Title: Almost nontoxic tetrodotoxin analog, 5,6,11-trideoxytetrodotoxin,

as an olfactory chemoattractant for the grass puffer

Running title: Grass puffer can smell TTX analog

Authors: Yasuhisa Noguchi[1], Takehisa Suzuki[1], Keigo Matsutani[1], Ryota Nakahigashi[2],

Yoshiki Satake[2], Masaatsu Adachi[2†], Toshio Nishikawa[2], and Hideki Abe[1*]

Affiliations

1. Laboratory of Fish Biology, Graduate School of Bioagricultural Sciences, Nagoya

University, Furo-Cho, Chikusa-Ku, Nagoya, Aichi 464-8601, Japan

2. Laboratory of Organic Chemistry, Graduate School of Bioagricultural Sciences, Nagoya

University, Furo-Cho, Chikusa-Ku, Nagoya, Aichi 464-8601, Japan

† Present address: Laboratory of Heterocyclic Chemistry, Graduate School of

Pharmaceutical Sciences, Tohoku University, 6-3 Aoba, Aramaki, Aoba-ku, Sendai

980-8578, Japan

Corresponding author's email address

habe@agr.nagoya-u.ac.jp (Hideki Abe)

Keywords

Tetrodotoxin (TTX), TTX analog, chemoattractant, olfactory sensory neurons, EOG

Summary statement:

Electroolfactogram, behavioral experiments, and activity-dependent labeling of olfactory

sensory neurons suggest that an almost nontoxic TTX analog, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, acts as an

olfactory chemoattractant for grass puffers.

Abstract (217 words; max 250 words)

Toxic puffers contain the potent neurotoxin, tetrodotoxin (TTX). Although TTX is

considered to serve as a defense substance, previous behavioral studies have demonstrated

that TTX (extracted from the ovary) acts as an attractive pheromone for some toxic puffers.

To determine the putative pheromonal action of TTX, we examined whether grass puffers

(*Takifugu alboplumbeus*) can detect TTX using electrophysiological, morphological, and

behavioral experiments.

Electroolfactogram results suggest that the olfactory epithelium of grass puffers

responded in a dose-dependent manner to a type of TTX analog (5,6,11-trideoxyTTX),

although it did not respond to TTX. We also examined the attractive action of 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX on grass puffers by recording their swimming behavior under dark conditions.

Grass puffers preferred to stay on the side of the aquarium where 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX was

administered, and their swimming speed decreased. Additionally, odorant-induced labeling of

olfactory sensory neurons using a fluorescent dextran conjugate or immunohistochemistry

against phosphorylated extracellular signal regulated kinase (pERK) revealed that labeled

olfactory sensory neurons were localized in the region surrounding "islets" where there was

abundant cilia on the olfactory lamella.

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX has been known to accumulate in grass puffers, but its toxicity is

much lower (almost nontoxic) than TTX. Our results suggest that grass puffers can detect

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX using their nose and may positively use this functionally unknown TTX

analog as an olfactory chemoattractant.

Introduction

Toxic puffers accumulate the potent neurotoxin, tetrodotoxin (TTX), which is a well-known

antagonist of voltage-gated sodium channels. TTX was first believed to be present only in

pufferfish from the family Tetraodontidae. However, it was later detected in taxonomically

diverse animals (e.g., teleosts, amphibians, echinoderms, crustaceans, mollusks, and worms)

inhabiting terrestrial, marine, freshwater, and brackish water environments (Noguchi and

Arakawa, 2008).

Regardless of the abundant studies, the biological origin of TTX and its ecological

functions remain unclear. However, the presence of TTX in such a variety of organisms

suggests that the ultimate origin of TTX is exogenous or that it is symbiotically produced by

marine bacteria (Noguchi et al., 2006a). TTX and its analogs were detected in potential

pufferfish prey, including starfish, gastropods, crustaceans, flatworms, and ribbonworms, in

addition to several species of bacteria that are free-living or symbiotic with pufferfish or their

potential food organisms (Noguchi and Arakawa, 2008). Several shell fragments of the TTX-

bearing gastropod *Zeuxis siquijorensis* were detected in the digestive tract of the toxic puffer

Takifugu pardalis (Noguchi et al., 2011). Additionally, juveniles of the cultivated tiger puffer

T. rubripes became nontoxic in aquaria or cages that were suspended above the seafloor with

a TTX-free diet (Honda et al., 2005; Noguchi et al., 2006b). These results suggest that TTX

in pufferfish is a result of its accumulation through the food chain.

Why do toxic puffers accumulate TTX in their bodies? Some toxic puffers have TTX-

secreting glands on the skin (Kodama et al., 1986), and electrical stimulation induced TTX

secretion from the body surface of these puffers (Kodama et al., 1985). TTX induces

repulsive or avoidance reactions in predatory fish (Sakakura et al., 2017); predators that

ingested *Takifugu* larvae spat them out promptly (Itoi et al., 2014, 2018a). Thus, in toxic

puffers, TTX functions as a biological defense substance against predators.

Although the main function of TTX in pufferfish appears to be defensive, several

studies have reported that pufferfish can exploit TTX as a source of communication. Sexually

active male grass puffers (*T. alboplumbeus*) were attracted to TTX (Matsumura, 1995).

Artificially raised nontoxic tiger puffer (*T. rubripes*) juveniles were also attracted to TTX

(Saito et al. 1997; 2000; Okita et al. 2013). These studies suggest that pufferfish may sense

TTX. However, the TTX-sensing mechanism in these puffers remains unclear, although the

attractive effect of TTX on *T. rubripes* juveniles disappeared after nose ablation (Okita et al.,

2013).

In this study, we found that a TTX analog, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, is an olfactory

chemoattractant for the grass puffer. We demonstrated the presence of the olfactory sensing

ability, specific olfactory sensory neurons (OSNs), and the attraction behavior of grass

puffers in response to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first

report that pufferfish positively use functionally unknown TTX analogs for chemical

communication.

Materials and Methods

<u>Animals</u>

One hundred fifty-nine grass puffers (body length, 5–12 cm; bodyweight, 6–32 g) were

collected from the coastal waters of Ise-bay in Minamichita-Cho on the Pacific coast of

central Japan by line-fishing. Grass puffers were fed commercial diets (Tetra Krill-E;

Spectrum Brands, Madison, WI, USA) in aerated 300 L tanks (10–25°C, approximately 50

fish per tank) filled with artificial seawater (ASW; Instant Oceans® Sea Salt, Cl^- 543 mM,

Na^+ 471 mM, Mg^{2+} 54.3 mM, K^+ 10.7 mM, Ca^{2+} 10 mM Br^- 0.7 mM, Sr^{2+} 0.1 mM, F^- 0.05

mM, I^- 0.002 mM, CO_3^{2-}/HCO_3^- 3.3 mM, pH 8.2; Instant Ocean, Blacksburg, VA, USA)

under a 12-h light/12-h dark photoperiod. In this study, both males and females were used

without distinction. All animals were maintained and used in accordance with the Nagoya

university regulations on animal care and use in research.

