

The translome of adult cortical axons is regulated by learning *in vivo*

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Summary

1 Local translation can support memory consolidation by supplying new proteins to synapses
2 undergoing plasticity. Translation in adult forebrain dendrites is an established mechanism of synaptic
3 plasticity and is regulated by learning, yet there is no evidence for learning-regulated protein synthesis
4 in adult forebrain axons, which have traditionally been believed to be incapable of translation. Here we
5 show that axons in the adult rat amygdala contain translation machinery, and use translating ribosome
6 affinity purification (TRAP) with RNASeq to identify mRNAs in cortical axons projecting to the amygdala,
7 over 1200 of which were regulated during consolidation of associative memory. Mitochondrial and
8 translation-related genes were upregulated, whereas synaptic, cytoskeletal, and myelin-related genes
9 were downregulated; the opposite effects were observed in the cortex. Our results demonstrate that
10 learning-regulated axonal translation occurs in the adult forebrain, and support the likelihood that local
11 translation is more a rule than an exception in neuronal processes.

12 13 Introduction

14
15 Neurons use local translation as a means of rapid, spatially-restricted protein regulation in their
16 distal processes, particularly during remodeling driven by external cues¹⁻³. Memory consolidation
17 requires new proteins to stabilize molecular changes induced by learning^{4,5}, and local translation in
18 dendrites is thought to be an essential source of these proteins⁶. Rich and diverse assortments of
19 mRNAs have been described in neuropil of the mature hippocampus⁷⁻⁹ and in cortical
20 synaptoneuroosomes¹⁰, underscoring the importance of decentralized translation in synaptic function.
21 Yet no role for axonal translation in learning and memory has been reported in the adult forebrain.

22 Translation has long been known to occur in invertebrate axons, and it is now established to be
23 essential for growth and response to guidance cues in developing CNS axons, and in regeneration of
24 PNS axons¹¹⁻¹⁴. Adult forebrain axons, in contrast, traditionally have been characterized as lacking the
25 capacity for translation, in part due to a lack of reliable evidence, and in part to the perception that they
26 are structurally and functionally inert compared to dendrites and immature axons.^{11,12,15} However, a
27 number of recent studies have shown that mature axons are in fact capable of translation, at least in
28 some circumstances¹⁶⁻¹⁸, including in the CNS¹⁹⁻²². This work has largely been done with cultured
29 neurons, but one study used translating ribosome affinity purification (TRAP) to isolate ribosome-bound

mRNAs in retinal ganglion cells (RGCs) of adult mice²⁰, demonstrating that translation does occur in adult CNS axons *in vivo*. Presynaptic translation has been shown to be necessary for long-term depression in hippocampal²³ and striatal²⁴ slice preparations from young animals, indicating that axonal translation is involved in synaptic plasticity and therefore could be important in memory as well.

Auditory Pavlovian conditioning (fear or threat conditioning), in which animals learn to associate an auditory tone with a foot shock, is supported by persistent strengthening of synaptic inputs to the lateral amygdala (LA) from auditory areas²⁵. The LA receives strong excitatory input from auditory cortical area TE3^{26–28}, and Pavlovian conditioning induces persistent enhancement of presynaptic function at these synapses^{29,30}. Consolidation of threat memory requires translation in the LA³¹, and we have found that it induces changes in the translational machinery in LA dendrites associated with synapse enlargement³². Intriguingly, we also found that learning-induced structural changes occurred at individual axonal boutons as opposed to uniformly along axons, suggesting that plasticity may be as synapse-specific and compartmentalized on the presynaptic side as it is on the postsynaptic side³³. To determine whether axonal translation is involved in memory formation, we confirmed the presence of translation machinery in LA axons, and combined TRAP with RNAseq to identify changes in the translome of auditory cortical axons during memory consolidation.

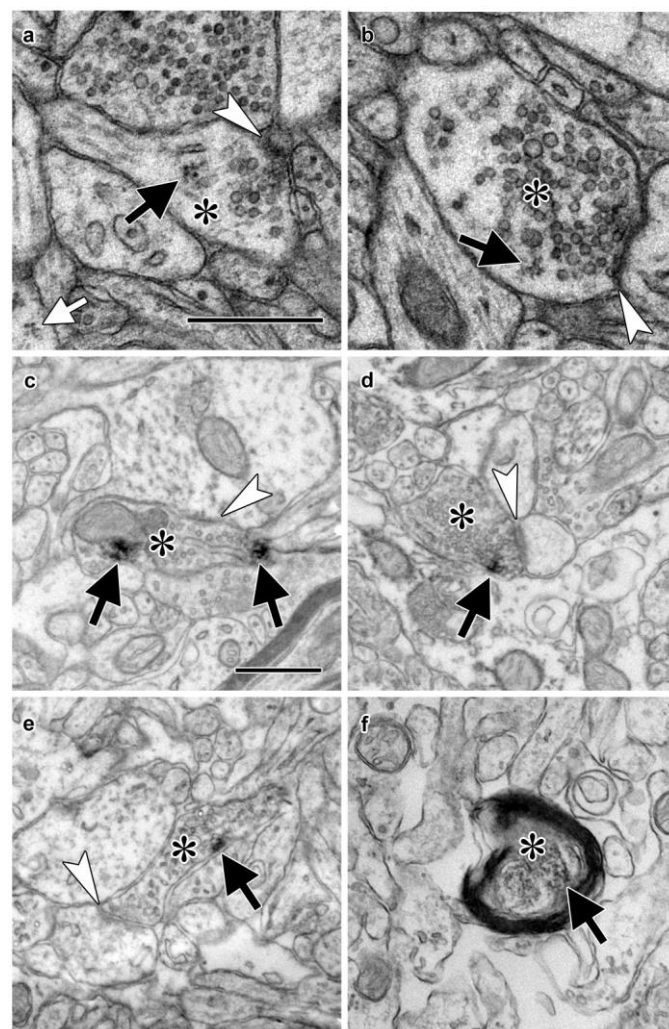


Figure 1. Electron micrographs of translation machinery in lateral amygdala axons. a-b) Polyribosomes (black arrows) in axonal boutons (asterisks). A polyribosome in an astrocytic process (white arrow) is visible at the lower left of panel (a). c-e) Axonal boutons (asterisks) containing immunolabeling (black arrows) for eIF4E (c), eIF4G1 (d), and eIF2α (e). White arrowheads indicate asymmetric synapses onto dendritic spines (a, d, and e) and shafts (b and c). f) Myelinated axon (asterisk) containing immunolabel for ribosomal protein s6 (arrow). Scale bars = 500nm.

Adult axons contain translation machinery

Early electron microscopy studies reported abundant polyribosomes in the somata and dendrites of neurons, but rarely in axons (reviewed in ^{12,34}). However, the paucity of conspicuous polyribosomes does not necessarily preclude translation. Regenerating sciatic nerve axons contain mRNAs and translate membrane proteins *in vivo*, but do not show ultrastructural evidence of polyribosomes or rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER)^{35,36}. In addition, hippocampal interneuron axons contain ribosomal proteins ²³. This suggests that translation sites other than the classic morphological structures do exist, such as the periaxoplasmic ribosomal plaques found in adult spinal cord axons³⁷. Recent work in yeast has shown that translation can occur on 80S monosomes, with a bias towards highly regulated transcripts ³⁸.

We have occasionally observed polyribosomes in presynaptic boutons in the adult rat LA by EM (Figure 1a-b, Supplementary Figure 1a-e), although these are infrequent (LO, unpublished observations). A possible explanation for this is that these axons contain translation machinery that does not usually assemble into polyribosomal structures with traditionally recognizable morphology. To more directly assess the potential for translation in LA axons, we used immuno-electron microscopy to localize components of the translation machinery. Because translation initiation is most extensively regulated step in gene expression, as well as a critical mediator of memory

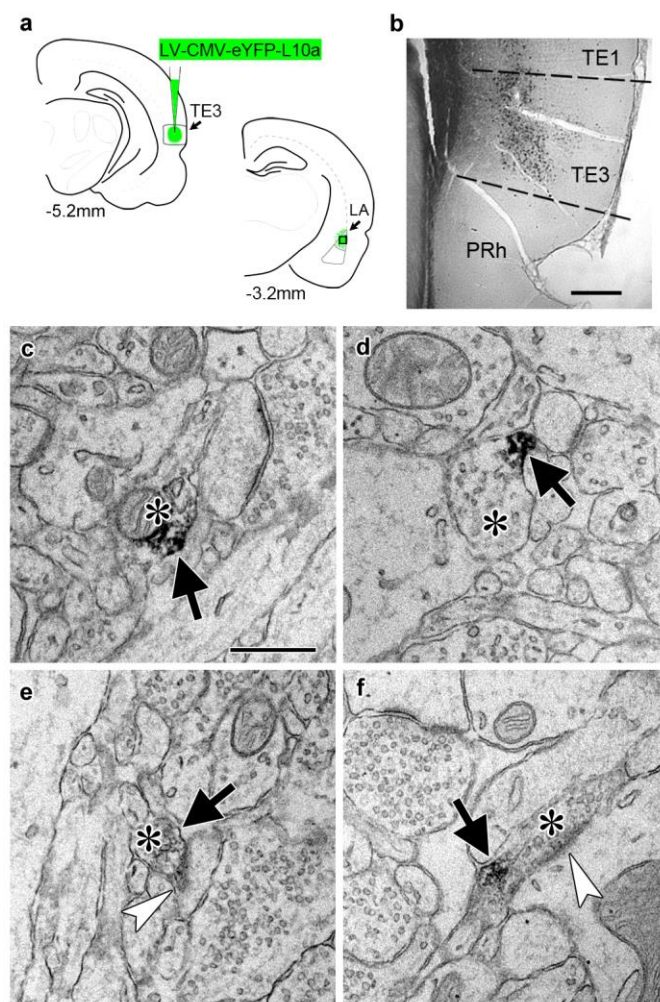


Figure 2. Transport of a tagged ribosomal L10a protein to cortical projection axons. a) Schematic of injection site in cortical area TE3 and its lateral amygdala (LA) projection area, with AP coordinates from Bregma noted. The black square indicates the area of LA sampled for EM. PRh: perirhinal cortex. b) Immunolabeling of YFP in transfected TE3. c-f) Electron micrographs of LA showing axonal boutons (asterisks) containing YFP immunolabel (black arrows). The boutons in (e) and (f) are forming asymmetric synapses (white arrowheads) on a dendritic spine head (e) and a dendritic shaft (f). Scale bars=500µm in (b) and 500nm in (c-f).

94 formation³⁹, we focused on translation initiation factors. The eukaryotic initiation factors eIF4E, eIF4G,
95 and eIF2 α each were present in axons forming synapses onto spiny dendrites in the caudal
96 dorsolateral subdivision of the LA (Figure 1c-e), which receives the most robust projections from TE3²⁶⁻
97 ²⁸, as was ribosomal protein S6 (Figure 1f). These synapses have the same classic excitatory
98 morphology as the glutamatergic projections from TE3 to LA²⁸, consistent with local translation on TE3
99 inputs. Quantification of eIF4E immunolabel through serial sections of neuropil revealed that 63% of
100 axons were labeled, along with 39% of dendritic spines and 100% of dendritic shafts (Supplementary
101 Figure 1f-i). Consistent with this pattern, we have previously found polyribosomes throughout dendritic
102 shafts but in only a subset of dendritic spines, where their presence is regulated by learning³².

104 **Isolation of the adult axonal translome**

105
106 To identify mRNA transcripts translated in distal TE3 axons, we used TRAP⁴⁰, in which a tagged
107 ribosomal protein is expressed in cells of interest and used to immunoprecipitate ribosome-bound
108 mRNA. A recent study used an HA-tagged ribosomal protein to examine the translome of retinal
109 ganglion cell axons in both immature and adult mice²⁰, and an eGFP-tagged ribosomal protein
110 expressed in adult mouse layer V cortical neurons was observed in axons of the corticospinal tract⁴¹,
111 demonstrating that this method is viable in at least two types of adult CNS neurons *in vivo*. We used a
112 viral vector to express an eYFP-ribosomal protein L10a fusion protein⁴² in TE3 cells in adult rats (Figure
113 2a-b). Pilot experiments using an adeno-associated viral vector resulted in moderate to strong
114 retrograde infection of cells in afferent areas. To ensure that no cell bodies outside of the injection site
115 expressed the construct, we switched to a lentiviral vector, which did not result in retrograde infection.
116 Immuno-electron microscopy confirmed the presence of eYFP in LA axons (Figure 2c-f).

