Title: Control of flight responses by a non-canonical corticolimbic pathway.

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ABSTRACT

Survival requires the selection of appropriate behaviour in response to threats, and

dysregulated defensive reactions are associated with psychiatric illnesses such as

posttraumatic stress and panic disorder.[1] Threat-induced behaviour, including panic-like

flight, is controlled by neuronal circuits in the central amygdala (CeA)[2]; however, the

source of neuronal excitation to the CeA that contributes to these high-intensity defensive

responses is unknown. Here we used a combination of neuroanatomical mapping, *in-vivo*

calcium imaging, functional manipulations, and slice physiology to characterize a

previously unknown projection from the dorsal peduncular (DP) prefrontal cortex to the CeA. DP-to-CeA neurons are glutamatergic and specifically target the medial CeA. Using a behavioural paradigm that elicits both freezing and flight, we found that CeA-projecting DP neurons are activated by high-intensity threats in a context-dependent manner. Functional manipulations revealed that the DP-to-CeA pathway is necessary for both avoidance behaviour and flight. Furthermore, we found that DP projections preferentially target distinct medial CeA neuronal populations linked to flight. These results are the first demonstration that the prefrontal cortex exerts direct, top-down control of the CeA and elucidate a non-canonical pathway regulating panic-like fear responses.

In the face of threat, organisms display a continuum of defensive behaviours and flexibly shift between defensive strategies.[3,4] Selecting the appropriate action for survival depends on the proximity and intensity of the threat and the context of the encounter.[5,6] Moreover, exaggerated responses to perceived threats have been associated with anxiety, post-traumatic stress and panic disorders, and phobias.[1,7,8,9] Abnormal patterns of activation in the prefrontal cortex (PFC) are associated with these mental illnesses, and bidirectional projections between the medial PFC (mPFC) and basolateral amygdala are part of a canonical pathway that has been extensively studied in the acquisition and expression of learned fear measured with freezing.[10–14] Previous studies have shown that animals exhibit behavioural scaling to favour flight over freezing in response to a high-intensity threat, and conditional freeze-to-flight shifting is regulated by distinct and mutually inhibitory local circuit motifs in the CeA.[2,15,16] Whether the cortex exerts top-down control of these behavioural shifts is not fully understood. Interestingly, the mPFC also projects to the CeA,[17] raising the possibility that a direct pathway from mPFC to CeA could influence defensive action selection. However, this pathway has never been defined neuroanatomically, and its role in regulating defensive behaviour is unknown.

Direct mPFC projections to medial CeA

To determine which subdivision of the mPFC projects to the CeA, we injected fluorescent, retrogradely trafficked latex microspheres into the CeA (**Fig. 1A, B**). We observed sparse projections from both the prelimbic (PL) and infralimbic (IL) cortices. However, a significantly greater number of CeA projectors were located in the dorsal peduncular nucleus (DP; **Fig. 1C, D; Fig. S1A**), a region of the mPFC recently linked to physiological and behavioural responses to stress.[18]

The mPFC regulates cognition, motivation, and emotion via distinct glutamatergic projections to cortical and subcortical regions.[19] The vesicular glutamate transporter (Vglut) 1 is used to label most excitatory cortical neurons, yet the DP is enriched in both the Vglut1 and Vglut2 isoforms, which define different populations of projection neurons.[20] To characterize the DP-to-CeA pathway more precisely, we injected a viral vector into the DP of Vglut1- or Vglut2-Cre mice (**Fig. 1E-G**). We found that the Vglut1 fibre density within the CeA was significantly higher than that of Vglut2 (**Fig. 1H-J**). Notably, these fibres were most abundant in the medial subdivision of the CeA (CeM), as compared to the lateral (CeL) or capsular (CeC) subdivisions (**Fig. 1J**). Therefore, Vglut1-expressing DP neurons are anatomically positioned to influence fear via direct projections to the primary amygdalar output centre that controls the expression of defensive behaviour.

Figure 1. Neuroanatomical characterization of the DP-to-CeA pathway.

A, Schematic diagram showing retrograde tracing strategy.

B, Histology image showing injection site of red beads in the CeA.

C, Histology images of red retro-beads+ neurons in the DP (at 5x *(left)* and 10x *(right)*

magnification).

D, Distribution of CeA-projecting neurons from mPFC subregions (One-way ANOVA, $F_{(2,15)}$ =

5.51, p = 0.016; Bonferroni's post-hoc test, *p<0.05 vs DP; N = 6; 5-7 sections/mouse). DP,

dorsal peduncular cortex; IL, infralimbic cortex; PL, prelimbic cortex.

E, Strategy used to trace glutamatergic terminals in the CeA.

F, Representative image of DP targeting in Vglut1-Cre mice.

G, Representative image of DP targeting in Vglut2-Cre mice.

H, Representative expression of mCherry+ terminals in the CeA of a VGlut1-Cre mouse.

I, Representative expression of mCherry+ terminals in the CeA of a VGlut2-Cre mouse.

J, Integrated density of mCherry+ fibres from Vglut1+ (N = 3, 3-4 sections/mouse) and Vglut2+

(N = 3, 3-4 sections/mouse) neurons (unpaired Student's t-test for total CeA, Vglut1 vs Vglut2, t

= 9.98, df = 25, p < 0.0001. Two-way ANOVA, CeM vs CeL, strain X region, $F_{(1,50)}$ = 14.0, p <

0.001; Bonferroni's post-hoc test, ****p < 0.0001. CeL includes lateral and capsular subregions.

Data represented as means ± s.e.m.

K, Dual-target retrograde tracing strategy from CeA and dorsomedial hypothalamus (DMH).

L, Representative targeting of CeA.

M, Representative targeting of DMH.

N, Deposition of green and red beads in the mPFC. *Inset,* distribution of CeA and DMH

projectors in different layers of DP. Red, green, and yellow arrowheads indicate red beads,

green beads, and overlay, respectively.

O, Number of DP neurons projecting to CeA, DMH, or both (One-way ANOVA, $F_{(2,24)}$ = 11.1, p =

0.0004; Bonferroni's post-hoc test, **p < 0.01; N = 3, 3 sections/mouse). Data represented as

means ± s.e.m.

P, Strategy for neuronal activation analysis. Seven days after injection, animals were split into

three groups: home cage control, shock only, and serial compound stimulus fear conditioning

(SCS-FC).

Q, Representative images showing bead+ and/or cFos+ cells in the DP. *Left*, 10x and *right*, 20x

magnifications. Red arrow, bead+; yellow arrow, bead and cFos+.

R, Quantification of cFos expression in bead+ cells (N = 3-4 mice; 3-4 sections/mouse; One-

way ANOVA, $F_{(2,34)}$ = 20.4, *p* < 0.0001; Bonferroni's post-hoc test, ****p* < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001).

Data represented as means ± s.e.m.

The DP also projects to the dorsomedial hypothalamus (DMH), and this pathway regulates

sympathetic responses to psychosocial stress.[18] To determine whether the DP-to-CeA and DP-

to-DMH pathways are discrete, we injected red or green-fluorescent retro-beads into the CeA and

DMH (**Fig. 1K-M**). Both red and green retro-beads were localized in DP cells (**Fig. 1N**), but the

DMH-projecting DP neurons were localized in layers V and VI, while CeA-projecting cells were

found in layers II/III (**Fig. 1N**, *inset*). Only a small number of DP cells (~8%) were co-labelled,

suggesting that the DP-to-CeA and DP-to-DMH pathways are largely anatomically distinct (**Fig.**

1O).

