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Developmental axon degeneration requires TRPV1-dependent Ca²⁺ influx

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38 ADJ designed and performed experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript

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41 JG supervised the study and edited the manuscript

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46

47 **Abstract**

48
49 Development of the nervous system relies on a balance between axon and dendrite growth and
50 subsequent pruning and degeneration. The developmental degeneration of dorsal root ganglion
51 (DRG) sensory axons has been well studied in part because it can be readily modeled by
52 removing the trophic support by nerve growth factor (NGF) *in vitro*. We have recently reported
53 that axonal fragmentation induced by NGF withdrawal is dependent on Ca^{2+} and here we address
54 the mechanism of Ca^{2+} entry required for developmental axon degeneration of mouse embryonic
55 DRG neurons. Our results show that the Transient Receptor Potential Vanilloid family member 1
56 (TRPV1) cation channel plays a critical role mediating Ca^{2+} influx in DRG axons withdrawn
57 from NGF. We further demonstrate that TRPV1 activation is dependent on reactive oxygen
58 species (ROS) generation that is driven through protein kinase C (PKC) and NADPH oxidase
59 (NOX) -dependent pathways that become active upon NGF withdrawal. These findings
60 demonstrate novel mechanistic links between NGF deprivation, PKC activation, ROS generation
61 and TRPV1-dependent Ca^{2+} influx in sensory axon degeneration.

62

63 **Significance Statement**

64 Neurons are equipped with the genetic means to degenerate, and a subset of peripheral neurons
65 normally degenerate during embryonic development to establish a mature pattern. This beneficial
66 neurodegeneration is regulated by signaling pathways that are only partially understood, yet
67 share components with pathways that mediate pathological degeneration of crucial neural
68 structures during adult diseases such as Alzheimer's and Parkinson's. Here, we identify TRPV1
69 as a key regulator of Ca^{2+} entry into axoplasm that is required for developmental degeneration
70 modeled by NGF withdrawal from sensory neurons of the dorsal root ganglion *in vitro*.

71 Crucially, we report that the TRPV1-mediated Ca^{2+} flux is prompted by a signaling axis
72 comprised of PKC-dependent NOX complex activation and ROS generation upstream of
73 TRPV1.
74

75 **Introduction**

76 Axons normally degenerate during embryonic development to refine the nervous system into its
77 mature pattern (Patel et al., 2000; Schuldiner and Yaron, 2014). In the dorsal root ganglia
78 (DRG), greater numbers of sensory neurons are generated than will persist, and surviving
79 neurons are those that arrive at their targets and receive adequate neurotrophic support from a
80 limited pool secreted from their targets (Barde, 1989; Vogelbaum et al., 1998; Saxena and
81 Caroni, 2007). Genetically-encoded components of developmentally-required signaling
82 pathways that mediate the removal of neurites (including tumor necrosis factor receptors
83 (TNFRs), MAP kinases, Bax and caspases) also underlie neurodegenerative diseases such as
84 Alzheimer's, Parkinson's and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) when they are dysregulated in
85 adulthood (Kirkland and Franklin, 2003; Fischer and Glass, 2007; Saxena and Caroni, 2007;
86 Vickers et al., 2009; Tait and Green, 2010; Kanaan et al., 2013).

87

88 We recently reported that sensory axons are rescued from developmental degeneration by Ca^{2+}
89 chelation *in vitro* (Johnstone et al., 2018). Intriguingly, nerve terminals that innervate the skin
90 can be locally ablated in the clinic by activation of Ca^{2+} influx mediated by the cation channel
91 Transient Receptor Potential Vanilloid family member 1 (TRPV1); topical application of the
92 TRPV1 agonist capsaicin is used to alleviate chronic pain and itch in humans (Jancso et al.,
93 1985; Gibbons et al., 2010; Chiang et al., 2015; Şavk, 2016). Since activation of TRPV1 can
94 trigger degeneration in sensory neurons (Wang et al., 2017; Jancso et al., 1985; Sann et al., 1995;
95 Gibbons et al., 2010; Chiang et al., 2015), and because we found that Ca^{2+} is required for
96 developmental degeneration (Johnstone et al., 2018), here we have explored the possibility that
97 TRPV1 is required for developmental degeneration of sensory axons.

98 TRPV1 was identified through expression cloning designed to find the gene product that
99 mediates Ca^{2+} influxes in response to capsaicin (Julius et al., 1997). In the intervening 20 years,
100 TRPV1 has been confirmed to be activated and/or sensitized by heat, protons, reactive oxygen
101 species, by the endogenous compounds N-arachidonoyl dopamine (NADA) and anandamide, by
102 direct oxidation and by an array of noxious pest-defence compounds produced by invertebrates
103 and plants (Hakim et al., 2015; Fenwick et al., 2017; Geron et al., 2017; Grabiec and Dehghani,
104 2017).

105

106 ROS were initially considered a toxic consequence of aerobic respiration, but a large number of
107 studies published in the past two decades have firmly established ROS as second messengers that
108 regulate several signaling cascades (Li et al., 2006, 2009; Bedard and Krause, 2007; Ibi et al.,
109 2008; Pal et al., 2013). NADPH oxidase (NOX) complexes are membrane-associated protein
110 complexes that reduce NADPH to generate superoxide from molecular oxygen. The canonical
111 NOX complexes are activated by protein kinase C (PKC), which targets the p47phox subunit for
112 phosphorylation. NOX complexes are major sources of ROS species that regulate survival,
113 plasticity and degeneration (Cox et al., 1985; Maher and Schubert, 2000; Li et al., 2006, 2009;
114 Ibi et al., 2008; Petry et al., 2010; Reczek and Chandel, 2014).

