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A pair of dopaminergic neurons DAN-c1 mediate *Drosophila* larval aversive olfactory learning

through D2-like receptors

Cheng Qi, Cheng Qian[#], Emma Steijvers[#], Robert A. Colvin, Daewoo Lee*

Department of Biological Sciences, Ohio University, Athens, OH 45701, USA

*Correspondence: leed1@ohio.edu (DL)

[#]Present address:
School of Medicine, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland 21205, USA (CQ);
Department of Physiology, Development and Neuroscience, University of Cambridge,
Cambridge CB2 3EL, UK (ES)

Abstract

The intricate relationship between the dopaminergic system and olfactory associative learning in *Drosophila* has been an intense scientific inquiry. Leveraging the formidable genetic tools, we conducted a screening of 57 dopaminergic drivers, leading to the discovery of DAN-c1 driver, uniquely targeting a pair of dopaminergic neurons (DAN) in the larval brain. While the involvement of excitatory D1-like receptors is well-established, the role of D2-like receptors (D2Rs) remains underexplored. Our investigation reveals the expression of D2Rs in both DANs and the mushroom body (MB) of third instar larval brains. Silencing D2Rs in DAN-c1 via microRNA disrupts aversive learning, further supported by optogenetic activation of DAN-c1 during training, affirming the inhibitory role of D2R autoreceptor. Intriguingly, D2R knockdown in the MB impairs both appetitive and aversive learning. These findings elucidate the distinct contributions of D2Rs in diverse brain structures, providing novel insights into the molecular mechanisms governing associative learning in *Drosophila* larvae.

Introduction

Learning defines a behavioral change that results from acquiring information about the environment, and memory refers to the process by which the information is encoded, stored, and later retrieved. Learning and memory forms the basis for higher brain functions, including cognition and decision making, which shapes our individuality[1]. On the cellular and physiological level, learning and memory is achieved by neuroplastic changes in circuits, including neuronal excitability and synaptic plasticity. Usually distinct types of neurotransmitters, such as dopamine, modulate these changes.

Dopamine (DA) plays an important role in many mammalian brain functions, including motor functions, motivation, reinforcement, addiction, and learning and memory[2-4]. Dopaminergic neurons (DAN) are mainly located in the mesencephalon: DANs in the substantia nigra (SN) are responsible for motor functions, while those in the ventral tegmental area (VTA) are important in reward, addiction, learning and memory[3,5]. Dopamine achieves its functions via two families of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR): excitatory D1-like and inhibitory D2-like receptors[4]. All D1-like receptors are located post-synaptically; in contrast, D2-like receptors both function post-synaptically and play an important presynaptic role, regulating dopamine release through negative feedback[4]. All these receptors are important in mammalian associative learning[6,7]. D1-like receptors elevate intracellular cAMP by activating adenylyl cyclase (AC) via $G\alpha_s$, while D2-like receptors repress cAMP by inhibiting AC via $G\alpha_{i/o}$. cAMP activates protein kinase A (PKA), leading to the phosphorylation of DARPP-32 (dopamine and cyclic AMP-regulated phosphoprotein, 32kDa), ion channels, and CREB (cAMP response element-binding protein). In addition, dopamine receptors also activate the PLC-PKC, MAPK, and CaMKII pathways[2-4,8-10].

Although mammalian studies reveal mechanisms more relevant to human beings, the

complexity of the nervous system impedes our understanding about the basic or more universal

principles of learning and memory applicable generally to all nervous systems[11]. With a simple

central nervous system (CNS) and powerful genetic tools, the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster*

has become a popular model organism in learning and memory research[12,13]. With conserved

genes in dopamine metabolism and signaling[14], as well as fundamental similarities in the

olfactory circuitry compared to mammals[15,16], *Drosophila* can perform olfactory associative

learning in both larvae[17-19] and adults[20-24]. Olfactory associative learning is a type of classical

conditioning in which flies are trained under positive or negative reinforcement paired with an

odorant. Different from the naïve reaction to the odorant, flies approach the odorant after being

trained with rewards (e.g., sucrose; appetitive)[21], but avoid the odorant when trained with

punishments (e.g., electric shock, bitter taste chemicals; aversive)[20]. Several genes related to the

cAMP-PKA signaling pathway, including *dunce* (*dnc*)[25] and *rutabaga* (*rut*)[21], are expressed in the

mushroom body (a center for *Drosophila* learning and memory) in both larval and adult brains[26,27].

Mutations of these genes lead to learning deficiencies, indicating their roles in larval[17,18] and adult

olfactory learning[21,25].

Drosophila larvae offer several advantages for studying olfactory learning compared to

adults. Notably, compared to neural circuits underlying olfactory learning, their simpler neural

circuitry[28], characterized by fewer olfactory receptor neurons (ORNs)[29], projection neurons

(PNs)[30], mushroom body neurons (MBNs)[31], and dopaminergic neurons (DANs)[32], facilitates the

elucidation of underlying mechanisms. Additionally, larvae exhibit simpler behavioral patterns,

facilitating experimental manipulations and observations. Furthermore, their translucent cuticles

enable convenient application of techniques such as optogenetics[33], further enhancing the

experimental versatility of larval studies.

Like in mammalian brains, dopamine achieves its functions via four dopamine receptors in

flies, two D1-like receptors dDA1[34] (or Dop1R1) and DAMB[35] (or Dop1R2), one D2-like receptor

D2R[36] (or Dop2R), and one non-canonical receptor DopEcR[14,37]. dDA1 is mainly found in the

mushroom body[38,39] and is necessary for appetitive and aversive olfactory learning in larvae[39]

and adults[40]. D2R in the adult mushroom body is necessary for anesthesia-resistant memory[41].

In addition, D2R in GABAergic anterior paired lateral (APL) neurons is known to secure aversive

conditioning in adult flies[42]. Although D2R expression has been reported in the ventral nerve

cord[43], neither its expression in larval brains, nor its functions in larval olfactory learning have

been investigated.

By using a GFP-tagged D2R strain, we detected the expression pattern of D2R in the third-

instar larval brain, specifically in dopaminergic and mushroom body neurons. Knockdown of D2Rs

in a pair of DANs, DAN-c1, impaired aversive learning, while knockdown of D2R in mushroom

body neurons led to deficits in both aversive and appetitive learning. These results revealed that

D2Rs in distinct brain structures mediate different learning tasks. The newly discovered roles of

D2R in the larval brain provides new insights into the mechanisms underlying larval associative

learning.

Results

Distinct dopaminergic neurons innervate different compartments of the mushroom body.

The connectome of larval learning circuitries has been investigated in both first- and third-

instar larvae[28,44]. The mushroom body serves as a primary learning center in *Drosophila*, which is

composed by αβ, α'β', and γ neurons in adult brains[45]. In larvae, axons from γ neurons bifurcate

and form the vertical and medial lobes, as αβ and α'β' neurons are not mature[31,46,47]. These lobes

are divided into 11 compartments (refer to Figure 1) based on the coverage of neurites from both

mushroom body extrinsic neurons (MBEN) and mushroom body output neurons (MBON)[28].

Around 21 dopaminergic neurons are found in each third-instar brain hemisphere, and

categorized into 4 clusters: DM1 (dorsomedial), pPAM (primary protocerebral anterior medial,

or DM2)[48], DL1 (dorsolateral), and DL2[32]. DL1 neurons project to the vertical lobe[39], while pPAM

neurons innervate the medial lobe[48] (refer to Figure 1a-c).

In this study, we wanted to functionally identify individual DANs that mediate larval olfactory

learning. The first step was to search for DAN-specific driver strains that mark a few dopaminergic

neurons, which subsequently can be used to target genetic manipulations of corresponding

neurons. A total of 57 driver strains identifying dopaminergic neurons were screened in this study

(Table 1). These strains were chosen based on previous studies, either identifying a pair of

dopaminergic neurons in larvae, or identifying only several in adult brains and indicating the

potential of identifying a pair of DANs in larvae. TH-GAL4, a traditional dopaminergic neuronal

driver[49], identifies all dopaminergic neurons except those in pPAM (Figure 1d, Figure S1a). Split-

GFP reconstitution across synaptic partners (GRASP) technique was used to investigate the

"direct" synaptic connections from DANs to the mushroom body (MB), in which portions of GFP

were specifically expressed in corresponding neurons (Figure S2d)[50]. GRASP results showed

neurons under TH-GAL4 formed synapses in the vertical lobe and lower peduncle (white dash

lines in Figure 1d'), consistent with previous electron microscopy data[44]. We found three DAN

driver strains that identify a pair of dopaminergic neurons in the third-instar larval brain. DAN

driver R76F02-AD;R55C10-DBD identifies a pair of dopaminergic neurons innervating the lower

peduncle (LP), which would be DAN-c1 based on previous published nomenclature[28] (Figure 1f).

MB296B driver identifies the dopaminergic neurons (DAN-d1) projecting to the lateral appendix

(LA) (Figure 1g), as well as many non-dopaminergic neurons. SS1716 driver identifies a pair of

dopaminergic neurons forming synapses in the lower vertical lobe (LVL), indicating it is DAN-g1

(Figure 1h).

In pPAM, R58E02 driver identifies DAN-h1, i1, and j1, innervating the shaft (SHA),

intermediate toe (IT) and upper toe (UT) (Figure 1i), and R30G08 driver identifies DAN-h1 and i1

(Figure 1j). As described in a previous report[28], SS864 driver identifies DAN-i1, innervating the

upper toe (Figure 1l), and SS1757 driver identifies DAN-k1 which innervates the lower toe (LT)

(Figure 1m). In contrast, SS1696 driver identifies not only DAN-h1, but also i1 and one DL1 neuron

not innervating the mushroom body (Figure 1k).

In summary, our results show that five DL1 and four pPAM DANs innervate nine distinct

mushroom body compartments in a one-to-one pattern (Figure 1b and c). DL1 neurons innervate

the vertical lobe and peduncle, while pPAM neurons project to the medial lobe. The neuronal

driver strains screened can be used to investigate the roles of individually identified DANs in larval

olfactory learning.

Dopamine release from DAN-c1 mediates larval aversive learning.

Dopamine plays an important role during olfactory associative learning in both adults[51,52]

and larvae[17,18]. In adults, dopaminergic neurons in PPL1 regulate aversive learning[53-56], while

those in PAM mediate reward signals in appetitive learning[57-59]. In larvae, DL1 neurons

innervating the vertical lobe and the peduncle are required for aversive learning[18,39], while those

in pPAM projecting to the medial lobe are involved in appetitive learning[48].

