A competitive disinhibitory network for robust optic flow processing in *Drosophila*

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Summary

Many animals rely on optic flow for navigation, using differences in eye image velocity to detect deviations from their intended direction of travel. However, asymmetries in image velocity between the eyes are often overshadowed by strong, symmetric translational optic flow during navigation. Yet, the brain efficiently extracts these asymmetries for course control. While optic flow sensitive-neurons have been found in many animal species, far less is known about the postsynaptic circuits that support such robust optic flow processing. In the fly *Drosophila melanogaster*, a group of neurons called the horizontal system (HS) are involved in course control during highspeed translation. To understand how HS cells facilitate robust optic flow processing, we identified central networks that connect to HS cells using full brain electron microscopy datasets. These networks comprise three layers: convergent inputs from different, optic flow-sensitive cells, a middle layer with reciprocal, and lateral inhibitory interactions among different interneuron classes, and divergent output projecting to both the ventral nerve cord (equivalent to the vertebrate spinal cord), and to deeper regions of the fly

brain. By combining two-photon optical imaging to monitor free calcium dynamics,

manipulating GABA receptors and modeling, we found that lateral disinhibition between brain

hemispheres enhance the selectivity to rotational visual flow at the output layer of the network.

Moreover, asymmetric manipulations of interneurons and their descending outputs induce

drifts during highspeed walking, confirming their contribution to steering control. Together,

these findings highlight the importance of competitive disinhibition as a critical circuit

mechanism for robust processing of optic flow, which likely influences course control and

heading perception, both critical functions supporting navigation.

Keywords

37 Optic flow, self-motion estimation, Drosophila, recurrent inhibition, steering control, heading

38 perception, navigation

Introduction

As we navigate through space, our senses are continuously bombarded with a variety

of stimuli from the environment and our own movements. Even for seemingly straightforward

information, such as determining if we are veering to the left or right, our brains must extract

and process the relevant signals from all incoming inputs to reorient according to our goals.

Sensorimotor circuits that combine feedforward excitation with lateral inhibition have

frequently been associated with this type of binary categorization[1,2] and behavioral choice[3–5].

However, the precise mechanisms by which sensory signals are transformed within these

sensorimotor circuits are poorly understood.

Many animals rely on coherent patterns of image velocity across the retina to navigate

according to goals. These patterns result from the relative motion between the moving

observer and the surrounding scene, commonly known as optic flow[6,7]. The specific optic

flow experienced by the observer depends on the direction and speed of the eyes, head, and

body. Therefore, optic flow provides valuable information about gaze, heading and traveling

directions, allowing for a comparison with the intended trajectories for course control. Indeed,

optic flow-sensitive neurons, which poses large monocular receptive fields sensitive to

different axes of movement[8–11] are found across the animal kingdom[12–17] and have been

implicated in heading perception, and gaze and course control[18–23]. Additionally, optic-flow

sensitive neurons integrate multimodal information to distinguish between self-generated and

externally generated information[13,24–27]. However, for accurate extraction of self-motion

information, binocular integration between the eyes is also necessary. While some lateral

interactions within optic flow-sensitive neurons have been identified[17,28–31], the precise

mechanisms through which postsynaptic circuits integrate bilateral optic flow information to

disambiguate self-motion and contribute to goal-directed navigation remain largely unknown.

The fly *Drosophila melanogaster* offers a valuable opportunity to investigate the circuit

mechanisms involved in processing optic flow robustly. With its impressive visually guided

behaviors, versatile genetic toolkit, comprehensive brain electron microscopy datasets, and

well-characterized populations of optic flow-sensitive neurons, *Drosophila* allows for a

systematic identification, and precise dissection of these mechanisms. In *Drosophila*, optic

flow-sensitive neurons called lobula plate tangential cells (LPTCs) are found in deep layers of

the fly's optic lobe and project to premotor regions of the brain. Certain LPTCs, like the

horizontal system (HS) cells and H2 cells are sensitive to horizontal optic flow[32–34]. They

receive non-visual signals related to angular velocity, which enhance their selectivity to the

fly's rotations during spontaneous walking[27,33]. HS and H2 cells can also drive rotations of the

fly[27,33,35], implicating them in course control. Recent work has shown that HS cells play a

significant role in steering an exploratory fly, particularly during high-speed walking[35,36], when

optic flow is dominated by symmetric translational components, which may overshadow the

asymmetric ones caused by the fly's unexpected rotations. Thus, investigating HS cells and

their postsynaptic pathways provides an opportunity to understand how the network process

optic flow robustly, even in situations with a low signal-to-noise ratio.

In this study, we conducted a systematic analysis of the structure and function of

synaptic partners of HS and H2 at their central axon terminals. Our findings revealed that HS

and H2 cells form a subnetwork comprising three layers, including an input layer of converging

LPTCs, a middle layer of several classes of GABAergic interneurons, and divergent outputs

projecting back to the lobula plate (feedback), to the ventral nerve cord (VNC, the insect

analogous of the vertebrate spinal cord), or to deeper premotor regions of the fly brain. The

inhibitory layer forms recurrent connections with LPTCs and provides lateral inhibition across

the two brain hemispheres. Using two-photon calcium imaging of the newly identified

interneurons along with manipulating GABA receptors and modeling, we found that a lateral

disinhibition motif enhances rotational sensitivity at the network's output layer, supporting

steering control in freely exploring flies. Overall, our study unveils the layered anatomical

structure of optic flow networks and their strong modulation by inhibitory feedback and

elucidates how feedforward excitation combined with lateral disinhibition enables robust

extraction of asymmetries in optic flow signals between the eyes to guide reorientation of a

roaming fly.

Results

A class of optic flow-sensitive descending neuron contributes to steering during high-

speed walking

Course deviations can be determined by analyzing the differences in the pattern of

optic flow between the fly's eyes using binocular integration. However, these differences vary

with the fly's walking speed. Even when the deviation from a straight course is the same, flies

moving at low versus high speed induce distinct optic flow patterns (**Fig. 1a**, colored

rectangles). At low walking speeds, asymmetries in the optic flow can be easily detected, but

at high speed, these asymmetries are largely reduced due to the prominent translational

components in the optic flow (**Fig. 1a**). We currently lack a complete understanding of how

the networks responsible for processing rotational optic flow estimate asymmetries that

remain consistent regardless of the fly speed, enabling reliable walking control.

The horizontal system cells (HS cells), whose receptive fields are predominately

monocular[32], play a role in steering, especially during high-speed walking[35,36]. Recent work

has shown that these cells interact laterally (across hemispheres) via gap junction coupling

through an unidentified interneuron[30], potentially improving the detection of asymmetric optic

flow. If these lateral interactions enhanced the detection of asymmetric optic flow, output

neurons from the HS network should display increased sensitivity to rotational optic flow and

binocular activity compared to HS cells.

To explore this idea, we compared the response properties of the descending neuron

DNp15[30,37] to those of their input HS cells concerning optic flow (**Fig. 1b,c**). We conducted *in*

vivo, 2-photon calcium imaging in immobilized flies within the inferior posterior slope (IPS)

region of the fly brain (**Fig. 1c,** see **Methods**) while presenting binocular asymmetric

horizontal motion (i.e., stimuli representing rotations along the yaw axis) or binocular

symmetric horizontal motion (i.e., stimuli representing translational-like movement along the

forward direction (**Supplementary Video 1,** "Front-to-back/Back-to-front" and "Yaw left/right"

stimuli, respectively). In addition, to identify binocular interactions, we compare the binocular

responses of HS and DNp15 cells to those induce by monocular stimuli.

We found that DNp15 exhibited response profiles and velocity tuning to binocular

asymmetric optic flow like HS cells, likely due to their electrical coupling[37] (**Fig. 1-S1a-c,**

Supplementary Video 2). However, DNp15 activity was more influenced by binocular

interactions compared to HS cells and showed a small but detectable response to

contralateral back-to-front visual motion (**Fig. 1d, 1-S1c**), suggesting an increased selectivity

to rotational optic flow. To describe the relative selectivity of HS and DNp15 to rotatonal vs.

translational stimuli, we defined a qualitative parameter called the discrimination index, which

compares the magnitude of the responses of a cell to rotational vs translational stimuli (see

Methods, **Fig. 1-S1e**). Overall, DNp15 demonstrated enhanced selectivity to rotational stimuli

than translational-like stimuli, unlike HS cells (**Fig. 1d,e, 1-S1d,e**). Thus, the network

associated with HS cells seems well suited to robustly detect asymmetries in binocular optic

flow for course control.

To test this idea, we investigated the role of DNp15 in walking control. DNp15 is

thought to contribute to gaze stabilization[37,38] and directly projects to dorsal neuropiles within

the tectulum of the ventral nerve cord[39] (VNC, the insect analogous of the spinal cord). Gaze

control depends on head-body coordination and course control[38]. Thus, we directly tested the

impact of DNp15 silencing on steering (course control) during highspeed walking by

expressing the inward rectifying potassium channel Kir2.1 in different configurations and

observing the walking paths of exploratory flies[38]. We created flies with unperturbed activity

of DNp15 (controls, i.e., no expression of Kir2.1), with balanced silenced DNp15 (bilateral

expression of Kir2.1), and with asymmetry in the activity of DNp15 (unilateral expression of

Kir2.1) (**Fig. 1-S1f**, see **Methods**). Flies typically exhibit runs of high forward velocity or turns

of low forward velocity (body saccades) under these experimental conditions (**Fig. 1f**, see also

Fig. 6a). We evaluated course control by calculating path deviation per run bout, or by

examining any biases during body saccades (**Fig. 1f,g**, **Fig. 1-S1g**, see **Methods**). Flies with

both DNp15 silenced or with no silencing did not show any bias during body saccades or runs

(**Fig. 1f,g** and **Fig. 1-S1g**, none or both silenced DNp15). However, unilateral silencing of

DNp15 resulted in contralateral path deviation during runs (**Fig. 1f,g**), while no biases were

observed during body saccades (**Fig. 1-S1g**, left or right silenced DNp15). These findings

suggest that asymmetry in activity of left vs. right DNp15 leads to steering biases during

forward walking. Furthermore, the enhanced selectivity of DNp15 to rotational vs. translational

optic flow implies that these neurons could detect minor differences in optic flow across the

eyes, thereby contributing to steering at high forward speed. However, the specific circuits

and mechanisms responsible for conveying such selectivity supporting robust optic flow

processing in DNp15 remain unknown.

HS, H2 and VS cells connect distinctively to two parallel central networks

To uncover the circuit and mechanisms responsible for robust rotational optic flow

processing, we investigated the downstream central synaptic partners of well-characterized

rotational optic flow sensitive cells, such as HS, H2, and VS cells. We used a complete female

adult fly brain (FAFB) electron microscopy (EM) dataset[40] (**Fig. 1-S2a-b**, see **Methods**) to

map the location of chemical synapses at the axon terminals of these LPTCs. By manually

tracing and identifying pre and postsynaptic partners (**Fig. 1-S2c**, see **Methods** for tracing

strategy), we found that HS, H2 and VS cells establish both input and output synaptic sites,

revealing central modulation of axonal activity in HS, H2 and VS cells (**Fig. 1-S2c-d**). We also

observed that these cells form few strong connections and numerous weak connections with

their synaptic inputs and outputs (**Fig. 1-S3a,b**). These results were confirmed using two

additional EM datasets with semi-automatically reconstructed neurons, FlyWire[41] and

Hemibrain[42] (**Fig. 1-S2a,c,d, S3**, **Supplementary Table 1**). Hence, our manual tracing

approach effectively identified important synaptic partners of HS, VS, and H2 cells. We

defined neurons providing more than 10 synaptic inputs to or receiving more than 35 synaptic

outputs from LPTCs as strong synaptic partners (**Fig. 1-S2d**, black lines).

To analyze the central networks involving these LPTCs, we computed a connectivity

matrix among all identified strong partners in the FAFB dataset (**Fig. 2-S1**, see **Methods**).

While the matrix displayed rather sparse connections with weak or no connections between

most neuron pairs, certain pairs exhibited strong unidirectional connections with hundreds of

synapses (**Fig. 2-S1**). We performed a hierarchical cluster analysis on the pairwise number

of synapses (**Fig. 2-S1**, see **Methods**), and identified three primary clusters: HS and VS cells

with the interneuron IVLPT8, and two clusters forming separate networks with HS and VS

cells (**Fig. 2-S1** and **2a**). Importantly, this network structure remains mostly unchanged by

thresholding (**Fig. 2-S2**).

The VS network demonstrated strong connections between VS and central

interneurons (**Fig. 2a**), with output pathways diverging into descending pathways, including

neck motor neurons, and descending neurons (DNs), and feedback pathways to the ocelli,

the secondary optical system of flies[43,44]. On the other hand, the H2-HS network exhibited

strong connections among central interneurons, H2 and HS cells, and the GABAergic

feedback CH cells[45,46] (**Fig. 2a**). Like the VS network, the outputs of the HS-H2 network

diverged, with a descending pathway defined by several DNs projecting to leg, neck, and

haltere neuropiles in the VNC[39,47], and an ascending pathway of interneurons projecting to the

lateral accessory lobes (LAL).

The VS connections represented only a small proportion of total connections within

the H2-HS network and vice versa (**Fig. 2b**). This suggests that both networks largely operate

independently from each other. Notably, the DNs of the HS-H2 network are different from

those of the VS network, pointing towards parallel operation. Two DN outputs of the HS-H2

network, DNa02 and DNp15 have been previously characterized (**Fig. 1**)[37,47]. These neurons

are sensitive to fly rotations (or their visual consequence) and contribute to steering. The LAL,

the other output region of the HS-H2 network, is a higher-order premotor area of the insect

brain, thought to contribute to steering[48,49]. Together, these findings strongly support the

involvement the HS-H2 network in steering control.

Recurrent connections define the intermediate layer structure of both networks

The two networks, though largely non-overlapping, converge at the level of LPTC cells,

connecting to a small set of interneurons within the intermediate layers of the networks (i.e.,

between LPTCs and their outputs). We identified five distinct classes of LPTC input cells within

these intermediate layers that provide specific, recurrent input to HS, H2 and VS cells, thereby defining the structure of the two networks (**Fig. 2-S3a-c**). Three of the five classes are collectively defined as lobula plate tangential cell recurrent neurons (LPTCrns), due to their shared soma location and tract, indicative of a common developmental origin. We differentiate them based on anatomical features (**Fig. 2-S3b-d**).

Crab LPTCrn cells (**cLPTCrn**), central components of the VS network (**Fig. 2b**), extend prominent projections to both hemispheres of the PS and connect reciprocally with most VS and HS cells (**Fig. 2c**). Bilateral LPTCrn cells (bLPTCrn) also project to both hemispheres of the PS, but their contralateral projections are limited to the dorsal area of the PS (**Fig. 2-S3b**). Unilateral LPTCrn cells (uLPTCrn) are prominent components of the H2-HS network (**Fig. 2b**). They project to the ipsilateral side and exhibit strong reciprocal connections with HS, H2, and VS1-2, and VS7,8 cells (**Fig. 2c**).

The remaining two LPTC input classes specifically connect to HS and H2 cells. The first class involves bilateral inferior posterior slope neurons (bIPS, **Fig 2-S3b**), which receive strong convergent projections from ipsilateral HS and contralateral H2 cells and send projections to the contralateral HSN and HSE cells (**Fig. 2c**). Notably, the two contralateral CH cells are the strongest downstream partners of bIPS, receiving over 450 synapses from bIPS as their strongest input (**Fig. 2-S1**). This provides strong anatomical evidence for a central feedback pathway within this network. The second class of interneurons selectively connects to the contralateral H2 cells at their axon terminals (**Fig. 2c**), referred as H2 recurrent neurons (H2rn) as they receive input back from contralateral H2 cells.

