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A neurotrophin functioning with a Toll regulates structural plasticity in a dopaminergic circuit

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ABSTRACT

Experience shapes the brain, as neural circuits can be modified by neural stimulation or the lack of it. The molecular mechanisms underlying structural circuit plasticity and how plasticity modifies behaviour, are poorly understood. Subjective experience requires dopamine, a neuromodulator that assigns a value to stimuli, and it also controls behaviour, including locomotion, learning and memory. In *Drosophila*, Toll receptors are ideally placed to translate experience into structural brain change. *Toll-6* is expressed in dopaminergic neurons (DANs), raising the intriguing possibility that Toll-6 could regulate structural plasticity in dopaminergic circuits. *Drosophila* neurotrophin-2 (DNT-2) is the ligand for Toll-6, but whether it is required for circuit structural plasticity was unknown. Here, we show that *DNT-2* expressing neurons connect with DANs, and they modulate each other. Loss of function for *DNT-2* or its receptors *Toll-6* and kinase-less Trk-like *kek-6* caused DAN and synapse loss, impaired dendrite growth and connectivity, decreased synaptic sites and caused locomotion deficits. By contrast, over-expressed *DNT-2* increased dendrite complexity and promoted synaptogenesis. Neuronal activity increased synaptogenesis in DNT-2 and DANs, and over-expression of DNT-2 could mimic this effect. Altering the levels of DNT-2 or Toll-6 could also modify dopamine-dependent behaviours, including locomotion and long-term memory. We conclude that an activity-dependent feedback loop involving dopamine and DNT-2 labelled the circuits engaged, and DNT-2 with Toll-6 and Kek-6 induced structural plasticity in this circuit, modifying brain function.

INTRODUCTION

The brain can change throughout life, as new cells are formed or eliminated, axonal and dendritic arbours can grow or shrink, synapses can form or be eliminated(Wiesel 1982, Feldman and Brecht 2005, Holtmaat and Svoboda 2009, Gage 2019). Such changes can be driven by experience, that is, neuronal activity or the lack of it(Wiesel 1982, Maguire et al. 2000, Cotman and Berchtold 2002, Feldman and Brecht 2005, Sur and Rubenstein 2005, Holtmaat and Svoboda 2009, Woollett and Maguire 2011, Chen, CC and Brumberg 2021, Bharmauria et al. 2022). Structural changes result in remodelling of connectivity patterns, and these bring about modifications of behaviour. These can be adaptive, dysfunctional or simply the consequence of opportunistic connections between neurons(Kuner and Flor 2016, Leemhuis et al. 2019, Yang et al. 2020). It is critical to understand how structural modifications to cells influence brain function. This requires linking with cellular resolution molecular mechanisms, neural circuits and resulting behaviours.

In the mammalian brain, the neurotrophins (NTs: BDNF, NGF, NT3, NT4) are growth factors underlying structural brain plasticity(Poo 2001, Lu et al. 2005, Park and Poo 2013). They promote neuronal survival, connectivity, neurite growth, synaptogenesis, synaptic plasticity and Long-Term Potentiation (LTP), via their Trk and $p75^{NTR}$ receptors(Poo 2001, Lu et al. 2005, Park and Poo 2013). In fact, all anti-depressants function by stimulating production of BDNF and signalling via its receptor TrkB, leading to increased brain plasticity(Casarotto et al. 2021, Castren and Monteggia 2021). Importantly, NTs have dual functions and can also induce neuronal apoptosis, neurite loss, synapse retraction and Long-Term Depression (LTD), via $p75^{NTR}$ and Sortilin(Lu et al. 2005). Remarkably, these latter functions are shared with neuroinflammation, which in mammals involves Toll-Like Receptors (TLRs)(Squillace and Salvemini 2022). TLRs and Tolls have universal functions in innate immunity across the animals (Gay and Gangloff 2007), and consistently with this, TLRs in the CNS are mostly studied in microglia. However, mammalian *TLRs* are expressed in all CNS cell types, where they can promote not only neuroinflammation, but also neurogenesis, neurite growth and synaptogenesis and regulate memory – independently of pathogens, cellular damage or disease(Ma et al. 2006, Rolls et al. 2007, Okun et al. 2010, Okun et al. 2011, Patel et al. 2016, Chen, CY et al. 2019). Whether

TLRs have functions in structural brain plasticity and behaviour remains little explored, and whether they

can function together with neurotrophins in the mammalian brain is unknown.

Progress linking cellular and molecular events to circuit and behavioural modification has been

rather daunting and limited using mammals(Wang et al. 2022). The *Drosophila* adult brain is plastic and can

be modified by experience and neuronal activity(Technau 1984, Barth and Heisenberg 1997, Barth et al.

1997, Sachse et al. 2007, Kremer et al. 2010, Sugie et al. 2015, Linneweber et al. 2020, Baltruschat et al.

2021, Coban et al. 2024). Different living conditions, stimulation with odorants or light, circadian rhythms,

nutrition, long-term memory and experimentally activating or silencing neurons, modify brain volume, alter

circuit and neuronal shape, and remodel synapses, revealing experience-dependent structural

plasticity(Devaud et al. 2001, Gorska-Andrzejak et al. 2005, Sachse et al. 2007, Fernandez et al. 2008,

Kremer et al. 2010, Bushey et al. 2011, Sugie et al. 2015, Duhart et al. 2020, Baltruschat et al. 2021,

Vaughen et al. 2022, Coban et al. 2024). Furthermore, the *Drosophila* brain is also susceptible to

neurodegeneration(Bolus et al. 2020). However, the molecular and circuit mechanisms underlying

structural brain plasticity are mostly unknown in *Drosophila*.

Toll receptors are expressed across the *Drosophila* brain, in distinct but overlapping patterns that

mark the anatomical brain domains(Li et al. 2020). Tolls share a common signalling pathway downstream,

that can drive at least four distinct cellular outcomes – cell death, survival, quiescence, proliferation –

depending on context(McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017, Anthoney et al. 2018, Li et al. 2020). They are

also required for connectivity and structural synaptic plasticity and they can also induce cellular events

independently of signalling(McIlroy et al. 2013, Ward et al. 2015, McLaughlin et al. 2016, Foldi et al. 2017,

Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017, Li et al. 2020). These nervous system functions occur in the absence of tissue

damage or infection. This is consistent with the fact that - as well as universal functions in innate immunity

- Tolls also have multiple non-immune functions also outside the CNS, including the original discovery of

Toll in dorso-ventral patterning, cell intercalation, cell competition and others (Meyer et al. 2014, Pare et

al. 2014, Anthoney et al. 2018, Tamada et al. 2021). The Toll distribution patterns in the adult brain and

their ability to switch between distinct cellular outcomes means they are ideally placed to translate

experience into structural brain change(Li et al. 2020).

We had previously observed that in the adult brain, *Toll-6* is expressed in dopaminergic

neurons(McIlroy et al. 2013). Dopamine is a key neuromodulator that regulates wakefulness and

motivation, experience valence, such as reward, and it is essential for locomotion, learning and

memory(Riemensperger et al. 2011, Waddell 2013, Adel and Griffith 2021). In *Drosophila*, Dopaminergic

neurons (DANs) form an associative neural circuit together with mushroom body Kenyon cells (KCs), Dorsal

Anterior Lateral neurons (DAL) and Mushroom Body Output neurons (MBONs) (Chen, CC et al. 2012, Aso et

al. 2014a, Boto et al. 2020, Adel and Griffith 2021). Kenyon cells receive input from projection neurons of

the sensory systems, they then project through the mushroom body lobes where they are intersected by

DANs to regulate MBONs to drive behaviour (Heisenberg 2003, Aso et al. 2014b, Boto et al. 2020). This

associative circuit is required for learning, long-term memory and goal-oriented behaviour (Chen, CC et al.

2012, Guven-Ozkan and Davis 2014, Adel and Griffith 2021). During experience, involving sensory

stimulation from the external world and from own actions, dopamine assigns a value to otherwise neutral

stimuli, labelling the neural circuits engaged(Boto et al. 2020). Thus, this raises the possibility that a link of

Toll-6 to dopamine could enable translating experience into circuit modification to modulate behaviour.

In *Drosophila*, Toll receptors can function both independently of ligand-binding and by binding

Spätzle (Spz) protein family ligands, also known as *Drosophila* neurotrophins (DNTs), that are sequence,

structural and functional homologues of the mammalian NTs(DeLotto and DeLotto 1998, Weber et al. 2003,

Hoffmann et al. 2008a, Hoffmann et al. 2008b, Zhu et al. 2008, Lewis et al. 2013, McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi

et al. 2017). Like mammalian NTs, DNTs also promote cell survival, connectivity, synaptogenesis and

structural synaptic plasticity, and they can also promote cell death, depending on context(Zhu et al. 2008,

McIlroy et al. 2013, Sutcliffe et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). As well as Tolls, DNTs

are also ligands for Kekkon (Kek) receptors, kinase-less homologues of the mammalian NT Trk receptors

and are required for structural synaptic plasticity(Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). Importantly, the targets

regulated by Tolls and Keks - ERK, NFκB, PI3K, JNK, CaMKII – are shared with those of mammalian NT

receptors Trk and p75[NTR], and have key roles in structural and functional plasticity across the animals (Park

and Poo 2013, Foldi et al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017, Yang et al. 2020, Tamada et al. 2021).

Here, we focus on Drosophila neurotrophin -2 (DNT-2), proved to be the ligand of Toll-6 and Kek-6,

with in vitro, cell culture and in vivo evidence (McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al.

2017). Here we asked how DNT-2, Toll-6 and Kek-6 are functionally related to dopamine, whether they and

neuronal activity – as a proxy for experience - can modify neural circuits, and how structural circuit

plasticity modifies dopamine-dependent behaviours.

RESULTS

DNT-2A, Toll-6 and Kek-6 neurons are integrated in a dopaminergic circuit

To allow morphological and functional analyses of *DNT-2* expressing neurons, we generated a *DNT-2Gal4*

line using CRISPR/Cas9 and drove expression of the membrane-tethered-GFP *FlyBow1.1* reporter. We

identified at least 12 DNT-2+ neurons and we focused on four anterior DNT-2A neurons per hemi-brain

(Figure 1A). Using the post-synaptic marker Denmark, DNT-2A dendrites were found at the prow (PRW) and

flange (FLA) region, whereas axonal terminals visualised with the pre-synaptic marker synapse defective 1

(Dsyd1-GFP) resided at the superior medial protocerbrum (SMP) (Figure 1B,D). We additionally found

post-synaptic signal at the SMP and pre-synaptic signal at the FLA/PRW (Figure 1D), suggesting bidirectional

communication at both sites. Using Multi-Colour Flip-Out (MCFO) to label individual cells

stochastically(Nern et al. 2015, Costa et al. 2016), single neuron clones revealed variability in the DNT-2A

projections across individual flies (Figure 1C), consistently with developmental and activity-dependent

structural plasticity in *Drosophila*(Heisenberg et al. 1995, Kremer et al. 2010, Sugie et al. 2015, Mayseless et

al. 2018, Li et al. 2020, Linneweber et al. 2020, Baltruschat et al. 2021). We found that DNT-2A neurons are

glutamatergic as they express the vesicular glutamate transporter vGlut (Figure 1E, left) and lack markers

for other neurotransmitter types (Figure S1). DNT-2A terminals overlapped with those of dopaminergic

neurons (Figure 1F), suggesting they could receive inputs from neuromodulatory neurons. In fact, single-

cell RNA-seq revealed transcripts encoding the dopamine receptors *Dop1R1, Dop1R2, Dop2R* and/or

DopEcR in DNT-2+ neurons(Croset et al. 2018). Using reporters, we found that Dop2R is present in DNT-2A

neurons, but not Dop1R2 (Figure 1E right, Figure S1C). Altogether, these data showed that DNT-2A neurons

are excitatory glutamatergic neurons that could receive dopaminergic input both at PRW and SMP.

