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**REVIEW**

**SALMFamide *salmagundi*: the biology of a neuropeptide family in echinoderms**

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## Abstract

30  
31 The SALMFamides are a family of neuropeptides that occur in species belonging to the  
32 phylum Echinodermata. The prototypes for this neuropeptide family (S1 and S2) were discovered in  
33 starfish but subsequently SALMFamides were identified in other echinoderms. There are two types  
34 of SALMFamides: L-type, which have the C-terminal motif SxLxFamide, and F-type, which have  
35 the C-terminal motif SxFxFamide. They are derived from two types of precursor proteins: an L-type  
36 SALMFamide precursor, which comprises only L-type or L-type-like SALMFamides and an F-type  
37 SALMFamide precursor, which contains several F-type or F-type-like SALMFamides and,  
38 typically, one or more L-type SALMFamides. Thus, SALMFamides occur as heterogeneous  
39 mixtures of neuropeptides - a SALMFamide *salmagundi*. SALMFamides are produced by distinct  
40 populations of neurons in echinoderm larval and adult nervous systems and are present in the  
41 innervation of neuromuscular organs. Both L-type and F-type SALMFamides cause muscle  
42 relaxation in echinoderms and, for example, in starfish this effect of SALMFamides may mediate  
43 neural control of cardiac stomach eversion in species that feed extra-orally (e.g. *Asterias rubens*).  
44 The SALMFamide S1 also causes inhibition of neural release of a relaxin-like gonadotropin in the  
45 starfish *Asterina pectinifera*. An important issue that remains to be resolved are the relationships of  
46 SALMFamides with neuropeptides that have been identified in other phyla. However, it has been  
47 noted that the C-terminal SxLxFamide motif of L-type SALMFamides is a feature of some  
48 members of a bilaterian neuropeptide family that includes gonadotropin-inhibitory hormone (GnIH)  
49 in vertebrates and SIFamide-type neuropeptides in protostomes. Similarly, the C-terminal  
50 FxFamide motif of F-type SALMFamides is a feature of vertebrate QRFP (26RFa)-type  
51 neuropeptides. These sequence similarities may provide a basis for molecular identification of  
52 receptors that mediate effects of SALMFamides. Furthermore, analysis of the actions of the  
53 heterogeneous mixtures of SALMFamides that occur in echinoderms may provide new insights into  
54 the physiological significance of the general phenomenon of precursor proteins that give rise to  
55 neuropeptide “cocktails”.

- 56
- 57 **Key words:** neuropeptide; echinoderm; SALMFamide; starfish; sea urchin; sea cucumber; brittle
- 58 star; FMRFamide

59 **1. Introduction**

60 Twenty-five years ago a paper reporting “FMRFamide-like immunoreactivity in the nervous  
61 system of the starfish *Asterias rubens*” was published in *Biological Bulletin* [27]. When the paper  
62 was submitted for peer review, the feedback from reviewers was supportive but the tone leaned  
63 towards “yet another paper reporting FMRFamide-like immunoreactivity in an invertebrate!” This  
64 was not unreasonable because by 1989, twelve years after FMRFamide was identified as a  
65 cardioexcitatory neuropeptide in molluscs [61], there was already a long list of species and phyla in  
66 which the presence of FMRFamide-like immunoreactivity had been reported [60]. In fact, a paper  
67 reporting the *absence* of FMRFamide-like immunoreactivity in starfish would have been more  
68 surprising! What made the paper of interest was that it was the first to reveal the anatomical  
69 distribution of any neuropeptide(s) in the nervous system of an echinoderm. Furthermore, it laid the  
70 foundations for discovery of the first neuropeptides to be identified in echinoderms, SALMFamide  
71 neuropeptides, which are the focus of this review article.

72 The review is divided into five main sections corresponding to the five classes of extant  
73 echinoderms. The Asterozoa (starfish) lead the review because it was in species belonging to this  
74 class (*Asterias rubens* and *Asterias forbesi*) that SALMFamide neuropeptides (S1 and S2) were first  
75 identified [30]. The Holothurozoa follow because soon after the discovery of S1 and S2, two  
76 SALMFamide neuropeptides were identified in the sea cucumber *Holothuria glaberrima* [20],  
77 providing the first evidence that SALMFamides may occur throughout the phylum Echinodermata.  
78 Then come the Echinozoa, which through analysis of genome/transcriptome data from the sea  
79 urchin *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* provided the first insights into the diversity of  
80 SALMFamides that occur in an echinoderm species [32, 64]. Lastly the Ophiurozoa and Crinozoa,  
81 the two echinoderm classes for which least is currently known but which have the potential to  
82 provide fascinating insights into the evolution and physiological roles of SALMFamide  
83 neuropeptides.

84 Before proceeding, perhaps an explanation for the title of this review is necessary. The word  
85 *salmagundi* is thought to originate from the French word *salmigondis*, which translates as “an  
86 assortment” or “a collection containing a variety of things”. In English the word *salmagundi* has  
87 become associated with a 17<sup>th</sup> century salad dish comprising a rich variety of ingredients including  
88 meats, seafood, nuts, fruit, vegetables etc. However, like its French counterpart, *salmagundi* also  
89 has the more general meaning of a “heterogeneous mixture”. As described in more detail below,  
90 genome sequence data and/or transcriptome sequence data have revealed that there are indeed  
91 heterogeneous mixtures of SALMFamide neuropeptides in echinoderms. Thus, there are both L-  
92 type SALMFamides and F-type SALMFamides; L-type SALMFamides are derived from L-type  
93 SALMFamide precursors and F-type SALMFamides are derived from F-type SALMFamide  
94 precursors but in some cases F-type SALMFamide precursors also give rise to L-type  
95 SALMFamides. Furthermore, there are SALMFamides that are not strictly L-type but are L-type-  
96 like and there are SALMFamides that are not strictly F-type but are F-type-like [26]. This is the  
97 SALMFamide *salmagundi*; a lexiconic marriage just waiting to be happen!

98

## 99 **2. Asteroidea**

### 100 *2.1 FMRFamide-like immunoreactivity in the nervous system of the starfish Asterias rubens*

101 In order that patterns of neuropeptide expression in starfish and other echinoderms can be  
102 described, it is necessary to first briefly outline the architecture of the nervous systems in these  
103 animals. The organisation of the nervous system in adult starfish reflects its pentaradial body plan;  
104 there are five radial nerve cords that extend along the midline of each arm linked by a circumoral  
105 nerve ring in the central disk. The radial nerve cords control the activity of rows of tube feet that  
106 enable locomotor activity. The radial nerve cords and the circumoral nerve ring comprise two parts,  
107 the ectoneural and the hyponeural, which are separated by a basement membrane. The ectoneural  
108 division comprises sensory, inter- and motor neurons, and is continuous with an extensive  
109 basiepithelial nerve plexus underlying the body wall surface. The hyponeural division is considered

110 to be purely motor. In visceral organs such as the cardiac stomach and the associated digestive  
111 glands (pyloric caecae), bipolar neuronal somata are located in the mucosal epithelium and have  
112 processes that form a basiepithelial nerve plexus. Neurons are also located within the coelomic  
113 epithelium of the gut and their processes innervate an underlying muscle layer, which is separated  
114 from the basiepithelial plexus by a basement membrane [11, 12, 35, 38, 58].

115         Immunocytochemical studies using antibodies to the molluscan neuropeptide FMRFamide  
116 revealed immunoreactivity in the radial nerve cords and circumoral nerve ring of the starfish  
117 *Asterias rubens* [27]. The immunostaining was localised in cell bodies and axonal fibres in both the  
118 ectoneural and hyponeural parts of the nerve cords and nerve ring. Furthermore, immunoreactive  
119 fibres were also evident in the basiepithelial nerve plexus of the tube feet, indicating a potential role  
120 for the immunoreactive peptides in control of tube foot activity. These findings were of interest  
121 because they provided the first insight into the neuroanatomical organisation of peptidergic  
122 signalling systems in the nervous system of an echinoderm. Furthermore, although by the time this  
123 study was published FMRFamide-like immunoreactive peptides had been identified in vertebrates  
124 and a variety of protostomian invertebrates, FMRFamide-like peptides had not been identified in  
125 any deuterostomian invertebrate species. A pattern was beginning to emerge, with peptides sharing  
126 the motif FxRFamide (where x is variable) with FMRFamide only being found in protostomian  
127 invertebrates. Accordingly, it was proposed that there is a family of orthologous FMRFamide-  
128 related peptides (FaRPs) in protostomians, with other FMRFamide-like peptides that have a C-  
129 terminal RFamide motif being more widely distributed phylogenetically (e.g. in cnidarians and  
130 vertebrates) [60]. It was against this backdrop that it was of particular interest from an evolutionary  
131 perspective to determine the molecular identity of the peptides responsible for the FMRFamide-like  
132 immunoreactivity detected in the starfish *A. rubens*.

133

134 *2.2 Discovery of the starfish SALMFamide neuropeptides S1 and S2*

135 The detection of FMRFamide-like immunoreactivity (ir) in the nervous system of *A. rubens*,  
136 as discussed above, provided a basis for efforts to purify and identify the peptide(s) responsible for  
137 this immunoreactivity. Initially a radioimmunoassay (RIA) employing antibodies to FMRFamide  
138 was used to screen extracts of nerves from *A. rubens* and *A. forbesi* that had been fractionated using  
139 high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). However, subsequently it was found that an  
140 antiserum (Q2) to a leucine-containing FMRFamide-like peptide (pQDPFLRFamide) detected more  
141 immunoreactivity in starfish nerve extracts and therefore Q2 was used to monitor purification of  
142 immunoreactive peaks [30]. Four peaks (B-E) were purified to homogeneity and sequenced. Peak E  
143 was identified as the amidated octapeptide GFNSALMFamide, peak C was identified as the  
144 oxidised form of the peak E peptide and peak B was identified as a C-terminal fragment  
145 (SALMFamide) of the peak E peptide. Peak D was identified as the amidated dodecapeptide  
146 SGPYSFNSGLTFamide, which shares sequence similarity (underlined) with the peak E peptide  
147 (GFNSALMFamide). Interestingly, the presence of the LxFamide motif in both peptides provided  
148 an explanation for why antibodies to pQDPFLRFamide detected more immunoreactivity in starfish  
149 nerve extracts than antibodies to FMRFamide. However, the two starfish peptides differ from  
150 FMRFamide-like peptides identified in invertebrates and vertebrates because they do not have an  
151 arginine residue in the penultimate position from the C-terminal amide. Thus, the starfish peptides  
152 are not strictly “RFamide-type” neuropeptides and therefore they were designated as founding  
153 members of a new family of neuropeptides - the SALMFamides. The octapeptide  
154 GFNSALMFamide was designated as SALMFamide-1 (or S1) and the dodecapeptide  
155 SGPYSFNSGLTFamide was designated as SALMFamide-2 (or S2) [30, 31]. S1 and S2 were the  
156 first neuropeptides to be identified in a species belonging to the phylum Echinodermata and  
157 therefore it was of interest to investigate the physiological roles of these neuropeptides in starfish.  
158 To facilitate investigation of the physiological roles of S1 and S2, antibodies to these two peptides  
159 were generated and characterised using RIA methods [29].

