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

as an olfactory chemoattractant for the grass puffer

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Abstract

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 acts as an

attractive pheromone for some toxic puffers. To elucidate the physiological mechanism of

putative pheromonal action of TTX, we examined whether grass puffers *Takifugu alboplumbeus*

can detect TTX. Electroolfactogram (EOG) results suggest that the olfactory epithelium (OE) of

grass puffers responded 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 by

immunohistochemistry against neural activity marker (phosphorylated extracellular signal

regulated kinase; pERK) revealed that labeled olfactory sensory neurons were localized in the

region surrounding "islets" where there was considered as nonsensory epithelium. 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 toxic puffers may positively use this

unknown function TTX analog as an olfactory chemoattractant.

Introduction

Toxic puffers accumulate the potent neurotoxin, tetrodotoxin (TTX), which is a well-known voltage-gated sodium channel blocker [1]. 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 [2].

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 certain aquatic bacteria [1,3]. TTX and its analogs were detected in 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 food organisms [2]. Additionally, juveniles of the cultivated tiger puffer *Takifugu. rubripes* became nontoxic in aquaria or cages that were suspended above the seafloor with a TTX-free diet [4,5]. 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 [6], and electrical stimulation induced TTX secretion from the body surface of these puffers [7]. TTX induces repulsive or avoidance reactions in predatory fish [8]; predators that ingested *Takifugu* larvae spat them out promptly [9,10]. 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 crude TTX that was extracted from other

pufferfish [11]. Artificially raised nontoxic tiger puffer juveniles were also attracted to crude

extract of TTX [12–14]. 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

tiger puffer juveniles disappeared after nose ablation [12].

In this study, we found that a nontoxic TTX analog, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (**Fig. 1**), that

has also been known to accumulate in toxic puffers, 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.

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-

Arginine (L-Arg)) was a slow monophasic potential with a steep rising phase followed by an

exponential decay toward the baseline (**Fig.2a**, bottom trace). However, TTX (10^{-7} and 10^{-5} M)

did not induce significant changes in the EOG (**Fig. 2a** upper and middle traces, respectively).

The EOG amplitude of 10^{-7} M TTX (0.027 ± 0.007 mV, n = 4; **Fig. 2b**○) and 10^{-5} M TTX (0.026

± 0.007 mV, n = 7; **Fig. 2b**●) were significantly lower than that of 10^{-5} M L-Arg (0.074 ± 0.008

mV, n = 11; **Fig. 2b**■).

EOG response to TTX analogs

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. 3a**, second trace) when the same concentration of L-Arg showed clear EOG responses

(**Fig. 3a**, bottom trace). However, the same concentration of another TTX analog, 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX, induced a clear increase in EOG response (**Fig. 3a**, third trace). Vehicle control

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

EOG traces (**Fig. 3a**, 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.3b**), and EOG amplitude of

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX showed dose-dependent relationship (**Fig. 3c and d**). These results suggest

that the OE of the grass puffers can detect 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX.

Behavioral experiments

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 ASW ($50 \times 20 \times 20$ 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. Administration of

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX caused the fish to approach and frequently stop on the administered side

(**Movie S1**). Such change in the swimming pattern was reflected in the time vs. x-position

velocity plot of the fish (**Fig. 4a**). Similar changes in swimming patterns were observed with

food extract administration (Supplementary **Fig. S1**), but not with vehicle administration (**Fig.**

4d).

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

(**Fig. 4b and e**). The fish at first tended to move away from the administered side because of

the vibration of water surface caused by odorant administrations. The fish subsequently preferred

to stay on the administered side when 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX was administered, but tended to avoid

the administered side when Vehicle was administered. 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. 4b and e**), 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. 4c and f**). Non TTX-bearing fish (medaka) did not prefer to stay on the

administered side of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (Supplementary **Fig. S2**). These results suggest that

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

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

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

of the OE 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" of sensory epithelium (**se** in **Fig. 5a)** were bordered by oval cells and exposed

on the surface (arrowheads in **Fig. 5a**). The cross-sectional structure of the olfactory lamellae

showed that oval cells (arrowheads in **Fig. 5b**) surrounded small islets where there were some

cilia on the surface (arrow in **Fig. 5b**).

We performed immunohistochemistry of excised OE from grass puffers with the neural

activity marker (phosphorylated extracellular signal regulated kinase; pERK) antibody as an

activity indicator. Administration of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (10^{-6}M for 1min) labeled oval cells

clustering on the surface of the OE (**Fig. 5c**), whereas L-Arg administration (10^{-6}M for 1min)

labeled elongated cells with strongly labeled cilia whose somata were in the middle layer of the

OEs (close to the basal membrane; **Fig. 5d**). Administration of 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX also induced

an activity-dependent uptake of Alexa Fluor 555 -conjugated dextran (10 kDa) to oval cells in

the surrounding region of the islets (Supplementary **Fig. S3**). Vehicle administration did not

label any type of OSNs (**Fig. 5e**).

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, nontoxic TTX analog for chemical

communications.

