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 regions receive combinatorial sensory inputs. Developmental wiring programs can produce innervation densities that vary by several orders of magnitude, such that cortical pyramidal cells receive on the order of 1000 inputs, while principle neurons of cerebellum-like structures receive <10 inputs. These innervation patterns are theorized to determine the number of distinct stimuli that can be represented and distinguished from one another in sensory processing regions, with sparse, combinatorial (or "distributed") 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 developmental patterning of sensory inputs to principle neurons of the *Drosophila melanogaster* mushroom body, a cerebellum-like structure required for olfactory learning. Individual mushroom body Kenyon cells receive only 3-10 of the 50 available olfactory projection neuron inputs through large, claw-like dendritic structures. By manipulating the ratio between pre- and post-synaptic cells, we find that convergence ratio is set by postsynaptic Kenyon cells: Kenyon cells produce largely fixed distributions of dendritic claws while presynaptic projection neurons exhibit extensive plasticity in their repertoire of presynaptic processes. Moreover, we show that sparse odor responses are preserved in mushroom bodies with severe reductions in cellular repertoires, suggesting that developmental specification of convergence ratio allows functional robustness.

Introduction: The environmental stimuli animals encounter on a day-to-day basis are extraordinarily 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 families, 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 mushroom body is a cerebellum-like associative learning structure with a well-understood role in

representing 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; Chabrol et al., 2015; Eichler et al.,

2017; Honegger et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2013; Ishikawa et al., 2015; 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 synapses, 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 anti-

bodies 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. Neu-

rons of many other expansion layers receive similarly few, or sparse, sensory inputs. These in-

clude 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 the peripheral nervous system, including the rabbit ciliary

ganglion, vertebrate neuromuscular junction, and *Drosophila* larval body wall, postsynaptic cells

are thought to set wiring complexity cell-autonomously (Corty et al., 2016; Gibbins et al., 2003;

Hume and Purves, 1983, 1981; Jan and Jan, 2010; Purves and Hume, 1981; Turney and Licht-

man, 2012). In contrast, in the developing cortex, extracellular signals including BDNF play a

strong role in influencing dendritic complexity, suggesting that presynaptic cells and glial also

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

Therefore, while mechanisms acting in both pre- and post-synaptic cells *can* influence innerva-

tion 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). In

the early '90s, researchers found that while most neuroblasts pause their divisions for the first 8

hours after hatching, 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 Heisen-

berg, 1994). In these animals, 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 neuro-

blasts, called lNB/BAlc and adNB/BAmv3 . Besides the KC neuroblasts, lNB/BAlc is the only

other neuroblast in the fly central nervous system dividing from 0-8h ALH and is thus also sus-

ceptible 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 10 states for each mushroom body:

KCs could be derived from 0-4 neuroblasts, and PNs from 1-2 neuroblasts. Using our reporters,

we scored the presence or absence of PNs derived from lNB/BAlc (ventrolateral to the adult an-

tennal lobe) and counted the number of KCs (Figure 1C). In practice, some of the 10 states did

not occur and some were overrepresented (Figure S2A). Hemispheres from the same brain did

not generally show the same neuroblast state as one another, but were often similar in severity

of neuroblast losses (Figure S2B).

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 embryo hatching. We con-

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

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

KCs remained (Figure 1B). These represent the KC population that is born prior to larval hatch-

ing, and which is thus unaffected by KC neuroblast ablation after hatching. Recently, these earli-

est-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 molecu-

larly 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 prefer-

ences 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 (Figure 1B, C). To ask if this corresponded to a decline in

bouton number, we counted the number of PN boutons in each hemisphere (Figure 1E). This

revealed a roughly linear relationship between KC number and PN bouton number, suggesting

that PNs reduce their population of boutons to match the KC population. The lateral horn ap-

peared normal in these animals and its size did not correlate with KC number, suggesting that

PN projections to these two brain areas develop independent of one another (Figure 1B, D).

