**Ventral-to-dorsal electrocyte development in electric organs of**

**electric eel (*Electrophorus*)**

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**Abstract**

Electric eels (*Electrophorus*) are renowned for their ability to generate electric discharge, which is used for prey capture and defense. Their electric organs (EOs) are located along the lateral–ventral region of the tail and contain electrocytes, which are multinucleated syncytium cells. The developmental origin of the electrocyte is mesodermal lineage cells observed in the ventral part of the myotome. However, it is unclear whether these precursor cells are also maintained in later stages and contribute to electric organ growth in adulthood. In this study, we report regional differences in cell morphology within the main EO (mEO) and identify a candidate cell population for electrocyte progenitors at the juvenile stages of Electrophorus. The cell morphology and distribution from the ventral terminal to the dorsal region of the mEO suggest the segregation of progenitors from the ventral cluster and their gradual transformation into mature multinucleated electrocytes via cell fusion and layering along the dorsal axis. Immunohistochemistry revealed strong expression of sodium-potassium adenosine triphosphatase ($Na^+/K^+$-ATPase), a key component in generating electric discharge in the mEO, across most mEO regions, except in the ventral cluster cells. Based on these observations, we propose that electrocyte progenitors develop from ventral cluster cells in the mEO and differentiate into mature multinucleated cells as they migrate dorsally. This is the first report to approach the developmental process of *Electrophorus* electrocytes from cell morphology and genetic profiles. Our findings represent a breakthrough in understanding the differentiation of electrocytes during the growth stages of *Electrophorus*.

**Introduction**

Electric fish include multiple classified species, such as electric rays, catfish, and eels. As Charles Darwin described in his work *On the Origin of Species* (Chapter 6: Difficulties on Theory), "The electric organs of fishes offer another case of special difficulty; for it is impossible to conceive by what steps these wondrous organs have been produced" (Darwin, 1859). Darwin's question of how these electric species appeared independently in each taxon is difficult and remains elusive. Here, we address this question from the perspective of cell and molecular biology using electric eels (*Electrophorus*).

The electric eel, an electric fish, was originally described by Carl Linnaeus in 1766 as *Gymnotus electricus* and was later revised as *Electrophorus electricus* by Theodore Gill in 1864 (Jordan, 1963). Recently, they have been reclassified into three distinct species, *E. electricus*, *Electrophorus varii*, and *Electrophorus voltai*, based on both morphological and genetic sequence data (de Santana et al., 2019). Electric eels are known for their ability to generate electric discharges, with a maximum capacity of 860 V for *E. voltai* (de Santana et al., 2019). They possess three types of electric organs (EOs): the main electric organ (mEO), Hunter's organ, and Sachs' organ, which are located in the lateral-ventral region of the tail (Williamson, 1775; Hunter, 1775; Sachs, 1877). The first electric organ, called the larval organ, appears in the ventral trunk region as early as the juvenile stage (total length [TL] 15 mm) (Schwassmann et al., 2014). Most larval organs grow into the mEO, but the caudal region is transformed into the Sachs' organ. The Hunter's organ has a different origin, the anal fin organ. The differentiation of the three organs is completed at approximately a TL of 23 cm (Moller, 1995). The mEO is predicted to play a role in high-voltage discharge for prey capture or defense, whereas the other organs are considered to play a role in low-voltage discharge for sensing and communication (Xu et al., 2021). The cells responsible for electric discharge in an EO are

multinucleated syncytia called electrocytes (Luft, 1957). Early studies suggested that

electrocytes are derived from muscle lineage precursors (Fritsch, 1883). Recent histological

observations in juvenile *Electrophorus* suggest that the larval organ consists of electrocytes

budded from a specified cell cluster named the electromatrix, located in the ventral region of the

myotome (Schwassmann et al., 2014). More detailed observations and multifaceted analyses of

