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**Title:** Maintenance of homeostatic plasticity at the *Drosophila* neuromuscular synapse requires continuous IP$_3$-directed signaling

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**ABSTRACT**

Synapses and circuits rely on neuroplasticity to adjust output and meet physiological needs. Forms of homeostatic synaptic plasticity impart stability at synapses by countering destabilizing perturbations. The *Drosophila melanogaster* larval neuromuscular junction (NMJ) is a model synapse with robust expression of homeostatic plasticity. At the NMJ, a homeostatic system detects impaired postsynaptic sensitivity to neurotransmitter and activates a retrograde signal that restores synaptic function by adjusting neurotransmitter release. This process has been separated into temporally distinct phases, induction and maintenance. One prevailing hypothesis is that a shared mechanism governs both phases. Here we show the two phases are separable. Combining genetics, pharmacology, and electrophysiology, we find that a signaling system consisting of PLCβ, inositol triphosphate ($IP_3$), $IP_3$ receptors, and Ryanodine receptors is required only for the maintenance of homeostatic plasticity. We also find that the NMJ is capable of inducing homeostatic signaling even when its sustained maintenance process is absent.

**INTRODUCTION**

Synaptic plasticity is a fundamental property of neurons that underlies the activities of neuronal circuits and behaviors. Neurons have a remarkable capacity to adjust outputs in response to external cues. Depending upon context, those adjustments can be stabilizing or destabilizing to overall function. Hebbian forms of neuroplasticity are generally thought to promote destabilizing changes. A great deal is known about the molecular mechanisms underlying Hebbian paradigms of synaptic plasticity like Long Term Potentiation (LTP, e.g. (Lisman et al., 2012)) – and how Hebbian plasticity might underlie long-lasting processes like memory formation and consolidation (Andersen et al., 2017; Poo et al., 2016). Less is understood about homeostatic forms of neuroplasticity, which work to stabilize synapse function and keep activity levels within an acceptable physiological range (Davis, 2006; Davis and Müller, 2015; Delvendahl and Müller, 2019; Pozo and Goda, 2010; Turrigiano, 2017). For homeostatic plasticity, it is generally thought that coordinated actions of neurons and their targets work to maintain a set point functional parameter.

Well-studied examples of homeostatic synaptic plasticity (HSP) include synaptic scaling (O'Brien et al., 1998; Turrigiano et al., 1998; Turrigiano and Nelson, 2004), and the maintenance of evoked excitation at neuromuscular junctions (NMJs) (Cull-Candy et al., 1980; Davis and Müller, 2015; Frank, 2014a; Petersen et al., 1997). For both, the time course of implementation has been of longstanding interest. Synaptic scaling was initially shown to be a slow, chronically executed process (O'Brien et al., 1998; Turrigiano et al., 1998), but it is also possible for faster scaling mechanisms to be mobilized if multiple synaptic sites are concurrently inhibited (Sutton et al., 2006). For the NMJ, homeostatic signaling is triggered by short-term challenges to synapse function (Frank et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2016b), but it is also maintained for extended developmental time in the face of chronic challenges (Cull-Candy et al., 1980; Davis et al., 1998; DiAntonio et al., 1999; Petersen et al., 1997; Plomp et al., 1992).

The *Drosophila melanogaster* NMJ is an ideal model synapse for studying the basic question of how synapses work to counter destabilizing perturbations (Frank, 2014a). At this NMJ, reduced sensitivity to single vesicles of glutamate initiates a retrograde, muscle-to-nerve signaling

cascade that induces increased neurotransmitter vesicle release, or quantal content (QC). As a result, the NMJ maintains a normal postsynaptic response level (Frank et al., 2006; Petersen et al., 1997). Mechanistically, this increase in QC depends upon the successful execution of discrete presynaptic events, such as increases in neuronal $Ca^{2+}$ influx and an increase in the size of the readily releasable pool (RRP) of synaptic vesicles (Frank et al., 2006; Müller and Davis, 2012; Müller et al., 2012). The field has termed this compensatory signaling process as presynaptic homeostatic potentiation (PHP) (Delvendahl and Müller, 2019). Two factors that govern the expression of PHP are the nature of the NMJ synaptic challenge and the amount of time elapsed after presentation of the challenge. Acute pharmacological inhibition of postsynaptic glutamate receptors initiates a rapid induction of PHP that restores synaptic output in minutes (Frank et al., 2006). By contrast, genetic lesions and other long-term reductions of NMJ sensitivity to neurotransmitter induce PHP in a way that is sustained throughout life (Brusich et al., 2015; Davis et al., 1998; DiAntonio et al., 1999; Paradis et al., 2001; Petersen et al., 1997).

We previously identified the *Plc21C* gene as a factor needed for PHP (Brusich et al., 2015). *Plc21C* encodes a *Drosophila* Phospholipase Cβ (PLCβ) homolog known to be neuronally expressed (Shortridge et al., 1991) – but recent ribosomal profiling data also indicates possible muscle expression of *Plc21C* (Chen and Dickman, 2017). In canonical signaling pathways, once PLCβ is activated by Gαq, it cleaves the membrane lipid phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate ($PIP_2$) into diacylglycerol (DAG) and inositol triphosphate ($IP_3$). DAG can affect synaptic function by activating Protein Kinase C (PKC), while $IP_3$ binds its receptor ($IP_3R$) to trigger release of calcium from intracellular stores (Kadamur and Ross, 2012; Philip et al., 2010; Tedford and Zamponi, 2006). It is not understood which aspects of this signaling machinery are mobilized during PHP. Potential downstream consequences of PLCβ activity at the NMJ include phosphorylation of neuronal proteins, modulation of ion channel activity, and changes in localization of neurotransmission machinery (Cremona and De Camilli, 2001; Goni and Alonso, 1999; Huang et al., 2006; Peters et al., 2001; Rohrbough and Broadie, 2005; Wu et al., 2002).

For this study, we scrutinized PLCβ-directed signaling further. We tested whether PLCβ-directed signaling was required solely for the maintenance of PHP or if it could also be required for induction. In addition to PLCβ, we identified the IP$_3$ Receptor (*Drosophila* Itpr, herein IP$_3$R) and Ryanodine receptor (*Drosophila* RyR) as being part of the same signaling process. We found that neither PLCβ, nor IP$_3$R, nor RyR are required for the rapid induction of PHP. Additionally, we found that the rapid induction of PHP is still possible in synapses already sustaining PHP. Surprisingly, we found that NMJs are capable of rapidly inducing PHP – even when the sustained expression of PHP is already blocked by impairments in PLCβ, IP$_3$R, or RyR signaling. Taken together, our data show that the induction and maintenance of PHP are separable. Even though there is compelling evidence that parts of the induction and maintenance signaling mechanisms overlap (Goel et al., 2017), it is also true that acute PHP is possible in scenarios where long-term PHP is not.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

*Drosophila husbandry*

*Drosophila melanogaster* fruit flies were raised on Cornmeal, Molasses and Yeast Medium prepared according to the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC, Bloomington, IN) recipe. *Drosophila* husbandry was performed according to standard practices (Greenspan, 2004). Larvae were raised at 25°C or 29°C in humidity controlled and light-controlled Percival DR-36VL incubators (Geneva Scientific).

*Drosophila genetic lines*

$w^{1118}$ (Hazelrigg et al., 1984) was used as a non-transgenic wild type stock. The deletion *GluRIIA* allele (*GluRIIA$^{SP16}$*) was generated previously (Petersen et al., 1997). *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* lines (*UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m30* and *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49*) were provided by Drs. Masayuki Koganezawa and Daisuke Yamamoto (Usui-Aoki et al., 2005). The *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* line utilized to screen

homeostatic candidate molecules was described previously (Brusich et al., 2015). GAL4 drivers

simultaneously utilized for the *"Pre- + Post-Gal4"* conditions were *elaV(C155)-Gal4* (Lin and

Goodman, 1994), *Sca-Gal4* (Budnik et al., 1996), and *BG57-Gal4* (Budnik et al., 1996).

