Brief disruption of activity in a subset of dopaminergic neurons during consolidation impairs long-term memory by fragmenting sleep

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Abstract

Sleep disturbances are associated with poor long-term memory (LTM) formation, yet

the underlying cell types and neural circuits involved have not been fully decoded.

Dopamine neurons (DANs) are involved in memory processing at multiple stages.

Here, using both male and female flies, *Drosophila melanogaster*, we show that,

during the first few hours of memory consolidation, disruption of basal activity of a

small subset of protocerebral anterior medial DANs (PAM-DANs), by either brief

activation or inhibition of the two dorsal posterior medial (DPM) neurons, impairs 24

h LTM. Interestingly, these brief changes in activity using female flies result in sleep

loss and fragmentation, especially at night. Pharmacological rescue of sleep after

manipulation restores LTM. A specific subset of PAM-DANs (PAM-α1) that synapse

onto DPM neurons specify the microcircuit that links sleep and memory. PAM-DANs,

including PAM-α1, form functional synapses onto DPM mainly via multiple

dopamine receptor subtypes. This PAM-α1 to DPM microcircuit exhibits a

synchronized, transient, post-training increase in activity during the critical memory

consolidation window, suggesting an effect of this microcircuit on maintaining the

sleep necessary for LTM consolidation. Our results provide a new cellular and circuit

basis for the complex relationship between sleep and memory.

Introduction

Memory consolidation is a time-dependent process which, during the immediate

post-encoding period, facilitates maturation of newly formed but unstable memories

(McGaugh, 2000; Dudai et al., 2015). Neurons undergo a cascade of events that

actively remodel the connections at both synaptic and system levels to consolidate

newly formed memories (Tonegawa et al., 2018). Systems consolidation, referring to

the biological interaction between brain regions or circuits, results in establishment of

an information flow for the neuronal ensemble during memory transformation

(Dubnau and Chiang, 2013). Sleep, as one of the most important physiological

processes that affects memory, has been shown to influence several different memory

stages. Sleep deprivation (SD) before training compromises memory formation, while

SD post-learning impairs memory consolidation (Li et al., 2009; Spira et al., 2014;

Dag et al., 2019). The neural replay of memories during sleep, in particular, has been

considered to be part of the active process of memory consolidation (Klinzing et al.,

2019). However, the neural mechanisms that bridge sleep and memory consolidation

are still largely unclear.

The fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* has proven to be a valuable model for

uncovering the mechanistic underpinnings of memory formation, and studies in this

organism have contributed to revealing the nature of the representations of memory

traces formed in associative conditioning paradigms (Aso and Rubin, 2020; Adel,

2021). Classical olfactory conditioning, which stems from studies on Pavlov's dogs

(Pavlov, 1927), forms a memory of a conditioned stimulus (CS, an odour) as a

pleasant or an unpleasant prediction of an unconditioned stimulus (US, a reward or a

punishment) after pairing the CS with the US (Quinn, 1974; Tempel, 1983; Tully,

1985). Multiple types of neurons have been identified involved in distinct memory

processes. Dopamine neurons (DANs), as an indispensable part of the US pathway,

convey reinforcement signals to spatially segregated subdomains of the mushroom

body (MB) to form appetitive or aversive short-term memories (STM) (Aso et al.,

2012; Burke et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2012). In addition to their role in STM formation,

DANs also participate in different phases of LTM (Placais et al., 2012). Different

subsets of DANs are morphologically and functionally distinct (Mao and Davis, 2009;

Aso et al., 2014a). Persistent activity in PPL1-γ1pedc and -γ2α'1 subtypes interferes

with STM and anesthesia-resistant memory (ARM), and promotes forgetting (Berry et

al., 2012; Placais et al., 2012; Berry et al., 2015), while PPL1-α2α'2 and PPL1-α3

mediate aversive LTM formation with persistent post-training activity (Feng et al.,

2021). Delayed post-training activity in aSP13-DANs is required for LTM

consolidation of courtship learning (Kruttner et al., 2015). The function of many of

other subsets remains uncharacterized.

The MB, a multi-functional unit roughly analogous to the hippocampus in

mammals, encodes and integrates CS and the US information in a compartmentalized

manner. Dopamine (DA) released from DANs acts directly on the MB intrinsic

neurons via D1-type receptors (Kim et al., 2007; Qin et al., 2012). Functional

observations revealed that ongoing activity in α'β' neurons is required to maintain

memory during the first hour after training (Krashes et al., 2007). In addition, MB αβ

core neurons have been shown to act as a gate to permit LTM consolidation (Huang et

al., 2012). These data imply that during memory consolidation, a DA signal cascade

recruits multiple subsets of neurons to exert sequential modulation of these functional

loops. Additional processing takes place via activation of two pairs of extrinsic

neurons, dorsal paired medial (DPM) neurons and anterior paired lateral (APL)

neurons, which have been well characterized for their requirement in memory

consolidation (Waddell, 2000; Keene et al., 2004; Keene et al., 2006; Zhang et al.,

2013). In addition to memory processes, DA also regulates wakefulness and sleep by

acting on distinct downstream targets (Kume et al., 2005; Donlea, 2011; Van

Swinderen and Andretic, 2011; Ueno et al., 2012; Tomita et al., 2021). Subsets of

PAM-DANs have been suggested to signal wakefulness and project to

wake-promoting compartments of the MB (Sitaraman et al., 2015; Driscoll et al.,

2021). Furthermore, DPM neurons have been shown to promote sleep via inhibitory

signaling (Haynes et al., 2015). The role of the activity of DAN-DPM connections in

consolidation has not been explored.

In this study, we show that PAM neurons form inhibitory connections on DPM

neurons. Interestingly, activation of PAM neurons or inactivation of DPM neurons

during the first few hours of memory consolidation results in an impairment of LTM.

Furthermore, we observed a sleep reduction and fragmentation after brief disruption

of these neurons. Finally, we identified a specific subset of PAM neurons that are

sufficient and necessary to modulate memory consolidation via sleep regulation, and

characterized their functional connection with DPM neurons. Maintenance of basal

activity of this specific microcircuit during memory consolidation has a profound

effect on LTM, through influencing sleep in an internal state-dependent manner.

Results

PAM neurons form functional synapses and inhibit downstream DPM neurons

PAM neurons project to the horizontal lobes of the MB where they participate in

formation of appetitive memory (Burke et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2012) (Figure 1A), and

a pair of DPM neurons intensively innervates all lobes of the MB and is important for

consolidation of memory (Yu et al., 2005; Keene et al., 2006) (Figure 1A). The

electron microscope (EM) connectome database have shown the synaptic connection

from PAM to DPM neurons with 4709 synapses (Zheng et al., 2018; Scheffer et al.,

2020; Plaza et al., 2022). To determine if PAM and DPM neurons sequentially

function together to regulate distinct memory processes, we first needed to determine

how they were connected. We investigated the connectome-predicted structural and

functional connection between PAM and DPM neurons using GFP Reconstitution

Across Synaptic Partners (GRASP) and activity-dependent GRASP (Feinberg et al.,

2008; Macpherson et al., 2015). Signals from GRASP and active GRASP, which

detect physical proximity of neurons, were detected in the horizontal lobes of the MB

in flies with split-GFP fragments (spGFP1-10/syb::spGFP1-10 and CD4::spGFP11)

expressing in PAM neurons labeled by R58E02-GAL4 or -LexA and DPM neurons

labeled by L0111-LexA or eyeless-GAL80;MB-GAL80;c316-GAL4, respectively,

showing that PAM neurons likely to connect to DPM neurons functionally (Figure

1B). Further, using a restricted *trans*-Tango, a technique to probe the synaptic

connections between GAL4-labeled upstream neurons and LexA-labeled targeted

neurons (Sun et al., 2022), we confirmed that DPM neurons labeled by newly

generated VT064246-LexA drivers are the downstream target of PAM neurons

(Figure 1C-D).