160



### 161 2.3 Localisation of SALMFamide neuropeptides in starfish larvae

162 The development of antibodies to S1 and S2 enabled the first investigations of the  
163 expression of native neuropeptides in echinoderm nervous systems. In the life of an echinoderm  
164 there are two nervous systems – first the larval nervous system and then the post-metamorphic  
165 nervous system of juvenile and adult animals. Accordingly, taking a chronological approach, the  
166 larval nervous system will be discussed in this section and then the adult nervous system will be  
167 discussed in section 2.4 below.

168 The first developmental studies of SALMFamide expression in starfish analysed S1-ir in the  
169 planktotrophic larvae of three species - *Asterias rubens*, *Pisaster ochraceus* and *Patiriella regularis*  
170 [7, 52]. The most comprehensive analysis of larval S1-ir has been reported for *P. regularis* [7] and  
171 therefore this is described below. S1-ir is first observed in early bipinnarian larvae, expressed by  
172 neurons in a bilaterally symmetrical pair of dorsolateral ganglia located anterior to the mouth. As  
173 development proceeds the number of cells in each ganglion increases and in 6-day old bipinnaria a  
174 meshwork of S1-immunoreactive neuronal processes derived from the ganglia can be seen  
175 innervating the anterior dorsal region. These S1-immunoreactive processes also innervate the  
176 adoral and pre-oral ciliated bands, where they intermingle with fibres derived from S1-  
177 immunoreactive cells in the epithelium of the ciliated bands. An S1-immunoreactive nerve tract  
178 connects the pre-oral ciliated band with a network of S1-immunoreactive fibres associated with  
179 post-oral ciliated band. By 3 weeks the network of S1-immunoreactive cells and processes becomes  
180 more prominent, particularly those associated with the pre-oral and post-oral ciliated bands, and  
181 bilaterally symmetrical S1-immunoreactive fibre tracts that project into the posterior region of the  
182 larva are evident. By the brachiolaria stage at 8 weeks a larval attachment complex has formed  
183 anteriorly and a dense meshwork of associated S1-immunoreactive fibres derived from the ganglia  
184 is apparent. Fibres from the adoral nerve plexus can be seen innervating the oesophagus and S1-  
185 immunoreactive cells and processes are also present in the stomach.

186 The patterns of immunoreactivity observed with S1 antibodies in the nervous system of  
187 planktotrophic starfish larvae suggest that SALMFamides may modulate ciliary activity associated  
188 with swimming and feeding. S1-immunoreactive fibres in the oesophagus and stomach may be  
189 involved in regulation of visceral muscle activity and the dense S1-immunoreactive innervation of  
190 the brachium in brachiolaria suggests a potential role in larval settlement. However, as yet, no  
191 experimental studies that investigate the effects of SALMFamides on starfish larval behaviour have  
192 been reported. Interestingly, in species belonging to the genus *Patiriella* that have non-feeding  
193 (lecithotrophic) larvae (e.g. *P. calcar* and *P. exigua*), there is no bipinnaria stage and neural systems  
194 associated with feeding are not present. However, S1-immunoreactive fibres innervating the  
195 brachium are present in the brachiolaria larvae of these species. Thus, there appear to be distinct  
196 developmental programs for SALMFamidergic systems associated with control of feeding  
197 (bipinnaria) and settlement (brachiolaria) in starfish larvae [8].

198

#### 199 *2.4 The distribution of SALMFamide neuropeptides in adult starfish*

200 Antibodies to S1 and S2 have been used to both measure (using RIA) and map (using  
201 immunocytochemistry) the distribution of these peptides in adult specimens of *A. rubens* [29]. RIA  
202 analysis of tissue extracts revealed, not surprisingly, that the highest concentrations of the two  
203 peptides were present in the radial nerve cords (S1; 265 pmol/g; S2 417 pmol/g). However, S1-ir  
204 and S2-ir was also detected at lower concentrations in a wide range of other organs/tissues, which  
205 included the cardiac stomach (S1; 31 pmol/g; S2 121 pmol/g), pyloric stomach (S1; 24 pmol/g; S2  
206 55 pmol/g), pyloric caecae (S1; 11 pmol/g; S2 66 pmol/g), body wall (S1; 14 pmol/g; S2 49  
207 pmol/g) and ovaries (S1; 2 pmol/g; S2 20 pmol/g). In addition S2-ir (1.4 pmol/g), but not S1-ir, was  
208 detected in the perivisceral coelomic fluid, suggesting a potential hormonal role for S2 in starfish.  
209 The widespread detection of S1-ir and S2-ir in starfish provided a basis for detailed  
210 immunocytochemical investigations of the distribution of S1- and S2-expressing cells throughout  
211 the starfish body.

212 Abundant S1-ir was revealed in the radial nerve cords and circumoral nerve ring of *A.*  
213 *rubens*, localised in neuronal cell bodies and in nerve fibres in both the ectoneural and hyponeural  
214 parts of these nerve tracts [51]. The pattern of immunostaining observed was very similar to that  
215 originally reported using FMRFamide antibodies [27], with FMRFamide-immunoreactive somata  
216 and S1-immunoreactive somata located in very similar positions in the radial nerve cords. Likewise,  
217 similar to findings with FMRFamide antibodies, a dense network of S1-immunoreactive fibres was  
218 revealed in the basiepithelial nerve plexus of the tube feet. However, it is possible that some of the  
219 immunostaining detected with FMRFamide antibodies is not attributable to S1. Consistent with the  
220 RIA data, S1-immunoreactive neuronal somata were also detected in mucosal epithelia throughout  
221 the digestive system (oesophagus, cardiac stomach, pyloric stomach, pyloric caecae) with an  
222 associated network of S1-immunoreactive fibres in the basiepithelial nerve plexus. In the pyloric  
223 caecae S1-ir was also revealed in nerve fibres underlying the coelomic epithelium. In the body wall,  
224 S1-ir was revealed in the subepithelial plexus as well as in the nerve plexi underlying the coelomic  
225 epithelium, associated with circularly and longitudinally oriented muscle layers.

226 Analysis of the distribution of S2-ir in adult specimens of *A. rubens* revealed a pattern of  
227 expression broadly similar to that of S1. For example, in the cardiac stomach S2-immunoreactive  
228 cells are present in the mucosa and a dense meshwork of immunostained fibres are present in  
229 basiepithelial nerve plexus, as illustrated in Fig. 1A. However, double-labelling studies showed that  
230 S1 and S2 appear to be expressed in different populations of neurons. Furthermore, unlike with S1,  
231 no S2-ir neuronal somata were observed in the hyponeural part of the radial nerve cords [54, 55].

232 Subsequent to the original reports of SALMFamide expression in *A. rubens*, other starfish  
233 species have been analysed using antibodies to S1 and/or S2. For example, the distribution of S1-ir  
234 in the radial nerve cords and tube feet of adult specimens of *P. regularis* was found to be very  
235 similar to that seen in *A. rubens* [7]. Likewise, analysis of both S1-ir and S2-ir in the radial nerve  
236 cords and cardiac stomach of *Marthasterias glacialis* revealed patterns of expression similar to *A.*  
237 *rubens* [71]. Interestingly, S1-ir has also been observed in the innervation of the gonads in the

238 starfish *Asterina pectinifera*, consistent with RIA-based detection of S1 in extracts of gonads from  
239 *A. rubens* [49]. However, when specimens of *A. rubens* were analysed immunocytochemically, no  
240 S1-ir was observed in the gonads [51]; this may be due to seasonal variation in SALMFamide  
241 expression in gonadal tissues.

242

### 243 2.5 Pharmacological effects of SALMFamides in adult starfish

244 The detection of S1-ir and S2-ir in the innervation of a variety of neuromuscular organs  
245 (digestive system, tube feet, apical muscle) in *A. rubens* (see section 2.4 above) provided a  
246 neuroanatomical basis for investigation of the pharmacological effects of SALMFamides on  
247 myoactivity. Initial studies revealed that S2, but not S1, causes relaxation of cardiac stomach  
248 preparations *in vitro*; no effects of S1 and S2 on tube foot and apical muscle preparations were  
249 observed [29]. However, with optimisation of the recording conditions for these experiments, it was  
250 subsequently found that both S1 and S2 cause relaxation of cardiac stomach (see Fig. 1B,C,D), tube  
251 foot and apical muscle preparations [46, 47]. When tested at the same concentration the magnitude  
252 of the relaxing effect of S2 on the three preparations was found to be significantly larger than the  
253 relaxing effect of S1 [46, 47]. Furthermore, dose-response data obtained for cardiac stomach and  
254 tube foot preparations have revealed that S2 is an order of magnitude more potent than S1 (Fig. 1C)  
255 [28, 57].

256 Feeding in *A. rubens* and many other starfish species is accomplished by eversion of the  
257 cardiac stomach over the digestible parts of prey (e.g. mussels, for *A. rubens*). Discovery of the  
258 relaxing effect of S1 and S2 on cardiac stomach preparations *in vitro* provided a rationale for  
259 investigating if this effect of S1 and S2 causes cardiac stomach eversion *in vivo*. Injection of 100  $\mu$ l  
260 of 1 mM S2 was found to cause cardiac stomach eversion within 5 minutes in 57% of tests, whereas  
261 injection of 100  $\mu$ l of 1 mM S1 caused cardiac stomach eversion within 5 minutes in only 11% of  
262 tests [47]. Thus, the effectiveness of S1 and S2 in triggering cardiac stomach eversion *in vivo*  
263 correlates with the potency of these peptides *in vitro*. Furthermore, the discovery that

264 SALMFamides trigger cardiac stomach eversion in *A. rubens* provided the first insight on  
265 neurochemical mechanisms underlying the unusual extraoral feeding behaviour of starfish. Recently,  
266 a neuropeptide that triggers cardiac stomach contraction *in vitro* and cardiac stomach retraction *in*  
267 *vivo* has been identified as the pentapeptide NGFFYamide [65]. Thus, counteracting neuropeptide  
268 systems appear to be involved in controlling the process of cardiac stomach eversion and retraction  
269 in starfish.

