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1 Encoding of environmental cues in central amygdala neurons during foraging

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Abstract

In order to successfully forage in an environment filled with rewards and threats, animals need to rely on familiar structures of their environment that signal food availability. The central amygdala (CeA) is known to mediate a panoply of consummatory and defensive behaviors, yet how specific activity patterns within CeA subpopulations guide optimal choices is not completely understood. In a paradigm of appetitive conditioning in which mice freely forage for food across a continuum of cues, we found that two major subpopulations of CeA neurons, Somatostatin-positive (CeASst) and protein kinase Cδ-positive (CeAPKCδ) neurons can assign motivational properties to environmental cues. While the proportion of food responsive cells was higher within CeASst than CeAPKCδ neurons, only the activities of CeAPKCδ, but not CeASst, neurons were required for learning of contextual food cues. Our findings point to a model in which CeAPKCδ neurons may incorporate stimulus salience together with sensory features of the environment to encode memory of the goal location.

Significance Statement

The CeA has a very important role in the formation of memories that associate sensory information with aversive or rewarding representation. Here, we used a conditioned place preference paradigm, where freely moving mice learn to associate external cues with food availability, to investigate the roles of CeA neuron subpopulations. We found that CeA^{Sst} and CeA^{PKCδ} neurons encoded environmental cues during foraging but only the activities of CeA^{PKCδ} neurons were required for learning of contextual food cues.

Introduction

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An organism's survival depends heavily on its ability to evaluate whether familiar cues in the environment predict a threat or an opportunity. The CeA is important for this competence and contains numerous genetically distinct subpopulations of neurons that can select the appropriate behavioral outputs in the face of positively or negatively valenced stimuli (Ehrlich et al., 2009; Pare and Duvarci, 2012; Herry and Johansen, 2014; Janak and Tye, 2015; Fadok et al., 2018). While earlier models interpreted the literature in a binary mode, where CeA neurons belong either to the "aversive" or "rewarding" network, new hypotheses depict the CeA as an essential site for associative learning (Wilensky et al., 2006; Ciocchi et al., 2010) also contributing to the computation of prediction error signals (Ozawa et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2017; Kargl et al., 2020). To understand how the surrounding environment modulates plasticity in CeA circuits to drive behavioral selection, we probed the function and activity patterns of CeA^{PKCδ} and CeA^{Sst} neurons during a foraging task. PKCδ- and Sst-expressing cells represent two non-overlapping populations of CeA neurons (Kim et al., 2017), encompassing the majority of all cells in this region (Kim et al., 2017), and are known to mediate antagonizing behaviors when studied in parallel (Kim et al., 2017; Wilson et al., 2019; Kargl et al., 2020). The CeA has been previously shown to acquire responses to signals of food delivery, but the contribution of these two CeA subpopulations has remained unclear (Gallagher et al., 1990; Han et al., 1997, 1999; McDannald et al., 2004; Corbit and Balleine, 2005; Lee et al., 2005). In particular, how these appetitive memories are represented in a setting where the animal freely navigates and is forced to engage goal-oriented actions remains unknown. We hypothesized that PKCδ+ cells that integrate convergent inputs from cortical, thalamic, hippocampal, and brainstem structures (Douglass et al., 2017), properties that are reminiscent of the Hebbian model of learning-induced synaptic plasticity, may be involved in associative learning tasks that impose valence on different tastes or link taste valence to other sensory stimuli.

Indeed, we found that CeA^{PKCδ} neurons, previously related to aversive behavior (Haubensak et al., 2010; Cai et al., 2014; Cui et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2017; Wilson et al., 2019), were required for approach behavior in a context that signals food availability, whereas CeA^{Sst} neurons were not. We performed Ca²⁺ imaging to evaluate neuronal activity changes when the mice freely decided to switch between environments. We observed that after learning, a subset of these two populations had developed specific activities to the positive context. Our findings suggest a model in which CeA^{Sst} neuron activity encodes information directly related to food consumption, whereas CeA^{PKCδ} cells endow sensory features of the environment with representation of the food reward salience to ultimately drive correct behavioral choices.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Prkcd-Cre (Tg(Prkcd-glc-1/CFP,-Cre)EH124Gsat) BAC mice were imported from the Mutant Mouse Regional Resource Center. Sst-Cre (Ssttm2.1(cre)Zjh) transgenic mice were acquired from the Jackson Laboratory (https://www.jax.org/). Rosa26R Cre dependent reporter mice that express LacZ (B6.129S4-Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1Sor/J) have been described previously (Soriano, 1999). Mice were backcrossed onto a C57BL/6NRj background (Janvier Labs - http://www.janvier-labs.com). 3-6 month old male Prkcd-cre;LacZ or Sst-Cre;LacZ mice were used for the place preference assay combined with optogenetic manipulation of CeAPKC6 and CeASst cells, as well as for the open field task. 8 to 18 month old male and female Prkcd-cre;LacZ or Sst-Cre;LacZ mice were used for the place preference assay combined with Ca²⁺ imaging of CeAPKC6 and CeASst cells. The older age of mice used for the Ca2+ imaging experiments was primarily due to the experimental design. In some cases, a waiting period of several months was necessary for the inflammation to decrease and to clearly see fluorescent cells through the lens. Mice were kept on a 12-h

- light/dark cycle. All behavior experiments were conducted during the light phase of the cycle and under dimmed light in the behavioral boxes.
 - Viral Constructs

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- 90 The following AAV viruses were purchased from the University of North Carolina Vector Core
- 91 (https://www.med.unc.edu/genetherapy/vectorcore: AAV5-ef1a-DIO-eNpHR3.0-mCherry, AAV5-ef1a-DIO-eNpHR3.0-mCherry
- 92 DIO-mCherry. The AAV5-Syn.Flex.GCaMP6s virus was obtained from Addgene
- 93 (http://www.addgene.org/).
 - Stereotaxic surgeries
- 95 Viral injections in the CeA
- Mice were anaesthetized using isoflurane (Cp-Pharma) (induction, 3%; maintenance, 1.5%) in oxygen-
- 97 enriched air and head-fixed on a stereotaxic frame (Model 1900 Kopf Instruments). Body temperature
- 98 was maintained at 37°C using a heating pad. Carprofen (Rimadyl Zoetis) (5 mg/kg body weight), and an
- 99 analgesic, were given via subcutaneous injection. Mice were bilaterally injected with 0.3 μl of virus in the
- 100 CeA by using the following coordinates calculated with respect to the bregma: −1.22 mm anteroposterior,
- ± 2.9 mm lateral, -4.7 to -4.8 mm ventral. Viral particles were delivered using glass pipettes (708707 -
- 102 Blaubrand intraMark) connected to a Picospritzer III (Parker Hannifin Corporation) and controlled by a
- 103 Master-8 pulse stimulator (A.M.P.I) at a flow rate of ~50 nL/min. After delivery of the virus, the pipette
- 104 remained in the brain for 5 min to prevent spread of the virus. Virus was allowed to be expressed for a
- minimum duration of 4.5 weeks and a maximum of 10 weeks before behavioral experiments.
- 106 Optic fibers implants
- 107 Mice used in optogenetic experiments were, in the same surgery, bilaterally implanted with optic fibers
- 108 (200-μm core, 0.22 NA, 1.25-mm ferrule Thorlabs) above the CeA (-4.35 mm ventral from bregma). The

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skull was first protected with a thin layer of histo glue (Histoacryl, Braun), the fibers were then fixed to the skull using UV light-curable glue (Loctite AA3491 - Henkel), and the exposed skull was covered with dental acrylic (Paladur - Heraeus).

GRIN lens implantation and baseplate fixation.

For gradient index (GRIN) lenses implantation, 3 weeks after viral injection, mice expressing GCaMP6s in PKCδ+ or SST+ cells were anesthetized using the same procedure as described above. A small craniotomy was made above the CeA using the same coordinates as for the injection of the viral preparation. Debris were removed from the hole and a customized blunted 23G needle (0.7mm in diameter) was slowly lowered down into the brain at a speed of 150 μm/min to a depth of -4.6 mm from bregma. After retraction of the needle, a GRIN lens (ProView Lens; diameter, 0.5 mm; length, ~8.4 mm, Inscopix) mounted on a GRIN lens-holder was slowly (150 µm/min) implanted above the CeA. The skull was first protected with a thin layer of histo glue (Histoacryl, Braun), the lens was then fixed to the skull using UV light-curable glue (Loctite AA3491 - Henkel), and the exposed skull was covered with dental acrylic (Paladur - Heraeus). The exposed top of the lens was protected by a covering of a silicone adhesive (Kwikcast - World Precision Instruments). 4 to 8 weeks after GRIN lens implantation, mice were anesthetized and placed in the stereotaxic setup. A baseplate (BPL-2; Inscopix) attached to the miniature microscope was positioned above the GRIN lens. Concentration of the anesthetic gas was lowered and the focal plane was adjusted until neuronal structures and GCaMP6s dynamics were clearly observed. Mice were then fully anaesthetized again and the baseplate was fixed using C&B Metabond (Parkell). A baseplate cap (BCP-2, Inscopix) was left in place until imaging experiments.

