

1 **Distinct temporal filters in mitral cells and external tufted cells of the olfactory bulb**

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3 Christopher E Vaaga^{1,2}, Gary L Westbrook¹

4 ¹ Vollum Institute, Oregon Health and Science University, Portland OR, USA

5 ² Neuroscience Graduate Program, Oregon Health and Science University, Portland OR, USA

6

7 Corresponding Author:

8 Christopher E Vaaga

9 L474, Vollum Institute

10 3181 SW Sam Jackson Park Rd

11 Portland OR, 97239

12 vaaga@ohsu.edu

13

14 **Running Title:** Temporal filters in the olfactory bulb

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21 **Abstract:** 249

22 **Key Points:** 148

23 **Introduction:** 343

24 **Discussion:** 1346

25 **Pages:** 28

26 **Figures:** 5

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30 **Abstract:**

31 Short-term synaptic plasticity is a critical regulator of neural circuits, and largely determines how
32 information is temporally processed. In the olfactory bulb, afferent olfactory receptor neurons
33 respond to increasing concentrations of odorants with barrages of action potentials, and their
34 terminals have an extraordinarily high release probability (Sicard, 1986; Murphy *et al.*, 2004).
35 These features suggest that during naturalistic stimuli, afferent input to the olfactory bulb is
36 subject to strong synaptic depression, presumably truncating the postsynaptic response to
37 afferent stimuli. To examine this issue, we used single glomerular stimulation in mouse olfactory
38 bulb slices to measure the synaptic dynamics of afferent-evoked input at physiological stimulus
39 frequencies. In cell-attached recordings, mitral cells responded to high frequency stimulation
40 with sustained responses, whereas external tufted cells responded transiently. Consistent with
41 previous reports (Murphy *et al.*, 2004), olfactory nerve terminals onto both cell types had a high
42 release probability (0.7), from a single pool of slowly recycling vesicles, indicating that the
43 distinct responses of mitral and external tufted cells to high frequency stimulation did not
44 originate presynaptically. Rather, distinct temporal response profiles in mitral cells and external
45 tufted cells could be attributed to slow dendrodendritic responses in mitral cells, as blocking this
46 slow current in mitral cells converted mitral cell responses to a transient response profile, typical
47 of external tufted cells. Our results suggest that despite strong axodendritic synaptic depression,
48 the balance of axodendritic and dendrodendritic circuitry in external tufted cells and mitral cells,
49 respectively, tunes the postsynaptic responses to high frequency, naturalistic stimulation.

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53 **Key Points:**

- 54 ● The release probability of the ORN is reportedly one of the highest in the brain (Murphy
55 et al., 2004), which is predicted to impose a transient temporal filter on postsynaptic cells.
- 56 ● Mitral cells responded to high frequency ORN stimulation with sustained transmission,
57 whereas external tufted cells responded transiently.
- 58 ● The release probability of ORNs (0.7) was equivalent across mitral and external tufted
59 cells and could be explained by a single pool of slowly recycling vesicles.
- 60 ● The sustained response in mitral cells resulted from dendrodendritic amplification in
61 mitral cells, which was blocked by NMDA and mGluR1 receptor antagonists, converting
62 mitral cell responses to transient response profiles.
- 63 ● Our results suggest that although the afferent ORN synapse shows strong synaptic
64 depression, dendrodendritic circuitry in mitral cells produces robust amplification of brief
65 afferent input, thus the relative strength of axodendritic and dendrodendritic input
66 determines the postsynaptic response profile.

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73 **Introduction:**

74 The computational capacity of neural circuits is largely determined by the short-term
75 synaptic dynamics within the circuit (Abbott & Regehr, 2004), as determined by pre- and
76 postsynaptic mechanisms. Short-term synaptic depression, which generally occurs at high release
77 probability synapses, results in a net decrease in postsynaptic responses with repeated
78 stimulation, and is often attributed to depletion of the readily releasable pool of synaptic vesicles
79 (Liley & North, 1953; Betz, 1970; von Gersdorff & Borst, 2002; Regehr, 2012). However, at
80 some synapses, multiple pools of synaptic vesicles with distinct release probabilities can protect
81 the circuit from synaptic depression during high frequency stimulation (Lu & Trussell, 2016;
82 Taschenberger *et al.*, 2016; Turecek *et al.*, 2016).

83 In the olfactory bulb, principal neurons receive monosynaptic input from olfactory
84 receptor neuron afferents (Gire & Schoppa, 2009; Najac *et al.*, 2011; Gire *et al.*, 2012; Vaaga &
85 Westbrook, 2016). Odorant receptor neurons (ORNs) respond to increasing odorant
86 concentrations with monotonic increases in firing frequency up to 100 Hz (Sicard, 1986;
87 Duchamp-Viret *et al.*, 1999; Rospars *et al.*, 2003; Tan *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, the release
88 probability of the afferent synapse between the ORN and its postsynaptic targets is one of the
89 highest reported in the brain (ca. 0.8-0.9; Murphy *et al.*, 2004). Together, these features suggest
90 that the transmission between ORNs and principal neurons is subject to robust short-term
91 depression. However, *in vivo*, mitral cells respond to olfactory input with sustained responses
92 (Giraudet *et al.*, 2002; Nagayama *et al.*, 2004; Leng *et al.*, 2014), suggesting either that release
93 probability during trains is not as high as has been reported, or other circuit mechanisms
94 maintain sustained transmission.

