Bed nucleus of the stria terminalis mediates fear to ambiguous threat signals

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ABSTRACT

The bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (BNST) has been implicated in fear and anxiety, but the specific factors that engage the BNST in defensive behavior are unclear. Here we explore the possibility that ambiguous threats recruit the BNST during Pavlovian fear conditioning in rats. We arranged a conditioned stimulus (CS) to either precede or follow an aversive unconditioned stimulus (US), a procedure that established reliable (forward) or ambiguous (backward) signals for US onset. After conditioning, reversible inactivation of the BNST selectively reduced freezing to the backward CS; BNST inactivation did not affect freezing to the forward CS even when that CS predicted a variable magnitude US. Backward CSs increased Fos in the ventral BNST and in BNST-projecting neurons in the infralimbic cortex, but not the hippocampus or amygdala. These data reveal that BNST circuits process ambiguous threat signals central to the etiology and expression of anxiety.

INTRODUCTION

Excessive apprehension about potential future threats, including financial loss, illness, or death, is

a defining feature of many anxiety disorders, including generalized anxiety disorder (GAD).

Anxiety and trauma-related disorders are widespread and costly (Blanco et al., 2011; Comer et al.,

2011; Kinley et al., 2011; Salas-Wright et al., 2014; Stein et al., 2017; Wittchen, 2002), and remain

difficult to treat (Colvonen et al., 2017; Costello et al., 2014; Iza et al., 2013; Sinnema et al., 2015).

Understanding the neural circuits underlying anxiety is important for refining behavioral and

pharmacotherapeutic treatments (Deslauriers et al., 2017; Fanselow and Pennington, 2018, 2017;

Graham et al., 2014; LeDoux and Daw, 2018; Nees et al., 2015; Pine and LeDoux, 2017). Several

recent studies have demonstrated changes in the activity of the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis

(BNST) in individuals with anxiety disorders (Brinkmann et al., 2018, 2017; Buff et al., 2017;

Rabellino et al., 2018). However, the conditions that recruit the BNST to aversive learning and

memory processes believed to underlie anxiety disorders are still not understood (Avery et al.,

2016; Ch'ng et al., 2018; Fox and Shackman, 2017; Goode and Maren, 2017; Gungor and Paré,

2016; Lebow and Chen, 2016; Perusini and Fanselow, 2015; Shackman and Fox, 2016).

Early work on this question revealed that BNST lesions in rats impair defensive behaviors

evoked by unconditioned threats (Gewirtz et al., 1998). For example, unconditioned increases in

the acoustic startle reflex produced by either intracranial administration of corticotropin releasing

factor (CRF) or exposure to bright light require the BNST, whereas fear-potentiated startle to

punctate conditioned stimuli (CSs) do not (Walker et al., 2009). However, the involvement of the

BNST in defensive responding is not restricted to unconditioned threat: BNST lesions produce

deficits in both freezing and corticosterone release elicited by contextual, but not auditory, CSs

after Pavlovian fear conditioning in rats (LeDoux et al., 1988; Sullivan et al., 2004). Interestingly,

however, it is not stimulus modality that differentiates the effects of BNST lesions on tone and

context freezing. BNST lesions impair freezing responses to long-duration (e.g., 10-min) auditory

conditioned stimuli (CSs) (Waddell et al., 2006), and spare freezing to short-duration (1-min)

contextual stimuli (Hammack et al., 2015). Based on this work, it has been proposed that the BNST

is required to organize behavioral and hormonal responses to sustained threats (whether

conditioned or unconditioned) (Hammack et al., 2015, 2009; Takahashi, 2014; Waddell et al.,

2008, 2006). Of course, the duration of the behavioral responses in these situations is confounded

with the duration of the eliciting stimulus. Thus, it has been argued that the BNST mediates

sustained defensive *responses* independent of the specific features and durations of the stimuli that

evoke them (Davis, 2006; Davis et al., 2010; Walker and Davis, 2008; Walker et al., 2009).

Of course, another factor that differentiates discrete tones from contexts, or short- from

long-duration stimuli (whether tones or contexts), is the temporal information the stimuli provide

about when an aversive event will occur (Goode and Maren, 2017). For example, long-duration

CSs or contexts provide relatively poor information about when a future US will occur (i.e., the

US will occur sometime in the future), whereas short-duration CSs or contexts provide more

certainty about US onset (i.e., the US will occur soon). We and others have proposed that the

BNST may have a critical role in processing temporally ambiguous threats, particularly stimuli

that poorly predict when an aversive event will occur (Goode and Maren, 2017; Lange et al., 2017).

Consistent with this view, punctate auditory CSs that are followed by shock at unpredictable

latencies yield freezing responses that are sensitive to BNST manipulations (Daldrup et al., 2016;

Lange et al., 2017). This suggests that a crucial parameter that determines the role for the BNST

in defensive behavior is neither the duration nor modality of the threat (nor the duration of the

elicited defensive response), but rather the information a signal provides about when an aversive

event will occur.

Here we examined this possibility by examining the role of the BNST in conditioned

freezing elicited by procedures that equated both the duration and modality of the threat CSs, but

differed according to the timing of the aversive unconditioned stimulus (US) in relation to the CS.

Specifically, we arranged a brief (10-sec) auditory CS to either precede (forward conditioning,

FW) or follow (backward conditioning, BW) a footshock US in rats; this design resulted in CSs

that were either poor (BW) or good (FW) predictors of when the US would occur. We hypothesized

that pharmacological inactivation of the BNST would selectively disrupt fear expression to the

BW CS, and that BW CSs would produce activity in greater numbers of BNST neurons than the

FW CS. Furthermore, we anticipated that the backward CS would increase the activity of BNST-

projecting neurons in afferent brain regions implicated in anxiety states.

Figure 1. *Reversible inactivation of the BNST attenuates conditioned fear expression to a backward, but not forward, CS.* **(A)** Behavioral schematic. **(B)** Freezing behavior during at conditioning and retrieval testing. For conditioning, the left panel depicts mean percentage freezing during the 5-min baseline (BL) and across each conditioning block (each block is comprised of two trials; conditioning trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 58-sec interval). For retrieval testing, the center panel shows mean percentage freezing at the 5-min baseline (BL) and across each test block (each block is comprised of two trials; trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 60-sec interval). The right panel shows mean percentage freezing during the first half of the test (trials 1-6). All data are represented as means ± s.e.m [FW-NBQX (n = 4); FW-VEH (n = 5); BW-NBQX (n = 12); BW-VEH (n = 13); No-CS-NBQX (n = 8), No-CS-VEH (n = 8)]; * = $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Reversible inactivation of the BNST attenuates fear to a backward, but not forward, CS. To

examine the role of the BNST in threat uncertainty, we reversibly inactivated the BNST during

retrieval of fear to either a forward- ("FW"; certain threat) or backward-trained ("BW"; uncertain

threat) CS. A schematic of the behavioral design is shown in Figure 1A. Representative cannula

tracts and histological placements are presented in Figure 1—Figure Supplement 1 and Figure 1—

Figure Supplement 2A (respectively). Freezing behavior during the conditioning session is shown

in Figure 1B. A main effect of conditioning trial was observed (repeated measures ANOVA: $F_{6,288}$

= 37.87, $p < 0.0001$). No significant main effects or interactions were observed for any of the

conditioning or drug assignments across the conditioning trials (ANOVA: F's < 0.70, p's > 0.60).

One day after conditioning, the animals were infused with NBQX, an AMPA receptor

antagonist, to reversibly inactivate the BNST; saline ("VEH") infusions served as a control.

Immediately after the infusions, the rats were placed in a novel context and received twelve

presentations of the CS (some BW-trained rats received no CS exposure, "No-CS"). As shown in

(Figure 1B), inactivation of the BNST produced a selective decrease in conditioned freezing to the

BW CS. Analysis of freezing behavior across the entire session (including the baseline) revealed

a main effect of trial (repeated measures: $F_{6,264} = 8.06$, $p < 0.0001$), a significant main effect of CS

exposure ($F_{2,44} = 25.38$, $p < 0.0001$), and a significant CS $\times$ drug interaction ($F_{2,44} = 3.66$, $p <$

0.05). There were no other main effects or interactions (ANOVA: F's < 1.6, p's > 0.05). Fisher's

PLSD indicated that rats in the FW condition exhibited significantly more freezing during the

retrieval test than rats in all other groups (p's < 0.05). Importantly, BW-VEH rats exhibited

significantly higher levels of freezing than BW-VEH rats ($p < 0.005$), which did not differ from

the No-CS groups.

