A novel and specific regulator of neuronal V-ATPase in *Drosophila*

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Abstract

The V-ATPase is a highly conserved enzymatic complex that ensures appropriate levels of acidification in many organelles in virtually all eukaryotic cells. While the general mechanisms of this proton pump have been well studied, little is known about the specific regulations of neuronal V-ATPase. Here, we identify a novel neuronal *Drosophila* protein, named VhaAC45L, predicted from its sequence homology to be part of the V-ATPase family. This protein is addressed to synaptic terminals, and its expression is required for fly development and survival. We observed that VhaAC45L co-immunoprecipitated with V-ATPase subunits and that synaptic vesicles of larval motoneurons were not properly acidified in partial *VhaAC45L* knockdown context. This defect was associated with a decrease in quantal size and locomotor impairments in knockdown animals. Overall, our data provide compelling evidence that VhaAC45L is a specific regulator of neuronal V-ATPase in *Drosophila* that is required for synaptic vesicle acidification and neurotransmitter release.

Key words

Introduction

Many cellular processes require a specific electrochemical environment for proper functioning, such as post-translational modifications of proteins in the Golgi apparatus, lysosomal

degradation, endosomal ligand-receptor dissociation, or hormone concentration (reviewed in

Forgac, 2007). Eukaryotic cells use a highly conserved proton pump, called the vacuolar H^+-

ATPase (V-ATPase), to achieve the adequate level of acidity in different cellular compartments

(Saroussi and Nelson, 2009). This large enzymatic complex must be tightly regulated, as it is

essential for it to be localized on the right membrane, and to fit the different pH ranges specific

to each organelle and cell type.

In neurons, the V-ATPase plays a crucial role at the synapse, being responsible for acidifying

synaptic vesicles and thus providing the driving force for neurotransmitter loading (Moriyama et

al., 1992). Recently, neuronal V-ATPase has also gained interest in the context of aging and

neurodegenerative diseases, as its dysregulation, and resulting impairment of the autophagy-

lysosomal pathway, have been linked to several pathologies such as Alzheimer and Parkinson

disease (Colacurcio and Nixon, 2016; Collins and Forgac, 2020). If the core mechanism of the

proton pump is now well understood, the regulations conferring the cell-specific functions of

neuronal V-ATPase remain largely unknown, considerably limiting its potential use as a

therapeutic target.

The V-ATPase complex is composed of a cytoplasmic domain (V_1) and a membrane-bound

domain (V_0). The V_1 domain contains the catalytic unit responsible for ATP hydrolysis. The

energy resulting from this reaction powers a rotational molecular motor spanning from V_1 to V_0,

allowing protons to cross membranes through the port contained in V_0 (Vasanthakumar and

Rubinstein, 2020). The assembly of V_1 to V_0 is necessary for the pump to function, and

reversible dissociation of the two domains has been shown to occur as a way to regulate V-

ATPase activity (Collins and Forgac, 2020). Though the core mechanism stays the same, one V-

ATPase can differ from another by its composition. In vertebrates, as well as in *Drosophila*, V_0 is

made of five subunits (*a, c, c'', d* and *e*), while V_1 contains eight subunits (A, B, C, D, E, F, G and

H) (Allan et al., 2005). Each subunit can be coded by several genes, and each gene can produce

several isoforms, allowing many different possible combinations to form the full V-ATPase

complex. These differences of composition can also have regulatory effects on the complex,

both on its localization and on its functional properties (Vasanthakumar and Rubinstein, 2020).

The V-ATPase can also be regulated by two accessory subunits, ATP6AP1/Ac45 and

ATP6AP2/PRR (Jansen and Martens, 2012). Both proteins are found in the nervous tissue but

are also required in other organs, and their mutation has been linked to cognitive impairments

as well as systemic symptoms like immunodeficiency or hepatopathy (Jansen et al., 2016;

Cannata et al., 2018). These two subunits interact directly with the V_0 domain and are believed

to promote assembly of the membrane and soluble regions of the V-ATPase complex (Abbas et

al., 2020). Another potential accessory subunit exists in vertebrates, named ATP6AP1-like

(ATP6AP1L), which is homologous to ATP6AP1 and has not yet been studied. *Drosophila*

possesses identified homologs of ATP6AP1/Ac45 and ATP6AP2/PRR, named VhaAC45 and

ATP6AP2, respectively. These proteins also seem to contribute to assembly of the V-ATPase in

fly tissues (Schoonderwoert and Martens, 2002-a; Guida et al., 2018).

In this study, we examine the localization and function of another still uncharacterized

ATP6AP1/Ac45 homolog in *Drosophila*, named VhaAC45L, whose characteristic is to be

expressed selectively and ubiquitously in neurons. Whereas a complete deficiency of this

protein is lethal, we found that partial *VhaAC45L* knockdown in larval motoneurons impaired

synaptic vesicle acidification, leading to reduced quantal size, which is the amplitude of the

postsynaptic response to the release of a single synaptic vesicle, and locomotion defects. We

also report that VhaAC45L from brain tissue co-immunoprecipitated with V-ATPase subunits,

and in particular with ATP6AP2. Overall, our results indicate that VhaAC45L is a novel accessory

subunit of the V-ATPase that is specifically involved in the regulation of its activity in neurons.

92   Results

93   VhaAC45L is specifically expressed in neurons and addressed to synaptic areas

Here we studied the *Drosophila* gene *CG31030*, identified in FlyBase as a paralog of *VhaAC45*,

and so, as another fly ortholog of vertebrate *ATP6AP1/AC45* (Thurmond et al., 2019), that we

named therefore *VhaAC45-like (VhaAC45L)*. VhaAC45L and VhaAC45 indeed share 69.9%

similarity in amino-acid sequences (Supplementary Figure 1A), and *VhaAC45L* is also classified in

the V-ATPase family group by the InterPro database (accession: Q8IMJ0_DROME) (Mitchell et

al., 2019). According to FlyAtlas (Chintapalli et al., 2007), *VhaAC45* is apparently expressed

rather ubiquitously in *Drosophila* tissues, while in contrast *VhaAC45L* seems to be specifically

expressed in the nervous system in both larval and adult flies, making it a possible candidate for

the specific regulation of neuronal V-ATPase (Supplementary Figure 1B). To confirm this

assumption, we checked by qPCR the repartition of *VhaAC45L* transcripts in three parts of the

adult fly body: the head containing the brain, the thorax containing the ventral nerve cord

(VNC), and the abdomen, relatively poor in nervous tissue. Both females and males showed

highest expression in the head, minor expression in the thorax and no detectable expression in

the abdomen (Figure 1A). The expression of *VhaAC45L* therefore closely follows the repartition

of the nervous system in the fly body.

The single-cell RNA-Seq Scope database (Davie et al., 2018) furthermore indicates that, in

Drosophila, VhaAC45L is expressed in all neurons, with few or no expression in glial cells. To

verify this, we expressed three different *VhaAC45L* RNAi either with the pan-neuronal driver

elav-Gal4 or the pan-glial driver *repo-Gal4* (see Supplementary Table 3 for genotypes of the

different *Drosophila* lines used in this study). The expression of *VhaAC45L*[RNAi1] and *VhaAC45L*[RNA2]

was found to be lethal at embryonic and 1st larval stages, respectively, while *VhaAC45L*[RNAi3]

produced viable adults with a shortened longevity (Supplementary Figure 2), and obvious

locomotor impairments. This difference in phenotypes observed with different RNAi constructs

could be attributed to a variation in residual levels of the VhaAC45L protein. RT-qPCR

experiments showed that the pan-neuronal expression of *VhaAC45L*[RNAi3] together with the RNAi

booster *Dicer-2* (*Dcr-2*) was sufficient to decrease by more than 80% *VhaAC45L* transcripts

abundance in extracts from the adult heads (Figure 1B). On the other hand, glial expression of

this RNAi construct with *repo-gal4* had no significant effects on *VhaAC45L* transcript level

(Figure 1B), confirming that this gene is selectively expressed in neurons. It is interesting to note

that both *VhaAC45L*[RNAi1] and *VhaAC45L*[RNAi2] also induced lethal phenotypes at various

developmental stages when expressed either with a glutamatergic (*VGlut-Gal4*) or a cholinergic

(*Cha-Gal4*) driver (data not shown), in accordance with the RNA-Seq data of the Scope website

suggesting a pan-neuronal expression of this gene.

