Circuit reorganization
in the *Drosophila* mushroom body calyx
accompanies memory consolidation

Lothar Baltruschat[1][¶], Philipp Ranft[1][¶], Luigi Prisco[1][¶], J. Scott Lauritzen[2], André Fiala[3],

Davi D. Bock[2,4] and Gaia Tavosanis[1,5]*

[1]*Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Bonn, Germany*

[2]*Janelia Research Campus, Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Ashburn, United States*

[3]*Molecular Neurobiology of Behaviour, University of Göttingen, Germany*

[4] *Department of Neurological Sciences, University of Vermont, Burlington, VT, USA*

[5]*LIMES Institute, University of Bonn, Germany*

[¶]*Equal contribution*

*To whom correspondence should be addressed

Short title: Structural and functional plasticity in the adult mushroom body

Keywords: Drosophila, structural plasticity, functional plasticity, memory consolidation, mushroom body, microglomerulus.

Summary

The capacity of utilizing past experience to guide future action is a fundamental and

conserved function of the nervous system. Associative memory formation initiated by

the coincident detection of a conditioned stimulus (CS, e.g. odour) and an

unconditioned stimulus (US, e.g. sugar reward) can lead to a short-lived memory

trace (STM) within distinct circuits [1-5]. Memories can be consolidated into long-term

memories (LTM) through processes that are not fully understood, but depend on *de-*

novo protein synthesis [6, 7], require structural modifications within the involved

neuronal circuits and might lead to the recruitment of additional ones [8-17].

Compared to modulation of existing connections, the reorganization of circuits affords

the unique possibility of sampling for potential new partners [18-20]. Nonetheless,

only few examples of rewiring associated with learning have been established thus

far [14, 21-24]. Here, we report that memory consolidation is associated with the

structural and functional reorganization of an identified circuit in the adult fly

brain. The formation and retrieval of olfactory associative memories in *Drosophila*

requires the mushroom body (MB) [25]. We identified the individual synapses of

olfactory projection neurons (PNs) that deliver a conditioned odour to the MB and

reconstructed the complexity of the microcircuit they form. Combining behavioural

experiments with high-resolution microscopy and functional imaging, we

demonstrated that the consolidation of appetitive olfactory memories closely

correlates with an increase in the number of synaptic complexes formed by the PNs

that deliver the conditioned stimulus and their postsynaptic partners. These structural

changes result in additional functional synaptic connections.

Results

To start addressing systematically the mechanisms that support memory
consolidation, we sought to investigate the properties of identifiable synapses in the
MB of the adult brain of *Drosophila* after the establishment of LTM. Within the main
MB input compartment, the calyx (MBC), PNs deliver olfactory information through
cholinergic synapses to the intrinsic MB neurons, the Kenyon cells (KCs) (Figure 1A).
In the MBC, large olfactory PN boutons are enwrapped by the claw-like dendrite
termini of ~11 KCs on average [26, 27], thereby forming characteristic synaptic
complexes, the microglomeruli (MGs) [28] (Figure 1A-E), which display functional and
structural plasticity in adaptation and upon silencing [29-31]. The pheromone and
odorant 11-cis-Vaccenylacetate (cVA) activates specifically those PNs that project
their dendrites to the DA1 glomerulus in the antennal lobe (AL) [32-34] (Figure 1A, B;
DA1-PNs). The DA1 glomerulus is mostly excluded from complex processing of
sensory information in the AL [35, 36], suggesting that by genetically marking the
DA1 PNs we could identify the individual boutons in the MBC that deliver the
olfactory response to cVA. We tested this by recording with volumetric calcium
imaging the response to odour stimulation in the MBC of animals expressing a
genetically encoded calcium indicator tethered at the KC postsynapses (*MB247-homer::GCaMP3*) [30] in combination with a presynaptic fluorescent tag (*UAS-td-Tomato*) expressed in DA1-PNs only (Figure 1C). Regions of interest (ROIs)
containing fluorescently labelled DA1-MGs showed a postsynaptic response
specifically tuned to cVA stimulation (84% of the fluorescently labelled MGs
responded to cVA only; n=7 animals, 72 boutons; Figure 1C).

Taken together, by selecting the combination of the cVA odorant and the DA1 subset

of PNs we established fly lines in which we can track a fly's neuronal response

towards a specific odour on the level of individual synaptic complexes in the MBC

(Figure 1A-C).

Figure 1 | Identification of the synapses in the MBC responding to cVA odour
stimulation

(A) Schematic representation of the olfactory circuit starting from the activation of specific
Olfactory Sensory Neurons (OSNs) by two exemplary odours cVA and GA. In the AL cVA-
responsive OSNs converge to the DA1 glomerulus (pale red), where they synapse onto DA1-
PNs (red). These deliver the cVA signal to the MBC via axon collaterals that terminate with
boutons forming large synaptic complexes, the MGs. Postsynaptic KCs are represented in
green. **(B)** Reconstruction from a full confocal serial section set of the DA1-PNs (red;

R37H08-Gal4> UAS GAP43::Venus); MBC (green; *MB247-Dα7::GFP*); DA1-PN cell bodies
(*); brain neuropil (light grey; α-synapsin antibody). **(C)** Volumetric calcium imaging of the
calyx of flies carrying *MB247-Homer::GCaMP3* (grey) and in which DA1-PNs are genetically
labelled (red; *R37H08-Gal4> UAS tdTomato*). cVA-elicited postsynaptic responses (green)
are specific to DA1-PNs, confirmed by the overlap between the two channels (yellow).
Generic response to the solvent (cyan= overlap of the responses to cVA+ EtOH, green, and
to EtOH only, blue). **(D)** Single DA1-PN (red) and the 14 KCs (green) postsynaptic to the
DA1-PN bouton indicated by the arrow. Tracings performed on the EM FAFB dataset [37].
Square brackets indicate location of MBC. Different green shades represent different KC
subtypes (as in E). Numbers in brackets in the legend represent the number of cells. **(E)**
Single EM section through the MG (arrow in D); scale bar = 1 µm. White square is magnified
in left top panel with arrow pointing to a T-bar of the AZ and * labelling fine dendritic
postsynaptic profiles of KCs. **(F)** Single plane confocal image of the MBC displaying PN
boutons (blue; α-synapsin antibodies); the PSDs of KCs (green; *MB247-Dα7::GFP*) and the
AZs of DA1-PN boutons only (red; *R37H08-Gal4 > UAS-brp-short^cherry*) identifying the cVA-
responsive MGs. Scale bar = 10 µm. The MG in the white square is magnified in the right
panels. **(G)** Automated 3D reconstruction of a confocal stack, including the image shown in
(F). The reconstruction of MGs is based on Dα7-GFP (green) (see also Figure S1) and MGs
receiving presynaptic input from DA1-PNs are marked by Brp–short^cherry (red). All other MGs
are in green. Full genotypes used and statistics for all Figures are included in the
Supplemental Genotypes and Statistics table.
99

