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Light-activated ROS production induces synaptic autophagy

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Abstract

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The regulated turnover of synaptic vesicle (SV) proteins is thought to involve the ubiquitindependent tagging and degradation through endo-lysosomal and autophagy pathways. Yet, it remains unclear which of these pathways are used, when they become activated and whether SVs are cleared en-mass together with SV proteins or whether both are degraded selectively. Equally puzzling is how quickly these systems can be activated and whether they function in real-time to support synaptic health. To address these questions, we have developed an imaging based system that simultaneously tags presynaptic proteins while monitoring autophagy. Moreover, by tagging SV proteins with a lightactivated reactive oxygen species (ROS) generator, Supernova (SN), it was possible to temporally control the damage to specific SV proteins and assess their consequence to autophagy mediated clearance mechanisms and synaptic function. Our results show that, in mouse hippocampal neurons of either sex, presynaptic autophagy can be induced in as little as 5-10 minutes and eliminates primarily the damaged protein rather than the SV en-mass. Importantly, we also find that autophagy is essential for synaptic function, as light-activated damage to e.g. Synaptophysin only compromises synaptic function when autophagy is simultaneously blocked. These data support the concept that presynaptic boutons have a robust highly regulated clearance system to maintain not only synapse integrity, but also synaptic function.

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Significance Statement

The real-time surveillance and clearance of synaptic proteins is thought to be vital to the health, functionality and integrity of vertebrate synapses and is compromised in neurodegenerative disorders, yet the fundamental mechanisms regulating these systems remain enigmatic. Our analysis reveals that presynaptic autophagy is a critical part of a real-time clearance system at synapses capable of responding to local damage of SV proteins within minutes and to be critical for the ongoing functionality of these synapses. These data indicate that synapse autophagy is not only locally regulated but also crucial for the health and functionality of vertebrate presynaptic boutons.

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Introduction

The integrity of vertebrate synapses requires robust cellular programs that monitor the activity states of thousands of proteins, eliminating those that are mis-folded or damaged. Failure of these programs can lead to the accumulation of non-functional proteins that reduce the efficiency of synaptic transmission and promote neurodegeneration (Liang and Sigrist, 2018; Vijayan and Verstreken, 2017; Waites et al., 2013). Neurons are endowed with several surveillance and clearance systems. These include an ubiquitin based tagging system that conjugates ubiquitin chains to damaged proteins, as well as several degradative systems that, for example, eliminate soluble proteins via the proteasome or integral membrane proteins and protein aggregates via the endo-lysosomal and/or autophagy systems (Wang et al., 2017).

Given their distance from the cell soma and high metabolic demand, synapses poise a significant challenge to neurons, as they have to maintain and ensure a stable functional pool of proteins (Tammineni et al., 2017). How might this be achieved? Emerging data indicate that synapses utilize their own local machinery to eliminate proteins e.g. in response to changes in synaptic activity or homeostatic plasticity (Vijayan and Verstreken, 2017). For example, the ESCRT machinery facilitates via Rab35 the elimination of subsets of SV proteins in response to changes in synaptic activity (Sheehan et al., 2016). Moreover, specific E3 ubiquitin ligases have been associated with the selective removal of key regulators of synaptic transmission such as RIM1 (Yao et al., 2007) and Munc13 by the proteasome (Jiang et al., 2010; Yi and Ehlers, 2005). Intriguingly, two active zone proteins, Piccolo and Bassoon, have also been identified as regulators of presynaptic proteostasis, as their inactivation leads to the loss of SVs and disintegration of synaptic junctions through the activation of E3 ligases (Waites et al., 2013) and autophagy (Okerlund et al., 2017).

Although these clearance systems are anticipated to ensure functionality of synaptic proteins, it remains unclear whether some are specialized in the removal of only subsets of synaptic proteins. A growing number of studies point to the importance of autophagy not only in maintaining mitochondrial health, but also the clearance of aggregated proteins (Vijayan and Verstreken, 2017). Interestingly, in Alzheimer's disease brains, an up-regulation of autophagy has been observed (Boland et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010; Nixon et al., 2005), however, in other diseases characterized by aggregate-

prone proteins such as Parkinson's and Huntington's disease, autophagy is not engaged (Martinez-Vicente et al., 2010; Nixon, 2013; Rubinsztein et al., 2012; Spencer et al., 2009), which might contribute to the accumulation of protein aggregates and subsequent reduced neuronal survival (Ebrahimi-Fakhari et al., 2011; Nixon, 2013; Yue et al., 2009). This latter concept is supported by the analysis of Atg5 or Atg7 knockout mice, two essential autophagy-related proteins, which exhibit hallmarks of neurodegeneration (Hara et al., 2006; Komatsu et al., 2006). Defining the role of degradative systems during health and disease requires a better understanding of when and where each is turned on and which subsets of proteins they eliminate. For example, those critical for the real-time maintenance of synaptic function should be locally regulated and operating on a second to minute time scale, while those responding to chronic damage may act on longer time scales like hours. To address these fundamental questions, we have developed a strategy to selectively damage SV proteins within presynaptic boutons. This was accomplished by tethering the light-activated free radical oxygen species (ROS) generator Supernova (Takemoto et al., 2013) to different SV proteins, allowing the local light-activated ROS-mediated damage of SV proteins with a half-radius of photo-damage as small as 3-4nm (Takemoto et al., 2013).

This manipulation was found to rapidly and selectively induce presynaptic autophagy within 5 minutes and lead primarily to the elimination of damaged proteins and not SV proteins en-mass. Moreover, the selective damage of SV proteins allowed us to show that presynaptic autophagy is critical for the real-time maintenance of synaptic transmission.

Material and Methods

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Construction of vectors: Monitoring of autophagy within presynaptic boutons was achieved by creating a set of lentiviral expression vectors. All vectors are based on the commercially available vector FUGW (plasmid #14883, Addgene). In order to co-express mCherry-tagged Synaptophysin (Syp) and eGFP-LC3, Synaptophysin-mCherry (Synaptophysin, NM 012664.3) was synthesized by Eurofins Genomics with a downstream glycine linker that was fused to a self-cleaving 2A peptide (Kim et al., 2011). This element was then exchanged with GFP in the FUGW vector by ligation. Subsequently, the eGFP-LC3 (LC3, U05784.1) segment from FU-ptf-LC3 (Okerlund et al., 2017) was subcloned in frame after the P2A sequence, which resulted in the vector FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3. This vector also served as a template for tagging Synaptophysin with Supernova. Here, Supernova was synthesized by Eurofins Genomics (Supernova, AB522905) (Takemoto et al., 2013) and exchanged for mCherry forming FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3. For the simultaneous expression of a short hairpin RNA to knock down Atg5 transcripts, a U6 promoter driven shRNA cassette was cloned upstream of the ubiquitin promoter. The shRNA (5'-CCA TCT GAG CTA CCC AGA TAA TTC AAG AGA TTA TCT GGG TAG CTC AGA TTT TTG AA-3') was cloned into the vector to form F-U6-shAtg5-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3. A scrambled shRNA against rat Clathrin served as negative control (F-U6-scRNA(SC)-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3). In order to express Supernova within the lumen of SVs, we inserted Supernova cDNA sequences at residue 184 in Synaptophysin (Syp-lumSN) together with a GSG linker, by Gibson assembly (Gibson et al., 2009) followed by subcloning to create FU-Syp-lumSN-P2A-eGFP-LC3). Ligation of a PCR amplified Supernova transcript at the C-terminus of Synaptophysin and after the downstream sequence of eGFP-LC3 generated the eGFP-LC3 empty vector FU-Syp-Supernova. To monitor endo-lysosomal systems PCR amplified Rab7 (XM_005632015.2) was exchanged with LC3 in FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 by Gibson assembly creating FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-Rab7. Lentiviral vectors expressing eGFP-LC3 and either Supernova tagged Synapsin (Syn) (NM_019133) or Synaptotagmin (Syt) (NM_001252341) (FU-Syn-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 and FU-Syt-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3) were created by PCR amplification of Synapsin or Synaptotagmin from plasmid DNA (Chang et al., 2018; Waites et al., 2013) before being subjected to a Gibson assembly reaction with the purified Syp-deleted FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 vector. The vector FU-eGFP-LC3 was created by exchanging GFP in the FUGW vector with the eGFP-LC3 (LC3, U05784.1) segment from FU-ptf-LC3 (Okerlund et al., 2017). All final constructs were verified by both restriction digest and sequencing.

HeLa/HEK293 cell culture and infection: HeLa (RRID:CVCL_0030)/HEK293 (RRID:CVCL_0045) cells were maintained in DMEM complete medium (DMEM, 10% FCS, 1% P/S) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). Medium was exchanged every 2 to 4 days. HeLa/HEK293 cells were routinely passaged at 80% confluence. Cells were washed with PBS and subsequently treated with 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) for 1 min at 37°C. Trypsin was inhibited using DMEM complete medium, afterwards cells were detached from the flask, counted and re-plated at a density of 30k per 1cm² onto glass coverslips. For the autophagy induction assays, HeLa cells were infected with lentivirus (FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3) 24 hours after plating by adding 100μl per 6-well. 3 days after infection, DMEM was exchanged to EBSS medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) containing 100μM chloroquine (in H_2O , Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) for 2 hours at 37°C, in order to enhance the visualization of autophagy by blocking lysosomal degradation. Control cells were left untreated.

Immunocytochemistry of HeLa cells: Cells were fixed with 4% PFA in PBS for 4 min at RT and washed with PBS twice. All following steps were performed at RT. Cells were permeabilized by three washing steps with PBS + 0.2% Tween-20 (PBS-T) for a total of 30 min followed by incubation with PBS-T with 5% normal goat serum (NGS) (=blocking solution) for another 30 min. The primary antibody was diluted in blocking solution and cells were incubated in this solution for 45 min. The following antibodies were used: primary antibodies against LC3 (RRID: AB_2274121) (1:500; rabbit; MBL International, Woburn, USA; Cat# PM036), p62 (RRID: AB_398152) (1:200; mouse; BD, Heidelberg, Germany; Cat# 610833). Afterwards cells were washed three times in PBS-T for 10 min each. The secondary antibody, diluted in PBS-T 1:1000 (RRID: AB_141725, RRID: AB_2535813) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA), was put onto the cells for 60 min and washed away twice with PBS-T and once with PBS for 10 min each. Finally, coverslips were mounted using ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA).

Dihydroethidium assay: HEK293 cells were seeded on a μ-Slide 8 Well (ibidi GmbH, Martinsried, Germany) culture dish with a density of 30k per 1cm² and transfected one day later using X-tremeGENE 9 DNA Transfection Reagent (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) according to the manufacturers instructions. 24-48 hours after transfection, DMEM complete medium was changed and dihydroethidium (DHE) was added to a final concentration of 10μM (in DMSO, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) in DMEM complete medium. Cells were incubated with DHE for 20 min at 37°C followed by two washing steps with 37°C warm PBS. Afterwards, PBS was exchanged with warm tyrodes buffer pH 7.4 (119mM NaCl, 2.5mM KCl, 25mM HEPES, 2mM CaCl₂, 2mM MgCl₂, 30mM glucose) and live cells were imaged in a custom-built chamber before bleaching SN, immediately after bleaching SN and 15 minutes after bleaching SN.

