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Title: Maintenance of homeostatic plasticity at the Drosophila neuromuscular junction 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 (HSP) impart stability at synapses by countering destabilizing perturbations. The *Drosophila melanogaster* larval neuromuscular junction (NMJ) is a model synapse with robust expression of HSP. 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 HSP. 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 synapse or circuit function. Hebbian forms of neuroplasticity are generally thought to promote destabilizing changes to synaptic function. Decades of research has resulted in a large amount 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). By contrast, less is understood about homeostatic forms of neuroplasticity, which work to stabilize synapse function and keep overall activity levels within an acceptable physiological range (Davis, 2006; Davis and Müller, 2015; Pozo and Goda, 2010; Turrigiano, 2017). For homeostatic plasticity, it is generally thought that coordinated actions of both 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 examples, the time course of the implementation homeostatic signaling 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 fast scaling mechanisms to be mobilized if multiple synaptic sites are concurrently inhibited (Sutton et al., 2006). For the NMJ, homeostatic signaling can be implemented after a short-term challenge to synapse function (Frank et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2016b), but it is also chronically maintained for extended developmental time in the face of long-term challenges to synapse function (Cull-Candy et al., 1980; Davis et al., 1998; DiAntonio et al., 1999; Petersen et al., 1997; Plomp et al., 1992). It is unclear how signaling systems that drive HSP

transition from a state of induction to a state of maintenance. It is also not understood how inter-dependent short-term and long-term HSP implementation mechanisms are. A more complete understanding of these fundamental properties of synaptic homeostasis could have important implications for neurological conditions where synapse stability is episodically lost (Russell et al., 2013).

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 the Drosophila 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).

As part of our goal to understand how PHP is maintained, we previously identified *Plc21C* (Brusich et al., 2015). *Plc21C* encodes a Drosophila Phospholipase Cβ (PLCβ) homolog known to be neuronally expressed (Shortridge et al., 1991), and recent ribosomal profiling data also indicates 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_3R)

and Ryanodine receptor (Drosophila RyR) as being part of the same signaling process to maintain

PHP. Yet neither PLCβ, nor IP_3R, nor RyR were required for the rapid induction of PHP. Addition-

ally, we found that the rapid induction of PHP is still possible in synapses already sustaining PHP.

In other words, NMJs can respond to acute impairments while already compensating for chronic

impairments by further potentiating neurotransmitter release. Surprisingly, we also found that

NMJs are capable of rapidly inducing PHP – even when the sustained expression of PHP is al-

ready blocked by impairments in PLCβ, IP_3R, or RyR signaling. Taken together, our data show

that the induction and maintenance of PHP are separable. Even though there is compelling evi-

dence that 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 pre-

pared 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 (as indicated) 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 directly provided by Drs. Masayuki Ko-

ganezawa 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, numerous *UAS-RNAi* or genetic mutant lines were

obtained either from the BDSC or the Vienna Drosophila Stock Center (VDRC, Vienna, Austria).

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. 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

electrode recordings of miniature excitatory postsynaptic potentials (mEPSPs) and excitatory

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

Spring et al., 2016; Yeates and Frank, 2017). 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).

Pharmacological agents were bath applied at 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)

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 and Frank, 2017). Briefly, filleted larvae were fixed

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

incubated 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 immunostain neuronal

membranes. Larval preparations were mounted in Vectashield (Vector Laboratories) and imaged

at room temperature 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 iden-

tical acquisition settings, and analyzed 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.

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 started this study by repeating a subset of those

experiments. We utilized 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 that re-

duces quantal size (Brusich et al., 2015). *Pre- + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* NMJs have

decreased quantal size compared to controls and an offsetting, homeostatic increase in quantal

content (QC, Fig. 1A) that keeps excitatory postsynaptic potentials (EPSPs) at control levels (Fig.

1B; Supplementary Table S1 for Fig. 1 electrophysiological data). By contrast, concurrent knock-

down 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. There is a small QC

increase compared to baseline (Fig. 1A), but this QC increase is blunted, resulting in evoked

potentials that are significantly smaller than controls (Fig. 1B; Supplementary Table S1). These

data are consistent with the prior results (Brusich et al., 2015).

We extended this work to test if *Plc21C* gene knock down blocks or impairs the acute

induction of PHP. 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). For acute in-

duction of PHP, 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. Acute

PhTox application decreased quantal size for both wild-type and *Plc21C* knockdown NMJs (Fig.

1C) (Frank et al., 2006). For both genotypes, evoked potentials remained steady in the presence

of PhTox because there was a significant, compensatory increase in quantal content (Figs. 1C,

D). These data suggested that partial loss of *Plc21C* gene function is not a sufficient condition to

block the rapid induction of PHP.

The acute induction of PHP and the long-term maintenance of PHP are genetically sepa-

rable by *Plc21C* knock down. This result mirrors data for other homeostatic maintenance signaling

molecules, such as Target of Rapamycin (TOR) (Goel et al., 2017; Kauwe et al., 2016; Penney

et al., 2012) and C-terminal Src Kinase (Spring et al., 2016). Because these temporal phases of

PHP are genetically separable by the loss of specific molecules, we next asked whether the ca-

pacity to maintain PHP for long periods of developmental time is required for its rapid induction.

Our first step was to test if PHP could be rapidly induced in a synapse already chronically

sustaining homeostatic potentiation. The most commonly employed modes of inducing PHP at

the Drosophila NMJ are a lifelong, genetic $GluRIIA^{SP16}$ null mutation (Petersen et al., 1997) and

acute PhTox application (Frank et al., 2006). For both cases, mEPSP amplitudes are decreased

and QC is increased helping to maintain evoked potentials at (or near) normal levels. PhTox tar-

gets the function of GluRIIA-containing receptors; adding PhTox to a $GluRIIA^{SP16}$ null background

does not further decrease quantal size (Frank et al., 2006). This presents a difficulty in testing

whether additional PHP can be acutely induced in a chronic glutamate receptor loss genetic con-

dition already sustaining PHP. We reasoned that applying PhTox to *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* knock

down synapses could circumvent this limitation. At these synapses, partial loss of the essential

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 chal-

lenge.

