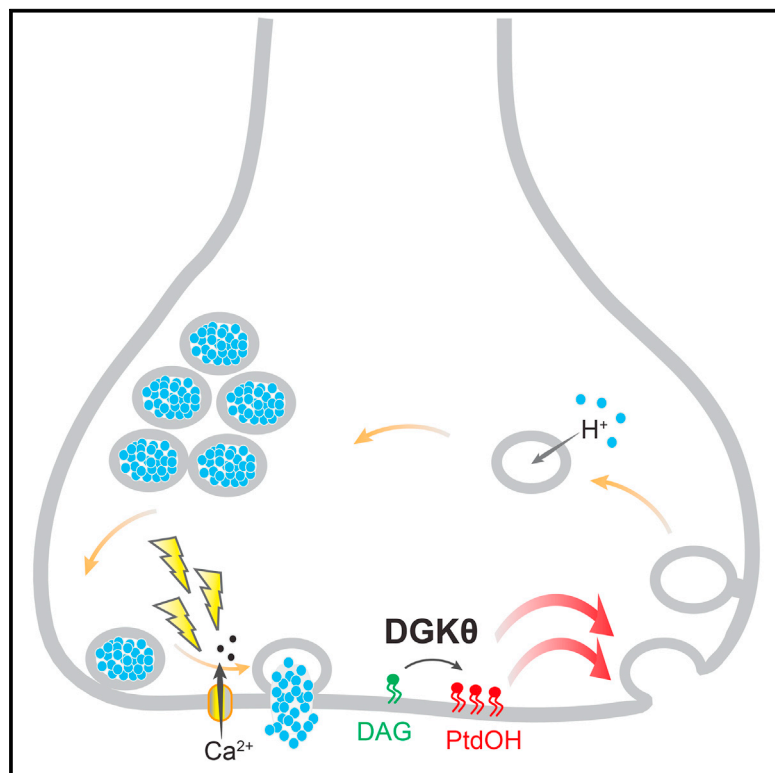


Cell Reports

DGK θ Catalytic Activity Is Required for Efficient Recycling of Presynaptic Vesicles at Excitatory Synapses

Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- DGK θ functions at excitatory synapses of the mammalian CNS
- Loss of DGK θ slows presynaptic vesicle retrieval following neuronal stimulation
- DGK θ catalytic activity promotes efficient synaptic vesicle recycling in neurons

Authors

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In Brief

Goldschmidt et al. identified a cellular role for the lipid kinase DGK θ in the mammalian brain. DGK θ was found to localize to excitatory synapses where its activity is required cell autonomously to promote efficient retrieval of synaptic vesicles following sustained neuronal activity.



DGK θ Catalytic Activity Is Required for Efficient Recycling of Presynaptic Vesicles at Excitatory Synapses

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SUMMARY

Synaptic transmission relies on coordinated coupling of synaptic vesicle (SV) exocytosis and endocytosis. While much attention has focused on characterizing proteins involved in SV recycling, the roles of membrane lipids and their metabolism remain poorly understood. Diacylglycerol, a major signaling lipid produced at synapses during synaptic transmission, is regulated by diacylglycerol kinase (DGK). Here, we report a role for DGK θ in the mammalian CNS in facilitating recycling of presynaptic vesicles at excitatory synapses. Using synaptophysin- and vGlut1-pHluorin optical reporters, we found that acute and chronic deletion of DGK θ attenuated the recovery of SVs following neuronal stimulation. Rescue of recycling kinetics required DGK θ kinase activity. Our data establish a role for DGK catalytic activity at the presynaptic nerve terminal in SV recycling. Altogether, these data suggest that DGK θ supports synaptic transmission during periods of elevated neuronal activity.

INTRODUCTION

Efficient communication between neurons is essential for proper brain function. This process is triggered by Ca²⁺-influx into presynaptic nerve terminals, resulting in fusion of synaptic vesicles (SVs) with the plasma membrane (exocytosis) and release of neurotransmitters into the synaptic cleft. A typical nerve terminal contains a relatively small number of vesicles, enough to maintain about 5–10 s of neurotransmission. Thus after exocytosis, SVs must be retrieved and recycled by endocytosis in order to maintain synaptic transmission (Südhof, 2004). This becomes particularly critical during periods of elevated neuronal activity, where multiple SVs undergo exocytosis over a short period of time (Cheung et al., 2010). SV recycling is therefore essential for neuronal function, and its dysregulation may contribute to several neurological and psychiatric disorders (Kavalali, 2006).

Despite its being a well-studied cellular process, the mechanisms that mediate the steps of the SV cycle, particularly those involved in endocytosis, remain a matter of debate. To date, four mechanisms of SV endocytosis have been described: (1) clathrin-mediated endocytosis (CME), (2) activity-dependent bulk endocytosis (ADBE) (Cheung et al., 2010), (3) kiss-and-run (Südhof, 2004), and (4) ultra-fast-endocytosis (Watanabe et al., 2013). These pathways are differentially utilized depending on the strength and duration of neuronal activity, as well as differ in their molecular machinery, speed, and capacity for membrane retrieval (Clayton and Cousin, 2009; Kononenko and Haucke, 2015; Südhof, 2004; Watanabe et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014).

