A Parabrachial to Hypothalamic Pathway Mediates Defensive Behavior

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Abstract

Defensive behaviors are critical for animal's survival. Both the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus (PVN) and the parabrachial nucleus (PBN) have been shown to be involved in defensive behaviors. However, whether there are direct connections between them to mediate defensive behaviors remains unclear. Here, by retrograde and anterograde tracing, we uncover that cholecystokinin (CCK)-expressing neurons in the lateral PBN (LPB^{CCK}) directly project to the PVN. By *in vivo* fiber photometry recording, we found that LPB^{CCK} neurons actively respond to various threat stimuli. Selective photoactivation of LPB^{CCK} neurons promotes aversion and defensive behaviors. Conversely, photoinhibition of LPB^{CCK} neurons attenuates rat or looming stimuli-induced flight responses. Optogenetic activation of LPB^{CCK} axon terminals within the PVN or PVN glutamatergic neurons promote defensive behaviors. Whereas chemogenetic and pharmacological inhibition of local PVN neurons prevent LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway activation-driven flight responses. These data suggest that LPB^{CCK} neurons recruit downstream PVN neurons to actively engage in flight responses. Our study identifies a previously unrecognized role for the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway in controlling defensive behaviors.

Introduction

Living in an environment full of diverse threats, animals develop a variety of defensive

behaviors for survival during evolution (Anderson & Adolphs, 2014; D. C. Blanchard,

G. Griebel, & R. J. Blanchard, 2001; Crawford & Masterson, 1982; Fanselow & Bolles,

1979; LeDoux, 2012; M. Yilmaz & M. Meister, 2013). From the perspective of predator

and prey interactions, defensive responses are generally divided into two categories: to

avoid being discovered (such as freezing or hiding behaviors) or being caught (such as

escaping or attacking behaviors) (Crawford & Masterson, 1982; Fanselow & Bolles,

1979; Melis Yilmaz & Markus Meister, 2013). Which type of defensive behavior is

selected depends on many factors, including the intensity and proximity of the threat,

as well as the surrounding context. In general, escape is triggered when animals are

faced with an imminent threat with a shelter nearby (Eilam, 2005; Lin et al., 2022;

Perusini & Fanselow, 2015; L. Sun, R. Liu, F. Guo, M. Q. Wen, X. L. Ma, et al., 2020;

B. Zhang et al., 2018).

Several brain regions, including the periaqueductal gray (PAG), amygdala and

medial hypothalamic zone (MHZ), have been implicated in mediating escape behaviors

(Evans et al., 2018; Shang et al., 2018; Shang et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2013; Tovote et

al., 2016; Wang et al., 2015; Wang, Schuette, Nagai, et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2015).

Recent studies have highlighted a role for the hypothalamus, in particular the MHZ,

including the anterior hypothalamic nucleus (AHN), the dorsomedial part of

ventromedial hypothalamic nucleus (VMHdm) and the dorsal pre-mammillary nucleus

(PMd), in mediating escape behaviors. For example, a subset of VMH neurons

collaterally project to the AHN and PAG to promote both escape and avoidance behaviors (Wang, Chen, & Lin, 2015). Moreover, PMd neurons project to the dorsolateral periaqueductal gray region (dlPAG) and the anteromedial ventral thalamic region (AMV) also control escape behaviors (W. Wang, P. J. Schuette, J. Nagai, et al., 2021). In addition, PVN, an area enriched with endocrine neurons, has also been associated with escape behaviors. Optogenetic activation of $Sim1^+$ neurons in the PVN triggers escape (Mangieri et al., 2019b) and projections from the PVN to both the ventral midbrain region (vMB) and the ventral lateral septum (LSv) mediate defensive-like behaviors, including hiding, escape jumping and hyperlocomotion (Mangieri et al., 2019b; Xu et al., 2019). Despite a growing number of studies illustrating the importance of PVN in mediating defensive behaviors, upstream inputs that transmit the danger signals to the PVN remain unclear (Isosaka et al., 2015; Penzo et al., 2015).

Located in the dorsolateral pons, PBN, serves as an important relay station for sensory transmission (C. E. Fulwiler & C. B. Saper, 1984). While PBN is best known for various sensory processes to protect the body from noxious stimuli, emerging evidence suggests that it may act as a key node in mediating defensive behaviors (Campos, Bowen, Roman, & Palmiter, 2018; H. E. Day, C. V. Masini, & S. Campeau, 2004; Han, Mao, & Dally, 2015). Electrical lesions of the PBN or local microinjections of kainic acid into the PBN induced defensive behaviors (Mileikovskii & Verevkina, 1991). In addition, exposure of the olfactory predator cue, trimethylthiazoline (TMT), increased c-fos expression in the LPB (H. E. Day et al., 2004). More importantly, calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) neurons, located in the external lateral

subnuclei of PBN (PBel), have been shown to mediate alarm responses and defensive

behaviors under stressful or threatening circumstances via projections to the amygdala

and the bed nucleus of stria terminalis (BNST) (Song Han et al., 2015; L. Zhang,

Hernández, & Eiden, 2020). While both PBN and PVN neurons appear to be involved

in defensive responses, it remains unclear whether they connect with each other to

mediate defensive behaviors (Carl E Fulwiler & Clifford B Saper, 1984).

Both CCK and CCK receptor-expressing neurons have been implicated in

defensive behaviors (Bertoglio, de Bortoli, & Zangrossi, 2007; Chen et al., 2022; W.

Wang, P. J. Schuette, M. Q. La-Vu, et al., 2021). PVN neurons also express CCK

receptors and are involved in defensive behaviors (Mangieri et al., 2019a; O'Shea &

Gundlach, 1993; Xu et al., 2019), raising a possibility that upstream CCK inputs to the

PVN (Meister, Broberger, Villar, & Hökfelt, 1994) may be implicated in defensive

behaviors. In an attempt to test this possibility, we injected the Cre-dependent

retrograde tracer (AAV2-Retro-DIO-EYFP) into the PVN of CCK-Cre mice and found

that the LPB is an important upstream CCKergic input to the PVN. We further showed

that LPB^{CCK} neurons were recruited upon exposure to various threat stimuli.

Optogenetic activation of either LPB^{CCK} neuronal somas or their projections to the PVN

promotes defensive responses, whereas their inhibition attenuates defensive-like

behaviors, suggesting an essential and sufficient role for LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway in

mediating defensive behaviors.

Results

LPB^{CCK} neurons provide monosynaptic glutamatergic projections to the PVN

To identify upstream CCKergic inputs to the PVN and visualize the range of viral infection, we injected a mixture of retrograde viral tracer (AAV2-Retro-DIO-EYFP, hereafter referred to as AAV2-Retro) and CTB 555 into the PVN of knock-in mice expressing Cre recombinase at the CCK Locus (CCK-ires-Cre, referred to as CCK-Cre hereafter) **(Figure 1A)**. We observed abundant EYFP$^+$ neurons in the LPB, medial orbital cortex (MO), and cingulate cortex (CC), with scattered EYFP$^+$ cells in the PAG and dysgranular insular cortex (DI) **(Figure 1B-H).** Since LPB is a region critical for sensory signal processing, we mainly focused on the LPB in the following study (Fulwiler, C.E., and Saper, C.B.,1985; Garfield AS et al., 2014).

LPB contains several subregions with diverse peptide-expressing neuronal subtypes and CCK$^+$ neurons have been shown to primarily locate within the superior lateral PB (PBsl) (Garfield et al., 2014). To dissect the identity of CCK$^+$ neurons in the LPB, we performed *in situ* hybridization in CCK-Cre::Ai14 mice using probes for *Vglut2* and *Vgat*, markers specific to glutamatergic and GABAergic neurons **(Supplementary Figure 1A-C)**. We found that LPB^{CCK} neurons (84.0% ± 1.7%) predominantly expressed *Vglut2*, with a tiny subpopulation (2.0% ± 1.2%) expressed expressing *Vgat*, suggesting that LPB^{CCK} neurons were mostly glutamatergic neurons **(Supplementary Figure 1D-E)**. In addition, co-labeling with another neuropeptide, CGRP, revealed minimal co-localization (2.2% ± 0.37%) between CCK and CGRP **(Supplementary Figure 1F-G)**, suggesting primary separation between these two

subpopulations of neurons. Collectively, these data demonstrate that LPB^{CCK} neurons

comprise predominantly glutamatergic neurons, which barely overlap with CGRP

neurons.

To verify the anatomical connections between the LPB and PVN, we injected the

anterograde viral tracer (AAV-hSyn-FLEx-mGFP-2A-Synaptophysin-mRuby) into the

LPB of CCK-Cre mice **(Figure 1I-J)**. We observed prominent GFP$^+$ fibers and mRuby$^+$

bouton-like structures, reminiscent of axonal terminals, within the PVN **(Figure 1K)**

and other brain regions **(Supplementary Figure 2A-L).** Next, we injected the Cre-

dependent adeno-associated virus (AAV) expressing channelrhodopsin-2 virus

(AAV2/9-DIO-ChR2-EYFP) into the LPB of CCK-Cre mice **(Figure 1L)** and

optogenetically stimulated the axonal terminals of virus-labeled LPB^{CCK} neurons within

the PVN in brain slices. We successfully recorded light stimulation-induced excitatory

postsynaptic currents (EPSCs), rather than inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs).

These EPSCs were blocked in the presence of the sodium channel antagonist

tetrodotoxin (TTX), but rescued by the potassium channel antagonist 4-Aminopyridine

(4-AP) **(Figure 1M-N)**. Further, NMDA receptor antagonist AP5, and AMPA receptor

antagonist CNQX also blocked light stimulation-induced EPSCs **(Figure 1O-P)**,

validating that PVN neurons receive monosynaptic excitatory innervations from

LPB^{CCK} neurons.