<u>Odorant chemicals</u>

TTX (for biochemistry, citrate buffered, cat. No. 206–11071, FUJIFILM Wako Pure

Chemical Corporation, Osaka, Japan) was dissolved in ultra-pure water at 1.5×10^{-3} M. Two

types of TTX analogs, 4,9-anhydroTTX and 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, were synthesized and

purified according to the methods described by Adachi et al. (2014a) and Adachi et al.

(2014b), respectively. Synthesized TTX analogs were dissolved in 2.5×10^{-2} N acetic acid at

10^{-3} M and stored at −30°C until use. L-Arginine (Arg; a food odor cue for teleosts;

FUJIFILM Wako) was prepared as a 10^{-2} M stock in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF;

NaCl 231 mM, KCl 8.1 mM, $MgCl_2$ 1.3 mM, $CaCl_2$ 2.4 mM, D-glucose 10 mM, 4-(2-

hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) 10 mM; pH adjusted 7.4 with

NaOH). For testing, test odorant solutions were prepared fresh as required by diluting

aliquots of concentrated stock in ACSF or in ASW. L-Arginine was always tested at 10^{-5} M.

When testing a series of solutions with different concentrations, the lowest dose was tested

first, followed by solutions with concentrations that increased by a factor of 10 to 10^{-4} M. A

vehicle solution was prepared in an identical manner by diluting 2.5×10^{-2} N acetic acid in

ACSF or ASW (final concentration, 2.5×10^{-4} N).

<u>Electroolfactogram recordings</u>

Electroolfactogram (EOG) recordings were performed on secured grass puffers on a holding

apparatus that was placed into a plastic experimental trough. Before recording, the fish was

anesthetized by immersion in tricaine methanesulfonate (MS–222; 0.02%). The anesthetized

grass puffer was mounted on the center groove of a hand-made plastic holder by wrapping it

in a paper towel and aluminum foil after attaching an Ag–AgCl plate (1 × 1 cm) with the

body wall as a reference electrode. The gills were perfused with ASW containing 0.01% MS–

222 through a tube inserted into the mouth throughout the experiments (Flow rate: 2.5

mL/min). The skin and cartilage covering the right olfactory cavity were opened, and the

exposed olfactory cavity was continuously perfused with ACSF using an 18 G stainless

needle (NN–1838S; Terumo, Tokyo, Japan). The perfusion rate of ACSF was 1.0 mL/min. A

computer-controlled solenoid valve (UMG1–T1; CKD, Komaki, Japan) delivered 10-s pulses

of test solutions by switching between the ACSF and test solutions (diluted appropriately in

ACSF) at 3-min intervals.

EOG responses were recorded using a saline–agar (0.6%)-filled glass capillary (tip

diameter, 100 μm) that was bridged with an Ag–AgCl wire filled with ACSF. The

indifference electrode was placed lightly on the head skin surface near the perfused olfactory

cavity, and the recording electrode was positioned over the olfactory rosette using

micromanipulators (M-152 and MM-3; Narishige, Tokyo, Japan). The electrodes were

insulated with a paraffin–Vaseline paste that was placed on the surface of the fish's head.

Electrical signals were differentially amplified (gain 1,000×; Band-pass 0.8–100 Hz) using a

DC preamplifier (AVH-11 in VC-11 digital oscilloscope; Nihon-Kohden, Tokyo, Japan) and

notch filtered through a 60 Hz noise eliminator (Humbug; Quest Scientific, North Vancouver,

Canada). The amplified EOG signal was digitized (10 kHz) and stored on a laptop computer

(ThinkPad T61; Lenovo, Beijing, China) using a USB-6251 data acquisition device (National

Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) and WinEDR V3.2.7 software

(http://spider.science.strath.ac.uk/sipbs/software_ses.htm; Strathclyde University, Glasgow,

UK). In this study, we showed negative potential changes in the EOG as upward deflections.

Behavioral experiments

Behavioral experiments were performed using adult male and female grass puffers. For the

behavioral assay, a grass puffer was transferred to a test aquarium ($50 \times 20 \times 20$ cm) that was

filled with 5 L of fresh artificial seawater. The test aquarium was covered with a black curtain

and illuminated by an infrared LED-array illuminator (940 nm, ca. 2 W; AE-LED56V2,

Akizuki Denshi Tsusho Co., Tokyo, Japan) so that the experimenter was invisible to the fish.

A video camera (XC-ST50, Sony, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a low distortion C-mount

lens (f = 4.4 mm; LM4NC1M, Kowa, Nagoya, Japan) was mounted vertically above the

aquarium, and the camera system was adjusted so that the aquarium filled the camera frame.

The fish was allowed to acclimate to a dark environment for 90–180 min.

Time-lapse image acquisitions from the top of the test aquarium were started (1 s

intervals). The time-lapse images were acquired on a laptop computer (ThinkPad T410;

Lenovo, Beijing, China) using image acquisition software (Micro-Manager 1.4.22;

https://micro-manager.org) and a USB-video capture unit (PCA-DAV, Princeton, Tokyo,

Japan) at a resolution of 640×480 pixels. After 6 min of image acquisition, 5 mL of 10^{-5} M

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX or vehicle (5 mL of 2.5×10^{-4} N acetic acid) was gently applied to one

side of the test aquarium through a silicone tube attached to a 10 mL syringe. Then, image

acquisitions were continued for up to 6 min. The numeric x–y coordinates representing the

movement of the fish over time (one coordinate in a frame) were extracted from each video

using the UMA tracker software (http://ymnk13.github.io/UMATracker/; Yamanaka and

Takeuchi, 2018). We first binarized the grayscale images using appropriate filters that were

produced by the UMATracker. We then tracked the fish's position using the "Group tracker

GMM" algorithm and exported the coordinates as a text file.

Activity-dependent labeling of ORNs

To study the ligand specificity of olfactory receptor neurons, we used odor-induced uptake of

fluorescent dye-conjugated dextran (Døving et al., 2011). The fish was anesthetized using

0.02% MS-222 and secured on the holding apparatus used in EOG experiments. The gills

were continuously perfused with artificial seawater containing 0.01% MS-222 through a tube

inserted into the mouth throughout the procedure. The skin and cartilage covering the

olfactory cavity were opened, and the exposed olfactory cavity was continuously perfused

with ACSF using an 18G stainless needle. The olfactory cavity of anesthetized fish was

perfused with L-Arginine (Arg; 10^{-5} M) or 5,6,11-TrideoxyTTX (10^{-5} M) together with a

dextran conjugated with Alexa Fluor® 555 (M.W. 10,000, 10^{-6} M; D34679, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, MA, USA) for 5 min. In the control experiments, the olfactory cavity of

anesthetized fish was exposed to only Alexa Fluor 555-dextran (10^{-6} M) for 5 min. The flow

rate was approximately 1.0 mL/min. After the odorant application, the olfactory cavity was

rinsed with a continuous flow of ACSF for at least 5 min. Fish were kept alive for 3 to 4 h in

aerated artificial seawater at room temperature. Then, the fish was re-anesthetized using 0.1%

MS-222 and decapitated. The decapitated head was immersed in 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1

M PBS (pH 7.2, 4°C, 1 h). After fixation, the olfactory lamellae were dissected and rinsed

with PBS. The olfactory lamellae were then counterstained with 4′,6-diamidino-2-

phenylindole (DAPI; 1 ng/mL, 5 min) and mounted on a hole glass slide with mounting

medium (10% Mowiol 4-88, 25% glycerol, 0.2 M Tris-HCl (pH 9.0), and 2.5%-3.0% 1,4-

diazabicyclo [2,2,2] octane; diluted with ultrapure water).

