Novel dopaminergic neurotransmission in the *Octopus* visual system

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Summary

Coleoid cephalopods such as the common octopus have a complex visual system, with a camera-type eye and a large optic lobe, that evolved independently from its counterpart in vertebrates. However, the molecular and neurochemical basis of signalling in *Octopus* visual circuits is not well understood. Through heterologous expression of ligand-gated ion channel genes from *Octopus vulgaris,* we have identified and characterised novel ionotropic receptors for two of the major optic lobe neurotransmitters, dopamine and acetylcholine. One of these, DopC1, defines a new class of dopamine-gated cation channels that is broadly conserved in many invertebrates. Dopamine robustly stimulates neural activity in the optic lobe, particularly in layers where DopC1 is expressed, consistent with a role for this channel in excitatory neurotransmission. A second protein, AChRB1, forms acetylcholine-gated anion channels and is implicated in inhibition of dopaminergic amacrine cells in the outer granular layer (OGL). This combination of inhibitory cholinergic input and excitatory dopaminergic output may allow OGL amacrine cells to carry out lateral inhibition; thus, despite their very different functional and neurochemical properties, *Octopus* amacrine cells may execute similar computations to amacrine and horizontal cells in the vertebrate retina.

Introduction

Coleoid cephalopods, such as squid, cuttlefish and octopus, are notable for their large brains and complex behaviour. For example, the nervous system of the common octopus, *Octopus vulgaris*, contains approximately 500 million neurons[1], more than some mammals[2], and supports intricate behaviours such as camouflage, tool use, visually-guided hunting, and sophisticated learning and memory[3]. However, octopuses and humans diverged evolutionarily approximately 600 million years ago, early in the bilaterian lineage, from a common ancestor with a much simpler nervous system[4]. Thus, the complex brains of cephalopods appear to have evolved independently from those of vertebrates. Gaining a better understanding of cephalopod neural circuits will therefore shed light on the general principles that underpin complex behaviour across species, as well as discover new biology and species-specific innovations.

The visual system represents a particularly relevant opportunity to compare cephalopod and vertebrate neural circuitry. Vision is an important sensory modality for cephalopods, driving complex visually guided behaviours including camouflage, hunting, mating and learning[5]. Like vertebrates, cephalopods have a camera-type eye that projects visual scenes onto a retina consisting of a single layer of photoreceptors , which direct their output to the cortex of the optic lobe (OL), comprised of three layers: an outer (OGL) and inner (IGL) granular layer containing neuronal cell bodies separated by a plexiform layer composed only of neuropil, including the end terminals of photoreceptors[6]. The OGL consists exclusively of neurons with amacrine morphology, which extend processes within the plexiform layer. The IGL contains a diverse population of neurons, including another population of amacrine cells that arborize in the plexiform layer, centrifugal cells that send projections through the optic nerves back to the retina, and a variety of centripetal cell types that extend processes across the plexiform layer and into the medulla[5]. The cortical layers of the OL, like the bipolar and granular cell

layers in the mammalian retina, are thought to carry out the first stages of visual information

processing[7], and are hence often referred to as the "deep retina".

To understand how OL circuits process information, it is necessary to define the functional

properties of their constituent neurons. In the vertebrate retina, glutamatergic photoreceptors

make excitatory retinotopic connections with off-bipolar cells and inhibitory connections

with on-bipolar cells; these bipolar cells in turn make excitatory glutamatergic connections

with retinal ganglion cells. Horizontal cells in the outer plexiform layer and most amacrine

cells in the inner granular layer receive excitatory glutamatergic inputs from photoreceptors

or bipolar cells, and send inhibitory GABA or glycinergic outputs to neighbouring cells in the

layer, leading to lateral inhibition[8]. In octopus, the main neurotransmitters in the OL are

glutamate, acetylcholine (ACh) and dopamine[9,10] yet the effects of these transmitters on

neural activity and their roles in specific neural circuits are not well understood. Indeed, the

receptors for these neurotransmitters, and their functional properties, remain mostly

unknown. This is particularly relevant since some invertebrates have an expanded inventory

of cys-loop ligand-gated ion channels (LGCs), with activating ligands and ion selectivity

distinct from the channels found in vertebrates[11-14]. Molecular characterisation of

neurotransmitter receptors in specific cell types is thus critical to understand how octopus

neural circuits work.

To address this question, we have initiated a neurochemical mapping of the OL of the

Octopus vulgaris 1-day post hatching (1-dph) paralarva, or hatchling. While the hatchling

brain is smaller, with only ~200,000 neurons, it has the same lobular structure to the adult

brain, including a laminar OL cortex[15,16]. Transcriptomic studies indicate that the paralarval

brain shares many neural classes found in older animals [9,10,17]. Moreover, paralarvae rely on

vision for their survival, and they exhibit robust visually guided behaviours including

phototaxis, colour change and prey capture[18].

Here we have mapped the expression of neurotransmitters and their receptors in the

paralarval OL. By expressing octopus ion channel genes in *Xenopus* oocytes, we have

characterised two ionotropic receptors from the *Octopus* visual system, including the first

example of a dopamine-gated cation channel as well as an anionic ACh receptor with specific

expression in dopaminergic neurons. Through functional imaging from paralarval brain

slices, we show that dopamine acts as a major excitatory neurotransmitter in the OL, while

ACh acts as an inhibitory neurotransmitter. This work represents the first functional

neurochemical characterisation of the octopus visual system and provides insights into the

functional properties of dopaminergic neurons and their roles in visual circuits.

Results

Neurotransmitter usage in the eye and optic lobe

As a first step toward generating a neurochemical map of the paralarval visual system, we

sought to characterise in detail the expression of all neurotransmitters in the eye and OL at

the single-cell level. Based on previous data that revealed the major neurotransmitters

expressed in the OL[9], we used RNA fluorescence *in situ* hybridisation chain reaction (HCR)

to probe the cellular-level expression of neurotransmitter marker genes in the photoreceptors

and the three layers of the OL. We used the vesicular ACh transporter (vacht) for ACh,

tyramine beta hydroxylase (tbh) for octopamine, the vesicular GABA transporter (vgat) for

GABA, tryptophan hydroxylase (tph2) for serotonin, tyrosine hydroxylase (th) for dopamine,

and the vesicular glutamate transporter (vglut) for glutamate.

We observed highly specific patterns of expression for each neurotransmitter in the paralarval

visual system. In the eye, we observed positive signal for none of the neurotransmitter marker

genes in the photoreceptors, with the exception of glutamate (Fig. 1 a-f). This indicates that

the photoreceptors are likely to be glutamatergic, the first time this has been shown in an

octopus species.

In the OL, we confirmed robust expression of the four OL neurotransmitters, categorising

them into five cell types: cholinergic (Chol: vacht[+]), octopaminergic (Octo: tbh[+]), exclusively

glutamatergic (Glut: vglut[+]/th[-]), exclusively dopaminergic (Dop: th[+]vglut[-]), and co-expressing

dopaminergic/glutamatergic (Dop/Glut: th[+]vglut[+]). Chol cells were absent from the OGL but

represented a moderate number of cells in the IGL (20%) and the highest proportion of cells

in the medulla (59%) (Fig. 1 g and i, Supplemental Fig. 1 a-c). Octo cells represented a low

proportion of cells overall and were found only in the OGL (10%) and IGL (4%) (Fig. 1 h

and i, Supplemental Fig. 1 d-f). Glut cells were found in all layers of the OL, representing 7%

of cells in the OGL, 32% of cells in the IGL and 55% in the medulla (Fig. 1 j and m,

Supplemental Fig. 2 a-c). Dop cells were the main cell type in the OGL (64%) and were also

detected infrequently in the IGL (6%) and medulla (2%) (Fig. 1 k, m, Supplemental Fig. 2 d-

f). Dop/Glut cells, which expressed both dopamine and glutamate, a cell type identified in

transcriptomic studies from both hatchling and adult brains[9,10], comprised the main cell type

in the IGL (47%) and were also found in smaller numbers in the OGL (11%) and medulla

(4%) (Fig. 1 l and m, Supplemental Fig. 2 g-i). GABA and serotonin markers were detected

in a small number of medulla neurons, whose numbers we did not quantify (Supplemental

Fig. 2 j, k). In summary, the OGL showed an enrichment of Dop neurons compared to other

layers, the IGL was a mixture of Glut, Chol and Dop/Glut cell types, and the medulla was

mainly a mixture of Chol and Glut cells. These data, consistent with previous studies of

neurotransmitter expression in the eye and OL[9,10], provide a quantitative base to correlate

neurotransmitter and receptor expression at the cellular level, an essential first step for

building functional circuit hypotheses.

A dopamine-gated cation channel expressed in the optic lobe

We next sought to functionally characterise neurotransmitter receptors expressed in the OL.

We focused on cys-loop LGCs, a diverse family of ionotropic receptors that includes the

GABA-A, glycine, 5-HT3, and the nicotinic ACh receptors of vertebrates as well as receptors

with novel ligand specificity and ion selectivity found in some invertebrate species[11-14]. We

identified putative *Octopus* cys-loop LGCs using comparative phylogenetics (Fig. 2 a) and

used previously published single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) data [9] to focus on those

expressed in the OL. We expressed 41 candidate *O. vulgaris* 'cys-loop' LGCs heterologously

in *Xenopus* oocytes and used two-electrode voltage clamp (TEVC) recordings to detect

channel activity evoked by application of 18 candidate ligands. Using this approach, we

identified and characterised several candidate receptors activated by neurotransmitters

expressed in the OL (Supplemental file 1).

Among these putative receptors was a homomeric channel encoded by the LOC115218923

gene, which was activated by dopamine and other monoamines (Fig. 2 b and Supplemental

Fig. 3 a). Expression analysis using scRNA-seq revealed that the LOC115218923 gene is

expressed across the paralarval brain, in particular within cell-types of the OL (Supplemental

Fig. 3 b, d). In TEVC recordings of LOC115218923-expressing oocytes, we observed

currents in response to dopamine (EC_{50}: 7.6 μM), norepinephrine (55 μM), epinephrine (35

μM), serotonin (73 μM), tyramine (180 μM), and octopamine (18 mM)) (Fig. 2 c). As EC_{50}

for dopamine is in the μM range, this is consistent with the receptor localising to synapses, as

extrasynaptic receptors, such as g-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs), generally have a nM

EC_{50} range as they are found further away from the release sites and need to be more

sensitive to the ligand. LOC115218923-expressing oocytes also had the highest mean peak

current when exposed to dopamine, with norepinephrine and epinephrine (whose presence in

the OL has not been established) also showing large currents; serotonin, tyramine and

octopamine currents were negligible (Fig. 2 d). Interestingly, a potent metabotropic dopamine

receptor agonist, apomorphine [19], acted not as an agonist, but as an antagonist (IC$_{50}$: 7 μM,

Supplemental Fig. 4 a and c). To assess the ion selectivity of the LOC115218923-encoded

channel, we performed ion substitution experiments, comparing the shift in reversal potential

(ΔErev) for a sodium-free or low-chloride solution compared to the standard physiological

solution (ND96) with high sodium and chloride concentrations. We observed a large reversal

potential shift in the sodium-free solution, with little reversal shift in the low chloride-

solution (Fig. 2 e). Thus, LOC115218923 appears to form a dopamine-activated cation

channel, which we designated DopC1 (for ***dop**amine-gated **c**ation* channel).