Photostimulation of LPB^{CCK} neurons induces aversion and defensive behaviors

LPB^{CCK} neurons have been shown to regulate glucose homeostasis and body

temperature (Garfield et al., 2014; W. Z. Yang, Du, Zhang, Gao, & Shen, 2020).

However, it remains unclear whether activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons may elicit direct

behavioral changes. Before optic stimulation *in vivo*, we first tested the efficacy of

optogenetic stimulation by whole-cell recording in ChR2-expressing LPB^{CCK} neurons.

We observed that 5-20 Hz blue laser pulses induced time-locked action potential firing,

with 20 Hz inducing maximal firing capacities. We then chose 20 Hz for the following

in vivo stimulation **(Figure 2 A).**

We injected the control or ChR2-expressing viruses (AAV2/9-EF1a-DIO-EYFP or

AAV2/9-EF1a-DIO-ChR2-EYFP) into the LPB of CCK-Cre mice, followed by optical

fiber implantation and optic stimulation **(Figure 2B-D).** Since LPB has been shown to

mediate aversion (Chiang et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020), we first tested whether

optogenetic activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons affects aversion using the real-time place

aversion (RTPA) test **(Figure 2E).** We found that activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons

significantly reduced the duration of mice in the laser-paired chamber, accompanied by

rapid running or flight to the other laser-unpaired chamber, indicating an obvious

aversion-like avoidance and/or fear-related defensive-like behaviors **(Figure 2F-G)**.

To further investigate whether LPB^{CCK} neurons plays a role in defensive behaviors,

we used a well-established flight-to-nest behavioral test by putting a nest in the corner

of an arena to test the ability of mice to actively search for hiding **(Figure 2H)**. Of note,

activating LPB^{CCK} neurons induced robust flight-to-nest behavior in mice, with much

shorter latency and faster speed running towards the nest (latency: EYFP, 87.71 ± 22.38

s vs. ChR2, 7.571 ± 0.8123 s; speed: EYFP, $184.4\% \pm 30.4\%$ vs. ChR2, $361.7\% \pm$

31.5%), followed by longer stay in the nest (EYFP, 63.906% ± 3.645% vs. ChR2, 97.26%

± 2.737%) **(Figure 2I-K)**. These data suggest that activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons

induces aversion-like avoidance and defensive-like flight-to-nest behaviors.

Defensive behaviors are usually accompanied by changes in the autonomic

nervous system, such as increased heart rates, dilated pupil size and elevated cortisol

levels (Dong et al., 2019; Gross & Canteras, 2012; Wang et al., 2015). We found that

photostimulation of LPB^{CCK} neurons also significantly increased heart rates and

enlarged pupil diameters, along with elevated plasma levels of corticosterone **(Figure**

2L-P), suggesting that activating LPB^{CCK} neurons induces fast sympathetic changes,

leading to an arousal state accompanying the defensive responses in mice (Salay, Ishiko,

& Huberman, 2018).

Since activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons induced fear-associated flight-to-nest

behaviors and long-term fear may trigger anxiety-like states in animals (Tovote et al.,

2005; H. Yang et al., 2016), we also examined whether prolonged activation of LPB^{CCK}

neurons induces anxiety-like behaviors **(Supplementary 3A)**. After 10 min of light

stimulation, mice injected with ChR2 exhibited significantly reduced, center time and

center entries in the open field tests without affecting total distance, and decreased open

arm entries and time in the elevated plus maze tests **(Supplementary 3B-J)**, suggesting

that prolonged activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons also induces anxiety-like behaviors in

mice.

LPB^{CCK} neurons encode threat stimuli-evoked flight behaviors

LPB neurons were shown to be activated when animals are in proximity to dangerous

stimuli (Campos et al., 2018; Heidi EW Day, Cher V Masini, & Serge Campeau, 2004;

Sung Han, Matthew T. Soleiman, Marta E. Soden, Larry S. Zweifel, & Richard D.

Palmiter, 2015). To track the endogenous activities of LPB^{CCK} neurons *in vivo*, we

injected the Cre-dependent fluorescent calcium indicator AAV-DIO-GCaMP7s into the

LPB of CCK-Cre mice, and recorded the calcium responses by fiber photometry

(Figure 3A-C). Consistent with previous observation (W. Z. Yang et al., 2020), we

observed elevated calcium responses of LPB^{CCK} neurons by heat stimuli (43 °C)

(Supplementary Figure 4A-D). We then tested the response of these neurons in a

predator-exposure assay, in which an awake but restrained rat was placed at one end of

a rectangular arena (Reis et al., 2021; Weisheng Wang et al., 2021), and a mouse was

placed at the other end, away from the rat. After perceiving the presence of the rat, mice

usually exhibit risk assessment behaviors by curiously approaching and investigating

the rat (Olivier, Mos, & Slangen, 1991). We observed that the calcium signals of

LPB^{CCK} neurons gradually rise when mice approached the rat. At the moment of escape

initiation, when mice turned back and dashed away from the rat, the calcium signals

reached a peak **(Figure 3D-G, 3L)**. However, the signals ramped down as mice gained

distance from the rat**.** Notably, activities of LPB^{CCK} neurons were unaffected in the

presence of a toy rat (**Supplementary Figure 4E-H**).

In the presence of the visual predatory cue, such as appearing and expanding

looming shadows to mimic an approaching predator (Melis Yilmaz & Markus Meister,

2013), LPB^{CCK} neurons also showed increased calcium signals (Figures 3H). Similar to

rat exposure assay, we also tested the response of these neurons in the looming assay,

the elevated calcium signals reached peak when the animal initiated escape, but reduced

once it ran into the nest (**Figure 3H-K, 3M**). LPB^{CCK} neurons also showed elevated

calcium signals when mice were exposed to the olfactory predatory cue, TMT odor

(**Supplementary Figure 4I-L**). Correlative analysis revealed that the elevation of the

calcium signal was correlated with the onset of escape responses (**Figure 3N-O**). Thus,

threatening stimuli of different sensory predatory cue stimulated the LPB^{CCK} neurons

(**Figure 3P-R**). Together, these data demonstrate that LPB^{CCK} neurons encode innate

threat stimuli-evoked aversion and flight behaviors.

Inhibition of LPB^{CCK} neurons suppressed predatory cue-evoked flight responses

To examine whether LPB^{CCK} neurons are required for innate threat-evoked defensive

behaviors, we then inhibited LPB^{CCK} neurons using optogenetic tools. By injecting the

Cre-dependent AAV expressing the guillardia theta anion channel rhodopsins-1

(GtACR1) into the LPB of CCK-Cre mice, followed by optic stimulation, we were able

to effectively inhibit the firing of LPB^{CCK} neurons **(Figure 4A)**. Next, we bilaterally

injected the control or GtACR1 viruses into the LPB and photo-inhibited these neurons

in vivo **(Figure 4B-C).** In the rat exposure test **(Figure 4D-E)**, after a quick exploration

of the rat in the corner (the danger zone), control mice usually fled to the other end of

the box (the putative safe zone). However, optic inhibition of LPB^{CCK} neurons

significantly increased the time (EYFP, 7.247% ± 2.329% vs. GtACR1, 26.57% ±

5.375%) and entries (EYFP, 6.167 ± 1.579 vs. GtACR1, 12.67 ± 2.141) of mice to the

danger zone, with no effect on total travel distance (EYFP, 8.837 ± 1.934 m vs. GtACR1,

12.69 ± 1.421 m), suggesting a delayed flight response **(Figure 4F-H)**. In the looming

test **(Figure 4I-J)**, inhibition of LPB^{CCK} neurons also increased the latency fleeing to

the nest (EYFP, 10.18 ± 2.828 s vs. GtACR1, 27.14 ± 6.526 s), followed by reduced

hiding time in the nest (EYFP, 85.36% ± 9.846% vs. GtACR1, 39.17% ± 16.36%)

(Figure 4K-L). Our data suggest that LPB^{CCK} neurons are required for proper defensive

behaviors to rat exposure and looming stimuli.

Stimulation of the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway triggers defensive-like flight-to-nest

behaviors

To further investigate whether activation of the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway induces

defensive-like flight-to-nest behavior, we unilaterally injected the control or ChR2 virus

into the LPB of CCK-Cre mice and implanted an optical fiber above the PVN **(Figure**

5A-E). By photostimulating the axonal terminals of LPB^{CCK} neurons within the PVN,

we also observed shorter latency (EYFP, 73.43 ± 21.08 s vs. ChR2, 8 ± 1.047 s), faster

speed (EYFP, 122.3% ± 17.81% vs. ChR2, 277.9% ± 32.85%) running towards the nest,

and longer stay in the nest; (EYFP, 3.751% ± 1.23% vs. ChR2, 89.29% ± 10.71%)

(Figure 5F-H), similar to soma activation. Post-hoc c-fos staining further verified the

activation of PVN neurons after optic stimulation **(Figure 5I-J)**. As well, terminal

activation also increased heart rates **(Figure 5K)** and plasma corticosterone levels

(Figure 5N), but with no effects on pupil size **(Figure 5L-M)**. Together, these data

suggest that activation of the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway is sufficient to trigger flight-to-

nest behavior, along with increased heart rates and corticosterone levels.

PVN is required for defensive responses to threatening situations

Since LPB^{CCK} neurons project to multiple regions **(Supplementary Figure 2A-I)**, the effects observed upon their activation may arise from different downstream targets, other than the PVN. To test this possibility, we investigated whether inhibition of the PVN is required for the LPB^{CCK} neurons-induced defensive-like flight-to-nest behavior. To achieve this aim, we used a dual virus-mediated optogenetic activation and chemogenetic inhibition strategy, by injecting AAV2/9-DIO-ChR2-EYFP into the LPB, and AAV2/9-hsyn-hM4Di-mCherry into the PVN of CCK-Cre mice. By putting an optical fiber above the PVN, we were able to activate the LPB^{CCK} terminals and induce defensive-like flight-to-nest behavior as shown above **(Figure 6A-B)**. Upon CNO administration to inhibit PVN neurons, we observed a much longer latency, lower speed of the mice in returning to the nest, and reduced hiding time in the nest (latency: saline, 8.286 ± 1.475 s vs. CNO, 18.29 ± 2.843 s; speed: saline, $289.3\% \pm 25.22\%$ vs. CNO, $124.7\% \pm 13.67\%$; time in the nest: saline, $81.55\% \pm 11.16\%$ vs. CNO, $25.83\% \pm 10.32\%$) **(Figure 6C-E)**. These data suggest that the PVN is a required downstream target for LPB^{CCK} neurons activation-induced defensive behavior.