For immunohistochemistry, we excised the olfactory lamellae from anesthetized fish.

The exposed olfactory lamella was washed three times for 5 min in ACSF and stimulated

with odorant solutions (vehicle, arginine, TTX, or 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX; 10^{-6} M, 1 mL, diluted

with ACSF) for 5 min in a 1.5 mL tube. After odor stimulation, olfactory epithelium (OE)

was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and 15% picric acid in 0.1 M PBS overnight at 4°C,

rinsed in PBS, and cryoprotected in 30% sucrose in PBS overnight at 4ºC. OE was embedded

in Tissue-Tek® O.C.T. compound (Sakura Finetek Japan Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). Cross

cryosections (14–20 μm) of OE mount onto gelatin-coated slides and dried. After rehydration

in PBS, the sections were blocked in 2% normal goat serum (NGS) in PBS with 0.05%

Triton-X100 (PBST) for 3 h at 28°C.

The sections were then incubated with anti-phosphorylated-p44/42 mitogen-activated

protein kinase (MAPK; extracellular regulated kinase, ERK1/2) rabbit monoclonal antibody

(#4370, Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA; 1:500), which was used in zebrafish

olfactory epithelium as validated in Biechl et al. (2016), as a neural activity marker that was

diluted with 0.2% NGS in PBST for 2 days at 4°C. The sections were washed three times for

5 min with 0.2% NGS in PBST. Sections were then incubated with Alexa Fluor® 488-

conjugated secondary antibody (goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L); A-11008, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, 1:500) that was diluted with 0.2% NGS in PBST for 1 day at 4°C. The sections

were washed three times for 5 min in PBST. Finally, sections were counterstained with DAPI

(1:1000) for 5 min and mounted using mounting medium.

A confocal microscope (FluoVIEW 1000D, IX81, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) was used

to observe the details of olfactory lamellae. Pictures were taken in planes and were separated

by 0.45 μm z-axis steps. Confocal microscopy images were analyzed using FluoRender

(http://www.sci.utah.edu/software/fluorender.html; Wan et al., 2012) for three-dimensional

(3D) reconstruction and visualization of dextran-labeled cells. Pre-processing of images

before 3D reconstruction (median filtering [radius: 1 pixel] and trimming) was performed by

Fiji (https://fiji.sc/).

<u>Data analysis</u>

All animal experiments were performed on fish of both sexes. Statistical analyses were

performed using Kyplot5 (Kyence, Tokyo, Japan) and Igor Pro 6 software (WaveMetrics

Inc., Lake Oswego, OR, USA). Data are presented as a dot plot or a box–whisker plot (box:

median and quartiles; whiskers: 10%–90% range) or mean ± standard error of the mean

(SEM). The statistical test that was used in each experiment is shown in the corresponding

figure legend. No statistical methods were used to predetermine the sample size because

many of the outcomes were unknown.

Results

<u>EOG response of grass puffers to TTX</u>

We first performed EOG recordings of adult grass puffers in response to a commercially

available TTX. The EOG response to a 10-s stimulus with an amino acid solution (10^{-5} M L-

Arg) was a slow monophasic potential with a steep rising phase followed by an exponential

decay toward the baseline (Fig.1A, bottom trace). However, TTX (10^{-7} and 10^{-5} M) did not

induce significant changes in the EOG (Fig. 1A upper and middle traces, respectively). The

EOG amplitude of 10^{-7} M TTX (0.027 ± 0.007 mV, n = 4; Fig. 1B○) and 10^{-5} M TTX (0.026

± 0.007 mV, n = 7; Fig. 1B●) were significantly lower than that of 10^{-5} M L-Arg (0.074 ±

0.008 mV, n = 11; Fig. 1B■).

<u>EOG response to TTX analogs</u>

We then examined the EOG responses of the grass puffer to the two synthesized intrinsic

TTX analogs. A TTX analog, 4,9-anhydroTTX, did not induce significant changes in EOG

traces (10^{-5} M; Fig. 2A, second trace) when the same concentration of L-Arg showed clear

EOG responses (Fig. 2A, bottom trace). However, the same concentration of another TTX

analog, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, induced a clear increase in EOG response (Fig. 2A, third trace).

Vehicle control (2.5×10^{-5} N acetic acid solution in ASW) did not induce any changes in

EOG traces (Fig. 2A, top trace). EOG amplitude of 4,9-anhydroTTX, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX,

and L-Arg (all 10^{-5} M) was 0.027 ± 0.004 mV [n = 4], 0.197 ± 0.029 mV [n = 7], and 0.128 ±

0.017 mV [n = 7], respectively. EOG amplitudes of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX and L-Arg were

significantly larger than those of the vehicle (0.032 ± 0.007 mV [n = 5]; Fig.2B).

We also examined the dose–response relationship of the EOG response to 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX. Threshold EOG response concentration for 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX ranged

between 10^{-7} and 10^{-8} M (Fig. 3A). The response amplitude increased with a logarithmic

increase in the concentration, and no response saturation was observed over the concentration

range tested (Fig. 3B). These results suggest that the olfactory epithelium of the grass puffers

can detect 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX.

<u>Behavioral experiments</u>

We next examined the behavioral response of adult grass puffers to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX. One

mature grass puffer was put in a test aquarium filled with 5 L of fresh artificial seawater (50

× 20 × 20 cm) and acclimated to the fish for the test environment in the dark (>1 h). Then, 5

mL of Vehicle or 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (10^{-5} M) was administered to one side of the aquarium

(the final estimated concentration of 5,6,11-trideoxy TTX was 10^{-8} M). Before

administration, the fish intermittently swam left and right and occasionally stopped in one

place in the aquarium (Fig.4 and 5, A–C). Vehicle administration did not change the

swimming patterns of the fish (Fig. 4D–F). This swimming pattern was reflected in the time

vs. X-axis position plot (Fig. 4G) and the time vs. swimming velocity plot (Fig. 4H).

Conversely, administration of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX caused the fish to approach and frequently

stop on the administered side (Fig. 5D and E, Movie S1). Although the time vs. x-axis plot

did not show an apparent change in the swimming pattern (Fig. 5G), 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX

administration decreased the swimming velocity of the fish (Fig. 5H).

