

Projections from thalamic nucleus reuniens to medial septum enable extinction of remote fear memory

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Aversive experiences lead to the formation of long-lasting memories. Despite the need to better understand how enduring fear memories can be attenuated, the underlying brain circuits remain largely unknown. In this study, employing a combination of genetic manipulations, neuronal circuit mapping, and chemogenetics in mice, we identify a new projection from the thalamic nucleus reuniens (RE) to the medial septum (MS), and show that this circuit is involved in the extinction of remote (30-day old), but not recent (1-day old), fear memories. We also demonstrate that the activity of this circuit, as well as consolidation of remote extinction memory, require autophosphorylation of α CaMKII, a key signaling molecule in the excitatory synapses. Our findings provide the first functional description of the RE–MS circuit and highlight the significance of the thalamo-septal regions in memory organization as a function of memory age, a phenomenon known as systems consolidation.

Key words: nucleus reuniens, medial septum, fear extinction, remote memory, systems consolidation, thalamo-septal circuit, α CaMKII autophosphorylation

INTRODUCTION

The distinction between dangerous and safe contexts, as well as the ability to update such information in a changing environment is crucial for animal survival, as mistakes can have costly consequences. Impairments in context-dependent behaviors have been associated with pathological conditions including post-traumatic stress disorder, schizophrenia, and substance abuse disorders (Maren et al., 2013; Garfinckel et al., 2014; Lissek et al., 2014; Grodin et al., 2018). Therefore, understanding the molecular and cellular mechanisms that underlie the updating of contextual memories is vital for developing new therapeutic approaches (Myers & Davis, 2002; Maren & Quirk, 2004; Ji & Maren, 2007).

Contextual fear conditioning (CFC) represents a method to study contextual memories in laboratory animals (Maren et al., 2013). In this approach, a spatial

context, the conditioned stimulus (CS), is repetitively paired with an aversive unconditioned stimulus (US), such as a mild electric shock. The observable freezing behavior serves as a measurable indicator of contextual fear memory. As exposure to the CS persists without the US, freezing behavior typically diminishes, accompanied by increased exploratory behavior. This process, known as fear extinction, unfolds as animals gradually recognize that the context no longer predicts impending shocks. To facilitate extinction, mice must actively retrieve and revise contextual memories, necessitating the presence of specific brain mechanisms. The “classic” neuronal circuit of contextual fear extinction includes medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC), amygdala, and hippocampus (Orsini & Maren, 2012; Maren et al., 2013). However, the brain regions that contribute to memory recall may vary with memory age. In particular, memories for events initially depend upon the hippocampus, with time these memories become increasingly

dependent upon the cortex for their expression (Buzsáki, 1996; Kitamura et al., 2017; Tonegawa et al., 2018). Post-learning communication between the hippocampus and cortex, via the thalamus, is thought to drive this time-dependent reorganization process called systems consolidation (Simons & Spiers, 2003; Frankland & Bontempi, 2005; Moscovitch et al., 2006; Ji & Maren, 2007; Preston & Eichenbaum, 2013; Wheeler et al., 2013; Tanaka et al., 2014; Vetere et al., 2021). This indicates that the extinction of remote memories may similarly rely on a re-distributed network, likely requiring additional players to the canonical extinction-mediating pathways of recent memories.

Here, we used c-Fos immunostaining to study neuronal correlates of recent (1 day) and remote (30 days) memory extinction. The analysis revealed a number of regions hyperactivated during extinction of remote memory, including cortical, thalamic, hippocampal and amygdalar areas. While the contributions of hippocampal and cortical regions to fear extinction have been studied in detail, much less is known about how thalamic regions contribute to this memory reorganization process at different post-encoding delays. Accordingly, we focus here on the thalamic nucleus reuniens (RE) and medial septum (MS). We identified projections from RE to MS (RE→MS) and showed that RE, MS and the RE→MS pathway are necessary for extinction of the remote, but not recent, contextual fear memory. Previous studies identified RE projections to the CA1 area that are involved in extinction of recent contextual fear memory (Ratigan et al., 2023; Totty et al., 2023; Ziółkowska et al., 2025) and RE projections to the basolateral nucleus of the amygdala (BLA) to be involved in extinction of remote fear memories (Silva et al., 2021). Current results indicate a novel thalamo-septal pathway that is specifically engaged in the updating of remote memories. Our discoveries suggest that, akin to memory consolidation, the brain circuits involved in fear extinction undergo a spatial reorganization over time.

Calcium and calmodulin-dependent kinase II (CaMKII) is one of the key synaptic molecules that contributes not only to formation and updating of recent contextual memories but also to systems consolidation of remote memories (Giese et al., 1998; Frankland et al., 2001; Kimura et al., 2008; Radwanska et al., 2011, 2015; Wheeler et al., 2013). In particular, knock-in mice with a targeted Threonine 286 mutation to Alanine (T286A), that prevents the autophosphorylation of α CaMKII, have impaired formation and extinction of contextual memories (Giese et al., 1998; Irvine et al., 2005, 2006; Kimura et al., 2008; Radwanska et al., 2011, 2015), while heterozygous α CaMKII knock-out mice (α CaMKII^{-/-}) have spared recent memory but severely impaired its

long-term (>10 days) retention (Frankland et al., 2001). Here, we tested the effect of heterozygous T286A mutation (T286A^{+/-}) on extinction of recent and remote contextual fear memory. As T286A^{+/-} mutant mice showed impaired extinction of remote, but not recent, contextual fear memory, we used c-Fos immunostaining in this mouse model to study neuronal correlates of remote memory impairment. The analysis revealed that both MS and RE were hyperactivated and their activity was decorelated in the heterozygotes specifically during extinction of remote memory. Hence, our data additionally indicate that the autophosphorylation of α CaMKII regulates neuronal network reorganisation that is necessary for consolidation of remote extinction memory.

METHODS

Animals

T286A^{+/-} and WT mice were obtained from crossing heterozygous α CaMKII autophosphorylation-deficient mutant mice (α CaMKII-T286A^{+/-}) (Giese et al., 1998) and heterozygotes of Thy1-GFP(M) line (Thy1-GFP^{+/-}) (Feng et al., 2000) at the Nencki Institute animal house, and genotyped as previously described (Giese et al., 1998; Feng et al., 2000). Homozygous Ai14 mice were genotyped as previously described (Madisen et al., 2010) and crossed with C57BL/6J animals. Heterozygotes were used in the experiment. C57BL/6J male mice were purchased from the Medical University of Białystok, Poland. Mice were 10 weeks-old at the beginning of the training. The animals were maintained on a 12 h light/dark cycle with food and water *ad libitum*. Mice were housed in standard home cages (dimensions: 267 × 207 × 140 mm), 4-6 mice per cage. After stereotactic surgeries mice were housed individually (cage dimensions: 369 × 156 × 132 mm) for 3 days and afterwards they were moved back to group cages. Behavioral experiments were conducted in the light phase of the cycle. Naive/control animals (same age and lines as experimental mice) were group housed 4-6 animals per cage. All procedures conducted in the study were approved by the 1st Local Ethical Committee, Warsaw, Poland (permission number: 261/2012 and 529/2018).

Contextual fear conditioning (CFC)

Mice were trained in a conditioning chamber located in a soundproof box (Med Associates Inc., St. Albans, VT, USA). The chamber floor had a stainless steel grid for shock delivery. Before and after each training ses-

sion, chambers were cleaned with 70% ethanol, and paper towels soaked in ethanol were placed under the grid floor. A video camera was fixed inside the door of the sound attenuating box, for the behavior to be recorded. Freezing behavior (defined as complete lack of movement, except respiration) and locomotor activity of mice were automatically scored with VideoFreeze Software (Med Associates Inc.). The experimenters were blind to the experimental groups.

On the day of CFC, mice were brought to the conditioning room 30 minutes before the training. Animals were placed in the chamber, and after a 148-second introductory period, a foot shock (2 seconds, 0.70 mA) (US) was presented. The shock was repeated five times, with intertrial interval of 90 seconds. Thirty seconds after the last shock, mice were returned to the home cage. Mice of the 5US groups were sacrificed 24 hours after the initial training. For the extinction of contextual fear, mice were re-exposing to the conditioning chamber without US presentation for 20 (WT and T286A^{-/-} animals) or 30 minutes (C57BL/6J mice) either 1 or 30 days after the training (extinction of recent and remote memory, respectively). WT and T286A^{-/-} mice from the Extinction groups were sacrificed 70 minutes after the extinction session. To test the efficiency of extinction, mice were re-exposed to the training context 24 hours after the extinction session for an additional 5 minutes. The differences in the length of the extinction session used for T286A^{-/-} animals and C57BL/6J mice resulted from the fact that while for the WT/T286A^{-/-} mice a 20 minute-long extinction session efficiently decreased freezing during the test, we did not see such effect for the C57BL/6J mice. Accordingly, we had to adjust the extinction protocol for these mice.

CNO administration

For intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections, Clozapine N-Oxide (CNO) was dissolved in 0.9% saline. If not stated otherwise, CNO (3 mg/kg) was injected 30 minutes prior to the contextual fear memory extinction session.

c-Fos immunoreactivity

The mice were anesthetized with a mixture of Ketamine/Xylazine (90 mg/kg and 7.5 mg/kg respectively, (i.p.) Biowet Puławy) and next sedated with sodium pentobarbital (50 mg/kg intraperitoneal (i.p.) and perfused transcardially with 20 ml of PBS (Phosphate-buffered saline; POCH, Poland), followed by 50 ml of 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; Sigma-Aldrich, Poland) in 0.1 M PBS, pH 7.5. Brains were stored in the same solution for 24 h at 4°C. Next, the brains were transferred to the solu-

tion of 30% sucrose in 0.1 M PBS (pH 7.5) and stored at 4°C for 72 h. Brains were frozen at -20°C and coronal sections (40 µm) cut in the frontal plane on a cryostat microtome (YD-1900, Leica). Coronal slices were stored in -20°C in PBSAF (PBS, 15% sucrose, 30% ethylene glycol, 0.05% NaN₃). Every sixth section through the whole brain was used for immunostaining. Sections were washed three times for 6 min in PBS, followed by incubation in blocking solution (5% NDS, Merck S30-M; 0.3% Triton X-100; Sigma Aldrich) in PBS for 2 h at room temperature (RT). Next, sections were incubated with c-Fos polyclonal antibody (sc-52; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, 1: 1000) for 12 h in 37°C, washed three times in PBST (0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS) and incubated with secondary antibody (1: 500) conjugated with Alexa Fluor-594 (Invitrogen A-11062) for 2 h at room temperature. After incubation with the secondary antibody sections were washed three times for 6 min in PBS and mounted on microscopic slides covered with mounting dye with DAPI (Invitrogen, 00-4959-52).

c-Fos quantification

c-Fos immunostaining was imaged under a confocal microscope (Leica TCS SP5; objective 10×) and fluorescent microscope (Olympus VS120; objective 10×). Cells were considered positive for c-Fos immunoreactivity if the nucleus had an area ranging from 5 to 160 µm², and was significantly distinct from the background. c-Fos⁺ cells were counted in 23 brain regions. We took 2 to 8 microphotographs for each animal per each brain region, resulting in 9 to 48 pictures per experimental group per brain region. Microphotographs were converted into an 8-bit grayscale and the same threshold used for a selected area of interest. The densities of the nuclei were counted with the ImageJ software (National Institute of Health, Bethesda, MD) by an experimenter blind to the experimental condition. The position of the analyzed brain regions was determined according to the mouse brain atlas (Paxinos and Franklin, 2019) (Supplementary Fig. 1B-C).