To validate these observations, we placed the available MIMIC line *VhaAC45L*[MI107] that contains

a stop codon inserted in the middle of the gene (Nagarkar-Jaiswal et al., 2015) over the

deficiency *Df(3R)Exel6214* encompassing *VhaAC45L* (Parks et al., 2004). The resulting mutant,

likely to be a null, was found to be embryonic lethal, in agreement with the results obtained

with two *VhaAC45L* RNAi lines. Remarkably, re-expressing the gene selectively in neurons, using

a *UAS-VhaAC45L* construct driven by *elav-Gal4*, was sufficient to rescue this lethality, producing

viable and fertile adults with no obvious behavioral defects (Supplementary Table 1). These

results strongly indicate that *VhaAC45L* is an essential gene whose expression appears to be

specifically required in neurons.

Next, we studied the cellular localization of this protein. We used the CRISPR-Cas9 technique to

insert a small V5 epitope tag in frame at the 3' end of its gene, disrupting the stop codon, thus

generating the *VhaAC45L*^{V5} mutant line (Figure 1C). By immunostaining with a V5-specific

antibody, we observed that the general expression pattern of VhaAC45L in adult brain (Figure

1D) and larval CNS (Figure 1E) was widespread and similar to that of the synaptic marker

Cadherin-N (CadN), indicative of a predominantly synaptic localization. No specific signal was

detected in a control w^{1118} line that does not contain the V5-tagged protein (not shown). Some

neuronal cell bodies were also marked with the V5 antibody in the *VhaAC45L*^{V5} line, both in

adult and larva, and the synapse-containing neuropile areas (like the antennal lobes) were not

as sharply defined as with the CadN antibody, suggesting that axons could also be

immunopositive. Finally, co-immunostaining of larval body wall muscles with anti-horseradish

peroxidase (HRP) antibodies, a marker of *Drosophila* neurons (Jan and Jan, 1982), showed

precise co-localization with the V5 signal, indicating that VhaAC45L is addressed to synaptic

boutons at the larval neuromuscular junction (Figure 1F).

Figure 1. VhaAC45L is expressed in neurons and addressed to synaptic areas. (**A**) In both males and

females, *VhaAC45L* mRNA abundance follows the localization of the CNS (shown in blue on the fly

sketch), with the highest expression in the head. Br: brain, VNC: ventral nerve cord. Results of three

independent experiments. (**B**) Expression of *VhaAC45L*[RNAi3] with *Dcr-2* in all neurons using *elav-Gal4*

decreased *VhaAC45L* mRNA level in head by more than 80%, while expression of the RNAi construct and

Dcr-2 in all adult glial cells with *repo-Gal4* had not effect. Results of three independent experiments.

Mean values with SD are reported on the graphs. (**C**) Construction of the *VhaAC45L*[V5] mutant strain. A V5

tag (in red) was fused to the C-terminal end of the VhaAC45L protein by inserting the V5 coding

sequence ended by a new stop codon (in blue) in place of the original stop codon (in green) in the

VhaAC45L gene using the CRISPR-Cas9 technology. (**D, E**) Anti-V5 immunostaining in the *VhaAC45L*[V5]

strain revealed that VhaAC45L is mainly addressed to synaptic areas in the adult brain (**D**) and larval CNS

(**E**), as indicated by its apparent colocalization with the presynaptic marker Cadherin-N (CadN). OL: optic

lobe, AL: antennal lobe, SO: subœsophageal ganglion. (**F**) A V5-immunopositive signal was also detected

at the neuromuscular junction of *VhaAC45L*[V5] larvae, and found to co-localize with anti-horseradish

peroxidase (HRP) immunostaining that labels neuronal membranes, confirming the synaptic localization

of *VhaAC45L*. Scale bars: 100 μm in D and E, and 10 μm in F.

VhaAC45L co-immunoprecipitates with V-ATPase proteins

The VhaAC45L protein is predicted to be part of the InterPro V-ATPase family, but no

experimental information is currently available regarding its potential interactors. To determine

whether VhaAC45L could interact, directly or indirectly, with subunits of the V-ATPase complex,

we carried out co-immunoprecipitation experiments using an anti-V5 antibody on proteins

extracted from heads of *VhaAC45L*[V5] mutants and w^{1118} control flies, followed by nano LC-MS/MS

mass-spectrometry analysis of the precipitated proteins. Three independent experiments were

performed to increase reliability, and in total, 410 proteins were identified in all three

experiments. Among those, only 12 proteins had at least a two-fold abundance difference with

the control in all three experiments (Figure 2A and Supplementary Table 2), one of them being,

as expected, the co-immunoprecipitation target VhaAC45L. Remarkably, three of the 11 other

proteins were identified as subunits of the V-ATPase complex: Vha100-1, VhaAC39-1 and

ATP6AP2 (Figure 2B).

Vha100-1 and *VhaAC39-1* code for subunits *a* and *d* of the V_0 domain, respectively

(Vasanthakumar and Rubinstein, 2020). The subunit *a*, coded by five different genes in

Drosophila, is the proton port of the pump (Collins and Forgac, 2020). Among the five isoforms,

Vha100-1, which co-immunoprecipitated with VhaAC45L in our experiments, has been shown to

be specifically required in neurons and present at the synapse (Hiesenger et al., 2005). Subunit *d*

of V_0 is coded by two *Drosophila* genes: *VhaAC39-1* and *VhaAC39-2*, and only the first co-

immunoprecipitated with VhaAC45L. According to FlyAtlas, VhaAC39-1 is expressed in many

tissues and enriched in the brain, while VhaAC39-2 seems to be mostly found in testis and

salivary glands. For both V_0 subunits, VhaAC45L thus co-precipitated with the likely neuronal

isoform. The co-immunoprecipitated V-ATPase subunit which appeared to be the most enriched

in the *VhaAC45L*[V5] sample was interestingly the accessory subunit ATP6AP2, suggesting a possible

direct interaction between this protein and VhaAC45L (Supplementary Table 2). These

experiments therefore reinforce the hypothesis that VhaAC45L directly interacts with the

neuronal V-ATPase complex, and more specifically with V_0 since all detected partners belong, or

interact, with this domain.

Figure 2. VhaAC45L co-immunoprecipitates with V-ATPase subunits. (**A**) Scatter plot of proteins

identified by nano LC-MS/MS in three independent co-immunoprecipitation experiments using anti-V5

antibodies. R_1 and R_2 represent the abundance ratio of proteins identified in adult head extracts from

VhaAC45L[V5] over *w*[1118] control in experiments 1 and 2, respectively. Solid lines indicate $Log_2(R) = 1$, which

corresponds to a two-fold abundance difference. 12 proteins were found to be at least twice as

abundant in *VhaAC45L*[V5] as in the control in all three experiments (red or blue dots on the graph). One of

them is the immunoprecipitation target VhaAC45L (yellow dot) and three of these proteins belong to the

V-ATPase complex (red dots). A list of these 12 proteins with their $Log_2(R)$ values is provided in

Supplementary Table 2. (**B**) Standard model of the *Drosophila* V-ATPase complex showing structure of

the V1 and V0 domains and the predicted localization of the three subunits that co-immunoprecipitated

with VhaAC45L.

VhaAC45L knockdown increases the pH of synaptic vesicles

Because VhaAC45L appeared to be mainly localized in synaptic areas (see Figure 1), we chose to

look at the physiological effect of its disruption at the *Drosophila* larval neuromuscular junction,

a model that has contributed to the study of many synaptic processes. At synaptic nerve

endings, a prominent role of the V-ATPase is to acidify the lumen of synaptic vesicles, the

electrochemical gradient generated providing the driving force to load and concentrate the

neurotransmitters. Thus, a malfunction of synaptic V-ATPase should induce a decrease of

neurotransmitter concentration inside the vesicles, potentially resulting in an altered synaptic

transmission.

