D2-expressing neurons of the anterior paraventricular nucleus of the thalamus as key players

for modulating relative aversive and safety learning

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Abstract

Associative learning provides a means to assign appropriate value signals to experiences that animals

can later use to make appropriate value-based choices. By generalizing from prior aversive experiences

and comparing with a current experience, animals can learn the relative aversive ("better or worse

than") value or relative positive safety value between experiences. Yet, how such relative value signals

are acquired during learning remain poorly known. The paraventricular nucleus of the thalamus (PVT)

is critical for the control of salience and valence signals. It is therefore well-placed to be involved in

learning relative aversive value and learned safety. Using a newly-developed conditioned place

preference task, we uncover specific behavioral signatures associated with learning relative aversive

value and learned safety, and related value-based choices. We then show that neurons expressing

dopamine D2 receptor (D2+) in the anterior PVT (aPVT) are preferentially recruited by both relative

aversive value learning and learned safety. Using a pharmacogenetic strategy, we demonstrate that

aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons are involved in learning relative- but not absolute- aversive value.

Finally, we show that aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons are also critical for the encoding of learned

safety. Overall, our findings reveal a novel role of aPVT D2+ neurons in computing relative

aversive/safety value signals between experiences during learning to promote appropriate value-based

choices.

Introduction

Learning that some cues can predict threat while others can predict safety is critical for appropriate

decision-making and survival. [1–3] By generalizing predictions [4,5] and comparing the value of

contextual/sensory signals of a prior aversive experience with an ongoing threat, animals can learn the

relative aversive value between two experiences (i.e. whether one is better or worse than the other). [6–

11] However, by generalizing prediction and comparing a prior aversive experience with the absence of

a threat, animals can learn relative safety. [12–14] Moreover, previous studies showed that learning the

relative aversive value between two aversive experiences, such that one is perceived as better than

the other, involves the reward system. [6,7,15] Similarly, a safe experience, relative to a prior aversive one,

can acquire a relative positive value called learned safety, a process that also requires the reward

system. [16,17] When later confronted with a choice between two options, pre-computed values acquired

during learning (here relative aversive value or learned safety) facilitate decision-making processes,

thus promoting more efficient and accurate value-based choices. [18] Critically, overgeneralization and

dysregulation of a normal threat and safety learning, leading to alteration of relative value computation,

is maladaptive and serves as a major feature of fear-related disorders including post-traumatic stress

disorder (PTSD). [4] While fear generalization [4,19] and the interaction between appetitive and aversive

systems [7,20–22] are likely crucial players in the encoding of value signals, how the comparison of

generalized predicted and current values contribute to the encoding of relative aversive value and

learned safety remains poorly understood.

The paraventricular nucleus of the thalamus (PVT) is a hub connecting the thalamus with cortical and

limbic structures [23–27], which is critically involved in arousal, stimulus salience processing and value

assignment to associative stimuli. [28,29] [30–33] The PVT is therefore a strong candidate structure for

disentangling motivational conflicts and comparing experiences to compute appropriate relative value

signals during learning. [24,28,33–37] Due to its involvement in granting and updating the value of aversive

experiences [28,36,38–42], here we hypothesize that the PVT is crucial for the assignment of a relative

aversive/safety value. Of note, the D2 dopamine receptor-expressing neurons (D2+) of the PVT are

sensitive to valence [33] and are implicated in signaling aversive states. [33,39] By contrast, D2-non-

expressing neurons (D2-) are modulated by arousal, relaying a salience signal to the cortex. [33]

According to this functional dissociation, D2+ neurons could be critical to signal a "better than expected"

relative aversive value. The PVT is also instrumental for the correct assignment of a learned safety

value to an experience. [42] However, it remains unclear whether D2+ neurons of the PVT differentially

contribute to encoding relative aversive value and/or learned safety.

Here, we addressed this question by designing a novel conditioned place preference task that allows

mice to encode either relative aversive value or learned safety. In this task, mice learn to associate one

context with foot shock delivery, followed by a second context that is either associated with shocks of

lower intensity (learning a relative "better" aversive value), or with the absence of shocks (for learned

safety). After learning, mice are confronted to a choice between the two contexts. We showed that mice

adapt their defensive responses to each task, exhibiting distinct behavioral signatures during learning

and choice tests. Our data revealed that during learning of the second context, when comparing it to

the previous aversive experience, both tasks preferentially recruit D2+ neurons in the aPVT compared

to pPVT. We then found that pharmacogenetic inactivation of aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons during

the exposure to the second context disrupt relative aversive comparison by increasing its aversiveness.

This led to a suppressed preference towards the less punished-associated context during the choice

test. Consistently, when mice learn to associate two distinct contexts paired with the same shock

intensity, inactivation of aPVT D2+ neurons during the exposure to the såecond context also increases

its aversiveness, tilting mouse preference towards the first context during choice test. Finally, we found

that inactivating aPVT D2+ neurons increases safety of the ongoing experience inducing enhanced

preference towards the safe context during choice test.

Taken together, our data demonstrate that aPVT D2+ neurons modulate the comparison of values

during learning that enables accurate assignment of relative aversive value and learned safety, thereby

promoting appropriate value-based choices. These results also provide compelling evidence that aPVT

neuronal ensembles expressing D2 receptors, embedded within limbic-cortical circuits, are key in the

evaluation process for assigning correct value signals to sensory experience during associative

learning.

Results

Mice use different behavioral strategies for learned relative safety and relative aversive value-

based learning and choice

To study the neural circuits and mechanisms underlying learned safety and relative aversive value

coding, we designed a novel 1-day conditioned place preference (CPP) task **(Figures 1A** and **S1A)**. In

this task, mice are subjected to a pretest session ("Pretest"), allowing them to explore two never-

encountered contexts (A and B connected via a bridge) followed by two conditioning sessions ("S1"

and "S2") in each context, and a test session ("Choice test") between contexts A and B. Three groups

were tested. In the control group, no shock was delivered in any context during S1 and S2. To study

learned relative safety value (named the "safe" group), we employed a discriminative/differential fear

conditioning paradigm [12–14] during which mice received four electric shocks of 0.6 mA in context A during

S1 ("A+0.6"), but no shock (no threat) in context B during S2 ("B+0"). To study learned relative aversive

value (named the "aversive" group), mice were subjected to four electric shocks of 0.6 mA in context A

during S1 ("A+0.6") as for the safe group, but received four electric shocks of 0.3 mA in context B during

S2 ("B+0.3"). As expected, no freezing was observed during Pretest in any group (**Figure S1B**). Both

safe and aversive groups exhibited increased freezing levels in S1 and S2 conditioning sessions

compared to the control group (**Figure S1C**). However, only mice in the aversive group showed

increased freezing from S1 to S2 **(Figure 1B)**, along with heightened anxiety as measured with a

decreased time spent in the center during S2 (**Figure S1D**). By analyzing the dynamic of freezing during

S1 and S2 (**Figures S1E**), we found that freezing before the putative first shock of S2, but not S1,

significantly increased for both safe and aversive groups compared to control group (**Figure 1C**). The

increased freezing observed at the beginning of S2 suggests a generalized expectation based on their

previous aversive experience in context A+0.6 mA. Importantly, while both aversive and safe groups

increased freezing after the 4th (and last) shock in S1 (**Figures 1D, S1E** and **S1F**), only mice in the

aversive group maintained a high freezing level at the end of S2 (i.e., after receiving four shocks in

context B), indicating that the aversive group learned that context B is aversive (**Figures 1D** and **S1E**).

