1 **Presynaptic Rac1 controls synaptic strength through the regulation of synaptic vesicle**
2 **priming**
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4 *(Abbreviated title):* Presynaptic Rac1 regulates synaptic strength

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Abstract

Synapses contain a limited number of synaptic vesicles (SVs) that can be released in response to action potentials (APs). Therefore, sustaining synaptic transmission over a wide range of AP firing rates and timescales depends on both SV release and replenishment. Although actin dynamics impact synaptic transmission, how regulators of actin dynamics control SV release and replenishment remain unresolved. Rac1 is a regulator of actin signaling cascades that control synaptogenesis, neuronal development, and postsynaptic function, however, its presynaptic role in regulating synaptic transmission is unclear. To unravel the regulatory roles of presynaptic Rac1 in synaptic transmission, we ablated presynaptic Rac1 at the mature mouse calyx of Held. Presynaptic Rac1 deletion leads to increased synaptic strength due to increased SV release probability which results in faster SV replenishment and increased spontaneous SV release rates. Based on our data, we conclude that presynaptic Rac1 controls synaptic strength by regulating the intrinsic SV release probability through SV priming. Therefore, we propose that presynaptic Rac1 controls actin dynamics and acts as a key regulator of synaptic transmission and plasticity .

Introduction

Information encoding in the nervous system requires synaptic transmission to drive and sustain action potentials (APs) over rapid and large fluctuations of AP firing rates (Reinagel and Laughlin, 2001; Theunissen and Elie, 2014; Brette, 2015; Azarfar et al., 2018). However, the number of synaptic vesicles (SVs) that can be released in response to an AP, the readily releasable pool (RRP), is limited (Alabi and Tsien, 2012). Therefore, tight regulation of SV release and replenishment is required for synaptic reliability and temporal precision needed to encode information (Neher, 2010; Hallermann and Silver, 2013). Priming is the process that creates fusion-competent SVs and is a key step in the SV life cycle that regulates RRP size, replenishment, and the SV release probability (P_r) (Klug et al., 2012; Neher and Brose, 2018). Furthermore, modulation of the temporal dynamics of priming is highly dependent on presynaptic Ca^{2+} levels. Importantly, human mutations in molecules that regulate priming are associated with neurological disorders (Waites and Garner, 2011; Wondolowski and Dickman, 2013; Torres et al., 2017; Bonnycastle et al., 2021). Therefore, elucidating the molecular mechanisms that regulate priming is critical to understanding the diversity of information encoding in the nervous system.

Actin is a central component of both the presynaptic and postsynaptic compartment with diverse roles in regulating synaptic function and neuronal circuit development. Manipulation of actin dynamics or the presynaptic AZ proteins that regulate actin dynamics affects SV release and replenishment rates, as well as P_r (Morales et al., 2000; Sakaba and Neher, 2003; Cingolani and Goda, 2008; Waites et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2012, 2013; Montesinos et al., 2015; Rust and Maritzen, 2015, 2015). However, due to disparate results, the presynaptic role of actin in regulating SV release and replenishment is controversial. Additionally, in contrast to the postsynaptic compartment, our understanding of presynaptic actin signaling cascades that regulate SV release and replenishment are in the early stages.

Rac1, a small GTPase in the Rho family, is a critical regulator of actin signaling cascades (Bosco et al., 2009; Yasuda, 2017), and human mutations in Rac1 are associated with neurological

disorders (Bai et al., 2015; Reijnders et al., 2017; Zamboni et al., 2018). Rac1 is involved in

multiple processes which control synaptogenesis, axon guidance, neuronal development, and

postsynaptic function to regulate neuronal circuit function (Bai et al., 2015). Although Rac1 is

expressed in both the pre and postsynaptic compartment (Threadgill et al., 1997; Doussau et al.,

2000; Kumanogoh et al., 2001; O'neil et al., 2021), its presynaptic role in regulating synaptic

transmission is not well understood. However, recent work using primary cultured hippocampal

neurons proposed that presynaptic Rac1 is a negative regulator of SV replenishment (O'neil et al.,

2021), though at which steps in the SV lifecycle it exerts its regulatory role is unknown. Finally,

how Rac1 regulates the temporal dynamics of RRP release and replenishment in a native

neuronal circuit remains elusive.

To unravel the regulatory roles of presynaptic Rac1 in regulating synaptic transmission, we utilized

the calyx of Held, an axosomatic presynaptic terminal in the auditory brainstem, which is the sole

input to drive AP spiking in the principal cells of the medial nucleus of the trapezoid body (MNTB)

(Borst and Soria Van Hoeve, 2012; Joris and Trussell, 2018). In the calyx of Held, RRP dynamics

are tightly regulated to support the early stages of auditory processing, but the properties of SV

release and replenishment are similar to conventional presynaptic terminals in the central nervous

system (Iwasaki and Takahashi, 1998; Iwasaki et al., 2000; Iwasaki and Takahashi, 2001; Sätzler

et al., 2002; Taschenberger et al., 2002; Rollenhagen and Lübke, 2006; Neher and Sakaba, 2008;

Alabi and Tsien, 2012; Eggermann et al., 2012; Hallermann and Silver, 2013; Kaeser and Regehr,

2014; Schneggenburger and Rosenmund, 2015). In addition, molecular manipulations specific to

the calyx of Held can be carried out at different neuronal circuit developmental stages (Wimmer

et al., 2006; Young and Neher, 2009; Chen et al., 2013; Lübbert et al., 2019). To elucidate the

roles of presynaptic Rac1 in regulating synaptic transmission while avoiding its role in

synaptogenesis, axon guidance, and neuronal development, we ablated Rac1 expression 2 days

after hearing onset, postnatal day (P) 14 in the mouse, when the calyx of Held is functionally

mature where neuronal circuit properties are "adult-like" (Sonntag et al., 2009; Crins et al., 2011;

Sonntag et al., 2011) and determined how the loss of Rac1 impacted calyx of Held/MTNB

transmission at the adult stage (P28 onwards). We found that presynaptic *Rac1* deletion does not

affect the calyx of Held morphology or active zone (AZ) ultrastructure but leads to increased

synaptic strength. This increase in synaptic strength is due to increased SV release probability

which results in faster SV replenishment and increased spontaneous SV release rates.

Additionally, we found that loss of Rac1 leads to temporal delay of EPSC onset with an increase

in asynchronous release during high-frequency train stimuli. Taken together, our data demonstrate

that presynaptic Rac1 is a key molecule that controls synaptic strength through SV priming steps

that regulate SV release probability.

Results

Presynaptic deletion of Rac1 after hearing onset does not impact calyx of Held morphology or AZ ultrastructure

Rac1 is found in the presynaptic terminal (Doussau et al., 2000; O'neil et al., 2021) and regulates synaptogenesis, axon guidance, and neuronal development (Xu and Chen, 2019; Zhang et al., 2021). In this study, we aimed to elucidate Rac1's presynaptic function in controlling synaptic transmission and plasticity independent of its role in regulating synapse development and maturation at the calyx of Held/MNTB synapse. To do so, we injected HdAd co-expressing Cre recombinase and EGFP into the cochlear nucleus (CN) of P14 *Rac1^flox/flox* animals when the calyx of Held/MNTB synapse is considered "adult-like" and analyzed the calyx of Held/MNTB synapse at P28 onwards (Fig. 1A, Sonntag et al., 2009, 2011; Crins et al., 2011). Since Rac1 acts as a central molecule controlling synapse development and morphology, it was important to determine whether the loss of Rac1 after hearing onset altered the calyx of Held morphology or AZ ultrastructure. Morphology was analyzed from 3D reconstructions of calyx terminals from confocal z-stack images acquired from *Rac1^+/+^* and *Rac1^-/-^* animals at P28 and we found no change in calyx surface area or volume (Fig. 1B). To determine if the loss of Rac1 impacted AZ ultrastructure, we performed ultrathin section TEM and analyzed AZ length, SV distribution, and the number of docked SVs and found no difference between *Rac1^+/+^* and *Rac1^-/-^* (Fig. 1C). Therefore, we conclude that after hearing onset Rac1 is not essential for regulating calyx of Held morphology and AZ ultrastructure.

