Unveiling the cell biology of hippocampal neurons with dendritic axon origin

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Summary

In axon-carrying-dendrite (AcD) neurons, the axon emanates from a basal dendrite, instead of the soma, to create a privileged route for action potential generation at the axon initial segment (AIS). However, it is unclear how such unusual morphology is established and whether the structural and functional integrity of the AIS in AcD neurons is preserved. Here, we show that the AcD neurons follow an intrinsically encoded developmental program where a single precursor neurite first gives rise to the axon and then to the AcD. The AIS possesses a similar cytoskeletal architecture as the canonical AIS that stems from the soma, and similarly functions as a trafficking barrier to retain axon-specific molecular composition. However, unlike soma-derived AIS, the AIS of AcD neurons does not undergo homeostatic-plasticity, contains less cisternal organelles and receives fewer inhibitory inputs. These distinct features of the AIS could account for higher intrinsic excitability of AcD neurons.

Highlights

- The development of AcD neurons is intrinsically driven and does not depend on neuronal connectivity

- AcD neurons generate the axon and AcD from the same precursor neurite

- The stem dendrite of an AcD neuron displays axon-like microtubule organization

- Similar to the AIS emerging from the soma, the AIS of AcD neurons can selectively filter dendritic cargo

- The AIS of AcD neurons does not undergo homeostatic plasticity and receives fewer inhibitory inputs

Keywords

Axon-carrying dendrite neurons, axon initial segment (AIS), cytoskeleton, AIS plasticity, cisternal organelle

1 Introduction

Principal excitatory neurons comprise three functional domains: a soma, multiple highly branched dendrites and a single axon. Canonically, the axon of a principal neuron emerges directly from the soma. An important function of the axon is to communicate with downstream targets by transmitting inputs that have been received at the dendrites and integrated at the soma in the form of action potentials (APs). Axon formation is the initial step in development of neuronal polarity.[1] After mitotic phase, the spherical-shaped neurons first generate a pool of nascent neurites and then specify a single precursor neurite to become an axon.[2,3] Once the axon is properly established, the remaining neurites begin to differentiate into dendrites and synaptic connections are eventually formed.[2,3] Such development program is mostly genetically encoded in neurons and can be reproduced in dissociated cell cultures.[1] However, the timing, topology of subcellular domains, connectivity, and certain other specific aspects of neuron development can vary between cell types. This variation may be attributed to the distinct microenvironments formed by *in vivo* guidance molecules.[1,3]

The axon of a principal neuron contains several distinct cellular features that are essential for its functions. For example, the fast growing microtubule (MT) plus ends in the axon are uniformly arranged towards the distal tip, whereas in the dendrites are bi-directionally oriented.[4,5] The stability of axonal MTs is also enhanced by employing specific ratio of post-translational modifications (PTMs).[4,5] This unique axonal MT organisation has been shown to promote targeted delivery of vesicles containing axon specific proteins and lipids which is driven by kinesin motor proteins.[6–8] The axon initial segment (AIS) is another important structure covering the proximal part of the axon and extending about 20-60 μm towards the distal end. The hallmarks of the AIS include: the patch-like filamentous actin (F-actin) networks[9–12]; the periodical membrane cytoskeleton (MPS) consisting of F-actin rings separated by AIS specific scaffolding proteins ankyrin-G (AnkG) and spectrins[10–15]; the MT fascicles bundled by AIS specific MT associated protein (MAP) TRIM46[16]; the voltage gated ion channels (VGICs), such as sodium channels , enriched on the plasma membrane[17], and the cisternal organelles (COs),

which is a stack of endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane linked together by actin binding protein

synaptopodin (Synpo).[18–20] Together, this sophisticated cellular organisation makes the AIS a critical

structure that not only acts as a molecular fence to filter out somatodendritic proteins[9–11], but also

initiate APs along the axon and regulate neuronal excitability and homeostasis.[13,21–23] It has been

shown that the AIS of excitatory neurons undergo structural remodelling to compensate for high

neuronal activity, a process known as AIS plasticity.[22,23] Furthermore, the AIS of excitatory neurons is

innervated by inhibitory synapses for fine-tuning of excitability during network activities[24]. Therefore,

the structural and functional integrity of the AIS is extremely important for proper neuronal functions.

Different from canonical morphology, the axon of some neurons can also emanate from a dendrite.

Already in 1899, Ramon Cajal observed neurons with the axon emerging from a dendrite in unipolar

neurons of invertebrate abdominal ganglia.[25] Later, neurons with an axon emerging from a basal

dendrite have been discovered in the neocortex and hippocampus of mammals, including human.[26–28]

This type of neurons is referred to as axon-carrying dendrite (AcD) neurons[26]. A typical feature of AcD

neuron is that the axon and the AcD branch out from a common dendritic root, called stem dendrite.

[26–28] In rodent hippocampus, AcD neurons were found to be primarily distributed at the central part of

the CA1 region, where they represent over 50% of the entire excitatory neuron population.[26]

Electrophysiological experiments suggested that the AcD is intrinsically more excitable than regular

somatic dendrites.[26] Since the AIS is located next to the AcD, synaptic inputs from the AcD can bypass

somatic integration, and directly flow into the axon to trigger AP at the AIS.[26] This AcD-to-AIS paradigm

of AP initiation allows the AcD neurons to evade global peri-somatic inhibition, and therefore being

selectively activated during sharp-wave ripples, a process associated with memory consolidation.[28]

Collectively, these findings revealed that the dendritic AIS origin has a substantial impact on the

electrical behaviour of hippocampal excitatory neurons. Despite a detailed physiological and functional

characterisation of AcD neurons, several cell biological questions have remained open. For instance, is

the development of AcD neurons dependent on neuronal connectivity and guidance cues or that AcD

neuron differentiation is intrinsically encoded? How do AcD neurons develop the axon and AIS from a

dendrite? What is the cytoskeletal organisation of AcD neurons, especially at the AIS, and is it different

to canonical AIS emerging directly from the soma? Are the AIS functions affected by the localisation at

a dendrite? In this study, we aim to provide a more comprehensive cell biological picture of

hippocampal AcD neurons by addressing these questions.

Results

The AcD neurons follow intrinsically encoded developmental program and differentiate the axon and AcD from the same precursor neurite

To investigate whether the differentiation of hippocampal neurons into AcD type is intrinsically or extrinsically driven, we used dissociated hippocampal primary cultures because they lack the microenvironments that guide neuron development *in vivo*. Immunofluorescent labelling of the AIS marker AnkG and of the somatodendritic marker MAP2 clearly showed that, in a subset of neurons, the AIS is branched out from a dendrite and located further away from the soma (Figure 1A), indicating that hippocampal neurons do differentiate into AcD type in dissociated cultures. Already at 3 days in vitro (DIV), the AnkG fluorescent signal began to accumulate at the proximal axon of AcD neurons (Figure 1A), and the signal appears to be more continuous and evident in AcD neurons fixed at later time point (DIV5, 7 and 12), when the AIS is more mature (Figure 1A). The same time line of AIS formation was also observed in nonAcD neurons (Figure 1A), which is consistent with a previous study.[29] These results suggest that the development of AcD neurons is indeed an intrinsically driven process, and that the dendritic axon origin has no impact on the timing of AIS assembly.

For further investigation, we classified hippocampal neurons into AcD and nonAcD categories based on previously published standards[26–28], and quantified the amount of AcD neurons in dissociated cultures at DIV5 and DIV7, at which neuronal polarity has been established. The axon distance from the soma was the key factor for AcD neuron classification (Figure 1B; Figure S1D; see STAR methods for details). We classified neurons with an axon distance longer than 3 µm as AcD neurons. Otherwise, neurons were considered as nonAcD. Quantification showed that AcD neurons make up 15-20% of the entire population at both time points (Figure 1C), indicating that dissociated cultures can be a good model system to investigate cell biology of AcD neurons.

The canonical developmental process of nonAcD neurons *in vitro* is defined into five stages.[2] After

surface attachment, neurons begin with generating a pool of nascent neurites and then specifying a

single precursor neurite as the axon (stage 1-3; DIV0-3) (Figure 1D; Video S1). Subsequently, the rest

of the neurites begin to differentiate into dendrites (stage 4; DIV4-7; Figure 1D; Video S1), followed by

establishing synapses (stage 5; after DIV7). We therefore asked whether AcD neurons keep the same

developmental sequence, given their atypical axon origin. Indeed, 5 days of continues time lapse

imaging with post-labelling of the AIS to categorise neurons revealed that AcD neurons also first grow

an axon from a precursor neurite and then establish dendrites (Figure 1D; Figure S1A; Video S2).

