2017; Waise *et al.*, 2018). Ceux-ci projettent également sur plusieurs structures corticales et limbiques, dont le système



mésolimbique, et seraient impliqués dans des modulations de la prise alimentaire (Larsen *et al.*, 1997; Alhadeff *et al.*, 2012).

Figure 4 : Le noyau du tractus solitaire : centre de relais cérébral de l'information vagale périphérique (Figure extraite et adaptée de Andermann & Lowell, 2017 ; Waise et al., 2018)



Figure 5 : Les noyaux de l'hypothalamus (Figure extraite de Elizondo-Vega et al., 2015)

#### 2.2. L'hypothalamus

En plus de son rôle dans la prise alimentaire, l'hypothalamus contrôle de multiples fonctions physiologiques majeures, que ce soit le stress et la reproduction avec l'axe hypothalamohypophysaire ou encore les processus de peur et d'éveil. De ce fait, il est considéré comme une structure clé dans la survie, très conservé d'un point vue évolutif. Cette malléabilité dans le contrôle de

ces différentes fonctions est notamment permise par une multitude de noyaux composés de neurones exprimant des neuropeptides spécifiques. Dans notre cas, je présenterai uniquement ceux associés à la prise alimentaire. Parmi ces noyaux distinctement ségrégés, on retrouve le NA, la partie ventro-médiane (VMH), dorso-médiane (DMH), latérale (LH) et paraventriculaire (PVH) qui ont une hiérarchie bien particulière (Figure 5 ; Elizondo-Vega *et al.*, 2015).

#### 2.2.1. Le système mélanocortinergique du noyau arqué

De par sa position entre le 3<sup>ème</sup> ventricule et l'éminence médiane, le NA est l'un des premiers sites intégrant les signaux énergétiques via des neurones dits de premier ordre, exprimant le NPY/AgRP (Neuropeptide Y / Agouti Related Peptide) et la POMC /CART (Pro-opiomélanocortine / Cocaine and Amphetamine Regulated Transcript ; Cone 2005). Bien que B.K Arnand et J.R Brobeck aient posé l'hypothèse de deux réseaux neuronaux anatomiquement distincts dans le contrôle de la faim et de la satiété, les découvertes récentes suggèrent cette dissociation au niveau cellulaire, les POMC/CART étant anorexigènes et les NPY/AgRP étant orexigènes. Ceux-ci vont projeter sur les autres structures citées et contacter des neurones dits de second ordre, plus ou moins sensibles aux modulations de ces deux types de neurones. Par la même occasion ces noyaux reçoivent aussi de nombreuses afférences sensorielles extra-hypothalamiques (Atasoy et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2020).

Ces populations neuronales sont parmi les mieux caractérisées et leur rôle respectif dans le contrôle de la prise alimentaire n'est plus à discuter. Que ce soit par des approches pharmacologiques, pharmacogénétiques ou optogénétiques, il a été montré que les neurones POMC/CART diminuent la prise alimentaire alors que les neurones NPY/AgRP l'augmentent (Sternson & Atasoy, 2014). Ce contrôle bidirectionnel est permis par le système mélanocortinergique (Figure 6 ; Barsh & Schwartz, 2002). En effet, par la sécrétion d'ACTH (melanocortin peptides adrenocorticotropic hormone) et de MSH (melanocytes stimulating hormone), les POMC/CART vont activer les neurones de second ordre exprimant les récepteurs à la melanocortine 4 (MCR-4) (Pelletier & Dube, 1977; Roselli-Rehfuss et al., 1993; Fan et al., 1997; Ellacott & Cone, 2006). En revanche, les neurones NPY/AgRP vont les inhiber par l'interaction NPY-Y1R (Neuropeptide Y receptor 1) et l'antagonisation des MCR-4 par l'AgRP (Ollmann et al., 1997; Small et al., 2001). De plus, les neurones NPY/AgRP sécrètent du GABA (y-aminobutyric acid) qui, par une innervation synaptique directe, inhibe localement les neurones POMC/CART (Cowley et al., 2001). A l'inverse, des études ont montré qu'une délétion du MCR-3, dont l'expression est restreinte aux neurones POMC/CART et NPY/AgRP, atténuait l'appétence lors de restrictions caloriques et désensibilisait les neurones NPY/AgRP (Roselli-Rehfuss et al., 1993; Jégou et al., 2000; Begriche et al., 2012). Ce système a également été mis en jeu dans un comportement spontané d'activité physique (Hwa et al., 2001).



Figure 6 : Le système mélanocortinergique du noyau arqué, un centre de contrôle de la prise alimentaire (Figure extraite Barsh & Schwartz, 2002) D'une autre manière, l'implication de ces sous types neuronaux dans la prise alimentaire fut révélée par leur sensibilité aux peptides et hormones périphériques précédemment cités. Une réexpression du GHS-R, dans les neurones NPY/AgRP chez des animaux déficients pour ce récepteur, permet de restaurer partiellement l'effet orexigène de la ghréline (Wang et al., 2014). La même approche impliquant le récepteur à la leptine dans les neurones POMC/CART, est suffisante pour augmenter l'activité physique, prévenir le diabète et le comportement hyperphagique de souris obèses (db/db) (Balthasar et al., 2004; Huo et al., 2009; Berglund et al., 2012). Curieusement, à l'inverse de la leptine, l'ablation de l'IR dans les deux types neuronaux n'influe que sur l'homéostasie du glucose sans moduler la prise alimentaire (Könner et al., 2007). Néanmoins, il est important de considérer que l'expression des récepteurs aux peptides ne semble être présente que sur une partie des neurones POMC/CART et NPY/AgRP. Certaines études admettent ainsi une ségrégation au sein de ces populations (Williams et al., 2010). De plus, il a aussi été observé qu'une partie de ces neurones était gluco-sensible et qu'une augmentation locale du glucose déclenchait une augmentation de l'activité des POMC/CART, à l'inverse des neurones NPY/AgRP dont l'activité est diminuée (Belgardt et al., 2009).

Les neurones POMC/CART et NPY/AgRP reçoivent également de nombreuses afférences provenant de structures du cerveau antérieur. Bien que ces afférences soient partagées entre les deux types cellulaires, celles contactant les neurones POMC semblent relativement plus larges et plus denses (Wang et al., 2015). Plusieurs neurotransmetteurs sont des composants clé modulant le circuit mélanocortinergique. L'activation du récepteur 5-HT2C par la sérotonine (5-HT) augmente l'activité des neurones POMC/CART produisant une diminution de la prise alimentaire dépendante des MCR-4 du PVH sans modification de la dépense énergétique (Heisler et al., 2006; Sohn et al., 2011). D'autre part, une signalisation dépendant du CB1R (Cannabinoid receptor 1), inhibant les neurones POMC, induirait des effets orexigènes (Koch et al., 2015). Le système dopaminergique semble lui aussi impliqué puisqu'une diminution des récepteurs de la dopamine sur les neurones POMC a été décrite dans le cadre d'une obésité induite par le régime alimentaire chez l'animal (Romanova et al., 2018). On retrouve également le système opioïdergique contribuant à moduler l'activité des neurones POMC/CART aussi bien au niveau post- que pré-synaptique (Pennock & Hentges, 2011). Enfin, il a pu être observé qu'une modulation antagoniste des deux

populations neuronales par la noradrénaline, va respectivement augmenter ou diminuer l'activité des neurones NPY/AgRP et POMC/CART (Paeger *et al.*, 2017). Ainsi, on retrouve la quasi-totalité des grands neurotransmetteurs modulateurs impliqués dans une régulation de la prise alimentaire au niveau du NA.

Outre leurs rôles dans la prise alimentaire ces neurones vont bien entendu avoir un rôle crucial dans la régulation énergétique périphérique (Varela & Horvath, 2012). Par exemple, les neurones POMC/CART augmentent l'activité métabolique du tissu adipeux brun (BAT ; Enriori et al., 2011) alors que les NPY/AgRP la diminuent (Shi *et al.*, 2013). En revanche, seule l'inhibition des neurones POMC/CART du NA semble diminuer les niveaux de glucose périphérique, tandis que la même manipulation sur les NPY/AgRP reste sans effet sur la glycémie (Üner *et al.*, 2019). Ces divergences d'effets présument d'une importante hétérogénéité au sein de ces deux sous populations. Autant la disparité d'expression de récepteurs que les différentes structures visées par les neurones POMC/CART et NPY/AgRP supportent leurs effets modulateurs de la prise alimentaire et de l'homéostasie énergétique (Romanov *et al.*, 2017).

#### 2.2.2. Les neurones de second ordre

Historiquement, le LH et VMH étaient respectivement considérés comme le centre de la faim et de la satiété. Ce modèle s'est rapidement avéré trop simple et les études récentes s'accordent plutôt sur le recrutement de différents réseaux, impliquant différents types cellulaires à travers plusieurs noyaux hypothalamiques, modulant le comportement de prise alimentaire.

Les premières études ont caractérisé le PVH comme ayant un rôle dans la balance énergétique et présentant de nombreuses projections sur le tronc cérébral (Sawchenko & Swanson, 1982). Depuis, son rôle anorexigène a pu être observé, notamment dans le cadre de l'haplo-insuffisance de Sim1, un facteur de transcription requis pour le développement du PVH, qui induit une obésité hyperphagique (Michaud *et al.*, 1998; Holder *et al.*, 2000). De plus, il reçoit une grande quantité d'afférences du NA impliquant le système mélanocortinergique et tout particulièrement le MCR-4. Une étude a montré que la signalisation MCR-4, uniquement dans les neurones glutamatergiques, était suffisante pour le maintien de la prise alimentaire (Xu *et al.*,



2013). Bien que ces neurones soient majoritaires, il existe variété de une neurones endocrines incluant, de manière exhaustive, non les neurones exprimant l'oxytocine (OXT), la vasopressine (AVP), la corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) ou la thyrotropin-releasing

Figure 7 Illustration de la connectivité du réseau entre les noyaux paraventriculaire et arqué de l'hypothalamus (Figure extraite de Sohn, 2015)

hormone (TRH) (Schwartz et al., 2000). Des projections de neurones OXT du PVH, détectées dans le NTS, ne semblent pas être impliquées dans un contrôle de la prise alimentaire mais dans la régulation de l'homéostasie énergétique (Sutton et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2012). A l'inverse, des études ont suggéré que les neurones TRH possèdent des projections excitatrices sur les neurones NPY/AgRP, qui induiraient un effet orexigène (Figure 7; Tiesjema et al., 2007; Krashes et al., 2014; Sohn, 2015). En revanche, la signalisation NPY dans le PVH module les efférences sympathiques et l'activité métabolique du BAT (Shi et al., 2013). Il est aussi important de rappeler que la moitié des terminaisons synaptiques du PVH sont GABAergiques (Decavel & Pol, 1990; Johnson et al., 2018). La présence d'interneurones GABA permettrait une modulation héterosynaptique dans le PVH et bien qu'ils soient impliqués dans la régulation de l'axe HPA (hypothalamo-hypophyso-surrénalien), leur rôle dans la prise alimentaire reste indéterminé (Cole & Sawchenko, 2002). Une étude plus récentes a également montré que l'inhibition de neurones du PVH exprimant TrkB (Tropomyosin receptor kinase B) et projetant sur le VMH, provoque une augmentation de la prise alimentaire (An et al., 2020). Cette observation suggère alors une interconnexion entre les noyaux hypothalamiques capables de moduler la prise alimentaire.

Initialement, les études de lésion du VMH l'ont défini comme le centre de la satiété (Shimizu et al., 1987). Dans la continuité des résultats précédemment décrits, l'activation de la signalisation TrkB par le BDNF (Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor) а aussi été impliquée dans des effets anorexigènes et un rôle modulateur de dépense énergétique du VMH (Wang et al., 2007; 2010). Une grande partie de la littérature s'intéressant au VMH a pu mettre en évidence son rôle dans l'homéostasie énergétique. en particulier celui du glucose (Figure 8). De ce fait, une grande hétérogénéité neuronale glutamatergique a pu y être associée que ce soit des neurones glucosensibles inhibés (GI) ou activés



l'hypothalamus ventro-médian dans la régulation du glucose périphérique (Figure extraite de Shimazu & Minokoshi 2017)

(GE) par le glucose, ceux exprimant SF1 (steroidogenic factor 1) ou ceux particulièrement sensibles à la leptine et l'insuline (Klöckener *et al.*, 2011; Lindberg *et al.*, 2013; Shimazu & Minokoshi, 2017; Fioramonti *et al.*, 2017). Quoi qu'il en soit, le VMH reçoit aussi des projections nerveuses des NPY/AgRP et POMC/CART du NA qui moduleraient les fonctions homéostatiques par une signalisation BDNF dépendante (Guan et al., 1998; Xu et al., 2003). Il reste important de noter l'existence d'un dimorphisme sexuel particulièrement visible dans cette structure (Yang et al., 2013).

Le DMH était considéré comme un noyau orexigène depuis que des études de lésion de cette structure ont mis en évidence une diminution de la prise alimentaire et du poids corporel (Bellinger & Bernardis, 2002). Au sein de cette structure, la présence de neurones spécifiquement impliqués dans la prise alimentaire n'a pas été identifiée. Cependant, elle comprend un réseau GABAergique sensible à la leptine et au glucose contactant les neurones NPY/AgRP du NA, le PVH et la VMH. Tandis que leur

activation provoquerait un effet anorexigène par l'inhibition du PVH, il agirait par la même occasion comme boucle de rétrocontrôle en inhibant les neurones NPY/AgRP (Otgon-Uul *et al.*, 2016; Garfield *et al.*, 2016). Néanmoins la signalisation NPY semble être capitale pour les effets orexigènes du DMH puisqu'une surexpression du peptide dans la structure augmente la prise alimentaire et exacerbe l'obésité induite par un régime riche en gras chez des animaux sains (Yang *et al.*, 2009). L'implication du DMS a aussi été suggéré concernant les effets orexigènes de la ghréline (Hyland *et al.*, 2020).

Pour clore la présentation des noyaux hypothalamiques impliqués dans la prise alimentaire, je présenterai le LH connu comme « le centre de la faim » (Anand & Brobeck, 1951). Il est majoritairement GABAergique mais se distingue par la présence de neurones glutamatergiques exprimant certains peptides tels que les neurones à MCH (melanin concentrating hormone), HCRT/ORX (hypocretine/orexine) ou Nts (neurotensine) (Schwartz et al., 2000 ; Brown et al., 2015). Des études d'optogénétique ont montré que l'activation des neurones GABA du LH produisait un appétit vorace, alors qu'à l'inverse l'activation des neurones glutamatergiques réduisait la prise alimentaire chez des souris à jeun (Jennings et al., 2013, 2015). De plus, alors que l'inactivation génétique de l'expression de MCH et ORX induit un phénotype hypophagique chez des souris, le retrait du récepteur à la Nts (NTR1) déclenche l'effet opposé (Kim et al., 2008; Woodworth et al., 2017). Il semblerait que les neurones MCH agissent davantage sur le contrôle des dépenses énergétiques en stimulant l'adiposité, la lipogenèse dans le foie et le tissu adipeux tout en diminuant la thermogenèse (Oldfield et al., 2002; Jiang & Brüning, 2018). Enfin, la variété neuronale et fonctionnelle du LH s'associe à un nombre important d'efférences et d'afférences aussi bien intra-hypothalamiques qu'extra-hypothalamiques (NTS et le système mésolimbique). Il jouerait alors un rôle de relais de l'intégration intéroceptive et extéroceptive (Berthoud & Münzberg, 2011; Bonnavion et al., 2016), notamment avec l'ATV et le NAc qui seront discutés dans la seconde partie de cette thèse.

Finalement, nous avons pu constater dans cette partie que, contrairement aux études pionnières qui ont attribué des fonctions uniques aux différents noyaux hypothalamiques, des études plus récentes tendent à confirmer la présence de réseaux de neurones au sein des différentes sous structures pouvant moduler, de manière bidirectionnelle, les comportements associés à la prise alimentaire. Cette première sous partie m'a permis d'exposer qu'une quantité colossale de signaux énergétiques, directement associés au statut nutritionnel de l'organisme, est intégrée au niveau central par l'hypothalamus et le DVC. Cette intégration, permise par une importante hétérogénéité cellulaire, forme un réseau neuronal complexe entre ces différentes structures. D'un point de vue fonctionnel, tandis que le DVC permet l'import des informations périphériques métaboliques, l'hypothalamus contrôle l'adaptation de ces variables en vue d'une homéostasie énergétique. Cette adaptation dépendrait, au moins en partie, de changements de l'activité consommatoire qui s'articulerait autour du circuit mélanocortinergique. Ce système permettrait de recruter ou d'inactiver les différents réseaux présents au sein de l'hypothalamus. Par la suite, la convergence des informations aura lieu dans la partie latérale de cette structure, considérée comme un noyau conduisant à l'expression comportementale de la prise alimentaire (Figure 9).





Cependant, il faut garder à l'esprit que, bien que les circuits et molécules précédemment cités soient centraux dans l'homéostasie énergétique, ceux-ci ne définissent pas le comportement de prise alimentaire dans son ensemble. Des réseaux extrahypothalamiques vont également influer sur la prise alimentaire et bien que ces réseaux soient également sensibles signaux au intègrerait métaboliques, elle surtout d'autres stimuli permettant un contrôle non énergétique ou « cognitif » du comportement de prise alimentaire.

# II. Composantes sensorielles et cognitives du contrôle de la prise alimentaire

La décision de quoi manger, quand, où, pourquoi et comment n'est pas obligatoirement dépendante de stimuli nutritifs ou d'un changement du statut énergétique. En effet, même en état de satiété, la représentation mentale d'aliments appréciés peut déclencher des réflexes de salivation et borborygmes ou inversement un réflexe vomitif lors du dégout, influençant alors l'envie de consommer un aliment ou non. Ce sont des facteurs contextuels impliquant l'expérience, les émotions ou la sensorialité qui seraient mis en jeu. Dans ce cas, il existerait un équilibre de certaines fonctions cognitives (mémoire, émotion, prise de décision), impliquant des réseaux spécifiques, capables de moduler la prise alimentaire.

#### 1. Le système olfactif et gustatif

Les systèmes olfactif et gustatif sont les deux premiers circuits recrutés lors de la présentation de nourriture. Ils sont impliqués à la fois dans une dimension cognitive mais aussi énergétique du contrôle de la prise alimentaire. Pendant la phase préprandiale (anticipatoire) et consommatoire, le comportement de prise alimentaire sera modulé par des facteurs de goût, d'odeur et de texture des aliments. Elle est déclenchée si les aliments sont palatables alors qu'elle peut s'arrêter très vite si la sensation est désagréable. Ce phénomène se définit comme un appétit spécifique de la perception sensorielle (Boesveldt & de Graaf, 2017). Ces modulations sont en partie permises par le système olfactif ayant la capacité de réunir et d'intégrer simultanément des informations provenant de stimuli externes comme internes. Il est composé d'un épithélium regroupant des neurones olfactifs (NO) projetant sur les bulbes olfactifs composés des cellules mitrales (MC) et des cellules glomérulaires (tufted cell, TC). L'association d'une odeur à son récepteur olfactif (un seul type de récepteur par neurone) exprimée par les NO va être transduite en un signal électrique qui sera transmis aux bulbes et à ses cibles (hypothalamus, hippocampe, amygdale, cortex olfactif, pyriforme (CP) et préfrontal (PFC) qui vont intégrer les informations olfactives et générer des processus cognitifs orientés ou non vers la prise alimentaire (Figure 10; Palouzier-Paulignan et al., 2012; Julliard et al., 2017).



Figure 10 : Sensibilité des bulbes olfactifs aux signaux homéostatiques périphériques (Figure extraite et adaptée de Palouzier-Paulignan et al., 2012 ; Julliard et al., 2017)

Concernant la perception olfactive on retrouve une certaine dépendance du système dopaminergique, la dopamine étant la seule cathecholamine présente au sein du bulbe olfactif (Kratskin & 2003). Belluzzi, Les cellules dopaminergiques sont stratégiquement placées à l'entrée du circuit bulbaire permettant sa regulation. Il a été montré qu'une déplétion en dopamine dans les bulbes ou l'antagonisation des récepteurs D2 de la dopamine (D2R) altère la discrimination des odeurs chez la souris et modifie la plasticité et la neurogénèse au sein de la structure (Bonzano et al., 2014; Pignatelli & Belluzzi, 2017). Néanmoins, aucune évidence n'a pu impliquer le système dopaminergique au sein des bulbes olfactifs comme modulateur direct de la prise alimentaire. De plus, ce rôle du signal dopaminergique reste local et aucune étude n'a pu étudier ou mettre en évidence l'influence de projections du mésencéphale venant dopaminergique. Des études récentes impliqueraient plutôt les endocannabinoïdes, qui participeraient, via le recepteur CB1, à une désinhibition des afférences corticales arrivant sur les bulbes olfactifs, provoquant ainsi au niveau comportemental une augmentation de l'olfaction et de la prise

alimentaire (Soria-Gómez et al., 2014; Terral et al., 2020).

D'une autre manière, il a pu être montré chez la souris qu'une ablation des NO matures permettait de prévenir une obésité induite par un régime riche en gras associée à une augmentation de la thermogenèse (tissu adipeux brun) et à une diminution de la masse grasse et de la résistance à l'insuline (Riera *et al.*, 2017). Plusieurs études suggèrent l'existence d'une boucle fonctionnelle entre l'hypothalamus et les bulbes olfactifs qui expliquerait une modulation de l'olfaction en fonction de la balance énergétique et vice-versa. En particulier les neurones glutamatergiques pyramidaux du CP ont un rôle anorexigène et ce en parallèle de projections sur l'hypothalamus qui mettraient notamment en jeu le LH et les neurones ORX (Gietzen & Magrum, 2001; Hahn & Swanson, 2012; Gascuel *et al.*, 2012). Néanmoins, une certaine connectivité entre le CP et le striatum a également pu être identifiée, ces fibres étant capables de moduler bi-directionnellement les *medium spiny neurons* (MSNs), la population neuronale majoritaire au sein du striatum qui sera présentée par la suite (White *et al.*, 2019).

L'importance du système olfactif dans l'homéostasie énergétique s'illustre, de la même manière que les autres systèmes précédemment présentés, par une grande concentration de capillaires sanguins possédant des propriétés spécifiques (Beiersdorfer *et al.*, 2020), par un haut niveau d'expression des récepteurs aux hormones homéostatiques (insuline, leptine, ghréline...) et par la présence d'une signalisation gluco-sensible modulant la prise alimentaire (Al Koborssy *et al.*, 2014). En outre, des neurones glutamatergiques exprimant les précurseurs de GLP-1 sont capables de réguler les rythmes d'excitation/inhibition des cellules MC/TC, leur activation optogénétique permettant de générer une nouvelle carte synaptique régulant l'olfaction (Thiebaud *et al.*, 2019). Ces observations renforcent d'autant plus l'idée que la perception sensorielle puisse être influencée par l'état homéostatique et inversement, suggérant que les bulbes olfactifs constitueraient une interface entre la cognition et l'homéostasie énergétique dans le contexte de la prise alimentaire (Palouzier-Paulignan *et al.*, 2012).

Une fois que l'aliment désiré est découvert et disponible, c'est l'exploration orale qui va permettre le maintien ou l'arrêt de la consommation. De façon similaire, le système gustatif se trouve à la frontière entre un contrôle de l'homéostasie énergétique et cognitive. Ce système inclut la perception du gout par les cellules réceptrices gustatives (TRC) mais aussi de la température et de la texture au niveau lingual. Ces informations vont transiter via le nerf facial et glossopharyngien jusqu'au NTS et PBN (Figure 11, *Neuroscience, 3rd ed*, 2004).



Figure 11 : Le circuit de la gustation (Figure extraite et adaptée du livre Neuroscience, 3rd ed, 2004).

Il devient alors évident que la sensibilité orosensorielle va influer sur l'équilibre énergétique et vice versa. Une étude génomiques chez l'homme a décelé la présence de certains variants du gène codant pour les récepteurs au gout (TAS2R) qui sont associés à une altération d'homéostasie du glucose et de l'insuline (Dotson *et al.*, 2008). La délétion de ce récepteur de manière ubiquitaire chez la souris entraine un phénotype hyperphagique, des altérations métaboliques et une plus grande sensibilité à l'obésité induite par un régime riche en graisse (Smith et al., 2016).

Néanmoins, le NTS et le PBN ne restent que des noyaux relais, et une grande partie des informations gustatives vont être intégrées au niveau du cortex gustatif. Celui-ci comprend notamment l'insula (site primaire) et le cortex orbito-frontal (OFC ; site secondaire), qui semblent altérés dans le cadre de TCA (Frank et al., 2013 ; 2016). En particulier, l'insula présente une certaine organisation anatomique. La partie antérieure reçoit principalement les informations sensorielles gustatives alors que la partie dorsale traite des informations viscérales suggérant une sensibilité accrue aux stimuli alimentaires (Wang et al., 2007; Small, 2012). De plus, plusieurs études chez l'homme ont pu caractériser une latéralisation de l'insula en lien avec la prise alimentaire. Les neurones de l'insula de l'hémisphère droit sont connectés avec l'hypothalamus du même hémisphère et semblent particulièrement actifs à satiété, alors que la connectivité des deux structures au sein de l'hémisphère gauche ne présente pas de changement (Craig, 2005; Frank et al., 2013; Wright et al., 2016). Plus récemment, une étude chez l'animal a pu corroborer cette hypothèse, l'activation optogénétique de neurones CamKII (Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase type II) de l'insula droit projetant sur l'hypothalamus déclenche une diminution de la prise alimentaire à l'inverse de ceux de l'hémisphère gauche, qui restent sans effets sur celle-ci (Wu et al., 2020).

De manière consistante avec l'idée d'une inhibition de la prise alimentaire, une étude d'imagerie fonctionnelle a également associé une inhibition comportementale, lors de la présentation d'images de nourriture durant une tâche de GO/NO-GO, dépendante de l'activation de l'insula, du striatum et du cortex cingulaire. En outre, cette inhibition comportementale serait négativement corrélée avec la masse corporelle des individus, ce qui impliquerait alors un déséquilibre de la connectivité et de l'activation des trois structures citées précédemment (He *et al.*, 2019). Par ailleurs, l'interconnexion entre l'insula et l'amygdale aurait été également impliquée dans une prise alimentaire compulsive (Spierling *et al.*, 2020; Zhang-Molina *et al.*, 2020). Une autre étude a pu également corréler une libération de dopamine dans l'insula antérieure, à l'ingestion d'un aliment sucré. Cette modulation de la dopamine semble être coordonnée d'un point de vue temporel et structurel au cours des phases gustatives et post ingestives (Thanarajah *et al.*, 2019). Cette idée renforce néanmoins le rôle d'une signalisation dopaminergique au sein de l'insula dans le contrôle comportemental de la prise alimentaire.
#### 2. Les circuits mnésiques dans la prise alimentaire

L'hippocampe est requis pour la formation de la mémoire et le rappel d'informations factuelles, contextuelles et émotionnelles, qu'elles soient immédiates ou passées. Entre autre, ces informations vont pouvoir être « réactivées » lors de réexposition à des contextes similaires dans le cadre d'une prise de décision, on parle alors d'expérience (Figure 12).



Figure 12 : Rôle de l'hippocampe dans l'intégration et la consolidation des stimuli sensoriels (Figure extraite et adaptée du livre Biological Psychology 6th edition, 2010)

La consommation d'un repas est, au même titre, un évènement qui peut être stocké et évoqué ultérieurement. L'implication de la fonction mnésique dans le contrôle de la prise alimentaire a pu être mise en évidence chez des patients présentant une amnésie rétrograde, ces patients étant capables de consommer plusieurs repas à quelques minutes d'intervalle (Rozin et al., 1998; Higgs et al., 2008). Cette surconsommation étant due à l'absence de souvenir du repas précédant, permettant de déclencher des signaux satiétogènes (Brunstrom et al., 2012). Plus précisément, des lésions hippocampiques chez l'animal ont montré que bien qu'ils soient toujours capable d'un apprentissage pavlovien (son A prédit l'apparition de nourriture, induisant une recherche de nourriture à l'inverse du son B), l'ajout d'un nouveau stimulus (lumière X + son A prédisent la nourriture) ne sera jamais associé par lui seul à l'apparition d'une récompense alimentaire (Holland & Bouton, 1999). De la même manière, d'autres études ont montré qu'une inactivation de l'hippocampe immédiatement après consommation d'un repas (rat conditionné à consommer une solution de sucrose chaque jour à différente heures définies) induit une diminution de la latence du prochain repas et une augmentation de la taille de celui-ci suggérant la mise en place d'une mémoire de la phase ingestive dépendante de l'hippocampe (Henderson *et al.*, 2013). Cependant, lors d'une lésion complète de l'hippocampe, il reste difficile d'impliquer certaines fonctions cognitives hippocampiques à des modifications de la prise alimentaire, dont les altérations sont trop délétères pour une évaluation comportementale précise (altération de l'intégration des informations sensorielles, de la consolidation de la mémoire ou du rappel d'information).

En revanche, des données cellulaires et anatomiques sous-tendent la présence d'un réseau spécifique associant la prise alimentaire et les fonctions mnésiques au sein de l'hippocampe. Tout d'abord, on retrouve une ségrégation anatomique entre les informations extéroceptives (visuospatiales et olfactives) ou intéroceptives (viscérales) qui sont respectivement intégrées au niveau de l'hippocampe dorsal et ventral. Dans le cadre de la prise alimentaire, l'information visuo-spatiale va transiter par l'hippocampe dorsal impliquant des neurones pyramidaux glutamatergiques, des interneurones GABAergiques dopaminoceptifs. Il faut savoir qu'environ 18% des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV contactent l'hippocampe dorsal, ceux préférentiellement sur la sous-région CA1, dont le rôle dans l'orientation spatiale, l'apprentissage aversif n'est plus à démontrer (Broussard et al., 2016; Moser et al., 2017). On retrouve, dans cette même zone, une forte expression des récepteurs de la dopamine D1 (D1R) ou D2 (D2R) voire même les deux sur les interneurones GABAergiques (Gangarossa et al., 2012; Puighermanal et al., 2015, 2017). Les neurones exprimant le D2R, particulièrement actifs suite à la prise alimentaire (comparativement à des animaux sous restriction alimentaire), sont responsables d'une diminution de la prise alimentaire lors de leur activation par pharmacogénétique, impliquant une certaine connectivité avec le septum qui contacte à son tour le striatum ventral et l'hypothalamus (Sweeney & Yang, 2015; Sweeney et al., 2017; Azevedo et *al.*, 2019, 2020).

Concernant l'hippocampe ventral, celui-ci reçoit des projections provenant du NTS, qui participeraient à l'effet satiétogène et possède des projections glutamatergiques contactant certaines sous-régions du LH (Hahn & Swanson, 2012; Hsu *et al.*, 2015). Bien qu'il n'y ait aucune démonstration directe du rôle de ces projections dans le contrôle alimentaire, leur sensibilité à des changements métaboliques a pu être établie (Kelley et al., 2019). En revanche plusieurs études ont pu mettre en évidence que l'hippocampe contacte le septum latéral, bien connu pour relayer les informations

hippocampiques vers l'hypothalamus et/ou l'ATV. En l'occurrence, une modulation de l'activité des projections GABAergique ou glutamatergique du septum sur le LH, est suffisante pour induire des effets sur la consommation (Sartor & Aston-Jones, 2012; Betley *et al.*, 2013; Sweeney & Yang, 2015). L'hippocampe ventral se démarque aussi par une sensibilité hormonale. Des études démontrent que les récepteurs aux signaux endocrines présents stimulent (ghréline) ou inhibent (leptine et GPL1) la prise alimentaire (Kanoski *et al.*, 2011, 2013; Hsu *et al.*, 2015). Finalement, le comportement alimentaire peut être influencé par des fonctions mnésiques dépendantes de l'hippocampe qui trouvent leurs origines dans une variété de stimuli. Bien que les parties ventrale et dorsale reçoivent différents type d'afférences, celles-ci semblent capables de moduler la prise alimentaire à travers leurs connexions vers le mésencéphale dopaminergique et l'hypothalamus.

#### 3. La valence émotionnelle dans la prise alimentaire : le circuit amygdalien

Le contexte émotionnel est également déterminant pour la mise en place des comportements alimentaires. Celui-ci peut être aussi bien positif (plaisir) que négatif (peur, anxiété, stress). Par exemple, un animal orientera sa recherche de nourriture vers une zone sans prédateurs, sans éléments stressants (valence positive) plutôt qu'avec (valence négative). Pourtant, une étude épidémiologique a montré que l'homme, dans un contexte émotionnel négatif, semble aussi bien réguler positivement que négativement sa prise alimentaire (Macht, 2008). L'amygdale est une structure impliquée dans les réactions émotionnelles et plus particulièrement dans l'encodage des processus de peur et d'anxiété (LeDoux, 2007). Son rôle dans la prise alimentaire reste débattu, certaines manipulations visant à l'endommager déclenchent une préférence pour un régime riche en gras et sucre, induisant un phénotype obésogène chez l'animal; alors que d'autres études démontrent une diminution de la prise alimentaire (Box & Mogenson, 1975; King et al., 2003). De la même manière que pour l'hippocampe, une étude d'imagerie fonctionnelle a montré que des stimuli visuels alimentaires induisaient une augmentation du signal dans l'amygdale chez des individus à jeun (LaBar et al., 2001). Ces données suggèrent l'existence d'un circuit capable de moduler de manière bidirectionnelle la prise alimentaire.

Le noyau basolatéral (BLA) et le noyau central (CeA) de l'amygdale sont deux possèdent sous-régions qui des connexions réciproques avec la plupart du système limbique et certains noyaux clés de la balance énergétique incluant le NTS, l'hypothalamus, le NAc, l'ATV, l'hippocampe pour n'en citer que quelques-uns (Price 2003). Néanmoins, seul le CeA participe à la mise en place d'un conditionnement aversif à la nourriture et à l'encodage de la valence



Figure 13 : Circuit insula-amygdale dans la prise alimentaire (Figure extraite de Zhang-Molina et al., 2020)

négative (Petrovich et al., 2009). Certaines populations du CeA possèdent des propriétés anorexigènes et orexigènes. Les neurones CeA-Htr2a (exprimant le récepteur à la sérotonine 2 a) augmentent leur activité au cours de la consommation et leur activation optogénétique stimule la prise alimentaire via des projections à longue distance sur le PBN (Douglass et al., 2017). A l'inverse, les neurones CeA-PKC $\delta$  (exprimant la phospho-kinase C  $\delta$ ) semblent inhiber la prise alimentaire via l'inhibition locale des autres neurones du CeA (Cai et al., 2014). Le caractère modulateur du CeA serait alors médié par de multiples afférences. L'équipe de H. Cai propose alors que les connexions insula/amygdale déclenchant un effet anorexigène, feraient intervenir ces deux types neuronaux. Pourtant des données d'électrophysiologie ne permettent pas de mettre en évidence de spécificité particulière de ces deux réseaux (Figure 13 ; Zhang-Molina et al., 2020). Ces résultats sont le présage d'un circuit amygdalien plus complexe dans le contrôle de la prise alimentaire. La présence d'un réseau spécifique de la prise alimentaire capable d'outrepasser les manifestations comportementales du conditionnement de peur n'a jamais pu être caractérisée (Rossi & Stuber, 2018).

Le BLA est, quant à lui, le noyau qui va déchiffrer la valeur d'un événement en encodant les stimuli prédisant une récompense aversive ou appétitive (Petrovich *et al.*, 2002; Burgess *et al.*, 2018). Plus particulièrement, les projections du BLA vers le striatum ventral, représentant la majeure partie des efférences du BLA, encodent la valence positive alors que les connexions BLA/CeA encodent la valence négative

(Beyeler *et al.*, 2016). Les projections dopaminergiques venant du système mésolimbique contribuent à la formation de la mémoire de peur en encodant la valence d'un événement aversif (Tang *et al.*, 2020). De la même manière que pour l'hippocampe, une réactivité des neurones du BLA à la présentation de la récompense alimentaire ferait intervenir le système dopaminergique. Une libération de dopamine dans le BLA a pu être observée à l'ingestion de milkshake ou lors de stimuli prédisant une récompense alimentaire chez l'homme, cette réponse étant également présente chez l'animal et même amplifiée dans des conditions de privation alimentaire (Lutas *et al.*, 2019; Thanarajah *et al.*, 2019). De plus, il a été observé que la signalisation GLP-1 provenant des afférences du NTS, déjà évoquées pour leur rôle anorexigène, déclenche un renouvellement de la dopamine et des changements des signaux dopaminergiques dans le BLA. Ce serait l'activation du récepteur de la dopamine D2 qui serait nécessaire et suffisant pour moduler la prise alimentaire (Anderberg *et al.*, 2014).

#### 4. Le contrôle cortical du comportement ingestif

Le cortex préfrontal (PFC) est connu pour son rôle majeur dans l'établissement d'un comportement dirigé vers un but. Ce terme définit la relation entre une action et l'obtention d'une récompense dans une situation donnée. Bien qu'il regroupe un bon nombre de sous-processus distincts, incluant l'hédonie ou la motivation, dépendantes d'autres structures qui seront traitées par la suite ; le rôle du PFC est majeur concernant la prise de décision et la représentation des conséquences de l'action. Le PFC se caractérise par un contrôle inhibiteur (top-down inhibition) sur le comportement en général qui, lors de son arrêt, entraine une frénésie, un comportement impulsif et compulsif particulièrement observable dans les troubles neuropsychiatriques (Sakagami et al., 2006). Ce rôle dominant est notamment dû à son interconnexion avec les autres structures limbiques et corticales, lui permettant alors d'intégrer les variables mnésiques, émotionnelles, énergétiques et sensorielles permettant la prise de décision (Figure 14 ; Euston et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2016). Ce rôle a notamment pu être caractérisé lors de lésions ou d'inactivation du PFC qui entrainent aussi bien chez la souris que chez l'homme, une diminution de la prise de décision avantageuse lors de tâches impliquant une notion de choix (de Visser et al., 2011; Paine et al., 2015; Zeeb et al., 2015).



Figure 14 : Le PFC, un centre majeur de l'intégration de l'information (Figure extraite de Euston et al., 2012)

De nos jours, l'accès rapide et facile à une nourriture hypercalorique, sans dépense énergétique préalable représente une situation qui biaise la décision de consommer ou non un aliment. Ce processus est donc une étape cruciale au cours de la prise alimentaire et le rôle du PFC va être déterminant dans l'établissement de certains TCA (Morris et al., 2014). En accord avec cette hypothèse, des études cliniques ont pu caractériser son rôle vis-à-vis du comportement alimentaire. D'une part, un comportement hyperphagique a pu être mis en évidence lors de démences frontotemporales caractérisées par une atrophie du PFC (Ikeda et al., 2002; Piguet et al., 2011). D'autre part, une corrélation entre l'activation asymétrique de cette structure et l'obésité suggère un rôle inhibiteur du PFC sur le comportement alimentaire. Cependant cette modulation ne semble pas unidirectionnelle puisque l'AN dont le phénotype majeur est une diminution de la prise alimentaire, se caractérise également par un rythme d'activité aberrant du PFC (Ochner et al., 2009; Canna et al., 2017). Des études précliniques de lésion du PFC corroborent ces observations et révèlent des variations aussi bien positives que négatives de la prise alimentaire (Wolf-Jurewicz, 1982; Uher & Treasure, 2005; Davidson et al., 2009).

Au niveau neurobiologique, de la même manière que la plupart des régions corticales, le PFC comprend des interneurones GABAergiques qui établissent un contact synaptique avec les neurones pyramidaux glutamatergiques des couches II/III. Ces interneurones ont pu être classifiés comme positifs à la parvalbumine, somatostatine ou encore à la CCK (Pinto & Dan, 2015). En particulier, la signalisation GABAergique semble particulièrement touchée dans le cadre de régimes obésogènes (Thompson et al., 2017; Reichelt et al., 2019). Plus récemment, une spécification des systèmes dopaminoceptifs au sein du PFC, qui est une cible majeure du système mésolimbique, semble contribuer à moduler la prise alimentaire. R. Di Leone et son équipe ont mis



Figure 15 : Mécanisme cellulaire d'inhibition dépendant des endocannabinoïdes et des opioïdes (Figure extraite de Lau & Vaughan, 2014)

en évidence le recrutement spécifique de neurones exprimant le récepteur de la dopamine D1 du PFC médian (mPFC) durant la prise alimentaire. Ces neurones ainsi que leurs afférences sur le BLA sont responsables d'effets anorexigènes lors de leur activation et inversement lors de leur inhibition optogénétique (Land et al., 2014). D'autre part, la partie ventro-médiane du PFC (vmPFC) dont l'activité est augmentée durant un jeûne, est plus particulièrement impliquée dans la réactivité aux stimuli alimentaires (Petrovich et al., 2007; Kringelbach & Berridge, 2009; Goldstone et al., 2009). En lien avec cette structure, une étude de B.A Baldo a observé une augmentation de la consommation de nourriture lors de la stimulation des récepteurs μ aux opioïdes (μ-OR), que les animaux soient affamés ou non (Mena *et al.*, 2011). Ces effets s'opposent aux injections de muscimol (agoniste des récepteurs GABAa) ou CNQX (antagoniste des récepteurs AMPA) qui augmentent la latence entre les différentes prises alimentaires (Baldo et al., 2016). Ces résultats suggèrent alors un rôle désinhibiteur des opioïdes sur les interneurones GABAergiques, induisant une potentialisation des neurones efférents qui moduleront la prise alimentaire. Ce modèle cyto-architectural impliquant les opioïdes a de la même manière pu être mis en évidence dans d'autres fonctions comme la mémoire, la douleur ou l'hédonie (Figure 15; McQuiston & Saggau, 2003; Lau & Vaughan, 2014; Jiang et al., 2019).

Au terme de cette seconde partie, nous avons pu déterminer qu'il existe une régulation complexe de la prise alimentaire associant différents circuits neuro-anatomiques. L'hypothalamus et le NTS intègrent surtout les signaux hormonaux et nutritionnels circulants de faim et de satiété, déterminant le comportement de prise alimentaire en vue de maintenir une homéostasie énergétique. En parallèle, des structures telles que l'insula, l'amygdale et/ou l'hippocampe intègrent principalement des signaux externes perceptifs nécessaire pour la mise en place de processus cognitifs (mémoire, émotion), qui dans le cadre de la prise alimentaire, peuvent influer sur la faim et la satiété en vue de satisfaire des « besoins non homéostatiques » définis par ces structures. Par ailleurs, les circuits impliqués dans l'équilibre du statut énergétique ou cognitif sont fortement interconnectés les uns aux autres, et autant les substrats que les effecteurs de l'un restent influencés par les substrats et effecteurs de l'autre. Cependant, il serait tentant de proposer que ces deux circuits soient intégrés, et contrôlés par un troisième circuit qui permettrait un contrôle bidirectionnel du comportement de prise alimentaire (Figure 16). Au vue d'une forte dépendance des signaux dopaminergiques dans la modulation de la prise alimentaire, le système mésolimbique s'illustrerait comme principal coordinateur et modulateur dirigeant alors le comportement consommatoire.



Figure 16 : Circuit hypothétique du contrôle comportemental de la prise alimentaire : de l'intégration des stimuli jusqu'à l'expression d'un comportement consommatoire

# III. Le circuit mésolimbique : à l'interface entre cognition et prise alimentaire

Comme j'ai pu le présenter, la plupart des processus cognitifs impliqués dans la modulation du comportement alimentaire ne dépendent pas directement de l'hypothalamus mais surtout d'autres structures cérébrales telles que l'hippocampe, l'amygdale ou certaines régions corticales. Cette observation sous-tend qu'à lui seul, l'hypothalamus n'est pas responsable de l'expression du comportement de prise alimentaire dans son intégralité mais agirait plutôt comme modulateur majeur d'un circuit intégrant de multiples informations et permettant l'expression - ou non - d'un comportement ingestif. De plus, elle soulève la guestion de l'existence de réseaux extra-hypothalamiques spécifiquement impliqués dans la mise en place du comportement de prise alimentaire. En particulier, le circuit des boucles des ganglions de la base (cortico-basal ganglia-thalamo-cortical loop; CBGTC loop) est reconnu comme jouant un rôle majeur dans l'exécution des comportements en général. Néanmoins, la mise en évidence d'un contrôle de la prise alimentaire par ce système reste floue. Je vais maintenant vous présenter, de manière générale, les structures composant les ganglions de la base et les différentes boucles responsables de l'expression d'un comportement. Par la suite, je porterai une attention particulière sur l'un des composants majeurs des ganglions de la base : le système mésolimbique et son rôle central dans le contrôle du processus de motivation, mais participant également à l'expression du comportement de prise alimentaire.

#### 1. Le rôle fonctionnel des ganglions de la base

Les ganglions de la base représentent un ensemble de structures interconnectées en boucles regroupant des noyaux d'entrée (intégrant les informations : striatum ventral et dorsal), des noyaux de sortie (substance noire réticulée, globus pallidus), et des noyaux intrinsèques (noyaux sous-thalamique, substance noire compacte, (Figure 17, Ikemoto et al., 2015). Leur organisation fonctionnelle fut initialement formulée dans les années 1980 et basée sur le concept que les aires corticales intègrent les informations (extéroceptives et intéroceptives) et sélectionnent le comportement à adopter en fonction de ces variables. Les signaux neuronaux corticaux sont transmis vers le striatum puis le GPI (globus pallidus interne) et la SN/ATV permettant

l'induction/maintien ou non du comportement. Finalement, ces structures possèdent des projections retournant vers le cortex en passant par le thalamus qui vont permettre l'expression physique du comportement et vont agir comme boucle de rétrocontrôle susceptible de l'adapter. Les boucles CBGTC forment alors une multitude de circuits parallèles contrôlant différentes fonctions (motrice, de motivation, exécutive, émotionnelle) dont l'équilibre va permettre l'initiation, le maintien, ou l'abolition d'un comportement volontaire et dirigé selon la situation. Bien que l'organisation anatomique des réseaux de neurones associés à ces différentes fonctions cognitives soit très similaire, ces diverses fonctions vont dépendre de sousrégions différentes au sein des ganglions de la dorsal vs base (e.g striatum ventral coordination motrice vs motivation (Figure 17)).



Figure 17 : Circuit des ganglions de la base dans la motivation et les comportements moteurs (Figure extraite de Redgrave et al 2010)

Enfin, la dernière particularité de ce système concerne le rétrocontrôle, précédemment cité, qui s'apparente majoritairement à une modulation d'origine dopaminergique sur les différents acteurs des boucles, incluant les régions corticales (voie mésocorticale) et le striatum (voies mésolimbique et nigrostriée). Bien que ces boucles aient été intensivement étudiées, leurs implications dans le comportement alimentaire et leurs liens avec l'hypothalamus et l'homéostasie énergétique restent peu caractérisés. Plusieurs évidences mettent en avant le striatum ventral et la dopamine, connus pour être impliqués dans le contrôle de la motivation, susceptibles d'agir au cours des phases anticipatoires du comportement de prise alimentaire (Ikemoto *et al.*, 2015; Aoki *et al.*, 2019). Dans un premier temps, je vais vous présenter les acteurs des systèmes dopaminergiques associés aux ganglions de la base, et leurs rôles dans la mise en place d'un comportement défini comme « motivé ». Je porterai une attention particulière sur le striatum ventral et ses populations neuronales impliquées dans le model du « GO – NO GO » comportemental, modèle le plus classiquement considéré pour caractériser le processus de motivation.

#### 2. Le système mésolimbique dopaminergique : le circuit de la récompense

#### 2.1. Composante motivationnelle d'un comportement dirigé vers un but

Au cours du dernier siècle, un nombre important de définitions, visant à caractériser le processus de motivation, a émergé (Berridge, 2004; Studer & Knecht, 2016). A l'origine, le mot « motivation » vient du Latin « *movere* » signifiant « bouger » et qui décrit la motivation comme étant le mouvement actif d'un organisme en réponse à un stimulus (Strombach *et al.*, 2016). Découlant de cette origine, beaucoup de comportementalistes ont caractérisé la motivation comme une force qui active et alimente un comportement dirigé vers un but (Kleinginna & Kleinginna, 1981). Aujourd'hui, la base de nombreux modèles de la motivation en psychologie et neurosciences s'imprègne des recherches de B.F. Skinner, inventeur du conditionnement opérant. Celui-ci a pour but d'évaluer chez un individu, la perception d'un environnement simple, d'une action volontaire associée à celui-ci et des conséquences de cette action (comportement dirigé vers un but). La mise en place d'un comportement dirigé vers un but va alors dépendre de différentes modalités incluant la motivation (Figure 18)



#### **Goal directed behaviors**

Figure 18 : Représentation schématique des différents processus impliqués dans le comportement dirigé vers un but. Lors de l'obtention d'une récompense définie comme plaisante, les différents marqueurs associés à cette récompense vont être intégrés par un individu. De ce fait, lorsque l'individu sera à nouveau exposé à ces mêmes stimuli, un comportement d'approche et d'anticipation vis-à-vis de cette récompense sera mis en place pouvant même déclencher un effort intense (motivation) dans le but de l'obtenir. Ces differents aspects comportementaux vont être dans certain cas fortement dépendants d'une modulation dopaminergique (Orange : fortement dépendant des signaux dopaminergiques; Bleu : partiellement dépendant des signaux dopaminergiques.

Le conditionnement opérant est le principal modèle expérimental encore majoritairement utilisé de nos jours, qui sous certaines conditions expérimentales (progressive ratio, tâche concurrente) permet d'évaluer la dimension motivationnelle d'un comportement dirigé vers un but (Skinner, 1938). Les recherches de B.F Skinner défendent la théorie selon laquelle le principal but de l'organisme est de maintenir une homéostasie par le biais d'une recherche de récompense et d'évitement des punitions (Skinner, 1954). Apparaît alors la notion de « force » qui pousse l'organisme à adopter certains comportements permettant de maintenir un état d'éveil (« arousal ») déclenché par un besoin physiologique ou biologique (« The arousal theory of motivation ») (Hull, 1943; Keller, 1981). Cependant, les besoins physiologiques ne sont pas les seules « forces » de la motivation. Par exemple, la motivation pour un but non physiologique (comme l'argent, « learned motives ») s'oppose à la motivation pour un but physiologique (comme la reproduction, la nourriture, « inherent motives ») (Skinner, 1954). Celle-ci n'est pas directement centrée sur la survie mais repose plutôt sur des influences d'origines diverses (sociales et culturelles), formées par l'expérience. Plus tard, en contraste avec une définition de la motivation extrinsèque présentée précédemment (agir pour atteindre une récompense dissociable de l'action elle-même), la théorie de la motivation intrinsèque propose que l'action permettant l'obtention d'une récompense soit ou serait, par elle-même récompensante ; c'est le plaisir de causalité qui sous-tend également une notion d'apprentissage (Deci et al., 1999). Dans ce contexte, une récompense sera définie comme tout stimulus, objet, évènement, ou situation qui a le potentiel de déclencher un comportement d'approche de l'organisme dans le but de l'obtenir (Schultz, 2015). Cela nous amène aux études de K. Berridge et son équipe, qui ajoutent une nouvelle dimension à la définition d'un comportement dirigé vers un but (Cofer & Appley, 1964; Berridge & Robinson, 1998). Selon eux, le renforcement est un processus complexe par lequel un stimulus ou un évènement va agir pour renforcer un comportement (activation, orientation et maintien du comportement dirigé vers un but). Ainsi, un comportement dirigé vers une récompense implique plus qu'une « force » définie par K. Berridge comme le « wanting » ou « incentive salience » (motivation), mais également des aspects d'apprentissage (renforcement, représentation l'association de stimuli /action/récompense), et d'hédonie ou « liking » (l'émotion et plaisir ; Figure 19 ; Berridge, 2009).



Le « *wanting* » est décrit comme la manifestation physique associée à la « salience » psychologique qui est attribuée à un stimulus donné. Lorsqu'un objet ou une action évolue d'un statut « neutre » à « désiré » (apprentissage), cela va influencer l'énergie que l'individu est prêt à dépenser pour l'obtenir et implique alors un changement de l'effort requis (Bijleveld *et al.*, 2012; Silvestrini & Gendolla, 2013; Kool *et al.*, 2018). Plus précisément, le « *wanting »* se définit par la quantité, l'intensité et la durée de l'effort que l'organisme doit investir dans le comportement pour obtenir cette récompense (initiation, vigueur et persistance ; Salamone, 1992; Salamone & Correa, 2012; Floresco, 2015).

Le « *liking* », quant à lui, représente la réaction plaisante, l'impact hédonique induit par l'obtention de la récompense. Le terme « hédonie » traduit un plaisir sensoriel aussi bien que d'autres types de plaisirs d'origine cognitive, sociale ou morale. Ce terme s'inscrit de manière plus générale dans la notion de valence émotionnelle qui peut être aussi bien positive (hédonie, désir) que négative (dégout, aversion). Bien que les expériences plaisantes soient souvent différentes les unes des autres et puissent varier d'un individu à un autre, certaines réactions à ces expériences sont extrêmement conservées entre les espèces permettant une analyse objective du plaisir perçu. Par exemple, la réactivité hédonique a été largement corrélée aux expressions oro-faciales qui vont caractériser une expression de dégout ou de plaisir, déclenché selon la valeur hédonique d'une récompense alimentaire et ce, même chez

les nouveau-nés (Figure 20 ; Steiner, 1973; Berridge & Kringelbach, 2015). Un autre indicateur comportemental permettant d'évaluer la réactivité hédonique repose sur les rythmes auxquels un animal va « lécher » une nourriture palatable, rythmes qui sont directement dépendants du plaisir ressenti (Taha & Fields, 2006; Dwyer, 2012). La motivation et l'hédonie sont deux processus distincts, sous le contrôle de différents systèmes neuronaux qui seront présentés par la suite. Néanmoins, ces différents processus restent fortement interdépendants dans la mise en place d'un comportement dirigé vers un but.



Figure 20 : Représentation des structures cérébrales impliquées dans une modulation positive (orange) et négative de l'hédonie (Bleu) ; (Figure extraite et adaptée de Berridge & Kringelbach, 2015)

Finalement, dans le contexte d'un comportement dirigé vers un but, on constate que différentes variables peuvent entrer en jeu pour moduler la motivation, comme le type de récompense : inhérente ou naturelle, ou bien, apprise ou culturelle, voire même, ni l'un ni l'autre dans le cas des drogues d'abus. On retrouve également le type d'effort à fournir ainsi que le nombre et le type de choix potentiels qui s'offrent à l'individu à un instant donné. Bien que la motivation puisse dépendre de différentes modalités, de nombreuses évidences suggèrent que le striatum ventral dopaminoceptif et les structures dopaminergiques sont directement impliqués dans la modulation de cette salience comportementale. Néanmoins de nombreuses études remettent en question l'organisation de ces circuits. Notamment, l'organisation anatomo-fonctionnelle des voies dopaminergique, nigrostriée et mésolimbique a pendant longtemps été présentée de manière similaire, conformément au modèle du GO/NO-GO qui tente de caractériser les réseaux de la motivation. Je vais maintenant vous présenter les structures au cœur de ce modèle.

#### 2.2. Les acteurs des systèmes dopaminergiques

La dopamine fait partie des catécholamines. Elle est présente au niveau périphérique de nombreux processus physiologiques incluant les fonctions modulant cardiovasculaires, sympathiques et rénales, mais c'est surtout pour son rôle neuromodulateur critique de l'apprentissage, la locomotion et la motivation qu'elle est connue (Beaulieu & Gainetdinov, 2011; Berke, 2018). Ce rôle neuro-modulateur s'appuie sur 5 récepteurs dopaminergiques. Ils sont membres de la super-famille des récepteurs couplés à des protéines G (RCPG) et sont classifiés comme « D1-like » (D1R et D5R) ou « D2-like » (D2R, D3R et D4R) en fonction de leurs séquences et propriétés cellulaires (Civelli, 1995; Neve, 2010). La classe « D1-like » est couplée à une protéine Gs/olf excitatrice et la classe « D2-like » à une protéine Gi/o inhibitrice. La modulation dopaminergique intervient généralement via une régulation des transmissions neuronales rapides glutamatergiques et GABAergiques au sein de plusieurs structures (Beaulieu & Gainetdinov, 2011). Le nombre de neurones dopaminergiques s'estime à environ 25 000 chez la souris, jusqu'à 600 000 chez l'homme et se regroupent majoritairement dans le mésencéphale ventral, composé entre autre, de l'ATV (noyau A10) et de la substance noire (SN ; noyau A9 ; Björklund & Dunnett, 2007). Les neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV projettent en particulier sur le striatum ventral (NAc) et le PFC, les neurones de la SN vont eux, projeter majoritairement sur le striatum dorsal (dSTR; Tritsch & Sabatini, 2012). Il faut néanmoins garder à l'esprit, que la dopamine module également, de façon plus minoritaire, l'activité de l'hippocampe, de l'amygdale ou de l'hypothalamus (Figure 21; Swanson, 1982; Björklund & Dunnett, 2007).



Figure 21 : Illustration schématique des différentes voies dopaminergiques (mésolimbique, mésocorticale et nigrostriée) et des voies glutamatergiques et GABAergiques régulant la transmission au sein du circuit de la récompense (Figure extraite et adaptée de Björklund & Dunnett 2007).

Enfin, ces projections forment les principales voies dopaminergiques, à savoir, les voies nigrostriée (SN/dSTR), mésolimbique (ATV/NAc) et mésocorticale (ATV/PFC) décrites jusqu'à maintenant comme régulatrices des comportements moteurs, de motivation vers une récompense et sensori-moteurs respectivement. Les modèles supportant cette ségrégation fonctionnelle sont actuellement remis en cause au sein de la littérature, en particulier pour la voie mésolimbique.

## 2.2.1. Les structures et rôles du mésencéphale dopaminergique dans l'anticipation d'une récompense

La SN fut pour la première fois reconnue en 1786 dans des études sur la neuromélanine et associée à un rôle moteur au début du XX<sup>ème</sup> siècle lorsque son implication dans la maladie de Parkinson fut établie (Parent, 2007; Parent & Parent, 2010). Elle se subdivise en deux parties : la pars reticula (SNr) principalement composée de neurones GABAergiques et la pars compacta (SNc) composée d'un autre type de neurones alors non caractérisé (Olszewski & Baxter, 1954). A partir des années 60, l'avancée des techniques permit l'identification de cette population de neurones comme dopaminergique - exprimant la dopamine - particulièrement absente dans le cadre de la maladie de Parkinson (Ehringer & Hornykiewicz, 1960; Dahlström & Fuxe, 1964; Bazelon *et al.*, 1967). Par ailleurs dans l'ATV, un autre groupe de neurones dopaminergiques fut également mis en évidence à la même période et se révéla être associé à l'addiction et à certains troubles neuropsychiatriques (Phillips & Olds, 1969 ; Fields et al., 2007).

Peu de marqueurs cellulaires distinguent clairement les deux structures, mais les études de traçage identifient que 90 % des neurones dopaminergiques de la SNc projettent sur le dSTR et 65% des neurones de l'ATV projettent sur les structures corticales et le NAc (Dobi *et al.*, 2010; Root *et al.*, 2016). Les neurones dopaminergiques présentent une activité spontanée bien caractérisée qui est décrite comme une séquence continue alternant deux rythmes d'activité. Ils déchargent en permanence à faible fréquence (activité tonique, 1-8 Hz) et vont occasionnellement émettre de brèves bouffées d'activité ou « *bursts* » (activité phasique, >15Hz) (Grace & Bunney, 1984; Berke, 2018). Ce rythme est en partie dû à la présence d'un circuit particulier au sein des deux structures. L'ATV, comparativement à la SN, présente une hétérogénéité neuronale plus importante de par la présence des neurones au GABA

(30%) et au glutamate (5%). Certains neurones les expriment même en association avec la dopamine (Pignatelli & Bonci, 2015; Yoo et al., 2016; Morales & Margolis, 2017). De plus, les neurones GABAs et dopaminergiques possèdent des séquences

d'activation distinctes *in vivo* et leur activation produit des effets comportementaux opposés (Tsai *et al.*, 2009; Cohen *et al.*, 2012; Tan *et al.*, 2012).

En effet, on trouve la composante GABAergique jouant un rôle de circuit local inhibiteur les sur neurones dopaminergiques, mais également la dopamine elle-même, qui va médier un rétrocontrôle inhibiteur local chimique via les récepteurs D2, présents au niveau somatique des neurones (Figure 22 ; Ford, 2014). L'implication de la modulation cholinergique provenant du PPTq (pedunculopontine tegmental nucleus) et du LDTg (laterodorsal tegmental nucleus)



Figure 22 : L'organisation neuronale au sein des noyaux dopaminergiques du mésencéphale (Figure extraite et adaptée de Morello & Partanen, 2015

a également été mise en jeu (Johnson & North, 1992; Grace *et al.*, 2007; Lammel *et al.*, 2012; Watabe-Uchida *et al.*, 2012; Morello & Partanen, 2015). En particulier le LDTg est critique pour maintenir les rythmes d'activités phasique et tonique des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV (Lodge & Grace, 2006; Chen & Lodge, 2013). Le PPTg va, quant à lui, contacter l'ATV par le biais de projections cholinergiques et glutamatergiques, modulant alors l'activité phasique des neurones dopaminergiques (Oakman *et al.*, 1995; Floresco *et al.*, 2003). Enfin, il a été admis que la partie dorsale de la SNc possède des projections horizontales qui seraient dans la continuité de l'ATV alors que la partie ventrale présente une majorité de projections sur la SNr (Phillipson, 1979). Il existe également de nombreuses efférences provenant de structures telles que le striatum, le pallidum ventral (VP), l'hippocampe, l'hypothalamus, l'habenula latérale qui seront discutées plus tard. Bien que le rôle des modulations réciproques entre l'ATV et la SNc reste inconnu, l'ensemble de ces données suggère une certaine interconnexion entre les structures.

