Neural circuit mechanisms for transforming learned olfactory valences into

wind-oriented movement

Yoshinori Aso[1]*, Daichi Yamada[2], Daniel Bushey[1], Karen Hibbard[1], Megan

Sammons[1], Hideo Otsuna[1], Yichun Shuai[1], Toshihide Hige[2,3,4]*

1: Janelia Research Campus, Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Ashburn, United

States

2: Department of Biology, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill,

United States

3: Department of Cell Biology and Physiology, University of North Carolina at Chapel

Hill, Chapel Hill, United States

4: Integrative Program for Biological and Genome Sciences, University of North

Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, United States

Contact Info

asoy@janelia.hhmi.org

hige@email.unc.edu

Summary

How memories are used by the brain to guide future action is poorly understood. In

olfactory associative learning in Drosophila, multiple compartments of the mushroom

body act in parallel to assign valence to a stimulus. Here, we show that appetitive

memories stored in different compartments induce different levels of upwind locomotion.

Using a photoactivation screen of a new collection of split-GAL4 drivers and EM

connectomics, we identified a cluster of neurons postsynaptic to the mushroom body

output neurons (MBONs) that can trigger robust upwind steering. These UpWind

Neurons (UpWiNs) integrate inhibitory and excitatory synaptic inputs from MBONs of

appetitive and aversive memory compartments, respectively. After training, disinhibition

from the appetitive-memory MBONs enhances the response of UpWiNs to reward-

predicting odors. Blocking UpWiNs impaired appetitive memory and reduced upwind

locomotion during retrieval. Photoactivation of UpWiNs also increased the chance of

returning to a location where activation was initiated, suggesting an additional role in

olfactory navigation. Thus, our results provide insight into how learned abstract valences

are gradually transformed into concrete memory-driven actions through divergent and

convergent networks, a neuronal architecture that is commonly found in the vertebrate

and invertebrate brains.

Introduction

Animals assign a valence to a stimulus based on experience. Such learning events

induce an enduring modification in the stimulus-evoked activity of the nervous system

and ultimately change the behavioral response to future encounters with the same

stimulus. In mammals, the amygdala is the primary site for valence assignment during

Pavlovian learning (O'Neill et al., 2018). As a neutral sensory stimulus (conditioned

stimulus, CS) is paired with punishment or reward (unconditioned stimulus, US), the CS

acquires the capacity to evoke valence-specific response patterns in the amygdala

(Grewe et al., 2017; Zhang and Li, 2018). However, the circuit process in which these

learning-dependent CS representations lead to concrete motor patterns during memory

retrieval is poorly understood. Comprehensive understanding of this process requires

detailed knowledge of the downstream connectivity of the plastic CS-representing

neurons. Nevertheless, it has been shown that amygdala-dependent valence-specific

behaviors are mediated by distinct networks (Gore et al., 2015) whose outputs diverge to

different projection areas responsible for aversive or appetitive unconditioned responses

(Beyeler et al., 2016; Namburi et al., 2015). There is also evidence for an alternative

mechanism where neurons capable of eliciting opposing behaviors converge on the

same target areas or neurons. For example, GABAergic and glutamatergic projection

neurons from the lateral hypothalamus to the ventral tegmental areas (VTA) can evoke

appetitive and aversive behaviors, respectively. These projection neurons converge on

the same population of GABAergic neurons in VTA to differentially control downstream

dopaminergic neurons (Nieh et al., 2016). Thus, both divergent and convergent circuit

motifs are considered important for the valence-to-behavior transformation in vertebrates

(Tye, 2018).

Divergent pathways for valence processing are also evident in the memory circuit in

Drosophila both anatomically and functionally. In fly olfactory learning, the primary site

for CS-US association is the mushroom body (MB), where parallel axon fibers of the

odor-encoding Kenyon cells (KCs) are segmented into a series of MB compartments that

are defined by the dendrites of MB output neurons (MBONs) andaxons of US-encoding

dopaminergic neurons (DANs) (Aso et al., 2014a; Tanaka et al., 2008)(Figure 1A).

While population activity of KCs represents odor identity (Campbell et al., 2013), that of

MBONs is less effective in doing so (Hige et al., 2015b). Instead, individual MBONs are

considered to encode the valence of stimuli because optogenetic activation of each type

of MBONs can elicit either approach or avoidance behavior (Aso et al., 2014b; Owald et

al., 2015). However, MBONs do not appear to command specific motor sequences

because their activation does not induce stereotyped motor patterns (Aso et al., 2014b).

Thus, how abstract valence signals carried by MBONs are translated into concrete motor

patterns is unknown.

The MB compartments are arranged such that the valence of DANs is opposite to that of

the corresponding MBONs in a given compartment (Aso et al., 2014b). During learning,

coactivation of DANs and KCs induces long-term depression of KC-MBON synapses in

a compartment-specific manner (Berry et al., 2018; Cohn et al., 2015; Hige et al., 2015a;

Owald et al., 2015). Thus, the prevailing hypothesis is that learning-induced depression

in a subset of MBONs tips the collective balance of positive and negative valences

represented by the MBON population, which are in balance in naive flies, and thereby

biases the odor choice (Heisenberg, 2003; Hige, 2018; Modi et al., 2020; Owald and

Waddell, 2015). Supporting this view, photoactivation of multiple types of MBONs

encoding the same or opposite valences exerts additive effects for induction of attraction

and avoidance (Aso et al., 2014b). This model predicts that the circuits downstream of

the MB should be sensitive to skewed activity patterns of the MBON population. Such a

computation can be performed by neurons integrating or comparing the output signals of

multiple MBONs. In fact, axon terminals of the MBONs are confined to relatively limited

brain regions, suggesting that they converge on common neurons (Aso et al., 2014a).

The comprehensive EM connectome indeed revealed that 600 out of 1550 postsynaptic

neurons of MBONs also receive input from at least one other MBON (Li et al., 2020).

However, whether those convergent circuit motifs function to decode the parallel

memories formed in the MB and, if so, how they shape motor patterns during memory

retrieval are unknown.

The functional diversity of the MB compartments is not limited to the sign of memory

valence. At least 5 out of 15 MB compartments are identified as appetitive memory

compartments, and yet they exhibit distinct memory properties (Aso et al., 2014b; Aso

and Rubin, 2016). For example, memory formation in the α1 compartment requires

relatively long training, but once formed, lasts more than a day. In contrast, memory in

γ5β′2a requires only a single training to form but is transient and easily overwritten by

the subsequent training (Aso and Rubin, 2016; Ichinose et al., 2021; Yamada et al.,

n.d.). Compartments are also tuned to distinct types of reward. While α1 memory is

essential for nutritional value learning (Yamagata et al., 2015), γ4 and β′2 compartments

function in water reward learning (Lin et al., 2014). Despite this diversity, memory

formation in any appetitive compartments can promote attraction to the associated odor.

The behavioral strategies used to find the source of attractive odors are not analyzed in

typical olfactory learning assays (Tully and Quinn, 1985), that measure the relative

distributions of flies between learned and control odors. Thus, the roles played by

individual appetitive memory compartments in guiding approach to an attractive odor

remain unknown.

By analyzing walking trajectories of individual flies, we found that appetitive memories

formed in the α1 compartment are able to bias the turning direction so that a fly move

upwind. By photoactivation screening, we identified a single cluster of neurons, UpWiNs,

that can promote robust upwind steering and acceleration of locomotion. UpWiNs

receive inputs from several types of lateral horn neurons and integrate inhibitory and

excitatory inputs from MBON-α1 and MBON-α3, which are the MBONs that convey long-

term appetitive or aversive memories, respectively. UpWiNs enhance responses to

odors after induction of memory in the α1, and the activity of UpWiNs is required for

appetitive memory and memory-driven upwind locomotion. Taken together, our work

provides important insights into the process of valence integration, which we show

employs a convergent circuit motif commonly found downstream of memory centers, and

reveals circuit mechanisms that underlie the gradual transformation from abstract

valence to specific motor commands.

Results

Identification of the MB compartments that drive upwind locomotion

To analyze behavioral components of memory-driven odor response, we used a modified

four-armed olfactory arena in which odors are delivered through the current of airflow from

the four channels at corners to the suction tubing at the center (Figure 1B) (Aso and Rubin,

2016; Pettersson, 1970; Vet et al., 1983). The airstream from each channel forms sharp

boundaries at the border of quadrants. Each of four quadrants can be filled with an

arbitrary odor, but we typically used it either for presentation of a single odor in all

quadrants or for binary choice by presenting two odors in diagonal quadrants (Figure 1C).

To test whether appetitive olfactory memories created in different MB

compartments elicit distinct behaviors during memory retrieval, we first trained flies by

pairing an odor as the CS+ with optogenetic activation of one of four sets of DANs. Each

set of DANs projects to distinct appetitive memory compartments: γ5β′2a, γ4, β1β2 or α1

(Huetteroth et al., 2015; Ichinose et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2012; Yamagata

et al., 2015). A second odor was presented without DAN activation as CS- (Figures 1C).

These optogenetic activations promoted local release of dopamine in the targeted MB

compartments (Sun et al., 2020; Yamada et al., n.d.). We used a pair of odors, Pentyl

Acetate (PA) and Ethyl Lactate (EL), that evokes activity in discrete sets of KCs (Campbell

et al., 2013). After three training sessions, flies exhibited strong preference to the CS+

odor when given a choice between CS+ and CS- odors (Figure 1D). Next, we asked if

these MB-compartment-specific memories can drive wind-directed movement when CS+

or CS- odors were presented separately for 10 seconds (Figure 1C). We measured the

movement of individual flies and their heading angle relative to the upwind direction and

analyzed how those parameters changed in response to odors. Despite robust CS+

preference in a binary choice, memories in the γ5β′2a and the γ4 failed to promote

significant upwind movement (Figure 1E-F). In contrast, memories in the α1 and the β1β2

promoted steering and walking upwind in response to the CS+ odor, compared to genetic

controls and the "No LED" control group of the same genotype (Figure 1E-F). The memory

in the α1 compartment also reduced upwind locomotion in response to CS- odor compared

to the genetic control groups. These initial analyses compared averages of all ~20 flies in

each movie. By separately analyzing behaviors of individual flies based on their orientation

at the onset of odors, we found that memories in the α1 and β1β2 biased the direction of

turning to steer toward upwind (Figure 1 G). Memories in γ5β′2a and γ4 did not bias the

turning direction, although they promoted flies facing downwind to change orientation in a

non-directional manner (Figure 1G and Figure 1-figure supplement 1). These results

indicate that appetitive memory retrieval involves distinct behavioral strategies depending

on the localization of the memory in the MB. Specifically, MBONs from the α1 and the

β1β2 compartments, but not those from γ5β′2a or γ4, appear to be connected to circuit

components that drive memory-driven upwind steering.

Identification of UpWind Neurons by optogenetic screening

We next set out to identify the circuit elements that function downstream of the MBONs to

induce memory-driven, wind-guided locomotion. To enable cell-type-specific experimental

manipulation, we have made a large collection of split-GAL4 drivers. Using a subset of

these lines, we conducted optogenetic screening to test if activation of certain neurons

can promote wind-directed movement. We analyzed how starved flies respond to 10s

optogenetic stimulation of various cell types in the circular arena with airflow but no

olfactory stimuli (Figure 2). We measured the changes in the fly's distance from the center,

heading angle relative to the upwind direction, angular velocity and walking speed.