Given the role of the CeA in defensive response selection and the role of the DP in stress

responding,[2,18] we hypothesized that threats would activate CeA-projecting DP neurons. To test

this, we injected C57BL/6J mice with retro-beads in the CeA and divided animals into three

groups: home cage control, shock-only, and fear conditioning (**Fig. 1P; Fig. S1B**). The fear

conditioning (FC) group was subjected to a protocol we developed that elicits freezing and flight

responses to separate components of a serial compound stimulus (SCS-FC, see **Fig. S1D** for

behaviour).[2] Compared to home cage control and shock-only groups, SCS-FC mice displayed

greater numbers of retro-bead+ cells in the DP that were co-labelled with cFos (**Fig. 1P-R**). There

were no significant differences in the total number of retro-bead+ cells across the groups,

indicating a consistent retrograde labelling efficiency across the three experimental groups (**Fig.**

S1C).

DP-to-CeA neurons are activated by flight

The significantly elevated expression of cFos in the SCS-FC group compared to the shock-only group suggests that DP-to-CeA neurons are recruited under conditions with increased threat imminence. Therefore, we set out to determine the activation patterns of DP-to-CeA projecting neurons during our SCS-FC protocol, which induces escalating intensities of defensive behaviours. We used an intersectional approach to selectively express GCaMP6f in DP-to-CeA projection neurons and imaged their *in-vivo* calcium activity in unrestricted mice using custom-built open-source miniscopes (**Fig. 2A-C; Fig. S2A-D**). We observed comparable levels of activation to the tone and white noise (WN) components of the SCS task during preconditioning. Moreover, there was no correlation between calcium activity and movement speed before conditioning (**Fig. S2E-G**). Following conditioning, mice exhibited elevated levels of freezing to the tone and flight to the WN in the conditioning context (hereafter called the high-threat context), consistent with our previous findings (**Fig. 2D; Fig. S2A-D**).[2,21] By contrast, mice exhibited only freezing when exposed to the same conditioned stimuli in a neutral context (hereafter called the low-threat context; **Fig. 2E; Fig. S2D,H**). Although there was variability in flight scores seen in mice fitted with miniscopes, this was related to the miniscope rather than the implantation surgery, as non-implanted but miniscope-fitted control mice showed a similar pattern of flight scores (**Fig. S2I-J**).

The CeA-projecting DP neuronal population was most active during WN and shock in the high-threat context (**Fig. 2F**). Interestingly, WN-induced activation was absent in the low-threat context (**Fig. 2G**). Moreover, the mean activity of CeA-projecting DP neurons (Zscore) increased concurrently with speed in the high- but not low-threat context (**Fig. 2F,G**). Many individual DP-to-CeA neurons were active (neurons with peaks ≥3 s.d. above baseline) specifically during the WN and post-shock periods, epochs of elevated flight behaviour (**Fig. 2H**, *left*). Activity was

significantly higher during WN and post-shock compared to the tone (**Fig. 2K**), further suggesting

that DP-to-CeA neuronal activity is more associated with higher-intensity threats. Transient

calcium events to both cues were observed in the low-threat context (**Fig. 2H**, *right*), yet no

significant difference was observed for Z-scores between tone and WN (**Fig. 2L**), paralleling the

lack of flight behaviour (**Fig. 2E,G**).

Among individual responsive cells, most neurons responded during the WN and post-shock

period in the high-threat context, while neuronal responses were more evenly distributed across

response categories in the low-threat context (**Fig. 2I**). In the high-threat context (day 3), a higher

percentage of cells encoded stimuli that produced flight (WN and shock; 41%) as compared to

cells that encoded stimuli producing freezing (tone; 4.6%; **Fig. 2J**). In the low-threat context (day

4), where flight was not observed, the proportions of neurons that responded to the tone or WN

(16% and 16.6%) were comparable. Concomitant with a reduction in threat intensity, the

percentage of WN-responsive neurons decreased from 27.3% in the high-threat context to 12.3%

in the low-threat context (**Fig. 2J**). Together, these data demonstrate that the DP-to-CeA

population encodes high-intensity threats in a context-specific manner.

We next assessed if the activity of the threat-encoding cells correlated with behavioural state. We

analysed data from the last three trials in the high-threat context, when flight scores during the

WN were maximal (**Fig. 2D**). We found that the activity of threat-responsive neurons positively

correlated with speed and negatively correlated with freezing (**Fig. 2M**). In the low-threat context,

the positive correlation between Zscore and speed was greatly reduced, and there was no

significant correlation with freezing (**Fig. 2N)**, further suggesting that the DP-to-CeA pathway is

linked to flight behaviour under high-threat conditions.

Figure 2: DP-to-CeA projecting cells are activated by high fear states.

A, Schematic of the intersectional strategy used to record DP-to-CeA projector activity.

B, Implanted mice were subjected to a fear conditioning paradigm designed to elicit high fear

states.

C, *Left*, Representative GCaMP6f expression with lens placement in the DP (scale bar = 500

μm). *Right*, miniscope field-of-view (raw and post cell extraction).

D, Freezing and flight scores in the high-threat context. N = 5

E, Freezing and flight scores in the low-threat context. N = 5

F, Zscores of active neurons and speed in the high-threat context (N = 148 neurons).

G, Zscores of active neurons and speed in the low-threat context (N = 109 neurons). *Inset*,

representative Ca^{2+} traces (dF/F) extracted from a representative mouse.

H, Heatmap of Z-scores from active neurons during the last trial in the high-threat context (148

neurons from 5 mice, *left*), and from the last trial in the low-threat context, organized by

response profile (109 neurons from 5 mice, *right*).

I, Fraction of active cells and non-responsive cells during different sessions, categorized by

activity profile.

J, Percentages of neurons activated (neurons with peaks ≥3 s.d. above baseline) during

different cue periods in the high- (*left*) and low- (*right*) threat contexts.

K, Z-score of preSCS, tone and WN and post-shock (post) of the entire DP-to-CeA population in

the high-threat context (from all trials, Ordinary one-way ANOVA, effect of stimuli $F_{(3,16)}$ = 19.4, *p*

< 0.0001, followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test, *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001). Data shown as

means ± s.e.m.

L, Z-score of preSCS, tone and WN and post-SCS (post) of the entire DP-to-CeA population in

the low-threat context (from all trials, Ordinary one-way ANOVA, effect of stimuli $F_{(3,16)}$ = 0.815,

p = 0.504, followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test, n.s.). Data shown as means ± s.e.m.

M, Repeated measure correlation of Z-score of active neuronal populations (N = 5 mice) with

speed or freezing in the high-threat context (r_{rm} = repeated measures correlation coefficient).

N, Repeated measure correlation of Z-score of active neuronal populations (N = 5 mice) with

speed or freezing in the low-threat context (r_{rm} = repeated measures correlation coefficient).

DP-to-CeA neurons mediate avoidance

The high prevalence of DP-to-CeA neurons active in the high-threat context suggests a functional role for this pathway in negative-valence related behaviours. We first tested this idea using chemogenetic manipulations of DP-to-CeA neurons in standard avoidance paradigms used to assay anxiety-like states: the open field test (OFT) and the elevated plus maze (EPM). We used the same intersectional targeting strategy to express either inhibitory (hM4Di-mCherry) or excitatory (hM3Dq-mCherry) DREADDs in the DP-to-CeA pathway, with an mCherry only group serving as a CNO control (**Fig. 3A-C**). DREADD-mediated inhibition of the DP-to-CeA pathway increased the time spent by animals in the centre zone of the OFT (**Fig. 3D,F**) and in the open arm of the EPM (**Fig. 3E,H**) without affecting the total distance travelled (**Fig. 3G**). By contrast, chemogenetic stimulation of this pathway did not induce avoidance behaviour in either assay. These findings suggest that the DP-to-CeA pathway is necessary but not sufficient for anxiety-like behaviour.