Comparative phylogenetic analysis from diverse metazoan species indicated that DopC1 has

homologues throughout bilateria. In vertebrates its closest homologues are the α9/α10

nicotinic receptors, cation channels that are activated by ACh but not dopamine (Fig. 2 a).

Not only was DopC1 not activated by ACh, we found that nicotine, a potent antagonist for

mammalian α9/α10 receptors and agonist for other nicotinic channels, had no effect on

DopC1-expressing oocytes as either an agonist or antagonist (Supplemental Fig. 4 b and c).

We also found direct orthologs to DopC1 in other invertebrate species, including molluscs

(*Pomacea canaliculata, Aplysia californica,* and *Lottia gigantea*), an annelid (*Platynereis*

dumerilii), nematodes (*Caenorhabditis elegans*), and some arthropods (*Apis mellifera* and

Daphnia magna, but not *Drosophila melanogaster*). (Fig. 2 f). Expression of the DopC

orthologs from *Aplysia* (LOC101853763), *Apis* (LOC408525) and *Daphnia* (LOC116927457

and LOC116923538) in *Xenopus* oocytes also produced homomeric channels activated by

monoamines and not ACh (Supplemental Fig. 5 a-d). For all these channels, we found that

dopamine had the lowest EC$_{50}$, though other monoamines such as norepinephrine, serotonin

and tyramine also showed an EC$_{50}$ in the μM range suggesting they may act as secondary

ligands (Supplemental Fig. 6 a-d). Likewise, peak current analysis on *Xenopus* oocytes

expressing these DopC1 orthologs indicated that dopamine, norepinephrine and epinephrine

had the largest peak current (Supplemental Fig. 6 e). We also found *O. vulgaris* sequence

within the DopC1 subfamily, but this gene (DopC2) did not form a functional homomeric

channel when expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (LOC115215511, Supplemental Fig. 5 e), while

its message is expressed in OL cell types (Supplemental Fig. 3 c and d). Taken together, these

results suggest that in addition to its well-established neuromodulatory role through

metabotropic receptors, dopamine may act in octopus, as well as other invertebrate species, as

a fast excitatory neurotransmitter through ionotropic receptors.

Dopaminergic excitation in the optic lobe

To explore the possible role of dopamine as a fast excitatory transmitter in the visual system,

we examined the spatial expression pattern of DopC1 in the hatchling brain of *O. vulgaris,*

with the goal of identifying cells whose activity might be stimulated by dopaminergic

neurotransmission. We performed quantitative HCR using probes for DopC1, either alone

(Fig. 3 a and b) or co-labelled with marker genes for the major OL neurotransmitters (Fig. 3

e-h, Supplemental Fig. 7 a-e). In these experiments we detected no expression of DopC1 in

the eye (Fig. 3 a) but observed widespread expression in the OL (Fig. 3 a and b), principally

in the IGL and medulla. Specifically, DopC1 was expressed in 21% of OGL neurons, but in

72% of IGL neurons and 53% of medullar neurons (Fig. 3 b-d). In the OGL, the DopC1-

expressing cells disproportionately belonged to one of the minor cell types (Glut, Octo, or

Dop/Glut) and was rare in the main OGL cell type, Dop (Fig. 3 i, Supplemental Fig. 7 f).

DopC1 showed the highest expression in the IGL, where it was expressed in a majority of

each of the three major cell types in the IGL: 60% of Glut cells, 71% of Chol cells, and 92%

of Dop/Glut cells, the most common class in this layer (Fig. 3 i, Supplemental Fig. 7 g).

DopC1 was detected in a majority of both the major medullar cell types, namely Chol (64%

DopC1 expressing) and Glut (55% DopC1 expressing). Other cell types with and without

DopC1 represented a very low percent of cells in the medulla (1-4%; Fig. 3 i, Supplemental

Fig. 7 h). DopC1 was also expressed throughout the central brain but at lower levels

compared to the OL (Supplemental Fig. 8). To summarise, DopC1 showed relatively low

expression in the OGL, but made up a large proportion of cells in the IGL and medulla.

Since DopC1 showed high expression in the IGL and medulla, we hypothesised that

dopamine might act as an excitatory transmitter in these deeper layers of the OL. To test this

hypothesis, we performed calcium imaging on acute brain slices from 1-day *O. vulgaris*

paralarvae, measuring individual cell responses to exogenous dopamine (Supplemental Fig. 9

a). We stimulated brain slices with 100 μM dopamine, and subsequently with a high

potassium solution (HighK$^+$) to identify actively-excitable cells. We then performed image

analysis, and categorised their responses to dopamine as either excitation, inhibition or no-

response. We found that dopamine has a major excitatory role in the OL (Fig. 4 a). Moreover,

we found that the proportion of cells showing excitatory dopaminergic responses, and the

kinetics of these responses, varied across the different OL layers. For example, the OGL had

the lowest proportion of responding cells (44%), while the IGL and the medulla had the

highest (83% and 68% respectively). Inhibitory dopaminergic responses were rare in all

layers of the OL (≤1%), with all other recorded cells showing no response to dopamine

(OGL: 55%, IGL: 17%, Med: 31%; Fig. 4 b).

When we analysed the responses more closely, we also observed differences between the

layers in the kinetics of dopamine response, reflected in the slope, relative amplitude, and

duration. The IGL showed higher dopamine response amplitudes (relative to HighK$^+$

response), compared to the other layers, while the IGL and medulla had longer lasting

responses on average compared to the OGL (Fig. 4 c, Supplemental Fig. 9 b-e). The slope of

dopaminergic responses also varied between cells, with all layers containing both cells with

'shallow' slopes, indicating slow-increasing responses, as well as steeper slopes, indicating

fast-increasing responses (Fig. 4 d and e). The cells of the IGL showed statistically steeper

dopamine response slopes compared to the OGL and medulla (Games-Howell post-hoc test,

p<0.0001), and the steep, fast-rising responses most consistent with direct ionotropic

activation were most prevalent in the IGL (Fig. 4 f, Supplemental Fig. 9 f). Given that DopC1

expression is also most prevalent in the IGL (Fig. 3 d), our results are consistent with

dopamine acting through DopC1 as a fast excitatory neurotransmitter in this layer of the optic

lobe.

Dopaminergic neurons express acetylcholine-gated chloride channels

To gain insight into how dopaminergic neurotransmission in the OL is regulated, we next

investigated LGCs expressed in dopaminergic neurons. Analysis of scRNA-seq data[9]

revealed that a gene related to nicotinic ACh receptors, LOC115214201, showed high and

specific expression in dopaminergic clusters (Supplemental Fig. 10 a and b). Our comparative

phylogenetic analysis of cys-loop LGCs from metazoans placed this gene within a group of

anionic ACh-gated channels previously functionally characterised in the mollusc *Lymnaea*

stagnalis[20] (AChRB), and the platyhelminth *Schistosoma mansoni*[21] (Fig. 2 a). Our

phylogenetic analysis also found direct orthologs in other molluscs (*Aplysia californica,*

Pomacea canaliculata, Lottia gigantea), platyhelminths (*Schmidtea mediterranea*) and

annelids (*Platynereis dumerilii, Capitella teleta*). Despite being related to cationic nicotinic

ACh-gated channels, all genes within this group contain a PAR (proline-alanine-arginine)

motif in the pore lining region similar to that found in anion-permeable GABA-A and glycine

receptors (Supplemental Fig. 10 c) that has been linked to chloride selectivity[22]. Three genes

from octopus were found in this group.

To investigate the functional properties of these octopus LGCs and confirm if they act as a

ACh-gated chloride channels, we performed TEVC recording on *Xenopus* oocytes expressing

these genes homomerically. Two of them (LOC115229990 and LOC115212977) did not

show currents when expressed as homomeric channels in oocytes (Supplemental Fig. 11 a

and b). However, we successfully expressed the dopaminergic cluster-specific

LOC115214201 gene, hereafter referred to as AChRB1, in *Xenopus* oocytes as a homomeric

receptor (Fig. 5 a, and Supplemental Fig. 11 c). The AChRB1 channel showed currents in

response to both ACh and choline, though the EC_{50} of 1.9μM for ACh was much lower than

that for choline (98 μM) (Fig. 5 b). This indicates that ACh likely acts as the primary

endogenous ligand, and the micromolar EC_{50} for ACh is consistent with AChRB1 acting as a

synaptic receptor.

To determine the ion selectivity of AChRB1, we performed ion substitution experiments, as

described above. For these experiments we used the AChRB1 ortholog from *Octopus*

bimaculoides, as it expressed more robustly in oocytes compared to the *O. vulgaris* gene

while sharing the same ligand specificity properties (Supplemental Fig. 11 d and e). We

found that the AChRB1 channel showed a large and significant shift in reversal potential in

the low-chloride solution; in contrast, replacement of the normal buffer with a sodium-free

solution caused no significant shift (Fig. 5 c). Thus, octopus AChRB1 appears to function as

an anionic channel capable of mediating inhibitory cholinergic neurotransmission.

274   Inhibitory action of acetylcholine in the optic lobe

To explore the effect of AChRB1 on octopus visual circuits, we first investigated its

expression pattern in the brain of *O. vulgaris* 1-dph paralarva. We performed quantitative

HCR using probes for AChRB1 and found that this receptor is expressed in the eye (85% of

photoreceptor cells) and mainly the OGL/IGL of the OL (56% and 51% respectively), and in

a low proportion of medulla cells (4%) (Fig. 5 d-f). We also investigated the expression

pattern of AChRB1 in the OL in more detail by performing multiplex HCR of AChRB1 in

combination with marker genes for the major visual system neurotransmitters as above (Fig.

5 g-j, Supplemental Fig. 12 a-e).

Within the OGL, AChRB1 was expressed in most of the Octo cells (76%) and Dop neurons

(70%), the most common cell type in the layer. It was also expressed in around half of all

Dop/Glut OGL cells (49%). In contrast, AChRB1 was infrequently expressed in the rarer

Glut OGL cells (Fig. 5 k, Supplemental Fig. 12 f). In the IGL, AChRB1 was predominantly

in the most common cell type in this layer, the Dop/Glut cells (67%). In contrast, AChRB1

expression was not detected in IGL Octo cells and is only found in a low proportion of IGL

Chol (30%) and around half of all IGL Glut cells (44%) (Fig. 5 k, Supplemental Fig. 12 g).

AChRB1 was expressed in very few medulla cells (7% of Glut cells) and some central brain

cells (Fig. 5 k, Supplemental Fig. 12 h, Supplemental Fig. 13). To summarise, we observed

AChRB1 expression predominantly in three cell types: Glut photoreceptors in the eye, Dop

amacrine cells in the OGL, and Dop/Glut cells in the IGL.