To quantify the degree of attraction, we calculated the time spent on the administered

sides and the mean swimming velocity of the individual grass puffers for every 1 min period.

Time spent by the grass puffers on the administered side was longer with the 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX treatment than with the vehicle treatment ($p<0.01$, two-way ANOVA; Fig. 6A

and B), and the swimming velocity of grass puffers was decreased by 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX

compared to the vehicle treatment ($p<0.01$, two-way ANOVA; Fig. 6C and D). These results

suggest that 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX worked as a chemoattractant for grass puffers.

<u>Activity-dependent labeling of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX responding OSNs</u>

To identify OSN that responded to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, we first observed the gross

morphology of the olfactory epithelium from the grass puffer. Differential interference

microscopy images of live olfactory lamellae showed that the surface of olfactory lamella had

repeated structures in which the elliptical "islets" were bordered by oval cells and exposed on

the surface (arrowheads in Fig. 7A). The cross-sectional structure of the olfactory lamellae

showed that oval cells (arrowheads in Fig. 7B, C, and F) surrounded small islets where there

were many cilia (SE in Fig. 7A and B).

Exposing the olfactory organ of the grass puffer to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (10^{-6} M) with

10^{-6} M of 10 kDa dextran conjugated with the fluorescent dye, Alexa Fluor 555, resulted in

the labeling of several cells (arrows in Fig. 7G). The labeled cells were primarily found in the

surrounding region of the islets (Fig. 7H, in the rectangular region). Application of Alexa

Fluor 555-dextran without 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX did not lead to the labeling of any cells in the

epithelium (Fig. 7D). Activity-dependent labeling of Alexa Fluor 555 was frequently seen as

bright granular aggregations within the cell (Fig. 7I, J, and K). Additionally, an axon-like

protrusion that extended from the basal membrane side of the labeled cell could be observed

(arrow in Fig. 7K).

We also performed immunohistochemistry of OE with the pERK antibody as another

activity-dependent labeling of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX-sensitive OSNs. Excised OE from grass

puffers was exposed to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (10^{-6}M), L-Arg (10^{-6}M), or vehicle for 1 min.

Administration of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX activated oval cells clustering on the surface of the

OE (Fig. 8A, Movie S2), whereas L-Arg administration labeled elongated cells with strongly

labeled cilia whose somata were in the middle layer of the OEs (close to the basal membrane;

Fig. 8B, Movie S3). Additionally, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX-sensitive OSNs were localized in the

NSE area of Fig. 7A. However, Vehicle administration did not activate any type of OSNs

(Fig. 8C).

Discussions

In this paper, we electrophysiologically, morphologically, and behaviorally demonstrated that

one of the TTX analogs, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, worked as an olfactory chemoattractant for

grass puffers, *T. alboplumbeus*. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report that

shows that pufferfish positively use a functionally unknown, almost nontoxic TTX analog for

chemical communications.

<u>5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, but not TTX, is an odorant for grass puffers</u>

We first examined whether commercially available TTX induces EOG responses in grass

puffers. A previous behavioral study reported that TTX attracts male grass puffers during the

spawning period (Matsumura 1995). TTX also attracted juvenile tiger puffers regardless of

sex (Okita et al., 2013; Saito et al., 1997, 2000), and this attraction effect was blocked by

nose ablation (Okita et al., 2013). However, TTX did not induce any EOG responses in our

study. Previous studies used crude TTX that was extracted from the pufferfish ovary or liver.

Okita et al. (2013) reported that they purified their crude TTX from the ovary of wild-caught

adult tiger puffers, using the method of Ikeda et al. (2009). They reported that their crude

TTX from pear puffer (*T. vermicularis*) ovaries contained both TTX and TTX analogs,

including 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, 4-epi TTX, and 4,9-anhydroTTX. We used a commercially

available TTX in this study. The manufacturer's datasheet indicated that this TTX was also

extracted from pufferfish ovary and liver, but the species were not specified. However, our

electrospray ionization mass spectrometry analysis indicated that the commercially available

TTX that we used did not contain detectable levels of these TTX analogs (except 4,9-

anhydroTTX, a chemically equilibrium analog of TTX; data not shown). Thus, we

hypothesized that the crude TTX extract from previous studies might contain TTX analogs,

and some of these TTX analogs may act as olfactory chemoattractants for the pufferfish.

To investigate this hypothesis, we examined the effects of two types of synthesized

TTX analogs (4,9-anhydroTTX and 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX) using EOG and a behavioral assay.

Our EOG recordings showed that 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX induced an EOG response in grass

puffers. In our recordings, the EOG amplitude of 10^{-5} M for 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX was

significantly greater than that at the same concentration of L-Arg, which is a well-known

odorant for many teleosts. Furthermore, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX induced EOG responses that

were lower than 10^{-8}M. Because the stimulation threshold of amino acids on the fish

olfactory system is 10^{-9}M to 10^{-7}M (Hara, 1994), 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX is a potent, powerful

odorant for grass puffers.

<u>5,6,11-trideoxyTTX attracts grass puffers</u>

We examined whether adult grass puffers are attracted to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX. In response to

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX administration to one side of the aquarium, grass puffers were attracted

to the administered side of the aquarium and showed the behavior of slowing down and

swimming in that area. A preliminary test indicated that diffusion indicator dye reached half

of the experimental aquarium within 2 min after administration and had spread throughout

the aquarium at the end of the observation period. Thus, we estimated that the grass puffers

could recognize 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX ranging 2×10^{-8} to 1×10^{-5} M within 2 minutes after

administration. These estimated 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX concentrations correspond to the

threshold concentration of the EOG response, although the concentration is much higher than

those of the previous behavioral studies. Mature male grass puffers were attracted to 1.5×10^{-11}

M TTX (Matsumura, 1995). Both male and female juvenile tiger puffers also could

recognize 3.7×10^{-9} (Saito et al., 2000) and 2.6×10^{-8} M (Okita et al., 2013) of TTX,

respectively. In these studies, they started their "choice" experiments after diffusion of TTX

from agar or gelatin on one side of the Y-maze aquarium. These differences in experimental

paradigms seem to contribute to the difference in the effective TTX concentration.

Alternatively, TTX analogs other than 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX may also involve

chemoreception, and multiple forms of TTX analogs other than TTX and 4,9-anhydroTTX

may act synergistically. In olfaction, a combination of several compounds can be perceived

as a specific odor, or a series of structurally similar compounds can be detected by a single

olfactory receptor. Most pheromone specificity is achieved using a combination of

compounds (Wyatt, 2014). For example, female sex pheromones in moths usually consist of

multicomponent blends of five to six hydrocarbons including unbranched fatty acids,

alcohols, acetates, or aldehydes in particular combinations and ratios (de Bruyne and Baker,

2008). In goldfish and carp, a combination of species-specific metabolites of prostaglandin

F2α (PGF2α), a well-known releaser pheromone that induces sexual behavior, strongly

induces species-specific sexual behavioral responses (Lim and Sorensen, 2011). Thus, it is

possible that other metabolites in pufferfish may play a synergistic action with 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX as a chemical signal to attract the opposite sex.