However, during early stages of development (DIV1-2), a collateral neurite was generated from the

proximal region of the precursor neurite that is designated as the axon (Figure 1D; Figure S1A; Video

S2). This collateral underwent several rounds of elongation and retraction while the precursor neurite

kept developing as the axon (Figure 1D; Figure S1A; Video S2). Eventually, once the axon was defined,

the collateral started to mature as the AcD and the former proximal region of the precursor neurite

was transformed into the stem dendrite (Figure 1D; Figure S1A; Video S2). Quantitative analysis

showed that about 80% of the AcD neurons generate collateral at the proximal region of the precursor

neurite (Figure 1E), and the average time point of collateral formation is at 39 hours (DIV1.5) post

plating (Figure 1F). About 20% of the AcD neurons developed axon and AcD via bifurcation of the

precursor neurite growth cone (Figure 1E; Figure S1B; Video S3). Among the 80% of AcD neurons that

formed collateral, majority of the population (70%) designated the precursor neurite as the axon and

grew the collateral as AcD (Figure 1G). Only a smaller population (30%) of neurons turned the precursor

neurite into the AcD, and a collateral that emerged next to the precursor neurite growth cone

developed into the axon (Figure 1G; Figure S1A; Video S4). We also assessed the collateral genesis at

the proximal region of the axon precursor neurite in nonAcD neurons. We found only 30% of nonAcD

neurons formed collaterals at DIV1 (Figure 1H), and these collaterals completely retracted at DIV4

(Figure S1C), meaning that the precursor neurite of AcD neurons has higher tendency to generate

collateral during development. Together, these findings suggest that the AcD and axon of AcD neurons

are differentiated from a common precursor neurite. This neurite is primarily identified as the axon

and the AcD is established mainly via collateralization post axon formation (Figure 1I). Although,

multiple alternative strategies do exist during AcD neuron development which is similar to what has

been shown for nonAcD neurons *in vitro*.[2]

The stem dendrite of AcD neurons has axon-like microtubule organisation

The different orientation of MTs between axon and dendrites in neurons is important for directional

transport of axonal and dendritic cargoes.[4–6,30] We therefore wondered if the MT orientation in AcD

neurons differs from nonAcD neurons, especially at the region of the stem dendrite, axon and AcD. To

track MT orientations, we overexpressed MT plus end binding protein-3 tagged with Tdtomato (EB3-

Tdtomato) in DIV14 dissociated neurons. For axon identification, we labelled the AIS with a

fluorescently conjugated antibody against the extracellular domain of the AIS enriched

transmembrane protein neurofascin (anti-NF-CF640R) in live cells (Figure S1E). We found that the AIS,

axon and regular somatic dendrites of AcD neurons display similar MT orientations as nonAcD neurons.

As indicated by EB3-Tdtomato trajectories, in both AcD and nonAcD neurons, MT plus ends in the AIS

and axon are uniformly oriented towards the distal tip but are anti-parallel in the regular somatic

dendrites (Figure 2A and 2C; Video S5 - S7). In AcD neurons, we also observed mixed directions of EB3-

Tdtomato trajectories in the AcD (Figure 2B and 2C; Video S5), suggesting that the AcD has a typical

dendritic MT organisation. By stark contrast, we found that in the stem dendrite of AcD neurons, nearly

90% of the EB3-Tdtomato trajectories showed a unidirectional movement either towards the axon or

the AcD (Figure 2B and 2C; Video S5). This unidirectional plus end-out MT orientation highly resembles

that in the axon.

Previous studies have demonstrated that stable acetylated MTs are more abundant in the axon than

in the dendrites[5], and the presence of acetylated MTs is instructive for protein delivery into the axon

via kinesin-1[7,31], a member of kinesin motor protein family. To visualise different MT populations, we

performed gated-stimulation emission depletion (gSTED) super-resolution imaging which revealed the

presence of acetylated MTs at the stem dendrite of AcD neurons (Figure 2D). These acetylated MTs

are located in the middle of the stem dendrite and surrounded by dynamic tyrosinated MTs (Figure 2D

and 2E), which is very similar to axons of nonAcD neurons.[32] Moreover, we found that acetylated MTs

extend from the stem dendrite directly into the AIS, while they occur less in the AcD (Figure 2D). Since

our developmental data showed that the stem dendrite mostly derives from the axon precursor

neurite, these results indicate that the stem dendrite of AcD neurons inherits axonal MT organisation.

The AIS of AcD neurons has the same F-actin organisation as in nonAcD neurons but contains

less cisternal organelles

In nonAcD neurons, the AIS is supported by F-actin-rich structures, including the MPS and the F-actin

patches.[9–12,14,15] However, it has not been shown whether the AIS of AcD neurons has a similar actin

organisation. We therefore labelled F-actin in dissociated AcD neurons with phalloidin-Atto647N and

performed gSTED imaging to visualise the nanoscale architecture of F-actin. We found that the F-actin

at the AIS of AcD neurons also formed individual patches and ring-like structures (Figure 3A). The F-

actin rings were periodically arranged with a spacing of about 190 nm (Figure 3B), indicating that the

F-actin at the AIS of AcD neurons has similar nanostructure to nonAcD neurons. Previous work has

shown that in hippocampal excitatory neurons, the axonal F-actin patches colocalise with COs[20], and

this colocalization is mediated by the actin binding protein synaptopodin.[18,19,33] Interestingly, our

quantification showed a relatively lower number of synaptopodin puncta at the AIS of AcD neurons

than nonAcD neurons (Figure 3C and 3D), indicating that the amount of COs is reduced at the AIS of

AcD neurons.

The AIS of AcD neurons regulates neuronal polarity by selective permissiveness for axonal cargoes

The AIS helps the axon to retain distinct protein composition by selectively blocking MT based trafficking of dendritic cargoes.[13,21] This selectivity depends on F-actin structures.[9–12] Our data showed that there is no difference on F-actin nanostructure between the AIS of AcD and nonAcD neurons, suggesting that the cargo selectivity of the AIS may also remain unchanged in AcD neurons. To experimentally assess this, we used two well established markers, Ras-related protein Rab3A, which associates with pre-synaptic vesicles, and transferrin receptors (TfRs) as representative axonal and dendritic cargoes, respectively.[34,35] We infected neurons with recombinant adeno-associated virus (rAAV) expressing Rab3A tagged with EGFP (EGFP-Rab3A) to visualise axonal cargoes. The AIS was live labelled with anti-NF-CF640R antibody (Figure S1E). To reduce background signals of EGFP-Rab3A, we photobleached the fluorescent signal of EGFP-Rab3A vesicles residing at the imaging area and recorded newly delivered EGFP-Rab3A vesicles. Kymographs of time lapse recordings revealed that EGFP-Rab3A vesicles in AcD neurons specifically recognise the axon location, then travel through the stem dendrite region into the AIS and the axon (Figure 4A-4C; Video S8). For dendritic cargoes, we live labelled endogenous TfRs of neurons with the fluorescently conjugated ligand Transferrin-Alexa568. We found that TfR vesicles were halted at the AIS and were mostly travelling within the dendritic region of AcD neurons but not in the axon (Figure 4J-4L; Video S10), suggesting that the AIS of AcD neurons still selectively blocks the transport of dendritic cargo.

To better understand the axonal cargo permissiveness and dendritic cargo filtering capacity of the AIS in AcD neurons, we thoroughly analysed the trajectories of EGFP-Rab3A and TfR vesicles using a Python-based program KYMOA (Figure S2; see STAR Methods for details). Quantitative analysis showed that majority of the EGFP-Rab3A vesicles were mobile within the AIS of both AcD and nonAcD neurons (nonAcD: 90% mobile, 10% stationary; AcD: 89% mobile, 11% stationary; Figure 4D), and no significant difference was found on the average number or percentage of mobile vesicles between the

two cell types (Figure 4D; Figure S3A; Video S8 and S9). These mobile EGFP-Rab3A vesicles mainly

travelled anterogradely across the AIS towards the distal axon (nonAcD: 80% anterograde, 20%

retrograde; AcD: 70% anterograde, 30% retrograde; Figure 4G) and spent nearly 70% of the total

travelling time in processive runs (Figure S3B). Only a small portion of EGFP-Rab3A vesicles (nonAcD

neuron: 3%; AcD neuron: 5%; Figure S3C) underwent on average one direction change while traveling

anterogradely through the AIS (Figure S3C). During the rest of the total moving time, the anterogradely

transported EGFP-Rab3A vesicles in the AIS of both AcD and nonAcD neurons were either passively

diffusing back and forth (Figure S3B) or shortly pausing (Figure S3B) with on average three pauses per

minute, 3 s mean duration of each pause and 10 s of total pausing time (Figure 4I; Figure S3D). We

found that the anterogradely transported EGFP-Rab3A vesicles in the AIS of AcD neurons show slightly

longer mean run length, similar mean run duration and, therefore, higher mean run speed than in the

AIS of nonAcD neurons (Figure 4E, 4H and 4F). This finding suggests that, in AcD neurons, the axonal

cargoes are transported slightly faster across the AIS towards the distal axon. We did not observe any

difference on retrogradely transported EGFP-Rab3A vesicles in the AIS of AcD and nonAcD neurons

(Figure 4E, 4H and 4F), and EGFP-Rab3A vesicles in regular dendrites showed very limited mobility and

reduced trafficking (Figure 4E-4I; Figure S3C and S3D). In comparison to axonal cargoes, the dendritic

cargo TfR vesicles in both AcD and nonAcD neurons were immobile in the AIS but highly mobile in the

dendritic region (Figure 4M; Figure S3E and S3F; Video S10 and S11). Although a few moving TfR

vesicles were present at the AIS (Figure 4M; Figure S3E), these vesicles preferentially moved towards

the retrograde direction (Figure 4N) and showed higher percentage of pausing, longer pausing

duration, and slower velocity than in the dendritic regions (Figure 4O and 4P; Figure S3F-S3K),

indicating that their trafficking is severely impaired at the AIS. Almost no entries into the axon from

the AIS were observed (Figure 4K, 4L). These results suggest that the AIS of AcD neurons fully preserves

its selectivity towards dendritic cargoes, and the anterograde transport of axonal cargoes is equally

effective and processive as in the AIS of nonAcD neurons.