In Figure 1 and Table 1, three driver strains identifying distinct pairs of dopaminergic

neurons in DL1 were discovered, which could be candidates to investigate their roles in larval

aversive learning. The R76F02-AD;R55C10-DBD strain identifies MB-MP1 in the adult brain[60],

which is a dopaminergic neuron involved in adult aversive learning[61]. Based on the analysis with

22 brain samples, we observed this driver strain labels one neuron per hemisphere in the third-

instar larval brain (Figure 2a-d, Figure S1c, Table S3). Using a UAS-DenMark;UAS-sytGFP strain,

its dendrites were labeled with RFP and axonal terminals were marked by GFP. Its dendrites were

localized in the dorsomedial protocerebrum (dml), and its axonal terminals located in the lower

peduncle of the mushroom body (Figure 2a and c), with GRASP results supporting the existence

of synapses in this compartment (Figure 1f'). All these characteristics are consistent with the

previously published nomenclature[28], indicating that this pair of neurons are DAN-c1 (Figure 2d),

thus, this strain will now be referred to simply as DAN-c1.

To reveal the role of DAN-c1 in larval olfactory learning, a single odor learning paradigm and

thermogenetic tools were applied[17,18,62]. Compared to those trained with distilled water (DW),

control strains of   larvae exhibited repulsion to the odorant pentyl acetate (PA) after being

trained with quinine (QUI) paired with PA, reflecting aversive learning. In contrast, larvae were

attracted to PA after being trained with sucrose (SUC) paired with PA, reflecting appetitive

learning. The extent of repulsion or attraction was represented with a response index (R.I.) that

is compared to the DW group (Figure 2e; For further details, refer to the **Materials and Methods**

section).

To examine the role of DAN-c1 in aversive learning, we used a *Shibire^{ts1}* strain, which

encodes a thermosensitive mutant of dynamin blocking neurotransmitter release when the

ambient temperature is higher than 30°C by repressing endocytosis and vesicle recycling

functions[17]. When trained with QUI at 34°C, larvae with *Shibire^{ts1}* expression in DAN-c1 showed

significantly increased R.I. compared to that at room temperature (22°C), while it is not

significantly different from the DW at 34°C group (Figure 2f). The complete inactivation of

dopamine release from DAN-c1 with *Shibire^{ts1}* impaired aversive learning, indicating that

dopamine release from DAN-c1 is important for larval aversive learning to occur.

In the next experiments, a fly strain carrying temperature-sensitive cation channel, dTRPA1,

was used to excite the DAN-c1 neuron because it can be activated at temperatures higher than

30°C[57]. Compared to those at 22°C, activation of DAN-c1 with dTRPA1 at 34°C during training

induced repulsion to PA in the distilled water group, while it is not significantly different from the

QUI group at 22°C(Figure 2i). These data suggested that DAN-c1 excitation and presumably

increased dopamine release leads to larval aversive learning in the absence of gustatory pairing.

Combining the blockade results with *Shibire^{ts1}*, these data revealed that dopamine released

from DAN-c1 activation mediates larval aversive learning. However, when paired with a gustatory

stimulus (QUI or SUC), activation of DAN-c1 during training impairs both aversive and appetitive

learning (Figure 2i). We suggest that these data indicate a critical role for the amount of

dopamine release from DAN-c1 in larval associative learning, as dTRPA1 stimulation may result

in excessive dopamine release (see the **Discussion** section).

The expression pattern of D2R in the third-instar larval brain.

Although dopamine D1-like receptors have been proven important for learning[40], the role of

D2-like receptors has not been fully investigated. In addition, the expression pattern of D2R in fly

brains was not reported. A fly strain expressing GFP-tagged D2R (BDSC#60276) was used to reveal

the expression pattern of D2R in the third-instar larval brain (Figure 3a). D2Rs were found in

dopaminergic neurons and the mushroom body. In dopaminergic neurons (Figure 3b-g), D2Rs

were found in DM1, pPAM, DL2b, and some DL1 neurons. In the mushroom body, D2Rs were

expressed in the soma and lobes, but not in the calyx (Figure 3h and i). Even though D2Rs were

widely found in vertical lobes, medial lobes, and peduncles, they were not expressed in every

mushroom body neuron. A transection of the peduncle region showed the absence of D2Rs in

the core area (Figure S3i), which is composed of densely packed newly created fibers and lacks

Fasciclin II (FAS II)[47].

To inspect whether the pattern of GFP signals indeed reflected the expression of D2R, three

D2R enhancer driver strains (R72C04, R72C08, and R72D03-GAL4) were crossed with the GFP-

tagged D2R strain. R72C08-GAL4 covered three DM1 dopaminergic neurons (Figure S3c), and

R72C04-GAL4 labeled one DM1 and two DL2b dopaminergic neurons (Figure S3d and e). R72D03-

GAL4 identified parts of mushroom body neurons, whose axons spread on the surface of the

mushroom body lobes (Figure S3f); R72C08-GAL4 also identified a subset of neurons from four

MB neuroblasts, with soma in four clusters and a converged bundle of axons (Figure S3g and h).

These results revealed the expression of D2R in the mushroom body and dopaminergic neurons

in the third-instar larval brain.

D2R in DAN-c1 influences larval aversive learning.

Our previous work reported that D2R knockdown (UAS-RNAi) in dopaminergic neurons

driven by TH-GAL4 impaired larval aversive learning[62]. Using a microRNA strain (UAS-D2R-miR)[60],

a similar deficit was observed (Figure S4f). To further understand the roles of D2R in aversive

learning, its expression in distinct DANs, as well as corresponding learning assays were

investigated. Crossing the GFP-tagged D2R strain with a DAN-c1-mCherry strain demonstrated

the expression of D2R in DAN-c1 (Figure 4a).

To reduce the expression of D2R in dopaminergic neurons, a microRNA strain UAS-D2R-miR

was used when crossing with distinct driver strains. The efficiency of D2R knockdown was

confirmed by crossing the GFP-tagged D2R strain with TH-GAL4;UAS-D2R-miR. In these larval

brains, GFP signals in DM1 were not detected, while those in pPAM were still intact (Figure 4b

and c). Quantification showed a significant decrease of GFP signals in the knockdown group

compared to the control (Figure 4d), indicating reduced transcripts of D2R linked GFP by D2R-

microRNA (Figure S4c).

To investigate the roles of D2R in distinct dopaminergic neurons during larval associative

learning, UAS-D2R-miR strain was crossed with distinct driver strains labeling different pairs of

dopaminergic neurons. Among them, the knockdown of D2R in DAN-c1 impaired aversive

learning with the odorant pentyl acetate, while appetitive learning was unaffected (Figure 4e). In

contrast, although D2R was also found in DAN-d1 and DAN-g1, neither D2R knockdown in DAN-

d1 nor in DAN-g1 affected larval olfactory learning (Figure S4d-f, see the **Discussion** section). As

the naïve sensory and motor functions were not affected, this deficiency was caused by

impairment in learning abilities (Figure 4f-i). Similar learning deficits were observed in the same

strain trained with another odorant, propionic acid (Figure S5a), as well as in larvae with D2R

knockdown using UAS-RNAi (Figure S5b). These results demonstrated that D2Rs are expressed in

DAN-c1, and they are necessary for larval aversive learning. Presumably the knockdown of

presynaptic inhibitory D2R autoreceptors on DAN-c1 will result in increased and excessive

dopamine release, which leads to aversive learning deficiency. These results are consistent with

the activation studies with dTRPA1 above, in which increased dopamine release during training

results in impaired aversive learning (Figure 2i).

Over-excitation of DAN-c1 during learning impairs larval aversive learning.

To exclude possible chronic effects of D2R knockdown during development, optogenetics

was applied at distinct stages of the learning protocol. Channelrhodopsin2 (ChR2) is a blue light

activated cation channel from algae, which can be used to activate target neurons[63,64]. Over-

excitation of DANs under a TH-GAL4 driver with ChR2 during training impaired aversive learning

but left appetitive learning intact (Figure S7), which is consistent with D2R knockdown results. To

investigate the mechanisms with a better temporospatial resolution, ChR2 was expressed in

DAN-c1, and blue light was applied at distinct stages of the learning protocol (Figure 5a).

Optogenetic activation of DAN-c1 during training impaired aversive learning, not appetitive

learning (Figure 5b-d). This result is consistent with the effect of D2R knockdown in DAN-c1,

indicating that increased, excessive dopamine release during training leads to impaired aversive

learning.

D2R in mushroom body mediates larval learning through inhibition.

We have shown that D2R in DAN-c1 plays a critical role in larval aversive learning. Since D2Rs

are also expressed in soma and axons in most mushroom body neurons (Figure 3h and i), we

examined the role of D2R in MB neurons, a center for learning in *Drosophila*. Knockdown of these

D2Rs by D2R-miR impaired both appetitive and aversive learning (Figure 6a). Similarly,

optogenetic activation of mushroom body neurons during training led to deficiencies in both

appetitive and aversive learning (Figure 6b and d). These deficiencies were not observed in larvae

with activation during the resting stage. As D2Rs are inhibitory receptors, and optogenetic

activation leads to greater neuronal excitation like what may occur with knockdown of D2Rs,

these data show that the inhibitory effect of D2Rs in mushroom body neurons is necessary for

larval olfactory associative learning to occur.

Discussion

The dopaminergic system plays an important role in *Drosophila* olfactory associative

learning, but the roles of D2R in this process have not been fully explored. In this study, we

systematically investigated the expression pattern of D2R in the third-instar larval brain as well

as its role in larval aversive and appetitive learning. One driver strain identifying a pair of DAN-c1

neurons in the third-instar larval brain was discovered and learning assays with thermogenetic

tools (*Shibire^ts1*, dTRPA1) demonstrated that the blockade of dopamine release from DAN-c1

impeded aversive learning, while its activation during training led to repulsion toward the odor

in the absence of unconditioned stimulus (i.e., QUI). These results revealed that DAN-c1

activation (i.e., presumably leading to the release of synaptic dopamine) mediates larval aversive

learning to occur. Subsequently, the expression pattern of D2R was explored by using a GFP-

tagged D2R strain, including distinct dopaminergic and mushroom body neurons. D2Rs were

expressed in DAN-c1, and the knockdown of these receptors resulted in aversive learning

deficiency. These data suggested that presynaptic D2Rs in a pair of dopaminergic neurons, DAN-

c1, regulate dopamine release during excitation whereas knockdown of these same receptors

leads to excessive dopamine release, causing deficits in aversive learning to occur. Furthermore,

the activation of DAN-c1 with optogenetic tools during training, resulting in excessive dopamine

release, impaired aversive learning, as well. Finally, it was demonstrated that either the

knockdown of postsynaptic D2R or activation of mushroom body neurons led to learning deficits.

