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Study of the Size and Shape of Synapses in the Juvenile Rat Somatosensory Cortex with 3D Electron Microscopy

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42 Study of the size and shape of synapses in the juvenile 43 rat somatosensory cortex with 3D electron microscopy

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45 Abstract

46 Changes in the size of the synaptic junction are thought to have significant functional 47 consequences. We used focused ion beam milling and scanning electron microscopy (FIB/SEM) 48 to obtain stacks of serial sections from the six layers of the rat somatosensory cortex. We have 49 segmented in three-dimensions a large number of synapses (n=6891) to analyze the size and 50 shape of excitatory (asymmetric) and inhibitory (symmetric) synapses, using dedicated 51 software. This study provided three main findings. Firstly, the mean synaptic sizes were smaller 52 for asymmetric than for symmetric synapses in all cortical layers. In all cases, synaptic junction sizes followed a log-normal distribution. Secondly, most cortical synapses had disc-shaped 53 54 postsynaptic densities (93%). A few were perforated (4.5%), while a smaller proportion (2.5%) 55 showed a tortuous horseshoe-shaped perimeter. Thirdly, the curvature was larger for 56 symmetric than for asymmetric synapses in all layers. However, there was no correlation 57 between synaptic area and curvature.

58

59 Significance Statement

60 The size of synapses correlates with functional aspects such as the probability of neurotransmitter release or the number of postsynaptic receptors. The data obtained in the 61 62 present study is based on the analysis of thousands synaptic junctions, that have been imaged 63 and segmented in 3D with semi automated electron microcopy and image analysis methods, 64 providing a robust set of morphological data. Since currently-available 3D quantitative data 65 are scarce and mainly based on individual cases, the present results in conjunction with other 66 crucial microanatomical data —such as the number and distribution of different types of synapses and the identification of postsynaptic targets in different cortical layers — will help to 67 68 better understand the structure of microcircuits and to build realistic cortical models.

69

71 Introduction

72 There are two main types of chemical synapses in the cerebral cortex that can be identified at 73 the electron microscope level based on morphological criteria: asymmetric synapses (AS), that 74 have a thickened postsynaptic density (PSD) and are generally excitatory (glutamatergic), and 75 symmetric synapses (SS), that have a thinner PSD and are inhibitory (GABAergic) (Houser et al., 76 1984; Peters et al., 1991; Ascoli et al., 2008). In the cerebral cortex, the vast majority of 77 synapses are established in the neuropil which represents 90–98% of the volume of the gray 78 matter (Alonso-Nanclares et al., 2008). In the neuropil, which is composed of dendrites, axons 79 and glial processes, most cortical synapses are excitatory (80-90%) and originate from spiny 80 neurons and extrinsic cortical afferents. Inhibitory synapses are less numerous (about 10–20%) 81 and mainly originate from local interneurons (Feldman, 1984; Beaulieu and Colonnier, 1985; 82 Schüz and Palm, 1989; White and Keller, 1989; DeFelipe and Fariñas, 1992; DeFelipe et al., 83 2002; White, 2007; Silberberg, 2008).

84 Synapses are dynamic structures than can undergo modifications due to variations in their 85 activity patterns; they are continuously remodeled and replaced as part of the normal maintenance of the brain (Fauth and Tetzlaff, 2016; Lisman, 2017). This is important because 86 87 the size of the active zone (AZ) is proportional to the number of docked synaptic vesicles and 88 to the probability of neurotransmitter release (Schikorski and Stevens, 1997; Branco et al., 89 2010; Matz et al., 2010; Holderith et al., 2012), and the PSD area is proportional to the number 90 of postsynaptic receptors (Nusser et al., 1998; Kharazia and Weinberg, 1999; Takumi et al., 91 1999; Ganeshina et al., 2004a, b; Tarusawa et al., 2009). Thus, changes in the surface areas of 92 the AZ and PSD have significant functional consequences. However, measuring the size of a 93 synapse is not an easy task and different approaches have been used to overcome this difficulty. The cross-sectional length of the PSDs in single photomicrographs obtained by 94 95 transmission electron microscopy (TEM) gives a rough estimate of synaptic sizes (DeFelipe et

96 al., 1999). Better estimates can be obtained from TEM serial sections, measuring the maximum 97 width of the PSDs (Tarusawa et al., 2009) or the PSD surface area (Toni et al., 2001). However, 98 serial sectioning is a time-consuming and technically demanding task. Consequently, data on 99 synaptic sizes are either relatively inaccurate or based on relatively scant data. Recently, new 100 electron microscopy techniques have been developed that allow us to obtain long series of 101 sections in an automated way (Denk and Horstmann, 2004; Smith, 2007; Knott et al., 2008; 102 Merchan-Perez et al., 2009; Helmstaedter, 2013; Morgan and Lichtman, 2013). For example, 103 using focused ion beam milling and scanning electron microscopy (FIB/SEM), large numbers of 104 synaptic junctions can be three-dimensionally segmented from serial sections (Morales et al., 105 2011). Simple measurements, such as the Feret's diameter (the diameter of the smallest 106 sphere circumscribing the three-dimensional object) can be obtained (Anton-Sanchez et al., 107 2014; Merchan-Perez et al., 2014). The main advantage of Feret's diameter is its simplicity, 108 although it provides no information about shape. A more accurate method has been 109 developed to estimate the size and shape of synapses. Since the AZ and the PSD are located 110 face to face and their surface areas are very similar (Schikorski and Stevens, 1997, 1999) they 111 can be represented by a single surface, the synaptic apposition surface (SAS), that can be 112 automatically extracted with dedicated software (Morales et al., 2013). The SAS provides not 113 only quantitative information, but also qualitative visual information about the shape of the 114 synaptic junction, such as curvature, perimeter tortuosity or the presence of perforations.

In this work, we have studied the size and shape of AS and SS on spines and dendritic shafts in the neuropil of all cortical layers of the somatosensory cortex. We used a large database of synaptic junctions that were fully segmented in 3D (n= 6891) from Wistar rats at postnatal day 14. We extracted and measured the SAS of these synapses using the method developed by Morales et al (2013). This experimental animal —at this age—was selected since we intended to integrate these data with other anatomical, molecular, and physiological data that have already been collected from the same cortical region. The final goal is to obtain accurate

125 Materials and methods

126 Animals and Tissue Preparation

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128 Three male Wistar rats sacrificed on postnatal day 14 were used for this study. Animals were 129 administered a lethal intraperitoneal injection of sodium pentobarbital (40 mg/kg) and were 130 intracardially perfused with 2% paraformaldehyde and 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M 131 phosphate buffer (PB). The brain was then extracted from the skull and processed for electron 132 microscopy according to a previously described protocol (Merchan-Perez et al., 2009). Briefly, 133 the brains were extracted from the skull and post-fixed at 4°C overnight in the same solution. 134 Vibratome sections were obtained (150 μ m thick). Sections containing the primary 135 somatosensory cortex (hindlimb representation) were selected with the help of an atlas 136 (Paxinos and Watson, 2007). The sections were then osmicated for 1 h at room temperature in 137 PB with 1% OsO4, 7% glucose and 0.02 M CaCl2. After washing in PB, the sections were stained 138 en bloc for 30 min with 1% uranyl acetate in 50% ethanol at 37°C, and were then flat-139 embedded in Araldite. These tissue samples have been used previously to describe the 140 proportions and densities of AS and SS synapses on spines and dendritic shafts across all 141 cortical layers, as well as the occurrence of single or multiple synapses on the same spine 142 (Santuy et al., 2017).