117 TRAP was combined with Pavlovian conditioning to determine how the axonal translome
118 changes during memory consolidation (Figure 3a). Animals expressing eYFP-L10a in TE3 were given
119 either Pavlovian conditioning, consisting of auditory tones paired with mild foot shocks in a familiar
120 chamber (the trained group), or exposure to the chamber alone (the control group). We did not present
121 unpaired tones and shocks to the control group because this paradigm constitutes a different type of
122 associative learning and results in plasticity at LA synapses^{32,43}. Long-term memory formation requires
123 *de novo* translation during a critical period of several hours after training^{5,31}, thus we sacrificed animals
124 during this time window and collected separate tissue blocks containing either the auditory cortex or
125 the amygdala. Although we refer to these samples as cortex and axons, the cortex samples also contain

the proximal axon segments, myelinated segments that pass through the dorsal portion of the external capsule, as well as intrinsic projections and corticocortical projections terminating in adjacent areas of TE1 and perirhinal cortex^{26,27}.

RNASeq was performed on the TRAPed mRNAs as well as the total mRNA isolated from the homogenized tissue blocks (the tissue transcriptome). Quality control metrics are shown in Supplementary Table 1. Principal component analysis revealed correspondence between experimental replicates, as well as separation between the TRAPed samples and the transcriptome, the cortex and axons, and the trained and control groups (Figure 3b). Gene expression levels were correlated between replicates (Supplementary Figure 2a). Differential gene expression (DGE) analysis was used to identify genes enriched in the translome versus the tissue transcriptome for each group, as well as genes differentially expressed between the axons and the cortex in each experimental condition and between the experimental groups in each area (Supplementary Table 2). Comparison with a cell-type-specific proteome⁴⁴ revealed that neuronal genes were more likely than non-neuronal genes to be enriched in the TRAPed samples versus the tissue transcriptome, whereas non-neuronal genes were more likely to be depleted (Supplementary Figure 2b), confirming that our TRAPed samples contain mainly neuronal genes.

Because no translome or transcriptome of adult forebrain axons has been previously published, we chose to take a conservative approach to identifying axonal genes in our dataset (Supplementary Figure 3a). In order to minimize false positives introduced by the TRAP procedure, only genes that were differentially expressed between TRAPed samples were included. Although this should account for much of the background from

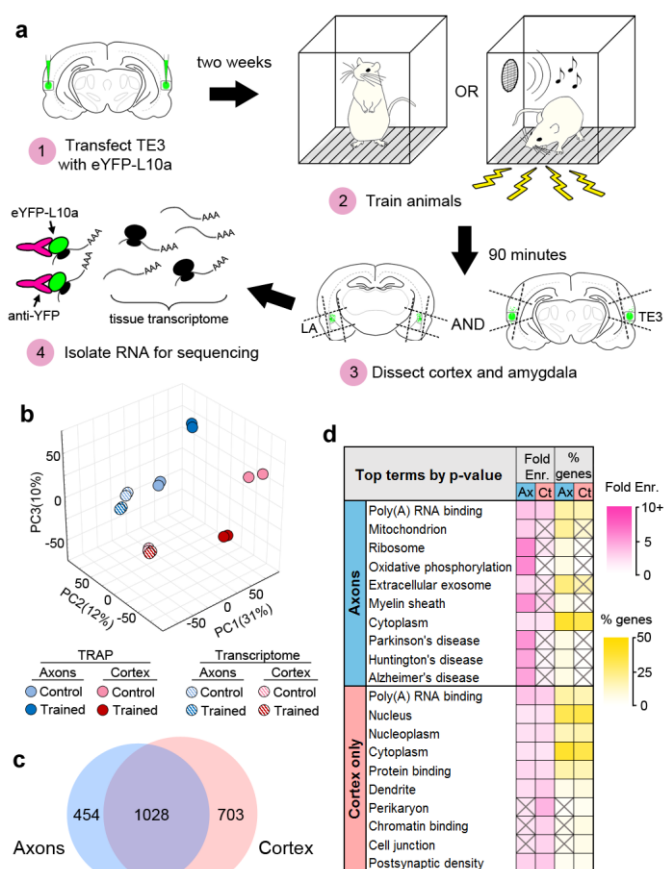


Figure 3. Isolation of the TE3 axonal translome. a) Experimental workflow (see text). b) Principal component analysis of all experimental replicates. c) Overlap between axonal and cortical translomes. d) Most enriched GO terms and KEGG pathways in axonal and cortex-only translomes, sorted by Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value. Gray X's indicate effects that were not significant (adjusted p-value >0.05).

158 the experimental procedures, it does not account for differences between the background transcriptome
159 of the tissue samples, and we therefore excluded genes that were differentially expressed in the
160 corresponding tissue transcriptomes. Finally, genes that were differentially expressed between
161 TRAPed samples were excluded if the enriched sample also was not enriched versus the tissue
162 transcriptome. We defined genes that met these criteria as axonal if they were regulated by learning in
163 the axons, enriched in the axons versus the cortex in either experimental group, or both. Examination
164 of expression levels showed that our filtering method selected for more abundant genes with higher
165 correlation between experimental replicates (Supplementary Figure 3b). Of the 1482 axonal genes
166 identified, the majority (1028) were also either regulated or enriched in the cortex (Figure 3c), and an
167 additional 703 genes were regulated or enriched only in the cortex (defined as “cortex-only” genes).

168 To directly assess the background introduced by the IP procedure, we repeated the TRAP
169 experiment with a lentivirus encoding eYFP in place of L10a-eYFP. As expected, there was substantial
170 overlap between genes enriched in the TRAP and eYFP-IP samples versus the tissue transcriptome
171 (Supplementary Figure 3c). There were, however, very few learning-regulated mRNAs in the eYFP-IP
172 experiment, and these had little overlap with the TRAPed mRNAs, and even less after the filtering step.
173 Although there was 47% overlap between axonal and cortical genes in the TRAP experiment, there
174 was only 2.5% overlap in the eYFP-IP experiment. These data confirm that the results of our TRAP
175 experiment are not due to background.

177 **The axonal transcriptome is diverse**

178
179 To characterize the axonal transcriptome, we used DAVID⁴⁵ (<https://david.ncifcrf.gov>, version 6.8)
180 to identify Gene Ontology (GO) Terms and KEGG Pathways enriched in the axonal and cortex-only
181 gene sets. Complete results of DAVID analyses are in Supplementary Table 4. The most significantly
182 enriched terms in axons related to mitochondria, translation, and neurodegenerative diseases, whereas
183 cortex-only genes were enriched for terms associated with the cell body, nucleus, and dendrites (Figure
184 3d). To ensure that our filtering process did not dramatically skew the composition of the final dataset,
185 we also analyzed the unfiltered set of axonal genes. The resulting list of terms was similar, although
186 enrichment levels were lower, consistent with a lower signal-to-noise ratio in the unfiltered data
187 (Supplementary Figure 4a). Comparison between the filtered data from the TRAP and eYFP-IP
188 experiments revealed little similarity between the most enriched GO terms (Supplementary Figure 4b).

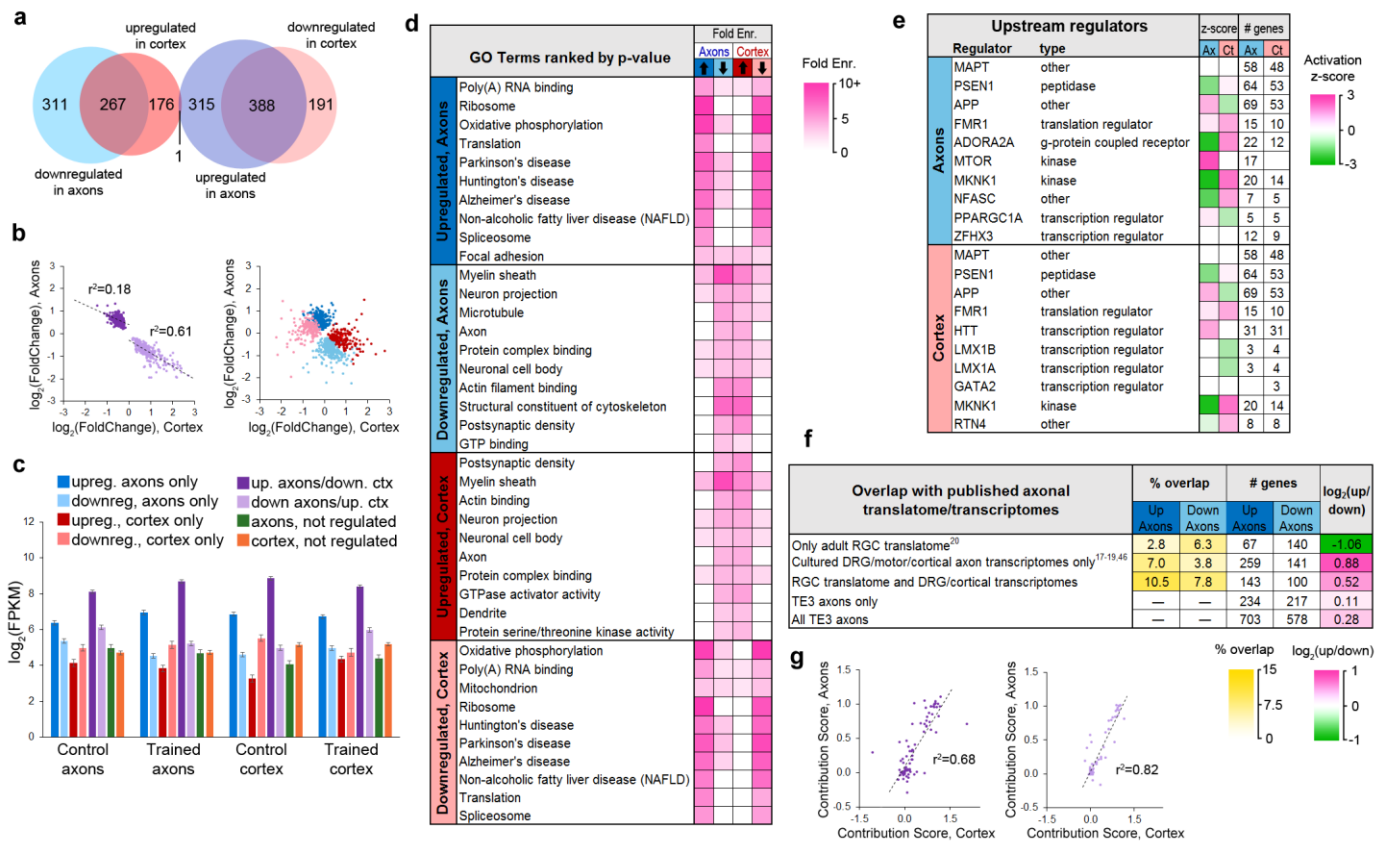


Figure 4. Regulation of the axonal translome by learning. a) Overlap between learning effects in the axons and cortex. b) Correlations between effect sizes in the axons and cortex for genes differentially expressed in both areas after learning (left) or only one area (right). Regression lines are shown for correlations significant at $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$. c) Mean expression levels of genes in each group with respect to training effects. Results of ANOVA and post hoc test are given in Supplementary Table 5. Error bars = s.e.m. d) Top GO term and KEGG pathways enriched >3-fold in learning-regulated genes, ranked by Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value. Highly redundant terms are not shown. e) Top regulatory pathways affected by learning in axons and cortex, sorted by adjusted p-value. Activation z-score represents the probability of a pathway being activated or inhibited by learning. f) Overlap between genes up- or downregulated in axons by learning and axonal translomes and transcriptomes in references 16-19¹⁷⁻²⁰. g) For genes that had multiple transcripts and were regulated by learning in both axons and cortex, the contribution of each transcript to the gene-level effects in axons and cortex were correlated for genes upregulated in axons and downregulated in cortex (left) and genes downregulated in axons and upregulated in cortex (right). The contribution score was calculated as (change in FPKM transcript)/(change in FPKM gene).

Manual grouping of significantly enriched terms revealed that terms relating to the presynaptic compartment and cytoskeleton were also predominantly found in axons, along with terms relating to various other cellular functions such as the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway, GTPase signaling, and intracellular transport (Supplementary Figure 5a).

The size and composition of the TE3 axonal translome are similar to what has been reported

194 in the translomes of retinal ganglion cell axons²⁰ and cortical synaptoneurosomes¹⁰, the transcriptome
195 of adult hippocampal neuropil⁷⁻⁹, and the transcriptomes of axons isolated from cultures of dorsal root
196 ganglion^{17,18}, cultured motor neurons⁴⁶, and mixed cortical/hippocampal neurons¹⁹. We compared
197 these datasets to our axonal and cortex-only translomes, and found greater overlap with the axonal
198 genes, with 904 of the 1482 genes present in at least one published dataset (Supplementary Figure
199 5b). Given that these data were obtained from different cell types, preparations, ages, and species, this
200 suggests that at least some aspects of the axonal transcriptome are universal. Interestingly, our axonal
201 translome had substantially more overlap with datasets from immature versus mature axons,
202 potentially reflecting recapitulation of
203 developmental mechanisms in
204 learning.

