Title

Hippocampus and amygdala fear memory engrams re-emerge after contextual fear reinstatement

Authors

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Abstract

The formation and extinction of fear memories represent two forms of learning that each engage the hippocampus and amygdala. How cell populations in these areas contribute to fear relapse, however, remains unclear. Here, we demonstrate that, in mice, cells active during fear conditioning in the dentate gyrus of hippocampus and basolateral amygdala exhibit decreased activity during extinction and are re-engaged after fear reinstatement. *In vivo* calcium imaging reveals that reinstatement drives population dynamics in the basolateral amygdala to revert to a network state similar to the state present during fear conditioning. Finally, we find that optogenetic inactivation of neuronal ensembles active during fear conditioning in either the hippocampus or amygdala is sufficient to disrupt fear expression after reinstatement. These results suggest that fear reinstatement triggers a partial re-emergence of the original fear memory representation, providing new insight into the neural substrates of fear relapse.

Introduction

The biological capacity to produce adaptive behavioral responses in actively changing environments is critical to an animal's survival. Contextual fear conditioning (CFC) is a form of learning whereby an animal learns to associate a conditioned stimulus (e.g. a context) with an unconditioned aversive stimulus (e.g. foot shocks) to produce a conditioned response to the conditioned stimulus (e.g. freezing). Conditioned responses can be mitigated through extinction learning via repeated exposure to the conditioned context in the absence of the foot shock. However, while extinction learning can be effective at attenuating fear, animals are susceptible to fear relapse under several conditions, including exposure to stressors, the passage of time, and re-exposure to the unconditioned stimulus (Goode, Jin, & Maren, 2018). This observation in rodents shares numerous similarities to clinical observations: exposure therapy – a clinical analog to extinction learning – can be effective at reducing fear in subsets of patients with anxiety disorders or post-traumatic stress disorder. However, many patients are still susceptible to fear relapse following successful exposure therapy (Kearns, Ressler, Zatzick, & Rothbaum, 2012). Despite an extensive body of literature investigating the neural substrates of fear and extinction learning (Maren, 2001), how discrete neuronal populations causally contribute to fear relapse remains incompletely understood.

Previous studies have demonstrated that cells in the dorsal dentate gyrus of the hippocampus (DG) and in the basolateral amygdala (BLA) that are active during fear conditioning (hereafter referred to as the DG and BLA fear ensembles) are preferentially re-

activated during fear memory recall (Ramirez et al., 2013; Reijmers, Perkins, Matsuo, &
Mayford, 2007), and are necessary and sufficient for the expression of defensive behaviors such
as freezing (Denny et al., 2014; Redondo et al., 2014). Additionally, recent evidence has
indicated that extinction learning may be mediated by interactions between local BLA
interneurons and a BLA fear ensemble (Davis, Zaki, Maguire, & Reijmers, 2017), while a new
set of cells simultaneously emerges in both the hippocampus (Khalaf et al., 2018; Lacagnina et
al., 2019; Tronson et al., 2009) and BLA (Herry et al., 2008), possibly to encode extinction
learning. However, whether fear relapse re-engages the original memory-encoding neuronal
population or gives rise to a new representation remains unclear.
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Results
To address this, we first developed a behavioral protocol for fear reinstatement, a model
of fear relapse in rodents (Rescorla & Heth, 1975). Mice underwent CFC and two subsequent
extinction (EXT) sessions over two days, followed by an immediate shock (IS) in a novel context
to reinstate the original fear memory, and a post-reinstatement recall test (IS-Recall) the
following day to measure the return of fear (Figure 1a, bottom behavioral schedule).
Reinstatement led to an increase in freezing in the original conditioned context (Figure 1—figure
supplement 1a-e) and was largely context specific (Figure 1—figure supplement 2a,b).
Next, we determined if the cells active during fear conditioning were preferentially re-
activated after mice underwent extinction and subsequent reinstatement. To that end, we tagged
cells active during fear conditioning by injecting an activity-dependent viral cocktail of AAV9-c-
Fos-tTA and AAV9-TRE-eYFP in the DG and BLA of adult male mice (Figure 1b,c). This virus
enabled expression of eYFP in cells sufficiently active to express the immediate early gene c-
Fos, which is under the repressive control of the antibiotic doxycycline (DOX)(Reijmers et al.,
2007). We then measured immunoreactive c-Fos and calculated overlap between the set of cells
active during CFC (eYFP-expressing cells) and during different stages of the behavioral schedule
(c-Fos-expressing cells) (Figure 1d,e).
Previous reports have shown that the number of BLA cells active during both fear
conditioning and fear memory recall correlates with freezing levels (Reijmers et al., 2007). Thus,
we reasoned that if reinstatement re-engages the fear ensemble, the set of cells active during fear
conditioning would be active again following reinstatement, and freezing during recall would
correlate with cellular overlap. We found that, as expected, cells active during CFC were highly
re-activated during Recall the following day, and EXT led to a modest, non-significant decrease
in overlap. Interestingly, compared to EXT-Recall, mice exhibited more overlap in the BLA after
reinstatement during a post-reinstatement recall session (IS-Recall) (Figure 1f). However,
freezing behavior during Recall sessions did not correlate with BLA fear ensemble re-activation
across the FC-Recall, EXT-Recall, and IS-Recall groups, indicating that BLA fear ensemble
activity may not be predictive of freezing across these behavioral conditions (Figure 1g). The IS-
Recall group exhibited greater overall expression of cFos than the EXT-Recall group, but less
overall expression of eYFP than the EXT-Recall group; overall expression of cFos and eYFP
was otherwise stable across groups (Figure 1—figure supplement 1f,g).
In the DG, we similarly observed significant overlap between the set of cells active
during CFC and cells active during fear memory recall, as previously reported (Ramirez et al.,
2013) (Figure 1h). In support of the notion that the dorsal DG processes changes in
environmental contingencies (Fanselow & Dong, 2010), this overlap substantially decreased
after EXT. While overlap remained low after IS, it significantly increased when mice were given

