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From behavior to circuit modeling of light-seeking navigation in zebrafish larvae

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12 Abstract

- ¹³ Bridging brain-scale circuit dynamics and organism-scale behavior is a central challenge in
- ¹⁴ neuroscience. It requires the concurrent development of minimal behavioral and neural circuit
- ¹⁵ models that can quantitatively capture basic sensorimotor operations. Here we focus on
- ¹⁶ light-seeking navigation in zebrafish larvae. Using a virtual reality assay, we first characterize how
- 17 motor and visual stimulation sequences govern the selection of discrete swim-bout events that
- ¹⁸ subserve the fish navigation in the presence of a distant light source. These mechanisms are
- ¹⁹ combined into a comprehensive Markov-chain model of navigation that quantitatively predict the
- ²⁰ stationary distribution of the fish's body orientation under any given illumination profile. We then
- ²¹ map this behavioral description onto a neuronal model of the ARTR, a small neural circuit involved
- ²² in the orientation-selection of swim bouts. We demonstrate that this visually-biased
- 23 decision-making circuit can similarly capture the statistics of both spontaneous and contrast-driven
- 24 navigation.
- 25

²⁶ Introduction

Animal behaviors are both stereotyped and variable: they are constrained at short time scale to a 27 finite motor repertoire while the long-term sequence of successive motor actions displays apparent 28 stochasticity. Behavior is thus best described as a set of statistic rules that defines how elementary 29 motor actions are chained. In the presence of sensory cues, two types of behavioral responses can 30 be distinguished. If they signal an immediate threat or reward (e.g. the presence of a predator or 31 a prev), they may elicit a discrete behavioral switch as the animal engages in a specialized motor 32 program (e.g. escape or hunt, Budick and O'Mallev (2000): Fiser et al. (2004); Bianco et al. (2011): 33 McClenghan et al. (2012): Bianco and Engert (2015)). However, most of the time, sensory cues 34 merely reflect changes in external factors as the animal navigates through a complex environment. 35 These weak motor-related cues interfere with the innate motor program to cumulatively promote 36 the exploration of regions that are more favorable for the animal (Tsodyks et al., 1999; Fiser et al., 37 2004). 38 A guantification of sensory-biased locomotion thus requires to first categorize the possible 39 movements, and then to evaluate the statistical rules that relate the selection of these different 40

actions to the sensory and motor history. Although the probabilistic nature of these rules generally 41

- precludes a deterministic prediction of the animal's trajectory, they may still provide a quantification 42
- of the probability distribution of presence within a given environment after a given exploration 43
- time.

44 In physics terms, the animal can thus be described as a random walker, whose transition 45 probabilities are a function of the sensory inputs. This statistical approach was originally introduced 46 to analyze bacteria chemotaxis (*Lovely and Dahlauist* 1975) Motile bacteria navigate by alternating 47 straight swimming and turning phases, so-called runs and tumbles, resulting in trajectories akin to 48 random walks (Berg and Brown, 1972). Chemotaxis originates from a chemical-driven modulation 49 of the transition probability from run to tumble: the transition rate is governed by the time-history 50 of chemical sensing. How this dependency is optimized to enhance gradient-climbing has been 51 the subject of extensive literature (Macnab and Koshland, 1972; Adler and Tso, 1974; Mello and 52 Tu, 2007; Yuan et al., 2010; Celani and Vergassola, 2010). More recently, similar descriptions have 53 been successfully used to quantify chemotaxis and phototaxis in multi-cellular organisms such as C. 54 elegans (Ward, 1973; Miller et al., 2005; Ward et al., 2008), Drosophila larva (Sawin et al., 1994; Kane 55 et al., 2013: Gomez-Marin et al., 2011: Tastekin et al., 2018) or different types of slugs (Matsuo 56 et al., 2014: Marée et al., 1999). Although the sensorimotor apparatus of these animals are very 57 different, the taxis strategies at play appear to be convergent and can be classified based on the 58 gradient sensing methods (Fraenkel and Gunn, 1961; Gomez-Marin and Louis, 2012). Tropotaxis 59 refers to strategies in which the organism directly and instantaneously infers the stimulus direction 60 by comparison between two spatially distinct sensory receptors. In contrast, during klinotaxis, the 61 sensory gradient is inferred from successive samplings at different spatial positions. This second 62 strategy is particularly adapted when the organism has only one receptor, or if the sensory gradient 63 across the animal's body is too small to be detected (Humberg et al., 2018). It requires at least a 64 basic form of memory, since the sensory information needs to be retained for some finite period of 65 time. 66 In the present work, we implement such a framework to produce a comprehensive statistical 67 model of phototaxis in zebrafish larvae. Zebrafish larva is currently the only vertebrate system 68 that allows in vivo whole-brain functional imaging at cellular resolution (Panier et al., 2013: Ahrens 69

et al., 2013). It thus provides a unique opportunity to study how sensorimotor tasks, such as 70 sensory-driven locomotion, are implemented at the brain-scale level. 71

Although adult zebrafish are generally photophobic (or scototactic, Serra et al. (1999); Maximino 72 et al. (2007)), they display positive phototaxis at the larval stage, from 5 days post-fertilization (dof) 73 on (Orger and Bajer, 2005). At this early stage, their locomotion consists of a series of discrete 74 swimming events interspersed by ~ 1 s long periods of inactivity (*Girdhar et al., 2015*). Previous 75 studies have shown that, when exposed to a distant light source, the first bout executed by 76 the fish tend to be orientated in the direction of the source (tropotaxis) (Burgess et al., 2010). 77 Furthermore, *Chen and Engert (2014)* have shown, using a virtual reality assay, that zebrafish 78 are able to confine their navigation within a bright region within a dark environment even when 79 deprived from stereovisual contrast information. This latter study thus established that their 80 phototactic behavior also involves a spatio-temporal integration mechanism (klinotaxis). 81

From a neuronal viewpoint, recent calcium imaging experiments identified a well defined circuit 82 in the rostral hindbrain that plays a key role in phototaxis (Ahrens et al., 2013; Dunn et al., 2016; 83 Wolf et al., 2017). This region, called ARTR (anterior rhombencephalic turning region) or HBO 84 (hindbrain oscillator), displays pseudo-periodic antiphasic oscillations, such that the activity of the 85 left and right subpopulations alternate with a $\sim 20s$ period. This alternation was shown to set the 86 coordinated direction of the gaze and tail bout orientation, thus effectively organizing the temporal 87 sequence of the successive reorientations. It was further shown that this circuit oscillation could be 88 driven by whole-field illumination of the ipsilateral eve, such as to favor the animal's orientation 89 towards a light source (Wolf et al., 2017). 90

In the present study, we aim at quantifying the statistical rules that control the larva's reorien-91

tation dynamics in the presence of a continuous angular gradient of illumination (orientational phototaxis). Using a virtual-reality closed-loop assay, we quantify how swim bouts selection is 93 statistically controlled by the light intensity received on both eves prior to the bout initiation, or 94 the change in illumination elicited by the previous swim bout. Our experimental configuration allows us to disentangle the contribution of the two aforementioned strategies: tropotaxis and klinotaxis. From the analysis of this short-term behavior, we built a minimal Markov model of 97 phototaxis from which we compute the long-term distribution of orientations for any angular 98 profile of illumination. This model offers explicit predictions of the statistics of the fish orientation ac that quantitatively compare with the experimental observations. We further expand on a recent 100 rate model of the ARTR circuit to propose a functional neuronal model of spontaneous navigation 101 and contrast-biased orientation selection. We demonstrate that the statistics of turn orientation 102 can be fully understood by assuming that this self-oscillating circuitry, that selects the orientation of 103 turning bouts, integrates stereovisual contrast in the form of incoming currents proportional to the 104 visual stimulus. 105

Results 106

111

Kinematics of spontaneous navigation as a first-order autoregressive process 107

Zebrafish larvae aged 5-7 dof were placed one at a time in a Petri dish (14cm in diameter). Their 108 center-mass position and body axis orientation were tracked in real time at 35 frames/s (Figure 1A-100 B). This information was used to deliver a body-centered visual stimulus using a video-projector 110 directed onto a screen supporting the Petri dish.