Figure 3: Chemogenetic inhibition of DP-to-CeA pathway reduces avoidance.

A, Intersectional strategy used for chemogenetic manipulation of the DP-to-CeA pathway.

B, Representative mCherry expression in the DP (scalebar = 500 μm).

C, Mice from control (hM4Di-mCherry + vehicle, N = 5; mCherry + CNO, N = 5) and DREADD

(hM4Di-mCherry, N = 6; hM3Dq-mCherry, N = 7) groups were subjected to the OFT and EPM

30 min after CNO (5 mg/kg) or vehicle injection.

D, Representative activity plots of mCherry + CNO and hM4Di + CNO mice in the OFT.

E, Representative activity plots of mCherry + CNO and hM4Di + CNO mice in the EPM.

F, Inhibition of DP-to-CeA pathway significantly increased the time spent in the centre zone

(One-way ANOVA, $F_{(3,19)}$ = 8.02, p = 0.001). Bonferroni's post-hoc test. **p < 0.01. All values

represented as mean ± s.e.m.

G, DREADD manipulations did not alter distance travelled in the OFT (One-way ANOVA, $F_{(3,19)}$

= 2.59, p = 0.083).

H, inhibition of the DP-to-CeA pathway significantly increased open-arm time in the EPM (One-

way ANOVA, $F_{(3,19)}$ = 8.81, p = 0.0007). Bonferroni's post-hoc test. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p <

0.001. All values represented as mean ± s.e.m.

DP-to-CeA neurons mediate flight

To study the functional role of the DP-to-CeA pathway in fear-related behaviour, we performed

gain- and loss-of-function studies using optogenetics in the OFT and SCS-FC (**Fig. 4 A-B**). We

injected a Cre-dependent vector carrying eNpHR, ChR2, or an EYFP control into the DP and a

retrograde CAV2-Cre vector into the CeA of C57BL/6J mice (**Fig. 4A**). Inhibition of DP-to-CeA

terminals significantly increased the time spent in and number of entries into the inner zone of the

OFT, but did not affect locomotor activity, consistent with chemogenetic manipulations (**Fig. 4C-**

E). We used a within-subjects experimental design in the SCS-FC paradigm, with optogenetic

stimulation during half of the trials. In the high-threat context, inhibition of DP-to-CeA terminals

significantly reduced flight in response to the WN (**Fig. 4J; Fig. S3C,D**). Interestingly, inhibiting

these terminals also significantly elevated freezing during the WN period, consistent with the

concept of fear scalability (**Fig. 4I; Fig. S3A,B**).[22,23] Optogenetic inhibition had no effect on

defensive behaviour in the low-threat context, further supporting the role of the DP-to-CeA

pathway in situations of high-threat intensity (**Fig. 4K**). Optogenetic activation of DP-to-CeA

terminals did not elicit significant behavioural changes in the OFT, in a real-time place aversion

test, or in the SCS-FC paradigm (**Fig. 4F-H,L-N; Fig. S3E-H; Fig. S4A-F**). Together, these data

support an essential role of the DP-to-CeA pathway for generating flight responses exclusively in

high-threat contexts.

Figure 4. Optogenetic modulation of the DP-to-CeA pathway regulates flight.

A, Schematic of intersectional targeting strategy for optogenetic manipulations of DP-to-CeA

pathway.

B, Experimental timeline for optogenetic inhibition and stimulation experiments.

C, Representative images of eNpHR-EYFP expression in DP and fibre stub placement in CeA

(scalebar = 500 μm).

D, Representative tracking data of EYFP and eNpHR mice in the OFT.

E, Effect of optogenetic inhibition in OFT in EYFP (N = 9) and eNpHR (N = 9) groups. Unpaired

Student's t-test, *p < 0.05.

F, Representative images of ChR2-EYFP expression in DP and fibre stub placement in CeA

(scalebar = 500 μm).

G, Representative tracking data of mice after optogenetic stimulation in OFT.

H, Effect of optogenetic stimulation in OFT in EYFP (N = 10) and ChR2 (N = 9) groups

(Unpaired Student's t-test, n.s.).

I, Effect of optogenetic inhibition in EYFP (N = 9) and eNpHR (N = 9) groups on % change

(LED-on vs LED-off, tone and WN) in freezing in the high-threat context (EYFP vs eNpHR,

Mann-Whitney, ** p < 0.01).

J, Effect of optogenetic inhibition in EYFP (N = 9) and eNpHR (N = 9) groups on % change

(LED-on vs LED-off, WN) in flight scores in the high-threat context (EYFP vs eNpHR, Mann-

Whitney, * p < 0.05).

K, Effect of optogenetic inhibition in EYFP (N = 9) and eNpHR (N = 9) groups on % change

(LED-on vs LED-off, tone and WN) in freezing in the low-threat context (EYFP vs eNpHR,

Mann-Whitney, n.s.)

L, Effect of optogenetic stimulation in EYFP (N = 10) and ChR2 (N = 9) groups on % change

(LED-on vs LED-off, tone and WN) in freezing in the high-threat context (EYFP vs ChR2, Mann-

Whitney, n.s.).

M, Effect of optogenetic stimulation in EYFP (N = 10) and ChR2 (N = 9) groups on % change

(LED-on vs LED-off, WN) in flight scores in the high-threat context (EYFP vs ChR2, Mann-

Whitney, n.s.).

N, Effect of optogenetic excitation in EYFP (N = 10) and ChR2 (N = 9) groups on % change

(LED-on vs LED-off, tone and WN) in freezing in the low-threat context (EYFP vs ChR2, Mann-

Whitney, n.s.).

Box and whisker plots indicate median, interquartile range, and min. to max. of the distribution,

crosses indicate means.

DP neurons control CeM outputs

To investigate the mechanism by which DP neurons impact flight behaviour, we first asked

whether DP-to-CeA projections differentially innervate molecularly defined cell types in the CeM.

We targeted neurons expressing somatostatin (SOM) and corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH)

because mutual inhibitory interactions between these neuronal classes mediate defensive action

selection in the CeL.[2] We injected AAV-syn-ChR2-mCherry into the DP and AAV-DIO-EYFP into

the CeA of either SOM or CRH Cre-driver lines to label SOM+ or CRH+ neurons (**Fig. 5A**).

Consistent with the Vglut-1 and -2 tracing experiments (**Fig. 1E-J**), only sparse DP terminals were

present in the CeL; however, there were many labeled terminals near both SOM+ and CRH+

somata in the CeM (**Fig. 5B**). We next employed slice electrophysiology and optogenetics to

evaluate whether SOM+ and CRH+ cells in the CeA are functionally modulated by DP projections

(**Fig. 5C**). DP fibre stimulation resulted in a strong induction of either a monophasic inward

synaptic current or a biphasic inward/outward synaptic current in both SOM+ and CRH+ neurons

in the CeM (**Fig. 5D,F**), but not in the CeL (**Fig. 5E,H**). The excitatory and inhibitory light-evoked

responses were both blocked by bath application of the AMPA receptor antagonist DNQX (**Fig.**

5G), indicative of a monosynaptic excitatory input as well as a disynaptic excitatory-inhibitory

circuit. Disynaptic responses were observed in 85% of recorded SOM+ neurons and 70% of

CRH+ neurons, and the amplitude of the disynaptic inhibitory response did not differ between

CRH+ and SOM+ neurons (**Fig. S5A**). These findings confirm the presence of functional

glutamatergic DP projections to the CeM but also suggest that this pathway controls flight

behaviour via a mechanism distinct from that which was previously described in the CeL.