Behavioral assays

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Conditioned place preference with food reward

The conditioned place preference behavior was motivated by previous work (Stern et al., 2018). It was conducted in a custom-built arena made of two-chambers: a rectangular shaped chamber (45*15 cm) and a triangular shaped chamber (45*30 cm) separated by a corridor (Fig. 1A). Chambers additionally differed based on the texture of the floor and pattern on the walls. The area size of the two chambers were identical. On the first day of the behavioral experiment, mice were allowed to explore the arena for 20 min. Preferences for the two chambers were measured and the least preferred one was chosen as the food-paired chamber (context +) for the rest of the paradigm. From then on, and until the end of the experiment, mice were singly housed and food restricted. They were weighed daily and supplied with necessary food to maintain at least 85% of their initial body weight. Conditioning was then conducted over four consecutive days. For this, mice were first sequestered in the neutral context for 15 min and then manually transferred to the positive context for 15 min in which they had access to a food pellet of approximately 1 g. The remaining food was weighed at the end of each conditioning session to determine food consumption. On the 5th and final day of the experiment, mice were allowed to freely navigate between the two chambers in the absence of food. The preference for the positive context was measured for a period of 10 min as a readout for contextual appetitive conditioning. For Ca²⁺ imaging experiments, mice were subjected to the same behavioral task and at the end of the 10 min recall session, we added a food pellet to the positive context and recorded the activity of CeA cells for another 10 min. We had previously performed pilot experiments with WT animals in which 3 groups of 5 mice were conditioned either for 2, 4, or 5 days and the preference of each group for the positive chamber was tested 24hr after the last conditioning day. We found that preference for the appetitive chamber

increased from 53.6% +/-1.3 to 71.9% +/-7.6 when we increased the conditioning from 2 to 4 days but did

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not increase further when performing the experiment for 5 conditioning days (PI = 61.7% +/- 5) (data not shown). We therefore chose to perform 4 days of conditioning because a preference of 70% for the foodpaired chamber would give us a perfect range to identify both increases and decreases in our optogenetic experiment. In our imaging experiment, we also needed animals that would move a lot between the two chambers and spend a sufficient amount of time in both contexts so that we could see both an increase in activity in the positive chamber and a decrease in activity in the neutral one. For the optogenetic experiments, PKCδ-eNpHR3.0, PKCδ-mCherry, Sst-eNpHR3.0 and Sst-mCherry mice bilaterally received constant 561-nm intracranial light (15 mv) either during the whole 30 min of the conditioning (both in the positive and neutral context) and during all 4 conditioning sessions, or during the whole recall session only. For this, mice were tethered to optic-fiber patch cables (Doric Lenses or Thorlabs) connected to a 561 nm CNI laser (Cobolt) via a rotary joint (Doric Lenses) and mating sleeve (Thorlabs). During habituation and recall, mice were free of the optic-fiber patch cables. Animals that did not explore both chambers at least once during recall were excluded. This includes 1 PKCδ-eNpHR3.0, 1 PKCδ-mCherry and 1 Sst-eNpHR3.0 animals used for the experiment in Fig. 1G-O and 1 PKCδ-eNpHR3.0, 1 Sst-mCherry and 2 Sst-eNpHR3.0 animals used for the experiment in Fig. 3. Open-field PKCδ-eNpHR3.0, PKCδ-mCherry, Sst-eNpHR3.0 and Sst-mCherry mice were allowed to explore a custombuilt Plexiglas arena (40 cm × 40 cm × 25 cm) for 10 min. During the experiment, mice bilaterally received constant 561-nm intracranial light through optic-fiber patch cords (Doric Lenses or Thorlabs) connected

to a 561 nm CNI laser (Cobolt) via a rotary joint (Doric Lenses) and mating sleeve (Thorlabs).

Real-time place preference (RTPP)

RTPP assays were carried out over two consecutive days. On the first day, PKCδ-eNpHR3.0 and PKCδ-mCherry mice were allowed to explore a custom-built arena made of two chambers (each: 25*25 cm) for 20 min. Mice received constant 561-nm intracranial light in one chamber, the photoinhibition-paired chamber. The laser was triggered on the basis of the location of the animal by using Ethovision XT 14 software (Noldus). On the next day, the experiment was repeated under the same conditions as on day one, except that the photoinhibition-paired chamber was switched.

Conditioned place preference without food reward

Conditioned place preference experiments without food reward were carried out in a similar manner as conditioned place preference experiments with food reward except that the inhibition of CeAPKC6 neurons was not paired with delivery of a food reward. Briefly, the experiment was conducted in a custom-built square arena (26.5 x 26.5 cm), divided in the middle by a wall with an opening to form two equally sized triangular compartments which the mice could freely navigate between. Chambers differed based on the texture of the floor. On the first day of the behavioral experiment, PKC6-eNpHR3.0 and PKC6-mCherry mice were allowed to freely explore the arena for 20 min. Preferences for the two chambers were measured and the least preferred one was chosen as the photoinhibition-paired chamber for the rest of the paradigm. Conditioning was then conducted over four consecutive days in which mice were sequestered for 15 min in each chamber but received constant 561-nm intracranial light only in the photoinhibition-paired chamber in the absence of food. On the 5th and final day of the experiment, mice were able to freely navigate between the two compartments and the preference for the photoinhibition-paired chamber was measured over a 20 min period.

In vivo Ca2+ imaging of freely moving mice

All imaging experiments were conducted on freely behaving mice PKCδ-GCaMP6s and Sst-GCaMP6s mice. GCaMP6s fluorescence signals were acquired using a miniature integrated fluorescence microscope system (nVoke - Inscopix). Before each imaging session, the miniscope was secured in the baseplate holder. Mice were habituated to the miniscope attachment procedure 3 days before behavioral experiments. The analog gain and LED output power were adjusted such that the best dynamic fluorescence signals were at the focal plane. Settings were kept constant within subjects and across imaging sessions. Imaging acquisition and behavior were synchronized using the data acquisition box of the nVoke Imaging System (Inscopix), triggered by the Ethovision XT 14 software (Noldus) through a TTL box (Noldus) connected to the USB-IO box from the Ethovision system (Noldus). Compressed images were obtained at 1200 pixels by 800 pixels and 10 frames per second using the Inscopix acquisition software (Inscopix). We recorded the activities of CeA neurons during habituation, on day 1 and day 3 of conditioning, and during recall. To minimize photo-bleaching, we limited the duration of acquisition to 3 times 2 min during habituation, 1 times 2 min during conditioning in the neutral context, and 3 times 2 min during conditioning in the positive context. Each recording bout was evenly spaced in time. On recall day, Ca²⁺ transients were recorded for the full 20 min of the behavioral experiment.

Histology

Animals that underwent behavioral experiments combined with optogenetic manipulations of CeA cells were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine (Medistar and Serumwerk) (100 mg/kg and 16 mg/kg, respectively) and transcardially perfused with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) (1004005, Merck) (w/v) in PBS. Extracted brains were postfixed at 4 °C in 4% PFA (w/v) in PBS for 12 h, embedded in 4% agarose (#01280, Biomol) (w/v) in PBS and sliced using a Vibratome (VT1000S - Leica) into 50 or 100-µm free-floating coronal sections.

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bout.