the IS and were placed back into the original conditioned context the following day, suggesting
that fear reinstatement may re-engage the set of cells originally active during fear conditioning
(Figure 1h). Additionally, unlike BLA overlaps, freezing behavior correlated with overlaps in the
DG across all groups (Figure 1i), indicating that DG fear ensemble re-activation was predictive
of freezing. Overall expression of eYFP and cFos was stable across groups in DG (Figure 1—
figure supplement 1h,i).
Whereas our c-Fos-based labeling system allowed comparisons between activity of cells
across two discrete timepoints with high spatial resolution, it was incapable of measuring activity
at finer timescales due to the slow kinetics of immediate-early gene expression relative to real-
time neural activity. To overcome this weakness, we next utilized an *in vivo* calcium (Ca^{2+})
imaging approach to record real-time neuronal activity in the BLA in freely moving mice during
exposures to both a conditioned context and a neutral context where no shocks were delivered
(Figure 2a-b). We tracked these cells longitudinally over the course of the reinstatement
schedule, in order to determine whether shared population dynamics are associated with both
fear conditioning and reinstatement (Sheintuch et al., 2017) (Figure 2c; see also Figure 2—figure
supplement 2). To define initial population states, we constructed Ca^{2+} transient rate population
vectors from the CFC session for each mouse. Then, to compare extinction and post-
reinstatement recall states to CFC, we correlated population vectors from EXT and Recall (in 30
s non-overlapping time windows) to the CFC population vector. We found that over EXT, the
population states in the BLA gradually deviated from its state during CFC, supporting the idea of
a network-wide transformation over extinction (Grewe et al., 2017; Hartley et al., 2019; Herry et
al., 2008; Tronson et al., 2009) (Figure 2d). However, during Recall, the BLA population
rebounded towards the CFC network state to an extent greater than expected by chance (Figure
2e, left). These effects were absent in a neutral context and in CA1 of hippocampus (Figure 2e,
right; see also Figure 2—figure supplement 1), demonstrating that the conditioned context and
BLA drove these dynamics. Next, using an algorithm for extracting co-active neurons from
simultaneously recorded cells (Lopes-dos-Santos, Ribeiro, & Tort, 2013), we characterized
neuronal ensembles that were highly active during individual sessions (CFC, EXT1, and EXT2).
Then, during Recall, we correlated the activity of these ensembles to freezing and found that the
activity of ensembles extracted during CFC and EXT1 reliably predicted relapse freezing, but the
ensembles extracted during EXT2 did not (Figure 2f). No ensembles predicted freezing in the
neutral context. This suggested that BLA activity patterns contributed to expression of fear
relapse, but only before extinction training modified these patterns. Overall, these data indicated
that context-specific reinstated fear was associated with the emergence of network states in the
BLA that resembled network states during fear conditioning, suggesting that a relapsed fear
memory may be represented by a similar trace as the original fear memory.
Finally, we sought to determine whether the activity of cells active during fear
conditioning was necessary for expression of reinstated fear. To do this, we bilaterally injected
mice in either the DG or the BLA with a virus cocktail of AAV9-c-Fos-tTA and AAV9-TRE-
ArchT-eYFP to drive expression of the light-sensitive protein archaerhodopsin (ArchT) in cells
active during CFC, and subsequently implanted optic fibers above the injection sites (Figure
3a,b). Mice then underwent two EXT sessions, the reinstating shock, and recall the following day
(Figure 3c). Mice in both the DG and BLA experimental groups showed significant suppression
of freezing during optical inhibition. This manipulation was reversible, as freezing increased
again in the following light-off epoch (Figure 3d,e). eYFP controls did not show this decrease in

freezing during optical inhibition, confirming that the behavioral effect was dependent on
expression of ArchT (Figure 3f,g).
Since the BLA is widely acknowledged as a necessary hub for fear learning (Bocchio,
Nabavi, & Capogna, 2017), we next probed whether activity of the BLA fear ensemble during
the reinstating shock was necessary or sufficient to induce fear reinstatement. To test necessity,
we adopted a similar approach as above in order to express ArchT selectively within the BLA
fear ensemble, and then implanted optic fibers bilaterally above BLA (Figure 3—figure
supplement 1a,b). Mice underwent FC and EXT, had the BLA fear ensemble inhibited during the
reinstating shock, and were then returned to the original conditioned context to assess whether
reinstatement could be prevented (Figure 3—figure supplement 1c,d). Surprisingly, mice that
had the BLA fear ensemble inhibited did not freeze any less during post-reinstatement recall than
eYFP controls (Figure 3—figure supplement 1e). To test sufficiency, we selectively expressed
ChR2 in either the BLA fear ensemble or DG fear ensemble in separate groups of mice. Mice
underwent FC and EXT, were then placed in a novel chamber, and rather than receiving the
reinstating shock, mice had either the BLA or DG fear ensemble stimulated for 60 seconds. The
next day, they were placed back in the original conditioned context to assess whether the
stimulation could mimic reinstatement (Figure 3—figure supplement 2a-c). Mice that had the
BLA fear ensemble stimulated froze no more than eYFP controls (Figure 3—figure supplement
2d), while mice that had the DG fear ensemble stimulated only showed modest, non-significant
increases in freezing relative to the eYFP controls (Figure 3—figure supplement 2e). These
results indicated that despite a crucial role for the BLA and DG fear ensembles in fear learning,
activity of these populations was not sufficient to drive fear reinstatement, and activity of the
BLA population was not necessary to drive reinstatement either.
To test whether the functional role for these cells emerged only after reinstatement or if
inhibition of the fear ensemble could suppress freezing during extinction, we inhibited the DG or
BLA fear ensemble during an extinction recall session—when low levels of freezing were still
present—and observed that inhibition of the DG fear ensemble led to a mild reduction in
freezing, while inhibition of the BLA fear ensemble did not disrupt freezing (Figure 3—figure
supplement 3). These results suggested that extinction differentially modified the BLA and DG
fear ensembles, such that BLA ensemble inhibition did not disrupt freezing during extinction,
while DG ensemble activity may have been actively involved in contextual fear expression
during extinction.
We next determined whether nonspecific manipulation of DG or BLA cells could reduce
freezing responses, as opposed to being driven specifically by the fear ensemble in these regions.
We tagged cells either in the DG or the BLA that were active during female exposure—an
unrelated experience of opposing valence, which has previously been shown to label similar
proportions of neurons in both the DG and BLA (Chen et al., 2019; Ramirez et al., 2013;
Redondo et al., 2014)—and inhibited those cells during post-reinstatement recall (Figure 3h).
Interestingly, whereas this manipulation in the BLA did not cause behavioral changes, inhibition
of non-fear cells in the DG led to a modest light-induced reduction in freezing (Figure 3i,j).
These results are consistent with the notion that perturbing DG dynamics can produce a general
modulation of freezing responses, while only inhibition of BLA fear cells directly disrupts
freezing per se. Difference scores between freezing during light-on vs light-off epochs revealed
that inhibition of DG fear cells led to moderately less freezing during light-on epochs compared
to eYFP controls (Figure 3k), while inhibition of BLA fear cells led to significantly less freezing
during light-on epochs (Figure 3l). Finally, one-sample z-tests on difference scores revealed that