Given that freezing to the BW CS in the VEH-treated animals was maximal in the first half

of the test, a separate factorial ANOVA was performed on the average percentage of freezing

during trials 1-6 (Figure 1B). For this period, there was a main effect of CS ($F_{2,44} = 18.61$, $p <$

0.0001) as well as a CS × drug interaction ($F_{2,44} = 3.81$, $p < 0.05$); there was no main effect of drug

($F < 3.00$, $p > 0.05$). Fisher's PLSD revealed significant differences in NBQX- and VEH-treated

animals in both the BW and FW groups (p's < 0.0005). Additionally, rats in the No-CS groups

differed from all others (p's < 0.0005) except those in the BW-NBQX group. It has been suggested

that the BNST mediates sustained but not acute fear responses (Davis, 2006; Davis et al., 2010;

Walker and Davis, 2008; Walker et al., 2009). However, it is notable that in this experiment BNST

inactivation selectively attenuated conditioned freezing to the backward CS, which produced less

sustained freezing during the retrieval test compared to the FW CS.

The different effects of BNST inactivation on freezing to FW and BW CSs may have been

related to differences in memory strength between the two CSs (reflected in overall levels of

freezing to each CS across the retrieval test). Indeed, to generate conditioned freezing to a

backward CS we used more conditioning trials than typical in our experiments. This of course

resulted in moderate overtraining of the forward CS, which might have rendered the FW response

less sensitive to disruption. To examine this possibility, we examined the effects of BNST

inactivation of FW and BW conditioning established with five conditioning trials (Figure 2). The

behavioral design for the five-trial experiment is shown in Figure 2A; cannula placements are

shown in Figure 2—Figure Supplement 1.

During the 5-trial conditioning procedure (Figure 2B), animals exhibited reliable increases

in freezing across the session (repeated measures ANOVA: $F_{5,115} = 12.154$, $p < 0.0001$; there were

no main effects of conditioning procedure or drug treatment and no interaction of these variables:

F's < 2.3, p's > 0.15). After infusions of NBQX or VEH, animals were tested to the CS in a familiar

context that was distinct from the conditioning context. As shown in Figure 2B, BNST inactivation

did not affect conditioned freezing to either the FW or BW CS. An ANOVA revealed a main effect

of trial (repeated measures [including baseline freezing]: $F_{5,105} = 22.118$, $p < 0.0001$), a main effect

of conditioning procedure ($F_{1,21} = 15.930$, $p < 0.001$), and a trial $\times$ conditioning procedure

interaction (repeated measures: $F_{5,105} = 12.346$, $p < 0.0001$). A separate ANOVA performed on

trials 1-5 (excluding baseline; Figure 2B) revealed a significant main effect of conditioning

procedure ($F_{1,21} = 21.585$, $p = 0.0001$; there was no main effect of drug and no interaction: F's $<$

0.15, p's > 0.7). Thus, the failure of BNST inactivation to impair conditioned freezing to the FW

CS in the 12-trial procedure was not due to a ceiling effect; freezing to the FW CS in the 5-trial

procedure was relatively lower and remained insensitive to BNST inactivation. The absence of an

effect of BNST inactivation on freezing to the BW CS in this experiment is likely due to a floor

effect insofar as the 5-trial procedure did not yield conditional freezing to the CS (at least freezing

that exceeded the pre-CS baseline). Together, these data indicate that the BNST is required for the

expression of conditioned freezing to a BW, but not FW, CS.

Figure 2. *Effects of BNST inactivation on freezing to a forward vs. backward CS trained with five trials.* **(A)** Behavioral schematic. **(B)** Freezing behavior during conditioning and retrieval testing. For conditioning, the left panel depicts mean percentage freezing during the 3-min baseline (BL) and across each conditioning block (each block is comprised of two trials; conditioning trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 58-sec interval). For retrieval testing, the center panel shows mean percentage freezing at the 3-min baseline (BL) and across each test block (each block is comprised of two trials; trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 60-sec interval). The right panel shows mean percentage freezing after baseline (trials 1-5). All data are represented as means ± s.e.m [FW-NBQX (*n* = 6); FW-VEH (*n* = 6); BW-NBQX (*n* = 6); BW-VEH (*n* = 7)]; * = *p* < 0.05.

121   The differential effect of BNST inactivation on freezing to a FW or BW CS suggests that

122 the BNST regulates defensive behavior to stimuli that poorly signal US onset. One index that might

123 reveal differences in the ability of the CS to predict the US is the US-evoked response itself.

124 Footshock USs elicit an unconditioned response (UR) that includes vocalization, autonomic

125 adjustments, and burst of locomotor activity (Bali and Jaggi, 2015; Fanselow, 1994). To better

126 understand the mechanisms of forward and backward conditioning on behavior, we examined

127 shock-evoked activity bursts (Kunwar et al., 2015; Zelikowsky et al., 2018) during the

128 conditioning session in a separate cohort of animals (a separate cohort was analyzed in order to

129 compare equal numbers of FW- and BW-conditioned animals) (Figure 3). Fear conditioning

130 resulted in robust freezing in both groups of animals (Figure 3A). An ANOVA revealed a

131 significant main effect of trial ($F_{6,180}$ = 67.02, p < 0.0001) with no differences between levels of

132 freezing in FW or BW animals (no other main effect and no interaction: F's < 1.80, p's > 0.15). In

133 contrast, shock-induced activity differed in FW and BW animals (Figure 3C). All animals

exhibited a reliable decrease in shock-induced activity across the conditioning session ($F_{5,150} =$

9.59, $p < 0.0001$) and the rate of decline in activity was similar in the two groups (no trial × group

interaction: $F < 1.70$, $p > 0.09$), but the overall level of shock-induced activity was significantly

higher in BW animals (main effect of group: $F_{1,30} = 9.59$, $p < 0.05$). For comparison, two-tailed

unpaired *t*-test of mean levels of activity during the 5-min baseline revealed no significant

difference between FW and BW rats (Figure 3B; $t < 0.30$; $p > 0.75$). Hence, USs that were not

signaled by a forward CS evoked greater activity bursts than those that were. Collectively, these

data suggest that temporal uncertainty is an important factor in recruiting the BNST to fear.

Figure 3. *Shock-induced activity during conditioning to a forward vs. backward CS.* **(A)** Mean percentage of freezing at baseline (BL; 5-min) and across conditioning blocks (each block is comprised of two trials; trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 58-sec interval). **(B)** Mean activity values across the 5-min BL (no shock present). **(C)** The left panel shows mean shock-induced activity during conditioning (averaged into two-shock blocks). The right panel shows mean shock-induced activity across all trials. All data are represented as means ± s.e.m [FW (*n* = 16); BW (*n* = 16)]; * = *p* < 0.05.

Temporary inactivation of the BNST does not eliminate fear to a forward CS that is paired with

a US of variable intensity. To determine whether the BNST is involved in other conditioning

procedures imbued with outcome uncertainty, we examined whether freezing to a FW CS that is

paired with a US of variable intensity is also BNST-dependent. In this case, rats received forward

fear conditioning with either a fixed ("FIXED") or variable ("VARIABLE") US intensity (Figure

4). A schematic of the behavioral design is shown in Figure 4A; cannula placements are illustrated

in Figure 4—Figure Supplement 1. During conditioning (Figure 4B), a repeated measures

ANOVA revealed a main effect of trial ($F_{6,168} = 68.15$, $p < 0.0001$), with no main effect of drug or

conditioning procedure, and no interactions (F's < 1.50, p's > 0.20).

