Presynaptic developmental plasticity allows robust sparse wiring of the *Drosophila* mushroom

body

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Abstract: In order to represent complex stimuli, principle neurons of associative learning re-

gions receive combinatorial sensory inputs. Density of combinatorial innervation is theorized to

determine the number of distinct stimuli that can be represented and distinguished from one an-

other, with sparse innervation thought to optimize the complexity of representations in networks

of limited size. How the convergence of combinatorial inputs to principle neurons of associative

brain regions is established during development is unknown. Here, we explore the developmen-

tal patterning of sparse olfactory inputs to Kenyon cells of the *Drosophila melanogaster* mush-

room body. By manipulating the ratio between pre- and post-synaptic cells, we find that postsyn-

aptic Kenyon cells set convergence ratio: Kenyon cells produce fixed distributions of dendritic

claws while presynaptic processes are plastic. Moreover, we show that sparse odor responses

are preserved in mushroom bodies with reduced cellular repertoires, suggesting that develop-

mental specification of convergence ratio allows functional robustness.

Introduction: The environmental stimuli animals encounter on a day-to-day basis are extraordi-

narily numerous. Olfactory systems have evolved to cope with this diversity by maximizing the

chemicals that can be detected, through the amplification of chemosensory receptor gene fami-

lies, and through combinatorial coding, which expands representation capacity from the number

of receptors in the genome to the number of combinations among them. The arthropod mush-

room body is a cerebellum-like associative learning structure with a well-understood role in rep-

resenting sensory stimuli and associating sensory and contextual cues (Farris, 2011; Hige,

2018; Kennedy, 2015). While mushroom bodies of different insect species process information

from a variety of sensory modalities, 90% of Kenyon cell inputs in *Drosophila melanogaster* are

olfactory (Zheng et al., 2018). The mushroom body of each hemisphere has ~2000 Kenyon cells

(KCs), which are two synapses from the sensory periphery. Each olfactory receptor neuron in

the antennae of adult flies expresses one or two of 75 olfactory receptor genes encoded in the

genome. The axons of neurons expressing the same receptor converge on one of 50 glomeruli

in the antennal lobe. ~150 uniglomerular projection neurons (PNs) have dendrites in one of the

50 glomeruli and carry signals about distinct receptor channels to two regions of the proto-

cerebrum, the lateral horn and the mushroom body calyx (Figure 1A). PN inputs to the lateral

horn are thought to underlie innate behaviors, while inputs to the mushroom body allow flexible

learned association of odor stimuli with behavioral context (Chin et al., 2018; de Belle and Hei-

senberg, 1994; Fişek and Wilson, 2014; Jefferis et al., 2007; Ruta et al., 2010).

In the mushroom body calyx, the presynaptic sites of individual olfactory PNs cluster into multi-

synaptic boutons, with PNs of different types (innervating different glomeruli) producing con-

sistent, characteristic bouton numbers (Caron et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2018). Each PN makes

1-20 boutons, and each bouton is wrapped by claws of ~10 KCs, such that each PN sends out-

put to between 10 and 200 of the 2000 KCs (Leiss et al., 2009). KCs in turn have 3-10 (average

of five) claws, which innervate boutons of various PNs (Caron et al., 2013; Gruntman and

Turner, 2013; Zheng et al., 2018). Each KC therefore receives innervation from only a minority

of the 50 incoming sensory channels, and different individual KCs receive different and relatively

unstructured combinations of inputs (Caron et al., 2013; Eichler et al., 2017; Honegger et al.,

2011; Murthy et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2018). The sets of inputs to individual cells vary across

hemispheres and likely across individuals (Caron et al., 2013; Eichler et al., 2017; Honegger et

al., 2011; Murthy et al., 2008). Associative learning mechanisms operate at KC output synap-

ses, in the mushroom body axonal lobes, to re-weight KC outputs depending on experience and

shift animal behavior (Cohn et al., 2015; Handler et al., 2019; Hige et al., 2015; Owald and

Waddell, 2015).

The mushroom body is a simplified and experimentally tractable example of an expansion layer,

in which a set of sensory inputs is mapped combinatorially onto a much larger set of postsynap-

tic cells, increasing the dimensionality of sensory representations. Like the diversification of

antibodies by V(D)J recombination, the diversification of sensory input combinations across KCs

is thought to allow them to represent arbitrary odors, regardless of evolutionary experience.

Neurons of many other expansion layers receive similarly few, or sparse, sensory inputs. These

include the cerebellum proper, the electric organ of mormyrid fish, the dorsal cochlear nucleus,

and the hippocampus (Bell et al., 2008; Keene and Waddell, 2007; Mugnaini et al., 1980). Cere-

bellar granule cells have an average of four large, claw-shaped dendrites that are innervated by

clustered mossy fiber presynaptic sites in mossy fiber rosettes. The similar convergence ratios

in the cerebellum and mushroom body (4 or 5 sensory inputs, respectively, per expansion layer

cell) are thought to maximize dimensionality of sensory representations by optimizing the

tradeoff between stimulus representation, which is maximized when expansion layer neurons

receive large combinations of inputs, and stimulus separation, which is maximized when expan-

sion layer neurons receive few inputs (Albus, 1971; Cayco-Gajic et al., 2017; Litwin-Kumar et

al., 2017; Marr, 1969). The number of sensory inputs received by expansion layer neurons is

thus a crucial parameter in sensory coding. How the density of inputs to expansion layer neu-

rons is developmentally programmed is not understood in any system.

Innervation complexity more generally has been studied in the peripheral nervous system and in

the developing mammalian cortex. In peripheral sensory neurons, most prominently those of the

Drosophila larval body wall, cell-autonomous mechanisms profoundly influence dendritic com-

plexity (Corty et al., 2016; Jan and Jan, 2010; Ziegler et al., 2017). However, sensory neurons

do not need to coordinate their innervation with presynaptic partners. In the vertebrate periph-

eral nervous system, including the rabbit ciliary ganglion and vertebrate neuromuscular junction,

postsynaptic neurons or muscles are thought to dictate wiring complexity (Gibbins et al., 2003;

Hume and Purves, 1983, 1981; Purves and Hume, 1981; Turney and Lichtman, 2012). In con-

trast, in the developing cortex, extracellular signals including BDNF play a strong role in influ-

encing dendritic complexity, suggesting that presynaptic cells and glia also influence

connectivity density (Kohara et al., 2003; McAllister et al., 1997, 1995; Purves, 1986). There-

fore, while mechanisms acting in both pre- and post-synaptic cells *can* influence innervation

complexity, there is a need to directly compare how pre- and post-synaptic cells influence one

another.

We sought to ask how convergence ratio is set in the mushroom body calyx. By bidirectionally

varying the populations of pre- and post-synaptic cells, we were able to make many different

mushroom body aberrations. Across these conditions, we found a consistent pattern of compen-

sations: the number of claws per KC remained largely constant, while the number of presynaptic

boutons per olfactory PN varied bidirectionally and in response to changes of both the PN and

KC populations. We therefore conclude that in this circuit, connectivity density is set by aspects

of KC specification and is accomplished by flexible innervation of the calyx by PNs.

Results: In order to ask whether presynaptic olfactory PNs or postsynaptic KCs (or both) dictate

sparse wiring density in the mushroom body calyx, we used a variety of methods to manipulate

the ratio between pre- and post-synaptic cells during embryonic or larval stages, well before

adult connections form in the pupa. Through a combination of genetic and pharmacological in-

terventions, we were able to vary both cell populations up and down. In these four conditions,

we then examined gross calyx anatomy in adult animals and, when possible, the processes of

individual PNs and KCs. These experiments allowed us to ask which population of neurons

would adjust its production of processes in response to the perturbation. As we will describe, in

all four cases, PNs adjusted their repertoire of presynaptic sites while KC claw number re-

mained similar to that of unmanipulated animals.

Projection neurons reduce bouton number when Kenyon cell number is reduced

First, we sought to reduce the KC population, to ask whether remaining cells would increase

their claw number to fully innervate incoming PN boutons, or whether PNs would scale down

their boutons to the KC repertoire. To do this, we took advantage of existing pharmacological

techniques for KC neuroblast ablation (de Belle and Heisenberg, 1994; Sweeney et al., 2012).

In the fly, four KC neuroblasts in each hemisphere produce ~500 KCs each (Ito et al., 1997).

While most neuroblasts pause their divisions for the first 8 hours after larval hatching (ALH), the

KC neuroblasts continue to divide; if larvae are fed the mitotic poison hydroxyurea during this

time, KC neuroblasts can be specifically ablated (de Belle and Heisenberg, 1994). In these ani-

mals, lacking all KCs that receive olfactory inputs, olfactory learning is abrogated while innate

olfactory behaviors are spared (de Belle and Heisenberg, 1994). The uniglomerular, excitatory

olfactory PNs that innervate the MB calyx are produced by two neuroblasts, called lNB/BAlc and

adNB/BAmv3 . Besides the KC neuroblasts, lNB/BAlc is the only other neuroblast in the fly cen-

tral nervous system dividing from 0-8h ALH and is thus also susceptible to HU ablation (Das et

al., 2013; Ito and Hotta, 1992; Lovick et al., 2016; Lovick and Hartenstein, 2015; Stocker et al.,

1997; Sweeney et al., 2012).

While ablation of all eight KC neuroblasts (4/hemisphere) was used to demonstrate the role of

KCs in olfactory learning (de Belle and Heisenberg, 1994), we sought to perform more subtle

manipulations of the mushroom body cell populations. We generated animals in which PNs and

KCs were fluorescently labeled to facilitate scoring, and reduced the concentration and duration

of HU application, producing mushroom bodies with a variety of Kenyon cell complements, likely

due to sporadic loss of different neuroblast complements in each hemisphere (Figure 1B).

Together, these neuroblast losses could potentially produce 1-2 PN neuroblasts and mushroom

bodies derived from 0-4 KC neuroblasts. Using our reporters, we scored the presence or ab-

sence of PNs ventrolateral to the antennal lobe, derived from lNB/BAlc, and counted the number

of KCs (Figure 1C). In practice, some of the neuroblast states did not occur and some were

overrepresented (Figure 2-figure supplement 1). Hemispheres from the same brain did not gen-

erally show the same neuroblast state as one another, but were often similar in severity of neu-

roblast losses (Figure 2-figure supplement 1).

KCs of different types are produced in a characteristic sequence in development: γ KCs are

born in the embryo and early larva, $\alpha'\beta'$ KCs are born in late larvae, and $\alpha\beta$ KCs are born in pu-

pae. We identified samples in which all 4 KC neuroblasts had been ablated by looking for sam-

ples lacking mushroom body vertical lobes, which are composed of axons of $\alpha'\beta'$ and $\alpha\beta$ KCs

and thus do not form if all KC neuroblasts are killed by HU just after hatching. We confirmed

previous findings that in animals with all four KC neuroblasts ablated, the PNs fail to target the

calyx and project only to the lateral horn (Stocker et al., 1997). In these animals, ~100 KCs re-

mained (Figure 1B). These represent the KC population that is born prior to larval hatching, and

which is thus unaffected by KC neuroblast ablation after hatching. Recently, these earliest-born

cells, called γd KCs, have been shown to receive visual and not olfactory input in adult flies

(Vogt et al., 2016; Yagi et al., 2016). These observations suggest that γd KCs are molecularly

distinct from later-born cells during pupal calyx wiring, such that even when all the olfactory KCs

are absent, olfactory PNs cannot innervate visual KCs. Remarkably, these embryonic-born γd

KCs receive olfactory inputs in the early larva and are sufficient for olfactory learning at that time

(Eichler et al., 2017; Pauls et al., 2010); they must therefore switch their partner preferences

across developmental stages.