En effet, les deux structures présentent plusieurs similarités fonctionnelles. Bien que la SNc et l'ATV agissent respectivement sur le dSTR et le NAc, résultant en une modulation des aspects moteurs/récompensant d'un comportement, ce contrôle opère de manière similaire pour les deux structures. Les toutes premières études in vivo, du système dopaminergique démontrèrent que les neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV et de la SNc répondaient à la présence de récompenses naturelles (nourriture palatable), ou lors de présentation de stimuli associés à une récompense, avec des « bursts » de potentiels d'action associés à une libération de dopamine au niveau du striatum (Ljungberg et al., 1992; Schultz et al., 1993; Eshel et al., 2015). De plus, la forme et l'amplitude de cette réponse varient selon le degré d'anticipation de la récompense, celles dites « inattendues » déclenchant une forte augmentation de la décharge neuronale comparativement aux récompenses dites « attendues » qui ont peu d'effet. A l'inverse, la perte d'une récompense attendue corrèle avec une diminution de la décharge des neurones dopaminergiques, en dessous des niveaux de base (Schultz, 1998; Bromberg-Martin et al., 2010). Ces données suggèrent que les neurones dopaminergiques ne traduisent pas la présence ou l'absence d'une récompense mais plutôt l'écart entre une récompense attendue et une récompense obtenue. Ce processus étant défini comme le « reward prediction error » ou RPE (Figure 23; Montague et al., 1996; Schultz, 1998; Eshel et al., 2016).



Figure 23 : Schéma représentatif des signaux dopaminergique durant l'apprentissage et l'anticipation : « *reward prediction error* » (Figure extraite et adaptée de Bromberg-Martin et al., 2010)

L'une des autres caractéristiques de ce processus est un transfert graduel de la libération de dopamine, initialement concomitante avec la présentation de la récompense, qui va finir par être associée avec la présentation des stimuli prédisant la récompense après plusieurs répétitions. C'est cette observation qui pose les fondements du rôle de la dopamine dans l'apprentissage du renforcement (eg *Palvovian learning*; Figure 23). Le rôle attribué à un signal phasique de la dopamine médié par l'ATV semble néanmoins plus complexe et ne se limite pas uniquement à un renforcement positif. En effet, des études chez l'animal ont montré que l'évitement de stimuli négatifs (choc électrique, lithium) s'accompagne également d'une augmentation de l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques et de la libération phasique de dopamine au niveau du NAc. En revanche, lorsque l'animal se retrouve dans l'impossibilité d'éviter le stimulus négatif, cela se traduit par une diminution de l'activité phasique dopaminergique (Navratilova *et al.*, 2012; Oleson *et al.*, 2012).

D'un point de vue plus expérimental, des études d'optogénetique ont démontré qu'une stimulation optique non contingente de l'ATV et de la SNc, mimant une activité phasique, participe à la formation d'une préférence de place conditionnée (CPP), mais peut également être renforçante en elle-même et induire un comportement d'autostimulation (Tsai *et al.*, 2009; Stuber *et al.*, 2010; Adamantidis *et al.*, 2011; Keiflin *et al.*, 2019). En revanche, bien que les deux structures participent à l'apprentissage pavlovien où un stimulus A prédit une récompense R (A $\rightarrow$ R), lors de l'ajout d'un nouveaux stimulus (AB $\rightarrow$ R), uniquement l'activation des neurones dopaminergique de l'ATV permettra l'apprentissage du nouveau stimulus prédicteur de la récompense (B $\rightarrow$ R) (Keiflin *et al.*, 2019). D'autre part, l'inhibition optogénétique des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV va limiter à la fois l'initiation et le maintien d'un effort au cours d'une tâche de conditionnement opérant (Boekhoudt *et al.*, 2018; Fischbach-Weiss *et al.*, 2018)

A l'inverse, l'activation optogénétique des neurones GABAs de l'ATV est suffisante pour induire une aversion contextuelle et interrompre la recherche et la consommation de la récompense (Tan et al., 2012; van Zessen et al., 2012; Wakabayashi et al., 2019). D'autre part, des études *in vivo* ont montré que les neurones GABA semblent être activés par des stimuli prédisant une récompense, suggérant qu'ils sont impliqués dans l'encodage de l'anticipation de la récompense (Pan *et al.*, 2013; Cohen *et al.*, 2012). Lors d'une activation des neurones GABA de l'ATV, les neurones

dopaminergiques vont répondre à la présentation d'une récompense inattendue comme si celle-ci était attendue et inversement lors de leur inhibition optogénétique (Eshel *et al.*, 2015). Ces données renforcent l'idée d'un rôle crucial des neurones GABA sur les dopaminergiques de l'ATV et sur la modulation du RPE.

En définitive, alors que l'activité tonique permettrait un maintien de l'état de veille motivationnelle pour garder le système sensible aux stimuli reçus (Bromberg-Martin et al., 2010; Dreyer et al., 2010), l'activité phasique permettrait alors d'apprendre un renforcement et de l'anticiper, d'évaluer le rapport coût/bénéfice d'une action, ainsi que de déclencher et d'alimenter cette action (Chong, 2018). Plus globalement, elle servirait à indiquer la valeur du « travail à fournir » (Hamid et al., 2016). Une hypothèse propose que plusieurs fonctions influant sur la mise en place d'un comportement dirigé vers une récompense sont sous le contrôle de l'activité phasique dopaminergique, se traduisant par de rapides modulations dopaminergiques régulant l'excitabilité des MSNs (Berke, 2018). Il est important de noter que ces modulations du processus de récompense ne semblent pas être exclusivement dépendantes de la dopamine puisque la stimulation optique des terminaisons dopaminergiques semble induire également des courants post-synaptiques dépendants du glutamate au niveau du NAc, provenant des neurones co-exprimant les neurotransmetteurs. Cette particularité est absente concernant la stimulation de fibres projetant sur le dSTR (Stuber et al., 2010; Tecuapetla *et al.*, 2010).

Bien que le modèle du RPE soit particulièrement adapté et caractérisé pour la mise en place d'un comportement dirigé vers une récompense ou d'évitement de stimuli aversifs, l'activation des neurones dopaminergiques de la SNc fut initialement décrite comme n'étant pas consistante avec les mouvements (Delong et al., 1983; Schultz, 2007). Néanmoins, certaines études corrèlent l'activité dopaminergique avec les cinétiques d'un mouvement, sa vélocité ou son accélération. La stimulation optogénétique des corps cellulaires dopaminergiques ou des terminaisons axonales dans le dSTR peuvent déclencher un mouvement de l'ordre de la milliseconde ou altérer une séquence de mouvements spontanés ou appris (Barter *et al.*, 2014, 2015; Coddington & Dudman, 2018; da Silva *et al.*, 2018). En particulier, Dodson et son équipe ont montré que certains groupes distincts de neurones dopaminergiques encodent le déclenchement d'un mouvement spontané avec des changements précis de leur activité. Les neurones dopaminergiques de la SNc présentent une diminution

de leur activité lors du déclenchement d'un mouvement alors que les neurones de l'ATV semblent augmenter leur activité juste avant le mouvement (Dodson *et al.*, 2016). Néanmoins, les études d'optogénétique des réseaux de neurones de la SNc ou SNr dans la coordination motrice restent peu nombreuses au sein de la littérature et le lien entre l'encodage dopaminergique et les mouvements reste abstrait. C'est surtout à travers l'étude de modèles parkinsoniens visant préférentiellement la SNc, que son rôle a pu s'illustrer. Par exemple, l'expression virale d'α-synucléine dans la SNc déclenche des comportements moteurs de type Parkinsonien alors que l'implantation de neurones dopaminergiques permet de prévenir la maladie en augmentant la libération de dopamine dans le dSTR (Gómez-Benito *et al.*, 2020; Harris *et al.*, 2020). Certaines études suggèrent même l'utilisation de l'optogénetique, chez la souris, pour rythmer la libération de dopamine par les transplants (Ordaz, et al., 2017).

Finalement, il reste difficile de dissocier complètement, d'un point de vue fonctionnel, l'ATV et la SNc. Les neurones dopaminergiques restent de manière générale une unité fonctionnelle dont l'activité prédit une récompense attendue. Une fois la récompense réelle reçue, la dopamine joue le rôle de signal de correction (l'erreur de prédiction). En accord avec cette idée, durant la phase précoce d'un comportement de prise alimentaire, le mésencephale dopaminergique orientera ou non un individu vers la nourriture et donc sa consommation. Il permettra alors d'anticiper ce comportement pour qu'il soit adapté au contexte. Dans le cas d'une faible activité des neurones dopaminergiques durant cette phase, la probabilité pour qu'un individu s'engage dans un comportement consommatoire diminuera, à l'inverse, une forte activité des neurones l'augmentera. Une altération de ce système conduira alors à des comportements inadaptés à la situation. Pour autant, le réseau dopaminergique ne représente qu'une partie du système mésolimbique. L'ATV et la SNc font parties intégrantes des réseaux des ganglions de la base (BG), principalement par leurs projections massives sur le striatum, en contactant les MSNs, connus pour être modulés de façon bidirectionnelle par la dopamine. La connectivité fonctionnelle entre ces noyaux dopaminergiques et le striatum s'apparente à un réseau en boucle ascendante partant des connexions les plus ventrales (ATV-NAc) et remontant vers les connexions les plus dorsales (SN-dSTR) (Haber et al., 2000). Ces boucles vont être au centre des circuits rythmés par la dopamine. C'est surtout en fonctions de ces différentes « boucles » que la SN et l'ATV vont se dissocier.

#### 2.2.2. Le Striatum

#### 2.2.2.1. L'organisation cyto-architecturale et neurochimique du striatum

Le striatum est donc défini comme une structure centrale dopaminoceptive c'est-à-dire qui intègre les signaux dopaminergiques. On retrouve la partie ventrale, le NAc qui se subdivise en deux sous-structures : le « *core* » (NAcC) et le « *shell* » (NAcS). La partie dorsale se dissocie classiquement entre le DLS (Striatum dorso-latéral) et DMS (striatum dorso-médian). Ces sous structures sont toutes composées de trois principaux types cellulaires : les neurones épineux moyens GABAergiques (ou *medium spiny neurons*, MSNs) qui représentent environ 95% des neurones striataux, les interneurones cholinergiques et les interneurones GABAergiques tous modulés par la dopamine (Figure 24A ; Melchior *et al.*, 2015; Burke *et al.*, 2017; Hjorth *et al.*, 2020). Tandis que les MSNs composent la majorité des efférences striatales, les autres types neuronaux vont principalement permettre une modulation locale des signaux afférents.





Les D1R et D2R sont densément et majoritairement répartis dans le striatum. De par la présence de ces récepteurs, les MSNs forment deux populations distinctes : l'une exprimant le récepteur de la dopamine D1 (D1-MSN) et l'autre exprimant le récepteur de la dopamine D2 (D2-MSN). Toutes deux ont pendant longtemps été respectivement décrites comme voie « directe » et voie « indirecte » en raison de leurs projections distinctes qui aboutissent au mésencéphale dopaminergique (DeLong, 1990). Cependant, il a été démontré qu'une modulation entre les MSNs était possible  $(D1 \leftarrow \rightarrow D2)$  et certaines études démontrent l'importance de l'inhibition latérale des D1-MSNs par les D2-MSNs pour le fonctionnement du réseau striatal (Dobbs et al., 2016 ; 2017; Ducrocq et al., 2020; article 1). On retrouve également un faible pourcentage de MSNs (environ 5%) qui expriment les deux récepteurs. Bien que leur caractérisation dans certaines sous-régions reste débattue, ils semblent être plus présents dans le NAcS (Valjent et al., 2009; Thibault et al., 2013; Frederick et al., 2015; Biezonski et al., 2015). Les MSNs se dissocient également par une composante peptidergique puisque les D1-MSNs sécrètent la dynorphine et substance P alors que les D2-MSNs sécrètent l'enképhaline. L'ensemble de ces marqueurs est extraordinairement bien conservé entre les espèces (Anderson & Reiner, 1990; Besson et al., 1990). Chez la souris, les MSNs du NAcS possèdent une arborisation dendritique moins dense (l'opposé chez l'homme) et une plus grande densité de récepteurs à la sérotonine tandis que le NAcC comporte une plus grande densité de récepteurs à l'enképhaline (Voorn et al., 1996; Schoffelmeer et al., 2006; Shirayama & Chaki, 2006; Deng et al., 2015).

Les interneurones cholinergiques sont la première source d'acétylcholine au sein du striatum. Bien qu'ils ne représentent que 1-2% des neurones du striatum, ces neurones actifs de manière tonique présentent une arborisation colossale et étendue au sein du striatum (Figure 24B; Descarries et al., 1997; Zhou et al., 2002; Inokawa et al., 2010; Dautan et al., 2014). Plusieurs études ont pu mettre en évidence que ces neurones modulent localement la libération de dopamine et qu'un changement de leur activité est suffisant pour altérer les comportements associés au striatum (Cragg, 2006; Nougaret & Ravel, 2015; Lee et al., 2016; Collins et al., 2019). Les interneurones GABAergiques, qui peuvent être ségrégés selon leurs propriétés électrophysiologiques (fast spiking (FSI), low threshold (LTSI) ...), vont également avoir un rôle de circuit local inhibiteur modulant l'information transmise au sein du striatum (Figure 24C ; Manz et al., 2019; Kardos et al., 2019).

Une autre particularité cyto-architecturale du striatum concerne une compartimentalisation visible à l'œil nu dans l'intégralité du striatum. On retrouve des zones riches en calbindine appelées matrices, parsemées de zones riches en MOR (récepteur aux opioïdes mu) appelées striosomes ou « patch » (Gerfen et al., 1985; Brimblecombe & Cragg, 2017). Cette organisation implique certaines particularités, ainsi, les D1-MSNs striosomaux ne contacteraient que les D2-MSNs de la même zone et, tandis qu'une faible libération de dopamine est observée dans les zones striosomales du dSTR (comparativement à la matrice), le phénomène inverse a lieu au sein du NAc (Salinas et al., 2016; McGregor et al., 2019). Néanmoins, le rôle de l'intégration des signaux par les complexes striosome-matrice du striatum reste flou.

Finalement, le striatum se caractérise par la présence d'un gradient allant de la partie dorso-latérale jusqu'à la partie ventro-médiane. Il implique une différence de densité de MSNs et de certains marqueurs neuronaux, un gradient des projections dopaminergiques et une organisation caractéristique des afférences corticales, limbiques et thalamiques (Haber, 2003; Prensa *et al.*, 2003). Ces afférences peuvent être de nature variée mais restent principalement d'origine glutamatergique. Bien que l'analyse neurochimique révèle des différences entre les régions dorsales et ventrales ou encore entre les régions du NAcC et NAcS, c'est surtout par leur organisation anatomo-fonctionnelle et les afférences qui les contactent, qu'elles se dissocient.

#### 2.2.2.2. Les afférences striatales

Le striatum est connu pour contenir trois domaines fonctionnels dans le DLS recevrait lequel l'information principalement sensorimotrice (cortex moteur): la partie ventro-mediane comprenant le NAcS collecterait les informations viscérales et émotionnelles (amygdale, hippocampe) tandis que la partie centrale impliquant le NAcC et le DMS intégrerait des « associatives » informations de haut niveau (cortex frontal). Ce modèle conforte plus ou moins l'idée de voies nigrostriée et mésolimbique respectivement



Figure 25 : Distribution des afférences corticales, thalamiques, hippocampiques et amygdaliennes au sein du striatum (Figure extraite de Voorn et al., 2004)

impliquées dans un contrôle moteur et dans les processus de récompense (Figure 25 ; Voorn et al., 2004; Yin & Knowlton, 2006; Belin et al., 2009; Thorn et al., 2010; Gruber & McDonald, 2012). Cependant, la délimitation précise – si elle existe – entre ces différentes zones, de la même manière qu'il existe une ségrégation sur l'axe antéropostérieur ou une spécification des sous types neuronaux contactés au sein du striatum, reste absente au sein de la littérature.

Au sein du dSTR, une étude a montré que les afférences provenant du cortex somatosensoriel et moteur innervent de manière différentielle les MSNs et les interneurones pouvant alors exercer des effets opposés sur le comportement (Lee et al., 2019). A cela s'ajoute une spécificité dépendante de la latéralité puisque les projections ipsilatérales du cortex moteur vont moduler l'activité des FSI tandis que les projections contro-latérales semblent agir sur les LTSIs (Johansson & Silberberg, 2020). Une organisation particulière de la connectivité du striatum ventral et de ses afférences a elle aussi été mise en évidence et sera décrite par la suite (Reed *et al.*, 2018; Domingo-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2020). Enfin, il existe, comme pour la SN et l'ATV, une superposition fonctionnelle entre le dSTR et le NAc dans le cadre de certaines fonctions cognitives. Une étude a pu montrer que les deux régions jouent un rôle dans la flexibilité comportementale et l'inhibition des comportements lors de tâches de réactivité à un signal stop (Eagle & Robbins, 2003). Le dSTR et le NAc participent à l'apprentissage de l'association stimulus-réponse (Setlow, 1997; Packard & Knowlton, 2002; Stalnaker *et al.*, 2012). En particulier, ce lien fonctionnel a pu être à l'origine d'une des principales théories dans l'addiction. Celle-ci postule que la transition entre une prise volontaire de drogue et une consommation involontaire et compulsive dépendrait d'un décalage d'activation du NAc vers le dSTR (Lipton *et al.*, 2019). Ces observations laissent entendre une synergie entre les régions dorsales et ventrales complexifiant d'autant plus le réseau striatal recruté dans la mise en place d'un comportement.

En particulier, concernant le striatum ventral, K. Berridge émet l'hypothèse que le NAcS agit comme une plateforme de la valence émotionnelle (*« affective keyboard »*), organisée sur un axe rostro-caudal permettant une modulation bidirectionnelle de la motivation, selon une valence émotionnelle déterminée par un équilibre des effecteurs neurochimiques (opioïdergique et dopaminergique ; Figure 26 ; Berridge, 2019). En d'autres termes, les mêmes afférences contactant certaines portions de la structure



	Module 1		Module 2	Module 3	Module 4	
Mode 1 Opioid activation	Liking	Wanting	Wanting	Wanting	Wa	
Mode 2 Dopamine activation	Wanting		Wanting	Wanting	Wanting	
Mode 3 AMPAR blockade	Wanting		Wanting	Fear	Fear	
Mode 4 AMPAR blockade and stress	Wanting		Fear	Fear	Fear	
Mode 5 GABAR activation	Liking	Wanting	Wanting	Fear	Fear	

pourraient moduler un comportement manière de bidirectionnelle en fonction de l'équilibre neurochimique présent au niveau des terminaisons. Néanmoins, un rôle spécifique des D1- et D2-MSNs au sein de cet axe, reste inconnu.



#### 2.2.3. Le rôle des MSNs et le modèle du « GO-NO GO » comportemental

#### 2.2.3.1. Le striatum dorsal et la voie nigrostriée

Dans une dimension plus théorique, la dopamine par son effet sur ses récepteurs, active les D1-MSNs et inhibe les D2-MSNs. Selon le modèle des ganglions de la base, établi pour la première fois par R.L. Albin et M.R DeLong (Albin et al., 1989; DeLong, 1990), les MSNs facilitent et répriment les comportements moteurs respectivement via les voies directe



et indirecte. Les D1-MSNs activent les comportements moteurs en Prescott, 2010)

inhibant directement le globus pallidus interne (GPi) et la SNr, des noyaux GABAergiques des ganglions de la base, qui projettent à leur tour sur les circuits thalamo-corticaux moteurs. Ainsi l'inhibition de ces noyaux induit l'activation des circuits thalamo-corticaux permettant l'exécution des commandes relatives au mouvement. A l'opposé, la voie indirecte est constituée de projections sur le globus pallidus externe (GPe) et les noyaux sous thalamique (STN) qui vont projeter eux même sur la SNr. Finalement, l'augmentation de l'activité des noyaux des ganglions de la base résulte en la suppression des circuits thalamo-corticaux et l'inhibition des mouvements. Depuis, plusieurs études ont pu complexifier ce circuit et démontrer l'existence de connexions additionnelles. Par exemple, la présence de collatérales des D1-MSNs sur le GPe (Figure 27 ; Matamales et al., 2009 ; Humphries & Prescott, 2010 ; Cazorla et al., 2014), ou encore la présence d'une voie hyperdirecte provenant du cortex (Monakow et al., 1978; Nambu et al., 2003). Néanmoins, il est resté largement admis que les MSNs jouaient un rôle bidirectionnel : les D1-MSNs activateurs et les D2-MSNs inhibiteurs. En particulier cela a pu être confirmé plus récemment avec les études d'optogénétique. L'activation des D1-MSNs du dSTR réduit l'immobilité (« freezing »), augmente la locomotion, allant jusqu'à diminuer les symptômes moteurs dans un modèle animal de la maladie de Parkinson. A l'inverse, la stimulation des D2-MSNs semble exacerber ces déficits (Kravitz *et al.*, 2010). En particulier, l'inhibition et l'excitation des neurones de la SNr évoquées par la stimulation optogénétique des D1et D2-MSNs, ont pu être respectivement corrélées avec une facilitation motrice ou sa suppression (Freeze *et al.*, 2013). Finalement, l'activation des D1-MSNs ou D2-MSNs, augmente et diminue l'activité du cortex moteur, respectivement (Oldenburg & Sabatini, 2015). Dans les modèles expérimentaux de la maladie de Parkinson, une dégénération progressive des neurones dopaminergiques projetant sur le dSTR conduit progressivement à l'émergence de déficits d'initiation du mouvement corrélant avec un déséquilibre de la balance d'activation des D1- et D2-MSNs (Mazzoni *et al.*, 2007; Panigrahi *et al.*, 2015). D'autre part, une étude d'imagerie associée à une modulation optogénétique des deux types de MSNs conforte leurs rôles opposés. Tandis que l'activation des D1-MSNs induit une augmentation du signal dans le thalamus et le cortex moteur en IRM, l'activation des D2-MSNs induit une diminution du signal dans les mêmes structures (Lee et al., 2016).

Ces données renforcent l'idée que les voies directe (D1-MSNs) et indirecte (D2-MSNs) contrôlent sélectivement le déclenchement ou l'arrêt des boucles thalamo-corticales, jouant ainsi le rôle d'interrupteurs biologiques responsables de signaux « go » et « no go » dans le cadre d'un comportement moteur, pleinement dépendant des signaux dopaminergiques.

#### 2.2.3.2. Le striatum ventral et la motivation

L'organisation de la voie mésolimbique du NAc et des noyaux des ganglions de la base dans le contrôle de la motivation fut initialement décrite sur la base du modèle du dSTR (Figure 28 ; Klawonn & Malenka, 2018). De la même manière que pour le modèle décrit précédemment, les projections dopaminergiques provenant de la SNc/ATV permettraient une modulation bidirectionnelle des D1- et D2-MSNs du NAc. Les D1-MSNs sont supposés projeter directement sur l'ATV alors que les D2-MSNs contactent le VP qui à son tour forme des afférences vers la SNc/ATV (Nicola, 2007; Kupchik & Kalivas, 2017). Les D1-MSNs peuvent alors être définis comme facilitateurs, tandis que l'on peut considérer que les D2-MSNs exercent le rôle de frein sur les processus de récompense. Cependant, de récentes études ont pu remettre en question la validité de ce modèle.



Figure 28 : Représentation de l'organisation anatomique du striatum ventral en accord avec le modèle des ganglions de la base (Figure extraite de Klawonn & Malenka, 2018)

En effet, d'un point de vue anatomique, on retrouve une dissociation des voies directe et indirecte moins prononcée que pour le dSTR. De récentes études ont pu mettre en évidence deux sous-populations de D1-MSNs du NAc, l'une projetant sur l'ATV et l'autre sur le VP, suggérant ainsi qu'une partie des D1-MSNs participe à la voie indirecte (Kupchik *et al.*, 2015; Creed *et al.*, 2016; Baimel *et al.*, 2019). D'autre part, on retrouve une spécificité régionale des projections des D1-MSNs sur le mésencéphale. En particulier, ceux du NAcS médian contactent l'ATV médian alors que les parties latérales se contactent entre elles (Yang *et al.*, 2018). Une autre étude a également montré une innervation sur la SNc (Luo *et al.*, 2018). A cela s'ajoute la mise en évidence de projections directes entre le VP et le thalamus (Kupchik *et al.*, 2015). Ces données esquissent un circuit ayant une dynamique complexe impliquant les D1- et D2-MSNs du NAc dans le contrôle des processus de récompense.

Les premières études visant à étudier le rôle fonctionnel des populations de MSNs utilisèrent des approches pharmacologiques dans lesquelles l'antagonisation des D1Rs conduit à une inhibition des D1-MSNs tandis que le blocage de la signalisation D2R conduit à l'activation des D2-MSNs. Une injection intracérébrale d'antagonistes dopaminergiques (D1R comme D2R) diminue la motivation, en orientant l'animal vers une récompense simple à obtenir au détriment d'une récompense préférée nécessitant un effort (Salamone et al., 1991; Koch et al., 2000; Nowend et al., 2001; Farrar et al., 2010; Mai et al., 2012). Leur antagonisation diminue également la réactivité aux stimuli renforcés, l'activité locomotrice spontanée et est suffisante pour diminuer les effets

renforçants de la cocaïne ainsi que l'autostimulation de l'ATV (Bari & Pierce, 2005). De la même manière, d'autres modèles d'études génétiques sur-exprimant les D2Rs dans le NAc ont également observé un effet facilitateur sur la motivation (Trifilieff *et al.*, 2013; Gallo *et al.*, 2018) alors qu'une délétion génétique de ce récepteur entraine, quant à elle, une réduction de la volonté à fournir un effort (Tran *et al.*, 2002). Finalement, l'ensemble de ces données s'accordent sur un rôle facilitateur des D1-MSNs sur plusieurs dimensions des processus de récompense, incluant le renforcement et la motivation. A l'inverse, les D2-MSNs jouent un rôle de frein sur ces processus.

Récemment, l'utilisation des techniques d'optogénétique et de pharmacogénétique a permis une manipulation des MSNs avec une grande précision aussi bien biologique que temporelle. Par exemple, deux études montrent que l'expression d'un récepteur DREADD (Designer Receptor Exclusively Activated by Designer Drugs) couplé à une protéine Gi spécifiquement dans les D2-MSNs du NAcC, résultant ainsi en une inhibition de cette voie lors de l'injection du ligand exogène, le CNO ; conduit à une potentialisation de la motivation comme suggéré par le modèle GO/NO-GO (Carvalho Poyraz et al., 2016; Gallo et al., 2018). De façon surprenante, l'activation par optogénétique in vivo de ces mêmes neurones, conduit à une réduction des performances des animaux de façon similaire à l'inhibition de la voie directe (Soares-Cunha et al., 2016; Natsubori et al., 2017). De plus, la brève activation optogénétique des D2-MSNs et D1-MSNs, déclenchant à l'inverse une augmentation de la motivation, se traduirait par la même occasion par une diminution de l'activité des neurones du VP et une augmentation d'activité des neurones de l'ATV (Soares-Cunha et al., 2016, 2018). Dans une autre mesure, l'équipe de K. Berridge a montré que la stimulation optogénétique conduisant à l'excitation des D1-MSNs du NAc déclenche une forte motivation pour s'auto-stimuler alors que l'activation des D2-MSNs dans le NAc peut aussi bien conduire à de l'autostimulation qu'à un processus d'évitement (Cole et al., 2018). Finalement, ces observations remettent en question l'opposition fonctionnelle entre les D1- et D2-MSNs dans le contrôle des processus de récompense, et l'idée que l'inhibition comportementale médiée par les aires corticales dépende d'une compétition entre les différents types de MSNs (LeBlanc et al., 2020). Néanmoins, l'une des faiblesses de certaines de ces études et du modèle des ganglions de la base, est l'absence d'une distinction claire entre les sous régions du NAc à savoir « le core » et « le shell » (Natsubori et al., 2017; Cole et al., 2018).

En effet, NAcC et NAcS sont connus pour avoir des rôles différents sur le comportement en lien avec les différentes afférences qu'ils reçoivent (Di Chiara, 2002; Ikemoto, 2007; Scofield et al., 2016). Notamment, le NAcS serait impliqué dans l'anticipation de la récompense, les processus affectifs, l'hédonie alors que le NAcC serait responsable des associations récompense/stimuli et de la motivation principalement dans le cadre d'un effort physique. D'autres études suggèrent l'implication des deux sous régions dans les processus de motivation (Day et al., 2007; Roitman et al., 2008; Lobo et al., 2010; Bock et al., 2013; Calipari et al., 2016). Une étude récente a pu montrer que la stimulation optogénétique des D1-MSNs du NAc latéral induit un processus de renforcement et déclenche un comportement d'autostimulation associé à une augmentation de l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV, tandis que l'activation des D1-MSNs du NAc médian supprime la sortie comportementale et diminue l'activité des neurones de l'ATV (Yang et al., 2018). Ces données remettent, une fois de plus en question le rôle fonctionnel opposé des D1- et D2-MSNs du NAc dans les processus de récompense et suggèrent des effets différents selon qu'ils appartiennent au NAcC ou NAcS. Ce débat fait partie du cœur de cette thèse, comme présenté dans le second article.

Finalement, le lien entre la dopamine et les comportements dirigés vers un but (incluant le renforcement et la motivation) n'est plus à démontrer mais notre compréhension des circuits sous-jacents reste à ce jour largement incomplète. Sur la base des travaux précédemment cités, les MSNs du NAc semblent contrôler la motivation indépendamment du type de récompense, que ce soit pour une récompense sexuelle, sociale, l'activité physique ou la nourriture, le choix de cette récompense étant dicté par les afférences corticales et limbiques (Kohls *et al.*, 2013; Beny-Shefer *et al.*, 2017). Pour conclure sur le rôle fonctionnel du striatum ventral, je vais maintenant vous présentez son implication dans le processus d'hédonie dépendant du système opioïdergique au sein de la structure.

#### 2.2.3.3. Le cas particulier des opioïdes au sein du striatum ventral

K. Berridge propose une théorie selon laquelle il existerait une spécificité entre les différentes dimensions du comportement dirigé vers une récompense, à savoir que la motivation et l'hédonie dépendraient respectivement de la dopamine et des opioïdes endogènes au sein du NAc. Notamment, au cours des dernières décennies, un nombre important d'études d'imagerie a suggéré que les récompenses palatables déclencheraient une réactivité hédonique corrélée avec l'activation de plusieurs régions cérébrales telles que le striatum ventral, le VP ou le PFC (Kringelbach & Berridge, 2009; Parsons et al., 2010; Salimpoor et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2011). Les études de K. Berridge ont montré qu'il existe au sein du striatum ventral, plus particulièrement dans le NAcS, certaines « zones hédoniques » (hotspot) sensibles aux drogues opioïdergiques. Tandis qu'une stimulation des MOR, KOR, DOR (récepteurs mu, kappa, delta aux opioïdes) dans la partie rostrale du NAcS est suffisante pour doubler l'impact hédonique de la consommation d'une solution de sucrose, la même stimulation dans la partie caudale supprime la réaction plaisante induite par la récompense (coldspot ; Smith et al., 2011; Castro & Berridge, 2014). Cependant, la réactivité hédonique à un gout plaisant ne semble pas être diminuée lors d'injections intracérébrales d'antagonistes dopaminergiques (Peciña et al., 1997), ni par une lésion complète des projections dopaminergiques mésolimbiques (Berridge et al., 1989). Ces résultats nous indiquent alors que la dopamine n'est pas nécessaire pour médier l'impact hédonique d'une récompense dite plaisante. Ce serait le système opioïdergique au sein des structures du système mésolimbique qui modulerait ce processus, à l'inverse de la dopamine qui modulerait la composante motivationnelle (« Wanting »). Il est aussi important de garder à l'esprit que dans l'étude de K. Berridge, l'évaluation de l'hédonie est particulièrement pertinente dans le cadre de la prise alimentaire, néanmoins l'évaluation d'une réactivité hédonique en lien avec une récompense non alimentaire reste très limitée.

De la même manière que pour le NAc, le VP contient également des zones sensibles à des modulations opioïdergiques, qui vont influer de manière bidirectionnelle sur la réactivité hédonique. Étrangement, celles-ci semblent s'organiser de manière opposée à celles du NAcS (rostral « coldspot » vs caudal « hotspot » ; Ho & Berridge, 2013). Le VP étant l'une des cibles majoritaires du NAc, il serait tentant de proposer qu'il existe un circuit reliant les zones « hédoniques » entre elles. Néanmoins, la connectivité entre les MSNs et les différents types neuronaux du VP reste abstraite et doit être approfondie.

En conclusion de cette partie décrivant le rôle fonctionnel des neurones du striatum et à la vue de la description d'un comportement dirigé vers une récompense et de la motivation, il semble pertinent de supposer que l'augmentation de la prise alimentaire chez un individu puisse s'apparenter, avant tout, à une augmentation de la recherche et de la motivation à consommer un aliment défini comme récompensant. Cette observation soulève alors la question de savoir si les circuits neuronaux connus de la motivation (phase anticipatoire) participent également ou non à l'expression d'un comportement consommatoire, et si la régulation de la prise alimentaire dépendante de l'hypothalamus ne passerait pas par une modulation du système mésolimbique. De plus, la plupart des études évaluent la motivation dans des conditions de privation alimentaire sans pour autant évaluer l'entièreté de la balance des dépenses énergétiques. Un déséquilibre dans l'homéostasie énergétique (balance négative) se traduit généralement par un retour à l'équilibre médié par une diminution des dépenses énergétiques à la faveur de l'augmentation des apports. Ce cas s'apparente-t-il à une modulation de la motivation opposée entre l'activité physique et la consommation de nourriture, médiée par deux boucles distinctes des circuits des ganglions de la base? Cette dissociation comportementale trouve-t-elle son origine au niveau du striatum ventral ? Ou bien dépend-elle du VP, de l'ATV ou de l'hypothalamus ? Je vais maintenant débuter la dernière partie de l'introduction et présenter le rôle du système mésolimbique dans le comportement consommatoire indépendamment d'un contexte impliquant une demande motivationnelle, intégrant une évaluation de l'activité physique.

### Le système mésolimbique : entre une régulation homéostatique et cognitive de la prise alimentaire.

Au vue des résultats décrits précédemment, on peut considérer que le système mésolimbique constitue un circuit capable de répondre et de s'adapter à une multitude de conditions, tant par le rôle que joue la dopamine, signal prédictif de l'occurrence d'une récompense à obtenir, que par le rôle, présumé bidirectionnel, des MSNs dans l'initiation et le maintien d'un effort pour obtenir une récompense. Dans le contexte d'un individu à jeun, ces processus vont alors s'illustrer en favorisant un comportement d'approche de la nourriture et des moyens déployés pour l'obtenir. Cependant, le système mésolimbique ne semble pas être impliqué uniquement dans une phase anticipatoire, mais sera aussi modulé pendant et après la prise alimentaire spontanée par des signaux énergétiques. Ceci suggère que la dopamine pourrait également être définie comme senseur du statut énergétique et les MSNs comme des modulateurs de la prise alimentaire et de la dépense énergétique. Je vais maintenant vous présenter le rôle du système mésolimbique comme circuit intégrant les processus homéostatiques qui modulerait la transmission dopaminergique.

#### 3.1. La sensibilité du système dopaminergique aux signaux énergétiques

Au cours de la dernière décennie, les études des circuits de la récompense ont majoritairement été conduites dans des conditions de perturbation d'homéostasie incluant des privations sexuelles (e.g., comportement sexuel), hydriques (e.g soif) ou sociales. En particulier, la faim/privation alimentaire est sans aucun doute l'un des moteurs les plus puissants orientant le comportement dirigé vers un but et un nombre colossal d'études ont tiré parti de cette particularité pour étudier les processus de récompense et de motivation. Néanmoins, il est important de rappeler que la faim peut, par elle seule, moduler les neurones dopaminergiques et leur activité phasique, pouvant aller jusqu'à altérer la motivation vers d'autres récompenses que la nourriture (drogue d'abus, activité physique). Plusieurs études ont pu observer une libération plus importante de dopamine au niveau du NAc au cours des phases anticipatoires et consommatoires chez des animaux privés en nourriture que chez des animaux contrôles (Wilson et al., 1995; Cone et al., 2015). Plus spécifiquement, cette augmentation s'explique par une activité plus soutenue des neurones dopaminergiques au niveau de l'ATV/SNc et par une diminution de la recapture de la

dopamine, qui semble persister même après que les animaux ont pu avoir accès à la nourriture (Patterson *et al.*, 1998; Marinelli *et al.*, 2006; Branch *et al.*, 2013). En conséquence, les animaux sous restriction alimentaire semblent plus sensibles aux drogues d'abus telles que la cocaïne ou l'héroïne, renforçant ainsi leur comportement de recherche de ces drogues d'abus (D'Cunha *et al.*, 2013; Branch *et al.*, 2013). Dans une autre mesure, il a été montré que l'exposition à une nouvelle nourriture palatable est suffisante pour augmenter la densité synaptique au niveau de l'ATV, renforçant le comportement d'approche lors d'une réexposition à la nourriture (Liu et al., 2016).

Sur la base de ces observations, un nombre conséquent d'études ont donc cherché à évaluer l'impact des signaux et circuits de l'homéostasie énergétique rythmant la prise alimentaire, en particulier sur l'ATV et les neurones dopaminergiques exprimant plusieurs récepteurs des signaux de la faim et de la satiété (Figlewicz et al., 2003; Zigman et al., 2006; Palmiter, 2008; van Zessen et al., 2012). Par exemple, l'injection intracérébrale de ghréline dans l'ATV va stimuler directement les neurones dopaminergiques, résultant en une augmentation de la prise alimentaire spontanée aussi bien qu'une augmentation de la motivation pour obtenir une récompense alimentaire et ce préférentiellement vers une nourriture palatable. (Abizaid et al., 2006; Skibicka et al., 2012, 2013). En revanche, la leptine, l'insuline et GLP-1 vont les inhiber, allant même jusqu'à induire une dépression à long terme (LTD), provoquant une diminution de la recherche d'aliment et de la prise alimentaire (Naleid et al., 2005; Hommel et al., 2006; Egecioglu et al., 2010; Labouèbe et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2016). De plus, certaines études ont également montré que la leptine peut exercer ses effets sur les réponses induites par la cocaïne en atténuant la libération de dopamine induite par celle-ci (You et al., 2016). De la même manière les souris ob/ob, possédant une leptine non fonctionnelle présentent une diminution des réponses aux psychostimulants (Fulton et al., 2006). Il faut néanmoins garder à l'esprit que certaines de ces données restent controversées, des études décrivant une absence d'effet lors d'injection intra-ATV de ghréline (Könner et al., 2011; Stouffer et al., 2015). En particulier, il a été proposé que l'action de la ghréline ne passerait pas par une action directe sur l'ATV, mais par une modulation des afférences des neurones OXT provenant du LH (Cone et al., 2015). Dans tous les cas, ces résultats suggèrent une sensibilité accrue du système mésolimbique dopaminergique aux changements de la balance énergétique, susceptibles de modifier les propriétés physiologiques des neurones dopaminergiques et les comportements associés.

Cette intégration des constantes énergétiques au sein de l'ATV s'effectue également via une interconnexion avec le tronc cérébral et l'hypothalamus. Comme précisé précédemment, le LH est une vaste sous-région représentant 45% de l'hypothalamus et composée de différents types de neurones (GABAergiques, glutamatergiques et peptidergiques). Les différentes régions hypothalamiques et en particulier le LH possèdent des connexions directes et réciproques avec le système mésolimbique (Kelley et al., 2005; Rodaros et al., 2007; Kempadoo et al., 2013; Haemmerle et al., 2015; Woodworth et al., 2018). Initialement, les études visant à stimuler électriquement le LH ont pu mettre en évidence une libération de dopamine concomitante au sein du NAc, qui pouvait être bloquée par l'inactivation chimique de l'ATV par la tetrodotoxine (TTX ; (Blaha & Phillips, 1990; Fiorino et al., 1993; Rada et al., 1998; You et al., 2001). Ces études furent les premières à mettre en évidence un circuit LH-ATV capable de moduler le système dopaminergique. Par la suite, d'autres études ont cherché à évaluer le rôle des différents types cellulaires du LH sur le système mésolimbique. Des études d'optogénétique ont révélé que cette modulation de la dopamine dépendait des efférences du LH qui contactent majoritairement les neurones GABAergiques de l'ATV. Tandis que les projections GABAergiques du LH vont désinhiber les neurones dopaminergiques, les projections glutamatergiques vont les inhiber. Néanmoins, seule l'activation des neurones GABAergiques est suffisante pour augmenter la prise alimentaire, ce qui s'expliquerait par une prédominance de ces afférences (Nieh et al., 2015, 2016). Ces observations s'accordent avec les études de Jenning présentées précédemment et confortent l'idée que la modulation de la prise alimentaire par l'hypothalamus s'effectuerait via l'ATV (Jennings et al., 2013, 2015). De plus, la stimulation des neurones GABA du LH à une faible fréquence semble moduler la prise alimentaire tandis qu'une stimulation à haute fréquence déclenche une activité consommatoire indépendamment du statut nutritionnel (Barbano et al., 2016; Navarro et al., 2016; Mickelsen et al., 2017). Cette information suggère que dans le cas d'une forte perturbation des signaux énergétiques, traduisant une puissante modulation de l'ATV par l'hypothalamus, ceux-ci sont alors capables de dépasser leur rôle présumé spécifique de la prise alimentaire et de moduler les comportements de manière plus générale.
Concernant les neurones peptidergiques (HCRT/OXT, MCH, CART, NTS), les études visant à étudier l'effet de l'injection locale de différents peptides dans l'ATV aboutissent à des résultats variables, tant par leurs effets sur les neurones dopaminergiques que par leurs effets comportementaux, qui peuvent aussi bien aboutir à une modulation positive que négative (Cador et al., 1986; Korotkova et al., 2003; Rouibi et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2017; Somalwar et al., 2017). En revanche, il a été clairement établi que les neurones HCRT expriment le récepteur à la ghréline, tandis que les neurones CART et NTS expriment le récepteur à la leptine (Liu et al., 2017; Mickelsen et al., 2017). Bien qu'ils semblent particulièrement sensibles aux modulations homéostatiques, les rôles respectifs et l'interconnexion des différents neurones peptidergiques du LH avec le système mésolimbique restent à être explorés. L'ensemble de ces données laissent penser que l'interconnexion entre le LH et l'ATV n'est pas juste impliquée dans un comportement consommatoire mais aussi de manière plus générale dans les comportements dirigés vers une récompense, qu'elle soit alimentaire ou non. D'autres données impliquent également plusieurs connexions avec d'autres noyaux hypothalamiques (Kalló et al., 2015). En effet, les neurones POMC du NA inhibent les neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV via une transmission synaptique directe (impliquant une modulation des MOR) et indirecte (activation des interneurones GABA par MC3R), leur photo-inhibition optogénétique conduisant alors à une augmentation de la prise alimentaire (King & Hentges, 2011; Qu et al., 2020).

Les afférences neuronales provenant du NTS, de l'AP ou du PBN déjà décrites comme des structures relayant les informations homéostatiques sont capables de moduler les comportements dirigés vers un but et les processus de récompense (Rinaman, 2010; Alhadeff *et al.*, 2012). En particulier, l'activation des récepteurs GLP-1 dans le NTS modifie l'expression des gènes en lien avec la dopamine au niveau de l'ATV (Richard *et al.*, 2015). D'autre part, une lésion de l'AP et du PBN est suffisante pour abolir l'hypoactivation des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV par l'amyline, une hormone anorexigénique (Whiting *et al.*, 2017). Les afférences neuronales provenant des structures relayant les informations cognitives vont également moduler la dopamine. Il a été observé une augmentation de l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV et de la libération de dopamine dans le NAc lors d'une activation chimique de l'hippocampe ventral, sous-région recevant les informations viscérales via le NTS (Legault *et al.*, 2000). En revanche, bien que le cortex préfrontal ou l'amygdale

puissent avoir un rôle dans la prise alimentaire en lien avec une modulation de la dopamine au sein de leur structure, aucune de leurs efférences vers le mésencéphale dopaminergique n'a pu être associée à une modulation du comportement alimentaire. Ceci impliquerait plutôt une connectivité avec le striatum (Domingo-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2020).

Ces résultats laissent penser que les modulations du comportement consommatoire dépendantes de l'hypothalamus s'effectuent par une modulation des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV, jouant alors le rôle d'interface, senseur de l'homéostasie énergétique, permettant leur interaction réciproque dans le cadre d'un comportement dirigé vers un but (pour une substance nutritive ou non ; Figure 29 ; Coccurello & Maccarrone, 2018). Néanmoins, le striatum reste la structure la plus densément interconnectée avec l'ATV, et dont l'activité va être largement modulée par les aires corticales et limbiques. Je vais maintenant vous présenter les données mettant en évidence le rôle du NAc dans l'activité consommatoire.



Figure 29 : Représentation schématique de l'interconnexion entre l'hypothalamus latéral (LH), l'aire tegmentale ventrale (ATV) et le noyau accumbens (NAc) (Figure extraite de Coccurello & Maccarrone, 2018)

### 3.2. Le striatum ventral et la prise alimentaire

La consommation de nourriture palatable, en tant que récompense, est régulée par le système mésolimbique. Ce système de la récompense influant sur la motivation d'un individu serait supposément capable de surpasser les signaux énergétiques de la faim et de la satiété pour moduler la prise alimentaire. Initialement, il fut admis que les différentes sous régions du NAc participaient à différents aspects de la prise alimentaire. Tandis que l'activation du NAcS corrèle avec le plaisir perçu lors de la consommation de la récompense, à la fois le NAcC et NAcS participeraient aux aspects motivationnels (Peciña & Berridge, 2013). Sur la base des résultats présentés précédemment, au cours de la prise alimentaire, l'activation des fibres dopaminergiques venant de l'ATV va augmenter les niveaux de dopamine extracellulaire au niveau du NAc, avec une amplitude encore plus forte lorsque l'animal subit une privation alimentaire (Hernandez & Hoebel, 1988; Wilson et al., 1995). Cette observation laisse penser que la dopamine pourrait être un senseur de la prise alimentaire et la déclencherait via une modulation de l'activité du NAc. Néanmoins, le rôle de la dopamine ne reste que modulateur et les principales fibres contactant le NAc proviennent de régions corticales dont certains circuits dopaminoceptifs ont également pu être impliqués dans une modulation de la prise alimentaire. Quelle sera le rôle de ces projections sur les différentes populations de MSNs du NAc ? Cette modulation sera-t-elle différentielle selon les différentes sous-régions ? Je vais maintenant vous présenter les données qui suggèrent la présence d'un circuit complexe régulant la prise alimentaire au sein du NAc.

# 3.2.1. La sensibilité du striatum aux signaux énergétiques

Bien que le NAc soit souvent présenté comme jouant un rôle majeur dans la composante motivationnelle de la prise alimentaire et que la littérature se soit particulièrement intéressée aux modulations dopaminergiques induites par les neuropeptides de l'homéostasie énergétique au sein du NAc, quelques études plus récentes ont pu montrer que cette structure reste, de la même manière que l'ATV, directement modulée par plusieurs senseurs énergétiques.

Concernant la leptine et l'insuline, peu d'études ont pu mettre en évidence un recrutement des voies de signalisation de leur récepteur dans une modulation de la

prise alimentaire au niveau du NAc. Cependant, la délétion du récepteur à la leptine dans le NAc diminue la réponse hyper-locomotrice de l'amphétamine, à l'inverse d'une injection locale et répétée de leptine (Hao *et al.*, 2006; Shen *et al.*, 2016). Cet effet semble être en partie médié par une modulation des afférences excitatrices glutamatergiques (Li & Gao, 2011; Lee *et al.*, 2018). La signalisation de l'insuline serait quant à elle impliquée dans une évaluation de la qualité nutritive de la nourriture. Une étude a pu mettre en évidence que des rats obèses sont incapables de discriminer les valeurs énergétiques de différentes solutions sucrées (associées à différents gouts), ce qui serait lié à une diminution de l'activité du récepteur à l'insuline (Woods *et al.*, 2016; Tiedemann *et al.*, 2017). En l'occurrence, la signalisation de l'insuline dans le NAc serait capable d'augmenter le tonus dopaminergique par son action sur les interneurones cholinergiques et/ou sur les astrocytes, mais également d'augmenter la libération de glutamate présynaptique (Stouffer *et al.*, 2015; Oginsky *et al.*, 2016; Pinheiro *et al.*, 2016; Cai *et al.*, 2018; Patel *et al.*, 2019).

Concernant la ghréline, la seule neurohormone orexigène périphérique, des manipulations pharmacologiques ont démontré qu'une injection intra-NAc de ghréline augmente la prise alimentaire et contribue à améliorer l'apprentissage et la motivation lors du test d'escalier de Montoya (Naleid et al., 2005; Vestlund et al., 2019). Il est intéressant de noter qu'une hétéromérisation entre le récepteur à la ghréline et les récepteurs dopaminergiques a pu être observée dans l'hippocampe. Ces interactions semblent moduler la plasticité et certaines fonctions mnésiques (Kern et al., 2012, 2015; Wellman & Abizaid, 2015; Damian et al., 2018). Le rôle de ces hétéromères au sein du NAc dans la prise alimentaire reste cependant inexploré. En plus de l'effet de ces neuro-hormones, le NAc reçoit également des efférences de neurones provenant du LH (OXT et MCH) et des régions bulbopontiques (GLP-1; Merchenthaler et al., 1999; Georgescu et al., 2005; Cason et al., 2010; Rinaman, 2010). Tandis que la stimulation des fibres de neurones MCH projetant sur le NAcS induit une augmentation de la prise alimentaire, l'activation pharmacologique du récepteur à l'ocytocine et/ou du récepteur de GLP-1 spécifiquement dans le NAcC diminue la prise alimentaire et reste sans effets dans le NAcS (Dossat et al., 2011; Alhadeff et al., 2012; Dickson et al., 2012; Herisson et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2018; Terrill et al., 2020). Il est intéressant de noter que la modulation de la signalisation MCH au sein du NAc sur la prise alimentaire semble être différente entre les sexes (Terrill et al., 2020).

Certaines études ont pu mettre en évidence des modifications du métabolisme basal (thermogenèse, glucose périphérique) en lien avec l'expression de récepteurs de la dopamine ou avec l'activité des MSNs au sein du striatum. D'une part, les études de la Fleur ont pu déceler la présence de neurones sensibles au glucose qui semblent majoritairement excités par ce métabolite dans le NAcC et principalement inhibés dans le NAcS (Papp *et al.*, 2007). D'autre part, l'activation des D1-MSNs par optogénétique augmente la tolérance au glucose et la sensibilité à l'insuline (Ter Horst *et al.*, 2018). Les études de Labouesse ont montré, chez la souris soumise à un régime riche en gras, qu'une surexpression du D2R striatal durant la gestation ou à l'âge adulte favorise l'induction d'une obésité. De manière inattendue, ces animaux présentent une augmentation du tissu adipeux malgré une diminution de la prise alimentaire, mais ces observations s'accompagnent également d'une diminution de la température cutanée et de l'expression de certains gènes impliqués dans la thermogénèse du tissus adipeux brun (BAT ; (Labouesse *et al.*, 2018). Cette observation sous-entend un rôle particulier des D2-MSNs dans le stockage de graisse et dans la thermorégulation.

Enfin, des études récentes ont pu identifier que l'activité et la fonctionnalité des neurones du NAc dépendent de l'aspect qualitatif des nutriments présents au sein de l'alimentation. Notre équipe a notamment pu montrer un lien causal entre des modifications de taux d'acides gras polyinsaturés n-3 (AGPI n-3) dans une souspopulation neuronale spécifique et une altération comportementale. Notamment, la déficience en AGPI n-3 depuis la gestation induit une augmentation de la transmission GABA provenant des D2-MSNs sur les D1-MSNs provoquant alors une diminution de la motivation pour obtenir une récompense alimentaire (Ducrocq *et al.*, 2020 ; article 1). Cette sensibilité des D2-MSNs aux taux d'AGPI pourrait impliquer un mécanisme dépendant des lipoprotéines lipase (LPL) et qui permettrait alors une composition en AGPI au sein du D2-MSN reflétant la balance en AGPI présents au sein de l'alimentation (Berland *et al.*, 2020).

Finalement, ces études suggèrent que le rôle du striatum dans la prise alimentaire pourrait être dépendant de l'action des circuits hypothalamiques et des senseurs de l'homéostasie énergétique sur la structure. Néanmoins, l'impact de ces signaux reste minoritaire, ce sont surtout les afférences glutamatergiques provenant des structures corticales amygdaliennes et hippocampiques qui sont dominantes.

# 3.2.2. Les afférences glutamatergiques sur le striatum ventral et la prise alimentaire

Les MSNs du NAc reçoivent et intègrent des afférences glutamatergiques, plus particulièrement venant des régions du PFC, de l'hippocampe ventral et du BLA (Groenewegen *et al.*, 1999; O'Donnell *et al.*, 1999; Britt *et al.*, 2012; Scofield *et al.*, 2016) mais aussi venant du thalamus, de l'hippocampe dorsal et du cortex insulaire (Stratford & Wirtshafter, 2013; Zhu *et al.*, 2016; Rogers-Carter *et al.*, 2019; Trouche *et al.*, 2019). Ces régions vont transmettre différents types d'informations et l'activation de certaines de ces afférences peut alors moduler l'activité du NAc et différentes fonctions comportementales associées (Goto & Grace, 2008; Sesack & Grace, 2010). Bien que toutes ces structures projettent à la fois sur le NAcC et le NAcS, certaines afférences semblent privilégier l'une des deux sous régions. En effet, au sein du PFC, la région infra-limbique semble contacter préférentiellement le NAcS à l'inverse de la région pré-limbique qui connecte le NAcC, ou encore le système olfactif associé au NAcC et le système gustatif (insula) associé au shell (Figure 30 ; Berendse *et al.*, 1992; Brog *et al.*, 1993; Ma *et al.*, 2020).



Figure 30 : Représentation du pourcentage d'afférences projetant sur les différentes sous divisions du noyau accumbens (Figure extraite de Ma et al., 2020)

Il a été mis en évidence qu'une injection d'antagonistes des récepteurs du glutamate dans le NAcS provoque une diminution de la prise alimentaire (Maldonado-Irizarry *et al.*, 1995; Basso & Kelley, 1999). Cette donnée s'accorde avec l'observation d'une diminution de l'activité des neurones du NAcS durant la consommation de sucrose (Janak *et al.*, 2004; Nicola *et al.*, 2004; Wan & Peoples, 2006; Day *et al.*, 2007). Cependant, des études plus récentes ont également montré que l'activation électrique

des fibres glutamatergiques dans le NAcS et NAcC inhibe la consommation de nourriture (Krause *et al.*, 2010; Prado *et al.*, 2016). En revanche, l'importance relative et la caractérisation du rôle des différentes structures qui modulent l'activité du NAc via leurs projections glutamatergiques, reste encore mal établie.

Par l'utilisation de l'imagerie calcique, l'équipe de Britt a pu comparer les profils d'activation des afférences du BLA, du thalamus et de l'hippocampe sur le NAcS lors d'une recherche de nourriture et de sa consommation. Ils ont pu observer deux profils d'activités similaires pour les différentes projections au cours de différentes phases de la prise alimentaire (discrimination du stimulus prédictif de l'aliment, des appuis sur le levier délivrant la nourriture, de l'obtention de l'aliment). Tandis que les afférences sur le NAcS rostral présentent une diminution de leur activité, les afférences sur le NAcS caudal présentent une courte augmentation de leur activité. De plus, uniquement l'inhibition optogénétique des afférences rostrales excitatrices est suffisante pour induire une augmentation de la consommation de nourriture et confirmer ainsi leur rôle inhibiteur sur la prise alimentaire. Les auteurs précisent également qu'en raison d'une faible proportion de projections du PFC sur le NAcS, la mise en évidence d'un recrutement de ces afférences lors de la prise alimentaire par imagerie calcique reste impossible (Reed et al., 2018). Dans une autre publication, l'équipe de Britt présente une particularité des afférences de l'hippocampe ventral sur le NAcS. Tandis qu'une stimulation optogénétique à haute fréquence (32 Hz) va diminuer la prise alimentaire, une stimulation à faible fréquence (4 Hz) semble potentialiser la prise alimentaire via une augmentation de la réactivité hédonique (Yang et al., 2020).

Concernant le NAcC, les différentes projections semblent en revanche médier des effets opposés sur la prise alimentaire, à ceux observés pour la NAcS. De manière consistante avec les études visant à perturber l'interconnexion entre le BLA et le NAc, l'inhibition pharmacogénétique des projections controlatérales BLA-NAcC induit une diminution du comportement d'approche de la nourriture (Ambroggi *et al.*, 2008, 2011; Shiflett & Balleine, 2010; Kochli *et al.*, 2020). A cela s'ajoutent les données de l'équipe de K. Tye, qui a pu montrer que les projections BLA  $\rightarrow$  NAcC sont plus actives durant un jeûne et que leur photo-inhibition réduit la motivation pour obtenir une récompense calorique chez des animaux sous privation (Calhoon *et al.*, 2018). Ces études suggèrent qu'à l'inverse du NAcS, les projections BLA  $\rightarrow$  NAcC seraient impliquées dans une modulation positive de la prise alimentaire. Cette opposition semble

également vraie pour les projections thalamiques puisque l'inhibition des projections spécifiques entre le NAcC et le PVT (thalamus paraventriculaire) augmente le comportement de recherche de nourriture chez des animaux à satiété, ce circuit étant particulièrement recruté lors d'une libération d'orexine au niveau du PVT (Meffre *et al.*, 2019). Il a également été mis en évidence une connexion entre l'hippocampe dorsal et le NAc (shell et core), qui participerait à la mise en place d'une mémoire spatiale en lien avec la localisation de nourriture. En effet, la stimulation optogénétique des neurones pyramidaux de l'hypothalamus dorsal module l'activité des MSNs et des interneurones au niveau du striatum ventral. Ce circuit tripartite supporte la mise en place d'une mémoire spatiale nécessaire dans l'exécution d'un comportement dirigé vers un aliment (Trouche *et al.*, 2019).

Enfin plusieurs études d'électrophysiologie et de traçage neuronal ont pu mettre en évidence des connexions spécifiques au sein du NAcC. Plus particulièrement, les courants excitateurs (EPSC) provenant des fibres glutamatergiques de la BLA semblent faciliter majoritairement l'activation des D1-MSNs dans le NAcC tandis que les afférences du PFC semblent moduler principalement les D2-MSNs (Deroche *et al.*, 2020). A l'inverse, d'autres études identifient que les projections du BLA et de l'hippocampe sur le NAcS contactent préférentiellement les interneurones responsables d'une inhibition locale (Yu *et al.*, 2017; Scudder *et al.*, 2018). De plus, le PFC présente un certain nombre de neurones dopaminoceptifs exprimant le D1R ou D2R et projetant préférentiellement sur le NAcC (Green et al., 2020). Notamment, l'équipe de Maldonado a montré que l'activation optogénétique des neurones D2 du PFC projetant sur le NAc induit une prise alimentaire compulsive pour une nourriture palatable de la même manière qu'une surexpression des D2R au sein de cette voie (Domingo-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2020). Le rôle des projections du PFC sur le NAcS dans la prise alimentaire reste relativement inexploré.

Finalement, ces résultats semblent montrer que les afférences du BLA, du thalamus et du PFC sur le NAc ont un rôle crucial dans la régulation de la prise alimentaire. Cependant, plusieurs évidences laissent penser à une opposition entre le NAcC et le NAcS. Je vais maintenant vous présentez les connaissances actuelles quant à l'implication et au recrutement des différentes sous-populations neuronales du NAc dans le contrôle de la prise alimentaire.

### 3.2.3. Le rôle respectif des D1- et D2-MSNs dans la prise alimentaire

Les études visant à évaluer le rôle du NAc dans la consommation de nourriture se sont particulièrement concentrées sur le NAcS bien que des études d'électrophysiologie in vivo ont montré qu'autant les neurones du NAcS que du NAcC diminuent leurs rythmes de décharge avant la consommation de nourriture (Taha & Fields, 2006; Krause et al., 2010). De plus, l'inhibition pharmacologique de cette structure par des agonistes des récepteurs GABA provoque une augmentation de la prise alimentaire suggérant un rôle anorexigène (Stratford & Kelley, 1997). L'équipe de K. Berridge a pu identifier que les effets des agonistes GABA (ou antagonistes AMPA) sont médiés par une inhibition des MSNs du NAcS puisqu'une stimulation optogénétique concomitante avec l'injection de ces drogues est suffisante pour abolir leurs effets comportementaux (Baumgartner et al., 2020). Plus particulièrement, les effets sur la prise alimentaire seraient médiés par des projections sur le LH (Stratford & Wirtshafter, 2013; Urstadt et al., 2013). Le NAcS fut alors défini comme une sentinelle, intégrant les informations mnésiques et émotionnelles, permettant une prise alimentaire durant les périodes adaptées et déclenchant un arrêt de la consommation en présence d'une menace (Kelley et al., 2005).