270 The pharmacological actions of SALMFamides have also been investigated as potential  
271 regulators of hormone release in the starfish *Asterina pectinifera*. Gamete release in starfish is  
272 triggered by gonad-stimulating substance (GSS), a neurohormone that is present in starfish radial  
273 nerve cords and that is related to the mammalian hormone relaxin [50]. Release of GSS from radial  
274 nerve cords can be triggered *in vitro* by KCl-induced depolarisation and S1 causes dose-dependent  
275 inhibition of KCl-induced GSS release [49]. Thus, S1 may act as a neurotransmitter in the radial  
276 nerve cords of starfish that inhibits release of GSS. This is interesting because it suggests a  
277 potentially important role for SALMFamides as regulators of reproductive physiology in starfish.  
278 Furthermore, the detection of S1-ir in the gonads of *A. pectinifera* suggests that SALMFamides may  
279 regulate reproductive processes peripherally as well as centrally.

280

## 281 2.6 Investigation of a structural basis for the differing potency of S1 and S2 in starfish

282 Recently, a structural basis for the difference in the potency of S1 and S2 as muscle  
283 relaxants in the starfish *A. rubens* has been investigated [57]. The most striking difference between  
284 S1 and S2 is that S1 is an octapeptide (GFNSALMFamide) whereas S2 is a dodecapeptide  
285 (SGPYSFNSGLTFamide), with four additional N-terminal residues (SGPY). It was hypothesised,  
286 therefore, that the presence of these four residues may account for S2's greater potency compared to  
287 S1. Synthesis of an N-terminally truncated analog of S2 (short S2 or SS2; SFNSGLTFamide)  
288 enabled experimental testing of this hypothesis. However, the results obtained were complex. SS2  
289 caused dose-dependent relaxation of cardiac stomach preparations and comparison of the relaxing

290 actions of S1, SS2 and S2 when tested at 1  $\mu$ M revealed that SS2 was significantly more effective  
291 than S1 but only slightly less effective than S2. These findings indicated that the biological activity  
292 of S2 is largely attributable to its C-terminal octapeptide sequence (SFNSGLTFamide). When SS2  
293 was tested on tube foot preparations SS2 caused dose-dependent relaxation, but surprisingly the  
294 effects of SS2 at 10  $\mu$ M were consistently larger than the effects of S2 at the same concentration.  
295 Conversely, when the effects of S1, S2 and SS2 were compared at 1  $\mu$ M, SS2 was significantly  
296 more effective than S1 but significantly less effective than S2. Thus, results from tests at 10  $\mu$ M  
297 indicate that the presence of the N-terminal SGPY sequence impairs the bioactivity of S2, while  
298 results from tests at 1  $\mu$ M indicate that the presence of the N-terminal SGPY sequence contributes  
299 to the bioactivity of S2. Further studies are required to gain understanding of these complex  
300 structure-activity relationships, which would be facilitated by identification of the receptors that  
301 mediate the effects of SALMFamides in starfish.

302 In parallel with *in vitro* pharmacological studies that compared the bioactivity of S1, S2 and  
303 SS2, spectroscopic methods have been employed to compare the solution conformations of these  
304 peptides [57]. Use of circular dichroism spectroscopy showed that S1 does not have a defined  
305 structure in aqueous solution and this was supported by 2D nuclear magnetic resonance  
306 experiments; these findings are consistent with previous studies on other small neuropeptides. In  
307 contrast, S2 was found to have a well-defined conformation in aqueous solution. However, this was  
308 concentration dependent, with increasing concentration inducing a transition from an unstructured  
309 to a structured conformation. This property of S2 was not, however, observed with the N-terminally  
310 truncated analog of S2, SS2 (SFNSGLTFamide). Collectively, the data obtained indicate that the N-  
311 terminal region of S2 facilitates self-association of this neuropeptide at high concentrations. The  
312 functional significance of this property of S2 is not known, but it may have relevance to the  
313 biosynthesis and/or bioactivity of S2 *in vivo*. Further investigation of the structure-activity  
314 relationships of starfish SALMFamides is now needed following the recent discovery that S1 and

315 S2 are derived from precursor proteins that contain many other members of this neuropeptide  
316 family, as discussed below in section 2.7.

317

### 318 *2.7 More than S1 and S2: SALMFamide precursor proteins reveal the diversity of SALMFamides in* 319 *starfish*

320 When the prototype SALMFamides S1 and S2 were originally isolated from extracts of *A.*  
321 *rubens* and *A. forbesi* using antibodies the FMRFamide-like peptide pQDPFLRFamide, some  
322 additional minor peaks of immunoreactivity were detected but these were not identified. With the  
323 development of antibodies to S1 and S2 it became possible to screen starfish nerve extracts for  
324 putative additional S1-like and/or S2-like neuropeptides. However, when HPLC-fractionated nerve  
325 extracts from *A. rubens* were assayed using S1-antibodies only a single peak of immunoreactivity  
326 was detected and this was identified as S1 [31].

327 The development of antibodies to S1 and S2 also enabled purification and identification of  
328 SALMFamides from other starfish species. Thus, analysis of nerve extracts from the starfish  
329 *Pycnopodia helianthoides* revealed that S1 is also present in this species [31], indicating that this  
330 peptide may be conserved amongst starfish species. However, as with the analysis of nerve extracts  
331 from *A. rubens*, no additional peaks of S1-like-ir were detected in *P. helianthoides*. Interestingly,  
332 however, when HPLC-fractionated nerve extracts from the starfish species *Marthasterias glacialis*  
333 were assayed several peaks of S1-like-ir and/or S2-like-ir were detected [72]. Five of these were  
334 successfully purified to homogeneity and sequenced. One of the peaks (peak B3) was identified as  
335 S1, providing further evidence that the S1 peptide may be conserved amongst starfish species. An  
336 S2-like immunoreactive peak (A2) was identified as SGPYSMTSGLTFamide, a dodecapeptide that  
337 is similar to the *Asterias* S2 peptide. Thus, this revealed for the first time the occurrence of S2-like  
338 peptides in other starfish species but, unlike the conserved S1 peptide, the sequences of S2-type  
339 peptides were found to vary between starfish genera. Furthermore, two S1-like immunoreactive  
340 peaks (A1 and B1) detected in nerve extracts from *M. glacialis* were identified as the amidated

341 octapeptide AYQTGLPFamide and the S1-like immunoreactive peak B2 was identified as  
342 AYHSALPFamide. Thus, it became apparent for the first time that the molecular diversity of  
343 SALMFamide neuropeptides in starfish is more complex than just a pair of peptides (S1 and S2).

344 Sequencing of the genome of the starfish *Patiria miniata* has recently provided the first  
345 insights into the structure of starfish SALMFamide precursor proteins and the diversity of  
346 SALMFamide neuropeptides that occur in starfish species [26]. Genes encoding two SALMFamide  
347 precursor proteins were identified. One precursor comprises S1 and six other putative neuropeptides,  
348 five of which are like S1 in having the C-terminal motif SxLxFamide or TxLxFamide. The other  
349 precursor comprises a putative S2-like peptide (SNGPYSMSGLRSLTFamide) and eight other  
350 putative peptides, six of which that have the C-terminal motif SxFxFamide (Fig. 2, 3). Discovery of  
351 these precursor sequences provided several important insights on SALMFamides in starfish. Firstly,  
352 S1 and the S2-like peptide are derived from different precursor proteins, a finding that is consistent  
353 with earlier observations from immunocytochemical studies, which revealed that S1-ir and S2-ir are  
354 localised in different populations of neurons in the nervous system of *A. rubens* [54, 55]. Secondly,  
355 the occurrence of two types of SALMFamides is evident – L-type SALMFamides, which typically  
356 have the C-terminal motif SxLxFamide, and F-type SALMFamides, which typically have the C-  
357 terminal motif SxFxFamide. Thirdly, one of the precursor proteins is an L-type SALMFamide  
358 precursor, giving rise to S1 and other L-type peptides, some of which are structurally similar to L-  
359 type SALMFamides that were identified previously in nerve extracts from *M. glacialis*. Fourthly,  
360 the second precursor protein is largely comprised of F-type SALMFamides and therefore it is  
361 predominantly an F-type SALMFamide precursor; however, this protein is also the precursor of an  
362 S2-like peptide, which is an L-type SALMFamide. Fifthly, some of the putative peptides deviate  
363 from the canonical L-type SALMFamide motif, SxLxFamide, or the F-type SALMFamide motif,  
364 SxFxFamide. For example, in two of the putative peptides derived from the S1 precursor the serine  
365 residue is replaced by a structurally similar amino acid, threonine. Furthermore, in one of the  
366 peptides derived from the S1 precursor, the C-terminal phenylalanine is replaced by the structurally



367 similar amino acid tyrosine. Furthermore, there are “F-type-like” peptides derived from the F-type  
368 SALMFamide precursor that deviate from the canonical F-type SALMFamide motif (SxFxFamide)  
369 and these include two peptides with the C-terminal pentapeptide sequences PFYYPamide and  
370 RSYAFamide.