Mice that underwent calcium imaging experiments were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine (Medistar and Serumwerk) (100 mg/kg and 16 mg/kg, respectively) and decapitated. The head together with GRIN lens implant and baseplate, were fixed at 4 °C in 4% PFA (w/v) in PBS for a minimum of 4 days before dissection of the brain. Extracted brains were sliced using a Vibratome (VT1000S - Leica) into 100-µm freefloating coronal sections. Microscopy Epifluorescence images were obtained with an upright epifluorescence microscope (Zeiss) with 5×/0.15 or 10×/0.3 objectives (Zeiss). Images were minimally processed with ImageJ software (NIH) to adjust for brightness and contrast for optimal representation of the data. A median filter was used to decrease noise. Quantification and statistical analyses Extraction of behavioral data for the conditioned place preference assay with food reward In the conditioned place preference assay, the animal location was recorded at 15Hz using a webcam (Logitech) suspended above the arena and velocity as well as the preference index and number of entries to the positive context and the food zone were automatically analyzed by Ethovision XT 14 software (Noldus). For analysis of the calcium recordings, we could not directly score feeding bouts, since we only used a camera that was suspended above the arena. Therefore, we manually scored the amount of time when the animals were on top of the food and chose a criteria of 2.5s as a minimum time to define a feeding

| 235 | Extraction of behavioral data for the open-field task |
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| 236 | Animal location was recorded at 15Hz using a webcam (Logitech) suspended above the arena and the |
| 237 | number of entries to the center of the arena (20 cm × 20 cm square), cumulative duration in center, as |
| 238 | well as velocity were assessed with Ethovision XT 14 software (Noldus). |
| 239 | Extraction of behavioral data for the RTPP |
| 240 | Animal location was recorded at 15Hz using a webcam (Logitech) suspended above the arena and the |
| 241 | location of the animal as well as the velocity were assessed using Ethovision XT 14 (Noldus). Cumulative |
| 242 | duration in the photoinhibition-paired chamber was averaged across two sessions. |
| 243 | Extraction of behavioral data for the conditioned place preference assay without food reward |
| 244 | Animal location was recorded at 15Hz using a webcam (Logitech) suspended above the arena and the |
| 245 | preference index for the photoinhibition-paired chamber as well as the velocity were assessed using |
| 246 | Ethovision XT 14 (Noldus). |
| 247 | Extraction of $\Delta F/F$ and temporal registration with behavioral data |
| 248 | For imaging data processing and analysis, all videos recorded from one imaging session were combined |
| 249 | into a single image stack using the Inscopix data processing software (version 1.3.0 – Inscopix) and saved |
| 250 | as a tiff. Tiff files were then processed using the miniscope 1-photon imaging signal extraction pipeline |
| 251 | (MIN1PIPE) (Lu et al., 2018), which returns fully processed ROI components with spatial footprints and |
| 252 | temporal calcium traces as outputs. Briefly, the data go through different steps of neural enhancing, |
| 253 | hierarchical movement correction, and neural signal extraction that combine a first seeds-cleansing step |
| 254 | followed by a simplified spatiotemporal CNMF. Behavioral data were finally temporally aligned to the |
| 255 | calcium traces using linear interpolation and unix time stamps as references for both datasets. |

| 256 | Longitudinal registration of ROIs |
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| 257 | ROIs from several recording sessions were longitudinally registered using CellReg Matlab GUI (Sheintuch |
| 258 | et al., 2017) (https://github.com/zivlab/CellReg). In brief, the roifn output variable from the Min1pipe that |
| 259 | contains the processed vectorized ROI footprints for each session was transformed in Matlab using: |
| 260 | roi_use = permute(reshape(roifn, pixh, pixw, n), [3, 1, 2]), where n is the number of ROIs. |
| 261 | Transformed ROIs footprints were then registered using CellReg and the following parameters: alignment |
| 262 | type: translations and rotations (max rotation in degrees: 30). A maximal distance of 12 microns was used |
| 263 | to compute the probabilistic model. The initial and final cell registrations were performed using spatial |
| 264 | correlation models. The resulting cell_to_index_map file was used to identify identical ROIs between |
| 265 | different days, calculate the total number of recorded cells per animal, and the number of overlapping |
| 266 | neurons during the whole recording session. |
| 267 | Regressors and correlation analyses |
| 268 | Regressors were built as previously described (Miri et al., 2011). For this, the behavior of each mouse in |
| 269 | the positive context, food zone or 'on top of the food' (square-wave data sets) was convolved with a kernel |
| 270 | with an exponential decay based on the measured half-decay time for GCaMP6s (~0.150 s) (Chen et al., |
| 271 | 2013). The resulting predicted calcium traces were then used to compute Pearson's correlation |
| 272 | coefficients with the corresponding calcium traces. To classify neurons as 'neurons encoding appetitive |
| 273 | context', 'food responsive cells', or 'unresponsive in positive context', we examined which coefficients |
| 274 | rise above or below chance by correlating our fluorescent traces to 1000 random regressors that were |
| 275 | constructed after randomly shuffling the real behavioral dataset by bouts of 20s. We required a threshold |
| 276 | of 1.96 deviation from the standard error of the random coefficients mean (corresponding to the 95% |

confidence interval) to assign a cell to a particular functional group.

| Classification of neurons preferentially active in the positive context | |
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| To quantify which neurons were preferentially active in the positive context compared to the neut | ral one |
| during conditioning, $\Delta F/F$ transients were z-scored at each time point using the following formula | (F(t) – |
| Fm)/SD, where F(t) is the Δ F/F value at a time t, Fm, and SD are the mean and standard deviation | of the |
| baseline calculated from time point when the animals were in the neutral context. An average of the | single |
| z-scored time points was then calculated for when the animal was located in the positive context. N | eurons |
| were considered to be preferentially active in the positive context when the averaged z-scored | d value |
| exceeded the 1.96 threshold (corresponding to the 95% confidence interval). | |
| Decoding of positive and neutral context locations | |
| To decode the location of the mice in the positive or neutral context during recall, we used a | logistic |
| regression classifier. For decoder training and testing, we used neuronal Ca ²⁺ signals expressed a | s ΔF/F. |
| For each animal, classifiers were trained on 70% of the data during recall and tested on the ren | naining |
| 30%. We computed the prediction score as the average of correct predictions over a 10-fold | cross- |
| validation procedure. Correct predictions were defined as the ratio of TP / (TP + FP +FN) where TI | is the |
| number of true positives, FP the number of false positives and FN the number of false negatives. | |
| To evaluate the statistical significance of decoding performance, we trained logistic regression de | coders |
| on temporally shuffled behavioral data. For this, behavioral data were split into 7 sec bouts and rar | ndomly |
| shuffled. This was repeated 5 times. The shuffled prediction score was defined as the average of | correct |
| predictions of these 5 repetitions. | |
| Alignment of calcium responses to positive and neutral context entries | |
| Δ F/F transients were z-scored with the baseline calculated from time points when the animals were | e in the |
| | |

neutral context for alignment to positive context entries, or with the baseline calculated from time points

when the animals were in the positive context (for alignment to neutral context entries) (see formula above in: Classification of neurons preferentially active in the positive context). We omitted short bouts whose duration was below 2.5 sec to exclude epochs when the animals were only shortly going in and out of the corridor space without fully entering the context. Z-scored calcium responses of single neurons to context entry were then averaged in a time window from 3 s before transition to 4.5 s after. Cells were finally sorted in a descending order based on their activity response upon entry in the + context.

Heatmaps of the spatial Ca2+ activity

To plot a heatmap of the average spatial activity of one selected cell we used the raw $\Delta F/F$ data. The total activity in a specific x-y location was normalized to the total time the animal spent in that location. x-y data were discretized in 50 x 50 pixels.

Statistical analysis

No statistical methods were used to pre-determine sample sizes. The numbers of samples in each group were based on those used in previously published studies. Behavioral experiments were conducted by an investigator with knowledge of the animal genotype and treatment. For behavioral and *in vivo* imaging experiments, behavioral-tracking software and custom-written Python scripts were used to obtain and analyze the data in an automated and unbiased manner. Statistical analyses were performed with Prism 5 (GraphPad) and all statistics are indicated in the figure legends. t-tests were used for individual comparisons of normally distributed data. When normality was not assumed, Mann-Whitney U test and Wilcoxon signed-rank test (for paired observations) were performed for individual comparisons. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA or Friedman's test (as a non-parametric equivalent) was used for within-subject comparisons followed by Bonferroni post hoc analysis or Dunn's multiple comparison test. After the conclusion of experiments, virus-expression, optic-fiber and GRIN-lens placement were verified. Mice

with null virus expression as well as mice in which both optical fibers were wrongly located or at least more than 500 µm above the CeA were excluded from analysis.

Data and code availability

The datasets supporting the current study have not been deposited in a public repository but are available from the corresponding author on request. This study used custom-built Python 3.0 programmed scripts that are also available from the corresponding author upon request.

Results

Inhibition of CeA^{PKCδ} neurons impairs contextual appetitive conditioning

To assess the contributions of CeA subpopulations to the acquisition of contextual appetitive memories, we trained mice in conditioned place preference experiments to associate one chamber (positive context) of a two-chamber arena with a food reward (Fig. 1A). Following conditioning, we measured the amount of time the mice spent in the positive context in the absence of food as a readout for contextual appetitive learning. Typically, WT mice learned the task well, spending on average 71.9 +/- 7.2 % of their time in the positive context (Fig. 1B).