95 To examine the synaptic dynamics between ORN afferents and principal neurons in
96 response to physiologically relevant stimulation frequencies, we recorded the postsynaptic

97 responses of mitral cells and external tufted cells during high frequency afferent stimulation. Our
98 results suggest that the high release probability and slow vesicle dynamics within the ORN are
99 optimized for faithful transmission, but dendrodendritic amplification in mitral cells compensates
100 for the strong synaptic depression and strongly amplifies afferent input.

101

102 **Materials and Methods:**

103 *Animals:* We used adult (>p24) male and female C57Bl6/J as well as Tg(Thy1-YFP) GJrs
104 heterozygous mice. The Oregon Health and Science University Institutional Animal Care and
105 Use Committee approved all animal procedures.

106 *Slice Preparation:* Olfactory bulb slices were prepared as described previously (Schoppa
107 & Westbrook, 2001). Mice were given an intraperitoneal injection of 2% 2,2,2-tribromoethanol
108 (0.7-0.8 mL) and monitored until fully anesthetized, then transcardially perfused with
109 oxygenated 4° C modified ACSF solution, which contained (in mM): 83 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1
110 NaH₂PO₄, 26.2 NaHCO₃, 22 dextrose, 72 sucrose, 0.5 CaCl₂, 3.3 MgSO₄ (300-310 mOsm, pH:
111 7.3). The brain was quickly removed and coronally blocked at the level of the striatum.
112 Horizontal sections (300 µm) through the olfactory bulb were made using a Leica 1200S
113 vibratome. Slices were recovered in warm (32-36° C) ACSF for 30 minutes then were stored at
114 room temperature until transfer to the recording chamber. Unless otherwise noted, the ACSF
115 contained (in mM): 125 NaCl, 25 NaHCO₃, 1.25 NaH₂PO₄, 3 KCl, 2.5 dextrose, 2 CaCl₂, 1
116 MgCl₂ (300-310 mOsm, pH: 7.3).

117 *Electrophysiology:* Whole cell voltage clamp and current clamp recordings were made
118 from mitral cells and external tufted cells under DIC optics. Mitral cells and external tufted cells
119 were identified as described previously (Hayar *et al.*, 2005; Vaaga & Westbrook, 2016). Briefly,

120 mitral cells were identified by their soma position within the mitral cell layer and external tufted
121 cells were identified by their relatively large soma position within the outer 2/3 of the glomerular
122 layer. Patch pipettes (3-5 M Ω) contained (in mM): 120 K-gluconate, 20 KCl, 10 HEPES, 0.1
123 EGTA, 4 Mg-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 0.05 Alexa-594 hydrazide, and 5 QX-314. We made no
124 correction for the liquid junction potential (-7 mV). During cell-attached recordings, the
125 membrane patch was held at -70 mV after achieving a gigaohm seal. Data were acquired using a
126 Multiclamp 700b amplifier (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale CA, USA) and AxographX
127 acquisition software. Data was digitized at 10 kHz and low pass Bessel filtered at 4 KHz. For
128 cell-attached recordings, the data was filtered post-hoc at 1 kHz. During whole-cell recordings
129 the series resistance was continually monitored with a -10 mV hyperpolarizing step. Series
130 resistance was generally <25 M Ω and was not compensated. Cells with greater than 30% change
131 in series resistance during the recording were excluded from analysis. For better visualization, all
132 recordings were made at 34-36° C.

133 EPSCs were elicited using single glomerulus theta stimulation, as described previously
134 (Vaaga & Westbrook, 2016). Stimulation was provided by a constant current stimulator (100 μ s,
135 3.2 - 32 mA) in conjunction with a small bore theta electrode (2 μ m) placed directly in the axon
136 bundle entering the target glomerulus. All recordings were made along the medial aspect of the
137 olfactory bulb, and recordings were only made if the ORN bundle entering the target glomerulus
138 was clearly identifiable under DIC optics. Stimulation trains (10, 25 and 50 Hz, 20 pulses) were
139 chosen to represent the approximate firing rate of ORNs in response to odorant presentation
140 (Sicard, 1986; Duchamp-Viret *et al.*, 1999; Carey *et al.*, 2009; Tan *et al.*, 2010). ORN
141 stimulation was repeated at 60-second intervals, to prevent rundown. All drugs were prepared
142 from stock solutions according to manufacturer specifications and applied via a gravity fed

143 perfusion system. The drugs used included: 2 mM kynurenic acid, 500 nM sulpiride, 200 nM
144 CGP55845, 10 μ M CPP and 20 μ M CPCCOEt. All drugs were purchased from Abcam
145 Biochemical (Cambridge, MA, USA) or Tocris Biosciences (Ellisville, MO, USA).

146 *Data Analysis.* Electrophysiology data was analyzed using AxographX
147 (www.axograph.com) and IGOR Pro (version 6.22A, Wavemetrics). Spike waveforms in cell-
148 attached recordings were detected using a threshold detection criteria in AxographX, which was
149 used to calculate the total spike number and to generate raster plots. Voltage clamp traces
150 represent the average of 5-10 sweeps after baseline subtraction. Fast EPSC amplitude
151 measurements were made foot-to-peak, to eliminate any contribution of the slow current. To
152 directly measure the slow current we recorded the EPSC amplitude just prior to each stimulus
153 within the train. The total charge transfer (0 – 2.5 seconds after stimulus onset) was measured
154 using a built-in AxographX routine. Data was normalized to the first fast peak EPSC amplitude,
155 unless otherwise noted.