Numerous proteins regulate SV endocytosis in mammalian central neurons (Haucke et al., 2011). Equally important, the lipid composition of the presynaptic membrane plays an active role in this process. Of the membrane lipids studied so far, phosphoinositides have the most well established role in SV endocytosis (Puchkov and Haucke, 2013; Rohrbough and Broadie, 2005). Phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PtdIns(4,5)P₂) modulates SV recycling by recruiting and activating key molecules, such as synaptotagmin I (Chapman, 2008), clathrin adaptor protein AP2 and dynamin-1 (Burger et al., 2000; Di Paolo et al., 2004) to the presynaptic membrane. Genetic deletions of the lipid kinase (phosphatidylinositol phosphate kinase type I γ , PIPK1 γ) (Di Paolo et al., 2004), or the lipid phosphatase (synaptojanin 1) (Cremona et al., 1999; Mani et al., 2007) that mediate the generation and metabolism of PtdIns(4,5)P₂, respectively, result in multiple synaptic defects, including impaired SV recycling. PtdIns(4,5)P₂ is also a substrate for phospholipase C, which produces the signaling lipid, diacylglycerol (DAG).

DAG has been implicated in synaptic function and may play at least three roles in the SV cycle (Tu-Sekine and Raben, 2011). First, DAG enhances the activity of Munc13-1, which mediates the priming of SVs, a crucial step in SV exocytosis during spontaneous and evoked synaptic transmission (Augustin et al., 1999; Bauer et al., 2007). Second, DAG activates protein kinase C (PKC), which phosphorylates and thereby regulates the activities of presynaptic SNARE complex proteins, including Munc-18 and SNAP-25 (Di Paolo et al., 2004; Rhee et al., 2002). Finally, termination of DAG signaling through its phosphorylation by DAG kinases (DGKs) results in the production of phosphatidic acid (PtdOH), an acidic phospholipid which can serve as a signaling

molecule itself as well as a precursor for the generation of PtdIns(4,5)P₂ (Antonescu et al., 2010; Luo et al., 2004).

Despite the importance of DAG and PtdOH in SV recycling, not much is known regarding the roles of DGKs in regulating SV recycling and presynaptic function. Understanding these functions is complicated by the fact there are ten mammalian DGK isoforms (α , β , γ , δ , ϵ , ζ , η , θ , ι , κ), all of which possess the same catalytic activity, are expressed in the CNS, and nine of the ten isoforms are found in neurons (Mérida et al., 2008; Tu-Sekine and Raben, 2011). Several functional studies have implicated individual DGK isoforms (β , ζ , ϵ , η) in modulating spine dynamics, neuronal plasticity, and neurological disorders (Kakefuda et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2010; Musto and Bazan, 2006; Shirai et al., 2010). However, the roles of DGK isoforms localized to the presynaptic terminal are less well understood. Indeed, DGK ι is the only isoform that has been implicated in presynaptic release (Yang et al., 2011). The notion that this family of enzymes might play a role in regulating SV recycling is supported by studies in *C. elegans* that found that DGK-1 activity suppressed acetylcholine release from the neuromuscular junction (McMullan et al., 2006; Nurrish et al., 1999). The ortholog of DGK-1 in mammals is DGK θ , the only type V DGK isoform and whose function has never been described in the nervous system.

Here, we report that DGK θ plays an important role in modulating SV recycling in mammalian central neurons. Both shRNA-mediated knockdown of DGK θ and neurons derived from DGK θ knockout (KO) mice exhibit a decreased rate of SV endocytosis compared to wild-type neurons. Importantly, this defect can only be rescued by ectopic expression of enzymatically active DGK θ but not a kinase-dead mutant of the enzyme. Our data establish a role for DGK θ kinase activity in the regulation of SV recycling and suggest that DGK θ supports synaptic transmission during periods of sustained neuronal activity.

RESULTS

DGK θ Localizes to Excitatory Synapses in the Mouse Forebrain

DGK θ expression has been detected in multiple regions of the late embryonic (Ueda et al., 2013) and adult mouse brain (Houssa et al., 1997; Tu-Sekine and Raben, 2011), albeit at low cellular and temporal resolution. In order to study the role of DGK θ in brain function, we first examined DGK θ expression across multiple brain regions in adult mice. Western blot analysis using an isoform-specific antibody that recognizes the C-terminal region of DGK θ revealed wide-spread expression of DGK θ protein in all brain regions examined, including the cortex and hippocampus (Figure 1A), which is consistent with the previously reported mRNA expression pattern (Houssa et al., 1997). DGK θ was detected in the forebrain but not in cultured glial cells prepared from the same brain region (Figure 1B), indicating a specific expression of DGK θ in neuronal cells. The expression of DGK θ was upregulated during development, which peaked at postnatal day 14 (P14), coincided with the expression of synaptophysin, an integral SV protein with an established function at synapses (Figure 1C). A similar increase in DGK θ protein during synapse forma-

tion and development was also observed in cultured neurons (DIV 7–14, data not shown). Subcellular fractionation analysis of an adult mouse brain showed a general distribution of DGK θ in the cytosolic, microsomal, and synaptosomal fractions (Figure 1D). DGK θ was also detected in the post-synaptic density fraction, albeit at a lower level, suggesting its presence at both pre- and postsynaptic sites.