To gain insight into the complexity of the MG microcircuit formed by a single DA1-PN

bouton we took advantage of the availability of a whole brain electron microscopy

(EM) volume of an adult female fly (FAFB) [37]. In this set of data we reconstructed a

complete MG connectome by tracing neurites from every pre- and postsynaptic

contact of a DA1-PN bouton until the corresponding neuron's identity was

anatomically determinable (Figure 1D, E; Supplementary Table 1). This particular

DA1-PN bouton made 33 excitatory, cholinergic contacts, all polyadic and identifiable

by the presence of a T-bar and of a synaptic cleft (Figure 1E, inset), apposed to 277

postsynaptic profiles. Most profiles (248) postsynaptic to the bouton originated from

14 KCs of 5 different subtypes: γmain (8), αβs (3), αβc (1), α'β'ap (1) and α'β'm (1)

[38](Figure 1D, E; Supplementary Table 1, Movie 1). γmain profiles were thus the

most abundant in this particular bouton, although DA1-PN boutons are located within

a region of the MBC predominantly occupied by αβs KCs [39]. Each KC contacted

the bouton with a single claw receiving 8 to 25 presynaptic inputs from the PN

bouton, in line with previous estimates [26, 31]. Within the MG, the bouton received

presynaptic input from 4 cells: two additional γmain KCs forming divergent triads that

included a KC, the PN bouton and the anterior paired lateral neuron (APL) [40]; APL

itself and one of the two Mushroom Body Calyx 1 neurons (MB-C1) (Supplementary

Table 1 and described elsewhere). Taken together, a single MG represents a highly

complex microcircuit, involving many neurons (19 in this example) of different types

(here 8).

To investigate whether such a complex structure could undergo plastic changes, we

designed a setup to reveal and measure the properties of identifiable MGs following

olfactory conditioning.

In confocal images, we highlighted cVA responsive MGs in the MBC by expressing

only in DA1-PNs the presynaptic active zone (AZ) marker Brp-short[cherry] (Figure 1F)

[29, 41]. The postsynaptic densities (PSDs) of KC dendrites were decorated by cell-

type specific genetic expression of a GFP-tagged Dα7 subunit of the acetylcholine

receptor (Figure 1F) [29]. MGs could thus be identified with a software-based

automated 3D-reconstruction tool exploiting the *MB247-Dα7::GFP* signal and were

then classified as DA1-PN positive if they additionally displayed Brp-short[cherry] co-

labelling (DA1-MG; Figure 1G; Figure S1). Further, we established an appetitive

associative conditioning paradigm using cVA or geranyl acetate (GA) as CS in STM

or LTM paradigms (Figure 2A; Figure S2A-C; see Methods) and applied it to flies

expressing the reporters mentioned above (Figure 2B, F, J). Alternatively, we mock-

trained the flies by presenting each odour or the sugar reward at 2 min intervals to

avoid the formation of appetitive association (Figure 2A, B, F, J) [42]. GA was chosen

as it activates a separate and non-overlapping set of PNs in comparison to cVA [43]

and 5% EtOH was added to provide a food-related context to the starved flies (Figure

S2B) [36, 44]. To assess if MGs formed by DA1-PN boutons (DA1-MGs) underwent

morphological modifications after learning, we prepared for confocal imaging female

fly brains dissected at 1 min (STM) or at 24 h (LTM) after training. After STM

establishment (Figure 2B) the total number, MG volume and lumen volume of DA1-

MGs was unchanged in cVA conditioned (cVA CS+) flies compared to the GA

conditioned (GA CS+) or mock control groups (average MG numbers: mock 28.91;

GA CS+ 30.40; cVA CS+ 28.76; n= 10-17; Figure 2C-E). However, in the LTM

paradigm (Figure 2F) the MG volume and the lumen volume of DA1-PN MGs were

decreased in cVA CS+ flies compared to GA CS+ or to mock-control flies (Figure 2G,

H). In addition, the total number of DA1-MGs was increased (average MG numbers:

mock 27.31; GA CS+ 27.47; cVA CS+ 32.06; n= 18-32; Figure 2I). Thus, LTM, but

not STM, was accompanied by an input-specific structural reorganization of the MBC

circuit, including an increase in MGs number. These changes were specific to the

conditioned odour, as they did not appear in the DA1-MGs when the conditioned

odour was GA. These data suggest that the neurons delivering the CS form new

boutons, which are of smaller size and enveloped by KC claws.

Olfactory associative learning relies on the function of the Ca^{2+}/CaM-dependent

adenylyl cyclase Rutabaga [42, 45, 46] and a defining trait of LTM is its dependence

on protein synthesis [6, 47, 48]. Indeed, a mutation in the *rutabaga* gene (*rut^{2080}*) [49]

or feeding flies with the protein synthesis inhibitor cycloheximide (CHX) immediately

after training abolished LTM (Figure 2J; Figure S2D). Importantly, loss of *rut* function

or CHX feeding also suppressed the structural changes in the DA1-MGs supporting

the correlation between LTM formation and structural changes in the circuit (Figure

2K-M; Figure S2E-G).

Figure 2 | Microglomeruli undergo structural changes upon appetitive long-term memory formation

(A) Schematic illustration of the appetitive conditioning paradigm. For training, the conditioned odour cVA (red box) or GA (blue box) is paired with sugar. In STM experiments flies are trained for 2 min with a 2 min interval between CS+ and CS- presentation and tested 1 min after training. In LTM experiments flies are trained for 5 min + 5 min with a 2 min stimulus interval and are tested 24 h after training. In the mock control the two odours and the sugar reward are presented in a temporally spaced sequence with a 2 min inter-stimulus pause. **(B, F, J)** Preference indices of flies *R37H08-Gal4/MB247-Dα7::GFP, UAS-brp-short^cherry* in the STM (n = 19 – 25) **(B)** or in the LTM (n = 14 - 19) paradigm **(F)** and preference index of *rut* mutant flies in LTM **(J)**, ($p > 0.05$, n = 17-18). Preference index values of the mock control group (grey bars) were compared to groups trained with GA CS+ (blue bar) or cVA CS+ (red bar). Multiple comparisons are tested throughout this study with one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction. Significance level is set at p < 0.05. *p < 0.05, ****p < 0.0001. In this and all other bar graphs, bars and error bars indicate mean and SEM, respectively. **(C, G, K)** MG volume is defined by the area enwrapped by the postsynaptic densities of KC dendrites. MG lumen volume **(D, H, L)** is the volume of the lumen as defined in Figure 1F. In STM the relative volume of DA1- MGs **(C)** and of their lumen **(D)** is not different between groups (p > 0.05; n = 15-20). In LTM the MG volume **(G)** and the lumen volume **(H)** of DA1- MGs in flies trained with cVA CS+ are smaller than in flies from the mock

control group or of flies trained with GA CS+ (* $p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$; n = 19–25). **(E, I, M)**
Number of DA1-PN positive MGs is unaffected in STM **(E)** ($p > 0.05$; n = 18 – 24). In LTM,
number of DA1-PN positive MGs in cVA CS+ trained flies is higher compared to flies of the
mock control or GA CS+ group **(I)** (*$p < 0.05$; n = 18-24)**. (K-L)** The structural modifications of
DA1- MGs in cVA CS+ trained flies after the appetitive LTM protocol were suppressed in *rut*
mutants ($p > 0.05$, n = 13–21). In all box plots in this and the following figures, the edges of
the boxes are the first and third quartiles, thick lines mark the medians, and whiskers
represent data range.

