The long and the short of it: A perspective on peptidergic regulation of circuits and behaviour

Running title: Peptidergic regulation of behaviour

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Summary

Neuropeptides are the largest class of neuromodulators in nervous systems. Here we review the general principles and mechanistic insights that have emerged from studies of various animal models and discuss some of the outstanding major challenges.

Abstract

Neuropeptides are the most diverse class of chemical modulators in nervous systems. They contribute to extensive modulation of circuit activity and have profound influences on animal physiology. Studies on invertebrate "model" organisms including the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* and the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* have enabled the genetic manipulation of peptidergic signalling, contributing to an understanding of how neuropeptides pattern the output of neural circuits to underpin behavioural adaptation. Electrophysiological and pharmacological analyses of well-defined microcircuits, such as the crustacean stomatogastric ganglion, have provided detailed insights into neuropeptide functions at a cellular and circuit level. These approaches can be increasingly applied in the mammalian brain by focusing on circuits with a defined and identifiable sub-population of neurons. Functional analyses of neuropeptide systems have been underpinned by systematic studies to map peptidergic networks. Here we review the general principles and mechanistic insights that have emerged from these studies. We also highlight some of the outstanding challenges that remain for furthering our understanding of the functional relevance of peptidergic modulation.

Introduction

Neuropeptides are a diverse family of signalling molecules with significant roles in animal physiology and behaviour. They are short chain length peptides that are synthesised by the

50 enzymatic cleavage of larger polypeptide precursors (Elphick et al., 2017). Peptidergic
51 communication was first recognised in the context of peptide hormones secreted from endocrine
52 glands (Bayliss and Starling, 1902) with the later discovery that peptides may also be
53 synthesised in, and secreted from neurons (Knowles and Bern, 1966)(Olivecrona,
54 1954)(Worthington, 1966) (Johnson, 1962; Knowles, 1951) along with 'classical' small-molecule
55 neurotransmitters (Hökfelt et al., 1980). Since then it has become increasingly clear that
56 neuropeptides add a level of complexity and finesse to neuronal communication that is of key
57 importance for behavioural plasticity (Koh et al., 2003; Stein et al., 2007; Taghert and Nitabach,
58 2012; van den Pol, 2012).
59 The aim of this review is to discuss a selection of recent examples of peptidergic regulation of
60 behaviour from across the animal phyla. Two accompanying review articles focus on other core
61 aspects of neuropeptides: The first focuses on structurally-related neuropeptides families, the
62 evolutionary conservation of genes that encode them and their processing from large polypeptide
63 precursors (Elphick et al., 2017). The second provides an update on experimental approaches and
64 emerging techniques that are being deployed to dissect the organisation of peptidergic networks,
65 the neuropeptides and their receptors (DeLaney et al., 2017). Further informative reviews on the
66 topic relating to specific neuropeptide families are available elsewhere e.g. (Beets et al., 2013;
67 Walker et al., 2009).
68
69 **Complexity of peptidergic signalling in animal nervous systems**
70 ***Neuropeptide diversity***
71 The genomes of bilaterian animals, on average, encode over a hundred neuropeptide precursors
72 and receptors (Caers et al., 2012; Civelli et al., 2013; Conzelmann et al., 2013b; Frooninckx et
73 al., 2012; Mirabeau and Joly, 2013; Zhang et al., 2012). Diversity is further increased by the

74 presence of multiple copies of the same neuropeptide or different types of neuropeptides within
75 one precursor sequence e.g. the myoinhibitory peptide precursor in the silkworm *Bombyx mori*
76 contains eight different versions of the peptide (Figure 1A). Similarly, mammalian pro-
77 opiomelanocortin (POMC) gives rise to adrenocorticotropic hormone as well as opioid,
78 melanotropin and other peptides (Cawley et al., 2016; Wallis, 2010)(Figure 1B). A single
79 proneuropeptide gene can also generate different isoforms through alternative splicing, producing
80 different peptides that are expressed differentially, as observed for *Drosophila* orcokinin (Figure
81 1C), mammalian calcitonin and other peptides (Amara et al., 1982; Chen et al., 2015; Li et al.,
82 2008). Furthermore, the level of post-translational processing can also be modulated in a state-
83 dependent manner. For example, the melanocortin peptide alpha-MSH derived from POMC
84 regulates body weight: It accumulates during fasting through an increased rate of post-
85 translational processing of POMC, likely underpinned by altered expression of prohormone
86 convertases (Perello et al., 2007; Tung et al., 2006).

87 ***Neuropeptide receptor diversity***

88 Most neuropeptides signal through seven-transmembrane G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs),
89 but they can act through several other classes of receptors. For example, insulin-related peptides
90 signal through insulin receptors that are receptor tyrosine kinases. The receptors for growth
91 hormone and prolactin are single-pass transmembrane proteins that define a separate family
92 (Boutin et al., 1988). In addition there are RFamide peptide-gated channels belonging to the
93 degenerin (DEG)/epithelial Na(+) channel (ENaC) family (Cottrell et al., 1990; Lingueglia et al.,
94 1995) (Assmann et al., 2014; Dürrnagel et al., 2010; Golubovic et al., 2007)(Furukawa et al.,
95 2006; Lingueglia et al., 2006).

96 ***Complex regulation***

97 Differential regulation is possible along every step of the path, from transcription of genes

encoding peptides and receptors to the binding and activation of the receptors by their cognate peptide ligands and the resulting downstream effects (Figure 1D) allowing for regulation that is either immediate and transient, or sustained.

One such sustained effect is provided by the state-dependent transcription of genes encoding neuropeptides and their receptors (Amir-Zilberstein et al., 2012; Fukuchi et al., 2004; Knight et al., 2012; MacArthur and Eiden, 1996; Rojo Romanos et al., 2017; Sonnenberg et al., 1989). For example, fasting increases the expression of agouti-related peptide (AgRP) in the hypothalamus, but decreases pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC) expression in the pituitary, two prohormones that regulate homeostasis and have orexigenic and anorexigenic effects, respectively (Varela and Horvath, 2012). In addition, several peptide transcripts have been shown to fluctuate with the circadian clock or the oestrous cycle in the female mouse *Mus musculus* to drive associated behaviours (Aton et al., 2005; Dey et al., 2015; Reghunandanan et al., 1993).

Intricate processing and sorting

Processing of proneuropeptides involves many distinct enzymes localised to the secretory pathway, with occasional tissue-specific variation (Bicknell, 2008). Following signal peptide cleavage, proneuropeptides are cleaved at mono- or di-basic sites by two types of proteases, cathepsin L and the subtilisin-like prohormone convertases. Further processing of peptide intermediates by amino- or carboxypeptidases removes the remaining N- or C-terminal basic residues (Funkelstein et al., 2010; Hook et al., 2008; Yasothornsrikul et al., 2003). The peptides often undergo amidation, during which dedicated enzymes convert a C-terminal Gly residue to an α-amide group ($–CONH_2$) (Eipper et al., 1992)(Figure 1D).

Mature neuropeptides are sorted and stored in dense core vesicles (DCVs) which are larger in diameter (100 nm or, for large dense core vesicles, 180-200 nm) than the small clear vesicles (SCV; 40 to 60 nm) that contain classical small molecule neurotransmitters. Differential sorting

of peptides can also contribute to the fine-tuning of signalling (Sossin et al., 1990). Studies are revealing the detailed mechanisms involved in the allocation of peptides to their designate secretory vesicles; for reviews on sorting see (Dikeakos and Reudelhuber, 2007; Zhang et al., 2010). Different neuropeptides expressed in the same cell are often found to co-localize in single DCVs. However there is evidence that neuropeptides can be sorted into different vesicles, even if they derive from the same precursor (Landry et al., 2003; Perello et al., 2008). The N- and C-terminal-derived peptides from the thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH) precursor, for example, are sorted into different secretory vesicles (Perello et al., 2008). Whether and how differential sorting might be regulated in a state-dependent manner and influence synergistic actions of peptides is an outstanding question.

Regulation of release

Release of neuropeptides can be either from local projections in the proximity of the neuronal soma or from the terminals of long-range projections that project to regions distant from the neuronal soma, or by volume transmission in the nervous system (see glossary (Agnati et al., 2010)), or by neurosecretory release into the blood stream. The regulation of the timing and site of peptide release opens additional opportunities for activity-dependent regulation of peptide action (Figure 2). Bursts of action potentials (Bicknell and Leng, 1981) or direct neuropeptide actions can lead to prolonged increases in Ca^{2+} levels at axon terminals (Iremonger et al., 2017) to stimulate neuropeptide release. Oxytocin demonstrates an interesting case where axonal and dendritic release can be regulated differentially by action potentials and release of Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores (Ludwig et al., 2002).

