

Coding of Odor Intensity in a Steady-State Deterministic Model of an Olfactory Receptor Neuron

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Abstract. The coding of odor intensity by an olfactory receptor neuron model was studied under steady-state stimulation. Our model neuron is an elongated cylinder consisting of the following three components: a sensory dendritic region bearing odorant receptors, a passive region consisting of proximal dendrite and cell body, and an axon. First, analytical solutions are given for the three main physiological responses: (1) odorant-dependent conductance change at the sensory dendrite based on the Michaelis-Menten model, (2) generation and spreading of the receptor potential based on a new solution of the cable equation, and (3) firing frequency based on a Lapicque model. Second, the magnitudes of these responses are analyzed as a function of odorant concentration. Their dependence on chemical, electrical, and geometrical parameters is examined. The only evident gain in magnitude results from the activation-to-conductance conversion. An optimal encoder neuron is presented that suggests that increasing the length of the sensory dendrite beyond about 0.3 space constant does not increase the magnitude of

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the receptor potential. Third, the sensitivities of the responses are examined as functions of (1) the concentration at half-maximum response, (2) the lower and upper concentrations actually discriminated, and (3) the width of the dynamic range. The overall gain in sensitivity results entirely from the conductance-to-voltage conversion. The maximum conductance at the sensory dendrite appears to be the main tuning constant of the neuron because it determines the shift toward low concentrations and the increase in dynamic range. The dynamic range of the model cannot exceed 5.7 log units, for a sensitivity increase at low odor concentration is compensated by a sensitivity decrease at high odor concentration.

Keywords: sensory coding, cable equation, single neuron modeling

1. Introduction

Although much progress has been made in recent years in understanding the physiology of olfactory receptor neurons (e.g., Breer et al., 1990; Zufall et al., 1991; Boekhoff et al., 1993; Menini et al., 1995; reviews of Breer, 1994; Firestein, 1992; Kaissling and Boekhoff, 1993; Shepherd, 1994; Shirsat and Siddiqi, 1993; Stengl et al., 1992), the manner in which the intensity of stimulation is coded remains incompletely understood. The stimulus intensity is measured by the concentration of the stimulating odorant (in the case where it is a pure chemical) whereas the magnitude of the response is usually measured by the frequency of action potentials. This concentration-to-frequency conversion is a basic and well-defined property of olfactory sensory neurons, for which a number of experimentally measured dose-response relationships are available in insects (e.g., Kaissling and Priesner, 1970; Kaissling, 1971; Vareschi, 1971; Selzer, 1984; Kaissling, 1987) as well as vertebrates (e.g., O'Connell and Mozell, 1969; Getchell and Shepherd, 1978; Duchamp-Viret et al., 1989). The biological significance of this problem led us to develop a model of the olfactory receptor neuron.

Several difficulties arise in the development of such a model. A first problem is the paucity of detailed and quantitative information. In the case of olfactory receptor neurons, data are lacking on the second-messenger transduction process and the various ionic conductances involved in the generation of transmembrane potentials. However, such detailed data are probably not needed to account for the main physiological properties of olfactory receptor neurons, as established in classical extracellular recordings, which we consider to be our primary goal. A second problem is the lack of complete solutions to the equations that describe the basic chemical and electrical phenomena under study. Analytical solutions provide irreplaceable references to interpret the numerical solutions that are

the only ones presently attainable for more realistic models. For this reason, we subordinated model complexity and realism to mathematical tractability, which lead us to the following choices. One, the complete Hodgkin-Huxley equations for describing the action potential were not considered because their analytical solutions are not available (for their application to an extended neuron, see Rovinsky and Menzinger, 1993); we studied only the time of occurrence (frequency) of the action potentials. Two, only the steady-state behavior of the neuron (constant stimulation) was studied. Three, we did not include stochastic aspects, considered in previous studies (Lánský and Rospars, 1993, 1995; Rospars and Lánský, 1993; Rospars et al., 1994) because the stochastic features play a prominent role when the neuron is stimulated at very low intensities. In these conditions, the deterministic assumptions are not valid. Moreover, the complete solution of the equations that describe the stochastic behavior is presently known only for one-point and two-point model neurons, which are inadequate for our present goal. Four, a receptor neuron with only one type of receptor proteins was studied (such as in the insect sex-pheromone neuroreceptor for example). Five, the variations in diameter of the dendrite, cell body and axon were not taken into account. The dendrite of pheromone receptor neurons of moths is quite close to a long cylinder (Keil, 1984).

The first aim of this paper was to develop, given these assumptions, a model describing the main response variables (that is, conductance change, receptor potential, and firing frequency), and specifying their relationships and their dependence on the biophysical characteristics of the neuron. The cylindrical cable model considered here, which is intermediate between a dimensionless point and complex passive trees (Segev, 1992), is the simplest case permitting one to take into account the spatial extent of the neuron (for a multicompartmental model of the olfactory neuron see

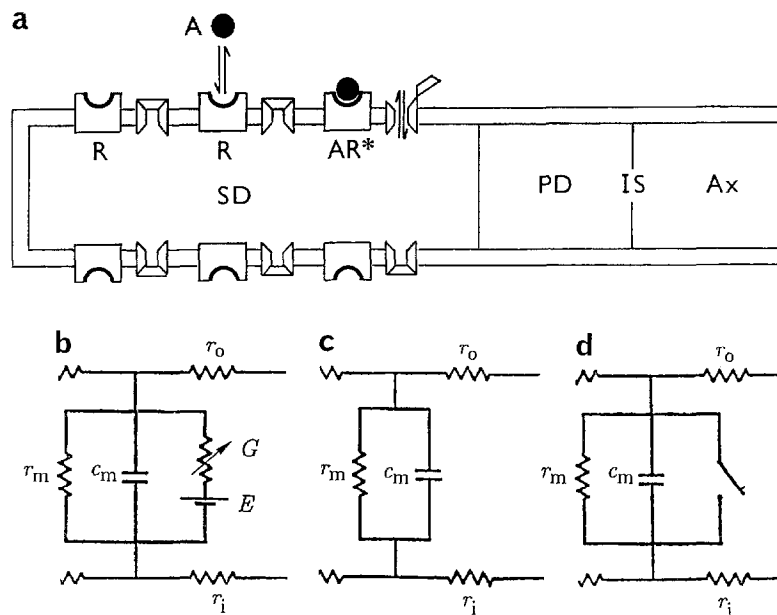


Figure 1. (a) Schematic representation of model receptor neuron and equivalent circuits of its three main modules, (b) sensory dendrite SD, (c) passive dendrite PD, and (d) axon initial segment IS. Odorant molecules A bind to receptor proteins R on SD and change their conformation (activated receptors AR^*), which ultimately triggers the opening of ion channels. This conductance change G , see (b), generates a receptor potential that spreads to IS where action potential are fired and propagated along axon (Ax).

Pongracz et al., 1991). However, none of the known solutions of the cable equation (Rall, 1977; Tuckwell, 1988) describe realistically the stimulation of a sensory neuron. To our knowledge, the solution presented here for an extended, uniform, and steady-state stimulation of the dendrite is original. It describes a realistic case that is useful for describing actual experiments.

Our second aim was to analyze the coding properties of this model. A sensory neuron offers an interesting example for studying neuronal coding in detail because reasonable assumptions can be made on its physiological functions and on how it might code information to fulfill these functions. Coding of the intensity of stimulation is probably the simplest of these tasks. We have analyzed and compared the coding properties of the main neuron responses from transduction to firing using four basic quantities: the concentration at half-maximum response, the lower and upper concentrations actually discriminated, and the width of the dynamic range. These quantities were formalized and their significance discussed with a view to distinguishing the features that directly control the computing performance of neurons from those that result merely from “hardware” constraints. This is a basic issue in theoretical neurobiology that might benefit from the special case studied here.

2. The Model

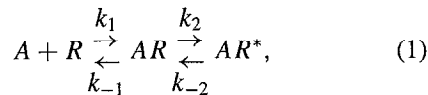
The olfactory neuroreceptor is viewed as a cylinder divided into four regions (Lánský et al., 1994; Fig. 1a). (1) The *sensory component of the dendrite* bears receptor sites; it corresponds mainly to the dendritic cilia of the vertebrate and the outer dendrite of insect neuroreceptors. When activated by odorant molecules, the receptor sites activate a second-messenger system that ultimately opens ionic channels (Section 2.1). This conductance change in turn gives rise to the receptor potential as analyzed in Section 2.2. (2) The *passive region of the dendrite* is assumed to possess no transduction mechanisms and to be a mere cable that passively responds to the receptor potential (also described in Section 2.2). It corresponds to the inner dendrite and cell body membrane. (3) At the *initial segment* of the axon, the receptor potential is converted into a train of action potentials (Section 2.3). (4) The *axon* itself terminates in the brain and is extremely long with respect to the other regions.

2.1. Model of Transduction

Consider a cylindrical segment of sensory dendrite of unit length with $[R_T]$ receptor sites R of the same type

on its surface and odor-dependent ion channels set in it. This membrane is stimulated by an odor composed of only one molecular type A whose concentration close to the membrane is $[A]$. Since only a thin space in the vicinity of the membrane is relevant for the binding process, $[A]$ can be expressed in moles per unit area ($M \text{ cm}^{-2}$). The concentration $[R]$ of the receptor molecules is expressed in the same unit. The model of transduction presented here is based on Kaissling's approach (Kaissling, 1969, 1971).

2.1.1. Number of Activated Receptor Sites. Following the initial binding of the odorant molecule to the site and depending on the force of binding, the receptor is "activated", which can be pictured as a change of conformation of the receptor protein. The reactions involved can be written



where k_1 , k_{-1} , k_2 and k_{-2} denote velocity constants. Then, it can be shown (Ennis, 1991; Getz and Akers, 1995; Malaka et al., 1995; see Appendix A) that

$$[AR^*] = \frac{\frac{[R_T]}{K_2 + 1}}{1 + \frac{K_1 K_2}{K_2 + 1} [A]}. \quad (2)$$

Equation (2) depends on the ratio of the velocity constants, the dissociation $K_1 = k_{-1}/k_1$ and deactivation $K_2 = k_{-2}/k_2$ equilibrium constants which have dimension $M \text{ cm}^{-2}$. It follows that $[A]$ is the only parameter that can be easily changed by the experimenter. In practice $[A]$ has an upper bound, denoted by $[A]_M$, which occurs when air is saturated with A , corresponding to the vapor pressure in the actual conditions of temperature and pressure. Although $[A]$ cannot become infinite, we will consider an odorant for which $[A]_M$ is very large with respect to $K_1 K_2 / (K_2 + 1)$. The graph of (2) as a function of $[A]$ is a branch of hyperbola (for this reason we call such functions "hyperbolic"). The number of activated receptors is zero at $[A] = 0$ and it approaches $[R_T] / (K_2 + 1)$ independent of K_1 when $[A] \rightarrow \infty$.