Prior to each phototactic assay, the larva was allowed an ≈ 8 min-long period of spontaneous 112 exploration under uniform and constant illumination at maximum intensity $I_{max} = 450 \mu W.cm^{-2}$ 113 Such pre-conditioning phases were used to promote light-seeking behavior (Burgess and Granato, 114 **2007**), while enabling the quantification of the basal exploratory kinematics for each fish. 115

Larval zebrafish navigation is comprised of discrete swim bouts lasting $\approx 100ms$ and interspersed 116 with 1 to 2s-long inter-bout intervals (τ) during which the fish remains still (*Dunn et al.*, **2016**). Each 117 bout results in a translational motion of the animal and/or a change in its body axis orientation, and 118 can thus be automatically detected from kinematic parameters. As we are mostly interested in the 119 orientational dynamics, we extracted a discrete sequence of orientations α , measured just before 120 each swimming event *n* (Figure 1B-C) from which we computed the bout-induced reorientation 121 angles $\delta \alpha_n = \alpha_{n+1} - \alpha_n$. 122

Although the complete swim bouts repertoire of zebrafish larvae is rich and complex (Margues 123 et al., 2018: Johnson et al., 2019), the statistical distribution of the reorientation angles $P(\delta \alpha)$ in 124 such unbiased conditions can be correctly captured by the weighted sum of two zero-mean normal 125 distributions, $P(\delta \alpha_n) = p_{turn} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{turn}^2) + p_{fwd} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{fwd}^2)$, reflecting the predominance of only two 126 distinct bouts types: turning bouts (standard deviation $\sigma_{uur} = 0.6$) and forward scoots ($\sigma_{furd} = 0.1$) 127 (Figure 1D). This bimodal distribution is consistent with the locomotor repertoire of larvae described 128 by Margues et al. during spontaneous swimming and phototactic tasks (Margues et al., 2018). In the 129 absence of a visual bias, the turning bouts and forward scoots were found to be nearly equiprobable. 130 $p_{turn} = 1 - p_{fwd} = 0.41.$ 131

Successive bouts were found to exhibit a slightly positive correlation in amplitude (Figure 1F) 132 This process can be captured by a 2-state Markov chain model that controls the alternation between 133 forward and turning bouts, while the amplitude within each population is randomly sampled 134 from the corresponding distribution (Figure 1E). Within this scheme, we analytically derived the 135 dependence in the amplitude of successive bouts and thus estimated the forward-to-turn and 136 turn-to-forward transition rates, noted $k_{f \to t}$ and $k_{t \to f}$. We found that $k_{f \to t}/p_{turn} = k_{t \to f}/p_{fwd} \approx 0.8$. 137 This indicates that the probability to trigger a turn (resp. forward) bout is decreased by only 20% if 138 the previous bout is a forward (resp. turn) bout. For the sake of simplicity, we ignore in the following 130 this modest bias in bout selection and assume that the chaining of forward and turning bout is 140



Figure 1. Kinematics of spontaneous navigation. (A) Experimental setup: real-time monitoring of the larva position and orientation using IR illumination, enables closed-loop visual stimulation using a video projector. (B) Typical trajectory of a 6 days old larva in the region of interest (ROI) of the arena under constant, uniform illumination. Each point indicates the fish position at the onset of a swim bout. Dots' size and color encode the bout distance and bout reorientation angle, respectively. Insets: blow-up of an example frame (left) and definition of the reorientation angle $\delta \alpha_n$ at bout number *n* (*right*). b.len : body length. (C) Time-sequence of the fish body orientation α (top). Swim bouts elicit rapid re-orientations. The angular dynamics can thus be represented as a series of discrete reorientation events of various amplitudes $\delta \alpha_n$ (color code as in (B)). (D) Experimental (dark) and analytical (blue) distributions (pdf: probability density function) of reorientations $\delta \alpha_n$. The two normal distributions used in the fit with **Equation A1**, weighted by p_{turn} and $1 - p_{turn}$, are also displayed in dashed blue lines. (E) Two independent Markov chains model for spontaneous navigation: the bout *type* chain controls the forward scoot (F) versus turning (T) state, with transitions rates $k_{T \rightarrow F}$ and $k_{F \rightarrow T}$. The side chain controls the transitions between left (L) and right (R) headings when the animal is in the turning state, with transition rate k_{flin} . (F) Mean squared reorientation amplitude of bout n + 1 as a function of the squared amplitude of bout n (grey), and its associated analytical fit (blue, Appendix 1 Equation A5). (G) Average reorientation of bout n + 1 as a function of the reorientation at bout n (grey), and its associated analytical fit (blue, *Equation A11*). (H) Correlation in reorientation angles C_q as a function of the number of bouts (grey) and associated fit (blue, *Equation A14*). (I) Mean square reorientation (MSR) M_q as a function of the cumulative number of bouts, and associated fit (blue, Equation A16). The dotted line is the linear extrapolation of the first two data points and corresponds to the diffusive process expected for a memory-less random walk (no correlation in bout orientation). (]) Orientation correlation of turning bouts (thresholded at 0.22rad) as a function of the time elapsed between those bouts. The blue line is the exponential fit.

141 memory-less by setting $k_{f \to t} = p_{turn}$ and $k_{t \to f} = p_{fwd}$.

In line with previous observations (*Chen and Engert, 2014*; *Dunn et al., 2016*), we also noticed that successive turning bouts tended to be oriented in the same (left or right) direction (*Figure 1G*). This orientational motor persistence was accounted for by a second Markov chain that sets the orientation of turning bouts, and is controlled by the rate of flipping direction noted k_{flip} (*Figure 1E* bottom). Notice that, in contrast with the model proposed by (*Dunn et al., 2016*), although the orientational state is updated at each bout, it only governs the direction of turning bouts. When a forward bout is triggered, its orientation is thus unbiased.

This model provides an analytical prediction for the mean reorientation angle $\langle \delta \alpha_n \rangle_{l \delta \alpha_n}$, at bout 140 *n* following a reorientation angle $\delta \alpha_{n-1}$ at bout n-1 (see Annex 1). This expression was used to 150 fit the experimental data (*Figure 1G*) and allowed us to estimate the flipping rate $p_{flip} = 0.19$ (99%) 151 confidence bounds +0.017). We further computed the autocorrelation function of the reorientation 152 angles and the Mean Square Reorientation (MSR) accumulated after n bouts (Figure 1H-I). Both were 153 consistent with their experimental counterparts. In particular, this model quantitatively captures 154 the ballistic-to-diffusive transition that stems from the directional persistence of successive bouts 155 (Figure 11). As a consequence, the effective rotational diffusivity at long time $D_{eff} = 0.3 rad^2$ is about 156 twice as large than the value expected for a memory-less random walk with $p_{flin} = 0.5$ (Figure 1) 157 dashed line). 158

In this discrete Markov-chain model, time is not measured in seconds but corresponds to the 159 number of swim bouts. It thus implicitly ignores any dependence of the transition rates with the 160 interbout interval. We examined this hypothesis by evaluating the correlation in bouts orientations 161 as a function of the time elapsed between them. To do so, we first selected the putative turning 162 bouts by selecting the large amplitude events ($|\delta \alpha| < 0.22rad$). We then binarized their values, based 163 on their leftward or rightward orientation, yielding a discrete binary signal $s(t_n) = \pm 1$. We finally 164 computed the mean product $\langle s(t_n)s(t_n) \rangle$ for various time intervals $\Delta t = t_n - t_n$. The resulting graph, 165 shown in *Figure 11*, demonstrates that the correlation in orientation of successive bouts decays 166 quasi-exponentially with the inter-bout period. This mechanism can be captured by assuming that 167 the orientation selection at each bout is governed by a hidden two-state continuous-time process. 168 The simplest one compatible with our observations is the telegraph process, whose transition 169 probability over a small interval dt reads $k_{flip}dt$, and whose autocorrelation decays as $\exp(-2k_{flip}t)$. 170 Setting $k_{flin} = p_{flin}/median(\tau_n) = 0.2s^{-1}$, this model thus correctly captures the τ_n -dependence of the 171

¹⁷² orientational correlation of bouts.

In the two following sections, we use the discrete version of the Markov-model to represent
 the fish navigation, and investigate how the model's parameters are modulated in the presence of
 a virtual distant light source. We then go back to the underlying continuous-time process when
 introducing a neuronal rate model for the orientation selection process.

177 Contrast-driven phototaxis can be described as a biased random walk

We first examined the situation in which the perceived stereo-visual contrast is the only cue 178 accessible to the animal to infer the direction of the light source (tropotaxis regime). The visual 179 stimulus consisted of two uniformly lit half-disks, each covering one visual hemifield. The intensity 180 delivered to the left and right eyes, noted I_L and I_R respectively, were locked onto the fish's 181 orientation relative to the virtual light source θ (Figure 2A-C): the total intensity $(I_1 + I_2)$ was 182 maintained constant while the contrast $c = I_I - I_R$ was varied linearly with θ_i with a mirror symmetry 183 at $\pi/2$ (Figure 2B). This dependence was chosen to mimic the presence of a distant source located 184 at $\theta = 0$ (*Figure 2B*), for which the contrast is null. 185

The orientation of the virtual source in the laboratory frame of reference was randomly selected at initiation of each assay. After only a few bouts, the animal orientation was found to be statistically biased towards $\theta = 0$, as shown in *Figure 2C-D*. This bias was quantified by computing the population resultant vector *R* defined as the vectorial mean of all orientations (*Figure 2E*).

¹⁹⁰ Trajectories that are strongly biased towards the source tend to exit the ROI earlier than unbiased

trajectories, which are more tortuous and thus more spatially confined. This generates a progressive selection bias as the number of bouts considered is increased, as revealed by the slow decay of the resultant vector length (*Figure 2–Figure Supplement 1*). In order to mitigate this selection bias, all analyses of stationary distributions were restricted to bout indices lower than the median number of bouts per trial ($N \le 17$), and excluding the first bout. Under this condition, we found that ~ 77% of zebrafish larvae display a significant phototactic behavior (*Figure 2D*, test of significance based on a combination of two circular statistic tests. *see Methods*) a fraction consistent with values reported

combination of two circular statistic tests, *see Methods*), a fraction consistent with v
 by *Burgess et al.* (2010) in actual phototactic assays .

From these recordings, we could characterize how the contrast experienced during the inter-bout interval impacts the statistics of the forthcoming bout. *Figure 2G* displays the mean reorientation $\delta\theta$ as a function of the instantaneous contrast *c*. This graph reveals a quasi-linear dependence of the mean reorientation with *c*, directed towards the brighter side. Notice that the associated slope shows a significant decrease in the few first bouts, before reaching a quasi-constant value (*Figure 2-Figure Supplement 2*). This effect likely reflects a short term habituation mechanism, as the overall intensity drops by a factor of 2 at the initiation of the assay.