Receptor-mediated responses on different timescales

Neuropeptide signalling through GPCRs can regulate gene transcription leading to reprogramming of neuronal metabolism and responsiveness. In addition, suppression of GPCR

signalling for up to several hours can be mediated by beta-arrestin dependent desensitisation and internalisation of receptors; reviewed in (Kovacs et al., 2009). Thus peptidergic networks are regulated by the history of their own activation. The opioid system is a classic example of differential downstream effects as well as long-term changes that lead to tolerance and addiction to opioids; reviewed in (Christie, 2008). Morphine and the endogenous ligand enkephalin differentially affect ubiquitination of μ-opiate receptors through the recruitment of distinct isoforms of beta-arrestin with morphine recruiting beta-arrestin-2 whilst enkephalin engages both beta-arrestin-1 and 2 (Groer et al., 2011). This beta-arrestin-mediated desensitisation underlies the development of tolerance in the use of morphine for pain relief (Bohn et al., 1999).

Distinct synaptic and neuropeptidergic actions

In many cases, peptide receptors are expressed on cell types that are distinct from, or at least only partially overlap with, those that are directly synaptically targeted by a given peptidergic neuron (Figure 2). For example, vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP)-expressing neurons in the cerebral cortex of mice do not connect synaptically with pyramidal cells, whereas VIP receptors are widely distributed on different cell types, including pyramidal cells (Pi et al., 2013; Tasic et al., 2016). This uncoupling has important ramifications for the application of conventional 'connectomics' techniques to map peptidergic connections, but see (Schlegel et al., 2016; Shahidi et al., 2015).

Mapping neuropeptide signalling networks

Nematode and annelid networks

The nervous systems of invertebrates that consist of a relatively small number of identifiable neurons (White et al., 1986), or similarly microcircuits comprising a small number of neurons within exceptionally well-defined systems (Nusbaum et al., 2017), are accessible to the cellular-

level mapping of both extra-synaptic and synaptic peptidergic networks.

This has been played out to great effect in the nematode *C. elegans*. The synaptic connectome of the 302 neurons of hermaphrodites has been completely mapped at the level of electron microscopy and can easily be integrated with gene expression information owing to the stereotypical anatomy of the nematode nervous system (White et al., 1986). A comprehensive analysis of published ligand–receptor interactions and gene expression data recently revealed a draft connectome of monoamine signalling in *C. elegans*, as well as a partial network of neuropeptide signalling (Bentley et al., 2016)(Figure 3A). A remarkably high fraction of signalling in these modulatory networks seems to be extrasynaptic (Bargmann, 2012; Ludwig and Leng, 2006; Marder, 2012).

The larval nervous system of the marine annelid *Platynereis dumerilii* also provides an excellent platform for revealing peptidergic networks. This has been achieved through large-scale approaches to analyse gene expression by whole-mount *in situ* hybridisation and single-cell transcriptomics to facilitate the localisation of neuropeptide and receptor gene expression and thereby provide insight into the neurons which harbour the corresponding neuropeptides and receptor proteins (Achim et al., 2015; Asadulina et al., 2012). In addition, serial-section electron microscopy allows the reconstruction of full-body neural circuits in the small *Platynereis* larva (Randel et al., 2015). The use of serial immunogold labelling with antibodies to neuropeptides led to the direct mapping of several neuropeptides onto the synaptic connectome (Shahidi et al., 2015). These resources facilitate the reconstruction of peptidergic connectivity networks between neurons, where peptide-producing cells represent the source cells, and neurons expressing the corresponding receptor represent the target cells (Williams et al., 2017). Interestingly, the highest expression of neuropeptides and receptors mapped to the anterior neurosecretory region of the larva, known as the ‘apical organ’. Single peptidergic neurons coexpressed up to 20 distinct

194 neuropeptide precursor genes. Parallel mapping of the synaptic connectome of this
195 neurosecretory area by serial-section electron microscopy revealed the paucity of chemical
196 synapses in this region of the brain (Figure 3B). This finding suggests that the apical
197 neurosecretory centre functions as a 'chemical brain', where neuronal communication is defined
198 by peptide and receptor expression, and not by synaptic wiring. In the *Platynereis* larval brain,
199 individual peptide–receptor pathways can be very specific, connecting only a small fraction of all
200 the neurons (Figure 3B). The majority of neuropeptide receptors in this neurosecretory centre of
201 the larval brain are activated by only one or two related peptides, and, on average, the individual
202 pathways signal between 1% of the neurons in this region (Williams et al., 2017).
203 A principle that emerges from these mapping studies is the low degree of overlap between
204 peptidergic and synaptic connectomes. Nevertheless, there are crucial interaction points where
205 communication clearly occurs between the different layers of a multiplex neural network, as
206 recently illustrated in the *Platynereis* larval brain, *C. elegans* and *Drosophila* (Bentley et al.,
207 2016; Schlegel et al., 2016; Williams et al., 2017). The neuropeptide and synaptic connectivity
208 maps of these small invertebrate circuits provide a basis to study the role of specific
209 neuropeptides in microcircuits with known connectivity and represent prototypes for
210 understanding how neuropeptides interact with wired circuitry in larger nervous systems. Single-
211 cell transcriptome datasets of neural tissue represent a rich source of information for the
212 reconstruction of peptidergic signalling networks in the brain. If these datasets are of sufficient
213 quality and depth, they have the potential to reveal the entire neuropeptidome of a neuron, as well
214 as the complement of neuropeptide receptors (Campbell et al., 2017; Romanov et al., 2017; Tasic
215 et al., 2016).
216 ***Murine networks***
217 To understand the function of peptidergic connectomes, it is of great importance to supplement

the knowledge of putative peptidergic connections between neurons with functional analysis. For example, oxytocin neurons in the mammalian hypothalamus project to several distant brain areas, including the cerebellar cortex, where they exert their actions through oxytocin receptors that are enriched in relatively small subpopulations of interneurons (Li et al., 2016; Tasic et al., 2016). Other examples for ascending long-range peptidergic systems in the rodent brain are relaxin and orexin, peptides that are synthetized in a small number of cells in the hypothalamus and brain stem, respectively, but send long-range projections throughout the whole brain (for reviews, see (Ebrahim et al., 2002; Smith et al., 2014)). Characterisation of these pathways has been pursued using optogenetic activation of defined subsets of peptidergic cells and the study of their postsynaptic effects as illustrated by the characterisation of the extensive axon networks and postsynaptic partners of hypothalamic oxytocin neurons throughout the brain and in the amygdala (Knobloch et al., 2012). Alternatively, the Cre-recombinase-dependent expression of channelrhodopsin allows the specific activation of peptidergic neurons in combination with different Cre-expressing mouse lines (e.g., Somatostatin-Cre, Oxytocin-Cre, Vip-Cre etc.) (Melzer et al., 2012; Sutton et al., 2014; Taniguchi et al., 2011). One caveat of this system is that optogenetic activation can fail to trigger the release of some peptides (Steuer Costa et al., 2017). Specific Cre-driver lines can also be used to express calcium-dependent fluorescent proteins enabling the study of the activity of peptidergic neurons or their putative postsynaptic partners (Nakai et al., 2001) or to use optogenetic tagging in electrophysiological recordings (Lima et al., 2009)(Figure 4A).

Microdialysis and tissue extraction followed by analysis of peptide content through mass spectrometry, ELISA or radiolabelling was used to track the context-dependent release of neuropeptides (Figure 4B). Novel techniques allow the visualisation of neuromodulator release *in vivo*: Cell-based neurotransmitter fluorescent engineered reporters (CNiFERs) are receptor-

overexpressing cultured cells that track neuromodulator release and binding through increases in calcium-dependent fluorescence (Nguyen et al., 2010)(Figure 4C). Overexpression of modified versions of GPCRs and beta-arrestin result in activation of a reporter gene upon ligand binding and beta-arrestin recruitment (Inagaki et al., 2012; Kono et al., 2014). Reporter activation can also be rendered light-dependent (iTango), enabling the analysis of certain behavioural states (Lee et al., 2017)(Figure 4D). Together, these systems present promising tools for the mapping of neuropeptide networks in different animals.

Organisation of multi-channel neuropeptide signalling

Organisational motifs

Besides highly specific neuropeptide–receptor pathways, several examples illustrate the existence of complex multichannel signalling networks, cascades, and crosstalk among neuropeptides and their receptors. These organisational motifs can provide mechanisms for feedback, coordination or sensory integration to fine-tune the output of neuronal circuits (Komuniecki et al., 2014)(Figure 2). Several network motifs are possible. For example, a single neuropeptide, or peptides from the same precursor, can act on multiple, distinct receptors. Thus, the response to the neuropeptide will be dependent on the receptor with which it interacts, which in turn can be regulated by differential receptor expression. Indeed, a typical feature of peptidergic signalling is the presence of multiple, distinct subtypes of GPCR for the same neuropeptide which often couple to different signal transduction cascades, are expressed in different tissues and are characterized by distinct pharmacology (Alexander et al., 2015).