The increase in DA1-PN positive MG number after LTM formation with cVA CS+

suggests that new boutons might be formed during consolidation. To gain insight into

the cellular fundamentals of these modifications, we expressed in DA1-PN axons the

membrane-tagged fluorescent protein *UAS-GAP43::Venus* together with *UAS-brp-*

short^{cherry} and highlighted the postsynaptic densities on KC dendrites using *MB247-*

Dα7::GFP (Figure 3A-D). Serial optical sections of the MBCs of these flies trained

with cVA CS+, with GA CS+ or in the mock paradigm (Figure S2H) were used to

generate 3D reconstructions that were then aligned to a reference brain (JFRC2

[50]). The DA1-PN axons were then traced in the aligned high-resolution scans of the

MBC (Figure 3E). The DA1-PN boutons were highly clustered in the dorsal-posterior

part of the calyx [51], supporting the view that the localization within the MBC of DA1-

PN boutons is not entirely random (Figure 3F) [52]. The total length of DA1-PN

collaterals measured from the point where they leave the inner antennocerebral tract

(iACT) was increased in flies that had formed LTM after cVA CS+ training compared

to mock-control flies (Figure 3G). In addition, the total fraction of the MBC volume

containing DA1-PN positive boutons was increased in flies that had formed cVA CS+

LTM (Figure 3H). These observations suggest that during consolidation, additional

boutons are created by local growth at existing DA1-PN collaterals (Figure 3I).

Figure 3 | Modifications of axon collaterals and wiring properties of projection neurons within the mushroom body calyx after long-term memory formation

(A) Single optical section of the MBC of flies expressing Dα7GFP (green) in the KCs and Brp-short[cherry] (red) plus GAP43-Venus (yellow) in DA1-PNs (*R37H08-Gal4*); PN boutons (blue; anti-Synapsin antibodies). **(B-D)** Magnification of the white square in (A) displaying the merge as in A **(B)** or a maximum-intensity projection of Brp-short[cherry] **(C)** or of GAP43-Venus **(D)** signals. **(E)** Medial view of registered PN axons (grey) with traced boutons (grey, blue, red spheres) within a standard calyx (light green). The registered PN traces are of mock (grey), GA CS+ (blue) or cVA CS+ (red) trained groups. n = 10 for each group. **(F)** Boutons are highly clustered independently of the treatment (Clark and Evans Aggregation index compared to a hypothetical random distribution; ****p < 0.0001). **(G)** Total collateral axons length of mock control, GA CS+ or cVA CS+ flies. (*p < 0.05; n = 10). **(H)** The convex hull volume containing all DA1-boutons in the MBC per condition is increased in cVA CS+ flies compared to mock control and GA CS+ group. **(I)** We suggest that the increased number of MGs after consolidation is due to the formation of additional boutons responding to cVA. The additional boutons form full MGs, as postsynaptic profiles of KCs surround them. It is unclear whether this reorganization might lead to the recruitment of additional responding KCs (see Discussion).

To address whether the observed structural changes within the MGs after LTM

impact on the functional representation of the CS in the MBC we analysed calcium

dynamics in KC dendrites. For this, we utilized flies carrying *MB247-homer::GCaMP3*

[30] in combination with volumetric calcium imaging (Figure 4A). We utilized this

simple genotype to guarantee that flies performed well in LTM experiments (Figure

S2I). We measured calcium response in the entire MBC volume during a single

odour application (5 s odour stimulation) of either cVA (1:400 in 5% EtOH) or EtOH

alone (5%). To identify areas with increased calcium dynamics during odour

stimulation we overlaid a grid consisting of 5x5 µm² ROIs over each optical section of

the volumetric time series. Based on the grid segmentation, we then calculated the

average ΔF/F% for each ROI in the MBC. ROIs were classified as odour responsive

if the measured calcium response exceeded a set threshold (ΔF/F% > 3x standard

deviation) during the first 2 s of stimulation (Figure 4B, C; Figure S3A, B). The

response pattern elicited specifically by cVA was defined after subtraction of the

EtOH response (Figure 4C; Figure S3C, D; see also Figure 1C). This approach

yielded a comprehensive picture of the functional odour response over time in the

MBC of trained or control flies (Figure S3D, E). After appetitive LTM formation, the

percentage of cVA-responsive ROIs was increased in cVA CS+ flies compared to the

mock control (Figure 4D) (n = 7, p < 0.05), suggesting that the additional DA1-PN

boutons are functionally connected to their postsynaptic KC counterparts and

capable of initiating a response in the postsynaptic KCs. We further analysed the

calcium dynamics over time of all animals of the mock or cVA CS+ group (Figure 4E,

F). Linear regression analysis of the fluorescence change during odour stimulation

showed a steeper drop of the linear fit in cVA CS+ flies (R^2 = 0.6429) towards

baseline compared to flies of the mock control group (R^2 = 0.1124). Besides, the

response towards the odour was more variable in mock-trained flies compared to the

cVA CS+ flies (Figure S3F). Initially (0-4s after start of stimulation), the total response

towards cVA stimulation was indistinguishable between mock control and cVA CS+

group. However, at subsequent time points (4-7s after start of stimulation) responses

were significantly lower in KC dendrites of the cVA CS+ group compared to the mock

control, showing a faster calcium decay towards the trained odour in CS+ flies (n = 7,

p < 0.05) (Figure S3G). Together, these data indicate a temporal sharpening of the

odour response.

Figure 4 | Long-term memory-induced functional plasticity in the mushroom
body calyx

(A) Two-photon *in vivo* imaging setup. Schematic of a fly placed on a custom-made holder
under a two-photon microscope equipped with a 40x 1.1 NA water immersion objective. The
odour is delivered for 5s with a moisturized, constant air stream through a 1.2mm cannula.
(Central panel) Z series of the entire MBC volume of flies expressing post-synapse-tagged
Homer-GCaMP3 imaged during odour application at 1Hz (10 optical sections per volume,
4μm step size). (Right panel) A single slice of the image stack shown in the middle panel.