In addition to the *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* lines, several *UAS-RNAi* or genetic mutant lines were

obtained either from the BDSC or the Vienna Drosophila Resource Center (VDRC, Vienna, Aus-

tria). Those specific mutations and lines are detailed in Supplementary Table 2. Procedures for

how the *UAS-RNAi* lines were generated have been published (Dietzl et al., 2007; Ni et al., 2009).

*Electrophysiology and Pharmacology*

Wandering third instar larvae were collected and filleted for NMJ analysis. Control and experi-

mental samples were collected in parallel, using identical conditions. Activity in abdominal muscle

6 from segments 2 and 3 was recorded in a modified HL3 saline (70 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 5 mM

HEPES, 10 mM NaHCO3, 115 mM sucrose, 0.5 mM CaCl$_2$ (unless otherwise noted), 10 mM

MgCl2, 4.2 mM trehalose, pH 7.2) (see (Stewart et al., 1994) for original parameters). Sharp elec-

trode recordings of miniature excitatory postsynaptic potentials (mEPSPs) and excitatory postsyn-

aptic potentials (EPSPs) were conducted as previously described (Brusich et al., 2015; Spring et

al., 2016; Yeates et al., 2017) and analyzed using MiniAnalysis (Synaptosoft) and pClamp10 (Mo-

lecular Devices) software, blind to genotype or treatment. Uncorrected quantal content (QC) was

estimated per NMJ as average EPSP/average mEPSP and was also reported as corrected for

non-linear summation as done previously (Martin, 1955). For the correction factor formula (Martin,

1955), we used a reversal potential of +10 mV (Supplemental Excel File).

Pharmacological agents were bath applied in recording saline at the final concentrations

indicated in the text, figures, and tables. The agents included Philanthotoxin-433 (PhTox, Sigma-

Aldrich and Santa Cruz Biotechnology), Xestospongin C (Abcam), 2-APB (Tocris, Bio-Techne

Corporation), Ryanodine (Tocris), and Dantrolene (Tocris).

To render mEPSP and EPSP traces for figures, we pulled (x,y) coordinates from the

Clampfit program (Molecular Devices) and imported those coordinates into GraphPad Prism

(GraphPad) software. For all traces, we chose a recording that was at (or closest to) the calculated

average. For mEPSPs, we picked a representative selection of minis. For EPSPs, the final trace

that was rendered was an average of all the EPSP traces from that particular NMJ.

*Immunostaining and Analyses*

Immunostaining and image analyses of NMJ 6/7 in segments A2 and A3 were performed as pre-

viously described (Spring et al., 2016; Yeates et al., 2017). Briefly, filleted larvae were fixed in

Bouin's fixative for 4 min, washed, incubated in primary antibodies for 2 hours, washed, and in-

cubated in secondary antibodies for an additional 2 hours. Bouton staining was performed to

assess NMJ growth by using the following primary antibodies: mouse anti-Synapsin (anti-Syn;

3C11) 1:50 (Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, Iowa City, IA) and rabbit anti-Dlg 1:15,000

(Budnik et al. 1996). The following fluorophore conjugated secondary antibodies were also used

(Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories): goat anti–mouse 488 1:1000 (DyLight) and goat anti–

rabbit 549 1:2000 (Dy-Light). Alexa-647 goat anti-HRP was utilized to stain neuronal membranes.

Larval preparations were mounted in Vectashield (Vector Laboratories) and imaged at room tem-

perature using Zen software on a Zeiss 880 Laser Scanning Microscope with an EC Plan-Neofluar

40X Oil DIC Objective (aperture 1.30) or an EC Plan-Apochromat 63X Oil DIC Objective (aperture

1.40; Zeiss). Experimental and control larval preps were imaged using identical acquisition set-

tings and analyzed blind to genotype using the same procedure and thresholds. Images were

prepared for publication in Adobe Photoshop using identical procedures for experimental and

control images. Anti-Dlg bouton counts were completed in a blinded fashion to quantify synapse

growth. For each anti-Dlg–positive bouton counted in muscle, it was verified that there was a

corresponding cluster of anti-Syn staining in neurons.

*Statistical Analyses*

For electrophysiological data, statistical significance was tested either by Student's T-Test if one

experimental data set was being directly compared to a control data set, or by one-way ANOVA

with a Bonferroni post-hoc test if multiple data sets were being compared. For bouton counting, significance was tested utilizing a Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA test followed by Dunn's post-hoc test. Specific $p$ value ranges and tests are noted in the Figures and Figure Legends and Supplementary Tables and shown in graphs as follows: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, and *** $p < 0.001$. All statistical analyses were conducted using GraphPad Prism Software. Most figure data are plotted as violin plots from GraphPad Prism; the violin plot shapes signify data distribution, $n$ values are below those shapes, and horizontal lines signify the $0^{th}$, $25^{th}$, $50^{th}$, $75^{th}$, and $100^{th}$ percentiles of the data.

**RESULTS**

**PLCβ loss uncouples the short-term induction of homeostatic plasticity from its long-term maintenance**

Previously we demonstrated that loss-of-function of *Plc21C*, a *Drosophila melanogaster* PLCβ gene, could dampen or eliminate the long-term maintenance of presynaptic homeostatic potentiation (PHP) (Brusich et al., 2015). We repeated some of those experiments. We used a fruit fly line containing both neuron- and muscle-GAL4 drivers as well as a *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* transgenic construct to provide a chronic homeostatic challenge to reduce quantal size (Brusich et al., 2015). *Pre- + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* NMJs have decreased quantal size (mEPSP, Fig. 1A) and an offsetting, homeostatic increase in quantal content (QC, Fig. 1C). This increase in release keeps excitatory postsynaptic potentials (EPSPs) at control levels (Fig. 1B). By contrast, concurrent knockdown of *GluRIII* and *Plc21C* gene functions by RNAi (*Pre- + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-GluRIII[RNAi] + Plc21C[RNAi]*) leaves this form of homeostatic potentiation only partly intact (Figs. 1A-C). There is a small QC increase compared to baseline (Fig. 1C), but this QC increase is blunted compared to the homeostatic challenge, resulting in evoked potentials that are smaller than controls (Figs. 1B, 1D). These data are consistent with the prior results (Brusich et al., 2015) (Supplementary Table S1 for summary Fig. 1 data; Raw Data Workbook for raw data).

The *GluRIII* RNAi knock down manipulation in muscle is a days-long, chronic homeostatic

challenge to the maintenance of NMJ function (Brusich et al., 2015). We tested if *Plc21C* gene

knock down blocks or impairs the acute induction of PHP. For acute induction, we applied 20 μM

of the glutamate receptor antagonist Philanthotoxin-433 (PhTox) to both wild-type and to *Pre- +*

*Post-Gal4 >> Plc21C[RNAi]* knock down NMJs. PhTox application decreased quantal size for

both conditions (Fig. 1E) (Frank et al., 2006). For both conditions, evoked potentials remained

largely steady compared to non-PhTox controls (Figs. 1F, 1H) because there was a significant,

compensatory increase in quantal content (Fig. 1G). Thus, partial loss of *Plc21C* gene function is

not a sufficient condition to block the rapid induction of PHP.

**The induction of PHP is possible, even when PHP maintenance is impaired**

We used *Plc21C* loss and PhTox to test whether the capacity to maintain PHP for ex-

tended developmental time is required for rapid PHP induction. The most common modes of as-

sessing PHP at the *Drosophila* NMJ are a lifelong, genetic *GluRIIA^SP16^* null mutation for PHP

maintenance (Petersen et al., 1997) and acute PhTox application for PHP induction (Frank et al.,

2006). For both cases, mEPSP amplitudes are decreased and QC is increased helping to main-

tain evoked potentials at (or nearly at) normal levels. PhTox targets the function of GluRIIA-con-

taining receptors; thus, adding PhTox to a *GluRIIA^SP16^* null background does not further decrease

quantal size (Frank et al., 2006). This fact presents a difficulty in using PhTox and *GluRIIA^SP16^*

together to test whether additional PHP can be acutely induced in a chronic glutamate receptor

loss genetic condition already sustaining PHP. We reasoned that by applying PhTox to *UAS-*

*GluRIII[RNAi]* knock down synapses, we could circumvent this limitation. Partial loss of the es-

sential subunit-encoding *GluRIII* gene leaves some GluRIIA-containing receptors intact (Brusich

et al., 2015). In turn, those GluRIIA-containing receptors could be subject to the secondary PhTox

challenge.