Divergent and convergent neuropeptide signalling

A good example of divergent signalling is provided by the neuropeptide vasopressin (VP), also known as antidiuretic hormone (ADH). In mammals, VP is released from the posterior pituitary to maintain blood pressure, through a pressor effect mediated by V1 receptors on resistance blood

vessels, and blood volume, through an antidiuretic effect requiring V2 receptors in the kidney cells. V1 receptor subtypes are also expressed in the brain and mediate effects on social behaviour (McCall and Singer, 2012; Park and Kwon, 2015; Stoop, 2012). This multifaceted physiological role of VP in mammals resonates with recent studies in *C. elegans*. Here, a vasopressin homolog, nematocin (Elphick and Rowe, 2009), has been shown to regulate reproductive behaviour and behavioural plasticity through distinct receptors (Figure 5). On the one hand, nematocin promotes gustatory associative learning by activating the nematocin receptor NTR-1 in gustatory neurons (Beets et al., 2012). On the other, it drives male mating through NTR-1 and a second receptor NTR-2 that each modulates partly overlapping aspects of the mating behaviour (Garrison et al., 2012).

The divergent signalling described above, in which a single neuropeptide exerts a repertoire of responses by acting in different tissues expressing distinct receptor subtypes, is paralleled with the occurrence of convergent signalling in which multiple neuropeptides converge on the same neuron (Li and Kim, 2008; van den Pol, 2012; Williams et al., 2017). For example, in the sea hare *Aplysia*, a cholinergic command-like neuron for feeding contains two neuropeptides, feeding circuit activating peptide (FCAP) and cerebral peptide 2 (CP2). The two peptides are co-released and act synergistically to increase the postsynaptic potential in the same downstream neuron: FCAP increases the quantal size and CP2 the quantal content of excitatory postsynaptic potentials (Koh et al., 2003).

Multi-channel signalling and crosstalk

The same peptidergic neuron can co-express multiple distinct neuropeptides that can act on different targets. Such 'multi-channel wiring' is not characteristic of synaptic networks and represents a distinct organisational principle for neuropeptides. In the stomatogastric ganglion of the lobster *Homarus americanus*, red pigment-concentrating hormone and tachykinin are co-

290 localized and co-released, but act on different neurons (Thirumalai and Marder, 2002). The same
291 neuropeptide released from different cells can also have different effects on the same motor
292 circuit, depending on the mixture of co-transmitters (Blitz et al., 1999; Wood et al., 2000). How
293 many of the peptides can be co-released at any one time is unknown, but transcriptome data
294 suggest that multichannel signalling could be a common theme in highly peptidergic,
295 neurosecretory brain areas (Campbell et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2017).
296 Peptide-expressing cells also often express peptide receptors, and they are thus both sources and
297 targets of neuromodulators. There are numerous examples of such peptidergic cascades of
298 intercellular communication in vertebrates, which typically involve homoeostatic feedback from
299 a peripheral tissue to regulate release of a neurohormone. An interesting example is the 'hunger
300 hormone' ghrelin that derives from cells in the gastrointestinal tract and directly activates
301 hypothalamic neurons to trigger the release of growth hormone-releasing hormone
302 (somatoliberin) in a synaptic-transmission-independent manner. This peptidergic multi-neuronal
303 communication is regulated by food deprivation and directly controls energy consumption and
304 body weight (Osterstock et al., 2010).
305 Neuropeptides derived from different precursors can also crosstalk by acting on the same cognate
306 receptor. Significant evidence for this has come from GPCR de-orphanization and functional
307 characterization in *C. elegans*. In *C. elegans* hermaphrodites, egg-laying behaviour is regulated
308 by RFamide neuropeptides (FLPs) from FLP-10 and FLP-17 precursors that all activate a single
309 neuropeptide receptor, EGL-6, in the hermaphrodite-specific neurons (HSNs) of the egg-laying
310 circuit (Ringstad and Horvitz, 2008). Peptides encoded by FLP-17 are expressed in a pair of CO_2
311 sensory neurons, whereas FLP-10 peptides are synthesized in several other neuronal and non-
312 neuronal tissues. Genetic and neural ablation experiments support a simple model in which
313 relevant sensory cues control FLP-10 and FLP-17 secretion, and thereby directly modulate the

activity of the egg-laying motor neurons to suppress egg laying in unfavourable conditions (Ringstad and Horvitz, 2008). In this model, crosstalk of neuropeptides acting on the same receptor integrates multiple inputs in the modulation of behaviours. There is also increasing evidence for crosstalk of RFamide neuropeptides in mammals (Liu and Herbison, 2016; Ma et al., 2009; Oishi et al., 2011). For example, neuropeptide FF receptors (NPFFR1 and NPFFR2) were recently shown to bind kisspeptin and other mammalian RFamide neuropeptides and likely mediate the modulatory effects of these peptides in nociceptive circuits (Elhabazi et al., 2013; Lyubimov et al., 2010; Oishi et al., 2011).

Organisation of multi-peptide signalling networks at the circuit level

Peptidergic circuits in Caenorhabditis elegans and Drosophila melanogaster

Genetic studies in model organisms are starting to uncover the functional relevance of interacting neuropeptide pathways. For example, in *C. elegans*, a neuropeptide-mediated sensorimotor feedback loop dampens the odour-evoked activity of the olfactory amphid wing 'C' (AWC) neurons (Chalasani et al., 2010). When odour is sensed, AWC neurons release buccalin-related NLP-1 neuropeptides, which activate a neuropeptide receptor (NPR-11) on downstream interneurons to modulate secretion of the insulin-like peptide INS-1. Closing the feedback loop, INS-1 modulates the responsiveness of AWC neurons to olfactory stimuli. In *Drosophila*, the coordination of the stereotypic ecdysis behaviour also depends on crosstalk of multiple neuropeptides (Mena et al., 2016). The behavioural state is initiated by the release of ecdysis triggering hormone (ETH) (Zitnan and Adams, 2012; Zitnan et al., 1996). Neurons expressing the crustacean cardioactive peptide (CCAP) are one of the key targets of ETH that control the timing and behaviour of the moulting. While the activity of CCAP neurons is directly regulated by ETH, it also depends on the actions of other neuropeptides downstream of ETH, such as bursicon and

eclosion hormone (Mena et al., 2016).

Crustacean stomatogastric circuit

The stomatogastric ganglion (STG) is a small central-pattern-generating circuit consisting of 26–30 neurons that is responsible for generating the rhythmic patterns of muscle movements in the crustacean stomach (Figure 6). The extensive work on this system has recently been reviewed (Nusbaum et al., 2017) and shows that the effects of neuropeptides and monoamines on the STG are different. While dopamine and serotonin modulate many different membrane currents (Kiehn and Harris-Warrick, 1992; Kloppenburg et al., 1999; Krenz et al., 2013; Krenz et al., 2015; Peck et al., 2001; Peck et al., 2006; Rodgers et al., 2013; Zhang and Harris-Warrick, 1994; Zhang and Harris-Warrick, 1995), many neuropeptides converge to activate the same voltage-dependent current (Golowasch and Marder, 1992; Swensen and Marder, 2000; Swensen and Marder, 2001). This current, aptly named the 'modulatory inward current' (I_{MI}), is a voltage-dependent current with characteristics that make it ideally suited to activate rhythmic networks. I_{MI} is a small, depolarizing, mixed-cation current with similarities to the glutamatergic NMDA current (Golowasch and Marder, 1992; Swensen and Marder, 2000). The result of activating I_{MI} is an increase in the so-called 'burstiness' of a neuron, often resulting in more spikes per burst. In the circuit that generates the pyloric rhythm in the STG, comprised of bursting neurons connected with reciprocally inhibitory graded synapses, activating I_{MI} can result in more-prominent bursting of all neurons in the network. This arises from neurons in the network rebounding proportionately with the strength of incoming inhibition.

Endowing a circuit with robustness

The convergence of multiple peptide modulators, each acting through their own specific receptors on I_{MI}, represents one of the examples of degeneracy in the circuit and a mechanism that protects the circuit from over modulation. The maximal conductance of I_{MI} is an intrinsic property of the

neuron and will not be exceeded even in the presence of additional ligands (Swensen and Marder, 2000). In a recent study, modulatory substances were applied exogenously in the absence of all other modulatory input to investigate how neuromodulators affect the pyloric rhythm across different temperatures (Haddad and Marder, 2017)(Figure 6). The neuropeptide proctolin or the muscarinic-cholinergic agonist oxotremorine, both of which activate I_{MI} (Swensen and Marder, 2000), protected the networks from temperature perturbation. In contrast, serotonin, which activates multiple conductances on multiple cell types (Kiehn and Harris-Warrick, 1992; Krenz et al., 2015; Zhang and Harris-Warrick, 1994), made the networks more temperature sensitive than in the complete absence of modulators, and each animal produced different patterns of abnormal activity at high temperature (Haddad and Marder, 2017). Other mechanisms that protect the circuit from over-modulation include a balance of modulatory substances that act on opposing properties, and of modulators that act at various sites, such as on motor neurons and muscles (Marder, 2012).

Organization of peptidergic networks to provide context dependence

Approaches for studying context-dependence

An important challenge is to bridge the cellular to whole-organism level to understand how neuropeptides contribute to the behavioural flexibility of animals. This can be studied by measuring the effects of increased or decreased levels of peptidergic signalling in a whole-organism context (Figure 7)(Bargmann and Marder, 2013). Based on work in different model systems, a picture has emerged suggesting that neuropeptides act on many levels of a neural network and can influence sensory perceptions even at the earliest processing level in the brain or periphery. Therefore, peptidergic modulation can impact on cognitive functions by regulating the strength and type of sensory information that passes into the relevant higher brain areas.