The presence or absence of ventrolateral PNs did not obviously predict bouton number, sug-

gesting 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. However, 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 complements. To test this, we developed alternative meth-

ods 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 synapse 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. Dashed ovals indicate the extent of the MB calyx in each sample. (C, D) Relationship between number of KCs and maximum calyx (C) or lateral horn (D) cross-sectional area in HU treated (blue, red dots) and sham treated (grey dots) MBs. Treated samples are separated by presence (red) or absence (blue) of lNB/BAlc progeny. Here and throughout, each dot is one hemisphere. (E) Relationship between KC number and GH146+ bouton number in brains of HU and sham-treated animals.

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 lNB/BAlc did not predict calyx size (Figure 2C). KC loss could reduce PN bouton number if PNs die or fail to be born when lacking KC contacts 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 anterodorsal PNs

was not reduced in animals with some or all KC neuroblasts ablated, and the number of ven-

trolateral PNs was binary rather than graded, suggesting that vlPN number is determined 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.

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 size and between KC clone number and calyx size (Figure 1C, 2C), we used ca-

lyx size to infer KC neuroblast status (see methods and Figure S2G). While VM6 usually pro-

duces ~10 boutons, we found only ~5 boutons in animals with KCs derived from 1-2 neuro-

blasts, and 0-1 bouton in animals with all KC neuroblasts ablated (Figure 2F). These results

suggest that individual PNs do reduce their bouton production as the KC complement is re-

duced, 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 number). To charac-

terize additional PNs, we expressed photoactivatable GFP under control of R42D01-Gal4, which

labels ~10 anterodorsal PNs innervating the VM3 and VM4 glomeruli. We photoconverted indi-

vidual somata using two photon microscopy. Though bouton counts were somewhat more varia-

ble than for VM6 as this strategy labels different types of PNs with different characteristic bouton

numbers, we again found a correlation between KC neuroblast number and bouton number

(Figure 2G).

The linear 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; we therefore analyzed KC types separately. For both $\alpha\beta$ and γ KCs, we

found no change in claw number on individual KCs as the KC population was reduced (Figure

2H, I). 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 unaffected by the size of

the KC population (model, Figure 2J).

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. (C-E) Relationship between KC clone number and maximum calyx cross-sectional area (C), and number of anterodorsal (D) and ventrolateral (E) PNs. (F) Example images and diagrams (left) and quantification (right) of MB calyx boutons on the VM6 PN, labeled by 71D09 (red). KCs labeled by MB247 (green). Examples show two hemispheres of the same brain of a HU treated animal, with the extent of the calyx shown in grey. Neuroblast bin was determined by calyx size, as described in the methods. Significance, unpaired t-tests of each HU treated KC neuroblast bin to sham corrected for multiple comparisons. Comparisons not indicated are not significant. Here and throughout, horizontal bars reflect medians; *: $\rho<0.05$, **:

$\rho<0.01$, ***: $\rho<0.001$, ****: $\rho<0.0001$. (G) Quantitation as described in (F) of single PNs within
the 42D01-Gal4 expression pattern highlighted by GFP photoactivation. (H, I) GFP photoactiva-
tion of individual KCs in HU treated or sham brains. Example and diagrams in (H) show two
hemispheres of the same HU treated brain of an animal with PNs labeled by 60A10 and $\alpha\beta$
"core" KCs by 58F02. lNB/BAlc status was recorded and is shown in Figure S2C-F. (J) 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.
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Figure S2: Supplemental data related to Figure 2. (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. (C-F) Disaggregated data for KC claw quantification shown in Figure 2I. In S2C, D, MB247 was used to drive PA-GFP expression in all KCs, KC type was defined by tracing axonal projections, and KC neuroblast status was inferred from calyx size. In E, F KCs of a single type were labeled with PA-GFP, and KC neuroblast status was inferred directly from KC labeling patterns. Samples in which INB/BAlc was not present are circled in blue. (G) Calculation for inferring KC neuroblast number from calyx size based on the linear relationship observed in Figures 1C, 2C. Calyx size for true 0-neuroblast and 4-neuroblast samples were experimentally measured and expected calyx size bins for calyces derived from 1-3 KC neuroblasts were computationally interpolated between them.

