CHRONOBIOLOGY INTERNATIONAL Vol. 21, Nos. 4–5, pp. 501–519, 2004

REVIEW

Extraocular Photoreception and Circadian Entrainment in Nonmammalian Vertebrates

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ABSTRACT

In mammals both the regulation of circadian rhythms and photoperiodic responses depend exclusively upon photic information provided by the lateral eyes; however, nonmammalian vertebrates can also rely on multiple extraocular photoreceptors to perform the same tasks. Extraocular photoreceptors include deep brain photoreceptors located in several distinct brain sites and the pineal complex, involving intracranial (pineal and parapineal) and extracranial (frontal organ and parietal eye) components. This review updates the research field of the most recent acquisitions concerning the roles of extraocular photoreceptors on circadian physiology and behavior, particularly photic entrainment and sun compass orientation.

Key Words: Circadian; Orientation; Entrainment; Extraocular; Photoreceptor; Vertebrates; Pineal complex.

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DOI: 10.1081/CBI-120039813 Copyright © 2004 by Marcel Dekker, Inc. 0742-0528 (Print); 1525-6073 (Online) www.dekker.com

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INTRODUCTION

In mammals either image detection (vision) or irradiance detection mediating entrainment of circadian rhythms depends upon photic information provided exclusively by the lateral eyes. However, nonmammalian vertebrates can also rely upon multiple, extraocular photoreceptors to mediate irradiance detection tasks (Figure 1). Extraocular photoreceptors, mostly developing from the forebrain, are classified as pineal complex and deep brain photoreceptors. The pineal complex consists of the (1) intracranial pineal organ or pineal body (epiphysis cerebri); (2) intracranial parapineal organ found in lampreys and teleost fish; (3) extracranial "third eye," named frontal organ (or Stirnorgan) in anuran amphibians and parietal eye in the *Sphenodon* and lizards. The pineal body is derived embryologically as an evagination of the roof of the diencephalon and, with few exceptions, is ubiquitous in vertebrates. The parapineal organ, frontal organ, and parietal eye either arise as an evagination from the pineal body or as a separate diverticulum from the diencephalon. Deep brain photoreceptors are located in several distinct sites of the brain. The present review focuses on the role(s) of extraocular photoreceptors in circadian physiology and behavior, particularly photic entrainment and time- compensated sun compass. In addition, attention is given to noncircadian aspects.



Figure 1. Schematic representation illustrating ocular and extraocular photoreceptive structures involved in the vertebrate circadian system. Arrows indicate pathways between circadian oscillators and photoreceptors. DBP: deep brain photoreceptors; RHT: retino-hypothalamic tract.

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PINEAL

A functional pineal body is present in almost all vertebrates, with the exception of the alligator *Alligator mississippiensis* and the owl *Strix uralensis*, which possess only a very rudimentary pineal (Roth et al., 1980; Taniguchi et al., 1993). In the Agnatha *Mixine glutinosa* the pineal is absent (Vigh-Teichmann et al., 1984).

The pineal is directly photosensitive, containing photoreceptor cells resembling those of the lateral eyes, with well-developed inner and outer segments and presynaptic processes (Korf et al., 1998). The initial characterization of pineal photopigments used immunocytochemistry to demonstrate opsin-like immunoreactivity. Classical visual cone- and rod-like opsins have been localized in pineal photoreceptors of different vertebrate classes (Vigh et al., 2002). For instance, in three anuran amphibians (Rana catesbeiana, Rana nigromaculata, and Bufo *japonicus*) pinealocytes have been immunolabeled with antiserum against rhodopsin (Okano et al., 2000). Recently, detailed molecular studies discovered novel pineal opsins that are distinct from the classical visual opsin (Table 1). A nonvisual opsin, named pinopsin has been isolated for the first time in the chicken pineal (Okano et al., 1994). Pinopsins have also been isolated from the pineal of the pigeon Columba livia, the lizard Anolis carolinensis, and the toad Bufo japonicus (Kawamura and Yokoyama, 1996, 1997; Okano et al., 1997; Yoshikawa et al., 1998). By immunocytochemistry, pinopsin expression has been detected in the pineal of both diurnal (Phelsuma madagascariensis longinsulae) and nocturnal (Gekko japonicus) geckos, and in the diurnal lizard *Takydromus tachydromoides* (Taniguchi et al., 2001; Yoshikawa et al., 2001).