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

in mEPSP amplitude – significantly below the quantal size amplitude recorded for *UAS-*

GluRIII[RNAi] alone (Figs. 1E, F). In response, we also observed an offsetting increase in QC

(Figs. 1E, F). 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 pre-

clude acute induction of PHP. PhTox treatment applied to NMJs simultaneously expressing both

UAS-GluRIII[RNAi] and *Plc21C[RNAi]* constructs induced a significant decrease in mEPSP am-

plitude relative to non-PhTox-treated control synapses (Figs. 1E, F). Yet we also observed a sig-

nificant increase in QC (i.e. PHP induction) which kept evoked NMJ potentials unchanged from

their non-PhTox levels, which were depressed due to the impairment of PHP maintenance (Figs.

1E, F). These data suggest that successful acute PHP induction does not require intact PHP

maintenance.

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 examined possible targets by electrophysiological screening. Based on

the canonical signaling functions of PLCβ, we conducted a small screen, targeting molecules such

as PKC, CaMKII, Unc-13, as well several potential G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). We

also tested molecules implicated in intracellular calcium signaling or synaptic ion channel function.

We used a screening paradigm we had previously designed in order to find factors needed

for the maintenance of PHP: combining pre- and postsynaptic GAL4 expression with *UAS-*

GluRIII[RNAi] (Brusich et al., 2015). We targeted most factors for this screen using either *UAS-*

gene misexpression or *UAS-gene[RNAi]* constructs. We also utilized available loss-of-function

mutations. For an additional screening condition for some of those mutations we also constructed

double mutant lines with a *GluRIIA^{SP16}* null deletion allele (Petersen et al., 1997). For any screen

test, two conditions were analyzed: a baseline neurotransmission condition (e.g., GAL4 + genetic

manipulation alone) and a homeostatically challenged condition (e.g., GAL4 + genetic manipula-

tion + *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]*). Any homeostatically 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 raw electrophysiological data from the screen). The

relative QC values for the screen are shown (Fig. 2A) and plotted as "% baseline", indicating how

much of a QC change the *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* challenge yielded. We set the 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).

Of the 28 manipulations, only two failed to significantly increase QC upon homeostatic

challenge (Fig. 2A, red). In both cases, the screened target molecule was inositol 1,4,5-triphos-

phate (IP$_3$). IP$_3$ is a second-messenger signaling molecule. PLCβ cleaves the phospholipid PIP$_2$

into soluble IP$_3$ and membrane-bound diacylglycerol (DAG). We were able to target cellular IP$_3$

signaling 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 two dif-

ferent *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* transgenes both completely blocked the long-term expression of PHP

(Fig. 2B). This resulted in significantly smaller EPSP amplitudes in the *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* PHP-

challenge genetic background. (Fig. 2C).

We utilized the full block of sustained PHP afforded by *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* expression to

further test the relationship between the rapid induction of PHP and its long-term expression. 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 significant decrease in mEPSP amplitude compared to non-PhTox controls, and yet they still

had a robust increase in QC (Fig. 2D-F). 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-IP$_3$-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. 2D-F). Specifi-

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

PhTox-treated synapses expressing both *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* and *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge*, but an offset-

ting increase in QC. As expected for this genetic background, the evoked event amplitudes did

not recover to full wild-type levels (Figs. 2E, F). However, evoked amplitudes did return to levels

returned recorded in non-PhTox treated synapses, indicating successful induction of PHP in a

genetic background unable to sustain PHP throughout development (Fig. 2E).

Chronic expression of the *UAS-IP$_3$-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 employed immunofluorescence microscopy, co-immunostaining third

instar larval Drosophila NMJs with anti-Synapsin (Syn, presynaptic vesicles), anti-Discs Large

(Dlg, postsynaptic density), and anti-Horseradish Peroxidase (HRP, presynaptic membrane) an-

tibodies. 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 wild-type control) in bouton number for any con-

dition, for either segment A2 or A3 – including the genetic background where we co-expressed

UAS-IP3-sponge and *UAS-GluRIII[RNAi]* (Fig. 3F). These data indicate that when IP_3 is seques-

tered, NMJ undergrowth is not causal for the PHP block.

Pharmacology targeting IP_3 receptors uncouples the induction and maintenance of PHP

Having identified *UAS-IP₃-sponge* as a reagent capable of blocking the long-term mainte-

nance of PHP, we next tested if the temporal requirements of PHP (induction vs. maintenance)

could be also be uncoupled by disrupting Drosophila IP_3 receptor function (Itpr in Drosophila,

herein IP_3R). IP_3Rs are generally localized to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and canonically

function by mediating calcium efflux from internal stores (Berridge, 1984, 1987). ER has long been

known to localize throughout the neuronal soma in Drosophila (including synapses) (Summerville

et al., 2016), and recent studies have implicated ER resident proteins in the execution of PHP at

the Drosophila NMJ (Genç et al., 2017; Kikuma et al., 2017). To target IP_3Rs, we turned to phar-

macology, using two reagents known to impair IP_3R function: Xestospongin C and 2-APB (2-

Aminoethoxydiphenyl Borate) and applying 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_3Rs (Gafni et al., 1997; Wilcox et al., 1998). It also acts

indirectly by inhibiting SERCA, which could lead to depletion of intracellular calcium stores

(Castonguay and Robitaille, 2002). Xestospongin C has been previously shown to inhibit Dro-

sophila IP_3Rs (Vazquez-Martinez et al., 2003). By electrophysiology, *GluRIIA^SP16* null mutant

NMJs showed a marked homeostatic increase in QC due to long-term maintenance of PHP (Fig.

4A) (Petersen et al., 1997). *GluRIIA^SP16* NMJ preparations acutely treated with 20 μM Xestospon-

gin C (10 minutes) displayed the expected decrease in mEPSP amplitude compared to controls

(Fig. 4A), but these drug-treated NMJs failed to show an increase in QC (Supplementary Table

S3 for Fig. 4 electrophysiology data). Thus, not only did Xestospongin C induce a block of PHP

maintenance, but it was capable of extinguishing this long-term maintenance process on a time-

scale of minutes. Importantly, 20 μM Xestospongin C did not impair baseline neurotransmission

in a wild-type background (Fig. 4B). Additionally, in the *GluRIIA* null background, neither a lower

dose (5 µM Xestospongin C) nor vehicle application alone inhibited PHP (Fig. 4A).