Because returning to the odor plume is a major component of olfactory navigation (Baker,

1990; Cardé, 2021), we also measured the probability of a fly returning to its starting

location after moving away.

Although our screen is not comprehensive in terms of the coverage of the cell types

or brain areas, it successfully identified several clear "hits", which include both known and

previously uncharacterized cell types. Most of the lines with phenotypes showed increased

upwind locomotion, but we did find four lines, which label SMP120/124, MBON01/03/04

or CRE039, that promoted locomotion in the downwind direction (Figure 2 and Figure 2-

figure supplement 1 and 2). As previously reported (Matheson et al., 2022), activation of

some MBON types including MBON-α3 (also known as MBON14 or MBON-V3) and

MBON-γ2α′1 (MBON12) promoted significant upwind locomotion. Figure 2B summarizes

the detailed time courses of these behavioral phenotypes before, during and after 10s

LED stimulations. These behavioral data can be immediately put into the context of the

EM connectome map, since the cell types in each driver lines were morphologically

matched by comparing confocal and electron microscope images (see examples in Figure

2-figure supplement 2 and 3).

Among the split-GAL4 drivers we screened, SS33917 and SS33918 showed the

strongest upwind locomotion, especially at the onset of 10s activation period (Figure 2B

and Figure 2-figure supplement 1). These driver lines label a similar set of 8-11 neurons

(Figure 2-figure supplement 2). Here, we will focus our analysis on this cluster of neurons,

which we collectively call UpWind Neurons (UpWiNs), based on their robust activation

phenotype and anatomical connections with the α1 compartment (see below).

UpWiNs integrate inputs from MBONs

The UpWiNs have extensive arborizations in the dorsolateral area of the brain where

MBON-α1 (also known as MBON07) and MBON-α3 send converging axons (Video 1 and

2; Figure 3A). The α1 and α3 compartments store appetitive and aversive long-term

memories, respectively (Aso and Rubin, 2016; Huetteroth et al., 2015; Ichinose et al.,

2015; Jacob and Waddell, 2022; Matheson et al., 2022; Pai et al., 2013; Yamagata et al.,

2015). DANs innervating the α1 and α3 compartments respond to sugar or electric

shock/heat/bitter, respectively (Jacob and Waddell, 2022; Kirkhart and Scott, 2015;

Schnitzer et al., n.d.; Siju et al., 2020; Yamagata et al., 2015). MBON-α1 displays reduced

odor response to an odor associated with activation of DANs in α1 (Yamada et al., n.d.),

whereas MBON-α3 increases response to an odor associated with sugar reward possibly

due to interactions with appetitive memory compartments such as the β1 (Li et al., 2020;

Plaçais et al., 2013; Takemura et al., 2017; Tanaka et al., 2008) and decreases response

to punishment-associated odors (Jacob and Waddell, 2022; Schnitzer et al., n.d.). Both

MBONs are required for retrieval of long-term appetitive memory (Ichinose et al., 2015;

Plaçais et al., 2013). These previous reports raise the possibility that the UpWiNs defined

by the SS33917 driver might play a role in both the upwind locomotion observed during

retrieval of an α1 memory (Figure 1) and the activation of MBON-α3 (Matheson et al.,

2022)(MB082C data in Figure 2).

To test this possibility, we first examined the anatomical connectivity of the UpWiNs. We

obtained images of 25 individual neurons in SS33917-split-GAL4 by the multi-color flip-

out method and compared them with reconstructed EM-images (Figure 3 and Figure 3

supplement 1-3) (Nern et al., 2015; Otsuna et al., n.d.; Scheffer et al., 2020). This analysis

identified eleven neurons of five cell types in the hemibrain EM dataset as UpWiN neurons

(Figure 3 Figure supplement 1 and 2). Among 11 matched EM-reconstructed neurons of

the UpWiNs, four neurons, one SMP353 and three SMP354 neurons, receive direct

synaptic input from MBON-α1 (Figure 3B-E)(Li et al., 2020; Scheffer et al., 2020). SMP354

also receives input from MBON-α3; this strong convergent connectivity is exceptional

among the population of the neurons that are postsynaptic to either of the MBONs (Figure

3D and Figure 3-figure supplement 4). The rest of the UpWiNs do not have direct

connections with these MBONs, but receive indirect input from them (see Figure 3F). The

excitatory interconnections within the UpWiN cluster suggests that these neurons may

function as a group, even though the connectivity of the individual neurons is

heterogeneous. Interestingly, all the UpWiNs provide input to a single neuron, SMP108

(Figure 3C), which has the highest number of connections with reward DANs and plays a

key role in second-order conditioning (Yamada et al., n.d.). The axon terminals of UpWiNs

are immunoreactive to choline acetyltransferase (Yamada et al., n.d.), and therefore likely

to be excitatory to the SMP108 and other downstream neurons. The SMP108 is labeled

in SS45234 and SS67221, and its activation also promoted upwind locomotion (Figure 2;

Figure 2-figure supplement 1).

To test functional connectivity, we made in vivo whole-cell recordings from

UpWiNs, while optogenetically activating either MBON-α3 or MBON-α1. Neurons were

randomly targeted by the electrode among those labeled by R64A11-LexA, which is a

broad driver for UpWiNs. R64A11 is a hemi-driver for the DNA-binding domain of the

SS33917-split-GAL4. A brief 10 ms stimulation of cholinergic MBON-α3 evoked a strong

excitation in 2 out of 6 UpWiNs examined, whereas glutamatergic MBON-α1 evoked

inhibitory responses in 4 out of 17 UpWiNs (Figure 4A-B). The observed stochasticity of

the connectivity is consistent with the EM connectome data. Postsynaptic sites of MBON-

α1 and MBON-α3 are juxtaposed on the dendrites of UpWiNs (Figure 3E), implying

dendritic integration of these inputs. Since we did not have a LexA driver that selectively

labels SMP354, we were unable to specifically target those integrating UpWiNs by

electrophysiology. We therefore measured the population activity of UpWiNs at the

junction between their dendrites and proximal axons by two-photon calcium imaging in

dissected brains. Consistent with the electrophysiological results and the circuit model, we

observed a calcium increase upon MBON-α3 activation. Moreover, MBON-α1 activation

suppressed the excitatory effect of MBON-α3 when they were activated together (Figure

4C). These results indicate that UpWiNs receive and integrate synaptic inputs from

MBONs that signal opposite signs of memory valence.

UpWiNs acquire enhanced responses to reward-predicting odors

The UpWiN cluster collectively receives olfactory information from the MBONs and lateral

horn output neurons (LHONs) (Figure 3C). This anatomy raises the intriguing possibility

that UpWiNs have basal odor responses and memories in the MB modify it.   To test this

possibility, we optogenetically induced appetitive memory and monitored the change in

the subsequent odor-evoked electrophysiological activity of UpWiNs. For these

experiments, we used another UpWiNs split-GAL4 driver SS67249. This driver was not

suitable for behavioral experiments due to stochastic and off-targeted expression but

labeled a highly restricted subset (1-3 cells) of UpWiNs including the one resembling the

morphology of SMP353 (Figure 5-figure supplement 1). Before training, the UpWiNs

showed relatively weak odor responses likely because inhibitory and excitatory inputs

cancel each other (Figure 4C). After pairing an odor with optogenetic activation of the

reward DANs including those projecting to α1, UpWiNs displayed increased excitatory

response to subsequent exposures to the CS+ odor but not to the CS- odor (Figure 5).

We observed the enhancement of CS+ response irrespective of the identity of tested CS+

odors (OCT or MCH; Figure 5-figure supplement 2). This enhancement of CS+ response

can be most easily explained as an outcome of disinhibition from MBON-α1 whose output

had been decreased by memory formation; MBON-α1 is inhibitory to UpWiNs (Figure 4B)

and MBON-α1 response to the CS+ is reduced following the same training protocol

(Yamada et al., n.d.).

UpWiNs promote wind-directed behaviors

Having examined the functional connectivity and plasticity of UpWiNs, we revisited

behavioral phenotypes caused by optogenetic activation. In the screening experiments

shown in Figure 2, since the default wind direction is from the periphery to the center in

our olfactory arena, upon activation of UpWiNs, flies moved toward the periphery and

increased their mean distance from the center. However, this phenotype might be

explained by the avoidance of center area (Besson and Martin, 2005) rather than wind-

directed behavior. However, several experiments argue against that possibility. First, the

UpWiN activation phenotype was starvation dependent; only starved flies showed robust

upwind locomotion upon UpWiN activation (Figure 6A). Second, flies' response to UpWiN

activation depended on the rate and direction of the airflow. Flies did not move toward the

periphery without airflow (Video 3) and moved toward the center when the direction of

airflow was reversed (Figure 6B). Finally, unilateral, or bilateral ablation of aristae, the

wind-sensing organ in Drosophila (Yorozu et al., 2009), impaired movement toward the

periphery during UpWiN activation (Figure 6C; Video 4).   These observations are

consistent with a role for UpWiNs in transforming appetitive memory into wind-directed

behaviors.

As observed in memory-driven olfactory responses (Figure 1 and Figure 1-figure

supplement 1), the kinematics of behavior at the onset of UpWiN activation depended on

the initial orientation of flies relative to the wind-direction (Video 2). Flies transiently

increased angular speed during the first ~300ms (Figure 6D). This increased angular

speed was observed also in empty-split-GAL4 control flies and considered to be a startle

response to activating light. However, direction of turning during this period was

significantly biased toward the upwind direction when either of two lines for UpWiNs were

used to express CsChrimson (Figure 6E-F). UpWiNs activation also modulated forward

walking speed in a manner that depended on the orientation of flies at the onset of the

activating light (Figure 6G). The orientation-dependent modulation of turning direction and

walking speed observed is similar to that evoked by α1-specific memory (Figure 1G). In

contrast, activation of MBON-γ2α′1 with MB077B split-GAL4 modulated forward walking

speed and promoted flies that already faced upwind to maintain that orientation but did

not cause directional turning toward the upwind direction (Figure 6D-G; see Figure 6-figure

supplement 1 for other drivers). These results are consistent with a view that UpWiNs

transform memory in a α1 into signals that promote olfactory navigation but do not yet

specify lower-level motor parameters (i.e. turning direction and acceleration). Information

about wind-direction and UpWiN's activity needs to be integrated somewhere downstream

to compute the turn direction. The central complex is the likely brain area for such a

computation (Matheson et al., 2022; Okubo et al., 2020).

UpWiNs are required for memory-driven upwind locomotion

Finally, we asked if UpWiNs are required for retrieval of sugar-induced appetitive memory.

Formation of long-lasting appetitive memory after odor-sugar conditioning relies on the

DANs that innervate the α1 compartment (Ichinose et al., 2021; Yamagata et al., 2015).

Therefore, we tested the requirement of UpWiNs for 1-day appetitive memory. The control

genotypes showed enhanced upwind locomotion in the presence of odors associated with

sugar, whereas flies that express the light chain of tetanus toxin (TNT) in UpWiNs showed

compromised upwind-locomotion (Figure 7A-B). To test the requirement of UpWiNs

specifically during the memory test period, we also attempted experiments with

temperature-sensitive *shibire*, which allows reversible block of vesicular release

(Kitamoto, 2001). One day after odor-sugar conditioning, blocking synaptic output of

UpWiNs only during test period impaired preference to CS+ odor in binary choice

compared to the genetic controls (Figure 7C). However, we were unable to analyze wind-

directional behaviors in these *shibire* experiments because control flies did not show CS+

odor-induced upwind locomotion at restrictive temperature (data not shown) presumably

due to increased preference to the peripheral of the arena or altered odor concentration.