Since all three cell types are potential recipients of synaptic input from cholinergic neurons in

the IGL and/or the medulla[23], and since scRNA-seq data indicated that cationic nicotinic

ACh-gated channels are not highly expressed in dopaminergic clusters (Supplemental Fig. 14

a), we hypothesised that ACh might act as an inhibitory neurotransmitter through AChRB1

within the octopus visual system. To test this, we performed calcium imaging on acute brain

slices from *O. vulgaris* paralarvae following acute application of ACh, using the same

protocol developed for dopamine. We could not test whether ACh inhibits photoreceptor cells

as the high potassium solution caused contraction of the eye muscles. However, we did

observe that ACh overall had effects, mostly inhibitory, on optic lobe cells (Fig. 6 a-e,

Supplemental Fig. 15). Specifically, ACh-mediated inhibition was observed in all layers of

the OL: 10% of OGL cells, 5% of IGL cells, and 19% of medulla cells (Fig. 6 f). Excitatory

responses mediated by ACh were observed in less than 2.6% of all cells in each layer

respectively and all other recorded cells had no response to ACh (Fig. 6 f). Observing

inhibition using calcium imaging requires the cell to already have increased calcium levels

(due to spontaneous activity), which was rare in our preparations. Thus, the proportion of

cells experiencing inhibition in each layer of the OL through ACh is likely underestimated.

However, the fact that ACh did not elicit excitatory responses, and in many cases elicited

robust cholinergic inhibition or no response, implies that ACh has an overall inhibitory role

in the OL.

313 **Discussion**

In this study, we have begun to map the molecular topography of the visual system of the

Octopus vulgaris paralarva, with the goal of linking neurotransmitters, their receptors, and

their physiological effects, at the cellular level. In particular, we have aimed to uncover the

physiological properties of the receptors for key optic lobe neurotransmitters, dopamine and

ACh, and to spatially localise these receptors relative to their neurotransmitter ligands within

the eye and optic lobe. We have used this information to generate visual circuit hypotheses,

which we have tested through imaging of dopamine and ACh responses in different layers of

the optic lobe, and gained new molecular level insights into neural circuits for visual

processing in octopus.

These experiments revealed that dopamine, perhaps unexpectedly, functions as a major

excitatory neurotransmitter in the optic lobe. Functional imaging of octopus brain slices

following application of dopamine showed increased activity in all optic lobe layers, most

prominently in the IGL and medulla. This activation correlates with the expression of DopC1,

a newly-characterised dopamine-gated cation channel found in nearly all IGL neurons, some

OGL neurons, and about half of medullar neurons. Moreover, while the calcium transients

evoked by dopamine showed varying kinetics, with slower responses consistent with GPCR-

mediated responses or secondarily activated neurons, the neurons in the IGL showed

consistently faster-increasing responses, suggesting direct activation via the ionotropic

DopC1 receptor. The widespread expression of dopamine in OGL and IGL neurons whose

axonic compartments are juxtaposed with the dendrites of DopC1-expressing neurons in the

plexiform layer provides anatomical support for the hypothesis that dopaminergic excitatory

transmission, mediated by DopC1, occurs in the optic lobe cortex.

Our observation that dopamine is largely excitatory in the *O. vulgaris* optic lobe was

surprising given a previous report[24] that cuttlefish optic lobe neurons were inhibited by

dopamine. While our calcium imaging experiments observed dopaminergic inhibition only in

very rare cases, it is possible that *Octopus* optic lobe neurons might be inhibited by dopamine

to a higher degree than what we observed, for example if simultaneous application of

dopamine across the whole slice biases the network towards excitation. Such inhibition,

perhaps mediated by a dopaminergic GPCR, could be detected by electrical recordings.

Alternatively, since octopods and decapods are separated by 250 million years of evolution, it

is possible that dopamine may play different roles in the cuttlefish and octopus optic lobes.

Although the optic lobe cell types appear to be largely conserved between octopus species

and between hatchlings and juveniles[9,10], the expression pattern of DopC1 in cuttlefish (or in

adult octopus) is not known.

The DopC receptor described here defines a new class of monoamine-gated cation channels,

with potential roles in neurotransmission in other invertebrates. Excitatory currents activated

by dopamine have been described previously in a gastropod mollusc, *Helisoma trivolvis*[25],

but the molecular identity of the channels mediating these currents was not known. Since the

DopC1 homologue from *Aplysia* is also monoamine-activated, we hypothesise that a DopC-

related channel might be responsible for this previously-described observation. While anionic

dopamine-gated channels have been previously identified in *C. elegans*, these channels

belong to a different LGC subfamily and appear to be specific to nematodes[12,13,26], in contrast

to the cationic DopC1 channels which are found in the genomes of many invertebrate species.

Our results therefore suggest that, in addition to its well-studied neuromodulatory activities

mediated by GPCRs, dopamine also acts as a fast excitatory neurotransmitter in many

invertebrate nervous systems, including that of the octopus.

In the context of the optic lobe circuitry, dopamine appears to play a significant role in

descending, excitatory pathways. Cephalopod photoreceptors have historically been thought

to be cholinergic[27,28]. However, recent scRNA-seq from the bobtail squid *Euprymna berryi*[29]

and our HCR results from *Octopus vulgaris* provide strong evidence that cephalopod

photoreceptors are glutamatergic. Cephalopod photoreceptors (in contrast to vertebrates) are

excited by light[7,28], and classical work of Young showed that these photoreceptors have large

presynaptic varicosities in the superficial plexiform layer that contact the dendrites of OGL

(and perhaps some IGL) neurons[23]. Since most OGL neurons are dopaminergic, these

neurons may serve to relay and/or filter depolarizing signals from the photoreceptors to the

dendrites of DopC1-expressing IGL neurons found deeper in the plexiform layer.

Dopaminergic transmission may thus play an important role in the retinotopic ON pathways

recently described in *O. bimaculoides* during light stimulation[7]. Moreover, since some IGL

neurons may receive direct, glutamatergic excitatory input from the photoreceptors as well as

feed-forward, dopaminergic excitation from OGL neurons, the feed-forward pathway may

serve to amplify the signal between the OGL and IGL, as was observed in these calcium

imaging experiments[7].

The DopC1 expressing Dop/Glut IGL neurons are likewise ideally placed to propagate ON

pathway excitation further into the medulla, as they can release glutamate, also an excitatory

neurotransmitter in *O. vulgaris* optic lobe[30], as well as dopamine. Many neurons in the

medulla express DopC1, and many also undergo activation by dopamine, in some cases with

rapid kinetics (Fig. 4 f). Since very few neurons in the medulla synthesize dopamine, the

dopaminergic inputs to the medulla likely come primarily from Dop/Glut neurons in the IGL.

We hypothesise that at least some Dop/Glut neurons may therefore correspond to the

centripetal neurons described by Young, and thereby serve as descending excitatory relays of

visual information from IGL to the medulla, akin to the bipolar cells in the vertebrate retina[8].

Thus, dopamine may be critical for descending feedforward circuitry from the OGL to the

IGL, and from the IGL to the medulla (Fig. 6 g).

Our results also define a role for ACh as an inhibitory neurotransmitter in the octopus optic

lobe. Although inhibition is intrinsically difficult to detect using calcium imaging, we

observed clear evidence of cholinergic inhibition in all layers of the optic lobe; in contrast,

we observed little evidence for cholinergic excitation despite such responses being easier to

detect. This correlates with previous reports that that ACh caused inhibition in the plexiform

layer of *O. vulgaris* adult OL slices, while nicotinic receptor agonists such as a-bungarotoxin

and atropine had no effect[30]. Our results establish a molecular basis for acetylcholine's action

as an inhibitory transmitter in octopus, which contrasts to its more familiar role as an

excitatory transmitter as seen in vertebrates.

Cholinergic inhibition correlates, particularly in the OGL and IGL, with the expression of an

ACh-gated anion channel, AChRB1. AChRB1 is a nicotinic receptor whose pore domain is

selective for anions rather than cations and is homologous to previously described ACh-gated

anion channels in the gastropod *Lymnaea* and the platyhelminth *Schistosoma*[20,21].

Interestingly, ACh-gated anion channels are also found in nematodes, but these are from

unrelated families of LGCs more closely related to GABA-A-like receptors[14]. Thus, AChRB-

like channels appear to be specifically found in Lophotrochozoan nervous systems. We note

that we also identified classical nicotinic cationic ACh-gated channels in *O. vulgaris*, though

they are not highly expressed in dopaminergic cells and may be more important in other

regions of the octopus brain and body.

Unlike dopamine and glutamate, which appear to function primarily in descending, feed-

forward pathways in the optic lobe, acetylcholine can be inferred to act in ascending,

feedback pathways. In particular, the OGL contains no cholinergic neurons, and at least some

of its neurons are clearly inhibited by acetylcholine. We observed widespread expression of

AChRB1 in the OGL, particularly in Dop and Dop/Glut cells; thus, ACh likely inhibits the

release of the two major excitatory neurotransmitters from the OGL, dopamine and

glutamate. The cholinergic neurons acting on these OGL AChRB1-expressing cells are

inferred to be IGL or medullar neurons with processes in the plexiform layer. In addition,

AChRB1 is expressed in photoreceptors, and previous reports indicate that ACh exerts

inhibitory effects on photoreceptor terminals in the plexiform layer. Thus, cholinergic

neurons from the IGL (centrifugal cells as described by Young[23]) send inhibitory feedback to

the photoreceptors, while cholinergic IGL/medulla neurons send inhibitory feedback to the

excitatory OGL neurons (Fig. 6 h).

Since cholinergic inhibition was also seen in the medulla, it is also possible the acetylcholine

may function in descending inhibitory pathways; in this context, it is worth noting that sign

inversion in the OFF retinotopic pathways observed by calcium imaging appears to occur

between the IGL and medullar layers[7]. It should be noted however that AChRB1 does not

show detectable expression in the medulla; thus, the cholinergic inhibition seen in medullar

neurons may indicate the presence of additional inhibitory ACh receptors that function in

medullar neurons. Alternatively, ACh may indirectly inhibit medullar neurons by inhibiting

its excitatory inputs from the IGL.

The co-expression of inhibitory AChRB channels with the excitatory neurotransmitter

dopamine has interesting functional implications for dopaminergic amacrine cells, the major

cell type in the OGL. Our results suggest that these neurons direct excitatory outputs to

DopC1-expressing cells (of all neurotransmitter types) in the IGL and receive inhibitory

inputs (via AChRB1) from cholinergic neurons in the IGL and potentially in the medulla.

This presents an interesting contrast with the amacrine cells of the vertebrate retina, which

receive excitatory inputs and make inhibitory outputs to bipolar cells in the inner nuclear

layer[8]. Thus, the signs of both the outputs, and some of the inputs, of octopus amacrine cells

are inverted relative to their vertebrate counterparts (Fig. 6 i). Nonetheless, the inhibitory

inputs received by octopus OGL neurons means that they, like vertebrate amacrine cells,

could potentially facilitate lateral inhibition within the plexiform layer through feedback

inhibition of excitatory output.

The coleoid cephalopods have become of great interest to neuroscientists due to their

independent evolution of intelligence and innovative behaviours. In addition to their well-

established differences in systems-level organisation, our work here demonstrates that

cephalopod and vertebrate brains are also profoundly different at the neurochemical and

cellular levels. As a result of evolutionary diversification of the ligand and ion selectivity of

ionotropic receptors, the octopus uses dopamine as an excitatory fast neurotransmitter, and

ACh as the major inhibitory transmitter, in the optic lobe. Likewise, fundamental components

of visual microcircuits, such as amacrine cells, have both input and output valences that are

inverted in octopus relative to those of vertebrates, even though they may carry out similar

computations. Going forward, it will be interesting to identify computational principles

shared between cephalopods and vertebrates, as well as those unique to the complex, "alien"

brain of the octopus.