These data demonstrate that D2Rs in distinct brain locations are critically involved in associative

learning.

The characteristics of the single odor larval learning paradigm

We adopted the single odor larval learning paradigm from previous publications[17,18]. To

validate this paradigm induces associative learning responses, Honjo et al.[17,18] tested the

paradigm from four aspects: First, the paradigm did not show obvious sensitization or habituation

effects when larvae were tested. They applied the odorant to the larvae after training, only the

ones had paired training with both odor and unconditioned stimulus (quinine or sucrose) showed

learning responses. Larvae exposed for 30 minutes to either the odorant or the unconditioned

stimulus alone did not show a different response to the odor compared to the naïve group.

Second, the odor responses are associative. Honjo et al. showed only when the odorant was

paired with unconditioned stimulus would induce corresponding attraction or repulsion of larvae

to the odor. Neither odorant alone, unconditioned stimulus alone, nor temporal dissociation of

odorant and unconditioned stimulus would induce learning responses. Third, the odor responses

are odor specific. When applied to a second odorant that was not used for training, larvae only

showed learning responses to the odor paired with unconditioned stimulus. This result ruled out

the explanation of a general olfactory suppression and indicated larvae can discriminate and

specifically alter the responses to the odor paired with unconditioned stimulus. Although the

two-odor reciprocal training is not used, these results can show the association of unconditioned

stimulus and the corresponding paired odor. Finally, well known learning deficit mutants did not

show learned responses in this learning paradigm. Honjo et al. tested mutants (e.g., *rut* and *dnc*),

which showed learning deficits in the adult stage with two odor reciprocal learning paradigm[21,25].

These mutant larvae also failed to show learning responses when tested with the single odor

larval learning paradigm. Combining all the evidence above, we believe this single odor larval

learning paradigm is a robust and reliable paradigm for larval associative learning assays,

composing essential characteristics of classical conditioning. Previously, we applied this paradigm

to investigate the roles of mushroom body serotonin receptors (5-HT7) in larval appetitive

learning[65]. In this study, we used two distinct odorants (pentyl acetate and propionic acid), as

well as two D2R knockdown strains (UAS-miR and UAS-RNAi for D2R). We obtained similar results

for larvae with D2R knockdown in DAN-c1 using different odorants or D2R knockdown strains. In

addition, our naïve olfactory, naïve gustatory, and locomotion data ruled out the possibilities that

the responses were caused by impaired sensory or motor functions. Comparison with the control

group (odor paired with distilled water) ruled out the potential effects if habituation existed. All

these results support this single odor learning paradigm is reliable to assess the learning abilities

of *Drosophila* larvae. The failure of reduction in R.I. when larvae with D2R knockdown in DAN-c1

were trained in quinine paired with the odorant is caused by deficit in aversive learning ability.

Insights into the neuronal circuits underlying larval olfactory associative learning.

Mushroom body and dopaminergic neurons play important roles in *Drosophila* associative

learning in both larvae[66] and adults[66-69]. Combining our results with previous learning circuitry

research in adult flies and larvae, we hypothesized the mechanism underlying larval olfactory

associative learning. Olfactory information (odors, Conditioned Stimulus, CS) is received by

olfactory sensory neurons (OSN), then transmitted to the mushroom body via projection neurons

(PN)[70]. The mushroom body (MB) is a primary learning center of *Drosophila* and composed of

Kenyon cells (KC, or mushroom body neurons, MBN)[71-73]. Their dendrites form the calyx, receiving

olfactory information from projection neurons. The axons converge into peduncles, then branch

into the vertical and medial lobes. Distinct gustatory cues (taste, Unconditioned Stimuli, US) are

sensed by gustatory sensory neurons (GSN) and transferred to dopaminergic neurons in different

clusters (Figure 7a). DAN-c1 in the DL1 cluster mediates aversive cues, projects to the lower

peduncle (LP) in the mushroom body. The plasticity of synapses from MBNs to MB output

neurons (MBON) may be negatively modulated by dopamine, like those in adults[67,74,75]. The MBN-

MBON synapses in the vertical lobe and peduncle are responsible for attraction, while those in

the medial lobe are for repulsion.

When only the odorant appears, the subset of Kenyon cells representing this odor may be

depolarized, inducing calcium influx as in adult flies[73]. As a balance exists between compartments

across the mushroom body lobes, the response to the odor depends on the naïve olfactory

circuits from projection neurons to the lateral horn (LH). In aversive learning, in addition to

olfaction induced calcium influx, gustatory stimuli also lead to dopamine release from DAN-c1

and subsequently, activation of $G\alpha_s$ in LP. The co-existence of calcium and $G\alpha_s$ activates a Ca^{2+}-

dependent adenylate cyclase (AC), rutabaga (rut, as in adults[76-79]). Rutabaga converges

information from both olfaction and gustation, working as the coincidence detector of

associative learning. Its downstream signaling inhibits attractive MBN-MBON synapses in the LP,

breaking the balance between distinct compartments. As a result, after learning, the larvae will

exhibit repulsion when exposed to the odor again. In contrast, dopaminergic neurons in the

pPAM convey appetitive cues, which project to compartments in the medial lobe. The co-

existence of olfactory and appetitive gustatory stimuli leads to inhibition of these repulsive MBN-

MBON synapses, inducing attraction.

The conserved role of DAN-c1 in aversive learning throughout _Drosophila_ development.

Adult _Drosophila_ share similar neuronal circuits of learning with larvae[28,53,66-69]. In adult brains,

dopaminergic neurons are classified into 13 clusters, named as PAM (protocerebral anterior

medial), PAL (protocerebral anterior lateral), PPM (protocerebral posterior medial), PPL

(protocerebral lateral), and PPD (protocerebral posterior dorsal) clusters[80]. DANs in the PAM

cluster innervate the medial lobe, while those in PPL1 project to the vertical lobe[69].

R76F02-AD;R55C10-DBD identifies two dopaminergic neurons in adult brains, MB-MP1 in

PPL1 and ALT-PLPC in PPL2ab[60]. MB-MP1 is also named PPL1-γ1pedc, innervating both γ1 and the

peduncle of the β lobe[69]. Activation of this neuron induced aversive learning[61], and activation of

its corresponding MBON-γ1pedc>α/β led to approach[81]. During metamorphosis, dopaminergic

neurons in DL1 develop into the PPL1 cluster, DL2a neurons develop into PPL2ab, and those in

pPAM will develop into the PAM cluster[82]. This driver strain only identifies DAN-c1 from DL1 in

larvae, which innervates the lower peduncle of the mushroom body. Interestingly, previous

reports revealed that memory can be transferred from larvae to adults[83], indicating the

maintenance of neuronal circuitry architecture during metamorphosis. This evidence supports

that DAN-c1 is the corresponding neuron of PPL1-γ1pedc in larvae, which performs similar

functions in aversive learning.

Pre- and post-synaptic D2Rs regulate cAMP in the mushroom body during aversive learning.

The molecular mechanisms underlying *Drosophila* learning have not been fully determined.

In a traditional view, gustatory cues elevate dopamine release, which binds to D1 receptors and

then activates $G\alpha_s$. The co-existence of $G\alpha_s$ and calcium elicited by olfactory cues activates

rutabaga in axons of MBNs. Rutabaga transforms ATP into cAMP, activating PKA signaling

pathway. Mutant flies with either insufficient (*rutabaga*) or excessive cAMP (*dunce*) showed

aversive learning deficiency, indicating that the level of cAMP should be kept in an optimal range

to achieve aversive learning[21,25] (Figure 7b).

Our results have shown that D2Rs in dopaminergic neurons and the mushroom body are

important for larval aversive learning, suggesting a "*dual brake*" role in regulating cAMP levels in

the MBNs through both pre- and postsynaptic components. On the presynaptic side, D2R in DAN-

c1 decreases the release of dopamine under gustatory stimuli, reducing the probability of

postsynaptic D1R activation in MBNs. On the postsynaptic side, D2R in MBNs inhibits the

coincidence detector rutabaga (AC) both via activation of $G\alpha_{i/o}$ and inhibition of voltage-gated

calcium channels[2], indicating postsynaptic D2R functioning as a "*brake of the coincidence*

detector". Combining these, "*dual brake*" D2R ultimately regulates the mushroom body cAMP

level within a physiologically optimal range during aversive learning. In addition, D2R fine tunes

the functional concentration spectrum of dopamine with higher resolutions, as its dopamine

affinity is 10- to 100-fold greater than D1 receptors. Overall, D2Rs work in a "*dual brake*" system

both expanding the representation of a dynamic range of gustatory signal intensity with high

signal to noise ratio and preventing postsynaptic overexcitation, which increases the reliability of

DAN-c1 and MBN circuits for the larval aversive learning (Figure 7c and d).

Recent studies showed that the approach/repulsion in adult learning is achieved via inhibition

of the repulsive/attractive representing compartments[67,74,75], which indicates dopamine inhibits

acetylcholine release from MBN to MBON[84]. However, the PKA signaling pathway usually

elevates neuronal excitability and increases neurotransmitter release[2,3], which is contradictory

to the recent findings[85]. In addition to the "*dual brake*" role of D2R, our results suggest a third

role of D2R in aversive learning. D1 and D2 receptors can form heteromeric receptors, whose

downstream $G\alpha_q$ activates PKC and CaMKII signaling pathways. The activation of these signaling

pathways may reduce acetylcholine release[86] (Figure 7c and d).

Explanation of the results of thermogenetic and optogenetic experiments.