Stereotactic surgery

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (5% for induction, 1.5-2.0% after) and fixed in the stereotactic frame (51503, Stoelting, Wood Dale, IL, USA). AAV_{2.1} [camk2a_mCherry (titer 7.5 × 10⁷ pc/µl, from Karl Deisseroth's Lab, Addgene plasmid #114469); hSyn_hM-4D(Gi)_mCherry (4.59 × 10⁹ pc/ul; Addgene plasmid #50475)] were injected into RE (250 nl, coordinates from the Bregma: AP, -0.58 mm; ML, ±0.1 mm; DV,

-4.3 mm), MS (150 nl, coordinates from the Bregma: AP, -0.75 mm; ML, \pm 0.0 mm; DV, -4.1 mm), AAV₉: hSyn_DiO_hM4Di-mCherry (3.3×10^9 pc/ μ l; constructed by the VVF [dlox-hM4D(Gi)_mCherry(rev)-dlox: Addgene #50461]) and AAV₉: hSyn_DIO_mCherry (3.4×10^9 pc/ μ l; constructed by the VVF) and AAV₉: camk2a_hM4D(Gi)_mCherry (4.4×10^9 pc/ μ l; Addgene plasmid #50477) were injected into RE; rAAV₁: iCre_EGFP (3.6×10^9 pc/ μ l) constructed by the VVF [iCre: Addgene #24593] and rAAV₁: hSyn-EGFP (1.7×10^{11} pc/ μ l) was injected into the MS (Paxinos and Franklin, 2019). We used beveled 26 gauge metal needle and 10 μ l microsyringe (SGE010RNS, WPI, USA) connected to a microsyringe pump (UMP3, WPI, Sarasota, USA), and its controller (Micro4, WPI, Sarasota, USA) with an injection rate 0.1 μ l/min. After injection, the needle was left in place for an additional 10 min to prevent unwanted spread of the vector. The AAVs were prepared by the Laboratory of Animal Models at Nencki Institute of Experimental Biology, Polish Academy of Sciences and Viral Vector Facility of ETH Zurich. Efficient and specific viral expression was assessed on the brain sections after all experiments. Only mice with AAVs in the regions of interest were used in the statistical analyses.

Statistics

Analysis was performed using Graphpad Prism 9.5.1. All the statistical details of experiments can be found in the legends of the figures. Data with normal distribution are presented as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) or as median \pm interquartile range (IQR) for the population with non-normal distribution. When the data met the assumptions of parametric statistical tests, results were analyzed by one- or repeated measures two-way ANOVA (RM ANOVA), followed by Tukey's or Fisher's *post hoc* tests, where applicable. Dif-

ferences in means were considered statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

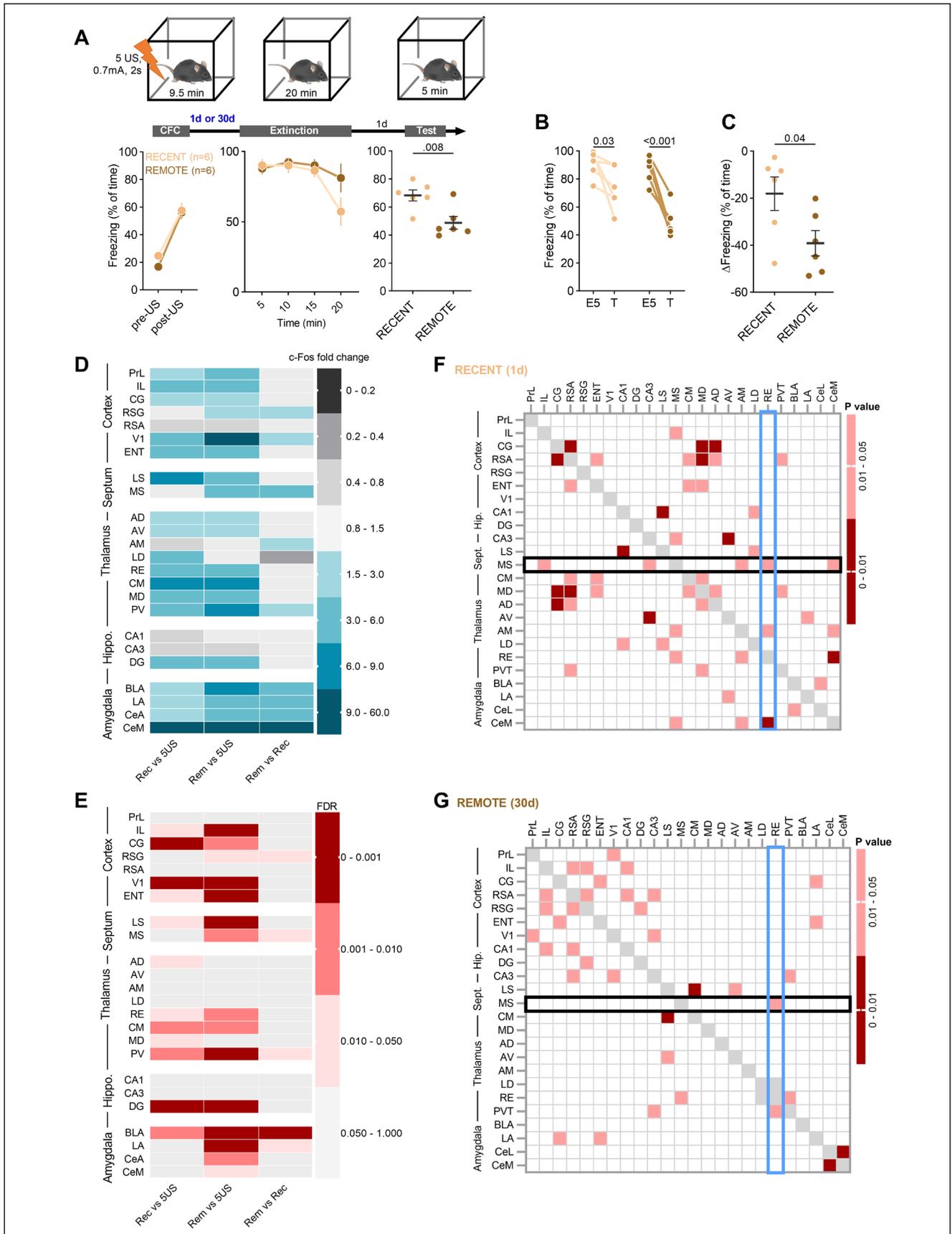
RESULTS

Neuronal correlates of recent and remote fear extinction

To test extinction of recent and remote fear memories, mice underwent contextual fear conditioning (CFC) in a novel context, consisting of five electric foot shocks (unconditioned stimuli, US). Freezing levels were low at the beginning of CFC but progressively increased over the course of training. One or thirty days after conditioning, animals were re-exposed to the training context to induce extinction of recent or remote fear memories, respectively. At the beginning of the extinction sessions, freezing levels were high in both the Recent and Remote groups, confirming successful formation of contextual fear memory, and subsequently decreased within the session. Fear extinction memory was tested one day after the extinction session. In both groups, mice exhibited a significant reduction in freezing during the test session (T) compared to the beginning of extinction (E5), indicating successful formation of extinction memory. Notably, mice that underwent remote extinction showed a greater reduction in freezing than those in the recent group (Fig. 1A–C).

To identify neural correlates of recent and remote fear extinction, a separate cohort of mice underwent CFC followed by an extinction session either 1 or 30 days later (Recent and Remote groups, respectively). Animals were sacrificed 70 minutes after the extinction session (Supplementary Fig. 1A). Brain sections were prepared for immunofluorescent detection of c-Fos protein as a marker of neuronal activity. c-Fos expression was quantified across 23 brain regions spanning

Fig. 1. Neuronal correlates of recent and remote fear extinction. (A) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of recent and remote contextual fear memory (n=6 per group). Mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,10)}=236$, $P < 0.001$; effect of extinction delay: $F_{(1,10)}=0.293$, $P=0.600$; time \times extinction delay: $F_{(1,10)}=2.20$, $P=0.169$), followed by recent or remote fear memory extinction session (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,24, 11,2)}=7.30$, $P=0.016$; effect of extinction delay: $F_{(1,9)}=1.25$, $P=0.292$; time \times extinction delay: $F_{(3,27)}=0.078$, $P=0.971$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(10)=0.578$, $P=0.576$). (B–C) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,10)}=25.33$, $P < 0.001$; effect of extinction delay: $F_{(1,10)}=0.519$, $P=0.49$; time \times extinction delay: $F_{(1,10)}=1.728$, $P=0.22$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(10)=1.314$, $P=0.22$). (D) Fold change of the c-Fos signal density, where the recent (Rec) and remote (Rem) extinction groups are compared to mice sacrificed 24 hours after CFC (5US) or to each other (n=6 per group, 8–37 sections per region per group). (E) Significant change of the c-Fos signal density (based on FDR results). (F, G) Correlation matrix of c-Fos density signal for mice sacrificed after Recent and Remote extinction (based on P values for Spearman correlations). PrL, prelimbic cortex; IL, infralimbic cortex; CG, cingulate cortex; RSG, retrosplenial cortex, granular part; RSA, retrosplenial cortex, agranular part; V1, primary visual cortex; ENT, entorhinal cortex; LS, lateral septum; MS, medial septum; AD, anterodorsal nucleus of thalamus; AV, anteroventral nucleus of thalamus; AM, anteromedial nucleus of thalamus; LD, laterodorsal nucleus of thalamus; RE, nucleus reuniens; CM, centromedial nucleus of thalamus; MD, mediodorsal nucleus of thalamus; PV, paraventricular nucleus of thalamus; CA1, dorsal hippocampus, CA1 area; CA3, dorsal hippocampus, CA3 area; DG, dentate gyrus; BLA, basolateral nucleus of the amygdala; LA, lateral nucleus of the amygdala; CeA, central nucleus of the amygdala, capsular and lateral divisions; CeM, central nucleus of the amygdala, centromedial division.



the dorsal hippocampus, amygdala, cortex, thalamus, and septum (Supplementary Fig. 1B).

Overall, both recent and remote extinction were associated with a significant increase in *c-Fos* expression across multiple brain regions compared to the 5US control group (Fig. 1D–E). These changes were more robust following remote extinction: significant elevations in *c-Fos* were observed in 12 regions after recent extinction and in 15 regions after remote extinction. In five regions—RSG, MS, PV, BLA, and LA—*c-Fos* levels were significantly higher in the Remote than in the Recent group. While the contributions of amygdalar and cortical regions in contextual fear extinction have been studied in detail, much less is known about how thalamic regions contribute to this memory reorganization process at different post-encoding delays. We therefore decided to focus, in the following experiments, on the role of MS in recent and remote memory extinction.

Additionally, we found that the patterns of inter-regional *c-Fos* levels correlations differed between the Recent and Remote groups (Fig. 1F–G). Remote extinction was characterized by co-activation of cortical and hippocampal regions, whereas recent extinction primarily engaged septal, thalamic, and cortical regions. Interestingly, at both timepoints, MS activity correlated with RE, suggesting functional interactions between these structures.

Validation of the chemogenetic tools

To validate MS function in fear extinction we used a chemogenetic approach relying on the combination of Gi-protein-coupled inhibitory DREADDs (Designer Receptors Exclusively Activated by Designer Drugs) (hM4Di) and hM4Di agonist, clozapine N-oxide (CNO) (Gomez et al., 2017; Jendryka et al., 2019). As a recent study showed that CNO is reverse-metabolized to clozapine and produces clozapine-like effects (Manvich et al., 2018), we first tested the effect of CNO on remote fear memory extinction. C57BL/6J mice (without hM4Di expression) underwent CFC and 30 days later they were injected with CNO (0.5, 3 or 10 mg/kg) or saline. Thirty minutes later they were exposed to the training context for contextual fear memory extinction and fear extinction memory was tested in the same context one day later. We observed no effect of CNO on fear memory recall during the Extinction session, or fear extinction memory during the test (Supplementary Fig. 2A–C).

To test the efficiency of the chemogenetic manipulation to inhibit fear extinction-induced *c-Fos* expression, a new cohort of mice was injected into V1 with

adeno-associated viral vectors (AAVs) encoding hM4Di and red fluorescent protein, mCherry, under human synapsin (*hSyn*) promoter allowing for neuron-specific transgene expression (Kügler et al., 2003). As a control AAV encoding only mCherry was used. Three weeks post-surgery and viral transduction, mice underwent CFC, followed 30 days later by a contextual fear extinction session. Mice were injected with CNO (i.p., 3 mg/kg) 30 minutes prior to the Extinction and they were sacrificed 60 minutes after the Extinction session. Their brains were sliced and immunostained to detect *c-Fos* protein. The statistical analysis of the data revealed significantly lower frequency of *c-Fos*-positive (*c-Fos*⁺) nuclei among the cells transduced with hM4Di as compared to the mCherry controls indicating that chemogenetic manipulation effectively prevented *c-Fos* expression, hence blocked cell activity (Supplementary Fig. 2D–E).