Loss of Rac1 increases synaptic strength through an increase in SV release probability.

Perturbations of the presynaptic actin cytoskeleton impact synaptic transmission and plasticity in multiple model systems and synapses (Cole et al., 2000; Sakaba and Neher, 2003; Bleckert et al., 2012; Rust and Maritzen, 2015; Miki et al., 2016; Gentile et al., 2022; Wu and Chan, 2022). Since Rac1 is an actin cytoskeleton regulator, we examined how the loss of Rac1 impacted AP-evoked synaptic transmission and short-term plasticity. Afferent fiber stimulation of calyx

axons was performed using 50 AP at two stimulation frequencies (50 Hz and 500 Hz) representing

typical *in vivo* firing rates at the calyx at low or high activity, respectively. AMPAR-mediated ESPCs

from MNTB principal cells innervated by transduced (*Rac1$^{-/-}$*) and non-transduced calyces

(*Rac1$^{+/+}$*) were recorded in 1.2 mM external Ca^{2+} concentration and 36-37°C to mimic *in vivo*

conditions (Fig. 2A, B). Analyzing the first EPSC (EPSC$_1$) of the stimulus train, we found a dramatic

increase in EPSC amplitude upon *Rac1* deletion (*Rac$^{+/+}$* = 1.3 ± 0.4 nA vs. *Rac1$^{-/-}$* = 3 ± 1.1 nA,

p=2.5e-5, n=15/15, Fig. 2C) with no change in EPSC waveform. Plotting EPSC amplitudes vs.

stimulation number revealed differences in short-term plasticity between *Rac1$^{+/+}$* and *Rac1$^{-/-}$*. At

50 Hz stimulation, both *Rac1$^{+/+}$* and *Rac1$^{-/-}$* showed short-term depression which was emphasized

in *Rac1$^{-/-}$* with increased steady-state depression relative to EPSC$_1$. Despite the stronger relative

short-term depression, absolute steady-state EPSC amplitudes were almost two-fold larger in

Rac1$^{-/-}$ (*Rac1$^{+/+}$* = 0.47 ± 0.14 nA vs. *Rac1$^{-/-}$* = 0.84 ± 0.22 nA, p = 4e-5, n = 15/15) and

replenishment rates were increased (*Rac1$^{+/+}$* = 23 ± 7 nAs^{-1} vs. *Rac1$^{-/-}$* = 42 ± 11 nAs^{-1}, p = 2.4e-

5, n = 15/15). At 500 Hz stimulation, *Rac1$^{+/+}$* showed robust short-term facilitation which was

absent in *Rac1$^{-/}$* (PPR: Rac1$^{+/+}$ = 1.2 ± 0.1 vs. Rac1$^{-/-}$ = 1 ± 0.1, p = 3.4e-6, n = 15/15). Similar to

50 Hz stimulation, *Rac1$^{-/-}$* showed increased levels of relative steady-state depression at 500 Hz

stimulation. Notably, absolute steady-state EPSC amplitude and replenishment rates at 500 Hz

stimulation frequency were not different between *Rac1$^{+/+}$* and *Rac1$^{-/-}$*.

Since the loss of Rac1 increased synaptic strength and altered short-term plasticity it was

important to determine if these changes were caused by an increase in RRP size, SV release

probability (*P$_r$*), or both. We estimated the RRP size using 500 Hz stimulation frequency since it

effectively depletes the RRP for both *Rac1$^{+/+}$* and *Rac1$^{-/-}$* and employed three methods to estimate

the RRP: EQ, NpRf, and SMN with correction (Elmqvist and Quastel, 1965; Neher, 2015;

Thanawala and Regehr, 2016). Both, the EQ and NpRf method reported no change in RRP size,

while the SMN method detected a slight RRP increase in *Rac1$^{-/-}$* calyces. Subsequently, we

calculated the initial *P$_r$* by dividing the amplitude of the 1st EPSC by the estimated RRP sizes and

all three methods revealed a two-fold increase in P_r (SMN: $Rac1^{+/+}$ = 0.09 ± 0.02 vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$

$^{/-}$ = 0.15 ± 0.03, p = 4.8e-7; NpRf: $Rac1^{+/+}$ = 0.09 ± 0.02 vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$ = 0.17 ± 0.03, p = 2.5e-7; EQ:

$Rac1^{+/+}$ = 0.08 ± 0.02 vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$ = 0.16 ± 0.03, p = 2.4e-7, n = 15/15). Next, we calculated the

steady-state P_r (steady-state EPSC divided by the calculated remaining RRP) and found an

increase in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces at both 50 Hz ($Rac1^{+/+}$ = 0.09 ± 0.02 vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$ = 0.16 ± 0.03, p = 9.4e-

7, n=15/15) and 500 Hz stimulation ($Rac1^{+/+}$ = 0.09 ± 0.02 vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$ = 0.15 ± 0.03, p = 3.2e-7,

n = 15/15). These findings show that presynaptic Rac1 deletion increases short-term depression

by elevating both initial and steady-state P_r with little or no effect on RRP size. Therefore, we

conclude that Rac1 controls synaptic strength as a negative regulator of P_r.

Loss of Rac1 increases mEPSC frequency but not amplitude

The two steps in the SV life cycle that impact RRP size and P_r are molecular priming and

positional priming (Neher and Brose, 2018). Molecular priming encompasses the steps that render

an SV fusion competent and regulates the intrinsic SV fusogenicity, defined as the fusion

willingness of an SV (Basu et al., 2007; Xue et al., 2010; Schotten et al., 2015). Positional priming

consists of the steps that place molecularly primed SVs close to the voltage-gated calcium

channels (VGCCs) (Neher, 2010). The distance between SV and VGCCs, coupling, is a critical

determinant of the speed and efficacy of AP-evoked release (Eggermann et al., 2012).

Spontaneous SV release is independent of VGCCs (Schneggenburger and Rosenmund, 2015;

Kavalali, 2020) and the frequency of miniature EPSC (mEPSCs) can be used as a readout of

changes in SV fusogenicity with increased SV fusogenicity causing higher mEPSC frequencies

(Basu et al., 2007; Schotten et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2018). Therefore, to ascertain if the increase

in P_r was caused by an increase in intrinsic SV fusogenicity, we recorded mEPSCs from $Rac1^{+/+}$

and $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces (Fig. 3) and found a four-fold increase in mEPSC frequency

($Rac1^{+/+}$ = 3.4 ± 4.4 Hz vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$ = 14.3 ± 6.5 Hz, p = 3.4e-4, n = 15/11) with no change in

mEPSC amplitude or waveform. To rule out that the increased mEPSC frequencies were due to

changes in Cav2.1 currents we recorded mEPSCs in the presence of 200 µM Cd^{2+}, a non-specific

VGCC blocker. Since the addition of Cd^{2+} did not affect mEPSC frequencies (control = 14.6 ± 3.2

Hz vs. cadmium = 14.9 ± 2 Hz, p = 0.84, n = 3/3), we conclude that Rac1 regulates P_r by

controlling intrinsic SV fusogenicity independent of Ca^{2+}.

Loss of Rac1 increases temporal delays in AP evoked release

Although we found an increase in SV fusogenicity, this does not rule out an additional role

for Rac1 in regulating positional priming. In the mature calyx of Held, nanodomain release results

in a fast onset of synchronous AP-evoked EPSCs to encode auditory information (Fedchyshyn

and Wang, 2005). The time between presynaptic AP and EPSC onset (EPSC onset delay) is

determined by the distance between SVs and VGCC which defines the time it takes for Ca^{2+} to

bind to the Ca^{2+} sensor and trigger SV release (Fedchyshyn and Wang, 2007). Thus, EPSC onset

delays can serve as a readout of changes in positional priming, as increases in onset delay would

indicate more loosely coupled SVs and vice versa. Therefore, we measured EPSC onset delays

during 50 Hz and 500 Hz stimulation (Fig. 4A, B) and found them to become progressively larger

during stimulation for both $Rac1^{+/+}$ and $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces. At 50 Hz, the increase in EPSC onset delay

was comparable between $Rac1^{+/+}$ and $Rac1^{-/-}$ amounting to about 60 µs between the first and the

last ten EPSCs. At 500 Hz stimulation, however, EPSC onset delays increased more rapidly in

$Rac1^{-/-}$ with steady-state EPSC onsets delays being significantly larger for $Rac1^{-/-}$ compared to

$Rac1^{+/+}$ ($Rac1^{+/+}$ = 94± 32 µs vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$= 131 ± 29 µs, p = 0.004, n = 15/15).