115

116 In this study, we show that axons deprived of NGF display Ca^{2+} influx prior to fragmentation.
117 This Ca^{2+} influx was prevented by TRPV1 inhibition or TRPV1 genetic knockout. We
118 hypothesized that ROS are required for TRPV1 activation and the resulting Ca^{2+} influx, and in
119 support of this, we found that ROS scavengers and NOX complex inhibitors rescue axons from
120 Ca^{2+} influx and fragmentation. PKC activity was necessary for the NGF deprivation-induced

121 Ca^{2+} influx and degeneration that we observed, and direct activation of PKC was sufficient to
122 drive robust Ca^{2+} influx into axons. We reasoned that PKC, NOX complexes, ROS, TRPV1 and
123 Ca^{2+} comprise a signaling axis in these axons and consistent with this, found that PKC functions
124 upstream of NOX, and ROS to mediate TRPV1-dependent Ca^{2+} influx. Taken together, these
125 results show that NGF deprivation induces a Ca^{2+} influx via TRPV1 downstream of PKC and
126 NOX complex-derived ROS during developmental axon degeneration.
127

128 **Materials and Methods**

129 *Dissection, culturing and NGF deprivation of DRG explants*

130 DRG explants were dissected from pregnant CD1 mice with litters of E13.5 embryos (Charles
131 River). Explants were seeded on 6-well plastic cell culture plates (Greiner) or 4-well glass-
132 bottom imaging dishes (CellVis) coated in a three-step process with 1 mg/ml poly-D-lysine
133 (Sigma-Aldrich), 10 µg/ml laminin-entactin complex (Corning) and PurCol bovine collagen 0.1
134 mg/ml (Advanced Biomatrix). Explants were cultured in neurobasal medium (Invitrogen)
135 supplemented with 2% B-27 serum-free supplement (Invitrogen), 1% L-glutamine (Wisent), 1%
136 penicillin/streptomycin (Wisent), and 10 µM 5-fluoro-2'-deoxyuridine (FDU, Sigma-Aldrich)
137 with 12.5 ng/ml NGF (CedarLane). NGF deprivation was achieved using fresh media as
138 described above but lacking NGF and containing 2.8 µg/ml rabbit anti-NGF antibody (produced
139 in-house). A full description of the anti-NGF antibody (raised against 2.5s NGF), its specificity
140 and its biological validation in survival and cell-surface binding assays has been published
141 (Murphy et al., 1993). All experimental procedures were approved by the Montreal Neurological
142 Institute Animal Care Committee and University of British Columbia animal care committees
143 and were in compliance with Canadian Council on Animal Care guidelines.

144

145

146 *Fixation, immunostaining and imaging*

147 DRG cultures were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 15 minutes at room temperature
148 and permeabilized and blocked for immunostaining in TBS-T, 5% skim milk, and 0.3% Triton
149 X-100 for 15 minutes at room temperature. Immunostaining was performed in TBS-T with 5%
150 skim milk and 0.3% Triton X-100 with mouse anti-β-III tubulin (Millipore; 1:10 000) primary

151 antibody and anti-mouse secondary antibody conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488 (ThermoFisher;
152 1:5000). Cultures were imaged at 5x magnification using a Zeiss ObserverZ.1 inverted
153 epifluorescence microscope with an automated, motorized stage. Images were stitched
154 automatically with Zen 2 software from Zeiss to produce a master image of all explants on the
155 entire 6-well plate. From this master image, quarter-DRG fields were cropped using NIH ImageJ
156 (FIJI build) to create an image set for quantification as recently described in detail by our group
157 (Johnstone et al., 2018).

158 *Quantification of axon degeneration*

159 Axon degeneration was quantified by implementing the R script Axoquant2.0 recently described
160 in detail and made freely available by our group (Johnstone et al., 2018). For plotting and
161 statistical analysis, each point represents the mean value of measurements from the complement
162 of DRG cultured from a single embryo.

163

164 *Ca²⁺ chelation*

165 After 60h of growth in NGF, cultures were either maintained in NGF or were deprived of NGF
166 and exposed to anti-NGF antibody (2.8 µg/ml, produced in-house) in the presence of EDTA 6
167 mM (Sigma-Aldrich) for the final 12 hours or for the entire 24 hours before fixation with
168 paraformaldehyde 4% in PBS, stained as described above and imaged for quantification.

169

170 *Antioxidant preparation*

171 N-acetylcysteine (NAC, Sigma-Aldrich) was prepared at 20 mM in neurobasal media and pH
172 adjusted to 7.4.

173

174 *Pharmacological PKC, NOX complex and TRPV1 inhibitors*

175 PKC inhibitors Gö6976 and Gö6983, NOX complex inhibitors diphenyliodonium (DPI),
176 apocynin and VAS2870 and TRPV1 inhibitor capsazepine (all obtained from Tocris) were
177 prepared in DMSO and delivered to cultures at 10 μ M. DMSO did not exceed 0.1% in final
178 culture in any case.