L'équipe de C. Lüscher fut la première à évaluer spécifiquement le rôle des D1 et D2-MSNs du NAcS dans la prise alimentaire. Ils démontrèrent qu'une majorité des D1-MSNs du NAcS contactent le LH et qu'une activation optogénétique brève de ces projections diminue la prise alimentaire. A l'inverse, la modulation brève des D2-MSNs du NAcS ne semble pas altérer la prise alimentaire (O'Connor et al., 2015). Par la suite, l'équipe de R. Di Leone a tenté d'évaluer le rôle respectif des différents MSNs du NAcS sur la prise alimentaire et la dépense énergétique volontaire via une approche pharmacogénétique. Ils ont pu observer, chez des animaux ayant dans leur cage d'hébergement un accès libre à de la nourriture et à une roue d'activité, que l'activation pharmacogénétique des D1-MSNs augmente la prise alimentaire et l'activité physique volontaire, tandis que l'activation des D2-MSNs n'induit qu'une diminution des performances sur la roue. En revanche, lorsque les animaux ont été testés dans une chambre mesurant l'activité locomotrice spontanée, différente de leur cage d'hébergement, ceux-ci présentent une diminution de la prise alimentaire lors d'une activation des D1-MSNs. Les auteurs attribuent alors aux D1-MSNs un rôle modulateur de la prise alimentaire dépendant du contexte (Zhu et al., 2016). Néanmoins, l'équipe de R. Di Leone a également démontré qu'en plus des projections sur le LH, les projections des neurones D1 sur l'ATV participent aux effets anorexigènes puisque l'activation optogénétique de leurs terminaisons dans le mésencéphale dopaminergique est suffisante pour diminuer la recherche de nourriture et sa consommation (Bond *et al.*, 2020).

Finalement, ces études s'accordent sur l'idée que l'activité des D1-MSNs du NAcS inhibe la prise alimentaire à l'inverse de celle des D2-MSNs qui reste sans effet. De plus, ces résultats laissent penser que les effets anorexigènes dus à l'activation des afférences glutamatergiques pourraient dépendre du recrutement des D1-MSNs. Pour autant, la compréhension du circuit local et l'organisation des afférences entrantes et sortantes au sein du NAcS dans la prise alimentaire doit encore être établie. De plus, les observations en lien avec les D1-MSNs évoquent un rôle facilitateur de la motivation mais inhibiteur de la prise alimentaire. Ces deux rôles seraient logiquement antagonistes dans le cadre d'un comportement dirigé vers une récompense alimentaire. Finalement, bien que les études précliniques semblent se concentrer sur le rôle des D1-MSNs, certaines études cliniques ont également pu noter un rôle du D2R au sein du striatum dans certaines pathologies de la prise alimentaire. Je vais maintenant vous présentez les évidences révélant une implication du striatum ventral dans certains TCA.

# 3.3. Le circuit mésolimbique et les troubles de la prise alimentaire

D'une certaine manière, l'obésité et l'AN représentent les extrémités du spectre des TCA. Tandis que l'obésité se définit par un indice de masse corporelle (BMI) supérieur à 30kg/m<sup>2</sup>, une sédentarité associée à une prise alimentaire excessive ; l'AN se caractérise par un IMC inférieur à 14.0 kg/m<sup>2</sup> concomitant avec une anhédonie et une anxiété associée au poids et à l'image corporelle qui se traduit par une dépense énergétique extrême associée à une faible prise alimentaire. Bien qu'ils se regroupent autour de mêmes dimensions symptomatologiques, leurs étiologies présumées s'opposent, et encore aujourd'hui les études dissocient largement les deux types de pathologies. L'obésité a pendant longtemps été présentée comme la résultante d'un syndrome métabolique qui désigne la coexistence de plusieurs troubles du métabolisme périphérique d'origine lipidique, glucidique ou vasculaire, alors que l'AN a souvent été considérée comme étant la conséquence de facteurs psychosociaux et

cognitifs. Bien qu'au cours des dernières années, les études GWAS (*Genome-wide association studies*) ont pu identifier des loci spécifiques associés à des facteurs métaboliques et psychiatriques dans les deux pathologies, la relation d'interdépendance entre ces facteurs au sein du « spectre » des pathologies du comportement alimentaire reste largement incomprise.

Néanmoins, l'évolution socioculturelle occidentale observée au cours des dernières décennies, incluant l'accès facile à un régime hypercalorique, ou encore le rôle prédominant des critères de beauté et de l'apparence physique (forme physique et poids) au sein de la société ont pu être associés à une augmentation de la prévalence des troubles du comportement alimentaire (Lee *et al.*, 2019). Cette information nous pousse alors à réévaluer l'importance des dimensions psychiatriques et des réseaux neuronaux associés à l'occurrence de l'obésité et de l'AN. Notamment, des altérations du système mésolimbique dopaminergique ont pu être observées dans des modèles cliniques et précliniques de ces pathologies. Cependant, il reste encore à savoir si c'est une perturbation primaire de ce système qui modulerait l'appétit ou si une altération de l'alimentation agirait secondairement sur le système mésolimbique et induirait d'autres phénomènes, tels que l'anxiété ou une altération des performances cognitives. Je vais maintenant vous présenter les évidences cliniques suggérant une implication du striatum ventral dans la survenue et le maintien de ces pathologies.

# 3.3.1. L'obésité et l'addiction à la nourriture

Selon l'Organisation mondiale de la santé (OMS), 52% des adultes dans le monde présentaient un surpoids ou une obésité en 2016. Le nombre de cas a ainsi triplé depuis 1975 et présente une forte comorbidité avec le diabète de type 2, les maladies cardiaques et le cancer. L'obésité serait alors en partie responsable du décès d'au moins 2,8 millions de personnes chaque année, faisant d'elle la cinquième cause de mortalité dans le monde. Pour ces raisons, de nombreuses études ont cherché à modéliser la pathologie. Par exemple, l'utilisation de souris transgéniques Ob/Ob déficientes en leptine fonctionnelle, ou encore un accès intermittent à une nourriture calorique représentent les modèles les plus aboutis mimant les phénotypes Pourtant l'obésité. comportementaux de ces modèles génétiques et environnementaux s'axent principalement sur des modifications métaboliques chez l'animal. La mise en place d'un modèle génétique susceptible d'orienter le comportement de prise alimentaire indépendamment d'une composante énergétique reste absente au sein de la littérature.

Bien que l'origine de l'escalade de la consommation alimentaire soit complexe (génétique et/ou environnementale), les changements de régime alimentaire et l'apport récurrent de nourriture riche en calorie (graisses et sucres) semblent être des acteurs centraux du développement de l'obésité, entrainant alors une altération du système mésolimbique (Blundell et al., 1996; Green & Blundell, 1996; Stein & Colditz, 2004). Des études d'imagerie chez l'homme ont caractérisé une activation spécifique du système de la récompense suite à l'application linguale de nourriture grasse et palatable (Araujo & Rolls, 2004; Rolls, 2016). En particulier, les patients obèses, comparativement à des individus sains, semblent montrer une activation plus faible du striatum à la sensibilité orale produite par une nourriture palatable (Stice et al., 2008; Frank et al., 2012; Green et al., 2011; Babbs et al., 2013). A l'inverse, les patients obèses présentent une réactivité plus importante à la présentation d'un stimulus visuel associé à des aliments riches, notamment dans les régions impliquées dans les processus de récompense (striatum, OFC ; Stoeckel et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2010; Stice et al., 2010; Dimitropoulos et al., 2012). Ces études suggèrent une altération du striatum aussi bien durant la phase anticipatoire que consommatoire de la prise alimentaire.



Figure 31 : Modèle dynamique de la vulnérabilité à l'obésité (Figure extraite de Burger et Stice 2011)

En l'occurrence, K. Burger et E. Stice proposent que la dualité existante quant à l'hyper/hypo activité du striatum au cours de la prise alimentaire, serait predictive de la survenue d'une obésité et dependrait d'une sensibilité somatosensorielle exacerbée (Figure 31). Une hyper-réactivité du striatum et de la perception somatosensorielle augmenterait le comportement d'approche de la nourriture et le risque de suralimentation. Par la suite, la suralimentation pourrait, à son tour, entraîner de manière rétro-active une régulation négative de l'activité du striatum, la réponse striatale étant alors altérée lors d'une future ingestion de nourriture. Ce phénoméne

conduirait alors l'individu à augmenter sa consommation pour satisfaire un besoin qui serait, dans ce cas, surtout subjectif (Burger et Stice 2011). Il est important de se souvenir que bien que les données cliniques montrent des altérations de l'activité globale du striatum, le rôle des differentes populations de MSNs vis-à-vis de ces changements reste inconnue chez l'homme.

D'autre part, des études d'imagerie PET (positron emission tomography) chez des patients obèses ont révélé une diminution de la quantité de récepteurs D2 du striatum ventral, qui rappelle celle observée chez des individus ayant une dépendance aux drogues (Wang et al., 2004; Volkow et al., 2008; Johnson & Kenny, 2010). Autant le sevrage d'une drogue d'abus que le retrait d'une nourriture palatable est associé à une augmentation de l'état de stress, connu pour contribuer à la rechute et à la recherche de drogue (Sinha et al., 2006; Teegarden & Bale, 2007). Néanmoins la diminution d'expression du récepteur D2 par outils génétiques réduit l'activité physique sans modifier la prise alimentaire et sans provoquer un phénotype « obèse » (Friend et al., 2017). Une étude de G. Ferreira a également pu montrer une réactivité du système mésolimbique durant l'adolescence chez des animaux sous régime riche en graisse. En plus de l'augmentation du tonus dopaminergique et de la libération de dopamine au niveau du NAc déjà énoncés, la structure présente également une augmentation de l'expression du D2R présynaptique, qui suggère des mécanismes compensatoires opposés selon la période d'exposition au régime gras (Naneix et al., 2017). Cependant, une étude clinique chez des enfants, a pu mettre en évidence une corrélation positive et spécifique entre la densité cellulaire du NAc et le tour de taille après un an, suggérant alors que la cyto-architecture de la structure, dès le plus jeune âge, serait prédictive d'une prise de poids (Rapuano et al., 2020). Pour autant, l'implication du récepteur D2 et/ou des D2-MSNs du striatum dans l'initiation d'une obésité indépendante d'un comportement « d'addiction pour la nourriture », responsable d'une escalade de la consommation, reste inconnue.

### 3.3.2. L'anorexie

L'anorexie est un trouble du comportement alimentaire, qui touche 1-2% de la population et préférentiellement les femmes (ratio 1/8). L'AN est la pathologie neuropsychiatrique la plus mortelle et présente une forte comorbidité avec différentes pathologies (Chesney *et al.*, 2014). Des études épidémiologiques rapportent qu'une

majorité des individus souffrant d'AN ont également déjà eu des troubles de l'anxiété (50% ; Swinbourne & Touyz, 2007) des troubles obsessionnels compulsif (50% ; Halmi *et al.*, 2003), ou encore une dépendance à l'alcool (20% ; Bulik *et al.*, 2004). Les patients souffrant d'AN présentent également une multitude de complications somatiques, au niveau d'organes périphériques, pouvant être ponctuelles (anémie, syncope, néphrolithiase) ou même chroniques (maladie auto-immune ; ostéoporose). La maladie présente également un caractère évolutif dans le sens ou les patients alternent des phases de guérison et de rechute. Pour autant, en dépit du caractère morbide de cette pathologie, notre compréhension des circuits neuro-anatomiques impliqués reste limitée. De la même manière que pour l'obésité, aucun modèle n'a réussi à mimer le phénotype comportemental de l'AN sans altérer les circuits de l'homéostasie énergétique (LouC/ rat ; Alliot *et al.*, 2002; Méquinion *et al.*, 2003), d'autant plus que la validité de ces modèles reste débattue au sein de la littérature.

Des études récentes ont pu révéler une forte implication du facteur génétique dans la survenu de l'AN. En effet, une étude effectuée au sein d'une même famille estime que la probabilité de transmettre la maladie à sa descendance est d'environ 60 % (Bulik *et al.*, 2006). De plus, la prévalence pour que deux jumeaux développent l'AN est bien plus importante lorsque ceux-ci sont monozygotes comparativement à ceux dizygotes, renforçant l'idée d'une transmission génétique de la maladie (Holland *et al.*, 1984). Bien que l'implication de loci spécifiques dans l'AN reste mal caractérisée, certaines études rapportent un polymorphisme des récepteurs dopaminergiques (Bergen *et al.*, 2005; Bulik-Sullivan *et al.*, 2015; Gervasini & Gamero-Villarroel, 2015; Duncan *et al.*, 2017). Les GWAS mettent surtout en évidence une corrélation génétique positive avec les maladies neuropsychiatriques telles que la schizophrénie dont le phénotype majeur reste une altération du système dopaminergique (Watson *et al.*, 2019).

Sur la base des études de neuro-imagerie, il fut admis que les patients atteints d'AN présentent une diminution globale de la substance blanche et grise particulièrement visible au sein de l'hypothalamus, des ganglions de la base, et de plusieurs aires corticales (Titova *et al.*, 2013; King *et al.*, 2015; Meneguzzo *et al.*, 2019). La plupart de ces altérations, semblent néanmoins se normaliser suite à une rémission, ce qui laisse penser que leur survenue soit plutôt une conséquence de la dénutrition inhérente à l'AN plutôt qu'une cause du phénotype comportemental de la maladie (Frank *et al.*, 2013).

2013). Ce serait surtout une altération dans la connectivité de ces réseaux qui serait impliquée, concernant un déséquilibre entre le circuit de la récompense en particulier au niveau du striatum et des systèmes inhibiteurs corticaux (Kaye *et al.*, 2013; Kullmann *et al.*, 2014).

En effet, plusieurs études d'imagerie fonctionnelle, chez des patients atteints d'AN ont pu révéler des signaux anormaux au niveau du NAc, de l'OFC, de l'insula, de l'amygdale (Brooks et al., 2011; Joos et al., 2011; Steward et al., 2017), mais également au niveau du striatum dorsal (Rothemund et al., 2011; Titova et al., 2013; Foerde et al., 2015; Bailer et al., 2017). Deux théories centrées sur les connexions fronto-striatales ont alors été proposées pour expliquer le maintien des symptômes de l'AN (Wierenga et al., 2014; Steinglass & Walsh, 2016). Le modèle du déficit de récompense suggère une désensibilisation des stimuli associés à la nourriture palatable, engageant classiquement le système dopaminergique, à l'inverse de stimuli associés à la « minceur » qui vont être saillants et recruter le striatum ventral (Fladung et al., 2010; Brooks et al., 2011). Le modèle centré sur « l'habitude » (au sens de compulsion) rajoute, qu'en plus d'un trouble de la prise alimentaire dépendant initialement du striatum ventral, un transfert s'effectue donnant un caractère compulsif au symptôme de la maladie qui dépendrait alors d'une altération du dSTR (Walsh, 2013; Godier & Park, 2014; Steinglass & Walsh, 2016). D'autre part, les études de G. Frank observent une diminution de l'activité neuronale du striatum lors de la consommation de sucrose, associée à une modification de l'affinité des récepteurs dopaminergiques (Frank et al., 2005, 2012). Certaines études proposent notamment que ces altérations soient représentatives des modifications de l'hédonie dans l'AN (Der-Avakian & Markou, 2012).

Finalement, sur la base des études cliniques d'imagerie, l'implication du système mésolimbique dans l'obésité et dans l'AN semble évidente. Pourtant, la compréhension du rôle du striatum dans le déclenchement de la pathologie ou comme conséquence d'autres altérations sous-jacentes de la pathologie reste incomplète. En dehors des évidences cliniques, la modélisation de ces pathologies au niveau préclinique et les circuits neurobiologiques impliqués doivent encore être caractérisés.

# Objectifs

Sur la base de la littérature actuelle, l'implication du système mésolimbique, en particulier celle des neurones du striatum ventral dans le contrôle comportemental de la prise alimentaire, a pu clairement être identifiée. Le système mésolimbique dopaminergique peut être aussi bien recruté dans l'optique de satisfaire une homéostasie énergétique (impliquant une connectivité avec l'hypothalamus) que dans ce que nous définissons par une homéostasie cognitive (impliquant une connectivité avec des aires corticales et limbiques). Une altération de l'activité du striatum, pouvant alors être associée à des altérations du comportement ingestif et/ou de dépense énergétique, semblent au moins en partie responsable de la mise en place et/ou de la maintenance des pathologies de la prise alimentaire telles que l'AN, les syndromes d'hyperphagie incontrôlée et l'obésité. Pour autant, le rôle spécifique des populations du striatum ventral, à savoir les D1-MSNs et D2-MSNs connus depuis longtemps comme des unités fonctionnelles antagonistes dans les différentes phases du comportement de prise alimentaire, concernant la phase anticipatoire (recherche de stimuli prédictifs de nourriture, effort déployé pour obtenir de la nourriture), leur impication dans les phases ingestive (arrêt/maintien de la consommation) et noningestive (arrêt/maintien des dépense énergétiques) restent floue. Tandis que ces populations neuronales ont surtout été associées à la phase anticipatoire, les qualifiant alors de sentinelles sensorielles de la prise alimentaire, l'émergence de nouvelles technologies (optogénétique et pharmacogénétique) permettant de moduler spécifiquement et de manière bidirectionnelle l'activité des neurones, a pu remettre en cause le rôle antagoniste entre les différentes sous populations de MSNs au sein du striatum ventral, soulignant alors la nécessité de réévaluer leurs rôles respectifs dans les différents phases du comportement alimentaire.

Le premier article (Ducrocq *et al.*, 2020) sur lequel je suis 2<sup>e</sup> auteur, illustre l'implication du réseau de MSNs du NAc dans le contrôle des processus motivationnels dans le contexte d'une manipulation de la composition cérébrale en acides gras polyinsaturés. Cette étude tend à confirmer les rôles opposés des D1- et D2-MSNs dans le contrôle de la composante motivationnelle pour la recherche d'une récompense alimentaire et démontre une sensibilité spécifique des MSNs lors d'un déséquilibre d'une variable nutritionnelle.

Le second article (Walle et al., en préparation) concerne une étude dont l'objectif a été d'identifier les conséquences comportementales d'une modulation bidirectionnelle aigüe et chronique des D1-MSNs et D2-MSNs au cours des différentes phases de la prise alimentaire. Pour cela nous avons utilisé l'outil de pharmacogénétique par le biais de l'expression d'une DREADD couplée à une protéine Gq ou Gi, permettant respectivement l'activation ou l'inhibition des neurones. L'expression spécifique des DREADDs dans les différentes populations a pu être médiée par l'utilisation des souris transgéniques D1-cre ou D2-cre et d'une stratégie virale cre-lox. Pour modéliser les phases anticipatoires, nous avons utilisé des paradigmes de conditionnement opérant chez des souris adultes, sous privation alimentaire et nous sommes principalement intéressés à la composante motivationnelle, dimension la plus débattue au sein de la littérature. Pour modéliser les phases ingestive et non-ingestive, nous avons évalué l'activité physique sur une roue d'activité et la prise alimentaire de nourriture standard ou palatable, chez des animaux à satiété ou privés en nourriture. Dans un second temps, nous avons évalué les conséquences comportementales et phénotypiques d'une modulation bidirectionnelle chronique des D1-MSNs et D2-MSNs chez des souris D1-cre et D2-cre ayant accès à une nourriture palatable et une roue d'activité. Enfin, dans la dernière partie de ce projet de thèse, nous avons voulu déterminer si une modulation chronique et opposée, à la fois des D1-MSNs et D2-MSNs est suffisante pour induire les endophenotypes observés dans les troubles du comportement alimentaire. Pour cela, nous avons utilisé un modèle génétique unique : une souris D1-flp/D2-cre, nous permettant alors par les systèmes cre-lox et flp-frt une modulation chronique et simultanée des D1- et D2-MSNs chez des souris à nouveau exposées à une nourriture palatable et une roue d'activité.

Résultat

Article n°1

# Article

# **Cell Metabolism**

# Causal Link between n-3 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid Deficiency and Motivation Deficits

# **Graphical Abstract**



# **Highlights**

- Developmental deficiency in n-3 PUFA lipid species leads to motivational deficits
- n-3 PUFA deficiency increases D2-MSN lateral inhibition in the nucleus accumbens
- Rescue of n-3 PUFA levels in D2 neurons normalizes lateral inhibition of D2-MSNs
- Rescue of PUFA levels in D2 neurons enhances motivation under n-3 PUFA deficiency

# Authors

Fabien Ducrocq, Roman Walle, Andrea Contini, ..., Clementine Bosch-Bouju, Véronique De Smedt-Peyrusse, Pierre Trifilieff

# Correspondence

fabien.ducrocq1989@gmail.com (F.D.), pierre.trifilieff@inrae.fr (P.T.)

# In Brief

Ducrocq et al. show that rescuing PUFA levels selectively in dopamine D2 receptor-expressing neurons prevents motivational deficits under developmental n-3 PUFA deficiency. These results support that lower n-3 PUFA biostatus described in psychopathologies could account for reward-related symptoms.



# Causal Link between n-3 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid Deficiency and Motivation Deficits

Fabien Ducrocq,<sup>1,\*</sup> Roman Walle,<sup>1</sup> Andrea Contini,<sup>1</sup> Asma Oummadi,<sup>1</sup> Baptiste Caraballo,<sup>1</sup> Suzanne van der Veldt,<sup>1</sup> Marie-Lou Boyer,<sup>1</sup> Frank Aby,<sup>1</sup> Tarson Tolentino-Cortez,<sup>2</sup> Jean-Christophe Helbling,<sup>1</sup> Lucy Martine,<sup>3</sup> Stéphane Grégoire,<sup>3</sup> Stéphanie Cabaret,<sup>3</sup> Sylvie Vancassel,<sup>1</sup> Sophie Layé,<sup>1</sup> Jing Xuan Kang,<sup>4</sup> Xavier Fioramonti,<sup>1</sup> Olivier Berdeaux,<sup>3</sup> Gabriel Barreda-Gómez,<sup>2</sup> Elodie Masson,<sup>3</sup> Guillaume Ferreira,<sup>1</sup> David W.L. Ma,<sup>5</sup> Clementine Bosch-Bouju,<sup>1</sup> Véronique De Smedt-Peyrusse,<sup>1</sup> and Pierre Trifilieff<sup>1,6,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Université Bordeaux, INRAE, Bordeaux INP, NutriNeuro, 33000, Bordeaux, France

<sup>2</sup>Research Department, IMG Pharma Biotech S.L., BIC Bizkaia (612), 48160 Derio, Spain

<sup>3</sup>Centre des Sciences du Goût et de l'Alimentation, AgroSup Dijon, CNRS, INRAE, Université Bourgogne Franche-Comté, 21000 Dijon, France

<sup>4</sup>Laboratory for Lipid Medicine and Technology, Massachusetts General Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02129, USA <sup>5</sup>Department of Human Health and Nutritional Sciences, University of Guelph, 50 Stone Road E., Guelph, ON N1G2W1, Canada <sup>6</sup>Lead Contact

\*Correspondence: fabien.ducrocq1989@gmail.com (F.D.), pierre.trifilieff@inrae.fr (P.T.) https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2020.02.012

#### SUMMARY

Reward-processing impairment is a common symptomatic dimension of several psychiatric disorders. However, whether the underlying pathological mechanisms are common is unknown. Herein, we asked if the decrease in the n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) lipid species, consistently described in these pathologies, could underlie reward-processing deficits. We show that reduced n-3 PUFA biostatus in mice leads to selective motivational impairments. Electrophysiological recordings revealed increased collateral inhibition of dopamine D2 receptor-expressing medium spiny neurons (D2-MSNs) onto dopamine D1 receptor-expressing MSNs in the nucleus accumbens, a main brain region for the modulation of motivation. Strikingly, transgenically preventing n-3 PUFA deficiency selectively in D2-expressing neurons normalizes MSN collateral inhibition and enhances motivation. These results constitute the first demonstration of a causal link between a behavioral deficit and n-3 PUFA decrease in a discrete neuronal population and suggest that lower n-3 PUFA biostatus in psychopathologies could participate in the etiology of reward-related symptoms.

#### INTRODUCTION

A symptom-focused transdiagnostic approach is increasingly considered in psychiatric research in order to identify common pathological mechanisms for the improvement of treatment algorithms. In this context, avolition, defined as the decrease in the motivation to initiate and perform self-directed purposeful activities (American Psychiatric Association, 2013), is a common symptom of several psychiatric disorders such as major depressive disorder (MDD), bipolar disorders (BPs), and schizophrenia (SCZ) that remain largely resistant to current pharmaceutical treatments. Numerous evidence supports that this behavioral endophenotype originates from alterations within the brain reward system (for review, Whitton et al., 2015). However, whether this common symptom relies on shared pathological mechanisms remains largely unclear.

A growing body of evidence suggests the existence of a relationship for SCZ, BP, and MDD. Indeed, several common genetic variants and pattern of gene expression (Gandal et al., 2018; Witt et al., 2017), as well as environmental factors (Nestler et al., 2016), have been identified as risk factors for the etiology of these diseases. Notably, meta-analyses and cross-sectional case-control studies have consistently revealed decreased levels of phospholipid-containing n-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) in erythrocytes and/or plasma of patients at high risk or with SCZ (Alqarni et al., 2019; Hoen et al., 2013), BP (Clayton et al., 2008; Pottala et al., 2012), or MDD (Lin et al., 2010;

#### **Context and Significance**

Motivational deficits are a shared symptom of several psychiatric disorders associated with lower n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) levels. This study aimed to establish whether low biostatus in n-3 PUFA lipid species can cause deficits in reward processing. We found in mice that n-3 PUFA deficiency during development leads to motivational deficits at adulthood in effort-based tasks. At the neurobiological level, this effect is related to a unique sensitivity of dopamine D2 receptor-expressing neurons of the brain reward system to changes in PUFAs. This work establishes a causal link between a behavioral deficit and n-3 PUFA decrease in a discrete neuronal population and raises the idea that lower n-3 PUFA biostatus could participate in reward-related symptoms in psychopathologies.

McNamara et al., 2014; for review, Messamore and McNamara, 2016). This suggests that low n-3 PUFA biostatus coincides with, and may precede the initial onset of, psychopathologies. Moreover, even though there are some discrepancies (Igarashi et al., 2010; Lalovic et al., 2007; Yao et al., 2000), some postmortem analyses revealed lower brain n-3 PUFA contents in psychiatric patients (Conklin et al., 2010; McNamara et al., 2007a, 2007b, 2008; Tatebayashi et al., 2012). However, the implication of such decrease in n-3 PUFA levels in the etiology of the diseases remains largely controversial, notably due to discrepant outcomes from clinical trials that evaluated the effect of dietary n-3 PUFA supplementation on psychiatric symptoms. Indeed, while some meta-analyses observed significant advantage of n-3 PUFA supplementation for MDD (Grosso et al., 2014; Sublette et al., 2011) or BP (Sarris et al., 2012), some reported modest benefits (Appleton et al., 2015). Similarly, in patients at risk for SCZ, a first follow-up study found reduced risk of progression to psychotic disorders after n-3 PUFA supplementation (Amminger et al., 2015), which failed to be reproduced in a multi-center clinical trial (McGorry et al., 2017). Nonetheless, these findings highlight that, if any, the neurostructural and neurochemical perturbations resulting from lower n-3 PUFA biostatus could be difficult to reverse with late supplementation. This is likely due to their developmental origin (Amminger et al., 2015), in accordance with the strong developmental etiology of these psychiatric disorders (Owen and O'Donovan, 2017).

PUFAs are fatty acid species that contain two or more unsaturation in their carbon chain. They divide in two main species, depending on the position of the first unsaturation, on the 3rd or the 6<sup>th</sup> carbon for n-3 and n-6 PUFA families, respectively. PUFAs are main constituents of cell membrane phospholipids. They accumulate in the brain during in utero development and constitute roughly 30% of total brain lipids in adulthood, where they can modulate membrane properties, signaling pathways, and cell metabolism (Bazinet and Layé, 2014). Preclinical models revealed that developmental n-3 PUFA deficiency disrupts neurogenesis and neuronal differentiation (Beltz et al., 2007; Calderon and Kim, 2004), synaptic pruning (de Velasco et al., 2012), and endocannabinoid-dependent plasticity (Lafourcade et al., 2011; Thomazeau et al., 2017). Functionally, gestational n-3 PUFA deficiency in rodents recapitulates some symptomatic dimensions of psychiatric disorders such as anxiety-like behaviors and cognitive deficits (Lafourcade et al., 2011; Larrieu et al., 2012, 2014; Maekawa et al., 2017). Concerning the reward system, perinatal n-3 PUFA deficiency until weaning potentiates reinforcing effects of sucrose (Auguste et al., 2018). Multigenerational n-3 PUFA deficiency has been shown to result in discrete alterations in several markers of dopamine transmission (for review, see Chalon, 2006) paralleled with mild instrumental learning deficits (Bondi et al., 2014). However, regarding these latter findings, it is difficult to rule out an implication of transmissible epigenetic effects of n-3 PUFA decrease. Nonetheless, all the aforementioned observations remain correlative and the causal links between central n-3 PUFA deficiency-induced neurobiological alterations and behavioral deficits remain to be established.

Herein, we focused on reward processing as a main common symptomatic dimension of psychiatric disorders in which decreased n-3 PUFA biostatus has been described. We show that n-3 PUFA deficiency from gestation to adulthood leads to selective motivational deficits in adulthood, accompanied by increased collateral inhibition of dopamine D2 receptor-expressing medium spiny neurons (D2-MSNs) onto D1 receptor-expressing MSNs (D1-MSNs) in the nucleus accumbens (NAc). Strikingly, using a unique transgenic model, we demonstrate that preventing n-3 PUFA deficiency selectively in dopamine D2-expressing neurons reverses alterations in collateral inhibition between MSNs and enhances motivational performance in n-3 PUFA deficient animals. This study establishes a causal link between PUFA alteration in a discrete neuronal population and behavioral deficits, and suggests that decreased n-3 PUFA biostatus could participate in the etiology of reward processing impairments in psychiatric disorders.

#### RESULTS

#### n-3 PUFA Deficiency from Gestation to Adulthood Selectively Alters PUFA Content in Brain Phospholipids

The efficacy of dietary manipulation to alter brain PUFA composition has been previously validated (Joffre et al., 2016) (see Table S1 for diet compositions). n-3 PUFA deficiency from gestation to adulthood had no effect on the proportions of phospholipid classes or on cholesterol levels (Figures 1A and 1B) measured by liquid chromatography (LC)-Corona or gas chromatography with flame ionization detection, respectively (Figure S1A). We then analyzed the fatty acid composition of the three main phospholipid classes, namely, phosphatidylethanolamines (PE), phosphatidylcholine (PC), and sphingomyelin (SM) by LC coupled with mass spectrometry (LC-MS) (Figure S1A). We first found that n-3 PUFA deficiency led to an overall decrease in the number of unsaturation due to a decrease in the relative abundance of phospholipids containing six unsaturation (40:6 and 38:6) in favor of phospholipids containing four or five unsaturation (38:4, 38:5, and 40:5) (Figures 1C and 1D). This effect was mainly observed in PEs, the main reservoir of PUFAs, compared to PCs and SMs (Figures 1C, 1D, and S1B-S1E). Gas chromatography analysis revealed that this effect was mostly related to a decrease in the n-3 PUFA docosahexenoic acid (DHA, C22:6)-the main n-3 PUFA in the brain-and an increase in the n-6 PUFA docosapentenoic acid (DPA, C22:5) (Figure 1E). We also observed a slight, though significant, augmentation of the main n-6 PUFA arachidonic acid (AA, C20:4) (Figure 1E). This led to a whole-brain increase in the n-6/n-3 ratio (Figure 1F). These changes mostly resulted from the replacement of DHA by n-6 DPA in PEs, even though n-6 DPA was present in very little amounts in the brain of control animals (Figures 1D, 1E, and 1G). It is likely that such enrichment in n-6 DPA under n-3 PUFA deficiency reflects a compensatory mechanism that allows maintaining membrane integrity in terms of length of the phospholipid sn-2 acyl chains since DPA and DHA only differ by one unsaturation (see Table S2 for detailed brain lipidomic analyses).

#### n-3 PUFA Deficiency Leads to Deficits in Effort-Based Tasks in Adulthood that Can Be Prevented by Perinatal Supplementation

We next assessed the effect of n-3 PUFA deficiency on motivational processes and their potential reversibility by postnatal n-3



#### Figure 1. n-3 PUFA Deficiency Leads to Alteration of Brain Lipid Composition

(A-F) Whole-brain lipid composition measured at adulthood.

(A and B) Percent (%) of principal phospholipid (PL) families (PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PC, phosphatidylcholine; PI, phosphatidyl-inositol; SM, sphingomyelin) (A) and the amount of cholesterol (B) were similar in Ctrl and n-3 PUFA-deficient groups.

(C) However, the relative abundance of the number of unsaturation within the two main families of phospholipids (PE and PC) was changed with significant decrease of PL containing six unsaturation compensated mostly by an increase in PL containing five unsaturation in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals. These changes were mainly occurring within PEs.

(D) Indeed, detailed analysis of fatty acyl chains (>1% of total PE in control group) revealed that PEs containing 6, 5, or 4 unsaturation were the main species altered by n-3 PUFA deficiency.

(E) Analysis of the percent (%) of main PUFA species confirmed that the major changes occurred for PUFAs containing 6 or 5 unsaturation, docosahexenoic acid (DHA; C22:6 n-3) and docosapentenoic acid (DPA; C22:5 n-6), which were decreased and increased, respectively. Arachidonic acid (AA; C20:4) was significantly though slightly increased in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals. Concerning the two precursors upstream of DHA, eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA; C20:5) was not detected, while alpha-linolenic acid (ALA; C18:3) was not changed.

(F) These alterations in PUFA species resulted in an overall increase of n-6/n-3 PUFA ratio in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals.

(G) Schematic representation of the major modifications induced by n-3 PUFA deficiency in brain phospholipids: PE C40:6 change into PE C40:5 by the replacement of DHA (C22:6 n-3) by DPA (C22:5 n-6) in the sn2 position.

Data are means ± SEM. \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\*p < 0.001. Ctrl, control group; n-3 def, n-3 PUFA-deficient group. Raw lipidomic data are described in Table S3. For statistical details, see Table S5.

PUFA supplementation (Figure 2A). In its broadest sense, motivation can be defined as the process that energizes behavior in pursuit of a goal and relies on several parameters such as cost-benefit computation, vigor, or persistence (Salamone and Correa, 2012; Simpson and Balsam, 2016). In order to evaluate the impact of n-3 PUFA deficiency on these subcomponents of motivation, we used two operant conditioning paradigms, the progressive ratio (PRx2) and the concurrent lever pressing/ free-feeding tasks. These effort-based tasks assess the ability of animals to exert effort in the face of increasing motivational demand, and to obtain a preferred reward in the presence of a less preferred, though freely accessible food, respectively. Performances of n-3 PUFA-deficient animals were similar to controls in low work requirement tasks (FR-RR) both in terms of amount of instrumental responses and press rate (Figures 2B and 2C). However, they displayed consistent impairments in both effortbased tasks (Figures 2D, 2E, and S2A). More specifically, we

did not observe significant decrease in total lever-pressing or breakpoint, likely due to the fact that, in the PRx2 task, the large majority of lever pressing is generated within lower, lessdemanding ratios (Figures 2D and S2A). However, n-3 PUFAdeficient animals stopped lever-pressing earlier as reflected by decreased session duration and "survival," two parameters classically used to assess the ability of animals to maintain effort (Bailey et al., 2016; Carvalho Poyraz et al., 2016; Donthamsetti et al., 2018; Filla et al., 2018; Gallo et al., 2018; Simpson et al., 2014). Importantly, there was no significant difference in press rates for a given ratio or overall press rates (Figures 2D and S2A). These data suggest that, while instrumental vigor is spared, n-3 PUFA-deficient animals display a selective deficit in the ability to maintain effort when the motivational demand becomes too high. A comparable deficit was also present in n-3 PUFA-deficient females (Figure S2B). In the concurrent lever pressing/free-feeding task, n-3 PUFA-deficient animals



Figure 2. n-3 PUFA Deficiency from Gestation to Adulthood Leads to Motivational Deficit (A) Experimental models of nutritional n-3 PUFA deficiency in mice from gestation to adulthood (1) and supplementation with LC n-3 PUFA at either P21 (2) or P0 (3).



#### <sup>C</sup> Markers of DA transmission in the NAc core



**Figure 3. Dopamine Transmission Is Spared by n-3 PUFA Deficiency** (A) While intraperitoneal amphetamine at 1 mg/kg enhanced lever-pressing in control animals, it had no effect in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals.

(B) Measure of basal and amphetamine-stimulated dopamine release in the NAc by microdialysis.

(C) Western blot analyses of major dopaminergic markers: DAT, TH, D2R, and D1R in the NAc.

Data are means  $\pm$  SEM. \*p < 0.05. Ctrl, control group; n-3 def, n-3 PUFAdeficient group. For statistical details, see Table S5.

displayed increased consumption of freely accessible, lesspreferred food at the expense of lever pressing for the preferred reward (Figure 2E). This difference in resource allocation toward a low-effort alternative supports an impairment of cost-benefit computation in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Salamone et al., 2018; Trifilieff et al., 2013). Interestingly, this resembles the motivational deficit characteristic of SCZ, BP, and MDD that has been shown to originate in part from a distortion of outcome anticipation and representation (Whitton et al., 2015). Importantly, neither the licking microstructures during consumption of the palatable reward (Figure 2F), which allow assessing hedonic reactivity, palatability of the tastant, and post-ingestive feedback mechanisms (Ducrocq et al., 2019), nor spontaneous locomotion were altered in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (data not shown). Altogether, these data support that the deficits in effort-based tasks in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals are specifically related to impairments in motivational processes with no alteration of hedonic or motoric components.

In order to evaluate the developmental component of n-3 PUFA deficiency-induced motivational deficits, we assessed if supplementing n-3 PUFA-deficient animals with n-3 long-chain PUFAs starting at birth or at weaning could reverse motivational deficits in adulthood. Whereas n-3 PUFA supplementation (fish oil; Table S1) at postnatal day 21 (P21) failed to reverse the motivational deficit, P0 supplementation rescued performance in the PRx2 task (Figures 2G, 2H, S2C, and S2D), suggesting that n-3 PUFA deficiency during the perinatal period is critical for the development of neuronal networks controlling motivation.

#### Dopamine Transmission per se Is Spared by n-3 PUFA Deficiency

Dopamine transmission, and especially the mesolimbic pathway constituted by projections from the midbrain to the ventral striatum (or NAc), is a main neuromodulatory system involved in motivational processes (Salamone and Correa, 2012; Trifilieff et al., 2013). To assess its functional integrity under n-3 PUFA deficiency, we challenged animals with amphetamine-which increases extracellular dopamine levels, particularly in the NAc-and evaluated the impact on motivational performance. Strikingly, the pro-motivational effect of amphetamine in the PRx2 task was blunted in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Figure 3A), suggesting that n-3 PUFA deficiency impacted mesolimbic dopamine transmission, as previously shown with multigenerational models (Bondi et al., 2014; Chalon, 2006). However, we did not detect any change in basal and amphetamine-induced dopamine release using microdialysis (Figure 3B), or in the expression levels of the dopamine transporter DAT and of the L-DOPA synthetizing enzyme tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) in the NAc (Figures 3C and S3). These data suggested that the presynaptic component of mesolimbic dopamine transmission was spared in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals. Moreover, expression of the two main dopamine receptors D1 and D2 was not significantly changed in the NAc of n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Figures 3C and S3). Altogether, these data suggested that dopamine transmission per se was preserved in n-3 PUFA-deficient

<sup>(</sup>B and C) n-3 PUFA-deficient mice displayed similar lever-pressing as control animals during fixed ratio and random ratio tasks (FR-RR) in the total amount of operant responses (B) and press rates during FR1, RR10, and RR20 sessions (C).

<sup>(</sup>D) n-3 PUFA-deficient mice had shorter session duration during the progressive ratio task (PRx2) (left) and decreased "survival" (middle), but did not differ from control group in term of press rate, plotted as a function of ratio requirement (right). Numbers on graph bars indicate the n's.

<sup>(</sup>E) In the concurrent lever-pressing/free-feeding task, n-3 PUFA-deficient mice displayed lower lever presses for the reward but higher consumption of the freely available food. Numbers on graph bars indicate the n's.

<sup>(</sup>F) Analyses of licking microstructures during consumption of the freely available reward showed that total consumption, number of licks, number of bursts, number of licks per burst, and burst duration were similar between n-3 def and Ctrl.

<sup>(</sup>G) n-3 supplementation starting at P21 did not impact session duration or "survival" in the PRx2 task.

<sup>(</sup>H) However, n-3 supplementation starting at P0 abolished the decrease in "survival" in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals in the PRx2 task.

Data are means  $\pm$  SEM. \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01. Ctrl, control group; n-3 def, n-3 PUFA-deficient group; suppl P21, n-3 PUFA supplementation starting at postnatal day 21; suppl P0, n-3 PUFA supplementation starting at postnatal day 0. For statistical details, see Table S5.

animals, in contrast to what had been described in multigenerational models of deficiency (Bondi et al., 2014; Chalon, 2006).

#### n-3 PUFA Deficiency Enhances D2 Receptor-Dependent Inhibitory Inputs onto D1-MSNs

Considering their central role in the modulation of motivation (Carvalho Poyraz et al., 2016; Natsubori et al., 2017; Soares-Cunha et al., 2016), we assessed the integrity of dopaminoceptive MSNs—the main neuronal population of the striatum—in the NAc. Similar to our findings in the whole brain (Figure 1), n-3 PUFA deficiency strongly altered membrane PUFA composition in the striatum. However, we observed moderate though significant changes in the levels of cholesterol and some phospholipid species (Figures S4A–S4K), supporting a unique sensitivity of the striatum to PUFA manipulations (see Table S3 for detailed striatal lipidomic analyses).

Functionality of MSNs of the NAc was assessed with wholecell patch-clamp recording on acute brain slices containing the NAc from D1-GFP reporter mice (Figure 4A). Basic intrinsic properties of both D1-MSNs (GFP-positive) and D2-MSNs (GFPnegative) were spared in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Figures 4B–4J). Indeed, current-voltage and input-output curves were similar between n-3 PUFA-deficient and control animals for both D1-MSNs and D2-MSNs (Figures 4B–4D). In accordance, membrane properties measured as resting membrane potential (RMP), rheobase, action potential (AP) threshold, and input resistance, as well as spike properties such as delay to first spike and amplitude of action potential, were similar in control and n-3 PUFA-deficient animals for both MSN populations (Figures 4E–4J).

We further explored the firing capacity of MSNs in the NAc in response to electrical stimulation of the corpus callosum rostral to the NAc, which contains glutamatergic inputs originating from the prefrontal cortex, a main excitatory input onto the NAc (Figure 5A). We found that the firing probability for a given excitatory post-synaptic potential (EPSP) slope (E-S coupling) resulting from electrical stimulation of glutamatergic afferents onto the NAc was decreased in D1-MSNs, but not in D2-MSNs (Figure 5B). This suggested a diminution in integrative properties of D1-MSNs to generate an action potential in response to extrinsic stimulation in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Campanac and Debanne, 2008). This difference in E-S coupling in D1-MSNs between n-3 PUFA-deficient and control animals was abolished under bath application of the GABAA antagonist gabazine (Figure 5C). These data confirm that GABA transmission is a main factor that regulates E-S coupling (Daoudal and Debanne, 2003) and suggest that the decrease in E-S coupling in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals resulted from an increase of GABAergic inputs onto D1-MSNs. In accordance, frequency of spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic currents (sIPSCs)-but not excitatory postsynaptic currents (sEPSCs)-was significantly increased onto D1-MSNs, but not D2-MSNs, in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Figures 5D and S5A). This effect was preserved on miniature IPSCs (mIPSCs) (Figures 5E and S5B). Finally, the increased inhibitory input onto D1-MSNs in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals was further confirmed through an enhancement of extrasynaptic GABA-mediated tonic conductances, which have been demonstrated to strongly modulate neuronal excitability both ex vivo and in vivo (Borgkvist et al., 2015; Lemos et al., 2016; Maguire et al., 2014). Indeed, herein, we found that the effect of gabazine on GABA<sub>A</sub>-mediated tonic conductances was more pronounced in D1-MSNs of n-3-deficient compared to control mice (Figure S5C). Altogether, these data demonstrate an increase of inhibitory inputs onto D1-MSNs of the NAc in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals.

It has been recently shown that a main GABAergic input onto D1-MSNs results from collateral projections of D2-MSNs and that this inhibitory transmission depends on the activity of dopamine D2 receptors (Dobbs et al., 2016; Lemos et al., 2016). Another main inhibitory input onto both MSN types originates from GABAergic interneurons, which do not seem to express the D2 receptor (Bertran-Gonzalez et al., 2008). Therefore, we tested whether the increase in GABA inputs onto D1-MSNs in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals could be reversed by stimulation of D2 receptors that play a main role in the control of GABA transmission by D2-MSNs (Dobbs et al., 2016; Lemos et al., 2016) (Figure 5F). Application of the D2 receptor full agonist quinpirole normalized both E-S coupling (Figure 5G) and sIPSC frequency (Figure 5H) in D1-MSNs from n-3 PUFA-deficient animals, suggesting an increase in collateral inhibition of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs.

We next assessed the integrity of the dorsal part of ventral pallidum (VP), the main output structure of the NAc core in which virtually all neurons receive GABAergic projections from D2-MSNs while roughly half are contacted by D1-MSNs (Baimel et al., 2019; Kupchik et al., 2015). We performed patch-clamp recordings of VP neurons and found no difference in either intrinsic properties or spontaneous firing (Figure S5D). However, sIPSC frequency of dorsal VP neurons was decreased in n-3 PUFAdeficient animals (Figure S5E). In addition to local projections, the large majority of GABA inputs onto VP neurons originate from NAc MSNs (Root et al., 2015). Therefore, thanks to the specific Cre-dependent expression of a fluorescent reporter specifically in D2- or D1-expressing neurons, we evaluated the relative density of projections of each MSN population in the dorsal VP (Dobbs et al., 2019). Surprisingly, the relative density of projections originating from D2-expressing neurons was increased in the dorsal VP, while that from D1-expressing was unchanged, in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Figures S5F and S5G). Nonetheless, this alteration is unlikely to be the main mechanism that accounts for the motivational deficits in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals since disinhibition of the dorsal VP neurons would rather lead to enhanced performance (Gallo et al., 2018). In contrast, the increased inhibitory tone we found onto D1-MSNs of the NAc would likely blunt motivational processes (Natsubori et al., 2017; Soares-Cunha et al., 2016). Altogether, these data therefore supported that motivational deficit in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals could directly originate from enhanced collateral inhibitory input of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs in the NAc.

#### Selective Rescue of PUFA Levels in D2-Expressing Neurons Reverses Alterations of D1-MSN Properties and Increases Motivational Performance in n-3 PUFA-Deficient Animals

To further demonstrate the increase in collateral inhibition of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals, we asked whether preventing n-3 PUFA deficiency in D2-MSNs could be sufficient to reverse the neurobiological alterations we observed



Figure 4. n-3 PUFA Deficiency Does Not Affect Basal Intrinsic Properties of Medium Spiny Neurons in the Nucleus Accumbens Core (A) Whole-cell patch-clamp recording of D1-MSNs and D2-MSNs in the core part of the NAc. Representative image of NAc slices of a D1-EGFP mouse at low magnification (top) and high magnification under light transmission (middle) and epifluorescence (bottom).

(B) Representative traces of voltage responses in D1-MSNs (green box) and D2-MSNs (purple box).

(C–J) Measures of current-voltage curves (C), input-output curves (D), resting membrane potential (E), rheobase (F), AP threshold (G), membrane resistance (H), delay to 1<sup>st</sup> spike (I), and AP amplitude (J) in D1-MSNs (top, green box) and D2-MSNs (bottom, purple box).

Data are means ± SEM. All p > 0.05. Ctrl, control group; n-3 def, n-3 PUFA-deficient group. For statistical details, see Table S5.

in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals. To do so, we used the "iFAT1 mouse," a transgenic model that allows the Cre-dependent expression of the FAT1 enzyme (Clarke et al., 2014), a desatur-

ase from *C. elegans* that converts n-6 PUFAs into n-3 PUFAs by the addition of one unsaturation (Figures 6A and 6B). The Adora2a-Cre mouse is the model of choice for Cre-dependent



# Figure 5. n-3 PUFA Deficiency Leads to Decreased Excitability of Medium Spiny Neurons from the Direct Pathway (D1-MSN) through a D2R-Dependent Increase in GABA Transmission

(A) Schematic representation of a mouse sagittal slice with the patch pipette located in the core part of the NAc and the stimulating electrode located on the corpus callosum.

(B) Measure of the E-S coupling in both D1-MSNs (left) and D2-MSNs (right) revealed a significant decrease in excitability in response to electrical stimulation in D1-MSNs, but not D2-MSNs, in n-3 PUFA-deficient mice.

(C) This effect in D1-MSNs was abolished by application of the GABA-A receptor antagonist gabazine (Gbz).

(D) D1-MSNs in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals displayed increase in spontaneous IPSC (sIPSC) frequency. This effect was globally observed for all the amplitudes measured in D1-MSNs. Left: representative sIPSC traces. Middle: plot of sIPSC frequencies. Right: plot of sIPSC frequency/amplitude in D1-MSNs.

(E) Frequency of miniature IPSCs (mIPSCs) measured after application of TTX was increased in D1-MSNs of n-3 PUFA-deficient animals, and statistically increased for events of 20–30 pA. Left: representative mIPSC traces. Middle: plot of mIPSC frequency. Right: plot of mIPSC frequency/amplitude in D1-MSNs. (F) Schematic representation of the putative inhibitory effect of quinpirole on GABA release from D2 receptor-containing GABAergic synapses innervating D1-MSNs.

recombination in D2-MSNs, selectively. However, the A2A receptor promoter is highly active at the periphery, notably in hepatocytes that are involved in the synthesis of LC-PUFAs from precursors (Alchera et al., 2015). Therefore, expression of the FAT1 enzyme by crossing the iFAT1 mouse with Adora2a-Cre line would have resulted in a peripheral—and central rescue of PUFA levels. Therefore, we crossed iFAT1 mice with Drd2(D2)-Cre animals (Figure 6A).

Using reporter mice, we confirmed that such strategy was efficient to allow selective recombination in Cre-expressing MSNs in adulthood (Figures S6A and S6B). In accordance with the prenatal activity of the D2 promoter in the striatum (Araki et al., 2007), Cre-dependent FAT1 mRNA expression was detectable prenatally as early as embryonic stages E17/E18 in the striatum-but not at E15 despite significant Cre expression (data not shown) (Figure 6C)-while still not detectable at P0 in the frontal cortex (Figure S6C). At adulthood, we found a strong expression of FAT1 mRNA in the striatum, as well as a slight, though significant expression in the prefrontal cortex and the hypothalamus-brain regions in which the D2 promoter is known to be active (Beaulieu and Gainetdinov, 2011)-but not in the hippocampus (Figure 6D). In the striatum, this resulted in a significant conversion of n-6 PUFAs into their n-3 PUFA equivalents (Figure S6D). Importantly, at adulthood, PUFA composition of red blood cells was not altered in FAT1-expressing animals (Figure S6E). This latter result supported the absence of PUFA conversion in peripheral organs involved in the biosynthesis and/or storage of long-chain PUFAs. Accordingly, even though some slight Cre-independent expression of FAT1 was detectable in some peripheral organs, consistent with the previously reported transgene "leakage" in the iFAT1 mouse (Clarke et al., 2014), we did not find any Cre-dependent expression of FAT1 in the pancreas, abdominal adipose tissue, liver, or gut (Table S4).

FAT1 expression in D2-expressing neurons was sufficient to normalize both sIPSC frequency and E-S coupling of MSNs in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Figure 6E). In order to ensure that these effects were due to selective rescue of the inhibitory inputs of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs, we expressed cre-dependent fluorescent inhibitory DREADDs (DIO-hM4DGi-mcherry) by viralgene transfer in the NAc of n-3 PUFA-deficient D2-Cre animals expressing (FAT1e), or not (FAT1ne), the FAT1 enzyme and performed patch-clamp recordings of D1-MSNs (non-fluorescent) (Figures 6F and 6G). Of note, we found that, in D2-Cre mice, viral-mediated transduction of DREADDs led to very little, if any, expression in cholinergic interneurons (Figures S6F and S6G), as previously described (Gallo et al., 2018). Application of the DREADD ligand clozapine-N-oxide (CNO) had no effect on basal properties or sEPSC frequency of D1-MSNs (Figure S6H), but abolished the difference between FAT1 expressors (FAT1e) and FAT1 non-expressors (FAT1ne) in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals for both mIPSC frequency and E-S coupling of D1-MSNs (Figure 6H). These data demonstrated that the decreased integrative properties of D1-MSNs under n-3 PUFA deficiency is the direct consequence of an increased collateral inhibition from D2-MSNs. Importantly, we did not find any alteration of dopamine release in the ventral striatum under FAT1 expression in D2-expressing neurons (Figure S6I). These results confirmed the limited effect of n-3 PUFA deficiency on presynaptic mesolimbic dopamine transmission in our model and further support a main implication of D2-MSNs alterations in n-3 PUFA deficiency-induced motivational deficits.

Considering the pro-motivational role of D1-MSNs of the NAc core (Natsubori et al., 2017; Soares-Cunha et al., 2016), such an alteration of MSN network could likely account for motivational deficits in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals. We therefore evaluated whether preventing n-3 PUFA decrease selectively in D2expressing neurons would enhance performance in motivational tasks in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Figures 7A and 7B). Accordingly, n-3 PUFA-deficient animals that expressed the FAT1 enzyme in D2-expressing neurons displayed a selective enhancement of performance in the progressive ratio task with no change in lever-pressing under low motivational demand or pressing pattern (Figures 7C and S7A). This effect was absent in control (i.e., non-deficient) mice (Figure S7B). Strikingly, expression of the FAT1 enzyme in D1-expressing neuronsincluding D1-MSNs-had no effect on performance of n-3 PUFA-deficient animals (Figures 7D and S7C). Importantly, postnatal forebrain-specific expression of FAT1 mediated by aCAMK2 promoter-driven expression of the Cre recombinase-which includes MSNs (data not shown; Casanova et al., 2001)-failed to reverse the motivational deficit in n-3 PUFAdeficient animals (Figure S7D), confirming that the effects of n-3 PUFA deficiency on motivational performance result from perinatal effects (see Discussion).

#### DISCUSSION

Decreased whole-body n-3 PUFA biostatus has been consistently described in MDD, BP, and SCZ, three pathologies that share common symptoms, notably an alteration of rewardrelated processes. Even though these pathologies have been classically considered as distinct, an increasing approach in psychiatry is to favor symptomatic dimensions, avoiding categorical diagnostic boundaries, in order to identify transdiagnostic markers of common symptoms (Whitton et al., 2015). In this context, altogether, our data suggest that decreased n-3 PUFA biostatus could be involved in the etiology of motivational deficits and therefore constitute a biomarker for psychopathologies. Indeed, increasing evidence suggests that, rather than just a "loss of pleasure," anhedonia, the core symptom of MDD, could originate from alterations in reinforcement learning, reward anticipation, and willingness to exert efforts to obtain rewards, supporting a deficit in incentive processes (Whitton et al., 2015). Strikingly, individuals with MDD are less willing to exert effort to obtain a potentially larger reward in the effort expenditure for reward task (Treadway et al., 2012), which resembles

<sup>(</sup>G) The decrease in E-S coupling in D1-MSNs of n-3 PUFA-deficient animals was abolished by application of the D2 receptor agonist quinpirole (Quin).

<sup>(</sup>H) The difference in sIPSC frequency in D1-MSNs was abolished by application of quinpirole. This effect is observed for all sIPSC amplitudes. Left: representative sIPSC traces. Middle: sIPSC frequency. Right: plot of sIPSC frequency/amplitude in D1-MSNs.

Data are means ± SEM. \*p < 0.05. Ctrl, control group; n-3 def, n-3 PUFA-deficient group; Gbz, gabazine; Quin, quinpirole; TTX, tetrodotoxine. For statistical details, see Table S5.



Figure 6. Preventing n-3 PUFA Deficiency Selectively in D2R-Expressing Neurons Rescues the Lateral Inhibition of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs
(A) Schematic representation of the genetic strategy for expression of the FAT1 transgene in D2R-expressing neurons.
(B) Representation of the enzymatic effect of the FAT1 enzyme. It specifically converts linoleic acid (LA) into α-linolenic acid (ALA), arachidonic acid (AA) into eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), and docosapentaenoic acid (DPA) into docosahexaenoic acid (DHA).
(C) Cre-dependent FAT1 mRNA expression was not detectable prenatally at gestational day 15 (E15) but was detectable at gestational day 17/18 (E17/E18) and postnatal day 0 in the striatum (P0).

what we observed in the effort-based choice task in n-3 PUFAdeficient animals. Similarly, even though reward sensitivity is rather increased in manic phases of BP, patients in euthymic or depressive states display negative symptoms including avolition (Mancuso et al., 2015; Strauss et al., 2016a; Thaler et al., 2013; Whitton et al., 2015). Avolition is also one of the main negative symptoms of SCZ and has been described as resulting from difficulty in representing rewarding experiences accurately (Strauss and Gold, 2012), leading to an inability to mobilize effort effectively (Whitton et al., 2015). The decreased ability to maintain effort in the progressive ratio paradigm and biased response toward low-effort alternatives in the effort-based choice task in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals suggest that lower n-3 PUFA biostatus could participate to the etiology of reward processing symptoms. Clinical studies that assessed motivational deficits using progressive ratio or effort-based choice tasks reported a 20%-45% decreased performance in SCZ patients under antipsychotics (Fervaha et al., 2013; Gold et al., 2013; Strauss et al., 2016b). Considering the well-known worsening effect of antipsychotics on negative symptoms, especially amotivation, the mild, though consistent deleterious effect of n-3 PUFA deficiency (12%-15% decrease) holds symptomatic relevance, especially as a pre-symptomatic marker.

The impairment in reward processing in psychiatric disorders has been linked to alterations in dopamine transmission, which has been largely demonstrated to be involved in the modulation of motivation (Berke, 2018; Salamone and Correa, 2012). However, positron emission tomography imaging, which allows measuring markers of dopamine transmission, such as receptor availability, dopamine synthesis and release, or transporter binding, so far failed to identify a common alteration in dopamine transmission per se. Indeed, such markers seem to be spared in patients with MDD (Cannon et al., 2009; Hirvonen et al., 2008, 2011; Montgomery et al., 2007), while dopaminergic abnormalities in BP have been related to lower dopamine transporter availability (Anand et al., 2011; Whitton et al., 2015), and the most robust finding in SCZ is elevated striatal dopamine levels (Weinstein et al., 2017). However, a common alteration in these pathologies is revealed by functional imaging studies that have consistently described abnormal reward-related activity of dopaminoceptive regions of the reward system, including the striatum, in patients with MDD (Bress et al., 2013; Pizzagalli et al., 2009), BP (Caseras et al., 2013; Mason et al., 2014), and SCZ (Howes et al., 2009; Morris et al., 2012). Strikingly, similar to what has been described in psychiatric disorders, in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals, we found no obvious difference in markers of dopamine transmission but rather an alteration in the functionality of dopaminoceptive MSN network in the NAc, which has been largely shown to be involved in the modulation of motivation (Carvalho Poyraz et al., 2016; Flanigan and LeClair, 2017; Gallo et al., 2018; Natsubori et al., 2017; Soares-Cunha et al., 2016; Trifilieff et al., 2013).

Our data strongly support that n-3 PUFA deficiency enhances the collateral inhibition of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs in the NAc, resulting in decreased excitability of D1-MSNs. The functional importance of this collateral connectivity between MSNs in the NAc has been recently unraveled. Even though it is still a matter of debate (Gallo et al., 2018), collateral inhibition of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs has been proposed to be a main mechanism for the control of reward-related behaviors (Burke et al., 2017; Dobbs et al., 2016; Lemos et al., 2016). The dichotomic role of D1- and D2-MSNs of the NAc on instrumental responding and action initiation has been recently challenged (Natsubori et al., 2017; O'Connor et al., 2015; Soares-Cunha et al., 2016, 2019). However, knowing that activation of D1-MSNs facilitates operant responding in motivational tasks (Natsubori et al., 2017; Soares-Cunha et al., 2016), it is likely that enhanced inhibition from D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs participates in decreased motivational performance in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals. Accordingly, preventing n-3 PUFA decrease in D2-expressing neurons normalized collateral inhibition of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs, reversed D1-MSN excitability, and enhanced motivational performance in n-3 PUFA-deficient, but not control, animals. Importantly, preventing n-3 PUFA decrease in D1-expressing neurons-which largely include D1-MSNs-did not have any effect on motivational performance, further supporting that the enhanced inhibitory output of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs is a main mechanism responsible for decreased motivation. Another main inhibitory output of D2-MSN projections is the VP, and decreased excitability of D2-MSNs has been shown to enhance motivation through disinhibition of dorsal VP neuron activity (Gallo et al., 2018). In contrast, despite a slight increase of D2-MSN projections, our data show that, overall, in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals, dorsal VP cells receive fewer inhibitory inputs, going against an implication of such alteration in the motivational deficit.