Pinopsin has never been detected in the genome of fish and mammals. Alternatively, different kinds of opsin genes have been discovered in the pineal of teleosts (Table 1). For instance, vertebrate ancient (VA) opsin is present in the pineal of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar), carp (Cyprinus carpio), and zebrafish (Danio rerio) (Kojima et al., 2000; Moutsaki et al., 2000; Philp et al., 2000b). A rod-like opsin has been cloned from the zebrafish, salmon, and pufferfish (Takifugu rubripes), (Mano et al., 1999; Philp et al., 2000a). This opsin, named extra-retinal rod-like opsin (ERrod-like opsin), is expressed uniquely in the pineal and shares only 74% identity with the rod-opsins from the retina of the same species (Philp et al., 2000a). An opsin assigned to the pinopsin family has been isolated from the pineal of the marine lamprey *Petromyzon marinus* (Yokoyama and Zhang, 1997). Based upon the level of amino acid identity, genomic structure, and nucleotide phylogeny between lamprey pinopsin and VA opsin, Moutsaki et al. (2000) suggested reassigning the lamprey pinopsin to the VA opsin family. Due to the phylogenetic position of lampreys, lamprey pinopsin has been proposed as the evolutionary precursor of the teleost VA opsin family (Moutsaki et al., 2000). The variation found in the expression and number of photopigments reported above is likely to be related to the fact that fish have adapted to almost every niche in the hydrosphere, ranging from the ocean depths where no light penetrates, to the photic zone near the surface.

Pineal photoreceptors possess secretory activity; they make the hormone melatonin. Melatonin is synthetized from the amino acid tryptophan through a well-known biosynthetic pathway. Melatonin production is confined to the dark portion of a light-dark (LD) cycle and provides a chemical signal that plays an

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Pineal	Pinopsin	Birds	G. domesticus	Okano et al., 1994
		Reptiles	C. livia A. carolinensis	Kawamura and Yokoyama, 1997
			P. m. longinsulae G. japonicus T. tachydromoides	Taniguchi et al., 2001
	VA opsin	Amphibians Lampreys	B. japonicus P. marinus	Yoshikawa et al., 1998 Yokoyama and Zhang, 1997
		Teleosts	S. salar C. carpio D. rerio	Kojima et al., 2000 Moutsaki el al., 2000 Philp et al., 2000
	ERrod-like opsin	Teleosts	S. salar D. rerio	Philp et al., 2000 Mano et al., 1999
Parapineal	Parapinopsin	Teleosts	T. rubripes I. punctatus	Blackshaw and Snyder, 1997
Parietal eye	Pinopsin	Reptiles	A. carolinensis	Kawamura and Yokoyama, 1997
Deep brain	Melanopsin	Amphibians	X. laevis D. rerio	Provencio et al., 1998 Bellingham et al., 2002
		Teleosts	G. morhua	Drivenes et al., 2003
	Pinopsin	Amphibians	B. japonicus	Yoshikawa et al., 1998
	VA opsin (different isoforms)	Teleosts	S. salar D. rerio	Philp et al., 2000 Kojima et al., 2000
	1501011115)		C. carpio P. altivelis	Moutsaki et al., 2000 Minamoto and Shimizu, 2002
	Rhodopsin	Birds	C. livia	Wada et al., 1998
		Teleosts	P. altivelis	Masuda et al., 2003
	RH2 opsin	Reptiles	P. sicula	Pasqualetti et al., 2003
	tmt-opsin	Teleosts	D. rerio	Moutsaki et al., 2003

Table 1. Opsins isolated and/or detected by in situ hybridization or immunocytochemistry with specific antiserum from extraocular photoreceptive structures.

important role in the regulation of circadian and/or photoperiodic behaviors (Tosini et al., 2001; Underwood and Groos, 1982; Underwood, 1990). Circumstantial evidence suggests that pineal melatonin also plays a role in regulating dermal color changes in fish and amphibians (Aspengren et al., 2003; Daniolos et al., 1990). The lamprey *P. marinus* possesses a well-differentiated photosensitive pineal that controls the circadian rhythm of melatonin synthesis (Bolliet et al., 1993). Because of the poor development of their eyes (de Miguel et al., 1990), *P. marinus* larvae use pineals as their main photoreceptive organs (Yanez et al., 1993). Furthermore, in *Lampetra fluviatilis* the pineal controls changes in body coloration, metamorphosis, and photoperiodic sexual maturation (Cole and Youson, 1981; Jones 1973b; Joss, 1973a).