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 supernumary populations of neurons can integrate into a variety of fruit fly neural circuits (Pop et al., 2019; Prieto-Godino et al., 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 KC neuroblasts, we drove UAS-*mud*-RNAi (BL 35044) in KC neuroblasts using OK107-Gal4 (Liu et al., 2015). 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 ChAT immunoreactivity to count PN bouton number, which doubled in mushroom bodies with the largest KC expansions (Figure 3B). 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 observed no change in VM6 or MZ19+ cell numbers in brains with KCs expansions, 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 S3A). 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 the brains with the larg-

est KC expansions, MZ19+ boutons doubled (Figure 3C-D).

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 $\alpha'\beta'$ KCs, and targeted

these specifically for photoactivation (Figure S3B). In these KCs of matched type, we found no

change in KC claw number per cell, though we cannot rule out subtle differences. 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 in-

crease, 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 ex-
pression of *mud*-RNAi in KC neuroblasts via OK107-Gal4. GH146 labels PNs (red) and OK107
labels KCs (green). (B) Relationship between number of KCs and maximum calyx cross-sec-
tional area (left) and PN bouton number (right) in control (grey) and KC neuroblast->mud-RNAi
hemispheres (red). (C) Maximum intensity projection of confocal stack of calyx bouton produc-
tion by ~16 MZ19+ PNs (red) in control and KC neuroblast->mud-RNAi. ChAT immunostaining
(blue) highlights calyx extent. (D) Quantification of MZ19 cells in the two genotypes. Signifi-
cance: unpaired t-test. (E) Relationship between maximum calyx cross-sectional area (a proxy
for KC number) and MZ19 bouton production. Vertical dashed line indicates 2000 μm^2, as caly-
ces larger than this were observed only in the experimental genotype. Significance: one-way

ANOVA. (F) Maximum intensity projection of two-photon stack of single KCs highlighted by GFP photoactivation (C3PA driven by OK107) in control or KC neuroblast->mudRNAi calyces. Position of out-of-plane somata in control image indicated by white circle. (G) Quantification of claws of KCs labeled as in (F). Y axis is average number of claws per KC as multiple KCs were photoactivated in some samples. Significance: unpaired t-test. (H) 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 S3. Supplemental data related to Figure 4. (A) Boutons of the VM6 PN 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. (B) KC claw number in PA-GFP-labeled α'β' KCs in control or KC-expansion genotype. Significance: unpaired t-test.

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 neuroblasts. This strategy produced PN complements of up to 600 cells, as compared to 150 cells in the control. 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.

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

area (Figure 4A, B). The normal glomerular map in the AL appeared distorted, but glomerular

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

PN axon tract entering and crossing the calyx, and increased the density of PN innervation of

the lateral horn (Figure 4C), though not lateral horn area (Figure S4A). However, there was no

change in calyx area or total bouton number in these animals compared to wild type (Figure 4D,

E). At a population level, the average number of boutons per PN was half that in controls (Fig-

ure 4F).

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 4G, H). We counted MZ19+ cells and boutons in control ver-

sus animals of the expansion genotype (Figure 4H). 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 4H), attributable to a strong and significant re-

duction of average number of boutons per PN (Figure 4H). Thus PNs scale down their individual

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 expanded

(Figure S4A). 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 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) 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. (C) 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 entering and crossing the calyx, and produce increased innervation density in the lateral horn. (D-F) Relationship between PN number and maximum cross-sectional area of the calyx (D), PN bouton number (E), and ratio of ChAT+-

boutons to GH146+ PNs (F) in control and PN neuroblast->mudRNAi brains. Significance: un-
paired t-test. (G) Maximum-intensity projections of confocal stacks of antennal lobes (top) and
calyces (bottom) 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 outlines on posterior, calyx extent. (H) Quantification of MZ19+ boutons in control
and PN neuroblast->mudRNAi brains. Dashed horizontal line indicated 25 MZ19+ PNs, as con-
trols seldom exceed this number. Significance: one-way ANOVA. (I) Model of the effect of in-
creasing PN numbers 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.
422