LPB^{CCK} neurons may release either glutamate or neuropeptide CCK to induce the defensive behavior. To determine which neurotransmitter or modulator is engaged in the above responses, we combined pharmacologic with optogenetic manipulation. Two types of CCK receptors are present in the central nervous system and CCKaR is widely distributed throughout the PVN, whereas the expression of CCKbR in PVN is low

(Supplementary Figure 5A-B). We infused glutamate receptor antagonists (CNQX +

AP5), CCK receptor antagonists (Devazepide + L-365,260), or artificial cerebrospinal

fluid (aCSF) through an implanted cannula 30-min before optogenetic activation of

LPB^{CCK} neurons **(Figure 6F-H)**. We found that blocking glutamate receptors induced

a longer latency, slower speed in returning to the nest, along with reduced hiding time

in the nest **(Figure 6I-K)**, when compared with aCSF-treated mice. However, blocking

CCK receptors showed no significant effects **(Figure 6I-K).** These results suggest that

glutamatergic transmission from LPB^{CCK} neurons to the PVN mediates defensive-like

flight-to-nest behavior.

Photostimulation of PVN^{Vglut2} neurons promotes defensive-like flight-to-nest

behavior

Of note, PVN neurons are mostly glutamatergic (Vong et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2013). We

further assessed whether optogenetic activation of PVN^{Vglut2} neurons elicit defensive-

like behavior **(Figure 6L-M)**. We found that optogenetic activation of PVN^{Vglut2}

neurons also induced flight-to-nest behavior (latency: EYFP, 127.5 ± 22.5 s vs. ChR2,

12.83 ± 2.937 s; speed: EYFP, $142.4 \pm 32.07\%$ vs. ChR2, $384.4\% \pm 83.52\%$), followed

by longer hiding time in the nest (EYFP, $0.2783\% \pm 0.2783\%$ vs. ChR2, $61.11\% \pm$

17.58%) **(Figure 6N-P)**, compared to the control. These data suggest that optogenetic

activation of PVN^{Vglut2} neurons was sufficient to evoke defensive-like flight-to-nest

behavior.

PVN^{CRH} neurons have recently been shown to predict the occurrence of defensive

behaviors in mice (N. Daviu et al., 2020). Interestingly, optogenetic activation of the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway primarily activated PVN^{CRH} neurons, rather than vasopressin or oxytocin neurons **(Supplementary Figure 5C-F).** However, optogenetic activation of PVN^{CRH} neurons was not sufficient to drive defensive-like flight-to-nest behavior **(Supplementary 5G-K)** (latency: EYFP, 77 ± 20.69 s vs. ChR2, 90.17 ± 22.03 s; speed: EYFP, $156.6 \pm 22.59\%$ vs. ChR2, $217.2\% \pm 61.54\%$; time in the nest: EYFP, $20.95\% \pm 13.89\%$ vs. ChR2, $35.28\% \pm 20.48\%$).

Discussion

Defensive behaviors are actions that are naturally selected to avoid or reduce potential harm for the survival of animal species. While emerging evidence has suggested that LPB are associated with sensation of danger signals and aversive stimuli (Campos et al., 2018; Heidi EW Day et al., 2004; Sung Han et al., 2015), we found that LPB[CCK] neurons are actively recruited upon exposure to various predatory stimuli. Activating LPB[CCK] neurons triggers aversive-like avoidance and defensive-like flight responses, whereas inhibition of these neurons suppressed predatory stimuli-induced defensive behaviors. Inhibition of downstream PVN neurons attenuated photoactivation of LPB[CCK]-PVN terminals-promoted flight responses, suggesting that LPB[CCK]-PVN pathway is important for the regulation of defensive responses. Our study thus reveals a new connection from the brainstem to the hypothalamus to regulate innate defensive behaviors **(Figure 6Q)**.

Hippocampal and cortical CCK-expressing neurons have been thought of mainly GABAergic (X. Liu, Dimidschstein, Fishell, & Carter, 2020; X. C. Sun et al., 2020; Whissell, Cajanding, Fogel, & Kim, 2015). We found that LPB[CCK] neurons are predominantly glutamatergic, similar to those in the amygdala (Shen et al., 2019). While the roles of LPB[CGRP] neurons have been associated with the passive defensive responses (S. Han, M. T. Soleiman, M. E. Soden, L. S. Zweifel, & R. D. Palmiter, 2015; Keay & Bandler, 2001), we show that activation of LPB[CCK] neurons primarily triggers active defensive responses, such as flight-to-nest behaviors (Keay & Bandler, 2001). The fact that CGRP and CCK neurons are spatially segregated, responsive to distinct

threat signals and involved in different defensive responses, indicating that LPB acts as an important integration center or hub to gate defensive responses when animals encounter different threats (S. Liu et al., 2022; Tokita, Inoue, & Boughter Jr, 2009). It would be interesting to investigate whether LPB^{CCK} and LPB^{CGRP} neurons coordinately regulate defensive responses under different threatening situations.

In vivo calcium imaging showed that LPB^{CCK} neurons increase firing upon exposure to predators and/or predatory cues, which occurs before the initiation of an escape behavior. These findings indicate that LPB^{CCK} neurons may produce a preparatory signal before the escape initiation, which allows the downstream targets to further assess the threat signals, plan escape routes and take appropriate motor actions. LPB^{CCK} neurons are well positioned to play such an important role in linking the imminent threat to escape initiation, as they receive inputs from both the peripheral and visceral sensory system and project to many brain regions involved in defensive responses including the hypothalamus, PVT and PAG (Cooper Jr & Blumstein, 2015; Ellard & Eller, 2009; Song Han et al., 2015; Krout & Loewy, 2000; Saper & Loewy, 1980; Sun, Liu, Guo, Wen, & Duan, 2020; Tokita et al., 2009). While PVN^{CRH} or PAG^{CCK} neurons have also been shown to be recruited during flight, their peak activity did not match the flight initiation, but occurred during flight (Núria Daviu et al., 2020; La-Vu et al., 2022). The peak activities of LPB^{CCK} neurons at the onset of escape suggest that LPB^{CCK} neurons likely gate and instruct the escape rather than directly control locomotive behaviors.

Despite many early studies mapping downstream projections for LPB neurons (S.

Han et al., 2015; Saper & Loewy, 1980; L. Sun, R. Liu, F. Guo, M. Q. Wen, X. L. Ma,

et al., 2020), we are the first to demonstrate that LPB^{CCK} neurons directly connect with

PVN neurons. Direct projections from the brainstem to the hypothalamus for the escape

responses may be more conducive to escape in emergency situations. Besides the PVN,

we also observed that LPB^{CCK} neurons project to the PVT, VMH and PAG, which have

also been associated with aversion and/or defensive behaviors (LeDoux, 2012; Vianna,

Landeira-Fernandez, & Brandão, 2001; Wang et al., 2015). It would be interesting to

further investigate how these different downstream areas coordinately contribute to

defensive responses.

PVN is important for neuroendocrine and autonomous regulation (Canteras,

Ribeiro-Barbosa, & Comoli, 2001; Coote, 2005; Ferguson, Latchford, & Samson, 2008;

Sutton, Myers, & Olson, 2016). While earlier c-fos staining analyses suggest that PVN

neurons are activated in response to different threat stimuli (Canteras et al., 2001; Faturi,

Rangel, Baldo, & Canteras, 2014; Martinez, Carvalho-Netto, Amaral, Nunes-de-Souza,

& Canteras, 2008; Staples, McGregor, Apfelbach, & Hunt, 2008), it remains unclear

whether they are only involved in neuroendocrine responses or also defensive behaviors.

Increasing evidence has demonstrated that PVN neurons play important roles in

defensive behaviors independent of hormonal actions (N. Daviu et al., 2020; Mangieri

et al., 2019b; Xu et al., 2019). Sim1, as a specific marker of PVN, studies have reported

that photoactivation of PVN^{Sim1} neurons induced defensive responses (Mangieri et al.,

2019b). Our findings support a role for PVN neurons in mediating behavioral responses,

as photoactivation of PVN^{Vglut2} neurons promoted flight-to-nest behavior. Intriguingly,

stimulating the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway promoted flight-to-nest behaviors but activating

of PVN^{CRH} neurons did not induce apparent flight-to-nest behaviors. Since PVN^{CRH}

neurons receive multiple inputs and activation of the PVN^{CRH} neurons have been shown

to induce aversion (Kim et al., 2019), future studies using input-specific activation of

PVN^{CRH} neuronal subpopulations would further dissect the role of LPB^{CCK}- PVN^{CRH}

pathway in defensive responses. Future studies using additional projection-specific

approaches and more genetically defined cell tools may help resolve this problem.

Our data show that activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons drives defensive and anxiety-

like behaviors, evoking an arousal and stressed states. Fear, anxiety and stress responses

are closely associated with mental illnesses with dysregulated neural circuits (D

Caroline Blanchard, Guy Griebel, & Robert J Blanchard, 2001). It is worth further

investigation to examine whether alterations of the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway are

implicated in these diseases and whether manipulation of this pathway might be an

effective strategy for therapeutic targeting.