Interestingly, we noticed that both axonal cargo EGFP-Rab3A and dendritic cargo TfRs were actively

transported at the stem dendrite of AcD neurons (Figure 4; Video S8 and S10). The trafficking velocity

of EGFP-Rab3A and TfR vesicles highly resembled that in the AIS and dendrites (Figure 4F; Figure S3K),

respectively, except that the average run length and run duration of both cargoes were much shorter

at the stem dendrite (Figure 4E and 4H; Figure S3I-S3K). Since the stem dendrite is in general shorter

than the AIS and the dendrites, this reduction of run length and duration is very likely caused by the

difference in physical length.

The AIS of AcD neurons does not undergo activity dependent plasticity and receives less

inhibitory innervation

The AIS has been shown to regulate neuronal homeostasis via two types of plasticity: rapid and chronic

plasticity.[22,23] The rapid plasticity occurs when increasing neuronal activity for a few hours and induces

AIS length shortening.[22] The chronic plasticity requires high neuronal activity for at least two days and

causes the AIS to shift towards the distal axon but without any change in length.[23] Previous studies

showed that the dendritic origin of the axon resulted a different excitability patterns of AcD

neurons.[26,28] This motivated us to investigate whether the AIS of AcD neurons would regulate cellular

homeostasis in a different manner. The elevated extracellular K^+ concentration is an effective way to

globally depolarise membrane potential of neurons.[36] We added KCl into conditioned medium to

increase extracellular K^+ up to 15 mM and stimulated DIV12 neurons for 3 and 48 hours to induce rapid

and chronic AIS plasticity[22,23], respectively (Figure S4A). To rule out possible effects caused by the

change in osmolarity, we replaced KCl with NaCl in control groups (Figure S4A). For comparison, we

silenced the baseline synaptic activity by blocking voltage gated sodium channels (VGSCs) with 1 µM

tetrodotoxin (TTX) (Figure S4A). As read out of AIS plasticity, we stained AIS with AnkG and measured

its fluorescent intensity to define the AIS length and AIS distance (Figure S4B and S4C). Using a

previously published method[22,23], we considered the start and end of the AIS as the location where

AnkG fluorescence intensity drops below 40% of the maximum intensity (Figure S4C). The AIS distance

is measured as the distance from the start of the axon to the beginning of the AIS (Figure S4C).

In nonAcD neurons, we indeed observed a distal shift of the AIS after 48 hours of KCl treatment (Figure

5A and 5B), meaning that the increased extracellular K$^+$ concentration successfully triggered an AIS

plasticity effect. However, we did not observe the previously reported AIS length reduction after 3

hours of KCl treatment (Figure 5A and 5B; Figure S4D). Strikingly, in AcD neurons, neither the 48 hours

KCl treatment shifted the AIS towards the distal axon tip, nor was the AIS length reduced after 3 hours

KCl treatment (Figure 5C and 5D), suggesting that the AIS in AcD neurons is insensitive to high activity

levels. Like previously reported[22,23], both NaCl and TTX showed no effect on AIS length after 3 hours

(Figure 5), and on AIS position after 48 hours in both AcD and nonAcD neurons (Figure 5). However,

we noticed that after 48 hours incubation, the TTX specifically increased AIS length in nonAcD neurons

(Figure S4E) leaving the length of AIS in AcD neurons unchanged (Figure S4F). This finding indicates

that the AIS also undergo structural remodelling when nonAcD neurons encounter extremely low

activity levels. On the other hand, it further supports the statement that the AIS of AcD neurons is

insensitive to activity changes.

The interneurons form axo-axonal inhibitory synapses with the AIS of excitatory neurons to modulate

their excitability.[24] We next asked if the density of inhibitory synapses is different at the AIS of AcD

neurons. Hypothetically, lower amount of axo-axonal inhibitory synapses at the AIS could possibly

assist AcD neurons to generate APs more easily during global peri-somatic inhibition in addition to

their uncanonical route for AP initiation. To quantify the number of inhibitory synapses, we labelled

the pre- and post- synaptic compartments by staining voltage gated GABA transporters (VGAT) and

gephyrin, respectively. In comparison to nonAcD neurons, we found fewer numbers of both VGAT and

gephyrin at the AIS of AcD neurons (Figure 6A and 6C). We also quantified the amount of excitatory

pre- and post- synapses at the AIS of AcD neurons to test if there are any differences in the excitatory

synapses. However, quantification of excitatory pre- and post- synaptic marker homer-1 and voltage

gated glutamate transporter (VGLUT) showed that the number of excitatory synapses at the AIS of AcD

neurons is equally low as in nonAcD neurons (Figure 6B and 6D). Together, these results indicate that

AcD neurons indeed receive fewer inhibitory inputs than nonAcD neurons at the AIS.

Discussion

AcD neurons have been widely observed across species ranging from invertebrates to vertebrates.[25–

28,37] Only recently, the abundance of AcD neurons in certain brain areas was characterised and their

role in memory consolidation was discovered.[26–28] Despite their importance in brain functions, AcD

neurons remain largely unexplored from the cell biology perspective. Considering the heterogeneity

of development between cell types, it is an intriguing question whether the morphogenesis of AcD

neurons is an intrinsic process or it is dependent on guidance cues. Furthermore, it is unclear how the

AcD and axon are differentiated, and to what extend the AIS branching from a dendrite is similar to

the AIS emerging from the soma.

In this study, we describe the developmental sequence leading to the formation of dendrite-derived

axons, and explore the cytoskeletal organisation of AcD neurons. We investigate the timing of AIS

assembly and its role in neuronal polarity, synaptic innervation and plasticity in AcD neurons. We show

that the development of AcD neuron is an intrinsically encoded process, where a single precursor

neurite gives rise to both the axon and the AcD. Although multiple strategies exist for axon and AcD

differentiation, our data clearly indicate that AcD neurons still follow the general developmental

sequence to first establish the axon and then the dendrites.[2] The molecular mechanisms involved in

AcD neuron development remain unknown. Several intrinsic polarity effectors, such as Shootin1[38], Ras

proteins[39] and Rho GTPases[40], have been found to guide the formation of axon and dendrites in

nonAcD neurons. The cytoskeleton dynamics have also been shown to help neuron determine the

identity of a nascent neurite.[38,41,42] Thus, future efforts should focus not only on investigating specific

proteins and associated signalling pathways that instruct AcD neuron morphogenesis, but also on the

cytoskeleton dynamics in the precursor neurite where the axon and AcD are derived from. It is also

possible that the ability to grow an axon from a dendrite comes from AcD neurons being a different

subtype of pyramidal neurons. It would be of interest to perform single cell RNA sequencing to analyse

gene expression profile of AcD neurons and possibly identify specific markers of this cell type.

The uniform MT plus end orientation and high ratio of acetylation/tyrosination of axonal MTs are

instructive for specific kinesin motors, such as kinesin-1, to correctly deliver vesicles containing axonal

cargoes.[5,43] We show that AcD neurons preserve an axon-like MT arrangement at the stem dendrite.

Since the stem dendrite is the only channel connecting soma and axon, this axon-like MT organisation

is of importance to ensure that axonal cargoes can travel through the stem dendrite region to be

targeted to the axon. Indeed, our live-imaging data demonstrate that in AcD neurons, the axonal Rab3

vesicles are smoothly transported through the stem dendrite before they enter the axon, whereas they

are highly immobile in other dendrites.

To prevent the entry of dendritic cargoes into the axon, neurons build the AIS at the interface between

axon and soma to selectively block MT-based transport of vesicles containing dendritic proteins.[13,21]

This selectivity of the AIS towards dendritic cargoes has been shown to rely on F-actin structures and

the actin-based motor protein Myosin V.[11,12] We demonstrate that, in AcD neurons, the F-actin

nanostructure at the AIS is similarly arranged as in nonAcD neurons. Consistently, axonal and dendritic

cargo trafficking assay in AcD neurons show that vesicles containing dendritic cargoes are trapped at

the AIS to the same extend as at the AIS emanating from the soma. These results suggest that the

dendritic axon origin has no impact on AIS function being a cytoplasmic protein filter that prevents

entry of dendritic cargoes into the axon.

Single-cell patch clamp in nonAcD hippocampal excitatory neurons have demonstrated that the rapid

and chronic structural plasticity of the AIS fine tunes neuronal excitability to prevent neurons from

going epileptic.[22,23] Our results show that the AIS in hippocampal AcD excitatory neurons does not

undergo any structural plasticity upon changes of neuronal activity, suggesting that hippocampal AcD

neurons may employ a different strategy to maintain cellular homeostasis than nonAcD neurons or be

less adoptive which makes them more susceptible to pathological conditions. Of note, we also did not

observe any rapid AIS plasticity effect in nonAcD neurons. This might be due to cell type specificity, as

a previous study showed that rapid AIS plasticity occurs mainly in hippocampal dentate granule cells

(DGCs) but not in principal neurons.[22] Another possibility is that certain post-synaptic signalling factors

are required to trigger rapid AIS plasticity, as KCl stimulation mainly changes the membrane potential

to depolarise neurons but is lacking any input specificity.[36]

The underlying mechanisms of the activity-dependent AIS plasticity is still ambiguous. Up to date,

several lines of evidence suggest the significance of Ca^{2+} signalling in this process. The activity of a Ca^{2+}-

and calmodulin-dependent protein phosphatase calcineurin has been shown to be relevant for AIS

plasticity, and specifically blocking voltage gated Ca^{2+} channels (VGCCs) disrupts the distal shift of AIS

in hippocampal excitatory neurons.[23] Along with these lines, we found that the number of COs is

decreased in the AIS of AcD neurons. Since COs putatively regulate Ca^{2+}-storage and release at the AIS

of several neuronal subtypes[18,19,33], this reduction of the CO number might influence Ca^{2+} handling in

AcD neurons, which then modulate the AIS plasticity. Supportively, a recent study showed that the

number of COs is decreased when induce rapid AIS plasticity in rat hippocampal DGCs.[44] In the future,

one should more thoroughly investigate the mechanistic role of COs in the process of AIS plasticity.