Methods

Octopus vulgaris paralarvae

Adult male and female wild caught *O. vulgaris* were maintained and mated in the Oceanographic Center of the Canary Islands Instituto Español de Oceanografía (IEO-CSIC, Tenerife, Spain) according to Almansa et al.[31] and upon spawning embryos were shipped to Belgium. Embryos were then incubated until hatching in a closed system in the Laboratory of Developmental Neurobiology (KU Leuven), Belgium (ref). Animals used in this study were from spawnings that occurred between September 2021 and November 2024. All procedures involving adults and hatchlings were approved by the ethical board and competent authority on animal experimentation from CSIC (permit CEIBA 1377-2023 and 1610-2024) and KU Leuven (permit P080/2021), in compliance with Directive 2010/63/EU.

Octopus genomes

At the conception of this project a high-quality genome/transcriptome did not exist for *Octopus vulgaris* and thus the genome/transcriptome of *Octopus sinensis* (*ASM634580v1*) was used for designing primers for PCR and probes for HCR (more details below). *Octopus sinensis* is the most closely related octopus species to *Octopus vulgaris* and it was reported that there is only a 3.21% difference between the mitogenomes [32]. In addition, the *O. vulgaris* scRNA-seq [9] was performed on *Octopus vulgaris* 1-dph paralarval brains but was mapped to the *Octopus sinensis* genome. At later stages of the project a high-quality genome/transcriptome was published for *Octopus vulgaris* (*PRJEB61268,* [32] and was incorporated into the phylogenetic analysis.

Comparative phylogenetics of metazoan LGCs

Identifying LGCs in Octopus and diverse metazoan phyla

Cys-loop LGC protein sequences were identified using the PFAM domain PF02931, and the following publicly available sequence datasets were selected to include species representatives from all the major phyla. *Homo sapiens* (GRCh38.p14), *Danio rerio* (GRCz11), and *Ciona intestinalis* (GCA_000224145.1), were included as Chordate representatives. *Saccoglossus kowalewskii* (PRJNA42857) was the hemichordate representative. *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* (Spur_5.0) was the Echinoderm representative. *Octopus sinensis (ASM634580v1)*, *Octopus bimaculoides (ASM119413v2)*, *Octopus vulgaris (PRJEB61268)*, *Aplysia californica (AplCal3.0)*, *Lottia gigantea (Lotgi1)* and *Pomacea canaliculate* (ASM307304v1) represented the Mollusca. Three octopus genomes were used to ensure we didn't miss any LGCs that were not annotated correctly. Two sequences from *Lymnaea stagnalis* were also included as they were functional characterized as anionic and cationic ACh-gated channels[20]. *Platynereis dumerilli (GCA_026936325.1)*, *Hellobdella robusta (Helro1)*, and *Capitella teleta (GCA_000328365.1)* were included as annelid representatives. Three sequences from *Alvinella pompejana* were also included as they had been previously functionally identified as glycine and proton-gated channels[33]. *Schmidtea mediterranea* (PRJNA379262) and *Schistosoma mansoni* (PRJEA36577) were included for Platyhelminths. *Drosophila melanogaster (BDGP6.46)*, *Daphnia magna (ASM2063170v1.1)*, and *Apis mellifera* (Amel_HAv3.1) were included for Arthropods. *Caenorhabditis elegans* (PRJNA13758) and *Brugia malayi* (PRJNA10729) were included for nematodes. *Nematostella vectensis (PRJEB51373)*, and *Clytia hemisphaerica* [34] represented the Cnidarians. All sequences were downloaded from Biomart [35], except for *O. vulgaris* where we ran interproscan (v5.33) ourselves and *C. hemisphaerica* where we downloaded the sequences from MARIMBA (http://marimba.obs-vlfr.fr/home). Jaiteh et al. [36] determined that

497   Ctenophora, Proifera and Placozoa had no LGCs in their genomes. We also included all

498   metazoan sequences from the Jaiteh et al., 2016 dataset, which included 31 representative

499   metazoan species.

Alignment and tree generation

LGCs have four transmembrane domains, and thus partial sequences with less than three

transmembrane domains were removed. Transmembrane domains were predicted using

TMHMM [37]. The longest isoform for each gene was manually identified and others were

removed. Alignment was performed using MAFFT (v7.505) with E-INS-i parameters

allowing for large gaps [38], as Jaiteh et al., [36], determined this was an effective approach for

aligning LGC protein sequences. The alignment was trimmed using Trimal (v1.4.1) gappyout

method [39]. The alignment was manually assessed to ensure each sequence had the 'cys-loop

region', and the four transmembrane domains. Any sequences with large inserts were

removed iteratively until a satisfactory alignment was achieved.

Phylogenies were generated using IQ-TREE v2.1.4_beta with 1,000 ultra-fast bootstraps [40].

The tree model was calculated using IQ-TREE's ModelFinder implementation according to

Bayesian inference criterion (BIC) and Q.yeast+F+R10 was used.

Tree visualization and annotation

The tree was visualized using TreeViewer [41] and species illustrations were either generated

by authors or sourced from Phylopic (phylopic.org) (Fig. 2 a and e). LGCs contain a

characteristic 'cys-loop' region in their extracellular ligand binding domain which contains

13 residues flanked by two cysteines that create a disulphide bond. Jaiteh et al. previously

characterised a 'cys-less' group of LGCs which lack these cysteines in eukaryotes (many

protists and a few invertebrates) [36]. We used this cys-less group to root the tree. We assigned

a functional annotation for the primary ligand to any subfamily where one or more sequences

had been previously functionally characterized in a heterologous expression system. Our

LGC tree, and others in the literature, split between GABA-A-like anionic LGCs and

Nicotinic-ACh-like cationic LGCs. However, within these anionic/cationic subfamilies some

exception exists and thus the ion selectivity of these exceptional cases are also highlighted

where functional data exists. The references associated with the functional annotations of

each sequence can be found in supplemental file 2. Our LGC dataset contains 1197

sequences, the alignment is available as supplemental file 3 and the full tree is available as

supplemental file 4.

Two-electrode voltage clamp recordings of LGCs in *Xenopus* oocytes

Xenopus laevis plasmids

O. vulgaris RNA was extracted from 15 1-dph paralarvae using Tri-reagent (Invitrogen) and

the Qiagen Micro kit (Qiagen). *Daphnia magna* RNA was extracted from 20 adults using Tri-

reagent (Invitrogen) and the Qiagen Micro kit (Qiagen). cDNA for both *O. vulgaris* and *D.*

magna was synthesised using the Superscript III RT (Invitrogen) kit, and LGC sequences

were amplified using Q5 polymerase (NEB, MA, USA). The cDNA sequence for the DopC1

gene from *Aplysia californica* (LOC101853763) and *Apis mellifera* (LOC408525) were

synthesised using the GeneArt Gene Synthesis Service (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham,

MA, USA). LGC cDNA sequences from *O. vulgaris, D. magna, A. californica and A.*

mellifera were then inserted into the KSM backbone using HiFi assembly (NEB, MA, USA).

The KSM backbone contains *Xenopus* β-globin UTR regions and a T3 promoter. The cDNA

sequence of the *Octopus bimaculoides* AChRB1 (LOC106879694/XM_052969792.1) gene

was synthesized as a geneblock DNA fragment by IDT-DNA Inc (Coralville, IA, USA) with

a Kozak transcriptional start signal (GCCACC) added immediately upstream of the initial

methionine codon. This fragment was inserted between the two Sma I restriction enzyme

sites of pGEMHE [42] by Gibson assembly.

Xenopus laevis oocytes and RNA injection

Defolliculated *Xenopus Laevis* oocytes were acquired from EcoCyte Bioscience and

maintained in ND96 solution (in mM: 96 NaCl, 1 MgCl2, 5 HEPES, 1.8 CaCl2, 2 KCl) at

16°C until RNA injection. KSM plasmids were linearized with NotI, and 5'-capped cRNA

was synthesized *in vitro* using the T3 mMessage mMachine transcription kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, CA, USA). The pGEMHE plasmid was linearised with Eco53kI and synthesized *in*

vitro using the T7 mMessage mMachine transcription kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, CA,

USA). The RNA was subsequently purified with the GeneJET RNA purification kit (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, CA, USA). Defolliculated *Xenopus* oocytes were individually placed in v-

bottom 96-well plates and injected with RNA using the Roboinject system (Multi Channel

Systems GmbH, Reutlingen, Germany). Each oocyte was injected with 50 nl RNA solution at

a concentration of 250 ng/µl-500 ng/µl, depending on the construct. Following injection, the

oocytes were incubated in ND96 at 16°C for 2-4 days prior to recording.

Two-electrode voltage clamp recording and analysis

TEVC recordings were performed either using the automated Robocyte2 system (Multi

Channel Systems, Reutlingen, Germany) or a manual system (OC-725D amplifier).

Recording electrodes for the Robocyte2 system were purchased from Multichannel systems

and typically had a resistance of 0.7-2 MΩ. Recording electrodes for the manual system

(GC120TF-10, Warner Instruments) were pulled using a P-1000 Micropipette Puller (Sutter,

Ca, USA) with the same resistance as above. Recording electrodes were filled with 1.5M

KCl and 1 M acetic acid. Oocytes were clamped at -60 mV and continuous recordings were

done at 500 Hz. Recordings on the Robocyte2 system were collected using the Robocyte2

control software and the data was extracted using the Robocyte2+ analysis software.

Recording on the manual system were collected using WinWCP software. The following

ligands were applied to all receptors described in the paper at 1mM during initial experiments

to determine their primary/secondary ligands. All ligands were prepared in ND96 solution

and were applied for 7 seconds. Fresh ND96 solution then applied for 40s to wash out the

ligand before applying the next ligand. The ligands used for screening were acetylcholine

chloride (ACh, sc-202904, Santa Cruz Biotechnology,USA), L-Glutamic acid monosodium

salt monohydrate (Glut, 49621, Merck, Germany), γ-Aminobutyric acid (GABA, A2129,

Merck, Germany), Glycine hydrochloride (Gly, G2879, Merck, Germany), dopamine

hydrochloride (Dop, H8502, Merck, Germany), DL-norepinephrine hydrochloride (Norepi,

A7256, Merck, Germany), (+/-)-Epinephrine hydrochloride (Epi, E4642, Merck, Germany),

Tyramine hydrochloride (Tyra, T2879, , Merck, Germany), (+/-)-Octopamine hydrochloride

(Octo, O0250, Merck, Germany), serotonin hydrochloride (5-HT, sc-201146A, Santa Cruz

Biotechnology, USA), Choline chloride (Chol, C1879, Merck, Germany), Betaine

hydrochloride (Bet, B3501, Merck, Germany), adenosine (Ado, 01890, Merck, Germany),

Adenosine 5′-triphosphate disodium salt hydrate (ATP, A26209, Merck, Germany), β-alanine

(β-al, 146064, Merck, Germany), D-serine (D-ser, S4250, Merck, Germany), and L-Lysine

(Lys, L5501, Merck, Germany).

Dose response analysis was performed by first perfusing the oocytes with ND96 to estimate

resting potential of the oocytes. Then the ligand solution was applied for 7 seconds and then

ND96 solution was applied again for 40 seconds to bring the oocyte back to resting potential.