To verify the biochemical results we examined endogenous DGK θ localization by immunofluorescence microscopy. Consistent with fractionation experiments, DGK θ was detected throughout the neuron, including the soma, MAP2-positive dendrites, and MAP2-negative axons (Figures 1E and 1F). Strikingly, we found that DGK θ had a punctate distribution along dendrites that significantly overlapped with the excitatory presynaptic protein vGlut1 (Figures 1E and 1F). Quantification of the overlap between these two signals showed that $62.6\% \pm 1.4\%$ of DGK θ overlapped with vGlut1 and $56.6\% \pm 1.5\%$ of vGlut1 overlapped with DGK θ per micrometer of dendrite (Figure 1G). In contrast, only $10.0\% \pm 0.7\%$ of DGK θ overlapped with the inhibitory presynaptic protein VGAT per micrometer of dendrite (Figures 1F and 1G), suggesting that DGK θ preferentially localizes to excitatory synapses.

Knockdown of DGK θ Slows the Rate of Synaptic Vesicle Recycling

DGK θ localization to excitatory synapses and the onset of its expression during synaptogenesis suggested a potential role for this enzyme in excitatory synaptic transmission. Given the role of the DGK θ ortholog in *C. elegans* (McMullan et al., 2006; Nurrish et al., 1999), we predicted that DGK θ might possess a similar synaptic function at the presynaptic terminal. To test this, we generated a short-hairpin RNA construct directed against endogenous DGK θ mRNA (Figure 2A) to suppress DGK θ protein expression. Western blot analysis showed that lentiviral-mediated expression of DGK θ -shRNA in cortical neurons resulted in >90% knockdown of DGK θ protein compared to control shRNA-infected cells (Figure 2B).

To determine the effect of reduced DGK θ protein levels on presynaptic function, we used the pH-sensitive optical reporter synaptophysin-pHluorin (sypHy; Granseth et al., 2006) to monitor SV recycling dynamics. Cortical neurons were co-transfected with sypHy and DGK θ -shRNA or a control shRNA and allowed to express for 48 hr prior to measuring SV recycling kinetics. Knockdown of DGK θ significantly slowed the rate of SV endocytosis following KCl-induced neuronal depolarization compared to control neurons (Figures 2C and 2D; $\tau = 59.2 \pm 4.2$ s and 32.4 ± 1.9 s, respectively). Moreover, expression of shRNA-resistant human DGK θ (^{myc}DGK θ) was sufficient to rescue the observed defect in endocytosis in neurons expressing DGK θ -shRNA, thus verifying the specificity of DGK θ -shRNA in our study (Figure 2D; $\tau = 34.9 \pm 4$ s). Importantly, similar results were obtained when neurons were stimulated with a train of 300 action potentials (APs, 10Hz), supporting the role of DGK θ in regulating SV recycling in central neurons (Figures 2E, 2F, and S1A). To confirm that the effect of DGK θ knockdown was not due to a specific defect in the sorting of a particular SV protein (synaptophysin in this case), we measured SV recycling kinetics using a different pHluorin reporter, vGlut1-pHluorin