Entrainment of the circadian activity rhythms to a LD cycle in *Lampetra japonica* is pineal-dependent (Morita et al., 1992).

In isolated cultured pineals of teleosts, melatonin synthesis is rhythmic under LD conditions, with the rhythm persisting for several days in constant conditions in some, but not all species investigated (Bolliet et al., 1996; Cahill, 2002). For instance, the trout pineal produces melatonin rhythmically in vitro in LD, whereas it synthesizes melatonin at high constant levels when cultured in constant darkness (DD) (Coon et al., 1998; Max and Menaker, 1992). In this teleost, light does not entrain circadian oscillators coupled to melatonin synthesis but acts directly on the pineal to suppress melatonin during daytime (Coon et al., 1998). The role of the pineal in the control of circadian behavioral rhythms has been studied in different teleosts. Ablation of the pineal in several species can induce arrhythmicity or changes in the length of the freerunning period. For instance, in the catfish Heteropneustes fossilis pinealectomy abolishes locomotor activity rhythms in DD (Garg and Sundararaj, 1986). However, many investigations have showed the pineal is not necessary for the photic entrainment: pinealectomized fish are still entrainable to LD cycles. In some fish pineal photoreception plays an important role during embryonic and larval life stages, especially during times when the retina does not vet possess corresponding photoreceptor capacity. For instance, in embryos and early larvae of the Atlantic halibut *Hippoglossus hippoglossus* the only differentiated photoreceptor organ at those life stages is the pineal, with light sensitivity for short (UV), and middle (green) wavelengths (Forsell et al., 2002). Pineals of amphibians synthesize melatonin rhythmically in vivo (Korf et al., 1998). Xenopus laevis pineals are also capable of producing melatonin rhythmically in vitro under LD cycles, although these rhythms disappear relatively quickly in DD (Green et al., 1999). Most investigations of amphibian circadian systems have focused on retinal circadian oscillators; relatively little is known about the circadian function of the pineal. Different investigations show that ablation of the Xenopus pineal alters circadian activity rhythms, but does not abolish photic entrainment of these rhythms (Cahill, 2002; Harada et al., 1998).

It is well known that amphibians use their circadian clock to compensate for the apparent movement of the sun (Sinsch, 1990). In this way they can perform directional orientation during migration by means of their sun compass. It is noteworthy that pineal photoreceptors of both larval and adult salamanders (Ambystoma tigrinum) can perceive the e-vector of plane polarized light and thus determine the sun azimuth under overcast skies. In this way, salamanders can orientate themselves by means of the sun compass also when the sun disk is not directly visible (Taylor and Adler, 1973, 1978). Pineal photoreceptors have also been shown to be involved in noncircadian behavioral tasks, such as magnetic compass orientation. In the eastern red spotted newt (Notophtalmus viridiscens), wavelengthdependent effects of light on magnetic compass orientation result from an antagonistic interaction between short (\leq 450 nm) and long-wavelength (\leq 500 nm) photoreception mechanisms (Phillips et al., 2001). Both short- and long-wavelength inputs to the magnetic compass of newts have been shown to be mediated by extraocular photoreceptors located in the pineal, although involvement of deep brain photoreceptors cannot be ruled out (Deutschlander et al., 1999; Phillips et al., 2001). The pineal also plays a central role in the swimming response to dimming of young

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X. laevis tadpoles. Low ambient light levels can affect the vertical distribution of *Xenopus* tadpoles by influencing their swimming so that they tend to swim upwards. Pinealectomy blocks the responses of tadpoles to dimming (Jamieson and Roberts, 2000). In the future, the possibility of rapid generation of transgenic *Xenopus* targeted to photoreception, melatonin synthesis, orientation, and clock genes expression will be particularly useful in chronobiology.