DNT-2 functions via Toll-6 and Kek-6 receptors, and *Toll-6* is expressed in DANs(McIlroy et al. 2013).

To identify the cells expressing *Toll-6* and *kek-6* and explore further their link to the dopaminergic system,

we used *Toll-6Gal4(Li et al. 2020)* and *kek-6Gal4*(Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017) to drive expression of

membrane-tethered *FlyBbow1.1* and assessed their expression throughout the brain. Using anti-Tyrosine

Hydroxilase (TH) - the enzyme that catalyses the penultimate step in dopamine synthesis - to visualise

DANs, we found that Toll-6+ neurons included dopaminergic neurons from the PAMs, PPL1 and PPL2

clusters (Figure 1H, Figure S2D,F Table S1), whilst Kek-6+ neurons included PAM, PAL, PPL1, PPM2 and

PPM3 dopaminergic clusters (Figure 1I, Figure S2B,E,F Table S1). DNT-2 can also bind various Tolls and Keks

promiscuously(McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017) and other *Tolls* are also expressed in the dopaminergic

system: PAMs express multiple *Toll* receptors (Figure S2F) and all PPL1s express at least one *Toll* (Figure

S2F). Using MCFO clones revealed that both *Toll-6* and *kek-6* are also expressed in Kenyon cells (Li et al.

2020) (Figure S2I,J, Table S1), DAL neurons (Figure S2G,H, Table S1) and MBONs (Figure S2A-C). In summary,

Toll-6 and *kek-6* are expressed in DANs, DAL, Kenyon cells and MBONs (Figure 1G). These cells belong to a

circuit required for associative learning, long-term memory and behavioural output, and DANs are also

required for locomotion (Riemensperger et al. 2011, Chen, CC et al. 2012, Aso et al. 2014b, Boto et al. 2014,

Adel and Griffith 2021). Altogether, our data showed that DNT-2A neurons are glutamatergic neurons that

could receive dopamine as they contacted DANs and expressed the *Dop2R* receptor, and that in turn DANs

expressed the DNT-2 receptors *Toll-6* and *kek-6*, and therefore could respond to DNT-2. These data

suggested that there could be bidirectional connectivity between DNT-2A neurons and DANs, which we

explored below.

Bidirectional connectivity between DNT-2A neurons and DANs

To verify the connectivity of DNT-2A neurons with DANs, we used various genetic tools. To identify DNT-2A output neurons, we used TransTango(Talay et al. 2017) (Figure 2A and Figure S3). DNT-2A RFP+ outputs included a subset of MB α'β' lobes, αβ Kenyon cells, tip of MB β'2, DAL neurons, dorsal fan-shaped body layer and possibly PAM or other dopaminergic neurons (Figure 2A, see Figure S3). Consistently, these DNT-2A output neurons express *Toll-6* and *kek-6* (Supplementary Table S1). To identify DNT-2A input neurons, we used BAcTrace(Cachero et al. 2020). This identified PAM-DAN inputs at SMP (Figure 2B). Altogether, these data showed that DNT-2A neurons receive dopaminergic neuromodulatory inputs, their outputs include MB Kenyon cells, DAL neurons and possibly DANs, and DNT-2 arborisations at SMP are bidirectional.

To further test the relationship between DNT-2A neurons and DANs, we reasoned that stimulating DANs would provoke either release or production of dopamine. So, we asked whether increasing DNT-2 levels in DNT-2 neurons could influence dopamine levels. For this, we over-express *DNT-2* in full-length form (i.e. *DNT-2FL*), as it enables to investigate non-autonomous functions of DNT-2 (Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). Importantly, DNT-2FL is spontaneously cleaved into the mature form(McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017) (see discussion). Thus, we over-expressed *DNT-2FL* in DNT-2 neurons and asked whether this affected dopamine production, using mRNA levels for *TH* as readout. Using quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) we found that over-expressing *DNT2-FL* in DNT-2 neurons in adult flies increased *TH* mRNA levels in fly heads (Figure 2C). This showed that DNT-2 could stimulate dopamine production in neighbouring DANs.

Next, we wondered whether in turn DNT-2A neurons, that express *Dop2R*, could be modulated by dopamine. Binding of dopamine to D2-like Dop2R (also known as DD2R) inhibits adenylyl-cyclase, decreasing cAMP levels(Hearn et al. 2002, Neve et al. 2004). Thus, we asked whether DNT-2A neurons received dopamine and signal via Dop2R. Genetic restrictions did not allow us to activate PAMs and test DNT-2 neurons, so we activated DNT-2 neurons and tested whether *Dop2R* knock-down would increase cAMP levels. We used the FRET-based cAMP sensor, Epac1-camps-50A(Shafer et al. 2008). When Epac1-camps-50A binds cAMP, FRET is lost, resulting in decreased YFP/CFP ratio over time. Indeed, *Dop2R* RNAi knock-down in DNT-2A neurons significantly increased cAMP levels (Figure 2D), demonstrating that

normally Dop2R inhibits cAMP signalling in DNT-2A cells. Importantly, this result meant that in controls,

activating DNT-2A neurons caused dopamine release from DANs that then bound Dop2R to inhibit adenylyl-

cyclase in DNT-2A neurons; this inhibition was prevented with *Dop2R* RNAi knock-down. Altogether, this

shows that DNT-2 up-regulated TH levels (Figure 2E), whereas dopamine inhibited cAMP in DNT-2A

neurons (Figure 2F).

In summary, DNT-2A neurons are connected to DANs, DAL and MB Kenyon cells, all of which

express DNT-2 receptors *Toll-6* and *kek-6* and belong to a dopaminergic as well as associative learning and

memory circuit. Furthermore, DNT-2A and PAM neurons form bidirectional connectivity. Finally, DNT-2 and

dopamine regulate each other: DNT-2 increased dopamine levels (Figure 2E), and in turn dopamine via

Dop2R inhibited cAMP signalling in DNT-2A neurons (Figure 2F). That is, an amplification was followed by

negative feedback. This suggested that a dysregulation in this feedback loop could have consequences for

dopamine-dependent behaviours and for circuit remodelling by the DNT-2 growth factor.

DNT-2 and Toll-6 maintain survival of PAM dopaminergic neurons in the adult brain

Above we showed that DNT-2 and PAM dopaminergic neurons are connected, so we next asked whether

loss of function for *DNT-2* or *Toll-6* would affect PAMs. In wild-type flies, PAM-DAN number can vary

between 220-250 cells per *Drosophila* brain, making them ideal to investigate changes in cell number(Liu et

al. 2012). Maintenance of neuronal survival is a manifestation of structural brain plasticity in mammals,

where it depends on the activity-dependent release of the neurotrophin BDNF(Lu et al. 2005, Wang et al.

2022). Importantly, cell number can also change in the adult fly, as neuronal activity can induce

neurogenesis via Toll-2, whereas DANs are lost in neurodegeneration models(Feany and Bender 2000, Li et

al. 2020). Thus, we asked whether DNT-2 influences PAM-DAN number in the adult brain. We used *THGal4;*

R58E02Gal4 to visualise nuclear Histone-YFP in DANs (Figure 3A) and counted automatically YFP+ PAMs

using a purposely modified DeadEasy plug-in developed for the adult fly brain (Li et al 2020). DeadEasy

plug-ins were developed and used before to count cells labelled with sparsely distributed nuclear markers

in embryos(Zhu et al. 2008, Forero et al. 2009, Forero et al. 2010a, Forero et al. 2010b, McIlroy et al. 2013),

larvae(Kato et al. 2011, Forero et al. 2012, Losada-Perez et al. 2016) and adult(Li et al. 2020) *Drosophila*

brains. Here we show that *DNT2^{37}/DNT2^{18}* mutant adult brains had fewer PAMs than controls (Figure 3B).

Similarly, *Toll-6* RNAi knock-down in DANs also decreased PAM neuron number (Figure 3C). DAN loss was

confirmed with anti-TH antibodies and counted manually, as there were fewer TH+ PAMs in *DNT2^{37}/DNT2^{18}*

mutants (Figure 3D). Importantly, PAM cell loss was rescued by over-expressing activated *Toll-6^{CY}* in DANs

in *DNT-2* mutants (Figure 3D). Altogether, these data showed that DNT-2 functions via Toll-6 to maintain

PAM neuron survival.

To ask whether DNT-2 could regulate dopaminergic neuron number specifically in the adult brain,

we used *tubGal80^{ts}* to conditionally knock-down gene expression in the adult. PAMs were visualised with

either *R58E02LexA>LexAop-nls-tdTomato* or *THGal4; R58E02Gal4 >histone-YFP* and counted automatically.

Adult specific *DNT-2* RNAi knock-down decreased Tomato+ PAM cell number (Figure 3E). Similarly, RNAi

Toll-6 knock-down in DANs also decreased PAM neuron number (Figure 3F). Furthermore, knock-down of

either *Toll-6* or *DNT-2* in the adult brain caused loss of PAM neurons visualised with anti-TH antibodies and

counted manually (Figure 3G). Cell loss was due to cell death, as adult specific *DNT-2 RNAi* knock-down

increased the number of apoptotic cells labelled with anti-*Drosophila* Cleave caspase-1 (DCP-1) antibodies

compared to controls (Figure 3H). This included Dcp-1+ PAMs (Figure 3H). By contrast, *DNT-2FL* over-

expression in DNT2 neurons did not alter the incidence of apoptosis (Figure 3G), consistently with the fact

that DNT-2FL spontaneously cleaves into the mature form(McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017). Thus, *DNT-*

2 and *Toll-6* knock-down specifically in the adult brain induced apoptosis and PAM-neuron loss.

Altogether, these data showed that sustained PAM neuron survival in development and in the adult

brain depends on DNT-2 and Toll-6, and a reduction in their levels causes DAN cell loss, characteristic of

neurodegeneration.

DNT-2 and its receptors are required for arborisations and synapse formation

We next asked whether DNT-2, Toll-6 and Kek-6 could influence dendritic and axonal arbours and synapses

of dopaminergic neurons (Figure 4A). Visualising the pre-synaptic reporter Synaptotagmin-GFP (Syt-GFP) in

PAM neurons, we found that *DNT-2^{18}/DNT-2^{37}* mutants completely lacked PAM synapses in the MB β,β' and

γ lobes (Figure 4B). Interestingly, PAM connections at α,α' lobes were not affected (Figure 4B). This means

that DNT-2 is required for synaptogenesis and connectivity of PAMs to MB β,β' and γ lobes.

PAM-β2β'2 neurons express *Toll-6* (Table S1) and their dendrites overlap axonal DNT2 projections.

Toll-6 RNAi knock-down in PAM -β2β'2 (with split-GAL4 *MB301BGal4* (Aso et al. 2014a)), reduced dendrite

complexity (Figure 4C). To test whether DNT-2 could alter these dendrites, we over-expressed mature *DNT-

2CK*. DNT-2CK is not secreted (from transfected S2 cells), but it is functional in vivo(Zhu et al. 2008, Foldi et

al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). Importantly, over-expressed *DNT-2CK* functions cell-autonomously

whereas *DNT-2FL* functions also non-autonomously, but they have similar effects(Zhu et al. 2008, Foldi et

al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). Over-expression of *DNT-2CK* in PAM-β2β'2 increased dendrite arbour

complexity (Figure 4D). Thus, DNT-2 and its receptor Toll-6 are required for dendrite growth and complexity

in PAM neurons.

To ask whether DNT-2 could affect axonal terminals, we tested PPL1 axons. PPL1-γ1-pedc neurons

have a key function in long-term memory(Aso et al. 2012, Placais et al. 2012, Aso et al. 2014a, Boto et al.