We applied PhTox to *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* synapses, and we observed a further decrease

in quantal amplitude – significantly below mEPSP size recorded for *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* alone (Fig.

1I). Evoked potentials were only slightly lower than the non-PhTox levels (slightly lower; Figs. 1J,

L) because there was a robust increase in QC (Fig. 1K). This result indicated that a rapid induction

of PHP was possible at a synapse already undergoing a sustained maintenance of PHP.

We next tested whether compromised ability to sustain PHP throughout life would also

preclude acute induction of PHP. PhTox applied to NMJs simultaneously expressing both *UAS-*

*GluRIII[RNAi]* and *Plc21C[RNAi]* constructs induced a significant decrease in mEPSP amplitude

relative to non-PhTox-treated control synapses (Fig. 1I). Yet we also observed a significant in-

crease in QC (i.e. PHP induction) (Fig. 1K), which kept evoked NMJ potentials similar to their non-

PhTox levels (Figs. 1J, L). Collectively, these data suggest that acute PHP induction does not

require intact PHP maintenance and that PLCβ plays a maintenance role.

**IP$_3$ function is required for the maintenance of PHP but not its induction**

We sought to identify potential PLCβ signaling effectors that could mediate the long-term

maintenance of PHP. We screened targets by electrophysiology. Based on canonical signaling

functions of PLCβ, we conducted a directed screen, targeting molecules such as PKC, CaMKII,

Unc-13, related signaling molecules, as well several potential G-protein-coupled receptors

(GPCRs). Additionally, we tested molecules implicated in intracellular calcium signaling, intracel-

lular ion channel function, and synaptic ion channel function.

We used a screening paradigm designed to find factors needed for the maintenance of

PHP: combining pre- and postsynaptic GAL4 expression with *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* with a tested

genetic manipulation (Brusich et al., 2015). We targeted factors for this screen using either *UAS-*

*gene* misexpression or *UAS-gene[RNAi]* constructs. We also used loss-of-function mutations. For

an additional screening condition for some mutations we constructed double mutant lines with a

*GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* null deletion allele (Petersen et al., 1997). For any test, we analyzed two conditions:

a baseline neurotransmission condition (e.g., GAL4 + genetic manipulation alone) and a homeo-

statically challenged condition (e.g., GAL4 + genetic manipulation + *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]*). Any ho-

meostatically challenged condition that failed to increase QC over its own baseline condition was

designated as a potential positive.

We examined 28 distinct genetic manipulations (comprising 23 distinct genes), including

controls (Fig. 2A; Supplementary Table S2 for summary screen data). We plotted the relative QC

values for the screen as "% baseline" (Fig. 2A), indicating how much of a QC change the *UAS-*

*GluRIII[RNAi]* challenge yielded. We set a cutoff for a "screen positive" as a QC smaller than one

standard deviation below expected the expected QC given the *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* homeostatic

challenge (Fig. 2A, red dashed line).

Two genetic manipulations showed no statistically significant QC increase upon homeo-

static challenge (Fig. 2A, red). For both manipulations, the screened target molecule was inositol

1,4,5-triphosphate ($IP_3$). $IP_3$ is a second-messenger signaling molecule. We examined it because

$PLC\beta$ cleaves the phospholipid $PIP_2$ into soluble $IP_3$ and membrane-bound diacylglycerol (DAG)

during canonical signaling. We targeted cellular $IP_3$ by expressing *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge*, a transgene

that expresses a peptide that binds and sequesters $IP_3$ (Usui-Aoki et al., 2005). Concomitant pre-

and postsynaptic expression of *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* transgenes completely blocked the long-term

expression of PHP (Figs. 2B-E). This resulted in significantly smaller EPSP amplitudes in the

*UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* PHP-challenge genetic background. (Figs. 2B, D).

We used the full block of sustained PHP by *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expression to re-test the

relationship between the rapid induction of PHP and its long-term maintenance. First, we tested

if *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expression alone could block the rapid induction of PHP. Following PhTox

treatment, synapses expressing *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* in pre- and postsynaptic tissues showed a sig-

nificant decrease in mEPSP amplitude compared to non-PhTox controls (Fig. 2F), and yet they

had steady EPSP amplitudes (Fig. 2G) because of a robust increase in QC (Fig. 2H). This result

indicated that *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expression left the rapid induction mechanisms of PHP intact.

We next tested if the rapid induction of PHP was possible for third instar larval NMJs that

had blocked PHP maintenance throughout life. To do this, we applied PhTox to NMJs expressing

*UAS-IP₃-sponge* in a *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* background. Even in this genetic background, we found

that the rapid induction of PHP remained intact following PhTox treatment (Figs. 2F-H). PhTox

treatment resulted in a further decrease in mEPSP amplitude compared to non-PhTox-treated

synapses expressing both *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* and *UAS-IP₃-sponge* (Fig. 2F), but there was an

offsetting increase in QC (Fig. 2H). The evoked event amplitudes were at the level of genetically

identical, non-PhTox treated synapses (Fig. 2G), because of successful induction of PHP in a

genetic background that was unable to sustain PHP throughout development.

**IP₃ sequestration does not impair synapse growth**

Chronic expression of the *UAS-IP₃-sponge* transgene blocked the long-term expression

of PHP. In principle, this result could be a secondary consequence of aberrant NMJ development.

To check this possibility, we co-immunostained third instar larval *Drosophila* NMJs with anti-Syn-

apsin (Syn, presynaptic vesicles), anti-Discs Large (Dlg, postsynaptic density), and anti-Horse-

radish Peroxidase (HRP, presynaptic membrane) antibodies. This allowed us to examine synaptic

growth by counting NMJ boutons. We quantified bouton growth for synapse 6/7, muscle segments

A2 and A3. We examined control conditions and conditions with blocked PHP maintenance due

to *UAS-IP3-sponge* expression (Figs. 3A-E). We observed no significant differences versus con-

trol in bouton number for any condition, for either segment A2 or A3 – including the genetic back-

ground where we co-expressed *UAS-IP3-sponge* and *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* (Fig. 3F). There were

also no significant differences versus control in bouton number normalized per unit muscle area

(Fig. 3G; Raw Data Workbook for raw bouton count and muscle size data). These data indicate

that when IP₃ is sequestered, synapse undergrowth is not causal for a PHP block.

**Pharmacology targeting IP₃ receptors uncouples the induction and maintenance of PHP**

We tested if the temporal requirements of PHP could be uncoupled by pharmacological

disruption of *Drosophila* IP₃ receptor function (Itpr in *Drosophila*). IP₃Rs are localized to the endo-

plasmic reticulum (ER) and function to mediate calcium efflux from internal stores (Berridge, 1984,

1987). ER is known to localize throughout neurons in *Drosophila*, including synaptic terminals

(Summerville et al., 2016), and recent studies have implicated ER resident proteins in the execu-

tion of PHP at the *Drosophila* NMJ (Genç et al., 2017; Kikuma et al., 2017). To target IP$_3$Rs, we

turned to two reagents known to impair function: Xestospongin C and 2-APB (2-Aminoethoxydi-

phenyl Borate) and applied those drugs to *GluRIIA* loss-of-function mutants.

Xestospongin C is a membrane-permeable drug that disrupts intracellular calcium release

directly via non-competitive inhibition of IP$_3$Rs (Gafni et al., 1997; Wilcox et al., 1998). Xestospon-

gin C has been previously shown to inhibit *Drosophila* IP$_3$Rs (Vazquez-Martinez et al., 2003).

