Revisiting the role of cAMP in Drosophila aversive olfactory memory formation

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Abstract

In the olfactory aversive conditioning of Drosophila melanogaster, an odor, the

conditioned stimulus (CS), is associated with electric shock, the unconditioned stimulus

(US). The Rutabaga adenylyl cyclase in Kenyon cells (KCs) of the fly brain synthesizes

cAMP, which is believed to serve as the coincidence detector synergistically stimulated

by calcium/calmodulin evoked by the odor reception and GαS released in response to

the dopamine signaling elicited by electric shock. However, live imaging analyses

revealed that olfactory stimulation itself elicited the activation of dopaminergic neurons

and resulted in the elevation of cAMP levels in KCs that received dopamine, regardless

of calcium signaling. This finding raises questions about the longstanding and

fundamental comprehension of conditioning mechanisms, as the cAMP levels in CS+

KCs could not be distinguished from those in the rest of the KCs. Our data indicate that

the cAMP level is an unlikely candidate for serving as a memory engram. Furthermore,

our findings demonstrate that cAMP has an adverse impact on the release of

acetylcholine from KCs. Accordingly, we postulate that, during conditioning, cAMP

depresses KCs, thereby skewing the valence of the CS+ odor towards a more aversive

state for the conditioned flies, ultimately culminating in the formation of aversive

memories.

Introduction

A quintessential aspect of classical conditioning involves the temporal pairing of an initially neutral stimulus, the conditioned stimulus (CS), with a reinforcing stimulus, the unconditioned stimulus (US), and the preservation of this association at the level of synaptic connections, leading to the manifestation of a conditioned response to the CS (Rescorla, 1988). The temporal correlation between the CS and US is mediated by coincidence detection mechanisms. One of the well-known coincidence detectors is adenylyl cyclase (AC), which is stimulated by both calcium/calmodulin and G-proteins coupled to receptors and catalyzes the conversion of ATP to cAMP. This was first revealed by the pioneering studies on classical conditioning of gill-withdrawal in the sea mollusca Aplysia. When siphon stimulation (CS) and electric shock to the tail (US) were repeatedly paired, CS elicited potentiated gill- and siphon-withdrawal reflexes (Carew et al., 1981). Integration of the calcium influx resulting from CS and the serotonin release resulting from the shock to the tail (US) increased the cAMP levels (Ocorr et al., 1985), as also shown biochemically (Abrams and Kandel, 1988; Yovell et al., 1992). These physiological and biochemical studies highlighted the pivotal role of adenylyl cyclase as a coincidence detector, which was strengthened by the genetic dissection of another model for the classical conditioning of Drosophila olfactory memory (Abrams and Kandel, 1988; Levin et al., 1992; Livingstone et al., 1984; Tully, 1987; Tully and Quinn, 1985). Odor information via acetylcholine (ACh) signaling represents the CS (Gu and O'Dowd, 2006), and G-proteins coupled to dopamine metabotropic receptors (Kim et al., 2007) activated by dopaminergic neurons encode the US (electric shocks or sugar reward) in Drosophila (Burke et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2012; Riemensperger et al., 2005; Schwaerzel et al., 2003). These two input pathways converge on the Rutabaga adenylyl cyclase (AC) (Davis, 1993; Livingstone et al., 1984) expressed in

Kenyon cells (KCs)(McGuire et al., 2003; Zars et al., 2000) of the mushroom bodies

(MBs)(Heisenberg, 2003).

Genetically-encoded fluorescent sensors have recently enabled the

microscopic visualization of the dynamics of AC activities in fly brains. Tomchik and

Davis showed the Rutabaga AC-dependent synergistic increase in cAMP in α/β and

α'/β' KCs when acetylcholine (CS) and dopamine (US) application were paired to *ex*

vivo brain explants (Tomchik and Davis, 2009). They also demonstrated that elevating

cAMP acutely enhanced KC excitability. Additionally, Handler et al. reported a

synergistic increase in cAMP levels in γ KCs upon temporal pairing of acetylcholine

application with dopamine neuron activation in *ex vivo* brain explants (Handler et al.,

2019). Gervasi et al. employed protein kinase A (PKA) activity as an indicator of cAMP

levels, and reported that the simultaneous administration of acetylcholine and

dopamine led to an augmentation of PKA activity exclusively in α/β KCs, in a manner

dependent on Rutabaga AC (Gervasi et al., 2010). These findings collectively indicate

that the Rutabaga AC fulfills its long-held role as a coincidence detector. It is worth

noting, however, that these imaging experiments did not measure cAMP or PKA

transients at a cellular resolution, but rather as a unit of the lobe, comprising a cluster

of KC axons. It is estimated that, on average, roughly 20% of KCs exhibit a consistent

response to monomolecular odors such as 3-octanol (OCT) and 4-methylcyclohexanol

(MCH), as employed in these experiments (Honegger et al., 2011). This sparse nature

of coding is essential for distinguishing a conditioned stimulus (CS+) odor from a non-

conditioned stimulus (CS-) odor in classical conditioning. Thus, if the Rutabaga AC

serves as the coincidence detector, then upon pairing with dopamine input (US), the

cAMP levels in the odor-evoked Kenyon cells (CS+) should be notably elevated in

comparison to the remaining KCs. Recently, it has been demonstrated that the axo-

axonic connections mediated by the muscarinic type-B receptor exert a suppressive

effect on dopamine-evoked cAMP in neighboring KCs, thereby preventing weakly

activated and unreliably responding KCs (off-target KCs) from being erroneously

classified as the genuine CS+ KCs. This phenomenon of lateral inhibition is deemed

essential for memory formation (Manoim et al., 2022). To the best of our knowledge,

there is no direct evidence that the cAMP levels in CS+ KCs are higher than those in

the remaining KCs following classical conditioning. However, this serves as a crucial

indicator of AC functioning as the coincidence detector. Therefore, live imaging should

ideally be conducted at a cellular resolution, with the CS and US provided by

presenting odors and electric shocks, respectively, to replicate the parsimony of coding

and the authenticity of signals. With this objective in mind, we established an imaging

system that simultaneously records cAMP and calcium transients in the KCs of head-

opened Drosophila melanogaster observed under a two-photon microscope. We

verified that odor presentation (CS) evoked not only calcium influx but also dopamine

release (Mao and Davis, 2009; Riemensperger et al., 2005) and discovered that it

induced robust cAMP increases even in the absence of US, in axons that did not

exhibit elevated calcium levels. This substantial cAMP elevation, which is dependent

on dopamine signaling but not on calcium concentration, raises questions about the

long-established fundamental understanding of conditioning mechanisms. Based on re-

evaluations of the CS- or US-evoked cAMP, calcium, and dopamine transients, PKA

activity, and acetylcholine (ACh) release in KCs at near single-cell resolution, we

discuss what has been overlooked in the Drosophila model of classical conditioning.

Results

Odor presentation evokes cAMP elevation in a broad population of KCs

independently of calcium responses

The mushroom bodies (MBs) in the Drosophila brain are the locus of olfactory classical

conditioning (Heisenberg, 2003). The ~2,000 Kenyon cells (KCs) of the MBs are

classified into three subtypes that extend axons into the α/β, α'/β', and γ lobes

(Crittenden et al., 1998)(Figure 1A). These lobes can be subdivided anatomically and

functionally into 15 non-overlapping compartments, each innervated by distinct

dopamine neuron (DAN) populations (Aso et al., 2014; Tanaka et al., 2008). In

Drosophila olfactory conditioning, Rutabaga adenylyl cyclase (Rut AC) is thought to

serve as the coincidence detector in KCs (McGuire et al., 2003; Zars et al.,

2000)(Figure 1B). Dubnau and his colleagues have shown that Rutabaga AC

expression is required in both α/β KCs and γ KCs to support aversive memory fully

(Blum et al., 2009), and the dopamine receptor Dop1R1 expression in γ KCs is

sufficient to support aversive memory (Qin et al., 2012). In addition, protocerebral

posterior lateral 1 (PPL-1) cluster dopamine neurons (DANs) projecting to the γ1, γ2,

and α3 compartments and protocerebral anterior medial (PAM) cluster DANs projecting

to the γ3 compartment of KCs reinforced negative valence (Aso et al., 2012; Yamagata

et al., 2016). Elevations of cAMP levels and protein kinase A (PKA) activity reportedly

exhibited a synergistic effect following the pairing of a conditioned stimulus and an

unconditioned stimulus in the α lobe in the context of aversive conditioning paradigms

(Gervasi et al., 2010; Tomchik and Davis, 2009) and in the γ lobe in the context of

appetitive conditioning paradigms (Handler et al., 2019). Thus, we focused on the γ

and α lobes in subsequent live imaging experiments (Figure 1C-G). Responses to

odors were measured as calcium transients with the genetically encoded fluorescent

sensor jRGECO1b (Dana et al., 2016) and cAMP levels were measured with G-Flamp1

(Wang et al., 2022) simultaneously.

