## Glutamatergic Networks in the *Ciona intestinalis* Larva

TAKEO HORIE, TAKEHIRO KUSAKABE, AND MOTOYUKI TSUDA\*

Department of Life Science, Graduate School of Life Science, University of Hyogo, Hyogo 678-1297, Japan

#### ABSTRACT

Glutamate is a major neurotransmitter in the excitatory synapses of both vertebrate and invertebrate nervous systems and is involved in many neural processes including photo-, mechano-, and chemosensations, neural development, motor control, learning, and memory. We identified and characterized the gene (Ci-VGLUT) encoding a member of the vesicular glutamate transporter subfamily, a specific marker of glutamatergic neurons, in the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis.* The *Ci-VGLUT* gene is expressed in the adhesive organ, the epidermal neurons, and the brain vesicle, but not in the visceral ganglion. The Ci-VGLUT promoter and an anti-Ci-VGLUT antibody were used to analyze the distribution and axonal connections of prospective glutamatergic neurons in the C. intestinalis larva. The green fluorescent protein (GFP) reporter driven by the 4.6-kb upstream region of *Ci-VGLUT* recapitulated the endogenous gene expression patterns and visualized both the cell bodies and neurites of glutamatergic neurons. Papillar neurons of the adhesive organs, almost all epidermal neurons, the otolith cell, and ocellus photoreceptor cells were shown to be glutamatergic. Each papillar neuron connects with a rostral epidermal neuron. Axons from rostral epidermal neurons, ocellus photoreceptor cells, and neurons underlying the otolith terminate in the posterior brain vesicle. Some caudal epidermal neurons also send long axons toward the brain vesicle. The posterior brain vesicle contains a group of Ci-VGLUT-positive neurons that send axons posteriorly to the visceral ganglion. Our results suggest that glutamatergic neurotransmission plays a major role in sensory systems and in the integration of the sensory inputs of the ascidian larva. J. Comp. Neurol. 508:249-263, 2008. © 2008 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

## Indexing terms: ascidian; vesicular glutamate transporter; otolith; photoreceptor cells; sensory systems; glutamatergic neurons

The ascidian larva has a simple central nervous system (CNS) derived from the dorsal neural tube and consisting of about 330 cells, of which about 100 cells are presumed to be neurons based on the cytological appearance of the cells (Nicol and Meinertzhagen, 1991; Cole and Meinertzhagen, 2004). The expression patterns of developmental regulatory genes along the anteroposterior axis are conserved in the developing CNS between ascidians and vertebrates, suggesting that the developmental mechanisms of the CNS are conserved among chordates (Wada et al., 1998; Imai et al., 2002). Recently, the draft sequence of the ascidian genome was generated in a widely studied species, Ciona intestinalis (Dehal et al., 2002). Thus, the larval CNS of ascidians can serve as a simple model system for studying the development and function of the chordate CNS (Meinertzhagen et al., 2004).

The anterior brain vesicle (also called the sensory vesicle) of the ascidian CNS contains two sensory organs, a photoreceptor organ (ocellus) and a gravity-sensing organ (otolith), which are responsible for the swimming behavior of the larva (Tsuda et al., 2003a; Sakurai et al., 2004). The visceral ganglion is located posterior to the brain vesicle and contains motor neurons that regulate the muscle con-

Published online in Wiley InterScience (www.interscience.wiley.com).

Grant sponsor: Japan Space Forum; Grant sponsor: Japan Society for the Promotion of Science; Grant numbers: 16370075, 17310114, 18370089; Grant sponsor: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan; Grant number: 17018018; Grant sponsor: the Sumitomo Foundation; Grant sponsor: Narishige Zoological Science Award.

Present address for T. Horie: Shimoda Marine Research Center, University of Tsukuba, 5-10-1 Shimoda, Shizuoka 415-0025, Japan.

<sup>\*</sup>Correspondence to: Prof. Motoyuki Tsuda, Graduate School of Life Science, University of Hyogo, 3-2-1 Kouto, Kamigori, Ako-gun, Hyogo 678-1297, Japan. E-mail: mtsuda@sci.u-hyogo.ac.jp

Received 5 September 2006; Revised 10 October 2007; Accepted 10 January 2008

DOI 10.1002/cne.21678

traction of the tail (Okada et al., 2001; Yoshida et al., 2004). The ascidian larva also has a peripheral nervous system (PNS) consisting of an adhesive organ and epidermal neurons in the trunk and tail (Takamura, 1998). In spite of its simple organization, neuronal networks in the ascidian nervous system are poorly understood. This is mainly due to the lack of specific markers for neuronal subtypes. In an attempt to identify neuronal subtypes in the ascidian nervous system, we identified neuron-specific promoters of genes encoding vesicular transporters for GABA and glycine (Ci-VGAT) and for acetylcholine (Ci-VACHT) (Yoshida et al., 2004).

Although glutamatergic neurons have not been identified in ascidians yet, glutamate is expected to play an important role in the ascidian nervous system because it is a major neurotransmitter in the excitatory synapses of both vertebrate and invertebrate nervous systems. For example, glutamate is a neurotransmitter at neuromuscular junctions in arthropods and at specific peripheral and central synapses in arthropods and mollusks (Gerschenfeld, 1973; Walker and Roberts, 1982; Bicker et al., 1988; Horseman et al., 1988; Quinlan and Murphy, 1991; Dale and Kandel, 1993; Trudeau and Castellucci, 1993). In the vertebrate CNS, glutamate is also a major excitatory transmitter capable of exciting virtually all central neurons; its function is important for many neural processes including photo-, mechano-, and chemosensations, neural development, motor control, learning, and memory (Jahr and Lester, 1992).

Vesicular glutamate transporter (VGLUT), a glutamatergic neuron-specific protein, plays crucial roles in glutamatergic neurotransmission (Lee et al., 1999; Bellocchio et al., 2000; Takamori et al., 2000; Fremeau et al., 2004; Wojcik et al., 2004). VGLUT has been identified in mammals, Caenorhabditis elegans, Drosophila, Xenopus, and zebrafish and has been used as a marker to trace glutamatergic nerve networks (Lee et al., 1999; Bellocchio et al., 2000; Takamori et al., 2000; Fremeau et al., 2002; Gleason et al., 2003; Higashijima et al., 2004a,b; Daniels et al., 2004; Mahr and Aberle, 2006). In the present study we identified and characterized the VGLUT gene of the ascidian C. intestinalis and investigated the distribution and neuronal connections of glutamatergic neurons in the C. intestinalis larva. We attempted to visualize glutamatergic neurons by three different strategies: 1) wholemount in situ hybridization detecting *VGLUT* transcripts; 2) immunohistochemical staining of VGLUT localization; and 3) visualizing cell bodies and neurites by GFP driven by the VGLUT promoter. Our results suggest that papillar neurons, epidermal neurons, the otolith cell, and ocellus photoreceptors are glutamatergic. We also found a group of prospective glutamatergic neurons in the posterior brain vesicle. Thus, glutamatergic neurotransmission seems to play a major role in both the PNS and CNS of the ascidian larva. Our results suggest that the posterior brain vesicle serves as a processing center that integrates sensory inputs and modulates motor outputs.

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### Animals and embryos

Mature adults of *C. intestinalis* were collected from harbors in Murotsu and Aioi, Hyogo, Japan, and maintained in indoor tanks of artificial seawater (Marine Art, Senju Seiyaku, Osaka, Japan) at 18°C. Embryos and larvae were prepared as described previously (Nakagawa et al., 1999).

## Isolation and characterization of *Ci-vGLUT* cDNA

The gene encoding vesicular glutamate transporter (Ci-VGLUT) was found in the C. intestinalis genome database (Dehal et al., 2002) by TBLASTN searches using amino acid sequences of mammalian vesicular glutamate transporter as queries. A 340-bp cDNA fragment encoding a central portion of Ci-VGLUT was amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with a pair of primers (5'-GTTGCCAACTTCTGCAGAAGCT-3' and 5'-AGCCTGAAATGGCGAATCCACT-3'). To obtain the full-length coding sequence of Ci-VGLUT, cDNA fragments derived from 5' and 3' portions of Ci-VGLUT mRNA were amplified from a cDNA library of larvae using a gene-specific primer (5'-ATCACAG-CACCAGCGTAGCTG-3' for the 5' portion and 5'-AGTGGATTCGCCATTTCAGGCT-3' for the 3' portion) and a vector-specific primer by the methods previously described (Yoshida et al., 2002). The 5' end of Ci-VGLUT mRNA was further determined by the 5' RACE method using a Gene Racer kit (Invitrogen, La Jolla, CA). The nucleotide sequences of the primers used for 5' RACE were 5'-CGACCATTGCCACGCCCAGATTGC-3' (for the primary PCR) and 5'-CGCCCAGATTG-CATCGCATGCCAAAAG-3' (for the nested PCR). The cDNA fragments were cloned into a pBluescript II SK(+) vector. The cDNA clones were sequenced on both strands with an automatic DNA sequencer (DSQ 1000L, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan).