We then examined calyx anatomy in animals with intermediate populations of KCs, likely de-

rived from 1-3 remaining neuroblasts. We found a progressive decrease in the size of the mush-

room body calyx in these animals as measured by the maximum cross-sectional area of the ca-

lyx (Figure 1B, C) or by calyx volume (Figure 1-figure supplement 1, Figure 1-video 1). To ask if

this corresponded to a decline in bouton number, we counted the number of PN boutons in each

hemisphere (Figure 1E, Figure 1-figure supplement 2). This revealed a linear relationship be-

tween KC number and PN bouton number, suggesting that PNs reduce their population of bou-

tons to match the KC population. The lateral horn appeared normal in these animals and its size

did not correlate with KC number, suggesting that PN projections to these two brain areas de-

velop independent of one another (Figure 1B, D). The presence or absence of ventrolateral PNs

did not obviously predict bouton number, suggesting individual PNs may be able to tailor their

bouton production both to the number of KCs and to adjust to the number of other PNs. How-

ever, we were not able to obtain enough samples to draw firm conclusions about whether PN

cell number affected PN bouton number in calyces derived from matched KC neuroblast com-

plements. To test this, we developed alternative methods to ablate PNs (Figure 5, 6).

Figure 1: Reduction of Kenyon cells leads to reduced projection neuron innervation of
the mushroom body calyx. (A) Images (left) and models (right) of olfactory PNs and KCs in
the adult fly brain. PNs (red) receive input from olfactory sensory neurons in the antennal lobe
(AL) and project to the mushroom body calyx and the lateral horn (LH). In the calyx, PNs syn-
apse with KCs (green) in microglomeruli. Dashed box at left indicates region shown in B. (B)
Maximum intensity projections of confocal stacks of the brains of adult flies subjected to HU
treatment or sham treatment just after larval hatching. PNs labeled red using GH146-Gal4, KCs
green using MB247-LexA. White outlines indicate the extent of the MB calyx in each sample;
dashed boxes are regions shown magnified below. (C, D) Relationship between number of KCs
and calyx (C) or lateral horn (D) maximum cross-sectional area in HU treated (blue, red dots)
and sham treated (grey dots) MBs. Treated samples are separated by presence (red) or ab-
sence (blue) of INB/BAlc progeny. Here and throughout, each dot is one hemisphere. Purple
trend line in (C) combines all HU-treated samples. (E) Relationship between KC number and
GH146+ bouton number in brains of HU- and sham-treated animals.
197

199 **Figure 1-figure supplement 1** (A) Correlation between KC number and calyx volume for the
200 samples shown in Figure 1B and Figure 1-video 1. (B) Correlation between calyx maximum
201 cross-sectional area and calyx volume for samples shown in Figure 1B and Figure 1-video 1.

Figure 1-figure supplement 2. High-resolution images of calyx boutons (A) and example of bouton counting for a single confocal plane (B); each yellow dot was scored as a bouton.

To score KC clones directly, we developed a strategy to label only the latest-born, "αβ core"

KCs. The somata and principle neurites of these late-born cells remain clustered in the adult,

allowing us to count KC clones by counting groups of labeled soma or axon tracts as they leave

the calyx (Figure 2A, B). Again, we found that calyx size tracked KC clone number, and that the

presence or absence of the PN progeny of INB/BAlc did not predict calyx size (Figure 2C). KC

loss could reduce PN bouton number because PNs die or fail to be born when lacking KC con-

tacts or trophic support. We thus counted the number of anterodorsal PNs (derived from

adNB/BAmv3) and ventrolateral PNs (derived from lNB/BAlc) in this cohort. The number of an-

terodorsal PNs was not reduced in animals with some or all KC neuroblasts ablated, and the

number of ventrolateral PNs was binary rather than graded, suggesting that vlPN number is de-

termined by whether lNB/BAlc succumbed to HU, rather than by the KC complement (Figure

2D, E). These results suggest that PN neurogenesis and survival do not require KC signals.

Like γd KCs, a few PNs derived from lNB/BAlc remained in adults; these likely represent PNs

born embryonically from lNB/BAlc.

Reduction in the number of PN boutons in the calyx could occur because individual PNs quanti-

tatively reduce their bouton production. To ask whether individual PNs alter their production of

presynaptic boutons as the KC repertoire changes, we identified two methods to label single

PNs. We focused on anterodorsal PNs, as these are not susceptible to ablation of lNB/BAlc.

First, we used 71D09 Gal4 to label the anterodorsal VM6 PN (Ward et al., 2015) and then sub-

jected labeled animals to HU ablation. Because we found a linear relationship between KC num-

ber and calyx area (Figure 1C, 2C), we used calyx area as a proxy for KC number. While VM6

usually produces ~10 boutons, we found only ~5 boutons in animals with reduced calyx size,

and 0-1 bouton in animals with severe calyx reductions, likely lacking all olfactory KCs (Figure

2F-H). These results suggest that individual PNs do reduce their bouton production as the KC

complement is reduced, and that this reduction is graded rather than binary (i.e. in animals with

some but not all KC neuroblasts ablated, bouton number is in between 0 and the wild type num-

ber). To characterize additional PNs, we expressed photoactivatable GFP under control of

R42D01-Gal4, which labels ~10 anterodorsal PNs innervating the VM3 and VM4 glomeruli. We

photoconverted individual somata using two photon microscopy (Figure 2-figure supplement 2).

Though bouton counts were somewhat more variable than for VM6 as this strategy labels

different types of PNs with different characteristic bouton numbers, we again found a correlation

between KC loss and bouton reduction (Figure 2-figure supplement 2).

The graded reductions in bouton number we observed for different PN types would preserve the

relative representation of these odor channels in the calyx. While the genetic constraints of

these experiments prevented us from scoring the status of lNB/BAlc, we also note that the

range of bouton numbers we observed are consistent with adjustments to compensate for the

presence or absence of ventrolateral PNs. For example, most VM6 neurons innervating a calyx

derived from 1 KC neuroblast produced between 3 and 7 boutons, as compared to the median

of 10 in unperturbed animals. If KCs are reduced by ¾ without loss of lNB/BAlc, perfect com-

pensation by PNs would reduce boutons from 10 to 2.5. If lNB/BAlc was also lost, perfect com-

pensation would reduce boutons from 10 to 5. These predicted values are similar to the bouton

range we observed experimentally.

Finally, we sought to ask if KC claw number changes as KC number changes. We used GFP

photoactivation to label individual KCs in animals subjected to HU ablation. The different KC

classes have different median claw numbers: γ KCs have ~7 claws, $\alpha\beta$ cells have ~5 claws, and

$\alpha'\beta'$ KCs have ~3 claws (Caron et al., 2013); we therefore used two different strategies to label

individual KCs in animals subjected to HU ablation, both of which allow us to assign KC type.

First, we expressed PA-GFP broadly in Kenyon cells using MB247-Gal4, and assigned KC type

by imaging the axonal lobe innervation of photoactivated cells (Figure 2-figure supplement 3).

Second, we expressed PA-GFP only in $\alpha\beta$ or γ KCs using 58F02-Gal4 (Figure 2I) and 89B01-

Gal4, respectively. Combining data from these two methods, we found no change in claw num-

ber on individual $\alpha\beta$ KCs (Figure 2J-K) or γ KCs (Figure 2-figure supplement 3) as the KC popu-

lation was reduced. From these experiments, we conclude that PNs reduce their bouton

production on a cell-by-cell basis as the KC population shrinks, while KC claw number is unaf-

fected by the size of the KC population (model, Figure 2L).

Figure 2: Individual projection neurons scale their bouton repertoire to the Kenyon cell population. (A) Maximum intensity projections of confocal stacks of the anterior (left) and posterior (right) of HU and sham-treated animals. GH146 labels PNs (red). 58F02 labels late-born αβ "core" KCs (green). Cholinergic neurons labeled with ChAT immunostaining (blue). Numbers indicate PN and KC clones. Anterior and posterior images are of the same brains. (B) Confocal slices of the mushroom body calyx in sham-treated (right) and various HU treated (left) hemispheres. ChAT signal highlights bouton structures, while 58F02 signal allows scoring of the number of KC clones. Numbered neurite bundles innervate the pedunculus when traced through the stack, while green signals not numbered derive from non-KC cell types labeled by 58F02. (C-E) Relationship between KC clone number and maximum calyx cross-sectional area (C), and number of anterodorsal (D) and ventrolateral (E) PNs. (F-H) Example images (F) and quantification (G, H) of MB calyx boutons on the VM6 PN, labeled by 71D09 (red). KCs labeled by MB247 (green). Numbers in (F) indicate counted boutons, and these two calyces are displayed at the same scale. Dashed vertical lines in (G) indicate cutoff between HU-treated calyces similar to controls and those affected by the manipulation. Significance, one-way ANOVA with correction for multiple comparisons. Here and throughout, letters above scatterplots indicate statistically distinguishable versus undistinguishable groups by ANOVA. Black horizontal bars represent medians. (I-K) Example images (I) and quantification (J, K) of GFP photoactivation of individual KCs in HU treated or sham brains. PNs labeled by 60A10 and αβ "core" KCs by 58F02. Examples in (I) show two hemispheres of the same HU treated brain. Note that calyx area is larger in brains imaged *ex vivo* by two photon (as in I-K) versus fixed, stained, and imaged by confocal (as in F-H). Quantification in (J, K) includes αβ KCs labeled as shown in (I) and those labeled as shown in Figure 2-figure supplement 3; quantification of γ KCs labeled by both methods is shown in Figure 2-figure supplement 3. INB/BAlc status was scored by examining PN somata near the antennal lobe, as in (A). (L) Model of the effect of KC loss on calyx development. Remaining KCs exhibit wild-type numbers of claws, while PNs reduce their bouton repertoire, reducing the size of the calyx.

Figure 2-figure supplement 1 (A) Distribution of HU effects for one batch of treated animals. Genotype as in Figure 2A. (B) Relationship of KC neuroblast state across hemispheres. Jitter was added to make each sample apparent.

Sham

5-HU

A

Posterior

100uM

Posterior

100uM

B

Anterior

200uM

Anterior

200uM

KCs   42D01 PNs, PA-GFP

C

42D01 PN Boutons

Sham
HU

Calyx area (µm^2)

D

42D01 PN Boutons

A   A   B

Sham
HU, Calyx>2000
HU, Calyx<2000

Figure 2-figure supplement 2. Example maximum intensity projections of two photon images
(A, B) and quantification (C, D) of PNs labeled by 42D01-Gal4 and highlighted by GFP photoac-
tivation. Each panel shows posterior (A) and anterior (B) images of the same brain, where ante-
rior images show single photoactivated PN somata and glomerular innervation in the antennal
lobe, as well as mushroom body lobes, and posterior images show boutons of the same PN in
the mushroom body calyx. Speckles are autofluorescence, large yellow blobs are photodamage
incurred during imaging. Black horizontal bars in (C,D) represent medians.