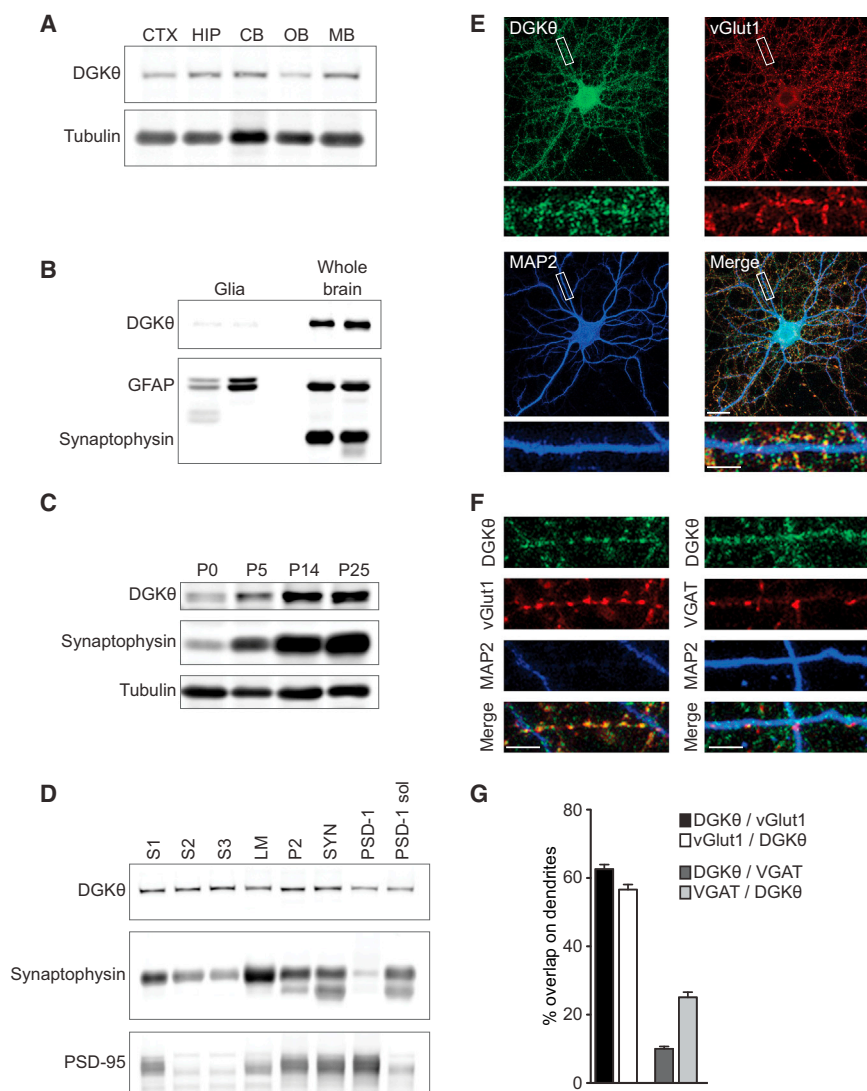


Figure 1. DGK θ Is an Excitatory Synaptic Protein

(A) Protein extracts prepared from adult mouse cortex (CTX), hippocampus (HIP), cerebellum (CB), olfactory bulb (OB), and midbrain (MB) were assayed for DGK θ protein expression by western blot using specific antibodies against DGK θ and tubulin (loading control).

(B) Whole-cell extracts from primary glial cultures and rat forebrain were blotted with specific antibodies against DGK θ , GFAP (glial marker), and synaptophysin (neuronal marker).

(C) Whole-brain lysates from mice between post-natal day 0 (P0) and 25 (P25) were assayed for DGK θ protein expression by western blot using antibodies against DGK θ , synaptophysin, and tubulin.

(D) Biochemical fractionation of adult mouse brain reveals a wide distribution of DGK θ in various subcellular compartments. Synaptophysin and PSD-95 (pre- and postsynaptic protein markers, respectively) were used as controls for successful isolation of synaptic fractions. Post-nuclear supernatant (S1), cytosol after P2 precipitation (S2), cytosol after LM precipitation (S3), light membranes (LM), crude synaptosomes/membranes (P2), synaptosomes (SYN), postsynaptic density (PSD-I), remaining soluble fraction after PSD-I precipitation (PSD-I sol). 20 μ g of protein was loaded for each fraction.

(E and F) Cultured hippocampal neurons (DIV 28) were immunostained with specific antibodies against DGK θ , vGlut1 (excitatory presynaptic protein) or VGAT (inhibitory synaptic marker) and MAP2 (dendritic protein). Scale bars represent 20 μ m and 5 μ m (cropped region).

(G) Quantification of the average overlap between DGK θ /vGlut1 and DGK θ /VGAT staining on MAP2-positive secondary dendrites. Data represent mean \pm SEM (n = 3 independent coverslips).

(vGlut1-pH, (Balaji and Ryan, 2007)). Consistent with the sypHy data, the kinetics of vGlut1-pH recycling following a train of 300 APs (10Hz) were also significantly slower in DGK θ -shRNA expressing neurons compared to controls (Figure S1B). Together, these data indicate that DGK θ is involved in the general retrieval mechanism of SVs, rather than regulating the sorting of a specific SV protein.

Because the strength of the stimulus can activate distinct recycling mechanisms (Clayton and Cousin, 2009; Kononenko and Haucke, 2015), we speculated that elevated neuronal activity may exaggerate the defect in SV recycling observed in DGK θ -knockdown neurons. As shown in Figures S1B and S1C, the delay in endocytosis kinetics of sypHy or vGlut1-pH in DGK θ knockdown neurons was larger when stimulated with trains of 600 APs (50 Hz) compared to 300 APs (10 Hz). Furthermore, a relatively smaller, but significant, delay in the rate of endocytosis was also observed when neurons were stimulated with a train of 40 APs (20Hz), which is known to mobilize primarily the readily releasable

pool of SVs (Burrone et al., 2006) (Figure S1D). Taken together, these data demonstrate that DGK θ is crucial for maintaining efficient recycling of SVs via distinct pathways of membrane retrieval in a use-dependent manner.

