

1 **Title: A simple action reduces high fat diet intake and obesity in mice**

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25

26 **Abstract:**

27 Diets that are high in fat cause over-eating and weight gain in multiple species of
28 animals, suggesting that high dietary fat is sufficient to cause obesity. However, high-fat diets
29 are typically provided freely to animals in obesity experiments, so it remains unclear if high-fat
30 diets would still cause obesity if they required more effort to obtain. We hypothesized that
31 unrestricted and easy access is necessary for high-fat diet induced over-eating, and the
32 corollary that requiring mice to perform small amounts of work to obtain high-fat diet would
33 reduce high-fat diet intake and associated weight gain. To test this hypothesis, we developed a
34 novel home-cage based feeding device that either provided high-fat diet freely, or after mice
35 poked their noses into a port one time – a simple action that is easy for them to do. We tested
36 the effect of this intervention for six weeks, with mice receiving all daily calories from high-fat
37 diet, modifying only how they accessed it. Requiring mice to nose-poke to access high-fat diet
38 reduced intake and nearly completely prevented the development of obesity. In follow up
39 experiments, we observed a similar phenomenon in mice responding for low-fat grain-based
40 pellets that do not induce obesity, suggesting a general mechanism whereby animals engage
41 with and consume more food when it is freely available vs. when it requires a simple action to
42 obtain. We conclude that unrestricted access to food promotes overeating, and that a simple
43 action such as a nose-poke can reduce over-eating and weight gain in mice. This may have
44 implications for why over-eating and obesity are common in modern food environments, which
45 are often characterized by easy access to low-cost unhealthy foods.

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47

48 **Introduction**

49 The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) tracks historical trends in food
50 availability (1), revealing that total available calories per capita in the US rose by about 23%
51 between 1970 and 2014, accounted for primarily by changes in available grains and fats (2,3).
52 While the USDA data does not quantify food consumption over this period, an orthogonal
53 dataset utilizing dietary recall, the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES),
54 reported a 12-15% increase in calorie consumption between 1970 to 2010 (4). While increases
55 in food consumption are likely driving the obesity epidemic (5,6), questions still remain: Why are
56 Americans eating more than they were eating in 1970? Has something changed in our food
57 supply or environment that is causing us to overeat? Possible explanations include ubiquitous
58 access to low-cost unhealthy foods (7,8), changes in nutrient contents and processing (5),
59 interactions between genetic predispositions and the modern food supply (9), chemicals in the
60 environment including those that disrupt endocrine function (10,11), disruptions in sleep and
61 circadian rhythms (12), and other causes (9,13). As it is challenging to isolate specific factors in
62 humans, laboratory animals have often been used to test how specific factors alter body weight.

63 Increasing dietary fat content induces over-eating and weight gain in multiple species,
64 including monkeys, dogs, pigs, hamsters, squirrels, rats, and mice (14,15), and has been used
65 for more than 75 years to model obesity in animals (16). The face validity of the “high-fat diet”
66 model of obesity relies on observational studies showing that higher dietary fat consumption is
67 also associated with higher obesity prevalence in humans (17,18), and interventional studies
68 demonstrating that low-fat diets produce modest, but significant, weight loss in humans (19,20).
69 However, in animal models the high-fat diets are typically placed in a food hopper in the
70 animal’s cage, providing unrestricted easy access. While this may replicate the extremes of how
71 ubiquitous snack foods have become in modern life, it fails to test whether such unrestricted
72 access is a necessary component for inducing high-fat diet induced obesity. We hypothesized
73 that unrestricted and easy access is necessary for high-fat diet induced over-eating, and the

74 corollary that requiring mice to perform small amounts of work to obtain high-fat diet would
75 reduce high-fat diet intake and associated weight gain.

76 We designed a novel home-cage feeding device, the Tumble Feeder, to test these
77 hypotheses. The Tumble Feeder contains a moveable food hopper that can provide access to
78 high-fat diet freely by leaving the hopper open, or in a controlled fashion that requires the mouse
79 to touch a trigger with its nose to open the hopper (termed: a nosepoke). We found that
80 requiring mice to perform a single nose-poke greatly reduced daily intake of high-fat diet, and
81 almost completely blocked associated weight gain. This was surprising as the nose-poke action
82 does not require strong physical effort to perform, and mice could earn as much high-fat diet as
83 they wanted each day by doing more nose-pokes. We performed analogous follow-up
84 experiments to test if our results were specific to high-fat diet or reflected a more general
85 behavioral control over food intake. Here, we observed that the nose-poke requirement also
86 reduced how many low-fat grain-based pellets were taken, which was attributed most strongly to
87 a reduction in the number of feeding bouts. This suggests that the constant presence of food
88 induced mice to initiate additional bouts of feeding each day, which can explain their over-eating
89 and weight gain. Together, our experiments support our hypothesis that a small action – one
90 nose-poke – can reduce food intake and diet-induced weight gain, and that easy access to
91 unhealthy foods may be a critical contributor to the human obesity epidemic.