All animals were handled in accordance with the guidelines for animal research set out in the
European Community Directive 2010/63/EU, and all procedures were approved by the local
ethics committee of the Spanish National Research Council (CSIC).

147 Three-Dimensional Electron Microscopy

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Three-dimensional brain tissue samples of the somatosensory cortex (hindlimb representation) 149 were obtained using combined focused ion beam milling and scanning electron microscopy 150 151 (FIB/SEM). We used a Crossbeam® Neon40 EsB electron microscope with a field emission SEM 152 column and a Gallium FIB (Carl Zeiss NTS GmbH, Oberkochen, Germany). To select the exact 153 location to be imaged and to identify the cortical layers, we obtained semithin sections (2 µm 154 thick) from the block surface and stained them with toluidine blue. These sections were then 155 photographed with a light microscope. The last of these light microscope images 156 (corresponding to the section immediately adjacent to the block face) was then collated with 157 SEM photographs of the block face. A gallium ion beam was used to mill the sample, removing 158 thin layers of material on a nanometer scale. After removing each slice (20 nm thick), the 159 milling process was paused, and the freshly exposed surface was imaged with a 1.8-kV 160 acceleration potential using an in-column energy selective backscattered electron detector. 161 The milling and imaging processes were sequentially repeated in a fully automated way, and 162 long series of images were acquired, thus obtaining a stack of images that represented a 3-163 dimensional sample of the tissue (Merchan-Perez et al., 2009). Twenty-nine different stacks of 164 images of the neuropil in the six layers of the somatosensory cortex were obtained (three samples from layer I, four from layer II, ten from layer III, five from layer IV, three from layer V 165 166 and four from layer VI). All these stacks were used previously for the study of the density and 167 three-dimensional distribution of synapses (Anton-Sanchez et al., 2014; Merchan-Perez et al., 168 2014), as well as for the quantitative estimation of the subcellular location of synapses on 169 spines and dendritic shafts (Santuy et al., 2017). This study was performed in the neuropil, so 170 we used stacks of images that did not contain cell somata or blood vessels. Image resolution in 171 the xy plane ranged from 3.7 to 4.5 nm/pixel. Resolution in the z axis (section thickness) was 172 20 nm. With these resolution parameters, we obtained images of 2048 x 1536 pixels, so the

field of view was 7.56 x 5.68 µm at 3.7 nm/pixel. Noise reduction was performed by line averaging, and the acquisition time per image was approximately four minutes. Although the resolution of FIB/SEM images can be increased, we chose these parameters as a compromise solution to obtain a large enough field of view where synaptic junctions could still be clearly identified, in a period of time that allowed us to acquire between 189 and 363 serial sections per stack (mean: 254.66; total: 7385 sections).

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180 Extraction of the Synaptic Apposition Surface

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182 Synaptic junctions within these volumes were visualized and automatically segmented in three 183 dimensions with Espina software (Morales et al., 2011). The segmentation algorithm makes 184 use of the fact that presynaptic and postsynaptic densities appear as dark, electron-dense 185 structures under the electron microscope. It requires a Gaussian blur filter preprocessing step 186 to eliminate noisy pixels, followed by a gray-level threshold to extract all the voxels that fit the 187 gray levels of the synaptic junction. In this way, the resulting 3D segmentation includes both 188 the pre- and postsynaptic densities. Since the pre- and postsynaptic densities are located face 189 to face, their surface areas are very similar (correlation coefficients over 0.97; see (Schikorski 190 and Stevens, 1997, 1999). Thus, they can be simplified to a single surface and represented as 191 the surface of apposition between the pre- and postsynaptic densities. This surface can be 192 extracted from the three-dimensionally segmented synaptic junction (Morales et al., 2013). For 193 the sake of clarity, we will refer to this surface as the synaptic apposition surface (SAS). EspINA 194 was used to visualize the SAS in 3D and the possible presence of perforations or deep 195 indentations in the perimeter were recorded. EspINA was also used to measure SAS areas and 196 perimeters. Since the SAS adapts to the curvature of the synaptic junction, we have also 197 measured its curvature as one minus the ratio between the projected area of the SAS and the 198 area of the SAS. This measure would equal 0 in a totally flat SAS, and the value would increase up to a maximum of 1 as the SAS curvature increases. All measurements have been corrected
for tissue shrinkage due to processing for electron microscopy (Merchan-Perez et al., 2009).
Correction factors for volume, surface and linear measurements were 0.73, 0.81 and 0.90,
respectively.

203

204 Statistical analysis

To study whether there were significant differences we performed multiple mean comparison tests on the 29 samples of the six cortical layers. Since the necessary assumptions for ANOVA were not satisfied (the normality and homoscedasticity criteria were not met), we used the Mann-Whitney test for pair-wise comparisons. Chi-square tests were used for contingency tables. Linear regression was used to find correlations. SPSS 22.0 (IBM Corp.) and Easyfit Professional 5.5 (MathWave Technologies) were used. 211 Results

212

213 Synaptic junction areas and perimeters

In our samples, we found 7569 synaptic junctions. We discarded 678 (8.96%) because they were truncated by the edges of the field of view. Thus, we finally analyzed 6891 synapses whose synaptic junctions were complete, so their SAS could be extracted (Figure 1). Of these, 6259 (90.83%) were AS and 632 were SS (9.17%).

SAS areas ranged from 909.23 to 556393.19 nm² for AS, and from 3388.21 to 631774.04 nm² 218 219 for SS. Mean SAS areas were smaller for AS than for SS in all cortical layers (Table 1, Figure 2A) 220 and these differences were statistically significant in all cases (MW tests, p<0.001 in layers I to 221 V and p = 0.026 in layer VI). For AS, the largest mean SAS areas were found in layer III (mean = 222 72729.58 nm²) and the differences between this layer and all other layers were statistically 223 significant (MW, $p \le 0.023$). The smallest mean SAS areas of AS were found in layer IV (mean = 224 54770.81 nm²) and the differences between this layer and layers I, III and V were statistically 225 significant (MW, $p \le 0.001$). For SS, the largest mean SAS areas were also found in layer III 226 (mean = 116703.43 nm²; differences were statistically significant between this layer and layers 227 II, IV and VI; MW, $p \le 0.002$). The smallest mean SAS areas of SS were found in layer IV (mean = 228 68355.35 nm²) and the differences were statistically significant between this layer and all other 229 layers except layer VI (MW, $p \le 0.031$).

We also measured the perimeters of the SAS (Table 2, Figure 2B). For each individual layer, mean perimeters were always larger for SS than for AS (Figure 2B; Table 2). As expected, there was a strong correlation between SAS area and perimeter (R^2 =0.75 for all synapses; R^2 =0.75 for AS; R^2 =0.72 for SS) (Figure 2C). It is also interesting to note that the larger the SAS area, the more tortuous its perimeter. This can be seen in Figure 2C, which shows that the SAS perimeter tends to grow faster than the perimeter of a circle. 236 To further characterize the size distribution of SAS, we plotted the frequency histograms of 237 SAS areas for each individual layer and for all layers as a whole. For AS, frequency histograms 238 had similar shapes in all layers, with a tail to the right, and they overlapped greatly (Figure 3A). 239 For SS, more irregular-shaped histograms were obtained for individual layers, probably due to 240 the smaller number of synaptic junctions that were analyzed per layer (Figure 3B) (see also 241 Table 1). We then performed goodness-of-fit tests to find the theoretical probability density 242 functions that best fitted the empirical distributions of SAS areas in each layer and in all layers 243 pooled together. We found that the best fit corresponded to log-normal distributions in all 244 cases (Table 1 and Figure 3). These log-normal distributions, with some variations in the 245 location (μ) and scale (σ) parameters (Table 1), were found in all layers for both AS and SS, 246 although the fit was better for AS than for SS, probably due to the smaller number of SS 247 analyzed (Figure 3). The best-fit probability density functions for SAS perimeters were also log-248 normal distributions (Table 2).