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX sensitive OSNs on the olfactory epithelium of grass puffers

The fluorescent dextran-labeled OSNs were sparsely distributed in the border area around the

ciliary "islets" on the olfactory lamella of grass puffers by the co-administration of 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX. Comparative histological studies reported that the sensory epithelium of grass

puffers was dispersed in many discrete islets on the surface of the olfactory lamella, and the

border area of the sensory islet was classified as undifferentiated epithelium (Yamamoto and

Ueda, 1979). However, our fluorescent dextran-labeling experiments suggested that oval cells

that were activated by 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX were present in the border area around the sensory

islets. These oval cells are also labeled with pERK antibody, a neuronal activity marker, after

the exposure of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX.

It is widely known that teleost fish are equipped with three types of OSNs that are

intermingled in the OE but show distinct morphology (Bazáes et al., 2013). First, there are

the ciliated cells with long dendrites and a few cilia, and second, there are microvillous cells

with shorter dendrites than the ciliated cells, which have microvilli extending from their

apical surface. The third type is the crypt cells. Crypt cells have an oval shape, are located

close to the epithelial surface, and have few cilia and microvilli (Hansen and Eckart, 1998).

Cells that were labeled with fluorescent dextran by 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX co-administration

had no cilia or microvilli and were located on the epithelial surface around the islets of

ciliated epithelium. Based on these morphological characteristics, the 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX-

sensitive OSNs are presumed to be crypt or another unknown type of OSN.

Biological significance of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX for grass puffers

On the basis of these experimental data, we concluded that adult grass puffers can detect

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX by olfaction. 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX has been reported to be present in the

body of toxic pufferfish. The distribution of TTX and its analogs throughout the body of

grass puffers was reported, and 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX accumulated mainly in the ovary (Jang

et al., 2010). Remarkably, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX accumulates more in the ovary than TTX. A

receptor binding assay study of voltage-gated sodium channels in rat brain suspensions

reported that the dissociation equilibrium constant of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (> 5000 nM) was

extremely high compared with that of TTX (1.8 ± 0.1 nM; Yotsu-Yamashita et al., 1999).

These studies suggest that 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX is almost nontoxic and that it does not act as a

defense substance against predators. Kono et al. (2008) reported that the transformation from

TTX to its deoxy analogs or oxidized analogs does not occur in the body of grass puffers.

This result suggests that 5,6,11-trideoxy-TTX is a precursor to TTX, but it remains unclear

whether 5,6,11-trideoxy-TTX is converted to TTX inside the toxic puffers or other organisms

(Ueyama et al., 2018; Yotsu-Yamashita et al., 2013). Therefore, the biological significance of

why toxic puffers accumulate such nontoxic TTX analogs remains unclear.

In the previous study, TTX was treated as an attractive sex pheromone for toxic

puffers. Pheromones are defined as follows: "an odor or mixture of odorous substances,

released by an individual (the sender) and evoking in conspecifics (the receivers) adaptive,

specific, and species-typical response(s), the expression of which needs not require prior

experience or learning" (Sorensen and Stacey, 2004) or "molecules that are evolved signals,

in defined ratios in the case of multiple component pheromones, which are emitted by an

individual and received by a second individual of the same species, in which they cause a

specific reaction, for example, a stereotyped behavior or a developmental process" (Wyatt,

2014). In fish, 17,20β-dihydroxy-4-pregnen-3-one and prostaglandin F2α (goldfish), a type of

sex steroid that is found in ovarian cavity fluid and urine, and a bile acid that is released from

gills, urine, and feces (jawless sea lamprey, rainbow trout, and lake char) have been reported

to act as attractive sex pheromones (Sorensen and Stacey, 2004). TTX is secreted from the

secretory glands on the skin of *T. pardalis, T. poecilonotus, T. vermicularis*, and grass puffers

(Kodama et al., 1985) and is released from ovulated oocytes in the grass puffers (Matsumura

1995). Because 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX is particularly abundant in pufferfish ovaries (Puilingi et

al., 2015), 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX may also be released from the ovarian luminal fluid during

spawning periods.

These chemicals, known as fish pheromones, are synthesized by conspecific fish.

However, current circumstantial evidence suggests that 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, unlike other

pheromones, is acquired from TTX-bearing organisms by eating them (Lago et al., 2015;

Noguchi et al., 2011). In some animals, molecules made by other organisms are harvested

and used as pheromones. For example, male neotropical orchid bees can unsuccessfully

display and attract females without a species-specific pheromone mix, such as limonenes,

from the right kinds of orchid flowers (Zimmermann et al., 2009). Animals may also use

molecules that are produced by bacteria as pheromones. Phase-change pheromones of the

locust are guaiacol (2-methoxyphenol) and phenol, and they are produced by locust gut

bacteria (Pener and Simpson, 2009).

Noguchi et al. (2006a) stated that wild toxic puffers tend to feed on benthic

organisms, such as flatworms, starfish, small gastropods, and skeleton shrimp that are known

to possess TTX. A recent study reported that a TTX-bearing planocerid flatworm was found

in the gut content of grass puffers (Itoi et al., 2018b) and *Chelondon patoca* (Itoi et al., 2020).

Furthermore, some carnivorous gastropods have 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX in addition to TTX

(*Charonia lampas lampas*, Rodriguez et al., 2008; *Nassarius spp.*, Luo et al., 2012), and toxic

snails (*Polinices didyma, Natica lineata, Natica vitellus, Zeuxis sufflatus, Niotha clathrata,*

*Oliva miniacea, Oliva mustelin*a, and *Oliva hirasei*) have been reported to be attracted to

crude TTX extracts (Hwang et al., 2004). Additionally, grass puffers ingested toxic eggs of

another pufferfish, *T. pardalis,* which contained 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (Itoi et al., 2015). All

these studies support that the pufferfish seems to be attracted by 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX and that

it ingest TTX-bearing organisms as food, resulting in accumulating TTX as a possible

defense mechanism and attractive pheromone.

In conclusion, the grass puffers seem to use 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX as an olfactory cue

to capture TTX-bearing organisms and use the accumulated 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX as an

attractive pheromone to attract other conspecific puffers. Thus, this study revealed that

pufferfish might actively use functionally unknown TTX analogs for chemical

communication. Further studies are needed to determine whether other TTX analogs can also

be detected by olfaction and whether multiple TTX analogs synergistically induce such

effects. However, we believe that our results provide a new perspective on the use of TTX by

toxic puffers.