We focused on CeAPKCG and CeASst neurons, because they represent two non-overlapping populations of central amygdala cells, representing the majority of all neurons in this region (Kim et al., 2017), and, when studied in parallel, mediate antagonizing behaviors (Kim et al., 2017; Wilson et al., 2019; Kargl et al., 2020). We optogenetically inhibited either CeAPKCG or CeASst neurons during all conditioning sessions (in both the positive and the neutral contexts) by transducing the CeAs of *Prkcd-Cre* or *Sst-Cre* animals with Credependent halorhodopsin-expressing virus (eNpHR3.0-mCherry) and placing optic fibers bilaterally above the CeA (Fig. 1C-F). Control mice expressing mCherry behaved similarly to WT mice, although their

preference index (PI) after learning was slightly lower (61.4 +/- 2.9 % for PKCδ mCherry, and 69 +/- 5.1 %

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for Sst mCherry mice) (Fig. 1G-I). Silencing of CeA^{Sst} neurons did not alter behavior (Fig.1G-H). In contrast, CeAPKCO neuron-inhibited mice showed poor learning performance, lacking a preference for the positive context during recall (Fig. 1G,I). In addition, CeA^{PKCδ}, but not CeA^{Sst}, neuron-inhibited animals spent significantly less time in the food zone of the positive context (Fig. 1J-L), even though they visited it with the same frequency as control mice (Fig. 1M). Several other parameters that may have influenced the outcome of this learning paradigm were found to be similar between the experimental groups, including velocity during recall (Fig. 1N), the amount of food eaten during training (Fig. 10), and the degree of anxiety as measured by duration and entries to the center, as well as velocity, in an open field task (Fig. 1P-T). We further controlled whether inhibition of CeA^{PKCδ} neuron activity could lead to an assignment of negative or positive valence to both contexts in the absence of food, which could have interfered with the contextual appetitive conditioning. In a real time place preference assay (RTPP), we found that CeAPKCO neuron-inhibited mice exhibited neither a preference nor an aversion for the photoinhibition-paired chamber (Fig. 2A-E). We then performed similar conditioned place preference experiments as described in Fig. 1A but in the absence of a food reward while photoinhibiting CeA^{PKCδ} cells in one chamber over 4 conditioning days. When we tested the preference of the animals for the photoinhibition-paired chamber, we found that inhibition of CeA^{PKCδ} neurons alone without food, did not produce a conditioned place preference, nor an aversion for the photoinhibition-paired chamber (Fig. 2A-B and F-I) indicating that inhibition of these cell's activity alone did not participate in assigning a rewarding or an aversive signal. We next examined the roles of these two populations during memory retrieval or expression. We used the same tools as before (Fig. 1C) except this time, we selectively inhibited CeA^{PKCδ} or CeA^{Sst} cells only during the recall phase. Similar to inhibition of CeA neurons during the conditioning phase, we found that

inactivation of CeA^{PKCδ}, but not CeA^{Sst}, cells significantly decreased the preference of the animals for the

positive context compared to control mice (Fig. 3A-F), although the time spent in the food zone (Fig. 3G-I), as well as the frequency of visits (Fig. 3J) remained unchanged. Control parameters such as the velocity during recall (Fig. 3K), and amount of food eaten during training (Fig. 3L) were similar between groups. Overall, these results suggest that CeAPKCO neurons may play a role in forming and retrieving associations between contextual cues and food availability.

In vivo recordings of CeAPKC8 and CeASst neuron activity during appetitive conditioning

To understand how CeA^{PKCδ} and CeA^{Sst} neuron activity differentially contributes to this behavior, we expressed the GCaMP6s indicator in the CeA of PKCδ+ and Sst+ cells and recorded the dynamics of fluorescent signals using a miniscope during all phases of the task (Fig. 4A-C). Mice were subjected to the same behavioral task and at the end of the recall, a food pellet was added to the positive context to make sure that we could functionally tag 'food responsive' neurons.

We recorded the activities of 24–61 cells per mouse, (202 cells total) in 5 Prkcd-cre mice, and 14–60 cells per mouse, (149 cells total) in 5 Sst-cre animals (Fig. 4D). The numbers of active cells during training and recall were higher as compared to habituation day in both groups. Longer imaging time during training and especially recall may account for this difference. Alternatively, investigation and consumption of food may have recruited new sets of neurons (Fig. 4C, D). Using a ROIs alignment method (Sheintuch et al., 2017), we registered cell identities across imaging sessions. We found approximately 10 % of cells in common for all four recording days (Fig. 4E). When excluding the habituation day, the number of common cells increased to about 17% in both Cre lines (Fig. 4E), suggesting that neurons recorded during conditioning and recall may be functionally more similar than the ones initially active during habituation. Of 10 recorded mice, 3 per genotype showed a PI≥ 50% during recall which is lower than observed before (Fig. 4F). It is possible that the weight of the miniscope rendered movements more laborious and decreased performance. Nonetheless, 8 animals out of 10 increased their preference for the positive

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context after conditioning (Fig. 4F), spending on average 2.1 times longer in the food zone and visiting it 1.7 times more often compared to the other 3 corners of the arena (Fig. 4G-H). All together, these are good indications that those 8 animals learned the task.

We tested the Hebbian model of appetitive conditioning (D. O. Hebb, 1949; Brown et al., 1990; Sejnowski,

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1999) by investigating whether the positive context which represents multisensory information, could serve as a general predictor of food availability after learning. Or, in other words, could CeA neurons that fire during food intake acquire a specific response to the positive context after learning? Taking into account only the data of the 8 mice that learned the task (Fig. 4F-H), we convolved the positive context signal with the kinetics of the calcium indicator to create a regressor and correlated the activity of each CeA cell with the corresponding regressor across time (Miri et al., 2011). An example trace of a positive context regressor is shown at the bottom of Fig. 5K. We found that during habituation, the activities of all neurons showed little correlation to the positive context. Instead, during recall, the activities of both populations shifted toward positive correlations (Fig. 5A-B), suggesting that the representations of the positive chamber by CeAPKCO and CeASST neurons were transformed after learning. For each mouse, we randomly selected 70% of the data during recall to train a logistic regression classifier and asked whether, in the remaining dataset, the location of the mice in the positive context, could be accurately predicted based on CeAPKCO and CeASst population activity. In all mice tested, we could reliably decode the position of the animals in the positive chamber (70.7 ±4.7% for CeAPKC6 and 70 ±4.1% for CeASST recorded ensembles), while performances significantly dropped when the decoder was trained on temporally shuffled behavioral data (Fig. 5C), indicating that correct predictions were well above chance. We also found a decreased performance of 10% and 15%, respectively, when the classifier was tested on CeAPKCS and CeASst population activity that excluded the 4 most important features (defined here as the

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neurons showing the highest correlations to the positive context) (Fig. 5C). This suggests that at least a fraction of both populations encoded essential information about the location of the animal in the positive context. When we aligned the neuronal Ca2+ responses of each cell to the onset of the transitions from the neutral to the positive context and averaged the data, we found that a subset of both $CeA^{PKC\delta}$ and CeA^{Sst} neurons was activated upon transition to the positive context (Fig. 5D-E). During habituation, we could not identify a group of neurons whose activity reliably increased upon entry in the positive chamber, meaning that encoding of the appetitive context by CeA^{PKCδ} and CeA^{Sst} neurons arose after conditioning (Fig. 5D-E). These cells exhibited an area-biased activity that was specifically high when the mouse was in the appetitive context and preferentially within the food corner (Fig. 5F-G). Cells that displayed a significant correlation toward the positive context regressor accounted for about 14.5% of CeA^{PKCδ} and 8.7% of CeA^{sst} recorded cells during recall (Fig. 5H-I). Neurons encoding appetitive context were found in 4/4 Prkcd-cre analyzed mice and 3/4 analyzed Sst-Cre mice (Fig. 5-1A). Analysis of the $\Delta F/F$ traces revealed different patterns of activity within the positive context. Some neurons fired both upon entry to the positive chamber and investigation of the food zone (Fig. 5J,L, cells 4 and 6, Fig. 5K,M, cell 15). Some cells were active preferentially within the food zone (Fig. 5K,M, cell 11). Other non-memory neurons showed no preference for the positive context nor the food zone (Fig. 5J-M, cells 22 and 23). At this point, no differences were observed between neurons encoding appetitive context within the PKC δ and Sst populations. Again, using a regressor-based approach, we found that the activities of 60% of CeA^{PKCδ} and all CeA^{Sst} neurons encoding appetitive context were significantly upregulated during food consumption on the same recall day (Fig. 5N-O and Fig. 5-1A), demonstrating that a subset of these cells can be tagged as food responsive. We also looked at neurons that would be particularly unresponsive in the positive context (i.e significant negative correlation to the positive context regressor), and identified a total of 9 PKCδ+ and 7 Sst+

neurons. The activity of these neurons was however very weak, as only 6 of them showed a significantly

elevated activity in the neutral context (Fig. 5J-M, cells 17 and 21 and Fig. 5-1B). None of these 6 identified neurons nor any other recorded cells showed an increased activity upon transition to the neutral context (Fig. 5P-Q). Additionally, we trained the logistic regression classifier on the presence of the mice in the neutral context while omitting the neurons encoding appetitive context for each animal (Fig. 5H-I). By doing so, we found that performance of the decoder was low (41.2% +/-14.3% for Prkcd-cre, and 48.4% +/-19.5% for Sst-cre recorded mice) (Fig. 5R). This is a good indication that there may not be any other neurons (besides the neurons encoding appetitive context), whose activity can be used to predict the location of the animal in the neutral context.