Interestingly, several new AIS specific proteins were recently detected via proximity labelling assay.[45]

It would be interesting to investigate whether they are involved in controlling AIS plasticity and

compare between the two types of neurons. Another direction to be explored is the link between

extracellular matrix proteins (ECMs) and AIS structural plasticity in AcD neurons, as the plasma

membrane of the AIS is also enriched with cell adhesion molecules (CAMs). These CAMs could possibly

work in concert with ECMs and therefore limit the shift of AIS in AcD neurons.

The inhibitory synapses at the AIS of excitatory neurons is an important modulator for the activation

and silencing of specific neuronal circuits.[24] Our data showed that the AIS of AcD neuron has less

inhibitory innervation than in nonAcD neurons. This result supports the fact that AcD neurons can

evade peri-somatic inhibition during network oscillation. It would be interesting to see in the future

which type of interneurons are innervating the AIS of AcD neurons and how this contributes to the

higher intrinsic excitability of AcD neurons.

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Author contributions

Designed experiments (YH, RT, KG, MM), performed experiments (YH), analyzed and

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Materials & Correspondence

Materials (constructs) can be requested from Marina Mikhaylova; correspondence can be

addressed to Kay Grünewald and Marina Mikhaylova.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Development of neurons with axon carrying dendrite.

(A) Representative images of hippocampal primary neurons in dissociated cultures demonstrating the timeline of AIS formation in nonAcD and AcD neurons. White arrowhead indicates AIS labelled by AnkG staining; yellow and pink arrowhead indicates AcD and stem dendrite of AcD neuron respectively (labelled by MAP2); cyan arrowhead indicates regular dendrite. Scale bar is 20 µm.

(B) Schematic of AcD neuron. Black dashed line indicates the edge of soma; orange dashed line indicates the beginning of an axon.

(C) Percentage of nonAcD and AcD neurons in dissociated culture at age of DIV 5 and DIV7. n = 6 coverslips from 3 independent cultures, DIV5: 83 AcD neurons out of 427 cells, DIV7: 47 AcD neurons out of 387 cells.

(D) Time-lapse images of developing nonAcD and AcD neurons. Precursor neurite in AcD neuron grow as axon and collateral from the precursor neurite develop as AcD. Orange arrowhead indicates precursor neurite of AcD neuron; blue arrowhead indicates precursor neurite of nonAcD neuron; white arrowhead indicates axon; yellow and pink arrowhead indicates AcD and stem dendrite of AcD neuron, respectively. Scale bar is 20 µm. Cell body with dendrites and the AIS are labelled by MAP2 and AnkG staining, respectively. Related to Video S1 and S2.

(E and F) Percentage of AcD neurons which develop AcD and axon via collateralization and bifurcation of precursor neurite (E) and time points of collaterals formed at precursor neurite of AcD neuron (F). 1 independent culture, nonAcD: n= 25 cells, AcD: n= 27 cells.

(G) Percentage of precursor neurite in AcD neurons grew as axon or as AcD. 1 independent culture, AcD: n= 23 cells.

(H) Percentage of nonAcD and AcD neuron form collaterals at the proximal region of precursor neurite during development. 1 independent culture, nonAcD: n= 25 cells, AcD: n= 23 cells.

(I) Schematic of AcD neuron development.

Figure 2. MT orientations and distribution on dynamic and stable MTs in AcD neurons.

(A) Left panel: Maximum intensity projection of DIV14 nonAcD and AcD neuron transfected with EB3-Tdtomato for visualisation of MT plus ends. The AIS is live labelled with anti-NF-CF640R antibody. White arrowhead indicates the AIS and white arrow indicates the axon. Cyan arrowhead indicates regular dendrite (Regular D); yellow and pink arrowhead indicates AcD and stem dendrite of AcD neuron, respectively. Scale bar is 10 µm. Right panel: 5 minutes time projection and kymograph of EB3-Tdtomato in the AIS, axon and regular dendrite (Regular D) of nonAcD and AcD neuron shown in the left panel. Scale bar is 10 µm. Kymograph scale is 10 s (vertical) and 2 µm (horizontal).

(B) 5 minutes time projection and kymograph of EB3-Tdtomato in AcD and stem dendrite (Stem D) of AcD neuron shown in (A). Scale bar is 5 µm. Kymograph scale is 10 s (vertical) and 2 µm (horizontal).

(C) Percentage of MT plus end orientations in different regions of nonAcD and AcD neurons. Mean ± SEM, 3 independent experiments, AIS (nonAcD) n = 23, AIS (AcD) n = 17, axon (nonAcD) n = 21, axon (AcD) n= 15, stem dendrite (Stem D) n = 19, AcD n = 17, regular dendrite (Regular D) n = 67.

(D) Top row: Representative confocal images of DIV10 nonAcD and AcD neurons stained for tyrosinated and acetylated tubulin and the AIS marker TRIM46. Scale bar is 10 µm. Bottom row: Single plane 2D gSTED image of tyrosinated and acetylated MTs corresponding to ROIs in top row. Scale bar is 2.5 µm.

(E) Intensity profile of tyrosinated and acetylated MTs indicated by white dashed lines in (D) bottom row.

Figure 3. F-actin organisation at the AIS of nonAcD and AcD neurons.

(A) Top row: Representative confocal images of DIV14 nonAcD and AcD neuron stained with the AIS marker βIV-spectrin and F-actin probe Phalloidin-Atto647N. Scale bar is 10 µm. Bottom row: Single plane 2D gSTED image of F-actin in the AIS of nonAcD and AcD neurons (corresponding zoom-ins of yellow dashed square in top row). Scale bar is 1 µm. Red arrowhead indicates F-actin patch. Black dashed line indicates F-actin rings.

(B) Left panel: Intensity profile of F-actin rings along the longitudinal axis of the AIS in nonAcD and AcD neuron, corresponding to black dashed lines in (A) bottom row. Right panel: Quantification of distance between F-actin rings at the AIS of nonAcD and AcD neuron. Mean ± SEM, 3 independent experiments, nonAcD: n= 45 profiles from 12 cells, AcD: n= 67 profiles from 18 cells.

(C) Representative images of cisternal organelle (CO) labelled by synaptopodin (Synpo) staining at the AIS of DIV21 nonAcD and AcD neurons. Scale bar is 10 µm. Inset: Zoom-ins corresponding to white dashed rectangular. Black dashed lines indicate the edge of AIS. Scale bar is 5 µm.

(D) Quantification of Synpo puncta at the AIS of nonAcD and AcD neurons. Mean ± SEM, 3 independent experiments, nonAcD: n= 92 cells, AcD: n= 57 cells.

Mann-Whitney test: not significant (n.s.) $p > 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$.

Figure 4. Role of the AIS in polarized cargo trafficking in AcD and nonAcD neurons

(A) Representative images of nonAcD and AcD neurons expressing a pre-synaptic vesicle
marker EGFP-Rab3A and labelled with anti-NF-CF640R (NF). White dashed line indicates the
recorded area after photobleaching; white arrowhead indicates the AIS; pink, yellow and cyan
arrowheads indicate the stem dendrite, AcD and regular dendrite of AcD neuron, respectively.
Scale bar is 15 μm.

(B) Representative kymographs showing trajectories of EGFP-Rab3A vesicles travelling in the
AIS of nonAcD neuron shown in (A), corresponding to area indicated by white dashed line.
Scale is 10 s (vertical) and 2 μm (horizontal). Anterograde direction is from cell body to the
distal tip of corresponding neuritic process, retrograde direction is the opposite.

(C) Representative kymographs showing trajectories of EGFP-Rab3A vesicles travelling in the
stem dendrite (Stem D), AIS and regular dendrite (Regular D) of AcD neuron shown in (A),
corresponding to area indicated by white dashed line. Scale is 10 s (vertical) and 2 μm
(horizontal). Anterograde and retrograde direction is the same as in (B).

(D and G) Motility and directionalities of EGFP-Rab3A vesicles in the AIS of nonAcD neuron,
the AIS and stem dendrite (Stem D) of AcD neuron, and the regular dendrite (Regular D) of
both nonAcD and AcD neurons. (D) Percentage of running and stationary EGFP-Rab3A
vesicles. (G) Percentage of EGFP-Rab3A vesicles running towards anterograde and
retrograde direction. Mean ± SEM, 7 independent experiments, AIS (nonAcD): n = 42 cells,
AIS (AcD) n = 42 cells, Stem D: n= 28 cells, Regular D: n= 27 cells.

(E, F and H) Average length (E), duration (H) and velocity (F) of EGFP-Rab3A vesicles running
towards anterograde and retrograde direction within the AIS of nonAcD neuron, the AIS and
stem dendrite (Stem D) of AcD neuron, and the regular dendrite (Regular D) of both nonAcD
and AcD neurons. Mean ± SEM, 7 independent experiments, Anterograde: AIS (nonAcD) n =
42 cells, AIS (AcD) n = 41 cells, Stem D n= 28 cells, Regular D n= 26 cells, Retrograde: AIS
(nonAcD) n = 25 cells, AIS (AcD) n = 37 cells, Stem D n= 17 cells, Regular D n= 20 cells.