Preparation of cultured hippocampal neurons: All procedures for experiments involving animals were approved by the animal welfare committee of Charité Medical University and the Berlin state government. For live cell imaging and immunocytochemistry, hippocampal neuron cultures from mouse WT animals (C57BL/6]) (RRID: IMSR_JAX:000664) of either sex were prepared on glass coverslips using the Banker protocol (Banker, 1988; Meberg and Miller, 2003) or on u-Slide 8 Well culture dishes (ibidi GmbH, Martinsried, Germany). For Banker cultures, astrocytes were prepared from mouse WT cortices P 0-2 and seeded on 6-well or 12-well plates at a density of 10k per 1cm² 5-7 d before the addition of neurons (see below). Neuronal cultures were prepared from hippocampi dissected from WT mice P 0-2 brains in cold Hanks' Salt Solution (Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), followed by a 30 min incubation in enzyme solution (DMEM (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA), 3.3mM Cystein, 2mM CaCl₂, 1mM EDTA, 20U/ml Papain (Worthington, Lakewood, USA)) at 37°C. Papain reaction was inhibited by the incubation of hippocampi in inhibitor solution (DMEM, 10% fetal calf serum (FCS) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA), 38mM BSA (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) and 95mM Trypsin Inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA)) for 5 min. Afterwards, cells were triturated in NBA (Neurobasal-A Medium, 2% B27, 1% Glutamax, 0.2%P/S) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) by gentle pipetting up and down. Isolated neuronal cells were plated onto nitric acid washed and poly-l-lysine coated glass coverslips with paraffin dots at a density of 10k per 1cm². After 1.5 hours the coverslips were put upside down onto the prepared astrocytes and co-cultured in NBA at 37°C, 5% CO_2 , for 13-15 days *in vitro* (DIV) before starting experiments. For cultures on multi-well culture dishes, dissociated hippocampal neurons were plated directly onto μ -Slide 8 Well Grid-500 ibiTreat culture dishes (ibidi GmbH, Martinsried, Germany) at a density of 25k per 1cm² and maintained in NBA at 37°C, 5% CO_2 , for 13-15 DIV before starting experiments.

Lentivirus production: All lentiviral particles were provided by the Viral Core Facility of the Charité - Universitätsmedizin Berlin (vcf.charite.de) and were prepared as described previously (Lois et al., 2002). Briefly, HEK293T (RRID: CVCL_0063) cells were co-transfected with 10μg of shuttle vector, 5μg of helper plasmid pCMVdR8.9, and 5μg of pVSV.G with X-tremeGENE 9 DNA transfection reagent (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). Virus containing cell culture supernatant was collected after 72 hours and filtered for purification. Aliquots were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Neurons were infected with lentivirus at 2-3 DIV.

Immunocytochemistry of hippocampal neurons: To chemically induce or inhibit autophagy, primary hippocampal neurons 13-15 DIV (that were infected with lentivirus at 2-3 DIV) were treated with 2μM rapamycin (in DMSO, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) and/or 1μM wortmannin (in DMSO, InvivoGen, San Diego, USA), respectively. Untreated cells were used as a control. After treatment, cells were fixed with 4% PFA in PBS for 4 min and washed twice with PBS (10 min each). Afterwards, cells were permeabilized with PBS + 0.2% Tween-20 (PBS-T) three times for 10 min each. Following a 30 min incubation with 5% normal goat serum (NGS) in PBS-T (=blocking solution), neurons were incubated with primary antibodies, diluted in blocking solution, for 45 min at RT. The following antibodies were used: primary antibody against p62 (RRID: AB_1279301) (1:500; rabbit; MBL International, Woburn, USA; Cat# PM045), Homer1 (RRID: AB_10549720) (1:1000; guinea pig; Synaptic Systems; Göttingen, Germany; Cat# 160004), Killerred (recognizes Supernova) (1:1000; rabbit; Evrogen, Moscow, Russia; Cat# AB961), GFP (RRID: AB_2534023) (1:1000; chicken; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA;

Cat# A10262), mCherry (RRID: AB_2571870) (1:1000; rabbit; Abcam, Cambridge, UK; Cat# ab167453), LC3 (RRID: AB_796155) (1:500; rabbit; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA; Cat# L7543), Bassoon (RRID: AB_2290619) (1:500; guinea pig; Synaptic Systems, Göttingen, Germany; Cat# 141004), Synaptotagmin1 (RRID: AB_887832) (1:1000; mouse; Synaptic Systems, Göttingen, Germany; Cat# 105011), Synaptophysin1 (RRID: AB_887824) (1:1000; mouse; Synaptic Systems, Göttingen, Germany; Cat# 101011), Synapsin1 (RRID: AB_1281135) (1:1000; rabbit; Abcam, Cambridge, UK; Cat# ab64581), Chmp2b (RRID: AB_2079471) (1:200; rabbit; Abcam, Cambridge, UK; Cat# ab33174). Afterwards cells were washed three times in PBS-T for 10 min each, incubated with the secondary antibody, diluted in PBS-T 1:1000 (RRID: AB_142924, RRID: AB_25762179, RRID: AB_141725, RRID: AB_141882, RRID: AB_10563566, RRID: AB_2535813, RRID: AB_1500630, RRID: AB_144696) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA), for 60 min and washed twice with PBS-T and once with PBS for 10 min each. Finally, coverslips were dipped in H2O and mounted in ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA).

Western Blot analyses: Cultured hippocampal neurons, either infected with lentivirus at 2-3 DIV (TD) or uninfected (UT), were grown on 6-well-plates with a density of 20k per 1cm² until 13-15 DIV. All following steps were performed at 4°C. Neurons were kept on ice and washed twice with cold PBS. Subsequently, cells were detached by mechanical force. For total lysates, isolated cells were centrifuged at 4000rpm for 10 min, resuspended in 100μl lysis buffer (50mM Tris pH 7.9, 150mM NaCl, 5mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 1% NP-40, 0.5% Deoxycholate, protease inhibitor cOmplete Tablets 1x) and incubated for 5 min on ice. Afterwards, cell suspension was centrifuged at 13000rpm for 10 min after which the supernatant was transferred into a new tube. For synaptosome suspension (and cytosol fraction) preparation, cortical or hippocampal neurons (both prepared according to *Preparation of cultured hippocampal neurons*) were treated with 2μM rapamycin for either 10 minutes or 2 hours. Next, cells were lysed in Syn-PER Synaptic Protein Extraction Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) according to the manufacturers instructions. Briefly, cells were washed with cold PBS, detached by mechanical force in 100-200μl Syn-PER Reagent and centrifuged at 1200g for 15 min. The supernatant was centrifuged at 15000g for 20 min and the cytosol fraction was collected.

Last, the synaptosome pellet was resuspended in Syn-PER Reagent. Subsequently, the protein concentration was determined using the Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). The same amount of total protein (6.5-10μg) was then separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred onto a PVDF membrane. Afterwards, the membrane was blocked in 5% milk in TBS-T (20mM Tris, 150mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween-20) for 1 hour followed by primary antibody incubation (1:1000 in 3% milk in TBS-T) over night or for 72 hours at 4°C. The following antibodies were used: primary antibody against mCherry (1:1000; rabbit; Abcam, Cambridge, UK; Cat# ab167453), Actin (RRID: AB_476693) (1:1000; rabbit; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA; Cat# A2066), Synaptophysin1 (1:1000; mouse; Synaptic Systems, Göttingen, Germany; Cat# 101011) and LC3 (1:1000; rabbit; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA; Cat# L7543). Afterwards, the membrane was washed three times with TBS-T for 10 min each and incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibody (1:2500 in 3% milk in TBS-T) (RRID: AB_772206, RRID: AB_772193) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) for 1 hour at RT. Afterwards, the membrane was washed three times with TBS-T and bands were visualized using the imaging system Fusion FX7 (Vilber, Collégien, France) using 20x LumiGLO Reagent and 20x Peroxidase (Cell Signaling, Danvers, USA).

Photobleaching primary hippocampal neurons expressing Supernova/mCherry-constructs: Primary hippocampal neurons grown in μ-Slide 8 Well Grid-500 ibiTreat (ibidi GmbH, Martinsried, Germany) culture dishes expressing Syp-Supernova, Syp-mCherry, Syp-lumSN, Syn-Supernova or Syt-Supernova cassettes were imaged at 13-15 DIV in Neurobasal Medium without phenol red (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) at 37°C. Afterwards, a smaller diaphragm restricted area within the field of view was bleached for 60 seconds using 563nm wavelength light from a mercury lamp (100% HXP 120 V, 43 HE filter set 563/581). Immediately after bleaching, a second image was taken confirming the radius of the bleached area. Subsequently, neurons were fixed at different time points (2-10 min, 56-64 min, 116-124 min) after bleaching Supernova and immunostained with antibodies against Supernova (using a Killerred antibody), mCherry, GFP, Bassoon, Synaptotagmin1, Synaptophysin1, LC3 or Chmp2b (for procedure see *Immunocytochemistry of hippocampal neurons*). To scavenge ROS, 60μM N-acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) (in DMEM, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) was added right before the

bleaching and kept on the cells until fixation. For autophagy inhibition, $1\mu M$ wortmannin was added right before the bleaching and kept on the cells till fixation. After immunostaining, the same fields of view including the bleached areas were imaged utilizing the grid on the μ -Slide 8 Well Grid-500 culture dishes.

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Basal autophagy in primary hippocampal neurons: Primary hippocampal neurons in μ-Slide 8 Well Grid-500 ibiTreat (ibidi GmbH, Martinsried, Germany) culture dishes expressing FU-eGFP-LC3 were left untreated and fixed at 13-15 DIV. Afterwards, neurons were immunostained with antibodies against GFP, Bassoon and Synaptophysin1, Synapsin1 or Synaptotagmin1 (for procedure see *Immunocytochemistry of hippocampal neurons*).

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Electron microscopy: Cultured hippocampal neurons were plated on astrocytes on carbon coated, 6mm sapphire disks at a density of 20k per 1cm² and infected with FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 at 2-3 DIV. To better correlate regions of interest at the fluorescence and electron microscopy level, carbon was coated in the shape of an alphabetical grid on sapphire disks with the help of a metal mask (finder grid, Plano GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany). After a total of 13-15 days in culture, the sapphire disks were transferred into uncoated µ-Slide 8 Well to perform the bleaching experiment (for procedure see bleaching of primary hippocampal neurons expressing Supernova-constructs). Cryo-fixation using a high pressure freezing machine (EM-ICE, Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) was conducted at different time points after bleaching (10 min, 40 min) in Neurobasal medium without phenol red with the addition of a drop of 10% Ficoll solution (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) to prevent ice crystal damage. After freezing, samples were cryo-substituted in anhydrous acetone containing 1% glutaraldehyde, 1% osmium tetroxide and 1% milliQ water in an automated freeze-substitution device (AFS2, Leica). The temperature was kept for 4 hours at -90°C, brought to -20°C (5°C/h), kept for 12 hours at -20°C and then brought from -20°C to +20°C (5°C/h). Once at room temperature, samples were en-bloc stained in 0.1% uranyl acetate in acetone, infiltrated in increasing concentration of Epoxy resin (Epon 812, EMS Adhesives, Delaware, USA) in acetone and finally embedded in pure Epon for 48 hours at 65°C. Sapphire disks were removed from the cured resin block by thermal shock. At this point the alphabetical grid was visible on the resin block and was used to find back the bleached regions. The corresponding areas were excised from the block for ultrathin sectioning. For each sapphire, as a control, an additional resin blocks was excised from the quadrant opposite to the bleached area. 50nm thick sections were obtained using an Ultracut ultramicrotome (UCT, Leica) equipped with a Ultra 45 diamond knife (Ultra 45, DiATOME, Hatfield, USA) and collected on formvar-coated 200-mesh copper grids (EMS). Sections were counterstained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate and imaged in a FEI Tecnai G20 Transmission Electron Microscope (FEI, Hillsboro, USA) operated at 80-200 keV and equipped with a Veleta 2K x 2K CCD camera (Olympus, Hamburg, Germany). Around 200 electron micrographs were collected (pixel size = 0.7nm) for each sample. Data were analyzed blindly using the ImageJ software. Double-membraned structures per presynaptic terminal were counted.