156 To estimate release probability, we used two methods to calculate the size of the readily
157 releasable pool, each of which utilizes different assumptions (Neher, 2015; Thanawala &
158 Regehr, 2016). In the Schneggenburger, Meyer and Neher method (SMN method), the
159 cumulative fast EPSC amplitude (at 50 Hz stimulation) was plotted as a function of stimulus
160 number and a linear fit was made using the last 5 responses in the train. The readily releasable
161 pool size was estimated as the y-intercept of the linear fit (Schneggenburger *et al.*, 1999, 2002),
162 and release probability was calculated by dividing the initial EPSC amplitude by the size of the
163 readily releasable pool. In the Elmqvist-Quastal method (EQ method; (Elmqvist & Quastel,
164 1965), the fast EPSC amplitude was plotted as a function of the cumulative EPSC amplitude. A

165 linear fit to the first 3 EPSCs was used to calculate the size of the readily releasable pool (x-
166 intercept). Release probability was then calculated as in the SMN method.

167 *Statistics:* All data is reported as mean±SEM unless otherwise indicated. Statistical
168 analysis was performed in Prism6 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA). One-way and two-way
169 repeated measure experiments were analyzed using ANOVA with Holm-Sidak post-hoc pairwise
170 comparisons as indicated in the text. To compare the exponential fit across data sets, an extra
171 sum of squares F-test was performed to compare lines of best fit. In agreement with previous
172 electrophysiological studies, the data was assumed to be normally distributed, and was thus
173 analyzed using parametric statistics. Student's paired and unpaired t-tests were used as
174 appropriate. Sample sizes were chosen to detect an effect size of 20%, based on prior, similar
175 experiments, with a power of 0.8. In all experiments, the initial value for α was set to $p < 0.05$,
176 and was adjusted for multiple comparisons as appropriate.

177

178 **Results:**

179 *Different temporal response profiles in mitral and external tufted cells*

180 To examine the synaptic dynamics of principal neuron activity in response to high
181 frequency afferent stimulation, we first measured the spiking of mitral and external tufted cells
182 using cell-attached recordings. Both cell types responded to 50 Hz ORN stimulation with spikes
183 throughout the stimulus train (Figure 1 A-D). Mitral cells and external tufted cells produced
184 similar numbers of spikes early in the train, however, action potentials in external tufted cells
185 gradually decreased, such that by the 7th stimulus, mitral cells produced more action potentials
186 per successive stimulus than external tufted cells (two-way ANOVA; $p < 0.01$; $n = 7$ mitral cells, 8
187 external tufted cells; Figure 1 E). Likewise, mitral cells continued to spike well after the end of

188 the stimulus train, contributing to the higher total number of spikes produced (mitral cells:
189 161.8 ± 27.2 spikes per trial, $n=7$ cells; external tufted cells: 45.2 ± 9.0 spikes per trial, $n=8$ cells,
190 2.5 second window, unpaired t-test: $p=0.009$, Figure 1 F).

191 In order to quantify the temporal filter in mitral cells and external tufted cells, we
192 calculated the percentage of the total spikes that occurred within 20 ms of each stimulus within
193 the 50 Hz train. Using this metric, a steep input-output curve is indicative of a transient temporal
194 filter. In both mitral cells and external tufted cells, the input-output curve was fit by a single
195 exponential decay. In mitral cells, this relationship was relatively shallow ($\tau=5.2$ stimuli),
196 consistent with the observed sustained transmission. On average, mitral cells produced $7.8 \pm 2.7\%$
197 of total spikes immediately after the first stimulus and $3.8 \pm 1.0\%$ of spikes following the final
198 stimulus ($n=7$ cells). In contrast, external tufted cells had a much steeper input-output
199 relationship ($\tau=3.2$ stimuli), producing $13.7 \pm 4.0\%$ of total spikes after the first stimulus and
200 $2.8 \pm 0.47\%$ following the final stimulus (extra sum of squares F test: $p < 0.0001$, $n=8$ cells). Thus
201 the two cell types have distinct response properties with mitral cells responding to high
202 frequency stimulation with a sustained response, whereas external tufted cells respond
203 transiently.

204

205 *High release probability from a single pool of synaptic vesicles*

206 Differences in release probability of ORN terminals could underlie the distinct responses
207 of mitral cells and external tufted cells, as release probability was only examined in tufted cells
208 (Murphy *et al.*, 2004). To determine the release probability, we stimulated at high frequencies to
209 estimate the size of the readily releasable pool using two analytical approaches as described in
210 the methods (Elmqvist & Quastel, 1965; Schneggenburger *et al.*, 1999; Neher, 2015; Thanawala