In addition to EPSC onset delays, the synchronicity of AP-evoked release can be used as

an indirect readout of positional priming since synchronous release represents SVs that are tightly

coupled and asynchronous release is representative of loosely coupled SVs (Sakaba, 2006;

Schneggenburger and Rosenmund, 2015). Furthermore, EPSC synchronicity is independent of

conduction delay, the delay between stimulus and the time when the AP reaches the presynaptic

terminal. Therefore, we determined EPSC synchronicity by dividing the EPSC amplitude by the

EPSC charge for both 50 Hz and 500 Hz stimulation (Fig. 4C). The synchronicity of the first EPSC

was comparable between $Rac1^{+/+}$ and $Rac1^{-/-}$ while steady-state EPSC synchronicity at 50 Hz

206 was slightly lower in $Rac1^{-/-}$ ($Rac1^{+/+}$ = 3.2 ± 0.3 nA pC^{-1} vs. Rac1 KO = 2.9 ± 0.2 nA pC^{-1},

207 p = 0.006). At 500 Hz stimulation, steady-state EPSC synchronicity in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces was further

208 deteriorated and 20% lower compared to $Rac1^{+/+}$ ($Rac1^{+/+}$ = 2.4 ± 0.3 nA pC^{-1} vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$

209 = 1.9 ± 0.3 nA pC^{-1}, p = 2.3e-4). These findings indicate that SV release was less synchronous in

210 $Rac1^{-/-}$ in a time- and frequency-dependent manner.

211  Taken together, we found that $Rac1^{-/-}$ had longer EPSC onsets and decreased EPSC

212 synchronicity, especially at high stimulation frequencies. Therefore, we conclude that the increase

213 of synaptic strength in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces is not due to changes in positional priming that result in

214 tighter SV coupling since tighter coupling would lead to shorter EPSC onset delays and higher

215 synchronicity in the $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces.

216 **Loss of Rac1 facilitates EPSC and RRP recovery**

217  Modulation of molecular priming steps regulates RRP recovery (Neher and Brose, 2018;

218 Ritzau-Jost et al., 2018). Since Rac1 deletion increased SV fusogenicity and P_r throughout the

219 stimulus train, we hypothesized that RRP recovery was faster in the absence of Rac1. To test how

220 the loss of Rac1 influences RRP recovery, we carried afferent fiber stimulation using a paired train

221 protocol consisting of a 500 Hz depleting train (50 APs) followed by a second 500 Hz test train at

222 varying recovery intervals (Fig. 5). Recovery was then measured for both single EPSCs and the

223 RRP. For single EPSC recovery, we measured both absolute and fractional recovery by

224 normalizing the EPSC$_1$ amplitude of the test train to the EPSC$_1$ amplitude of the control train

225 relative to steady-state EPSC amplitudes. Recovery of EPSC$_1$ was significantly faster in $Rac1^{-/-}$

226 compared to $Rac1^{+/+}$ for both absolute and fractional recovery (absolute: $Rac1^{+/+}$ τ_w = 2.4 s vs

227 $Rac1^{-/-}$ τ_w = 1.7 s, p = 1e-12; fractional: $Rac1^{+/+}$ τ_w = 1.8 s vs $Rac1^{-/-}$ τ_w = 1.3 s, p = 3.2e-8,

228 n = 15/15, Fig. 5A). Next, we analyzed fractional RRP recovery by dividing the RRP estimate of

229 the test train by the RRP estimate of the depleting train and found that RRP recovery rates were

230 about 40% faster in $Rac1^{-/-}$ ($Rac1^{+/+}$ τ_w = 1.14 s vs $Rac1^{-/-}$ τ_w = 0.7 s, p = 1.1e-9, n = 15/15; Fig 5B).

231 Finally, we calculated the paired-pulse ratios (EPSC$_2$/EPSC$_1$) of the test train to estimate release

probability as a function of recovery interval. Independent of recovery interval, PPR was

consistently lower in $Rac1^{-/-}$ (Fig. 5C), consistent with the increased initial and steady-state P_r.

Loss of Rac1 impacts delay and temporal precision of AP firing in response to SAM stimuli

Animal vocalization including human speech is characterized by rapid amplitude

modulations (Joris et al., 2004). These amplitude modulations can be mimicked by sinusoidal

amplitude-modulated stimuli (SAM) which will produce periodic fluctuations in the firing rates of

the calyx of Held (Mc Laughlin et al., 2008; Tolnai et al., 2008). Therefore, different SAM

frequencies will differentially stress SV release and recovery mechanisms and can be used to

relate the observed changes in synaptic strength and SV recovery to potential impacts on auditory

signaling in the $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces. Using *in vivo* responses to SAM stimuli (Tolnai et al., 2008) which

contained modulation frequencies between 20 Hz and 2000 Hz as templates for afferent fiber

stimulation, we recorded postsynaptic APs in loose-patch configuration (Fig. 6). First, we analyzed

how successful a presynaptic stimulus resulted in a postsynaptic AP to assess the reliability of

synaptic transmission and found no difference between $Rac1^{+/+}$ and $Rac1^{-/-}$ independent of

modulation frequency (Fig. 6B1). Since temporal precision is crucial in auditory signaling, we then

analyzed if the loss of Rac1 impacted the temporal precision of AP generation by calculating the

standard deviation of AP delays (AP jitter). Independent of modulation frequency, temporal

precision was unchanged when analyzed for the complete stimulus (Fig. 6B2). However, the

previous analysis showed that EPSC onset delay and synchronicity were only affected at high

stimulation frequencies. Since the SAM stimuli generate periods of high firing activity interspersed

with periods of low activity, we tested how preceding activity influenced AP jitter and AP delay.

First, we used the preceding interspike interval (ISI) as an estimate of preceding activity and

calculated AP jitter and AP delay for different ISIs (Fig. 6C1). Both, AP jitter and AP delay were

comparable between $Rac1^{+/+}$ and $Rac1^{-/-}$ for most ISIs but AP delay in $Rac1^{-/-}$ increased slightly at

short ISIs. Previous studies showed that EPSC/EPSP amplitudes, and subsequent AP generation,

are influenced by preceding neuronal activity (Haustein et al., 2008; Englitz et al., 2009; Lorteije

et al., 2009; Sonntag et al., 2011; Yang and Xu-Friedman, 2015; Ghanbari et al., 2020). Since our

previous analysis only considered the last ISI and thus is an incomplete estimate of preceding

activity, we estimated activity levels by calculating the sum of all preceding APs weighted by their

distance to the AP under observation (Fig. 6C2). Using this method, we found that AP jitter was

similar between $Rac1^{+/+}$ and $Rac1^{-/-}$ for low to moderate activity levels but diverged at increasing

activity levels with $Rac1^{-/-}$ showing higher AP jitter ($Rac1^{+/+}$ = 65 ± 32 µs vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$ = 99 ± 62 µs,

p = 1.5e-5 µs, n = 14/18). Similarly, AP delays were similar for low activity levels, but increased

more in $Rac1^{-/-}$ with increasing activity ($Rac1^{+/+}$ = 110 ± 52 µs vs. $Rac1^{-/-}$ = 158 ± 101 µs,

p = 0.03). These data suggest that the activity-dependent increase in EPSC onset and reduction

in EPSC synchronicity in $Rac1^{-/-}$ at high stimulation frequencies translates into a small but

consistent increase in AP delays and AP jitter.

Discussion

By ablating *Rac1* at the calyx of Held after hearing onset, we identified the presynaptic roles of *Rac1* in regulating synaptic transmission and plasticity in a native neuronal circuit. Based on our data we conclude that presynaptic Rac1 is a key regulator of synaptic strength and RRP replenishment through SV priming steps that control intrinsic SV P_r. Therefore, we propose that presynaptic Rac1 is a critical regulator for encoding information by neuronal circuits.