386 ***Food context and behavioural choice***

387 Several neuropeptides regulate appetite, feeding and food preferences. For example, injection of
388 oxytocin markedly reduces food intake, in particular of sweet foods, in humans (Ott et al., 2013)
389 and oxytocin knockout mice display an increase in sweet and carbohydrate preference, suggesting
390 that oxytocin modulates sweet gustatory perception and/or sweet taste predicting reward signals
391 in the central brain (Billings et al., 2006). Although it remains unresolved whether oxytocin
392 modulates gustatory neurons, there is evidence for a role of oxytocin in odour perception e.g.
393 social odour (Wacker and Ludwig, 2012). Whether the same is true for food odours is not well
394 understood. In addition, oxytocin receptors (OXTR) are highly expressed in parts of the olfactory
395 system including the anterior olfactory nucleus (AON). A recent study found that oxytocin in rats
396 modulates early olfactory processing through a top-down neuromodulation of OXTR-expressing
397 AON fibres, which increases glutamatergic synaptic input to interneurons in the olfactory bulb.
398 Removal of OXTR specifically in the AON reduced olfactory exploration and recognition of
399 social odours of conspecifics leading to differences in the animal's behaviour (Oettl et al., 2016).
400 Recent work in *Drosophila* highlights the role of neuropeptides in behavioural choice involving
401 food (Itskov and Ribeiro, 2013; Leinwand and Chalasani, 2011; Wang, 2012). Starved flies show
402 higher attraction to food odours and less avoidance of aversive cues. While this behaviour is
403 controlled in part by the higher brain centre of the fly, the mushroom body (Lewis et al., 2015), it
404 is also modulated by neuropeptides acting directly on attractive and repulsive food-odour-
405 detecting chemosensory neurons (Ignell et al., 2009; Root et al., 2011). Short neuropeptide F
406 (sNPF) released by attraction-mediating olfactory sensory neurons enhances their response,
407 whereas tachykinin reduces the response of avoidance-mediating olfactory neurons; in both
408 cases, this occurs through GPCRs expressed directly in the olfactory sensory neurons (Ko et al.,
409 2015)(Figure 7A). An analogous mechanism regulates the strategy of the female fly to find and

evaluate egg-laying and feeding sites for her offspring (Hussain et al., 2016a). Mating increases the attraction of females to important and reproductive-success-boosting nutrients, the polyamines (Hussain et al., 2016b), through an increase in the expression of the GPCR sex peptide receptor (SPR) in polyamine-sensing olfactory and gustatory neurons. In this case, myoinhibitory peptides (MIPs) and not the better known ligand of SPR sex peptide (SP), mediate SPR signalling in olfactory and gustatory neurons (Figure 7B). Interestingly, this function of MIP is female specific and does not regulate the attraction of males to polyamines (Hussain et al., 2016a). In both these cases, overexpression of the sNPF receptor or the MIP receptor SPR, respectively, exclusively in peripheral chemosensory neurons is sufficient to switch the fly behavioural or internal state, emphasizing the important role of peripheral modulation in state-dependent behaviour (Leinwand and Chalasani, 2011).

It is likely that MIPs regulate feeding behaviour through additional mechanisms, given their broad expression in the brain as well as in the gut (Veenstra et al., 2008). For instance, a small cluster of MIP-expressing neurons in the CNS suppresses feeding and thereby regulates body weight in male and female flies (Min et al., 2016).

Circadian context

This has been the subject of many studies spanning several phyla which provide evidence for a key role for different neuropeptides. MIPs and SPR have been implicated in the control of sleep in *D. melanogaster* (Oh et al., 2014). Another interesting sleep-regulatory peptide in *D. melanogaster* is the so-called pigment-dispersing factor (PDF). PDF-expressing neurons increase arousal during wake states (Sehgal and Mignot, 2011). PDF also regulates arousal and exploratory behaviour in *C. elegans*. In the nematode, PDF and serotonin function as mutual inhibitors in a neural network that appears to overlay the motor-behaviour-controlling network, acting via an overlapping but not identical circuit, to regulate behavioural state in a slower and

potentially more homeostatic manner than that controlling basal locomotor movements (Flavell et al., 2013). In mammals, at least four unrelated neuropeptides, orexin, prokineticin-2, neuropeptide S and vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP), have similar roles in stimulating arousal in a light-dependent manner (Chemelli et al., 1999; Cheng et al., 2002; Vosko et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2004).

Social and reproductive context

Neuropeptides also have important roles in complex social, emotional and reproductive behaviours. Interestingly, oxytocin functions in a gender-dependent manner. It is increasingly appreciated that male and female brains differ in certain aspects and that this is not limited to reproductive control. Differences in cortical oxytocin signalling might explain why men and women show differences in some emotional states and disorders such as anxiety (Li et al., 2016). Specifically, one study demonstrated that certain OXTR interneurons in male mice regulate anxiety by expressing an antagonist of the stress hormone corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH), called corticotropin-releasing-hormone-binding protein (CRHBP). CRHBP blocks the CRH-induced potentiation of pyramidal neurons in layer 2/3 of the medial prefrontal cortex selectively in males but not females. This block reduces anxiety in males but not in females. Conversely, the same OXTR interneurons in females modulate social interactions with male mice during the sexually responsive phase of the oestrus cycle (Nakajima et al., 2014).

Inter-organismal neuropeptide signalling

Peptides can have an allohormonal function (Koene and ter Maat, 2001) e.g. accessory gland products that are transferred from one individual to another during the transfer of gametes (Zizzari et al., 2014) and influence the behaviour of the recipient, a classic example being the *Drosophila* sex peptide (Perry et al., 2013). Other species in which this phenomenon has been

458 investigated include species with separate sexes, such as Pletodontid salamanders, seed beetles
459 (e.g., *Callosobruchus maculatus*) but also hermaphroditic species such as flatworms (e.g.,
460 *Macrostomum lignano*), land snails (e.g., *Cornu aspersum*) and pond snails (e.g., *Lymnaea*
461 *stagnalis*) (Yamane et al., 2015) (Arbore et al., 2015) (Stewart et al., 2016) (Watts et al., 2004)
462 (Koene et al., 2010). Some of the identified accessory gland products are neuropeptides,
463 including the 'love dart' allohormone, a buccalin-like peptide, identified from the common
464 garden snail *Cornu aspersum* (Stewart et al., 2016).
465 The type of sexual system can have important implications for the evolution of such substances.
466 For example, simultaneously hermaphroditic species (which use both genders at the same time or
467 in sequence over their lifetime) need to regulate and coordinate their male and female
468 reproductive processes in a largely non-overlapping manner. Hence, the neurobiological wiring
469 and neuroendocrine substances in simultaneous hermaphrodites need to remain separated
470 between the two sexual functions. The performance of conflicting processes or behaviours is
471 avoided by complex excitatory and inhibitory crosstalk between the male and female processes.
472 During mating, the appropriate motor-output needs to be initiated, whereas the motor patterns of
473 the opposite sexual role need to be suppressed, that is, when donating sperm to a partner, egg
474 laying should not be initiated at the same time.
475 This situation in simultaneous hermaphrodites is accompanied by interesting evolutionary
476 processes that do not occur in separate-sexed animals. Recent research has revealed that
477 accessory gland products can target the male function of the recipient. In *Lymnaea stagnalis*, two
478 accessory gland proteins were identified that cause a snail to transfer half the amount of sperm to
479 its next partner, lowering the paternity of that donor (Nakadera et al., 2014). Thus, in
480 hermaphrodites, a sperm donor not only affects female physiology (Koene et al., 2010), but also
481 male physiology of the recipient (Nakadera et al., 2014)(Figure 8).

Interestingly, different areas of the central nervous system in hermaphrodites control the execution of male and female reproduction, expressing different neuropeptides (Koene, 2010; Koene et al., 2000). However, the neuroendocrine mechanisms that prevent male and female behaviours from being executed at the same time remain to be identified (Koene et al., 2000). Identifying these mechanisms will help to understand how accessory gland products hijack the reproductive neuroendocrine system of the sperm recipient. The evolutionary importance of these interactions is evidenced by the various injection devices that evolved for the transfer of accessory gland products (Zizzari et al., 2014). These include the love darts of land snails that inject accessory gland products into the body cavity (Lodi and Koene, 2017), and the stylets of some *Siphopteron* sea slugs that inject their products into the head of the partner and might directly target the central nervous system of their partner (Anthes and Michiels, 2007; Lange et al., 2014).

In future, the pharmacological characterization of receptor systems for accessory gland products could reveal whether these substances are mimics of female regulatory hormones and how these signalling systems evolve. For example, does the female system evolve to counter the effect of accessory gland products (Lodi and Koene, 2017)?