To investigate the functional connection from PAM to DPM neurons, we

expressed P2X$_2$ receptors in PAM neurons using R58E02-LexA, and GCaMP6f in the

DPM neurons using VT064246-GAL4. As we previously described, the change in

fluorescence over time as a ratio to the initial level using $\triangle F/F = (F_n-F_0)/F_0 \times 100\%$

was used for quantification (Liu et al., 2019). We found that direct activation of PAM

neurons by bath application of ATP resulted in a strong decrease in calcium,

consistent with inhibition of DPM activity (Figure 2A, see also Table 3). To

understand which dopamine receptor mediates this inhibition, we knocked down

different dopamine receptors in DPM neurons using VT046004-GAL4, and imaged

EPAC in DPM, an indicator of cAMP levels, after application of dopamine.

Knockdown of Dop1R1 receptors in DPM neurons significantly rescued the

dopamine-induced decrease in cAMP (visualized as a decrease in EPAC FRET),

whereas knockdown Dop1R2 or DopEcR trended to further increasing cAMP level

(Figure 2B, see also Table 3). These data suggest that dopamine released from PAM

neurons acts on DPM via multiple receptor subtypes, which may modulate the neural

activity in a complex way. Our observations suggested the hypothesis that PAM

neurons may be involved in memory consolidation via a direct synaptic connection

with DPM neurons.

PAM and DPM neurons both influence memory consolidation

To understand the biological function of the inhibitory connection from PAM to DPM

neurons, we wanted to ask whether PAM and DPM neurons participate in distinct

memory processes or whether they are part of a single pathway. We first confirmed

their roles in learning or consolidation, employing an appetitive olfactory conditioning

paradigm which is able to induce LTM with a single session of training (Krashes and

Waddell, 2008). Consistent with our previous work, activation of PAM neurons

expressing dTrpA1 (Hamada et al., 2008) driven by R58E02-GAL4 paired with an

odour for 1 min in non-starved and starved flies was sufficient to induce immediate

appetitive memory (Figure 3A, see also Table 3) (Liu et al., 2012). Blocking the PAM

neurons during training using shibire^{ts1} (shi^{ts1}), which inhibits neuronal output at high

temperature (Krashes et al., 2009), resulted in 24 h appetitive memory defects (Figure

3B, see also Table 1), which is consistent with previous findings (Yamagata et al.,

2015). DPM neurons have been found an essential role in memory consolidation

during a critical window for consolidation (Waddell, 2000; Yu et al., 2005; Keene et

al., 2006; Cervantes-Sandoval and Davis, 2012). In accordance with the

aforementioned findings, inactivation of DPM neurons by shi[ts1] at restrictive

temperature of 32 °C for 2.5 h after training resulted in a 24 h memory deficit (Figure

3C-D, see also Table 1), but there was no effect on 24 h memory when they were

blocked before and during training (Figure 3E, see also Table 1). Since PAM neurons

can inhibit DPM neurons, we wondered whether PAM neurons participate in the

consolidation process and used conditional activation/inactivation to probe their role.

Activation of PAM neurons for 1 h after training resulted in an impairment of 24 h

memory (Figure 3F, see also Table 1). Without activation,

R58E02-GAL4/UAS-dTrpA1 flies and their genetic controls formed normal 24 h

memory (Figure 3G, see also Table 1). Blocking the PAM neuronal activity after

training for 2.5 h failed to disrupt 24 h memory (Figure 3H, see also Table 1),

suggesting that activity of PAM neurons is necessary in the consolidation window or

that heterogeneity in the subsets of PAM neurons masks any phenotype.

Increased or decreased activity of PAM neurons results in reduced and

fragmented sleep

It has been suggested that one of the important functions of DPM in consolidation is

its ability to regulate sleep (Haynes et al., 2015). To understand whether the

impairments in LTM that occurred with activation of PAM neurons after training

were attributable to sleep disruption, we monitored sleep under starvation and normal

feeding conditions before (LP1), during and 24 h after activation/inactivation (DP1

and LP2) using the Drosophila Activity Monitor (DAM2) System. We measured sleep

amount, the number of sleep episodes and P(wake), a parameter which reflects sleep

depth (Liu et al., 2019; Wiggin et al., 2020). Sleep data were analyzed in one-hour

bins to assess dynamic changes during the course of starvation before the time when

training would have occurred through the time when the 24 h memory tests would

have been done (Figure 4, see also Table 4). Activation/inactivation periods were

applied in the same time windows that reliably disrupted LTM 1 h for the PAM

neurons and 2.5 h for the DPM neurons, immediately after when training would have

occurred.

A reduction in sleep occurred a few hours after activation of PAM neurons

(Figure 4A, upper panel), possibly due to a reduced number of sleep episodes (Figure

4A, middle panel) and an increased possibility of waking (Figure 4A, lower panel).

The biggest change, however, was structural- PAM activation significantly increased

the number of sleep episodes, which reflects increased wakefulness during the dark

period following activation (Figure 4A, middle panel). Although LTM impairment

was similar in the memory experiments, the effect of inactivation of DPM neurons

resulted in a slightly stronger, long-lasting sleep reduction and fragmentation that was

delayed until the dark period after inactivation (Figure 4C-D). Unexpectedly,

inactivation of PAM neurons led to a sleep change similar to that seen with

inactivation of DPM neurons (Figure 4B), suggesting that perhaps a specific subsets

of PAM neurons was important for linking memory consolidation and sleep via

modulation of DPM. The weak effect of activation of the large R58E02-GAL4+

group of PAM neurons on sleep could be due to masking of the role of a PAM

subgroup by inter-PAM interactions or DPM-independent effects on sleep.

217   Appetitive LTM expression requires that the animal be motivated by hunger (Liu

et al., 2012) and starvation is known to suppresses sleep (MacFadyen, 1973; Keene et

al., 2010; Thimgan et al. 2010). To determine whether the memory defect and sleep

disruption are linked to a certain internal state, we also analyzed the sleep effects of

manipulation of PAM and DPM neurons under a no starvation condition (Figure 5).

Without starvation, activation of PAM neurons led to a significant decrease in total

sleep during the activation period, and also to a significant reduction in the early night

(Figure 5A, see also Table 4), suggesting a complex and context-dependent role for

PAM neurons in regulation of sleep. Inactivation of PAM neurons (Figure 5B, see

also Table 4), inactivation or activation DPM neurons (Figure 5C-D, see also Table 4)

in the fed condition produced almost no change in sleep pattern compared to genetic

controls before, during and after manipulation. Taken together, these observations

again raise the possibility that there may be subtype-specific actions of PAM neurons

on DPM neurons. They also demonstrate that their interactions are likely to be

context-dependent.

The PAM-α1 subset of PAM neurons contributes to linking memory

consolidation and sleep

The PAM neurons signaling reward for STM and LTM have been shown to be

distinct groups that can be labeled separately by R48B04-GAL4 and R15A04-GAL4,

except for overlapping expression in the neurons projecting to the γ5 subdomain

(Yamagata et al., 2015). Terminals of R15A04-GAL4 labeling (LTM-PAM) neurons

are localized in the β2, α1, β'1, γ5 and pedunculus MB subdomains (Figure 6A).

Terminals of R48B04-GAL4 labeling (STM-PAM) neurons are localized in the β'2,

β1, and γ1-5 MB subdomains (Figure 6C). To address which subsets of PAM neurons

are involved in the process of consolidation, we employed the same single session of

appetitive conditioning protocol, activated these neurons after training for 1 h, and

examined their 24 h memory. We found that activation of LTM-PAM neurons

impaired 24 h memory (Figure 6B, see also Table 1). In contrast, activation of

STM-PAM neurons did not affect 24 h memory (Figure 6D, see also Table 1). Thus,

LTM-PAM neurons participate in the process of memory consolidation.

To identify which subset(s) of LTM-PAM neurons are involved in the regulation

of memory consolidation, we tested split-GAL4 drivers labeling more specific groups.