$Rac1$ regulates P_r and RRP recovery

Our finding that Rac1 is a negative regulator of P_r is in contrast with a recent study in primary cultured hippocampal neurons that concluded presynaptic Rac1 does not regulate P_r (O'neil et al., 2021). Multiple reasons may explain these differences. One cause may be due to the specific conditions of a native neuronal circuit that are not replicated in *in vitro* cultured neuronal circuits. We specifically abated *Rac1* at a distinct developmental time point, two days after hearing onset where neuronal circuit properties are well defined and the calyx of Held is functionally mature (Englitz et al., 2009; Sonntag et al., 2009, 2011; Borst and Soria Van Hoeve, 2012). Although *Rac1* was ablated at 10 days *in vitro* (O'neil et al., 2021), the corresponding developmental stage to *in vivo* hippocampal neurons is unclear. In addition, it is unknown to what extent the artificial *in vitro* circuit properties determine synaptic transmission and plasticity characteristics. Another critical difference between our studies was the recording condition. We used 1.2 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_{ext}$ and physiological temperatures to mimic *in vivo* conditions (Lorteije et al., 2009; Borst, 2010; Forsberg et al., 2019), while 2 mM $[Ca^{2+}]_{ext}$ at room temperature was used in the prior study. As a result, we observed an initial P_r ~0.1 with no P_r higher than 0.15 in $Rac1^{+/+}$ calyces and a two-fold increase following Rac1 ablation. However, in the cultured neurons, the initial P_r was ~0.4 in $Rac1^{+/+}$ with many values exceeding 0.5 in both excitatory and inhibitory neurons. Therefore, it is likely that in cultured neurons, P_r was close to maximum or at maximum thereby masking any potential increases in P_r in $Rac1^{-/-}$ neurons. In addition, many regulatory steps in the SV lifecycle that influence P_r are temperature-dependent (Chanaday and Kavalali,

2020), and in mouse hippocampal synapses actin-dependent synaptic release enhancement was

only detected at physiological temperatures (Jensen et al., 2007).

The RRP size is a critical determinant of synaptic strength that maintains synaptic

transmission during ongoing stimulation. Since the RRP size varies with stimulation rates

(Thanawala and Regehr, 2013, 2016; Neher, 2015), SV replenishment is key in regulating RRP

size. SV replenishment rates are typically estimated by two methods (Hallermann and Silver,

2013; Neher, 2015): i) SV replenishment rates during ongoing stimulation which corresponds to

the slope of the line fit using the SMN plot, or ii) RRP replenishment rates that are estimated by

plotting the fraction of recovered RRP or initial ESPC amplitudes as a function of interstimulus

intervals following RRP depletion. Subsequently, the RRP replenishment rates are described by

the time constants of fits. Using the slope of the line fit, we found that $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces had faster

SV replenishment rates and larger steady-state EPSC amplitudes at 50 Hz train stimulation which

is similar to observations in primary hippocampal cultures at 20 and 40 Hz train stimulation (O'neil

et al., 2021). In contrast, at 500 Hz train stimulation, there was no difference between $Rac1^{+/+}$ and

$Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces in SV replenishment rates or steady-state EPSC amplitudes. However, RRP

replenishment was best fit with a bi-exponential fit, with a faster slow component in $Rac1^{-/-}$ (1.8s

vs 2.4s), but no difference in fast component (~40 ms) or relative contribution of each time

constant. These observations run counter to numerous observations demonstrating that

increasing activity rates results in faster SV replenishment and shorter RRP recovery time

constants (Wang and Kaczmarek, 1998; Hallermann and Silver, 2013). However, the fractional

recovery in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces at 50 ms recovery interval was ~ 2 fold higher and steady-state EPSC

levels were similar at 500 Hz and larger at 50 Hz stimulation frequency despite increased depletion

in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces. Therefore, if defined as fractional recovery of the initial RRP rather than ongoing

SV replenishment during stimulation this would indicate faster SV replenishment rates in $Rac1^{-/-}$

calyces at 500 Hz stimulation frequency.

Replenishment rates depend on the release site vacancy which depends on P_r, therefore

P_r is critical in controlling SV replenishment (Vere-Jones, 1966; Quastel, 1997; Scheuss and

Neher, 2001a; Zucker and Regehr, 2002; Neher, 2010; Pulido and Marty, 2017; Kusick et al.,

2020; Tanaka et al., 2021). Analysis of steady-state P_r by two independent methods demonstrated

that the steady-state P_r was elevated in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces. Since the interstimulus intervals at both

50 Hz (20 ms) and 500 Hz (2 ms) stimulation frequency are shorter than the fast RRP

replenishment time constant, this indicates that Rac1 regulation of P_r controls SV replenishment

on the time scale of hundreds of microseconds which is faster than known SV recruitment steps.

To explain our conclusion, we assume two synapses with different P_r ($Rac1^{+/+}$ with 0.1 and $Rac1^{-}$

$^{/-}$ with 0.2) and steady-state RRP size ($Rac1^{+/+}$ with 20 SVs and $Rac1^{-/-}$ with 10 SVs), but similar

steady-state EPSCs during ongoing stimulation (500 Hz condition). In this scenario, both synapses

would replenish the same absolute number of SV, since each synapse will release 2 SVs per

stimulus (20*0.1 vs. 10*0.2) and these 2 SVs will be replenished between stimuli. Therefore, when

calculating the SV replenishment rate relative to total RRP at rest using back extrapolation, the

SV replenishment rates would be similar as the absolute replenishment and total RRP are the

same. However, if one defines SV replenishment as the proportion of the steady-state RRP

relative to the initial RRP, then the high-P_r synapse would have higher SV replenishment rates

compared to the low P_r synapse (20 % of the steady-state RRP vs. 10% of the steady-state RRP).

In contrast, at 50 Hz stimulation condition, steady-state EPSCs were larger in the high P_r ($Rac1^{-/-}$

) compared to low P_r synapse ($Rac1^{+/+}$). Assuming a similar steady-state RRP (e.g. 20 SVs), the

high P_r synapses would release and replenish more SVs per stimulus compared to the low P_r

synapse (0.1*20 = 2 SVs vs. 0.2*20 = 4 SVs). Therefore, the SV replenishment rate calculated

using back extrapolation will be faster in the high P_r synapse although the total RRP is the same.

Rac1 regulation of SV Priming control SV P_r and RRP recovery

In response to APs, synapse P_r is regulated by SV fusogenecity, the fusion willingness of

an SV (intrinsic SV P_r), and the localization of SVs relative to VGCCs (Schneggenburger and

Rosenmund, 2015). SV priming controls SV P_r through two steps, molecular priming and positional

priming (Neher and Brose, 2018). Molecular priming controls intrinsic SV P_r by regulating SV

fusogenicity through SV docking states which represent the conversion from loose-state (LS) to

tight-state (TS) and the tightness of the TS state (Neher and Brose, 2018). Positional priming

regulates the proximity of SVs to VGCCs to control SV P_r independent of intrinsic SV P_r (Neher,

2010). Based on our findings of how the loss of Rac1 impacted mEPSCs rates and AP-evoked

release, we propose that Rac1 regulates SV P_r and RRP recovery at the level of molecular priming.

Since mEPSCs are independent of VGCCs (Kavalali, 2015, 2020) they function as readouts of

molecular priming, with increased mEPSC rates corresponding to increased SV fusogenecity

(Basu et al., 2007; Schotten et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2018). In the absence of Rac1, mESPC rates

were increased in the presence of Cd^{2+} which rules out any Cav2.1 channel contribution.

Furthermore, the increase in SV P_r in $Rac1^{-/-}$ was not caused by changes in SV docking or RRP

size since both AZ ultrastructure and initial RRP size measured by AP train stimulation was

unchanged.