To test this hypothesis, we co-expressed each of the two strongest *VhaAC45L* RNAi constructs

together with VMAT-pHluorin, a pH-sensitive probe targeted to synaptic vesicles (Wu et al.,

2013), in larval motoneurons using the glutamatergic driver *OK371-Gal4.* Both RNAi1 and RNAi2

induced a lethal phenotype at pupal stage in these conditions. VMAT-pHluorin is an ecliptic

pHluorin that is fluorescent at neutral pH, and gets quenched, by protonation, at acidic pH

(Miesenböck et al., 1998). Thus, in control condition, VMAT-pHluorin should not be fluorescent

in synaptic vesicles, whose pH is at around 5.5, but only when externalized on the presynaptic

membrane during exocytosis, and so, in contact with the more neutral synaptic cleft milieu. In

the case of an acidification defect of synaptic vesicles, the probe could be fluorescent both in

synaptic vesicles, where pH would be abnormally high, and on the presynaptic membrane

(Figure 3A, central panel).

In order to evaluate the ratio of the internal fluorescence (from synaptic vesicles) over the

external fluorescence (from the presynaptic membrane) at the neuromuscular junction of

VhaAC45L knockdown larvae compared to controls, we first quenched the external signal by

replacing the physiological milieu by an identical one with pH adjusted to 5.5 (Figure 3A, left

panel). This operation resulted in only the internal signal being conserved. In controls, this

meant that all signal was abolished, as expected because the synaptic vesicles were normally

acidified (Figure 3B, left panel). In contrast and strikingly, a residual signal was still visible in this

acidic milieu in both RNAi1 and RNAi2 knockdown larvae (Figure 3B, right panel). Quantification

of the ratio of fluorescence area in acidic milieu over neutral milieu showed that about 37% of

the total signal remained visible in the RNAi larvae after external quenching (Figure 3C and D).

To verify that the residual signal seen in knockdown larvae was indeed coming from inside

vesicles, the opposite strategy was used: instead of quenching the outside signal, we revealed

all the internal one by collapsing the pH gradient of synaptic vesicles (Figure 3A, right panel). To

do so, we replaced the physiological milieu by an ammonium solution, as previously described

(Poskanzer and Davis, 2004). This solution had the same composition except that 50 mM NaCl

were replaced by 50 mM NH_4Cl. Ammonium and ammonia being in equilibrium ($NH_4^+ \rightleftarrows NH_3 +$

H^+), uncharged ammonia crosses membranes and binds to protons leading to an alkalization of

vesicle lumen pH. This increase of vesicular pH is maintained during NH_4Cl exposure. In control

condition, this gradient collapse should reveal the VMAT-pHluorin probe present in synaptic

vesicles and thus highly increase the fluorescent signal. On the contrary, in the case of an

acidification defect, the signal should remain fairly stable since synaptic vesicles are already

fluorescent. Results were consistent with this hypothesis: while the fluorescence of controls

increased about 3 folds in the pH collapsing ammonium solution, the signal in *VhaAC45L*

knockdown larvae hardly rose by 10 to 20% depending on the RNAi construct (Figure 3E, F and

G). Taken together, these results indicate that *VhaAC45L* knockdown significantly decreases

protons concentration in synaptic vesicles of motoneuron terminals.

Figure 3. VhaAC45L knockdown larvae have a synaptic vesicle acidification defect. (**A**) Schematic

representation of the protocols used to assess relative acidity levels of synaptic vesicles at the larval

neuromuscular junction. (*Top center diagram*) In control conditions, fluorescence can be emitted by

VMAT-pHluorin in the presynaptic membrane but not in synaptic vesicles since their lumen is acidified. In

case of defective synaptic vesicle acidification, both the presynaptic membrane and synaptic vesicles

should emit fluorescence. (*Left diagram*) The fluorescence emitted by VMAT-pHluorin in the presynaptic

membrane can be quenched by replacing the extracellular medium with an acidic HL3 solution. This

quenching should result in an almost complete extinction of the signal in control flies, in which synaptic

vesicles are normally acidified, while a residual signal is expected to be visible in flies having a synaptic

vesicle acidification defect. (*Right diagram*) Replacement of 50 mM NaCl by 50 mM NH_4Cl in the neutral

HL3 solution should lead to a collapse of the pH gradients due to the free diffusion of NH3 in

membranes, so that fluorescence will be emitted both by the presynaptic membrane and synaptic

vesicles both in control and mutant conditions. (**B**) Representative pictures showing the effect of

perfusing an acidic HL3 solution on VMAT-pHluorin fluorescence in control and *VhaAC45L* knockdown

larvae. (**C**, **D**) Quantification of the ratio of the fluorescence level at pH 5.5 over the original signal at pH

7.6. Whereas the low pH extinguished fluorescence in control flies, about 37% of the signal persisted

after quenching in *VhaAC45L* knockdown larvae using two different RNAi constructs. (**E**) Representative

pictures showing the effect of collapsing the synaptic vesicle pH by perfusing HL3-NH_4Cl in control and

VhaAC45L knockdown larvae. (**F**, **G**) Quantification of the ratio of the signal in HL3-NH_4Cl over the

original signal in HL3 showed that fluorescence increased about 3-fold in controls while it only rose by 10

to 20% depending on the RNAi in *VhaAC45L* knockdown larvae. Results of four independent

experiments, with 3-5 larvae analyzed per genotype in each experiment. Paired Student's *t*-test, *$p <$

0.05 **$p < 0.01$. Mean values with 95% confidence intervals are reported on the graphs. Scale bar: 15 μm

in B and E.

VhaAC45L downregulation decreases larval locomotor performance

A reduced pH gradient of synaptic vesicles in larval motoneurons could alter synaptic

transmission and, consequently, the larval locomotor behavior. To assess locomotion, we

recorded the spontaneous crawling of 3rd-instar larvae expressing *VhaAC45L* RNAi1 or RNAi2 in

motoneurons with *OK371-Gal4* on an agar plate with no food source for 2-min periods. Tracking

was then performed using the FIMtrack software (Risse et al., 2014), allowing measurement of

the total distance travelled and of the stride size, defined as the distance crawled during one

peristaltic wave of muscle contraction, and duration (Figure 4A). The knockdown larvae

obviously moved less than controls on the plate, as confirmed by their trajectory maps (Figure

4B and C), travelling a distance only half as long as controls with both RNAi (Figure 4E and F).

This effect was not simply due to a difference in larval size, as the average length and width of

recorded larvae were not significantly different (Supplementary Figure 3).

In contrast, the stride size actually showed little or no difference, depending on the RNAi,

between knockdown larvae and controls (Figure 4G and H). Instead, we found that the stride

duration, which is the time necessary to accomplish one peristaltic wave, was significantly

longer in knockdown animals compared to controls for both RNAi (Figure 4I and J). These results

suggest that the knockdown larvae may need about twice as much time as controls to reach the

required level of muscular contraction to accomplish one stride. This could be a compensatory

mechanism to adapt to a lower amount of neurotransmitter released in response to motor

nerve stimulation, as would be expected if synaptic vesicles are less filled with neurotransmitter

in *VhaAC45L* knockdown context.