*Electrophorus* embryos are required to determine the distinct origin and developmental

mechanisms of the first electrocytes. However, artificial breeding methods have not yet been

established; therefore, obtaining embryos in the laboratory is challenging. As an alternative

model, the weakly electric fish, *Brachyhypopomus gauderio*, a species related to *Electrophorus*

belonging to the same order (Gymnotiformes), was used to observe developmental stages,

including EOs, under laboratory conditions (Alshami et al., 2020). In this species, cell clusters

consisting of $Pax7^+/Myosin^-$ cells in the ventral region of the myotome were reported as the EO

primordium. Based on these studies, the developmental origin of electrocytes in electric species

of Gymnotiformes is considered to be the ventral cell cluster derived from somite lineage cells

rather than from differentiated myocytes. In these studies, electrocyte lineage cells were

classified into two populations: mature electrocytes and immature cells located in the ventral

cluster. However, either or both populations may be classified into further substages. In this

case, their clarification is expected to lead to a more detailed description of the differentiation

process of electrocyte lineage cells. Moreover, researchers have focused on the developmental

origin of electrocytes; however, the source of these cells during growth remains elusive.

From another perspective, advances in molecular biology methods have enabled the

comparison of gene expression between EOs and other tissues, including skeletal muscle. In

EOs, some muscle characteristic genes were downregulated, whereas other genes not

expressed in the muscle were upregulated (Gallant et al., 2014; Gallant, 2019). Specifically,

genes for ion transporters or channels, such as *atp1a*, *chrna*, *scn4aa*, and *kcnj12*, are

upregulated not only in electric eels, but also in other electric fish species (Thompson et al.,

2018; LaPotin et al., 2022). Some functional mutations are found in the genes encoding the ion

transporters of *Electrophorus* compared to non-electric species. Substitutions in the amino acid

sequences of these proteins have been predicted to contribute to high-voltage discharge in

electrocytes (Traeger et al., 2017), and this modification is considered crucial for high-voltage

electric discharge in *Electrophorus* spp. The molecular genetic characteristics of mature

electrocytes are well known; however, how these expressed genes affect the differentiation of

electrocytes remains unknown. Here, we report the progenitors of electrocytes based on

histological observations and immunohistochemistry. Understanding the spatiotemporal

distribution of ion transporter proteins in the EO is essential for understanding electrocyte

differentiation.

**Results**

*Morphological observations of electrocytes*

In *Electrophoru*, the tail region contains the mEO, which is the largest of the three organs responsible for electric discharge. In this study, especially in the histological analysis, the specimens were regarded as too young to observe well-developed Hunter's and Sach's organs; thus, they were excluded from the analysis. The mEO is located ventral to the skeletal muscle and consists of multinucleated syncytia called electrocytes (Figure 1A, 1B). The electrocytes were layered along the dorsal–ventral and anterior–posterior axes (Figure 1B). The series of cells along the anterior–posterior axis increases the membrane potential and generates a high-voltage discharge. Cell morphology along the dorsal–ventral axis is critical for understanding how electrocytes develop in the body; thus, we examined the histological morphology of electrocytes using Masson's trichrome (MT) staining (Figure 1C, Figure S1). In the dorsal region of the mEO, we observed the typical structure of mature multinucleated electrocytes placed in a non-cellular compartment with an extracellular space around the cell body, which is important for generating a membrane potential for discharge. In the ventral region, such distinct extracellular spaces were not observed, and square cell bodies without protrusions filled the compartment (Figure 1D, Figure S1, S2). This morphological difference was also confirmed by the observation of toluidine blue-stained ultrathin sections and electron microscopy. Electron microscopy indicated that ventral electrocyte nuclei exhibited various shapes compared with those in the dorsal region. The presence and morphology of the mitochondria and caveolae showed no distinct differences between cells in the dorsal and ventral regions (Figure 1E). Through these experiments, we observed regional differences in electrocyte morphologies along the dorso-ventral axis.

*Ventral terminal cell cluster in EO*

The cell morphology of the mEO differed between the dorsal and ventral regions. Thus, a

detailed examination of the cell morphology from the ventral to the dorsal terminus of the mEO

was performed using HE and MT staining (Figure 2A, Figure S3, S4). A characteristic cell

cluster consisting of high-density nuclei was identified at the ventral terminus of the mEO. This

cluster was separated from the adjacent muscle layer by collagen fibers. In contrast, a structural

border was not observed between the cluster and the dorsal region of the mEO (Figure 2B).