## Molecular phylogenetic analysis

The deduced amino acid sequence of Ci-VGLUT was aligned with amino acid sequences of solute carrier 17 (SLC17), SLC18, and SLC37 family proteins from various animals using the ClustalW program (Thompson et al., 1994). Sites with gaps were excluded from the analysis. Neighbor-joining (NJ) trees were constructed using the ClustalW program. Maximum-likelihood (ML) trees were reconstructed by the quartet puzzling algorithm using the TREE-PUZZLE program (Strimmer and von Haeseler, 1996). The reliability value for each internal branch indicates in percent how often the corresponding cluster was found among the 1,000 intermediate trees. Sequences used were: Homo sapiens VGLUT1 NP\_064705, H. sapiens VGLUT2 NP\_065079, H. sapiens VGLUT3 NP\_647480, Xenopus laevis VGLUT1 AAQ12345, Danio rerio VGLUT2.1 BAD67437, D. rerio VGLUT2.2 BAD67438, Drosophila melanogaster VGLUT NP\_608681, C. elegans EAT-4 AAC64972, H. sapiens SLC17A1 (NPT1) NP 005065, H. sapiens SLC17A2 (NPT3) NP\_005826, H. sapiens SLC17A3 (NPT4) NP\_006623, H. sapiens SLC17A4 NP\_005486, H. sapiens SLC17A5 (sialin) NP\_036566, H. sapiens SLC18A1 (VMAT1) NP\_003044, H. sapiens SLC18A2 (VMAT2) NP\_003045, H. sapiens SLC18A3 (VACHT) NP\_003046, H. sapiens SLC37A1 NP\_061837, H. sapiens SLC37A4 NP\_001458.

#### In situ hybridization

We used a 1.0-kb cDNA encoding C-terminal portion of Ci-VGLUT as the template to synthesize a digoxigenin-

labeled antisense RNA probe using a DIG RNA labeling kit (Roche, Japan). In situ hybridization of whole-mount specimens was carried out as described in Kusakabe et al. (2001).

# Antibody generation and immunohistochemistry

Complementary DNA fragments encoding the carboxylterminal region of Ci-VGLUT (Q535-E656) were amplified by PCR using a pair of primers, 5'-GAagaTctCCAGG-AAGAAGTTGGT-3' and 5'-CTaAgCTTCCCTTACTCC-TTG-3' (the lowercase letters in the primer sequences indicate mismatched nucleotides introduced to generate restriction sites), and cloned into the pQE40 vector (Qiagen, Germany). The construct was introduced into the *E. coli* strain XL1-Blue (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). The carboxyl terminal regions were expressed as a fusion protein with dihydrofolate reductase and a histidine tag and then were used to immunize mice. The preparation of the antiserum was performed as described previously (Tsuda et al., 2003b).

Ciona larvae were fixed with 10% formalin in artificial seawater for 3 hours at 4°C. Fixed specimens were subjected to whole-mount immunostaining as previously described (Tsuda et al., 2003b). The anti-Ci-VGLUT antiserum was diluted 1:1,000 in 10% goat serum in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing 0.1% Triton X-100 (TPBS) and used as the primary antibody. For the negative control, the anti-Ci-VGLUT antiserum diluted 1:1,000 in TPBS was preabsorbed with 5  $\mu$ g/mL of the antigen at 4°C for 12 hours before the primary antibody reaction. As the secondary antibody, an Alexa 488-conjugated antimouse IgG goat antibody (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) was used. The stained specimens were mounted in 50% glycerol and observed under a confocal microscope (LSM 510, Carl Zeiss, Germany).

### Labeling prospective glutamatergic neurons with GFP

We determined the genomic organization of Ci-VGLUT by comparing the full-length cDNA sequences with wholegenome sequences in the NIG/Kyoto C. intestinalis Genome Project Database (http://ghost.zool.kyoto-u.ac.jp/ indexr1.html) and the JGI Ciona Genome Project Database (Dehal et al., 2002; http://www.jgi.doe.gov/ ciona). The 5' flanking sequences of Ci-VGLUT obtained from the Genome Databases were used to design genespecific primers. Genomic DNA fragments containing a 4.7-kb upstream region of Ci-VGLUT were amplified from sperm DNA by PCR using a thermostable DNA polymerase (LA Taq, Takara BIO, Japan) and a pair of gene-specific oligonucleotide primers 5'-gatcgtcgacCCG-GTATGTCCACAGCATTC-3' and 5'-gtcAggAtccCACTT-GTTGTTACTGCATAA-3 (the lowercase letters in the primer sequences indicate mismatched nucleotides introduced to generate restriction sites). The amplified upstream regions were inserted into the SalI/BamHI sites of pBluescript-EGFP (Yoshida et al., 2004).

The promoter-GFP fusion construct was electroporated into fertilized eggs of *C. intestinalis* as described by Corbo et al. (1997). Fluorescence was observed with the fluorescent microscopes SZX12-RFL3 (Olympus, Japan) and Axioplan 2 (Zeiss) or the confocal microscope LSM 510 (Zeiss). After the specimens were fixed with 10% formalin in artificial seawater, GFP localization was visualized by whole-mount immunofluorescent staining with a rat anti-GFP monoclonal antibody (GF090R, Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan), which had been raised against full-length GFP with a histidine-tag at the N-terminal end, and an Alexa 488-conjugated secondary antibody (Molecular Probes). The specificity of immunostaining with the anti-GFP has been demonstrated by the absence of GFPimmunoreactivity in larvae electroporated with GFP constructs containing inactivated promoters (Kusakabe et al., 2004). For double labeling, C. intestinalis arrestin Ci-Arr (Nakagawa et al., 2002) was detected with an anti-Ci-Arr primary antibody and an Alexa 546-conjugated secondary antibody (Molecular Probes) as described previously (Tsuda et al., 2003b). Preparation of the anti-Ci-Arr was describe previously (Tsuda et al., 2003b). The C-terminal peptide (D358-A418) of Ci-Arr conjugated with histidinetagged dihydrofolate reductase was expressed from the pQE40 vector in *E. coli* and used as an antigen to immunize Balb/c mice. The specificity of anti-Ci-Arr antiserum was confirmed by Western blotting with a preabsorption negative control as described previously (Horie et al., 2005).

## Photomicrograph production and processing

Confocal images of immunofluorescent staining were analyzed with the Zeiss LMS image software. Microphotographs of in situ hybridization specimens (Figs. 3, 8C) and control immunofluorescent staining (Fig. 4D,E) were obtained via analysis using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope and a digital CCD camera VB-7010 (Keyence, Osaka, Japan). Image processing was performed using Adobe Photoshop CS2 (Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA) as follows: microphotographs were assembled for Figures 4A–C, 5B, 7A,B, 8A,B and merged for Figure 6H; the contrast and brightness of photographs used in Figure 4D,E were so adjusted that the outline of larvae was easily recognized.