These results indicate that UpWiNs play a major role in behavior during appetitive memory

retrieval but also suggest that their behavioral contribution may not be limited to simple

promotion of upwind locomotion. Indeed, the analysis of 10s activation screening data

revealed that flies increased the probability of revisiting the location where UpWiNs were

activated (Figure 2B), although this data doesn't necessarily indicate induction of spatial

memory by UpWiNs and we found that another cell types SMP357-362 defined by

SS49755-split-GAL4 caused far more robust revisiting phenotype (Figure 2B; Video 5).

Also, optogenetic activation of the UpWiNs could bias spatial distribution of flies between

quadrants with and without activating illumination (Figure 7D). This bias is likely due to the

airflow-independent function of UpWiNs because the UpWiN activation could increase the

probability of revisiting behavior even in the absence of airflow (Figure 7E and Figure 7-

figure supplement 1).

Discussion

It has been postulated that the valence of learned odors is represented as the relative

activity of the MBONs, each of which signals either positive or negative valence assigned

in the parallel memory modules. In this study, we identified a cluster of neurons that can

decode the differential activity of MBONs encoding opposing valances. Although activity

of these neurons strongly induced a coordinated sequence of motor patterns that are

deeply related to olfactory navigation, determination of turning direction and walking speed

depended on fly's orientation to wind direction. Thus, our findings may mark an important

transition point of the circuit, where abstract valence signals encoded by a population of

neurons are evaluated and gradually transformed into concrete motor patterns.

Memory valence and competing drives

Previous studies in the Drosophila MB have predicted the existence of a valence integration

process. First, flies can create appetitive and aversive memories in parallel in different MB

compartments after a single learning experience, and those memories compete over the

behavioral choice with distinct time courses (Aso et al., 2014b; Aso and Rubin, 2016; Das et

al., 2014; Kaun et al., 2011). Second, memory extinction (Felsenberg et al., 2018) and

reversal learning (McCurdy et al., 2021) create a memory trace in a MB compartment, which

neutralizes the effect of the original memory traces that persist in other MB compartments.

Third, attraction and avoidance behaviors induced by photoactivation of multiple types of

MBONs can be largely explained by the additive effects of individual activation (Aso et al.,

2014b).

These studies support the "valence-balance model", where learning-induced plasticity in the

MB tips the balance of the valence signals of the MBON population (Heisenberg, 2003; Hige,

2018; Modi et al., 2020; Owald and Waddell, 2015). The mode of synaptic integration

observed in the UpWiNs matches the expectation from this model. UpWiNs receive direct

inhibitory and excitatory synaptic inputs from MBONs of appetitive and aversive memory

378 compartments, respectively. When both presynaptic MBONs were activated, which mimicked

379 the naive state (i.e. no depression in either of the MBONs), those inputs canceled each other,

380 resulting in no net excitation (Figure 4). When plasticity was induced in the inhibitory

381 appetitive-memory MBONs, which mimics appetitive memory formation, the odor response

382 was enhanced (Figure 5). Thus, UpWiNs are able to decode the unbalanced activity of

383 MBONs encoding opposing valence. Given the prevalence of convergent circuit motifs in the

384 downstream circuits of the MB (Li et al., 2020), we predict that similar synaptic integration of

385 those output neurons that signal the same or opposite stimulus valences controls other

386 components of olfactory behaviors. Convergence of valence signals might also occur

387 between the MB and LH, which is the other olfactory center parallel to the MB and is thought

388 to mediate innate behavior. In fact, one MBON type sends its axon to the LH and causes

389 learning-dependent modulation of the activity of food-odor-responding neurons (Dolan et al.,

390 2018). UpWiNs also receive abundant input from the LH neurons, suggesting that UpWiNs

391 also play an important role in integrating the innate and learned valances. The use of

392 divergent and convergent pathways to process valence signals, like those we describe here,

393 appear to be an evolutionarily conserved strategy that is observed, for example, in the

394 vertebrate amygdala and its associated brain areas (Tye, 2018).

396 **UpWiNs and olfactory navigation**

397 In addition to valence integration, UpWiNs play an important role in wind-guided behavior.

398 Wind direction provides a critical cue for olfactory navigation in natural environments where

399 odorants are propagated by the stream of airflow. Male moths have an astonishing ability to

400 track the source of attractant pheromones emitted from females located over a mile away,

401 and have been used as a model for olfactory navigation (Cardé, 2021; Kanzaki and Ikeda,

1994; Vergassola et al., 2007). Male moths react to the intermittent plume of pheromone by

series of cast-surge-cast actions (Baker, 1990). In a wind tunnel experiment, *Cadra cautella*

moths began cross-wind casting following withdrawal of the pheromone plume. Upon contact

with a single puff of pheromone, moths surged upwind after a delay of approximately 200 ms

to re-orient themselves. In our optogenetic experiments, activation of UpWiNs increased

angular velocity with a similar time scale and biased turning direction toward the upwind

direction (Figure 6D-F). In addition to promoting an upwind surge, UpWiNs activation

increased the probability of returning to the location where activation was applied even after

the cessation of both optogenetic activation and airflow (Figure 7 and Figure 7-figure

supplement 1). Therefore, UpWiNs alone may be able to promote a series of cast-surge-cast

reactions when flies navigate intermittent plumes of reward-predicting odors. Furthermore,

as the third function, UpWiNs relay information about reward-predicting odor to the

downstream neuron SMP108, which in turn feeds excitatory inputs to multiple DANs to

instruct formation of second-order memories (Yamada et al., n.d.). Interestingly, the patterns

of DAN population responses to SMP108 or UpWiNs activation are similar to those observed

when flies are walking toward vinegar in a virtual environment (Zolin et al., 2021). Together

with the evidence of inputs from the lateral horn neurons, this may indicate that UpWiNs is

also responsible for upwind locomotion to innately attractive odors and can be the causal

source of action correlates in DANs. All three of these UpWiNs functions likely contribute to

olfactory navigation in complex environments. Our study was limited to walking behaviors,

and the role of UpWiNs in flight behaviors remains to be investigated. UpWiNs are also well-

positioned to influence internal state to promote selective processing of wind and olfactory

stimuli.

Recent studies in Drosophila have provided insights into detailed neural circuit

mechanisms of wind sensation and olfactory navigation. Both flying and walking flies

turn upwind and increase locomotion speed when they encounter an attractive odor

(Álvarez-Salvado et al., 2018; Steck et al., 2012; van Breugel and Dickinson, 2014).

Airflow is detected by displacement of aristae and the Johnston organ sensory neurons

(Kamikouchi et al., 2006; Yorozu et al., 2009), and left-right asymmetry is computed by

the downstream neurons to represent wind direction in the central complex (Matheson et

al., 2022; Okubo et al., 2020; Suver et al., 2019). Fictive appetitive and aversive training

using optogenetic activation of DANs can promote and suppress the upwind locomotion,

respectively (Handler et al., 2019), suggesting that retrieval of associative memory to

drive behavior utilizes this same navigational strategy. Activation of a set of input

neurons of the fan-shaped body (FB), which is a part of the central complex known as

the navigation center of insects, can induce robust upwind locomotion (Matheson et al.,

2022). The FB is one of the major downstream targets of MBONs (Li et al., 2020;

Scaplen et al., 2021), while also receiving input from neurons representing wind

directions (Matheson et al., 2022). Although these studies point to the importance of the

central complex as the integration site of information about learned odor and wind

direction, much remains to be learned about how the valence signals conveyed by

MBONs influence upwind locomotion.

Based on the EM connectome data, SMP108 appears to be the most prominent

neuron postsynaptic to UpWiNs. Activation of SMP108 was able to promote upwind

locomotion, but the behavioral components differed from UpWiNs activation (Figure 2),

and blocking SMP108 did not affect retrieval of appetitive memory (Yamada et al., n.d.).

Therefore, UpWiNs may evoke upwind behavior through other downstream cells. FB6D,

FB6I and FB6T appear to be other major downstream neurons of UpWiNs (Figure 3C).

The top 3 downstream neurons of FB6D are hDeltaF, hDeltaC and hDeltaK. hDeltaC is

the columnar cell type of the FB that is known to integrate wind-directional cues and

information of innately attractive odor to promote upwind behavior (Matheson et al., 2022).

Our screening also identified that co-activation of hDeltaB, hDeltaD and hDeltaE can

promote robust upwind locomotion (Figure 2 and Figure 2-figure supplement 1). Thus

these hDelta cell types likely function together to regulate wind-directed locomotion. EM-

connectome-guided follow-up studies on other cell types with significant upwind/downwind

phenotypes (Figure 2) will help generate a comprehensive understanding of olfactory

navigation circuits.

Compartment-specific contribution to anemotaxis

One highlight of our study is the finding that memories stored in different MB compartments

use different behavioral strategies during retrieval. Although gaining a full description of

those behavioral strategies is beyond the scope of the present study, we can speculate on

the potential biological significance of the differential contributions to anemotaxis—

movement in response to air currents—behaviors by MB compartments.

First, the difference in the type of memory stored in different compartments is likely

to be a key factor. Based on the circuit connectivity and behavioral data, UpWiNs are

responsible for upwind locomotion driven by the memory stored in the α1 compartment.

Compared to other DANs for appetitive memory, the DANs in the α1 only weakly respond

to sugar (Yamagata et al., 2015), and write a memory slowly even when optogenetically

activated (Aso and Rubin, 2016; Yamada et al., n.d.). Once formed with repetitive training,

the memory in the α1 lasts over a day and is most resistant to extinction (Aso and Rubin,

2016; Huetteroth et al., 2015; Ichinose et al., 2015; Yamada et al., n.d.; Yamagata et al.,

2015). These features collectively indicate that flies undergo wind-guided olfactory

navigation only when they expect a robust reward associated with the odor.

Second, the MB must operate with different downstream circuits in adults and larva.

Holometabolan insects undergo complete metamorphosis by which body structures of

larvae abruptly develop into adult's form through pupal stage. In Drosophila, behavioral

components of olfactory navigation and relevant neural circuits also undergo striking

changes through metamorphosis. Drosophila larvae hatch from eggs with already

developed circuits of olfaction and an MB that consists of ~70 mature KCs, 7 DANs and 24

MBONs (Eichler et al., 2017). The first instar larval MB circuit is numerically simpler than

that of the adult but can support associative learning (Pauls et al., 2010). Larval drosophila

perform innate and memory-based olfactory navigation by modulating rate of head casting

and reorientation based on concentration gradient of odors measured over time (Fishilevich

et al., 2005; Saumweber et al., 2018). Although larvae can sense wind and use it to avoid

aversive odors (Jovanic et al., 2019), they do not use the wind direction to localize the source

of attractive odors as adults do. The adult airflow-sensing organ (i.e., aristae), relevant

neural circuits such as the central complex, legs and wings all develop during

metamorphosis. Therefore, the metamorphing MB circuit must adopt new interacting

partners to transform stored memories into adult-specific anemotaxis behaviors.