AP-evoked EPSCs in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces were delayed and less synchronous particularly at high firing

rates indicating that SVs were less tightly coupled in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces. The EPSC onset delay which

is an estimate of positional priming includes two components: conduction delay, the time from

afferent fiber stimulation to the presynaptic AP, and SV release delay, the time between

presynaptic AP and the onset of the EPSC which is mainly dependent on the distance between

SVs to VGCCs (Fedchyshyn and Wang, 2007). Since Rac1 regulates actin dynamics, the loss of

Rac1 may prolong conduction delay during train stimuli that obscured Rac1's role in positional

priming. If the conduction delay was solely responsible for the increase in onset delays, AP-evoked

release kinetics would be unchanged. However, both onset delay and release synchronicity were

activity-dependent in $Rac1^{-/-}$ calyces suggesting a change in SV release kinetics. Since after

hearing onset, the calyx of Held utilizes nanodomain release which targets SVs within ~25 nm of

the Cav2.1 channels (Fedchyshyn and Wang, 2005; Chen et al., 2015), the decrease in SV

release synchronicity suggests that more distal SVs were released in Rac1$^{-/-}$.

Another plausible scenario is that presynaptic APs in Rac1$^{-/-}$ were broader and contributed

to increased P_r. However, using TEA, a Kv3 channel blocker, to broaden the presynaptic AP

impairs high-frequency firing at the calyx of Held (Wang and Kaczmarek, 1998; Wang et al., 1998;

Johnston et al., 2010). Furthermore, presynaptic deletion of Kv3.3 channels broadens APs and

increased P_r but enhanced short-term depression and decreased steady-state EPSC amplitudes

(Richardson et al., 2022). Since Rac1$^{-/-}$ had similar or larger steady-state EPSCs, were able to

follow high-frequency stimulation, and the intrinsic SV fusogenicity Rac1$^{-/-}$ was increased, it is

unlikely that broadened APs contributed to increased P_r.

Loss of Rac1 might impact endocytosis through changes in actin signaling (Wu and Chan,

2022). However, at the calyx of Held, the endocytic role of F-actin appears to be negligible as actin

depolymerization using latrunculin did not affect endocytosis (Eguchi et al., 2017; Babu et al.,

2020). Furthermore, endocytosis acts on a time scale of seconds and would be too slow to

contribute to SV replenishment during train stimulation (Armbruster and Ryan, 2011). Although

ultrafast endocytosis occurs on a timescale of tens of milliseconds, it is F-actin dependent, and

SV reformation is too slow as it takes tens of seconds (Watanabe et al., 2013a, 2013b). In addition,

endocytosis is postulated to play a role in release site clearance (Neher, 2010)as the perturbation

of endocytosis increases the rate of synaptic depression and slows RRP recovery (Hua et al.,

2013) which we did not observe in the Rac1$^{-/-}$ calyces.

F-actin is implicated in the regulation of several SV life cycle steps which could impact SV

replenishment rates (Morales et al., 2000; Sakaba and Neher, 2003; Cingolani and Goda, 2008;

Waites et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2012, 2013; Montesinos et al., 2015; Rust and Maritzen, 2015,

2015). Specifically, F-actin has been proposed to act as a physical barrier within the presynaptic

AZ (Cingolani and Goda, 2008) as the transient application of latrunculin increased P_r and mEPSC

rates (Morales et al., 2000). Studies in which Septin 5 (Yang et al., 2010) or the actin cytoskeleton

was disrupted (Lee et al., 2012) are in support of the idea of F-actin as a structural barrier

impacting positional priming. However, F-action may act as a vertical barrier to impact molecular

priming (Yang et al., 2010). Therefore, since Rac1 regulates molecular priming, we propose that

Rac1's regulation of F-actin acts as a vertical barrier to regulate the conversion from LS to TS and

the tightness of the TS (Fig. 7). In our model, the loss of Rac1 results in local actin

depolymerization in the AZ which increases SV fusogenicity by placing SVs in closer proximity to

the AZ which increases the LS to TS transition rate and TS tightening which increases P_r. In

support of our model, increased P_r has been demonstrated to correlate with shortened tethering

filaments that resulted in SVs positioned more closely to the presynaptic membrane (Jung et al.,

2021). Since GIT proteins (Montesinos et al., 2015), Arp2/3 (O'neil et al., 2021), and Piccolo

(Waites et al., 2011) are regulators of F-actin dynamics and control P_r this suggests that F-actin

signaling cascades at the AZ regulate P_r potentially through molecular priming and/or positional

priming. More importantly, this suggests that molecules regulating F-actin dynamics at the AZ

could be key regulators of SV replenishment independent of facilitation sensors.

Rac1 regulation of auditory signaling and information processing.

The ability to accurately encode sound information requires synaptic transmission in the

lower auditory brainstem to drive and sustain precise AP firing over rapid and large fluctuations of

AP firing rates up to the kilohertz range (Grothe et al., 2010; Borst and Soria Van Hoeve, 2012;

Friauf et al., 2015). The calyx of Held/MNTB synapse is a safe and reliable synaptic relay that

transforms afferent AP spike patterns from the cochlear nucleus (CN) into precisely timed

inhibition to several mono- and binaural cell groups (Spirou et al., 1990; Scheuss and Neher,

2001b; Joris et al., 2004; Englitz et al., 2009; Lorteije et al., 2009; Sonntag et al., 2011). The use

of SAM stimuli which mimics the neuronal response to environmental sounds (Joris et al., 2004;

Tolnai et al., 2008) suggests that loss of Rac1 did not deteriorate the faithful auditory signaling

properties over different amplitude modulation frequencies. However, we found that the increase

in EPSC onset and decrease in SV release synchronicity in $Rac1^{-/-}$ translated into larger AP delay

and AP jitter at high activity levels. Although the absolute changes were modest, the need for

immaculate temporal precision in the auditory brainstem might cause a more severe impact in

downstream nuclei such as the lateral and medial superior olive. Since the calyx of Held generates

suprathreshold EPSCs even under short-term depression (Lorteije et al., 2009; Lorteije and Borst,

2011), the impact of P_r changes caused by Rac1 ablation will be modest in affecting MNTB firing,

but likely more substantial in other synapses in the SPON, MSO, or LSO that operate close to AP

threshold or rely on synaptic integration to encode information.

430   Mutations in Rac1 that result in loss or gain of function are associated with intellectual

disability (Reijnders et al., 2017; Zamboni et al., 2018). While much attention has focused on Rac1

dysregulation in the dendritic compartment or neuronal development, our work demonstrates that

presynaptic loss of Rac1 increases P_r independent of its developmental role. Therefore, human

mutations in Rac1 might affect P_r and excitation-inhibition balance and thereby alter plasticity in

many different neuronal circuits associated with neurological disorders and addiction (Dietz et al.,

2012; Bai et al., 2015; Wright et al., 2020).

Methods

Animals

All experiments were performed following animal welfare laws and approved by the Institutional

Committee for Care and Use of Animals at the University of Iowa (PHS Assurance No. D16-00009

(A3021-01) (Animal Protocol 0021952) and complied with accepted ethical best practices. Animals

were housed at a 12-hour light/dark cycle and had access to food and water ad libitum.

Experiments were performed on Rac1^{tm1Djk} (*Rac1$^{fl/fl}$*) mice (Glogauer et al., 2003;

RRID:IMSR_JAX: 005550, The Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, USA) of either sex. Animals of

this line possess a *loxP* site flanking exon 1 of the *Rac1* gene disrupting Rac1 expression after

recombination mediated by Cre recombinase. Genotyping was performed using PCR-

amplification with the following primers 5'-TCC AAT CTG TGC TGC CCA TC-3' and 5'-GAT GCT

TCT AGG GGT GAG CC-3' and amplification products (*Rac1$^{fl/fl}$*: 242 bp, wildtype: 115 bp) were

separated gel electrophoresis on a 1.5% agarose gel (Glogauer et al., 2003). Viral vectors were

injected at postnatal day 14 (P14) and experiments were performed at P28-30. All available

measures were taken to minimize animal pain and suffering.