The primary brain regions that send information to the intermediate layers of the VS and HS-H2 are the PS, gnathal ganglion (GNG), and optic lobes. Additionally, all five cell types receive direct ascending input from the VNC (**Fig. 2-S3e, Fig. 3b**). Thus, the intermediate layers may operate as both integrators and broadcasters: they likely integrate multimodal signals to modulate the optic flow sensitive networks, and broadcast optic flow

signals to numerous regions of the fly's CNS. The recurrent connections between LPTCs and

different classes of LPTC input neurons in the central brain suggest that these interneurons

possess distinct optic flow sensitivities based on their LPTC inputs, integrate extraretinal

signals in addition to optic flow, broadcast modulatory signals from premotor centers, and

shape the optic flow sensitivity of output neurons. Different sets of central interneurons within

the intermediate layers of the two networks may contribute in different visual-motor contexts.

In the following sessions, we focus on the functional properties of neurons within the different

layers of the HS-H2 network, and how optic flow signals are transformed to enhance DNp15's

selectivity to horizontal optic flow compared to HS cells.

The H2-HS network exhibit responses to optic flow that are not entirely predicted by their LPTC inputs

To understand how the enhanced selectivity to rotational optic flow in DNp15 emerges

from the structure of the HS-H2 network, we characterized the optic flow responses of the

intermediate layer of the H2-HS network, which connect to DNp15 (**Fig. 2-S3f, Fig. 3a**). To

achieve cell-type-specific genetic access, we used traced EM skeletons to identify neurons in

transgenic line libraries (see **Methods, Fig. 3-S1a**). In vivo, neural recordings were conducted

under non-behaving conditions, focusing specifically on optic flow processing while minimizing

the potential impact of non-visual signals present in both LPTCs[25,27,33,50,51] and the network's

interneurons (**Fig. 3b**). We characterized neural responses to various patterns of optic flow

(**Supplementary Video 1**) by measuring calcium dynamics at axon terminals (e.g., **Fig. 3c**,

see **Methods** for choice of calcium indicators).

bIPS, uLPTCrn, and H2rn cells displayed responses to horizontal optic flow and

velocity tuning that showed similarities and differences compared to their inputs HS and H2

cells, (**Fig. 3d, Fig. 3-S2, Supplementary Video 2)**. First, uLPTCrn cells, which receive direct

input from VS (**Fig. 2c**), exhibited minimal or negative calcium signals to pitch and roll optic

flow, which would be expected to excite their presynaptic inputs from VS cells (**Fig. 3-S2a**).

Second, each class of interneurons displayed characteristic velocity tuning. While uLPTCrns

are more sensitive to slower than faster speeds, bIPS exhibit larger responses to intermediate

speeds, and H2rns are more sensitive to faster than slower speeds, in contrast to their

presynaptic H2 cells. These results suggest that cell autonomous properties or additional

inputs to these interneurons modulate visual responses of uLPTCrns and H2rns, either

through direct connections from other optic lobe neurons, or indirectly through inputs from the

central brain (**Fig. 3b**).

Further evidence for network-based modulation of visual inputs came from the

analysis of the responses of interneurons to monocular stimuli. bIPS and uLPTCrn cells

receive converging inputs from ipsilateral HS and contralateral H2 neurons (**Fig. 3a**), which

respond to progressive (front-to-back) and regressive (back-to-front) monocular motion,

respectively (**Fig. 3-S2c**). Accordingly, one would expect both cell types to respond to

ipsilateral progressive and contralateral regressive stimuli. However, while both cell types

responded to progressive stimuli, they showed minimal responses to contralateral regressive

motion (**Fig. 3-S2c**), unlike their H2 inputs. Conversely, H2rn cells responded to contralateral

regressive motion, as excepted from their inputs from H2 cells, but they also responded to

progressive motion (**Fig. 3-S2c**) despite not receiving direct input from HS cells. Thus,

additional inputs from the central brain likely convey visual information indirectly to H2rn cells.

Nevertheless, responses to binocular asymmetric stimuli were larger than monocular

horizontal motion in all cells (**Fig. 3d-e**), suggesting binocular interactions at the intermediate

layer. Together, these findings demonstrate that the sensitivity to optic flow in different classes

of interneurons within the H2-HS network are modulated by network activity and their central

inputs, with strong binocular interactions. Specifically, both uLPTCrns and bIPS display

binocular optic flow selectivity that cannot be entirely explained by their direct H2 inputs.

Neurons within the H2-HS network show distinctive optic flow selectivity

The lack of responses to contralateral regressive motion in bIPS and uLPTCrn

suggests that these interneurons might be equally sensitive to translational and rotational

optic flow. To test this idea, we examined their responses to binocular symmetric and

asymmetric stimuli (**Fig. 3-S2d**). We presented binocular translational motion or binocular

symmetrical horizontal motion (translation-like stimulus). The former stimuli contain

progressive or regressive horizontal components combined with vertical downward or upward

components, respectively, to mimic the visual consequence of the body's forward or backward

translation. The latter stimuli contain only horizontal progressive or regressive components,

representing what a horizontal-selective system may respond to in the context of translation

(**Supplementary Video 1,** "Progressive/regressive" and "Front-to-back/Back-to-front",

respectively). The three interneurons exhibited characteristic response profiles to these stimuli

(**Fig. 3d,e Fig. 3-S2d**). bIPS was most active with binocular symmetric horizontal stimuli

compared to translational progressive stimuli (**Fig. 3d,e**). uLPTCrn cells showed minimal or

negative responses to translational patterns, while H2rns showed positive response to both

regardless of the direction of motion, albeit weakly (**Fig. 3d,e, 3-S2d**).

To describe the relative selectivity of HS, H2, bIPS, uLPTCrns, and H2rns to rotational

vs. translational stimuli by calculating the discrimination index (see **Methods**, **Fig. 1-S1e**, **3f**).

HS and H2 responded to both rotational and translational optic flow. However, they were

relatively, albeit weakly, more selective to rotational optic flow, resulting in a slightly negative

discrimination index closer to zero compared to uLPTCrn and H2rn cells, which showed

enhanced selectivity for rotational optic flow, particularly when compared to the more

naturalistic translational optic flow. bIPS also responded to both rotational and translational

patterns in a selective manner; however, bIPS exhibited a relatively stronger sensitivity to

binocular horizontal symmetric stimuli and thus have a discrimination index skewed more

towards translations compared to rest of the H2-HS network cells (**Fig. 3f**).

We expanded our translational optic flow characterization (**Fig. 3-S3a**,

Supplementary Video 1) and observed that bIPS, like HS and H2 cells, exhibited its strongest

translational sensitivity to compound optic flow-fields, with sideslip and forward components

(**Fig. 3-S3b-d**). However, translational patterns with backwards motion which elicited activity

in H2 cells (**Fig. 3-S3c**) have minimal impact on bIPS. H2rns and uLPTCrns on the other hand,

minimally increased or decreased their activity during forward and backward translations (**Fig.**

3-S3e-f), becoming mostly sensitive to changes in sideslip translations (**Fig. 3-S3g**). Taken

together, these results demonstrate that neurons downstream of HS and H2 cells have

increased selectivities to characteristic patterns of optic flow. The question remains as to how

a neuron like bIPS, which is embedded in a rotational-sensitive network, enhances its

selectivity for translational or translational-like optic flow patterns, and what function this

response property provides to the network.

Inhibitory interactions fine tune optic flow sensitivity in bIPS

We hypothesized that the lack of responses to contralateral regressive motion in bIPS,

and its enhanced selectivity to translational optic flow could arise from recurrent interactions

between excitatory LPTCs and inhibitory interneurons. For example, excitation provided by

H2 to bIPS could be suppressed by indirect, H2-dependent inhibition. To identify possible

candidates, we analyzed the predicted neurotransmitter[52] for bIPS input neurons (**Fig. 4a**).

The two main inputs to bIPS are uLPTCrn and H2rn, both of which are GABAergic (**Fig. 4-S1**)

and receive prominent inputs from H2 (**Fig. 4b**). The subcellular organization of H2, HS,

uLPTCrn and H2rn inputs relative to the root point of bIPS (**Fig. 4-S2a**) suggests that these

neurons tend to make synapses closer to the root point than other bIPS inputs (**Fig. 4-S2b-**

c). H2rn synaptic inputs onto bIPS tend to be closer to H2 inputs than HS inputs (**Fig. 4-S2d**),

often forming microcircuit motifs with H2 (**Fig. 4-S2e, g**) but not with HS cells (**Fig. 4-S2f, h**).

Thus, this local connectivity structure could suppress H2-related excitation through H2rns, but

it may not fully account for the lack of responses to contralateral regressive motion in bIPS

(**Fig. 3-S2c**). Another possibility is that both H2rns and uLPTCrns contribute to this

suppression.

To test this idea, we perturbed fast-acting GABA signaling in bIPS using the FlpStop

genetic strategy[53]. We targeted the Resistance to dieldrin (Rdl) gene[54] since it is essential for

functional $GABA_A$ receptors[55,56] (GABAARs). Overall, bIPS' responses to optic flow Rdl-

FlpStop flies were decreased relative to control flies (**Fig. 4c-e**), including lack of negative

calcium responses to non-preferred directions of stimulus motion (**Fig. 4c-d**). Notably, the

effect of disrupting $GABA_A$ signaling was most evident for translational and translational-like

optic flow (**Fig. 4c-e**). This caused the discrimination index between translational-like and

rotational optic flow responses to skew towards zero (i.e., equal discriminability), while the

discrimination index between translation and rotational optic flow remained unaffected (**Fig.**

4f). These results suggest that the enhanced selectivity to horizontal binocular symmetric

motion, as well as the responses to the non-preferred directions of motion are mediated by

GABAARs in bIPS. However, contralateral regressive responses that drive H2 activity remain

unaffected under Rdl-FlpStop (**Fig. 4c**, "left CW"), indicating that signals from H2 are gated

by other mechanisms. Taken together, these findings show that GABAergic inhibition

modulates bIPS' selectivity to binocular symmetric optic flow within the network. We propose

that this selectivity may play a key role in enhancing the asymmetries in the activity of left

versus right postsynaptic partners, particularly in the sensory context of translational optic flow

where the visual input becomes more symmetric (**Fig. 1**).

Reciprocal inhibitory connections in the middle layer of the H2-HS network promote

competition between the left and right sides for steering control

Our Rdl-FlpStop experiments suggest that inhibitory input onto bIPS enhances its

responses to binocular symmetric stimuli. Because bIPS is an inhibitory neuron, its selectivity

may facilitate the detection of minor binocular asymmetries at the output layer of the network.

However, bIPS is embedded in a reciprocal motif with contralateral uLPTCrns (**Fig. 3a**),

making it challenging to understand the role of this motif in a dynamic setting like locomotion.

Therefore we implemented a phenomenological model agent[33] constrained by the connectivity

structure of the HS-H2 network (**Fig. 5, 5-S1**, see **Methods**), to study the role of bIPS and

uLPTCrns on steering control. Our agent processes horizontal motion to guide steering of a

virtual fly, like an exploratory real fly[38]. We built a model with four input channels, each

containing classical visual motion detectors[28], and the core cross-inhibitory circuit architecture

of the H2-HS network (**Fig. 5a**). The model was tuned to match the real neural data for

horizontal motion stimuli (see **Methods**, **Fig. 5-S1a-c** and **5b**).

We tested the effect of removing the inhibitory input to bIPS in the model by removing

ipsilateral uLPTCrns inputs. This manipulation abolished the enhanced responses of bIPS to

binocular symmetric stimuli (**Fig. 5c**) and affected the discriminability of the modeled cell to

rotational vs translational-like stimuli, like in the real fly (**Fig. 5d**). Based on these results, we

concluded that this simplified core model architecture, combining direct excitation with lateral

disinhibition, can replicate the visual responses of the input and middle layers of the H2-HS

subnetwork.

Next, we tested the contribution of the lateral inhibition provided by bIPS to the output

responses of the network in the context of course control. This agent fly compares the activity

of a left and right pair of DNs, akin DNp15, to impose steering control (**Fig. 5e**). Removing

bIPS from the model reduced the asymmetry between left and right DNp15 cells, leading to a

reduced ability to discriminate asymmetries in binocular horizontal motion during translations

at high speed (**Fig. 5f**). Removing both uLPTCrns and bIPS further reduced the asymmetry

between left and right DNp15 activity down to the level of HS. Like DNp15, activity of uLPTCrn

cells across the two eyes also became more symmetric upon removing bIPS (**Fig. 5f**).

Conversely, removing uLPTCrn cells made bIPS less sensitive to horizontal symmetric

binocular motion (**Fig. 5c**). Thus, the reciprocal inhibitory and lateral interactions within the

middle layer of the H2-HS network support enhanced sensitivity to differences between the

eyes at the output layer in the context of translations. Indeed, the asymmetry in DNp15 and

uLPTCrn cells remained high in ranges of forward velocities typically observed in exploratory

flies, and we propose that this is aided by the increased symmetric activity in bIPS as a

function of translation speed (**Fig. 5g**).

To test the direct contribution of bIPS to steering in the context of highspeed

translation, we allowed our agent fly to freely explore a virtual arena where the fly's trajectory

was determined by bouts of straight walking (forward runs) and rapid turns (saccades) away

from the walls, similar to real flies exploring a comparable environment (**Fig. 6a, 5-S1d,** see

Methods). As expected by model design, 'silencing' individual DNp15 cells predicted the

angular bias observed in real flies under individual DNp15 silencing (**Fig. 6b,** see also **Fig.**

1i). Silencing individual bIPS neurons in the model induced biases during forward runs and

performing the similar perturbation in real flies lead to similar results (**Fig. 6c, 6-S1a**). This

finding demonstrated that asymmetries between left and right bIPS activity, consistent with

the neuron's translational optic flow selectivity (**Fig. 3-S3**), are sufficient to bias the course

direction of walking flies (**Fig. 6c**). Consistent with the model, bilateral manipulations of activity

of bIPS did not affect the course of forward runs of real flies (**Fig. 6d**).

In summary, our findings support the idea of a central multilayer network that monitors

rotational components of optic flow during translation and that amplifies asymmetric activity

between right- vs. left outputs by lateral, competitive disinhibition, thereby increasing the

rotational signal even in the context of prominent translational optic flow (**Fig. 6e**). This

reciprocal, lateral inhibition therefore supports robust optic flow processing and increases the

performance of networks contributing to course control, two functions that are especially

important while walking at high speed.

Discussion

In this study we investigated how visuomotor circuits discriminate sensory signals in challenging circumstances imposed by an animal's own locomotion. Through a combination of full-brain EM reconstruction, modeling, optical imaging and behavior experiments, we discovered a multi-layer network in the *Drosophila* central brain responsible for robust optic flow processing and steering of exploring flies based. The first layer consists of optic flow sensitive visual projection neurons, which form two networks with distinct sets of interneurons and outputs. Both networks exhibit specific and recurrent connections between LPTCs and a set of GABAergic inhibitory interneurons. Furthermore, there are critical reciprocal and lateral interactions among the middle layer and across the hemispheres. The output layers receive direct and indirect connections from the input layer, with the indirect pathway strongly influenced by lateral disinhibition of the middle layer. This configuration allows the output layer to generate a robust estimate of the fly's rotations, as indicated by their visual consequence. Our findings unveils a network motif of competitive disinhibition[4] that enhances the detection of asymmetries in optic flow across the eyes, enabling course control even in the presence of highly symmetric bilateral visual motion cues (**Fig. 6e**).