DGK θ KO Mice Have Reduced DGK Activity in the Brain and Exhibited an Impairment in SV Recycling Efficiency

Next, we investigated the role of DGK θ with the use of a DGK θ homozygous KO mouse (see methods, Figure 3A). The genotypes and the levels of DGK θ protein expression in wild-type (WT), heterozygous (Het) and KO mice were confirmed by PCR and western blotting analyses, respectively (Figures 3A and 3B). DGK θ KO mice appeared overtly healthy and did not display any obvious gross morphological differences in body size, mating, and lifespan compared to WT mice (data not shown). In addition, we did not observe any compensatory increase in other neuronal DGK isoforms, all of which are capable of catalyzing the production of PtdOH, in brain extracts from DGK θ KO mice

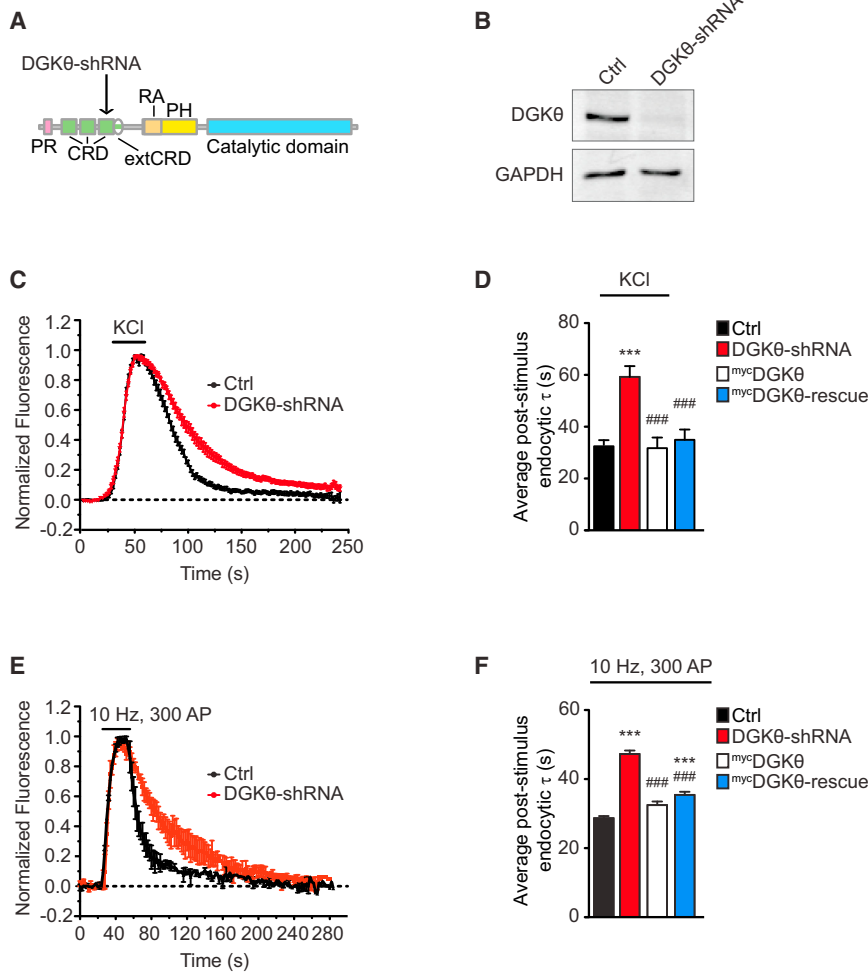


Figure 2. DGKθ Regulates the Kinetics of SV Recycling in Cortical Neurons

(A) Schematic of the domain structure of DGKθ and the relative location of the DGKθ-shRNA target.

(B) Lysates from cultured cortical neurons infected with either a control (Ctrl) or DGKθ-shRNA lentivirus were subjected to western blot analysis with antibodies against DGKθ and GAPDH (loading control).

(C) Normalized average traces from neurons expressing sypHy with either control (black) or DGKθ-shRNA (red) in response to 60 s stimulation with high K⁺ buffer.

(D) Comparison of average τ values between control and DGKθ-shRNA from (C), ^{myc}DGKθ (+ctrl shRNA, gray), and ^{myc}DGKθ-rescue (green) neurons. The decay phases of the traces were fitted with single exponential functions and τ values were calculated from the fits.

(E) Normalized average traces from neurons expressing sypHy with control or DGKθ-shRNA in response to a train of 300 APs (10 Hz).

(F) Comparison of average τ values between control and DGKθ-shRNA from (E), ^{myc}DGKθ and ^{myc}DGKθ-rescue neurons in response to the 10 Hz stimulus.

For all experiments shown in Figure 2, data represent mean \pm SEM from ≥ 100 boutons; *** $p < 0.001$ against Ctrl; ### $p < 0.001$ against DGKθ-shRNA, a one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test.

of SVs. To test this hypothesis, we transiently transfected KO neurons with ^{myc}DGKθ harboring the G648A point mutation that renders the enzyme catalytically inactive (Los et al., 2004).

Consistent with our hypothesis, expression of the ^{myc}DGKθ kinase-dead mutant (^{myc}DGKθ-kd) failed to rescue the delay in SV recycling kinetics in KO neurons (Figure 4B; $\tau^{\text{mycDGK}\theta\text{-kd}} = 62.1 \pm 1.5$ s). This was not due to the low expression or mis-targeting of the mutant as ^{myc}DGKθ-kd colocalized with sypHy along neuronal processes (Figure 4C). Taken together, these data demonstrate that DGKθ catalytic activity is necessary for efficient recycling of SVs following neuronal activity.