(I) Average number of pauses and total pausing duration of EGFP-Rab3A vesicles travelling
in the indicated regions of nonAcD and AcD neuron regardless of directions. Mean ± SEM, 7
independent experiments, AIS (nonAcD) n = 42 cells, AIS (AcD) n = 42 cells, Stem D n= 28
cells, Regular D n= 27 cells.

(J) Representative images of nonAcD and AcD neurons labelled with anti-NF-CF640R (NF)
for AIS and TfR ligand Transferrin-Alexa568. White dashed line indicates recorded area; white
arrowhead indicates the AIS; cyan arrowhead indicates regular dendrite of nonAcD neuron;
yellow and pink arrowhead indicates the AcD and stem dendrite of AcD neuron, respectively.
Scale bar is 15 μm.

(K) Representative kymographs showing trajectories of TfR vesicles travelling in the AIS, axon
and regular dendrite (Regular D) of nonAcD neuron shown in (A), corresponding to the area
indicated by white dashed line. Scale is 5 s (vertical) and 2 μm (horizontal). Anterograde
direction is the same as in (B).

(L) Representative kymographs showing trajectories of TfR vesicles travelling in the AIS, axon,
stem dendrite (Stem D) and AcD of AcD neuron shown in (A), corresponding to the area

indicated by white dashed line. Scale is 5 s (vertical) and 2 µm (horizontal). Anterograde and
retrograde direction is the same as in (B).

(M and N) Motility and directionalities of TfR vesicles in the AIS of nonAcD neuron, the AIS,
stem dendrite (Stem D) and AcD of AcD neuron, and the regular dendrite (Regular D) of both
nonAcD and AcD neurons. (M) Percentage of running and stationary TfR vesicles. (N)
Percentage of TfR vesicles running towards anterograde and retrograde direction. Mean ±
SEM, 5 independent experiments, AIS (nonAcD) n = 25 cells, AIS (AcD) n = 23 cells, Stem D
n= 23 cells, AcD n = 19 cells, Regular D n= 56 cells.

(O and P) Average number of pause (O) and total pausing duration (P) of TfR vesicles
travelling in the indicated regions of nonAcD and AcD neuron regardless of directions. Mean ±
SEM, 5 independent experiments, AIS (nonAcD) n = 25 cells, AIS (AcD) n = 23 cells, Stem D
n= 23 cells, AcD n = 19 cells, Regular D n= 56 cells.

One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test, no significance (n.s.) $p > 0.05$, **$p <$
0.01, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$.

Figure 5. Rapid and chronic plasticity of the AIS in AcD neurons.

(A) Representative images of the AIS in nonAcD neurons upon induction of rapid (upper row) and chronic (bottom row) plasticity. Neurons were treated with KCl for depolarization, NaCl as control and TTX for silencing. Red arrowheads in upper row indicate the start and end of AIS. Red dashed line in bottom row indicates the start of the axon. Scale bar is 10 µm.

(B) Measurement of AIS length and AIS distance in nonAcD neurons treated with KCl (depolarization), NaCl (control) and TTX (silencing) for 3 and 48 hours. Mean ± SEM, 3 independent experiments, Rapid plastiicity: n (KCl) = 298 cells, n (NaCl) = 264 cells, n (TTX) = 306 cells, Chronic plasticity: n (KCl) = 189 cells, n (NaCl) = 192 cells, n (TTX) = 202 cells,

(C) Representative images of the AIS in AcD neurons upon induction of rapid (upper row) and chronic (bottom row) plasticity. Neurons were treated with KCl for depolarization, NaCl as control and TTX for silencing. Red arrowheads in upper row indicate the start and end of AIS. Red dashed line in bottom row indicates the start of the axon. Scale bar is 10 µm.

(D) Measurement of AIS length and AIS distance in AcD neurons treated with KCl (depolarization), NaCl (control) and TTX (silencing) for 3 and 48 hours. Mean ± SEM, 4 independent experiments, Rapid plasticity: n (KCl) = 48 cells, n (NaCl) = 40 cells, n (TTX) = 41 cells, Chronic plasticity: n (KCl) = 73 cells, n (NaCl) = 75 cells, n (TTX) = 66 cells.

One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test, no significance (n.s.) $p > 0.05$, ****$p < 0.0001$.

Figure 6. Inhibitory and excitatory synaptic innervation of the AIS in nonAcD and AcD neurons.

(A) Representative images of nonAcD and AcD neurons stained with markers for pre- and
post-synaptic compartments of an inhibitory synapse (VGAT and gephyrin, respectively), for
AIS (TRIM46), and for somato-dendritic compartment (MAP2). Upper row: Gephyrin. Lower
row: VGAT. Scale bar is 10 µm. Inset: corresponding zoom-ins of white dashed rectangular.
Scale bar is 5 µm. Black arrowheads indicate corresponding marker for pre- and post-inhibitory
synapse.

(B) Representative images nonAcD and AcD neurons stained with markers for pre- and post-
synaptic compartments of an excitatory synapse (VGLUT and homer-1, respectively), for AIS
(TRIM46 or AnkG), and for somato-dendritic compartment (MAP2). Upper row: Homer-1.
Lower row: VGLUT. Scale bar is 10 µm. Inset: corresponding zoom-ins of white dashed
rectangular. Scale bar is 5 µm. Black arrowheads indicate corresponding marker for pre- and
post-excitatory synapse.

(C) Number of gephyrin and VGAT puncta per 5 µm at the AIS of nonAcD and AcD neurons.
Mean ± SEM, 4 independent experiments, gephyrin: n (nonAcD) = 71 cells, n (AcD) = 56 cells,
VGAT: n (nonAcD) = 70 cells, n (AcD) = 75 cells.

(D) Number of Homer-1 and VGLUT puncta per 5 µm at the AIS of nonAcD and AcD neurons.
Mean ± SEM, 3 independent experiments for Homer-1, 4 independent experiments for VGLUT,
Homer-1: n (nonAcD) = 74 cells, n (AcD) = 78 cells, VGLUT: n (nonAcD) = 67 cells, n (AcD) =
50 cells.

Mann-Whitney test: not significant (n.s.) $p > 0.05$, *$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.0001$.

Methods

Animals

Wistar Unilever HsdCpb:WU (Envigo) rats were used in this study. Rats were bread and kept at the

animal facility of the University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf, UKE, Hamburg, Germany. Animal

experiments were carried out in accordance with the European Communities Council Directive

(2010/63/EU) and the Animal Welfare Law of the Federal Republic of Germany (Tierschutzgesetz der

Bundesrepublik Deutschland, TierSchG) approved by the city-state Hamburg (Behörde für Gesundheit

und Verbraucherschutz, Fachbereich Veterinärwesen, from 21.04.2015, ORG781 and 1035) and the

animal care committee of the University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf.

Primary hippocampal neuron preparation and transfections

Primary rat hippocampal neurons were prepared and maintained as described previously[20]. Briefly,

hippocampi were extracted from E18 rat embryos and treated with 0.25% trypsin for 15 min at 37°C.

Afterwards, hippocampi were physically dissociated by pipetting through a 26G needle and filtered to

remove large clumps. The cell suspensions were then plated on poly-l-lysine -coated 18 mm glass

coverslips or 35 mm glass bottom petri dish at a density of 20,000 cells (extra low density) or 40,000

cells (low density) or 60,000 cells (high density) per 1 ml in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal calf

serum and antibiotics. After 1 hour, the plating medium was replaced by BrainPhys neuronal medium

supplemented with SM1 and 0.5 mM glutamine. Cells were grown at 37°C with 5% CO_2, and 95%

humidity.

For microtubule orientation experiment, primary neurons were transfected with EB3-Tdtomato at

days in vitro (DIV) 14 by using lipofectamine 2000. Conditioned neuronal medium was removed and

stored at 37°C with 5% CO_2 before transfection. Neurons were then incubated with transfection

medium (transfection mixture in BrainPhys medium without supplements) at 37°C with 5% CO_2 for 1

hour. After incubation, the transfection medium was exchanged back to conditioned medium, and

neurons were imaged 12 hours after. For EGFP-Rab3 trafficking experiment, primary neurons were

infected with rAAV9-syn-EGFP-Rab3 virus (final concentration: 1.38E+10 vg/ml) at DIV5 and imaged at

DIV7.

Constructs and recombinant adeno-associated viruses

Detailed information of constructs and virus used in this study can be found in the key resource table.

The EB3-Tdtomato construct was obtained from Addgene (Addgene plasmid #50708;

http://n2t.net/addgene:50708; RRID:Addgene_50708). For rAAV9-syn-EGFP-Rab3A construct, full

length Rab3A sequence was amplified from EGFP-Rab3A vector (Addgene plasmid # 49542) using PCR.

The amplified sequence was then cloned onto a recombinant adeno-associated virus (rAAV) backbone

with an EGFP tag behind a human synapsin promotor using Cold Fusion cloning kit. The Rab3A

sequence is placed behind EGFP sequence for N-terminal tagging of Rab3A. After verification by

sequencing, rAAV9 were produced by the UKE virus facility.

Immunocytochemistry (ICC)

Neurons were fixed in 4% Roti-Histofix (Carl Roth), 4% sucrose in PBS for 10 min at 37°C. The fixation

reagent was removed, and coverslips were washed three times with PBS. Subsequently, neurons were

permeabilized in 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS for 10 min, then washed three times in PBS and blocked for

45 min at RT with blocking buffer (BB: 10% horse serum, 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS). Incubation with

primary antibodies was performed in BB at 4°C overnight. After 3× wash in PBS, neurons were

incubated with corresponding secondary antibodies in BB for 1.5 h at RT and unbound antibodies were

washed out using PBS. In order to distinguish dendrites from axons, pre-conjugated MAP2-Alexa488

antibody diluted in BB was then applied to neurons for 1.5 h at RT. Finally, coverslips were washed

three times in PBS (10 min interval), one time in H_2O for 10 s and mounted on microscope slides with

Mowiol.