2-APB is a membrane-permeable drug that has variable pharmacological effects. It is

known to impair IP$_3$R (Diver et al., 2001; Maruyama et al., 1997). However, 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). We employed 2-APB as a second pharmacological agent to target

IP$_3$Rs. If continuous IP$_3$R function were required for the maintenance PHP at NMJs, we reasoned

that acute application of 2-APB (as with Xestospongin C) should also extinguish this form of neu-

roplasticity. We found that application of either 1 µM or 10 µM 2-APB to *GluRIIA^{SP16}* null NMJs

resulted in a failure to increase QC compared to drug-treated wild-type controls (Fig. 4C; vehicle

control same as in Fig. 4A), resulting in small evoked events for the drug-treated *GluRIIA^{SP16}*

NMJs (Fig. 4D).

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

ent way (Fig. 4D; Supplementary Table S3). This potentiation likely means that 2-APB had off-

target effects at the NMJ in addition to IP$_3$Rs. However, taken together, our pharmacological data

show that with acute drug application, it is possible to erase a lifelong, *GluRIIA^{SP16}*-induced long-

term maintenance of PHP. The fact that this can be done with known IP$_3$R inhibitors suggests that

the maintenance of PHP requires continuous IP$_3$R function.

Finally, we tested if the same acute drug application conditions could block the PhTox-

induced rapid induction of PHP. We applied 20 μM PhTox to wild-type NMJs, concurrently with

either 20 μM Xestospongin C or 1 μM 2-APB. We found that neither Xestospongin C nor 2-APB

treatment disrupted the rapid induction of PHP following PhTox application to wild-type synapses

(Fig. 4E). As a result, evoked potentials remained at normal levels (Fig. 4F). Collectively, our

experiment demonstrate that acute pharmacological perturbations targeting IP$_3$Rs uncouple the short-term induction and the long-term maintenance of PHP.

Pharmacology targeting Ryanodine Receptors uncouples the induction and maintenance of PHP

In conjunction with IP$_3$ receptors, Ryanodine receptors (RyRs) also mediate release of calcium from ER stores (Berridge, 1998; Simkus and Stricker, 2002), and 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 experiments executed with the IP$_3$R pharmacological blockade – this time targeting Drosophila RyRs by utilizing Ryanodine (Murmu et al., 2010) or Dantrolene (Vazquez-Martinez et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2001) at concentrations previously reported to block RyRs. We acquired similar results as with IP$_3$R blockade. We found that acute application of either 100 µM Ryanodine or 10 µM Dantrolene to *GluRIIA* null NMJ preparations resulted in failure of PHP maintenance. QC did not increase for the homeostatically challenged condition (*GluRIIA* + drug) versus the unchallenged condition (wild-type + drug) (Fig. 5A; Supplementary Table S4 for Fig. 5 electrophysiology data).

We next tested whether RyR inhibition could block the rapid induction of PHP. As was the case with IP$_3$R inhibition, acute application of 10 µM Dantrolene to PhTox-treated NMJs did not disrupt the short-term induction of PHP (Figs. 5B, C). Moreover, 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. 1E, F). In this double-challenge condition, addition of 10 µM Dantrolene still left the rapid induction portion of PHP intact (Figs. 5B, C). 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.

In some tissues, RyR is activated by IP_3R-mediated Ca^{2+} release, in a signaling process

that has been termed Calcium-Induced Calcium Release (CICR) (Berridge, 1998). Since IP_3Rs

and RyRs have been placed together in CICR signaling processes in other systems, we wished

to test if IP_3 signaling and RyR functions might support the maintenance of PHP at the Drosophila

NMJ via a single signaling pathway. If this were the case, the expectation would be that a dual

block of PHP (consisting of IP_3 sequestration + RyR pharmacological blockade) would not de-

press quantal content below either individual manipulation.

The chronic *GluRIII[RNAi]*-expression condition is amenable both to pharmacology and

dual-tissue (*Pre-* + *Post-Gal4*) *UAS-IP₃-sponge* expression. As expected from before (Figs. 2, 5),

both 10 μM Dantrolene application on *GluRIII[RNAi]* NMJs and *UAS-IP₃-sponge* expression in a

GluRIII[RNAi] background blocked the long-term maintenance of PHP (Figs. 5D, E). This resulted

in evoked EPSP events that were blunted compared to *GluRIII[RNAi]* alone controls (Fig. 5E).

Interestingly, when we combined dantrolene application and *UAS-IP₃-sponge* expression in the

GluRIII[RNAi] background, the PHP impairment was indistinguishable from the impairment elic-

ited by Dantrolene alone or *UAS-IP₃-sponge* alone (Figs. 5D, E). These 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 pathway (Fig. 5D).

376   Neuron and muscle IP_3 signaling both contribute to long-term homeostatic potentiation

Insofar, none of the genetic or pharmacological manipulations impairing PHP 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).

Taken alone, this result suggests a neuronal component to this signaling system for PHP mainte-

nance. Further experiments are needed to draw conclusions. We wished to understand whether

a pre- or postsynaptic mechanism (or a dual-tissue mechanism) governs the Ca^{2+} store release

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

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

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 control (neuron or muscle alone)

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

ology, considering neuronal (Fig. 6A) or muscle (Fig. 6B) expression (Supplementary Table S5

for Fig. 6 electrophysiology data). Surprisingly, for both tissues alone, there was an small increase

in QC in a *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* + *GluRIIA^{SP16}* genetic condition, compared to control *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge*

expression in an unchallenged background (Figs. 6A, B). Even though there was partial QC com-

pensation, evoked EPSP values were depressed versus controls when *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* was ex-

pressed neuronally (Fig. 6C). Combined with our prior data (Fig. 2), we conclude that the mainte-

nance of PHP can only be fully erased with a dual-tissue inhibition of IP$_3$ signaling (Fig. 7).

Our data indicate that IP$_3$ functions in a pathway with Ca^{2+} store release (Fig. 5). 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

needed to check 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 additional NMJ recordings over a range of low extracellular [Ca^{2+}] (0.2-0.5 mM) 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 re-

mained unchanged between the three conditions (Fig. 6D), 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

We divide expression of a homeostatic signaling paradigm into acute induction and chronic maintenance stages. Two factors that govern the expression of these stages of PHP are the nature of an 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). Our study has 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.

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.