only mice that had the fear ensemble inhibited (experimental groups; Exp) froze significantly
less during light-on epochs than light-off epochs, whereas mice that had female exposure cells
inhibited (positive; Pos) and eYFP control mice (eYFP) froze no differently during light-on and
light-off epochs (Figure 3m).
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Discussion
The dynamic nature of fear memory expression constitutes a difficult problem for
mitigating fear in the clinic: patients with fear-related disorders who have undergone successful
treatment are still prone to relapse, and the underlying causal mechanisms facilitating fear
reinstatement are largely unknown. A commonly held view is that fear extinction is not an
unlearning of the original trauma; rather, a second memory develops that suppresses the original
aversive memory. This raises an important notion about the nature of the ensemble regulating
fear expression post-reinstatement. One idea is that the original ensemble driving fear expression
and a new ensemble driving fear suppression actively compete to influence behavioral output.
Under this framework, fear relapse could be the result of the fear ensemble dominating.
Alternatively, fear relapse might be driven by recruitment of a new, discrete cellular population
that does not involve the original fear ensemble. A likely scenario is a mixture of the two, where
fear relapse materializes from a partial re-emergence of the original ensemble in parallel with
recruitment of new neuronal connections (Clem & Schiller, 2016), which our c-Fos labeling,
Ca^{2+} imaging, and optogenetics evidence collectively support.
Ca^{2+} imaging and c-Fos labeling during the fear reinstatement schedule enabled us to
capture network dynamics from the hippocampus and amygdala over multiple timescales,
shedding light on the activity of these regions over fear reinstatement. Consistent with prior
reports of BLA cell populations up- and down-regulating their activity during extinction learning
(Grewe et al., 2017; Herry et al., 2008), and with immediate-early gene data presented here, we
observed decorrelation of the BLA population vector from the initial fear-encoding state over
repeated exposures to the conditioned context. This time-dependent transformation has
previously been depicted in numerous brain regions as "representational drift" (Driscoll, Pettit,
Minderer, Chettih, & Harvey, 2017; Mankin et al., 2012; Mau et al., 2018; Rubin, Geva,
Sheintuch, & Ziv, 2015; Rule, O'Leary, & Harvey, 2019), but these studies all described
population states that monotonically drifted *away* from a reference session. In the present study,
the BLA representation exhibited similar dynamics, but in contrast to past work, regressed its
neural trajectory *back towards* the initial representation after fear reinstatement. This leads us to
believe that fear reinstatement may be restoring a remote memory trace similar to how related
optogenetic studies artificially induce memory retrieval (Liu et al., 2012; Ramirez et al., 2013;
Redondo et al., 2014).
Interestingly, the neural patterns associated with fear expression are still retrievable after
putative circuit remodeling over extinction learning and fear reinstatement (Bocchio et al., 2017;
Davis et al., 2017; Hartley et al., 2019; Maren, 2015). Our ability to observe and manipulate the
original fear ensemble after reinstatement is suggestive of a latent representation of the original
memory that persists and coexists with the newly formed extinction memory (Lacagnina et al.,
2019; Maren, 2011). However, this new extinction memory may also facilitate local synaptic
remodeling that modifies the original fear memory, which may explain why inhibition of the fear
ensemble in DG and BLA did not fully eliminate freezing. The re-emergence of the original fear
memory may also depend on strict plasticity mechanisms, which can explain why we failed to
optically induce relapse through broad stimulation of the BLA fear ensemble after extinction

(Figure 3—figure supplement 2). These results suggest that the natural endogenous fear
reinstatement process might require certain activity patterns for modifying the original fear
ensemble that could not be artificially produced through BLA stimulation alone. For example,
recent work showed that sequential activity from triplets of BLA neurons preceded fear learning
(Reitich-Stolero & Paz, 2019) and similar patterns may underlie fear reinstatement. Fear
reinstatement may then be recruiting a subset of the original fear ensemble while forming new
synaptic linkages with a novel cell population. Others have shown that unique memories reside
in patterns of connectivity between memory-encoding – or engram – cells in the hippocampal
system (Abdou et al., 2018; Ryan, Roy, Pignatelli, Arons, & Tonegawa, 2015; Tonegawa,
Morrissey, & Kitamura, 2018). In the context of our study, reinstatement could be modifying
these functional linkages to engage a new set of engram cells, possibly those that are highly
excitable at the time of the experience (Cai et al., 2016; Rashid et al., 2016; Yiu et al., 2014),
forming a reinstatement ensemble that is similar, but not identical, to the original fear ensemble.
In accordance with this idea, post-reinstatement recall activates a large proportion, but not all, of
the original fear ensemble (Figure 1f,h).
While our optogenetic experiments suggest a re-emergence of the fear ensemble in the
DG, we were unable to perform calcium imaging in DG due to the technical limitations of
accessing this region without significant damage to overlying hippocampal subareas.
Nonetheless, we report that CA1 exhibits only marginally significant ($p = 0.075$, Figure 2—
figure supplement 1b) reversion of calcium dynamics to a fear conditioning-like state after
reinstatement. This may be due to the functional differences between DG and CA1, with CA1
possibly responding to more contextual features of the experience (Tanaka et al., 2018) or being
overall more subject to plasticity than DG. As others have found, day-to-day dynamics of spatial
activity in DG are more stable than in CA1 (Hainmueller & Bartos, 2018). Until methods are
developed that allow unfettered imaging of DG while still preserving superficial hippocampal
areas, it remains unknown whether the real-time network activity of DG exhibit relapse-induced
reactivation of fear ensembles. However, recent work agrees with our prediction that extinction
suppresses fear-related activity in the DG while those activity patterns are retrieved during
relapse (Lacagnina et al., 2019).
Further work exploring the competing interactions of cellular networks across fear
learning and fear suppression could provide important insight into how the brain competes for
the expression of fear throughout fear extinction and relapse. Moreover, a deeper understanding
of how fear memories are modified by time and experience may help guide development of
treatments for trauma-related disorders, and these findings point to hippocampal- and BLA-
mediated engrams as key nodes contributing to the re-emergence of a contextual fear memory.