#### RESULTS

#### Identification and characterization of the *C. intestinalis VGLUT* Gene

We found a gene (Ci-VGLUT) encoding a protein similar to mammalian VGLUT in the C. intestinalis genome. The *Ci-VGLUT* gene corresponds to the annotated *Ciona* gene (Gene Model) ci0100152655. The prediction of the gene was partial in the genome database, and no EST/cDNA clones of Ci-VGLUT have been found in the cDNA project (Satou et al., 2002). We obtained Ci-VGLUT cDNA clones from a larval stage cDNA library and determined the full-length cDNA sequence. The genomic organization of the Ci-VGLUT gene was determined by comparing the genome sequence obtained from the JGI genome database with the full-length cDNA sequence. Ci-VGLUT consists of 13 exons (Fig. 5). The 5' end of the Ci-VGLUT cDNA has a spliced leader sequence (5'-ATTCTATTTGAATAAG-3'), which is identical to that found in the C. intestinalis troponin I gene (Vandenberghe et al., 2001). The Ci-VGLUT cDNA encodes a protein of 663 amino acids (Fig. 1). The deduced amino acid sequence of Ci-VGLUT shows a high degree of amino acid similarity to mammalian VGLUT; the overall amino acid identity and similarity of human VGLUT to Ci-VGLUT are 54% and 71%, respectively (Fig. 1). All known vertebrate and invertebrate VGLUTs belong to the solute carrier 17 (SLC17) family

CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	MSNNKADVGFATASHDLLRTIQNGFRSVLYRFTGIGNPPYQEQTLDRNSTLNEISRNSQE MEFRQEEFRKLAGRALGKLHRLLEKRQEGAETLELSADGR- TM1	60 40
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	HGEDHFEEDVPQTNNKWMWYAMOLWLPKRYMMAFLSGFGFCITFGMRCNLGVAMVEMANN PVTTQTRDPPVVDCTCFGLPRRYIIAIMSGLGFCISFGIRCNLGVAIVSMVNN <i>TM2</i>	120 93
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	YTETLENGTKVIMPPDLSWSSEKQGFIHGSFFWGYIITQVPGGYLASRLRANRVFGVAIL -STTHRGGHVVVQKAQFSWDPETVGLIHGSFFWGYIVTQIPGGFICQKFAANRVFGFAIV HH GAH	180 152
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	CTCLLNMFLPAAAKAHWVVFVIVRVMQGLAEGVLYPSCHGIWSKWAPPLERSRLATISFS ATSTLNMLIPSAARVHYGCVIFVRILOGLVEGVTYPACHGIWSKWAPPLERSRLATTAFC TM3 TM4	240 212
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	GSYAGAVIGMPIGGMLVEYAGWPSVFYVFGSCGIAWFFLWTFTSYDSPASHPHIRRSERI GSYAGAVVAMPLAGVLVQYSGWSSVFYVYGSFGIFWYLFWLLVSYESPALHPSISEEERK <i>TM5</i>	300 272
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	YIEESIGKSDCATIPMVRTLFNTLGTPWKKFLTSLPVWAIIVANFCRSWTFYLLIISQPA YIEDAIGESAKLMNPLTKFSTPWRRFFTSMPVYAIIVANFCRSWTFYLLLISQPA TM6 TM7	360 327
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	YFEQVLKYDISQLGFLAAVPHLVMTIIVPFGGVLADFLRKKEILSTTNVRKVMNCGGFGM YFEEVFGFEISKVGLVSALPHLVMTIIVPIGGQIADFLRSRRIMSTTNVRKLMNCGGFGM <i>TM8</i>	420 387
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	EALFLLILACSHGHTASVVCLVFAVGFSGFAISGFNVNHLDIAPRYASILMGLSNGAGTL EATLLLVVGYSHSKGVAISFLVLAVGFSGFAISGFNVNHLDIAPRYASILMGISNGVGTL TM9 TM10	480 447
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	SGMICPLLVSYITRTKTEEDWKVVFVIASCIHFSGVIFYAFFASGERQPWADPPQEEVGI SGMVCPIIVGAMTKHKTREEWQYVFLIASLVHYGGVIFYGVFASGEKOPWAEPEEM	540 503
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	LDGENFAASPSMTSFRRRSGMSRGSSSSDSMFGEGPDDLYVKKLTNGVYNPSFEGGPRSK SE-EK-CGFVGHDQLAGSD	600 520
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	RFSTAGEEEDQQMTEAQMKRTMYVTSKLTSDGPPYDVVTETVQQPAVDELFQGVREDEKY DSEMEDEAEPPGAPPAPPESYGATHSTF0PPRPPPPV	660 557
CiVGLUT HsVGLUT1	YKH RDY	663 560

Fig. 1. Comparison of amino acid sequences of *Ciona intestinalis* VGLUT-like protein (Ci-VGLUT) and human VGLUT1. The predicted protein sequence of Ci-VGLUT was aligned with the amino acid sequence of human VGLUT1 using the ClustalW program. The numbers in the right column correspond to amino acid positions. White letters in a dark gray box indicate the positions where both proteins exhibit the same amino acid. Letters highlighted by a light gray box indicate the positions where *Ciona* and human proteins have similar amino acids. Dashes indicate gaps introduced in the sequence to optimize the alignment. Solid lines indicate predicted transmembrane

domains (TM1–TM10). Dashed lines indicate a potential hydrophobic helix (HH) and a potential GxxxG motif and Amphipathic Helix (GAH). Transmembrane domains, HH, and GAH are predicted based on the membrane topology model of VGLUT proposed by Fei et al. (2007). An asterisk denotes a potential glycosylation site conserved among vertebrate and invertebrate VGLUTs. Two polyproline motifs (PPAPPP, PPRPPPP) and two conserved motifs (SEEK, SYGAT) in the cytoplasmic C-terminus of human VGLUT1 are indicated by open boxes.

and they are distantly related to other SLC families, such as SLC18 and SLC37 (Hediger et al., 2004; Eraly et al., 2004). Among these SLC proteins, Ci-VGLUT is the most closely related to vertebrate VGLUTs, as revealed by the molecular phylogenetic tree inferred by the maximumlikelihood method (Fig. 2). Molecular phylogenetic analysis by the neighbor-joining method gave essentially the same result (data not shown). Other SLC17 proteins and protostome VGLUTs are more distantly related. The position of Ci-VGLUT is basal to all members of the vertebrate VGLUT, and only one VGLUT-like gene was found in the *Ciona* genome. The position of Ci-VGLUT in the



Fig. 2. Molecular phylogenetic trees of the VGLUT family and related transporters. Phylogenetic trees were inferred from amino acid sequences using the maximum likelihood method. Scale bar = 0.2 amino acid replacements per site. Numbers at nodes indicate the quartet puzzling reliability values.

molecular phylogenetic trees, as nested within a clade consisting solely of vertebrate and invertebrate VGLUTs, suggests that it has a physiological function similar to known VGLUT proteins. It should be noted, however, that the nature of the compounds transported by Ci-VGLUT has yet to be determined by biochemical studies. The nucleotide sequence of *Ci-VGLUT* cDNA has been deposited in the DDBJ, EMBL, and GenBank Nucleotide Databases under the accession number AB362939.

In mammalian VGLUTs several sequence motifs have been implicated as functionally important. For example, the cytoplasmic C-terminus of mammalian VGLUT1 contains two polyproline motifs (PPAPPP and PPRPPPP), the latter of which has been shown to be required for specific interaction with endophilins 1 and 3, synaptic vesicle proteins colocalized with VGLUT1 in glutamatergic synapses (De Gois et al., 2006). Two other motifs (SEE/DK, SYGAT) are conserved in the C-terminus of mammalian VGLUTs; SEE/DK is conserved across the three isoforms of vertebrate VGLUT (VGLUT1, VGLUT2, and VGLUT3), while SYGAT is found not only in vertebrate VGLUTs but also in Drosophila and C. elegans VGLUTs (Lee et al., 1999; Daniels et al., 2004). Interestingly, none of these motifs are present in the corresponding regions of Ci-VGLUT (Fig. 1). In mammalian VGLUTs, two possible N-glycosylation sites are predicted in the region between the transmembrane domains (TM) 1 and 2 (Fremeau et al., 2002; Schafer et al., 2002). One of the N-glycosylation sites is also conserved in Ci-VGLUT (Fig. 1).

# *Ci-VGLUT* is specifically expressed in central and peripheral neurons of the larva

Spatial expression patterns of Ci-VGLUT were examined in embryos and larvae by whole-mount in situ hybridization (Fig. 3). At the mid-tailbud stage, Ci-VGLUT is expressed in particular cells in the anterior trunk epidermis (arrowheads in Fig. 3A) and in the central nervous system (white arrow in Fig. 3A); these cells are presumably precursors of anterior epidermal neurons and neurons in the brain vesicle, respectively. Ci-VGLUT expression was also found in a few cells on the dorsal and ventral



Fig. 3. Spatial expression patterns of *Ci-GLUT* visualized by whole-mount in situ hybridization. A: A mid-tailbud embryo. Arrowheads indicate cells expressing *Ci-VGLUT* in anterior trunk epidermis. A white arrow indicates *Ci-VGLUT* expression in the developing brain vesicle. Black arrows indicate prospective caudal epidermal neuron precursors. **B**,**C**: A tadpole larva. ATEN, apical trunk epidermal neuron; bv, brain vesicle; DCEN, dorsocaudal epidermal neuron; oc, ocellus; ot, otolith; PN, papillar neuron; RTEN, rostral epidermal neuron; VCEN, ventrocaudal epidermal neuron. Scale bar = 100  $\mu$ m.

midlines of the posterior half of the tail (black arrows in Fig. 3A). In tadpole larvae, Ci-VGLUT is expressed in almost all peripheral epidermal neurons, including papillar neurons of the adhesive organ, rostral trunk epidermal neurons (RTEN), apical trunk epidermal neurons (ATEN), dorsocaudal epidermal neurons (DCEN), and ventrocaudal epidermal neurons (VCEN) (Fig. 3B,C). In the CNS of the larva, the *Ci*-*VGLUT* expression is restricted to cells in the brain vesicle; it is especially evident in a group of cells in the posterior half of the brain vesicle (white arrow in Fig 3C). At both the tailbud and larval stages, *Ci*-*VGLUT* expression was not observed in nonneural tissues.