Some insights into temporal requirements have been ascertained by testing potential homeostatic signaling genes these two reagents, PhTox and *GluRIIA* mutant. 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; 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 (Dickman 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 largely overlap, they are functionally distinct. The fact that the short-term induction of PHP and the long-term maintenance of PHP are separable is not necessarily surprising. This finding is consistent with a growing body of work showing that discrete genetic manipulations that only block a chronic implementation of PHP. Collectively, the data indicate that the rapid induction of PHP uses a subset of the molecules required to sustain PHP. Surprisingly, both sides of the synapse express molecules dispensable for the rapid induction of HSP. Some of the proteins specifically required to sustain PHP include neuronal factors like the Rho-type guanine exchange factor Ephexin (Frank et al., 2009), as well as the transcription factor Gooseberry (Marie et al., 2010) and muscle-specific factors like C-terminal Src kinase and Src family kinase members (Spring et al., 2016), as well as Target of Rapamycin (Tor) and its effector molecules (Goel et al., 2017; Kauwe et al., 2016; Penney et al., 2012). We have added PLCβ (Brusich et al., 2015) and its effectors IP_3R and RyR to the list of molecules required only for sustaining PHP.

A new series of studies have augmented the idea of overlapping signaling pathways and added a degree of specificity. Recent data suggest that both acute and chronic forms of PHP

begin as instructive retrograde signals in the muscle (Orr et al., 2017a), involve decrease in phos-

phorylation 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 experiments

also show 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.

PHP Stage Separation

Our new data delineating a separation of the short-term induction of a homeostatic signal-

ing process and its long-term maintenance appear to contradict the idea of PHP pathway conver-

gence. Yet our findings are not necessarily contradictory to the published studies. Multiple lines

of evidence indicate discrete signaling requirements for acute forms of PHP on both sides of the

synapse. Although it is inferred that there is a single synaptic point of convergence (Goel et al.,

2017), this postsynaptic (or presynaptic) mechanistic convergence point is undefined. Accounting

for the separation of acute and chronic forms of PHP, as well as their discrete signaling require-

ments, these might require more than a single convergence point – or it might indicate that long-

term maintenance of PHP might actually integrate multiple signals between the muscle and neu-

ron over time. It will be important to clearly define roles of signaling systems underlying PHP in

future studies – and how distinct signaling systems might be linked.

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

block of homeostatic potentiation, the NMJ is nevertheless capable of a rapid induction (Fig. 2F).

Given that most molecules identified to date are required for both phases, we did not expect

significant functional separation between the phases. Instead, we had expected *a priori* that a

failure of the chronic maintenance of PHP would make core machinery unavailable for its acute

induction. Despite increasing quantal content, evoked event amplitude was only restored to inter-

mediate levels seen in non-PhTox treated synapses rather than wild type levels. These findings

point to a failure to properly integrate information from PHP maintenance and induction pathways.

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 prob-

ability after only minutes of drug exposure (Figs. 4,5). Specifically, in this study, we showed that

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

by four different reagents previously known to block RyR (Fig. 5) or IP_3R (Fig. 4), and quantal

content remained to levels seen in drug-treated wild-type larvae. That finding is 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). Yet the difference between benzamil application and the pharmacological agents used in

our study is that the drugs we employed only abolished PHP in a chronically challenged back-

ground. Together, these studies show that chronically expressed PHP does not alter baseline

neurotransmission properties. Rather it supplements baseline neurotransmission levels. This in-

dicates that the sustained expression of PHP likely continuously adjusts neurotransmission re-

lease independent of mechanisms which set baseline parameters.

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 pathway

with IP_3 (Fig. 5). 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. 6, 7) – with loss of IP_3 signaling in the neuron being more detrimental to evoked release

(Fig. 6C).

Interestingly, both RyR and IP_3R have previously been shown to be critical for specific

aspects of neuroplasticity and neurotransmission (Berridge, 2016). Moreover, both activities of

both RyR and IP_3R can activate neuronal molecules that drive plasticity, such as calcineurin

(Victor et al., 1995) and CaMKII (Shakiryanova et al., 2011). By ways of example, at rodent hip-

pocampal synapses, properties like paired pulse facilation, frequency of spontaneous neuro-

transmitter release (Emptage et al., 2001) are all 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 intracellular calcium (Catterall, 2011; Lee et al., 2000).

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

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

our screen (Fig. 2, Supplementary Table S2), and none of those discrete tests blocked PHP. One

possibility is that the reagents we utilized did not sufficiently diminish the function of target mole-

cules enough to impact PHP in this directed screen. Another possibility is that calcium release via

IP$_3$R and RyR may directly potentiate neurotransmitter release, either by potentiating basal cal-

cium levels or synchronously with Ca$_V$2-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$_3$R 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$_3$Rs are activated by

both free calcium and IP$_3$, elevated IP$_3$ levels in the case of chronically expressed PHP could

allow IP$_3$Rs and RyRs to open in a way that is time-locked with Ca$_V$2-mediated calcium influx or

in a way to facilitate the results of later Ca$_V$2-mediated influx.

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Figure 1: The maintenance of presynaptic homeostatic potentiation requires PLCβ, but the
induction does not.

(A) *GluRIII* knockdown induces a significant decrease in quantal size and robust PHP (increase
in quantal content) in response. This PHP response is partly impaired by concurrent *Plc21C*
knockdown. **(B)** Representative electrophysiological traces of EPSPs (above) and mEPSPs (be-
low). The evoked events show full PHP in the *GluRIII* RNAi knock down background, but only
partial PHP with concurrent *Plc21C* knock down. **(C)** PHP is rapidly induced in wild-type and
Plc21C RNAi larvae after a 10-minute incubation with 20 µM PhTox. Values are normalized to
non-PhTox treated larvae of identical genotype. **(D)** Representative electrophysiological traces
(as in (B)) showing intact PHP induction. **(E)** Dual activation of PHP maintenance and induction
does not require PLCβ. mEPSP is further decreased and quantal content further increased in by
PhTox treatment in *GluRIII* RNAi synapses compared to untreated synapses. Data on bar graphs
are mean ± SEM. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ 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).

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819   **Figure 2: IP$_3$ sequestration blocks PHP maintenance but not PHP induction.**
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(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)** Expression of either *UAS-IP$_3$-*
sponge line resulted in a failure to sustain PHP. Values normalized to genetic control containing
the same drivers and *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* transgene but lacking the *GluRIII RNAi* construct. **(C)** Rep-
resentative electrophysiological traces (EPSPs above; mEPSPs below), demonstrating signifi-
cantly diminished evoked potentials in the *GluRIII RNAi* + *UAS-IP$_3$-sponge* condition due to a lack
of PHP. **(D)** Failure to sustain PHP following IP$_3$ sequestration does not preclude its rapid induc-
tion. PhTox treatment results in significantly decreased mEPSP amplitude and a compensatory
increase in QC. Bar graph values normalized to non-PhTox-treated controls of identical genotype.
(E) Representative electrophysiological traces showing full homeostatic compensation with
PhTox application (as in (Frank et al., 2006)). **(F)** Representative traces of the experimental data
in (D). Data on bar graphs are mean ± SEM. * *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. 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. By bouton counts, no statistically significant difference in NMJ growth versus control was observed for any of the experimental conditions. Counts were compared for each segment using the Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons test. An overall difference in counts was detected for segment A2 ($p < 0.05$ for ANOVA), but no condition differed significantly from driver control (all $p > 0.1$ vs. control). No significant differences were detected for segment A3.