Finally, we evaluated the effects of frequency and duration of stimuli on the rate of endocytosis. Whereas WT neurons displayed comparable endocytic time constants across various neuronal stimuli, DGKθ KO neurons displayed a significant augmentation of the SV recycling defect with increases in the strength and frequency of neuronal stimulation (Figures 4D–4F). Thus, we conclude that during periods of sustained neuronal activity, when more APs are fired, DGKθ plays a more critical role in promoting efficient retrieval of SVs.

DISCUSSION

Despite speculations regarding the roles of mammalian DGKs in synaptic transmission, the function of DGKθ in the brain has

(Figure 3C). Surprisingly, we detected a significant decrease in the total DGK activity measured in protein extracts from adult KO forebrain compared to WT (Figure 3D; Tu-Sekine and Raben, 2012). These data highlight an important role for DGKθ in the production of PtdOH in the brain.

To confirm the role of DGKθ in regulating the kinetics of SV recycling, we measured the efficiency of sypHy retrieval in neurons derived from WT and DGKθ KO mice. Consistent with our previous results, the rate of endocytosis was significantly slower in KO neurons following a train of 600 APs compared to WT controls (Figures 4A and 4B; $\tau_{\text{WT}} = 27.9 \pm 0.8$ s versus $\tau_{\text{KO}} = 60.2 \pm 1.1$ s). The endocytic defect in KO neurons was accompanied by a significant increase in sypHy fluorescence intensity 200 s post-stimulation (Figure S2B), indicating the accumulation of uninternalized SV proteins on the cell surface. We also ruled out the role of DGKθ in regulating SV exocytosis in neurons (Figures S2C–S2E). Importantly, expression of ^{myc}DGKθ completely rescued the endocytic defect in KO neurons (Figure 4B; $\tau^{\text{mycDGK}\theta} = 37.0 \pm 1.1$ s).

Due to the significant reduction of total DGK activity in DGKθ KO brain tissue, we predicted that the catalytic activity of DGKθ might be essential for promoting efficient recycling

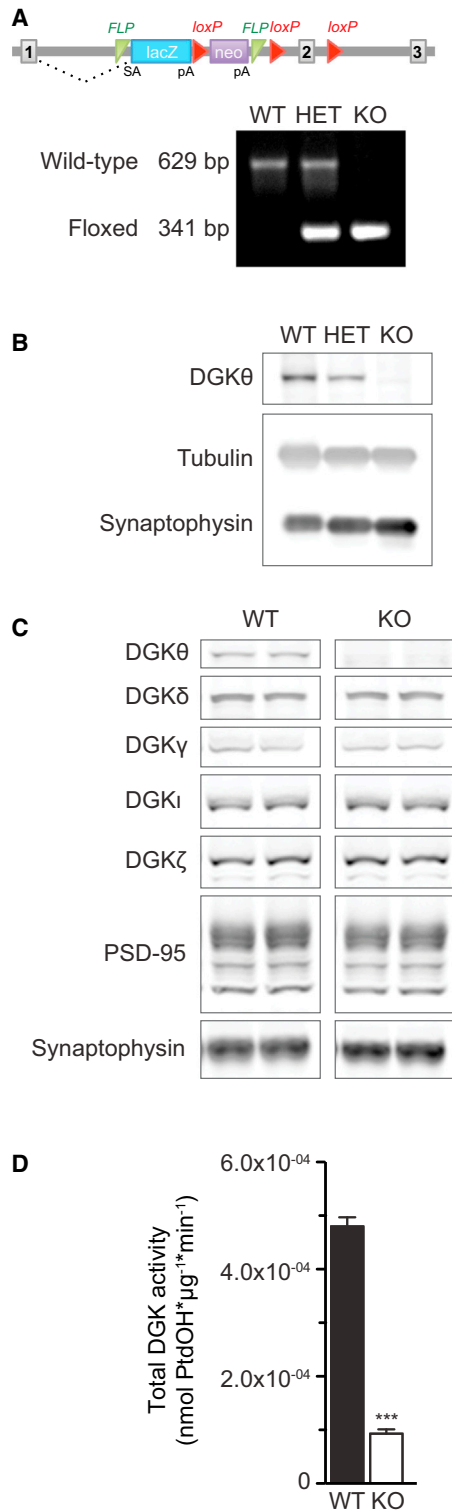


Figure 3. Total DGK Activity Is Reduced in DGK θ KO Mice

(A) Top: schematic of DGK θ KO allele (*Dgkq^{tm1a(KOMP)Wts}*). Exon 1 is spliced to the artificial splice acceptor (SA) in front of lacZ instead of another exon in the DGK θ gene. The poly-adenylation site (pA) terminates transcription after lacZ, preventing the transcription of the DGK θ RNA. Bottom: typical result of PCR for

remained unknown. In this study, we tested the hypothesis that DGK θ modulates neurotransmitter release at central synapses. We found that DGK θ protein expression is elevated during synaptogenesis and localizes specifically to excitatory synapses. Both acute and chronic loss of DGK θ slowed SV retrieval following neuronal stimulation. The endocytic defect could be rescued by ectopic expression of WT, but not catalytically inactive DGK θ , thus implicating DGK θ enzymatic activity in promoting the efficient recycling of SVs following neuronal activity.