Contribution of MS to extinction of contextual fear memory

While, former studies showed that MS contributes to recent fear memory formation and extinction (Calandreau et al., 2007; Tronson et al., 2009; Jiang et al., 2016; Knox, 2016; Knox & Keller, 2016; Knox et al., 2016), our analysis indicates that MS activity during extinction increases as the memory age. To test the role of the MS in remote fear memory extinction, C57BL/6J mice were injected into the MS with AAVs encoding hM4Di or mCherry (Fig. 2A–B). Three weeks after surgery and viral transduction, mice underwent CFC, followed by a Recent or Remote extinction session conducted 1 or 30 days after CFC, respectively. Prior to extinction, mice received an intraperitoneal injection of CNO (3 mg/kg).

Freezing levels increased during CFC (pre- vs. post-US) and did not differ between the viral groups. During the Recent extinction session, freezing decreased in both groups, and no significant effect of viral manipulation was observed. Consolidation of recent extinction memory was assessed 24 hours later in the same context (Test), and no differences in freezing levels were detected between hM4Di- and mCherry-expressing mice (Fig. 2C). In both groups, freezing during the Test was significantly reduced compared to the beginning of extinction (E5), with a comparable magnitude of change (Fig. 2D–E), indicating that chemogenetic inhibition of the MS during Recent extinction did not affect contextual fear recall or extinction memory consolidation.

During the Remote extinction session, mice in both groups also exhibited a significant reduction in freez-

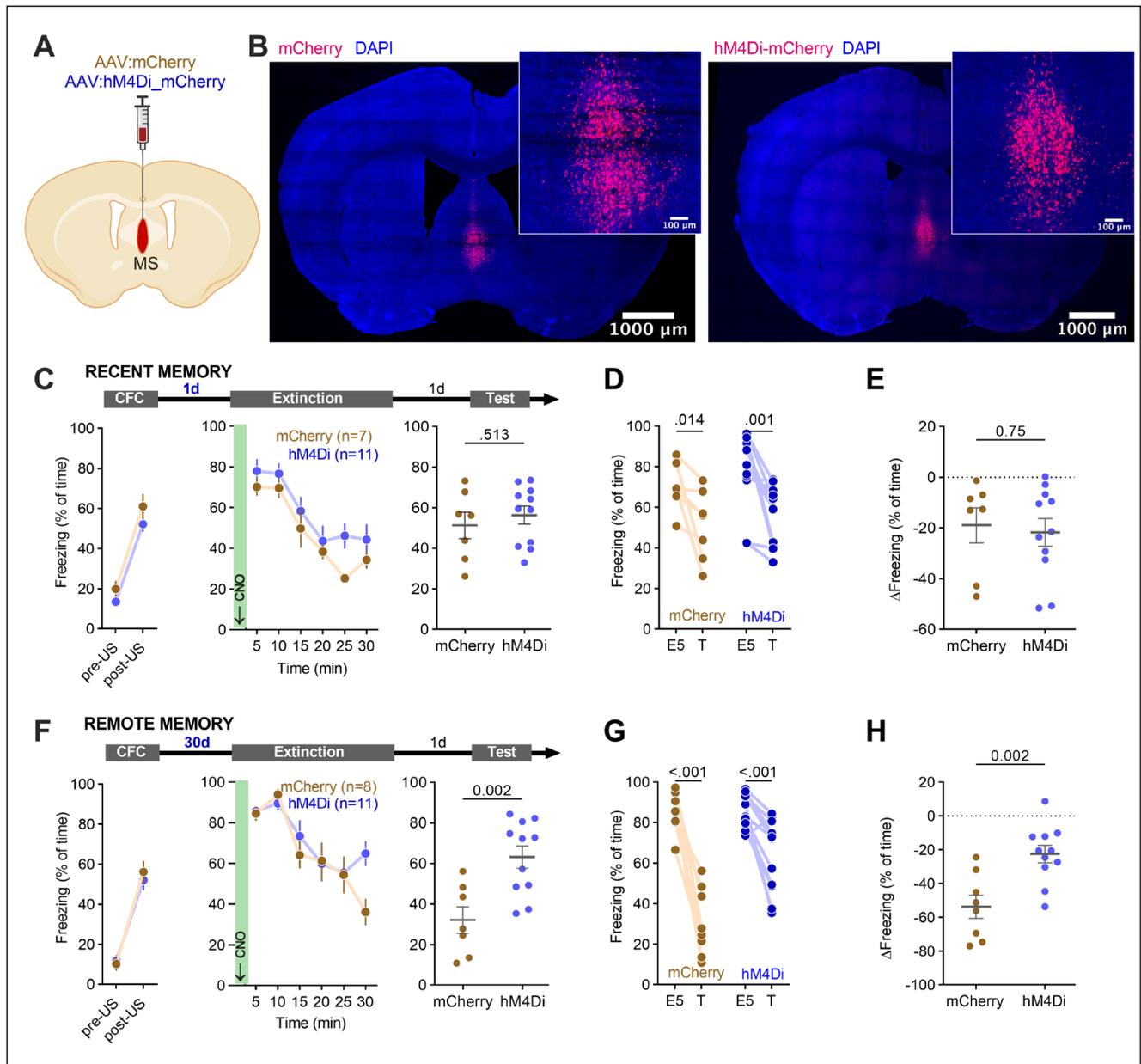


Fig. 2. MS regulates extinction of remote contextual fear memory. (A-B) Surgery schema and representative microphotographs of AAV: mCherry (mCherry) and AAV: hM4Di_mCherry (hM4Di) expression in MS. (C-E) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of recent contextual fear memory. After stereotaxic injection of hM4Di (n=11) or mCherry (n=7) into MS, mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,13)}=172$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,13)}=2.37$, $P=0.148$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,13)}=0.156$, $P=0.699$), followed by recent fear memory extinction session 1 day later (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(3,87,62.0)}=26.3$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,16)}=1.93$, $P=0.184$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(5,80)}=0.689$, $P=0.634$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(16)=0.669$, $P=0.513$). Mice were injected with CNO (i.p., 3 mg/kg) 30 minutes prior to the extinction session. (D-E) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,16)}=21.5$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,16)}=0.968$, $P=0.340$; time \times genotype interaction: $F_{(1,16)}=0.101$, $P=0.755$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(16)=0.669$, $P=0.513$). (F-H) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of remote contextual fear memory. After stereotaxic injection of hM4Di (n=11) or mCherry (n=8) into MS, mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,17)}=193$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,17)}=0.061$, $P=0.807$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,17)}=0.864$, $P=0.366$), remote fear memory extinction session 30 days later (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(2,83,48.0)}=18.3$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,17)}=0.819$, $P=0.378$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(5,85)}=2.42$, $P=0.042$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(16)=3.585$, $P=0.002$). (G-H) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,17)}=82.6$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,17)}=11.7$, $P=0.003$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,17)}=13.9$, $P=0.002$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(17)=3.728$, $P=0.002$).

ing, indicating successful within-session extinction, and no immediate effect of viral manipulation was detected. However, during the extinction memory test, hM4Di-expressing mice displayed significantly higher freezing levels than controls (Fig. 2F). Further analysis revealed that although freezing during the Test was reduced relative to E5 in both groups, this reduction was significantly greater in mCherry control mice than in hM4Di mice (Fig. 2G–H). Thus, chemogenetic inhibition of the MS during Remote, but not Recent, extinction impaired consolidation of contextual fear extinction memory.

Contribution of RE to extinction of contextual fear memory

Activity of RE is synchronized with freezing bouts (Totty et al., 2023), suggesting that activity patterns in the RE are related to suppression of fear responses. As c-Fos mapping identified correlation of MS and RE activity in the following experiment we tested the role of RE in extinction of recent and remote memory. To this end C57BL/6J mice were injected into RE with AAVs encoding hM4Di or mCherry (Fig. 3A–B). Three (for recent groups) or one (for remote groups) week post-surgery and viral transduction mice underwent CFC, followed by a recent or remote contextual fear extinction session (1 or 30 days post CFC, respectively). Mice were injected with CNO (i.p., 3 mg/kg) prior to the Extinction. The freezing levels increased within the conditioning session (pre- vs. post-US) and did not differ between the drug groups. During the Recent extinction session, the hM4Di mice had overall higher freezing levels as compared to the mCherry animals. Consolidation of recent fear extinction memory was tested 24 hours after the Extinction session in the same context (Test). Mice from the hM4Di group tend to have lower levels of freezing as compared to the mCherry animals, but the difference was not statistically significant (Fig. 3C). Further analysis of the behavioral data revealed that mice in both groups similarly decreased freezing levels in the Test, as compared to E5 (Fig. 3D–E).

During the Remote extinction session, mice in both experimental groups significantly decreased freezing levels indicating successful within session fear extinction; however, hM4Di mice again showed slightly higher overall freezing levels. Notably, when the fear extinction memory was tested, the hM4Di animals demonstrated higher levels of freezing (Fig. 3F). Further analysis of the behavioral data revealed that although both hM4Di and mCherry mice had lower levels of freezing during the Test as compared to E5, the

change was larger in the control group (Fig. 3G–H). Hence, chemogenetic inhibition of RE during the Remote, but not Recent, extinction session impaired consolidation of fear extinction memory.

RE→MS projections

As both RE and MS contribute to extinction of remote fear memory and the activity of these regions correlates following remote extinction, we hypothesized that projections between RE and MS contribute to extinction of remote contextual fear memory. As the data about the direct projections between RE and MS (RE→MS) are controversial (McKenna & Vertes, 2004; Vertes et al., 2006; Cassel et al., 2013, 2021; Scheel et al., 2020), we first tested the presence of such projections using Ai14 mice that express Cre-dependent red fluorescent protein, tdTomato. Ai14 mice were stereotactically injected into MS with a retrograde AAV (rAAV) encoding Cre recombinase allowing for transduction of axons terminating in MS and tdTomato expression in the cell bodies (Madisen et al., 2010; Zingg et al., 2017) (Fig. 4A–B). tdTomato-positive cells were found mostly in the rostral RE (Bregma: -0.40 to -1.00 mm), and much less in the caudal part (Bregma: -1.00 to -1.88 mm) (Fig. 4C). We also observed tdTomato-positive cells in the brain regions well known to innervate MS, such as dCA1 and BLA (Liu et al., 2021; Tao et al., 2021) (Fig. 4C). Moreover, injection of AAV1 encoding mScarlet into RE allowed visualization of scarce projections in MS (Supplementary Fig. 3), supporting the notion that MS is innervated by RE.