857 Figure 4: The maintenance of PHP requires continuous IP₃R function, but the induction
858 does not.

(A) Acute NMJ application of Xestospongin C blocked PHP maintenance. Values normalized to
identically treated, wild-type NMJ levels. Vehicle (DMSO) concentration equal to that used with
20 µM Xestospongin C. **(B)** Representative electrophysiological traces (EPSPs above; mEPSPs
below) for conditions in (A). For 20 µM Xestospongin C application in a *GluRIIA* mutant back-
ground, EPSPs failed to achieve *GluRIIA* mutant NMJ levels because of a lack of sustained PHP.
(C) Acute NMJ application of 2-APB application blocked PHP maintenance. Values normalized to
identically treated, wild-type NMJ levels. Vehicle is DMSO, as in (A). **(D)** Representative electro-
physiological traces (EPSPs above; mEPSPs below) for conditions in (C). For 10 µM 2-APB ap-
plication in a *GluRIIA* mutant background, EPSPs failed to achieve *GluRIIA* mutant NMJ levels
because of a lack of sustained PHP. **(E)** Acute induction of PHP following PhTox treatment was
not blocked by Xestospongin C or 2-APB. Values normalized to otherwise identical controls, with-
out PhTox. **(F)** Representative electrophysiological traces (EPSPs above; mEPSPs below) for
conditions in (E). Data on bar graphs are mean ± SEM. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ 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).

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Figure 5: The maintenance of PHP requires continuous RyR function, but the induction does not.

(A) Acute NMJ application of either Ryanodine or Dantrolene blocked PHP maintenance. Values normalized to identically treated, wild-type NMJs. **(B)** By contrast, acute application of PhTox and Dantrolene left the acute induction of PHP intact. This acute induction of PHP was also intact in a *GluRIII* knockdown RNAi genetic background. Values normalized to levels identical genotypes without PhTox treatment. **(C)** Representative electrophysiological traces (EPSPs above; mEPSPs below) for the conditions in (B) showing intact PHP induction. **(D)** The molecular targets of Dantrolene and *IP₃-sponge* constitute a common pathway for the maintenance of PHP. Both treatments block PHP maintenance in a *GluRIII RNAi* genetic background but do not exert an additive effect. Values normalized to treated, non-*GluRIII* genetic control. **(E)** Representative electrophysiological traces for the conditions in (D). Data on bar graphs are mean ± SEM. QC analyzed by Student's t-Test vs. unchallenged controls (A, B) or across parallel conditions by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-hoc test (D). mEPSP amplitude analyzed with Student's t-test versus treated, non-*GluRIII* genetic 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).

Figure 6: Combined pre-and postsynaptic IP$_3$ signaling maintains PHP.
(A-B) *IP$_3$-sponge* expression in single tissues (neuron or muscle) impairs PHP maintenance, but does not block it. For (A), NMJ electrophysiology data for neuronal *IP$_3$-sponge* expression driven by *elaV(C155)-Gal4.* For (B), NMJ electrophysiology data for muscle *IP$_3$-sponge* expression driven by *BG57-Gal4.* **(C)** Representative electrophysiological traces (EPSPs above; mEPSPs below) for the conditions in (A) and (B). **(D)** The calcium cooperativity of release is unaffected at the NMJ in the context of dual-tissue *IP$_3$-sponge* expression (linear regression analysis). Data on bar graphs are mean ± SEM. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-hoc test across genotypes shown. Scale bars for all traces are y = 10 mV (1 mV), x = 20 ms (500 ms) for EPSPs (mEPSPs).

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913
914 **Figure 7. Model depicting PLCβ/IP3R/RyR signaling underling the maintenance of PHP in**
915 **both muscle and neuron.**
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At the Drosophila NMJ, PLCβ and downstream effectors IP_3R 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, IP3R, 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]*, initiates PHP. 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

Supplementary Tables S1-S5. Raw 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 Table S1

FIGURE 1								
Gene	Reagent	mEPSP (mV)	mEPSP freq. (Hz)	EPSP (mV)	V_m (mV)	QC	NLSC QC	n
Driver control	*Pre + Post-Gal4*	0.83 ± 0.03	1.0 ± 0.1	40.4 ± 1.4	-69.0 ± 1.2	48.6 ± 1.1	100.2 ± 3.7	13
PhTox + Driver control	*Pre + Post-Gal4* >> + PhTox	0.59 ± 0.04	0.5 ± .01	40.5 ± 1.0	-67.0 ± 0.9	70.5 ± 4.3 ***	150.6 ± 10.7 ***	11
GluRIII	*Pre + Post-Gal4* >> *UAS-GluRIII RNAi/+*	0.64 ± 0.03	0.4 ± 0.0	37.5 ± 1.2	-70.1 ± 1.2	58.9 ± 2.1 *** (vs. Driver control)	110.6 ± 5.7	13
GluRIII	*Pre + Post-Gal4* >> *UAS-GluRIII RNAi/+* + PhTox	0.37 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.0	29.6 ± 1.0	-65.8 ± 0.8	80.1 ± 3.5 *** (vs. *GluRIII* alone)	133.2 ± 7.6	15
wild type		0.78 ± 0.02	2.0 ± 0.1	36.6 ± 0.7	-67.1 ± 0.6	48.3 ± 1.3	93.3 ± 3.0	57
wild type	+ PhTox	0.53 ± 0.02	0.8 ± 0.1	33.3 ± 0.7	-64.4 ± 0.3	65.1 ± 2.8 ***	119.7 ± 6.3 ***	24
PLC21C (*GluRIII* cont)	*Pre + Post-Gal4* >> GD11359	0.80 ± 0.04	1.3 ± 0.1	34.9 ± 1.4	-67.4 ± 1.4	44.7 ± 2.8	83.7 ± 6.9	14
PLC21C	*Pre + Post-Gal4* >> GD11359/+ GluRIII RNAi/+	0.55 ± 0.01	0.3 ± 0.0	29.6 ± 1.0	-66.0 ± 0.7	53.9 ± 0.5 * (vs. *Plc21C RNAi*)	89.4 ± 5.0	17
PLC21C	*Pre + Post-Gal4* >> GD11359/+ GluRIII RNAi/+ + PhTox	0.42 ± 0.01	0.2 ± 0.1	27.3 ± 1.7	-64.9 ± 1.2	64.9 ± 4.1 * (vs. *Plc21C* + GluRIII RNAi)	105.1 ± 10.4	11
PLC21C (PhTox cont)	*Pre + Post-Gal4* >> GD11359	0.80 ± 0.04	0.7 ± 0.1	31.6 ± 0.9	-66.0 ± 0.9	40.6 2.0 ***	69.8 ± 6.5	14
PLC21C	*Pre + Post-Gal4* >> GD11359/+ + PhTox	0.51 ± 0.01	0.3 ± 0.1	30.9 ± 1.7	-66.5 ± 0.9	61.1 ± 3.7 ***	106.8 ± 9.5 **	14