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Author Contributions

Y.Z. and S.R. conceived the study. Y.Z., W.M., and S.R. designed experiments and analyzed data. Y.Z., W.M., C.C., A.H., E.D., S.L.G., E.M., N.J.M., and M.S. conducted experiments. Y.Z., W.M., and S.R. wrote the manuscript; all authors edited and commented on the manuscript.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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 Figure Legends
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Figure 1. Histological characterization of fear reinstatement schedule. (**a**) Behavioral design for
fear reinstatement. Mice underwent fear conditioning, and were then sacrificed at different points
in the behavioral schedule and had tissue stained for c-Fos. (**b**) Schematic of viral strategy. A
viral cocktail of AAV9-c-Fos-tTA and AAV9-TRE-eYFP was infused into the DG and BLA for
activity-dependent induction of eYFP. (**c**) Representative microscope image for the injection
sites. (**d**) Example confocal images of DG sections. Images from left to right: virus-labeled cells
(eYFP), c-Fos$^+$ cells (cFos), merged green and red channels (Merge). Yellow arrows designate
double-positive cells. Top images are representative of high overlap, and bottom are
representative of low overlap. (**e**) Same as **d** but for BLA sections. (**f**) Quantitative analysis of
overlap between FC-tagged BLA cells and c-Fos$^+$ BLA cells in each group. Overlap between
FC-tagged cells and c-Fos$^+$ cells was high after FC and there was a trending decrease following
EXT. Overlap remained low during the reinstating shock, but significantly increased during
Recall after reinstatement. (n = 15-27 sections per group, i.e. 5 mice per group and 2-11 sections
per mouse; $F_{3,88}$ =5.25; one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test for pairwise
comparisons; #P < 0.1, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01). Counts were normalized to % of eYFP$^+$ cells that
were also c-Fos$^+$. Small grey data points represent counts per section; big green data points
represent average counts per animal for (**f,h**). (**g**) Correlation between average freezing during
Recall and overlap in the BLA demonstrates that overlap in the BLA is not predictive of freezing
(n = 15 mice; $F_{1,13}$ = 0.0209; ns P = 0.8873; R^2 = 0.0016; correlation). (**h**) Same as
quantification in **f**, but for DG. Overlap between FC-tagged cells and c-Fos$^+$ cells was high after
FC and significantly decreased following EXT. While overlap remained low during the
reinstating shock, it significantly increased during Recall after reinstatement. (n = 18-27 sections
per group, i.e. 4-6 mice and 2-6 sections per mouse; $F_{3,89}$ = 18.72; one-way ANOVA followed by
Tukey's post-hoc test for pairwise comparisons; **P < 0.01, ****P < 0.0001). (**i**) Correlation
between average freezing during Recall and overlap in the DG demonstrates that overlap in the
DG is predictive of freezing (n = 15 mice; $F_{1,13}$ = 6.374; *P = 0.0254; R^2 = 0.329; correlation).
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Figure 1 – figure supplement 1. Behavior in reinstatement paradigm. (**a**) Mice underwent an 8-
minute fear conditioning session (FC), with four 1.5mA shocks spaced 80-seconds apart.
Compared to the first 3 minutes of FC (baseline freezing), mice froze significantly more in the
first three minutes of the EXT1 session (t_{15} = 11.858, ****P < 0.0001; paired t-test; n = 16
mice). (**b**) Mice underwent two 30-minute extinction sessions (EXT1 and EXT2) spaced 24
hours apart. Mice spent significantly less time freezing in the last three minutes of EXT2 as
compared to the first three minutes of EXT1 (t_{15} = 4.1631, ***P = 0.0008; paired t-test; n = 16
mice). (**c**) Following EXT, one group of mice was returned to the conditioned context for Recall
(EXT-Recall), while another group received an immediate shock in a novel context and was
removed 60-seconds later. After 24 hours, those mice were tested in the original conditioned
context for reinstatement (IS-Recall). (**d**) Compared to mice that did not receive the reinstating
shock, those that did showed significantly more freezing across a 5-minute Recall session (t_8 =
4.631, **P = 0.0017; unpaired t-test; n = 5 minutes for each group). (**e**) On average, mice that
received the reinstating shock froze significantly more during Recall than did mice that did not
receive the reinstating shock (t_6 = 4.018, **P = 0.0070; unpaired t-test; n = 4 mice per group). (**f**)
Quantification of relative numbers of eYFP+ cells across groups in the BLA (calculated as
#eYFP+ cells divided by area in arbitrary units). The EXT-Recall group had greater numbers of

eYFP+ cells in the BLA than the IS group did (n = 15-27 sections per group, i.e. 5 mice per group and 2-11 sections per mouse; $F_{3,88}$ =3.777; one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test for pairwise comparisons; #P < 0.1, *P < 0.05). Small grey data points represent counts per section; big green data points represent average counts per animal for **(f-i)**. **(g)** Quantification of relative numbers of cFos+ cells across groups in the BLA (calculated as $cFos+ cells divided by area in arbitrary units). The IS-Recall group expressed greater numbers of cFos+ cells than did the EXT-Recall and IS groups (n = 15-27 sections per group, i.e. 5 mice per group and 2-11 sections per mouse; $F_{3,88}$ =3.444; one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test for pairwise comparisons; *P < 0.05). **(h)** Same as **(f)** but for DG. The IS group had greater relative expression of eYFP+ cells than the the EXT-Recall group (n = 18-27 sections per group, i.e. 4-6 mice and 2-6 sections per mouse; $F_{3,89}$ = 2.814; one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test for pairwise comparisons; *P < 0.05). **(i)** Same as **(g)** but in DG. Expression of cFos+ cells in the DG was stable across all groups (n = 18-27 sections per group, i.e. 4-6 mice and 2-6 sections per mouse; $F_{3,89}$ = 1.216; one-way ANOVA).

Figure 1 – figure supplement 2. Reinstatement leads to partial generalization, but is largely context-specific. (**a**) Behavioral design. Mice underwent the reinstatement as described in Figure 1; however, they were placed in the original conditioned context (context A) and a novel context (context B), with some mice going into context A first and others context B first. (**b**) Compared to freezing in the novel context, mice froze significantly more in the original conditioned context across the 5-minute session (t_8 = 3.415, **P = 0.0092; unpaired t-test; n = 5 minutes for each group).

Figure 2. BLA activity patterns change over extinction but resemble the fear conditioning state during fear relapse. (**a**) Behavioral schedule for Ca^{2+} imaging cohort. (**b**) Left, freezing time course of fear reinstatement paradigm (*n* = 6 mice). Right, pooled freezing. EXT1 vs. EXT2, Wilcoxon signed-rank test *p* = 0.028; EXT2 vs Recall *p* = 0.046. Data are means ± standard error of the mean. (**c**) Left, example field of view in BLA-implanted mouse, depicted as maximum projection of CFC imaging session. Blue outlines indicate cell masks. Scale bar = 100 microns. Right, fluorescence traces of 10 example cells (**d**) Pearson correlation coefficients between population vectors during CFC and population vectors during EXT and Recall (*n* = 6 mice). Each data point represents a measure of population similarity to CFC (30 s time bins). Two piecewise regressions were fit each to EXT and Recall. (**e**) Box plots of population vector similarity (predicted and empirical). Each data point represents a mouse's predicted r value (from the EXT regression) for Recall compared to the actual observed r value during Recall (Shock context, Wilcoxon signed-rank test *p* = 0.028; Neutral context, *p* = 0.46). (**f**) Groupings of neurons (ensembles) were extracted from CFC, EXT1, and EXT2 using a previously published PCA/ICA method (Lopes-dos-Santos et al., 2013). Averaged activations of those ensembles during Recall were correlated with freezing during Recall (CFC ensemble during Recall, Pearson correlation *p* = 0.007; EXT1 ensemble during Recall *p* = 0.04; EXT2 ensemble during Recall *p* = 0.80).

Figure 2 – figure supplement 1. Reemergence of CFC-associated brain activity during fear relapse is specific to BLA and the shock context. (**a**) Left, correlation coefficients between EXT-Recall and CFC population vectors in the shock context for BLA (*n* = 6 mice, duplicated from Figure 2d). Right, predicted vs. empirical correlation values during Recall (duplicated from Figure 2e). (**b**) Same as (**a**), but for CA1 (*n* = 6 mice). (**c**) Same as (**a**), but for the neutral context