92

93 Results

94

95 An operant device to control access to high-fat diet

96 We developed a novel operant device that allowed us to control access to high-fat diet
97 over multiple weeks in the home-cage (the TumbleFeeder, design files available at
98 <https://github.com/KravitzLabDevices/CastleFeeder/>, Fig 1A-D). The Tumble Feeder has two
99 touch-sensitive nose-poke triggers for detecting mouse “nose-pokes”, touch sensitive bars to
100 detect food hopper interactions, a microcontroller, screen, real-time clock (RTC), and a micro
101 secure-digital (microSD) card slot for controlling tasks and displaying and logging data (Fig 1B,
102 C). We first programmed the Tumble Feeder so the hopper was either open for free access (ie:
103 Free mode) or opened for 60s every time the mouse touched a nose-poke (ie: FR1 mode). In
104 both Free and FR1 modes, mice were allowed to access the hopper an unlimited number of
105 times per day, with no imposed delays between nose-pokes in the FR1 mode.

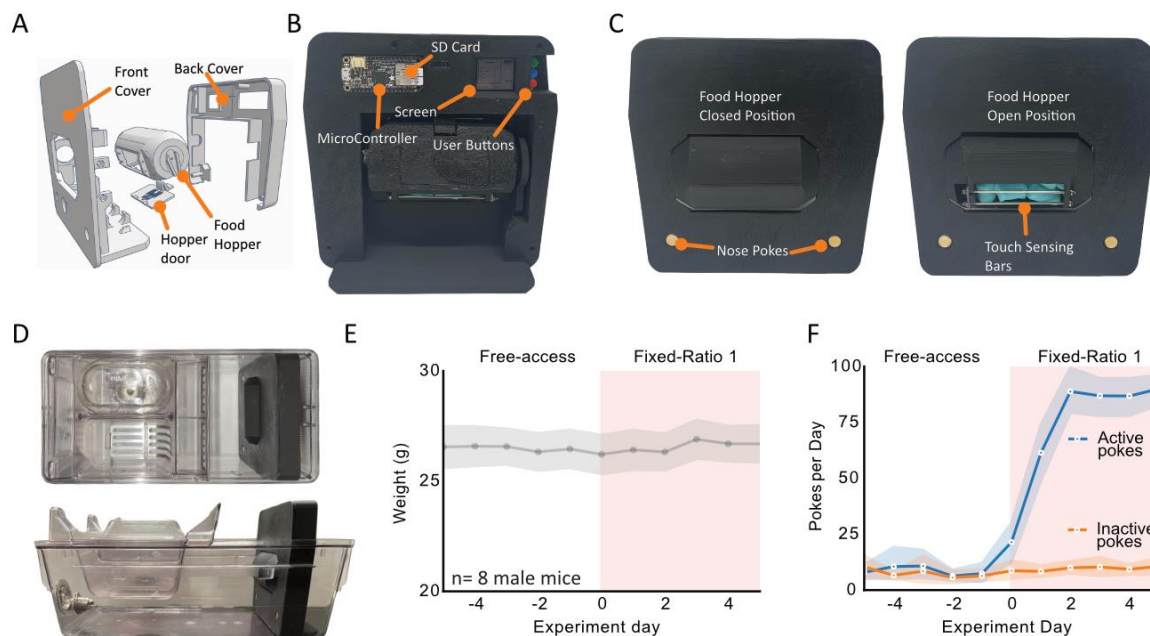


Figure 1: Design of the Tumble Feeder. **A.** 3D design of the Tumble Feeder. **B.** Back view of the assembled Tumble Feeder with relevant part labels. **C.** Front view of the Tumble Feeder in both open- and closed positions. **D.** Photographs of Tumble Feeder in a mouse home-cage. **E.** Average daily weight of mice during Free vs. FR1 tasks for laboratory chow (n=8). **F.** Number of active and inactive pokes per day in the Free and FR1 modes (n=8 mice, 5 days in each phase).

106 To validate the performance of the Tumble Feeder, 8 male C57Bl6 mice were given
107 access to the Free task for 5 days, with laboratory chow in the feeder. The Tumble Feeders
108 were then switched to FR1 mode for an additional 5 days, with the same diet. To control for the
109 movement of the hopper possibly startling the mice in the FR1 phase, we programmed the
110 hopper to open and close every 15 minutes throughout the Free phases, resulting in 96
111 actuations per day, slightly higher than the number of openings in the FR1 phase. Mice rapidly
112 learned to operate the Tumble Feeder on FR1, as evidenced by an increasing number of pokes
113 per day (Fig 1F). Critically, the nose-poke is an easy action to complete, and each nose-poke
114 opened the hopper for 60s, which was long enough for mice to easily obtain their daily caloric
115 needs each day. As such, mice maintained their body weights during both tasks, confirming that
116 mice readily learned how to operate the Tumble Feeder in the FR1 mode, and could obtain their
117 necessary daily caloric requirements in both the Free and FR1 modes (Fig 1E).