There are caveats to its use; Xestospongin C may act indirectly by inhibiting SERCA, which could

lead to depletion of intracellular calcium stores (Castonguay and Robitaille, 2002). Moreover,

Xestospongin C has been demonstrated to impair voltage-gated Ca$^{2+}$ and K$^+$ currents in guinea

pig smooth muscle (Ozaki et al., 2002). In principle, these latter activities on intact fly NMJ tissue

could impact baseline neurotransmission parameters (Bergquist et al., 2010; Brusich et al., 2015;

Jan et al., 1977; Peng and Wu, 2007).

*GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* null mutant NMJs have a marked decrease in quantal size (Fig. 4A) (Petersen

et al., 1997). This homozygous null condition does not perfectly maintain control EPSP amplitudes

(Fig. 4B) (Brusich et al., 2015; Frank et al., 2006; Frank et al., 2009; Spring et al., 2016; Yeates

et al., 2017). However, the null does induce a robust increase in QC, which signifies a long-term

implementation of PHP (Fig. 4C). *GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* NMJ preparations acutely treated with 20 µM Xes-

tospongin C (10 minutes) displayed an expected decrease in mEPSP amplitude compared to

non-*GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* controls (Fig. 4A). However, these drug-treated NMJs failed to show an increase

in QC (Fig. 4C). This resulted in markedly decreased evoked amplitudes (Figs. 4B, G). Thus, not

only did 20 µM Xestospongin C induce a block of PHP maintenance, but it was capable of extin-

guishing this long-term maintenance process on a timescale of minutes.

Importantly, 20 µM Xestospongin C did not impair baseline neurotransmission in a wild-

type background (Figs. 4B, G); this suggests that 20 µM Xestospongin C does not impair the

function of other important voltage-gated channels at the *Drosophila* NMJ. Finally, in the *GluRIIA*

null background, neither a lower dose (5 μM Xestospongin C) nor vehicle application alone inhib-

ited the expression of PHP (Figs. 4A-C) (Supplementary Table S3 for summary Fig. 4 data; Raw

Data Workbook for raw data).

Next, we tested if acute application of 20 μM Xestospongin C could block the rapid induc-

tion of PHP. We applied 20 μM Xestospongin C to wild-type NMJs concurrently with 20 μM PhTox.

Quantal size was markedly diminished compared to the non-PhTox control (Fig. 4D; vehicle con-

trol dataset same as in 4A-C). Yet evoked amplitudes remained near control levels (Figs. 4E, G)

because the rapid induction of PHP was intact (Fig. 4F).

We used 2-APB as a second reagent to target IP$_3$Rs. 2-APB is a membrane-permeable

drug that has variable effects. It is known to impair IP$_3$R (Diver et al., 2001; Maruyama et al.,

1997). There are also reports that 2-APB can impair targets such as Transient Receptor Potential

(TRP) channels (Bootman et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2005). If continuous IP$_3$R function were required

for the maintenance PHP at NMJs, we reasoned that acute application of 2-APB (as with Xes-

tospongin C) should also extinguish this form of neuroplasticity.

We applied both 1 μM and 10 μM 2-APB to *GluRIIA^SP16* null NMJs. Both drug concentra-

tions resulted in a failure to increase QC compared to drug-treated wild-type controls; this resulted

in small evoked events for the drug-treated *GluRIIA^SP16* NMJs because PHP maintenance was

blocked (Figs. 5A-C, G) (Supplementary Table S4 for summary Fig. 5 data; Raw Data Workbook

for raw data). Next, we tested if 2-APB blocks the PhTox-induced rapid induction of PHP. We

applied 1 μM 2-APB concurrently with 20 μM PhTox. Evoked potentials remained near the level

of 2-APB-treated NMJs without PhTox (Figs. 5E, H) because 1 μM 2-APB left the rapid induction

of PHP intact (Figs. 5D-F).

We note that 2-APB potentiated baseline neurotransmission, seemingly in a dose-depend-

ent way (Figs. 5B, G). This potentiation likely means that 2-APB had off-target effects at the NMJ

in addition to IP$_3$Rs. We considered that 2-APB could exert effects though TRP channels, like

Drosophila Inactive (Iav). Iav plays a role in NMJ neurotransmission and controls $Ca^{2+}$ levels in

motor neurons (Wong et al., 2014). However, knock down of *iav* gene function by RNAi did not

impair PHP in our screen (Supplementary Table S2), and the effects of 2-APB on baseline neu-

rotransmission appear to be the opposite of those reported for strong *iav* loss of function (Wong

et al., 2014).  Taken together, our pharmacological data show that with acute drug application of

either Xestospongin C or 2-APB, it is acutely possible to erase a lifelong, *GluRIIA*[SP16]-induced

long-term expression of PHP. Since this erasure is accomplished with known inhibitors of $IP_3R$,

our data are consistent with the hypothesis that the maintenance of PHP requires continuous $IP_3R$

function.

**Pharmacology targeting Ryanodine Receptors uncouples the induction and maintenance**

**of PHP**

Ryanodine receptors (RyRs) also mediate release of calcium from ER stores (Berridge,

1998; Simkus and Stricker, 2002). RyRs are localized to the ER in excitable tissues like neurons

and muscle (Santulli and Marks, 2015; Santulli et al., 2017). Therefore, we tested whether RyRs

are also required for the maintenance of PHP at the NMJ. We repeated the same types of exper-

iments executed with the $IP_3R$ pharmacological blockade – this time targeting *Drosophila* RyRs

by utilizing Ryanodine (Murmu et al., 2010) and Dantrolene (Vazquez-Martinez et al., 2003; Zhao

et al., 2001) at concentrations previously reported to block RyRs. We acquired similar results as

with $IP_3R$ blockade. Acute application of either 100 µM Ryanodine or 10 µM Dantrolene to *GluRIIA*

null preparations resulted in failure of PHP maintenance. QC did not increase for the homeostat-

ically challenged condition (*GluRIIA* + drug) versus the unchallenged condition (wild-type + drug)

(Figs. 6A-C) (Supplementary Table S5 for summary Fig. 6 data; Raw Data Workbook for raw

data).

Next, we tested whether RyR inhibition could block the rapid induction of PHP. As was the

case with $IP_3R$ inhibition, acute application of 10 µM Dantrolene to PhTox-treated NMJs did not

disrupt the short-term induction of PHP (Figs. 6D-F). We extended our analysis by re-examining

the condition where we combined a long-term homeostatic challenge (*GluRIII[RNAi]*) with a short-

term challenge (PhTox) to further decrease quantal size (as in Figs. 1I-L). In this double-challenge

condition, addition of 10 µM Dantrolene left the rapid induction portion of PHP intact (Figs. 6D-G).

Collectively, these experiments demonstrate that acute pharmacological perturbations targeting

RyRs are capable of uncoupling the short-term induction and the long-term maintenance of PHP.

**Dual IP$_3$ sequestration and RyR blockade are not additive**

In some tissues, RyR is activated by IP$_3$R-mediated Ca$^{2+}$ release, in a signaling process

termed Calcium-Induced Calcium Release (CICR) (Berridge, 1998). IP$_3$Rs and RyRs have been

placed together in CICR signaling processes in other systems, and our group has also identified

overlapping functions of IP$_3$R and RyR at the NMJ (Brusich et al., 2018). Thus, we tested if IP$_3$

signaling and RyR functions might support the maintenance of PHP at the *Drosophila* NMJ via a

shared process. The expectation for a shared process would be that a dual block of PHP (con-

sisting of IP$_3$ sequestration + RyR pharmacological blockade) would not depress evoked trans-

mission or quantal content below either individual manipulation.

A chronic *GluRIII[RNAi]*-expression NMJ challenge is amenable both to pharmacology

and dual-tissue *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expression (*Pre- + Post-Gal4*). In the *GluRIII[RNAi]* genetic

background, both 10 µM Dantrolene application and *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expression blocked the

long-term maintenance of PHP (Figs. 7A-C). This resulted in EPSPs that were blunted compared

to *GluRIII[RNAi]*-alone controls (Figs. 7B, D). When we combined Dantrolene application and

*UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expression in the *GluRIII[RNAi]* background, the PHP impairment was indistin-

guishable from the impairment elicited by Dantrolene alone or *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* alone (Figs. 7A-

D) (Supplementary Table S6 for summary Fig. 7 data; Raw Data Workbook for raw data). The

data are consistent with a model in which IP$_3$ sequestration and RyR blockade disrupt the long-

term maintenance of PHP as part of a shared process, either via a single linear pathway or con-

vergent pathways.