Sham

A
Posterior

αβ KC, 6 claws   γ KC, 8 claws

100uM

5-HU
Posterior

γd KC, 2 claws   αβ KC, 7 claws

100uM

B
Anterior

200uM

Anterior

200uM

GH146 PNs   KCs PA-GFP

C

γ KC Claws

Sham
HU:INB/BAlc-
HU:INB/BAlc+

Calyx area (μm^2)

D

γ KC Claws

A   A   A

Sham   HU, Calyx>2000   HU, Calyx<2000

Figure 2-figure supplement 3. (A, B) Example maximum intensity projections of two photon images of KCs labeled by MB247-LexA and highlighted by GFP photoactivation. Each panel shows posterior (A) and anterior (B) images of a single brain, where anterior images show KC innervation of the mushroom body axonal lobes, as well as the antennal lobe, and posterior images show claws of the same KC in the mushroom body calyx, as well as PN boutons. Axonal lobe innervation allowed us to assign KC type, as noted. Speckles are autofluorescence, large yellow blobs are photodamage incurred during imaging. The left hemisphere of the HU-treated sample is fully ablated and lacks lNB/BAlc progeny, while the right hemisphere is partially ablated and retains lNB/BAlc. (C, D) Quantification of claws of γ KCs labeled using the strategy shown here or through expression of PA-GFP only in γ KCs, driven by 89B01-Gal4. lNB/BAlc status scored by examining GH146-Gal4 or 60A10-LexA, as shown in Figure 2A. Black horizontal bars represent medians.

Olfactory projection neurons increase bouton repertoire as Kenyon cell number increases

In order to assess whether PNs can vary their presynaptic bouton number bidirectionally, we next created a method to specifically amplify the KC population. Recent work has suggested that ectopic or supernumerary populations of neurons can integrate into a variety of fruit fly neural circuits (Meng et al., 2019; Pop et al., 2019; Prieto-Godino et al., 2019; Seroka and Doe, 2019; Shaw et al., 2018), and previous studies identified a mutant, called *mushroom body defect* (*mud*) in which the mushroom body and other brain areas are dramatically expanded (Guan et al., 2000; Prokop and Technau, 1994). Mud/NuMA is a spindle orientation protein that ensures neuroblasts divide asymmetrically to produce one neuroblast and one differentiating neuron or neural progenitor (Siller et al., 2006). In *mud* mutants, neuroblasts occasionally divide symmetrically to produce two neuroblasts, amplifying the progeny of that neuroblast. To restrict amplification to KCs, we drove UAS-*mud*-RNAi (BL 35044) using OK107-Gal4, which is expressed in KC neuroblasts as well as in KCs (Liu et al., 2015). Importantly, in RNAseq data from 45h APF and adult animals, we observe no expression of *mud* in PNs, KCs, or other brain cells, suggesting *mud* is not expressed in differentiating neurons (data not shown).

As OK107 labels mature KCs as well as KC neuroblasts, we included UAS-CD8GFP in these animals to count KCs. This produced potent amplification of KCs that was variable across

animals, sometimes more than doubling KC number (Figure 3A, B). We measured calyx size,

which expanded dramatically, and used GH146-driven fluorescence to count PN bouton num-

ber, which doubled in mushroom bodies with the largest KC expansions (Figure 3C, Figure 3-

video 1). These results suggest that just as PNs scale down their boutons if the KC population is

reduced, PNs scale up their boutons when the KC population is expanded.

To test whether PNs increased boutons on a cell-by-cell basis in these animals, we labeled VM6

using 71D09-LexA, and PNs innervating DA1, Va1d, and DC3 using MZ19-QF. First, we ob-

served no change in VM6 or MZ19+ cell numbers in brains with KC expansions (Figure 3E, H),

suggesting that PN numbers do not increase as KC number increases. We observed no change

in VM6 bouton numbers, perhaps because the VM6 PN already has a relatively large number of

boutons (Figure 3H). In contrast, MZ19 cells increased their number of presynaptic boutons as

the KC population expanded, from an average of 3.5 boutons per cells in the control genotype

to an average of 4.75 boutons per cell in the KC-expansion genotype. In brains with enlarged

calyces, indicative of KC population expansion, MZ19+ boutons doubled (Figure 3D, F, G).

To rule out reductions in the number of claws per KC as the KC population expands, we ex-

pressed photoactivatable GFP under the control of OK107 in animals with UAS-*mud*-RNAi or

control and subjected individual or small groups of KCs to photoactivation. We scored the num-

ber of claws per labeled KC in each calyx. As above, calyx size predicted KC number in these

animals, so we used calyx size as a proxy for KC number. Rather than a decrease in claw num-

ber per KC in animals with expanded KC complements, we found a slight increase in claw num-

ber, from a median of 5 to a median of 6 claws. As different types of KCs produce different char-

acteristic numbers of claws, this could represent a change in claw production, a change in the

distribution of KC types in these animals, or bias in which KC types we labeled in expanded vs

control brains. While we were unable to identify LexA lines to specifically label $\alpha\beta$ or γ KCs in

OK107->mudRNAi brains, we found a LexA line, R41C07, that labeled α'β' KCs, and targeted

these specifically for photoactivation (Figure 3-figure supplement 1). In these KCs of matched

type, we found no change in KC claw number per cell, though we cannot rule out subtle differ-

ences. Together, these experiments suggest that in animals with an amplified KC complement,

PNs dramatically increase their bouton production to match the KC population, while KCs may

moderately increase, and do not reduce, their individual claw production.

Figure 3: Increase in Kenyon cell number leads to increased projection neuron bouton complement. (A) Confocal slice of control calyx and calyx subjected to KC expansion by expression of *mud*-RNAi in KC neuroblasts via OK107-Gal4. GH146 labels PNs (red) and OK107 labels KCs (green). (B, C) Relationship between number of KCs and maximum calyx cross-sectional area (B) and PN bouton number (C) in control (grey) and KC neuroblast->mud-RNAi hemispheres (red). (D) Maximum intensity projection of confocal stack of calyx bouton production by ~16 MZ19+ PNs (red) in control and KC neuroblast->mud-RNAi. ChAT immunostaining (blue) highlights calyx extent. (E) Quantification of MZ19 cells in the two genotypes. Significance: unpaired t-test. Throughout this figure, black horizontal bars represent medians. (F, G) Relationship between maximum calyx cross-sectional area and MZ19 bouton production. Vertical dashed line indicates calyces larger than 2000 μm^2, observed only in the experimental genotype. Significance: one-way ANOVA. (H) Boutons of the VM6 PN, labeled by 71D09-LexA, in control (grey) or brains subjected to KC expansion via OK107->mudRNAi (red). Every hemisphere contained one VM6 neuron in both genotypes except the three circled datapoints, which had two VM6 PNs. Significance: unpaired t-test. (I) Maximum intensity projection of two-photon stack of single KCs highlighted by GFP photoactivation (C3PA driven by OK107) in control or OK107 ->mudRNAi calyces. Position of out-of-plane somata in control image indicated by white circle. Red arrowheads indicate scored claws. (J, K) Quantification of claws of KCs labeled as in (I). Y axis is average number of claws per KC as multiple KCs were photoactivated in some samples. Significance: unpaired t-test; here and throughout, *: $p<0.05$, **: $p<0.01$, ***: $p<0.001$, ****: $p<0.0001$. (L) Model of the effect of KC expansion on calyx development. KCs retain normal claw numbers while PNs increase their bouton numbers, increasing calyx size.

Figure 3-figure supplement 1 KC claw number in PA-GFP-labeled α'β' KCs in control or KC-expansion genotype. Significance: unpaired t-test. Black horizonal bars represent medians.

Individual projection neurons decrease bouton number as the projection neuron population expands

We have shown that olfactory PNs bidirectionally vary their presynaptic boutons to suit populations of KCs derived from 0-8 KC neuroblasts. To ask whether PNs can also vary their bouton production in response to changes in their own numbers, or in response to changes in the ratio between PNs and KCs that do not affect KC clone number, we identified methods to vary the PN population. We found that just as we could expand the KC population by knocking down

mud in KC neuroblasts, we could expand the PN population by knocking down *mud* in PN neu-

roblasts. This strategy produced GH146-labeled PN complements of up to 600 cells, as com-

pared to ~120 GH146-labeled PNs we counted in controls. While the PN neuroblast Gal4 we

used, 44F03, can label both lNB/BAlc and adNB/BAmv3 progeny (Awasaki et al., 2014), we

found that ventrolateral PNs were much more susceptible to expansion than anterodorsal PNs.

Supernumerary PNs innervated the antennal lobe, causing a massive expansion of antennal

lobe area (Figure 4A, C). The normal glomerular map in the AL appeared distorted, but glomer-

ular divisions were still present. These PNs also projected to the calyx, observed by thickening

of the PN axon tract crossing the calyx (red, Figure 4D), and increased the density of PN inner-

vation of the lateral horn (Figure 4D), though not lateral horn area (Figure 4-figure supplement

1). However, there was no change in calyx area or total bouton number in these animals com-

pared to wild type (Figure 4E-H). At a population level, the average number of boutons per PN

was half that in controls (Figure 4I).

To ask how small groups of PNs adjusted to PN expansion, we again used MZ19-QF, which la-

bels 15-20 PNs in controls (Figure 4J, K). We counted MZ19+ cells and boutons in control ver-

sus animals of the expansion genotype (Figure 4K). As the expansion was highly variable and

we rarely observed more than 25 MZ19+ cells in controls, we divided the expanded genotype

into hemispheres with <25 PNs or >=25 PNs. There was a modest but insignificant increase in

MZ19+ boutons in the >=25 PNs groups (Figure 4L), attributable to a strong and significant re-

duction of average number of boutons per PN (Figure 4M). Thus PNs scale down their individ-

ual bouton repertoire to compensate for increases in the size of the PN population. Like MZ19

PNs, the VM6 PN also maintained a stable number of total boutons as the PN population ex-

panded (Figure 4-figure supplement 1). This was possible because the VM6 cell(s) had similar

numbers of total boutons as the VM6 population expanded.

GH146 PNs ChAT

MZ19 PNs ChAT

Figure 4: Individual projection neurons scale boutons down as projection neuron population increases. (A) Maximum intensity projection of confocal stack of anterior of the brain of control or animal subjected to PN expansion by expression of *mud*-RNAi in PN neuroblasts via 44F03-Gal4. GH146 labels PNs (red) and ChAT staining highlights cholinergic neurons. (B, C) Relationship between PN number (measured by counting GH146+ cells, about 60% of the total PNs) and antennal lobe maximum cross-sectional area in control (grey) or PN neuroblast->mudRNAi hemispheres (red). Significance: unpaired t-test. Throughout this figure, black horizontal bars represent medians. (D) Maximum intensity projection of confocal stacks of the posteriors of the same brains shown in A. Excess PNs can be seen to project to the calyx, due to thickening of the axonal tract passing on top of the calyx (red), and produce increased innervation density in the lateral horn. (E-I) Relationship between PN number and maximum cross-

sectional area of the calyx (E, F), PN bouton number (G, H), and ratio of ChAT+-boutons to
GH146+ PNs (I) in control and PN neuroblast->mudRNAi brains. Significance: unpaired t-test.
(J) Maximum-intensity projections of confocal stacks of antennal lobes (top) and calyces (bot-
tom) of control and PN neuroblast->mudRNAi brains. MZ19+ PNs labeled red. Dashed outlines
on anterior show antennal lobe extent; solid outline on anterior, groups of PN somata; solid out-
lines on posterior, calyx extent. (K-M) Quantification of MZ19+ boutons in control and PN neuro-
blast->mudRNAi brains. Dashed vertical line indicates 25 MZ19+ PNs, as controls seldom ex-
ceed this number. Significance: one-way ANOVA. (N) Model of the effect of increasing PN num-
bers on calyx development. As PNs increase, PNs reduce bouton production so that the overall
number of boutons, and calyx size, stays similar to wild type.
455