A caveat to our approach is the use of the D2-cre transgenic mouse model for driving the expression of FAT1 in D2-MSNs. Indeed, D2 promoter-driven cre-dependent recombination has been described in other neuronal subtypes than D2-MSNs such as a small subset of cholinergic interneurons in the striatum (Gallo et al., 2018), neurons of the midbrain (Khlghatyan et al., 2019), and clusters of cortical neurons (Khlghatyan et al.,

<sup>(</sup>D) FAT1 expression in the striatum (Str), the prefrontal cortex (PFC), the hippocampus (HC), and the hypothalamus (HT) measured by qRT-PCR. The dashed line represents the level of expression of FAT1 in the non-inducible FAT1 mouse that expresses FAT1 ubiquitously.

<sup>(</sup>E) Expression of FAT1 in D2R-expressing neurons tends to reverse the increase in sIPSC frequency and reverses the increase in E-S coupling in MSNs.

<sup>(</sup>F) Schematic representation for the injection of the double-inverted open reading frame (DIO) hM4Di-mCherry-carrying viral vector injection in the NAc core of n-3-deficient Drd2-Cre, FAT1e, or FAT1ne mice. Sagittal slice showing that viral vector-mediated expression of hM4Di-mCherry is largely restricted to neurons of the NAc core with mCherry-positive terminal fields in the dIVP.

<sup>(</sup>G) This strategy allows restricting the expression of the inhibitory DREADD to D2R-expressing neurons that express (FAT1e) or not (FAT1ne) the FAT1 enzyme and record non-fluorescent neurons, putative D1-MSNs of the NAc core.

<sup>(</sup>H) Activation of the inhibitory DREADD by CNO application abolished the difference in mIPSC frequency (left) and E-S coupling (right) in D1-MSNs between FAT1e and FAT1ne n-3 PUFA-deficient animals.

Data are means  $\pm$  SEM. #p < 0.1, \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, and \*\*\*p < 0.001. Ctrl, control group; n-3 def, n-3 PUFA deficient group; Cre+, Cre recombinase expression, Cre-, no expression of Cre recombinase; FAT1+, FAT1 transgene carrier, FAT1-, FAT1 non-carrier; FAT1e, FAT1 expression, FAT1ne, FAT1 no expression; CNO, bath application of clozapine-N-oxide. For statistical details, see Table S5.



Figure 7. Preventing n-3 PUFA Deficiency Selectively in D2R-Expressing Neurons Enhances Motivation

(A and B) Schematic representations of a mouse performing operant conditioning task (A) and of the genetic strategy for expression of the FAT1 transgene in D2-MSNs or D1-MSNs (B).

(C) Expression of FAT1 in D2-expressing neurons in n-3 PUFA-deficient animal enhanced session duration in the PRx2 task (left) as well as "survival" (middle) with no effect on press rate, plotted as a function of the ratio requirement (right).

(D) Expression of FAT1 in D1-expressing neurons in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals did not impact session duration (left) or "survival" (middle) and press rate, plotted as a function of the ratio requirement (right) in the PRx2 task.

Data are means ± SEM. #p < 0.1, \*p < 0.05. Ctrl, control group; n-3 def, n-3 PUFA-deficient group; Cre+, Cre recombinase expression; Cre-, no expression of Cre recombinase; FAT1+, FAT1 transgene carrier; FAT1-, FAT1 non-carrier. For statistical details, see Table S5.

2019). However, first, we found very little, if any, Cre-dependent recombination in cholinergic interneurons in the D2-Cre mouse as previously reported (Gallo et al., 2018). Second, dopamine release in the striatum seems to be spared in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals, which we further confirmed by the absence of effect of FAT1 expression in D2-expressing neurons on dopamine transmission. Third, crossing the iFAT1 mouse with the D2-cre line indeed resulted in expression of FAT1 in cortical neurons at adulthood, but not at P0. Yet both dietary and transgenic manipulations support that the effect of n-3 PUFA deficiency results from perinatal effects (see below). It is thus unlikely that the effect

of FAT1 expression in D2-expressing neurons on motivational performance results from PUFA rescue in cortical neurons. Altogether, our data therefore support that the motivational deficit in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals mainly results from enhanced collateral inhibition of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs of the NAc.

The fact that the manipulation of PUFAs in D2-MSNs, but not D1-MSNs, results in functional alterations suggests a unique sensitivity of D2-MSNs to PUFA levels. One intriguing possibility, though difficult to test, would be that D1-MSNs and D2-MSNs display distinct lipid composition, making them differentially sensitive to PUFA manipulations. Alternatively, it is possible that the

unique vulnerability of D2-MSNs could be a consequence of D2 receptor-dependent signaling sensitivity to membrane PUFA manipulations. Indeed, studies of the prototypical class A GPCR rhodopsin demonstrate the existence of putative binding sites for the n-3 PUFA DHA (Grossfield et al., 2006; Palczewski et al., 2000; Soubias et al., 2006), allowing the preservation of optimal conformation and functionality of the receptor (Niu et al., 2004; Sánchez-Martín et al., 2013; SanGiovanni and Chew, 2005). However, whether such property is shared among class A GPCRs remains to be determined. Nonetheless, molecular dynamic simulation showed that membrane DHA levels modulate membrane diffusion rate of the D2 receptor (Guixà-González et al., 2016), and we obtained recent data demonstrating that membrane levels in DHA directly influence the activity of the D2 receptor (data not shown). Therefore, it is possible that the increase in collateral inhibition from D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals originates from an impairment of D2 receptor-dependent signaling. In accordance, D2 receptor-dependent signaling has been shown to be a main mechanism that regulates MSN collateral inhibition (Dobbs et al., 2016; Gallo et al., 2018; Lemos et al., 2016). Such an effect could result from an overall increase of D2-MSN projections since we found that the relative density of projections from D2-expressing neurons was increased in the dorsal VP. Further studies will be necessary to identify the cellular and molecular mechanisms at the origin of the unique sensitivity of D2-MSNs to PUFA manipulations.

Nonetheless, our data support that the effect of n-3 PUFA deficiency on motivational processes results from alterations taking place during the pre- and/or perinatal period. Indeed, conditional expression of FAT1 improved motivational performance in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals when the expression of the Cre-recombinase was under the control of the D2, but not the aCAMK2 promoter. Yet consistent with the D2 promoter being active at embryonic stages (Araki et al., 2007), we found cre-dependent expression of FAT1 as early as E17/E18 in the striatum when iFAT1 mice were crossed with the D2-cre line. In contrast, in the aCAMK2-Cre line used in the current study, expression of the Cre recombinase occurs postnatally in the whole forebrain-including MSNs of the striatum (Casanova et al., 2001). It is therefore likely that perinatal rescue of PUFAs by FAT1 expression in D2R-expressing neurons accounts for prevention of n-3 PUFA deficiencyinduced neurobiological and behavioral alterations. In accordance, performances in the motivational PRx2 task were rescued when prenatal deficiency was followed by n-3 PUFA supplementation starting at birth, but not at weaning. Interestingly, the maturation of MSN networks has been shown to occur mostly during the perinatal period (Tinterri et al., 2018). It is therefore tempting to propose that the impact of n-3 PUFA deficiency on motivational performance in adulthood originates from an alteration in the development/maturation of MSN networks.

This developmental effect of low n-3 PUFA biostatus is particularly relevant in the context of psychopathologies since they share strong developmental etiology (Owen and O'Donovan, 2017). The causes of the whole-body decrease in n-3 PUFA biostatus in SCZ, BP, and MDD are unknown. Some studies report a correlation between functional outcomes and dietary n-3 PUFA consumption, but prevalence rates for these diseases as a function of dietary habits seem to be unaffected (Noaghiul and Hibbeln, 2003; Peet, 2004). However, a recent transcriptomic profiling study revealed a common pattern in fatty acid metabolic pathways in these diseases (Gandal et al., 2018), further supporting an implication of altered PUFA biostatus in the pathologies. Polymorphisms in several genes involved in PUFA metabolism such as fatty acid binding proteins (Hamazaki et al., 2016; Iwayama et al., 2010; Mocking et al., 2013) or phospholipases (Nadalin et al., 2008; Nurnberger et al., 2014; Su et al., 2010) have been described, suggesting that genetic predispositions could likely be responsible for n-3 PUFA decrease in psychiatric disorders. However, the causal link between such polymorphisms and the etiology of the diseases remains to be established. Nonetheless, it supports that the lower n-3 PUFA biostatus in the psychopathologies may contribute to the symptomatology and could constitute an early biomarker for reward-related symptoms, at least in a subset of individuals. In support of this idea, the increase and decrease in PE and PC species, respectively, in the striatum of n-3 PUFA-deficient animals were particularly striking since a similar alteration in phospholipid species was described in the membranes of erythrocytes from a subgroup of SCZ patients that displayed the stronger positive and negative symptoms (Tessier et al., 2016).

Altogether, we demonstrate for the first time that manipulation of PUFA levels in a discrete neuronal population can causally result in behavioral deficit. Our data also support that n-3 PUFA deficiency during the perinatal period may be a main vulnerability mechanism for the development of reward processing deficits characteristic of psychiatric disorders such as MDD, BP, and SCZ and could therefore constitute a transdiagnostic marker for these diseases. Further preclinical and clinical research is needed to identify the mechanisms responsible for such alteration in the pathologies in order to confirm the implication of lower n-3 PUFA biostatus in the etiology of psychiatric symptoms.

#### **Limitations of Study**

In this study, we have established a causal link between developmental n-3 PUFA deficiency and behavioral impairments in two effort-based tasks in adulthood, with no change in hedonic reactivity and motoric abilities. This supports a selective motivational deficit in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals: the PRx2 task reveals blunted ability to maintain effort, while the lever-pressing/freefeeding paradigm supports a propensity to choose low-effort/ low-gain options at the expense of more effortful but larger rewards. However, further work is needed to identify which precise processes, such as incentive salience, cost/benefit computation, and/or reward prediction error, are actually perturbed in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals.

Moreover, we demonstrated that transgenically preventing n-3 PUFA deficiency selectively in D2-expressing neurons restores collateral inhibition of D2-MSNs onto D1-MSNs in the NAc on one hand and enhances performance in motivational tasks in n-3 PUFA-deficient animals on the other hand. However, additional work will be required to ensure that this latter behavioral effect is directly and selectively related to the restoration of D2-MSN functionality in the NAc. Finally, we show that D2-MSNs display a unique sensitivity to PUFA manipulations. However, an intriguing question remains unanswered: what are the cellular and molecular bases of such specific vulnerability?

#### **STAR**\***METHODS**

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

- KEY RESOURCES TABLE
- LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY
- EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS
- METHOD DETAILS
  - Behavioral Procedures
  - Pavlovian Training
  - Fixed Ratio Training
  - Random Ratio Training
  - Progressive Ratio Testing
  - Concurrent Lever Pressing/Free Feeding Task
  - Lipid Analyses
  - Slice Preparation and Whole-Cell Patch Clamp Recording
  - Stereotaxic Surgeries for Microdialysis
  - High-Performance Liquid Chromatography
  - Quantification of the Relative Projection Density
  - Western Blot
  - Immunohistochemistry
  - Quantitative Real-Time PCR (q-PCR)
  - Stereotaxic Surgeries for Viral Injections
- QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS
- DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

#### SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

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#### **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

F.D., R.W., C.B.-B., V.D.S.-P., and P.T. designed research; F.D., R.W., A.C., L.M., S.G., S.C., A.O., B.C., S.v.d.V., M.-L.B., F.A., and T.T.-C. performed

768 Cell Metabolism 31, 755–772, April 7, 2020

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#### **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

The authors declare no competing interests.

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### **STAR**\***METHODS**

#### **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Anti-D2R rabbit polyclonal antibody	Produced by the Laboratory of Dr. Jonathan Javitch	N/A
Anti-D1R rat monoclonal antibody	Merck	Cat# D2944; RRID: AB_1840787
Anti-DAT rabbit polyclonal antibody	Merck	Cat# AB2231; RRID: AB_1586991
Anti-TH mouse monoclonal antibody	Merck	Cat# MAB318; RRID: AB_2201528
Anti-αTubuline mouse monoclonal antibody	Merck	Cat# T5168; RRID: AB_477579
Anti-Cre recombinase rabbit polyclonal antibody	Produced by the Laboratory of Dr. Christoph Kellendonk	N/A
Anti-VAChT rabbit polyclonal antibody	Synaptic System	Cat# 139 103; RRID: AB_887864
Bacterial and Virus Strains		
pAAV-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry	Addgene	Cat# 44362-AAV8
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins		
D-Amphetamine (Amph)	Merck	Cat# A5880
Aripiprazole (Arip)	Merck	Cat# 129722-12-9
CNQX	Merck	Cat# C239
D-AP5	Tocris	Cat# 0106
Tetrodotoxin (TTX)	Tocris	Cat# 1078
Quinpirole (Quin)	Tocris	Cat# 1061
Gabazine (SR 95531 hydrobromide; Gbz)	Tocris	Cat# 1262
Clozapine-N-Oxide (CNO)	ENZO	Cat# BML-NS105
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
Mouse: C57BL/6JRj	Janvier Labs	N/A
Mouse: Tg(iFat1)	Provided by the Laboratory of Dr. David W. L. Ma	N/A
Mouse: Tg(Drd1-cre)FK150Gsat/Mmucd	GENSAT	RRID: MMRRC_029178-UCD
Mouse: Tg(Drd2-cre)ER44Gsat/Mmucd	GENSAT	RRID: MMRRC_017263-UCD
Mouse: Tg(Camk2a-cre)2Gsc	MGI	MGI:2181426
Mouse: Tg(Drd1-EGFP)X60Gsat	GENSAT	MGI:3840915
Mouse: B6.Cg-Gt(ROSA)26Sor <sup>tm9(CAG-tdTomato)Hze</sup> /J mice	Jackson Laboratory	MGI: 104735
Oligonucleotides		
Fat-1 F qPCR, mouse, Forward Sequence (5′-3′): CTGAGGTGTACGAGGCTGATGA; Reverse Sequence (3′-5′): CGATCGATGGTTTGGGTTTG	N/A	N/A

#### LEAD CONTACT AND MATERIALS AVAILABILITY

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Pierre Trifilieff@inrae.fr). This study did not generate new unique reagents.

### EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Mice were housed in groups of 4-10 animals in standard polypropylene cages and maintained in a temperature and humiditycontrolled facility under a 12:12 light-dark cycle (8:00 on) with *ad libitum* access to water and food. All animal care and experimental procedures were in accordance with the INRA Quality Reference System and to french legislations (Directive 87/148, Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Pêche) and European (Directive 86/609/EEC). They followed ethical protocols approved by the Region Aquitaine Veterinary Services (Direction Départementale de la Protection des Animaux, approval ID: B33-063-920) and by the animal ethic committee of Bordeaux CEEA50. Every effort was made to minimize suffering and reduce the number of animals used.

The following mouse lines were used in this study: C57BL/6J from Janvier Laboratories (Robert Janvier, Le Genest St-Isle, France), D1-Cre (MMRC: 029178-UCD, strain code: Tg(Drd1-cre)EY262/Mmucd), D2-Cre (MMRC: 017263-UCD, strain code: Tg(Drd2-cre)ER44Gsat/Mmucd), CamK2-Cre (MGI: 2181426, strain code: Tg(Camk2a-cre)2Gsc), D1-EGFP (MGI: 3840915, strain code: Tg(Drd1-EGFP)X60Gsat), Cre-dependent tdTomato reporter mice (MGI: 104735, strain code: B6.Cg-Gt(ROSA) 26Sor<sup>tm9(CAG-tdTomato)Hze</sup>/J mice; Jackson Laboratory) and iFAT1 (Provided by the Laboratory of Dr. David Ma; Clarke et al., 2014). Heterozygous Cre-dependent tdTomato reporter mice were crossed with heterozygous D1-Cre, D2-Cre or CamK2-Cre males. Homozygous or heterozygous iFAT1 females were crossed to heterozygous D1-Cre, D2-Cre males in order to generate double transgenic animals and the respective single transgenic and WT controls.

Female C57BL6/J mice were fed with isocaloric diets containing 5% fat with a high (n-3 def diet, see Table S1) or low LA/ALA ratio (Ctrl diet, see Table S1) across gestation and lactation and offspring were maintained under the same diet after weaning (Delpech et al., 2015; Madore et al., 2014), unless stated otherwise. A third diet, enriched in long chain PUFAs, was used in the supplementation experiments starting at P21 or P0 (Suppl diet, see Table S1). All experiments were performed in adulthood.

#### **METHOD DETAILS**

#### **Behavioral Procedures**

#### **Operant Conditioning**

Apparatus. The operant chambers (Imétronic, France) had internal dimensions 30x40x36 (cm) and were located in a light- and soundattenuating cabinet. Each operant chamber had two opaque panels at the right and left walls and two clear Plexiglas panels at the back and front walls and was illuminated throughout all sessions with a houselight located at the top of the chamber. The chambers were equipped with two retractable levers (2x4x1 cm), only one of which was reinforced. Reinforced lever presses were indicated by a brief tone (65 db, 3000 Hz, 200 ms) and a cue light, mounted 8.5 cm above the lever. A drinking trough was positioned 4 cm above the grid floor at equidistance between the two levers. Milk was used as a reward, consisting of 10% sweetened condensed milk dissolved in water (3.25 Kcal/g), which was provided through 15  $\mu$ L drops. The number of presses on the reinforced lever and on the alternative lever were recorded, as well as the number of licks in the full or empty trough.

*Procedures.* One session (1 h) was run each day, 5-7 days per week. Animals were food-restricted in order to maintain them at 85%–90% of their *ad libitum* weight.

#### **Pavlovian Training**

During 2-3 sessions the mice were accustomed to the operant box. During these sessions, the milk solution was delivered in the liquid trough at 1 min intervals. Reward was indicated by a brief tone and the illumination of a cue light mounted above the lever.

#### **Fixed Ratio Training**

Following the two habituation sessions, mice were trained to lever respond for the milk solution in 1 h sessions under a fixed ratio 1 (FR1) schedule of reinforcement, in which each lever press leads to reward delivery. Sessions began with the illumination of the house light and the insertion of the levers inside the chamber. The animals were exposed to this schedule until achievement of the acquisition criterion of 200 lever responses per session.

#### **Random Ratio Training**

When the animals reached the acquisition criterion as described above, they were shifted to a random ratio (RR) schedule of reinforcement, in which lever-responses were reinforced with a given reward probability in order to increase the motivational demand of the task. The training consisted of three consecutive steps characterized by a different RR value that defined the probability of reinforcement [specifically RR 5 (p = 0.2), RR 10 (p = 0.1) and RR2 20 (p = 0.05)]. Condition to move from one ratio to a higher one was the achievement of stable values of lever responses across 2 consecutive sessions.

#### **Progressive Ratio Testing**

In the progressive ratio PRx2 schedule, the number of lever presses required to earn a reward was doubled respective to the previous one obtained. Sessions were considered to be finished when the animal stopped lever-pressing for 3 min, allowing the measurement of the session duration. Mice were tested multiple times in PRx2 with RR20 sessions intercalated between each PR tasks. For each animal, sessions of PRx2 were averaged, excluding the first ones that were consistently outliers.

Amphetamine was administered intraperitoneally 10 min before the beginning of the PRx2 test sessions. Amphetamine (Amph; Merck) was dissolved in NaCl 0.9% and administered at 0.1mg/kg. In a first PRx2 session, half of the animals received saline, the other half received amphetamine. A second PRx2 session was performed 2 days later in which animals that received saline in the first PRx2 were then injected with amphetamine, and vice-versa. This allowed within-subject analyses in which the ratio of lever presses under drugs over lever presses after vehicle injection were measured for each animal and averaged in order to evaluate the effect of the drugs on operant responding.

#### **Concurrent Lever Pressing/Free Feeding Task**

This task was adapted from a procedure designed by John Salamone (Salamone et al., 1991). Briefly, in this effort-based choice task the animals had the choice between lever pressing for the palatable milk reward under a RR20 schedule or consume the freely-available, though less-palatable, regular chow. Total lever presses and amount of concurrent food (mg) consumed were measured. Non-concurrent RR20 were intercalated between each concurrent session.

#### **Licking Microstructures**

A home-made lickometer was used to record the licking microstructures in response to a palatable solution. The lickometer consisted of a testing chamber (20 cm wide, 30 cm deep, 15 cm tall), a bottle containing the solution connected to a dedicated computer (with a software that recorded the precise timing of each lick). All licks were recorded, and the short response latency provided a precise measure of the onset and offset of licks. Before testing, mice were first habituated to the experimental chamber for 2 days with free access to water during a 30 min-session. On the testing day, water was replaced by 10% sweetened condensed milk and each mouse was placed individually in the chamber for 30 min during which the amount of milk consumed, the number of licks and bursts, the number of licks per burst and burst duration were recorded (a burst is defined by an interlick interval lower than 0.25 s between each licks that compose it (Johnson, 2018).

#### **Lipid Analyses**

#### Lipids and Other Material

Chloroform (CHCl<sub>3</sub>) was obtained from SDS (France). Ammonium acetate, acetonitrile (CH<sub>3</sub>CN), methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH) and water (H<sub>2</sub>O) of Optima LC/MS grade were all from Fisher Scientific (France). Commercially available phospholipid (PL) standards were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids INC-Coger (Paris, France).

#### Lipid Extraction

Total lipids were extracted, homogenized in H<sub>2</sub>O, overnight at 4°C, with 10 volumes of CHCl<sub>3</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>OH (1:1, v/v). The residual pellets obtained after centrifugation (1500 g, 5 min) were then re-extracted with 3 mL CHCl<sub>3</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>OH (1:1, v/v), 3 mL CHCl<sub>3</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>OH (2:1, v/v) and 3 mL CHCl<sub>3</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>OH/H<sub>2</sub>O (48:35:10, v/v/v). The four lipid extracts were combined, and evaporated to dryness under a stream of nitrogen.

#### Fatty Acid Distribution

Fatty acid methyl esters were prepared for analysis by gas chromatography-flame ionization detection. Briefly, an aliquot of the total lipid extract was transmethylated using boron trifluoride in methanol according to Morrison and Smith (1964). Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) were extracted with hexane and analyzed by gas chromatography ionization detector (GC-FID, Hewlett Packard HP5890, Palo Alto, CA). A 1 $\mu$ l aliquot was injected by automated injection in a splitless mode at an injection temperature of 250°C on a CPSIL-88 column (100 m × 0.25 mm i.d., film thickness 0.20  $\mu$ m; Varian, Les Ulis, France) equipped with a flame ionization detector. Hydrogen was used as the carrier gas (inlet pressure 210 kPa). The oven temperature was held at 60°C for 5 min, increased to 165°C at 15°C/min and held for 1 min, and then to 225°C at 2°C/min and finally held at 225°C for 17 min. The detector was maintained at 250°C. FAMEs were identified by comparison with commercial and synthetic standards. The data were processed using the EZ-Chrom Elite software (Agilent Technologies, Massy, France) and reported as a percentage of the total FAs.

### **Cholesterol Analysis**

An aliquot of the total lipid extract ( $20 \ \mu$ g) was submitted to alkaline hydrolysis in 5 mL of 1 M KOH for 2 h. submitted to alkaline hydrolysis in 5 mL of 1 M KOH for 2 h. The solution was neutralized with 65  $\mu$ L of phosphoric acid, and the sterols were extracted with 9 mL of chloroform in the presence of 3 mL of 0.9% sodium chloride. The organic phase was removed, and the solvent was evaporated to dryness. 3.25  $\mu$ g of 5 $\alpha$ -cholestane was added and sterols were derivatized to trimethylsilyl ethers by heating at 60°C after the addition of 200  $\mu$ l of pyridine and 200  $\mu$ l of BSTFA (Supelco, Bellafonte, PA, USA). The solvents were evaporated under nitrogen gas, and the samples were resuspended in hexane and analyzed by GC-FID (Hewlett-Packard HP4890A, Palo Alto, CA). A 1 $\mu$ l aliquot was injected by automated injection in a splitless mode at an injection temperature of 300°C on a DB-5MS fused silica capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm id, film thickness 0.25  $\mu$ m; thickness; J&W Scientific, Agilent Technologies, Massy, France). The oven temperature was held at 50°C for 1 min, increased to 200°C at 20°C/min and then to 300°C at 5°C/min. The detector was maintained at 300°C. The data were processed using the EZChrom Elite software (Agilent Technologies, Massy, France)

## Separation and Quantification of Phospholipid Classes by Liquid Chromatography Coupled to Charged Aerosol Detector (CAD)

The phosphorus content of the total lipid extract was determined according to the method developed by Bartlett and Lewis (1970). The samples were then diluted to the appropriate concentration of 500  $\mu$ g/ $\mu$ L of PLs in CHCl<sub>3</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>OH (1:1, v/v). PLs were first separated by liquid chromatography under HILIC conditions and then detected using a Corona Ultra RS Charged Aerosol Detector (CAD, Thermo Scientific, USA). HPLC was performed using a Dionex UltiMate 3000 LC pump from Thermo Scientific (USA) equipped with a dual-gradient pump, which allows for a post-separation inverse gradient approach to compensate for solvent gradient effects in CAD detection. In this approach, a secondary stream of solvent is mixed with the column effluent such that the mixture of aqueous–organic eluent introduced into the detector inlet remains in equal proportions throughout the run. Separation of phosphatidylinositol (PI), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), phosphatidylcholine (PC) and sphingomyelin (SM) standards was achieved under HILIC conditions using a Thermo Accucore column (150 × 2.1 mm, 2.6  $\mu$ m, Hilic, Thermo Scientific, USA). The mobile phase consisted of (A)

CH<sub>3</sub>CN /H<sub>2</sub>O (95:5, v/v) containing 5 mM ammonium acetate and (B) CH<sub>3</sub>CN /H2O (50:50, v/v) containing 10 mM ammonium acetate. The solvent-gradient system of the analytical pump was as follows: 0 min 100% A, 1 min 95% A, 20 min 80% A, 23 min 65% A, 24 min 100% A and 24–39 min 100% A. The flow rate was 800  $\mu$ L·min–1, the injection volume was 5  $\mu$ L and the column was maintained at 40°C. Solvent gradient compensation was performed using the following inverse gradient program "minimize flow," at a flow rate 280  $\mu$ L.min-1: 0–1.786 min 100% B, 2.786 min 85.7% B, 21.786 min 42.9% B, 24.786 min 0% B, 25.786 min 100% B, 25.786 min 100% B. Eluate from the HPLC system was introduced into a CCAD for detection of the PLs. The settings for the CCAD were as follows: gas inlet pressure (nitrogen) 35 psi; gas flow rate and flow ratio 1.11 L/min and 0.95, respectively; corona voltage 2.9 kV; corona current and current range 1.0  $\mu$ A and 100 pA, respectively; ion trapping voltage 20.4; filter "3"; data collection rate 10 Hz; power function 1.5; and nebulizer temperature 25°C. The liquid chromatography and the CAD were controlled by Chromeleon 7.2 (Thermo Scientific Dionex).

#### Structural Analysis of Phospholipids by Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry

The structural analysis of PLs was performed using a LC-ESI-MS method according to previously described procedures (Acar et al., 2012; Berdeaux et al., 2010; Koehrer et al., 2014). The total lipids were dried under a stream of nitrogen. The samples were then diluted to the appropriate concentration of 12.5 ng/ $\mu$ L of PLs in CHCl<sub>3</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>OH (1:1, v/v) for analysis. The samples were stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C under an argon atmosphere.

LC was performed using a Dionex UltiMate 3000 LC pump from Thermo Scientific (San Jose, CA, USA) equipped with an autosampler. Separation of PL classes was achieved under hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography (HILIC) conditions using an Accucore HILIC column (150 mm x 2.1 mm i.d., 2.6  $\mu$ m, Thermo). The mobile phase consisted of (A) CH<sub>3</sub>CN/H<sub>2</sub>O (95:5, v/v) containing 5 mM of ammonium acetate and (B) CH<sub>3</sub>CN /H<sub>2</sub>O (50:50, v/v) containing 5 mM of ammonium acetate. The solvent-gradient system was as follows: 0 min A/B (%) 100/0, 1 min A/B (%) 95/5, 20 min A/B (%) 80/20%, 22 min A/B (%) 75/35 and 24-39 min A/B (%) 100/0. The flow rate was 400  $\mu$ L.min–1, and the column was maintained at 30°C. The flow from LC was split using an analytical fixed flow splitter (split ratio = 1:1, post-column) from Analytical Scientific Instruments (EI Sobrante, CA, USA). Mass spectrometry was performed using a ThermoFinnigan TSQ Quantum triple quadrupole mass spectrometer equipped with a standard electrospray ionization source outfitted with a 100- $\mu$ m i.d. H-ESI needle. The source spray head was oriented at a 90° angle orthogonal to the ion-transfer tube. Nitrogen was used for both the sheath and the auxiliary gases. The MS signals of PC species were first optimized by continuous infusion of the standards dissolved in the mobile phase using ESI in the negative and positive modes. The electrospray ionization spray voltages were 3 kV and -4.5 kV in the negative- and positive-ion modes, respectively; the vaporizer temperature was 150°C; the sheath gas N2 pressure was 45 (arbitrary units); the auxiliary gas pressure was 5 V; and the multiplier gain was 300,000.

When operated under full-scan conditions in the negative- and positive-ion modes, data were collected in the range of m/z 400– 1100 amu with a scan time of 0.5 s. For PC characterization in the negative mode, ESI-MS/MS was used with argon as the collision gas at 1.5 mTorr, and the collision energy was set to 15 eV; in the positive mode, the collision gas pressure was 0.8 mTorr, and the collision energy ranged from 30 to 45eV. PE and PC species were manually identified with the parent mass information and their characteristic fragment ions in the collision-induced dissociation (CID) spectrum using lists of PL species prepared in our laboratory (Acar et al., 2012; Berdeaux et al., 2010).

Upon CID in the positive mode, PC, plasmenyl-choline (PIsC) and SM species showed an intense fragment at m/z 184 amu because of their common choline head group. This fragment at m/z 184 amu was used for precursor ion scanning, whereby the [M+H]<sup>+</sup> ions of PCs and SM are specifically detected. Upon CID in the positive mode, [M+H]<sup>+</sup> ions of PE lose their ethanolaminephosphate head group as a neutral fragment of 141 Da. Therefore, positive-ion-mode neutral loss scanning of 141 Da was used for the selective detection of PE.

The data were processed using the Xcalibur software (ThermoFinnigan). Corrections were applied to the data for isotopic overlap.

#### Slice Preparation and Whole-Cell Patch Clamp Recording

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and dislocated. The brain was quickly removed and sagittal slices ( $350\mu$ m) were prepared with a vibratome (VT1000S, Leica) in 4°C artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) containing (in mM) 125 NaCl, 25 NaHCO3, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH2PO4, 2 CaCl2, 1 MgCl2, 25 glucose and 1.25 pyruvate (oxygenated with 95% O2/5% CO2). After 60 min of recovery, slices were transferred to a recording chamber and perfused continuously at  $\approx$ 1-1.5 mL/min with oxygenated ACSF, containing (in mM) 125 NaCl, 25 NaHCO3, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH2PO4, 2 CaCl2, 1 MgCl2 and 25 glucose at room temperature. Cells were visualized with a water-immersion objective on an upright fluorescent microscope (Eclipse E600FN; Nikon Instruments) equipped with infrared-differential interference contrast video microscopy and epifluorescence. Patch pipettes (3-6 M $\Omega$ ) were pulled from borosilicate glass (BF-150-86-10; Sutter Instruments) with a micropipette horizontal puller (P-97, Sutter Instruments) and filled with internal solutions.

Electrophysiological recordings were performed at room temperature using a MultiClamp700B amplifier (Molecular Devices) and acquired using a Digidata 1440A digitizer (Molecular Devices), sampled at 20 kHz for current clamp and 200 KHz for voltage-clamp recordings and cell-attached recordings, and filtered at 1 kHz. All data acquisitions were performed using pCLAMP 10.7 software (Molecular Devices). Stimulation of fibers from the frontal cortex was performed with a stimulating electrode (bipolar concentric electrode from Phymep and stimulator A365, World Precision Instruments). Only cells that maintained a stable access resistance (<  $30M\Omega$ , no compensation) throughout the entire recording were included in analyses. In D1-EGFP mice, GFP-positive and negative

MSNs were recorded within the NAc core. For the pharmacogenetics experiments (D2-cre mice), recordings were restricted to mcherry-negative MSNs (putative D1-MSNs).

Cesium-chloride internal solution which consisted of (in mM) 150 CsCl, 2 MgCl2, 1 EGTA, 2 Na2-ATP, 0.2 Na-GTP, 0.2 cAMP, 10 HEPES, 0.2% neurobiotin pH 7.35 was used to record GABA-mediated spontaneous inhibitory post-synaptic currents (sIPSC). They were recorded in the presence of 10  $\mu$ M CNQX (6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione, Merck) and 50  $\mu$ M D-AP5 (D-2-amino-5-phosphonovalerate, Tocris) to block AMPA and NMDA receptors, respectively. When appropriate, the voltage-gated sodium channel antagonist tetrodotoxin (TTX, 1  $\mu$ M, Tocris) was added to the perfusing solution in order to isolate miniature inhibitory postsynaptic currents (mIPSC) and Gabazine (Gbz, 5  $\mu$ M, Tocris) was used in order to measure GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors-mediated tonic inhibition. In these cases, neurons were voltage clamped at -70 mV.

For recordings of basic intrinsic properties and EPSP/Spike coupling, we used the potassium-gluconate internal solution which consisted of (in mM) 128 KGlu, 20 NaCl, 1 MgCl2, 1 EGTA, 0.3 CaCl2, 2 Na2-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 0.2 cAMP, 10 HEPES and 0.2% biocytine, pH 7.35. To record basic intrinsic properties of MSNs, cells were held in current-clamp mode in the absence of any current injections. A series of depolarizing current steps starting at -150 pA with 10 pA increment were then applied. For the spontaneous excitatory post-synaptic currents (EPSCs) recordings, neurons were clamped at -60 mV. For the EPSP/Spike (E-S) coupling protocol, neurons were current clamped at -60 mV. The intensity of stimulation applied on glutamatergic afferents was from  $50\mu$ A to  $2000\mu$ A. For E–S coupling, the firing probability was plotted as a function of the EPSP slope based on a previously published study (Campanac and Debanne, 2008). EPSP slopes measured during the first 2.5ms and the percentage of spikes were determined by establishing a survival curve where, for each measured slope, a spike is considered as an event. The E–S shift for a firing probability of 50% was also analyzed to evaluate the drugs effect (Staff and Spruston, 2003). Data were analyzed offline using Clampfit (Molecular Devices).

For cell-attached recordings of spike frequency in VP neurons, we used filtered extracellular medium.

For pharmacological experiments, baseline responses were recorded and drugs were bath applied for 5 min (TTX 1 $\mu$ M to block neuronal activity, Gbz 5  $\mu$ M to block inhibitory currents mediated by GABA<sub>A</sub> receptors; Quin [10 $\mu$ M, Tocris] to activate dopamine D2 receptors and Clozapine-N-Oxide [CNO, 10 $\mu$ M, Enzo] to activate hM4Di receptors).

#### **Stereotaxic Surgeries for Microdialysis**

Mice were anesthetized with urethane (1 g/kg, i.p.) and placed in a stereotaxic apparatus (RWD life science) under body-temperature control. The probes (1 mm-long membranes, CMA 11, Phymep, France) were stereotaxically implanted into the left ventral striatum (vStr, bregma: 1.54 mm, lateral: 0.8 mm lateral, ventral: -4.7 mm; Paxinos and Franklin, 2013). The probe was connected to an infusion pump and perfused with Ringer's solution at 1µl/min (NaCl 142 mM, KCl 3.9 mM, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1.2 mM, MgCl<sub>2</sub> 1 mM, Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> 1.35 mM, NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 0.3 mM; pH = 7.35). The dialysates were collected at 20-min intervals after a 60 min washout period. The average concentration of dopamine in the first three dialysate samples was taken as baseline dopamine levels, followed by amphetamine injection (Amph 1mg/kg, i.p.; Merck). Four more samples were then collected for a total of 2 h and 20min of dialysate collection. The mice were sacrificed and the brains collected for further histological verification of the probe implantation.

#### **High-Performance Liquid Chromatography**

The dialysate samples were injected into a high-performance liquid chromatograph equipped with a 5  $\mu$ m C18, 3 × 100 mm silica column (ACE, AIT, France) and a DECADE II detector (Antec Leyden, the Netherlands) to quantify dopamine. The mobile phase, consisting of 0.1 M acetate de sodium, 0.1 M citric acid, 1 M diéthylamine, 1.4 mM octanesulfonic acid and 0.1 mM EDTA, was pumped at 0.3 mL/min (Dionex SA, Voisins-Le-Bretonneux, France) through oxidation potential of the electrochemical detector (Decade 2, Antec, France) set at 600 mV. Signals were recorded and quantified with Chromeleon chromatography data system (Dionex SA, Voisins-Le-Bretonneux, France). DA concentration was calculated relative to a daily-injected standard. Results were expressed as a percentage of dopamine from baseline for each mouse.

#### **Quantification of the Relative Projection Density**

Animals were anaesthetized and transcardially perfused with ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde. Brains were harvested, postfixed overnight and washed in PBS. 100  $\mu$ m sagittal thick sections were made on a vibratome and imaged using a macroscope Leica Z16 APO. Quantification of the relative projection density was achieved using the fluorescence intensity of the genetically encoded protein tdTomato in mice expressing this transgene under either the Drd2 (D2-Cre mice) or the Drd1 (D1-Cre mice) promoter. Red fluorescence intensity (in arbitrary units, a.u.) was measured in the dorsal part of ventral pallidum (VP), and nucleus accumbens (NAc) core. In each region, a region of equal size was drawn and the fluorescence intensity was quantified using ImageJ. The fluorescence intensity in the projection area region (VP) was normalized to the intensity in the corresponding NAc region ( $^{VP}/_{NAc}$ ). Images of the striatal region and its corresponding projection region were taken from the same slice. Magnification was maintained between images (4x).

#### Western Blot

Mice were dislocated and the brains were quickly removed and snap-frozen in isopentane (Merck) on dry ice and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C. Nucleus accumbens samples were punched (No.18035-01, Fine Science Tools) from 200  $\mu$ m frozen slices in a cryostat.

Samples were homogenized in 80 µl of denaturing buffer (DTT 2 mM, SDS 20%) containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors (No.13393126, Fisher Scientific) by a brief sonication. Protein content was determined by using the protein quantitation kit MicroBC assay (No.UP75860A, Interchim) according to the manufacturer's protocol (Interchim) and samples were then denatured at 90°C for 5 min, except for analysis of the D2 receptor for which denaturation was performed at room temperature.

Equal quantities of proteins (10 µg/well) were separated by electrophoresis onto 10%–12% polyacrylamide gels and then transferred on nitrocellulose membranes (Amersham Protan Premium 0.2µm). Membranes were saturated by incubation with 5% milk in Tris-Buffered Saline (TBS) and Tween 0.1% (Tris/HCl pH 7.5, NaCl 100 mM, Tween-20 0.1%) for 1 h. Blots were probed overnight at 4 °C with primary antibodies (1:1000 rabbit anti-D2R, 1:1000 rat anti-D1R, 1:1000 rabbit anti-DAT, 1:5000 mouse anti-TH, 1:1000 mouse anti-tubulin; see resources table). After washes in TBS-Tween, membranes were incubated with the secondary antibody coupled to Horseradish Peroxidase (HRP, 1/5000, Jackson ImmunoResearch) diluted in 5% milk in TBS-Tween, for 1 h at room temperature. Membranes were washed and the complex was revealed with a West Dura Extended Duration Substrate (N°34075, ThermoFisher Scientific). Optical density capture of the signal was performed with the ChemidocMP imaging system (BioRad) and intensity of the signal was quantified using the Image Lab 5.2.1 software (BioRad).

#### Immunohistochemistry

Mice were transcardially perfused with ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS under anesthesia. Brains were harvested, postfixed overnight and washed in PBS. 40 μm coronal sections were obtained using a vibratome and incubated in a blocking solution (10% fetal Bovine Serum in TBS: Tris 0.1M, NaCl 0.9%, pH 7.4) for 2 h at room temperature. Slices were labeled overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies against Cre recombinase (rabbit; 1:5, provided by Dr. C. Kellendonk; Key Resources Table) in D2- and D1-cre mice allowing colocalization with the tdTomato Cre-dependent reporter. Other slices from D2-cre DREADD-transduced mice were labeled with primary antibodies against VAChT (rabbit, 1:1000, Synaptic System; see resources table) to label cholinergic interneurons. Sections were incubated with fluorescent secondary antibodies for 2 h at RT and then mounted on slides and coverslipped with the fluorsave reagent (FluorSave Reagent, Cat.N°345789, Merk Millipore). Digital images were acquired using a Leica SP1 confocal microscope, and processed with NIH ImageJ software.

#### **Quantitative Real-Time PCR (q-PCR)**

Prefrontal cortex, thalamus, hippocampus, striatum (dissection from fresh tissue or punches from snap-frozen brain tissue), liver, pancreas, gut and peri-gonadal fat tissues samples were homogenized in Tri-reagent (Euromedex, France) and RNA was isolated using a standard chloroform/isopropanol protocol (Chomczynski and Sacchi, 2006). RNA was processed and analyzed following an adaptation of published methods (Bustin et al., 2009). cDNA was synthesized from 2  $\mu$ g of total RNA using RevertAid Premium Reverse Transcriptase (Fermentas) and primed with oligo-dT primers (Fermentas) and random primers (Fermentas). QPCR was performed using a LightCycler 480 Real-Time PCR System (Roche, Meylan, France). QPCR reactions were performed in duplicate for each sample, using transcript-specific primers, cDNA (4 ng) and LightCycler 480 SYBR Green I Master (Roche) in a final volume of 10  $\mu$ l. The PCR data were exported and analyzed in an informatics tool (Gene Expression Analysis Software Environment) developed at the NeuroCentre Magendie (Bordeaux, France). For the determination of the reference gene, the Genorm method was used (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Relative expression analysis was corrected for PCR efficiency and normalized against two reference genes. The glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), the Actin Beta (Actb), the Non-POU domain-containing octamerbinding protein (Nono) and the peptidylprolyl isomerase A (Ppia) genes were used as reference genes (among a total of 12 candidates). The relative level of expression was calculated using the comparative ( $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ ) method (3). Primers sequences are reported in Key Resources Table.

#### **Stereotaxic Surgeries for Viral Injections**

Stereotaxic injections of viral vectors were performed with a stereotaxic apparatus (RWD life science) under constant isoflurane anesthesia and i.p. buprenorphine and tolfedine for analgesia and inflammation. Mice were injected bilaterally with pAAV-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry ( $0.5\mu$ l at titer > 4x10<sup>12</sup> vg/mL; Cat.No.: 44362-AAV8, AddGene) in the Nucleus accumbens core (NAc core, bregma: 1.6 mm, lateral: 1 mm, ventral: –4mm; Paxinos and Franklin, 2013) using a 10 µL Hamilton syringe (Hamilton) and an ultra-micro pump (UMP3, World Precision Instruments, USA) at 150 nL/min. The injection needle was withdrawn 5 min after the end of the infusion. The incision was closed with a suture and the animal was kept on a heating pad until recovery. Experiments were performed 5-8 weeks after AAV stereotaxic injection. Injection sites were confirmed in all animals by preparing sagittal sections (350µm) for electrophysiological experiments.

#### **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Student's t tests (unpaired and paired) or equivalent non-parametric tests when normality failed (Mann-Whitney and Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test) were used when two groups were compared. Welch's correction was applied on unpaired t test when variances were not shown as equal. One sample t test was used to evaluate the effect of drugs on a variable before and after injection (Amphetamin PRx2 and Gabazine tonic inhibition). Log rank Mantel Cox test was used to compare survival curves obtained from PRx2 survival and E-S coupling experiments. Two-way ANOVA test was used when 2 factors were present (Two-way

repeated-measure ANOVA when one of the factors was a repeated-measure). Bonferroni's post hoc test was applied when ANOVA showed a significant interaction or a significant main effect. All statistical data were obtained using GraphPad Prism 7 (Graphpad Software). Statistical significance was #p < 0.1, \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*p < 0.001. All data are presented as means  $\pm$  SEM. Details of the statistical analysis per figure are summarized in Tables S5 and S6 (main and supplemental figures respectively).

### DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

The lipidomic datasets supporting the current study are available from the corresponding author on request.

Article n°2

# Role of Medium Spiny Neurons of the Nucleus Accumbens in the regulation of behaviors related to energy balance

## INTRODUCTION

Overeating/obesity-related pathologies and Anorexia Nervosa (AN) are multifactorial diseases resulting from an interaction between genetic and environmental factors. They can be considered as extreme two ends of the spectrum of eating disorders (ED), involving both psychiatric and metabolic components, making them increasingly viewed as "metabopsychiatric" diseases (Watson et al., 2019; Weiss et al., 2020). Such a continuum in ED subtypes is supported by GWAS studies revealing an inverse genetic correlation between AN and obesity (Bulik-Sullivan et al., 2015), as well as overlapping environmental factors (Krug et al., 2013). Dimensional approach through the RDoC framework to ED reveals alterations of common domains such as negative (stress, anxiety) and positive (motivation, reward processing) valence systems (Wildes and Marcus, 2015). In particular, beyond the obvious opposite feeding pattern which could be related to inverse alterations of reward valuation (Wildes and Marcus, 2015), reward processing tends to be dysregulated in opposite manners in overeating and AN. In particular, while obesity is accompanied by persistent reduction in physical activity even after recovery (Matikainen-Ankney and Kravitz, 2018), increased drive to exercise due to enhanced rewarding value of physical activity is a typical feature of AN that persists after remission (Casper, 2018; Klein et al., 2010; Shroff et al., 2006; Taranis and Meyer, 2011). Such alterations of physical activity in ED has been proposed to be linked to rewarding impact of exercise and/or motivation to engage in physical activity (Rizk et al., 2020; Ruegsegger and Booth, 2017). The overlapping symptomatic dimensions in ED suggest opposite dysfunction of similar brain systems, the reward system in particular.

In regard to its well-established role in reward processing, motivation and locomotor activity, the nucleus accumbens (NAc) has received particular attention as it stands as a hub within the reward system, computing sensory, cognitive and reward information to modulate goaldirected behavior (Floresco, 2015). Functional imaging reveals that NAc activity is regulated in opposite manner in AN and obese subjects in response to food cues (Frank et al., 2012), suggesting that the reward system is hyperresponsive in AN while hyporesponsive in obese subjects (Kaye et al., 2013). In the same vein, studies aiming at addressing the integrity of dopamine transmission found decreased striatal D2/3 receptor binding in obese subjects (Volkow et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2001) while increased in AN (Bailer et al., 2013; Frank et al., 2012). Even though these latter imaging data are controversial (Broft et al., 2015; Dang et al., 2016; Gaiser et al., 2016; Karlsson et al., 2015), animal studies tend to support a main implication of striatal D2-dependent transmission. In fact, downregulation of striatal D2 receptor leads to compulsion towards palatable food (Johnson and Kenny, 2010), while its overexpression in the NAc induces rapid weight loss in female mice under restricted food access – a classical rodent model for AN (Welch et al., 2019). Interestingly, such effects of manipulations of D2 receptor expression seem to mainly result from physical activity-related energy expenditure rather than a direct effect on food intake (Beeler et al., 2016; Friend et al., 2017; Welch et al., 2019).

Altogether, these findings point to D2 receptor-expressing neurons of the striatum – and the NAc in particular – playing a key role in the pathophysiology of EDs. In the NAc, dopaminoceptive medium spiny neurons (MSN) constitute the vast majority of neurons and are equally divided in two subpopulations based on the dopamine receptor they express, either D1 (D1-MSN) or D2 (D2-MSN). The respective role of D1- and D2-MSN of the NAc have been the subject of extensive investigation for their implication in reward processing and motivational processes (Carvalho Poyraz et al., 2016; Gallo et al., 2018; Natsubori et al., 2017; Soares-Cunha et al., 2016, 2018, 2020). However, recent findings revealed their direct implication in the regulation of food intake. In particular, D1-MSNs of the NAc shell have been shown to exert an inhibitory effect on food intake (Bond et al., 2020; O'Connor et al., 2015) and plasticity at D1-MSN synapses onto the lateral hypothalamus mediates fasting-induced overeating (Thoeni et al., 2020). However, the implication of D2-MSNs of the NAc in the regulation of food intake remains largely unclear (O'Connor et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2016). Moreover, to which extent chronic dysregulation of MSNs activity could be sufficient to mimic specific obesity- or AN-related dimensions remains to be established.

Herein, we used a chemogenetic approach to manipulate individual subpopulations of MSNs of the NAc. We found that D1- and D2-MSN facilitate and inhibit willingness to exert an effort for palatable food, respectively. However, we also unraveled that while D1-MSNs play a strong satietogenic effect, D2-MSNs exert orexigenic control for both regular and palatable food. Such effects on food intake were accompanied by opposite regulation of voluntary physical activity. Upon chronic manipulation, both D1-MSN inhibition and D2-MSN activation resulted in weight/fat gain, mostly due to decreased voluntary physical activity, while D2-MSN inhibition had little effect. D1-MSN chronic activation increased voluntary physical activity that was accompanied by increased food consumption, despite an initial decrease in food intake, resulting in the maintenance of energy balance. When concomitantly manipulated, inhibition of D1-MSN together with activation of D2-MSN led to obesity-like phenotype, mostly related to a decrease in activity-mediated energy expenditure. In opposite, the concomitant activation and inhibition of D1-MSN and D2-MSN, respectively, led to AN-like phenotype, with an exaggerated physical activity that was not compensated by increased food intake, leading to weight loss.

## RESULTS

## Chemogenetic activation of D1- and D2-MSNs modulate the firing of VTA dopamine neurons in an opposite manner

We expressed the Cre-dependent excitatory DREADD HM3Dq fused to the red fluorescent reporter mCherry in D1- or D2-MSNs of the NAc core through local injection of adenoassociated viral vectors (AAV) in DrD2-cre or DrD1-cre mice (Figure 1). In accordance with the literature (Baimel et al., 2019; Kupchik et al., 2015; Pardo-Garcia et al., 2019), D2-MSNs exclusively project to the ventral pallidum (VP), while D1-MSNs of the NAc core project to both the VP and SNc/VTA (Figure 1 A, C; SF1). To further characterize the functional consequences of D1- or D2-MSN activation, we recorded the activity of dopaminergic (DA) neurons of the VTA in anesthetized animals and found that D2- and D1-MSN activation increased and decreased firing activity of VTA-DA neurons, respectively (Figure 1 B, D). These findings are in accordance with D2-MSN positively regulating VTA-DA neurons activity through VP projections (Soares-Cunha et al., 2018), while VTA-DA neurons also receive direct projections from the NAc-core, putatively D1-MSNs (Beier et al., 2015).



**Figure 1 :** NAc D1-MSNs and D2-MSNs inhibit and potentiate the activity of VTA dopaminergic neurons, respectively. (A) Representative coronal sections for mCherry expression after injection of a cre-dependent DREADD-carrying viral vector in D2-cre mice. Transduction is mostly restricted to the NAc core (left), leading to detection of projections in the ventral pallidum (VP, middle) but not in the midbrain (right). (B) In vivo recording of DA neurons of the VTA in D2-cre mice expressing the activating DREADD HM3Dq showing that, compared to saline, CNO (2 mg/kg) injection leads to a trend of an increase in firing rate (top left) and significant increase in bursting rate (top right) and % spike in burst (SIB, bottom left) while the mean spike in burst is spared (MSB, bottom right). Numbers in bars indicate the number of neurons recorded (D2-Gq mice n=6). (C) Representative coronal sections for mCherry expression after injection of a cre-dependent DREADD-carrying viral vector in D1-cre mice. Transduction is mostly restricted to the NAc core (left), leading to detection of projections in the ventral pallidum (VP, middle) as well as in the midbrain (right). (D) In vivo recording of DA neurons of the VTA in D1-cre mice expressing the activating DREADD HM3Dq showing that, compared to saline, CNO (2 mg/kg) injection leads to a significant decrease in firing and bursting rates (top) but spared %SIB and MSB (bottom). Numbers in bars indicate the number of neurons recorded %SIB and MSB (bottom). Numbers in bars indicate the number of neurons recorded (D1-Gq mice n=4). # : 0.05 ; \*: <math>p < 0.05; \*\*: p < 0.01; \*\*\*: p < 0.01; \*\*\*\* : p < 0.01; \*\*\*\* : p < 0.01; \*\*\*\* : p < 0.01; Error bars = s.e.m

## D1-MSN and D2-MSNs of the NAc core respectively facilitate and diminish incentive processes towards palatable food.

The antagonistic effects of D1- and D2-MSNs of the NAc in the modulation of motivational processes in the context of food-seeking behavior has been recently challenged. In particular, while chemogenetic inhibition of D2-MSNs enhances performance in a motivational task for palatable food (Carvalho Poyraz et al., 2016; Gallo et al., 2018), their brief optogenetic manipulation leads to a pro-motivational effect (Natsubori et al., 2017; Soares-Cunha et al., 2016, 2018, 2020), likely due to indirect feedback effect onto DA transmission (Soares-Cunha et al., 2018), which is in accordance with our electrophysiological findings (see Figure 1). Here, we found that chemogenetic activation and inhibition of D2-MSNs spared hedonic reactivity to palatable reward (Figure 2A), but decreased and increased performance in a progressive ratio task, respectively (Figure 2B-D), without alteration in motoric abilities (Figure 2E, SF2), supporting an "anti-motivational" effect.

Similarly, to D2-MSNs, chemogenetic manipulation of D1-MSNs spared hedonic reactivity (Figure 2F). Regarding reward processing, inhibition of D1-MSNs decreased performance in the progressive ratio task, with no effect on motoric abilities (SF2), in accordance with their pro-motivational role. However, surprisingly, chemogenetic activation of D1-MSNs led to a comparable decrease in lever presses and breakpoint (SF2). However, this was accompanied by stereotypic behaviors which likely account for the inability to increase press rate as a function of ratio requirement in the progressive ratio task (SF2). Decreasing the amount of CNO prevented such stereotypic behavior (SF2) under D1-MSN activation but recapitulated decreased motivational performance under D1-MSN inhibition previously observed with higher dose of CNO (Figure 2G-J). However, despite spared abilities to maintain press rate as a function of increasing ratio requirement, activation of D1-MSNs decreased performance in the progressive ratio task (Figure 2G-J). Considering the satietogenic effect of D1-MSN activation (Bond et al., 2020; O'Connor et al., 2015), we hypothesized that such an effect could be related to decreased hunger drive rather than blunted motivational performance.



**Figure 2 : Effect of chemogenetic manipulations of D1- and D2-MSNs of the NAc on motivational dimension of feeding behavior.** Chemogenetic-mediated D2-MSN activation (DREADD Gq) and inhibition (DREADD Gi) by the administration of CNO at 2 mg/kg spare hedonic reactivity to a palatable solution as measured by licking microstructures (A) but respectively decrease and increase numbers of reinforced lever presses (B), break point (C) and the percentage of mice that continues to respond as a function of time (D) in the PR schedule. Changes in operant responding is not related to alterations in ratio requirement (E). Chemogenetic-mediated D1-MSN activation (DREADD Gq) and inhibition (DREADD Gi) with CNO at 0.5 mg/kg spare hedonic reactivity (F) but both decrease numbers of reinforced lever presses (G), break point (H) and the percentage of mice that continues to respond as a function of time (I) in the PR schedule. Ratio requirement is spared by such manipulations (J). Data are averages of 2 PR sessions under CNO or saline administrations in a counterbalanced manner. D2-cre: DREADD Gi n=9, DREADD Gq n=7; D1-cre: DREADD Gi n=9, DREADD Gq n=8. \* : p<0.05 ; \*\* : p<0.01 ; \*\*\* : p<0.001 ; Error bars = s.e.m.

### D1-MSN exert an anorexigenic action while D2-MSNs mediate orexigenic effect

We therefore assessed the effect of modulating MSNs activity on *ad libitum* food consumption (Figure 3). Inhibition of D2-MSNs acutely decreased chow consumption resulting in lower cumulative food intake over 48 hours (Figure 3A), together with significant weight loss (Figure 3B). D2-MSN activation had the opposite effect, even though the increased chow consumption was delayed (Figure 3D-E). Such effects on food intake were not related to differences in peripheral glucose tolerance (Figure 3C, F). Manipulation of D1-MSNs activity resulted in opposite findings with their inhibition leading to increased food intake while their activation strongly decreased it, with no effect on glucose metabolism (Figure 3 G-L). Considering that food intake and willingness to work for a food reward were regulated in opposite manners by MSNs manipulations, we next aimed at determining whether an increase in the motivational valence might lead to different outcomes. We therefore challenged mice in a fasting/refeeding protocol in which animals were allowed access to palatable food after an overnight fasting (SF3). We found comparable effects as for *ad libitum* regular chow intake, i.e. D2-MSN inhibition decreased food intake while their activation had a delayed orexigenic effect (SF3).

Figure 3 : Effect of chemogenetic manipulations of D1- and D2-MSNs of the NAc on *ad libitum* food consumption. Chemogenetic-mediated inhibition of D2-MSN (DREADD Gi) decreases food consumption as shown as cumulative food intake (A) leading to significant weight loss (B) over 48h, with no effect on glucose metabolism (C). D2-MSN activation (DREADD Gq) leads to delayed increase in food consumption (D) and weight gain (E), with no effect on glucose metabolism (F). Chemogenetic-mediated inhibition of D1-MSN increases, with no effect neither on weight at 24 and 48h (H) nor on glucose metabolism (I). D1-MSN activation decreases food consumption (J) but had no effect on weight at 24 and 48h (K) nor on glucose metabolism (L). D2-cre: DREADD Gi n=7, DREADD Gq n=8; D1-cre: DREADD Gi n=8, DREADD Gq n=9. \* : p<0.05; \*\* : p<0.01; \*\*\* : p<0.001; Error bars = s.e.m.



## The effects of chemogenetic MSN manipulations on food intake occur at the expense of physical activity

As mentioned above, alterations of feeding behavior in ED are often accompanied by opposite effects on physical activity. We therefore performed a choice protocol in which fasted mice had free access to food and a running wheel (Figure 4A). The acute satietogenic effect of D2-MSNs of the NAc was accompanied by increased wheel running (Figure 4B-C), while activation of D2-MSNs mostly resulted to a strong decrease, if any, in physical activity (Figure 4B-C). In opposite, inhibition of D1-MSNs increased and decreased food intake and wheel running, respectively, while the strong satietogenic effect of D1-MSN activation was accompanied by increased wheel running (Figure 4D-E).



Figure 4: Effect of chemogenetic manipulations of D1- and D2-MSNs of the NAc in a wheel-running/free-feeding choice procedure. (A) Experimental timeline. Chemogenetic-mediated inhibition of D2-MSN (DREADD Gi) decreases and increases food intake (B, top) and wheel-running (C, top), respectively. D2-MSN activation (DREADD Gq) spared food intake (B, bottom) but strongly decreased voluntary wheel-running (C, bottom). D1-MSN inhibition increased food intake (D, top) while decreasing wheel-running (E, top), while their activation decreases and increases food intake (D, bottom) and wheel-running (E, bottom), respectively. D2-cre: DREADD Gi n=7, DREADD Gq n=8; D1-cre: DREADD Gi n=8, DREADD Gq n=9. \* : p<0.05; \*\* : p<0.01; \*\*\* : p<0.001; Error bars = s.e.m.

## Chronic activation of D2-MSNs leads to increased fat mass due to decreased voluntary physical activity



Figure 5: Effect of chronic chemogenetic manipulations of D2-MSNs of the NAc in a wheel-running/free-feeding choice procedure. (A) Experimental design. (B) Weight variation as a percentage of baseline wheel-running recorded over 3 days before CNO administration. (C) Palatable food consumption. (D) Weight variation (left) as a percentage of initial body weight under chow consumption during chronic CNO administration. (middle) Fat mass variation as a percentage of fat mass measured before chronic CNO. (right) Lean mass variation as a percentage of lean mass before the chronic CNO period. (E) Weight variation measure as the percentage of weight compared to the last day of chronic CNO administration. D2-WT n=10 ; D2-Gi n=8, D2-Gq n=8. \* : p<0.05 ; \*\* : p<0.01; Error bars = s.e.m.

Altogether, these findings suggest that the opposite effects of D1- and D2-MSN manipulation on food intake do not reflect alterations of reward processing per se, but could rather correspond to an imbalance between energetic supply and energy consumption, which are typical features of ED (Lowe, 2020). Therefore, we next asked whether chronically manipulating MSNs activity could be sufficient for the development of obesity- or AN-like phenotypes. To do so, mice were housed individually with free access to palatable (high fat) diet and a running wheel. CNO was administered every day at the onset of the dark period (Figure 5A).

Chronic D2-MSN activation decreased voluntary wheel running throughout the of CNO entire period activation compared to controls (Figure 5B, SF4). This was accompanied by increased food consumption that returned to control levels 5-7 days after the onset of the experiment (Figure 5C, SF4). This resulted in a significant gain of fat mass measured at the end of the chronic CNO period (Figure 5D, SF4).

Importantly, cessation of CNO administration led to an immediate reversion of voluntary physical activity (Figure 5B, SF4), together with significant decrease in food consumption (Figure 5C, SF4), resulting in significant weight loss (Figure 5E, SF4). Despite the acute increase and decrease in wheel running and food consumption, respectively, as previously found (Figure 4), animals subjected to chronic inhibition of D2-MSNs did not significantly differ from controls for any of the variables measured (Figure 5B-E, SF4).