249

250 Size of synaptic junctions on dendritic spines and shafts

251 We also determined whether the postsynaptic element where the synapses were established 252 (dendritic spines or shafts) was associated with differences in the size of PSDs. Unambiguous 253 identification of spines required the dendritic spine to be visually traced to the parent dendrite 254 within the 3D stack of serial sections. Similarly, dendritic shafts needed to be followed inside 255 the stack until they could be clearly identified. For this analysis, we studied 6000 synapses 256 whose postsynaptic targets were successfully identified. We found that the mean SAS area of synapses located on dendritic shafts (88795.98 $\text{nm}^2 \pm \text{sem} = 2210.16$) was larger than the 257 258 mean SAS area of those located on necks (57879.38 nm² ± sem= 3998.65) and spine heads (65164.05 nm² \pm sem= 797.26) (MW tests, p<0.001). This difference could be due to the fact 259 260 that SS, which are larger than AS, were predominantly located on dendritic shafts (in this

261 sample, 73.39% of SS were located on shafts, while only 14.61% of AS were located on shafts). 262 To rule out this possibility, we analyzed AS and SS independently. We found that the mean SAS 263 area of AS located on shafts (78255.07 $\text{nm}^2 \pm \text{sem} = 2413.73$) was larger than those located on dendritic spines heads (65196.81 nm² ± sem= 811.93) (MW test, p<0.001) and the ones on 264 spines heads were larger than those on necks (52326.09 $\text{nm}^2 \pm \text{sem} = 4394.36$) (MW test, 265 p=0.04). Similarly, the mean SAS areas of SS were larger on shafts (109798.76 nm² \pm sem= 266 4358.62) compared to dendritic spine heads (63808.43 $\text{nm}^2 \pm \text{sem} = 3592.90$) and necks 267 268 $(74697.93 \text{ nm}^2 \pm \text{sem} = 8576.53)$ (MW tests, p<0.001), although the difference between SS on 269 spine heads and necks was not statistically significant (MW tests, p=0.33). Therefore, synapses 270 located on dendritic shafts were larger than those located on dendritic spines, both for AS and 271 SS. When single cortical layers were analyzed, we also found that the mean SAS area of 272 synapses established on dendritic shafts was always larger than SAS areas of synapses on 273 dendritic spines. In spite of the differences in the mean SAS areas mentioned above, the 274 frequency histograms of SAS areas of AS and SS on dendritic shafts and spines greatly 275 overlapped, as shown in Figure 4.

276

277 The shape of synaptic junctions

278 The shape of synaptic junctions was very variable (Figure 5) but can be categorized into three 279 main types. Most cortical synapses had disc-shaped, macular PSDs (93%). A small percentage 280 had perforations, with one or more holes in the PSD (4.5%), while an even smaller proportion 281 (2.5%) had a tortuous horseshoe-shaped perimeter with an indentation. Macular and 282 perforated synapses followed the previously described 9:1 proportion between AS and SS, but 283 in the case of horseshoe-shaped PSDs, this proportion was 8:2, indicating that horseshoe-284 shaped synaptic junctions were relatively more frequent among SS than among AS (Chi 285 squared, p< 0.001).

286 The mean SAS area of macular synapses was smaller (mean \pm sem = 61737.72 nm² \pm 606.10) than horseshoe-shaped synapses (148469.66 $\text{nm}^2 \pm 6321.63$) (MW test, p<0.001) and the 287 288 mean SAS area of horseshoe-shaped synaptic junctions was smaller than that of perforated synapses (176710.07 nm² ± 5875.00) (MW test, p=0.005) (Table 3). Despite the differences in 289 290 the mean SAS areas, perforated and horseshoe-shaped synaptic junctions were intermingled 291 with the predominant macular synaptic junctions (Figures 5 and 6). The perimeter of macular 292 synapses was shorter (1423.96 nm \pm 10.22) than horseshoe-shaped synapses (3124.70 nm \pm 293 107.62) (MW test, p<0.001) and perforated synapses (3106.10 nm ± 87.94) (MW test, 294 p<0.001), while horseshoe-shaped and perforated synapses had similar perimeters (MW test, 295 p=0.59) (Table 3).

For all three categories (macular, perforated and horseshoe-shaped), SS had a larger area and perimeter than AS (Table 3), although these differences were only statistically significant for macular synapses (MW test; p<0.001).

The proportions of macular, horseshoe and perforated synaptic junctions were similar in layers II to VI. However, we found that horseshoe-shaped and perforated synapses were more common in layer I (Chi squared, p<0.001) (Figure 6A). No preference was found in the location of macular, perforated or horseshoe-shaped synapses on spines or dendritic shafts — and this was the case for both AS (Chi squared, p=0.22) and SS (Chi squared, p=0.66).

We also measured SAS curvature by calculating one minus the ratio between the projected area of the SAS and the area of the SAS. This value would equal 0 for a totally flat SAS and it would increase as the SAS becomes more curved or wrinkled (see Methods). Our results indicate that SAS curvature was higher for SS than for AS in all layers (MW tests, p<0.028) (Figure 7A). We made pair comparisons of AS curvature between each cortical layer and all the others and we found statistically significant differences between all layers (MW tests, p<0.05) except between layers I and II (MW test, p=0.325), and layers III and V (MW test, p=0.14). For

SS, statistically significant differences were found between layers IV and VI (the ones with flattest synapses) and all the other layers (MW tests, p<0.001). Macular synapses were flatter (mean \pm sem, 0.07 \pm 0.001) than horseshoe-shaped (0.11 \pm 0.005) (MW test, p<0.001) and perforated synapses (0.10 \pm 0.003) (MW test p<0.001). Horseshoe-shaped and perforated synapses had similar curvature (MW test, p=0.58) (Table 3). We found no correlation between SAS area and curvature (R² = 0.08 for AS; R² = 0.03 for SS) (Figure 7B).

317

318 Discussion

319 In the present study, we used a new method to estimate the size and shape of synapses that 320 involved extracting the SAS from synaptic junctions segmented in three dimensions, using 321 combined focused ion beam milling and scanning electron microscopy. This study provided 322 three main findings. Firstly, the mean SAS areas were smaller for AS than for SS in all cortical 323 layers and these differences were statistically significant in all cases. For both AS and SS, the 324 largest mean SAS areas were found in layer III and the smallest mean SAS areas were found in 325 layer IV. In all cases (AS and SS, in all layers), the distributions of synaptic junction size followed 326 a skewed curve with a long tail to the right, corresponding to a log-normal distribution. 327 Secondly, most cortical synapses had disc-shaped, macular PSDs (93%). A few were perforated, 328 with one or more holes in the PSD (4.5%), while an even smaller proportion (2.5%) showed a 329 tortuous horseshoe-shaped perimeter with a deep indentation. Thirdly, the SAS curvature was 330 larger for SS than for AS in all layers. However, there was no correlation between SAS area and 331 curvature for AS or SS.