The pineal plays a central role in the regulation of circadian rhythmicity of reptiles (Tosini et al., 2001; Underwood, 1990). The pineal is involved in the generation and control of different circadian rhythms such as locomotor activity, body temperature, behavioral thermoregulation, and electroretinographic responses (Tosini et al., 2001). In all reptile species thus far investigated, the pineal releases melatonin in the blood rhythmically. In most, but not all, species the melatonin rhythm persists also when the animals are kept in DD and constant temperature, thus demonstrating its true circadian nature. The presence of pineal circadian oscillators that control melatonin synthesis in vitro have been verified in some lizards, namely *A. carolinensis, Sceloporus occidentalis, Iguana iguana*, and *Podarcis sicula* (Figure 2), but not in others, such as *Dipsosaurus dorsalis* (Bertolucci et al., 2003; Janik and Menaker, 1990; Menaker and Wisner, 1983; Menaker, 1985; Tosini and Menaker, 1998). No findings indicate the pineal is crucial for photic entrainment of circadian rhythms in reptiles whose lateral eyes have been removed.

The pineal gland of avian species contains circadian oscillators entrainable to LD cycles that produce melatonin in a rhythmic manner (Figure 2) (Brandstätter, 2003). Gwinner and Brandstätter (2001) recently summarized the most relevant data concerning the role of the pineal in the avian circadian system. Remarkably, investigations on the house sparrow (*Passer domesticus*) show day-length information is reflected in the pattern of daily blood melatonin release and retained in the pineal isolated in vitro. These data reveal the house sparrow pineal can store and retain biological information about time and can use it to determine increasing/ decreasing day lengths (Brandstätter et al., 2000).

PARAPINEAL ORGANS

In addition to the pineal, lampreys and teleosts possess an intracranial parapineal organ which arises as a dorsal evagination from the diencephalon (Vollrath, 1981). The parapineal is absent in cartilagineous fish (Holocephala, rajas, and sharks). In the Japanese grass lizard *T. tachydromoides*, a parapineal morphologically similar to the pineal gland has been localized below the parietal eye (Yoshikawa et al., 2001). Immunocytochemical analysis documents the existence of rhodopsin-like and pinopsin-like pigments in this reptilian parapineal (Yoshikawa et al., 2001). Fish parapineals contain photoreceptors (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 1997). An opsin has been cloned from the parapineal of channel catfish *Ictalurus punctatus* that defines a new gene family of vertebrate photopigments termed parapinopsin (Table 1) (Blackshaw and Snyder, 1997). Parapinopsin is also strongly expressed in the pineal stalk, while its expression in the pineal is at a lower level (Blackshaw and Snyder, 1997). Molecular phylogenetic analysis suggests that parapinopsin is closely related to the visual pigment *Ci-opsin1*, identified in a





entrainable to LD cycles. Grey bars indicate dark phase of the LD cycles and DD (Right panel from Brandstätter (2003)). Figure 2. In vitro melatonin release in LD and DD from cultured pineals of the ruin lizard and the house sparrow. Profiles of melatonin release demonstrate in both species the existence of pineal circadian oscillators



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primitive chordate, the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis* (Bellingham and Foster, 2002; Kusakabe et al., 2001). The presence of different kinds of opsins in the pineal and parapineal organs of catfish suggests that they might be specialized to perceive different wavelengths of light. It is unclear whether the parapineal contains circadian oscillators and produces melatonin. However, zebrafish parapineal cells can transcript in circadian manner: (a) arylalkylamine *N*-acetyltransferase 2 (*Aanat2*); (b) the interphotoreceptor retinoid-binding protein (*Irbp*); and (c) *Rev-erb-* α , an orphan nuclear receptor (Gamse et al., 2001).

FRONTAL ORGAN

In anurans, the pineal complex is composed of the extracranial frontal organ and the intracranial pineal organ. The frontal organ is located between the eyes in a depigmented area. Like the pineal, it contains photoreceptor cells, glial elements, and secondary neurons. The photoreceptors of the frontal organ possess cone-like outer segments and show immunoreactivity for iodopsin and rhodopsin (Masuda et al., 1994; Okano et al., 2000). Morphological and electrophysiological evidence in the frog *Rana esculenta* indicates the frontal organ might represent an autonomic component of the pineal complex with secretory function, since it produces neurohormonal messages involved in the mechanism of annual reproduction (Guglielmotti et al., 1997). Results of studies in which green frogs *Rana clamitans* were deprived of lateral eyes, pineal gland, and frontal organ suggest that the frontal organ, alone, is capable of mediating extraocular photic entrainment (Adler, 1971). Furthermore, there is clear evidence the frontal organ of cricket frogs *Acris gryllus* and bullfrog *Rana catesbeiana* is involved in determining the sun azimuth enabling sun compass orientation (Justis and Taylor, 1976; Taylor and Ferguson, 1970).