The two sensors were initially expressed with the γCRE-p Gal4 (Yamazaki et

al., 2018) driver, as it encompasses a smaller subset of γ KCs compared to other γ KC

drivers, enabling the ability to achieve single-cell resolution within a dense neuropile.

Specifically, the γCRE-p driver covers approximately 350 (Yamazaki et al., 2018) out of

701 γ KCs (Li et al., 2020). The γ lobe comprises five compartments, with the γ1

compartment being the most distal. Initially, imaging of the γ2-5 compartments was

performed to achieve the optimal balance of resolution and scanning speed (Figure

1C). In general, a sequence of images, with a consistent focus, was captured at a

frequency of approximately 2 frames per second, while three distinct olfactory stimuli,

specifically 3-octanol (OCT), 4-methyl cyclohexanol (MCH), and apple cider vinegar

(ACV), each with a duration of 3 seconds, and an electrical shock lasting 10

milliseconds, were successively administered. Prominent calcium responses were

observed in a limited number of axons (Figure 1C), reflecting the sparse coding nature

of KCs (Honegger et al., 2011). The γ KC axons branch and traverse the lobe in a

meandering manner, as depicted schematically in Figure 1A, resulting in single-plane

images of calcium responses often appearing interrupted and patchy. As previously

reported (Wang et al., 2022), we also detected odor-evoked cAMP signals with the

second channel, which varied in a compartment-specific manner along the length of

the lobes with distinct characteristics for each odor, and the most robust signal was

identified within the γ4 compartment upon MCH or ACV presentation (Figure 1D).

Notably, there was no evidence of cAMP being selectively synthesized in odor-

responding (as marked by the calcium signals in Figure 1C) axons. A significant

elevation in cAMP was observed in a population of axons spanning almost the entire

width of a limited number of compartments. In contrast, the calcium signal was

detected in a small number of axons but across the entire length of the γ2-5

compartments. These profiles can be described as orthogonal and suggest that cAMP

levels are largely independent of calcium concentrations. An electrical stimulus elicits

cAMP synthesis in the γ2 compartment, albeit with variable signal strength (Figure 1C).

Thus, the fly's behavior should be vigilantly monitored each time the electrical stimulus

is administered and the shock responses must be confirmed. Additionally, the split

Gal4 driver MB364B, which expresses α/β and γ KCs, was used to eliminate any

potential bias in cAMP signaling, as the γCRE-p driver consists of 12 tandem CRE

(cAMP responsive element) sequences in the control region (Yamazaki et al., 2018)

and may be more likely to drive a population of cells responsive to cAMP signaling.

The γ1-5 compartments were similarly subjected to imaging upon exposure to

comparable olfactory and electrical stimuli. The calcium and cAMP transient profiles in

MB364B-positive γ KCs were virtually congruent with those observed in γCRE-p

(Figure 1E). A significant increase in cAMP levels was noted in axons traversing nearly

the full breadth of the γ lobe, whereas the calcium signal was only discernible in a

limited number of axons. An electrical stimulus elicited cAMP synthesis in the γ1 and

γ2 compartments, and in γ3 to a lesser extent. Responses in β lobe were also imaged

using the MB364B driver; however, they were not further analyzed. We subsequently

used the OK107 driver to visualize the α3 compartment, which was similarly subjected

to olfactory stimuli and electrical stimulation. A transverse optical section of the densely

packed neuropil in the α3 compartment enabled the observation of all α/β KCs within a

single focal plane. This view unequivocally illustrated that cAMP synthesis is subject to

compartmental regulation, as indicated by the considerable increase in cAMP levels

observed in the majority, if not all, of KCs upon exposure to MCH or OCT, while

uniformly minimal responses were detected upon exposure to ACV, regardless of

individual KCs' odor-specific responses (Figure 1F-G). In summary, the cAMP levels

display odor-specific and compartment-dependent patterns, regardless of calcium

levels. Our focus will be on investigating the behavior of γ KCs, as the γ1 and γ2

compartments are the sites of short and mid-term aversive memory formation (Aso et

al., 2010; Aso and Rubin, 2016).

Dopamine elicits cAMP synthesis

We subsequently inquired whether the dopamine signal modulates the cAMP synthesis

elicited by odor stimulus, given that odor-evoked cAMP transients vary among odors

and odors activate DANs (Cervantes-Sandoval et al., 2017; Mao and Davis, 2009;

Riemensperger et al., 2005; Sun et al., 2020). The widespread dissemination of cAMP

within compartments may be attributed to dopamine's release through the process of

volume transmission (Liu et al., 2021). We subsequently employed GRAB$_{DA}$ (Sun et al.,

2020) to image dopamine and Pink Flamindo (Harada et al., 2017) to visualize cAMP in

the γ lobe, to assess the geometric correlation between the two signals. Two instances

showing distinct compartment-specific signals were chosen to exemplify the

interrelatedness between the two signals (Figure 2A). The results inferred that

dopamine and cAMP demonstrate a robust correlation (Figure 2B). However, caution

must be exercised when drawing conclusions at the cellular level, given the divergent

kinetics between these two sensors and the comparatively lower signal-to-noise ratio of

Pink Flamindo in relation to G-Flamp1. To further elucidate the role of dopamine, the

cAMP levels were measured in a functionally null mutant of the type I dopamine

receptor, Dop1R1 (Akiba et al., 2019), which is coupled with GαS (Sugamori et al.,

1995) and thus engaged in activating adenylyl cyclase. The cAMP signals showed

substantial attenuation in the Dop1R1 mutant, thereby implying the necessity of the

dopamine signal for the activation of adenylyl cyclase (Figure 2C-D). We additionally

observed subtle signals within the γ1 compartment following the administration of the

shock stimulus, which could potentially be ascribed to the sensitization of adenylate

cyclase by Gαi/o-coupled receptors independent of Dop1R1 (Watts and Neve, 2005). It

is worth noting that the simultaneously recorded calcium signal was significantly

augmented when odors were presented, in comparison to the wild type (Figure 2E).

These experiments showed that odor stimulus alone evokes cAMP synthesis by

activating both PPL-1 DANs, which project to the γ1 and γ2 compartments, and PAM

(protocerebral anterior medial) DANs, which project to the γ3-5 compartments. PPL-1

DANs also reinforce electric shock and PAM DANs also reinforce sugar reward, the

US, implying that the presentation of the odors, CS, is inextricably linked with the

presentation of the US.

The correlation between calcium and cAMP levels when odor and shock are

paired

As previously noted, the long-held principle of coincidence detection posits that cAMP

levels in CS+ KCs should be specifically elevated when the odor stimulus and electric

shock are paired. How does this occur, despite the fact that the odor-evoked cAMP rise

does not depend on the calcium concentration, but on dopamine released from the

same PPL-1 neurons that also reinforce the shock information? To answer this

question, we conducted microscopic imaging of calcium and cAMP transients in the γ

lobe of head-fixed flies that expressed G-Flamp1 and jRGECO1b driven by the γCRE-p

or MB364B GAL4 driver. The flies were subjected to OCT in conjunction with the

administration of electric shock, replicating the established paradigm of aversive

memory conditioning. Electric shock increased cAMP levels in the γ1-2 compartments

(Figure 1), as two sets of PPL-1 DANs, γ1pedc and γ2α'1, are known to convey

aversive signals. We examined the cAMP transients specifically in the γ1 and γ2

compartments in an enlarged imaging field. We did not observe a significant cAMP

elevation that highlighted CS+ KCs in either case (Figure 3A). In the γ1 compartment of

the fly harboring the γCRE-p GAL4 driver, the degree of elevation in response to the

simultaneous application of OCT and shock was nearly equivalent to the summation of

responses to each stimulus presented independently (Figure 3B). However, in the γ2

compartment, the degree of elevation was even lower than the sum of the responses to

each stimulus applied independently (Figure 3B). These results were not unexpected,

as the cAMP levels rely largely on the dopamine release facilitated by the same DANs

activated by both CS and US. However, these findings are in stark contrast to previous

reports that a synergistic increase, i.e., larger than a simple sum, of cAMP or PKA

levels was observed upon association of the two stimuli (Gervasi et al., 2010; Handler

et al., 2019; Tomchik and Davis, 2009).