549   (n = 4 mice). (**d**) Same as (**c**), but for CA1 (n = 4 mice). Wilcoxon signed-rank tests p = 0.028,
550   0.075, 0.46, 0.46 for **a-d** respectively.
551
Figure 2 – figure supplement 2. Cell registration examples. (**a**) Registration diagnostics for
example CA1 Ca^{2+} imaging mouse. Top, cell centroids pre-alignment. Middle, cell centroids
post-alignment. Colors correspond to different sessions. Bottom, 2-dimensional histogram of
matched pairs. Note the high density of cells within 3 microns of their match on another session.
(**b**) Same as (**a**), but for example BLA mouse. Figures were modified from plots generated via
software from Sheintuch et al., 2017.
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Figure 3. Optical inhibition of the DG or BLA fear ensemble disrupts reinstated fear. (**a**)
Schematic of viral strategy. A virus cocktail of AAV9-c-Fos-tTA and AAV9-TRE-ArchT-eYFP
was infused into either the DG or BLA for activity-dependent expression of ArchT-eYFP. (**b**)
Representative microscope images of injection sites for the DG and BLA groups of mice. (**c**)
Reinstatement behavioral schedule. Mice had the fear ensemble labeled in either the DG or BLA
and inhibited during Recall after Shock Reinstatement. (**d-g**) Line graphs: 2-minute light OFF
and ON epochs during Recall for the two experimental ArchT groups (DG Exp & BLA Exp) and
the two control no-opsin groups (DG eYFP & BLA eYFP). Bar graphs: Quantification of
average freezing between light OFF vs. light ON epochs for each group. (**d**) DG Exp Recall (t_{24}
= 2.781, *P = 0.0104; paired t-test; n = 25 paired epochs from 13 mice). (**e**) BLA EXP Recall (t_{17}
= 4.277, ***P = 0.0005; paired t-test; n = 18 paired epochs from 9 mice). (**f**) DG eYFP Recall
(t_{21} = 0.05067, n.s., P = 0.9600; paired t-test; n = 22 paired epochs from 11 mice). (**g**) BLA eYFP
Recall (t_{15} = 0.3915, n.s., P = 0.7010; paired t-test; n = 16 paired epochs from 8 mice). (**h**)
Behavioral schedule to test for specificity of DG and BLA fear ensemble in disrupting
reinstatement-induced fear. Mice had cells active during Female Exposure labeled in either the
DG or BLA, and then underwent FC, EXT, Shock Reinstatement, and had the labeled cells
inhibited during Recall. (**i,j**) Same line and bar graphs as in **d-g**, but for the behavioral design in
h. (**i**) DG Pos Recall (t_{23} = 2.053, n.s., P = 0.0516; paired t-test; n = 24 paired epochs from 12
mice). (**j**) BLA Pos Recall (t_{15} = 0.1986, n.s., P = 0.8452; paired t-test; n = 16 paired epochs from
8 mice). (**k**) Freezing difference scores across the three DG groups (Exp, Pos, eYFP), calculated
as freezing in light ON epoch – freezing in light OFF epoch, for each set of epochs for each
mouse. There was a strong trend towards a decrease in freezing in the light ON epoch in the Exp
group vs. the eYFP group, and there was no difference in the Pos vs. eYFP groups (from left to
right: n = 25 scores from 13 mice, 24 scores from 12 mice, 22 scores from 11 mice; $F_{2,68}$ = 2.351,
P = 0.1030; DG Exp vs. DG eYFP, n.s., P = 0.0658; DG Pos vs. DG eYFP, n.s., P = 0.2682; one-
way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test). (**l**) Same as **k** but for BLA groups. The BLA Exp
group showed significantly lower freezing during the light ON epoch compared to the BLA
eYFP group (p = 0.0122), whereas there was no difference in the BLA Pos vs. BLA eYFP
groups (p = 0.8797) (from left to right: n = 18 scores from 9 mice, 16 scores from 8 mice, 16
scores from 8 mice; $F_{2,47}$ = 4.811, P = 0.0126; BLA Exp vs. BLA eYFP, *P = 0.0122; BLA Pos
vs. BLA eYFP, n.s., P = 0.8797; one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test). (**m**) Summary
graph of freezing difference scores across all groups in Figure 3. While mice in the BLA and DG
Exp groups show significantly less freezing during light ON epochs, the BLA and DG Pos
groups and BLA and DG eYFP groups show no difference in freezing between light ON and
light OFF epochs (from left to right: n = 18 scores from 9 mice, 25 scores from 13 mice, 16
scores from 8 mice, 24 scores from 12 mice, 16 scores from 8 mice, 22 scores from 12 mice;

BLA Exp, $t_{17} = 4.277$, ***$P = 0.0005$; DG Exp, $t_{24} = 2.781$, *$P = 0.0104$; BLA Pos, $t_{15} = 0.1986$,
n.s., $P = 0.8452$; DG Pos, $t_{23} = 2.053$, n.s., $P = 0.0516$; BLA eYFP, $t_{15} = 0.3915$, n.s., $P = 0.7010$;
DG eYFP, $t_{21} = 0.05076$, n.s., $P = 0.9600$; one-sample t-tests, $\mu_0 = 0$).

Figure 3 – figure supplement 1. Inhibition of BLA fear ensemble does not prevent
reinstatement. **(a)** Schematic of viral strategy. A viral cocktail of AAV9-c-Fos-tTA and AAV9-
TRE-ArchT-eYFP was infused into the BLA for activity-dependent induction of ArchT-eYFP.
(b) Representative microscope image of BLA injection site. Dotted line indicates optic fiber
placement. **(c)** Behavioral schedule to test if inhibition of BLA fear ensemble during Shock
Reinstatement can prevent reinstatement. **(d)** Left: Freezing during fear conditioning and
extinction. Upper right: Compared to the first 3 minutes of FC (baseline freezing), mice froze
significantly more in the first three minutes of the EXT1 session ($t_{10} = 17.112$, ****$P < 0.0001$;
paired t-test; n = 10 mice). Bottom right: Mice spent significantly less time freezing in the last
three minutes of EXT2 as compared to the first three minutes of EXT1 ($t_{10} = 5.5159$, ***$P = $
0.0003; paired t-test; n = 10 mice). **(e)** Compared to no-opsin controls (eYFP group),
experimental mice that received optical inhibition (ArchT group) showed comparable levels of
freezing during Recall, indicating that inhibition of the BLA fear ensemble did not prevent
reinstatement ($t_9 = 0.935$, n.s., $P = 3742$; unpaired t-test; ArchT, n = 7 mice; eYFP, n = 4 mice).

Figure 3 – figure supplement 2. Stimulation of BLA or DG fear ensemble does not mimic
reinstatement. **(a)** Behavioral schedule to test if stimulation of BLA fear ensemble in a novel
environment can mimic reinstatement. **(b)** Left: Freezing during fear conditioning and extinction
for BLA-implanted animals. Middle: Compared to the first 3 minutes of FC (baseline freezing),
mice froze significantly more in the first three minutes of the EXT1 session ($t_{15} = 17.171$, ****P
< 0.0001; paired t-test; n = 16 mice). Right: Mice spent significantly less time freezing in the last
three minutes of EXT2 as compared to the first three minutes of EXT1 ($t_{15} = 7.9973$, ****$P <$
0.0001; paired t-test; n = 16 mice). **(c)** Left: Freezing during fear conditioning and extinction for
DG-implanted animals. Middle: Compared to the first 3 minutes of FC (baseline freezing), mice
froze significantly more in the first three minutes of the EXT1 session ($t_{15} = 13.238$, ****$P <$
0.0001; paired t-test; n = 16 mice). Right: Mice spent significantly less time freezing in the last
three minutes of EXT2 as compared to the first three minutes of EXT1 ($t_{15} = 5.9671$, ****$P <$
0.0001; paired t-test; n = 16 mice). **(d)** Left: Freezing across Recall session after BLA fear
ensemble stimulation for ChR2 and eYFP groups. Right: Comparison of average freezing during
Recall session after BLA fear ensemble stimulation, for ChR2 and eYFP groups ($t_{14} = 0.8265$,
n.s., $P = 0.4224$; unpaired t-test; n = 8 mice in each group). **(e)** Left: Freezing across Recall
session after DG fear ensemble stimulation for ChR2 and eYFP groups. Comparison of average
freezing during Recall session after DG fear ensemble stimulation, for ChR2 and eYFP groups
($t_{14} = 1.522$, n.s., $P = 0.1503$; unpaired t-test; n = 8 mice in each group).