2.1.2. Relation Between Receptor Activation and Conductance Change. We assume that the number n of odorant-dependent channels that are opened on

the membrane patch at steady state is linearly proportional to the number $[AR^*]$ of activated receptor sites, so that $n = \Gamma [AR^*]$, where Γ is the number of channels opened by activation of one receptor molecule. If only a single type of channels is opened, the odorant-dependent conductance in the patch is $G = \gamma n$, where γ is the channel conductance. For reasons explained in the next section, we introduce a dimensionless form $g = r_m G$ of conductance G using the resting conductance r_m^{-1} of the membrane patch as unit of conductance,

$$g = r_m \gamma \Gamma [AR^*]. \quad (3)$$

Then putting (2) in (3) we can write, for any $[A]$,

$$g = \frac{g_M}{1 + \frac{[A]_{g/2}}{[A]}}, \quad (4)$$

introducing

$$\theta = r_m \gamma \Gamma [R_T] \quad (5)$$

as the conductance when all receptor sites are activated,

$$g_M = \frac{\theta}{K_2 + 1} \quad (6)$$

as the conductance when $[A] \rightarrow \infty$, and

$$[A]_{g/2} = \frac{K_1 K_2}{K_2 + 1} \quad (7)$$

as the odorant concentration at which the conductance achieves its half-maximal value $g_M/2$. In the rest of this article we will use g_M and $[A]_{g/2}$ as yardsticks to analyze the receptor potential and the firing frequency. The graph of g versus $[A]$ for (4) is shown and studied in Figs. 2a, 3a, c. Function (4) expressed as a function of $\log[A]$ can be written

$$g = \frac{g_M}{1 + \exp(2.3(\log[A]_{g/2} - \log[A]))}. \quad (8)$$

This is a logistic function whose dependence on $\log[A]$ is sigmoid with an inflection point at $\log[A]_{g/2}$, see Figs. 2b, 3b, d. Equations (3) and (4) implicitly assume that the formation of $[AR^*]$ is the limiting step of the transduction mechanism when $[A]$ increases—that is, $[AR^*]$ reaches its maximum level before any other

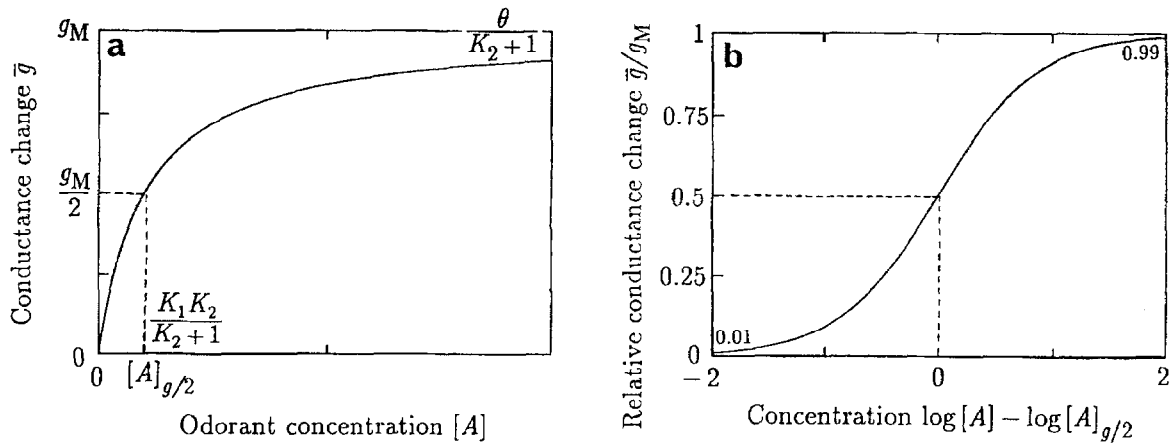


Figure 2. Conductance change \bar{g} at any point of the sensory dendrite as a function of odorant concentration $[A]$ (a) and as a function of $\log [A]$, (b). (a) Plot of \bar{g} against $[A]$ is a hyperbolic curve (4) showing maximum value g_M according to (6), and concentration at half-maximum $A_{g/2}$ according to (7) (b) Plot of \bar{g}/g_M against $\log [A]$ is a logistic curve (8) with inflection point at $[A]_{g/2}$; dynamic range for 0.01 according to (9) through (11) is delimited by the sides of the figure. Similar representations apply to number of activated receptor sites $[AR]^*$ (see Eq. (2)) and receptor potential V_0 at the distal end of the sensory dendrite (see Eq. (21), (22) and (23)) which are both hyperbolic functions of $[A]$.

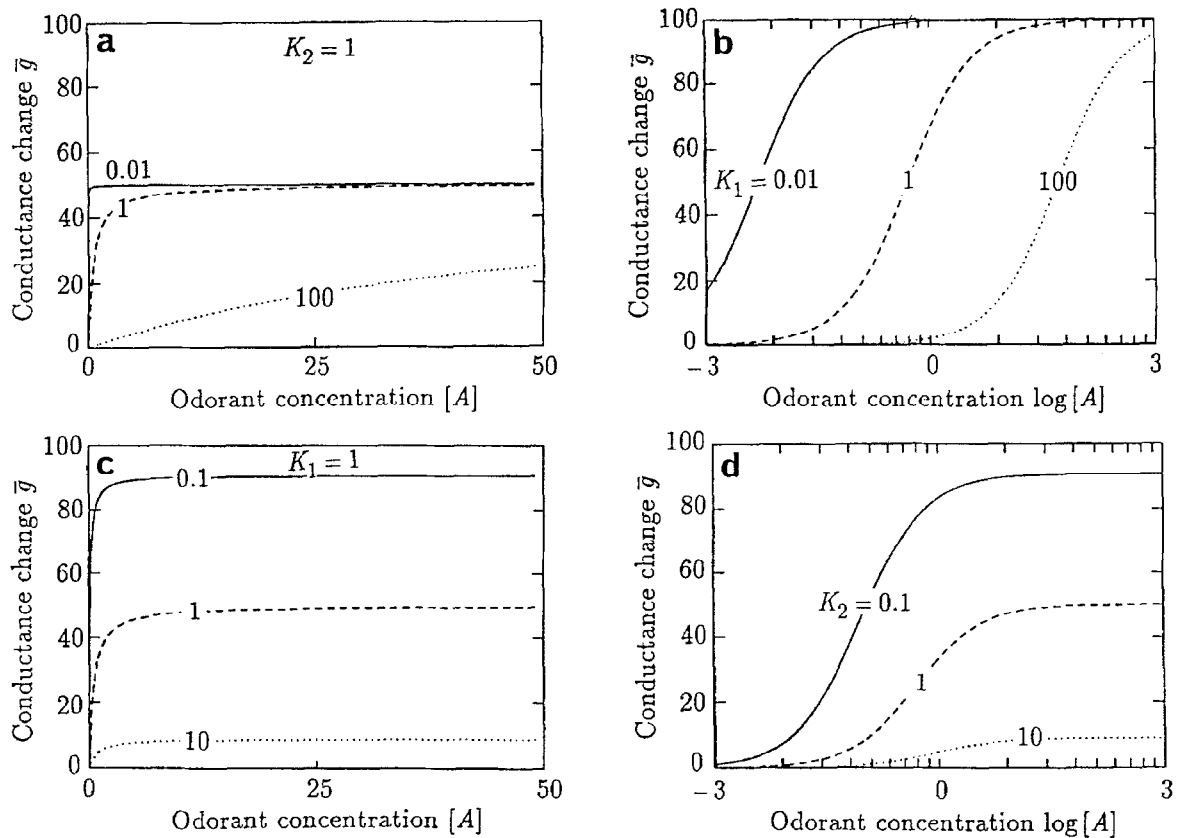


Figure 3. Roles of dissociation equilibrium constant K_1 and deactivation equilibrium constant K_2 on conductance change \bar{g} at the sensory dendrite as a function of odorant concentration $[A]$ (a, c) and $\log [A]$ (b, d) according to (3) through (7). (a, b) Role of $K_1 = 0.01, 1$ and 100 for $K_2 = 1$; K_1 acts on response sensitivity, shift from left to right of curves, (b) but not on response magnitude. (c, d) Role of $K_2 = 0.1, 1$ and 10 for $K_1 = 1$; K_2 acts on both magnitude and sensitivity of response. Parameter $\theta = 100$, conductance that would result from activation of all receptor sites. A similar representation applies to number of activated receptor sites replacing θ by total number $[R_T]$ of receptor sites.

reaction involved in the activation-to-conductance conversion. Also, as before, we consider here that the maximum value of g_M results from saturation of receptor sites not saturation due to maximum odor concentration $[A]_M$. This caveat holds for all further results based on the assumption $[A] \rightarrow \infty$.

Coding Properties of Conductance Change. A physiologically significant feature of (4) is to define a specific dynamic range for odorant concentration. Defining the lower bound (threshold) as the concentration $[A]_{gt}$ for which the ratio g/g_M is equal to some arbitrary small value ϵ , such as $\epsilon = 0.01$, and the upper bound (saturation) as the concentration $[A]_{gs}$ for which $g/g_M = 1 - \epsilon$, e.g., 0.99, it can be shown by manipulating (4) that

$$[A]_{gt} = \frac{\epsilon}{1 - \epsilon} [A]_{g/2} \simeq \epsilon [A]_{g/2} \quad (9)$$

$$[A]_{gs} = \frac{1 - \epsilon}{\epsilon} [A]_{g/2} \simeq \frac{[A]_{g/2}}{\epsilon}. \quad (10)$$

Consequently, the dynamic range Δ_g for conductance defined as the logarithm of the ratio $[A]_{gs}/[A]_{gt}$ is

$$\Delta_g = \log[A]_{gt} - \log[A]_{gs} = 2 \log \frac{1 - \epsilon}{\epsilon} \simeq -2 \log \epsilon. \quad (11)$$

This is a constant independent of all neuron characteristics. For example, if $\epsilon = 0.01$, Δ_g is about 4 log units.

2.2. Model of Receptor-Potential Generation

2.2.1. Dendritic Cable. For the sake of simplicity we do not take into account the subdivision of the dendrite into several cilia or the variations in diameters (and shape) between dendrite, cell body, and axon. Axial symmetry of the dendrite is assumed over its whole length, and thus only one space variable, the distance X along the dendrite, is needed. The sensory dendrite extends from 0 to X_1 and the passive dendrite from X_1 to X_2 (Fig. 1a). The equivalent circuits for sections of sensory and passive membranes are shown in Figs. 1b and c. The only difference between these circuits is the presence of a variable conductance in the sensory membrane.

The spatiotemporal distribution of the receptor potential $V(X, T)$ along the dendrite generated by the

ion current depends on the conductance $g(X, T)$ in the sensory dendrite, which now is given per unit length ($S \text{ cm}^{-1}$, not unit area as before; for this reason the notations for variables in both cases should have been distinguished, however the corresponding quantities are numerically equal, so that relations (3) through (11) remain valid). In the passive dendrite, by definition, $g(X, T) = 0$. With the above assumptions, $V(X, T)$ is the solution of the cable equation (see Appendix B). In this paper we will focus attention on time-independent steady-state solutions $V(X)$ obtained with $g(X, T) = g(X)$ and in particular those cases where $g(X)$ is a constant over the whole sensory dendrite. It is advantageous to define potential $V(X)$ as membrane depolarization (that is, the resting potential is taken at 0), and to use the space constant $\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{r_m}{r_i + r_o}}$ (cm) as unit of space where r_m is the membrane resistance ($\Omega \text{ cm}$), r_i and r_o are the resistances ($\Omega \text{ cm}^{-1}$) of internal and external mediums respectively, so that $x = X/\lambda$. With these conventions as shown in Appendix B, $V = V(x)$ is the solution of the dimensionless cable equation

$$-\frac{d^2V}{dx^2} + V = g(x)(E - V), \quad (12)$$

where E is the reversal potential of the permeating ion expressed as a depolarization.