The correlation between calcium and cAMP levels was further evaluated using

scatterplots (Figure 3C). We examined representative images. No significant

associations were observed between calcium and cAMP levels (γ1: R^2 = 0.0076, γ2: R^2

= 0.0881). It is worth contemplating that roughly ~20% of KCs manifest temporal

dynamics that give rise to an elevation in calcium levels (Honegger et al., 2011), while

a significant majority of KCs synthesize cAMP in response to dopaminergic stimulation

upon exposure to a particular olfactory stimulus. Hence, it is plausible for the calcium

and cAMP signals to exhibit some degree of overlap, even in the absence of a

causative link between the two signals. On the contrary, assuming the complete

dependency of cAMP synthesis on calcium levels, the plot could be simulated in the

following manner. The timeline images extracted from the identical bout of calcium

imaging employed in Figure 3C were segregated into odd-numbered and even-

numbered images, and subjected to a scatterplot analysis against each other, thereby

simulating the representation of calcium levels in even-numbered frames as cAMP

levels (Figure 3D). This simulation yielded R^2 values of 0.462 (γ1) and 0.756 (γ2).

Thus, while we cannot dismiss the possibility that cAMP synthesis may require a

specific threshold of calcium, it is irrefutable that the cAMP levels are not entirely

contingent upon calcium levels when odor and electric shock are paired. In other

words, the cAMP level cannot function as the engram for detecting coincidences

between odor and electric shock.

cAMP in aversive conditioning

As described, the cAMP level in each compartment depends on receiving dopamine conveying negative valence (punishment signal like electric shock) to the γ1-3 compartments (Aso et al., 2012; Yamagata et al., 2016) and positive valence (reward signal like sugar digestion) to the γ4-5 compartments (Liu et al., 2012). Moreover, discrete compartments can be identified in relation to odor valence, wherein the DANs projecting to the γ2 compartment connote aversive valence, in contrast to the DANs projecting to the γ4 (Kato et al., 2022; Siju et al., 2020). Furthermore, DANs integrate odor valence and shock signals (Huang et al., 2022). Given the hypothesis that the cAMP level roughly corresponds to the dopamine level and that cAMP acts as an intermediary for dopamine's role in determining odor valence, achieving a state of balanced cAMP levels across the γ lobe could provide a comprehensive representation of integrated valence. This can be visualized as a two-dimensional image displaying cAMP levels across different compartments and is referred to as the cAMP code. We posited that the cAMP code might represent the neural plasticity mechanism engaged in aversive conditioning. Although the absolute cAMP levels exhibited variations among individuals for each odor, we hypothesized that the relative cAMP levels of the γ2 (corresponding to negative valence) and γ4 or γ5 (corresponding to positive valence) compartments, the γ2/4 or γ2/5 cAMP ratio, may constitute a quantitative metric for evaluating the valence of an olfactory stimulus for an individual. As such, any variations in the γ2/4 or γ2/5 cAMP ratio prior to and post-conditioning could be employed to assess the differential response to the stimulus, reflecting the acquisition of memory. To this end, we attempted to replicate aversive conditioning under a microscope by subjecting the fly to three consecutive episodes of electric shocks while exposing it to OCT, followed by exposure to MCH and ACV without electric shocks (OCT as CS+), or exposing it to MCH with electric shocks and to OCT and ACV without electric shocks

(MCH as CS+) (Figure 4A). During the process, cAMP transients were recorded for

each exposure and quantified (Figure 4B-G). Note that, based on the innate behavioral

responses, OCT and MCH are both similarly aversive compared to air, whereas ACV is

attractive (Badel et al., 2016). Before conditioning, the medians of the γ2/4 cAMP ratios

for the three odors followed the order of OCT>MCH>ACV.

The association of OCT with electric shock led to an increase in the relative

levels of cAMP in the γ1 and γ2 compartments, primarily attributed to the shock

stimulus (Figure 4B). This was followed by a significant elevation in the γ2/4 and γ2/5

cAMP ratios of OCT even after the pairing, while no discernible alterations were

noticed in MCH or ACV, which were not used in electric shock pairing (Figure 4D and

F). Conversely, when MCH was paired with electric shock, there was an increase in the

γ2/4 and γ2/5 cAMP ratios of MCH, while no significant alteration was observed in

either OCT or ACV (Figure 4E and G). It appears that the cAMP code of odor A is

integrated with the cAMP code of electric shock, resulting in the formation of an

aversively learned cAMP code for odor A even after the conditioning (Figure 4D and E,

CS+ panels).

The protein kinase A (PKA) activities coincide with the presence of cAMP

Protein kinase A (PKA) is a prominent subject of cAMP modulation, making it a suitable

indicator to probe the functional status of the observed cAMP population. We employed

the expression of a protein kinase A (PKA) sensor, ExRai-AKAR2 (Zhang et al., 2021),

in combination with Pink Flamindo, to examine whether the PKA activity aligns with the

spatial distribution of cAMP. Despite the constraints posed by the signal-to-noise ratios

of these sensors, which impeded our comprehensive examination of signals at a

cellular level, the dynamics of PKA activities unveiled a profound correlation with the

cAMP signal (Figure 5A). This correlation was apparent not only within individual

compartments but also manifested as a population code, whereby the profiles of the

signal across five compartments collectively responded to a range of olfactory stimuli

(Figure 5A-B). These findings suggest that a substantial portion of the cAMP identified

in this investigation possesses functional efficacy in activating PKA.

cAMP depresses ACh release from KCs

The KCs are recognized as cholinergic (Barnstedt et al., 2016; Yasuyama and

Salvaterra, 1999), and their ACh release after aversive conditioning is reportedly

attenuated in the γ1 (Zeng et al., 2023), γ2 and γ3 (Stahl et al., 2022; Zeng et al.,

2023), and α'3 compartments (Zhang et al., 2019). It has recently been reported that

Rutabaga AC decreases ACh release from KCs (Noyes and Davis, 2023). Our findings

were in concordance with these observations. We conducted simultaneous imaging of

ACh and cAMP transients in the γ KCs of flies expressing the ACh sensor, $GRAB_{ACh\ 3.0}$,

and Pink Flamindo, under the control of the MB364B GAL4 driver. Subsequently,

aversive conditioning was administered to the flies while they were observed under the

microscope (Figure 6A-D). While the ratios of γ2/4 cAMP and γ2/5 cAMP in CS+ OCT

also exhibited a notable increase (6C and D, upper left panels) as mentioned above,

the ratios of γ2/4 ACh and γ2/5 ACh in CS+ OCT exhibited a notable decrease (6C and

D, lower left panels). No such changes were observed in CS- MCH or ACV.

We subsequently examined the evoked responses following exposure to three

different olfactory stimuli in the Dop1R1 mutant (Figure 7A-B), wherein we observed a

notable increase in ACh levels in contrast to the genetic control (Figure 7C), which is

incongruent with the prior report showing a reduction in ACh levels in the Dop1R1

knockdown condition (Noyes and Davis, 2023). As previously mentioned (Figure 2D),

the levels of cyclic cAMP declined (Figure 7B, upper panels). Subsequently, we

proceeded to monitor the release of ACh by activating adenylyl cyclase through the

bath application of Forskolin, aiming to investigate whether cAMP, rather than another

component downstream of dopamine, attenuates the ACh release (Figure 7D, left).

Upon the administration of Forskolin, we observed a remarkable increase in the cAMP

levels, concurrent with a reduction in the ACh levels, in the γ2 compartment (Figure

7D, right). This observation signifies the involvement of cAMP in the attenuation of ACh

release. This was corroborated through the quantification of signals across five

compartments exposed to olfactory stimuli and the subsequent observation of signal

recovery following the washout of Forskolin (Figure 7E-F). It is worth noting, however,

that the extents of the impacts exerted by Forskolin, the augmentation in cAMP levels

and the reduction in ACh release, were decreased in the Dop1R1 mutant (data not

shown). These findings align with the previous report indicating the synergistic

stimulation of adenylyl cyclases by GαS and Forskolin (Sutkowski et al., 1994).