Spinning disc confocal microscopy

For live imaging of EB3-Tdtomato, EGFP-Rab3A and Transferrin receptors (TfRs), spinning-disc confocal

microscopy was performed on a Nikon Ti-2E controlled by NIS Elements 5.2 software. Illumination was

done by 488 nm, 561 nm, and 642 nm excitation lasers from Omicron laser unit coupled to a Yokogawa

CSU-W1 spinning disc unit. Emission was collected through a bandpass filter (Semrock,

442/525/609/700 nm) on an Andor iXon ultra 888 EMCCD camera. Use of 100x TIRF objective (Nikon,

ApoTIRF 100x/1.49 oil) achieved a pixel size of 130 nm.

For imaging of neuronal development, phase contrast imaging was performed on a Nikon Ti-2E

microscope controlled by NIS Elements 5.2 software. The microscope was equipped with an

Omicron laser unit coupled to a Yokogawa Borealis-enhanced CSU-W1 spinning disc unit,

transmitted illumination and an Andor iXon ultra 888 EMCCD camera. Samples were

illuminated by transmitted light and imaged via 40X objective (Nikon, ApoLWD Lambda

40x/1.15 WI). The final fluorescent map was acquired through the same objective with laser

illumination at wavelength of 488 nm and 642 nm. Both microscopes were equipped with a

live imaging system from OKO lab and live imaging was performed at 37°C with 5% CO_2 and

95% humidity.

Laser scanning confocal microscopy and STED imaging

Fixed and stained primary hippocampal neurons were imaged at a Leica SP8 confocal microscope (Leica

microsystems, Mannheim, Germany). The microscope was controlled by Leica Application Suite X

(LASX) software and equipped with a white light laser. Samples were imaged using a 63x oil objective

(Leica, 63x HCX PL APO /1.40 oil). Fluorophores were excited at desired wavelength and signals were

detected using HyD detectors. Tile scans of maximum 2 mm x 2 mm areas were performed to increase

the chance of finding AcD neurons. A single z-stack tile was acquired with dimension of 1024 x 1024

pixels, pixel size of 80 nm, pixel depth of 16 bit, and z-step size of 0.5 µm. Tiles were merged by LASX

function Mosaic Merge with 10% overlap.

An Abberior gatedSTED system equipped with a 405 to 640 nm pulsed laser and a 60x oil objective

(Nikon, P-APO 60x/1.40 oil) was used for confocal and gated STED imaging. For excitation, 640 nm laser

was used for Atto647N/Abberior Star 635p, 561 nm laser was used for Abberior Star 580, and 488 nm

laser was used for Alexa 488. STED was achieved with a 775 nm pulsed depletion laser for

Abberior Star 580, Abberior Star 635p and Atto647N. Emission spectra were collected

between 650-720 nm, 605-625 nm and 500-550 nm. Detector time gates were set to 8 ns for

all fluorophores. Images were acquired as single planes with a pixel size of 20 x 20 nm (x and

y) and 16-bit pixel depth. The corresponding confocal images were acquired with identical

settings.

Classification of AcD and nonACD neurons

AcD and nonAcD neurons were classified based on MAP2 and AnkG stainings which label somato-

dendritic compartment and the AIS of axon, respectively. The distance from the starting point of an

axon to the adjacent edge of corresponding cell body was referred as axon distance in this study and

used as main factor for AcD neuron classification (Figure 1B; Figure S1D). To measure the axon

distance, axon and cell body of a neuron was defined individually based on AnkG and MAP2 signal. A

2 pixel wide segmented line was then drew along the longitudinal axis of stem dendrite to connect the

beginning of the axon and the ending edge of the cell body (Figure 1B). The length of the segmented

line represents axon distance. If the axon origin was not parallel to the ending edge of soma (Figure

S1D), the axon distance was then considered as the distance from the edge of soma to the axis

perpendicularly extended from the centre of the axon origin (Figure S1D). Neurons with axon distance

larger than 3 µm was consider as AcD neuron. The AcD and nonAcD neuron was classified in the same

manner through the entire study, unless otherwise stated.

Assessment of AcD neuron population in dissociated cultures and the timeline of AIS formation

Dissociated neurons (60,000 cells/ml) were fixed at DIV3, DIV5, DIV7 and DIV12 and immunostained with anti-MAP2-Alexa488 antibody to label the cell body and dendrites. Antibodies against AnkG was used to visualise the AIS. Tile scan of large area was taken for both MAP2 and AnkG channels with 1% laser power and 5 µm depth in z. Total number of neurons at age of DIV5 and DIV7 was counted from all tile scan images. The number of AcD neuron was then counted from the same images and divided by total number of neurons to calculate percentage of AcD neuron population.

Time-lapse imaging to visualise neuronal development in culture

High density neurons (60,000 cells/ml) were cultured on a 35 mm glass bottom petri dish with 20 x 20 mm grid coordinates. A 3 mm diameter hole was drilled on the lid of the petri dish for replenishment of conditioned medium. To prevent medium evaporation during the entire imaging period, conditioned medium was refilled on daily basis. Additional three 35 mm petri dishes were filled with distilled H_2O and placed in the live imaging chamber without lids to increase atmospheric humidity. The H_2O petri dishes was refilled every 12 hours to maintain proper humidity level in the live imaging chamber.

Developmental sequences were recorded 6 hours post plating. Dishes were placed on a spinning disc confocal microscope and imaged for 5 days every 3 hours. To increase the number of AcD neurons, a 7 x 7 mm area was scanned spirally starting from the centre of the grid coordinates. On day 5, neurons were fixed and immunostained with pre-conjugated anti-MAP2-Alexa488 and anti-AnkG antibody to label dendrites and the AIS, respectively. A single plan fluorescent image of both MAP2 and AnkG channels was then taken at the same scanned area with 20% laser power and 200 ms exposure time. The fluorescent image was used as a final map for selection of AcD and nonAcD neurons, and the developmental sequence of selected neurons was retrieved according to grid coordinates. The

630 formation and growth of AcD and axon in AcD neurons was analysed manually by going through the

631 corresponding developmental sequence frame by frame. All analysis was performed on Fiji.

F-actin staining and analysis of periodic membrane actin cytoskeleton of the AIS

For F-actin staining, extra low density neurons (20,000 cells/ml) were plated on 18 mm high precision

glass coverslips, fixed on DIV14, and immunostained with anti-βIV-Spectrin and pre-conjugated anti-

MAP2-Alexa488 antibody to label the AIS and dendrites, respectively. Following the antibody staining,

the F-actin was labelled by incubation with phalloidin-Atto647N (1:100 dilution in PBS) at 4°C

overnight. Following 3x wash with PBS, coverslips were mounted using moviol and imaged on an

Abberior gatedSTED system as described above.

Peak Cal 3.0, a custom-written python-based script (see key resource table), was used to measure the

F-actin periodicity at the AIS. Briefly, AIS regions with less phalloidin-Atto647N background signal were

selected manually from the STED image. A 3 x 3 pixel segmented line profile was drew at the selected

regions along the longitudinal axis of the AIS, and the corresponding phalloidin-Atto647N intensity was

then extracted using Fiji. The F-actin rings are hence represented by the periodical peaks of phalloidin-

Atto647N fluorescent signal along the segmented line. The extracted intensity profile was loaded into

Peak Cal 3.0 and smoothed over five pixels to filter the background noise. The indices of phalloidin

peaks were then detected using python built-in function Find Peaks. The distance was calculated by

subtracting the indices between two adjacent peaks and then times 20 nm pixel size.

Microtubule extraction and staining

The staining of tyrosinated and acetylated microtubules (MTs) was performed accordingly to

previously described protocol[46]. In short, extra low density neurons (20,000 cells/ml) were grown on

18 mm high precision glass coverslips till DIV10. Then neurons were pre-extracted for 1 min using MT-

Extraction buffer (0.3% Triton X-100, 0.1% glutaraldehyde, 80 mM PIPES, 1 mM EGTA, 4 mM MgCl2,

pH 6.8) and fixed for 10 min using EM grade 4% PFA, 4% sucrose in PBS at 37°C. After 3x wash in PBS,

neurons were immunostained with antibodies against tyrosinated and acetylated α-tubulin for

dynamic and stable microtubules, respectively. Antibody against TRIM46 was used to locate the AIS.

Samples were imaged on an Abberior gatedSTED system as described above. The distribution of stable

and dynamic MTs along the width of a region of interest was displayed by extracting and plotting the

fluorescent intensities of a 2x2 pixel line along the latitudinal axis.

Imaging of MT dynamics

High density neurons (60,000 cells/ml) were grown on 35 mm glass bottom petri dish and transfected

with EB3-Tdtomato plasmid at the age of DIV13 and imaged 12 hours post transfection using spinning

disk confocal microscope. Shortly before imaging, conditioned medium was replaced by BrainPhys

medium containing neurofascin-CF640R antibody (1:200 dilution) to label the AIS. Dishes were return

in the incubator and kept at 37°C with 5% CO_2 for 5 min. Afterwards, conditioned medium was

exchanged and neurons were return in the incubator for 10 min to recover. AcD and nonAcD neurons

were then identified based on neurofascin and EB3-Tdtomato channel. For that images were acquired

as z-stacks with 0.7 µm step size, 5% laser power and 100 ms exposure time. Then, EB3 channel of

selected neurons was recorded as a time lapse with frame rate of 1.3 s / frame and 5% laser power for

5 min.