Figure 4-figure supplement 1 (A, B) Relationship between lateral horn maximum cross-sec-
tional area and PN number in control (grey) and PN neuroblast->mudRNAi (red) brains. Signifi-
cance: unpaired t-test. Throughout this figure, black horizontal bars represent medians. (C-E)
Relationship between antennal lobe maximum cross-sectional area (proxy for PN number) and
production of calyx boutons by the VM6 PN, labeled by 71D09. Dashed line indicates 8500 μm^2,
as antennal lobes larger than this were observed rarely in the control genotype. Significance:
one-way ANOVA. In two experimental hemispheres, we observed no VM6 PN. In one hemi-
sphere, we observed one VM6 PN with no boutons in the calyx. (F) VM6 boutons in calyces of
brains containing different numbers of VM6 PNs. We observed more than one VM6 PN in 4/50
control and 9/50 PN neuroblast->mudRNAi hemispheres.
467

Projection neuron bouton expansion partially compensates for severe reductions in the

projection neuron population

In order to reduce the PN repertoire independent of KC number, we identified two Gal4 lines,

VT033006 and VT033008, that label large PN complements in the adult (Figure 5A). We drove

diphtheria toxin A (Berdnik et al., 2006) and fluorescent reporters under control of these lines in

animals where additional PNs were labeled by GH146-LexA (Figure 5B, G). In each case, DTA

eliminated all Gal4+ cells as well as additional GH146+ PNs, suggesting that these lines drive

DTA expression in broader PN populations at earlier stages of development. Driving DTA under

control of VT033008 reduced the total PNs labeled by VT033008 and/or GH146 by nearly half

(Figure 5C), while VT033006->DTA reduced PNs labeled by VT03006 and/or GH146 by >90%

(Figure 5H). PN labeling by VT033006 and VT033008, and cell loss when used to drive DTA,

were already evident in third instar larvae, suggesting PNs are lost well before pupal calyx wir-

ing (Figure 5-figure supplement 1). While PN dendrites have been shown to occupy glomerular

territories in pupal stages before OSNs innervate the antennal lobe (Jefferis et al., 2004), we

found that antennal lobes lacking the vast majority of uniglomerular PNs retained glomerular di-

visions. This suggests that PNs may not be required for the formation of glomerular divisions in

the adult antennal lobe.

We measured maximum calyx cross-sectional area and bouton number across these conditions

and found that in each case, the effect on the calyx was measurable but much less severe than

the reduction in PN number. For VT033008->DTA, loss of nearly half the PNs yielded no

change in calyx area and a 20% reduction in overall bouton number (Figure 5D-F). Remarkably,

while we estimate that only ~10 PNs remain in VT033006->DTA animals (~7% the normal com-

plement, Figure 5H), the number of boutons in the calyx was reduced by only half (Figure 5H,

L). This suggests that individual PNs could have expanded their bouton production by as much

as 6-fold. While remaining PNs sometimes appeared to make exuberant collections of boutons

(e.g. Figure 6D), distortion of the antennal lobes in these animals prevented us from assigning

identities to these spared PNs and comparing bouton numbers to matched individual PNs in

controls.

This severe loss of inputs could lead to KC death. We therefore labeled and counted KCs in

VT033006->DTA animals with severe PN loss. While we cannot rule out a small reduction in KC

complement, at least 80% of KCs survived in these brains. We also subjected control and

VT033006->DTA brains to flow cytometry and found that PN ablation brains had at least 85% as

many KCs as did control brains (Figure 5-figure supplement 2).

Figure 5: Projection neurons partially compensate for decreases in projection neuron population. (A) Maximum-intensity projections of two-photon stacks of brains with VT033006 (left) and VT033008 (right) driving GFP. (B) Maximum intensity projection of confocal stack of antennal lobes of control (left) and VT033008->DTA (right) brains. VT033008+ cells shown in green, GH146+ PNs, which partially overlap with VT033008+ PNs, shown in red. (C) Quantitation of PNs positive for GH146, VT033008, or both in control and VT033008->DTA brains. All VT033008+ cells are ablated in this genotype. Significance: unpaired t-test. Throughout this

figure, red horizonal bars represent medians. (D) Single confocal slice of control or VT033008-
>DTA calyx. Phalloidin signal shown in blue and ChAT+-boutons shown in red. (E, F) Quantifi-
cation of calyx maximum cross-sectional area and bouton number in control and VT033008-
>DTA animals. Significance: unpaired t-test. (G) Maximum intensity projection of confocal stack
of antennal lobes of control (left) and VT033006->DTA (right) brains. VT033006+ cells shown in
green, GH146+ PNs, which partially overlap with VT033006+ PNs, shown in red. Green signals
outside the antennal lobe in both conditions are autofluorescence. (H) Quantitation of PNs posi-
tive for GH146, VT033006, or both in control and VT033006->DTA brains. All VT033006+ cells
are ablated in this genotype as well as most GH146+ PNs, even those that are not VT033006+
in the adult. Examination of ChAT+ neurites entering the calyx in VT033006->DTA brains sug-
gests that up to 10 PNs may be labeled by neither VT033006 nor GH146, and that some of
these may survive ablation. Significance: unpaired t-test. (I) Single confocal slice of control (left)
or VT033006->DTA (right) calyx. KCs labeled using MB247-dsRed (shown green for continuity),
ChAT+ boutons shown in red. (J-L) Quantification of the number of MB247+ KCs (J), calyx area
(K), and ChAT+ boutons (L) in control or VT033006->DTA brains. Significance: unpaired t-test.

Figure 5-figure supplement 1. Maximum intensity projections of two photon stacks showing
expression of VT033008-Gal4 (A) and VT033006-Gal4 (B) in third instar wandering larvae. La-
beled cells are lost when these drivers are used to express DTA. The two samples in (A) were
imaged and displayed using the same settings as one another, and the two samples in (B) were
imaged and displayed using the same settings as one another. Red speckles in (B) are auto-
fluorescence; GH146 signal is weak but detectable in nuclei of VT033006+ PNs in control but is
lost in DTA samples. n=3-5 per genotype.

Control:
3,049/45,572 cells RFP⁺
7.2%

PN Ablation:
3,232/51,444 cells RFP⁺
6.3%

Figure 5-figure supplement 2. Number of KCs (MB247-dsRed, RFP+) detected in 3 pooled control or 3 pooled VT033006->DTA brains dissociated and subjected to flow cytometry. Plots depict cells already gated as singlets positive for a DNA dye, dyeCycle Violet. Representative of two experiments.

Projection neuron insufficiency has little effect on Kenyon cell claw number

We expected that while KC claw number was largely invariant in the face of increases and decreases of the KC population, KCs would be forced to reduce their claw number when PN bouton production was reduced by 50%, as in VT033006->DTA animals. We therefore compared individual KCs in these animals versus controls. As different KC types produce different numbers of claws in wild type, we sought to simplify the analysis by labeling only a single KC type. To do this, we targeted Texas red dextran dye electroporation to the tips of the mushroom body α lobes, which are innervated by $\alpha\beta$ KCs (Figure 6A). This allowed us to label 1-12 KCs per calyx. We could discern discrete dye-labeled claws and somata in animals with eight or fewer KCs labeled, and restricted our analyses to these samples (Figure 6B-D). For each hemisphere we counted labeled somata and claws, generating one average value, claws per labeled KC, per separable group of cells (Figure 6F). Surprisingly, despite 90% reduction in the number of PNs and 50% reduction in their boutons, we observed no reduction in claw number per KC.

Do these enduring claws receive inputs? While labeled KCs in VT033006->DTA brains sometimes made clear contacts with spared PNs, as in Figure 6D, E, in other samples we also observed KCs that avoided the one or few GH146-labeled, spared PNs (data not shown). Besides

PNs, GH146 labels an inhibitory neuron, APL, that innervates the mushroom body lobes and ca-

lyx. APL is presynaptic to KCs in the calyx, but innervates portions of KCs that are not claws

(Lin et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2018). Labeled KCs in VT033006->DTA brains still formed con-

tacts with APL (Figure 6C).

A recent study in the *Drosophila* larval body wall found that neurons manipulated to produce ex-

cess dendrites can obtain input from atypical presynaptic partners (Tenedini et al., 2019). In wild

type animals, 10% of bouton inputs to Kenyon cells in the main (olfactory) calyx are from gusta-

tory or thermal modalities (Caron et al., 2013; Eichler et al., 2017; Frank et al., 2015; Kirkhart

and Scott, 2015; Zheng et al., 2018). It is possible that thermal or gustatory neurons projecting

to the calyx could have also expanded their production of boutons to make up for the losses of

olfactory PNs. We cannot yet determine whether the excess KC claws observed in this condition

get inputs from PN boutons, from APL, or from some other source. Nevertheless, these data

suggest that KCs are inflexible in their production of claws, even in the face of severe reduction

of their typical, favored presynaptic partners.

Figure 6: Kenyon cell claw number is unaffected by projection neuron bouton reduction.
(A) Texas red dextran (colored green for continuity with green KCs in other figures) was electro-
porated into the tips of the mushroom body α lobes to allow specific targeting of αβ KCs. (B-D)
Maximum intensity projections of two photon stacks of control (B) and VT033006->DTA (C, D)
calyces. GH146, shown in red, labels PNs and APL. In control (B), APL is obscured by dense
PN signal. In some VT033006->DTA hemispheres, as in (C), all GH146+ PNs were ablated,
making APL signal apparent. In other VT033006->DTA hemispheres, as in (D), 1-2 GH146+
PNs remained. Texas red dextran dye diffusing from KC axons is shown in green. Diagrams
show reconstructed anatomies of dye-labeled KCs. In (B), one KC with 7 claws is labeled. In C,
three KCs with 4, 6, and 8 claws are labeled and can be spatially separated from one another.
In D, 8 KCs are labeled and cannot be reconstructed. White boxes in (B) and (D) show regions
magnified in (E). (E) Texas red dextran dye-labeled KC claws (green) wrapping GH146+ PN
boutons (red) in control (top) and VT033006->DTA brains. (F) Quantification of claws per KC in
control or VT033006->DTA samples. Each data point is the average number of claws per la-
beled KC for a spatially separated individual KC or small group of KCs. Significance: unpaired t-
test. Red horizontal bars represent medians. (G) Model of the effect on calyx development of
ablating large groups of PNs. Remaining PNs increase their production of boutons but cannot
fully compensate for lost PNs, reducing the size of the calyx. KC claw numbers are similar to
wild type; their source of innervation is unknown.

Developmental plasticity preserves sparse odor coding despite perturbations to cell populations

The disparate and numerous strategies we used above to vary the ratio between PNs and KCs all produced the same result, that PNs adjusted to changes in PN::KC ratio by altering their presynaptic boutons, while the distribution of KC claw numbers changed little even when perturbations to PNs were so severe as to prevent production of the normal bouton complement. This finding suggests that developmental mechanisms prioritize the sparseness of olfactory inputs to KCs, and might therefore preserve sparse odor coding and high-dimensional odor representations despite stark changes to the underlying circuit constituents. We therefore sought to ask how KC odor responses were affected by perturbations to the PN::KC ratio.

We used OK107 to drive GCaMP6s expression in all KCs, and subjected animals to HU just after larval hatching. We then imaged KC somatic odor responses *in vivo* in 24 adult HU-treated and 14 adult sham-treated animals. We observed robust odor responses in both conditions, with 8/28 sham-treated and 4/46 HU-treated calyces completely unresponsive. To identify HU-treated hemispheres with reduced KC complement, following functional imaging we imaged the anatomy of the calyx by two-photon or by immunostaining and confocal. Among ablated animals, we identified 14 of 46 imaged hemispheres in which calyces were clearly still present but of reduced size, which we designate as "reduced-KC" calyces. We subjected these datasets and 17 responsive controls to motion correction using Suite2p (Pachitariu et al., 2017). After motion correction, seven sham and seven reduced KC calyces were sufficiently still to allow us to define ROIs for individual somata. For each cell, we calculated peak change in fluorescence following odor stimulus (Figure 7-source data 1). Example responses for sham-treated and reduced-KC calyces are shown in Figure 7A, B, C, Figure 7-figure supplement 1, and in Figure 7-video 1, 2.