DNA construct and recombinant viral vector production

Helper-dependent adenoviral vectors (HdAd) expressing a codon-optimized Cre recombinase

(Cre) (Shimshek et al., 2002) were produced as previously described (Montesinos et al., 2016;

Lübbert et al., 2017). These HdAd vectors contain two independent transgene cassettes that

independently express Cre recombinase and EGFP or myristoylated EGFP (mEGFP) under the

control of 470 bp human synapsin promoter (Lübbert et al., 2017). In brief, the expression cassette

with Cre recombinase was cloned into the pdelta28E4 SynEGFP plasmid using the *Asc*I enzyme

digestion site. The final plasmid has been modified to also contain a separate EGFP or

myristoylated EGFP (mEGFP) expression cassette. Then, the pHAD plasmid was linearized by

*Pme*I enzyme to expose the ends of the 5' and 3' inverted terminal repeats (ITRs) and transfected

into 116 producer cells (Profection® Mammalian Transfection System, Promega, Madison, WI,

USA). Helper virus (HV) was added the following day for HdAd production. Forty-eight hours

postinfection, after cytopathic effects have taken place, cells were subjected to three freeze/thaw

cycles for lysis and release of the viral particles. HdAd was purified by CsCl ultracentrifugation.

HdAd was stored at -80 °C in storage buffer (10 mM HEPES, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 250 mM sucrose, pH

7.4).

Virus injections

Virus injections at P14 were performed as previously described (Lübbert et al., 2019). Briefly, mice

were anesthetized with 5% isoflurane inhalation and anesthesia was maintained with 2%

isoflurane throughout the procedure. Subcutaneous injection of physiological saline, lidocaine,

bupivacaine, and meloxicam was used to treat loss of liquid and alleviate pain. The injection site

was determined using the Stereodrive software (Neurostar) and corrected for head orientation and

tilt. A small hole (diameter <1 mm) was drilled into the skull using a foot-pedal controlled drill MH-

170 (Foredom). The virus solution was injected via a glass pipet (Drummond) at a rate of 100

nL/min with a nanoliter injector (NanoW, Neurostar). Following the injection, the glass needle was

left in place for 1 min to dissipate the pressure and then slowly retracted. Animals were then placed

under an infrared heat lamp and allowed to recover before being returned to their respective cages

with their mother.

Confocal imaging and reconstruction of presynaptic terminals

For reconstruction of the calyx of Held terminals, animals were injected with viral vectors

expressing either mEGFP (yielding $Rac1^{+/+}$) or Cre recombinase and mEGFP (yielding $Rac1^{-/-}$).

Mice were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of tribromoethanol (250 mg/kg body

weight) and transcardially perfused with ice-cold 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB, pH 7.4) followed by

4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M PB. Brains were removed and post-fixed overnight in 4%

PFA solution at 4°C. The next day, brains were sliced into 40 µm sections on a Leica VT1200

vibratome. mEGFP positive slices were identified and mounted on cover slips with Aqua

Polymount (Polysciences, Inc., Warrington, PA, USA). Confocal images were acquired with a

Zeiss LSM 700 or 880 confocal scanning microscope using a 63x/1.3 NA Apochromat multi-

immersion objective. Image stacks were collected using 0.44 um plane line scans with line

average of four times. Images were processed using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012, http://fiji.sc.,

RRID:SCR 002285). Calyx reconstructions were performed blind to genotype using Imaris

Measurement Pro (BitPlane) using automatic signal detection manual curation in single planes in

Z-stack confocal images as previously described (Radulovic et al., 2020).

Electron Microscopy

Preembedding immuno-electron microscopy was performed as previously described (Montesinos

et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2018). Briefly, $Rac^{fl/fl}$ mice injected at P14 with HdAd co-expressing Cre-

recombinase and EGFP were anesthetized and perfused transcardially at P28 with phosphate-

buffered saline (PBS, 150 mM NaCl, 25 mM Sørensen's phosphate buffer, pH 7.4) followed by

fixative solution for 7-9 min containing 4% PFA, 0.5% glutaraldehyde, and 0.2% picric acid in 100

mM Sørensen's phosphate buffer (PB, pH 7.4). Brains were post-fixed with 4% PFA in PB

overnight and 50-μm coronal sections of the brainstem were obtained on a vibratome (Leica

VT1200S). Expression of EGFP at the calyx of Held terminals was visualized using an

epifluorescence inverted microscope (CKX41, Olympus) equipped with an XCite Series 120Q

lamp (Excelitas Technologies), and only those samples showing EGFP were further processed.

After washing with PB, sections were cryoprotected with 10%, 20%, and 30% sucrose in PB and

submersed into liquid nitrogen, then thawed. Sections were incubated in a blocking solution

containing 10% normal goat serum (NGS), 1% fish skin gelatin (FSG), in 50 mM Tris-buffered

saline (TBS, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris, pH 7.4) for 1h, and incubated with an anti-GFP antibody

(0.1μg/ml, ab6556, Abcam, RRID: AB_305564) diluted in TBS containing 1% NGS, 0.1% FSG

plus 0.05% NaN_3 at 4°C for 48h. After washing with TBS, sections were incubated overnight in

nanogold conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:100, Jackson Immunoresearch, RRID: AB_2340585)

diluted in TBS containing 1% NGS and 0.1% FSG. Immunogold-labeled sections were washed in

PBS, briefly fixed with 1% glutaraldehyde in PBS, and silver intensified using an HQ silver

intensification kit (Nanoprobe). After washing with PB, sections were treated with 0.5% OsO_4 in

0.1M PB for 20 min, en-bloc stained with 1% uranyl acetate, dehydrated and flat embedded in

Durcupan resin (Sigma-Aldrich). After trimming out the MNTB region, ultrathin sections were

prepared with 40 nm-thickness using an ultramicrotome (EM UC7, Leica). Sections were

counterstained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate and examined in a Tecnai G2 Spirit BioTwin

transmission electron microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 100 kV acceleration voltage.

Images were taken with a Veleta CCD camera (Olympus) operated by TIA software (Thermo

Fisher Scientific). Images used for quantification were taken at 60 000x magnification.

TEM image analysis

Calyces positive for Cre expression ($Rac1^{-/-}$) were identified by immunogold labeling with an anti-

GFP antibody and compared to EGFP-negative terminals ($Rac1^{+/+}$) in the same slice or calyces in

the wildtype sample. All TEM data were analyzed using Fiji imaging analysis software (Schindelin

et al., 2012). Each presynaptic active zone (AZ) was defined as the membrane directly opposing

the postsynaptic density, and the length of each AZ was measured. Vesicles within 200 nm from

each AZ were manually selected and their distances relative to the AZ were calculated using a

32-bit Euclidean distance map generated from the AZ. For data analysis, vesicle distances were

binned every 5 nm and counted (Montesinos et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2018). Vesicles less than 5

nm from the AZ were considered "docked". Three animals for each condition and ~40 AZs per

animal were analyzed. Analysis was performed blind to genotype independently by three

researchers and results were averaged.

Electrophysiology

Acute coronal brainstem slices (~200 μm) containing the MNTB were prepared as previously

described (Chen et al., 2013; Thomas et al., 2019). Briefly, after decapitation of the animal, the

brain was immersed in low-calcium artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) solution containing (in mM):

125 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 3 $MgCl_2$, 0.1 $CaCl_2$, 10 glucose, 25 $NaHCO_3$, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 0.4 L-ascorbic

acid, 3 myo-inositol, and 2 Na-pyruvate, pH 7.3–7.4). Brain slices were obtained using a Leica VT

1200S vibratome equipped with zirconia ceramic blades (EF-INZ10, Cadence Blades) as

previously described. The blade was advanced at a speed of 20-50 µm/s. Slices were immediately

transferred to an incubation beaker containing standard extracellular solution (same as above but

using 1 mM $MgCl_2$ and 1.2 mM $CaCl_2$) at ~37°C and continuously bubbled with 95% O_2–5% CO_2.

After approximately 45 min of incubation, slices were transferred to a recording chamber with the

same saline solution at physiological temperature (~37°C).