**Axotomy does not block rapid PHP, even when IP$_3$ signaling is impaired**

For larval NMJ electrophysiology, motor neurons are severed several minutes before re-cording (Jan and Jan, 1976). Although standard practice, this procedure requires special attention in our study because store-operated calcium release mediates a variety of cellular responses after axotomy in rodent (Rigaud et al., 2009) and nematode models (Sun et al., 2014). For the rapid induction of PHP at the NMJ, PhTox is typically applied to intact synapses, prior to motor nerve severing and recording (Frank et al., 2006). This allows for endogenous spontaneous ac-tivity to drive PhTox to bind to open channels prior to recording (Frank et al., 2006). Nevertheless, rapid induction of PHP still works effectively when the motor nerves are severed prior to PhTox exposure (Frank et al., 2006).

To test for a possible synergistic interaction between axotomy, IP$_3$-directed signaling, and ER function during the acute induction phase of PHP, we applied PhTox to NMJs with intact motor nerves or with cut motor nerves (central nervous system (CNS) excised). We did this in a genetic background while expressing *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* construct pre- and postsynaptically. For controls, we treated the preparations identically and used GAL4 drivers alone for the genetic background. We found that rapid PHP induction still worked in the *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge*-expressing background, regardless of whether the motor nerve was severed prior to PhTox application (Figs. 7E-G). The evoked events were slightly diminished for the *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expressing NMJs where the CNS was cut out of the preparation prior to PhTox application (Figs. 7F, H). However, by quantal con-tent measures, the rapid induction of PHP was not blocked by this dual treatment (Fig. 7G).

**Neuron and muscle IP$_3$ signaling both contribute to long-term homeostatic potentiation**

Insofar, none of the genetic or pharmacological manipulations impairing PHP maintenance in this study have been tissue specific. In principle, all PHP-blocking manipulations described could operate either in neuronal or muscle substrates – or upon both tissues. Our prior work showed that chronic *Plc21C* gene knockdown in the muscle alone is not sufficient to impair PHP (Brusich et al., 2015). That result suggested a neuronal component to this signaling system for PHP maintenance. Yet further tests are needed. We wished to understand whether a pre- or

postsynaptic mechanism (or a dual-tissue mechanism) governs IP$_3$-mediated Ca$^{2+}$ store release

signaling in order to support long-term maintenance of PHP.

We turned again to the *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* transgene because it can be expressed in a tis-

sue-specific manner, and it conveyed a full block of PHP when dually expressed in the neuron

and muscle (Fig. 2). We expressed *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* in a GAL4 driver (neuron or muscle alone)

or a driver + *GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* null genetic background. We then quantified PHP by NMJ electrophysi-

ology, considering neuronal (Figs. 8A-C) or muscle (Figs. 8D-F) expression (Supplementary Ta-

ble S7 for summary Fig. 8 data; Raw Data Workbook for raw data). Surprisingly, we did not local-

ize the full block of PHP maintenance to a single tissue. For expression in either tissue alone,

there was still a small increase in QC in a *Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* + *GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* genetic condi-

tion, compared to control *Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expression in an unchallenged background

(Figs. 8C, F). EPSP values were depressed when *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* was expressed neuronally in

the *GluRIIA* null background (Figs. 8B, G), consistent with an important neuronal component to

PHP (Brusich et al., 2015). Combined with our prior data (Fig. 2), we conclude that the mainte-

nance of PHP can be fully erased by IP$_3$ sequestration – but only if this is done in a dual tissue

manner.

Our data indicate that IP$_3$ functions in a shared process with Ca$^{2+}$ store release. Presyn-

aptic neurotransmitter release at the NMJ and other synapses is highly sensitive to changes in

intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ concentration after influx through voltage-gated Ca$_V$2 channels. Therefore, we

checked if IP$_3$ signaling and its effects on intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ release might impinge upon the Ca$^{2+}$

sensing machinery in the presynaptic cleft, which could potentially influence PHP. We conducted

NMJ recordings over a range of low extracellular [Ca$^{2+}$] and calculated the Ca$^{2+}$ cooperativity of

release for the dual-tissue expression *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* NMJs, as well as wild-type NMJs and

GAL4 driver control NMJs. The Ca$^{2+}$ cooperativity of release was steady between the three con-

ditions (Fig. 8H, I), indicating that sequestration of cellular IP$_3$ at the NMJ does not directly alter

the Ca$^{2+}$-dependence of synaptic release at the presynaptic NMJ.

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, we divided the acute induction and chronic maintenance stages of presynaptic homeostatic potentiation. Our data support two core findings. The first is that the short-term induction and long-term maintenance of PHP are separable by genetic and pharmacological manipulations. The second is that an $IP_3$-mediated signaling system is specifically required for the maintenance of PHP (Fig. 9).

**Acute Versus Chronic PHP Expression**

For several years, one assumption has been that both the acute and chronic forms of PHP are executed in a similar way – and possibly by shared mechanisms. The issue has been clouded by the fact that both PhTox and a *GluRIIA* deletion mutant – the primary reagents utilized to induce PHP – have the same molecular target, i.e. GluRIIA-containing glutamate receptors (Frank et al., 2006; Petersen et al., 1997). The process of combining these acute and chronic forms of plasticity within a single genotypic background was cumbersome due to a lack of reagents available to conduct temporally separate targeting experiments.

Several groups ascertained insights into temporal requirements by targeting potential homeostatic signaling genes. The main finding has been that the majority of molecules identified are essential to both the acute and chronic forms of PHP (Davis and Müller, 2015; Frank, 2014a). Neurons tightly control neurotransmitter release probability, and the core presynaptic machinery directly responsible for increasing quantal content is shared. These shared components include the $Ca_V2$-type voltage-gated calcium channel or factors gating influx through the channel (Frank et al., 2006; Frank et al., 2009; Müller and Davis, 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016a; Younger et al., 2013). They also include factors that regulate the size of the readily releasable pool (RRP) of presynaptic vesicles (Harris et al., 2015; Müller et al., 2015; Müller et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2016a; Wentzel et al., 2018; Weyhersmüller et al., 2011) or factors that control the baseline excitability of the presynaptic motor neuron (Bergquist et al., 2010; Orr et al., 2017b;

Parrish et al., 2014; Younger et al., 2013) – and neurotransmitter fusion events themselves (Dick-

man and Davis, 2009; Dickman et al., 2012; Müller et al., 2011). As a result, both the acute and

chronic forms of PHP signaling cause increases in readily releasable pool (RRP) size and $Ca_V2$-

mediated calcium influx; and in turn, these presynaptic mechanisms underlie the increases in QC

which constitute PHP (Davis and Müller, 2015; Müller and Davis, 2012; Müller et al., 2012).

Here we show that although the acute and chronic processes might overlap, they are

functionally separable. The fact that they are separable is not necessarily surprising. This finding

mirrors data for discrete molecules required for long-term PHP maintenance, such as Target of

Rapamycin (TOR) (Goel et al., 2017; Kauwe et al., 2016; Penney et al., 2012), the Rho-type

guanine exchange factor Ephexin (Frank et al., 2009), the transcription factor Gooseberry (Marie

et al., 2010), C-terminal Src Kinase (Spring et al., 2016), innate immune signals molecules IMD,

IKKβ, Relish (Harris et al., 2018) and the kinesin adaptor Arl8 (Goel et al., 2019; Vukoja et al.,

2018). Importantly, this list contains molecules implicated both in neuron and muscle. We have

added PLCβ (Brusich et al., 2015) and its effectors $IP_3R$ and RyR to this list.