We found no correlation between the number of neurons encoding appetitive context and the learning index (data not shown), but this could be an issue inherent to the behavioral task: while the 'poor learners' may associate only the precise location of the food zone with a rewarding outcome, the 'good learners' may associate the whole positive context or even the whole arena with food delivery. In the latter case, neurons encoding appetitive context may already fire when the animal recognizes the whole arena but we do not have the means to visualize them.

This hypothesis is supported by the fact that neurons encoding appetitive context, whose activity best represented the food zone, were found in mice that showed lower learning indices, demonstrated as a negative correlation between the average correlation of neurons encoding appetitive context to the food zone regressor and the PI of the mice (Fig. 5S). Additionally, when we compared the prediction scores of our logistic regression decoder with the PI of the mice, we found that decoding accuracy of the classifier decreased with learning performances (Fig. 5T). In other words, the classifier did not manage to find a good representation of the positive context in the neural activity of the 'best learners'. It is therefore possible that mice that learned best generalized the representation of the positive context to the whole arena.

Overall, these results suggest that contextual information associated with the positive context became predictive of food delivery after learning and support a model in which groups of $CeA^{PKC\delta}$ and CeA^{Sst} neurons encode contextual food cues in line with a Hebbian plasticity mechanism.

Differences in calcium activity patterns between CeA^{PKCδ} and CeA^{SST} neurons

Next, we took a step back and examined the activity profiles of all recorded neurons during conditioning, taking into consideration all 5 Prkcd-cre and 5 Sst-cre recorded animals (Fig. 4F). On day 1 and day 3 of training, we found that a large fraction of both CeA^{PKC δ} and CeA^{Sst} neurons strongly increased their activity, specifically when the mice were sequestered in the positive context when the food reward was present (Fig. 6A-B and 6C-D, cells A to F). These cells accounted for 30.9 \pm 10.3% of PKC δ and 31.1 \pm 7.3% of Sst recorded ensembles on day 1, and their proportion increased to 41.7 \pm 6.7% and 58.3 \pm 7.8%, respectively, on day 3 of conditioning (Fig. 6E).

For each cell, we calculated Pearson's correlations for their corresponding feeding regressor and accordingly classified neurons as activated by food consumption. Interestingly, we observed that CeA^{PKCδ} cells did not always fire systematically during each feeding bout (Fig. 6C). Conversely, CeA^{Sst} neurons increased their activities at the onset of a feeding bout, and more reliably for the next following ones (Fig. 6D). Supporting these observations, on day 1 and on day 3 of training, CeA^{Sst} neurons showed stronger positive correlation to the feeding regressor (Fig. 6F-G) compared to CeA^{PKCδ} cells, and the proportion of food responsive cells was higher among the CeA^{Sst} population (Fig. 6H). There was no difference in the fraction of PKCδ+ and Sst+ cells active in the positive context during training (Fig. 6E), suggesting that the activity of CeA^{PKCδ} cells may not directly relate to food consumption but rather to the salience of the food reward. This phenotype was not because Pkcd-Cre animals ate less than Sst-Cre, as there was no positive correlation between the amount of time spent eating and the proportion of food responsive cells on day 3 of training (Fig. 6I-J).

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We then tracked neurons over time to see whether they would maintain their food responsiveness over time and indeed, we found that the majority of cells that showed significant correlation to the feeding regressor on one conditioning day conserved their functional tag on the subsequent day (Fig. 6C-D, cells B, D, E and F, and Fig. 6K). Additionally, when tracking PKCδ+ and Sst+ cells that were classified as food responsive on recall, we found that 83% of PKCδ+ and Sst+ were also found food responsive on day 3, and 22% of PKCδ+ and 50% of Sst+ on day 1 (Fig. 6L-N). In comparison, the majority of non-food responsive neurons on recall day were classified non-responsive during the whole task (Fig. 6L-N). Most food responsive neurons were also significantly active in the positive context compared to the neutral one during all training sessions and were absent during habituation (Fig. 6C, cells B and C, Fig. 6D, cells D to F and Fig. 6M-O), together revealing their functional selectivity. When tracing back the origin of the PKC δ and Sst neurons encoding appetitive context (Fig. 5-1A) we identified two different scenarios: 1) When detected, cells were tagged as food responsive during each step of the whole paradigm and they were absent during habituation. This scenario includes 60% of the CeA^{PKCδ} and all CeA^{Sst} neurons encoding appetitive context. 2) Cells were either not food responsive or lost their 'food responsive' tag after conditioning. This includes 40% of the PKCδ neurons encoding appetitive context (found in 2 mice). These last findings suggest that during conditioning, CeASst cells whose activities show high positive correlation with food intake behavior may be important to link environmental information with the physical properties of the food. In contrast, CeA PKCδ neurons that are robustly activated upon food pellet delivery in the arena, but not reliably upon food consumption, might rather form associations between

environmental information and the salience of the food reward.

Discussion

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specialized cells.

Here, we used a conditioned place preference assay allowing us to identify neuronal correlates of appetitive memories as the animal freely moves toward the food. This is noticeably different from classical studies of associative learning that looks at neuronal activity shortly following exposure to a conditioned tone applied by the experimenter (Pare and Quirk, 2017). We found that two genetically distinct populations of CeA neurons (PKC δ + and Sst+ neurons), developed specific activity patterns for the chamber associated with the reward. Interestingly, only the activities of CeA^{PKCδ}, but not CeA^{Sst}, cells were required for the formation and early retrieval of a preference for the appetitive context, suggesting that these neurons encode a combination of sensory, reward and contextual information to support learning that a spatial location predicts food availability. CeAPKCO neurons were previously shown to inhibit appetitive behaviors in response to threats or aversive tastes, or in response to satiety (Cai et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2017). Moreover, CeAPKC6 neurons could be described as 'broadly aversive', since these cells also promote pain-related responses, and are linked to the expression of aversive memories (Haubensak et al., 2010; Cui et al., 2017; Wilson et al., 2019). Our findings, instead, suggest that CeAPKC6 cells may have functions that are more general and relate to a variety of stimuli. This is supported by findings from anesthesia neurons which show an 80% overlap with CeA^{PKCδ} neurons and attenuate (rather than promote) pain-related behavior (Hua et al., 2020). CeA^{Sst} neurons may also show multidimensional response properties, since these neurons relate to appetitive stimuli (Kim et al., 2017; Wilson et al., 2019), but also contribute to the generation of defensive behaviors (Li et al., 2013; Penzo et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2016). Although, these findings underscore the notion that molecularly distinct populations represent functionally specialized units, it remains possible that further subdivision of CeA populations using two or three genetic markers will reveal the presence of more

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How could CeA^{PKCδ} neurons mediate learning of contextual food cues?

Inhibition of $CeA^{PKC\delta}$ neurons during conditioning, did not affect the number of times an animal visited the precise location of the food zone, but rather the time spent within this area. This was consistent with our calcium imaging data showing that CeA neurons encoding appetitive context showed a significant increase in activity when the animal was either specifically in the food zone or in the positive context. We interpret these results such that the activity of CeA neurons may be relevant to encode a representation of the goal, i.e. reward associated with a particular location, rather than a representation of compass cues that would help the animal in its search for the food. In the animals that learned best, this memory may initially be linked to the location of the food zone and was then generalized to the positive context and ultimately to the whole arena. Inhibition of $CeA^{PKC\delta}$ neurons during recall also impaired the preference of the animals for the positive context, although the effect was weaker and the time spent within the food zone was unaffected. This suggests that CeAPKC6 cells may be involved in the early retrieval of appetitive memories but these memories may be gradually transferred to different brain regions over time (Do Monte et al., 2016). Although contextual memory traces were observed in subsets of both CeAPKC6 and CeASST neurons, our data uncovered differences between their activity patterns. We found for instance, that the proportion of neurons active during food intake was significantly higher among the CeA^{Sst} compared to the CeA^{PKC} population. We hypothesize that CeA^{sst} neurons encoding appetitive context may be essential to link a context or a sensory stimulus with the physical properties of food (e.g. taste, texture, etc), but preventing this association from forming does not prevent the animals from developing a preference for the foodpaired chamber. Conversely, CeAPKCS neurons encoding appetitive context may mediate the association of contextual stimuli with the general affective properties of food, a function that has been previously suggested for the CeA (Balleine and Killcross, 2006). Inhibiting the formation of these memories would

then impair an animal's ability to develop a preference for the location of the food reward. It is however