Parallel networks process visual feedback in the fly brain

Until now, the few identified neck motor and descending outputs of HS and VS cells have been shown to connect to either HS or VS cells[30,37,57,58] (CNMN6[59] being the single exception). As such, HS and VS cells have been proposed to contribute to movement control through largely parallel pathways. However, if downstream circuits of these LPTCs do not converge, how can flies accurately estimate their self-movement when their natural maneuvers during locomotion involve multiple axes of rotation and translation? By identifying the major synaptic partners of HS, H2 and VS cells in the central brain (**Fig. 2**) we have found that these LPTCs operate largely in parallel, connecting to distinct sets of descending, neck

motor and central brain output neurons. However, HS, H2 and VS cells also converge onto

anatomically distinct classes of GABAergic interneurons in the posterior slope. These

interneurons recurrently connect to different and complementary combinations of HS, H2 and

VS, suggesting the integration of orthogonal axes of optic flow at the central brain (**Fig. 3**).

We propose that this partially overlapping recurrent motif enables accurate processing of

naturalistic optic flow, modulating the concerted activity of LPTCs based on distinct visuomotor

conditions, and other internal contexts. Indeed, the identified inhibitory classes receive inputs

from motor and premotor areas of the fly CNS, including the VNC, PS, and GNG (**Fig. 2-S3**).

This feedback structure indicates strong processing of multimodal signals to differentially

modulate the activity of LPTCs and their postsynaptic outputs. These outputs likely contribute

to different motor programs and higher-order functions. For example, outputs of the H2-HS

network such as DNa02[47], DNp15[30,37] and VCNMN[57,60,61] have all been proposed to control

rotations of the body and the head along the yaw axis, while outputs of the VS subnetwork

such as DNp20 and ocelli have been implicated in gaze stabilization control along the roll

axis[60,62,63]. Each network project to neck-, leg-, and haltere-related regions in the VNC,

implicating LPTCs in the control of head and body movement independently but likely within

the context of head-body coordinated (gaze) motor programs occurring during exploratory

walking[38,64] and flight[65]. Additionally, output pathways that bridge LPTC activity with higher-

order brain regions, such as lateral accessory lobe and central complex via PS047, can

provide accurate internal self-motion estimates for heading perception and path integration

during navigation[66–69].

GABAergic inhibition modulates asymmetries in visual motion processing

Three cell types in the intermediate layers of H2-HS subnetwork, namely bIPS,

uLPTCrn and H2rn cells, exhibit optic flow sensitivities that are only partially explained by their

upstream LPTCs. This finding indicates that additional inputs influence their optic flow

sensitivity (**Fig. 3**). We have identified one group of such inputs: reciprocal connections among

the three cell types. These connections play a critical role in transforming optic flow signals

within the middle layer. For example, when fast acting GABAergic inputs to bIPS are

disrupted, the negative response caused by non-preferred directions of optic flow is eliminated

(**Fig. 4**). This effect is similar to the modulation of non-preferred visual motion responses in

the fly early visual system[70,71]. Furthermore, the same perturbation reduces bIPS' selectivity

to symmetric horizontal optic flow. Our constrained model suggests that this reduction is

partially caused by the inhibitory population of uLPTCrns, thereby likely affecting the

enhanced sensitivity to rotational optic flow by the output of the network. However, and

contrary to the expectations based by the connectivity structure, rapid GABAergic inputs do

not influence bIPS's responses to regressive, back-to-front optic flow. Although bIPS receive

strong connections from H2, signals from these synapses are not transmitted under non-

behaving conditions. One possibility is that the GABAergic population of H2rns controls this

signaling through other GABA receptors in bIPS. Alternatively, the gating of regressive signals

from H2 may involve other mechanisms, including neuromodulation. Further investigation will

explore the conditions under which bIPS respond to regressive information, which may render

the neuron more sensitive to asymmetric optic flow stimuli. Nevertheless, this finding

highlights the importance of combining EM connectivity with physiology to uncover context-

dependent modulation of brain circuits.

Reciprocal inhibition in optic flow networks supports corrective steering

A straightforward circuit for angular course control based on optic flow can be created

by connecting two rotational optic flow detectors (e.g., HS cells) separately to two rotational

actuators (e.g., DNp15). Such a system performs well when there is a significant difference in

activity levels between the two sensors. However, it performs poorly in detecting rotations

when the animal is moving forward at high speeds, which is surprisingly the condition where

HS cells contribute the most to corrective steering[35,36]. Furthermore, locomotion requires

continuous adjustments due to internal sources of noise, such as muscular and sensorimotor

noise, as well as uncertainties in the environment. These adjustments cause the optic flow to

be non-stationary, even when the fly intends to maintain a fixed course[72].

We propose two critical roles for the inhibitory motifs identified in the H2-HS network.

Firstly, it allows comparing the activity state of LPTCs across the two hemispheres and

provides cross-inhibition to silence competing inhibitory neurons, leading to a binary choice of

turning left or right. Similar circuit motifs with cross-inhibitory neurons in the hindbrain of

Zebrafish[73] and the vertebrate superior colliculus[74] bias angular movements in opposite

directions when activated or inhibited asymmetrically. Our experiments with bIPS yield

analogous results (**Fig. 6c**). Secondly, the inhibitory motifs can adjust the gain of LPTCs

during highspeed locomotion, allowing them to flexibly respond to changes in external and

internal conditions. Notably, bIPS provides prominent contralateral inputs to inhibitory

feedback CH cells, which project from the posterior slope back the lobula plate. CH cells

receive more than 450 synapses from bIPS (**Fig. 2-S1**). It is possible that bIPS corresponds

to the previously hypothesized *Horizontal unknown* cell, which provides binocular information

to CH cells through contralateral inhibition[75], thus playing a major role in integrating horizontal

motion from both eyes. Given its selectivity and inputs from motor and premotor regions, bIPS

is well suited for monitoring the fly's motor state, modulating descending neurons, feedback

pathways, and central pathways during periods of straightforward walking. This class of cells

also instructs optic flow processing, self-motion estimation and steering in the presence of

angular drifts. Therefore, bIPS contributes to the modulation of optic flow processing in a

multilayer manner.

Estimation of self-motion from the eyes down to premotor and motor centers

Optic flow-sensitive neurons have long been proposed to be integral components of

vital visuomotor circuits that enable animals to accurately perceive heading and control their

gaze and steering. In flies, while we have made substantial progress in understanding how

light reaching the photoreceptors are processed to detect visual motion and stimulate HS, H2,

VS cells and other LPTCs[28,76], our knowledge of how downstream pathways are organized

and process optic flow has remained far more limited. With the comprehensive description of

the HS, H2 and VS networks outlined here, and the visual and behavioral analysis of neurons

within these networks, we now possess a framework to establish mechanistic links between

visual activity in these networks and the ongoing locomotion control of a freely moving fly.

Given the common characteristics of optic flow and associated visual neurons processing

across different animal species[77,78] and the universal constrains on locomotive systems, the

findings reported here have the potential to shed light on how analogous systems in other

animals are functionally organized to process naturalistic optic flow in support of navigation.

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Author Contributions

In alphabetical order:

Davi D Bock: Generation of FAFB dataset and allowing access pre-publication.

Resources & Data Curation.

Margarida Brotas: Reconstruction and review of 1st and 2nd order LPTC partners and

cross-matching LPTC partners across EM datasets. Investigating differences in

anatomy, connectivity, and neurotransmitter profile among LPTC partners.

M Eugenia Chiappe: Conceptualization. Methodology. Supervision. Resources.

Funding acquisition. Writing – original draft. Writing – Review & Editing. Visualization.

Tomás Cruz: Design, running and analysis of DNp15>hsFLP,Kir experiments.

Provide input, feedback and initial scripts to parse and analyze behavior data.

Behavioral agent simulations with the modeled network.

<u>Mert Erginkaya</u>: Conceptualization. Reconstruction and review of LPTC synaptic

partners and some LPTCs in FAFB. Reconstruction and review of 2nd order

inputs/outputs of LPTC networks. Cross-matching LPTC partners across EM

datasets. Analysis of EM anatomy & connectivity. Generation of all transgenic lines.

GABA stainings (with the help of Fly Platform). Designing, performing, and analyzing

calcium imaging experiments. Design and analysis of behavior experiments.

Visualization of data and writing the paper.

<u>Aljoscha Nern</u>: Generation of transgenic lines that label LPTCrns. Re-injection of

uLPTCrn Gal4 line. Input for split candidates for bIPS. EM-LM cell identification and

naming for several cell types.

<u>Michael B Reiser</u>: Conceptualization. Reconstruction of LPTCs in FAFB and

proofreading LPTCs in FlyWire and Hemibrain (by Reiser Lab tracers). Naming

LPTCs. Help with generating optic flow stimulus patterns in LED arena (Software, from

Matthew Isaacson). Regular feedback on EM tracing status & priorities, and feedback

on calcium imaging experiments.

<u>Kathrin Steck</u>: Reconstruction and review of LPTC partners in FAFB. Reconstruction

and review of 2nd order inputs/outputs of LPTC networks.

<u>Filipa Torrão</u>: Investigating differences in connectivity among LPTC partners.

Analysis of local connectivity structure within bIPS dendrites (**Fig. 6-S2**)

<u>Nélia Varela</u>: Generation of transgenic lines that label bIPS, H2rn, H2, HS.

Immunostainings and images for several transgenic lines. Performing behavioral

experiments. Immunostainings for individual bIPS>hsFLP,Kir and DNp15>hsFLP,Kir

and MCFO flies.

Inclusion and Diversity Statement

578 While citing references scientifically relevant for this study, we worked to promote

579 gender balance in our reference list as much as possible

Declaration of Interests

581 The authors declare no competing interests

Tables

583 **Supplementary Table 1: Cross-matching of LPTC outputs across EM dataset**

H2 Output Cells	FlyWire rank	FAFB rank	Hemibrain rank
PS047	3	1	3
VCH	1	2	2
DCH	2	3	1
DNp15	4*	4	4
bIPS	5	5	5
CNMNx	34*	6	11**
DNb03	6	7	7
DNb03	8	8	8
DNg41	9	9	6**
uLPTCrn	11	10	9
PS126	10	12	28
PS099	7	31	48
PS081	14	16	10
HS Output Cells	**FlyWire rank**	**FAFB rank**	**Hemibrain rank**
bIPS	1	1	2
DNp15	2*	2	1
PS047	4	3	3
CNMNx	21*	4	4**
VCNMN	5	5	7**
DNa02	3	6	9
uLPTCrn	10	7	5
IVLPT8	8	8	35
uLPTCrn	16	9	6
uLPTCrn	13	10	10
PLP195	6	11	29
DNgX	7	26	

VS Output Cells	FlyWire rank	FAFB rank	Hemibrain rank
DNa04			8
DNp20	1*	1	2
DNb06	2	2	
cLPTCrn	4	3	10
CNMN6	6	4	6
CNMN7	31	5	
cLPTCrn	7	6	20
uLPTCrn	40	7	5
PS126	3	8	7
S-Neuron	45	9	8
S-Neuron	38	10	9
DNge043	5	48	3
DNp22	8	70	
PS135	9	37	1
cLPTCrn	10	12	16
PS169	48		4

585   * FlyWire segmentation or synapse predictions are of low quality

586   ** Uncertain hemibrain matching, since it is based on a small neural arbor cut off at the limits

587   of the dataset

588   **Supplementary Table 2: List of neurons within the LPTC central brain network**

#	FAFB ID	FlyWire segment ID*	FlyWire soma coordinates	Hemibrain ID	Hemibrain cell type
1	Right uLPTCrn 2918805 PG ME	720575940628599516	114786, 73911, 1623		PS070-PS074
2	Right uLPTCrn 11965240 ME	720575940631296543	113632, 74374, 1687		PS070-PS074
3	Right DNg41 15463855 MB	720575940617611643	99290, 75988, 3794	5813024629**	
4	Right uLPTCrn 2549438 ME	720575940631333955	109930, 75338, 1666		PS070-PS074
5	Right uLPTCrn 2544668 ME	720575940612144047	112472, 73317, 1957		PS070-PS074

6	GNG neuron 2948699 ME	720575940648969337	121455, 91088, 2979		
7	DCH neuron (right) 1077175 ZSG-GA	720575940640039989	131955.27, 53517.50, 1223.00	1466485353	DCH
8	VCH neuron (right) 1078536 GA-ZSG	720575940627138562	134785, 53191, 958	5813024201	VCH
9	Putative CNMN 5218081 ME	720575940622008560***	105319, 78004, 4717	2180780757**	
10	VCN002 DB	720575940635776760***	124703, 91385, 3579	2428058771**	
11	DNa02_AL	720575940629327659	101150, 42526, 2117	1140245595	DNa02
12	neuron 7828867 BG	720575940621564329	104740, 50998, 5510		PLP195
13	DNgX 999559 ME	720575940614730914	105915, 76095, 4569	1874217622**	
14	Putative Right cLPTCrn 410927 SI	720575940642061709	112863, 73654, 2042		PS079
15	Right cLPTCrn 410809 SI	720575940617997396	113277, 73467, 2192		PS079
16	Right bLPTCrn 416268 ME	720575940608760110	112920, 74883, 1730		PS078
17	Right bLPTCrn 986687 ME	720575940620555696	111749, 73943, 2041		PS078
18	Right uLPTCrn 2500746 ME	720575940606873522	112559, 74568, 1653		PS070-PS074
19	Right uLPTCrn 1002426 ME	720575940647708537	114241, 73636, 1682		PS070-PS074
20	Right DNp15 5224930 ME	720575940610301413***	120043, 60033, 5393	5813078134**	DNp15
21	Right bIPS neuron 3029744 ME	720575940622581173	125645, 88652, 4814	1932497911	
22	Right PS047 16769498 ME	720575940638306163	98755, 67802, 2032	1621806893	PS047

23	Left bIPS neuron 969206 ME	720575940623618708	141214, 90010, 4743	1963869636	
24	H2 neuron (left) 5232903 ME	720575940632427603	164810, 54592, 5192	5813078454	H2
25	Right DNb03 8416446530 ME	720575940620776880	105915, 58345, 1981		DNb03
26	Right H2rn 11956981 ME	720575940621865991	127153, 91186, 3928		
27	Right DNb03 413171 MB	720575940634163682	107706, 58941, 2096		
28	Right H2rn 11930922 ME	720575940622082451	128029, 91037, 3888		
29	Right H2rn 9730354 ME	720575940624756836	126229, 90972, 3889		
30	Right H2rn 8438890 ME	720575940617566769	127758, 91886, 3927		
31	Right H2rn 8178074 ME	720575940642076576	127930, 91367, 4018		
32	Putative VSN 851433 ZSG	720575940624931564	89397, 61348, 6667	5813033533	VS
33	Putative VSN 804093 ZSG	720575940633923298	82426, 57153, 6848	1558230909	VS
34	neuron 5207415 ME	720575940613940074	83118, 55640, 4101	1221457679	IVLPT8
35	Putative HSN 830794 ZSG	720575940628031249	91612, 60674, 6567	2211443902	HSN
36	Putative HSE 827035 ECS ZSG	720575940642723981	98857, 55902, 5783	1807537598	HSE
37	Putative HSS 408972 SJH ZSG	720575940622312965	94341, 61845, 6407	2179731270	HSS
38	VSN-Like 982898 ZSG	720575940626477498	86531, 61966, 6790	5813024262	VS
39	putative VSN 793033 ZSG	720575940615269794	82514, 59151, 6836	1868619183	VS
40	Putative VSN 815777 ZSG	720575940622831740	84905, 55521, 6704	5813025091	VS