In contrast, mice in the safe group significantly decreased their freezing after the fourth (and last)

putative shock (**Figure 1D**) suggesting that mice start to discriminate both contexts, perceiving context

B+0 mA as relatively safer than context A + 0.6 mA. Strikingly, we also observed tail rattling behavior

only in the aversive group immediately after each shock event in S2 (**Figure 1E; video 1**), but not S1

(**Figure S1G**). Thus, the increased number of shock events shifted mouse's defensive responses. The

absence of such active defensive behavior in response to a threat [43] in the safe group strengthen the

idea that context B + 0 mA became relatively safer than context A+0.6 mA. Overall, our results indicate

that relative to a prior intense aversive experience, mice assign a relative aversive/safe value to ensuing

less punished/not punished experience.

One hour after the learning phase, all mice were tested during a choice-test session. Importantly, mice

were first placed in their most preferred context (defined during Pretest), i.e., context A_0 for the control

group and the most punished Context $A_{0.6}$ for both safe and aversive groups (**Figure 2A)**. Their latency

to cross from context A to context B (i.e., First latency) was similar between all 3 groups during choice

test (**Figure S2A**). Similarly, the number of tail rattling was similar before their first cross to context B

(**Figure S2B; video 2**). However, only mice from the aversive group spent more time in the bridge

before the first cross (**Figures 2B** and **2C**). In addition, the majority of mice in the aversive group (10

out of 12) displayed a "turn-back" behavior in the bridge zone (**Figure 2D; video 3**). Such behavioral

signature is reminiscent of the "vicarious trial and error" behavior with animals moving back and forth in

direction of different choices at decision zones. [44,45]

After crossing the bridge for the first time (i.e., First cross), mice were allowed to explore the two

contexts for 15 min (as in [46,47]) (**Figure S2C**). We calculated a ΔCPP score comparing the time spent

in each context during pretest (15 min, **Figure S2D**) vs choice test (15 min after first cross, **Figure 2E**).

As expected, control mice showed no preference for either of the two contexts during choice test (ΔCPP

score close to zero, **Figure 2E**). Mice from the safe and aversive groups similarly reverted their initial

preference and spent more time in the less aversive context (positive ΔCPP score significantly different

from zero and not significant between safe and aversive groups, **Figure 2E**), along with a reduced

exploratory behavior (**Figures S2C** and **S2E**). Their preference was similar for both safe and aversive

groups during the first 5 min of the test, but was sustained in the aversive group throughout the choice

test (**Figure S2F**). For the aversive group, this preference was accompanied with increased freezing in

the bridge zone and context $B_{0.3}$ (**Figure 2F**), along with higher stress marked by more feces (**Figure**

S2G). In line with these results, the aversive group stayed longer in the bridge after the first cross

(**Figure 2G**). These data suggest that the aversive group therefore utilized prior learning information to

avoid the most punished context $A_{0.6}$ and potentially approach context $B_{0.3}$ [15] while being anxious and

showing hesitation to make a choice between the two aversive contexts. By contrast, the safe group

preferred the safe B_0 context and showed less anxiety-like behavior. Overall, mice use learned

experience to adopt specific behavioral signatures and enable appropriate value-based choices.

Both learned relative safety and relative aversive learning preferentially recruit D2+ neurons in

the aPVT

We hypothesized that mice compare the relative value of the two experiences during conditioning S2

relative to S1 and assign either a relative "better than" aversive value to context B (paired 0.3 mA

shocks) for the aversive group [6,7,34] or a relative safety value to context B (no threat) for the safe group.

[12,14,17] However, it remains unclear how mice encode a relative value (aversive or safe) between

experiences, and how this influences subsequent value-based choices. The PVT is central for

modulating anxiety-related conflicting appetitive-aversive information [37,48] and could be pivotal for the

encoding of relative (aversive or safe) value. Notably, the functional PVT antero-posterior axis

expressing dopaminergic D2 receptor (D2+ neurons) involved in salience and valence coding [33,49,50]

could extricate the different intensities of prior (during S1) and actual information learned during the

conditioning session S2. We first tested this hypothesis by asking whether PVT neurons, in particular

D2+ neurons, are differentially recruited during learning using D2 Cre:Ai14 mice (see Methods). First,

our *ex vivo* whole-cell recording experiments confirmed that td-Tomato (i.e., Ai14) cells respond to

quinpirole (D2R-like agonist, 1 M; action potential (AP) frequency baseline = 1.00 +/- 0.20 Hz, AP

frequency quinpirole = 0.37 +/- 0.21 Hz, n= 5 cells, paired t-test p= 0.0047 **) validating the use of this

mouse line. We then performed a cFos immunostaining in the aPVT and pPVT in D2-tagged animals

of 3 groups: home-cage (HC), safe and aversive (**Figures 3A** and **3B**). To reflect cFos activity at the

time of the comparison between the two conditioning sessions, mice were perfused 90 min after the

conditioning session S2. Importantly, we verified that both safe and aversive groups showed distinct

freezing patterns at the end of S2 (**Figures S3A** and **S3B**), as we previously described (**Figures 1C**

and **1D**). We found that both safe and aversive groups show similar, and significantly higher, levels of

activated (cFos positive) neurons compared to the home-cage group (**Figure 3C**). In the safe and

aversive groups, such recruitment was more prominent in the aPVT than the pPVT (**Figures 3C** and

S3C) and incorporated a higher proportion of D2+ than D2- neurons in the aPVT, but not pPVT (**Figures**

3D-**3E**). Noteworthy, D2+ cell densities were similar between all groups, but were higher in pPVT than

aPVT (**Figure S3D**), as previously published. [33] These results indicate that both learned safety and

relative aversive learning recruit preferentially aPVT D2+ neurons. Mice were subjected to a choice test

immediately before being perfused (**Figures 3A**)**.** In line with our previous findings (**Figure 2E**), both

safe and aversive groups significantly preferred the non-punished (context B_0) or less punished

compartment (context $B_{0.3}$) during choice test, respectively (positive ΔCPP score in **Figure S3E**). As

shown in **Figure 2**, the relative choice between the two previously (and differently) punished contexts,

$A_{0.6}$ and $B_{0.3}$, led mice to spend a prolonged period in the bridge, likely assessing the two aversive

options to make an appropriate choice (**Figure S3F**). Given the role of the PVT and the increased

activation of D2+ neurons during the conditioning session S2, we hypothesized that mouse behavior

during the choice test is closely linked to the activity of aPVT D2+ neurons during S2. Accordingly, the

percentage of activated D2+ neurons of the aPVT (but not pPVT) of the aversive group during S2 is

negatively correlated with the time spent on the bridge (i.e., the decision zone) during the choice test

(**Figure 3F**). In other words, the less aPVT D2+ neuron activation during S2, the more time mice will

spend in the bridge at the start of the choice test. Strikingly, such correlation was not observed for aPVT

D2-negative activated neurons (**Figure 3F**), nor for the safe group (**Figure 3G**). These results strongly

suggest a crucial role of aPVT D2+ neurons for learning relative aversive value during conditioning to

subsequently promote an appropriate relative aversive value-based choice.

aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons are crucial for learning relative aversive value

To directly test the role of aPVT D2+ neurons for learning relative aversive value during conditioning in

S2, we virally injected D2 Cre mice with viral vectors expressing a Cre-dependent DREADD (AAV-DIO-

hM4Di-mCherry) or control viral vector (AAV-DIO-mCherry) in the aPVT (**Figure 4A**). Four weeks later,

mice underwent the aversive CPP task and were injected with Clozapine N-Oxide (CNO)

intraperitoneally 30 min before S2. This pharmacogenetic strategy aimed to inactivate aPVT D2+

neurons when mice relatively compare the S1 and S2 experiences (**Figure 4B**). To ascertain the effect

of hM4Di activity, we performed *ex vivo* whole-cell recordings in control- and hM4Di-D2+ neurons of

the aPVT, identified by their mCherry fluorescence (**Figure S4A)**. The application of 10 M CNO to

aPVT brain sections expressing inhibitory DREADD (hM4Di) hyperpolarizes D2+ neurons by drastically

decreasing spike frequency (**Figure S4A**). By contrast, CNO had no impact on aPVT D2+ neurons

transduced with the control AAV-DIO-mCherry virus (**Figure S4A)**. In line with previous reports, we also

confirmed projection targets of aPVT D2+ neurons such as nucleus accumbens (NAc) and amygdala

