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► To cite this version:

Thomas H. Lee, Daniela Cota, Carmelo Quarta. Yin-Yang control of energy balance by lipids in the hypothalamus: The endocannabinoids vs bile acids case. *Biochimie*, In press, 10.1016/j.biochi.2022.07.006 . hal-03975295

HAL Id: hal-03975295

<https://hal.science/hal-03975295>

Submitted on 15 Mar 2023

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**Yin-Yang control of energy balance by lipids in the hypothalamus:
the endocannabinoids vs bile acids case**

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Highlights

- Endocannabinoids and bile acids act as Yin-Yang regulators of the body energy needs
- Master lipid sensors in the brain could integrate the actions of multiple lipid signals
- Obesity might originate from dysregulation of master lipid sensors in the brain

30 **Abstract**

31 Obesity is a chronic and debilitating disorder that originates from alterations in energy-
32 sensing brain circuits controlling body weight gain and food intake. The dysregulated syntheses
33 and actions of lipid mediators in the hypothalamus induce weight gain and overfeeding, but the
34 molecular and cellular underpinnings of these alterations remain elusive.

35 In response to changes in the nutritional status, different lipid sensing pathways in the
36 hypothalamus direct body energy needs in a Yin-Yang model. Endocannabinoids orchestrate the
37 crosstalk between hypothalamic circuits and the sympathetic nervous system to promote food
38 intake and energy accumulation during fasting, whereas bile acids act on the same top-down axis
39 to reduce energy intake and possibly storage after the meal. In obesity, the bioavailability and
40 downstream cellular actions of endocannabinoids and bile acids are altered in hypothalamic
41 neurons involved in body weight and metabolic control. Thus, the onset and progression of this
42 disease might result from an imbalance in hypothalamic sensing of multiple lipid signals, which
43 are possibly integrated by common molecular nodes.

44 In this viewpoint, we discuss **a possible model that explains how bile acids and**
45 **endocannabinoids may exert their effects on energy balance regulation via interconnected**
46 **mechanisms at the level of the hypothalamic neuronal circuits.** Therefore, we propose a new
47 conceptual framework for understanding and treating central mechanisms of maladaptive lipid
48 action in obesity.

49
50 **Keywords**

51 Obesity, endocannabinoids, bile acids, hypothalamus, lipid metabolism

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62 **Abbreviations**

63 Central nervous system, CNS; arcuate nucleus, ARC; neuropeptide Y, NPY; agouti-related
64 peptide, AgRP; amphetamine-regulated transcript, CART; proopiomelanocortin, POMC, blood-
65 brain barrier, BBB; lipoprotein lipase, LPL; hormone-sensitive lipase, HSL; high-fat diet, HFD;
66 mediobasal hypothalamus, MBH; sympathetic nervous system, SNS; Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol,
67 THC; cannabinoid type 1 receptors, CB1; brown adipose tissue, BAT; 2-arachidonoylglycerol, 2-
68 AG; single-minded 1, SIM1; steroidogenic factor 1, SF1; $2\alpha/\beta$ -hydrolase domain containing 6,
69 ABHD6; ventromedial hypothalamic nucleus, VMH; 2-arachidonoylglycerol, 2-AG; nucleus
70 tractus solitarius, NTS, arachidonylethanolamine, AEA; body mass index, BMI; farnesoid X
71 receptor, FXR; G-protein coupled receptor G-protein bile acid-activated receptor, GPBAR-
72 1/TGR5; glucagon-like peptide-1, GLP-1; cholic acid, CA; chenodeoxycholic acid, CDCA; diet-
73 induced obese, DIO; tyrosine hydroxylase, TH; oleoylethanolamide, OEA; *N*-
74 acylphosphatidylethanolamine-selective phospholipase D, NAPE-PLD; *N*-acylethanolamines,
75 NAEs; small extracellular vesicles, sEV.

76

77 **1) Introduction**

78 Over million years of evolution in an environment characterised by cataclysms and often
79 scarce energy sources, the mammalian brain has developed adaptive mechanisms that promote
80 survival by manoeuvring the body energy state. Multiple studies have shed light on the
81 neurobiology of these mechanisms, and this advancement provides a more precise framework for
82 understanding and treating pathological conditions linked to altered energy balance regulation,
83 such as obesity. Accordingly, we now know that obesity is primarily a brain disease since most of
84 the genetic mutations underlying disease progression map in the central nervous system (CNS).
85 These mutations affect molecular factors responsible for synaptic transmission and neuronal
86 responses to hormones and energy substrates (1).