41	Putative VSN 852994 JLME ZSG	720575940633017939	82465, 56046, 6799	1557885051	VS
42	Putative VSN 807402 ZSG	720575940626457406	85387, 60389, 6811	1868255513	VS
43	putative VSN 804540 ZSG	720575940605688492	84584, 57582, 6777	1992161820	VS
44	Right S-Neuron 4906099 ME	720575940629666971	126241, 28340, 3824		OCG07
45	Right S-Neuron 4905400 ME	720575940625314547	127007, 30053, 4080		OCG07
46	Right S-Neuron 4880581 ME	720575940609826499	127788, 30884, 4072		OCG07
47	Right DNOVS1 9937342 ME	720575940629390123***	115510, 45447, 4960	1745333830**	DNp20
48	Right DNb06 9857697 ME	720575940637308605	126678, 68176, 1317	1715999506	DNb06
49	Right PS126 4905394 ME	720575940629701484	131516, 30646, 3039	1591156798	PS126
50	Left bLPTCrn 9157628 ME	720575940631876577	149420, 77362, 1632		PS078
51	Right bLPTCrn 17646150 ME	720575940624461543	113818, 75477, 1710		PS078
52	Right bLPTCrn 869476 ME	720575940628284931	113237, 74767, 1898		PS078
53	Putative Right bLPTCrn 1934541 ME	720575940605344434	113968, 76236, 1733		PS078
54	Cervical Nerve Neuron 1337778 SI	720575940633404627	118851, 65265, 5421		
55	Cervical Nerve Neuron 1167859 SI	720575940621583286	119957, 62874, 5368		
56	Left bLPTCrn 9369685 ME	720575940610505881	148617, 76818, 1461		PS078

57	Right cLPTCrn 968975 ME	720575940625557069	110736, 74923, 2028		PS079
58	Left cLPTCrn 414149 ME	720575940607991819	146347, 76067, 1244		PS079
59	Left cLPTCrn 2725485 ME	720575940629929273	147252, 76791, 1398		PS079
60	Left cLPTCrn 1006244 SI	720575940612306641	146666, 75707, 1607		PS079
61	Right cLPTCrn 414194 ME	720575940620867254	112846, 70948, 2282		PS079
62	Right cLPTCrn 1051520 SI	720575940629267531	111884, 74761, 2203		PS079
63	Left cLPTCrn 967831 ME	720575940624324708	147231, 75756, 1219		PS079
64	Putative Right cLPTCrn 9336219 ME	720575940631645009	111149, 73533, 1804		PS079
65	Left cLPTCrn 4881422 ME	720575940626420220	146247, 75467, 1279		PS079
66	Right cLPTCrn 969249 ME	720575940620263088	111942, 73451, 1739		PS079
67	Left cLPTCrn 952121 ME	720575940616362123	148068, 76482, 1602		PS079
68	Left cLPTCrn 412520 ME	720575940621845119	147390, 76088, 1339		PS079
69	Right cLPTCrn 2560372 ME	720575940628688246	113125, 72872, 1901		PS079
70	Right cLPTCrn 411566 ME	720575940619872751	113686, 72642, 2212		PS079
71	Left cLPTCrn 1027141 SI	720575940635634680	145378, 76025, 1378		PS079
72	Right cLPTCrn 968122 ME	720575940621147425	114031, 73227, 1620		PS079

589   * As of 230422

 ** Uncertain hemibrain matching, due to incomplete hemibrain skeleton

591   ******* Bad or incomplete segmentation in FlyWire

592   **Supplementary Table 3: List of fly lines used in each figure**

Figure(s)	Panel(s)	Target cell type(s)	Genotype(s)
1	d, e	DNp15	w[1118]; R11E07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-jGCaMP7f; R77F05-Gal4.DBD / 20xUAS-6XmCherry; 13XLexAop-jGCaMP7f; R77F05-LexA; +;
1	f, g	DNp15	hsFLP; R11E07-p65.AD / +; R77F05-Gal4.DBD / 10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;
1-S1		DNp15	w[1118]; R11E07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-jGCaMP7f; R77F05-Gal4.DBD / 20XUAS-6XmCherry; 13XLexAop-jGCaMP7f; R77F05-LexA; +;
1-S1	f, g	DNp15	hsFLP; R11E07-p65.AD / +; R77F05-Gal4.DBD / 10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;
1,1-S1,3,3-S2,3-S3		HS	w[1118]; R27B03-p65.AD / 20XUAS-6XmCherry; R39E01-Gal4.DBD / UAS-sytGCaMP7f; w[1118]; 20XUAS-jGCaMP7f / +; VT058487-Gal4 / UAS-CD4::tdTomato w[1118]; R39E01-LexA, 13XLexAop2-6XmCherry / +; VT058487-Gal4 / UAS-sytGCaMP7f
3,3-S2,3-S3		H2	w[1118]; R23C12-p65.AD / 20XUAS-6XmCherry; R32A11-Gal4.DBD / UAS-sytGCaMP7f; w[1118]; R23C12-p65.AD / R39E01-LexA, 13XLexAop2-6XmCherry; R32A11-Gal4.DBD / UAS-sytGCaMP7f
3,3-S2,3-S3		bIPS	w[1118]; R25F07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-6XmCherry; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / UAS-sytGCaMP7f; w[1118]; R25F07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-jGCaMP7f; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / UAS-CD4::tdTomato
3,3-S2,3-S3		H2rn	w[1118]; VT040346-p65.AD / 20XUAS-6XmCherry; VT049923-Gal4.DBD / UAS-sytGCaMP7f;
3,3-S2,3-S3		uLPTCrn	w[1118]; 20XUAS-6XmCherry / +; R50G03-Gal4 / UAS-sytGCaMP7f; w[1118]; R39E01-LexA, 13XLexAop-6XmCherry / +; R50G03-Gal4 / UAS-sytGCaMP7f
3-S1	a	bIPS	w[1118]; R25F07-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / +;
3-S1	a	H2rn	w[1118]; VT040346-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT049923-Gal4.DBD / +;

Figure(s)	Panel(s)	Target cell type(s)	Genotype(s)
3-S1	a	uLPTCrn	w^{1118}; Otd-nls:FLPo / +; R50G03-Gal4 / pJFRC56-10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;
3-S1	a	LPTCrn	w^{1118}; VT045281-p65.AD / Otd-nls:FLPo; VT038829-Gal4.DBD / pJFRC56-10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;
3-S1	a	HS	w^{1118}; R27B03-p65.AD / 20XUAS-jGCaMP7f; R39E01-Gal4.DBD / UAS-CD4::TdTomato;
3-S1	a	H2	w^{1118}; R23C12-p65.AD / UAS-2xEGFP; R32A11-Gal4.DBD / +;
3-S1	a	DNp15	w^{1118}; R11E07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-jGCaMP7f; R77F05-Gal4.DBD / 20XUAS-6XmCherry;
3-S1	b	LPTCrn	w^{1118} / MCFO-1; VT045281-p65.AD / +; VT038829-Gal4.DBD / MCFO-1;
3-S1	c	bIPS Rdl +/-	w^{1118}; R25F07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-GCaMP6f, UAS-FLP; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / Rdl$^{FlpStop ND}$;
3-S1	c	bIPS Rdl -/-	w^{1118}; R25F07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-GCaMP6f, UAS-FLP; VT014724-Gal4.DBD, Rdl$^{FlpStop ND}$ / Rdl$^{FlpStop ND}$;
4		bIPS Rdl +/+	w^{1118}; R25F07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-GCaMP6f, UAS-FLP; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / 20XUAS-6XmCherry;
4		bIPS Rdl -/-	w^{1118}; R25F07-p65.AD / 20XUAS-GCaMP6f, UAS-FLP; VT014724-Gal4.DBD, Rdl$^{FlpStop ND}$ / Rdl$^{FlpStop ND}$;
4-S1	a	LPTCrn	w^{1118}; VT045281-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT038829-Gal4.DBD / +;
4-S1	a	uLPTCrn	w^{1118}; UAS-mCD8::GFP / + ; R50G03-Gal4 / +;
4-S1	a	bIPS	w^{1118}; VT014724-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT039047-Gal4.DBD / +;
4-S1	a	H2rn	w^{1118}; VT040346-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT049923-Gal4.DBD / +;
4-S1	b	LPTCrn ∩ GAD1	w^{1118}; UAS-mCD8::GFP / +; VT045281-Gal4.DBD / GAD1-p65.AD;
4-S1	b	LPTCrn ∩ ChaT	w^{1118}; VT045281-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; ChaT-Gal4.DBD / +;
4-S1	b	LPTCrn ∩ VGlut	w^{1118}; VT045281-p65.AD / VGlut-Gal4.DBD; 40xUAS-mCD8::GFP;
4-S1	b	uLPTCrn ∩ GAD1	w^{1118}; UAS-mCD8::GFP / +; GAD1-p65.AD / R50G03-Gal4.DBD;
4-S1	b	uLPTCrn ∩ ChaT	w^{1118}; R50G03-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; ChaT-Gal4.DBD / +;
4-S1	b	uLPTCrn ∩ VGlut	w^{1118}; R50G03-p65.AD / VGlut-Gal4.DBD; 40xUAS-mCD8::GFP;
4-S1	b	bIPS ∩ GAD1	w^{1118}; UAS-mCD8::GFP / +; GAD1-p65.AD / VT014724-Gal4.DBD;
4-S1	b	bIPS ∩ ChaT	w^{1118}; VT014724-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; ChaT-Gal4.DBD / +;
4-S1	b	bIPS ∩ VGlut	w^{1118}; VGlut-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT019845-Gal4.DBD / +;

Figure(s)	Panel(s)	Target cell type(s)	Genotype(s)
4-S1	b	H2rn ∩ GAD1	w^{1118}; UAS-mCD8::GFP / CyO; GAD1-p65.AD / VT049923-Gal4.DBD;
4-S1	b	H2rn ∩ ChaT	w^{1118}; VT040346-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; ChaT-Gal4.DBD / +;
4-S1	b	H2rn ∩ VGlut	w^{1118}; VGlut-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT049923-Gal4.DBD / +;
6	b	DNp15	hsFLP; R11E07-p65.AD / +; R77F05-Gal4.DBD / 10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;
6	c	bIPS	hsFLP; R25F07-p65.AD / +; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / 10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;
6	d	empty control >TrpA1 (control 1)	w^{1118}; Empty-p65.AD / UAS-TrpA1(B).K; Empty-Gal4.DBD / +;
6	d	bIPS #1 >TrpA1	w^{1118}; R25F07-p65.AD / UAS-TrpA1(B).K; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / +;
6	d	bIPS #2 >TrpA1	w^{1118}; VT014724-p65.AD / UAS-TrpA1(B).K; VT039047-Gal4.DBD / +;
6	d	bIPS #3 >TrpA1	w^{1118}; VT039047-p65.AD / UAS-TrpA1(B).K; VT019845-Gal4.DBD / +;
6	d	empty control > Kir2.1 (control 2)	w^{1118}; Empty-p65.AD / Otd-nls:FLPo ; Empty-Gal4.DBD / pJFRC56-10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;
6	d	bIPS #1 > Kir2.1	w^{1118}; R25F07-p65.AD / Otd-nls:FLPo; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / pJFRC56-10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;
6-S1	a	bIPS #1	w^{1118}; R25F07-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / +;
6-S1	a	bIPS #2	w^{1118}; VT014724-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT039047-Gal4.DBD / +;
6-S1	a	bIPS #3	w^{1118}; VT039047-p65.AD / UAS-mCD8::GFP; VT019845-Gal4.DBD / +;
6-S1	b	bIPS	hsFLP; R25F07-p65.AD / +; VT014724-Gal4.DBD / pJFRC56-10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1;

Figure legends

Figure 1: DNp15 exhibit enhanced sensitivity to rotational optic flow compared to HS and plays a role in steering during high-speed translation (**a**) Simulated binocular optic flow of a fly walking at low (left) versus high (right) forward speed and rotating with the same angular velocity. Rectangles indicate the presence of regressive (blue) or progressive (magenta) motion detected by a horizontal motion-sensitive system. (**b**) EM-reconstructed

right HS (magenta) and postsynaptic right DNp15 (olive) cells. The chemical and electrical

synapses between the two cells allocated within the inferior posterior slope (IPS, cyan), a

premotor region. The dendrites of HS cells are located within the lobula plate (LP). (**c**) Top,

schematic of the fly brain and the IPS, where optical imaging was performed. Bottom, 2-

photon calcium imaging setup and the visual LED display. (**d**) HS (magenta) and DNp15

(olive) calcium responses to horizontal binocular rotational or translational-like optic flow (top),

and to monocular optic flow (bottom). (e) Discrimination index (see **Methods**) between

translational-like and rotational stimuli in HS (magenta) and DNp15 (olive). Each circle

represents an individual ROI. Colored horizontal line and black vertical line represent the

mean and 95% CI. (HS: N=12 flies, n=16 ROIs, DNp15: N=6 flies n=7 ROIs, *P < 0.05; **P <

0.01 ***P < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test). (**f**) The walking paths of forward runs of length

≥ 4 body lengths, aligned at their origin, in flies with either both or none DNP15 silenced (left,

light gray traces), right DNP15 silenced (middle, gray traces), and left DNP15 silenced (right,

black traces). (**g**) Left, definition of path deviation, the difference in body orientation between

the end and the beginning of the walking path over traveled distance. Right, mean path

deviation from per fly in flies with none, single or both DNp15 silenced. The size of the circle

indicates the number of walking bouts per fly, with larger sizes representing larger number of

walking bouts. Number of flies per condition, none n=25; both n=31; left n=22; right n=22; *p

< 0.05 **p < 0.01 ***p < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test with Bonferroni correction for multiple

comparisons.

Figure 2. H2, HS and VS cells form two distinctive networks in the central brain. (**a**)

Connectivity graph of the H2-HS (left) and VS (right) networks. Neurons are represented as

nodes (circles), with their synaptic connections indicated by arrows (predicted to be excitatory)

or circled edges (predicted to be inhibitory). Thickness of the arrows/circled edges represents

number of synapses, and color indicates the presynaptic neuron. For clarity, connections with

fewer than 10 synapses are not shown; connections with fewer than 50 synapses are shaded.

Node diameters represent the total number of connections that each node has within the

network (including both inputs and outputs). Except for LPTCs, nodes are placed within the

brain regions (grey rectangles) where their axons reside. (**b**) The total number of synaptic

connections for each neuron within H2-HS network (Top), and VS network (bottom). See

Supplementary Table 2 for the complete list of neurons and nomenclature. (**c**) Connectivity

graph between each LPTC input cell type and individual HS, H2 and VS cells. Edges indicate

synaptic connection between cells, with thickness indicating number of synapses and color

indicating the presynaptic cell. LPTCs without input are transparent for clarity.