For a more thorough analysis of the bout selection mechanisms leading to the orientational 206 bias, we examined, for all values of the contrast, the mean and variance of the two distributions 207 associated with turning bouts and forward scoots, as well as the fraction of turning bouts p_{turn} 208 (Figure 2H-K). We found that the orientational drift solely results from a probabilistic bias in the 209 selection of the turning bouts (left vs right) orientation: the mean orientation of the turning bouts 210 varies linearly with the imposed contrast (Figure 21). Reversely, the ratio of turning bouts and the 211 variance of the two distributions are insensitive to the contrast (Figure 21-K). These results indicate 212 that the stereo-visual contrast has no impact neither on bout type selection nor on bout amplitude. 213 As discussed in the preceding section, successive bouts tend to be oriented in the same direction. 214 During phototaxis, the selection of the turning orientation is thus expected to reflect a competition 215 between two distinct mechanisms: motor persistence, which favors the previous bout orientation. 216 and stereo-visual bias, which favors the brighter side. To investigate how these two processes 217 interfere, we sorted the bouts into two categories. In the first one, called "reinforcement", the 218 bright side is in the direction of the previous bout, such that both the motor and sensory cues act 219 in concert. In the second one, called "conflicting", the contrast tends to evoke a turning bout in a 220 direction opposite to the previous one. For each category, we plotted the mean reorientation angle 221 at bout *n* as a function of the reorientation angle at bout n-1 (*Figure 2L*). We further estimated, for 222 each condition and each value of the contrast, the probability of flipping orientation p_{flip} (Figure 2M 223 and *Methods*). These two graphs show that the stereo-visual contrast continuously modulates the 224 innate motor program by increasing or decreasing the probability of flipping bout orientation from 225 left to right and vice versa. Noticeably, in the conflicting situation at maximum contrast, the visual 226 cue and motor persistence almost cancel each other out such that the mean orientation is close to 227 0 ($p_{flip} \sim 0.4$). 228

Phototaxis under uniform stimulation is driven by a modulation of the orienta tional diffusivity

We now turn to the second paradigm, in which the stereo-visual contrast is null (both eves receive 231 the same illumination at any time), but the total perceived illumination is orientation-dependent 232 (klinotaxis regime). We thus imposed a uniform illumination to the fish whose intensity I was locked 233 onto the fish orientation θ relative to a virtual light source. We tested three different illumination 234 profiles $I(\theta)$ as shown in **Figure 3A**: a sinusoidal and two exponential profiles with different maxima 235 Despite the absence of any direct orientational cue, a large majority of the larvae (78%) displayed 236 positive phototactic behavior: their orientational distribution showed a significant bias towards the 237 virtual light source, *i.e.* the direction of maximum intensity (*Figure 3C-E*). 238 Although the efficiency of the phototactic behavior is comparable to the tropotaxis case previ-230 ously examined, here we did not observe any systematic bias of the reorientation bouts towards 240



Figure 2. Contrast-driven phototaxis as a biased random walk. N = 47 fish, 18, 322 bouts. All statistical analysis are performed on the first 17 bouts, the first one excluded, for each assay. VS : virtual source. (A) Stimulus pattern delivered to the larva. The orientation relative to the virtual source is noted θ . (B) Left and right intensities (top panel) and contrast $c = \frac{I_L - I_R}{I_L + I_R}$ (bottom panel) as a function of θ . The virtual light source is defined by a null contrast ($\mathbf{c} = 0$) and corresponds to a stable point ($\frac{dc}{d\theta} < 0$). (C) Probability density function (pdf) of orientations relative to the virtual light source for one fish during 20 trials, bouts 2 to 17 (n=320 bouts). (D) Probability density function (pdf) of orientations for all tested fish (N = 47). Significantly biased toward the virtual source (V-test for non-uniformity with specified mean 0 ($p_{val} < 10^{-11}$) (E) Definition of the mean resultant vector length **R** for one fish. The points represent the angular positions θ_n of the fish relative to the source. The length of the resultant vector is defined, in the complex plane, as $\mathbf{R} = \left|\frac{1}{N}\sum \exp i\theta_n\right|$. (F) Resultant vectors **R** for individual fish. (G) Mean reorientation $\langle \delta \theta_n \rangle$ per bout as a function of contrast c for all fish. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. Red line is the linear fit with slope 0.2 rad. (H) Illustration of the shift in turning distribution ($\mu_t < 0$) induced by a negative contrast. (I) Means, (J) standard deviations and (K) relative weight of the turning distribution as a function of the contrast. For each value of the contrast, these quantities were extracted by double-Gaussian fitting of the bout angles. The error bars represent the 99% confidence interval from the fit. (L) Average reorientation at bout n + 1 as a function of the reorientation at bout n in reinforcing (contrast and previous bout orientation are consistent) or conflicting (contrast and previous bout orientation are in conflict) situations. The dashed line is the analytical prediction in the absence of stimulation. (M) Probability of switching direction p_{flip} as a function of the contrast, in situations of conflict or reinforcement.

Figure 2-Figure supplement 1. Evolution of R as a function of bout number

Figure 2-Figure supplement 2. Evolution of bias slope with bout number

the brightest direction (Figure 3F). This indicates that the larvae do not use the change in intensity 241 at a given bout to infer the orientation of the source in order to bias the orientation of the forth-242 coming turn. Instead, the phototactic process originates from a visually-driven modulation of the 243 orientational diffusivity, as measured by the variance of the bout angle distributions (*Figure 3G*). 244 The use of different profiles allowed us to identify which particular feature of the visual stimulus 245 drives this modulation. Although the bout amplitude variance was dependent on the intensity I and 246 intensity change δI experienced before the bout these relationships were found to be inconsistent 247 across the different imposed intensity profiles. In contrast, when plotted as a function of $\delta I/I$, all 248 curves collapse (Figure 3-Figure Supplement 1). This observation is in line with the Weber-Fechner 249 law (Fechner, 1860), which states that the perceived change scales with the relative change in the 250 physical stimulus. One noticeable feature of this process is that the modulation of the turning 251 amplitude is limited to illumination *decrement* (*i.e.* negative values of $\delta I/I$). In the terminology 252 of bacterial chemotaxis (Oliveira et al., 2016), the zebrafish larva can thus be considered as a 253 "pessimistic" phototactic animal: the orientational diffusivity increases in response to a decrease 254 in illumination (corresponding to a negative subjective value), whereas its exploratory kinematics 255 remain unchanged upon an increase of illumination (positive subjective value). 256 Two kinematic parameters can possibly impact the orientational diffusivity: the fraction of 257 turning bouts p_{turn} and their characteristic amplitude σ_{turn} . We thus extracted these two quantities 258 and plotted them as a function of $\delta I/I$ (*Figure 3G-H*). They appear to equally contribute to the 259

observed modulation.
 To test whether this uniform phototactic process has a retinal origin, or whether it might be
 mediated by non-visual deep-brain phototreceptors (*Fernandes et al., 2013*), we ran similar assays
 on bi-enucleated fish. In this condition, no orientational bias was observed, which indicates that
 the retinal pathway is involved in the orientational klinotaxis (*Figure 3–Figure Supplement 2*, all
 p-values > 0.14, pairwise *T*-tests).

A biased random walk model for phototaxis provides a quantitative prediction of light-driven orientational bias

In the preceding sections, we quantified how visual stimuli stochastically modulate specific kinematic 268 parameters of the subsequent bout. We used these relationships to build a biased random walk 260 model of phototaxis. We then tested how such a model could reproduce the statistical orientational 270 biases towards the directions of minimal contrast and maximal illumination. The phototactic 271 model thus incorporates a visually-driven bias to the discrete two-Markov chains introduced to 272 represent the spontaneous navigation (Figure 4A). In line with the observation of Figure 2M, the 273 rate of flipping orientational state (left-to-right or right-to-left) was a linear function of the imposed 274 contrast: $k_{R \rightarrow L} = k_{flin} + ac$ and $k_{l \rightarrow r} = k_{flin} - ac$. The value of a was set so as to capture the contrast-275 dependent orientational drift (Figure 2G) and was made dependent on bout number in order to 276 account for the observed habituation process (Figure 2-Figure Supplement 2). 277

The selection of bout type was in turn linearly modulated by the relative change in intensity after negative rectification ($[\delta I/I]^- = min(\delta I/I, 0)$). Hence, the turn-to-forward and forward-to-turn transition rates read $k_{t\to f} = k_{turn} + \beta [\delta I/I]^-$ and $k_{f\to t} = k_{turn} - \beta [\delta I/I]^-$, respectively. We also imposed a linear modulation of the turn amplitude variance $\sigma_{turn} = \sigma_{turn}^{spont} - \gamma [\delta I/I]^-$. The values of β and γ were adjusted to reproduce the observed dependence of the turn-vs-forward ratio and bout amplitude with $\delta I/I$ (*Figure 3H-I*).

This stochastic model was tested under two conditions, tropo- and klino-phototaxis, similar to those probed in the experiments (*Figure 4B*). In order to account for the sampling bias associated with the finite size of the experimental ROI, the particles in the simulations also progressed in a 2D arena. At each time step, a forward displacement was drawn from a gamma distribution adjusted on the experimental data (*Figure 5–Figure Supplement 1*). Statistical analysis was restricted to bouts executed within a circular ROI as in the experimental assay.