Materials and Methods

Key resources table

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Strain, strain background (Mus musculus)	CCK-ires-Cre(Cck$^{tm1.1(cre)Zjh}$/J)	The Jackson Laboratory	JAX012706	
Strain, strain background (Mus musculus)	CRH-ires-Cre (B6(Cg)-Crh$^{tm1(cre)Zjh}$/J	The Jackson Laboratory	JAX012704	
Strain, strain background (Mus musculus)	Vglut2-ires-Cre (Slc17a6$^{tm2(cre)Lowl}$/J)	The Jackson Laboratory	JAX 016963	
Strain, strain background (Mus musculus)	Ai14 (B6;129S6-Gt(ROSA)26Sor$^{tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze}$/J)	The Jackson Laboratory	JAX007908	
Strain, strain background (Mus musculus)	Ai3; (B6.Cg-Gt (ROSA)26Sor$^{tm3(CAG-EYFP)Hze}$/J)	The Jackson Laboratory	JAX007903	
Strain, strain background (Mus musculus)	C57BL6/J	Shanghai SLAC Laboratory Animal Co. Ltd	http://www.slaccas.com/	
Antibody	Anti-Dsred, rabbit polyclonal	Takara	Cat# 632496 RRID: AB_10013483	(1:800)
Antibody	Anti-CGRP, mouse monoclonal	Abcam	Cat# 81887 RRID: AB_1658411	(1:800)
Antibody	Anti-GFP, goat polyclonal	Abcam	Cat# 5450 RRID: AB_304896	(1:500)
Antibody	Anti-CRH, rabbit polyclona	Phoenix Biotech	Cat# H-019-06	(1:500)
Antibody	Anti-c-fos, Guinea pig polyclonal	Synaptic Systems	Cat# 226004 RRID: AB_2619946	(1:10000)
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-guinea pig IgG (H+L)	Jackson	Cat#112-486-068 RRID: AB_2617153	(1:1000)
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 555 donkey anti-rabbit IgG (H+L)	Invitrogen	Cat#A31572 RRID: AB_162543	(1:1000)
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-mouse	Invitrogen	Cat# R37114 RRID: AB_2556542	(1:1000)

	IgG (H+L)			
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-goat IgG (H+L)	Invitrogen	Cat# A11055 RRID: AB_2534102	(1:1000)
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rabbit IgG (H+L)	Jackson	Cat# R37118 RRID: AB_2556546	(1:1000)
Commercial assay or kit	RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent Reagent Kit v2	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Cat# 323100	
Sequence-based reagent	RNAscope probe *Slc17a6*	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	accession number NM_080853.3	probe region 1986-2998
Sequence-based reagent	RNAscope probe *Slc32a1*	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Accession number NM_009508.2	probe region 894-2037
Sequence-based reagent	RNAscope probe *CckaR*	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	accession number NM_009827.2	probe region 328-1434
Sequence-based reagent	RNAscope probe *CckbR*	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	accession number NM_007627.4	probe region 136-1164
Chemical compound, drug	CNQX disodium salt hydrate	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#1045	
Chemical compound, drug	Devazepide	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#2304	
Chemical compound, drug	Clozapine N-oxide	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#C0832	
Chemical compound, drug	L-365,260	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#143626	
Chemical compound, drug	DAPI	Sigma-Aldrich	N/A	
Chemical compound, drug	Tween-20	Sigma-Aldrich	N/A	
Strain, strain background (AAV2/9)	AAV2/9-hEF1a-DIO-hChR2(H134R)-EYFP-WPRE-pA	Shanghai Taitool Bioscience Co.	Cat# S0199-9	Viral titers: 2.95x1013 particles/ml
Strain, strain background (AAV2/9)	AAV2/9-hEF1a-DIO-EYFP-WPRE-pA	Shanghai Taitool Bioscience Co.	Cat#S0196-9	Viral titers:1.0×10^{12} particles/ml
Strain, strain background	AAV2/9-CAG-DIO-hGtACR1-P2A-	Shanghai Taitool Bioscience Co.	Cat# S0311-9	Viral titers:5×10^{13} particles/ml

(AAV2/9)	EGFP-WPRE-pA			
Strain, strain background (AAV2/9)	rAAV2/9-hSyn-DIO-mGFP-2A-Synaptophysin-mRuby	Shanghai Taitool Bioscience Co.	Cat# S0250-9	Viral titers :1.55×10^{13} particles/ml
Strain, strain background (AAV2/2)	rAAV2/2-Retro-hEF1a-DIO-EYFP-WPRE-pA	Shanghai Taitool Bioscience Co.	Cat# S0196-2R	Viral titers: 2.52×10^{13} particles/ml
Strain, strain background (AAV2/9)	AAV2/9-hSyn-mCherry-WPRE-pA	Shanghai Taitool Bioscience Co.	Cat# S0238-9	Viral titers: $\geq 1.0 \times 10^{13}$ particles/ml
Strain, strain background (AAV2/9)	AAV2/9-hSyn-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry-WPRE-pA	Shanghai Taitool Bioscience Co.	Cat# S0279-9	Viral titers: $\geq 1.0 \times 10^{13}$ particles/ml
Software, algorithm	ANY-Maze software 5.3	Global Biotech Inc.	http://www.anymaze.co.uk/	
Software, algorithm	Image J	NIH	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/index.html;%20 RRID:SCR_003070	
Software, algorithm	GraphPad Prism 6	GraphPad Software	https://www.graphpad.com/scientificsoftware/prism/; RRID: SCR_002798	
Software, algorithm	MatLab R2016a	MathWorks	https://www.mathworks.com/products.html; RRID:SCR_001622	

Animals

CCK-ires-Cre (Cck[tm1.1(cre)Zjh]/J; Stock No. 012706), CRH-ires-Cre (B6(Cg)-

Crh[tm1(cre)Zjh]/J; Stock No. 012704), Vglut2-ires-Cre (Slc17a6[tm2(cre)Lowl]/J; Stock No.

016963), Ai14 (B6;129S6-Gt(ROSA)26Sor[tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze]/J; Stock No. 007908),

C57BL/6 mice and SD rats were obtained from the Shanghai Laboratory Animal Center.

Adult male mice and SD rats were used in our study. Mice and rats housed at $22 \pm 1\ °C$

and $55 \pm 5\%$ humidity on a 12-hr light/12-hr dark cycle (light on from 07:00 to 19:00)

with food and water ad libitum. All experimental procedures were approved by the

Animal Advisory Committee at Zhejiang University and were performed in strict

accordance with the National Institutes of Health Guidelines for the Care and Use of

Laboratory Animals. All surgeries were performed under sodium pentobarbital

anesthesia, and every effort was made to minimize suffering.

Immunohistochemistry

Animals were transcardially perfused with saline and 4% PFA. Brains were post-fixed

overnight in 4% PFA at 4 °C, followed by immersed in 30% sucrose solution. Coronal

sections (40 μm) were cut by a CM1950 Microtome (Leica). Immunostaining was

performed as previously described (Zhang et al., 2018). The brain slices were

permeabilized in 0.5% Triton X-100 in Tris-buffered saline, blocked with 100 mM

glycine and 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) containing 5% normal donkey serum.

Tissue sections were subsequently incubated with diluted primary and secondary

antibodies as indicated, nuclei stained with 6-diamidino2-phenylindole (DAPI), and

slides mounted with antifade reagents. The primary antibodies used were: Guinea pig

anti-c-fos (Synaptic Systems, Cat# 226004), Rabbit anti-Dsred (Takara, Cat# 632496),

Goat anti-GFP (Abcam, Cat# 5450), Mouse anti-CGRP (Abcam, Cat# 81887). Slides

were imaged with a confocal microscope (Olympus FluoView FV1200).

RNAscope in situ hybridization

We used RNAscope multiplex fluorescent reagent kit and designed probes (ACDBio

Inc.) to perform fluorescence in situ hybridization. Mouse brain tissue was sectioned

into 20 μm sections by cryostat (Leica CM 1950). Then sections were mounted on slides

and air-dried at room temperature. Subsequently, the sections were dehydrated in 50%

EtOH, 70% EtOH, and 100% EtOH for 5-10 min each time and air-dried at room

temperature again. Thereafter, protease digestion was performed in a 40 °C HybEZ

oven for 30 min pretreatment, slides were hybridized with pre-warmed probe in a 40 °C

HybEZ oven for 2 hours. Probes used in our paper were: *Slc17a6* probe (*VgluT2,*

accession number NM_080853.3, probe region 1986-2998), *Slc32a1* probe (*VGAT,*

accession number NM_009508.2, probe region 894-2037), *CCKaR* probe (accession

number NM_009827.2, probe region 328-1434), *CCKbR* probe (accession number

NM_007627.4, probe region 136-1164). After hybridization, the brain sections went

through 4 steps of signal amplification fluorescent label. Anti-DsRed or GFP staining

was performed after the RNAscope staining. Slides were imaged with a confocal

microscope (Olympus FluoView FV1200).

Stereotaxic injections and optical fiber/cannula implantation

For surgical procedures, mice were anaesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (0.1 g/kg)

and placed in a stereotaxic apparatus (RWD). Stereotaxic surgery was performed as

described (Li Sun et al., 2020). Briefly, holes were made into the skull over the target

areas to inject the virus with glass pipettes (diameter,10-15 mm) or to implant optical

fibers [outer diameter (o.d.): 200 μm; length: 6.0 mm, 0.37 NA; Inper] or to implant of

guide cannula [outer diameter (o.d.): 0.41 mm; RWD]. The coordinates relative to

bregma were as follows according to the Paxinos and Franklin (2001) atlas. For all

experiments, mice with incorrect injection sites were excluded from further analysis.

For optical activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons, AAV2/9-hEF1a-DIO-hChR2(H134R)-

EYFP-WPRE-pA(viral titers: 2.95×10^{13} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) or AAV2/9-

hEF1a-DIO-EYFP-WPRE-pA (viral titers: 1.0×10^{12} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience)

virus was unilaterally microinjected into the LPB (AP: -4.8; ML: -1.35; DV: -3.4; mm

relative to bregma) of CCK-Cre mice. The virus was diluted into 5.9×10^{12} genomic

copies per ml with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) before use and injected with 65 nl

into the LPB. Virus was delivered at a flow rate of 10 nl/min. The glass capillary was

left in place for an additional 10 min after injection to allow diffusion of the virus. The

cannulas were held in place with dental cement above the LPB (AP: -4.8; ML: -1.35;

DV: -3.2; mm relative to bregma).