In order to compare response magnitudes across conditions, we first pooled all cells from each

condition and compared overall ∆f/f in response to each odor (Figure 7D). The distributions

were statistically indistinguishable between conditions for mineral oil (mechanosensory control),

ethyl acetate, and isobutyl acetate, and significantly different for benzaldehyde and methylcyclo-

hexanol. Using these aggregate responses, we set a threshold for "responsive" cells of 20% in-

crease in fluorescence over baseline, as we observed bifurcation of the cellwise response distri-

bution at this cutoff. Using these criteria, a median of ~50% of cells from sham calyces re-

sponded to ethyl acetate and isobutyl acetate, and ~20-30% of cells to benzaldehyde and

methylcyclohexanol (Figure 7E). These response rates are higher than has been reported with

GCaMP3 and GCaMP1 (Honegger et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2004), but correspond with spiking

response rates observed electrophysiologically (Murthy et al., 2008). We observed variation in

odor responses in both control and reduced-KC calyces; interindividual variation is expected

given the stochastic innervation of KCs by PNs.

We next compared the proportions of KCs per calyx responding to each odor between sham

and reduced-KC calyces. These distributions were statistically indistinguishable (Figure 7E). Fi-

nally, we asked how many odors each cell responded to (Figure 7F). In each condition, ~60% of

cells responded to 0 or 1 odors. Together, these findings suggest that the developmental plas-

ticity mechanisms operating to set the density of olfactory inputs to KCs preserve qualitatively

sparse KC odor responses when the KC population is experimentally reduced. Further experi-

ments will be required to assess quantitative effects of KC reduction on responses to odors that

typically stimulate fewer cells, like benzaldehyde and methylcyclohexanol.

Figure 7: Odor responses in calyces with reduced KCs. (A) Example KC somatic odor responses in sham-treated hemisphere and HU-treated hemisphere with reduced KCs. (B) Post-imaging immunostaining showing calyces and KC somata of samples shown in (A). (C) Peak post-odor responses of individual KCs from samples shown in (A). Only cells that remained stable in their ROI for the whole stimulus panel are shown. Data was clustered by row such that cells with more similar odor responses are closer to one another. MO: Mineral oil (mechanosensory control), EA: Ethyl Acetate, IBA: Isobutyl Acetate, BZH: Benzaldehyde, MCH:

649   Methylcyclohexanol. (D) Peak odor responses of all cells, aggregated from all analyzed sam-
650   ples. Dashed line indicates 20% Δf/f threshold. Significance: Mann-Whitney test. (E) Fraction of
651   cells in each sample responding to each odor at 20% Δf/f threshold. Significance: unpaired t-
652   test. (F) For samples in which the same cells could be tracked across all odor presentations,
653   fraction of cells responding to 0, 1, or multiple odors is shown. Bar plots in (E, F) show medians.
654

Figure 7-figure supplement 1 Odor responses over time for cells shown in Figure 7A-C. x axes show seconds, y axes Δf/f. Black bars indicate odor delivery. Each black line is one cell, with graphs at right showing responses averaged across all cells of the sample. Each cell was normalized to average fluorescence in the 3-second period before stimulus onset. MO: Mineral oil (mechanosensory control), BZH: Benzaldehyde, EA: Ethyl Acetate, IBA: Isobutyl Acetate, MCH: Methylcyclohexanol. An example of a motion artifact can be seen in "MCH sham," around 12 seconds.

Discussion

Cerebellum-like architectures are found repeatedly in phylogenetically distinct organisms, suggesting that they have broad evolutionary utility. Yet the developmental production of sparseness, a key wiring feature allowing high-dimensional sensory representations, is not understood. Here, we have begun to investigate the development of sparse connectivity in the cerebellum-like associative learning center of insects, the mushroom body. By varying the ratio between presynaptic olfactory PNs and postsynaptic KCs, we find that connectivity density is set by KCs: KC claw number changes little across a wide range of PN::KC ratios, KC number predicts PN bouton number, and PNs exhibit wide variety in bouton number to satisfy KC demands. As described below, we expect that this strategy for generating connectivity density would preserve sparseness in KC inputs across developmental time and upon evolutionary changes in cell repertoires and thus maintain the olfactory coding function of the mushroom body over a range of conditions.

Implications for development: Different projection neuron::Kenyon cell ratios across developmental stages

For many animals, brain development continues while juveniles are already living freely--searching for food, navigating, and learning about the environment. Developmental transitions in brain structure are particularly stark in holometabolous insects, who build the brain twice. In flies, neurons generated during embryonic and early larval stages wire the larval nervous system. These circuits support larval behaviors, while neural stem cells continue to generate additional neurons that will be used to build the adult circuit. In keeping with this, the ratio between

PNs and KCs in the larval olfactory circuit is starkly different from the adult: 21 embryonically-

born PNs wire to early-born KCs to construct the larval mushroom body (Eichler et al., 2017;

Masuda-Nakagawa et al., 2005; Ramaekers et al., 2005). Connections among these popula-

tions dissolve in early pupae, and are then re-wired during pupal development (Lee et al., 1999;

Marin et al., 2005), joined by ~100 more larvally-born PNs, and >1000 more KCs per hemi-

sphere that continue to be born until immediately before adult eclosion.

The 21 PNs in the early larva connect to 75 KCs, a 1:3 ratio, while in the adult, 150 PNs connect

to 2000 KCs, a 1:10 ratio. (Eichler et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2018). We found that unlike cells in

many other systems, including the vertebrate cerebellum, PNs and KCs did not rely on each

other for survival signals (Fan et al., 2001). This may be due to the constantly changing ratio be-

tween these cell types across developmental time. Instead, setting connectivity density cell-au-

tonomously in KCs could allow KCs to obtain the appropriate number of inputs at the different

life stages of the animal, when cellular constituents are very different from one another. Simi-

larly, while PN neurogenesis ceases well before PNs and KCs begin to contact one another in

the pupa, we estimate that ~10% of KCs are born after PN:KC synapsis has already initiated

(Muthukumar et al., 2014). Strict, cell-autonomous dendrite structuring and flexible PN bouton

production could together ensure that late-born KCs obtain the inputs appropriate to support

coding.

Implications for coding: Balancing projection neuron representations across the calyx

Olfactory PNs of different types are specified in a predictable temporal order, have characteristic

numbers of boutons, and overlap in their innervation of the calyx (Lai et al., 2008; Yu et al.,

2010; Zheng et al., 2018). Differences in bouton number across different PNs allow different

odor channels to be differentially represented in the calyx and in KC odor responses (Caron et

al., 2013; Honegger et al., 2011; Murthy et al., 2008). Several classes of PNs also differ in

number between the sexes (Grabe et al., 2016). While PNs changed their individual bouton rep-

ertoires in response to changes in cell repertoires, we found that to some extent, the represen-

tation level of different PNs in the calyx was preserved. For example, in Figure 2F and Figure 2-

figure supplement 2, we show the effect of reducing KC number on bouton production by the

VM6 PN and 42D01 PNs. While each population of PNs reduced individual bouton number in

this condition, they retained their typical relative representation. The VM6 PN reduced its bou-

tons from 10 to 5, while the 42D01 PNs decreased their boutons from 4 to 2. Similarly, in Figure

4, we expanded the PN population by inducing ectopic PN neuroblast duplication. In these ex-

periments, we mainly observed amplification of the ventrolateral clone. We found that individual

anterodorsal VM6 cells did not scale down their boutons when the ventrolateral PN clone ex-

panded, but only when VM6 itself was duplicated. Again, this could maintain the relative wild

type representations of different odor channels in the calyx. A recent analysis suggests that the

spontaneous activity of different ORs correlates with number of boutons representing that odor

channel in the calyx (Kennedy, 2019). One possible model for how PNs scale to KC numbers

while maintaining their relative representations in the calyx is thus that KC number limits total

bouton number across all PNs, while allocation of these boutons to individual PNs is determined

by activity-based competition among PN types.

Implications for coding: Maximizing dimensionality of odor representations

Qualitative aspects of sparse coding in the mushroom body appear robust to severe perturba-

tions to the circuit. Alternative developmental compensatory mechanisms would be much less

likely to preserve sparse coding. For example, we increased the ratio of PNs to KCs in two

ways, by increasing the number of PNs and by decreasing the number of KCs. In both cases,

PNs dialed down their bouton number, making 25-50% of the boutons they make in wild type.

This allowed the KCs to receive their typical number of inputs. If in contrast bouton number was

rigid and claw number flexible, in these cases KCs would have expanded their claw production

2-4 fold to innervate all the incoming PN boutons. Individual KCs with e.g. 20 instead of 5 claws

would receive input from ~40% of glomeruli, increasing the overlap in tuning across different

KCs and degrading the ability of the network to distinguish different stimuli from one another

(Litwin-Kumar et al., 2017).

In two other cases, we increased the ratio of KCs to PNs, by increasing the number of KCs and

by decreasing the number of PNs. Again, KCs retained their typical claw number. If instead PNs

had maintained a static production of boutons while KCs had adjusted their claw production,

KCs would receive very few inputs. While increasing the number of inputs per KC is theorized to

reduce dimensionality of odor responses by making different KCs more similar to one another,

decreasing the number of inputs per KC is theorized to reduce dimensionality by reducing the

number of different possible KC input combinations (Litwin-Kumar et al., 2017). That this sweet

spot maximizing dimensionality, ~5 inputs per cells, is programmed into KC identity testifies to

the evolutionary importance of maintaining connectivity density in associative brain centers that

rely on combinatorial coding.

Implications for evolution: The potential for mushroom body function despite perturba-

tions

The olfactory receptors are the largest insect gene family and have been subject to frequent and

extreme gains and losses in many clades. Similarly, brain centers devoted to learning are radi-

cally different across species, as exemplified by the diversity in KC repertoire across arthropods

(Strausfeld et al., 2009). In order to acquire a novel olfactory circuit, many different evolutionary

changes are required: A new receptor must evolve, an OSN type that uniquely expresses the

receptor needs to arise, that OSN needs to synapse onto PNs, and a new PN type and new

glomerulus must arise. For these events to accrue over time, each individual change must be

compatible with continued circuit function and olfactory behavior. While development of a

dedicated circuit that assigns an innate meaning to a newly-detectable odor would require many

further changes, the signal could add to fitness immediately through representation in the mush-

room body.

We have described two mechanisms of developmental robustness that maintain coherent

mushroom body wiring in the face of a broad range of phenotypic alterations. First, we observe

that olfactory PNs can adjust to gain and loss of PNs while maintaining the balance of odor

channel representations in the calyx. Plastic development of PN presynaptic sites that makes

room for additional players in the repertoire would allow immediate access of evolutionarily ex-

panded PNs to the calyx and the use of their signals for olfactory learning, thus making time for

the evolution of hardwired circuits for innate interpretations. Second, we show here that devel-

opmental programs wiring the calyx can accommodate variation in KC number from at least ¼

to 2-fold the endogenous complement. Again, this flexibility could support continued MB function

on the path to the evolution of mushroom body innovations. Future experiments will ask how KC

claw number is developmentally programmed, and what mechanisms operate in olfactory PNs

to allow them to tailor bouton production to the KC repertoire.

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the University of Michigan.