Acknowledgment

We would like to express our gratitude to Prof. Naoyuki Yamamoto for his advice during

experimentation.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: H.A.; Methodology: Y.N., T.S., K.M., R.N., Y.S., M.A., H.A.;

Validation: T.S., H.A.; Formal analysis: Y.N.; Investigation: Y.N., H.A.; Resources: T.N.,

H.A.; Data curation: Y.N., T.S., K.M., H.A.; Writing - original draft: Y.N., H.A.; Writing -

review & editing: T.S., T.N., H.A.; Visualization: Y.N., T.S., H.A.; Supervision: T.N., H.A.;

Project administration: H.A.; Funding acquisition: T.N., H.A.

Funding

This work was supported by Grant-in-Aids for Scientific Research (16K07435 and 19K06762

to H.A., 17K19195 to T.N. and H.A., and 17H06406 to T.N.).

References

Adachi, M., Imazu, T., Sakakibara, R., Satake, Y., Isobe, M., and Nishikawa, T. (2014a).

Total synthesis of Chiriquitoxin, an analogue of tetrodotoxin isolated from the skin of

a dart frog. *Chem. – Eur. J.* **20**, 1247–1251. doi: 10.1002/chem.201304110

Adachi, M., Sakakibara, R., Satake, Y., Isobe, M., and Nishikawa, T. (2014b). Synthesis

of 5,6,11-trideoxytetrodotoxin. *Chem. Lett.* **43**, 1719–1721. doi: 10.1246/cl.140684

Bazáes, A., Olivares, J., and Schmachtenberg, O. (2013). Properties, projections, and

tuning of teleost olfactory receptor neurons. *J. Chem. Ecol.* **39**, 451–464.

doi: 10.1007/s10886-013-0268-1

Biechl, D., Tietje, K., Gerlach, G., and Wullimann, M.F. (2016) Crypt cells are involved in

kin recognition in larval zebrafish. *Sci. Rep.* **6**, 24590. doi: 10.1038/srep24590.

de Bruyne, M. and Baker, T. C. (2008) Odor detection in insects: volatile codes. *J. Chem.*

Ecol. 34, 882–897. doi: 10.1007/s10886-008-9485-4

Døving, K., Hansson, K.-A., Backström, T., and Hamdani, H. (2011). Visualizing a set of

olfactory sensory neurons responding to a bile salt. *J. Exp. Biol.* **214**, 80–87.

doi: 10.1242/jeb.046607

Hansen, A. and Eckart, Z. (1998). The peripheral olfactory organ of the zebrafish, *Danio*

rerio: An Ultrastructural Study. *Chem. Senses* **23**, 39–48.

doi: 10.1093/chemse/23.1.39

Hara, T. (1994). Olfaction and gustation in fish: an overview. *Acta Physiol Scand* **152**, 207–

217. doi: 10.1111/j.1748-1716.1994.tb09800.x

Honda, S., Arakawa, O., Takatani, T., Tachibana, K., Yagi, M., Tanigawa, A., and

Noguchi, T. (2005). Toxification of cultured puffer fish *Takifugu rubripes* by feeding

on tetrodotoxin-containing diet. *Nippon Suisan Gakkaishi* **71**, 815–820.

doi:10.2331/suisan.71.815

Hwang, P.-A., Noguchi, T., and Hwang, D.-F. (2004). Neurotoxin tetrodotoxin as attractant

for toxic snails. *Fish. Sci.* **70**, 1106–1112. doi: 10.1055/s-2005-917664

Ikeda, K., Murakami, Y., Emoto, Y., Ngy, L., Taniyama, S., Yagi, M., Takatani, T., and

Arakawa, O. (2009). Transfer profile of intramuscularly administered tetrodotoxin to

nontoxic cultured specimens of the pufferfish *Takifugu rubripes*. *Toxicon* **53**, 99–103.

doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2008.10.018

Itoi, S., Kozaki, A., Komori, K., Tsunashima, T., Noguchi, S., Kawane, M., and Sugita,

H. (2015). Toxic *Takifugu pardalis* eggs found in *Takifugu niphobles* gut: Implications

for TTX accumulation in the pufferfish. *Toxicon* **108**, 141–146.

doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2015.10.009

Itoi, S., Sato, T., Takei, M., Yamada, R., Ogata, R., Oyama, H., Teranishi, S., Kishiki, A.,

Wada, T., Noguchi, K., et al. (2020). The planocerid flatworm is a main supplier of

toxin to tetrodotoxin-bearing fish juveniles. *Chemosphere* **249**, 126217.

doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.126217

Itoi, S., Suzuki, M., Asahina, K., Sawayama, E., Nishikubo, J., Oyama, H., Takei, M.,

Shiibashi, N., Takatani, T., Arakawa, O., et al. (2018a). Role of maternal

tetrodotoxin in survival of larval pufferfish. *Toxicon* **148**, 95–100.

doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2018.04.014

Itoi, S., Ueda, H., Yamada, R., Takei, M., Sato, T., Oshikiri, S., Wajima, Y., Ogata, R.,

Oyama, H., Shitto, T. et al. (2018b). Including planocerid flatworms in the diet

effectively toxifies the pufferfish, *Takifugu niphobles*, *Sci. Rep.* **8**, 12302.

doi: 10.1038/s41598-018-30696-z

Itoi, S., Yoshikawa, S., Asahina, K., Suzuki, M., Ishizuka, K., Takimoto, N., Mitsuoka,
R., Yokoyama, N., Detake, A., Takayanagi, C., et al. (2014). Larval pufferfish
protected by maternal tetrodotoxin. *Toxicon* **78**, 35–40.
doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2013.11.003

Jang, J.-H., Lee, J.-S., and Yotsu-Yamashita, M. (2010). LC/MS Analysis of Tetrodotoxin
and Its Deoxy Analogs in the Marine Puffer Fish *Fugu niphobles* from the Southern
Coast of Korea, and in the Brackishwater Puffer Fishes *Tetraodon nigroviridis* and
Tetraodon biocellatus from Southeast Asia. *Mar. Drugs* **8**, 1049–1058.
doi: 10.3390/md8041049

Kodama, M., Ogata, T., and Sato, S. (1985). External secretion of tetrodotoxin from puffer
fishes stimulated by electric shock. *Mar. Biol.* **87**, 199–202.
doi: 10.1007/BF00539429

Kodama, M., Sato, S., Ogata, T., Suzuki, Y., Kaneko, T., and Aida, K. (1986).
Tetrodotoxin secreting glands in the skin of puffer fishes. *Toxicon* **24**, 819–829.
doi: 10.1016/0041-0101(86)90107-8

Kono, M., Matsui, T., Furukawa, K., Takase, T., Yamamori, K., Kaneda, H., Aoki, D.,
Jang, J.-H., and Yotsu-Yamashita, M. (2008). Examination of transformation
among tetrodotoxin and its analogs in the living cultured juvenile puffer fish,
kusafugu, *Fugu niphobles* by intramuscular administration. *Toxicon* **52**, 714–720.
doi: 10.1016/j.toxicon.2008.08.002