Recent studies have augmented the idea of overlapping signaling pathways and added a

degree of specificity. Both acute and chronic forms of PHP begin as instructive retrograde signals

in the muscle (Orr et al., 2017a), involve decrease in phosphorylation of muscle CaMKII levels,

and converge upon the same signaling components in the presynaptic neuron (Goel et al., 2017;

Li et al., 2018; Newman et al., 2017). These studies suggest that Tor converges on the same

molecular targets as acute forms of PHP (Goel et al., 2017). However, the precise roles for Tor

and CaMKII in either form of PHP are as yet unknown.

Our data appear to contradict the idea of PHP pathway convergence (Goel et al., 2017).

Yet our findings are not incompatible with this idea. Multiple lines of evidence indicate discrete

signaling requirements for acute forms of PHP on both sides of the synapse. A convergence point

is undefined. Accounting for the separation of acute and chronic forms of PHP – as well as their

discrete signaling requirements – long-term maintenance of PHP might integrate multiple signals

between the muscle and neuron over time. For future studies, it will be important to clearly define

roles of signaling systems underlying PHP and how distinct signaling systems might be linked.

**Unexpected findings about PHP stage separation**

Our work presents unexpected findings. The first is that even in the face of a chronic im-

pairment or block of homeostatic potentiation, the NMJ is nevertheless capable of a full rapid

induction of PHP (Figs. 1, 2, 7). Given that most molecules required for PHP identified to date are

needed for both phases, we did not expect significant functional separation between them. We

expected *a priori* that a failure of the chronic maintenance of PHP would make core machinery

unavailable for its acute induction. The second unexpected finding is how quickly the chronic

maintenance of PHP can be nullified by pharmacology (10 min), resulting in a return to baseline

neurotransmitter release probability after only minutes of drug exposure (Figs. 4-6). We showed

that homeostatic potentiation in *GluRIIA* mutant larvae or *GluRIII* knock-down larvae was abro-

gated by four different reagents previously known to block $IP_3R$ (Figs. 4, 5) or RyR (Fig. 6). Those

findings are reminiscent of prior work showing that acute blockade of DAG/ENaC channels with

the drug benzamil abolishes PHP in both a *GluRIIA* mutant background, as well as in the presence

of PhTox (Younger et al., 2013). A difference between benzamil application and the pharmaco-

logical agents used in our study is that the drugs we employed only abolished PHP in a chronically

challenged background.

**Does PHP induction lead to maintenance?**

It is unclear how signaling systems that drive homeostatic plasticity transition from a state

of induction to a state of maintenance. It is also not understood how interdependent short-term

and long-term HSP implementation mechanisms are. A more complete understanding of the tim-

ing and perdurance of these properties could have important implications for neurological condi-

tions where synapse stability is episodically lost (Russell et al., 2013).

Our findings parallel recent data examining active zone protein intensities in the contexts

of induction of PHP and maintenance of PHP at the NMJ. There are multiple results informative

to our study. First, the expression of any form of PHP (acute or chronic) appears to correlate with

an increased intensity of active zone protein levels, such as $Ca_V2$/Cacophony (Gratz et al., 2019),

UNC-13 (Böhme et al., 2019), and the Drosophila CAST/ELKS homolog Bruchpilot (Böhme et al.,

2019; Goel et al., 2019; Gratz et al., 2019). Unexpectedly, however, two of these studies also

reported that the rapid induction of PHP does not require this protein increase in order to be

functionally executed (Böhme et al., 2019; Goel et al., 2019). These are conundrums for future

work. How does rapid active zone remodeling happen in minutes on a mechanistic level? In the

absence of such remodeling, how PHP is still able to be induced rapidly? Moreover, is the ob-

served short-term active zone remodeling the kernel for the longer-term changes to the active

zone and release probability – or is some other signaling system triggered over long periods of

developmental time?

Our findings add a new dimension to those puzzles with the data that $IP_3$ signaling is

continuously required to maintain PHP. If active zone remodeling truly is instructive for PHP

maintenance, then it will be interesting to test what roles $IP_3$ signaling and intracellular calcium

release play in that process. Our screen did include a *UAS-RNAi* line against *unc-13* and an

upstream GPCR-encoding gene *methuselah* (Supplementary Table S2). Moreover, we previously

published a study of PHP using a *UAS-cac[RNAi]* line (Brusich et al., 2015). Chronic PHP mainte-

nance was intact for all of those manipulations. Those findings are not necessarily contradictory

to the recent work from other groups. For instance, knockdown of an active zone protein by RNAi

is not a null condition. As such, RNAi-mediated knockdown should leave residual wild-type protein

around. In theory, that residual protein could be scaled with homeostatic need.

**PLCβ- and $IP_3$-directed Signaling is Required for PHP Maintenance**

Our data strongly suggest that intracellular calcium channel activation and store release

fine tune neurotransmitter release that is implemented by PHP. The exact mechanism by which

$IP_3R$ and RyR function to maintain PHP at the NMJ is unclear. It appears to be a shared process

with $IP_3$ (Fig. 7). If these store-release channels are acting downstream of $IP_3$ activity, then our

data suggest that this would be a coordinated activity involving both the muscle and the neuron

(Figs. 8, 9) – with loss of IP$_3$ signaling in the neuron being more detrimental to evoked release

(Fig. 8G).

It remains unclear what signals are acting upstream. PLC$\beta$ is canonically activated by G$\alpha$q

signaling. From our prior work, we garnered evidence that a *Drosophila* Gq protein plays a role in

the long-term maintenance of HSP (Brusich et al., 2015). Logically, there may exist a G-protein

Coupled Receptor (GPCR) that functions upstream of PLC$\beta$/IP$_3$ signaling. Our screen did not

positively identify such a GPCR. We did examine several genes encoding GPCRs, including

*TkR86C*, *mAChR-A*, *GABA-B-R1*, *PK2-R2*, *methuselah*, *AdoR*, and *mGluR* (Supplementary Ta-

ble S2). We also examined genes encoding G$\beta$ subunits or putative scaffolding molecules, in-

cluding *CG7611* (a WD40-repeat-encoding gene), *G$\beta$13F*, and *G$\beta$76C*, again with no positive

screen hits (Supplementary Table S2).

Our data are consistent with dual pre- and postsynaptic functions of IP$_3$. This could mean

dual pre- and postsynaptic roles for calcium store release – through an undetermined combination

of RyR and IP$_3$R activities, again either pre- or postsynaptic. Both RyR and IP$_3$R have been shown

to be critical for specific aspects of neuroplasticity and neurotransmission (Berridge, 2016). Activ-

ities of both RyR and IP$_3$R can activate molecules that drive plasticity, such as Calcineurin (Victor

et al., 1995) and CaMKII (Shakiryanova et al., 2011). At rodent hippocampal synapses, electro-

physiological measures like paired-pulse facilitation and frequency of spontaneous neurotrans-

mitter release (Emptage et al., 2001) are modulated by RyR and/or IP$_3$R function, as is facilitation

of evoked neurotransmitter at the rat neocortex (Mathew and Hablitz, 2008). In addition to vesicle

fusion apparatus, activity of presynaptic voltage gated calcium channels is modulated by intracel-

lular calcium (Catterall, 2011; Lee et al., 2000). Our own work at the NMJ has shown that impairing

factors needed for store-operated calcium release can mollify hyperexcitability phenotypes

caused by gain-of-function Ca$_V$2 amino-acid substitutions (Brusich et al., 2018).

Within the presynaptic neuron, IP$_3$R and RyR could activate any number of calcium-de-

pendent molecules to propagate homeostatic signaling. We tested some candidates in our screen

(Fig. 2, Supplementary Table S2), but none of those tests blocked PHP. One possibility is that

the reagents we utilized did not sufficiently diminish the function of target molecules enough to

impact PHP in this directed screen. Detection of downstream effectors specific to muscle or neu-

ron might also be hampered by the fact that attenuation of $IP_3$ signaling in a single tissue is insuf-

ficient to abrogate PHP. Another possibility is that presynaptic store calcium efflux via $IP_3R$ and

RyR may directly potentiate neurotransmitter release, either by potentiating basal calcium levels

or synchronously with $Ca_V2$-type voltage gated calcium channels (Frank et al., 2006; Müller and

Davis, 2012).