Electrical stimulation of afferent fibers was performed as previously described (Forsythe and

Barnes-Davies, 1993a, 1993b). Briefly, a bipolar platinum-iridium electrode was positioned

medially of the MNTB to stimulate afferent fibers (FHC, Model MX214EP). Postsynaptic MNTB

neurons were whole-cell voltage-clamped at −60 mV using an EPC10/2 amplifier controlled by

Patchmaster Software (version 2x90.2, HEKA Elektronik, RRID:SCR_000034). Slices were

continuously perfused with normal aCSF solution at a rate of 1 mL/min and visualized by an

upright microscope (BX51WI, Olympus) through a 60x water-immersion objective (LUMPlanFL N,

Olympus) and an EMCCD camera (Andor Luca S, Oxford Instruments). To identify calyces

expressing Cre-recombinase and EGFP, the slice was illuminated at an excitation wavelength of

480 nm using a Polychrome V xenon bulb monochromator (TILL Photonics). For whole-cell

voltage-clamp recordings, the standard extracellular solution was supplemented with 1 mM

kynurenic acid to avoid saturation of postsynaptic AMPA receptors, 50 µM D-AP-5 to block NMDA

receptors, and 20 µM bicuculline and 5 µM strychnine to block inhibitory GABA- and glycine

receptors, respectively (all Tocris Bioscience). Patch pipettes had a resistance of ~3–4 MΩ and

were filled with the following (in mM): 130 Cs-gluconate, 20 tetraethylammonium (TEA)-Cl, 10

HEPES, 5 Na_2-phosphocreatine, 4 Mg-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 6 QX-314, and 5 EGTA, pH 7.2 (315

mOsm. Reported voltages are uncorrected for a calculated liquid junction potential of 13 mV. For

loose-patch recordings, the extracellular solution was supplemented with 20 µM bicuculline and

5 µM strychnine, and the patch pipettes were filled with aCSF. To simulate *in vivo* activity levels,

afferent fibers were stimulated with activity patterns previously recorded *in vivo* in response to

sinusoidal amplitude-modulated (SAM) sound stimulation (Tolnai et al., 2008).

mEPSCs were recorded with the same aCSF supplemented with 50 mM D-AP5, 20 μM

bicuculline, 5 μM strychnine, 1 μM TTX, and 20 mM TEA. In a subset of *Rac1$^{-/-}$* recordings, Cd^{2+}

(cadmium chloride), a non-selective Ca^{2+} channel blocker was flushed in during recordings to

determine the impact of VGCC on spontaneous SV release. The baseline mEPSC frequency was

established by recording each cell for at least one minute before Cd^{2+} was flushed in via the bath

perfusion. MNTB principal neurons were whole-cell voltage-clamped at -80 mV and recorded until

enough mEPSCs (>25) were recorded. Overlapping events were excluded from the analysis.

Data were acquired at a sampling rate of 100 kHz and lowpass filtered at 6 kHz. Series resistance

(3–8 MΩ) was compensated online to <3 MΩ, except for mEPSC recordings where series

resistance (<9 MΩ) was not compensated. All experiments were performed at near-physiological

temperature (36-37°C) and the temperature was maintained by a heated bath chamber (HCS,

ALA Scientific Instruments) and perfusion system (HPC-2, ALA Scientific Instruments). The

temperature of the bath solution was monitored during the experiment using a glass-coated micro

thermistor.

Electrophysiological data analysis

Electrophysiological data were imported to Matlab (version 9.10; The Mathworks,

RRID:SCR_001622) using a custom-modified version of sigTool (Lidierth, 2009) and Igor Pro

(version 8.0.4.2, Wavemetrics, RRID:SCR_000325) equipped with Patcher's Power Tools

(version 2.19, RRID:SCR_001950) and NeuroMatic (Rothman and Silver, 2018,

RRID:SCR_004186), and analyzed offline with custom-written functions in Matlab and IgorPro.

The remaining series resistance was compensated offline to 0 MΩ with a time lag of 10 μs

(Traynelis, 1998). EPSC amplitudes were measured as peak amplitude minus baseline preceding

the EPSC. RRP size and P_r were calculated using the EQ method (Elmqvist and Quastel, 1965),

back-extrapolation method (SMN with correction, Neher, 2015), and NpRf model (Thanawala and

Regehr, 2016) as previously described (Lübbert et al., 2019). Steady-state Pr was calculated by

dividing the steady-state EPSC by the RRP size corrected for partial depletion: $Pr_{ss} =$

$EPSC_{ss}/(RRP \cdot EPSC_{ss}/EPSC_1)$. Onset time of EPSCs was determined by fitting a Boltzmann

function to the EPSC rising flank and calculating the time point of maximum curvature, as

described previously (Fedchyshyn and Wang, 2007). The duration between stimulus and EPSC

onset was defined as EPSC onset delay. Synchronicity of SV release was estimated for individual

EPSCs by dividing their EPSC amplitude by their EPSC charge.

Recordings of mEPSCs were analyzed using NeuroMatic in Igor Pro. Potential events were

detected when exceeding an amplitude threshold at 4-6 times the standard deviation of the

baseline and all events were manually curated to exclude false positives. Rise time was measured

between 10% and 90% of the amplitude. Full-width at half-maximal amplitude (FWHM) was

measured at 50% amplitude.

$$A\left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_r}}\right)\left(Fe^{-\frac{t}{\tau_{d1}}} + (1 - F)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_{d2}}}\right)$$

605   Amplitudes and rise and decay time of mEPSCs were derived from the fit. Overlapping events

606   were first deconvolved with a template mEPSC to determine their onset and then fit as a linear

607   sum of multi-exponential equations.

608   Recovery of SVs was estimated by non-linear least-square fits for single EPSC and RRP recovery.

609   Both types of recovery were best fit with a bi-exponential function of the form:

$$A\left(1 - f\left(e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_{d1}}}\right) + (1 - f)\left(e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_{d2}}}\right)\right)$$

with variable A constraint to 1 when fitting fractional recovery. An F-test was used to statistically

determine the better fit as described previously. Fractional recovery of the first EPSC was

calculated as $(EPSC_{test}^1 - EPSC_{dep}^{ss})/(EPSC_{dep}^1 - EPSC_{dep}^{ss})$ where $EPSC_{test}^1$ is the amplitude of the

first EPSC of the test train, $EPSC_{dep}^{ss}$ the steady-state amplitude of the depleting train and $EPSC_{dep}^{1}$

the amplitude of the first EPSC of the depleting train.

To estimate preceding neuronal activity during SAM stimulation, we calculated the interspike

interval (ISI) as the distance to the preceding AP. For the analysis of AP responses during SAM

stimulation, we used the preceding ISI to estimate the influence of previous activity during SAM

recordings. Since short-term plasticity can extend well beyond the last ISI, we also estimated

preceding activity by calculating the sum of all preceding events with each event weighted by its

distance to the AP under observation. This weighting was implemented as a single-exponential

decaying function, emphasizing temporally close events over more distant ones (Sonntag et al.,

2009; Keine et al., 2016). The time constant was set to 30 ms, consistent with previous reports

(Yang and Xu-Friedman, 2015). The calculation was also performed with time constants of 10 ms

and 100 ms yielding similar results.

Experimental Design and Statistical analysis

For the electrophysiological data analysis and morphological reconstruction, individual neurons

were considered independent samples. For thin-section TEM analysis, AZs were considered

independent samples (244 total AZs, 6 animals, ~40 AZs each). Statistical analysis was conducted

in MATLAB (version 9.4, RRID:SCR_001622) and GraphPad Prism (RRID:SCR_002798). Data

distributions were tested for Gaussianity using the Shapiro-Wilk test. To compare two groups, a

two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test with Welch's correction (normal distribution) or a two-tailed

Mann-Whitney U test (non-normal distribution) was used. Fits to data were subject to F-tests to

determine the better model (mono- or biexponential) and for comparison between groups. For

interpretation of all statistical tests, a p-value of 0.05 was deemed significant. Effect sizes were

calculated using the MES toolbox in MATLAB (Hentschke and Stüttgen, 2011) and are reported

as Cohen's U_1 for two-sample comparison and eta-squared (η^2) for RM ANOVA. No statistical test

was performed to pre-determine sample sizes. Exact p-values, test statistics, and effect sizes for

all statistical comparisons are summarized in Table 1. Boxplots in the figures show median,

interquartile, and minimum/maximum within 1.5 times the interquartile range. Average data in the

text are reported as mean ± standard deviation.

Data and Software Accessibility

All experimental data and custom-written software central to the conclusion of this study are

available at http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/c4b7gn8bh7 under the terms of the Creative Commons

Attribution 4.0 License (CC BY 4.0).