Axonal and dendritic cargo trafficking assays

For axonal cargo trafficking assay, high density DIV5 neurons (60,000 cells/ml) on 35 mm glass bottom

petri dishes were infected for 2 days with rAAV9 virus expressing EGFP-Rab3A. At DIV7, the AIS was

labelled at 37°C with 5% CO_2 for 5 min by replacing conditioned medium with BrainPhys medium

containing neurofascin-CF640R antibody (1:500 dilution). Neurons were then placed back to

conditioned medium for recovery. AcD and nonAcD neurons were selected based on EGFP-Rab3A and

neurofascin-CF640R fluorescence. Z-stack image was taken for both channels with 0.7 µm step size,

5% laser power and 100 ms exposure time to verify neuronal morphology. To analyse the newly

delivered EGFP-Rab3A vesicles and to improve the signal to noise ratio, the vesicles residing at the AIS,

stem dendrite and regular dendrite were photo-bleached using 405 nm laser with 70% laser power for

5 s. New EGFP-Rab3A vesicles travelling through the photo-bleached regions were continuously

imaged with 5 frames per second and 10% laser power for 2 minutes.

For dendritic cargo trafficking assay, the AIS of high density DIV7 neurons (60,000 cells/ml) grown on

35 mm glass bottom petri dishes was labelled as described above. Then, pre-conjugated Transferrin-

Alexa568 (1:1000 dilution) was used to label the endogenous Transferrin receptors (TfRs) by incubation

for 15 min at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in BrainPhys medium. Then neurons were switched back to the

conditioned medium for recovery. AcD and nonAcD neurons were selected based on Transferrin-

Alexa568 and neurofascin-CF640R channels. Neuronal morphology was confirmed by z-stack imaging

(0.7 μm step size, 5% laser power and 50 ms exposure time) of both channels. Trafficking of TfRs in the

AIS, stem dendrite, AcD and regular dendrite was recorded with 5 frames per second and 10% laser

power for 2 minutes.

Analysis of microtubule dynamics and cargo trafficking assays

Time lapse imaging data for EB3-Tdtomato, EGFP-Rab3 and Transferrin-568 were analysed using Fiji

and self-written python scripts KYMOA 6.0 and KA Post Processing 2.0 (https://github.com/HU-Berlin-

Optobiology/AIS-project.git). In short, segmented lines were drew on time lapse images at region of

interests (ROIs). The segmented line is along the anterograde direction (e.g., cell body to distal axon),

and the width of the segmented line covers the width of the ROIs to include majority of the signals.

Corresponding kymograph were then generated using Fiji plugin KymoResliceWide. Coordinates of

each trajectory on the kymograph were extracted using freehand tool and get-coordinate function in

Fiji. Subsequently, the coordinates were further processed in KYMOA 6.0 and KA Post Processing 2.0.

For EGFP-Rab3 and Transferrin-568, we defined vesicles having at least one movement, i.e. frame-to-

frame change in the y-coordinate, over 5 continuous pixels and frames as mobile vesicles, and the

corresponding movement was considered as a run (Figure S2B and S2C). Otherwise, the vesicles were

classified as stationary (Figure S2D). Several parameters were then calculated only for mobile vesicles,

such as run length, run speed, run duration and net displacement (Figure S2B and S2C). To define the

travelling direction of a mobile vesicle, we took advantage of the net displacement. Mobile vesicles

having a displacement above zero were classified as anterogradely transported vesicles, however,

below zero were classified as retrogradely transported vesicles (Figure S2B and S2C). During active

transport, vesicles sometimes shortly pause at one spot for a few seconds. We thus defined pausing

behaviour as a mobile vesicle that stalled at the same position for at least 3 frames (Figure S2B and

S2C). It is worth noting that we often observed a vesicle repeatedly moving one pixel, stop for one

frame and moving for one pixel again (Figure S2B and S2C). Since those vesicles were neither fully

stationary nor being actively transported, we specified this type of movement as passive movement.

For EB3-Tdtomato, the running and pausing threshold was set to 2 pixels and 2-10 frames respectively.

There was no threshold for passive movement because MT plus ends have unidirectional movements.

Induction of rapid and chronic AIS plasticity

Induction of AIS plasticity in dissociated primary neuron cultures was performed following previously

published protocols.[14,15] Briefly, high density dissociated primary neurons (60,000 cells/ml) were

depolarised by 15 mM KCl to artificially increase neuronal activity, 15 mM NaCl was used as osmolarity

control and 1 µM Tetrodoxin (TTX) was used to silence neuronal activity of the entire culture. For rapid

plasticity, neurons were treated for 3 hours at DIV12 and then fixed for 10 min at 37°C. For chronic

plasticity, neurons were treated from DIV12 to DIV14 for 48 hours then fixed for 10 min at 37°C. Fixed

neurons were immunostained with pre-conjugated anti MAP2-Alexa488 and anti AnkG antibody to

label dendrites and AIS respectively and imaged using laser scanning confocal microscope. Tile scan

images were taken with 1% laser power for both channels and 5 µm depth in z.

Analysis of AIS length and distance from the soma

The length of AIS and its distance to the starting point of axon was measured based on AnkG fluorescent intensity. Maximum projection of confocal z-stack images was used for this analysis. A 3 pixel wide segmented line was drew from the beginning of the axon towards the distal end to cover the entire AIS. The florescent intensity of AnkG staining along the segmented line profile was extracted in Fiji and processed by AIS Pack 2.0, a self-written python script (https://github.com/HU-Berlin-Optobiology/AIS-project.git). The AnkG intensity profile was smoothed over 4 μm to filter out background noise and the peak of the intensity profile was detected. To define the start and the end of the AIS, the algorithm iterate through intensity values from the peak to the left and right side until the value is below 40% of the peak value. Consequently, the left edge of the AnkG intensity profile is the start of the AIS and the right edge is the end. Indices of the left and right edge are subtracted to calculate AIS length, and the AIS distance equals to the left edge of AnkG intensity profile.

Immunostaining of inhibitory and excitatory synapses and cisternal organelle

Low density DIV21 neurons (40,000 cells/ml) were fixed for 10 min at 37°C. For inhibitory and excitatory synapse, fixed neurons were stained either with antibody against VGAT and gephyrin for pre- and post-synaptic sites of inhibitory synapse, or with antibody against VGLUT and homer-1 to visualise the pre- and post-synaptic compartments of excitatory synapse. The AIS was stained either with AnkG or TRIM46 antibody depending on antibody species compatibility. MAP2-Alexa488 antibody was used to visualise cell bodies and dendrites. For the CO, the AIS, cell body and dendrite of fixed neurons were stained in the same way as above. The CO was immunostained by antibody against synaptopodin. All samples were imaged using laser scanning confocal microscope, and a tile scan image was taken with 0.5-1% laser power and 5 μm depth in z. The number of synaptopodin puncta as well as number of inhibitory and excitatory synapses were quantified using Fiji. Maximum projection of tile scan images was used for the analysis. Synaptopodin, VGAT, gephyrin, VGLUT and homer-1

puncta within the AIS region were counted using multipoint tool and normalised to the length of

measured AIS.

Statistical Analysis and Image representation

Statistical analysis was performed on Prism version 7.03 (GraphPad). Data are represented as

percentage or as mean ±SEM. Individual channels in multi-colour images are contrasted for better

representation, with set minimum and maximum identical if groups need to be compared. No other

modifications were done, unless otherwise stated. All analysis was done on raw images.

Key resource table

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
anti-AnkG (mouse, dillution 1:500)	Neuromab	Cat#N106_36; RRID:AB_2877524
anti- βIV-Spectrin (mouse, dillution 1:200)	Neuromab	Cat#75-377; RRID:AB_2315818
Anti-neurofascin (mouse, , dillution 1:200)	Neuromab	Cat#75-172; RRID:AB_2282826
Anti-TRIM46 (rabbit, dillution 1:500)	Synaptic Systems	Cat#377003 RRID:AB_2631232
Anti-tyrosinated α tubulin (mouse, dillution 1:500)	Synaptic system	Cat# 302 117 RRID:AB_2620047
Anti-acetylated α tubulin (mouse, dillution 1:500)	Santa Cruz	Cat#sc-23950 RRID:AB_628409
anti-MAP2-Alexa Fluor-488 (mouse, dillution 1:500)	Merck Millipore	Cat#MAB3418X; RRID:AB_11212966
Anti-synaptopodin (rabbit, dillution 1:500)	Synaptic Systems	Cat#163002; RRID:AB_887825
Anti-gephyrin (mouse, dillution 1:500)	Synaptic Systems	Cat#147 011 RRID: AB_887717
anti-homer-1 (mouse, dillution 1:500)	Synaptic Systems	Cat#160011; RRID:AB_2120992
anti-VGAT (mouse, dillution 1:500)	Synaptic Systems	Cat# 131011; RRID:AB_887872

anti-VGLUT1 (guinea pig, dillution 1:500)	Synaptic Systems	Cat#135304; RRID:AB_887878
anti-mouse-Alexa Fluor 568 (dillution 1:500)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#A-11004; RRID:AB_2534072
anti-mouse-Alexa Fluor 647 (dillution 1:500)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#A-21235; RRID:AB_2535804
anti-rabbit-Alexa Fluor 568 (dillution 1:500)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#A-11036; RRID:AB_10563566
anti-mouse-Abberior Star 580 (dillution 1:500)	Abberior	Cat#2-0002-005-1; RRID:AB_2620153
anti-guinea pig-Abberior Star 635p (dillution 1:500)	Abberior	Cat# ST635P-1006-500UG; RRID:AB_2893230
Anti-mouse-Nanofluor2X-AbberiorStar635p (dillution 1:500)	Nanotag	Cat#N2002; RRID: N/A
Anti-mouse-Nanofluor2X-AbberiorStar580 (dillution 1:500)	Nanotag	Cat# N2702; RRID: AB_2936181
Anti-mouse-Alexa594 (dillution 1:200)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# A-11032 RRID: AB_2534091
Recombinant DNA constructs		
CMV-EB3-Tdtomato	Addgene	Cat#50708 RRID: Addgene_50708
EGFP-Rab3A	Addgene	Cat#49542 RRID: Addgene_49542
rAAV-syn-EGFP-Rab3A	Yuhao Han	this study
Bacterial and Virus Strains		