Figure S4: Supplemental data related to Figure 4. (A) Relationship between lateral horn maximum cross-sectional area and PN number in control (grey) and PN neuroblast->mudRNAi (red) brains. Significance: unpaired t-test. (B) 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,

430 we observed no VM6 PN. In one hemisphere, we observed one VM6 PN with no boutons in the
431 calyx. (C) VM6 boutons in calyces of brains containing different numbers of VM6 PNs. We ob-
432 served more than one VM6 PN in 4/50 control and 9/50 PN neuroblast->mudRNAi hemi-
433 spheres.
434

Projection neurons 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, F). 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 5G). 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 divisions. This sug-

gests that PNs may not be required for the formation of glomerular divisions in the adult anten-

nal lobe.

We measured calyx size 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 size and a

20% reduction in overall bouton number (Figure 5D, E). Remarkably, while we estimate that

only ~10 PNs remain in VT033006->DTA animals (~5% the normal complement), the number of

boutons in the calyx was reduced by only half (Figure 5H, J). 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 6C), 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 S5).

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) Quantita-
tion 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. (D) Single confocal
slice of control or VT033008->DTA calyx. Phalloidin signal shown in blue and ChAT+-boutons
shown in red. (E) Quantification of calyx maximum cross-sectional area and bouton number in
control and VT033008->DTA animals. Significance: unpaired t-test. (F) Maximum intensity pro-
jection 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. (G) Quantitation of PNs positive 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 suggests that up to 10 PNs may be labeled by nei-
ther VT033006 nor GH146, and that some of these may survive ablation. Significance: unpaired
t-test. (H) Single confocal slice of control (left) or VT033006->DTA (right) calyx. KCs labeled
green using MB247, ChAT+ boutons shown in red. (I) Quantification of the number of MB247+
KCs in control or VT033006->DTA brains. Significance: unpaired t-test. (J) Quantification of ca-
lyx area and ChAT+ boutons in control or VT033006->DTA brains. Significance: unpaired t-test.
490

492 **Figure S5: Data related to Figure 5.** Number of KCs (MB247-dsRed, RFP+) detected in 3
493 pooled control or 3 pooled VT033006->DTA brains dissociated and subjected to flow cytometry.
494 Plots depict cells already gated as singlets positive for a DNA dye, dyeCycle Violet. Representa-
495 tive of two experiments.
496

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 de-

creases of the KC population, KCs would be forced to reduce their claw number when PN bou-

ton 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 num-

bers 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 αβ KCs (Figure 6A). This allowed us to label 1-12 KCs per ca-

lyx. 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 6 B-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 some-

times made clear contacts with spared PNs, as in Figure 6C, E, in other samples we also ob-

served 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 6D). Alternatively or in addition, 10% of bouton inputs to the main (olfac-

tory) calyx are from gustatory or thermal modalities (Caron et al., 2013; Eichler et al., 2017;

Kirkhart and Scott, 2015; Zheng et al., 2018). While the neurons bringing this information to the

calyx have not been identified, they too could have 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 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 recon-
structed 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 labeled KC for a
spatially separated individual KC or small group of KCs. Significance: unpaired t-test. (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 pop-

ulations

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 pre-

synaptic boutons, while the distribution of KC claw numbers changed little even when perturba-

tions 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 representa-

tions 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 GCaMP expression in all KCs, and subjected animals to HU just after

larval hatching. We then imaged KC somatic odor responses *in vivo* in adult HU or sham-treated

animals. Among ablated animals, we identified 3 of 22 hemispheres in which calyces were

clearly still present but of reduced size. While we do not attempt to draw fine quantitative com-

parisons between reduced-KC and sham-treated animals given the small sample size, we were

able to make qualitative assessments of odor responses in these animals.