Emerging themes

A common theme for all animals in which peptidergic signalling has been investigated is its remarkable complexity. Why do neural networks deploy such a plethora of neuropeptide transmitters and modulators? Does this reflect a high level of functional redundancy? Or does it reflect the animal's requirement for multiple routes to behavioural flexibility in the face of a challenging environment or life style? The most likely answer is a combination of the two. Some evidence suggests that signals can be encoded in the mix of neuropeptides rather than in single

506 molecules (Jones et al., 2016; Papaioannou et al., 2005) but precisely how widespread this
507 phenomenon is remains to be determined.
508 A further notable observation is the apparent dominance of ‘wireless’ peptide signalling. In the
509 case of the annelid *Platynereis*, there is a distinct lack of synaptic connections in the
510 neuropeptide-rich region of the brain. It could be that this is a specialization of an anatomically
511 simple system that endows a higher level of complexity within the network that could otherwise
512 be achieved using 'hard-wiring' alone. However, it is equally possible that current knowledge of
513 neuropeptide networks in higher animals is still too limited for us to appreciate the extent of non-
514 synaptic communication in mammalian brains.
515 Another striking aspect of peptidergic signalling that has been reinforced repeatedly in recent
516 years is the number of examples in different model organisms in which evolutionarily related
517 neuropeptides act through their cognate receptor(s) to regulate a similar aspect of animal
518 behaviour across these species (Beets et al., 2012; Garrison et al., 2012; Lockard et al., 2017;
519 Scott et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2016; Van Sinay et al., 2017). Thus comparative investigations
520 between simpler and more complex animals have the potential to inform more global
521 understanding of fundamental, conserved aspects of peptidergic neural networks and their roles in
522 behavioural plasticity.
523 Overall, the capability of neuropeptides to modulate the output of circuits by sensitization or
524 inhibition of target neurons is a common theme to emerge from these studies (Chalasani et al.,
525 2010). A neuropeptide can endow a circuit with flexibility by modulating the response profile of
526 discrete neurons (Chen et al., 2017; Vollmer et al., 2016). Such a mechanism can provide an
527 explanation of how an animal can exhibit two divergent behavioural responses to the same
528 sensory stimulus depending on the context in which the stimulus is perceived.
529

Future perspectives

There is undoubtedly a continuing important contribution to be made from a neuropeptidomic approach (DeLaney et al., 2017) which will systematically identify the complement of neuropeptides and receptors in a neural system, facilitate pairing of ligands with their cognate receptors (Bauknecht and Jékely, 2015) and provide the framework for functional interrogation of peptidergic networks, for example through electrophysiology, imaging and optogenetics. Future studies should also consider how differential sorting of distinct neuropeptide complements within a given neuron can be regulated in a state-dependent manner, and how this might influence co-release and synergistic actions of peptides. Ultimately this has the power to provide insight into the role of specific peptidergic networks in behaviour.

The benefit from understanding peptidergic signalling is under-realized: Whilst the success of the opioid analgesics exemplifies the clinical importance of neuropeptides in nociception and pain there are many other clinical situations where neuropeptides have a role and have yet to be adequately exploited. It also has the potential to provide new mechanisms of pest and parasite control (Holden-Dye and Walker, 2014; McVeigh et al., 2012; Terhzaz et al., 2017).

The investigations described here, just a subset of the many investigations into peptidergic signalling, show that neuropeptides are intimately involved in the capability of animals to exhibit behavioural flexibility. This is characterized by multi-channel convergent and divergent signalling, across both long and short distances, in a transient or sustained manner. These themes appear to be played out across the animal phyla, from the simplest to the most complex.

Glossary

Allohormonal- The transfer of a substance from one individual to another member of the same species. The allohormone induces a physiological effect that is typically related to some aspect of

554 sexual selection or reproductive function.

555 Antidiuretic – An antidiuretic substance is one that reduces the loss of water in the urine by
556 increasing water resorption in the kidney. In mammals, antidiuretic hormone (ADH) is released
557 in response to a drop in blood volume or increase in blood osmolarity.

558 Axon – a cable-like process that extends from the cell body of a neuron towards its target cell.
559 This may be another neuron or a target tissue e.g. a muscle cell.

560 Burstiness – A term used to describe a particular pattern of neuronal activity in which the neuron
561 exhibits short periods of rapid activity in the form of action potentials that are interspersed with
562 periods of quiescence.

563 Connectomics – This refers to the detailed anatomical mapping of neural networks in which the
564 synaptic connectivity between each and every neuron, a map called the connectome, is defined.

565 Dendrite – A process that extends from the cell body of a neuron and which typically is the main
566 region for synaptic input from other neurons. Many classes of neurons are characterised by an
567 extensive dendritic tree with each dendrite conveying incoming neural signals to the cell body.

568 De-orphanization – An orphan receptor is a receptor for which the endogenous, cognate ligand is
569 unknown. A vast number of these have been identified by bioinformatic screening of animal
570 genomes. De-orphanization is the process by which the receptor is paired with its ligand and is an
571 important route to understanding the functional role of orphan receptors.

572 FLPs- FMRFamide-like peptide Precursors: These are a large family of prepropeptide
573 neuropeptide precursors encoded by *C. elegans flp* genes that give rise to C-terminally amidated
574 neuropeptides (Li and Kim, 2014).

575 NLPs- Neuropeptide-like peptide Precursors: These are a large family of prepropeptide
576 neuropeptide precursors encoded by *C. elegans nlp* genes (Nathoo et al., 2001).

577 Nociceptive circuit – Nociception is the detection of a noxious, harmful, potentially tissue

damaging stimulus. A nociceptive circuit is a neural pathway that mediates the sensory detection of the stimulus. It is typically a component of the behavioural, affective response of the animal to a harmful stimulus i.e. pain. However, pain e.g. neuropathic pain, can occur in the absence of nociception.

Opioid- A drug that binds to opiate receptors e.g. morphine.

Orexigenic/Anorexigenic – An orexigenic substance is one that stimulates appetite whilst an anorexigenic substance decreases appetite. The neuropeptide orexin was named because of its appetite stimulating action. As with many neuropeptides, its name does not convey its breadth of physiological roles. Orexin is also a key regulator of wakefulness and a lack of orexin signalling in the brain is a cause of narcolepsy.

Perikarya – The cell bodies of neurons.

Phasic release – This refers to neurotransmitter or neuromodulator release that occurs in a phasic manner i.e. short periods of release interspersed with periods of quiescence.

Pleiotropic- The capability to elicit multiple effects from a single gene.

Pressor effect – A pressor substance is one that leads to an elevation in blood pressure.

RFamide neuropeptide – This is a family of neuropeptides that are characterized by a common carboxy-terminal sequence consisting of arginine followed by phenylalanine which is amidated at the C terminus.

Stomatogastric ganglion – This is a cluster of neurons that are part of the stomatogastric nervous system in arthropods. It has been extensively studied in decapod crustacteans where it controls the activity of the stomach muscles and regulates feeding.

Tonic release – This refers to neurotransmitter or neuromodulator release that occurs in a tonic manner i.e. sustained release at a constant level.

Volume transmission- This is a mechanism whereby a neurotransmitter is released from a neuron

into the extracellular space, diluted in the extracellular fluid volume and diffuses to receptors at a distance from the release site. This form of communication may be limited by the stability of the neurotransmitter in the presence of extracellular enzymes and typically the cognate receptor has a high affinity for the neurotransmitter due to the low concentrations that may diffuse to the target site.

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Figure 1. Proneuropeptides and processing. (**A**) Structure of the myoinhibitory peptide precursor in *Bombyx mori*. 'SP', signal peptide, 'KR', dibasic cleavage sites. The precursor generates eight neuropeptides listed below. The number in brackets after each peptide indicates the number of copies produced from one precursor molecule. (**B**) Tissue-specific processing of the bovine proopiomelanocortin, POMC, precursor. At the top the organisation of the peptide precursor molecule with SP and dibasic cleavage sites is shown. Two panels underneath show processing in the anterior lobe of the mammalian pituitary and in the intermediate lobe and hypothalamus which generates neuropeptides as indicated. (**C**) Alternative splicing generates two isoforms with tissue-specific expression in *Drosophila* orcokinin. (**D**) Generalised summary of the steps of proneuropeptide processing.