Scale bar = 10 μm. **(B)** Representative optical section from a volumetric time series showing
false-coloured response of KC dendrites to 5 s exposure to EtOH (top) or cVA + EtOH
(bottom). **(C)** Magnification of the red square area in (B). 5x5 μm^2 ROIs were classified as
cVA-responsive (red) if they were only active during cVA + EtOH application, but did not
respond to EtOH alone. **(D)** The percentage of cVA responsive ROIs increased after LTM
acquisition compared to the mock control (*p < 0.05; n = 7). **(E)** Dynamics of ΔF/F% changes
over time in KCs of *MB247-homer::GCaMP3* flies after mock training (top) or LTM acquisition
(bottom). Each row of the heat map represents average responses per animal of all cVA
responsive ROIs (pink) or of all carrier EtOH responsive ROIs (grey) within one MBC over
time. Each column represents one 1s. Flies are first exposed to the EtOH (5s) and then to
cVA + EtOH (5s) as indicated by the dashed lines. **(F)** Plot of average calcium dynamics over
time of cVA responsive ROIs during 5 s stimulation with EtOH or with cVA in EtOH (dashed
lines) in mock-trained (top) or cVA CS+ (bottom) flies (n = 7 per condition).

Discussion

We report input-specific reorganization of the adult MBC circuit associated with the

formation of long-term appetitive memory. By visualizing presynaptic markers in PNs

and the KC postsynaptic densities, we uncover an increase in the number of PN

boutons and at the same time reveal that these boutons are enveloped by KC

postsynaptic profiles, suggesting that new MGs are formed during memory

consolidation. These findings are particularly remarkable, given the high degree of

complexity of the MG microcircuits revealed by our EM reconstruction and including

the dendrite claws of multiple KCs of distinct subtypes. The cellular mechanisms

leading to the increased number of odour-specific complex MGs remain to be

clarified, but they will require a tight coordination between pre- and postsynaptic

partners. We suggest that they could be driven by intrinsic reactivation of KCs during

the consolidation phase [53, 54] or by modulatory inputs into the calyx [38, 55-58]. In

either case, we expect a complex pattern of activation that might be difficult to

reproduce in artificial settings [29, 59]. In agreement with our present report, the

density of PN boutons in the MBC increases after appetitive long-term conditioning in

honeybees and transiently also after avoidance learning in leaf-cutting ants [60, 61].

In comparison to those data, using genetic and functional identification of PN subsets

we reveal here that the structural modifications are specific and limited to the PNs

conveying the conditioned odour. Importantly, our *in vivo* functional imaging data

support the view that the circuit reorganization that we describe leads to additional

functional MGs responding to the conditioned odour. Additionally, they demonstrate a

specific change in functional response in the KC dendrites towards the trained odour

as the calcium levels drop faster towards baseline after appetitive associative

conditioning. The faster decay kinetics could contribute to a more efficient temporal

summation of responses or refine the KC response [62]. They are in line with recent

data from appetitive conditioning experiments from the honeybee possibly rooted in

inhibitory modifications [63]. An important open question is the effect of the increased

number of responding MGs on the pattern of KC activation. KCs respond sparsely to

odour input and require the coincident activation of multiple of their claws to produce

an action potential [64]. Our data might underlie the addition of connections between

the active PNs and, preferentially, a set of already responding KCs, leading to

facilitated response to the conditioned odour, but without changing the set of

responding KCs. A recent publication suggests an exciting alternative view. After

aversive LTM establishment, the number of KCs responding to the conditioned odour

is increased [65]. If we hypothesize that appetitive conditioning could lead to a similar

outcome, our data could provide anatomical and functional support to these findings.

The combination of these data suggests that the pattern of KC response is

modulated by experience during the adult life of the animal and might represent a

rich signifier of sensory stimulus and context.

Acknowledgements

We thank K. Keppler, M. Schoelling, A. Mueller and J. C. Vijayakumar for technical

assistance. We are grateful to C.B. Fisher, S.A. Calle-Schuler, N. Sharifi, B. Gorko, L.

Kmecova, I.J. Ali, N. Masoodpanah, J. Hsu and F. Li in D. D. Bock's lab for their

support in tracing evaluation. We thank Y. Aso, HHMI Janelia, the Kyoto Drosophila

Genetic Resource Center and the Bloomington Stock Center for fly lines and

FlyBase. We are grateful for their assistance to C. Moehl in the establishment of the

cluster analysis, S. Dipt with initial calcium imaging experiments and R. Court for

providing the brain aligner and support. We thank S. Sachse, D. Isbrandt, T. Hige, S.

Remy, M. Nawrot, O. Barnstedt, the members of the Tavosanis lab for discussion

and/or critical reading of the manuscript and B. Schaffran for help with video editing.

L.B. acknowledges support by the Bonn International Graduate School of

Neuroscience. This work was supported by the DFG FOR 2705 to G.T.

Author Contributions

L.B. and G.T. conceived the project and designed the experiments. L.B., P.R. and

L.P. constructed fly strains, performed behavioural experiments, produced and

analysed the anatomical data. J.S.L. and D.D.B. established the set of EM data and

P.R. performed the tracings presented here. Scripts and routines for the analysis

were established by L.B. and L.P. Functional imaging experiments were designed

and performed by L.B and L.P. with support by A.F. The manuscript was written by

G.T, L.B., P.R and L.P.

Competing Financial Interests statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

Methods

EM reconstruction and identification

Neuron skeletons were reconstructed in a serial section transmission electron microscope (ssTEM) volume of a complete female adult *Drosophila melanogaster* brain [37] and manually traced using CATMAID [66]. Thus, traced neuron skeletons represent the branching of neurons and the location of their cell bodies and synapses. Chemical synapses were manually annotated and identified consistently with the criteria of other CATMAID-based *Drosophila* connectomic studies [37]: 1) an active zone (AZ) surrounded by vesicles, 2) a presynaptic specialization (*e.g.* T-bar), 3) synaptic cleft and 4) a post synaptic density zone (PSD), which however can be absent. If the PSD is absent, we annotated all cells along the synaptic cleft as postsynaptic [37, 67]. Neuron identity is based on previously described morphologies in light microscopy (KC subtypes, APL, MB-C1, PN), such as dendritic branching, axonal projection and location in the neuropil [38, 40, 52, 68, 69]. Additionally, we performed a neuron search against a light microscopy dataset in NBLAST [70], as described in [37] for PN subtype identification. 3D reconstructions of the PN bouton and KC claws from ssTEM sections were created manually with the ImageJ plugin TrakEM2 [71].

Fly strains

Flies were raised at 25°C, 60% relative humidity in a 12h/12h light-dark cycle on a standard cornmeal-based diet. Individual insertions are listed below. Detailed information on genotypes used in this study is listed in the Supplemental Genotypes and Statistics table.