Competing Interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

Materials and Methods

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
gene (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	mud		FLYB: FBgn0002873	
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	GH146^{Gal4} (II)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 30026	(Stocker et al., 1997)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	10XUAS-IVS-myr::tdTomato (attp40)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BCSC 32222	(Pfeiffer et al., 2012)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	MB247-LexAVP16 (III)	Scott Waddell, University of Oxford		(Pitman et al., 2011)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	LexAop-CD2-GFP (III)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 66544	(Lai and Lee, 2006)
genetic reagent	GH146^{LexA} (II)	Tzumin Lee, Janelia Farms		(Lai et al., 2008)

(*Drosophila melano-gaster*)		Research Campus		
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	lexAop-mRFP-nls (II)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 29956	Gunter Merdes
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	58F02-Gal4 (attp2)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 39186	(Jenett et al., 2012)
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	UAS-GCaMP6s (attp40)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 42746	(Akerboom et al., 2012)
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	UAS-GCaMP6s (VK0005)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 42749	(Akerboom et al., 2012)
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	MB247-DsRed (II)	André Fiala		(Rie-mensperger et al., 2005)
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	71D09-Gal4 (attp2)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 39584	(Jenett et al., 2012)
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	UAS-CD8GFP (III)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 5130	(Lee and Luo, 1999)
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	42D01-Gal4 (attp2)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 50152	(Jenett et al., 2012)
genetic rea-gent (*Dro-sophila mel-anogaster*)	UAS-C3PA (II)	Vanessa Ruta, Rocke-feller Univer-sity		(Ruta et al., 2010)

genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	UAS-C3PA (III)	Vanessa Ruta, Rockefeller University		(Ruta et al., 2010)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	60A10-LexA (attp40)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 52821	Pfeiffer, Rubin LexA Collection
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	LexAop-tdTomato.Myr (su(Hw)attp5)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 56142	(Chen et al., 2014)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	89B01-Gal4 (attp2)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 40541	(Jenett et al., 2012)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	13XLexAop2-IVS-Syn21-mC3PA-GFP-p10 (attp2)	Gerry Rubin, Janelia Farms Research Campus		(Pfeiffer et al., 2012)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	GH146^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA (II)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 30037	(Potter et al., 2010)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	UAS-mud-RNAi (attp2)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 35044	(Perkins et al., 2015)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	OK107^{Gal4} (IV)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 854	(Connolly et al., 1996)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	P(caryP) (attp2)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 36303	(Perkins et al., 2015)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	P(caryP) (attp40)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 36304	(Perkins et al., 2015)

genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	MZ19^{QF} (II)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 41573	(Hong et al., 2012)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA (II)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 30004	(Potter et al., 2010)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	41C07-LexA (attp40)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 54791	Pfeiffer, Rubin LexA Collection
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	89B01-LexA (attp40)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 54380	Pfeiffer, Rubin LexA Collection
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	71D09-LexA (attp40)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 54931	Pfeiffer, Rubin LexA Collection
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA (II)	n/a		(Clowney et al., 2015)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	44F03-Gal4 (attp2)	Tzumin Lee, Janelia Farms Research Campus		(Awasaki et al., 2014)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	VT033006-Gal4 (attp2)	Yoshi Aso, Janelia Farms Research Campus		(Kvon et al., 2014)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	VT033008-Gal4 (attp2)	Yoshi Aso, Janelia Farms Research Campus		(Kvon et al., 2014)
genetic reagent (*Drosophila melanogaster*)	UAS-DTA (UAS-Cbbeta\DT-A.I)[18] (II)	Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center	BDSC 25039	(Han et al., 2000)

antibody	ChAT (mouse mono-clonal)	Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank	9E10	(1:200)
antibody	DsRed (rabbit poly-clonal)	Clontech	632496	(1:500-1:1000)
antibody	GFP (sheep poly-clonal)	Bio-Rad	4745-1051	(1:250-1:1000)
antibody	GFP (chicken poly-clonal)	Gift from Dawen Cai	n/a	(1:5000)
antibody	Alexa 488 anti-mouse (goat poly-clonal)	Fisher	A11029	(1:500)
antibody	Alexa 647 anti-mouse (goat poly-clonal)	Fisher	A21236	(1:500)
antibody	Alexa 488 anti-sheep (donkey pol-yclonal)	Fisher	A11015	(1:500)
antibody	Alexa 488 anti-chicken (goat poly-clonal)	Fisher	A11039	(1:500)
antibody	Alexa 568 anti-rab-bit (goat polyclonal)	Fisher	A11036	(1:500)
chemical compound, drug	Texas Red Dextran	Fisher	D3328	

chemical compound, drug	Alexa 568 Phalloidin	Fisher	A12380	
chemical compound, drug	Schneider's medium	Sigma	S0146	
chemical compound, drug	Paraformaldehyde	EMS	15710	
chemical compound, drug	Hydroxyurea	Sigma	H8627	
chemical compound, drug	Benzaldehyde	Sigma	418099	
chemical compound, drug	Isobutyl acetate	Sigma	537470	
chemical compound, drug	Ethyl acetate	Sigma	270989	
chemical compound, drug	Methylcyclohexanol	Sigma		
peptide, recombinant protein	Collagenase	Sigma		
software, algorithm	Suite2p	(Pachitariu et al., 2017)		
other	Duck EZ Start Packaging tape	Office Depot	511879	
other	UV Glue	Loctite	3106	
other	JAXMAN 365nm Flashlight	Amazon	B077GPXBK1	

other	Electra Waxer	Almore	66000	
other	Gulfwax Paraffin	Grocery store	C0130	
other	hair	self		

798
799 *Flies:* Flies were maintained on cornmeal-molasses ("R") food (Lab Express, Ann Arbor, MI) in a
800 humidified incubator at 25C on a 12:12 light:dark cycle.
801
802 Alleles and Sources:
803

Allele	Source	Reference
GH146^{Gal4} (II)	BL 30026	(Stocker et al., 1997)
10XUAS-IVS-myr::tdTomato (attp40)	BL 32222	(Pfeiffer et al., 2012)
MB247-LexAVP16 (III)	Scott Waddell, University of Oxford	(Pitman et al., 2011)
LexAop-CD2-GFP (III)	BL 66544	(Lai and Lee, 2006)
GH146^{LexA} (II)	Tzumin Lee, Janelia Farms Research Campus	(Lai et al., 2008)
lexAop-mRFP-nls (II)	BL 29956	Gunter Merdes
58F02-Gal4 (attp2)	BL 39186	(Jenett et al., 2012)
UAS-GCaMP6s (attp40)	BL 42746	(Akerboom et al., 2012)
UAS-GCaMP6s (VK0005)	BL 42749	(Akerboom et al., 2012)
MB247-DsRed (II)	André Fiala	(Riemensperger et al., 2005)
71D09-Gal4 (attp2)	BL 39584	(Jenett et al., 2012)
UAS-CD8GFP (III)	BL 5130	(Lee and Luo, 1999)
42D01-Gal4 (attp2)	BL 50152	(Jenett et al., 2012)
UAS-C3PA (II)	Vanessa Ruta, Rockefeller University	(Ruta et al., 2010)
UAS-C3PA (III)	Vanessa Ruta, Rockefeller University	(Ruta et al., 2010)
60A10-LexA (attp40)	BL 52821	Pfeiffer, Rubin LexA Collection
LexAop-tdTomato.Myr (su(Hw)attp5)	BL 56142	(Chen et al., 2014)
89B01-Gal4 (attp2)	BL 40541	(Jenett et al., 2012)
13XLexAop2-IVS-Syn21-mC3PA-GFP-p10 (attp2)	Gerry Rubin, Janelia Farms Research Campus	(Pfeiffer et al., 2012)
GH146^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA (II)	BL30037	(Potter et al., 2010)
UAS-mud-RNAi (attp2)	BL35044	(Perkins et al., 2015)
OK107^{Gal4} (IV)	BL 854	(Connolly et al., 1996)
P(caryP) (attp2)	BL36303	(Perkins et al., 2015)
P(caryP) (attp40)	BL36304	(Perkins et al., 2015)
MZ19^{QF} (II)	BL41573	(Hong et al., 2012)

QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA (II)	BL 30004	(Potter et al., 2010)
41C07-LexA (attp40)	BL 54791	Pfeiffer, Rubin LexA Collection
89B01-LexA (attp40)	BL 54380	Pfeiffer, Rubin LexA Collection
71D09-LexA (attp40)	BL 54931	Pfeiffer, Rubin LexA Collection
LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA (II)	n/a	(Clowney et al., 2015)
44F03-Gal4 (attp2)	Tzumin Lee, Janelia Farms Research Campus	(Awasaki et al., 2014)
VT033006-Gal4 (attp2)	Yoshi Aso, Janelia Farms Research Campus	(Kvon et al., 2014)
VT033008-Gal4 (attp2)	Yoshi Aso, Janelia Farms Research Campus	(Kvon et al., 2014)
UAS-DTA (UAS-Cbbeta\DT-A.I)[18] (II)	BL 25039	(Han et al., 2000)

804
805
806   Genotypes were as follows:
807

Figure 1, Figure 1-figure supplement 1	GH146^{Gal4}, 10XUAS-IVS-myr::tdTomato/CyO; MB247-lexA, lexAop-CD2-GFP/TM2
Figure 1-figure supplement 2	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls / P(caryP)attp40; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure 2A-E	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls/CyO; 58F02-Gal4, UAS-GCaMP6s/TM2
Figure 2F-H	MB247-DsRed/CyO; 71D09-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/"
Figure 2I	60A10-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr/CyO; 58F02-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"
Figure 2J, K	GH146^{Gal4}, 10XUAS-IVS-myr::tdTomato /CyO; MB247-lexA, 13XLexAop2-IVS-Syn21-mC3PA-GFP-p10/"
	60A10-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /CyO; 58F02-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"
Figure 2-figure supplement 1	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls/CyO; 58F02-Gal4, UAS-GCaMP6s/TM2
Figure 2-figure supplement 2	MB247-DsRed/CyO; 42D01-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"
Figure 2-figure supplement 3A, B	GH146^{Gal4}, 10XUAS-IVS-myr::tdTomato /CyO; MB247-lexA, 13XLexAop2-IVS-Syn21-mC3PA-GFP-p10/"
Figure 2-figure supplement 3C, D	GH146^{Gal4}, 10XUAS-IVS-myr::tdTomato /CyO; MB247-lexA, 13XLexAop2-IVS-Syn21-mC3PA-GFP-p10/"
	60A10-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /CyO; 89B01-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"

Figure 3A-C	GH146^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA /+; UAS-CD8GFP/UAS-mud-RNAi; OK107^{Gal4}/+
	GH146^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA /+; UAS-CD8GFP/ P(caryP)attp2; OK107^{Gal4}/+