2020) and express both *Toll-6* and *kek-6* (Table S1). Using split-GAL4 line M*B320C-Gal4* to visualise PPL1

axonal arbours, RNAi knock-down of either *Toll-6*, *kek-6* or both together caused axonal misrouting away

from the mushroom body peduncle (Figure 4E,E', Chi Square p<0.05, see Table S2). Similarly, *DNT-2FL* over-

expression also caused PPL1 misrouting (Figure 4F, Chi-Square p<0.05, see Table S2). Thus, DNT-2, Toll-6

and Kek-6 are required for appropriate targeting and connectivity of PPL1 DAN axons.

To test whether this signalling system was required specifically in the adult brain, we used *tubGAL80^{ts}*

to knock-down *Toll-6* and *kek-6* with RNAi conditionally in the adult and visualised the effect on

synaptogenesis using the post-synaptic reporter Homer-GCaMP and anti-GFP antibodies. Adult-specific

Toll-6 kek-6 RNAi knock-down in PAM neurons did not affect synapse number (not shown), but it decreased

post-synaptic density size, both at the MB lobe and at the SMP dendrite (Figure 4G). These data meant that

the DNT-2 receptors *Toll-6* and *kek-6* continue to be required in the adult brain for appropriate

synaptogenesis.

Altogether, these data showed that DNT-2, Toll-6 and Kek-6 are required for dendrite branching,

axonal targeting and synapse formation. The shared phenotypes from altering the levels of *DNT-2* and *Toll-*

6 kek-6 in arborisations and synapse formation, support their joint function in these contexts. Importantly,

these findings showed that connectivity of PAM and PPL1 dopaminergic neurons depend on DNT-2, Toll-6

and Kek-6.

DNT-2 neuron activation and *DNT-2* over-expression induced synapse formation in target PAM

dopaminergic neurons

The above data showed that DNT-2, Toll-6 and Kek-6 are required for DAN cell survival, arborisations and

synaptogenesis in development and adults. This meant that the dopaminergic circuit remains plastic in

adult flies. Thus, we wondered whether neuronal activity could also induce remodelling in PAM neurons.

In mammals, neuronal activity induces translation, release and cleavage of BDNF, and BDNF drives

synaptogenesis(Poo 2001, Lu et al. 2005, Lu et al. 2013, Wang et al. 2022). Thus, we first asked whether

neuronal activity could influence DNT-2 levels or function. We visualised tagged DNT-2FL-GFP in adult

brains, activated DNT-2 neurons with TrpA1 at 30°C, and found that DNT-2 neuron activation increased the

number of DNT-2-GFP vesicles produced (Supplementary Figure S4A). Furthermore, neuronal activity also

facilitated cleavage of DNT-2 into its mature form. In western blots from brains over-expressing *DNT-2FL-*

GFP, the levels of full-length DNT-2FL-GFP were reduced following neuronal activation and the cleaved

DNT-2CK-GFP form was most abundant (Supplementary Figure S4B). These findings meant that, like

mammalian BDNF, also DNT-2 can be influenced by activity.

Thus, we asked whether neuronal activity and DNT-2 could influence synapse formation. We first

tested DNT-2 neurons. Activating DNT-2 neurons altered DNT-2 axonal arbours (Figure 5A) and it increased

Homer-GFP+ synapse number in the DNT-2 SMP arbour (Figure 5B and Figure S5). Next, as DNT-2 and PAMs

form bidirectional connexions at SMP (Figure 1, 2), we asked whether activating DNT-2 neurons could

affect target PAM neurons. To manipulate DNT-2 neurons and visualise PAM neurons concomitantly, we

combined *DNT-2GAL4* with the *PAM-LexAOP* driver. However, there were no available *LexA/OP* post-

synaptic reporters, so we used the pre-synaptic *LexAOP-Syt-GCaM*P reporter instead, which labels

Synaptotagmin (Syt), and GFP antibodies. Activating DNT-2 neurons with TrpA1 increased the number of

Syt+ synapses at the PAM SMP arbour (Figure 5C) and reduced their size (Figure 5C). This was consistent

with the increase in Homer-GFP+ PSD number in stimulated DNT-2 neurons (Figure 5B). Neuronal activity

can induce ghost boutons, immature synapses that are later eliminated (Fuentes-Medel et al. 2009). Here,

the coincidence of increased pre-synaptic Syt-GFP from PAMs and post-synaptic Homer-GFP from DNT-2

neurons at SMP revealed that newly formed synapses were stable. PAM neurons also send an arborisation

at the MB β, β', γ lobes, but DNT-2 neuron activation did not affect synapse number nor size there (Figure

5C). These data showed that activating DNT-2 neurons induced synapse formation at the SMP connection

with PAMs.

Finally, we asked whether, like activity, DNT-2FL could also drive synaptogenesis. We over-expressed

DNT-2FL in DNT-2 neurons and visualised the effect in PAM neurons. Over-expression of *DNT-2FL* in DNT-2

neurons did not alter Syt+ synapse number at the PAM SMP dendrite, but it increased bouton size (Figure

5D). By contrast, at the MB β, β' lobe arborisation, over-expressed *DNT-2* did not affect Syt+ bouton size,

but it increased the number of output synapses (Figure 5D). This data showed that DNT-2 released from

DNT-2 neurons could induce synapse formation in PAM target neurons.

Altogether, these data showed that neuronal activity induced synapse formation, it stimulated

production and cleavage of DNT-2, and DNT-2 could induce synapse formation in target neurons.

Structural plasticity by DNT2 modified dopamine-dependent behaviour

Circuit structural plasticity raises the important question of what effect it could have on brain function, i.e.

behaviour. Data above showed that DANs and DNT-2 neurons are functionally connected, that loss of

function for *DNT-2* or its receptors caused dopaminergic neuron loss, altered DAN arborisations and caused

synapse loss or reduction in size, and that DNT-2 could induce dendrite branching and synaptogenesis,

altogether modifying circuit connectivity. To measure the effect of such circuit modifications on brain

function, we used dopamine-dependent behaviours as readout.

Startle-induced negative geotaxis (also known as the climbing assay) is commonly used as a

measure of locomotor ability and requires dopamine and specifically PAM neuron function(Riemensperger

et al. 2013, Sun et al. 2018). We tested the effect of *DNT-2* or *Toll-6* and *kek-6* loss of function in climbing,

and both *DNT-2^37^/DNT-2^18^* mutants and flies in which *DNT-2* was knocked-down in DNT-2 neurons in the

adult stage had lower climbing ability than controls (Figure 6A). Similarly, when *Toll-6* and *kek-6* were

knocked-down with RNAi in the adult using a *Toll-6-* or a *PAM-GAL4* neuron driver, climbing was also

reduced (Figure 6B). Importantly, over-expressing activated *Toll-6^CY^* in DANs rescued the locomotion

deficits of *DNT-2* mutants, showing that DNT-2 functions via Toll-6 in this context (Figure 6C).

We also tracked freely moving flies in an open arena(Eyjolfsdottir et al. 2014). Interestingly, in that

setting, locomotion of homozygous *DNT-2^37^/DNT-2^18^* mutants was similar to that of controls, but over-

expression of *Toll-6^CY^* in their DANs increased locomotion as flies walked longer distances and spent less

time immobile (Figure 6D). Adult flies over-expressing *DNT2-FL* walked faster (Figure 6E and Figure S5) and

so did those where DNT-2 neurons were activated with TrpA1 (Figure 6F and Figure S6), consistently with

the fact that neuronal activity increased DNT-2 production (Figure S4A) and that DNT-2FL increased TH

levels (Figure 2C). Therefore, increased Toll-6^CY^ levels in DANs increase locomotion and increased DNT-2

levels are sufficient to boost walking speed. Interestingly, both loss and gain of function for *DNT-2* also

caused seizures (Figure S7). Thus, dopamine-dependent locomotion is regulated by the function of DNT-2,

Toll-6 and Kek-6.

Next, as dopamine is an essential neurotransmitter for learning and memory(Adel and Griffith

2021), we asked whether DNT-2 might influence appetitive olfactory conditioning. Starved flies were

trained to associate a sugar reward with an odour (CS+) while another odour was presented without sugar

(CS-), and their preference for CS+ versus CS- was measured, 24h after training (as in (Krashes and Waddell

2008, 2011)). Remarkably, over-expression of *DNT-2FL* in DNT-2 neurons in adults enhanced appetitive

long-term memory (Figure 6G), consistent with the positive role of DNT-2 in synaptogenesis that we

demonstrated above.

In summary, we have shown that alterations in DNT-2, Toll-6 and Kek-6 levels that caused

structural phenotypes in DANs also modified dopamine-dependent behaviours, locomotion and long-term

memory.

DISCUSSION

Our findings indicate that structural plasticity and degeneration in the brain are two manifestations of a

shared molecular mechanism that could be modulated by experience. Loss of function for *DNT-2, Toll-6* and

kek-6 caused cell loss, affected arborisations and synaptogenesis in DANs and impaired locomotion;

neuronal activity increased DNT-2 production and cleavage and remodelled connecting DNT-2 and PAM

synapses; and over-expression of *DNT-2* increased TH levels, PAM dendrite complexity, and synaptogenesis,

and it enhanced locomotion and long-term memory.

It was remarkable to find that dopaminergic neurons in the *Drosophila* adult brain require

sustained trophic support, and this is functionally relevant as it can influence behaviour. Loss of *DNT-2*

function in mutants, constant loss of *Toll-6* function in DANS and adult-restricted knock-down of either

DNT-2 (in DNT-2 neurons) or *Toll-6* (in Toll-6 neurons and in DANs) all resulted in DAN cell loss, verified with

three distinct reporters, and consistently with the increase in DAN apoptosis. Furthermore, DAN cell loss in

DNT-2 mutants could be rescued by the over-expression of *Toll-6* in DANs. Cell loss was also verified using

two reporter types (ie GAL4 based nuclear reporters and cytoplasmic anti-TH antibodies), multiple GAL4

drivers and mutants, and multiple cell counting methods, including automatic cell counting with DeadEasy

plug-ins for His-YFP and nls-Tomato (where the signal was of high contrast and sphericity) and software

assisted manual cell counting for anti-TH (where the signal is more diffuse and less regular in shape).

DeadEasy plug-ins have been used before for reliably counting His-YFP labelled cells in both larval CNS and

adult brains, including Kenyon cells (Kato et al. 2011, Forero et al. 2012, Losada-Perez et al. 2016, Li et al.

2020, Harrison et al. 2021). Thus, the finding that loss of *DNT-2* and *Toll-6* function in the adult brain cause

dopaminergic neuron loss is robust. Our findings are reminiscent of the increased apoptosis and cell loss in

adult brains with *Toll-2* loss of function(Li et al. 2020), and the support of DAN survival by Toll-1 and Toll-7

driven autophagy(Zhang et al. 2024). They are also consistent with a report that loss of function for *DNT-2*

or *Toll-6* induced apoptosis in the third instar larval optic lobes(McLaughlin et al. 2019). This did not result

in neuronal loss - which was interpreted as due to Toll-6 functions exclusive to glia (McLaughlin et al. 2019)

- but instead of testing the optic lobes, neurons of the larval abdominal ventral nerve cord (VNC) were

monitored(McLaughlin et al. 2019). In the VNC, Toll-6 and -7 function redundantly and knock-down of both

is required to cause neuronal loss in embryos(McIlroy et al. 2013), whereas in L3 larvae and pupae the

phenotype is compounded by their pro-apoptotic functions(Foldi et al. 2017). It is crucial to consider that

the DNT-Toll signalling system can have distinct cellular outcomes depending on context, cell type and

time, ie stage (Foldi et al. 2017, Li et al. 2020, Li and Hidalgo 2021). Our work shows that in the adult

Drosophila brain DAN neurons receive secreted growth factors that maintain cellular integrity, and this

impacts behaviour. Consistently with our findings, *Drosophila* models of Parkinson's Disease reproduce the

loss of DANs and locomotion impairment of human patients(Feany and Bender 2000, Riemensperger et al.