(**Figure S4B**). [33] First, and as expected, both control and hM4Di groups showed a similar preference of

context during pretest before CNO injection (**Figure S4C).** While silencing aPVT D2+ neurons during

S2 did not change the amount of freezing during conditioning (**Figures S4D** and **S4E**), it led to a

significant increase of tail rattling behavior in S2 for the hM4Di group immediately after receiving electric

shocks (**Figure 4C**). Moreover, while we observed a decreased average distance travelled after shock

delivery between S1 and S2 in the control group (**Figure 4D**), inhibiting aPVT D2+ neurons prevented

such decrease during S2 (**Figure 4D**). These findings suggest that silencing aPVT D2+ neurons

heightened shock perception during S2, thereby possibly increasing the aversiveness of context B+0.3.

As a consequence, before their first cross from context $A_{0.6}$ to context $B_{0.3}$ during choice test, mice

displayed a higher number of turnbacks (**Figure 4E**) and tail rattling (**Figure 4F**) in the bridge without

changing their first latency to cross (**Figure S4F**) nor the time they spent in the bridge zone (**Figure

S4G**). These results indicate that hM4Di mice perceived context $B_{0.3}$ as threatening as context $A_{0.6}$. In

line with this conclusion, the preference of control mice for the previously less punished context $B_{0.3}$

was fully suppressed in hM4Di mice (ΔCPP score close to 0; **Figure 4G**). This was true when aPVT D2+ neurons were inactivated during S2, but not during choice test, highlighting the selective role of aPVT D2+ neurons for relative aversive value-based learning (**Figure S4H-J**). hM4Di mice spent more time in the bridge zone after their first cross from context $A_{0.6}$ to context $B_{0.3}$ (**Figure 4H**), indicating more hesitation to choose between the two contexts. Moreover, mice froze less in context $B_{0.3}$ (**Figure 4I;** also see **Figure 2E**). Overall, our results converge towards the idea that silencing aPVT D2+ neurons enhanced the aversiveness of the "context B+0.3 mA" learning experience to reach a similar aversiveness as in context A+0.6 mA. This would therefore prevent mice from accurately learning the relative difference between two aversive experiences and from assigning a relative "better than" aversive value to context B+0.3 mA. In line with this hypothesis, conditioning mice to contexts A and B both paired with 0.6 mA (**Figure S4K**) led to similar results, with notably a similar tail rattling during S1 and S2 and a similar distance travelled after shock between S1 and S2 (**Figures S4L** and **S4M**). In addition, we observed similar consequences during the choice test with notably a ΔCPP score not different from 0 and similar freezing in $A_{0.6}$, bridge and $B_{0.6}$ (**Figures S4N** and **S4O**). We thus propose that aPVT D2+ neurons are critical to compare the relative aversiveness between the two experiences during learning, thereby contributing to the encoding of relative aversive value and triggering appropriate threat-related behavior.

To address whether D2+ neurons are specifically required for relative aversive value coding, but not for coding absolute aversive value, we conducted two sets of experiments in which mice could not generalize threat from a prior aversive experience. In the first experiment, mice were subjected to a contextual fear conditioning task (four shocks of 0.3 mA in context B) (**Figures 4J** and **4K**). We found that silencing aPVT D2+ neurons during contextual fear conditioning of context B+0.3 mA, did not alter the aversiveness of the experience as no changes in freezing nor tail rattling during conditioning and test were observed (**Figures 4L-O**). In a second experiment, mice were subjected to an absolute aversive protocol (no shock in context A followed by four shocks of 0.3 mA in context B; **Figure S4P-Q**). Again, silencing aPVT D2+ neurons during conditioning of context B+0.3 mA, did not change mouse behavior (**Figures S4R-T**). These data are consistent with a specific role for aPVT D2+ neurons to encode relative aversive value during learning.

These results however do not rule out a putative role of aPVT D2- (minus) neurons for the encoding of relative aversive value, considering their role in arousal and responses to stimuli saliency [33], and their

increased cFos expression during S2 (although significantly lower than aPVT D2+ neurons; **Figure 3D**).

To tackle this question, we employed a viral strategy to specifically target and inactivate aPVT D2-

neurons (AAV-FLEx-OFF-hM4Di-mCitrine/mCherry with corresponding control viruses based on [51];

Figure 5A, Figure S5A and methods). We first tested the efficiency of the vector by performing *ex vivo*

whole-cell recordings in control- and hM4Di-D2- neurons of the aPVT, identified by their fluorescence

(**Figure S5A**). Our data confirmed that bath application of 10 M CNO to aPVT brain sections

expressing inhibitory DREADD (hM4Di) hyperpolarizes D2- neurons by drastically decreasing spike

frequency. By contrast, bath application of CNO was ineffective on aPVT D2- neurons transduced with

the control virus (**Figures S5B**). We also confirmed the specificity of the FLEx-OFF viral vector to aPVT

D2- neurons, with only 3% overlap with D2+ neurons (**Figures S5C** and **S5D**). We next injected CNO

30 min before S2 in order to inactivate aPVT D2- neurons during S2 of the aversive task (**Figure 5B**).

While hM4Di mice froze slightly less than control before first shock in S2 (**Figures S5E**), other

behavioral parameters previously described remained unchanged during conditioning (including tail

rattling, **Figures 5C-D** and **Figures S5F**) nor during choice test (**Figures 5E-I** and **Figures S5G-H**).

Therefore, our results strongly suggest that inactivated aPVT D2+, but not D2- neurons, enhance the

relative aversiveness of a threat.

Together, we demonstrated that only aPVT D2+ neurons are essential for the encoding of relative

aversive value during learning to enable appropriate relative value-based choice.

aPVT D2+ neurons dampen relative aversiveness of a threat

To further test our hypothesis that inactivating aPVT D2+ neurons enhances the relative aversive value

of the threat-associated context, we conditioned control and hM4Di mice to associate contexts A and B

with identical low-intensity shocks (0.3 mA) and administered CNO 30 min before S2 (**Figure 6A**).

Confirming our previous findings, silencing aPVT D2+ neurons significantly increased the number of

tail rattling post-shock during S2 (**Figure 6B**) without altering the distance travelled after shock (**Figure**

S6A). Furthermore, and as previously shown in **Figure S4D**, such pharmacogenetic intervention did

not change freezing behavior before the first (**Figure S6B**) or after the fourth shock of each conditioning

session S1 and S2 (**Figure 6C**). As a consequence, we found that hM4Di mice first placed in $A_{0.3}$ during

the choice test displayed more turnbacks in the bridge zone before their first cross to context $B_{0.3}$

(**Figure 6D**), with a similar number of tail rattling (**Figure S6C**). Other behavioral parameters were

preserved (first latency, **Figure 6E**, time spent in the bridge zone before, **Figure 6F**, and after the first

cross, **Figure S6D** and freezing during choice test, **Figure 6G**). However, as shown in **Figure 4G** during

choice test**,** hM4Di mice did not prefer either of the two contexts (ΔCPP score not different from 0;

Figures 6H and **S6E**) compared to control mice. This behavior is likely due to the heightened

aversiveness of context $B_{0.3}$ following the inactivation of aPVT D2+ neurons.