2.2.2. Receptor Potential for a Dendrite with Uniform Stimulation. We suppose that the odorant molecules and receptors with their associated ion channels are uniformly distributed along the sensory region of the dendrite. This gives uniform stimulation for which

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \bar{g} & \text{for } 0 \leq x < x_1 \\ 0 & \text{for } x \geq x_1. \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

The steady-state receptor potential V satisfies the differential Eq. (12) and to solve this equation boundary conditions must be chosen. For a semiinfinite cable, the condition at the extremity of the axon is that V is bounded. The other condition is imposed at 0, for example by considering $V(0) = 0$ (killed end) or $V'(0) = 0$ (sealed end). The latter condition, corresponding to a null longitudinal current, is closer to natural conditions and the only one considered in this paper. Under these conditions it is shown in

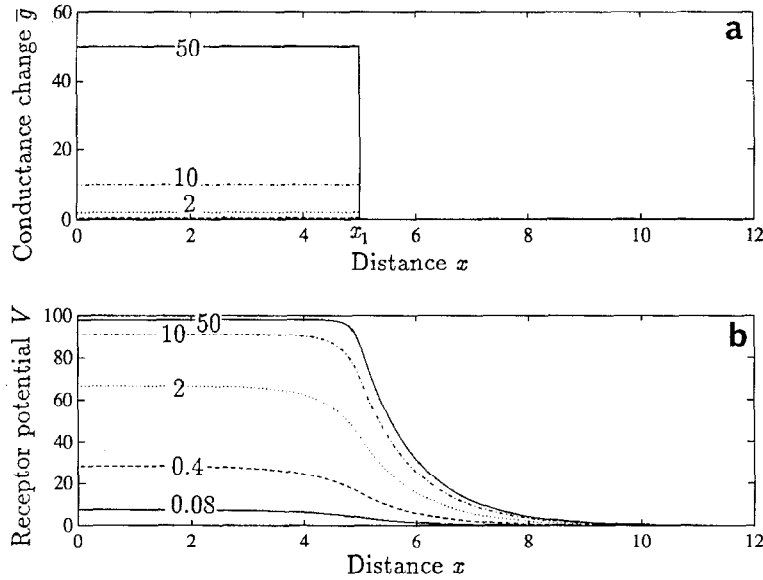


Figure 4. Receptor potential along the neuron for different conductance changes at the sensory dendrite. (a) Conductance change as a function of dimensionless distance x according to (13), with proximal end of sensory dendrite at $x_1 = 5$ and $g(x) = \bar{g} = 0.08$ (not shown), 0.4, 2, 10 and 50 over the whole sensory dendrite ($0 < x \leq 5$) and $g(x) = 0$ over passive dendrite and axon ($x > 5$). (b) Corresponding receptor potential V as a function of x according to (14) and (15). Parameter: reversal potential of the odorant-dependent ion current $E = 100$.

Appendix C that the steady-state potential along the cable is

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{E\bar{g}}{1+\bar{g}} \times \left\{ 1 - \frac{\cosh(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x)}{\sqrt{1+\bar{g}} \sinh(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x_1) + \cosh(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x_1)} \right\} & \text{for } 0 \leq x < x_1 \quad (14) \\ \frac{E\bar{g}}{1+\bar{g} + \sqrt{1+\bar{g}} \coth(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x_1)} \exp(-(x-x_1)) & \text{for } x \geq x_1. \quad (15) \end{cases}$$

The graph of $V(x)$ is shown in Fig. 4 for different values of \bar{g} .

2.2.3. Role of Conductance and Lengths of Sensory and Passive Dendrites. The values of the receptor potential at both ends of sensory dendrite (points 0 and x_1) and at the initial segment (x_2) have a special functional significance. In this subsection we study their dependence on such structural properties of the neuron as the lengths of the sensory and passive dendrites,

and on the intensity of stimulation, as reflected in the conductance \bar{g} .

Role of Length of Passive Dendrite for Fixed \bar{g} . The size of the receptor potential at any point beyond x_1 , and specifically at the axon initial segment x_2 , given by (15), can be written in the form

$$V(x) = V(x_1) \exp(-(x-x_1)), \quad x \geq x_1, \quad (16)$$

which is completely determined by $V(x_1)$ and the distance from point x_1 . The input-output properties of the neuron as a whole are thus governed by the length $l_2 = x_2 - x_1$ of the passive dendrite and the value of $V(x_1)$, which depends on E , \bar{g} and length $l_1 = x_1$ of the sensory membrane. While the roles of l_2 and E are clear, those of l_1 and \bar{g} are not immediately apparent

Role of Length of Sensory Dendrite for Fixed \bar{g} (Fig. 5). The potential $V(0)$, at $x = 0$, is the maximum depolarization of the sealed-end dendrite. The graphs of $V(0)$ and $V(x_1)$ as a function of l_1 for fixed \bar{g} as given by (14) and (15) are shown in Fig. 5. As the length l_1 of the sensory dendrite increases both functions rapidly approach asymptotic values V_0 and V_1

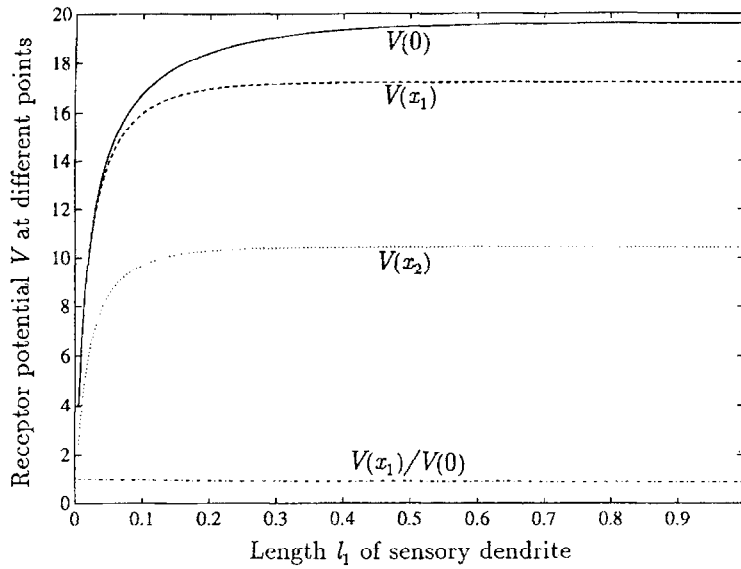


Figure 5. Receptor potential at different point as a function of length $l_1 (= x_1)$ of the sensory dendrite. Potential $V(0)$ at distal end of sensory dendrite according to (14), potential $V(x_1)$ at proximal end of sensory dendrite and $V(x_2)$ at initial segment according to (15). Ratio $V(x_1)/V(0)$ is constant for a given \bar{g} ; ratio $V(x_2)/V(x_1)$ is also constant in a given neuron according to (16). For $l_1 > 0.3$ the receptor potential at $x \geq x_1$ is independent of l_1 . Parameters $E = 20$, $\bar{g} = 20$, $x_2 = x_1 + 0.5$.

defined by

$$V_0 = \lim_{l_1 \rightarrow \infty} V(0) \text{ and } V_1 = \lim_{l_1 \rightarrow \infty} V(x_1) \quad (17)$$

In most cases these asymptotic values are nearly attained for $l_1 < 1$ because the quantities $\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}$ $\sinh(\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x_1) + \cosh(\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x_1)$ in (14) and $\coth(\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x_1)$ in (15) tend rapidly to ∞ and 1 respectively. The ratio V_0/V_1 is $1 + 1/\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}$. Somewhat surprisingly, $V(0)/V(x_1)$ is close to this asymptotic value even for quite small values of l_1 (see Fig. 5), which means that the spatial distribution of the receptor potential along the neuron (shown in Fig. 4) is merely shifted to the right when the length of the sensory dendrite increases; this result has obvious functional significance.

Role of Odorant-Dependent Conductance for Fixed l_1 (Fig. 6a, b). Potentials $V(0)$ and $V(x_1)$ for a given length l_1 are increasing functions of \bar{g} , which tend to the equilibrium potential E , their common asymptotic value. Since the shape of the spatial variation of the receptor potential is practically independent of l_1 , a study of the dependence of $V(0)$ and $V(x_1)$ on \bar{g} can be performed by considering only V_0 and V_1 as defined by (17). From (14) the value of V_0 is given

by

$$V_0 = \frac{E}{1 + 1/\bar{g}} \quad (18)$$

and from (15) that of V_1 by

$$V_1 = \frac{E}{1 + 1/\bar{g} + \sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}/\bar{g}} = E \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}} \right), \quad (19)$$

which increases more slowly than V_0 to their common asymptote as \bar{g} increases. This is illustrated by the conductance at its half-maximum value $E/2$, which is $g_{V_1/2} = 3$, whereas that for V_0 is $g_{V_0/2} = 1$ (see Fig. 6a). Let us define $V_2 = \lim_{l_1 \rightarrow \infty} V(x_2)$. Then from (16), the asymptotic value of the receptor potential at the initial segment is

$$V_2 = V_1 \exp(-l_2). \quad (20)$$

Equation (19) thus appears as the major relation describing the conductance-to-voltage conversion of the dendritic part of the neuron.