118

119 **A single nose-poke can reduce high-fat diet intake and associated weight gain**

120 To test if requiring mice to nose-poke to access high-fat diet would reduce intake and
121 weight gain, 12 C57Bl6 male mice were first given access to the Tumble Feeder for 5 days with
122 laboratory chow in the hopper. This allowed the mice to acclimate to the Tumble Feeder and
123 allowed us to quantify daily intake of chow before starting the high-fat diet experiment. Next, the
124 Tumble Feeder was filled with high-fat diet (60% of calories from fat, Research Diets #D12492)
125 and programmed to alternate in 5-day phases of Free and FR1 modes, with each nose-poke
126 providing 60s of access to high-fat diet in the FR1 phases (Fig 2A, B, Movie S1).

127 Consistent with our primary hypothesis, mice only gained weight in the Free high-fat diet
128 phases and lost a small amount of weight in the FR1 high-fat diet phases (Free: +3.1g / 5 days,
129 FR1: -1.1g / 5 days, significant effect of Task: $F(2, 22) = 85.9$, $p < 0.001$, post-hoc paired t-test
130 between Free and FR1, $p < 0.001$, Fig 2A, B). The Tumble Feeders were also weighed
131 throughout the experiment to quantify how much high-fat diet was removed in each phase.

132 Consistent with the difference in weight gain, mice removed significantly more high-fat diet in
133 the Free high-fat diet phase than the FR1 high-fat diet phase (Free: 19kcal/day vs. FR1:
134 11kcal/day, paired t-test $p < 0.001$, Fig 2C). We repeated this experiment with 8 female mice,
135 who also gained significantly more weight in Free high-fat diet than FR1 high-fat diet phases
136 (Free: +1.7g / 5 days, FR1: +0.4g / 5 days, significant effect of Task: $F(2, 14) = 12.63$, $p <$
137 0.001 , post-hoc paired t-test between Free and FR1, $p = 0.01$, Fig 2D, E), and removed
138 significantly more high-fat diet in the Free phase vs. the FR1 phase (Free: 21kcal/day vs. FR1:
139 12kcal/day, paired t-test $p = 0.001$, Fig 2F).

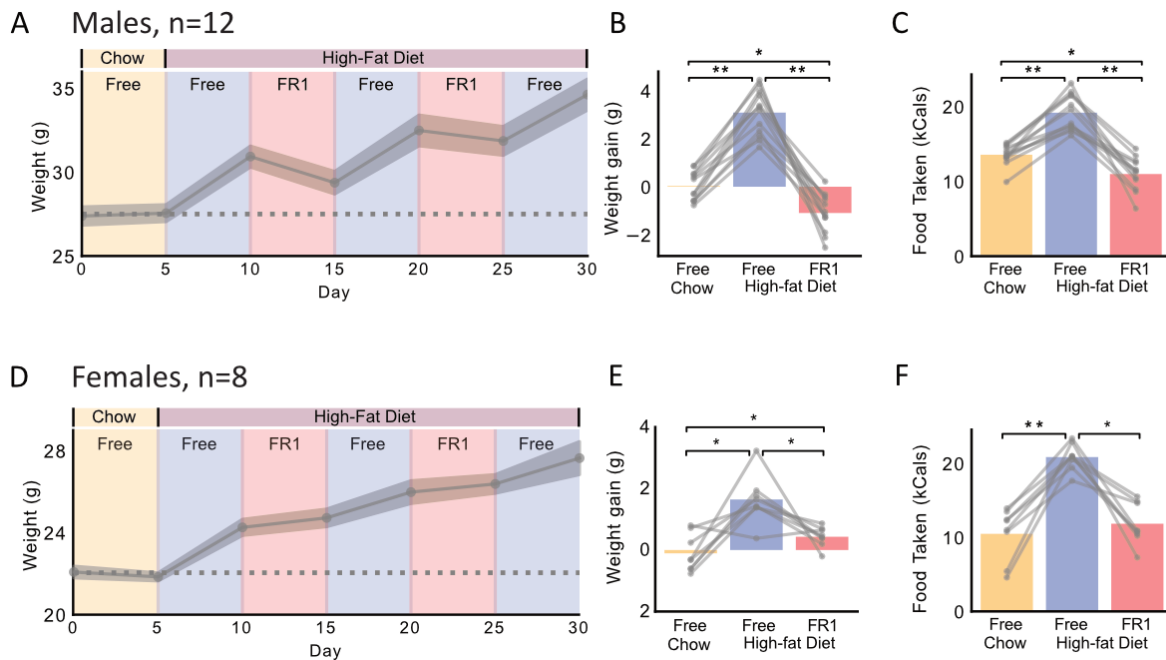


Figure 2: Mice take less high-fat diet and gain less weight on FR1 vs. Free access. **A.** Average weight of mice across Free and FR1 phases for chow and high-fat diet (n=12 male mice). **B.** Weight gain in each phase. **C.** Food taken in each phase. **D-F.** same plot format as **A-C**, but for 8 female mice. ** denotes $p < 0.001$ * denotes $p < 0.05$.