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important to mention here that our conclusions were drawn based on loss of function experiments of the entire population but with relevant neuronal activity patterns seen in only a subset of cells. Therefore it is possible that specific inhibition of memory neurons as opposed to whole PKCδ+ or Sst+ populations could lead to a different phenotype. Our data are nonetheless consistent with recent evidence that initially, before learning, CeA^{PKCδ} neurons are tuned to stimulus salience but after conditioning, they encode valence discrimination to select the appropriate defensive or appetitive responses (Kargl et al., 2020). Furthermore, CeA^{PKCS} neurons seem to be part of a bottom-up network that is necessary to relay reinforcement signals to higher order areas such as the insula cortex (Kargl et al., 2020) and the lateral amygdala (Yu et al., 2017), which ultimately feed back to the CeA to drive associative learning. In conclusion, our work reports specific activity patterns of CeA neurons that resemble contextual memory traces to appetitive stimuli. We propose that salience coding in PKCδ+ cells is integrated with sensory representations of the environment through Pavlovian learning mechanisms to drive correct behavioral choices during foraging. **Author Contributions** M.P and F.F designed experiments. M.P, F.F and LG performed experiments. M.P analyzed experiments. R.K supervised experiments. M.P and R.K wrote the manuscript. Funding Acquisition, R.K. References Balleine BW, Killcross S (2006) Parallel incentive processing: an integrated view of amygdala function. Trends Neurosci 29:272-279. Brown TH, Kairiss EW, Keenan CL (1990) Hebbian Synapses: Biophysical Mechanisms and Algorithms. Annu Rev Neurosci 13:475-511. Cai H, Haubensak W, Anthony TE, Anderson DJ (2014) Central amygdala PKC-δ+ neurons mediate the

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Figures and Legends

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Figure 1. Inhibition of CeAPKCS neurons during conditioning impairs contextual appetitive conditioning A, Place preference behavioral paradigm. B, Preference index (PI) for the positive contextf+ context before and after conditioning for WT animals (n = 5 mice). C, Optogenetic inhibition of CeA neurons. The CeA of Prkcd-Cre or Sst-Cre mice was transduced with a Cre-dependent AAV expressing eNpHR3.0-mCherry or mCherry alone. CeA neurons were photoinhibited in vivo with constant yellow light. D-E, Representative epifluorescent images of Prkcd-Cre (D) and Sst-Cre mice (E) injected in the CeL with an AAV-DIOeNPHR3.0-mCherry (D_1 and E_1) or AAV-DIO-mCherry (D_2 and E_2) and showing the location of the optic fiber tract (in yellow). Scale bars: 100 μm. F Approximate optic fiber locations for each animal and expression spread. Locations are shown on schematic coronal section planes with distances (anterior-posterior axis) from bregma. G, PI for the food-paired chamber (+ context) during recall after inhibition of CeA neurons during conditioning (Mann-Whitney U test, for PKC δ group comparison: U = 1, P = 0.0021 and for Sst group comparison: U = 29, P = 0.7927). H-I, PI for the food-paired chamber before and after conditioning for CeA^{Sst} (H) and CeA^{PKC6} neuron-inhibited animals (I), and respective control mice. J-K, Representative heat maps of the behavior of individual PKCδ-eNpHR3.0 and PKCδ-mCherry mice during recall. Green represents the minimum and purple the maximum per-pixel frequency. L, Number of visits to the food zone during recall (two-tailed unpaired t-test, for PKCδ group comparison: t(13) = 0.5618, P = 0.5838 and for Sst group comparison: t(14) = 1.772, P = 0.0982). M, PI for the food zone during recall (Mann-Whitney U test, for PKC δ group comparison: U = 10.5, P = 0.0489 and for Sst group comparison: U = 14, P = 0.0650). N, Velocity during recall (two-tailed unpaired t-test, for PKCδ group comparison: t(13) = 0.6142, P = 0.5497 and for Sst group comparison: t(14) = 0.7520, P = 0.4645). O, Cumulative amount of food eaten during the four training days (two-tailed unpaired t-test, for PKC δ group comparison: t(13) = 0.3398, P = 0.7394 and for Sst group comparison: t(14) = 1.141, P = 0.2730). **P-Q**, Representative traces (in red) of the behavior of PKC δ -eNpHR3.0 (P₁), PKC δ -mCherry (P₂), Sst-eNpHR3.0 (Q₁) and Sst-mCherry mice (Q₂) during the

openfield task. The yellow square represents the center. $\it R$, Cumulative duration in center during the openfield task (Mann-Whitney U test, for PKC δ group comparison: U = 33, P = 0.8096 and for Sst group comparison: U = 25.5, P = 0.8168). $\it S$, Number of visits to the center during the openfield task (two-tailed unpaired t-test, for PKC δ group comparison: t(15) = 1.033, P = 0.3181 and for Sst group comparison: t(13) = 0.3481, P = 0.7334). $\it T$, Velocity during the openfield task (two-tailed unpaired t-test, for PKC δ group comparison: t(15) = 0.6166, P = 0.5467 and for Sst group comparison: t(13) = 1.348, P = 0.2006). (For panels G-O, n = 8 PKC δ -eNpHR3.0 and 7 PKC δ -mCherry mice and n = 8 Sst-eNpHR3.0 and n = 8 Sst-mCherry mice and for panels P-T, n = 9 PKC δ -eNpHR3.0 and 8 PKC δ mCherry mice and n = 7 Sst-eNpHR3.0 and n = 8 Sst-mCherry mice). Bar graphs show mean +/- s.e.m, each dot is the quantification of a single animal; ns, not significant, *P < 0.05, **P < 0. 01. CeC/L: central capsular and central lateral amygdala; BLa: basolateral amygdala; CeM: central medial amygdala.

Figure 2. Inhibition of CeA^{PKCδ} neurons does not result in assigning a rewarding or an aversive signal.

A, Representative epifluorescent images of Prkcd-Cre mice injected in the CeL with an AAV-DIO-eNPHR3.0-mCherry (A₁) or AAV-DIO-mCherry (A₂) and showing the location of the optic fiber tract (in yellow). Scale bars: 100 μm. *B*, Approximate optic fiber locations for each animal and expression spread. Locations are shown on schematic coronal section planes with distances (anterior-posterior axis) from bregma. **C**, Representative traces of the behavior of PKCδ-eNpHR3.0 (C₁) and PKCδ-mCherry (C₂) during the RTPP task. **D**, Cumulative duration in the photoinhibition-paired side during the RTPP assay (Mann-Whitney U test, U = 6.0, P = 0.2222). **E**, Velocity during RTPP (two-tailed unpaired t-test: t(9) = 0.1112, P = 0.9139). **F**, Representative traces of the behavior of PKCδ-eNpHR3.0 (F₁) and PKCδ-mCherry (F₂) during the CPP without food task. **G**, PI for the photoinhibition-paired chamber during recall after inhibition of CeA neurons during conditioning and in the absence of food (Mann-Whitney U test: U = 11, P = 0.5368). **H**, PI for the photoinhibition-paired chamber before and after conditioning for CeA^{PKCδ} neuron-inhibited animals and respective control mice. (n = 5 PKCδ-eNpHR3.0 and 6 PKCδ-mCherry). **E**, Velocity during CPP without food (two-tailed unpaired t-test: t(9) = 1.350, P = 0.2099). Bar graphs show mean +/- s.e.m and each dot is the quantification of a single animal; ns, not significant. CeC/L: central capsular and central lateral amygdala; BLa: basolateral amygdala; CeM: central medial amygdala.