2.2.4. Coding Properties of the Receptor Potential.

The above results show that a study of the receptor

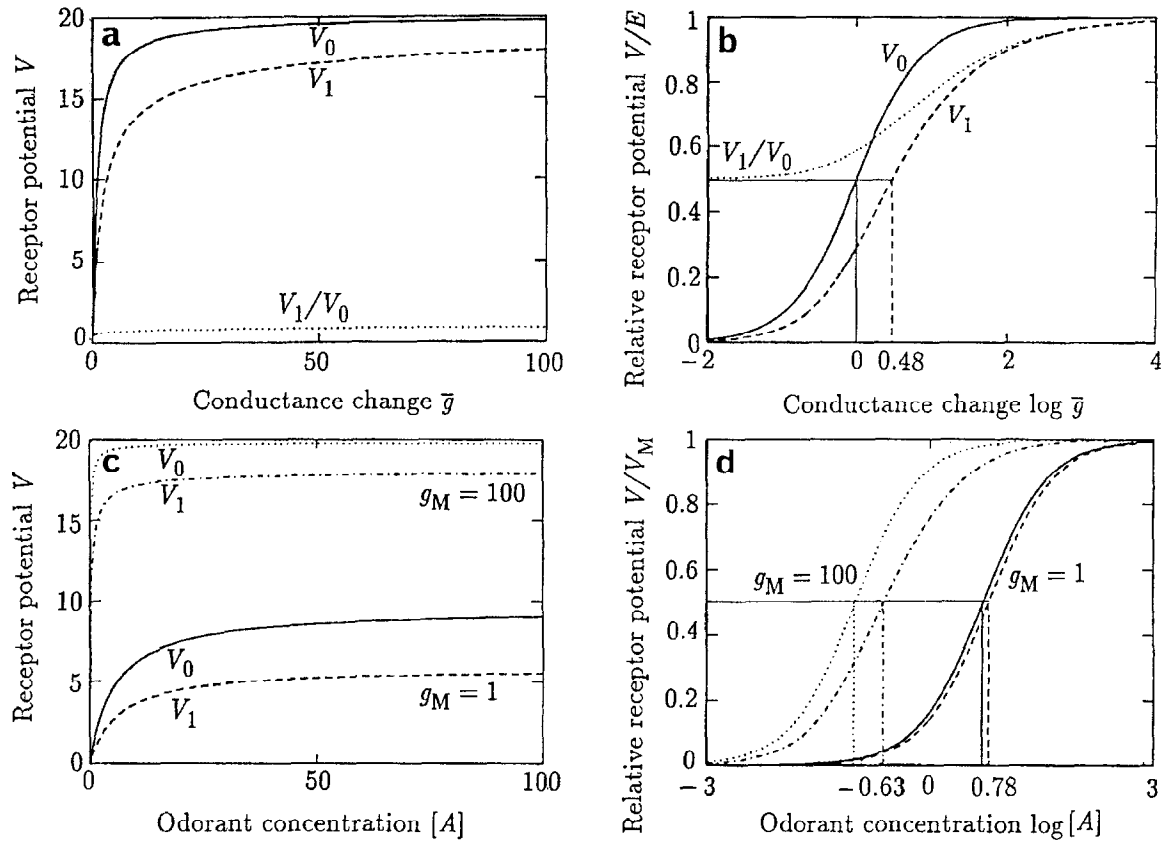


Figure 6. Receptor potential at distal end V_0 and proximal end V_1 of sensory dendrite as a function of conductance \bar{g} (a, b) and odorant concentration $[A]$ (c, d). Potential V_2 at initial segment (not shown) is a scaled version of V_1 , see (20). (a) Plot against \bar{g} of V_0 according to hyperbolic relation (18) (solid line), V_1 according to (19) (dashed line) and their ratio. (b) Plot against $\log \bar{g}$ of V_0/E (logistic, solid line), V_1/E (dashed line) and their ratio. Conductances at half-maximum $E/2$ are indicated, with $\log 3 = 0.48$. Dynamic range of V_1/E for $\epsilon = 0.01$ indicated by sides of the figure. (c) Plot against $[A]$ of V_0 (hyperbolic) according to (21), (22), and (23) and V_1 according to (25), (26), and (27) for $g_M = 1$ (solid and dashed lines) and 100 (dotted and dash-dotted lines). (d) Plot against $\log [A]$ of V_0/V_{0M} (logistic) and V_1/V_{1M} for $g_M = 1$ (solid and dashed lines respectively) and $g_M = 100$ (dotted and dash-dotted lines). Concentrations at half-maximum are indicated, from right to left, $\log [A] = 0.78, 0.69, -0.63$ and -1.02 . Parameters $E = 20$ and $[A]_{g/2} = 1$ (in c and d).

potential can be essentially restricted to the asymptotic values V_0 and V_1 . Thus, studying the coding properties of the receptor potential reduces to analyzing how those asymptotic values depend on the stimulus concentration $[A]$ (Fig. 6c, d).

Maximum Values and Concentrations at Half-Maximum of V_0 . Consider first V_0 , which holds at the distal end of the dendrite and over most of the sensory dendrite. Replacing \bar{g} in (18) by the expression (4) it is found that V_0 is again a hyperbolic function of $[A]$

$$V_0 = \frac{V_{0M}}{1 + \frac{[A]_{V_0/2}}{[A]}}, \quad (21)$$

where V_{0M} is the maximum value obtained when $[A] \rightarrow \infty$ and consequently $\bar{g} \rightarrow g_M$ and $[A]_{V_0/2}$ is the concentration at half-maximal V_0 —that is, recalling (6) and (7),

$$V_{0M} = \frac{E}{1 + 1/g_M} = \frac{E\theta}{\theta + K_2 + 1} \quad (22)$$

$$[A]_{V_0/2} = \frac{1}{1 + g_M} [A]_{g/2} = \frac{K_1 K_2}{\theta + K_2 + 1} \quad (23)$$

The characteristic V_{0M} is itself a hyperbolic function of parameters r_m , γ , Γ , and $[R_T]$ (see (5)), which reaches its half-maximal value $E/2$ when their product $\theta = K_2 + 1$. The fact that $[A]_{V_0/2} < [A]_{g/2}$ for any set of values of the parameters means that the curve

of V_0/V_{0M} is always above the curve of conductance g/g_M when both are plotted against concentration $[A]$. When plotted against $\log[A]$ the logistic curve for the receptor potential is shifted towards low concentrations relative to the logistic curve for conductance; from (23) the shift is

$$\log [A]_{V_0/2} - \log [A]_{g/2} = -\log(1 + g_M). \quad (24)$$

Maximum Values and Concentrations at Half-Maximal V_1 . Consider now the receptor potential at the proximal end of the sensory dendrite from which the potential at any other point beyond x_1 can be derived. Replacing \bar{g} in (19) with (4), we obtain V_1 as a function of $[A]$ (see Fig. 6c, d)

$$V_1 = E \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{g_M}{1 + \frac{[A]_{g/2}}{[A]}}}} \right), \quad (25)$$

with asymptotic value for $[A] \rightarrow \infty$,

$$V_{1M} = E \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + g_M}} \right) = E \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{K_2 + 1}{\theta + K_2 + 1}} \right). \quad (26)$$

Consequently from (20) the asymptotic value of the receptor potential at the trigger zone is $V_{2M} = V_{1M} \exp(-l_2)$. It follows from (26) that the ratio V_{1M}/E becomes greater than $1 - \epsilon$ with ϵ an arbitrarily small value, when g_M is greater than a large value ($\epsilon^{-2} - 1$), e.g., with $\epsilon = 0.1$, $V_{1M}/E = 0.9$ implies $g_M \simeq 100$. For any values of θ and K_2 , the inequality $V_{0M} > V_{1M} > V_{2M}$ holds. The odorant concentration $[A]_{V_1/2}$ at half-maximal V_{1M} (which holds also for V_2 because $V_1/V_{1M} = V_2/V_{2M}$) is

$$[A]_{V_1/2} = -\frac{4 - \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+g_M}}\right)^2}{4 - (1 + g_M) \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+g_M}}\right)^2} [A]_{g/2}. \quad (27)$$

Then, using (23) one finds

$$[A]_{V_1/2} = -\frac{4 - \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+g_M}}\right)^2}{\frac{4}{1+g_M} - \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+g_M}}\right)^2} [A]_{V_0/2}. \quad (28)$$

These expressions show that $[A]_{V_0/2} < [A]_{V_1/2} < [A]_{g/2}$ for any value of g_M —for example, if $g_M = 3$, $[A]_{V_1/2} = 0.35 [A]_{g/2} = 1.40 [A]_{V_0/2}$. It follows that

V_1 and V_2 are less “sensitive” to odorant stimulation than V_0 , whereas the receptor potential at any point is more sensitive than the odorant-dependent conductance change. This “sensitivity” increases with g_M , and therefore with θ and K_2^{-1} . The ratios in (27) and (28) remain respectively less than 3 and $3/g_M$, so that the distances at half-maximum between curves plotted against $\log [A]$ are such that

$$\log [A]_{V_1/2} - \log [A]_{V_0/2} \leq \log 3 \quad (29)$$

$$\log [A]_{V_1/2} - \log [A]_{g/2} \leq \log 3 - \log(1 + g_M). \quad (30)$$

Dynamic Range. Consider now not the position of the curves along the concentration axis but the range of concentration over which they rise from, say, $\epsilon = 0.01$ to $1 - \epsilon = 0.99$ of their maximum value. Because V_0 is a hyperbolic function of $[A]$ its threshold concentration $[A]_{V_0t} \simeq \epsilon [A]_{V_0/2}$ and saturating concentration $[A]_{V_0s} \simeq \frac{1}{\epsilon} [A]_{V_0/2}$, where $[A]_{V_0/2}$ is given by (23), have the same forms as those (9) and (10) of the odorant-dependent conductance change. Consequently the dynamic range Δ_{V_0} is the same as for the conductance, which is given by (11); it is independent of g_M . The logistic curves V_0/V_{0M} and g/g_M vs. $\log [A]$ are identical except that the first one is shifted toward low concentration. As a consequence of (27) mentioned above, this shift increases with g_M .

The concentrations at threshold $[A]_{V_1t}$ and saturation $[A]_{V_1s}$ for the receptor potential at x_1 and x_2 derived from (25) are

$$[A]_{V_1t} = -\frac{1 - \left(1 - \epsilon + \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{1+g_M}}\right)^2}{1 - (1 + g_M) \left(1 - \epsilon + \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{1+g_M}}\right)^2} [A]_{g/2} \quad (31)$$

$$[A]_{V_1s} = -\frac{1 - \left(\epsilon + \frac{1-\epsilon}{\sqrt{1+g_M}}\right)^2}{1 - (1 + g_M) \left(\epsilon + \frac{1-\epsilon}{\sqrt{1+g_M}}\right)^2} [A]_{g/2}. \quad (32)$$

As shown in Fig. 9, with $\epsilon = 0.01$, whatever g_M the threshold (31) and saturation (32) levels are lower than the corresponding levels for conductance ($\log [A]_{gt} = -2$ and $\log [A]_{gs} = 2$, see (9) and (10)), and $\log [A]_{V_1t}$ decreases faster with g_M than $\log [A]_{V_1s}$ for $10 < g_M < 10^5$. This results in a dynamic range $\Delta_{V_1} = \log [A]_{V_1t} - \log [A]_{V_1s}$ of sigmoid shape as a function of $\log(g_M)$; Δ_{V_1} is always wider than the 4-decade dynamic range Δ_g of conductance and tends to 5.7 for large g_M .

2.3. Approximate Model of Action-Potential Generation

2.3.1. Model of the Initial Segment. The axon initial segment that houses the action-potential generator is assumed to be located at x_2 . It is described by the classical leaky integrator model, which consists of a circuit with a resistor (corresponding to r_m), a capacitor (corresponding to c_m) and a switch in parallel (Fig. 1d). The switch is assumed to be opened when the membrane potential V_A at the initial segment is below a certain threshold S_2 (the subscript 2 indicating that the threshold holds at point x_2). When $V_A = S_2$, the switch closes, the capacitor discharges, V_A instantly returns to the resting potential and the switch opens again, which simulates the firing of an action potential. The initial segment has now returned to its initial state and the process can start again. The variable of interest in the model is the time of discharge. To estimate firing frequencies we adopt the following heuristic approach. We assume that the active variable is the current $I(x_2) = V(x_2)/r_m$ flowing through the membrane of the initial segment due to the steady-state receptor potential $V(x_2)$. Starting for example from the resting level (or some other level $v_0 < S_2$) at time $t = 0$ with the switch opened, $I(x_2)$ controls V_A . The evolution in time of V_A is a solution of the dimensionless version of the cable equation (48 in Appendix B) with $\partial^2 V / \partial x^2 = 0$ and $I(x_2)$ as the applied current, which is (e.g., Tuckwell, 1988)

$$V_A(t) = V(x_2)(1 - \exp(-t)) + v_0 \exp(-t). \quad (33)$$

Starting from v_0 , V_A tracks exponentially the constant potential $V(x_2)$.