2011, Riemensperger et al. 2013, Sun et al. 2018). Dopamine is required for locomotion, associative reward

learning and long-term memory(Riemensperger et al. 2011, Riemensperger et al. 2013, Waddell 2013, Sun

et al. 2018, Boto et al. 2020, Adel and Griffith 2021). In *Drosophila*, this requires PAM, PPL1 and DAL

neurons and their connections to Kenyon Cells and MBONs(Heisenberg 2003, Chen et al. 2012, Aso et al.

2014b, Boto et al. 2020, Adel and Griffith 2021). DNT-2 neurons are connected to all these neuron types,

which express *Toll-6* and *kek-6,* and modifying their levels affected locomotion and long-term memory.

Altogether, our data demonstrate that structural changes caused by altering DNT-2, Toll-6 and Kek-6

modified dopamine-dependent behaviours, providing a direct link between molecules, structural circuit

plasticity and behaviour.

We used neuronal activation as a proxy for experience, but the implication is that experience would

similarly drive the structural modification of circuits labelled by neuromodulators. Similar manipulations of

activity have previously revealed structural circuit modifications. For example, hyperpolarising olfactory

projection neurons increased microglomeruli number, active zone density and post-synaptic site size in the

calyx, whereas inhibition of synaptic vesicle release decreased the number of microglomeruli and active

zones(Kremer et al. 2010). There is also evidence that experience can modify circuits and behaviour in

Drosophila. For example, natural exposure to light and dark cycles maintains the structural homeostasis of

presynaptic sites in photoreceptor neurons, which breaks down in sustained exposure to light(Sugie et al.

2015). Prolonged odour exposure causes structural reduction at the antennal lobe and at the output pre-

synaptic sites in the calyx, and habituation (Devaud et al. 2001, Pech et al. 2015). Similarly, prolonged

exposure to CO_2 caused a reduction in output responses at the lateral horn and habituation(Sachse et al.

2007). Our findings are also consistent with previous reports of structural plasticity during learning in

Drosophila. Hypocaloric food promotes structural plasticity in DANs, causing a reduction specifically in

connections between DANs and Kenyon cells involved in aversive learning, thus decreasing the memory of

the aversive experience(Coban et al. 2024). By contrast, after olfactory conditioning, appetitive long-term

memory increased axonal collaterals in projection neurons, and synapse number at Kenyon cell inputs in

the calyx(Baltruschat et al. 2021). Our data provide a direct link between a molecular mechanism, synapse

formation in a dopaminergic circuit and behavioural performance. Since behaviour is a source of

experience, the discovery that a neurotrophin can function with a Toll and a neuromodulator to sculpt

circuits provides a mechanistic basis for how experience can shape the brain throughout life.

Importantly, in humans structural brain plasticity (e.g. adult neurogenesis, neuronal survival,

neurite growth and synaptogenesis) correlates with anti-depressant treatment, learning, physical exercise

and well-being(Cotman and Berchtold 2002, Woollett and Maguire 2011, Castren and Monteggia 2021,

Cheng et al. 2022). Conversely, neurite, synapse and cell loss, correlate with ageing, neuroinflammation,

psychiatric and neurodegenerative conditions(Holtmaat and Svoboda 2009, Lu et al. 2013, Wohleb et al.

2016, Forrest et al. 2018, Vahid-Ansari and Albert 2021, Wang et al. 2022). Understanding how experience

drives the switch between generative and destructive cellular processes shaping the brain is critical to

understand brain function, in health and disease. In this context, the mechanism we have discovered could

also operate in the human brain. In fact, there is deep evolutionary conservation in DNT-2 vs mammalian

NT function (eg BDNF), but some details differ. Like mammalian NTs, full-length DNTs/Spz proteins contain

a signal peptide, an unstructured pro-domain and an evolutionarily conserved cystine-knot of the NT

family(Zhu et al. 2008, Arnot et al. 2010, Foldi et al. 2017). Cleavage of the pro-domain releases the mature

cystine-knot (CK). In mammals, full-length NTs have opposite functions to their cleaved forms (e.g.

apoptosis vs cell survival, respectively). However, DNT-2FL is cleaved by intracellular furins, and although

DNT-2 can be found both in full-length or cleaved forms in vivo, it is most abundantly found cleaved(Zhu et

al. 2008, McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017). As a result, over-expressed *DNT-2FL* does not induce

apoptosis and instead it promotes cell survival(Foldi et al. 2017). The same functions are played by over-

expressed mature *DNT-2CK* as by *DNT-2FL*(Zhu et al. 2008, Foldi et al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). In S2

cells, transfected DNT-2CK is not secreted, but when over-expressed in vivo it is functional (Zhu et al. 2008,

Foldi et al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017) (and this work). In fact, over-expressed *DNT-2CK* also maintains

neuronal survival, connectivity and synaptogenesis(Zhu et al. 2008, Foldi et al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al.

2017) (and this work). Similarly, over-expressed mature *spz-1-C106* can rescue the *spz-1*-null mutant

phenotype(Hu et al. 2004) and over-expressed *DNT-1CK* can promote neuronal survival, connectivity and

rescue the *DNT-1* mutant phenotype(Zhu et al. 2008). Consistently, both DNT-2FL and DNT-2CK have neuro-

protective functions promoting cell survival, neurite growth and synaptogenesis(Zhu et al. 2008, Sutcliffe et

al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017) (and this work). Importantly, over-expressing *DNT-2FL*

enables to investigate non-autonomous functions of DNT-2(Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). We have shown that

DNT-2FL can induce synaptogenesis non-autonomously in target neurons. Similarly, DNT-2 is a retrograde

factor at the larval NMJ, where transcripts are located post-synaptically in the muscle, DNT-2FL-GFP is

taken up from muscle by motorneurons, where it induces synaptogenesis(Sutcliffe et al. 2013, Ulian-

Benitez et al. 2017). Importantly, we have shown that neuronal activity increased production of tagged

DNT-2-GFP, and its cleavage. In mammals, neuronal activity induces synthesis, release and cleavage of

BDNF, leading to neuronal survival, dendrite growth and branching, synaptogenesis and synaptic plasticity

(ie LTP)(Poo 2001, Horch and Katz 2002, Lu et al. 2005, Arikkath 2012, Wang et al. 2022). Like BDNF, DNT-2

also induced synaptogenesis and increased bouton size. It may not always be possible to disentangle

primary from compensatory phenotypes, as Hebbian, homeostatic and heterosynaptic plasticity can

concur(Forrest et al. 2018, Jenks et al. 2021). Mammalian BDNF increases synapse number, spine size and

long-term potentiation (LTP), but it can also regulate homeostatic plasticity and long-term depression (LTD), depending on timing, levels and site of action(Poo 2001, Lu et al. 2005, Wang et al. 2022). In this context, neuronal stimulation of DNT-2 neurons induced synapse formation in PAM neuron SMP dendrites, whereas DNT-2 over-expression from DNT-2 neurons increased synapse size at SMP and synapse number in PAM outputs at the mushroom body lobes. These distinct effects could be due to the combination of plasticity mechanisms and range of action. Neuronal activity can induce localised protein synthesis that facilitates local synaptogenesis and stabilises emerging synapses(Forrest et al. 2018). By contrast, DNT-2 induced signalling via the nucleus can facilitate synaptogenesis at longer distances, in output sites. In any case, synaptic remodelling is the result of concurring forms of activity-dependent plasticity altogether leading to modification in connectivity patterns(Forrest et al. 2018, Jenks et al. 2021). Long-term memory requires synaptogenesis, and in mammals this depends on BDNF, and its role in the protein-synthesis dependent phase of LTP(Poo 2001, Minichiello 2009, Wang et al. 2022). BDNF localised translation, expression and release are induced to enable long-term memory(Poo 2001, Lee et al. 2004, Minichiello 2009, Wang et al. 2022). We have shown that similarly, over-expressed *DNT-2FL* increased both synaptogenesis in sites involved in reward learning, and long-term memory after appetitive conditioning.

The relationship of NTs with dopamine is also conserved. DNT-2 and DAN neurons form bidirectional connectivity that modulates both DNT-2 and dopamine levels. Similarly, mammalian NTs also promote dopamine release and the expression of DA receptors(Blochl and Sirrenberg 1996, Guillin et al. 2001). Furthermore, DAN cell survival is maintained by DNT-2 in *Drosophila,* and similarly DAN cell survival is also maintained by NT signalling in mammals and fish(Hyman et al. 1991, Sahu et al. 2019). Importantly, we showed that activating DNT-2 neurons increased the levels and cleavage of DNT-2, up-regulated DNT-2 increased *TH* expression, and this initial amplification resulted in the inhibition of cAMP signalling by dopamine via Dop2R in DNT-2 neurons. This negative feedback could drive a homeostatic reset of both DNT-2 and dopamine levels, important for normal brain function. In fact, alterations in DNT-2 levels could cause seizures. Importantly, alterations in both NTs and dopamine underlie many psychiatric disorders and

neurodegenerative diseases in humans(Hyman et al. 1991, Guillin et al. 2001, Berton et al. 2006, Forrest et

al. 2018, Wang et al. 2022).

We have uncovered a novel mechanism of structural brain plasticity, involving a NT ligand

functioning via a Toll and a kinase-less Trk-family receptor in the adult *Drosophila* brain. Toll receptors in

the CNS can function via ligand dependent and ligand-independent mechanisms(Anthoney et al. 2018).

However, in the context analysed, Toll-6 and Kek-6 function in structural circuit plasticity depends on their

ligand DNT-2. This is also consistent with their functions promoting axonal arbour growth, branching and

synaptogenesis at the NMJ(Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). Furthermore, Toll-2 is also neuro-protective in the

adult fly brain, and loss of *Toll-2* function caused neurodegeneration and impaired behaviour (Li et al.

2020). There are six *spz/DNT*, nine *Toll* and six *kek* paralogous genes in *Drosophila*(Tauszig et al. 2000,

MacLaren et al. 2004, Mandai et al. 2009, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017), and at least seven *Tolls* and three

adaptors are expressed in distinct but overlapping patterns in the brain (Li et al. 2020). Such combinatorial

complexity opens the possibility for a fine-tuned regulation of structural circuit plasticity and homeostasis

in the brain.

Drosophila and mammalian NTs may have evolved to use different receptor types to elicit

equivalent cellular outcomes. In fact, in mammals, NTs function via Trk, p75^{NTR} and Sortilin receptors, to

activate ERK, PI3K, NFκB, JNK and CaMKII(Lu et al. 2005, Wang et al. 2022). Similarly, DNTs with Tolls and

Keks also activate ERK, NFκB, JNK and CaMKII in the *Drosophila* CNS(McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017,

Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017, Anthoney et al. 2018). However, alternatively, NTs may also use further receptors

in mammals. Trks have many kinase-less isoforms, and understanding of their function is limited(Fryer et al.