# Distribution of glutamatergic axons and nerve terminals in the larva

Axons and synaptic terminals of prospective glutamatergic neurons were visualized in *C. intestinalis* larvae by immunohistochemical staining of Ci-VGLUT (Fig. 4). A

#### T. HORIE ET AL.







Fig. 4. Distribution of Ci-VGLUT-immunoreactive axons and nerve terminals in *C. intestinalis* larvae. Prospective glutamatergic axons and nerve terminals were visualized by immunofluorescent staining with an anti-Ci-VGLUT antibody. **A:** A whole tadpole larva. **B:** Right lateral view of the trunk of a larva. **C:** Left lateral view of the trunk of a larva. **D,E:** Control immunostaining showing specificity of the anti-Ci-VGLUT antibody. D: Left lateral view of a whole larva incubated with the anti-Ci-VGLUT antibody. E: Left lateral view of a whole larva incubated with preabsorbed antibody (negative control).

polyclonal antiserum against a carboxy-terminal portion of Ci-VGLUT specifically recognized nerve tracts in both the PNS and CNS of the larva. Nerve tracts running beneath the tail epidermis of the dorsal and ventral midlines were stained (black arrowheads in Fig. 4A). Conspicuous staining was found in the posterior brain vesicle, suggesting that there are a large number of glutamatergic synapses at this site. Some of these nerve terminals seem to derive from axons coming from rostral epidermal neurons (white arrowheads in Fig. 4B,C). Others are likely to be axon terminals of neurons in the brain vesicle, including photoreceptor cells. Ci-VGLUT-positive nerve tracts were also found in the whole length of the visceral ganglion (black arrows in Fig. 4B,C). Another prospective glutamatergic nerve tract runs dorsal to the visceral ganglion along the midline of the posterior half of the trunk, and this extends to the anterodorsal part of the tail (white arrows in Fig. 4B,C). Papillar neurons were also stained with anti-Ci-VGLUT.

## Identification of glutamatergic neurons by the *Ci-VGLUT* promoter-GFP fusion construct

Immunohistochemical staining of Ci-VGLUT failed to visualize the cell bodies of neurons. To visualize both cell

White arrowheads indicate afferent axon bundles from rostral trunk epidermal neurons. Black arrowheads indicate axons of caudal epidermal neurons. White arrows indicate axons of posterior apical trunk epidermal neurons. Conspicuous staining of Ci-VGLUT-immunoreactive axons and nerve terminals were observed in the posterior brain vesicle (asterisks). Glutamatergic axons were also found along the anteroposterior axis of the visceral ganglion (black arrows). bv, brain vesicle; oc, ocellus; ot, otolith; PN, papillar neurons; vg, visceral ganglion. Scale bars = 100  $\mu$ m.

bodies and neurites of glutamatergic neurons, we introduced a GFP reporter gene (EGFP) driven by the Ci-VGLUT promoter into Ciona fertilized eggs by electroporation, and GFP localization was detected in the larvae. The promoter-reporter fusion construct, pCi-VGLUT-EGFP, was made by connecting the 5' flanking region, including 5' exons and introns down to the 3' end of intron II of *Ci*-VGLUT with a GFP coding sequence in a plasmid vector (Fig. 5A). The size of the upstream region included in pCi-VGLUT-EGFP was 4603 bp. Ciona larvae that were developed from fertilized eggs electroporated with pCi-VGLUT-EGFP showed the reporter gene expression in a pattern quite similar to that of the endogenous Ci-VGLUT gene (Fig. 5B). GFP expression in these cells was observed in 55% of the electroporated larvae (136 out of 245 larvae). No ectopic expression was observed. Thus, the 4.6-kb upstream region contained in pCi-VGLUT-EGFP is sufficient to recapitulate the expression of the endogenous Ci-VGLUT gene.

Because the expression of *GFP* introduced by electroporation in ascidian larvae is often 'mosaic,' we could stochastically label cell bodies and axons of different prospective glutamatergic neurons in pCi-VGLUT-EGFP-electroporated larvae. We shall describe below the



Fig. 5. Recapitulation of the endogenous gene expression patterns by the 4.6-kb upstream regulatory region of the Ci-VGLUT gene. A: Genomic organization of the Ci-VGLUT gene and structure of the promoter-GFP fusion construct pCi-VGLUT-EGFP. Arrows indicate the location and orientation of predicted genes. The exons are indicated by open boxes (noncoding regions) and solid boxes (coding regions). The numbers in parentheses below the diagram indicate the sizes of the exons and introns. **B**: An example of GFP expression in a C. intestinalis larva that developed from a fertilized egg electroporated with pCi-VGLUT-EGFP. Localization of GFP was visualized by

positions and axonal trajectories for different populations of prospective glutamatergic neurons.

**Papillar neurons.** In *C. intestinalis* the adhesive organ contains six papillar neurons (Takamura, 1998). The papillar neurons are labeled with GFP and are therefore likely to be glutamatergic (Figs. 5, 6). Each of these neurons extends axons posteriorly and connects with one of the RTENs (Fig. 6A,B).

**Trunk epidermal neurons.** Both RTENs and ATENs are labeled with GFP (Figs. 5, 6). RTENs, which receive axonal input from papillar neurons, send a neurite into the brain vesicle (Fig. 6C–F). This neurite is presumed to be an axon because the corresponding region is clearly stained with the anti-Ci-VGLUT, as shown in Figure 4. The neurite terminates at the posterior brain vesicle, where glutamatergic inputs from the otolith and ocellus

immunofluorescent staining with an anti-GFP antibody. GFP localization was observed in the cell bodies of neurons located at the sites where the endogenous gene expression was observed by in situ hybridization. In neurons expressing *GFP*, axons were also labeled. An asterisk indicates a GFP-positive cell at the tip of the tail. ATENa, anterior apical trunk epidermal neuron; ATENp, posterior apical trunk epidermal neuron; DCEN, dorsocaudal epidermal neuron; oc, occllus; ot, otolith; PN, papillar neuron; RTEN, rostoral trunk epidermal neuron; VCEN, ventrocaudal epidermal neuron. Scale bar = 100  $\mu$ m.

seem to occur (see below). In addition to the ATENs identified by Takamura (1998), a pair of two epidermal neurons is bilaterally located at the apical region of the trunk. These four neurons are located anterior to the previously identified ATEN and dorsal to the sensory pigment cells (Figs. 5, 6A). Therefore, we designated the newly identified neurons as anterior apical epidermal neurons (AT-ENa) and the previously identified ATENs as posterior apical epidermal neurons (ATENp). The neurites of AT-ENa extend posteriorly and end at the dorsolateral surface of the trunk (Fig. 7). The neurite of ATENp extends posteriorly and terminates at the anterior dorsal part of the tail; it seems to connect to the DCENs (Figs. 5B, 8B). Because the nerve tract between ATENp and DCENs were stained with anti-Ci-VGLUT (Fig. 4), it is likely to be axons of ATENp. The number and positions of RTENs and

The Journal of Comparative Neurology

## T. HORIE ET AL.



Figure 6

ATENs expressing Ci-VGLUT seemed to be consistent with those reported by Takamura (1998), except for AT-ENa, which were not reported in his article.