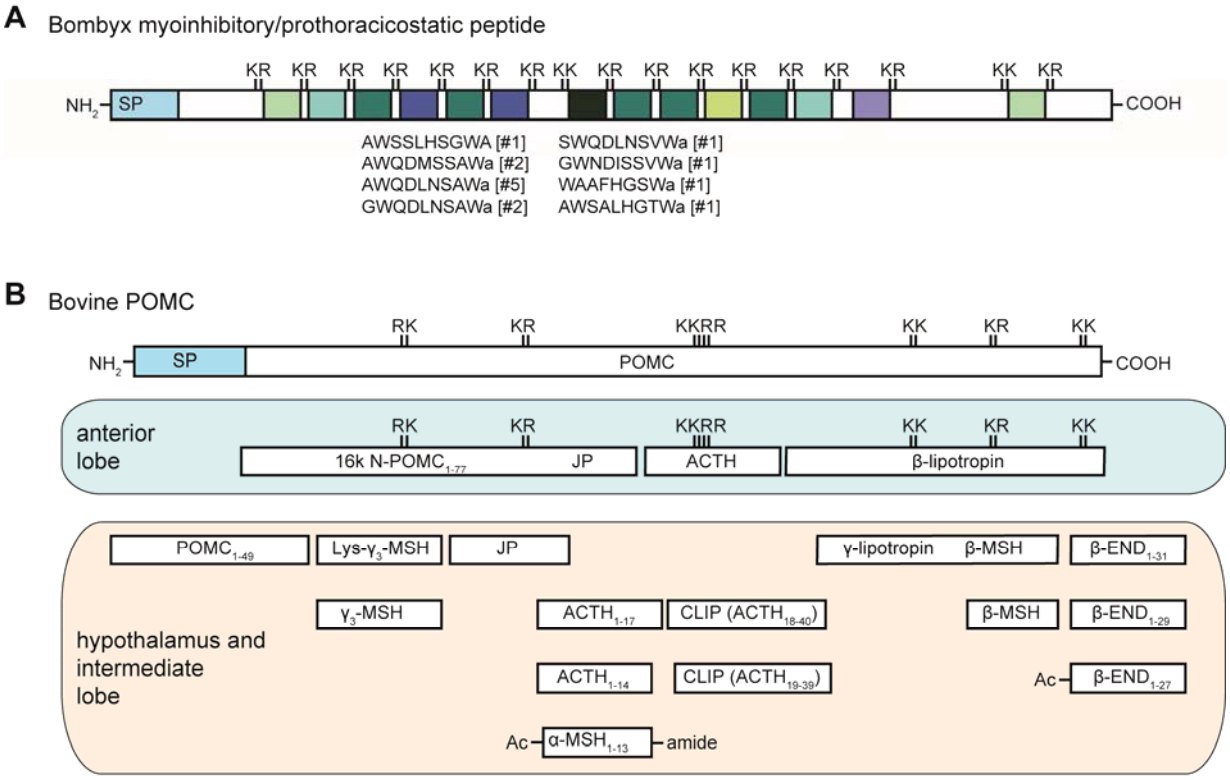
A
Bombyx myoinhibitory/prothoracicostatic peptide
KR KR KR KR KR KR KR KK KR KR KR KR KR KR KR KK KR
NH2 SP COOH
AWSSLHSGWA [#1]
AWQDMSSAWa [#2]
AWQDLNSAWa [#5]
GWQDLNSAWa [#2]
SWQDLNSVWa [#1]
GWNDISSVWa [#1]
WAAFHGSWa [#1]
AWSALHGTWa [#1]
B
Bovine POMC
RK KR KKRR KK KR KK
NH2 SP POMC COOH
anterior lobe
16k N-POMC1-77
JP
ACTH
β-lipotropin
POMC1-49
Lys-γ3-MSH
γ-lipotropin
β-MSH
β-END1-31
γ3-MSH
ACTH1-17
CLIP (ACTH18-40)
β-END1-29
hypothalamus and intermediate lobe
ACTH1-14
CLIP (ACTH19-39)
Ac
β-END1-27
α-MSH1-13
amide
C
Drosophila orcokinin
orcokinin-RA
few CNS cells (larvae, adult)
orcokinin-A
(NFDEIDKASASFSILNQLV)
orcokinin-RC
intestinal enteroendocrine cells (larvae, adult)
one abdominal ganglion neuron (adult)
orcokinin-B
(GLDSIGGGHLI)
D
signal-peptide processing
signal peptidase
endopeptidase cleavage
cathepsin L, subtilisin-like PHCs
exopeptidase cleavage
aminopeptidase, carboxypeptidase
amidation and other modifications
α-amidating monooxygenase, etc.

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Figure 2. Regulation of peptidergic signalling. (**A**) Release and reception of neuropeptide signals can be regulated at (1) transcription of the proneuropeptide gene (2) translation into a proneuropeptide, (3) post-translational processing in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), (4) sorting into Golgi vesicles (5) vesicular transport, (6) localization to readily releasable pool/priming, (7) release, (8) diffusion and degradation, (9) binding to receptors (10) expression and regulation of receptors and (11) regulation of ensuing signalling cascade. (**B**) Neuropeptides can signal across different ranges. Two short-range examples are shown enabling signalling to self (auto) or neighbouring cells, plus two long range through non-synaptic volume transmission. (**C**) Neuropeptide signalling can be organized into neuropeptide cascades. (**D**) Neuropeptide signals can be divergent, in which the same peptide activates different receptors (Rec.1 etc.) on the same or different target cells, leading to different signalling responses, or convergent, in which a number of different peptides must be present to activate associated receptors on the same cell, leading to a single signalling response.

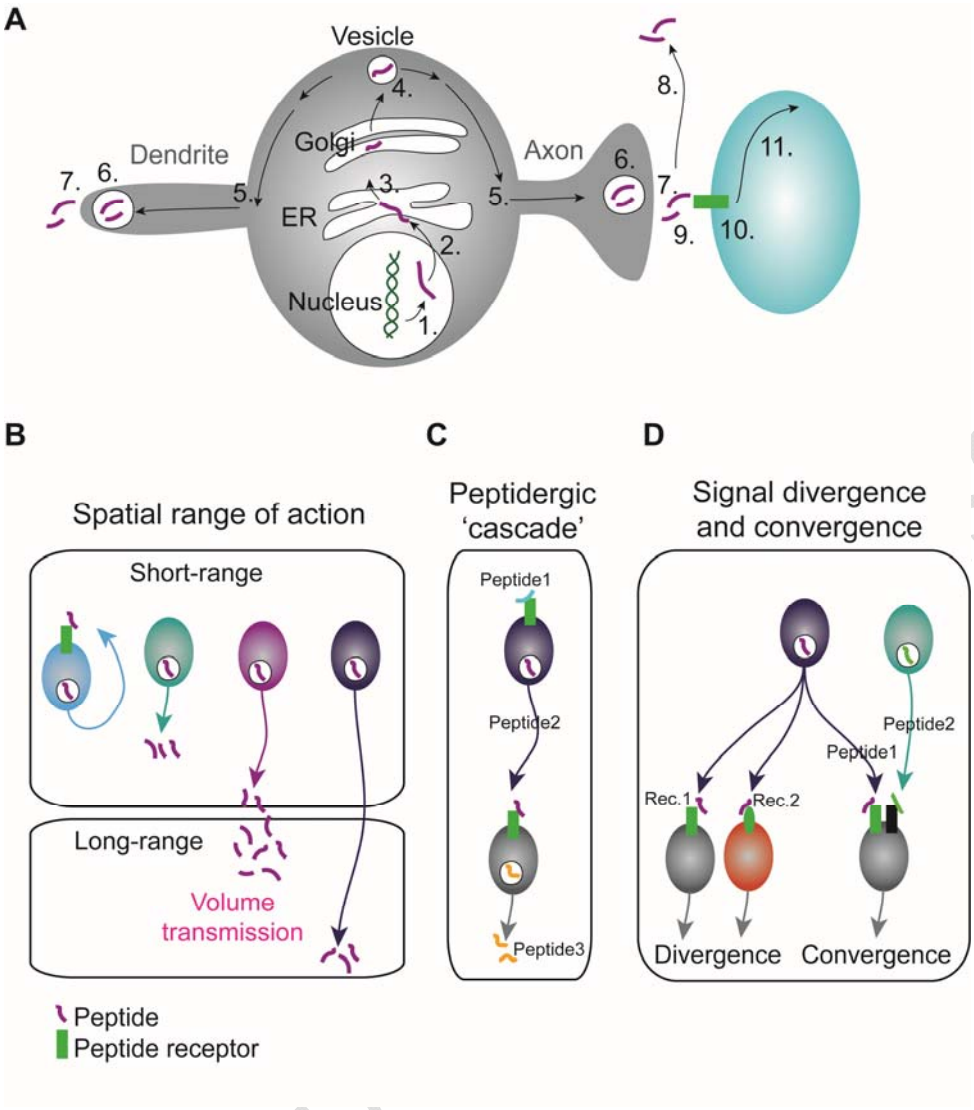

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Figure 3. Analysis of global neuropeptide connectivity in small nervous systems. (**A**) Multilayer representation of synaptic (chemical synapses and gap junctions), monoamine, and neuropeptide networks in the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*. Nodes correspond to individual cells. (**B**) Mapping neuropeptidergic connections in the larval nervous system of the marine annelid *Platynereis dumerilii*. All neuroendocrine cells in the anterior brain and their synaptic connectome were reconstructed by serial electron microscopy (EM). Neuropeptidegic networks can be mapped from single-cell transcriptomic data. Images reproduced from (Bentley et al., 2016) and (Williams et al., 2017). Scanning EM images courtesy of Jürgen Berger. FMRFamide; Phe-Met-Arg-Phe neuropeptide, DA, dopamine; 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine (serotonin); TA, tyramine; OA, octopamine; CKR2, cholecystokinin; NTR-1, oxytocin/vasopressin; NPR-1/2/5/11, neuropeptide F/Y receptors.