179

180 *Generation of mixed-genotype TrpV1 embryo litters*

181 C57BL6 mice carrying the TRPV1^{tm1Jul} (targeted mutation 1, David Julius) knockout allele in
182 homozygosity were obtained from Jackson Laboratories and crossed with wild-type C57BL6
183 mice to generate TRPV1^{+/-} animals, and these heterozygotes were bred in timed pregnancies to
184 produce mixed-genotype litters (confirmed by PCR, for primer sequences see Table 1) of wild-
185 type and TRPV1^{-/-} E13.5 embryos for DRG isolation.

186

187 *End-point Ca²⁺ imaging with Fluo-4*

188 30 minutes prior to imaging, cultures were incubated with 5 μ M fluo-4 (Invitrogen) in
189 dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO, Sigma, final concentration in media did not exceed 0.1%) for 15
190 minutes at 37°C and then allowed to equilibrate in fresh, room-temperature HBSS (Wisent)
191 supplemented with 2 mM CaCl₂ for another 15 minutes. Imaging was performed in fresh HBSS
192 with 2 mM CaCl₂ with a Leica DMI8 confocal microscope and LAS X software with a 488 nm
193 laser in 0.3 micrometer z-increments with 63x objective to capture at least two fields of axons
194 per ganglia. Background was corrected from images of sum-z-stacks by averaging the mean
195 pixel intensities within four background regions and subtracting this value from each pixel in the

196 image using ImageJ (FIJI build, NIH). The 2D area occupied by axons in each image was then
197 measured using a binary mask of all axons, and the mean pixel intensity value for each image
198 was divided by the area occupied by axons to provide a measure of fluo-4 fluorescence intensity
199 per unit axon area. Field images of DRG axons from the same embryo were averaged to produce
200 the embryo mean value. In each experiment, measurements were standardized to the NGF
201 control value of 1.0 and the size of the treatment values expressed as fold-change from NGF
202 control.

203

204 *Live Ca²⁺ imaging with fluo-4*

205 30 minutes prior to imaging, cultures were incubated with 5 μ M Fluo-4 (Invitrogen) in
206 dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO, Sigma, final concentration in media did not exceed 0.1%) for 15
207 minutes at 37°C and then allowed to equilibrate at room-temperature, then washed with fresh
208 HBSS (Wisent) supplemented with 2 mM CaCl₂ (Fisher BioReagents) for 15 minutes. Fields of
209 >100 axons each were acquired at 40x at a rate of one frame every 5 seconds on a Zeiss
210 ObserverZ.1 inverted epifluorescence microscope controlled by ZEN2 software with an
211 atmosphere-controlled incubation chamber (Pecon) and 470 nm Colibri LED light source (Zeiss).
212 Before injection of stimulus (PMA 100 nM) baseline fluorescence was recorded for 1 minute (12
213 frames). Background was corrected from each frame individually in each movie by averaging the
214 pixel intensity value of 4 background regions and subtracting this value from the mean pixel
215 intensity of the uncorrected frame (NIH ImageJ, FIJI build). Fluo-4 responses were standardized
216 for each run as fold-change from the initial frame (set to 1.0).

217

218 *Live Ca²⁺ imaging with GCaMP6f*

219 At time of seeding, DRG cultures were infected with HSV-hEF1-GCaMP6f (Massachusetts
220 Institute of Technology Viral Core Facility) followed by 24 hours to allow for neurite growth
221 and GCaMP6f expression. Images of NGF-supplied or deprived axons were acquired at a rate of
222 one every 10 minutes on a Zeiss ObserverZ.1 inverted epifluorescence microscope. Multiple
223 field positions were imaged with an automated stage and atmosphere-controlled incubation
224 chamber (Pecon) controlled by ZEN2 software, and 40x objective using a 470 nm Colibri LED
225 light source (Zeiss). Axons were cropped from these movies and background was corrected on
226 each frame using ImageJ (FIJI build, NIH) by averaging background regions immediately
227 adjacent to either side of the axon and subtracting this value from each pixel of the uncorrected
228 frame. To standardize fluorescence intensity to the time of morphological degeneration, the
229 frame where axon collapse accompanied by membrane spheroids was observed was considered
230 time = 0, and time-course values were then standardized to the corrected intensity value of the
231 frame acquired 180 minutes prior and expressed as fold-change from 1.0.

232

233 *Experimental Design and Statistical Analysis*

234 Data was plotted and analyzed with Prism 6 (GraphPad). One-factor ANOVA with Dunnett's
235 post-hoc comparisons were used to analyze the effects of capsazepine, NAC, VAS2870, Go6976
236 and Go6983 on Fluo-4 intensity standardized to the mean NGF control value, the effect of
237 capsazepine on axon density after NGF deprivation versus the NGF-deprived control, and the
238 effect of NGF deprivation on GCaMP6f response (RM in the 'time' factor, . Two-factor
239 ANOVA was utilized to test the effect of EDTA on axon density (RM in the 'distance from

240 soma' factor and Dunnett's post-hoc comparisons with NGF-deprived control) and the effect of
 241 NAC, VAS2870, Go6976 and Go6983 on axon density (Tukey's post-hoc comparisons and RM
 242 in the 'distance from soma' factor). Two-factor ANOVA was also used to analyze the effect of
 243 TrpV1 knockout on axon density after NGF deprivation and to assess the effect of capsazepine
 244 on maximum Fluo-4 response to PMA (Tukey's post-hoc comparisons made in each case). A
 245 two-way ANOVA (RM in the time factor) with Sidak's multiple comparisons was performed on
 246 data collected during time-course imaging of the Fluo-4 response to PMA in wild-type and
 247 *TrpV1*-null axons. Unpaired, two-tailed t-tests were used to test the significance of the Fluo-4
 248 response to PMA and NGF deprivation and to test the effect of TrpV1 knockout on PMA
 249 responses. Plotted values in each case represent the mean of a single embryo, and the number of
 250 embryos *n* in each experiment and condition is described in corresponding figure legends. Full
 251 statistical results are available upon request.