Figure 4. VhaAC45L downregulation in motoneurons decreases larval locomotor performance. (**A**)

Schematic representation of the successive phases of larval locomotion. Stride size is defined as the

distance crawled during one peristaltic wave of muscle contraction, while stride duration is the time

necessary for the completion of one peristaltic wave. (**B**-**D**) Locomotor trails of individual larvae recorded

over a period of 2 min. Larvae expressing *VhaAC45L* RNAi in motoneurons show reduced spontaneous

movements (**C**) compared to the driver and UAS controls (**B** and **D**, respectively). Scale bar: 25 mm. (**E**, **F**)

Quantification of the travelled distances confirmed that knocking down *VhaAC45L* in motoneurons with

two different RNAi induced significant locomotor defects. (**G**-**J**) Stride size (**G**, **H**) appears to be much less

affected than stride duration (**I**, **J**) in the knocked-down larvae. Result of five independent experiments,

with 3-4 larvae analyzed per genotype in each experiment. Repeated-measures one-way ANOVA with

Dunnett's post-test for multiple comparisons, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0,001$. Mean values with 95%

confidence intervals are reported on the graphs.

Quantal size is reduced in *VhaAC45L* knockdown larvae

The locomotor deficit of *VhaAC45L* knockdown larvae could originate from an impairment of

synaptic transmission at the neuromuscular junction or a defect in the central control of motor

behavior, or both. To determine if neurotransmission was affected, we carried out

electrophysiological recordings to measure the quantal size, which is the postsynaptic response

to the release of one synaptic vesicle, at the larval neuromuscular junction. We expressed

VhaAC45L RNAi1 or RNAi2 in motoneurons with the *OK371-Gal4* driver, and recorded

spontaneous miniature excitatory postsynaptic potentials (mEPSPs) intracellularly from ventral

longitudinal abdominal muscle 6 of segment A3 (Figure 5A). These muscles are innervated by

synaptic boutons that are clearly marked by *OK371-Gal4*, as shown by the co-localization of

membrane-associated GFP and the postsynaptic marker Discs large (Dlg) in *OK371>mCD8::GFP*

flies (Figure 5B). Representative amplitude distributions of mEPSPs in a control and RNAi1 larvae are

shown in Figure 5C. Quantal analysis of recorded events confirmed that both RNAi1 and RNAi2

knockdown larvae have a significantly reduced quantal size compared to controls (Figure 5D),

suggesting a decrease in glutamate vesicular uptake, and potentially linking vesicle acidification

340 defect and locomotor impairment. The V-ATPase dysfunction in synapses of *VhaAC45L*

341 knockdown larvae apparently led to incomplete loading of vesicles, thus decreasing the amount

342 of neurotransmitter released per unit of time during a peristaltic wave, and therefore slowing

343 down larval locomotion. Although the mean frequency of mEPSPs of both RNAi1 and RNAi2

344 larvae appeared lower than controls, this effect was not statistically significant (Figure 5E). This

345 may suggest that the acidification defect induced by *VhaAC45L* RNAi knockdown did not highly

346 increased the number of empty vesicles.

Figure 5. Synaptic quanta size is reduced in *VhaAC45L* knockdown larvae. (**A**) Schematic representation

of a dissected larval fillet. Spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic potentials (EPSPs) were recorded

intracellularly from the ventral longitudinal abdominal muscle 6 in segment A3. (**B**) Expression of

membrane-associated mCD8::GFP with the glutamatergic driver *OK371-Gal4* strongly labels the

presynaptic nerve endings at the neuromuscular junction of muscles 6-7 in segment A3. The scaffolding

protein Discs large (Dlg) was used as a postsynaptic marker. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**C**) Representative

distributions of spontaneous mEPSPs recorded in a control larva (*top panel*, *in grey*) and a *VhaAC45L*

RNAi knockdown larva (*bottom panel, in orange*). The dotted lines represent actually recorded

amplitudes and the plain lines the computed theoretical distributions. Genotypes and quantal size (q)

are indicated on each graph. (**D**) Quantal analysis of recorded events showed that knockdown larvae

have a significantly reduced synaptic quanta size compared to controls, both with *VhaAC45L* RNAi1 (*top*

panel, in orange) or RNAi2 (*bottom panel*, *in blue*). (E) Although both RNAi1 (*left panel*) and RNAi2 (*right*

panel) larvae had a lower mean EPSP frequency than controls, this difference was not statistically

significant. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test for multiple comparisons, *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$,

***$p < 0.001$. Mean values with 95% confidence intervals are reported on the graphs.

Discussion

In this study, we have investigated the hypothesis that a previously uncharacterized *Drosophila*

protein, called VhaAC45L, is a regulator of the neuronal V-ATPase. At variance with its broadly

expressed paralog VhaAC45, we have shown that VhaAC45L is found mainly, if not only, in

neurons. We also provide evidence that VhaAC45L interacts with two constitutive subunits and

one accessory subunit of the V-ATPase, the constitutive ones being also enriched in neurons,

and that it is required to have properly acidified synaptic vesicles. This implies that VhaAC45L is

an essential protein for nervous system functioning in *Drosophila*.

In yeast, all V-ATPase subunits are coded by a single gene, with the exception of the V_0 subunit

a. The knock-out of any of the single-gene subunits all present a similar phenotype: the inability

to survive in a neutral pH environment (Nelson, 2003). For subunit *a*, the same phenotype was

only achieved in a double-mutant of both isoforms (Manolson et al., 1994). In multicellular

organisms, mutations of V-ATPase subunits, or accessory proteins, also often lead to a lethal

phenotype at various developmental stages, whether in mice (Inoue et al., 1999; Sun-Wada et

al., 2000; Schoonderwoert et al., 2002-b), *C. elegans* (Lee et al., 2010), or flies (Davies et al.,

1996; Allan et al., 2005). Similarly, a *VhaAC45L* null mutant was found to be embryonic lethal,

and, interestingly, this lethality could be rescued to the adult stage by re-expressing *VhaAC45L*

in all neurons, showing that the protein is specifically required in this cell type for fly survival.

The percentage of adult survivors was about three times less than what would be expected in

case of a full rescue (Supplementary Table 1) and the missing two-thirds likely died at an early

developmental stage as no larval lethality was observed. This could be explained by the fact that

VhaAC45L protein re-expression in rescued knock-out flies first required the expression of Gal4

under regulation of the *elav* promoter, which starts to express rather late in embryos, followed

by activation of the UAS sequence upstream the *VhaAC45L* insert. So, it is possible that part of

the mutant embryos did not survive the delay inherent to this ectopic expression process.

We found that *VhaAC45L* transcripts follows the repartition of the nervous system, being mainly

found in *Drosophila* head. Moreover, pan-neuronal expression of *VhaAC45L*[RNAi3], the RNAi

construct with the weakest effect on fly survival, was sufficient to decrease by more than 80%

its level in the head of adult escapers. These results indicate that VhaAC45L expression is mainly

neuronal, if not even entirely restricted to neurons. In addition, VhaAC45L cellular localization

shows similarity with a synaptic pattern. Cell bodies were also marked, although generally less

strongly. Synaptic protein complexes can be assembled in the cell bodies before being

transported in axons, and it is the case for the soluble and membrane-bound domains of

synaptic V-ATPase, as was shown in *Torpedo* (Morel et al., 1998). It is difficult to decide whether

the signal coming from cell bodies corresponds to a functional site for VhaAC45L or rather to

newly produced proteins that have not yet been targeted to synapses. However, the prominent

signal in synaptic areas led us to assume that VhaAC45L plays an important role in some

synaptic processes.