211 & Regehr, 2016). Consistent with a high release probability synapse, 50 Hz trains of stimuli
212 elicited robust depression of the phasic EPSC amplitude in mitral cells (Figure 2 A₁) and external
213 tufted cells (Figure 2 B₁). Both the SMN method (Figure 2 A₂, and B₂, C) and EQ method
214 (Figure 2 A₃, and B₃, C) yielded similar estimates of the size of the readily releasable pool in
215 mitral cells and external tufted cells. Accordingly, there was no difference in the release
216 probability between cell types (SMN: mitral cells: 0.67 ± 0.02 , $n=7$ cells, external tufted cells:
217 0.71 ± 0.06 , $n=8$ cells, $p=0.51$; EQ: mitral cells: 0.66 ± 0.02 , external tufted cells: 0.73 ± 0.03 ,
218 $p=0.14$; Figure 2 C). These results indicate that the release probability of ORNs is high, but
219 somewhat lower than previous estimates in tufted cells (Murphy *et al.*, 2004), which likely
220 reflects the activation of presynaptic D₂ and GABA_B receptors in our experiments (Nickell *et al.*,
221 1994; Aroniadou-Anderjaska *et al.*, 2000; Ennis *et al.*, 2001; Wachowiak *et al.*, 2005; Maher &
222 Westbrook, 2008; Shao *et al.*, 2009; Vaaga *et al.*, 2017). Consistent with this hypothesis,
223 measurements of the release probability in D₂ and GABA_B receptor antagonists (500 nM
224 sulpiride and 200 nM CGP55845, respectively) increased the release probability to 0.95 ± 0.06
225 (SMN method, $n=4$ cells, unpaired t-test: $p=0.008$). Furthermore, 2 mM kynurenic acid, which
226 blocks receptor saturation and desensitization (Trussell *et al.*, 1993; Wadiche & Jahr, 2001;
227 Foster *et al.*, 2002; Wong *et al.*, 2003; Chanda & Xu-Friedman, 2010) did not affect the paired
228 pulse ratio (control: 0.24 ± 0.05 ; 2 mM kynurenic acid: 0.25 ± 0.05 , $n=5$ cells, paired t-test: 0.70;
229 Figure 2 D, E), suggesting that at the ORN afferent synapse, synaptic depression is primarily
230 mediated by presynaptic factors, and is consistent with univesicular release (Murphy *et al.*, 2004;
231 Taschenberger *et al.*, 2016).

232 In other circuits (Mennerick & Matthews, 1996; Sakaba & Neher, 2001; Lu & Trussell,
233 2016; Turecek *et al.*, 2016), multiple pools of synaptic vesicles have heterogeneous release

234 probabilities, which, if present, could obscure our measurements of release probability and
235 support sustained transmission at high stimulation frequencies (Neher, 2015; Turecek *et al.*,
236 2016). To test for the presence of multiple pools of synaptic vesicles, we stimulated at 10 Hz (20
237 pulses) to deplete the high release probability pool then switched to 50 Hz stimulation (20
238 pulses), a protocol that has been used to reveal a transient facilitation resulting from the low
239 release probability of a separate pool of vesicles (Lu & Trussell, 2016; Turecek *et al.*, 2016). In
240 external tufted cells this stimulation protocol failed to elicit facilitation (Figure 3 A); rather,
241 switching to high frequency stimulation elicited further depression of the ORN-evoked phasic
242 EPSC (EPSC₂₁: 25.3±0.4% of control, EPSC₂₂: 14.7±0.2% of control; Figure 3 B), suggesting a
243 single pool of synaptic vesicles. Likewise, the decay of the phasic EPSC amplitude of external
244 tufted cells as a function of stimulus number was best fit with a single exponential function (τ :
245 0.68; extra sum of squares F test: p=0.49; Figure 3 C). Together, these data indicate that a single
246 pool of high release probability vesicles is sufficient to explain release from afferent olfactory
247 nerve terminals.

248 Sustained responses in some cases can be maintained despite high release probability as a
249 result of fast vesicle replenishment (Wang & Kaczmarek, 1998; Saviane & Silver, 2006).
250 However, the phasic EPSC amplitude recovered surprisingly slowly, following a double
251 exponential time course (τ_1 : 0.79 seconds; τ_2 : 8.23 seconds, Figure 3 D-F), suggesting that fast
252 vesicle replenishment does not contribute to the sustained responses in mitral cells.

253

254 *Dendrodendritic excitation maintains sustained transmission*

255 Our results suggest that properties of the afferent presynaptic terminal alone cannot
256 explain the sustained transmission observed in mitral cells. To determine what mechanisms

257 support sustained transmission we examined the responses of mitral cells and external tufted
258 cells in voltage clamp following stimulation across a range of stimulus frequencies (10 Hz, 25
259 Hz, 50 Hz; Figure 4 A, B). Across stimulus frequencies, the phasic EPSC showed robust
260 depression (Figure 4 D, E). Surprisingly, even relatively low stimulus frequencies (10 Hz)
261 elicited strong depression in mitral and external tufted cells, consistent with the slow vesicle
262 replenishment rates and unusually high release probability. In both cell types, there was a
263 significant effect of stimulus frequency on the degree of phasic EPSC depression (One way
264 ANOVA: mitral cell: $p=0.0003$; external tufted cell: $p<0.0001$). In both cells, the depression
265 increased from 10 Hz to 25 Hz (mitral cells: 10 Hz: $16.4\pm 1.3\%$ of EPSC₁, $n=6$ cells; 25 Hz:
266 $9.4\pm 2.1\%$ of EPSC₁ $n=5$ cells, Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison: $p<0.05$; external tufted cells:
267 10 Hz: 14.8 ± 2.0 , $n=7$ cells; 25 Hz: $5.8\pm 0.9\%$ of control, $n=7$, Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison:
268 $p<0.001$), but was not significantly different between 25 Hz and 50 Hz (mitral cell: 25 Hz:
269 $9.4\pm 2.1\%$ of EPSC₁ $n=5$ cells, 50 Hz: $5.4\pm 0.9\%$ of EPSC₁, $n=6$ cells, Holm-Sidak post-hoc
270 comparison: $p>0.05$; external tufted cell: 25 Hz: $5.8\pm 0.9\%$ of EPSC₁, $n=7$, 50 Hz: $4.4\pm 0.6\%$ of
271 EPSC₁, $n=8$ cells, Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison: $p>0.05$). There was no difference in the
272 total degree of phasic depression between mitral cells and external tufted cells at any stimulus
273 frequency tested (Figure 4 G), consistent with similar presynaptic properties of the incoming
274 afferents.