2.3.2. Firing Frequency.

Voltage-to-Frequency Conversion (Fig. 7a). The length of interspike intervals and its inverse the firing frequency, can be derived from (33) under the condition that the receptor potential $V(x_2)$ at the initial segment is above the firing threshold S_2 , $V(x_2) > S_2$, i.e., for a sufficiently high odorant concentration. The firing frequency is

$$f = \left\{ \ln \left(\frac{V(x_2) - v_0}{V(x_2) - S_2} \right) \right\}^{-1} \simeq \frac{V(x_2)}{S_2 - v_0} - \frac{1}{2}. \quad (34)$$

The approximation in (34) holds for $V(x_2) \gg S_2$. However, the difference between f and its approximated value is less than 5% for $V(x_2) > 2S_2$.

Conductance-to-Frequency Conversion (Fig. 7b). $V(x_2)$ in (34) is given by (15). The resulting equation can be simplified as follows. First, as mentioned previously, for a sufficiently long sensory dendrite, the asymptotic version V_2 given by (20) can be substituted for $V(x_2)$ without significant loss in generality. Second, it is natural to assume that spikes are reset to the resting potential, so $v_0 = 0$. Third, instead of comparing V_2 to threshold S_2 at initial segment, it is equivalent to compare V_1 to threshold S_1 defined by

$$S_1 = S_2 \exp(l_2). \quad (35)$$

Then Eq. (34) becomes

$$f = \left\{ \ln \left(\frac{V_1}{V_1 - S_1} \right) \right\}^{-1} \simeq \frac{E}{S_1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}} \right) - \frac{1}{2}. \quad (36)$$

Concentration-to-Frequency Conversion (Fig. 7c). Replacing conductance \bar{g} by (4), Eq. (36) can be written

$$\begin{aligned} f &\simeq \frac{E}{S_1} \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{[A]_{g/2} + [A]}{[A]_{g/2} + (1 + g_M)[A]}} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \\ &= \frac{E}{S_1} \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{K_1 K_2 + (1 + K_2)[A]}{K_1 K_2 + (1 + K_2 + \theta)[A]}} \right) - \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

2.3.3. Coding Properties of the Firing Frequency.

Maximum Firing Frequency and Concentration at Half-Maximum (Figs. 7d and 8). According to (34), (35) and (37), the maximum firing frequency of a neuroreceptor when the odorant concentration $[A]$ increases is

$$\begin{aligned} f_M &\simeq \frac{V_{1M}}{S_1} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{E}{S_1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + g_M}} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \\ &= \frac{E}{S_1} \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{1 + K_2}{1 + K_2 + \theta}} \right) - \frac{1}{2}, \end{aligned} \quad (38)$$

as given for the three major conversion steps—receptor potential, conductance, and transduction respectively. The latter expression shows that f_M increases with the equilibrium potential E and (more slowly) with the conductance θ and decreases with the deactivation

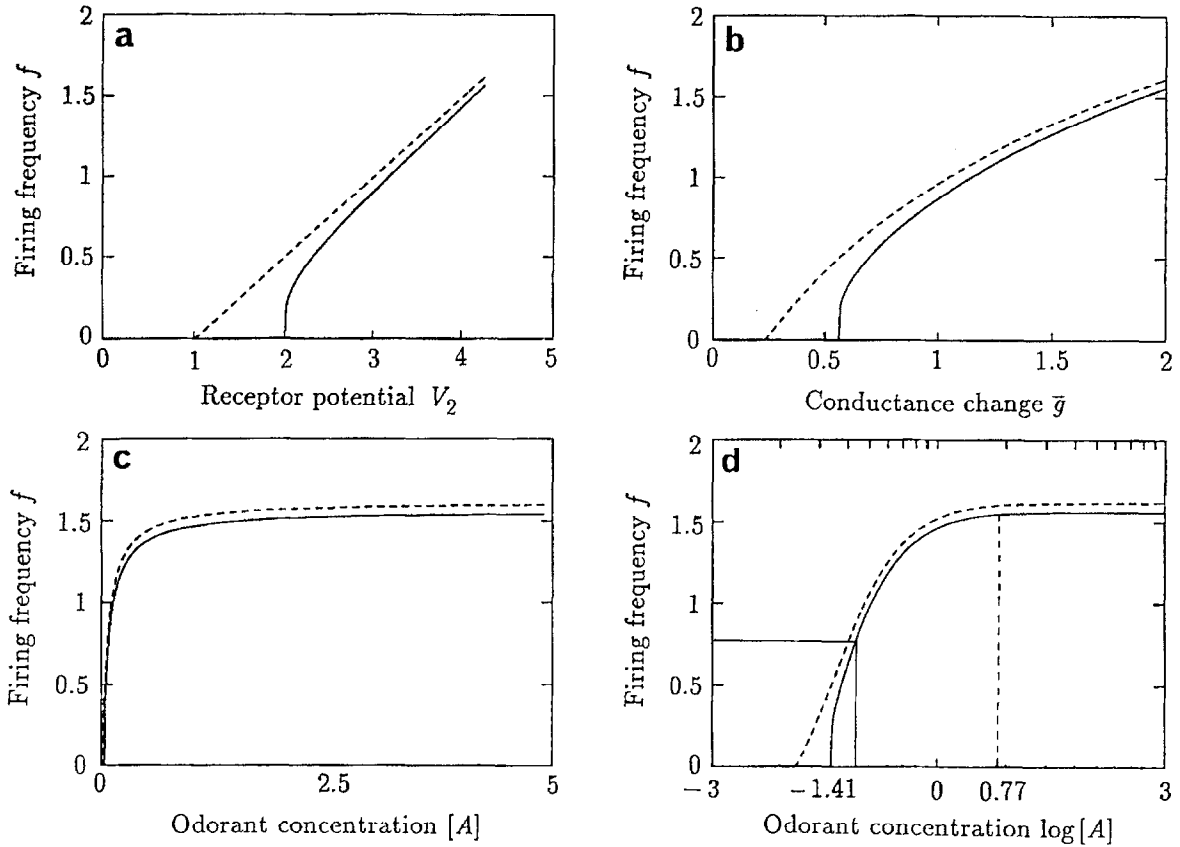


Figure 7. Firing frequency f as a function of receptor potential, (a) conductance, (b) and odorant concentration (c, d). (a) Plot of f against receptor potential V_2 at initial segment according to (34). (b) Plot of f against conductance change \bar{g} over sensory dendrite according to (36). (c) Plot of f against odorant concentration $[A]$ according to (37). (d) Plot of f/f_M against $\log[A]$; dynamic range is indicated for -0.01 . In each plot, frequency is given for exact (full line) and linear approximation (dashed line) as given in (34). Parameters: $E = 20$, $S_2 = 2$, $l_1 = 5$, $\exp(l_2) = 2$ (hence $S_1 = 4$), $g_M = 2$ and $[A]_{g/2} = 0.1$.

constant K_2 . Of course, the value of f_M in (38) coincides with the experimentally observed maximum firing frequency only if $1/f_M$ is greater than the refractory period.

Using the approximation (36) one derives from (38) the concentration at half-maximal frequency,

$$[A]_{f/2} = -\frac{4 - \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+g_M}} - \frac{S_1}{2E}\right)^2}{4 - (1 + g_M)\left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+g_M}} - \frac{S_1}{2E}\right)^2} [A]_{g/2}, \quad (39)$$

which is of the same form as (27). From (39) and (23) one can easily derive $[A]_{f/2}$ as a function of $[A]_{V_0/2}$; the expression found is of the same form as (28). Equation (39) shows that the frequency-response curve is shifted toward low concentration with respect to the

conductance curve (Fig. 8). For example, with $g_M = 3$, the ratios $[A]_{f/2}/[A]_{g/2}$ and $[A]_{f/2}/[A]_{V_0/2}$ are 0.430 and 1.721 for $S_1/E = 0.1$ and 0.357 and 1.429 for $S_1/E = 0.01$, respectively. The position of curve f with respect to the receptor potential curve V_1 is given by the ratio of Eqs. (39) and (27),

$$[A]_{f/2} = \frac{4 - N^2}{4 - M^2} \cdot \frac{4 - M^2(1 + g_M)}{4 - N^2(1 + g_M)} [A]_{V_1/2}, \quad (40)$$

with $M = 1 + 1/\sqrt{1+g_M}$ and $N = M - S_1/(2E)$. The frequency-response curve is slightly shifted to the right of the receptor potential curve. For example, with $g_M = 3$, the ratio $[A]_{f/2}/[A]_{V_1/2}$ is 1.229 for $S_1/E = 0.1$ and 1.021 for $S_1/E = 0.01$.