Activation of DAN-c1 with dTRPA1 induced aversive learning, while the repulsion

disappeared when DAN-c1 was activated in the quinine group (Figure 2i). Our explanation is that

quinine stimulation and temperature activation led to over-excitation of DAN-c1, which impaired

aversive learning. This is consistent with the learning deficiency in larvae with D2R knockdown in

DAN-c1 (Figure 4e). Results from optogenetic activation of DAN-c1 during aversive learning also

support this (Figure 5b). However, in contrast to results with thermo-activation, larvae with

optogenetic activation of DAN-c1 showed neither repulsion after being trained with distilled

water (Figure 5c), nor did they show reduced attraction in the sucrose group (Figure 5d). One

possible explanation is that the thermo-activation is relatively mild compared to the optogenetic

activation. Based on this, thermo-activation of DAN-c1 is still in the physiological range of cAMP

under the upper limit (Figure 7b), resulting in repulsion in the distilled water (DW) group,

neutralized attraction in SUC group, and impaired repulsion in QUI group. In contrast,

optogenetic activation of DAN-c1 overwhelmed the physiological conditions, leading to failure of

repulsion in DW group (Figure 5c). This repulsive failure did not affect appetitive learning (Figure

5d), and a stronger over-excitation in QUI group induced similar failure (Figure 5b).

Distinct dopaminergic neurons may have different roles in larval aversive learning.

Although D2Rs are also expressed in DAN-d1 and DAN-g1 (Figure S4d and e), the knockdown

of D2R in these neurons did not impair larval aversive learning (Figure S4f). For DAN-g1,

interestingly, the R.I. from D2R knockdown larvae trained with quinine (QUI, aversive learning)

showed significant difference when compared to the DW (control) group, but it was also

significant different from the DAN-g1 genetic control group trained with QUI (two-way ANOVA,

Tukey's multiple comparisons, p=0.0002), while not significant different from UAS-D2R-miR

genetic control group trained with QUI (p=0.2724). Besides, D2R knockdown in DAN-g1 when

trained with another odorant propionic acid (ProA) did not show aversive learning deficiency

(Figure S5a). In addition, knockdown D2R in DAN-g1 using RNAi also did not show aversive

learning deficiency when trained with odorant pentyl acetate (PA, Figure S5b). This discrepancy

may be caused by the different stimulus intensity of distinct odorants, as well as the different

efficiency of distinct knockdown methods (microRNA or RNAi strains we used). We supposed that

D2Rs in DAN-g1 may partially affect larval aversive learning in a quantitative level; but not play

an important role as those in DAN-c1, which will cause a qualitative change when knockdown.

Previous work reported that aversive olfactory learning was induced through the optogenetic

activation of DAN- d1, f1, or g1, but not DAN-c1[87]. This discrepancy can be explained as the

optogenetic overexcitation of DAN-c1, similar to our optogenetic or D2R knockdown results. Our

learning assay results from larvae with D2R knockdown in DAN-d1 or g1 also supported this:

aversive learning was not affected by D2R knockdown (Figure S4f). These data indicate D2Rs in

DAN-d1 or g1 may not be important in larval aversive learning. Additionally, the DAN-c1 strain

used in the previous work (SS02160-split-GAL4) not only labels DAN-c1, but also marks other non-

dopaminergic neurons, which may affect the results. Besides, live calcium imaging showed that

DAN-d1, f1, and g1 responded to the activation of mechanosensory and nociceptive neurons[87],

indicating a functional differentiation from gustatory activated DAN-c1[61,88].

In future studies, the molecular signaling downstream of D2R needs to be explored, as well

as the comprehensive neuronal circuit architectures of larval learning. The neuronal circuits

underlying learning and memory are complex networks, sharing similarities with the regulatory

networks of gene expression. Studies of the mechanisms of learning and memory help us

understand the essential principles of the non-linear dynamic characteristics in these complex

systems. On one hand, the progress in larval learning provides useful information for helping our

understanding about more complex systems, from brains in adult flies to those in mammals. On

the other hand, the architecture of larval learning circuits could improve either hardware design

or algorithm structures in artificial intelligence, which may bring more powerful tools, such as

navigation systems regulating multiple auto-drive vehicles in complex 3-dimentional

environments.

In conclusion, we explored the expression pattern of D2R in the third-instar larval brain and

investigated their roles during larval olfactory learning. D2Rs were found in DAN-c1, and their

knockdown induced deficiency in aversive learning. D2Rs were also expressed in MBNs,

knockdown of which impaired both aversive and appetitive learning. This research revealed the

important roles of D2Rs in *Drosophila* larval olfactory learning and enriched our understanding

regarding the mechanisms underlying the learning process.

Materials and Methods:

Fly stocks All fly strains used in this study are listed in Table 1 and Table S1. Flies were maintained

on standard medium, which consists of cornmeal, yeast, dextrose, sucrose and agar in water.

Flies were kept in a 12/12-hour light/dark cycle at 25℃. Canton-S genotype (WT) and yw[1118] were

used as wild-type. Strains carrying more than one transgene were constructed by standard

genetic crosses with the w[1118]; CyO/Sco; TM2/TM6 multiple balancer chromosome strain. Strain

UAS-Syb::spGFP1-10, LexAop-CD4::GFP11, LexAop-rCD2::RFP /CyO; MB247-LexA::Up16/TM6B

was made by chromosome swapping between UAS-Syb::spGFP1-10, LexAop-CD4::GFP11/CyO (II,

second chromosome) and LexAop-rCD2::RFP (II).

The D2R gene is located on the X chromosome, with 6 different alternative splicing products.

The GFP-tagged D2R strain is inserted with a GFP gene in the second intron, generating D2R

molecules tagged with GFP[89,90]. The D2R-miR strain produces microRNA recognizing the

sequence across the third and fourth exons, which is not affected by the GFP insertion (Figure

S4c).

GRASP Split-GFP reconstitution across synaptic partners (GRASP) was used to investigate

whether neurons formed synapses[50] (Figure S2d). Half of split GFP tethered to the presynaptic

synaptobrevin (UAS-syb::spGFP1-10) was expressed in one type of neuron using UAS/Gal4 binary

system, and the complementary split GFP linked to a membrane protein (LexAop-CD4::spGFP11)

was expressed in another category of neuron with LexA/LexAop. If synapses between these

neurons exist, the split GFPs would form a complete one and be recognized by a mouse antibody

(Figure S2a-c).

Immunohistochemistry All staining processes were performed in 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes. Late

third-instar (96-100h after egg laying) larval brains were dissected in dissection solution (300

mOsmol/L). Brains were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Electron Microcopy Sciences, Cat.

No. 15713) for 1 hour on ice. After three washes (0.1% bovine serum albumin in 10mM PBS,

Sigma Life Sciences A9647), brains were incubated in the blocking and permeabilization solution

(0.2% Triton X-100 in 10mM PBS with 5% normal goat serum; Triton-X 100, Sigma, T8532; NGS,

Sigma-Aldrich, G9023) for 2 hours at room temperature. Incubation with primary antibodies was

done overnight at 4°C. After three washes, brains were incubated in the secondary antibodies

for two hours. Both the primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in the blocking and

permeabilization solution. GFP antibody (Rabbit, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. A6455,

1:1000), TH antibody (Mouse, Immunostar, Cat. No. 22941, 1:1000), goat anti-rabbit with green

fluorescence (Invitrogen, Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate, Cat. No. A-11035, 1:1000), and goat anti-

mouse IgG with far-red fluorescence (Alexa Fluor 633 conjugate, Cat. No. 21052, 1:500)

secondary antibodies were used. After three washes, brains were transferred and mounted in

the Fluoro-Gel with Tris Buffer (Electron Microcopy Sciences, Cat. No. 17985-10) on a piece of

micro cover glasses (Electron Microcopy Sciences, Cat. No. 72200-41). Finally, the samples were

covered with another piece of micro cover glasses.

A seven-day staining protocol was used for staining GFP-tagged D2R or GRASP, in which

brains were fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde in Schneider's insect medium (Sigma Life Sciences,

Cat.NO. S0146) overnight at 4°C. In the second day, the brains were rinsed and washed twice

with PAT3 solution (0.5% Triton X-100 in 10mM PBS with 0.5% BSA), each for 1 hour. Then brains

were incubated in the blocking and permeabilization solution (3% NGS in PAT3) for 2 hours at

room temperature. Incubation of primary antibodies was done overnight at 4°C. On the third day,

brains were rinsed and washed twice with PBT solution, then incubated in the secondary

antibodies for five days. Both the primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in the PBTN

solution. In the staining of GFP-tagged D2R, GFP antibody (Rabbit, ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat.

No. A6455, 1: 1000), TH antibody (Mouse, Immunostar, Cat. No. 22941, 1:1000), and mCherry

antibody (Rat, ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat. No. M11217, 1:1000) were used. For staining of

GRASP, GFP antibody (Mouse, ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat. No. G6539, 1:100) was used. Goat

anti-rabbit with green fluorescence (Invitrogen, Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate, Cat. No. A-11035,

1:1000), goat anti-mouse with green fluorescence (Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate, Cat. No. A11029,

1:1000), goat anti-mouse with far-red fluorescence (Alexa Fluor 633 conjugate, Cat. No. A21052,

1:500), and goat anti-rat with red fluorescence (Alexa Fluor 546 conjugate, Cat. No. A-11081,

1:1000) secondary antibodies were used. In the seventh day, brains were rinsed and washed

twice with PBT solution, and then transferred and mounted in the Fluoro-Gel with Tris Buffer on

a piece of micro cover glasses. Finally, the samples were covered with another piece of micro

cover glasses.

Confocal imaging All images were obtained with a Zeiss Laser Scanning Microscope 510 (LSM510,

Carl Zeiss, Inc., USA). Under 40× and 100× objective magnifications, images were collapsed from

confocal stacks of 1.0 μm optical slices. Under 25× objective magnifications, images were

collapsed from confocal stacks of 2.0 μm optical slices. Under 10× objective magnifications,

images were collapsed from confocal stacks of 12.5 μm optical slices. ImageJ software was used

to remove other signals outside of the mushroom bodies, as the background noise in GRASP is

strong.