Electrophysiology: Whole cell patch-clamp recordings were performed on autaptic hippocampal neurons at 13-18 DIV. All recordings were obtained at ~25°C from neurons clamped at -70 mV with a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, USA) under the control of Clampex 10.4 software (Molecular Devices). Data were sampled at 10kHz and low-pass Bessel filtered at 3kHz. Series resistance was compensated at 70% and cells whose series resistance changed more than 25% throughout the recording session were excluded from the analysis. Neurons were immersed in standard extracellular solution consisting of 140mM NaCl, 2.4mM KCl, 10mM HEPES, 10mM glucose, 2mM CaCl₂ and 4mM MgCl₂. The borosilicate glass electrodes (3-8 M Ω) were filled with the internal solution containing 136mM KCl, 17.8mM HEPES, 1mM EGTA, 0.6mM MgCl₂, 4mM ATP-Mg, 0.3mM GTP-Na, 12mM phosphocreatine, and 50U/ml phosphocreatine kinase. All solutions were adjusted to pH 7.4 and osmolarity of ~300mOsm. Coverslips with cultured neurons were placed on Olympus IX73 microscope (Olympus, Hamburg, Germany) with 20x phase contrast objective. For Supernova bleaching, illumination from a Mercury Vapor Short Arc lamp (X-Cite 120PC Q, Excelitas Technologies, Waltham, USA) was filtered through a 560/40nm filter cube (Olympus U-FF mCherry) and controlled with a mechanical shutter. Lamp iris settings (100%) resulted in 71% bleaching of Supernova intensity (as compared to 22% of mCherry bleaching), after 60 seconds of illumination. From each neuron, 6 sweeps of EPSCs were evoked with a 2ms voltage step from -70mV to 0mV at 0.2Hz. Sixty

seconds illumination started immediately after end of 6^{th} sweep, and after 5 min of waiting a second set of EPSCs was recorded. Control condition without illumination included a 6 min waiting period. During recordings with wortmannin, $1\mu M$ wortmannin solution was applied onto the cell using a fast-flow system from the beginning of first EPSC until end of recording session. Electrophysiological data were analyzed offline using Axograph X (RRID: SCR_014284) (Axograph Scientific, Berkeley, USA), Excel (Microsoft, Redmond, USA) and GraphPad Prism (GraphPad, La Jolla, USA).

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Image acquisition and quantification: All images were acquired on a spinning disc confocal microscope (Zeiss Axio Oberserver.Z1 with Andor spinning disc and cobolt, omricron, i-beam laser) (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) (Andor, Belfast, UK) using either a 40x or 63x 1.4 NA Plan-Apochromat oil objective and an iXon ultra (Andor) camera controlled by iQ software (RRID: SCR_014461) (Andor). Images were processed using ImageI (RRID: SCR 003070) and OpenView software (written by Dr. Noam Ziv, Technion Institute, Haifa, Israel). In brief with the OpenView software, multi-channel intensities were measured using a box routine associated with individual boutons. Boxes varied between 7x7 and 9x9 pixel in size, whereas settings were kept the same (e.g. thresholds). The average intensity (synaptic proteins, eGFP-LC3 et cetera) was calculated from all picked puncta and normalized to the control (untreated or unbleached). For quantification of # of puncta, separated axons were randomly picked and the number of puncta per unit length was counted manually. For Supernova experiments, axons were selected showing no or little eGFP-LC3 staining before bleaching. All Supernova evaluations were normalized to the unbleached control. To analyze the decrease in DHE_{blue} intensity following bleaching, HEK293 cells were marked in ImageJ using the Polygon selection tool and mean intensities of the identified areas were measured. Intensities of numerous samples were averaged and plotted. Band intensities of Western Blots were analyzed with the help of ImageJ and the Analyze>Gels tool. To determine the fraction of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta positive for Syp-SN/Syn-SN/Syt-SN/Syp-lumSN/Synaptophysin1/Synapsin1/Synaptotagmin1, multi-channel images were manually scanned for eGFP-LC3 puncta within the bleached area that were not colocalizing with Bassoon. Out of these extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta, the fraction of eGFP-LC3 puncta positive for a specific synaptic protein was quantified. The fraction of extrasynaptic Syp-

SN/Syn-SN/Syt-SN/Syp-lumSN puncta positive for eGFP-LC3 was determined accordingly. For each
analysis, the following procedure was done: each experiment was performed with 2-4 independently
prepared cultures. During each Rapamycin experiment 1-2 coverslips were used. A total of 10 images
were taken from a maximum of 2 coverslips. From these, numerous synapses and up to 40 axons were
used for the analyses. For Supernova experiments, 2-4 independently prepared cultures were
bleached. During each experiment 2 wells for each time point were used. 1-2 images were taken per
time point per well leading to a total of approx. 20-30 axons and 60-250 synapses/puncta analyzed
Depicted normalized means of intensities in puncta represent the means of all analyzed
synapses/puncta per experimental condition normalized to their in-culture controls.

Experimental Design and Statistical Analyses: Statistical design for all experiments can be found in the figure legends. Independent experiments equal independent cultures. All data representations and

376 statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism (RRID: SCR_002798).

Results

Monitoring presynaptic autophagy.

The primary goal of this study is to examine how and whether the local generation of ROS around SVs triggers a synaptic clearance response that removes damaged proteins. Based on previous studies showing that elevated ROS levels around organelles such as mitochondria lead to the activation of autophagy (Ashrafi et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012; Yang and Yang, 2011), we anticipated that a similar generation of ROS around SVs may also induce a presynaptic autophagy based clearance program. Thus, while other clearance mechanisms, such as the endo-lysosomal or the proteasome system, could also be activated (see below), we initially sought to develop a live cell imaging based system that could detect changes in presynaptic autophagy, following different insults.

To achieve this goal, we initially created a lentiviral vector (FU-Syp-mCh-P2A-eGFP-LC3) that co-expresses mCherry-tagged Synaptophysin (Syp-mCh), as a presynaptic marker, and eGFP-tagged LC3, to detect autophagic vacuoles (AVs) (Figure 1A). To allow for the independent expression of Syp-mCh and eGFP-LC3, a P2A cleavage site was placed between the two coding sequences (Figure 1A). P2A is a highly efficient "self-cleaving" small peptide derived from porcine teschovirus-1 leading to posttranslational cleavage of the initially transcribed fusion protein (Kim et al., 2011). The vector was tested in a number of different assays. First, it was lentivirally transduced into Hela cells, where Syp-mCh and eGFP-LC3 both exhibited a largely diffuse cytoplasmic distribution (Figure 1B). The addition of 100µM chloroquine that impedes autophagic flux blocking lysosomal degradation (Galluzzi et al., 2016; Klionsky et al., 2012; Mauthe et al., 2018), resulted in a redistribution of eGFP-LC3 into a punctate pattern that colocalizes with total LC3 (endo- and exogenously expressed) and the autophagophore marker p62 (Johansen, 2011) (Figure 1B). However, Syp-mCh retained its diffuse cytosolic pattern and was not recruited into AVs (Figure 1B). These data indicate not only that the P2A site is efficiently cleaved, but also that eGFP-LC3 reliably reports the formation of AVs as previously reported (Klionsky et al., 2012; Mizushima et al., 2010; Okerlund et al., 2017).

In a second set of experiments, we examined whether Syp-mCh faithfully labeled presynaptic sites. Here, dissociated cultures of hippocampal neurons were infected to 30% with our lentiviral vector (FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3) at 2-3 days *in vitro* (DIV) and analyzed by

immunocytochemistry at 13-15 DIV. Immunostaining of fixed cultures with antibodies to the postsynaptic density (PSD) protein Homer1 revealed that Syp-mCh forms puncta along the cell somas and dendrites of uninfected cells that colocalize with Homer1 puncta (Figure 1D), consistent with the presynaptic localization of other XFP-tagged Synaptophysin as reported previously (Li et al., 2010). A comparison of Syp-mCh and eGFP-LC3 signals in primary hippocampal neurons during live cell imaging reveals that a small fraction (~10%) of the Syp-mCh positive puncta colocalizes with eGFP-LC3 positive puncta (Figure 1C). The minimal colocalization suggests that the P2A site is functioning properly to uncouple these two proteins. This concept is further supported by Western Blots of cellular lysates of infected hippocampal neurons stained with a mCherry antibody. Here, greater than 95% of the immunoreactivity is present in the 70kDa Syp-mCh band versus the uncleaved 120kDa Syp-mCh-P2A-eGFP-LC3 band (Figure 1E), supporting the conclusion that once expressed in neurons each reporter is free to operate independently.

In a third set of experiments, we examined how the induction of autophagy with 2µM of the mTOR inhibitor rapamycin (Boland et al., 2008; Hernandez et al., 2012; Spilman et al., 2010) affected the distribution of eGFP-LC3 relative to Syp-mCh in neurons. Initially, rapamycin was added to sparsely FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 expressing hippocampal cultures (13-15 DIV) for 2 hours, as most previous studies had shown that this condition can induce autophagy in neurons (Hernandez et al., 2012). To identify 'synaptic' changes in eGFP-LC3 levels, we analyzed the average intensities of eGFP-LC3 puncta that colocalized with Syp-mCh puncta in fixed neurons. This revealed a modest (36%) but significant increase in eGFP-LC3 intensities within presynaptic boutons compared to untreated control neurons (Figure 1F and I). Monitoring the number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit length of axon revealed that 2 hours of rapamycin treatment significantly increased the number of eGFP-LC3 puncta present in axons compared to non-treated control neurons (Figure 1F and J). These data are consistent with the concept that rapamycin can induce the formation of autophagosomes/AVs in hippocampal axons. However, given that vesicular transport is quite rapid, it is unclear whether during the 2-hour period the newly formed AVs arose at synapses and dispersed into the axons and/or were generated within axons and then accumulate within presynaptic boutons. We thus explored whether AVs would appear in as little as 10 minutes following the addition of rapamycin. Surprisingly, we found that not

only did eGFP-LC3 puncta appear in axons during this short period of induction (Figure 1G and L), but eGFP-LC3 intensity was dramatically increased within presynaptic boutons marked with Syp-mCh (Figure 1G and K). Importantly, we also found that appearing eGFP-LC3 puncta were positive for the autophagy cargo receptor p62 (Johansen, 2011) (Figure 1H and M), suggesting that they are indeed autophagosomes and are forming locally within presynaptic boutons. To further explore whether the observed rapamycin-induced AV formation at synapses is induced via the canonical autophagy pathway, which includes the PI3K Vps34 (Lilienbaum, 2013; Rubinsztein et al., 2012), we included 1µM wortmannin, a general PI3K inhibitor (Carpenter and Cantley, 1996; Klionsky et al., 2012), together with rapamycin during the 10 minutes incubation period. This manipulation abolished the accumulation of eGFP-LC3 puncta in both presynaptic boutons (marked with Syp-mCh) (Figure 1N and O) and along axons (Figure 1N and P). Taken together these data indicate that the machinery necessary for the rapid generation of AVs is located within or very near to presynaptic boutons and can be triggered by a PI3K-dependent pathway.