For optical activation of PVN^{Vglut2} neurons, AAV2/9-EF1a-DIO-hChR2-EYFP

(viral titers: 2.95×10^{13} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) or AAV2/9-EF1α-DIO-

EYFP (viral titers: 1.0×10^{12} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) virus was unilaterally

microinjected into the PVN (AP: -0.4; ML: -0.15; DV: -4.95; mm relative to bregma)

of Vglut2-Cre mice. The virus was diluted into 2.0×10^{12} genomic copies per ml with

PBS before use and injected with 70 nl into the PVN. Virus was delivered at a flow rate

of 15 nl/min. The glass capillary was left in place for an additional 10 min after injection

to allow diffusion of the virus. The cannulas were held in place with dental cement

above the PVN (AP: -0.4; ML: -0.15; DV: -4.75; mm relative to bregma).

For optical activation of PVN^{CRH} neurons, AAV2/9-EF1a-DIO-hChR2-EYFP

(viral titers: 2.95×10^{13} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) or AAV2/9-EF1α-DIO-

EYFP (viral titers: 1.0×10^{12} particles/ml ; Taitool Bioscience) was unilaterally microinjected into the PVN (AP: -0.4; ML: -0.15; DV: -4.90 mm relative to bregma) of CRH-Cre mice. The virus was diluted into 4.0×10^{12} genomic copies per ml with PBS before use and injected with 75 nl into the PVN. Virus was delivered at a flow rate of 15 nl/min. The glass capillary was left in place for an additional 10 min after injection to allow diffusion of the virus. The cannulas were held in place with dental cement above the PVN (AP: -0.4; ML: -0.15; DV: -4.7; mm relative to bregma).

For optical inhibition of LPB^{CCK} neurons, AAV2/9-EF1α-DIO-hGtACR1-P2A-eYFP-WPRE (5×10^{13} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) or AAV2/9-hEF1a-DIO-EYFP-WPRE-pA (viral titers: 1.0×10^{12} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) virus was bilaterally infused to the LPB (AP: -4.8; ML: -1.35; DV: -3.4; mm relative to bregma) of CCK-Cre mice. The virus was diluted into 1.67×10^{12} genomic copies per ml with PBS before use and injected with 70 nl into the LPB. Optical fibers were bilaterally implanted at an angle of 5° above the LPB (AP: -4.8; ML: -1.72; DV: -2.94; mm relative to bregma).

In order to study the downstream of LPB^{CCK} neurons, AAV2/9-hSyn-DIO-mGFP-2A-Synaptophysin-mRuby (viral titers: 1.55×10^{13} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) virus was unilaterally injected into the LPB (AP: -4.8 mm; ML: -1.35 mm; DV: -3.4 mm) of CCK-Cre mice; in order to study the source of CCKergic upstream of PVN, AAV2/2-Retro-hEF1a-DIO-EYFP-WPRE-pA (viral titers: 2.52×10^{13} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) virus was unilaterally injected into the PVN (AP, -0.4 mm; ML, -0.2mm; DV, -4.85mm) of CCK-Cre mice.

For LPB^{CCK}-PVN axon terminal stimulation, AAV2/9-hEF1a-DIO-hChR2(H134R)-EYFP-WPRE-pA (viral titers: 2.95×10^{13} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) or AAV2/9-hEF1a-DIO-EYFP-WPRE-pA (viral titers: 1.0×10^{12} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) virus was unilaterally microinjected into the LPB (AP: -4.8; ML: -1.35; DV: -3.4; mm relative to bregma) of CCK-Cre mice. The virus was diluted into 5.9×10^{12} genomic copies per ml with PBS before use and injected with 65 nl into the LPB. After the virus was expressed for 2 weeks, for LPB^{CCK}-PVN axon terminals stimulation, optical fibers were unilaterally implanted above the PVN (AP: -0.4; ML: -0.2; DV: -4.7; mm relative to bregma).

For pharmacological experiments (procedures of optical activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons have been mentioned above), drug cannulas were ipsilaterally implanted into the PVN (AP, -0.4 mm; ML, -0.2mm; DV, -4.7mm).

For prolonged inhibition of PVN neurons, AAV2/9-hSyn-mCherry-WPRE-pA (viral titers: $\geq 1.0 \times 10^{13}$ particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) or AAV2/9-hSyn-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry-WPRE-pA(viral titers: $\geq 1.0 \times 10^{13}$ particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) virus was microinjected into the PVN (AP, -0.4 mm; ML, -0.2mm; DV, -4.85mm) of CCK-Cre mice.

For fiber photometry experiments, AAV2/9-hSyn-DIO-GCaMP7s-WPRE virus (viral titers: 2.0×10^{12} particles/ml; Taitool Bioscience) were injected into the LPB of CCK-ires-Cre mice. After two weeks, an optical fiber was implanted into the LPB, then each mouse was allowed to recover for 1 week before recording. Each mouse was handled for 3 days prior to fiber photometry recording.

Fiber photometry

Mice were allowed to recover from surgery for at least 7 days before the behavioral

experiments. The fiber photometry system (RWD Life Science Co., Ltd, China) was

used for recording fluorescence signal (GCaMP7s and isosbestic wavelengths) which

produced by an exciting laser beam from 470 nm LED light and 410nm LED light.

Calcium fluorescence signals were acquired at 60Hz with alternating pluses of 470 nm

and 410 nm light. The power at the end of the optical fiber (200μm, 0.37NA, 2m) was

adjusted to 20 μW. Recording parameters were set based on pilot studies that

demonstrated the least amount of photobleaching, while allowing for the sufficient

detection of the calcium response. We used the camera for behavioral video recordings

to synchronize calcium recordings. On the experimental day, mice were allowed to

acclimate in the home cage for 30 min. Regarding quantification, the filtered 410 nm

signal was aligned with the 470 nm signal by using the least-square linear fit. ΔF/F was

calculated according to (470 nm signal-fitted 410 nm signal)/(fitted 410 nm signal).

And the standard z-score calculation method is used, that is, Z-score = (x-mean)/std, x

= △F/F. During the behavior experiments, the GCaMP7s fluorescence intensity was

recorded.

In vivo optogenetic manipulation

For optogenetic manipulation experiments, an implanted fiber was connected to a 473

nm laser power source (Newdoon Inc., Hangzhou, China). The power of the blue (473

nm) (Newdoon Inc., Hangzhou, China) was 0.83-3.33 mW mm^2 as measured at the tip

of the fiber. 473 nm laser (ChR2: power 5-15 mW, frequency 20 Hz, pulse width 5 ms; GtACR1: power 15 mW, direct current) was supplied to activate or inhibit neurons, respectively.

Pharmacological antagonism

Antagonists were delivered 30 min before optical activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons. For blocking glutamatergic neurotransmission, we firstly connected guiding cannula with a Hamilton syringe via a polyethylene tube. Then we infused 0.25 μl mixed working solution containing CNQX disodium salt hydrate (0.015 μg; Sigma-Aldrich), a glutamate AMPA receptor antagonist, and AP5 (0.03 μg; Sigma-Aldrich), a NMDA receptor antagonist, into the PVN with a manual microinfusion pump (RWD, 68606) over 5 min. For blocking CCKergic neurotransmission, 0.25 μl mixed solution containing Devazepide (0.0625 μg; Sigma-Aldrich), a CCKaR receptor antagonist, and L-365,260(0.0625 μg; Sigma-Aldrich), a CCKbR receptor antagonist, was infused into the PVN over a period of 5 min. To prevent backflow of fluid, the fluid-delivery cannula was left for 10 min after infusion.

Chemogenetic manipulation

Clozapine Noxide (CNO, Sigma) was dissolved in saline (5 mg in 10 uL DMSO & 190 uL 0.9% NaCl solution). CNO was injected intraperitoneally at 0.3 mg per kg of body weight for chemogenetic manipulation.

C-fos staining and analysis

For c-fos quantification, mice were perfused 1.5 h after 10 min blue photostimulation illumination, and sections were cut. The boundaries of the nuclei were defined according to brain atlases Mouse Brain Atlas (Franklin and Paxinos, 2008). Cell counting was carried out manually.

Behavioral task

For all behavioral tests, experimenters were blinded to genotypes and treatments. Mice were handled daily at least seven days before performing behavioral tests. All the apparatuses and cages were sequentially wiped with 70% ethanol and ddH$_2$O then air-dried between stages. At the end of behavioral tests, mice were perfused with 4% PFA followed by post hoc analysis to confirm the viral injection sites, optic fiber and cannula locations. Mice with incorrect viral injection sites, incorrect positioning of optical fibers or cannula were excluded.

Real-time place aversion test

Mice were habituated to a custom-made 20 × 30 × 40 cm two-chamber apparatus (distinct wall colors and stripe patterns) before the test. First stage: each mouse was placed in the center and allowed to explore both chambers without laser stimulation for 10 min. After exploration, the mouse indicated a small preference for one of the two chambers. Second stage: 473 nm laser stimulation (20 Hz, 8 mW, 5 ms) was delivered

when the mouse entered or stayed in the preferred chamber, and the light was turned

off when the mouse moved to the other chamber for 10 min.

Flight-to-nest test

Flight-to-nest test was performed using previously described methods (Zhou, Z., et al,

2019). Flight-to-nest test was performed in a $40 \times 40 \times 30$ cm closed box with a 27-

inch LED monitor stationed on top to display the stimulus. A nest in the shape of a 20

cm wide $\times$ 12 cm high triangular prism was in the corner of the closed Plexiglas box.