PARIETAL EYE

In reptiles the pineal complex is composed of the intracranial pineal and, in Sphenodon and lizards, the extracranial parietal eye. The parietal eye consists of a dorsal lens and ventral retina, both situated below a transparent cornea. The parietal eve retina is very simple. This retina is composed of photoreceptors and ganglion cells only, plus the axons of the ganglion cells form the parietal nerve. The parietal nerve innervates several areas of the brain (thalamic, hypothalamic, and telencephalic regions), but it does not project to the visual region (Engbretson, 1992; Quay, 1979). Very little is known about the function of the parietal eye of lizards. The parietal eve synthesizes melatonin but in much lower quantities than the pineal gland (Tosini and Menaker, 1998). It is likely that melatonin simply fulfils a local function within the parietal eye. Furthermore, Tosini and Menaker (1998) showed that the parietal eye of the *I. iguana* synthetized melatonin in vitro under the control of circadian oscillators. Recently, the parietal eye has become an interesting model to study the evolution of phototransduction mechanisms in vertebrate photoreceptors. In fact, parietal eye photoreceptors depolarize to light under darkadapted conditions, unlike rods and cones but similar to most invertebrate





photoreceptors (Xiong et al., 1998). The parietal eye exhibits a chromatic response to visible light (Engbretson, 1992; Solessio and Engbretson, 1993, 1999). Maximal spectral sensitivity of electroretinogram responses in the parietal eye of *Xantusia vigilis* is demonstrable for green (495 nm) and blue (430 nm) light (Solessio and Engbretson, 1999). Molecular analysis confirms this range of spectral sensitivity. In *A. carolinensis*, RT-PCR tests reveal the expression of opsins, classified in three different families: short wavelengths (UV/blue opsin), long-middle wavelengths (green/red opsin), and pinopsin (Table 1) (Kawamura and Yokoyama, 1997). Electrophysiological investigations also demonstrate parietal eye unresponsiveness to infrared wavelengths (Miller and Wolbarsht, 1962).

Investigations on *A. carolinensis* and *P. sicula* indicate the parietal eye is not involved in the control of locomotor rhythmicity (Underwood, 1983; Foà, 1991). However, the parietal eye seems to be involved in many physiological functions in lizards, such as thermoregulation and sun compass orientation. For instance, in the ruin lizard *P. sicula* ablation of parietal eye does not affect locomotor rhythmicity but temporarily abolishes the circadian rhythm of behavioral temperature selection (Innocenti et al., 1993). In *I. iguana* parietalectomy produces transient increase of body temperature during the first and second night following surgery (Tosini and Menaker, 1996). In general, the evidence that reptile species inhabiting tropical and semi-tropical area lack the parietal eye, whereas those species living in temperate zone possess one supports the hypothesis that the parietal eye is involved in thermoregulation (Gundy et al., 1975).

The parietal eye plays a critical role in homing behavior (Bissinger, 1980). Detailed studies have been done on the iguanid lizard *Sceloporus jarrovi* (Ellis-Quinn and Simon, 1991) and Australian sleepy lizard *Tiliqua rugosa* (Freake, 2001). Clock-shift experiments on *S. jarrovi* demonstrate these lizards can use a time-compensated sun compass to orientate themselves in the homeward direction; covering their parietal eye significantly reduces homing performances in comparison to controls. *T. rugosa* displaced away from home and released under the sun oriented at random when the parietal eye was covered, while control lizards with a sham parietal eye patch oriented homeward. Remarkably, in all these studies the lateral eyes were unobstructed and had complete access to visual cues, including celestial cues and landmarks. Collectively, these results suggest the parietal eye plays a highly significant role in mediating sun compass orientation and homing of lizards (Ellis-Quinn and Simon, 1991; Freake, 2001).