Figure 4. *Temporary inactivation of the BNST does not prevent conditioned fear expression to a forward CS paired with a US of fixed or variable intensity.* **(A)** Behavioral schematic. **(B)** Freezing behavior during conditioning and retrieval testing. For conditioning, the left panel depicts mean percentage freezing during the 5-min baseline (BL) and across each conditioning block (each block is comprised of two trials; trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 58-sec interval). For retrieval testing, the center panel shows mean percentage freezing at the 5-min baseline (BL) and across each test block (each block is comprised of two trials; trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 60-sec interval). The right panel shows mean percentage freezing across all test trials (after BL), with BL levels of freezing subtracted from these values. All data are represented as means ± s.e.m [FIXED-MUS (*n* = 8); FIXED-VEH (*n* = 7); VARIABLE-MUS (*n* = 8); VARIABLE-VEH (*n* = 7)].

Twenty-four hours after conditioning and immediately before a test to the CS in a novel

context (Figure 4B), the animals were infused with either muscimol ("MUS") to reversibly

inactivate the BNST; saline ("VEH") infusions served as a control. As shown in Figure 4B, BNST

inactivation did not affect freezing to a FW CS paired with either a fixed or variable US. During

retrieval testing, there was a main effect of trial ($F_{6,156} = 24.31$, $p < 0.0001$), however no other

main effects or interactions were detected (F's < 2.70, p's > 0.15). Although average baseline

freezing was highest in VARIABLE-VEH animals, an ANOVA of baseline freezing did not reveal

any main effects or interactions (F's < 3.60, p's > 0.05). To equate for differences in pre-CS

freezing in the experimental groups, baseline freezing was subtracted from CS-elicited freezing

(Figure 4B). This did not reveal an effect of BNST inactivation on freezing; there were no

significant main effects or interactions in the ANOVA (F's < 0.15, p's > 0.70). Although BNST

inactivation tended to reduce generalized contextual freezing, it did not significantly impact

freezing to the temporally predictable CS, regardless of US intensity.

Backward CSs selectively increase Fos expression in the ventral BNST. To further examine the

role of the BNST in the expression of fear to a BW CS, we quantified Fos expression in multiple

subregions of the BNST following the presentation of either a FW or BW CS during a shock-free

retrieval test (Figure 5). The behavioral design is summarized in Figure 5A. Four experimental

groups were compared: rats conditioned and tested to a forward CS ("FW"), rats conditioned and

tested to a backward CS ("BW"), rats conditioned to a forward or backward CS but not receiving

a CS at test ("No-CS"), and animals that were conditioned but not tested ("No-Test"). Conditioning

(Figure 5B) was similar to previous experiments (main effect of trial: $F_{6,258} = 77.346$, $p < 0.0001$;

no other main effects or interactions: F's < 1.30, p's > 0.30). As shown in Figure 5B, the groups

differed in their levels of conditioned freezing during the retrieval test. A repeated measures

ANOVA revealed a main effect of trial ($F_{6,216} = 15.54$, $p < 0.0001$), conditioning procedure ($F_{2,36}$

$= 11.42$, $p < 0.0001$), and a procedure $\times$ trial interaction ($F_{6,216} = 3.65$, $p < 0.0001$) (includes

baseline). Post-hoc analyses revealed that FW ($p < 0.0001$) and BW ($p < 0.005$) rats exhibited

significantly higher levels of freezing behavior than No-CS rats. Similarly, an ANOVA of average

freezing across the test trials (without baseline) revealed a main effect of group ($F_{2,36} = 13.76$, $p <$

0.0001). Post-hoc comparisons revealed significant differences between FW vs. BW ($p < 0.05$)

and FW vs. No-CS rats ($p < 0.0001$), as well as BW vs. No-CS animals ($p < 0.005$).

Figure 5. *CS-evoked freezing in rats utilized for Fos analyses.* **(A)** Behavioral schematic. **(B)** Freezing during conditioning and retrieval testing. For conditioning, the left panel depicts mean percentage freezing during the 5-min baseline (BL) and across each conditioning block (each block is comprised of two trials; conditioning trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 58-sec interval). For retrieval testing, the center panel shows mean percentage freezing at the 5-min baseline (BL) and across each test block (each block is comprised of two trials; trials consist of freezing during the 10-sec CS followed by the 60-sec interval). The right panel shows mean percentage freezing after BL. Animals were sacrificed for Fos analyses 90 min after trial 1. All data are represented as means ± s.e.m [FW ($n = 8$); BW ($n = 14$); No-CS ($n = 17$); No-Test ($n = 8$)]; * = $p < 0.05$.

Ninety minutes after the retrieval test, the animals were sacrificed for Fos immunohistochemistry. Fos-positive nuclei were counted in three BNST subregions (Figure 6A): "ovBNST" (Fos counts confined to the oval nucleus of the BNST), "dBNST" (counts in an area containing the dorsal region of the anteromedial BNST), and "vBNST" [Fos counts in a region containing the BNST's anterolateral, fusiform, and anteromedial (ventral) nuclei; refer to (Swanson, 2003)]. As shown in Figure 6B, the average number of Fos-positive nuclei for each of these regions differed in rats undergoing FW or BW conditioning in the ovBNST and vBNST, but not the dBNST. In the vBNST, an ANOVA revealed a main effect of group ($F_{3,43} = 11.41$, $p < 0.0001$). Fisher's PLSD revealed that BW rats exhibited significantly higher levels of Fos compared to FW ($p < 0.0005$), No-CS ($p < 0.001$), and No-Test ($p < 0.0001$) rats. Additionally, No-CS rats exhibited significantly greater Fos expression than No-Test rats ($p < 0.05$). In the ovBNST, an ANOVA revealed a main effect of group ($F_{3,43} = 3.26$, $p < 0.05$). Post-hoc analyses revealed that No-Test rats exhibited significantly higher Fos levels compared to FW ($p < 0.05$) and

195 No-CS ($p < 0.01$) rats. In dBNST, there was no effect of conditioning procedure on Fos expression

196 (factorial ANOVA: $F < 2.60$, $p > 0.07$). Together, these data presentation of a BW CS increases

197 Fos expression in the vBNST, an outcome that is consistent with our inactivation studies.

198 Moreover, exposure to the temporally predictive FW CS (which elicited the highest levels of fear)

199 was associated with low levels of Fos.

Figure 6. *Fos expression in the BNST following exposure to a temporally predictable or uncertain CS.* **(A)** Schematic depicting regions counted within the BNST (left panel). The right panel shows example of Fos expression in the ventral BNST (vBNST). **(B)** Mean Fos-positive cells per 0.1 mm^2 for each of the quantified regions. All data are represented as means ± s.e.m [FW ($n = 8$); BW ($n = 14$); No-CS ($n = 17$); No-Test ($n = 8$)]; * = $p < 0.05$.

Backward CSs selectively increase Fos expression in mPFC afferents of the BNST. The BNST

receives input from many areas involved in the regulation of fear (Fox and Shackman, 2017).

Therefore, we used a functional tracing procedure to quantify Fos expression in neurons targeting

the BNST. Specifically, rats were injected with a retrograde tracer (CTb-488) into the BNST (prior

to conditioning) so that we could quantify Fos expression in BNST-projecting neurons in its major

limbic and cortical afferents. We quantified Fos in the infralimbic (IL) and prelimbic (PL) regions

of the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC), the basolateral amygdala (BLA), and the ventral

hippocampus (HPC; Figure 7). The behavioral data for these animals are shown in Figure 5.

Figure 7. *Functional tracing in afferents targeting the BNST.*
(A) Coronal section (10×) showing representative fluorescence of a CTb infusion (green) into the BNST (dotted outline; "ac" = anterior commissure, "lv" = lateral ventricle). Black "X" denotes approximate lowest point of the infusion (as an example of how injection sites are documented in Figure 7—Figure Supplement 1). **(B)** Coronal schematic (-0.26 mm from bregma) showing the approximate largest (green) and smallest (dark green) areas of CTb spread in the BNST for animals included in the analyses; the black dotted outline represents the extent of spread of CTb in the BNST in the image shown in panel **A**. **(C)** Example CTb-positive (green) and Fos-positive (red; nuclei) cells in a coronal section (40 μm) of the IL; open white squares denote double-labeled cells. **(D)** Mean number of BNST-targeting CTb-positive cells (per 0.1 mm^2) for each of the quantified regions (shows FW, BW, and No-Test animals corresponding to Figure 8). All data are represented as means ± s.e.m (for each region, $n = 30$); * = $p < 0.05$.