The anti-myosin signal, which labels myogenic cells, was not detected in ventral cluster cells

(Figure 2C, Figure S5). This indicates that the cluster belongs to the mEO, but does not

possess the muscle lineage character. We then categorized the mEO into four populations

based on cell and tissue morphology along the dorsoventral axis (Figure 2D, Figure S6). The

terminal cluster consisted of high-density mononuclear cells located in the ventral terminus of

the mEO, and the subterminal cell clusters were located in the dorsal position of the terminal

cluster. The thin layers consisting of high-density nuclei appeared near the dorsal region. The

thickness of the layers increased in the dorsal region, forming huge syncytial electrocytes

(Figure 2E, Figure S7). Thus, the morphology of the cells in the mEO changed drastically along

the dorsal–ventral axis. Fluorescent phalloidin labeling indicated that actin filaments were

distributed in the ventral clusters and layers of the mEO (Figure 2F). Mono- or binuclear cells

were observed at the edge of the layers in the ventral region. Immunohistochemistry for PCNA

indicated that some of these cells, including binuclear cells, were undergoing the proliferation

phase (Figure 2G).

Electron microscopy revealed the fine structures of the ventral region of the mEO (Figure 3A).

The terminal cluster consisted of high-density mononuclear cells with scant cytoplasm (Figure

3B). Syncytial multinuclear cells with abundant cytoplasm were observed in the subterminal

clusters (Figure 3A). Monocellular cells, similar to those in the terminal cluster, were also

observed around the syncytium (Figure 3C). Intracellular components such as multiple nuclei,

mitochondria, and actin filaments were observed in the syncytium (Figure 3D). Actin filaments

were also visualized by phalloidin labeling (Figure 2F). The EO components were separated

from adjacent muscles by collagen fibers (Figure 3E), and the presence of collagen fibers was

also suggested by MT staining (Figure 2B).

*Gene expression in EO*

Tissue fragments from the mEO and skeletal muscles were excised via macroscopic surgery,

and total RNA was extracted from each tissue. The RNA samples were subjected to next-

generation sequencing (NGS), and the resulting sequence reads were processed to determine

gene expression values and visualize differences in gene expression between tissues (Figure

4A and B, Table S1, S2). Our analysis revealed higher expression of genes in the mEO,

including trophoblast glycoprotein like (*tpbgl*), N-myc downstream-regulated gene-4 (*ndrg4*),

and others (Figure 4C and Table S3). From this dataset, specific protein groups with

presumable functions—such as membrane transporters, scaffold proteins, and transcription

factors—were selected, and their transcripts per million (TPM) values were compared between

muscle and mEO (Figure 4D). This study focused on membrane molecules responsible for

generating membrane potential through ion transport, such as acetylcholine receptors and

sodium/potassium transporters, which exhibit higher expression levels in the mEO than in

skeletal muscle. Notably, genes encoding sodium potassium adenosine triphosphatase ($Na^+$/$K^+$-

ATPase, NKA) subunits (*atp1a2a* and *atp1b2b*) were highly expressed in the mEO, based on

RNA sequencing. Cation transporters are believed to be localized in the anterior part of

electrocytes (Figure 4E). In the tail region of *Electrophorus*, the electrocytes aligned along the

anterior–posterior axis of the trunk, which is responsible for generating a high-voltage current

due to synchronous activation regulated by motor neurons (Figure 4F).