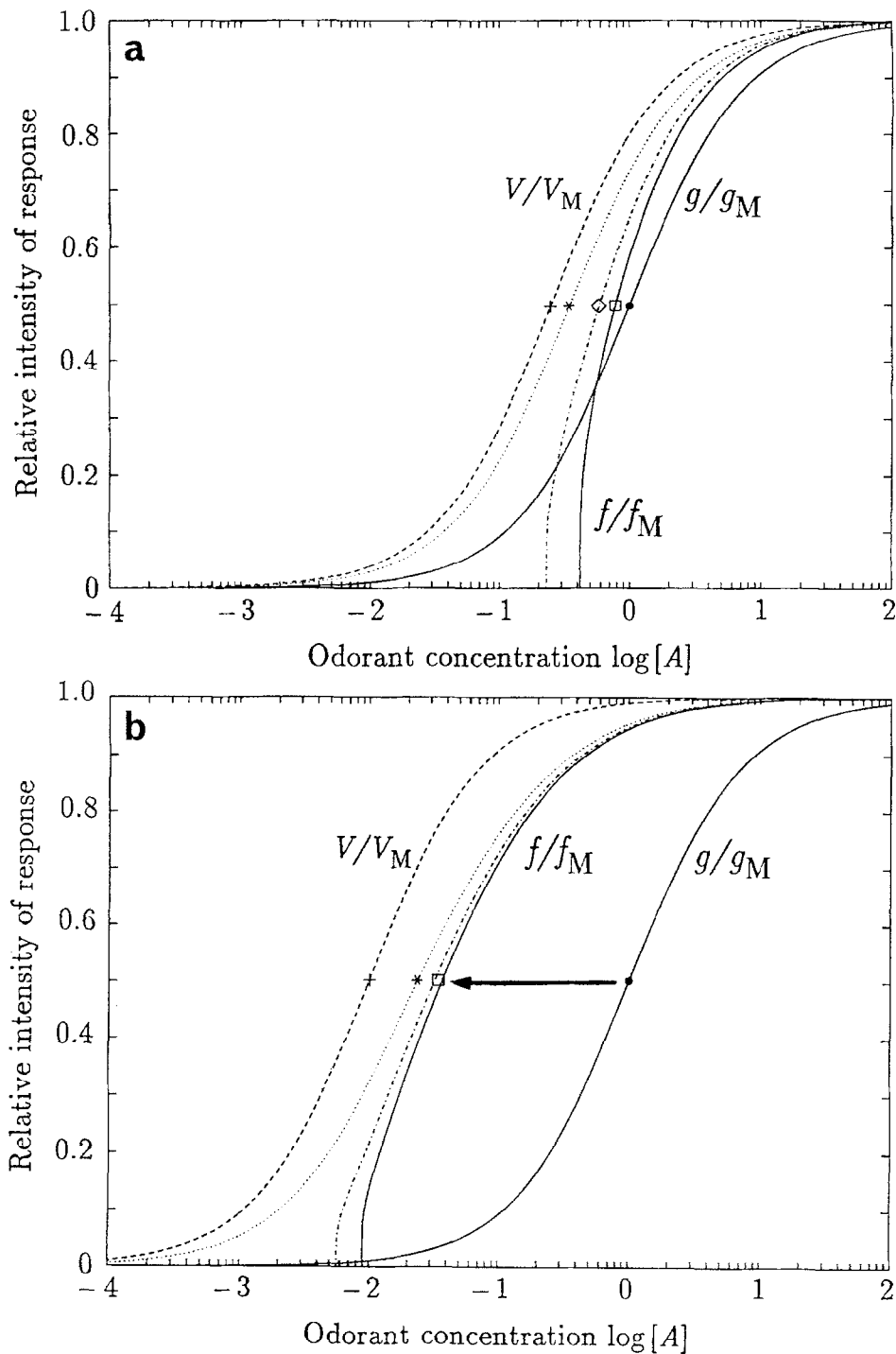


Figure 8. Sensitivity of conductance, receptor potential and firing frequency to stimulus intensity. Plot for $g_M = 3$ (a) and $g_M = 100$ (b) of relative magnitude of responses g/g_M (solid line), V_0/V_{0M} (dashed line), V_1/V_{1M} (identical to V_2/V_{2M} , dotted line) and f/f_M as a function of $\log[A]$. Two f/f_M curves are shown for length of passive dendrite $l_2 = 0$ (dash-dotted line) and $l_2 = 1$ (solid line). Gain in sensitivity in the conductance-to-voltage conversion is displayed as a shift to the left and loss in the voltage-to-frequency conversion as a shift to the right. Concentrations $\log[A]$ at half-maximum in (a) are 0 (g , dot), -0.27 (f for $l_2 = 0$, diamond), -0.46 (V_1 , star) and -0.60 (V_0 , cross); in (b) they are 0 (g , dot), -1.5 (f for $l_2 = 0$, square), -1.63 (V_1 , star) and -2.00 (V_0 , cross). Parameters: $E = 20$, $S_2 = 4$ and $[A]_{g/2} = 1$.

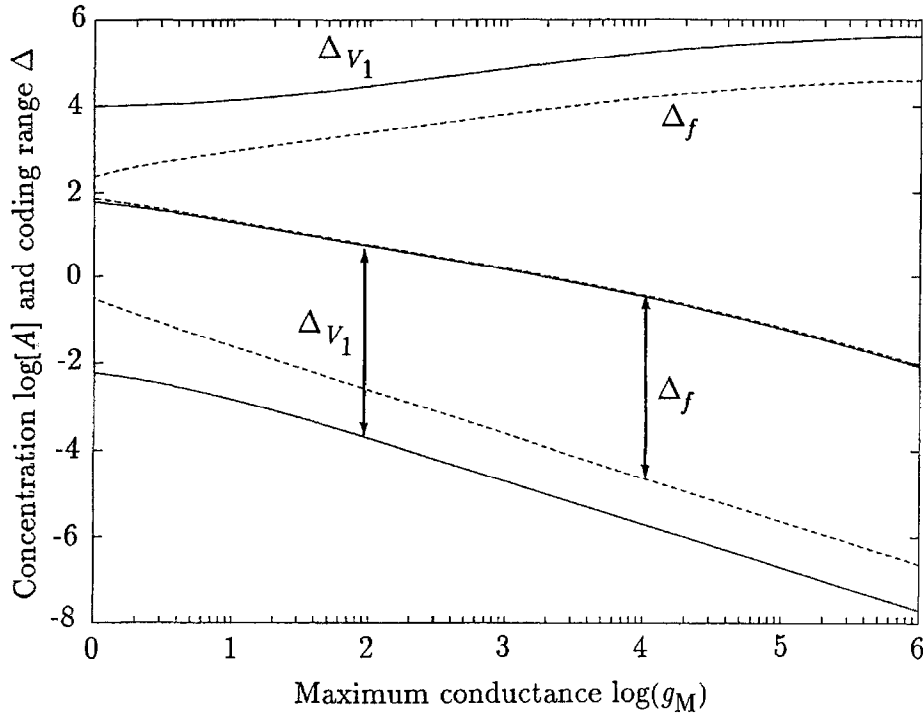


Figure 9. Dynamic range and odorant concentrations at threshold and saturation for receptor potential and firing frequency as a function of maximum conductance g_M . The curves for receptor potential (solid lines) are given at x_1 (or equivalently x_2); the concentrations at threshold $\log[A]_{V_{1t}}$ (lower line) and saturation $\log[A]_{V_{1s}}$ (middle line), and the dynamic (coding) range $\Delta V_1 = \log[A]_{V_{1s}} - \log[A]_{V_{1t}}$ (indicated by a double arrow; upper line) are computed from (31) and (32). The curves for firing frequency (dashed lines) give the concentrations at threshold $\log[A]_{f_t}$ (lower line) and saturation $\log[A]_{f_s}$ (middle line), and the dynamic range $\Delta_f = \log[A]_{f_s} - \log[A]_{f_t}$ (upper line) based on (41) and (43). For conductance the corresponding values (9) through (11) are independent of g_M , $\log[A]_{g_t} = -2$, $\log[A]_{g_s} = 2$ and $\Delta_g = 4$. Parameters: $\epsilon = 0.01$, $S_1/E = 0.1$ and $[A]_{g/2} = 1$.

Dynamic Range (Figs. 7d and 9). When the intensity of stimulation increases the neuron model begins to fire when $V_1 = S_1$. Using (19) and (4) the odorant concentration for which this depolarization is reached is

$$[A]_{f_t} = \frac{\frac{S_1}{E} \left(2 - \frac{S_1}{E}\right)}{g_M \left(1 - \frac{S_1}{E}\right)^2 - \frac{S_1}{E} \left(2 - \frac{S_1}{E}\right)} [A]_{g/2}. \quad (41)$$

The concentration $[A]_{f_t}$ decreases linearly with g_M and is always greater than $[A]_{V_{1t}}$ (Fig. 9). The distance between these two curves, which is almost constant for $g_M > 100$ (about 1 log unit for $\epsilon = 0.01$ and $S_1/E = 0.1$), increases with S_1/E .

The receptor potential V_{1f_s} for which the firing frequency almost reaches its maximum value $f_s = f_M(1 - \epsilon)$ is such that, according to (38),

$$V_{1f_s} = (1 - \epsilon)V_{1M} + \epsilon \frac{S_1}{2}. \quad (42)$$

The corresponding odorant concentration $[A]_{f_s}$ can be derived from (42) using (4),

$$[A]_{f_s} = - \frac{1 - \left\{ \frac{1-\epsilon}{\sqrt{1+g_M}} + \epsilon \left(1 - \frac{S_1}{2E}\right) \right\}^2}{1 - (1 + g_M) \left\{ \frac{1-\epsilon}{\sqrt{1+g_M}} + \epsilon \left(1 - \frac{S_1}{2E}\right) \right\}^2} [A]_{g/2}. \quad (43)$$

For S_1/E small enough (0.05 or less) the curves of $[A]_{f_s}$ and $[A]_{V_{1s}}$ as functions of g_M are practically superimposed (Fig. 9). For $g_M > 100$, the dynamic ranges $\Delta_f = \log[A]_{f_s} - \log[A]_{f_t}$ and ΔV_1 as functions of g_M are parallel sigmoid curves separated by about 1 log unit for $\epsilon = 0.01$ and $S_1/E = 0.1$, with Δ_f tending to 4.67 for large g_M , whereas decreasing S_1/E shifts the Δ_f curve upward, toward the ΔV_1 curve.

3. Discussion

A model of an olfactory receptor neuron of cylindrical shape, consisting of a sensory dendrite of length

l_1 , passive dendrite and cell body of length l_2 and semi-infinite axon, was studied under constant stimulation with an odorant at concentration $[A]$ delivered uniformly over the sensory dendrite. This dendritic segment was assumed to bear the same density of receptor proteins $[R_T]$ and ion channels over its whole surface. The activation of each receptor was assumed to produce a uniform increase in conductance \bar{g} at each point of the sensory membrane. The conductance increase, characterized by its maximum values θ (see (5)), that would result if all receptors were activated, or g_M (see (6)), that would result from very large $[A]$, generated in turn a change in membrane potential which was determined by solving the cable equation. The conversion, above threshold S_2 , of the receptor potential into a train of action potentials at the axon initial segment was described by a leaky integrator ("RC" circuit), which was assumed to exert no action back on the dendrite.

One of the most thoroughly studied odorant receptor cells is the sex-pheromone neuroreceptor of moths (reviewed in Kaissling, 1986, 1987). We will take this neuron as an example to discuss the assumptions on which the model is based and its properties.

3.1. *The Assumptions of the Model in the Context of Experimental Observations*

3.1.1. Transduction. The model describing the transduction process is based on a two-step activation of receptor molecules followed by a linear amplification leading to the opening of the ion channels responsible for the receptor potential. This model is extremely simplified. (1) Although the existence of pheromone receptors on the dendritic membrane is generally accepted, these proteins remain to be identified. The presence of more than one receptor site per receptor protein seems unlikely because it requires only one pheromone molecule to trigger an action potential (Kaissling and Priesner, 1970; Kaissling, 1971, 1990). Consequently, more complex odorant-receptor interactions requiring that several molecules of odorants bind to the receptor (see, e.g., Tateda, 1967) are presently not warranted. (2) Recent investigations (see Stengl et al., 1992, and Kaissling and Boekhoff, 1993, for reviews) have shown that the activated odorant-receptor complexes trigger, via G proteins and phospholipase C , a generation on different time scales of several second messengers such as inositol triphosphate, calcium ions and diacylglycerol. A consis-

tent picture of their roles is not yet available. A detailed modeling of these biochemical events (Lamb and Pugh, 1992; Kaissling, 1994) is outside the scope of this paper. Thus, the assumption of a proportionality between the conductance change and the number of activated pheromone-receptor complex remains the most natural one (Kaissling, 1971, 1977, 1987).

3.1.2. Receptor Potential. (1) The cylindrical shape adopted for the dendrite in this study is a reasonable simplification. For example, the outer dendrites of the receptor neurons of *Antheraea polyphemus* are unbranched and the diameter of the thick ones (about $0.5 \mu\text{m}$, Keil, 1984) varies little over most of their length. The construction at the base of the hair, the bulging of the cell soma and the thinner diameter of the axon will have to be taken into account in future development of the model. (2) The receptor potential results from the summation of elementary receptor potentials that can be recorded extracellularly in the absence of pheromone (spontaneous activity) and at very weak stimulation (Kaissling, 1986, 1987). The conductance change underlying the elementary receptor potentials was calculated to be in the range of 30 pS (Kaissling, 1986), which may be interpreted as the opening of a single channel or of several channels of smaller conductance (Kaissling, 1994). (3) The ions carrying the receptor current are not known. Cation channels activated by second messengers with reversal potential around 0 mV were demonstrated, some selective to K^+ and others to both K^+ and Na^+ . Their role in the generation of the receptor potential remains to be investigated. No gradient across the membrane is expected for K^+ because its concentration in the sensillum lymph that surrounds the sensory dendrite is very high (Kaissling and Thorson, 1980). (4) This suggests that the voltage source for the receptor potential in the moth neuroreceptor might not be the battery E at the sensory dendrite, as assumed in the single neuron model presented here, but, in part, the transepithelial potential E_t created by the neuron's auxiliary cells in the sensillum. No intracellular recordings of the receptor neuron having yet been possible, what is known using extracellular electrodes is the receptor potential modified by the auxiliary cells (sensillar potential, Stengl et al., 1992). These cells separate an outer segment in the sensillum lymph and an inner segment in the hemolymph. An equivalent circuit model of the sensillum has been developed (Kaissling,

1971; Kaissling and Thorson, 1980; de Kramer et al., 1984; de Kramer, 1985) based on this compartmentalization and different space constants for the corresponding cable dendrites. An equation derived by J. Thorson (cited by Kaissling, 1971) applies when the potential E_i between compartments is the only voltage source in the sensillum; it gives the potential at the junction between the segments and thus corresponds to Eq. (15) at $x = x_1$ for a neuron in isolation.