140

141 **FR1 access to high-fat diet prevents obesity**

142 We next tested if requiring a nose-poke to obtain high-fat diet would prevent the
143 development of obesity over 6 weeks of high-fat diet exposure. Male mice were used in this
144 experiment as female mice are more often resistant to high-fat diet induced weight gain (21).
145 Seven new male C57Bl6 mice were given high-fat diet on the FR1 task for 6 weeks. Despite
146 eating 100% of their daily calories from high-fat diet, these mice exhibited minimal weight gain
147 over the 6 weeks, which did not differ significantly from the expected growth curve of age-
148 matched male C57Bl6 mice (data from Jax, dashed line on Fig 3A, one-sample t-test $p = 0.138$).
149 Importantly, there was no restriction on how much high-fat diet mice could earn each day, and
150 the average number of nose-pokes per day was ~50, meaning mice opened the hopper for an
151 average of ~50 minutes per day to obtain their daily calories. As such, there was also ample
152 time (>23 hours per day) for the mice to nose-poke more to obtain more high-fat diet if they had
153 wanted to. At the conclusion of this experiment, the Tumble Feeders were switched to the Free
154 mode for 6 additional weeks, resulting in a rapid increase in body weight (Fig 3A, B), confirming
155 that the FR1 task was suppressing high-fat diet-induced weight gain in these mice (weight gain
156 in FR1: 7.9 grams, in Free: 19.4 grams, paired t-test $p < 0.001$). This supports our hypothesis
157 that a necessary component of the high-fat diet-induced obesity paradigm is unrestricted easy
158 access to high-fat diet, and requiring mice to perform a single nose-poke to access high-fat diet
159 is sufficient to prevent weight gain.

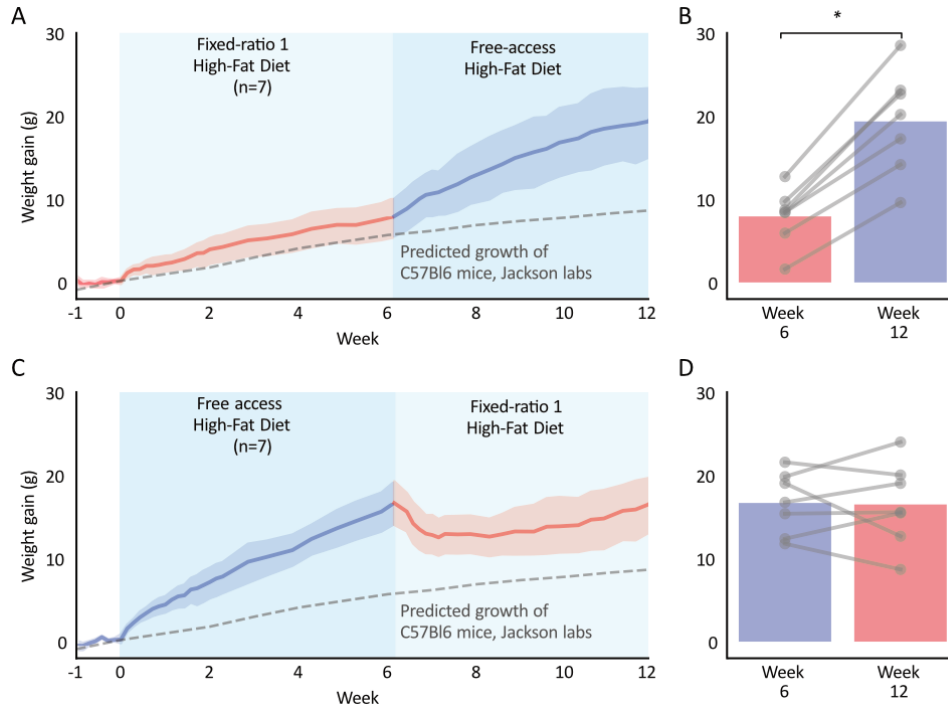


Figure 3: FR1 access to high-fat diet prevents, but does not reverse, obesity. **A.** Weight of mice on FR1 for high fat diet for 6 weeks, followed by Free access for six weeks (n=7 male mice). Dashed line is predicted growth curve of age-matched C57Bl6 mice from Jackson labs. **B.** Average weight at the end of the FR1 (week 6) vs. Free periods (week 12). **C.** Average weight of mice on Free access for high fat diet for 6 weeks, followed by FR1 access for six weeks (n=7 male mice). **D.** Average weight at the end of the Free (week 6) vs. FR1 access period (week 12). ** denotes $p < 0.001$ * denotes $p < 0.05$.