Figure 3: Binocular interactions define optic flow sensitivity in H2-HS interneurons. (**a**)

Local connectivity between the input and middle layers of the H2-HS network. (**b**) Left,

schematic of the central nervous system (CNS) regions from which uLPTCrns, bIPS and

H2rns receive inputs. LOP, Lobula Plate; ME, Medulla; GNG, gnathal ganglia; IPS, inferior

poste-rior slope; SPS, superior posterior slope. Right, proportion of inputs per CNS region

(color code) for each interneuron. (**c**) Single plane fluorescence image of an example

recording from bIPS axons during binocular CW (top) and CCW (bottom) horizontal motion.

We defined a single region of interest (ROI), which covers the entire axon is outlined in white.

The red signal corresponds to mCherry fluorescence, whereas the green signal corresponds

to sytGCaMP7f fluorescence. Scale bar, 10 µm. (**d**) Top: visual stimuli presented to the fly,

with direction of motion as indicated by arrows. Bottom: optic flow calcium responses (OFR)

of each neuron to rotational (stimuli 1, 2, 3) or translational (stimuli 4, 5) optic flow. OFR for

rotational stimuli is defined as CW (rightwards) minus CCW (leftwards) direction of visual

motion. For the translational stimuli, OFR is defined as progressive minus regressive direction

of visual motion. Each trace corresponds to the grand mean of the z-scored calcium response

across flies ± SEM (shade). Per fly, we obtained mean responses to 5-10 repetitions per

stimulus. Light-gray rectangles indicate the stimulation window. For this and the remaining

panels: HS: N=12 flies n=16 ROIs, H2: N =8 flies n=11 ROIs, bIPS: N=10 flies n=11 ROIs,

H2rn: N=5 flies n=8 ROIs, uLPTCrn: N=6 flies n=8 ROIs. (**e**) Normalized OFRs (relative to the

preferred stimulus per neuron). Error bars represent SEM of the grand mean across flies. (**f**)

Left, discrimination index between translation-like vs. rotational stimuli (see **Methods**). Each

circle represents an individual ROI. The horizontal line and black vertical line represent mean

and 95% CI. Right, discrimination index between translation vs. rotational stimuli. *: $p < 0.05$;

**$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test with Bonferroni correction for multiple

comparisons.

Figure 4: GABAergic inhibition fine-tunes optic flow responses in bIPS. (**a**) Right bIPS

input profile, grouped by their predicted primary neurotransmitter. Neurons shown in b) are

highlighted with colored lines. (**b**) Schematic of the local connectivity of the input and middle

layers of the H2-HS network. Inhibitory connections are shown as tee shaped edges. Blocking

Rdl receptors in bIPS using FLPStop disrupts fast GABAergic signaling onto bIPS (black

crosses). (**c**) Neural responses of wild-type (dark green) and Rdl-disrupted (light green) bIPS

cells to binocular asymmetric (left, rotational) and symmetric (right, translational-like) optic

flow (OF). Each trace corresponds to the grand mean ± SEM (shaded area) of z-scored

calcium responses obtained across flies. For each fly, mean responses to 5-10 repetitions per

stimulus were obtained from a single ROI at the axon terminals. Stimuli with a star indicate

area under the curve (auc) responses that are statistically different from wild type bIPS

recordings. (**d**) Same as **c**), but for translational optic flow. (**e**) OF responses, the difference

between the preferred and nulled direction responses (auc) for horizontal and progressive

visual motion. (**f**) Left, discrimination index between translational-like and rotational optic flow

of recorded neurons in c) (see **Methods**). Each circle represents an individual ROI. Colored

horizontal line and black vertical line represents mean and 95% CI. Right, discrimination index

between progressive and rotational optic flow. For all panels: bIPS: N=7 flies n=9 ROIs, bIPS

Rdl-FLPStop: N=7 flies n=10 ROIs. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum

test.

Figure 5: A lateral disinhibitory motif enhance asymmetries in neural activity across

the right versus left hemisphere. (**a**) Schematic of the agent architecture: two sets of

Reichardt detectors tuned to front-to-back (FtoB) or back-to-front (BtoF) motion detect the

optic flow generated by a simulated walking fly (See **Methods**, **Fig. 5-S1**). The detected visual

motion is processed by a network of nodes that mimic the core network motif of H2-HS

network (**Fig. 3a**). The weights that connect the nodes are tuned based on a subset of

measured visual responses (**Fig. 5-S1**). (**b**) Simulated and observed visual responses to

monocular and binocular patterns of optic flow. Responses were matched to the maximal

observed response. Observed responses are replotted from **Fig. 3-S2** and **Fig. 4c** (**c**) Visual

response of modeled bIPS to symmetric or asymmetric binocular optic flow, and with or

without a functional input from uLPTCrns. (d) Left: discrimination index of modeled and

observed bIPS with or without a functional input from uLPTCrns. Right: observedd bIPS'

discrimination index with or without functional GABAergic input (replotted from **Fig. 4f**). (**e**)

Definition of the Asymmetry Index (AI) and two example conditions with low and high AI

values. (**f**) Asymmetry index of simulated neurons (colored) in the full model (Control), under

bIPS silencing (Without B), under uLPTCrn silencing (Without U) and under both bIPS and

uLPTCrn silencing (With-out U+B). The dot size corresponds to the magnitude of the neural

response. (**g**) Asymmetry index of simulated neurons (colored) in the full model varying the

forward velocity of the agent. The shaded area corresponds to the range of velocities

observed for forward runs in real exploratory flies (Cruz et al. 2021)[38].

Figure 6: bIPS plays a role in steering control during highspeed walking. (**a**) Example walking paths of the agent (left) and the real fly (right) under prominent visual feedback. (**b**) Simulated (left) and real fly (right) angular bias during forward runs (see **Methods**) with DNp15 activity perturbed bilateral or unilaterally. Transparent dots depict mean bias of individual flies, black dots represent grand mean per genotype, weighted by the amount of walking bouts (dot size). Error bars represent SEM. Number of flies per condition, None n=25; Left n=22; Right n=22; Both n=31. (**c**) Same as b), but for bIPS. Number of flies per condition, None n=65; Left n=26; Right n=38; Both n=13. For (**b**) and (**c**): *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01 ***p < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. (**d**) Left, simulated straightness of the agent during forward runs (see **Methods**) with control (green), bilaterally activated (dark green) or silenced (light green) bIPS cells. Right, straightness of control flies (green), or flies with bilaterally activated (dark green) or silenced (light green) bIPS cells. Number of flies per condition, empty control>TrpA1 n=25; bIPS#1>TrpA1 n=27; bIPS#2>TrpA1 n=25; bIPS#3>Tr-pA1 n=29; empty control>Kir2.1 n=22; bIPS#1>Kir2.1 n=23. (**e**) Summary of the findings. The middle layer of the H2-HS network supports steering by enhancing the difference in the activity levels of the output layer across hemispheres. This function is driven by a competitive disinhibitory motif that is well posed to be recruited at highspeed walking. In this condition, binocular optic flow may contain prominent translational components, possibly overshadowing rotational cues that are critical for course control. We propose that the competitive disinhibition at the middle layer plays an important role in modulating the output layer in a continuous and dynamic manner, leading to a more robust estimate of the deviations from a straight course.

STAR★METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

Reagent or resource	Source	ID
Antibodies		
mouse anti-nc82 antibody	DSHB	RRID: AB_2314866
chicken anti-GFP antibody	Abcam	RRID: AB_13970
Rabbit polyclonal anti-GFP antibody	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#A6455 RRID: AB_221570
rabbit anti-GABA antibody	Sigma	RRID: A2052
rabbit anti-DsRed antibody	Abcam	AB356483
goat Alexa-488 anti-chicken	Invitrogen	RRID: A11038
goat Alexa-594 anti-rabbit	Invitrogen	RRID: AB_150088
goat Alexa-633 anti-mouse	Invitrogen	RRID: AB_141431
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
Drosophila UAS-2xEGFP	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC)	RRID: BDSC_6874
Drosophila UAS-mCD8::GFP	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_5137
Drosophila 40XUAS-mCD8::GFP	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_32195
Drosophila UAS-CD4::tdTomato	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_35837

Drosophila 20XUAS-6XmCherry in VK00018	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_52267
Drosophila 20XUAS-6XmCherry in attP2	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_52268
Drosophila 13XLexAop2-6XmCherry	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_52272
Drosophila MCFO-1[79]	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_64085
Drosophila 13XLexAop-jGCaMP7f	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_80910
Drosophila 20XUAS-jGCaMP7f	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_80906
Drosophila UAS-sytGCaMP7f	Gaby Maimon[80]	RRID: BDSC_94619
Drosophila 20XUAS-GCaMP6f, UAS-FLP	Molina-Obando et al.[81]	N/A
Drosophila hs-FLP	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_23649
Drosophila Otd-nls:FLPo	Asahina et al[82]	N/A
Drosophila 8XLexAop2-FLPL in attP40	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_90892
Drosophila pJFRC56-10XUAS>Stop>eGFPKir2.1 in attP2	Gerry Rubin	N/A
Drosophila UAS-TrpA1(B).K	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_26263
Drosophila Rdl[FlpStop ND]	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_67682

Drosophila VT014724-Gal4.DBD, Rdl[FlpStop ND]	this study	N/A
Drosophila GAD1-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_60322
Drosophila VGlut-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_82986
Drosophila VGlut-Gal4.DBD	Diao et al. 2015[83]	N/A
Drosophila ChaT-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_60318
Drosophila R12E04-LexA	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_52447
Drosophila R39E01-LexA	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_52776
Drosophila R39E01-LexA,13XLexAop2-6XmCherry	this study	N/A
Drosophila R77F05-LexA	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_54265
Drosophila Empty-Gal4	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_68384
Drosophila R50G03-Gal4	Aljoscha Nern	N/A
Drosophila VT058487-Gal4	Vienna Drosophila Resource Center (VDRC)	N/A
Drosophila w[1118]; R11E07-p65.AD; R77F05-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_75953

Drosophila w[1118]; Empty-p65.AD; Empty-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_79603
Drosophila R23C12-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_70130
Drosophila R25F07-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_70622
Drosophila R27B03-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_70164
Drosophila R50G03-p65.AD	Aljoscha Nern	N/A
Drosophila VT014724-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_72019
Drosophila VT039047-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_73268
Drosophila VT040346-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_74542
Drosophila VT045281-p65.AD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_75164
Drosophila R32A11-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_69228
Drosophila R39E01-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_70217
Drosophila R50G03-Gal4.DBD	Aljoscha Nern	N/A
Drosophila VT014724-p65.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_72146
Drosophila VT019845-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_73315
Drosophila VT038829-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_73679
Drosophila VT039047-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_73724
Drosophila VT045281-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_72221

Drosophila VT049923-Gal4.DBD	BDSC	RRID: BDSC_73921
Software and Algorithms		
MATLAB	MathWorks, Inc.	RRID:SCR_001622
R	Open-source	RRID:SCR_001905
natverse[84] (R package)	Open-source	https://github.com/natverse
ScanImage	Vidrio Technologies	RRID:SCR_014307
Gephi	Open-source	RRID:SCR_004293
Fiji	Open-source	RRID:SCR_002285
CATMAID	Open-source	RRID:SCR_006278

CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING

All data and analysis code are available upon request directed to Eugenia Chiappe

(eugenia.chiappe@neuro.fchampalimaud.org).

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Drosophila husbandry

Drosophila melanogaster were reared on a standard fly medium and kept on a

12hr light/12hr dark cycle at 25 ºC. All experiments were performed with 2-to-4-days

old flies. Calcium imaging experiments were carried out with female and behavior

experiments with male flies. The complete set of transgenic flies and their specific

sources are listed in the *Key Resources Table*. Full genotypes of flies used in each

experiment are described in **Supplementary Table 3**.

METHOD DETAILS

Generation of recombinant lines

For the R39E01-LexA,13xLexAop-6xmCherry recombinant, transgenic lines

carrying R39E01-LexA and 13xLexAop-6xmCherry were crossed according to

standard procedures. Putative recombinant progeny was scored based on eye color

and ectopic mCherry labeling in the ventral cuticle and verified by immunostaining.

For the VT014724-p65.DBD, RdI[FlpStopND] recombinant, we could not use eye

color since FlpStop cassette does not contain the *mini-white* gene. We generated

stable lines from single progeny and verified recombinant lines using PCR, with

primers targeting the FLPStop cassette in the ND orientation as in[53].

EM datasets and neuron identification

EM datasets

Two different EM datasets were used: A full female adult *Drosophila* brain

imaged using serial section transmission EM (FAFB[40]) and another, dense

reconstruction of a partial adult female brain imaged using FIBSEM (focused ion-beam

scanning electron microscopy), referred to as Hemibrain[42]. In FAFB, neuron skeletons

were either manually traced using CATMAID[85,86], following the procedure described

in[40] or automatically segmented within the FlyWire[41] environment together with

chemical synapse predictions[87]. None of the EM datasets contain information about

electrical synapses (i.e., gap junctions).

Neural reconstructions

Manual tracing of neurons for 'identification' and for 'completion' has been done

in FAFB as described in[88]. Briefly, reconstructing the full arbor of a neuron results in

tracing for 'completion', while tracing the soma and the major axonic and dendritic

branches that contain microtubules results in tracing for 'identification'. Tracing for

identification saves considerable tracing time by leaving out the many small,

microtubule-less branches called twigs. This strategy is often enough to uniquely

identify a neural class. For many FAFB neurons, we were able to readily obtain

complete reconstructions in FlyWire with small differences in their twigs. Some

neurons, however, were badly segmented in earlier instances of FlyWire and had to

be reconstructed manually in FAFB. For example, DNp15 neurons have a darker

cytosol and very striated dendritic branching, which resulted in incomplete automatic

segmentation and connectivity in FlyWire and Hemibrain datasets. Therefore, we

manually traced Right DNp15 for completion and performed input profile analysis on

the FAFB dataset (**Fig. 2-S3f**). HS, VS and H2 cells were all traced to completion.

Strong LPTC partners were traced for identification, most of which were then traced

to completion.

A recent connectome analysis of the three EM datasets found that the FAFB

dataset is left-right inverted[89]. This means the Right hemisphere neurons we

reconstructed in FAFB/FlyWire are actually the Left neurons in real world coordinates.

Since inter-hemisphere connectivity is highly stereotyped within and across EM

datasets[89], and doesn't affect any of the results we present here in this study, we

retain the inverted naming of neurons reconstructed in FAFB. This allows for a more

intuitive comparison of with the Hemibrain dataset, which largely encompasses the

Right side of the brain.

Tracing synaptic connections

In addition to their anatomy, we have tagged the locations of all incoming

(postsynaptic) and outgoing (presynaptic) chemical synapses of HS, VS, H2 cells and

several classes of strong LPTC partners in FAFB. As a rule, we tagged all synaptic

connections between any pair of traced neurons. Therefore, even if a neuron does not

have all their synapses tagged, we obtain the total number of synaptic connections

between all neurons in our FAFB dataset, provided they are fully, or near-fully traced.

Selection of LPTC partners to reconstruct

We traced all HS, all H2 and >90% of VS inputs for identification (Fig. 1-S2c).

For LPTC outputs, which are ~10x more numerous than inputs, we chose a pseudo-

random sampling approach. In FAFB, most of the strongly connected partners make

multiple axo-dendritic connections around the same presynaptic bouton. We focused

on neurons that send multiple dendrites to LPTCs within a small area by visual

inspection. We then prioritized tracing these 'putative strong' partners for identification.

In addition, we checked the strongest LPTC partners in Hemibrain and FlyWire

datasets and reconstructed them in FAFB if they weren't traced for identification

already. This allowed us to reconstruct all of the strongest LPTC partners with minimal

manual tracing.