252

253 **Table 1. Materials list**

Reagent	Source	Identifier
Antibodies		
Mouse anti-tubulin beta III	EMD Millipore	MAB5564
Goat anti-mouse AlexaFluor 488	Jackson ImmunoResearch	115-545-003
Goat anti-mouse HRP	Jackson ImmunoResearch	115-053-146
Mice		
CD1	Charles River	IMSR Cat# CRL:22, RRID:IMSR_CRL:22
B6.129X1- <i>Trpv1</i> ^{tm1.Jul/J}	The Jackson Laboratories	3834761, RRID:MGI:3834761
Software		

Prism 6	GraphPad	RRID:SCR_002798
Inkscape 0.91	The Inkscape Project	RRID:SCR_014479
FIJI	NIH	RRID:SCR_002285
Axoquant2.0	(Johnstone et al., 2018)	http://www.github.com/BarkerLabUBC
RStudio 1.1.442	RStudio	RRID:SCR_000432
ZEN 2	Zeiss	RRID:SCR_013672
LAS X	Leica	RRID:SCR_013673
Culture reagents		
Neurobasal	Gibco	21103049
B-27	Gibco	17504-044
Penicillin/streptomycin	Gibco	15140122
GlutaMax	Gibco	35050-061
NGF	CedarLane	CLMCNET-001
Poly-D-Lysine	Sigma	P6407-5MG
Laminin/Entactin	Corning	08-774-555
Collagen	PurCol	5005-100ML
Oligonucleotides		
For <i>TrpV1</i> genotyping (wild-type forward) TGGCTCATATTTGCCTTCA G	Invitrogen	19922
For <i>TrpV1</i> genotyping (mutant forward) TAAAGCGCATGCTCCAGAC T	Invitrogen	oIMR1627

For <i>TrpV1</i> genotyping (in-common reverse) CAGCCCTAGGAGTTGATGG A	Invitrogen	19923
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254

255

256 **Results**257 *Ca²⁺ influx is required for axon degeneration*

258 We previously showed that chelation of extracellular Ca²⁺ by EGTA rescues axons from trophic
259 withdrawal-induced degeneration (Johnstone et al., 2018). To confirm that NGF deprivation
260 induces an increase in axoplasmic Ca²⁺, DRG axons were withdrawn from NGF and examined
261 by Ca²⁺ imaging using the dark-to-bright Ca²⁺-responsive dye fluo-4. Figure 1A-B shows that
262 axoplasmic Ca²⁺ is significantly increased at 15 hours of NGF withdrawal. To understand the
263 kinetics of the Ca²⁺ increase relative to the timing of membrane spheroid formation and frank
264 degeneration, axons were infected with herpes simplex virus (HSV) harbouring the genetically-
265 encoded Ca²⁺ sensor GCaMP6f and live-imaged after NGF deprivation to record the timing of
266 Ca²⁺ rise (Figure 1C). Because the degeneration of individual axons is not perfectly
267 synchronized, videos were standardized to the frame in which axons acquired membrane
268 spheroids; this approach revealed that an increase in the GCaMP6f signal is initiated
269 approximately two hours prior to morphological degeneration and peaks in the last 40 minutes
270 prior to frank axon breakdown (Figure 1D). Thus, the Ca²⁺ influx occurs prior to the emergence
271 of gross morphological changes.

272 Since NGF deprivation induced a significant axoplasmic Ca²⁺ influx proximal to
273 membrane spheroid formation, and we recently reported that Ca²⁺ chelation rescues axons from
274 degeneration (Johnstone et al., 2018), we sought to clarify whether Ca²⁺ signaling is required
275 during the early phase after NGF deprivation to induce degeneration, or whether Ca²⁺ is only
276 required as a late event. DRG neurons were grown in NGF and then either maintained in NGF,
277 deprived of NGF or deprived of NGF in the presence of EDTA added at the beginning of the
278 deprivation phase (EDTA 24 hours) or only after the first 12 hours of deprivation (Figure 1E).

279 Axon density vs distance was quantified using Axoquant2.0 (Figure 1F). Axons were rescued
280 from degeneration when EDTA was added for the full 24 hours of NGF withdrawal or when
281 added for the final 12 hours (Figure 1G). Intriguingly, axons were more robustly protected when
282 EDTA was added only for the final 12 hours of NGF deprivation, versus deprived axons
283 continuously supplied with EDTA for the entire 24-hour deprivation period, likely indicative of
284 the important role for Ca^{2+} in outgrowth and survival pathways. We conclude that Ca^{2+} influx is
285 a late event in axonal degeneration induced by NGF withdrawal.