In presynaptic terminals, the most abundant organelles are synaptic vesicles, which require

acidification to provide the driving force for neurotransmitter loading. This acidification is

ensured by the V-ATPase pump, which generates an electrochemical gradient by importing

protons into the vesicle lumen, thus creating both a membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi$, inside positive

voltage) and a pH gradient (ΔpH, acidic lumen). Our experiments showed that the knockdown of

VhaAC45L at the glutamatergic larval neuromuscular junction increased the internal pH of

synaptic vesicles, and so decreased the ΔpH component of the electrochemical gradient

generated by the V-ATPase. This result is however by itself insufficient to conclude to a

dysfunction of the proton pump, since other players have been shown to influence synaptic

vesicle pH gradient downstream V-ATPase activity. For example, cation/H^+ exchangers, found on

synaptic vesicles, can decrease ΔpH while increasing $\Delta\Psi$ by exchanging cations, like Na^+ or K^+,

against luminal H^+ (Takamori, 2016). This activity can be upregulated by increased intracellular

concentration of these cations (Huang and Trussell, 2014). Glutamate being negatively charged,

its transport across vesicular membrane is predominantly driven by $\Delta\Psi$ (Maycox et al., 1988;

Tabb at al., 1992). As a consequence, the increased membrane potential resulting from up-

regulation of cation/H+ exchangers actually facilitates glutamate uptake (Goh et al., 2011;

Huang and Trussell, 2014). We measured synaptic quanta size by quantal analysis of mEPSPs of

VhaAC45L knockdown larvae and found that it was decreased, contrary to what would be

expected in the case of an upregulation of cation/H^+ exchanger activity. This apparent decrease

of vesicular glutamate concentration was corroborated by its phenotypical consequence,

namely the locomotion defect exhibited by knockdown larvae. This suggests that the observed

diminution of ΔpH is correlated with a diminution of $\Delta\Psi$, thus pointing towards a V-ATPase

malfunction. This hypothesis is further supported by the co-immunoprecipitation of VhaAC45L

with three V-ATPase subunits, with all of them being associated with the neuronal V-ATPase.

Altogether, these results strongly suggest that VhaAC45L is a neuronal protein necessary to V-

ATPase function in synapses. Some V-ATPase subunits isoforms have been shown to target

specific subcellular compartments, like the *Torpedo* V_0 a1 isoform which is found in synaptic V-

ATPase and not in neuronal cell bodies (Morel et al., 2003). Similarly, VhaAC45L could be

specifically involved in the regulation of synaptic V-ATPase, or, alternatively, globally act on all

neuronal V-ATPase. Specificity level could even be pushed further, since synaptic vesicles are

not the only organelles requiring acidification that are localized in synapses. Thus, a synaptic V-

ATPase regulator could be devoted to synaptic vesicles as it could be affecting more generally all

synaptic V-ATPase complexes, indifferently of their membrane localization. The answer to such

questions could help better understand regulations of synaptic transmission, since synaptic V-

ATPase activity is one of the pre-synaptic modulators of quantal response (Takamori, 2016;

Gowrisankaran and Milosevic, 2020).

While accessory subunits directly interact with V-ATPase domains, other stimulus can indirectly

affect activity of the complex, like glucose concentration or serotonin (Sautin et al., 2005; Voss

et al., 2007). Co-precipitation of VhaAC45L with V-ATPase subunits does not necessarily imply a

direct interaction, but suggests *a minima* an indirect association with the complex, possibly in a

non-transient manner. The impairment in V-ATPase activity induced by VhaAC45L

downregulation rules out the hypothesis of an inhibitory action of this protein on the proton

pump. Nevertheless, the precise requirement of VhaAC45L for activity of the V-ATPase complex

still remains unknown to date. Lethality of the mutant could indicate an essential role of

VhaAC45L in V-ATPase function. However, some V-ATPase regulators and accessory subunits

have been found in other signaling pathways, like ATP6AP2 in the renin-angiotensin system

(Nguyen, 2010), so we cannot exclude that lethality could be due to VhaAC45L playing a part in

other vital neuronal functions. High signal in axons could also point to a role in targeting the

complex to the synapses. The two domains of the V-ATPase, V0 and V1, are believed to be

assembled in cellular bodies before being separately transported to synaptic area, V_0 by fast

axonal anterograde transport, most likely directly on new synaptic vesicles, and V_1 by slow

axonal transport like other cytoplasmic synaptic proteins (Morel et al., 1998). VhaAC45L could

be involved in the transport of one of the two domains, and effects of VhaAC45L knockdown

could then result from a decreased synaptic abundance of the affected V-ATPase domain.

However, it is believed that only one copy of the V-ATPase complex is sufficient to properly

acidify one synaptic vesicle (Takamori et al., 2006), a consequence of this being that

neurotransmitter loading would be an all-or-none process. Consistent with this, mutation of the

Drosophila synaptic V_0 subunit Vha100-1 does not seem to impact quantal size but rather

mEPSP frequency, potentially reflecting the presence of an increased number of empty synaptic

vesicles (Hiesinger et al., 2005). Similarly, a reduction in the frequency of spontaneous quantal

events with no change in quantal size was observed when the *Drosophila* vesicular

glutamatergic transporter (VGlut) was downregulated, also suggesting that a single copy of

VGlut is sufficient for proper acidification of a vesicle (Daniels et al., 2006). The fact that

VhaAC45L knockdown changes the quantal size but not significantly mEPSP frequency seems to

point toward a role of this accessory protein in V-ATPase efficiency, rather than in a process

affecting the abundance of the complex such as synaptic targeting.

In this respect, it is interesting to note that the V-ATPase protein that more consistently co-

immunoprecipitated with VhaAC45L in our experiments is the accessory subunit ATP6AP2, the

fly homolog of human ATP6AP2/PRR. Together with ATP6AP1/Ac45, ATP6AP2 has been

proposed to enable the assembly and disassembly of the catalytic and membrane domains of

the V-ATPase in the mammalian brain (Abbas et al., 2020). This suggests that VhaAC45L could

play a role in the regulation of these dynamic processes, which could also influence

neurotransmitter loading and release in a more continuous way. Our results suggest indeed that

modulating V-ATPase activity in presynaptic terminals can finely affect quantal size. Whether

such regulation actually occurs in physiological, or pathological, conditions remains to be

established. Importantly, human *ATP6AP2/PRR* is known to be a Parkinsonism candidate gene

and its mutations in humans, mice or flies can lead to cognitive impairment, neurodegeneration

and epilepsy (Korvatska et al., 2013; Dubos et al. 2015; Ichihara and Yatabe, 2019). It is

therefore of major interest to identify a potential new interactor of ATP6AP2 that is specific to

the nervous system, as it could help better understand the consequences of V-ATPase

dysregulation on synaptic transmission in pathological contexts. Accordingly, it would be very

interesting to determine whether human ATP6AP1 and/or ATP6AP1L share a conserved

function with *Drosophila* VhaAC45L in the nervous system. Every new actor identified allows us

to paint a more detailed picture of the complex regulations surrounding neuronal V-ATPase

specificity, providing new angles for potential therapeutic targets, and a better understanding of

fundamental processes such as synaptic transmission.

Materials and methods

***Drosophila* strains, construction and culture**

Flies were raised on standard agar-cornmeal-yeast medium, at 25°C in a 12:12h light-dark cycle.

VhaAC45L RNAi strains and mutants were obtained from the Bloomington *Drosophila* stock

center (BDSC) and the Vienna Drosophila Resource Center (VDRC). Detailed genotypes and

references of these lines are provided in Supplementary Table 3. To construct the *UAS-*

VhaAC45L strain, the *VhaAC45L* cDNA was PCR amplified from the clone RH09162 obtained

from the *Drosophila* Genomics Resource Center, Indiana University, USA, using the following

primers with added restriction sites: P1-EcoRI (forward) 5'-

CCATCCGAATTCAAAATGCAGCTGATTCTCGT and P2-XhoI (reverse) 5'-

TGGCTGCTCGAGATCTATTGGGTTATGAGAGA. The 1160 bp PCR fragment was inserted into

pUAST (Brand and Perrimon, 1993), verified by sequencing (GATC Biotech) and sent to

BestGene, Chino Hills, CA, USA, for P-element transformation by random insertion in w^{1118}

background. A 2d-chromosome insertion of *UAS-VhaAC45L* that yielded strong expression of the

transgene was used thereafter.

Reverse transcription-coupled qPCR

Total RNAs were extracted from 20 heads (or 15 thoraces or 15 abdomens) of 8-day-old flies

using the QIAzol Lysis reagent (Qiagen). The Maxima First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, ref. K1671) was used with oligo(dT)20 primers to synthesize the cDNAs.

Relative quantitative PCR assays were carried out using a LightCycler 480 and the SYBR Green I

Master mix (Roche LifeScience), with *Act5C* as internal control for normalization of mRNA levels.