*NKA distribution in EO*

To evaluate electrocyte function, the presence and distribution of NKA protein in the mEO were

detected using immunohistochemistry. The anti-NKA supernatant exhibited specific signals in

the mEO and other organs, including the skeletal muscle and central nervous system, in

*Electrophorus* (Figure 5A, Figure S8, S9). In the electrocytes, the plasma membrane of the

mEO was labeled with the supernatant. The sagittal section indicated the accumulation of NKA

protein in the anterior part of the plasma membrane (Figure 5B, Figure S8–S11). Additionally,

the signals were lower in the ventral region of the mEO and absent in the ventral terminal

cluster, even after longer chromogenic reactions (Figure 5C, Figure S12, S13). The NKA signals

were not detected in the terminal cluster, even under conditions of prolonged incubation for DAB

staining (Figure 5D). The border of NKA expression was observed in the thin layer, but the

signals did not exhibit membrane localization, unlike in the thick layer, which includes the ventral

EO (Figure 5E). Membrane localization of NKA signals was also observed in mono- or binuclear

proliferating cells at the edge of the EO layers (Figure 5F). These data indicate that NKA is

absent in the terminal cluster cells of the mEO but is upregulated and membrane-localized in

the dorsal population cells, including mature electrocytes.

**Discussion**

We analyzed the generation of electrocytes in *Electrophorus* using histology and immunohistochemistry. Our analysis suggested that ventral cluster cells are promising electrocyte progenitor candidates in the mEO at the juvenile stages. We propose that these progenitor cells differentiate into electrocytes and migrate from the ventral to the dorsal region. A previous study indicated that the first electrocyte at the embryonic stages is generated from the electromatrix located in the ventral region of the myotome (Schwassmann et al., 2014). However, nobody has demonstrated how the electric organ grows in the later stages; whether the electromatrix remains, or whether another source of electrocytes appears and functions. Our observation might provide an answer to these questions. In the juvenile stages, clusters of mononuclear cells were observed in the ventral terminal of the mEO, which is histologically similar to the electromatrix. To understand how electrocytes differentiate and how EOs grow, investigating the morphological and genetic characteristics of the ventral cluster cells is important.

Early studies alleged that EOs in electric fish were derived from muscle fibers or muscle lineage cells based on morphological observations. Histological observations of electric rays and larval mormyrid fish suggest that their electrocytes differentiate from mature muscle fibers (Fox and Richardson, 1978; Srivastava and Szabo, 1972). In *Electrophorus*, electrocytes were considered to differentiate from muscle based on light microscopy observations (Fritsch, 1883; Szabo, 1966). These studies concluded that the presumed electrocyte progenitors exhibited striated muscle-like structures. In our study, such muscular structures were not found in the ventral region of the mEO, and the ventral muscle layer was separated from the mEO by collagen fibers. Furthermore, the mEO lacked myosin-positive cells, which are characteristic of muscle tissue. Therefore, our results do not support the hypothesis that the electrocytes of

*Electrophorus* are derived from muscle lineage cells. Other groups have claimed that

electrocytes do not originate from differentiated muscle lineage cells but are directly developed

from mesodermal cells before cell fate commitment (Keynes 1961). We do not have a definitive

answer as to whether the terminal cluster cells are derived from the mesodermal lineage.

Electron microscopy indicated that the terminal cluster is separated from the lateral muscle

layer by collagen fibers but faces the medial mesenchymal tissue. To determine the origin of the

electrocytes, further analyses investigating their cell lineage or gene expression profiles are

required.

We identified a ventral terminal cell cluster in the mEO and observed continuous changes in

cell morphology. Based on the clear histological images, we propose that the electrocytes

originate as mononuclear progenitor cells in the ventral terminal cluster of the mEO and

differentiate into multinucleated syncytia with dorsal migration. Our analysis indicated three

findings: (1) morphological differences in electrocytes and their progenitors along the

dorsoventral axis, (2) NKA expression and cellular distribution during the electrocyte

development, and (3) timing of the syncytium formation (Figure 6). Although this study was

limited by breeding methodology challenges in obtaining embryos under laboratory conditions

and did not focus on embryonic stages, our findings on the source and differentiation of

electrocytes during growth are crucial for understanding the molecular mechanisms underlying

EO formation in *Electrophorus*.