Discussion

Our study suggests that cAMP levels do not act as the "memory engram" marker for

the merging of the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli during memory formation.

Instead, cAMP acts as a reinforcer downstream of dopamine, suppressing

acetylcholine release from KCs and consequently modulating the DAN-KC-MBON

recurrent feedback loop (Adel and Griffith, 2021) in a valence-dependent manner. We

hereby propose that the cAMP levels across the γ compartments of the mushroom

body can be designated as the "cAMP code", which serves as an indicator of the

integrated valence experienced by the individual.

There is no evidence to indicate that cAMP levels serve as a memory engram

Physiological and cellular studies on Aplysia gill withdrawal (Abrams and Kandel, 1988;

Ocorr et al., 1985; Yovell et al., 1992) and genetic studies on Drosophila olfactory

conditioning (Heisenberg, 2003; Levin et al., 1992; Livingstone et al., 1984; Mons et al.,

1999; Tully, 1987; Tully and Quinn, 1985) solidified the idea of adenylyl cyclase as a

coincidence detector. This also holds for vertebrates. For example, pre-post pairing

(CS) and dopamine (US) signals are thought to converge on adenylyl cyclase in reward

learning (reward prediction error) in the striatum (Urakubo et al., 2020; Yagishita et al.,

2014).

Our research aimed to directly examine this long-standing hypothesis by

observing the *in vivo* cAMP and calcium or dopamine transients at near single-cell

resolution, which revealed some incongruities. First, the presentation of an odor elicits

dopamine release from the same populations of DANs that mediate shock signals, as

previously reported (Mao and Davis, 2009; Riemensperger et al., 2005), demonstrating

that the CS is invariably coupled with the US, thereby diminishing the synergistic

effects. Indeed, the odor presentation alone induces a robust elevation of cAMP levels

in KCs, independent of their response to the relevant odor. The anticipated synergy

was not detected, as we failed to observe a specific increase in cAMP levels in CS+

KCs, even in the γ1 and γ2 compartments, which are indispensable and adequate for

the acquisition of short- and middle-term memories (Aso et al., 2012). These results

contradict the notion that adenylyl cyclase functions as a coincidence detector (Figure

8A).

Nevertheless, we cannot formally preclude the possibility that the core site of

the Rutabaga action or the coincidence detection was within a microenvironment that

we failed to access, or the population of cAMP synthesized with Rutabaga at the

coincidence detection was masked by the pool of cAMP synthesized with other

adenylyl cyclases. The overlap between the positive PKA signal and that of cAMP

suggests that the cAMP signal detected in the current study was sufficiently functional

to activate PKA. The following discussion is based on the assumption that the detected

cAMP signal is functional. Although our findings indicate that the CS+ KCs cannot be

differentiated from the other KCs based on cAMP levels, in essence meaning that

cAMP levels do not serve as the "memory engram" marker of the integration of the CS

and US during memory acquisition, the cAMP signal still holds significant importance in

memory formation. In the realm of mammalian reward learning, the convergence of

calcium-mediated NMDAR signaling and dopamine has been demonstrated and

modeled to occur on AC (Urakubo et al., 2020; Yagishita et al., 2014). Nair et al. put

forth a theoretical framework where the cAMP/PKA signal activated by dopamine

converges with the calcium signal at CaMKII when the inputs of calcium and dopamine

are delivered in temporal proximity and in a dopamine-following-calcium sequence

(Nair et al., 2016). This role of CaMKII could underly the case of Drosophila olfactory

conditioning, since CaMKII accumulation in the KC axons is required for Drosophila

aversive and appetitive conditioning (Adel et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2022).

The Rutabaga AC is not necessarily involved in all phases of aversive

olfactory memory. While the Rutabaga AC is crucial for labile anesthesia-sensitive

memory (ASM), it is dispensable for anesthesia-resistant memory (ARM). On the other

hand, the Dunce phosphodiesterase 4 is essential for ARM, yet non-essential for ASM,

despite both Rutabaga and Dunce serving in the cAMP pathway (Scheunemann et al.,

2012). Additionally, the presence of Rutabaga is concurrently required within both α/β

and γ KCs, whereas Dunce operates in both KCs and antennal lobe local neurons

(Scheunemann et al., 2012). Another olfactory memory paradigm, known as "trace

conditioning," does not require the Rutabaga AC and allows the presentation of the

conditioned stimulus (CS) and the unconditioned stimulus (US) to be temporally

separated by intervals of up to 60 s (Shuai et al., 2011). The Rutabaga AC has been

identified as the sole type-I AC in Drosophila (Livingstone, 1985), and its activation by

calcium and the GαS subunit has led to its postulation as a coincidence detector for the

CS and US. This implies that the underlying mechanism for the convergence of ARM

and trace conditioning relies on another AC or an alternative mechanism.

Another model for coincidence detection

Various findings have called into question the prevailing notion that AC integrates both

calcium and dopamine signals. Saitoe et al. proposed that AC mediates the integration

of odor input and the aversive input of electric shocks conveyed by glutamate, but not

dopamine; rather, dopamine release is elicited subsequent to this pairing event and

serves solely as a reinforcement, but not the US (Saitoe, 2021; Ueno et al., 2017).

Recently, Qiao et al. demonstrated that the PPL1 DANs modulate the input-timing-

dependent plasticity of γ KC synapses from projection neurons, depending on type 2

dopamine receptor (DD2R) (Qiao et al., 2022). Their findings further indicated that the

activation of the PPL1-DD2R pathway elicits a rise in calcium levels, which is

dependent on the voltage-gated calcium channel (VGCC). They concluded that the

VGCC could serve as the coincidence detector. However, this conclusion does not

extend to all phases of aversive memory, as the authors also demonstrated that DD2R

is not necessary for short-term memory formation.

The potential role of the DAN-KC-MBON recurrent feedback loop in the

formation of olfactory memory raises the prospect that the synaptic connections

between KCs and MBONs may also rely on spike-timing-dependent plasticity (STDP)

(Zeng et al., 2023). Between KCs and MBONs in locusts, Cassenaer and Laurent have

shown that pre-post pairing causing STDP can, when accompanied by the local

administration of a reinforcement-modulating neuromodulator such as dopamine

(three-factor neo-Hebbian learning rule), designate the synapses subject to an

associative alteration (Cassenaer and Laurent, 2012). This is likely to apply to

Drosophila as well. It is noteworthy that comprehensive anatomical studies have

disclosed direct dopaminergic connections from DANs to MBONs in Drosophila α/β

KCs (Takemura et al., 2017). Pribbenow et al. have indeed demonstrated that

concurrent dopamine release and focal acetylcholine application to the dendrites of the

M6 (MBON-γ5β'2a), circumventing KC activity, induce plasticity in calcium transients

within this MBON (Pribbenow et al., 2022). Zeng et al. further found that the dorsal

paired medial (DPM) neuron releases 5-HT on KCs and regulates the coincidence time

window, which has been hypothesized by several theories to be a timing regulator

(Zeng et al., 2023). Consequently, we postulate that cAMP is not implicated in

coincidence detection, which could depend on the neo-Hebbian learning rule, whereas

cAMP functions as a reinforcer downstream of dopamine, as elaborated below.