206 **Opposite learning effects in axons 207 and cortex**

209 The majority of genes in the
210 translome (75%) were regulated by
211 learning, with 19% and 6% of the
212 remainder enriched in the cortex or
213 axons, respectively. 40% of regulated
214 genes showed significant changes in
215 both axons and cortex, and all but one
216 of these (the mitochondrial enzyme
217 *Dlst*) were regulated in opposite

218 directions (Figure 4a). The magnitude of change in the axons and cortex was significantly correlated
219 for these genes, particularly for those downregulated in axons and upregulated in cortex (Figure 4b).
220 Expression levels in the axons and cortex were significantly correlated in both training groups
221 regardless of learning effects, although genes that were upregulated in the axons showed the highest
222 correlation (Supplementary Figure 6a-b). In the control group, genes that were downregulated in axons
223 showed the lowest correlation between the two areas, but this increased in the trained group,
224 particularly for genes that were also upregulated in the cortex. These results suggest that the axonal
225 translome is not regulated independently, but that compartment-specific translation is coordinated

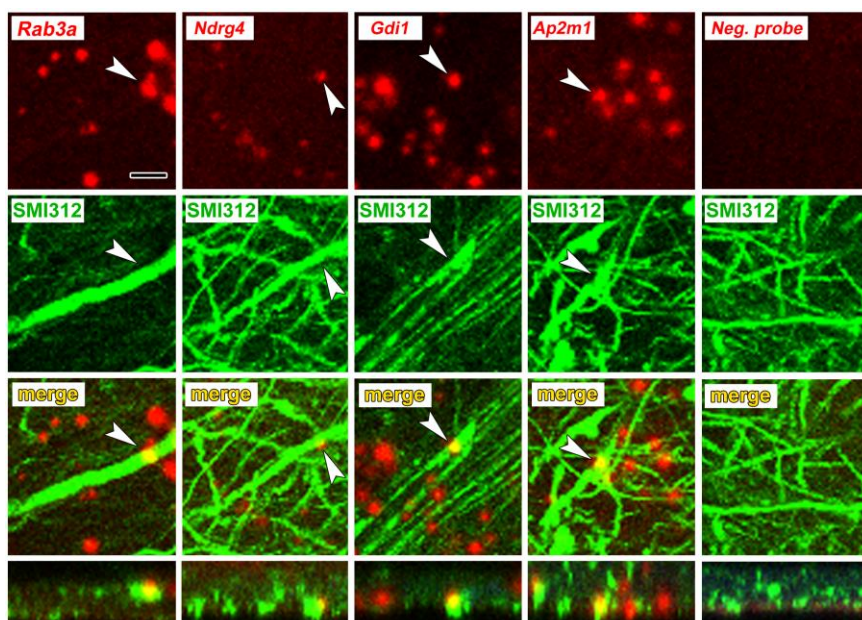


Figure 5. Axonal localization of mRNAs *in vivo*. First row: FISH showing localization of four mRNAs, but not a control probe, in amygdala neuropil. Second and third rows: Immunolabeling with the pan-axonal neurofilament antibody smi-312 shows overlap with mRNA probes. Bottom row: XZ orthogonal view of merged images. Scale = 5 μ m.

226 within the cell. This is underscored by the fact that only 63 genes encompassed the 50 most abundant
227 in both areas and conditions (Supplementary Figure 6c). Genes that were upregulated in axons had
228 the highest expression levels in both areas and conditions, further suggesting common regulatory
229 mechanisms (Figure 4c). In contrast to the TRAP experiment, there was no overlap between the 115
230 genes regulated by learning in axons and the 21 regulated in cortex in the eYFP-IP experiment.

231 Performing DAVID analysis separately on upregulated and downregulated genes revealed that
232 learning had inverse, function-specific effects on the axonal and cortical translomes (Figure 4d). To
233 further explore the effects of learning on cellular functions, we used Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA)
234 software (Qiagen). IPA evaluates changes in gene expression with respect to a database of known
235 pathways and functions, and assigns an enrichment p-value along with a z-score predicting activation
236 or inhibition of a pathway based on published data. A search for upstream regulators found that most
237 of the enriched pathways had opposite z-scores in the axons and cortex (Figure 4e, Supplementary
238 Table 6). Analysis of functional annotations with IPA similarly revealed opposing functional regulation
239 in the two areas (Supplementary Figure 7a, Supplementary Table 7). Although the axonal transcriptome
240 is theoretically a subset of the somatic transcriptome, these results demonstrate an unexpected degree
241 of coordination between the axonal and cortical translomes.

242 **Effects of learning on the axonal translome**

243
244
245 Learning affected a range of cellular processes, with some clear patterns of upregulation and
246 downregulation. An overview of regulated genes is shown in Table 1. The genes upregulated in axons,
247 along with those downregulated in cortex, were dominated by two functions: mitochondrial respiration
248 and translation. Axons have high metabolic needs and abundant mitochondria, so it is unsurprising that
249 enrichment of mitochondrial transcripts in axons has been reported by a number of studies¹⁷⁻²⁰. Overall,
250 24% of the transcripts upregulated in axons and 25% of those downregulated in cortex encoded
251 mitochondrial proteins, most of which were involved in either respiration or translation (Figure 4d, Table
252 1). A few mitochondrial genes were downregulated in axons, however, including some involved in
253 regulation of mitochondrial fusion and localization, such as *Mfn1* and *Opa1*. The opposite pattern was
254 reported in the transcriptome of cultured cortical neurons two days after injury: *Mfn1* was upregulated
255 while transcripts related to respiration were downregulated¹⁹. If similar regulation occurs in the two
256 paradigms, these results are consistent with translation of dormant axonal mRNAs in response to
257 activity, leading to their upregulation in the translome and subsequent depletion from the

transcriptome.

Genes coding for translation-related functions, from mRNA splicing to protein folding, were also largely upregulated in axons and downregulated in cortex. Of 68 axonal transcripts encoding ribosomal proteins, 67 were upregulated after learning and 37 of these were downregulated in the cortex. The axonal transcriptome contained spliceosome components, nearly all of which were upregulated. Genes for initiation and elongation factors were mostly upregulated, although some were downregulated. Intriguingly, a number of genes encoding transcription factors were regulated in axons. Transcription factors are translated locally in growth cones and transported retrogradely to the nucleus (see reference 47 for review), so this could be a case of developmental mechanisms supporting learning in the adult.

A number of transcripts encoding Golgi and rough ER proteins were present in the axonal transcriptome, although neither of these structures are seen in adult forebrain axons by EM. Similar observations have been reported in axons of cultured neurons, which carry out Golgi and rough ER functions in the absence of classical structures^{48–50}. Rough ER proteins tended to be upregulated, whereas Golgi proteins were both upregulated and downregulated. Several upstream regulators of translation were downregulated in axons, including *Apc*, *Cyfp1*, *Mtor*, and *Tsc2*. Because mTOR complex 1 (mTORC1) activates translation of ribosomal proteins and translation factors^{51,52}, one possibility is that *Mtor* mRNA was depleted from axons in an initial wave of learning-induced translation, leading to upregulated translation of downstream targets at the time the tissue was collected. Consistent with this, IPA analysis indicated activation of mTOR in the axons (Figure 4e).

Mitochondrial and ribosomal genes made up half of the most highly expressed genes (Supplementary Figure 4c), which could account for the high average expression level of upregulated

Type	Upregulated in axons	Downregulated in axons	Enriched in axons, not regulated
Mitochondrial respiration	Atp5(d,e,g1,g2,g3,h,i,jj2,j5,j5o), Atp6v(ff,ob,1g1), Cox(4l1,5a,5b,6a1,6a2,6c,7a2,7a2l,7b,7c,8a,17), Dist.Mdh1.Mpc(1,2), Ndufa(2,4,5,6,7,11,12,b1), Ndufb(2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11), Ndufc2, Ndufs(4,5,6,8), Ndufv(2,3), Sncg1, Uqcc2, Uqcrl(10,11,b,c2,fs1,h,a)	Aco2.Atp5(a1,b), Fh, Got2, Idh(2,3b), Ndufa10, Ndufs(1,2,3), Ndufv1, Ogdhl, Pc, Pck2, Pdh(a1,b), Sucla2	Cox20, Me3, Uqcrc2
Mitochondrial translation	Mrp63, Mrpl(11,12,13,16,18,20,23,27,34,35,41,44,51,52,54,55), Mrps(7,11,12,14,15,16,18b,18c,21,23,25,26,28,33,34,36)	Mrpl(19,37), Mtf2, Tufm	Mrpl16, Mrps9
Mitochondrial, other	Fis1, Mimos1, Timm(8b,10,13)	Cluh, Immt, Mfn1, Pink1, Opa1	Aldh2, Oxa11, Sdhb
Ribosomal proteins	Rpl(3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,10a,11,12,13,13a,14,15,17,18,18a,19,21,22l1,23,23a,24,26,27,27a,28,29,30,31,32,34,35,35a,36,36a,37,38,39,p1), Rps(3,3a,4x,5,7,8,10,11,12,13,14,15,15a,16,17,18,21,23,24,25,26,27,27a,28,29,a)	Rps2	
Translation apparatus/regulation	Eef1(a2,b2,d,e1), Eif1b, Eif2s2, Eif3g, Eif5b, Erp29, Fkbp(2,3), Hspa5, Naca, Pfdn(1,2,5,6), Sil1, Srp(9,14,19)	Apc, Cyfp(1,2), Dcnr, Eef2, Eif2b5, Eif3(a,d), Eif3l, Eif4a1, Eif6, Mtor, Rps6kb2, Tsc2	Rheb, Rps6ka2
Spliceosome	Gemin7, Hnrnp(a1,a2/b1,a3,d,l,r,u2), Lsm(3,4,5,7,8), Nono, Sf3b(2,6), Sfpq, Smndc1, Snrnp27, Snrnp(b2,c,d2,e,f,g), Ssrf4	Snrp200	
Golgi apparatus	Napg, Tmed9, Trappc(3,5)	Copa, Coro(1c,7), Gbf1, Gorasp1, Trappc(9,10,11)	Copg2
Transcription	Brd(4,7), Btf3, Cited2, Ddit3, Dek, Dnajc2, Drap1, Gtf2h5, Hmgb1, Id4, Lmo4, Morf4l1, Ncor(1,2), Polr2(e,f,g,j,k), Sub1, Taf10	Copa, Coro(1c,7), Gbf1, Gorasp1, Trappc(9,10,11)	Baz1a, Hes6
Proteasome/ubiquitination	Psm(a7,d4,d7,d12,g4), Psmg4, Ube2(k,v2)	Elp2, Psm(a1,a4,a5,b3,b4,c1,c5,d1,d2), Ube(3a,3b,4b), Ubr4	PsmA6, Smurf1
Active zone/synaptic vesicle cycle	Ap2s1, Bloc1s4, Calm(1,2), Cita, Gabbr1, Gng13, Hspa8, Lin7b, Marcks, Nos1p, Nrgn, Pfn(1,3), S100b, Stmn2, Syt1, Unc13a	Ap(2a1,2m1,3d1), Atp6v0a1, Brsk1, Bsn, Btbd9, Camk2a, Camkv, Dnm1, Gna(12,b2,l1), Gsn, Nos1ap, Rab3a, Scrib, Sptan1, Sptbn(1,2), Stxbp1, Synj1, Vdac(1,2,3)	Nos1, Pcdh17, Prkcg
Cytoskeleton/axonal transport	Bloc1s1, Dynll(1,2), Dynlr1b1, Kic1, Sod1	Bicd2, Clip1, Dctn1, Dync(1h1,2h1), Hap1, Htt, Kif(3a,5a,5b,5c,c3,ap3), Myo(1b,1d,5a,5b,9a,9b,16,18a), Myh(10,14), Nefh, Nefl, Nefm, Tuba(1b,4a), Tubb(2b,3,4a,4b,5)	Ligl1, Myh11, Myo10, Tubb2a, Tubg1
Myelin sheath		Ank3, Cnp, Cntnap1, Mbp, Sptnb4	Myrf
Postsynaptic		Dbn1, Ddn, Dlgap(1,3,4), Mink1, Ppp1r9(a,b), Shank(1,2,3)	
Other axonal signaling	Akap5, Akip1, Eno1, Gap43, Mapt, Olfm1, Park7, Sumo2, Tmsb4x	Akap(2,6,8l,11,13), Aldoc, Arhgap(21,39), Arhgef2(1,11), Dpysl2, Fez1, Kalrn, Rab(2b,3b,3c,5c,6b), Rock2, Vim	Arhgap26, Arhgef(12,18,28)

Table 1. Examples of genes found in auditory cortical axons during memory consolidation by function and effect of learning. Genes in bold type were changed in the opposite direction in the cortex.

290 axonal genes (Figure 4). However, removing these genes did not substantially lower the mean
291 expression levels (Supplementary Figure 6d), indicating that high expression is a feature of upregulated
292 genes independent of function.