Figure 3 – figure supplement 3. Inhibition of the fear ensemble after extinction does not alter
freezing behavior. **(a)** Behavioral design. Mice underwent FC and two EXT sessions, followed
by an 8-minute Recall session, with 2-minute light OFF/light ON epochs. **(b)** Left: Freezing
during fear conditioning and extinction. Middle: Compared to the first 3 minutes of FC (baseline
freezing), mice froze significantly more in the first three minutes of the EXT1 session ($t_{15} = $
25.898, ****$P < 0.0001$; paired t-test; n = 16 mice). Right: Mice spent significantly less time
freezing in the last three minutes of EXT2 as compared to the first three minutes of EXT1 ($t_{15} = $

9.7348, ****$P < 0.0001$; paired t-test; n = 16 mice). (**c-e**) Line graphs: 2-minute light OFF and ON epochs during Recall for the two experimental ArchT groups (DG ArchT & BLA ArchT) and the one control no-opsin group (DG eYFP). Bar graphs: Quantification of average freezing between light OFF vs. light ON epochs for each group. (**c**) DG ArchT Recall ($t_{11} = 1.65$, n.s., P = 0.1273; paired t-test; n = 12 paired epochs from 6 mice). (**d**) DG eYFP Recall ($t_7 = 0.4724$, n.s., P = 0.6510; paired t-test; n = 8 paired epochs from 4 mice). (**e**) BLA ArchT Recall ($t_{11} = 0.9078$, n.s., P = 0.3835; paired t-test; n = 12 paired epochs from 6 mice). (**f**) Summary graph of freezing difference scores across all graphs in this figure, calculated as freezing in light ON epoch – freezing in light OFF epoch, for each set of epochs for each mouse. There was no significant difference in freezing between the DG ArchT and DG eYFP groups ($t_{18} = 0.8689$, n.s., P = 0.3963; unpaired t-test; DG ArchT, n = 12 scores from 6 mice; DG eYFP, n = 8 scores from 4 mice).

Methods

Subjects

        Wildtype male C57BL/6 mice (6-8 weeks of age; Charles River Labs) were housed in groups of 4-5 mice per cage. The animal facilities (vivarium and behavioral testing rooms) were maintained on a 12:12-hour light cycle (lights on at 0700). Mice were placed on a diet containing 40 mg/kg doxycycline (Dox) for a minimum of two days before receiving surgery with access to food and water *ad libitum*. Mice recovered for at least ten days after surgery. Dox-containing diet was replaced with standard mouse chow (*ad libitum*) 48 hours prior to behavioral tagging to open a time window of activity-dependent labeling (Ramirez et al., 2013).

        All procedures relating to mouse care and treatment conformed to the institutional and National Institutes of Health guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample size; however, sample sizes were chosen based on sample sizes in previous studies (Ramirez et al., 2013). Data collection and analysis were not performed blind to the conditions of the experiments.

Activity-dependent viral constructs

$pAAV_9$-cFos-tTA, $pAAV_9$-TRE-eYFP, and pAAV 9 -TRE-ArchT-eYFP were constructed as previously described(Ramirez et al., 2015). $pAAV_9$-c-Fos-tTA was combined with $pAAV_9$-TRE-eYFP or $pAAV_9$-TRE-ArchT-eYFP prior to injection at a 1:1 ratio.

Stereotaxic surgeries

        Opsin injections and optic fiber implants: Stereotaxic injections and optical fiber implants followed methods previously reported(Ramirez et al., 2015). All surgeries were performed under stereotaxic guidance and subsequent coordinates are given relative to Bregma (in mm). Mice were mounted into a stereotaxic frame (Kopf Instruments, Tujunga, CA, USA) and anesthetized with 3% isoflurane during induction and lowered to 1-2% to maintain anesthesia (oxygen 1L/min) throughout the surgery. Ophthalmic ointment was applied to both eyes to prevent corneal desiccation. Hair was removed with scissors and the surgical site was cleaned with ethanol and betadine. Following this, an incision was made to expose the skull. Bilateral craniotomies involved drilling windows through the skull above the injection sites using a 0.5 mm diameter drill bit. Coordinates were -1.35mm anteroposterior (AP), ±3.45mm mediolateral (ML), and -5.15mm dorsoventral (DV) for basolateral amygdala (BLA)(Davis et al., 2017); and -2.2mm AP, ±1.3mm ML, and -2.0mm DV for dorsal dentate gyrus (dDG)(Ramirez et al., 2015). All mice were injected with a volume of 0.3 μl of AAV9 cocktail per site at a control rate of 0.1 μl min^{-1} using a mineral oil-filled 33-gage beveled needle attached to a 10 μl Hamilton microsyringe (701LT; Hamilton) in a microsyringe pump (UMP3; WPI). The needle remained at the target site for two minutes post-injection before removal. For dDG optogenetic experiments, a bilateral optic fiber implant (200 μm core diameter; Doric Lenses) was chronically implanted above the injection site (-1.6mm DV). For BLA optogenetic experiments, monofibers were implanted above each injection site (-4.9mm DV). Jewelry screws secured to the skull acted as anchors. Layers of adhesive cement (C&B Metabond) followed by dental cement (A-M Systems) were spread over the surgical site. Mice that did not receive implants had their incision sutured. Mice received 0.1 mL of 0.3 mg/ml buprenorphine (intraperitoneally) following surgery and were placed on a heating pad during recovery.