MB213B-, MB025B-, MB032B- and MB315C-GAL4+ neurons innervate to β1/β2,

β'1, β'2 and γ5 subdomains, respectively (Figure 6E). We trained flies expressing

dTrpA1 under control of each of these drivers, +/- 1 h activation after training, and

tested 24 h memory. Only activation of MB299B-GAL4+ and MB043B-GAL4+

neurons impaired 24 h memory compared to their no-activation groups (Figure 6F, see

also Table 2). MB299B-GAL4+ (which labels 12±5 PAM neurons/hemisphere) and

MB043B-GAL4+ (which labels 6±2 PAM neurons/hemisphere) primarily label the α1

subdomain (Figure 6G). These data indicate that elevated activity of PAM-α1 neurons

during consolidation impedes LTM.

To further probe the requirement of PAM-α1 neurons in memory consolidation,

we either activated PAM-α1 neurons or blocked the output of PAM-α1 neurons for 1

h or 2.5 h after training, and tested 24 h memory of the experimental flies along with

their genetic controls. Activation of both MB299B-GAL4 and MB043B-GAL4

labelled PAM-α1 neurons resulted in an impairment of 24 h memory (Figure 7A-B,

see also Table 1). Blockade of MB299B-GAL4+, but not MB043B-GAL4+ neurons,

also resulted in 24 h memory defect (Figure 7C-D, see also Table 1), perhaps

reflecting a difference in the number or identity of the PAM-α1 neurons in each line

(Figure 6G). Consistent finding was observed previously using MB299B (Ichinose et

al., 2015; Chouhan et al., 2022). Interestingly, inactivation of the large group of

R58E02+ PAM neurons (Figure 3H) also failed to impair 24 h LTM supporting the

idea that the presence of additional non-α1 PAM neurons might suppress some

phenotypes. The connectome catalogs both PAM to PAM connections and recurrent

PAM to MBON network loops that might underlie some of the differences between

these GAL4 lines.

PAM-α1 neurons have been shown to be important for LTM formation, memory

retention and updating memory (Huetteroth et al., 2015; Ichinose et al., 2015; Aso and

Rubin, 2016; Yamagata et al., 2016). To clarify if their action is specific to

consolidation or to forgetting or retrieval, we activated and/or blocked PAM-α1

neurons labeled by MB299B-GAL4 prior to and or during the 24 h memory test.

Activation of PAM-α1 prior to retrieval impaired 24 h memory (Figure 7E, see also

Table 1), but activation and inactivation of PAM-α1 neurons during retrieval did not

affect 24 h memory (Figure 7F-G, see also Table 1). These data suggest that PAM-α1

neurons may interact with the active forgetting process during a specific window, but

they are not required for retrieval. In aggregate, our findings indicate that the normal

activity of PAM-α1 neurons after training is critical to maintain the processing of

memory consolidation.

To investigate whether 24 h memory defects were attributable to disrupted sleep

secondary to changes in activity of PAM-α1 neurons, we recorded and analyzed sleep.

Neither activation nor inactivation in fed flies had a major effect on sleep (Figure

8A-D, see also Table 4). Consistent with a context-regulated role in linking sleep and

memory, activation of PAM-α1 neurons labeled by MB299B and MB043B under

starvation conditions reduced sleep amount mainly during DP1 (Figure 7H, 7J, upper

panel, see also Table 4), reminiscent of DPM suppression. The night after activation

of PAM-α1 neurons, flies exhibited a significantly increased number of sleep episodes

and P(wake) (Figure 7H, 7J, middle and lower panels, see also Table 4). Inactivation

of starved MB299B neurons had little effect on sleep, but inactivation of PAM-α1

labeled by MB043B produced a strong reduction and fragmentation of sleep under

starvation (Figure 7I, 7K, see also Table 4), again suggesting effects of the differences

in cell number/identity between the two drivers. In aggregate, these data demonstrate

that both brief increases and brief decreases in activity of PAM-α1 neurons can reduce

and fragment sleep. The 24 h memory defect resulting from this change of PAM-α1

activity during consolidation is possibly due to a delayed effect on nighttime sleep,

and is completely dependent on internal starvation status.

A specific PAM-α1-DPM inhibitory microcircuit binds memory consolidation

and sleep via maintaining basal activity post-learning

Using a broadly-expressing driver that captures most if not all PAM neurons, we

showed that PAM-DANs form inhibitory synapses onto the DPM neurons (Figure 1).

To determine if the connections between the PAM-α1 subset and DPM neurons

follow the same rules as the aggregate, we determined the connectivity of this subset.

From the EM connectome database (Zheng et al., 2018; Scheffer et al., 2020) and

analysis of the connectivity with NeuPrint (Plaza et al., 2022), we found that 14

PAM-α1 neurons of the right hemisphere form 11, 12, 13, 12, 16, 16, 12, 17, 21 and

17 synapses with the right DPM neuron, 5 out of 14 PAM-α1 neurons form a single

synapse and one PAM-α1 neuron form 4 synapses with the left DPM neuron, based

on the Hemibrain connectome dataset (Figure 9A).To determine the functional

connection between PAM-α1 and DPM neurons, we expressed $P2X_2$, ATP receptors

in PAM-α1 neurons labeled by MB299B and GCaMP6f in the DPM neurons using

VT064246-LexA (III), respectively, and confirmed an inhibition from PAM-α1 to

DPM neurons by observing a significant decrease in GCaMP signal after application

of ATP *in vitro* (Figure 9B, see also Table 3).

319   We also wanted to know if PAM-α1 and DPM activity changed post-learning, so

320 we employed a newly developed tool, CREB-regulated transcriptional co-activator

321 (CRTC) (Bonheur et al., 2023), to capture neural activity specifically during the

322 critical consolidation window. Activity drives CRTC::GFP into the nucleus on a

323 minute time scale, allowing visualization of recent activity by measurement of nuclear

324 GFP levels. Subcellular distribution of CRTC::GFP signal in the cell bodies of

325 PAM-α1 and DPM neurons were evaluated under different conditions. GFP signals in

326 the nucleus of PAM-α1 but not DPM neurons significantly increased under starvation

327 (Figure 9D-E, see also Table 1), suggesting a state-dependent resetting of activity in

328 PAM-α1 neurons. Compared to the untrained group, we observed higher activity in

329 both PAM-α1 and DPM neurons right after training (Figure 9C-E, see also Table 3).

330 At 1 h of post-training, neural activity of PAM-α1 and DPM neurons was statistically

331 indistinguishable from their untrained group; in the case of DPM it was significantly

332 decreased compared to the timepoint of right after training, in the case of PAM-α1 the

333 decrease was not statistically significant (Figure 9C-E, see also Table 3). These data

334 suggest that the PAM-α1-DPM microcircuit exhibits synchronized neural activity

335 changes during the consolidation window, and this may allow natural memory

336 processes and sleep to be yoked. The fact that both increases and decreases of

337 PAM-α1 activity break this synergy argues that the starvation-dependent resetting of

338 PAM-α1 activity level is a critical feature of the state-dependent function of this

339 circuit.

While it is clear that these two neuron types are connected, it was still possible

that they function in sleep and LTM via parallel, independent pathways. If this was

true, we would predict that the effects of inactivating both neuron groups at the same

time should additively decrease sleep. To determine if this was the case, we

simultaneously inactivated these neurons by expressing shi[ts1] in both cell groups, and

found sleep reduction and fragmentation statistically the same as when each of them

was inactivated separately under starvation (Figure 10A-B, see also Table 4). This

result supports a model of a PAM-DPM microcircuit which link sleep and memory

consolidation.

Lastly, to cement the link between sleep disruption by manipulation of this

circuit and memory impairment, we employed a pharmacological method. Rescue of

the sleep disturbance produced by activating PAM-α1 for an hour by feeding of

gaboxadol (also called THIP), a GABA agonist that promotes sleep (Dissel et al.,

2015) was sufficient to also rescue memory consolidation, as reflected by memory

levels comparable to the genetic controls and significantly better than the no-THIP

group (Figure 10C-E, see also Table 1, 2 and 4). Taken together, these results support

a mechanistic link between PAM-α1-DPM microcircuit activity in the post-learning

time window and both memory consolidation and sleep.