Figure 5. DP-to-CeA neurons exert excitatory control over CeM output neurons linked to

flight.

A, Schematic of targeting strategy for optogenetic stimulation.

B, DP terminals in CeM near SOM+ (*left*) and CRH+ (*right*) cells at 20x and 40x magnification.

C, Schematics for recording light-evoked synaptic input from DP to CeM of SOM+ or CRH+

neurons (*top*) or unlabelled CeL (*middle*) and CeM (*bottom*) neurons.

D, Representative evoked synaptic responses in CeM SOM+ and CRH+ cells by

photostimulation of DP axonal fibres in voltage-clamp.

E, Photostimulation of axonal fibres did not evoke responses in CeL neurons.

F, Average amplitude of evoked EPSCs in CRH+ neurons (N = 10 cells from 3 mice) and SOM+

(N = 13 cells from 3 mice) at -70mV. Unpaired Student's t-test, *p* = 0.63.

G, Amplitudes of evoked EPSCs in CRH+ (N = 4 cells from 3 mice) and SOM+ (N = 3 cells from

2 mice) neurons at -70 mV, before and after application of DNQX.

H, Average amplitude of evoked EPSCs in CeM (N = 23 cells from 6 mice) and CeL neurons (N

= 5 cells from 2 mice).

I, Representative firing responses elicited in DP-excited CeM neurons.

J, Proportion of DP-excited CeM neurons classified by firing patterns (N = 11 cells from 4 mice).

CeM output neurons can be classified by their action potential firing properties[24–26], with distinct

categories influencing behavioural threat responding via their projections to known projection

targets within the periaqueductal gray (PAG).[26–28] In particular, burst firing and regular firing

neurons innervate columns of the PAG involved in flight responses.[26,29,30] As we did not observe

preferential connectivity of DP neurons to molecularly defined CeM cell types, we next asked if

DP innervation targeted physiologically defined CeM neuronal populations. To test which CeM

neurons are controlled by the DP, we classified DP-excited CeM neurons as regular spiking,

bursting, or late-firing. Optogenetic stimulation of DP terminals in the CeA primarily evoked

EPSCs in burst firing and regular firing neurons, while late-firing neurons were only rarely excited

(**Fig. 5I-J; Fig. S5B**). These data support a role for a DP-CeA-PAG circuit in control of flight

behaviour.

Discussion

Here, we define the function of a novel top-down pathway from the DP region of the mPFC directly to the CeA in the control of panic-like behaviour. This non-canonical corticolimbic pathway is distinct from the heavily studied reciprocal pathway between the prelimbic and infralimbic cortices and the basolateral amygdala and is specifically activated in high-threat situations. Glutamatergic DP neurons exert their influence via projections to the CeM, the amygdalar output nucleus known for coordinating complex responses to threats. These findings have important implications for understanding the basic neurobiology of threat processing.

Our study adds to a growing body of literature defining the CeA as a vital limbic brain structure that integrates complex sensory information to generate survival behaviour.[23,31–33] It is hypothesized that CeM output neurons control freezing through projections to the PAG,[28,34] and our results demonstrate for the first time that the CeM is also important for flight. DP-to-CeA projections target specific classes of CeM neurons that project to flight centres in the PAG, with little innervation of neuronal classes linked to freezing.[26] It has been demonstrated that CeL circuit activity is regulated by local recurrent inhibitory interactions,[2,35,36] and this mutual inhibition motif is likely important for rapid action selection. Future studies should investigate whether a similar "winner-take-all" motif is used in the CeM to select between freezing versus flight responses.

Learned fear behaviour is traditionally assayed using freezing, which involves the well-established mPFC-basolateral amygdala-CeA pathway.[37] Previous research has shown that IL projections to the basolateral amygdala and intercalated cell masses effectively operate to inhibit fear by supporting fear extinction.[38,39] In contrast, the DP-to-CeA pathway defined here operates only under high-threat conditions and is necessary for generating panic-like flight. Our findings therefore implicate the importance of the mPFC in executive control over high-intensity fear

responses and may lead to a better understanding of the cortical dysfunction observed in PTSD

and panic disorder.[14]

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Methods

Animals. Male and female C57BL/6J (Stock No: 000664, Jackson laboratories, USA) mice aged 8-12 weeks were used. CRH-IRES-Cre (Stock Number: 012704), SOM-IRES-Cre (Stock No: 013044) and Vglut1-IRES-Cre (Slc17a7-IRES2-Cre-D, Stock No: 023527) mice were used for *in-vitro* electrophysiology (aged 5-8 weeks), and to determine anatomical connectivity between DP terminals and CeA neuronal subpopulations. For Vglut subpopulation tracing, Vglut1-IRES2-Cre and Vglut2-ires-cre (Stock Number: 028863) mouse lines were used. All Cre-driver lines were fully backcrossed to C57BL/6J. All mice were individually housed on a 12-hr light/dark cycle with *ad libitum* food and water. Behavioural experiments were performed during the light phase. Animals were habituated by cupping the mouse in hand for 5 minutes each day for 2 days, before the start of the experiment. All animal procedures were performed in accordance with institutional guidelines and were approved by the Tulane University Institutional Animal Care & Use Committee.

Viruses

For Cre-dependent expression of channelrhodopsin (ChR2), we used AAV5-EF1a-DIO-hChR2(H134R)-EYFP-WPRE-HGHpa (Addgene 20298, a gift from Karl Deisseroth). For Cre-dependent expression of halorhodopsin (eNpHR), we used AAV5-EF1a-DIO-eNpHR3.0-EYFP (Addgene 26966, a gift from Karl Deisseroth). Control mice for optogenetic experiments were injected with AAV5-EF1a-DIO-EYFP (Addgene 27056, a gift from Karl Deisseroth). For Cre-dependent expression of excitatory DREADDs, we used AAV5-hSyn-DIO-hM3D(Gq)-mCherry (Addgene 44361, a gift from Bryan Roth). For Cre-dependent expression of inhibitory DREADDs, we used AAV-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry (Addgene 44362, a gift from Bryan Roth). For Cre-dependent GCaMP6f expression, we used AAV5-CAG-Flex-GcaMP6f-WPRE-SV40 (Addgene 100835, a gift from Douglas Kim & GENIE Project). To express Cre in C57BL/6J mice, we used

retrograde transporting canine adenovirus type 2 carrying Cre-recombinase (CAV2-Cre, PVM,

France).[40]

To label CRH+ and SOM+ somata in the CeA for *in-vitro* electrophysiology experiments and

anatomical tracing, CRH-IRES-Cre and SOM-IRES-Cre mouse lines were injected with AAV5-

EF1a-DIO-EYFP (Addgene 27056, a gift from Karl Deisseroth). In the same mice, we used AAV5-

hSyn-hChR2(H134R)-mCherry (Addgene 26976, a gift from Karl Deisseroth) to express ChR2 in

the DP for *in-vitro* electrophysiology. For anterograde neuronal tracing experiments in Vglut1- or

Vglut2-cre mouse lines, AAV5-hSyn-DIO-mCherry (Addgene 50459, a gift from Bryan Roth) was

injected in the DP.