293 Genes downregulated in axons encoded more diverse types of proteins than upregulated genes.
294 These included cytoskeletal components and molecular motors, including tubulins, myosins, dyneins,
295 kinesins, and neurofilaments (Figure 4d, Table 1). Genes encoding synaptic proteins, including synaptic
296 vesicle cycle, active zone, and postsynaptic density proteins, were downregulated, as were signaling
297 molecules and components of the ubiquitin/proteasome pathway and myelin sheath. We used DAVID
298 to examine the 25% of genes in our dataset that were not regulated by learning to determine if there
299 were any functions specific to these genes, but found only one term, “mitochondrion,” enriched in axonal
300 genes, and terms relating to the somatodendritic compartment enriched in the cortex (Supplementary
301 Figure 5a).

302 We compared the learning-regulated genes to published translomes of *in vivo* RGC axons²⁰
303 and transcriptomes of cultured DRG and cortical axons^{17–19}, and found that genes that overlapped with
304 only the RGC axon translome were twice as likely to be downregulated as upregulated; in contrast,
305 the converse was true of genes in the cultured axon transcriptomes (Figure 4f). Regulated genes
306 generally had more overlap with datasets from less mature axons, suggesting similar regulation of
307 axonal translation during learning and development (Supplementary Figure 7b). Upregulated genes
308 were much more likely to overlap with genes downregulated rather than upregulated in response to
309 injury¹⁹, consistent with similar translation patterns leading to depletion from the transcriptome.

310 To verify axonal localization of mRNA in the amygdala *in vivo*, we used fluorescence *in situ*
311 hybridization (FISH) combined with immunolabeling for axonal neurofilaments. We chose four
312 transcripts that were abundant in control axons and significantly downregulated after learning: the Ras-
313 related protein *Rab3a*, which regulates synaptic vesicle fusion, the N-myc downstream regulated gene
314 *Ndr4*, the Rab GDP dissociation inhibitor *Gdi1*, and *Ap2m1*, a subunit of the adaptor protein complex
315 2 which mediates synaptic vesicle endocytosis. Successful FISH labeling required target retrieval
316 treatments, including protease digestion, which proved incompatible with immunolabeling of
317 cytoplasmic GFP in TE3 axons. The monoclonal antibody cocktail SMI 312, which recognizes heavily
318 phosphorylated axonal neurofilaments, was used to identify axons. Rats were given control training
319 and brains were collected at the same time point as in the TRAP experiments. All four mRNA probes,
320 but not the negative control probe, showed punctate labeling in the LA neuropil, with some puncta
321 colocalized with axonal neurofilaments (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure 8).

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Transcript-level correspondence of axonal and cortical mRNA

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Discussion

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Our results demonstrate that local translation occurs in axons of the adult forebrain *in vivo*, and that the axonal transcriptome within a memory circuit is regulated by learning. This supports a growing body of evidence that mature axons are capable of local translation, contrary to traditional assumptions, and suggests that gene expression is more extensively decentralized than previously thought. A striking and unexpected feature of our data was the extent of opposing changes in the cortex and axons, suggesting highly coordinated regulation between the two compartments. In dendrites, mRNA transport is activity-regulated, with different trafficking mechanisms exist for different mRNAs^{2,6,53}, and the axonal transcriptome could be similarly regulated. Neurotrophic factors have been shown to induce transport of existing mRNAs from the soma into the axons of cultured DRG neurons, and this is selective for transcripts encoding cytoskeletal proteins⁵⁰. The redistribution of transcripts from the soma to the axons could likewise be due to transport induced by learning. A large range of velocities has been reported for mRNA transport in neural processes⁵³, and it is unknown whether mRNA travels from cortical cells

354 to their distal projection fields *in vivo* in the timeframe of our experiment.

355 Because we analyzed ribosome-bound mRNAs, not the total mRNA in cortical cells, our data
356 reflect not only mRNA localization but translation regulation as well. Presumably, downregulated
357 transcripts reflect termination and subsequent degradation, whereas upregulated transcripts represent
358 new initiation, with or without new transcription. After initiation, ribosomes can be stalled on mRNAs,
359 which are subject to regulated transport and reactivation.⁵⁴ In addition, mRNAs can be transported and
360 stored in a dormant state prior to initiation⁵³. Rather than being newly trafficked from the soma,
361 transcripts upregulated in the axons could result from unmasking of preexisting axonal mRNAs, and
362 concomitant depletion from the cortex does not preclude upregulation of new, masked transcripts.
363 Transcripts downregulated in the axons could reflect accelerated elongation in response to learning, or
364 activation of stalled ribosomes, potentially with initiation and subsequent stalling of transcripts in the
365 cortex to replenish the axonal supply. It should be noted that because our cortical samples contained
366 intrinsic and corticocortical axons, it is possible that some of our data derive from asynchronous
367 changes in proximal versus distal axons, potentially due to more rapid trafficking of mRNA from the
368 soma or differential regulation in the proximal axons. We found an assortment of initiation factors and
369 genes coding for them, along with spliceosome components, in axons, making it likely that at least
370 some axonal translation is locally initiated. The presence of genes associated with structures
371 surrounding axons, such as myelin basic protein (*Mbp*), spinophilin (*Ppp1r9b*), dendrin (*Ddn*), and the
372 shank proteins (*Shank1, 2, and 3*), could reflect previously unknown axonal functions of these proteins,
373 as perhaps evidenced by the presence of *Mbp* mRNA in unmyelinated cultured axons¹⁷. Alternatively,
374 this could result either from trans-endocytosis between dendritic spines and axonal boutons⁵⁵ or
375 exosomal transfer between myelin and the axon shaft^{14,34}. Translation regulation in axons is likely to
376 be extensively regulated through multiple mechanisms, the details of which are yet to be fully
377 discovered.

378 The spatiotemporal uncoupling of translation from transcription has unique implications in the
379 brain, which is itself functionally compartmentalized. The increasing use of gene expression to catalog
380 cells and brain areas, along with genetic targeting of brain circuits, will need to be reexamined if axonal
381 translation is widespread in the adult brain. The idea that translation can be spatially regulated has
382 gradually gained acceptance in a number of contexts, but these continue to be considered exceptional
383 circumstances. Our results counter the longstanding assumption that axonal translation does not occur
384 in the adult brain, and the number and variety of transcripts we identified suggests that spatial regulation
385 could be a fundamental component of translation.

386 **Methods**

388 **Subjects, surgery, and behavior**

389 All animal procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committees of New York
390 University and the University of Connecticut. Subjects were adult male Sprague-Dawley rats weighing
391 ~300g, housed singly on a 12-hour light/dark cycle with *ad libitum* food and water. All procedures were
392 performed during the rats' light cycle. For virus injections, rats were anesthetized with
393 ketamine/xylazine and given bilateral stereotaxic injections of either 0.2 μ l AAV-CMV.eYFP-L10a or 1 μ l
394 lenti-CMV.eYFP-L10a or lenti-CMV.eYFP (Emory Neuroscience Viral Vector Core) into TE3 (AP 3.8,
395 ML 6.8, DV 3.7mm from interaural center) using a Hamilton syringe. Animals were given at least two
396 weeks to recover from surgery before experiments began.

397 Behavioral training took place in a soundproof, lit 28.5 x 26 x 28.5cm chamber (Coulbourn
398 Instruments). Auditory tones (30s, 5kHz, 80dB) were delivered through a speaker inside the chamber,
399 and footshocks (0.7mA, 1s) were delivered through a grid floor. Rats were habituated to the conditioning
400 chamber for 30 minutes for two days prior to training. The training protocol consisted of five tones co-
401 terminating with foot shocks delivered over 32.5 minutes with a variable interval between tone-shock
402 pairings.

404 **Immunolabeling and electron microscopy**

405 Rats were deeply anesthetized with chloral hydrate (1.5mg/kg) and perfused transcardially with
406 500 ml of mixed aldehydes at pH 7.4 at a rate of 75ml/minute with a peristaltic pump. For eYFP
407 immunolabeling, two lentivirus-injected and two uninjected rats were perfused with 0.25%
408 glutaraldehyde/4% paraformaldehyde/4mM MgCl₂/2mM CaCl₂ in 0.1M PIPES buffer. For eIF4E and
409 eIF4G labeling six rats were perfused with 0.5% glutaraldehyde/4% paraformaldehyde/4mM
410 MgCl₂/2mM CaCl₂ in 0.1M PIPES buffer and alternate sections were used for each antibody. For eIF2 α
411 six rats were perfused with 0.25% glutaraldehyde/4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1M phosphate buffer. For
412 ribosomal protein S6 labeling, three rats were perfused with 0.1% glutaraldehyde/4%
413 paraformaldehyde in 0.1M phosphate buffer. Aldehydes and PIPES buffer were obtained from Electron
414 Microscopy Sciences, phosphate buffer and salts were from Sigma-Aldrich. Brains were removed and
415 immersed in the perfusion fixative for one hour before rinsing in buffered saline (0.01M fixation buffer
416 with 154 mM NaCl) and sectioning at 40 μ m on a vibrating slicer. Sections were blocked for 15 minutes
417 in 0.1% sodium borohydride, rinsed in buffer, and blocked in 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Jackson

Labs) before overnight incubation in primary antibody in 1% BSA at room temperature. Sections were rinsed, incubated in 1:200 biotinylated goat anti-rabbit or goat anti-mouse (Vector Labs) in 1% BSA for 30 minutes, rinsed, incubated in avidin/biotin complex peroxidase reagent (Vector Labs Vectastain Elite ABC PK-6100) for 30 minutes, then reacted 5 minutes with 1mM 3,3 diaminobenzidine in 0.0015% H₂O₂.

All sections from the brains injected with LV-CMV-eYFP-L10a were examined to confirm that there were no infected cell bodies outside of the TE3 injection site. The area around the LA was dissected out of the immunolabeled sections for electron microscopy. Tissue was processed for electron microscopy as previously described³². Briefly, tissue was postfixed in reduced osmium (1% osmium tetroxide/1.5% potassium ferrocyanide) followed by 1% osmium tetroxide, dehydrated in a graded series of ethanol with 1.5% uranyl acetate, infiltrated with LX-112 resin in acetone, embedded in resin, and cured at 60° for 48 hours. 45nm sections were cut on an ultramicrotome (Leica) and imaged on a JEOL 1200EX-II electron microscope at 25,000X on an AMT digital camera. Images were cropped and contrast adjusted using Photoshop (Adobe).

For quantification of eIF4E immunolabel, serial 45 nm sections (average 97+/-5) were imaged from each of the six samples. A 4 x 4 μm square was defined in the middle of the central section of each series, and every profile within the square was followed through serial sections to determine its identity and whether it contained label within the series. If a profile could not be definitively identified as an axon, dendrite, spine, or glial process within the series, it was classified as unidentified.

Antibodies

Antibody sources and dilutions for immunohistochemistry were as follows: anti-eIF4E rabbit polyclonal (Bethyl Labs A301-154A, lot# A301-154A-1) 1:500, anti-eIF4G1 mouse polyclonal (Abnova H00001981-A01, lot# 08213-2A9) 1:500, anti-eIF2α mouse monoclonal (Cell Signaling L57A5, lot# 3) 1:500, anti-GFP mouse monoclonal (Invitrogen A11120, clone# 3E6) 1:1000, and anti-neurofilament (highly phosphorylated medium and heavy) mouse monoclonal cocktail (BioLegend SMI 312 Lot# B263754). To confirm antigen recognition by the polyclonals to eIF4E and eIF4G, the primary antibodies were preadsorbed before use with a 10-fold excess of the immunizing peptide obtained from the antibody supplier, which reduced the density of labeled structures by 97-98%. To control for specificity of the GFP antibodies, tissue from animals without viral injections was run in parallel and did not result in labeled structures. For immunoprecipitation of eYFP-L10a, two mouse monoclonal anti-GFP antibodies (HtzGFP-19F7 lot# 1/BXC_4789/0513 and HtzGFP-19C8 lot# 1/BXC_4788/0513;

450 available from the Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center Monoclonal Antibody Core Facility, New
451 York, NY) were used as described below. SMI 312 is a cocktail of affinity-purified mouse monoclonal
452 antibodies that recognize highly phosphorylated medium and heavy neurofilament polypeptides
453

454 **Cloning and virus packaging**

455 pAAV-CMV-eYFP-L10a was a generous gift from Dr. Thomas Launey (RIKEN Brain Science
456 Institute, Wako, Japan⁴²). YFP-L10a was excised from pAAV-CMV-eYFP-L10a using Nhe I and Xho I.
457 The ~1.4 kb band was gel purified (QiaQuick Gel Extraction Kit, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). pLV-eGFP
458 (purchased from Adgene) was digested with Xba I and Sal I, and the ~6.7 kb band was gel purified.
459 The eYFP-L10a and pLV backbone were then ligated according to the manufacturer's protocol (T4 DNA
460 ligase, ThermoFisher Scientific, Springfield Township, NJ). Virus (VSVG.HIV.SIN.cPPT.CMV.eYFP-
461 L10a) was packaged by The University of Pennsylvania Vector Core. Viral titer was 2.29e09 GC
462 (genome copies)/mL.
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464 **Immunoprecipitation and RNA isolation**

465 Exactly two hours after the start of behavioral training, rats (n=10 per group) were deeply
466 anesthetized with chloral hydrate (1.5mg/kg) and perfused transcardially with 20ml ice cold oxygenated
467 artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) consisting of 125mM NaCl, 3.3mM KCl, 1.2mM NaH₂PO₄, 25mM
468 NaHCO₃, 0.5mM CaCl₂, 7mM MgSO₄, and 15mM glucose with 50μM cycloheximide. Brains were
469 quickly removed, blocked coronally around the amygdala and auditory cortex, and the two hemispheres
470 separated and incubated in the perfusion solution for 4-5 minutes. Each hemisphere was then bisected
471 along the rhinal fissure. The cortex of the dorsal half was peeled away from the underlying hippocampus
472 and the area containing TE3 was dissected out. A smaller block containing the amygdala was dissected
473 from the ventral half by peeling away the ventral hippocampus, trimming off the cortex lateral to the
474 external capsule and trimming away the hypothalamus and medial portion of the striatum. The TE3 and
475 amygdala blocks were quickly frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Control and trained animals
476 were run in parallel and tissue was collected in the middle of the animals' light cycle.