All reactions were performed in triplicate. The specificity of amplification products was assessed

by melting curve analyses. The following forward and reverse primers, were used: for

VhaAC45L, 5'-GGCTTCGTTGTAGGCCAACAGA and 5'-CACCAGGTATCCCAAGTTCCAGA; for *Act5C*,

5'-CGTCGACCATGAAGATCAAG and 5'-TTGGAGATCCACATCTGCTG.

CRISPR/Ca9 gene tagging

The sequence of a V5 tag was inserted in frame after the coding sequence of the *VhaAC45L*

gene, using a homology-directed repair CRISPR-Cas9 method (see Figure 1C). The following

guide RNA sequence: 5'-TTCACCGTACAGGAGTAAGG-3' was cloned into the BbsI site of pCFD3:

U6:3-gRNA plasmid (Port et al., 2014) (kind gift of Hervé Tricoire, Université de Paris, Paris,

France). This plasmid was then injected, at a concentration of 500 ng/µL, with the following

single-stranded oligodeoxynucleotide (ssODN) donor repair template: 5'-

GTTCGCGCAGCAAACAGTTGACCTTCACCGTACAGGAGTAC<u>GCAGGTAAGCCTATCCCTAACCCTCTCCT</u>

<u>CGGTCTAGATTCTACG</u>TAAGGAGGTCATAAGTCTCTGATGAACCAATAGATCTCGGGC-3' (synthetized

by Integrated DNA Technology, Leuven, Belgium), also at a concentration of 500 ng/μL (the

sequence underlined corresponds to the in-frame V5 tag), into *nos-cas9* embryos (genotype y^1,

P(nos-cas9, w+), M(3xP3-RFP.attP)ZH-2A, w*) (Port et al., 2014). An alanine was added before

the V5 tag (dashed underline) to prevent the creation of a potential tyrosine phosphorylation

site. Embryo injections were performed by BestGene (Chino Hills, CA, USA). Single F_0 flies were

crossed over the *TM6C*(*Sb*) balancer to establish stable lines. DNA was then extracted from

three flies of each of these independent lines, and V5 insertion events were detected by dot

blot using a mouse anti-V5 tag monoclonal antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Ref. R960-25).

Positive strains were outcrossed in a w^{1118} background and their genomic DNA was sequenced

to check for proper in-frame V5 integration in *VhaAC45L*. One of these equivalent *VhaAC45L*^{V5}

mutant line was selected for further studies.

Immunohistochemistry

Adult brains of 8-day-old females, or 3rd-instar larva CNS, were dissected in *Drosophila* Ringer's

solution or hemolymph-like saline solution (HL3) (70 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1.5 mM $CaCl_2$, 70 mM

$MgCl_2$, 10 mM $NaHCO_3$, 115 mM sucrose, 5 mM trehalose, 5 mM HEPES, with pH adjusted to

7.6), respectively, and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Thermo Fischer Scientific) for one hour.

After three 20-min washes in PBS plus 0.5% Triton X-100 (PBT), brains were blocked in PBT + 2%

bovine serum albumin for two hours. They were then incubated in primary antibodies diluted in

blocking solution for 24 h at 4°C. The primary antibodies used were: mouse monoclonal anti-V5

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, ref. R960-25, 1:200) and rat anti-CadN (DSHB, ref.DN-Ex #8, 1:20).

Brains were then washed three times, for 20 min each, in PBT before being incubated in

secondary antibodies for 2 hours. Secondary antibodies used were: Alexa Fluor 488 anti-mouse

and Alexa Fluor 555 anti-rat (Fisher Scientific, ref.A11029 and ref. A21434 respectively), all

diluted at 1:1000. After two 20-min washes in PBT followed by two 20-min washes in PBS, brains

were mounted in Prolong Gold Antifade Mountant (Thermo Fisher Scientific, ref. P36930).

Imaged were acquired on a Nikon A1R confocal microscope.

For immunostaining of the larval muscles and neuromuscular junctions, the Alexa Fluor 488

Tyramide SuperBoost Kit (Thermo Fisher, ref. B40912) was used to increase the V5 signal that

was otherwise faint in this tissue. The working protocol was as recommended by the

manufacturer, with anti-V5 diluted to 1:100, then followed by classical immunostaining, as

described above, to co-stain for the nerve terminals with an anti-HRP antibody (Jackson

ImmunoResearch, ref. 323-005-021, 1:200).

Longevity assay

About 110 virgin females from each genotype were collected on their hatching day, and placed

in clean bottles, with no more than 25 flies per bottle. Flies were transferred in new clean

bottles, and survivors were counted every two days for 60 days.

Co-immunoprecipitation

About 200 heads from 8 day-old $VhaAC45L^{V5}$ and w^{1118} flies were lysed using glass beads in 500

μL of ice-cold lysis buffer: 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 2 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% (vol/vol)

IGEPAL CA-630 (Sigma-Aldrich, ref. I3021), 10% (vol/vol) glycerol, 1 mM PMSF protease inhibitor

(Sigma-Aldrich, ref. P-7626) and 1X cOmplete Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche, ref.

11836153001). Samples were left on ice, with occasional gentle agitation, for 30 min before

being centrifuged at 12,000 rpm (13,000 g) at 4°C for 10 min to remove insoluble material. 400

µL of the supernatants were then added to 50 µL of Anti-V5-tag mAb-Magnetic Beads (MBL

International, Woburn, MA, USA, ref. M167-11), that had been previously washed as

recommended by the manufacturer. Samples were incubated with gentle agitation at 4°C for 4

hours. The supernatants were removed using a magnetic rack, and beads were washed three

times with 500 µM of ice-cold lysis buffer before being resuspended in 10 µL of milliQ water.

Mass spectrometry

The MS/MS analysis was performed at the Proteomics facility of the Institut Jacques Monod

(Université de Paris, Paris, France). Briefly, proteins were directly digested on the beads by

trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) overnight at 37°C in a 25-mM NH_4HCO_3 buffer (0.2 µg

trypsin in 20 µL). The resulting peptides were desalted on a ZipTip µ-C18 Pipette Tips (Pierce

Biotechnology, Rockford, IL, USA). Eluates were analyzed using either an Orbitrap Fusion or an

Orbitrap Q-Exactive Plus, coupled respectively to a Nano-LC Proxeon 1200 or a Nano-LC Proxeon

1000, both equipped with an easy spray ion source (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA,

USA). Raw data were processed on Proteome Discoverer 2.4 with the mascot node (Mascot

version 2.5.1), with a maximum of 2 missed cleavages authorized, against the Swissprot/TrEMBL

protein database release 2019_12 for *Drosophila melanogaster*. The following post-translational

modifications were included as variable: Acetyl (Protein N-term), Oxidation (M),

Phosphorylation (STY). Peptide identifications were validated with a 1% FDR (false discovery

rate) threshold calculated with the Percolator algorithm. Label-free quantification was done in

TOP 3 abundance calculation mode with pairwise ratio-based calculation and t-test (background

based) hypothesis test. Only proteins identified in at least one group in two independent

experiments were kept in the analysis. Missing values were set to the minimum abundance of

the experiment. A more detailed description of the LC-MS/MS procedure is provided in the

Supplementary Information.

VMAT-pHluorin experiments

Third-instar larvae expressing VMAT-pHluorin with or without *VhaAC45L* RNAi in motor neurons

using the *OK371-Gal4* driver, were dissected to expose the body wall muscles in Ca^{2+}-free HL3

saline solution (70 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 70 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM $NaHCO_3$, 115 mM sucrose, 5 mM

trehalose, 5 mM HEPES, pH 7.6). Two other solutions were used: an acidic Ca^{2+}-free HL3 saline

(pH 5.5) and a neutral HL3-NH_4Cl saline (pH 7.6), in which 50 mM NaCl was replaced by 50 mM

NH_4Cl. After dissection, larvae fillets were allowed to settle in Ca^{2+}-free HL3 saline for 10 min

before being scanned a first time directly in a drop of the solution using a Nikon A1R confocal

microscope. Ca^{2+}-free HL3 saline was then replaced either by the acidic Ca^{2+}-free HL3 saline for

low pH-induced quenching experiments, or by the HL3- NH_4Cl saline for pH gradient collapse

experiments. In both cases, larval fillets were rinsed three times with the modified solution, and

incubated for 3 min, before being scanned a second time, in a drop of modified solution.