We focused on NKA as a functional molecule involved in generating membrane potential in

electrocytes. We observed that the TPM values for the NKA subunits in the mEO were over

100-fold higher than those in the skeletal muscle. A previous study identified novel

phosphorylation sites in the NKA protein of electric eels that were predicted to contribute to the

high-voltage discharge of EOs (Traeger et al., 2017). NKA is ubiquitously distributed in animal

tissues and plays an important role in generating membrane potential for cellular functions

beyond those of electrocytes (Suhail, 2010). NKA is a popular sodium pump distributed not only

in EOs but also in various types of cells; thus, anti-NKA signals were detected not only in the

mEO but also in the skeletal muscle, kidney, brain, and other organs of *Electrophorus*. Notably,

the ventral region of the mEO lacked anti-NKA signals, suggesting that ventral cluster cells are

immature and unable to generate membrane potentials via the NKA ion pump. Cells in the

ventral terminal cluster exhibit characteristic morphologies, such as small size, minimal

cytoplasm, and round shape, which are typical characteristics of quiescent stem cells, including

hematopoietic stem cells and muscle satellite cells (de Morree & Rando, 2023; Pinho &

Frenette, 2019; Siegel et al., 2011). Therefore, we propose that the ventral terminal cluster

includes stem cells that differentiate into electrocytes. Furthermore, single-cell RNA sequencing

or cell characteristic evaluation using stem cell markers contributes to a deeper understanding

of the maintenance of terminal cluster cells and their differentiation into electrocytes.

Methodological investigations using *Electrophorus* should be improved in future research.

Our finding that multinucleated cells in the dorsal region of the mEO more closely resemble the

typical morphology of functional electrocytes than those in the ventral region supports the

conventional theory that the ventral region includes electrocyte progenitors (Gotter et al., 1998).

We propose that the EO develops from progenitor cells in the ventral region and then

progresses to maturity with dorsal migration. This 'Ventral-to-Dorsal' model does not conflict

with previous reports (Szabo, 1966; Schwassmann et al., 2014). Our study enhances the

understanding of the developmental process of EOs in *Electrophorus*. Further analyses using

cutting-edge technologies, including NGS, are required to understand the molecular

mechanisms by which EOs are generated in *Electrophorus*. A recent study proposed that

changes in sodium channel expression are important for the evolutionary acquisition of EOs in

weakly electric species (LaPotin et al., 2022). Darwin's question arose from the independent

acquisition of EOs in several fish lineages. The present study provides detailed information on

the origin and developmental process of EOs in the electric eel *Electrophorus*. Future

application of such molecular methods to other electric fish may ultimately lead to an answer to

Darwin's question.

**Methods**

*Animal experiments*

This study was approved by the Ethics Review Board for Animal Experiments at Nagoya

University (approval number: A240105-002). All experiments involving live animals were

conducted in strict accordance with institutional guidelines to ensure humane treatment. Electric

eels used in this study were purchased from Meito Suien Co., Ltd. (Nagakute, Japan). The

specimens used for histology were too young (TL: 10–15 cm) to determine their distinct species

and sex; thus, we treated them as *Electrophorus sp*. (*Electrophorus*) in this study. The specimen

used for sequencing analysis was a female with a developed ovary and was presumed to be *E.*

*electricus* based on genome information.

*Histology and histochemistry*

The electric eels were euthanized using a rapid cooling shock to ensure that they were

unresponsive to gill movements and external stimuli (Wilson et al., 2009). Tail region cross-

sections (5 mm thick) were dissected and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde solution for 24 h at

room temperature for histological observations. Fixed samples were then dehydrated in a

graded ethanol series, cleared in xylene, embedded in paraplast, and sectioned at 4 µm

thickness using a Leica microtome (Leica, Germany) (Kongthong et al., 2023; Presnell and

Schreibman, 2013; Suvarna et al., 2013). Three consecutive sections were stained with Harris'

hematoxylin and eosin (HE) to observe body organization and tissue structure. MT staining was

used to assess muscular structure and collagen fibers. Tissue samples were examined,

photographed using an Olympus BX53 microscope, and imaged using a DP25 digital camera

(Olympus, Shinjuku, Japan) or a BZ-X800 microscope (Keyence, Osaka, Japan).