160

161 Requiring mice to nose-poke for high-fat diet does not cause weight loss in obese mice

162 We next tested if requiring a nose-poke to access high-fat diet would result in weight
163 loss in obese mice. Here, 7 new male C57Bl6 mice ate high-fat diet from the Tumble Feeder in
164 Free mode for 6 weeks, resulting in weight gain (Fig 3C). The Tumble Feeders were then
165 switched to FR1 for 6 additional weeks. While the mice lost a small amount of weight in the first
166 week of FR1, they regained this weight over the next 6 weeks, resulting in a similar average
167 weight at the start and end of the FR1 phase (weight gain in Free: 16.7 grams, FR1: 16.5 grams
168 paired t-test, $p = 0.90$, Fig 3D). We conclude that the FR1 nose-poke requirement does not
169 drive weight loss in obese mice. This highlights how the mechanisms that control the
170 development of obesity can not necessarily be reversed to drive weight loss.

171 **Mice take fewer low-fat grain pellets when they have to nose-poke to access them**

172 We hypothesized that the protective effect of the nose-poke requirement on high-fat diet
173 induced obesity may not be specific to high-fat diets, but instead reflect a more general property
174 of food intake, where animals over-eat when food is freely available vs. when it requires a small
175 effort to obtain. To test this idea, we used Feeding Experimentation Device version 3 (FED3), a
176 smart pellet dispensing device that operates in the home-cage (22). An advantage of using the
177 FED3 over Tumble Feeder for these experiments was that we could obtain more detailed
178 information about feeding patterns of mice with FED3. FED3 was programmed to operate in
179 either a free-feeding mode (Free) or a fixed-ratio 1 (FR1) mode, to mimic the modes used in our
180 high-fat diet experiments with the Tumble Feeder. In the Free mode, 20mg grain-based food
181 pellets (Bio-serv F0163) were freely available in the pellet well and were replaced automatically
182 whenever a mouse removed one. In the FR1 mode, the mouse had to break a photo-beam
183 sensor with its nose (termed: a nose-poke) to cause FED3 to dispense each 20mg food pellet.
184 There was no limit on how many pellets mice could obtain in either task and in both tasks FED3
185 was their only source of food.

186 We crowd sourced this experiment across multiple labs that use FED3, collecting Free
187 and FR1 pellet data from 105 mice (72M/33F) across 10 labs in three countries (Fig 4A). All
188 mice included in the analysis completed at least one day of Free followed by at least one day of
189 FR1, and the last day of Free and first day of FR1 were analyzed. Consistent with our
190 hypothesis, mice took an average of 230 pellets (14.7Kcal) in the Free day and 170 pellets
191 (10.9Kcal) in the FR1 day (significant effect of task: $F(1,190) = 120.6$, $p < 0.001$, Fig 4B),
192 approximately a 26% reduction in pellets taken. This is consistent with a prior report using FED3
193 in these same tasks (23). We also observed a significant effect of study location ($F(1,190) = 7.5$,
194 $p < 0.001$, Fig 4B, B), highlighting the inherent variability among different research labs and
195 mouse colonies, and the importance of performing multi-site studies when possible.

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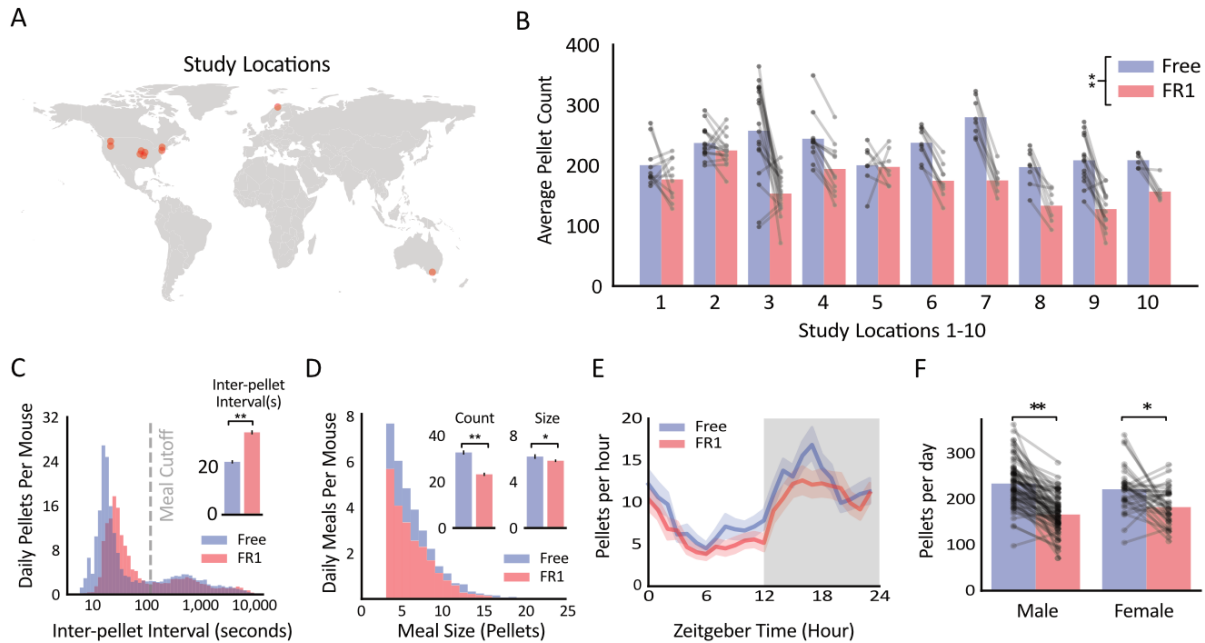