477 The polysome purification and RNA extraction were performed according to published
478 protocols^{40,42}. TE3 or amygdala tissues from 5 animals were pooled (resulting in 2 biological replicates
479 per group for sequencing), as pilot experiments found that this yielded sufficient mRNA. Samples were
480 homogenized in 2 ml of ice-cold polysome extraction buffer [10mM HEPES, 150mM KCl, 5mM MgCl₂,
481 0.5mM DTT, 1 minitablot Complete-EDTA free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche), 100μl RNasin®

482 Ribonuclease Inhibitor (Promega) and 100µl SUPERase In™ RNase inhibitor (Ambion), 100µg/ml
483 cycloheximide] in douncer homogenizer. Homogenates were centrifuged for 10 minutes at 2,000 x g at
484 4°C. The supernatants were clarified by adding 1% IGEPAL® CA-630 (SigmaAldrich) and 30 mM
485 DHPC (Avanti Polar Lipids) and incubated for 5 minutes on ice. The clarified lysates were centrifuged
486 for 15 minutes at 20,000 x g at 4°C to pellet unsolubilized material, and 100µl of the supernatant fluid
487 was collected for isolation of the tissue transcriptome. The remainder was added to the conjugated
488 beads/antibodies (200µl) and incubated at 4C overnight with gentle agitation. The following day, the
489 beads were collected with magnets for 1 minute on ice, then washed in 1mL 0,35M KCl washing buffer
490 (20mM HEPES, 350mM KCl, 5mMMgCl₂, 0.5mM DTT, 1% IGEPAL® CA-630, 100ul RNasin®
491 Ribonuclease Inhibitor and 100 µl SUPERase In™ RNase inhibitor, 100ug/ml cycloheximide) and
492 collected with magnets.

493 The conjugated beads/antibodies were freshly prepared before the homogenization on the day
494 of the experiment by incubating 300 µl of Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin T1 (ThermoFisher Scientific)
495 with 120µl of 1µg/µl Biotinylated Protein L (ThermoFisher Scientific) for 35 min at room temperature
496 with gentle rotation. Then, the conjugated protein L-beads were washed with 1XPBS and collected with
497 magnets for 3 times. The conjugated protein L-beads were resuspended in 175 µl of 0.15M KCl IP
498 wash buffer (20mM HEPES, 150mM KCl, 5mMMgCl₂, 0.5mM DTT, 1% IGEPAL® CA-630, 100µl
499 RNasin® Ribonuclease Inhibitor and 100 µl SUPERase In™ RNase inhibitor, 100ug/ml cycloheximide)
500 and incubated for 1h at room temperature with 50µg of each antibody. The beads were then washed 3
501 times with 0.15M KCl IP wash buffer and resuspended in the same buffer with 30mM DHPC.

502 The RNA was extracted and purified with Stratagene Absolutely RNA Nanoprep Kit (Agilent
503 Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. All the buffers were
504 provided with the kit except otherwise specified. Briefly, the beads were resuspended in Lysis Buffer
505 with β-mercaptoethanol, incubated for 10 min at room temperature. 80% Sulfolane (Sigma) was added
506 to the samples and the samples were mixed for 5-10sec, then added to an RNA-binding nano-spin cup
507 and washed with a Low Salt Washing Buffer by centrifuge for 1min at 12,000 x g at room temperature.
508 DNA was digested by mixing the DNase Digestion Buffer and the samples for 15 min at 37C. Then, the
509 samples were washed with High Salt Washing Buffer, Low Salt Washing Buffer and centrifuged for
510 1min at 12,000 x g. Finally, the samples were eluted with Elution Buffer and centrifuge for 5min at
511 12,000 x g at room temperature. The isolated RNA was stored at -80°C.

512 513 **Sequencing and differential gene expression (DGE) analysis**

514 RNASEq libraries were made using the SMART-Seq v4 Ultra Low Input RNA Kit for Illumina
515 Sequencing, with the Low Input Library Prep kit v2 (Clontech, Cat # 634890 and 634899, respectively),
516 using 50-200 pg of total RNA. 16 cycles of PCR were used for the cDNA amplification step, and 5 PCR
517 cycles to amplify the library prep. Libraries were run on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 instrument, using a
518 paired end 50 protocol; 8 samples were pooled per lane of a high output paired end flow cell, using
519 Illumina v4 chemistry.

520 Raw sequencing data were received in FASTQ format. Read mapping was performed using
521 Tophat 2.0.9 against the rn6 rat reference genome. The resulting BAM alignment files were processed
522 using the HTSeq 0.6.1 python framework and respective rn6 GTF gene annotation, obtained from the
523 UCSC database. Subsequently the Bioconductor package DESeq2(3.2) was used to identify
524 differentially expressed genes (DEG). This package provides statistics for determination of DEG using
525 a model based on the negative binomial distribution. The resulting values were then adjusted using the
526 Benjamini and Hochberg's method for controlling the false discovery rate (FDR). Genes with an
527 adjusted p-value < 0.05 were determined to be differentially expressed. For transcript-level analysis,
528 the Cufflinks suite (version 2.2.1) was used. ANOVAs and *post hoc* Bonferroni tests were run using
529 the STATISTICA software package (StatSoft). Raw sequencing data and analysis are available in the
530 NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (accession # GSE124592).

531 532 **Filtering of DGE results**

533 To isolate the axonal transcriptome with as few false positives as possible, we employed a
534 stringent filtering strategy to our DGE data. Twelve comparisons were run between the 8 samples: the
535 TRAPed mRNAs from the axons and cortex were compared to each other separately in each of the
536 training conditions, and the conditions were compared to each other separately in the two brain areas.
537 The same analysis was performed on the tissue transcriptome samples, and each of the four TRAPed
538 samples was compared directly to its corresponding transcriptome. To assemble a list of axonal
539 mRNAs, we began with the comparisons between the TRAPed samples, since this should account for
540 much of the IP background. Because of potential background noise and variability between the
541 individual samples preparations, we excluded genes from each TRAP comparison if the same effect
542 was observed in the corresponding transcriptome comparison. In addition, genes enriched in a given
543 comparison between TRAP samples were excluded if they were not also enriched versus the
544 transcriptome. Although both of these steps likely result in many false negatives, particularly among
545 transcripts that are highly abundant or ubiquitous in the tissue, we felt that excluding potential false

546 positives was crucial given the novelty of our dataset.

548 **Gene Ontology and Ingenuity Pathway Analysis**

549 Gene lists were submitted to the DAVID⁴⁵ Functional Annotation Chart tool and enrichment data
550 from the GOTERM_BP_DIRECT (biological process), GOTERM_CC_DIRECT (cellular component),
551 and GOTERM_MF_DIRECT (molecular function) gene ontology categories and KEGG_PATHWAY
552 (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes) category were examined, using a Benjamini-Hochberg
553 adjusted p-value cutoff of <0.05. For comparison of learning effects, all regulated genes in each area
554 were submitted, regardless of any effect or enrichment in the other area.

555 For Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (Qiagen Bioinformatics), we submitted all genes differentially
556 expressed (adjusted p-value <0.05) between the training groups in the axons and cortex, along with
557 the corrected \log_2 (fold change) calculated by DESeq2. We performed a Core Analysis with the
558 reference data restricted to human, mouse and rat genes and nervous system tissue; otherwise the
559 program's default settings were used.

561 **Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization**

562
563 Adult male rats (n=4) were given control training and perfused two hours later with 4%
564 paraformaldehyde in 0.1M phosphate buffer, pH 7.4. Brains were sectioned at 40 μ m on a vibrating
565 tissue slicer (Leica) and mounted on glass slides. RNA was detected using the RNAscope 2.5 HD RED
566 kit (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, Inc.) according to the manufacturer's instructions, with the exception
567 that the incubation time for the fifth amplification step was doubled to increase the diameter of the
568 puncta. Each section was labeled with one of five probes: *Rab3a*, *Ndr4*, *Ap2m1*, *Gdi1*, or *DapB*
569 (negative control). Sections were blocked overnight in 1% bovine serum albumin with 0.1% Triton-X in
570 phosphate buffered saline, then incubated with primary antibody at 1:500 for 48 hours at 4° followed
571 by 1:200 Alexa-488 goat anti-mouse for one hour at room temperature. Slides were stained with DAPI,
572 mounted in Prolong Gold (Invitrogen), and imaged on a Leica TCS SP8 confocal microscope (Leica
573 Microsystems). Z stacks were collected using a 63x 1.40 HC PL APO oil immersion lens and z step
574 size of 0.3 microns. All sections were stained in parallel with the same batches of probes and antibody.
575 Laser intensity and gain were constant for all images and brightness and contrast were not adjusted.
576 Maximum intensity projections were created in ImageJ.

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699 Endnotes

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701 LO designed the study, LO, ES, RS, and ZD performed experiments, LO, AT, and AH performed
702 analysis, and LO and EK wrote the paper with input from all authors.

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Supplementary Materials

Table S1. RNA Quality Control Data

Sample	RIN	Raw reads #1	Raw reads #2	% bases Q>= 30	Uniquely mapped reads %	Multi- mapped reads %
TRAP control axons rep 1	7.8	29,430,720	29,430,720	94.48	77.47	19.04
TRAP control axons rep 2	8.0	27,285,154	27,285,154	95.24	78.08	18.39
TRAP control cortex rep 1	9.4	34,057,317	34,057,317	95.5	72.25	23.47
TRAP control cortex rep 2	9.8	38,634,382	38,634,382	94.96	70.66	25.54
TRAP trained axons rep 1	9.8	30,221,230	30,221,230	94.41	76.86	19.78
TRAP trained axons rep 2	8.7	27,951,448	27,951,448	94.32	76.68	19.66
TRAP trained cortex rep 1	9.9	37,791,175	37,791,175	94.79	69.93	25.90
TRAP trained cortex rep 2	9.7	34,481,070	34,481,070	94.91	72.18	23.83
Transc. control axons rep 1	6.4	35,934,968	35,934,968	93.03	87.30	10.10
Transc. control axons rep 2	7.2	36,774,857	36,774,857	95.05	87.42	9.98
Transc. control cortex rep 1	8.7	36,067,046	36,067,046	94.00	88.01	9.65
Transc. control cortex rep 2	8.7	33,261,134	33,261,134	93.84	87.79	9.78
Transc. trained axons rep 1	9.6	37,890,759	37,890,759	94.16	88.04	9.63
Transc. trained axons rep 2	8.8	39,793,039	39,793,039	94.02	87.81	9.63
Transc. trained cortex rep 1	8.6	31,509,058	31,509,058	93.81	88.15	9.42
Transc. trained cortex rep 2	9.0	31,031,259	31,031,259	95.58	87.72	9.61
YFP_IP control axons rep 1	7.0	39,073,113	39,073,113	94.15	74.32	21.75
YFP_IP control axons rep 2	9.0	32,214,031	32,214,031	94.25	72.90	22.99
YFP_IP control cortex rep 1	8.8	27,039,569	27,039,569	93.57	76.52	19.51
YFP_IP control cortex rep 2	9.3	27,888,237	27,888,237	93.17	73.15	22.23
YFP_IP trained axons rep 1	9.0	27,119,148	27,119,148	92.58	74.22	21.69
YFP_IP trained axons rep 2	8.4	29,286,890	29,286,890	95.23	73.60	22.19
YFP_IP trained cortex rep 1	9.5	30,180,396	30,180,396	94.74	76.00	19.55
YFP_IP trained cortex rep 2	8.9	29,087,509	29,087,509	93.94	74.33	21.60
YFP transc. control axons rep 1	9.5	32,819,895	32,819,895	94.16	88.17	9.33

Table S1. RNA Quality Control Data, cont.