DEEP BRAIN PHOTORECEPTORS

The existence of extraocular photoreceptors located deep in the brain, the so-called deep brain photoreceptors (DBP), has been demonstrated in a broad range of nonmammalian vertebrate species (Foster et al., 1994; Shand and Foster, 1999; Vigh et al., 2002). The earliest evidence of the existence of DBP was provided by von Frisch (1911) and Scharrer (1928) in fish. Further, indications came from experiments on birds. Blinded ducks exposed to winter photoperiods show testis growth if the hypothalamus is directly illuminated with summer photoperiods via small quartz rods (Beinot, 1935). The findings of these preliminary investigations were ignored

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until later studies by Menaker on the house sparrow (*Passer domesticus*) which demonstrated the role of encephalic photoreception on the entrainment of circadian rhythms and induction of gonadal growth (Menaker, 1968; Menaker and Keatts, 1968). Later, several investigations showed DBP are essential for the regulation of circadian physiology and detection of seasonal changes in photoperiod. For instance, DBP can mediate entrainment of circadian rhythms of locomotor activity to LD cycles in reptiles (Figure 3A–B) and photoperiodic responses that control seasonal breeding in birds (Foà et al., 1993; Foster and Follett, 1985; Pasqualetti et al., 2003; Underwood and Menaker, 1976).



Figure 3. Photic entrainment in the ruin lizard *Podarcis sicula*. Locomotor records of lizards entrained to a LD cycle either as intact (A) or after combined ablation of the pineal complex and the retinae of the lateral eyes (B). Records are representative examples of the fact that DBP are sufficient to permit photic entrainment of locomotor behavior. Each horizontal line is a record of one day's activity, and consecutive days are mounted one below the other. Rectangles encompass the light phase of the administered LD cycle. (C) Schematic reconstruction of a transverse brain section at the level of the periventricular area (PH) of the hypothalamus. Square encompasses the area of the PH containing DBP. (D) Frontal sections through the PH showing DBP. Scale bars: $10 \,\mu$ m. (C and D from Pasqualetti et al. (2003)).



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Several investigations suggest the phototransduction cascade of DBP is similar to those described in retinal and pineal cells (Bellingham and Foster, 2002). Both immunocytochemical and molecular analyses reveal the existence of different types of photopigments in the brain of many vertebrate species (Table 1). Photopigments have been localized in the basal telencephalon, anterior hypothalamus, and subhabenular areas. Furthermore, several reports indicate the existence of at least two types of photoreceptor neurons: cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)-contacting neurons and neurosecretory cells. In amphibians, encephalic neurons expressing opsins are found in the anterior hypothalamus: anterior preoptic area, magnocellular preoptic nucleus, and suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) (Okano et al., 2000; Provencio et al., 1998; Yoshikawa et al. 1998, 1994). Xenopus melanopsin is localized in neurosecretory cells of the magnocellular preoptic nucleus and SCN, while toad pinopsin is localized in CSF-contacting neurons in the anterior preoptic nucleus of the hypothalamus (Provencio et al., 1998; Yoshikawa et al., 1998). In Agnatha and fish, DBP are present in diencephalic and subhabenular areas (Garcia-Fernandez, 1997; Philp et al., 2000b). VA opsin is expressed in the epithalamic cells of the salmon brain (Philp et al., 2000b). The authors did not establish whether these cells are CSFcontacting neurons or neurosecretory cells. A second isoform of VA opsin, VAL (long) opsin, has been identified in zebrafish and carp (Moutsaki et al., 2000; Kojima et al., 2000). Furthermore, in the zebrafish VAL opsin is expressed in CSFcontacting neurons of the central posterior thalamic nucleus (Kojima et al., 2000). Recently, another VA opsin isoform, VAM opsin, and a rhodopsin have been identified in the brain of the smelt fish *Plecoglossus altivelis* (Masuda et al., 2003; Minamoto and Shimizu, 2002). Melanopsins were cloned in the zebrafish and Atlantic cod Gadus morhua (Bellingham et al., 2002; Drivenes et al., 2003). Interestingly, in the cod two different melanopsins (opn4a and opn4b) are separately expressed in the SCN and habenula. The expression of opn4a in the SCN is similar to melanopsin expression found in Xenopus. This suggests a conserved role for melanopsin in nonvisual photoreceptive tasks. The expression of the other type of melanopsin (opn4b) in the habenula suggests this brain area may be an additional region that integrates photic cue detection in teleosts (Drivenes et al., 2003). A novel opsin family, teleost multiple tissue (tmt-) opsin, was identified in the zebrafish (Moutsaki et al., 2003). Tmt-opsin is expressed in many nonneural tissues and in all the major divisions of the zebrafish brain (Moutsaki et al., 2003). Tmt-opsin is thought to play a central role in the circadian photic entrainment of zebrafish. In birds, photoreceptive brain areas were localized in the hypothalamus and in the septal and tuberal areas (Foster and Follett, 1985; Silver et al., 1988; Wada et al., 1998). In all avian species, tested photopigments are expressed in CSF-contacting neurons. For instance, rhodopsin expression is detected in CSF-contacting neurons of the pigeon lateral septum (Wada et al., 1998).