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figures

Fig. 1: Loss of presynaptic Rac1 after hearing onset does not affect calyx of Held gross

morphology or ultrastructure. (**A**) Cre recombinase-expressing HdAds were injected into the

cochlear nucleus of *Rac1^{fl/fl}* mice at P14, yielding *Rac1^{-/-}* calyces of Held. All experiments were

performed at around four weeks of age. Cre-recombinase-expressing calyces could be visually

identified by simultaneous expression of EGFP. (**B1**) Representative reconstruction of calyx

terminals of *Rac1^{+/+}* (left) and *Rac1^{-/-}* (right) animals. (**B2**) Calyx morphology assessed by surface

area (left) and volume (right) was not affected by the loss of Rac1 (**C1**) Representative EM images

of the active zone (yellow) and docked SV (blue) to assess synaptic ultrastructure. (**C2**) SV

distribution as a function of distance to AZ was not different between *Rac1^{+/+}* and *Rac1^{-/-}*. (**C3**) AZ

length and number of docked SV were comparable between *Rac1^{+/+} and Rac1^{-/-}*. Box plot whiskers

extend to the minimum/maximum within the 1.5 interquartile range; open markers indicate

individual data points. For EM data, the results of three independent investigators were averaged.

The results of statistical tests are summarized in Table 1.

Fig. 2: Presynaptic Rac1 regulates synaptic vesicles release probability and synaptic strength. (**A**) Synaptic transmission at the calyx of Held – MNTB synapse was studied at P28 after deletion of Rac1 at P14 at different stimulation frequencies. (**A1, B1**) Representative evoked EPSCs for *Rac1⁺/⁺* (black) and *Rac1⁻/⁻* (orange) at 50 Hz and 500 Hz stimulation frequency and (**C1**) Magnification of the first EPSC. Ablation of presynaptic Rac1 resulted in increased EPSC amplitude with no change in EPSC dynamics (**A2-A4**) At 50 Hz stimulation frequency, *Rac1⁻/⁻* showed stronger short-term depression and larger steady-state EPSC amplitudes. (**B2-B4**) At 500 Hz stimulation frequency, loss of Rac1 resulted in a lack of short-term facilitation and increased synaptic depression with no change in steady-state EPSC amplitude (**D1**) Population data showing an increase in first EPSC amplitude in *Rac1⁻/⁻* with little or no change in RRP size

(**D2**) Population data for initial (left) and steady-state release probability (right) indicating that

release probability in *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ was elevated independent of estimation method and stimulation

frequency. (**D3**) Population data of steady-state EPSC amplitudes and replenishment rates at 50

and 500 Hz stimulation frequency. *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ had larger steady-state EPSCs and faster

replenishment at 50 Hz but not 500 Hz stimulation frequency. The results of statistical tests are

summarized in Table 1.

Fig. 3: Presynaptic loss of Rac1 increase calcium-independent neurotransmitter release.

(**A**) Representative recordings of mEPSCs for *Rac1*$^{+/+}$ (left, black) and *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ (right, orange). (**B1-B4**) Rac1 deletion increased mEPSC frequency but did not affect mEPSC amplitude, rise time, or full width at half-maximal amplitude (FWHM). (**C**) The increased mEPSC rates at *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ were independent of presynaptic voltage-gated calcium channels (VGCC) as blocking VGCC with cadmium (Cd^{2+}) did not affect mEPSC frequency. The results of statistical tests are summarized in Table 1.

Fig. 4: Presynaptic loss of Rac1 decreases SV synchronicity and prolongs EPSC onset at high-frequency stimulation. (**A**) Experiments were performed at low (50 Hz, A1) and high (500 Hz, A2) stimulation frequencies. Representative recordings of first (EPSC$_1$) and last (EPSC$_{50}$) EPSC in the stimulus train. Traces are aligned at the EPSC onset of the first EPSC. Stimulus artifacts are partially blanked for better visibility. Note the shift in the onset of EPSC$_{50}$ in *Rac1$^{-/-}$* at 500 Hz but not 50 Hz (**B1**) Absolute EPSC onset delay for 50 Hz (gray and light orange) and 500 Hz (black and orange) stimulation. (**B2**) EPSC onset delay relative to EPSC$_1$ for 50 Hz (gray and light orange) and 500 Hz (black and orange). At 50 Hz, the EPSC onset delay was similar between *Rac1$^{+/+}$* and *Rac1$^{-/-}$*. At 500 Hz, the EPSC onset delay was substantially larger at *Rac1$^{-/-}$*. For better visualization, only every second data point is shown. (**B3**) EPSC onset delay of the last ten EPSCs relative to EPSC$_1$ for 50 Hz and 500 Hz stimulation. EPSC delay of the last

ten EPSC was not different between $Rac1^{+/+}$ and $Rac1^{-/-}$ at 50 Hz but increased for $Rac1^{-/-}$ at

500 Hz stimulation frequency. (**C1**) Analysis of EPSC synchronicity during 50 Hz and 500 Hz

stimulation. Synchronicity was calculated by dividing the EPSC amplitudes by the EPSC charge.

Note the more severe loss of EPSC synchronicity for $Rac1^{-/-}$ at 500 Hz stimulation. For better

visualization only every second data point is shown (**C2**) EPSC synchronicity was not different for

$EPSC_1$, but slightly reduced for $Rac1^{-/-}$ at 50 Hz and substantially lower at 500 Hz stimulation

frequency. (**C3**) EPSC synchronicity of last ten EPSCs normalized to $EPSC_1$. Note the progressive

loss of synchronicity in $Rac1^{-/-}$ with increasing stimulation frequency. The results of statistical tests

are summarized in Table 1.

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Fig. 5: Loss of presynaptic Rac1 facilitates synaptic vesicle recovery. (**A**) Recovery of single

EPSC and RRP recovery was measured by two consecutive train stimuli (depleting stimulus and

recovery stimulus) at 500 Hz at varying recovery intervals. (**A**) Single EPSC recovery. (**A1**)

Representative traces for *Rac1*$^{+/+}$ (black) and *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ (orange) for recovery intervals ranging from

20 ms to 16 s. (**A2**) Recovery of absolute EPSC amplitudes as a function of recovery interval with

magnification of short intervals (right). (**A3**) Fractional EPSC recovery as a function of recovery

interval. (**B**) Recovery of the RRP (**B1**) Representative recovery traces after 100 ms and 2 s, the

depleting stimulus train is the same as in A1. (**B2**) Fractional RRP recovery was faster in *Rac1*$^{-/-}$

compared to *Rac1*$^{+/+}$. (**B3**) Recovery of the paired-pulse ratio (PPR) of the first two EPSCs of the

1020   recovery train. PPR was consistently lower in *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ but the difference was emphasized at longer

1021   recovery intervals. The results of statistical tests are summarized in Table 1.

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Fig. 6: Alterations in presynaptic release probability did not impair the reliability of action potential generation during *in vivo*-like activity. (**A1**) AP firing was recorded in response to *in vivo*-like stimulation patterns derived from responses to sinusoidal amplitude-modulated sounds at different modulation frequencies. Raster plot shows three representative stimulation patterns (**A2**) Representative traces of loose-patch recordings during afferent fiber stimulation with in vivo-like activity for *Rac1*$^{+/+}$ (black) and *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ (orange). (**B1**) Fraction of successful AP generation was not different between *Rac1*$^{+/+}$ and *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ independent of modulation frequency (**B2**) AP jitter defined as the standard deviation of AP latencies was not changed in *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ neither for the complete stimulus nor as a function of stimulus modulation frequency. (**C1**) AP jitter and AP delay as a function of preceding inter-spike interval (**C2**) AP jitter and AP delay as a function of preceding

1034   activity level. Note the increased AP jitter and AP delay in *Rac1*$^{-/-}$ at higher activity levels. The

1035   results of statistical tests are summarized in Table 1.

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1038   **Fig. 7: Proposed model of Rac1's presynaptic role in regulating synaptic transmission.** In

1039   the proposed model loss of Rac1 results in changes in F-actin at the active zone, thereby reducing

1040   the barrier function between SVs and the plasma membrane. The resulting increase in SV

1041   fusogenicity increases Pr and synaptic strength.

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