These results combined with those shown in **Figures 4**, **5**, **S4** and **S5** provide strong evidence for a

critical role of aPVT D2+ neurons for modulating the relative comparison of aversive experiences during

learning and the encoding of relative aversive value, essential information that mice later use to make

appropriate value-based choices.

aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons are involved in learned relative safety

PVT neurons modulate the salience of both aversive and appetitive behavior [28], a crucial information

for both fear and reward learning. [52,53] As we found an increased cFos expression in aPVT D2+ neurons

in S2 in the safe group (**Figures 3C-3E**), we next asked whether aPVT D2+ neurons also play a role in

learned relative safety, as they do for learning relative aversive value. To test our hypothesis, we

subjected control and hM4Di mice to the discriminative fear conditioning (**Figure 1A**) and injected CNO

30 min before conditioning S2 in context B+0 mA (**Figure 7A**). In line with our hypothesis, silencing

aPVT D2+ neurons did not change threat-related defensive behaviors during conditioning (**Figures 7B-**

C and **S7A-B**). During choice test, we also found that threat-predicting behavior such as the number of

turnbacks and tail-rattling behavior in the bridge zone before going to the non-shocked B_0 context (i.e.

before first cross) were also unchanged (**Figures 7D-E**). However, while there were no changes of their

first latency to cross from $A_{0.6}$ to B_0 (**Figure 7F**) nor their time spent in the bridge after the first cross

(**Figure S7C**), hM4Di mice exhibited a longer latency to go back to the punished context $A_{0.6}$ (second

latency, **Figure 7G**). Importantly, hM4Di mice exhibited a higher percentage of freezing/immobility in

the safe context B_0 (**Figure 7H**) as they showed a higher preference for the safe context B_0 compared

to control mice (**Figures S7D** and **7I**). These data indicate that inactivation of aPVT D2+ neurons during

S2 increased safety in context B+0 mA, thus strongly increasing the preference towards the safe context

B_0 during the choice test.

To verify that inactivating aPVT D2+ neurons during the exposure to context B+0 mA did not assign a

positive value to this context during conditioning, control and hM4Di mice were subjected to two novel

and distinct contexts (C and D contexts, **Figure S7E**) without shock, and CNO was i.p. injected 30 min before S4 in context D+0. As expected, we did not find any change in any mouse behavior during conditioning or choice test (**Figures S7F-O**).

Our results in **Figure 3D** showed an increased cFos expression in aPVT D2- neurons during the encoding of relative safety value, although significantly lower than aPVT D2+ neurons. We therefore asked whether the increased safety we observed reflects the selective inhibition of aPVT D2+ neurons, rather than an overall role of aPVT. To test this hypothesis, aPVT D2- neurons were inactivated during S2 using the same viral strategy as before (**Figures 5** and **7J**). While we found a decreased freezing in S2 for the hM4Di group compared to control mice (**Figure S7P**, as in **Figure S5E**), our results demonstrated that this manipulation had no effect on the capacity of mice to learn a safety value in S2 during conditioning nor choosing to stay in the safe context B_0 during choice test (**Figures 7K-R** and **S7 Q-S**).

Together, these findings strongly indicate that aPVT D2+, but nor D2-, neurons modulate learned relative safety during conditioning markedly influencing ensuing value-based choice behavior.

Discussion

Our study reveals a critical role of aPVT D2+ neurons for learning relative aversive value and learned safety to promote appropriate value-based choices. Using a novel conditioned place preference task, we found that distinct behavioral signatures are associated with learning relative aversive value and learned safety, and related value-based choices. We then demonstrated that learning relative aversive value and learned safety preferentially recruit D2+ neurons in the aPVT compared to that of pPVT. Moreover, inactivating aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons at the moment of the comparison between previous aversive and actual aversive/neutral experiences heightened the aversiveness/safeness of the experience. Such enhancement modified learning and then, the selection of subsequent behavior when mice had to choose between the two available options. Importantly, aPVT D2+ neurons modulate relative, but not absolute, aversive value coding, since that in the absence of a prior aversive experience, their pharmacogenetic inactivation did not alter the aversiveness of the ongoing experience. This work provides key findings that improve our understanding of how context-dependent relative (aversive and safe) values are encoded in the brain.

aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons are key modulators of relative aversive value learning

Extensive work focused on brain mechanisms for relative appetitive learning related to reward and gain. [11,54,54,55,55–65] Surprisingly, the neural circuits underling relative aversive learning and choice remain poorly understood. Here, we designed a novel 1-day conditioned place preference task in which mice learn the association of two distinct contexts with different shock intensities, the first context paired with 0.6 mA and a second context with less intense 0.3 mA shocks. Later, mice are confronted to a choice between the two contexts. Our data showed that this relative aversive task is associated with increased freezing, emergence of tail rattling and decreased time in the center of the context during the second conditioning session. These key behavioural features were restricted to relative aversive value learning, since they were absent in the absence of prior aversive experience. Strikingly, tail rattling is a behavior typically associated with aggression in male mice before fighting. [66] In our set of experiments, tail rattling may therefore be associated with a negative emotional state and a reaction against a possible threat, occurring during learning (i.e. immediately after a negative shock event) but also during memory retrieval (choice test) when mice can make predictions of a possible threat. Previous work has suggested a role of PVT for modulating the value and salience of stimuli. [28,33] Moreover, previous studies highlighted a crucial role of the PVT during motivational conflict scenarios where both approach and defensive behaviors compete. [28,37,48,67] We found that pharmacogenetic inactivation of aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons enhances the aversiveness of the ongoing aversive experience demonstrated by both increased tail-rattling and running immediately after each shock. Since tail rattling behavior may increase visual and auditory saliency of the mouse to predators [43], our data suggest that aPVT D2+ neuronal inactivation caused a shift in the defensive behavioral strategy, favoring enhancement of active threat responses.

Our results also revealed that during the relative choice between the two previously punished contexts, mice increased time spent and numerous turnbacks when located in the bridge zone. Such behavior is reminiscent of the "Vicarious Trial and Error" (VTE) phenomenon [44,68] observed at decision point when animals pause and move their head back and forth to "scan" and evaluate the possible outcomes before making a choice between two or more options with uncertain outcomes. [45] Importantly, VTE behavior is preferentially exhibited in hippocampal-dependent tasks and during complex decision making processes. [69–71] Given the critical role of contextual information in our new relative task and the observed PVT-hippocampus anatomo-functional connectivity [23], our newly designed relative aversive

task could serve to expand our knowledge of the neuronal circuits underlying VTE behavior and value-

based decision-making processes.

aPVT D2+ neurons modulate predictive signals for learning aversive value and learned safety.

The PVT is widely recognized as signaling aversive states and modulating fear-related behaviors

[23,28,33,36,38,41,72–74], as well as appetitive associative learning [28,75], and reward-seeking behavior. [76–78]

Moreover, PVT neurons are activated by cues or contexts previously associated with positive or

negative emotional outcomes. [23,36–38,73,76,79–84] In the safe condition, in which the first context is paired

with 0.6 mA shocks followed by a second context in which no shocks are delivered (a

differential/discriminative conditioning), animals likely acquire a learned safety. [4,12–14] Our cFos staining

revealed that the aPVT is more recruited than pPVT by both a second context paired with a weaker

shock (relative aversive) or the absence of shock (learned safety). As mice likely generalize expected

negative prediction from a previous aversive experience to learn relative aversive value or safety, our

results are reminiscent of previous reports showing that the omission of expected reward activates the

aPVT, but not the pPVT. [76] The aPVT may therefore be strongly involved in generating predictive value

signals crucial for the encoding of relative aversive/safety values requiring the reward system. To

compute these predictive value signals, the PVT receives inputs from regions such as the infralimbic,

prelimbic cortex [27,85–88] and ventral hippocampus [89,90], which convey information about motivational

state and arousal, respectively. To modulate predictive value signals, the PVT projects to the ventral

tegmental area (VTA) and substantia nigra pars compacta [91] where computation of prediction error

(comparison between predicted and actual information) is crucial to signal correct value to sensory

experience during learning.[92,93] Notably, VTA dopaminergic neurons can regulate the salience of threat

signals. [94] As the reward system is involved in both relative aversive value [6,7] and learned safety

[14,16,17,95], the aPVT could modulate the computation of a relative positive value signals in the VTA. The

aPVT also projects to regions modulating approach-avoidance behaviors such as prefrontal cortex [33,96]

and ventral subiculum [96], extended amygdala [96,97], nucleus accumbens (NAc) shell [26,96,98] and NAc core.