371 Taking a broader perspective, what is perhaps most striking from these data is the large  
372 number of putative SALMFamide neuropeptides that appear to be present in *P. miniata*; in total  
373 there are 16 putative SALMFamides neuropeptides [26]. But is this representative of other starfish?  
374 It would appear that it is – we have recently determined the sequences of the SALMFamide  
375 precursors from *A. rubens* and have found that S1 is derived from a precursor protein that contains  
376 six other L-type or L-type-like SALMFamides and S2 is derived from a precursor protein that  
377 contains seven F-type or F-type-like SALMFamides (D. Semmens, M. Pancholi, M. Elphick,  
378 unpublished data). Thus, in *A. rubens*, in addition to the prototypes S1 and S2, there are thirteen  
379 other putative SALMFamide neuropeptides. As will be discussed in more detail below in section 7,  
380 this SALMFamide *salmagundi* invites functional explanations and future work will need to address  
381 this issue in starfish. For example, nothing is known about the actions of F-type SALMFamides in  
382 starfish; do they act as muscle relaxants like their L-type counterparts? We do, however, have some  
383 insights into the actions of L-type SALMFamides in starfish, additional to the well-characterised  
384 actions of S1 and S2. When the L-type SALMFamide AYHSALPFamide (also known as MagS3)  
385 was identified in *M. glacialis* its effects on cardiac stomach preparations from *A. rubens* were  
386 examined. Like S1 and S2, MagS3 caused dose-dependent relaxation of cardiac stomach  
387 preparations but with lower efficacy than S1 or S2 when tested at 1  $\mu$ M [72]. Further studies are  
388 now needed in which the effects of all of the SALMFamides present in a starfish species are  
389 examined and compared both individually and as mixtures that reflect the natural composition of  
390 neuropeptide “cocktails” that are derived from a common precursor protein.

391

### 392 **3. Holothuroidea**

393 3.1 FMRFamide-like immunoreactivity in sea cucumbers

394 The presence of FMRFamide-like ir in sea cucumbers was first reported in an  
395 immunocytochemical study of *Holothuria glaberrima* [34]. Immunostained neuronal somata and  
396 fibres were observed in the radial nerve cords, oesophagus and both the large and small intestine.  
397 Interestingly, many of the FMRFamide-like immunoreactive fibres in the digestive tract were also  
398 immunoreactive with antibodies to cholecystinin (CCK), which shares C-terminal sequence  
399 similarity (MDFamide) with FMRFamide. Therefore, this may have reflected cross-reactivity of the  
400 immunoreactive peptides with both FMRFamide antibodies and CCK antibodies.

401 More recently, FMRFamide antibodies have been used for an immunocytochemical analysis  
402 of the sea cucumber *Holothuria scabra* [1]. As in *H. glaberrima*, immunoreactivity was observed in  
403 the radial nerve cords and in nerve plexi of the submucosal and serosal layers of the digestive tract.  
404 However, FMRFamide-like-ir was also detected in other organs including the testes, the respiratory  
405 trees and the stone canal. Furthermore, efforts were made to characterize the immunoreactive  
406 peptides using HPLC and dot-blotting methods but the molecular identity of the FMRFamide-like  
407 immunoreactive peptides in *Holothuria scabra* was not determined.

408 Another recent study used FMRFamide antibodies for analysis of the nervous system of the  
409 sea cucumber species *Leptosynapta clarki*, which is semi-transparent and therefore amenable for  
410 whole-mount immunostaining and imaging using confocal microscopy [41]. Immunoreactive cell  
411 bodies were observed in the buccal tentacles, oesophageal region and closely associated with the  
412 radial nerve cords. Sensory-like cells in the tentacles project toward the circumoral nerve ring,  
413 while cells close to the radial nerve cords have processes that are in close association with muscle  
414 and other body wall structures.

415 The molecular identity of the neuropeptides that are responsible for the FMRFamide-like-ir  
416 that is observed in sea cucumbers is not known, but it is likely that it is at least partially attributable  
417 to SALMFamide-type neuropeptides (see section 3.2 below). However, the possibility remains that  
418 other types of neuropeptide are also revealed by FMRFamide antibodies in sea cucumbers (and

419 other echinoderms). For example, a transcript encoding a putative neuropeptide  
420 (PYKFMRWamide) that shares C-terminal sequence similarity with FMRFamide was recently  
421 identified in the sea cucumber *Apostichopus japonicus* [63]. This peptide belongs to the luqin  
422 neuropeptide family, the prototype for which was originally identified in molluscs [2]. Further  
423 studies are now needed to investigate if this luqin-type neuropeptide contributes to the patterns of  
424 FMRFamide-like-ir observed in sea cucumbers.

425

### 426 3.2 Discovery of SALMFamide neuropeptides in sea cucumbers.

427 The identification of the starfish SALMFamides S1 and S2 was enabled by use of antibodies  
428 to the FMRFamide-like peptide pQDPFLRFamide to monitor peptide purification [30]. So the same  
429 strategy was employed to identify FMRFamide-like peptides in the sea cucumber *H. glaberrima*.

430 Two peptides were purified to homogeneity and identified as the amidated heptapeptide  
431 GFSKYLFamide and the amidated octapeptide SGYSVLYFamide [20]. Discovery of these  
432 peptides revealed for the first time that SALMFamide-type neuropeptides do not only occur in  
433 starfish but are also present in other echinoderms. Furthermore, comparison of the sequences of S1,  
434 S2 and the two peptides identified in *H. glaberrima* revealed a conserved C-terminal motif –  
435 SxLxFamide (where x is variable). Thus, the concept of a family of SALMFamide neuropeptides in  
436 echinoderms emerged [28].

437 Completely independent of the discovery of GFSKYLFamide and SGYSVLYFamide in *H.*  
438 *glaberrima*, two SALMFamides were identified in another holothurian species, the edible sea  
439 cucumber *A. japonicus* [56]. Here peptide purification was accompanied by use of bioassays for  
440 myoactivity and two peptides that cause muscle relaxation were identified as GYSPFMFamide and  
441 FKSPFMFamide. Analysis of the sequences of these two peptides revealed similarities with the two  
442 peptides identified in *H. glaberrima*, and therefore they were categorised as members of the  
443 SALMFamide neuropeptide family. Importantly, however, the two *A. japonicus* peptides have a  
444 SxFxFamide motif, which contrasts with the SxLxFamide motif of S1, S2 and the two

445 SALMFamides identified in *H. glaberrima*. Thus, the discovery of the SALMFamides from *A.*  
446 *japonicus* provided the first insight on the existence of two types of SALMFamides in echinoderms:  
447 L-type SALMFamides that have the C-terminal SxLxFamide motif and F-type SALMFamides that  
448 have the C-terminal SxFxFamide motif [28].

449

### 450 3.3 SALMFamide expression in sea cucumber larvae

451 To date, there are no published reports of studies employing immunocytochemical methods  
452 to analyse SALMFamide expression in sea cucumber larvae. However, an excellent framework for  
453 anatomical analysis of SALMFamide expression in sea cucumber larvae has been provided by  
454 detailed description of neural development in *A. japonicus* [53]. Furthermore, there are  
455 transcriptome data available that indicate that SALMFamides are expressed in sea cucumber larvae.  
456 Transcriptome sequence data have been obtained for the gastrula and larval stages of *Parastichopus*  
457 *parvimensis*. These sequence data are available for BLAST analysis at <http://www.spbase.org/Pp/>  
458 and analysis of these data reveals transcripts for two SALMFamide-type precursor proteins in  
459 larvae, but not in gastrulae. Only a partial sequence is available for one of the transcripts  
460 (Locus\_16236) but analysis of this sequence reveals that it contains the putative F-type  
461 SALMFamide ARYSPFMFamide, which is very similar to one of the putative F-type  
462 SALMFamides that has recently been identified in *A. japonicus* (ARYSPFTFamide; see section 3.6  
463 below). The second transcript (Locus\_15676) encodes a precursor protein comprising three L-type  
464 or L-type-like SALMFamides, which shares 95% sequence identity with the L-type SALMFamide  
465 precursor that has recently been identified in *A. japonicus* (see section 3.6 below). These data  
466 indicate that both L-type and F-type SALMFamides are expressed in sea cucumber larvae.  
467 Furthermore, these data provide a basis for investigation of SALMFamide expression in sea  
468 cucumber larvae using mRNA *in situ* hybridization methods and/or immunocytochemistry. It will  
469 be interesting to compare patterns of SALMFamide expression observed in sea cucumber larvae

470 with reported patterns of SALMFamide expression in starfish and sea urchin larvae (see sections  
471 2.3 and 4.2).

472

473 *3.4. Localisation of the SALMFamide neuropeptide GFSKLYFamide in the sea cucumber H.*  
474 *glaberrima*

475 With the discovery of the L-type SALMFamides GFSKYLFamide and SGYSVLYFamide  
476 in *H. glaberrima* it was possible to investigate the anatomical distribution of SALMFamide-type  
477 neuropeptides in a sea cucumber species for the first time. Antibodies to the peptide  
478 GFSKYLFamide were generated and used for immunocytochemical studies [18].

479 GFSKYLFamide-ir was detected in neuronal somata and fibres in both the ectoneural and  
480 hyponeural parts of the radial nerve cords and immunoreactive fibres were evident in the  
481 longitudinal and circular muscle layers of the body wall. GFSKYLFamide-ir somata and fibres  
482 were also revealed in appendages associated with the body wall of sea cucumbers - the buccal  
483 tentacles, which serve as feeding organs, and the locomotory tube feet [18].

484 Turning to visceral organs, GFSKYLFamide-ir was revealed throughout the digestive  
485 system, including the oesophagus, small intestine and large intestine, with prominent  
486 immunoreactivity localised in somata and fibres in the serosal layer. Immunoreactive cell bodies  
487 were also evident in the mucosal layer of the oesophagus and intestine, and in the oesophagus these  
488 gave rise to a network of GFSKYLFamide-immunoreactive fibres in the submucosal nerve plexus.  
489 Furthermore, analysis of intestinal tissue at the electron microscopic level revealed that the  
490 GFSKYLFamide-ir was localised in dense cord vesicles in both somata and fibres, consistent with  
491 the notion that this peptide is a secreted neuropeptide in sea cucumbers. Organs that are closely  
492 associated with the digestive system in holothurians are the respiratory trees, which are  
493 evaginations of the cloaca; as in the digestive system, a prominent GFSKYLFamide-  
494 immunoreactive plexus was observed in the serosal layer of the respiratory trees. Finally,  
495 GFSKYLFamide-ir was revealed in the tubular reproductive system of *H. glaberrima*, with

496 immunostaining evident in somata located in the coelomic epithelium and in sub-epithelial fibres in  
497 both male and female gonads [18].