1996, Stoilov et al. 2002). They can function as ligand sinks and dominant negative forms, but they can also

function independently of full-length Trks to influence calcium levels, growth cone extension and dendritic

growth and are linked to psychiatric disorders, e.g. depression(Ferrer et al. 1999, Yacoubian and Lo 2000,

Ohira et al. 2006, Carim-Todd et al. 2009, Ernst et al. 2009, Ohira and Hayashi 2009, Fenner 2012,

Tessarollo and Yanpallewar 2022). Like Keks, perhaps kinase-less Trks could regulate brain plasticity vs.

degeneration. A functional relationship between NTs and TLRs could exist also in humans, as in cell culture,

human BDNF and NGF can induce signalling from a TLR(Foldi et al. 2017) and NGF also functions in

immunity and neuroinflammation(Levi-Montalcini et al. 1996, Hepburn et al. 2014). Importantly, TLRs can

regulate cell survival, death and proliferation, neurogenesis, neurite growth and collapse, learning and

memory(Okun et al. 2011). They are linked to neuroinflammation, psychiatric disorders, neurodegenerative

diseases and stroke(Okun et al. 2011, Figueroa-Hall et al. 2020, Adhikarla et al. 2021). Intriguingly, genome-

wide association studies (GWAS) have revealed the involvement of TLRs in various brain conditions and

potential links between NTs and TLRs in, for example, major depression(Sharma 2012, Mehta et al. 2018,

Chan et al. 2020, Garrett et al. 2021). Importantly, alterations in NT function underlie psychiatric,

neurologic and neurodegenerative brain diseases(Lu et al. 2005, Martinowich et al. 2007, Krishnan and

Nestler 2008, Lu et al. 2013, Park and Poo 2013, Wohleb et al. 2016, Yang et al. 2020, Casarotto et al. 2021,

Wang et al. 2022) and BDNF underlies the plasticity inducing function of anti-depressants(Lu et al. 2013,

Casarotto et al. 2021, Wang et al. 2022). It is compelling to find out whether and how these important

protein families – NTs, TLRs and kinase-less Trks - interact in the human brain.

Conclusion

To conclude, we provide a direct link between structural circuit plasticity and behavioural performance, by

a novel molecular mechanism. The neurotrophin DNT-2 and its receptors Toll-6 and the kinase-less Trk

family Kek-6 are linked to a dopaminergic circuit. Neuronal activity boosts DNT-2, and DNT-2 and dopamine

regulate each other homeostatically. Dopamine labels the circuits engaged and DNT-2, a growth factor,

with its receptors Toll-6 and Kek-6, drives structural plasticity in these circuits, enhancing dopamine-

dependent behavioural performance. These findings mean that DNT-2 is a plasticity factor in the *Drosophila*

brain enabling experience-dependent behavioural enhancement. Whether NTs can similarly functions with

TLRs and Kinase-less Trks remains to be explored. As behaviour is a source of experience, this has profound

implications for understanding brain function and health.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.S., V.C designed and A.H. executed experiments and/or analysed data; S.U-B, G.L, D.S, X.W., F.R.C, M.M.

executed experiments and analysed data; M.G.F, S.C., A.H. developed tools; D.K., G.J, V.C., A.H. supervised;

J.S and A.H. wrote the manuscript. A.H. conceived and directed the project. All authors provided feedback

on, and contributed to improvements to, the manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

All data are contained within the manuscript; metadata and statistical analysis details including full

genotypes, sample sizes, statistical tests and p values have been provided in Table S2. This work generated

fly stocks and molecular constructs, which we will distribute on request. Raw data will be distributed on

request.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Genetics

Mutants: *DNT2[37]* and *DNT2[18]* are protein null(Foldi et al. 2017, Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017). *Toll6[31]* is a null

mutant allele(McIlroy et al. 2013). **Driver lines:** *DNT2-Gal4* is a CRISPR/Cas9-knock-in allele, with GAL4 at

the start of the gene (this work, see below). *Toll-6-Gal4* was generated by RMCE from *MIMIC Toll-6[MIO2127]*;

kek6-Gal4 from *MIMIC Kek6[MI12953]*(Ulian-Benitez et al. 2017, Li et al. 2020). *MB320C-Gal4 (BSC68253),*

MB301B-Gal4 (BSC68311), R58E02-Gal4 (BSC41347), MB247-Gal80 (BSC64306), R58E02-LexA (BSC52740),

R14C08-LexA (BSC52473) were from the *Drosophila* Bloomington Stock Centre (BSC). *Dop1R2-LexA, Dop2R-*

LexA, Gad-LexA were kindly provided by Yi Rao; *TH-LexA* (gift of Ron Davis), *TH-Gal4,R58E02-GAL4* (gift of

Serge Birman); *G0431-Gal4 (DAL-GAL4), VT49239 nls LexA (DAL LexA)* (gifts from Ann-Shyn Chiang);

tubGal80ts, Tdc-LexA. **Reporter lines:** *UAS-CD8::GFP,* for membrane tethered GFP; *UAS-histone-YFP*, for

YFP-tagged nuclear histone; *UASFlybow1.1*, constant membrane tethered expression (gift of Iris Salecker);

13xLexAop-nls-tdTomato, nuclear Tomato (gift of B. Pfeiffer); *UASCD8::RFP, LexAopCD8::GFP* (BSC32229),

for dual binary expression; *UAS-homer-GCaMP* for post-synaptic densities (gift of André Fialá), *UAS-*

syt.eGFP (BSC6925) and *LexAop-Syt-GCaMP* (BSC64413) for presynaptic sites. **For connectivity***: UAS-*

DenMarkRFP, UAS-Dsyd1GFP (gift of Carolina Rezaval); <u>TransTango:</u> *yw UAS-myrGFP,QUAS-mtdTomato-*

3xHA attP8; Trans-Tango@attP40 (BSC77124); <u>BAcTrace 806</u> *(w;LexAop2-Syb::GFP-P10(VK37) LexAop-*

QF2::SNAP25::HIVNES::Syntaxin(VK18)/CyO; UAS-B3Recombinase (attP2) UAS<B3Stop<BoNT/A (VK5)

UAS<B3Stop<BoNT/A(VK27) QUAS-mtdTomato::HA/TM2): **MCFO clones**: *hs-FLPG5.PEST;; 10xUAS*

(FRT.stop) myr::smGdP-OLLAS 10xUAS (FRT.stop) myr::smGdP-HA 10xUAS (FRT.stop) myr::smGdP-V5-THS-

10xUAS (FRT.stop) myr::smGdP-FLAG (BSC64086). **Optogenetic activation:** *20x UAS-V5-Syn-CsChrimson td*

tomato (gift of B. Pfeiffer**). For thermogenetic activation:** *UASTrpA1@attP2 (BSC26264)* and *UAS-*

TrpA1@attP216 (BSC26263). **UAS gene over-expression**: *UAS-DNT2CK, UAS-DNT2FL-GFP, UAS-DNT2-FL-*

47C, UAS-Toll-6[CY](McIlroy et al. 2013, Foldi et al. 2017). **UAS-RNAi knockdown:** *UAS-DNT2RNAi*

(VDRC49195), *UAS-Toll6RNAi* (VDRC928), *y[1]v[1]; UAS-Toll6RNAi[Trip.HMS04251]* (BSC 56048*), UAS-kek6RNAi*

(VDCR 109681), *y[1]v[1]; UAS-Dop2R-RNAi[TRiP.HMC02988]*(BSC50621).

Molecular biology

DNT-2GAL4 was generated by CRISPR/Cas9 enhanced homologous recombination. 1 kb long 5' and 3'

homology arms (HA) were amplified by PCR from genomic DNA of wild type flies, using primers for 5'HA:

atcgcaccggtttttacaggcaccccatgtctga containing AgeI cutting site and

cttgacgcggccgcTGTCAATTCATTCGCCGTCGAT containing NotI cutting site. 3'HA primers were:

tattaggcgcgccATGACAAAAAGTATTAAACGTCCGCCC containing AscI cutting site and

tactcgactagtgaagcacacccaaaatacccagg containing SpeI cutting site. HAs were sequentially cloned by

conventional cloning into pGEM-T2AGal4 vector (Addgene #62894). For gRNA cloning, two 20 nucleotide

gRNA oligos (gtcGACAAGTTCTTCTTACCTATG and aaacCATAGGTAAGAAGAACTTGTC) were designed using

Optimal Target Finder. BbsI enzyme sites were added: gtc(g) at the 5' end of sense oligo, and aaac at the 5'

end of the antisense oligo. gRNA is located at 41 bp downstream of the start codon of DNT-2 within the

first coding exon. The gRNA was cloned into pU6.3 using conventional ligation. The two constructs were

injected in Cas9 bearing flies and red fluorescent (3xP3-RFP) transformants were selected and balanced,

after which 3xP3-RFP was removed with CRE-recombinase.

qRT-PCR

qRT-PCR was carried out from 20 whole adult fruit-fly heads, frozen in liquid nitrogen before homogenising

in 50 ml Trizol (Ambion #AM9738), followed by a stand RNA extraction protocol. RNA was treated with

DNase treatment (ThermoFisher # AM1906) to remove genomic DNA. 200 ng of RNA was used for cDNA

synthesis following Goscript Reverse Transcriptase (Promega #237815) protocol. Sample was diluted 1:4

with Nuclease free H_2O. Standard qPCR was performed with SensiFast syb Green Mix (Bioline #B2092020)

in ABI qPCR plate (GeneFlow #P3-0292) and machine. To amplify TH mRNA the following primers were

used: TH-F: CGAGGACGAGATTTTGTTGGC and TH-R: TTGAGGCGGACCACCAAAG. GAPDH was used as a

housekeeping control. Reactions were performed in triplicate. Specificity and size of amplification products

were assessed by melting curve analyses. Target gene expression relative to reference gene is expressed as

value of $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ (where Ct is the crossing threshold).

Conditional expression

Multiple Colour Flip Out clones: *DNT2-Gal4, Toll6-Gal4* and *kek6-Gal4* were crossed with *hsFLP::PEST;;MCFO* flies, female offspring were collected and heat-shocked at 37°C in a water bath for 15 mins, then kept for 48h at 25°C before dissecting their brains. *TransTango:* DNT2-Gal4 or Oregon female virgins were crossed with *TransTango* males, progeny flies were raised at 18°C constantly and 15 days after eclosion, female flies were selected for immunostaining. **Thermogenetic activation with *TrpA1:*** Fruit-flies were bred at 18°C from egg laying to 4 days post-adult eclosion, then shifted to 29°C in a water bath for 24h followed by 24h recovery at room temperature for over-expressed *DNT-2FL-GFP*; for the other experiments, after breeding as above, adult flies were transferred to an incubator at 30°C, kept there for 24h and then brains were dissected. **Conditional gene over-expression and RNAi knockdown:** Flies bearing the temperature sensitive GAL4 repressor tubGal80^{ts} were kept at 18°C from egg laying to adult eclosion, then transferred to 30 °C incubator for 48h for Dcp-1+ and cell counting experiments and for 120h for TH+ cell counting.

Immunostainings

Adult fruit-fly female brains were dissected (in PBS), fixed (in 4% para-formaldehyde, room temperature, 20-30min) and stained following standard protocols. Primary antibodies and their dilutions were as follows: Mouse anti-Brp (nc82) 1:10 (DSHB); Rabbit anti-GFP 1:250 (Thermofisher); Mouse anti-GFP 1:250 (Thermofisher); Chicken anti-GFP 1:500 (Aves); Rabbit anti-FLAG 1:50 (Sigma); Mouse anti-V5 1:50 (Invitrogen); Chicken anti-HA 1:50 (Aves); Rabbit anti-VGlut 1:500 (gift of Hermann); Mouse anti-TH 1:250 (Immunostar); Rabbit anti-TH 1:250 (Novus Biologicals); Rabbit anti-DsRed 1:250 (Clontek); Mouse anti-ChAT4B1 1:250 (DSHB); Rabbit anti-5-HT 1:500 (Immunostar); Rabbit Anti-DCP-1 1:250 (Cell Signalling). Seconday antibodies were all used at 1:500 and all were from Thermofisher: Alexa Flour 488 Goat anti-mouse, Alexa Flour 488 donkey anti-rabbit, Alexa Flour 488 Goat anti-rabbit (Fab')2, Alexa Flour 488 Goat anti-chicken, Alexa Four 546 Goat anti-rabbit, Alexa Four 546 Goat anti-mouse, Alex Four 647 Goat anti-rabbit, Alex Four 647 Goat anti-mouse.