Both pre- and postsynaptic voltage-gated calcium channels are critical for the expression

of several forms of homeostatic synaptic plasticity (Frank, 2014b). Much evidence supports the

hypothesis that store-operated channels and voltage gated calcium channels interact to facilitate

PHP. In various neuronal populations, both RyR and $IP_3R$ interact with L-type calcium channels

physically and functionally to reciprocally impact the opening of the other channel (Chavis et al.,

1996; Kim et al., 2007; Ouardouz et al., 2003). In presynaptic boutons, RyR calcium release fol-

lows action potential firing (Emptage et al., 2001). Calcium imaging experiments show that both

the acute expression and sustained maintenance of PHP requires an increase in presynaptic

calcium following an action potential (Müller and Davis, 2012). Because $IP_3Rs$ are activated by

both free calcium and $IP_3$, elevated $IP_3$ levels in the case of chronically expressed PHP could

allow $IP_3Rs$ and RyRs to open in a way that is time-locked with $Ca_V2$-mediated calcium influx or

in a way to facilitate the results of later $Ca_V2$-mediated influx.

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    **FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS**

**Figure 1: Maintenance of presynaptic homeostatic potentiation requires PLCβ, but induc-**
**tion does not.**

**(A)** *GluRIII* knockdown induces a significant decrease in quantal size for both driver control and
*Plc21C* knockdown genetic backgrounds. **(B)** EPSP amplitudes are maintained with *GluRIII*
knockdown alone but dampened with concurrent *GluRIII* and *Plc21C* knockdown. **(C)** There is
significant PHP (Presynaptic Homeostatic Potentiation, measured as an increase in quantal con-
tent) in response to *GluRIII* knockdown. **(D)** Representative electrophysiological traces of EPSPs
(above) and mEPSPs (below). The evoked events show full PHP in the *GluRIII* RNAi knock down
background and partial PHP with concurrent *Plc21C* knock down. **(E)** 10-minute incubation with
20 µM PhTox diminishes quantal size for all conditions. **(F)** EPSP amplitudes after acute PhTox
incubation are maintained at or near normal levels. **(G)** The data in (F) are because PHP is rapidly
induced in wild-type and *Plc21C* RNAi NMJs after PhTox incubation. **(H)** Representative electro-
physiological traces show fully intact PHP induction. **(I)** With dual PHP maintenance (GluRIII
knockdown) and induction (PhTox application), quantal size is further decreased. **(J)** EPSP am-
plitudes after dual maintenance and induction. **(K)** Quantal is content further increased in by
PhTox treatment in *GluRIII* RNAi synapses compared to untreated synapses; this expression of
PHP does not require full PLCβ function. **(L)** Representative electrophysiological traces illustrate
that even though PHP maintenance is impaired with PLCβ knockdown, PHP induction is not im-
paired. Violin plots have horizontal lines signifying the $0^{th}$, $25^{th}$, $50^{th}$, $75^{th}$, and $100^{th}$ percentiles of
the data distribution; the distribution itself is delineated by the shapes of the plots. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p$
$< 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by Student's T-Test versus non-challenged genetic control or by one-way
ANOVA with a Bonferroni post-hoc test in the case of comparing degree of compensation with
*GluRIII* RNAi and *Plc21C* RNAi + *GluRIII* RNAi. Scale bars for all traces are $y = 10$ mV (1 mV), $x$
$= 20$ ms (500 ms) for EPSPs (mEPSPs).

**Figure 2: IP$_3$ sequestration blocks PHP maintenance but not PHP induction.**

**(A)** Screen data, plotting baseline quantal content (QC, *x*-axis, genetic manipulation alone) versus
QC of the homeostatically challenged condition (*y*-axis, *GluRIII RNAi* or *GluRIIA* mutant). Blue =
*GluRIIA* alone. Green = *GluRIII* RNAi alone. Red = *GluRIII RNAi + UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.* Dotted line
= one standard deviation below the mean QC of *GluRIII* RNAi. **(B)** Representative electrophysio-
logical traces (EPSPs above; mEPSPs below), demonstrating diminished evoked potentials in the

*GluRIII RNAi + UAS-IP₃-sponge* (presynaptic + postsynaptic expression) condition. **(C)** *GluRIII* knockdown induces a significant decrease in quantal size for all genetic backgrounds. **(D)** EPSP amplitudes are maintained with *GluRIII* knockdown alone but significantly diminished with concurrent *GluRIII* knockdown and expression of either *UAS-IP₃-sponge line*. **(E)** By quantal content, sustained PHP expression is abolished when *UAS-IP₃-sponge* is expressed using concurrent pre- and postsynaptic GAL4 drivers. **(F)** 10-minute incubation with 20 µM PhTox diminishes quantal size for all conditions. **(G)** EPSP amplitudes after acute PhTox incubation are maintained at or near normal levels for all conditions. **(H)** Failure to sustain PHP following IP₃ sequestration does not preclude its rapid induction. The data in (G) are because PhTox treatment results in a compensatory increase in QC for conditions shown. **(I)** Representative electrophysiological traces showing full homeostatic compensation with PhTox application (as in (Frank et al., 2006)). **(J)** Representative traces of the experimental data in (F-H). Violin plots used as in Fig. 1. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by Student's T-Test versus non-challenged genetic control. Scale bars for all traces are $y$ = 10 mV (1 mV), $x$ = 20 ms (500 ms) for EPSPs (mEPSPs).

**Figure 3: IP₃ sequestration does not impair NMJ growth**

**(A-E)** NMJs were co-stained with anti-DLG (red) and anti-Synapsin antibodies (green) to visualize synaptic boutons, with anti-HRP (blue) to visualize presynaptic membranes. Genotypes or conditions as indicated. All scale bars, 10 μm. **(F)** NMJ growth was assessed by bouton counting at abdominal segments A2 and A3, muscle 6/7, based on postsynaptic DLG staining and double checked for presynaptic Synapsin. No statistically significant differences in NMJ growth versus driver control were observed for any of the experimental conditions ($p > 0.1$ vs. control, regardless of segment). **(G)** Bouton counts were normalized per unit of muscle 6/7 area. No statistically significant differences versus control were observed ($p > 0.2$ vs. control, regardless of segment). Violin plots used as in Fig. 1. For both F and G, data were compared for each segment individually using the Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons test.

**Figure 4: Xestospongin C blocks PHP maintenance but not PHP induction.**

Xestospongin C acutely applied to NMJs to impair IP₃R function. **(A)** The *GluRIIA^SP16* deletion mutation diminishes quantal size for all experimental conditions. **(B)** EPSP amplitudes are somewhat impaired versus non-*GluRIIA* control in all cases but most severely impaired when *GluRIIA* deletion is combined with 20 µM Xestospongin C incubation. **(C)** By quantal content, sustained

PHP expression is abolished with acute NMJ exposure to 20 μM Xestospongin C. **(D)** Acute in-
cubation 20 μM PhTox diminishes quantal size for all conditions (PhTox + DMSO vehicle or PhTox
+ 20 μM Xestospongin C). **(E)** EPSP amplitudes are normal or near normal for all conditions. **(F)**
Rapid PHP induction by PhTox not blocked by 20 μM Xestospongin C. **(G)** Representative elec-
trophysiological traces (EPSPs above; mEPSPs below) for 20 μM Xestospongin C (or control)
conditions in (A-F). Violin plots used as in Fig. 1. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by Student's
T-Test versus non-challenged genetic control. Scale bars for all traces are $y$ = 10 mV (1 mV), $x$ =
20 ms (500 ms) for EPSPs (mEPSPs).