Caudal epidermal neurons. Caudal epidermal neurons seem to be glutamatergic (Fig. 5B). Their axons run along the dorsal and ventral midlines of the tail (Fig. 4). The axon of a DCEN located at the position about onethird of the tail length from the posterior tip runs a deeper path along the nerve cord and enters the posterior brain vesicle (Fig. 8). Another Ci-VGLUT-GFP-positive cell was often found at the tip of the tail (an asterisk in Figs. 5B, 8B). A Ci-VGLUT expressing cell was also found in this site by in situ hybridization, and an axon-like structure of this type of cell was observed in some specimens (Fig. 8C,D). Recently, Pasini et al. (2006) reported that caudal epidermal sensory neurons in C. intestinalis larvae are always found as pairs. Consistently, Ci-VGLUT-positive DCENs and VCENs are present as pairs; each pair consists of two cells adjacent to each other on dorsal or ventral midline of the tail (data not shown). Because two cells comprising a single pair are adjacent to each other, in situ hybridization signals of the two cells are not seen as two separate dots in the photograph shown in Figure 8C. The number of Ci-VGLUT-positive DCEN and VCEN pairs estimated by in situ hybridization varies among individuals: 7 to 20 pairs with an average of 15 pairs in total, n = 12 larvae analyzed. This is also consistent with the number of caudal epidermal sensory neurons reported by Pasini et al. (2006).

**Ocellus.** Photoreceptor cells were visualized with an antibody against *Ciona* arrestin Ci-arr (Nakagawa et al., 2002; Tsuda et al., 2003b). Photoreceptor cells are labeled with Ci-VGLUT-GFP, as clearly shown by double staining with Ci-arr (Fig. 6H). Axons of these cells project to the posterior brain vesicle. This suggests that some of the photoreceptor cells are glutamatergic like vertebrate retinal photoreceptor cells. As shown in Figure 6H, GFP signal was frequently observed in anterior population of

photoreceptor cells while photoreceptor cells in posterior region of the ocellus were not labeled. Therefore, some photoreceptor cells might use neurotransmitters other than glutamate.

**Otolith.** The otolith cell is labeled with Ci-VGLUT-GFP (Figs. 5B, 6A). Its axon seems to connect to another prospective glutamatergic neuron(s) that resides ventral to the otolith. This secondary neuron(s) sends an axon to the posterior brain vesicle where photoreceptor nerve terminals are also located (Fig. 6D).

Other neurons in the brain vesicle. A group of cells located at the posterior part of the brain vesicle seem to be glutamatergic. These cells send neurites posteriorly to the visceral ganglion (Fig. 6E,F). These neurites seem to be axons because Ci-VGLUT-immunoreactivity was observed in a similar pattern (Fig. 4).

*Visceral ganglion.* We did not find any *Ci-VGLUT-GFP* expression in the visceral ganglion.

### DISCUSSION

## Ciona VGLUT ortholog and diversity of the VGLUT family in chordates

The present study identified *Ci-VGLUT*, an ortholog of the vertebrate VGLUTs in C. intestinalis. The whole genome analysis indicates that the Ciona genome contains only one VGLUT family gene. Molecular phylogenetic analysis strongly suggest that Ci-VGLUT is a vesicular glutamate transporter. In mammals, there are three VGLUT isoforms, VGLUT1, VGLUT2, and VGLUT3, each encoded by a different gene. Similarly, the zebrafish genome contains at least one VGLUT1 ortholog and two VGLUT2 orthologs (Higashijima et al., 2004a). The molecular phylogeny indicates that Ci-VGLUT is more closely related to vertebrate VGLUTs than C. elegans and Drosophila VGLUTs. The position of Ci-VGLUT is basal to all members of the vertebrate VGLUT family. Therefore, three subtypes of vertebrate VGLUTs are most likely to have appeared by means of gene duplications after the divergence between tunicates and vertebrates.

Sequence comparison with VGLUTs from other animals revealed both conserved and divergent features of Ci-VGLUT. The primary structure of the core region from TM1 to 10 is highly conserved not only in transmembrane regions but also in luminal and cytoplasmic loops, a potential hydrophobic helix (HH), and a potential GxxxG motif and Amphipathic Helix (GAH) (Fei et al., 2007). An N-glycosylation site between TM1 and 2 is conserved among all known VGLUTs, including those of *Ciona*, vertebrates, *Drosophila*, and *C. elegans*. These conserved features of the core region of Ci-VGLUT suggest conserved function of the protein, presumably as a vesicular glutamate transporter. Contrary to the highly conserved core region, the primary sequence of N-terminus is only moderately conserved and that of C-terminus is poorly conserved between Ci-VGLUT and VGLUTs of other organisms. The N- and C-terminal tails of VGLUTs are thought to face the cytoplasm and to contribute to functional differences and/or differential targeting to synaptic vesicles among isoforms via protein-protein interaction (Takamori, 2006; De Gois et al., 2006). One of the two polyproline motifs found in the C-terminus of mammalian VGLUT1 is required for binding specificity to endophilin 1 and endophilin 3,

Fig. 6. Morphology of prospective glutamatergic neurons in the trunk of C. intestinalis larvae. Prospective glutamatergic neurons were visualized by immunofluorescent staining of GFP in pCi-VGLUT-EGFP-transfected larvae. A: A combined confocal microscope image of 46 optical sections (each 0.9 µm in depth) of the trunk of a larva. B-D: Confocal microscope images at different depths of the same series of optical sections as shown in A. In B (a combined image of optical sections #8-10) the axonal pathway from a papillar neuron connecting to one of the rostral trunk epidermal neurons is indicated by arrowheads. In C (a combined image of optical sections #23-46), afferent axons from rostral trunk epidermal neurons are indicated by white arrows. In D, nerve terminals from both rostral trunk epidermal neurons (white arrow) and otolith-associated neurons (yellow arrow) can be seen in one optical section (optical section #25). **E-G:** Examples of peripheral and central prospective glutamatergic neurons in the trunk region. White arrows indicate an axon of a rostral trunk epidermal neuron projecting to the posterior brain vesicle. A group of prospective glutamatergic neurons located in the posterior brain vesicle sends axons posteriorly to the visceral ganglion (yellow arrowheads). An axon from a caudal epidermal neuron runs along the visceral ganglion and projects onto the posterior brain vesicle (white arrowheads in E). A group of prospective glutamatergic neurons adjacent to the sensory pigment cells sends axons to the posterior brain vesicle (yellow arrow in G). H: Double immunofluorescent staining of GFP (green) with a photoreceptor-specific marker, arrestin (magenta). Some of the photoreceptor cells (PRC) express Ci-VGLUT-GFP (yellow arrows). Scale bars = 50  $\mu$ m.



Fig. 7. Morphology of anterior apical trunk epidermal neurons (ATENa). A bilaterally aligned pair of two epidermal neurons is located dorsal to the sensory pigment cells. These cells are different from and located anterior to the previously identified apical trunk epidermal neurons (ATENp) (Takamura, 1998). **A,B:** Two examples of pCi-VGLUT-EGFP-transfected larvae that express GFP in ATENa. **C,D:** Confocal images at different depths of the same specimen as

shown in B. Although the axon terminal of ATENa appears to occur close to or within the posterior sensory vesicle in the combined confocal image (B), the optical sections indicate that the axon actually ends at the dorsolateral surface of the trunk (C). Note that the axon terminal of ATENa is not seen in optical sections in which prospective glutamatergic neurons at the posterior brain vesicle are clearly seen (D). oc, ocellus; ot, otolith. Scale bars = 50  $\mu$ m.

proteins considered to play an integral role in glutamatergic vesicle formation (De Gois et al., 2006). The C-terminus of Ci-VGLUT lacks polyproline motifs, suggesting functional regulation of Ci-VGLUT is different from that of mammalian VGLUT1. Because polyproline motifs are also not found in mammalian VGLUT2 and VGLUT3 as well as in nonmammalian VGLUT5, association with endophilins 1 and 3 may be a recently acquired regulatory mechanism for VGLUT1-mediated glutamatergic transmission in mammals. Lack of the highly conserved SEE/DK and SYGAT motifs in the C-terminus of Ci-VGLUT may indicate its unique function or regulation, which remains to be elucidated in future studies.