Lago, J., Rodríguez, L., Blanco, L., Vieites, J., and Cabado, A. (2015). Tetrodotoxin, an
extremely potent marine neurotoxin: Distribution, toxicity, origin and therapeutical
uses. *Mar. Drugs* **13**, 6384–6406. doi: 10.3390/md13106384

Lim, H. and Sorensen, P. (2011). Polar metabolites synergize the activity of prostaglandin
F2α in a species-specific hormonal sex pheromone released by ovulated common
carp. *J. Chem. Ecol.* **37**, 695–704. doi: 10.1007/s10886-011-9976-6

Luo, X., Yu, R., Wang, X.-J., and Zhou, M.-J. (2012). Toxin composition and toxicity
dynamics of marine gastropod *Nassarius spp.* collected from Lianyungang, China.
Food Addit. Contam. Part Chem. Anal. Control Expo. Risk Assess. **29**, 117–27.
doi: 10.1080/19440049.2011.61506

Matsumura, K. (1995). Tetrodotoxin as a pheromone. *Nature* **378**, 563–564.

doi: 10.1038/378563b0

Narahashi, T. (2001). Pharmacology of tetrodotoxin. *J Toxicol* **20**, 67–84.

Noguchi, T. and Arakawa, O. (2008). Tetrodotoxin – Distribution and accumulation in

aquatic organisms, and cases of human intoxication. *Mar. Drugs* **6**, 220–242.

doi: 10.3390/md20080011

Noguchi, T., Arakawa, O., and Takatani, T. (2006a). TTX accumulation in pufferfish.

Comp. Biochem. Physiol. Part D Genomics Proteomics **1**, 145–152.

doi: 10.1016/j.cbd.2005.10.006

Noguchi, T., Arakawa, O., and Takatani, T. (2006b). Toxicity of pufferfish *Takifugu*

rubripes cultured in netcages at sea or aquaria on land. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol. Part*

D Genomics Proteomics **1**, 153–157. doi: 10.1016/j.cbd.2005.11.003

Noguchi, T., Onuki, K., and Arakawa, O. (2011). Tetrodotoxin poisoning due to pufferfish

and gastropods, and their intoxication mechanism. *ISRN Toxicol.* **2011**, e276939.

doi: 10.5402/2011/276939

Okita, K., Yamazaki, H., Sakiyama, K., Yamane, H., Niina, S., Takatani, T., Arakawa,

O., and Sakakura, Y. (2013). Puffer smells tetrodotoxin. *Ichthyol. Res.* **60**, 386–389.

doi: 10.1007/s10228-013-0353-z

Pener, M. P. and Simpson, S.J. (2009). Locust phase polyphenism: An update. *In Advances*

in Insect Physiology, edited by S. J. Simpson and M. P. Pener, **36**, 1–272. Academic

Press. doi: 10.1016/S0065-2806(08)36001-9.

Puilingi, C., Kudo, Y., Cho, Y., Konoki, K., and Yotsu-Yamashita, M. (2015).

Tetrodotoxin and its analogues in the pufferfish *Arothron hispidus* and *A.*

nigropunctatus from the Solomon Islands: A comparison of their toxin profiles with

the same species from Okinawa, Japan. *Toxins* **7**, 3436–3454.

doi: 10.3390/toxins7093436

Rodriguez, P., Alfonso, A., Vale, C., Alfonso, C., Vale, P., Tellez, A., and Botana, L.

(2008). First toxicity report of tetrodotoxin and 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX in the trumpet

shell *Charonia lampas lampas* in Europe. *Anal. Chem.* **80**, 5622–5629.

doi: 10.1021/ac800769e

Saito, T., Kageyu, K., Goto, H., Murakami, K., and Noguchi, T. (1997). Tetrodotoxin

attracts pufferfish ('torafugu', *Takifugu rubripes*). *Toxicon* **35**, 489.
doi: 10.1016/S0041-0101(97)84745-9

Saito, T., Kageyu, K., Goto, H., Murakami, K., and Noguchi, T. (2000). Tetrodotoxin
attracts pufferfish ("torafugu" *Takifugu rubripes*). *Bull. Inst. Ocean. Res. Dev. Tokai Univ.* **21**, 93–96.

Sakakura, Y., Takatani, T., Nakayasu, J., Yamazaki, H., and Sakiyama, K. (2017).
Administration of tetrodotoxin protects artificially raised juvenile tiger puffer
Takifugu rubripes from predators. *Fish. Sci.* **83**, 191–197.
doi: 10.1007/s12562-016-1046-0

Sorensen, P. and Stacey, N. (2004). Brief review of fish pheromones and discussion of their
possible uses in the control of non-indigenous teleost fishes. *N. Z. J. Mar. Freshw. Res.* **38**, 399–417. doi: 10.1080/00288330.2004.9517248

Ueyama, N., Sugimoto, K., Kudo, Onodera, K., Cho, Y., Konoki, K., Nishikawa, T., and Yotsu-Yamashita, M. (2018). Spiro bicyclic guanidino compounds from pufferfish:
possible biosynthetic intermediates of tetrodotoxin in marine environments. *Chem. – Eur. J.* **24**, 7250–7258. doi: 10.1002/chem.201801006

Wan, Y., Otsuna, H., Chien, C.-B., and Hansen, C. (2012). FluoRender: An application of
2D image space methods for 3D and 4D confocal microscopy data visualization in
neurobiology research. In *2012 IEEE Pacific Visualization Symposium*, pp. 201–208.
doi: 10.1109/pacificvis.2012.6183592

Wyatt, T. D. (2014). Animals in a chemical world *In: Wyatt, T. D., Pheromones and Animal
Behavior: Chemical Signals and Signatures 2nd ed.*, Cambridge University Press,
New York, pp.1–48.

Yamamoto, M. and Ueda, K. (1979). Comparative morphology of fish olfactory epithelium,
IX. Tetraodontiformes. *Zool. Mag.* **88**, 210–218.

Yamanaka, O. and Takeuchi, R. (2018). UMATracker: an intuitive image-based tracking
platform. *J. Exp. Biol.* **221**, jeb182469. doi: 10.1242/jeb.182469

Yotsu-Yamashita, M., Sugimoto, A., Takai, A., and Yasumoto, T. (1999). Effects of
specific modifications of several hydroxyls of tetrodotoxin on its affinity to rat brain
membrane. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* **289**, 1688–1696.

Yotsu-Yamashita, M., Abe, Y., Kudo, Y., Ritson-Williams, R., Paul, V., Konoki, K., Cho,

Y., Adachi, M., Imazu, T., Nishikawa, T., et al. (2013). First identification of 5,11-
dideoxytetrodotoxin in marine animals, and characterization of major fragment ions
of tetrodotoxin and its analogs by high resolution ESI-MS/MS. *Mar. Drugs* **11**, 2799–
2813. doi: 10.3390/md11082799

Zimmermann, Y., Ramírez, S., and Eltz, T. (2009). Chemical niche differentiation among
sympatric species of orchid bees. *Ecology* **90**, 2994–3008.
doi: 10.1890/08-1858.1

Figure 1: **Grass puffer did not respond to TTX.**

A: EOG responses of the olfactory epithelium of *T. alboplumbeus* to TTX (10^{-7} M, upper

trace; 10^{-5} M, middle trace) and L-Arg (10^{-5} M, under trace).