*Electron microscopy*

The tail region of *Electrophorus* was sliced into 5 mm transverse sections and fixed in 2.5%

glutaraldehyde, followed by washing with PBS. The fixed specimens were treated with 1%

osmium tetroxide in PBS for 60 min and dehydrated in a graded ethanol series (50%, 70%,

80%, 90%, 95%, 99.5%, and 100%). Samples were treated with propylene oxide (KISHIDA

CHEMICAL, Osaka, Japan) and embedded in epoxy resin (Nissin EM Quetol-812). The blocks

were polymerized at 60°C for 48 h. Sections of 1 μm thickness were stained with toluidine blue

and observed using a Nikon ECLIPSE LV100ND with a DP74 digital camera (Olympus) to

determine the region of interest. Sections of 100 nm thickness were cut using a Leica

ultramicrotome and stained with UranyLess (Micro to Nano) and 3% lead citrate (Micro to

Nano). Backscattered electron images were obtained using an SU9000 field-emission scanning

electron microscope (Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan) at 1 kV.

*Phalloidin staining*

Phalloidin staining was performed on frozen sections by using Alexa Fluor 546-conjugated

phalloidin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Specifically, fixed samples were subjected to

decalcification treatment in 10% EDTA (pH 7) for three consecutive nights. Following

decalcification, the samples were cryoprotected by immersing them in 30% sucrose solution

and subsequently embedded in the Optimal Cutting Temperature (OCT) compound (Sakura

Finetek Japan, Japan). Frozen sections were cut into 10 μm-thick slices using a cryostat. The

sections were stained with a 40-fold diluted Alexa Fluor 546-conjugated phalloidin solution at

room temperature for 60 min. After staining, the sections were thoroughly washed with PBS and

mounted using VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting Medium with DAPI (Vector Laboratories,

USA), which simultaneously enabled nuclear staining. Microscopic observations were

performed under an Axioscope 5 microscope (Zeiss, Germany), and images were captured with

an Axiocam 503 color camera (Zeiss).

*RNA sequencing*

Total RNA was extracted from the mEO and skeletal muscle of an adult female electric eel

using an RNeasy Plus Mini kit (QIAGEN). NGS was performed by Macrogen Japan Corp.

(Tokyo, Japan) using a NovaSeq6000 platform (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA).

Approximately 40 million 100 bp paired-end reads were obtained for each sample. NGS data

were deposited in the DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ; ID: PRJDB17973).

*Transcriptomic analysis*

The calculation of differentially expressed genes was performed using the National Institute of

Genetics' supercomputer at the Research Organization of Information and Systems. The

adaptor and noise sequences were removed using the fastp program version 0.23.2

(https://github.com/OpenGene/fastp) (Chen et al., 2018). The cleaned reads were mapped to

the genome of *E. electricus* (GCA_003665695.2,

https://asia.ensembl.org/*Electrophorus*_electricus/Info/Index/) using the HISAT2 program

version 2.2.1 (https://daehwankimlab.github.io/hisat2/) (Kim et al., 2019). The number of

mapped reads was calculated using the featureCounts program in the subread package version

2.0.6 (https://subread.sourceforge.net/) (Liao et al., 2013, 2014). Further calculations were

performed using the R software on a personal computer. Differentially expressed genes were

identified using the edgeR package version 3.42.4

(https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/edgeR.html) with the following thresholds:

false discovery rate < 0.05, and fold change > 2.00 (Robinson et al., 2010). A volcano plot was

generated using the enhanced volcano package version 1.20.0

(https://github.com/kevinblighe/EnhancedVolcano).

*Immunohistochemistry*

Consecutive sections from the histological protocol were prepared on slides coated with

glycerol-albumin (Mayer's fixative). The slides were deparaffinized in xylene, hydrated in a

graded ethanol series, washed in tap water, and treated with 0.5% Triton X-100/PBS for 30 min

and 0.3% $H_2O_2$ for 10 min to inactivate endogenous peroxidase activity. The sections were

blocked with Blocking One solution for 2 h at room temperature (03953-95, Nacalai Tesque,

Kyoto, Japan). The sections were incubated overnight at 4°C with either anti-myosin heavy

chain (F59-s, DSHB, IA, USA, 1:5 in Blocking-One solution), anti-NKA α1 (a5-s, DSHB, 1:5 in