Activation of RE^{-MS} neurons during fear extinction

To determine whether MS-projecting RE neurons (RE^{-MS}) are activated during contextual fear extinction, C57BL/6J mice were stereotactically injected into the MS with rAAV encoding GFP. This approach enabled GFP expression specifically in neurons projecting to the MS, including RE^{-MS} neurons (Fig. 5A). One or three weeks after surgery, mice underwent CFC, followed by recent or remote fear extinction conducted 1 or 28 days after CFC, respectively. Mice were perfused 70 minutes after the extinction session, and their brains were processed for c-Fos analysis. Naive mice were included as controls. Confocal analysis of immunostained brain sections identified c-Fos⁺ cells, GFP-positive RE neurons (GFP⁺; RE^{-MS}), and double-positive neurons (c-Fos⁺/GFP⁺), representing activated RE neurons projecting to the MS. We confirmed

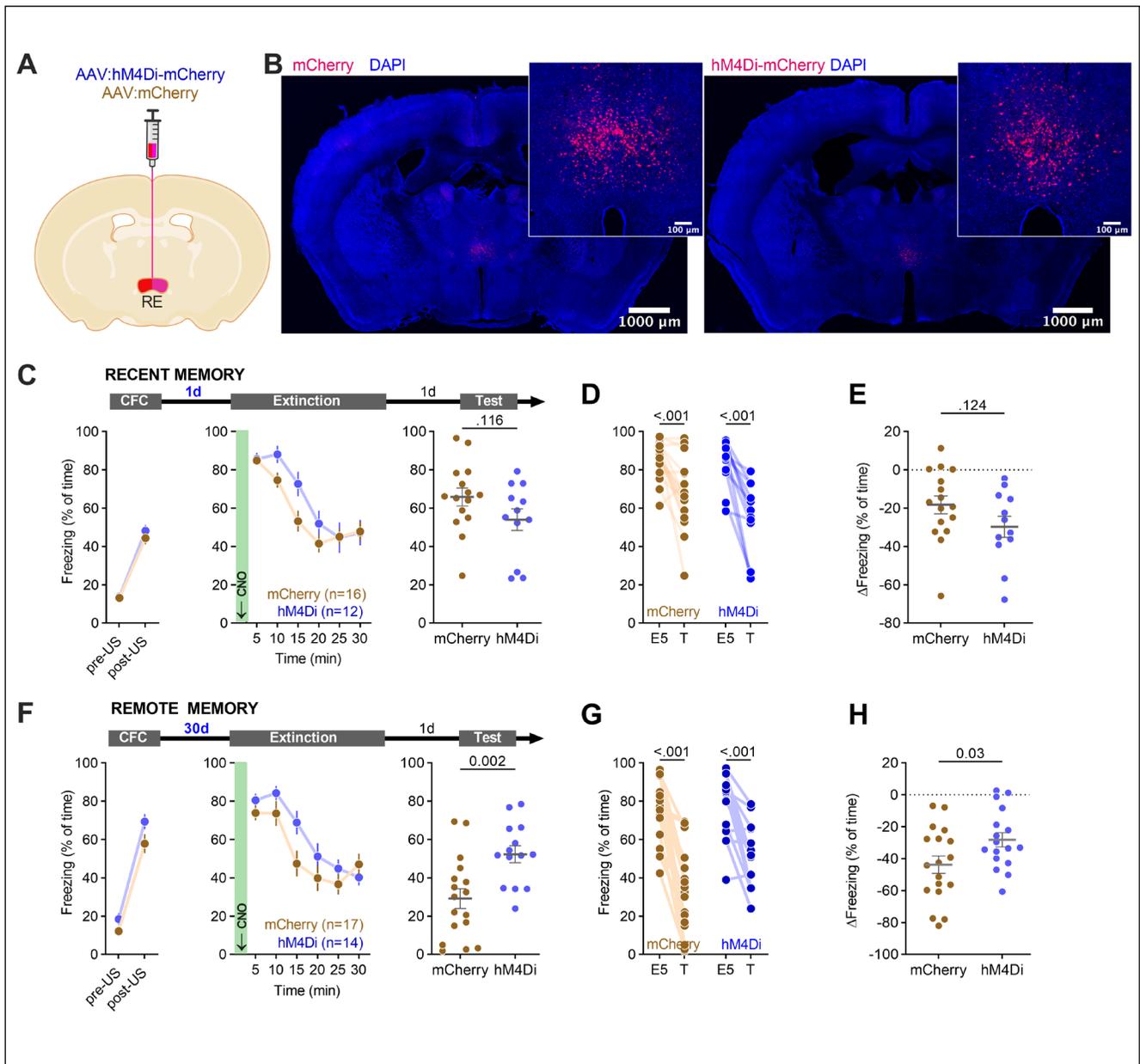


Fig. 3. RE regulates extinction of remote contextual fear memory. (A-B) Surgery schema and representative microphotographs of AAV: hM4Di-mCherry (hM4Di) and AAV: mCherry (mCherry) expression in RE. (C-E) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of recent contextual fear memory. After stereotactic injection of hM4Di (n=12) or mCherry (n=16) into RE, mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,32)}=509$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,32)}=0.026$, $P=0.871$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,32)}=0.018$, $P=0.892$), followed by recent fear memory extinction session 1 day later (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(3,28,78,8)}=39.2$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,24)}=2.05$, $P=0.165$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(5,120)}=2.16$, $P=0.063$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(25)=1.63$, $P=0.116$). Mice were injected with CNO (i.p., 3 mg/kg) 30 minutes prior to the extinction session. (D-E) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,26)}=43.9$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,26)}=2.69$, $P=0.113$; time \times genotype interaction: $F_{(1,26)}=2.53$, $P=0.124$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(26)=1.59$, $P=0.124$). (F-H) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of remote contextual fear memory. After stereotactic injection of hM4Di (n=14) or mCherry (n=17) into RE, mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,31)}=443.8$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,31)}=3.680$, $P=0.06$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,31)}=1.226$, $P=0.28$), remote fear memory extinction session 30 days later (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(3,97,115)}=27.8$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,29)}=2.64$, $P=0.115$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(5,145)}=1.98$, $P=0.086$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(29)=3.337$, $P=0.002$). (G-H) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,31)}=88.3$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,31)}=5.09$, $P=0.031$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,31)}=5.66$, $P=0.024$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(33)=2.201$, $P=0.03$).

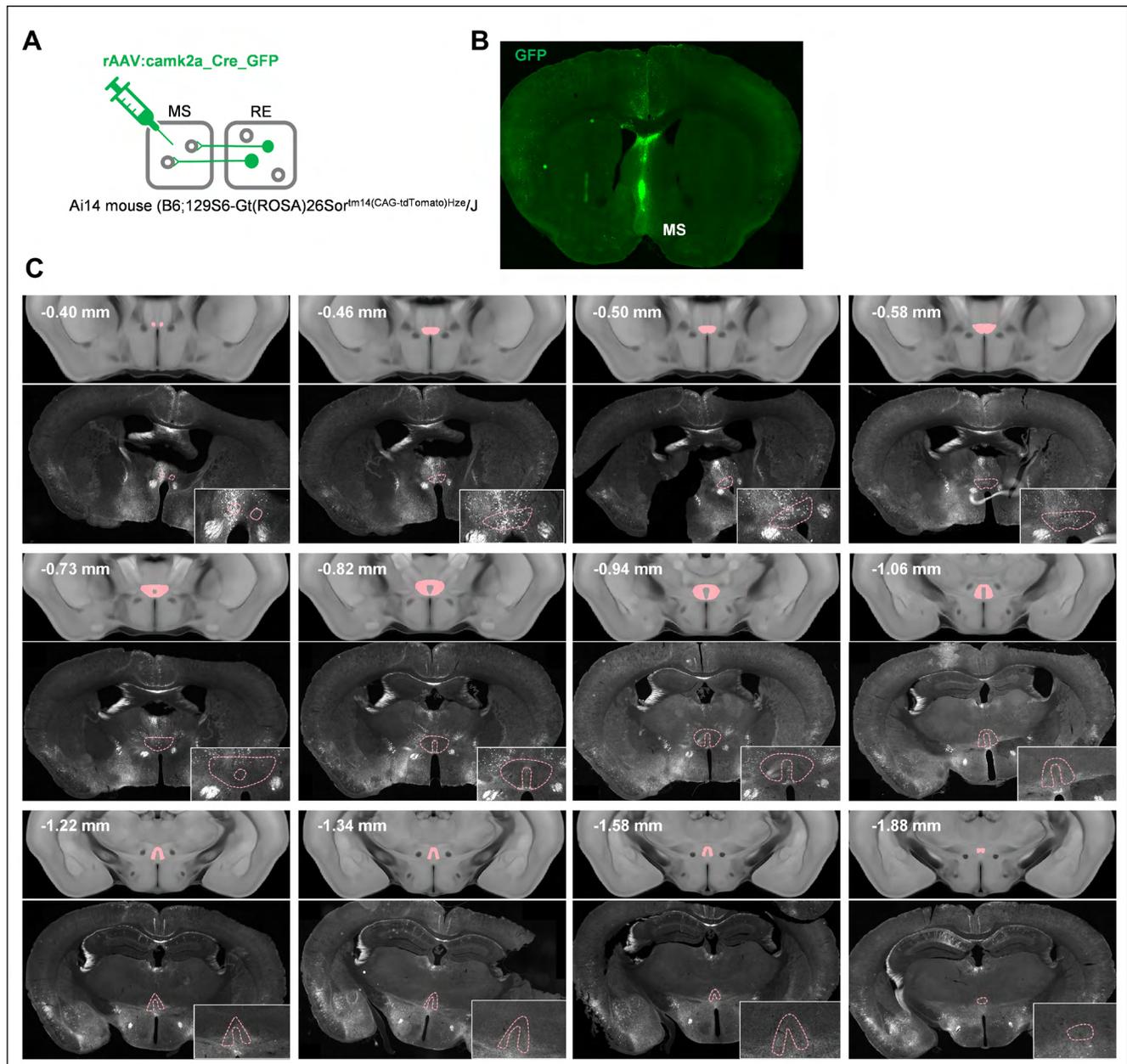


Fig. 4. Identification of anatomical projections from anterior RE to MS. Ai14 mice (with Cre-dependent tdTomato) (n=3) were injected into MS with rAAV: Cre_GFP resulting in tdTomato expression in neurons projecting to MS. (A-B) Surgery schema and representative microphotographs of rAAV: Cre_GFP expression in MS. (C) Microphotographs of tdTomato expression in Ai14 mouse (bottom) along with microphotographs of Allen mouse brain atlas (top). RE is marked in pink. Brain coordinates according to Bregma are indicated for each set of pictures.

that RE^{-MS} neurons were more abundant in the rostral, as compared to caudal, RE (Bregma > -1 vs. < -1 mm) (Fig. 5C). In the rostral RE, total c-Fos expression was increased in the recent and remote extinction groups compared with controls (Fig. 5D). No effect of the training on c-Fos levels was observed in the caudal RE. The density of c-Fos⁺/GFP⁺ neurons was also higher in the rostral RE in both extinction groups relative to

controls (Fig. 5E). In contrast, in the caudal RE, the frequency of c-Fos⁺/GFP⁺ neurons was selectively increased in the remote extinction group compared with both controls and the recent group, indicating that rostral RE^{-MS} neurons are activated both by recent and remote fear extinction, caudal RE^{-MS} neurons are preferentially activated during extinction of remote contextual fear.