A representative image of CTb infusion into the BNST is shown in Figure 7A and an

illustration of the largest and smallest CTb spread of injection included in the analyses is shown

in Figure 7B. Approximate microinjection sites for CTb for all animals are shown in Figure 7—

Figure Supplement 1. Representative Fos and CTb co-labeling is shown in Figure 7C. CTb counts

in each region did not differ by behavioral condition (F's < 0.5, p's > 0.75) and were collapsed for

this analysis. As shown in Figure 7D, there were reliable differences in CTb labeling among the

BNST afferents we quantified. An ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of region ($F_{3,116} =$

42.34, $p < 0.0001$). Post-hoc comparisons indicated that the number of CTb-positive cells in the

HPC were significantly higher than that in all other regions ($p < 0.0001$, per comparison); IL and

BLA exhibited significantly greater CTb counts compared to PL ($p < 0.0001$, per comparison).

These data indicate extensive connectivity of the PFC, BLA, and HPC with the BNST.

As shown in Figure 8A, the number of Fos-positive nuclei in the IL, PL, HPC, and BLA

differed among the behavioral groups. Factorial ANOVA of Fos counts in IL revealed a main

effect of group ($F_{2,27}$ = 8.55, p < 0.005). Post-hoc comparisons for IL revealed significant

differences between BW vs. No-Test rats (p < 0.0005) and FW vs. No-Test rats (p < 0.05). In PL,

a main effect of group was also identified (factorial ANOVA: $F_{2,27}$ = 6.79, p < 0.005). Post-hoc

analyses indicated that BW rats exhibited significantly more Fos in PL as compared to No-Test

animals (p < 0.001). For BLA, a main effect of group was detected (factorial ANOVA: $F_{2,27}$ =

8.10, p < 0.005). Post-hoc analyses revealed that FW and BW rats (which did not significantly

differ) exhibited significantly more Fos in BLA as compared to No Test rats (p < 0.01, FW vs. No-

Test; p < 0.001, BW vs. No-Test). In HPC, an ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of group

($F_{2,27}$ = 4.28, p < 0.05). Post-hoc comparisons indicated that FW and BW rats (again, which did

not significantly differ) had significantly more Fos expression in HPC as compared to No-Test

animals (p < 0.05 for FW vs. No-Test and BW vs. No-Test). These data indicate that conditioned

freezing to forward or backward CSs increased the number of Fos-positive neurons in the PFC,

BLA, and HPC.

To quantify the fraction of BNST-projecting neurons within the PFC, BLA, and HPC that

were activated by a FW or BW CS, we calculated a ratio of Fos-positive to CTb-positive nuclei in

each afferent region ("Fos-CTb%"; Figure 8B). Interestingly, within the IL, animals in the BW

group exhibited the highest fraction of double-labeled cells. An ANOVA revealed a significant

main effect of group ($F_{2,27}$ = 14.22, p < 0.0001). Post-hoc comparisons revealed significant

differences between BW and FW rats (p < 0.005) as well as BW and No-Test animals (p < 0.0001).

In contrast, there were no differences between FW and BW rats in any of the other regions

quantified. In PL, there was not a significant main effect of group (F < 1.90, p > 0.17) and no

group effects were observed in the BLA (F < 2.0, p > 0.15). In the HPC, rats in the FW and BW

groups exhibited greater numbers of double-labeled cells than those in the No-Test group ($F_{2,27}$ =

7.82, $p < 0.01$). Accordingly, these data indicate that conditioned freezing (in both FW and BW

rats) is associated with increased activity in BNST-targeting cells of HPC, and that BW CSs

selectively increase Fos in BNST-projecting neurons in IL. Hence, IL projections to the BNST

may mediate the effects of BW CSs on BNST Fos expression and freezing.

Figure 8. *Fos expression in BNST-targeting cells of prefrontal cortex, amygdala, and hippocampus following exposure to a temporally predictable or uncertain CS.* **(A)** Mean number of Fos-positive cells (per 0.1 mm²) for each of the quantified regions. **(B)** Mean percentage of Fos-positive and CTb-positive cells divided by the total number of CTb-positive cells for each region. All data are represented as means ± s.e.m [FW (*n* = 8); BW (*n* = 14); No-Test (*n* = 8)]; * = *p* < 0.05.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we demonstrate that the BNST is critical for processing ambiguous threats,

specifically discrete auditory cues that poorly predict when aversive footshocks will occur.

Reversible inactivation of the BNST inactivation disrupted conditioned freezing to a backward

CS, but did not affect freezing to a CS that reliably predicted the timing of shock onset even when

that CS signaled an unpredictable intensity of the US. Interestingly, freezing to the backward CS

was less sustained than that to the forward CS, suggesting that neither long-duration stimuli nor

sustained freezing responses are required to recruit the BNST. Finally, although both forward and

backward CSs increased Fos expression in the hippocampus, BNST, amygdala, and mPFC, only

backward CSs selectively increased Fos expression in both the ventral BNST and BNST-

projecting neurons in the infralimbic cortex. Collectively, these data reveal that the BNST and its

mPFC afferents mediate defensive responses to ambiguous threats.

Unpredictability comes in many forms (Bennett et al., 2018; Davies and Craske, 2015;

McNally et al., 2011; Schroijen et al., 2016), but uncertainty about the onset of aversive events has

been linked to anxiety (Bennett et al., 2018). For example, work in both humans (Shankman et al.,

2011) and animals (Amadi et al., 2017) suggests that unpredictable timing of aversive stimuli is a

key contributor to anxious symptoms. Ambiguous threats have been found to increase regional

cerebral blood flow in the human BNST (Alvarez et al., 2015; Klumpers et al., 2017) and BNST

lesions or inactivation in animals reduce defensive responses to a broad spectrum of stimuli

(contexts and cues) that poorly predict when aversive events will occur (Davis and Walker, 2014;

Goode et al., 2015; Hammack et al., 2015; Luyten et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2004; Waddell et

al., 2006; Zimmerman and Maren, 2011). It has been suggested that ambiguous signals for threat

induce states of anxiety, because they predict that, but not when, an aversive event might occur.

In the present study, backward CSs, which are ambiguous signals for the onset of aversive

footshocks, drove conditioned freezing that was presumably associated with a state of anticipatory

anxiety. Consistent with this possibility, we observed significant differences in shock reactivity

during forward and backward conditioning. During backward conditioning, rats exhibited more

robust shock-elicited activity bursts than during forward conditioning, which suggests that

uncertainty about the timing of aversive USs increases their aversiveness. A critical finding in the

present study is that the BNST mediates conditioned freezing to short-duration discrete CSs, but

only when those CSs are poor predictors of shock onset. This contrasts with prior work suggesting

that the BNST only mediates freezing behavior to long-duration cues or contexts (Hammack et al.,

2015; Waddell et al., 2006). However, recent data in other paradigms suggest a role for the BNST

in threat responses to relatively brief stimuli (Brinkmann et al., 2018; Kiyokawa et al., 2015; Luyck

et al., 2017). Together, these data suggest that stimulus duration is not necessarily a determinant

of BNST involvement. Similarly, it does not appear that response duration is a determinant of

BNST in threat reactions. In the present work, conditioned freezing to the backward CS was

generally shorter-lived than that to the forward CS, but was more sensitive to BNST inactivation

than freezing to the forward CS. One might conclude from this observation that the BNST mediates

weak (but not strong) freezing responses. However, we and others have shown that BNST lesions

or inactivation reduce the expression of freezing when those levels are high (Goode et al., 2015;

Hammack et al., 2015). Hence, the BNST mediates fear to cues that signal uncertain threat,

independent of the duration of the antecedent stimuli or behavioral responses associated with the

threat (Goode and Maren, 2017).