Since the NAc shell region integrates dopaminergic inputs from the VTA and (indirect) glutamatergic

inputs from the PVT [99,100], inactivating the PVT-NAc pathway originating from aPVT D2+ neurons [101]

could attenuate dopaminergic release in the NAc. Dopamine in the NAc is increased in response to

safety cues[14], and recent work reveals that the PVT is required for this dopaminergic safety signal. [102]

Inactivating the aPVT D2+ neurons could lead to an aberrant assignment of value to neutral stimuli [103]

and therefore disrupt the ability to learn relative aversive and safety values. Unlike the pPVT, the aPVT

also receives major hippocampal subiculum projections. [27] During the relative comparison of

(aversive/safe) experiences, contextual information from the subiculum could be instrumental for the

generalization of threat prediction that aPVT D2+ neurons use to modulate reward VTA and/or NAc

circuits to enable the encoding of relative aversive/safe value.

Unlike innate safety towards a novel "naïve" CS, learned safety involves the discrimination between

CSs to avoid overgeneralization of a threat. Although several behavioral paradigms have been

developed to examine learned safety [14], most of the literature has focused on tasks where the animals

tested cannot escape a potentially dangerous situation, thereby restricting their repertoire of fear related

behaviors. This has led to safety been classically measured through freezing behavior [42,104,105].

However, paradigms beyond instrumental tasks [106,107] can incorporate safety approaching

measurements, and future studies should include measurements of safety such as the active approach

of a safe compartment as seen in conditioned place preference/avoidance paradigms such as ours.

Furthermore, our results revealed a preferential activation of aPVT D2+ neurons during learning relative

aversive value or safety, while paradoxically we and others found that D2+ neurons are preferentially

located in the pPVT. [33,49] Importantly, generalized threat prediction, involved here for learning relative

aversive value or learned safety, also involve the activation of D2 type receptors in the extended

amygdala substructures i.e., the central amygdala and the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis that have

been shown to contribute to anxiety-like behaviors. [108] Of note, aPVT D2+ neuronal activation was

tightly linked with the time spent in the bridge during choice test, a crucial behavioral hallmark of the

decision-making process between different options. Indeed, the less recruited aPVT D2+ neurons, but

not pPVT, the more animals spent time in the bridge in the relative aversive, but not safe, condition.

Consistent with this observation, we found that the selective inactivation of aPVT D2+ neurons

increased the time spent in the bridge in the relatively aversive, but not the safe, condition thus

preventing mice from selecting the most appropriate behavior when facing a complex decision between

two aversive situations.

aPVT D2+ neuronal modulation of salience vs behavioral disinhibition

Emotionally salient events, regardless whether positive or negative, are encoded and remembered with greater accuracy compared to emotionally neutral ones. [109–113] The PVT is involved in arousal [33,114,115] and can encode salience of both conditioned and unconditioned stimuli. [28] Prior work revealed the existence of two subpopulations of PVT neurons that form molecularly, anatomically and functionally distinct subpopulations. [33,49] For instance, D2+ neurons (type I neurons) send projections to the prelimbic cortex and are sensitive to aversive stimuli. [33,39] By contrast, D2- neurons (type II neurons) send projections to the infralimbic cortex and are modulated by stimulus salience. [33] However, given the preferential anatomical distribution of D2+ neurons in the pPVT [33,35,49,101], most studies neglected the contribution of D2+ neurons located in the aPVT. Further studies will therefore be required to disentangle the role of the projections originating from D2+ or D2- neurons of the aPVT (targeting the amygdala or NAc [33]). In this sense, our work not only sheds light on the role of aPVT D2+ neurons but also, highlights, more broadly, the profound influence that even a relatively small neuronal population can exert on relative value-based learning.

Our results showed that the inactivation of aPVT D2+, but not D2-, neurons enhances the relative aversiveness or safeness of the ongoing experience, possibly by increasing its salience. Yet, it remains unclear whether the conditioned stimulus (here, the context) or the outcome (shock or no shock delivered) become more salient. In line with the latter option, such manipulation for the relative aversive task increased tail rattling behavior immediately after the shock delivery during conditioning, but not general freezing. Consistently, a recent study identified that tail rattling, but not freezing, behavior positively scales with arousal level. [43] However, the precise neural mechanisms through which aPVT neurons contribute to the expression of active defensive behavior such as tail rattling remain to be defined. Inactivation of aPVT D2+ neurons also increased the number of turnbacks and time in the bridge zone (i.e., hesitation) during the choice test, thus leading to the absence of preference for the less punished context. Importantly, the same inactivation procedure during the safe conditioning did not affect tail rattling behavior nor the time in the bridge zone, but it led to an increased preference for the safe context. The efficiency of the value-based choices could therefore be influenced by the salience of the experience and the computation and comparison of values assigned at the time of learning. [18] Inactivation of aPVT D2+ neurons could have led to an incorrect value assignment during the context-outcome association, thus favoring the contribution of D2- neurons for the attribution of salience to the ongoing experience. [33,82] This could hamper (for the relative aversive task) or favor (for learned safety)

the ability of animals to distinguish between the options associated with each context. Inactivating aPVT

D2+ neurons could therefore enhance the formation of memory of any otherwise low-salient stimuli. An

alternative explanation could be that aPVT D2+ neurons provide a specific function in behavioral

disinhibition. [48,76,116–119] Then, inactivation of aPVT D2+ neurons during conditioning S2 could unleash

context-dependent behavior such as active defensive (tail rattling) behavior during relative comparison

of aversive experiences or decreased freezing and increased preference for the safe context. Indeed,

aPVT D2+ neurons could exert context-dependent behavioral disinhibition by modulating the salience

of contextual cues/information, which allows mice to detect the aversiveness or safeness of an

experience to disinhibit specific and adapted behaviors. However, testing these hypotheses will require

further investigation.

Unlike the opposite effect observed with D2+ neuronal inhibition over relative safety and aversive value

learning, D2- neurons seem to be engaged (increased cFos expression) in a similar manner

independently of whether the animal is comparing between two aversive experiences or an aversive

and a neutral one. Beas et al 2024 found a decreased activity of aPVT D2- neurons as animals

approach a reward.[120] Thus, inhibiting aPVT D2- neurons in our tasks may have transiently reduced

generalized fear expression (i.e., decreased freezing to contextual cues) without affecting the mouse's

ability to learn relative aversive/safety value.