EM to Light Microscopy (LM) matching

We used natverse R libraries[84], in particular *templatebrains* and *rcatmaid* to

register FAFB neurons onto a common template (JFRC2010) that's used in large

driver line libraries curated by the Janelia FlyLight team[90–92]. We then transformed our

aligned FAFB skeletons onto a 2-D ColorMIP image[93] and ran a similarity search

between our neurons and Gal4 lines within FlyLight. Gal4 lines with high similarity

were shortlisted by manual inspection. The shortlisted lines were then used in

combinations to generate the Split-Gal4 lines with sparse expression[94]. Stability and

sparseness of each split combination was assessed by checking GFP expression of

several brains under a confocal microscope.

Immunohistochemistry

Immunostainings and microscopy

2-4 days old adult *Drosophila melanogaster* brains were dissected in

phosphate buffer saline (PBS). Immunostaining protocol was slightly modified from[95]

as follows: After dissection, brains were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA)

diluted in PBS for 20 minutes in room temperature (or 1 hour on ice). Before the

application of the primary antibodies, brains were incubated for 15 minutes in 10%

normal goat serum (or 1 hour in 5% normal goat serum) with 0.1% Triton X-100 in

PBS.

For checking GFP and GCaMP expression, Chicken anti-GFP (Abcam, CAT

#ab13970, 1:1000 dilution) was used with Mouse anti-nc82 (Developmental Studies

Hybridoma Bank, 1:10 dilution). In flies that additionally express TdTomato or

mCherry, Rabbit anti-DsRed (Abcam, CAT #ab356483, 1:500) was also used. For

GABA stainings, Chicken anti-GFP was used together with Rabbit anti-GABA (1:100;

Sigma-Aldrich CAT #A2052). Secondary fluorescent antibodies were AlexaFluor594

Goat anti-Rabbit (Abcam, CAT #ab150088, 1:500), AlexaFluor488 Goat anti-Chicken

(Abcam, CAT #ab150173, 1:500), AlexaFluor633 Goat anti-Mouse (Life

Technologies, CAT #A-21050, 1:500). In a small number of immunostainings, Rabbit

anti-GFP and AlexaFluor488 Goat anti-Rabbit were used instead.

Confocal sections were acquired using a Zeiss LSM710 confocal microscope

at 1 or 2 μm intervals and maximum projections of image stacks were performed in

Fiji/ImageJ (https://imagej.net/software/fiji/).

Calcium Imaging

Fly preparation for immobilized calcium imaging

2-4 days old adult female flies were used in all experiments. To keep their body

size relatively constant, 2-6 flies were anaesthetized with CO_2 after eclosion and

housed in vials. On the day of imaging, to minimize the potential influence of sensory

reafference signals coming from the limbs, flies were cold-anaesthetized, and their

legs were removed using fine forceps from the femur-tibia joint for the forelegs and

coxa-femur joint for the middle and hind legs. The femur of the forelegs were kept

intact since it proved difficult to reliably wax the coxa without waxing the eyes and the

proboscis. Openings in all the legs were then covered with beeswax. Proboscis was

gently extended using fine forceps and waxed from below to minimize the movement

of the brain during imaging. The fly was mounted on a custom-made physiology holder

by temporarily pinning the thorax onto a small tungsten wire (A-M Systems #716100)

using UV-cured glue (Bondic). The mounting is aided by a custom-built

micromanipulator and a triple camera array to position the head in the same

orientation across flies. After each experiment, high resolution images of the fly head

from the side and bottom were taken to measure the head pitch, yaw and roll angles

as described in[50]. Once the desired head orientation is achieved, the fly head and the

body were waxed onto the physiology holder, and the UV-glued pin was removed. The

cuticle from the back of the head was removed with extra sharp forceps (Dumont 5SF).

Fat body tissues were removed by gentle suctioning while trachea and the muscles 1

and 16 of the fly head were removed by fine forceps. In this preparation, flies have no

mobility in their legs and proboscis, very limited mobility in their wings and abdomen,

and high mobility in their halteres and antennae.

Imaging setup

Flies ready for imaging were mounted under an upright microscope (Movable

Objective Microscope, Sutter) with a 40× water-immersion objective lens (CFI Apo

40XW NIR, Nikon). Calcium imaging was performed with a custom-built galvo-galvo

2-photon laser scanning system. We used a Chameleon Ultra II Ti-Sapphire

femtosecond laser (Coherent) tuned to 930 nm for GCaMP and tdTomato excitation

(6 mW under the objective lens) and 780 nm for mCherry excitation when available.

The longer excitation wavelength is not visible to the fly. Emission was collected on

GaAsP PMT detectors (Hamamatsu, H10770PA-40) through a 535/50 nm bandpass

filter for the green channel and 605/70 nm for red channel (Chroma). A 128x128 pixels

slice image was acquired with ScanImage at the dorsal part of the posterior slope,

where the axon terminals of all neurons that were imaged overlap. To record activity

in a consistently large region across different cell types, the acquisition frame rate

varied between 12.2-15.0 Hz. When mCherry or tdTomato was co-expressed with

GCaMP, higher resolution 3D z-stacks were taken of the imaged regions before or

after each experiment. The external solution, which perfused the preparation

constantly in room temperature, contained 103 mM NaCl, 3 mM KCl, 5 mM TES, 8

mM D-trehalose, 10 mM D-glucose, 26 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1 mM NaH_2PO_4, 4 mM $MgCl_2$

and 2 mM $CaCl_2$ in MilliQ water (270–275 mOsm) and was bubbled with 95% O_2 / 5%

CO_2 (pH ~7.3).

Visual display

The visual display consists of a 32 × 96 array of blue light-emitting diodes

(LEDs, 465 nm, Bright LED Electronics) that are modeled after Generation 3 (G3)

modular display[96] with four layers of blue filter (Rosco R385) to minimize light leaking

into photomultiplier tubes used in calcium imaging. For a centrally positioned fly, its

visual field subtended 216° in azimuth and 72° in elevation (pixel size of 2.25°). In an

initial set of experiments, we prepared flies for imaging and measured the head pitch

angle as described in[50]. The display was tilted 74° relative to the horizon to match the

average pitch angle of the imaged flies.

Visual stimuli

Starfield stimuli[97] were generated using MATLAB (MathWorks, Natick, MA)

scripts (from https://github.com/misaacson01/Motion_Maker_G4), which were slightly

modified to be compatible with the G3 display. We virtually extended our display onto

a 2D spherical volume and populated this volume with 500, equally sized dots (5° solid

angle diameter) at random and uniformly distributed positions. We illuminated the

pixels on the LED display that overlapped with the dots in this spherical volume.

Instead of having fully on/off edges, we used 16 gray-scale intensity levels which

allowed for edges in visual patterns to appear to move more smoothly across frames.

This increases the apparent resolution of the display while minimizing motion-

independent flicker responses in recorded neurons. All dots had a nominal contrast of

100%.

Each trial consists of an identical, stationary visual pattern shown to the fly,

followed by clockwise and counterclockwise movements of the pattern in a particular

body axis of rotation (pitch, yaw, and roll) or movements of the pattern in translational

axes (thrust and sideslip) that lasts for 2 seconds, flanked by stationary periods. Each

trial lasted for 13 seconds (still-motion-still-motion-still for 2-2-5-2-2 seconds) with 5

seconds of inter-trial interval where the visual display was unlit (dark). See

Supplementary Video 1 for all optic flow patterns. In speed tuning experiments, only

one direction of motion was presented, as such, trials lasted for 6 seconds (still-

motion-still for 2-2-2 seconds). See **Supplementary Video 2** for speed tuning stimuli.

Every visual pattern was shown 3-12 times for each fly, and the order of the trials were

randomized.

Choice of calcium indicators

We initially tested several GCaMP variants to reliably record calcium activity

across all the cell types imaged in this study. We found sytGCaMP7f[80] to give us the

strongest signal-to-noise ratio across most cell types. In addition, sytGCaMP7f

guarantees imaging from the axon terminals, which allowed us to confidently

distinguish calcium activity coming from Right bIPS axons versus Left bIPS dendrites.

Therefore, we used sytGCaMP7f in most of our recordings. DNp15 does not have

axon terminals in the brain, so we used cytoplasmic GCaMP7f[98] instead. In FLPStop

experiments we used cytoplasmic GCaMP6f[99] which was readily recombined with

UAS-FLP and used in FlpStop experiments previously[81]. In these experiments, we

distinguished dendritic and axonic signals in bIPS using the anatomical landmarks

provided by TdTomato expression as well as the direction selectivity of the recorded

ROIs.

922 Data acquisition and alignment for imaging

Before quantifying fluorescence intensities, imaging frames were motion-

corrected in MATLAB by translating each frame in the x and y plane using efficient

subpixel image registration[100] to match the time-averaged template from that session.

Multiple recordings from the same fly were registered to the same template if the

positional shift between recordings was small. In a small number of flies the analysis

was performed on raw image traces, where the movement correction resulted in

abnormal shifts of imaging frames in most of the trials despite negligible brain

movement. All trials where the imaged neurons move out of the imaging plane were

discarded.

932 Behavior

933 Exploratory walking arena

The virtual reality setup used in the exploratory walking experiments has been

previously described[38]. Briefly, single 2-4 days old male flies with their wings clipped

since eclosion walked freely in a 90 mm circular arena with heated walls. We either

let the flies walk in darkness or projected a set of visual worlds that translate together

with the fly using real-time tracking of the fly's center of mass and orientation.

To label single bIPS or DNp15 cells, flies were placed under 30°C heat shock

for up to 15 minutes after their wings were removed post-eclosion. The brains of these

flies were dissected immediately after each experiment to confirm cell labeling.

Agent fly simulations

A simulated rigid-body agent moved forward or executed a saccade in alternating activity and immobility intervals (**Fig. 5-S1d**). The distribution of the length of activity bouts was similar to the real flies' distribution[38]. The agent explored a simulated 90 mm circular arena with hot walls. Saccades were modeled as highly stereotyped rapid events in the angular velocity of the agent. The probability and amplitude/direction of a saccade depended on the distance to the arena wall. The time intervals within an activity bout without saccades were considered forward runs. Forward runs had constant translational speed (20 mm/s) except in **Fig. 5f** where the forward velocity was varied. During forward runs, non-zero slow rotations are represented by an "injected" 1/f noise (η). The size of η was scaled by the parameter 'Noise Level' (w_{noise}) to match the straightness of real flies walking in dark (**Fig. 5-S1f**).

Rotations of the agent are guided by a visual controller based on measured visual flow from both eyes. In short, four channels containing arrays of a "two-quadrant" type Hassenstein-Reichardt (HR) correlator detected self-generated visual motion cues[101]. Self-generated visual stimuli were modeled first by high-pass filtering the visual pattern at each spatial position (τ = 50ms). This was followed by a half-wave rectification step. Next, the visual signal was low-pass filtered (first order, τ = 15ms), and then multiplied with an unfiltered signal from a neighboring spatial location. This was done twice in a mirror-symmetrical manner, followed by subtraction, yielding a fully opponent direction-selective output signal, which was then scaled by the parameter 'Visual Weight' (w_{visual}) to match straightness of real flies experiencing

visual motion cues (**Fig. 5-S1g**). The two eyes of the agent are represented by

independent arrays of HR, each detecting progressive (FtoB) and regressive (BtoF)

visual rotations. Combinations of progressive and regressive signals were then used

to simulate the response profiles of HS and H2 cells.

$$HS_{right} = w_{HSPD} * FtoB_{right} - w_{HSNPD} * BtoF_{right} + w_{HSContra} * BtoF_{left}$$

$$H2_{right} = w_{H2PD} * BtoF_{right} - w_{H2NPD} * FtoB_{right} + w_{H2Contra} * FtoB_{left}$$

The weights for HS and H2 responses were adjusted based on a subset of

horizontal visual motion responses obtained (**Fig. 5-S1a**). Following HS and H2, the

intermediate layer of inhibitory neurons – bIPS (B) and uLPTCrns (U) was simulated

according to the architecture outlined in **Fig. 5a**.

$$B_{right} = w_{HSB} * HS_{right} + w_{H2B} * H2_{left} - w_{UB} * U_{right}$$

$$U_{right} = w_{HSU} * HS_{right} + w_{H2U} * H2_{left} - w_{BU} * B_{left}$$

Like HS and H2, the weights for bIPS and uLPTCrn responses were also adjusted

based on real visual responses (**Fig. 5-S1b**). Finally, all simulated neurons converge

onto a simulated DNp15 modeled after the H2-HS network architecture in **Fig. 2**.

$$DNp15_{right} = w_{HSp15} * HS_{right} + w_{H2p15} * H2_{left} - w_{Up15} * U_{right} - w_{Bp15} * B_{left}$$

The weights for DNp15 were adjusted to match the measured horizontal visual motion

responses in **Fig. 1-S1c** by iteratively changing the weights of the input layer (HS and

H2) and then changing the weights of the intermediate layer (B and U). The final table

of weights is presented in **Fig. 5-S1c**.

The agent's rotation depends on the activity difference between Left and Right

DNp15.

$$V_{angular} \ (°/s) = w_{visual} * (DNp15_{right} - DNp15_{left}) + w_{noise} * \eta$$

Where w_{visual} , w_{noise} and η correspond to the visual weight, noise level and injected

1/f noise, respectively. In the current framework, neuronal silencing was mimicked by

turning the signal from specific neurons to zero, while activation was mimicked by

turning the signal from specific neurons to 0.1. Asymmetry indices (AI) were calculated

by comparing the activity between left and right neurons for each neural population:

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$$AI_{neuron} = \frac{|Neuron_{left} - Neuron_{right}|}{|Neuron_{left}| + |Neuron_{right}|}$$

Data analysis

EM connectivity matrices and synaptic clustering

We used *natverse*[84] R libraries to load HS, VS and H2 cells from FAFB and

prune their dendritic arbor in the optic lobes, leaving only the central brain projections.

We then loaded the list of all their synaptic partners, and together with HS, VS and H2

cells, we generated an all-by-all connectivity matrix where each point corresponds to

the number of synapses from a row neuron to a column neuron.

To cluster the neurons that are more closely connected with each other, we

first summed input and output synapses between each pair of neurons, thereby

generating a symmetric connectivity table. We then binarized this table, setting all non-

zero connections to 1. This prevents very strong pairwise connections to take over

and distort network clustering. Conversely, it increases the weight of the weakest

connections (i.e., <5 synapses). Therefore, we convert all weak connections to zero

before binarization. We compute the distance matrix using this binarized connectivity

and perform hierarchical clustering with Ward's method to generate the connectivity

dendrogram in **Fig. 2-S1**. The dendrogram was used to reorder the initial connectivity

matrix where neurons that are clustered together are placed next to each other. We

also ran the same clustering analysis without binarization nor removing weak partners

(**Fig. 2-S2**) to confirm the broad network structure does not critically depend on these

subjective parameters.

Network connectivity graphs

After generating the clusters, neurons within each cluster are loaded in

CATMAID[86]. Neurons that belong to the same class (largely based on anatomy) are

grouped together, generating a graph structure where each node is a neuron class

and directed edges between nodes represent the number of synaptic connections.

The adjacency matrix of this graph structure is then imported to Gephi where the edge

and node parameters (color, size etc.) are adjusted for better visualization. The end

point shape of each edge was determined by their predicted primary

neurotransmitter[52].

To measure the prominence of a neural class within each subnetwork, we

plotted the weighted degree, which is the total number of incoming and outgoing

synapses for each node inside that subnetwork (**Fig. 2b**).