This was repeated for all doses of the ligand from low to high concentrations. The dose

response results combined data from 3-7 oocytes and the data was normalised to the largest

current in each oocyte. Normalized mean and standard deviation where then imported into

GraphPad prism where data was plotted and EC_{50} values were calculated by fitting to the Hill

equation using three parameter slopes to obtain the highest degree of fit.

Ion selectivity analysis was performed using ND96 solution, a sodium-free solution (96mM

NMDG, 2mM KCl, 1.8mM CaCl2, 5mM HEPES, 1mM MgCl2) and a low-chloride solution

(96mM Na Gluconate, 2mM KCl, 1.8mM CaCl2, 5mM HEPES, 1mM MgCl2). A voltage

ramp from -150 mV to +30 mV was applied to oocytes expressing the receptor of interest in

the presence of the following solutions in the following order; ND96, ND96+ligand, sodium-

free, sodium-free +ligand, low-chloride, low-chloride +ligand. The EC_{50} concentration of the

primary ligand was used in each case, either ACh for AChRBs and dopamine for DopCs.

Analysis was performed using a custom python script (https://github.com/hiris25/TEVC-

analysis-scripts).

Peak current analysis was performed by exposing individual oocytes expressing specific

LGCs with 1mM dopamine, serotonin, norepinephrine, octopamine, epinephrine, and

tyramine in this order and the current was normalized to the peak current in each oocyte.

After exposing each oocyte to these ligands, dopamine was applied again at 1mM to ensure

the channel had not desensitized. The mean and standard deviation per channel and per ligand

were then calculated and the data was plotted in Graphpad Prism.

Single cell RNA sequencing analysis

All scRNA-seq results were from the dataset detailed in Styfhals et al [9]. Data visualisation

was performed in Seurat v4 [43].

RNA fluorescent *in situ* hybridisation chain reaction (HCR)

1-dph paralarvae were sedated in 2% ETOH/artificial seawater, humanely killed in 4%

EtOH/artificial seawater and fixed overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in phosphate-

buffered saline treated with DEPC (PBS-DEPC). RNA fluorescent *in situ* hybridization chain

reaction (HCR) was performed as previously described [44]. In brief, parlarvae were embedded

in paraffin following progressive dehydration and sectioned with a paraffin microtome

(Thermo Scientific, Microm HM360) to obtain 6-µm-thick transversal sections. Prepared

tissue slides were then used to perform hybridization chain reaction experiments (HCRv3.0).

Probe sets were designed with the insitu_probe_generator [45], followed by automated blasting

and formatting to minimize off-target hybridization with a custom script [46] and synthesised

by IDT (DNA oPools™, Integrated DNA Technologies). Probes were blasted against the *O.*

sinensis (PRJNA551489) or the *O. vulgaris* transcriptome (PRJEB61268) [32] to ensure

specificity. Each probe was tested on multiple occasions on different batches of paralarvae

and the expression pattern reproducible. These probes were applied at 0.9 pmol per slide.

Upon completion of the HCR protocol, DAPI staining was performed (32670-5MG-F,

Merck), slides were mounted with a cover slip (Epredia, 24 x 55 m #1) using Mowiol and

allowed to dry for 24 h at 18°C before being stored at 4°C until imaging. All probes

sequences are included in supplemental file 5.

HCR image acquisition

Confocal microscopy was performed using a spinning disk system (Andor BC43, Oxford

Instruments) with 405 nm, 562 nm, 600 nm, and 700 nm excitation lasers (respectively blue,

green, red and far red). Images were acquired with a 60X/1.42 NA oil-immersion objective

(Nikon CFI Plan Apochromat Lambda D) and an sCMOS camera (Oxford Instruments, 6.5

µm pixel size, 82% QE) at a 0.3 µm z-step.

HCR image analysis

All HCR images were prepared for publication by cropping and adjusting brightness/contrast

using Imaris Software (Oxford Instruments) and Fiji [47]. HCR fluorescence was not visible in

the plexiform layer or other neuropil regions and localised around the nuclei, therefore a

custom python script was written to quantify HCR fluorescence within the nuclear regions of

cells in the *O. vulgaris* paralarval brain (https://github.com/jboulanger/fish-octopus). The

expression pattern was consistent across replicates and thus quantification was performed on

individual slices. The cell pose pre-trained 'Nuclei' model was used to segment nuclei (DAPI

channel) in 3D from the Z-stack projections[48]. Each 6μm section contained ~2 layers of

densely packed nuclei. The Napari polygon tool was used to manually define anatomical

regions (i.e. OGL, IGL, Med, CB) (https://github.com/napari/napari). A difference of

Gaussian filter with sigma [0.5,1,1 pixels] along the z,y,x axes was used to identify positive

fluorescent signals from background signal. The filtering was followed by a Relu activation

defined as $\max\left(0, \frac{x}{s} - 4\right)$ where the standard deviation s is estimated using a maximum

absolute deviation to define a score. The mean fluorescence of this score for each fluorescent

channel within the area of the 3D segmented nuclei was recorded. A second threshold was

then manually defined for each gene to determine positive/negative expression within a

segmented nucleus.

Calcium imaging of acute paralarval brain slices

Reagents and solutions

Octomedia was prepared as follows; (in mM) NaCl: 214.04, $MgSO_4x7H_2O$: 26.17, KCl: 4.61,

NaHCO3: 2.29, $MgCl_2x6H_2O$: 28.04 , D-glucose: 38.08 $CaCl_2x2H_2O$: 10.12, and 500 ml L-

15, Leibowitz, with L-glutamine (Sigma, MFCD00217482). HighK^+ Octomedia is identical

to Octomedia except NaCl and KCl have been adjusted to 168.65 mM and 50 mM

respectively. Both solutions were adjusted to pH 7.6-7.7 with KOH, filtered using the corning

system (431098), stored at 4°C and used within one week. Calcium indicator CAL-520

(Abcam, UK) was prepared at 5 mM in DMSO, and stored at -20°C. Dopamine, and ACh

were prepared at 100 µM in Octomedia. Agarose (11AGAL0050, MP Biomedicals) with high

gel strength (500 g/cm²) and low gelling temperature (26°C) was prepared at 3% in

Octomedia and kept in a 42°C water bath until ready to use.

Brain dissection, embedding and sectioning

1-dph paralarvae were anaesthetised in 2% ETOH/filtered artificial seawater (FASW:) until

motionless (at least 5 minutes). Their brains were dissected from their bodies to ensure all

surrounding skin/muscle were removed. The brain was then placed in the 3% agarose

solution in a 35mm petri dish. The agarose was left to solidify at room temperature for 5

minutes and then stored on ice until vibratome sectioning (within an hour). The agarose was

cut to a 1cm x 1cm block and sectioned with a vibrating-blade microtome (HM 650 V,

Thermo Scientific, UK) with the following parameters; 200 µm slice thickness, 0.2 mm/s

speed, and amplitude 0.7mm. The vibratome bath was filled with cooled Octomedia. Brain

slices were transferred to 25mm diameter circular coverslips. A temporary well was created

using a plastic 3D printed cylinder made from the plastic polylactic acid (10mm height, 3mm

wall thickness, 18mm diameter, supplemental file 6), and petroleum jelly was placed on the

rim of the cylinder to create a seal to the coverslip. Each slice was then incubated in CAL-

520 (5µM in Octomedia) for at least 1 hour at room temperature within this temporary well.

The cylinder was then removed and the circular coverslip containing the slice was directly

transferred to the imaging chamber.

Calcium imaging and perfusion

Imaging was performed with an upright epifluorescent microscope (Leica DM6 B) equipped

with a 490/525 nm excitation/emission filter set and operated at 4-5fps, which was limited by

exposure time (200-250 ms). The light intensity was as low as possible, dictated by a manual

knob on the light source. The iris was also set as low as possible to further reduce scattered

light and photobleaching. Perfusion inflow and compound switching were controlled by a

gravity valve system (Digitimer, UK), while outflow was maintained with a peristaltic pump.

The imaging chamber (PH2 and RC-21BDW, Science Products) was assembled with 22x40

mm rectangular coverslips creating a lid. The slices were immobilised using netting

(hexagonal pore size: 1mm x 1.5 mm) that lay on the agarose surrounding the brain slice.

Slices were perfused with Octomedia for 10 minutes before imaging to acclimatise the slice

to the imaging chamber. The perfusion protocol during imaging was as follows; Octomedia:

0-90s, Ligand: 90s-135s, Octomedia: 135s-270s, HighK$^+$ Octomedia: 270s-end:

Calcium imaging analysis

A total of 973 cells across 17 slices were analysed during dopaminergic stimulation in the

OGL of the OL. Likewise, 1090 cells over 18 slices and 2298 cells over 18 slices were

analysed in the IGL and medulla respectively. In terms of ACh stimulation, we analysed 391

cells across 12 slices from the OGL, 473 cells across 12 slices from the IGL and 858 cells

across 12 slices from the medulla. The calcium imaging recordings of each slice were

processed as follows using the Suite2p GUI[49] and a custom python

scripthttps://github.com/A-Courtney/Octo_Dop_ACh_Ca_Imaging_2025).

Image registration

We observed deformations of the tissue slice during recording sessions, likely due to

muscular contractions, particularly during application of the HighK$^+$ solution. We assume

that they are caused by the oesophagus that runs through the centre of the brain and perhaps

muscle fibres surrounding the brain that were insufficiently removed during dissection. To

overcome this, image registration was performed within suite2p[49] using the non-rigid

registration approach and 128 x 128 pixels block size

(https://github.com/MouseLand/suite2p).

ROI detection

Regions of interest (ROIs), corresponding to cells, were detected within suite2p using an anatomical detection approach. This was achieved in a semi-automated way by applying the cell pose 'cyto3' model to the maximum intensity projection image of each slice[48], and the ROIs were then refined manually. Then within the suite2p GUI any cells that were incorrect were deleted and any cells that were missing were added manually. Out of focus regions were not analysed.

ROI quality control

The ROIs detected using the anatomical approach described above were a combination of 'real' cells, 'dead' cells and 'neuropil' (fluorescence signals from local neurites). Therefore, we wanted to remove the 'dead' and 'neuropil' ROIs and only analyse the 'real' cell ROIs. We first wanted to understand the functional characteristics of 'cellular' ROIs vs 'neuropil' ROIs, we manually defined multiple ROIs using fiji[47] from five slices from different paralarvae exposed to both dopamine and ACh (Supplemental Fig. 16 a-d). Manually defined 'cellular' ROIs had a higher fluorescence and a circular structure. Manually defined 'neuropil' ROIs had a lower fluorescent signal and were found in between the 'cellular' ROIs. We calculated the slopes in two second windows across the full normalised fluorescent trace. Slope was calculated by using the difference in fluorescence between the start and end of the time window, divided by the number of frames. We observed that 'cellular' ROIs had a statistically significantly higher max slope compared to 'neuropil' ROIs (t-test, $p < 0.05$, Supplemental Fig. 16 e). We then used the mean+standard deviation of the neuropil max slope (0.0218 normalised intensity/second) as a threshold so all traces that had a max slope below this are likely a heavily neuropil contaminated ROI and were removed from subsequent analysis. This threshold also filtered out 'dead' ROIs as the traces from these ROIs have a downward fluorescent signal over the course of the recording due to

736   photobleaching and don't show the same characteristic responses to the ligand, $HighK^+$

737   solution or any spontaneous activity.