Quantification was done on Z-projections (set to maximal intensity) of confocal stacks. Using the

Fiji software, a fixed threshold was applied to all images to get rid of the background and select

only synaptic areas. Percentage of area over the threshold was used as a measure of the signal

intensity and ratios of the values obtained in modified solutions over standard HL3, i.e. the

second scan over the first scan, were calculated for quantifications.

Larval locomotion assays

Larval locomotion was assessed on an in-house made version of the FIMtable system (Risse et

al., 2014). Third-instar larvae were collected and briefly rinsed in water to remove traces of

food, before being gently placed on the recording table precoated with a thin layer of 1.2% agar

gel. Only four larvae of the same genotype were recorded simultaneously, to avoid collisions

between animals, for a period of 2 min with a Basler ace acA2040-25gm camera at 12.5

frames/s. Larvae that burrowed themselves into the agar plate or escaped the arena before the

end of recording were excluded from the results. Tracking was done using the FIMtrack

software, as described in (Risse et al., 2014). The number of peristaltic waves was computed

from the variations in larval area. More precisely, the curves of area variation were first

smoothed with a Savitzky-Golay filter to get rid of unwanted noise, then the number of waves

was defined as the number of peaks on the curve (which was automatically computed by a

custom-made Python script). Stride size was then calculated as the distance travelled by the

larva divided by the number of peristaltic waves, while stride duration was defined as the

recording time (i.e. 120 seconds) divided by the number of peristaltic waves.

Electrophysiological recording and quantal analysis

Third-instar larvae expressing *VhaAC45L* RNAi in motor neurons using the *OK371-Gal4* driver,

and appropriate controls, were dissected to expose the body wall muscles, and the brain

removed, in Ca^{2+}-free HL3 saline solution (70 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 70 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM

$NaHCO_3$, 115 mM sucrose, 5 mM trehalose, 5 mM HEPES, pH 7.6) (Stewart et al., 1994; Cattaert

and Birman, 2001). Spontaneous miniature EPSPs (mEPSPs) were recorded in the presence of

tetrodotoxin (TTX) 10^{-6}M, so that no spike could occur, from the ventral longitudinal abdominal

muscle 6 in segment A3. Quantal analysis was performed following the theoretical background

described in (Kuno, 1971) and (Castellucci and Kandel, 1974). Distribution histograms of mEPSP

size were built from each muscle fiber recording with a 0.01 mV bin size. These histograms

provided an estimate of the mean size of a unitary EPSP, since the peaks represent integer

multiples of the unitary size. A theoretical distribution was then computed by convolving a

binomial distribution, accounting for quantal content (number of quanta released), and a

Gaussian distribution, allowing for variations in size of individual quanta. A detailed description

of the mathematical treatment is provided in the Supplementary Information.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed with the GraphPad Prism 6 software. The paired Student's t-

test was used for comparison of two genotypes, while either paired or unpaired ANOVA, with

Dunnett's post-test for multiple comparisons, were used for three genotypes.

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Competing interests

No competing interest to declare.

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A novel and specific regulator of neuronal V-ATPase in *Drosophila*

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Supplementary information

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Supplementary Figure 1. *VhaAC45L* is a paralog of *VhaAC45* expressed in the nervous system. (**A**) Amino-

acid sequence alignment shows that VhaAC45L and VhaAC45 share 69.9% similarity. (B) Diagram

representing expression levels of *VhaAC45L* and *VhaAC45* in different tissues relative to the whole fly,

according to FlyAtlas data (Chintapalli et al., 2007). VhaAC45L appears to be markedly enriched in the

nervous system of larva and adult fly, whereas in contrast VhaAC45 seems to be uniformly expressed in

all tissues in these two stages.

Supplementary Figure 2. Knockdown of *VhaAC45L* expression in neurons decreases adult longevity. Pan-

neuronal expression of *VhaAC45L*[RNAi3] and *Dcr-2* with the *elav-Gal4* driver led to a marked shortening of

the lifespan of adult flies. Results of one experiment, carried out with 105-110 females per genotype.

921 **Supplementary Figure 3.** VhaAC45L downregulation in motoneurons did not significantly alter larval size.

922 (**A**) Larval length is defined as the spine length from head to tail, while larval width is the diameter of the

923 mid-spine circle. (**B-E**) Average larval length (**B**, **C**) and width (**D**, **E**) were not significantly different

924 between animals expressing *VhaAC45L* RNAi in motoneurons and controls.

930 **Supplementary tables**

932 **Supplementary Table 1.** Pan-neuronal expression of *VhaAC45L* rescues the embryonic lethality of

933 VhaAC45L-deficient flies up to the adult stage.

Genotype of the progeny flies[1]	Expected percentage [2]	Scored percentage [3]
Heterozygous deficiency without *VhaAC45L* expression	40	39.7
Heterozygous deficiency with pan-neuronal *VhaAC45L* expression	40	53.8
Homozygous deficiency without *VhaAC45L* expression	0	0
Homozygous deficiency with pan-neuronal *VhaAC45L* expression	20	6.4

[1]Rescue of embryonic lethality was assayed by crossing *elav-Gal4*; *VhaAC45L*[MI107]/*TM6B*(*Tb*) females with *w*;

UAS-VhaAC45L/CyO; *Df(3R)Exel6214/TM6B*(<u>*Tb*</u>) males, and scoring the relative number of VhaAC45L-

expressing adult flies homozygous for *VhaAC45L* deficiency (i.e. non-*Tb* and non-*Cy elav-Gal4/+*; *UAS-*

VhaAC45L/+; *VhaAC45L*[MI107]/*Df(3R)Exel6214*) in the progeny (highlighted line).

[2]Expected percentage of adult progeny flies of each genotype in case of full rescue.

[3]Actual percentage obtained in the experiments. 24 rescued adults were recovered out of a total of 373

progeny flies.

947 **Supplementary Table 2.** List of the genes encoding proteins that co-immunoprecipitated with VhaAC45L

948 in *Drosophila* head extracts.

Gene Symbol[1]	FlyBase Gene ID	Log$_2$(R$_1$)	Log$_2$(R$_2$)	Log$_2$(R$_3$)
ATP6AP2	FBgn0037671	6.154281057	9.481786693	5.17436482
Vha100-1	FBgn0028671	1.499248537	8.012982519	5.43599503
VhaAC39-1	FBgn0028665	2.104797507	8.293264658	4.86741949
VhaAC45L	FBgn0051030	3.669278876	7.960835791	5,19465574
Twdlß	FBgn0033658	1.642952792	3.068640973	2.35207192
Ccp84Ag	FBgn0004777	1.543972087	1.326485589	1.86392045
CG13627	FBgn0039217	5.738384187	4.008318188	3.18433108
mfas	FBgn0260745	1.596554441	3.368384477	3.03376685
CG16820	FBgn0032495	4.77051909	9.784086057	3.60280541
Cpr64Ab	FBgn0035511	1.08994458	2.758609792	2.31103817
CG14752	FBgn0033307	2.21698759	3.69458382	3.10154816
CG15615	FBgn0034159	2.77101281	5.12362053	3.39808341

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950 [1]12 proteins were identified with at least twice higher abundance in *VhaAC45L*^{V5} compared to the *w*^{1118}

951 control in three independent co-immunoprecipitations with anti-V5 antibodies, followed by mass-

952 spectrometry analysis experiments. Among these proteins, three are known to be constitutive or

953 accessory subunits of the V-ATPase complex. They are indicated in the first ochre-highlighted lines of the