The EM connectome of larval and adult MB circuits revealed many cell types with

similar morphology, which are in some cases labeled by the same genetic driver lines (Aso

et al., 2014a; Eichler et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020). To unambiguously match larval and adult

cell types, a recent study followed full developmental trajectories of larval MB cell types into

the adult MB by immobilizing expression patterns of genetic driver lines (Truman et al.,

2022). Intriguingly, a large fraction of MBONs and DANs survive through metamorphosis

and become a part of the adult MB circuit. For instance, among 17 types of larval MBONs

examined, 10 types developed into adult MBONs. These larval-origin MBONs arborize their

dendrites in the γ or β′ lobes. Our experiments indicated that appetitive memories in γ4 and

γ5β′2a compartments can bias the choice between quadrants filled with CS+ and CS- odors

but do not promote walking toward upwind (Figure 1). This could be because the γ lobe

stores both olfactory and visual memories (Vogt et al., 2016, 2014); walking upwind does

not help get closer to visual cues associated with reward. On the other hand, α/β KCs,

MBON-α1, MBON-α3, MBON-β1>α are adult specific cell types. Notably, MBON-β1>α

innervates the α lobe and is directly connected with MBON-α1 and MBON-α3, suggesting

that UpWiNs may integrate information from the β1, α1 and α3. These anatomical

observations suggest that the adult-specific output pathways of MB may be dedicated to

anemotaxis. In naturalistic olfactory conditioning with sugar reward, flies form parallel

appetitive memories in compartments of both larval-origin and adult-specific MBONs. Future

EM-connectome-guided studies will elucidate how the adult MB integrates parallel

memories to synthesize navigational strategies by blending anemotactic and other

behavioral components.

Acknowledgments

We thank Gerald M. Rubin, Glenn Turner, Ashok Litwin-Kumar, Daisuke Hattori, Gown

Turvo, Huai-ti Lin and members of the Y.A. and T.H. labs for valuable discussion and

comments on the manuscript. We thank Feng Li, Marisa Dreher, Christina Christoforou,

Kari Close and the members of Janelia FlyEM, Flylight, fly facility, Project Technical

Resource and scientific computing for technical support. D.Y. was supported by Toyobo

Biotechnology Foundation Postdoctoral Fellowship and Japan Society for the Promotion

of Science Overseas Research Fellowship. Y.A. was supported by HHMI. T.H. was

supported by NIH (R01DC018874), NSF (2034783), BSF (2019026) and UNC Junior

Faculty Development Award.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING
Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will

be fulfilled by Yoshinori Aso (asoy@janelia.hhmi.org) or Toshihide Hige

(hige@email.unc.edu)

METHOD DETAILS

Fly strains
Drosophila melanogaster strains were reared at 22C and 60% humidity on standard
cornmeal food in a 12:12 hour light:dark cycle. 4-10-day-old adult females were used 2-4
days after sorting them on a Peltier cold plate. For flies expressing CsChrimson (Klapoetke
et al., 2014) the food was supplemented with retinal (0.2 mM all-trans-retinal prior to eclosion
and then 0.4 mM). Driver and effector lines are listed in KEY RESOURCE TABLE and
genotypes used by each figure are listed below. The new collection of split-GAL4 drivers was
designed based on confocal image databases (http://flweb.janelia.org)(Jenett et al., 2012),
and screening expression patterns of p65ADZp and ZpGAL4DBD combinations as described
previously (Aso et al., 2014a; Pfeiffer et al., 2010). Confocal stacks of new split-GAL4 driver
lines used in this study are available at http://www.janelia.org/split-gal4.

Olfactory conditioning

Olfactory conditioning was performed as previously described (Aso and Rubin, 2016).
Groups of approximately 20 females of 4–10 d post-eclosion were trained and tested using
the modified four-field olfactory arena (Aso and Rubin, 2016; Pettersson, 1970) equipped
with a 627nm LED board (34.9 µW/mm2 at the position of the flies) and odor mixers. The
flow rate of input air from each of the four arms was maintained at 100 mL/min throughout
the experiments by mass-flow controllers, and air was pulled from the central hole at
400 mL/min. Odors were delivered to the arena by switching the direction of airflow to the
tubes containing diluted odors using solenoid valves. The odors were diluted in paraffin
oil: pentyl acetate (PA: 1:10000) and ethyl lactate (EL: 1:10000). Sugar conditioning was
performed by using tubes with sucrose absorbed Whatman 3 MM paper that was dried
before use as previously described (Krashes and Waddell, 2008; Liu et al., 2012). For
conditioning with optogenetic activation of DANs, 60 s of odor was paired with 30 times 1
s of red LED light with 1s gaps. LED pulses started 5 s after the opening of odor valves.
Before conditioning, flies were starved for 40-48 hour on 1% agar. Videography was

performed at 30 frames per second and analyzed using Flytracker
(https://github.com/kristinbranson/FlyTracker) or Fiji. For experiments using one day
memory retention, flies were kept in agar vials at 21C after first-order conditioning. For
testing olfactory memories, the distribution of flies in the four quadrants was measured for
60 s. The performance index (PI) is defined as a mean of [(number of flies in the two
diagonal quadrants filled with odor one) - (number of flies in other two quadrants filled with
odor two or air)]/(total number of flies) during the final 30 s of the 60 s test period. The
average PI of reciprocal experiments is shown in figures to cancel out potential position
bias and innate odor preference.

Airflow response

For testing airflow directional response, each fly's distance from center (r_i) was measured.
The radius of the arena, r_{arena}, was 50 mm. Because of the circular shape of the arena, the
area of particular r bin is larger as r increases. For instance, the area of 40<r<50mm is 9
times larger than the area of 0<r<10 mm. When flies distribute randomly in the arena, the
mean r_i is 1/sqrt(2). To normalize this area difference we used the square of (r_i/r_{arena})) as
an area-normalized distance from the center index. To calculate upwind displacement,
the mean of area-normalized distance from center at each time point in each movie was
subtracted by the area-normalized distance at the onset of activating illumination or odor
presentation. To compensate for the delay between the switch of solenoid valves and
delivery of the odor (~2 s) as well as the time to fill the arena with odorized air (~3 s), the
onset of odor was taken to be 3.5 seconds after the switch of solenoid valves. For analysis
of individual trajectories, only flies that were more than 3 mm away from the edge of the
arena were analyzed. Trajectories with too abrupt changes of angle (more than 180
degree) or position (more than 5mm) in one frame were considered as tracking errors and
excluded from the analysis. The direction toward the center of the arena, where suction
tubing is connected, was designed as +/-180 degrees relative to the upwind direction. For
analyzing the influence of initial orientation on directional turning and forward walking
speed, subsets of trajectories were analyzed by grouping them into +/- 30 degree bins of
initial angle.
587
Electrophysiology

Electrophysiological experiments were performed as previously described (Yamada et al.,
n.d.). Briefly, flies were collected on the day of eclosion and kept in the dark on all-trans-
retinal food (0.5 mM) until experiments for 48-72 hr. The patch pipettes (6-7 MΩ) were filled
with the pipette solution containing (in mM): L-potassium aspartate, 140; HEPES, 10; EGTA,
1.1; $CaCl_2$, 0.1; Mg-ATP, 4; Na-GTP, 0.5 with pH adjusted to 7.3 with KOH (265 mOsm).
The preparation was continuously perfused with saline containing (in mM): NaCl, 103; KCl,
3; $CaCl_2$, 1.5; $MgCl_2$, 4; $NaHCO_3$, 26; N-tris(hydroxymethyl) methyl-2-aminoethane-sulfonic
acid, 5; NaH_2PO_4, 1; trehalose, 10; glucose, 10 (pH 7.3 when bubbled with 95% O_2 and 5%
CO_2, 275 mOsm). UpWiNs were visually identified by fluorescence signals expressed by
specific drivers. Whole-cell recordings were made using the Axon MultiClamp 700B amplifier
(Molecular Devices). Cells were held at around -60 mV by injecting hyperpolarizing current,
which was typically less than 10 pA. Signals were low-pass filtered at 5 kHz and digitized at
10 kHz before being acquired and analyzed by custom MATLAB scripts (MathWorks).
Subthreshold odor responses were quantified by averaging the mean depolarization above
the baseline during 0 to 1.2 s after odor onset. Saturated head-space vapors of odors were
presented to flies after 1 % air dilution using a custom odor delivery system. 625 nm LEDs
were used to deliver photostimulation at 17 mW/mm^2 through the objective lens.

Calcium imaging

All experiments were performed on female flies, 3-7 days after eclosion. Brains were dissected in a saline bath (103 mM NaCl, 3 mM KCl, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 4 mM $MgCl_2$, 26 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1 mM NaH_2PO_4, 8 mM trehalose, 10 mM glucose, 5 mM TES, bubbled with 95% O_2 / 5% CO_2). After dissection, the brain was positioned anterior side up on a coverslip in a Sylgard dish submerged in 3 ml saline at 20℃. The sample was imaged with a resonant scanning 2-photon microscope with near-infrared excitation (920 nm, Spectra-Physics, INSIGHT DS DUAL) and a 25X objective (Nikon MRD77225 25XW). The microscope was controlled using ScanImage 2016 (Vidrio Technologies). Images were acquired over a 231 µm × 231 µm x 42 µm volume with a step size at 2 µm. The field of view included 512 × 512 pixel resolution taken at approximately 1.07 Hz frame rate. The excitation power during imaging was 19 mW.

For photostimulation, the light-gated ion channel Chrimson88 was activated with a 660-nm LED (M660L3 Thorlabs) coupled to a digital micromirror device (Texas Instruments DLPC300 Light Crafter) and combined with the imaging path using a FF757-DiO1 dichroic (Semrock). On the emission side, the primary dichroic was Di02-R635 (Semrock), the detection arm dichroic was 565DCXR (Chroma), and the emission filters were FF03-525/50 and FF01-625/90 (Semrock). Photostimulation occurred over a 1 s period at a 12 µW/mm2 intensity over 9 consecutive trials interspersed by a 30 s period. The light intensity was measured using a Thorlabs S170C power sensor.

When quantifying the GCaMP fluorescence, ROIs corresponding to mushroom body compartments were drawn using custom python scripts on images showing the maximum intensity over time. Mean intensity changes within these ROIs were measured in the time series images. Final intensity measurements subtracted a background ROI that was drawn in a region with no fluorescence. Baseline fluorescence is the mean fluorescence over a 5 s time period before stimulation started. The ΔF was then divided by baseline to normalize the signal (ΔF/F). The mean responses from the 9 trials were calculated for each animal (5-11 samples per driver).

Analysis of connectivity and morphology

The information was retrieved from neuPrint (neuprint.janelia.org) hosting the "hemibrain" dataset (Scheffer et al., 2020), which is a publicly accessible web site (https://doi.org/10.25378/janelia.12818645.v1). For cell types, we cited cell type assignments reported in Scheffer et al., 2020. Only connections of the cells in the right hemisphere were used due to incomplete connectivity in the left hemisphere (Zheng et al., 2018). Connectivity data was then imported into Cytoscape (https://cytoscape.org/) for generating circuit diagrams that were edited using Adobe Illustrator. The 3D renderings of neurons presented were generated using the visualization tools of NeuTu (Zhao et al., 2018) or VVD viewer (https://github.com/takashi310/VVD_Viewer;(Wan et al., 2012). Morphological similarity of individual neurons in SS33917 driver was performed by NBLAST (Costa et al., 2016).

Immunohistochemistry

Brains and ventral nerve cord of 4-10 days old females were dissected, fixed and immunolabeled as previously described using the antibodies listed in Key Resource Table(Aso et al., 2014a; Nern et al., 2015).