87 The outstanding ability of CNS neurons to monitor and maintain energy balance relies on
88 its dynamic crosstalk with the peripheral organs. In the hypothalamic arcuate nucleus (ARC), the
89 heterogeneous populations of neurons relay the peripheral signals by producing neurotransmitters

90 and neuropeptides that regulate feeding and metabolism (2-4). When energy reserves decline
91 during fasting, neuropeptide Y (NPY) and agouti-related peptide (AgRP) co-expressing neurons
92 are activated to promote food consumption and energy accumulation in peripheral organs (5).
93 Conversely, when energy becomes available after dietary intake, neurons that co-express
94 amphetamine-regulated transcript (CART) and proopiomelanocortin (POMC) are recruited to
95 antagonise the actions of NPY/AgRP neurons to reduce food intake and stimulate whole-body
96 energy expenditure (6). AgRP and POMC neurons compose a unique neural circuit known as the
97 melanocortin system (6), which is modulated by the neighbouring non-neuronal cells, including
98 microglia, astrocytes, tanycytes, and endothelial cells (7). Non-neuronal cells regulate the
99 melanocortin system by two mechanisms, the secretion of signalling molecules that influence
100 synaptic plasticity directly and the modulation of blood-brain barrier (BBB) permeability (7),
101 which subsequently impacts the transport of metabolic messengers from the bloodstream to the
102 brain. **As thoroughly reviewed, hypothalamic neuronal circuits integrate these peripheral
103 metabolic signals into output autonomic responses that influence feeding behaviour and
104 maintain the metabolic processes necessary for survival (8, 9).**

105 The intercellular signalling between hypothalamic cells is tightly controlled by lipid-
106 derived messengers, either produced from cellular precursors in the brain or transported from the
107 bloodstream. Free fatty acids, for instance, can cross the BBB (10-13). These lipids can also
108 reach the hypothalamus as triglyceride-rich lipoproteins, which are then hydrolysed by enzymes,
109 such as the lipoprotein lipase (LPL) in neurons and glia (14, 15). Genetic ablation of LPL in glial
110 cells induces exaggerated body weight gain and glucose intolerance in mice exposed to a high-fat
111 diet (HFD), possibly impacting the function of hypothalamic neuronal circuits (15, 16). Likewise,
112 non-selective deletion of LPL in the mediobasal hypothalamus (MBH) by viral transfection
113 induces weight gain and glucose intolerance in mice fed with a chow diet (17). **Additionally,
114 hormone-sensitive lipase (HSL), which regulates intracellular lipolysis, is expressed in
115 appetite-regulating hypothalamic neurons, and its activity in the MBH suppresses stress-
116 induced food intake and HFD-induced obesity (18).**

117 Hence, the action of lipids in the hypothalamus is critical for body weight control and the
118 maintenance of energy homeostasis, although the resulting neurophysiological adaptations can be
119 either beneficial or detrimental to metabolic health. The chemical configuration of the lipid
120 species, for instance, the double bonds in the fatty acids, can affect the metabolic outcome.

121 Accordingly, intracerebroventricular administration of the saturated palmitic acid enhances
122 hepatic gluconeogenesis in mice, possibly due to central leptin resistance and inflammatory
123 responses in the hypothalamus (19), whereas central administration of unsaturated oleic acid
124 modulates the excitability of hypothalamic POMC neurons (20) and elicits beneficial metabolic
125 responses, including inhibition of hepatic glucose production and food intake (21, 22).

126 Of note, certain lipid species, such as endocannabinoids (ECs), can act as retrograde
127 neuromodulators regulating neural plasticity in the CNS, including the hypothalamus. ECs are
128 endogenous ligands of cannabinoid receptors that favour food intake and energy accumulation
129 when energy is scarce, for instance, during fasting (23). **These lipid mediators inform the body
130 about low energy availability by acting on the hypothalamus-sympathetic nervous system
131 (SNS) axis (23). In contrast, other periphery-derived lipids, such as bile acids (BAs), can
132 convey information about energy accumulation in the body through the same top-down axis
133 (24, 25). After being produced by the liver and released in the gastrointestinal tract
134 following dietary intake, BAs are reabsorbed into the circulation and act on the
135 hypothalamus to enhance SNS activity, promote energy dissipation, and inhibit appetite,
136 thus eliciting opposite physiological effects to ECs (24, 25). Intriguingly, the bioavailability
137 and downstream signalling cascades of both ECs and BAs are altered in the hypothalamus
138 in obesity. These multiple lipid-mediated cascades might therefore converge to common
139 molecular nodes that act as ‘super lipid sensors’ in regulating metabolism, while the onset
140 and progression of metabolic diseases might result from the unbalanced regulations by
141 these cascades.**

142 Here we will discuss the recent evidence on the roles of ECs and BAs in fine-tuning the
143 hypothalamic circuits regulating energy balance. Moreover, we will interrogate the potential
144 interconnection of BAs- and ECs-mediated signalling pathways along the hypothalamus-
145 periphery axes implicated in body weight control. Finally, we will highlight how these
146 investigations have led us to propose a novel framework for understanding and possibly treating
147 maladaptive changes in hypothalamic lipid action in obesity.