286

287 *TRPV1 mediates developmental degeneration*

288 Capsaicin-induced activation of TRPV1 can induce Ca^{2+} -dependent degeneration of sensory
289 nerve fibres (Jancso et al., 1985; Gibbons et al., 2010; Chiang et al., 2015; Şavk, 2016) but to
290 date, the role for TRPV1 in developmental degeneration has not been explored. To address this,
291 we deprived DRG sensory neurons of NGF in the presence or absence of TRPV1 antagonist
292 capsazepine and measured axonal Ca^{2+} levels using fluo-4. Figure 2A shows that the increase in
293 axonal Ca^{2+} concentration that normally occurs following NGF deprivation was lost in the
294 presence of the TRPV1 inhibitor (quantified in Figure 2B). Further, the fragmentation of the
295 axonal tubulin cytoskeleton that is normally observed after 24 hours of NGF deprivation was
296 substantially reduced in axons treated with capsazepine (Figure 2C and 2D) as well as in TRPV1⁻
297 ^{-/-} DRG axons (Figure 2E). We conclude that TRPV1-dependent Ca^{2+} entry plays an important
298 role in developmental sensory axon degeneration.

299

300 *ROS generated by NOX complexes are required for degeneration*

301 ROS are important physiological regulators of TRPV1 (Salazar et al., 2008a; Ding et al., 2016;
302 Hargreaves and Ruparel, 2016; Ogawa et al., 2016). To explore the possibility that ROS are
303 generated following NGF deprivation, we first asked if the rise in axonal Ca^{2+} that occurs after
304 NGF deprivation is blocked in the presence of N-acetylcysteine (NAC), a potent antioxidant.
305 Figure 3A and 3B show that NAC completely blocked the rise in axonal Ca^{2+} influx that
306 normally occurs 15 hours after NGF deprivation.

307 Under normal physiological circumstances, a major source of intracellular ROS are NOX
308 complexes (Li et al., 2006; Cao et al., 2007; Ibi et al., 2008; Kallenborn-Gerhardt et al., 2014;
309 Spencer and Engelhardt, 2014). To determine if NOX complex activity contributes to the axonal
310 Ca^{2+} influx that occurs in DRG sensory axons after NGF withdrawal, we exposed axons to NOX
311 complex inhibitor VAS2870. Figures 3A and 3B show that VAS2870 blocks the Ca^{2+} influx that
312 normally occurs 15 hours after NGF deprivation. Both NAC and VAS2870 rescue axons from
313 degeneration following NGF withdrawal (Figures 3 C-E). Axon protection was also conferred by
314 two additional NOX complex inhibitors besides VAS2870, apocynin and diphenyliodonium
315 (data not shown). Therefore, we conclude that NOX-dependent ROS generation plays a critical
316 role in developmental axon degeneration.

317

318 In several settings, NOX complexes are activated by PKC (Frey et al., 2002; Ibi et al., 2008;
319 Cosentino-Gomes et al., 2012) and we therefore asked if PKC activity mediates Ca^{2+} entry and
320 developmental sensory axon degeneration. First, we performed gain of function experiments to
321 determine whether PKC activation is sufficient to drive Ca^{2+} influx by exposing axons to phorbol
322 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), a potent PKC activator. Figures 4A and 4B show that PMA-
323 mediated PKC stimulation potently induces Ca^{2+} influx in axons. Next, we applied PKC

324 inhibitors to axons during NGF deprivation. Figures 4C and 4D show that PKC inhibitors
325 Gö6976 and Gö6983 each strongly blocked the Ca^{2+} influx induced by 15 hours of NGF
326 deprivation and Figures 4E and 4F show that these compounds significantly improve axon
327 integrity observed after 24 hours of NGF deprivation. These results are consistent with the
328 hypothesis that PKC-dependent NOX activation drives TRPV1 opening following NGF
329 deprivation.

330

331 To determine if any of this PKC-dependent Ca^{2+} influx occurred via TRPV1, axons were
332 exposed to PMA in the absence and presence of capsazepine. Interestingly, the TRPV1 blocker
333 capsazepine strongly reduced the PMA-induced Ca^{2+} entry into axons, suggesting that PKC
334 mediates Ca^{2+} entry into sensory axons mainly via TRPV1 (Figure 5A-C). To confirm this, we
335 examined the effect of PMA on Ca^{2+} entry in DRG sensory axons derived from wild-type and
336 $\text{TRPV1}^{-/-}$ embryos; Figure 5D and 5E show that the PMA-induced Ca^{2+} influx that occurs in
337 wild-type axons is virtually absent in $\text{TRPV1}^{-/-}$ axons. Together these results suggest that TRPV1
338 is the predominant Ca^{2+} channel activated by PKC in sensory axons.

339

340 In our final experiments, we asked whether PKC-dependent TRPV1 channel activity requires
341 NOX activation and ROS generation. Axons were exposed to PMA in the absence and presence
342 of apocynin (to inhibit NOX complexes) or NAC (a ROS scavenger) and assessed for Ca^{2+} entry.
343 Figure 6 shows that both apocynin (Figure 6A and 6B) and NAC (Figure 6C and 6D) suppress
344 PMA-induced Ca^{2+} entry. Taken together, our data indicate that a direct PKC > NOX > ROS
345 signaling cascade activates TRPV1 in sensory axons and that this cascade plays a critical role in
346 the developmental axon degeneration of DRG sensory axons.