²⁹⁰ The comparison of the data and numerical simulation is shown in *Figure 4C* for the tropotaxis



Figure 3. Orientational phototaxis driven by modulation of the global illumination. N = 37 fish, n = 26,443 bouts. (A) Top panel : Angle-dependent intensity profiles delivered to the larva. The virtual light source is located at $\theta = 0$, defined as the point of maximum intensity. The profiles are sinusoidal (uniform 1, purple) or exponentially-shaped (uniform 2 and 3 respectively orange and yellow). All statistics were computed using bouts number 2 to the median number of bouts per sequence (resp. 27, 17 and 15 for the 3 profiles). (B-D) PDF of the fish orientations for the 3 profiles. All 3 distributions are significantly biased towards the virtual source (V-test for non-uniformity of circular data with specified mean 0, p_{vals} respectively 9.10^{-3} , 2.10^{-7} and 3.10^{-5}).(E) Resultant vector **R** for all individual fish. (F) Mean reorientation per bout $\langle \delta \theta \rangle$ of all fish as a function of θ for the 3 profiles. No significant bias towards the source ($\theta = 0$) is observed. (G) Variance of the reorientation angles $\langle \delta \theta^2 \rangle$ as a function of the relative change in intensity experienced at the previous bout $\delta I/I$. Error bars are standard error of the mean. (H) Standard deviation σ_{turn} was then estimated using a double-Gaussian fitting of the bout angles. Error bars are the 99% confidence interval from fit. (I) Probability of triggering a turning bout as a function of $\delta I/I$.

Figure 3–Figure supplement 1. Variance of $\delta\theta$ as a function of 3 different illumination parameters **Figure 3–Figure supplement 2.** Control for retinal origin of klinotaxis

- ²⁹¹ protocol and in *Figure 4D-F* for the klinotaxis protocols. This minimal stochastic model quantitatively
- ²⁹² captures the mean orientational bias, as measured by the resultant vector **R**. It also reproduces the
- evolution of this parameter as a function of the cumulative number of bouts (Figure 4G-J).

A neuronal model of the ARTR captures spontaneous and contrast driven navigation

The behavioral description proposed above indicates that larvae navigation can be correctly accounted for by two independent stochastic processes: one that organizes the sequence of successive bouts amplitude and in particular the selection of forward vs turning events, while a second one selects the left *vs* right orientation of the turning bouts. These two processes are independently modulated by two distinct features of the visual stimulus, namely the global intensity changes and the stereo-visual contrast, leading to the two phototactic strategies.

This in turn suggests that, at the neuronal level, two independent circuits may control these 302 characteristics of the executed swim bouts. As mentioned in the introduction, the ARTR is a 303 natural candidate for the neuronal selection of bouts orientation. This small bilaterally-distributed 304 circuit located in the anterior hindbrain displays antiphasic activity oscillation with $\sim 20s$ period 305 (Ahrens et al., 2013). The currently active region (left or right) constitutes a strong predictor of the 306 orientation of turning bouts (Dunn et al., 2016). This circuit further integrates visual inputs as each 307 ARTR subpopulation responds to the uniform stimulation of the ipsilateral eve (Wolf et al., 2017). 308 Here we adapted a minimal neuronal model of the ARTR, introduced in Wolf et al. (2017) 309 to interpret the calcium recordings, and tested whether it could explain the observed statistics 310

of exploration in both spontaneous and phototactic conditions. The architecture of the model is depicted in *Figure 5A*. The network consists of two modules that are selective for leftward and rightward turning bouts, respectively. A perfect candidate mechanism for the generation of



Figure 4. A Markov-chain model of phototaxis captures the observed orientational distribution. (A) Decision tree for simulation: selection of forward scoots vs turning bouts are governed by the relative intensity change at the previous bout. If a turning bout is triggered, the selection of left-right orientation is biased by the stereovisual contrast. (B) 2D density profiles computed from all experimental and simulated trajectories for the three different paradigms (no stimulation, lateralized illumination and uniform illumination). The color encodes the excess or deficit of density with respect to the radially-averaged density without any stimulation. (C-F) Experimental (color) and simulation (solid line) probability density distributions of orientations for the 4 phototactic configurations (stereo-visual stimulation, uniform stimulation with angular profiles 1 to 3). (G-J) Evolution of the resultant vector's length as a function of the bout number for the experiment (color) and simulation (solid line). Error bar : standard error of the mean.

persistent activity is strong recurrent excitation in each module through recurrent coupling (w_E), this tends to maintain each module's activity for a finite period of time. Reciprocal inhibition (w_I) between the left and right modules guarantees strong antiphasic dynamics between each side. Finally, each ARTR module receives an input current from the visual system proportional to the illumination of the ipsilateral eye. Such architecture gives rise to a stimulus-selective attractor well described in *Freeman (1995); Wang (2001)*. The equations governing the network are provided in Appendix 2 *Equation A17*. The various

model parameters were adjusted in order to match the behavioral data. First, the self-excitatory and cross-inhibitory couplings were chosen such that the circuit displayed spontaneous oscillatory dynamics in the absence of sensory input. *Figure 5B* shows example traces of the two units' activity in this particular regime. From these two traces, we extracted a binary "orientational state" signal by assigning to each time point a left or right value (indicated in red and blue, respectively), based on the identity of the module with the largest activity.

In the present approach, tail bouts are assumed to be triggered independently of the ARTR 327 activity. The latter thus acts as mere orientational hub by selecting the orientation of the turning 328 events: incoming bouts are oriented in the direction associated with the currently active module. 329 In the absence of information regarding the circuit that organizes the swim bouts emission, their 330 timing and absolute amplitude were drawn from the behavioral recordings of freely swimming 331 larvae (Figure 5- figure supplement 1). Combined with the ARTR dynamics, this yielded a discrete 332 sequence of simulated bouts (leftward, rightward and forward, *Figure 5B*, inset). With adequate 333 choice of parameters, this model captures the orientational persistence mechanism, as quantified 334 by the slow decay of the turning bout autocorrelation with the interbout interval (Figure 5C). 335

In the presence of a lateralized visual stimulus, the oscillatory dynamics become biased towards 336 the brightest direction (Figure 5D-E). Hence, illuminating the right eve favors longer periods of 337 activation of the rightward-selective ARTR unit. The mean reorientation displays a quasi-linear 338 dependence with the imposed contrast (Figure 5D) in line with the behavioral observations (Fig-339 ure 2G). At intermediate contrast values, the orientation of bouts remains stochastic: the effect of 340 the contrast is to lengthen streaks of turning bouts towards the light (*Figure 5E*). We also tested 341 whether this model could capture the competition mechanism between stereovisual bias and motor 342 persistence, in both conflicting and reinforcement conditions. We thus computed the dependence 343 of the flipping probability p_{flin} as a function of the contrast in both conditions (*Figure 5F*). The 344 resulting graph is in quantitative agreement with its experimental counterparts (Figure 2M). 345

We finally used this model to emulate a simulated phototactic task. In order to do so, a virtual 346 fish was submitted to a contrast whose amplitude varied linearly with the animal orientation, as 347 in the lateralized assay. When a turning bout was triggered, its orientation was set by the ARTR 348 instantaneous activity while its amplitude was drawn from the experimental distributions. After a 3/19 few bouts, a stationary distribution of orientation was reached that was biased towards the virtual 350 light source (*Figure 5G*). Its profile was in quantitative agreement with its experimental counterpart 351 (mean resultant vector length R = 0.23 in simulation for R = 0.24 in experimental data for bouts 2 352 to 17). 353

354 Discussion

Sensorimotor transformation can be viewed as an operation of massive dimensionality reduction, in 355 which a continuous stream of sensory and motor-related signals is converted into a discrete series of 356 stereotyped motor actions. The challenge in understanding this process is (i) to correctly categorize 357 the behavioral events, *i.e.* to reveal the correct parametrization of the motor repertoire, and (ii) to 358 unveil the statistical rules for action selection. Testing the validity of such description can be done 359 by building a minimal model based on these rules. If the model is correct, the motor variability 360 unaccounted for by the model should be entirely random, *i.e.* independent of the sensorimotor 361 history 362



Figure 5. A neuronal model of turning bout selection captures spontaneous and contrast-driven navigation. (A) Scheme of the Markov chain model of the orientation selection, and corresponding neuronal model of the ARTR. The latter consists of two units whose relative activation controls the orientation of bouts. Persistent and self-alternating dynamics result from the recurrent excitation (w_E) and reciprocal inhibition (w_I) between each unit. They further receive input currents proportional to the illumination of the ipsilateral eye. (B) Top: example traces of the simulated activity of the left (red) and right (blue) modules in the absence visual stimulation (AU : arbitrary units). These continuous dynamics control the alternation between right and left orientational states. Close-up: forward and turning bouts are triggered independently with a statistics drawn from the behavioral recordings. The orientational state governs the orientation of the turning bouts. (C) Orientation correlation of turning bouts (thresholded at .22 rad) as a function of the inter-bout interval τ_n . Result from the neuronal model is in blue, experimental data are in black. (D) Mean reorientation $\langle \delta \theta \rangle$ as a function of the contrast c. (E) Example traces of the simulated activity for a constant contrast c = 0.5. (F) Probability of flipping orientation as a function of the imposed contrast c in situations of conflict or reinforcement (neuronal model). (G) Probability distribution function of θ for 10 simulated phototactic trajectories with a linear dependence of average reorientation on contrast. Each trajectory lasted 50,000 seconds. The dotted line is the orientational distribution in the absence of visual stimulation.