148

149 *2) Hypothalamic sensing of endocannabinoids: from physiology to obesity development*

150 For centuries, marijuana (*Cannabis sativa*) has been known to stimulate food intake,
151 particularly for sweet and palatable food. However, the discovery of the biological mechanisms

152 underlying ‘the munchies’ started only in the 60s with the identification of Δ^9 -
153 tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), the main psychoactive component of *Cannabis sativa* (26). Almost
154 30 years later, specific cannabinoid receptors were identified as the downstream targets of THC
155 (27, 28), which was followed by the characterisation of their endogenous lipid-derived ligands,
156 ECs (29, 30) and the enzymatic machinery necessary for ECs syntheses and degradations (31).
157 We now know that these molecular components form the endocannabinoid system, which mainly
158 operates to maximise the introduction, accumulation, and storage of energy substrates in the body
159 (32). These effects are achieved by tissue-specific changes in ECs syntheses and the subsequent
160 activation of cannabinoid type 1 receptors (CB1) expressed in the brain and peripheral organs
161 (23, 32, 33). **From a biochemical standpoint, certain ECs, such as anandamide (AEA) and 2-**
162 **arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) are derived from the precursor arachidonic acid (AA) (33).**
163 **Others, such as *N*-eicosapentaenoylethanolamide and *N*-docosahexaenoyl-ethanolamide, are**
164 **synthesized from the n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA)**
165 **and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), respectively (33). PUFAs, including linoleic acid and**
166 **linolenic acid, are essential fatty acids that must be obtained from the diet, and the amount**
167 **and the types of PUFA from dietary intake can influence ECs biosyntheses. Hence, amongst**
168 **the several factors influencing ECs production, the availability of lipid precursors directly**
169 **obtained through the diet plays a crucial role.**

170 **ECs are produced from several sources in the body, for example, the brain and**
171 **peripheral tissues; their production is dependent on the global energy state of the organism.**
172 When body energy level drops during fasting, brain ECs levels are increased to achieve energy
173 homeostasis by restoring the internal energy loss (23). ECs-mediated control of **neuronal**
174 functions contributes to this adaptive response. In 2010, our group characterised a transgenic
175 mouse model bearing selective CB1 deletion in the principal forebrain (including the
176 hypothalamus) and sympathetic neurons (CB1-KO mice) and observed that these mutants are
177 resistant to obesity with higher energy expenditure and enhanced brown adipose tissue (BAT)
178 thermogenesis (35). Since the SNS controls adaptive thermogenesis and BAT function (36), we
179 asked whether neuronal ECs actions modulate these peripheral metabolic outputs. Using
180 chemical and surgical SNS denervation procedures, we have observed that the increased
181 functional activity in the BAT of CB1-KO mice results from an upregulated SNS tone (35).
182 Likewise, Piomelli and his team have studied the phenotype of a transgenic murine model

183 overexpressing the presynaptic hydrolase monoacylglycerol lipase (MGL), an enzyme that
184 degrades 2-AG, in forebrain neurons. In this model, reduced 2-AG levels in the forebrain results
185 in phenotypic changes that resemble those observed in the CB1-KO mice, including leanness,
186 elevated energy cost of activity, resistance to diet-induced obesity, and increased expression of
187 the thermogenic protein uncoupling protein 1 in the BAT (37). These two studies have set up a
188 well-accepted model whereby ECs operate in a CB1-dependent manner in the brain to modulate
189 whole-body energy homeostasis and thermogenesis via peripheral sympathetic
190 neurotransmission.

191 Subsequent studies have then uncovered the role of the hypothalamic circuits in mediating
192 this top-down axis. Mice presenting specific genetic deletion of CB1 in different populations of
193 hypothalamic neurons, including single-minded 1 (SIM1)- or steroidogenic factor 1 (SF1)-
194 expressing neurons, display increased energy expenditure and a modified sensitivity of the
195 peripheral SNS to circulating hormones, such as leptin and dietary cues (38, 39). Besides, genetic
196 deletion of the ECs-degrading enzyme 2 α / β -hydrolase domain containing 6 (ABHD6) in the
197 ventromedial hypothalamic nucleus (VMH), which promotes hypothalamic production of 2-AG,
198 has been shown to provoke opposite metabolic effects compared with the prior CB1-KO model,
199 including impairments in adaptive thermogenesis in response to cold exposure or high-fat feeding
200 (40).

201 Peripheral organs, such as the adipose tissue, also express enzymes and receptors
202 necessary for ECs syntheses and actions (34). To explore whether CB1 influences behavioural
203 and metabolic responses in the adipose tissue, we have characterised a transgenic mouse model
204 with adipose-tissue-specific CB1 deletion. Notably, we observed adaptive changes in peripheral
205 SNS neurotransmission and protection from diet-induced obesity (41). Moreover, we have
206 documented that the hypophagic action of the CB1 antagonist rimonabant inhibits feeding by
207 activating visceral afferents and glutamatergic transmission in the brain stem nucleus tractus
208 solitarius (NTS) in a periphery-to-brain manner (42).