Interestingly, it has been suggested that fear to a backward CS relies on associations

between the CS and the conditioning context (Chang et al., 2003), which more strongly predicts

the US. Thus, it is possible that the BNST mediates fear expression to a backward CS by retrieving

a memory of the context-US association. Consistent with this, increases in immediate early gene

expression and metabolic activity have been observed in the BNST in response to conditioned

contexts (Campeau et al., 1997; Lemos et al., 2010; Luyten et al., 2012) and BNST lesions or

inactivation impair defensive responses to a variety of contextual stimuli (Davis and Walker, 2014;

Goode et al., 2015; Hammack et al., 2015; Luyten et al., 2011; Sullivan et al., 2004; Waddell et

al., 2006; Zimmerman and Maren, 2011). If the backward CS functions similarly to a conditioned

context, then one might expect Fos activity to be elevated in the BNST of animals exposed to the

backward CS. Indeed, we observed significantly more Fos expression in the BNST in response to

the backward compared to forward CS. The backward CS-elicited Fos expression was specific to

vBNST, insofar as backward and forward rats did not differ in overall levels of Fos in dBNST or

ovBNST. Others have shown elevated Fos expression in regions in or near vBNST after stress

(Sterrenburg et al., 2012; Verma et al., 2018), which is consistent with the greater aversion

embodied by a temporally unpredictable CS. Of course, another possibility is that the backward

conditioning procedure yielded forward trace conditioning (Burman et al., 2014; Marchand et al.,

2004; Raybuck and Lattal, 2014; Tipps et al., 2014). Although there has been considerable work

on the neural mechanisms of trace conditioning (Raybuck and Lattal, 2014), a role for the BNST

in this form of learning has not yet been established. Because trace conditioning also degrades the

temporal predictability of the CS, it might be expected to require the BNST. In either event, the

BNST appears to be recruited by stimuli, whether cues or contexts, that are poor predictors of

when aversive USs will occur.

The amygdala, PFC, and hippocampus have strong connections with the BNST (Canteras

and Swanson, 1992; deCampo and Fudge, 2013; Dong et al., 2001; Glangetas et al., 2017;

McDonald et al., 1999; Reichard et al., 2017; Reynolds and Zahm, 2005; Torrisi et al., 2015;

Vertes, 2004; Weller and Smith, 1982). In line with previous work, the expression of freezing

(whether elicited by a forward or backward CS) increased the number of Fos-positive neurons in

these regions (Herry et al., 2008; Jin and Maren, 2015; Knapska and Maren, 2009; Lemos et al.,

2010; Wang et al., 2016). In addition, we found that forward and backward CSs increased Fos

expression in BNST-targeting cells of BLA and HPC. HPC and BLA projections to the BNST are

thought to regulate hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA)-axis activity (Crestani et al., 2013;

Forray and Gysling, 2004; Zhu et al., 2001), and these afferents may be engaged in high-fear states

to mobilize corticosterone release. However, unlike the HPC and BLA, we observed a greater

number of Fos-positive cells in the IL in response to a backward relative to forward CS. This

suggests a unique role for BNST-projecting neurons in the IL in processing unpredictable threats.

IL projections to the BNST are known to be glutamatergic (Crowley et al., 2016; Glangetas et al.,

2017) and activity in the IL regulates anxiety (Glangetas et al., 2017). Indeed, the present data

suggest that the IL may be involved in generating defensive behaviors to the backward CS. This

would stand in contrast to considerable data indicating that the IL is involved in the inhibition of

freezing behavior after extinction, for example (Milad and Quirk, 2002; Quirk and Mueller, 2008).

An alternative view is that the IL is involved in processing contextual information conveyed by

the hippocampus (Corcoran and Quirk, 2007; Marek et al., 2018; Zelikowsky et al., 2013) during

threat processing. To the extent that that backward CSs elicit fear via CS-(context-US) associations

(Chang et al., 2003), it is possible that the IL is involved in retrieving CS-context associations.

In conclusion, we demonstrate a novel role for the BNST processing cues that signal

uncertain threats. BNST inactivation impaired conditioned freezing to a backward, but not

forward, auditory CS that differed only in their temporal relationship to a footshock US. This

reveals that neither stimulus modality nor duration (or response duration) are the critical

parameters driving BNST involvement in defensive behavior. Moreover, BNST inactivation did

not affect freezing to a forward CS that was paired with a US that varied in intensity, suggesting

that uncertainty *per se* does not drive BNST-dependent behavior. Rather, it would appear that

stimuli that signal temporally uncertain threats (i.e., ambiguous threats) elicit BNST-dependent

freezing behavior. We further show that backward CSs increase the number of Fos-positive

neurons in the vBNST and in BNST-projecting neurons in the infralimbic cortex. This suggests a

novel role for mPFC projections to the BNST in processing ambiguous threats, possibly of the

aversive contexts to which backward CSs are associated. In total, these experiments provide new

insight into the antecedents for BNST-dependent defensive behavior and reveal novel behavioral

procedures to explore these processes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Subjects. All experiments used adult (200-240 g upon arrival; $n = 215$, before exclusions) male

Long-Evans rats (Envigo; Indianapolis, IN). Rats were housed in a climate-controlled vivarium

and kept on a fixed light/dark cycle (lights on starting at 7:00 AM and off at 9:00 PM; experiments

took place during the light phase of the cycle). Rats were individually housed in clear plastic cages

(with bedding consisting of wood shavings; changed weekly) on a rotating cage rack. Group

assignments for behavioral testing was randomized for cage position on the racks. Animals had

access to standard rodent chow and water *ad libitum*. Animals were handled by the experimenter(s)

(~30 sec/day) for five consecutive days prior to the start of any surgeries or behavior. All

procedures were in accordance with the US National Institutes of Health (NIH) Guide for the Care

and Use of Laboratory Animals and were approved by the Texas A&M University Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee.

Apparatuses. All behavioral testing occurred within distinct rooms in the laboratory. Each

behavioral room housed eight identical rodent conditioning chambers (30 cm × 24 cm × 21 cm;

MED Associates, Inc.). Each chamber was housed in a larger, external sound-attenuating cabinet.

Rear walls, ceilings, and the front doors of the testing chambers were made of Plexiglas, while

their sidewalls were made of aluminum. Grid floors of the chambers were comprised of nineteen

stainless steel bars (4 mm in diameter), and spaced 1.5 cm apart (center to center). The grid floors

were attached to an electric shock source and a solid-state grid scrambler for delivery of the US

(MED Associates, Inc.). A speaker attached to each chamber was used to deliver the auditory CS.

As needed for each context, the chambers were equipped with 15 W house lights, and small fans

were embedded in the cabinets (providing background noise of ~70 dB). An aluminum pan was

inserted beneath the grid floor to collect animal waste. A small camera was attached to the top of

the cabinet for video monitoring of behavior.

Measurements of freezing were performed using an automated system (Maren, 1998).

Specifically, each behavioral testing chamber rested on a load-cell platform that was sensitive to

cage displacement due to the animal's movements. During behavioral testing, load-cell activity

values (ranging from -10 to +10 V) were collected and digitized at 5 Hz using Threshold Activity

Software (MED Associates, Inc.). Offline conversions of the load-cell activity values were

performed to generate absolute values ranging from 0 to 100; lower values indicate minimal cage

displacement, which coincided with freezing behaviors in the chambers. Accordingly, freezing

bouts were defined as absolute values of ≤10 for 1 s or more. The percentage of freezing behavior

during the pre-CS baseline, the CS, and the inter-trial intervals was computed for each behavioral

session. Shock reactivity was analyzed by directly reporting the absolute values generated by the

Threshold Activity Software (i.e., larger values indicated more movement in the cage).