Insertion	Source	Reference
R37H08-Gal4	Kind gift of Y. Aso, HHMI, Janelia	FlyBase: FBti0191253
P{UASp-Venus.GAP43}10	Bloomington Drosophila Stock center	FlyBase: FBti0129930

P{UAS-tdTom.S}2	Bloomington Drosophila Stock center	FlyBase: FBti0145103
P{ry[+t7.2]=lArB}rut[2080]	Kind gift of A. Fiala, Uni Goettingen	[49] FlyBase: FBti0003267
P{UAS-GCaMP3.homer}	Kind gift of A. Fiala, Uni Goettingen	[30]
MB247-Dα7::GFP	Lab stock collection	[29]
UAS-brp-short^{cherry}	Lab stock collection	[29]

Behaviour

All experimental steps were performed at 23°C, 60% relative humidity using mixed

populations of *Drosophila* males and females maintained in a 12h/12h light/dark

cycle. Flies were collected 0-4d after eclosion, starved for 24 hours on wet paper

tissue (Kimberly-Clark Worldwide Inc.) allowing for water uptake and then trained. In

appetitive memory experiments ~80 flies were first exposed to an odour (CS-) alone

(2min in short- and 5 minutes in long-term memory experiments). After a 2min inter-

stimulus pause flies were trained by receiving dry sucrose on filter paper (3M Chr,

Whatman) paired with a second odour (CS+) (2min in short- and 5 minutes in long-

term memory experiments). 5 minutes of sugar availability improved the survival of

flies undergoing the LTM paradigm. In mock controls, all stimuli used in the

associative conditioning experiment were presented separately. Flies were tested

after 1min retention time for short- or after 24h retention time for long-term memory.

During the 24h retention flies were deprived of food and maintained in tubes

containing moist paper tissue. During the test flies were allowed to choose between

CS+ and CS- odours in a T-maze for 2min. A preference index (PI) was then

calculated as the ratio of the difference between the number of flies that chose the

CS+ and those that chose the CS- odour and the total number of flies: $PI =$

$\frac{(CS+)-(CS-)}{(CS+)+(CS-)}$. Odours used for conditioning were 11-cis vaccenyl acetate (Cayman

393 Chemicals) 1:400 in 5% EtOH in PBS, geranyl acetate (Sigma Aldrich) 1:100 in 5%

394 EtOH in PBS or 5% EtOH in PBS. EtOH was necessary to provide a food-related

395 context to the starved flies (Figure S2B).

396 **De-novo protein synthesis inhibition**

397 Immediately after training, flies were fed 35 mM cycloheximide (Sigma-Aldrich) [6]

398 dissolved in 125mM sucrose and 0.01% carmine solution for 30min. The red dye

399 carmine allowed confirming rapid drug uptake. A control group fed with 125mM

400 sucrose and 0.01% carmine (Sigma-Aldrich) solution showed no learning defects.

401 **Immunohistochemistry**

402 2-5 flies were randomly picked from conditioning experiments right before testing.

403 Brains of females were dissected in cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) with 0.05%

404 Triton and subsequently fixed in PBS containing 4% formaldehyde at RT for 50 min.

405 After fixation brains were washed in PBS with 0.3% Triton before incubation

406 overnight at 4°C with the following primary antibodies all diluted in PBS with 0.3%

407 Triton: rabbit anti-RFP (1:2000; Rockland), rabbit anti-GFP (1:200; Life

408 Technologies), mouse monoclonal anti-synapsin (3C11, 1:100; DSHB), mouse

409 monoclonal anti-β-Galactosidase (1:200 Abcam). After washing, the brains were

410 incubated with secondary antibodies in PBS containing 0.3% Triton for 4h at RT.

411 The secondary antibodies were Alexa Fluor568-conjugated goat anti-rabbit, Alexa

412 Fluor488-conjugated goat anti-rabbit, Alexa Fluor568-conjugated goat anti-mouse,

413 Alexa Fluor633-conjugated goat anti-mouse (all used 1:200 and from Life

414 Technologies). Brains were mounted in Vectashield (Vector) and imaged with a laser

415 scanning confocal microscope (LSM 780, Zeiss). For high resolution scans we used

416 a C Plan-Apochromat 63x/1,4 Oil objective (Zeiss) with a voxel size of

417 $0.09x0.09x0.25\mu m^3$ for quantitative analysis. Overviews of entire brains were taken

418 with an LCI Plan-Apochromat 25x/0.8 objective (Zeiss) at a voxel size of

419 $0.55x0.55x1\mu m^3$.

420 **Axon reconstruction**

To analyse axon and bouton distribution in the calyx, membrane-tagged Venus was

expressed in addition to the previously used markers under the control of a DA1-PN

Gal4-driver line (*R37H08-GAL4, UAS-Gap43::Venus / MB247-Dα7::GFP, UAS-brp-*

short^{cherry}). Brains of 10 female flies per condition were immunolabelled with anti-

synapsin antibodies (as above) and imaged. For PN axon reconstruction a high-

resolution scan ($0.09x0.09x0.25\mu m^3$, 63x NA1.4 oil immersion) of the right brain

hemisphere of female flies was acquired with a confocal microscope. In addition, an

overview scan used for registration was taken with a low magnification objective (25x;

NA 0.8 multi-immersion). PN axon reconstruction was performed on the high-

resolution scan of Venus signal in the trees toolbox available for Matlab [72]. In a

second step tracings and high-resolution images were aligned to the registered calyx.

For generation of a standard calyx with a volume of 37583 μm^3 (Figure 3E, light

green) the Dα7 signal of three registered calyces was averaged and reconstructed in

Amira using the segmentation editor. Next, tracings were aligned to the registered

overview scan in two steps. First, the iACT of the high-resolution image and of the

registered brain in the Venus channel were aligned. Next, the calyx volume of the

high-resolution calyx and the standard calyx went through a rigid registration

performed in Amira. The alignment parameters were then applied to the axon

reconstructions. Boutons were traced on the now registered high-resolution images

with the landmark function in Amira. Bouton distribution inside the MBC was

evaluated within a 3D grid of $10\mu m^3$ cubes.

Two-photon *in vivo* calcium imaging

A mixed population of up to 4 d old *MB247-homer::GCaMP3* flies were starved for

18h at 22°C before appetitive conditioning with cVA (1:400, 5% EtOH in PBS), GA

(1:100, 5% EtOH in PBS) was used as CS-. Starved untrained flies displayed no bias

towards either of these odours at 24 hours. Flies used for imaging were randomly

picked from the trained group right before testing. They were used for imaging only if

the remaining flies from the same group had learned. For imaging, flies were briefly

anesthetized on a peltier element at 4°C, placed into a custom-built imaging chamber

(Figure 4A) and fixed using adhesive tape. The head capsule was opened under

Ringer´s solution (5 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 130 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 2

mM $MgCl_2$). To minimize movement brains were stabilized with 1,5% low melting

agarose (Thermo Scientific) in Ringer´s solution. Flies were imaged with a two-

photon laser-scanning microscope (LaVision BioTec, TriM Scope II) equipped with an

ultra-fast z-motor (PIFOC® Objective Scanner Systems 100µm range) and a Zeiss

C-Apochromat 40x, 1.1 NA water –immersion objective. Two-photon images were

analysed using Fiji/ImageJ [73]. GCaMP fluorescence was excited at 920 nm using a

Ti:sapphire laser (Coherent Chameleon). A stack consisting of ~ 10 optical sections

was taken at 1Hz in approximately 0,26x0,26µm xy- and at 4µm z- resolution. Odours

were applied with a constant humidified air stream (10ml/s) using a commercial

device (Stimulus Controller CS 55, Ockenfels SYNTECH GbmH) triggered 5s after

acquisition of the 1st frame by a multifunction I/O module (NI USB-6008), which was

controlled by Matlab (Data Acquisition Toolbox). To record DA1 neurons specific

responses, *UAS-tdTomato; R37H08-GAL4, MB247-Homer::GCaMP3* flies were

anesthetized on ice, positioned in a polycarbonate imaging chamber ([74]; gift from S.