**Figure 5: 2-APB blocks PHP maintenance but not PHP induction.**

2-APB acutely applied to NMJs to impair IP$_3$R function. Wild-type and *GluRIIA* control data sets
are replotted from Figure 4 for visual comparison. **(A)** The *GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* deletion mutation dimin-
ishes quantal size for all experimental conditions. **(B)** EPSP amplitudes are somewhat impaired
versus non-*GluRIIA* control in all cases but severely impaired when *GluRIIA* deletion is combined
with either 1 μM or 10 μM 2-APB incubation. **(C)** By quantal content, sustained PHP expression
is abolished with acute NMJ exposure to 1 μM or 10 μM 2-APB. **(D)** Acute incubation 20 μM
PhTox diminishes quantal size for all conditions (PhTox + DMSO vehicle or PhTox + 1 μM 2-
APB). **(E)** EPSP amplitudes are normal or near normal for all conditions. **(F)** Rapid PHP induction
by PhTox not blocked by 1 μM 2-APB. **(G)** Representative electrophysiological traces (EPSPs
above; mEPSPs below) for 10 μM 2-APB (or control) conditions in (A-C). **(H)** Representative
electrophysiological traces for 1 μM 2-APB (or control) conditions in (D-F). Violin plots used as in
Fig. 1. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by Student's T-Test versus non-challenged genetic
control. Scale bars in (G) also apply to (H) and are $y$ = 10 mV (1 mV), $x$ = 20 ms (500 ms) for
EPSPs (mEPSPs).

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1013 **Figure 6: The maintenance of PHP requires continuous RyR function, but PHP induction**
1014 **does not.**

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Ryanodine or Dantrolene acutely applied to NMJs to impair RyR function. Wild-type and *GluRIIA*
control data sets are replotted from Figures 4 and 5 for visual comparison. **(A)** The *GluRIIA$^{SP16}$*
deletion mutation diminishes quantal size for all experimental conditions. **(B)** EPSP amplitudes
are somewhat impaired versus non-*GluRIIA* control in all cases but most severely impaired when
*GluRIIA* deletion is combined with 10 μM Dantrolene. **(C)** By quantal content, sustained PHP
expression is abolished with acute NMJ exposure to 100 μM Ryanodine or 10 μM Dantrolene. **(D)**

Acute incubation 20 μM PhTox diminishes quantal size for all conditions shown. **(E)** EPSP ampli-

tudes remain near genetic control levels for all conditions with PhTox application. **(F)** Rapid PHP

induction by PhTox is intact in the presence of 10 μM Dantrolene, even when *GluRIII* has been

knocked down throughout life. **(G)** Representative electrophysiological traces for the conditions

in (D-F). Violin plots used as in Fig. 1. Statistical comparisons are by Student's T-Test vs. unchal-

lenged controls. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. Scale bars for all traces are $y$ = 10 mV (1

mV), $x$ = 20 ms (500 ms) for EPSPs (mEPSPs).

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**Figure 7: There are no additive effects of genetic IP$_3$ signaling inhibition and pharmacolog-**

**ical RyR inhibition. (A)** *GluRIII* knockdown diminishes quantal size for all experimental condi-

tions. **(B)** When challenged with *GluRIII* knockdown, EPSP amplitudes are maintained for the

GAL4 driver control background but impaired for all other experimental backgrounds. The dual

manipulation of 10 μM Dantrolene + *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* is indistinguishable from the single manip-

ulations alone. **(C)** By quantal content, sustained PHP expression is abolished with chronic IP3

sequestration, acute 10 μM Dantrolene application, or both. **(D)** Representative electrophysiolog-

ical traces for the conditions in (A-C). **(E)** Acute incubation 20 μM PhTox diminishes quantal size

for all conditions shown. **(F)** EPSP amplitudes remain near genetic control levels for all conditions

with PhTox application. There is a slight diminishment for the condition in which *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge*

is expressed and PhTox application is performed only after nerve dissection. **(G)** Full, rapid PHP

induction or partial PHP induction by PhTox is present for all conditions shown. **(H)** Representa-

tive electrophysiological traces for the conditions in (E-G). Violin plots used as in Fig. 1. Statistical

comparisons for (A-C) and for wild type vs. wild type + PhTox are by Student's T-Test vs. unchal-

lenged controls. Statistical comparisons across three data sets are by one-way ANOVA followed

by Bonferroni post-hoc test across genotypes shown. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. Scale

bars for all traces are $y$ = 10 mV (1 mV), $x$ = 20 ms (500 ms) for EPSPs (mEPSPs).

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**Figure 8: Combined pre-and postsynaptic IP$_3$ signaling maintains PHP.** *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge*

transgene expression in single tissue types impairs PHP maintenance, but does not block it. *IP$_3$-*

*sponge* either in neurons (A-C) or muscle (D-F). Wild-type and *GluRIIA* control data sets are

replotted from Figures 4-6 for visual comparison. **(A)** The *GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* deletion mutation dimin-

ishes quantal size for all experimental conditions. **(B)** EPSP amplitudes are somewhat impaired

versus non-*GluRIIA* control in all cases but most severely impaired when *GluRIIA* deletion is com-

bined with presynaptic *IP$_3$-sponge* expression. **(C)** By quantal content, sustained PHP is still pre-

sent for all conditions shown. **(D)** The *GluRIIA$^{SP16}$* deletion mutation diminishes quantal size for

all experimental conditions. **(E)** EPSP amplitudes are somewhat impaired versus non-*GluRIIA*

control. **(F)** By quantal content, sustained PHP is still present for all conditions shown. **(G)** Representative electrophysiological traces for conditions in (A-F). **(H)** *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* transgene expression does not impair calcium cooperativity of release. **(I)** Representative electrophysiological trances for conditions in (H). Violin plots used as in Fig. 1. Statistical comparisons are by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-hoc test across genotypes shown. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. Scale bars in (G) apply to all traces in (G) and (I) and are $y = 10$ mV (1 mV), $x = 20$ ms (500 ms) for EPSPs (mEPSPs).

**Figure 9. Model depicting PLCβ/IP3R/RyR signaling underling the maintenance of PHP in both muscle and neuron.** At the *Drosophila* NMJ, PLCβ and effectors IP$_3$R and RyR are required for the maintenance of HSP. Left: PLCβ signaling components depicted in both muscle and neuron at the *Drosophila* NMJ. We detected no apparent role for PLCβ, IP$_3$R, or RyR in baseline neurotransmission. Right: Reduced postsynaptic glutamate receptor function – either due to deletion of the *GluRIIA* gene or expression of *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* – drives a chronic form of PHP that is maintained throughout life. A retrograde, muscle-to-nerve signal instructs the neuron to increase the number of neurotransmitter vesicles released (quantal content). Our data support a model in which long-term maintenance of PHP requires PLCβ and its effectors in both the presynaptic neuron and postsynaptic muscle, but these factors are dispensable for the rapid induction of PHP.

**Supplementary Tables S1-S7. Summary Electrophysiological Data.** Genotypes and rearing conditions for electrophysiological data presented in the study (corresponding figures specified). For GAL4 drivers, "*Pre + Post-Gal4*" denotes a genetic combination of *elaV(C155)-Gal4/Y; Sca-Gal4/+; BG57-Gal4/+* (see Materials and Methods). Average values ± SEM are presented for each electrophysiological parameter, with $n$ = number of NMJs recorded. Values include miniature excitatory postsynaptic potential (mEPSP) amplitude, mEPSP frequency (Freq), excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) amplitude, quantal content (QC), and QC corrected for non-linear summation (NLS). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by Student's T-Test vs. unchallenged control.

**Supplementary File. Raw Data Workbook.** Microsoft Excel format. Each tab corresponds to a figure in the paper. Raw data for individual measures in the manuscript. An exception is the screen data for Figure 2. Those data are summarized in Supplementary Table S2. Eelectrophsyiologial measures shown for individual NMJ recordings include the same measures summarized in Tables S1-S7, with the addition of resting membrane potential (RMP), which allows for calculation of QC

1092    corrected for non-linear summation. Synapse growth measures are shown in the tab for Figure 3,

1093    and include bouton counts, muscle area ($\mu m^2$), and boutons per $\mu m^2$.