209 Altogether, these studies emphasise the existence of bidirectional brain-periphery
210 signalling mechanisms, whereby ECs can act centrally and peripherally to modulate food intake
211 **and energy use through the SNS. An additional peripheral route through the vagus nerve is**
212 **possibly involved in mediating brain-periphery crosstalk (43, 44). Hence, how can we**

213 **translate these empirical findings to delineate the neural basis of the onset and progression**
214 **of obesity? One should mention that brain ECs levels, particularly in the hypothalamus,**
215 **vary in response to diet-induced metabolic stress. ECs act as a signal that alerts the brain**
216 **when energy reserves are low and need to be restored under physiological conditions.**
217 **Paradoxically, their levels in the brain and peripheral organs remain elevated in obesity**
218 **(23, 45), a condition of excess energy. Several studies have reported that plasma ECs are**
219 **found at supraphysiological levels in obese individuals and positively correlate with body**
220 **mass index (BMI) and several biomarkers of disease severity (23, 45). Dysregulated ECs**
221 **syntheses and degradation by the enzymatic machinery may be responsible for impaired**
222 **energy balance regulation and disease development. Accordingly, ECs syntheses are**
223 **increased in association with reduced degradation in a tissue-dependent manner in obesity**
224 **(46, 47), particularly in the adipose tissues (34). Besides, missense polymorphisms involving**
225 **the fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH), a key enzyme controlling AEA degradation, are**
226 **associated with a high BMI in humans. Interestingly, the elevated circulating levels of the**
227 **ECs 2-AG and AEA in obese subjects after the exposure to rewarding food (23, 45) may**
228 **augment their motivation to ingest the palatable food, which further exacerbates obesity.**

229 Another example of how ECs are involved in the bidirectional brain-periphery crosstalk
230 comes from a study investigating ECs levels during short-term exposure to HFD. Based on this
231 study, the hypothalamic 2-AG and AEA levels are transiently elevated 7 days after HFD feeding
232 in mice, followed by a subsequent decline, with levels lower than those in chow-fed mice (48).
233 The initial transient elevation of the hypothalamic ECs levels is concomitant with the activation
234 peak of BAT thermogenesis due to the caloric overload (48). To reconcile the initial ECs surge in
235 the hypothalamus, the authors acutely administered CL316,243, a β 3-adrenoceptor agonist that
236 stimulates BAT thermogenesis mainly via its peripheral action (49). This treatment increased
237 hypothalamic ECs levels substantially (48-50). These data not only reveal the existence of a
238 feedback loop linking peripheral changes in BAT function to central hypothalamic ECs levels,
239 but also suggest that the elevated hypothalamic ECs levels in obesity may represent a
240 maladaptive counterregulatory mechanism that prevents excessive energy loss from the body in
241 response to increased BAT thermogenesis.

242 Given that ECs signalling in the hypothalamus results in overfeeding and impaired SNS-
243 mediated energy dissipation, this maladaptive adipose tissue-ECs crosstalk accelerates weight
244 gain after prolonged exposure to an energy-rich diet. However, why are the levels of
245 hypothalamic ECs reduced after several weeks of HFD feeding when diet-induced obesity is
246 established (48)? This could be explained by the existence of protective mechanisms that aim at
247 hindering the upregulated peripheral EC tone (50) and, therefore, disease progression, albeit
248 without success, since the animal continues to gain weight.

249 In conclusion, the dysregulated hypothalamic ECs action may cause, or be caused by, the
250 maladaptive brain-periphery crosstalk mediated by the SNS and likely the vagus nerve in obesity.
251 These signalling pathways dynamically contribute to the establishment and the progression of
252 weight gain and its associated metabolic perturbations.

253

254 ***3) Bile acids: A novel hypothalamic brake on energy excess***

255 BAs are liver-derived products of cholesterol metabolism that exert a series of metabolic
256 functions via mainly (but not only) their signalling through the nuclear transcription factor
257 farnesoid X receptor (FXR) and the seven-transmembrane G-protein coupled receptor G-protein
258 bile acid-activated receptor (GPBAR)-1, also known as TGR5 (51).

259 A rapid elevation of hepatic BAs syntheses is observed during the transition from fasting
260 to the fed state, which aids the absorption of ingested lipids in the gastrointestinal system (for a
261 specific review on this subject, see (52)). Besides, BAs act as endocrine signals in the liver, the
262 intestine, and the pancreas to modulate multiple metabolic outputs, including lipid and glucose
263 metabolism (53), hepatic gluconeogenesis (53, 54), insulin and glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1)
264 release (53, 55), as well as mitochondrial respiration and thermogenesis in white and brown
265 adipocytes (56-58).