Chronic activation of D1-MSNs increases both voluntary wheel running and food consumption while their inhibition decreases wheel running



Figure 6: Effect of chronic chemogenetic manipulations of D1-MSNs of the NAc in a wheel-running/free-feeding choice procedure. (A) Experimental design. (B) Weight variation as a percentage of baseline wheel-running recorded over 3 days before CNO administration. (C) Palatable food consumption. (D) Weight variation (left) as a percentage of initial body weight under chow consumption during chronic CNO administration. (middle) Fat mass variation as a percentage of fat mass measured before chronic CNO. (right) Lean mass variation as a percentage of lean mass before the chronic CNO period. (E) Weight variation measure as the percentage of weight compared to the last day of chronic CNO administration. D1-WT n=12 ; D1-Gi n=11, D1-Gq n=11. \* : p<0.05 ; \*\* : p<0.01; Error bars = s.e.m.

In accordance with acute manipulations, chronic activation of D1-MSNs strongly enhanced wheel running throughout the entire period of CNO administration (Figure 6B, SF4). Despite the strong satietogenic effect of D1-MSNs the very first day of CNO administration, the higher voluntary physical activity was accompanied by a maintained increase in food consumption (Figure 6C, SF4). As a consequence, animals with chronic activation of D1-MSNs did not differ from controls in terms of weight, fat and lean (Figure SF4). mass variation 6D, suggesting that energy expenditure resulting from increased physical activity was compensated by higher energetic supply. Cessation of CNO administration normalized both wheel running and food intake relative to control group, leading to comparable weight variations (Figure 6B, C, E, SF4).

Chronic inhibition of D1-MSNs blunted wheel running (Figure 6D, SF4), with no difference in food consumption compared to controls (Figure 6C, SF4). This resulted in significant weight gain and increase in fat mass, accompanied by decrease in lean mass (Figure 6D, SF4). Interestingly, lower voluntary of CNO administration (Figure 5B, SF4),

physical activity was maintained despite cessation of CNO administration (Figure 5B, SF4), resulting in maintenance of higher weight gain (Figure 5C, E, SF4).





Figure 7: Effect of chronic chemogenetic concomitant manipulations of D2-MSNs and D1-MSNs of the NAc in a wheel-running/free-feeding choice procedure. (A) Experimental design. (B) Weight variation as a percentage of baseline wheel-running recorded over 3 days before CNO administration. (C) Palatable food consumption. (D) Weight variation (left) as a percentage of initial body weight under chow consumption during chronic CNO administration. (middle) Fat mass variation as a percentage of fat mass measured before chronic CNO. (right) Lean mass variation as a percentage of lean mass before the chronic CNO period. (E) Weight variation measure as the percentage of weight compared to the last day of chronic CNO administration. D1-D2 WT n=10; D1Gi-D2Gq n=7, D1Gq-D2Gi n=8. \* : p<0.05; \*\*: p<0.01; Error bars = s.e.m.

Altogether, our findings suggest that decreased energy expenditure due to voluntary wheel lower running. as observed under activation of D2-MSNs or inhibition of D1-MSNs, does not lead to compensatory decrease in energy intake. Such an alteration of energy balance leads to obesity-like phenotype, as previously described through decreased expression of the D2 receptor (Beeler et al., 2016; Friend et al., 2017). However, increased in running-induced energy expenditure, as we found under D1-MSN activation led to compensatory increase in food intake, thus maintaining energy balance, as reflected by maintenance of weight and fat mass.

Considering the dichotomic effect of D1and D2-MSN manipulations on energy intake and expenditure, we then tested whether the concomitant manipulation of both neuronal subpopulations would potentiate the aforementioned effects, eventually leading to bidirectional disruption of energy balance. We took advantage of a unique mouse model expressing the recombinase flippase in D1-expressing neurons and crossed this mouse line with the D2-cre line, allowing the concomitant manipulation of both

MSN populations of the NAc. Concomitant activation of D1-MSN together with inhibition of D2-MSNs strongly increased wheel running, comparably to D1-MSN activation alone (Figure 7B, SF5). However, in this case, after an acute decrease the first day of CNO administration, food consumption remained equivalent to control animals (Figure 7C, SF5), leading to weight

and fat loss (Figure 7D, SF5). In opposite, the concomitant inhibition of D1-MSN and activation of D2-MSN resulted in decreased wheel running (Figure 7B, SF5), with an initial increase in food consumption over the first 3-5 days, that returned to control levels over time (Figure 7C), leading to weight gain and increased fat mass (Figure 7D, SF5). Cessation of CNO administration normalized voluntary physical activity in both groups (Figure 7B, SF5). Interestingly, this was accompanied by an increase of food intake (Figure 7C, SF5) and weight gain in animals in which D1- and D2-MSNs were previously activated and inhibited, respectively (Figure 7E, SF5). In opposite, food intake (Figure 7C, SF5) and weight (Figure 7E, SF5) were decreased in animals in which D1- and D2-MSNs were previously concomitantly inhibited and activated, respectively.

Finally, we confirmed that the concomitant activation of D1-MSNs and inhibition of D2-MSNs of the NAc was sufficient to bias homeostatic balance towards energy expenditure since even under progressive food deprivation animals maintained a high rate of voluntary physical activity, leading to accelerated weight loss (SF5D).

## DISCUSSION

Beyond their roles in the modulation of incentive processes, our results highlight the underestimated opposite implication of MSN subpopulations of the NAc in the regulation of food intake in regard with energy expenditure. In particular, our unique double transgenic mouse model reveals that the concomitant chronic activation of D2-MSN and inhibition of D1-MSN of the NAc is sufficient to mimic obesity-like phenotype by decreasing activity-induced energy expenditure. In opposite, chronic hyperactivity of D1-MSNs together with hypoactivity of D2-MSNs biases energetic regulation towards physical activity at the expense of energy intake, which resembles typical features of AN.

Even though dimensional approach to eating disorders is just starting to emerge, increasing evidence support an alteration of common domains across EDs, especially regarding reward-related positive valence system (Wildes and Marcus, 2015). In particular, reward valuation is abnormally elevated in individuals with obesity-related binge eating syndromes, but excessively diminished in patients with AN (Manwaring et al., 2011; Steinglass et al., 2012; Wierenga et al., 2015). Similarly, increased willingness to work for disorder-specific reward, i.e. exercise and food for AN and bulimia, respectively, are increased (Klein et al., 2010; Schebendach et al., 2013), suggesting that alterations in effort valuation are a main feature of EDs (Wildes and Marcus, 2015). Such reward-related symptoms correlate with opposite brain activity pattern, especially in cortico-striatal circuits (Kaye et al., 2013), reinforcing the idea of overeating-related pathologies and AN corresponding to the two ends of an ED spectrum. Our data suggest that opposite alterations in the activity of NAc MSN subcircuits could underly a

subset of symptomatic dimensions of these diseases, in particular the balance between energy intake and expenditure.

In fact, acute manipulations of MSNs result in modulating food intake and voluntary physical activity in opposite manner highlighting the implication of these neuronal subpopulations in the regulation of energy balance. However, it is important to stress that, under chronic manipulations, the homeostatic system seems to be able to overcome alteration of MSNs' activity. Indeed, particularly under chronic activation of D1-MSNs, despite an acute decrease in food intake, enhanced energy expenditure through physical activity is accompanied by increased food intake, allowing maintenance of weight. It is only when both MSNs subpopulations are manipulated, i.e. activation and inhibition of D1- and D2-MSNs, respectively, that such an homeostatic system does not fully compensate for energy expenditure, leading to weight loss. Nonetheless, in this case, animals still eat comparable amount of food than controls, suggesting that energetic imbalance mainly results from exaggerated physical activity-mediated energy expenditure rather than reduced food consumption. Similarly, in the case of chronic D1-MSN inhibition or D2-MSN activation, weight/fat gain mostly originate from decreased physical activity since animals consume comparable amount of food than controls. Yet, avoidance and compulsion towards exercise are typical features of obesity-related disorders and AN, respectively, that have been proposed to be a main pathophysiological mechanism for the development of EDs and could even precede the onset of the disorders (Casper, 2006, 2018; Ekkekakis et al., 2016). Even though speculative, overall, our findings suggest that chronic alterations in NAc MSN network activity could participate to the etiology of EDs by altering, positively or negatively, the willingness to engage in, and/or the rewarding value of, physical activity.

In fact, rather than reflecting non-specific locomotor responses, wheel-running in rodents has been largely shown to be goal-directed and to bear strong rewarding value, to a point that mice will exert effort – press a lever - to access a wheel, similarly to a food reward (Hurel et al., 2019). In accordance, our findings using chemogenetic inhibition demonstrate that D1-MSNs facilitate both wheel-running and willingness to exert effort to obtain a food reward, while D2-MSNs rather play the role of a break on these behaviors. These data further suggest that alterations of voluntary physical activity under MSN manipulation reflect a change in reward/incentive processes and reveal the antagonistic role of the two MSN subpopulations on such dimension. However, such an opposite effect of D1- and D2-MSNs on motivational processes has been recently challenged. In fact, while the chemogenetic inhibition of D2-MSNs of the NAc facilitates performance in a motivational task (Carvalho Poyraz et al., 2016; Gallo et al., 2018), similarly to our findings, optogenetic manipulations of D2-MSNs of the NAc support a "pro-motivational" role, similarly to D1-MSNs (Natsubori et al., 2017; Soares-Cunha

et al., 2016, 2018). However, comparable to what we found with chemogenetic manipulations, brief optogenetic activation of D2-MSNs in the NAc lead to increased firing of dopaminergic neurons of the VTA (Soares-Cunha et al., 2018). It is therefore possible that the potentiation of motivational processes under a brief optogenetic activation of D2-MSNs results from a dopaminergic feedback that would then facilitate and blunt the activity of D1- and D2-MSNs, respectively, allowing maintenance of effort. In the case of chemogenetic stimulation of these neurons, the effect being maintained over time, the dopaminergic feedback would be overcome, unveiling the "anti-motivational" effect of D2-MSNs.

In addition to their antagonistic effect on the "ability to exert effort", our results reveal that D1-MSNs inhibit, while D2-MSNs of the NAc enhance food intake. While, to the best of our knowledge, such a role of D2-MSNs has not been reported before, the acute anorexigenic effect of D1-MSNs has been previously described for the NAc shell, through projections on the lateral hypothalamus as well as the midbrain (Bond et al., 2020; O'Connor et al., 2015; Thoeni et al., 2020). Altogether, this suggests that, in physiological conditions, the recruitment of the NAc network in favor of D1-MSNs would bias behavior towards effort exertion - including foodseeking - at the expense of food consumption. In opposite, dominant activity of D2-MSNs would blunt voluntary activity and promote food intake. Such a pivotal role of the MSN network is in accordance with the role of the NAc as a "sensory sentinel", allowing rapid control over food consumption in response to motivational or sensory signals (Baldo and Kelley, 2007; Bond et al., 2020; Kelley et al., 2005; O'Connor et al., 2015). From a neurobiological point of view, it remains to be determined whether these various behavioral dimensions bidirectionally modulated by MSNs depend on distinct subpopulations in the NAc, as well as the projecting areas involved. Nonetheless, the current work suggests that an imbalance in the MSN network of the NAc could be sufficient to alter homeostatic balance, eventually leading to EDs.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

## Animals

Adult male D1-Cre (MMRRC : 029178-UCD ; strain code : Tg(Drd1-cre)FK150Gsat/Mmucd), D2-Cre (MMRRC : 017263-UCD ; Tg(Drd2-cre)ER44Gsat/Mmucd) ; D1-flp (generated by Brunos Giros), D1flp/D2cre (homemade breeding from D1flp and D2cre mice) mice were used in this study. Mice (8 to 28 weeks old) were group housed (4-7 animals), unless otherwise mentioned, in standard polypropylene cages and maintained in a temperature and humidity controlled environment under a 12:12 light-dark cycle (07:30 on) with ad libitum access to water and food. For food consumption experiments, mice were housed in standard polypropylene individual cages. All behavioral procedures were carried out during the light phase unless otherwise specified. Mice were habituated to handling prior to behavioral procedures, and to injection proceeding before test day. All animal care and experimental procedures were in accordance with the INRA Quality Reference System and to french legislations (Directive87/148, Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Pêche) and European (Directive 86/609/EEC). They followed ethical protocols approved by the Region Aquitaine Veterinary Services (Direction Départementale de la Protection des Animaux, approval ID: B33-063-920) and by the animal ethic committee of Bordeaux CEEA50. Every effort was made to minimize suffering and reduce the number of animals used.

### Stereotaxic viral injections

Mice analgesia was achieved with the subcutaneous injection of buprenorphine (0.05 mg/kg, Buprecare). The animals were then anesthetized using isoflurane (4% induction, 1.5% maintenance) and placed in a stereotaxic frame (RWD life science) onto a heating pad. The AAV8-hSyn-DIO-hM4D-mCherry virus (Addgene) was used for the Cre-dependent expression of hM4D(Gi) receptor at a titer of 10<sup>13</sup> vg/ml, the AAV8-hSyn-DIO-hM3D-mCherry virus (Addgene) was used for the Cre-dependent expression of hM3D(Gq) receptors at a titer of 4x10<sup>12</sup> vg/ml and the AAV8-hSyn-DIO-mCherry virus (Addgene) was used for the cre dependent expression of mCherry at a titer of 1×10<sup>13</sup> vg/ml, The AAV8-hSyn1-dFRThM4D(Gi)-mCherry(rev)-dFRT-WPRE-hGHp(A) AAV8-hSvn1-dFRT-hM3D(Gg)and mCherry(rev)-dFRT-WPRE-hGHp(A), (Zurich vector core : v189 ; v190) was used for the flpdependent expression of hM3D(Gq) and hM4D(Gi)-receptors at a titer of 3.8 x 10<sup>12</sup> vg/ml. A total of 0.5µl of virus solution was injected bilaterally in the nucleus accumbens using a 10µl Hamilton syringe (Hamilton) at a rate of 100nl/mn at the following stereotaxic coordinates relative to Bregma (in mm) : AP = +1.7; ML = +/-1.1; DV = -4 from the surface of the brain. The syringe was left in place for 5 min before being slowly removed. The skin incision was sutured, postoperative analgesia was prolonged with subcutaneous injections of NSAIDS (5mg/kg,

CARPROX), and mice were place on a heating pad until full recovery from the anesthesia. Behavioral experiments were performed 3 to 4 weeks after the surgeries.

## **Behavioral Procedures**

For all behavioral experiments, mice received CNO (0.5 or 2mg/kg; ENZO) or 0,9% saline solution intraperitoneal (IP) injections 30 min before the beginning of the test. For the experiments requiring training sessions, there were no injections during these steps. CNO solution (2mg/kg or 0.5mg/kg when mentioned, dissolved in sterile 0.9% saline) was prepared daily and protected from light. For acute CNO treatment experiments, each mouse received either CNO or saline in a counterbalanced manner for within subject analysis, across 2 sessions of each behavioral test at minimum. Experimental designs were randomized regarding genotype, virus type, homecage and testing chamber.

## **Operant conditioning**

Mice were placed under food deprivation and maintained at 85-90% of their baseline *ad libitum* weight. Fourteen operant chambers (30x40x36 cm, Imétronic, France), each located into a soundproof and light-attenuating cabinet were used. They consisted of 2 plexiglas panels and 2 PVC panels on top of a metal grid floor, lit by a houselight located at the top of the chamber during sessions. A trough was located on the center of one PVC panel, 4cm above the metal grid, and was surrounded by 2 equally distant retractable metal levers (2x4x1cm). A cue light was located 8.5cm above each lever. The reinforcer was composed of a 15 µl drop of evaporated sweet milk (3.25 Kcal/g) diluted 10% in tap water delivered in the trough. Both levers were extended at the beginning of each session, except for pavlovian training. Only one lever was reinforced across all operant procedures and pressing on the non-reinforced lever had no consequence. For each mice, all of the operant procedures were executed in the same operant chamber. Operant chambers were connected to a computer equipped with POLY Software (Imetronic), which allowed for control of the sessions parameters and recording of the data (number of presses on both levers, number of licks in the full or empty trough).

## **Pavlovian Training**

3 to 4 weeks after AAV injections, animals started pavlovian training. Mice were placed in the operant chamber for 30mn sessions, one session per day, during which a reward – a drop of evaporated milk – was delivered in the trough every minute, associated with the emission of a sound (65 db, 3000 Hz, 200ms) and the illumination of the diode located above the future reinforced lever. The reward had to be consumed by the animal in order for a new reward to be delivered. The learning criterion was set at a mean of 20 rewards earned out of 30, across at least 3 daily consecutive sessions.

## Fixed Ratio Training (FR)

When the mice reached the pavlovian training criterion, mice started operant conditioning sessions during which they had to press on the reinforced lever in order to obtain the reward. Operant learning started with daily 1-hour fixed ratio 1 schedule of reinforcement (FR1), during which each reinforced-lever press was rewarded. The learning criterion was set at 100 reward dose earned, across four consecutive sessions.

## Random Ratio Training (RR)

Once all the mice completed the operant learning criterion, their ability to press on the reinforced lever in order to receive a reward was increased using random ratio training. During the sessions, each lever press on the reinforced lever had a given probability of being reinforced (pRR5=0.2, pRR10=0.1, pRR20=0.05). Animals underwent those 3 different ratio across one-hour sessions, each day, 5 days a week. Moving from one ratio to the next one was achieved once lever response values across two consecutive sessions were stable.

## Progressive Ratio Task (PRx2)

The motivational component of operant conditioning was evaluated using a progressive ratio task. During the session, the first reward was delivered after two lever presses on the reinforced lever and the following required amount of lever presses doubled after every reward earned. Session was terminated after 1 hour or when animals failed to lever press for three minutes, thus defining the session duration. PRx2 tasks were separated by RR20 sessions to prevent operant responding extinction. Mice underwent two PRx2 tasks with saline IP injections for basal performances. Then 4 PRx2 tasks were carried out, during which each mouse received CNO or saline IP injection twice. Order of Saline/CNO administration was counterbalanced within groups.

## Licking microstructures

A homemade setup was used to record licking microstructures (Ducrocq et al., 2019, 2020). The test was run in polypropylene cages equipped with a feeding bottle and a metal grid floor connected to a computer with a dedicated software. The animal's contact between the grid floor and the metallic sipping tip of the bottle allowed for the precise detection of licks. Mice were habituated to the testing chamber with bottles filled with water for 2 days through 30 min sessions. On the test day, the bottle was filled with 10% evaporated sweet milk diluted in tap water and mice were injected with CNO (2 mg/kg) or saline solution 30 min before the beginning of the 30-min testing session. The system allowed the detection of the total number of licks, total number of bursts and number of licks per burst. Bursts were defined as sequences

of high frequency licks, in which the interlick interval was less than 250ms. Relation between number of licks per burst and hedonic reactivity have been demonstrated in (Ducrocq et al., 2020; Johnson, 2018; Ward et al., 2012).

## Assessment of stereotypic behaviors

The dose-dependent effect of CNO on stereotypic behaviors occurrence was tested in D1-cre mice expressing DREADDs in the NAc. For each CNO dose (2 mg/kg or 0.5 mg/kg), stereotypic behaviors were evaluated over 2 sessions with counterbalanced CNO or Saline injections. Mice were placed in individual cages with bedding in under 30 LUX lighting and laterally videotaped for 30min. The bedding was changed between each animal. The Observer Noldus software was used to analyze videos by a trained experimenter blind to treatment and groups. The most frequent stereotypic behaviors (rearing, jumping/escaping, grooming, digging) were analyzed (duration and frequency) as mutually exclusive states for 2 minutes at 5mn, 15mn and 25mn time points of the video recording and summed for comparison between treatments (Chartoff et al., 2001; Presti et al., 2003).

## Motor coordination in rotarod

A rotarod apparatus (Bioseb) was used to assess motor coordination and balance of mice under CNO (2mg/kg). Mice were placed on the rod rotating at 4rpm. During the test, the rotation of the rod increased from 4rpm to 40rpm in 300 sec. The latency to fall was recorded.

## Measure of 48-hour ad libitum food intake

Single-housed mice were injected with CNO (2 mg/kg ; IP) 30mn before the onset of the dark phase. Chow pellets were placed in a dish into the cage. Food dishes were then weighed after 1 ; 2 ; 4 ; 12 ; 24 and 48 hours. The same test was performed with high fat diet (Research Diet ref: D12451), in which case mice were exposed to the diet over 2 days prior to the beginning of the test.

## Fasting Refeeding procedure

Single-housed mice were food deprived for 12 hours, then injected with CNO (2 mg/kg ; IP) 30mn before the onset of the dark phase. Food was weighed at 1 ; 2 ; 4 ; 12 ; 24 and 48 hours.

## Glucose Tolerance Test

Single-housed mice were food deprived 5 hours prior to the test at 09:00. Glycemia was measured using single-use test strips and glycemia meter (ACCU-CHEK Performa, Roche). The tip of the tail of the animal was cut for the first measurement, in order to obtain 1-2 drops

of blood. For the following blood tests, the tail was massaged from the base to the tip so that a small volume of blood comes out. The first drop was wiped away and the second drop was used to measure glycemia. Mice were injected with CNO (2mg/kg ; IP) or saline 20 minutes prior to the beginning of the test. Glucose (2g/kg ; IP) was injected to the mice at t=0mn. Nine blood samples were collected throughout the test (-30mn before CNO/Saline injection; 0mn before glucose injection ; +15mn ; +30mn ; +45mn ; +60mn ; +90mn ; +120mn ; +180mn) and mice were left quiet in a closed soundproof room in between samples.

## Effect of acute manipulation of MSNs on wheel-running/free-feeding

The setup consisted of a magnetic fast-track running wheel mounted onto a mouse igloo shelter (BioServ) and connected to a magnet odometer. Single-housed mice had free access to regular chow and the running wheel for 2 days for habituation. On the test day, mice were fasted for 12 hours then placed in the cage with the running wheel and *ad libitum* chow placed inside the cage for 2 hours for baseline consumption and wheel activity. CNO was then injected and food intake and wheel activity were recorded every hour for 4 hours.

## Effect of chronic manipulation of MSNs on wheel-running/free-feeding

Single-housed D1-cre, D2-cre and D1flp/D2cre mice were exposed to a running wheel and standard diet for 1 week prior to the beginning of the test. 24-hour wheel running activity, food consumption and weight variation were recorded and defined as a baseline. On the first day of the test animals food was switched to HFD and CNO (2mg/kg) was administered every day before the onset of the dark period for 23 days, during which percent variation of the aforementioned parameters were evaluated. Measurements were pursued for 10 days with no CNO administration. D1flp/D2cre mice were finally exposed to progressive food restriction over 7 days (decrease of 0.5 g per day, starting at 3g) with a daily CNO infusion and free access to the running wheel.

## MRI for body composition

Before and after CNO injection/ withdrawal period, total mass tissue including fat mass, fluid mass, and lean mass content were measured using magnetic resonance imaging (EchoMRI, minispec LF90II; Bruker, Wissembourg, France)

## Immunohistochemistry

Mice were deeply anesthezied using a lethal IP dose of sodic pentobarbital (Exagon300mg/kg) together with lidocaine (Lurocaine 30m g/kg), and transcardially perfused with an ice cold 4% paraformaldehyde solution in PBS. Brains were removed and immersed in 4% PFA overnight at 4°C, then transferred in cryoprotectant solution (30% glycerol ; 30% ethylene glycol ; 40%

PBS-1X pH 7.4), and stored at -20°C until further use. Brains were rinsed in PBS 1X for 30mn before slicing. 40µm coronal sections were collected using a vibratome (Leica) into cryoprotectant solution and stored at -20°C until further use. Brain slices were mounted on slides and coverslipped with VectaShield containing DAPI mounting medium (Vector Labs) and mCherry expression was visualized with a Hamamatsu NANOZOOMER 2.0HT microscope. For mCherry signal amplification, brain sections were rinsed in PBS, treated with blocking buffer (10% Fetal Bovine Serum in TBS: Tris 0.1M, NaCl 0.9%, pH 7.4) for 2 h at room temperature (RT) and incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibody against mCherry (rabbit; 1:1000; Takara Bio ref: 632496) and cre recombinase (rabbit; 1:1000; homemade). Sections were then incubated with the secondary antibody (donkey anti-rabbit ; 1:5000 ; ThermoFisher ref: A-21206) conjugated to a fluorophore for 2 hours RT and mounted on slides and coverslipped with VectaShield containing DAPI mounting medium (Vector Labs) and the signal was visualized with a Hamamatsu NANOZOOMER 2.0HT microscope. To evaluate viral expression in cholinergics interneurons procedure was repeated with a primary antibody against ChAt (Choline acetyl transferase; goat ; 1:500 ; Merck Millipore ; ref : AB144P) and a secondary antibody (donkey anti-goat ; 1:1000 ; ThermoFisher ref : A-11055)

## Ventral tegmental area recordings

Stereotaxic surgery for electrophysiology experiments was performed under isoflurane anesthesia as previously described (Georges and Aston-Jones, 2002). Recording pipettes were inserted into the VTA with the skull flat, at the following coordinates: -3.16mm from bregma; 0.5mm from midline. A glass micropipette (tip diameter=2-3µm, 4-6Mohm) filled with a 2% pontamine sky blue solution in 0.5M sodium acetate was lowered into the VTA. DA neurons were identified according to well-established electrophysiological features (Grace, 1988; Ungless et al., 2004). These included: 1) an half action potential width ≥1.1ms; 2) slow spontaneous firing rate (<10Hz); 3) single and burst spontaneous firing patterns. Through these electrodes, the extracellular potential was recorded with an Axoclamp2B amplifier in the bridge mode. The extracellular potential amplified 10 times by the Axoclamp2B amplifier was further amplified 100 times and filtered (low-pass filter at 300 Hz and high-pass filter at 0.5 kHz) via a differential AC amplifier (model 1700; A-M Systems, Carlsborg, WA). Single neuron spikes were discriminated and digital pulses were collected on-line using a laboratory interface and software (CED 1401, SPIKE 2; Cambridge Electronic Design). Four parameters of VTA DA neuron impulse activity were computed over 200-second epochs after a 5-minute stable baseline period: 1) the basal firing rate, 2) the basal bursting rate, 3) the mean number of spikes per bursts and 4) the number of spontaneously active cells per track. The onset of a burst was defined as the occurrence of two spikes with an interspike interval <80msec (Grace, 1988).

## SUPPLEMENTARY DATA



**Suppl. Figure 1 (relates to Figure 1):** A) Coronal sections of D2-cre (Top, left) and D1-cre (Top right) mice expressing cre-dependent DREADD fused to mCherry in the NAc. Note the presence of fluorescence in the lateral hypothalamus (LH) in D1-cre mice. B) Picture of NAc coronal section (X40) with immuno-labeled ChAT (Choline acetyl transferase) in green, (Bottom left), immuno-labeled DREADD in red (Bottom middle) and merge (Bottom right) suggesting a lack of DREADD expression in cholinergic interneurons.



**Suppl. Figure 2 (relates to Figure 2):** (A) Number of lever presses on the reinforced (L1) and non-reinforced (L2) levers across the different schedules of reinforcement in D1-cre mice expressing either DREADD Gi or DREADD Gq in the NAc, in the absence of CNO administration. (B-C) Effect of 2 mg/kg CNO in D1-cre mice expressing DREADDs Gi or Gq on lever presses, breakpoint and percent survival in the PR task (B) as well as ratio requirement (C). (D) Stereotypic behavior in D1-cre mice expressing DREADDs under 2 mg/kg (left) and 0.5 mg/kg (right) CNO. (E) Licking microstructures in D1-cre mice. (F) Rotation per min (RPM) in a rotarod in D1-cre mice. (G) Number of lever presses on the reinforced (L1) and non-reinforced (L2) levers across the different schedules of reinforcement in D2-cre mice expressing either DREADD Gi or DREADD Gq in the NAc, in the absence of CNO administration. (H) Rotation per min (RPM) in a rotarod in D2-cre mice.



**Suppl. Figure 3 (relates to Figure 3) :** Ab libitum and fasting-refeeding protocol. (A-D) Experimental design of food consumption test. Food intake and weight variation in D2-cre (B-E) and D1-cre (C-F) mice expressing DREADD Gi or Gq.



**Suppl. Figure 4 (relates to Figure 5 and 6):** Table of mass parameters (grams) and running (meter) over experimental time points for D1-MSNs (A) and D2-MSNs (C) chronic modulation. Glucose tolerance test after chronic treatment of D1-cre (B) and D2-cre (D) mice



**Suppl. Figure 5 (relates to Figure 6):** Pattern of expression of cre and flp in double transgenic D1-FlpxD2-cre mice (A) Table of mass parameter (grams) and running (meter) over experimental time point of double transgenic animal. Anxiety/compulsive behaviors during a marble burying task at J23 (C) showing no difference between control and double transgenic groups. Effect of a progressive food deprivation from J33 to J40 on running activity (top) and weight variation (bottom) in control and DREADD-expressing double transgenic animals (D).

143
## SUMMARY OF STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Figure 1Marm Whitney testdopaminergic neuron in Salin : 42 / CNO : 44Fring rate (Hz)U=712, P= 0.0612Figure 1BMarm Whitney testdopaminergic neuron in Salin : 42 / CNO : 44Bussting rate (Hz)U=579 5, P=0.0026Figure 1BMarm Whitney testdopaminergic neuron in Salin : 42 / CNO : 44U=579 5, P=0.0026Figure 1BMarm Whitney testdopaminergic neuron in Salin : 42 / CNO : 44U=579 5, P=0.0097Figure 1DMarm Whitney testdopaminergic neuron in Salin : 42 / CNO : 44NSBU=627, P= 0.0097Figure 1DMarm Whitney testdopaminergic neuron in Salin : 42 / CNO : 44NSBU=791, P= 0.2369Figure 1DUsari : 40 / CNO : 39Salin : 42 / CNO : 44U=791, P= 0.2369Figure 1DUsari : 40 / CNO : 39U=530 5, P=0.0133U=530 5, P=0.0133Figure 1DDarme mice Ga (n=4)U=530 5, P=0.0133U=534 5, P= 0.1534To 1DtestD fore mice Ga (n=4)U=530 5, P=0.0133Figure 1DUsari : 40 / CNO : 39MSBU77)=1.953, p=0.0545Figure 2ATore mice Ga (n=4)MSBU70Figure 2Two-way RM Pare and Ga = 8 Dread Ga = 7D fore mice Ga (n=4)Figure 2BNovAD 2 cre mice: Dread Ga = 7Uck/burst Dread Ga = 7Virus effect F(1,13) = 0.04570, P=0.8340 CNO effect F(1,14) = 0.3902, P=0.3023Figure 2Two-way RM Decad Ga = 7D 2 cre mice: Dread Ga = 7Uck/burst Dread Ga = 7Virus effect F(1,14) = 0.3902,	Data	Statistical test	n	Outcome measure	P value
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Figure 2DLog-rank (Mantel-Cox) testD2 cre mice: Dreadd Gi = 9Survival Curve Survival CurveDREADD Gi : Sal vs CNO p:0.0310 DREADD Gq : Sal vs CNO p:0.0327Figure 2DLog-rank (Mantel-Cox) testD2 cre mice: Dreadd Gi = 9Survival Curve Survival CurveDREADD Gi Sal vs CNO: x2 = 4.511 ; P Value = 0.0337Figure 2DGehan- Breslow- Wilcoxon testD2 cre mice: Dreadd Gq = 7Survival Curve Survival CurveDREADD Gq Sal vs CNO: x2 = 6.338 ; P Value = 0.0118			Dreadd Gg= 7		Interaction $F(1   14) = 14   92   P=0   0017$
Figure 2DLog-rank (Mantel-Cox) testD2 cre mice: Dreadd Gi = 9Survival Curve Nervival CurveDREADD Gi : Sal vs CNO p:0.0327Figure 2DLog-rank (Mantel-Cox) testD2 cre mice: Dreadd Gi = 9Survival Curve Nervival CurveDREADD Gi Sal vs CNO: x2 = 4.511 ; P Value = 0.0337Figure 2DGehan- Breslow- Wilcoxon testD2 cre mice: Dreadd Gq= 7Survival Curve Nervival CurveDREADD Gq Sal vs CNO: x2 = 6.338 ; P Value = 0.0118			2.0000 04 .		Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test
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Figure 2DLog-rank (Mantel-Cox) testD2 cre mice: Dreadd Gi = 9Survival CurveDREADD Gi Sal vs CNO: x2 = 4.511 ; P Value = 0.0337Figure 2DGehan- Breslow- Wilcoxon testD2 cre mice: Dreadd Gq= 7Survival CurveDREADD Gq Sal vs CNO: x2 = 6.338 ; P Value = 0.0118					DREADD Gg · Sal vs CNO p:0.0327
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ZD test Dreadd Gr = 9 X2 = 4.511, P Value = 0.0357   Figure Gehan- D2 cre mice: Survival Curve DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:   2D Breslow- Dreadd Gq= 7 X2 = 6.338; P Value = 0.0118   Wilcoxon test Wilcoxon test Value = 0.0118	riguie	(Mantel-Cox)	Dz cie mice.	Survival Curve	DREADD GI Sal VS CNO.
Figure Gehan- D2 cre mice: Survival Curve DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:   2D Breslow- Dreadd Gq= 7 X2 = 6.338 ; P Value = 0.0118   Wilcoxon test Vilcoxon test Vilcoxon test	20	test			$\chi^2 = 4.011$ , P value = 0.0337
2D Breslow- Dreadd Gq= 7 $\chi^2 = 6.338$ ; P Value = 0.0118 Wilcoxon test	Figure	Gehan-	D2 cre mice:	Survival Curve	DREADD Gg Sal vs CNO:
Wilcoxon test	2D	Breslow-	Dreadd Gq= 7		x2 = 6.338 ; P Value = 0.0118
		Wilcoxon test			

Figure	DREADD Gi:	D2 cre mice:	Rate (presses/s)	DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:
2E	Two-way RM	Dreadd Gi = 9		Ratio effect F(8, 64) = 21,12, P<0,0001
	ANOVA			CNO effect F(1, 8) = 0,1488,176, P=0,7098
				Interaction F(8, 64) = 1,007, P=0,4400
Figure	DREADD Ga :	D2 cre mice:	Rate (presses/s)	DREADD Gg Sal vs CNO:
2F	Mixed-effects	Dreadd Gg= 7		Ratio effect $F(8, 48) = 4.953$ P=0.0002
	model	2.0000 04 .		CNO = effect F(1, 6) = 2.183 P=0.1900
	model			F(1, 0) = 2,100, 1 = 0,1000
Figure	Two way DM	D1 are mises	Liek/buret	$\frac{1}{10000000000000000000000000000000000$
Figure		Di cie mice.	LICK/DUISt	Virus effect $F(1, 15) = 0.03362, P=0.6570$
2F	ANOVA	Dreadd GI = 9		CNO effect $F(1, 15) = 1,752, P=0,2054$
		Dreadd Gq=8		Interaction $F(1, 15) = 0,1826, P=0,6752$
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre mice:	Lever presses	Virus effect F(1, 15) = 1,992, P=0,1785
2G	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 9		CNO effect F(1, 15) = 28,22, P<0,0001
		Dreadd Gq=8		Interaction F(1, 15) = 1,658, P=0,2174
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre mice:	Break point	Virus effect F(1, 15) = 0,06963, P=0,7955
2H	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 9		CNO effect F(1, 15) = 25,29, P=0,0001
		Dreadd Gq=8		Interaction F(1, 15) = 0,2090, P=0,6541
Figure	Log-rank	D1 cre mice:	Survival Curve	DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:
21	(Mantel-Cox) test	Dreadd Gi = 9		χ2 = 8,910 ; P Value =0.0028
Figure	Log-rank	D1 cre mice:	Survival Curve	DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO
21	(Mantel-Cox) test	Dreadd Gq= 8		χ2 = 3,652 ; P Value =0.0560
Figure	DREADD Gi :	D1 cre mice:	Rate (presses/s)	DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:
2J	Mixed-effects	Dreadd Gi = 9		Ratio effect F(8, 64) = 17,20 P<0,0001
	model			CNO effect F(1, 8) = 1,422 P=0,2673
				Interaction F(8, 55) = 1,135 P=0,3548
Figure	DREADD Gq :	D1 cre mice:	Rate (presses/s)	DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:
2J	Mixed-effects	Dreadd Gq=8		Ratio effect F(7, 49) =9,687 P<0,0001
	model			CNO effect F(1, 7) = 0,3425 P=0,5768
				Interaction F(8, 47) = 1,131 P=0,3605
Figure 3				
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	Cumulative Chow	Time effect F(5, 30) = 2065 P<0,0001
3A	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 7	comsumption (1h -	CNO effect F(1, 6) = 32,69 P=0,0012
	-	-	48h)	Interaction $F(5, 30) = 5830$ P=0 0007
			,	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO
				$2h P = 0.0408 \cdot 4h p < 0.0001 \cdot 12h p $
				21h = -0.0400; $41h = -0.0001$ ; $121h = -0.0001$ ;
<b>F</b> :				2411 p<0,0001, 4011 p<0,0001
Figure	T D14	D0 '		
3B	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	Weight variation	Time effect F(1, 6) = 32,58 P=0,0013
	Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation	Time effect F(1, 6) = 32,58 P=0,0013 CNO effect F(1, 6) = 6,404 P=0,0446
	Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation	Time effect F(1, 6) = $32,58$ P= $0,0013$ CNO effect F(1, 6) = $6,404$ P= $0,0446$ Interaction F(1, 6) = $9,727$ P= $0,0206$
	Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation	Time effect $F(1, 6) = 32,58 P=0,0013$ CNO effect $F(1, 6) = 6,404 P=0,0446$ Interaction $F(1, 6) = 9,727 P=0,0206$ Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation	Time effect $F(1, 6) = 32,58 P=0,0013$ CNO effect $F(1, 6) = 6,404 P=0,0446$ Interaction $F(1, 6) = 9,727 P=0,0206$ Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:     DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:
	Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation	Time effect $F(1, 6) = 32,58 P=0,0013$ CNO effect $F(1, 6) = 6,404 P=0,0446$ Interaction $F(1, 6) = 9,727 P=0,0206$ Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:     DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:     24h p=0,0005 ; 48h p=0,0281
Figure	Two-way RM ANOVA Two-way RM	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7 D2 cre mice	Weight variation	Time effect F(1, 6) = $32,58$ P=0,0013     CNO effect F(1, 6) = $6,404$ P=0,0446     Interaction F(1, 6) = $9,727$ P=0,0206     Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:     DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:     24h p=0,0005 ; 48h p=0,0281     Time effect F(8, 48) = $104,2$ P<0,0001
Figure 3C	Two-way RM ANOVA Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7 D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation % Blood glucose change	Time effect F(1, 6) = $32,58$ P=0,0013     CNO effect F(1, 6) = $6,404$ P=0,0446     Interaction F(1, 6) = $9,727$ P=0,0206     Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:     DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:     24h p=0,0005 ; 48h p=0,0281     Time effect F(8, 48) = $104,2$ P<0,0001
Figure 3C	Two-way RM ANOVA Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7 D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation % Blood glucose change vs baseline	Time effect $F(1, 6) = 32,58 P=0,0013$ CNO effect $F(1, 6) = 6,404 P=0,0446$ Interaction $F(1, 6) = 9,727 P=0,0206$ Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:     DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:     24h p=0,0005 ; 48h p=0,0281     Time effect $F(8, 48) = 104,2 P<0,0001$ CNO effect $F(1, 6) = 1,070 P=0,3409$ Interaction $F(8, 48) = 0,4382 P=0,8921$
Figure 3C	Two-way RM ANOVA Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7 D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation % Blood glucose change vs baseline	Time effect F(1, 6) = $32,58$ P=0,0013     CNO effect F(1, 6) = $6,404$ P=0,0446     Interaction F(1, 6) = $9,727$ P=0,0206     Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:     DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:     24h p=0,0005 ; 48h p=0,0281     Time effect F(8, 48) = 104,2 P<0,0001
Figure 3C	Two-way RM ANOVA Two-way RM ANOVA	D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7 D2 cre mice Dreadd Gi = 7	Weight variation % Blood glucose change vs baseline	Time effect F(1, 6) = $32,58$ P=0,0013     CNO effect F(1, 6) = $6,404$ P=0,0446     Interaction F(1, 6) = $9,727$ P=0,0206     Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:     DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:     24h p=0,0005 ; 48h p=0,0281     Time effect F(8, 48) = $104,2$ P<0,0001

Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	Cumulative Chow	Time effect F(5, 35) = 975,3 P<0,0001
3D	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8	comsumption (1h -	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 9,034 P=0,0198
			48h)	Interaction F(5, 35) = 21,06 P<0,0001
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:
				24h p<0,0001 ; 48h p<0,0001
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	Weight variation	Time effect F (1, 7) = 0,008000 P=0,9312
3E	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8		CNO effect F (1, 7) = 19,36 P=0,0032
				Interaction F (1, 7) = 1,359 P=0,2818
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:
				24h p<0,0001 ; 48h p=0,0004
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	% Blood glucose	Time effect F(8, 56) = 55,82 P<0,0001
3F	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8	change	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 0,01822 P=0,8964
			vs baseline	Interaction F(8, 56) = 1,226 P=0,3012
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre mice	Cumulative Chow	Time effect F(5, 35) = 1898 P<0,0001
3G	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 8	comsumption (1h -	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 12,88 P=0,0089
			48h)	Interaction F(5, 35) = 0,6754 P=0,6448
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre mice	Weight variation	Time effect F(1, 7) = 3,027 P=0,1254
3H	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 8		CNO effect F(1, 7) = 2,997 P=0,1270
				Interaction F(1, 7) = 4,460 P=0,0726
Figure 3I	Two-way RM	D1 cre mice	% Blood glucose	Time effect F(8, 64) = 74,23 P<0,0001
	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 8	change	CNO effect F(1, 8) = 0,1615 P=0,6983
			vs baseline	Interaction F (8, 64) = 0,3965 P=0,9185
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre mice	Cumulative Chow	Time effect F(5, 40) = 1729 P<0,0001
3J	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 9	comsumption (1h -	CNO effect F(1, 8) = 21,63 P=0,0016
			48h)	Interaction F(5, 40) = 2,277 P=0,0652
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre mice	Weight variation	Time effect F(1, 8) = 42,30 P=0,0002
3K	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 9		CNO effect F(1, 8) = 2,831 P=0,1310
				Interaction F(1, 8) = 0,0008763 P=0,9771
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre mice	% Blood glucose	Time effect F(8, 64) = 149,4 P<0,0001
3L	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 9	change	CNO effect F(1, 8) = 1,829 P=0,2132
			vs baseline	Interaction F(8, 64) = 1,118 P=0,3637
Figure 4				
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	Chow	Time effect F(4, 24) = 16,19 P<0,0001
4B	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 7	comsumption	CNO effect F(1, 6) = 0,5048 P=0,5041
				Interaction F (4,24) = 4,253 P=0,0096
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:
				3h p=0,0262
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	Chow	Time effect F(4, 28) = 3.587 P=0.0175
4B	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8	comsumption	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 5,756 P=0,0457
				Interaction F(4, 28) = 0.9195 P=0,4665
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	Wheel running	Time effect F(4, 24) = 13,08 P<0,0001
4C	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 7	activity	CNO effect F(1, 6) = 17,85 P=0,0055
				Interaction F(4,24) = 4,130 P=0,0110
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				· · ·
				DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:
				DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO: 4h p=0,0003 ; 5h p=0,0475

Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre mice	Wheel running	Time effect F(4, 28) = 41,78 P<0,0001
4C	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8	activity	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 15,20 P=0,0059
				Interaction F(4, 28) = 8,994 P<0,0001
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:
				3h p<0,0001 ; 4h p=0,0031 ; 5h p=0,0493
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre	Chow	Time effect F(4, 32) = 10,76 P<0,0001
4D	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 9	comsumption	CNO effect F(1, 8) = 1,739 P=0,2238
				Interaction F(4, 32) = 3,931 P=0,0105
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:
				3h p=0,0031
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre	Chow	Time effect F(4, 42) = 16,82 P<0,0001
4D	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 9	comsumption	CNO effect F(1, 8) = 9,253 P=0,0160
				Interaction F(4, 32) = 4.688 P=0.0043
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Ga Sal vs CNO
				3h p=0.0002
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre	Wheel running	Time effect $E(4, 32) = 5.22 P < 0.0001$
4F		Dreadd Gi = 9	activity	CNO effect $F(1, 8) = 2.152 P=0.1806$
	/		douvity	Interaction $F(4, 32) = 5.299 P=0.0022$
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gi Salve CNO:
				2h = 0.0012 + 4h = 0.0226
<b>F</b> :	Turner	D4 and		Silp=0,0012, 4ilp=0,0326
Figure				Time effect $F(4, 32) = 1,425 P=0,2483$
4E	ANOVA	Dreadd Gd = 9	activity	CNO effect $F(1, 8) = 12, 14 P=0,0083$
				Interaction $F(4, 32) = 10,05 P<0,0001$
				Bonterroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:
				3h p=0,0114 ; 4h p<0,0001 ; 5h p<0,0001
Figure 5				
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 WT = 8	Running wheel	Time effect F(4,218, 80,14) = 3,631, P<0,0001
5B	ANOVA	D2 GI = 7	variation	Virus effect F(2, 19) = 2,915, P=0,0787
	(Geisser-	D2 Gq = 7		Interaction F(34, 323) = 3,597, P<0,0001
	Greenhouse's			Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	epsilon			D2 Gi vs. D2 WT: J1 p=0.0438
	correction)			D2 Gq vs D2 WT: J1 p=0.0661 ; J11 p=0.0070 ;
				J13 p=0.0068 ; J15 p=0.0173 ; J17 p=0.0153 ;
				J19 p=0.0048 ; J21 p=0.0041 ; J23 p=0.0072
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 WT = 10	High fat	Time effect F(5,007, 115,1) = 70,30, P<0,0001
5C	ANOVA	D2 GI = 8	comsumption	Virus effect F(2, 23) = 1,360, P=0,2766
	(Geisser-	D2 Gq = 8	J1-9 ; J24-25	Interaction F(14,161) = 5,689, P<0,0001
	Greenhouse's			Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	epsilon			D2 Gi vs. D2 Gi: J1 p=0,0090 ; J24 p=0,0421 ;
	correction)			J25 p=0,0419
				D2 Gq vs. D2 WT : J3 p=0,0005
Figure	One way	D2 WT = 10	High fat	F (2, 23) = 0,3875, P=0,6831
5C	ANOVA	D2 GI = 8	comsumption	
		D2 Gq = 8	mean J10-J22	

SC     ANOVA     D2 G II = 8 D2 G q = 8     consumption mean J26-33       Figure     Knuskal-Wallis     D2 G II = 8 D2 G q = 8     (mean J1-J23)     P = 0.1808       Figure     One way     D2 WT = 10 D2 G q = 8     Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)     F (2, 23) = 5,158     P=0.0141       SD     ANOVA     D2 G q = 8     (mean J1-J23)     Borferron's multiple comparisons test: D2 WT vs. D2 G q = 0.0104       Figure     Kruskal-Wallis     D2 WT = 10 D2 G q = 8     Lean mass     Kruskal-Wallis     Statistic: 7.449       5D     test     D2 G II = 8 D2 G q = 8     variation (mean J1-J23)     DU WT vs. D2 G q = 0.0031     D2 G vr. P = 0.0003       5E     ANOVA     D2 G II = 8 D1 G II = 11     Weight variation (mean J2-J23)     Time effect F(4.777, 132.6) = 9.529, P<0.0001       Figure 6     D1 WT = 9     Numing wheel Wallst variation     Time effect F(2.87, 82, F<0.0001       Figure 6     D1 G I = 11     Variation     Time effect F(2.87, 82, F<0.0001       Greenhouse's epsion     D1 G I = 12     Variation     Time effect F(2.87, 82, 42, 91 = 0.85, F=0.0003       Is gree_0.073, J2 T p = 0.073, J2 T p = 0.0774, J2 29 = 0.089, J3 p = 0.0289, J3 p = 0.0289, J3	Figure	One way	D2 WT = 10	High fat	F (2, 23) = 0,6538, P=0,5295
Figure     D2 Gq = 8     mean J28-33       Figure     Kruskal-Walls     D2 WT = 10     Weight variation (mean J1-J23)     P = 0.068       SD     bet     D2 Gq = 8     Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)     P = 0.068       SD     ANOVA     D2 G1 = 8 (D2 Gq = 8)     Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)     For the set mass variation (mean J1-J23)     For the set mass variation (mean J1-J23)     For the set mass variation (mean J1-J23)     P = 0.0242       Figure     Kruskal-Walls     D2 WT = 10     Lean mass (mean J1-J23)     Kruskal-Walls statistic: 7.446       Figure     One way     D2 WT = 10     Lean mass (mean J1-J23)     D2 M2 = 0.0041       Figure     One way     D2 WT = 10     Weight variation (mean J23-J30)     Bonferron's multiple comparisons test D2 WT vs. D2 Gq = 0.0037       Figure     Mixed-effects     D1 GI = 11     Variation     Fit 2.23 = 1,179     P=0.0037       Figure 6     D1 GI = 11     D1 GI = 11     Variation     Visu effect F(2, 28) = 10.95, P=0.0003       Geisser- Greenhouse's     D1 GI = 11     Variation     Visu effect F(2, 28) = 1.05, P=0.0033       Mixed-effects     D1 GI = 11     D1 GI = 11     Variation	5C	ANOVA	D2 GI = 8	comsumption	
Figure 5D     Kruskal-Wallis best     D2 WT = 10 D2 GI = 8 (mean J1-J23)     Kruskal-Wallis statistic: 3,421 P = 0,1808       Figure 5D     One way D2 WT = 10     Fat mass variation D2 GI = 8 (mean J1-J23)     F(2, 23) = 5,158     P=0,0141       Figure 5D     NOVA     D2 GI = 8 D2 GQ = 8     (mean J1-J23) (mean J1-J23)     F(2, 23) = 6,158     P=0,0141       Figure 5D     Kruskal-Wallis 5D     D2 WT = 10 D2 WT = 10     Lean mass Variation     Kruskal-Wallis statistic: 7,446       5D     test     D2 GI = 8 D2 GQ = 8     variation (mean J1-J23)     F(2, 23) = 11,79     P=0,0032       Figure 6B     One way D2 GI = 8 D2 GQ = 8     Variation D2 GI = 8     F(2, 23) = 11,79     P=0,0031       Figure 6B     Mixed-effects orrection)     D1 WT = 9     Running wheel Variation     Time effect F(4,777, 132,6) = 9,529, P<0,0001			D2 Gq = 8	mean J26-33	
5DtestD2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8(mean J1-J23)P = 0,1808FigureOne way ANOVAD2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)Fc (2, 3) = 5,158P=0,0141SDANOVAD2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8(mean J1-J23)D2 VT vs D2 Gq p=0,0104Figure P = 0,0242D2 GI = 8 D2 GI = 8 D2 GI = 8(mean J1-J23)D2 VT vs D2 Gq p=0,0191FigureOne way D2 GI = 8 D2 GG = 8D2 WT = 10 D2 GI = 8 D2 GG = 8Wariation (mean J2-J36)F(2, 23) = 11,79P=0,0003 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test D2 VT vs D2 Gq p=0,0011Figure 5NNOVAD2 GI = 8 D2 GG = 8Time affect F(4,777, 132,6) = 0,529, P<0,0001 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D2 GI vs D2 Gq p=0,0003Figure 6D1 WT = 9 Greenhouse's epsilon correction)D1 WT = 9 D1 WT = 9Running wheat variationTime affect F(4,777, 132,6) = 0,529, P<0,0001 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 GI = 11 VariationFigure 7Mixed-affects Greenhouse's epsilon correction)D1 WT = 12 D1 GI = 11 D1 GI = 11Nume fifter F(2,31) = 0,0293; J17 p=0,0213; J11 p=0,0203; J27 p=0,0213; J27 p=0,0213; J31 p=0,023; J31 p=0,0239; J35 p=0,0239; J3	Figure	Kruskal-Wallis	D2 WT = 10	Weight variation	Kruskal-Wallis statistic: 3,421
Image: constraint of the second state of the seco	5D	test	D2 GI = 8	(mean J1-J23)	P = 0,1808
Figure 5D     One way ANOVA     D2 WT = 10 D2 GI = 8     Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)     F(2, 23) = 5, 158     P=0,0141       Figure 5D     Kruskal-Wallis 5D     D2 WT = 10     Lean mass Variation     VV vs. D2 G p=0.0104       Figure 5D     test     D2 GI = 8     Variation     P = 0.0242       Durn's multiple comparisons test     D2 WT vs. D2 G p=0.0191     F(2, 23) = 11.79     P=0.0033       Figure 6B     One way D2 GI = 8     D2 WT = 10     Weight variation (mean J23-J36)     F(2, 23) = 11.79     P=0.0033       Figure 6     D1 WT = 9     One way D2 GI = 8     D1 WT = 9     Nixed-effects     D1 WT = 9       Figure 6     D1 WT = 9     Running wheel Geserhouse's Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 9     Running wheel Variation     Time effect F(4,777, 132.6) = 9.529, P=0.0001       Figure 6     D1 WT = 12     High fat Cereschouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 12     High fat Variation     Time effect F(2, 31) = 0.0239, :133 p=0.0385 J3 p=0.0289, :J13 p=0.0239, :J14 p=0.0214, :J1 p=			D2 Gq = 8		
5DANOVAD2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8(mean J1-J23)Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0.0104Figure SDKruskal-Wallis testD2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8variation (mean J1-J23)P = 0.0242 Dum's multiple comparisons testFigure SEOne way D2 WT = 10Ue an mass D2 Gq = 8Variation (mean J1-J23)F (2, 23) = 11,79P=0.0003 D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0.0191Figure 6ANOVAD2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8(mean J23-J36)Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0.0037Figure 6model D1 GI = 11 (Geisser- D1 Gq = 11D1 GI = 11 VariationTime effect F(4,777, 132,6) = 9,529, P<0,0001 Wirus effect F(2, 28) = 10.55, P=0,0003 Interaction F(34,472) = 3,225, P<0,0001 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gy = 111Figure 6D1 Gq = 11 (Geisser- orrection)Time effect F(2, 28) = 10.55, P=0,0003 Interaction F(34,472) = 3,225, P<0,0001 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 WT 1 up =0.0299 (J17 p=0.0187 ; J19 p=0.0223 (J27 p=0.0177 ; J28 p=0.0439 ; J25 p=0.0223 ; J37 p=0.0770 ; J28 p=0.0439 ; J32 p=0.0285 (J3 p=0.0290 ; J13 p=0.0285 ; J5 p=0.0128 ; J7 p=0.0218 ; J9 p=0.0213 ; J11 p=0.0285 ; J3 p=0.0286 ; J13 p=0.0280 ; J19 p=0.0228 ; J37 p=0.0271 ; J28 p=0.0091 ; J19 p=0.0238 ; J3 p=0.0281 ; J3 p=0.0283 ; J19 p=0.0283 ; J1 p=0.0285 ; J5 p=0.0131 ; J1 p= 0.0184 ; J7 p= 0.0830 ; D1 Gq = 11 D1 Gq = 11 D1 Gq = 11 D1 Gq vs D1WT : J1 p= 0.0184 ; J7 p= 0.0830 ; D1 Gq vs D1WT : J1 p= 0.0184 ; J7 p= 0.0830 ; D1 Gq vs D1WT : J1 p= 0.0184 ; J7 p= 0.0830 ; D1 Gq vs D1WT : J1 p= 0.0086 ; J1 p= 0.0026 ; D1 Gq vs D1WT : J1 p= 0.0184 ; J7 p= 0.0830 ; D1 Gq vs D1WT : J1 p= 0.0184	Figure	One way	D2 WT = 10	Fat mass variation	F (2, 23) = 5,158 P=0,0141
Figure Figure SDD2 Gq = 8D2 WT = 10 Variation (mean J1-J23)D2 WT = 0.0242 P = 0.0242 Dum's multiple comparisons test D2 WT = 10 D2 WT = 10Kruskal-Wallis statistic 7.446 P = 0.0242 Dum's multiple comparisons test D2 WT = N. D2 Gq = 0.0111Figure SEOne way ANOVAD2 GI = 8(mean J1-J23) (mean J2-J36)F(2, 23) = 11,79 De 0.0003 D2 GI = 8, D2 Gq = 0.0037Figure 6BOne way modelD1 WT = 9 	5D	ANOVA	D2 GI = 8	(mean J1-J23)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
Figure 5D     Kruskal-Wallis test     D2 WT = 10 D2 G = 8 D2 G = 8     Lean mass variation     Kruskal-Wallis statistic: 7.446       Figure 5E     D2 G = 8 D2 G = 8     D2 G = 8 D2 G = 8     (mean J1-J23)     P = 0.0242 D2 WT vs. D2 G p = 0.0191       Figure 6B     One way ANOVA     D2 G = 8 D2 G = 8     (mean J1-J23)     Bonferron1's multiple comparisons test D2 WT vs. D2 G q p = 0.0003 D2 G vs. D2 G q p = 0.0003       Figure 6     Mixed-effects Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 9 D1 G = 11     Running wheel variation     Time effect F(4,777, 132, 6) = 9.529, P<0.0001			D2 Gq = 8		D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0,0104
5DtestD2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8variationP = 0,0242FigureOne wayD2 WT = 10(mean J1-J23)D2 WT s. D2 Gq p=0.0191FigureOne wayD2 WT = 10Weight variationF (2, 23) = 11,79P=0.0003SEANOVAD2 GI = 8D2 Gq = 8Common Set (Particle Comparisons test: D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0.0003 D2 GI vs. D2 Gq p=0.0003Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0.0003 D2 GI vs. D2 Gq p=0.0003FigureMixed-effectsD1 WT = 9 Of Gq = 11Running wheel variationTime effect F(4,777, 132.6) = 9,529, P<0,0001 Wrise effect F(2,28) = 10.95, P=0,0003 Interaction F(34,472) = 3,225, P<0,0001 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 WT: J1 p=0.0187 ; J19 p=0,0703 ; J21 p=0,0187 ; J19 p=0,0703 ; J21 p=0,0187 ; J32 p=0,0498 ; J25 p=0.0223 ; J32 p=0,0299 ; J7 p=0,0187 ; J19 p=0,0703 ; J21 p=0,0187 ; J32 p=0,0385 J55 p=0,0223 ; J32 p=0,0003 D1 Gy vs. D1 WT: J1 p=0,0531 ; J32 p=0,0385 J5 p=0,0213 ; J1 p=0,0285FigureTwo-way RM CGreenhouse's epsilon correction)D1 WT = 12 D1 Gi = 11High fat comsumption U1 S1 J p=0,0084 ; J7 p=0,0281 ; J7 p=0,0281 ; J7 p=0,0284 ; J7 p=0,0283 ; J7 p=0,0280 ; J2 p=0,0213 ; J1 = 9, J24-25FigureOne way CGreenhouse's epsilon correction)D1 WT = 12 D1 Gi = 11 Comsumption torestareHigh fat real s10, J22 p=0,0184 ; J7 p=0,0280 ; J7 p=0,0280 ; J7 p=0,0280 ; J7 p=0,0280 ; J24 p=0,0119 ; J25 p=0,0281 ; J5 p=0,0281 ; J5 p=0,0280 ; J7 p=0,0380 ; J24 p=0,0119 ; J25 p=0,0281 ; J5 p=0,0280 ; J7 p=0,0380 ; J24 p=0,0119 ; J25 p=0,0281 ; J5 p=0,0280 ; J7 p=0,0380 ; J24 p=0,0114 ; J25 p=0,0813 ; J2	Figure	Kruskal-Wallis	D2 WT = 10	Lean mass	Kruskal-Wallis statistic: 7,446
ProductD2 G q = 8(mean J1-J23) (mean J2-J36)Dunn's multiple comparisons test D2 WT vs. D2 G q p=0.0003 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D2 WT vs. D2 G q p=0.0003 D2 G l = 8 D2 G q = 8Figure 6Figure 6Figure 6Mixed-effects (Geisser- Greenhouse's epsilon correction)D1 WT = 9 D1 G q = 11Running wheel variationTime effect F(4,777, 132,6) = 9,529, P<0,0001 Virus effect F(2, 28) = 10.95, P=0,0003 Interaction F(34,472) = 2,25, P<0,0001 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 G vs. D1 WT: J1 p=0,0299 ; J17 p=0,0187 ; J19 p=0,0703 ; J21 p=0,0174 ; J22 p=0,0439 ; J25 p=0,0273 ; J22 p=0,0770 ; J22 p=0,0439 ; J25 p=0,0273 ; J22 p=0,0770 ; J22 p=0,0439 ; J25 p=0,0273 ; J21 p=0,0174 ; J22 p=0,0439 ; J25 p=0,0273 ; J27 p=0,02713 ; J11 p=0,0086 ; J13 p=0,0385 J5 p=0,0285 ; J35 p=0,0385 J5 p=0,0285 ; J35 p=0,0385 J5 p=0,0285 ; J35 p=0,0385 J5 p=0,0271 ; J20 p=0,0213 ; J11 p=0,0086 ; J13 p=0,0385 J5 p=0,0285 ; J35 p=0,0300 D1 G q = 11 Figure One wayD1 WT = 12 C ANOVAHigh fat C Greshouse's epsilon correction)High fat ref (2, 23) = 0,168 ; J30 p=0,0385 J5 p=0,0285 E P0,0011 ; J25 p=0,0813 E P1, 22 = 0,086 E P2, 23 = 0,086 E P2, 2	5D	test	D2 GI = 8	variation	P = 0,0242
Figure     One way     D2 WT = 10     Weight variation (mean J23-J36)     F (2, 23) = 11.79     P=0.0003       5E     ANOVA     D2 GI = 8     (mean J23-J36)     Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0.0003       Figure 6     Mixed-effects     D1 WT = 9     Running wheel     Time effect F(4,777, 132,6) = 9,529, P<0,0001			D2 Gq = 8	(mean J1-J23)	Dunn's multiple comparisons test
Figure 5E     One way ANOVA     D2 WT = 10 D2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8     Weight variation (mean J23-J36)     F (2, 23) = 11,79     P=0,0003       Figure 6     D2 Gq = 8     D2 Gq = 8     D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0,0003     D2 Gi vs. D2 Gq p=0,0003       Figure 6     D1 WT = 9     Mixed-effects model     D1 Gi = 11     Time effect F(4,777, 132,6) = 9,529, P<0,0001					D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0,0191
SE     ANOVA     D2 GI = 8 D2 Gq = 8     (mean J23-J36)     Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0.0037       Figure 6B     Mixed-effects model     D1 WT = 9 D1 GI = 11     Running wheel variation     Time effect F(4,777, 132,6) = 9,529, P<0,0001       6B     Mixed-effects Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 9 D1 GI = 11     Running wheel variation     Time effect F(2, 28) = 10,95, P=0,0003       Figure 6B     Mixed-effects model     D1 GI = 11     Variation     Time effect F(2, 28) = 10,95, P=0,0003       Interaction F(34/27) = 3,225, P<0,0001     Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 GI vs. D1 WT: J1 p=0,0299; J17 p=0,01187; J19 p=0,0703; J21 p=0,0174; J23 p=0,0439; J25 p=0,0223; J27 p=0,0770; J29 p=0,0213; J11 p=0,0285; J33 p=0,0285       Figure 6C     Two-way RM ANOVA     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     Time effect F(2,639, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001       Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 GI = 11     J1-9; J24-25     Interaction F(14,217) = 6,368, P<0,0001       Figure 6C     One way P1 WT = 12     High fat fat     F (2, 32) = 6,168, P=0,0056       Figure 6C     One way P1 GI = 11     D1 GI = 11     Comsumption mean J10-J22     Tukey's multiple comparisons test: D1 Giq vs D1WT: p= 0,0164; J7 P= 0,0280       Figure 6D     One way P1 WT = 12     High fat M	Figure	One way	D2 WT = 10	Weight variation	F (2, 23) = 11,79 P=0,0003
Figure 6     D2 Gq = 8     D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0.0003 D2 Gi vs. D2 Gq p=0.0037       Figure 6     Mixed-effects model     D1 WT = 9 D1 GI = 11     Running wheel variation     Time effect F(4.777, 132,6) = 9.529, P<0,0001	5E	ANOVA	D2 GI = 8	(mean J23-J36)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
Figure 6     D1 WT = 9     Running wheel     Time effect F(4,777, 132,6) = 9,529, P<0,001       6B     model     D1 G = 11     variation     Virus effect F(2,28) = 10,95, P=0,0003       6B     Geisser- Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 G = 11     variation     Virus effect F(2,28) = 10,95, P=0,0001       10 G = 11     D1 G = 11     variation     Virus effect F(2,28) = 10,95, P=0,0001       60     Correction)     D1 G = 11     variation     Urus effect F(2,28) = 10,95, P=0,0001       7     Greenhouse's epsilon     D1 WT = 12     High fat     D1 G = 11     D1 WT = 12, Greenhouse's epsilon     High fat     Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001			D2 Gq = 8		D2 WT vs. D2 Gq p=0,0003
Figure 6     DI WT = 9     Running wheel     Time effect F(4,777, 132,6) = 9,529, P<0,0001       6B     model     D1 GI = 11     variation     Virus effect F(2,28) = 10,95, P=0,0003       6B     D1 GI = 11     D1 GI = 11     variation     Virus effect F(2,28) = 10,95, P=0,0001       Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 GI = 11     variation     Bonferron's multiple comparisons test:       D1 Gi vs. D1 WT: J1 p=0,0299 ; J17 p=0,0187 ; J19 p=0,0703 ; J21 p=0,0174 ; J23 p=0,0439 ; J25 p=0,0223 ; J27 p=0,0770 ; J29 p=0,0090 ; J31 p=0,0325 ; J35 p=0,0285       Figure     Two-way RM     D1 WT = 12     High fat     Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001					D2 Gi vs. D2 Gq p=0,0037
Figure     Mixed-effects     D1 WT = 9     Running wheel     Time effect F(4,777, 132.6) = 9,529, P<0,0001       6B     model     D1 Gl = 11     variation     Time effect F(2, 28) = 10,95, P=0,0003       Greenhouse's epsion correction)     D1 Gq = 11     variation     Interaction F(34,472) = 3,225, P<0,0001	Figure 6	1	1	1	1
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epsilon correction)     pesilon correction)     D1 Gi vs. D1 WT: J1 p=0,0299; J17 p=0,0187; J19 p=0,0703; J21 p=0,0174; J23 p=0,0439; J25 p=0,0223; J27 p=0,0770; J29 p=0,0090; J31 p=0,0325; J33 p=0,0808       Figure     Two-way RM (Geisser- Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption dressing     Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001       Figure     Two-way RM (Geisser- Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption J1-9; J24-25     Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat correction)     Time effect F(2,31) = 0,0380, D=0,4334       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     F(2, 31) = 0,0184; J7 p= 0,0830       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     F(2, 32) = 6,168, P=0,0056       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     F(2, 32) = 0,1087       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     F(2, 32) = 2,153, P=0,1327       GC     ANOVA     D1 GI = 11     comsumption mean J26-33     F(2, 32) = 4,039 P=0,0273       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     Weight variation mean J26-33     F(2, 31) = 3,980 P=0,0220		Greenhouse's			Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
correction)     J19 p=0,0703 ; J21 p=0,0174 ; J23 p=0,0439 ; J25 p=0,0223 ; J27 p=0,0770 ; J29 p=0,0090 ; J31 p=0,0325 ; J33 p=0,0808       Figure     Two-way RM (Geisser- Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001       Figure     NOVA (Geisser- Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     Time effect F(2, 31) = 0,6590, P=0,4334       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     Time effect F(2, 31) = 0,0850, P=0,4334       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     F(2, 32) = 6,168, P=0,0001       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     F(2, 32) = 6,168, P=0,0056       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     F(2, 32) = 2,153, P=0,1327       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     F(2, 32) = 4,039     P=0,0273       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     Weight variation mean J26-33     F(2, 32) = 4,039     P=0,0273       Figure     One way <th< td=""><td></td><td>epsilon</td><td></td><td></td><td>D1 Gi vs. D1 WT: J1 p=0,0299 ; J17 p=0,0187 ;</td></th<>		epsilon			D1 Gi vs. D1 WT: J1 p=0,0299 ; J17 p=0,0187 ;
Figure     One way     D1 WT = 12     High fat correction     Two-way RM     D1 WT = 12     High fat consumption     Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001       6C     ANOVA     D1 G = 11     consumption     Virus effect F(2, 31) = 0,8580, P=0,0201       6C     ANOVA     D1 G = 11     J1-9 ; J24-25     Interaction F(14,217) = 6,386, P<0,0001		correction)			J19 p=0,0703 ; J21 p=0,0174 ; J23 p=0,0439 ;
Figure 6CTwo-way RM (Geisser- Greenhouse's epsilon correction)D1 WT = 12 D1 Gq = 11 D1 Gq = 11High fat comsumption J1-9; J24-25Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001 Virus effect F(2, 31) = 0,8590, P=0,4334 Interaction F(14,217) = 6,386, P<0,0001 Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test: D1Gq vs D1WT: J1 p= 0,0184 ; J7 p= 0,0830 D1Gq vs D1Gi: J1 p= 0,0184 ; J7 p= 0,0830 D1Gq vs D1Gi: J1 p= 0,0184 ; J7 p= 0,0830 D1Gq vs D1Gi: J1 p= 0,0184 ; J7 p= 0,0830 D1Gq vs D1Gi: J1 p= 0,0184 ; J7 p= 0,0830 D1Gq vs D1Gi: J1 p= 0,0184 ; J7 p= 0,0830 D1Gq vs D1Gi: J1 p= 0,0146 ; J5 p= 0,0209 ; J7 p=0,0830 ; J24 p=0,0119 ; J25 p=0,0813Figure 6COne way ANOVAD1 WT = 12 D1 Gq = 11 D1 Gq = 11High fat comsumption mean J10-J22F (2, 32) = 6,168, P=0,0056 Tukey's multiple comparisons test: D1Gq vs D1WT: p= 0,0167 D1Gq vs D1WT: p= 0,0167 D1Gq vs D1WT: p= 0,0167Figure 6DOne way D1 WT = 12 D1 Gq = 11High fat (mean J12-J23)F (2, 32) = 4,039 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0220Figure 6DOne way D1 WT = 11 D1 Gq = 11Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)F (2, 31) = 3,980 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0220Figure 6DOne way D1 WT = 11 D1 Gq = 11Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)F (2, 13) = 3,980 Bonferron's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0220Figure 6DOne way D1 WT = 11 D1 Gi = 11 D1 Gi vs. D1 G					J25 p=0,0223 ; J27 p=0,0770 ; J29 p=0,0090 ;
Figure     Two-way RM     D1 WT = 12     High fat comsumption     Time effect F(2,659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001       6C     ANOVA     D1 Gq = 11     comsumption     Virus effect F(2, 31) = 0,8590, P=0,4334       (Geisser- Greenhouse's epsilon correction)     D1 WT = 12     High fat     Time effect F(2, 659, 82,44) = 19,85, P<0,0001					J31 p=0,0325 ; J33 p=0,0808
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Greenhouse's epsilon correction)Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test: D1Gq vs D1WT: J1 p= 0,0184 ; J7 p= 0,0830 D1Gq vs D1G: J1 p= 0,0046 ; J5 p= 0,0209 ; J7 p=0,0830 ; J24 p=0,0119 ; J25 p=0,0813Figure 6COne way D1 GI = 11 D1 Gq = 11High fat comsumption mean J10-J22F (2, 32) = 6,168, P=0,0056 Tukey's multiple comparisons test: D1Gq vs D1WT: p= 0,0167 D1Gq vs D1WT: p= 0,0167 D1Gq vs D1G: p= 0,0096Figure 6COne way D1 WT = 12 D1 GI = 11 D1 Gq = 11High fat comsumption mean J26-33F (2, 32) = 2,153, P=0,1327Figure 6DOne way D1 WT = 12 D1 GI = 11 D1 Gq = 11High fat (mean J1-J23)F (2, 32) = 4,039 Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0220Figure 6DOne way D1 WT = 11 D1 Gq = 11Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)F (2, 31) = 3,980 Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0220Figure 6DOne way D1 WT = 11 D1 Gi = 11 D1 Gi = 11 D1 Gi = 11 D1 Gi = 11Fat mass variation (mean J1-J23)F (2, 31) = 3,980 Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0220		(Geisser-	D1 Gq = 11	J1-9 ; J24-25	Interaction F(14,217) = 6,386, P<0,0001
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FigureOne wayD1 WT = 12High fat comsumption $F(2, 32) = 2,153, P=0,1327$ 6CANOVAD1 GI = 11comsumptionD1 Gq = 11mean J26-33FigureOne wayD1 WT = 12Weight variation6DANOVAD1 GI = 11(mean J1-J23)Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:D1 Gq = 11D1 Gq = 11Fat mass variationF (2, 31) = 3,980FigureOne wayD1 WT = 11FigureOne wayD1 GI = 11FigureOne wayD1 GI = 11FigureOne wayD1 GI = 11D1 GI = 11(mean J1-J23)Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:D1 Gi = 11D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0.02896DANOVAD1 GI = 11D1 Gi = 11D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0.0449					D1Gq vs D1Gi: p= 0,0096
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6DANOVAD1 GI = 11 D1 Gq = 11(mean J1-J23)Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0220FigureOne wayD1 WT = 11Fat mass variationF (2, 31) = 3,980P=0,02896DANOVAD1 GI = 11 D1 Gq = 11(mean J1-J23)Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test: D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0.0449	Figure	One way	D1 WT = 12	Weight variation	F (2, 32) = 4,039 P=0,0273
D1 Gq = 11     D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0220       Figure     One way     D1 WT = 11     Fat mass variation     F (2, 31) = 3,980     P=0,0289       6D     ANOVA     D1 Gi = 11     (mean J1-J23)     Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:       D1 Gg = 11     D1 Gg = 11     D1 Gi vs. D1 Gg p=0.0449	6D	ANOVA	D1 GI = 11	(mean J1-J23)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
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6D ANOVA D1 GI = 11 (mean J1-J23) Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:   D1 Ga = 11 D1 Ga = 0.0449	Figure	One way	D1 WT = 11	Fat mass variation	F (2, 31) = 3,980 P=0,0289
D1 Ga = 11 D1 Give D1 Ga $n=0.0449$	6D	ANOVA	D1 GI = 11	(mean J1-J23)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
			D1 Gq = 11		D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0449
D1 WT vs. D1 Gi p=0,0583					D1 WT vs. D1 Gi p=0,0583