Surgery

Tracers/Virus injections

Mice were deeply anaesthetized using 5% isoflurane (Fluriso, VetOne, Boise, ID) in oxygen-

enriched air (OxyVet O2 Concentrator, Vetequip, Pleasanton, CA), followed by a subcutaneous

injection of 2 mg/kg meloxicam (OstiLox, VetOne, Boise, ID), and then fixed into a stereotaxic

frame (Model 1900, Kopf Instruments, Tujunga, CA) equipped with a robotic stereotaxic targeting

system (Neurostar, Germany). Anesthetized mice were maintained on 2-2.5% isoflurane, and a

core body temperature was maintained at 36°C using a feedback-controlled DC temperature

controller (ATC2000, World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL). Eye ointment (GenTeal, Alcon,

Switzerland) was applied to the mouse's eyes to prevent dryness. The head was shaved, and the

skin was sterilized using Betadine iodine solution (Purdue Products, Stamford, CT). 2% lidocaine

(0.1 ml, Lidocaine 2%, VetOne, Boise, ID) was injected subcutaneously at the site of incision and

a midline incision was made with a scalpel to expose the skull.

For the retrograde neuronal tracings, retrogradely transported beads (0.2 µl, 1:2 diluted with

saline, Lumafluor Inc., Durham, NC) were stereotaxically injected into the respective brain

regions. We injected CAV2-Cre into the CeA, and Cre-dependent AAV opsins or DREADD

vectors into the DP. Approximately 0.4 µl per hemisphere of each vector was delivered bilaterally

into the respective brain regions using pulled glass pipettes (tip diameter 10-20 µm, PC-100 puller,

Narishige, Japan), connected to a pressure ejector (PDES-Pressure Application System, npi

electronic equipment, Germany). For *in-vitro* electrophysiology, AAV-ChR2-mCherry was injected

into the DP and Cre-dependent AAV-DIO-EYFP was injected into the CeA of CRH-IRES-Cre or

SOM-IRES-Cre mice. AAV-DIO-mCherry was injected into the DP of Vglut1-/Vglut2-Ires-Cre

mice. For calcium imaging, C57BL/6J mice were injected unilaterally with CAV2-cre in the CeA

and Cre-dependent GCaMP6f in the DP.

The CeA coordinates used were: 1.2-1.3 mm posterior to bregma, ±2.9-3.0 mm lateral to the

midline and 4.1-4.3 mm below the dura. The DP coordinates used were 1.8-1.9 mm anterior to

bregma, ±0.4-0.5 mm lateral to the midline and 3.1-3.2 mm below the dura. The DMH coordinates

used were 1.7 mm posterior to bregma, ±0.5 mm lateral to the midline and 5 mm below the dura.

Fibre implantation for optogenetics

For optogenetic manipulations of behaviour, animals were bilaterally implanted with LC optic fibre

stubs (fibre: 0.48 NA, 200-230 µm diameter, 6 mm length, Plexon) two weeks after viral vector

injection. Optic fibre tips were lowered to 100–200 µm above the CeA. Implants were fixed to the

skull with two miniature screws (00.90-100-M-SS-FH, US Micro Screw, Seattle, WA),

cyanoacrylate glue gel (SuperGlue, The original super glue, Ontario, CA) and dental cement

(Ortho-Jet powder and black liquid acrylate, Lang, Wheeling, IL). Experiments were conducted 3

weeks after viral infections, to ensure adequate opsin expression.

Lens implantation for Ca^{2+} Imaging

Gradient index (GRIN) lens implantation surgery was performed as described previously.[41,42] Mice

were head fixed on the stereotaxic apparatus and a craniotomy was drilled over the DP

coordinates, using 1.2 mm diameter round drill burr (Harvard Apparatus, Holliston, MA). Three

additional holes were drilled to implant stainless steel screws (US Micro Screw, 00.90-100-M-SS-

FH). The skull surface was cleaned from bone fragments and wiped using sterilized cotton tips.

We aspirated the overlying tissue up to 1-1.5 mm above the site of implantation with a bent 27G

needle (NE-4527, Component supply, Sparta, TN) and performed intermittent sterile saline

washes to reduce intracranial pressure and improve the quality of the imaging site. A GRIN lens

(1 mm diameter, 9 mm length, 0.5 NA, 1 pitch, part # 1050-002177, Inscopix, Palo Alto, CA) was

attached to the stereotaxic arm using a custom-built lens holder, and lowered for 3 mm over the

course of 10 min. When the lens reached the required depth, Kwik-Sil (World Precision

Instruments, Sarasota, FL) was used to fill in the gap between the lens and the skull and left to

dry for 5 min. To hold the lens firmly in place, an adhesive cement (C&B S399 Metabond Quick

Adhesive Cement System Parkell, Edgewood, NY) mixed with liquid polymer (Catalyst + Quick

Base) was applied around the lens. After that, dental acrylic cement (Ortho-Jet powder and clear

liquid acrylate) was applied over the skull and screws and allowed to dry completely. The lens

holder was loosened and carefully detached from the lens. The layers of dental cement mixed

with black acrylate (Ortho-Jet powder and black liquid acrylate) were applied around the lens until

the height was ~0.5 mm below the top of the lens, and a thick layer of Kwik-cast (World Precision

Instruments, Sarasota, FL) was applied over the lens until it was embedded. This ridge around

the lens prevented lens damage during homecage activity and was used later for baseplate

implantation. Animals were then returned to the homecage, individually housed, and allowed to

recover for 2-3 weeks.

Baseplating and verification of Ca^{2+} transients

Mice were checked weekly for GCaMP6f fluorescence and Ca^{2+} transient activity over several

weeks after the lens implantation, as described before.[42] For baseplating, mice were anesthetized

with 5% isoflurane, fitted into the stereotaxic frame, and then maintained at 1%. A head-mounted

miniscope (UCLA open-source, http://miniscope.org/) was fixed on a custom-built holder that was

attached to the stereotaxic arm.[43] The focusing mechanism of the miniscope was set at mid-range

to leave enough distance for focus adjustments in either direction. The coaxial cable from the

miniscope was attached to the data acquisition box (DAQ-V3.2, UCLA), which was connected to

the computer through USB 3.0. The baseplate was attached to the bottom of the miniscope. We

aligned the miniscope objective lens over the relay lens implanted in the mouse brain, and the

miniscope was moved to approach the relay lens. The recording software (Miniscope controller,

UCLA) was turned on and LED light intensity (25%), gain, and frame rate (30 fps) were set. To

ensure maximum field of view and focus on the centre of the lens, the miniscope tilt was adjusted

to view all edges of the relay lens. Then, the miniscope was slowly moved in X, Y, Z planes to

locate active cells/transients. If there were no transients, the mouse was returned to the

homecage and checked again the following week.

If Ca^{2+} transients were observed, they were further confirmed using tail pinch. If multiple cells

were observed, these mice were then considered for baseplating. After finding the optimal focal

plane and clear field of view, the baseplate was fixed on the mouse skull. Dental cement mixed

with black acrylate (Ortho-Jet powder and black liquid acrylate) was applied layer-by-layer

between the baseplate and the circular ridge built during lens implantation. The dental cement

was applied sufficiently so that no light could pass through from the outside. After the cement was

dry, the miniscope was detached and a plastic cover was installed to protect the relay lens.

A control group of C57BL/6J mice (N = 4) were injected with the GCaMP6f virus in DP and CAV-

Cre in CeA but were not implanted with lenses to control for the lens implantation damage-induced

behaviour. Mice underwent identical conditioning as described above (**Fig. S2I-J**).