Microscopy and Imaging

Laser scanning confocal microscopy. Stacks of microscopy images were acquired using laser scanning

confocal microscopy with either Zeiss LSM710, 900 or Leica SP8. Brains were scanned with a resolution of

1024x1024, with Leica SP8 20x oil objective and 1 mm step for whole brain and DCP-1 stainings, 40x oil

objective and 1 mm step for central brain. Resolution of 1024x512 was used for analysing PAM clusters

with 0.96 mm step for cell counting; 0.5 mm step for neuronal morphology; and 63x oil objective with

0.5mm step for neuronal connections. Acquisition speed in Leica SP8 was 400Hz, with no line averaging.

Resolution of 3072x3072 was used for single image analysis of synapses, using either Leica SP8 or Zeiss

LSM900 and Airyscan acquisition with 40x water objective speed 6, and average 4, or with 1024x512, with

40x oil lens 2x zoom and 0.35mm step. TH counting in PAM were scanned with Zeiss 710 with a resolution

1024x1024, 40x oil objective, step 1 mm, speed 8. Zeiss LSM900 Airyscan with a resolution of 1024x1024,

40x water objective, speed 7, 0.7 zoom and 0.31µm step size was used for acquisition of optical sections of

synapses in PAM neurons.

Optogenetics and Epac1 FRET 2-photon imaging

To test whether DNT-2 neurons can respond to dopamine via the Dop2R inhibitory receptor, we used the

cAMP sensor Epac1 and 2-photon confocal microscopy. Epac1 is FRET probe, whereby data are acquired

from CFP and YFP emission and lower YFP/CFP ratio reveals higher cAMP levels. DNT-2Gal4 flies were

crossed to *UAS-CsChrimson UAS Epac1* flies, to stimulate DNT-2 neurons and detect cAMP levels in DNT2

neurons. 1-3 day-old *DNT2Gal4>UASCsChrimson, UAS Epac1* flies were collected and separated in two

groups. Flies bearing *DNT2Gal4 UASCsChrimson UAS Epac1 UASDop2RRNAi* were fed on 50µM all-trans

retinal food for at least 3 days prior to imaging and kept in constant darkness prior to the experiment.

Optogenetic stimulation of fly brains expressing CsChrimson in DNT-2 neurons was carried out

using a sapphire 588nm laser, in a 2-photon confocal microscope. For acquisition of YFP and CFP data from

Epac1 samples, a FV30-FYC filter was applied, using a 925nm laser for both YFP and CFP imaging. The

stimulation laser was targeted onto DNT-2 neuron projections in SMP region for 20s. Acquisition ROI was at

DNT-2A cell bodies with a frame rate of around 10Hz. The first acquisition started 10s before the 20s

stimulation and consequential acquisition was done every 30s for 10 cycles.

Image analysis of Epac data was carried out using ImageJ. The two channels (YFP and CFP) were

separated, and the ratio of YFP/CFP for each pixel was calculated using the ImageJ>Image Calculator by

diving YFP channel by CFP channel. The obtained result of YFP/CFP ratio was saved and the mean ratio of

YFP/CFP in the ROI was calculated for each time point and 11 time points were used. The 11 values

represent the ratio of YFP/CFP change in the cell body upon stimulation, with 30s interval and repeated 10

times.

Cell counting: To count cells labelled with nuclear reporters (e.g. Histone-YFP, nls-tdTomato) and Dcp-1+

cells, where signal is of high intensity, contrast and sphericity, we adapted the DeadEasy Central Brain

ImageJ plug-in(Li et al. 2020) for automatic cell counting in adult brains. DeadEasy plug-ins automatically

identify and count cells labelled with nuclear reporters in 3D stacks of confocal image in the nervous

system of embryos (Forero et al. 2010a, Forero et al. 2010b), larvae(Kato et al. 2011, Forero et al. 2012,

Losada-Perez et al. 2016, Harrison et al. 2021) and adult(Li et al. 2020) *Drosophila*. DeadEasy plug-ins are

accurate at counting cells sparsely labelled with nuclear markers, and importantly, treat all genotypes

objectively and equally yielding reliable data. Here, adult brains expressing Histone-YFP or nls-td-tomato

reporters were dissected, fixed and scanned without staining them. DeadEasy Central Brain was used with

threshold set to 75.

To count the TH labelled PAMs, where both the signal and the labelled-cell shape are more

irregular, we used assisted manual cell counting using two methods. First, we developed a plug-in called

DeadEasy DAN as follows. A median filter was used to reduce Poison noise, without having large losses at

the edges. Then, a 3D morphological closing was performed. Next, all very dark pixels were assigned a value

of zero. To mark each cell, each chasm in the image was found using a 3D extended h-minimal transform.

As more than one local minimum can be found within each cell, which would result in counting a cell

multiple times, a 3D inverse dome detection was performed, and then labelled. Thus, each inverse dome

was used as a seed to identify each cell. Once the seeds were obtained, a 3D watershed transformation was

performed to recover the shape of the cells. The, we ran DeadEasy DAN on our raw data, to obtain a results

stack of images and formed a merged stack between the raw and result stacks, to manually add any missing

cells. This assisted cell counting method was effective at producing accurate cell counts with less labour

and time than conventional manual counting and worked well for some genotypes (Figure 3D). However, it

was less effective with RNAi knock-down genotypes, where the signal can be less intense, for which TH+

cells were counted manually, assisted by the ImageJ cell counter instead.

Dendrite analysis with Imaris: To analyze dendritic complexity, image data were processed with Imaris

using the "Filament Autodetect" function with the default algorithm and autopatch function. Setting of the

threshold was consistent within the same experiment: the largest or smallest diameter of the dendrite,

same threshold for background substation, local contrast. Number of dendritic branches, dendritic

segments, dendritic branch points and dendritic terminal points were collected to compare the difference

between the groups.

Vesicles, synapses and PSD analysis with Imaris: To analyse the number and volume of Homer-GCaMP

GFP+ post-synaptic densities (PSD), Syt-GCaMP GFP+ presynaptic sites and DNT-2FLGFP+ vesicles, optical

section images of confocal stacks through the brain were processed with the Imaris Spot function. Setting

of the threshold was consistent across genotypes.

Behaviour

1. Startle induced negative geotaxis Assay was carried out as described in (Sun et al. 2018). Groups of

approximately 10 male flies of the same genotype were placed in a fresh tube one night before the test,

after which flies were transferred to a column formed with two empty tubes 15cm long and 2cm and then

habituated for 30mins. Columns were tapped 3-4 times, flies fell to the bottom and then climbed upwards.

Multiple rounds of testing were performed 3-7 times in a row per column. The process was filmed and films

were analysed. Flies were scored during the first 15s after the tapping, and those that climbed above 13cm

and those that climbed below 2cm were counted separately. Results given are mean ± SEM of the scores

obtained with ten groups of flies per genotype. The performance index (PI) is defined as $1\!/\!2[(n_{tot} + n_{top} -$

nbot)/ntot], where n_{tot}, n_{top}, and n_{bot} are the total number of flies, the number of flies at the top, and

the number of flies at the bottom, respectively. The assay was carried out at 25°C, 55% humidity. Flies with

tubGal80^{ts} to conditionally overexpress or knock-down were shifted from 18 to 30°at eclosion and kept for

5 days at 30°C to induce Gal4. Experiments were carried in an environmental chamber at 31°C, 60%

humidity or in a humidity and temperature-controlled behaviour lab always kept at 25°C.

2. Spontaneous Locomotion in an open arena: Male flies of each genotype were collected and kept in groups

of 10-20 flies, in vials containing fresh fly food for 5-9 days. Before filming, three male flies from one genotype

were transferred into a 24 mm well of a multi-well plate using an aspirator and habituated for 15 – 20 mins.

The multi-well plate with transparent lid and bottom was placed on a white LED light pad (XIAOSTAR Light

Box) and either inside a light-shielding black box (PULUZ, 40*40*40cm) in a room with constant temperature

(25°C) and humidity (55%) to maintain stable environmental conditions (Figure 7D), or inside a temperature

controlled environmental chamber at 18°C or 30°C (Figure 7E,F,) . The locomotion behaviour of freely-moving

flies was filmed with a camera (Panasonic, HC-V260) in the morning from ZT1-ZT4 and for 10 min at a frame-

rate of 25 fps. The 10-min videos were trimmed (from 00:02:00 to 00:07:00) to 5-min videos for analysis using

Flytracker software(Eyjolfsdottir et al. 2014). For the *DNT-2* mutants and over-expression of Toll-6^{CY}

experiments, flies were bred and tested at 25 °C. To test over-expression of *DNT-2* with *tubGAL80^{ts}; DNT2-*

Gal4>UAS-DNT-2FL, flies were raised at 18°C until eclosion, and controls were kept and tested at 18°C; test

groups were transferred directly after eclosion to 30°C for 5 days and were tested in an environmental

chamber kept at 30°C, 60%. For thermo-genetic activation of DNT2 neurons using TrpA1 (DNT-

2GAL4>UASTrpA1), flies were bred at 18°C and kept at 18°C for 7-9 days post-eclosion. Following habituation

at 18°c for 20 mins in the multi-well plates, they were transferred to the 30°C chamber 10 mins before filming

to activate TrpA1 and then filmed for the following 10 minutes. Fly locomotion activity was tracked using

FlyTracker and calculated (distance and speed) in Matlab(Eyjolfsdottir et al. 2014) using the raw data

generated from the tracking procedure. The "walking distance" was calculated as the sum of the distance

flies moved and the "walking speed" was the speed of flies only when they were walking, and it was

calculated using only frames where flies moved above 4 mm/s (which corresponds to two body lengths).

3. Appetitive long term memory test: Appetitive long-term memory was tested as described in Krashes and

Waddell(Krashes and Waddell 2011). The two conditioning odours used were isoamyl acetate, Sigma-Aldrich

#24900822, 6mL in 8mL mineral oil (Sigma-Aldrich #330760) and 4-methylcyclohexanol (Sigma-Aldrich #

153095, 10mL in 8mL mineral oil). Groups of 80-120 mixed sex flies were starved in a 1% agar tube filled with

a damp 20 x 60 mm piece of filter paper for 18-20 hour before conditioning. During conditioning training,

one odorant was presented with a dry filter paper (unconditioned odour, CS-) for 2 minutes, before a 30

second break, and presentation of a second odorant with filter paper coated with dry sucrose (conditioned

odour, CS+). The test was repeated pairing the other odorant with sucrose, with a different group of flies to

form one replicate. After training, flies were transferred back to agar tubes for testing 24 hours later.

Performance index (PI) was calculated in the same way as in Krashes and Waddell(Krashes and Waddell

2011), as the number of flies approaching the conditioned odour minus the number of flies going in the

opposite direction, divided by the total number of flies. A single PI values is the average score from the test

with the reverse conditioning odour combination. Groups for which the total number of flies among both

odorants was below 15 were discarded. For the *DNT-2* over-expression experiments with *tubGAL80^{ts}; DNT-*

2>DNT-2FL, flies were raised at 18°C until 7-9 days post-eclosion. They were then either transferred to and

maintained at 23°C (controls) or 30°C for 18-20h starvation, training, and up to testing 24h later.

Statistical analysis: Statistical analyses were carried out using Graph-Pad Prism. Confidence interval was

95%, setting significance at $p<0.05$. Chi-square tests were carried out when comparing categorical data.