347

348

349 **Discussion**

350 Axon terminals innervating the skin can be induced to degenerate by clinical application
351 of capsaicin, an exogenous TRPV1 agonist, which activates Ca^{2+} influx upstream of
352 mitochondrial dysfunction and cytoskeletal degeneration, indicating that the molecular
353 machinery is present within DRG axons to execute TRPV1-dependent neurite degeneration
354 (Jancso et al., 1985; Gibbons et al., 2010; Chiang et al., 2015). The Ca^{2+} -dependent apoptotic
355 death of retinal ganglia cells, a neuronal subtype, subjected to experimental glaucoma *in vitro*
356 was also found to require TRPV1, as did apoptosis of cortical neurons exposed to
357 oxygen/glucose deprivation (Shirakawa et al., 2008; Sappington et al., 2009). We recently
358 reported that cytoskeletal fragmentation of DRG axons is rescued by the Ca^{2+} -specific chelator
359 EGTA during NGF deprivation *in vitro*, highlighting a key role for Ca^{2+} in developmental
360 degeneration and prompting the current study to understand its source and regulation (Johnstone
361 et al., 2018). NGF withdrawal resulted in formation of spheroid membrane protrusions on axons
362 characteristic of apoptotic-like decoupling of membrane from underlying cytoskeletal structural
363 support, accompanied by elevated axoplasmic free Ca^{2+} concentration.

364

365 In the present study, we found that the rise of Ca^{2+} occurred prior to the appearance of membrane
366 spheroids and degeneration of the axon, indicating a late role for Ca^{2+} in axon degeneration
367 induced by NGF deprivation. Cultures of DRG deprived of NGF were rescued from Ca^{2+} influx
368 by TRPV1 antagonist capsazepine, and pharmacological and genetic TRPV1 loss-of-function
369 rescued cytoskeletal integrity. We hypothesized that ROS promote developmental degeneration
370 upstream of TRPV1 and Ca^{2+} influx during trophic withdrawal. Consistent with this, antioxidant
371 NAC rescued axons from Ca^{2+} influx and from degeneration, as did NOX complex and PKC

372 inhibition. Our results reveal for the first time that a PKC > NOX complex > ROS > TRPV1 >
373 Ca²⁺ signaling axis mediates developmental axonal degeneration in DRG neurons.

374

375 *Reactive oxygen species mediate developmental degeneration*

376 We sought to place TRPV1 in a signaling context downstream of NGF withdrawal by identifying
377 its mode of regulation. Though TRPV1 is activated by diverse stimuli including protons, heat,
378 lipids and plant and invertebrate defense compounds, we hypothesized that ROS are required for
379 activation of TRPV1 in the context of developmental degeneration for several reasons: 1)
380 intraneuronal Ca²⁺ tone and elevated oxidative status are mutually enhancing in diverse
381 physiological settings and in disease states (Liu et al., 2003; Mattson, 2007; Bezprozvanny,
382 2009; Marambaud et al., 2009; Tan et al., 2011; Deheshi et al., 2015; Schampel and Kuerten,
383 2017; Carrasco et al., 2018); 2) ROS are crucial for TRPV1-mediated Ca²⁺ dynamics in
384 nociception and inflammation, two paradigms in which TRPV1 has been extensively studied
385 (Salazar et al., 2008b; Chuang and Lin, 2009; Wang and Chuang, 2011; Ding et al., 2016;
386 Hargreaves and Ruparel, 2016; Ogawa et al., 2016); 3) cultured sympathetic neurons and PC12
387 cells, which like DRG both require NGF for outgrowth and survival, can be rescued from neurite
388 degeneration and death by an antioxidant (Ferrari et al., 1995), and 4) redox regulation of
389 TRPV1 is well established, and intracellular redox-active cysteine residues that are targeted
390 within TRPV1 have been identified (Ibi et al., 2008; Salazar et al., 2008b; Lin et al., 2015; Ding
391 et al., 2016; Morales-Lázaro et al., 2016; Nazıroğlu, 2017). Based on these findings, we
392 hypothesized that NGF deprivation results in ROS generation that is required for the TRPV1-
393 mediated Ca²⁺ influx in DRG axons and our results clearly demonstrate this to be the case.

394

395 *NOX complexes generate ROS during trophic factor deprivation*

396 What is the origin of ROS in an NGF-deprived sensory axon? NOX complexes are a family of
397 membrane-associated oxidases that generate superoxide via electron transfer from NADPH that
398 participate in redox regulation of downstream targets (Frey et al., 2002; Geiszt et al., 2003;
399 Hilburger et al., 2005; Cao et al., 2009; Petry et al., 2010). In embryonic sympathetic neurons,
400 which like DRG depend on NGF for survival, genetic deletion of NOX isoform NOX2 rescued
401 axons from degeneration, as did pharmacological NOX complex inhibition (Tammariello et al.,
402 2000; Hilburger et al., 2005). Further, a growing body of literature points to an intimate link
403 between NOX complex activation and TRPV1-mediated Ca^{2+} dynamics in pain and
404 inflammation paradigms (Ibi et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2016; Naziroğlu, 2017). It
405 is firmly established that ROS are generated as a consequence of mitochondrial dysfunction
406 during neurite degeneration and apoptosis, and it is likely that mitochondria-derived ROS are
407 generated as axons degenerate (Hajóczky et al.; Kirkland et al., 2002; Kirkland and Franklin,
408 2003; Celsi et al., 2009; Prudent et al., 2015). However, in DRG axons stimulated to degenerate
409 with capsaicin, loss of mitochondrial membrane potential is a consequence, not a cause, of
410 TRPV1-mediated Ca^{2+} influx (Czeh et al., 2005; Chiang et al., 2015). Since NOX complex
411 inhibition rescued axons from Ca^{2+} influx and degeneration in our setting, we conclude that
412 NOX complexes are the primary source of ROS that contributes to TRPV1 activation in
413 degenerating axons.