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Figure 3. Inhibition of CeA PKCS neurons during recall impairs contextual appetitive conditioning A-B, Representative epifluorescent images of Prkcd-Cre (A) and Sst-Cre mice (B) injected in the CeL with an AAV-DIO-eNPHR3.0-mCherry (A1 and B1) or AAV-DIO-mCherry (A2 and B2) and showing the location of the optic fiber tract (in yellow). Scale bars: 100 μm. C Approximate optic fiber locations for each animal and expression spread. Locations are shown on schematic coronal section planes with distances (anteriorposterior axis) from bregma. D, PI for the food-paired chamber (+ context) during recall while inhibiting CeA neurons during recall only (Mann-Whitney U test, for PKCδ group comparison: U = 19.5, P = 0.0250 and for Sst group comparison: U = 49, P = 0.7491). E-F, PI for the + context before and after conditioning for CeA^{sst} (E), CeA^{PKC6} neuron-inhibited animals (F), and respective control mice. **G-H**, Representative heat maps of the behavior of individual PKCδ-eNpHR3.0 and PKCδ-mCherry mice during recall. Green represents the minimum and purple the maximum per-pixel frequency. I, PI for the food zone during recall (Mann-Whitney U test, for PKCδ group comparison: U = 40.0, P = 0.4941 and for Sst group comparison: U = 27, P = 0.0597). J, Number of visits to the food zone during recall (two-tailed unpaired t-test, for PKCδ group comparison: t(18) = 0.2447, P = 0.8094 and for Sst group comparison: t(20) = 0.3566, P = 0.7251). K, Velocity during recall (two-tailed unpaired t-test, for PKC δ group comparison: t(18) = 0.8922, P = 0.3840 and for Sst group comparison: t(19) = 1.707, P = 0.1041). L, Cumulative amount of food eaten during the four training days (two-tailed unpaired t-test, for PKC δ group comparison: t(18) = 0.7204, P = 0.4806 and for Sst group comparison: t(14) = 0.7520, P = 0.0686). ($n = 11 \text{ PKC}\delta$ -eNpHR3.0 and 9 PKC δ -mCherry mice and n = 12 Sst-eNpHR3.0 and n = 9 Sst-mCherry mice). Bar graphs show mean +/- s.e.m, each dot is the quantification of a single animal; ns, not significant, *P < 0.05. CeC/L: central capsular and central lateral amygdala; BLa: basolateral amygdala; CeM: central medial amygdala.

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Figure 4. In vivo calcium imaging of CeA^{PKCδ} and CeA^{SST} neurons

A, Calcium imaging of CeA^{PKCδ} and CeA^{Sst} neurons via miniscope in freely moving mice. B, Representative epifluorescent images of Prkcd-Cre (B1) and Sst-Cre mice (B2) injected in the CeL with an AAV-DIO-GCamp6s-eYFP and showing the location of the GRIN lens tract (in yellow). Scale bars: 100 μm. C, Maximum-projection images of PKCδ+ GCaMP6s-expressing neurons from a representative mouse recorded during habituation (C_1) , first (C_2) and third (C_3) days of training, as well as recall (C_4) . Corresponding region-of-interests (ROIs) are depicted below each panel. ROIs identified over consecutive sessions are shown in identical color. ROIs detected only in one session are shown in white. Blue arrowheads indicate neurons that appeared for the first time on day 1 of conditioning. Yellow arrowheads indicate neurons that are common between at least 2 out of 3 days of conditioning and recall and are not visible on habituation. D, Numbers of detected ROIs during all four sessions (One-way repeated measures ANOVA, for PKC δ group comparisons: time point, F(3,4) = 2.16, P = 0.1458 and for Sst group comparisons: time point, F(3,4) = 3.98, P = 0.0351). E, Percentage of ROIs per Prkcd-Cre and Sst-Cre mouse that overlapped in all four recording sessions or from day 1 of conditioning to recall (Wilcoxon signed-rank test, for PKC δ comparison: P=0.125, and for Sst group comparison: P = 0.25). F, PI for the + context before and after conditioning for both PKCδ- and Sst-GCaMP6s recorded mice. Data points shown as crossed circles represent mice that did not show an increase in learning after conditioning. G, Cumulative duration in food zone compared to the averaged cumulative duration in the other three corners for the 4 PKCδand 4 Sst-GCaMP6s mice that are considered to have learned the task (see Fig. 4F). Similar symbols represent the same mice. H, Frequency of visits to the food zone compared to the averaged frequency of visits in the other three corners for the 4 PKCδ- and 4 Sst-GCaMP6s recorded mice that are considered to have learned the task (see Fig. 4F). Similar symbols represent the same mice. (n = 5 PKC δ -GCaMP δ s and n = 5 Sst-GCaMP6s recorded animals). Bar graphs show mean +/- s.e.m, each dot is the quantification of a single animal. ns, not significant.

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Figure 5. Central amygdala encoding of Pavlovian appetitive learning

A-B, Frequency distribution of Pearson's correlation to the positive context regressor in PKC δ (A) and SST (B) calcium recorded neurons during habituation and recall. C, Prediction scores of the locations of Prkcd-Cre (purple) and Sst-Cre (yellow) calcium recorded animals in the positive context during recall, after temporally shuffling of behavioral data (shuffled) and after excluding 4 neurons per animal that exhibited the highest correlation value to the positive context regressor (recall -) (Friedman test, for PKCδ group comparisons: F=9.9, P=0.0062 with Dunn's Multiple Comparison Test and for Sst group comparisons: F = 9.3, P = 0.0115 with Dunn's Multiple Comparison Test, *P < 0.05). D-E, Heatmaps of average z-scored calcium responses of PKCδ (D) and SST (E) recorded neurons following entry to the positive context (at 0 sec) during recall (D1 and E1) and during habituation (D2 and E2). Cells were sorted in descending order based on their activity response upon entry in the + context (entries to the + context varied from 6 to 14 times depending on the mice) (n = 75 PKC δ + and 50 Sst+ neurons). **F**-G, Heatmaps of the Δ F/F signal across the whole arena for one representative PKCδ (F) and Sst (G) neuron encoding appetitive context. Green represents the minimum and purple the maximum per-pixel frequency (see also Fig. 5-1A). H-I, Fraction of CeA neurons encoding appetitive context in Prkcd-cre (H) and Sst-cre (I) recorded animals during recall. **J-K**, Representative Ca²⁺ traces (from 7 mice) of PKC δ (J) and Sst (K) recorded neurons during recall. The trace in beige at the bottom of K represents the convolved GCaMP6s regressor for the positive context of cell 21 (see also Fig. 5-1A). Values indicate the Pearson's coefficients of each cell to its corresponding positive context regressor. Values in green indicate a significant negative correlation. Each ΔF/F trace was normalized to its maximum value. L-M, Average traces of the corresponding PKCδ (L) and Sst (M) neurons shown on the left following entry to the positive context (at 0 sec). Cells 4, 6, 15 and 11 are 4 representative neurons encoding the appetitive context after learning. Cells 22 and 23 are non-memory cells, cells 17 and 21 are neurons whose activity is negatively correlated to the positive context. Shaded areas represent s.e.m. N-O, Ca2+ signals of the corresponding PKCδ (N) and Sst (O) neurons shown in

figure J-K upon introduction of a food pellet in the food zone (dotted line) at the end of the place preference assay. Values indicate the Pearson's coefficients of each cell to its corresponding feeding bouts regressor. Values in red indicate a significant correlation. Each $\Delta F/F$ trace was normalized to its maximum value. P-Q, Heatmap of averaged z-scored calcium responses of PKC δ (P) and SST (Q) recorded neurons following entry to the neutral context (- context at 0 sec). $\Delta F/F$ transients were z-scored with the baseline calculated from time points when the animals were in the positive context. Cells were sorted in descending order based on their activity response upon entry in the - context (n = 75 PKC δ + and 50 Sst+neurons). R, Prediction scores of the locations of Prkcd-Cre (purple) and Sst-Cre (yellow) calcium recorded animals in the neutral context during recall. S, Preference index (PI) in the positive context on recall day as a function of the averaged value of all Pearson's correlation coefficients to the food zone regressor for all identified neurons encoding appetitive context in a given mouse. Each dot represents a single Prkcd-Cre (purple) or Sst-Cre (yellow) animal. Values shown are R^2 . T, Prediction score of the logistic regression classifier as a function of the PI of the animal on recall day. Each dot represents a single Prkcd-Cre (purple) or Sst-Cre (yellow) animal. Values shown are R^2 . (n = 4 PKC δ - and 4 Sst-GCaMP δ s recorded animals). Bar graphs show mean +/- s.e.m and each dot represents a single animal. ns, not significant, *P < 0.05.