Figure	One way	D1 WT = 12	Lean mass	F (2, 32) = 4,888 P=0,0140
6D	ANOVA	D1 GI = 11	variation	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
		D1 Gq = 11	(mean J1-J23)	D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq p=0,0108
Figure	One way	D1 WT = 12	Weight variation	F (2, 32) = 1,112 P=0,3412
6E	ANOVA	D1 GI = 11	(mean J23-J36)	
		D1 Gq = 11	· · · · · ·	
Figure 7				
Figure	Two-way RM	D1-D2 WT = 11	Running wheel	Time effect E(2 537 57 01)= 2 709 P=0 0625
7B	ANOVA	D1Ga-D2Gi = 8	variation	Virus effect $F(2, 23) = 8.522$ P=0.0017
	(Geisser-	D1Gi-D2Ga = 11	Valiation	Interaction $F(34 382) = 3 405 P<0 0001 $
	Greenhouse's	Bron Broq III		Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	ensilon			$D1Ga-D2Gi vs D1-D2 WT 11 n=0.0776 \cdot 13$
	correction)			$p=0.0121 \cdot 15 p=0.0332 \cdot 17 p=0.0147 \cdot 19$
	conection			$p=0.0105 \cdot 113 p=0.0212 \cdot 115 p=0.0336 \cdot 117$
				$p=0.0050 \div 110 p=0.0247$
				p=0,0059, $319$ $p=0,0247$
				p=0.0501, $p=0.0140$ , $111 p=0.0222$ , $112$
				p=0,0391, 35 p=0,0140, 311 p=0,0353, 313
				p=0,0127; J15 p=0,0293; J17 p=0,0155; J19
				p=0,0898 ; J21 p=0,0560 ; J23 p=0,0438
Figure	Two-way RM	D1-D2 W1 = 11	High fat	Time effect $F(4,2/2, 115,3) = 32,84, P<0,0001$
70	ANOVA	D1Gq-D2Gi = 8	comsumption	Virus effect $F(2, 27) = 0.3648$ , $P=0.6977$
	(Geisser-	D1Gi-D2Gq = 11	J1-9 ; J24-25	Interaction F(14,189) = 7,911, P<0,0001
	Greenhouse's			Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	epsilon			D1Gq D2Gi vs WT: J1 p=0,0498 ; J24 p=0,0056
	correction)			; J25 p=0,0769
				D1Gi D2Gq vs WT: J3 p=0,0648 ; J24 p=0.0967
				D1Gi D2Gq vs. D1Gq D2Gi: J1 p=0,0057 ; J3
				p=0,0277 ; J24 p=0,0004 ; J25 p=0,0001
Figure	One way	D1-D2 WT = 11	High fat	F (2, 27) = 1,880, P=0,1720
7C	ANOVA	D1Gq-D2Gi = 8	comsumption	
		D1Gi-D2Gq = 11	mean J10-J22	
Figure	One way	D1-D2 WT = 11	High fat	F (2, 27) = 1,425, P=0,2580
7C	ANOVA	D1Gq-D2Gi = 8	comsumption	
		D1Gi-D2Gq = 11	mean J26-33	
Figure	One way	D1-D2 WT = 11	Weight variation	F (2, 27) = 9,424, P=0,0008
7D	ANOVA	D1Gq-D2Gi = 8	(J1-J23)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
		D1Gi-D2Gq = 11		D1Gq-D2Gi vs. D1Gi-D2Gq p= 0,0006
				D1-D2 WT vs. D1Gi-D2Gq p= 0,0538
Figure	One way	D1-D2 WT = 8	Fat mass variation	F (2, 21) = 11,62 P=0,0004
7D	ANOVA	D1Gq-D2Gi = 7	(J1-J23)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
		D1Gi-D2Gq = 9		D1Gq-D2Gi vs. D1Gi-D2Gq p= 0,0005
				D1-D2 WT vs. D1Gi-D2Gq p= 0,0045
Figure	One way	D1-D2 WT = 9	Lean mass	F (2, 22) = 8,393 P=0,0020
7D	ANOVA	D1Gq-D2Gi = 7	variation	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
		D1Gi-D2Gq = 9	(J1-J23)	D1Gq-D2Gi vs. D1Gi-D2Gq p= 0,0015
				D1-D2 WT vs. D1Gi-D2Gq p= 0,0630
Figure	One way	D1-D2 WT = 11	Weight variation	F (2, 27) = 19,80 P<0,0001
7E	ANOVA	D1Gq-D2Gi = 8	(J23-J36)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
		D1Gi-D2Gq = 11		D1Gq-D2Gi vs. D1Gi-D2Gq p<0.0001
				D1-D2 WT vs. D1Gi-D2Gg p= 0.0004
1				

		Su	pplementary figure	
Supplemer	ntary Figure 2			
Figure	Mixed-effects	D1 GI = 9	Lever press	Time effect F(1,104, 8,833) = 103,7, P<0,0001
Supp 2A	model	D1 Gq = 8	(Learning)	lever effect F(1,555, 12,44) = 110,4, P<0,0001
	(Geisser-			Interaction F(1,925, 13,69) = 45,22, P<0,0001
	Greenhouse's			Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	epsilon			Reinforced Lever (L1): D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq
	correction)			p=0,3512
				Non reinforced Lever (L2): D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq
				p>0,9999
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 GI = 9	Lever presses	Virus effect F(1,15)=11,59, P=0,0039
Supp 2B	ANOVA	D1 Gq = 8	CNO (2mg/kg)	CNO effect F(1,15)=13,59, P=0,0022
				Interaction F(1,15)=0,3135, P=0,5838
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 GI = 9	Break point	Virus effect F(1,15) = 9,109, P=0,0008
Supp 2B	ANOVA	D1 Gq = 8	CNO (2mg/kg)	CNO effect F(1,15) = 17,29, P=0,0022
				Interaction F(1,15) = 0,0027, P=0,9587
Figure	Log-rank	D1 GI = 9	Survival Curve	DREADD Gi Sal vs CNO:
Supp 2B	(Mantel-Cox)	D1 Gq = 8	CNO (2mg/kg)	x2 = 8,320 ; P Value = 0,0039
	lesi			DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO
				χ2 = 0,154 ; P Value = 0,6981
Figure	DREADD Gi :	D1 Gi = 9	Rate (presses/s)	Ratio effect F(8, 64) = 13,85, P<0,0001
Supp 2C	Mixed-effects		CNO (2mg/kg)	CNO effect F(1, 8) = 0,8356, P=0,3874
	model			Interaction F(8, 62) = 1,724, P=0,1103
Figure	DREADD Gq :	D1 Gq= 8	Rate (presses/s)	Ratio effect F(7, 56) = 5,227, P<0,0001
Supp 2C	Mixed-effects		CNO (2mg/kg)	CNO effect F(1, 8) = 19,07, P=0,0024
	model			Interaction F(7, 45) = 7,655, P<0,0001
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				Salin vs CNO : ratio 16, P<0,0001 ; ratio 32,
				P<0,0001 ; ratio 64, P<0,0001 ; ratio 128,
				p=0.0065
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 GI = 9	Stereotyped	Virus effect F (1,15) = 0,0078, P=0,9307
Supp 2D	ANOVA	D1 Gq = 8	behaviors	CNO effect F (1,15) = 2.955, P=0,1062
			CNO (2ma/ka)	Interaction F (1.15) =11.80. P=0.0037
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DRFADD Gg Sal vs CNO: P=0.0059
				3h p=0.0114 : 4h p<0.0001 : 5h p<0.0001
Figure	Two-wav RM	D1 GI = 8	Stereotyped	Virus effect F(1,18) = 0.2649. P=0.6131
Supp 2D	ANOVA	D1 Gq = 12	behaviors	CNO = Effect F(1,18) = 0.8088 P = 0.3804
			CNO (0.5mg/kg)	Interaction $F(1,18) = 0.3934$ , P=0.0628
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 GI = 9	Lick/burst	Virus effect F(1.15) = 0.0336. P=0.8570
Supp 2E	ANOVA	D1 Gq = 8	CNO (0.5ma/ka)	CNO effect $F(1,15) = 0.1752$ . P=0.2054
			,	Interaction F(1,15) = 0.31826. P=0.6752
Figure	Two-wav RM	D1 GI = 8	RPM	Virus effect F(1, 14)=0.04791 P=0.8299
Supp 2F	ANOVA	D1 Ga = 8	CNO (2ma/ka)	CNO effect F(1, 14)=1.774 P=0.2042
			······································	Interaction F(1, 14)= 0.05004 P=0.8262

Figure	Two-way RM	D2 GI = 9	Lever press	Time effect F(1,121, 8,972) = 139,2, P<0,0001
Supp 2G	ANOVA	D2 Gq = 7	(Learning)	lever effect F(1,545, 12,36) = 170,6, P<0,0001
				Interaction F(1,299, 7,508) = 46,80, P<0,0001
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				Reinforced Lever (L1): D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq
				p=0,7850
				Non reinforced Lever (L2): D1 Gi vs. D1 Gq
				P=0,5598
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 GI =8	RPM	Virus effect F(1, 13) = 1,871, P=0,1946
Supp 2H	ANOVA	D2 Gq = 7	CNO (2mg/kg)	CNO effect F(1, 13) = 1,976, P=0,1833
				Interaction F(1, 13) = 0,3563, P=0,5608
Supplemen	ntary Figure 3			
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre	Chow ad libitum	Time effect F(2, 12) = 52,16, P<0,0001
Supp 3B	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 7	comsumption (1h -	CNO effect F(1, 6) = 17,80, P=0,0056
			4h)	Interaction F(2, 12) = 3,371, P=0,0689
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre	Chow ad libitum	Time effect F(2, 12) = 287,7, P<0,0001
Supp 3B	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 7	comsumption (12h	CNO effect F(1, 6) = 0,003195, P=0,9568
			- 48h)	Interaction F(2, 12) = 0,9966, P=0,3977
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre	, Chow ad libitum	Time effect F(2. 14) = 21,95, P<0,0001
Supp 3B	ANOVA	Dreadd Ga = 8	comsumption (1h -	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 0.2730, P=0.6175
			4h)	Interaction F(2, 14) = 1.022. P=0,3854
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre	Chow ad libitum	Time effect $F(2, 14) = 305.5$ . P<0.0001
Supp 3B	ANOVA	Dreadd Ga = 8	comsumption (12h	CNO effect $F(1, 7) = 67.65 P < 0.0001$
Oupp 02		Dicada Cy C	- 48h)	Interaction $F(2, 14) = 4,540$ P=0,0302
				$DREADD \ Ga \ Salve \ CNO$
				$12h = 0.9907 \cdot 24h = 0.0360 \cdot 48h = 0.0023$
Figure			Chow ad libitum	Time effect $E(2, 14) = 14,85$ P=0,0003
Supp 3C		Droadd Gi - 8	concumption (1h -	CNO  affact  E(1, 7) = 50.12  D=0.0001
Supp 55	ANOVA	Dieadu Gi – 0		$b_{1} = 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.000 + 0.00$
Eigure			411) Chow od libitum	Time affact $E(2, 14) = 228.1$ B<0.0001
Figure		Droadd Ci - 8	concumption (12h	CNO = affact E(4, 7) = 0.03318  D = 0.8606
Supp 30	ANOVA	Dieauu Gi – o		$E_{1} = 0.000 \text{ metric} = 0.000 \text{ metric} = 0.0000 \text{ metric} = 0.00000 \text{ metric} = 0.000000 \text{ metric} = 0.000000 \text{ metric} = 0.0000000000000000000000000000000000$
Figure	Tura Way DM	D4	- 4011)	Interaction $F(2, 14) = 2,320, F=0,1133$
Figure			Cnow ad inditum	Time effect $F(2, 10) = 41,29, F<0,0001$
Supp 3C	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 9	comsumption (in -	CNO effect $F(1, 8) = 90,23, P<0,0001$
			4h)	Interaction F(2, 16) = 2,680, P=0,0992
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre	Chow ad libitum	Time effect $F(2, 16) = 339, 1, P < 0,0001$
Supp 3C	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 9	comsumption (12n	CNO effect F(1, 8) = 3,025e-005, P=0,9957
			- 48h)	Interaction F(2, 16) = 0,6284, P=0,5461
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre	Fasting refeeding:	Time effect F(2,712, 18,96) = 423,0, P<0,0001
Supp 3F	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 8	Chow	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 0,2182, P=0,6546
	(Geisser-		comsumption (1h -	Interaction F(2,916, 20,411) = 9,853, P=0,0003
	Greenhouse's		48h)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	epsilon			DREADD GI Sal vs CNO:
	correction)			0-1h p=0,0094 ; 4-12h p=0,0241
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre	Fasting refeeding:	Time effect F(1, 7) = 65,77, P<0,0001
Supp 3F	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 8	Weight variation	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 0,9053, P=0,3731
				Interaction F(1, 7) = 0,6597, P=0,4434

Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre	Fasting refeeding:	Time effect F(2,672, 18,71) = 112,9, P<0,0001
Supp 3F	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8	Chow	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 3,476, P=0,1045
	(Geisser-		comsumption (1h -	Interaction F(2,446, 17,12) = 3,783, P=0,003
	Greenhouse's		48h)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	epsilon			DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO
	correction)			12-24h p=0,0284
Figure	Two-way RM	D2 cre	Fasting refeeding:	Time effect F(1, 7) = 1,736 P=0,2291
Supp 3F	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8	Weight variation	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 2,786 P=0,1390
			-	Interaction F(1, 7) = 26.27 P=0,0014
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gg Sal vs CNO
				24h p=0.0001
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre	Fasting refeeding:	Time effect F(2.356, 16.79) = 581.2, P=0.0001
Supp 3D	ANOVA	Dreadd Gi = 8	Chow	CNO effect $F(1, 7) = 0.03354$ P=0.8599
0pp 02	(Geisser-		comsumption (1h -	Interaction $F(2.678, 18.75) = 5.089$ P=0.0114
	Greenhouse's		48h)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	ensilon		4011)	DREADD Gi Salvs CNO
	correction)			0.1h n=0.0007 : 1.2h n=0.0035
Figuro		D1 cro	Easting refeeding:	Time effect E (1, 7) = $44.18$ = $-0.0003$
Supp 3D		Dreadd Gi - 8	Weight variation	CNO effect F $(1, 7) = 0.9580$ P=0.3601
Supp 3D		Dieadd Ol - 0	Weight Valiation	(1, 7) = 0,3003 + -0,3001
Figure		D1 are	Facting rafaeding:	Time effect $F(2, 2) = 0.0130$ $F = 0.0001$
Figure	Two-way Rivi		Fasting releeding:	Time effect $F(2,820, 19,74) = 444,2 P<0,0001$
Supp 3D	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8	Chow	CNO effect $F(1, 7) = 0.6499 P=0.4467$
	(Geisser-		comsumption	Interaction $F(2,420, 16,94) = 9,269 P=0,0012$
	Greenhouse's		(1h - 48h)	Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	epsilon			DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO
	correction)			0-1h p=0,0081 ; 1-2h p=0,0102
Figure	Two-way RM	D1 cre	Fasting refeeding:	Time effect F(1, 7) = 97,92, P<0,0001
Supp 3D	ANOVA	Dreadd Gq = 8	Weight variation	CNO effect F(1, 7) = 26,77, P=0,0013
				Interaction F(1, 7) = 10,79, P=0,0134
				Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
				DREADD Gq Sal vs CNO:
				24h p<0,0001 ; 48h p=0,0071
Supplemen	ntary Figure 4			
Figure	Two-way RM	D1-WT= 12	% Blood glucose	Time effect F(3,234, 103,5) = 105,5, P<0,0001
Supp 4B	ANOVA	D1-Gi = 11	change	Virus effect F(2, 32) = 0,8281, P=0,4460
	(Geisser-	D1-Gq = 12	vs baseline	Interaction F(14, 224) = 1,483, P=0,1187
	Greenhouse's			
	epsilon			
	correction)			
Figure	Two-way RM	D2-WT = 8	% Blood glucose	Time effect F(3,578, 89,45) = 257,4, P<0,0001
Supp 4D	ANOVA	D2-Gi = 9	change	Virus effect F (2, 25) = 3,198,P=0,0580
	(Geisser-	D2-Gq = 11	vs baseline	Interaction F (14, 175) = 3,286, P=0,0001
	Greenhouse's			Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:
	epsilon			WT vs Gq : 15min p=0,0134
	correction)			

Supplementary Figure 5						
Figure	Two-way RM	D1-D2WT= 11	Number of marbles	Virus effect F(2, 27) = 0,8550, P=0,4365		
Supp C	ANOVA	D1Gi-D2Gq = 8		Digging effect F(1, 27) = 20,00, P=0,0001		
		D1Gq-D2Gi = 11		Interaction F(2, 27) = 0,3144, P=0,7329		
<b>Figure</b>	Mixed offerste	D4 D2W/T- 0	Dunning, subset	Each restriction offset $\Gamma(4,420,00,70) = 0.4720$		
	wixed-effects		Running wheel	Food restriction effect $F(4, 136, 92, 76) = 0,4720$ ,		
Supp D	model	D1GI-D2Gq = 8	variation	P=0,7622		
	(Geisser-	D1Gq-D2Gi = 9		Virus effect $F(2, 23) = 22,79, P<0,0001$		
	Greenhouse's			Interaction $F(14, 157) = 5,357, P<0,0001$		
	epsilon			Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:		
	correction)			D1Gq-D2Gi vs. D1-D2 WT:		
				3g p=0,0121 ; 2.5g p =0,0219 ; 2g p=0,0945 ;		
				1,5g (1) p=0,0147 ; 1,5g (2) p>0,9999 ; 1,5g (3)		
				p=0,9416 ; 1,5g (4) p=0,2330		
				D1Gi-D2Gq vs. D1-D2 WT:		
				3g p=0,0005 ; 2.5g p =0,0001 ; 2g p=0,0009 ;		
				1,5g (1) p=0,1565 ; 1,5g (2) p=0,0174 ; 1,5g (3)		
				p=0,0595 ; 1,5g (4) p= 0,0471		
				D1Gi-D2Gq vs. D1Gq-D2Gi		
				3g p=0,0006 ; 2,5g p=0,0004 ; 2g p=0,0057 ;		
				1,5g (1) p=0,0006 ; 1,5g (2) p=0,0332 ; 1,5g (3)		
				p=0,0256 ; 1,5g (4) p=0,0395		
Figure	Mixed-effects	D1-D2WT= 11	Weight variation	Food restriction effect F(1,853, 49,49) = 384,4		
Supp D	model	D1Gi-D2Gq = 8		P<0,0001		
	(Geisser-	D1Gq-D2Gi = 11		Virus effect F(2, 27) = 6,087, P=0,0066		
	Greenhouse's			Interaction F(14, 187) = 10,35, P<0,0001		
	epsilon			Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test:		
	correction)			D1Gq-D2Gi vs. D1-D2 WT:		
				1,5g (3) p=0,0314 ;		
				D1Gi-D2Gq vs. D1Gq-D2Gi		
				1,5g (2) p=0,236 ; 1,5g (3) p=0,0158 ; 1,5g (4)		
				p=0,0373		

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Discussion

### I. Synthèse des résultats

L'objectif général de mes travaux de thèse a été d'étudier le rôle des sous-populations de MSNs du striatum ventral dans le comportement de prise alimentaire, incluant les phases anticipatoire et consommatoire, afin de déterminer si leur modulation est nécessaire et suffisante pour mimer certaines dimensions comportementales caractéristiques de pathologies telles que l'AN et l'obésité. Pour cela nous avons combiné des approches génétiques et comportementales sur des modèles animaux précliniques afin de tester la fonctionnalité des MSNs dans la motivation, la consommation de nourriture et l'activité physique mais également pour préciser les mécanismes mis en jeu.

Nos résultats montrent que la modulation aigüe ou chronique des D2-MSNs ou D1-MSNs provoque principalement des phénotypes opposés pour chacun des paramètres comportementaux précédemment énoncés, supportant alors une dichotomie fonctionnelle entre les deux sous populations. L'activation aigüe des D2-MSNs joue un rôle de frein dans la motivation à fournir un effort pour obtenir une faible quantité de nourriture palatable, chez des animaux privés en nourriture (anticipation de la prise alimentaire). Dans des conditions d'accès libre à de la nourriture et à une roue d'activité, l'activation des D2-MSNs diminue uniquement l'activité physique volontaire. En revanche, elle semble également provoquer à plus long terme (24-48h après leur activation), une augmentation de la consommation spontanée de nourriture en accès libre alors que les animaux présentent une activité physique volontaire plus faible, ce qui serait plutôt associé, dans des conditions physiologiques, à une diminution des apports énergetiques. Bien que l'activation chronique des D2-MSNs (3 semaines) semble favoriser une prise de poids, l'arrêt du traitement se caractérise par une normalisation de l'activité physique et du poids après quelques jours. Ces résultats illustrent néanmoins et pour la première fois un rôle clair des D2-MSNs dans la régulation du comportement consommatoire, suggérant alors que leur rôle dans le comportement de prise alimentaire s'étend au-delà d'un simple frein de la motivation à obtenir de la nourriture définie comme récompensante.

L'inhibition des D1-MSNs diminue la volonté de l'animal à fournir un effort pour obtenir une récompense alimentaire. Cependant, de manière surprenante, leur activation aigüe induit également une forte diminution des performances motivationnelles dans un paradigme de conditionnement opérant, de même qu'une diminution de la consommation dans des conditions d'accès non restreint à la nourriture. Dans un contexte où l'accès à une roue d'activité est possible, l'activation des D1-MSNs oriente l'animal vers une activité physique soutenue aux dépens de l'activité consommatoire et cela même à la suite d'un jeûne de 12 heures. Pour autant, cette inhibition de la motivation à obtenir une récompense alimentaire médiée par l'activation des D1-MSNs, s'oppose à celle observée dans notre étude sur les AGPI n-3 (Ducrocq *et al.*, 2020). Dans nos conditions d'activation chronique des D1-MSNs, l'augmentation de la prise alimentaire. Bien que les D1-MSNs aient un rôle anorexigène immédiat, leur activation répétée n'est pas suffisante pour induire une perte de poids et ce, en dépit d'une forte activité physique.

Après avoir étudié les conséquences comportementales et physiologiques des modulations de chaque population de MSNs indépendamment, et au vu d'une opposition fonctionnelle presque totale, nous avons voulu évaluer les effets d'une modulation opposée et simultanée des D1- et D2-MSNs par l'utilisation d'animaux double transgéniques. Tandis que l'inhibition/l'activation simultanée des D1-MSNs/D2-MSNs semble induire une diminution de l'activité physique encore plus intense que celle observée lors de l'activation chronique des D2-MSNs seuls, la prise de poids reste similaire entre deux conditions expérimentales. les А l'inverse l'activation/l'inhibition simultanée des D1-MSNs/D2-MSNs est suffisante pour augmenter fortement l'activité physique sans effet compensatoire sur la consommation de nourriture, cette modulation entrainant alors une perte de poids significative. Par la suite, les effets comportementaux des doubles modulations sont reversés suite à l'arrêt de la stimulation.

Ces résultats laissent entendre qu'il existe un équilibre dans l'activité des différentes populations de MSNs, les D1- et D2-MSNs joueraient un rôle bidirectionnel dans l'homéostasie énergétique. Les D1-MSNs favoriseraient ainsi l'activité physique et diminueraient le comportement d'approche et consommatoire de la nourriture. A l'inverse, l'activation des D2-MSNs renforcerait l'activité consommatoire spontanée au détriment des dépenses énergétiques. Pour autant, elle limiterait également l'effort déployé pour obtenir une récompense alimentaire. En supposant que ces unités fonctionnelles opposées soient majoritairement sous contrôle d'afférences limbiques

et corticales, il serait tentant de proposer qu'une asynchronie de l'activation des D1- et D2-MSNs puisse être impliquée dans l'étiologie et le maintien de maladies neuropsychiatriques associées à des troubles de la prise alimentaire, aspect que nous aborderons ci-dessous. Cependant, l'implication des différentes cibles des neurones D1 et D2 du NAc dans ces effets consommatoires, à savoir l'implication du VP, de l'ATV et/ou du LH, aussi bien que des mécanismes physiologiques sous-jacents à une désynchronisation pathologique des MSNs, reste inconnue (Figure 32).



Figure 32 : Schéma et tableau récapitulatifs des résultats obtenus. Les MSNs du core du noyau accumbens vont moduler différentes facettes des comportements volontaires impliqués dans la balance énergétique. De manière globale, les D2-MSNs vont favoriser un apport énergétique alors que les D1-MSNs vont favoriser une dépense énergétique. Sur la base de notre caractérisation du rôle des MSNs du NAcc un comportement de prise alimentaire pathologique pourrait dépendre d'une asynchronie des MSNs. Néanmoins, ce contrôle de la prise alimentaire depend-il du mesencéphale dopaminergique ?

### II. Evaluation du phénotype motivationnel et de l'activité physique

1. Le rôle des MSNs : entre motivation pour l'activité consommatoire et l'activité physique

L'une des premières interrogations issues de ce travail de thèse concerne la diminution de la motivation observable aussi bien lors de l'inhibition que durant l'activation des D1-MSNs, qui pourrait remettre en cause la validité de nos approches pour évaluer ce comportement. Comment expliquer l'absence de phénotypes comportementaux opposés lors d'une stimulation bidirectionnelle des D1-MSNs ?

Premièrement, il est important de considérer les différences dans nos approches comportementales. La tâche de ratio progressif lors du conditionnement opérant maximise l'évaluation de la phase d'approche, incluant la détection de stimuli associés à la nourriture, son anticipation et l'effort déployé pour l'obtenir, tout en minimisant les aspects consommatoires du fait d'un nombre assez faible de récompenses obtenues. A l'inverse, une consommation spontanée place l'animal dans un contexte qui minimisera cette phase anticipatoire, favorisant le comportement ingestif et permettant ainsi d'évaluer uniquement les caractères orexigène ou anorexigène de nos effets (arrêt/maintien de la consommation). Nos résultats montrent que la manipulation des MSNs entraine essentiellement des comportements antagonistes entre les phases anticipatoire et consommatoire mais reste sans effet sur la coordination motrice et l'hédonie, suggérant que les effets observés en conditionnement opérant sont spécifiques de la motivation à obtenir une récompense alimentaire. Comment alors interpréter les diminutions de performances en conditionnement opérant lors de l'activation des D1-MSNs ? L'explication la plus simple serait que l'effet satiétogène de cette manipulation entraine, par voie de conséquence, une diminution de la « recherche » de nourriture et donc une diminution des performances opérantes et ce, indépendamment d'une composante purement motivationnelle dans le sens de « fournir un effort pour obtenir une récompense ». En accord avec cette hypothèse, l'activation des D1-MSNs augmente les performances volontaires sur une roue d'activité. Or, l'activité physique, en particulier chez le rongeur, a une forte valeur récompensante (Greenwood et al., 2011). Il est donc tentant de proposer que l'augmentation de l'activité physique lors de l'activation des D1-MSNs reflète une potentialisation de la motivation à exercer un effort physique. Dans ce cadre, nous pourrions faire l'hypothèse qu'à des niveaux d'excitabilité physiologiques, l'activité des D1-MSNs permettrait de faciliter la motivation à obtenir une récompense alimentaire via un effort physique. Dans le cas d'une sur-activation, les D1-MSNs orienteraient la motivation de nos animaux vers une dépense énergétique soutenue, au détriment de l'apport énergétique. Il serait donc particulièrement pertinent d'évaluer l'effet de la manipulation des D1-MSNs dans un comportement volontaire et dirigé vers une dépense énergétique nécessitant de travailler - d'effectuer un effort pour obtenir l'accès à une roue d'activité - permettant l'évaluation de la motivation et du caractère renforçant de l'activité physique (Muguruza *et al.*, 2019; Hurel *et al.*, 2021). Ceci permettrait de tester directement l'hypothèse selon laquelle, bien que les D1-MSNs puissent avoir un rôle facilitateur sur la motivation, ceci dépendrait d'une dimension énergétique, qui s'orienterait vers une dépense plutôt qu'un apport d'énergie. De la même manière, nous prédisons que l'inhibition des D2-MSNs, qui augmente l'effort pour obtenir de la nourriture malgré une consommation spontanée réduite, conduirait à une potentialisation des aspects récompensants de l'activité physique.

Cela nous amène à une seconde interrogation, à savoir le caractère « volontaire » de nos effets comportementaux orientés vers une activité physique. En effet, nos résultats montrent qu'une stimulation des D1-MSNs par le biais d'une dose de CNO de 2mg/kg augmente les stéréotypies – ce qui n'est pas le cas à une dose de 0,5 mg/kg. Il serait donc intéressant de déterminer si l'augmentation de l'activité physique sous stimulation des D1-MSNs reflète bien une augmentation de la valeur récompensante de l'activité ou résulte d'un phénotype impulsif/compulsif, impliquant une composante d'hyperactivité (involontaire). Une tâche opérante permettant l'accès à la roue d'activité serait, une fois de plus, très pertinente pour tester cette hypothèse. Quoi qu'il en soit, bien que l'activation des D1-MSNs double les performances sur la roue d'activité dès le premier jour d'injection, une augmentation graduelle de l'activité de nos animaux contrôles au cours des jours est observable, et ce jusqu'à atteindre des niveaux d'activité comparables. Par ailleurs, l'inhibition chronique des D1-MSNs empêche la mise en place de cette augmentation graduelle d'activité. Il est donc tentant de proposer que, plutôt qu'un phénomène d'hyperactivité, l'activation des D1-MSNs potentialise la valeur récompensante de l'activité physique. Plusieurs études ont cherché à évaluer les liens entre l'activité physique chez le rongeur et l'impulsivité/compulsivité. Une étude de Strickland a notamment pu montrer chez le rat

que l'activité physique spontanée diminue la sensibilité à un délai entre la réponse instrumentale et l'apparition d'une récompense lors d'une tâche de DTT (delay discouting task), suggérant que l'activité physique volontaire contribue à une diminution des comportements impulsifs (Strickland et al., 2016). Une autre étude montre que l'activité physique permet d'améliorer le phénotype obsessionnel /compulsif induit par une exposition parentale à la morphine chez la souris (Nouri Zadeh-Tehrani et al., 2020). Ces deux études suggèrent que l'augmentation spontanée de l'activité physique dépend bien d'un renforcement de comportement dirigé vers celle-ci. Finalement, l'ultime question restante vise à déterminer si ce processus physiologique de renforcement de l'activité physique spontanée est dépendant des MSNs. Une étude récente a notamment pu montrer que des animaux ayant accès à une roue d'activité depuis plusieurs semaines, sont bien plus résistants à l'effet pro-locomoteur de la cocaïne comparativement à des animaux n'ayant pas eu accès à la roue (Becker et al., 2019). En outre, cet effet est reconnu pour être fortement dépendant d'une modulation des MSNs du NAc (Pulvirenti et al., 1991). L'association entre ces dernières observations ne reste que spéculative, néanmoins, dans leur ensemble, ces données laissent penser que l'augmentation des performances physiques dépendante des MSNs dans nos groupes expérimentaux, serait induite par une augmentation de la motivation et/ou du caractère récompensant de l'activité physique et non par un phénotype compulsif.

2. Hypothèses neurobiologiques et mécanistiques de nos effets comportementaux

## 2.1. Les MSNs et le rétrocontrôle dopaminergique

Ces questions sous-jacentes au fonctionnement du réseau de MSNs, nous amènent à reconsidérer l'une des plus vieilles questions débattues au sein de la littérature, concernant le système mésolimbique, à savoir le rôle du rétrocontrôle dopaminergique des neurones de l'ATV sur le NAc et sur la modulation du comportement dirigé vers un but. Comme présenté dans l'introduction, les signaux dopaminergiques du système mésolimbique encodent l'apprentissage et la recherche d'une récompense. La libération de dopamine au niveau du NAc va permettre l'activation des récepteurs D1Rs qui va faciliter l'activation des D1-MSNs mais également l'activation des D2Rs qui va inhiber les D2-MSNs. Cette double modulation va alors permettre un renforcement favorisant l'apprentissage d'un comportement dirigé vers un but, en accord avec les rôles « pro-reward » et « anti-reward » des D1- et D2-MSNs. Suite à l'acquisition de ce comportement dirigé vers un but, la libération de dopamine, initialement concomitante avec l'obtention de la récompense, va se produire au moment de la présentation de stimuli associés à la récompense, codant alors pour une composante anticipatoire de la transmission dopaminergique. Ce signal dopaminergique devrait ainsi potentialiser l'activité des D1-MSNs et inhiber les D2-MSNs, facilitant ainsi la volonté à « fournir un effort » pour obtenir la récompense.

Cependant, nos résultats d'électrophysiologie vivo in montrent que l'activation des D1-MSNs diminue l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV, à l'inverse des D2-MSNs. Ces résultats sont en accord avec une connectivité directe des D1-MSNs les sur neurones dopaminergiques tandis que les D2-MSNs contacteraient des neurones GABAergiques du VP,



Figure 33 : Schéma représentatif du contrôle de l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV par les projections de la voie directe et indirecte du NAc. Tandis que les D1-MSNs du NAcc inhibent les neurones dopaminergiques par un contact direct, les D2-MSNs activent les neurones de l'ATV par le biais des neurones GABAergiques du VP, provoquant alors un phénomène de levée d'inhibition

qui eux-mêmes contacteraient directement les neurones dopaminergiques (Figure 33). Ainsi, si l'on raisonne de façon un peu simpliste, le recrutement du réseau des MSNs du NAc par le signal dopaminergique, se traduirait alors par un rétrocontrôle inhibiteur sur cette même transmission dopaminergique qui, en retour, devrait alors résulter en un diminution d'activité des D1-MSNs et une augmentation de celle des D2-MSNs, aboutissant à une diminution du comportement de recherche de la récompense. Ces considérations sont en accord avec les études de pharmacologie de Rahman et McBride qui suggèrent que la modulation dopaminergique de l'ATV vers le NAc, dans les conditions d'un comportement acquis, s'apparente à une boucle de rétrocontrôle négative (Rahman & McBride, 2000, 2001, 2002; Saklayen *et al.*, 2004). Cependant, l'implication de ce rétrocontrôle et de sa dynamique dans le contrôle des différentes phases d'un comportement dirigé vers un but reste très peu explorée. L'utilisation d'une double stimulation pharmacogénétique et/ou optogénétique permettrait d'évaluer plus en détail la cinétique de ce rétrocontrôle dopaminergique, mais également son impact au niveau de la dynamique d'activation des MSNs et au niveau

comportemental. Par exemple, nous pourrions faire l'hypothèse qu'une inhibition des projections dopaminergiques sur le NAc, concomitante à l'activation des D2-MSNs, conduirait au maintien de nos effets pro-consommatoires et qu'à l'inverse, une activation simultanée des D1-MSNs et des neurones dopaminergiques pourrait être suffisante pour déclencher et maintenir une activité physique soutenue au détriment d'un maintien de la balance énergétique (prise alimentaire compensatoire). La compréhension du rôle comportemental de ce rétrocontrôle dopaminergique (dissociable du rôle de la dopamine dans le renforcement) pourrait être critique dans la compréhension des pathologies associées au circuit de la récompense.

## La distinction Core / Shell du noyau accumbens dans la phase anticipatoire du comportement dirigé

Un autre aspect concernant l'implication du réseau de MSNs du NAc dans cette phase « anticipatoire » du comportement dirigé vers une récompense alimentaire concerne les dissociations anatomiques au sein du NAc. Sur la base de nos résultats - qui concernent majoritairement le NAcC - et de la littérature, les effets purement consommatoires dépendants des D1-MSNs semblent similaires entre le NAcC et NAcS (O'Connor et al., 2015; Zhu, Ottenheimer, et al., 2016). En revanche, en considérant spécifiquement le rôle des MSNs dans les processus anticipatoires et le renforcement, l'activation des D1-MSNs du NAcS est suffisante pour déclencher un comportement d'autostimulation et initier un effort physique (Cole et al., 2018). En particulier, l'étude de S. Lammel démontre qu'une stimulation des D1-MSNs de la partie latérale du NacS induit une préférence de place mais reste sans effets lorsqu'elle implique la partie médiane (Yang et al., 2018). Ces résultats s'accorderaient néanmoins sur un rôle facilitateur des D1-MSNs du NAcS dans le comportement d'approche. Pourtant, dans nos conditions, l'activation des D1-MSNs du NAcC diminue les performances de nos animaux pour obtenir une récompense alimentaire. En l'occurence, cette dissociation core/shell s'accorde avec les études de F. Ambroggi qui a pu également montrer qu'une inhibition pharmacologique du NAcS diminue la réactivité aux stimuli associés à la nourriture, à l'inverse d'une inhibition du NAcC qui reste sans effet. Ces données semblent confirmer une opposition fonctionnelle des D1-MSNs dans le comportement anticipatoire entre NAcC et NAcS.

L'étude de S. Lammel émet l'hypothèse que les différents effets comportementaux obtenus entre les parties latérale et médiane du NAcS dépendraient d'une connectivité neuro-anatomique différente avec les neurones dopaminergiques. Le renforcement observé lors de l'activation des D1-MSNs du NAcS latéral serait directement attribuable à une majorité des projections contactant les interneurones GABAergiques, conduisant alors à une activation des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV latérale. L'absence d'effet dans la partie médiane dépendrait du fait que les D1-MSNs contactent autant les interneurones que les neurones dopaminergiques (Figure 34 ; (Yang *et al.*, 2018). Nous pourrions ainsi proposer que le NAcC représente une troisième sous division dans laquelle la majorité des D1-MSNs contacteraient directement les neurones dopaminergiques présents au niveau de l'ATV. Néanmoins, il reste à évaluer précisément cette connectivité avec l'ATV et à déterminer si cette différence de connectivité implique une ségrégation au sein de la population des D1-MSNs.



Figure 34 : Shéma illustrant la connectivité directe et indirecte des D1-MSNs entre le NAcS et l'ATV selon S. Lammel (Figure extraite de Yang et al 2018)

# 2.3. Le rétrocontrôle dopaminergique dans les effets contradictoires entre pharmacogénétique et optogénétique

Nos résultats confortent l'idée du rôle opposé des D1- et D2-MSNs, en accord avec le modèle GO/NO-GO des ganglions de la base, et ce de façon comparable à d'autres résultats de la littérature, à savoir qu'une inhibition pharmacogénétique des D2-MSNs potentialise la motivation, soulignant leur rôle de frein sur cette dimension comportementale (Carvalho Poyraz et al., 2016; Gallo et al., 2018). En revanche, cette dissociation reste contradictoire avec les études d'optogénétique qui mettent en évidence des effets similaires lors de la manipulation des D1- ou D2-MSNs (Soares-Cunha et al., 2016; Natsubori et al., 2017). Comment expliquer cette divergence au sein de la littérature concernant le rôle des D2-MSNs ? La principale différence entre l'optogénétique et la pharmacogénétique porte sur la temporalité d'action. Tandis que l'optogénétique va permettre une stimulation transitoire, la pharmacogénétique va permettre une stimulation longue et relativement stable. Les études de l'équipe de Rodriguéz ont pu montrer qu'une stimulation optogénétique brève des D2-MSNs (1s, 40 Hz) durant la présentation d'un stimulus associé à la présentation d'un levier qui permet d'obtenir une récompense, potentialise la réponse opérante des animaux ainsi qu'une préférence de place. Les auteurs montrent que l'activité des D2-MSNs revient rapidement à l'état basal après une telle stimulation, mais également que de façon similaire à nos résultats, une telle manipulation des D2-MSNs conduit à une augmentation d'activité des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV (Soares-Cunha et al., 2016, 2018).

Sur la base de ce constat, nous pourrions suggérer que les effets « promotivationnels » de la stimulation optogénétique brève des D2-MSNs précédant la réponse opérante de l'animal, résulteraient d'un rétrocontrôle dopaminergique au sein du NAc qui, une fois la stimulation interrompue, faciliterait l'activité des D1-MSNs et diminuerait celle des D2-MSNs (Figure 35). Un tel rétrocontrôle dopaminergique serait « masqué » lors de nos manipulations pharmacogénétiques dans la mesure où celles-ci sont maintenues dans le temps. De plus, il est important de considérer l'hypothèse qu'une modulation optogénétique brève, ayant lieu soit durant la présentation de stimuli prédictifs de la récompense, de la réponse opérante elle-même ou au moment de la consommation de la récompense, puisse avoir des effets différentiels sur le comportement dirigé vers un but en agissant sur des phénomènes distincts, tels que l'anticipation de la récompense ou la capacité/volonté de produire un effort. La dernière étude du groupe de A. Rodriguez s'est intéressée à cette dissociation. Ces résultats montrent que des stimulations optogénétiques brèves des D2-MSNs, soit durant la présentation d'un stimulus prédictif de la récompense, soit durant la consommation de la récompense, conduisent à des effets opposés sur la réponse opérante (Soares-Cunha *et al.*, 2019, 2021). Quoi qu'il en soit, il reste toujours à tester l'effet des stimulations optogénétiques spécifiquement durant le déploiement de l'effort lui-même. Toutes ces données mettent en avant une dynamique complexe du réseau des MSNs et de leur rétrocontrôle sur la transmission dopaminergique dans les différentes phases du comportement dirigé vers l'obtention d'une récompense.



Figure 35 : Schéma comparatif des effets de la stimulation optogénétique ou pharmacogénétique des D2-MSNs sur la boucle de rétrocontrôle dopaminergique et la motivation. La caractérisation du rôle des MSNs par l'optogénétique est partiellement altérée par un rétrocontrôle dopaminergique susceptible de moduler l'activité des MSNs une fois que la stimulation optique n'est plus active.

# 2.4. Implication de l'inhibition latérale et de la plasticité dépendante des récepteurs dopaminergiques

L'idée d'une implication des D1-MSNs dans l'encodage de la valeur récompensante de l'activité physique est également renforcée par l'observation que les effets des manipulations chroniques des D1-MSNs se maintiennent dans le temps, au moins 10 jours après l'arrêt du CNO, suggérant la mise en place d'une plasticité médiée par les D1-MSNs. Il est envisageable d'imaginer que l'activation pharmacogénétique des D1-MSNs, en facilitant cette plasticité, accélère l'augmentation de la valeur récompensante de l'activité physique, leur inhibition ayant l'effet inverse. A l'opposé, tant dans le cadre de la manipulation des D2-MSNs seuls, que de la manipulation concomitante des deux populations de MSNs, les performances reviennent au niveau des contrôles dès l'arrêt du CNO. Ces résultats laissent penser que la mise en place d'une plasticité lors de la manipulation des D1-MSNs dépend de l'activité des D2-MSNs. Quelle pourrait être la nature de cette plasticité ?

En l'occurrence, notre première étude met en avant l'importance de la levée d'inhibition des D1-MSNs par les D2-MSNs, sur la composante motivationnelle d'un comportement dirigé (Ducrocq et al., 2020). En effet, cette dernière suggère que le déficit motivationnel chez des animaux déficients en AGPI n-3 résulte d'une réduction de l'excitabilité des D1-MSNs du fait de l'augmentation de l'inhibition latérale qu'ils reçoivent des D2-MSNs. Ceci suggère un rôle pivot des D2-MSNs qui réguleraient l'effort/activité physique par leur action sur les D1-MSNs, et ce en complément des effets des projections sur le VP démontrés dans des études antérieures (Dobbs et al., 2016; Gallo et al., 2018). L'importance relative de l'inhibition locale des D2-MSNs dans la modulation du comportement orienté vers une récompense comparativement à leurs projections directes sur le VP reste à être éclaircie. Pourtant, plusieurs études récentes suggèrent que l'inhibition latérale des D2-MSNs sur les D1-MSNs, de même que l'activité des interneurones GABAergiques du striatum (FSI) permettrait une synchronisation d'assemblées de MSNs, cruciale dans la plasticité et l'expression normale d'un comportement (Fino & Venance, 2010; Moyer et al., 2014). En particulier, l'activation des D1Rs, D2Rs, D3Rs tend à diminuer l'intensité de l'inhibition latérale (Kohnomi et al., 2017). De manière similaire à nos résultats, des études du groupe de V. Alvarez ont montré que l'activation du D2R au niveau du striatum supprime l'inhibition latérale des D2-MSNs sur les D1-MSNs facilitant alors la locomotion. Une délétion génétique du D2R des D2-MSNs supprime alors les effets de la cocaïne (hyperlocomotion), ceci étant réversé par l'inhibition pharmacogénétique des D2-MSNs (Dobbs *et al.*, 2016; Burke *et al.*, 2017).

Une hypothèse serait que dans le cas d'une inhibition chronique des D1-MSNs, une augmentation de l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques conduirait à une augmentation des taux de dopamine dans le NAc de façon prolongée dans le temps. Ceci pourrait conduire à une diminution de l'expression des récepteurs dopaminergiques sur les D2-MSNs (phénomène de plasticité ; (Prieto *et al.*, 2011; Gallo *et al.*, 2015) et renforcer leur rôle inhibiteur. Cette potentialisation de l'inhibition latérale restant active suite à l'arrêt de l'inhibition des D1-MSNs, ceux-ci présenteraient alors une hypoactivité associée à une faible activité physique des animaux (Figure 36). Bien sûr, pour valider cette hypothèse, une évaluation de l'expression des récepteurs dopaminergiques dans la NAc, de même qu'une détermination de la cinétique de libération de dopamine dans la structure selon nos conditions, restent cruciales.



Figure 36 : Hypothèse de l'inhibition chronique des D1-MSNs en pharmacogénétique qui déclencherait un renforcement de l'inhibition latérale via le rétrocontrôle dopaminergique. Dans le cas d'une inhibition prolongée des D1-MSNs, l'augmentation de la libération de dopamine pourrait renforcer l'inhibition latérale des D2-MSNs sur les D1-MSNs par de multiples mécanismes (changement de l'expression des récepteurs dopaminergiques ou encore plasticité dépendante des endocannabinoïdes) qui serait responsable à plus long terme d'une hypoactivation des D1-MSNs.

Un autre mécanisme impliquant une plasticité des récepteurs à l'adénosine serait également envisageable. En effet, l'activité physique à long terme a pu être associée à une diminution du nombre des récepteurs adénosine (A1, A2A) et à une augmentation des D2R (Greenwood, 2019; Bauer *et al.*, 2020). En particulier, l'interaction entre les récepteurs adénosine et les récepteurs dopaminergiques (A1-

D1R, A2A-D2R) a pu être caractérisée et tend à diminuer l'impact du signal dopaminergique au sein du NAc (Ferré et al., 2018). Sur la base de ces observations, il est envisageable de proposer que l'augmentation d'activité spontanée/renforcement chez nos animaux contrôles soit en partie médiée par une plasticité dépendante des récepteurs aux adénosines. La diminution du taux de ces récepteurs, conduisant à une diminution de leur interaction avec les récepteurs dopaminergiques, potentialiserait l'intensité des signaux dopaminergiques qui s'accompagneraient alors d'une augmentation de l'activité des D1-MSNs et inversement pour les D2-MSNs, induisant ainsi le renforcement du comportement dirigé vers l'activité physique. Enfin, l'origine de cette plasticité pourrait être également indépendante des voies de signalisation en lien avec la dopamine. Plusieurs études ont pu montrer une importance relative des endocannabinoïdes dans l'inhibition locale, dépendante des FSIs exprimant le récepteur CB1 (Wright et al., 2017), mais également dans la mise place de la LTD au niveau présynaptique, incluant les afférences corticostriatales (Wu et al., 2015; Deroche et al., 2020), qui pourraient respectivement renforcer ou atténuer les signaux inhibant les D1-MSNs.

## III. Évaluation du phénotype consommatoire

1. Le rôle des D1- et D2-MSNs dans le contrôle de la balance dépenses/apports en énergie

Pour interpréter les différents effets consommatoires observés, il est important de considérer la relation qui existe entre l'activité physique, la prise alimentaire et le poids corporel. De nombreuses études effectuées chez la souris mâle et femelle ont pu déterminer que, dans des conditions physiologiques, l'activité physique spontanée n'a pas d'effet sur le poids corporel total, surtout lorsque la durée de celle-ci est inférieure à 12 semaines (Harri *et al.*, 1999; Allen *et al.*, 2001; Bartling *et al.*, 2017). Certaines études présentent plutôt des diminutions de 5-10% du poids total chez les C57BL/6J ayant accès à une roue comparativement aux souris sédentaires (absence de différences chez la femelle C57BL/6J) (Swallow *et al.*, 1999; De Bono *et al.*, 2006; Personius *et al.*, 2010). En revanche, dans la plupart des cas, l'activité physique va diminuer ou atténuer la prise de masse grasse, sensiblement améliorer la composition et la quantité de masse musculaire et surtout augmenter la consommation de nourriture standard (Tokuyama *et al.*, 1982; Swallow *et al.*, 1999; Gattermann *et al.*,

2004; Jung & Luthin, 2010). De plus, chez des souris exposées à un régime riche en graisse, une forte activité physique n'atténuera pas la prise de poids comparativement à des souris peu actives (Jung & Luthin, 2010). Il est également important de noter la présence d'un dimorphisme sexuel sur l'activité physique volontaire qui semble beaucoup plus importante chez la souris femelle (De Bono *et al.*, 2006).