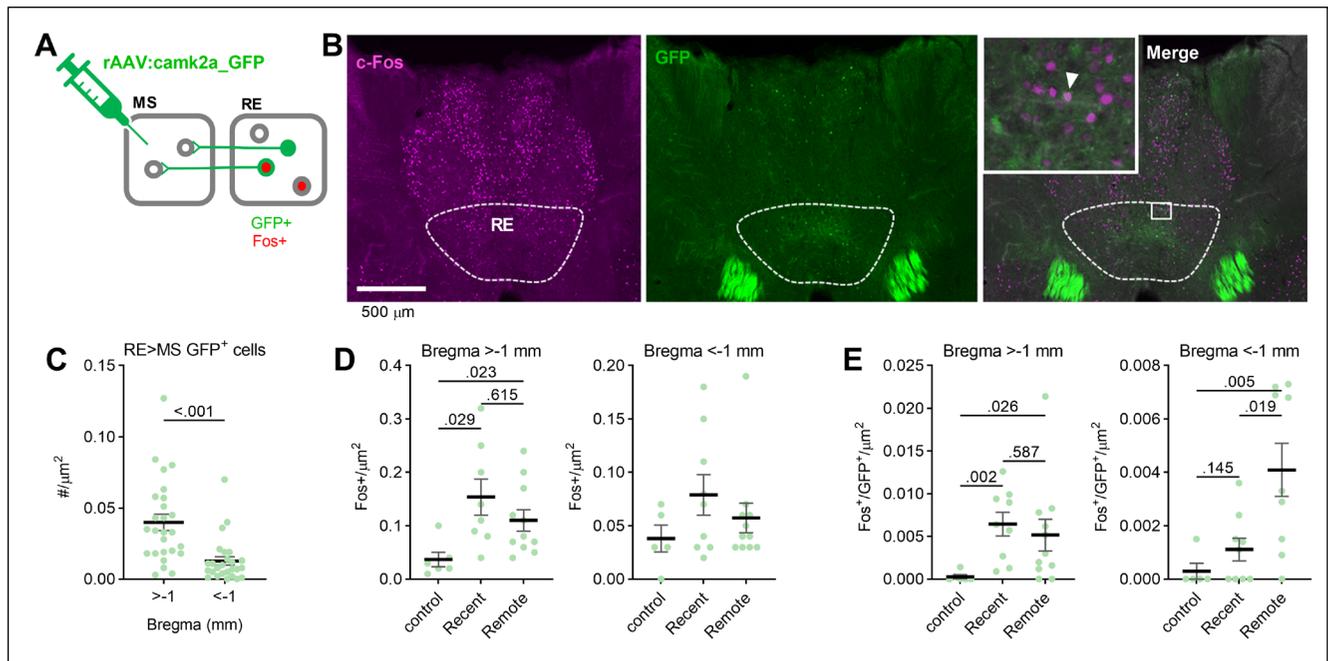


Fig. 5. Extinction of remote fear memory activates caudal RE^{MS}. (A) Mice had rAAV: *camk2a*_GFP stereotactically injected into MS and underwent CFC followed by extinction of recent (n=8) or remote (n=10) fear memory. Naive animals (n=6) were used as controls. GFP and c-Fos expression was analysed in the rostral and caudal RE (Bregma >-1 mm and <-1 mm). (B) Exemplary microphotographs of c-Fos immunostaining, GFP expression and their colocalisation in the rostral RE. White arrow in the inset indicates a double-positive cell. (C-E) Summary of data for GFP⁺ cells density in the rostral and caudal RE (Mann-Whitney U=112). (D) Summary of data for c-Fos⁺ cells density in the rostral (Welch's ANOVA test, $F_{(2,13,6)}=7.83$, $P=0.005$) and caudal RE ($F_{(2,13,4)}=1.62$, $P=0.234$). (E) Summary of data for c-Fos⁺/GFP⁺ cells density in the rostral ($F_{(2,12,3)}=12.2$, $P=0.001$) and caudal RE ($F_{(2,13,0)}=6.8$, $P=0.009$).

Contribution of RE→MS projections to extinction of contextual fear memory

Next, to test whether RE→MS pathway affects extinction of contextual fear memory, C57BL/6J mice were stereotactically injected into RE with AAV encoding double-floxed inverted open reading frame (DIO) of hM4Di and mCherry, or just mCherry, under *camk2a* promoter (AAV: DIO_hM4Di_mCherry or AAV: DIO_mCherry), and into MS with rAAV encoding improved Cre recombinase (iCre) with eGFP under *camk2a* promoter (rAAV: iCre_eGFP). This combinatorial manipulation allowed for hM4Di expression specifically in RE^{MS} (Fig. 6A-B). Three weeks post-surgery and viral transduction, mice underwent CFC, followed by a Recent or Remote contextual fear extinction session. Mice were injected with CNO (i.p., 3 mg/kg) 30 minutes prior to the Extinction. The freezing levels increased within the CFC session (pre- vs. post-US) in all experimental groups and did not differ between the virus groups. During the Recent Extinction session, the mice from two experimental groups had similar freezing levels at the beginning of the session and decreased freezing during the session, in-

dicating no impairment of fear memory recall and successful within-session fear extinction. Consolidation of long-term fear extinction memory was tested 24 hours after the Extinction session in the same context (Test) (Fig. 6C). Mice from two experimental groups had lower freezing levels during the Test as compared to E5, indicating successful consolidation of fear extinction memory (Fig. 6D). No difference in freezing levels were observed between the experimental groups (Fig. 6E).

During the Remote extinction session, mice in both experimental groups significantly decreased freezing levels indicating successful within session fear extinction. The hM4Di groups showed, however, overall higher freezing levels. Moreover, the hM4Di animals also demonstrated higher levels of freezing when the fear extinction memory was tested (Fig. 6F). Further analysis of the behavioral data revealed that although both hM4Di and mCherry mice had lower levels of freezing during the Test as compared to E5, the change was significantly greater in the control group (Fig. 6G-H). Hence, chemogenetic inhibition of RE→MS projection during the Remote, but not Recent, extinction session impaired consolidation of fear extinction memory.

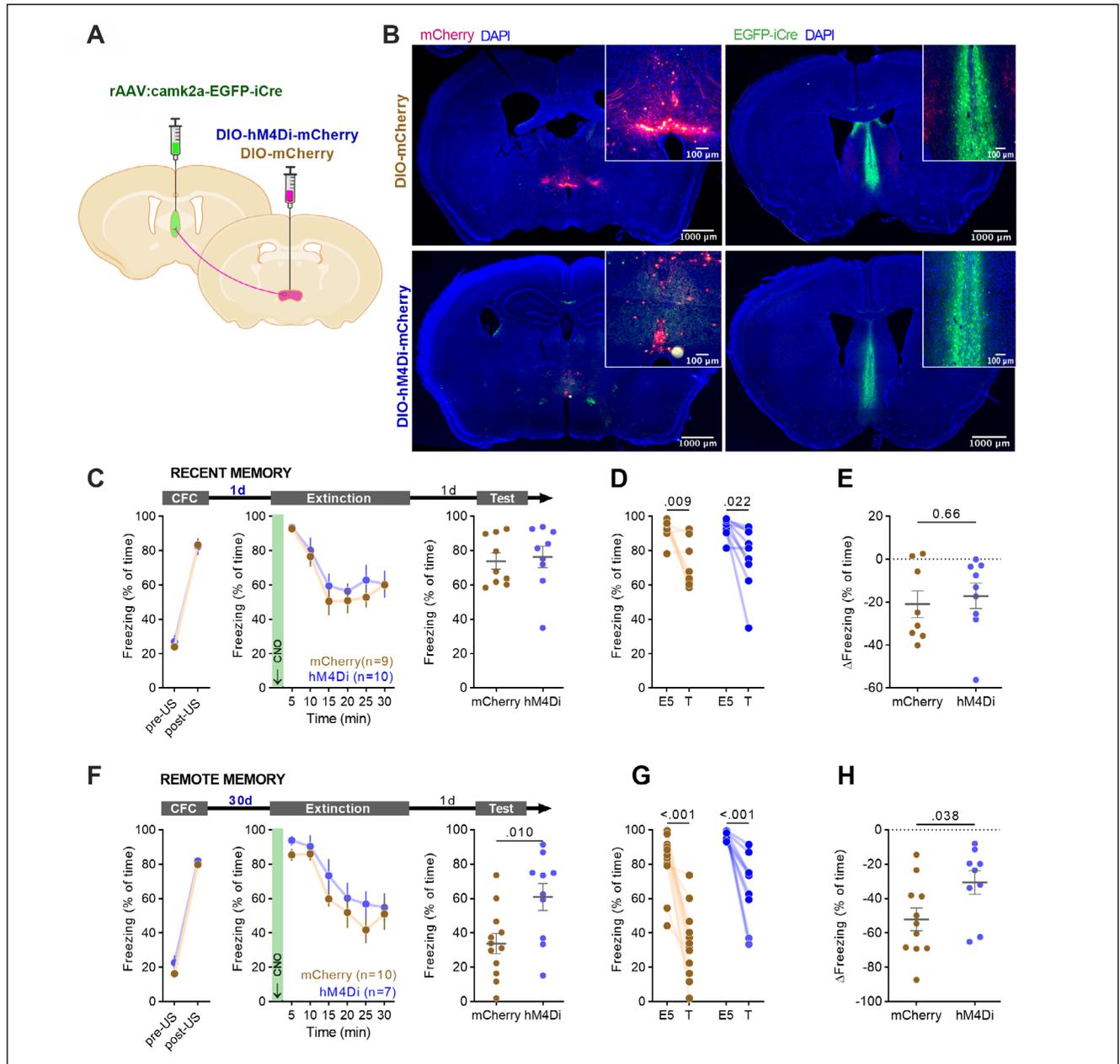


Fig. 6. RE-MS projections regulate consolidation of remote contextual fear extinction memory. AAV: DIO-hM4Di-mCherry (hM4Di) or control virus AAV: α CaMKII-DIO-mCherry (mCherry) were bilaterally injected to RE, while rAAV: iCre_eGFP- α CaMKII (eGFP) to MS of C57BL/6J male mice. (A-B) Surgery schema and representative microphotographs of hM4Di and mCherry in RE, and eGFP expression in MS. (C-E) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of recent contextual fear memory. After stereotaxic injection of hM4Di (n=10) or mCherry (n=9) into RE and eGFP into MS, mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,15)}=414$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,15)}=0.056$, $P=0.82$), followed by recent fear memory extinction session 1 day later (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,15)}=19.68$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,15)}=0.648$, $P=0.43$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(16)=0.318$, $P=0.75$). Mice were injected with CNO (i.p., 3 mg/kg) 30 minutes prior to the extinction session. (D-E) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,15)}=19.7$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,15)}=0.405$, $P=0.534$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,15)}=0.201$, $P=0.660$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(15)=0.448$, $P=0.66$). (F-H) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of remote contextual fear memory. After stereotaxic injection of hM4Di (n=7) or mCherry (n=10) into MS, mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,11)}=201.3$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,11)}=0.0190$, $P=0.89$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,11)}=0.0057$, $P=0.94$), remote fear memory extinction session 30 days later (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(5,65)}=13.60$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,13)}=5.402$, $P=0.04$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(5,65)}=1.465$, $P=0.21$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(12)=2.88$, $P=0.01$). (G-H) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,13)}=52.1$, $P<0.001$; effect of virus: $F_{(1,13)}=2.33$, $P=0.151$; time \times virus interaction: $F_{(1,13)}=3.77$, $P=0.074$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(11)=3.39$, $P=0.006$).

Role of α CaMKII autophosphorylation in extinction of recent and remote contextual fear memory

CaMKII is one of the key synaptic molecules that contributes not only to formation and updating of recent contextual memories but also to systems consolidation of remote memories (Giese et al., 1998; Frankland et al., 2001; Kimura et al., 2008; Radwanska et al., 2011, 2015; Wheeler et al., 2013). Here, we tested the effect of heterozygous T286A mutation (T286A^{+/-}) of α CaMKII, that affects enzyme autophosphorylation and Ca²⁺-independent activity (Giese et al., 1998), on extinction of recent and remote contextual fear memory as well as extinction-induced neuronal activity. To this end T286A^{+/-} mice and their wild-type (WT) littermates underwent CFC and extinction of recent or remote fear memories. At the beginning of the CFC freezing levels were low but increased during the training in both genotypes. At the beginning of the Recent Extinction session freezing levels were high in both experimental groups indicating contextual fear memory formation, and decreased within the session. Mice of both genotypes significantly decreased the frequency of freezing during the Test (T) as compared to the beginning of the Extinction session (E5) indicating formation of fear extinction memory. No significant differences in fear extinction memory was observed between the genotypes (Fig. 7A-C).