332

334 Methods to estimate the size of synaptic junctions

335 Several methods have traditionally been used to estimate the size of synaptic junctions. The 336 simplest of these methods is to measure the cross-sectional length of synaptic junctions in TEM micrographs. This method has obvious limitations since it is based on individual 2D 337 338 images where a portion of synapses cannot be fully characterized (for example, see DeFelipe et 339 al. (1999)), and it also reduces size estimation to a one-dimensional measurement that is not 340 equivalent to any easily interpretable geometrical measure such as the mean diameter, for 341 example. Methods that use serial sections can yield more reliable measurements, even if only 342 simple measurements such as the maximum width of the PSD are used (Tarusawa et al., 2009). 343 The cross-sectional length of the PSD can also be measured in each section of the series and 344 multiplied by section thickness and by number of sections (Arellano et al., 2007; Bopp et al., 2017; Hsu et al., 2017). Alternatively, the PSD can be reconstructed from the series of sections 345 346 and its contour can be measured in 3D (Bosch et al., 2015; Dufour et al., 2015; Rollenhagen et 347 al., 2015; Bosch et al., 2016; Rodriguez-Moreno et al., 2017). Another measurement that has 348 been used to estimate the size of synaptic junctions in 3D is the diameter of Feret, which is 349 equivalent to the diameter of the smallest sphere circumscribing the reconstructed object 350 (Merchan-Perez et al., 2014). The Feret's diameter is a simple and reliable measurement that 351 can be automatically obtained at a low computational cost, and it has been shown to be useful 352 to build models that reproduce the distribution of synapses in three-dimensional space 353 (Anton-Sanchez et al., 2014). However, it does not accurately describe the morphology of 354 synapses, since it obviously oversimplifies the geometric characteristics of the measured 355 object, and it is clear that objects with very different morphologies can have similar Feret's 356 diameters. Another indirect measurement of the size of the synaptic junction is the axon-spine 357 interface (ASI), which represents the total apposition surface between the membrane of the 358 axonal bouton and the membrane of the dendritic spine (de Vivo et al., 2017). We have used 359 the synaptic apposition surface (SAS), which is equivalent to the interface between the active

360 zone and the PSD. Therefore, although the area of the ASI and the PSD are correlated 361 (Cheetham et al., 2014), data from de Vivo et al. (2017) are not comparable with ours, except 362 for the fact that our measurements of the SAS are smaller than their measurements of the ASI. 363 This is because the SAS is always inside the ASI and thus it is smaller than the ASI. Moreover, 364 our methodology provides information on the *shape* of the PSD, as well as information about 365 synapses established on dendritic shafts, that cannot be obtained from ASI measurements.

366 Synaptic apposition surface

In the present study, we used the synaptic apposition surface (SAS) because it has three main 367 368 advantages over the methods outlined above. First, it is extracted automatically from the 369 previously segmented synaptic junction with no user intervention, thus avoiding any manual 370 tracing of contours and possible associated user bias (Alonso-Nanclares et al., 2013; Morales et 371 al., 2013). Second, despite being a surface, the SAS is also a 3D object that adapts to, and 372 reproduces the shape and curvature of the PSD. Therefore, the SAS can be visualized in 3D to 373 obtain qualitative information such as the presence of perforations or indentations (see Figure 374 5). Third, guantitative information on the surface area, perimeter and curvature can also be 375 extracted from the SAS, so size and shape can easily be correlated. Given that the initial 376 segmentation of synaptic junctions has been performed within 3D tissue samples using a semi-377 automatic method (Morales et al., 2011), and the SAS have been extracted in a fully 378 automated way, we have been able to obtain 6,891 synaptic junctions whose shape and size 379 have been analyzed in the six cortical layers. Additionally, the postsynaptic target (dendritic 380 spines or shafts) has been unambiguously identified in 6,000 of these synaptic junctions.

381 Size of synaptic junctions

The size of both types of synaptic junctions (asymmetric and symmetric) follows log-normal distributions. Despite the fact that the mean SAS area is larger for SS than for AS, their respective distributions greatly overlap (Figure 3), so it would be impossible to distinguish AS

385	from SS on the basis of synaptic junction size alone. It is tempting to correlate the log-normal
386	distribution of synaptic sizes with other parameters such as synaptic strength and spike
387	transmission probability, which also follow log-normal distributions (reviewed by Buzsaki and
388	Mizuseki (2014)). For example, the distribution of the size of unitary excitatory postsynaptic
389	potentials (EPSP) is very similar to the distribution of the size of SAS reported here, with a
390	skewed envelope and a long tail to the right (Song et al., 2005; Lefort et al., 2009). Moreover,
391	the EPSP amplitude strongly correlates with the number of postsynaptic AMPA receptors and
392	with spine head volume (Matsuzaki et al., 2001; Kasai et al., 2003; Araya, 2014), which in turn
393	strongly correlates with PSD size (Arellano et al., 2007). Model experiments also suggest that
394	PSD size has a strong influence on the activation of postsynaptic receptors (Montes et al.,
395	2015). It is also interesting to note that the event-to-event variability of synaptic strength for
396	individual synapses is largest for weaker synapses and decreases for stronger synapses (Lefort
397	et al., 2009; Ikegaya et al., 2013). This may also be related to synaptic junction size, since the
398	same phenomenon —a decrease in variability as synaptic size increases— has been described
399	in model experiments (Franks et al., 2002; Montes et al., 2015). This suggests that large
400	synapses have a higher number of receptors and are not only stronger, but also have a more
401	homogeneous and reliable response. However, it is important to note that the amplitude of
402	the EPSP also depends on the geometry of postsynaptic dendrites (Major et al., 2013; Eyal et
403	al., 2014), as well as on the morphology of dendritic spines (Gulledge et al., 2012; Araya, 2014).
404	Another important source of variability is the number of postsynaptic receptor molecules in
405	individual synapses. For example, it has been shown in the hippocampus that the number of
406	AMPA receptors as a function of synaptic size has different slopes in the synapses established
407	between Shaffer collaterals and CA1 dendritic spines and in the synapses between mossy
408	fibers and CA3 spines (Nusser et al., 1998). In the somatosensory cortex of the rat, AMPA
409	receptor concentration is similar in synapses of different sizes; thus, the larger the synapse the
410	higher the actual number of AMPA receptors (Kharazia and Weinberg, 1999), while NMDA

receptors are found at a higher concentration in smaller synapses. In any case, it is obvious that the distribution of different types of receptors among different types of synapses is a complex issue (Hadzic et al., 2017), so the relationship between synaptic size and receptor number is not simple and requires further research.

415 Different synaptic sizes have been associated with different functions. For example, it has been 416 proposed that small dendritic spines are preferential sites for long-term potentiation 417 induction, whereas large spines might represent physical traces of long-term memory 418 (Matsuzaki et al., 2004; Kasai et al., 2010). Our data show that synaptic size follows a log-419 normal distribution, which is unimodal and continuous, so neither AS nor SS can be divided 420 into two groups on the basis of synaptic junction size. Therefore, if the function of "learning or 421 memory" synapse depends on synaptic size, there would not be a clear-cut transition between 422 the two types of synapse. Additionally, It has been proposed that the functional role of 423 synapses may also depend on the sharp decrease of event-to-event variability as synaptic size 424 grows, so the functional transition between "learning and memory" synapses would be faster 425 than if it depended on synaptic size alone (Montes et al., 2015). In any case, if synapses of 426 different sizes serve different functions, synapses on dendritic shafts must also be taken into 427 account. Although such synapses are not the predominant type (about 15% of AS and 73% of 428 SS; see also (Santuy et al., 2017), their mean sizes are larger than axospinous synapses, both 429 for AS and SS.