To corroborate the novel finding that rapamycin induces synaptic autophagy within 10 minutes (Figure 1K), cortical and hippocampal neurons were treated with 2µM rapamycin for either 10 minutes or 2 hours and subsequently lysed and prepared for Western Blot analyses. In order to quantify predominantly synaptic autophagy, synaptosomes (synaptosome suspension) were enriched leading to a strong Synaptophysin signal compared to the cytosol fraction (Figure 2A). The soluble form of LC3 is defined as LC3-I, LC3 that is conjugated to the autophagosome is defined as LC3-II. Thus, LC3-II is an excellent marker to monitor autophagy (Fleming et al., 2011; Mizushima et al., 2010; Satoo et al., 2009). In our Western Blot experiments, both LC3-I and LC3-II bands were increased after 10 minutes of rapamycin treatment in cortical (Figure 2A and C) and hippocampal neurons (Figure 2B and E) compared to untreated control cells. However, the increase in LC3-II is higher in hippocampal neurons than in cortical neurons indicating that hippocampal neurons are more sensitive to rapamycin-dependent autophagy induction. After a 2-hour treatment of rapamycin, LC3-I and LC3-II levels are still elevated in both cortical (Figure 2A and D) as well as hippocampal (data not shown) neurons. Together, these observations support our conclusion that synaptic autophagy can be induced by rapamycin treatment within a short minute time frame.

Light-activated ROS generation triggers presynaptic autophagy.

The ability of rapamycin to induce presynaptic autophagy within 10 minutes strongly suggests that presynaptic boutons contain local clearance mechanisms, such as autophagy, that could in principle deal with locally damaged proteins in real-time. As a direct test of this hypothesis, we explored whether the real-time damage of SV proteins via the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Takemoto et al., 2013) could also trigger the rapid clearance of these molecules via, e.g. autophagy. To accomplish this goal, we made use of a molecular variant of GFP called Supernova, a monomeric version of KillerRed (Bulina et al., 2006), previously shown to generate ROS following its excitation with 550-590nm light (Takemoto et al., 2013). As other photosensitizers, short-lived ROS generated by Supernova are expected to damage proteins within 1-4nm of the source (Linden et al., 1992; Takemoto et al., 2013). Thus to restrict the actions of the ROS to SVs, we initially fused Supernova to the short cytoplasmic tail of the SV protein Synaptophysin (creating Synaptophysin-Supernova; Syp-SN). This was then subcloned and co-expressed with eGFP-LC3 via our lentiviral vector (FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3) (Figure 3A) (see also Figure 9A).

As with the FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 vector, we then verified that both the Syp-SN and eGFP-LC3 portions of the vector were expressed and processed. We also verified that the eGFP-LC3 segment was recruited to p62 positive AVs in HeLa cells treated with chloroquine and that Syp-SN properly localized at Homer1 positive synapses as Syp-mCh (data not shown). Moreover, we confirmed in Hela cells that 80% of the Supernova fluorescence could be photobleached during a 60 seconds exposure of 563nm wavelength light from a mercury lamp.

To explore whether bleaching of Syp-SN can induce presynaptic autophagy, primary hippocampal neurons grown on μ -Slide 8 Well culture dishes were sparsely infected with FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 lentivirus at 2-3 DIV. Around 14 DIV, they were transferred to a spinning disc confocal microscope equipped with a temperature controlled live cell imaging chamber. Prior to bleaching selected fields of view, axons from infected neurons growing on top of uninfected neurons were selected and imaged during excitation with a 491nm (for the eGFP-LC3 signal) and a 561nm laser (for the Syp-SN signal). Subsequently, a subregion, selected with a field diaphragm, was bleached by

exposing cells to 563nm light from a mercury lamp for 60 seconds (Figure 3B), a condition found to bleach approximately 80% of the initial fluorescence. Cultures were fixed 5-120 minutes post bleaching and immunostained with antibodies against GFP and Supernova, allowing the post-hoc identification of synapses within and outside of the bleached area and the levels and redistribution of eGFP-LC3. Comparing the intensity of eGFP-LC3 at Syp-SN positive puncta within and outside the bleached area revealed a significant increase in synaptic eGFP-LC3 intensity in the bleached area within 5 minutes of initial bleaching (Figure 3C and F). However, at that time point, the number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per axon unit length is not changed compared to the unbleached control (Figure 3C and G). Similarly, 1 hour after bleaching, eGFP-LC3 levels are still elevated in Syp-SN positive synapses inside the bleached area compared to outside, with only a modest increase in the number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit length of axon (Figure 3D, H and I). Intriguingly, 2 hours after triggering ROS production, eGFP-LC3 levels remain somewhat elevated at Syp-SN positive synapses, and dramatically accumulated as small puncta along axons inside the bleached area (Figure 3E, J and K) compared to those outside. These latter data imply that the synaptic increase in ROS rapidly induces presynaptic autophagy and that subsequent flux carries the autophagosomal membranes into axons.

Although bleaching of Supernova is described to coincide with ROS generation (Jarvela and Linstedt, 2014), we additionally made use of the superoxide indicator dihydroethidium (DHE) to monitor for ROS production (Figure 4A and B). DHE exhibits blue light in the cytoplasm. In the presence of superoxides, DHE intercalates with the DNA and emits red light from the nucleus. This redistribution causes the blue fluorescence in the cytoplasm to drop upon ROS production, which is used as a measure of superoxide generation. Bleaching FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 transfected HEK293 cells incubated with DHE shows a significantly higher decrease in DHE_{blue} intensity compared to bleaching FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 transfected and untransfected (UT) control cells (Figure 4A and B) confirming superoxide generation after Supernova bleaching, as previously shown (Takemoto et al., 2013). Note that DHE_{blue} intensity also decreases in the presence of FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 compared to UT control cells indicating that already bleaching mCherry leads to the production of ROS, however not as efficient as Supernova (Figure 4B). Thus, we further investigated the capability of mCherry bleaching mediated ROS production to induce synaptic autophagy.

Intriguingly, Syp-mCh puncta show increased eGFP-LC3 levels compared to unbleached control boutons 1 hour after bleaching (Figure 4C). However, eGFP-LC3 levels after Syp-SN bleaching are significantly higher than after Syp-mCh bleaching (Figure 4C, D and F). Furthermore, 60µM of the ROS scavenger N-acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC), added to FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 infected cells before bleaching, diminishes, although not statistically significant, the earlier observed increase in eGFP-LC3 intensities at synapses (Figure 4D, E and F). These data indicate that Supernova is a potent ROS generator and that the rapid induction of synaptic autophagy is caused by a light-activated local increase of ROS near SVs.

To rule out that increased eGFP-LC3 levels after Syp-SN bleaching are simply caused by the slight overexpression of LC3 (eGFP-LC3), we also measured endogenous LC3 levels after bleaching in neurons only expressing FU-Syp-Supernova (Figure 5A). In accordance with our previous findings (Figure 3), Syp-SN bleaching leads to a rapid increase in endogenous LC3 intensities at presynaptic boutons identified through the presence of Bassoon within minutes (Figure 5B and E) and LC3 levels remain elevated for additional 2 hours (Figure 5C, D, F, G). Both data with endogenous LC3 as well as eGFP-LC3 confirm that local light-activated ROS production can induce synaptic autophagy within a short time period as quick as 5 minutes. This is in line with our observation that rapamycin can induce autophagy within 10 minutes (Figure 1).

ROS-induced synaptic autophagy is PI3K- and Atg5-dependent.

To investigate whether the observed ROS-induced elevation of eGFP-LC3 is dependent on the canonical PI3K/Vps34 autophagy pathway, 1µM wortmannin was added to neurons before bleaching Syp-SN and maintained in the culture for the following 2 hours, after which neurons were fixed and analyzed. In cells that were not treated with wortmannin, eGFP-LC3 intensity within presynaptic boutons as well as the number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit length of axon remained elevated (Figure 6A, C and D) compared to the unbleached control. In contrast, the inclusion of wortmannin was found to inhibit the light-activated increase in eGFP-LC3 intensity within presynaptic boutons (Figure 6B and E), but had no effect on the number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit length of axon (Figure 6B and F). These data indicate that the ROS-induced increase in presynaptic autophagy may be dependent on the

PI3K signaling pathway, while autophagy within axons is not. Note that while most of the Syp-SN is synaptic (data not shown), extrasynaptic pools are likely present, presumably engaged in the active transport within mobile pools of SVs (Cohen et al., 2013; Maas et al., 2012; Tsuriel et al., 2006). Photobleaching damage of this pool could thus contribute to a PI3K-independent form of axonal autophagy in axons, as already described for other cell types (Chu et al., 2007; Lemasters, 2014; Zhu et al., 2007).

Additionally, given the caveat that wortmannin is not a selective inhibitor for Vps34 (Bain et al., 2007), we made use of a knock down approach using an shRNA against the autophagy-related protein Atg5 (shAtg5) to inhibit autophagy. To ensure co-expression of Syp-SN, eGFP-LC3 and the shRNA, an U6 promoter and the small hairpin RNA were integrated upstream into the vector FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 (F-U6-shAtg5-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3). A scrambled shRNA (scRNA/SC) served as a control (F-U6-scRNA(SC)-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3). Strikingly, neurons expressing the scRNA depict increased eGFP-LC3 levels at Syp-SN puncta as well as an increased number of eGFP-LC3 puncta along axon segments 2 hours after bleaching (Figure 6G, I and J), thus resembling earlier outcomes (Figure 6A, C and D). However, when shAtg5 is additionally expressed in neurons, its presence inhibits the light-activated increase of synaptic eGFP-LC3 and the number of eGFP-LC3 puncta (Figure 6H, K and L). These data confirm that ROS-induced eGFP-LC3 accumulation is dependent on canonical autophagy initiation.

ROS-induced damage to Synaptophysin promotes AV formation.

The appearance of eGFP-LC3 positive puncta within the axons and presynaptic boutons of Synaptophysin-Supernova expressing cells following photobleaching suggests that this insult induces the autophagic clearance of damaged SVs and their proteins. To formally test this hypothesis, we performed transmission electron microscopy of FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 expressing hippocampal neurons. Infected neurons grown on sapphire disks were photobleached with 563nm light from a mercury lamp for 60 seconds. Similar to our live imaging experiments, a field diaphragm was used to create bleached and unbleached regions on the same sapphire disk before high pressure freezing and further processing for EM. The number of double-membraned organelles (autophagic

vacuoles = AVs) within presynaptic boutons or SVs containing axonal varicosities were then quantified as performed previously (Okerlund et al., 2017) (Figure 7A). Consistent with our light level studies (Figure 3F), significantly more AVs per presynaptic terminal were observed 10 minutes after light-activated Synaptophysin damage within the bleached area compared to the unbleached area (Figure 7C and D). Images analyzed ~40 minutes after bleaching revealed a slight but non-significant increase in AVs/terminal (Figure 7F and G). These data indicate that most newly formed autophagosomes leave the synapse.