Fig. 8. Afferent axon of a dorsocaudal epidermal neuron. **A,B:** Two examples of pCi-VGLUT-EGFP-transfected larvae that express GFP in DCEN. The axon from a dorsocaudal epidermal neuron runs anteriorly along the nerve cord and visceral ganglion and ends at the posterior brain vesicle (arrowheads). Arrows in A indicate the axon of a posterior apical trunk epidermal neuron. Asterisks indicate a cell

expressing *Ci-VGLUT-GFP* at the tip of the tail. An arrow in B indicates an axon-like protrusion of the GFP-positive cell at the tip of the tail. **C:** A larva showing *Ci-VGLUT* expression at the tip of the tail (asterisk) visualized by whole-mount in situ hybridization. ATENp, posterior apical trunk epidermal neuron; DCEN, dorsocaudal epidermal neuron. Scale bars = 100  $\mu$ m.

## **Ci-VGLUT** as a glutamatergic neuron marker

VGLUTs have been used as a reliable marker for glutamatergic neurons in *C. elegans* (Lee et al., 1999), *Drosophila* (Mahr and Aberle, 2006), zebrafish (Higashijima et al., 2004a,b), *Xenopus* (Gleason et al., 2003), and mammals (Fremeau et al., 2004; Hajszan et al., 2004; Moutsimilli et al., 2005; Nakamura et al., 2005). In the present study we used Ci-VGLUT as a specific marker for prospective glutamatergic neurons in three different ways: in situ hybridization, immunohistochemistry, and promoter-*GFP* transgenics. All the techniques consistently visualized particular populations of neurons in both the central and peripheral nervous systems. In situ hybridization of *Ci*-*VGLUT* visualizes cell bodies, while immunofluorescent staining with anti-Ci-VGLUT visualizes axons, especially their synaptic terminals. Expression of the *GFP* transgene driven by the 4.6-kb upstream region of *Ci-VGLUT* can recapitulate the endogenous *Ci-VGLUT* expression. The GFP localization labels both cell bodies and whole axons so that we can determine the axonal trajectory of each neuron. Thus, the combinatorial usage of the imaging protein, mRNA, or promoter activity of Ci-VGLUT provides conclusive clues to the distribution of glutamatergic neuronal elements in the *C. intestinalis* larva (Fig. 9).

## Prospective glutamatergic neurons in the peripheral nervous system

Our results suggest that most of the peripheral neurons are glutamatergic in the ascidian larva. Although the functions of the PNS of ascidian larvae are poorly understood, morphological studies have suggested that most of the peripheral neurons are sensory (Torrence and Cloney,



Fig. 9. Summary of Ci-VGLUT-positive neurons identified in this study. Cell bodies of Ci-VGLUT-positive peripheral neurons are indicated in yellow ellipses. Populations of Ci-VGLUT-positive neurons in the brain vesicle are indicated in purple. Purple gradient of the ocellus indicates the possibility that some of the photoreceptor cells are not glutamatergic (Horie et al., unpubl. data). A: Prospective glutamatergic networks in the *C. intestinalis* larva. Axon pathways from periph-

1982, 1983; Crowther and Whittaker, 1994; Takamura, 1998).

The ciliated caudal epidermal neurons are thought to be mechanoreceptors (Torrence and Cloney, 1982; Crowther and Whittaker, 1994). Previous studies have reported that axons of the caudal epidermal neurons extend anteriorly to the CNS (Torrence and Cloney, 1982; Takamura, 1998; Ohtsuka et al., 2001). In the present analysis, we showed by using GFP reporter under the control of the *Ci-VGLUT* promoter that the caudal epidermal neurons send axons directly into the posterior brain vesicle, where they seem to form synapses. Thus, the posterior brain vesicle may receive sensory inputs from the caudal epidermal neurons. We also found that some of the caudal epidermal neurons send axons posteriorly; the neuronal connections of these axon are not clear but they run along the midline of the

eral neurons are indicated by green lines and those from central neurons are indicated by orange-red lines. **B:** Axon pathways from papillar neurons and trunk epidermal neurons. ATENa, anterior apical trunk epidermal neuron; ATENp, posterior apical trunk epidermal neuron; DCEN, dorsocaudal epidermal neuron; oc, ocellus; ot, otolith; PN, papillar neuron; RTEN, rostral epidermal neuron; VCEN, ventrocaudal epidermal neuron.

tail and may connect with other caudal epidermal neurons.

Based on behavioral and electron microscopic observations, Torrence and Cloney (1983) proposed that the adhesive organ of ascidian larvae has both mechanosensory and chemosensory functions. The papillae of the adhesive organ of the ascidian *Diplosoma macdonaldi* larva contain two types of sensory neurons: the anchor cells and basal cells (Torrence and Cloney, 1983). The basal sensory cells resemble the caudal sensory neurons; they are primary neurons whose presumptive sensory ending is a long cilium that arises from a deep apical pocket. Although the morphological and functional properties of papillar neurons are not fully elucidated in *Ciona*, the Ci-VGLUTpositive papillar neurons may have characteristics similar to those of the basal sensory cells of *Diplosoma*. Axons of

260

the papillar neurons extend posteriorly and seem to connect with the rostral trunk epidermal neurons, which are also Ci-VGLUT-positive. The rostral epidermal neurons then in turn send axons into the posterior brain vesicle. Therefore, sensory inputs from the adhesive papillae are also likely to be received by the posterior brain vesicle.

The apical epidermal neurons (ATENa and ATENp) are also Ci-VGLUT-positive, but their axons do not enter the brain vesicle. The putative axon of ATENp extends to the anterior dorsal region of the tail. It seems to constitute a continuous network with DCENs. The axons of ATENa terminate at the lateral surface of the trunk. There has been no report on the nervous or sensory structures in this region, and therefore the synaptic target of ATENa is unknown.

Very recently, while the earlier version of this article was under review, Imai and Meinertzhagen (2007) reported detailed morphology of neurons and axonpathways in the peripheral nervous system of the C. intestinalis larva. There are some important differences between the present observations and their results. They reported that neurons in the adhesive papillae caudally project axons toward the brain vesicle, while our results suggest that Ci-VGLUT-positive papillar neurons do not directly project to the brain vesicle. Other important differences are the projection patterns of ATENs. Imai and Meinerthagen (2007) also identified two types of ATENs: anterior ATEN (aATEN) and posterior ATEN (pATEN), but locations of their axon terminals are different from those of ATENa and ATENp reported in this study. Because the two studies used a promoter of different genes to express GFP, different neurons of similar location might be visualized in each study. Future studies, including specific labeling of other neurotransmitter systems and double labeling using different promoters and reporters, would elucidate these seemingly contradictory observations.

Some features of the Ciona DCENs are reminiscent of the Rohon-Beard primary sensory neurons of anamniote vertebrates. The Rohon-Beard primary sensory neurons originate from cells at the neural plate border (Cornell and Eisen, 2002). The Ciona DCENs develop in the dorsal midline epidermis which shares with the vertebrate neural plate border its position within the embryos and the expression of orthologous genes (Pasini et al., 2006). The Rohon–Beard neurons are dorsocaudally located primary mechanoreceptors that innervate the skin and myotome, project rostrally to the hindbrain, and control early swimming behavior (Hughes, 1957; Roberts and Clarke, 1982; Nordlander, 1984). Similarly, DCENs of the Ciona larva are located in the dorsocaudal region and project rostrally to the posterior brain vesicle. Furthermore, the descending processes from these neurons extending into the dorsal fin tunic have been observed (Pasini et al., 2006; Imai and Meinertzhagen, 2007). Despite these similarities, important differences are also present. First, in vertebrate embryos development of sensory neurons, including the Rohon-Beard cells, requires Neurogenin function (Cornell and Eisen, 2002), whereas this may not be the case in epidermal sensory neurons of Ciona larvae according to the expression patterns of the *neurogenin* ortholog (Imai et al., 2004; Mazet et al., 2005). Second, the Rohon-Beard cells are located within the spinal cord, while ascidian DCENs are located in the epidermis. Certainly, further detailed comparison of developmental mechanisms and

physiology of these neurons will be needed for better understanding of the evolutionary implication.

A unique feature of Ci-VGLUT-positive network is interconnections between sensory epidermal neurons. The papillar neurons project to RTENs and ATENp project to the DCENs of the tail. The interconnected network of epidermal sensory neurons of ascidian larvae is somewhat reminiscent of the neuroepidermal network found in hemicordates (Lowe et al., 2003). This similarity might be a conserved feature shared by the two organisms, although their developmental modes are greatly diverged.