Tomchik), and immobilized using Myristic Acid (Sigma-Aldrich). To allow optical

access to the Calyx, a small window was opened through the head capsule under

Ringer´s solution. Two-photon microscopy was conducted as described above.

Two-photon image data processing

The time series was processed with a custom Fiji/ ImageJ macro and corrected for

small x/y shifts with the StackReg plug-in [75]. A grid (ROIs, side length 5 µm) was

assigned for each optical slide of a stack covering the entire calyx. Intensity tables of

each square of the grid were exported to Microsoft Excel and the ΔF/F was

calculated. The baseline (F_0) was set by averaging the intensities within each ROI of

the 5 frames prior to odour stimulation. ROIs were regarded as responsive, if their

normalized ΔF/F% throughout the first 2s of odour application exceeded 3x the

standard deviation of the F_0 of the same ROI in the 5s (=5 images) before odour

stimulation. ROIs below that threshold were assigned into the category

"unresponsive". ROIs calcium responses higher than the threshold were further

subdivided into three categories. The first category was "Carrier" (responsive to both,

5% EtOH and 1:400 cVA, 5% EtOH). The second category was "cVA" (responsive

only to 1:400 cVA, 5% EtOH and not to 5% EtOH) or "EtOH" (response only to 5%

EtOH application and not to 1:400 cVA, 5% EtOH). To analyse DA1 boutons

responses to 5% EtOH and 1:400 cVA+ 5% EtOH were recorded from naïve *UAS-*

tdTomato; R37H08-GAL4, MB247-Homer::GCaMP3 flies, exported to Fiji/ ImageJ and ROIs were manually drawn around DA1 boutons based on the tdTomato fluorescence. Intensity values of each ROI were transferred to Microsoft Excel and $\Delta F/F$ values were calculated using the average of the first 5 frames prior to odour stimulation as baseline (F_0). Responsive ROIs were defined as above. These results were age, gender and sequence independent as presenting the odours in a different order did not change the results of the analysis. Calcium traces were generated in Prism 7 (GraphPad Software).

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed with Prism7.01 software (GraphPad). All data were tested for normality (D'Agostino & Pearson omnibus normality test) and homogeneity of variances (F-test). Comparisons of normally distributed data were tested by a one-sample t test, a two-sample t test or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by planned, pairwise multiple-comparison tests with adjusted p-values (Bonferroni), as shown in the Genotypes and Statistics table. Definition of statistical significance was set to <0.05. Asterisks denote * $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$; **** $p<0.0001$; n.s. not significant.

References

1. Josselyn, S.A., and Tonegawa, S. (2020). Memory engrams: Recalling the past and imagining the future. Science *367*.

2. Boto, T., Stahl, A., and Tomchik, S.M. (2020). Cellular and circuit mechanisms of olfactory associative learning in Drosophila. Journal of neurogenetics *34*, 36-46.

3. Wang, Y., Mamiya, A., Chiang, A.-s., and Zhong, Y. (2008). Imaging of an early memory trace in the Drosophila mushroom body. The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience *28*, 4368-4376.

4. Liu, C., Placais, P.Y., Yamagata, N., Pfeiffer, B.D., Aso, Y., Friedrich, A.B., Siwanowicz, I., Rubin, G.M., Preat, T., and Tanimoto, H. (2012). A subset of dopamine neurons signals reward for odour memory in Drosophila. Nature *488*, 512-516.

5. Burke, C.J., Huetteroth, W., Owald, D., Perisse, E., Krashes, M.J., Das, G., Gohl, D., Silies, M., Certel, S., and Waddell, S. (2012). Layered reward signalling through octopamine and dopamine in Drosophila. Nature *492*, 433-437.

6. Tully, T., Preat, T., Boynton, S.C., and Del Vecchio, M. (1994). Genetic dissection of consolidated memory in Drosophila. Cell *79*, 35-47.

7.   Bailey, C.H., Bartsch, D., and Kandel, E.R. (1996). Toward a molecular definition of
long-term memory storage. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *93*, 13445-13452.

8.   Dubnau, J., and Chiang, A.S. (2013). Systems memory consolidation in Drosophila.
Curr Opin Neurobiol *23*, 84-91.

9.   Cervantes-Sandoval, I., Martin-Pena, A., Berry, J.A., and Davis, R.L. (2013). System-like
consolidation of olfactory memories in Drosophila. J Neurosci *33*, 9846-9854.

10.   Kitamura, T., and Ogawa, S.K. (2017). Engrams and circuits crucial for systems
consolidation of a memory. *356*, 73-78.

11.   Caroni, P., Donato, F., and Muller, D. (2012). Structural plasticity upon learning:
regulation and functions. Nat Rev Neurosci *13*, 478-490.

12.   Holtmaat, A., and Caroni, P. (2016). Functional and structural underpinnings of
neuronal assembly formation in learning. Nat Neurosci *19*, 1553-1562.

13.   Kleim, J.A., Freeman, J.H., Jr., Bruneau, R., Nolan, B.C., Cooper, N.R., Zook, A., and
Walters, D. (2002). Synapse formation is associated with memory storage in the
cerebellum. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *99*, 13228-13231.

14.   Hihara, S., Notoya, T., Tanaka, M., Ichinose, S., Ojima, H., Obayashi, S., Fujii, N., and
Iriki, A. (2006). Extension of corticocortical afferents into the anterior bank of the
intraparietal sulcus by tool-use training in adult monkeys. Neuropsychologia *44*,
2636-2646.

15.   Bassett, D.S., Wymbs, N.F., Porter, M.A., Mucha, P.J., Carlson, J.M., and Grafton, S.T.
(2011). Dynamic reconfiguration of human brain networks during learning. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A *108*, 7641-7646.

16.   Gu, S., Pasqualetti, F., Cieslak, M., Telesford, Q.K., Yu, A.B., Kahn, A.E., Medaglia, J.D.,
Vettel, J.M., Miller, M.B., Grafton, S.T., et al. (2015). Controllability of structural brain
networks. Nat Commun *6*, 8414.

17.   Maviel, T., Durkin, T.P., Menzaghi, F., and Bontempi, B. (2004). Sites of neocortical
reorganization critical for remote spatial memory. Science (New York, N.Y.) *305*, 96-
99.

18.   Chklovskii, D.B., Mel, B.W., and Svoboda, K. (2004). Cortical rewiring and information
storage. Nature *431*, 782-788.

19.   Gogolla, N., Galimberti, I., and Caroni, P. (2007). Structural plasticity of axon
terminals in the adult. Curr Opin Neurobiol *17*, 516-524.