The dopamine population activities serve as the substrate for the storage of

aversive olfactory memory

Upon exposure to different odors, distinct populations of DANs exhibit specific activity

patterns, as documented in multiple studies (Berry et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2022;

Kato et al., 2022; Mao and Davis, 2009; Yamagata et al., 2016). This, in turn,

generates the cAMP code in the γ lobe, which is approximately antithetical to the level

of ACh release (Figure 8B). Given that the sustained population dynamics among

DANs, likely facilitated by the dynamic interactions within the DAN-KC-MBON recurrent

feedback loop, integrate changes in physiological states and environmental cues

(Huang et al., 2022; Kato et al., 2022; Siju et al., 2020), the formation of associative

memories could be an integral component of this dynamism. This is consistent with the

additional finding that repeated exposure to an aversive odor can give rise to a labile,

self-reinforced aversive memory for that odor (Jacob et al., 2021). This suggests that

the mere presentation of the odor can modulate cAMP levels, which can ultimately lead

to outcomes similar to those observed in conditioning with an electric shock. If the odor

and electric shock stimuli are expressed as the cAMP code, then it can be posited that

the electric shock serves as an extreme manifestation of the odor stimuli (Figure 8C),

since both olfactory stimuli (CS) and electric shock (US) activate overlapping

populations of DANs. Thus, in this particular memory paradigm, there appears to be no

significant distinction between the odor CS and the electric shock US. Assuming this to

be true, the inquiry into the location and mechanism of memorization for the learned

population activities of DANs could be comparable to the question of where and how

odor-specific population activities of DANs, in general, are retained.

In addition to the well-established function of exogenously activated γ1-pedc

DAN as the aversive US (Aso et al., 2012; Aso and Rubin, 2016), the suppression of

the corresponding MBON, γ1-pedc>α/β, can also serve as an aversive US (König et

al., 2019; Ueoka et al., 2017), as noted (Yamada et al., 2023). These discoveries

suggest that not only the stimulation of the γ1pedc DAN, but also the inhibition of

γ1pedc>α/β MBON can trigger a series of events that tilt the population activities of

DANs towards the aversively learned state. Assuming that the population activities of

DANs are consistently revised by the DAN-KC-MBON recurrent feedback loop that

integrates inputs from relevant compartments, alterations in the γ1 compartment

triggered by augmented γ1 DAN activity or decreased γ1 MBON activity could

potentially trigger a complete rewrite of the population activities of DANs.

Recently, the postsynaptic plasticity traces associated with nicotinic

acetylcholine receptors in MBONs were reported to contribute to memory storage in

appetitive memory (Pribbenow et al., 2022), although their involvement in aversive

memory is yet to be established. The underlying cause of this plasticity can be

attributed to the previously described neo-Hebbian learning rule. However, it remains

unclear how this plasticity leads to changes in the population activities of DANs,

resulting in alterations in the shape of the cAMP code. Based on these assumptions,

we propose the following model for the formation of aversive olfactory memories. Upon

exposure to odor A paired with an electric shock, the release of ACh from the γ1 and

γ2 compartments of responsive KCs is attenuated because of the increase in cAMP

levels, leading to a depression of the γ1 and γ2 MBONs. This subsequently triggers the

reorganization of the dopamine population activities, as well as the reorganization of

ACh receptors within the γ1 and γ2 MBON synapses. Consequently, the cAMP code

for odor A is shifted towards a more negative valence in comparison to its pre-

conditioning state (Figure 8C). The cAMP pathway exerts inhibitory control over ACh

release in accordance with the population activities of DANs. Despite the current lack

of knowledge regarding the higher-order mechanisms responsible for the organization

of the DAN-KC-MBON recurrent feedback loop (Figure 8B), recent progress in

unraveling the hierarchical architecture of the DAN circuit (Yamada et al., 2023) holds

promise for illuminating these mechanisms in the near future.

Materials and methods

Fly strains

Fly strains were maintained on standard food containing cornmeal at 25°C. The

following strains were used. CRE-p65-AD/CyO; MB247-Gal4-DBD (Yamazaki, 2018),

UAS-G-Flamp1 attp40/CyO and UAS-G-Flamp1 VK00005 (gifts from Jun Chu and

Yulong Li, Nat. Commun., 2022.13:5363), UAS-jRGECO1b VK00005 (#BL63795),

MB364B-Gal4 i.e., R13F02-p65-AD attp40; R21B06-Gal4-DBD attP2 (#BL68318),

OK107-gal4 (#Ktoto DGRC 106098), UAS-Pink Flamindo su(Hw) attP5 and UAS-Pink

Flamindo VK00027 (this study), UAS-GRAB_DA2m attp40 (BL#90878), Dop1R1^{KO}

(D1R1 KO, a gift from Taro Ueno, Eur. J. Neurosci. 2020;51:822–839), UAS-ExRai-

AKAR2 VK00005 (this study), and UAS-GRAB_ACh3.0 attp40 (BL#86549).

Fly genotypes used by figures

Figure	Genotype
1C, 1D, 2E, 3A, 3B, 3C, 3D	CRE-p65-AD, UAS-G-Flamp1 attp40 / UAS-G-Flamp1 attp40; MB247-GAL4-DBD, UAS- jRGECO1b VK00005 / UAS-jRGECO1b VK00005
1E, 3A, 4B, 4C, 4D, 4E, 4F, 4G	R13F02-p65-AD attp40/ UAS-G-Flamp1 attp40; R21B06-GAL4-DBD attP2, UAS- jRGECO1b VK00005 / +
1F, 1G	UAS-G-Flamp1 attp40 / +; UAS- jRGECO1b VK00005 / + ; OK107-Gal4 / +
2A, 2B	CRE-p65-AD, UAS-GRAB_DA2m attp40, UAS-Pink Flamindo su(Hw)attp5 / UAS-GRAB_DA2m attp40, UAS-Pink Flamindo su(Hw)attp5; UAS-Pink Flamindo VK00027 / +
2C, 2D, 2E	CRE-p65-AD, UAS-G-Flamp1 attp40 / UAS-G-Flamp1 attp40; MB247-GAL4-DBD, UAS- jRGECO1b VK00005, Dop1R1[KO] / UAS- jRGECO1b VK00005, Dop1R1[KO]
5A, 5B	R13F02-p65-AD attp40 / UAS-Pink Flamindo su(Hw)attp5; R21B06-GAL4-DBD attP2 / UAS-ExRai-AKAR2 VK00005
6A, 6B, 6C, 7C, 7D, 7E, 7F	R13F02-p65-AD attp40, UAS-Pink Flamindo su(Hw)attp5 / UAS-GRAB_ACh3.0; R21B06-GAL4-DBD attP2 / +
7A, 7B, 7C	R13F02-p65-AD attp40, UAS-Pink Flamindo su(Hw)attp5 / UAS-GRAB_ACh3.0; R21B06-GAL4-DBD attP2, Dop1R1[KO] / Dop1R1[KO]

Construction of UAS-Pink Flamindo and UAS-ExRai-AKAR2

The Pink Flamindo cDNA was amplified by PCR from the plasmid (provided by

Kitaguchi, Addgene plasmid #102356). The amplified fragment was then integrated into

the 20xUAS vector originating from pJFRC7-20xUAS-IVS-mCD8::GFP (Pfeiffer,

Addgene plasmid #26220) by In-Fusion recombinase (Clontech Laboratories). The

ExRai-AKAR2 cDNA codon was optimized for Drosophila melanogaster (Eurofins

Genomics), and the resulting synthesized cDNA was cloned into the 20xUAS vector

described above.

Live imaging

Chemicals

Saline (103 mM NaCl, 3 mM KCl, 10 mM trehalose, 10 mM D-glucose, 26 mM

$NaHCO_3$, 1 mM NaH_2PO_4, 1.5 mM $CaCl_2\_2H_2O$, 4 mM $MgCl_2\_6H_2O$, 9 mM sucrose,

and 5 mM HEPES, (osmolarity adjusted to 270–280 mol/kg), Mineral oil (Fisher

Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ, USA, Cat# O1214), 4-methylcyclohexanol, MCH (Cat#

66360, 98%>purity, Fluka, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), 3-octanol, OCT (Cat#

74870, 95%>purity, Fluka, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), Apple cider vinegar,

ACV (Mizkan jun-ringo-su, Mizkan holdings, Japan, ASIN#B000H2SCTW), Forskolin,

Fsk (Tokyo Chemical Industry, Cat# F0855), and Ethanol (Fujifilm Wako, Japan, Cat#

054-00466).

Fly preparation

Unless otherwise specified, female flies aged 5-16 days were used. A fly was mounted

on a custom-made imaging dish immediately after anesthetization by CO_2 gas spray for

3–5 s. The head capsule and dorsal thorax were secured to the dish by light-curing

glue (DYMAX Medical Adhesive, 1204-M-SC, USA). The proboscis was also glued

onto the capsule to reduce brain movement. A window on the top of the head capsule

was opened using sharp forceps (Corte Instruments, USA) and a thin injection needle

in saline. Air sacs and fat bodies were carefully removed, and muscle 16 was cut using

forceps to avoid excessive brain movements during imaging.