## Prospective glutamatergic neurons in the CNS

In the CNS of the C. intestinalis larva, prospective glutamatergic neurons were only detected in the brain vesicle. Interestingly, glutamatergic neurons were not found in the visceral ganglion or caudal nerve cord. In the brain vesicle the sensory cells of the pigmented sensory organs, the otolith and ocellus, appeared to be glutamatergic. The otolith has been proved to be a gravity sense organ (Tsuda et al., 2003a). The afferent synapses of hair cells in the vertebrate inner ear, which are the vertebrate gravity sensor, also use glutamate as a major transmitter (Ottersen et al., 1998). Glutamatergic transmission is likely to be a common feature in chordate gravity sense organs. Similarly, the use of glutamate by the photoreceptor cells is probably a characteristic shared between the ascidian ocellus and the vertebrate retina. These similarities between vertebrates and ascidians suggest that glutamatergic transmission in cranial photo- and mechanosensory cells has a deep evolutionary origin that predates the emergence of the last common ancestor of tunicates and vertebrates. Interestingly, expression of Ci-VGLUT-GFP was not found in photoreceptor cells in the posterior region of the ocellus. This raises a possibility that some photoreceptor cells use neurotransmitters other than glutamate. Details of neurotransmitter phenotypes of photoreceptor cells and their physiology are currently under investigation.

Glutamatergic inputs from the ocellus and otolith occur at sites close to each other in the posterior brain vesicle. Axons of the ocellus photoreceptor cells directly innervate this area, while the otolith inputs are mediated by a glutamatergic interneuron(s). Another group of prospective glutamatergic interneurons in the posterior brain vesicle sends axons posteriorly to the visceral ganglion. The glutamatergic interneurons in the *Ciona* brain vesicle may be evolutionary counterparts of glutamatergic interneurons in the vertebrate central nervous system.

#### Posterior brain vesicle as a processing center that integrates sensory inputs

The present study revealed that axons from most sensory systems in the ascidian larva are glutamatergic and end at the posterior brain vesicle. The posterior brain vesicle contains glutamatergic, cholinergic, and GABAergic neurons, all of which send axons to the visceral ganglion (Horie et al., unpubl. data; Yoshida et al., 2004). In *Ciona* larvae, 10 cholinergic motor neurons (Horie et al., unpubl. data; Takamura et al., 2002; Yoshida et al., 2004) reside in the visceral ganglion and innervate the tail muscle. Thus, the posterior brain vesicle is presumed to serve as a processing center that integrates sensory inputs and modulates motor outputs. With the simple organization of the sensory and motor systems of the ascidian larva, elucidation of the precise neuronal connections within the posterior brain vesicle should give insight into the mechanisms of the sensory integration and motor control of the simple chordate.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Yuki Miyamoto, Yoko Ikeda, Yasuko Terashima, and Takako Suzuki for technical assistance, and the anonymous reviewers for valuable comments. Takeo Horie is a recipient of a JSPS Predoctoral Fellowship.

## LITERATURE CITED

- Bellocchio EE, Reimer RJ, Fremeau Jr RT, Edwards RH. 2000. Uptake of glutamate into synaptic vesicles by an inorganic phosphate transporter. Science 289:957–960.
- Bicker G, Schafer S, Ottersen OP, Storm-Mathisen J. 1988. Glutamate-like immunoreactivity in identified neuronal populations of insect nervous systems. J Neurosci 8:2108–2122.
- Cole AG, Meinertzhagen IA. 2004. The central nervous system of the ascidian larva: mitotic history of cells forming the neural tube in late embryonic *Ciona intestinalis*. Dev Biol 271:239–262.
- Corbo JC, Levine M, Zeller RW. 1997. Characterization of a notochordspecific enhancer from the *Brachyury* promoter region of the ascidian, *Ciona intestinalis*. Development 124:589–602.
- Cornell RA, Eisen JS. 2002. Delta/Notch signaling promotes formation of zebrafish neural crest by repressing Neurogenin 1 function. Development 129:2639-2648.
- Crowther RJ, Whittaker JR. 1994. Serial repetition of cilia pairs along the tail surface of an ascidian larva. J Exp Zool 268:9–16.
- Dale N, Kandel ER. 1993. L-Glutamate may be the fast excitatory transmitter of *Aplysia* sensory neurons. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 90:7163– 7167.
- Daniels RW, Collins CA, Gelfand MV, Dant J, Brooks ES, Krantz DE, DiAntonio A. 2004. Increased expression of the *Drosophila* vesicular glutamate transporter leads to excess glutamate release and a compensatory decrease in quantal content. J Neurosci 24:10466–10474.
- De Gois S, Jeanclos E, Morris M, Grewal S, Varoqui H, Erickson JD. 2006. Identification of endophilins 1 and 3 as selective binding partners for VGLUT1 and their co-localization in neocortical glutamatergic synapses: implications for vesicular glutamate transporter trafficking and excitatory vesicle formation. Cell Mol Neurobiol 26:679–693.
- Dehal P, Satou Y, Campbell RK, et al. [87 authors]. 2002. The draft genome of *Ciona intestinalis*: insights into chordate and vertebrate origins. Science 298:2157–2167.
- Eraly SA, Monte JC, Nigam SK. 2004. Novel slc22 transporter homologs in fly, worm, and human clarify the phylogeny of organic anion and cation transporters. Physiol Genomics 18:12–24.
- Fei H, Karnezis T, Reimer RJ, Krantz DE. 2007. Membrane topology of the Drosophila vesicular glutamate transporter. J Neurochem 101:1662– 1671.
- Fremeau RT Jr, Burman J, Qureshi T, Tran CH, Proctor J, Johnson J, Zhang H, Sulzer D, Copenhagen DR, Storm-Mathisen J, Reimer RJ, Chaudhry FA, Edwards RH. 2002. The identification of vesicular glutamate transporter 3 suggests novel modes of signaling by glutamate. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99:14488–14493.
- Fremeau RT Jr, Kam K, Qureshi T, Johnson J, Copenhagen DR, Storm-Mathisen J, Chaudhry FA, Nicoll RA, Edwards RH. 2004. Vesicular glutamate transporters 1 and 2 target to functionally distinct synaptic release sites. Science 304:1815–1819.
- Gerschenfeld HM. 1973. Chemical transmission in invertebrate central nervous systems and neuromuscular junctions. Physiol Rev 53:1–119.
- Gleason KK, Dondeti VR, Hsia HL, Cochran ER, Gumulak-Smith J, Saha MS. 2003. The vesicular glutamate transporter 1 (xVGlut1) is expressed in discrete regions of the developing *Xenopus laevis* nervous system. Gene Expr Patterns 3:503–507.
- Hajszan T, Alreja M, Leranth C. 2004. Intrinsic vesicular glutamate transporter 2-immunoreactive input to septohippocampal parvalbumincontaining neurons: novel glutamatergic local circuit cells. Hippocampus 14:499–509.