There are two cameras, one from the top, one from the side (Logitech) that record the

mouse's activity simultaneously. Briefly, on day 1, the mice were habituated to the box

conditions for 15 min. On day 2, the mice were first allowed to explore the box for 5-

10 min. When the mice were in the corner furthest from the nest and within in a body-

length distance from the wall, they were given optical stimulus. For optogenetic

activation of LPB^{CCK} neurons or LPB^{CCK}-PVN experiments, mice received a 20 s 473

nm blue laser (frequency 20 Hz, pulse width 5 ms) with 15-20 mW (terminal) or 5-10

mW (soma) light power at the fiber tips. For prolonged inhibition of PVN neurons,

Clozapine Noxide (CNO, Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in saline to a concentration of

3 mg/ml. The flight-to-nest test was performed 1.5 h after CNO intraperitoneally

injection.

Flight-to-nest behavioral analysis

The behaviors of the mice were recorded and analyzed automatically with Anymaze software (Global Biotech Inc). Behavioral analysis was performed as previously described (Zhou, Z., et al, 2019). Flight-to-nest behavior was characterized on the basis of the three aspects: latency to return nest, speed (% of baseline speed), time spent in nest (% of 2 min). Latency to return nest refers to the moment from optical stimulus onset to moment when the mouse first went into the nest. Speed (% of baseline speed) refers to the ratio of the post-stimulation speed to the baseline speed. We recorded the speed of the mice in the 50 seconds before photostimulation presentation as the baseline speed. The post-stimulation speed was record from the time of stimulation to 15 s after. It was averaged over a 1 s time window centered on the maximum speed. Time spent in nest (% of 2 min) refers to the time from mouse's body was first completely under the shelter after photostimulation to the time when the mouse left the nest.

Open field test

The open-field chamber was made of plastic (50 × 50 × 50 cm). At the start of the test, mice were placed in the periphery of the open-field chamber. The open field test lasted 5min.

Elevated plus-maze test

The elevated plus maze was made of plastic with two open arms (30 × 5 cm), two closed arms (30 × 5 × 30 cm) and a central platform (5 × 5 × 5 cm). At the beginning of the experiments, mice were placed in the center platform facing a closed arm. The elevated plus-maze test lasted 5 min.

Heart rate measurements

Heart rate was measured via a pulse oximeter (MouseOx Plus; Starr Life Sciences). Mice were placed in the home cage with a detector fixed around the neck. After habituation for 10 min, heart rate was simultaneously measured for 10 min while intermittent 2 min period blue light was applied. Each mouse was tested 3 times, and the mean heart rate was calculated. Heart rate data was analyzed with the MouseOx Plus Conscious Applications Software.

Pupil size measurements

Mice were adapted to constant room light (100 lx) for 1 h before testing. Mice were kept unanaesthetized and restrained in a stereotaxic apparatus during the experiment. The pupil size was recorded using Macro module camera under constant light conditions before stimulation, during stimulation, and after stimulation. The test lasted 90 s, consisting of 30 s light off-on-off epochs. The pupil size was later measured by Matlab software.

Heat exposure assay

We used a translucent plastic box (38 × 25 cm) divided into two parts, the smaller part is the unheated comfortable zone (5 × 25 cm), and the larger part with rubber heating pad is the hot uncomfortable zone (33 × 25 cm). The rubber heating pad was heated to 43℃, and the heat insulated pad was placed in the comfortable zone to avoid the heat.

The heating temperature 43℃ was chosen because it would cause heat escape but not

heat pain (W. Wang, P. J. Schuette, J. Nagai, et al., 2021; Weisheng et al., 2021).

Rat exposure assay

We used a rectangular chamber ($70 \times 25 \times 30$ cm). Mice were acclimated to this

environment for three days for 10 minutes each day. During the rat exposure period, a

live rat was restrained to one end of the chamber using a harness attached to the chamber

wall. As a control, before a live rat exposure, we exposed mice to a toy rat (similar in

size and shape to a live rat). For fiber photometry recordings, all mice underwent rat

exposure for 20 minutes. For photoinhibition tests, mice were exposed to live rat and

all trials lasted 10 min.

Looming test

The looming test was performed in a closed Plexiglas box ($40 \times 40 \times 30$ cm) with a

shelter in the corner. For looming stimulation, an LCD monitor was placed on the

ceiling to present multiple looming stimuli, which was a black disc expanding from a

visual angle of 2° to 20° in 0.5 s. The expanding disc stimulus was repeated for 20

times in quick succession and each repeat is followed by a 0.15 s pause. Animals were

habituated for 10-15 min in the looming box one day before testing. During the looming

test, mice were first allowed to freely explore for 3-5 min. For calcium signal

experiment, total 5 trials of looming stimuli were presented and analyzed. Behavior was

recorded for 20 minutes. For photoinhibition tests, light stimulation was given 1 s

before the looming stimulus appears and continue until the looming stimulus ends.

TMT odor test

During this test, all mice were habituated to the testing environment for three days before any experimental manipulation. For the photometry studies involving odor presentations, mice were placed on a plastic chamber (30 × 30 × 20 cm). A dish (diameter, 5 cm) with cotton was positioned on the side beside the chamber. When TMT (Ferro Tec, 4 ul of 100%) was used as the stimulus, cotton was first wetted with the equivalent volume of 0.1 M PBS. After a habituation period, the dish was replaced with a new one scented with the TMT. The mice were free to explore in the chamber, and behavior was recorded for 20 minutes.

Measurements of corticosterone

Blood samples were collected to determine the hormone levels. Taking Blood was performed in the morning by rapidly collecting heart blood after anesthetization. We immediately collected blood after 10 min of light stimulation (10 mw, 20 Hz, 5 ms pulse width, 15 s per min, 473 nm). Blood samples were temporarily placed in iced plastic tubes coated with heparin. All serum was prepared after every blood sample was centrifuged at 2000 g for 2.5 min at 4°C. Supernatant was collected and plasma corticosterone concentration was measured using commercially-available ELISA kits (Enzo ADI-900-097).

In vitro electrophysiology

Each mouse was anesthetized with pentobarbital sodium (100 mg/kg, i.p.) and

decapitated. Then the whole brain was quickly dissected into ice-cold oxygenated (95%

O_2 and 5% CO_2) artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) (93 mM N-methyl-D-glucamine,

2.5 mM KCl, 1.2 mM NaH_2PO_4, 20 mM HEPES, 25 mM D-glucose, 30 mM $NaHCO_3$,

10 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.5 mM $CaCl_2$, 5 mM sodium ascorbate, 3 mM sodium pyruvate, and

1 mM kynurenic acid), followed by cutting coronally into 300 μm slices on a microtome

(VTA-1200S; Leica). Slices containing the LPB were transferred to a similar solution

(93 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 1.2 mM NaH_2PO_4, 20 mM HEPES, 25 mM D-glucose, 30

mM $NaHCO_3$, 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 5 mM sodium ascorbate, 3 mM sodium

pyruvate, and 1 mM kynurenic acid), and incubated for at lowest 1 h at room

temperature (24-26℃). Then the brain slices were transferred to a recording chamber

attached to the fixed stage of an BX51WI microscope (Olympus) (solution containing:

125 mM NaCl, 3 mM KCl, 1.25 mM NaH_2PO_4, HEPES, 10 mM D-glucose, 26 mM

$NaHCO_3$, 2 mM $MgSO_4$ and 2 mM $CaCl_2$). Patch glass electrodes were pulled from

borosilicate capillaries (BF150-86-10; Sutter Instrument Co, Novato, CA, USA) and

filled with artificial intracellular fluid following component: 135 mM $CsMeSO_3$, 10

mM HEPS, 0.5 mM EGTA, 3.3 mM QX-314, 4 mM Mg-ATP, 0.3 mM Na_2-GTP, 8 mM

Na_2-Phosphocreatine. Whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings were made with a

MultiClamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices). To tested the efficacy of ChR2-

mediated activation, LED-generated blue light pulses were applied to recorded neurons

using 4 different frequencies (5,10, 20, and 40 Hz). To test the effects of photoactivation

of LPB^{CCK} projection terminals within PVN, blue light pulses were applied to the

recorded PVN neurons. To confirm that postsynaptic currents were monosynaptic, the

blue light-evoked currents were recorded in the presence of ACSF (Ctrl), TTX (1 μM)

and 4-AP (100 μM). To confirm that postsynaptic currents were monosynaptic. CNQX

(20 μM) and AP5 (50 μM) were perfused with ACSF to examine the neurotransmitter

type used on LPB^{CCK}-PVN projection. Signals were low-pass filtered at 10 kHz and

digitized at 10 kHz (MICRO3 1401, Cambridge Electronic Design). Data were acquired

and analyzed using Spike2 7.04 software (Cambridge Electronic Design).

Quantification and statistical analysis

All data analyses were conducted blinded. All statistical analyses were performed with

GraphPad Prism (version 7.0) and analyzed by Unpaired Student's t-tests, one-way

ANOVA, two-way ANOVA according to the form of the data. Nonparametric tests were

used if the data did not match assumed Gaussian distribution. Animals were randomly

assigned to treatment groups. All data were presented as Mean ± SEM, with statistical

significance taken as *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$ and ***$p < 0.001$.