498         What is immediately apparent from this overview of the distribution of GFSKLYFamide-ir  
499 in *H. glaberrima* is that expression is widespread and associated with the majority of organ systems.  
500 In this respect, the findings are similar to findings from analysis of SALMFamide expression in  
501 adult starfish (as described in section 2.4 above). Furthermore, these anatomical data provided an  
502 expectation for pleiotropic actions of SALMFamides in sea cucumbers.

503

### 504 3.5. Pharmacological effects of SALMFamide neuropeptides in sea cucumbers

505         Consistent with the presence of GFSKLYFamide-ir fibres in the intestine of *H. glaberrima*,  
506 application of synthetic GFSKLYFamide to *in vitro* preparations of large intestine from this species  
507 caused dose-dependent relaxation at concentrations ranging from  $10^{-10}$  to  $10^{-6}$  M [19]. At  $10^{-5}$  M the  
508 relaxing effect of GFSKLYFamide was much smaller than at  $10^{-6}$  M, indicative of desensitisation at  
509 high peptide concentrations. Relaxing effects of GFSKLYFamide were observed on longitudinal  
510 strips of intestine as well as rings of intestinal tissue, indicating that the peptide acts on both the  
511 longitudinally and circularly orientated muscle layers. Furthermore, application of GFSKLYFamide  
512 also reversed ACh-induced contraction of intestinal preparations. A dose-dependent relaxing action  
513 of GFSKLYFamide was also observed when tested on strips of longitudinal body wall muscle from  
514 *H. glaberrima*. Effects were observed at concentrations ranging from  $10^{-10}$  to  $10^{-6}$  M, but the  
515 maximal effect was reached with  $10^{-8}$  M [19].

516         The discovery that GFSKLYFamide causes relaxation of both intestinal and body wall  
517 muscle preparations from *H. glaberrima* was consistent with the relaxing effects observed with S1  
518 and S2 when tested on neuromuscular preparations from the starfish *A. rubens* (see section 2.5  
519 above). Furthermore, collectively these findings indicate that SALMFamide neuropeptides may act  
520 as muscle relaxants throughout the Phylum Echinodermata [28].

521 Further evidence that SALMFamides have a general action as muscle relaxants was  
522 obtained with the discovery of the first F-type SALMFamides to be identified in an echinoderm:  
523 GYSPFMFamide and FKSPFMFamide [56]. Thus, these two peptides were isolated from the sea  
524 cucumber *A. japonicus* on account of their relaxing effect on intestine preparations from this species.  
525 Interestingly, however, these peptides do not cause relaxation of longitudinal body wall muscle  
526 preparations from *A. japonicus*. This contrasts with the relaxing effect of the L-type SALMFamide  
527 GFSKLYFamide on longitudinal body wall muscle preparations from *H. glaberrima*. These  
528 findings may indicate that L-type SALMFamides and F-type SALMFamides exert effects by  
529 binding to different receptor types.

530

### 531 3.6 SALMFamide precursor proteins reveal SALMFamide diversity in sea cucumbers

532 Sequencing of the transcriptome of the sea cucumber *A. japonicus* has enabled identification  
533 of SALMFamide precursor proteins in this species. Thus, a transcript was identified that encodes  
534 the precursor of the two F-type SALMFamides (GYSPFMFamide and FKSPFMFamide) that were  
535 purified from this species on account of their relaxing effects on muscle preparations [24]. The  
536 precursor also contains two other putative F-type SALMFamides, ARYSPFTFamide and  
537 GHRGGQFSQFKFamide and two F-type-like SALMFamides - GVPPYVVKVTYamide and  
538 FKSSFYLAamide. Furthermore, this SALMFamide precursor protein also contains two putative L-  
539 type SALMFamides (GGSALYFamide and VPELAESDGGQSKLYFamide), which are homologs  
540 of the two L-type SALMFamides originally isolated from *H. glaberrima* (GFSKLYFamide and  
541 SGYSVLYFamide) (Fig. 2, 3). Thus, this is an F-type SALMFamide precursor but, like the F-type  
542 SALMFamide precursor in the starfish *P. miniata*, it also gives rise to a smaller number of L-type  
543 SALMFamides. This suggests, therefore, that the presence of L-type SALMFamides in F-type  
544 SALMFamide precursors may be an evolutionarily conserved and therefore functionally relevant  
545 phenomenon.

546 In *A. japonicus*, as in the starfish *P. miniata*, there is also a second SALMFamide precursor  
547 that contains only L-type SALMFamides. Unlike the *P. miniata* L-type SALMFamide precursor,  
548 which contains seven putative SALMFamides, the *A. japonicus* L-type SALMFamide precursor  
549 contains only three L-type or L-type-like SALMFamides: TRSRSMFGNTALPFamide,  
550 VVSRAWSPLVGQTGIAFamide and MGFTGNTGILLamide (Fig. 2, 3) [26]. Nothing is known  
551 about the neuroanatomical expression of the L-type SALMFamide precursor or the pharmacological  
552 actions of its putative neuropeptide products. It will be of interest to compare the expression and  
553 actions of neuropeptides derived from the L-type SALMFamide precursor with the expression and  
554 actions of neuropeptides derived from the F-type SALMFamide precursor, which also contains L-  
555 type SALMFamides.

556

#### 557 **4. Echinoidea**

##### 558 *4.1 SALMFamide-like immunoreactive peptides in the sea urchin Echinus esculentus*

559 The development of radioimmunoassays for the starfish SALMFamides S1 and S2, as  
560 described above in section 2.2 above, facilitated investigation of the occurrence of structurally  
561 related SALMFamides in other echinoderms. With SALMFamides having already been identified  
562 in a holothurian species (see section 3.2 above), effort was focused on a species belonging to the  
563 class Echinoidea, the sea urchin *Echinus esculentus* [32]. Because it is difficult to dissect nerves  
564 from sea urchins, acetone extracts of whole animals were analysed. This revealed four  
565 chromatographically distinct peaks of S2-like-ir, which were labelled peaks 1-4. Only one of these  
566 peaks (peak 3) was purified to homogeneity and subjected to sequencing. This revealed that peak 3  
567 has the N-terminal sequence Met-Arg-Tyr-His but it was not possible to obtain the complete  
568 sequence of this peptide. However, with the availability of SALMFamide precursor sequences from  
569 a sea urchin species (see section 4.5 below) it was possible in retrospect to deduce that the *Echinus*  
570 peak 3 peptide is probably a homolog of a SALMFamide neuropeptide that is a predicted product of  
571 the L-type SALMFamide precursor in *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* – MRLHPGLLFamide [64].



572 This peptide has the N-terminal tetrapeptide sequence MRLH, which is very similar to the partial  
573 sequence obtained for the *Echinus* peak 3 peptide (MRYH).

574

#### 575 4.2. Distribution of SALMFamide-type neuropeptides in larval echinoids

576 The first investigation of SALMFamide expression in the larval nervous system of an  
577 echinoderm employed use of antibodies to S1 for immunocytochemical analysis of the larvae of the  
578 sand dollar *Dendraster excentricus* [67]. S1-immunoreactive fibres first appear in the apical  
579 ganglion between 56 h and 72 h. By 6 days (4-6 arm plutei), 2-4 pairs of S1-immunoreactive cell  
580 bodies can be seen, and by 21 days (8-arm plutei) there are 9-10 pairs of S1- immunoreactive cell  
581 bodies in the apical ganglion. S1-immunoreactive cell bodies are also present in the oral ganglion,  
582 first evident in early 4-arm plutei as 2-4 cells and then increasing to 6 pairs by 3 weeks (8-arm  
583 plutei). From 12-13 days (6-8 arm plutei) a network of S1-immunoreactive fibres is also present in  
584 the oesophagus and by 21 days the process of single S1-immunoreactive cell can be seen encircling  
585 the pyloric sphincter of the larval gut.

586 SALMFamide expression has also been analysed in larvae of the sea urchin *Psammechinus*  
587 *miliaris* using antibodies to S1 [3], and the patterns of immunoreactivity are similar to those seen in  
588 sand dollar larvae (see above). A population of at least 20 pairs of S1-immunoreactive cells are  
589 evident in the apical ganglion in mature 8-armed plutei; a smaller population of S1-immunoreactive  
590 cells is associated with the lower lip. A plexus of S1-immunoreactive cells and processes develops  
591 around the pylorus at the posterior end of the stomach, which is first apparent as a single cell and  
592 fibre in 6-arm plutei. In mature larvae S1-ir can also be seen in the adult rudiment, with the  
593 SALMFamidergic nerve fibres delineating the five radial nerves that innervate the primary tube feet.  
594 A novel feature of the study [3] was the use of antibodies to S2, which revealed a SALMFamidergic  
595 system distinct from that revealed by antibodies to S1. Thus, S2-ir was observed in the cell bodies  
596 of neurons that are located between the anterolateral and posterodorsal arms and that have processes  
597 underlying the ciliated bands.

598           The patterns of SALMFamide expression in echinoid larvae point to roles in neural  
599 processing of sensory signals in the apical ganglion and regulation of the ciliary activity required  
600 for swimming and feeding. The S1-ir nerve plexus associated with the stomach pylorus is  
601 suggestive of a role in regulation of gut muscle activity; possibly a relaxing action, given the now  
602 well established effects of SALMFamides as muscle relaxants in adult echinoderms [28].  
603 Furthermore, with identification of genes encoding SALMFamides in sea urchins (see section 4.5  
604 below), there are now opportunities to experimentally investigate SALMFamide function in  
605 echinoid larvae.

606

#### 607 *4.3. Distribution of SALMFamide-type neuropeptides in adult echinoids*

608           Currently, very little is known about the anatomical distribution of SALMFamide  
609 neuropeptides in adult echinoids. However, immunocytochemical analysis of the sea urchin *Arbacia*  
610 *lixula* using antibodies to the starfish SALMFamide S2 has revealed immunoreactivity in the podial  
611 nerve that innervates the tube feet [38]. This finding is consistent with the detection of S1-ir and S2-  
612 ir in the basiepithelial plexus of starfish tube feet. Furthermore, it suggests a potential role for  
613 SALMFamides in regulation of tube foot motility in sea urchins (see section 4.4 below).