Figure 5-Figure supplement 1. Inter-bout distance distribution

Figure 5–Figure supplement 2. Simulated trajectories with different inter-bout intervals τ_n

Here we implemented a minimal model approach in order to unveil the basic rules underlying 363 phototaxis. We showed that zebrafish light-driven orientational navigation can be quantitatively 364 described by a stochastic model consisting of two independent Markov chains: one that selects 365 forward scoots vs turning bouts and a second one that sets the orientation of the latter. We 366 established that the stereo-visual contrast and global intensity modulation act separately on each 367 of these selection processes. The contrast induces a directed bias of turning bouts towards 368 the illuminated side, but does not impact the prevalence of turning bouts vs forward scoots 369 Reversely, a global decrement in illumination increases the ratio of turning bouts but does not 370 favor any particular direction. For the contrast-driven configuration (tropotaxis), the minimal model 371 corresponds to an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process (Uhlenbeck and Ornstein, 1930), which describes 372 the dynamics of a diffusive brownian particle in a quadratic trap. In the klinotaxis configuration (in 373 the absence of stereo-visual contrast), the orientational bias solely results from a light-dependent 374 modulation of the diffusivity, a mechanism reminiscent of bacterial chemotaxis. 375

This stochastic minimal model is built on a simple decision tree (Figure 4A) with a set of binary 376 choices. However, to fully capture the orientational dynamics, we had to incorporate the continuous 377 increase in turning bout amplitude with the light decrement in an ad-hoc way. It is currently unclear 378 whether all turn bouts in our experiments can be assigned to a single class of swim maneuvers that 370 are modulated in amplitude, or whether these encompass distinct motor programs executed with 380 varying frequencies. In the latter case, it might be possible to represent this amplitude modulation 381 through an extension of the decision tree that would select between distinct turn bout categories. 382 Compared to previous studies on phototaxis, e.g. Burgess et al. (2010), our approach allowed 383 us to clearly disentangle the contributions of spatial (stereovisual contrast) and time-dependent 384 (motion-induced change in global illumination) visual cues. Hence, the contrast-driven assays were 385 performed under constant overall illumination intensity (the sum of left and right intensities). This 386 allowed us to establish that, rather surprisingly, the probability of triggering a turn (vs a forward 387 swim) is insensitive to the imposed contrast. This possibility constitutes an important asset with 388 respect to standard experimental configurations, such as the one examined by Burgess et al. (2010), 389 in which the animal is submitted to an actual distant light source. Although these configurations 390 provide a more realistic context, the visual stimulus effectively perceived by each eye can not 39 be quantitatively assessed, which precludes the design of predictive models. Conversely, once 392 adjusted on well-controlled virtual assays, our model could be numerically implemented in realistic 393 environments, and the trajectories could then be directly confronted with behavioral data. This 394 would require to first infer how the intensity impinging on each eye depends on the source distance 395 and orientation relative to the animal body axis. 396

Another critical and distinct aspect of the present work is its focus on the steady-state dynamics. 397 Our aim was to mimic the continuous exploration of an environment in which the brightness level 305 displays slowly varying angular modulations. The luminosity profiles were thus chosen to ensure 390 that individual bouts elicited relatively mild changes in illumination. By doing so, we tried to mitigate 400 visual startle responses that are known to be elicited upon sudden darkening (Stephen S. Easter 401 and Nicola, 1996). Although we could not avoid the initial large drop in illumination at the onset of 402 each trial, the associated short-term response (*i.e.* the first bout) was excluded from the analysis. 403 In this respect, our experiment differs from the study of *Chen and Engert* (2014) in which a similar 404 close-loop setup was used to demonstrate the ability of larvae to confine their navigation within 405 bright regions. This behavior was entirely controlled by the animal's response to light-on or light-off 40F stimuli as it crossed the virtual border between a bright central disk and the dark outer area. These 407 sharp transitions resulted in clear-cut behavioral changes that lasted for a few bouts. In comparison, 408 our experiment addresses a different regime in which subtle light-driven biases in the spontaneous 409 exploration cumulatively drive the animal towards brightest regions. 410

As we aimed to obtain a simple and tractable kinematic description, we ignored some other aspects of the navigation characteristics. First, we focused on the orientation of the animal and thus did not systematically investigate how the forward components of the swim bouts were impacted

by visual stimuli. However, in the context of angle-dependent intensity profiles, this effect should not impact the observed orientational dynamics. More importantly, we ran most of our analysis 415 using the bout number as a time-scale, and thus ignored possible light-driven modulations of the 416 inter-bout intervals (τ). We showed, however, that the orientational correlation is controlled by 417 an actual time-scale. This result may have significant consequence on the fish exploration. In particular, we expect that changes in bout frequency, reflecting various level of motor activity. 419 may significantly affect the geometry of the trajectories (and not only the speed at which they are 420 explored). We illustrated this process by running numerical experiments at similar flipping rate k_{flip} 421 for increasing bout frequencies. The trajectories, shown in *Figure 5–Figure Supplement 2*, exhibit 422 increasing complexity as measured by the fractal dimension. This mechanism may explain the 423 changes in trajectories' geometry observed by *Horstick et al.* (2017) in response to sudden light 474 dimming 425

An important outcome of this study is to show that light-seeking navigation uses visual cues over 426 relatively short time scales. The bouts statistics could be captured with a first order autoregressive 427 process, indicating that the stimulus perceived over one $\tau_{\rm c}$ is sufficient to predict the forthcoming 428 bout. However, one should be aware that such observation is only valid provided that the sensory 429 context remains relatively stable. Hence for instance, a prolonged uniform drop in luminosity is 430 known to enhance the overall motor activity (generally measured by displacement over a period 431 of time) for up to several tens of minutes (Prober et al., 2006; Emran et al., 2007, 2009; Liu et al., 432 2015). This long-term behavioral change, so-called photokinesis, might be regulated by deep brain 433 photoreceptors (Fernandes et al., 2013; Horstick et al., 2017) and thus constitutes a distinct mech-434 anism. One particularly exciting prospect will be to understand how such behavioral plasticity may 435 not only modulate the spontaneous activity (*Johnson et al.*, 2019) but also affects the phototactic 436 dvnamics. 437

One of the motivations of minimal behavioral models is to facilitate the functional identifica-438 tion and modeling of neural circuits that implement the identified sensorimotor operations in 439 the brain. Here we used the behavioral results to propose a neuronal model of the ARTR that 440 quantitatively reproduces non-trivial aspects of the bout selection process. This recurrent neural 441 circuit is a simplified version of working memory models developed by *Brunel and Wang (2001*): 442 Wang (2001, 2002, 2008) and adapted in Wang (2002) for a decision task executed in the parietal 443 cortex (Shadlen and Newsome, 1996, 2001). In this class of models, the binary decision process 111 reflects the competition between two cross-inhibitory neural populations. The circuit is endowed 445 with two major functional capacities: (1) it can maintain mnemonic persistent activity over long 446 periods of time, thanks to recurrent excitatory inputs: (2) it can integrate sensory signals in a graded 447 fashion to continuously bias the statistics of the decision. This model thus naturally recapitulates 448 the major functional features of the sensory-biased Markov side chain - motor persistence and 119 contrast-driven continuous bias - that organizes the orientation selection. 450

It is tempting to generalize about this behavior-to-circuit approach, at least in small animals such as zebrafish or drosophila, by representing any behavior as a coordinated sequence of competing elemental actions biased by sensory feedback and organized within a hierarchical decision tree. The identification of such decision trees through quantitative behavioral analysis may provide a blueprint of the brain functional organization and significantly ease the development of circuit models of brain-scale sensorimotor computation.

457 Materials and methods

458 Zebrafish maintenance and behavioral setup

459 All behavioral free-swimming experiments were performed on wild-type zebrafish (Danio Rerio)

- larvae aged 5 to 8 days post-fertilization. Larvae were reared in Petri dishes in E3 solution on a
- ⁴⁶¹ 14/10h light/dark cycle at 28°C, and were fed powdered nursery food every day from 6 dpf.
- 462 Experiments were conducted during daytime hours (10 am to 6 pm). Single larvae were swim-

- ⁴⁶³ ming in a 14 *cm* in diameter Petri dish containing E3 medium. The arena was placed on a screen
- ⁴⁶⁴ illuminated from below by a projector (ASUS S1). Infrared illumination was provided by LEDs, to
- enable recording and tracking of the fish. We used an IR-sensitive Flea3 USB3 camera (FL3-U3-
- ⁴⁶⁶ 13Y13M-C, Point Grey Research, Richmond, BC, Canada), with an adjustable macro lens (Zoom 7000,
- ⁴⁶⁷ Navitar, USA) equiped with an IR filter.
- ⁴⁶⁸ The experimental setup was enclosed in a light-tight rig, which was maintained at 28°C using "The ⁴⁶⁹ Cube" (Life Imaging Services).
- For the stereovisual paradigm N = 47 larvae were tested, and N = 37 for the temporal paradigm
- $_{471}$ [(uniform 1) : 12, (uniform 2) : 11, (uniform 3) : 14]. All tested fish (N = 84) were also used to assess
- 472 spontaneous navigation statistics.

473 Behavioral assay

474 Closed-loop tracking and illumination were performed at a mean frequency of 35 Hz, with a
 475 custom-written software in Matlab (The MathWorks), using the PsychToolBox (PTB) version 3.0.14
 476 add-on.