Defining anatomical regions

739   To analyse the functional characteristics of cells within different regions of the OL of *O.*

740   *vulgaris* paralarvae, we used Napari (https://github.com/napari/napari) to manually define

741   anatomical regions such as the OGL, IGL, medulla of the OL. The maximum intensity

742   projection of each slice was used to label these regions with the polygon tool.

Ligand response categorisation

The ligand response for each trace was defined as either excitation, inhibition or no-response.

Excitation was defined as the ligand stimulus window having a 20% higher mean

fluorescence compared to the baseline mean fluorescence (first 20 seconds of the recording),

when the full trace, including the $HighK^+$ response, was normalised using a min/max

approach (Supplemental Fig. 16 f shows example excitatory responses following dopamine

application. Inhibitory signals had to meet multiple criteria; 1. the ligand stimulus window

had to have a 20% decrease in mean fluorescence compared to the baseline mean value (first

20 seconds of the recording), when the full trace, including the $HighK^+$ response, was

normalised using a min/max approach, 2. inhibitory responses also needed to have a steep

downward slope (<-0.0099 normalised intensity/s) and, 3. the trough of the inhibition needed

to last at least 20 seconds. Supplemental Fig16 g shows example inhibitory responses

following ACh application. ROIs with 'no response' didn't meet either the excitation or

inhibition criteria and usually had a flat response during ligand application and a normal

$HighK^+$ response (Supplemental Fig. 16 f and g). Subtle differences in perfusion speed are

inevitable on different experimental days, and thus ligand and $HighK^+$ response windows

were manually defined.

Dopamine slope analysis

All dopaminergic excitatory responses that were identified above were then subsequently analysed for their slope. Within each ROI trace the dopaminergic response had different onset times, so the time window for calculating the dopamine response slope could not be fixed. Instead, the dopamine application time window trace was extracted (80 second window), smoothed using a rolling average over adjacent frames (4 second window), and normalized using the min/max values. The slope is calculated as above, the time window was 2 seconds and the slope for all 2 second periods across the stimulus time window were calculated, and the max slope reliably identified the steepest slope of the dopaminergic response for each ROI.

Statistical analysis of the slope of excitatory dopaminergic responses involved first checking for normality per region (OGL, IGL and Med) using a Shapiro-Wilk test and none of the groups were normally distributed ($p < 0.05$). The variances between the regions were not equal (Levene's Test, $p < 0.05$) and thus Welch's ANOVA was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the regions. Games-Howell post-hoc test was used to determine which OL layers had statistically significant differences in their dopamine slope.

While only 'in-focus' cells were detected and analysed, there were still some variations in how 'in-focus' a cell was. To ensure that this didn't impact our slope calculations we first looked at the radius of cells, assuming cells with a larger radius were more out of focus, and compared it to the slope of excitatory dopaminergic response. We performed Spearman correlation and we did not observe a correlation between ROI radius and slope (R^2=-0.037, p=0.0482, Supplemental Fig. 16 h). We also used variance of laplacian to calculate the 'sharpness' of a 30 by 30-pixel window surrounding the ROI [50] and compared it to the slope of excitatory dopaminergic response. We did not observe a correlation between ROI sharpness and slope (Spearman correlation, R^2=0.009, p=0.5647, Supplemental Fig. 16 i).

Figures

Fig. 1 Neurotransmitter cell types in the eye and optic lobe of 1-dph *O. vulgaris* paralarvae.

HCR was performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* head transversal sections, nuclei are visualised in blue with DAPI.

Sections with both the OL and eye visible are from the ventral (towards the arms) part of the brain (see

Supplemental Fig. 8 for more details). Representative HCR against vacht (cholinergic cell marker) (**A** and **G**),

tbh (octopaminergic cell marker) (**B** and **H**), vgat (GABAergic cell marker) (**C**), tph2 (serotonergic cell marker)

(**D**), th (dopaminergic cell marker) (**E** and **K**), and vglut (glutamatergic cell marker) (**F** and **J**) in yellow.

Representative multiplex HCR against th (dopaminergic cell marker) in magenta and vglut (glutamatergic cell

marker) in yellow (**L**). A summary of the HCR image quantification of Chol and Octo cell types in the eye and

Fig. 2 Discovery of a nicotinic-like dopamine-gated cation channel in *Octopus vulgaris* and other invertebrates.

Comparative phylogenetics of nicotinic-like cys-loop ligand gated ion channels from major metazoan phyla (**A**). Chordata sequences are highlighted in orange and molluscan sequences are highlighted in green. *Octopus sinensis* sequences are highlighted with a black dot. Representative TEVC traces from *Xenopus* oocytes expressing DopC1 from *O. vulgaris* during application of candidate ligands (**B**). Dose response analysis curves for the major monoamines during TEVC recordings of *O. vulgaris* DopC1 expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (**C**). The adjacent table includes the EC_{50} values for each ligand in μM. Mean and standard error are plotted for 3-7 separate oocytes per ligand. The current was normalised to the max current in each oocyte. Peak current analysis of *O. vulgaris* DopC1 expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (**D**). During TEVC recordings each oocyte was exposed to 1mM dopamine, epinephrine, norepinephrine, serotonin, tyramine and octopamine. The mean and standard deviation are plotted per ligand. The current has been normalised to the peak current in each oocyte. Ion selectivity analysis of *O. vulgaris* DopC1 expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes during TEVC recordings (**E**). The reversal potential (Erev, in mV) of the channel was identified during activation with 10μM (~EC_{50}) dopamine in ND96, the sodium-free solution or the low-chloride solution. The difference in Erev (relative to ND96) of the sodium-free solution and low-chloride solution is plotted. The mean and standard deviation are shown for 5 oocytes. A zoomed view of the DopC subfamily from the comparative phylogenetic analysis (**F**). ACh: acetylcholine, Glu: glutamate, Gly: glycine, Dopa: dopamine, Norepi: norepinephrine, Epi: epinephrine, Oct: octopamine, Tyra: tyramine, and 5-HT: serotonin, DopC1: dopamine-gated cation channel 1, ΔErev: difference in reversal potential, LGC: ligand-gated ion channel.

Fig. 3 DopC1 expression in the *O. vulgaris* optic lobe.

HCR was performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* head transversal sections and nuclei are visualised in blue with DAPI.

Representative HCR against DopC1 in yellow (**A** and **B**). HCR expression maps (**C**) and barplot (**B**) showing

the proportion and spatial distribution of cells expressing DopC1 in the OGL, IGL and Med of the OL,

quantified from the HCR shown in **B**. Representative multiplex HCR against DopC1 in yellow and vacht

(cholinergic cell marker) in magenta (**E**), tbh (octopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**F**), vglut (glutamatergic cell

marker) in magenta (**G**) and th (dopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**H**). Summary of the expression of DopC1 in

the major neurotransmitter cell types in the eye and OL (**I**). The size of the circle representatives the proportion

of cells in that layer that belong to that cell type. The yellow region within each circle represents the proportion

of cells of that cell type that also express DopC1. This quantification was performed on the multiplex HCRs

shown in Supplemental Fig. 7. The head orientation in **A** to **C** and **E** to **I** is the same. Scale bar: 50 μm, vacht:

vesicular acetylcholine transporter, tbh: tyramine beta hydroxylase, th: tyrosine hydroxylase, vglut: vesicular

glutamate transporter, OGL: outer granular layer, IGL: inner granular layer, Med: medulla, Plex: plexiform

layer, DopC1: dopamine-gated cation channel 1, Octo: octopaminergic cell type (tbh[+]), Chol: cholinergic cell

type (vacht[+]), Dop: exclusively dopaminergic cell type (th[+]vglut[-]), Glut: exclusively glutamatergic cell type

(vglut[+]/th[-]), Dop/Glut: exclusively dopaminergic and glutamatergic cell type (th[+]vglut[+]), A: anterior, P:

posterior, M: medial, L: lateral.

Fig. 4 Calcium imaging of 1-dph *O. vulgaris* paralarvae acute brain slices in response to dopamine.

Calcium imaging was performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* acute brain slices during application of 100 µM dopamine and the HighK$^+$ solution. Heat map of a representative slice during calcium imaging (**A**). The fluorescence intensity for each ROI has been smoothed using a rolling average window over 10 seconds and normalised using min/max values per ROI. Pie charts showing the proportion of cells which have dopaminergic excitation, dopaminergic inhibition or no response to dopamine, within the different layers of the OL, summed across all brain slices (**B**). Mean traces from the representative slice shown in A per OL layer (**C**). A subset of dopaminergic responses that are >0.075 (normalised intensity/s) are shown to represent 'steep' slopes (**D**). A subset of dopaminergic excitatory responses between 0.0125 and 0.0375 (normalised intensity/s) slope are

 shown to represent 'shallow' slopes (**E**). The mean trace is shown in green. Maximum intensity projection of a

856 representative brain slice with coloured dots overlayed to generate a heat map of the slope values of the

857 excitatory dopaminergic responses in the different layers of the OL (**F**). Scale bar: 50 µm, OGL: outer granular

858 layer, IGL: inner granular layer, Med: medulla, Dopa: dopamine, HighK$^+$: high potassium solution, M: medial,

859 L: lateral.

Fig. 5 AChRB1, a ACh-gated chloride channel from _O. vulgaris_, is expressed in the

visual system

Representative TEVC traces from _Xenopus_ oocytes expressing AChRB1 from _O. vulgaris_ during application of

candidate ligands (**A**). Dose response analysis curves for ACh and choline during TEVC recordings of _O._

vulgaris AChRB1 expressed in _Xenopus_ oocytes (**B**). The adjacent table includes the EC$_{50}$ values for each

ligand in μM. Mean and standard error are plotted for 5-6 separate oocytes per ligand. The current was

normalised to the max current in each oocyte. Ion selectivity analysis of *O. bimaculoides* AChRB1 expressed in

Xenopus oocytes during TEVC recordings (**C**). The reversal potential (Erev, in mV) of the channel was

identified during activation with 1μM ACh (~EC_{50}) in ND96, sodium-free solution or low-chloride solution.

The difference in Erev (relative to ND96) of the sodium-free solution and low-chloride solution is plotted. The

mean and standard deviation are shown for 7 oocytes. All HCRs were performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* head

transversal sections and nuclei are visualised in blue with DAPI. Representative HCR against AChRB1 (**D** and

E) in yellow. Barplot showing the proportion of cells expressing AChRB1 in the eye and OL, quantified from

the HCR shown in D and E (**F**). Representative multiplex HCR against AChRB1 in yellow and either vacht

(cholinergic cell marker) in magenta (**G**), tbh (octopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**H**), vglut (glutamatergic

cell marker) in magenta (**I**) and th (dopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**J**). Summary of the expression of

AChRB1 in the neurotransmitter cell types in the eye and OL (**K**). The size of the circle represents the

proportion of cells in that layer that belong to that neurotransmitter cell type. The yellow region within each

circle represents the proportion of cells of that neurotransmitter type that also express AChRB1. This

quantification was performed on the multiplex HCRs shown in Supplemental Fig. 12. The orientation from G-K

is the same. Scale bar: 50 μm, vacht: vesicular acetylcholine transporter, tbh: tyramine beta hydroxylase, th:

tyrosine hydroxylase, vglut: vesicular glutamate transporter, OGL: outer granular layer, IGL: inner granular

layer, Med: medulla, Plex: plexiform layer, ACh: acetylcholine, Cho: choline, Bet: betaine, Glu: glutamate, Gly:

glycine, Dopa: dopamine, Oct: octopamine, Tyra: tyramine, and 5-HT: serotonin, AChRB: acetylcholine-gated

chloride channel, ΔErev: difference in reversal potential, Octo: octopaminergic cell type (tbh^+), Chol:

cholinergic cell type ($vacht^+$), Dop: exclusively dopaminergic cell type (th^+vglut^-), Glut: exclusively

glutamatergic cell type ($vglut^+/th^-$), Dop/Glut: exclusively dopaminergic and glutamatergic cell type (th^+vglut^+),

A: anterior, P: posterior, M: medial, L: lateral.