Overall, our findings extend current knowledge about the role of PVT as an integrator of emotional,

contextual and sensory information to guide appropriate behavior. This study provides new evidence

regarding the role of aPVT D2+ neurons for contextual relative aversive/safety learning that supports

appropriate value-based decisions. A better understanding of the neuronal circuits and mechanisms

responsible for the balance between value information, salience and behavioral disinhibition is therefore

critical for deciphering motivated behaviors. Indeed, an excessive stimulus evaluation and/or salience

processing during traumatic events (that could involve the PVT) might lead to associative learning

impairment and contribute to the genesis of anxiety disorders such as PTSD. [121,122]

Resource availability

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to, and will be fulfilled

by, the corresponding authors, Emmanuel Perisse (emmanuel.perisse@igf.cnrs.fr) and Stéphanie

Trouche (stephanie.trouche@igf.cnrs.fr).

Materials availability

All original reagents presented in this study are available from the Lead Contacts upon request.

Data and code availability

All code used in this paper using Fiji will be shared by the Lead Contacts upon request.

Methods

Animals

We used C57BL/6J (Charles River Laboratories, France) and three transgenic heterozygous adult male mouse lines: D2 Cre mice (STOCK Tg(*Drd2* cre) ER44Gsat/Mmucd, provided by E. Valjent), D2 Cre:Ribotag mice [123] (provided by E. Valjent) and D2 Cre:Ai14 mice, that were generated by crossing Drd2 Cre mice with Ai14 mice (B6.Cg-*Gt(ROSA)26Sor*$^{tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze}$/J, stock #007914). The latter transgenic mouse line expressed the red fluorescent protein double-tomato (tdTom) under endogenous regulatory elements of the D2 receptor. All transgenic mice were maintained on a C57BL/6J background. Animals (3 to 5-month-old mice) were housed with their littermates and were singly housed in their home cage after the surgical procedure on a 12-h light/dark cycle (7 a.m. to 7 p.m.) in stable temperature (22°C) and humidity (60%) conditions with free access to food and water in a dedicated housing room. Mice were randomly assigned to behavioral groups. All experimental procedures were conducted in agreement with the guidelines of the French Agriculture and Forestry Ministry for handling animals (authorization number/license A3417241) and approved by the local and national ethic committees (authorizations APAFIS #23355).

Immunofluorescent staining and c-Fos analysis

Mice (D2 Cre:Ai14 or D2 Cre:Ribotag, see **Figures 3** and **S3**) were anaesthetized and transcardially perfused with PBS followed by 4% PFA in PBS solution 90 min after the second session of conditioning of the CPP task. Brains were extracted and kept in 4% PFA for at least 24 h before slicing using the vibratome and coronal sections (30μm thick) were stored in PBS-azide at 4°C. For the immunohistochemistry procedures, free-floating sections were rinsed extensively in PBS with 0.25% Triton X-100 (PBS-T) and blocked for 1 h at room temperature in PBS-T with 10% normal donkey serum

(NDS). An average of 3.5 sections per animal of either aPVT or pPVT were used. Sections were then

incubated overnight at room temperature with primary antibodies diluted in 3% NDS blocking solution.

The primary antibodies used were: anti-RFP (MBL, rabbit, 1/2000, #PM005), *c-Fos* antibody (Synaptic

Systems, rat, 1/5000, #226017), anti-HA (rabbit, 1/500, Rockland #600-401-384) and anti-GFP

(chicken, 1/2000, #GFP-1010). After three 15 min washes using PBS, sections were incubated for 2h30

at room temperature in PBS containing a mixture of secondary antibodies. Secondary antibodies used

were: donkey 488-coupled anti-rabbit (Jackson Laboratory, 1/500, #711-545-152), donkey Cy3-coupled

anti-rabbit (Jackson Laboratory, 1/1000, #711-165-152), donkey Cy5-coupled anti-rat (Jackson

Laboratory, 1/500, #712-605-150), donkey 488-coupled anti-rat (Jackson Laboratory, 1/500, #712-545-

153) and donkey Cy3-coupled anti-rat (Jackson Laboratory, 1/1000, #712-165-153). After three 15 min

washes in PBS, sections were mounted on slides and stored at 4°C. Images were taken using a ZEISS

Apotome microscope at 16bits and either 10X or 20X. cFos expression was examined in D2 tagged

cells using the D2 Cre:ai14 mice or D2 Cre:Ribotag (in a balanced manner by group) using ImageJ

based automated analysis. For each section, a region of interest was assigned for both aPVT and pPVT

and a threshold was selected to count both the amount of c-Fos+ cells, D2+ cells and c-Fos+ D2+

colocalization. Sections from aPVT were taken at AP:-0.22 to -1.22 while the pPVT were taken at AP:-

1.34 to -2.18.

In vivo **pharmacogenetic inhibition**

For *in vivo* pharmacogenetic (Designer Receptors Exclusively Activated by Designer Drugs, DREADD),

inhibition in CPP and contextual fear conditioning (CFC) experiments, Clozapine N-Oxide (2 mg/kg

CNO, Enzo Life Science, #BML-NS105-0025) was dissolved in 0.9% NaCl saline solution and

intraperitoneally (i.p.) injected 30 min before the conditioning session (for CFC) or the second

conditioning session (for CPP).

Stereotaxic viral injections

The following adeno-associated viral vectors (AAV) were used: AAV2/1-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry,

(hM4Di, 7.1E12 vg/mL, #44362 Addgene), AAV2/1-hsyn-DIO-mCherry (control, 1.7E13 vg/mL, #50459

Addgene), AAV2/9-hSyn-FLEx-OFF-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry (hM4Di, 1.1E14 vg/mL, Plasmid #161579

Addgene), AAV2/9-hSyn-FLEx-OFF-mCherry (control, 6.1E14 vg/mL, designed in house from Plasmid

#161579 Addgene), AAV2/9-hSyn-FLEx-OFF-hM4D(Gi)-mCitrine (hM4Di, 1.8E15 vg/mL, designed in

house from Plasmid #161579 Addgene), AAV2/9-hSyn-FLEx-OFF-mCitrine (control, 1.9E15 vg/mL,

designed in house from Plasmid #161579 Addgene). Mice were anaesthetized with isoflurane (0.5–

3.5% oxygen gas mixture 1 l/min) and buprenorphine (0.1mg per kg of body weight) for stereotaxic

injections. Viral injections were targeted unilaterally to aPVT (coordinates: AP -0.40 mm; ML -0.60 mm;

DV -3.25 mm, 10° angle; 200 nl per site). The viral vectors were delivered at a rate of 100nl/min using

a glass micropipette lowered to the target site and that remained for 5 min after injection before it was

withdrawn. Mice were tested for behavior 4-5 weeks after viral injections. At least 7 days before testing,

animals were singled caged to prepare them for the behavioral experiment and trained with mock i.p.

injection.

Behavioral procedures

Conditioned Place Preference experiments.

We developed a 1-day aversive task based on a previously published conditioned place preference

(CPP) task. [46,47] The apparatus contained two electric grids on the floor of each context and consists of

two square-walled (46 cm × 46 cm × 30 cm) contexts with distinct inside building block configurations.

The two contexts were connected via a bridge (8-cm length, 7-cm width, 30cm height) during both

pretest and test sessions. The access to the bridge was blocked during each conditioning session. All

mice were handled for at least 3 days before the first experiment and, when experiments involved viral

injections, habituated to the injection procedure by mock injections during these days.

During pretest, mice freely explored the two distinct contexts (e.g. one square and one circle) for 15

min and their baseline (spontaneous) preference for one of the two contexts was determined. Next,

mice were subjected to a first 10 min-conditioning session (S1), in either no shock (0 mA, "A+0") or 4

shocks (0.6 mA or 0.3 mA of intensity, at 198 s, 278 s, 358 s and 438 s, 2-s duration each, as in [124])

were delivered in their most preferred context (Context A, "A+0.6" or "A+0.3"). Mice returned to their

home cage at the end of session S1 for 30 min. During the second 10 min-conditioning session S2,

mice received, in their least preferred enclosure (Context B), either no shock (0 mA, "B+0") or 4 shocks

(of 0.6 mA for "B+0.6" or 0.3 mA for "B+0.3" at 198 s, 278 s, 358 s and 438 s, of 2-s duration each).