Numerical data were tested first for their type of distributions. If data were distributed normally, unpaired

Student t-tests were used to compare means between two groups and One Way ANOVA or Welch ANOVA

for larger groups, followed by post-doc Dunnett test for multiple comparisons to a fixed control. Two Way

ANOVA was used when comparisons to two variables were made. If data were not normally distributed,

non-parametric Mann-Whitney U-test for 2 two group comparisons and Kruskal Wallis ANOVA for larger

groups, followed by post-hoc Dunn's multiple comparisons test to a fixed control. Statistical details

including full genotypes, sample sizes, tests and p values are provided in Supplementary Table S2.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1   Neurons expressing *DNT-2* and its receptors *Toll-6* and *kek-6* in the adult brain

(A) *DNT-2A* expressing neurons (*DNT-2>FlyBow1.1* in green; anti-Brp in magenta) have cell bodies in SOG

and project to FLA/PRW and SMP. **(B,D)** Pre-synaptic (green) and post-synaptic (magenta) terminals of

DNT-2A neurons seen with *DNT-2>DenMark::RFP, Dsyd1::GFP*, higher magnification in **(D),** different

specimens from (B). DNT-2A projections at SMP and PRW have both pre- and post-synaptic sites. **(C)** Single

neuron DNT-2A>MCFO clones. **(E)** Left: DNT-2A neurons have the vesicular glutamate transporter vGlut

(arrows). Right: Colocalization between *Dop2RLex>AopCD8-GFP* and *DNT2Gal4>UASCD8-RFP* in cell bodies

of DNT-2A neurons (arrows). **(F)** Terminals of dopaminergic neurons (*TH>mCD8GFP*) abut and overlap those

of DNT-2A neurons (*DNT2>CD8-RFP*, magenta), arrows; magnified projections on the right. **(G)** Illustration

of neurons expressing DNT-2 (magenta) and KCs, DAN PAM and PPL1, and DAL neurons **(H)** *Toll-*

6>FlyBow1.1 is expressed in Kenyon cells, PPL1, PPL2 and PAM DANs, as revealed by co-localization with

anti-TH. **(I)** *kek-6>FlyBow1.1* co-localises with TH in MB vertical lobes, dopaminergic PALs, VUMs, PPL1,

PPM2 and PPM3. SMP: superior medial protocerebrum, PRW: Prow, FLA: Flange, SOG: sub-aesophageal

ganglion. Scale bars: (A-C, F-left, H, I) 50µm; (D,E,F-right) 25µm.

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Figure 2   DNT-2 neurons are functionally connected to dopaminergic neurons

(A) TransTango revealed out-puts of DNT-2 neurons. All neurons express *TransTango* and expression of the

TransTango ligand in DNT-2 neurons identified DNT-2 out-puts with Tomato (anti-DsRed). TransTango

identified as DNT-2 outputs KC $\alpha'\beta'$ MB lobes (anterior brain, arrow, **top left**); Kenyon and possibly DAN cell

bodies (posterior, arrows **top right**); DAL neurons **(bottom left,** arrows) and the dorsal layer of the fan

shaped body **(bottom right,** arrow). See also Supplementary Figure S3 for further controls. **(B)** BAcTrace

tests connectivity to a candidate neuron input visualised with *LexAop>sybGFP* by driving the expression of a

ligand from *DNT-2GAL4* that will activate *QUASTomato* in the candidate input neuron (Cachero et al. 2020).

Candidate PAM neurons visualised at SMP with GFP (green): Control: *R58E02LexA>BAcTrace 806*, no *GAL4*.

Test: *R58E02LexA, DNT-2GAL4>BAcTrace 806* revealed PAMs are inputs of DNT-2A neurons at SMP

(Tomato, bottom). Magenta shows QUAS-Tomato. **(C)** qRT-PCR showing that TH mRNA levels increased

with DNT-2 over-expression at 30°C *(tubGAL80^{ts}, DNT-2>DNT-2FL).* One way ANOVA, P=0.0085; post-doc

Dunnett's multiple comparison test**. (D)** FRET cAMP probe Epac1 revealed that *DNT-2>Dop2R-RNAi*

knockdown decreased YFP/CFP ratio over time in DNT-2A neurons, meaning that cAMP levels increased.

Two-way ANOVA, genotype factor p<0.0001, time factor p<0.0001; post-doc Dunnett's. **(E,F)** Summary:

DNT-2 neurons and DANs are functionally connected and modulate each other. **(E)** DNT-2 can induce *TH*

expression in DANs; **(F)** this is followed by negative feedback from DANs to DNT-2 neurons. TH: tyrosine

hydroxylase. Scale bars: (A) 50μm; (B) 30μm; (D) 20μm. P values over graphs in (C) refer to group analyses;

stars indicate multiple comparisons tests. *p<0.05,**p<0.01, ***p<0.001. For sample sizes and further

statistical details, see Supplementary Table S2.

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Figure 3   DNT-2 and Toll-6 maintain PAM neuron survival in the developing and adult brain.

(A) Illustration of PAM neuronal cell bodies and experimental temporal profile. DANs are shown in green,

DNT-2A neurons in magenta and MB in dark grey. The left hemisphere shows the anterior brain with PAL

and PAM DAN neurons (green) and DNT-2 neurons (magenta); the right shows the posterior brain, with the

calyx and other DAN neurons (PPM1, PPM2, PPM3, PPL1, PPL2, green). **(B-D)** Fruit-flies were kept

constantly at 25°C, from development to adult. Analyses done in adult brains**. (B)** *DNT-2^{37}/DNT-2^{18}* mutants

had fewer histone-YFP+ labelled PAM neurons (*THGAL4, R58E02-GAL4>hisYFP).* Un-paired Student t-test.

(C) *Toll-6* RNAi knock-down in all DANs (*THGAL4, R58E02-GAL4>hisYFP, Toll-6 RNAi)* reduced Histone-YFP+

labelled PAM cell number. Un-paired Student t-test. **(D)** *DNT-2^{37}/DNT-2^{18}* mutants had fewer PAMs stained

with anti-TH antibodies. Over-expressing *Toll-6^{CY}* in DANs (*THGAL4, R58E02 GAL4>hisYFP, Toll-6^{CY}*) rescued

TH+ PAM neurons in *DNT-2^{37}/DNT-2^{18}* mutants, demonstrating that DNT-2 functions via Toll-6 to maintain

PAM cell survival. Welch ANOVA p<0.0001, post-hoc Dunnett test. **(E-H)** Adult specific restricted over-

expression or knock-down at 30°C, using the temperature sensitive GAL4 repressor *tubGAL80^{ts}*. **(E)** Adult

specific *DNT-2* RNAi knockdown in DNT-2 neurons decreased Tomato+ PAM cell number (*tubGAL80^{ts},*

R58E02-LexA, DNT-2 GAL4>LexAOP-Tomato, UAS DNT-2-RNAi). Un-paired Student t-test, p= 0.005. **(F)** Adult

specific *Toll-6* RNAi knock-down in *Toll-6^{31}* heterozygous mutant flies in DANs, reduced Histone-YFP+ PAM

cell number (*tubGAL80^{ts}; THGAL4, R58E02-GAL4>hisYFP, Toll-6 RNAi/Toll6^{31}*). Un-paired Student t-test. **(G)**

PAMs were visualised with anti-TH. Left: *tubGAL80^{ts}, Toll-6>Toll-6-RNAi* knock-down decreased TH+ PAM

cell number. Un-paired Student t-test. Right: *tubGAL80^{ts}, DNT-2>DNT-2-RNAi* knock-down decreased TH+

PAM cell number. Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA, p=0.0001, post-hoc Dunn's test. **(H)** Adult-specific *tubGAL80^{ts},*

DNT-2>DNT-2RNAi knock-down increased the number of apoptotic cells in the brain labelled with anti-DCP-

1. Dcp-1+ cells co-localise with anti-TH at least in PAM clusters. One Way ANOVA, p<0.0001, post-doc

Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test. DANs>histone-YFP: all dopaminergic neurons expressing histone-

YFP, genotype: *THGal4 R58E02Gal4>UAS-histoneYFP*. *PAMsLexA>tomato*: restricted to PAM DANs:

R58E02LexA>LexAop-nlstdTomato. Controls: *GAL4* drivers crossed to wild-type Canton-S. Scale bars: (B-G)

30μm; (H) 20μm. Graphs show box-plots around the median. P values over graphs in (D, G right, H) refer to

group analyses; stars indicate multiple comparisons tests. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001. For further

genotypes, sample sizes and statistical details, see Supplementary Table S2.

1203

Figure 4   **DNT-2, Toll-6 and Kek-6 are required for arborisations and synapse formation. (A)**

Illustration showing the ROIs (dashed lines) used for the analyses, corresponding to dendrites and axonal

endings of PAMs and axonal terminals of PPL1ped neurons. **(B-F)** Fruit-flies were kept constantly at 25°C.

(B) Complete loss of PAM synapses (*PAM>syt-GFP*) onto α,β MB lobe in *DNT-2* null mutants. **(C)** *Toll-6* RNAi

knockdown in PAM β2β'2 neurons (*MB301B>FB1.1, Toll-6-RNAi*) decreased dendrite complexity. Un-paired

Student t-test. **(D)** Over-expression of cleaved *DNT-2CK* in PAM β2β'2 neurons *(MB301B>CD8-GFP, DNT-*

2CK) increased dendrite complexity. Un-paired Student t-test. **(E,E',F)** PPL1ped axonal misrouting was

visualised with *split-GAL4 MB320CGal4>FlyBow1.1.* Images show PPL1-γped neurons and some PPL1-

α2α'2. **(D,D')** RNAi knock-down of *Toll-6, kek-6* or both (e.g. *MB320CGal4>FlyBow1.1, Toll-6RNAi)* in PPL1-

γped neurons caused axonal terminal misrouting (arrows). **(E')** Higher magnification of **(E,** dotted squares**)**.

Chi-square for group analysis: p = 0.0224, and multiple comparisons Bonferroni correction control vs *Toll-*

6RNAi p<0.01; vs *kek-6RNAi* p<0.05; vs *Toll-6RNAi kek-6RNAi* p<0.01, see Table S2**. (F)** PPL1 misrouting was

also induced by over-expressed *DNT-2CK* or *DNT-2FL* (e.g. *MB320CGal4>FlyBow1.1, DNT-2FL*). Chi-square

for group analysis: p<0.05, Bonferroni correction control vs *DNT-2CK* ns, vs *DNT-2FL* *p<0.05, see Table S2.

(G) Adult-specific *Toll-6 kek-6 RNAi* knockdown in PAM neurons decreased size of post-synaptic density

sites (*PAM>Homer-GCaMP* and anti-GFP antibodies). Temperature regime shown on the right. **(C,D)** Graphs

show box-plots around the median; **(G)** are box-plots with dot plots. (C,D,G) *p<0.05, **p<0.01,

****p<0.0001. Scale bars: (B,C,D,E) 30μm; (E',F,G) 20μm. For genotypes, sample sizes and statistical details,

see Supplementary Table S2.

1223

Figure 5   DNT-2 neuron activation and DNT-2 over-expression induced synaptogenesis. (A)

Thermo-activation of DNT-2 neurons at 30°C altered DNT-2 arborisations, here showing an example with

smaller dendrites and enlarged axonal arbours (magenta shows 3D-rendering of axonal arborisation done

with Imaris, merged with raw image in green). (Genotype: *DNT-2>FlyBow1.1, TrpA1*). **(B)** Thermogenetic

activation of DNT-2 neurons increased the number of Homer+ PSDs in DNT-2 neurons, at SMP (*DNT-*

2>Homer-GCAMP3, TrpA1, anti-GFP). Test at 30°C 24h: Unpaired Student t test. See Table S2. **(C)**

Thermogenetic activation of DNT-2 neurons induced synaptogenesis in PAM target neurons at SMP, but not

at MB lobe. (Genotype: *PAM(R58E02)LexA/LexAOP-sytGCaMP; DNT-2GAL4/UASTrpA1*). At SMP: No. Syt+

synapses: Mann Whitney-U; Syt+ synapse volume: Mann Whitney-U. At MB lobe: No. Syt+ synapses:

Unpaired Student t ns; Syt+ synapse volume: Mann Whitney-U ns. **(D)** Over-expression of DNT-2FL in DNT-

2 neurons increased synapse volume at SMP dendrite and induced synaptogenesis at MB lobe. (Genotype:

PAM(R58E02)LexA/LexAopSytGcaMP6; DNT-2Gal4/UAS-DNT-2FL). At SMP: No. Syt+ synapses: Unpaired

Student t ns. Syt+ synapse volume: Mann Whitney-U. At MB lobe: No. Syt+ synapses: Unpaired Student t;

Syt+ synapse volume: Mann Whitney-U ns. Graphs show box-plots around the median, except for PSD

volume data that are dot plots. *p<0.05, ****p<0.0001; ns: not significantly different from control. Scale

bars: 30µm. For Genotypes, sample sizes, p values and other statistical details, see Supplementary Table S2.