A potential consequence of reduced synaptic DGK activity observed in DGK θ KO mice could be elevated levels of DAG in the plasma membrane. Since functional analogs of DAG are known to potentiate synaptic transmission (Rhee et al., 2002), we hypothesized that the slowed recycling kinetics measured in DGK θ KO neurons could be the result of augmented SV exocytosis. However, the rate of SV exocytosis reported by sypHy, assayed in the presence of the vesicular ATPase inhibitor, bafilomycin A1, was essentially identical in WT and KO neurons (Figure S2). These findings suggest that the SV recycling defect observed in DGK θ KO neurons is not secondary to altered exocytosis, and argues that DGK θ directly regulates the rate of SV endocytosis.

If DGK θ is regulating a distinct pool of DAG, not relevant for SV exocytosis, it raises the intriguing possibility that it is the PtdOH produced by DGK θ , rather than its consumption of DAG, that is crucial for maintaining efficient SV recycling. This notion is corroborated by the fact that DGK θ is responsible for generating a significant amount of PtdOH and, potentially PtdIns, in the brain. Interestingly, the role of DGK θ becomes much more prominent during intense neuronal stimulation, presumably due to an increase demand of PtdOH production at synapses. Consistent with this notion, previous studies in non-neuronal cells have shown that PtdOH production by DGKs as well as phospholipase D is important for clathrin-mediated endocytosis (Antonescu et al., 2010; Kawasaki et al., 2008; Los et al., 2004). Although our data implicate a role for DGK-mediated PtdOH production in SV endocytosis at central synapses, the involvement of a PLD cannot be ruled out. A deeper understanding of the distinct mechanisms used by individual lipid-metabolizing enzymes within the presynaptic terminal and how these pathways are integrated to ensure lipid homeostasis and efficient neuronal function will be critical for understanding the molecular basis of synaptic transmission as well as neurological diseases.

genotyping. Bands at 629bp and 341bp are indicative of DGK θ WT and KO alleles, respectively.

(B) Western blot analysis of protein extracts prepared from DGK θ WT, HET, and KO mouse brain tissue confirms the loss of DGK θ protein in KO lysates. Tubulin and synaptophysin blot showed equal loading of protein lysates.

(C) Western blot analysis of brain tissue isolated from two pairs of WT and KO mice run on the same gel. Samples were immunoblotted with antibodies against DGK θ , γ , ι , ζ , representing four classes of DGKs. Synaptophysin and PSD-95 blots showed equal loading of protein lysates.

(D) Average total DGK activity measured in vitro in 5 μ g of S1 fractions from five pairs of age-matched WT and KO forebrain tissues. Averages include three technical replicates per sample. Error bars represent SEM. Student's t test, ***p < 0.0001 against WT.