Discussion

PAM-DANs have been known to be important for formation of short-term and

long-term memories, and DPM neurons for memory consolidation and sleep. In the

present study as summarized in Figure 10F, we find that these two types of MB

extrinsic neurons are connected by inhibitory synapses and play an essential role in

bridging LTM stabilization via dynamic sleep change. We demonstrate that a brief

disruption of this circuit, in particular of a subset of PAM neurons (PAM-α1) during

the critical memory consolidation window, results in an impairment of LTM. Worth

noticing, sleep loss and fragmentation occur hours after the brief disruption of this

circuit when the flies are starved. Thus, maintenance of basal activity of

PAM-α1-DPM microcircuit during memory consolidation has a profound effect on

LTM, through influencing sleep when the animal is experiencing a certain internal

state.

Mushroom body DANs are not just a valence signal

DANs can have multiple roles at different times in the memory process. PAM-α1 is

one of many cell types of DANs that required for memory formation (Yamagata et al.,

2015; Yamagata et al., 2021). We find that not only suppressed activity but also

elevated activity of PAM-α1 neurons right after training can disrupt memory

consolidation, supporting a role in consolidation (Ichinose et al., 2015). PAM-α1

neurons form a recurrent loop with MBON-α1 neurons (Aso et al., 2014b; Ichinose et

al., 2015), and the recurrent DAN/MBON networks are likely to be important in many

aspects of memory processing. Several subsets of DANs have been shown to be

involved in forgetting, PPL1-γ1pedc (MP1) and PPL1-γ2α'1 (MV1) for permanent

forgetting (Berry et al., 2012), and PPL1-α2α'2 for transient forgetting (Sabandal et

al., 2021). In addition, Aso and Rubin (2016) demonstrated that writing and updating

memories recruit different rules across distinct MB compartments. Memory

consolidation is a dynamic time window from hours after learning but may continue

for weeks (Roesler and McGaugh, 2010), and many studies have suggested that sleep

deprivation is important during memory consolidation but not retrieval (Krishnan et

al., 2016; Manassero et al., 2022). Our results do not rule out a role for PAM-α1 in

active forgetting processes, but it is clearly not required for retrieval (Figure 7E-G),

adding a new layer of complexity of multiple functions within a single type of

neurons.

Sleep interacts with mushroom body DANs in multiple ways

Sleep is thought to be indispensable to memory consolidation process, converting

initially unstable memory into stable long-term memory during sleep (Diekelmann

and Born, 2010; Klinzing et al., 2019; Girardeau and Lopes-Dos-Santos, 2021).

Besides the amount of sleep, accumulating evidence have pointed out that sleep

structure is responsible for memory processing (Rolls et al., 2011; Lipinska and

Thomas, 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Kjaerby et al., 2022). In *Drosophila*, sleep structure

can be evaluated by the number of sleep episodes as well as P(wake). The number of

sleep episodes reflects the frequency of awakenings, and P(wake) is the probability of

transitioning from a sleep to an awake state, that reflects as the threshold for arousal

(Liu et al., 2019; Wiggin et al., 2020). In the present study, we found that a brief

disruption of neural activity of a specific microcircuit resulted in reduced and

fragmented sleep, with a consequent impairment of LTM, providing a new circuit

base for the linkage between these two processes.

DPM neurons process memory consolidation via promoting sleep, likely via

GABA inhibition of wake-promoting MB-α'β' neurons (Donlea, 2011; Haynes et al.,

2015), and this circuit also seems particularly important for consolidation (Krashes et

al., 2007). DPM neurons have been recently endowed with new functions, such as a

gatekeeper for intrinsic coincidence time windows, and a bridge for mediating

multisensory stimulus binding (Okray et al., 2023; Zeng et al., 2023), further

revealing a compartmentalized specificity and plasticity of microcircuits. The

PAM-α1-DPM microcircuit in the present work unlocks an upstream modulation of

MB circuits for linking memory and sleep.

There are "forgetting" DANs (such as PPL1-γ2α'1) whose activity has been

shown to be suppressed by sleep (Berry et al., 2015). This PPL1-γ2α'1 subset, and

other MB DANs (including PAM-α1) have been identified as wake promoting

neurons (Donlea, 2011; Sitaraman et al., 2015; Driscoll et al., 2021). Maybe this is

one of the ways the recurrent network processes sleep. Perhaps the activation of

PAM-α1 decreases sleep and that allows PPL1-γ2α'1 to cause forgetting. This is a

model that could be tested in the future. In spite of the fact that MB circuits have been

elegantly investigated, the leap from the microcircuit level to the systems scale

remains daunting, and how these circuits enable consolidation during sleep still needs

further investigation.

Internal state dictates circuit configuration for consolidation

Internal state, like starvation, gates many of interactions through molecular mediators

and neural circuits (Keene et al., 2010; McDonald, 2010; Lin et al., 2019; Yurgel et al.,

2019). DANs contribute robustly in coordination of state-dependent behaviors, such

as facilitating starvation-dependent sugar memory, and mediating starvation-driven

food seeking behavior (Krashes et al., 2009; Tsao et al., 2018; Senapati et al., 2019).

Driven by context, distinct subsets of DANs exhibit suppressed or enhanced neuronal

responses facilitating integration of motivational signals and modulating output

behaviors (Liu et al., 2017; Jovanoski et al., 2023). Our present study characterizes

another subset of DANs that respond to starvation with an increase in neural activity

to provide a context-dependent regulation of behavior. It is well known that starvation

suppresses sleep (MacFadyen, 1973; Thimgan et al., 2010; Melnattur and Shaw,

2019), and sleep serves memory consolidation (Brodt et al., 2023; Chandra et al.,

2023). Paradoxically, flies need to be starved to express appetitive LTM. But it can be

interpreted in a way that the animal's state during consolidation can recruit different

circuitry at both the KC level and the DAN level (Chouhan et al., 2021; Chouhan and

Sehgal, 2022). Our results provides yet another example of this. Disrupted activity of

PAM-α1-DPM microcircuit negatively impacts on both sleep and memory only when

the animal is starved. The activity of the microcircuit we have identified is likely to be

key to understanding how sleep need is taken out of the loop during starvation.

An additional interesting feature of the role of PAM-α1 neurons in consolidation

of appetitive LTM is that it is very sensitive to the level of activity within this neuron

group (Figure 10E). Both increases and decreases in activity can block LTM and

fragment sleep. The inhibitory nature of the connectivity between PAM-α1 and DPM

provides a plausible explanation for the effects of overactivation of PAM-α1: strongly

blocking DPM activity would suppress both sleep and consolidation (Waddell, 2000;

Keene et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2005; Krashes and Waddell, 2008; Haynes et al., 2015).