275 However in mitral cells, phasic EPSCs were superimposed on a large, slow envelope
276 current at all stimulus frequencies, reflecting the much larger dendrodendritic currents in mitral
277 cells compared to external tufted cells (Figure 4 C; Vaaga & Westbrook, 2016). The total charge
278 transfer was nearly 3 times larger in mitral cells (10 Hz: mitral cell: 219.9 ± 50.6 pC, $n=6$ cells,
279 external tufted cell: 84.4 ± 23.25 pC, $n=6$ cells, Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison: $p<0.05$; 25 Hz:

280 mitral cell: 268.0 ± 43.4 pC, n=5 cells, external tufted cell: 75.5 ± 24.7 pC, n=7 cells, Holm-Sidak
281 post-hoc comparison: $p < 0.01$; 50 Hz: mitral cell: 309.9 ± 50.1 pC, n=7 cells, external tufted cell:
282 78.3 ± 12.3 pC, n=7 cells; Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison: $p < 0.001$, Figure 4 F). Interestingly,
283 the charge transfer was not sensitive to stimulation frequency (mitral cell: One way ANOVA:
284 $p = 0.43$; external tufted cell: One-way ANOVA: $p = 0.96$, Figure 4 F), consistent with an all-or-
285 none dendrodendritic slow EPSC (Carlson *et al.*, 2000; De Saint Jan *et al.*, 2009; Gire &
286 Schoppa, 2009). Unlike the phasic responses, the degree of depression of the slow envelope
287 current within the stimulus train was significantly different between mitral cells and external
288 tufted cells (10 Hz: mitral cell: $57.1 \pm 3.2\%$ of EPSC₁, external tufted cell $34.0 \pm 8.4\%$ of EPSC₁,
289 Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison: $p < 0.05$; 25 Hz: mitral cell: $67.2 \pm 10.2\%$ of EPSC₁, external
290 tufted cell: $33.9 \pm 5.5\%$ of EPSC₁, Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison: $p < 0.01$; 50 Hz: mitral cell:
291 $79.5 \pm 4.8\%$ of EPSC₁, external tufted cell: $26.8 \pm 4\%$ of EPSC₁, Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison:
292 $p < 0.0001$; Figure 4 H).

293 In both mitral cells and external tufted cells, the depression of the phasic component was
294 significantly larger than the depression of the slow, envelope current, and therefore all the data
295 points fell above the unity line in a plot of phasic EPSC depression as a function of slow EPSC
296 depression (Figure 4 I). Furthermore, the similarity of phasic depression and distinct slow current
297 depression across cell types produced two identifiable clusters when the phasic and slow current
298 depression are directly compared (Figure 4 I). Together this data suggests that a robust slow
299 current supports sustained transmission in mitral cells, which is relatively insensitive to short-
300 term depression and stimulus frequency.

301

302 *The mitral cell slow current is responsible for sustained transmission*

303 To explicitly test the role of the slow current in generating the sustained transmission in
304 mitral cells, we blocked NMDA and mGluR1 receptors (10 μ M CPP and 20 μ M CPCCOEt,
305 respectively), which effectively blocks the slow current in mitral cells (De Saint Jan &
306 Westbrook, 2007; Vaaga & Westbrook, 2016). As expected, bath application of NMDA and
307 mGluR1 antagonists reduced the total charge transfer in mitral cells (mitral cell: 309.9 ± 50.1 pC,
308 $n=7$ cells; mitral cell + CPP/CPCCOEt: 42.3 ± 8.5 pC, $n=6$ cells, Holm-Sidak post-hoc
309 comparison: $p < 0.0001$, Figure 5 A, B), to levels comparable to the charge transfer in external
310 tufted cells (external tufted cell: 78.27 ± 12.26 , $n=7$ cells, Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison:
311 $p > 0.05$, Figure 5 B). Thus blocking the slow current converts the mitral cell response pattern to
312 an external tufted cell pattern.