We found that KCs in reduced calyces responded to odor. In three HU reduced calyces and

sham controls, we identified individual KC somata (22-102 cells/sample) and quantified change

in fluorescence to each of four odor stimuli, and in most cases to a mineral oil control (Figure

7A, Figure S7). We then set a threshold of 20% increase in fluorescence upon odor stimulation

to quantify how many cells responded to each odor; this threshold captured odor-linked re-

sponses but not motion-induced shifts in cells across ROI boundaries. Depending on the odor,

5-40% of cells passed this threshold in both control and reduced-KC calyces (Figure 7C, D). 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, and the amount of varia-

tion we observe is similar to previous reports (Honegger et al., 2011). Importantly, responsive-

ness ranges to each individual odor were similar between sham-treated and reduced-KC caly-

ces. Finally, we asked how many cells in each sample responded to multiple odors (Figure 7E).

In each sample, ~75% of cells responded to 0 or 1 odors, and the proportion of cells responding

to multiple odors was similar across conditions. Together, these findings suggest that the devel-

opmental plasticity mechanisms operating to set the density of olfactory inputs to KCs preserve

qualitatively sparse KC odor responses when the KC population is experimentally reduced.

Figure 7: Odor responses in calyces with reduced KCs. (A) Example KC somatic odor re-
sponses in sham-treated hemisphere and hemisphere with reduced KCs. (B) Post-imaging im-
munostaining showing calyces and KC somata of samples shown in (A). (C) Individual odor re-
sponses of each KC shown in (A). Data was clustered by row such that cells with more similar
odor responses are closer to one another. MO: Mineral oil (mechanosensory control), BZH:
Benzaldehyde, EA: Ethyl Acetate, IBA: Isobutyl Acetate, MCH: Methylcyclohexanol. (D) Propor-
tion of cells in each sample with 20% or greater increase in fluorescence intensity in response to

listed odor. (E) Fraction of cells in each sample responding to 0, 1, or multiple odors. Examples
shown in (A-C) are Animals 2 and 6.

Figure S7: Supplemental data related to Figure 7. Full odor response data for each sample
analyzed in Figure 7. Animals 2 and 6 are copied from Figure 7. Each row is one cell, each col-
umn is one odor. MO: Mineral oil (mechanosensory control), BZH: Benzaldehyde, EA: Ethyl Ac-
etate, IBA: Isobutyl Acetate, MCH: Methylcyclohexanol.

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 interrogate 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 the olfactory circuit, 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 populations 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

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

The ratio between PNs and KCs in the larval circuit is therefore starkly different from that of the

adult, with 21 PNs and 75 KCs forming connections in early larvae versus 150 PNs and 2000

KCs for the adult, a 1:3 ratio in the larva versus a 1:10 ratio in the adult (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 between these cell types across developmental

time. Instead, setting connectivity density cell-autonomously in KCs could allow KCs to obtain

the appropriate number of inputs at the different life stages of the animal, when cellular constitu-

ents are very different from one another. Similarly, 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 synapse 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 num-

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

toires in response to changes in cell repertoires, we found that to some extent, the representa-

tion level of different PNs in the calyx was preserved. For example, in Figure 2F and G, 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 boutons 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 experiments, we mainly ob-

served amplification of the ventrolateral clone. We found that individual anterodorsal VM6 cells

did not scale down their boutons when the ventrolateral PN clone expanded, but only when VM6

itself was duplicated. Again, this could maintain the relative wild type representations of different

odor channels in the calyx.

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 dedi-

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

ther 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 expanded 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 developmental 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.

Author Contributions: JAR, NAE, and EJC performed experiments and analyzed data. EJC wrote the manuscript with contributions from all authors.

Acknowledgements

We thank the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center, Yoshi Aso, and Tzumin Lee for providing fly strains; Vanessa Ruta for intellectual and material support during the early phases of this project; Isaac Levine, Shiloh Boosamra, Noella Holmer, Joseph Carter, and James Harrison for technical assistance; Shyama Nandakumar for help with flow cytometry experiments; Swathi Yadlapalli, Yoshi Aso, Ashok Litwin-Kumar, Laura Buttitta, and members of the Cheng-Yu Lee lab for experimental advice and discussion; and Cathy Collins, Monica Dus, Rich Hume, Vanessa Ruta, and members of the E.J.C lab for comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by the Simons Fellowship of the Helen Hay Whitney Foundation to E.J.C. E.J.C. is the Rita Allen Foundation Milton Cassell Scholar and is supported by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation Award, and by a Neuroscience Scholar Award and start-up funds from the University of Michigan.