How inactivation of PAM-α1 produces a similar 'DPM-inhibition-like' state is more

difficult to explain with current data. Whether this is a direct effect of decreasing the

level of stimulation of dopamine receptors that occurs under starvation conditions

when PAM-α1 activity increases (Figure 9D) or if it is an indirect effect mediated by

an interneuron will require further investigation

Materials and methods

Animals

All flies were reared on standard cornmeal food at 25 □ and 60% relative humidity on

a 12 h/12 h light-dark cycle. Flies expressing dTrpA1 and shi[ts1] used in

temperature-shift experiments were raised at 23 □. Flies for memory and sleep

experiments allowed to freely mate. 5-10 days old and 5-7 days old adult flies were

used at the start of memory and sleep experiments, respectively. The following stocks

were obtained from the Bloomington Drosophila stock center (BDSC, Indiana

University): *w;;R58E02-GAL4* (70226), *w;;R15A04-GAL4* (48671),

w;;R48B04-GAL4 (50347) , *MB025B-GAL4* (68299), *MB213B-GAL4* (68273),

MB032B-GAL4 (68251), *MB315C-GAL4* (68316), *MB299B-GAL4* (68310),

MB043B-GAL4 (68304), *UAS-mCD8::GFP; Pin/Cyo* (5136) , *w;UAS-dTrpA1*

(26263), *w;;UAS-shibire^{ts1}* (44222), *w;R58E02-LexA* (52740),

eyeless-GAL80;MB-GAL80/Cyo;c316-GAL4/TM6B (30380),

UAS-CD8::RFP,LexAop-CD8::GFP (302229),

LexAop-nSyb:spGFP1-10,UAS-CD4:spGFP11;MKRS/TM6B (64315), *UAS-EPAC*

(78802), *UAS-dcr2* (24650), *LexAop-P2X$_2$* (76030), *UAS-GCaMP6f* (42747),

UAS-CD4-spGFP1-10 (93016)*, LexAop-CD4-spGFP11* (93019), *UAS-DopEcR RNAi*

(31981), *UAS-P2X$_2$* (91223) and *LexAop-GCaMP6f* (44277),

UAS-CRTC::GFP/CyO; UAS-mCD8::mCherry-T2A-nls::LacZ in VK00005/TM2

(99656). *VT064246-GAL4/TM2* (v204311), *UAS-Dop1R1 RNAi* (v107058),

UAS-Dop1R2 RNAi (v3392) were ordered from Vienna Drosophila Resource Center

(VDRC, Vienna, Austria). *VT046004-GAL4* was one of Vienna Tile GAL4 lines,

currently available at Korea *Drosophila* Resource Center (12772). The following lines

have been previously described:

trans-Tango,QUAS-FLP;LexAop-FRT-RFP-FRT-GFP (Sun et al., 2022). For

behavioral experiments, *w^{CS},UAS-dTrpA1* or *w;;UAS-shi^{ts1}* virgin female flies were

crossed to male flies of GAL4 lines. Virgin female w^{CS} flies were crossed with GAL4

or UAS parental lines as genetic controls.

The *VT064246-LexA* transgenic lines were based on VT064246-GAL4. The 2296

bp promotor fragment was amplified from genomic DNA of wild-type flies using the

same primers as used for VT064246-GAL4 (forward primer:

5'-AATACGAGAGCGCTCACTAC-3' and reverse primer:

5'-TCTTATGGACGGCGA

GGAG-3'). This fragment was then cloned into enhancer-LexA vector (Fungene

Biotech, http://www.fungene.tech) using NotI and AscI (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

restriction sites. The sequence was confirmed by sequencing using primers as follow:

VT064246-3F: 5'-AATACGAGAGCGCTCACTAC-3' and reverse lexA-5R:

5'-TCTTATGGACGGCGAGGAG-3'. The plasmids were inserted into attP40 (25C6

of chromosome 2) site and attP2 (68A4 of chromosome 3) site using attp PhiC31

mediated recombination (Fungene Biotech).

Memory assays

F1 generation of mixed genders in a group were trained and tested together. All

training was carried out under the condition of dim red light and all tests were

performed in darkness.

4-methylcyclohexanol (MCH) and 3-octanol (OCT) diluted in mineral oil to 10%

were used as conditioned odours. Flies were trained with/without starvation. Flies

were starved for 30-46 h when each genotype exhibits a mortality rate of 10%-20%

when flies started to be tested.

The paradigm to induce reward immediate memory by activation of rewarding

DANs was performed as described previously (Liu et al., 2012). Briefly, a group of

about 50 flies were loaded into the training tubes and accommodated for 1 min. Two

odours were presented at 30 ☐ and 23 ☐ for 1 min reciprocally, and tested the choices

between the two odours for 2 min. 30 ☐ was applied either with the first presented

odour or the second one.

For all 24 h sucrose-odour memory, a single training session of sucrose paired

with an odour for 2 min was employed. Blockade of the output of neurons by shi[ts1]

during the training phase, flies were placed at 32 °C 2.5 h prior to training.

Manipulation of the activity of target neurons during memory consolidation phase

included: 1) activation for 1 h by dTrpA1 at 30 ☐; and 2) blockade for 2.5 h by shi[ts1]

at 32 °C.

A performance Index (PI) was calculated by the difference between flies chose

the odour paired with an unconditioned stimulus (US: high temperature or sucrose)

and flies chose the other odour without US, divided by the total number of flies. A

learning index (LI) was then calculated as the averaged two PIs from two reciprocal

groups multiplied by 100. Half of LIs were from the first odour paired with US, and

the other half of LIs from the second odour paired with US to minimize the bias of the

conditioning order.

Sleep assays

Regular sleep tubes contained food of 2% agar with 5% sucrose, and the starvation

sleep tubes contained only 2% agar. A female fly was anesthetized with CO_2, and then

loaded into a 65 mm × 5 mm glass tube which was then placed into a *Drosophila*

Activity Monitoring (DAM2, Trikinetics, Waltham) board. DAM boards were then

loaded into an incubator with a 12 h:12 h light-dark cycle at 60% relative humidity,

and connected to DAM system. After 2 days of entrainment, flies were recorded for

another 2 days for sleep analysis. Starvation time of each genotype was consistent as

in the memory tests. Flies were transferred to starvation sleep tubes between Zeitgeber

Time (ZT) 23 and ZT2. The environment temperature was increased to 30 □ for 1 h to

activate the neurons expressing dTrpA1, or to 32 □ for 2.5 h to inactivate the neurons

expressing shi[ts1] at ZT5/7, and then shifted the temperature back to 23 □ for another

24 h. Sleep parameters including total sleep, number of sleep episodes, and P(wake)

were analyzed in 1 h bin. Sleep files acquired from DAM system were processed with

DAMFileScan113X (TriKinetics Inc, Waltham, MA), and SCAMP 2019v2 using

MATLAB_R2021b (MathWorks, Natick, MA). The probability of transition from a

sleep to an awake state P(wake) was analyzed as previously described (Wiggin et al.,

2020). The MATLAB scripts for analysis is accessed in GitHub at

https://github.com/Griffith-Lab/fLy_Sleep_Probability.

For sleep with an application of gaboxadol hydrochloride (known as THIP, Cat#

85118-33-8, Sigma-Aldrich), flies were activated for 1 h at ZT7 in 2% agar starvation

tubes, and then transferred to sleep tubes containing THIP (0.1mg/ml) in 2% agar at

ZT12 for 20 h.

Immunohistochemistry

Both male and female flies aged 5-7 days were used for immunostaining. Fly brains

were dissected in Schneider's Drosophila Medium (1×) (Cat# 21720-024, Gibco).

Dissected brains were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Cat# 50-00-0, GHTECH)

for 20 min at room temperature, and then washed in 1× phosphate buffered saline

(PBS) containing 0.5% Triton X-100 (PBS-T) at 4 □ for 10 min for 3 times. After that,

the brains were incubated in primary antibodies with 5% normal goat serum (Cat#

0005-000-121, Jackson) at 4 □ overnight. Primary antibodies used for visualization of

GFP and RFP (including restricted *trans*-Tango) were: chicken anti-GFP (1:200, Cat#

13970, Abcam) and rabbit anti-DsRed (1:200, Cat# 632496, Clontech); primary

antibodies used to detect GRASP signals was mouse monoclonal anti-GFP (1:200,

Cat# 11814460001, Roche Applied Science). Samples were then washed in PBS-T at

4 □ for 10 min for 3 times, incubated in secondary antibodies at 4 □ overnight.

Secondary antibodies (1:200) included: Alexa Fluor 488 (goat anti-chicken, Cat#

A11039, Invitrogen), Alexa 568 (goat anti-rabbit, Cat# A11011, Invitrogen), Alexa

Fluor 633 (goat anti-mouse, Cat# A-21052, Invitrogen). Samples were washed in

PBS-T at 4 □ for 10 min for 3 times, and mounted with Vectashield (Cat# H-1000,

VECTOR). Images were acquired with a Zeiss LSM 900 confocal microscope with

40× oil objective. Confocal Z-stacks were acquired in 2 μm, and analyzed using a free

and open source FIJI (https://fiji.sc).