Anatomical clustering of LPTC inputs

To quantify the anatomical similarities among LPTC input cell types (**Fig. 2-**

S3d), we performed NBLAST[102] on the main backbone (primary neurite tracts with the

primary dendrites) of LPTC input neurons. The smallest distal dendrites (twigs) were

removed since they are highly variable and make NBLAST less sensitive to the

stereotyped features of cells. Hierarchical clustering was then performed on Euclidean

distance matrices of NBLAST scores using Ward's method.

Synaptic input profiles

To plot the neuropil input profile of LPTC input neurons (**Fig. 2-S3e, Fig. 3c**),

we first obtained the list of upstream partners from FlyWire for each cell type. We only

analyzed predicted synaptic sites with a cleft score of >50 to minimize false positives.

We defined the input neuropil of each upstream cell as the brain region that houses

most of their postsynaptic (dendritic) sites. Upstream cells that lack a soma or have

less than 200 postsynaptic sites were visually inspected. The ones that project to the

neck connective were scored as VNC/Neck. The remaining fragments without a cell

soma were excluded from the analysis. For the DNp15 input profile (**Fig. 2-S3f**) we

fully reconstructed Right DNp15 in FAFB and manually tagged all its synapses since

it was badly segmented in FlyWire. We then traced ~89% of its synaptic partners for

identification and defined their primary input neuropil. To plot the neurotransmitter

input profile of bIPS (**Fig. 4a**) we regrouped the list of Right bIPS input neurons based

on their predicted neurotransmitter[52].

Distance-to-root and inter-synaptic distance analyses on bIPS

We retrieved the spatial distribution of Right bIPS inputs from FAFB using

natverse R libraries[84]. The location of each input synapse from Right HS, H2rn,

uLPTCrn and Left H2 cells were projected onto a graph representation of bIPS neuron

using *nabor* library. We defined the root point of bIPS as the soma-axon-dendrite

junction, which is where all the dendritic arbors of bIPS converge before crossing the

midline (**Fig. 4-S2a**). We then computed the geodesic distance between each input

synapse and the root point using *igraph* library (**Fig. 4-S2b**). This analysis is loosely

based on the electrotonic distance analysis within EPG neurons performed by Hulse

et. al.[103]. Geodesic distances between H2rn inputs and the nearest H2 or HS input

were calculated in a similar manner (**Fig. 4-S2c**).

Proportion of local circuitry motifs

The non-random locations of bIPS input synapses suggest they may be

organized in distinct microcircuits as they contact bIPS. We assumed only one

synaptic input from a presynaptic cell takes part in a microcircuit. We therefore defined

1.865 μm as the maximum inter-synapse distance (**Fig. 4-S2c**, black line) based on

the distances between H2rns with H2. We then counted the number of times a cell

type (cell X) forms a microcircuit with H2 (**Fig. 4-S2d** and **4-S2f**) or HS (**Fig. 4-S2e**

and **4-S2g**) as they give input to bIPS (**Fig. 4-S2d-e**) or DNp15 (**Fig. 4-S2f-g**),

normalized by the total number of occurrences per motif.

Calcium responses to visual motion

After each imaging session, we manually defined regions of interest (ROI) that

correspond to the axon terminals or dendrites of recorded neurons. For lines that label

single neurons (e.g., H2, bIPS), only one ROI was defined. For lines that label multiple

neurons, multiple ROIs were first defined. After confirming the visual responses of

different ROIs were not qualitatively different, we chose a single ROI with the largest

signal-to-noise ratio to represent the cell type. As such, we recorded the responses of

no more than two ROIs per fly, one per hemisphere.

To calculate calcium evoked responses in these ROIs, we calculated mean

pixel intensity (fluorescence) for each trial (F). Baseline fluorescence (F_0) was defined

as the F value of the last second before the first visual motion presentation. Change

in calcium response was measured as:

$\Delta F = F - F_0$

Since $\Delta F/F$ measurements of calcium activity could create positive artifacts

following negative deviations from baseline observed in several cell types we

imaged[104], we instead Z normalized the ΔF data to compare optic flow responses

within and across cell types. We downsampled the imaging data from each fly to the

lowest recorded frame rate (12.2Hz). Recordings from left hand side cells were flipped

to match the responses from right side recordings (and vice versa for H2 recordings).

Matching is done by converting the stimulus identity (e.g. Roll clockwise, Pitch down

and Yaw left) into its midline-symmetric version (Roll counter-clockwise, Pitch down

and Yaw right), similar to what is described in Weir et al.[97]. Finally, all repetitions of a

given stimulus were averaged to get a single mean response per stimulus per ROI.

Optic flow response indices

To measure the relative sensitivity of a neuron to a particular pattern of optic

flow, we calculated the response as the area under the curve (auc) during the entire

2 seconds of visual motion stimulation or calculated the mean response within the last

200 ms of visual motion (peak). The preferred (PD) and non-preferred (NPD) direction

of visual motion for all axes of movement were defined based on Right HS cell

responses. Optic Flow (OF) responses (**Fig. 3c**) were plotted as the difference

between calcium responses of the preferred (PD) and non-preferred (NPD) direction

related to a given stimulus (e.g., CW minus CCW). The OF responses in **Fig. 3d** were

normalized by the peak OF response per ROI.

To measure the discrimination index (DI), we first calculated the peak OF

response for a given optic flow pattern (e.g., Yaw). Here, PD and NPD responses were

defined per cell type:

$OF_{Yaw} = Peak_{PD} - Peak_{NPD}$

The DI between two optic flow patterns (e.g., Progressive and Yaw) is

calculated as the difference between OF values divided by the sum of the absolute

OF values:

$DI = \frac{OFProg - OFYaw}{||OFProg|| + ||OFYaw||}$

Classification of walking paths, walking straightness, and angular deviations

Walking paths are classified into spike-like saccadic events that correspond to

rapid turns and forward segments as described in Cruz et al.[38]. Straightness of forward

segments are calculated by first measuring local deviations from an ideal path within

a running window of 333 ms for each point of the fly trajectory. Straightness is defined

as the total distance traveled within each window divided by the sum of local

deviations. Angular path deviation for each forward segment is defined as the

cumulative angular deviation of the body divided by the total distance traveled.

Angular bias is the binarized version of angular path deviation (**Fig. 1g, 5-S1e**).

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistics

We performed a two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum (here, abbreviated as MWW)

test for comparisons between two independent groups with Bonferroni correction for

multiple comparisons where applicable.

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 DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

 Analysis codes and data in this paper are available upon request to the Lead Contact.

 Supplementary figure and video legends

 Figure 1-S1: DNp15's responses to optic flow and their effect on body saccades (**a**)
 Mean responses to rightward horizontal binocular optic flow moving in different speeds for
 Right HS (magenta) and right DNp15 (olive). The speed of the stimuli presented in the other
 panels of this figure, and of the rest of the figures in this study is highlighted in red. Gray
 shaded area indicates the duration of visual stimulation. Each trace corresponds to the grand
 mean of z-scored calcium responses. The mean response to 5-10 repetitions per stimulus
 from a single region of interest (ROI) at the axon terminals per fly was used to compute the
 garnd mean. Shaded area represents standard error of the mean. (**b**) Speed tuning curves
 calculated as the area under the curve during stimulus motion, normalized by the maximum
 response per ROI. (**c**) Responses of HS and DNP15 cells to differ- ent binocular and
 monocular optic flow stimuli. (**d**) Top, schematic illustrating directions of body translations and
 the resulting optic flow without rotating the head. Bottom, right HS (magenta) and DNp15
 (olive) responses to translational optic flow. (**e**) Discrimination index for HS and DNp15
 between different patterns of optic flow. Each circle represents an individual ROI. Colored
 horizontal line and black vertical line represents mean and 95% CI. (HS: N=12 flies, n=16
 ROIs, DNp15: N=6 flies n=7 ROIs, *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum
 test). (**f**) Immunostainings showing the stochastic expression of kir2.1:GFP in both, none, left
 or right DNp15 cells. (**g**) Effect of the stochastic silencing on saccade bias (see **Methods**).
 Number of flies per condition, none n=25; both n=31; left n=22; right n=22. The size of circles
 indicates the number of walking bouts per fly.

Figure 1-S2. LPTC axon terminals send outputs to and receive inputs from central

neurons (**a**) Left, schematic of the data coverage of the fly brain (dark gray) available from

two large-scale fly brains imaged under EM resolution, FAFB and Flywire (top) and Hemibrain

(bottom). Right, reconstructions of the right HSE cell in the three EM datasets. FAFB contains

skeletonized neurons while FlyWire and Hemibrain provide volumetric recon- structions of

cells. Postsynaptic (input) and presynaptic (output) site locations are marked with cyan and

red dots, respectively. (**b**) Example EM section at the axon terminals of HSE (yellow) and a

recurrent synaptic partner (green). Arrowheads indicate the location of presynaptic active

zones. Scale bar, 1 μm. (**c**) Top, number of inputs (i.e. upstream partners) for H2, HS and VS

cell classes in the posterior slope region of the fly central brain. Numbers in parentheses

indicate number of cells present in each cell class. Presynaptic neurons traced for

identification are colored based on the EM dataset. Synapses from untraced neurons are

colored in gray. Bottom, same as Top, but for outputs (i.e., downstream partners). (**d**) Top,

distribution of the number of synaptic connections between LPTCs and their inputs. Color-

code indicates EM dataset and tracing status. Each distribution is normalized by total number

of synapses. Inset shows a zoomed version of the region outlined by the dashed rectangle.

Neurons with more than 10 synapses (black line) are considered strong inputs. Bottom, same

as top, but for LPTC outputs. Neurons with more than 35 synapses (black line) are considered

strong outputs.

Figure 1-S3: LPTCs have few strong, and many weak synaptic partners. (**a**) Number of

inputs H2 (top), HS (middle), and VS (bottom) cells receive from central neurons. Presynaptic

central neurons are ordered from strongest to weakest. Color code indicates EM data- set.

Inset, input numbers normalized by the strongest input cell (**b**) same as, **a**), but for LPTC

outputs. (**c**) Pairwise matching of the strongest H2, HS (n=3) and VS (n=8) outputs across EM

datasets. Cells are ordered based on total number of inputs they receive from each LPTC

class. Matching is primarily based on a cell's anatomy, aided by its synaptic connectivity. Black

lines represent matches where both pairs are within the top 10 strongest outputs in their

respective EM dataset. Gray lines indicate that only one of the pairs is within the top 10.

Dashed lines indicate uncertain matching due to the incomplete or bad segmentation in

Hemibrain. See **Supplementary Table 1** for the cell identities.

Figure 2-S1: The synnaptic connectivity matrix among LPTC and their partners is

structured. The synnaptic connectivity matrix of HS, VS, H2 cells and their strongest synaptic

partners in the central brain. Neurons are colored based on anatomical similarities, colorcode

as in **Fig. 2** (see **Supplementary Table 2** for the complete list of neurons and nomenclature).

The number of synaptic connections between pairs is indicated by the grayscale color code.

In addition, connections are either colored red or blue based on the hierarchical clus- tering

analysis, which represent whether connections belong to the H2-HS or VS networks,

respectively (dendrogram, see **Methods**).

Figure 2-S2: The structure of the connectivity matrix is largely unaffected by synaptic

thresholds. The pairwise synaptic connectivity matrix among HS, VS, H2 cells their synaptic

partners in the central brain, without applying any thresholds to the connectivity strength (232

neurons total). Like in **Figure 2-S1**, number of synaptic connections between pairs is indicated

by the grayscale color code. The dendrogram shows the hierarchical clustering analysis of

the connectivity matrix (see **Methods**). Colored lines in the dendrogram indicate the cluster

which the neuron belongs to in **Figure 2-S1**. The location of HS, H2 and VS cells within the

matrix is highlighted.

Figure 2-S3: The middle layers of the H2-HS and VS networks are characterized by

distinct classes of interneurons. (**a**) Percentage of total number of inputs to the left H2 (left),

right HS (middle) and right VS cells (right) grouped by class (color code). LPTC inputs that do

not belong to the five major interneuron classes are grouped together as "other". (**b**) Posterior

view of the morphology of single cell examples from each LPTC input interneuron class. Red

and cyan dots mark the location of pre- and postsynaptic sites, respectively. Regions of

innervation are outlined in gray. (**c**) Anatomical reconstructions of bilateral populations of

neurons per class. Top, posterior views; bottom, dorsal views. Each neural class forms a

bilateral, mirror symmetric population (**d**) NBLAST-based anatomical clustering of the main

backbones of the LPTC input interneurons. (**e**) Left, schematic of the fly brain with key

neuropils sending projections to LPTC inputs. Right, percentage of total synaptic inputs of

bLPTCrn (right) and cLPTCrn (right) cells in FlyWire grouped by the main brain regions where

they receive dendritic input. (**f**) Same as **e**) but for the right DNp15 from FAFB. Input neurons

from H2-HS network shown in **Figure 3a** are highlighted with colored lines. IPS - inferior

posterior slope; SPS - superior posterior slope; GNG - gnathal ganglion; LOP - lobula plate;

ME - medulla; VNC - ventral nerve cord.

Figure 3-S1: Transgenic lines used to gain access to H2-HS network neurons. (a)

Maximum intensity projections of transgenic lines labeling H2-HS network neurons. The

specific cell class is indicated above each image (see **Methods** for a list of the transgenic

lines). Neuropil (nc82) staining is shown in magenta, membrane targeted GFP or cytoplasmic

GCaMP expression is shown in green. (**b**) Single-cell labeling using Multicolor FlpOut (MCFO)

shows that the LPTCrn-Split Gal4 line contains both cLPTCrn (top) and uLPTCrn (bottom)

cells. (**c**) Maximum intensity projections of transgenic lines that are heterozygous (left) or

homozygous (right) mutants for *Rdl* in bIPS neurons. Neuropil staining is shown in magenta,

cytoplasmic GCaMP expression is shown in green, TdToma- to expression, resulting from a

successfully disruption of the Rdl gene with the FLP-Stop cassette, is shown in red. Note that

one copy of Rdl-FlpStop gene is enough to express TdTomato in bIPS. Scale bar for all

panels: 100 µm.

Figure 3-S2: Responses of H2-HS network neurons to different optic flow patterns. (**a**)

Top, schematics illustrating rotations of the fly's body along six degrees of freedom. Bottom,

calci- um responses to the corresponding visual consequences of the body rotations from the

fly's perspective in right HS (magenta), left H2 (blue), right bIPS (green), right H2rn (red) and

right uLPTCrn (orange) cells. Gray shaded area shows the window of stimulation. Each trace

corresponds to the grand mean± SEM (shade) of z-scored calcium responses obtained across

flies. In each fly, mean responses were obtained from 5-10 repetitions of per stimulus from a

single ROI at the axon terminals of the cells. (**b**) Left, responses of right HS, left H2, right

bIPS, right H2rn and right uLPTCrn to horizontal optic flow moving CW at the indicated

speeds. The speed of the rotational and translational optic flow presented in other figures is

highlighted in red. Calcium responses are plotted the same way as in **a**). Right, speed tuning

curves for each cell type. (**c**) Same as **a**), but for monocular stimuli. (**d**) Same as **a**), but for

binocular symmetric optic flow. For all panels: HS: N=12 flies n=16 ROIs, H2: N =8 flies n=11

ROIs, bIPS: N=15 flies n=16 ROIs, H2rn: N=5 flies n=8 ROIs, uLPTCrn: N=5 flies n=5 ROIs.