Conceptually, local ROS-induced damage of synaptic proteins could induce not only autophagy but also other degradative pathways such as the endo-lysosomal system. One hallmark of the endolysosomal system is the appearance of multivesicular bodies (MVBs) (Ceccarelli et al., 1973; Raiborg and Stenmark, 2009). We thus examined whether the light-activated damage of Synaptophysin also induces the endo-lysosomal pathway by quantifying the presence of synaptic MVBs within photobleached presynaptic boutons by EM (Figure 7B). Intriguingly, no change in their number was observed at either 10 or 40 minutes after photobleaching compared to unbleached boutons (Figure 7E and H), indicating that the ROS-mediated damage of Synaptophysin primarily triggers the activation of autophagy. To confirm this observation, we also monitored whether markers of the endo-lysosomal pathway accumulated in presynaptic boutons following light-activated damage of Synaptophysin. Strikingly, level of the late endosome marker Rab7 are increased at presynaptic boutons 5 minutes after bleaching (Figure 8B and E), and stay elevated compared to the unbleached control for at least 2 more hours (Figure 8E, G and I). Since Rab7 is also abundant on autophagosomes, we stained for another, more specific, MVB marker Chmp2b, which is part of the ESCRT-III complex (Vingtdeux et al., 2012). Interestingly, Chmp2b also accumulates at boutons 1 hour after bleaching (Figure 8C and H). These observations indicate that ROS-mediated damage to Synaptophysin/SVs may also engage other degradative pathways such as the endo-lysosomal system.

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ROS-induced damage to several presynaptic proteins induces presynaptic autophagy.

As ROS generated by illuminating Supernova is anticipated to damage proteins only within 1-4nm of the sources (Jacobson et al., 2008; Takemoto et al., 2013), it seems reasonable to predict that the

induction of presynaptic autophagy is linked to the damage of proteins, which are then sorted and gathered into the interior of the newly forming autophagophore membrane. If true, the damage to other presynaptic proteins should also lead to the induction of autophagy (Figure 9A).

To test this hypothesis, we coupled Supernova to two additional SV proteins, Synaptotagmin (Syt), an integral membrane protein with a long cytoplasmic tail (Chapman, 2002; Hilfiker et al., 1999), and Synapsin (Syn), a larger cytosolic protein (Figure 9A) that dynamically associates with the outer surface of SVs in an activity-dependent manner (Chi et al., 2001; Waites and Garner, 2011). To permit the simultaneous detection of presynaptic autophagy, we co-expressed Syt-SN or Syn-SN with eGFP-LC3 via our lentiviral vector (FU-Syt-SN-P2A-eGFP-LC3; FU-Syn-SN-P2A-eGFP-LC3). In control experiments, we confirmed that both Syt-SN and Syn-SN and eGFP-LC3 were appropriately processed and that Syt-SN and Syn-SN retained their ability to become selectively localized to presynaptic boutons (data not shown). As described above for Syp-SN, neurons infected at 2-3 DIV were bleached at 13-15 DIV for 60 seconds and the intensity of eGFP-LC3 within presynaptic boutons quantified. Interestingly, eGFP-LC3 intensity in Syt-SN and Syn-SN puncta as well as the number of eGFP-LC3 puncta along axons did not change within 5 minutes of photobleaching (Figure 9B, E, H and K) compared to unbleached boutons. However, 1 hour after light-activated damage to either Synaptotagmin or Synapsin, eGFP-LC3 intensity significantly increased within presynaptic boutons immuno-positive for Syt-SN (Figure 9C and F) and Syn-SN (Figure 9I and L). When fixed 2 hours after ROS production, eGFP-LC3 levels remained slightly elevated at bleached Syn-SN positive synapses (Figure 9J and M), but returned to unbleached levels in Syt-SN positive synapses (Figure 9D and G). Taken together, these data indicate that, as Synaptophysin, the local ROS-mediated damage to Synaptotagmin and the SV-associated protein Synapsin can induce presynaptic autophagy, albeit at attenuated slower rates. These data indicate that the induction of presynaptic autophagy is tightly coupled to ROS damage to synaptic proteins, and thus associated with the normal clearance of misfolded or damaged proteins.

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Supernova-tagged proteins are more abundant in ROS-induced autophagy organelles than endogenous SV proteins.

To date several studies have demonstrated that autophagosomes form in axons upon starvation, rapamycin treatment as well as enhanced synaptic activity (Maday and Holzbaur, 2014; Wang et al., 2015) and become retrogradely transported along the axon towards the soma (Cheng et al., 2015a; Maday et al., 2012). An unresolved question is which synaptic proteins become associated with autophagic cargos. A related question is whether presynaptic autophagy leads to the en-mass removal of SVs or whether it can selectively scavenge damaged proteins. Our ability to damage SV proteins with light and induce autophagy provides a unique opportunity to explore these questions. In an initial experiment, we examined whether Syp-SN appears in extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 positive puncta following light-activated ROS production. To distinguish between synaptic and extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 organelles, cultures were fixed and stained with antibodies against the presynaptic active zone protein Bassoon and quantified for the fraction of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta negative for Bassoon but positive for synaptic proteins 1 hour after bleaching.

In experiments with Syp-SN, we observed that more than 70% of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta (also referred to as autophagy cargo organelles) are positive for Syp-SN (Figure 10A and D). This suggests that ROS-damaged Syp-SN is indeed a cargo of these organelles. To investigate whether the presence of Syp-SN in autophagy cargo organelles represents the en-mass engulfment of SVs or the selective removal of this damaged protein, we monitored the distribution of endogenous Synaptotagmin1 (Syt1) within the same neurons, a second core constituent of SVs, in extrasynaptic autophagy organelles following light-induced damage to Syp-SN. As Synaptotagmin1 is not known to directly interact with Synaptophysin, we reasoned that the ROS-mediated damage to Syp-SN would not necessarily damage Synaptotagmin on the same SV. Interestingly, the fraction of extrasynaptic autophagy organelles that are positive for Synaptotagmin1 (Syt1) is dramatically smaller than the fraction of Syp-SN positive autophagy cargo organelles (Figure 10A and D).

To confirm the selectivity of autophagic cargo after Supernova-induced damage, we performed the experiment vice versa and quantified the fraction of Syt-SN positive extrasynaptic autophagy cargo organelles 1 hour after bleaching. As with Syp-SN, more than 65% of the extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta colocalized with Syt-SN, while only 18% of the endogenous Synaptophysin1 (Syp1) was

present at these sites (Figure 10B and E). These data indicate that the autophagic machinery within presynaptic boutons can detect and selectively remove damaged SV proteins.

The selectivity of the autophagic cargo points towards a selective tagging of the damaged Supernova fusion protein. This tagging likely happens at the cytoplasmic side of the SVs as this is where the degradation machinery is located. To test this hypothesis, we fused Supernova to Synaptophysin between the third and fourth transmembrane domain resulting in a luminal Supernova (FU-Syp-lumSN-P2A-eGFP-LC3). Here, we did not observe an accumulation of eGFP-LC3 at bleached Syp-lumSN positive boutons (data not shown). Intriguingly, the fraction of Syp-lumSN positive extrasynaptic autophagy cargo organelles is very low (Figure 10C an F) compared to Syp-SN (Figure 10D) indicating that bleached Syp-lumSN does not become cargo of autophagy organelles after ROS-induced autophagy.

The low but significant presence of endogenous Synaptophysin1 and Synaptotagmin1 in eGFP-LC3 puncta could arise either from the peripheral damage of ROS or be part of the basal flux of these proteins through this pathway. We thus examined whether under basal conditions endogenous Synaptophysin1 and Synaptotagmin1 versus Synapsin1 associate with extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta. Here, we observed that higher levels of both endogenous Synaptophysin1 and Synaptotagmin1 were found at extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta compared to Synapsin1 (Figure 10G and H). These data indicate that these former SV proteins may be cleared through this degradative pathway also under basal conditions. Additionally, these data indicate that autophagy plays a minor role in the clearance of Synapsin1.

Synaptic autophagy acts as a beneficial surveillance mechanism maintaining synapse function.

A fundamental question within the synaptic proteostasis field is what roles do different clearance systems play during synaptic transmission. Most studies to date on autophagy rely either on the analysis of genetic ablation and inactivation of key autophagic proteins (Atg5 and Atg7) (Rubinsztein et al., 2011; Russell et al., 2014) or the activation of autophagy with drugs like rapamycin, none of which are specific for the synapse and generally trigger a homeostatic response from other systems masking a specific role of autophagy in the system. Having shown that light-activated ROS production

can be used to rapidly (5 minutes) trigger the autophagic clearance of selectively damaged SV proteins, we were keen to explore whether presynaptic autophagy contributes to the real-time maintenance of synaptic function.

We therefore performed electrophysiological experiments. EPSC amplitudes were recorded from autaptic neurons, infected with FU-Syp-SN-P2A-eGFP-LC3 lentivirus at 2-3 DIV, at 13-18 DIV. Interestingly, bleaching alone did not robustly change the ESPC amplitude (Figure 11A and D) and neither did treatment with 1µM wortmannin without bleaching (Figure 11B and D). However, under autophagy inhibition with 1µM wortmannin light-activated ROS production leads to a significant decrease in EPSC amplitudes (Figure 11C and D). A similar effect could be observed when autophagy was inhibited by knocking down Atg5. Intriguingly, neurons expressing shRNA against Atg5 (shAtg5) alone did not show an altered EPSC amplitude (Figure 11F and H) indicating that basal autophagy is not necessary for synapse function. However, challenging the system through the light-activated ROS production leads to a significant decrease of the EPSC amplitude in neurons expressing shAtg5 (Figure 11G and H) but not in neurons expressing scrambled shRNA (Figure 11E and H). Together these data nicely support the hypothesis that autophagy can play a real-time role in the maintenance of synaptic transmission helping the synaptic terminals to cope with protein damaging insults.

Discussion

Mechanisms regulating quality control and turnover of synaptic proteins are fundamental to synapse integrity, however, they are not well understood. In this study, we provide evidence that autophagy can be rapidly induced within presynaptic boutons either by rapamycin or by the selective damage of SV proteins through superoxides. The time range of autophagy induction is consistent with the concept that the machinery is maintained and regulated within presynaptic boutons. Our data also suggest a real-time role for autophagy in maintaining synaptic function, as without it the accumulation of damaged SV proteins can compromise synaptic transmission.

A prerequisite for a real-time functionality for autophagy within presynaptic boutons is its activation on short time scales after insults that damage presynaptic proteins. Studies show that autophagic organelles appear within axons and presynaptic boutons 3-7 hours following the addition of rapamycin (Hernandez et al., 2012) or 48 hours after treatment with Sonic Hedgehog (Petralia et al., 2013). A high potassium stimulus also increased the appearance of LC3-positive puncta within tens of minutes in axons (Wang et al., 2015) and dendritic spines (Shehata et al., 2012) indicating that the autophagic machinery can be activated within different neuronal compartments. Mechanistically, Bassoon, as well as presynaptic proteins like Rab26 and Endophilin A have been functionally linked to autophagy (Binotti et al., 2015; Okerlund et al., 2017; Soukup et al., 2016; Vanhauwaert et al., 2017) of which Atg5, Atg16, LC3 and p62 have been localized to presynaptic boutons (Okerlund et al., 2017). However, as autophagosomes are highly mobile (Cheng et al., 2015b; Maday et al., 2012), it remains unclear whether they arise within boutons or simply accumulate there.