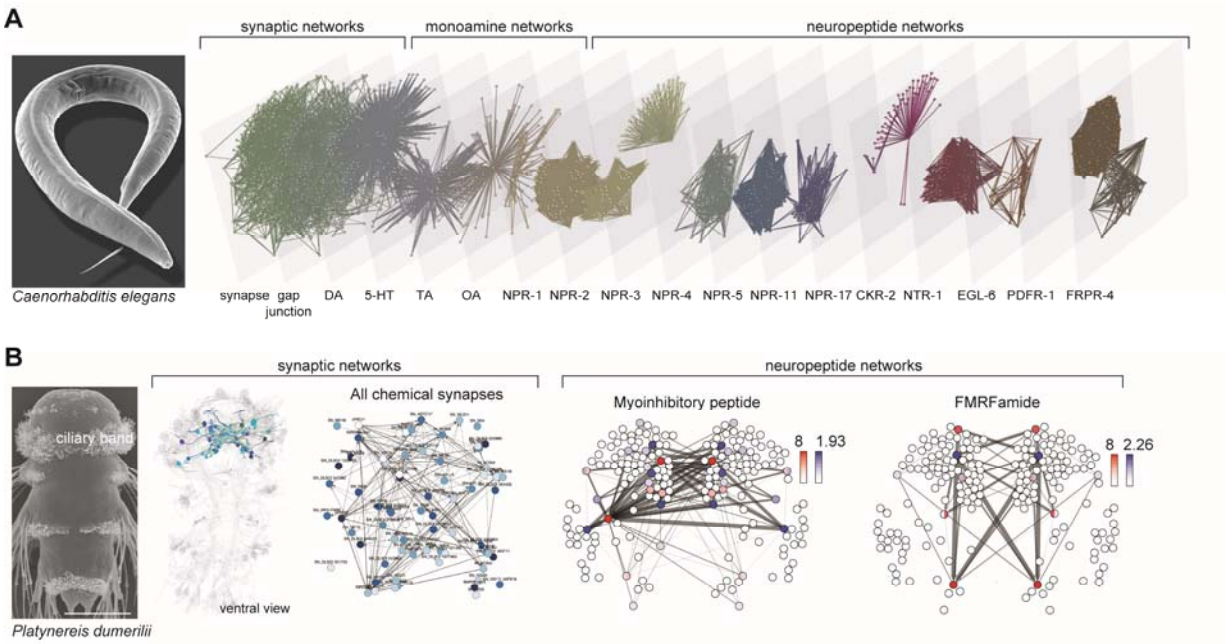

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Figure 4. Methods to study neuropeptide signalling and release in mouse. (**A**) Bath application of neuropeptides combined with patch-clamp recording or calcium imaging with genetically encoded calcium indicators (GECIs). (**B**) The binding of labelled peptides or the release of endogenous peptides can be studied by imaging methods. Released peptides can be recovered by microdialysis followed by mass spectrometric or ELISA analysis. (**C**) Schematic of CNiFER to study neuropeptide release: Engineered cells express a receptor and fluoresce upon ligand binding. (**D**) iTango2 to study neuropeptide release: A reporter is activated by a light stimulus allowing more precise temporal and spatial analysis.

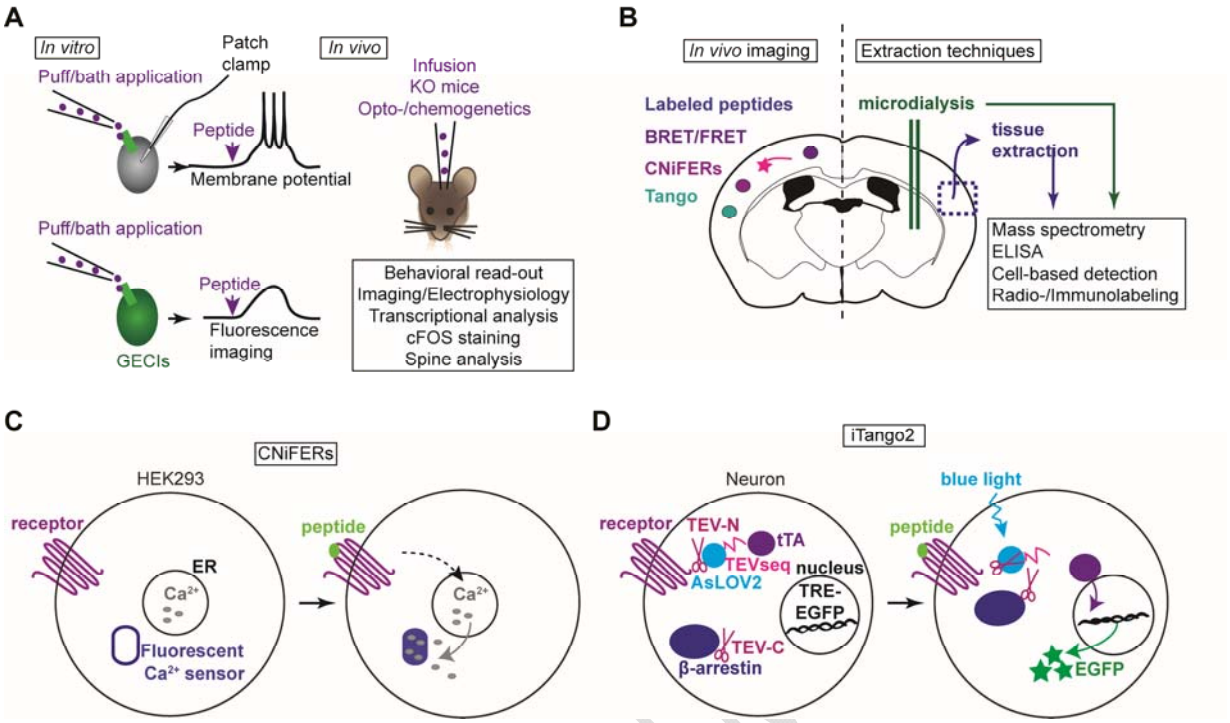

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Figure 5. Studying the role of neuropeptide signalling in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. The vasopressin homolog nematocin signals in distinct cellular contexts to effect mating behaviour in males and gustatory associative learning in hermaphrodites. The male nematocin neurons are shown in blue and the neurons expressing the receptors, NTR-1 and NTR-2, are shown in green.

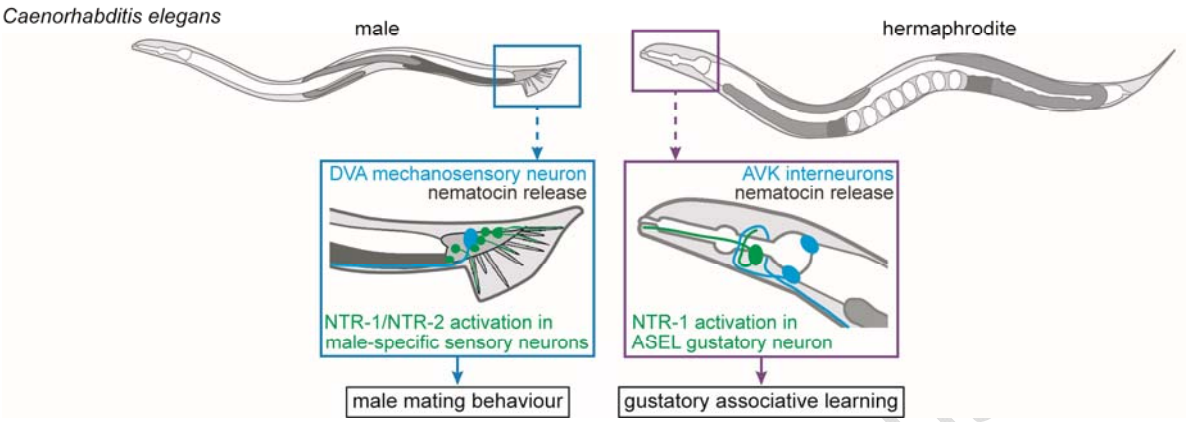

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Figure 6. Studying neuromodulation and circuit robustness in the stomatogastric ganglion of *Cancer borealis*. (**A**) The stomatogastric ganglion (STG) is modulated by tens of substances, including peptides, hormonally through the hemolymph and from descending modulatory neural inputs. (**B**) Different modulatory environments allow for the same structural network (displayed by a simplified wiring diagram of three neurons connected with reciprocal inhibition) to produce multiple behavioural outputs. (**C**) Peptide neuromodulators can increase the robustness of network output in response to temperature perturbation. The rhythm is altered at 27˚C when no modulators are present. The characteristic rhythm is robust to temperature increase in the presence of a peptide modulatory substance.