#### T. HORIE ET AL.

- Hediger MH, Romero MF, Peng JB, Rolfs A, Takanaga H, Bruford EA. 2004. The ABCs of solute carriers: physiological, pathological and therapeutic implications of human membrane transport proteins. Pflugers Arch Eur J Physiol 447:465–468.
- Higashijima S, Mandel G, Fetcho JR. 2004a. Distribution of prospective glutamatergic, glycinergic, and GABAergic neurons in embryonic and larval zebrafish. J Comp Neurol 480:1–18.
- Higashijima S, Schaefer M, Fetcho JR. 2004b. Neurotransmitter properties of spinal interneurons in embryonic and larval zebrafish. J Comp Neurol 480:19–37.
- Horie T, Orii H, Nakagawa M. 2005. Structure of ocellus photoreceptors in the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis* larva as revealed by an anti-arrestin antibody. J Neurobiol 65:241–250.
- Horseman BG, Seymour C, Bermudez I, Beadle DJ. 1988. The effects of L-glutamate on cultured insect neurons. Neurosci Lett 85:65–70.
- Hughes A. 1957. The development of the primary sensory system in Xenopus laevis (Dandin). J Anat 91:323–338.
- Imai JH, Meinertzhagen IA. 2007. Neurons of the ascidian larval nervous system in *Ciona intestinalis*: II. Peripheral nervous system. J Comp Neurol 501:335–352.
- Imai KS, Satoh N, Satou Y. 2002. Region specific gene expressions in the central nervous system of the ascidian embryo. Gene Expr Patterns 2:319-321.
- Imai KS, Hino K, Yagi K, Satoh N, Satou Y. 2004. Gene expression profiles of transcription factors and signaling molecules in the ascidian embryo: towards a comprehensive understanding of gene networks. Development 131:4047-4058.
- Jahr CE, Lester RA. 1992. Synaptic excitation mediated by glutamategated ion channels. Curr Opin Neurobiol 2:270-274.
- Kusakabe T, Kusakabe R, Kawakami I, Satou Y, Satoh N, Tsuda M. 2001. *Ci-opsin1*, a vertebrate-type opsin gene, expressed in the larval ocellus of the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis*. FEBS Lett 506:69–72.
- Kusakabe T, Yoshida R, Ikeda Y, Tsuda M. 2004. Computational discovery of DNA motifs associated with cell type-specific gene expression in *Ciona*. Dev Biol 276:563–580.
- Lee RY, Sawin ER, Chalfie M, Horvitz HR, Avery L. 1999. EAT-4, a homolog of a mammalian sodium-dependent inorganic phosphate cotransporter, is necessary for glutamatergic neurotransmission in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. J Neurosci 19:159-167.
- Lowe C, Wu M, Salic A, Evans L, Lander E, Stange-Thomann N, Gruber C, Gerhart J, Kirschner M. 2003. Anteroposterior patterning in hemichordates and the origin of the chordate nervous system. Cell 113:853–865.
- Mahr A, Aberle H. 2006. The expression pattern of the *Drosophila* vesicular glutamate transporter: A marker protein for motoneurons and glutamatergic centers in the brain. Gene Expr Patterns 6:299–309.
- Mazet F, Hutt JA, Milloz J, Millard J, Graham A, Shimeld SM. 2005. Molecular evidence from *Ciona intestinalis* for the evolutionary origin of vertebrate sensory placodes. Dev Biol 282:494–508.
- Meinertzhagen IA, Lemaire P, Okamura Y. 2004. The neurobiology of the ascidian tadpole larva: recent developments in an ancient chordate. Annu Rev Neurosci 27:453–485.
- Moutsimilli L, Farley S, Dumas S, El Mestikawy S, Giros B, Tzavara ET. 2005. Selective cortical VGLUT1 increase as a marker for antidepressant activity. Neuropharmacology 49:890–900.
- Nakagawa M, Miyamoto T, Ohkuma M, Tsuda M. 1999. Action spectrum for the photic response of *Ciona intestinalis* (Ascidiacea, Urochordata) larvae implicates retinal proteins. Photochem Photobiol 70:359–362.
- Nakagawa M, Orii H, Yoshida N, Jojima E, Horie T, Yoshida R, Haga T, Tsuda M. 2002. Ascidian arrestin (Ci-arr), the origin of the visual and nonvisual arrestins of vertebrate. Eur J Biochem 269:5112–5118.
- Nakamura K, Hioki H, Fujiyama F, Kaneko T. 2005. Postnatal changes of vesicular glutamate transporter (VGluT)1 and VGluT2 immunoreactivities and their colocalization in the mouse forebrain. J Comp Neurol 492:263–288.
- Nicol D, Meinertzhagen IA. 1991. Cell counts and maps in the larval central nervous system of the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis* (L.). J Comp Neurol 309:415–429.
- Nordlander RH. 1984. Developing descending neurons of the early *Xenopus* tail spinal cord in the caudal spinal cord of early *Xenopus*. J Comp Neurol 228:117–128.
- Ohtsuka Y, Okamura Y, Obinata T. 2001. Changes in gelsolin expression during ascidian metamorphosis. Dev Genes Evol 211:252–256.
- Okada T, Stanley MacIsaac S, Katsuyama Y, Okamura Y, Meinerzhagen IA. 2001. Neuronal form in the central nervous system of the tadpole larva of the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis*. Biol Bull 200:252–256.

- Ottersen OP, Takumi Y, Matsubara A, Landsend AS, Laake JH, Usami S. 1998. Molecular organization of a type of peripheral glutamate synapse: the afferent synapses of hair cells in the inner ear. Prog Neurobiol 54:127–148.
- Pasini A, Amiel A, Rothbächer U, Roure A, Lemaire P, Darras S. 2006. Formation of the ascidian epidermal sensory neurons: insights into the origin of the chordate peripheral nervous system. PLoS Biol 4:1173– 1186.
- Quinlan EM, Murphy AD. 1991. Glutamate as a putative neurotransmitter in the buccal central pattern generator of *Helisoma trivolvis*. J Neurophysiol 66:1264–1271.
- Roberts A, Clarke JDW. 1982. The neuroanatomy of an amphibian embryo and spinal cord. Philos Trans R Soc Lond [Biol] 296:195–212.
- Sakurai D, Goda M, Kohmura Y, Horie T, Iwamoto H, Ohtsuki H, Tsuda M. 2004. The role of pigment cells in the brain of ascidian larva. J Comp Neurol 475:70–82.
- Satou Y, Takatori N, Fujiwara S, Nishikata T, Saiga H, Kusakabe T, Shin-i T, Kohara Y, Satoh N. 2002. *Ciona intestinalis* cDNA projects: EST analyses and gene expression profiles during embryogenesis. Gene 287:83–96.
- Schafer MK, Varoqui H, Defamie N, Weihe E, Erickson JD. 2002. Molecular cloning and functional identification of mouse vesicular glutamate transporter 3 and its expression in novel subsets of excitatory neurons. J Biol Chem 277:50734–50748.
- Strimmer K, von Haeseler A. 1996. Quartet puzzling: a quartet maximumlikelihood method for reconstructing tree topologies. Mol Biol Evol 13:964-969.
- Takamori S. 2006. VGLUTs: 'Exciting' times for glutamatergic research? Neurosci Res 55:343–351.
- Takamori S, Rhee JS, Rosenmund C, Jahn R. 2000. Identification of a vesicular glutamate transporter that defines a glutamatergic phenotype in neurons. Nature 407:189–194.
- Takamura K. 1998. Nervous network in larvae of the ascidian Ciona intestinalis. Dev Genes Evol 208:1–8.
- Takamura K, Egawa T, Ohnishi S, Okada T, Fukuoka T. 2002. Developmental expression of ascidian neurotransmitter synthesis genes. I. Choline acetyltransferase and acetylcholine transporter genes. Dev Genes Evol 212:50–53.

- Thompson JD, Higgins DG, Gibson TJ. 1994. CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. Nucleic Acids Res 22:4673-4680.
- Torrence SA, Cloney RA. 1982. Nervous system of ascidian larvae: caudal primary sensory neurons. Zoomorphology 99:103–115.
- Torrence SA, Cloney RA. 1983. Ascidian larval nervous system: primary sensory neurons in adhesive papillae. Zoomorphology 102:111–123.
- Trudeau LE, Castellucci VF. 1993. Excitatory amino acid neurotransmission at sensory-motor and interneuronal synapses of Aplysia californica. J Neurophysiol 70:1221–1230.
- Tsuda M, Sakurai D, Goda M. 2003a. Direct evidence for the role of pigment cells in the brain of ascidian larvae by laser ablation. J Exp Biol 206:1409–1417.
- Tsuda M, Kusakabe T, Iwamoto H, Horie T, Nakashima Y, Nakagawa M, Okunou K. 2003b. Origin of the vertebrate visual cycle: II. visual cycle proteins are localized in whole brain including photoreceptor cells of a primitive chordate. Vision Res 43:3045–3053.
- Vandenberghe AE, Meedel TH, Hastings KE. 2001. mRNA 5'-leader transsplicing in the chordates. Genes Dev 15:294–303.
- Wada H, Saiga H, Satoh N, Holland PW. 1998. Tripartite organization of the ancestral chordate brain and the antiquity of placodes: insights from ascidian *Pax-2/5/8*, *Hox* and *Otx* genes. Development 125:1113– 1122.
- Walker RJ, Roberts CJ. 1982. The pharmacology of Limulus central neurons. Comp Biochem Physiol [C] 72:391–401.
- Wojcik SM, Rhee JS, Herzog E, Sigler A, Jahn R, Takamori S, Brose N, Rosenmund C. 2004. An essential role for vesicular glutamate transporter 1 (VGLUT1) in postnatal development and control of quantal size. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101:7158–7163.
- Yoshida R, Kusakabe T, Kamatani M, Daitoh M, Tsuda M. 2002. Central nervous system-specific expression of G protein  $\alpha$  subunits in the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis*. Zool Sci 19:1079–1088.
- Yoshida R, Sakurai D, Horie T, Kawakami I, Tsuda M, Kusakabe T. 2004. Identification of neuron-specific promoters in *Ciona intestinalis*. genesis 39:130–140.