Supplementary Table S2

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<th>Gene</th>
<th>Reagent</th>
<th>mEPSP (mV)</th>
<th>mEPSP freq. (Hz)</th>
<th>EPSP (mV)</th>
<th>V_m (mV)</th>
<th>QC</th>
<th>NLSC QC</th>
<th>n</th>
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	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> GD 13785 GluRIII RNAi	0.54 ± 0.02	0.3 ± 0.0	34.5 ± 1.4	-69.3 ± 1.7	64.7 ± 0.7	115.6 ± 2.6	16
TkR86C	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF02160*	1.00 ± 0.06	0.4 ± 0.1	36.7 ± 2.0	-66.7 ± 0.8	38.5 ± 3.6	77.5 ± 9.8	10
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> GluRIII RNAi/ *TRiP.JF02160*	0.78 ± 0.02	0.3 ± 0.0	41.2 ± 1.1	-66.9 ± 1.5	52.6 ± 2.0 **	113.9 ± 5.7 **	8
mAChR-A	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.HMC02343*	0.97 ± 0.03	1.1 ± 0.2	37.1 ± 1.1	-66.3 ± 0.6	38.7 ± 1.5	76.2 ± 4.2	14
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.HMC02343 + GluRIII RNAi	0.71 ± 0.03	0.1 ± 0.0	34.1 ± 1.5	-66.7 ± 0.8	48.5 ± 1.5 ***	88.3 ± 4.3 *	13
GABA-B-R1	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.HMC03388*	1.00 ± 0.05	0.7 ± 0.1	39.6 ± 1.4	-69.8 ± 0.7	40.1 ± 1.5	80.2 ± 3.9	7
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.HMC03388 + GluRIII RNAi	0.78 ± 0.02	0.3 ± 0.0	35.1 ± 0.8	-66.5 ± 1.2	45.1 ± 1.4 *	83.5 ± 3.1	8
PK2-R2	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF03209*	1.02 ± 0.05	1.6 ± 0.5	36.0 ± 1.6	-67.1 ± 1.0	35.7 ± 0.9	67.3 ± 2.4	8
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF03209 + GluRIII RNAi	0.80 ± 0.04	0.8 ± 0.1	35.2 ± 1.8	-64.5 ± 0.8	44.2 ± 1.9 **	85.1 ± 5.6 *	9
methuselah	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.GL01060*	0.81 ± 0.03	1.1 ± 0.2	37.5 ± 1.5	-68.2 ± 1.1	46.9 ± 2.0	91.7 ± 5.5	15
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.GL01060 + GluRIII RNAi	0.66 ± 0.03	0.4 ± 0.1	36.7 ± 1.3	-70.5 ± 1.1	56.4 ± 1.9 **	105.3 ± 5.2	13
AdoR	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF02687*	0.89 ± 0.05	1.5 ± 0.2	33.1 ± 1.7	-69.3 ± 1.3	37.8 ± 2.5	65.8 ± 5.7	8
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF02687 + GluRIII RNAi	0.69 ± 0.03	0.6 ± 0.1	32.5 ± 1.9	-67.6 ± 1.8	46.9 ± 2.4 *	81.7 ± 5.9	9
PKC	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-PKCi.B*	0.79 ± 0.04	1.0 ± 0.2	35.7 ± 1.7	-70.3 ± 1.5	45.9 ± 2.1	83.6 ± 5.2	14
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-PKCi.B + GluRIII RNAi	0.62 ± 0.03	0.2 ± 0.0	33.5 ± 1.0	-66.7 ± 1.2	55.4 ± 3.1 *	100.8 ± 8.0	14
unc-13	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> KK109346*	1.12 ± 0.04	2.6 ± 0.2	41.6 ± 1.7	-73.0 ± 1.4	37.5 ± 1.6	77.0 ± 4.7	15
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> KK109346 + GluRIII RNAi	0.88 ± 0.03	0.8 ± 0.1	39.8 ± 1.2	-68.6 ± 0.8	45.4 ± 1.1 ***	92.7 ± 3.6 *	15
iav	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF01904*	0.89 ± 0.03	0.9 ± 0.1	35.9 ± 1.0	-70.7 ± 1.2	40.6 ± 1.4	73.8 ± 3.3	14
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF01904 + GluRIII RNAi	0.70 ± 0.16	0.4 ± 0.1	32.1 ± 1.2	-67.7 ± 1.0	45.6 ± 1.6 *	78.7 ± 4.1	14
Slip1	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.HMC03268*	0.70 ± 0.03	0.9 ± 0.1	31.2 ± 1.6	-65.7 ± 0.6	45.2 ± 3.2	79.2 ± 8.0	11