Figure 3-S3: Responses of H2-HS network neurons to translational optic flow (**a**)

Schematic illustrating possible body traveling directions (translations) and the corresponding

optic flow without rotations of the head or body. (**b-f**) Calcium responses of right HS (**b**), left

H2 (**c**), right bIPS (**d**), right H2rn (**e**) and right uLPTCrn (**f**) to translational optic flow patterns

arranged in the same order as in **a**). Gray shaded area depicts the stimulation window. Each

trace corresponds to the grand mean ± SEM (shaded area) of z-scored calcium responses

obtained across flies. For each fly, mean responses to 5-10 repetitions per stimulus were

obtained from a single ROI at the axon terminals. (**g**) Progressive-Sideslip discrimination index

of neurons shown in panels **b-f**) (see **Methods**). Each circle represents an individual ROI.

Colored horizontal line and black vertical line represents mean and 95% CI. (**h**) Same as **g**),

but for Diagonal Translation vs. Sideslip discrimination index. For all panels: HS: N=10 flies

n=10 ROIs, H2: N =8 flies n=9 ROIs, bIPS: N=9 flies n=9 ROIs, H2rn: N=5 flies n=8 ROIs,

uLPTCrn: N=8 flies n=10 ROIs, *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01 ***p < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test

with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons).

Figure 4-S1: Central LPTC input neurons are GABAergic (**a**) Representative confocal

images showing immunoreactivity against GABA and GFP in cell bodies of each class of

LPTC input neuron, as indicated on top of the images. Dashed circles outline cell bodies.

Scale bar is 100 µm for full brain images and 10 µm for insets. (**b**) Reconstitution of the

expression of each class of LPTCinput neurons by genetic intersection between LPTC input

hemidrivers (columns) and GAD1 (top), ChaT (middle), or Vglut hemidrivers (bottom).

Membrane-targeted GFP expression is shown in green, neuropil (nc82) staining is shown in

magenta. Scale bar is 50 µm. Note the strong expression of each cell type under GAD1

hemidriver and weak to no expression under ChaT and VGlut hemidrivers. A complete list of

the genotypes can be found in **Supplementary Table 3**.

Figure 4-S2: bIPS synaptic inputs are organized non-randomly. (**a**) Example of inputs to

bIPS and the root point of the neuron. (**b**) Geodesic distance between bIPS root point and

synaptic inputs from H2rn (n=192), HS (n=380), H2 (n=164), uLPTCrn (n=238), or a random

subsample of the remaining inputs (n=192, see **Methods**). (**c**) Cumulative distribu- tions from

(**b**). (**d**) Distance between an HS, H2 or other input synapse to bIPS and the clos- est H2rn

input to bIPS. (**e-h**) Proportion of connectivity motifs that involve H2 (**e,g**) or HS (**f,h**) that

converge onto bIPS (**e-f**) or DNp15 (**g-h**) with an additional neuron (cell X) color coded by cell

type. Schematics at the top of each panel show the three cells involved. Numbered

schematics show the connectivity motif plotted per graph.

Figure 5-S1: Calibration and parameters of the visually guided agent. (**a**) Visual

responses of simulated and real HS and H2 cells for different preferred (PD), non-preferred

(NPD) and contralateral (Con) weights. (**b**) Visual responses of simulated and real bIPS and

uLPTCIN cells for different HS, H2 and cross-connection weights. (**c**) Final table with manually

adjusted weights based on visual responses from **a**) and **b**). (**d**) Schematic of the state flow

of the modeled agent, and the associated distributions for saccades (inset, top) and activity

bout size (inset, bottom) estimated from the real data. (**e**) Definition of the quality parameters,

straightness, path deviation and angular bias. (**f**) Simulated straightness under dark

conditions, as a function of 1/f noise level. Black line represents the mean straightness

observed in real flies. (**g**) Simulated straight- ness under light conditions with visual feedback,

as a function of visual weight. Black line represents the mean straightness observed in real

flies. (**h**) Simulated straightness under dark (black) and light (gold) conditions for the chosen

noise and visual weights. Shaded areas represent the standard error of straightness observed

in real flies under light and dark conditions (Cruz et al. 2021)[38]

Figure 6-S1: Transgenic lines used in behavioral experiments (**a**) Posterior view of

maximal projection stacks of three different Split-Gal4 lines labeling bIPS. Neuropil (nc82)

staining is shown in magenta and membrane targeted GFP expression is shown in green.

Scale bar, 200 μm. (**b**) Posterior view of maximal stack projection of example brains with

stochastic silencing of bIPS. Neuropil (nc82) staining is shown in magenta and membrane-

targeted, Kir2.1-bound GFP expression is shown in green. Scale bar, 100 μm. For the

complete list of genotypes of all transgenic lines, please see **Supplementary Table 3**.

Supplementary video 1: Optic flow stimuli used in this study. Patterns of optic

flow used in this study. Note that the LED arena is curved such that the middle of the

video screen is in front of the fly while the edges are on either side of the fly (**Fig. 1c**).

Supplementary video 2: Speed tuning stimuli used in this study. Example of

binocular horizontal rotational optic flow presented at different speeds.

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Figure 1: DNp15 exhibit enhanced sensitivity to rotational optic flow compared to HS cells and plays a role in steering during high-speed translation

Figure 1: DNp15 exhibit enhanced sensitivity to rotational optic flow compared to HS and plays a role in steering during high-speed translation (**a**) Simulated binocular optic flow of a fly walking at low (left) versus high (right) forward speed and rotating with the same angular velocity. Rectangles indicate the presence of regressive (blue) or progressive (magenta) motion detected by a horizontal motion-sensitive system. (**b**) EM-reconstructed right HS (magenta) and postsynaptic right DNp15 (olive) cells. The chemical and electrical synapses between the two cells allocated within the inferior posterior slope (IPS, cyan), a premotor region. The dendrites of HS cells are located within the lobula plate (LP). (**c**) Top, schematic of the fly brain and the IPS, where optical imaging was performed. Bottom, 2-photon calcium imaging setup and the visual LED display. (**d**) HS (magenta) and DNp15 (olive) calcium responses to horizontal binocular rotational or translational-like optic flow (top), and to monocular optic flow (bottom). (**e**) Discrimination index (see **Methods**) between translational-like and rotational stimuli in HS (magenta) and DNp15 (olive). Each circle represents an individual ROI. Colored horizontal line and black vertical line represent the mean and 95% CI. (HS: N=12 flies, n=16 ROIs, DNp15: N=6 flies n=7 ROIs, *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test). (**f**) The walking paths of forward runs of length ≥ 4 body lengths, aligned at their origin, in flies with either both or none DNP15 silenced (left, light gray traces), right DNP15 silenced (middle, gray traces), and left DNP15 silenced (right, black traces). (**g**) Left, definition of path deviation, the difference in body orientation between the end and the beginning of the walking path over traveled distance. Right, mean path deviation from per fly in flies with none, single or both DNp15 silenced. The size of the circle indicates the number of walking bouts per fly, with larger sizes representing larger number of walking bouts. Number of flies per condition, none n=25; both n=31; left n=22; right n=22; *p < 0.05 **p < 0.01 ***p < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.)

Figure 2: H2, HS and VS cells form two distinctive networks in the central brain

Figure 2. H2, HS and VS cells form two distinctive networks in the central brain. (**a**) Connectivity graph of the H2-HS (left) and VS (right) networks. Neurons are represented as nodes (circles), with their synaptic connections indicated by arrows (predicted to be excitatory) or circled edges (predicted to be inhibitory). Thickness of the arrows/circled edges represents number of synapses, and color indicates the presynaptic neuron. For clarity, connections with fewer than 10 synapses are not shown; connections with fewer than 50 synapses are shaded. Node diameters represent the total number of connections that each node has within the network (including both inputs and outputs). Except for LPTCs, nodes are placed within the brain regions (grey rectangles) where their axons reside. (**b**) The total number of synaptic connections for each neuron within H2-HS network (Top), and VS network (bottom). See **Supplementary Table 2** for the complete list of neurons and nomenclature. (**c**) Connectivity graph between each LPTC input cell type and individual HS, H2 and VS cells. Edges indicate synaptic connection between cells, with thickness indicating number of synapses and color indicating the presynaptic cell. LPTCs without input are transparent for clarity.

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Figure 3: Binocular interactions in optic flow sensitivity within the H2-HS network

Figure 3: Binocular interactions define optic flow sensitivity in H2-HS interneurons. (a) Local connectivity between the input and middle layers of the H2-HS network. (**b**) Left, schematic of the central nervous system (CNS) regions from which uLPTCrns, bIPS and H2rns receive inputs. LOP, Lobula Plate; ME, Medulla; GNG, gnathal ganglia; IPS, inferior poste-rior slope; SPS, superior posterior slope. Right, proportion of inputs per CNS region (color code) for each interneuron. (**c**) Single plane fluorescence image of an example recording from bIPS axons during binocular CW (top) and CCW (bottom) horizontal motion. We efined a single region of interest (ROI), which covers the entire axon is outlined in white. The red signal corresponds to mCherry fluorescence, whereas the green signal corresponds to sytGCaMP7f fluorescence. Scale bar, 10 μm. (**d**) Top: visual stimuli presented to the fly, with direction of motion as indicated by arrows. Bottom: optic flow calcium responses (OFR) of each neuron to rotational (stimuli *1, 2, 3*) or translational (stimuli *4, 5*) optic flow. OFR for rotational stimuli is defined as CW (rightwards) minus CCW (leftwards) direction of visual motion. For the translational stimuli, OFR is defined as progressive minus regressive direction of visual motion. Each trace corresponds to the grand mean of the z-scored calcium response across flies ± SEM (shade). Per fly, we obtained mean responses to 5-10 repetitions per stimulus. Light-gray rectangles indicate the stimulation window. For this and the remaining panels: HS: N=12 flies n=16 ROIs, H2: N =8 flies n=11 ROIs, bIPS: N=10 flies n=11 ROIs, H2rn: N=5 flies n=8 ROIs, uLPTCrn: N=6 flies n=8 ROIs. (**e**) Normalized OFRs (relative to the preferred stimulus per neuron). Error bars represent SEM of the grand mean across flies. (**f**) Left, discrimination index between translation-like vs. rotational stimuli (see **Methods**). Each circle represents an individual ROI. The horizontal line and black vertical line represent mean and 95% CI. Right, discrimination index between translation vs. rotational stimuli. *: $p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.

Figure 4: GABAergic inhibition fine-tunes optic flow responses in bIPS

Figure 4: GABAergic inhibition fine-tunes optic flow responses in bIPS. (**a**) Right bIPS input profile, grouped by their predicted primary neurotransmitter. Neurons shown in **b**) are highlighted with colored lines. (**b**) Schematic of the local connectivity of the input and middle layers of the H2-HS network. Inhibitory connections are shown as tee shaped edges. Blocking Rdl receptors in bIPS using FLPStop disrupts fast GABAergic signaling onto bIPS (black crosses). (**c**) Neural responses of wild type (dark green) and Rdl-disrupted (light green) bIPS cells to binocular asymmetric (left, rotational) and symmetric (right, translational-like) optic flow (OF). Each trace corresponds to the grand mean ± SEM (shaded area) of z-scored calcium responses obtained across flies. For each fly, mean responses to 5-10 repetitions per stimulus were obtained from a single ROI at the axon terminals. Stimuli with a star indicate area under the curve (auc) responses that are statistically different from wild-type bIPS recordings. (**d**) Same as **c**), but for translational optic flow. (**e**) OF responses, the difference between the preferred and nulled direction responses (auc) for horizontal and progressive visual motion. (**f**) Left, discrimination index between translational-like and rotational optic flow of recorded neurons in **c**) (see **Methods**). Each circle represents an individual ROI. Colored horizontal line and black vertical line represents mean and 95% CI. Right, discrimination index between progressive and rotational optic flow. For all panels: bIPS: N=7 flies n=9 ROIs, bIPS Rdl-FLPStop: N=7 flies n=10 ROIs. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test.

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Figure 5: A lateral disinhibitory motif enhance asymmetries in neural activity across the right versus left hemisphere

Figure 5: A lateral disinhibitory motif enhance asymmetries in neural activity across the right versus left hemisphere. (**a**) Schematic of the agent architecture: two sets of Reichardt detectors tuned to front-to-back (FtoB) or back-to-front (BtoF) motion detect the optic flow generated by a simulated walking fly (See **Methods**, **Fig. 5-S1**). The detected visual motion is processed by a network of nodes that mimic the core network motif of H2-HS network (**Fig. 3a**). The weights that connect the nodes are tuned based on a subset of measured visual responses (**Fig. 5-S1**). (**b**) Simulated and observed visual responses to monocular and binocular patterns of optic flow. Responses were matched to the maximal observed response. Observed responses are replotted from **Fig. 3-S2** and **Fig. 4c** (**c**) Visual response of modeled bIPS to symmetric or asymmetric binocular optic flow, and with or without a functional input from uLPTCrns. (**d**) Left: discrimination index of modeled and observed bIPS with or without a functional input from uLPTCrns. Right: observedd bIPS' discrimination index with or without functional GABAergic input (replotted from **Fig. 4f**). (**e**) Definition of the Asymmetry Index (AI) and two example conditions with low and high AI values. (**f**) Asymmetry index of simulated neurons (colored) in the full model (Control), under bIPS silencing (Without B), under uLPTCrn silencing (Without U) and under both bIPS and uLPTCrn silencing (With-out U+B). The dot size corresponds to the magnitude of the neural response. (**g**) Asymmetry index of simulated neurons (colored) in the full model varying the forward velocity of the agent. The shaded area corresponds to the range of velocities observed for forward runs in real exploratory flies (Cruz et al. 2021).

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Figure 6: bIPS plays a role in steering control during highspeed walking

Figure 6: bIPS plays a role in steering control during highspeed walking. (**a**) Example walking paths of the agent (left) and the real fly (right) under prominent visual feedback. (**b**) Simulated (left) and real fly (right) angular bias during forward runs (see **Methods**) with DNp15 activity perturbed bilateral or unilaterally. Transparent dots depict mean bias of individual flies, black dots represent grand mean per genotype, weighted by the amount of walking bouts (dot size). Error bars represent SEM. Number of flies per condition, None n=25; Left n=22; Right n=22; Both n=31. (**c**) Same as **b**), but for bIPS. Number of flies per condition, None n=65; Left n=26; Right n=38; Both n=13. For (**b**) and (**c**): *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01 ***p < 0.001, Wilcoxon's rank-sum test with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. (**d**) Left, simulated straightness of the agent during forward runs (see **Methods**) with control (green), bilaterally activated (dark green) or silenced (light green) bIPS cells. Right, straigtness of control flies (green), or flies with bilaterally activated (dark green) or silenced (light green) bIPS cells. Number of flies per condition, empty control>TrpA1 n=25; bIPS#1>TrpA1 n=27; bIPS#2>TrpA1 n=25; bIPS#3>Tr-pA1 n=29; empty control>Kir2.1 n=22; bIPS#1>Kir2.1 n=23. (**e**) Summary of the findings. The middle layer of the H2-HS network supports steering by enhancing the difference in the activity levels of the output layer across hemispheres. This function is driven by a competitive disinhibitory motif that is well posed to be recruited at highspeed walking. In this condition, binocular optic flow may contain prominent translational components, possibly overshadowing rotational cues that are critical for course control. We propose that the competitive disinhibition at the middle layer plays an important role in modulating the output layer in a continuous and dynamic manner, leading to a more robust estimate of the deviations from a straight course.

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