Statistics

Statistical comparisons were performed on Graphpad Prism or MATLAB using the Kruskal Wallis test followed by Dunn's post-test for multiple comparison, t-te tests, or two-way

656   ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc multiple comparisons test as designated in figure
657   legends.
658
659
660   **Detailed fly genotypes used by figures**

Figure	Genotype
Figure 1D-H Figure 1-Figure supplement 1	*w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;;+/MB043C-split-GAL4* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;+/MB213B-split-GAL4* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;;+/MB312C-split-GAL4* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;MB109B/MB315C-split-GAL4* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;+/ Empty-split-GAL4*
Figure 2 Figure 2 -figure supplement 1 and 2	*w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;Split-GAL4/+*
Figure 3A	*w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS33917-Split-GAL4/+*
Figure 3 - figure supplement 2	*pBPhsFlp2::PEST in attP3;; pJFRC201-10XUAS-FRT>STOP>FRT-myr::smGFP-HA in VK0005, pJFRC240-10XUAS- FRT>STOP>FRT-myr::smGFP-V5-THS-10XUAS-FRT>STOP>FRT-myr::smGFP-FLAG in su(Hw)attP1/SS33917-split-GAL4*
Figure 4A Figure 4B Figure 4C	*LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (JK16F), LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (SuHwattP8), 10XUAS-Syn21-Chrimson88-tdT-3.1 (attP18)/+; R64A11-LexAp65 (JK73A)/MB082C* *LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (JK16F), LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (SuHwattP8), 10XUAS-Syn21-Chrimson88-tdT-3.1 (attP18)/+; R64A11-LexAp65 (JK73A)/MB310C* *LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (JK16F), LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (SuHwattp8), 10xUAS-Syn21-Chrimson88-tdT-3.1 (attp18); G0239-GAL4/G0239-GAL4; R64A11-LexAp65 (JK73A)/+* *LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (JK16F), LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (SuHwattp8), 10xUAS-Syn21-Chrimson88-tdT-3.1 (attp18); G0239-GAL4/G0239-GAL4; R64A11-LexAp65 (JK73A)/MB310C* *LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (JK16F), LexAop2-Syn21-opGCaMP6s (SuHwattp8), 10xUAS-Syn21-Chrimson88-tdT-3.1 (attp18); G0239-GAL4/+; R64A11-LexAp65 (JK73A)/MB310C*
Figure 5	*13XLexAop2-IVS-p10-ChrimsonR-mVenus (attP18); 58E02-LexAp65 (attP40)/ss67249-split1; pJFRC28-10XUAS-IVS-GFP-p10 (SuHwattP1) / ss67249-split2*
Figure 5 -figure supplement 1	*pBPhsFlp2::PEST in attP3;; pJFRC201-10XUAS-FRT>STOP>FRT-myr::smGFP-HA in VK0005, pJFRC240-10XUAS- FRT>STOP>FRT-myr::smGFP-V5-THS-10XUAS-FRT>STOP>FRT-myr::smGFP-FLAG in su(Hw)attP1/SS67249-split-GAL4*
Figure 5 -figure supplement 2	*13XLexAop2-IVS-p10-ChrimsonR-mVenus (attP18); 58E02-LexAp65 (attP40)/ss67249-split1; pJFRC28-10XUAS-IVS-GFP-p10 (SuHwattP1) / ss67249-split2*
Figure 6	*w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS33917-Split-GAL4/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS33918-Split-GAL4/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;MB077B-Split-GAL4/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;Empty-Split-GAL4/+*
Figure 6 -figure supplement 1	*w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;Split-GAL4/+*

Figure 7A-B	*w/+;SS33917-split-GAL4/+* *w/+; SS33917-split-GAL4UAS-TNT (II)* *w/+; Empty-split-GAL4UAS-TNT (II)*
Figure 7C	*w/w;VT007746-p65ADZp in attP40/20xUAS-Shbire-p10 in VK00005* *w/w;R64A11-ZpGAL4DBD in attP2/20xUAS-Shbire-p10 in VK00005* *w/w;SS33917(VT007746-p65ADZp in attP40; R64A11-ZpGAL4DBD in attP2)/20xUAS-Shbire-p10 in VK00005* *w/w;Empty-split-GAL4/20xUAS-Shbire-p10 in VK00005*
Figure 7D	*w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS33917/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;Empty-split-GAL4 /+*
Figure 7E	*w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS33917/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS33918/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS49755/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;Empty-split-GAL4 /+*
Figure 7 -figure supplement 1	*w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS33917/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS33918/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;SS49755/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;Gr64f-GAL4;Gr64f-GAL4/+* *w/w, 20xUAS-CsChrimson-mVenus attP18;Empty-split-GAL4 /+*

Data and Code Availability

The confocal images of expression patterns are available online
(http://www.janelia.org/split-gal4). The values used for figures are summarized in
Supplementary File 2. The design files of the olfactory arena are available at flintbox
(https://hhmi.flintbox.com/technologies/c65b2ddd-3cc1-44d9-a95d-73e08723f724).

Supplemental information

667
668 **Video 1. Activation phenotype of UpWiNs**
669 An example movie of UpWiN activation in SS33917>CsChrimson flies used in Figure 2. The
670 red square at the bottom right corner indicates the 10s period when the red LED was turned
671 on. The small circles indicate the centroid of flies and triangles indicate the orientation of
672 flies.

673
674
Video 2. Activation phenotype of UpWiNs depends on the initial orientation
Cropped movies of individual SS33917>CsChrimson flies centered and reoriented based on
the position and the angle to upwind at the onset of the activating illumination (related to
Figure 2 and Figure 6D-G). The red square at the bottom right corner of each panel indicates
when the red LED was turned on. The small circles indicate the centroid of flies and triangles
indicate the orientation of flies. The airflow direction was from the top to the bottom of each
panel.

682
683
684 **Video 3. Activation phenotype of UpWiNs without airflow**
685 An example movie of UpWiN activation in SS33917>CsChrimson flies without airflow (related
686 to Figure 6B).

687
688

Video 4. Activation phenotype of UpWiNs depends on the intact aristae
An example UpWiN activation phenotype in an SS33917>CsChrimson fly that lacked the arista on the right side (related to Figure 6C).

Video 5. Return phenotype induced by SMP357-362 activation

An example movie of SMP357-362 activation in SS49755>CsChrimson flies. The red square at the bottom right corner indicates the 10s period when the red LED was turned on. The small circles indicate the centroid of flies and triangles indicate the orientation of flies. Trajectories of flies after turning off LED are shown as lines connecting centroids over time.

Supplementary File 1: **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**
Supplementary File 2: **Data TABLE**

References

Álvarez-Salvado E, Licata AM, Connor EG, McHugh MK, King BMN, Stavropoulos N, Victor JD, Crimaldi JP, Nagel KI. 2018. Elementary sensory-motor transformations underlying olfactory navigation in walking fruit-flies. *Elife* **7**:e37815.

Aso Y, Hattori D, Yu Y, Johnston RM, Iyer NA, Ngo T-TB, Dionne H, Abbott LF, Axel R, Tanimoto H, Rubin GM. 2014a. The neuronal architecture of the mushroom body provides a logic for associative learning. *Elife* **3**:e04577.

Aso Y, Rubin GM. 2016. Dopaminergic neurons write and update memories with cell-type-specific rules. *Elife* **5**. doi:10.7554/eLife.16135

Aso Y, Sitaraman D, Ichinose T, Kaun KR, Vogt K, Belliart-Guérin G, Plaçais P-Y, Robie AA, Yamagata N, Schnaitmann C, Rowell WJ, Johnston RM, Ngo T-TB, Chen N, Korff W, Nitabach MN, Heberlein U, Preat T, Branson KM, Tanimoto H, Rubin GM. 2014b. Mushroom body output neurons encode valence and guide memory-based action selection in Drosophila. *Elife* **3**:e04580.

Baker TC. 1990. Upwind flight and casting flight : Complementary phasic and tonic systems used for location of sex pheromone sources by male moth. *Proc 10th Int Symp Olfaction and Taste, Oslo* **18-25**.

Berry JA, Phan A, Davis RL. 2018. Dopamine Neurons Mediate Learning and Forgetting through Bidirectional Modulation of a Memory Trace. *Cell Rep* **25**:651–662.e5.

Besson M, Martin J-R. 2005. Centrophobism/thigmotaxis, a new role for the mushroom bodies in Drosophila. *J Neurobiol* **62**:386–396.

Beyeler A, Namburi P, Glober GF, Simonnet C, Calhoon GG, Conyers GF, Luck R, Wildes CP, Tye KM. 2016. Divergent Routing of Positive and Negative Information from the Amygdala during Memory Retrieval. *Neuron* **90**:348–361.

Bogovic JA, Otsuna H, Heinrich L, Ito M, Jeter J, Meissner G, Nern A, Colonell J, Malkesman O, Ito K, Saalfeld S. 2020. An unbiased template of the Drosophila brain and ventral nerve cord. *PLoS One* **15**:e0236495.

Campbell RAA, Honegger KS, Qin H, Li W, Demir E, Turner GC. 2013. Imaging a population code for odor identity in the Drosophila mushroom body. *J Neurosci* **33**:10568–10581.

Cardé RT. 2021. Navigation Along Windborne Plumes of Pheromone and Resource-

Linked Odors. *Annu Rev Entomol* **66**:317–336.
Cohn R, Morantte I, Ruta V. 2015. Coordinated and Compartmentalized
Neuromodulation Shapes Sensory Processing in Drosophila. *Cell* **163**:1742–1755.
Costa M, Manton JD, Ostrovsky AD, Prohaska S, Jefferis GSXE. 2016. NBLAST: Rapid,
Sensitive Comparison of Neuronal Structure and Construction of Neuron Family
Databases. *Neuron* **91**:293–311.
Das G, Klappenbach M, Vrontou E, Perisse E, Clark CM, Burke CJ, Waddell S. 2014.
Drosophila learn opposing components of a compound food stimulus. *Curr Biol*
24:1723–1730.
Dolan M-J, Belliart-Guérin G, Bates AS, Frechter S, Lampin-Saint-Amaux A, Aso Y,
Roberts RJV, Schlegel P, Wong A, Hammad A, Bock D, Rubin GM, Preat T, Plaçais
P-Y, Jefferis GSXE. 2018. Communication from Learned to Innate Olfactory
Processing Centers Is Required for Memory Retrieval in Drosophila. *Neuron*
100:651–668.e8.
Eckstein N, Bates AS, Du M, Hartenstein V, Jefferis GSX, Funke J. n.d.
Neurotransmitter Classification from Electron Microscopy Images at Synaptic Sites
in Drosophila. doi:10.1101/2020.06.12.148775
Eichler K, Li F, Litwin-Kumar A, Park Y, Andrade I, Schneider-Mizell CM, Saumweber T,
Huser A, Eschbach C, Gerber B, Fetter RD, Truman JW, Priebe CE, Abbott LF,
Thum AS, Zlatic M, Cardona A. 2017. The complete connectome of a learning and
memory centre in an insect brain. *Nature*. doi:10.1038/nature23455
Felsenberg J, Jacob PF, Walker T, Barnstedt O, Edmondson-Stait AJ, Pleijzier MW, Otto
N, Schlegel P, Sharifi N, Perisse E, Smith CS, Lauritzen JS, Costa M, Jefferis
GSXE, Bock DD, Waddell S. 2018. Integration of Parallel Opposing Memories
Underlies Memory Extinction. *Cell* **175**:709–722.e15.
Fishilevich E, Domingos AI, Asahina K, Naef F, Vosshall LB, Louis M. 2005. Chemotaxis
behavior mediated by single larval olfactory neurons in Drosophila. *Curr Biol*
15:2086–2096.
Gore F, Schwartz EC, Brangers BC, Aladi S, Stujenske JM, Likhtik E, Russo MJ, Gordon
JA, Salzman CD, Axel R. 2015. Neural Representations of Unconditioned Stimuli in
Basolateral Amygdala Mediate Innate and Learned Responses. *Cell* **162**:134–145.
Grewe BF, Gründemann J, Kitch LJ, Lecoq JA, Parker JG, Marshall JD, Larkin MC,
Jercog PE, Grenier F, Li JZ, Lüthi A, Schnitzer MJ. 2017. Neural ensemble
dynamics underlying a long-term associative memory. *Nature* **543**:670–675.
Handler A, Graham TGW, Cohn R, Morantte I, Siliciano AF, Zeng J, Li Y, Ruta V. 2019.
Distinct Dopamine Receptor Pathways Underlie the Temporal Sensitivity of
Associative Learning. *Cell* **178**:60–75.e19.
Heisenberg M. 2003. Mushroom body memoir: from maps to models. *Nat Rev Neurosci*
4:266–275.
Hige T. 2018. What can tiny mushrooms in fruit flies tell us about learning and memory?
Neuroscience Research. doi:10.1016/j.neures.2017.05.002
Hige T, Aso Y, Modi MN, Rubin GM, Turner GC. 2015a. Heterosynaptic Plasticity
Underlies Aversive Olfactory Learning in Drosophila. *Neuron* **88**:985–998.
Hige T, Aso Y, Rubin GM, Turner GC. 2015b. Plasticity-driven individualization of
olfactory coding in mushroom body output neurons. *Nature* **526**:258–262.
Huetteroth W, Perisse E, Lin S, Klappenbach M, Burke C, Waddell S. 2015. Sweet taste
and nutrient value subdivide rewarding dopaminergic neurons in Drosophila. *Curr*
Biol **25**:751–758.
Ichinose T, Aso Y, Yamagata N, Abe A, Rubin GM, Tanimoto H. 2015. Reward signal in
a recurrent circuit drives appetitive long-term memory formation. *Elife* **4**:e10719.
Ichinose T, Kanno M, Wu H, Yamagata N, Sun H, Abe A, Tanimoto H. 2021. Mushroom