The control group (0 vs 0) went through the two sessions S1 and S2 without receiving any shock. During

the choice-test session 1 hour later without any shock delivered, mice were placed in their most

preferred context A (as defined during pretest) and were free to visit the two enclosures for 15 min after

their first cross from context A to context B. For **Figure S4 P-T**, the mouse was placed in the non-

preferred (punished) context D during the choice test, and was free to visit the two enclosures for 15

min after their first cross from context D to context C. Mice that displayed more than 75% preference

during pretest were excluded for the rest of the procedure.

Contextual fear conditioning experiments.

A separated group of mice shown in **Figure 4** was subjected to classical contextual fear conditioning.

During the 10 min-conditioning session (S1), mice received 4 shocks of 0.3 mA each in Context B

("B+0.3" at 198 s, 278 s, 358 s and 438 s, of 2-s duration each). All mice were tested in the same

context 1h later without any shock delivered for 15min (retrieval test session).

Behavioral analysis

Mice were tracked and several behavioral parameters were measured during pretest, conditioning and

choice test. A conditioned place preference score (CPP score) was calculated for each mouse during

both pretest and choice test as in [47]. Mice that did not cross to the non-preferred context B in less than

25 min were excluded from further analysis (i.e. they did not perform the following 15 min choice test).

CPP was calculated as $CPP = \frac{t_{non\,preferred} - t_{preferred}}{t_{non\,preferred} + t_{preferred}}$. ΔCPP was calculated as the difference between

CPP test and CPP pretest. The first latency to cross was the time the animal takes to first cross from

the originally preferred context A (where they were first placed) to the originally non-preferred context

B. The second latency to cross was the time the animal takes to cross back to the preferred context A.

Time in the bridge was measured during the first latency (time in the bridge before first cross) and during

the first 5 min after the first cross. Freezing behavior was systematically measured using a custom-

made software (Imetronic) and was calculated as the percentage of time for which mice remained

immobile for 2 s or more. The percentage of time spent freezing during the entire duration of the pretest

and test session were reported. For each conditioning session, the percentage of freezing before the

1st shock (min 1-3) and after the 4th shock (min 9-10) were calculated. For **Figure 1B**, the difference

between the total percentage of freezing in S2 minus the total percentage of freezing in S1 was

calculated for each group (total percentage of freezing for S1 and S2 used for this calculation are

presented in **Figure S1**). All relative measurements (ΔCPP, ΔTime in bridge, etc) were calculated by

subtracting choice test behavioral measurements with the corresponding measurement during the

pretest. For example, ΔTime in the bridge was calculated as the time spent in the bridge during the first

5 min after crossing during the choice test minus the time spent in the bridge during the first 5 min of

the pretest session, ie. $\Delta Time\ bridge = Time\ bridge\ Choice_{0-5min} - Time\ bridge\ Pretest_{0-5min}$. We

quantified whether the animal engaged in turn back behavior (i.e. when the whole body turns at 180

degree) before 1st crossing from A to B when the animal was in the bridge. Tail rattling was measured

as a rapid vibration of the tail either after each shock delivered during conditioning sessions S1 and S2

or before the first cross during the choice test. For experiments shown in **Figure S4**, animals from the

0-0.3 condition were animals that went through CFC one week before. A different set of contexts (C

and D) with electric grids. For experiments shown in **Figure S7**, animals from the 0-0 control group

were animals that went through the 0.3-0.3 condition one week before. A different set of contexts (C

and D) were used in which the floor was plain and without grids. For measuring the distance travelled

post shock delivery as done in [125], we averaged for each conditioning session the distance travelled for

8 sec at the onset of each shock event (i.e. 198-206 s, 278-286 s, 358-366 s, 438-446 s).

In **Figure 5**, 1 mCherry animal was excluded for not crossing during choice test, 2 hM4Di and 1 mCherry

animals were excluded for transduced cells found outside PVT. In **Figure 6**, 1 hM4Di and 1 mCherry

animal were excluded for not crossing during choice test. In **Figure 7**, 1 hM4Di animal was excluded

for transduced cells found outside PVT.

Brain slice electrophysiology

Patch-clamp recordings, in whole-cell configuration, were performed on PVT D2-labeled cells in current

clamp mode. Briefly, injected D2 Cre mice (n=4 for Cre ON condition and n=4 for Cre OFF condition;

for each condition, 2 mCherry and 2 hM4Di mice) were anesthetized and perfused intracardially with

ice-cold dissection buffer (25 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1.25 mM, NaH_2PO_4, 2.5 mM KCl, 0.5 mM $CaCL_2$, 7 mM

$MgCl_2$, 25 mM D-glucose, 110 mM choline chloride, 11.6 mM ascorbic acid, 3.1 mM Pyruvic acid

maintained in 5% CO_2/ 95% O_2). Coronal brain slices (350 μm) were cut in dissection buffer using a

vibratome (Campden Instruments). Sections were incubated in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF)

containing the following (in mM) 125 NaCl, 2.7 KCl, 11.6 $NaHCO_3$, 0.4 NaH_2PO_4, 1 $MgCl_2$, 2 $CaCl_2$,

5.6 D-glucose (pH 7.4, osmolarity 305 mOsm) at 32°C for 5 min and then kept in room temperature for

at least 1h before recording. For the experiment, slices were superfused continuously at 1.5 ml/min with

an ACSF solution. Recordings were obtained using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices).

Recording electrodes made of borosilicate glass had a resistance of 4-6 MΩ (Warner Instruments, USA)

and were filled with K-gluconate solution containing (in mM) 125 K-gluconate, 5 KCl, 10 Hepes, 1 EGTA,

5 Na-phosphocreatine, 0.07 CaCl2, 2 Mg-ATP, 0.4 Na-GTP (pH 7.2, osmolarity 300 mOsm). Only cells

with access resistance < 20 MΩ and a change of resistance < 25% over the course of the experiment

were analyzed. Data were filtered with a Hum Bug (Quest Scientific, Canada), digitized at 2 kHz

(Digidata 1444A, Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA), and acquired using Clampex 10 software

(Molecular Devices). Whole cell recordings were made from mCherry aPVT D2+ or D2- neurons

visualized with an Olympus microscope (equipped with an mCherry filter). CNO was dissolved in ACSF

(10µM, 300 s) and applied in the bath after 5 min baseline recording. The number of action potentials

were analyzed before and after CNO application with Clampfit 10 software (Axon Instruments).