1240

Figure 6   DNT-2-induced circuit plasticity modified dopamine-dependent behaviour. (A) *DNT-2*

mutants (left, *DNT-2³⁷/DNT-2¹⁸*) and flies with adult-specific RNAi knock-down of *DNT-2* in DNT-2 neurons

(right, *tubGAL80ᵗˢ; DNT-2>DNT-2RNAi*), had impaired climbing. Left Mann Whitney U; Right: One Way

ANOV, post-hoc Dunnett. **(B)** Adult-specific *Toll-6* and *kek-6* RNAi knock-down in Toll-6 *(tubGAL80ᵗˢ; Toll-*

6>Toll-6RNAi, kek-6RNAi, left) or PAM (*tubGAL80ᵗˢ; R58E02>Toll-6RNAi, kek-6RNAi,* right) neurons impaired

climbing. Left: Welch ANOVA, post-hoc Dunnett. Right: Welch ANOVA, post-hoc Dunnett. **(C)** The climbing

impairment of *DNT-2* mutants could be rescued with the over-expression of *Toll-6ᶜʸ* in dopaminergic

neurons (Rescue genotype: UASToll-6ᶜʸ/+; DNT-2¹⁸THGAL4 R58E02GAL4/DNT-2³⁷). Welch ANOVA, post-hoc

Dunnett. **(D)** Adult specific over-expression of *Toll-6ᶜʸ* in DANs increased locomotion in *DNT-2³⁷/DNT-2¹⁸*

mutants. (Test genotype: *UASToll-6ᶜʸ/+; DNT-2¹⁸THGAL4 R58E02GAL4/DNT-2³⁷*). Walking speed: Kruskal

Wallis ANOVA, post-hoc Dunn's. Distance walked: Kruskal Wallis ANOVA, post-hoc Dunn's. Time spent

immobile: Kruskal Wallis ANOVA, post-hoc Dunn's. **(E)** Adult specific *DNT-2FL* overexpression in DNT-2

neurons increased fruit-fly locomotion speed in an open arena at 30°C (see also Supplementary Figure S6A

for further controls). (Test genotype: *tubGAL80ᵗˢ, DNT-2>DNT-2FL*) Kruskal-Wallis, post-hoc Dunn's test. **(F)**

Thermogenetic activation of DNT-2 neurons at 30°C *(DNT-2>TrpA1)* increased fruit-fly locomotion speed.

(See also Supplementary Figure S6B for further controls). One Way ANOVA p<0.0001, post-hoc Dunnett's

test**. (G)** Over-expression of *DNT-2-FL* in DNT-2 neurons increased long-term memory. (Test genotype:

tubGAL80ᵗˢ, DNT-2>DNT-2FL). Left: 23°C controls: One Way ANOVA p=0.8006. Right 30°C: One Way ANOVA,

post-hoc Dunnett's test. Graphs show box-plots around the median, under also dot plots. P values over

graphs refer to group analyses; asterisks indicate multiple comparisons tests. *p<0.05, **p<0.01,

***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001; ns: not significantly different from control. For further genotypes, sample sizes,

p values and other statistical details, see Supplementary Table S2.

1263

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplementary Figure S1   **Identification of neurotransmitter type for DNT-2A neurons. (A, B)**

Anterior DNT-2A neurons projecting at SMP are not dopaminergic, as there was no co-localisation between

DNT-2>histoneYFP and anti-TH in the anterior brain **(A),** and there was no colocalization in other DNT-2+

neurons in the posterior brain either **(B).** Higher magnification of dotted boxes on the right. **(C)** There was

no colocalisation with *Dop1R2LexA>CD8::GFP, DNT-2Gal4>CD8::RFP* either. **(D)** DNT-2 neurons are not not

serotonergic, as there was no co-localization between *DNT-2>FlyBow1.1* and the serotoninergic neuron

marker anti-5HT. **(E)** There are not octopaminergic, as there was no overlap between *TdcLexA>mCD8::GFP*

and DNT-2Gal4>CD8::RFP. **(F)** There was no overlap between *DNT-2Gal4>histoneYFP* and the cholinergic

neuron marker anti-ChAT4b1. **(G,H)** Anterior DNT-2A neurons are not GABAergic, but lateral DNT-2 neurons

are, as visualised with *DNT-2>CD8-RFP, GADLexA>CD8-GFP*. Scale bars: (A,B left) 50μm; (C-H) 20 μm. For

further genotypes and sample sizes, see Supplementary Table S2.

1276

Supplementary Figure S2   **Identification of *Toll-6* and *kek-6* expressing neurons. (A)** *Toll-6Gal4,*

MB247-Gal80>UASFlyBow1.1 and *kek-6Gal4, MB247-Gal80>UASFlyBow1.1* revealed Toll-6+ and Kek-6+

projections on MB g2a'1. **(B)** *R25D01LexA>CD8GFP, kek6-Gal4>CD8RFP* overlapped in MB g2a'1. **(C)**

R14C08LexA>CD8GFP, Toll-6Gal4>CD8-RFP13 revealed co-localization in MBON-M4/M6 cell bodies. **(D,E)**

Co-localisation of *Toll-6>Histone-YFP* and *kek-6>HistoneYFP* with TH in PPL1 neurons. **(F)** Number of PAM

and PPL1 neurons expressing *Tolls* and *kek-6,* revealed from published RNAseq data (Scope, see also Table

S1). **(G, H)** Toll-6 and kek-6 are expressed in DAL neurons. **(G)** DAL neurons express *Toll-6,* as revealed by

co-localization between *DAL-LexA (VT49239-LexA)>mCD8-GFP* and *Toll-6GAL4>mCD8-RFP*. **(H)** DAL neurons

express *kek-6*, as revealed by colocalization between *DAL-LexA (VT49239-LexA)>mCD8-GFP* and

kek6GAL4>mCD8RFP. **(I, J)** Toll-6 and kek-6 are expressed in MB neurons. **(I)** *Toll-6>MCFO* clones reveal

expression at least in MB neurons g medial (gm), abcore (abc) and absurface (abs). **(K)** *kek-6>MCFO* clones

reveal expression at least in MB Kenyon cells aba'b'g formed and MB g2a'1 and a2a'2 and PPL1-$\gamma 2\alpha'1$ and

PPL1-$\alpha 2\alpha'2$. Scale bars: (B, H) 50µm; (A,C,D,G, I, J) 30µm. For further genotypes and sample sizes, see

Supplementary Table S2.

1291

Supplementary Figure S3   **TransTango connectivity controls. (A)** *UAS-TransTango/+* control, showing

background GFP expression in mushroom bodies and Tomato+ signal in sub-aesophageal ganglion (SOG).

(B) *DNT-2GAL4>UAS-TransTango*, revealing the GFP+ DNT-2 neurons and Tomato+ signal in DNT-2 neurons.

TransTango also reveals what appears to be feedback connections between DNT-2 neurons from SMP to

PRW (arrow). These are controls for Figure 3A. Scale bars: (A,B) 50µm. For further genotypes and sample

sizes, see Supplementary Table S2.

1298

Supplementary Figure S4   **Neuronal activity increased production and cleavage of DNT-2. (A)**

Thermogenetic activation of DNT-2 neurons increased the number of DNT-2FLGFP+ vesicles or spots (*DNT-*

2>DNT-2-FL-GFP, *TrpA1* with anti-GFP). Control 18°C: Unpaired Student t test, ns. Activation 30°C 24h:

Mann Whitney**. (B)** Western blot from fly heads over-expressing DNT-2FL-GFP in DNT-2 neurons showing

that neuronal activation with TrpA1 at 30°C increased DNT-2FL-GFP cleavage. **(**Genotype: *DNT-2>TrpA1,*

DNT-2FL-GFP). Controls are flies of the same genotype kept constantly at 18°C as well as flies treated also

at 30°C but lacking TrpA1. High temperature (30°C) is sufficient to increase fly activity. ***$p < 0.001$. ns= not

significant. For further genotypes, sample sizes, p values and other statistical details see Supplementary

Table S2.

1308

1309 **Supplementary Figure S5**   **Controls for Figure 5B.** Control at 18°C, for Figure 5B. DNT-2 bidirectional

1310 arborisation at SMP was visualised with Homer-GCaMP and anti-GFP antibodies (*DNT-21>homer-GCAMP*

1311 and *DNT-2>homer-GCAMP, TrpA1* at 18°C). Unpaired Student t-test, ns. Scale bars: (A,B) 30µm. For further

1312 genotypes, sample sizes, p values and other statistical details see Supplementary Table S2.

1313

Supplementary Figure S6   Locomotion in open arena controls. (A) Controls for Figure 6E. In 18°C

controls, GAL80 is on and GAL4 is off, thus there is no adult specific *DNT-2FL* overexpression in DNT-2

neurons in these flies. (Genotype: *tubGAL80ts, DNT-2>DNT-2FL*). Consistently, there was no increase in

locomotion speed in an open arena, in flies over-expressing *DNT-2FL* relative to controls, compare also to

Figure 6E. Kruskal Wallis ANOVA ns (lower median in *UAS-DNT-2FL/+* control). **(B)** Controls for Figure 6F.

The cation TrpA1 opens at high temperatures (eg 30°C) but remains closed at 18°C. Consistently, there was

no effect in locomotion at 18°C in flies of genotype *DNT-2>TrpA1* compared to controls, compare also to

30°C data in Figure 6F. Kruskal Wallis ANOVA ns. For further genotypes, sample sizes, p values and other

statistical details see Supplementary Table S2.

1323

Supplementary Figure S7   Altering *DNT-2* levels induced seizures. Knock-down or over-expression of

DNT-2 in the adult, using *GAL80^{ts}*. Fruit-flies were reared at 18°C from egg laying to adult eclosion, when

they were transferred to 30°C and kept there for 5 days prior to testing**.** To test for seizures, we used the

bang-sensitivity test. *DNT2^{37}/DNT2^{18}* mutant flies (left) and adult *DNT-2* knock-down flies (*tubGal80^{ts} DNT-*

2Gal4>DNT-2RNAi, centre) took longer to recover than controls. Over-expression of *DNT-2FL* in DNT-2

neurons (*tubGal80^{ts} DNT-2Gal4>DNT-2FL,* right) increased variability in recovery time. For further

genotypes and sample sizes see Supplementary Table S2.

1331

1332 **Table S1   Expression of *Tolls, keks* and Toll downstream adaptors in cells related to DNT-2A**

1333 **neurons.** Genes expressed in DNT-2 neurons, their potential and/or experimentally verified inputs and

1334 outputs, were identified with a combination of reporters (this work) and data from public single-cell

1335 RNAseq databases.

1336

1337 **Table S2   Statistical analysis.** Table providing full genotypes, sample sizes, statistical tests, multiple

1338 comparison corrections and p values.

1339

FIGURE 1 Neurons expressing *DNT-2* and its receptors *Toll-6* and *kek-6* in the adult brain

Figure 2   DNT-2 neurons are functionally connected to dopaminergic neurons

Figure 3   DNT-2 and Toll-6 maintain PAM neuron survival in the developing and adult brain

Figure 4   DNT-2, Toll-6 and Kek-6 are required for synapse formation and arborisations

Figure 5 DNT-2 neuron activation and DNT-2 over-expression induce synaptogenesis

Figure 6 DNT-2-induced circuit plasticity modified dopamine-dependent behaviours.