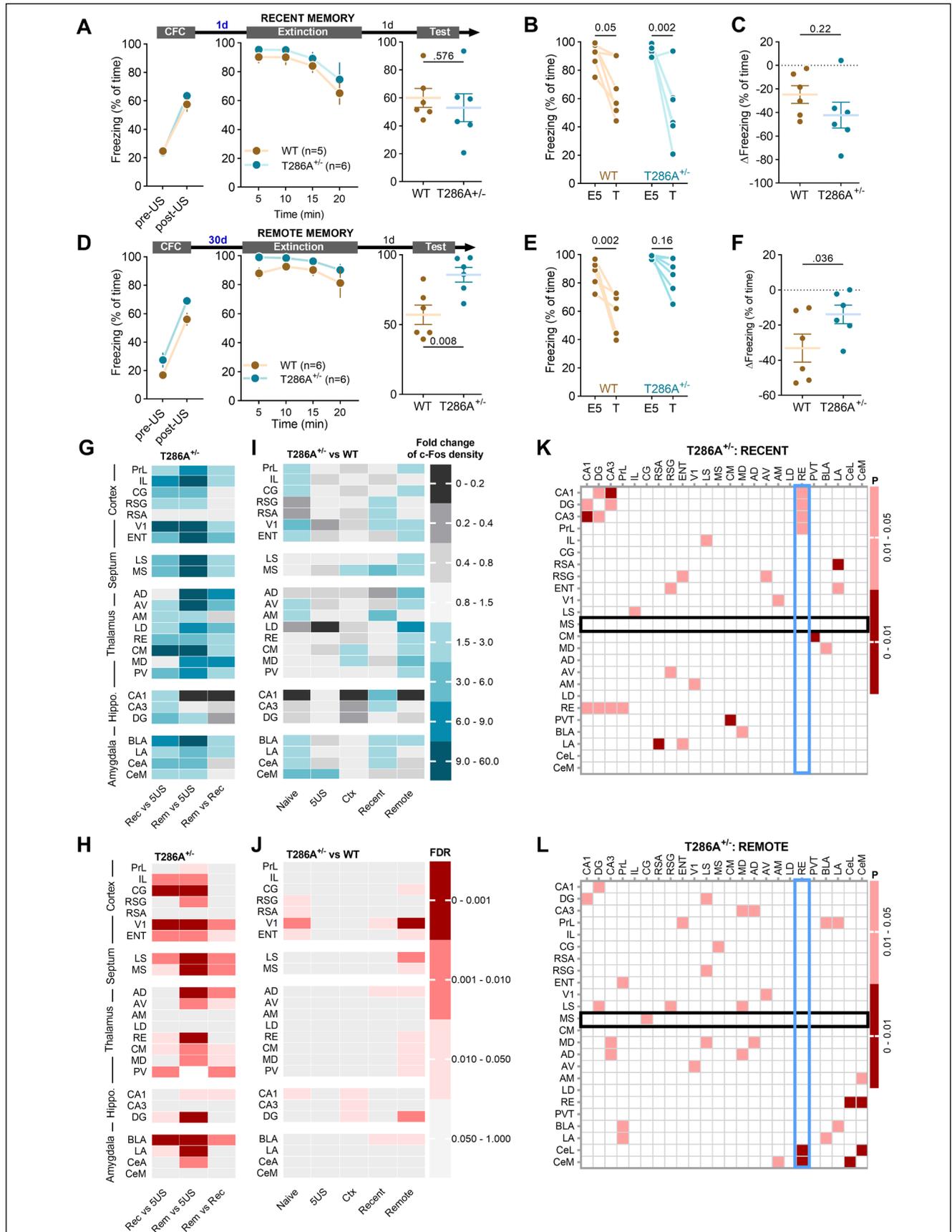
Next, we tested the effect of T286A^{+/-} mutation on the extinction of remote contextual fear memory. As

previously, at the beginning of the Extinction session freezing levels were high in both experimental groups, indicating contextual fear memory recall, and slightly decreased during the session. Fear extinction memory was tested on the next day. While WT mice significantly decreased the frequency of freezing during the Test as compared to E5 indicating formation of fear extinction memory, such an effect was not observed for T286A^{+/-} mutants. The freezing levels of the heterozygotes during the Test did not significantly differ from the levels observed during E5, indicating no extinction of remote contextual fear memory (Fig. 7D-F). Hence higher levels of autophosphorylated α CaMKII are required for updating of remote vs. recent contextual fear memory.

Neuronal correlates of remote contextual fear memory extinction

As T286A^{+/-} mutant mice showed impaired extinction of remote contextual fear memory we assumed that this mouse model is an excellent tool to further study neuronal correlates of this phenomenon. To this end T286A^{+/-} mutant mice underwent CFC and Extinction session 1 or 30 days after CFC (Recent and Remote groups, respectively). The animals were sacrificed 70 minutes after the Extinction sessions. In addition, we used 3 control groups: naive mice taken from home cages, 5US groups sacrificed 1 day after CFC without Extinction session, and context controls (Ctx) that were

Fig. 7. T286A^{+/-} mutation impairs extinction of remote contextual fear memory and extinction-induced brain activity. (A-C) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of recent contextual fear memory. T286A^{+/-} (n=6) and WT (n=5) mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,10)}=236$, $P<0.001$; effect of genotype: $F_{(1,10)}=0.293$, $P=0.600$; time \times genotype interaction: $F_{(1,10)}=2.20$, $P=0.169$), followed by recent fear memory extinction session 1 day later (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,24,11,2)}=7.30$, $P=0.016$; effect of genotype: $F_{(1,9)}=1.25$, $P=0.292$; time \times genotype interaction: $F_{(3,27)}=0.078$, $P=0.971$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(10)=0.578$, $P=0.576$). (B-C) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,10)}=25.33$, $P<0.001$; effect of genotype: $F_{(1,10)}=0.519$, $P=0.49$; time \times genotype interaction: $F_{(1,10)}=1.728$, $P=0.22$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(10)=1.314$, $P=0.22$). (D-F) Experimental timeline and summary of data for freezing levels during the extinction of remote contextual fear memory. T286A^{+/-} (n=6) and WT (n=6) mice underwent CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,10)}=186$, $P<0.001$; effect of genotype: $F_{(1,10)}=6.56$, $P=0.028$; time \times genotype interaction: $F_{(1,10)}=0.143$, $P=0.713$), remote fear memory extinction session 30 days later (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,31,13,1)}=2.06$, $P=0.173$; effect of genotype: $F_{(1,10)}=3.97$, $P=0.074$; time \times genotype interaction: $F_{(3,30)}=0.170$, $P=0.916$) and fear extinction test on the next day (Test: unpaired t-test: $t(10)=3.271$, $P=0.008$). (E-F) Summary of data showing freezing levels during the first 5 minutes of the extinction session (E5) and test (T) (RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1,10)}=28.48$, $P<0.001$; effect of genotype: $F_{(1,10)}=21.81$, $P<0.001$; time \times genotype interaction: $F_{(1,10)}=3.880$, $P=0.08$), and the change of freezing frequency during T as compared to E5 (unpaired t-test: $t(10)=2.01$, $P=0.036$). (G) Fold change of the c-Fos signal density for T286A^{+/-} mice, where the recent (Rec) and remote (Rem) extinction groups are compared to mice sacrificed 24 hours after CFC (5US) or to each other (n=6 mice per group, n=9-39 sections per region, per group). (H) Fold change of c-Fos signal density for T286A^{+/-} mice as compared to WT animals. Naive, mice taken from home cages; Ctx, mice exposed twice to the novel context without US experience. See Supplementary Fig. 1 for the experimental groups description. (I, J) Significant change of the c-Fos signal density for T286A^{+/-} mice (based on FDR results). (K, L) Significant correlation of c-Fos density signal for T286A^{+/-} mice after Recent and Remote extinction (based on Spearman correlations). PrL, prelimbic cortex; IL, infralimbic cortex; CG, cingulate cortex; RSG, retrosplenial cortex, granular part; RSA, retrosplenial cortex, agranular part; V1, primary visual cortex; ENT, entorhinal cortex; LS, lateral septum; MS, medial septum; AD, anterodorsal nucleus of thalamus; AV, anteroventral nucleus of thalamus; AM, anteromedial nucleus of thalamus; LD, laterodorsal nucleus of thalamus; RE, nucleus reuniens; CM, centromedial nucleus of thalamus; MD, mediodorsal nucleus of thalamus; PV, paraventricular nucleus of thalamus; CA1, dorsal hippocampus, CA1 area; CA3, dorsal hippocampus, CA3 area; DG, dentate gyrus; BLA, basolateral nucleus of the amygdala; LA, lateral nucleus of the amygdala; CeA, central nucleus of the amygdala, capsular and lateral divisions; CeM, central nucleus of the amygdala, centromedial division.



exposed to the experimental context twice but never received USs and were sacrificed 70 minutes after the last context exposure (Supplementary Fig. 1A). Mice brains were sliced and used for immunofluorescent staining to detect c-Fos. c-Fos expression was analyzed in 23 brain regions of the dorsal hippocampus, amygdala, cortex, thalamus, and septum and compared with data for WT mice (Fig. 1). c-Fos data shown on Fig. 1 and Fig. 7 were processed in parallel and come from WT and T286A^{-/-} littermates.

Overall, in T286A^{-/-} mutant mice, as in WT animals (Fig. 1D-G), we observed a significant elevation of c-Fos levels in many brain regions following Recent and Remote extinction, as compared to 5US animals of the same genotype (Fig. 7G-H). The changes were, however, more pronounced after Remote as compared to Recent extinction - a significant increase in c-Fos levels was found in 12 regions of T286A^{-/-} mice after Recent, and 17 after Remote extinction (Fig. 7G-H). In 10 regions (V1, ENT, LS, MS, AD, AV, CM, MD, PV, BLA) c-Fos levels were significantly higher in Remote vs. Recent groups. In addition, c-Fos levels were significantly lower in CA1 in the Remote vs. Recent T286A^{-/-} group. Furthermore, when we compared c-Fos levels between WT and T286A^{-/-} mutant mice the biggest differences were observed between the Remote extinction groups (Fig. 7I-J) - in 9 regions T286A^{-/-} mutant mice had higher expression of c-Fos as compared to WT animals (CG, V1, Ent, LS, MS, AD, RE, CM and BLA), and c-Fos expression was lower in the mutants in DG. Furthermore, c-Fos levels were affected by the mutation in 5 regions in the naive groups, in 3 regions in Recent and Ctx groups and no significant differences were observed between the genotypes in 5US groups. Finally, we observed in T286A^{-/-} mice an altered pattern of activity correlation after Recent and Remote extinction, as compared to WT mice (Fig. 1F-G), with decreased correlation of MS with RE in particular (Fig. 7K-L). Hence, elevated c-Fos levels in the cortex, septum, thalamus and amygdala, reduced c-Fos in the hippocampus and altered patterns of correlated activity are the neural hallmarks of impaired extinction of remote contextual fear memory in T286A^{-/-} mutant mice. This observation suggests that α CaMKII activity in these regions contributes to systems consolidation and updating of the remote memory engram.

DISCUSSION

The current study identifies neuronal networks involved in the extinction of remote contextual fear memory. In particular, we characterize the role of RE, MS, and RE→MS projections in the extinction of contextual fear memory as the memories age.

In our experiments, we evaluated extinction of contextual fear memory at both short and long delays after training. We found that in the wild-type (WT) animals functional networks differed at these two time-points, consistent with the idea that memory organization changes as a function of memory age, a process known as systems consolidation (Frankland & Bontempi, 2005). One prominent model of systems consolidation (Squire & Alvarez, 1995) proposes that memories are initially encoded in hippocampal-cortical networks, and that reactivation of these networks then leads to the incremental strengthening of inter-cortical connectivity, and an emergent role for cortical regions in memory expression coupled with disengagement of the hippocampus. In agreement with this model we see increased activity of the cortex (RSC and V1) in the remote time point. Furthermore, we see increased engagement of the septum (MS), thalamus (PV) and amygdala (BLA and LA) supporting the contribution of these regions in systems consolidation (Silva et al., 2021; Wheeler et al., 2013). However, we do not see significant change in the hippocampus engagement with time, possibly indicating differences between the contribution of this region in contextual fear memory formation, recall and extinction as the memory age. Interestingly, the role of some hotspots, including BLA, RSC, PV and PV→CeA projections, in remote memory processing has been already validated (Corcoran et al., 2011; Do-Monte et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2021).

Overall, our data indicates that extinction of remote memory engages more brain regions than recent memory. Interestingly, although previous studies linked broader memory networks with higher stabilization of remote memory (Milekic & Alberini, 2002; Frankland et al., 2006; Wheeler et al., 2013), in our experiments extinction of remote memory was more efficient. A remote extinction session resulted in WT mice in a reduction of freezing by 40-50% during the extinction test as compared to the beginning of the extinction session, while the recent extinction session reduced freezing by 20% measured during the test. Hence, increased stabilization of memories with time may be specific for traumatic and pathologic memories (Costanzi et al., 2011; Kearns et al., 2012), while in case of physiologic process extinction of remote fear memory may be enhanced by natural forgetting of aversive experience. Enhanced extinction observed in our model in the remote time point may reflect the fact that such a session engages more brain regions, hence, more efficiently remodels memory networks.