Sample	RIN	Raw reads #1	Raw reads #2	% bases Q>= 30	Uniquely mapped reads %	Multi- mapped reads %
YFP transc. control axons rep 2	9.4	32,118,423	32,118,423	94.29	86.84	10.52
YFP transc. control cortex rep 1	9.6	29,502,761	29,502,761	93.81	87.73	9.71
YFP transc. control cortex rep 2	7.6	30,411,787	30,411,787	93.38	87.43	9.86
YFP transc. trained axons rep 1	9.6	29,436,121	29,436,121	92.82	88.19	9.30
YFP transc. trained axons rep 2	9.1	33,504,177	33,504,177	95.48	87.93	9.49
YFP transc. trained cortex rep 1	9.4	33,113,755	33,113,755	95.15	87.57	9.53
YFP transc. trained cortex rep 2	9.6	31,485,033	31,485,033	94.04	87.87	9.57

RIN: RNA Integrity Number; $Q = -10 \times \log_{10}(p)$ where p =probability of incorrect base call

Supplementary Tables 2-8 are in a separate Excel file

Supplementary Table 2. Results of differential gene expression analysis and subsequent filtering.

Supplementary Table 3. Results of differential gene expression analysis and subsequent filtering, YFP samples.

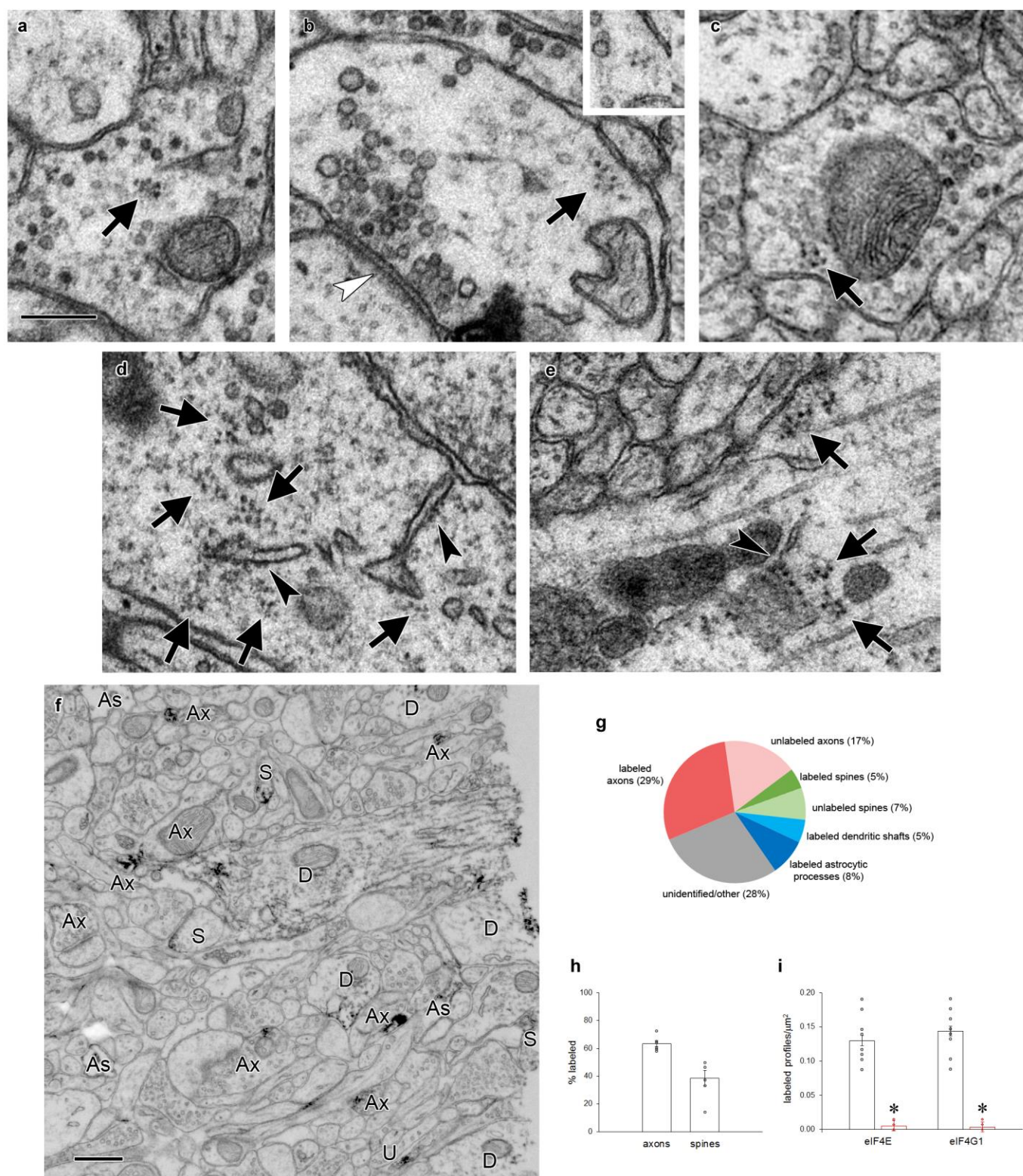
Supplementary Table 4. Results of DAVID enrichment analyses of all axonal genes, cortex-only genes, and genes that were upregulated and downregulated in the axons and cortex.

Supplementary Table 5. Results of ANOVA and post hoc Bonferroni test comparing mean FPKM between experimental groups by learning effect.

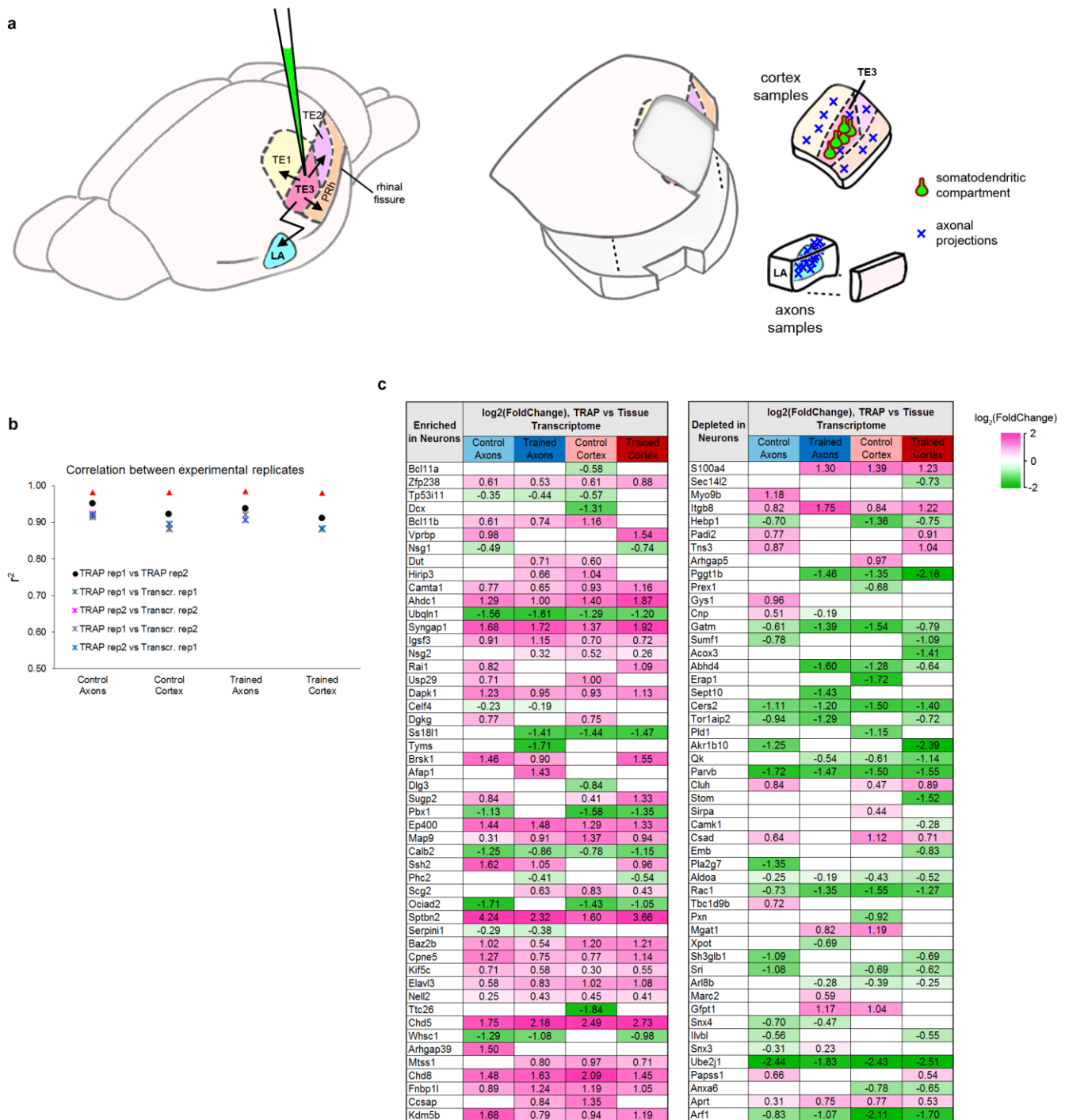
Supplementary Table 6. Results of IPA Upstream Regulator analysis of learning effects in axons and cortex.

Supplementary Table 7. Results of IPA Functional Annotation analysis of learning effects in axons and cortex.

Supplementary Table 8. Transcript-level FPKM values and results of differential expression analysis.

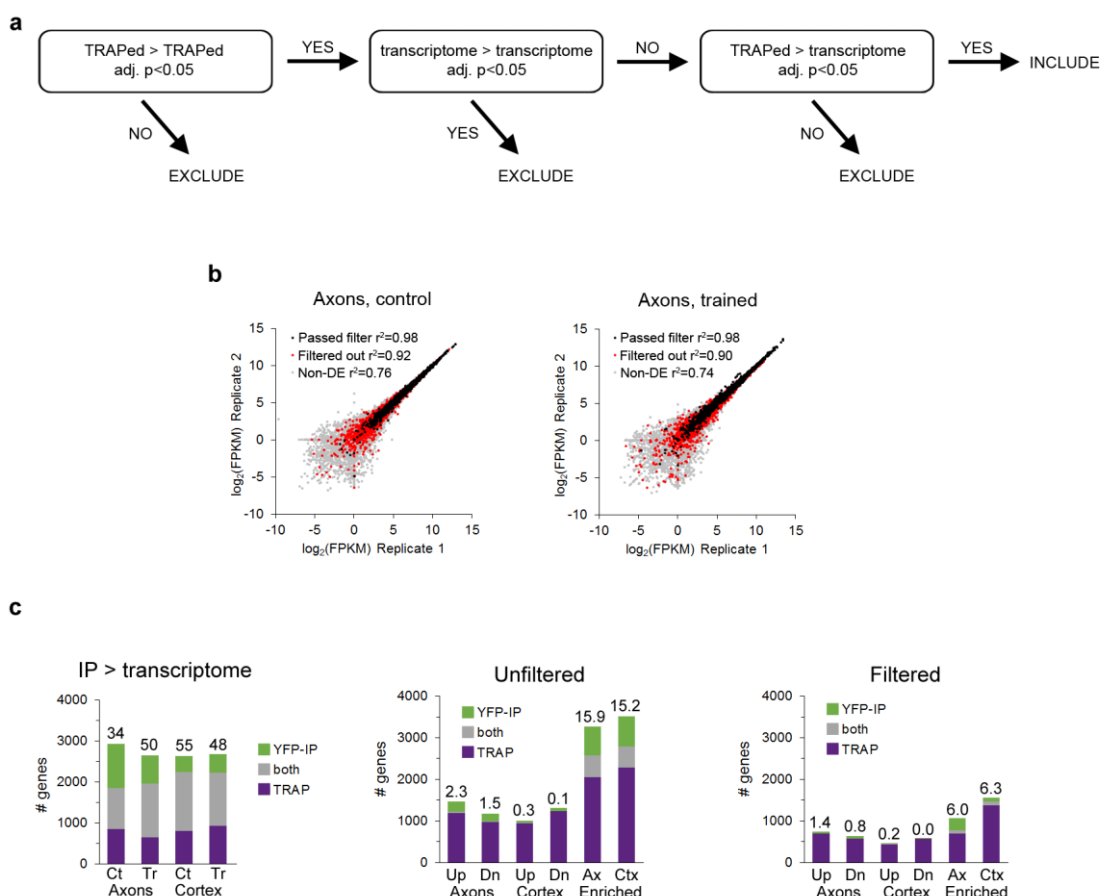


Supplementary Figure 1. Polyribosomes and translation factors in axons. a-c) Examples of polyribosomes (arrows) in axonal boutons. Inset in (b) shows the same polyribosome on an adjacent serial section. d-e) Copious polyribosomes (arrows) in a neuronal cell body (d) and a large dendritic shaft (e). Rough endoplasmic reticulum (arrowheads) is visible in both structures. f) Representative field of tissue immunolabeled for eIF4E, with labeled axons (Ax), astrocytic processes (As), dendritic shafts (D), and dendritic spines (S) indicated. Profiles were followed through serial sections to confirm identifications. g) Breakdown of all profiles in a $4\mu\text{m}^2$ field of one section near the center of a serial EM volume of tissue immunolabeled for eIF4E. Six series were averaged. 28% of profiles could not be unambiguously identified within the series. h) Percent of axons and spines in a $4\mu\text{m}^2$ field that were immunolabeled for eIF4E when followed through series. 100% of dendritic shafts and astrocytic processes contained label. i) Number of labeled profiles per square micron on 10 randomly chosen, non-consecutive $10 \times 10\mu\text{m}$ electron micrographs of tissue labeled with eIF4E and eIF4G1 antibodies (black) or antibodies preadsorbed with immunizing peptide (red). Densities were compared by ANOVA: eIF4E $F_{(1,18)}=133.5$, $p>0.00001$; eIF4G1 $F_{(1,18)}=199.3$, $p>0.00001$. Imaging and analysis were done with experimenters blind to condition.