Unique contexts (A and B) were used for conditioning retrieval testing. Chamber

assignments were unique to each context and group assignments were counterbalanced across test

chambers when possible. For each experiment, context A was assigned to one of the behavioral

rooms, and B the other. For context A, the test chamber was wiped down with an acetic acid

solution (3%) and a small amount was poured in the pans beneath the grid floors. The cage lights

were turned on, while the chamber fans were turned off. The cabinet doors were closed. The

behavioral room was illuminated with dim red light. Animals were transported to and from the

chambers using white plastic transport boxes. For context B, an ammonium hydroxide solution

(1%) was used to wipe down and scent the chambers, black Plexiglas panels were placed over the

grid floors, the cage lights were turned off, the chamber fans were turned on, and the cabinet doors

remained open. The behavioral room was illuminated with white light (red room lights were turned

off). Rats were transported to and from the context using black plastic transport boxes that included

a layer of clean bedding.

Surgeries. For animals receiving intracranial microinfusions into the BNST, rats were transported

to the surgical suite and deeply anesthetized using isoflurane (5% for induction, 1-2% for

maintenance) (Acca et al., 2017; Goode et al., 2015; Nagaya et al., 2015; Zimmerman and Maren,

2011). Rats were then secured in a stereotaxic frame (Kopf Instruments). Hair on top of the

rodent's head was shaved, povidone-iodine was applied, and a small incision was made in the scalp

to expose the skull. Bregma and lambda were aligned on a horizontal plane, and small holes were

drilled in the skull for the placement of anchoring screws and bilateral stainless-steel guide

cannulas (26 gauge, 8 mm from the bottom of their plastic pedestals; Small Parts). The cannulas

were inserted into the BNST at the following coordinates: -0.15 mm posterior to bregma, ±2.65

mm lateral to the midline, and -5.85 mm dorsal to dura (guide cannulas were angled at 10° with

their needles directed at the midline). Dental cement was used to secure the cannulas to the screws

and stainless steel obturators (33 gauge, 9 mm; Small Parts) were inserted into the guide cannulas.

Animals were given at least one week to recover prior to the onset of behavioral training.

For rats injected with cholera toxin subunit B (CTb) conjugated with Alexa Fluor-488

(CTb-488; ThermoFisher Scientific) in the BNST, the surgical procedures were identical to those

described above. A single small hole was drilled into the skull to allow for the insertion of glass

micropipettes. Injection tips were backfilled with mineral oil and secured in the injector; CTb-488

was then drawn up into the injector immediately before use. Rats received unilateral CTb-488

infusions into either the left or right hemisphere (group assignments were randomized for sites of

CTb-488 infusion): -0.15 mm posterior to bregma, ±2.65 mm lateral to the midline, and -6.50 mm

dorsal to dura (the pipette was angled at 10° with the tip directed at the midline). CTb-488 (5.0

mg/µl; total volume of 0.25 µl) was microinfused into the brain using a Nanoject II auto-nanoliter

injector (Drummond Scientific Co.) secured to the arms of the stereotaxic frame. For the infusion

process, 50 nl (25 nl/s) of CTb-488 was infused once per min for 5 min to achieve 0.25 µl of total

infusion (the injection needle was left in the brain for 5 additional minutes to allow for diffusion

of CTb-488). Following the infusion procedures, the incision closed with sutures and the animals

were returned to their homecages where they recovered for ~10 days.

Intracranial infusions. Prior to behavioral testing, the animals were acclimated to the process of

intracranial infusions. On two occasions, the animals were transported from the vivarium to the

infusion room in 5-gallon buckets containing a layer of bedding; the experimenter(s) removed the

obturators and replaced them with clean ones. On the day of infusions, animals (in squads of four

to eight rats; representing all drug/behavioral groups as possible) were transported to the

laboratory, obturators were removed, and injectors were inserted into the guides. Stainless steel

injectors (33 gauge, Small Parts; 9-mm extending 1 mm beyond the end of the guide cannula) were

connected to polyethylene tubing (PE-20; Braintree Scientific); the other end of the tubing was

connected to gastight 10 μl syringes (Hamilton, Co.). The syringes were mounted to an infusion

pump (KD Scientific, Inc.). For the experiments shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2, the α-amino-3-

hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA) receptor antagonist 2,3-dihydroxy-6-nitro-

7-sulfamoyl-benzo[f]quinoxaline-2,3-dione (NBQX) was used to reversibly inactivate the BNST

(Adami et al., 2017; Davis and Walker, 2014; Goode et al., 2015; Zimmerman and Maren, 2011).

NBQX disodium salt hydrate (Sigma Life Sciences) was dissolved in saline to a concentration of

10.0 μg/μl ("NBQX" for Figure 1 and Figure 2); physiological saline served as the vehicle ("VEH"

for all experiments). For the experiments shown in Figure 4, the γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA)$_A$

receptor agonist muscimol was used to reversibly inactivate the BNST (Bangasser et al., 2005;

Breitfeld et al., 2015; Buffalari and See, 2011; Fendt et al., 2003; Goode et al., 2015; Markham et

al., 2009; Pina et al., 2015; Sajdyk et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2012). Muscimol (Sigma-Aldrich) was

dissolved in physiological saline to a concentration of 0.1 μg/μl ("MUS" for Figure 4);

physiological saline served as the vehicle ("VEH"). For the representative image showing drug

spread in the BNST (Figure 1—Figure Supplement 1), muscimol TMR-X conjugate (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) was dissolved in physiological saline to a concentration of 0.1 μg/μl and used

for infusions. For all of the aforementioned experiments, drug or vehicle was drawn into the

injectors (immediately prior to the infusions) and a total volume of 0.275 μl/hemisphere of drug

or vehicle was infused at a rate of 0.275 μl/min; injectors were left in the cannulas for 1 min

following the infusions to allow for diffusion. Once the injectors were removed, clean obturators

were inserted into the guides.

Behavioral procedures and exclusions. Overviews of each behavioral experiment are provided

in the figures. The conditioned stimulus (CS) for all experiments was an auditory tone (80 dB, 2

kHz, 10 sec), which was paired with a footshock the unconditioned stimulus (US, 1.0 mA, 2 sec).

For the variable shock intensity experiment (Figure 4), US intensity varied.

FW/BW BNST inactivation (twelve training trials). In a 3×2 design, animals ($n = 64$, prior

to exclusions) were randomly assigned to receive a CS at test [either a forward ("FW")- or

backward ("BW")-trained CS] or no CS at test [animals were trained to a BW CS; "No-CS"], and

NBQX ("NBQX") or vehicle infusions ("VEH"). Of these rats, seven were excluded due to off-

target cannulas, three additional rats were excluded due to illness, and four more were excluded

due to a technical error during infusions that resulted in no drug or vehicle to be infused (fourteen

total exclusions). This resulted in the following (final) group numbers (shown in data/figures):

FW-NBQX ($n = 4$); FW-VEH ($n = 5$); BW-NBQX ($n = 12$); BW-VEH ($n = 13$); No-CS-NBQX

($n = 8$), No-CS-VEH ($n = 8$). For conditioning, animals (in squads of eight rats) were transported

from the vivarium to context A; FW and BW procedures were run in alternating squads of animals.

Drug and vehicle assignments were counterbalanced for position in the chambers. For FW

conditioning, were placed in the context for 5 min before the delivery of twelve CS-US trials (CS

offset immediately preceded US onset; 70-sec intertrial interval). After the final conditioning trial,

the animals remained in the chamber for 1 min before being returned to their homecages (the entire

conditioning session consisted of 19 min total; for both FW and BW conditioning). For BW

conditioning, all aspects of conditioning were identical to the FW training except the order of the

CS and US was reversed. That is, after a 5-min baseline period, the animals received 12 US-CS

trials (the onset of the CS occurred immediately after the offset of the US; 70-sec intertrial

intervals). After conditioning, rats were returned to their homecages.

Twenty-four hours after conditioning, animals (in squads of four) were infused with DRUG

or VEH into the BNST immediately before being placed in context B. After 5 min of acclimation

to the context, FW and BW animals (intermixed in each squad) received twelve presentations of

the CS in the absence of the US (70-sec intertrial interval). The rats remained in the chambers for

1 min following the final CS (19 min session, in total). For rats not receiving the CS at test, the

animals remained in the test context for 19 min without presentation of the CS or US. We alternated

running squads that received the CS and those that did not after the infusions. Following the test,

animals were returned to their homecages.