	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.HMC03268 + GluRIII RNAi	0.56 ± 0.03	0.3 ± 0.0	33.1 ± 1.9	-67.7 ± 1.0	59.6 ± 3.1 **	105.7 ± 8.3 *	9
mGluR	*mGluR^{MI02169}*	1.01 ± 0.05	7.0 ± 0.8	36.0 ± 1.1	-64.3 ± 0.7	36.0 ± 2.3	70.5 ± 5.9	6
	GluRIIA^{SP16};;mGluR^{MI02169}	0.45 ± 0.01	1.7 ± 0.9	28.7 ± 1.6	-63.0 ± 0.7	64.4 ± 4.3 ***	108.8 ± 11.7	7
Pka-R2	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF02759*	0.79 ± 0.04	1.0 ± 0.1	35.0 ± 1.4	-64.9 ± 0.5	44.7 ± 1.7	84.5 ± 4.4	8
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF02759	0.58 ± 0.03	2.7 ± 2.4	31.4 ± 1.9	-64.8 ± 1.5	54.3 ± 2.6 **	94.6 ± 6.9	7
Gβ5	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF02941*	1.15 ± 0.07	1.6 ± 0.2	39.4 ± 1.7	-70.6 ± 2.2	35.0 ± 1.8	69.0 ± 4.0	13
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> TRiP.JF02941 GluRIII RNAi	0.80 ± 0.06	0.3 ± 0.1	39.9 ± 1.8	-69.5 ± 1.1	50.6 ± 1.9 ***	102.0 ± 4.3 ***	11
CaMKII (presynaptic)	*Pre-Gal4 >> UAS-CaMKII-Ala*	0.90 ± 0.03	2.0 ± 0.2	38.3 ± 1.5	-69.3 ± 1.0	43.2 ± 1.9	85.0 ± 5.4	15
	Pre-Gal4 >> UAS-CaMKII-Ala, GluR/GluR	0.51 ± 0.02	0.8 ± 0.1	28.3 ± 1.7	-67.4 ± 1.1	56.6 ± 3.5 **	91.1 ± 7.2	11
	Pre-Gal4 >> UAS-CaMKII-Ala + PhTox	0.53 ± 0.02	1.2 ± 0.1	31.9 ± 2.6	-66.5 ± 1.0	62.1 ± 6.3 ***	113.66 ± 16.33	9
UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP3-sponge.m49*	0.89 ± 0.04	1.3 ± .01	43.1 ± 1.7	-69.3 ± 1.3	49.1 ± 2.0	111.1 ± 8.7	13
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49 + GluRIII RNAi	0.55 ± 0.03	0.3 ± 0.1	28.5 ± 1.4	-64.4 ± 0.5	52.4 ± 2.4	86.4 ± 5.2 *	14
UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m30	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m30*	0.81 ± 0.04	1.4 ± 0.2	43.8 ± 1.4	-69.4 ± 1.6	55.1 ± 1.8	123.3 ± 4.6	16
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m30 + GluRIII RNAi	0.63 ± 0.02	0.3 ± 0.0	34.6 ± 1.1	-67.2 ± 0.9	55.5 ± 2.3	102.0 ± 5.4 ** (down)	15
UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49 (PhTox)	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49 (PhTox Cont)*	0.90 ± 0.03	1.6 ± 0.2	40.1 ± 1.3	-67.4 ± 1.0	45.2 ± 2.4	96.5 ± 7.8	13
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49 PhTox	0.54 ± 0.02	1.0 ± 0.1	38.6 ± 2.4	-65.3 ± 0.9	73.1 ± 5.0 ***	163.2 ± 17.6 **	15
UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49 + GluRIII RNAi*	0.66 ± 0.03	0.4 ± 0.1	31.7 ± 1.2	-64.9 ± 0.7	48.9 ± 1.8	86.4 ± 4.7	16
	Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49 + GluRIII RNAi PhTox	0.40 ± 0.02	0.2 ± 0.0	27.5 ± 1.8	-64 ± 0.7	69.9 ± 4.9 ***	116.1 ± 12.1 *	14

Supplementary Table S3

				FIGURE 4				
Gene	**Reagent**	**mEPSP (mV)**	**mEPSP freq. (Hz)**	**EPSP (mV)**	**V_m (mV)**	**QC**	**NLSC QC**	**n**
wild type	5 µM Xestospongin C	0.85 ± 0.04	3.1 ± 0.3	38.8 ± 1.1	-66.4 ± 0.9	46.3 ± 2.3	95.2 ±0.5	13
GluRIIA^{SP16}	5 µM Xestospongin C	0.46 ± 0.03	0.8 ± 0.1	28.5 ± 1.9	-68.2 ± 1.5	64.0 ± 4.3 *	104.3 ± 9.8	15
wild type	20 µM Xestospongin C	1.00 ± 0.04	6.1 ± 0.4	37.3 ± 0.8	-64.1 ± 0.6	37.7 ± 0.9	76.4 ± 2.5	14
wild type	20 µM PhTox + 20 µM Xestospongin C	0.56 ± 0.01	1.5 ± 0.2	34.2 ± 1.0	-64.6 ± 0.8	61.8 ± 1.6 ***	115.9 ± 4.9 ***	19
GluRIIA^{SP16}	20 µM Xestospongin C	0.54 ± 0.02	1.3 ± 0.2	21.4 ± 0.9	-64.1 ± 0.1	40.4 ± 2.1	57.4 ± 3.5 *** (down)	13
wild type (GluR cont)	1 µM 2-APB	0.80 ± 0.02	3.6 ± 0.3	35.9 ± 1.3	-68.0 ± 1.1	45.0 ± 1.3	85.2 ± 4.3	15
GluRIIA^{SP16}	1 µM 2-APB	0.53 ± 0.02	0.9 ± 0.1	23.4 ± 1.1	-67.2 ± 0.8	45.3 ± 2.6	66.4 ± 5.1 ** (down)	14
wild type (PhTox cont)	1 µM 2-APB	0.75 ± 0.02	2.9 ± 0.2	39.9 ± 1.2	-66.0 ± 0.9	53.5 ± 1.8	114.2 ± 6.0	11
wild type	1 µM 2-APB 20 µM PhTox	0.48 ± 0.04	1.6 ± 0.3	35.6 ± 1.8	-63.2 ± 0.5	76.9 ± 4.0 ***	152.3 ± 9.5 **	12
wild type	10 µM 2-APB	0.83 ± 0.03	4.7 ± 0.9	43.3 ± 0.8	-65.0 ± 0.7	53.3 ± 2.5	128.3 ± 8.1	15
GluRIIA^{SP16}	10 µM 2-APB	0.44 ± 0.02	0.7 ± 0.1	23.9 ± 1.0	-64.9 ± 0.6	54.9 ± 2.9	82.2 ± 5.8 ***	14
wild type	DMSO (2% v/v)	0.85 ± 0.04	5.4 ± 0.5	35.8 ± 1.2	-64.9 ± 0.8	42.8 ± 1.8	83.1 ± 4.5	12
GluRIIA^{SP16}	DMSO (2% v/v)	0.46 ± 0.02	1.21 ± 0.16	26.1 ± 1.1	-65.2 ± 0.7	57.5 ± 3.4 ***	89.5 ± 7.0	11
wild type	PhTox + DMSO (2% v/v)	0.56 ± 0.02	1.9 ± 0.2	35.7 ± 1.0	-67.0 ± 1.1	64.5 ± 2.6 ***	121.2 ± 5.7 ***	15