In the current study, we developed a lentiviral vector, expressing a SV protein and the autophagy marker LC3 to monitor autophagic structures in real-time. Similar to earlier studies (Hernandez et al., 2012), we observed low basal autophagy levels within axons (Figure 1F). However, eGFP-LC3 levels increase within 10 minutes within presynaptic boutons and axons following 2μ M rapamycin treatment (Figure 1G, K and L). The rapid LC3 increase seen on the light microscopy level could also be seen in Western Blot analyses using synaptosomes (Figure 2E). Synaptic eGFP-LC3 accumulation appears to be due to elevated autophagy as its increase was blocked by 1μ M wortmannin and Atg5 knock down (Figure 1N-P, Figure 6K and L) (Codogno et al., 2011; Mizushima et al., 2011).

Although the induction of presynaptic autophagy is faster than previously recognized, the addition of rapamycin is neither specific for any one neuronal compartment, nor a natural inducer of autophagy (Deng et al., 2017). Therefore we developed a vector system that allows us to generate a spatiotemporally controlled insult within presynaptic boutons. Here, we made use of the fact that free radicals trigger the damage of proteins *in vivo* (Jarvela and Linstedt, 2014) and tagged synaptic proteins with the genetically encoded photosensitizer Supernova (Takemoto et al., 2013). With similar approaches, it has been possible to acutely damage mitochondria and induce mitophagy (Ashrafi et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012; Yang and Yang, 2011).

ROS-induced damage of Synaptophysin led to a rapid induction of autophagy, indicated by the accumulation of eGFP-LC3 within presynaptic boutons within 5 minutes and its spread into axons over time (1-2 hours) (Figure 3I and K). The fast temporal accumulation of LC3 in boutons was also observed for autophagic vacuoles, as detected by electron microscopy (Figure 7D). These data indicate that the autophagy machinery is present within presynaptic terminals and can be engaged following a local insult to SV proteins within minutes.

A fundamental question raised by our study is whether ROS damage to SV proteins exclusively turns on autophagy as the clearance mechanism or multiple protein degradation systems. The endolysosomal system has been reported to also clear SV proteins in response to ongoing synaptic activity (Sheehan et al., 2016; Uytterhoeven et al., 2011). One hallmark of this pathway is the appearance of multivesicular bodies (MVBs) (Raiborg and Stenmark, 2009). We failed to observe an increase in the number of synaptic MVBs on electron microscopy level (Figure 7E and H), indicating that in contrast to autophagy, the endo-lysosomal system is not robustly engaged by ROS-mediated protein damage. However, monitoring Rab7 and Chmp2b levels (Sheehan et al., 2016; Stenmark, 2009) by light microscopy, we did observe a modest increase in their colocalization with Synaptophysin-SN, following ROS production (Figure 8). Thus we cannot presently rule out that ROS-mediated damage to SV proteins can also trigger the activation of several degradative systems. Interestingly, Sheehan et al. (2016) show that only a subset of SV proteins are preferentially degraded by the endo-lysosomal system, highlighting the importance to address in the future if distinct SV proteins are degraded via specific and therefore separate pathways and how they are being tagged.

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Our data indicate that autophagy induction is not solely dependent on the damage of Synaptophysin, as the destruction of Synaptotagmin as well as Synapsin also leads to elevated autophagy levels at presynapses (Figure 9). However, for Synaptotagmin-SN and Synapsin-SN eGFP-LC3 levels increased with a slower time course (~1 hour) (Figure 9). The discrepancy could be due to differences in what fraction of SV proteins are damaged by ROS, a situation that would be influenced by the relative abundance of the Supernova-tagged proteins and/or the number of juxtaposed SV proteins that are additionally damaged by ROS. Interestingly, Synaptophysin has the highest copy number per SV compared to Synaptotagmin and Synapsin (Takamori et al., 2006). Future studies could help resolve this issue and/or whether some SV proteins are more directly linked to the induction of synaptic autophagy.

An additional question raised by our study is whether the clearance mechanisms triggered by ROS-mediated damage lead to the selective removal of only the damaged SV protein or the elimination of the entire SV. Indeed, about 70% of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta were also positive for Synaptophysin-SN following ROS-mediated damage (Figure 10D). Intriguingly, a much smaller fraction (18%) of these puncta were also positive for endogenous SV protein Synaptotagmin, which does not directly interact with Synaptophysin (Bonanomi et al., 2007; Rizzoli, 2014). These data suggest that presynaptic autophagy can specifically remove damaged SV proteins from synapses. This concept is supported by a reciprocal experiment performed with neurons expressing Synaptotagmin-SN. Here, we also observed a dramatic recruitment of Synaptotagmin-SN into extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta, but only modest levels of endogenous Synaptophysin (Figure 10E), implying that ROS-mediated damage caused by Supernova is rather limited and primarily affects juxtaposed proteins, a concept consistent with the low quantum yield of Supernova (Shu et al., 2011; Trewin et al., 2018) and the limited damage half-radius of 3-4nm (Takemoto et al., 2013). Importantly, the inability of photobleaching luminally localized Supernova to trigger the sorting of Syp-lumSN into autophagy organelles (Figure 10F) indicates that ROS damage has to occur on the cytoplasm face of SV proteins to be recognizable for the autophagic machinery. Conceptually, a selective removal model also makes metabolic sense, as it would allow for the differential removal of specific mis-folded or damaged proteins, consistent with different half-lives of SV proteins (Cohen et al., 2013). Although the

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mechanism of selective removal remains unclear, we hypothesize that SV proteins are directly removed from SVs or that their removal is dependent on an intermediary endosomal sorting step. Further studies will be necessary to discriminate between these options.

The rapid induction of presynaptic autophagy within minutes suggests that autophagy possibly has real-time functions at synapses, e.g. helping to maintain synaptic health and integrity. Studies by Lin et al. (2013) showed that tagging Synaptophysin with miniSOG leads to a real-time disruption of neurotransmitter release following light activation. In contrast, in our experiments with Synaptophysin-SN, we did not observe an overt change in synaptic function, assessed by the evoked release of neurotransmitter following light-activated ROS production (Figure 11). This suggests that protein damage caused by Synaptophysin-Supernova radiation is less potent than that induced with miniSOG-Synaptophysin. Intriguingly, when the induction of autophagy was blocked during ROSmediated damage of Synaptophysin-SN, the evoked EPSC amplitudes were reduced (Figure 11), indicating that upon autophagy inhibition, damaged synaptic proteins accumulate within presynaptic terminals having a direct impact on neurotransmitter release and thus EPSC amplitude. Conceptually, the decrease in EPSC amplitude could also be explained by a postsynaptic effect, e.g. a down-regulation of postsynaptic receptors. Given that Supernova is directly tethered to a SV protein, the most likely effect of ROS is on the neurotransmitter release machinery, a concept requiring further study. Either way, our electrophysiological data suggest that synaptic autophagy can function in real-time to remove damaged SV proteins, contributing to the maintenance of synaptic function. This is consistent with the rapid increase in presynaptic autophagy following ROS-mediated damage (Figure 3).

Taken together, Supernova appears to represent a powerful tool to spatiotemporally induce damage to synapses and thus increase our understanding of how different clearance systems function during both health and disease. This will be particularly important for the study of neurodegenerative disease where the proper function of autophagy is thought to be crucial for neuronal health (Nixon, 2013; Rubinsztein et al., 2012).

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Figure legends 1017 1018 **Figure 1** – Rapamycin induces rapid increase in presynaptic autophagy. 1019 (A) Schematic of lentiviral vector FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 expressing Synaptophysin (Syp)-1020 mCherry (mCh) and eGFP-LC3 under an ubiquitin promoter. Posttranslational cleavage at the P2A site 1021 separates the two proteins. 1022 (B) Autophagy induction (EBSS + 100µM chloroquine for 2 hours) of FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 1023 expressing HeLa cells, demonstrating that following autophagy induction eGFP-LC3 puncta colocalize 1024 with both endogenous LC3 and p62, but not Syp-mCh. 1025 (C) Live cell images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 analyzed at 1026 14 DIV. Syp-mCh and eGFP-LC3 exhibit different patterns indicating P2A mediated cleavage (arrow 1027 indicates Syp-mCh puncta, arrowhead indicates colocalization of Syp-mCh and eGFP-LC3). 1028 (D) Representative images of hippocampal neurons infected with FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 and 1029 immunostained with antibodies against the postsynaptic protein Homer1. Colocalization of Syp-mCh 1030 and Homer1 indicate presynaptic targeting of Syp-mCh. 1031 (E) Western Blot of lysates prepared from hippocampal neurons infected with FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-1032 eGFP-LC3 (TD) or uninfected (UT) and stained with mCherry antibodies. Upper band: uncleaved Syp-1033 mCh-P2A-eGFP-LC3 fusion protein. Lower band: cleaved Syp-mCh. The lower size band representing 1034 cleaved Syp-mCh is much more abundant than the higher molecular size band representing Syp-mCh-1035 P2A-eGFP-LC3 fusion protein, thus indicating efficient cleavage. 1036 (F-H) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3, treated with 2µM 1037 rapamycin (R) for 2 hours (F) or 10 min (G and H) before fixation and staining with antibodies against 1038 p62 (H). 1039 (I-M) Quantification of the normalized intensity of eGFP-LC3 levels at Syp-mCh puncta (I and K) as 1040 well as the number of puncta/100 μM of axon (J and L) after 2 hours (I and J) or 10 min (K and L) of $2\mu M$ rapamycin treatment. (I: control = 1 ± 0.094 , n = 412 synapses, 3 independent experiments; $2\mu M$ 1041 1042 R (2h) = 1.36 ± 0.164 , n = 301 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0414). (]: control = 2.72 ± 0.0414).

0.529, n = 40 axons, 4 independent experiments; $2\mu M$ R (2h) = 4.80 ± 0.928, n = 20 axons, 2

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1044
        independent experiments, p=0.0407). (K: control = 1 ± 0.094, n = 412 synapses, 3 independent
1045
        experiments; 2\mu M R (10min) = 1.73 \pm 0.092, n = 343 synapses, 3 independent experiments; p<0.0001).
1046
        (L: control = 2.72 \pm 0.529, n = 40 axons, 4 independent experiments; 2\mu M R (10min) = 5.05 \pm 0.695, n
1047
        = 47 axons, 4 independent experiments; p=0.0111). Quantification of the normalized p62 levels at
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        eGFP-LC3 puncta (M) (M: control = 1 ± 0.170, n = 50 puncta, 3 independent experiments; 2μM R
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        (10\text{min}) = 1.91 \pm 0.283, n = 52 puncta, 3 independent experiments; p=0.0072) confirming that eGFP-
1050
        LC3 puncta depict autophagic organelles.
1051
        (N) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 and treated with 1µM
1052
        wortmannin (W) prior and during a 10 min incubation with 2μM rapamycin (R).
1053
        (O and P) Quantification of (N) showing that wortmannin suppresses the induction of autophagy at
1054
        Syp-mCh puncta (0) and along axons (P) following the addition of rapamycin (0: control = 1 \pm 0.073, n
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        = 540 synapses, 4 independent experiments; 2\mu M R (10min) = 1.63 ± 0.071, n = 469 synapses, 4
1056
        independent experiments; 2\mu M R + 1\mu M W (10min) = 0.98 \pm 0.036, n = 152 synapses, 2 independent
        experiments, p<0.0001 and p<0.0001). (P: control = 2.72 \pm 0.529, n = 40 axons, 4 independent
1057
1058
        experiments; 2\mu M R (10min) = 5.05 \pm 0.695, n = 47 axons, 4 independent experiments; 2\mu M R + 1\mu M
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        W (10min) = 1.92 \pm 0.573, n = 20 axons, 2 independent experiments, p=0.0187 and p=0.01).
1060
        Scale bars: 10µm (B, C and D) and 5µm (F, G, H and N). Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test (I, I,
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        K, L and M) and ANOVA Tukey's multiple comparisons test (O and P) was used to evaluate statistical
1062
        significance.
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1064
        Figure 2 – Rapid increase in endogenous LC3 by rapamycin treatment.
1065
        (A and B) Western Blot of lysates from cultured cortical (A) and hippocampal (B) neurons treated with
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        2µM rapamycin (R) for 10 min (A and B) or 2 hours (A) and stained with antibodies against Actin,
1067
        Synaptophysin and LC3. Note the strong enrichment of LC3-I and LC3-II within the synaptosome
        suspension (syn) (left) compared to the cytosol fraction (right). Data indicate that synaptic autophagy
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1069
        can be rapidly induced by rapamycin treatment.
1070
        (C-E) Quantification of LC3-II/Actin from the synaptosome suspensions from A (C and D) and B (E). (C:
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control = 0.29 ± 0.111, 5 independent experiments; 2µM R (10min) = 0.44 ± 0.101, 5 independent

- 1072 experiments). (D: control = 0.35 ± 0.178 , 3 independent experiments; $2\mu M R (2h) = 0.84 \pm 0.200$, 3
- independent experiments). (E: control = 0.13 ± 0.029 , 3 independent experiments; $2\mu M$ R (10min) =
- 1074 0.50 ± 0.173 , 3 independent experiments).
- 1075 Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test was used to evaluate statistical significance.