3.1.3. Action Potentials. (1) The generating site of the action potentials is believed to be at the inner dendrite or at the soma region, although the exact location is not known (Kaissling, 1987). Both locations can be easily fitted to the present model. (2) Passive backpropagation of the action potentials along the dendrite has not been considered because the corresponding equations are difficult to solve. It follows that the model is asymmetric, the dendritic compartment influencing the axonal compartment but not vice versa (see discussion in Rospars and Lánský, 1993). However, backpropagation can be incorporated using numerical techniques (Vermeulen et al., 1995) and analytical solutions are now available (Bressloff, 1995) for a simplified action potentials with a downward deflection (reset) but no peak. (3) The spike encoding mechanism used in this paper is based on a leaky integrator and is thus very simplified. This is the only model to our knowledge for which the spike frequency can be derived analytically from a knowledge of the dendritic potential. This basic scheme will be compared later with more realistic models with multiple conductances (see, e.g., Wilson and Bower, 1989; Yamada et al., 1989; Schwaber et al., 1993; Av-Ron, 1994), which have the inconvenience of being solved numerically and of being based on channel properties that are not yet completely known.

Three saturating mechanisms are present in the model: one results from the odorant-receptor interaction, the second from the conductance-to-voltage conversion, and the third from the voltage-to-firing conversion. Other nonlinearities can be present, related for example to odorant transport (Kaissling, 1990; Hahn et al., 1994) and to the second-messenger system. The model assumes merely that the steps studied are the limiting ones. Moreover, the model has been presented in the case where the saturation at a given level is reached before saturation at any previous level (see (38)). The alternative assumptions will be

considered when applying the model to experimental data.

3.2. Magnitude of Responses

The analyses carried out have shown that the properties of the model can be conveniently divided into two groups, related to the magnitude and the sensitivity of the neuron physiological responses. This neat subdivision holds only for a deterministic model, i.e., for $[A]$ not too small (the stochastic case that prevails at weak stimulation is briefly considered in the last section). Let us consider first the magnitudes of the various responses studied—that is, (1) conductance, (2) receptor potential, and (3) firing frequency, and their asymptotic values g_M , V_M and f_M , as $[A]$ increases.

- (1) The *odorant-dependent conductance* \bar{g} at any point of the sensory dendrite was found to vary as a hyperbolic function of $[A]$ according to (4) and consequently as a logistic function of $\log[A]$ (Fig. 2). The maximal conductance g_M (6) is proportional to the total conductance θ , independent of the dissociation constant K_1 (Fig. 3b) and inversely related to the deactivation constant K_2 (Fig. 3d), confirming the previous results of Kaissling (1987). The quantity g_M plays a central role because it determines most of the functional properties of the model as shown in the following discussion. The dependence of \bar{g} on $[A]$ has been determined in voltage-clamp conditions in a vertebrate neuroreceptor (Menini et al., 1995) showing that it is not exactly hyperbolic but is better described by a Hill equation. The origin of this cooperative feature remains to be determined.
- (2) The longitudinal profile of the *receptor potential* $V(x)$ is nearly constant over the distal part of the sensory dendrite and begins to fall near its proximal end (see (14) and (15) and Fig. 4b). This profile is translated when the length l_1 of the sensory dendrite is changed, provided that l_1 is greater than about 0.3 space constants (Fig. 5). Under this condition, an almost complete description of the dependence of the receptor potential on \bar{g} and $[A]$ can be given by specifying $V(x)$ at only two points, the proximal and distal ends of the sensory dendrite. The potential V_0 at the distal end corresponds to the solution given by Kaissling

(1987, Fig. 32); it is a hyperbolic function of \bar{g} ((18) and Fig. 6a, b) with asymptotic maximum E and a (different) hyperbolic function of $[A]$ ((21) and Fig. 6c, d), with maximum approaching E when g_M increases. However, the most relevant value of the receptor potential is V_1 , at the proximal end of the sensory dendrite, because it determines the potential at the spike trigger zone, $V_1 \exp(-l_2)$. Potential V_1 is a nonhyperbolic function of \bar{g} (19) reaching more slowly its asymptotic maximum E than V_0 (Fig. 6b). Also, unlike \bar{g} and V_0 , potential V_1 is not a hyperbolic function of $[A]$ ((25) and Fig. 6c, d), although it has also a horizontal asymptote at level $V_{1M} < E$. Maximum V_{1M} (26) slowly approaches E when g_M increases. This dependence of V_1 on $\log[A]$ is in accordance with the experimental measurements of the sensillar potential, both curves displaying a less steep slope than that expected from a logistic function (see, e.g., Fig. 29 in Kaissling, 1987).

- (3) The firing frequency f , unlike conductance and potential, does not start at the origin but remains zero for all depolarizations of the trigger zone smaller than the firing threshold S_2 or, equivalently, for all depolarizations V_1 smaller than $S_1 = S_2 \exp(l_2)$. However, f quickly approaches a linear function of V_1 (36) with a slope inversely proportional to S_1 , only limited by the refractory period (Fig. 7a). Consequently, f is a nonhyperbolic function of $[A]$ ((37) and Fig. 7c), whose maximum f_M is proportional to V_{1M} and inversely proportional to S_1 , and tends to E/S_1 for large g_M . The voltage-to-frequency conversion step appears to present two negative features. First, due to the passive segment, it codes a signal V_2 that is weaker than those (V_0 and V_1) resulting from the transduction process. Second, the original signal is either not converted below threshold or converted in a highly nonlinear way just above it, so that the model neuron is not an accurate encoder in this range of values of the receptor potential. The properties below and at the vicinity of the threshold being dominated by stochastic properties (see Section 3.4) only the right part of the curve can be meaningfully compared to experimental data. Like the sensillar potential, the curve of the measured frequency versus $\log[A]$ has a slope that is less steep than that of a logistic curve, which is in accordance with the model.

It follows from the results for this model that an optimal encoder neuron for odorant intensity—that is, delivering signals over a wide band (up to g_M , V_M and f_M)—would have small equilibrium dissociation constant K_2 , large total conductance θ (by a combination of high resting membrane resistance r_m , large number $[R_T]$ of receptor proteins, large number Γ of channels per receptor and high channel conductance γ), large equilibrium potential E , relatively short sensory dendrite (l_1 about 0.3 space constant), passive dendrite as short as possible, and very small firing threshold S . Of course, the model did not take into account factors that are biologically important and can act in the opposite direction. For example, the sensory dendrite of the pheromone receptor cell is not only a voltage encoder but also a molecular collector. The result of the model that increasing its length above about 30% of the space constant (that is, ca. 100 μm , Kaissling, 1987) does not increase the receptor potential at the axon initial segment suggests that its long length (up to 300 μm , Kaissling, 1987) contributes mainly to increase the capture area for pheromone molecules. Consequently, receptors for odors for which molecular capture is not so critical should not be so long. This is what is observed in moths with the receptor cells adapted to general odors (such as plant odors) that are not detected at concentrations as low as those for the pheromone signal. The model suggests that the observed dendritic length in pheromone receptor neurons is not primarily explainable in terms of transduction or electrical processes.

3.3. Sensitivity of Responses

Whatever its magnitude, the more *sensitive* a response is, the less intense the stimulus needs to be to evoke it. To analyze the sensitivity of the responses, based on this definition, their relative magnitudes (that is the ratios \bar{g}/g_M , V/V_M and f/f_M) were plotted against $\log[A]$, which is the most practical measure of stimulus intensity. Then the curves could be directly compared within the same reference system and the gain (shift to the left, toward low concentrations) and loss (shift to the right) in sensitivity easily determined (Fig. 8). The following analysis is not rigorous for the smallest detectable concentrations discussed in paragraph (2) because, at these low concentrations, the validity of the deterministic model is questionable (see

Section 3.4). Nonetheless these values are useful to know.

- (1) The positions of the response curves with respect to each other were first studied using the *concentration at half-maximum response* $\log[A]_{r/2}$, which gives the positions of the responses r along the intensity axis. First, it follows from the assumption that conductance is a linear function of the number of activated receptors that the activation-to-conductance conversion (transduction) has no effect on sensitivity; $\log[A]_{[AR^*]/2}$ and $\log[A]_{g/2}$ are equal, see (2). Second, the conductance-to-voltage conversion increases the sensitivity as evidenced by the fact that the curve for V_0 is shifted by $\log(1+g_M)$ to the left of the conductance curve, see (24). This effect is counteracted by the spreading of the voltage over the passive segment; the curves for V_1 and V_2 , which are superimposed, are shifted to the right of V_0 by an amount that increases with g_M , see (28), which means that the receptor potential at the spike generating segment is slightly less sensitive than that at the distal part of the dendrite. Nonetheless, unlike the transduction step, the conductance-to-voltage conversion shifts the receptor potential at any point along the dendrite toward lower concentrations. Third, the voltage-to-frequency conversion shifts the frequency curve to the right of the receptor potential curve according to (40), but the corresponding loss in sensitivity appears to be small (Fig. 8). On the whole, for g_M large enough, the gain in sensitivity is of the order of $\log(g_M)$. It appears also that the distance l_2 of the axon initial segment to the proximal end of the sensory dendrite has a weak effect on the sensitivity of the firing response as shown on Fig. 8 by the close proximity of the frequency curves for $l_2 = 0$ and $l_2 = 1$ space constant. The main conclusion of this analysis is that the gain in magnitude and the gain in sensitivity can be ascribed to two distinct mechanisms—the activation-to-conductance conversion acting on the magnitude of the signal and the conductance-to-voltage conversion on its sensitivity. All other conversion steps are either neutral or entail a cost in terms of gains.
- (2) The smallest concentration $\log[A]_{r_i}$ at which the response r can be discriminated from 0 (*sensory threshold*) and the largest $\log[A]_{r_s}$ at which it becomes indistinguishable from 1 (*saturation*

level) were formalized and located with respect to $\log[A]_{r/2}$. For all responses, except the lower value of firing frequency, the same criterion was used—that is r rising above baseline by an arbitrary value ϵ (e.g., 0.01) or reaching $1 - \epsilon$ (e.g., 0.99) just below the upper asymptote. For the conductance the lower and upper concentrations are located symmetrically on both sides of $\log[A]_{g/2}$, at $\log[A]_{g/2} \pm \log \epsilon$ (Fig. 2b). This symmetry being a property of the logistic function, holds also for the potential V_0 with respect to $\log[A]_{V_0/2}$. For the potential V_1 (Fig. 6d), the study of Eqs. (28), (31) and (32) shows that $\log[A]_{V_1t}$ and $\log[A]_{V_1s}$ become asymmetrical for large g_M with the first half-range from $\log[A]_{V_1t}$ to $\log[A]_{V_1/2}$ being shorter than the second half-range. The frequency response curve (Fig. 7d) presents a similar asymmetry as a consequence of relations (39), (41) and (43). When g_M increases the threshold levels of V_1 and f remain in a constant ratio and their saturation levels are almost the same (Fig. 9). The almost parallel decrease of these levels with g_M show that diminishing the threshold in this way diminishes also the saturation level. This suggests that different neuron types must encode weak and strong stimuli.