body output differentiates memory processes and distinct memory-guided
behaviors. *Curr Biol* **31**:1294–1302.e4.
Jacob PF, Waddell S. 2022. Spaced Training Forms Complementary Long-Term
Memories of Opposite Valence in Drosophila. *Neuron* **110**:2703.
Jenett A, Rubin GM, Ngo T-TB, Shepherd D, Murphy C, Dionne H, Pfeiffer BD,
Cavallaro A, Hall D, Jeter J, Iyer N, Fetter D, Hausenfluck JH, Peng H, Trautman
ET, Svirskas RR, Myers EW, Iwinski ZR, Aso Y, DePasquale GM, Enos A, Hulamm
P, Lam SCB, Li H-H, Laverty TR, Long F, Qu L, Murphy SD, Rokicki K, Safford T,
Shaw K, Simpson JH, Sowell A, Tae S, Yu Y, Zugates CT. 2012. A GAL4-driver line
resource for Drosophila neurobiology. *Cell Rep* **2**:991–1001.
Jovanic T, Winding M, Cardona A, Truman JW, Gershow M, Zlatic M. 2019. Neural
Substrates of Drosophila Larval Anemotaxis. *Curr Biol* **29**:554–566.e4.
Kamikouchi A, Shimada T, Ito K. 2006. Comprehensive classification of the auditory
sensory projections in the brain of the fruit fly Drosophila melanogaster. *J Comp*
Neurol **499**:317–356.
Kanzaki R, Ikeda A. 1994. Morphology and Physiology of Pheromone-Triggered Flip-
Flopping Descending Interneurons of the Male Silkworm Moth, Bombyx mori.
Olfaction and Taste XI. doi:10.1007/978-4-431-68355-1_348
Kaun KR, Azanchi R, Maung Z, Hirsh J, Heberlein U. 2011. A Drosophila model for
alcohol reward. *Nature Neuroscience*. doi:10.1038/nn.2805
Kirkhart C, Scott K. 2015. Gustatory learning and processing in the Drosophila
mushroom bodies. *J Neurosci* **35**:5950–5958.
Kitamoto T. 2001. Conditional modification of behavior in Drosophila by targeted
expression of a temperature-sensitive shibire allele in defined neurons. *J Neurobiol*
47:81–92.
Klapoetke NC, Murata Y, Kim SS, Pulver SR, Birdsey-Benson A, Cho YK, Morimoto TK,
Chuong AS, Carpenter EJ, Tian Z, Wang J, Xie Y, Yan Z, Zhang Y, Chow BY,
Surek B, Melkonian M, Jayaraman V, Constantine-Paton M, Wong GK-S, Boyden
ES. 2014. Independent optical excitation of distinct neural populations. *Nat Methods*
11:338–346.
Krashes MJ, Waddell S. 2008. Rapid consolidation to a radish and protein synthesis-
dependent long-term memory after single-session appetitive olfactory conditioning
in Drosophila. *J Neurosci* **28**:3103–3113.
Li F, Lindsey JW, Marin EC, Otto N, Dreher M, Dempsey G, Stark I, Bates AS, Pleijzier
MW, Schlegel P, Nern A, Takemura S-Y, Eckstein N, Yang T, Francis A, Braun A,
Parekh R, Costa M, Scheffer LK, Aso Y, Jefferis GS, Abbott LF, Litwin-Kumar A,
Waddell S, Rubin GM. 2020. The connectome of the adult Drosophila mushroom
body provides insights into function. *Elife* **9**. doi:10.7554/eLife.62576
Lin S, Owald D, Chandra V, Talbot C, Huetteroth W, Waddell S. 2014. Neural correlates
of water reward in thirsty Drosophila. *Nat Neurosci* **17**:1536–1542.
Liu C, Plaçais P-Y, Yamagata N, Pfeiffer BD, Aso Y, Friedrich AB, Siwanowicz I, Rubin
GM, Preat T, Tanimoto H. 2012. A subset of dopamine neurons signals reward for
odour memory in Drosophila. *Nature* **488**:512–516.
Matheson AMM, Lanz AJ, Medina AM, Licata AM, Currier TA, Syed MH, Nagel KI. 2022.
A neural circuit for wind-guided olfactory navigation. *Nat Commun* **13**:4613.
McCurdy LY, Sareen P, Davoudian PA, Nitabach MN. 2021. Dopaminergic mechanism
underlying reward-encoding of punishment omission during reversal learning in
Drosophila. *Nat Commun* **12**:1115.
Modi MN, Shuai Y, Turner GC. 2020. The Mushroom Body: From Architecture to
Algorithm in a Learning Circuit. *Annu Rev Neurosci* **43**:465–484.
Namburi P, Beyeler A, Yorozu S, Calhoon GG, Halbert SA, Wichmann R, Holden SS,

Mertens KL, Anahtar M, Felix-Ortiz AC, Wickersham IR, Gray JM, Tye KM. 2015. A
circuit mechanism for differentiating positive and negative associations. *Nature*
520:675–678.
Nern A, Pfeiffer BD, Rubin GM. 2015. Optimized tools for multicolor stochastic labeling
reveal diverse stereotyped cell arrangements in the fly visual system. *Proc Natl*
Acad Sci U S A **112**:E2967–76.
Nieh EH, Vander Weele CM, Matthews GA, Presbrey KN, Wichmann R, Leppla CA,
Izadmehr EM, Tye KM. 2016. Inhibitory Input from the Lateral Hypothalamus to the
Ventral Tegmental Area Disinhibits Dopamine Neurons and Promotes Behavioral
Activation. *Neuron* **90**:1286–1298.
Okubo TS, Patella P, D'Alessandro I, Wilson RI. 2020. A Neural Network for Wind-
Guided Compass Navigation. *Neuron* **107**:924–940.e18.
O'Neill P-K, Gore F, Salzman CD. 2018. Basolateral amygdala circuitry in positive and
negative valence. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **49**:175–183.
Otsuna H, Ito M, Kawase T. n.d. Color depth MIP mask search: a new tool to expedite
Split-GAL4 creation. doi:10.1101/318006
Owald D, Felsenberg J, Talbot CB, Das G, Perisse E, Huetteroth W, Waddell S. 2015.
Activity of defined mushroom body output neurons underlies learned olfactory
behavior in Drosophila. *Neuron* **86**:417–427.
Owald D, Waddell S. 2015. Olfactory learning skews mushroom body output pathways
to steer behavioral choice in Drosophila. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **35**:178–184.
Pai T-P, Chen C-C, Lin H-H, Chin A-L, Lai JS-Y, Lee P-T, Tully T, Chiang A-S. 2013.
Drosophila ORB protein in two mushroom body output neurons is necessary for
long-term memory formation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **110**:7898–7903.
Pauls D, Selcho M, Gendre N, Stocker RF, Thum AS. 2010. Drosophila larvae establish
appetitive olfactory memories via mushroom body neurons of embryonic origin. *J*
Neurosci **30**:10655–10666.
Pettersson J. 1970. An Aphid Sex Attractant. *Insect Systematics & Evolution*.
doi:10.1163/187631270x00357
Pfeiffer BD, Ngo T-TB, Hibbard KL, Murphy C, Jenett A, Truman JW, Rubin GM. 2010.
Refinement of tools for targeted gene expression in Drosophila. *Genetics* **186**:735–
755.
Plaçais P-Y, Trannoy S, Friedrich AB, Tanimoto H, Preat T. 2013. Two pairs of
mushroom body efferent neurons are required for appetitive long-term memory
retrieval in Drosophila. *Cell Rep* **5**:769–780.
Saumweber T, Rohwedder A, Schleyer M, Eichler K, Chen Y-C, Aso Y, Cardona A,
Eschbach C, Kobler O, Voigt A, Durairaja A, Mancini N, Zlatic M, Truman JW, Thum
AS, Gerber B. 2018. Functional architecture of reward learning in mushroom body
extrinsic neurons of larval Drosophila. *Nat Commun* **9**:1104.
Scaplen KM, Talay M, Fisher JD, Cohn R, Sorkaç A, Aso Y, Barnea G, Kaun KR. 2021.
Transsynaptic mapping of mushroom body output neurons. *Elife* **10**.
doi:10.7554/eLife.63379
Scheffer LK, Xu CS, Januszewski M, Lu Z, Takemura S-Y, Hayworth KJ, Huang GB,
Shinomiya K, Maitlin-Shepard J, Berg S, Clements J, Hubbard PM, Katz WT,
Umayam L, Zhao T, Ackerman D, Blakely T, Bogovic J, Dolafi T, Kainmueller D,
Kawase T, Khairy KA, Leavitt L, Li PH, Lindsey L, Neubarth N, Olbris DJ, Otsuna H,
Trautman ET, Ito M, Bates AS, Goldammer J, Wolff T, Svirskas R, Schlegel P,
Neace E, Knecht CJ, Alvarado CX, Bailey DA, Ballinger S, Borycz JA, Canino BS,
Cheatham N, Cook M, Dreher M, Duclos O, Eubanks B, Fairbanks K, Finley S,
Forknall N, Francis A, Hopkins GP, Joyce EM, Kim S, Kirk NA, Kovalyak J, Lauchie
SA, Lohff A, Maldonado C, Manley EA, McLin S, Mooney C, Ndama M, Ogundeyi