430 Horseshoe-shaped and perforated synapses

Synaptic junctions with deep indentations (horseshoe synapses) and perforated synapses were
scarce in our sample; even if we pool together horseshoe-shaped and perforated synapses,
they only accounted for about 7% of the whole population. The question arises about whether
they are a separate population of synapses, with different morpho-functional features from
the predominant macular synapses. These types of synapses are mainly located in the right tail

of the synaptic size distributions, so their mean area is larger than the mean area of macular synapses, in line with numerous studies (Calverley and Jones, 1987; Geinisman et al., 1987; Jones and Calverley, 1991; Harris et al., 1992). Nevertheless, the sizes of horseshoe-shaped and perforated synapses also greatly overlap with the sizes of macular synapses, so there is not a boundary separating them from macular synapses (Fig. 6). Regarding the perimeter of horseshoe and perforated synapses, again we did not find any boundary, since the perimeter tends to be more complex as the PSD gets larger, regardless of the presence of perforations.

443 If we interpret perforations and deep indentations as dynamic, non-permanent, features that 444 may only depend on the molecular turnover of the constituents of the PSD, then perforated 445 and horseshoe PSDs would belong to the same pathway as macular PSDs. The smallest 446 synapses would have a macular shape whose perimeter would get progressively more tortuous as they grow. Deep indentations and perforations would appear (and eventually disappear) as 447 448 the PSD becomes larger. The incorporation of receptors into the PSD depends on lateral 449 diffusion from the surrounding plasma membrane (Choquet and Triller, 2013; Li and Blanpied, 450 2016) and on processes of endocytosis and exocytosis from the endosomal compartment 451 (Choquet and Triller, 2013; Kneussel and Hausrat, 2016). In this scenario, we can hypothesize 452 that indentations and perforations could be the morphological correlate of a more active -- or 453 just more apparent— turnover of receptors in larger PSDs. In fact, it has been shown in the 454 hippocampus that the relative proportions of horseshoe, perforated and fragmented or 455 partitioned synapses (synapses that have several irregular small disc-shaped PSDs, with no 456 connection between them) do change after the induction of long-term potentiation 457 (Geinisman et al., 1993; Toni et al., 2001). This phenomenon may or may not take place in the 458 neocortex, where we have found horseshoe and perforated PSDs but not partitioned synapses. 459 The fact that very different types of synapses such as AS and SS have perforations also 460 suggests that these perforations are the result of a general, non-specific mechanism, related to 461 synaptic growth and remodeling.

462 Alternatively, perforated and probably also horseshoe-shaped synaptic junctions may belong 463 to different populations of synapses. The main argument favoring this hypothesis is that in 464 certain terminals, specifically in thalamocortical boutons in layer IV, perforated synapses are 465 frequent (Bopp et al., 2017; Rodriguez-Moreno et al., 2017), while they are scarce if we 466 consider the whole synaptic population. Our data seems to contradict this hypothesis mainly 467 because the proportion of perforated synapses is very similar in layers II to VI. However, 468 thalamocortical synapses represent only a minor proportion of layer IV synapses (less than 469 10%; e.g., see da Costa and Martin (2009)) and, therefore, their number may not be high 470 enough to contribute to a significant difference with other layers. Species and age differences 471 must also be taken into consideration, since the proportion of perforated synapses in layer 472 II/III of the visual and frontal cortices of the adult mouse seem to be larger than those 473 reported here (Hsu et al., 2017).

474 Curvature of the synaptic apposition surfaces.

475 The relevance of the curvature of the synapse has been discussed since the seventies when 476 Jones and Devon (1978) described changes in the curvature when administering anesthetics. 477 Diverse studies led to the conclusion that positively curved synapses represented functional 478 synapses, while negatively curved synapses were non-functional. Later studies revoked this 479 view, as they showed that many other factors could influence the curvature of synapses (for 480 example, the region studied; positively curved synapses predominated in the cortex while 481 negatively curved synapses predominated in the hippocampus) (Calverley and Jones, 1990). 482 Nevertheless, more recent studies suggest that changes in the synaptic curvature may 483 influence synaptic efficacy (Medvedev et al., 2010). In the present study, we found that SAS 484 curvature was larger for SS than for AS in all layers. Furthermore, for AS, statistically significant 485 differences were found between all layers except between layers III and V. Curvature 486 differences between SS were found between layer IV and all the other layers, and this was also

the case for layer VI. Therefore, if synaptic curvature has an influence on synaptic efficacy, our results would indicate that this characteristic is layer and synaptic-type dependent. However, there was no correlation between SAS area and curvature for AS or SS. Since the area of the SAS seems to be related to the strength of synapses, the significance of the differences in synaptic curvature found between different layers and types of synapses observed in the present study remains to be determined.

493 Concluding remarks

494 Collectively, the results indicate that there are laminar-specific similarities and differences 495 regarding the size and shape of synaptic junctions. The functional implication of these 496 variations is unknown but they may be related to synaptic attributes of particular synaptic 497 circuits which are characteristic of each layer. The data obtained in the present study is based 498 on the analysis of thousands of 3D-segmented synaptic junctions, providing a robust set of 499 morphological data. Since currently-available 3D quantitative data are rather scarce and 500 mainly based on individual cases, the present results in conjunction with other crucial 501 microanatomical data —such as the number and distribution of different types of synapses 502 and the identification of postsynaptic targets in different cortical layers- will help to better 503 understand the structure of microcircuits and to build realistic cortical models.

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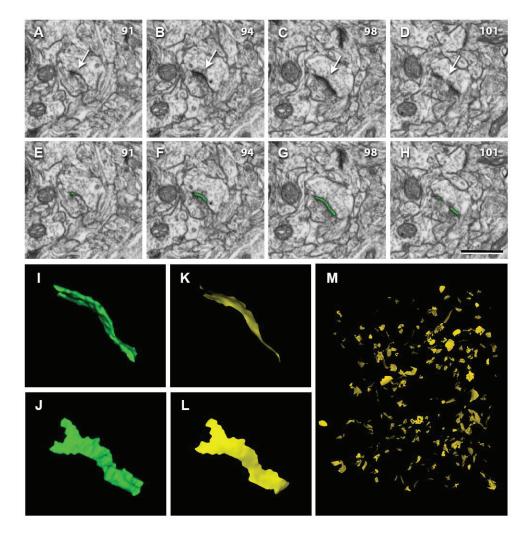
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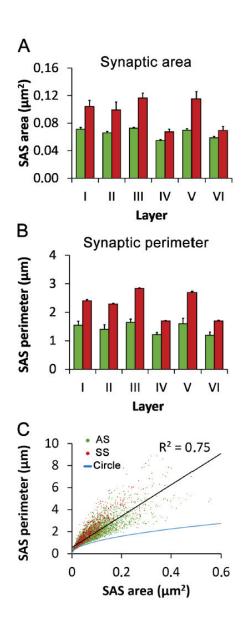
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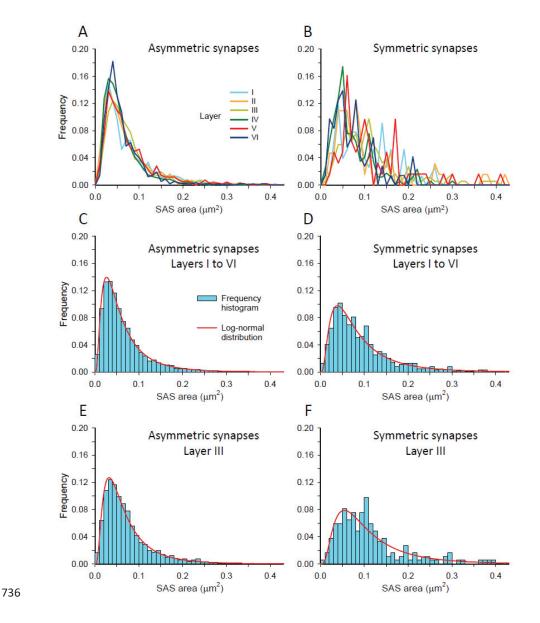
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710 Figure 1. Identification, segmentation and extraction of the synaptic apposition surface (SAS) 711 of a synaptic junction from serial images obtained with combined Focused Ion Beam milling 712 and Scanning Electron Microcopy (FIB/SEM). (A-D) Sections 91, 94, 98 and 101 from a stack of 713 serial sections obtained with FIB/SEM from the rat somatosensory cortex. Identification of an 714 asymmetric synapse whose prominent postsynaptic density is clearly visible (arrow). Note that 715 the identification was not based on single images but on the examination of the full sequence 716 of images where the synapse was visible (numbers in the top-right corner of each frame 717 correspond to section number; each individual section was 20 nm thick). (E-H) Segmentation of 718 the synaptic junction (green) with Espina software. (I, J) The resulting 3D object representing 719 the synaptic junction (green) visualized from two different angles. (K, L) The SAS (yellow) that 720 has been extracted from the 3D synaptic junction shown in (I) and (J). (M) Panoramic view of 721 all the SAS extracted from a whole stack of images. Scale bar in (H): 1μ m for (A-H).