Dans un premier temps, nous avons pu mettre en évidence une diminution puissante et rapide de la réponse hyperphagique induite par un jeûne lors de l'activation des D1-MSNs, qui pourrait s'apparenter à un effet anorexigène puisque cette diminution est également visible dans des conditions de satieté. Un tel effet à déjà été décrit dans la littérature concernant les D1-MSNs du NAcS, qui pourrait être attribué à une salience comportementale orientée vers l'activité physique comme précédemment énoncé (O'Connor et al., 2015; Zhu, Ottenheimer, et al., 2016). Cependant, l'augmentation de la consommation lors de l'inhibition de ces mêmes neurones suggère le recrutement d'un réseau spécifiquement impliqué dans l'activité consommatoire. Ces modulations aiguës ne sont pas associées à des changements de la clairance du glucose périphérique, ce qui exclut en partie que ces effets résultent d'une modification du métabolisme glucidique périphérique. Ce résultat s'oppose à l'étude de la Fleur et Serlie qui ont pu observer une diminution de la réactivité du glucose périphérique (GTT) lors de l'activation optogénétique des D1-MSNs du NAcS (Ter Horst et al., 2018). Quoi qu'il en soit, n'ayant évalué que la réactivité au glucose, il reste nécessaire de déterminer si la modulation d'activité des MSNs dans nos conditions influe sur les taux circulants de divers peptides de la prise alimentaire (leptine, ghréline et insuline), et/ou sur l'activité des principaux neurones de l'hypothalamus (NPY/AgRP et POMC/CART) impliqués dans la prise alimentaire et l'homéostasie énergétique. De plus, dans le cadre d'une activation chronique, l'activation des D1-MSNs induit au cours du temps une augmentation de la consommation journalière qui suggère la mise en place d'un phénomène de régulation physiologique, permettant de compenser les dépenses énergétiques dues à l'augmentation de l'activité physique. Il serait particulièrement intéressant et pertinent de déterminer si ce mécanisme compensatoire pourrait être dépendant de l'hypothalamus.

Concernant les D2-MSNs, notre étude compte parmi les premières à mettre en évidence leur rôle pro-consommatoire. Cet effet semble dissocié de processus motivationnels et de changements de la réactivité hédonique. Le fait que cet effet proconsommatoire s'accompagne également d'une diminution de l'activité physique, suggère une perturbation de l'homéostasie énergétique. Il faut cependant noter que dans le cas de l'activation aigüe des D2-MSNs, cet effet sur la prise alimentaire est retardé, survenant 12-24 heures après l'injection de CNO, lorsque les effets aigus des DREADD devraient être abolis. Une interprétation serait que cette diminution de prise alimentaire résulte d'un effet « apathique », qui serait en accord avec le fait que l'activité des animaux est fortement diminuée. Cependant, dans les premières heures, les animaux consomment une quantité de nourriture similaire à la condition contrôle. Une autre hypothèse serait que l'effet pro-consommatoire associé à l'activation des D2-MSNs dépend d'une plasticité au sein du réseau des MSN, localement (NAc) ou non (VP). Pour autant et de la même manière que pour les D1-MSNs, l'inhibition des D2-MSNs déclenche un effet consommatoire immédiat. D'autre part, l'activation chronique des D2-MSNs produit un effet orexigène transitoire. Celui-ci semble particulièrement visible jusqu'au 5<sup>ème</sup> jour de traitement et semble s'atténuer par la suite (J5-J23). Pourtant, durant cette seconde phase, la consommation des animaux présentant une sur-activation des D2-MSNs ne diffère pas de celle de notre groupe contrôle, les animaux restant pour autant moins actifs, ce qui aboutit à une prise de poids. Cette observation soulève l'idée que, de façon similaire à la manipulation des D1-MSNs, la manipulation des D2-MSNs perturbe l'homeostasie énergétique, leur activation étant en faveur d'un apport en énergie. Après arrêt du traitement et uniquement dans le cadre d'une modulation des D2-MSNs, les animaux diminuent leur consommation de nourriture alors qu'ils augmentent leurs performances physiques. L'arrêt de l'activation de ces neurones permettrait ainsi une normalisation de l'homéostasie énergétique.

Sur la base de ces observations, il semble pertinent de proposer que les modulations des MSNs jouent sur les aspects consommatoires de la prise alimentaire et influent sur la balance des dépenses/apports en énergie. Le recrutement d'un circuit contrôlant l'activité consommatoire et d'un circuit permettant un équilibre des dépenses/apports en énergie déprendrait d'une modulation des structures cibles des MSNs, à savoir le VP, l'ATV et/ou l'hypothalamus.

## Les réseaux de la consommation et de la balance énergétique recrutés par les MSNs

Avant tout, les MSNs sont connus pour contacter directement (D1-MSNs) et indirectement, via le VP (D1 et D2-MSNs), les neurones de l'ATV (Root et al 2015). Une sous-populations des D1-MSNs du NAcS projettent également sur LH (O'Connor et al., 2016). Pour autant, notre étude laisse entrevoir une connectivité similaire pour les D1-MSNs du NAcC, bien que l'existence d'un tel réseau reste à être clairement démontrée.

Selon les études de C. Lüscher, l'activation spécifique des D1-MSNs du NAcS projetant sur le LH, par stimulation optogénétique des terminaisons, induit une inhibition des neurones GABAergiques du LH, conduisant à une diminution de la prise alimentaire (O'Connor et al., 2015). Par ailleurs, selon les études de K. Tay, l'inhibition optogénétique des neurones GABA du LH, qui diminue l'activité consommatoire, conduit également à une diminution de l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV (Nieh et al., 2015, 2016). Enfin, l'équipe de R. Di Leone a pu montrer une diminution de l'excitabilité des D1-MSNs du NAc lors de la consommation de nourriture dans des conditions physiologiques, mais également qu'une activation spécifique des projections de ces neurones sur l'ATV entraine une réponse anorexigène (Bond et al., 2020). En considérant l'effet de nos manipulations sur l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV, il serait donc logique de proposer que nos effets comportementaux passent par une modulation de ces neurones, l'activation des D1-MSNs entrainant une diminution de l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques et inversement pour les D2-MSNs. Cette hypothèse s'oppose complètement aux observations de L. Boekhoudt qui a pu montrer que l'activation pharmacogénétique des neurones dopaminergiques induit une diminution de la prise alimentaire associée à une augmentation de l'activité physique (Boekhoudt et al., 2017). Ces observations suggèrent que dans nos conditions, les changements d'activité des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV ne sont pas responsables des effets consommatoires mediés par les MSNs, et ceux-ci seraient même plutôt impliqués dans un phénomène visant à compenser l'activité des MSNs par des signaux dopaminergiques (Figure 36). Dans les conditions de l'étude de L. Boekhoudt, l'activation pharmacogénétique des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV augmente la libération de dopamine, favorisant l'activation/ inhibition des D1/D2-MSNs.



Figure 36 : Discrimination des projections des D1/D2-MSNs sur l'ATV et le VP impliquées dans le comportement consommatoire. Sur la base de nos résultats, les effets consommatoires des MSNs ne sont pas dépendants d'un signal dopaminergique émis par l'ATV. Ce signal irait même à l'encontre de ces effets. On pourrait alors penser que les MSNs recrutent un ou plusieurs réseaux au sein du VP, suffisants pour moduler le comportement ingestif durant la prise alimentaire.

De plus, la littérature actuelle laisse une certaine ambigüité concernant une connectivité entre le striatum ventral et la SNc, bien que nous puissions détecter des projections dans la SNc. Néanmoins, l'étude de L. Boekhoudt met en évidence une absence d'effet consommatoire lors d'une modulation des neurones dopaminergiques de la structure, ce qui exclut l'hypothèse que nos effets soient associés à la SNc (Boekhoudt *et al.*, 2017). En conséquence, ces observations limitent le rôle des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV à des aspects prédictifs et/ou compensatoires au sein de la prise alimentaire et non à des changements immédiats de la consommation.

L'intégralité des D2-MSNs et 50% des D1-MSNs du NAcC projettent sur le VP qui est une structure clé du système de récompense. En plus d'être une cible majeure du système mésolimbique dopaminergique et dopaminoceptif striatal, il se compose également de différentes voies de projection vers les noyaux thalamiques, l'ATV et l'hypothalamus (Haber *et al.*, 1985; Zahm *et al.*, 1985; Root *et al.*, 2015). Son rôle a principalement été relié à l'encodage de la salience/valeur d'une action conduisant à une récompense. L'activité neuronale du VP est modulée par les stimuli prédictifs d'une récompense et, dans le cas d'une inhibition de la structure, des études constatent une diminution de la réactivité aux stimuli, limitant alors l'acquisition d'un apprentissage pavlovien, mais également la recherche de récompense associée à la présentation de stimuli (Tindell *et al.*, 2005, 2009; Smith *et al.*, 2011; Chang *et al.*, 2015; Richard *et al.*, 2016; Ahrens *et al.*, 2016, 2018). Sur la base du modèle des ganglions de la base, ce rôle a longtemps été attribué à sa connectivité avec le NAc, ne reléguant le VP qu'au statut de structure intermédiaire relayant l'information jusqu'à l'ATV. Cependant, une étude a démontré que la réactivité neuronale aux stimuli était plus précoce et intense dans le VP comparativement au NAc (Ottenheimer et al., 2018). De plus, de nombreuses études ont commencé à mettre en évidence l'implication de différents types cellulaires et circuits impliqués dans plusieurs processus comportementaux (Knowland et al., 2017; Faget et al., 2018; Tooley et al., 2018). Des études d'optogénétique ont montré que l'activation des neurones GABA augmente les performances pour obtenir une récompense palatable alors qu'elle diminue les performances pour éviter un stimulus aversif. A l'opposé, la stimulation des fibres glutamatergiques du VP déclenche le phénotype comportemental inverse. Ce serait les projections sur l'habenula latérale (LHb) et l'ATV qui seraient respectivement responsables de la modulation pro- ou anti-motivationnelle et de l'encodage bidirectionnel de la valence émotionnelle (Tooley et al., 2018; Stephenson-Jones et al., 2019; Vento & Jhou, 2020). D'autres études ont également dénoté l'implication des neurones GABAergiques du VP dans l'état d'éveil et l'activité locomotrice d'un individu. Leur activation conduirait à une désinhibition des neurones dopaminergiques de l'ATV qui pourrait en partie dépendre d'une modulation simultanée du LH. Cette modulation des neurones GABA reste néanmoins sans effet sur la prise alimentaire (van den Bos & Cools, 1991; Zahm et al., 2014; Li et al., 2020).

De la même manière que pour le NAc, le VP contient également des zones sensibles à des modulations opioïdergiques, et va influer de manière bidirectionnelle sur la réactivité hédonique. Étrangement, celles-ci semblent s'organiser de manière opposée à celle décrite dans le NAcS (*rostral « coldspot » vs caudal « hotspot »*; Castro & Berridge, 2014). Cependant, le système opioïdergique ne régule pas seulement les aspects hédoniques de la prise alimentaire mais aussi la quantité totale de calories consommées (Arjune & Bodnar, 1990; Drewnowski *et al.*, 1992). Plusieurs études récentes proposent alors un rôle des opioïdes dans le contrôle de certains aspects de l'homéostasie énergétique, régulant alors le poids et le métabolisme (Gendelis *et al.*, 2020; Ghule *et al.*, 2020). Ces observations mettent en avant l'importance du VP, qui, en plus d'un rôle modulateur de la motivation (Gallo *et al.*, 2018) et de l'hédonie (Castro & Berridge, 2014), jouerait également un rôle dans d'autres processus dépendants de l'homéostasie énergétique et influant sur l'activité consommatoire.

En particulier, la dernière étude de Y. Kupchik a pu montrer que l'exposition pendant 12 semaines, à un régime riche en sucre et en gras, diminue l'excitabilité des neurones du VP. Parmi les animaux exposés à ce régime, les animaux les plus sensibles (importante prise de poids, « Obesity prone ») présentent une excitabilité réduite associée à une potentialisation (court et long terme) des afférences inhibitrices (Gendelis et al., 2020). De plus, il a récemment été mis en évidence que la dynorphine au niveau du VP serait en partie responsable de changements métaboliques observés lors de l'exposition à un régime riche en graisse ou lors d'accès intermittents à la nourriture. Chez une souris transgénique « KO » pour la dynorphine, l'absence de cette dernière induit une prise de poids indépendante de la consommation de nourriture lorsque les animaux sont exposés à un régime riche en graisse. Les auteurs ont également pu montrer qu'un régime riche en graisse augmente les taux de KOR spécifiquement dans le VP. De plus, les animaux présentent également une réduction des peptides orexigènes NPY et orexine au niveau hypothalamique (Ghule et al., 2020). Sachant que les D1-MSNs secrètent principalement la dynorphine alors que les D2-MSNs produisent l'enképhaline, il serait tentant de proposer que nos effets consommatoires, opposés au processus motivationnel et indépendants d'un changement de l'hédonie, impliquent un processus dépendant des transmissions opioïdergiques, influant alors sur l'équilibre des apports/dépenses énergétiques. Néanmoins, le fonctionnement du réseau sous-jacent à ce processus reste à établir. En particulier, cette hypothèse sous-tend que les D1- et D2-MSNs contactent différentes sous populations au niveau du VP, l'une favorisant l'apport énergétique et l'autre les dépenses. Ceci reste à être démontré. Une telle ségrégation pourrait également se faire en amont, au niveau des réseaux de MSNs si l'on envisage que certains MSNs au sein d'une même sous-population (D1- et D2-MSNs) soient spécifiquement impliqués dans le contrôle de la prise alimentaire, tandis que d'autres moduleraient préférentiellement la dépense énergétique. De plus, l'existence et le rôle fonctionnel des projections de l'hypothalamus ou de l'ATV vers le VP doivent être mieux caractérisées. Enfin, il est important de garder à l'esprit que bien que nos manipulations pharmacogénétiques permettent de s'affranchir au moins en partie du rétrocontrôle dopaminergique sur le NAc, celui-ci reste en partie intègre sur le VP. Bien que l'implication de la dopamine au sein du VP ait pu être associée au processus motivationnel dans le cadre de drogues d'abus, son rôle dans l'activité consommatoire reste méconnu (Johnson & Napier, 1997; Stout et al., 2016).

- IV. La place du système mesolimbique dans les circuits de la prise alimentaire physiologique et pathologique
  - Le système mésolimbique : centre névralgique des comportements associés à la balance énergétique

Nos résultats suggèrent que dans un contexte physiologique de faim où la consommation de nourriture sera possible, les acteurs du circuit non homéostatique (striatum) de la prise alimentaire déclencheraient, au cours de l'activité consommatoire, une activation des D2-MSNs associée à une inhibition des D1-MSNs qui favoriserait alors l'activité consommatoire. De manière similaire, elle impliquerait une activation des acteurs orexigènes tels que les neurones GABAergiques du LH au sein des circuits homéostatiques (l'hypothalamus). Comme exposé plus haut, le recrutement de ces populations neuronales « orexigènes » au sein des circuits homéostatiques de la prise alimentaire, aboutit à l'activation des neurones dopaminergiques et inversement pour une modulation limitant la prise alimentaire. Ce changement de l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques ne serait pas



Figure 37 : Modèle neuro-anatomique représentatif du contrôle de la prise alimentaire par les circuits homéostatiques et non homéostatiques. Dans un contexte environnemental et métabolique favorable à la prise alimentaire, l'activation des D2-MSNs et des neurones GABA du LH favoriserait la prise alimentaire au détriment de l'activité physique dans le but d'augmenter l'apport énergétique. Par la suite l'activation des neurones dopaminergiques viserait à limiter cet apport. Dans un contexte défavorable à l'apport énergétique, l'activation des D1-MSNs et des neurones POMC modulerait le comportement en vue d'une dépense énergétique, la faible activité des neurones dopaminergiques limitant cette dépense de manière rétroactive. Bien que ce modèle souligne un rôle central de la dopamine dans la régulation de la prise alimentaire, ces aspects consommatoires associés à la dopamine restent partiellement déterminés dans la littérature.
impliqué dans une prise alimentaire, mais serait plutôt un signal allant à son encontre, en atténuant les signaux pro-consommatoires au moins au niveau striatal (Figure 37).

Le cas d'une forte activation des neurones dopaminergiques limitera un état favorable à l'apport énergétique alors qu'une faible activité limitera un état favorable aux dépenses énergétiques. En l'occurrence, sur la base de la littérature en lien avec le NAc, cette limitation dépendra d'une libération de dopamine qui induit une diminution/augmentation de l'excitabilité des D2-MSNs/D1-MSNs et atténuera par la même occasion le phénotype comportemental orienté vers la consommation de nourriture (Figure 37). Pour autant, il est important de considérer que le rôle des MSNs et de la dopamine n'est sensiblement pas le même dans les conditions précédant l'obtention d'un aliment, l'activité des D2-MSNs limitant alors l'effort déployé pour obtenir de la nourriture.

Néanmoins, ce modèle place l'ATV et les signaux dopaminergiques au centre du comportement de prise alimentaire. Cette structure permettrait alors d'évaluer l'intensité et l'intégralité des informations transmises par les deux circuits, cela dans le but de maintenir un certain équilibre entre les informations stimulant/limitant l'apport/dépense d'énergie. Dans le cas de la récurrence d'une ou plusieurs de ces informations (régime gras continu), lors d'une dérégulation d'un médiateur transmettant l'information au niveau cérébral (leptine/ghréline), ou lors d'un changement de l'activité cortico-striatale, l'équilibre fondamental du système dopaminergique et son rôle compensatoire pourraient alors être altérés, conduisant à un déséquilibre homéostasique. Cette hypothèse est en accord avec un nombre croissant d'études qui mettent en évidence l'implication du système mésolimbique dans les TCA. Néanmoins, ce modèle présente encore de nombreuses zones d'ombres.

Premièrement, à l'inverse du striatum, la littérature actuelle reste limitée quant à la présence d'un rétrocontrôle/modulation dopaminergique sur les noyaux hypothalamiques, susceptible de réguler la prise alimentaire. Sachant que les neurones POMC/NPY expriment les récepteurs dopaminergiques (Romanova *et al.*, 2018), pourrait-on imaginer que la dopamine au sein du NA puisse sélectivement augmenter l'excitabilité des neurones POMC et inhiber les neurones NPY ? De plus, la plupart des études évaluant le rôle de l'hypothalamus dans le comportement de

180

prise alimentaire - présentées dans l'introduction de cette thèse - s'intéressent presque exclusivement à une évaluation de la consommation spontanée chez l'animal, qui n'a finalement aucune autre alternative que de s'engager ou non dans le comportement ingestif, sa consommation dépendant alors majoritairement de son statut métabolique. Une évaluation de la prise alimentaire volontaire évoquée par l'animal dans un contexte particulier nécessitant un effort pour obtenir un aliment, reste rare concernant les études sur l'hypothalamus. Néanmoins, certaines d'entre elles ont pu relier les fonctions de l'hypothalamus aux processus de renforcement et de motivation notamment dans le cadre des drogue d'abus (Atasoy *et al.*, 2012; Petrovich, 2018). De la même manière que pour le striatum, l'on pourrait imaginer une opposition des effets de prise alimentaire en considérant les phases anticipatoire et consommatoire lors de l'activation des neurones connus pour être orexigènes et anorexigènes. Pourrait-il y avoir une anticipation de l'organisme vis-à-vis de signaux métaboliques périphériques ?

Finalement, tandis que le rôle de la signalisation dopaminergique au sein du NAc dans les différentes phases du comportement alimentaire a été largement étudié, l'implication des structures en amont du NAc, notamment les régions corticales dans le contrôle de la balance énergétique reste mal caractérisée.

# 2. La connectivité cortico-striatale et les pathologies associées aux troubles alimentaires

En conclusion, notre étude confirme un rôle majeur des MSNs dans les comportements associés à la prise alimentaire, tant pour les phases anticipatoires que consommatoire. Du fait de l'opposition fonctionnelle entre les deux sous populations de MSNs, le NAc agirait comme une pierre angulaire au sein du circuit non homéostatique de la prise alimentaire, capable de favoriser ou non la consommation d'un aliment, et serait d'une certaine manière, le reflet du NA, qui joue ce rôle au sein du circuit homéostatique. Néanmoins, la dernière interrogation qui subsiste quant à la validité de ce modèle, reste à savoir si les évidences neurobiologiques concernant les pathologies de la prise alimentaire s'accordent avec celui-ci. Sur la base de notre modèle, l'inhibition/activation chronique des D2-MSNs/D1-MSNs induit un phénotype comportemental qui s'apparente à l'AN, avec une dépense énergétique exacerbée, aux dépens de la prise alimentaire. En dehors de l'altération de l'activité striatale qui

reste encore à être mieux explorée, les études d'imagerie clinique s'accordent sur le fait que l'AN se caractérise par une hyperactivité de l'amygdale accompagnée d'une hypo-frontalité, autant lors de tâches impliquant des stimuli associés à la nourriture que celles en lien avec des stimuli associés à l'apparence physique (Fuglset et al., 2016; Scharner & Stengel, 2019). Une étude préclinique a quant à elle pu montrer que l'activité des projections du BLA sur le NAc est particulièrement forte durant un jeûne, l'activation pharmacogénétique de ces mêmes projections diminuant la prise alimentaire (Calhoon et al., 2018). A l'inverse, l'activation optogénétique de projections du PFC vers le NAc induit une prise alimentaire compulsive (Domingo-Rodriguez et al., 2020). Bien que peu d'études mettent en avant une connectivité ségrégée des afférences contactant les D1-MSNs ou D2-MSNs, une étude récente montre que les projections glutamatergiques du BLA vers le NAcC contacteraient principalement les D1-MSNs alors que les projections du PFC vers le NAcC contacteraient surtout les D2-MSNs (Deroche et al., 2020). Sur la base de ces observations, il serait envisageable que les altérations opposées de ces structures dans l'anorexie induisent une asymétrie dans l'activité des MSNs, associant une hyper-activation des D1-MSNs à une inhibition des D2-MSNs, qui serait alors responsable du déséquilibre comportemental de l'AN (Figure 38). D'autre part, bien qu'elle soit minoritaire, la mise en évidence de projections GABAergiques à longue portée allant des structures corticales jusqu'au noyau accumbens et leur implication dans le comportement de prise alimentaire méritent une attention particulière (Lee et al., 2014).



Figure 38: Schéma hypothétique impliquant une altération spécifique des afférences corticostriatales sur l'activité des **MSNs** dans l'anorexie nerveuse. Sur la base de la littérature ; il serait tentant proposer qu'une de modulation opposée de différentes structures en lien avec la cognition puisse converger vers le striatum déséquilibrant l'excitabilité des MSNs, provoquant le phénotype comportemental observé dans l'anorexie nerveuse.

Ce modèle reste très spéculatif puisque la connectivité d'autres structures avec les MSNs, telle que l'insula qui est largement dérégulée dans l'anorexie, reste faiblement étudiée. De plus, de nombreuses études visualisent des changements de l'activité des structures corticales aussi bien positive que négative dans la pathologie, remettant en doute l'éxistence d'un réseau dont l'organisation serait aussi simple. Néanmoins, au vu de l'étiologie de la pathologie impliquant majoritairement une origine environnementale et psycho-sociale, l'hypothèse d'une altération des afférences cortico-striatales, en particulier sur les D1-MSNs, comme principale cause de la pathologie semble particulièrement pertinente, tout du moins concernant les dimensions comportementales associers de la pathologie. La caractérisation des réseaux de differentes structures corticales avec les MSNs, voir même une ségrégation entre deux reseaux au sein d'une meme strucutre contactant d'une part les D1MSNs et d'autre par les D2MSNs reste critique dans la validation de ce modèle.

En revanche, l'activation/inhibition chronique des D2-MSNs/D1-MSNs induit un phénotype comportemental rappelant certaines dimensions caractéristiques de l'obésité et des troubles associés. Pourtant, l'idée d'une altération des afférences cortico-striatales comme cause de l'obésité présente certaines limites. La littérature clinique est contradictoire quant aux altérations des structures corticales qui peuvent être aussi bien positives que négatives dans l'obésité (Carnell et al., 2012; Kroll et al., 2020). De plus, bien que l'anorexie ait pu être associée à des altérations métaboliques, cette composante est souvent déreglée de manière prédominante dans l'obésité. On pourrait penser que l'occurrence d'altérations comportementales dans l'obésité dépendrait surtout de l'hypothalamus. Neanmoins, il est également important de garder à l'esprit qu'un dérèglement chronique du métabolisme altère également de nombreuses structures en lien avec la cognition. Ainsi, dans certain cas, ce serait cette récurrence des altérations qui serait responsable de la chronicisation vue dans l'anorexie et l'obésité. Sur la base de la connectivité entre l'hypothalamus et l'ATV susceptible de moduler l'activité des neurones dopaminergiques, il semble pertinent de proposer qu'un changement de l'activité de ces neurones puisse induire un déséquilibre de l'activité des MSNs en faveur des D2-MSNs, qui seraient alors responsables du maintien du phénotype comportemental présent dans l'obésité. Ceci est en accord avec l'observation - bien que controversée - d'une diminution de

l'accessibilité des récepteurs D2 dans le striatum chez des patients souffrant d'obésité morbide (Wang *et al.*, 2001; Frank *et al.*, 2005; Volkow *et al.*, 2008; Beeler *et al.*, 2016).

Il est bien entendu trop réducteur de prétendre que des pathologies telles que l'obésité ou l'anorexie se limitent à une dérégulation du réseau des MSNs du NAc étant donné la complexité d'étiologie des symptômes psychiatriques en particulier dans le cas de l'anorexie mentale. Cependant, dans le contexte d'une approche dimensionnelle, il devient pertinent de considérer qu'un tel phénotype neurobiologique pourrait être responsable d'une partie des dimensions symptomatiques, ici la balance entre la dépense et l'apport énergétique, balance qui est perturbée de façon opposée dans ces deux types de troubles alimentaires.

Finalement, il est intéressant de noter que la pandémie (crise sanitaire Covid 19), a conduit la population mondiale à se sédentariser à l'extrême (confinement). De plus, celle-ci s'accompagne de conditions particulières quant à l'accès à la nourriture pouvant favoriser la consommation de nourriture palatable, sans effort physique à toute heure de la journée (livraison à domicile). Quel sera l'ampleur de ce changement environnemental majeur sur l'occurrence des troubles alimentaires ? Quelques études ont pu commencer à décrypter ce phénomène (Deschasaux-Tanguy *et al.*, 2020; Jia *et al.*, 2020). Néanmoins, l'évaluation des caractéristiques des pathologies de l'alimentation suite au confinement pourrait nous éclairer quant à l'importance de la relation bidirectionnelle qui existe entre un comportement et des changements neurobiologiques, en particulier concernant l'activité physique, la prise alimentaire et la motivation associée à ces deux comportements.

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Articles annexes :

# Decrease in Operant Responding Under Obesogenic Diet Exposure is not Related to Deficits in Incentive or Hedonic Processes

Fabien Ducrocq<sup>1,2</sup>, Alexia Hyde<sup>1,2</sup>, Hortense Fanet<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Asma Oummadi<sup>1,2</sup>, Roman Walle<sup>1,2</sup>, Véronique De Smedt-Peyrusse<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Sophie Layé<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Guillaume Ferreira<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Pierre Trifilieff<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>, and Sylvie Vancassel D <sup>1,2,3\*</sup>

**Objective:** A growing body of evidence suggests that obesity could result from alterations in reward processing. In rodent models, chronic exposure to an obesogenic diet leads to blunted dopamine signaling and related incentive responding. This study aimed to determine which reward-related behavioral dimensions are actually impacted by obesogenic diet exposure.

**Methods:** Mice were chronically exposed to an obesogenic diet. Incentive and hedonic processes were tested through operant conditioning and licking microstructures, respectively. In parallel, mesolimbic dopamine transmission was assessed using microdialysis.

**Results:** Prolonged high-fat (HF) diet exposure led to blunted mesolimbic dopamine release, paralleled by a decrease in operant responding in all schedules tested. HF-fed and control animals similarly decreased their operant responding in an effort-based choice task, and HF-fed animals displayed an overall lower calorie intake in this task. Analysis of the licking microstructures during consumption of a freely accessible reward suggested a decrease in basal hunger and a potentiation of gastrointestinal inhibition in HF-fed animals, without changes in hedonic reactivity.

**Conclusions:** These results suggest that the decrease in operant responding under prolonged HF diet exposure is mainly driven by decrease in hunger as well as stronger postingestive negative feedback mechanisms, rather than by a decrease in incentive or hedonic responses.

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### Introduction

Exposure to highly palatable and caloric food has been largely implicated in the development of nonhomeostatic eating behaviors and obesity. Clinical and preclinical studies have suggested that the increased palatability and accessibility to obesogenic diet disrupt neural reward mechanisms, leading to nonhomeostatic increase in the drive to consume the food (1). This dysfunction in reward processing has been proposed to result from blunted mesolimbic dopamine (DA) transmission (2), which plays a central role in cost-benefit computation (3). Supporting this hypothesis, some studies in both human subjects (4) and rodent models (5,6) have shown that obesity is associated with alterations in some markers of mesolimbic DA signaling. This correlates with the preference of subjects with obesity for immediate food access versus a delayed, though larger, food reward (7) and the decreased performance in motivational tasks (motivation being defined as the amount of effort the animal is willing to expend to obtain a reward) (8) in rodents exposed to obesogenic diets (6,9-14).

However, the very nature of the alteration of mesolimbic DA transmission in subjects with obesity has been recently challenged, and data in animal models are inconsistent (15-22). Regarding behavioral alterations in rodents under an obesogenic diet, some studies have shown a reduction in the willingness to work for food reinforcers (9,10,12,14), while others have found an increase (23-25). Motivation in rodent models is largely tested through the willingness to exert effort for food reinforcers in operant tasks; however, it is not clear whether alterations in performance mainly reflect a change in incentive processes. Indeed, variations in operant responding can depend on many behavioral dimensions, such as modifications in hedonic responses, altered sensitivity to

<sup>1</sup> INRA, Nutrition and Integrative Neurobiology, UMR 1286, Bordeaux, France. Correspondence: Sylvie Vancassel (sylvie.vancassel@inra.fr) <sup>2</sup> Université de Bordeaux, France <sup>3</sup> OptiNutriBrain, International Associated Laboratory (NutriNeuro France-INAF Canada), Bordeaux, France.

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\*Pierre Trifilieff and Sylvie Vancassel share senior authorship.

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reward value, hunger, or appetitive response, some of which are sensitive to obesogenic diet exposure (12,13,26,27).

In the current study, we aimed at providing a thorough characterization of the behavioral alterations behind deficits in operant tasks induced by exposure to a high-fat (HF) diet. Food-motivated behavior and DA release in the ventral striatum were evaluated as neurobehavioral outcomes of diet-induced obesity in mice. In particular, we aimed at deciphering between motivational, hedonic, and consummatory alterations.

# Methods

### Animals

Seventy-three C57BL/6J male mice (Robert Janvier, Le Genest St-Isle, France) were used. Mice were housed in groups of five animals and were maintained in a temperature- and humidity-controlled facility under a 12:12 light-dark cycle (8:00 on), with *ad libitum* access to water and food. Animal care and experimental procedures were in accordance with the Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (INRA) Quality Reference System and with French (Directive 87/148, Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Pêche) and European (Directive 86/609/European Economic Community) legislations. They followed ethical protocols approved by the Region Aquitaine Veterinary Services (Direction Départementale de la Protection des Animaux; approval ID: B33-063-920) and by the animal ethics committee of Bordeaux (CE50).

Two different cohorts were used. The first one consisted of 13 control (Ctrl) and 18 HF-fed mice that were maintained *ad libitum* throughout operant training, including a first progressive-ratio (PR) task, and then were food deprived for 2 days before a second PR session. Half of these animals were used for the consumption test (*ad libitum*). All the animals of this first cohort were used for microdialysis (*ad libitum*). The second cohort (21 Ctrl and 21 HF) was maintained under food deprivation throughout operant training, the concurrent lever-pressing/ free-feeding task, and the licking microstructure analyses.

## HF diet exposure

Upon their arrival, 3-week-old mice were divided into two groups with similar average weight. The Ctrl mice had free access to standard rodent chow (8.4% fat, 72.4% carbohydrate, and 19.3% protein [percent kilocalories per kilogram] providing 2.9 kcal/g; A04; Safe, Augy, France) and the HF group to an enriched diet containing 45% fat (mainly saturated fat coming from lard), 35% carbohydrate (17.5% from sucrose), and 20% protein (percent kilocalories per kilogram) providing 4.7 kcal/g (D12451; Research Diets, New Brunswick, New Jersey). Mice were weighed weekly, and the behavioral tasks began after 13 weeks of diet exposure.

## **Behavioral procedures**

*Operant conditioning.* The operant chambers (Imétronic, Bordeaux, France) had internal dimensions of  $30 \times 40 \times 36$  cm and were located in a light- and sound-attenuating cabinet. Each operant chamber had two opaque panels at the right and left walls and two clear Plexiglas panels at the back and front walls and

was illuminated throughout all sessions with a house light located at the top of the chamber. The chambers were equipped with two retractable levers  $(2 \times 4 \times 1 \text{ cm})$ , only one of which was reinforced. Reinforced lever presses were indicated by a brief tone (65 dB; 3,000 Hz; 200 milliseconds) and a cue light, mounted 8.5 cm above the lever. A drinking trough was positioned 4 cm above the grid floor at an equal distance between the two levers. Milk was used as a reward (10% sweetened condensed milk in water [3.25 kcal/g]; 15-µL drops). The number of presses on both levers was recorded, as well as the number of licks in the trough.

One session (30 minutes or 1 hour) was run each day, 5 days per week.

In the Pavlovian training, all mice were maintained under food deprivation (85% of their *ad libitum* weight, for at least 3 days before the beginning of the experiment). During these sessions, the reward was delivered each minute, indicated by a tone and cue light.

In the fixed-ratio training, every press on the reinforced lever led to reward delivery, signaled by the cue light and tone, as long as the previous reward was retrieved. Presses on the inactive lever had no consequence. Most animals reached the threshold of 200 lever presses per session within four sessions. Three Ctrl and one HF animal did not reach this threshold and were removed from the analysis.

In the random-ratio (RR) paradigm, each lever press on the reinforced lever had a given probability to be reinforced: RR5 = 0.2, RR10 = 0.1, and RR20 = 0.05. Animals were trained in multiple RR sessions from RR5 to RR20 in a sequential manner.

In the PR×2 schedule, the number of lever presses required to earn a reward was doubled respective to the previous reward. Mice were tested multiple times in PR×2 intercalated with RR20 sessions.

The concurrent lever-pressing/free-feeding task was adapted from Salamone et al. (3). Briefly, animals had the choice between pressing the lever (RR5) to obtain the reward or consuming the diluted reward (5% condensed milk diluted in water) freely available in the operant chamber. Total lever presses were recorded and compared with lever presses made in the absence of freely available food during nonconcurrent RR5 sessions intercalated between each concurrent session.

*Licking microstructures.* A homemade lickometer was used consisting of a testing chamber (20 cm wide, 30 cm deep, and 15 cm tall) and a bottle containing the solution connected to a computer allowing the recording of the onset and offset of licks. Before testing, mice were first habituated to the chamber for 2 days with free access to water during a 30-minute session. On the testing day, water was replaced by 10% sweetened condensed milk, and mice were subjected to 30-minute sessions during which the numbers of licks, bursts, and licks per burst were recorded (a burst is defined by an interlick interval less than 0.25 seconds) (27).

Food consumption and preference. Food consumption was measured during the night cycle (12 hours), during which animals, single housed in a testing chamber ( $10 \times 30 \times 12$  cm), had the choice between their usual diet (A04 or HF diet) and the milk reward under *ad libitum* conditions.

Under isoflurane anesthesia (1.0 g/kg intraperitoneally, a CMA 11 probe (2-mm-long membranes; Phymep, Paris, France) was stereo-tactically implanted into the left ventral striatum to the following coordinates: anteroposterior+1.1, medial lateral+1.0 from bregma, and dorsal ventral-5.0 below dura. A microdialysis probe was perfused with Ringer's solution at 2.5  $\mu$ L/min (NaCl 142mM, KCl 3.9mM, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1.2mM, MgCl<sub>2</sub> 1mM, Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> 1.4mM, NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 0.3mM). Dialysates were collected at +4°C every 20minutes after a 60-minute washout period. The average concentration of DA in the first three dialysate samples was taken as baseline DA levels, followed by potassium chloride (KCl 100 mmol/L) addition to the perfusion buffer for 20 minutes. Three more samples were collected. Mice were euthanized and brains collected for further histological verification of the probe implantation.

DA contents of the dialysates were measured by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) coupled to electrochemical detection (Antec Leyden, The Netherlands), as previously described (28).

#### Statistical analyses

Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  SEM. All parameters were analysed using unpaired *t* test between Ctrl and HF groups or paired *t* test for comparisons within groups. One-sample *t* test was used when means were compared with a hypothetical value. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also used for two separated groups as between-subject factors as well as sessions, trials, or time as within-group factors, with Bonferroni post hoc test when suitable. Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 7 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California). Differences were considered significant when *P* < 0.05.

#### Obesity

# HF diet exposure alters mesolimbic DA transmission

We first aimed at determining whether, similarly to what has been previously shown (5,6), in our experimental conditions, exposure to an HF diet led to alteration in mesolimbic DA transmission. Basal and stimulated extracellular DA levels were measured in the ventral striatum using microdialysis (Figure 1). Basal DA levels were not significantly different between the two experimental groups (t[36] = 1.34; P = 0.186; Figure 1A). The 20-minute KCl perfusion induced a robust release of DA in both groups (time effect: F[6,174] = 81.34; P < 0.001; Figure 1B) that was significantly lower in HF mice compared with Ctrl (dietary group×sample: F[6,174] = 2.369, P < 0.05; post hoc test for sample 4: t[203] = 3.642; P < 0.01; Figure 1B). At the maximal effect, DA-stimulated levels reached a 3,185 ± 412% increase in HF mice versus 4,378 ± 594% in Ctrl animals. These results confirm the DA deficits previously reported in other obesity models (6,7).

# HF diet exposure blunts operant responding independently of ratio requirement

Even though both the HF and Ctrl groups augmented their lever pressing with increasing ratio requirement in both *ad libitum* and food-deprived conditions, HF animals displayed blunted operant responding in all ratios tested, as follows: for the *ad libitum* condition: ratio effect: F(3,102) = 27.32, P < 0.001; diet effect: F(1,34) = 9.06, P < 0.01; interaction: F(3,102) = 5.38, P < 0.01; and post hoc in RR10: t(136) = 3.41, P < 0.01 and RR20: t(136) = 3.974, P < 0.001 (Figure 2A); and for the food-deprived condition: ratio effect: F(3,120) = 165.3, P < 0.001; diet effect: F(1,40) = 31.62, P < 0.001; interaction: F(3,120) = 10.05, P < 0.001; and post hoc in RR10: t(160) = 5.192, P < 0.001 and RR20: t(160) = 6.734, P < 0.001 (Figure 2B).

# Results

At the end of the 13th week of HF diet exposure starting at weaning, mice from the HF-fed group displayed a significantly higher body weight compared with Ctrl animals (Ctrl: 26.7 g±0.2 and HF: 28.5 g±0.3; t[80] = 4.158; P < 0.0001).





**Figure 1 High-fat diet induced dopaminergic alterations.** Measure of (**A**) basal DA release and (**B**) KCIstimulated DA release by microdialysis and HPLC coupled to electrochemical detection (Ctrl: n = 13; HFD: n = 18). Data are means±SEM. \*\*Significantly different from Ctrl (ANOVA, P < 0.05). Ctrl, control group; HF, high-fat-diet group.



**Figure 2 High-fat diet consumption induced a decrease in lever pressing in random-ratio (RR) and progressive-ratio (PR) schedules.** Operant conditioning in (**A**,**C**,**E**,**G**) *ad libitum* or (**B**,**D**,**F**,**H**) food-deprived conditions (15% of initial weight). Lever presses during fixed-ratio (FR1) and RR tasks (panel A: Ctrl: n = 13; HF: n = 24; panel B: Ctrl: n = 21; HF: n = 21). PR times 2 (PR×2) task: levels are presented for cumulative lever presses during a PR×2 (panels C and D: Ctrl: n = 13; HF: n = 24) and for total lever presses during the 1-hour session (panels E and F: Ctrl: n = 13; HF: n = 24). Number of rewards earned during fixed-ratio (FR1) and RR schedules (panel G: Ctrl: n = 13; HF: n = 24; panel H: Ctrl: n = 21; HF: n = 21). Data are means ±SEM. \*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01, \*\*\*P < 0.001, significant differences between dietary groups (ANOVA). Ctrl: control group; HF: high-fat-diet group.

258

lever presses compared with Ctrl mice. The deleterious effect of an HF diet on operant responding was further confirmed by a concomitant reduction in the number of rewards earned in both *ad libitum* and food-deprived conditions throughout all the ratios tested, as follows: for the *ad libitum* condition: ratio effect: F[3,102] = 68.32, P < 0.001; diet effect: F[1,34] = 19.1, P < 0.001 (Figure 2G); and for the food-deprived condition: ratio effect: F(3,120) = 38.18, P < 0.001; diet effect: F(1,40) = 73.4, P < 0.001, interaction: F(3,120) = 0.35, P > 0.05 (Figure 2H). Interestingly, in the *ad libitum* condition, HF animals seemed to be less sensitive to the increased ratio requirement compared with Ctrl mice (diet × ratio interaction: F[3,102] = 10.58, P < 0.001; post hoc in fixed-ratio 1: t[136] = 6.47, P < 0.001; RR20: t[136] = 3.29, P < 0.01; RR10: t[136] = 3.31, P < 0.01; RR20: t[136] = 1.932, P = 0.22) (Figure 2G).

#### Decrease in operant responding in HF animals does not lead to increase in concurrent free food consumption in effort-based choice task

The lower operant responding in the HF group, even at the low ratio requirement, renders difficult any interpretation regarding the motivational component of operant responding assessed in the PR $\times$ 2 task. Therefore, we used another well-accepted operant task that evaluates motivational performance, i.e., the effort-based choice task, adapted from Salamone et al. (3). In this task, the operant response of the animal can be compared within subject in the presence, or not, of a freely accessible, though less preferred, reward (concurrent food; Figure 3A).

The presence of the concurrent food led to a decrease in lever pressing in both groups (diet effect: F[1,40] = 51.7, P < 0.001; task effect: F[1,40] = 74.22, P < 0.001; interaction: F[1,40] = 6.12, P < 0.05; post hoc test for Ctrl, concurrent vs. nonconcurrent task: t[40] = 7.84, P < 0.001 and post hoc test for HFD, concurrent vs. nonconcurrent task: t[40] = 4.34, P < 0.001) (Figure 3B), and the lower responding in HF animals was maintained in both the concurrent and nonconcurrent versions of the task (post hoc test for nonconcurrent task, Ctrl vs. HF: t[80] = 7.57, P < 0.001; post hoc test for concurrent task, Ctrl vs. HF: t[80] = 5.54, P < 0.001) (Figure 3B). Interestingly, the ratio of lever pressing between concurrent/nonconcurrent tasks revealed that both groups decreased their lever pressing in a similar manner when the concurrent food was present (t[40] = 0.32, P = 0.748) (Figure 3C). Moreover, there was no difference between groups in the consumption of the concurrent food (Ctrl: 2.11  $g \pm 0.24$  and HFD: 2.42  $g \pm 0.21$ ; t[40] = 0.9611, P = 0.3423 [data not shown]), leading, in the HF group, to lower calorie intake from the milk reward but a similar (though very limited) one through the concurrent food compared with Ctrl animals (diet effect: F[1,40] = 42.9, P < 0.001; reward/concurrent food effect: F[1,40] = 67.69, P < 0.001; interaction: F[1,40] = 21.87, P < 0.001; post hoc test for reward, Ctrl vs. HF: t[80] = 7.403, P < 0.001; post hoc test for Ctrl, reward vs. concurrent food: t[40] = 9.124, P < 0.001; post hoc test for HFD, reward vs. concurrent food: t[40] = 2.51, P < 0.05) (Figure 3D), which translated to an overall lower calorie intake (t[40] = 6.45, P < 0.001) (Figure 3E).

#### HF mice display decreased baseline hunger and increased postingestive negative feedback but no change in hedonic response to palatable reward

The decrease in operant responding even for the low ratio requirement, in addition to the lower overall calorie intake in the effort-based choice

task, led us to explore both the consummatory behavior as well as the hedonic reactivity of HF animals.

To do so, we analyzed the licking microstructures during the consumption of the freely accessible reward, which allows assessing several components of consummatory behavior, such as basal hunger, postingestive negative feedback, and palatability of the ingested tastant (27-30) (Figure 4A). The number of licks per burst (t[40] = 0.20; P = 0.842) (Figure 4F), burst duration (t[40] = 1.382; P = 0.175) (Figure 4G), interlick interval (t[40] = 0.944; P = 0.351) (Figure 4H), and lick frequency in bursts (t[40] = 0.234; P = 0.817) (Figure 4I) were identical in both groups, suggesting similar hedonic reactivity to the reward. However, the total consumption (t[40] = 4.50; P < 0.001) (Figure 4B), number of licks (t[40] = 4; P < 0.001) (Figure 4C), and number of bursts (t[40] = 3; P < 0.01) (Figure 4D) were decreased, and the latency to first lick was increased (t[38] = 3.195; P < 0.01) (Figure 4E) in HF animals, suggesting decreased baseline hunger and/or increased postingestive feedback mechanisms. Interestingly, the decrease in total number of licks (diet effect: F[1,40] = 19.77, P < 0.001; time effect: F[1,40] = 6.44, P < 0.05; interaction: F[1,40] = 2.67, P = 0.11) (Figure 4J) and bursts (diet effect: F[1,40] = 16.45, P < 0.001; time effect: F[1,40] = 5.96, P < 0.05; interaction: F[1,40] = 4.06, P = 0.051) (Figure 4K) in HFD-fed animals was already present during the first 10 minutes of the task, supporting a decrease in baseline hunger. However, whereas Ctrl animals displayed the same amount of licks (t[20] = 0.61;P = 0.61) (Figure 4J) and bursts (t[20] = 0.19; P = 0.85) (Figure 4K) over the first 10 minutes of the task (5-minute bins), HF animals displayed a significant decrease in the percentage of licks (t[20] = 3.12; P < 0.01) (Figure 4J) and bursts (t[20] = 4.65; P < 0.001) (Figure 4K), showing a faster decrease in this group compared with Ctrl (percent decrease in licks: t[40] = 2.03; P < 0.05; Figure 4J; percent decrease in bursts: t[40] = 2.39; P < 0.05; Figure 4K). These data suggest that, in addition to a decrease in baseline hunger, HF animals display enhanced postingestive feedback mechanisms.

This alteration of consummatory behavior in HF mice was confirmed by a significant reduction in the consumption of the freely accessible milk reward compared with Ctrl mice but a higher calorie intake from freely available regular HF chow when both the milk reward and the regular chows were freely accessible during a 12-hour free-access night cycle (consumption in kilocalories, diet effect: F[1,18] = 10.48, P < 0.01; milk reward/regular chow effect: F[1,18] = 13.61, P < 0.01; interaction: F[1,18] = 27.24, P < 0.001; post hoc test, Ctrl vs. HFD for milk reward: t[36] = 6.13, P < 0.001; post hoc test, Ctrl vs. HFD for regular chow: t[36] = 3.10, P < 0.01; post hoc test, milk reward vs. regular chow for Ctrl: t[18] = 5.32, P < 0.001) (Figure 4L). Nonetheless, HF animals displayed an overall decrease in calorie intake (t[18] = 3.24; P < 0.01) (Figure 4L).

# Discussion

In this study, we found that prolonged access to an HF diet induced a decrease in operant responding in both *ad libitum* and food-restricted conditions, paralleled with reduced stimulated release of DA in the nucleus accumbens. The behavioral deficit was not accompanied by an increase in consumption of a less palatable, though freely available, food in the lever-pressing/free-feeding choice task, leading to an overall lower calorie intake during this task in the HF group. Analysis of licking microstructures revealed that HF animals displayed blunted consummatory behavior with no alteration of the hedonic reaction to



Figure 3 High-fat diet consumption induced a decrease in lever pressing and in food consumption in a concurrent lever-pressing/free-feeding task. (A) Schematic representation of the concurrent lever-pressing/free-feeding task. (B) Results are presented for total lever presses in RR5 nonconcurrent task (one session) performed before the concurrent task and in one session of the RR5 concurrent task. Results for (C) concurrent/nonconcurrent ratio of lever pressing, (D) caloric intake for both rewards earned by lever pressing and freely available food, and (E) total caloric intake (Ctrl: n = 21; HF: n = 21). Data are means ±SEM. \*P < 0.05, \*\*\*P < 0.001, significantly different from Ctrl or between conditions in same dietary group (ANOVA). Ctrl: control group; HF: high-fat diet group.

the reward. Altogether, these data suggest that the decrease in operant responding that has been consistently described in obesogenicdiet-exposed animals could correspond to a combination of decreased baseline hunger and enhanced postingestive regulation of food intake rather than an alteration of reward processing such as incentive or hedonic processes. We showed that chronic exposure to an HF diet resulted in a deficit in operant responding during a motivational PR task, paralleled with altered mesolimbic DA transmission, as illustrated by reduced stimulated DA release in the nucleus accumbens. These observations confirm the validity of our model for blunting DA transmission. Considering the central role of mesolimbic DA in the modulation of incentive processes

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**Figure 4 High-fat diet consumption induced alterations in licking microstructures revealing altered postingestive negative feedback without change in hedonic response.** (A) Schematic representation of the mice licking microstructures. Measures of parameters linked to (**B-D**) postingestive negative feedback (consumption, number of licks, and number of bursts) and (**E-I**) palatability of the ingested tastant (delay to first lick, licks per burst, burst duration, interlick interval, and lick frequency in bursts) (Ctrl: n = 21; HF: n = 21). (**J**, **K**) Representation of the number of licks and number of bursts of the task (5-minute bins) (left graphs) and expressed as a percentage relative to the first 5 minutes (right graphs). (**L**) Caloric intake from regular chow (Ctrl diet for Ctrl mice and high-fat diet for HF mice) versus palatable reward during the 12-hour dark period (Ctrl: n = 6; HF: n = 14). Data are means  $\pm$  SEM. \*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01, \*\*\*P < 0.001, significantly different from Ctrl or between task conditions in same dietary group (ANOVA). Ctrl: control group; HF: high-fat-diet group.

(3,8,31), these data are in line with the idea that the deficit in operant responding could reflect a motivational deficit due to altered DA release in HF animals (6,32), as well as with the hypothesis that chronic consumption of palatable food could induce hyporesponsivity of the reward system (33). Numerous studies have reported a similar decrease in operant responding in motivational tasks in HF animals (6,9-14). However, we found that HF mice also displayed a decrease in operant responding for low ratio schedules for which the work requirement is limited. In addition, analyses of the number of rewards earned as a function of increasing ratio schedules revealed that HF animals were equally, if not less, sensitive to the increased ratio requirement than Ctrl animals, supporting the idea that blunted instrumental responding is not related to an alteration in effort capacity or of the incentive value of the reinforcer. In order to further investigate a potential motivational deficit in HF animals, we used the effort-based lever-pressing/free-feeding task, in which the animal faces the choice between exerting an effort to obtain the reward or consuming a less palatable, though freely accessible, food (3). In this task, which highly depends on mesolimbic DA

transmission (3,34,35), a higher consumption of the freely accessible food at the cost of lever pressing is interpreted as a deficit in effortrelated responding (3). We found that HF and Ctrl animals similarly decreased their responding in the effort-based choice task relative to the corresponding nonconcurrent task and consumed the same amount of the freely available food. However, their lower lever pressing resulted, overall, in a lower calorie intake. Altogether, these data go against the idea that deficits in instrumental responding in HF animals are related to blunting of incentive processes but rather suggest that they originate from alterations of consummatory components such as hedonic reaction, baseline hunger, or postingestive feedback mechanisms, as previously described (14,36,37).

To test this hypothesis, we analyzed the licking microstructures during the consumption of the freely accessible reward, which allows the measurement of parameters reflecting the palatability of the food as well as processes that regulate the organism's energy needs (hunger and postingestive gastrointestinal inhibition) (27). Our results showed that the
number of licks per burst, burst duration, interlick interval, and lick frequency in bursts were identical in both groups, suggesting similar hedonic reaction to the reward (27,29,38). However, the latency to first lick was increased, supporting that, even under deprivation, baseline hunger is blunted in HF animals. Moreover, the total consumption of the freely accessible reward, number of licks, and number of bursts were decreased in HF animals, suggesting a potentiation of gastrointestinal inhibition in response to reward consumption (27). In addition, the decrease in consumption was faster in HF animals, further supporting an enhancement of postingestive inhibition mechanisms.

Finally, we also showed that, in a situation of free access to HFD chow and the milk reward, HF animals consumed less of the latter food, despite a similar hedonic reactivity to Ctrl animals when the reward was presented alone (and overall fewer calories). These data are somewhat surprising considering that previous studies have established that HF diet exposure reduces the efficacy of satiation signals such as cholecystokynin (CCK) or leptin (39). We have previously shown that circulating leptin levels were strongly enhanced using the same model (40), suggesting the existence of leptin resistance. However, these results support the existence of a negative contrast effect, i.e., that chronic HF diet exposure may decrease the value of other food rewards when presented concomitantly (36). Therefore, rather than a lower consumption of HF animals in the free-access experiment, it is likely that the Ctrl group overconsumed because of the high palatability of the milk compared with their regular chow.

Further studies would be needed to determine whether other parameters such as the type of diet, longer exposure, or higher weight gain could influence our findings. Similarly, our behavioral tasks were all performed with a single palatable reward, which contained both sugar (22.4 kcal) and fat (7.2 kcal), similarly to the HF diet though in much lower contents. It remains to be determined whether our findings can be generalized to other kinds of food rewards, even though comparable data have been found with sucrose (36,41). Nonetheless, altogether, our data highlight the need for caution regarding the interpretation of behavioral data using food rewards in animals exposed to obesogenic diets and suggest that the decrease in operant responding could originate from altered baseline hunger and postingestive inhibition mechanisms rather than decreased motivation.

Even though our data do not support a perturbation of incentive processes induced by chronic HF diet exposure, the blunted DA release we observed could, in part, account for the alteration in postingestive feedback mechanisms. Indeed, DA has been described as a flavor-independent central sensor of calorie intake (42), and it was recently demonstrated that distinct DA circuits respectively modulated hedonic reactions and postingestive regulation (43). It should be noted that, in our model, basal DA was spared and only KCl-induced release was blunted in HF animals. This is in accordance with the observation that alterations of basal DA in obesogenic rodent models seem to occur in animals displaying high weight gain (16), which could directly result from lower physical activity in these animals, as recently demonstrated (22). Further studies will be needed to assess the nature of the link between the activity of mesolimbic DA transmission and the various components of consummatory behavior in HF animals.

Altogether, our results call for caution regarding the concept of blunted incentive processes in animal models of obesity. In human subjects suffering from eating disorders such as obesity, it is believed that it is the loss of control over the consumption of caloric food despite the negative consequences that could account for overeating, at least in a subset of individuals (44). Yet this notion of an alteration of cost-benefit computation is crucial for the understanding of the neurobiological bases of eating disorders and constitutes a cornerstone for the theory of food addiction and the implication of DA transmission in obesity (45).**O** 

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Invited review

# Modulation and functions of dopamine receptor heteromers in drugs of abuse-induced adaptations

Andry Andrianarivelo<sup>a,b,c</sup>, Estefani Saint-Jour<sup>a,b,c</sup>, Roman Walle<sup>d,e</sup>, Pierre Trifilieff<sup>d,e</sup>, Peter Vanhoutte<sup>a,b,c,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> INSERM, UMR-S 1130, Neuroscience Paris Seine, Institute of Biology Paris Seine, F-75005, Paris, France

<sup>b</sup> CNRS, UMR 8246, Neuroscience Paris Seine, F-75005, Paris, France

<sup>c</sup> Sorbonne Université, UPMC Université Paris 06, UM CR18, Neuroscience Paris Seine, F-75005, Paris, France

<sup>d</sup> Nutrition and Integrative Neurobiology, INRA UMR 1286, F-33076, Bordeaux, France

<sup>e</sup> University of Bordeaux, F-33076, Bordeaux, France

#### HIGHLIGHTS

- Many DAR heteromers have been identified but their biological significance is only emerging.
- Targeting DAR heteromers has a strong therapeutic potential the field of addiction.

• The selective inhibition of receptor heteromers is a major limitation to uncover their roles in vivo.

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#### ABSTRACT

Drug addiction is a chronic and relapsing disorder that leads to compulsive drug intake despite deleterious consequences. By increasing dopamine (DA) in the mesolimbic system, drugs of abuse hijack the brain reward circuitry, which is critical for the development of enduring behavioral alterations. DA mainly acts onto DA D1 (D1R) and D2 (D2R) receptor subtypes, which are positively and negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase, respectively. Extensive research has aimed at targeting these receptors for the treatment of addiction, however this often results in unwanted side-effects due to the implication of DA receptors in numerous physiological functions. A growing body of evidence indicates that the physical interaction of DA receptors with other receptors can finely tune their function, making DA receptor heteromers promising targets for more specific treatment strategies. An increasing number of articles highlighted the ability of both D1R and D2R to form heteromers, however, most studies carried out to date stem from observations in heterologous systems and the biological significance of DA receptor heteromers *in vivo* is only emerging. We focused this review on studies that were able to provide insights into functions on D1R and D2R heteromers *in vivo*.

This article is part of the Special Issue entitled 'Receptor heteromers and their allosteric receptor-receptor interactions'.

#### 1. Introduction

Drug addiction is a chronic and relapsing disorder that results from protracted drug consumption by vulnerable individuals, leading to compulsive drug intake despite deleterious consequences. Drug-evoked neuronal activity changes within the so-called brain reward circuit are fundamental for the instatement of the enduring behavioral alterations that are characteristic of addiction (Lüscher and Malenka, 2011). Such

\* Corresponding author. INSERM, UMR-S 1130, Neuroscience Paris Seine, Institute of Biology Paris Seine, F-75005, Paris, France. *E-mail address:* peter.vanhoutte@upmc.fr (P. Vanhoutte).

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*Abbreviations*: A2AR, adenosine A2A receptor; BRET, bioluminescence resonance energy transfer; CaMKII, Calcium Calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II; CTD, C-terminal domain; DA, dopamine; D1R, dopamine receptor type 1; D2R, dopamine receptor type 2; ERK1/2, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2; FRET, fluorescence resonance energy transfer; GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor; IL, intracellular loop; MSN, medium sized-spiny neurons; NAcc, nucleus accumbens; NMDAR, N-methyl-D-aspartate glutamate receptor; PET, positron emission tomography; PKC, protein kinase C; PLA, proximity ligation assay; PSD, post synaptic density; TM, transmembrane domain

#### Table 1

Modulation and functions of endogenous dopamine receptor heteromers in response to drugs of abuse in vivo.

Psychostimulant-Animal model	Dopamine receptor heteromer modulation	Impact on drug-evoked responses	References
Rat; acute cocaine (30mg/kg i.p)	D2R/GluN2B heteromers 30 min post-cocaine in the NAcc and dStr.	D2R/GluN2B disruption with Tat-D2R-IL3 (intravenous):	Liu et al. 2006
		<ul> <li>miniputor of cocane-induced decrease in phospho-Ser<sup>1303</sup> GluN2B.</li> </ul>	
Mouse: cocaine (15mg/kg i n) &	D1R/GluN1 10 min after a co-stimulation of D1R and	<ul> <li>Acute hyperlocomotion &amp; stereotypies</li> <li>D18 /GluN1 disruption with Tat-GluN1-C1 (infusion</li> </ul>	Cahill et al 2014b
striatal cultures	NMDAR	into the NAcc):	
		<ul> <li>Blockade of striatal LTP.</li> </ul>	
		<ul> <li>Inhibition of cocaine-induced ERK1/2 activation.</li> <li>Preservation of basel locamation &amp; cauto</li> </ul>	
		hyperlocomotor response to cocaine.	
		<ul> <li>Alteration of cocaine-mediated locomotor sensitization induced by 2 injections.</li> </ul>	
Rat;	D2R/A2AR heteromers 2 hours after the last self-	D2R/A2AR disruption with SynthTM5 (infusion in the	Borroto-Escuela et al.,
(0 5mg d/g per infusion i y)	administration session in the NAcc shell.	NAcc): • Prevents the decrease in self administration	2017a; 2018a
(0.5mg/ kg per infusion i.v)		induced by i.p. administration of CGS 21680.	
Rat;			Shen et al., 2015b
amphetamine sensitization		Subchronic D2R/D1R disruption with Tat-D1 (i.c.v.	
(1.5111g/kg 1.p)		Enhances locomotion	
		• Prevents the decrease in sensitization induced by s.c. administration of SKF83959.	
Rat;	Tat-D1 (i.c.v. injection) prevents the increase in D1R/ $$	D2R/D1R disruption with Tat-D1 (i.c.v. injection):	Perreault et al., 2016;
cocaine locomotor sensitization (10mg/kg i.p);	D2R co-immunoprecipitation induced by SKFss83959	• Enhances the acute locomotor effect of cocaine as well as sensitization.	Hasbi et al., 2018
conditioned place preference (10		Induces conditioned place-preference	
mg/kg 1.p)		<ul> <li>Enhances conditioned-place preference induced by cocaine administration</li> </ul>	
(0.25 mg/infusion i.v)		<ul> <li>Enhances reinstatement of self-administration</li> </ul>	
		response after extinction by a single cocaine injection.	
		<ul> <li>Enhances delatFosB expression after repeated (7 days) injection.</li> </ul>	
		• Prevents the conditioned place aversion induced	
		by administration of SKF83959	
		<ul> <li>Reverses the antagonistic effect of SKF83959 on cocaine conditioned place preference</li> </ul>	

modulations of synaptic efficacy are translated into specific patterns of signaling pathway activation and gene expression driving a long-lasting remodeling of neural circuits, likely involved in the transition from casual to compulsive drug intake and addiction (Nestler, 2001, 2014).