266 Dietary supplementation of specific BAs, such as cholic acid (CA) and chenodeoxycholic
267 acid (CDCA), prevents body weight gain and promotes weight loss significantly in diet-induced
268 obese (DIO) mice through TGR5-mediated signalling (56, 59). These metabolic benefits are
269 likely the result of increased thermogenesis and energy expenditure (56, 59). Indeed, circulating
270 BAs levels correlate with energy expenditure in healthy human subjects (60) and with changes in
271 energy substrate metabolism in obese subjects subjected to Roux-en-Y gastric bypass surgery

272 (61). Hence, beyond their actions on nutrient absorption and glucose homeostasis, the observed
273 systemic elevation of BAs after dietary intake may signify positive energy balance and prompt
274 adaptive responses towards energy dissipation to restore energy homeostasis.

275 But can the brain be a possible target of BAs action? BAs are detected in several brain
276 areas, including the hypothalamus (25, 62). Under cholestasis, when the bile constituents are
277 accumulated in the blood due to the obstruction of bile ducts or excretory failure of hepatocytes,
278 the hypothalamic BAs level is augmented, promoting the synthesis of the hypothalamic hormone
279 vasopressin to protect the liver from BAs-induced hepatotoxicity (63). Indirectly, BAs can
280 stimulate FGF15 release from the intestine, which enters the brain and activates FGF receptors in
281 the hypothalamic AGRP/NPY neurons (64). The BAs-mediated gut-brain axis leads to
282 improvements in glucose tolerance that are likely mediated by changes in the peripheral
283 autonomic nervous system (64).

284 Our group has also observed that the hypothalamic BAs levels in mice change according
285 to the nutritional state based on a fasting-refeeding paradigm experiment (25). We have inquired
286 whether activating TGR5 in the brain affects food intake and body weight in C57BL6 mice fed
287 with a regular chow diet. After acute infusion of a BAs mix into the brain, we have observed a
288 significant reduction in food intake and the syntheses of the orexigenic peptides AgRP and NPY
289 from the hypothalamus (25). To investigate whether hypothalamic TGR5 signalling mediates
290 long-term effects on body weight control, we have chronically infused a TGR5-specific, semi-
291 synthetic BAs analogue into the cerebral ventricles. Coherently, food intake is transiently
292 reduced, but the prolonged activation of central BAs signalling does not lead to changes in food
293 intake or body weight (25). Hence, BA-TGR5 signalling in the hypothalamus coordinates satiety
294 during the fasting-refeeding transition but is not involved in long-term body weight maintenance
295 under physiological conditions.

296 As previously discussed, lipid-mediated homeostatic responses in the hypothalamus can
297 be compromised in obesity. In an additional study, we have explored whether the brain BA-
298 TGR5 axis might have a more dominant role in regulating energy balance in obesity. Using
299 pharmacological and genetic approaches, we have observed that activating brain TGR5 signalling
300 counteracts diet-induced obesity (DIO) progression in mice by reducing food intake and
301 increasing energy expenditure through increased SNS activity. On the other hand, genetic down-
302 regulation of hypothalamic TGR5 actions accelerates obesity development and progression (24).

303 Thus, the role of the hypothalamic BA-TGR5 pathway in the top-down control of body weight
304 seems more prominent in obesity. This also implies that hypothalamic BAs sensing may be
305 impaired in obesity, which is supported by the observation that levels of BAs species acting as
306 TGR5 agonists in the hypothalamus are reduced in DIO mice (24).