Figure 4: Mice take more grain pellets during Free vs. FR1 access. **A.** Locations of labs from which FED3 data was collected (n=10 study locations). **B.** Average pellet count for mice on the Free vs. FR1 task across study locations (n=105 mice). **C.** Histogram of inter-pellet intervals with a meal cutoff line. (Inset) Average inter-pellet interval for free vs FR1 task. **D.** Histogram of meal sizes for Free vs FR1 tasks (n=105). (Insets) Average count and size of meals in each task. **E.** Circadian plot of average pellets per hour over 24 hours for Free vs FR1 tasks. **F.** Pellets taken by males (n=72) and females (n=33) in Free vs FR1 tasks. ** denotes $p < 0.001$ * denotes $p < 0.05$.

197 We next examined patterns of pellet taking between the two modes. Meals were defined

198 based on the peaks in the inter-pellet interval distribution (Fig 4C), where pellets within 2

199 minutes of each other were considered the same meal, and breaks larger than 2 minutes

200 initiated a new meal (22). Mice initiated ~29% fewer meals on FR1 vs. Free (FR1: 23.2

201 meals/day, Free: 32.6 meals/day, paired t-test, $p < 0.001$, Fig 4D), suggesting this effect may

202 account for most of the reduction in pellets taken each day. The average meal size was also

203 ~0.07% smaller during FR1 than Free (FR1: 5.8 pellets, Free: 6.2 pellets, paired t-test, $p =$

204 0.04), and mice took pellets more slowly within meals in FR1 vs Free (FR1: 35.0 seconds

205 between pellets, Free: 22.5 seconds between pellets, paired t-test, $p < 0.001$, Fig 4C).

206 Differences in pellets taken were not specific to one part of the circadian cycle (Fig 4E) and

207 were observed in both male and female mice (paired t-tests, $p < 0.005$ for both, Fig 4F).

208 Together, we conclude that mice take fewer food pellets when they are required to perform a
209 single nose-poke to obtain them, vs. when the same food pellets are freely available.

210

211 **Discussion**

212 We tested the hypothesis that unrestricted and easy access is necessary for high-fat diet
213 induced over-eating, and the corollary that requiring mice to perform small amounts of work to
214 obtain high-fat diet would reduce high-fat diet intake and associated weight gain. We found that
215 introducing a small behavioral requirement – one nose-poke – reduced how much mice
216 interacted with and consumed both high-fat diet and grain-based pellets, and prevented high-fat
217 diet induced weight gain. Critically, the nose-poke is an easy action for mice to complete and
218 there was no limit on how much high-fat diet the mice could earn each day in these
219 experiments. Still, the addition of this small barrier reduced over-eating and almost completely
220 prevented the development of obesity. Our results confirm that in addition to the high level of
221 dietary fat, unrestricted access is necessary for high-fat diet induced over-eating and weight
222 gain in mice. Our results may explain how increasingly easy access to low-cost unhealthy foods
223 has contributed to the obesity epidemic over recent decades (5,7,13), and may inform new
224 solutions for reducing obesity rates by making such foods slightly more difficult to access
225 (24,25).

226

227 **Nudging to combat obesity**

228 Strategies that reduce overall food intake are likely necessary to lower obesity rates (2–
229 4). One idea for how to reduce food intake builds on the “nudge” theory of behavior (26), which
230 posits that small changes in the environment that make specific foods less convenient to obtain
231 can reduce consumption of those foods (27). In 1968, Nisbett demonstrated this effect by
232 offering sandwiches to people of normal weight or people with obesity. The sandwiches were

233 either placed out on a table or in a refrigerator in the room (28). Despite being told they could
234 eat as many sandwiches as they liked, people with obesity ate 37% fewer sandwiches when
235 they were placed in the refrigerator than when those same sandwiches were left out on the
236 table. In this way, making food slightly harder to obtain was effective at reducing intake in
237 people with obesity. A recent meta-analysis determined that changing the position of foods
238 impacted people's food choices in 16 out of 18 studies analyzed, "nudging" participants towards
239 healthier options by changing their location or proximity to the participant (29). While it is clear
240 that "nudging" can alter food choices and consumption over short durations in laboratory tests, it
241 is less clear if this approach can be used over longer durations to alter body weight (27).