- 1077 **Figure 3** Rapid induction of autophagy by ROS-mediated damage by Synaptophysin-Supernova.
- 1078 (A) Schematic of FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 expression vector.
- 1079 (B) Low-magnification images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3
- grown on top of uninfected neurons before and after photobleaching a region of interest (dashed line).
- Boxes represent areas within (red) and outside (black) bleached area used for analysis.
- 1082 (C-E) Images of axon segments (5 min, 1 hour and 2 hours after bleaching) that were subsequently
- 1083 fixed and stained with antibodies against GFP to detect eGFP-LC3 and Supernova to detect Syp-SN.
- Data indicate that autophagy at synapses can be rapidly induced through Syp-SN photobleaching.
- 1085 (F) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syp-SN puncta 5 min (C) after bleaching
- 1086 (unbleached = 1 ± 0.057 , n = 119 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.43 ± 0.113 , n =
- 1087 132 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.001).
- 1088 (G) Quantification of the normalized number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit axon length, in axons 5 min
- after photobleaching (C) (unbleached = 1 ± 0.166 , n = 17 axons, 3 independent experiments; bleached
- $1090 = 0.70 \pm 0.119$, n = 18 axons, 3 independent experiments).
- 1091 (H) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syp-SN puncta 1 hour (D) after bleaching
- 1092 (unbleached = 1 ± 0.071 , n = 132 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.43 ± 0.117 , n =
- 1093 167 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0035).
- 1094 (I) Quantification of the normalized number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit axon length in axons 1 hour
- after photobleaching (D) (unbleached = 1 ± 0.146 , n = 24 axons, 3 independent experiments; bleached
- 1096 = 1.37 ± 0.166 , n = 24 axons, 3 independent experiments).
- 1097 (J) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syp-SN puncta 2 hours (E) after bleaching
- 1098 (unbleached = 1 ± 0.054 , n = 136 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.22 ± 0.065 , n =
- 1099 141 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0111).

1100	(K) Quantification of the normalized number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit axon length 2 hours after
1101	photobleaching (E) (unbleached = 1 ± 0.173 , $n = 23$ axons, 3 independent experiments; bleached =
1102	2.75 ± 0.336 , n = 22 axons, 3 independent experiments, p<0.0001).
1103	Scale bars: $50\mu m$ (B), $10\mu m$ (C, D and E). Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test was used to
1104	evaluate statistical significance.
1105	
1106	Figure 4 – Bleaching-induced increase in eGFP-LC3 levels at presynaptic boutons is ROS-dependent.
1107	(A) Images of untransfected (UT) HEK293 cells or those expressing FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3
1108	(mCherry/mCh) or FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 (Supernova/SN) before and 15 minutes after 60
1109	seconds photobleaching. Cells were treated with $10\mu\text{M}$ dihydroethidium 20 minutes before bleaching.
1110	(B) Quantification of the decrease in DHE $_{blue}$ intensity upon bleaching (UT = 51.08 \pm 5.566, n = 26 cells,
1111	3 independent experiments; mCh = 102 \pm 12.680, n = 36 cells, 4 independent experiments; SN = 157 \pm
1112	21.310, n = 31 cells, 4 independent experiments, p<0.0001 and p=0.0253).
1113	(C, D and E) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syp-mCherry-P2A-eGFP-LC3 (C), FU-Syp-
1114	Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 (D and E) that were fixed and stained with antibodies against GFP and
1115	Supernova/mCherry (XY) 1 hour after photobleaching, either in the absence (C and D) or presence of
1116	60μM N-acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) (E).
1117	(F) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syp-XY puncta (mCh = 1.15 ± 0.049 , n =
1118	489 synapses, 4 independent experiments; SN = 1.37 ± 0.056 , n = 450 synapses, 4 independent
1119	experiments; SN + NAC = 1.18 ± 0.057 , n = 198 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p= 0.0049).
1120	Scale bars: $20\mu m$ (A) and $10\mu m$ (C, D and E). Error bars represent SEM. ANOVA Tukey's multiple
1121	comparisons test was used to evaluate statistical significance.
1122	
1123	Figure 5 – Rapid increase in endogenous LC3 by bleaching of Syp-Supernova.
1124	(A) Schematic of FU-Syp-Supernova expression vector.
1125	(B-D) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syp-Supernova that were fixed and stained with
1126	antibodies against LC3 and Bassoon 5 min, 1 hour and 2 hours after bleaching. Data indicate that

autophagy at synapses can be rapidly induced through Syp-SN photobleaching.

1155

p=0.0077).

1128 (E) Quantification of normalized LC3 intensities within Syp-SN/Bsn puncta 5 min (B) after bleaching (unbleached = 1 ± 0.077 , n = 74 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.50 ± 0.126 , n = 75 1129 1130 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0011). (F) Quantification of normalized LC3 intensities within Syp-SN/Bsn puncta 1 hour (C) after bleaching 1131 (unbleached = 1 ± 0.072 , n = 59 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.31 ± 0.092 , n = 49 1132 1133 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0093). 1134 (G) Quantification of normalized LC3 intensities within Syp-SN/Bsn puncta 2 hours (D) after bleaching 1135 (unbleached = 1 ± 0.069 , n = 60 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.43 ± 0.101 , n = 601136 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0006). 1137 Scale bars: 10 µm. Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test was used to evaluate statistical 1138 significance. 1139 1140 **Figure 6** – ROS-induced increase in eGFP-LC3 levels at presynaptic boutons is PI3K- and Atg5-dependent. 1141 (A and B) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 that were 1142 fixed and stained with antibodies against GFP and Supernova 2 hours after photobleaching, either in 1143 the absence (A) or presence of $1\mu M$ wortmannin (W) (B). 1144 (C and D) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syp-SN puncta (C) or the 1145 normalized number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit axon length (D) in bleached and unbleached areas (C: 1146 unbleached = 1 ± 0.057 , n = 174 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.22 ± 0.073 , n = 1147 174 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0173) (D: unbleached = 1 ± 0.221, n = 19 axons, 3 1148 independent experiments; bleached = 2.35 ± 0.403, n = 21 axons, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0071). 1149 1150 (E and F) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syp-SN puncta (E) or number of 1151 eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit axon length (F) in culture treated with wortmannin before and after 1152 photobleaching. (E: unbleached = 1 ± 0.057, n = 179 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1153 0.95 ± 0.055 , n = 164 synapses, 3 independent experiments). (F: unbleached = 1 ± 0.228 , n = 18 axons,

3 independent experiments; bleached = 2.22 ± 0.348, n = 21 axons, 3 independent experiments,

1156	(G and H) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing F-U6-scRNA(SC)-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-
1157	LC3 (G) or F-U6-shAtg5-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 (H) that were fixed and stained with
1158	antibodies against GFP and Supernova 2 hours after photobleaching.
1159	(I and J) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syp-SN puncta (I) or the normalized
1160	number of eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit axon length (J) in cultures expressing F-U6-scRNA(SC)-U-Syp-
1161	Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3. (I: unbleached = 1 ± 0.058 , n = 134 synapses, 3 independent experiments;
1162	bleached = 1.35 ± 0.073 , n = 178 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0001) (J: unbleached = 1 ± 0.073 , n = 178 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0001)
1163	0.090, $n = 27$ axons, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.67 \pm 0.107, $n = 27$ axons, 3 independent
1164	experiments, p<0.0001).
1165	(K and L) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syp-SN puncta (K) or number of
1166	eGFP-LC3 puncta per unit axon length (L) in cultures expressing F-U6-shAtg5-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-
1167	eGFP-LC3. (K: unbleached = 1 ± 0.052 , n = 109 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 0.98
1168	\pm 0.055, n = 127 synapses, 3 independent experiments). (L: unbleached = 1 \pm 0.103, n = 27 axons, 3
1169	independent experiments; bleached = 1.22 ± 0.122 , n = 27 axons, 3 independent experiments).
1170	Scale bars: 10μm. Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test was used to evaluate statistical
1171	significance.
1172	
1173	Figure 7 - Syp-Supernova mediated ROS production increases autophagic vacuoles (AVs) in presynaptic
1174	terminals.
1175	(A and B) Example EM micrographs of organelles quantified as autophagic vacuoles (AVs) (A) or
1176	multivesicular bodies (MVBs) (B).
1177	(C and F) Representative EM micrographs of unbleached or bleached synapses 10 (C) or 40 (F) mir
1178	after photobleaching. Arrowheads indicate double-membraned AVs. Note, # of AVs but not MVBs is
1179	significantly increased 10 min following Syp-SN mediated ROS production.
1180	(D and E) Quantification of the number of AVs (D) or MVBs (E) per terminal 10 min after
1181	photobleaching (D: unbleached = 0.05 ± 0.018, n = 228 synapses, 1 independent experiments

bleached = 0.17 ± 0.044 , n = 198 synapses, 2 independent experiments, p=0.0062) (E: unbleached =