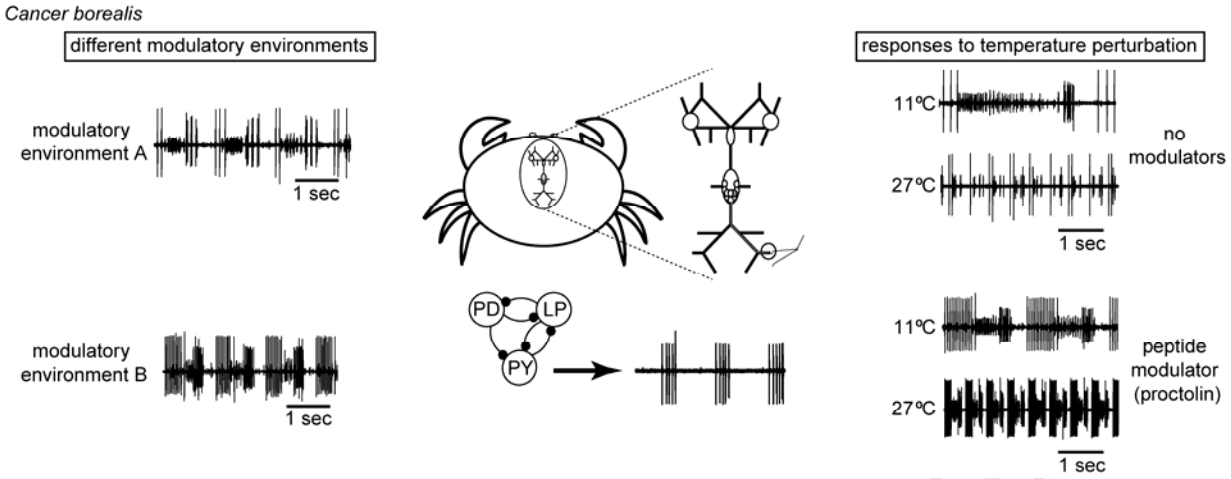

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Figure 7. Studying neuropeptide effects in the fruit fly. (**A**) Short neuropeptide F (sNPF) and tachykinin (TK) modulate food odor preference in a feeding-state-dependent manner. Left: Starvation upregulates expression of the sNPF receptor in food attraction mediating olfactory receptor neurons downstream of insulin. sNPF, released from the same neurons, activates the receptor and triggers facilitation at the synapse between the olfactory sensory neuron and the secondary projection neurons. Right: In parallel to sNPF, the TK receptor DTRK is activated in aversion triggering ORNs by TK, released by local interneurons. This triggers inhibition at ORN-PN synapses. Together these mechanisms increase attraction to food odors in starved flies. (**B**) Myoinhibitory peptides (MIPs) regulate mating-state dependent food and oviposition site choice through the sex-peptide receptor in polyamine-sensing olfactory and gustatory neurons. SPR is upregulated in ORNs and gustatory neurons upon mating. MIPs activate SPR signalling and inhibit and activate release from the ORN or GRN, respectively. These modulations induce mated fly-like choice behaviour in virgin females. These examples demonstrate neuropeptidergic modulation at the first level of sensory processing and suggest that internal states lead to information filtering before it can be detected by higher cognitive centres in the brain. DTKR, tachykinin-like peptides receptor; ORN, olfactory receptor neuron; GRNR, gustatory receptor neuron; sNPFR, sNPF receptor; SPR, sex-peptide receptor.

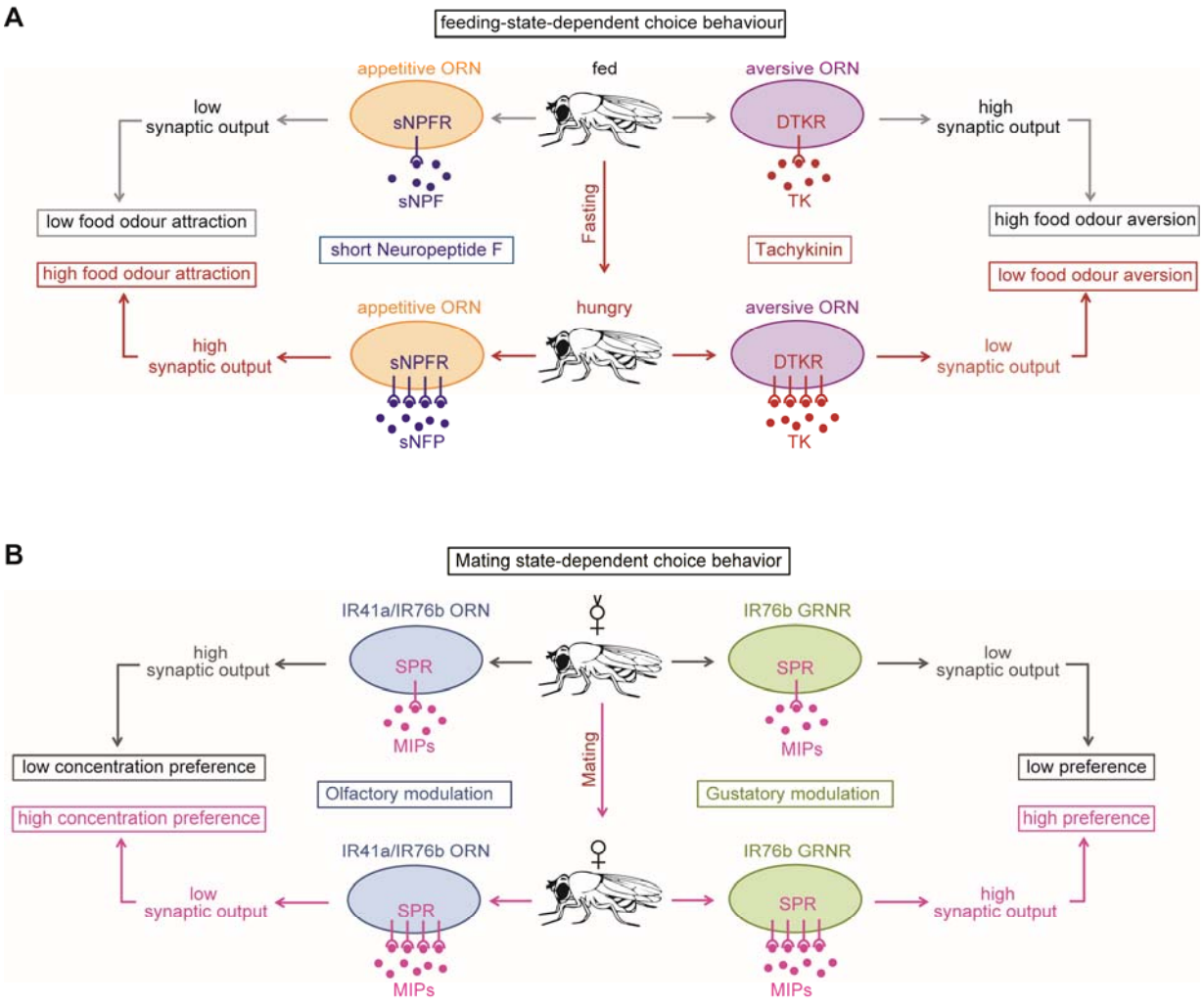

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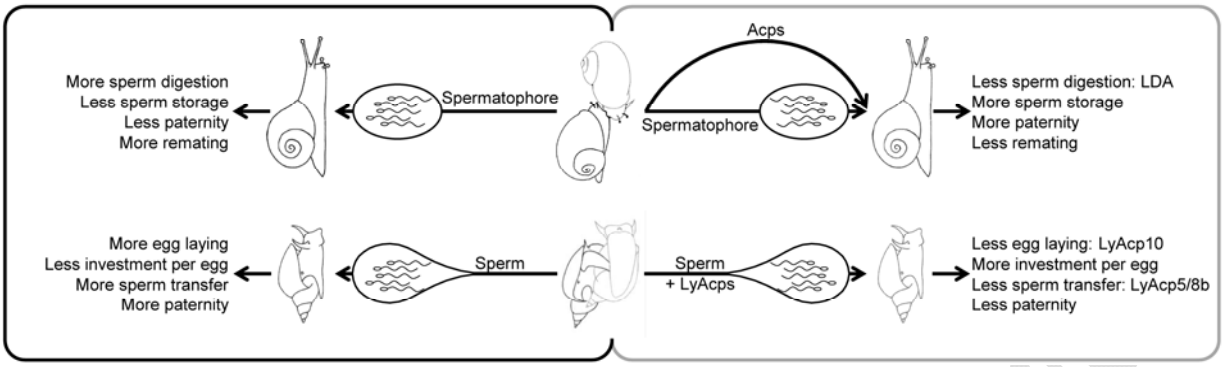
Figure 8. Modulation of reproductive processes in simultaneous hermaphrodites by accessory gland proteins. Accessory gland proteins (Acps) are transferred during mating in gastropods. Two species are shown, the land snail *Cornu aspersum* and below the fresh water snail *Lymnaea stagnalis*. On the right the effects of Acps on the recipient (in gray) are shown. For *C. aspersum*, Acps are transported via the love dart separate from the sperm package (spermatophore; depicted as an oval with sperm inside); for *L. stagnalis* the Acps are transferred via seminal fluid (depicted as a drop shape containing sperm). The identified proteins are indicated along with their demonstrated effect (i.e. LDA, LyAcp). The left side indicates what would happen in the absence of these Acps.



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