Memory phases correlated neural activity measurements

Female flies of genotypes *R58E02-p65.AD/UAS-CRTC::GFP;R37E10-GAL4.DBD*

/UAS-mCD8::mCherry and UAS-CRTC::GFP/+;VT064246-GAL4/UAS-mCD8::

mCherry were employed for understanding the changes in neural activity of PAM-α1

and DPM neurons right after memory formation and after 1 h of memory

consolidation. Flies were starved 26 hours when their death rate was around 10%-20%

as in memory assay, and experienced different conditions at 23□：1) Trained group: a

single session training of 2 min pairing of odour (CS) and sucrose (US) paradigm, 2)

Un-trained group: no exposure to odour and sucrose. After training, heads were

removed from the flies and sampled right after conditioning or 1 h after conditioning.

Heads were fixed in 4% PFA at room temperature for 30 min, and brains were

dissected for staining.

Primary antibodies used for visualization of CRTC::GFP and mCD8::mCherry

were chicken anti-GFP (1:200, Cat# 13970, Abcam) and rabbit anti-DsRed (1:200,

Cat# 632496, Clontech), respectively. Secondary antibodies were Alexa Fluor 488

(goat anti-chicken, Cat# A11039, Invitrogen) and Alexa 568 (goat anti-rabbit, Cat#

A11011, Invitrogen).

The fluorescence level of CRTC::GFP were analyzed using Fiji. Images of cell

bodies used for quantification of CRTC::GFP signals were all acquired as 8-bit

images of 1-µm-interval z-stack slices from the anterior-to-posterior, and set to the

same offset for comparisons. Boundaries of cytoplasm and nuclear of a cell body were

manually outlined according to mCD8::mCherry signal. Changes in CRTC::GFP

nuclear signals (nuclear localization index, NLI) of each neuron was calculated using

the formula as previously described (Bonheur et al., 2023): NLI = (mean nuclear GFP

signal − mean cytoplasmic GFP signal) / (mean nuclear GFP signal + mean

cytoplasmic GFP signal).

In vitro calcium imaging

Functional imaging experiments of neurons were performed on both male and female

flies aged 5-7 days. Adult hemolymph-like saline (AHL) composed with

(Concentration, mM): NaCl 108; KCl 5; NaH_2PO4 1; $MgCl_2.6H_2O$ 8.2; $CaCl_2.2H_2O$ 2;

$NaHCO_3$ 4; trehalose 5; sucrose 10; and HEPES 5. Adenosine 5'-triphosphate

magnesium salt (ATP, Cat# A100885, Aladdin) was dissolved in AHL immediately

prior to the experiment to the final concentration of 2.5 mM. Tetrodotoxin (TTX, Cat#

554412, Sigma-Aldrich) and dopamine (DA, Cat# 73483, Sigma-Aldrich) were made

freshly to final concentrations of 1 μM and 1 mM, respectively.

Flies   of   genotypes

w^{1118};R58E02-LexA/+;VT064246-GAL4/LexAop-P2X$_2$,UAS-GCaMP6f,

w^{1118};UAS-dcr2/+;VT046004-GAL4/UAS-EPAC,

w^{1118};UAS-dcr2/UAS-Dop1R1.RNAi;VT046004-GAL4/UAS-EPAC,

w^{1118};UAS-dcr2/UAS-Dop1R2.RNAi;VT

046004-GAL4/UAS-EPAC, w[1118];UAS-dcr2/UAS-DopEcR.RNAi;VT046004-GAL4/

UAS-EPAC   and

w[1118];UAS-P2X$_2$,LexAop-GCaMP6f/R58E02-p65.AD;VT064246-LexA

/R37E10-GAL4.DBD were employed. Flies were anesthetized on ice, and brains were

dissected in AHL (PH = 7.5) at room temperature. Dissected brains were then pinned

to a layer of Sylgard silicone (Dow Corning, Midland, MI) in a perfusion chamber

containing AHL. Drugs were applied though a gravity-fed ValveLink perfusion

system that allowed a switch from one channel to the other (Automate Scientific,

Berkeley, CA).

For functional connectivity experiments, after 30 s of baseline recording with

perfusion of AHL, ATP was delivered for 90 s. As a control condition, AHL was

perfused for 30 s and switched to a second channel of AHL for another 90 s. Brains

expressing the GCaMP6f were imaged using an Mshot MF43-N fluorescence

microscope (Mshot, Guangdong, China) under an Olympus × 40 (0.80W,

LUMPlanFL N) water-immersion objective, and recordings were captured using a

camera of Hamamatsu ORCA-Flash4.0 LT+. Images were captured using hCimage

Live software. Regions of interests (ROIs) were selected in the MB of PAM/PAM-α1

and cell bodies of DPM neurons. ROIs were analyzed using FIJI. The percent change

in fluorescence over time was calculated using $\Delta F / F = (F_n - F_0) / F_0 \times 100\%$ as we

previously described (Liu et al., 2019). F_n is the fluorescence at time point n, and F_0 is

the fluorescence at time 0. Averaged fluorescence change values were quantified for

periods of 0-30 s and 31-120 s, respectively.

For EPAC experiments, brains were exposed to fluorescent light for 5 min to

reduce the photobleaching rates between the CFP and YPF. Also, TTX was applied

for 5 min prior to the recording to block voltage-dependent sodium channels and

throughout the entire recording period. After 30 s of baseline recording, DA was

delivered for 120 s and switched back to TTX again for another 30 s. Brains

expressing the FRET sensor EPACcamps1 were imaged using an Olympus BX51WI

fluorescence microscope (Olympus, Center Valley, PA) under an Olympus ×40

(0.8W, LUMPlanFI) water-immersion objective, and recordings were captured using

a charge-coupled device camera (Hamamatsu ORCAC472-80-12AG). Images were

captured using μManager acquisition software (Edelstein et al., 2010). ROIs analysis

was the same as previously described using custom software developed in MATLAB

(Liu et al., 2019). Identical ROIs were selected from both the CFP and YFP channels,

and calculated the ratio of normalized CFP/YFP to the first 20 frames of baseline

recording for each time point. The maximum change values were determined for each

group during drug perfusion period (31-150 s) and TTX washout period (151-240 s)

for the following quantification.

Experimental design and statistical analysis

All the raw data were analyzed using the Prism 9.0 software (GraphPad). For most

memory experiments, datasets with normal distribution, a one-way ANOVA followed

by Sidak's multiple comparisons test was applied. For those did not have a normal

distribution, nonparametric statistics, Kruskal-Wallis, followed by Dunn's multiple

comparisons test was applied. For induced appetitive memory experiment (Figure 3A),

in vitro functional imaging experiments (Figures 2A, B and 9B) and immunostained

CRTC::GFP experiments (Figure 9D, E), two-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's

multiple comparisons test was applied. Furthermore, in the experiments to compare

the activation group to the no-activation group (Figure 6F), an unpaired t test or

nonparametric test was applied based on data distribution. For sleep experiments, a

two-way ANOVA followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons test was applied to

determine statistical significance between the experimental groups and the control

groups for each 1 h bin. All data were presented as mean ± standard error (SEM). A

statistically significant difference was set to $p < 0.05$. Detailed statistical analysis of

each experiment was summarized in Tables 1-4: Table 1 for one-way ANOVA

analysis, Table 2 for unpaired t-test analysis, Table 4 for two-way ANOVA analysis

for sleep, and Table 3 for the rest two-way ANOVA analysis.

Additional information

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no competing interests.

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Author Contributions

C.L. designed and supervised research; L.Y., L.W., T.D.W., X.S., W.Y., H.L., and

C.L. performed research; L.Y., L.L., Z.L., Y.L., Z.M., F.G., L.C.G. and C.L. analyzed

and interpreted data; L.Y., F.L., L.C.G. and C.L. wrote the manuscript and all authors

reviewed the manuscript.