20.   Bennett, S.H., Kirby, A.J., and Finnerty, G.T. (2018). Rewiring the connectome:
Evidence and effects. Neurosci Biobehav Rev *88*, 51-62.

21.   Boele, H.J., Koekkoek, S.K., De Zeeuw, C.I., and Ruigrok, T.J. (2013). Axonal sprouting
and formation of terminals in the adult cerebellum during associative motor learning.
J Neurosci *33*, 17897-17907.

22.   Chen, J.L., Margolis, D.J., Stankov, A., Sumanovski, L.T., Schneider, B.L., and
Helmchen, F. (2015). Pathway-specific reorganization of projection neurons in
somatosensory cortex during learning. Nat Neurosci *18*, 1101-1108.

23. Poort, J., Khan, A.G., Pachitariu, M., Nemri, A., Orsolic, I., Krupic, J., Bauza, M., Sahani,
M., Keller, G.B., Mrsic-Flogel, T.D., et al. (2015). Learning Enhances Sensory and
Multiple Non-sensory Representations in Primary Visual Cortex. Neuron *86*, 1478-
1490.

24. Grewe, B.F., Grundemann, J., Kitch, L.J., Lecoq, J.A., Parker, J.G., Marshall, J.D., Larkin,
M.C., Jercog, P.E., Grenier, F., Li, J.Z., et al. (2017). Neural ensemble dynamics
underlying a long-term associative memory. Nature *543*, 670-675.

25. de Belle, J.S., and Heisenberg, M. (1994). Associative odor learning in Drosophila
abolished by chemical ablation of mushroom bodies. Science *263*, 692-695.

26. Butcher, N.J., Friedrich, A.B., Lu, Z., Tanimoto, H., and Meinertzhagen, I.A. (2012).
Different classes of input and output neurons reveal new features in microglomeruli
of the adult Drosophila mushroom body calyx. J Comp Neurol *520*, 2185-2201.

27. Caron, S.J., Ruta, V., Abbott, L.F., and Axel, R. (2013). Random convergence of
olfactory inputs in the Drosophila mushroom body. Nature *497*, 113-117.

28. Yasuyama, K., Meinertzhagen, I.A., and Schurmann, F.W. (2002). Synaptic
organization of the mushroom body calyx in Drosophila melanogaster. J Comp Neurol
445, 211-226.

29. Kremer, M.C., Christiansen, F., Leiss, F., Paehler, M., Knapek, S., Andlauer, T.F.,
Forstner, F., Kloppenburg, P., Sigrist, S.J., and Tavosanis, G. (2010). Structural long-
term changes at mushroom body input synapses. Curr Biol *20*, 1938-1944.

30. Pech, U., Revelo, N.H., Seitz, K.J., Rizzoli, S.O., and Fiala, A. (2015). Optical dissection
of experience-dependent pre- and postsynaptic plasticity in the Drosophila brain. Cell
Rep *10*, 2083-2095.

31. Leiss, F., Groh, C., Butcher, N.J., Meinertzhagen, I.A., and Tavosanis, G. (2009).
Synaptic organization in the adult Drosophila mushroom body calyx. J Comp Neurol
517, 808-824.

32. Datta, S.R., Vasconcelos, M.L., Ruta, V., Luo, S., Wong, A., Demir, E., Flores, J.,
Balonze, K., Dickson, B.J., and Axel, R. (2008). The Drosophila pheromone cVA
activates a sexually dimorphic neural circuit. Nature *452*, 473-477.

33. Kurtovic, A., Widmer, A., and Dickson, B.J. (2007). A single class of olfactory neurons
mediates behavioural responses to a Drosophila sex pheromone. Nature *446*, 542-
546.

34. Schlief, M.L., and Wilson, R.I. (2007). Olfactory processing and behavior downstream
from highly selective receptor neurons. Nat Neurosci *10*, 623-630.

35. Lebreton, S., Grabe, V., Omondi, A.B., Ignell, R., Becher, P.G., Hansson, B.S., Sachse,
S., and Witzgall, P. (2014). Love makes smell blind: mating suppresses pheromone
attraction in Drosophila females via Or65a olfactory neurons. Sci Rep *4*, 7119.

36. Lebreton, S., Trona, F., Borrero-Echeverry, F., Bilz, F., Grabe, V., Becher, P.G.,
Carlsson, M.A., Nässel, D.R., Hansson, B.S., Sachse, S., et al. (2015). Feeding regulates
sex pheromone attraction and courtship in Drosophila females. Scientific Reports *5*,
13132.

37. Zheng, Z., Lauritzen, J.S., Perlman, E., Robinson, C.G., Nichols, M., Milkie, D., Torrens,
O., Price, J., Fisher, C.B., Sharifi, N., et al. (2018). A Complete Electron Microscopy
Volume of the Brain of Adult Drosophila melanogaster. Cell *174*, 730-743 e722.

38. Aso, Y., Hattori, D., Yu, Y., Johnston, R.M., Iyer, N.A., Ngo, T.T., Dionne, H., Abbott,
L.F., Axel, R., Tanimoto, H., et al. (2014). The neuronal architecture of the mushroom
body provides a logic for associative learning. Elife *3*, e04577.

39. Lin, H.H., Lai, J.S., Chin, A.L., Chen, Y.C., and Chiang, A.S. (2007). A map of olfactory
representation in the Drosophila mushroom body. Cell *128*, 1205-1217.

40. Liu, X., and Davis, R.L. (2009). The GABAergic anterior paired lateral neuron
suppresses and is suppressed by olfactory learning. Nat Neurosci *12*, 53-59.

41. Schmid, A., Hallermann, S., Kittel, R.J., Khorramshahi, O., Frolich, A.M., Quentin, C.,
Rasse, T.M., Mertel, S., Heckmann, M., and Sigrist, S.J. (2008). Activity-dependent
site-specific changes of glutamate receptor composition in vivo. Nat Neurosci *11*,
659-666.

42. Tempel, B.L., Bonini, N., Dawson, D.R., and Quinn, W.G. (1983). Reward learning in
normal and mutant Drosophila. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *80*, 1482-1486.

43. Bhandawat, V., Olsen, S.R., Gouwens, N.W., Schlief, M.L., and Wilson, R.I. (2007).
Sensory processing in the Drosophila antennal lobe increases reliability and
separability of ensemble odor representations. Nat Neurosci *10*, 1474-1482.

44. Pohl, J.B., Baldwin, B.A., Dinh, B.L., Rahman, P., Smerek, D., Prado, F.J., Sherazee, N.,
and Atkinson, N.S. (2012). Ethanol preference in Drosophila melanogaster is driven
by its caloric value. Alcoholism, clinical and experimental research *36*, 1903-1912.

45. Levin, L.R., Han, P.L., Hwang, P.M., Feinstein, P.G., Davis, R.L., and Reed, R.R. (1992).
The Drosophila learning and memory gene rutabaga encodes a Ca2+/Calmodulin-
responsive adenylyl cyclase. Cell *68*, 479-489.