Fig. 6 Calcium imaging of 1-dph *O. vulgaris* paralarval acute brain slices in response to

acetylcholine

Calcium imaging was performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* acute brain slices during application of 100 μM ACh and

the HighK$^+$ solution. Heat map of a representative brain slice during calcium imaging (**A**). The fluorescence

intensity for each ROI has been smoothed using a rolling average window over 10 second periods and

normalised using min/max values per ROI. Normalised intensity over time for all ROIs of the representative

slice in A in the OGL (**B**), IGL (**C**) and Med (**D**). Mean trace and error bars are highlighted in bold. Mean trace

of B-D overlayed on each other (**E**). Pie charts showing the proportion of cells which have cholinergic

excitation, cholinergic inhibition or no response to ACh, within the different layers of the OL, summed across

all brain slices (**F**). Summary schematic of circuit hypothesis relating to dopaminergic feedforward excitation.

(**G**). Summary schematic of circuit hypothesis relating to cholinergic feedback inhibition (**H**). Schematic

summary of the differences between octopus OGL dopaminergic amacrine cells and vertebrate retinal

GABAergic amacrine cells (**I**). OGL: outer granular layer, IGL: inner granular layer, Med: medulla, Plex:

plexiform layer, ACh: acetylcholine, HighK$^+$: high potassium solution, AChRB1: acetylcholine-gated chloride

channel 1, DopC1: dopamine-gated cation channel 1, Chol: cholinergic cell type (vacht$^+$), Dop: exclusively

dopaminergic cell type (th$^+$vglut$^-$), Glut: exclusively glutamatergic cell type (vglut$^+$/th$^-$), Dop/Glut: exclusively

dopaminergic and glutamatergic cell type (th$^+$vglut$^+$), M: medial, L: lateral.

Supp Fig. 1 Quantitative and spatial analysis of Chol and Octo cell types in the visual

system of 1-dph *O. vulgaris* paralarvae.

HCRs were performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* head transversal sections and nuclei are visualised in blue with

DAPI. Representative HCR against vacht (cholinergic cell marker) in yellow (**A**). A custom python script was

used to quantify the expression pattern for each gene of interest within nuclear regions in the eye and OL (see

methods). HCR expression maps (**B**) and barplot (**C**) showing the proportion and spatial distribution of cells

expressing vacht in the eye/OL, quantified from the HCR shown in A. Representative HCR against tbh

(octopaminergic cell marker) in yellow (**D**). HCR expression maps (**E**) and barplot (**F**) showing the proportion

and spatial distribution of cells expressing tbh in the eye/OL, quantified from the HCR shown in D. The

 orientation in A and D are the same. Scale bar: 50 μm, vacht: vesicular acetylcholine transporter, tbh: tyramine

918 beta hydroxylase, Photo: photoreceptors, OGL: outer granular layer, IGL: inner granular layer, Med: medulla,

919 OL: optic lobe, Octo: octopaminergic cell type (tbh$^+$), Chol: cholinergic cell type (vacht$^+$), A: anterior, P:

920 posterior, M: medial, L: lateral.

Supp Fig. 2 Quantitative and spatial analysis of Glut, Dop and Dop/Glut cell types in the

visual system of 1-dph *O. vulgaris* paralarvae

HCRs were performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* head transversal sections and nuclei are visualised in blue with

DAPI. Representative HCR against vglut (glutamatergic cell marker) in yellow (**A**). A custom python script was

used to quantify the expression pattern for each gene of interest within nuclear regions in the eye and OL (see

methods). HCR expression maps (**B**) and barplot (**C**) showing the proportion and spatial distribution of cells

expressing vglut exclusively (vglut$^+$th$^-$) in the eye/OL, quantified from the HCR shown in A. Representative

HCR against th (dopaminergic cell marker) in magenta (**D**). HCR expression maps (**E**) and barplot (**F**) showing

the proportion and spatial distribution of cells expressing th exclusively (th$^+$vglut$^-$) in the eye/OL, quantified

from the HCR shown in D. Representative HCR against th (dopaminergic cell marker) in magenta and vglut

(glutamatergic cell marker) in yellow (**G**). HCR expression maps (**H**) and barplot (**I**) showing the proportion of

cells expressing Dop/Glut cells (th$^+$vglut$^+$) in the eye/OL, quantified from the HCR shown in G. Representative

HCR against vgat (GABAergic cell marker) (**J**) and tph2 (serotonergic cell marker) (**K**) in yellow. All HCRs

have the same orientation. Scale bar: 50 μm, vgat: vesicular GABA transporter, tph2: tryptophan hydroxylase,

th: tyrosine hydroxylase, vglut: vesicular glutamate transporter, Photo: photoreceptors, OGL: outer granular

layer, IGL: inner granular layer, Med: medulla, OL: optic lobe, Dop: exclusively dopaminergic cell type

(th$^+$vglut$^-$), Glut: exclusively glutamatergic cell type (vglut$^+$/th$^-$), Dop/Glut: exclusively dopaminergic and

glutamatergic cell type (th$^+$vglut$^+$), A: anterior, P: posterior, M: medial, L: lateral.

Supp Fig. 3 Additional functional and expression analysis of DopC1 from *O. vulgaris*

Representative TEVC traces from *Xenopus* oocytes expressing DopC1 from *O. vulgaris* during application of

additional candidate ligands (**A**). tSNE of scRNA-seq of the *O. vulgaris* paralarval brain[9], showing the

expression of the DopC1 (LOC115218923) (**B**) and DopC2 (LOC115215511) (**C**). All clusters that show high

expression are highlighted in magenta. Dot plot of a subset of clusters from the single cell RNAseq of the *O.*

vulgaris paralarval brain showing the expression of DopC1 and DopC2 (**D**). The size of the dots relates to the

percent of cells in that cluster that express the gene, the heat map corresponds to the average expression of the

gene in all cells in the cluster. DopC: dopamine-gated cation channel, Cho: choline, Bet: betaine, Ado:

adenosine, ATP: adenosine triphosphate, β-al: β-alanine, Lys: lysine, Dopa: dopamine.

Supp Fig. 4 Characterising *Octopus vulgaris* DopC1 candidate agonists and antagonists

Representative TEVC traces from *Xenopus* oocytes expressing *O. vulgaris* DopC1 during application of

apomorphine (**A**) and nicotine (**B**). Antagonistic inhibitory dose response curves from *Xenopus* oocytes

expressing DopC1 from *O. vulgaris* (**C**). This was acquired by applying low to high doses of each antagonist in

the presence of dopamine at 10μM (~EC$_{50}$). The adjacent table includes the IC$_{50}$ values for each ligand in μM.

Mean and standard error are plotted for 5-7 independent oocytes per antagonist. The current was normalised to

the max current in each oocyte.

a *Aplysia californica* DopC1

b *Daphnia magna* DopC1

c *Daphnia magna* DopC2

d *Apis mellifera* DopC1

e *Octopus vulgaris* DopC2

Supp Fig. 5 *Xenopus* **oocyte TEVC recordings of DopC orthologs from** *Aplysia*

californica, *Apis mellifera* **and** *Daphnia magna*

Representative TEVC traces from *Xenopus* oocytes expressing DopC1 from *Aplysia californica* (**A**), DopC1

from *Daphnia magna* (**B**), DopC2 from *Daphnia magna* (**C**), DopC1 from *Apis mellifera* (**D**) and DopC2 from

Octopus vulgaris (**E**) during application of candidate ligands. ACh: acetylcholine, Glu: glutamate, Gly: glycine,

Cho: choline, Bet: betaine, Ado: adenosine, ATP: adenosine triphosphate, β-al: β-alanine, D-ser: D-serine, Lys:

lysine, Dopa: dopamine, Norepi: norepinephrine, Epi: epinephrine, Oct: octopamine, Tyra: tyramine, 5-HT:

serotonin, DopC: dopamine-gated cation channel.

Supp Fig. 6 Dose response and peak current analysis of DopC orthologs from *Aplysia*

californica*, *Apis mellifera* and *Daphnia magna

Dose response analysis curves for the major monoamines during TEVC recordings of *Xenopus* oocytes

expressing DopC1 from *Aplysia californica* (**A**), DopC1 from *Apis mellifera* (**B**), DopC1 from *Daphnia magna*

(**C**), DopC2 from *Daphnia magna* (**D**). The adjacent table includes the EC_{50} values for each ligand in μM. Mean

and standard error are plotted for 3-7 separate oocytes per ligand. The current was normalised to the max current

in each oocyte. Peak current analysis for homomeric DopC orthologs from *Aplysia californica*, *Apis mellifera*

and *Daphnia magna* expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (**E**). During TEVC recordings each oocyte was exposed to

1mM dopamine, epinephrine, norepinephrine, serotonin, tyramine and octopamine. The mean and standard error

of the mean are plotted per ligand, per receptor. The current has been normalised to the peak current in each

oocyte.

Supp Fig. 7 Quantitative and spatial analysis of DopC1 expression in the brain of *O.*

vulgaris

HCRs were performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* head transversal sections. Representative multiplex HCR against

DopC1 in yellow and vacht (cholinergic cell marker) in magenta (**A**), tbh (octopaminergic cell marker) in cyan

(**B**), vglut (glutamatergic cell marker) in magenta (**C**) and th (dopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**D**).

Representative multiplex HCR against DopC1 in yellow, vglut (glutamatergic cell marker) in magenta (**C**) and

th (dopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**E**).Representative HCR expression maps of Chol, Octo, Glut, Dop and

Dop/Glut cell types in the OGL (**F**), IGL (**G**) and Med (**H**) of the OL, which are positive for DopC1 (orange)

and negative for DopC1 (blue). The expression maps were quantified from the HCRs shown above and the

results are summarised in Fig. 3 i. The orientation in A and B and C-D are the same. Octo: octopaminergic cell

990 type (tbh$^+$), Chol: cholinergic cell type (vacht$^+$), Dop: exclusively dopaminergic cell type (th$^+$vglut$^-$), Glut:

991 exclusively glutamatergic cell type (vglut$^+$/th$^-$), Dop/Glut: exclusively dopaminergic and glutamatergic cell type

992 (th$^+$vglut$^+$), Scale bar: 50 μm. vacht: vesicular acetylcholine transporter, tbh: tyramine beta hydroxylase, th:

993 tyrosine hydroxylase, vglut: vesicular glutamate transporter, OGL: outer granular layer, IGL: inner granular

994 layer, Med: medulla, DopC1: dopamine-gated cation channel 1, A: anterior, P: posterior, M: medial, L: lateral.