Data availability statement

All data are contained within the manuscript. Statistical analysis details, including

sample size, statistical tests and p values have been provided in Tables 1-4. This work

generated fly stocks, which we will distribute on request. Raw data will be distributed

on request.

Declaration of interests

Authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. PAM neurons form functional synapses with DPM neurons.

(A) The schematic and expression patterns of PAM and DPM neurons. PAM neurons

labeled by R58E02-LexA are visualized by GFP (green), and DPM neurons labeled

by eyeless-GAL80;MB-GAL80;c316-GAL4 are visualized by RFP (magenta). (B)

Fragment of spGFP1-10 and nSyb-GFP1-10 is expressed in R58E02-GAL4 and

LexA+ neurons, and fragment of spGFP11 is expressed L0111-LexA and

eyeless-GAL80;MB-GAL80;c316-GAL4+ neurons, respectively. Reconstituted GFP

signals are shown as puncta (green). The mushroom body is outlined with dashed

lines. (C) Newly generated VT064246-LexA (II) and VT064246-LexA (III)

recapitulate expression pattern of DPM neurons labeled with VT064246-GAL4. (D)

Schematic of restricted *trans*-Tango for direct synaptic contacts between PAM-GAL4

(R58E02) labeled upstream neurons and DPM-LexA (VT064246) labeled targeted

postsynaptic to PAM neurons. Anti-GFP-labeled neurons are the downstream of PAM

neurons. Anti-RFP-labeled neurons are non-downstream neurons. Right lower panels,

the control of restricted *trans*-Tango. Signals of downstream target of DPM neurons

was not detected without PAM driver R58E02-GAL4. Scale bar: 20 μm.

1016

Figure 2. PAM neurons inhibit DPM neurons via DA receptors.

(A) Functional connection between PAM neurons and DPM neurons. Averaged

GCaMP traces and quantification of DPM neurons in response to activation of $P2X_2$

expressing PAM neurons by application of 2.5 mM ATP. n = 22-25. (B) Averaged

cAMP traces and quantification of DPM neurons in response to DA with the presence

of 2.0 mM TTX when Dop1R1, Dop1R2 and DopEcR were knocked down. n = 11 for

all groups. *p<0.05; ***p<0.001; ****p<0.0001. Curves are represented as mean for

clarity. Bar graph are represented as mean ± SEM with individual values. See also

Table 3.

1026

Figure 3. Activation of PAM neurons during consolidation impairs long-term

memory, possibly via inhibiting DPM neurons.

(A) Left panel: the paradigm of 1 min association of activation of neurons with odours

for training. M: MCH; O: OCT. Red line: 30 □; black line: 23 □. Right panel:

activation of PAM neurons pairing with an odour in non-starved and starved flies are

sufficient to induce 2 min appetitive memory. n = 16 for all groups. (B) The paradigm

of a single session training with 2 min association of sucrose (Green) and an odour,

and the paradigm of 24 h appetitive memory with blocking the output of neurons for

2.5 h before and during training at 32 □ (left). Inactivation of PAM neurons during

training impaired 24 h memory (Right). n = 8-10. (C) Schematic of innervations of

DPM neurons on all lobes of MB (left). Inactivation of DPM neurons for 2.5 h after

training disrupts 24 h memory (right). (D) Inactivation of DPM neurons labeled by

VT064246-GAL4 after training for 2.5 h impaired 24 h memory. n = 28-30. (E)

Inactivation of DPM neurons during training did not impair 24 h memory. n = 6-9. (F)

Schematic of innervations of R58E02-GAL4 labeling (PAM) neurons on the

horizontal lobes of MB, including subdomains of γ1-5, β'2, β1-2 and α1 (left).

Different gray scales were for each compartment's visibility, not projection intensity.

Activation of PAM neurons for 1 h after training disrupts 24 h memory (right). (G)

Flies form 24 h appetitive memory without activation of R58E02-GAL4+ neurons. n

= 14-18. (H) Inactivation of PAM neurons after training for 2.5 h did not impair 24 h

memory. n = 14-15. Red line: 30 □; blue line: 32 □. n.s.: not significant; *p<0.05;

**p<0.01; ***p<0.001; ****p<0.0001. Bar graph are represented as mean ± SEM with

individual values. See also Table 1.

1050

Figure 4. Increased or decreased activity of PAM/DPM neurons results reduced

and fragmented sleep.

(A) Timeline for sleep recording with activation of PAM neurons for 1 h before,

during and after activation till supposed 24 h memory test. Total sleep (upper panel),

number of sleep episodes (middle panel), and P(wake) (probability of transition from

a sleep to an awake status) (lower panel) in 1 h bin for activation of PAM neurons. n

= 40-43. (B) Inactivation of PAM neurons labeled by R58E02-GAL4 under starvation

resulted in a significant decrease of sleep at early night, with increased number of

sleep episodes and P(wake). n = 33-39. (C) Timeline for sleep recording with

inactivation of DPM neurons labeled by c316-GAL4 for 2.5 h before, during and after

activation till supposed 24 h memory test. Total sleep, number of sleep episodes, and

P(wake) in 1 h bin for inactivation of DPM neurons. n = 33-43. (D) Inactivation of

DPM neurons labeled by VT064246-GAL4 with starvation resulted in a decreased

and fragmented sleep after activation at night, but almost no effect on P(wake). n =

11-37. Red line: 30 □; blue line: 32 □; LP1: light period on day 1; red box: activation

of neurons for 1 h; DP1 (grey box): dark period on day 1; LP2: light period on day 2;

ZT: Zeitgeber time. See also Table 4.

1068

Figure 5. PAM-DPM interactions in sleep regulation are likely to be

context-dependent.

(A) Activation of PAM neurons without starvation resulted a reduction of sleep at

early night, as well as a slight decrease in number of sleep episodes, but an increase in

P(wake). n = 39-42. (B) Inactivation of PAM neurons had no effect on sleep without

starvation.   n   =   22-27.   (C)   Inactivation   of   DPM   neurons   labeled   by

eyeless-GAL80;MB-GAL80;c316-GAL4 without starvation had barely no effects on

sleep. n = 35-47. (D) Inactivation of DPM neurons labeled by VT064246-GAL4 had

mild effect in sleep at early phase after inactivation without starvation. n = 27-36.

Sleep data were presented in 1 h bin. White box: light period; red box: activation

period; grey box, dark period; solid fill: starvation; patterned fill: no starvation. See

also Table 4.

1081

Figure 6. The PAM-α1 subset of PAM neurons contributes to memory

consolidation.

(A, C) The expression pattern of LTM-PAM and STM-PAM neurons labeled by

R15A04-GAL4 and R48B04-GAL4, respectively. Upper panels, cell body; middle

panels, projections on the MB; lower panels, schematic of the projections on the

horizontal lobes. Scale bar: 20 μm. (B, D) The paradigm of 24 h memory by

activation of LTM/STM-PAM neurons for 1 h after training. Activation of

R15A04-GAL4+ neurons impairs 24 h memory (B). Activation of R48B04-GAL4+

neurons has no effect on 24 h memory (D). n = 15-21. (E) The expression patterns of

specific subtypes of LTM-PAM neurons labeled by split-GAL4 lines: MB299B and

MB043B (α1), MB213B (β1/β2), MB025B (β'1), MB032B (β'2), MB315C (γ5).

Scale bar: 20 μm. (F) Left panel, activation and no-activation of subtypes of

LTM-PAM neurons. Right panel, activation of MB299B and MB043B which project

to α1 subdomain impairs LTM compared to the no-activation group. n = 5-12. (G)

The differences in cell number/identity between the two drivers of MB299B and

MB043B. "+" with greyscales indicated the levels of projections of a driver in MB

subdomains; "-" indicated no projections. See also Tables 1 and 2.