Statistical Analysis

Data were shown as the mean ± SEM (standard error of the mean). GraphPad Prism v10 software was

used for statistical analyses. D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test is used as a test for normality. When

this assumption was not met, non-parametric tests were used (see **Table S1**). Student's t-test (paired

or unpaired, 2-sided) was used to compare two sets of data. Multiple comparisons were performed by

1-way or 2-way ANOVA followed by either Sidak's, Tukey's, Uncorrected Fisher's LSD or Dunn's

multiple comparisons were used for *post-hoc* analysis. For comparisons against 0, either one sample t

test or Wilcoxon signed rank test (for non-normal data) were used. All statistical comparisons are

presented in **Table S1**.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.M., E.P. and S.T. conceived the project and designed all the experiments. M.M. and E.K. performed

surgical and anatomical experiments. M.M., E.K., L.V., M.D and C.V. performed behavioral

experiments. P.T., M.P, E.K. and J.S. performed and analyzed electrophysiological experiments. M.L.

and E.K. helped with cloning constructs and viral strategies. The manuscript was written by M.M., E.P.

and S.T and commented by all authors. All authors were asked for input on the text.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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1074

Figure 1

A Pretest — Conditioning (S1, S2) — Choice test

control: A B → A+0 → B+0 → A$_0$ B$_0$

safe: A B → A+0.6 → B+0 → A$_{0.6}$ B$_0$

aversive: A B → A+0.6 → B+0.3 → A$_{0.6}$ B$_{0.3}$

shocks   shocks

B S2 − S1
** *
##
% Freezing
control safe aversive

C Before putative 1st shock
***   ***
ns
% Freezing
S1 S2 (control) S1 S2 (safe) S1 S2 (aversive)

D After putative 4th shock
***   **
% Freezing
S1 S2 (control) S1 S2 (safe) S1 S2 (aversive)

E S2
**
**
Tail rattling after shock
control safe aversive

Figure S1

A 1-day aversive task

Electric grid | Electric grid
A | B
↑
Bridge

B Pretest

C S1 / S2

D S1 / S2

E S1 / S2

F S1 / S2

control
before | putative shocks 1 2 3 4 | after
0 | | 10 (min)
before | putative shocks 1 2 3 4 | after
0 | | 10 (min)

safe
before | shocks 1 2 3 4 | after
0 | | 10 (min)
before | putative shocks 1 2 3 4 | after
0 | | 10 (min)

aversive
before | shocks 1 2 3 4 | after
0 | | 10 (min)
before | shocks 1 2 3 4 | after
0 | | 10 (min)

G S1

Figure 2

A Choice test

$A_0 \rightarrow B_0$

$A_{0.6} \rightarrow B_0$

$A_{0.6} \rightarrow B_{0.3}$

- - → 1st cross from A to B

B

1st cross

% Time in bridge

control A_0 vs B_0
safe $A_{0.6}$ vs B_0
aversive $A_{0.6}$ vs $B_{0.3}$

Time (min)

C Choice test before 1st cross

Time in bridge (min)

control, safe, aversive

**

D Choice test before 1st cross

Turnback in bridge

control, safe, aversive

**

**

E Choice test after 1st cross

ΔCPP score

control, safe, aversive

***
*
##
###

F —————— Choice test ——————

% Freezing in A

control, safe, aversive

% Freezing in bridge

control, safe, aversive

**
*

% Freezing in B

control, safe, aversive

**

G Choice test after 1st cross

Δ Time in bridge (0-5 min)

control, safe, aversive

*
*

Figure S2

A Choice test

1st latency (A to B; min)

ns
ns

control safe aversive

B Choice test before 1st cross

Number of tail rattling

ns

control safe aversive

C

control A_0 B_0 Bridge

safe $A_{0.6}$ B_0 Bridge

aversive $A_{0.6}$ $B_{0.3}$ Bridge

D Pretest

CPP score

control safe aversive

E Choice test after 1st cross

Number of crossings

***
***

control safe aversive

F Choice test

control

ΔCPP score

0-5 5-10 10-15
Time (min)

safe

ΔCPP score

*
*

#

0-5 5-10 10-15
Time (min)

aversive

ΔCPP score

##

0-5 5-10 10-15
Time (min)

G Choice test after 1st cross

Number of feces

*
*

control safe aversive

Figure 3

Figure S3

A Conditioning before putative 1st shock

% Freezing

*** ***

S1 S2 S1 S2
safe aversive

B Conditioning after putative 4th shock

% Freezing

*** **

S1 S2 S1 S2
safe aversive

C

control HC — safe — aversive

A_0 vs B_0 — $A_{0.6}$ vs B_0 — $A_{0.6}$ vs $B_{0.3}$

aPVT

pPVT

D2+ cFos

D

- control HC
- safe
- aversive

D2+ cell number per mm²

***

aPVT pPVT

E Choice test after 1st cross

ΔCPP score

ns

(#)

safe aversive

F Choice test after 1st cross

Δ Time in bridge (0-5min)

(*)

safe aversive

Figure 4

A DIO-mCherry (Control) or DIO-hM4Di-mCherry D2+ aPVT D2 Cre mice

mCherry D2+ DAPI — aPVT

B Pretest → Conditioning (S1, S2) → Choice test

CNO i.p. 2mg/kg

Pretest: A — B
Conditioning: A+0.6 shocks → B+0.3 shocks
Choice test: A$_{0.6}$ → B$_{0.3}$ — 1st cross from A to B

C Conditioning — Tail rattling after shock
S1 S2 Control ** ***
S1 S2 hM4Di

D Conditioning — Distance after shock (cm)
** ns
S1 S2 Control | S1 S2 hM4Di

E Choice test before 1st cross — Turnback in bridge
** Control hM4Di

F Choice test before 1st cross — Number of tail rattling
* Control hM4Di

G Choice test after 1st cross — ΔCPP score
*** ### Control hM4Di

H Choice test after 1st cross — Time in bridge (0-5min)
* Control hM4Di

I Choice test — % Freezing
Control hM4Di
A$_{0.6}$ Bridge B$_{0.3}$ *

J DIO-mCherry (Control) or DIO-hM4Di-mCherry D2+ aPVT D2 Cre mice

K Contextual fear conditioning (S1) → Test
CNO i.p. 2mg/kg
B+0.3 shocks → B$_{0.3}$

L Conditioning — Tail rattling after shock
Control hM4Di

M Conditioning — % Freezing
before 1st after 4th ** | before 1st after 4th ***

N Test — Number of tail rattling
Control hM4Di

O Test — % Freezing
ns
Control hM4Di

Figure S4

Figure 5

A
FLEx-OFF-mCitrine (Control) or
FLEx-OFF-hM4Di-mCitrine
D2-

aPVT
D2 Cre mice

mCitrine D2-
aPVT

B

Pretest	Conditioning		Choice test
	S1	S2	

CNO i.p. 2mg/kg

A — B → A+0.6 → B+0.3 → A_0.6 → B_0.3

shocks   shocks   1st cross from A to B

C Conditioning

ns

Tail rattling after shock

S1 S2 S1 S2
Control hM4Di

D Conditioning

Distance after shock (cm)

** ***

S1 S2 S1 S2
Control hM4Di

E Choice test before 1st cross

Turnback in bridge

ns

Control hM4Di

F Choice test before 1st cross

Number of tail rattling

ns

Control hM4Di

G Choice test after 1st cross

ΔCPP score

ns
##

Control hM4Di

H Choice test after 1st cross

Time in bridge (0-5 min)

ns

Control hM4Di

I Choice test

% Freezing

■ Control □ hM4Di

A_0.6   Bridge   B_0.3

Figure S5

Figure 6

A

DIO-mCherry
(Control)
or
DIO-hM4Di-mCherry
D2+

aPVT

D2 Cre mice

Pretest — **Conditioning** S1 S2 — **Choice test**

CNO i.p. 2mg/kg

A — B → A+0.3 → B+0.3 → A$_{0.3}$ — B$_{0.3}$

shocks   shocks

1st cross from A to B

B Conditioning

Tail rattling after shock

***

S1 S2   S1 S2
Control hM4Di

C Conditioning after 4th shock

% Freezing

ns

***   (*)

S1 S2   S1 S2
Control hM4Di

D Choice test before 1st cross

Turnback in bridge

*

Control hM4Di

E Choice test

1st latency from A$_{0.3}$ to B$_{0.3}$ (min)

ns

Control hM4Di

F Choice test before 1st cross

Time in bridge (min)

ns

Control hM4Di

G Choice test

■ Control ● hM4Di

% Freezing

ns

A$_{0.3}$ Bridge   B$_{0.3}$

H Choice test after 1st cross

Δ CPP score

*

\#

Control hM4Di

Figure S6

Figure 7

Figure S7