While correspondence between the predictions derived from the c-Fos analysis and these published

findings provides some validation of our approach, perhaps greater value lies in using this approach for the identification of novel, candidate brain regions. In this regard, it is interesting that both septal (MS and LS) and thalamic (RE, CM, AD) regions were identified. These regions, by virtue of their widespread connectivity with both the hippocampus and neocortex, are ideally positioned to influence network function. In particular, thalamic regions strongly influence cortical activity and therefore may play central roles in coordinating memory retrieval and extinction.

Several reports demonstrate the involvement of MS in extinction of fear memory (Calandrea et al., 2007; Knox et al., 2016; Xiao et al., 2018). In conjunction with anatomical data indicating dense connections of MS with the hippocampus (Amaral & Kurz, 1985; Nyakas et al., 1987; Khakpai et al., 2013; Müller & Remy, 2018) and the medial prefrontal cortex (Unal et al., 2015), the above observations suggest the involvement of MS in processing spatial information related to environmental threats. In particular, cholinergic neurons of MS regulate the extinction of recent contextual fear memory when extinction training consists of seven sessions conducted over seven days (Tronson et al., 2009). Lesions of MS and the adjacent nucleus of the diagonal band of Broca also led to impaired extinction of early fear memory dependent on auditory stimuli in rats (Knox & Keller, 2016). Here, we observed that c-Fos protein levels in MS are higher after the remote extinction session than after the recent extinction. Moreover, we did not observe a disruption of the extinction with chemogenetic inhibition of MS during the recent extinction session. However, we noticed that chemogenetic inactivation of MS during the remote extinction session impaired formation of the fear extinction memory. Thus, the changes in c-Fos expression and the results of chemogenetic manipulations are consistent and suggest that the involvement of MS in fear memory extinction changes as the memory age. These observations, however, seem to contradict the literature data cited above (Tronson et al., 2009). Possible reasons for this discrepancy may include differences in the conditioning and fear memory extinction protocols, as well as in the method and extent of MS neuron inactivation. Although Tronson et al. (2009) observed impaired recent fear memory extinction in mice with MS lesions compared to the control animals, these differences were only evident on the fourth day of extinction training. This observation is similar to the results of our experiment. Interestingly, this difference probably does not depend on the length of the extinction session (3 min in Tronson et al. (2009) vs. 30 min here), as in the study by Knox and Keller (2016), which used

long extinction training, a similar pattern of changes in behavior was observed as after 3-minute extinctions. Therefore, the time from the conditioning to the extinction session seems to be crucial for the involvement of MS in fear memory extinction.

Indeed, former studies demonstrated the role of the RE in fear memory encoding, retrieval, extinction and fear generalization (Xu & Sudhof, 2013; Vetere et al., 2017; Ramanathan et al., 2018; Ramanathan & Maren, 2019; Troyner & Bertoglio, 2021; Vasudevan et al., 2022). Specifically, it has been demonstrated that RE is involved in the extinction of recent contextual and auditory fear memory (Ramanathan et al., 2018; Ramanathan & Maren, 2019). Administration of muscimol into the RE before the recent extinction session impairs within-session fear extinction as well as fear extinction memory tested on the following day (Ramanathan et al., 2018; Ramanathan & Maren, 2019). Administration of muscimol into the RE shortly after extinction training or extinction reconsolidation does not result in differences in freezing levels during the extinction memory test (Vasudevan et al., 2022). In opposition to these findings our experiments indicate that the involvement of the RE in fear memory extinction depends on the length of the interval between training and extinction sessions. Chemogenetic inhibition of RE neurons during the extinction of recent contextual fear memory slightly increased freezing levels during the extinction session but did not affect the consolidation of extinction memory. Chemogenetic inhibition of RE neurons during the extinction of remote contextual fear memory impaired both within-session extinction and consolidation of extinction memory. Reminiscent of these observations, permanent lesion of the RE impaired remote, but not recent, contextual fear memory (Quet et al., 2020) and chemogenetic manipulation of RE bidirectionally affects extinction of the remote contextual fear memory (Silva et al., 2021). The discrepancy between our results and the work of Marren's group (Vasudevan et al., 2022) may stem from differences in methods used to inhibit RE activity as well as training protocol. In particular, muscimol used by Ramanathan and Maren (2019) stimulates inhibitory GABAA receptors and strongly inhibits neuronal activity. Whereas, stimulation of the inhibitory hM4Di receptor results in a decrease rather than complete inhibition of neuronal activity (Smith et al., 2016). Finally, in the former studies, as compared to our experiments, the authors used a weaker training protocol (3US vs. 5US) and extended extinction session (35 min vs. 30 min) that resulted in more efficient contextual fear extinction (to 50-60% vs. 20% freezing). Hence, high levels of freezing observed in our experiments in the control groups following a re-

cent extinction session could mask the effect of RE inhibition on contextual fear extinction. In summary, our experiments suggest that the role of RE in extinction of contextual fear memory increases with time. Moreover, the extinction of remote and recent fear memory possibly involves different populations of RE neurons. The later hypothesis should be, however, validated in the future experiments.

RE innervates many brain structures and is innervated by over 30 areas (Cassel et al., 2021). It also has about 11% bifurcating neurons, which innervate both the cingulate cortex and the medial part of the prefrontal cortex, as well as the insular cortex (Yanakieva et al., 2022). So far, the functionally best-understood neuronal circuit involving RE is the mPFC→RE→hippocampal axis. Both mPFC→RE and RE→CA1 projections mediate the fear extinction process (Ramanathan et al., 2018; Ratigan et al., 2023; Totty et al., 2023). It has been shown that inhibiting RE→CA1 projections during the recall of recent fear memory leads to impaired fear memory extinction in subsequent days (Ratigan et al., 2023). Furthermore, RE→BLA projection participates in the extinction of remote contextual fear memory (Silva et al., 2021). It has been shown that both the activity of excitatory RE→BLA projections and the activity of RE cells increase shortly before the end of the extinction episode. Moreover, chemogenetic inhibition of these projections during late fear extinction impairs the extinction of late fear memory. On the other hand, optogenetic stimulation of GABAergic or dopaminergic cells in the zone incerta (ZI)→RE neuronal pathway leads to enhanced extinction of early fear memory dependent on auditory stimuli (Venkataraman et al., 2021), revealing a complex role of RE in the neuronal circuits of fear extinction. Here, we demonstrate that rostral RE^{-MS} neurons are activated during extinction of both recent and remote contextual fear memories, whereas caudal RE^{-MS} neurons are selectively activated during extinction of remote memories. Moreover, chemogenetic inhibition of excitatory RE→MS projections during fear extinction impairs extinction of remote, but not recent, contextual fear memory. Together, these findings indicate that the contribution of RE^{-MS} neurons to fear extinction increases as memories age. Considering the consequences of inhibiting RE→MS projections in the context of anatomical connections, it is worth mentioning that both these regions innervate the CA1 area of the hippocampus, which is involved in extinction of contextual fear memory (Phillips & LeDoux, 1992; Maren & Holt, 2000; Maren & Quirk, 2004; Bissiere et al., 2011; Ziólkowska et al., 2025). MS and RE synchronize theta rhythms in the hippocampus and influence local field potentials

in the hippocampus→RE→mPFC circuit (King et al., 1998; Roy et al., 2017).

We show that α CaMKII autophosphorylation deficient heterozygous mice (T286A^{+/-}) have impaired extinction of remote memory while the extinction of recent contextual fear memory is spared. Accordingly, we use this model to look for neuronal correlates of remote memory extinction. Although previous studies showed that T286A mutation affects extinction of recent contextual fear memory (more training trials are required for efficient extinction) (Kimura et al., 2008; Radwanska et al., 2011, 2015), this is the first demonstration showing that α CaMKII autophosphorylation affects remote memory updating. This finding is reminiscent of former studies showing that α CaMKII^{+/-} mice show impairment of remote memory storage (Frankland et al., 2001; Wheeler et al., 2013). Impaired remote memory extinction in T286A^{+/-} mice is accompanied with globally increased activity of the thalamus (RE, CM, AD), septum (LS and MS), cortex (CG, V1, ENT) and amygdala (BLA), decreased activity of the hippocampus (DG), as well as altered networks correlations. Hence, impaired fear memory extinction in heterozygous may result from aberrant connectivity of fear extinction network and impaired systems consolidation. It is also possible that the decreased function of the hippocampus in the mutants during the Remote extinction session reflects impaired recall and/or updating of contextual fear memory.

In summary, the results presented here reveal a new element of neuronal circuits responsible for the extinction of remote contextual fear memory and highlight the importance of thalamo-septal circuits and α CaMKII autophosphorylation in the systems consolidation of remote memories. However, the important limitation of our study is the fact that the experiments involving chemogenetic manipulations have been conducted only on male mice. As fear memory processing shows significant sex differences (Bauer, 2023; Keiser et al., 2017), the role of the identified pathway in fear extinction by females has to be verified in the future studies.