Miniscope recordings

Animals with Ca^{2+} transients were used for behavioural experiments (N = 5). First, the mice were subjected to preconditioning on day 1, and their behaviour as well as Ca^{2+} responses were recorded. Animals were conditioned in the high-threat context for 2 days (5 trials/day), followed by recall in the low-threat context on day 4 (4 trials/day). The Ca^{2+} response data was at 30 frames/sec rate. Behaviour was simultaneously recorded to video ("Pike" camera, Allied vision, Germany). Neuronal recordings were started 10 s before the start of each trial (at the onset of preSCS) and turned off 10 sec after the end of shock/ cue (post-shock/cue), while behaviour was continuously recorded.

Ca^{2+} imaging processing.

Ca^{2+} imaging videos were concatenated using ImageJ software (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/download.html). The concatenated videos were then processed using MATLAB and an open source analysis package (https://bahanonu.github.io/ciatah/) as described previously.[42] The videos were pre-processed by correcting for motion and temporally downsampled by a factor of six. After pre-processing the videos, we extracted individual neurons and their activity traces by using the open-source package Constrained Nonnegative Matrix Factorization for microEndoscopic data (CNMF-E; https://github.com/zhoupc/CNMF-E). The extracted cells were then manually identified based on the spatial filter and activity trace of each candidate cell along with the candidate cells' average Ca^{2+} transient waveform. Data were averaged over a 200 ms sliding window. The data was normalized by calculating Zscores (subtracting mean activity scores during all preSCS trials from each activity trace, divided by the standard deviation of each cell during all preSCS trials) and the neurons with peaks that were ≥3 s.d. above baseline were considered as active neurons. To determine statistically significant

changes in responses of the DP-to-CeA projecting cells to the tone and WN, the Zscores from

the corresponding periods were averaged and compared.

After finishing the experiments animals were perfused and their brains were isolated to confirm

the lens placements. The data from animals with correct lens placement was used for analysis.

Behavioural paradigms

Conditioned flight paradigm

Two different contexts were used. Context A (low-threat context) consisted of a clear cylindrical

chamber with a smooth floor, while Context B (high-threat context) consisted of a square

enclosure with an electrical grid floor used to deliver alternating current footshocks (ENV-414S,

Med Associates Inc., Fairfax, VT). These two chambers were cleaned with 1 % acetic acid and

70 % ethanol, respectively. A speaker (ENV-224AM, Med Associates Inc.) was mounted above

the chambers to deliver auditory stimuli at 75 dB. A programmable audio generator (ANL-926,

Med Associates, Inc.) generated auditory stimuli. Behavioural protocols were generated using

MedPC software (Med Associates, Inc.) to control auditory stimuli and footshock via TTL pulses.

We used a four-day paradigm as described previously.[2,21] On Day 1, animals were subjected to

pre-exposure in context A. After a 3 min baseline period, there were 4 presentations of a serial

compound stimulus (SCS, 20 s long) with a 90 s average pseudorandom intertrial interval (ITI)

(range 80−100 s). The SCS consisted of a 10 s tone (7.5 kHz, 500 ms pips at 1 Hz) and a 10 s

white noise (WN, random distribution of 1 to 20,000 Hz, 500 ms pips at 1 Hz). The total duration

of the pre-exposure session was 590 s. On Day 2 and Day 3 (conditioning days), mice were

placed in Context B and, after a 3 min baseline period, presented with five pairings of the SCS

with a 120 s average pseudorandom ITI (range 90−150 s) co-terminating with a 1 s, 0.9 mA

footshock. Each conditioning session lasted for 820 s. Recall session on day 4 was conducted in

Context A. Following a 3 min baseline period, mice were presented with 4 trials of the SCS without

footshock, with a 90 s average pseudorandom ITI (range 80−100 s) over a total period of 590 s.

For optogenetic experiments the mice were presented with 8 trials on Day 3 with 4 pairs of

alternating light ON-OFF trials. During recall mice were presented with 3 pairs of alternating light

ON-OFF trials.

Quantification of defensive behaviour

All sessions were recorded to video, and behaviour was analysed using contour tracking

(Cineplex software, Plexon, Dallas, TX). Freezing was defined as a complete cessation of

movement for at least 1 s and was automatically scored using a frame-by-frame analysis of pixel

changes (Cineplex Editor, Plexon). Results were confirmed by a trained observer blinded to

condition. By determining a calibration coefficient using the chambers' known size and the

camera's pixel dimensions, speed (cm/s) was extracted using the animal's centre of gravity.[21]

Escape jumping was scored manually from video files by a blinded observer. Flight scores were

calculated by dividing the average speed during each CS by the average speed during the 10 s

pre-CS from all the trials (baseline, BL) and then adding 1 point for each escape jump (speedCS/

speedBL + # of jumps). A flight score of 1 therefore indicated no change in flight behaviour from

the preSCS period.

Open field test

A 45 x 45 x 45 cm arena made of white opaque Plexiglas was used. The arena was cleaned using

70% ethanol after each mouse. Mouse behaviour was tracked under 100 lux light conditions using

a top-mounted camera ("Pike" camera, Allied vision, Germany).

For chemogenetic experiments, the OFT duration was 10 min.

For optogenetic experiments, the OFT duration was 6 min. After a 120 s baseline period, 4, 30

sec ON-OFF trials of light stimulation were used. For eNpHR experiments, a continuous orange

light was used at 10 mW power at the fibre tip, and for ChR2 experiments, 10 ms pulses of blue

light were used at 10 Hz, and 10 mW power at the fibre tip.

The time spent in the inner zone, the number of entries into it, and total distance traveled were

measured using tracking software (Cineplex Studio, Plexon).

Elevated plus maze

Behaviour was tracked using a top-mounted camera ("Pike" camera, Allied vision, Germany) for

10 min. The maze was made from white opaque Plexiglas material and consisted of four 30 cm

long and 7 cm wide arms. Two open arms had no walls, and two enclosed arms had 15 cm high

walls. The maze was elevated 40 cm above the ground. The arena was cleaned using 70%

ethanol after every test. The total time spent in the open arms was calculated using Cineplex

Editor software (Plexon).

Chemogenetic manipulations of behaviour

Behavioural testing was performed 3-4 weeks after viral injections. First, mice were subjected to

the OFT. On the next day, animals were subjected to the EPM, and 4 hr later to preconditioning.

For the next 2 days, mice were flight conditioned, followed by a recall session on the final day. 30

min before the start of behavioural testing animals were injected with clozapine N-oxide [CNO;

0.5 mg/ml in vehicle (0.9% saline), given as 10 ml/kg for final dose of 5 mg/kg, intraperitoneally

(ip); Enzo Life Sciences, Farmingdale, NY] or vehicle (10 ml/kg volume, ip).

Optogenetic manipulations of behaviour

Two weeks after vector injection, animals were implanted with fibre stubs (Plexon) targeting CeA,

as described in Surgery. For optogenetic modulation, we used a Plex controller system (Plexon)

operated through Radiant software (Plexon). Two PlexBright LED modules (Plexon) were

connected to the controller, and an LC patch cable (200-230 µm fibre, 1 meter long, 0.66 NA,

Plexon) was connected. Laser power at the fibre tip was measured before every test with an

optical power and energy meter (PM100D, ThorLabs, Newton, NJ). The patch cable was

connected to the head-mounted fibre stubs using ceramic sleeves. Connectors were tested for

coupling efficiency before implantations, and laser power at the fibre tip for behavioural

manipulations was adjusted to reach a value of 10 mW.