313 In cell attached recordings of mitral cells, blocking NMDA and mGluR1 receptors also
314 caused a 4-fold reduction in the total number of spikes produced following 50 Hz stimulation
315 (mitral cell: 161.8 ± 27.2 spikes, $n=7$ cells; mitral cell + CPP/CPCCOEt: 37.62 ± 7.3 spikes, $n=5$
316 cells, Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison: $p < 0.001$; external tufted cell: 45.2 ± 9.0 spikes, $n=8$ cells;
317 Holm-Sidak post-hoc comparison: $p > 0.05$, Figure 5 D). Furthermore, bath application of NMDA
318 and mGluR1 receptor antagonists also altered the temporal patterning of spikes, converting the
319 sustained responses of mitral cells to more transient responses (extra sum of squares F-test:
320 $p < 0.001$, Figure 5 E), which were not significantly different than the responses in external tufted
321 cells (extra sum of squares F-test: $p > 0.05$, Figure 5 F). Together this data suggests that
322 differences in the amplitude of the slow current between mitral cells and external tufted cells are
323 responsible for the sustained transmission in mitral cells, and produce their distinct temporal
324 spiking patterns.

325

326

327 **Discussion:**

328 In the glomerular microcircuit, the interplay of axodendritic and dendrodendritic
329 synapses is critical to postsynaptic processing of afferent input. Although the glomerulus has
330 long been viewed as a cortical module whose primary function is to enhance the signal-to-noise
331 ratio (Chen & Shepherd, 2005), the synaptic dynamics in response to high frequency, naturalistic
332 ORN stimulation have not previously been examined. Here we demonstrate that mitral cells and
333 external tufted cells respond to high frequency afferent input with distinct temporal filters. Mitral
334 cells produce sustained responses, requiring dendrodendritic amplification, whereas the lack of
335 dendrodendritic amplification in external tufted cells results in transient responses. Together, our
336 results indicate that the axodendritic and dendrodendritic circuits are functionally separable, and
337 the relative balance of the two circuits determines the temporal filter of the postsynaptic cell.

338

339 *Comparison with other synapses*

340 Previous estimates of release probability using steady state measurements have suggested
341 that the release probability of the ORN is near 1 (Murphy *et al.*, 2004). Our results using high
342 frequency trains of stimuli suggest that the release probability of the ORN can be as high as 0.9
343 when presynaptic D₂ and GABA_B receptors are blocked, however, in our experiments tonic
344 and/or afferent evoked activation of presynaptic D₂ and GABA_B receptors during high frequency
345 trains reduces the release probability by approximately 30% in brain slices. Nonetheless, the
346 presynaptic properties of olfactory receptor neurons are unusual, as compared with other
347 synapses in the brain. Although many synapses, such as the climbing fiber synapse in the
348 cerebellum, have a high release probability (Silver *et al.*, 1998; Dittman *et al.*, 2000), such

349 terminals generally show multi-vesicular release (Wadiche & Jahr, 2001; Rudolph *et al.*, 2015).
350 However, the similar paired pulse ratio in control and low affinity antagonists suggest that ORN
351 synapses operate using univesicular release (Murphy *et al.*, 2004; Taschenberger *et al.*, 2016).
352 Another uniquantal, high release probability synapse exists in barrel cortex between layer 4 and
353 layer 2/3 neurons (Silver *et al.*, 2003). However, in this case, the presynaptic neuron generally
354 fires only 1-2 action potentials in response to whisker stimulation *in vivo* (Brecht & Sakmann,
355 2002), so synaptic depression resulting from high release probability does not impact the
356 postsynaptic response. The univesicular, high release probability of the ORN, therefore, is
357 unusual because individual ORNs fires at high frequencies in response to odorants (Sicard, 1986;
358 Duchamp-Viret *et al.*, 1999; Carey *et al.*, 2009; Tan *et al.*, 2010).

359 In theory, the high frequency transmission of the ORN could be maintained despite a
360 high initial release probability through multiple mechanisms including fast vesicle recycling
361 (Kushmerick *et al.*, 2006; Saviane & Silver, 2006) and a second pool of low release probability
362 vesicles (Lu & Trussell, 2016; Taschenberger *et al.*, 2016; Turecek *et al.*, 2016). These
363 properties, however, appear to be absent in ORNs. In fact, the recovery of the fast EPSC
364 following depletion was approximately 10 fold slower than at the calyx of Held (Kushmerick *et*
365 *al.*, 2006), suggesting that individual ORNs may only transiently contribute to the postsynaptic
366 response, thereby providing a rationale for the massive convergence of unimodal ORNs onto
367 single glomeruli.

368

369 *Axodendritic input is tuned to ensure faithful transmission*

370 A striking feature of the glomerular microcircuit is the massive convergence of axons to a
371 single glomerulus, with each axon carrying functionally redundant information (Mombaerts *et*

372 *al.*, 1996). This unimodal input is critical for odorant identification, as each odorant mixture
373 elicits a unique map of activated glomeruli, a so-called odor image (Xu *et al.*, 2000). However,
374 from a computational perspective, the massive redundancy is a waste of information channels
375 (Rieke, 1999; Chen & Shepherd, 2005). Furthermore, each olfactory receptor neuron responds to
376 increases in odorant concentration with monotonic increases in firing frequency, reaching up to
377 100 Hz (Sicard, 1986; Duchamp-Viret *et al.*, 1999; Carey *et al.*, 2009; Tan *et al.*, 2010). Coupled
378 with the high ORN release probability (Murphy *et al.*, 2004), trains of ORN activity produce
379 strong synaptic depression as demonstrated in our experiments, imposing a transient temporal
380 filter in postsynaptic cells, resulting from presynaptic vesicle depletion.