E. coli XL10Gold	Agilent	Cat#200314
rAAV9-syn-EGFP-Rab3A	UKE virus facility	this study
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
Rat: Wistar Unilever	Envigo/UKE animal facility	HsdCpb:WU
Primers & Enzymes		
rAAV9-Syn-EGFP-Rab3A Forward (5'-3'): GACTCAGATCTCGAGCTCAAGCTTTAGGAATGGCATCCGCCACAGACTC	IDT	this study
rAAV9-Syn-EGFP-Rab3A Reverse (5'-3'): GTTGATTATCGATAAGCTCATATGTCAGCAGGCGCAGTCCTGGT	IDT	this study
HindIII	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#ER0501
FastDigest NdeI	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#FD0583
Hibrid DNA Polymerase	Roboklon	Cat#E2950-01
Critical Commercial Assays		
CF®640R Mix-n-Stain™ antibody labelling kit	Biotium	Cat#92245
Cold Fusion Cloning Kit	BioCat	Cat#MC010A-NCC-SBI
Chemicals and ligands		
Phalloidin-atto647N	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#65906-10NMOL
Lipofectamine 2000	Invitrogen	Cat#11668027
Transferrin-568	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#T23365
Tetrodotoxin	Roth	Cat#6973.1
Sodium Chloride	VWR Chemicals	Cat#27810.364
Potassium Chloride	Roth	Cat#6781.1
ROTI Histofix	Roth	Cat#A146.6

Trypsin (0.25%)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#25200-056
Poly-l-lysine	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#P2636
Glutamine	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#25030024
Medium and supplements		
BrainPhys+SM1 Supplement	StemCell	Cat#05790
DMEM	Sigma	Cat#D6429-500ML
FBS	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#A4766801
Pen/Strep	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#15070063
Software and Algorithmus		
(Fiji is just) ImageJ Versions 1.49v & 1.53t		http://fiji.sc/; RRID:SCR_002285
Prism v7.03	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/prism/
Spyder 4.2.5	Pierre Raybaut & Carlos Cordoba	https://www.spyder-ide.org/
Python 3.8.8	Python	https://www.python.org/about/
R 4.3.0	R	https://www.r-project.org/
Peak Cal 3.0	Yuhao Han	https://github.com/HU-Berlin-Optobiology/AIS-project.git
AIS Pack 2.0	Yuhao Han	https://github.com/HU-Berlin-Optobiology/AIS-project.git

KYMOA 6.0	Yuhao Han	https://github.com/HU-Berlin-Optobiology/AIS-project.git
KA Post Processing 2.0	Yuhao Han	https://github.com/HU-Berlin-Optobiology/AIS-project.git

Supplemental Videos

Video S1. Differentiation of nonAcD neurons. Related to Figure 1D. White arrowhead indicates the axon. Frame rate of this video is 15 frames/second.

Video S2. AcD neuron develop AcD via precursor neurite collateralization. Related to Figure 1D and S1A. Orange arrowhead indicates the precursor neurite. White arrowhead indicates the axon. Yellow and pink arrowhead indicates the AcD and stem dendrite, respectively. White arrow indicates the AIS. Black arrow indicates the cell body of AcD neuron being recorded. Frame rate of this video is 15 frames/second.

Video S3. AcD neuron developing axon and AcD via bifurcation of the precursor neurite. Related to Figure S1B. Orange arrowhead indicates the precursor neurite. White arrowhead indicates the axon. Yellow and pink arrowhead indicates the AcD and stem dendrite, respectively. White arrow indicates the AIS. Black arrow indicates the cell body of AcD neuron. Frame rate of this video is 15 frames/second.

Video S4. AcD neuron developing axon from collateral of the precursor neurite. Related to Figure S1A. Orange arrowhead indicates the precursor neurite. White arrowhead indicates the axon. yellow and pink arrowhead indicates the AcD and stem dendrite, respectively. White arrow indicates the AIS. Black arrow indicates the cell body of AcD neuron. Frame rate of this video is 15 frames/second.

Video S5. MT orientation in the axon, stem dendrite and AcD of AcD neuron. Related to Figure 2A. Black arrow indicates the axon. Pink arrowhead indicates the stem dendrite. Yellow indicates the AcD. Frame rate of this video is 30 frames/second.

Video S6. MT orientation in the AIS and somatic dendrite of AcD neuron. Related to Figure 2A. Black arrowhead indicates the AIS. Cyan arrowhead indicates the regular somatic dendrite (Regular D). Frame rate of this video is 30 frames/second.

Video S7. MT orientation in nonAcD neuron. Related to Figure 2A. Black arrow indicates the axon. Black arrowhead indicates the AIS. Cyan arrowhead indicates the regular somatic dendrite (Regular D). Frame rate of this video is 30 frames/second.

Video S8. EGFP-Rab3A trafficking in AcD neuron. Related to Figure 4. Black arrowhead indicates the AIS. Pink arrowhead indicates the stem dendrite. Cyan arrowhead indicates the regular somatic dendrite (Regular D). Frame rate of this video is 30 frames/second.

Video S9. EGFP-Rab3A trafficking in nonAcD neuron. Related to Figure 4. Black arrowhead indicates the AIS. Frame rate of this video is 30 frames/second.

Video S10. TfR trafficking in AcD neuron. Related to Figure 5. Black arrowhead indicates the AIS. Pink arrowhead indicates the stem dendrite. Yellow arrowhead indicates the axon carrying dendrite (AcD). Black arrow indicates the axon. Frame rate of this video is 30 frames/second.

794 **Video S11.** TfR trafficking in nonAcD neuron. Related to Figure 5. Black arrowhead indicates
795 the AIS. Cyan arrowhead indicates the regular somatic dendrite (Regular D). Black arrow
796 indicates the axon. Frame rate of this video is 30 frames/second.

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Figure 1

A

	DIV3	DIV5	DIV7	DIV12
NonAcD neuron				
AcD neuron				MAP2 / AnkG

B AcD neuron

Regular dendrite
Soma
Stem dendrite
Axon distance (>3 μm)
AIS
Axon carrying dendrite (AcD)
Axon

C
NonAcD
AcD
% of cells
100
50
0
DIV 5   DIV 7

D

	DIV0 (12 hours)	DIV1-2	DIV4	DIV5
NonAcD neuron				MAP2 / AnkG
AcD neuron				

E
Bifurcation
Collateralization
20%
80%

F
# of cells
10
5
0
20   40   60
Time (hours)

G
As axon
As AcD
30%
70%

H
with collaterals
w/o collaterals
% of cells
100
50
0
NonAcD   AcD

I
Precursor neurite
Immature axon
Collateral
1.5 day
Axon
Immature AcD
2 days
AIS   AcD
Axon
Stem D
4 days

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

NonAcD neuron | AcD neuron

Confocal

AIS / F-actin

gSTED

DIV14 | phalloidin-Atto647N (F-actin)

B

— AcD
— NonAcD

Intensity (A.U.) vs Distance (nm)

Distance (nm)

n.s.

NonAcD | AcD

C

NonAcD neuron | AcD neuron

Synpo / AnkG / MAP2

DIV21 | Inset: synaptopodin (Synpo)

D

# of puncta (per 5 µm)

**

NonAcD | AcD

Figure 4

Figure 5

A NonAcD neuron
KCl (15 mM) NaCl (15 mM) TTX (1 μM)
MAP2 / AnkG

Rapid plasticity

Chronic plasticity

B NonAcD neuron

Rapid plasticity — AIS length (μm) — KCl, NaCl, TTX — n.s.

Chronic plasticity — AIS distance (μm) — KCl, NaCl, TTX — ****

C AcD neuron
KCl (15 mM) NaCl (15 mM) TTX (1 μM)
MAP2 / AnkG

Rapid plasticity

Chronic plasticity

D AcD neuron

Rapid plasticity — AIS length (μm) — KCl, NaCl, TTX — n.s.

Chronic plasticity — AIS distance (μm) — KCl, NaCl, TTX — n.s.

Figure 6

A Inhibitory synapses at the AIS

NonAcD neuron   AcD neuron

TRIM46 / gephyrin / MAP2

TRIM46 / VGAT / MAP2

B Excitatory synapses at the AIS

NonAcD neuron   AcD neuron

TRIM46 / homer-1 / MAP2

AnkG / VGLUT / MAP2

C

gephyrin

Nr. of puncta (per 5 μm)

***

NonAcD   AcD

VGAT

Nr. of puncta (per 5 μm)

*

NonAcD   AcD

D

homer 1

Nr. of puncta (per 5 μm)

n.s.

NonAcD   AcD

VGLUT

Nr. of puncta (per 5 μm)

n.s.

NonAcD   AcD