FW/BW BNST inactivation (five training trials). In a 2×2 design, animals ($n = 28$, prior

to exclusions) were randomly assigned to receive forward ("FW") or backward ("BW")

conditioning, and NBQX ("NBQX") or vehicle infusions ("VEH"). Of these rats, three were

excluded due to off-target cannulas. This resulted in the following (final) group numbers (shown

in data/figures): FW-NBQX ($n = 6$); FW-VEH ($n = 6$); BW-NBQX ($n = 6$); BW-VEH ($n = 7$). At

the start of behavior, rats (in squads of seven) were transported from the vivarium and placed in

context A. We alternated squads that received forward or backward conditioning. For forward

conditioning, rats were given 3 min of acclimation to the context prior to the onset of five CS-US

trials. Rats remained in the chamber for 1 min following the final trial (530 sec total conditioning

session). For backward conditioning, rats were placed in context a for a 3-min baseline (530 sec

session total), after which they received five US-CS trials. Rats were returned to their homecages

after conditioning. Twenty-four hours after conditioning, the animals were placed in context B in

the absence of the CS or US for 530 sec to acclimate them to the test context. After this acclimation

session, rats were again returned to their homecages.

Forty-eight hours after conditioning, the animals received NBQX or VEH infusions

(identical to above) immediately prior to retrieval testing. FW and BW animals were intermixed

in each squad. Immediately after the infusions, animals were placed in context B for a retrieval

test to assess freezing to the CS. The test (530 sec in total) consisted of a 3-min baseline period

followed by five CS-alone presentations (70-s intertrial interval). Rats were returned to their

homecages following the test session.

FIXED/VARIABLE shock w/ BNST inactivation. In a 2×2 design, rats ($n = 31$, prior to

exclusions) were randomly assigned to receive forward conditioning with consistent ("FIXED")

or variable magnitudes of the US ("VARIABLE"); muscimol ("MUS") or vehicle infusions

("VEH") were made prior to retrieval testing. For FIXED animals, US intensity was 1 mA. For

VARIABLE animals, shock intensity (in mA) varied across trials in this order (mean = 1 mA):

0.5, 1.8, 0.4, 1.6, 1.4, 0.3, 0.5, 1.8, 0.4, 1.6, 1.4, 0.3. In this experiment, one rat was excluded due

to off-target cannulas. This resulted in the following (final) group numbers (shown in data/figures):

FIXED-MUS ($n = 8$); FIXED-VEH ($n = 7$); VARIABLE-MUS ($n = 8$); VARIABLE-VEH ($n =$

7). For conditioning, animals (in squads of seven to eight) were transported to context A (squads

alternated between FIXED and VARIABLE paradigms). The rats were given 5 min to acclimate

to the context before the onset of 12 CS-US pairings (70-sec intertrial intervals). Rats remained in

the chambers for 1 min following the final CS, with the entire conditioning session lasting 19 min.

Rats were returned to their homecages following conditioning.

Twenty-four hours later, rats (in squads of seven to eight) received intracranial infusions

of MUS or VEH into the BNST immediately before being placed in context B for retrieval testing.

Rats were given a 5-min baseline period before the onset of twelve CS-alone presentations (70-

sec intertrial intervals). Rats remained in the chambers for 1 min following the final CS, with the

entire test session lasting 19 min. Rats were returned to their homecages following the test.

FW/BW Fos-CTb. Animals ($n = 60$, before exclusions) were randomly assigned to receive

a forward ("FW")- or backward ("BW")-trained CS at testing, or no CS retrieval at test ("No-CS").

Note that the No-CS group consists of animals that were trained to either a FW or BW CS.

Additionally, a group of BW-trained animals remained in their homecages ("No-Test") during the

final test and were sacrificed alongside the other groups. Twelve rats were excluded for either

excessive or off-target infusion of CTb-488 outside the borders of the BNST or an absence of CTb-

488 labeling in the ventral BNST. One additional rat was excluded due to a technical issue that

resulted in the loss of tissue at the level of the prefrontal cortex. This resulted in the following

(final) group numbers (shown in data/figures): FW ($n = 8$); BW ($n = 14$); No-CS [$n = 17$ (BW-

trained: $n = 9$; FW-trained: $n = 8$)]; No-Test ($n = 8$). For behavioral training, rats (in squads of six

to eight; with all groups intermixed) were transported to the laboratory and placed in context B to

acclimate for 5 min (no CS or US) and then returned to their homecages. Later that day, the animals

were transported to context A where they received twelve trials of either FW or BW fear

conditioning, which was identical to the other aforementioned procedures. We alternated FW and

BW conditioning squads. After conditioning, the rats were returned to their homecages. Twenty-

four hours after conditioning, all rats were exposed to context B for 20 min in the absence of the

CS or US to acclimate them to the test context.

Forty-eight hours later, FW, BW, and No-CS rats were transported to context B to receive

a retrieval test to the CS or were merely placed in the context (No-CS condition). Squads alternated

between CS and No-CS test. For rats undergoing CS retrieval, FW and BW animals (intermixed

in each squad) received CS trials as described previously. Rats were perfused 90 min following

the first CS of the test, in groups of three to four. For No-CS rats (with FW- and BW-trained

animals intermixed), animals were exposed to context B in the absence of the CS or US. No-CS

rats were perfused 95 min after being placed in the test context, in groups of three to four. No-Test

rats were perfused alongside groups of FW, BW, and No-CS rats. Rats were returned to their

homecages after testing and prior to the perfusions.

FW/BW intra-shock reactivity. Rats ($n = 32$, no exclusions) were randomly assigned to

receive forward ("FW") or backward ("BW") conditioning. No rats were excluded from this

experiment (no infusions occurred; $n = 16$, per group); only data from the conditioning session are

shown. Animals (in squads of eight) were transported to context A for either FW or BW

conditioning. Parameters for FW and BW conditioning were identical to the procedures for the

previous 12-trial experiments. We alternated FW and BW squads. Rats were returned to their

homecages following training.

Histological procedures. At the conclusion of behavioral testing, cannula-implanted animals were

overdosed with sodium pentobarbital (Fatal Plus; 100 mg/ml, 0.5 ml, i.p.). Transcardial perfusions

were then performed using chilled physiological saline followed by 10% formalin. Brains were

extracted and stored in 10% formalin for 24 hr at 4° C; brains were transferred to a 30% sucrose-

formalin solution for three or more days (at 4° C) before sectioning. Brains were flash frozen with

crushed dry ice and coronal sections (40 μm) containing the BNST were collected using a cryostat

(Leica Microsystems) at -20° C. The tissue was wet-mounted to gelatin-subbed microscope slides

and stained with 0.25% thionin prior to adding glass coverslips secured with mounting medium

(Permount, Sigma). To further examine the spread of drug, a subset of animals was infused

(identical to the aforementioned infusion parameters) with fluorescent muscimol (1.0 μg/μl;

EverFluor TMR-X conjugate, Setareh Biotech) before being sacrificed (these animals were not

perfused) and having brains dissected (40 μm; brains were stored in 30% sucrose solution at 4° C

until sectioning). These tissues were wet-mounted to slides and aqueous mounting medium

(Fluoromount; Sigma-Aldrich) was used to secure glass coverslips.

For CTb-injected animals, post-behavior perfusions mirrored the aforementioned

procedures. For sectioning, coronal sections (which included regions of the prefrontal cortex,

BNST, basolateral amygdala, and ventral hippocampus) were collected into well plates containing

phosphate-buffered saline (1× PBS) and stored in the dark at 4° C until immunohistochemistry

could be performed. For localization of the CTb-injection site, separate sections at the level of the

BNST were wet-mounted and coverslipped using Fluoromount mounting medium.