381 An advantage of such a high initial release probability is that odorant binding events in
382 the periphery are faithfully transmitted to the olfactory bulb in a nearly all-or-none manner. The
383 olfactory system is exquisitely sensitive, capable of detecting odorants at concentrations as low
384 as 1 part per 10^{15} molecules (Julius & Katz, 2004). In the periphery, this high sensitivity is
385 achieved through biochemical amplification downstream of G-protein coupled odorant receptors,
386 such that a single odorant receptor-binding event can elicit an action potential in the ORN
387 (Lynch & Barry, 1989). The high release probability of ORNs maintains the high sensitivity of
388 the olfactory system, by ensuring that ORN activity is faithfully converted to a postsynaptic
389 response. However, this circuit design comes at a cost in that individual nerve terminals can only
390 transiently contribute to postsynaptic activation, therefore requiring an ensemble of functionally
391 redundant channels to accurately convey information with high fidelity.

392

393 *Dendrodendritic circuitry promotes sustained transmission*

394 The high release probability of axodendritic input comes at another cost: the “noisy”
395 olfactory environment dramatically increases the total number of activated glomeruli in response
396 to ambient air. The signal to noise ratio, therefore, is enhanced through multiple mechanisms,
397 including the dendrodendritic amplification within the glomerulus (Carlson *et al.*, 2000; Chen &
398 Shepherd, 2005; De Saint Jan & Westbrook, 2007; Vaaga & Westbrook, 2016). The robust
399 increase in synaptic charge associated with the slow, dendrodendritic current effectively converts
400 the transient axodendritic input into a sustained spiking response, greatly amplifying afferent
401 input. Interestingly, our results indicate that only a subset of excitatory neurons, the mitral cells,
402 within the glomerulus express dendrodendritic amplification (Vaaga & Westbrook, 2016).

403

404 *Parallel input paths convey temporally distinct information*

405 Different principal neuron subtypes in the olfactory bulb represent parallel input
406 pathways. For example, *in vivo*, tufted cells respond to lower odorant concentrations, have
407 concentration invariant responses, and respond to odorants earlier in the sniff cycle (Nagayama
408 *et al.*, 2004; Igarashi *et al.*, 2012; Fukunaga *et al.*, 2012; Kikuta *et al.*, 2013). Mitral cells, on the
409 other hand, are more narrowly tuned than tufted cells, and shift their responses relative to the
410 sniff cycle in response to increasing odorant concentrations (Nagayama *et al.*, 2004; Kikuta *et*
411 *al.*, 2013). These *in vivo* results are consistent with the view that tufted cell responses maintain
412 the sensitivity of the ORN, via strong afferent evoked responses, whereas mitral cells provide
413 robust amplification, via strong dendrodendritic circuitry.

414 Recent evidence suggests that within piriform cortex the concentration invariant network
415 of activated pyramidal cells encodes odorant identity whereas concentration is encoded by the
416 temporal response profiles of pyramidal cells (Bolding & Franks, 2017). More specifically, the

417 spiking patterns of these pyramidal cells have two distinct peaks, one with a short latency and
418 one with a longer latency. As concentration increases, the relative lag between these two
419 responses is shortened (Bolding & Franks, 2017). Mechanistically, this may result from the
420 integration of olfactory bulb projection neurons that express strong axodendritic input,
421 contributing to the short latency, concentration invariant response, and neurons that express
422 strong dendrodendritic input, with variable, concentration-dependent delays. Such an activation
423 scheme, however, would require overlapping projection patterns in piriform cortex. Single axon
424 tracing studies, however, suggest that mitral cells and tufted cells project to largely non-
425 overlapping regions of olfactory cortex (Igarashi *et al.*, 2012). More specifically, mitral cells
426 project to dorsal region of the anterior piriform cortex as well as the cortical region of the
427 olfactory tubercle, posterior piriform cortex and tenia tecta; whereas tufted cells, including
428 external tufted cells, project to the ventrorostral anterior piriform cortex, the cap of the olfactory
429 tubercle, and the pars extrema and the poteroventral region of the anterior olfactory nucleus.
430 (Igarashi *et al.*, 2012). Resolving the exact projection patterns and mechanisms behind
431 generating distinct timing signals in piriform cortex is critical to understanding the encoding of
432 concentration within the olfactory system. Our results, however, demonstrate that the distinct
433 balance of axodendritic and dendrodendritic synaptic strength in each principal cell population
434 likely contributes to the unique computations within these parallel input pathways, by imposing
435 unique temporal filters in each cell type.

436
437

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- 598

599 **Figure Legends:**

600

601 **Figure 1: Sustained transmission in mitral and external tufted cells** (A) Cell attached
602 recording from mitral cell in response to 50 Hz ORN stimulation. (B) Raster plot of mitral cell
603 response. Mitral cells responded to ORN stimulation with sustained responses, which outlasted
604 the stimulus. (C) Cell attached recording and (D) associated raster plot of external tufted cell
605 response to 50 Hz ORN stimulation. External tufted cells produced much more transient
606 response profiles. (E) Plot of the average number of action potentials produced following each
607 stimulus in the train. Mitral cells and external tufted cells produce similar numbers of action
608 potentials at the beginning of the train. By the end of the train, however, mitral cells produce
609 approximately twice as many action potentials as external tufted cells. (F) The total number of
610 spikes produced (within 2.5 seconds) in mitral cells is significantly higher than in external tufted
611 cells. (G) Plot of the fraction of total spikes in the train as a function of stimulus number. Mitral
612 cells (black) have a more shallow relationship, consistent with sustained transmission. External
613 tufted cells (red) have a significantly steeper relationship, indicative of transient response
614 profiles.