GCaMP6f injections and lens implants: Mice in Ca^{2+} imaging experiments underwent
three separate serial surgeries. First, mice received unilateral infusions of AAV9-Syn-GCaMP6f
(U Penn Vector Core) into either right CA1 (AP -2.0 mm, ML +1.5 mm, DV -1.5 mm) or right
BLA (AP -1.35 mm, ML +3.45 mm, DV -5.05 mm). The viral vector was injected at a rate of 40
nL/min and allowed 10 min to diffuse before the scalp was sutured.
Two to four weeks after viral infusion, mice were implanted with a gradient index
(GRIN) lens into either CA1 (1 mm diameter, 4 mm length, Inscopix; AP -2.25 mm, ML +1.8
mm, DV -1.3 mm) or BLA (0.65 mm diameter, 7.3 mm length; AP -1.25 mm, ML +3.15 mm,
DV -4.85 mm). For CA1 implants, overlying neocortex was aspirated under continuous irrigation
with cold 0.9% saline until vertical white fibers were visible (Resendez et al., 2016). For BLA
implants, a tract was created using a stereotaxically lowered 27-gauge needle (0.5 mm diameter)
into the craniotomy prior to insertion of the lens. Gaps between the lens and the skull were filled
using Kwik-Sil (World Precision Instruments) and the lens was then adhered to the skull using
Metabond. The surface of the lens was covered with a protective cap made of Kwik-Cast (World
Precision Instruments) until base plate attachment.
Finally, one week after the lens implant, mice were implanted with a base plate for
microscope attachment. A plastic base plate was magnetically attached to the bottom of the
microscope. The microscope objective was then aligned to the GRIN lens and lowered until cells
came into focus, as observed via nVista recording software (Inscopix). The base plate was then
adhered to the surrounding Metabond on the animal's skull using a dental composite (Flow-It
ALC, Pentron) and strengthened with an additional layer of Metabond.
Histological assessment verified viral targeting and fiber/lens placement. Data from off-
target injections and implants were not included in analyses.
755
Optogenetic methods
Optic fiber implants were plugged into a patch cord connected to a 520nm green laser
diode controlled by automated software (Doric Lenses). Laser diode output was tested at the
beginning of every experiment to ensure that at least 10 mW of power was delivered at the end
of the optic fiber tip (Doric lenses). Mice began the stimulation trial with a 2-min light-off epoch,
followed by 2-min optical stimulation (15 ms pulse width, 20 Hz), and then repeated, such that
the mice underwent a light-OFF/ON/OFF/ON pattern for a total of 8-min.
763
Behavioral tagging
Dox diet was replaced with standard lab chow (*ad libitum*) 48-hours prior to behavioral
tagging. *Female exposure*: One female mouse (PD 30-40) was placed into a clean home cage
with a clear cage top, which was used as the interaction chamber. The experimental male mouse
was then placed into the chamber and allowed to interact freely for one hour(Ramirez et al.,
2015). *Fear conditioning*: Mice were placed into a conditioning chamber and received fear
conditioning (see below) over a 500-second training session (including exposure to four 1.5 mA
foot shocks). Following behavioral tagging, the male mouse was returned to their home cage
with access to Dox diet (Ramirez et al., 2013).
773
Behavior
All behavior assays were conducted during the light cycle of the day (0730–1930). Mice
were handled for 1-2 days, 2 min per day, before all behavioral experiments, and were run by
cage. The entire behavioral schedule includes female exposure, fear conditioning, extinction,

reinstatement, and recall (described below). Which of these behaviors the mice underwent
depended on the experiment.
Female exposure: One female mouse (PD 30-40) was placed into a clean home cage with
a clear cage top and no bedding, which was used as the interaction chamber. The experimental
male mouse was then placed into the chamber and allowed to interact freely for one
hour(Ramirez et al., 2015).
Fear conditioning: Fear conditioning occurred in one of four mouse conditioning
chambers (Coulbourn Instruments, Whitehall, PA, USA) with metal-panel side walls, Plexiglas
front and rear walls, and a stainless-steel grid floor composed of 16 grid bars. The grid floor was
connected to a precision animal shocker (Coulbourn Instruments, Whitehall, PA, USA) set to
deliver a 2-second 1.5 mA foot shock unconditioned stimulus (US). A ceiling-mounted video
camera recorded activity and fed into a computer running FreezeFrame3 software (Actimetrics,
Wilmette, IL, USA). The software controlled stimuli presentations and recorded videos from
four chambers simultaneously. The program determined movement as changes in pixel
luminance. Context alterations included changes to spatial, olfactory, tactile, and lighting cues.
The conditioning chamber with room lights off was designated as Context A. Context B involved
modifications to the conditioning chamber, including vertical black and white strips spaced ~ 3
cm apart obscuring the front and rear walls, black inserts placed between grids to slightly alter
dimensions of the box, 1 mL of almond extract in a plastic container positioned below the grid
floor, and room lights on. Context C also involved modifications to the conditioning chamber,
with a plastic sheet with a cross-hatch texture placed over the shock grid to change tactile cues, a
black sheet obscuring the front walls, 1 mL of orange extract in a plastic container position
below the grid floor, and room lights on. The chambers were cleaned with 70% ethanol solution
prior to animal placement. Contextual fear conditioning occurred in Context A. Briefly, mice
were placed into the conditioning context for a 500-second acquisition session, including a 180-
second baseline period followed four 1.5 mA, 2-second foot shock USs (interstimulus interval
[ISI] equals 80-sec). In optogenetic experiments, mice had patch cords attached near the
conditioning chamber by the experimenter, and were run two mice at a time.
Fear conditioning data are collected using FreezeFrame3 software (Actimetrics, Wilmette
IL) with the bout length set at 1.25-sec and the freezing threshold initially set as described in the
program instructions. Freezing is defined as changes in pixel luminance falling below a
threshold. An experimenter adjusted the threshold so that freezing behavior involves the absence
of all movement except those needed for respiration as previously described. Freezing behavior
was scored as the percentage of time spent freezing during a given bout of time. Statistical
analyses involved paired t-tests comparing within subject differences (i.e. light off vs light on
epochs), unpaired t-tests comparing across experimental groups (e.g. ArchT group vs. eYFP
group), and one-sample t-tests comparing freezing differences scores to a $\mu_0 = 0$.
Extinction: Extinction occurred in Context A (described above) the day following fear
conditioning. Mice were placed in Context A for 30-min sessions once per day, for two days. As
in fear conditioning, cages of four mice were run simultaneously, and cages of five mice were
run as three mice first, then the remaining two.
Reinstatement: Reinstatement occurred in Context B (described above) the day following
the second day of extinction. Mice were placed in Context B and given a 1.5 mA, 2-second foot
shock 1-second into the trial. Mice were left in the chamber for another 60-seconds before being
removed. As opposed to being run four mice simultaneously as in fear conditioning and
extinction, each mouse in a cage was run individually for reinstatement.