242 To address this challenge we turned to mice, as we can control their environment and
243 sustain changes in their environment over multiple weeks, which is challenging in humans. We
244 used both an existing pellet-dispensing device (FED3) to dispense grain-based pellets and
245 designed a novel device (the Tumble Feeder) to control access to high-fat diet, to test whether
246 requiring mice to perform an action (one nose-poke) would reduce food intake and weight gain.
247 Surprisingly, requiring mice to perform a single nose-poke greatly attenuated intake of both
248 grain-based pellets and high-fat diets, and reduced high-fat diet induced weight gain, relative to
249 when those same diets were freely available. In this way, our results demonstrate how a small
250 change in the environment can reduce food intake and slow the development of obesity in mice,
251 provided the change is sustained over multiple weeks.

252

253 **Out of sight, out of mind: the impact of cue-induced feeding on food intake**

254 A clue to the reduction in intake in our nose-poking task may be gleaned from the
255 temporal structure of their pellet taking. When we broke their daily feeding into "meals", we
256 found that mice initiated 29% fewer meals when we required them to nose-poke, compared to
257 when the food pellets were freely available. This was the largest change in their feeding
258 patterns and suggests that the direct access to the sight or smell of the food, induced mice to

259 initiate additional bouts of feeding. This may give insight into the neural mechanisms that
260 underlie why mice took less food in the FR1 vs the Free tasks in our experiments.

261 Several researchers have noted that cues that predict food are sufficient to make
262 animals seek food, even when sated, a phenomenon known as “cue induced feeding” (30,31).
263 Reppucci et al. trained rats to associate a tone with delivery of a food pellet, with control animals
264 receiving the same tones unpaired from food pellet delivery. The researchers then played those
265 tones to the rats in their home-cages for 5 minutes, before giving them the option to eat food
266 pellets or regular laboratory chow for 4 hours. The rats that had learned to associate the tone
267 with the food pellets ate ~63% more pellets in the consumption test than the control animals,
268 demonstrating that food-paired cues were sufficient to induce over-eating, at least on the time
269 scales recorded in this study. As with auditory cues, the sight or smell of food may serve as
270 additional sensory cues that induce animals to seek and take food in our studies. In this way,
271 keeping food out of sight and not allowing direct contact with the food until the mouse performed
272 a nose-poke may have reduced the salience of the sensory cues from the food and thereby
273 reduced food seeking and taking.

274 Hunger sensitive hypothalamic arcuate nucleus agouti-related peptide (AGRP) and pro-
275 opiomelanocortin (POMC) neurons are rapidly modulated by the sensory detection of food,
276 which may contribute to subsequent consumption (32). In free-feeding conditions, animals likely
277 investigate the food even when not hungry, simply because they have unrestricted access to it
278 and little else to do in their cages. This may impact the activity of AGRP and POMC neurons to
279 drive further feeding (33,34), in a way that does not happen in the FR1 task. Follow up studies
280 could test the involvement of specific brain circuits or cell types on the behavioral effects we
281 observed. For instance, a brain manipulation that normalized the difference in pellets taken in
282 the Free vs FR1 tasks could inform future brain-based approaches to reduce food intake in
283 food-rich environments.

284

285 **Does making high-fat diet harder to get reverse obesity?**

286 We also tested whether requiring a nose-poke to obtain high-fat diet would induce
287 weight loss in obese mice. The obese mice continued to obtain all their daily calories from high-
288 fat diet, but they had to nose-poke once to obtain access to the high-fat diet for one minute each
289 time they wanted to eat. While obese mice did not gain additional weight once the FR1
290 requirement was introduced, they remained at their elevated body weight and did not lose
291 weight. This highlights the challenges of weight loss, and how obese animals and people will
292 defend their elevated body weights through multiple mechanisms in response to environmental
293 challenges (35,36). Overall, our results suggest that making foods harder to obtain may help
294 prevent, but not reverse, obesity in modern food environments.

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308

309 **Declaration of Interests**

310 The authors declare no competing interests

311

312 **Methods**

313

314 **Mice and husbandry.** C57BL6 mice were individually housed for each experiment on a 12h
315 light/dark cycle. Food was provided as specified in the results and included 20mg grain-based
316 food pellets (Bio-Serv F0163), 20mg sucrose pellets (Bio-Serv F07595), laboratory chow, and
317 60% high-fat diet (Research Diets #D12492). Water was available *ad libitum* throughout the
318 experiments. All procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committees at
319 Washington University in St Louis, The Arctic University of Norway, Monash University, Rutgers
320 University, Temple University, the National Institute of Health, Williams College, Washington
321 State University and Swarthmore College.

322

323 **Behavioral testing: Tumble Feeder**

324 The Tumble feeder is an open-source hopper-based device that can be used in the home-cage
325 with mice to control their access to food over multiple weeks.

326

327 *3D design.* The 3D parts for FED3 were designed with TinkerCAD (Autodesk). Tumble Feeders
328 were printed in house with an FDM printer in PLA (Bambu X1 Carbon). We provide editable
329 design files here: <https://www.tinkercad.com/things/1lhflT78Xpz-tumble-feeder-sept2024>.