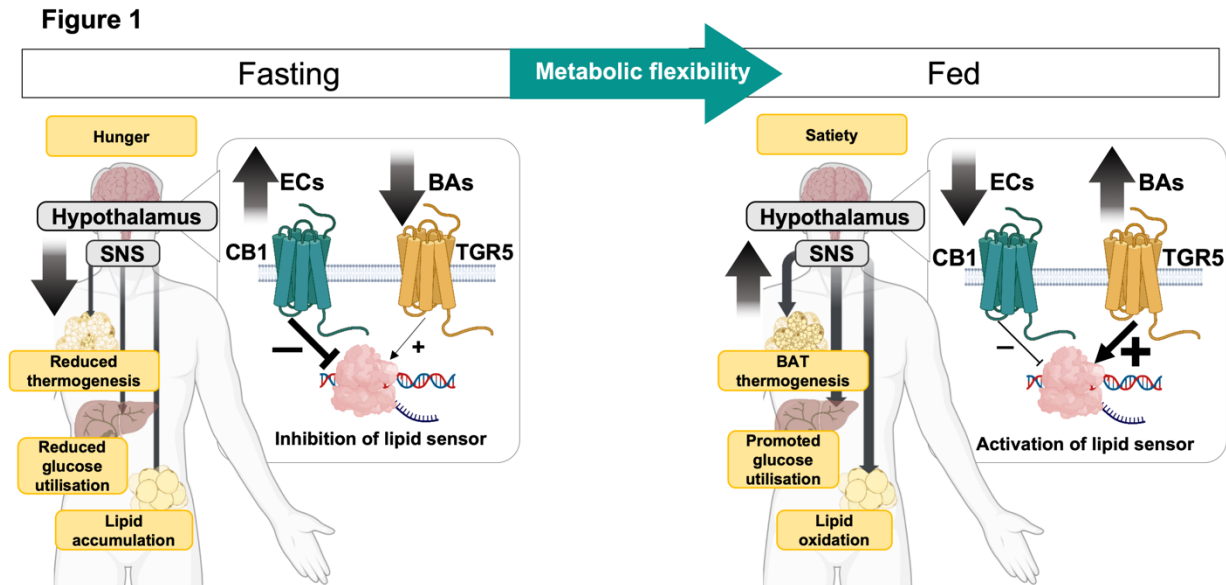
307 Due to their heterogeneous structure and target specificity, BAs may confer different
308 metabolic effects through different downstream receptors. Brain infusion of the FXR agonist
309 GW4064 reduces the expression of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH), the rate-limiting enzyme in
310 catecholamine synthesis, and subsequently, the sympathetic tone (65). The reduction in the
311 sympathetic tone might involve changes in hypothalamic neuronal activity, given that
312 hypothalamic TH expression is reduced following brain GW4064 infusion (65). Conversely, in
313 agreement with our observations (24), brain infusion of tauro-lithocholic acid, a TGR5 agonist,
314 promotes lipid metabolism and enhances the SNS tone (66). Hence, the membrane receptor
315 TGR5 and the nuclear receptor FXR might have opposing functions on energy balance regulation
316 in the hypothalamus in response to changes in BAs species.

317 In summary, the hypothalamic BA-TGR5 pathway affects a top-down neurophysiological
318 mechanism that leads to satiety and enhanced energy dissipation by changing peripheral SNS
319 activity. This pathway may operate via the same hypothalamic circuits sensitive to ECs action,
320 but with an opposite physiological goal: to counteract pathological conditions of energy excess,
321 such as obesity.

322

323 *4) Concluding remarks and perspectives*

324 Under physiological conditions, the levels of BAs and ECs are regulated in an
325 opposite manner in the hypothalamus in response to the nutritional state. The Yin-Yang
326 regulation allows plastic changes in peripheral SNS neurotransmission and may affect
327 metabolic flexibility between the fast-and-fed transition (Figure 1). ECs and BAs-mediated
328 actions in the hypothalamus may act on common intracellular lipid sensors that integrate
329 neuronal CB1 and TGR5 signalling to regulate food intake and the autonomic nervous
330 system (Figure 1). The identities of these molecular underpinnings and the neuronal circuits
331 involved are far from being elucidated. However, addressing this knowledge gap may
332 provide progress towards understanding the aetiology of metabolic disorders, such as
333 obesity.



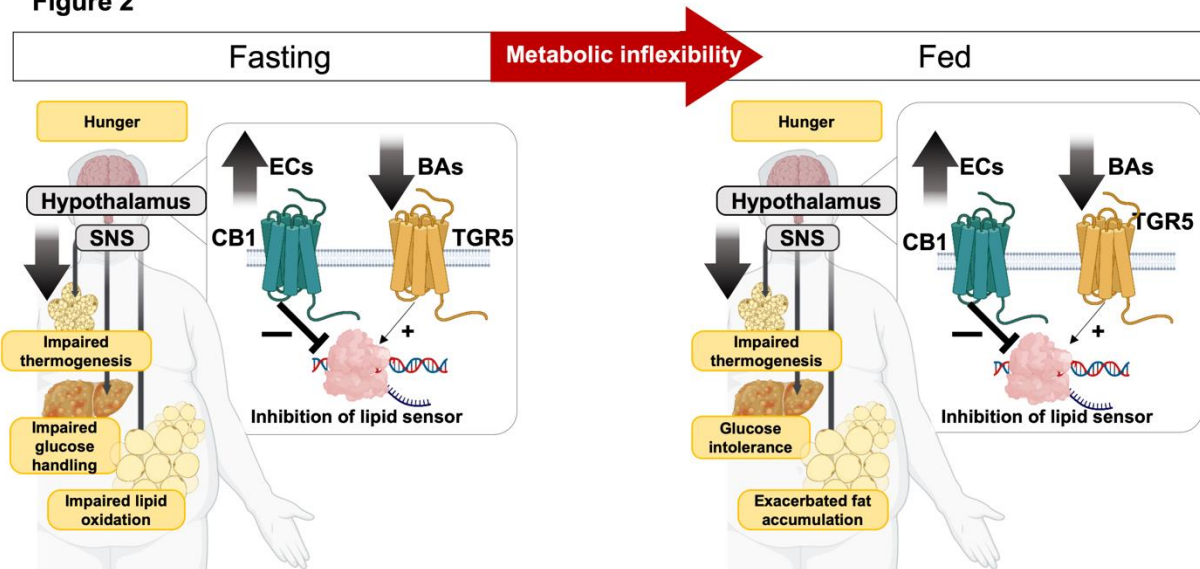
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336 **Figure 1. Graphical representation of a possible yin-yang mechanism of energy balance**
 337 **regulation by CB1 and TGR5 in the hypothalamus under physiological conditions.**
 338 ***Endocannabinoids (ECs) and bile acids (BAs) might regulate whole-body metabolic flexibility***
 339 ***in the hypothalamus through CB1 and TGR5 receptors, respectively. During fasting (left), the***
 340 ***hypothalamic levels of ECs are increased, whereas BAs signalling is suppressed. This***
 341 ***imbalance results in hunger and possibly in modification of the sympathetic nervous system***
 342 ***(SNS) tone to impede energy storage. An opposite situation is observed after a meal (right), as***
 343 ***hypothalamic ECs levels are reduced, whereas central BAs signalling is stimulated. This leads***
 344 ***to satiety and dissipation of excess energy by thermogenesis via upregulated SNS activity. The***
 345 ***'super lipid sensor' might integrate the inhibitory CB1 signalling and the activatory TGR5***
 346 ***signalling in the hypothalamus to facilitate energy balance regulation and metabolic flexibility.***