Figure 3D-G	MZ19^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA /BI; UAS-mud-RNAi/TM2 or TM6B; OK107^{Gal4}/+
	MZ19^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA /BI; P(caryP)attp2/TM2 or TM6B; OK107/+
Figure 3H	71D09-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /BI; UAS-mud-RNAi/TM2; OK107 ^{Gal4}/+
	71D09-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /BI; P(caryP)attp2/TM2; OK107 ^{Gal4}/+
Figure 3I	UAS-C3PA/+; UAS-C3PA/ UAS-mud-RNAi; OK107^{Gal4}/+
	UAS-C3PA/+; UAS-C3PA/ P(caryP)attp2; OK107^{Gal4}/+
Figure 3J, K	UAS-C3PA/+; UAS-C3PA/ UAS-mud-RNAi; OK107^{Gal4}/+
	UAS-C3PA/+; UAS-C3PA/ P(caryP)attp2; OK107^{Gal4}/+
	UAS-C3PA/41C07-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr; UAS-C3PA/ UAS-mud-RNAi; OK107^{Gal4}/+
	UAS-C3PA/41C07-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr; UAS-C3PA/ P(caryP)attp2; OK107 ^{Gal4}/+
	UAS-C3PA/89B01-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr; UAS-C3PA/ UAS-mud-RNAi; OK107 ^{Gal4}/+
	UAS-C3PA/89B01-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr; UAS-C3PA/ P(caryP)attp2; OK107 ^{Gal4}/+
Figure 3-figure supplement 1	41C07-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /UAS-C3PA; UAS-mud-RNAi 35044/UAS-C3PA; OK107 ^{Gal4}/+
	41C07-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /UAS-C3PA; P(caryP)attp2/UAS-C3PA; OK107 ^{Gal4}/+
Figure 4A-I	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ UAS-mud-RNAi
	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ P(caryP)attp2
Figure 4J-M	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /MZ19^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA; 44F03-Gal4/ UAS-mud-RNAi
	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /MZ19^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA; 44F03-Gal4/ P(caryP)attp2
	MZ19^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ UAS-mud-RNAi
	MZ19^{QF}, QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ P(caryP)attp2
Figure 4-figure supplement 1A, B	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ UAS-mud-RNAi
	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ P(caryP)attp2
Figure 4-figure supplement 1D-F	71D09-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /+; 44F03-Gal4/ UAS-mud-RNAi
	71D09-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /+; 44F03-Gal4 P(caryP)attp2
Figure 5A	CyO/+; VT033006-Gal4/UAS-CD8GFP
	CyO/+; VT033008-Gal4/UAS-CD8GFP
Figure 5B, C	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls /UAS-DTA; VT033008-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls / P(caryP)attp40; VT033008-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure 5D-F	UAS-DTA/+; VT033008-Gal4/TM6B

	UAS-DTA/+; P(caryP)attp2/TM6B

Figure 5G, H	GH146^LexA, lexAop-mRFP-nls / UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	GH146^LexA, lexAop-mRFP-nls / P(caryP)attp40; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure 5I-L	MB247-DsRed/ UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	MB247-DsRed/+; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure 5-figure supplement 1A	GH146^LexA, lexAop-mRFP-nls /UAS-DTA; VT033008-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	GH146^LexA, lexAop-mRFP-nls / CyO; VT033008-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure 5-figure supplement 1B	GH146^LexA, lexAop-mRFP-nls / UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	GH146^LexA, lexAop-mRFP-nls / CyO; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure 5-figure supplement 2	MB247-DsRed/ UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	MB247-DsRed/+; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure 6	GH146^LexA, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA / UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4/+
	GH146^LexA, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA / P(caryP)attp40; VT033006-Gal4/+
Figure 7, Figure 7-figure supplement 1, Figure 7-video 1, 2	UAS-GCaMP6s/UAS-GCaMP6s; UAS-GCaMP6s/UAS-GCaMP6s; OK107^Gal4/ OK107^Gal4 or +

810
HU ablation: Protocol was adapted from Sweeney et al (Sweeney et al., 2012). Briefly, we set
up large populations of flies in cages two days prior to ablation and placed a 35 or 60mm grape
juice agar plate (Lab Express, Ann Arbor, MI) in the cage with a dollop of goopy yeast. One day
prior to the ablation, we replaced the grape juice/yeast plate with a new grape juice/yeast plate.
On the morning of the ablation, we removed the plate from the cage one hour after lights-on and
discarded the yeast puck and any hatched larvae on the agar. We then monitored the plate for
up to four hours, until many larvae had hatched. Larvae were washed off the plate using a su-
crose solution, and eggs were discarded. Larvae were then strained in coffee filters, and sub-
merged in hydroxyurea (Sigma, H8627) in a yeast:AHL mixture, or sham mixture without HU.
Ablation conditions were as follows:
821
822 Figure 1: 10mg/mL or 5mg/mL, 4 hours
823 Figure 2A-E: 10mg/mL, 1 hour
824 Figure 2F-K, Figure 2-figure supplement 2, 3: 10mg/mL, 1 hour; 3 or 5 mg/mL, 4 hours
825 Figure 7, Figure 7-figure supplement 1: 10mg/mL, 1 hour
826
827 Larvae were then strained through coffee filters again, rinsed, and placed in a vial or bottle of R
828 food until eclosion. We opened a new container of hydroxyurea each month as it degrades in
829 contact with moisture and we found its potency gradually declined. We typically analyzed 5-10
830 animals (10-20 hemispheres) of each condition per batch, except in *in vivo* imaging experi-
831 ments, where we analyzed 1-5 animals per condition per batch.
832
Applying HU for four hours produced a somewhat U-shaped distribution, with many samples un-
affected and many with all four KC neuroblasts lost. Shifting from 3, to 5, to 10 mg over this long

time scale shifted how many brains were completely ablated versus unaffected, but did little to
increase the proportion of brains with intermediate phenotypes. Applying the stronger concen-
tration, 10mg, for a shorter time produced more sporadic effects, with more brains showing 1, 2,
or 3 KC neuroblasts remaining. INB/BAlc was more affected by HU concentration than time of
application, with stronger effects seen applying 10mg/mL for one hour than applying 3 or
5mg/mL for four hours. Overall, combining these different protocols allowed us to observe a
broad range of mushroom body states.
842
Immunostainings: Brains were dissected for up to 20 minutes in external saline (108 mM NaCl,
5 mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl2, 8.2 mM MgCl2, 4 mM NaHCO3, 1 mM NaH2PO4, 5 mM trehalose, 10
mM sucrose, 5 mM HEPES pH7.5, osmolarity adjusted to 265 mOsm), before being transferred
to 1% paraformaldehyde in PBS, on ice. All steps were performed in cell strainer baskets (caps
of FACS tubes) in 24 well plates, with the brains in the baskets lifted from well to well to change
solutions. Brains were fixed overnight at 4C in 1% PFA in PBS. On day 2, brains were washed
3x10' in PBS supplemented with 0.1% triton-x-100 on a shaker at room temperature, blocked 1
hour in PBS, 0.1% triton, 4% Normal Goat Serum, and then incubated for at least two over-
nights in primary antibody solution, diluted in PBS, 0.1% triton, 4% Normal Goat Serum. Primary
antibody was washed 3x10' in PBS supplemented with 0.1% triton-x-100 on a shaker at room
temperature, then brains were incubated in secondary antibodies for at least two overnights, di-
luted in PBS, 0.1% triton, 4% Normal Goat Serum. When used, Alexa 568-conjugated phalloidin
(1:80) and/or DAPI (1 microgram/mL) were included in secondary antibody mixes. Primary anti-
bodies used were mouse anti-ChAT 9E10 (DSHB, 1:200), Rabbit anti-dsRed (Clontech, 1:500-
1:1000), Sheep anti-GFP (Bio-Rad, 4745-1051, 1:250-1:1000), Chicken anti-GFP (1:5000, gift
from Dawen Cai). Secondary antibodies were Alexa 488, 568, and 647 conjugates (1:500, Invi-
trogen).
860
Brains were mounted in 1x PBS, 90% glycerol supplemented with propyl gallate in binder rein-
forcement stickers sandwiched between two coverslips. Samples were stored at 4C in the dark
prior to imaging. The coverslip sandwiches were taped to slides, allowing us to perform confocal
imaging on one side of the brain and then flip over the sandwich to allow a clear view of the
other side of the brain. This allowed us to score features on the anterior and posterior sides of
each sample. Scanning confocal stacks were collected along the anterior-posterior axis on a
Zeiss 880 or Leica SP8 with 1 micrometer spacing in Z and ~200nm axial resolution.
868
Statistical considerations: Determination of sample size: Brains were prepared for imaging in
batches of 5-10. In initial batches, we assessed the variability of the manipulation, e.g. if we
were trying to change Kenyon cell number, we looked at how variable the size of the Kenyon
cell population was following the manipulation. We used this variability to determine how many
batches to analyze so as to obtain enough informative samples. To avoid introducing statistical
bias, we did not analyze the effect of the manipulation on the other cell type until after complet-
ing all batches; e.g. if the manipulation was intended to alter Kenyon cell numbers, we did not
assess projection neuron bouton phenotypes until completing all samples. Genotypes or condi-
tions being compared with one another were always prepared for staining together and imaged
interspersed with one another to equalize batch effects, and we used at least two batches for
each type of experiment.
880
881   Criteria for exclusion, treatment of outliers: In Figures 1-6, we only excluded from analysis sam-
882   ples with overt physical damage to the cells or structures being measured. In figures and anal-
883   yses we treated outliers the same way as other data points. For Figure 7, full criteria for inclu-
884   sion and exclusion of each sample are shown under *Analysis of KC somatic odor responses*,
885   below.

886
Use of statistical tests: Recent discussions among experts have suggested that biological stud-
ies over-rely on statistical tests, report ρ values when statistical differences are self-evident, and
emphasize statistical significance rather than effect size (Goedhart, 2018a, 2018b; Ho et al.,
2019). These choices can cloud findings instead of clarifying them. In order to communicate our
findings in the simplest and most complete way, we have displayed each data point for each
sample to allow readers to assess effect size and significance directly.
Image analysis: In general, we analyzed mixed-sex populations, where sex ratios were carefully
balanced across experimental conditions. Because MZ19 labels the sexually dimorphic DA1
PNs, in MZ19 experiments we analyzed the two sexes independently in pilot experiments. As
we observed no correlation with sex (not shown), in subsequent MZ19 experiments we used
mixed sexes.
898
Researchers performing quantification could not generally be blinded to experimental condition
due to the overt changes in neuron numbers and brain structures induced by our manipulations.
However, analysis was performed blind to the goals of the experiment when possible, and quan-
titation of features on the anterior and posterior sides of the brain were recorded independent of
one another and merged after all quantifications were completed. Moreover, many of our anal-
yses make use of variation within an experimental condition or genotype, providing an additional
bulwark against observational bias.
906
907 To measure neuropil structures such as the mushroom body calyx, lateral horn, or antennal
908 lobe, we used markers such as ChAT and phalloidin to visualize the structure, identified its larg-
909 est extent in Z (i.e. along the A-P axis), outlined it in FIJI (as in white outlines in Figure F1B) and
910 then calculated the cross-sectional area using the "Measure" command.
911
To analyze calyx volumes we used ImageJ. Briefly, we drew Regions of Interest (ROIs) around
the MB247 (Figure 1) or OK107 (Figure 3) calyx signal for each slice. Other imaging channels
displaying projection neurons and nc82 staining were used as a reference. The drawn ROIs for
each slice were saved using the ROI manager plugin and the area of each ROI in a stack was
measured using the Measure tool. The measured areas were added together and then multi-
plied by the Z-spacing between slices (1 micron) to get the volume of the combined ROI through
the stack. The 3D viewer plugin was used to make movies of the kenyon cell and calyx vol-
umes. To produce 3D Movies of the calyx volumes without somata, areas outside the selected
ROIs were cleared and then the 3D viewer plugin was used to display only the 3D ROI volume
that was measured for the volume analysis. To facilitate comparison in 3D movies, stacks in a
set were all given the same depth in Z by adding blank slices at the end of the stack when nec-
essary.
924
To count aggregate boutons, we used ChAT signal with reference to phalloidin (which stains ac-
tin-rich structures, including KC dendrites), except in Figure 1 and Figure 3A, where we counted
GH146-positive boutons. We counted as separate structures ChAT signals that were compact
and appeared discontinuous with one another and that were 2+ micrometers in diameter (Figure
1-figure supplement 2). When phalloidin signal or KC fluorescence was available, two boutons
would be counted separately if ChAT signals were separated by phalloidin signal or KC signal.
In initial analyses, we found that boutons in slice 0 often appeared in slices -1 and +1 as well,
but never in slices -2 or +2. In order to avoid counting the same boutons more than once, we
therefore began counting at the most anterior slice in the stack where boutons were visible, and
counted every other slice, i.e. every second micron. To count boutons of small groups of PNs,
we drove fluorescent reporters under control of 42D01, 71D09, or MZ19 and counted coherent
and compact fluorescent signals, with reference to ChAT signals and to phalloidin, when