614

#### 615 *4.4 Pharmacological effects of SALMFamide neuropeptides in adult echinoids*

616           The molecular identity of echinoid SALMFamide neuropeptides has only been determined  
617 relatively recently, through the analysis of genome/transcriptome sequence data (see section 4.4  
618 below). Therefore, as yet there are no published reports of the effects of native SALMFamides on  
619 echinoid preparations. However, the effects of the starfish SALMFamides S1 and S2 on tube foot  
620 preparations from the sea urchin *Echinus esculentus* have been examined and both peptides cause  
621 relaxation,[32], consistent with the detection of S2-like-ir in the innervation of tube feet in the sea  
622 urchin *Arbacia lixula* [38]. Furthermore, these findings provide further evidence that  
623 SALMFamide-type neuropeptides act as muscle relaxants throughout the phylum Echinodermata.

624

#### 625 4.5 SALMFamide precursor proteins reveal the diversity of SALMFamides in sea urchins

626 The sea urchin *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* was the first echinoderm species to have its  
627 genome sequenced and BLAST analysis of the sequence data enabled determination of the  
628 sequence of the first SALMFamide neuropeptide precursor to be identified - a precursor comprising  
629 seven putative F-type SALMFamides, which were named SpurS1 – SpurS7 [32]. Four of the  
630 peptides have the canonical F-type SALMFamide motif SxFxFamide (SpurS1, SpurS2, SpurS3 and  
631 SpurS6). However, the serine residue is replaced by a proline residue in two of the peptides (SpurS4  
632 and SpurS5) and by a leucine residue in one of the peptides (SpursS7) (Fig. 2, 3).

633 Subsequently, analysis of neural transcriptome sequence data enabled identification of an L-  
634 type SALMFamide precursor in *S. purpuratus* [64]. This protein comprises just two putative  
635 SALMFamides, NMGSIHSHSGIHFamide (SpurS8) and MRLHPGLLFamide (SpurS9; probably a  
636 homolog of the peak 3 peptide purified from *Echinus* - see section 4.1 above). SpurS8 has the C-  
637 terminal motif SxIxFamide, which is structurally very similar to the canonical L-type SALMFamide  
638 motif (SxLxFamide), whereas in SpurS9 the canonical serine residue is replaced by a proline (Fig. 2,  
639 3).

640 Since completion of the *S. purpuratus* genome project, genome sequence data have been  
641 obtained from other sea urchin species. Analysis of partial SALMFamide precursor sequences  
642 obtained from *Strongylocentrotus franiscanus* reveals peptides that are identical to SpurS1, -S2, -S3,  
643 -S4, -S7 and -S8, as might perhaps be expected for species belonging to the same genus (A. Patel  
644 and M. Elphick, unpublished observations from data available at <http://www.spbase.org/SpBase/>).  
645 However, analysis of genome sequence data obtained for *Lytechinus variegatus*, a sea urchin  
646 species that is more distantly related to *S. purpuratus*, reveals sequence divergence in its two  
647 putative L-type SALMFamides and seven putative F-type SALMFamides, with amino acid  
648 substitutions per peptide ranging from just one to as many as seven (A. Patel and M. Elphick,  
649 unpublished observations from data available at <http://www.spbase.org/SpBase/>)

650

## 651 **5. Ophiuroidea**

### 652 *5.1 Detection of SALMFamide-like immunoreactive peptides in ophiuroids*

653 In parallel with studies using antibodies to S1 and/or S2 to assay for SALMFamide-type  
654 neuropeptides in the sea urchin *Echinus esculentus* (see section 4.1 above), extracts of the brittle  
655 star *Ophiura ophiura* were analysed using the same methodology. S1-like-ir was detected in a range  
656 of HPLC-separated fractions but the levels of immunoreactivity were not sufficient to enable  
657 purification and sequencing of the immunoreactive peptides [23]. S1-like-ir and S2-like-ir have also  
658 been detected in extracts of the brittle star species *Amphipholis squamata* [4]. To date no brittle star  
659 SALMFamide-type neuropeptides have been purified and sequenced. However, as discussed in  
660 section 5.5 below, insights on the sequences of SALMFamides in ophiuroids have been obtained  
661 from transcriptome sequence data.

662

### 663 *5.2 Localisation of SALMFamide-like immunoreactivity in brittle star larvae*

664 Analysis of the development and organisation of the nervous system in brittle star larvae has  
665 been facilitated recently through use of antibodies to synaptotagmin. Using this approach neural  
666 development has been described in the brittle star species *Amphipholis kochii* and *Amphiura*  
667 *filiformis* [22, 40]. The distribution of larval SALMFamide expression has been examined in the  
668 brittle star species *Ophiactis resiliens* using antibodies to S1 [9]. S1-like-ir is first observed in 6-  
669 armed ophioplutei, associated with a nerve containing several cell bodies that encircles the stomach.  
670 By the 8-armed stage, S1-ir is also evident in fibres innervating the pre-oral ciliated band, the post-  
671 oral transverse ciliated band and the adoral ciliated band. A cluster of 2-3 S1-like-immunoreactive  
672 cell bodies is present at the base of the antero-lateral arms. In advanced ophioplutei (90 days) the  
673 S1-like-immunoreactive neural elements associated with the gut and ciliated bands begin to  
674 degenerate but a new group of S1-like-immunoreactive cells appears along the proximal end of the  
675 antero-lateral arms. In metamorphosing larvae (98-100 days) S1-like immunoreactive fibres can be

676 seen in the developing rudiment. As with the other echinoderm classes, at present nothing is known  
677 about the physiological roles of SALMFamides in brittle star larvae. Nevertheless, the patterns of  
678 expression are indicative of roles in regulation swimming, feeding and gut activity. Furthermore,  
679 with the molecular identification of SALMFamides in brittle stars (see section 5.5) it may soon be  
680 possible to directly address this issue by testing the pharmacological actions of synthetic peptides.

681

### 682 *5.3 Localisation of SALMFamide-like immunoreactivity in adult brittle stars*

683         Although SALMFamide-type neuropeptides have not been purified from ophiuroids,  
684 antibodies to S1 have been used to examine the presence and distribution of SALMFamide-like  
685 peptides in adult brittle stars. A detailed immunocytochemical study of the brittle star species  
686 *Ophiura ophiura* revealed S1-like immunoreactive neuronal somata and fibres in the ectoneural part  
687 of the radial nerves and the circumoral nerve ring [36]. The patterns of immunostaining reflected  
688 the segmental organisation of the radial nerve cords, with distinct clusters of immunoreactive cell  
689 bodies occupying the same positions in each segment of the radial nerve. The majority of  
690 immunostained cell bodies were small (8 – 15  $\mu\text{m}$ ); however, in each segment of the nerve cord a  
691 single giant neuron (diameter > 25  $\mu\text{m}$ ) or occasionally a pair of giant neurons was labelled by S1  
692 antibodies. Furthermore, in the two segments proximal to the circumoral nerve ring, the number of  
693 immunostained cell bodies was higher than in more distal segments. In the circumoral nerve ring  
694 immunostaining was largely localised in fibres, supportive of the view that “the ring cannot be  
695 regarded as a central nervous system but only functions as a link between the five segmented nerve  
696 cords” [36]. Thus, analysis of SALMFamide-like-ir in *O. ophiura* provided important insights on  
697 the functional organisation ophiuroid nervous systems. Furthermore, the data obtained provide a  
698 basis for investigation of SALMFamide neuropeptide function in repeatedly identifiable  
699 echinoderm neurons; thus, it may be possible to employ electrophysiological recording methods to  
700 analyse the properties of the S1-like immunoreactive giant neurons in each segment of the radial  
701 nerves.

702 Subsequently, S1-antibodies were used to examine the distribution of SALMFamide-type  
703 neuropeptides in a different brittle star species, the luminescent *Amphipholis squamata*. However,  
704 in this study antibodies to S2 were also used in parallel with antibodies to S1 [15]. Similar to  
705 findings in *O. ophiura*, S1-immunoreactive cell bodies and fibres were revealed in the ectoneural  
706 part of the radial nerve cords, with a segmentally repeating pattern of immunostaining. In addition,  
707 a distinct small population of S1-ir neurons and associated processes was revealed in the  
708 hyponeural part of the radial nerve cords. S2-ir was found to be less abundant than S1-ir and was  
709 restricted to cells and fibres in the ectoneural part of the nervous system. Interestingly, this mirrors  
710 findings in *A. rubens* (see section 2.4 above), where S1-ir was detected in both the ectoneural and  
711 hyponeural parts of the nervous system and S2-ir was restricted to the ectoneural. Further  
712 investigation of the functional significance of these differences in patterns of staining in *A.*  
713 *squamata* would be facilitated if the peptides responsible for S1-ir and S2-ir in this species were  
714 identified (see section 5.5 below). Nevertheless, some insights on SALMFamide function in *A.*  
715 *squamata* have been obtained by using the starfish SALMFamides S1 and S2 for pharmacological  
716 studies, as described in section 5.4 below.

717

#### 718 *5.4 Pharmacological effects of SALMFamides on brittle stars*

719 The investigation of SALMFamide expression in the brittle star *A. squamata*, as described  
720 above, was conducted in the context of an interest in neural control of luminescence in this species.  
721 The classical neurotransmitter acetylcholine (ACh) induces low intensity light flashes from isolated  
722 arms of *A. squamata* [16, 17], whereas the depolarizing agent KCl induces higher intensity  
723 monophasic light production [45]. It was postulated, therefore, that KCl may induce release of other  
724 neurotransmitters or neuromodulators that regulate luminescence alongside ACh. To investigate a  
725 potential role for SALMFamides in regulating luminescence in *A. squamata*, the starfish  
726 SALMFamides S1 and S2 were tested *in vitro* on isolated arms [4]. Experiments were performed on  
727 the two varieties of *A. squamata* that occur naturally – black and brown (also referred to as “clear”).

728 Application of S1 or S2 did not induce luminescence of isolated arms from either variety. However,  
729 pretreatment with S1 significantly increased ACh-induced luminescence in both black and clear  
730 specimens, whilst pre-treatment with S2 had little or no effect on ACh-induced luminescence.  
731 These data indicate that SALMFamides may act as neuromodulators that regulate light production  
732 in *A. squamata*. It interesting that a potentiating effect of S1 on ACh-induced luminescence was  
733 observed because hitherto only inhibitory effects of SALMFamides have been reported (e.g. muscle  
734 relaxation; inhibition of GSS release in starfish). One possibility is that SALMFamides act to  
735 inhibit the release of inhibitory neurotransmitters such as GABA and glycine, which cause  
736 inhibition of ACh-induced luminescence in *A. squamata* [4]. Further investigation of the  
737 physiological roles of SALMFamides in regulation of luminescence in *A. squamata* would be  
738 facilitated if neuropeptides native to this species or other brittle star species are identified (see  
739 section 5.5 below).