728 **Methods**

730 *Flies:* Flies were maintained on cornmeal-molasses ("R") food (Lab Express, Ann Arbor, MI) in a

731 humidified incubator at 25C on a 12:12 light:dark cycle.

733 Alleles and Sources:

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)

736 Genotypes were as follows:

Figure 1	GH146[Gal4], 10XUAS-IVS-myr::tdTomato/CyO; MB247-lexA, lexAop-CD2-GFP/TM2
Figure 2A-E	GH146[LexA], lexAop-mRFP-nls/CyO; 58F02-Gal4, UAS-GCaMP6s/TM2
Figure 2F	MB247-DsRed/CyO; 71D09-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/"
Figure 2G	MB247-DsRed/CyO; 42D01-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"
Figure 2H	60A10-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr/CyO; 58F02-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"
Figure 2I	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/"
	60A10-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /CyO; 89B01-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"
Figure S2A, B	GH146[LexA], lexAop-mRFP-nls /CyO; 58F02-Gal4, UAS-GCaMP6s/TM2
Figure S2C, D	GH146[Gal4], 10XUAS-IVS-myr::tdTomato /CyO; MB247-lexA, 13XLexAop2-IVS-Syn21-mC3PA-GFP-p10/"
Figure S2E	60A10-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /CyO; 58F02-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"
Figure S2F	60A10-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /CyO; 89B01-Gal4, UAS-C3PA/"
Figure 3A, B	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 3C-E	MZ19[QF], QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA /Bl; UAS-mud-RNAi/TM2 or TM6B; OK107[Gal4]/+
	MZ19[QF], QUAS-mtdTomato-3xHA /Bl; P(caryP)attp2/TM2 or TM6B; OK107/+
Figure3F, G	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 S3A	71D09-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /Bl; UAS-mud-RNAi/TM2; OK107 [Gal4]/+
	71D09-LexA, LexAop-tdTomato.Myr /Bl; P(caryP)attp2/TM2; OK107 [Gal4]/+
Figure S3B	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-F	GH146[LexA], LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ UAS-mud-RNAi
	GH146[LexA], LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ P(caryP)attp2
Figure 4G, H	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 S4A	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ UAS-mud-RNAi
	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA /+; 44F03-Gal4/ P(caryP)attp2
Figure S4B, C	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
Figure5B, C	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls /UAS-DTA; VT033008-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls / P(caryP)attp40; VT033008-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure5D, E	UAS-DTA/+; VT033008-Gal4/TM6B
	UAS-DTA/+; P(caryP)attp2/TM6B
Figure5F, G	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls / UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	GH146^{LexA}, lexAop-mRFP-nls / P(caryP)attp40; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure5H-J	MB247-DsRed/ UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	MB247-DsRed/+; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure S5	MB247-DsRed/ UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
	MB247-DsRed/+; VT033006-Gal4, UAS-CD8GFP/+
Figure6	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA / UAS-DTA; VT033006-Gal4/+
	GH146^{LexA}, LexAop-SPA-T2A-SPA / P(caryP)attp40; VT033006-Gal4/+
Figure 7, S7	UAS-GCaMP6s/UAS-GCaMP6s; UAS-GCaMP6s/UAS-GCaMP6s; OK107^{Gal4}/ OK107^{Gal4} or +

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

submerged in hydroxyurea in a yeast:AHL mixture, or sham mixture without HU. Ablation condi-

tions were as follows:

Figure 1: 10mg/mL or 5mg/mL, 4 hours

Figure 2A-G: 10mg/mL, 1 hour

Figure 2H, I: 10mg/mL, 1 hour; 3 or 5 mg/mL, 4 hours

Figure 7: 10mg/mL, 1 hour

Larvae were then strained through coffee filters again, rinsed, and placed in a vial or bottle of R

food until eclosion. We opened a new container of hydroxyurea each month as it degrades in

contact with moisture and we found its potency gradually declined. We typically analyzed 5-10

animals (10-20 hemispheres) of each condition per batch, except in *in vivo* imaging experi-

ments, where we analyzed 1-3 animals per condition per batch.