954 Table and circled in blue in Fig. 2. The grey line indicates the co-immunoprecipitation target VhaAC45L.

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959   **Supplementary Table 3.** *Drosophila* strains used in this study.
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Names	Genotypes	Usage	Sources	References
w^{1118}	w^{1118}	Wild-type control line	In-house collection	Hazelrigg et al. 1984
UAS-VhaAC45L	w; P{w$^{+mW.hs}$=CG31030^{UAS}}; +	Expression of *Drosophila* VhaAC45L	In-house construct	This report
VhaAC45L^{V5}	w; CG31030^{V5}	Insertion of a V5 tag in *VhaAC45L*	In-house construct	This report
VhaAC45L^{RNAi1}	y, sc, v, sev^{21}; P{y$^{+t7.7}$ v$^{+t1.8}$=TRiP.HMC05568}attP40	VhaAC45L knock down	BDSC line n°64549	Perkins *et al.*, 2015
VhaAC45L^{RNAi2}	y, w^{1118} ; P{KK106825}VIE-260B	VhaAC45L knock down	VDRC n°107398	Dietzl *et al.*, 2007
VhaAC45L^{RNAi3}	w^{1118}; P{GD381}v33095/TM3	VhaAC45L knock down	VDRC n°33095	Dietzl *et al.*, 2007
VhaAC45L^{MI107}	y, w; Mi{y$^{+mDint2}$=MIC}CG31030^{MI00107} /TM3, Sb, Ser	MIMIC *VhaAC45L* mutant	BDSC line n°30620	Nagarkar-Jaiswal *et al.*, 2015
Df(3R)Exel6214	w^{1118}; Df(3R)Exel6214, P{w^{+mC}=XP-U}Exel6214/TM6B, Tb	Deficiency covering *VhaAC45L* and ~20 other genes	BDSC line n°7692	Parks *et al.*, 2004
elav-Gal4	P{w$^{+mW.hs}$=GawB}elav^{C155}	Pan-neuronal driver	BDSC line n°458	Lin and Goodman, 1994
OK371-Gal4	w^{1118}; P{w$^{+mW.hs}$=GawB}VGlut^{OK371}	Glutamatergic and motor neuron driver	Gift of Hermann Aberle, Heinrich Heine University, Düsseldorf, Germany	Mahr and Aberle, 2006
UAS-VMAT-pHluorin	w; Vmat$^{UAS.pHluorin}$	Expression of *Drosophila* Vmat fused to the pH-sensitive fluorescent marker ecliptic pHluorin	Gift of David Krantz,UCLA, Los Angeles, USA	Wu *et al.*, 2013

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Supplementary methods

Detailed LC-MS/MS procedure

Proteins on beads were digested overnight at 37°C with trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) in

25 mM NH_4HCO_3 buffer (0.2 µg trypsin in 20 µL). The resulting peptides were desalted using

ZipTip µ-C18 Pipette Tips (Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL, USA). Samples were analyzed

using either an Orbitrap Fusion or an Orbitrap Q-Exactive Plus, coupled respectively to a Nano-

LC Proxeon 1200 or a Nano-LC Proxeon 1000, both equipped with an easy spray ion source

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). On the Orbitrap Fusion instrument, peptides

were loaded with an online preconcentration method and separated by chromatography using a

Pepmap-RSLC C18 column (0.75 x 750 mm, 2 µm, 100 Å) from Thermo Fisher Scientific,

equilibrated at 50°C and operated at a flow rate of 300 nl/min. Peptides were eluted by a

gradient of solvent A (H_2O, 0.1 % FA) and solvent B (ACN/H_2O 80/20, 0.1% FA). The column was

first equilibrated for 5 min with 95 % of A, then B was raised to 28 % in 105 min and to 40% in

15 min. Finally, the column was washed with 95% B during 20 min and re-equilibrated at 95% A

for 10 min. Peptides masses were analyzed in the Orbitrap cell in full ion scan mode, at a

resolution of 120,000, a mass range of m/z 350-1550 and an AGC target of 4.10^5. MS/MS were

performed in the top speed 3s mode. Peptides were selected for fragmentation by Higher-

energy C-trap Dissociation (HCD) with a Normalized Collisional Energy of 27% and a dynamic

exclusion of 60 seconds. Fragment masses were measured in an Ion trap in the rapid mode, with

and an AGC target of 1.10^4. Monocharged peptides and unassigned charge states were excluded

from the MS/MS acquisition. The maximum ion accumulation times were set to 100 ms for MS

and 35 ms for MS/MS acquisitions respectively.

On the Q-Exactive Plus instrument, peptides were loaded with an online preconcentration

method and separated by chromatography using a Pepmap-RSLC C18 column (0.75 x 500 mm, 2

µm, 100 Å) from Thermo Scientific, equilibrated at 50°C and operated at a flow rate of 300

nl/min. Peptides were eluted by a gradient of solvent A (H_2O, 0.1 % FA) and solvent B (100 %

ACN, 0.1% FA), the column was first equilibrated 5 min with 95 % of A, then B was raised to 35

% in 93 min and finally, the column was washed with 80% B during 10 min and re-equilibrated at

95% A during 10 min. Peptides masses were analyzed in the Orbitrap cell in full ion scan mode

at a resolution of 70,000 with a mass range of *m/z* 375-1500 and an AGC target of 3.10^6. MS/MS

were performed in a Top 20 DDA mode. Peptides were selected for fragmentation by Higher-

energy C-trap Dissociation (HCD) with a Normalized Collisional Energy of 27%, and a dynamic

exclusion of 30 seconds. Fragment masses were measured in the Orbitrap cell at a resolution of

17,500, with an AGC target of 2.10^5. Monocharged peptides and unassigned charge states were

excluded from the MS/MS acquisition. The maximum ion accumulation times were set to 50 ms

for MS and 45 ms for MS/MS acquisitions respectively.

1000

Raw data were processed on Proteome Discoverer 2.4 with the mascot node (Mascot version

2.5.1), with the Swissprot/TrEMBL protein database release 2019_12 for *Drosophila*

melanogaster. A maximum of 2 missed cleavages was authorized. Precursor and fragment mass

tolerances were set to respectively 7 ppm and 0.5 Da (Orbitrap Fusion) and to 6 ppm and 0.02

Da (Orbitrap Q-exactive Plus). The following post-translational modifications were included as

variable: Acetyl (Protein N-term), Oxidation (M), Phosphorylation (STY). Spectra were filtered

using a 1% FDR (false discovery rate) with the percolator node. Label-free quantification was

done in TOP 3 abundance calculation mode with pairwise ratio based calculation and t-test

(background based) hypothesis test.

1010

Quantal analysis

The probability for an EPSP to contain i quanta followed a binomial distribution:

$$P(i) = C_n^i \times p^i \times (1 - p)^{(n-i)} \qquad (1)$$

in which p is the average probability of release, and n is the total number of releasable quanta.

In the frequency distribution of EPSP amplitude, successive peaks represent increasing numbers

of quanta.

In order to predict how these events are distributed between different bins in a histogram, it is

necessary to allow for variations in quantal size. To do this, the largest peaks of the histogram

were fitted to a Gaussian curve scaled in width to have a variance proportional to quantal size,

and scaled in height so that its area corresponded to the predicted number of events (Del

Castillo and Katz, 1954). From the mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) of the Gaussian curve,

the content (f) of each bin (y) is given by:

$f(y) = \dfrac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} \qquad (2)$

The standard deviation (σ) of each peak depends on the number of quanta it contains. It was

calculated as follows:

$$\sigma = i \times \sqrt{\sigma_0} \qquad (3)$$

with i the number of quanta in the peak, and σ_0 the standard deviation of a single quanta. The

amplitude of Gaussian distribution for each peak is scaled to the probability $P(i)$ for that peak

(see *(1)*).

The complete theoretical distribution, allowing for variance and peak overlap was then obtained

by pooling the Gaussians for all peaks. In this way, the theoretical distribution could be

superimposed on the histogram for direct comparison with the data.