available. As GH146 labels ~2/3 of PNs, our counts of 450-650 total GH146+ boutons in Figures
1 and 3, which would correspond to 675-975 total boutons per calyx, correspond with estimates
established by EM (578 boutons) and light microscopy (768 total boutons, 5 boutons per PN)
(Leiss et al., 2009; Turner et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2018).
941
To count cell populations, we used genetically-encoded fluorescence as indicated. We counted
labeled somata in every third slice in the stack (every third micron along the A-P axis), with ref-
erence to DAPI to distinguish individual cells from one another. As we did for boutons, in analyz-
ing somata we initially determined that somata in slice 0 could also be seen in slices -2, -1, +1,
and +2 but not in slice -3 or +3. To avoid double-counting, we therefore counted every third mi-
cron.
948
To count KC claws, we scanned image stacks for cup-shaped terminal structures of the appro-
priate size (1-2μm in diameter). We sometimes labeled small groups of KCs. We scored inde-
pendently any single KC or small group of KCs that could be visually separated from one an-
other (like the 3 cells shown in Figure 6C). For Figure 2 and Figure 2-figure supplement 3, we
did not score any cells which we could not separate from one another because we did not want
to mix counts for KCs of different types. For Figure 3I, where we did not attempt to separate
KCs of different types, and Figure 6F, where our dye labeling strategy was specific to αβ KCs,
we present an average claw/KC data point for small groups of 2-4 cells whose dendritic struc-
tures were interwoven. Finally, in Figure 3I, we found that in calyces with expanded KC popula-
tions, KC axons sometimes could not enter the pedunculus and instead wandered around at the
base of the calyx. As CNS neurons in *D. mel* are unipolar, these wandering axons could be diffi-
cult to distinguish from dendritic claws. To determine whether these wandering axons should be
counted as claws, we stained a subset of photoactivated brains with anti-ChAT (not shown), to
determine which labeled KC neurites were in the bouton region of the calyx, and should thus be
scored for claws, and which were "lost" axons. Though photoactivated GFP signals were only
poorly preserved following staining, relating ChAT-stained images to images of the same brain
by two photon allowed us to learn to identify the bouton region of the calyx in subsequent exper-
iments due to its "swiss cheese" appearance, where the presence of PN boutons produces
holes in KC fluorescence.
968
To determine KC and PN neuroblast state--PN lNB/BAlc: Whenever possible, we included
GH146 or 60A10 driving a fluorescent report in our animals and scored the presence or ab-
sence of a group of somata lateral to the antennal lobe on the anterior side of the brain for each
analyzed hemisphere. KC neuroblasts: In Figures 2A-C, we used 58F02 to fluorescently label
late-born KCs and counted clumps of labeled somata surrounding the calyx as well as groups of
labeled neurites leaving the calyx and entering the pedunculus. These estimates usually
matched; in the few cases where they did not, we used the number of axon clumps, as somata
are closer to the surface of the brain and more susceptible to mechanical disruption during dis-
section. As seen in Figure 2B, 58F02 labels additional neurons; these were easy to discriminate
from KCs as they did not enter the calyx or pedunculus.
979
For Figures 2J, K and Figure 2-figure supplement 3C, D, we combined data from two different
types of experiments. In some experiments, we expressed PA-GFP in all KCs using MB247. We
traced the axons of labeled KCs into the lobes to assign KC type (Figure 2-figure supplement 3).
In a second group of experiments, we used 58F02-Gal4 to express PA-GFP exclusively in αβ
core KCs (Figure 2I), or 89B01 Gal4 to express PA-GFP only in γ KCs and thus knew KC type a
priori. 89B01 also labels γ d KCs, which can be distinguished from olfactory γ KCs as they do
not innervate the main calyx. We do not include γd KCs in our analysis,

GFP photoactivation and Texas red dextran dye labeling were performed as previously de-
scribed (Clowney et al., 2015; Ruta et al., 2010), using a Bruker Investigator microscope and
Spectra-Physics MaiTai laser with DeepSee module. Dye filling electrodes were pulled using a
Brown/Flaming puller (Sutter Instruments) and were guided to the mushroom body alpha lobes
using visible light illumination and/or two photon autofluorescence.

Identification of driver lines for relevant cell populations: To identify Gal4 and/or LexA lines la-
beling PN populations, we screened the Janelia FlyLight collection online database and then
crossed lines with potential to fluorescent reporters. While 42D01 (~10PNs) and 60A10 (60
PNs) were the most useful PN lines for us here, we also identified other lines, 33C10 and
37H08, that each label small groups of PNs and may be of use to others. To identify Gal4 lines
labeling individual KC types, we screened expression of "regular" FlyLight Gal4 constructs made
using the same regulatory fragments incorporated in KC-type-specific split Gal4s (Aso et al.,
2014). We found 58F02 useful for labeling α/β core KCs, 89B01 for γ KCs (labels both γmain
and γd), and 41C07 for α'/β' KCs. 89B01 and 58F02 LexA did not recapitulate Gal4 expression
patterns driven by the same fragments.

Flow Cytometry: Brains were dissected in Schneider's medium (Sigma S0146) supplemented
with 1% BSA and placed on ice. After all dissections were completed, collagenase (Sigma
C0130) was added to a final concentration of 2mg/mL and samples were incubated at 37C for
20 minutes. Samples were dissociated by trituration and spun down at 300g, 4C, for 5 minutes.
Collagenase solution was removed and replaced with PBS+0.1% BSA supplemented with
1:1000 DyeCycle Violet. Cells were incubated with dye for 30 minutes on ice and passed
through a cell strainer cap, before being subjected to flow cytometry on an Attune Flow Cytome-
ter. Forward scatter and side scatter measurements were used to gate single cells, and DyeCy-
cle Violet signal was used to gate cell bodies from membrane debris.

In vivo functional imaging: We prepared 2-7 day old adult flies subjected to HU or sham treat-
ment just after larval hatching for *in vivo* two photon calcium imaging on a Bruker Investigator
essentially as described previously (Ruta et al., 2010), affixing the fly to packaging tape (Duck
EZ Start) with human hair and UV glue (Loctite 3106). The fly was tilted to allow optical access
to KC somata, at the dorsal posterior surface of the brain. In some experiments, we waxed the
proboscis in an extended position to reduce motion. Imaging was performed in external saline.
For odor delivery, half of a 1200mL/min airstream, or 600mL/min, was directed toward the an-
tennae through a Pasteur pipette mounted on a micromanipulator. At a trigger, 25% of the total
air stream was re-directed from a 10mL glass vial containing mineral oil to a vial containing
odorants diluted 1:10 in mineral oil. Final odor dilution was therefore 1:40. Filter paper "wicks"
were inserted into each vial to allow odor to saturate the vial headspace. Odors were delivered
for two seconds, with 30-60 seconds in between stimulations. We used a simplified olfactometer
capable of delivering five different odorants in which overall airflow was metered by analogue
flowmeters (Brooks Instruments) and valve switching controlled by an Arduino. Odor delivery
was initially optimized using a mini-PID placed in the half of the air stream not directed at the fly
(Aurora Biosciences). Images were collected at 1.5-5 Hertz, and we imaged a single plane for
each sample.

Analysis of KC somatic odor responses: We collected data from a total of 14 sham-treated
animals (28 hemispheres imaged) and 24 HU-treated animals (46 hemispheres imaged). The
two hemispheres were imaged separately. Occasionally, only one hemisphere was imaged due
to the preparation and a few hemispheres were excluded from analysis because of poor image
quality. Mineral oil was delivered first, and then each of four odors was delivered twice, in

1038 sequence. Following mineral oil, odor order varied. Because experiments in locust found that
1039 the first presentation of certain odors can cause distinct KC responses to all subsequent
1040 presentations of that same odor, we analyzed the second presentation of each odor, according
1041 to convention (Murthy et al., 2008; Stopfer and Laurent, 1999). We also observed that in some
1042 animals, enduring increases in fluorescence followed the first presentation of isobutyl acetate.
1043
1044 Following functional imaging, we either collected a Z-stack of the mushroom body on the two-
1045 photon, or dissected out the brain and subjected it to immunostaining and confocal imaging.
1046 We used these images to categorize the extent of KC reduction. All samples are accounted for
1047 here:
1048

	Total hem	Poor image	Damaged/ not respon-sive	un-known	Full ablation	can't tell if ablated	Doesn't look ablated	Too much motion	analyzed
Sham	28	2	8	1	N/A	N/A	N/A	10	7: 4 fem, 3 male
HU	46		4	0	13	5	10	7	7: 4 male, 3 fem

1049
We excluded 11 hemispheres from the control dataset due to damage or poor image quality.
We also excluded 34 hemispheres from the ablation dataset because of any of the following: the
samples were fully ablated, unaffected by ablation, ablation status was ambiguous, or the
mushroom body calyx appeared damaged. The remaining samples were motion-corrected using
Suite2p (Pachitariu et al., 2017). Using FIJI, we blinded ourselves to the remaining datasets and
excluded datasets if there was too much motion to be able to follow the same cell over time.
After this gate, there were 7 sham and 7 reduced-KC hemispheres for the analysis. ROIs were
chosen in each of the fourteen samples and we measured Df/f (i.e. (f-f0)/f0), comparing stimulus
frames with pre-stimulus frames. ROIs were manually chosen and we were careful about
ensuring that the cell remained within its ROI for all frames. For two of the ablated samples, we
had to choose different ROIs for two of the odor deliveries due to motion. These samples were
only used to calculate the proportion of cells that were responsive to each odor, and not in
calculating the number of odors each cell responded to. The baseline was determined for each
odor delivery by taking the average of the frames that were three seconds before the trigger.
The stimulus frame was determined by taking the peak response between 0–4.5 s after stimulus
onset, to account for the valve opening and the two second odor delivery. To define
"responsive" cells, we chose to use the same cutoff, Df/f >0.2 (20% increase in fluorescence
over baseline) across samples. This was in order to avoid obscuring overall differences in
responsiveness across ablated and sham-treated calyces. For visualization, we used the Pretty
Heatmap package in R to cluster cells with similar odor responses and display them.
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Legends for videos:

Figure 1-video 1: Volume renderings of mushroom bodies shown in Figure 1B, using the Ken-

yon cell (GFP) signal. The video cycles through calyces in the order shown in the Figure (1305

KCs, 964 KCs, 679 KCs, 279 KCs, 97 KCs), showing first the full GFP signal (somata, calyx,

lobes), and then the isolated calyx of that sample. Red bounding boxes contain the same vol-

ume throughout, though the rendering program re-scales certain samples to fill the frame.

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1365 **Figure 3-video 1:** Volume renderings of mushroom bodies shown in Figure 3A, using the Ken-

1366 yon cell (GFP) signal. The video shows the mud-RNAi mushroom body first (3951 KCs), and

1367 then the control mushroom body (1227 KCs). For each sample, the full mushroom body is

1368 shown first, and then the isolated calyx. Red bounding boxes contain the same volume through-

1369 out.

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Figure 7-video 1, 2: Full, motion-corrected functional imaging time series for one sham-treated

(video 1) and one HU-treated, reduced-KC calyx (video 2). Data was collected at 5 Hz, and

each series extends over the five minute presentation of four odors and mineral oil control.

These are different samples than the ones shown in Figure 7A-C and Figure 7-figure supple-

ment 1. The intermittently very bright cell in video 2 does not show any correlation with odor

presentation and may be damaged.

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