Blocking-One solution) hybridoma supernatants, or PCNA Polyclonal antibody (10205-2-AP,

proteintech, IL, USA, 1:1000 in Blocking-One solution). This was followed by incubation with

Horse Anti-Mouse IgG Antibody (H+L) Peroxidase (PI-2000, Vector Laboratories, Inc.,

Burlingame, CA, USA, 1:500 dilution in 0.1% Tween-20/PBS) or Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG Antibody

(H+L), Peroxidase (PI-1000, Vector Laboratories, Inc., Burlingame, CA, USA, 1:500 dilution in

0.1% Tween-20/PBS) for 2 h at 4°C. Staining was performed by incubation with 3,3'-

diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (SK-4105, Vector Laboratories, Inc.) for 5 min at room

temperature. Finally, the slides were dehydrated and mounted using Permount (SP15-100,

Thermo Fisher Scientific). A control section without primary antibody was prepared to ensure

the specificity of staining. NKA localization was examined and photographed using the same

method used for histological observations.

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**Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interest.

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**Figures**

**Figure 1. Morphological differences of multinucleated electrocytes**

**A**. Illustration of the whole body of *Electrophorus*. The double-headed arrow corresponds to the

tail region of the body. The asterisk indicates the anus. **B**. A photograph and illustration of the

transverse section of the tail region of *Electrophorus*. The medial–lateral lines in the mEO

indicate the outer edge of the multinucleated electrocytes. The plate-shaped electrocytes are

stacked along the anterior–posterior and dorsal–ventral axes. SM, skeletal muscle. mEO, main

electric organ. Scale bar, 1 cm. **C**. A whole transverse section of the tail region, including the

electric organ. Scale bar, 1 mm. **D**. Cell morphologies of the electrocytes in the dorsal and

ventral regions of the mEO. The blue lines indicate the outer edges of the electric unit. The cell

bodies of electrocytes (colored magenta) are within the unit. Scale bars, 50 μm. **E**. Ultrathin

sections (100 nm) of the electrocytes observed by optical or electron microscopy. The blue lines

indicate the outer edges of the electric unit. The cell bodies of electrocytes (colored magenta)

are within the unit. Black arrows, nucleus. Black arrowheads, plasma membrane. White arrows,

mitochondria. White arrowheads, caveolae. Asterisks, cytoplasm. Scale bars, 50 μm (toluidine

blue), 10 μm (electrocyte), 2 μm (nucleus & mitochondria), 1 μm (caveolae). A, anterior; D,

dorsal; M, medial; L, lateral; P, posterior; V, ventral; hEO, Hunter's electric organ; mEO, main

electric organ; SM, skeletal muscle.

**Figure 2. Morphological differences of cells along the dorsal–ventral axis**

**A**. A whole transverse section of the tail region, including the electric organ. The green dotted line indicates the outer edge of the mEO. The yellow dotted lines indicate the outer edge of the muscular tissues. Scale bar, 1 mm. **B**. The ventral region of the mEO and the enlarged images of the ventral terminal cluster. The green dotted line indicates the outer edge of the mEO. The green arrowheads indicate the collagen fibers stained by Aniline Blue. Scale bars, 200 μm (low magnification), 50 μm (enlarged). **C**. Immunohistochemistry against myosin heavy chain in the dorsal and ventral positions. The muscular tissues show positive signals, but not in the mEO tissues. Scale bars, 100 μm (dorsal), 50 μm (ventral). **D**. A ventral region of mEO colored roughly by tissue structures. Scale bars, 100 μm. **E**. Enlarged images of each tissue structure in the mEO. The blue bracket indicates the terminal ventral cluster. The green brackets indicate

the subterminal clusters. Scale bar, 10 μm. **F**. Fluorescent images of a ventral region of mEO

with DAPI and phalloidin. The green dotted line indicates the ventral edge of the mEO. The

yellow dotted line indicates the ventral muscle layer. The yellow double-headed arrow indicates

the lateral width of the layer of the electrocytes. Scale bar, 50 μm. **G**. Immunohistochemistry

against PCNA at the edge of the electrocyte layers. The blue dotted line indicates the boundary

of the layer. The black arrowheads indicate the PCNA-positive nuclei. The white arrowheads

indicate PCNA-negative nuclei. Scale bar, 10 μm. D, dorsal; M, medial; L, lateral; V, ventral;

mEO, main electric organ; ML, muscle layer; SM, skeletal muscle.