Olfactory stimulation

Odors were delivered with a custom-made, 8-channel olfactometer controlled by a

custom LabVIEW application (National Instruments). While a fly was mounted under

the microscope, a constant stream of pure air (0.4 L/min) was directed at the fly. Thirty

mL of odor solution was placed in a 100 ml glass bottle (Duran, Cat# TGK 371-05-20-

03) with an Omnifit GL45 bottle cap (Diba Omnifit, Cat# OM4212), PTFE tube (Cat#

BLS181033, ⅛" x 2.4mm), and USL-PTFE joint (OOU-095-7x1/8", custom-made, 7mm

x ⅛", http//www.u-s-l.co.jp). All odorants except for ACV were diluted 1 : 10 vol/vol in

mineral oil. ACV was diluted 1 : 10 vol/vol in Milli-Q water. After a stimulation trigger, a

solenoid valve redirects a portion of the air stream through the headspace of the glass

bottle for 3 s. Two mass flow controllers (SEC-E40, HORIBA STEC, Japan) were used

in parallel to regulate the flow of pure air and odors. The odor stream rejoined the pure

air stream 40 cm from the end of the odor delivery tube (4 mm in diameter). The odor

was released from a position 5 mm in front of the fly at a flow rate of 0.4 L/min.

Subsequently, it was collected through a tube (3 mm in diameter) located 15 mm

behind the fly at a flow rate of 2 L/min using a vacuum pump (ULVAC DA-20D, ULVAC

KIKO, Inc.) equipped with a charcoal filter. The intervals between odor exposures were

at least 60 seconds.

Electric shock delivery

A fly was subjected to electric stimulation by positioning one end of a platinum wire at

the base of its legs and the other end at the abdominal region, using a

micromanipulator (MNM-25, Narishige, Tokyo, Japan). At the time point 17.5 seconds

from the commencement of the recording, a 60-volt electric shock generated with an

Electric Stimulator (SEN-3401, Nihon Kohden, Japan) and Isolator (SS-203J, Nihon

Kohden, Japan) was administered to the fly for a duration of 10 milliseconds. In the

context of pairing odor and electric shock, electric stimulation was applied after a delay

of 1.5 seconds following the initiation of a 3-second odor presentation. The

administration of the shock was verified by observing the movements of the legs and

the occurrence of abdominal cramps using a CCD camera (STC-TB33USB, Omron

Sentech, Tokyo, Japan).

Forskolin bath application

Forskolin, a compound of interest, was dissolved in a solution containing Saline and

100% EtOH in a 3:1 ratio, to make a stock solution with a 5 mM Forskolin

concentration. From this stock solution, a working solution was prepared by dilution

with Saline to achieve a concentration of 100 µM Forskolin in Saline with 0.5% EtOH.

As a control, Saline with 0.5% EtOH was used. For live imaging, the standard Saline

solution was removed, leaving a small remaining volume of 50 µl on the objective and

dish. Then, a syringe containing Saline with 0.5% EtOH was connected to the dish,

allowing the space between the objective and dish to be filled. The recording was

performed for a duration of 4 minutes. Subsequently, the Saline with 0.5% EtOH was

replaced with 1 mL of the 100 µM Forskolin solution in Saline with 0.5% EtOH, and

another 4-minute recording was conducted. During this time, the responses to odors

were recorded. At the end of the recordings, the 100 µM Forskolin solution in Saline

with 0.5% EtOH was washed out by replacing it with the standard saline solution four

times, and the responses to odors under the wash-out conditions were also recorded.

Two-photon laser microscopy

For *in vivo* two-photon imaging, we employed a two-photon microscope (Olympus

FVMPE-RS; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a water-immersion objective lens

(XLPLN25XWM, 25x N.A. 1.05), a titanium:sapphire pulsed laser (INSIGHT DS DUAL-

OL; Spectra-Physics, Santa Clara, CA, USA), and a Galvano Scanner to facilitate live

imaging. The emitted light was collected using GaAsP photomultiplier detectors with

495-540 nm and 575-645 nm bandpass filters (FV30-FGR). G-CaMP6f and G-Flamp1

were excited at 925 nm, GRAB_DA2m, GRAB_ACh3.0, and ExRai-AKAR2 were

excited at 980 nm, while jRGECO1b and Pink Flamindo were excited at 1040 nm.

Using the Olympus FV31S-SW imaging software, we acquired time series images with

different dimensions: 400-430 x 130-120 pixels (0.14-0.19 μm/pixel, γ1-γ2 zoom in

Figure 3), 275-320 x 155-140 (0.33-0.50 μm/pixel, γ1-γ5 in Figures 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, and 7),

and 180-250 x 150-165 (0.15-0.20 μm/pixel, α'3/α3 in Figure 1). The acquisition was

performed at a frame rate of either 333 or 500 ms/frame in a sequential line scan

mode, ensuring that the time difference between acquiring images for channels 1 and 2

was less than 2 ms. By default, images were acquired for a duration of 40 s to capture

the response to each stimulus and were saved for subsequent image processing. The

solenoid valve for odor stimulation was activated 15 s after the start of each recording,

and delivered the odor for a duration of 3 s, corresponding to frames #46-54 (333

ms/frame) or #31-36 (500 ms/frame). For quantitative analysis, ΔF/F0 images of peak

responses were generated by averaging frames #51-65 (333 ms/frame) or frames #35-

44 (500 ms/frame). The experimental flies, which were housed in vials with food, were

transferred to an imaging room maintained at a temperature of 22 °C at least two days

prior to the imaging experiments.

Image analysis

The image analysis was conducted as described previously (Hiroi et al., 2013), with

several modifications. The images within each recording were stabilized using the

template matching plugin of Fiji (ImageJ). To mitigate the impact of detector noise and

uncorrected movement, all reporter signals underwent an initial processing step

employing a median filter (with a radius of 1 pixel). For the images obtained from the

same fly, after stabilization, a template matching technique was utilized for alignment.

Subsequently, the ΔF values were computed based on the average (F0) of the one-

second interval following the opening of the valve (specifically, 15 seconds after the

start of the recording). It is important to note that the median filter (with a radius of 1

pixel) was once again applied during this stage. To identify the KC region (also known

as the region of interest, ROI), Li's binarizing algorithm was applied to the averaged

signal intensity across the entire duration of each recording, using Fiji. Regions of

interest (ROIs) for each compartment were first manually identified, using the

anatomical characteristics as a guide. The demarcation between the γ3 and γ4

compartments was occasionally challenging to determine, and it was pragmatically

established that the border lies within the middle of the regions assigned to the γ3 and

γ4 compartments. The drawing and preservation of ROIs, as well as the measurement

of ΔF/F0, were performed in a semi-automated manner using both built-in and custom-

written macro routines in Fiji. Furthermore, a series of additional image processing

tasks, such as correlation testing and temporal dynamics plotting, were executed using

MATLAB scripts.

Scatter Plot Analysis

We computed the mean ΔF/F0 values of calcium and cAMP transients within the

designated γ1 and γ2 compartments for each pixel during the 1 to 6 seconds following

the delivery of OCT or OCT + electrical shock, employing the identical method outlined

in the preceding image analysis section. These calculated values were then plotted on

a scatter plot, with calcium represented on the X-axis and cAMP on the Y-axis for each

pixel. To assess the linearity of the relationship, we conducted a linear regression

analysis on the scatter plot and determined the R^2 value. To simulate the potential

maximum linearity between the two values in our experimental setup, we created an

additional scatter plot. We divided the dataset obtained from calcium transients into two

groups, based on whether the frame number was odd or even. Then, we plotted the

values from the odd-numbered frames on the X-axis and the values from the even-

numbered frames on the Y-axis. The processes of acquiring data, generating scatter

plots, applying linear regression analysis, and calculating R^2 values were all executed

utilizing the MATLAB software.

Statistics

Statistical analyses were conducted using the Prism 9 software (GraphPad). All tests

were non-parametric, two-tailed, and the confidence levels were set at α = 0.05. The

figure legends provide the p values and specify the comparisons made for each

experiment, unless otherwise indicated. The bar graphs display the means ± SEM for

the data.