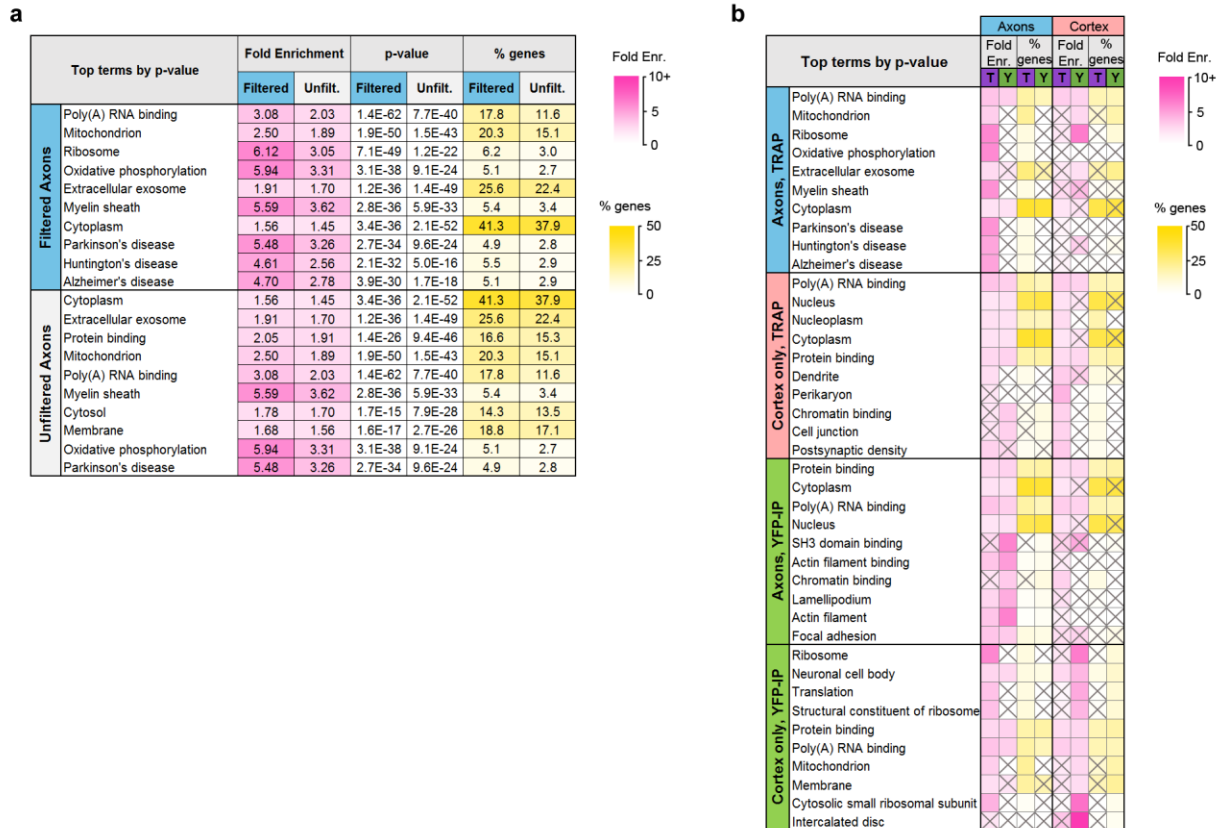


Supplementary Figure 2. Collection of TRAP samples. a) Left: Illustration of LV-CMV-eYFP-L10a injection into cortical area TE3, showing TE3 projections to cortical areas TE1, TE2, and perirhinal (PRh), and the lateral amygdala (LA). Right: Illustration of tissue sampling for TRAP. After separating the hemispheres and bisecting along the rhinal fissure, cortex samples were collected by dissecting wide margins around TE3 so that portions of adjacent cortical areas and the underlying white matter

were included. A separate block was dissected from the ventral half (the “axons” sample), containing the LA, along with the immediately adjacent small area of caudate that also receives projections from TE3. The adjacent area of cortex was removed to ensure that these samples did not contain any stray pieces of perirhinal cortex that could contain cortico-cortical axons. Cortical divisions and projection patterns adapted from references 25-27. b) Correlation coefficients of $\log_2(\text{FPKM})$ between experimental replicates, calculated from all raw data. c) The top genes in the proteome of adult mouse cortex identified as enriched (left) or depleted (right) in neurons versus other cell types, sorted by magnitude of enrichment ⁴⁴. The top 50 genes that were also significantly enriched or depleted in our TRAPed samples versus the tissue transcriptome are shown, with the normalized magnitude of change. Significance was defined as an adjusted p value of <0.05 . Neuron-enriched genes were mostly enriched in TRAPed samples (36 of 50), while neuron-depleted genes were depleted from TRAP samples (34 of 50).



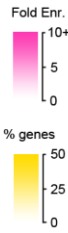
Supplementary Figure 3. Filtering of DGE results. a) Strategy for removing false positives from results of differential gene expression analysis. b) FPKM values of TRAPed genes from axons in experimental replicates of the control (left) and trained (right) groups. All genes defined as axonal that passed the filtering procedure are indicated with black markers, axonal genes that were removed by filtering with red, and genes that were not axonal in gray. c) Overlap between DGE results in the TRAP and YFP-IP experiments. Left: genes enriched in the TRAP and YFP IP samples versus the transcriptome for all four experimental conditions. Numbers above the bars indicate percent overlap. Center, right: Overlap between genes regulated in the TRAP and YFP IP samples versus the transcriptome for all four experimental conditions. Numbers above the bars indicate percent overlap. Center, right: Overlap between genes regulated in the TRAP and YFP IP samples versus the transcriptome for all four experimental conditions. Numbers above the bars indicate percent overlap.



Supplementary Figure 4. Comparison of TRAP and YFP-IP experiments. a) Top GO and KEGG Pathway terms enriched in the filtered and unfiltered sets of axonal genes, sorted by Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value. b) Top GO Terms and KEGG pathways in axonal and cortex-only translomes in TRAP and YFP-IP samples, sorted by Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value. Gray X's indicate effects that were not significant (adjusted p-value > 0.05).

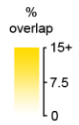
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Significantly Enriched Terms	Fold Enrich.		% of genes	
	Axons	Cortex	Axons	Cortex
Presynaptic compartment				
Myelin sheath	5.6		5.4	
Axon	2.4		4.5	
Axon cytoplasm	4.5		0.8	
Axonal growth cone	3.9		0.6	
Synaptic vesicle	2.4		1.6	
Metabolism/mitochondrial				
Mitochondrion	2.5		20.3	
Oxidative phosphorylation	5.9		5.1	
Metabolic pathways	1.5		11.6	
Citrate cycle (TCA cycle)	5.4		1.0	
RNA Processing/Translation				
Catalytic step 2 spliceosome	3.7	3.8	1.8	1.7
Poly(A) RNA binding	3.1	2.6	17.8	14.8
Spliceosome	3.1		2.5	
Ribosome	6.1		6.2	
Translation	3.1		6.0	
Golgi apparatus	1.4		5.9	
Cytoskeleton/transport/cell adhesion				
Cell junction		2.3		4.5
Microtubule	2.9		3.4	
Cytoskeleton	2.5		3.0	
Actin binding	2.4		3.1	
Motor activity	4.0		1.1	
Cadherin binding involved in cell-cell adhesion	2.1		2.3	
Nucleus/transcription				
Chromatin binding		2.4		5.4
Nucleus	1.4	1.5	34.4	36.0
DNA-directed RNA polymerase II, core complex	4.7		0.5	
Cell body				
Perikaryon		3.8		2.8
Perinuclear region of cytoplasm	1.8	1.9	5.9	5.8
Neuronal cell body	2.2	2.0	6.0	5.2
Postsynaptic compartment				
Dendrite	1.7	2.6	4.2	6.1
Dendrite membrane		8.4		1.0
Postsynaptic density	2.4	2.8	2.9	3.2
Postsynaptic membrane		2.7		2.6
Dendritic spine	2.6		1.9	
Other				
Zinc ion binding		1.7		9.0
Extracellular exosome	1.9		25.6	
Cytoplasm	1.6	1.4	41.3	35.8
Parkinson's disease	5.5		4.9	
Huntington's disease	4.6		5.5	
Alzheimer's disease	4.7		5.1	
Membrane	1.7		18.8	
Proteasome complex	4.1		1.2	
Calmodulin binding	2.6		2.1	
Positive regulation of GTPase activity	1.8		3.6	
Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD)	4.0		3.8	