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

spawning period [11]. TTX also attracted juvenile tiger puffers regardless of sex [12–14], and this

attraction effect was blocked by nose ablation [12]. However, TTX did not induce any EOG

responses in our study. Previous studies used crude TTX that was extracted from the wild-caught

tiger puffer ovary or liver [12]. Original TTX extraction study 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 [15]. 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 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

(Figure 3a). Furthermore, 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX induced EOG responses even at 10^{-8}M (Figure 3

c and d). Because the stimulation threshold of amino acids on the fish olfactory system is 10^{-9}M

to 10^{-7}M [16], 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX is a potent, powerful odorant for grass puffers.

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX attracts grass puffers. 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. We

estimated from our preliminary dye diffusion test that the grass puffers could recognize 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX ranging 2×10^{-8} to 1×10^{-5} M within 2 minutes after administration (see Materials

and Methods). 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 [11].

Both male and female juvenile tiger puffers also could recognize 3.7×10^{-9} [14] and 2.6×10^{-8} M [12]

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 [17]. 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 [18]. 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 [19]. 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 activates oval OSNs that were distributed in the border area around

the ciliary "islets" on the olfactory lamella of grass puffers. 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 [20]. However, our immunohistochemistry with pERK antibody, a

neuronal activity marker, 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 were also labeled with

simultaneous administration of fluorescent dextran with 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 [21]. 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 [22]. Cells that were labeled 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. Our recent study using the

green spotted puffers suggested that cells that were immunopositive for S-100, a marker protein

of crypt-type OSNs, were also labeled by another neuronal activity marker, phosphorylated

ribosomal protein S6, antibody that is formed after 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX administration[23]. This

result further supports that the 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX sensitive OSNs are crypt-type olfactory

sensory neurons.

Based on 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 [24]. 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) [25]. These studies suggest that 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX does not act as a toxin and that

it does not act as a defense substance against predators. Intramuscular injection study reported

that the transformation from TTX to its deoxy analogs or oxidized analogs does not occur in the

body of grass puffers [26]. 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 [27,28]. 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" [29] 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" [30]. 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 [29]. TTX is secreted from the secretory

glands on the skin of *T. pardalis, T. poecilonotus, T. vermicularis*, and grass puffers [7] and is

released from ovulated oocytes in the grass puffers [11]. Because 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX is

particularly abundant in pufferfish ovaries [31], 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 [32,33]. 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 [34]. 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

[35].

Wild toxic puffers tend to feed on benthic organisms, such as flatworms, starfish, small

gastropods, and skeleton shrimp that are known to possess TTX [3]. A recent study reported that a

TTX-bearing planocerid flatworm was found in the gut content of grass puffers [36] and *Chelondon*

patoca [37]. Furthermore, some carnivorous gastropods have 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX in addition to

TTX (*Charonia lampas lampas*[38]; *Nassarius spp.* [39]), 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 [40]. Additionally, grass

puffers ingested toxic eggs of another pufferfish, *T. pardalis,* which contained 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX [41]. All these studies support that the pufferfish seems to be attracted by 5,6,11-

trideoxyTTX and that it ingests 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 unknown function 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.

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 breeding tanks (10–25°C, approximately 50 fish per tank) filled with

ASW (Instant Oceans Sea Salt; Instant Ocean, Blacksburg, VA, USA) under a 12-h light/12-h

dark photoperiod. In this study, we used randomly selected fish from the breeding tank in the

experiment. Thus, both males and females were used without distinction. Animal Use and Care

Protocols were approved by the Center for Animal Research and Education of the Nagoya

University (Approved number: A210871-004). All animals were maintained and used in

accordance with ARRIVE guidelines and the Tokai National Higher Education and Research

System Regulations on Animal Care and Use in Research (Regulation No.74). No statistical

methods were used to predetermine the sample size because many of the outcomes were

unknown.

Odorant chemicals

TTX (for biochemistry, citrate buffered, 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 chemically synthesized and purified by HPLC on

ion-exchange column (Hitachi gel 3013C). These synthesized analogs do not contain other

derivatives and reagents before use, judging by their ^{1}H and ^{13}C-NMR spectra. These

purification procedures and the spectra were described in the papers and the supporting

information cited in reference [42] and [43], 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-Arg (FUJIFILM Wako) was

prepared as a 10^{-2} M stock in artificial cerebro-spinal 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) that was modified

from the Ringer's solution for marine fish [44]. For testing, test odorant solutions were prepared

fresh as required by diluting aliquots of concentrated stock in ACSF or in ASW. L-Arg 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). The food extract solution was

prepared by obtaining the supernatant of ground commercial diet (0.5 g) suspended in artificial

seawater (50 mL).

Electroolfactogram recordings

EOG recordings were performed on secured grass puffers on a holding apparatus that was placed

into a plastic experimental trough. The tricaine methanesulfonate (MS–222; 0.02%) 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. 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. 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).