740

#### 741 5.5 SALMFamide precursor proteins in brittle stars

742 Recently, a paper reporting transcriptome sequencing of the Antarctic brittle star species  
743 *Ophionotus victoriae* was published [6]. The sequences of 18,003 contigs were determined and  
744 analysis of these data has revealed a contig (7706) encoding a partial protein sequence that contains  
745 eleven putative F-type SALMFamides and a single putative L-type SALMFamide  
746 (RNPMNSLSALAFamide) that shares sequence similarity with the starfish SALMFamide S2  
747 (SGPYSFNSGLTFamide) (M.R. Elphick, D.C. Semmens & M.S. Clark, unpublished data). Thus,  
748 this protein appears to be a brittle star ortholog of the F-type SALMFamide precursors that have  
749 been identified in other echinoderms. On-going studies are directed toward determining the  
750 complete sequence of this protein as well as investigating the occurrence of an L-type  
751 SALMFamide precursor in *Ophionotus victoriae*.

752

## 753 6. Crinoidea

754           Currently, very little is known about SALMFamides in crinoids. An immunocytochemical  
755 study of pinnules from the crinoid *Antedon bifida* using antibodies to the starfish SALMFamide  
756 neuropeptide S2 revealed groups of S2-like immunoreactive bipolar and roundish neuronal somata  
757 (~6 µm diameter) located at the periphery of pinnular sections of the brachial nerve just before the  
758 nerve enters the ossicles [37]. These cells have processes that project along the boundary between  
759 ossicles and interossicular muscles and ligaments, whilst another process projects into the  
760 interossicular segment of the nerve. These anatomical observations suggest a possible role for  
761 SALMFamides in regulating the mechanics of interossicular muscles and ligaments in crinoids.  
762 However, there are, as yet, no reports of experimental studies investigating the pharmacological  
763 activity of SALMFamides in crinoids.

764           Progress in analysis of SALMFamide function in crinoids would be facilitated by  
765 identification of genes/cDNAs encoding SALMFamide precursor proteins. Currently, however,  
766 there are no genome/transcriptome sequence data available for crinoid species. Discovery of  
767 SALMFamide precursors in crinoids would be of great interest, but not only as a basis for  
768 experimental studies. Because crinoids occupy a phylogenetic position that is basal to the four other  
769 extant echinoderm classes [59], analysis of sequence data from crinoids may provide important  
770 insights into the evolution of SALMFamide neuropeptides. For example, do crinoids have both an  
771 L-type and an F-type SALMFamide precursor? If they do, then does the F-type SALMFamide  
772 precursor also contain one or more L-type SALMFamides, as has been found in starfish, sea  
773 cucumbers and brittle stars?

774

## 775 **7. Conclusions and directions for future research**

776           Looking back over a research programme that was initiated twenty-five years ago, it is  
777 timely to assess the broader impact of the discovery of SALMFamide neuropeptides. Perhaps the  
778 greatest impact has been providing new tools (in the form of antibodies) for visualisation of  
779 echinoderm nervous systems. In particular, antibodies to the starfish SALMFamide neuropeptide S1



780 have been widely used to reveal for the first time the architecture of neuropeptidergic systems in a  
781 variety of echinoderms, both as larvae and as adults. These neuroanatomical studies have yielded  
782 data that have provided new insights into the organisation of echinoderm nervous systems.  
783 However, the more challenging task of determining the physiological roles of SALMFamide  
784 neuropeptides in echinoderms has not kept pace with neuroanatomical studies. Although patterns of  
785 SALMFamide expression have been revealed in larvae from several echinoderm classes, at present  
786 nothing is known about the physiological roles of SALMFamides, or indeed any neuropeptides, in  
787 echinoderm larvae. This represents an exciting field of investigation for the future, especially now  
788 that SALMFamide precursor transcript sequences have been identified in several echinoderm  
789 species. Recently, progress has been made determining the physiological roles of neuropeptides in  
790 the larval nervous systems of other marine invertebrates such as the annelid *Platynereis dumerilii*.  
791 For example, neuropeptides alter ciliary beat frequency, which affects the vertical distribution of  
792 larvae in the water column [13, 14]. Accordingly, similar experimental approaches to those used  
793 with *Platynereis* larvae could be employed to investigate neuropeptide function in echinoderm  
794 larvae.

795 Progress has been made, as discussed above, in revealing the pharmacological actions of  
796 SALMFamide neuropeptides in adult echinoderms and a consistent finding is relaxing effects on  
797 muscle systems [28]. Furthermore, the *in vitro* and *in vivo* relaxing effect of SALMFamides on the  
798 cardiac stomach of starfish suggests a physiological role in mediating neural control of stomach  
799 eversion associated with their extraoral feeding behaviour [47]. However, the discovery of  
800 physiological roles is determined by choices of bioassays, and it would be simplistic to conclude  
801 that the function of SALMFamides is solely to act as muscle relaxants in echinoderms. The  
802 inhibitory effect of S1 on neural release of GSS in starfish [49] points to a more general role for  
803 SALMFamides as inhibitory neurotransmitters and as such it is likely that SALMFamides have  
804 pleiotropic actions in echinoderms.

805 Perhaps the most important recent breakthrough in SALMFamide research has been the  
806 identification of genes/transcripts encoding the precursors of SALMFamide neuropeptides [26].  
807 This has revealed that a much greater diversity of SALMFamides exists in echinoderm species than  
808 had been revealed previously. This feature of SALMFamides was discussed in detail in the class-  
809 specific sections of text above and is illustrated in figures 2 and 3. Thus, the currently available data  
810 indicate that in echinoderms there are two types of SALMFamide precursors: an L-type  
811 SALMFamide precursor and an F-type SALMFamide precursor.

812 L-type SALMFamide precursors comprise only L-type or L-type-like SALMFamides but  
813 the number of putative L-type peptides derived from L-type SALMFamide precursors ranges from  
814 just two (*S. purpuratus*; Echinoidea) to seven (*P. miniata*; Asteroidea) (Fig. 2, 3). Furthermore,  
815 comparative alignment of L-type SALMFamide precursors suggests that a common ancestral  
816 precursor protein may have comprised three L-type SALMFamides (as in *A. japonicus*;  
817 Holothuroidea) [26]

818 F-type SALMFamide precursors comprise variable numbers of F-type or F-type-like  
819 SALMFamides and typically (Asteroidea, Holothuroidea, Ophiuroidea) one or more L-type  
820 SALMFamides. In fact the first F-type SALMFamide precursor to be identified in the sea urchin *S.*  
821 *purpuratus* is atypical in comprising only F-type SALMFamides (Fig. 2, 3). Therefore, with  
822 reference to echinoderm phylogeny [59], a parsimonious explanation based on the sequence data  
823 available would be that the occurrence of one or more L-type SALMFamides in the F-type  
824 SALMFamide precursors is an ancient characteristic that dates back to the common ancestor of  
825 echinoids, holothurians, asteroids and ophiuroids. Accordingly, it would be concluded that there has  
826 been loss of L-type peptides in F-type SALMFamide precursors in the echinoid lineage.

827 The occurrence of multiple SALMFamide isoforms in echinoderms raises questions  
828 concerning their functional significance. Neuropeptide “cocktails” derived from common precursor  
829 proteins are, of course, not unique to SALMFamides. Indeed, it is a widespread phenomenon in the  
830 animal kingdom, particularly in invertebrates [70]. However, in spite of this, its physiological

831 relevance remains poorly understood. Some studies indicate that neuropeptide isoforms derived  
832 from a common precursor are functionally redundant [39], whilst other studies have revealed  
833 differential effects [33, 44]. The discovery that heterogeneous mixtures of SALMFamides are  
834 derived from common precursor proteins has provided opportunities to use this neuropeptide family  
835 as a model system to investigate the physiological significance of neuropeptide “cocktails”.

836         Ultimately, an understanding of the physiological relevance of the SALMFamide  
837 *salmagundi* will require identification and characterisation of receptors that mediate the effects of  
838 these neuropeptides. Relevant to this issue, it was recently postulated that L-type SALMFamides  
839 may belong to a bilaterian family of neuropeptides that include gonadotropin-inhibitory hormone  
840 (GnIH) in vertebrates and SIFamide-type neuropeptides in protostomian invertebrates [25]. The  
841 rationale for this hypothesis is that some SIFamide-type neuropeptides have a C-terminal  
842 SxLxFamide motif, as found in L-type SALMFamides. Further evidence can be found in the  
843 physiological roles of GnIH-type and SIFamide-type neuropeptides, which inhibit reproductive  
844 processes in vertebrates and *Drosophila*, respectively [68, 69]. In this respect there are similarities  
845 with the L-type SALMFamide S1, which causes inhibition of neural release of the relaxin-like  
846 gonad stimulating substance in starfish [49]. Furthermore, GnIH also stimulates feeding behaviour  
847 and it has been proposed that GnIH functions as a “molecular switch” between reproduction and  
848 feeding in vertebrates [10] It is intriguing, therefore, that SALMFamides trigger cardiac stomach  
849 eversion in starfish, indicative of a physiological role in neural control of feeding behaviour [47].  
850 Thus, it is tempting to speculate that GnIH/SALMFamide/SIFamide-type neuropeptides may be an  
851 evolutionarily ancient family of neuropeptides that stimulate feeding and inhibit reproduction in  
852 bilaterian animals. Support for this hypothesis would be obtained if it is found that SALMFamide  
853 receptors are orthologs of the GnIH/SIFamide-type receptors that have been identified in  
854 vertebrates and in *Drosophila* [42, 43, 48].

855         It is also noteworthy that the C-terminal FxFamide motif of F-type SALMFamides is a  
856 feature of vertebrate QRFP (26RFa)-type neuropeptides, which regulate food intake in mammals by

857 stimulating intake of a high fat diet [62]. Accordingly, F-type SALMFamides may exert their  
858 effects by binding to echinoderm QRFP-type receptors. Testing this hypothesis is now feasible with  
859 the availability of echinoderm transcriptome/genome sequence data [5, 21, 66].