Experiments were performed with a within-subjects design in which mice underwent eight trials

during FC2 with alternating 2 trials with lights on and 2 trials with lights off. During recall session,

mice underwent six trials with alternating light on off conditions. To inhibit (eNpHR) DP-CeA

neuronal populations during threat cues, a 620 nm light was switched on 500 ms before the onset

of the SCS (first tone pip) and remained on until the end of the last white noise pip (20.5 s in total).

For ChR2-induced excitation of DP-to-CeA neuronal populations, we used 465 nm light pulses

(10 Hz, 10 ms width) which was switched on 500 ms before the onset of the SCS (first tone pip)

and remained on until the end of the last white noise pip (20.5 s in total).

Real-time place aversion test

To test whether optogenetic stimulation of the DP-to-CeA pathway induced aversive responses,

we subjected the AAV-DIO-ChR2-EYFP or AAV-DIO-EYFP-injected mice to real-time place

aversion test for 10 min. We used a custom-made 50 × 50 × 50 cm arena made from white opaque

Plexiglas and divided into two equal compartments. One side of the chamber was allotted as the

stimulation side and other as a neutral side (non-stimulated, with striped walls and metallic plate

floor). Mice were placed in the non-stimulated side, and 10 or 20 Hz blue LED light stimulation

was delivered each time the mouse moved to the stimulation side of the chamber. The light

stimulation was continuously on until the mouse moved back into the non-stimulation

compartment. Behaviour was recorded via a top mounted recording camera attached to recording

system (Plexon) and scored using Cineplex editor (Plexon) by a blinded experimenter. The %

time spent in the stimulation chamber was used as a measure of aversion.

Immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Following the completion of experiments, mice were anesthetized with tribromoethanol (240

mg/kg) and perfused transcardially with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) followed by 4%

paraformaldehyde in PBS. Brains were isolated and stored in paraformaldehyde overnight. On

the next day, fixed brains were sectioned using a vibrating microtome (Precisionary, Greenville,

NC) in 60- (for cFos IHC) or 80-μm thick coronal slices.

Antibody staining was performed on floating tissue sections. Briefly, sections were washed in

PBS-TritonX100 (PBST, 0.3%) and blocked using 5% goat serum in PBST for 1 hr followed by an

overnight (for RFP or GFP staining), or 48-h (for cFos staining), incubation in primary antibodies

at 4°C. Primary antibodies used in this study were rabbit anti-RFP (1:1500, 600-401-379,

Rockland Immunochemicals, Pottstown, PA), chicken anti-GFP (1:2000, NB100-1614, Novus

Biologicals, USA), rabbit anti-cFos (1:1000, 226003, Synaptic Systems, Germany). After primary

antibody incubation, sections were washed in PBST and incubated in secondary antibodies in

PBST (1:500 goat anti-rabbit AlexaFluor 555/488 or goat anti-chicken AlexaFluor 488, Thermo

Fisher Scientific, USA). Following final rinses with PBS, sections were mounted and scanned from

the DP and CeA.

Images were obtained using an Axio Scan.Z1 slide-scanning microscope (Zeiss, Germany) and

a confocal microscope (FV3000, Olympus, Japan). Mice were included in subsequent data

analyses only if bilateral expression specific to the target region was observed.

cFos quantification

Red fluorescent retro-beads were injected into the CeA of C57BL/6J mice. 7 days later, animals

were divided into 3 groups: homecage control, shock-only, and SCS-FC. Shock-only and SCS-

FC mice were subjected to two days of conditioning and were sacrificed 90 min after the second

session by transcardial perfusion. Following brain sectioning and IHC staining for cFos, confocal

images were taken. The quantification of cFos+, bead+, and cells with both markers were

performed by a blinded observer using ImageJ.

Brain slice electrophysiology

Slice preparation: Coronal brain slices containing the CeA were collected from mice at least two

weeks after viral injections for *ex vivo* electrophysiological recordings, as described earlier.[36,44]

Mice (6 to 9 weeks) were decapitated in a restraining plastic cone (DecapiCone, Braintree

Scientific, Braintree, MA) and the brains were dissected and immersed in ice-cold, oxygenated

cutting solution containing the following (in mM): 252 sucrose, 2.5 KCl, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 1 $CaCl_2$, 5

$MgCl_2$, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 10 glucose. The brains were trimmed and glued to the chuck of a Leica

VT-1200 vibratome (Leica Microsystems, Germany) and 300 µm-thick coronal slices were

sectioned. Slices were transferred to a holding chamber containing oxygenated recording artificial

cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) containing (in mM): 126 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 1.3 $MgCl_2$, 2.5

$CaCl_2$, 26 $NaHCO_3$, and 10 glucose. They were maintained in the holding chamber at 34°C for 30

min before decreasing the chamber temperature to ~20°C.

Patch clamp recording: Slices were bisected down the midline and hemi-slices were transferred

from the holding chamber to a submerged recording chamber mounted on the fixed stage of an

Olympus BX51WI fluorescence microscope equipped with differential interference contrast (DIC)

illumination. The slices in the recording chamber were continuously perfused at a rate of 2 ml/min

with recording aCSF maintained at 32-34°C and continuously aerated with 95% O_2/5% CO_2.

Whole-cell patch clamp recordings were performed in eYFP-labeled SOM+ or CRH+ neurons or

unlabeled neurons in the CeM, and neurons in the CeL. Glass pipettes with a resistance of 4-6

MΩ were pulled from borosilicate glass (ID 1.2mm, OD 1.65mm) on a horizontal puller (Sutter P-

97) and filled with an intracellular patch solution containing (in mM): 130 potassium gluconate, 10

HEPES, 10 phosphocreatine Na_2, 4 Mg-ATP, 0.4 Na-GTP, 5 KCl, 0.6 EGTA; pH was adjusted to

7.25 with KOH and the solution had a final osmolarity of ~ 290 mOsm. DNQX (20 uM) was

delivered via the perfusion bath. Series resistance was normally below 15 MΩ immediately after

break-in and was continuously monitored. Cells were discarded when the series resistance

exceeded 30 MΩ. An optical fibre was placed approximately 2 mm above the slice and ChR2-

expressing DP fibres were stimulated by 465 nm LED illumination (single 10-ms pulses,15 mW

power, delivered at 1 Hz). To assess firing properties in CeA neurons that displayed fast synaptic

responses, 500-750 ms depolarizing current injections were applied in current clamp mode. Data

were acquired using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier, a Digidata 1440A analog/digital interface, and

pClamp 10 software (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA). Recordings were filtered at 4 KHz and

sampled at 50 KHZ. Data were analyzed with Clampfit 10 (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA).

Statistical comparisons were conducted with a paired or unpaired Students's *t* test ($p < 0.05$ with

a two- tailed analysis was considered significant).

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed for statistical significance using Prism 9 (GraphPad Software, San Diego,

CA). Statistical significance was set at *p* < 0.05. Data were tested for normal distribution using the

Shapiro-Wilk normality test (α=0.05). For pairwise comparisons, the appropriate parametric

(unpaired Student's t-test) or nonparametric (Mann-Whitney test) test was performed. Data with

more than two study groups were analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's post-

hoc tests. For calcium imaging data analysis, we used custom code written in MATLAB. Repeated

measures correlations were performed using the rmcorr package in R.[45] The sample size was

determined based on previously published research.

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AR, JP, JPF; Funding acquisition— JPF; Investigation— CDB, XF, CS, QEL; Methodology—

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Competing Interest Statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Data availability

Data sets included in this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable

request.