414

415 *A PKC > NOX > ROS > TRPV1 > Ca^{2+} signaling cascade mediates Ca^{2+} influx in DRG axons.*

416 PKC-dependent phosphorylation of the core activator subunit p47^{phox} plays a critical role in the
417 assembly and activation of several NOX complexes (El-Benna et al., 2008). Typical PKCs are

418 activated by Ca^{2+} and diacylglycerol (DAG) and the pharmacological DAG mimetic PMA is a
419 potent PKC activator (Grimes et al., 1996; Frey et al., 2002; Ibi et al., 2008; Cosentino-Gomes et
420 al., 2012; Lucke-Wold et al., 2015). Our finding that *TRPV1* genetic knockout completely
421 ablated the axonal Ca^{2+} influx response to PMA is consistent with published *in vivo* data
422 indicating that the noxious effect of intraplantar PMA injection was mediated by TRPV1
423 (Bölskei et al., 2005). Further, our evidence for axonal signaling cassette comprised of PKC >
424 NOX > ROS > TRPV1 > Ca^{2+} is consistent with data from other settings (e.g. inflammation)
425 that have linked extracellular signaling to TRPV1 activation (Ibi et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2015;
426 Ding et al., 2016; Nazıroğlu, 2017).

427

428 *How does TrkA transduce a prodegenerative signal to the PKC/NOX/TRPV1 signaling*
429 *cassette?*

430 The apical molecular events that link NGF deprivation to PKC activation remain unknown. In
431 this regard, it is notable that whereas NGF-bound TrkA activates pro-survival signaling (together
432 with the p75 neurotrophin receptor (p75^{NTR}), recent studies have suggested that when withdrawn
433 from ligand, TrkA can actually drive pro-degenerative pathways (Barker and Shooter, 1994;
434 Nikolettou et al., 2010; Feinberg et al., 2017). One of the signaling events activated by
435 TrkA is the phospholipase C gamma (PLC γ) pathway and in subsequent studies it will be
436 interesting to determine if TrkA-dependent PLC γ activity plays a role in PKC activation after
437 NGF withdrawal. This intriguing possibility would be consistent with results from Calissano and
438 colleagues that show that in NGF-treated hippocampal neurons, TrkA and PLC γ phosphorylation
439 is rapidly lost after NGF withdrawal but both rise several hours later (Matrone et al., 2009).
440 Recent work has indicated a role for TNFR-family member death receptor 6 (DR6) in

441 developmental degeneration downstream of NGF deprivation (Nikolaev et al., 2009); whether
442 DR6 enhances PKC activation in this context is not yet known.

443

444 In closing, we have established a novel role for TRPV1 in developmental sensory axon
445 degeneration and established the existence of a PKC > NOX > ROS > TRPV1 > Ca²⁺ signaling
446 cassette in this setting. These studies have been limited to peripheral sensory axons but TRPV1
447 is broadly expressed in the central nervous system, and sporadic evidence has suggested a role
448 for TRPV1 in synapse remodeling (Ramírez-Barrantes et al., 2016). Future studies should test
449 the intriguing possibility that selective pruning of neurites is accomplished by locally-restricted
450 TRPV1 activation, not only in the periphery but also in the brain.

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754 **Figure Legends**

755

756 **Figure 1. Ca^{2+} is required for developmental degeneration *in vitro*.**

757 (A) Cultures of DRG explants were either maintained in NGF or deprived of NGF for 15 hours
758 prior to loading with Ca^{2+} sensor fluo-4. (B) Axons deprived of NGF displayed a significantly
759 elevated axonal Ca^{2+} concentration (data standardized to NGF, n=16, compiled from NGF and
760 deprived controls; analyzed by unpaired two-tailed t-test and indicated are median, min/max and
761 25/75%). (C) Axoplasmic Ca^{2+} influx reported by GCaMP6f occurred proximal to the time of
762 morphological degeneration of the axon. (D) Axoplasmic Ca^{2+} increase was significantly
763 elevated by 40 minutes prior to membrane spheroid formation but not earlier as compared to
764 intensity 180 minutes prior to spheroids (indicated are mean and SEM; one-factor ANOVA and
765 Dunnett's posthoc). (E) β III-tubulin staining of DRG explants treated with EDTA after 12 hours
766 of NGF deprivation or for the entire 24 hour deprivation phase. Consistent with a late role for
767 Ca^{2+} in axon degeneration, axons were significantly rescued from cytoskeletal fragmentation
768 even when Ca^{2+} dynamics were left unmodulated by chelation during the first 12 hours of NGF
769 deprivation. (F) Axoquant2.0 output curves are shown with mean and SEM (n=9 embryos from 3
770 pooled litters). (G) Axon density within 1000 μm bins were analyzed by two-factor ANOVA and
771 Dunnett's post-hoc comparison and plotted with median, min/max and 25/75%. * $p < 0.05$,
772 **** $p < 0.0001$.