Position and orientation (heading direction) of the fish, as well as bouts characteristics, were 477 extracted online and the illumination pattern was updated accordingly, with a maximum latency 478 of 34ms. Heading direction was extracted with an accuracy of +/-0.05 rad ($\sim 3^{\circ}$). To mitigate the 479 effects of the walls in the fish navigation, behavioral monitoring was restricted to a circular central 480 region of interest of 8.2cm diameter. When outside the ROI, the fish was actively brought back 481 into the field of view of the camera through the opto-motor reflex (OMR), using a concentrically 482 moving circular pattern. One second after the fish re-entered the ROL a new recording sequence 483 was started 484

Prior to the phototactic assays, all tested fish were subjected to a period of at least 8 minutes 485 of habituation under whole-field illumination at an intensity of $I_{max} = 450 \mu W.cm^{-2}$. For both 486 paradigms, the absolute orientation of the virtual source was randomly selected when initiating a 487 new experimental sequence (each time the animal would re-enter the region of interest). Thus the 488 relative orientation of the fish towards the light source θ_{i} was calculated online using the absolute 489 orientation of the fish α_n and the randomly chosen orientation of the source α_{source} : $\theta_n = \alpha_n - \alpha_{source}$. 490 Lateralized paradigm. A circle of 6cm in diameter was projected under and centered on the fish. 491 The circle was divided into two parts, covering the left and right side of the fish. The separation 492 between the two parts corresponded to the animal midline. The division (2mm thick) as well as a 493 triangle (30°) in front of the head were darkened to avoid interception of intensity coming from the 494 right side of the fish by its left eye and *vice-versa*. Left and right intensities (I_I and I_R) were varied 495 linearly as a function of θ , such that $I_I + I_R = I$, I being constant. Since during the habituation 49F period, the whole arena was lit, the intensity received by the fish drops by a factor of 2 with the 497 establishment of the circle, at the beginning of the trial. Note that when heading towards the virtual 498 light source, the total intensity received on both eyes is equal to half the value I_{max} that the animal 499 experiences during the conditioning phase. Although our imposed contrast profiles displays two 500 angles for which the contrast is null, namely $\theta = 0$ and π , only does the first one correspond to a 501 stable equilibrium point. When θ is close to zero, any excursion away from this particular direction 502 results in a contrast that drives the animal back to the null angle. Conversely, when $\theta \approx \pi$, the 503 contrast drives the animal away from π (unstable equilibrium). 504

Temporal paradigm. The whole arena was illuminated with an intensity locked onto the fish orientation θ_n relative to a virtual light source. The initial orientation was randomly chosen at the beginning of a recording sequence. Three different intensity angular profiles were implemented: (uniform 1) a sinusoidal profile, with a maximum intensity of 60% of I_{max} , (uniform 2) an exponential profile, with a maximum intensity of 60% of I_{max} and finally (uniform 3) an exponential profile with a maximum intensity of 30% of I_{max} .

511 Data analysis

⁵¹² Data analysis was performed using a custom-written code in Matlab. When representing the mean ⁵¹³ of a variable against another, bin edges were chosen such that each bin would encompass the

514 same number of elements. Circular statistics analyses (mean, variance, uniformity) and circular

statistics tests, namely the circular Rayleigh test of non-uniformity of data and the one-sample

test for the mean angle of a circular distribution (tested on the orientation of the light virtual light

source $\langle \theta \rangle = 0$) were performed using CircStat toolbox for Matlab (*Berens, 2009*).

In order to calculate the mean resultant vector length **R**, we consider all the angular positions θ_n

- ⁵¹⁹ relative to the source. The resultant vector is defined, in the complex plane, as $\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{N} \sum \exp i\theta_n$ and
- its length as $\mathbf{R} = |\mathbf{v}|$. In order to assess to what extent a distribution is biased towards a specific

direction (here, the light source), the quantity $\mathbf{R}cos(\theta)$ was sometimes used : the mean resultant vector projected onto the direction of the light source.

523

Individual fish often exhibit a consistent (minute) bias towards one direction (either leftward or rightward). This bias was subtracted before performing the different analyses, in order to guarantee that $\langle \alpha \rangle = 0$ in the absence of a stimulus. The distribution of reorientation angles $\delta \theta_n$ during spontaneous swimming periods was fitted with a constrained double-Gaussian function. We imposed that both the mean absolute angle and variance of the fitting function be consistent with the experimental measurements. This yields an expression with only one independent fitting parameter p_{turn} in the form:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{p_{turn}}{\sigma_{turn}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x}{\sigma_{turn}})^2} + \frac{1 - p_{turn}}{\sigma_f} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x}{\sigma_{fwd}}\right)^2} \right)$$
(1)

531 using

$$\sigma_{turn} = \frac{\mu_{abs} p_{turn} + \sqrt{\mu_{abs}^2 p_{turn}^2 - \left[\mu_{abs}^2 - V(1 - p_{turn})\right] \left[p_{turn}^2 + p_{turn}(1 - p_{turn})\right]}{p_{turn}^2 + p_{turn}(1 - p_{turn})}$$

and

$$\sigma_{fivd} = \frac{\mu_{abs}\sqrt{\pi/2} - p_{turn}\sigma_{turn}}{1 - p_{turn}}$$

with

$$\mu_{abs} = \left< \left| \delta \theta \right| \right>, V = \left< \delta \theta^2 \right>$$

To evaluate the mean and variance of the forward and turn bouts under various visual context, the distributions in different bins were also fitted with a constrained double Gaussian model as in (1). The stereovisual data distributions were fitted with two additional mean terms μ_{turn} and μ_{fwd} ; and for the klinotaxis assay, with a constraint on σ_{fwd} and μ_{fwd} . The bins were constructed either on the contrast **c** experienced just before bout *n* or on the relative difference of intensity experienced at bout n - 1: $\delta I/I = 2\frac{I_{n-1}-I_{n-2}}{I_{n-1}+I_{n-2}}$. All distributions of θ_n and analyses of bias were computed using trajectories from bouts number

All distributions of θ_n and analyses of bias were computed using trajectories from bouts number 2 to a maximum of the median number of bouts per sequence in each type of experiment. The median number of bouts in each experiment was $med_{stereo} = 17$ for the tropotaxis experiment, and 27, 15, 17 for the klinotaxis assays for the 3 profiles 1-3, respectively.

543 Numerical simulations

544 The random walk model simulations were performed using a custom-written code in MATLAB. Initial

orientations and positions within the ROI were randomly sampled from, respectively, a uniform

distribution and a normal distribution centered on a circle of radius 20 mm from the center of the

⁵⁴⁷ ROI and a standard deviation of 1.3 mm (mimmicking the starting points of experimental data).

- 548 At each step, the walker draws a certain angular step-size from the data: either from the turning
- ⁵⁴⁹ distribution with a probability p_{turn} or from the forward distribution with a probability $1 p_{turn}$.
- s50 Respective means are μ_{turn} and μ_{fwd} and standard deviation σ_{turn} and σ_{fwd} . The direction of only
- the turns is set by the probability of flipping sides p_{flip} . For the spatially constrained simulations,
- the walker also draws a distance step-size (between two successive positions) from two different
- ₅₅₃ gamma distributions : one for the turning bouts, a second one for the scoots. Under neutral
- ⁵⁵⁴ conditions (uniform illumination), all parameters are constant.
- For simulation of stereovisual phototactic conditions, only p_{flip} changes linearly as a function of the
- sso contrast (based on the data represented in *Figure 2J*).
- ⁵⁵⁷ As for the temporal phototaxis, parameters p_{turn} and σ_{turn} were adapted as a function of the relative
- ⁵⁵⁸ illumination change $\delta I/I$ experienced at the previous steps (as represented in *Figure 3G-H*).
- ⁵⁵⁹ The simulations also account for the adaptation illumination preceding an experimental trial, prior ⁵⁶⁰ the first bout.
- 561 Competing interests
- ⁵⁶² The authors declare no competing interests.
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689 Appendix 1

Modelling spontaneous navigation of zebrafish larvae

We model the discrete trajectories (sequences of bouts) as a stochastic process using two independent Markov chains, depicted in *Figure 1E*. The *bout type* chain (top) controls the alternation between forward and turning bouts, with possible states F_n and T_n at time n, while the *side* chain (bottom) controls the left/right orientations of turning bouts, with possible states L_n and R_n . All possible states are combinations of the states of the two chains, namely $\{FL\}_n$, $\{FR\}_n$, $\{TL\}_n$, and $\{TR_n\}$. The transition rates of the bout type chain are $k_{F \to T}$ and $k_{T \to F}$, where $k_{F \to T}/k_{T \to F} = p_{turn}$ is the overall fraction of turning bouts. For the side chain, under constant uniform illumination, the right and left states are equiprobable, and the two transition probabilities are thus equal: $k_{R \to L} = k_{L \to R} = p_{flip}$.