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. lNB/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.

Immunostainings: Brains were dissected for up to 20 minutes in external saline (108 mM NaCl,

5 mM KCl, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 8.2 mM $MgCl_2$, 4 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1 mM NaH_2PO_4, 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, 1:1000),

Sheep anti-GFP (Bio-Rad, 4745-1051, 1:1000), Chicken anti-GFP (1:5000, gift from Dawen

Cai). Secondary antibodies were Alexa 488, 568, and 647 conjugates (1:500, Invitrogen).

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 on a Zeiss 710 or Leica SP8 at 40x

magnification, with ~150nm x 150nm pixels and 1 micrometer spacing in Z.

Genotypes or conditions being compared with one another were always prepared for staining

together and imaged interspersed with one another to equalize batch effects.

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.

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.

To measure neuropil structures such as the mushroom body calyx, lateral horn, or antennal

lobe, we used markers such as ChAT and phalloidin to visualize the structure, identified its larg-

est extent in Z, outlined it in FIJI, and then calculated the cross-sectional area using the "Meas-

ure" command.

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, where we counted GH146-posi-

tive boutons. We counted as separate structures ChAT signals that were compact and ap-

peared discontinuous with one another and that were ~1-2 micrometers in diameter. When phal-

loidin signal or KC fluorescence was available, two boutons would be counted separately if

ChAT signals were separated by phalloidin signal or KC signal. We began counting at the first

slice in the stack where boutons were visible, and counted every other slice. 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. Our bouton counts (~1000/calyx) correspond with other quantifica-

tions performed by light microscopy, but differ from the <600 boutons/calyx recently identified by

EM (Leiss et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2018).

To count cell populations, we used genetically-encoded fluorescence as indicated. We counted

labeled somata in every third slice in the stack, with reference to DAPI to distinguish individual

cells from one another.

To count KC claws, we scanned image stacks for cup-shaped terminal structures of the appro-

priate size (1-2μm in diameter). In Figures 2I, 3G, and 6F, we sometimes labeled small groups

of KCs. We scored independently any single KC or small group of KCs that could be visually

separated from one another (like the 3 cells shown in Figure 6C). For Figure 2I, 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 3G, where we did not attempt to separate KCs of

different types, and Figure 6F, where our dye labeling strategy was specific to $\alpha\beta$ KCs, we pre-

sent an average claw/KC data point for small groups of 2-4 cells whose dendritic structures

were interwoven. Finally, in Figure 3G, we found that in calyces with expanded KC populations,

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 difficult 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.

To determine KC and PN neuroblast state--PN INB/BAlc: In Figure 1 and Figure 2A-C, we in-

cluded GH146 driving a fluorescent report in our animals and scored the presence or absence

of a group of somata lateral to the antennal lobe on the anterior side of the brain for each ana-

lyzed hemisphere. For Figure 2 F-G, including such a marker was incompatible with the geno-

types used to label small PN groups and we were thus blind to, and do not report, INB/BAlc sta-

tus. Based on the typical sample distributions we observed (Figure S2), we assume that some

brains of each status were among the samples analyzed in Figure 2 F-G. For Figure 2H-I, we

scored INB/BAlc status using either 60A10 LexA or GH146 Gal4 to label PNs lateral to the an-

tennal lobe. For clarity, we do not report INB/BAlc status in Figures 2H, but include this infor-

mation in Figure S2. 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. In Figure 2F, G, because we found a linear relationships between KC number and calyx

size, and between KC neuroblast number and calyx size, we used calyx size to infer KC neuro-

blast state. To do so, we calculated the average calyx area for HU treated samples that lacked

vertical lobes as the "0 KC neuroblast" condition, and sham-treated calyces as the "4 KC neuro-

blast" condition. We then divided this range evenly into bins for 1, 2, and 3 neuroblasts as

shown in Figure S2G.