330

331 *Electronics.* The Tumble Feeder has two capacitive touch-sensitive nose-poke triggers for the
332 mouse to interact with, a servo-controlled hopper (Analog Feedback Micro Servo with metal
333 gear, Adafruit #1450), touch sensitive bars (UXCELL M2x65mm Stainless Steel Pushrod
334 Connectors) to detect food hopper interactions via capacitive touch sensing, and uses a
335 microcontroller with micro secure-digital (microSD) card slot for controlling tasks, and a Sharp
336 Memory Display (Adafruit #3502), and a DS3231 Precision real-time clock (RTC, Adafruit
337 #3028) for displaying and logging data. The Adalogger M0 contains an ATSAMD21G18 ARM M0

338 processor that runs at 48 MHz, 256 kB of FLASH memory, 32 kB of RAM memory and up to 20
339 digital inputs/output pins for controlling other hardware. The microcontroller also contains a
340 battery charging circuit for charging the internal 2200mAh LiPo battery in FED3, which
341 provides ~1 month of run-time between charges. The exact battery life depends on the
342 behavioral program and how often the mouse triggers the Tumble Feeder to open as the Servo
343 motor is the main consumer of power. Electronics were programmed in the Arduino IDE and the
344 code is available at <https://github.com/KravitzLabDevices/CastleFeeder/>.

345

346 *Behavioral tasks.* The Tumble Feeder is battery-powered and was placed in the home-cage so
347 mice were able to interact with it around-the-clock for multiple days. The Tumble Feeder was
348 filled with either laboratory chow or high-fat diet, as described in the results, and saved touch
349 times and hopper interaction times on a microSD card for later analysis. The Tumble Feeder
350 was programmed to deliver food based on the task requirements described below:

351

352 *Free-feeding (Free):* In Free-feeding mode in the tumblers were open to allow ad libitum access
353 to food. The touch-sensitive nose-poke triggers had no programmed consequences, and time
354 stamps of touching the metal bars on the hopper were logged to the internal microSD card for
355 later analysis. Every fifteen minutes (96 times per day), the hopper would close and re-open, to
356 control for the noise and movements that occurred in the FR1 session.

357

358 *Fixed-ratio 1 (FR1):* In FR1 mode, the hopper was normally closed and required the mouse to
359 contact the left touch sensor to open it. If the mouse contacted the Left touch sensor the hopper
360 would open for 60s. There were no limits to the number of times the mouse could open the
361 hopper each day, and there were no time-out periods following each time it closed. Time stamps
362 of nose-poke contacts and touching the metal bars on the hopper were logged to the internal
363 microSD card for later analysis.

364 **Behavioral testing: FED3**

365 The FED3 electronics and hardware have previously been described (Matikainen-Ankney
366 2021). FED3 is a small battery-powered pellet dispensing device, which was placed in the
367 home-cage so mice were able to interact with it around-the-clock for multiple days. FED3 saves
368 all data on a microSD card for later analysis. There was no limit to the number of pellets the
369 mouse could earn from FED3, which provided 20mg food pellets to mice based on tasks
370 described below. In all tasks, we defined meals as pellets eaten within 2 min of each other,
371 based on inter-pellet interval histograms. In addition, we defined a minimum size of 0.06 g
372 (three pellets) to be counted as a meal.

373

374 *Free-feeding (Free)*: In the Free task, FED3 started up with a pellet in its pellet receptacle, and it
375 replaced this with a new pellet 5s after the mouse removed it. FED3 logged the times of all
376 pellet retrieval events for later analysis.

377

378 *Fixed-ratio 1 (FR1)*: In FR1 mode, the mouse had to break the left beam-break trigger with its
379 nose (ie: a nose-poke) to cause FED3 to dispense a pellet. After the mouse removed the pellet,
380 it had to nose-poke again to dispense another pellet. There was no time-out period following
381 each pellet delivery, and mice could poke and earn an unlimited number of pellets. However,
382 the nose poke became inactive whenever there was a pellet in the feeding well to prevent
383 buildup of pellets. FED3 logged the times of all nose-poke and pellet retrieval events for later
384 analysis.

385

386 **Data analysis and statistics**

387 CSV files generated by Tumble Feeder and FED3 were processed with custom python scripts
388 (Python, version 3.6.7, Python Software Foundation, Wilmington, DE). Data wrangling and
389 plotting used Pandas (37), Matplotlib (38), Pingouin (39), and Seaborn (40) packages. One- or

390 two-way ANOVAs with post-hoc t-tests or paired or unpaired t-tests were used to compare
391 groups as appropriate. p-values < 0.05 were considered significant. Data sets are presented as
392 mean \pm SEM. Numbers of animals per experiment is listed as n=number of animals. ChatGPT
393 4o was used for assistance with coding, but the Authors take full responsibility for all analysis
394 code. All data and analysis and visualization code are available on Github
395 (<https://github.com/KravitzLab/Barrett2024>).

396

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