The two chains operate synchronously: at every time step transitions on both chains are triggered simultaneously, and a reorientation value $\delta \alpha_n$ is drawn based on the resulting state. When the fish is in a turning state, $\{TL\}_n$ or $\{TR\}_n$, the reorientation angle is sampled from the positive and negative side of a centered normal distribution with standard deviation σ_{turn} for left and right turns, respectively. When the fish is in a forward state, $\{FL\}_n$ or $\{FR\}_n$, the reorientation angle is drawn from a normal distribution with standard deviation σ_{furd} . Therefore, for forward bouts the resulting $\delta \alpha_n$ can be positive or negative, irrespective of the left/right state of the side chain. Altogether, the general statistical distribution of turning amplitudes $\delta \alpha_n$ used in *Figure 1F* reads

$$P(\delta \alpha_n) = \phi_t(\delta \alpha_n) + \phi_f(\delta \alpha_n)$$
(A1)

with

$$\phi_t = p_{turn} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{turn}^2) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_f = (1 - p_{turn}) \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{fwd}^2)$$
(A2)

Mean amplitude at n + 1

Within this framework, one can analytically compute the mean square angle at time n + 1, as detailed below:

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1}^2 \right\rangle = \mathbb{P}(F_{n+1}) \sigma_{fwd}^2 + \mathbb{P}(T_{n+1}) \sigma_{twn}^2 \tag{A3}$$

The two probabilities read:

$$\mathbb{P}(F_{n+1}) = \mathbb{P}(F_n)(1 - k_{F \to T}) + \mathbb{P}(T_n)k_{T \to F}$$
$$\mathbb{P}(T_{n+1}) = \mathbb{P}(T_n)(1 - k_{T \to F}) + \mathbb{P}(F_n)k_{F \to T}$$

such that

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1}^2 \right\rangle = \mathbb{P}(F_n) \left[\sigma_{fwd}^2 + k_{F \to T} (\sigma_{lurn}^2 - \sigma_{fwd}^2) \right] + \mathbb{P}(T_n) \left[\sigma_{lurn}^2 + k_{T \to F} (\sigma_{fwd}^2 - \sigma_{lurn}^2) \right]$$

Using the functions defined in A2 we introduce the function $f(\delta \alpha_n)$:

$$f(\delta \alpha_n) = \mathbb{P}(T_n | \delta \alpha_n) = \frac{\phi_t(\delta \alpha_n)}{\phi_t(\delta \alpha_n) + \phi_f(\delta \alpha_n)}$$
(A4)

The mean square amplitude at time n + 1 can thus be written, as a function of $\delta \alpha_n$ as:

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1}^2 \right\rangle = \sigma_{fwd}^2 + k_{F \to T} (\sigma_{turn}^2 - \sigma_{fwd}^2) + f(\left| \delta \alpha_n \right|) (\sigma_{turn}^2 - \sigma_{fwd}^2) (1 - k_{T \to F} - k_{F \to T})$$
(A5)

This expression is used to fit the data in *Figure 2G* and estimate the two transition rates. These are found to be close to the ratio of turning and forward bouts, *i.e.* $k_{F \rightarrow T}/p_{turn} =$ $k_{T \to F}/(1 - pturn) \approx 0.8$. In the following, we set $k_{F \to T} = p_{turn}$ and $k_{T \to F} = 1 - p_{turn}$, thus ignoring the weak memory component in the selection of turning vs forward bouts.

Mean reorientation at n + 1

Similarly, one can compute the theoretical expression of the mean reorientation angle at time *n* + 1:

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1} \right\rangle = \mathbb{P}(\{FL\}_{n+1})\mu_f + \mathbb{P}(\{FR\}_{n+1})\mu_f + \mathbb{P}(\{TL\}_{n+1})\mu_L + \mathbb{P}(\{TR\}_{n+1})\mu_R \tag{A6}$$

with

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$$\mu_f = 0$$
 and $\mu_L = -\mu_R = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\sigma_{turn}$ (A7)

Then:

$$\mathbb{P}(\{TL\}_{n+1}) = \mathbb{P}(T_{n+1})\mathbb{P}(L_{n+1}) = p_{turn} \left[p_{flip} \mathbb{P}(R_n) + (1 - p_{flip})\mathbb{P}(L_n) \right]$$
$$\mathbb{P}(\{TR\}_{n+1}) = \mathbb{P}(T_{n+1})\mathbb{P}(R_{n+1}) = p_{turn} \left[p_{flip} \mathbb{P}(L_n) + (1 - p_{flip})\mathbb{P}(R_n) \right]$$

and

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1} \right\rangle = p_{turn} (1 - 2p_{flip}) \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \sigma_{turn} \left[\mathbb{P}(L_n) - \mathbb{P}(R_n) \right] \tag{A8}$$

Without further assumption, this simply confirms $\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1} \rangle = 0$. Given the reorientation at time *n*, this expression now writes:

$$\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1} \rangle_{|\delta \alpha_n} = p_{turn} (1 - 2p_{flip}) \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \sigma_{turn} \left[\mathbb{P}(L_n | \delta \alpha_n) - \mathbb{P}(R_n | \delta \alpha_n) \right]$$
 (A9)

Since

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(L_n|\delta\alpha_n) &= \mathbb{P}(L_n|T_n,\delta\alpha_n)\mathbb{P}(T_n|\delta\alpha_n) + \mathbb{P}(L_n|F_n,\delta\alpha_n)\mathbb{P}(F_n|\delta\alpha_n) \\ \mathbb{P}(R_n|\delta\alpha_n) &= \mathbb{P}(R_n|T_n,\delta\alpha_n)\mathbb{P}(T_n|\delta\alpha_n) + \mathbb{P}(R_n|F_n,\delta\alpha_n)\mathbb{P}(F_n|\delta\alpha_n) \end{split}$$

and

$$\mathbb{P}(L_n|F_n, \delta\alpha_n) = \mathbb{P}(R_n|F_n, \delta\alpha_n) = 1/2$$

we obtain

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1} \right\rangle_{|\delta \alpha_n} = \left[\mathbb{P}(L_n | T_n, \delta \alpha_n) - \mathbb{P}(R_n | T_n, \delta \alpha_n) \right] p_{turn} (1 - 2p_{flip}) \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \sigma_{turn} f(\delta \alpha_n)$$
(A10)

Then, noting that

$$\begin{cases} \mathbb{P}(L_n|T_n, \delta \alpha_n > 0) = 1 \\ \mathbb{P}(R_n|T_n, \delta \alpha_n > 0) = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{cases} \mathbb{P}(L_n|T_n, \delta \alpha_n < 0) = 0 \\ \mathbb{P}(R_n|T_n, \delta \alpha_n < 0) = 1 \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

we finally obtain the formula used to fit the data in Figure 1G:

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+1} \right\rangle_{|\delta \alpha_n} = sgn(\delta \alpha_n) \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} p_{turn} (1 - 2p_{flip}) \sigma_{turn} f(\delta \alpha_n)$$
 (A11)

Autocorrelation of the reorientations

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One can then compute the correlation of reorientation amplitudes, defined for $q \in \mathbb{N}^*$ as:

$$C_{q} = \frac{\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n} \delta \alpha_{n+q} \right\rangle - \left\langle \delta \alpha_{n} \right\rangle \left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+q} \right\rangle}{\sqrt{\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n}^{2} \right\rangle} \sqrt{\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+q}^{2} \right\rangle}} = \frac{\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n} \delta \alpha_{n+q} \right\rangle}{\left\langle \delta \alpha_{n}^{2} \right\rangle} \tag{A12}$$

with the normalization coefficient equal to the variance of reorientations

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_n^2 \right\rangle = p_{turn} \sigma_{turn}^2 + (1 - p_{turn}) \sigma_{fwd}^2 \tag{A13}$$

The term $\langle \delta \alpha_n \delta \alpha_{n+q} \rangle$ can be computed in a similar manner as for equation A6, but with more terms corresponding to the 16 possible combinations of states:

$\{FL\}_n, \{FL\}_{n+q}$	$\{FL\}_n, \{FR\}_{n+q}$	$\{FL\}_n, \{TL\}_{n+q}$	$\{FL\}_n, \{TR\}_{n+q}$
$\{FR\}_n, \{FL\}_{n+q}$	$\{FR\}_n, \{FR\}_{n+q}$	$\{FR\}_n, \{TL\}_{n+q}$	$\{FR\}_n, \{TR\}_{n+q}$
$\{TL\}_n, \{FL\}_{n+q}$	$\{TL\}_n, \{FR\}_{n+q}$	$\{TL\}_n, \{TL\}_{n+q}$	$\{TL\}_n, \{TR\}_{n+q}$
$\{TR\}_n, \{FL\}_{n+q}$	$\{TR\}_n, \{FR\}_{n+q}$	$\{TR\}_n, \{TL\}_{n+q}$	$\{TR\}_n, \{TR\}_{n+q}$

Only the 4 states in the bottom-right corner have a finite contribution, since all the others terms are multiplied by $\mu_f = 0$. Thus:

$$\left< \delta \alpha_n \delta \alpha_{n+q} \right> = \mathbb{P}(\{TL\}_n, \{TL\}_{n+q}) \mu_L^2 + \mathbb{P}(\{TL\}_n, \{TR\}_{n+q}) \mu_L \mu_R + \\ \mathbb{P}(\{TR\}_n, \{TL\}_{n+q}) \mu_R \mu_L + \mathbb{P}(\{TR\}_n, \{TR\}_{n+q}) \mu_R^2$$

and, using A7 and

$$\mathbb{P}(\{TL\}_{n}\{TL\}_{n+q}) = \mathbb{P}(T_{n})\mathbb{P}(T_{n+q})\mathbb{P}(L_{n})\mathbb{P}(L_{n+q}|L_{n}) = \frac{p_{turn}^{2}}{2}\mathbb{P}(L_{n+q}|L_{n})$$
$$\mathbb{P}(\{TL\}_{n}\{TR\}_{n+q}) = \mathbb{P}(T_{n})\mathbb{P}(T_{n+q})\mathbb{P}(L_{n})\mathbb{P}(R_{n+q}|L_{n}) = \frac{p_{turn}^{2}}{2}\mathbb{P}(R_{n+q}|L_{n})$$
$$\mathbb{P}(\{TR\}_{n}\{TL\}_{n+q}) = \mathbb{P}(T_{n})\mathbb{P}(T_{n+q})\mathbb{P}(R_{n})\mathbb{P}(L_{n+q}|R_{n}) = \frac{p_{turn}^{2}}{2}\mathbb{P}(L_{n+q}|R_{n})$$
$$\mathbb{P}(\{TR\}_{n}\{TR\}_{n+q}) = \mathbb{P}(T_{n})\mathbb{P}(T_{n+q})\mathbb{P}(R_{n})\mathbb{P}(R_{n+q}|R_{n}) = \frac{p_{turn}^{2}}{2}\mathbb{P}(R_{n+q}|R_{n})$$