723 Figure 2. Size and perimeter of synaptic junctions (mean ± sem). (A) Surface area of synaptic 724 apposition surfaces (SAS) of asymmetric synapses (AS, green bars) and symmetric synapses (SS, 725 red bars) in the six cortical layers. AS were smaller than SS in all layers (MW tests, p<0.001 in 726 layers I to V; p=0.026 in layer VI). For both AS and SS, the largest SAS were found in layer III and 727 the smallest were found in layer IV. (B) Perimeters of SAS of AS (green bars) and SS (red bars) 728 in the six cortical layers. Perimeters of SAS showed similar differences to SAS areas. (C) Scatter 729 plot showing the relationship between SAS areas and perimeters. AS are represented as green 730 dots and SS as red dots. The blue trace indicates the perimeter/area relation of a circle, as a 731 reference. There is a strong correlation between SAS area and perimeter (R²=0.75 for AS and 732 SS pooled together, black trace). If we compare the perimeter/area relation of a circle (blue 733 trace) with the SAS perimeter/area plot of SAS, it is clear that SAS perimeters grow faster than 734 the perimeter of a circle, indicating that SAS perimeters tend to be more tortuous as SAS area 735 increases.



737 Figure 3. Frequency histograms of SAS areas and their corresponding best-fit probability 738 density functions. Frequency histograms of SAS areas in the six cortical layers are represented 739 for AS and SS in (A) and (B), respectively. Histograms for AS from different layers had similar 740 shapes and overlapped greatly, while histograms for SS were more irregular. AS and SS from all 741 layers have been pooled together to build the frequency histograms (blue bars) represented in 742 (C) and (D). The best-fit distributions representing the theoretical probability density functions 743 (red traces) have been represented with their corresponding frequency histograms. As an 744 example for an individual layer, histograms and best-fit distributions for AS and SS from layer 745 III have been represented in (E) and (F). The best-fit probability function was a log normal 746 distribution in all cases. Curve fitting was always better for AS (C and E) than for SS (D and F), 747 probably because of the smaller sample size of SS (see Table 1). The parameters μ and σ of the 748 log-normal curves are shown in Table 1.

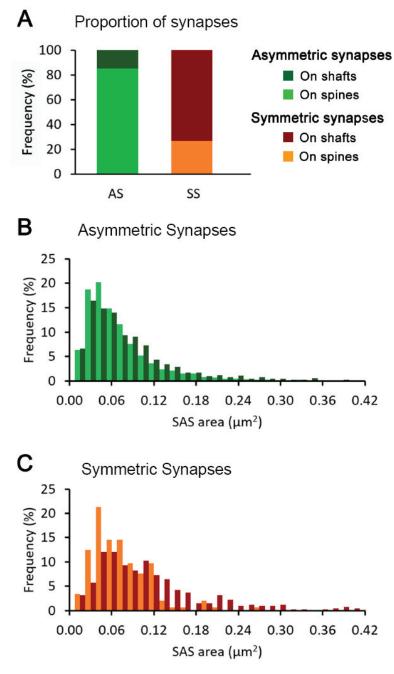
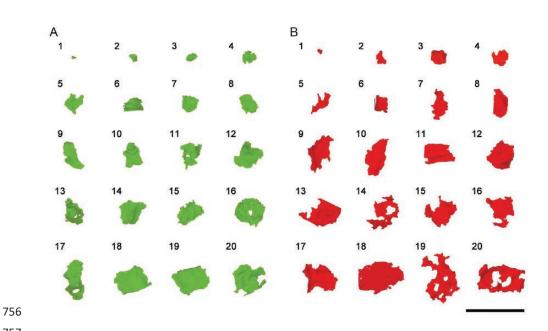




Figure 4. SAS areas of synapses on dendritic spines and shafts. (A) Proportions of asymmetric and symmetric synapses on dendritic spines and shafts. (B) Frequency histograms of SAS areas of asymmetric synapses on dendritic spines (light green) and on dendritic shafts (dark green).
(C) Frequency histograms of SAS areas of symmetric synapses on dendritic spines (orange) and on dendritic shafts (dark orange). Frequencies in (B) and (C) have been normalized for each individual category.



758 Figure 5. Representative sample of synaptic apposition surfaces of asymmetric and 759 symmetric synapses. (A) Synaptic apposition surfaces of asymmetric synapses (green) were 760 distributed into 20 bins of equal size. An example within each bin has been represented here. 761 (B) Synaptic apposition surfaces of symmetric synapses (red) that were distributed and 762 selected as in (A). Calibration bar = $1\mu m$.

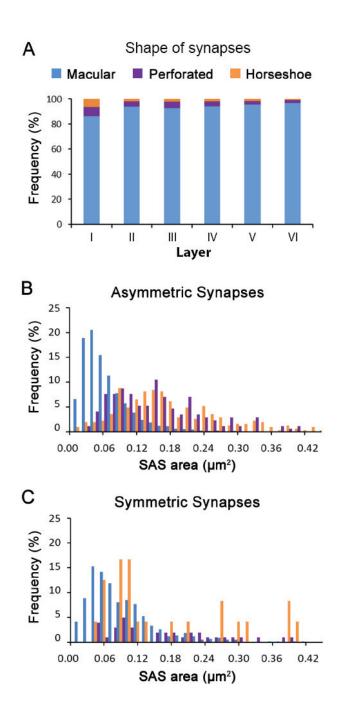
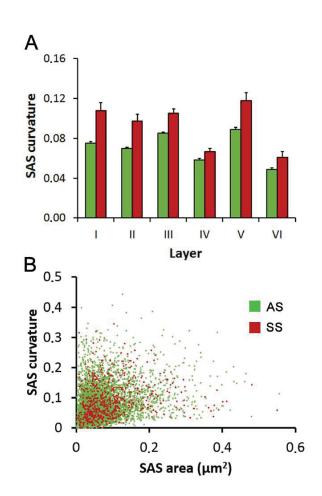


Figure 6. Distribution of synapses of different shapes. (A) Proportion of macular (blue),
perforated (purple) and horseshoe-shaped (orange) synapses in the six layers of the cortex.
Layer I shows a higher proportion of perforated and horseshoe synapses when compared to
layers II-VI (Chi squared, p<0.001). (B) Frequency histograms of the SAS area of macular,
perforated and horseshoe-shaped asymmetric synapses. (C) Frequency histograms of the SAS
area of macular, perforated and horseshoe-shaped symmetric synapses. Frequencies in (B) and
(C) have been normalized for each individual category.