Immunohistochemistry. Immunohistochemistry for Fos was performed on free-floating brain

tissue similar to prior reports (Jin and Maren, 2015; Marek et al., 2018; Orsini et al., 2011; Wang

et al., 2016). For sections containing the BNST, Fos was stained using the following procedures

[all steps were performed at room temperature (~20° C) on a shaker, unless stated otherwise; rinses

were brief (~20 sec)]. The tissue was first rinsed in 1× tris-buffered saline (TBS; 7.4 pH), and then

incubated in 0.3% H_2O_2 (in TBS) for 15 min, followed by rinses (×3) in TBS. Slices were

transferred to primary antibody [rabbit anti-c-fos, 1:10,000 in 1× TBS containing Tween 20

(TBST); Millipore] and incubated overnight. Sections were then rinsed (×3) in TBS before

incubating in secondary antibody for 1 hr (biotinylated goat anti-rabbit, 1:1,000 in TBST; Jackson

Immunoresearch). Sections were rinsed (×3) again in TBS. The slices were transferred to wells

containing avidin biotin complex (ABC, 1:1,000 in TBST; Vector Labs) for 45 min. The tissues

were again rinsed (×3) in TBS. Tissue was transferred to wells containing 3,3′ diaminobenzidine

[(DAB) 5% stock, 1:200], nickel ammonium sulfate (5% stock, 1:10), and 30% H_2O_2 (1:2,000) in

TBS for 10 min to generate purple/black nuclear chromophore products. After another rinse (×3)

in TBS, the tissue was subsequently wet-mounted to slides and secured with coverslips using

Permount mounting medium.

For sections containing the prefrontal cortex, amygdala, and hippocampus (Fos-CTb

experiment), Fos was stained using the following procedures [unless stated otherwise, each step

occurred at room temperature (~20° C) on a shaker (and away from excess light)]. First, the tissue

was rinsed (10 min; ×2) in 1× TBS, followed by a 10 min wash in 1× TBST. The tissue was

incubated in 10% normal donkey serum (NDS; in TBST) for 1 hr. The slices were then rinsed (5

min; ×2) in TBST. Sections were transferred to primary antibody [goat anti-c-fos, 1:2,000 in 3%

NDS (in TBST); Santa Cruz Biotechnology] and incubated on a rotator in the dark for 72 hr at 4°

C. The tissue was rinsed (10 min; ×3) in TBST before incubating in secondary antibody

[biotinylated donkey anti-goat, 1:200 in 3% NDS (in TBST); Santa Cruz Biotechnology] for 2 hr.

Slices were then rinsed (10 min; ×3) in TBST. Sections were transferred to wells containing

streptavidin (Alexa-Fluor 594-conjugate, 1:500 in 3% NDS (in TBST); Thermo Fisher Scientific]

for 1 hr. Tissue was rinsed in (10 min; ×3) in TBS before being wet-mounted to slides and secured

with coverslips using Fluoromount mounting medium.

Image analyses. All imaging and counting procedures (for all regions) were performed with the

experimenter(s) blind to the group assignments of the animals. For thionin-stained coronal tissue,

photomicrographs of cannula in the BNST were generated (10× magnification) using a Leica

microscope (MZFLIII) and Leica Firecam software. For animals infused with fluorescent

muscimol into the BNST, infusion sites were imaged (10× magnification) using a Zeiss

microscope and Axio Imager 2 software (Zen Pro 2012). For CTb-injected animals, BNST images

were generated (10× magnification) using the same Zeiss microscope and software.

For Fos analyses in BNST, brightfield images of BNST [in BNST regions ranging from

approximately -0.00 to -0.50 mm posterior to bregma of the skull, and from both left and right

hemispheres (randomized for site of CTb-injection)] were generated (10× magnification) using a

Zeiss microscope and Axio Imager 2 software (Zen Pro 2012). ImageJ software (National

Institutes of Health) was used to count cells. Counts were confined to the following areas of

interest: (1) "ovBNST" [an area of 0.217 mm × 0.558 mm (oval); targeting the oval nucleus of the

BNST], (2) "dBNST" [0.372 mm^2 (circle); targeting the dorsal and medial subregions of the

anterior BNST, including the anteromedial area of the BNST (dorsal to the anterior commissure)],

and (3) "vBNST" [0.434 mm^2 (circle); targeting the ventral regions (ventral to the anterior

commissure) of the anterior BNST, which includes the ventral portion of the anteromedial area,

the anterolateral area, and the fusiform nucleus of the BNST] (Swanson, 2003). For each of these

regions, three to six images were quantified and averaged for each animal (Fos levels were

standardized to 0.1 mm^2).

For Fos-CTb analyses in the prefrontal cortex, amygdala, and hippocampus, images (10×

magnification) of Fos and CTb expression were generated using a Zeiss microscope and Axio

Imager 2 software (Zen Pro 2012), and counts were analyzed using ImageJ. Images were only

generated for the hemisphere injected with CTb for these areas. Counts were confined to the

following areas of interest: (1) "IL" [an area of 0.805 mm × 0.217 mm (rectangle); targeting deep

and superficial layers of the infralimbic cortex], (2) "PL" [1.115 mm × 0.217 mm (rectangle);

targeting deep and superficial layers of the prelimbic cortex], (3) "BLA" [0.434 mm^2 (circle);

targeting the basolateral amygdala, and (4) "HPC" [0.496 mm × 0.217 mm (rectangle); targeting

the ventral subiculum but may include some CA1 cells of the ventral hippocampus (Swanson,

2003). For each of these regions, three to six images were quantified and averaged for each animal

(all counts were normalized to 0.1 mm^2).

Statistics. All data were submitted to repeated or factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) or two-

tailed *t*-tests as appropriate and as described for each experiment. Fisher's protected least

significant difference (PLSD) test was used for *post hoc* comparisons of group means following a

significant omnibus *F* ratio in the ANOVA (α was set at 0.05). No statistical methods were used

to predetermine group sizes (group sizes were selected based on prior work and what is common

for the field). Data distributions were assumed to be normal, but these were not formally tested.

Unless stated otherwise, all data are represented as means ± s.e.m.

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ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author contributions

T.D.G. and S.M. designed research; T.D.G., R.R., and G.M.A. performed the research; T.D.G.,

R.R., G.M.A., and S.M. analyzed data; T.D.G. and S.M. wrote the paper.

Figure 1—Figure Supplement 1
Representative bilateral cannula placements in the BNST. Photomicrograph (10×) of a thionin-stained coronal section depicting representative cannula tracts in the BNST (top panel). Fluorescent image (gold filter) of a coronal section (10×) showing spread of drug in BNST (BNST outlined in dotted line) (bottom panel).

Figure 1—Figure Supplement 2

Bilateral cannula placements for BNST microinfusions. Schematic depicting cannula placements for Figure 1. Symbols (split by each group) correspond to injector tips (approximate borders of BNST are shown by red dotted outline; approximate borders of BNST are shown by red dotted outline).

Figure 2—Figure Supplement 1
Bilateral cannula placements for BNST microinfusions. Schematic depicting cannula placements for Figure 2. Symbols (split by each group) correspond to injector tips (approximate borders of BNST are shown by red dotted outline).

Figure 4—Figure Supplement 1

Bilateral cannula placements for BNST microinfusions. Schematic depicting cannula placements for Figure 4. Symbols (split by each group) correspond to injector tips (approximate borders of BNST are shown by red dotted outline).

Figure 7—Figure Supplement 1
CTb injection sites in BNST. Approximation of the most ventral and centermost sites of unilateral microinjection of CTb (green X's) for all animals shown in Figure 7 (red outline approximates borders of BNST).

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A Conditioning

12 trials

Ctx A

Forward (FW)

CS (10 s) US (2 s)

Backward (BW)

or

US (2 s) CS (10 s)

24 h

BNST Infusion

NBQX

or

VEH

Immed.

Test

12 trials

Ctx B

or

Ctx B

B

Conditioning

Test

- FW-NBQX
- FW-VEH
- BW-NBQX
- BW-VEH
- No-CS-NBQX
- No-CS-VEH

Freezing (%)

Inf.

BL 1 2 3 4 5 6
Two-trial blocks

BL 1 2 3 4 5 6
Two-trial blocks

Test (trials 1-6)

* * * *

FW BW No-CS

NBQX VEH

Muscimol TMR-X