Acknowledgements

We thank Weisheng Wang, Xiaoming Li, Bin Zhang, Zhi Chen, Yu-dong Zhou, Kai Liu,

Huifang Lou for technical support. This work was supported by the National Key

Research and Development Program (2021ZD0202700 and 2021ZD0202703), the

Leading talents in Science and Technology of Zhejiang Province (2021R52021), the

National Natural Science Foundation of China (82090033), the NSFC-Guangdong Joint

Fund (U20A6005), the Key Research and Development Program of Zhejiang province

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Fan Wang, Yuge Chen, conceptualization, experimental design and execution, data collection and curation, manuscript writing and revision; Yuxin Lin, Xuze Wang, experimental execution, data collection; Kaiyuan Li, Jintao Wu electrophysiology recording; Yong Han, Zhenggang Zhu, Xiaojun Hu, technical support; Xingyi Shi, Chaoying Long, data analyses; Zhihua Gao, Shumin Duan, conceptualization, project administration, experimental design, data curation, funding acquisition, manuscript writing, revision and editing.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Viral tracing and electrophysiology analyses of glutamatergic connections between LPB^{CCK} neurons and PVN neurons (A) Scheme of viral strategy for retrograde tracing from the PVN in CCK-Cre mice using AAV2-Retro virus. **(B)** Representative image showing the injection site as marked by CTB555. **(C)** Representative histological images of EYFP$^+$ neurons in the LPB. **(D-H)** A heatmap **(D)** demonstrating the distribution of EYFP$^+$ neurons in the MO **(E)**, CC **(F)**, DI **(G)**, PAG **(H)**, n = 3 mice. **(I-J)** Anterograde tracing of LPB^{CCK} neurons using AAV-hSyn-FLEX-mGFP-2A-Synaptophysin-mRuby virus. **(K)** Projections of LPB^{CCK} neurons to the PVN. The right panel shows a magnified view of boxed area; scale bar, 100 μm; n = 3 mice. **(L)** Schematic of recording from PVN cells after optogenetic activation of LPB^{CCK} axonal terminals. **(M)** Representative traces of light-evoked EPSCs recorded from PVN neurons following light stimulation of LPB^{CCK} axonal terminals in the presence of ACSF (Ctrl), TTX (1 μM) and 4-AP (100 μM). **(N)** Quantification of excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) from identified PVN neurons receiving inputs from the LPB^{CCK} neurons in the presence of ACSF (Ctrl), TTX (1 μM) and 4-AP (100 μM). **(O)** Representative traces of light-evoked EPSCs recorded from PVN neurons following light stimulation of LPB^{CCK} axonal terminals in the presence of CNQX (20 μM) and AP5 (50 μM) (n = 9 neurons). **(P)** Quantification of EPSCs and inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) from identified PVN neurons receiving inputs from the LPB^{CCK} neurons.

Figure 2. Activation of LPB^CCK neurons triggers defensive-like flight-to-nest behavior and autonomic responses. (A) Left, schematic of light stimulation of and patch-clamp recording from ChR2-EYFP expressing CCK neurons in the LPB. Right, example of action potentials evoked by optogenetic stimulation LPB^CCK neurons using whole cell patch-clamp slice recording. **(B)** Schematic diagram of optogenetic activation of LPB^CCK neurons. **(C)** Representative image showing the ChR2-EYFP expression and optical fiber tip locations in the LPB of a CCK-Cre mouse. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(D)** Schematic of the timing and behavioral paradigm with optical activation of LPB^CCK neurons. **(E-F)** Diagram of the real-time place aversion (RTPA) test and the example traces of the RTPA test from the mice. **(G) Q**uantification of the time of mice spent in the laser-paired chamber (EYFP: n = 5 mice, ChR2: n = 5 mice; df = 16; two-way ANOVA test) after optogenetic activation. **(H)** Diagram of the flight to nest test **(I-K)** Quantification of latency **(I),** speed **(J)** and time in the nest **(K)** (EYFP: n = 7 mice, ChR2: n = 7 mice; for latency, p = 0.0006, U = 0; Mann-Whitney test; for speed, p = 0.0016, t = 4.052, df = 12; unpaired *t* test; for time in the nest, p < 0.0001, t = 19.82, df = 12; unpaired *t* test). **(L)** Analyses of heart rate changes induced by photostimulation of LPB^CCK neurons. (EYFP: n = 7 mice, ChR2: n = 7 mice; p = 0.0006, t = 4.603, df = 12; unpaired *t* test). **(M-N)** Example images of computer-detected pupils **(M)** and quantitative analyses of pupil size before and during photo-stimulation of LPB^CCK neurons **(N)** (EYFP: n = 6 mice, ChR2: n = 6 mice; p = 0.0022, U = 0; Mann-Whitney test). **(O)** Cartoon of the arousal state during the activation of LPB^CCK neurons. **(P)**

1043 Plasma corticosterone levels in EYFP and ChR2 groups. (EYFP: n = 5 mice, ChR2: n

1044 = 5 mice; p = 0.0121, t = 3.23, df = 8; unpaired *t* test).

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Figure 3. Threat stimuli recruit LPB^{CCK} neurons to elicit defensive behaviors. (A)

Schematic of the *in vivo* recording system for the Ca^{2+} signal. **(B)** Schematic showing

the injections and recording of LPB neurons in CCK-Cre mice. **(C)** A representative

image (left panel) and a magnified view of neurons labeled by AAV-hsyn-DIO-

GCaMP7s, scale bar, 100 μm; n = 5 mice. **(D)** Schematic of the rat exposure assay. **(E-**

F) A heatmap **(E)** and a peri-event plot **(F)** of calcium transients of LPB^{CCK} neurons in

a mouse evoked by rat exposure (5 trials) (gray dotted line, onset of approach to the live

rat; dark dotted line, onset of flight. **(G)** Average calcium transients of the tested animals

during the rat exposure assay (n = 5 mice). Shaded areas around means indicate error

bars. **(H)** Schematic paradigm of looming stimulus in a nest-containing open field

apparatus. **(I-J)** A heatmap presentation **(I)** and a peri-event plot **(J)** of calcium

transients of LPB^{CCK} neurons in a mouse upon looming stimulus (5 trials). **(K)** Average

calcium transients of the tested animals during the looming assay (n = 5 mice). **(L-M)**

Long session calcium recordings of LPB^{CCK} neurons during rat exposure **(L)** or looming

tests **(M)**. **(N-O)** Correlation analyses between the elevation of calcium transients and

the onset of flight during rat exposure **(N)** or looming tests **(O)**. **(P)** Comparison of

calcium signals LPB^{CCK} neurons evoked by different stimuli. **(Q-R)** Plot depicting the

differences of the amplitude **(Q)** or the area under the curve (AUC) **(R)** of calcium

signal changes in response to different stimuli. ΔAUC, AUC stimulus signal- AUC

basal signal.

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Figure 4. Optogenetic inhibition of LPB^{CCK} neurons suppressed predator-evoked

and visual predator cue-evoked innate flight responses. (A) Left, schematic of light

stimulation of and patch-clamp recording of GtACR1-expressing CCK neurons in the

LPB. Right, example of action potentials evoked by optogenetic inhibition of LPB^{CCK}

neurons from using whole cell patch-clamp recording. **(B)** Schematic diagram of

optogenetic inhibition of LPB^{CCK} neurons. **(C)** Representative image showing the

GtACR1-EYFP expression in the LPB and optical fiber tip locations above the LPB of

a CCK-Cre mouse. **(D-E)** Schematic and the timing and behavioral paradigm of rat

exposure assay. **(F-H)** Photoinhibition of LPB^{CCK} neurons increased number of entries

towards the rat (danger zone), time spent in the danger zone, with unchanged travel

distance (EYFP: n = 6 mice, GtACR1: n = 9 mice; for times of entries, p = 0.0456, t =

2.21, df = 13; Unpaired *t* test; for time in the danger zone, p = 0.0153, t = 2.791, df =

13; Unpaired *t* test; for total distance, p = 0.1246, t = 1.642, df = 13; Unpaired *t* test).

(I-J) Schematic of the looming test apparatus, the timing and behavioral paradigm of

looming-evoked flight-to-nest behavioral test. **(K-L)** Photoinhibition of LPB^{CCK}

neurons increased the latency towards the nest and reduced the hiding time in the nest.

(EYFP: n = 11 mice, GtACR1: n = 7 mice; for latency, p = 0.0153, t = 2.716, df = 16;

Unpaired *t* test; Mann-Whitney test; for time in the nest, p = 0.0201, t = 2.582, df = 16;

Unpaired *t* test).

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Figure 5. Photostimulation of the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway induces defensive-like flight-to-nest behavior. (A) Schematic diagram of optogenetic activation of LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway. **(B-C)** A representative image showing the ChR2-EYFP expression in the LPB **(B)** and the optical fiber tip locations in the PVN **(C)** of a CCK-Cre mouse. **(D)** Schematic of the timing and behavioral paradigm with optical activation of LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway. **(E)** Schematic of the experimental apparatus with a nest in the corner. **(F-H)** Optogenetic activation of the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway shortened the latency but increased the speed of animals towards the nest, with increased hiding time in the nest (EYFP: n = 7 mice, ChR2: n = 7 mice; for latency, p = 0.0012, U = 0; Mann-Whitney test; for speed, p = 0.0013, t = 4.163, df = 12; unpaired *t* test; for time in the nest, p = 0.0006, U = 0; Mann-Whitney test). **(I-J)** C-fos staining in the PVN **(I)** and quantification of c-fos positive cells in the PVN **(J)**. Scale bar: 100 μm. (EYFP: n = 3 mice, ChR2: n = 3 mice; p = 0.0033, t = 6.253, df = 4; unpaired *t* test). **(K)** Mean heart rate analyses in EYFP and ChR2 groups (EYFP: n = 7 mice, ChR2: n = 7 mice; p = 0.0002, t = 5.249, df = 12; unpaired *t* test). **(L)** Example image of computer-detected pupil size before and during photoactivation of LPB^{CCK} neurons. **(M)** Relative pupil size of animals (during/before photostimulation of LPB^{CCK} neurons) (EYFP: n = 6 mice, ChR2: n = 6 mice; p = 0.0022, U = 0; Mann-Whitney test). **(N)** Plasma corticosterone levels in EYFP and ChR2 groups. (EYFP: n = 5 mice, ChR2: n = 5 mice; P = 0.0079, U = 0; Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 6. PVN is involved in the defensive-like flight-to-nest behavior evoked by