O, Okeoma N, Ordish C, Padilla N, Patrick CM, Paterson T, Phillips EE, Phillips EM,
Rampally N, Ribeiro C, Robertson MK, Rymer JT, Ryan SM, Sammons M, Scott
AK, Scott AL, Shinomiya A, Smith C, Smith K, Smith NL, Sobeski MA, Suleiman A,
Swift J, Takemura S, Talebi I, Tarnogorska D, Tenshaw E, Tokhi T, Walsh JJ, Yang
T, Horne JA, Li F, Parekh R, Rivlin PK, Jayaraman V, Costa M, Jefferis GS, Ito K,
Saalfeld S, George R, Meinertzhagen IA, Rubin GM, Hess HF, Jain V, Plaza SM.
2020. A connectome and analysis of the adult central brain. *Elife* **9**.
doi:10.7554/eLife.57443
Schnitzer M, Huang C, Luo J, Woo SJ, Roitman L, Li J, Pieribone V, Kannan M, Vasan
G. n.d. Dopamine signals integrate innate and learnt valences to regulate memory
dynamics. doi:10.21203/rs.3.rs-1915648/v1
Siju KP, Štih V, Aimon S, Gjorgjieva J, Portugues R, Grunwald Kadow IC. 2020. Valence
and State-Dependent Population Coding in Dopaminergic Neurons in the Fly
Mushroom Body. *Curr Biol* **30**:2104–2115.e4.
Steck K, Veit D, Grandy R, Badia SBI, Badia SBI, Mathews Z, Verschure P, Hansson
BS, Knaden M. 2012. A high-throughput behavioral paradigm for Drosophila
olfaction - The Flywalk. *Sci Rep* **2**:361.
Sun F, Zhou J, Dai B, Qian T, Zeng J, Li X, Zhuo Y, Zhang Y, Wang Y, Qian C, Tan K,
Feng J, Dong H, Lin D, Cui G, Li Y. 2020. Next-generation GRAB sensors for
monitoring dopaminergic activity in vivo. *Nat Methods* **17**:1156–1166.
Suver MP, Matheson AMM, Sarkar S, Damiata M, Schoppik D, Nagel KI. 2019.
Encoding of Wind Direction by Central Neurons in Drosophila. *Neuron* **102**:828–
842.e7.
Takemura S, Aso Y, Hige T, Wong A, Lu Z, Xu CS. 2017. A connectome of a learning
and memory center in the adult Drosophila brain. *Elife*.
Tanaka NK, Tanimoto H, Ito K. 2008. Neuronal assemblies of the Drosophila mushroom
body. *J Comp Neurol* **508**:711–755.
Truman JW, Price J, Miyares RL, Lee T. 2022. Metamorphosis of memory circuits in
Drosophila reveal a strategy for evolving a larval brain. *bioRxiv*.
doi:10.1101/2022.06.09.495452
Tully T, Quinn WG. 1985. Classical conditioning and retention in normal and mutant
Drosophila melanogaster. *J Comp Physiol A* **157**:263–277.
Tye KM. 2018. Neural Circuit Motifs in Valence Processing. *Neuron* **100**:436–452.
van Breugel F, Dickinson MH. 2014. Plume-tracking behavior of flying Drosophila
emerges from a set of distinct sensory-motor reflexes. *Curr Biol* **24**:274–286.
Vergassola M, Villermaux E, Shraiman BI. 2007. "Infotaxis" as a strategy for searching
without gradients. *Nature*. doi:10.1038/nature05464
Vet LEM, Van Lenteren JC, Heymans M, Meelis E. 1983. An airflow olfactometer for
measuring olfactory responses of hymenopterous parasitoids and other small
insects. *Physiological Entomology*. doi:10.1111/j.1365-3032.1983.tb00338.x
Vogt K, Aso Y, Hige T, Knapek S, Ichinose T, Friedrich AB, Turner GC, Rubin GM,
Tanimoto H. 2016. Direct neural pathways convey distinct visual information to
Drosophila mushroom bodies. *Elife* **5**. doi:10.7554/eLife.14009
Vogt K, Schnaitmann C, Dylla KV, Knapek S, Aso Y, Rubin GM, Tanimoto H. 2014.
Shared mushroom body circuits underlie visual and olfactory memories in
Drosophila. *Elife* **3**:e02395.
Wan Y, Otsuna H, Chien C-B, Hansen C. 2012. FluoRender: An Application of 2D Image
Space Methods for 3D and 4D Confocal Microscopy Data Visualization in
Neurobiology Research. *IEEE Pac Vis Symp* 201–208.
Yamada D, Bushey D, Feng L, Hibbard K, Sammons M, Funke J, Litwin-Kumar A, Hige
T, Aso Y. n.d. Hierarchical architecture of dopaminergic circuits enables second-

943   order conditioning in *Drosophila*. doi:10.1101/2022.03.30.486484
944 Yamagata N, Ichinose T, Aso Y, Plaçais P-Y, Friedrich AB, Sima RJ, Preat T, Rubin GM,
945   Tanimoto H. 2015. Distinct dopamine neurons mediate reward signals for short- and
946   long-term memories. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **112**:578–583.
947 Yorozu S, Wong A, Fischer BJ, Dankert H, Kernan MJ, Kamikouchi A, Ito K, Anderson
948   DJ. 2009. Distinct sensory representations of wind and near-field sound in the
949   Drosophila brain. *Nature* **458**:201–205.
950 Zhang X, Li B. 2018. Population coding of valence in the basolateral amygdala. *Nat*
951   *Commun* **9**:1–14.
952 Zhao T, Olbris DJ, Yu Y, Plaza SM. 2018. NeuTu: Software for Collaborative, Large-
953   Scale, Segmentation-Based Connectome Reconstruction. *Front Neural Circuits*
954   **12**:101.
955 Zheng Z, Lauritzen JS, Perlman E, Robinson CG, Nichols M, Milkie D, Torrens O, Price
956   J, Fisher CB, Sharifi N, Calle-Schuler SA, Kmecova L, Ali IJ, Karsh B, Trautman ET,
957   Bogovic JA, Hanslovsky P, Jefferis GSXE, Kazhdan M, Khairy K, Saalfeld S, Fetter
958   RD, Bock DD. 2018. A Complete Electron Microscopy Volume of the Brain of Adult
959   Drosophila melanogaster. *Cell* **174**:730–743.e22.
960 Zolin A, Cohn R, Pang R, Siliciano AF, Fairhall AL, Ruta V. 2021. Context-dependent
961   representations of movement in Drosophila dopaminergic reinforcement pathways.
962   *Nat Neurosci* **24**:1555–1566.

965 **Figure Legends**

966 **Figure 1. Memories in specific set of MB-compartments drive upwind locomotion**

967 (A) A conceptual diagram of the mushroom body circuit. The colored rectangles
968 represent individual MB compartments.
969 (B) A diagram of a four-armed olfactory arena. In each experiment, approximately 20
970 female flies were introduced into the circular arena.
971 (C) Protocols for optogenetic training and the two different memory tests used in this
972 work.
973 (D) Appetitive memories assessed by binary choice between CS+ and CS- odors
974 immediately after training with optogenetic activation of DANs that express CsChrimson
975 with drivers indicated in E. N=14-24.
976 (E) Time course of the area normalized mean of fly's position relative to the center of the
977 arena as compared with its mean position at odor onset and the cosine of the angle
978 between the fly's orientation and the upwind direction (See Methods). Flies of each
979 genotype were trained with three protocols: 1) Pentyl Acetate (PA) was paired with the
980 LED activating illumination and Ethyl Lactate (EL) was unpaired. 2) EL was paired with
981 LED and PA was unpaired. 3) Neither odor was paired (No LED). Lines and filled areas
982 around lines are mean and SEM. N=24-60.
983 (F) The delta of distance from the center at the end of the 10s odor period. Each dot
984 represents data from individual trials. Black lines are mean and SEM. *, p<0.05; ***,
985 p<0.001; Dunn's multiple comparison tests compared to empty-split-GAL4 control,
986 following Kruskal-Wallis test; N=24-60. The upwind displacements of MB213B and
987 MB043C in response to CS+ odor were also significantly higher than the control when
988 trial averages of 6 movies were compared.

(G) Cumulative angle of turning and forward walking speed during the first 10 frames
(333ms; a time window we used for optogenetic experiments in Figure 6) following odor
onset are plotted against initial angle to upwind, smoothened with +/- 30-degree bin. The
number of trajectories analyzed for (CS+, CS-, No LED) conditions for
MB109B+MB315C, MB312C, MB213B and MB043C were (531, 562, 167), (710, 758,
814), (920, 1039, 919) and (449, 768, 531), respectively. Only flies that were 3mm or
more from the edge of the arena were analyzed.
(H) The violin-plots of the cumulative angle of turn to the upwind orientation during the
first 10 frames (333ms) of odor onset. Only flies that oriented -90 to -150 or +90 to 150
degrees to the upwind direction at odor onset were analyzed. N=122, 137, 233, 239, 99
for empty-split-GAL4, MB109B+MB315C, MB312C, MB213B and MB043C, respectively.
*, p<0.05; ***, p<0.001; Dunn's multiple comparison tests compared to empty-split-GAL4
control, following Kruskal-Wallis test.
1002
Figure 1-figure supplement 1. Memory-based modulation of walking speed and
angular speed depends on the fly's initial angle to the upwind direction

(A-E) The cosine of the angle to upwind direction, angular speed and forward walking
speed are separately plotted for flies oriented downwind or upwind at odor onset (Time =
0 s). Only flies that were at least 3 mm away from the edge of the arena were analyzed.
The source data are identical to Figure 1E-H.

Figure 2. Identification of UpWiNs by activation screening

(A) Mean displacement of fly's position relative to the center of the arena during
activation of various cell types defined by the indicated driver lines. Dunn's multiple
comparison tests compared to empty-split-GAL4 control, following Kruskal-Wallis test;*,
p<0.05; **, p<0.01; ***, p<0.001, N=18-132; Black asterisks indicate p<0.05 without
correction for multiple comparisons. The median, first and third quartiles, 10 and 90
percentiles are displayed with outlier data points. See Figure 2-figure supplement 1 and
http://www.janelia.org/split-gal4 for expression patterns of CsChrimson in these driver
lines.

(B) Z-scores for five parameters for 2s time bins (T1 to T2) before, during (bold
numbers) and after the 10s activation period. For calculating the probability of return,
15s long trajectories of each fly following each time point (t1) were analyzed. A fly was
considered to revisit the original location at time0 if it moved away more than 10mm and
came back to within 3mm distance from that location at time0 within 15s. High Z-score at
8-10s time bin indicate that flies tended to move back to their location at 8-10s by 23-25s
(i.e. mostly dark period after LED was turned off).

Figure 2-figure supplement 1. Activation phenotypes of "hit" lines

Time courses of five behavioral parameters are shown for driver lines with significant
upwind locomotion (i.e. delta distance from center) phenotypes in Figure 2. Lines and
shaded areas around lines are mean and SEM; split-GAL4>CsChrimson-mVenus are
shown in blue and empty-split-Gal4>CsChrimson-mVenus in gray.

Figure 2-figure supplement 2. Expression patterns of "hit" lines

Projection of confocal microscopy stacks for expression patterns of CsChrimson-
mVenus driven by designated split-GAL4 driver lines in brains and ventral nerve cords.

Confocal stacks are available at https://splitgal4.janelia.org

Figure 2-figure supplement 3. LM-EM matching of cell types in SS49899

(A) The fan-shaped body neurons in SS49899 driver that were visualized with myr-
smGFP-HA (green) and synaptotagmin-smGFP-V5 (magenta). The outlines of the
standard brain and the mushroom body are shown in gray. Other driver lines with similar
expression patterns are listed.