1099

Figure 7. The PAM-α1 subset of PAM neurons contributes to linking memory

consolidation and sleep.

(A) Flies with activation of MB299B-GAL4+ neurons after training for 1 h exhibited

impaired 24 h memory compared to their genetic controls. n = 14-17. (B) Activation

of PAM-α1 neurons labeled by MB043B after training for 1 h impaired 24 h memory.

n = 16-20. (C) Flies with blockade the output of MB299B-GAL4+ neurons after

training for 2.5 h exhibited an impairment of 24 h memory compared to genetic

controls. n = 11-14. (D) Inactivation of PAM-α1 neurons labeled by MB043B after

training for 2.5 h did not affect 24 h memory. n = 16-25. (E) 1 h activation of PAM-α1

neurons labeled by MB299B prior to and during the test impaired 24 h memory. n =

11-17. (F) Activation of PAM-α1 neurons labeled by MB299B during the test did not

affect 24 h memory. n = 18-23. (G) Inhibition of PAM-α1 neurons labeled by

MB299B prior to and during the test for 30 min did not affect 24 h memory. n = 9-10.

(H) Upper panel: the paradigm for sleep recording under starvation. Lower panel:

total sleep, number of sleep episodes, and P(wake) in 1 h bin for activation of

PAM-α1 neurons labeled by MB299B. n = 22-30. (I) Inactivation of PAM-α1 neurons

labeled by MB299B under starvation had no effects on sleep. n = 33-39. (J)

Activation of PAM-α1 neurons labeled by MB043B for 1 h reduced total sleep,

increased the number of sleep episodes and P(wake) especially during the dark period.

n = 23-30. (K) Inactivation of PAM-α1 neurons labeled by MB043B under starvation

significantly reduced total sleep, and increased both the number of sleep episodes and

P(wake), especially during the dark period. n = 30-39. See also Tables 1 and 4.

1122

Figure 8. The PAM-α1 subset linking memory consolidation and sleep depends

on internal starvation status.

(A-B) Sleep profiles of total sleep, the number of sleep episodes, and P(wake) with 1

h activation of MB299B (A) or MB043B (B) before, during and after activation. Sleep

was not affected without starvation. n = 28-31. (C) Inactivation of MB299B for 2.5 h

without starvation had no effects on sleep. n = 30-37. (D) Inactivation of MB043B for

2.5 h without starvation resulted a significant reduction in total sleep, a mild increase

of number of sleep episodes during the dark period, and no effect on P(wake). n =

30-39. See also Table 4.

1132

Figure 9. A specific PAM-α1-DPM inhibitory microcircuit maintains basal

activity post-learning.

(A) Characterization of anatomical connections of PAM-α1-DPM microcircuit. Left

panel: 3D view of expression patterns of PAM-α1 neurons (colored) and DPM

neurons (grey) from NeuPrint. Right panel: synaptic connections between 14 PAM-α1

neurons and 2 DPM neurons with their identity number based on the Hemibrain

connectome dataset. (B) Activation of $P2X_2$ expressing PAM-α1 neurons labeled by

MB299B by application of ATP reduced GCaMP levels in DPM neurons labeled by

VT064246-LexA. n = 10-18. (C) Paradigm for appetitive olfactory training and

vehicle un-trained control, and representative neural activities reflected by

CRTC::GFP in cell bodies of PAM-α1 and DPM neurons at two time points post

training. mCD8::mCherry was used to demarcate nucleus and cytoplasm (white dotted

circles). (D-E) Quantification of nucleus localization index (NLI) of PAM-α1 and

DPM neurons under un-starved, un-trained and trained conditions at two time

points. n = 19-20 of PAM-α1 neurons from 6 brains; n = 8-10 of DPM neurons from 9

brains. Scale bar: 5 μm. #: significance between fed and starved groups; *:

significance between trained and un-trained groups under starvation. See also Tables

1 and 3.

1151

Figure 10. The PAM-α1-DPM inhibitory microcircuit binds memory

consolidation and sleep in an internal-state dependent manner.

(A) Simultaneous silence of PAM-α1-DPM microcircuit resulted in sleep reduction

and fragmentation. n = 36-40. (B) Simultaneous silence of PAM-α1-DPM

microcircuit without starvation had little effect on sleep and the number of sleep

episodes. n = 29-31. (C) Sleep profiles of before, during and after activation of

PAM-α1 neurons till supposed 24 h memory test with/without 0.1 mM gaboxadol

(THIP) treatment. Application of THIP rescued sleep reduction induced by activation

of PAM-α1 neurons. n = 38-42. (D-E) THIP rescued 24 h memory deficit induced by

1 h activation of PAM-α1 neurons during consolidation compared to genetic controls

(D, n = 15-17) or compared to no THIP group (E, n = 17). (F) A working model of

PAM-α1-DPM microcircuit in linking sleep and memory. Red filled circle: activated;

blue filled circle: inactivated. See also Tables 1, 2 and 4.

Figure 1

A

PAM neurons   DPM neurons

R58E02-LexA>GFP   *c316-GAL4>RFP*

B

R58E02-GAL4>GFP1-10
L0111-LexA>GFP11

R58E02-LexA>syb::GFP1-10
c316-GAL4>GFP11

GRASP   Activity-dependent-GRASP

C VT064246-GAL4 (Ⅲ) | VT064246-LexA (Ⅲ) | VT064246-LexA (Ⅱ)

D

R58E02-GAL4>trans-Tango, QUAS-FLP
VT064246-LexA>LexAop-FRT-RFP-FRT-GFP

PAM
-GAL4

restricted
trans-Tango

DPM
-LexA

+/trans-Tango, QUAS-FLP
VT064246-LexA>LexAop-FRT-RFP-FRT-GFP

Figure 2

A

R58E02-LexA > P2X₂;
VT064246-GAL4 > GCaMP6f

B

VT046004-GAL4 > UAS-dcr2;
UAS-EPAC;UAS-DopR.RNAi

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A
Cell body
R15A04
Projection
LTM-PAM
α1 β'1 γ5
β2

B
30℃
23℃ Train 1 h   24 h Test
Memory Index
80
50
20
-10
-40
*
R15A04   +   +   -
dTrpA1   +   -   +

C
Cell body
R48B04
Projection
STM-PAM
γ1 γ2 γ3β'2
β'1 β2 γ4γ5

D
30℃
23℃ Train 1 h   24 h Test
Memory Index
80
50
20
-10
-40
n.s.
R48B04   +   +   -
dTrpA1   +   -   +

E
MB299B   MB043B   MB213B   MB025B   MB032B   MB315C

F
30℃
23℃ Train 1 h   24 h Test
☐ Activation

23℃ Train   24 h Test
⊠ No-activation

Memory Index
80
50
20
-10
-40

α1   α1   β1 β2   β'1   β2   γ5

**   ***   n.s.   n.s.   n.s.   n.s.

dTrpA1/   MB299B   MB043B   MB213B   MB025B   MB032B   MB315C

G

driver	# of cells / hemisphere	α1	β1	β2	β'1ap	β'1m
MB299B	12±5	+++	+	+	-	-
MB043B	6±2	++++	++	-	++	++

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

A

Colored neurons: PAM-α1
Grey neurons: DPM
Image generated from NeuPrint

Presynaptic PAM-α1 neurons
Postsynaptic DPM neurons

1:766298734	9:1231299343
2:5812983533	10:1109568718
3:5813021261	11:1077847238
4:578694777	12:1047489962
5:513451621	13:1016118449
6:512765910	14:1016114585
7:456846996	①:5813105172
8:482762280	②: 425276848

B

MB299B-GAL4 > P2X₂;
VT064246-LexA > GCaMP6f

C

Un-trained

Trained
Sucrose
M O

2 min pairing

Un-trained   Trained
0 h   1 h   0 h   1 h

PAM-α1
mCD8::mCherry
CRTC::GFP

DPM
mCD8::mCherry
CRTC::GFP

D PAM-α1

E DPM

Figure 10