B: EOG amplitudes of TTX (10^{-7} M, n = 6, open circle; 10^{-5} M, n = 7, filled circle) and L-

Arg (10^{-5} M, n = 11, filled square). Box plots show the median, quartiles (boxes), and

10%–90% range (whiskers), and dot plots show raw EOG amplitudes. Steel's multiple

comparison test: ** p<0.01.

Figure 2: **5,6,11-trideoxyTTX induced EOG response of the grass puffer.**

A: EOG responses to Vehicle (top trace), 4,9-anhydroTTX (10^{-5} M, second trace), 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX (10^{-5} M, third trace), and L-Arg (10^{-5} M, bottom trace) from same grass

puffer.

B: EOG amplitudes of Vehicle (n = 5, open circles), 4,9-anhydroTTX (n = 4, filled circles),

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (n = 7, filled triangles), and L-Arg (n = 7, filled square). Box plots

show the median, quartiles (boxes), and 10%–90% range (whiskers) of EOG

amplitudes, and dot plots show the raw value of EOG amplitudes. Steel's multiple

comparison test: * p < 0.05.

Figure 3: **EOG response to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX was dose-dependent.**

A: Representative EOG responses by a grass puffer were evoked by increasing the

concentration of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX. The period of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX administration

is shown by the black bar.

B: Dose-response relationship of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX obtained from n = 5–7 fish. Peak

EOG responses are plotted as a function of the concentrations that were delivered.

Black circles show the individual EOG amplitudes and open circles show the mean

EOG amplitude at given concentrations. Error bars represent the standard error. The

dotted line represents a Hill equation fitted to the data (EC_{50}: 9.62×10^{-6} M, Hill

coefficient: 1.21).

Figure 4: **Swimming activity of a grass puffer before and after Vehicle administration.**

Tracked location of a grass puffer (2-min periods) before (A–C) and after Vehicle

administration (D–F). Glid: 100 mm.

Positions of the fish are plotted along the horizontal axis of the aquarium every 1 s.

Vehicle (5 mL of 2.5×10^{-4} N acetic acid solution) was applied at time 0 and remained in

the aquarium thereafter (H). Swimming velocity of the fish is presented in G (H).

Figure 5: **Swimming activity of a grass puffer before and after the 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX**

administration.

Tracked location of a grass puffer (2-min periods) before (A–C) and after 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX application (D–F). Glid: 100 mm.

Positions of the fish are plotted along the horizontal axis of the aquarium every 1 s. 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX (5 mL of 10^{-5} M dissolved in 2.5×10^{-4} N acetic acid solution) was applied

at time 0 and remained in the aquarium thereafter (G). Swimming velocity of the fish is

presented in G (H).

Figure 6: **5,6,11-trideoxyTTX attracts grass puffers.**

A and B: Changes in the time (1-min period) spent by grass puffers in response to an

odorant administered on one side of the experimental aquarium (A: Vehicle, B: 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX). The dotted line represents the chance level (= No odorant preference).

Open or hatched boxes in the plot represent the time periods of the odorant

administrations. Dot plots show the value from individual fish, and box plots show the

median, quartiles (boxes), and 10%–90% range (whiskers).

C and D: Changes in the swimming speed (mm/s) in response to Vehicle (C) or 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX (D). The results of the statistical analysis are shown in the text.

Figure 7: **Activity-dependent fluorescent dextran uptake labeled 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX**

responding olfactory sensory neurons on the olfactory epithelium of the grass puffer.

Differential interference contrast photomicrographs of the surface (A) and the edge (B) of

the olfactory lamella of grass puffer. Arrowheads represent the non-ciliated epithelium

that surrounds the "islets" of the sensory epithelium (SE). Sensory cilia are visible on the

surface of the sensory epithelium. Scale bar = 20 µm.

Confocal microscopy images of the olfactory lamella after Vehicle administration (C–E).

Nuclear staining using DAPI (C) visualized the cells surrounding the islets whose nuclei

were located on the surface of the olfactory lamella. Co-administration of Alexa Fluor555-

dextran and Vehicle did not label any cell-like structures (D). Superimposed image of C

and D (E). The image is a z-projection of 41 pictures (z-step, 0.45 µm).

Confocal microscopy image of the olfactory lamella after 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX

administration (F–H). Nuclear staining using DAPI (F), Alexa Fluor555-dextran (G), and

their composite image (H). Co-administration of Alexa Fluor555-dextran labeled the large

oval cells that were located in the surrounding region of the islets (arrows in G). Scale bar

= 20 µm. The image is a z-projection of 28 pictures (z-step, 0.45 µm).

Enlarged image of the rectangular region in H (I). Alexa Fluor 555 labeling was frequently

seen as bright granular aggregations within the cell. Scale bar = 5 µm.

Another z-projection image (17 planes with a z-step of 0.48 µm) of Alexa Fluor555-

dextran labeled cells by 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX administration (surface side view, J; and

basal membrane side view, K). The arrow indicates an axon-like structure that extends

from the Alexa Fluor555-dextran-labeled cell. Scale bar = 5 µm.

Figure 8: **Activity-dependent labeling by pERK antibody labeled oval-shaped cells on**

the surface of the olfactory epithelium.

pERK-immunopositive OSNs after exposure to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (A) or L-Arg (B). No

labeled cells were observed with the Vehicle control (C). Scale bar: 5 µm.

Movie S1: **Attractive swimming behavior of grass puffers toward 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX**

observed under infrared illumination.

Vehicle or 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX solutions were added from the right side of the test aquarium

6 minutes after the start of image acquisitions.

Movie S2: **Reconstructed 3D view of the 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX-sensitive OSNs on the**

surface of olfactory epithelium shown in Fig. 8A.

pERK-immunopositive OSNs after exposure to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX. The same confocal

microcopy data as in Fig.8A was used. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Movie S3: **Reconstructed 3D view of the L-Arg-sensitive OSNs in the middle layer of**

olfactory epithelium shown in Fig. 8B.

pERK-immunopositive OSNs after exposure to L-Arg. The same confocal microcopy data as

in Fig.8B was used. Scale bar: 10 µm.

A

TTX

10⁻⁷M

10⁻⁵M

L-Arg

10⁻⁵M

Odorants

0.1 mV

2 s

B

EOG amplitude (mV)

0.10

0.05

0.00

**

**

TTX (10⁻⁷M)   TTX (10⁻⁵M)   L-Arg (10⁻⁵M)

A -360~-240s

B -240~-120s

C -120~0s

D 0~120s   +Vehicle

E 120~240s

F 240~360s

G

X position (mm)

-360

Time (s)

+Vehicle

H

Swimming Velocity (mm/s)

+Vehicle