Larval olfactory learning assays All control strains used in learning assays were homozygous

except DAN-c1×WT, while all experimental groups (D2R knockdown, thermogenetics, and

optogenetics) used were heterozygous by crossing the corresponding control strains. The single

odor learning paradigm was slightly modified from previous publication[17,18]. In brief, 25 to 50

third-instar larvae (92–96 h after egg laying) were trained on a 2.5% agar plate (100 mm petri

dish) covered with 2 mL of 1 M sucrose solution (SUC, Sigma, Cat. No. S1888) or 0.1% quinine

hemisulfate solution (QUI, Sigma, Cat. No. 22640). Distilled water (DW) was used as a control. An

odorant pentyl acetate (PA, 10μL, Sigma-Aldrich, CAT. No. 109584) was placed on a small piece

of filter paper (0.25cm^2 square) inside the lid. After 30 minutes, larvae were rinsed and

transferred to the middle line of a new 2.5% agar plate. A small piece of filter paper (0.25cm^2

square) with 2.5μL pentyl acetate was placed on one side of the plate, while distilled water on

the other side. After 5 min, the numbers of larvae in the two semicircular areas were counted

and the response index (R.I.) was calculated with the following equation (Figure 2e):

$$R.I. = \frac{\#\ of\ larvae\ on\ odorant\ side\ in\ dashline - \#\ of\ larvae\ on\ DW\ side\ in\ dashline}{Total\ \#\ of\ larvae\ on\ two\ sides\ in\ dashlines}$$

Naïve Olfactory Test Larvae were transferred into the midline of test plates. 2.5μL of odorant

were added on a piece of filter paper (0.25cm^2 square) on one side and distilled water on the

other side. The number of larvae in two semicircular areas were counted and the R.I. was

calculated after 5 min.

Naïve Gustatory Test A petri dish with a median separator was used. Both sides were filled with

1% agar, with 2 mL of distilled water on the control side, and with 1 M sucrose (SUC) solution, or

0.1% quinine hemisulfate (QUI) solution on the test side. Twenty larvae were put on each side

near the midline and allowed to move for 5 min. Gustatory R.I. was calculated using the larvae

numbers on two sides[91].

Larval locomotion assay Individual larvae were placed on the surface of a plate of 2.5% agar

mixed with 1mL India ink. They were allowed to acclimate for 1 min, and then a video was

recorded for 30 seconds using a Moticam3 digital camera (Motic) and Motic Images Plus 2.0

software.   The   video   was   analyzed   by   the   MTrack2   plug-in   (from

http://valelab.ucsf.edu/~nico/IJplugins/MTrack2.html) in ImageJ. The path was recorded; scores

were quantified as the length traveled per minute as previously described[92]. As the locomotion

speed of DAN-c1 homozygous was slow, DAN-c1 × WT was used as the control group.

Learning assays with thermogenetics In learning assays with thermogenetics, 25 to 50 third-

instar larvae (92–96 h after egg laying) were trained on a 2.5% agar plate (100mm petri dish)

covered with 2 mL of 1 M SUC or 0.1% QUI. DW was used as a control. An odorant PA was placed

on a small piece of filter paper ($0.25cm^2$ square) inside the lid. Training plates were put in a water

bath either under 22°C or 34°C. After 30 minutes, larvae were rinsed and transferred to the

testing plate. After 5 min, the response index (R.I.) was calculated.

Learning assays with optogenetics In learning assays with optogenetics, egg laying plates with

1mM ATR (all-trans retinal, Sigma, Cat. No. R2500) were used. All-trans retinal (ATR) is a

necessary light-isomerizable chromophore for ChR2, which is not synthesized by *Drosophila*.[93,94]

Around 50 third-instar larvae were trained in a 35mm petri dish with 2 mL of either 1 M SUC

or 0.1% QH solutions. DW was used as a control. During training, an odorant was placed on a

small piece of filter paper ($0.25cm^2$ square) inside the lid. To activate channelrhodopsin2, a LED

(Luxeon Rebel Color LEDs, 07040 PB000-D, wavelength 470 nm) with a power supply (GW Instek,

Laboratory DC power supply Model GPS-1830D) was used. The intensity of the blue light was 25

mW, measured by a laser power meter (Sanwa, LP1). After being trained for 30 minutes, larvae

were rinsed and transferred to the middle line of a 2.5% agar plate in 100 mm test plate. A small

piece of filter paper (0.25cm^2 square) with pentyl acetate was placed on one side of the plate,

while distilled water on the other side. Then the number of larvae in the two semicircular areas

were counted and the R.I. was calculated after 5 min.

Quantification of D2R knockdown Quantification of the fluorescent intensity of D2R knockdown

was performed as follows. TH signals were used to define dopaminergic neurons, and the mean

fluorescent intensity of GFP in each neuron was calculated with subtraction of the background.

The mean intensity of DM1 was divided by that of pPAM in each brain, and the value in the

knockdown group was subsequently normalized with the control group.

Statistical Analysis Information for statistical analysis is provided in figure legends. In brief, two-

way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test were used in Figure 2f-j, Figure 4e, Figure 5b-

d, Figure 6a-d, and Figure S7; unpaired t-test was used in Figure 4d; one-way ANOVA and Tukey

multiple's comparison test were used in Figure 4f-i; two-way ANOVA and Dunnett's multiple

comparison test were used in Figure S4f, and Figure S5a-b; one-way ANOVA and Dunnett's

multiple comparison test were used in Figure S6a-i.

Author contributions

Qi. C.: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – Original

Draft, Visualization, **Qian. C.:** Writing – Review & Editing, **Steijvers. E.:** Writing – Review & Editing

Colvin. R.: Writing – Review & Editing **Lee. D.:** Conceptualization, Writing – Review & Editing,

Supervision, Funding acquisition

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Data Availability: Data will be made available on request.

Declaration of Interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Identification of driver strains for a pair of dopaminergic neurons in the *Drosophila* larval brain. (a) A schematic diagram shows the dopaminergic neuron (DAN) clusters and the mushroom body (MB) in the third-instar larval brain. **(b)** & **(c)** Schematic diagrams show the innervation patterns from distinct DANs to different compartments in the MB. All 11 MB compartments are shown, note that there is no synapse formed from dopaminergic neurons (DANs) to the calyx and intermediate peduncle (IP). DANs in DL1 (b) and in pPAM (c). **(d-m)** Drivers covering DANs in the DL1 cluster (d-h). Drivers covering DANs in the pPAM cluster (i-m). The first column shows drivers covering distinct dopaminergic neurons. Neurons under the drivers are labeled by GFP, the mushroom body (MB) is labeled by RFP, and DANs are marked by tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) antibody. The second column (d'-m') shows the GRASP signals from DANs under the driver to the corresponding compartments in the MB. The green channel represents the GRASP signals, and RFP marks the morphology of the MB. In the first column, white arrows mark the DANs under the driver strains. Yellow arrows in (d) show the pPAM neurons not labelled by TH-GAL4 driver strain. The yellow arrowhead in (k) showed the DL1 neuron not innervating the MB. Scale bars: 50 µm for the first column, and 20 µm for the second column. ***Abbreviations:*** DL, dorsolateral; DM, dorsomedial; IP, intermediate peduncle; IT intermediate toe; IVL, intermediate vertical lobe; LA, lateral appendix; LP, lower peduncle; LT, lower toe; LVL, lower vertical lobe; pPAM, primary protocerebral anterior medial; SHA, shaft; UT, upper toe; UVL, upper vertical lobe. *(Note) GFP expression patterns in the entire larval CNS by GAL4 driver strains used in this study can be found in Figure S1. N numbers for each strain can be found in Table S2.*

Figure 2. Dopamine release from DAN-c1 mediates larval aversive learning. (a-d) R76F02-AD;R55C10-DBD driver is used as it covers one dopaminergic neuron, DAN-c1, in each brain hemisphere. **(a)** Dendrites and axons of DAN-c1 are labeled by DenMark and sytGFP, correspondingly. **(b** and **c)** Soma and neurites from Figure 1f with higher magnification. DAN-c1 is labeled with GFP, the MB with RFP, and DANs with TH antibody (blue color). Only one DAN soma is identified (b), axons from DAN-c1 innervate the lower peduncle (LP) of the MB (c). A schematic diagram (**d**) shows the innervation patterns of DAN-c1. Modified from Eichler *et al.*[44], and Saumweber *et. al.*[28]. **(e)** A schematic paradigm for larval olfactory learning (top) and two different training paradigms for thermogenetics (bottom). **(f-h)** Blocking dopamine release from DAN-c1 during learning using *shibire^ts1* strain at 34°C impairs larval aversive learning. **(h-j)** Activation of DAN-c1 with dTRTPA1 at 34°C induces aversive learning. **QUI,** quinine. **DW,** distill water. **SUC,** sucrose. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's multiple comparison test. For N numbers, interaction p-values, row factor p-values, and column factor p-values, see Table S4. Scale bars: 50 µm (a), 20 µm (b and c). *(Note) N numbers of immunostaining for each strain can be found in Table S2.*

Figure 3. D2Rs are expressed in dopaminergic neurons and mushroom body in *Drosophila* larval brains. (a) The expression pattern of D2R in a general view. D2R is shown with tagged GFP (D2R-GFP). Magenta represents neuropils marked by nc82 antibody (a'). **(b-g)** D2Rs (presynaptic) are found in most DANs: DM1a (**b**) and DM1b (**c**), pPAM (**d**), DL1 **(e)**, DL2a **(f)**, and DL2b **(g)** clusters. D2Rs are expressed in parts of DL1 neurons (white arrows in **e**) but not in DL2a neurons (yellow arrow heads in **f**). **(h-i)** D2Rs (postsynaptic) are found in soma of mushroom body (MB) neurons (white arrows in **h**), and MB lobes and peduncles (**i**), but not in calyx (yellow arrow heads in **h**). **(j)** A schematic diagram shows the expression pattern of pre- and postsynaptic D2R in DANs and MB (yellow) in the *Drosophila* larval brain, respectively. Scale bars: 200 µm (a); 50 µm (b-g); 20 µm (h, i). ***Abbreviations:*** DL, dorsolateral; DM, dorsomedial; pPAM, primary protocerebral anterior medial. *(Note) N numbers can be found in Table S2.*

Figure 4. Presynaptic D2R in DAN-c1 is necessary for larval aversive learning. (a) D2R is expressed in DAN-c1. The expression pattern of D2R is shown with tagged GFP, DAN-c1 is marked by mCherry, and all DANs are marked with TH antibody (blue). **(b-c)** Knockdown of D2R by D2R-miR reduces fluorescent intensities of D2R-tagged GFP (D2R-GFP). The TH-GAL4 driver is used to express mCherry. The intensity of D2R-tagged GFP is reduced in the DM1 cluster (yellow arrowheads in b), which is still intact in pPAM neurons (white arrows in c). **(d)** D2R-GFP fluorescent intensity is quantified by standardizing the values in DM1 with those in the pPAM. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. For the TH-GAL4 group, N=7 brains; for the TH×D2R-miR group, N=6 brains. Unpaired t-test, p = 0.0125. **(e)** Knockdown of D2R in DAN-c1 by D2R-miR impairs larval aversive learning. **QUI,** quinine. **DW,** distill water. **SUC,** sucrose. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's multiple comparison test, p < 0.0001 for interaction, row factor (genotype), and column factor (US) p-values. For N numbers, see Table S5. **(f-i)** D2R knockdown in DAN-c1 does not affect naïve sensory and motor functions. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA, Tukey's multiple comparison test. For N numbers, see Table S5. Scale bar: 20µm. *(Note) Figures S5 and S6 show additional information on naïve sensory and motor functions in larvae related to D2R-miR experiments. N numbers of immunostaining for each strain can be found in Table S2.*