Different locations of the DBP have been reported also in different lizard species. In the American iguanid lizards *A. carolinensis* and *I. iguana*, cone-opsin immunopositive cells have been exclusively detected in the basal region of the lateral ventricles (Foster et al., 1993; Grace et al., 1996). In the Japanese grass lizards, *T. tachydromoides* neurons expressing rhodopsin have been localized in the posterior pallial commissure and median eminence (Yoshikawa et al., 2001). In all these species, photoreceptors appear to be of similar shape as CSF-contacting neurons.

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In contrast, in the European ruin lizards *P. sicula* the DBP are localized in the periventricular area on the hypothalamus and look to be of similar shape as neurosecretory cells (Fig. 3C–D) (Pasqualetti et al., 2003).

A brain opsin has been cloned for the first time in a reptilian species, *P. sicula* (Table 1). The deduced amino acid sequence yields the highest similarity with the RH2 cluster among vertebrate opsins; it includes a mixture of cone-opsins absorbing in the 470–520 nm range (Yokoyama, 2000). Furthermore, posttranscriptional inactivation experiments of endogenous brain cone-opsins mRNA demonstrate for the first time in a vertebrate that brain cone-opsins of lizards are part of a true circadian brain photoreceptor participating in photic entrainment of behavioral rhythms (Pasqualetti et al., 2003).

CONCLUSIONS

Overall, it may appear that in nonmammalian vertebrates all photosensory tasks are shared between the lateral eyes detecting images for vision and the extraocular photoreceptors mediating irradiance detection allowing animals, for instance, to entrain circadian rhythms to the day-night cycles of the real world. This, however, is not completely valid. Although the lateral eyes are not necessary for entrainment to the day-night cycle, their presence significantly increases the sensitivity of entrainment, as clearly shown in both birds and lizards (Foà et al., 1993; Menaker, 1972; Underwood, 1973).

In the photosensory tasks that extraocular photoreceptors actually perform there is something more than mere irradiance detection. For instance, the pineal of salamanders, the frontal organ of frogs, and the parietal eye of lizards have been shown to be involved in detecting the horizontal direction of a light source, specifically the azimuth of the sun, a necessary task to orientate by means of a sun compass. Sun azimuth also can be determined under overcast skies by detecting the e-vector of plane polarized light, as for instance the salamander pineal does. Overall sun compass orientation, also classified as photomenotaxis (Fraenkel and Gunn, 1940), results in rather sophisticated behavioral performance by detecting the amount of environmental light (irradiance). Future investigations should explore in greater depth at which level(s) of that complex mechanism the frontal organ, pineal body, and parietal eye effectively participate.

One of the intriguing questions that remains to be answered in this field is why the central nervous system of the same nonmammalian species contains multiple types of photopigments that are expressed in many distinct areas. Roenneberg and Foster (1997) proposed that multiple photopigments, which differ in their spectral responses, can be used to obtain information about spectral changes within the environment. Noteworthy, dawn and dusk are the times of day when both changes in the spectral composition are maximal, and signals to photic entrainment of circadian rhythms are most relevant (Aschoff et al., 1982). Hence, multiple photic channels, each extracting slightly different spectral information from the same light environment, may be used by the circadian system to extract reliable judgements about dawn and/or dusk, with the adaptive significance of entraining very accurately



physiological and behavioral rhythms to that reference phase (Foster and Hankins, 2002; Philp et al., 2000b).

Thus far, there is only one case in which a well localized group of deep brain photoreceptors (DBP) has been shown to directly mediate the photic entrainment of circadian behavioral rhythms. This is evident in the neurosecretory cells, all confined within the periventricular area of the hypothalamus, of the ruin lizard *Podarcis sicula* (Pasqualetti et al., 2003). However, neural pathways from these circadian DBP to the primary pacemaker in the SCN have not yet been demonstrated (Minutini et al., 1995). Future investigations using the combination of behavioral, electrophysiological, and molecular approaches will be necessary to place the various DBP found in nonmammalian vertebrates into the right biological context.

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