- (3) The last characteristics are the *dynamic ranges* of the various responses, $\Delta_r = \log[A]_{r_s} - \log[A]_{r_i}$. The last two conversion steps can increase the fixed range (4 log units) imposed by the logistic equation describing the early steps of the encoding process. It is significant, as shown in Fig. 9, that the dynamic range for V_1 , which represents the “useful” receptor potential ultimately converted in a train of action potentials, increases with the maximum conductance change g_M and that the dynamic range for f increases with g_M and decreases with increasing S_1/E , which is another fundamental “tuning” constant of the neuron. The maximum dynamic range found in the model for both the receptor potential (at very large g_M) and the firing frequency (at very small S_1/E) is 5.7 log units. Although the order of magnitude is correct, this is less than the dynamic range of 6 or more log units that have been reported for frequency (e.g., Fig. 29 in Kaissling, 1987).

3.4. Future Developments

Besides the problems related to neuron variable diameter, spike backpropagation into the dendrite, action-potential generator and cell environment, two major

developments are to be considered—the evolution of the neuron response in time and a stochastic generalization of the model applicable to stimulation at low concentration. Both developments concern physiologically significant features of sex-pheromone receptor cells, for example, because these neurons react at very low concentration and follow fast temporal variations of the stimulus concentration known to occur in pheromone plumes.

The present model describes the neuron at steady state only. It is known that the receptor potential of sex-pheromone receptor neurons reaches this state in a fraction of a second after the onset of stimulation, its half time-to-peak being 300 ms for weak stimulation and 50 ms for strong stimulation (Fig. 29 in Kaissling, 1987). The evolution of the system toward equilibrium was analyzed in a stochastic context by Lánský and Rospars (1993) and is also considered in Tuckwell et al. (1995). With solutions of the complete space- and time-dependent cable equation the model could be extended to stimulation varying in time.

The transduction model studied is only an approximation at very low odorant concentration because enough receptor proteins must be activated in order to apply Eq. (2) (it describes a continuous-state model that holds only for $[AR^*] \gg 0$, which implies that $[R_T]$ and $[A]$ are also very high). A similar remark holds for the conductance change because it is also discrete as evidenced by the existence of elementary receptor potentials (Kaissling, 1994). When only a few occupied receptor sites play a significant role in the neuron behavior (Kaissling and Priesner, 1970; Kaissling, 1971; Lynch and Barry, 1989; Menini et al., 1995; see also Lundström et al., 1993 and Lowe and Gold, 1995) a stochastic generalization of the odorant-receptor interactions must be used.

In previous work (Lánský and Rospars, 1993; Rospars and Lánský, 1993) we described the reactions in (1) by a stochastic birth-and-death process (occupation) and a stochastic transition of fixed probability p (activation). Equation (11) in Lánský and Rospars (1993) for the steady-state mean number of activated receptors is to be compared with (2) above, with $k_1[A]$ and k_{-1} corresponding to the birth-parameter λ and death-parameter μ respectively. It can easily be shown that both equations are equal only if $1/p = K_2$ and $K_2 + 1 \approx K_2$ —that is, if the probability p of activation is very low, which implies, knowing the condition (5) for equilibrium, that this model of activation is valid only in the special case $[AR] \gg [AR^*]$. This

means that a fully satisfactory stochastic description of the receptor occupation and activation remains to be developed, a notoriously difficult problem (Nicolis and Prigogine, 1977). However stochastic modeling is achieved, it must be realized that stochastic mechanisms have the important property to lower the firing threshold $[A]_{f_i}$ (Yu and Lewis, 1989; Gerstner and van Hemmen, 1992; Segundo et al., 1994; Lánský and Rospars, 1995). So, any satisfactory description of the dynamic range of neurons will have to take this feature into account.

Appendix A: Number of Activated Receptor Sites

According to the basic equation of chemical kinetics the velocities of the forward (v_1, v_2) and backward (v_{-1}, v_{-2}) reactions in (1) are $v_1 = -\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k_1[A][R]$, $v_{-1} = \frac{d[A]}{dt} = k_{-1}[AR]$, $v_2 = -\frac{d[AR]}{dt} = k_2[AR]$, $v_{-2} = \frac{d[AR]}{dt} = k_{-2}[AR^*]$. The equilibrium (steady state) is reached when $v_1 = v_{-1}$ and $v_2 = v_{-2}$. It implies that

$$[A][R] = (k_{-1}/k_1)[AR] \quad (44)$$

and

$$[AR] = (k_{-2}/k_2)[AR^*]. \quad (45)$$

Concentration $[A]$ can be considered constant because the number of molecules A present in the vicinity of the membrane is permanently kept in equilibrium by diffusion from the outer space. Thus, $[A]$ is not significantly decreased by the loss of some A to form AR . We do not assume the same property for receptor sites, so that the $[R_T]$ receptors can be in three states:

$$[R_T] = [R] + [AR] + [AR^*]. \quad (46)$$

Putting (46) in (44) and (45), we get $[AR^*]$ as a function of $[A]$; see (2).

Appendix B: Cable Equation for a Sensory Dendrite

We are interested in the spatiotemporal distribution $V = V(X, T)$ of the receptor potential generated by an ion current that depends on the conductance $G(X, T)$ in the sensory dendrite. When V is defined as membrane depolarization—that is, $V = \tilde{V} - V_r$, where \tilde{V} is the actual membrane potential and V_r is the resting

potential— V is the solution of the cable equation (Rall, 1989; Tuckwell, 1988, Ch. 4):

$$-\frac{r_m}{r_i + r_o} \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial X^2} + r_m c_m \frac{\partial V}{\partial T} + V = \frac{r_m}{r_i + r_o} (r_i I_i - r_o I_o), \quad (47)$$

where r_m is the membrane resistance (Ωcm), r_i , r_o are the resistances ($\Omega\text{ cm}^{-1}$) of internal and external mediums respectively, c_m the membrane capacitance ($F\text{ cm}^{-1}$), $I_i = I_i(X, T)$ and $I_o = I_o(X, T)$ are the applied current densities ($A\text{ cm}^{-1}$) in the internal and external mediums. In the case of a passive cable (see Rall, 1989), there is no applied current, $I_i = I_o = 0$, except if the experimenter injects a current with an electrode. In the case of a sensory dendrite, assuming that an ionic current I flows inwardly through the open odorant-dependent channels and adopting the convention that the inward currents are positive, we have $I_i = I$ and $I_o = -I$, and consequently the right hand side of (47) reduces to $r_m I$:

$$-\frac{r_m}{r_i + r_o} \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial X^2} + r_m c_m \frac{\partial V}{\partial T} + V = r_m I(X, T). \quad (48)$$

Now, the ionic current I is $I(X, T) = G(X, T) \times (E - V)$, where depolarization $E = \tilde{E} - V_r$ corresponds to the reversal potential \tilde{E} of the permeating ion. Using the space constant $\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{r_m}{r_i + r_o}}$ as unit of space, $x = X/\lambda$, the time constant $\tau = r_m c_m$ as unit of time, $t = T/\tau$, and the membrane conductance at rest r_m^{-1} as unit of conductance, i.e., $g(x, t) = r_m G(x, t)$, Eq. (48) becomes the dimensionless cable equation

$$x = X/\lambda \text{ and } g(x) = r_m G(x) \quad (49)$$

$$-\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + V = g(x, t)(E - V). \quad (50)$$

For steady-state solutions obtained with $\partial V/\partial t = 0$ and $g(x, t) = g(x)$, (50) reduces to (12).

Appendix C: Steady-State Solution of the Cable Equation for Uniform Stimulation of the Sensory Dendrite

We consider the case in which the proximal part of the cable (up to x_1 , corresponding to the sensory dendrite) is uniformly stimulated, $g(x) = \bar{g}$, and the rest of the cable (from x_1 to infinity) is purely passive, $g(x) = 0$. The steady-state receptor potential $V = V(x)$ satisfies

the differential Eq. (12). We solve this equation by imposing the two boundary conditions, $V(\infty)$ bounded and $V'(0) = 0$ ('sealed end'). Equation (12) will be solved in regions $0 \leq x < x_1$ and $x \geq x_1$ separately. Then the solutions will be connected to achieve continuity of the potential and longitudinal current,

$$\begin{aligned} V(x_1^-) &= V(x_1^+) \\ V'(x_1^-) &= V'(x_1^+). \end{aligned} \quad (51)$$

To get the complete solution of (12), we need to solve the homogeneous counterpart of (12). For $0 \leq x < x_1$ it can be written in the form

$$-\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} + (1 + \bar{g})V = 0 \quad (52)$$

with solution

$$V_h = c_1 \exp(-\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x) + c_2 \exp(\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x). \quad (53)$$

The complete solution of (12) can be written in the form

$$\begin{aligned} V(x) &= c_1 \exp(-\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x) \\ &+ c_2 \exp(\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x) + \frac{E\bar{g}}{1 + \bar{g}}. \end{aligned} \quad (54)$$

For $x \geq x_1$, where $\bar{g} = 0$, we have

$$V(x) = d_1 \exp(-x) + d_2 \exp(x). \quad (55)$$

The constants c_1 , c_2 , d_1 , and d_2 must be determined from the boundary conditions. The condition of boundedness at $x = \infty$ implies $d_2 = 0$. Imposing the continuity conditions (51) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 \exp(-\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x) + c_2 \exp(\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x) \\ + \frac{E\bar{g}}{1 + \bar{g}} = d_1 \exp(-x_1), \end{aligned} \quad (56)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} -c_1 \sqrt{1 + \bar{g}} \exp(-\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x) + c_2 \sqrt{1 + \bar{g}} \\ \times \exp(\sqrt{1 + \bar{g}}x) = -d_1 \exp(-x_1). \end{aligned} \quad (57)$$

The condition of zero longitudinal current $V'(0) = 0$ at $x = 0$ applied to (54) gives $c_1 = c_2$ and combining

(56) and (57) we obtain

$$c_1 = \frac{E\bar{g}}{1 + \bar{g}} \times \left\{ \frac{1}{(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}-1) \exp(-\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x_1) - (\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}+1) \exp(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x_1)} \right\} \quad (58)$$

and

$$d_1 = \frac{E\bar{g}}{1 + \bar{g}} \exp(x_1) \times \left\{ \frac{2 \cosh(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x_1)}{(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}-1) \exp(-\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x_1) - (\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}+1) \exp(\sqrt{1+\bar{g}}x_1)} + 1 \right\} \quad (59)$$

Thus, for $0 \leq x \leq x_1$ we get (14) and for $x \geq x_1$, (15).

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