347

348 **Obesity is a disease characterized by the maladaptive upregulation of the ECs tone and the**
 349 **concomitant downregulation of central BAs actions. Of note, the hypothalamic expression**
 350 **of BAs transporters exhibits plastic changes during the transition from fasting to refeeding**
 351 **in control lean mice but not in DIO mice (24). Thus, dysregulated hypothalamic BAs and**
 352 **ECs availability and sensing in the brain might contribute to obesity development, possibly**
 353 **causing impaired hypothalamus-SNS communication and metabolic inflexibility (Figure 2).**

Figure 2



355

356 ***Figure 2. Graphical representation of a possible mechanism underlying maladaptive***
 357 ***hypothalamic CB1 and TGR5 signalling in obese pathophysiology. In obesity, ECs levels in***
 358 ***the hypothalamus are increased, while BAs levels are reduced in both the fasted and the fed***
 359 ***state. As a result, the peripheral SNS does not cope with changes in energy availability during***
 360 ***the transition from fasting to the fed state. The transition might lead to a constant feeling of***
 361 ***hunger and a maladaptive drive towards excessive energy accumulation. An intracellular lipid***
 362 ***sensor might mediate alterations in this top-down axis in hypothalamic neurons. The 'super***
 363 ***lipid sensor' might be controlled in an opposite manner by ECs and BAs-mediated signalling***
 364 ***via CB1 and TGR5, respectively.***

365

366 **Based on these proposed models, we envision that ECs and BAs-mediated actions on**
 367 **energy balance may be interconnected. Accordingly, peripheral administration of 2-AG**
 368 **promotes hepatic BAs syntheses (67), suggesting that the increased levels of certain ECs**
 369 **during a negative energy state during fasting may elicit BAs syntheses, perhaps to prepare**
 370 **the body for BAs release during the upcoming meal. On the other hand, BAs availability**
 371 **may influence ECs production in response to changes in the body energy needs. This latter**
 372 **hypothesis is supported by the observation that certain BAs, such as deoxycholic acid, can**
 373 **target specific binding sites of *N*-acylphosphatidylethanolamine-selective phospholipase D**

374 (NAPE-PLD) (68), the enzyme required for the syntheses of ECs-like lipid species known as
375 *N*-acylethanolamines (NAEs) (69).

376 **If confirmed, these peripheral mechanisms of communication between BAs and ECs**
377 **may impact the hypothalamic circuits via different routes. First, BAs (63) and ECs (70) can**
378 **cross the blood-brain barrier. Also, CB1- and TGR5-expressing hypothalamic neurons in**
379 **the ARC are ideally positioned in close contact with the fenestrated capillaries to sense**
380 **systemic changes in ECs and BAs levels. Thus, hypothalamic neurons may be capable of**
381 **responding to changes in the peripheral bioavailability of these lipid mediators.**
382 **Additionally, although several peripheral organs are potential sources of ECs release in the**
383 **bloodstream (71), the enzymatic machinery necessary for ECs syntheses and degradations**
384 **is also expressed in the brain (31, 72). Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that the ECs**
385 **syntheses in the hypothalamic neurons may be adjusted in response to changes in BAs levels**
386 **and actions. Given that ECs are modulators of synaptic plasticity (31), modulating ECs**
387 **productions may fine-tune synaptic functions to orchestrate whole body changes in energy**
388 **needs.**