Recall: Recall for behavioral and overlap experiments involved placement in a context
for 5-min. In this case, as in fear conditioning and extinction, cages of four mice were run
simultaneously while cages of five mice were run as three mice first, then the remaining two. In
optogenetic experiments, recall involved an 8-min session consisting of 2-min epochs of
alternating light off and light on. In this case, mice were run one or two at a time.
829
<u>Immunohistochemistry.</u>
Mice were anesthetized with 3% isoflurane and perfused transcardially with cold (4° C)
phosphate- buffered saline (PBS) followed by cold 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS. Brains
were extracted and stored overnight in PFA at 4°C. Fifty μm coronal sections were collected in
serial order using a vibratome and collected in cold PBS (100 μm coronal sections were collected
when solely verifying injection site and implant placement). Immunostaining involved washing
sections in PBS with 0.2% triton (PBST) for 10-minutes (x3). Sections were blocked for 1 hour
at room temperature in PBST and 5% normal goat serum (NGS) on a shaker. Sections were
transferred to wells containing primary antibodies (1:5000 rabbit anti-c-Fos [SySy]; 1:500
chicken anti-GFP [Invitrogen]) and allowed to incubate on a shaker overnight at 4°C. Sections
were then washed in PBST for 10-min (x3), followed by 2-hour incubation with secondary
antibody (1:200 Alexa 555 anti-rabbit [Invitrogen]; 1:200 Alexa 488 anti-chicken [Invitrogen]).
Following three additional 10-min washes in PBST, sections were mounted onto micro slides
(VWR International, LLC). Vectashield Hard Set Mounting Medium with DAPI (Vector
Laboratories, Inc) was applied, slides were cover slipped, and allowed to dry overnight.
845
<u>Cell counting.</u>
The number of eYFP- or cFos-immunoreactive neurons in the dentate gyrus and
basolateral amygdala were counted to measure the number of active cells during defined
behavioral tasks per mouse. Only animals that had accurate injections were selected for counting,
and sections closest to the injection coordinates for each brain region were chosen (see the
Stereotaxic surgeries section of Methods). All animals were sacrificed 90 minutes post-assay for
immunohistochemical analyses. Fluorescence images were acquired using a confocal microscope
(Zeiss LSM800, Germany) with a 10X objective for dentate gyrus images and 20X objective for
basolateral amygdala images. Z-stacked images were taken at step sizes of 3um for DG and
1.54um for BLA in the z-axis and maximum projections of these z-stacks were taken for
counting.
For the dentate gyrus, the number of eYFP-positive and cFos-positive cells in a set region
of interest were quantified manually using ImageJ. eYFP positive cells in the basolateral
amygdala were quantified automatically using a custom Python script that detects cells based on
size and circularity of objects in an image, while cFos-positive cells were quantified manually
with ImageJ because of poorer signal to noise in cFos images compared with the eYFP images.
To calculate the percentage of re-activated cells we counted the number of eYFP-positive
cells, cFos-positive cells, and both eYFP- and cFos-positive (Overlapped) cells. Re-activation
was calculated as (Overlap/eYFP*100). Overlap was compared across groups using unpaired t-
test (two-groups) and one-way ANOVA (more than two groups). Relative expression of eYFP
and cFos across groups was calculated as (#eYFP cells/Area) and (#cFos cell/Area) in arbitrary
area units.
868
<u>*In vivo* calcium imaging</u>

A miniaturized microscope (Inscopix) was used to collect Ca^{2+} imaging videos in mice
undergoing the fear reinstatement schedule. Videos were captured using nVista (Inscopix) at 20
Hz in a 720 x 540 pixel field of view (1.1 microns/pixel). Microscope attachments were done
while the mice were awake and restrained.
Ca^{2+} imaging videos were cropped, spatially bandpass filtered, and motion corrected
offline using Inscopix Data Processing Software v1.1. A ΔF/F movie was computed using the
mean fluorescence of the movie as the baseline and PCA/ICA was used for automated
segmentation of cell masks (Mukamel, Nimmerjahn, & Schnitzer, 2009). PCA/ICA putative cell
masks were each manually inspected to verify that cells were accurately captured with high
fidelity. Cells across imaging sessions were aligned and registered to each other using the
automated CellReg software in Matlab (Sheintuch et al., 2017).
Population vectors (PVs) were computed for the entirety of the CFC session by taking the
average Ca^{2+} transient rate for each cell while the mouse was in the fear conditioning chamber.
PVs for EXT1, EXT2, and Recall were defined as the average Ca^{2+} transient rate for each 30 s
time bin while the mouse was in the chamber. As a measure of the similarity of the population to
the CFC network state, Pearson correlations were performed between each 30 s PV to the CFC
PV. As a control, we also performed correlations between PVs from a neutral context to the CFC
PV. Only cells that were active for both sessions being correlated (CFC and either EXT1, EXT2,
or Recall) were considered.
We used piecewise regressions to determine whether reinstatement increased PV
correlations (to CFC) greater than would be expected from chance. For each mouse, we fit PV
correlation coefficients using time as a predictor for the EXT sessions and the Recall session
separately. Next, using the regression models obtained from the EXT session data, we predicted
the PV correlation value that should be observed during the first time bin in Recall. Then we
compared the predicted values to the actual values derived from the y-intercepts of the regression
models on the Recall data.
896
<u>Neuronal Ensembles</u>
We characterized neuronal ensembles from Ca^{2+} transient activity and correlated their
later activity during Recall to relapse-associated freezing. To extract neuronal ensembles, we
used a PCA/ICA method that was previously published (Lopes-dos-Santos et al., 2013). This
method is a source separation algorithm that is similar in principle to the PCA/ICA that was run
on Ca^{2+} imaging movies earlier (Mukamel et al., 2009). However, rather than extracting neurons
from pixel fluorescence, we are now extracting ensembles from traces. First, Ca^{2+} traces were z-
score normalized. Then, principal components analysis (PCA) was used to reduce the
dimensionality of the trace matrix and to compute eigenvalues corresponding to the variances
along the reduced dimensions. To produce a surrogate dataset for determining significant
eigenvalues, we circularly shuffled each neuron's Ca^{2+} trace vector and performed PCA on that
shuffled data 1000 times. Next, significant ensembles were tallied based on eigenvalues
exceeding a statistically defined threshold (eigenvalues must be > 99% of all the eigenvalues
computed from the PCA of the shuffled data). To extract statistically independent ensembles, an
independent components analysis (ICA) was run on the trace matrix with the number of
components specified by the number of statistically significant ensembles (eigenvalues). From
this computation, each ensemble now has a corresponding "pattern" vector describing the weight
of each neuron contributing to that ensemble. For each ensemble, a projection matrix was
computed from the outer product of these pattern vectors with the identity of the matrix set to 0

(to ensure that more than one neuron was needed to trigger an ensemble activation). The
projection matrix was multiplied with each observation (frame) of the trace matrix to obtain
ensemble activation strength. Finally, an ensemble was considered to be significantly activated if
it exceeded 2 standard deviations above its mean activation strength.
Ensembles were extracted individually for CFC, EXT1, and EXT2. Only neurons that
were active between these sessions and Recall were considered. After ensembles were extracted,
their activity strength during Recall was calculated and the proportion of significant activations
was correlated with freezing.
924
Data Analysis.
Data were analyzed using Inscopix nVista in conjunction with custom-made R, Python,
and Matlab scripts. Data were analyzed using paired t-tests (two factors) or with one-way and
repeated measures ANOVAs (more than two factors), Wilcoxon signed-rank tests, and Mann-
Whitney U tests (two-tailed, corrected for multiple comparisons using false discovery rate
adjustments). Post-hoc analyses (Tukey's) were used to characterize treatment and interaction
effects, when statistically significant (alpha set at $p < 0.05$, two-tailed).

Figure 1

Figure 1 – figure supplement 1

Figure 1 – figure supplement 2

a

Fear Conditioning   2X EXT   Shock Reinstatement   Recall

b

b

Reins

% Freezing (+/-SEM)

1   2   3   4   5

Time (min)

b

Reinstatement is Largely Context Specific

Freezing (+/- SEM)

1   2   3   4   5

Time (minutes)

→ Recall in A
→ Recall in B

**

Figure 2

Figure 2 - figure supplement 1

Figure 2 - figure supplement 2

Figure 3

Figure 3 – figure supplement 1

Figure 3 – figure supplement 2

Figure 3 – figure supplement 3