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Figure 6. Differences in calcium activity patterns between CeA PKCδ and CeASST neurons

A-B, Maximum-projection representative images of PKC δ + (A) and Sst+ (B) GCaMP δ -expressing neurons during day 3 of conditioning in the neutral (A_1 and B_1) and in the positive context (A_2 and B_2). **C-D**, Representative Ca^{2+} traces (from 6 mice) of PKC δ (C) and Sst (D) recorded neurons during habituation, day 1, day 3 of conditioning, and recall with food. Colored boxes indicate the location of the mouse in the corridor (grey) or on top of the food (green). The values indicate the Pearson's coefficients of each cell to its corresponding feeding bouts regressor. Values in red indicate a significant correlation. Each $\Delta F/F$ trace was normalized to its maximum value. E, Proportion of neurons per mouse that are significantly active in + context compared to - context on days 1 and 3 of conditioning. (Mann-Whitney U test between PKCδ and Sst on day1, U = 11, P = 0.8413 and on day3, U = 6, P = 0.2045). F-G, Frequency distribution of Pearson's correlations to the feeding bouts regressor in all PKCδ and SST recorded neurons during day 1 (F) and day 3 (G) of conditioning. H, Proportion of neurons per mouse that are food responsive on day 1, day 3 of conditioning, and recall. (Mann-Whitney U test between PKCδ and Sst on day1, U = 10, P = 0.6723, on day3, U = 2, P = 0.0362 and on recall, U = 4, P = 0.0952). I, Time spent eating during day 3 for PKC δ - and Sst-GCaMP6s recorded mice (two-tailed unpaired t-test t(8) = 2.242, P = 0.552). J, Proportion of food responsive PKC δ + and SST+ cells as a function of the time spent eating on day 3 of conditioning. K, Heatmaps of Pearson's correlations to the feeding bouts regressor for PKCδ (K₁) and SST (K₂) neurons that were classified as food responsive on at least one of the recorded days. White represents neurons that were not detected during a recording session. Blue represents no significant correlations, so non-food responsive cells. Strong correlation values are represented in dark red. Arrows indicate neurons that were classified as food responsive on one day and lost their functional tag on the following one. (n = 40 PKC δ + and 39 SST+ neurons). L, Fraction of food responsive (solid lines) and non-food responsive cells (dotted lines) detected during recall that are tagged as food responsive on day 3 and 1 of conditioning and present during habituation. M-N, Food responsive PKCδ+ (purple lines, M) and Sst+ cells (yellow lines, N) as well

| as non-food responsive cells (gray lines) detected during recall and traced back to day 3 and day 1 of |
|--|
| conditioning and habituation. Each line represents a cell and its correlation value to the feeding regressor |
| on recall, day 3 and day 1 of conditioning, as well as whether it was present or not during habituation. |
| Values above 0.25 represent a significant positive correlation to the feeding regressor (n = 92 PKC δ + and |
| 59 SST+ neurons). 0 , Proportion of food responsive PKC δ + and SST+ neurons that were active during |
| habituation and that were significantly active in the - context or the + context during day 1 and day 3 of |
| conditioning (n = 40 PKC δ + and 39 SST+ neurons). (n = 5 PKC δ - and 5 Sst-GCaMP6s recorded animals). Bar |
| graphs show mean +/- s.e.m, each dot represents a single animal. ns, not significant,*P < 0.05. |

Extended data and legends

Figure 5-1.

A, Ca^{2+} traces of all PKC δ and Sst identified neurons encoding appetitive context during each step of the conditioning paradigm (A_1). Values during recall indicate the Pearson's coefficients of each cell to its corresponding positive context regressor. Values during day 1, day 3, and recall with food indicate the Pearson's coefficients of each cell to its corresponding feeding bouts regressor. Values in red indicate a significant correlation. Each $\Delta F/F$ trace was normalized to its maximum value. A_2 , Heatmaps of the $\Delta F/F$ signal across the whole arena. Green represents the minimum and purple the maximum per-pixel frequency. B, Ca^{2+} traces of the 6 identified PKC δ and Sst cells that show both a significant negative correlation to the positive context regressor and a significant positive correlation to the neutral context regressor (B_1). Values during recall indicate the Pearson's coefficients of each cell to its corresponding positive context regressor. Values in green indicate a significant negative correlation. Values during day 1, day 3, and recall with food indicate the Pearson's coefficients of each cell to its corresponding feeding bouts regressor. Values in red indicate a significant positive correlation. Each $\Delta F/F$ trace was normalized to its maximum value. B_2 Heatmaps of the $\Delta F/F$ signal across the whole arena. Green represents the minimum and purple the maximum per-pixel frequency.

Figure 1

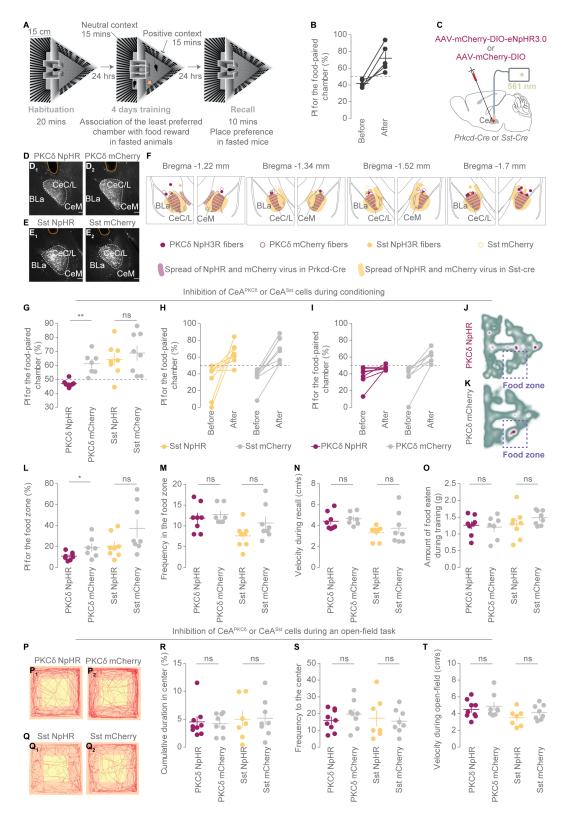


Figure 2

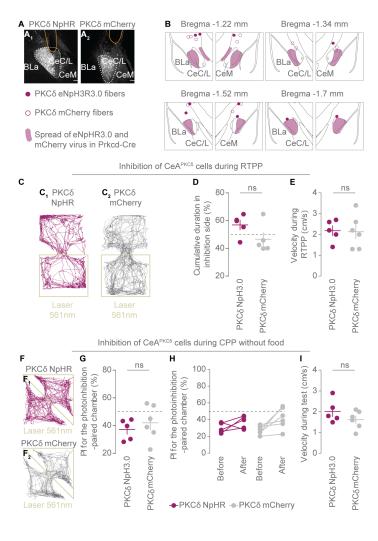


Figure 3

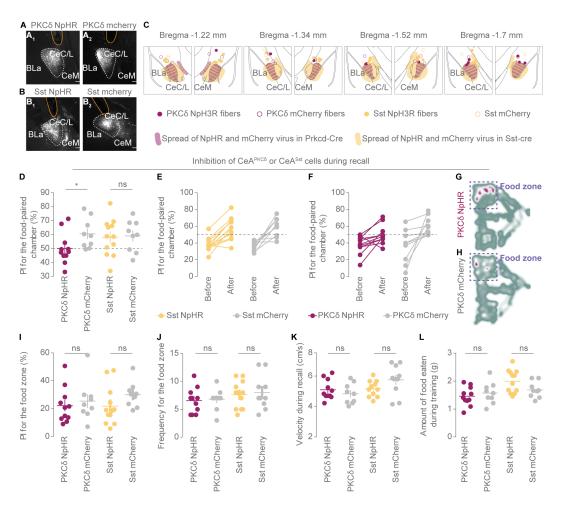


Figure 4

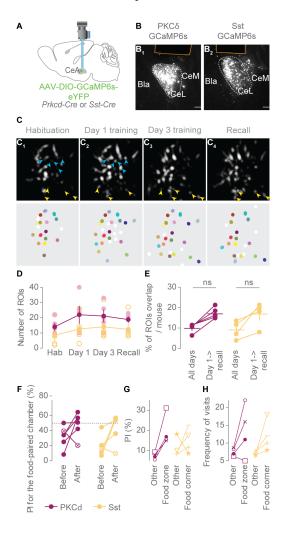


Figure 5

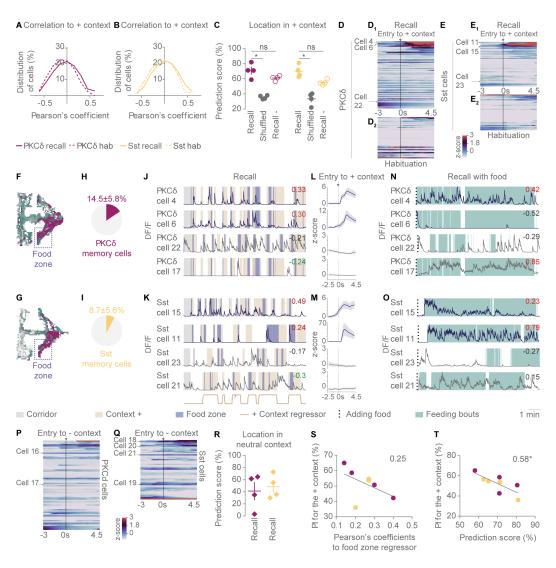


Figure 6