For Figures 2H, I we combined data from two different types of experiments. In some experi-

ments, we expressed PA-GFP in all KCs using MB247. We traced the axons of labeled KCs into

the lobes to assign KC type. For these samples, we inferred KC neuroblast state by measuring

calyx size, as above. While we do not report data points for $\alpha\beta$ or γ KCs in 0-KC-neuroblast

brains, since no $\alpha\beta$ or γ KCs are born in this case, we used signal derived from remaining γd

KCs to measure calyx area in these samples. In a second group of experiments, we used

58F02-Gal4 to express PA-GFP exclusively in $\alpha\beta$ core KCs, or 89B01 Gal4 to express PA-GFP

only in γ KCs. In 58F02-labeled brains, we counted KC neuroblasts as above. In 89B01 brains,

we counted how many "holes" there were in the labeled cloud of KC somata to define KC neuro-

blast number (89B01 labels early- but not late-born KCs, the inverse of 58F02). Because the

number of informative hemispheres using each of these approaches was low (i.e. most HU

treated brains had 0 or 4 KC neuroblasts left), to make the graphs in Figure 2I, we combined the

results of these two approaches. Points from each approach are disaggregated in Figure S2

and no trends toward increased KC claw number in brains with few KCs were observed using

either of the individual approaches.

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. At the time we did this screen, only 89B01 and 41C07 were

available as LexA lines; 89B01 LexA did not recapitulate 89B01 Gal4 expression.

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 female flies subjected to HU or sham

treatment just after larval hatching for *in vivo* two photon calcium on a Bruker Investigator es-

sentially as described previously (Ruta et al., 2010), with the fly tilted to allow optical access to

KC somata, at the dorsal posterior surface of the brain. Imaging was performed in external sa-

line. For odor delivery, half of a 1200mL/min airstream, or 600mL/min, was directed toward the

antennae through a Pasteur pipette mounted on a micromanipulator. At a trigger, 25% of the to-

tal 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 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 (Aurora Biosciences). Images were collected at 1.5-3

Hertz. We imaged eight sham-treated and 11 HU treated animals. Complete data was collected

for 12 and 19 hemispheres, respectively, due to lack of odor responses or clear physical dam-

age in a subset of samples. Importantly, the proportion of samples that were not odor respon-

sive was not higher among ablated animals than among controls, consistent with the non-re-

sponsive samples being due to preparation failure. For each HU treatment batch and sham con-

trol, we imaged animals from both conditions.

Analysis of KC somatic odor responses: Time series for each sample were motion-corrected us-

ing Suite2p (Pachitariu et al., 2017), and an ROI for each cell manually defined in FIJI. Sufficient

stability to identify the same cell across a stimulation series was difficult to achieve given that

KC somata are densely packed and only 2μm in diameter, and that animals were robustly active

during imaging; samples in which ROIs were not spatially stable over different stimulations were

not analyzed further. Among HU treated samples, we could clearly delineate between samples

lacking all olfactory KCs (lacking vertical lobes), samples with strong reduction in KCs, and sam-

ples with calyces similar to sham controls. Though we recovered brains for immunostaining and

cell counting after functional imaging (as shown in example in Figure 7), damage to the brain

during post-imaging surgery prevented us from making finer distinctions among calyx types. We

therefore analyzed three brains with intermediate KC losses as one treatment group. The three

sham-treated animals analyzed were those that were sufficiently still to allow analysis.

For each ROI in each of six samples, we measured $\Delta f/f$ (i.e. $(f-f_0)/f_0$), comparing stimulus frames

with pre-stimulus frames. To define "responsive" cells, we chose to use the same cutoff, $\Delta f/f$

>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. Us-

ing this method, the proportion of cells responding to each odor were generally greater, in both

control and treatment conditions, than what has been described previously (Honegger et al.,

2011). Differences are thus likely due to differences in GCaMP variant (GCaMP6s versus

GCaMP3), odor concentration (1:40 versus 1:100 dilution), and thresholding method ($\Delta f/f$ cutoff

common to all samples versus determined by standard deviation from baseline within each

sample). The overall level of variation we observe across control samples is similar to what has

been reported previously (Honegger et al., 2011). For visualization, we used the Pretty Heatmap

package in R to cluster cells with similar odor responses and display them.

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