Figure 5. Over-excitation of DAN-c1 impairs larval aversive learning. (a) A schematic diagram of optogenetic manipulations of neuronal excitability in DAN-c1 during distinct stages in learning. **(b-d)** Activation of DAN-c1 during training impairs larval aversive learning (**b**), while keeps appetitive learning intact (**d**). Unconditioned stimuli used were quinine (b) and sucrose (d). No learning behaviors are observed in the control distilled water (DW) groups (**c**). Third-instar larvae with ChR2 expression in DAN-c1 are used. *ATR,* all-trans-retinal. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's multiple comparison test. In QUI group p-values (b), p = 0.0009 for interaction, p < 0.0001 for row factor (training stages), and p = 0.1365 for column factor (whether with ATR); in DW group p-values (c), p = 0.8367 for interaction, p = 0.9750 for row factor (training stages), and p = 0.4872 for column factor (whether with ATR); in SUC group p-values (d), p = 0.6247 for interaction, p = 0.2550 for row factor (training stages), and p = 0.9437 for column factor (whether with ATR). For N numbers, see Table S6.

Figure 6. D2R in mushroom body is necessary for both aversive and appetitive learning. (a) Knockdown D2R in mushroom body neurons (MBNs) impairs larval aversive and appetitive learning. **(b-d)** Activation of MBNs during training impairs both larval aversive and appetitive learning. Unconditioned stimuli used were quinine (b) and sucrose (d). No learning behaviors are observed in the control distilled water (DW) groups (c). Third-instar larvae with ChR2 expression in MBNs (201Y-GAL4) are used. *ATR,* all-trans-retinal. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's multiple comparison test. In D2R knockdown experiments (a), $p < 0.0001$ for interaction, $p = 0.0011$ for row factor (genotype), and $p < 0.0001$ for column factor (US). In optogenetic QUI group (b), $p = 0.0259$ for interaction, $p < 0.0001$ for row factor (training stages), and $p = 0.0040$ for column factor (whether with ATR); in DW group (c), $p = 0.8077$ for interaction, $p = 0.7623$ for row factor (training stages), and $p = 0.5846$ for column factor (whether with ATR); in SUC group p-values(d), $p = 0.0035$ for interaction, $p = 0.0086$ for row factor (training stages), and $p = 0.0865$ for column factor (whether with ATR). For N numbers, see Table S5 and S6.

Figure 7. Roles of D2Rs in dopaminergic and mushroom body neurons during larval olfactory learning. (a) A schematic diagram shows the roles of D2R in dopaminergic neurons (DAN) and mushroom body neurons (MBN) in larval olfactory associative learning**.** During learning, olfactory stimuli (conditioned stimulus, CS) are received by olfactory sensory neurons (OSN) and transmitted to MBNs (green) via projection neurons (PN). Distinct gustatory stimuli (unconditioned stimulus, US) are received by gustatory sensory neurons (GSN) and transferred to different dopaminergic neurons. Aversive stimuli are sent to DAN-c1 (red) in the DL1 cluster which connects the lower peduncle compartment (LP, square in dash line), while appetitive stimuli are received by pPAM neurons (blue) innervating the medial lobe (ML). D2Rs (yellow square) are expressed in DAN-c1 and pPAM as autoreceptors, regulating dopamine release. Both D2R and dDA1 (magenta circle) are expressed in the MBNs. **(b)** A hypothetical curve showing the relationship between learning ability and cAMP level in the mushroom body. Insufficient cAMP (*rutabaga mutant*) cannot induce learning, while excessive cAMP (*dunce mutant*) also impairs learning. Only the appropriate level of cAMP regulated by the opposing actions of D1R (dDA1) and D2R leads to successful learning in wild type larvae (WT). Knockdown of D2R in DAN-c1 causes excessive dopamine release, elevating cAMP and resulting in impaired learning. D2R knockdown in MBNs relieves the inhibition effect of D2R, resulting in excessive intracellular cAMP and learning failure. **(c-d)** Potential molecular mechanisms underlying *Drosophila* olfactory learning in the square region shown in (a). **(d)** During aversive learning, olfactory stimuli induce depolarization of MBNs, which activates voltage-gated calcium channels and induces calcium influx. Gustatory stimuli, such as quinine, activates dopaminergic neurons and elevates dopamine (DA) release. D1 receptor (dDA1) activates adenylyl cyclase (AC) and elevates cAMP via $G\alpha_s$, while D2 receptor (D2R) inhibits AC and suppresses cAMP via $G\alpha_{i/o}$. In *Drosophila*, the coincidence detector *rutabaga* (AC) is activated by the existence of both calcium and $G\alpha_s$, converging the olfactory and gustatory stimuli. cAMP activates the PKA signaling pathway, elevating the neuronal excitability. D1 and D2 receptors can also form heteromeric receptors and activate the PLC-PKC and CaMKII signaling pathways via $G\alpha_q$. These pathways inhibit acetylcholine (ACh) release from MBNs to MB output neurons (MBON), which leads to avoidance of the learned odor.

Abbreviations: AC, adenylyl cyclase; ACh, acetylcholine; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; CaM,
calmodulin; CaMKII, Ca^{2+}/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II; cAMP, cyclic adenosine
monophosphate; CS, conditioned stimulus; DA, dopamine; DAN, dopaminergic neurons; DL,
dorsolateral; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; $G\alpha_{i/o}$, $G_{i/o}$ protein α subunit; $G\alpha_q$, G_q protein α subunit;
$G\alpha_s$, G_s protein α subunit; GSN, gustatory sensory neurons; LP, lower peduncle; MBN, mushroom
body neurons; MBON, mushroom body output neurons; ML, medial lobe; nAChR, nicotinic
acetylcholine receptor; OSN, olfactory sensory neurons; PKA, protein kinase A; PKC, protein
kinase C; PLC, phospholipase C; PN, projection neurons; pPAM, primary protocerebral anterior
medial; RyR, ryanodine receptor; US, unconditioned stimulus; VGCC, voltage gated calcium
channel.

Table 1. Driver strains screened for dopaminergic neurons in the third-instar larval brain.
Strains are listed with their published names and names used in this work. The numbers of
dopaminergic and non-dopaminergic neurons in the third-instar larval brain are described. The
identities of dopaminergic neurons from distinct clusters are also listed, especially for those in
DL1 and pPAM. The analogs column lists the labelled neurons in previous publications.
Source/Gift column shows the original papers in which these strains were described, as well as
the laboratories these strains were obtained from. Several, 2-5 neurons; some, 6-10 neurons;
lots, >10 neurons

  Supplemental information

Figure S1. GFP expression patterns in the larval CNS by GAL4 driver strains used in this study. **(a-n)** Representative pictures show the patterns of distinct GAL4 driver strains crossed with a UAS-GFP strain. **(o)** A representative picture shows the pattern of MB247-LexA driver (MB247-LexA::VP16) crossed with a LexAop-RFP strain (LexAop-rCD2::RFP). Blue channel represents neuropils marked by nc82 antibody. Driver strains in **(a-j)** were used in **Figure 1d-m.** Driver strains in **(k-m)** are strains used in supplementary **Figure S3**. 201Y-Gal4 (**n**) is the driver strain used in **Figure 6**. Square region is enlarged in **(p)** to show the soma and neurites. White arrows label the soma of DAN-c1, while yellow arrow heads label other neurons. Summary of analysis can be found in Table S3. Scale bar: 200 μm. ***(Note)*** *N numbers can be found in Table S2. In Figure 1 and S1, we mainly showed the strains labeling distinct pairs of dopaminergic neurons. The labeling patterns of the rest 47 strains screened were summarized in Table 1, whose brain images are available and can be provided upon request.*

Figure S2. Controls for GRASP experiments. (a-c) The GRASP signals were not observed in control groups. The first column shows the mouse anti-GFP staining (green) for GRASP signals, the second column shows MB lobes by RFP (red), and the third column shows the rabbit anti-GFP staining (blue) which only recognizes the spGFP1-10. **(a)** Both GRASP (mouse antibody, green) and spGFP1-10 (rabbit antibody, blue) can be recognized in the lower peduncle (LP) compartment (white arrows), in a larval brain expressing spGFP1-10 under TH-Gal4 and spGFP11 under MB247-LexA. Some strong spGFP1-10 signals outside of MB are also colocalized with GRASP signals (yellow arrowheads). **(b)** GRASP signals are hardly observed in a larval brain only expressing spGFP1-10 under TH-Gal4 (no MB247-LexA in this brain), while anti-spGFP1-10 signals are still strong (magenta arrows). **(c)** Neither GRASP nor spGFP1-10 can be recognized in a larval brain only expressing spGFP11 under MB247-LexA (cyan arrowheads). Scale bars: 20 μm. **(d)** A Schematic diagram shows the mechanism of GRASP. Modified from Macpherson et. al.[50]. *(Note) N numbers can be found in Table S2.*

Figure S3. D2R-GAL4 strains support the expression pattern of D2R. (a-b) Control staining for D2R-tagged GFP in Figure 3. The green channel represents GFP signals whereas magenta represents neuropils marked by nc82 antibody. GFP staining in WT (a). Secondary antibody only staining for the D2R-tagged GFP strain (b). **(c-e)** D2R-GAL4 strains support the expression of D2R in some DANs. The green channel represents GFP signals, red represents mCherry signals under D2R-GAL4 drivers, and blue marks DANs with TH antibodies. R72C08 labels three DM1 neurons (c). R72C04 labels one DM1 (d) and two DL2b neurons (e). **(f-h)** D2R-GAL4 strains support the expression of D2R in mushroom body neurons. The green channel represents GFP signals, and red represents mCherry signals under D2R-GAL4 drivers. R72D03 marks some MBNs in mushroom body (f). R72C08 labels some MBNs in axons (g), dendrites and soma (h). **(i)** D2R is absent in the core of mushroom body lobes, from a transection view of the lower peduncle. Scale bars: 200 μm (a and b); 20 μm (c-e, g-i), 50 μm (f). *(Note) N numbers can be found in Table S2.*