Supplementary Table S4

FIGURE 5								
Gene	**Reagent**	**mEPSP (mV)**	**mEPSP freq. (Hz)**	**EPSP (mV)**	**V$_m$ (mV)**	**QC**	**NLSC QC**	**n**
wild type	+100 µM Ryanodine	0.78 ± 0.02	3.7 ± 0.3	34.6 ± 1.1	-66.4 ± 0.9	45.0 ± 2.2	84.1 ± 5.4	17
GluRIIA^{SP16}	+100 µM Ryanodine	0.50 ± 0.01	1.3 ± 0.1	25.4 ± 1.1	-66.2 ± 0.8	51.5 ± 2.4	78.4 ± 4.8	15
wild type	+10 µM dantrolene	0.81 ± 0.04	3.2 ± 0.2	29.2 ± 1.6	-64.3 ± 0.5	37.3 ± 2.4	65.0 ± 5.1	25
GluRIIA^{SP16}	+10 µM dantrolene	0.46 ± 0.01	0.9 ± 0.1	15.9 ± 1.3	-64.8 ± 0.6	34.7 ± 2.9	46.5 ± 4.7 **	27
wild type	+10 µM dantrolene	0.91 ± 0.04	2.6 ± 0.2	34.8 ± 1.6	-64.2 ± 0.7	39.4 ± 2.6	76.5 ± 6.5	13
wild type	+PhTox +10 µM dantrolene	0.53 ± 0.02	1.4 ± 0.2	34.4 ± 1.3	-64.7 ± 0.9	66.1 ± 4.8 ***	126.3 ± 13.7 **	10
GluRIII RNAi	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >>* GluRIII RNAi +20 µM PhTox +10 µM dantrolene	0.39 ± 0.03	0.4 ± 0.1	36.2 ± 1.5	-67.4 ± 1.2	96.5 ± 6.0 **	183.8 ± 13.7 *	11
Driver Control	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >>* +10 µM Dantrolene	0.73 ± 0.03	0.9 ± 0.1	39.9 ± 1.8	-67.6 ± 0.9	55.5 ± 2.7	118.2 ± 9.5	14
GluRIII RNAi	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> GluRIII* RNAi/+ 10 µM Dantrolene	0.61 ± 0.02	0.2 ± 0.0	31.5 ± 1.0	-65.5 ± 0.9	52.6 ± 2.2	90.8 ± 4.7	14
GluRIII RNAi *IP$_3$ sponge*	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> GluRIII* RNAi/*UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49* 10 µM Dantrolene	0.68 ± 0.05	0.4 ± 0.1	33.3 ± 1.8	-66.0 ± 1.1	50.3 ± 2.1	90.5 ± 4.3	13
Driver Control *IP$_3$ sponge*	*Pre + Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49* 10 µM Dantrolene	0.93 ± 0.03	1.6 ± 0.1	41.2 ± 1.7	-67.6 ± 1.4	44.5 ± 1.5	96.1 ± 5.8	12

Supplementary Table S5

<table>
<tr><th colspan="9">FIGURE 6</th></tr>
<tr><th>Gene</th><th>Reagent</th><th>mEPSP (mV)</th><th>mEPSP freq. (Hz)</th><th>EPSP (mV)</th><th>V_m (mV)</th><th>QC</th><th>NLSC QC</th><th>n</th></tr>
<tr><td>Driver Control (Neuron)</td><td>*Pre-Gal4*</td><td>0.95 ± 0.04</td><td>2.6 ± 0.2</td><td>38.7 ± 1.1</td><td>-66.5 ± 1.0</td><td>41.9 ± 2.3</td><td>86.2 ± 5.8</td><td>17</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>*Pre-Gal4 GluRIIA^{SP16}*</td><td>0.49 ± 0.01</td><td>1.3 ± 0.2</td><td>29.5 ± 1.2</td><td>-65.1 ± 0.7</td><td>60.3 ± 2.2 ***</td><td>101.2 ± 6.1</td><td>15</td></tr>
<tr><td>*IP$_3$-sponge*</td><td>*Pre-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49*</td><td>1.09 ± 0.04</td><td>3.5 ± 0.0</td><td>40.8 ± 1.5</td><td>-69.9 ± 1.3</td><td>37.6 ± 1.3</td><td>77.9 ± 3.7</td><td>16</td></tr>
<tr><td>*GluRIIA IP$_3$-sponge*</td><td>*Pre-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49 GluRIIA^{SP16}*</td><td>0.47 ± 0.01</td><td>0.6 ± 0.1</td><td>24.3 ± 2.1</td><td>-68.4 ± 1.1</td><td>51.6 ± 4.0 **</td><td>79.2 ± 9.4</td><td>15</td></tr>
<tr><td>Driver Control (Muscle)</td><td>Post-Gal4</td><td>0.76 ± 0.0</td><td>2.8 ± 0.2</td><td>38.7 ± 1.0</td><td>-67.6 ± 1.0</td><td>51.6 ± 2.1</td><td>103.6 ± 5.3</td><td>14</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Post-Gal4 GluRIIA^{SP16}</td><td>0.41 ± 0.01</td><td>0.7 ± 0.1</td><td>26.8 ± 1.0</td><td>-66.2 ± 0.8</td><td>66.7 ± 3.0 ***</td><td>105.4 ± 6.6</td><td>14</td></tr>
<tr><td>*IP$_3$-sponge*</td><td>*Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49*</td><td>0.85 ± 0.03</td><td>2.1 ± 0.2</td><td>38.3 ± 1.1</td><td>-65.7 ± 0.7</td><td>45.4 ± 1.5</td><td>93.6 ± 4.8</td><td>15</td></tr>
<tr><td>*GluRIIA IP$_3$-sponge*</td><td>*Post-Gal4 >> UAS-IP$_3$-sponge.m49 GluRIIA^{SP16}*</td><td>0.51 ± 0.03</td><td>1.4 ± 0.2</td><td>27.8 ± 1.3</td><td>-65.3 ± 0.9</td><td>56.2 ± 0.7 **</td><td>92.1 ± 7.9</td><td>16</td></tr>
</table>