860 This review has looked back over a period of twenty-five years of research on  
861 SALMFamide neuropeptides, which began with a paper published in 1989 reporting FMRFamide-  
862 like immunoreactivity in the starfish *A. rubens*. Looking ahead, key objectives for the future are to:  
863 i). determine the evolutionary relationships of echinoderm SALMFamides with neuropeptides in  
864 other phyla, which could be achieved by identifying the receptors that mediate effects of  
865 SALMFamides ii). examine more widely the physiological roles of SALMFamides in larval and  
866 adult echinoderms and iii). investigate the evolutionary and functional significance of the  
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Fig 1

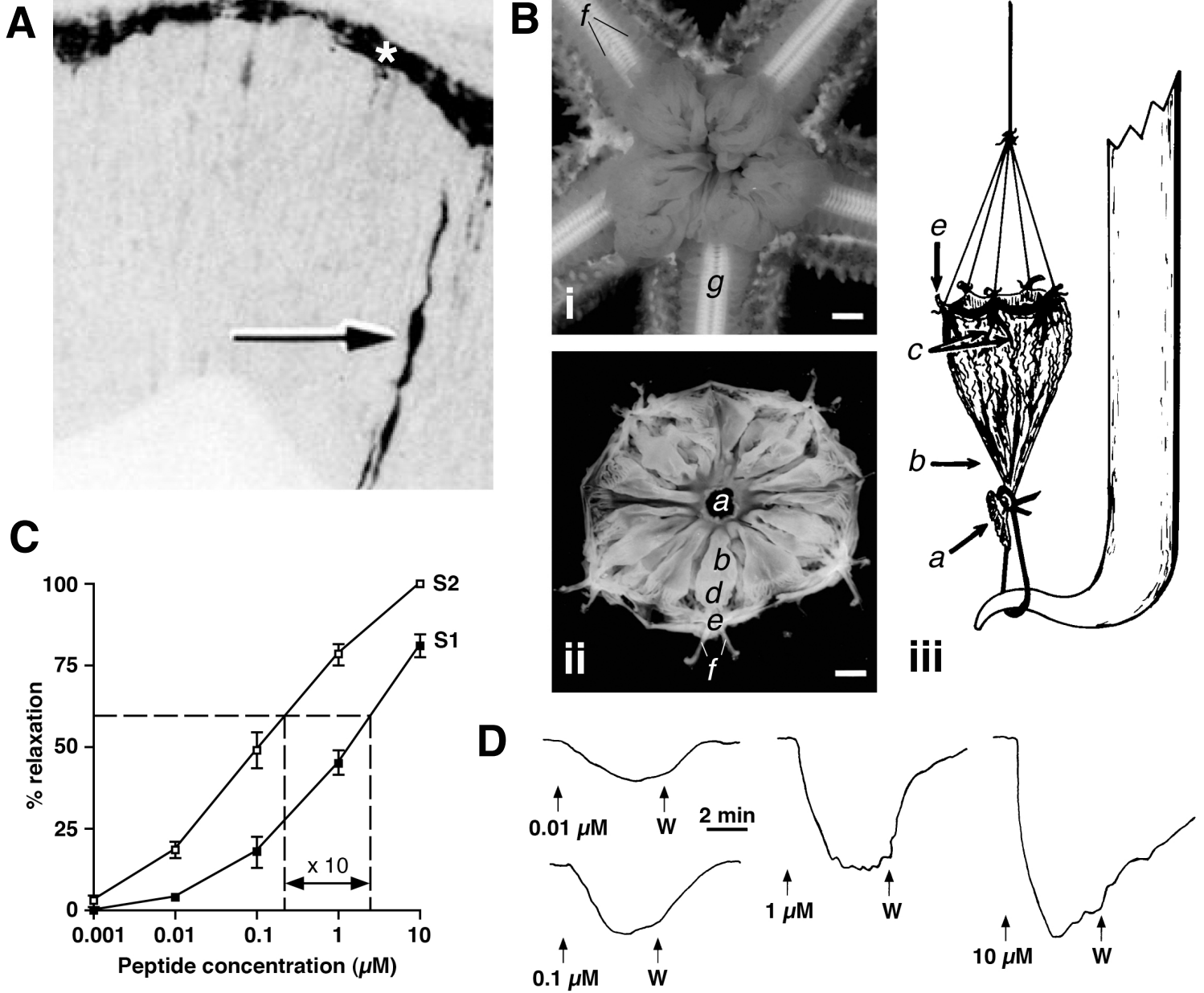


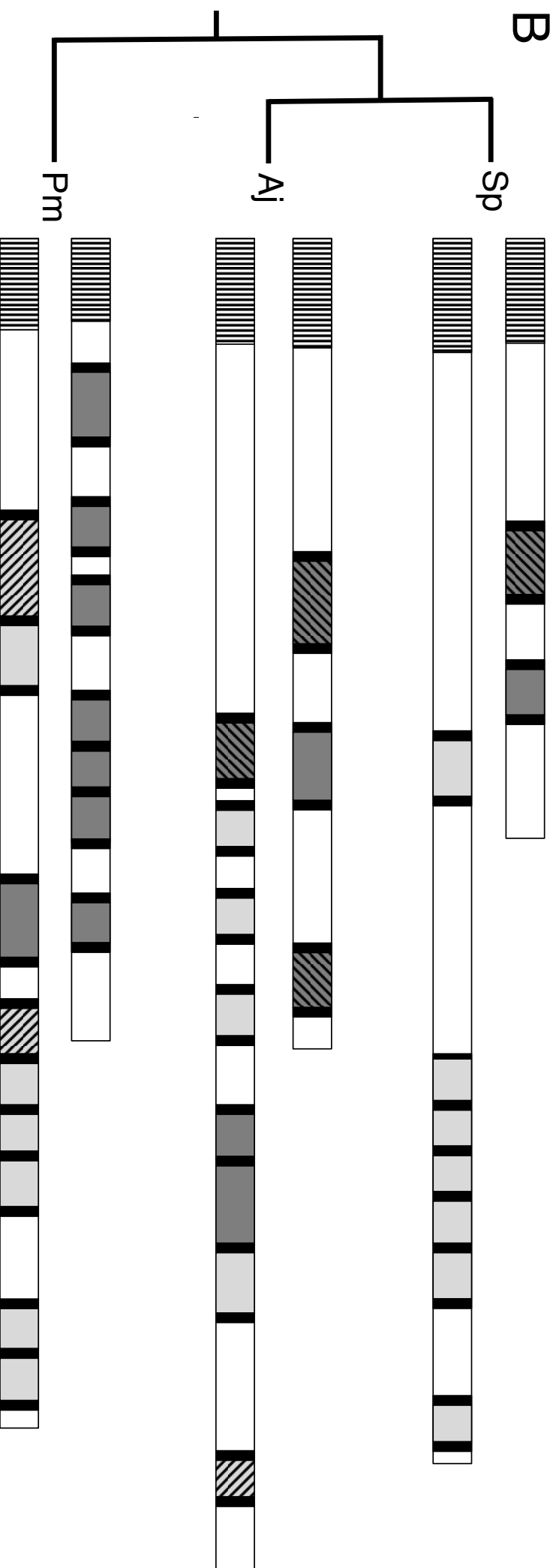
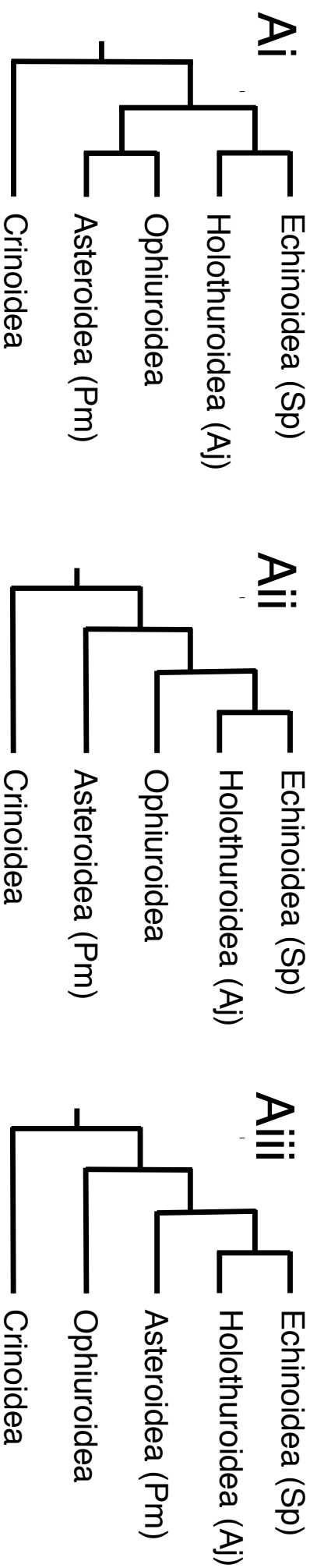
Fig 2

A

Pm PAGSPVFHSA**L**TYa  
AFHSAL**P**Fa  
GLHSAL**P**Fa  
GFNSAL**M**Fa  
IHTAL**P**Fa  
GYHSAL**P**Fa  
GYHTGL**P**Fa  
  
Aj VVSRAWSP**L**VGQ**T**GIAFa  
TRSRSM**F**GNTA**L**PFa  
MGFTGNTG**I**LLa  
  
Sp NMGSIHSH**S**GIHFa  
MRLHPG**L**LLFa

B

Pm DVSDRQREIDLAAQ**Q**PFY**P**Ya  
TDVPGR**P**SG**F**VFa  
SNGPY**S**MSGLRS**L**TFa  
ADLFRSY**A**Fa  
ALGS**N**FAFa  
GYSS**F**DFa  
AGLGSS**F**TFa  
ALGSS**F**SFa  
SGLSS**F**TFa  
  
Aj GVPPY**V**VKV**T**Ya  
FKSP**F**MFa  
GYSP**F**MFa  
ARYSP**F**TFa  
GGYS**A**LYFa  
VPELAESDGGQ**S**KLYFa  
GHRGGQ**F**SQ**F**KFa  
FKSS**F**YLa  
  
Sp PPVT**T**RSK**F**TFa  
DAYSA**F**SFa  
GMSA**F**SFa  
AQPS**F**AFa  
GLMP**S**FAFa  
PHGG**S**AFVFa  
GDLA**F**AFa



**Revised manuscript showing changes**

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