Figure S4. D2Rs in DAN-d1 and DAN-g1 are not necessary for aversive learning. (a-b)
Dendrites and axons of DAN-d1 (a) and g1 (b) are labeled by DenMark (red) and sytGFP (green),
correspondingly. **(c)** The gene structure of D2R, the insertion site of GFP, and the D2R-microRNA
targeting sequence are shown in a schematic diagram. Modified from Xie and Ho[60]. **(d-e)** D2Rs
are expressed in DAN-d1 (d) and DAN-g1 (e). The expression pattern of D2R is shown with tagged-
GFP, DAN-g1 and d1 are marked by mCherry, and DANs are labeled by TH-antibody (blue). **(f)**
Knockdown D2R in neither in DAN-g1 nor DAN-d1 impairs aversive learning. Data are shown as
mean ± SEM. UAS-D2R-miR data is from Figure 4e. Two-way ANOVA, Dunnett's multiple
comparison test. p = 0.0544 for interaction, p < 0.0001 for row factor (genotype), and p < 0.0001
for column factor (US). For N numbers, see Table S5. Scale bars: 50 μm (a and b), 20 μm (d and
e). *(Note) N numbers of immunostaining for each strain can be found in Table S2.*

Figure S5. Knockdown D2R in DAN-c1 with a RNAi strain also impairs aversive learning. (a)
Knockdown of D2R with D2R-miR in DAN-c1 impairs larval aversive learning when using propionic
acid as the odorant. **(b)** Knockdown of D2R in DAN-c1 with a RNAi strain also impairs larval
aversive learning when using pentyl acetate as the odorant, while knockdown of D2R in either
DAN-d1 or g1 does not affect learning. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA,
Dunnett's multiple comparison test. In D2R-miR experiments (a), p = 0.0009 for interaction, p <
0.0001 for row factor (genotype), and p < 0.0001 for column factor (US); in D2R-RNAi experiments
(b), p = 0.3802 for interaction, p = 0.0001 for row factor (genotype), and p < 0.0001 for column
factor (US). For N numbers, see Table S5.

Figure S6. Naïve sensory and motor functions of *Drosophila* larvae. (a-e) The naïve sensory
and motor functions in larvae related to D2R-miR experiments. **(a)** No significant difference exists
between strains in naïve olfactory tests toward pentyl acetate (PA). **(b)** No significant difference
exists between strains in naïve olfactory tests toward propionic acid (ProA). **(c)** No significant
difference exists between strains in naïve gustatory tests toward quinine (QUI). **(d)** No significant
difference exists between strains in naïve gustatory tests toward sucrose (SUC). **(e)** No significant
difference is found between strains and WT, except DAN-c1. So, larvae from DAN-c1 × WT are
used for all behavioral assays (refer to **i**). **(f-i)** The naïve sensory and motor functions in larvae
related to RNAi experiments. **(f)** No significant difference exists between strains and WT. **(g)** No
significant difference exists between strains in naïve gustatory tests toward QUI. **(h)** No
significant difference exists between strains in naïve gustatory tests toward SUC. **(i)** There is a
significant difference between strains in larval locomotion speed, and there is significant
difference between DAN-d1, DAN-d1 × RNAi and WT, but these differences do not affect the
learning ability of larvae. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA, Dunnett's multiple
comparison test. For N numbers, see Table S5.

Figure S7. Over-excitation of DANs during learning impairs larval aversive learning. Third-
instar larvae with ChR2 expression in most DANs (TH-Gal4) were used. Activation of DANs during

training impairs larval aversive learning (**a**), while keeping appetitive learning intact (**c**). No
learning behaviors are observed in the control distilled water (DW) groups **(b)**. Data are shown
as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's multiple comparison test. In QUI group (a), p = 0.0011
for interaction, p = 0.0023 for row factor (training stages), and p < 0.0001 for column factor
(whether with ATR); in DW group (b), p = 0.6126 for interaction, p = 0.0850 for row factor (training
stages), and p = 0.5748 for column factor (whether with ATR); in SUC group (c), p = 0.8910 for
interaction, p = 0.9239 for row factor (training stages), and p = 0.9503 for column factor (whether
with ATR). For N numbers, see Table S6.
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860 **Supplementary Tables**
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862 **Table S1. Other strains used in this study.**
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864 **Table S2. N numbers for brain samples used in Figures.**
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Table S3. Summary of R76F02AD;R55C10DBD (DAN-c1) identifying patterns in larval brains.
For the strain R76F02AD; R55C10DBD, 22 third-instar larval brains expressing GFP or SytGFP
and DenMark were examined, and all of them clearly identified DAN-c1. Half of them only
identified DAN-c1, the rest had 1 to 5 weak identified cells without neurites, and barely 1 or 2
strong identified cells appeared. These non-DAN-c1 neurons were seldom dopaminergic
neurons. In ventral nerve cord (VNC), 8 out of 12 did not have any identified cells, 3 had 2-4
strong identified cells. These data supported that R76F02AD;R55C10DBD exclusively labels
DAN-c1 in third-instar larval brains.
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875 **Table S4. N numbers and p-values for learning assays with thermogenetics.**
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877 **Table S5. N numbers for D2R knockdown experiments.**
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879 **Table S6. N numbers for learning assays with optogenetics**
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1136
1137
1138
1139

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

a D2R-GFP
a' DAN-c1-mCherry
a" TH
a''' Merge

b TH-D2R-miR D2R-GFP
b' TH-mCherry
b"
b''' DM1

c
c'
c"
c''' pPAM

d

0.0125

Relative fluorescent intensity

TH-GAL4   TH×D2R-miR

e

0.0197
0.0562
0.0027   0.0289
0.0050
>0.9999
0.0008
<0.0001

R.I.

WT   DAN-c1×WT   UAS-D2R-miR   DAN-c1×D2R-miR

QUI
DW
SUC

f **Naive olfaction to PA**

ns

R.I.

WT   DAN-c1×WT   UAS-D2R-miR   DAN-c1×D2R-miR

g **Naive gustation to QUI**

ns

R.I.

WT   DAN-c1×WT   UAS-D2R-miR   DAN-c1×D2R-miR

h **Naive gustation to SUC**

ns

R.I.

WT   DAN-c1×WT   UAS-D2R-miR   DAN-c1×D2R-miR

i **Locomotion**

ns

Velocity (mm/min)

WT   DAN-c1×WT   UAS-D2R-miR   DAN-c1×D2R-miR

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Table 1

	Strains	Name in this work	Neurons in third-instar larval brains		Analogs	Stock #	Source/Gift
			DANs	Non-DANs			
1	TH-Gal4	-	All DANs except pPAM	Some weak	All DANs except PAM (Adult)	-	Dr. J. Hirsh's Lab
2	TH-C'	-	1 DL1, 1 DM1, 3DL2a	Rare	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	Dr. M. Wu's lab (Liu et al., 2012)
3	TH-C1	-	-	-	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	
4	TH-D'	-	3DL1, 2DL2b	Rare	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	
5	TH-D1	-	-	-	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	
6	TH-D4	-	-	-	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	
7	TH-F1	-	3DL1	Rare	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	
8	Th-F2	-	3 DM1, 2-4 DL1, 2DL2a	-	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	
9	Th-F3	-	3 DM1b, 1 DL1	-	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	
10	TH-G1	-	2-3 DM1, 2-4 DL1, 2 DL2b	-	PPL1 + PPM3 (Adult)	-	
11	R30G08	-	h1, i1, weak k1	-	2 pPAM (L3)	48101	BDSC (Rohwedder et al., 2016)
12	R58E02	-	h1, i1, j1	1	3 pPAM (L3)	41347	
13	R64H06	-	h1, i1, j1, k1	Lots	4 pPAM (L3)	49608	
14	MB315C	-	1-3 pPAM (h1)	Lots	PAM-γ5 (Adult)	-	

#							
15	MB109B	-	-	-	PAM-β'2a, PAM-γ5 (Adult)	-	Janelia Farm (Aso et al., 2014)
16	MB301B	-	-	-	PAM-β'2m, PAM-β2β'2a (Adult)	-	
17	MB056B	-	-	-	PAM-β'2m, PAM-β'2p (Adult)	-	
18	MB032B	-	-	-	PAM-β'2m, PAM-β'2p, PAM-β2β'2a, PAM-γ3 (Adult)	-	
19	MB312B	-	-	-	PAM-γ4, PAM-γ4<γ1γ2 (Adult)	-	
20	MB194B	-	-	-	PAM-α1, PAM-β'2a, PAM-β1, PAM-β1ped, PAM-β2 (Adult)	-	
21	MB063B	-	-	-	PAM-β1 (Adult)	-	
22	MB043B	-	h1, i1, j1	Weak, lots of MBN	PAM-α1, PAM-β'1 ap, PAM-β'1 m, PAM-β1 (Adult)	-	
23	MB441B	-	-	-	PAM-γ3 (Adult)	-	
24	MB025B	-	-	-	PAM-β'1ap/m (Adult)	-	
25	MB438B	-	-	-	PPL1-α'2α2, PPL1-α3, PPL1-γ1pedc (Adult)	-	
26	MB296B	DAN-d1	d1	Some in VNC	PPL1-γ2α'1 (Adult)	-	
27	MB304B	-	-	-	PPL1-α'3 (Adult)	-	