389 **It is noteworthy that EC-like species can be highly heterogeneous in their molecular**
390 **functions and physiological effects. Oleoylethanolamide (OEA), for instance, is a shorter**
391 **monounsaturated analogue of the endocannabinoid AEA. Unlike AEA, OEA acts**
392 **independently of the CB1 signalling pathway and can suppress appetite (33), possibly via**
393 **regulation of the nuclear peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-alpha receptor**
394 **(PPAR α) and the G protein-coupled receptor GPR119 (33, 73). OEA can also modulate BAs**
395 **syntheses, conjugation, and transport via PPAR α -mediated activation (74). Moreover, the**
396 **OEA receptor GPR119 mediates some of the effects of BAs on gastric emptying and**
397 **satiation (74). Thus, the complexity may go beyond our proposed conceptual framework**
398 **(Figure 1) because certain canonical ECs-like molecules may operate via CB1-dependent**
399 **signalling in an opposite manner to BAs. In contrast, others, such as OEA, may resemble**
400 **BAs-elicited physiological responses, such as satiety, through modulation of common**
401 **hypothalamic downstream receptors.**

402 **Overall, this evidence suggests the existence of intracellular ‘super lipid sensors’ that**
403 **integrate the extracellular actions of multiple lipid species in the hypothalamus. Uncovering**
404 **the identity of these master regulators of neuronal lipid action might have therapeutic**

405 implications, for instance, the development of novel anti-obesity pharmacological paradigms that
406 target specific molecular pathways in specific neuronal populations. Several advancements have
407 recently been made in this direction. For instance, small extracellular vesicles (sEVs) have been
408 used to shuttle a pharmacological inhibitor of the energy sensor AMPK in hypothalamic SF1-
409 expressing neurons in the obese murine models (75), and this approach lowers the body weight of
410 obese mice by sympathetic activation of BAT function (75).

411 In the past few years, we have contributed to the generation and functional validation of
412 novel unimolecular conjugates that combine GLP-1 analogues with synthetic activators of
413 metabolic transcription factors, such as the glucocorticoid receptor or PPARs (76, 77). The GLP-
414 1 moiety of these conjugates is designed to internalise the nuclear ligand in GLP-1R-expressing
415 cells to target organs such as the hypothalamus, where GLP-1R expression is abundant. However,
416 organs with negligible or low GLP-1R expression are spared from these conjugates, which can
417 overcome the potentially toxic and off-target effects of glucocorticoids or PPARs (76, 77).
418 Chronic treatments of obese mice with a conjugate that co-activates PPAR α and PPAR γ in GLP-
419 1R positive cells elicit clear-cut anti-obesity and anti-diabetic effects partly through their actions
420 on the hypothalamus (77). Notably, this cell-specific targeting approach does not induce
421 cardiovascular and kidney dysfunctions associated with non-specific PPAR agonism (77). Thus,
422 this chemical conjugation strategy combining GLP-1R agonists and nuclear-acting metabolic
423 hormones offers a novel therapeutic option for ameliorating obesity and its co-morbidities in a
424 safe and cell-specific manner.

425 To tackle the growing obesity epidemic and its negative impact on health (78), there is an
426 urgent need to decipher the neural mechanisms leading to the dysregulation of energy
427 homeostasis. Unidentified molecular pathways might integrate the action of multiple lipids-
428 sensing mechanisms in the hypothalamus, thus contributing to disease development. Uncovering
429 these pathways will expand our understanding of the aetiology and treatment of obesity. Towards
430 this goal, exploring the functional interaction of ECs and BAs in the brain warrants further
431 investigation.

432

433 **Author contributions**

434 T.H.L. and C.Q. co-wrote the manuscript, D.C. contributed to writing and editing.

435

436 **Acknowledgements**

437 We acknowledge support by INSERM (D.C. and C.Q.), Nouvelle Aquitaine Region
438 (D.C.) and Agence Nationale de la Recherche for the following grants: neuroIDobese (ANR-20-
439 CE14-0046 to C.Q.), LabEX BRAIN (ANR-10-LABX-43 to D.C.), OPTOPATH (ANR-10-
440 EQX-008-1 to D.C.), BABrain (ANR-17-CE14-0007 to D.C.), MitObesity (ANR-18-CE14-0029
441 to D.C.) and StriaPOM (ANR-21-CE14-0018 to D.C.). C.Q. is also supported by the
442 Societe' Francophone du Diabete, Societe' Francaise d'Endocrinologie (Pfizer-SFE Prix de
443 Recherche en Endocrinologie), and Societe' Francaise de Nutrition, the Institut Benjamin
444 Delessert, and The Fyssen Foundation. This study received financial support from the French
445 government in the framework of the University of Bordeaux's IdEx "Investments for the Future"
446 program / GPR BRAIN_2030.

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