Despite their distinct targets, all drugs of abuse hijack the natural reward system by increasing dopamine (DA) concentration in the mesolimbic system, especially in the striatum (Di Chiara and Imperato, 1988), resulting in alterations in glutamate transmission-dependent plasticity (Lüscher and Malenka, 2011). The striatum is considered a key target structure of drugs of abuse within the reward circuit because it is at the crossroad of converging glutamate signals arising from limbic, thalamic and cortical regions, which encode components of drug-associated stimuli and environment, along with DA transmission that mediates reward prediction error and incentive values.

This integration of DA and glutamate inputs is mainly accomplished by the Medium-sized Spiny GABAergic Neurons (MSN), which receive glutamate axon terminals and DA afferences converging on MSN dendritic spines (Moss and Bolam, 2008; Doig et al., 2010). MSN form primarily two segregated populations based on the expression of either DA D1 (D1R) or DA D2 (D2R) receptors, which are G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR) positively and negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase though their respective coupling to  $G_{s/olf}$  and  $G_{i/o}$  subtypes (Felder et al., 1991; Corvol et al., 2001), although a fraction of MSN in the ventral striatum (i.e. nucleus accumbens; NAcc) express both receptors (Bertran-Gonzalez et al., 2008).

These two sub-populations of MSN also display distinct projections within the cortico-basal ganglia network with the D1R-MSN and D2R-MSN forming the direct pathway (dMSN) and the indirect pathway (iMSN), respectively. In the dorsal part of the striatum, dMSN and iMSN exert opposite functions regarding the control of motor behavior. Optogenetic stimulations of dorsal dMSN and iMSN has been shown to promote and inhibit locomotion, respectively (Kravitz et al., 2010).

Within the NAcc, this functional dichotomy also applies to rewarddependent learning since the activation of the direct pathway neurons promotes reward whereas the stimulation of indirect pathway neurons is associated with punishment (Hikida et al., 2010; Lobo et al., 2010; Kravitz et al., 2012).

The surge of DA induced by drugs of abuse thus triggers a stimulation of D1R that activates dMSN and promotes reiforcement, whereas the D2R-mediated inhibition iMSN opposes to aversion, explaining why a high rewarding value of a stimuli is set when both D1R and D2R are stimulated. Based on these observations, it has been proposed that the imbalance between the activity of dMSN and iMSN evoked by drugs of abuse may drive towards compulsive drug intake and addiction (Lobo and Nestler, 2011; Volkow and Morales, 2015).

We and others have started to identify the underlying cellular and molecular mechanisms (Girault et al., 2007; Cahill et al., 2014a; Pascoli et al., 2014a). We found that a single cocaine administration triggers a D1R-mediated facilitation of N-methyl-D-aspartate glutamate receptors (NMDAR) that activates in dMSN the extracellular signal-regulated kinase1/2 (ERK1/2), which controls epigenetic and genic responses that are mandatory for the development of long-term behavioral alterations (Pascoli et al., 2011a, 2014a,b).

Although the implication of DA and glutamate signaling crosstalk in drug-evoked neuronal adaptations is well acknowledged, targeting the cognate receptors to alleviate symptoms is associated with a loss of efficacy over time and the appearance of severe sides effects, likely due to the involvement of these receptors in fundamental physiological functions (Wang et al., 2012; Cahill et al., 2014a). Instead, a selective targeting of the molecular mechanisms responsible for the modulation of excitatory transmission by DA appears as a promising strategy.

Beside local intracellular cascades downstream from DA receptors, a growing body of evidence supports that the physical interaction between receptors is a powerful mechanism by which receptors can mutually modify their functions through allosteric modulations. The formation of such receptor oligomers can engage two, or more, identical (homomers) or distinct (heteromers) receptors. These receptor complexes have been the subject of intense investigation because they can fine-tune downstream signaling and binding affinity of the component receptors in a spatio-temporal manner, which makes them attractive for the development of more selective pharmacological treatments for numerous neurological and psychiatric diseases (Missale et al., 2006, 2013; Borroto-Escuela et al., 2017a, 2017b). DA receptors have been shown - mostly in heterologous systems - to form many heteromers with other GPCR, ionotropic channels and transmembrane proteins, resulting in functional changes of partner receptors, modification of binding affinity for ligands and biased signaling. The diversity and biophysical properties of DA receptor heteromers have been exhaustively reviewed elsewhere (Wang et al., 2012; Ferré et al., 2016). Moreover, numerous studies showed the critical role of the physical interaction between DA receptors and NMDAR for their reciprocal modulation (Lee et al., 2002; Pei et al., 2004; Cepeda and Levine, 2006; Wang et al., 2012; Ladepeche et al., 2013), which makes them particularly relevant for drug addiction.

The current review focuses on reports that were able to provide proof of concept that endogenous DA receptor heteromers in the brain can be modulated in response to exposure to drugs of abuse and eventually participate to drug-evoked neuronal adaptations (Table 1). For each DA receptor heteromer, we start from its historical discovery in heterologous systems, the identification of the protein-protein interaction domains and associated changes in signaling, to finally discuss their modulation *in vivo* and the strategies used to establish their potential roles in drug-evoked adaptations.

#### 2. D2R heteromers and addiction

Notably because alterations of D2R-mediated signaling have been associated with numerous pathologies, there has been extensive work to identify putative heteromers formed by the D2R. Most of them were characterized in heterologous systems by bioluminescence or fluorescence resonance transfer (BRET/FRET) analyses, co-immunoprecipitation, or indirectly through modulation of ligand binding affinity and signaling effectors. These studies led to the identification of numerous and diverse receptors that are able to form complexes with the D2R and alter downstream signaling through allosteric modulations, as extensively reviewed (see Fuxe et al., 2014; Borroto-Escuela and Fuxe, 2017). Herein, we focus on D2R heteromers for which a functional impact has been characterized *in vivo*.

#### 2.1. D2R/A2AR heteromers

The purinergic system plays an antagonistic role onto DA transmission, an effect mainly achieved through the adenosine A2A receptor (A2AR), which expression is restricted to iMSN (Schiffman et al., 2007) where it is highly colocalized with the D2R. As suggested by proximityligation assay (PLA) on striatal tissue, a subset of A2AR and D2R are in close proximity, which supports the existence of A2AR/D2R heteromers *in vivo* (Trifilieff et al., 2011; Fernandez-Duenas et al., 2015; He et al., 2016; Borroto-Escuela et al., 2017a, 2018a).

Historically, the work on interactions between striatal adenosine and dopamine signaling began with the original observation that caffeine and theophyllamine, which antagonize adenosine receptors, were able to enhance the antiparkinson actions of levodopa and DAR agonists in a model of hemiparkinson rats (Fuxe and Ungerstedt, 1974). Later on, the first indirect evidence for the existence of D2R/A2AR heteromers came from the observation that the A2AR agonist CGS 21680 was able to decrease D2R affinity for the agonist apomorphine in native membranes prepared from the rat striatum, suggesting allosteric modulations within D2R/A2AR complexes (Ferré et al., 1991). Since this discovery, extensive work, mainly by Ferré's and Fuxe's groups, characterized the biophysical and pharmacological properties of D2R/ A2AR heteromers, which have become a model study of allosteric modulation between GPCR (Ferré et al., 2018; Borroto-Escuela et al., 2018a). The extensive description of the biophysical properties of D2R/ A2AR heteromers is out of the scope of the current article but remarkable recent reviews can be recommended (Ferré et al., 2016, 2018). A current model developed by Ferré and collaborators propose that A2AR/A2AR and D2R/D2R homodimers, coupled to their respective G protein –  $G_{s/olf}$  and  $G_{i/o}$ , constitute an heterotetrameric structure forming a macromolecular complex with type 5 adenylate cyclase (AC5) (Navarro et al., 2018; Ferré et al., 2018). Electrostatic interactions between transmembrane domains (TM) 6 form the homodimer interface, while heteromeric interactions involve TM 4 and 5 of one receptor within each homodimer (see Navarro et al., 2018). D2R/ A2AR heteromerization results in negative allosteric interactions by which A2AR ligands - agonists and antagonists - decrease the affinity and efficacy of D2R ligands (Azdad et al., 2009; Bonaventura et al., 2015) and, reciprocally, D2R agonists inhibit A2AR-dependent activation of AC5 (Navarro et al., 2018). In terms of signaling, this antagonistic interaction would result in a switch from cyclic AMP- to PLCand arrestin-dependent pathways, whether stimulation of A2AR or D2R, respectively, is dominant (Borroto-Escuela et al., 2011; see Ferré et al., 2018 for review).

These unique properties of D2R/A2AR heteromers have opened new routes for pharmacological strategies for pathologies related to alterations in DA transmission. For instance, even though the direct dependence to D2R/A2AR heteromers has not been demonstrated, preclinical evidence support some efficacy of A2AR antagonists to alleviate symptoms in Parkinson's disease (Salamone et al., 2013; Podurgiel et al., 2016) or apathy - i.e. loss of motivation (Mott et al., 2009; Salamone et al., 2009; Pardo et al., 2012; Nunes et al., 2013; Randall et al., 2014; Lopez-Cruz et al., 2018). Recently, Volkow and colleagues showed that the psychostimulant caffeine, a potent A2AR antagonist, enhances D2R availability in healthy control subjects measure by Positron Emission Tomography (PET) (Volkow et al., 2015). It is unclear whether this effect results from upregulation of membrane expression of D2R or change in their binding affinity for the radioligand (<sup>11</sup>C)-Raclopride, but Ferré and colleagues proposed that it could directly result from the "ability of caffeine to antagonize the effect of endogenous adenosine on the binding of exogenous D2R antagonist" (Ferré et al., 2018). This hypothesis remains to be tested but these observations highlight the potential interest of D2R/A2AR heteromerization in the modulation of D2R activity and binding affinity. Yet, a decrease in striatal D2R availability in subjects suffering from drug addiction is one of the most consistent findings in PET imaging (Koob and Volkow, 2016; Trifilieff et al., 2017). The causes for such decrease are still unclear and could be both a consequence of drug exposure and/ or a vulnerability factor for drug abuse. Nevertheless, this neurobiological feature is likely to constitute a central mechanism for the development of addiction (Trifilieff and Martinez, 2014). Because the use of selective D2R ligands would impact crucial physiological functions and lead to severe unwanted side-effects, compounds that could act as allosteric modulators of D2R activity are a promising strategy in the field of addiction. In this context, D2R/A2AR heteromerization should be considered as a potential target.

Accordingly, preclinical data suggest that D2R/A2AR heteromerization could be involved in some aspects of addiction for psychostimulants. Extended cocaine self-administration resulted in an increased binding for ( $^{3}$ H)-ZM 241385 – an A2AR antagonist – in the NAcc of rats, which was reversed after extinction or withdrawal



Fig. 1. Formation, regulation and functions of heteromers formed dopamine and NMDA receptors in response to drugs of abuse. (a) Diagram depicting the formation of D2R/GluN2B-NMDAR heteromers through the interaction of a fragment of the D2R-IL3 with the CTD of GluN2B. (b) Mode of action of the cell-permeable Tat-D2R-IL3 peptide, which disrupt D2R/GluN2B interaction. (c) A single cocaine administration favors D2R/GluN2B heteromerization in the striatum. Consequently, the binding of CaMKII to GluN2B is altered, which decreases GluN2B phosphorylation of Ser<sup>1303</sup> and inhibits NMDAR functions in D2R-MSN (see Liu et al., 2006). (d) In D1R-MSN, stimulation of D1R triggers a D1R-dependent, and Fyn-mediated, phosphorylation of GluN2B on Tyr<sup>1472</sup>, which triggers a downstream Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent activation of ERK1/

2 controlling cocaine-induced long-term adaptations (see Pascoli et al., 2011a, 2014a). Schematic representation of D1R/GluN1 (e) and D1R/Glu2A (f) heteromerization. (g) The disruption of D1R/GluN1 heteromers with the Tat-GluN1-C1 blocks the facilitation of Glu2NB-NMDAR by D1R and downstream ERK activation and striatal LTP in dMSN, while preserving the function of individual D1R and NMDAR (see Cahill et al., 2014b).

(Marcellino et al., 2007; Frankowska et al., 2013). Moreover, cocaine self-administration increases D2R/A2AR complexes in the shell of the NAcc (Borroto-Escuela et al., 2017a). The functional significance of this increased D2R/A2AR heteromerization was assessed with an interfering peptide corresponding to the TM5 of A2AR, which prevents D2R/A2AR interaction in heterologous system. Local administration of this peptide in the NAcc of rats the last 2 days of cocaine self-administration prevented the decrease in self-administration induced by injection of the A2AR agonist CGS 21680. Specificity of the TM5 interfering peptide was verified by showing that administration of a peptide corresponding to the TM2 of A2AR, which preserves D2R/A2AR interaction, had no effect (Borroto-Escuela et al., 2018b). Further work is necessary to characterize the impact of alterations of D2R/A2AR heteromers on psychostimulants self-administration. However, the fact that this allosteric interaction results in an inhibition of D2R-dependent transmission suggests that preventing the formation of D2R/A2AR heteromers could be an efficient strategy to modulate D2R activity, which is blunted in substance use disorders.

Of note, the D2R/A2AR interaction could also take place within higher-order oligomers. As an example, complexes with metabotropic glutamate type 5 receptors (mGluR5) have been detected by co-immunoprecipitation from striatal tissue (Cabello et al., 2009). Pharmacological experiments suggest that, within this receptor complex, A2AR and mGluR receptors could act synergistically to inhibit D2R (Beggiato et al., 2016). The D2R has also been shown to form higher-order heteromers with the sigma-1 receptor, which is able to directly bind cocaine (Navarro et al., 2013; Beggiato et al., 2017). These complexes have been detected in the striatum (Beggiato et al., 2017) but their functional implication in cocaine-induced adaptations remain to be demonstrated.

#### 2.2. D2R/GluN2B heteromers

The integration of DA- and glutamate-dependent signaling within the reward circuitry plays functional roles in drugs of abuse-evoked long-lasting alterations (Lüscher and Malenka, 2011; Pascoli et al., 2014a; Bellone and Gardoni, 2015). In addition to mGluR, glutamate binds to ionotropic receptors of the  $\alpha$ -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4isoxazole propionic acid (AMPAR), kainate and NMDA subtypes, which mediate most of the excitatory neurotransmission in the brain and play key roles in synaptic plasticity (Traynelis et al., 2010).

NMDAR are voltage-gated calcium (Ca<sup>2+</sup>) channels playing pivotal roles in modulating synaptic transmission. Alterations of their functions

have been associated with numerous developmental, neurological and psychiatric disorders, including addiction (Lau and Zukin, 2007). NMDAR are heteromeric structures composed of two obligatory GluN1 subunits (formerly named NR1) and two regulatory GluN2 (GluN2A, GluN2B, GluN2C, GluN2D) and/or GluN3 subunits (GluN3A, GluN3B). Depending on the subunit composition, NMDAR fall into two main categories, the di-heteromeric (GluN1 with identical GluN2) or the triheteromeric ones, composed of GluN1 associated to a mixture of GluN2 and/or GluN3 subunits. Most differences between these subunits mainly reside in their intracellular C-terminal domains (CTD), which are subjected to post-translational modifications controlling NMDAR trafficking, protein interactions, Ca<sup>2+</sup> dynamics and coupling to specific pathways (Paoletti et al., 2013). Among other post-translational modifications, Ca<sup>2+</sup>/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII) (Omkumar et al., 1996) and protein kinase C (PKC) (Liao et al., 2001) can phosphorylate the GluN2B CTD on Ser<sup>1303</sup>, which enhances NMDA currents (Lieberman and Mody, 1994; Liao et al., 2001), notably by favoring NMDAR surface expression (Jin et al., 2015).

In an attempt to identify the molecular mechanisms underlying the integration of DA and NMDA-mediated signals in response to drugs of abuse. Liu and coworkers highlighted a direct physical interaction between D2R and GluN2B subunits in post synaptic density (PSD) fractions of the rat hippocampus, prefrontal cortex and striatum (Liu et al., 2006). They observed that a single cocaine injection triggers an increased D2R/GluN2B heteromerization in the NAcc and dorsal striatum, paralleled by a decrease of phospho-GluN2B-Ser $^{1303}$ . This was strictly dependent on D2R signaling since the D2R antagonist Eticlopride blocked both cocaine-mediated inhibition of phospho-GluN2B-Ser<sup>1303</sup> and D2R/GluN2B interaction, while a D2R agonist had opposite effects. The protein domains involved in D2R/GluN2B interaction were then characterized and the residues R<sup>220</sup>-A<sup>234</sup> within third intracellular loop of D2R (D2R-IL3) appeared as critical for the binding of D2R to the CTD of GluN2B (Fig. 1a). By using a penetrating peptide corresponding this R<sup>220</sup>-A<sup>234</sup> -D2R-IL3 fragment, which disrupts D2R/GluN2B heteromers (Fig. 1b), it was shown that the cocaine-induced stimulation of D2R facilitates the D2R/GluN2B interaction, leading to a decrease of NMDAR currents in iMSN. This inhibition of NMDAR relies on a competition mechanism whereby D2R/GluN2B heteromers induced by cocaine disrupt the binding of CaMKII to GluN2B and reduces CaMKII activity (Fig. 1c). At the behavioral level, disruption of D2R/GluN2B interaction inhibits the acute hyperlocomotion and stereotypies induced by a single high dose of cocaine (Liu et al., 2006). This pioneer study strongly supports the hypothesis that D2R/GluN2B heteromers

could mediate the inhibitory effects of psychostimulants on iMSNs. However, it raises several important questions that we are currently pursuing. With regard to the chronic nature of addiction-related disorders, it would be important to determine how D2R/GluN2B heteromers are modulated in response to repeated exposure cocaine and if disrupting D2R/GluN2B interaction could overcome cocaine-evoked long-lasting responses. Furthermore, the R<sup>220</sup>-A<sup>234</sup> -D2R-IL3 peptide used to alter D2R/GluN2B interaction comprises a part of the Argininerich domain of D2R that is critical for its binding to A2AR (Ciruela et al., 2004; see section 2.1). Using a shorter D2R-IL3 peptide that selectively alters D2R/GluN2B interaction would definitely precise the specific role of D2R/GluN2B in long-term effects of drugs of abuse. This is particularly relevant in light of recent evidence showing that D2Rmediated inhibition of NMDAR also involves D2R/A2AR interaction (Azdad et al., 2009).

#### 2.3. D1R/D2R heteromers

Another DA receptor heteromer that has been extensively studied, mostly by the group of Susan R. George, is the one formed by the D1R and D2R. Co-expression of both receptors in the striatum has been reported mostly in the shell of the NAcc (Deng et al., 2006; Hasbi et al., 2009; Perreault et al., 2010; Gangarossa et al., 2013; Frederick et al., 2015; Gagnon et al., 2017) and D1R/D2R complexes were detected by PLA in situ in the striatum of rodents and non-human primates (Perreault et al., 2016; Rico et al., 2017; Hasbi et al., 2018), even though there has been some controversy since the work form Frederick and co-workers showed D1R/D2R complexes were not detectable by using the same approach in vivo in mice within the fraction of MSN expressing both D1R and D2R receptors (Frederick et al., 2015). In heterologous systems, the formation of D1R/D2R complexes could lead to atypical signaling: instead of the canonical G<sub>s/olf</sub> and G<sub>i/o</sub> proteins, D1R/D2R heteromers would be able to recruit  $G_q$  protein, leading to PLC-mediated intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> release (Perreault et al., 2014). It was argued that the D1R ligand SKF83959 preferentially recruits D1R/D2R heteromer-dependent Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling, due to alterations of the D1R binding pocket when in the heteromeric complex, supporting the idea of an allosteric modulation within the D1R/D2R heteromers (Hasbi et al., 2009, 2010; Verma et al., 2010; Perreault et al., 2014).

To target D1R/D2R heteromers, Hasbi et al. (2014) designed and interfering peptide, based on putative interaction sites between both receptors involving 2 adjacent Arginine in the D2R-IL3 and 2 adjacent Glutamic acid of the D1R CTD (O'Dowd et al., 2012). This "Tat-D1" peptide, corresponding to amino acid 396–413 of the D1R CTD, was shown to perturb i) D1R/D2R – but not D2R-D5R - interaction, ii) SKF83959-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients *in vitro* and iii) co-immunoprecipitation from membrane extracts, while a scrambled peptide had no effect (Hasbi et al., 2014).

In the context of addiction, the Tat-D1 peptide was shown to reverse the SKF83959-induced inhibition of amphetamine sensitization (Shen et al., 2015a). The same group showed that the Tat-D1 peptide alone enhanced cocaine-induced locomotor sensitization and place-preference, as well as the reinstatement after self-administration (Perreault et al., 2016; Hasbi et al., 2018). It should be noted that the Tat-D1 peptide displayed, by itself, pro-locomotor effects (Shen et al., 2015a) and induced place-preference (Perreault et al., 2016; Hasbi et al., 2018). Importantly, the Tat-D1 peptide used to disrupt D1R/D2R interaction strongly overlaps with the so-called "Tat-D1R-t2 peptide" originally designed to block D1R/NMDAR heteromers (Nai et al., 2010; Ladepeche et al., 2013; see section 3.1). Furthermore, the Tat-D1R-t2 was shown to induce, by itself, ERK activation (Cahill et al., 2014b) and to potentiate glutamatergic synapses (Ladepeche et al., 2013), suggesting that this peptide could mimic D1R/NMDA interaction (see section 3.1), which could explain the pro-rewarding effect of the Tat-D1 peptide used by the George's group. The specificity of the Tat-D1 peptide in selectively impairing D1R/D2R interaction has therefore to be further validated. Moreover, most of the *in vivo* effects of the Tat-D1 peptide were assessed through its ability to abolish/attenuate the behavioral impact of SKF83959 (Hasbi et al., 2014, 2018; Shen et al., 2015a,b). Yet, the properties of SKF83959 as a preferential ligand for D1R/D2R heteromers capable of recruiting  $G_q$ -dependent mechanisms has been recently challenged (Chun et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2014a,b; Frederick et al., 2015). Further work is needed to unravel the unique properties of this atypical subpopulation of MSN co-expressing both D1R and D2R and their potential regulation by putative D1R/D2R heteromers.

#### 3. D1R heteromers and addiction

#### 3.1. D1R/NMDA heteromers

As opposed to the inhibitory role of D2R on NMDAR currents (see section 2.3), there is a general consensus toward a facilitating effect of D1R stimulation on NMDAR functions (Flores-Hernandez et al., 2002; Wittmann et al., 2005; but see Lee et al., 2002). This positive feedback is bi-directional since NMDAR stimulation also favors D1R surface expression and downstream cAMP production (Pei et al., 2004). The mechanisms underlying the interplay between D1R and NMDAR signals have been intensely investigated, notably because targeting these processes offers the prospect of restoring the imbalance in D1R and NMDAR functions described in numerous psychiatric diseases (Cepeda and Levine, 2006; Missale et al., 2006; Yao et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2012).

The synergy between D1R and NMDAR plays functional roles in drug of abuse-mediated responses. We observed that psychostimulantmediated striatal activation of ERK1/2, which controls long-term neuronal adaptations, relied on a concomitant stimulation of D1R and NMDAR (Valjent et al., 2000, 2005; Pascoli et al., 2011a). This convergence of DA and glutamate signals onto ERK1/2 involves a D1Rmediated phosphorylation of GluN2B-containing NMDAR on Tyr<sup>1472</sup> via the tyrosine kinase Fyn, which triggers a Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent activation of ERK1/2 that launches cocaine-induced epigenetic, genic, morphological and behavioral changes (Fig. 1d; Pascoli et al., 2011a). In addition to signaling cascades linking D1R stimulation to a facilitation of GluN2B-NMDAR, the potential role D1R/NMDAR heteromers in drug of abuse-evoked plasticity is only emerging.

The seminal work of Fang Liu and colleagues led to the identification of a direct binding of D1R, but not D5R, to the GluN1 and GluN2A subunits of NMDAR in cultured cells overexpressing the receptors, and hippocampal tissues (Lee et al., 2002; Pei et al., 2004). These D1R/ GluN1 complexes were also detected in the mouse striatum (Cahill et al., 2014b), including in PSD fractions (Fiorentini et al., 2003), as well as in human post-mortem caudate putamen tissues (AA, ESJ, RW, PT, PV unpublished observations). In vitro assays showed that the D1Rt2 ( $L^{387}$ -  $L^{416}$ ) and D1R-t3 ( $S^{417}$ -T<sup>446</sup>) domains of D1R CTD bind to the CTD of GluN1 and GluN2 subunits, respectively (Fig. 1e-f; Lee et al., 2002). The D1R-t2 domain binds to the C1 cassette of GluN1 (GluN1-C1; D<sup>864</sup>- T<sup>900</sup>; Lee et al., 2002; Fiorentini et al., 2003; Pei et al., 2004), which comprises multiple PKA and PKC phosphorylation sites (Tingley et al., 1997; Wang et al., 2014) and controls NMDAR trafficking (Ehlers et al., 1995; Scott et al., 2003). Pull-down assays coupled to mass spectrometry established that electrostatic interactions between the Arginine-rich epitope localized in GluN1-C1 and the acidic residues in the D1R-t2 region mediate D1R/GluN1 interaction (Woods et al., 2005). These findings highlight the importance of epitope-epitope electrostatic interactions for both D1R/NMDA and D2R/A2AR (see section 2.1), suggesting that they might represent a general mechanism for receptor heteromerization. Of note, the D1R-t2 and GluN1-C1 amino acid sequences are conserved across species, supporting the hypothesis that D1R/NMDAR heteromers might be involved in physiological functions that have been preserved through evolution (Woods et al., 2005).

Studies on the modulation of D1R/GluN1 interaction by receptor agonists or antagonists led to controversial findings, with authors reporting a D1R agonist-dependent decrease of endogenous D1R/GluN1 heteromers in cultured hippocampal neurons (Lee et al., 2002), whereas BRET experiments performed on cell lines overexpressing the receptors showed no effect of D1R or NMDAR agonists and antagonists (Fiorentini et al., 2003).

To study whether cocaine could modulate endogenous D1R/GluN1 heteromerization, we first used cultured striatal neurons co-stimulated with a D1R agonist together with a low dose of glutamate, a model that we validated as instrumental to study cocaine-evoked signaling in vivo (Pascoli et al., 2011a; Cahill et al., 2014b). Notably, this co-stimulation paradigm, which induces a D1R-mediated facilitation of NMDAR as observed in vivo in response to cocaine, led to a significant increase of D1R/GluN1 heteromers (Cahill et al., 2014b). Their potential role in the convergence of D1R and NMDAR signals onto ERK1/2 activity was assessed with a cell-penetrating peptide corresponding to the C1 cassette of GluN1 (TAT-GluN1-C1; Fig. 1g). This peptide efficiently disrupted D1R/GluN1 heteromerization induced by the co-stimulation, as well as the D1R-mediated potentiation of Ca2+ transients through GluN2B-NMDAR and downstream ERK activation. Importantly, the TAT-GluN-C1 peptide was able to block the D1R/NMDAR-dependent signaling, while preserving the functions of individual D1R and NMDAR (Cahill et al., 2014b). The inhibition of D1R/GluN2A interaction with a TAT-D1R-t3 peptide had no effect on ERK1/2 activation downstream of D1R and NMDAR. These observations posit D1R/GluN1 heteromers as the molecular bridge linking DA to the facilitation of NMDAR and ERK activation in an in vitro model of cocaine exposure.

Since drug-induced adaptive behavior has been causally linked to long-term synaptic plasticity of glutamate synapses onto dMSN (Pascoli et al., 2011b, 2014b), it seems critical to determine whether D1R/ NMDAR heteromers are present at synaptic sites and can control synaptic plasticity.

On organotypic striatal cultures the lateral diffusion of D1R at the plasma membrane is greatly reduced upon NMDAR stimulation, which favors confined D1R expression within dendritic spines. This recruitment of D1R in spines depends on D1R/GluN1 heteromer formation, leading to the model of 'diffusion trap system" whereby agonist-induced allosteric changes of NMDAR enhances D1R/NMDAR interaction at synaptic sites (Scott et al., 2006). This model stipulates that upon glutamate release, D1R/NMDAR heteromers are preferentially formed within, or at the close vicinity of, synapses. Accordingly, the CTD of both GluN2 subunits of NMDAR and D1R are known to bind the synaptic protein PSD-95, which stabilizes their localization at synapses (Kornau et al., 1995; Niethammer et al., 1996; Kim and Sheng, 2004; Zhang et al., 2009; Ladepeche et al., 2013). The expression of both receptors is thus confined at synaptic sites owing to their interaction with PSD-95. However, Zhang and colleagues demonstrated that GluN1 and PSD-95 bind to the D1R CTD through docking sites that overlap at the level of the D1R-t2 domain (Zhang et al., 2009). Through a competition mechanism, PSD-95 is thus a limiting factor for D1R/GluN1 heteromerization at synapses, even though these receptors complexes are detected in striatal PSD fractions (Fiorentini et al., 2003).

To assess the role of D1R/GluN1 interaction in the modulation of synaptic transmission, electrophysiological recordings were performed from cortico-striatal slices prepared from the *drd1a-egfp* reporter mice to visualize dMSN (Gong et al., 2003). Inhibition of D1R/NMDAR interaction with the GluN1-C1 peptide fully blocked D1R-mediated facilitation of NMDA-mediated excitatory post-synaptic currents, while sparing basal synaptic transmission (Cahill et al., 2014b). A GluN2B antagonist was also able to abrogate the D1R-mediated facilitation of NMDA currents, whereas disruption of D1R/GluN2A heteromers with the D1R-t3 peptide had no effect. This suggests that D1R/GluN2A heteromers are not primarily involved in the modulation of NMDAR currents by DA in dMSN. It also shows that D1R/GluN1 interaction preferentially modulates GluN2B-NMDAR, even though the underlying

mechanism is still unknown.

To study the role of D1R/GluN1 interaction in striatal plasticity, high frequency electrical stimulations (HFS) of the cortex triggering long-term potentiation (LTP) of striatal synapses in both dMSN and iMSN were applied to cortico-striatal slices (Pascoli et al., 2011b). This allowed us to demonstrate the mandatory role of D1R/NMDAR heteromers for LTP in dMSN, but not iMSN (Cahill et al., 2014b). Accordingly, the facilitating effect of D1R on NMDAR-mediated LTP also required D1/NMDAR interaction in the hippocampus (Nai et al., 2010). In contrast, Ladepeche and co-workers found that blocking D1R/GluN1 interaction with the TAT-D1R-t2 peptide increased the number of potentiated synapses in a chemically-induced LTP in cultured hippocampal neurons (Ladepeche et al., 2013). The apparent discrepancy between these results is likely due to differences in experimental models (cortico-striatal slices v.s hippocampal neurons) and/or to the strategies used to block D1R/GluN1 heteromers. In fact, we found that the D1R-t2 peptide was able to activate NMDAR and ERK by itself (Cahill et al., 2014b), which could explain its permissive effect on chemical LTP. By contrast, when using the GluN1-C1 peptide, which disrupts D1R binding to NMDAR without affecting the functions of individual D1R and NMDAR, we observed a blockade of HFS-induced striatal LTP (see Andrianarivelo et al., 2018). Regarding cocaine-evoked responses in vivo, the infusion of the TAT-GluN1-C1 peptide into the NAcc was able to attenuate cocaine-induced ERK1/2 activation. Inhibiting D1R/GluN1heteromers in the NAcc did not impact neither the basal locomotion nor the acute hyperlocomotor response to a first injection. By contrast, the disruption of D1R/GluN1 interaction prior and during the first injection of cocaine altered the locomotor sensitization induced by a second injection of cocaine administered a week later (Cahill et al., 2014b). This supports a role for D1R/GluN1 heteromers in the NAcc in the development of persistent cocaine-induced adaptations in acute models of cocaine exposure. To date, the impact of acute or chronic exposure on endogenous D1R/GluN1 heteromerization in vivo in the striatum and in other brain structures of the reward circuit is still not known. Whether or not these heteromers are involved in the development and maintenance of long-lasting structural and behavioral adaptation remains to be established. We are currently tackling these issues, which are critical because they will unravel whether of D1R/ GluN1 and D2R/GluN2 heteromers are mediators of the excitatory and inhibitory actions of drugs of abuse on dMSN and iMSN, respectively.

#### 4. Conclusions and perspectives

Numerous studies focused on the mechanisms underlying allosteric changes induced receptor heteromerization and associated modification of downstream signaling but only few reports described roles of endogenous heteromers in vivo (Table 1). This is likely due to limitations of current approaches to detect heteromers in situ. In fact, class C GPCRs form stable oligomers but class A GPCRs oligomerization seems highly dynamic, and its existence is still a matter of debate. Furthermore, most discoveries on receptor oligomers originate from studies in heterologous systems lacking the dense synaptic macroproteic complexes where receptors have multiple and dynamic interactors. These interactions, sometimes involving overlapping sites, represent a major challenge to selectively alter heteromer formation without impacting on the component receptor's interaction with other partners. This implies a thorough characterization of potential off-target effects and caution when interpreting the results. Such strategy design could benefit from crystal structures of the receptors to model the interface of heteromers, as recently performed for D2R/A2R (Borroto-Escuela et al., 2018c). This could facilitate the identification of the minimal aminoacid residues necessary for receptor heteromerization, the design of non-peptidic interfering molecules or bi-valent compounds selectively targeting receptor oligomers (Soriano et al., 2009).

Several DA receptors heteromers with a therapeutic potential have been described, including D1R/D3R (Fiorentini et al., 2010), but their roles remain to be established. Moreover, most studies on receptor heteromers in addiction focused on the striatum because of its key role in the pathology and its enrichment in DA receptors. However, a thorough characterization of heteromer expression within the entire brain reward circuit would be of importance considering the implication of various brain regions in distinct components of addiction. Moreover, the implication of DA receptor heteromers has been mainly studied in the initial phases of drug exposure. Addressing their roles in each phases of drug addiction (maintenance, craving and relapse) seems of crucial importance as it could open new routes for the development of selective strategies targeting these heteromers for the treatment of drug addiction.

#### **Declaration of interest**

The authors report not biomedical financial interest or conflicts of interest.

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#### A. Andrianarivelo, et al.

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# Detecting G protein-coupled receptor complexes in postmortem human brain with proximity ligation assay and a Bayesian classifier

Ying Zhu<sup>1,2</sup>, József Mészáros<sup>1,2</sup>, Roman Walle<sup>3</sup>, Rongxi Fan<sup>1,2</sup>, Ziyi Sun<sup>1,2</sup>, Andrew J Dwork<sup>2,4,5</sup>, Pierre Trifilieff<sup>3</sup> & Jonathan A Javitch<sup>\*,1,2,6</sup>

#### ABSTRACT

Despite the controversy regarding the existence and physiological relevance of class A G protein-coupled receptor dimerization, there is substantial evidence for functional interactions between the dopamine D2 receptor (D2R) and the adenosine A2A receptor (A2AR). A2AR-D2R complexes have been detected in rodent brains by proximity ligation assay; however, their existence in the human brain has not been demonstrated. In this study, we used Brightfield proximity ligation assay, combined with a systematic sampling and a parameter-free naive Bayesian classifier, and demonstrated proximity between the D2R and the A2AR in the adult human ventral striatum, consistent with their colocalization within complexes and the possible existence of D2R-A2AR heteromers. These methods are applicable to the relative quantification of proximity of two proteins, as well as the expression levels of individual proteins.

#### **METHOD SUMMARY**

Brightfield proximity ligation assay was used to assess the expression of G protein-coupled receptors and their proximity in postmortem adult human brains. A novel automated machine learning method (Bayesian optimized PLA signal sorting) was developed to automatically quantify Brightfield proximity ligation assay data.

#### **KEYWORDS**

adenosine • adenosine A2A receptor • dopamine • dopamine receptor type 2 • G protein-coupled receptor • proximity ligation assay • machine learning • naive Bayesian classifier

<sup>1</sup>Division of Molecular Therapeutics, New York State Psychiatric Institute, New York, NY 10032, USA; <sup>2</sup>Department of Psychiatry, Columbia University, New York, NY 10032, USA; <sup>3</sup>Université de Bordeaux, INRA, Bordeaux INP, NutriNeuro, UMR 1286, F-33000, Bordeaux, France; <sup>4</sup>Department of Pathology & Cell Biology, Columbia University, New York, NY 10032, USA; <sup>5</sup>Division of Molecular Imaging & Neuropathology, New York State Psychiatric Institute, New York, NY 10032, USA; <sup>6</sup>Department of Pharmacology, Columbia University, New York, NY 10032, USA; \*Author for correspondence: Jonathan.Javitch@nyspi.columbia.edu

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The dopamine receptor type 2 (D2R) is an extensively studied class A G proteincoupled receptor (GPCR) that has been shown to play a critical role in various brain functions and has been implicated in a variety of neuropsychiatric disorders, including schizophrenia [1,2], Parkinson's [3,4], Alzheimer's [5] and Huntington's disease [7] as well as addiction [8]. In addition, the D2R is the common target of all current antipsychotic medications [9], which has led to extensive publication of literature regarding its pharmacological and signaling properties [10]. Previous studies in cell lines suggest that D2Rs may function as a part of heteromeric complexes, in which D2R activity and signaling can be modulated by another receptor subunit [11–14]. The putative heteromer formed by the D2R with the adenosine A2A receptor (A2AR) is one of the most studied among the class A GPCRs [15-19], and it has been hypothesized that pharmacological targeting of A2AR could be an efficient strategy to modulate D2R activity [20,21]. However, the structural properties of class A receptor heteromers, their existence in vivo and their relevance to receptor physiology or pathophysiology remain unclear and a topic of active study and debate [22-24]. The signaling properties of putative D2R-A2AR heteromers have been mostly studied in heterologous systems, and it is important to study these complexes in native mammalian brain.

Both time-resolved fluorescence resonance energy transfer-based assays [25,26] and antibody-based *in situ* proximity ligation assays (PLAs) [27,28] have been used to study receptor complexes in native tissue. Using fluorescent PLA, we and others have successfully detected endogenous D2R-A2AR complexes in the rodent striatum, which provided *ex vivo* evidence for the existence of D2R-A2AR heteromeric complexes composed of native receptors [28,29]. However, the existence of D2R-A2AR complexes in human brains has yet to be established.

PLA has been widely used to assess protein-protein interaction, protein expression and post-translational modification both in vitro and ex vivo [30-33]. PLA puncta are generated when a pair of oligonucleotide-conjugated antibodies bind to neighboring antigens, followed by ligation of the oligonucleotides and subsequent rolling cycle amplification, leading to DNA structure that can be detected by fluorophore- or horseradish peroxidase-labeled oligonucleotide probes. In contrast to standard immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence, both of which rely on a field of precipitate or fluorescence that can only be quantified by total intensity, PLA results in individual puncta, allowing relative quantification of proteins (single PLA) or complexes (dual PLA) with higher spatial resolution. To date, PLA has been applied to postmortem human brain in a limited number of studies. PLA was used to assess  $\alpha$ -synuclein oligomers in Parkinson's disease [34] and to detect the interaction between SORL1 and APP in Alzheimer's disease [35]. A limiting factor in applying these approaches to the human brain relates to the size of the samples, which make it challenging to obtain representative data while minimizing the number of samples, as classical stereology techniques are extremely time consuming. Further, PLA is highly sensitive to tissue processing [28], and

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its use in postmortem human brain tissue requires additional consideration and optimization. Notably, human brains are classically fixed by immersion in fixative and paraffinembedded, a method that is not typically used with rodent brain tissue.

Here, we optimized *in situ* PLA to detect D2R, A2AR and D2R-A2AR complexes with Brightfield microscopy in the human ventral striatum and developed a new approach, combining whole-slide scanning, systematic random sampling and parameter-free automated image analysis that employs a naive Bayesian classifier for faithful and robust signal separation. This study constitutes a proof-of-concept for relative quantification of individual proteins and antigen complexes *in situ* using postmortem human brain samples.

#### MATERIALS & METHODS PLAs & antibodies

Information about human brain specimens is described in Supplementary Table 1, and tissue processing is described in the Supplementary data. Anti-D2R (rabbit polyclonal, ABN462, MilliporeSigma, MO, USA) was used at a final concentration of 1.67 µg/ml for single PLA (recognition of one antigen), and  $5 \,\mu$ g/ml for dual PLA (proximity between two antigens). Anti-A2AR (mouse monoclonal, 05-717, MilliporeSigma) was used at 1 µg/ml for single PLA and at 1.67  $\mu$ g/ml for dual PLA. The specificity of anti-D2R and anti-A2AR antibodies was previously validated using brain tissue from D2R and A2AR knockout mice [28,36]. PLA was performed with antirabbit and anti-mouse secondary antibodyconjugated PLA probes and the Brightfield detection kit (MilliporeSigma Duolink®, MO, USA) according to the user's manual (Supplementary data). A detailed protocol is available online.

#### Microscopy & sampling

For fluorescent staining, images were taken with a Zeiss LSC510 confocal laser-scanning microscope (Zeiss, Germany) using a  $63 \times$ oil objective and z-stack scanning with a step interval of 0.5  $\mu$ m. Brightfield wholeslide images were taken with a Leica SCN400 (Leica Biosystems, IL, USA) at the Herbert Irving Comprehensive Cancer Center (HICCC), using tube lens magnification (2×) in addition to a 20× objective lens (Numerical Aperture 0.65) to achieve 40× magnification and z-stack scanning with a step interval of 1  $\mu m.$  Whole-slide scanned virtual images were viewed with a Leica SCN400 image viewer (version 2.2), and a single layer with the most PLA puncta in focus was used to export images (zoom at 40×) for PLA signal quantification.

A systematic random sampling method adapted from Gundersen *et al.* [37] was performed to choose areas in the brain region of interest (ROI) to quantify the PLA signal (Supplementary Figure 1).

# Quantification with the Bayesian optimized PLA signal sorting package

We designed a custom MATLAB package Bayesian optimized PLA signal sorting (BOPSS) to analyze PLA signal images [38]. To use the program, we input a folder containing Brightfield images for single and dual PLA samples and negative controls. In the first step of BOPSS, clusters of noncellular foreground pixels (putative puncta [PP]) are located in all of the images using an approach typically used in the processing of histological samples [39]. The PP are then randomly split into two groups (training set and test set). The test set of PP is used to calculate two distributions (negative control distribution and PLA signal distribution) for each of the 11 intensity-based and morphological features (11 pairs of distributions in total are generated). Next, these 11 pairs of distributions are used to categorize PP in the test set. At this step, for each feature, each punctum is determined to be more similar to the trained PLA signal distribution or the trained noise distribution. Some puncta may be more similar to the PLA signal in a few features, but more similar to the noise in the rest of the features. To account for all 11 features, a product (the likelihood) of the punctum being PLA signal is calculated and compared with the likelihood of it being noise. If the likelihood of the punctum being a PLA signal is higher than the likelihood of the punctum being noise, it is preserved as a PLA signal.

#### **RESULTS & DISCUSSION** Optimized PLA assay for rodent & human brain sections

Whereas PLA on rodent brain fixed by transcardial perfusion has been widely validated [28,33], human brain tissue is classically fixed by direct immersion in formalin and paraffin-embedding, which could alter the detection and guality of the signal. Tissue preparation, especially fixation, is known to alter morphology and immunostaining results [40-42]. To assess how alternative fixation approaches may affect PLA imaging results in human brain sections, we compared the results of immunofluorescent PLA (PLA-FL) on mouse brain sections following different fixation approaches. We performed single-recognition PLA (single PLA), which allows detection of an antigen with only one primary antibody, for D2R on sections of mouse brains that underwent two different fixation protocols: 1 fixation in 4% PFA overnight after perfusion (perfusion fixation), or 2 fixation by direct immersion in 4% PFA for 4 days without perfusion (direct immersion fixation). With both fixation protocols, we obtained a clear PLA signal (puncta) of D2R distributed throughout the striatum, with one major difference in the nonspecific background. As described previously [28,33,36] we observed a fluorescent signal in the nuclear compartments in samples fixed through perfusion (Figure 1A & C), whereas this background was much lower in sections from brains fixed without perfusion (Figure 1B & D). These results suggested that the PLA signal for D2Rs from tissue fixed using the direct immersion method is preserved, whereas the nuclear background is greatly reduced. Although the exact cause of this nuclear background is unclear, it was previously described with PLA-FL from perfused adult animals [28,43] and on brain slices from mouse pups (P0-P1) fixed by direct immersion in fixative [33]. In addition, we performed PLA-FL on sections from snap-frozen mouse brains, which were fixed with 4% PFA after cryosectioning, and observed a similar strong nuclear background (data not shown). It is therefore tempting to propose that it is the rapid fixation process, which occurs through intracardial perfusion of fixative, or rapid penetration of the fixative in the much smaller pup brain or a thin cryosection, which is responsible for the nuclear background. This signal does not result from specific or nonspecific binding of primary or secondary antibodies, since it is not detectable in regular immunostaining with anti-D2R or anti-A2AR antibodies. Moreover, the nuclear background is still present >

123

when antibodies are omitted in the PLA process [28]. We speculate that the crosslinking of chromatin by rapid fixation could result in nonspecific binding of the labeled oligonucleotides used during the detection step of the PLA. Regardless of the underlying causes, our results help to explain the dramatic differences in background described in previously published studies [28,43,44].

Next, we performed PLA-FL on paraffinembedded human brain sections. In marked contrast to mouse brain sections, a prominent nonspecific signal was observed, detectable with either 488 or 564-nm excitation (data not shown) in the form of dense aggregates that often accumulated in the soma (Figure 2A-B), suggesting a nonspecific autofluorescence signal, in addition to detection of specific PLA puncta. To address this issue, we replaced the original PLA-FL with a Brightfieldcompatible detection method, Brightfield PLA (PLA-BF), which allows visualization of the PLA signal with a chromogenic substrate of horseradish peroxidase. The PLA-BF for single-recognition of the A2AR showed a similar PLA punctate pattern, however, without the nonspecific signal observed with the PLA-FL method (Figure 2C & D).

Autofluorescence is a common issue for imaging the adult human brain but not with transmitted light. Therefore, PLA-BF avoids the autofluorescence that confounds PLA-FL (Figure 2) and even standard immunofluorescence in brain samples from human adults and aged animals [45]. Notably, PLA-BF and PLA-FL on mouse brain sections yielded comparable results (data not shown). Altogether, these observations suggest that PLA-BF is a superior alternative to PLA-FL for paraffin sections from human autopsy brains. Moreover, the stability of the Brightfield-based signal compared with fluorescence-based methods allows a better conservation of the samples without the photobleaching inherent to the imaging of fluorescent samples.

### Assessing the expression of D2R, A2AR & D2R-A2AR in the human brain

To assess the expression of D2R, A2AR and D2R-A2AR complexes, we performed single PLA-BF for each individual receptor, and dual PLA-BF for D2R-A2AR complexes on coronal sections of adult human ventral striatum



Figure 1. The effect of fixation on the nonspecific nuclear signal in single-recognition PLA-FL in mouse brain tissue. Representative images of D2R single-recognition PLA in coronal striatal section from mouse brains fixed by transcardial perfusion of fixative (A & C) or by direct immersion in fixative (B & D). DAPI counterstaining (blue) (C & D) labels nuclei. Note that in the nuclear area, the hazy background signal is almost absent and the puncta overlapping the nuclei are much reduced in the non-perfused tissue compared with the perfused tissue. Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m.

that included the nucleus accumbens (NAcc) and limited parts of the putamen (Ptm) and caudate (Cdt). The anatomical structure was confirmed by Luxol fast blue and cresyl violet (LFB/CV) staining, which stains myelin and Nissl substance, respectively (Supplementary Figure 1A-C). Considering the low number of PLA puncta for D2R-A2AR complexes relative to individual D2R and A2AR in mouse brains [28], we used different concentrations of primary antibodies for dual and single PLAs to obtain optimal staining results, avoiding saturation in single PLA that can lead to overcrowded signal instead of countable puncta. In all tested samples, we observed strong signal for single PLA of D2R and A2AR and a clear but weaker signal for dual PLA of D2R-A2AR complexes in the NAcc (Figure 3 A-I), Ptm and Cdt (data not shown). The dual PLA for negative controls that omitted anti-A2AR antibody showed no or very few detectable puncta in the same areas (Figure 3 J-L and data not shown). These results support the existence of D2R-A2AR complexes in native human brains. We note that interpretation of the puncta from single PLA is complex with our current reagents, since the polyclonal secondary antibodies can bind to either two epitopes on a single primary antibody bound to a single antigen, or to two different primaries bound to proximal antigens. We expect that the former will be more efficient. In addition, we had to use different primary antibody concentrations for single and dual PLA so as to not saturate the single PLA signal. For these reasons, the absolute number of single PLA and dual PLA puncta cannot be compared directly but must be used for relative quantitation.

#### Systematic random sampling & automated quantification of the PLA-BF signal in human brain sections

Because the PLA signal appears as puncta, quantitative analysis of proteins is more plausible than in traditional immunostaining. However, the large size of the human brain sections makes it challenging to quantify the PLA signal from an entire brain region. For example, the brain ROI in this study, the NAcc, was approximately 40 mm<sup>2</sup> (Supple-



Figure 2. Differences between PLA-FL and PLA-BF detection methods. Representative images of negative controls (A & C) and A2AR single-recognition PLA-FL (B), PLA-BF (D) performed on paraffin-embedded human brain sections of the ventral striatum from the same human subject. The arrows in B and D indicate representative PLA puncta. Hematoxylin counterstaining (blue) labels nuclei (C & D). Scale bar, 20  $\mu$ m. Note the high autofluorescence background in PLA-FL and the clean background in the PLA-BF.

mentary Table 2). Therefore, as described in the Supplementary data, we obtained virtual images by whole-slide scanning, divided the ROI into a series of sampling areas and only quantified the PLA signal in the areas (named counting loci in this study) that were selected by a systematic random sampling method adapted from Gundersen *et al.* [37] (Supplementary Figure 1F). Therefore, the total analyzed area represented only ~3% of the ROI (Supplementary Table 2) but was composed of a set of representative counting loci evenly distributed within the entire ROI.

To efficiently and reproducibly quantify PLA puncta across our large dataset in an unbiased way, we applied and compared three different quantification approaches. Two of these approaches, Analyze Particles (ImageJ) [46] and Spot detector (ICY) [47], rely on the user to set intensity and size parameters to distinguish clusters of pixels against the background of an image. In contrast, our custom MATLAB package BOPSS, which we designed to automatically quantify PLA-BF signal, is an unsupervised machine-learning approach and requires no parameters to be set by the user.

Analyze particles (Image J) depends on threshold and particle size to detect PLA puncta. The automated threshold (Figure 4: ImageJ\_auto) worked well for the dual PLA signal, but underestimated the signal for single PLA, and showed high counts in the negative controls (Figure 4D–F, P-Q), which resulted in a low signal (the dual PLA signal)/background noise (the negative control signal) (S/N = 2.14). Most of the nonspecific puncta in the negative controls detected by *Analyze Particles* corresponded to background in the nuclear area, typical of the signal obtained with classical DNA intercalating reagents like DAPI or Hoechst. Manually optimizing the threshold reduced the nonspecific detection in the negative controls but caused severe undercounting for both dual and single PLA and failed to improve S/N (data not shown). Adjusting the size of particles also failed to improve S/N or undercounting of specific PLA signal (data not shown). These results suggested that *Analyze Particles* (Image J) cannot properly discriminate specific and nonspecific signals and underestimated specific PLA signal.

Spot detector (ICY) detects PLA puncta through a series of functions: 1, Scales that determine the sensitivity and the size of spots to detect, and 2, a Filtering that determines the maximum and minimum size of accepted objects. When parameters were optimized for dual PLA, this method showed very little - if any - nonspecific detection in the negative controls and good detection for dual PLA, but noticeable underestimation for single PLA (Figure 4G-I & P-Q: ICY\_D). With optimized parameters for single PLA, Spot Detector showed increased detection in every PLA assay, including nonspecific detection in the negative controls (Figure 4J-L & P-Q: ICY\_S). Therefore, two different sets of parameters were necessary for specific and efficient detection for single PLA (puncta of high density) and dual/negative PLA signal (puncta of low density).

In contrast to ImageJ and ICY, BOPSS uses a machine-learning algorithm to learn the properties of the puncta based on the data. It measures a variety of features for each cluster of pixels and uses the distributions of these features to contrast between negative controls and samples. It processes color images containing cells and PLA signal without relying on any userdefined parameters, but rather on the specification of negative control and experimental images. On a standard laptop PC (2.6 GHz CPU), we analyzed the output results for 10 megabytes of images in 5 s. In a pretest with three full counting images of each PLA condition, single PLA, dual PLA and negative control, this all-in-one script completed machine learning-based optimization and quantification automatically. Compared with the pre-optimization counting (BOPSS\_0) that only selected puncta based on size and color, the optimized quantification BOPSS improved the signal (the dual PLA signal)/ >

125

background noise (the negative control signal) ratio for dual PLA from 1.63 to 8.41, reduced the averaged counts in the negative controls from  $1165 \pm 300$  to  $96 \pm 29$  (puncta/mm<sup>2</sup>), a 92% reduction in false positives, while maintaining efficient detection in both dual and single PLA (Figure 4 & data not shown).

To assess the accuracy of BOPSS, we randomly selected three areas (Supplementary Figure 2A-C) covering 43% of a full counting image and guantified the PLA puncta using manual counting (Supplementary Figure 2J-L) or with BOPSS (BOPSS\_0 and BOPSS, Supplementary Figure 2D-I). The results showed that BOPSS achieved remarkably similar results for dual PLA and negative control compared with the manual counting (Supplementary Figure 2N). For single PLA, BOPSS counted slightly more PLA puncta than the mean of four independent manual counting attempts (Supplementary Figure 2M). However, manual counting, although highly reproducible for the low-density signals, was extremely difficult for the high density puncta and the results were somewhat variable. Post hoc manual analysis verified that BOPSS was overall remarkably accurate but not perfect, as it occasionally undercounted PLA puncta for high density signals (Supplementary Figure 2G), but also occasionally overcounted signal in nuclear areas (Supplementary Figure 2G-I).

Compared with the other two automated quantification methods described previously, BOPSS avoided time-consuming and potentially biased parameter optimization, but nonetheless resulted in comparable quantification results for the dual PLA and negative controls as ICY\_D (Figure 4Q). At the same time, BOPSS significantly improved detection of dense single PLA signal, leading to comparable results for single PLA as ICY\_S (with optimized parameters for single PLA) (Figure 4P: BOPSS). Therefore, BOPSS achieved a favorable S/N for dual PLA similar to that of ICY\_D (Figure 4Q) by reducing nonspecific detection without underestimating real PLA puncta, and simultaneously overcame the underestimation issue for single PLA. In addition, BOPSS led to comparable results as manual counting of PLA puncta (Supplementary Figure 2), and was much more consistent than manual quantification, which is an advantage for



Figure 3. Detection of single PLA for A2AR and D2R, and dual PLA for D2R-A2AR by PLA-BF in the NAcc. The expression of A2AR (A–C), D2R (D–F), D2R-A2AR (G–I) and negative controls (J–L) in the NAcc was detected in three human subjects, PI12260, PI12270 and PI12277. Scale bar:  $25 \mu m$ .

processing a large dataset in an unbiased manner. Thus, overall, BOPSS seems to be a straightforward approach for achieving completely automated, efficient and specific detection of PLA signals and worked equally well for both single PLA (puncta of high density) and dual (or negative) PLA signal (puncta of low density).

PLA has been previously applied to postmortem human brains in a very limited number of studies [34,35] and optimization of unbiased quantification methods has not been achieved. Combining whole slide scanning microscopy, the systematic random sampling method, and automated quantification with BOPSS, we developed here a systematic automated approach for quantitative study of PLA-BF, which enhanced our data analysis capacity to the level required for processing image data from the human brain.

#### Quantifying the expression of D2R, A2AR & D2R-A2AR in the human brain

Because the ventral striatum tissue blocks contained only partial Ptm and Cdt of varied sizes, we focused their quantification on the NAcc. The quantification results from the three human subjects (Supplementary Table 1) showed varied counts of D2R, A2AR and D2R-A2AR complex in the NAcc (Supplementary Figure 3A-C). The averaged relative fractions of D2R-A2AR complex were 12.3 ± 1.8% relative to total A2AR and 13.4 ± 5.3% relative to total D2R. In this small preliminary proof-of-concept analysis, we cannot address whether the differences in the absolute levels of complex and their levels relative to the two single receptors represent true individual variation or differences in the exact regions quantified (Supplementary Figure 3E & F). ▶



Figure 4. Comparison of automated quantification methods. Three counting images of the single (A), dual (B) and negative PLA (C) from subject PI12277 were used to test puncta detection and quantification approaches with selected parameters: Particle Analysis (Image J) with auto threshold (Image J\_Auto, D–F), Spot Detector (ICY) with parameters favoring detection of either dual and negative (ICY\_D, G–I) or single (ICY\_S, J–L) PLA signals, and BOPSS (BOPSS, M–O). Image J and ICY quantified the puncta in the transformed and contrast enhanced images (D–L) as described in the Supplementary data. The counted puncta were marked in red dots (D–F & M–O) or labeled in red numbers (G–L) in the analyzed images. Single PLA puncta density results were analyzed with repeated one-way ANOVA; there was a significant effect of quantification method (p = 0.014) (P). Dual PLA and its negative control were analyzed by repeated two-way ANOVA, as they shared the same PLA conditions except for the omission of one of the two primary antibodies; the interaction between quantification method and PLA signal was not significant (accounts for 3.73% for the total variance, p = 0.21); both the quantification method (accounts for 56.9% of the total variance, p = 0.005) and the PLA condition (accounts for 26.22% of the total variance, p = 0.009) had significant effects on the variance (Q). Bonferroni's multiple comparisons were performed for both sets of analyses: to compare BOPSS

Nonetheless, the results show that our method can allow relative quantification for both numbers of antigens as well as the proximity between the two antigens.

The existence of heteromers composed of A2AR and D2R has been supported by multiple studies using different approaches, including co-immunoprecipitation in vitro. fluorescence resonance energy transfer and bioluminescence resonance energy transfer in living cells, and PLA-FL in rodent striatum, making it the most characterized class A GPCR heteromer [15-18]. To our knowledge, our study is the first to detect D2R-A2AR complexes in situ in postmortem human brains, suggesting that the physical proximity between D2R and A2AR is conserved from rodent to human. Whether this signal represents true heteromerization of two functional receptors that communicate directly or close proximity of receptors in microdomains or a larger complex remains to be determined. We have explored systematic sampling and automated quantification methods to assess the expression of D2R, A2AR and D2R-A2AR among individuals. Although the number of samples here was very small, the results demonstrate that single and dual PLA assays can be carried out in paraffin sections of human autopsy brains, that the signal can be measured by computerized image analysis and that the results can be used reliably to explore differences in protein expression in a way that is vastly more quantitative than traditional immunostaining. Our study constitutes a proof-of-concept for the feasibility of combining PLA and stereology for the relative quantitation of GPCRs and their complexes in postmortem human brains.

#### **FUTURE PERSPECTIVE**

We optimized PLA for use with human brain tissue and demonstrated in striatum the existence of GPCR complexes composed of dopamine receptor D2R and adenosine receptor A2AR (D2R-A2AR) that are potential therapeutic targets for various neurological and psychiatric diseases. Our work highlights the utility of PLA in human brain sections for semi-quantitative analysis of GPCRs and their complexes in pathophysiological conditions.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

To view the supplementary data that accompany this paper please visit the journal website at: www.future-science. com/doi/suppl/10.2144/btn-2019-0083

#### **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

Y Zhu, P Trifilieff and JA Javitch designed the experiments and wrote the manuscript, with input from all the authors. AJ Dwork prepared all human samples and helped to design the sampling method. Y Zhu performed the PLA assays, designed the sampling method, and performed data analysis. J Mészáros developed BOPSS. Z Sun performed image sampling. R Walle performed data analysis with ICY. R Fan and Y Zhu performed manual quantification.

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#### ETHICAL CONDUCT OF RESEARCH

The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of New York State Psychiatric Institute (NYSPI, Protocol 6477R). All mice were handled in accordance with the National Institute of Health (NIH) Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. Experimental protocol (NYSPI1388) was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at NYSPI.

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