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imaging and statistical analyses; D.Y. constructed transgenes and performed live

imaging in the early phase; M.H. developed an imaging data acquisition system; Y.M.

conducted genetic and histological experiments; Y.U. performed statistical analyses.

T.A., D.Y. and T.T. wrote the manuscript.

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Competing interest

934 The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

 Figures

Figure 1. Odor presentation alone increases dopamine and cAMP in γ KCs. (A)

Schematic of Kenyon cells (KCs), referred to Figure 1A (Bilz et al., 2020). The cell

body, the α/β, α'/β' and γ lobes, and α/β and γ KCs are depicted. (**B**) Schematic of the

role of the Rutabaga adenylyl cyclase (Rut AC) as the coincidence detector. KCs

innervated by PPL-1 DANs. The odor acquisition (CS) activates acetylcholine signaling

and elevates calcium concentrations through voltage-gated calcium channels. PPL1

DANs integrate odor information and noxious stimuli (US) such as electric shock

through regions including the lateral horns (LHNs), Crepine (CRE), and superior medial

protocerebrum (SMP)(Kato et al., 2022). DANs activities are also regulated by the

DAN-KC-MBON recurrent feedback loop (Adel and Griffith, 2021). The CS and US

pathways can converge on the Rut AC, which is synergistically activated by the

calcium/calmodulin complex and Gα subunit of the G-protein complex coupled to the

D1-like dopamine receptor Dop1R1. (**C**) Schematic representation of *in vivo* imaging of

KCs. The objective and frontal view of the KCs along with the focal plane (upper left),

and the dorsal view of γ KCs with color-coded γ2-5 compartments (upper right) are

shown. Exemplary, finely resolved pseudocolor images of averaged peak responses

(10 frames for 5 s) of calcium and cAMP during the presentations of 4-

methylcyclohexanol (MCH), 3-octanol (OCT), apple cider vinegar (ACV), and electric

shock (Shock, two bouts) in γ2-γ5 KCs of the fly expressing G-Flamp1 and jRGECO1b

driven by the γCRE-p-Gal4 driver. All images in the present study were acquired using

a dual-channel line-scanning mode. (**D**) The ΔF/F0 images, obtained by averaging the

responses to odor stimuli over a duration of 5 seconds, corresponding to 15 frames,

were quantified. The plots of different compartments derived from the same sample are

interconnected with dashed lines. The bar graph illustrates the mean values. Asterisks

indicate significant differences. Dunn's multiple comparisons test for all pairwise

combinations, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$; n = 10. (E) The focal

plane of live imaging for compartments γ1-γ5 is presented (Upper panel). The ΔF/F0

images of averaged peak responses (10 frames, 5 s) of calcium and cAMP during the

presentations of MCH, OCT, ACV, and shock in compartments γ1-γ5 of the fly

expressing G-Flamp1 and jRGECO1b driven by the MB364B split Gal4 driver (lower

panels). (**F**) The focal plane of live imaging for the α3/α'3 compartments is presented.

Magnified images of averaged peak ΔF/F0 responses (10 frames, 5 s) of calcium and

cAMP in the α3 and α'3 compartments of the fly expressing G-Flamp1 and jRGECO1b

driven by the OK107-Gal4 driver. (**G**) The ΔF/F0 images, obtained by averaging the

responses to odor stimuli over a duration of 5 seconds, corresponding to 10 frames,

were quantified. The plots of different compartments derived from the same sample are

interconnected with dashed lines. The bar graph illustrates the mean values. Asterisks

indicate significant differences. Dunn's multiple comparisons test for all pairwise

combinations, *$p < 0.05$; n = 10.

Figure 2. Dopamine induces cAMP synthesis. (**A**) Two examples (animals A and B) of ΔF/F0 images of averaged peak responses (10 frames, 3.3 s) of dopamine and cAMP during the presentations of MCH, OCT, ACV, and shock in the γ1-γ5 compartments of the fly expressing GRAB_DA2m and G-Flamp1 sensors driven by the γCRE-p-Gal4 driver. (**B**) The ΔF/F0 images, obtained by averaging the responses to odor stimuli, were quantified. The plots of different compartments derived from the same sample are interconnected with dashed lines. The bar graph illustrates the mean values.   γ1: n = 6, γ2-γ5: n = 10. (**C**) Representative ΔF/F0 images of averaged peak responses (15 frames, 5 s) of calcium and cAMP during the presentations of MCH, OCT, ACV, and Shock in compartments γ1-5 expressing jRGECO1b and G-Flamp1 driven by the γCRE-p-Gal4 driver of the fly mutant for Dop1R1. (**D**) The ΔF/F0 images, obtained by averaging the responses to odor stimuli, were quantified. The plots of different compartments derived from the same sample are interconnected with dashed lines. The bar graph represents the mean values. γ1: n = 6, γ2-γ5: n = 8. (**E**) Comparison of the odor-evoked calcium responses in compartments γ2-γ5 between control and Dop1R1 mutant flies. Mann-Whitney U test, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, and $***p < 0.001$; control: n = 10; Dop1R1 mutant: n = 9. The bar graph represents the mean values.

Figure 3. The cAMP levels during the pairing of olfactory stimuli with electric shock. (**A**)

The top panels display the averaged representations of raw intensity values extracted

from 80 frames, spanning a duration of 40 seconds including both stimulus and non-

stimulus periods. The following three panels below present exemplary ΔF/F0 images of

averaged peak responses (15 frames, 5 s) of calcium and cAMP during the

presentation of OCT, Shock, and both in the γ1-γ2 compartments expressing

jRGECO1b and G-Flamp1 driven by the γCRE-p (left) or MB364B GAL4 (right) driver.

(**B**) The ΔF/F0 images, obtained by averaging the responses to stimuli of the fly

expressing jRGECO1b and G-Flamp1 driven by the γCRE-p, were quantified. The plots

of different stimuli derived from the same sample are interconnected with dashed lines.

The bar graph illustrates the mean values. The Dunn's multiple comparisons test was

conducted using OCT (CS+) stimulation as the control group to examine differences

between the other stimulus groups, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$; n = 9. (**C**) Scatter plots of

ΔF/F0 values derived from representative averaged calcium and cAMP images of each

γ compartment. These values are derived from the same dataset used in (**B**). The X-

axis represents the ΔF/F0 of calcium, while the Y-axis represents the ΔF/F0 of cAMP.

The individual points in the plot correspond to each pixel within the γ1 or γ2

compartment in the averaged ΔF/F0 images, and linear regression lines are plotted.

OCT (CS only): green, and OCT + Shock (CS + US): magenta. (**D**) The X-axis and Y-

axis represent the ΔF/F0 of calcium obtained by averaging odd frames and even

frames, respectively, from the same calcium imaging data set used in (**C**). The

individual points in the plot correspond to each pixel within the γ1 or γ2 compartment,

and linear regression lines are plotted. OCT (CS only): green, and OCT + Shock (CS +

US): magenta.

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Figure 4

Figure 4. The plastic changes of the cAMP code associated with aversive conditioning.

(**A**) Schematic representation of conditioning procedure. Sixteen seconds after the start

of the recording, a 3 second odor stimulus was presented to the fly. Following a delay

of 1.5 seconds from the onset of the odor presentation, an electric shock of 60 volts

was administered to the fly for a duration of 10 milliseconds. In a series of experiments,

OCT was paired with electric shock, while MCH and ACV were not (**B**). In another set

of experiments, MCH was paired with electric shock, while OCT and ACV were not (**C**).

(**B**, **C**) All the cAMP images in compartments γ1-5 were captured from the flies

expressing G-Flamp1 and jRGECO1b under the control of the MB364B driver. An

averaged raw intensity image of cAMP derived from 80 frames acquired during air

presentation for 40 s (upper left), and the ΔF/F0 image obtained by averaging the

responses (5 s, 10 frames) to electric shock (upper right) are shown. The images

displayed below depict the ΔF/F0 images obtained by averaging the neural responses

(5 s, 10 frames) to OCT (as CS+) during the pre-conditioning, first, second, and third

pairings, as well as post-conditioning. Additionally, the images illustrate the neural

responses to MCH (as CS-) during the same experimental procedure, but without

electric shock (**B**). Similarly, the corresponding images obtained when MCH was

presented as the CS+ and OCT as the CS- (**C**). (**D**, **E**) The ΔF/F0 images, obtained by

averaging the pre- and post-conditioning-responses to odors, were quantified. The

identical datasets employed in (**B**) and (**C**) were utilized for (**D**) and (**E**), respectively.