**Figure 3. Fine structure of the ventral terminal region of the electric organ.**

**A**. Electron microscopy image of the ventral terminal cluster. The squares indicate regions of

interest shown in Figures 3B–3E. The right panel presents the same region with rough coloring

to highlight tissue structures. **B**. Two mononuclear cells with scant cytoplasm in the terminal

cluster. The right panel outlines the cell borders. Scale bars, 1 µm. **C**. A mononuclear cell with

scant cytoplasm adjacent to the syncytium in the subterminal region. The right panel highlights

the cell's edge. Scale bars, 1 µm. **D**. Intracellular structure of the multinuclear syncytium in the

subterminal region. Scale bars, 1 µm. **E**. Fibrous structures in the syncytium (left) and the

septum between the mEO and the muscle layer (right). Based on the histological labeling in

Figure 2, the left structure corresponds to actin fibers, while the right corresponds to collagen

540    fibers. Scale bars, 1 µm. D, dorsal; M, medial; L, lateral; V, ventral; Af, actin fiber; Cp,

541    cytoplasm; Cf, collagen fiber; Mt, mitochondria; N, nucleus.

**Figure 4. Gene expression and functions of ion transporters in electric organ**

**A**. Volcano plot showing differentially expressed genes between skeletal muscle and mEO.

Source data are deposited in the DDBJ (ID: PRJDB17973). **B**. Venn diagram illustrating

differentially expressed genes in the mEO and skeletal muscle. **C**. List of differentially

expressed genes sorted by logFC. **D**. Comparison of gene expression values (TPM) for

selected genes differentially expressed in the mEO. **E**. Schematic model illustrating the

generation of membrane potential in an electrocyte, with ion transporters localized anteriorly or

posteriorly on the cell surface, generating approximately 150 mV current due to synaptic input.

552  **F**. Electrocytes arranged along the anterior–posterior axis, enhancing membrane potential

553  leading to high-voltage discharge.

**Figure 5. Presence and distribution of Na+/K+-ATPase in electric organ**

**A**. Immunohistochemistry against NKA in transverse section. Scale bars, 1 mm. **B**. Enlarged

images of anti-NKA immunohistochemistry in dorsal mEO in transverse and sagittal sections.

Green arrowheads indicate anti-NKA signals on the anterior cell surface. Scale bars, 100 µm

(transverse), 50 µm (sagittal). **C**. Ventral half of mEO in anti-NKA immunohistochemistry.

Weaker anti-NKA signals observed in ventral terminal compared to dorsal regions. Scale bar,

100 µm. **D**. Immunohistochemistry against NKA in the ventral region of the mEO with prolonged

incubation for DAB staining. DAB coloring was not detected in the terminal cluster (black

arrowhead). Scale bar, 100 µm. **E**. Enlarged images of immunohistochemistry against NKA in

different tissue structures of the mEO. The blue bracket indicates the terminal ventral cluster,

while the green brackets indicate the subterminal clusters. Black arrowheads mark anti-NKA

signals in the plasma membrane. Scale bar, 10 µm. **F**. Immunohistochemistry against NKA at

the edge of the electrocyte layers. The blue dotted line indicates the boundary of the layer.

Scale bar, 10 µm. A, anterior; D, dorsal; M, medial; L, lateral; P, posterior; V, ventral.

**Migration & Differentiation**

**Figure 6. Model of main electric organ development**

This illustration indicates the development of the main electric organ in the adult electric eel.

Progenitor cells located in the ventral terminus of the main electric organ segregate and migrate

dorsally, forming multinuclear syncytium and layer structure. The NKA ion pump begins to be

expressed after the layer formation. The syncytia increase the dorsoventral thickness,

differentiate into mature electrocytes, and contribute to the generation of high-voltage

discharges via ion transporters, including NKA.