In this study, recordings were not made in full DC mode to minimize the slow drift of the

baseline caused by the changing contact area between the odorant solutions constantly dripped

into the nose and the artificial seawater being perfused the gill for respiration. The amplified

EOG signal was digitized (10 kHz) and stored on a laptop computer using a USB-6251 data

acquisition device (National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) and WinEDR software (ver. 3.2.7;

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

<u>Behavioral experiments</u>

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 × 20 × 20 cm) that was

filled with 5 L of fresh ASW. 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 using image acquisition

software (Micro-Manager ver. 1.4.22; https://micro-manager.org)[45] 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. We randomly altered the administered side of odor solutions. Then, image

acquisitions were continued for up to 6 min. We excluded the data that fish stopped swimming

longer than 5 seconds before the odorant administrations (20% of the experiments). A

preliminary test indicated that diffusion indicator dye reached half of the experimental aquarium

where a grass puffer was swimming within 2 min after administration and had spread throughout

the aquarium at the end of the observation period. 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 (Release-15; http://ymnk13.github.io/UMATracker/)[46].

<u>Activity-dependent labeling of OSNs</u>

To study the ligand specificity of OSNs, we excised the olfactory lamellae from

anesthetized fish. The excised olfactory lamella was washed three times for 5 min in ACSF and

stimulated with odorant solutions (vehicle, L-Arg, 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, 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. 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 OE[47], 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.

We also used odor-induced uptake of fluorescent dye-conjugated dextran [48]. 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 ASW 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-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 ASW 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).

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 (ver. 2.26.3;

http://www.sci.utah.edu/software/fluorender.html) for three-dimensional (3D) reconstruction and

visualization of dextran-labeled cells[49]. Pre-processing of images before 3D reconstruction

(median filtering [radius: 1 pixel] and trimming) was performed by Fiji (https://fiji.sc/)[50].

<u>Data analysis</u>

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

performed using Kyplot (ver. 5; KyensLab Inc., Tokyo, Japan) and Igor Pro (ver. 9.00;

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).

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

Author contributions

Y.N. and H.A. conceived the study, designed experiments, and wrote the manuscript. R.S.,

R.N., M.A., and T.N. synthesized and purified TTX analogs. Y.N. performed

electrophysiology, behavioral experiments, and activity labeling of olfactory sensory

neurons by fluorescent dextran. T.S. and K.M. performed immunohistochemistry of

olfactory sensory neurons.

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Molecular structures of tetrodotoxin and its analogs used in this study

Figure 2: 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 compared with L-Arg (TTX 10^{-7}M, $P = 0.009$; TTX 10^{-5}M, $P = 0.011$: *

p<0.05, ** p<0.01.

Figure 3: 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

compared with Vehicle (5,6,11-trideoxyTTX, $P = 0.012$; L-Arg, $P = 0.012$): * $p < 0.05$.

c: 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.

d: 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: 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX attracts grass puffers.

Tracked location of a grass puffer before and after 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX administration (5 mL

of 10^{-5} M dissolved in 2.5×10^{-4} N acetic acid solution, Glid: 100 mm) and positions of the

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

applied at time 0 and remained in the aquarium thereafter (**a**). Changes in the time (1-min

period) spent by grass puffers (**b**) or changes in the swimming speed (mm/s; **c**) in response to

5,6,11-trideoxyTTX administered on one side of the experimental aquarium (n=7). One

sample t-test for significant deviation from the mean time spent before 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX

administration (20.7 s; 1~2 min, P = 0.002). *p < 0.05.

Tracked location of a grass puffer before and after vehicle administration (5 mL of 2.5

$\times 10^{-4}$ N acetic acid solution, Glid: 100 mm) and positions of the fish are plotted along the

horizontal axis of the aquarium every 1 s. Vehicle was applied at time 0 and remained in the

aquarium thereafter (**d**). No changes in the time (1-min period) spent by grass puffers (**e**) or

swimming speed (mm/s; **f**) in response to vehicle administered on one side of the

experimental aquarium (n=6). One sample t-test for significant deviation from the mean time

spent before Vehicle administration (27.2 s; 2~3 min, P = 0.021; 3~4 min, P = 0.034; 4~5

min, P = 0.024; 5~6 min, P = 0.002). *p < 0.05.

The vertical dotted line in **b** and **e** represents the chance level (= No odorant

preference). Open or colored dots and boxes in the plot represent the data before and after

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

the median, quartiles (boxes), and 10%–90% range (whiskers). The results of the statistical

analysis between the odorant administrations are shown in the text.

Figure 5: Activity-dependent labeling by pERK antibody labeled oval-shaped cells

on the surface of the olfactory epithelium.

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). Arrow represents sensory cilia on the

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

pERK-immunopositive OSNs after exposure to 5,6,11-trideoxyTTX (**c**) or L-Arg (**d**). No

labeled cells were observed with the Vehicle control (**e**). Scale bar: 5 μm. Six fish examined

for each stimulus showed similar results.

tetrodotoxin (TTX)　　　4,9-anhydroTTX　　　5,6,11-trideoxyTTX