Additionally, the responses to ACV were included as the second CS-. The plots of

different compartments derived from the same sample are interconnected with dashed

lines. The bar graph illustrates the mean values. Asterisks indicate significant

differences. Dunn's multiple comparisons test for all pairwise combinations, $*p < 0.05$,

$**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$; n = 9 (**D**) and 8 (**E**). (**F**, **G**) For each odor, the

ratio of cAMP levels in the γ2 compartment to those in the γ4 or γ5 compartment was

determined, and these ratios are referred to as the γ2/4 cAMP ratio or the γ2/5 cAMP

ratio. The ratios obtained before and after the conditioning phase are then compared.

The same datasets used in (**D**) and (**E**) were utilized for (**F**) and (**G**), respectively.

Wilcoxon signed rank test, $**p < 0.01$; n=9 (**F**), 8 (**G**).

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MB364B-Gal4, Pink Flamindo, ExRai-AKAR2

Figure 5. The protein kinase A (PKA) activities coincide with the presence of cAMP.

(**A**) The ΔF/F0 images obtained by averaging the responses (5 s, 10 frames) in γ1-γ5

compartments during OCT, MCH or ACV presentation to the fly expressing Pink

Flamindo for cAMP detection and ExRai-AKAR2 for PKA activity detection under the

control of MB364B driver are shown. (**B**) Quantification of the averaged peak ΔF/F0

1087   images of cAMP (upper panels) and PKA activity (lower panels). The plots of different

1088   compartments derived from the same sample are connected by dashed lines. The bar

1089   graph represents the mean values. Significant differences are denoted with asterisks.

1090   Dunn's multiple comparisons test for all pairwise combinations, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$,

1091 $***p < 0.001$; $n = 7$.

Figure 6. Plasticity in the release of acetylcholine (ACh) from KCs associated with the

process of aversive conditioning. Flies expressing Pink Flamindo and GRAB_ACh

under the control of the MB364B-Gal4 driver were subjected to aversive conditioning,

following the procedure outlined in Figure 4. (**A**) The ΔF/F0 images, depicting the

averaged peak responses (10 frames for 5 s) of cAMP (left) and ACh (right) in γ1-γ5

compartments, were captured during the presentations of OCT (CS+), MCH (CS-), and

ACV (CS-) before (Pre) and after (Post) conditioning. (**B**) The ΔF/F0 images of cAMP

(left) and ACh (right) obtained by averaging the pre- and post-conditioning responses

to odors were quantified. The plots of different compartments derived from the same

sample are interconnected with dashed lines. The bar graph illustrates the mean

values. Asterisks indicate significant differences. Dunn's multiple comparisons test for

all pairwise combinations, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001; n = 8. (**C**) Comparisons

of the γ2/4 cAMP ratios before and after the conditioning phase for each odor (upper

panel). Similarly, the γ2/4 ACh ratios before and after the conditioning phase are

compared (lower panel). (**D**) Comparisons of the γ2/5 cAMP ratios before and after the

conditioning phase for each odor (upper panel). The γ2/5 ACh ratios before and after

the conditioning phase are compared (lower panel). (**C**, **D**) Wilcoxon signed rank test,

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01; n=8.

 Figure 7. (A) Exemplary ΔF/F0 images of averaged peak responses (10 frames for 5

s) of cAMP and ACh during the presentations of MCH, OCT, and ACV in the γ1-γ5

compartments of the Dop1R1 mutant flies expressing Pink Flamindo and GRAB_ACh

driven by the MB364B-Gal4 driver. (**B**) The ΔF/F0 images of cAMP and Ach, obtained

by averaging the odor responses of the flies described in (A), were quantified. The

plots of different compartments derived from the same sample are interconnected with

dashed lines. The bar graph illustrates the mean values. Asterisks indicate significant

differences. Dunn's multiple comparisons test for all pairwise combinations, *p < 0.05,

p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001; n = 13. (C**) The ΔF/F0 images of cAMP and

ACh, obtained by averaging the responses to odors in the γ2 compartment of the

Dop1R1 mutant described in (A), were quantified, and compared with those of the

genetic control (harboring the wild-type Dop1R1). Mann-Whitney U test, *p < 0.05, **p

< 0.01, ****p < 0.0001; n= 14 (control) and 13 (Dop1R1). (**D**) The ΔF/F0 images of

cAMP and ACh were obtained by averaging the responses immediately after (pre FSK)

and 2 minutes after (+ FSK) switching from standard saline to saline containing 100 μM

Forskolin (left). These and the following measurements were obtained in flies

expressing Pink Flamindo and GRAB$_{ACh}$ under the control of the MB364B-Gal4 driver.

The time series traces of cAMP (magenta) and ACh (green) are shown (right),

illustrating the changes in their levels after the switch to saline containing 100 μM

Forskolin. The line and shading represent the mean ± SEM. n = 8. (**E**) ΔF/F0 images of

averaged peak responses (10 frames for 5 s) of ACh during the presentation of OCT,

MCH, or ACV. These measurements were obtained under three conditions: standard

saline (Pre FSK), four minutes after switching to saline containing 100 µM Forskolin (+

FSK), and after returning to standard saline (Washout). (**F**) The averaged peak ΔF/F0

responses of ACh to OCT in pre-Forskolin, +Forskolin, and Washout conditions, as

depicted in (**E**), were quantified for each compartment. The plots of different conditions

derived from the same sample are interconnected with dashed lines. The bar graph

illustrates the mean values. Asterisks indicate significant differences. Dunn's multiple

comparisons test, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$; n = 8.

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Figure 8. The role of the cAMP signal in aversive olfactory memory. (**A**) Does cAMP

serve as a marker for coincidence detection? The γ lobe comprises approximately 700

Kenyon cells (KCs) and is partitioned into five compartments, and each receives its

own distinct dopaminergic innervation. Each olfactory stimulus elicits calcium transients

in a unique subset of approximately 20% of KCs and activates a specific subset of the

dopaminergic neurons. Consequently, KCs receive compartment-specific dopamine

signals along the entire length of the lobe, exhibiting distinct characteristics for each

odor. The release of dopamine occurs through volume transmission, leading to its

detection in a population of axons that spans nearly the entire breadth of the lobe. This

detection roughly coincides with the presence of cAMP. If the synthesis of cAMP is

significantly enhanced by calcium, then the axons with high calcium signals exhibit

elevated cAMP synthesis. Conversely, if calcium does not predominantly regulate

cAMP synthesis, then the axons activated by olfactory stimuli are not distinguished by

their cAMP levels. Our findings corroborate the latter hypothesis and indicate that

cAMP serves as a mediator of the dopamine signal. (B) cAMP code. cAMP levels in

each compartment depend on receiving dopamine conveying negative valence to the

γ1-3 compartments and positive valence to the γ4-5 compartments. The global

equilibrium of cAMP levels throughout the γ lobe could yield a comprehensive depiction

of the integrated valence, which can be portrayed as a two-dimensional image of cAMP

levels and designated as the cAMP code. KCs exert regulatory control over the

functions of their downstream targets; namely, the mushroom body output neurons

(MBONs), through the release of acetylcholine (ACh). cAMP serves as a negative

regulator of ACh release. In turn, the MBONs reciprocally modulate dopaminergic

activities, thereby establishing a complex DAN-KC-MBON recurrent feedback loop

(Adel and Griffith, 2021). (**C**) cAMP code and ACh release upon aversive learning.

When an odor A is associated with electric shock, the cAMP code of the odor A is

integrated with the cAMP code of the electric shock. It can be inferred that the relative

cAMP levels of the γ2 (corresponding to negative valence) to the γ4 or γ5

(corresponding to positive valence) compartment, the γ2/4 or γ2/5 cAMP ratio, may

have the potential to serve as a quantitative measure for evaluating the valence of an

olfactory stimulus for an individual. As the conditioning process advances, the

integrated cAMP code tilts towards a negative valence, culminating in the formation of

an aversively acquired cAMP code for the odor that persists even after conditioning.

The release of ACh from KCs is attenuated by cAMP, consequently establishing a

roughly antithetical relationship between the ACh release profile and the cAMP code

profile across compartments.