LPB^{CCK} neurons. (A) Schematic of experimental setup. **(B)** Left, representative image showing the ChR2-EYFP expression in the LPB of a CCK-Cre mouse. Scale bar, 100 μm. Right, representative image showing the hM4Di-mCherry expression in the PVN and optic fiber placement in the PVN from a ChR2-EYFP expressing mouse. **(C-E)** Chemogenetic inhibition of PVN neurons before optical activation of LPB^{CCK}-PVN terminals increased latency and reduced the speed of animals towards the nest, with reduced hiding time in the nest (saline: n = 7 mice, CNO: n = 7 mice; for latency, p = 0.0088, t = 3.122, df = 12; unpaired t test; for speed, p<0.0001, t = 5.736, df = 12; unpaired t test; for time in the nest, p = 0.0032, t = 3.665, df = 12; unpaired t test). **(F)** Optogenetic activation of LPB^{CCK} -PVN terminals with a cannula implanted in the PVN for aCSF, CNQX+AP5, or Devazepide + L-365 260 delivery. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(G)** Representative image showing the ChR2-EYFP expression in the LPB of a CCK-Cre mouse. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(H)** Representative image showing the cannula placement in the PVN from a ChR2-EYFP expressing CCK-Cre mouse. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(I-K)** Microinjection of the glutamate receptor antagonists (CNQX + AP5), rather than CCK receptor antagonists (Devazepide + L-365260), into the PVN increased the latency to the nest and reduced the hiding time in the nest (ACSF: n = 6 mice, CNQX + AP5: n = 6 mice, Devazepide + L-365260: n = 5 mice; for latency, F(2,14)=7.658, p=0.057; One-way ANOVA; for speed, F(2,14) = 11.49, p = 0.0011; for time in the nest, One-way ANOVA; F(2,14) = 16.44, p = 0.0002; One-way ANOVA). **(L)** Schematic diagram of optogenetic activation of PVN^{Vglut2} neurons. **(M)** Representative image showing the ChR2-EYFP expression and optical fiber tip locations in the PVN of a Vglut2-Cre

mouse. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(N-P)** Optogenetic activation of PVN^{Vglut2} neurons reduced the latency, increased the speed of animals towards a nest and the time in the nest. (EYFP: n = 6 mice, ChR2: n = 6 mice; for latency, p = 0.0065, U = 2; Mann-Whitney test; for speed, p = 0.0221, t = 2.705, df = 10; unpaired *t* test; for time in the nest, p = 0.022, U = 0; Mann-Whitney test). **(Q)** Graphical summary showing the LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway in mediating defensive behaviors.

 Supplementary figure legends

 Figure 1-figure supplement 1. Anterograde mapping of LPB^{CCK} neurons. (A-I)

 Representative images showing the projections from LPB^{CCK} neurons in the median

 preoptic nucleus (MnPO), lateral preoptic area (LPO), paraventricular thalamic nucleus

 (PVT), ventromedial hypothalamic nucleus (VMH), ventral posteromedial thalamic

 nucleus (VPM), lateral posterior thalamic nucleus, mediorostral part (LPMR),

 parasubthalamic nucleus (PSTh), periaqueductal gray (PAG), deep gray layer of the

 superior colliculus (DpG）(n = 3 mice; green, GFP; red, mrubby; blue, DAPI). Scale

 bar, 100 μm; n = 3 mice.

 Figure 1-figure supplement 2. Distribution and identification of CCK neurons in

 the LPB. (A) Schematic of mice crossing to generate the CCK-ires-Cre::Ai14 mice. **(B)**

 Representative coronal section images illustrating the expression of CCK-tdT in the

 LPB; scale bar, 100 μm. **(C)** Quantification of CCK-tdT cells across the rostral-to-

 caudal extent of the LPB; n = 3 mice. **(D)** Representative images showing co-labeling

 (arrowheads) of Vglut2-positive (Green) and CCK-tdT expressing cells in the LPB.

 Rightmost panel, magnification of the box-shaped area in the left panel (white dashed

 lines). Blue, DAPI staining. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(E)** Example images showing Vgat-

 positive (Green) and CCK-tdT-expressing cells in the LPB. Rightmost panel,

 magnification of the boxed area in the left panel. Blue, DAPI staining. Scale bar, 100

 μm. **(F)** Representative image from a CCK-ires-Cre::Ai14 mouse in the LPB region

 stained with antibodies against CGRP. Rightmost panels, magnification of the boxed

areas in the left panels. Blue, DAPI staining. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(G)** Percentage of

CCK^{+} neurons that co-localized with markers; n = 4 mice.

Figure 2-figure supplement 3. Photostimulation of LPB^{CCK} neurons induces anxiety-like behaviors. (A) Schematic of behavioral test protocol. OFT, open field test; EPM, elevated plus maze test. **(B)** Experimental apparatus: Open field. **(C)** Example movement traces of a control (AAV2/9-EF1a-DIO-EYFP, left) and an experimental mouse (AAV2/9-EF1a-DIO-ChR2-EYFP, right) in the OFT. **(D-F)** Quantification of the total distance moved, time spent in the center and total number of center entries in the OFT before (Pre) and after (Post) photostimulation of LPB^{CCK} neurons in CCK-Cre mice (EYFP and ChR2, n = 7 mice; for total distance, Pre- light vs. Post-light EYFP p > 0.9999, Post-light EYFP vs. ChR2, p = 0.2236, Pre-light vs. Post-light ChR2, p = 0.9026; two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; for center time, Pre-light vs. Post-light EYFP, p > 0.9999, Post-light EYFP vs. Post-light ChR2 **p < 0.01 p = 0.005, Pre-light ChR2 vs. Post-light ChR2 **p < 0.01 p = 0.005; two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; for center entries, Pre-light EYFP vs. Post-light EYFP ns p > 0.9999, Post-light EYFP vs. Post-light ChR2 ***p < 0.0005 p = 0.0004, Pre-light ChR2 vs. Post-light ChR2 **p < 0.01 p = 0.0042; two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test). **(G)** Experimental apparatus: Elevated plus maze. **(H)** Example traces of a control group mouse (AAV2/9-EF1a-DIO-EYFP, left) and an experimental group mouse (AAV2/9-EF1a-DIO-EYFP, right) in the elevated plus maze. **(I-J)** Quantification of the open arm time and entries in the elevated plus

maze tests before (Pre) and after (Post) photostimulation of LPB^{CCK} neurons in CCK-Cre mice. (EYFP: n = 7 mice, ChR2: n = 7 mice; for open arm time, Pre-light EYFP vs. Post-light EYFP ns p > 0.9999, Post-light EYFP vs. Post-light ChR2 **p < 0.01 p = 0.0053, Pre-light ChR2 vs. Post-light ChR2 ***p<0.0005 p = 0.0005; two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; for open arm entries, Pre-light EYFP vs. Post-light EYFP ns p > 0.9999, Post-light EYFP vs. Post-light ChR2 **p < 0.01 p = 0.0159, Pre-light ChR2 vs. Post-light ChR2 ****p < 0.0001; two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test).

Figure 3-figure supplement 4. LPB^{CCK} neurons respond to threat stimuli. (A) A schematic of the heat assay. (B) Representative trial-by-trial heatmap presentation of calcium transients evoked by heat exposure in 5 trials from one mouse. (C) Representative peri-event plot of the 1 trial of calcium transients. (D) Average calcium transients for the 5 trials from one mouse. **(E)** Toy rat assay schematic. Mice were placed in the presence of a toy rat. **(F)** Representative trial-by-trial heatmap presentation of calcium transients evoked by toy rat exposure in 1 trial from one mouse. **(G)** Representative peri-event plot of the 5 trials of calcium transients. **(H)** Average calcium transients for the entire test group. **(I)** TMT odor exposure schematic. **(J)** Representative trial-by-trial heatmap presentation of calcium transients evoked by rat exposure in 1 trial from one mouse. **(K)** Representative peri-event plot of the 5 trials of calcium transients. **(L)** Average calcium transients for the entire test group.

Figure 6-supplementary 5. Stimulation of LPB^{CCK}-PVN pathway activates PVN^{CRH} neurons, but activation of PVN^{CRH} neurons does not trigger flight-to-nest behavior. (A-B) Representative histological images showing CCKaR and CCKbR in the PVN. **(C)** C-fos expression and colocalization (arrows) with CRH in the PVN with blue light activation of LPB-originating ChR2-EYFP expressing terminals in the PVN. Scale bar: 100 μm. **(D)** Quantification for the percentage of activated CRH neurons in the PVN following blue light activation. (EYFP: n = 3 mice, ChR2: n = 3 mice; p = 0.0066, t = 5.187, df = 4; unpaired *t* test). **(E-F)** Left: C-fos expression and colocalization (arrows) with OXT in the PVN with blue light activation of LPB-originating ChR2-EYFP expressing terminals in the PVN. Scale bar: 100 μm. Right: C-fos expression and colocalization (arrows) with AVP in the PVN with blue light activation of LPB-originating ChR2-EYFP expressing terminals in the PVN. Scale bar: 100 μm. **(G)** Schematic diagram of optogenetic activation of PVN^{CRH} neurons. **(H)** Representative image showing the ChR2-EYFP expression and optical fiber tip locations in the PVN of a CRH-Cre mouse. Scale bar, 100 μm. **(I-K)** Optogenetic activation of PVN^{CRH} neurons did not induce flight-to-nest behavior. Compared with control group, ChR2 group showed no changes in latency, speed back into the nest and percentage of hiding time spent in the nest (EYFP: n = 5 mice, ChR2: n = 6 mice; for latency, p = 0.6664, t = 0.4456, df = 9; unpaired t test; for speed, p = 0.0221, t = 2.705, df = 10; unpaired t test; for time in the nest, p = 0.2088, t = 1.367, df = 8; unpaired *t* test).

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 Figure 2

 Figure 3

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Figure 6

Figure1-supplymentary1

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Figure2-supplymentary3

Figure3-supplymentary4

Figure6-supplymentary5