46. Thum, A.S., Jenett, A., Ito, K., Heisenberg, M., and Tanimoto, H. (2007). Multiple
memory traces for olfactory reward learning in Drosophila. J Neurosci *27*, 11132-
11138.

47. Lagasse, F., Devaud, J.M., and Mery, F. (2009). A switch from cycloheximide-resistant
consolidated memory to cycloheximide-sensitive reconsolidation and extinction in
Drosophila. J Neurosci *29*, 2225-2230.

48. Davis, R.L. (2011). Traces of Drosophila memory. Neuron *70*, 8-19.

49. Han, P.L., Levin, L.R., Reed, R.R., and Davis, R.L. (1992). Preferential expression of the
Drosophila rutabaga gene in mushroom bodies, neural centers for learning in insects.
Neuron *9*, 619-627.

50. Jenett, A., Rubin, G.M., Ngo, T.T., Shepherd, D., Murphy, C., Dionne, H., Pfeiffer, B.D.,
Cavallaro, A., Hall, D., Jeter, J., et al. (2012). A GAL4-driver line resource for
Drosophila neurobiology. Cell Rep *2*, 991-1001.

51. Clark, P.J., and Evans, F.C. (1954). Distance to nearest neighbour as a measure of
spatial relationships in populations. Ecology *35*, 445-453.

52. Jefferis, G.S., Potter, C.J., Chan, A.M., Marin, E.C., Rohlfing, T., Maurer, C.R., Jr., and
Luo, L. (2007). Comprehensive maps of Drosophila higher olfactory centers: spatially
segregated fruit and pheromone representation. Cell *128*, 1187-1203.

53. Ichinose, T., Aso, Y., Yamagata, N., Abe, A., Rubin, G.M., and Tanimoto, H. (2015).
Reward signal in a recurrent circuit drives appetitive long-term memory formation.
Elife *4*, e10719.

54. Cognigni, P., Felsenberg, J., and Waddell, S. (2018). Do the right thing: neural network
mechanisms of memory formation, expression and update in Drosophila. Curr Opin
Neurobiol *49*, 51-58.

55. Mao, Z., and Davis, R.L. (2009). Eight different types of dopaminergic neurons
innervate the Drosophila mushroom body neuropil: anatomical and physiological
heterogeneity. Front Neural Circuits *3*, 5.

56. Chen, C.C., Wu, J.K., Lin, H.W., Pai, T.P., Fu, T.F., Wu, C.L., Tully, T., and Chiang, A.S.
(2012). Visualizing long-term memory formation in two neurons of the Drosophila
brain. Science *335*, 678-685.

57. Busch, S., Selcho, M., Ito, K., and Tanimoto, H. (2009). A map of octopaminergic
neurons in the Drosophila brain. J Comp Neurol *513*, 643-667.

58. Boto, T., Stahl, A., Zhang, X., Louis, T., and Tomchik, S.M. (2019). Independent
Contributions of Discrete Dopaminergic Circuits to Cellular Plasticity, Memory
Strength, and Valence in Drosophila. Cell Rep *27*, 2014-2021 e2012.

59. Warth Perez Arias, C.C., Frosch, P., Fiala, A., and Riemensperger, T.D. (2020).
Stochastic and Arbitrarily Generated Input Patterns to the Mushroom Bodies Can
Serve as Conditioned Stimuli in Drosophila. Front Physiol *11*, 53.

60. Hourcade, B., Muenz, T.S., Sandoz, J.C., Rossler, W., and Devaud, J.M. (2010). Long-
term memory leads to synaptic reorganization in the mushroom bodies: a memory
trace in the insect brain? J Neurosci *30*, 6461-6465.

61. Falibene, A., Roces, F., and Rossler, W. (2015). Long-term avoidance memory
formation is associated with a transient increase in mushroom body synaptic
complexes in leaf-cutting ants. Front Behav Neurosci *9*, 84.

62. Gupta, N., and Stopfer, M. (2014). A temporal channel for information in sparse
sensory coding. Curr Biol *24*, 2247-2256.

63. Haenicke, J., Yamagata, N., Zwaka, H., Nawrot, M., and Menzel, R. (2018). Neural
Correlates of Odor Learning in the Presynaptic Microglomerular Circuitry in the
Honeybee Mushroom Body Calyx. eNeuro *5*.

64. Gruntman, E., and Turner, G.C. (2013). Integration of the olfactory code across
dendritic claws of single mushroom body neurons. Nat Neurosci *16*, 1821-1829.

65. Delestro, F., Scheunemann, L., Pedrazzani, M., Tchenio, P., Preat, T., and Genovesio,
A. (2020). In vivo large-scale analysis of Drosophila neuronal calcium traces by
automated tracking of single somata. Scientific Reports *10*, 7153.

66.   Saalfeld, S., Cardona, A., Hartenstein, V., and Tomancak, P. (2009). CATMAID:
collaborative annotation toolkit for massive amounts of image data. Bioinformatics
25, 1984-1986.

67.   Prokop, A., and Meinertzhagen, I.A. (2006). Development and structure of synaptic
contacts in Drosophila. Semin Cell Dev Biol *17*, 20-30.

68.   Tanaka, N.K., Tanimoto, H., and Ito, K. (2008). Neuronal assemblies of the Drosophila
mushroom body. J Comp Neurol *508*, 711-755.

69.   Grabe, V., Strutz, A., Baschwitz, A., Hansson, B.S., and Sachse, S. (2015). Digital in vivo
3D atlas of the antennal lobe of Drosophila melanogaster. J Comp Neurol *523*, 530-
544.

70.   Costa, M., Manton, J.D., Ostrovsky, A.D., Prohaska, S., and Jefferis, G.S. (2016).
NBLAST: Rapid, Sensitive Comparison of Neuronal Structure and Construction of
Neuron Family Databases. Neuron *91*, 293-311.

71.   Cardona, A., Saalfeld, S., Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Preibisch, S., Longair, M.,
Tomancak, P., Hartenstein, V., and Douglas, R.J. (2012). TrakEM2 software for neural
circuit reconstruction. PLoS One *7*, e38011.

72.   Cuntz, H., Forstner, F., Borst, A., and Hausser, M. (2011). The TREES toolbox--probing
the basis of axonal and dendritic branching. Neuroinformatics *9*, 91-96.

73.   Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Frise, E., Kaynig, V., Longair, M., Pietzsch, T.,
Preibisch, S., Rueden, C., Saalfeld, S., Schmid, B., et al. (2012). Fiji: an open-source
platform for biological-image analysis. Nat Methods *9*, 676-682.

74.   Louis, T., Stahl, A., Boto, T., and Tomchik, S.M. (2018). Cyclic AMP-dependent
plasticity underlies rapid changes in odor coding associated with reward learning.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *115*, E448-E457.

75.   Thevenaz, P., Ruttimann, U.E., and Unser, M. (1998). A pyramid approach to subpixel
registration based on intensity. IEEE Trans Image Process *7*, 27-41.