772 Figure 7. Curvature of the synaptic apposition surfaces (SAS). (A) SAS curvature of AS and SS 773 in the six cortical layers (mean ± sem). SAS curvature was larger for SS (red bars) than for AS 774 (green bars) in all layers. For AS, statistically significant differences were found between all 775 layers (MW tests <0.05) except between layers I and II (MW test, p=0.325) and layers III and V 776 (MW test, p=0.14). Curvature differences between SS were found between layers IV and VI and 777 all the other layers (MW tests, p<0.001). (B) Scatter plot representing the relationship between 778 SAS curvature and area of AS (green dots) and SS (red dots). There was no correlation between SAS area and curvature for AS or SS ($R^2 = 0.08$ for AS; $R^2 = 0.03$ for SS). 779

781 Tables

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	AS				SS			
	Mean SAS area ± sem (nm²)	n	μ	σ	Mean SAS area ± sem (nm²)	n	μ	σ
Layer I	70834.87 ±	594	10.81	0.88	104309.94 ±	77	11.29	0.78
Layer II	58987.37 ±	992	10.72	0.83	87757.53 ±	64	11.14	0.72
Layer III	72729.58 ±	2212	10.93	0.74	116703.42 ±	185	11.42	0.72
Layer IV	54770.81 ±	1200	10.65	0.73	68355.35 ±	172	10.88	0.73
Layer V	69682.16 ±	684	10.85	0.81	113353.40±	62	11.41	0.69
Layer VI	58668.28 ±	577	10.73	0.70	69382.12 ±	72	10.90	0.76
Layers I-VI	65299.31±	6259	10.84	0.79	93384.53 ±	632	11.17	0.78

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Table 1. Mean synaptic apposition surface (SAS) area (nm² \pm sem), number of synaptic SAS analyzed (n), and the location (μ) and scale (σ) of the best-fit log-normal distributions in the six cortical layers. Unweighted means for layers I to VI are also given. AS: asymmetric synapses; SS: symmetric synapses.

	AS			SS				
	Mean SAS				Mean SAS			
	perimeter ± sem	n	μ	σ	perimeter ± sem	n	μ	σ
	(nm)				(nm)			
Layer I	1538.03 ± 42.13	594	7.16	0.60	2405.01 ± 142.87	77	7.65	0.55
Layer II	1365.80 ± 29.46	992	7.06	0.55	2141.62 ± 130.11	64	7.55	0.52
Layer III	1638.51 ± 19.64	2212	7.27	0.59	2838.22 ± 118.19	185	7.81	0.54
Layer IV	1221.79 ± 18.70	1200	6.99	0.47	1704.83 ± 77.28	172	7.29	0.54
Layer V	1602.44 ± 38.50	684	7.22	0.56	2736.41 ± 186.46	62	7.77	0.50
Layer VI	1191.59 ± 25.83	577	6.97	0.45	1697.00 ± 112.65	72	7.29	0.55
Layers I-VI	1460.71 ± 11.29	6259	7.14	0.54	2266.44 ± 54.61	632	7.56	0.59

Table 2. Mean SAS perimeter (nm ± sem), number of synapses analyzed (n), and the location
(μ) and scale (σ) of the log-normal distributions of SAS perimeters in the six cortical layers.
Unweighted means for layers I to VI are also shown. AS: asymmetric synapses; SS: symmetric
synapses.

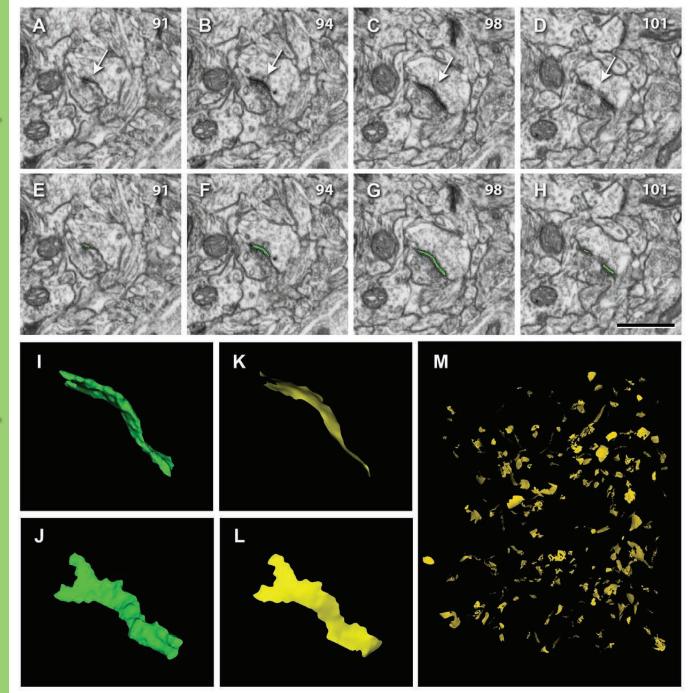
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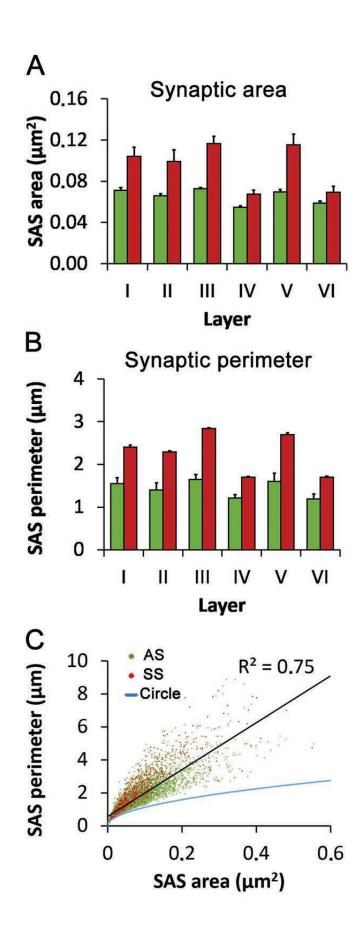
Shape of	Type of	Area of SAS (nm ²)	Perimeter (nm)	Curvature
synaptic	synapse	mean ± sem	mean ± sem	mean ± sem
junction				
	AS	59271.15 ± 595.95	1353.95 ± 9.55	0.07 ± 0.001
Macular	SS	86903.65 ± 2816.34	2138.30 ± 51.47	0.09 ± 0.003
	AS+SS	61737.72 ± 606.10	1423.96 ± 10.22	0.07 ± 0.001
	AS	175955.57 ± 5842.02	3056.56 ± 85.68	0.10 ± 0.004
Perforated	SS	185606.8 ± 30594.69	3690.38 ± 488.31	0.08 ± 0.010
	AS+SS	176710.07 ± 5875.00	3106.10 ± 87.94	0.10 ± 0.003
Horseshoe-	AS	146689.44 ± 6756.57	3015.70 ± 109.07	0.11 ± 0.006
shaped	SS	155387.11 ± 16435.88	3548.22 ± 304.55	0.08 ± 0.009
	AS+SS	148469.66 ± 6321.63	3124.70 ± 107.62	0.11 ± 0.005

Table 3. Area (nm2), perimeter (nm) and curvature (mean ± sem) of the SAS of macular,
perforated and horseshoe-shaped synaptic junctions. AS: asymmetrical synapses; SS:
symmetrical synapses. All data are given as mean ± sem.