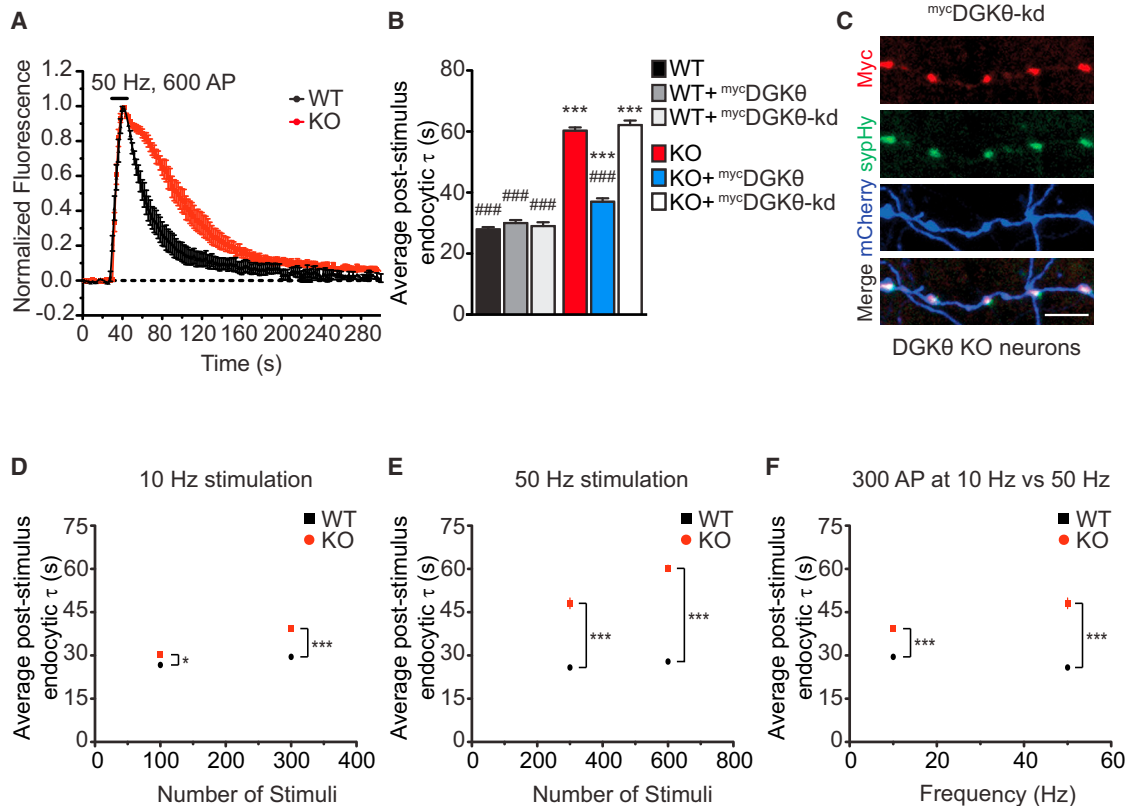


Figure 4. DGK θ Enzymatic Activity Is Required for Efficient SV Recycling

(A) Normalized average traces from WT (black) and KO (red) neurons expressing sypHy in response to a train of 600 APs (50 Hz).

(B) Comparison of average τ_{endo} values between WT and KO neurons expressing empty vector from (A), $\text{myc}^{\text{c}}\text{DGK}\theta$, or kinase-dead DGK θ ($\text{myc}^{\text{c}}\text{DGK}\theta\text{-kd}$) in response to the 50 Hz stimulus.

(C) DGK θ KO neurons (DIV20) expressing sypHy, mCherry, $\text{myc}^{\text{c}}\text{DGK}\theta\text{-kd}$ were stained with anti-myc (red), anti-GFP (green), and anti-mCherry (blue) antibodies. Merge image (bottom) shows $\text{myc}^{\text{c}}\text{DGK}\theta\text{-kd}$ colocalizes with sypHy reporter. Scale bar represents 5 μm .

(D–F) Defect in SV recycling is exaggerated with increasing number of stimuli (D and E) and higher frequency stimulation (F). (D) Average τ values measured in WT and KO neurons following trains of 100 or 300 APs delivered at 10 Hz. (E) Average τ values measured in WT and KO neurons following trains of 300 or 600 APs delivered at 50 Hz. (F) Comparison of the average τ values from (D) and (E) following a train of 300 APs delivered at 10 Hz and 50 Hz.

For all experiments shown in Figure 4, data represent \pm SEM from ≥ 200 boutons per condition; *** $p < 0.001$, against WT, ### $p < 0.001$ against KO, ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Animals

The DGK θ KO mouse ($\text{Dgkq}^{\text{tm}1\text{a(KOMP)Wtsi}}$) was obtained from the KOMP Repository. Sprague Dawley rats were used to generate embryos for neuronal cultures. All animals were treated in accordance with the Johns Hopkins University Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines.

Neuronal Culture and Transfection

Cortical neurons from E18 rat or E17 mouse pups were plated onto poly-L-lysine coated dishes or 18 mm coverslips in Neurobasal growth medium supplemented with 2% B27, 2 mM Glutamax, 50 U/ml penicillin, 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ streptomycin, and 5% Horse serum. FDU was added at days in vitro (DIV) 4 and neurons were maintained in glial-conditioned growth medium (1% serum) and fed twice a week. Neurons were transfected at DIV 11–12 using lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's instruction. SypHy and vGlut1-pH live-cell imaging was performed DIV 14–17.

Live-Cell Imaging

Coverslips containing neurons were mounted into a custom-built perfusion chamber and held at 37°C on the heated microscope stage. Cells were contin-

uously perfused with pre-warmed ACSF (in millimoles: 122.5, NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 2 CaCl_2 , 2 MgCl_2 , 30 D-glucose, 25 HEPES [pH 7.4]) and imaged at 0.5 Hz through a 40 \times (1.6 NA) oil objective using a Zeiss spinning-disk confocal microscope. SypHy and vGlut1-pH fluorescence was imaged at 488 nm excitation and collected through a 505–550 nm filter, whereas mCherry signal was imaged at 561 nm excitation and 575–615 nm emission. For KCl stimulation (ACSF with 50 mM KCl, 75 mM NaCl), 1 μM tetrodotoxin (TTX) was added to all buffers. For field stimulation, 10 μM 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (CNQX) and 50 μM D,L-2 amino-5-phosphonovaleric acid (AP5) were added to the ACSF instead of TTX. APs were delivered using platinum wires embedded in the imaging chamber at 100 mA and 1 ms pulse width. Quantitative imaging analyses were performed with ImageJ using the time-series plugin (Granseth et al., 2006), and the data were fitted using Prism 5 software (GraphPad Software). See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for details.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures and two figures and can be found with this article online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2015.12.022>.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, H.L.G. B.T. and D.M.R., Methodology, H.L.G. V.A., R.L.H. and D.M.R., Investigation, H.L.G. V.A., B.T. and L.V., Writing - Original Draft, H.L.G. R.L.H. and D.M.R., Writing - Review & Editing draft, H.L.G. V.A., B.T., L.V., R.L.H. and D.M.R., Funding Acquisition, H.L.G. V.A., R.L.H. and D.M.R., Supervision, R.L.H. and D.M.R.

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