#	Name						Reference
28	MB058B	-	-	-	PPL1-α'2α'2 (Adult)	-	
29	MB065B	-	c1, f1, e1	-	PPL1-α'2α2, PPL1-α'3, PPL1-α3, PPL1-γ2α'1 (Adult)	-	
30	GMR_SS01716	DAN-g1	g1	-	g1 (LVL) (L3)	-	Dr. M. Zlatic's Lab (Saumerber et al., 2018)
31	GMR_SS01696	DAN-h1	h1 + i1	-	h1 (SHA) (L3)	-	
32	GMR_SS00864	DAN-i1	i1	1	i1 (UT) (L3)	-	
33	GMR_SS1757	DAN-k1	k1	1	k1 (LT) (L3)	-	
34	R78E04	-	1 weak DL1	Several	d1 (LA) (L3)	39997	
35	R72B05	-	1 DL1	Lots	MBIN-e2 (L3)	39611	
36	R12C11	-	2 DM1b	Several	MBON-c2 (L3)	76324	
37	R30F04	-	weak d1	Rare	d1 (LA) (L3)	48614	
38	R76C04	-	c1, d1	Rare	c1 (LP) (L3)	48621	
39	R37D06	-	-	-	f1 (IVL) (L3)	47921	
40	R14E06	-	2 DL1	Several	MBIN-e2 (L3)	48643	
41	TH-C-AD;R76F05-DBD	-	1 weak DL1, 2 strong DM1	Lots	PPL1 (SMP-PED) (Adult)	-	Dr. M. Wu's Lab (Xie et al., 2018)
42	TH-F-AD;R61H03-DBD		2DL2, 3 DM1	Rare	PPL1 (SMP) (Adult)	-	
43	R76F02-AD;TH-F-DBD	-	c1, e1	Lots weak	PPL1 (MB-MP1) (Adult)	-	
44	TH-F-AD;R76F05-DBD	-	1 weak DL1, 1-2 strong DM1	Several	PPL1 (SMP-γ) (Adult)	-	
45	R76F02-AD;R60F07-DBD	-	c1, f1, e1	Rare	PPL1 (PED, MB-MP1) (Adult)	-	
46	R60F07-AD;R76F05-DBD	-	g1, e1	Strong SOG	PPL1 (SMP-γ) (Adult)	-	
47	DAT-B-AD;R76F05-DBD	-	2-3pPAM, 1 DL1	Rare	PPL1 (hSMP-γ) (Adult)	-	

#	Genotype						
48	R76F02-AD;R55C10-DBD	DAN-c1	c1	-	PPL1 (MB-MP1) (Adult)	-	
49	R76F02-AD;R76F01-DBD	-	1 weak DL1	Lots	PPL1 (dFB) (Adult)	-	
50	R76F02-AD;R76F05-DBD	-	-	Lots	PPL1 (dFB) (Adult)	-	
51	R76F05-AD;R61H03-DBD	-	1 DL1, 2 pPAM, 3 DM1	1	PPL1 (MB-MV1) (Adult)	-	
52	WED-1	-	-	-	WED (Adult)	-	Dr. M. Wu's Lab (Liu et al., 2017)
53	WED-2	-	-	-	WED (Adult)	-	
54	TH-FLP/UAS-FRT>>FRT-CD8::GFP;R39G05	-	-	-	PPL1 (bSMP-γ) (Adult)	50063	
55	TH-FLP/UAS-FRT>>FRT-CD8::GFP;R17C11	-	-	-	PPL1 (V1 & MP1) (Adult)	48763	
56	TH-FLP/UAS-FRT>>FRT-CD8::GFP;R39C07	-	2 DL1	-	PPL1 (MV1 & MP1) (Adult)	50039	
57	TH-FLP/UAS-FRT>>FRT-CD8::GFP;R67E08	-	-	-	PPL1 (V1) (Adult)	39445	

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4

Figure S5

Figure S6

Figure S7

Table S1

	Strains	Information	Source/Gift	Stock #
1	R72C04	D2R-GAL4 driver (verified)	BDSC	49416
2	R72C08	D2R-GAL4 driver (verified)	BDSC	49621
3	R72D03	D2R-GAL4 driver	BDSC	46676
4	D2R-EGFP	EGFP-tagged D2R	BDSC	60276
5	201Y-GFP	GFP expressed in Mushroom Body	BDSC	64296
6	MB247-LexA::Vp16/TM6B	MB-LexA, mushroom body driver	Dr. M. Gallio's Lab	Macpherson et al. 2015
7	UAS-nSyb-spGFP1-10,LexAop-CD4-spGFP11/CyO	GRASP strain	BDSC	64314
8	LexAop-nSyb-spGFP1-10,UAS-CD4-spGFP11;MKRS/TM6B	Reverse GRASP strain	BDSC	64315
9	WT(Canton-S)	Wild type	BDSC	64349 (1)
10	UAS-RNAi(D2R) (III) line 2	UAS-D2R-RNAi	Dr. A. Kopin's Lab	Draper et al. 2007
11	201Y-GAL4	MB-GAL4, mushroom body driver	BDSC	4440
12	CyO/Sco;TM2,Ubx/TM6,Hu.Tb	Ballancer Chromesome	Dr. S. Tanda's Lab	
13	1407-Gal4	Pan-neuronal driver	BDSC	8751
14	10XUAS-mCD8::GFP (I)	GFP strain	BDSC	32189
15	10XUAS-mCD8::GFP (II)	GFP strain	BDSC	32186
16	10XUAS-mCD8::GFP (III)	GFP strain	BDSC	32184
17	UAS-ChR2; UAS-ChrR2	Optogenetics strain	Dr. B. Condron's Lab	
18	LexAop-rCD2::RFP; UAS-CD4-spGFP1-10, LexAop-CD4-spGFP11	RFP expressed in MB; GRASP	BDSC	58755
19	UAS-CD8::mCherry (II)	mCherry strain	BDSC	27391
20	UAS-CD8::mCherry (III)	mCherry strain	BDSC	27392
21	yw1118	Wild type for D2R-EGFP	Dr. S. Tanda's Lab	
22	D2R-miR	UAS-DD2R-microRNA	Dr. M. Wu's Lab	Xie et al. 2018
23	UAS-*Shibirets1*	Thermogenetics strain	Dr. T. Kitamoto's Lab	
24	UAS-dTRPA1	Thermogenetics strain	BDSC	26263
25	UAS-nsyb::GFP; UAS-DenMark	Pre- and postsynaptic terminals	BDSC	33056

Table S2

Figure 1	N			Figure S1	N
Strains	IHC	GRASP		TH-GAL4	4
TH-GAL4	8	16		MB065B	4
MB065B	14	15		R76F02AD;R55C10DBD	5
R76F02AD;R55C10DBD	13	13		MB296B	3
MB296B	14	4		SS1716	2
SS1716	10	21		R58E02	3
R58E02	5	10		R30G08	2
R30G08	13	6		SS1696	4
SS1696	16	4		SS0864	4
SS0864	7	8		SS1757	4
SS1757	6	13		R72D03-GAL4	7
				R72C08-GAL4	5
Figure 2	N			R72C04-GAL4	3
DAN-c1 x Syt-GFP;DenMark	4			201Y-GAL4	4
				MB247-LexA::VP16	3
Figure 3	N				
DM1a	11			Figure S2	N
DM1b	9			TH-spGFP1-10	3
pPAM	11			MB247-spGFP11	4
DL1	10				
DL2a	7			Figure S3	N
DL2b	5			R72D03	5
MB Soma	6			R72C08	4
MB Lobe	8			R72C04	5
Figure 4	N			Figure S4	N
DAN-c1 x D2-GFP	9			DAN-d1 x Syt-GFP;DenMark	6
TH-Gal4	7			DAN-g1 x Syt-GFP;DenMark	3
TH-miR	6			DAN-d1 x D2-GFP	13
				DAN-g1 x D2-GFP	7

Table S3

R76F02AD;R55C10DBD (DAN-c1) brains	other DAN	None DAN	VNC
1	0	1 strong, 4 weak	NA
2	1 weak no neurites	0	3 weak
3	0	7 weak	NA
4	0	0	2 strong
5	0	0	2 strong
6	0	2 strong, 3 weak	NA
7	0	0	NA
8	0	0	4 strong
9	0	5 weak	NA
10	0	1 weak	NA
11	0	8 weak	NA
12	0	0	NA
13	0	4 strong 1 weak	NA
14	0	0	0
15	0	0	0
16	0	0	NA
17	0	0	0
18	NA	1 strong, 1 weak	0
19	NA	7 weak	0
20	NA	5 weak	0
21	NA	0	0
22	NA	1 weak	0

Table S4

	22°C			34°C			Interaction p-value	Row Factor p-value (Temperature)	Column Factor p-value (US)
	QUI	DW	SUC	QUI	DW	SUC			
shibire[ts1]	9	8	8	9	9	9	0.8880	0.5290	<0.0001
DAN-c1×shibire[ts1]	14	6	7	17	6	9	<0.0001	0.0018	<0.0001
DAN-c1	8	9	9	9	9	9	0.6143	0.1664	<0.0001
DAN-c1×dTRPA1	15	14	13	14	15	13	<0.0001	0.0019	<0.0001
dTRPA1	9	8	9	10	10	10	0.8001	0.4228	<0.0001

Table S5

Driver	Cross	Pentyl acetate (PA)			Propionic acid (P-A)			Naïve olfactory		Naïve gustatory		Locomotion
		QUI	DW	SUC	QUI	DW	SUC	PA	P-A	QUI	SUC	
TH	miR	8	8	8	6	6	6	7	7	6	6	24
×	RNAi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	CR	8	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	12
DAN-	miR	38	38	37	14	13	14	12	8	11	12	50
c1	RNAi	6	6	6	-	-	-	8	-	6	6	24
×	CR	14	10	10	11	8	8	12	9	11	12	36
DAN-	miR	17	15	13	8	8	7	6	6	6	7	16
d1	RNAi	6	6	6	-	-	-	7	-	7	6	16
×	CR	13	11	10	9	6	6	7	6	6	6	15
DAN-	miR	31	22	16	13	8	8	8	8	6	7	22
g1	RNAi	8	8	6	-	-	-	8	-	6	7	24
×	CR	23	19	18	8	8	7	8	6	6	6	15
201Y	miR	7	7	8	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	24
×	RNAi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	CR	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	24
WT		6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	24
D2R-miR		12	12	12	6	6	6	12	6	11	12	36
RNAi		6	6	6	-	-	-	6	-	6	6	20

Table S6

Strains	Groups	BL									No BL		
		Resting			Learning			Testing					
		QUI	DW	SUC	QUI	DW	SUC	QUI	DW	SUC	QUI	DW	SUC
TH×ChR2	ATR	-	-	-	21	13	10	-	-	-	20	16	10
	No ATR	-	-	-	16	13	8	-	-	-	14	13	8
DAN-c1×ChR2	ATR	11	8	9	15	12	9	9	8	8	16	11	9
	No ATR	9	9	8	15	12	8	9	9	9	16	12	9
201Y×ChR2	ATR	8	7	7	9	6	9	7	7	10	11	8	7
	No ATR	10	7	7	10	7	7	9	7	13	12	10	7