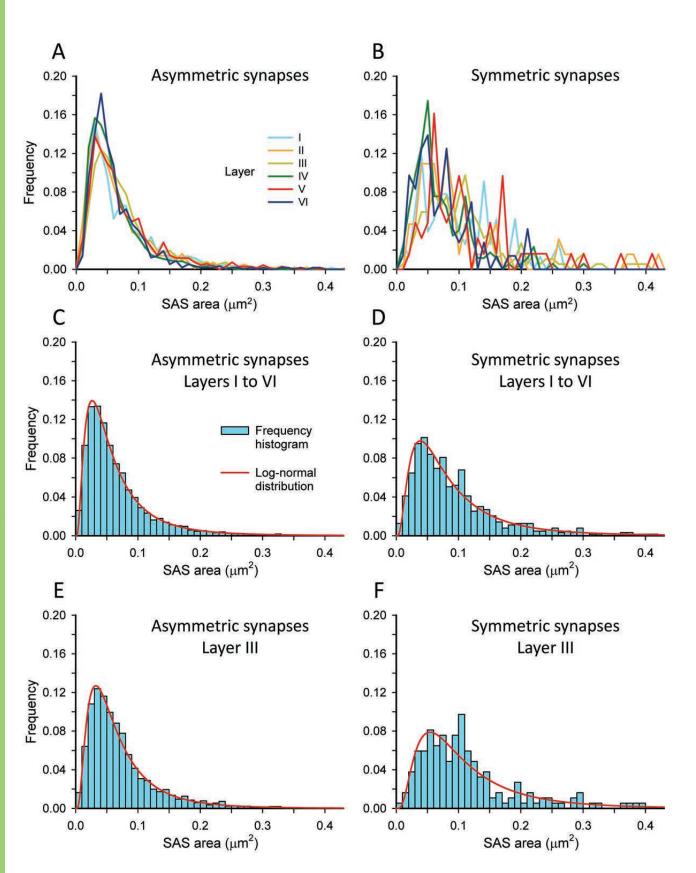
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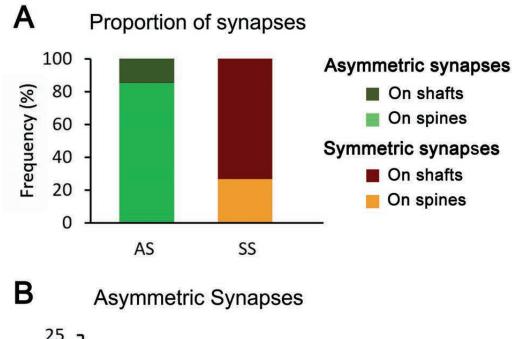
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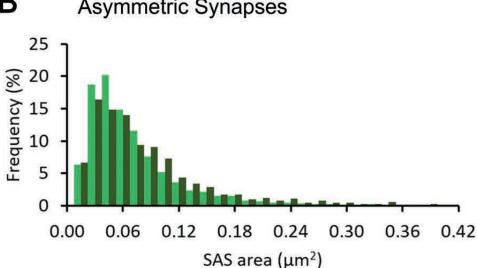


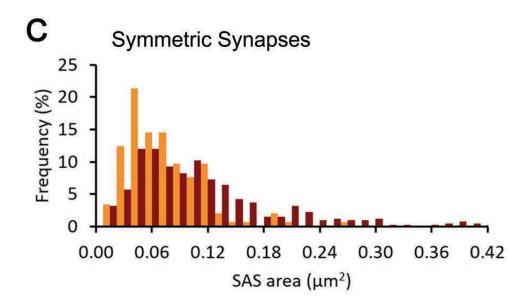




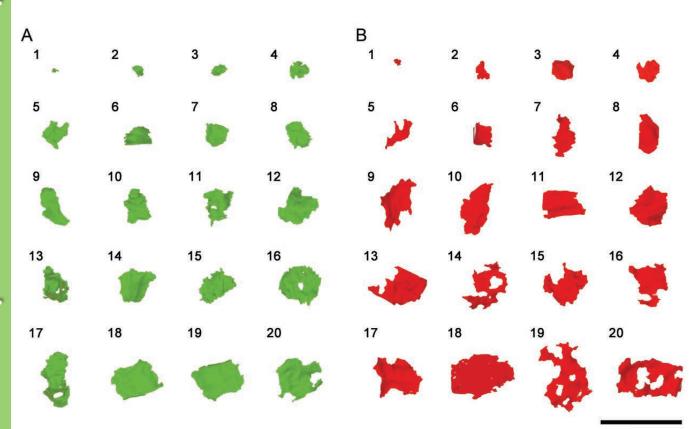


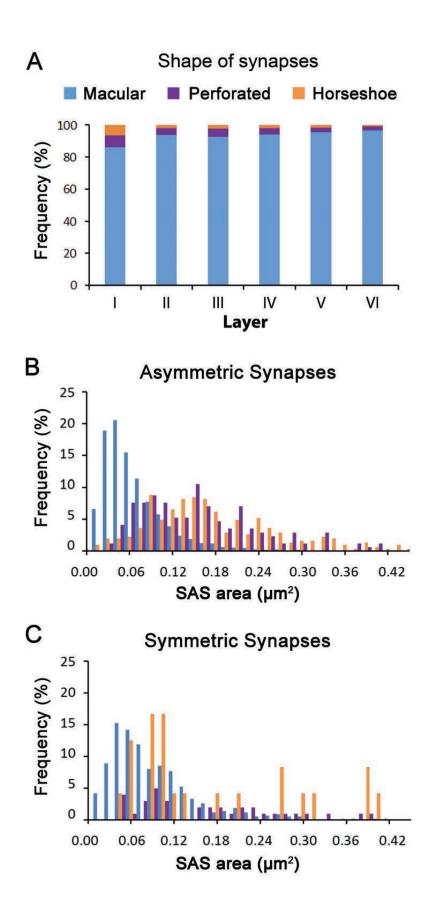


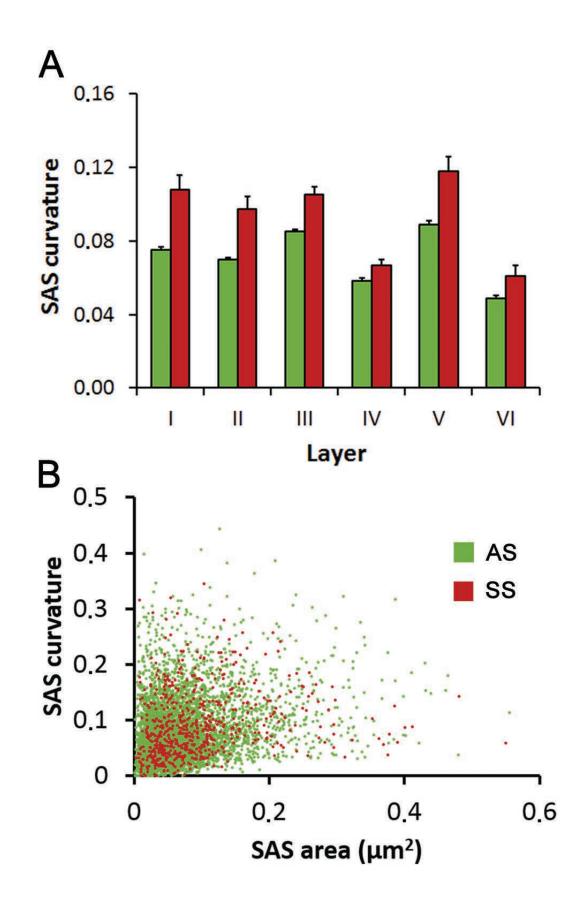




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