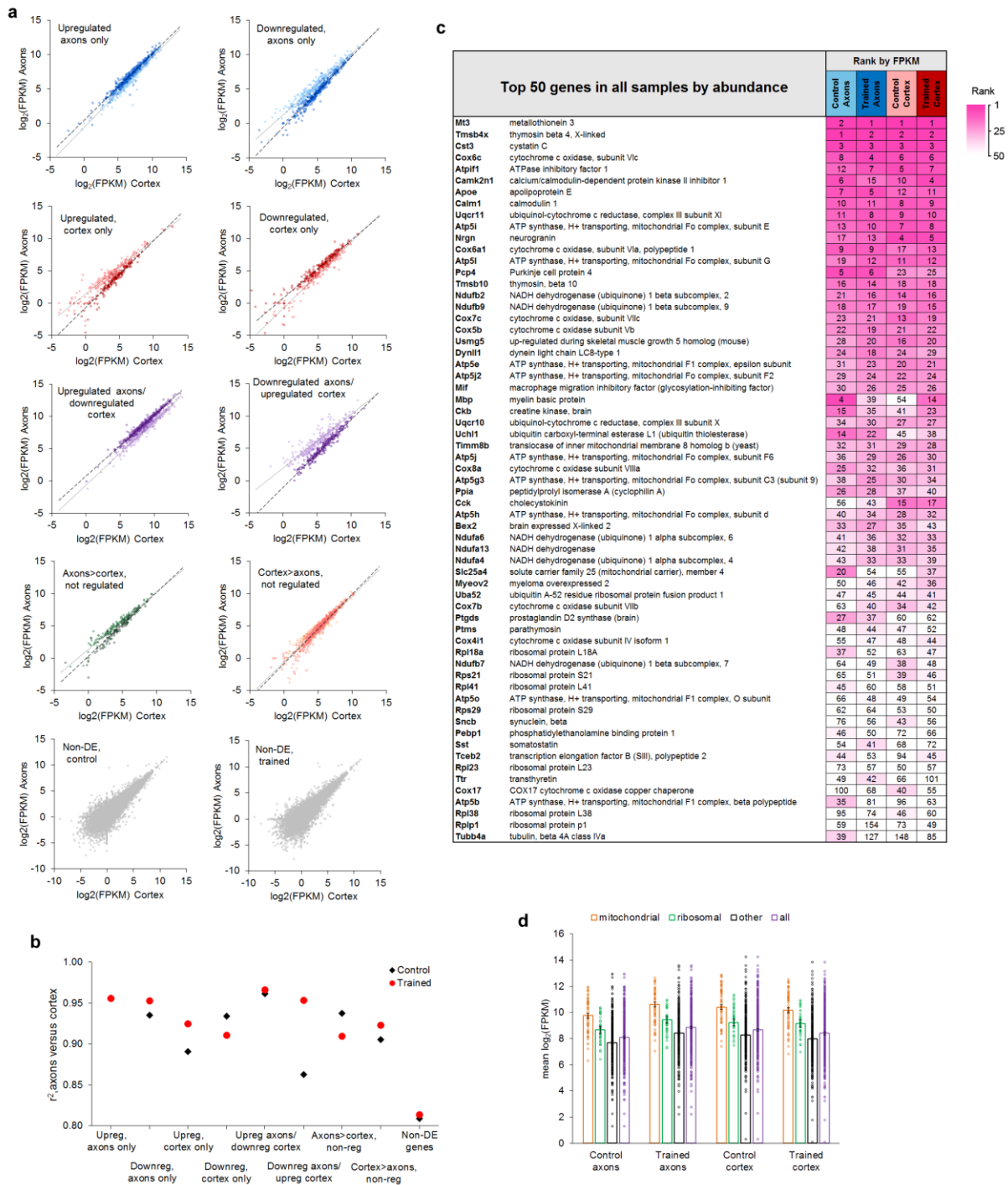


b

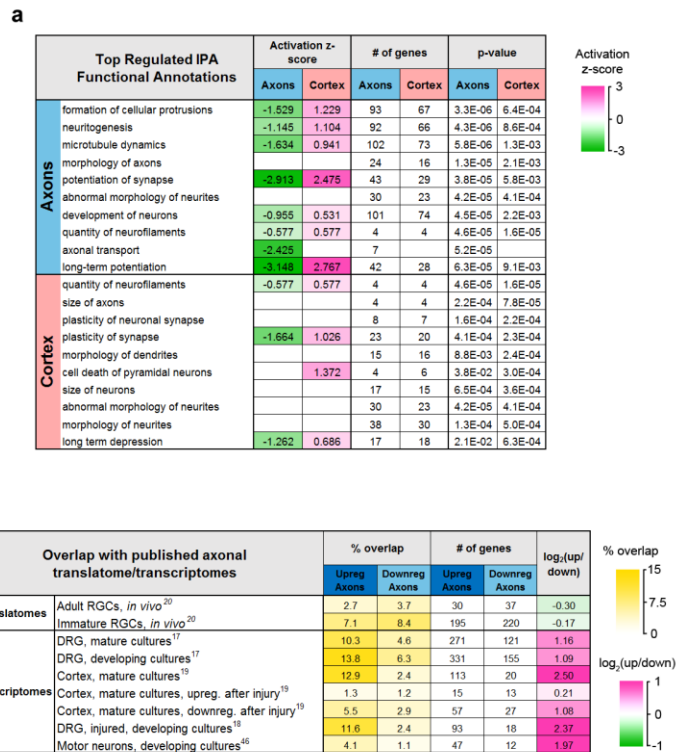
Overlap with published axonal translome/transcriptomes		% overlap		# of genes	
		Ax	Ct	Ax	Ct
Axonal transl.	Adult RGCs, <i>in vivo</i> ²⁰	4.1	2.3	77	26
	Immature RGCs, <i>in vivo</i> ²⁰	14.1	4.9	480	139
Axonal transcrip.	DRG, mature cultures ¹⁷	13.0	4.5	424	126
	DRG, developing cultures ¹⁷	17.4	5.7	520	147
	Cortex, mature cultures ¹⁵	8.4	2.0	137	19
	Cortex, mature cultures, upreg. after injury ¹⁹	1.6	1.0	31	12
	Cortex, mature cultures, downreg. after injury ¹⁹	4.9	2.2	87	24
	DRG, injured, developing cultures ¹⁸	6.7	1.5	112	13
Neuropil transcrip.	Motor neurons, developing cultures ⁴⁵	4.5	5.2	64	35
	Adult CA1, acute slices ⁸	11.5	5.8	415	177
	Adult CA1, <i>in vivo</i> ⁹	1.5	0.9	23	7
	Cultured CA1 ⁷	1.0	0.8	16	7
	Juvenile cortical synaptoneurosome (transl.) ¹⁰	3.7	1.7	53	12



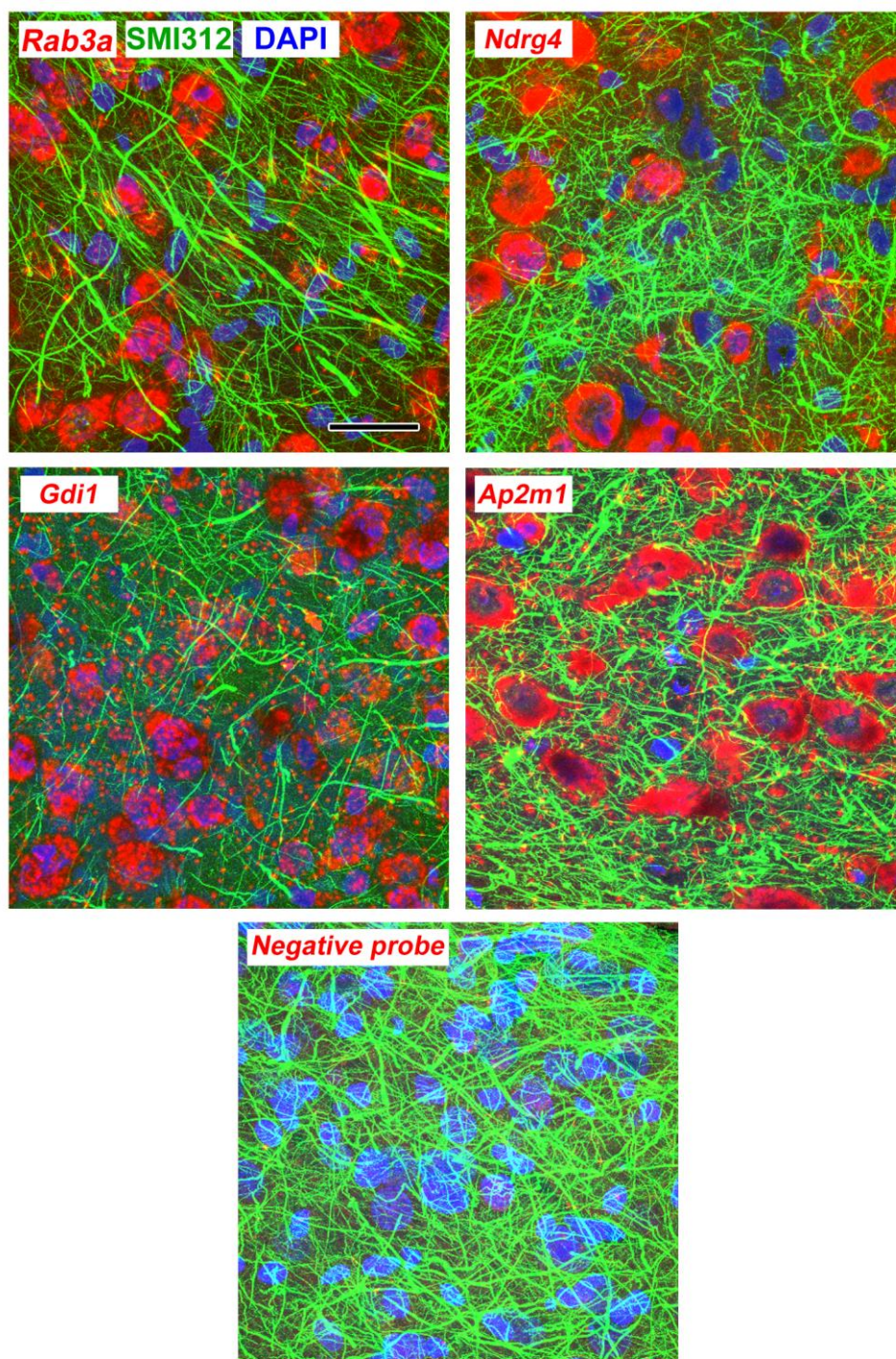
Supplementary Figure 5. Composition of the axonal translome. a) Groups of related terms enriched in axonal, cortex-only, or both gene sets. Text color indicates higher enrichment in axons (blue) or cortex (red). Only significant effects (adjusted p-value <0.05) are shown. b) Overlap (% intersection/union) between the axonal and cortex-only and published translomes and transcriptomes in references 8-10 and 16-19, and number of overlapping genes.



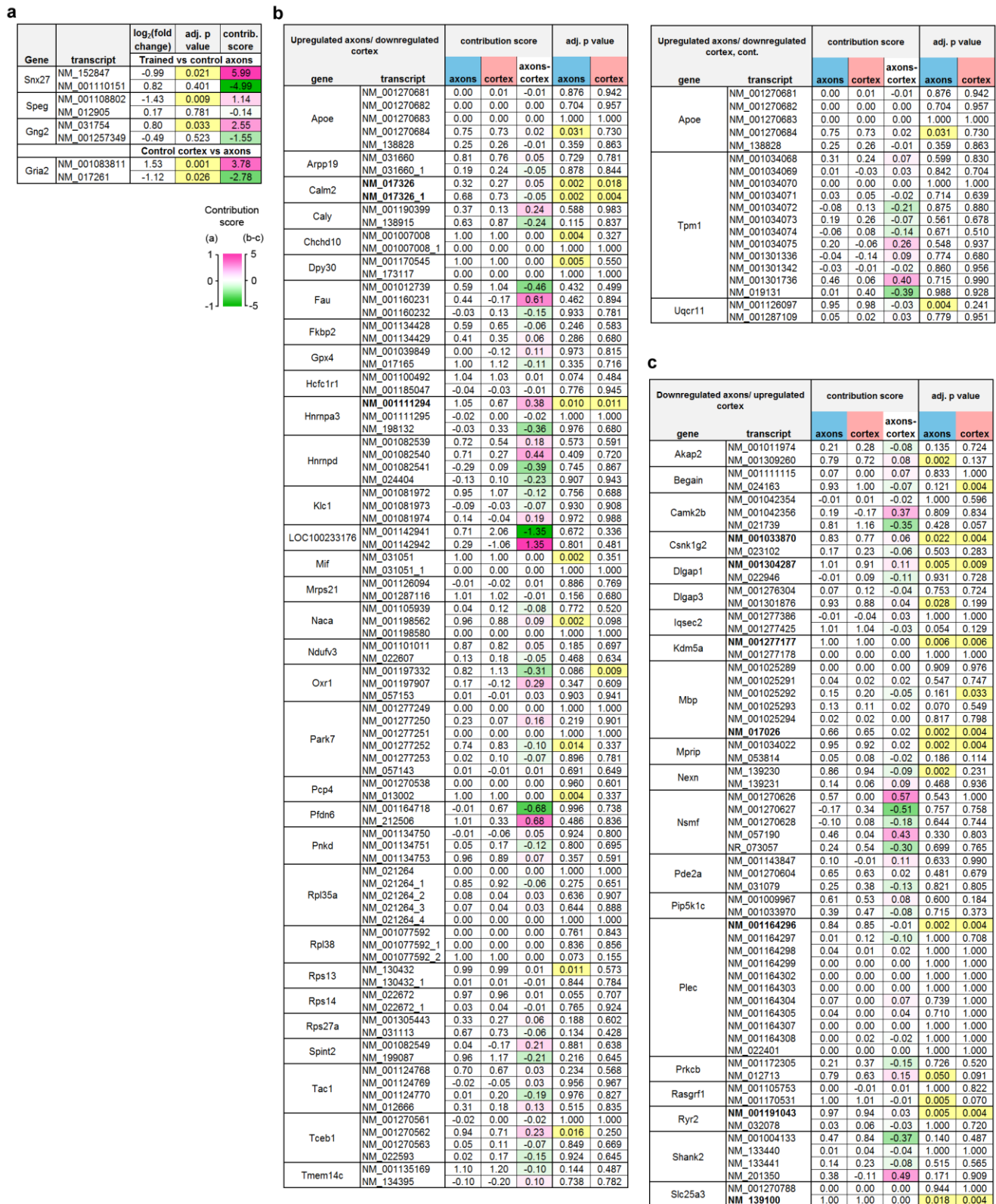
Supplementary Figure 6. Relative abundance of genes in axons and cortex. a) Plots of $\log_2(\text{FPKM})$ in cortex versus axons in control (light markers) and trained (dark markers) groups, grouped by learning effects. b) Correlation coefficients between $\log_2(\text{FPKM})$ in cortex and axons for each learning effect. c) 63 genes representing the top 50 genes from each of the four groups, sorted by average rank. d) Mean FPKM of genes upregulated in axons and downregulated in cortex after learning, grouped into mitochondrial respiration ($n=55$), ribosomal proteins ($n=39$), the remainder ($n=294$), and the full gene set ($n=388$). Error bars= s.e.m.



Supplementary Figure 7. a) Functional annotations significantly regulated by learning in the axons and cortex. b) Overlap between genes regulated in axons and published translomes and transcriptomes in references (16-19).



Supplementary Figure 8. Maximum intensity projections through 3 μ m (10 confocal images with a 0.3 μ m z-step size) of lateral amygdala showing FISH labeling and immunolabeling for neurofilaments. Scale = 20 μ m.



on all transcripts of the same gene, with a negative score indicating differences in opposite directions between the transcript and gene. Adjusted p-values for each transcript are highlighted at <0.05 . a) Three transcripts were found to be regulated by learning in the axons that were not differentially expressed at the gene level. In each case, a second transcript was affected non-significantly in the opposite direction. The two transcripts of *Gria2* were differently distributed in the control group, with one enriched in axons and the other in cortex. b-c) Genes regulated in both axons and cortex (b; upregulated in axons/downregulated in cortex, c; downregulated in axons/upregulated in cortex) with multiple transcripts in the dataset. The difference between the score in the axons and cortex (“axons – cortex”) indicates the degree of asymmetry, with positive numbers indicating transcripts which were affected proportionally more in the axons than cortex. Values near zero indicate transcripts that were similarly affected in both areas. Transcripts with significant effects in both areas are shown in bold type.