(B) The corresponding EM reconstructed neurons, which were matched by comparing
projection patterns in the standard brain and referring MCFO images of split-GAL4.
Confocal stacks are available at https://splitgal4.janelia.org

Figure 2-figure supplement 4. LM-EM matching of cell types in SS49755

(A) The SMP neurons in SS49755 driver that were visualized with myr-smGFP-HA
(green) and synaptotagmin-smGFP-V5 (magenta). The outlines of the standard brain
and the mushroom body are shown in gray. Other driver lines with similar expression
patterns are listed.

(B) The corresponding EM reconstructed neurons, which were matched by comparing
projection patterns in the standard brain and referring MCFO images of split-GAL4.
Confocal stacks are available at https://splitgal4.janelia.org

1051

Figure 3. Connectivity of UpWiNs

(A) The expression pattern of CsChrimson-mVenus driven by split-GAL4 line SS33917.

(B) Eleven EM-reconstructed neurons that correspond to UpWiNs defined by the
SS33917 driver were identified by analyzing the morphology of individual neurons
(Figure 3-figure supplement 1 and 2) and are displayed with outline of the MB and the
standard brain. Individual neurons are color-coded to indicate the cell type to which they
were assigned.

(C) Connectivity of UpWiNs with major upstream and downstream neurons that have at
least 20 connections with one of the 11 UpWiNs. The hemibrain bodyIDs of each neuron
is shown as well as their assignment to specific cell types. Numbers indicate the number
of synapses from the upstream neurons to UpWin neurons (left) or from the UpWiNs to
the downstream neurons (right).

(D) Interneurons downstream to MBON-α1 and MBON-α3. Colors of dots indicate
neurotransmitter prediction (Eckstein et al., n.d.). See Figure 3-figure supplement 3 for
more detail.

(E) Predicted postsynaptic sites in SMP353 and SMP354 (gray), which are juxtaposed to
presynaptic sites from MBON-α1 (green) and MBON-α3 (orange).

(F) Interconnectivity between UpWiNs. The numbers indicate the summed number of
connections. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of neurons per cell type.

1071

Figure 3-figure supplement 1. Candidate UpWiNs in hemibrain EM images

(A) Frontal and dorsal projection of 11 EM-reconstructed neurons that were matched with confocal images of UpWiNs within the standard brain (Bogovic et al., 2020) (see Figure 3-figure supplement 2). Pseudo colors were assigned to each of five cell types. The arrowhead and arrow indicate common axonal tract and terminal area in the SMP. IDs of each neuron are displayed. The somas of these neurons are clustered near the tip of the vertical lobe of the MB, and they share the tracts for the primary neurite and axons, whereas the branching patterns of their dendrites exhibit cell-type-specific characteristics, which were used for cell type matching.
(B-L) Projections of individual neurons. The arrows indicate dendritic branches that are characteristic to each cell type.

Figure 3-figure supplement 2. Single cell images of neurons in SS33917

(A-Y) Frontal projections of segmented multi-color flp-out images of SS33917 (colored) with corresponding EM neuron (gray). The arrows indicate dendritic branches that are characteristic to each cell type.

Figure 3-figure supplement 3. NBLAST clustering of single cell images of neurons in SS33917

MCFO single cell images of SS33917 driver were clustered into 6 groups, which were nearly identical to the manual annotation.

Figure 3-figure supplement 4. Downstream neurons of MBON-α1 and MBON-α3

Connectivity from MBON-α1 and MBON-α3 to downstream neurons that receive at least 10 connections.

Figure 4. UpWiNs integrate excitatory and inhibitory synaptic inputs from MBONs.
(A) Functional connectivity between MBON-α3 and UpWiNs. Chrimson88-tdTomato was expressed in MBON-α3 by MB082C split-GAL4, and the photostimulation responses were measured by whole-cell current-clamp recording in randomly selected UpWiNs labeled by R64A11-LexA. 2 out of 6 neurons (4 flies) showed excitatory response. Mean voltage traces from individual connected (orange) and unconnected UpWiNs (gray) are overlaid. The connection was strong enough to elicit spikes (black; single-trial response in one of the connected UpWiNs). Magenta vertical line indicates photostimulation (10 msec).
(B) Functional connectivity between MBON-α1 and UpWiNs. Chrimson88-tdTomato expression in MBON-α1 was driven by MB310C split-GAL4. 4 out of 17 neurons (12 flies) showed inhibitory response. Mean voltage traces from individual connected (green) and unconnected UpWiNs (gray) are overlaid.

(C) Integration of synaptic inputs from MBON-α3 and MBON-α1. Population responses

of UpWiNs were measured by two-photon calcium imaging at the junction between

dendrites and axonal tracts (mean $\Delta F/F \pm$ SEM) while photostimulating MBON-α3

(orange; n = 5), MBON-α1 (green; n = 11) or both (black; n = 7). Expression of

GCaMP6s was driven by R64A11-LexA, and Chrimson88-tdTomato by G0239-GAL4

1118 (MBON-α3) and/or MB310C (MBON-α1). Photostimulation: 1 sec (magenta). While
1119 activation of MBON-α1 did not evoke detectable inhibition in the calcium signal, it
1120 effectively canceled the excitation by MBON-α3.
1121

Figure 5. Optogenetic appetitive conditioning enhances the response to the
conditioned odor in UpWiNs.
(A) Optogenetic conditioning was performed by pairing photostimulation of PAM-DANs
with odor presentation. Expression of ChrimsonR-mVenus was driven by 58E02-LexA,
and in vivo whole-cell recordings were made from UpWINs labeled by GFP using
SS67249-split-GAL4. 1-min presentation of OCT was paired with LED stimulation (1 ms,
2 Hz, 120 times), followed by 1-min presentation of MCH alone.
(B) Representative recording from a single fly. Gray bars indicate 1-s odor presentation.
(C) Mean (± SEM) odor responses (n = 6). Spikes were removed by a low-pass filter.
(D) Summary data of mean (± SEM) odor-evoked membrane depolarization. Gray lines
indicate data from individual neurons. Responses to OCT were potentiated ($p < 0.01$;
repeated-measures two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc multiple comparisons
test), while those to MCH did not change ($p = 0.9$).
1135
1136 **Figure 5 – figure supplement 1. Expression patterns of SS67249**
1137 (A) Expression of CsChrimson-mVenus driven by SS67249.
1138 (B-D) MCFO image of neurons in SS67249 (red) and SMP353 (gray) with outline of the
1139 MB and the standard brain.
1140
Figure 5 – figure supplement 2. Reciprocal experiment of optogenetic appetitive
conditioning.
(A) Experimental design and protocol. Same as Figure 5 except that MCH was paired
with DAN photostimulation.
(B) Representative recording from a single fly. Gray bars indicate 1-s odor presentation.
(C) Mean (± SEM) odor responses (n = 5). Spikes were removed by a low-pass filter.
(D) Summary data of mean (± SEM) odor-evoked membrane depolarization. Gray lines
indicate data from individual neurons. Responses to MCH were potentiated ($p < 0.001$;
repeated-measures two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc multiple comparisons
test), while those to OCT did not change ($p = 0.4$).
1151
Figure 6. Activity of UpWiNs bias turning direction
(A) Fed or 40-48 hours starved flies were compared to assess requirement of starved
status for UpWiNs to promote upwind locomotion. N=14 (fed) and 16 (starved); ***,
$p<0.001$, Mann-Whitney test;
(B) Upwind locomotion during the 10s activation of UpWiNs in the arena with various
rates of airflow. N=9-16;**, $p<0.01$; Dunn's multiple comparison tests compared to the
zero flow condition.
(C) Right side or both sides of aristae were ablated one-day prior to experiments to
measure upwind response during UpWiN activation. N=20 (intact) and 40 (unilateral and
bilateral); ***, $p<0.001$; Dunn's multiple comparison tests compared to the intact control.
(D) Behavioral kinematics of UpWiN activation. The trajectories of individual flies during
first 1.5s of 10s LED period were grouped to initially facing downwind or upwind if
cos(upwind angle) was above 0.5 or below -0.5, respectively.
(E) Cumulative angle of turning and forward walking speed during the first 10 frames
(333ms) after the onset of LED plotted against initial angle to upwind smoothened with
+/- 30 degree bin. The number of trajectories analyzed for (SS33917, SS33918,

MB077B, Empty-split-GAL4) were (2492, 3362, 772, 1582), respectively. Only flies that
were at least 3mm away from the edge of the arena were analyzed.
(F-G) The violin-plots of the cumulative angle of turn to the upwind orientation or forward
walking speed during the first 10 frames (333ms) of odor onset. Only flies that oriented -
90 to -150 or +90 to 150 degrees to upwind at the odor onset were analyzed. N=444,
540, 231, 219 for SS33917, SS33918, MB077B, Empty-split-GAL4, respectively. **,
$p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$; Dunn's multiple comparison for the selected pairs, following
Kruskal-Wallis test.
1176
1177 **Figure 6-figure supplement 1**
1178 (A-E) The cosine of angle to upwind, angular speed and forward walking speed are
1179 separately plotted for flies oriented downwind or upwind at the odor onset. Only flies that
1180 were 3mm away from the edge of the arena were analyzed. The source data are
1181 identical to Figure 2.
1182
1183
Figure 7. UpWiNs are required for memory-driven upwind locomotion
(A) Upwind response to the odor associated with sugar in control genotypes and flies
that express TNT in UpWiNs.
(B) Time course of upwind response.
(C) Appetitive memories of control genotypes and flies expressing shibire in UpWiNs
were tested one-day after odor-sugar conditioning at restrictive or permissive
temperature.
(D) Time course of fly's preference to quadrants with red LED light by
SS33917>CsChrimson (blue) or empty-split-GAL4>CsChrimson (gray). The preference
to red LED quadrants during the last 5s of two 30s activation period was significantly
higher for SS33917>CsChrimson flies (right).
(E) The probability of returning to the location where LED stimulation was terminated
were measured as in Figure 2, but without airflow. See Figure 7-figure supplement 1 for
the time courses and other parameters. UpWiN drivers are shown together with
SS49755 from the screen.
1199
1200 **Figure 7-figure supplement 1 UpWiN activation phenotypes without airflow**
1201 Time course of the five parameters shown in Figure 2-figure supplement 1 but in the
1202 absence of airflow. Lines and filled areas around lines are mean and SEM; CsChrimson-
1203 expressing flies (blue) and empty-split-GAL4 control (gray).
1204

Figure 1

Figure 1-figure supplement 1

Figure 2

Figure 2-figure Supplement 1

Figure 2-figure Supplement 2

LM

EM

A

dorsal
posterior

membrane pre
SS49897, SS48882, SS49899
18 cells

20 µm

B

hDeltaB, D, E

A′

posterior
dorsal

B′

Figure 2-figure Supplement 3

LM

EM

A

dorsal
posterior

membrane pre
SS49755, SS48894
15 cells

20 µm

B

SMP357-362

A′

posterior
dorsal

B′

Figure 2-figure Supplement 4

Figure 3

Figure 3-figure supplement 1

Figure 3-figure supplement 2

Figure 3-figure supplement 3

Figure 3 – figure supplement 4

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 5 – figure supplement 1

Figure 5 – figure supplement 2

Figure 6

Figure 6-figure Supplement 1

Figure 7

Figure 7-figure supplement 1