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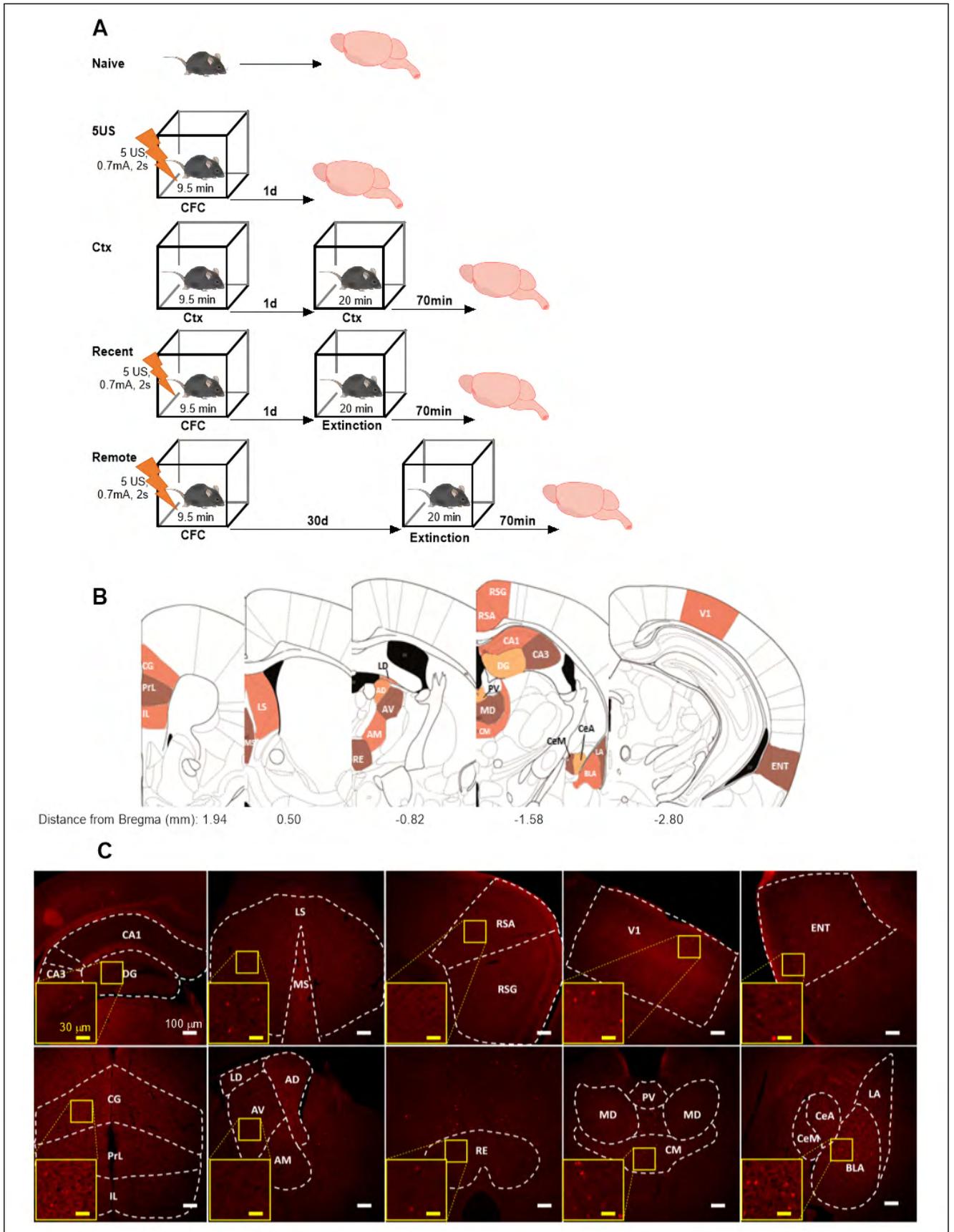
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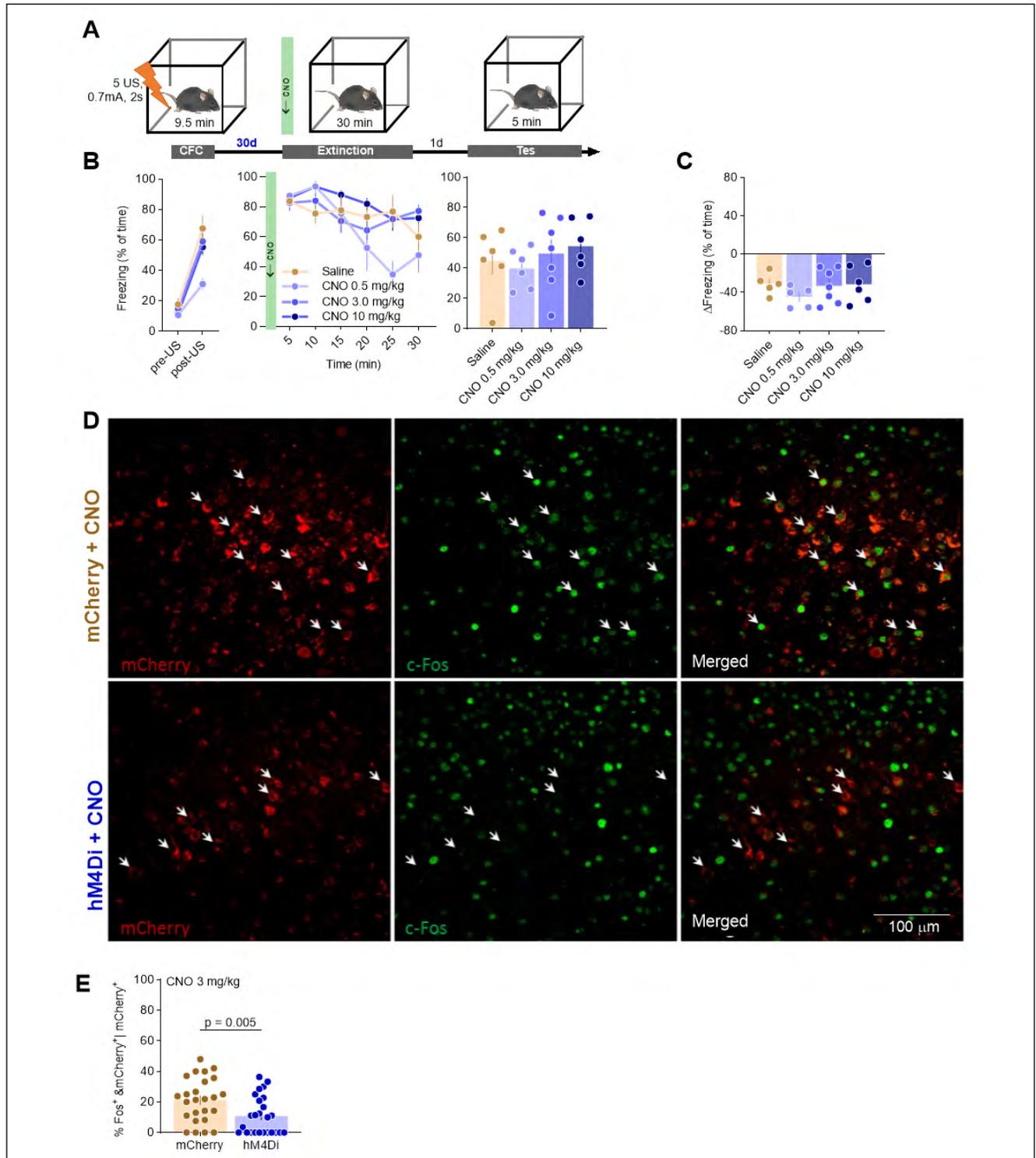
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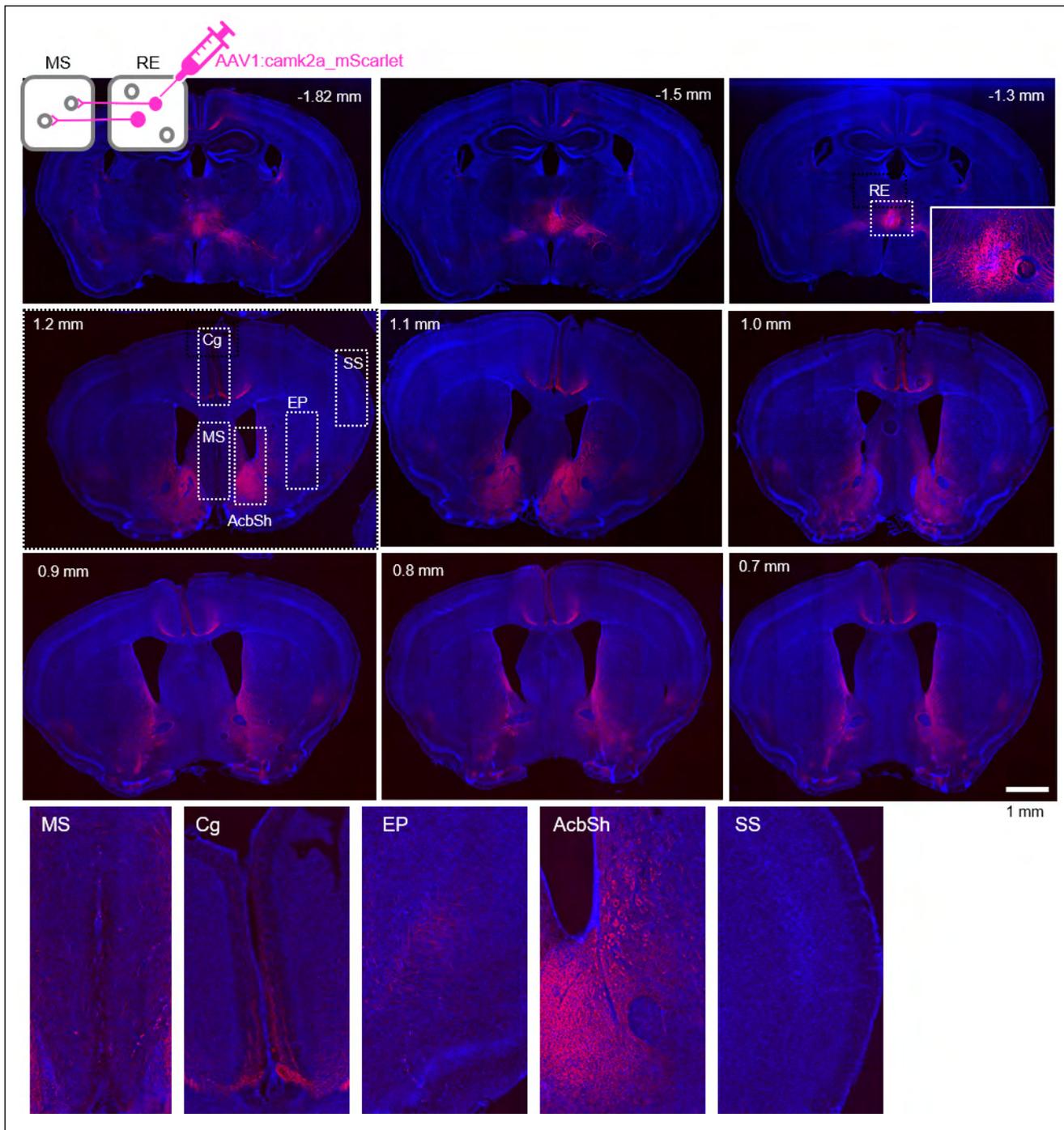
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Supplementary Fig. 1. Experimental design for c-Fos analysis. (A) Experimental groups. Naive mice were taken from their home cage. 5US group underwent CFC with 5 electric shocks in novel context and were sacrificed 1 day later. Ctx mice were exposed twice to the novel context without US experience and were sacrificed 70 minutes after the last exposure. Recent groups underwent CFC and a contextual fear extinction session 1 day after CFC, and were sacrificed 70 minutes after the extinction. Remote groups underwent CFC and a contextual fear extinction session 30 days after CFC, and were sacrificed 70 minutes after the extinction. Mice brains were sliced and used for c-Fos immunostaining. (B) Analysed brain regions. PrL, prelimbic cortex; IL, infralimbic cortex; CG, cingulate cortex; RSG, retrosplenial cortex, granular part; RSA, retrosplenial cortex, agranular part; V1, primary visual cortex; ENT, entorhinal cortex; LS, lateral septum; MS, medial septum; AD, anterodorsal nucleus of thalamus; AV, anteroventral nucleus of thalamus; AM, anteromedial nucleus of thalamus; LD, laterodorsal nucleus of thalamus; RE, nucleus reuniens; CM, centromedial nucleus of thalamus; MD, mediodorsal nucleus of thalamus; PV, paraventricular nucleus of thalamus; CA1, dorsal hippocampus, CA1 area; CA3, dorsal hippocampus, CA3 area; DG, dentate gyrus; BLA, basolateral nucleus of the amygdala; LA, lateral nucleus of the amygdala; CeA, central nucleus of the amygdala, capsular and lateral divisions; CeM, central nucleus of the amygdala, centromedial division. (C) Representative microphotographs of c-Fos immunostaining in the analyzed brain regions.





Supplementary Fig. 2. Validation of chemogenetic tools. (A) Experimental timeline. C57BL/6j mice (without hM4Di expression) underwent CFC and 30 days later they were injected with CNO (0.5, 3 or 10 mg/kg) or saline. Thirty minutes later they were exposed to the training context for contextual fear memory extinction and fear extinction memory was tested in the same context one day later. (B) Summary of data for freezing levels during CFC (CFC: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(1, 21)}=270$, $P<0.001$), remote fear memory extinction session (Extinction: RM ANOVA, effect of time: $F_{(3, 66, 69, 5)}=11.2$, $P<0.001$; effect of treatment: $F_{(3, 19)}=2.59$, $P=0.083$) and fear extinction test (Test: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(3, 21)}=0.613$, $P=0.614$). (C) Summary of data showing the change of freezing frequency during Test (T) as compared to the first 5 minutes of the Extinction (E5) (unpaired t-test: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(3, 19)}=0.846$, $P=0.486$). (D-E) Analysis of the efficiency of chemogenetic inhibition. (D) Representative microphotographs of c-Fos immunostaining and hM4Di and mCherry expression in V1. (E) Summary of data analysis for the frequency of c-Fos⁺ cells among the cells transduced with hM4Di or mCherry (Mann-Whitney $U=183$, $P=0.005$).



Supplementary Fig. 3. Identification of anatomical projections from RE to MS. C57BL/6j mice were injected into RE with AAV1: camk2a_mScarlet resulting in mScarlet expression in RE neurons and their projections. Strong mScarlet signal was observed in AcbSh, weak signal was found in MS, Cg, and AI, no signal was found in SS. AcbSh, nucleus accumbens shell; Cg, cingulate cortex; EP, endopiriform nucleus; MS, medial septum; SS, somatosensory cortex. Brain coordinates according to Bregma are indicated.