Supp Fig. 8 DopC1 expression in the central brain of *O. vulgaris* paralarvae

Maximum intensity projection of DAPI labelled 1-dph *O. vulgaris* paralarva imaged with light sheet

microscopy, reproduced with permission from Deryckere et al., [51] (**A** and **B**). Representative HCR against

DopC1 in yellow and nuclei (DAPI) in blue, at a dorsal position of the brain (towards the mantle) (**C**), at a mid

position of the brain (**D**) and at a ventral position of the brain (towards the arms) (**E**). Scale bar: 200μm, SEM:

supraesophageal mass of the central brain, SUB: subesophageal mass of the central brain, ES: oesophagus, A:

anterior, P: posterior.

a

OGL IGL Med

A
L ← → M
P

b Mean Intensity of all excitatory
Dopa ROIs per OL layer - Slice 1

OGL
IGL
Med

Dopa   HighK+

Normalised Intensity

0   Time (s)   332

c Mean Intensity of all excitatory
Dopa ROIs per OL layer - Slice 2

OGL
IGL
Med

Dopa   HighK+

Normalised Intensity

0   Time (s)   332

d Mean Intensity of all excitatory
Dopa ROIs per OL layer - Slice 3

OGL
IGL
Med

Dopa   HighK+

Normalised Intensity

0   Time (s)   332

e Mean Intensity of all excitatory
Dopa ROIs per OL layer - Slice 4

OGL
IGL
Med

Dopa   HighK+

Normalised Intensity

0   Time (s)   332

f Kernel Density Estimate of Dopaminergic Response Slope

Density

Med
OGL
IGL

0.00   0.025   0.05   0.075   0.1   0.125

'Shallower' ←   Slope (normalised insensity/s)   → 'Steeper'

1003

Supp Fig. 9 Additional analysis of calcium imaging on acute brain slices from *O.*

***vulgaris* paralarvae during application of dopamine**

Calcium imaging was performed on acute brain slices from 1-dph *O. vulgaris* paralarvae. Maximum intensity

projection of a representative brain slice used for calcium imaging (**A**). The mean intensity over time for all

ROIs in each OL layer that were categorised as having an excitatory dopaminergic response are plotted as

purple (OGL), green (IGL) and orange (Med) lines. Four different slices have been plotted (**B-E**). Kernel

density estimate of dopaminergic response slope per OL layer (**F**). Scale bar: 100 μm, Dopa: dopamine, HighK$^+$:

high potassium solution, OGL: outer granular layer, IGL: inner granular layer, Med: medulla, A: anterior, P:

posterior, M: medial, L: lateral.

1013

Supp Fig. 10 Additional expression, and sequence analysis of AChRB1 from *O. vulgaris*

tSNE of scRNA-seq of the *O. vulgaris* paralarval brain from[9], showing the expression of th (dopamine synthesis

enzyme, LOC115215438) (**A**) and AChRB1 (LOC115214201) (**B**). Dopaminergic clusters are highlighted in

magenta. Trimmed amino acid alignment showing a subset of anionic ACh, cationic ACh and anionic GABA

LGCs highlighting multiple functional domains including the cys-loop region, transmembrane domain 1, the ion

selectivity region and transmembrane domain 2 (**C**). Amino acid consensus and conservation values are shown

below. Purple shading indicates BLOSUM62 scores indicating evolutionary divergence of individual sites. TM:

transmembrane, AChRB: acetylcholine-gated chloride channel.

Supp Fig. 11 Functional characterisation of AChRB orthologs from *O. vulgaris* and *O.*

bimaculoides

Representative TEVC traces from *Xenopus* oocytes expressing *O. vulgaris* AChRB2 (**A**), *O. vulgaris* AChRB3

(**B**), *O. vulgaris* AChRB1 (**C**), and *O. bimaculodes* AChRB1(**D**) during application of all candidate ligands.

Dose response analysis curves for *O. bimaculoides* AChRB1 in response to ACh (**E**). For **D** the top and bottom

traces were from separate oocytes. This was acquired by performing TEVC recordings on *O. bimaculoides*

AChRB1 expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes from low to high concentrations. The adjacent table indicates the EC_{50}

values for ACh in μM. Mean and standard error of the mean are plotted for 8 separate oocytes per ligand. The

current was normalised to the max current in each oocyte. ACh: acetylcholine, Chol: choline, Bet: betaine, Glut:

glutamate, Gly: glycine, Ado: adenosine, ATP: adenosine triphosphate, β-al: β-alanine, Lys: lysine, Dop:

dopamine, Norepi: norepinephrine, Epi: epinephrine, Octo: octopamine, Tyra: tyramine, 5-HT: serotonin,

AChRB: acetylcholine-gated chloride channel.

1035

Supp Fig. 12 Quantitative and spatial analysis of AChRB1 expression in the brain of *O. vulgaris*

HCRs were performed on 1-dph *O. vulgaris* head transversal sections. Representative multiplex HCR against AChRB in yellow and vacht (cholinergic cell marker) in magenta (**A**), tbh (octopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**B**), vglut (glutamatergic cell marker) in magenta (**C**) and th (dopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**D**). Representative multiplex HCR against AChRB in yellow, vglut (glutamatergic cell marker) in magenta (**C**) and th (dopaminergic cell marker) in cyan (**E**).Representative HCR expression maps of Chol, Octo, Glut, Dop and Dop/Glut cell types in the OGL (**F**), IGL (**G**) and Med (**H**) of the OL, which are positive for AChRB (orange) and negative for DopC1 (blue). The expression maps were quantified from the HCRs shown above and the results are summarised in Fig. 5 k. The orientation of all HCRs is the same. Octo: octopaminergic cell type

(tbh[+]), Chol: cholinergic cell type (vacht[+]), Dop: exclusively dopaminergic cell type (th[+]vglut[-]), Glut:

exclusively glutamatergic cell type (vglut[+]/th[-]), Dop/Glut: exclusively dopaminergic and glutamatergic cell type

(th[+]vglut[+]), Scale bar: 50 μm. vacht: vesicular acetylcholine transporter, tbh: tyramine beta hydroxylase, th:

tyrosine hydroxylase, vglut: vesicular glutamate transporter, OGL: outer granular layer, IGL: inner granular

layer, Med: medulla, A: anterior, P: posterior, M: medial, L: lateral, AChRB: acetylcholine-gated chloride

channel.

1052

1053 **Supp Fig. 13 AChRB1 expression in the central brain of *O. vulgaris* paralarvae**

1054 Representative HCR against AChRB1 in yellow and nuclei (DAPI) in blue, at a dorsal position of the brain

1055 (towards the mantle) (**A**), at a mid-brain position (**B**) and at a ventral brain position (towards the arms) (**C**). For

1056 more details on ventral/dorsal orientations of the paralarvae see Supplemental Fig. 8. Scale bars: 200μm, SEM:

1057 supraesophageal mass of the central brain, SUB: subesophageal mass of the central brain, ES: oesophagus.

1058

Supp Fig. 14 Expression analysis of anionic and cationic ACh-gated channels in dopaminergic and Dop/Glut cells

Dot plot of exclusively dopaminergic and Dop/Glut clusters from the scRNA-seq of the *O. vulgaris* paralarval brain[9], showing the expression of anionic and cationic ACh genes (**A**). The size of the dots relates to the percent of cells in that cluster that express the gene, the heat map corresponds to the average expression of the gene in all cells in the cluster.

1065

Supp Fig. 15 Additional analysis of calcium imaging on acute brain slices from _O._

vulgaris **paralarvae during application of ACh**

Calcium imaging was performed on acute brain slices from 1-dph _O. vulgaris_ paralarvae during application of

100 μM ACh and HighK$^+$. The mean intensity over time for all ROIs in each OL layer are plotted as purple

(OGL), green (IGL) and orange (Med) lines. Two different slices have been plotted (**A** and **B**). HighK$^+$: high

potassium solution, ACh: acetylcholine, OGL: outer granular layer, IGL: inner granular layer, Med: medulla.

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Supp Fig. 16 Calcium imaging methodology

Calcium imaging was performed on acute brain slices from 1-dph *O. vulgaris* paralarvae. Maximum intensity projection of a representative brain slice used for calcium imaging with manually defined ROIs for 'Neuropil' (pink) and 'Cells' (green) (**A**). Normalised mean intensity over time for all manually defined 'Neuropil' ROIs from A in grey. Mean trace is represented in pink (**B**). Normalised mean intensity over time for all manually defined 'Cell' ROIs from A in grey. Mean trace is represented in green (**C**). Mean 'Neuropil' and 'Cell' ROIs from B and C overlayed (**D**) The max slope was calculated for all manually defined 'Cell' and 'Neuropil' ROIs from five slices from five different paralarvae used for calcium imaging (**E**). The red dotted line is the mean + standard deviation of the 'Neuropil' ROI max slope. The normalised intensity of all traces from a representative slice that was exposed to 100 μM dopamine and HighK$^+$ (**F**). The traces that were categorised as 'excitation' are in green and the traces that were categorised as 'no response' are in grey. The mean trace for each group is highlighted as a thicker grey or green trace. The normalised intensity of all traces from a representative slice that was exposed to 100 μM ACh and HighK$^+$ (**G**). The traces that were categorised as 'inhibition' are in purple and the traces that were categorised as 'no response' are in grey. The mean trace for each group is highlighted as a thicker grey or green trace. A scatter plot comparing the relationship between the radius of a cell ROI (**H**) or the sharpness of the image surrounding a ROI (**I**) and the slope of excitatory dopaminergic responses. The results of a Spearman correlation test are seen as a dotted yellow line. Scale bar: 100 μm, Dopa: dopamine, ACh: acetylcholine, HighK$^+$: high potassium solution, ROI: region of interest.

Supplemental files

Supplemental file 1 – names and gene IDs for all receptors functionally characterised in this study.

Supplemental file 2 – citations for all receptors included in the phylogenetic tree which had a functional annotation.

Supplemental file 3 – protein sequence alignment for 'cys-loop' LGCs from major metazoan phyla.

Supplemental file 4 – full phylogenetic tree for 'cys-loop' LGCs from major metazoan phyla.
All receptors that have been previously functionally characterised have their ligand
highlighted in yellow.

Supplemental file 5 – list of HCR probes used in this study.

Supplemental file 6 – stl file for 3D printed cylinder used as a temporary well during calcium
imaging experiments.

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A.C., E.S., and W.R.S conceptualised the project and designed the experiments. A.C. carried

out the phylogenetic analysis. E.A. supplied the *O. vulgaris* paralarvae. A.C., I.H., and J.G.R.

performed the *Xenopus* oocyte electrophysiology experiments. R.S. and M.Las. prepared *O.*

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experiments and acquired the images. J.B. developed the HCR image analysis pipeline and

A.C. carried out the analysis and visualisation. A.C., R.S., and M.V.D. optimised and carried

out the calcium imaging experiments. A.C. and H.A.O. developed the calcium image analysis

pipeline and A.C. carried out the analysis and visualisation. A.C., E.S., and W.R.S wrote the

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Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.