1183 0.04 ± 0.013 , n = 228 synapses, 2 independent experiments; bleached = 0.05 ± 0.016 , n = 198 synapses, 1184 2 independent experiments). (G and H) Quantification of the number of AVs (G) or MVBs (H) per terminal 40 min after 1185 1186 photobleaching (G: unbleached = 0.04 ± 0.016 , n = 138 synapses, 2 independent experiments; 1187 bleached = 0.09 ± 0.028 , n = 215 synapses, 2 independent experiments) (H: unbleached = 0.05 ± 0.019 , 1188 n = 138 synapses, 2 independent experiments; bleached = 0.05 ± 0.014, n = 215 synapses, 2 1189 independent experiments). 1190 Scale bars: 300nm (C and F), 200nm (A and B). Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test was used to 1191 evaluate statistical significance. 1192 1193 **Figure 8** – Syp-Supernova mediated ROS production increases eGFP-Rab7 and Chmp2b levels at 1194 presynaptic boutons. 1195 (A) Schematic of FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-Rab7 expression vector. 1196 (B, C and D) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-Rab7 that were 1197 fixed and stained with antibodies against GFP, Supernova and Chmp2b, 5 min, 1 hour and 2 hours after 1198 Syp-SN mediated ROS production. 1199 (E, G and I) Quantification of the normalized eGFP-Rab7 intensity in Syp-SN puncta 5 min, 1 hour or 2 1200 hours after photobleaching of Syp-SN (E: unbleached = 1 ± 0.052, n = 249 synapses, 4 independent 1201 experiments; bleached = 1.24 ± 0.066 , n = 314 synapses, 4 independent experiments, p=0.0063) (G: 1202 unbleached = 1 ± 0.050 , n = 280 synapses, 4 independent experiments; bleached = 1.16 ± 0.053 , n = 1203 373 synapses, 4 independent experiments, p=0.0376) (I: unbleached = 1 ± 0.046 , n = 258 synapses, 4 1204 independent experiments; bleached = 1.40 ± 0.083, n = 352 synapses, 4 independent experiments, 1205 p=0.0001). Note, Rab7 levels are significantly increased at all three times. 1206 (F, H and J) Quantification of the normalized Chmp2b intensity in Syp-SN puncta 5 min, 1 hour or 2 1207 hours after photobleaching of Syp-SN. Levels are significantly increased at 1 hour but not 5 min or 2 1208 hours after ROS-mediated damage. (F: unbleached = 1 ± 0.089, n = 67 synapses, 2 independent 1209 experiments; bleached = 1.44 ± 0.219, n = 71 synapses, 2 independent experiments) (H: unbleached = 1210 1 ± 0.080 , n = 91 synapses, 2 independent experiments; bleached = 1.45 ± 0.174 , n = 89 synapses, 2

1211	independent experiments, p=0.0196) (J: unbleached = 1 ± 0.074 , n = 108 synapses, 2 independent
1212	experiments; bleached = 1.23 ± 0.134 , n = 118 synapses, 2 independent experiments).
1213	Scale bars: $10\mu m$. Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test was used to evaluate statistical
1214	significance.
1215	
1216	Figure 9 – Syt-Supernova and Syn-Supernova mediated ROS production increases eGFP-LC3 levels at
1217	presynaptic boutons.
1218	(A) Schematic of a SV containing Synaptophysin (Syp), Synaptotagmin (Syt) or Synapsin (Syn) tagged
1219	with Supernova. Note, the short (95aa) (Gordon and Cousin, 2014) vs. long (346aa, comprised of two
1220	C2 domains) (Ybe et al., 2000) cytoplasmic tails of Synaptophysin vs. Synaptotagmin, respectively,
1221	which could significantly change the distance of Supernova to the SV membrane and thus its proximity
1222	to other SV proteins. Similarly, tagging Supernova to the much larger peripherally associated SV
1223	protein Synapsin could also affect its distance to other SV proteins.
1224	(B, C and D) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syt-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 that were
1225	fixed and stained with antibodies against GFP and Supernova 5 min (B), 1 hour (C) and 2 hours (D)
1226	after bleaching. Note, eGFP-LC3 levels are significantly increased 1 hour after Synaptotagmin-
1227	Supernova (Syt-SN) mediated ROS production.
1228	(E, F and G) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syt-SN puncta, 5 min (E), 1 hour
1229	(F) and 2 hours (G) after bleaching. (E: unbleached = 1 ± 0.074 , n = 62 synapses, 2 independent
1230	experiments; bleached = 1.06 ± 0.098 , n = 76 synapses, 2 independent experiments) (F: unbleached =
1231	1 ± 0.111 , n = 73 synapses, 2 independent experiments; bleached = 1.45 ± 0.143 , n = 81 synapses, 2
1232	independent experiments, p=0.0156) (G: unbleached = 1 ± 0.085 , n = 58 synapses, 2 independent
1233	experiments; bleached = 1.05 ± 0.087 , n = 68 synapses, 2 independent experiments).
1234	(H, I and J) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-Syn-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 that were
1235	fixed and stained with antibodies against GFP and Supernova 5 min (H), 1 hour (I) and 2 hours (J) after
1236	bleaching. Note, eGFP-LC3 levels are significantly increased 1 hour and 2 hours after Synapsin-

Supernova (Syn-SN) mediated ROS production.

1238	(K, L and M) Quantification of normalized eGFP-LC3 intensities within Syn-SN puncta, 5 min (K), 1
1239	hour (L) and 2 hours (M) after bleaching. (K: unbleached = 1 ± 0.084 , n = 58 synapses, 3 independent
1240	experiments; bleached = 1.04 ± 0.069 , n = 81 synapses, 3 independent experiments) (L: unbleached =
1241	1 ± 0.061 , n = 77 synapses, 3 independent experiments; bleached = 1.72 ± 0.103 , n = 103 synapses, 3
1242	independent experiments, p<0.0001) (M: unbleached = 1 ± 0.075 , n = 42 synapses, 3 independent
1243	experiments; bleached = 1.30 ± 0.090 , n = 71 synapses, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0255).
1244	Scale bars: $10\mu m$. Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test was used to evaluate statistical
1245	significance.
1246	
1247	Figure 10 – ROS-damaged SV proteins selectively accumulate in autophagy organelles.
1248	(A, B and C) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing Supernova-tagged synaptic proteins Syp-SN
1249	(A), Syt-SN (B) or Syp-lumSN (C) that were fixed 1 hour after bleaching and stained with antibodies
1250	against GFP, Supernova, Bassoon and Synaptotagmin1 (Syt1) (A and C) or Synaptophysin1 (Syp1) (B).
1251	(D) Quantification of the fraction of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta positive for SN-tagged
1252	Synaptophysin, indicated by arrowheads in (A), or endogenous Syt1 within the same experiment (Syp-
1253	$SN = 0.71 \pm 0.075$, $n = 38$ puncta, 3 independent experiments; $Syt1 = 0.18 \pm 0.064$, $n = 38$ puncta, 3
1254	independent experiments, p<0.0001). Also quantified is the fraction of extrasynaptic Syp-SN puncta
1255	that are positive for eGFP-LC3 (0.43 \pm 0.060, n = 68 puncta, 3 independent experiments).
1256	(E) Quantification of the fraction of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta positive for SN-tagged
1257	Synaptotagmin, indicated by arrowheads (B), or endogenous Syp1 within the same experiment (Syt-
1258	$SN = 0.70 \pm 0.081$, $n = 33$ puncta, 2 independent experiments; $Syp1 = 0.18 \pm 0.068$, $n = 33$ puncta, 2
1259	independent experiments, p<0.0001). Also quantified is the fraction of extrasynaptic Syt-SN puncta
1260	that are positive for eGFP-LC3 (0.43 \pm 0.068, n = 54 puncta, 2 independent experiments).
1261	(F) Quantification of the fraction of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta positive for luminal SN-tagged
1262	Synaptophysin (Syp-lumSN), indicated by arrowheads in (C), or endogenous Syt1 within the same
1263	experiment (Syp-lumSN = 0.08 ± 0.033 , n = 66 puncta, 3 independent experiments; Syt1 = 0.17 ± 0.033

0.046, n = 66 puncta, 3 independent experiments). Also quantified is the fraction of extrasynaptic Syp-

1265	lumSN puncta that are positive for eGFP-LC3 (0.51 \pm 0.077, n = 43 puncta, 3 independent
1266	experiments).
1267	(G) Images of hippocampal neurons expressing FU-eGFP-LC3 fixed and stained with antibodies against
1268	GFP, Bassoon and Synaptophysin1 (Syp1), or Synapsin1 (Syn1), or Synaptotagmin1 (Syt1).
1269	(H) Quantification of the fraction of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta also positive for endogenous
1270	Synaptophysin1, Synapsin1 or Synaptotagmin1. Note, the fraction of extrasynaptic eGFP-LC3 puncta
1271	positive for Synaptophysin1 is significantly higher than the fraction positive for Synapsin1 (Syp1 basal
1272	= 0.40 ± 0.051 , n = 93 puncta, 2 independent experiments; Syn1 basal = 0.14 ± 0.038 , n = 85 puncta, 2
1273	independent experiments; Syt1 basal = 0.28 ± 0.050 , n = 81 puncta, 2 independent experiments).
1274	Scale bars: 10µm. Error bars represent SEM. Unpaired T-test (D, E and F) and ANOVA Tukey's multiple
1275	comparisons test (H) was used to evaluate statistical significance.
1276	
1277	Figure 11 – ROS-induced damage to Syp-SN impairs evoked release only when autophagy is inhibited.
1278	(A, B and C) Example traces of whole-cell patch recording of evoked EPSCs from autaptic hippocampal
1279	neurons expressing FU-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 before and 5 min after ROS-induced damage to
1280	Syp-SN either in the absence (A) or presence of $1\mu M$ wortmannin (W) (C). Neurons treated with
1281	wortmannin but were not bleached served as a control (B). (A. amplitude: before = 4.25 ± 1.050 , after
1282	= 3.74 ± 1.134 , 14 neurons, 3 independent experiments) (B. amplitude: before = 2.07 ± 0.311 , after =
1283	1.85 ± 0.277 , 13 neurons, 3 independent experiments) (C. amplitude: before = 2.50 ± 0.570 , after =
1284	1.63 ± 0.409 , 16 neurons, 3 independent experiments, p=0.0042).
1285	(D) Quantification of the percent decrease in EPSC amplitude after photobleaching (A and C) or
1286	waiting period (B). Note that the decrease in amplitude is significantly higher when $1\mu\text{M}$ wortmannin
1287	is present (bleached = 14.57 \pm 6.620, n = 14 neurons, 3 independent experiments; 1 μ M W = 11.09 \pm
1288	8.479 , n = 13 neurons, 3 independent experiments; $1\mu M$ W bleached = 39.69 ± 6.869 , n = 16 neurons, 3
1289	independent experiments, p=0.0445 and p=0.0223).
1290	(E, F and G) Example traces of whole-cell patch recording of evoked EPSCs from autaptic hippocampal
1291	neurons expressing F-U6-scRNA(SC)-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 (E) or F-U6-shAtg5-U-Syp-
1292	Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 (G) before and 5 min after ROS-induced damage to Syp-SN. Neurons

1293	expressing F-U6-shAtg5-U-Syp-Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 that were not bleached served as a control
1294	(F). (E amplitude: before = 4.23 ± 0.853 , after = 3.87 ± 0.980 , 17 neurons, 3 independent experiments)
1295	(F amplitude: before = 4.60 ± 0.987 , after = 4.22 ± 0.962 , 16 neurons, 3 independent experiments) (G
1296	amplitude: before = 5.58 ± 0.800 , after = 3.79 ± 0.687 , 16 neurons, 3 independent experiments,
1297	p<0.0001).
1298	(H) Quantification of the percent decrease in EPSC amplitude after photobleaching (E and G) or
1299	waiting period (F). Note that the decrease in amplitude is significantly higher in F-U6-shAtg5-U-Syp-
1300	Supernova-P2A-eGFP-LC3 expressing neurons that were bleached (SC bleached = 11.15 ± 7.261 , n = 17
1301	neurons, 3 independent experiments; $shAtg5 = 5.74 \pm 5.836$, $n = 16$ neurons, 3 independent
1302	experiments; shAtg5 bleached = 38.19 ± 5.766 , n = 16 neurons, 3 independent experiments, p= 0.0114
1303	and p=0.0024).
1304	Error bars represent SEM. Paired T-test (A-C, E-G) and ANOVA Tukey's multiple comparisons test (D
1305	and H) was used to evaluate statistical significance.





