and noting that

$$\mathbb{P}(L_{n+q}|L_n) = \mathbb{P}(R_{n+q}|R_n) = \sum_{\substack{i=1\\i \text{ odd}}}^{q+1} \binom{q}{i} p_{flip}^{i-1} (1-p_{flip})^{q-i+1}$$
$$\mathbb{P}(L_{n+q}|R_n) = \mathbb{P}(R_{n+q}|L_n) = \sum_{\substack{i=1\\i \text{ even}}}^{q+1} \binom{q}{i} p_{flip}^{i-1} (1-p_{flip})^{q-i+1}$$

one obtains

$$\left\langle \delta \alpha_n \delta \alpha_{n+q} \right\rangle = p_{turn}^2 \left[\sum_{i=1}^{q+1} (-1)^{q+1} \binom{q}{i} p_{flip}^{i-1} (1-p_{flip})^{q-i+1} \right] \mu_L^2 = \frac{2}{\pi} \left(1-2p_{flip} \right)^q p_{turn}^2 \sigma_{turn}^2$$

and finally:

$$C_q = \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{p_{turn}^2 \sigma_{turn}^2}{p_{turn} \sigma_{turn}^2 + (1 - p_{turn}) \sigma_{fwd}^2} (1 - 2p_{flip})^q$$
(A14)

This is the equation used to fit the data in *Figure 1H*.

An estimate of p_{flip} was calculated as follows. If only turns are considered :

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$$\begin{split} \left\langle \delta \alpha_{n} \delta \alpha_{n+1} \right\rangle &= p_{turn} (1 - p_{flip}) \left\langle |\delta \alpha_{n}| |\delta \alpha_{n+1}| \right\rangle - p_{turn} p_{flip} \left\langle |\delta \alpha_{n}| |\delta \alpha_{n+1}| \right\rangle \\ &= p_{turn}^{2} [(1 - 2p_{flip}) \left\langle |\delta \alpha_{n}| |\delta \alpha_{n+1}| \right\rangle] \end{split}$$

thus :

$$\frac{\left\langle \delta \alpha_n \delta \alpha_{n+1} \right\rangle}{\left\langle |\delta \alpha_n| |\delta \alpha_{n+1}| \right\rangle} = p_{turn}^2 [(1 - 2p_{flip}) = C_1]$$

And finally

$$p_{flip} = \frac{1}{2} (1 - \frac{C_1}{p_{turn}^2})$$
(2)

Mean square reorientation (MSR)

The mean square reorientation for a lag $q \in \mathbb{N}^*$ is defined by:

$$M_{q} = \left\langle \left(\alpha_{n+q} - \alpha_{n} \right)^{2} \right\rangle$$
(A15)

and can be expressed as a sum of correlations as follows:

$$\begin{split} M_q &= \left\langle \left(\sum_{i=1}^q \delta \alpha_{n+i-1} \right)^2 \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^q \sum_{j=1}^q \delta \alpha_{n+i-1} \delta \alpha_{n+j-1} \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^q \sum_{j=1}^q \left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+i-1} \delta \alpha_{n+j-1} \right\rangle \\ &= q \left\langle \delta \alpha_n^2 \right\rangle + \sum_{i=1}^q \sum_{\substack{j=1\\j \neq i}}^q \left\langle \delta \alpha_{n+i-1} \delta \alpha_{n+j-1} \right\rangle \\ &= q \left\langle \delta \alpha_n^2 \right\rangle + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{q-1} (q-i) \left\langle \delta \alpha_n \delta \alpha_{n+i} \right\rangle \\ &= \left[q + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{q-1} (q-i) C_i \right] \left\langle \delta \alpha_n^2 \right\rangle \end{split}$$

and using equation A13 we finally obtain the expression used in *Figure 11*:

$$M_{q} = \left[q + 2\sum_{i=1}^{q-1} (q-i)C_{i}\right] \left(p_{turn}\sigma_{turn}^{2} + (1-p_{turn})\sigma_{fwd}^{2}\right)$$
(A16)

870 Appendix 2

Neuronal model of the ARTR

The architecture of the ARTR neuronal model is shown in *Figure 5A*. The circuit consists of two modules selective to lefward or rightward turning. Each module receives recurrent excitatory, cross-inhibitory and sensory inputs. The firing rates of the left/right ARTR modules are governed by two differential equations:

$$\tau \dot{r_L} = -r_L + \phi(w_E r_L - w_I r_R + I_0 + I_L(t)) + \epsilon(t)$$

$$\tau \dot{r_R} = -r_R + \phi(w_E r_R - w_I r_L + I_0 + I_R(t)) + \epsilon(t)$$
 (A17)

 $r_{L,R}$ stands for the firing rate of the left (resp. the right) neuron of the ARTR. $w_E r_{L,R}$ corresponds to the recurrent excitatory current in the left (resp. the right) part of the network. $w_I r_{L,R}$ corresponds to the cross-inhibitory current coming from the contralateral side of the network. I_0 is a constant, ϵ a white noise. The function ϕ is a non-negative spiking constraint such that $\phi(x > 0) = x$, whereas $\phi(x < 0) = 0$. We fix $\tau = 100ms$, $I_0 = 20A$ and $\epsilon(t)$ is a white noise with standard deviation of 500.

And

$$I_{L}(t) = I_{light}(1 - c(t))/2$$

$$I_{R}(t) = I_{light}(1 + c(t))/2$$
(A18)

Where I_{light} is a constant, c(t) is the contrast seen by the fish.

In such a dynamical system, the self-excitation and the noise produce the rise and fall of activity in one population, while inhibition ensures that only one population can be active at a time. Qualitatively w_I controls the anticorrelation between left and right neuron activity. If w_t is too low the activity of each side of the network is independent. We fix $w_t = 7A.s$ such that the anticorrelation of the left and right signals is comparable to the one described in **Wolf et al.** (2017): -0.4. w_F controls the ability for each side of the network to have a stable activity across time longer than τ . Schematically, the dynamical system described by the **Equation A17** can have three different regimes given the values of w_F . One regime is characterized by an absence of stable activity (low w_F). Another regime sees one of the neurons of the network active forever whereas the other is silent ($w_F \sim 1$). The third regime displays an alternation of stable activity between each side of the network. The fixation time of the left or the right neuron is controlled by w_F . An intuitive metric for this fixation time is given by the shape of autocorrelation of $r_{L,R}$. We choose w_E such that the fits of the autocorrelation of $r_L - r_R$ and the orientation correlation of turning bouts by an exponential decreasing function coincides (Figure 5C and Figure 1J). For the phototactic simulated activity, we modelled the effective visual contrast seen by the fish with a linear function of the angular distance between the fish and the light source.

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Figure 2-Figure supplement 1. Evolution of the mean resultant vector length *R* projected on the direction of the virtual light source in time (bout#) for the 4 tested phototactic modalities (uniform illumination : (p1-p3) and stereo-visual constrast). The vertical lines represent the median number of bouts per sequence in each modality.



Figure 2-Figure supplement 2. Slope α of $\mu_{turn} = f(C)$, representing the bias towards the brighter side, at different bout numbers. The bias quickly drops, this can be explained by the higher variance of $\delta\theta$ during the first bouts of a sequence (change of illumination intensity) and then the selection of individuals which are not very responsive to the stimulus.



Figure 3-Figure supplement 1. Testing klinotaxis with spatially uniform illumination (orientational profiles p1-p3). Change in variance of $\delta\theta$ at bout n for two different parameters : absolute intensity I_n , absolute change in intensity $\delta I_n = I_n - I_{n-1}$ and relative change in intensity $\delta I/I = 2\frac{I_n - I_{n-1}}{I_n + I_{n-1}}$.



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	pvals									
$\delta I/I$				I				,		
-0.79	1	0.43	0.71	0.24	0.79	0.14	0.99			
-0.32	0.43	1	0.74	0.55	0.74	0.27	0.44	0.8		
-0.14	0.71	0.74	1	0.48	0.96	0.3	0.72			
0	0.24	0.55	0.48	1	0.53	0.51	0.24	0.6		
0.07	0.79	0.74	0.96	0.53	1	0.37	0.8	0.4		
0.30	0.14	0.27	0.3	0.51	0.37	1	0.14			
0.74	0.99	0.44	0.72	0.24	0.8	0.14	1	0.2		
,	.0.79	-0 ^{.32}	.0.14	0	0.07	0.30	0.74	$\delta I/I$		

Figure 3-Figure supplement 2. Upper figure : Testing klinotaxis with spatially uniform illumination (orientational profile p2). *N*=12 enucleated zebrafish larvae. No significant change in variance of $\delta\theta$ upon decrease of relative difference of intensity. Neutral conditions of control larvae represented with gray dashes. Lower figure : p_{values} of two-sample t-tests of the distributions of $< \delta\theta^2 >$ in the different bins. None of the bins has a significantly different mean value from another.



Figure 5-Figure supplement 1. Probability distribution function of the distance between two successive bouts. Fit : gamma distribution.



Figure 5-Figure supplement 2. Examples of simulated trajectories with different inter-bout intervals $\tau_n = 1$ displaying different fractal dimensions *H*. Units : mm. (A) $\tau_n = 1$ second, H = 1.5. (B) $\tau_n = 5$ seconds, H = 1.3 (C) $\tau_n = 10$ seconds, H = 1.2. Red segments represent the onset of a sequence.