773

774 **Figure 2. TRPV1 mediates Ca^{2+} flux and cytoskeletal fragmentation during trophic factor**

775 **deprivation.** (A) TRPV1 inhibition by capsazepine rescued axons from Ca^{2+} influx. Axons were
776 loaded with fluo-4 after the indicated treatments and imaged by confocal microscopy. (B) 15

777 hours of NGF deprivation induced robust activation of Ca^{2+} sensor fluo-4 in axons, but co-
778 application of 10 μM capsazepine (TRPV1 inhibitor, CPZ) ablated the response as compared to
779 deprived controls (n=7 pooled experiments, one-factor ANOVA and Dunnett's post-hoc
780 comparison to the deprived condition). (C-D) NGF deprivation for 24 hours resulted in a
781 significant loss of tubulin-stained axons, but addition of 10 μM CPZ after 12 hours of trophic
782 withdrawal for the final 12 hours resulted in a rescue of axon density to a level not significantly
783 different from healthy controls (n=8 embryos in NGF and capsazepine conditions, n=7 in
784 DMSO; one-factor ANOVA and Dunnett's post-hoc comparison were performed on axon
785 density in a bin between 1000 and 1999 μm from soma. (E) TRPV1 knockout rescued axons
786 from cytoskeletal degeneration; neurons cultured from mixed-genotype litters were deprived of
787 NGF for 24 hours, after which TRPV1-null axons were significantly more dense than axons in
788 cultures derived from wild-type animals. Axon density between 1000 and 1999 μm from soma
789 was compared by two-factor ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc comparison. Indicated are median,
790 min/max and 25/75% in each panel. * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$.

791

792 **Figure 3. ROS derived from NOX complexes activate Ca^{2+} flux and axonal degeneration *in***
793 ***vitro*.** (A) DRG explants cultured in NGF were either maintained in NGF or withdrawn from
794 trophic factor for 15 hours before staining with fluo-4 and imaged by confocal microscopy. (B)
795 Antioxidant NAC (20 mM) or NOX complex inhibition using VAS2870 (10 μM) significantly
796 impaired axonal Ca^{2+} influx induced by trophic factor withdrawal (n=3 pooled experiments
797 standardized to the NGF condition, one-factor ANOVA and Dunnett's post-hoc comparison;
798 mean and SEM are indicated. (C-E) Antioxidant or NOX complex inhibition significantly
799 rescued DRG axonal cytoskeleton (visualized with β III-tubulin immunostaining) when added

800 after 12 hours of NGF deprivation for the final 12 hours. (D) Axoquant2.0 axon density output
801 curves with mean and SEM. (E) Axon density was analyzed within 1000 μm bins using two-
802 factor ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc analysis. Median, min/max and 25/75% are indicated.
803 * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, **** $p < 0.0001$.

804

805 **Figure 4. PKC mediates Ca^{2+} flux and axonal degeneration *in vitro*.** (A) Representative
806 micrographs of DRG axons loaded with fluo-4 and treated with PKC activator PMA (100 nM).
807 (B) Direct PKC stimulation by PMA is sufficient to activate axonal Ca^{2+} influx (n=14 embryos
808 pooled from PMA and buffer controls and compared using an unpaired, two-tailed t-test.) (C-D)
809 Ca^{2+} influx activated by 15 hours of NGF deprivation is significantly rescued when PKC is
810 inhibited by Gö6976 and Gö6983 (10 μM ; n=6 embryos each condition standardized to NGF
811 values and tested by one-factor ANOVA and Dunnett's post-hoc comparison. (E-F) PKC
812 inhibition after 12 hours rescues axons from cytoskeletal degeneration induced by 24 hours of
813 NGF deprivation. (E) Axoquant2.0 axon density output curves are presented with mean and
814 SEM (n=9 for all conditions except n=7 for Gö6983). (F) Axon density was analyzed within
815 1000 μm bins using two-factor ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc analysis. Median, min/max and
816 25/75% are indicated. **** $p < 0.0001$.

817

818 **Figure 5. TRPV1 mediates PKC-dependent axonal Ca^{2+} flux.** (A) Representative images of
819 DRG axons loaded with fluo-4 and live-imaged during stimulation with PKC activator PMA in
820 the presence or absence of TRPV1 inhibitor CPZ (10 μM). TRPV1 inhibition abolished the
821 axonal Ca^{2+} response to PKC activation. (B) Time-course of the fluo-4 responses to Ca^{2+} influx
822 during the 15-minute recording period (n=6, mean and SEM are indicated). (C) Maximum

823 responses during the recording period were analyzed using two-factor ANOVA and Tukey's
824 post-hoc comparison; indicated are median, min/max and 25/75%. (D) The axonal Ca^{2+} response
825 to PKC activation was absent in axons of *TrpV1*-knockout DRG (n=6, mean and SEM are
826 indicated and data was analyzed by two-factor ANOVA and Sidak's post-hoc comparison). (E)
827 The maximum fluo-4 responses to axonal Ca^{2+} were analyzed by an unpaired, two-tailed t-test
828 and indicated are median, min/max and 25/75%. **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

829

830

831 **Figure 6. PKC-dependent Ca^{2+} flux requires ROS from NOX complexes.** (A) Representative
832 images of DRG axons loaded with fluo-4 and stimulated with PMA in the presence or absence of
833 apocynin (10 μM). (B) PKC-induced Ca^{2+} influx was significantly reduced by NOX complex
834 inhibition by 10 μM apocynin (n=5 pooled experiments analyzed by two-factor ANOVA and
835 Tukey's post-hoc comparison). (C) Representative images of DRG axons loaded with fluo-4 and
836 stimulated with PMA in the presence or absence of NAC (20 mM). (D) PKC activation with
837 PMA (100 nM) induced axonal Ca^{2+} influx that was abolished by co-application of antioxidant
838 NAC at 20 mM (n=6 pooled experiments analyzed by two-factor ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc
839 comparison). Plotted are the maximum Fluo-4 responses (relative to baseline values) during the
840 recording period. Indicated are median, min/max and 25/75%. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

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