Figure S1: Data related to Figure 1.

A, Number of CeA-projecting mPFC cells across the antero-posterior axis (2.22 mm to 1.54

mm). One-way ANOVA, $F_{(2,15)} = 5.51$, $p = 0.016$, followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test. *$p<0.05$.

B, Strategy used to study cFos activation in CeA-projecting DP cells.

C, Beads across groups (N = 6; 3-4 slices per group). One-way ANOVA, $F_{(2, 34)}$ = 0.4906, p =

0.6165, Bonferroni's test, ns.

D, Freezing of cFos groups. For shock-only (SO) mice, freezing values are taken from the same

period of the session when the SCS would occur (SO-dTone or SO-dWN). Two-way ANOVA

(cue X trial, $F_{(12,60)}$ = 2.37, $p<0.01$), followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test.

E, Flight scores of cFos groups. For shock-only (SO) mice, flight scores are calculated from the

same period of the session when the SCS would occur (SO-dTone or SO-dWN). Two-way

ANOVA (cue X trial $F_{(12,48)}$ = 1.48, $p>0.05$), followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test. *P<0.05,

**P<0.01, ***P<0.001 vs SCS-FC-Tone; #P<0.05, ##P<0.01, ###P<0.001 vs SO-dWN.

Figure S2: Data related to Figure 2.

A, Freezing of mice from calcium imaging experiments (N = 5). Two-way ANOVA, Trial x

Stimuli, $F_{(17,68)}$ = 2.36, p = 0.007, Stimuli, $F_{(1, 4)}$ = 1.24, p = 0.327, Trial, $F_{(17, 68)}$ = 5.79, p < 0.0001

followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test. * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01.

B, Flight scores of mice from calcium imaging experiments (N = 5). Two-way ANOVA, Trial x

Stimuli, $F_{(17,68)}$ = 1.12, p = 0.35, Stimuli $F_{(1, 4)}$ = 2.43, p = 0.194, Trial, $F_{(17, 68)}$ = 1.35, p = 0.189.

C, Average % freezing obtained from the mice subjected to the Ca^{2+} recordings during high-

threat (Day 3). Unpaired t-test, * p < 0.05 (N = 5).

D, Average flight scores obtained from the mice subjected to the Ca^{2+} recordings during high-

threat (Day 3). Unpaired t-test (N = 5).

E, *left*, Zscores of active neurons and speed in during preconditioning (N = 200 neurons). *Right,*

Correlation of Zscore (N = 200) with speed during preconditioning (Pearson correlation

coefficient, r = -0.079, p = 0.9).

F, Zscore of tone and WN of the entire DP-to-CeA population during preconditioning (paired

Student's t-test, n.s.).

G, Scatterplot of Zscore vs speed from preSCS, tone, WN and post-shock/cue (post) periods

from the last 3 trials of preconditioning (Day 1), high-threat (Day 3) and low-threat (Day 4)

sessions. Each dot represents averaged Zscore and speed over every 0.2 sec.

H, Spider plot of average % freezing from all the trials of preconditioning, high-threat (Day 3)

and low-threat (Day 4) sessions.

I, Freezing and flight scores from the no-lens control mice in the high-threat context (N = 4).

Unpaired Student's t-test, *p < 0.05.

J, Freezing and flight scores from the no-lens control mice in the low-threat context (N = 4).

Unpaired Student's t-test, n.s.

Figure S3: Data related figure 4

A, Effect of optogenetic inhibition in EYFP (N = 9) and eNpHR (N = 9) groups on freezing in the

high-threat context (LED-on vs LED-off, Mann-Whitney, *P<0.05).

B, Effect of optogenetic inhibition in EYFP (N = 9) and eNpHR (N = 9) groups on flight in the

high-threat context (LED-on vs LED-off, Mann-Whitney, *P<0.05).

C, Effect of optogenetic inhibition in EYFP (N = 9) and eNpHR (N = 9) groups on freezing in the

low-threat context (LED-on vs LED-off, Mann-Whitney, n.s.)

D, Effect of optogenetic inhibition in EYFP (N = 9) and eNpHR (N = 9) groups on flight in the

low-threat context (LED-on vs LED-off, Mann-Whitney, n.s.)

E, Effect of optogenetic excitation in EYFP (N = 10) and ChR2 (N = 9) groups on freezing in the

high-threat context (LED-on vs LED-off, Mann-Whitney, n.s.).

F, Effect of optogenetic excitation in EYFP (N = 10) and ChR2 (N = 9) groups on flight in the

high-threat context (LED-on vs LED-off, Mann-Whitney, n.s.).

G, Effect of optogenetic excitation in EYFP (N = 10) and ChR2 (N = 9) groups on freezing in the

low-threat context (LED-on vs LED-off, Mann-Whitney, n.s.).

H, Effect of optogenetic excitation in EYFP (N = 10) and ChR2 (N = 9) groups on flight in the

low-threat context (LED-on vs LED-off, Mann-Whitney, n.s.).

Figure S4: Data related to Figure 4.

A, Schematic of optogenetic terminal stimulation of DP-to-CeA neuronal projections.

B, Experimental timeline.

C, Representative activity plots in EYFP and ChR2 expressing mice.

D, % time in the stimulation chamber in EYFP (10 Hz, N = 5) and ChR2 (10 Hz, N = 5; 20 Hz, N

= 4) groups at different stimulation frequencies. One-way ANOVA ($F_{(2, 11)}$ = 0.73, p = 0.502).

E-F, % freezing (E) and flight scores (F) to the tone and white noise (WN) following blue light

stimulation during day 3 at different stimulation frequencies and shock intensities (at 0.6 mA - 10

Hz, N = 9; 15 Hz, N = 3; at 0.9 mA - 20 Hz, N = 5). Two-way ANOVA (*for % freezing*,

Stimulation frequency x Shock intensity, $F_{(6, 56)}$ = 0.76, p = 0.601, Stimulation frequency, $F_{(2, 56)}$ =

1.10, p = 0.339, Shock intensity, $F_{(3, 56)}$ = 8.37, p = 0.0001; *for flight*, Stimulation frequency x

Shock intensity, $F_{(6, 56)}$ = 4.42, p = 0.001, Stimulation frequency, $F_{(2, 56)}$ = 12.4, p < 0.001, Shock

intensity, $F_{(3, 56)}$ = 6.67, p < 0.001), followed by Bonferroni's post hoc test (tone/WN ON vs OFF

non-significant).

G, Atlas of fibre placements over the CeA for the eNpHR group (N = 9)

H, Atlas of fibre placements over the CeA for the ChR2 group (N = 9)

A   Peak Outward Current

B

Firing Properties of DP-targeted CeA Neurons

DP-Excited cells (n=11)				
Classification	**Spike Threshold (mV)**	**Spike Latency (ms)**	**Spike Frequency Adaptation (3rd ISI/Last ISI)**	**Sag (% steady-state)**
Regular spiking (n=5)	-42 ± 2	46 ± 12	0.62 ± 0.11	17 ± 1
Bursting (n=4)	-43 ± 2	80 ± 40	–	21 ± 7
Late-firing (n=2)	-45 ± 6	194 ± 46	0.62 ± 0.04	11 ± 2

899   **Figure S5: Data related to Figure 5.**

900   **A**, The amplitude of disynaptic IPSCs evoked by ChR2 stimulation of DP terminals (Unpaired

901   Student's t-test, $t_{(16)}$= 0.055; p = 0.96).

902   **B,** The firing properties of DP-targeted CeA neurons.