615

616 **Figure 2: Olfactory receptor neurons have a high release probability** (A₁, B₁) Representative
617 whole-cell voltage clamp responses to 50 Hz stimulation in mitral cells (A₁, black) and external
618 tufted cells (B₁, red). (A₂, B₂) Estimates of the readily releasable pool size using the SMN train
619 method in mitral cells (A₂) and external tufted cells (B₂). (A₃, B₃) Estimate of readily releasable
620 pool size using the EQ method in mitral cells (A₃) and external tufted cells (B₃). (C) Estimates
621 of release probability do not differ between the Schneggenburger (SMN) and Elmqvist-Quastal

622 (EQ) methods. There was also no significant difference between the release probability
623 calculated in mitral cells (black) and external tufted cells (red). **(D)** Paired pulse ratio in external
624 tufted cells before (black) and after (green) addition of 2 mM kynurenic acid to prevent receptor
625 saturation and desensitization. Response in kynurenic acid scaled to control (red). **(E)** Summary
626 of the paired pulse ratio in external tufted cells before and after 2 mM kynurenic acid, suggesting
627 postsynaptic saturation and desensitization do not contribute to synaptic depression.

628

629 **Figure 3: Single pool of slowly recycling vesicles** **(A)** Representative external tufted cell
630 recording showing 10 Hz stimulation followed by 50 Hz stimulation. **(B)** Group data shows
631 immediate depression following 10 Hz stimulation, suggesting a single pool of synaptic vesicles.
632 **(C)** Plot of the phasic EPSC amplitude as a function of stimulus number is fit by a single
633 exponential, further suggesting a single pool of high release probability vesicles. **(D, E)**
634 Recovery of phasic EPSC amplitude following 50 Hz stimulation suggests that vesicle
635 replenishment is slow. **(F)** Recovery time course is best fit by a double exponential.

636

637 **Figure 4: Differential modulation of phasic and slow currents in mitral and external tufted**
638 **cells** **(A, B)** Whole-cell voltage clamp responses of mitral cells **(A, black)** and external tufted
639 cells **(B, red)** to stimulation at various frequencies (10, 25, 50 Hz). **(C)** Comparison of the slow,
640 envelope current measured in mitral cells (grey) and external tufted cells (pink) at each stimulus
641 frequency. Mitral cells had consistently larger envelope currents. **(D)** Depression of the phasic
642 EPSC amplitude as a function of stimulus number in mitral cells across stimulation frequencies
643 (blue: 10 Hz, red: 25 Hz, black: 50 Hz). **(E)** Depression of phasic EPSC amplitude as a function
644 of stimulus number in external tufted cells (colors as in **D**). **(F)** The total charge transfer

645 (measured 2.5 seconds after stimulus onset) was significantly larger in mitral cells than external
646 tufted cells across all stimulation frequencies. There was no significant difference across
647 stimulus frequencies within either cell type. **(G)** Total phasic depression in mitral cells (black)
648 and external tufted cells (red) across stimulation frequencies. There was no significant difference
649 between cell types at any frequency tested. **(H)** Total slow current depression in mitral cells
650 (black) and external tufted cells (red) across stimulation frequencies. Mitral cells had
651 significantly less slow current depression at all stimulus frequencies tested. **(I)** Plot showing a
652 direct comparison of phasic depression and tonic depression across cell types and frequencies
653 (blue: 10 Hz, red: 25 Hz, black: 50 Hz). Although the phasic depression was similar between cell
654 types and frequencies, the slow current was differentially regulated in mitral cells and external
655 tufted cells.

656

657 **Figure 5: Blocking the slow current converts mitral cell responses into external tufted cell**
658 **responses (A)** Peak scaled comparison of the whole cell voltage clamp recordings from mitral
659 cells in control (black) and 10 μ M CPP/20 μ M CPCCOEt (green) in response to 50 Hz ORN
660 stimulation. As expected, CPP/CPCCOEt blocked a significant portion of the slow envelope
661 current. **(B)** Comparison of the total charge transfer in mitral cells (black), external tufted cells
662 (red) and mitral cells with CPP/CPCCOEt (green) shows that blocking the NMDA/mGluR1
663 receptor dependent current significantly reduces the total charge transfer to levels comparable to
664 external tufted cells. **(C)** Cell-attached recording from mitral cell in response to 50 Hz ORN
665 stimulation shows transient spiking profile mitral cells when NMDA and mGluR1 receptors are
666 blocked. **(D)** The total number of action potentials produced in mitral cells with NMDA and
667 mGluR1 receptors are similar to external tufted cell responses. **(E)** Comparison of the temporal

668 profile of mitral cell spiking in control (black) and with CPP/CPCCOEt (green). Block of
669 NMDA and mGluR1 receptors reveal transient response profile of mitral cells. (F) With NMDA
670 and mGluR1 receptors blocked, the temporal profile of mitral cell spiking (green) is not
671 significantly different than the responses of external tufted cells (red).
672

Figure 1

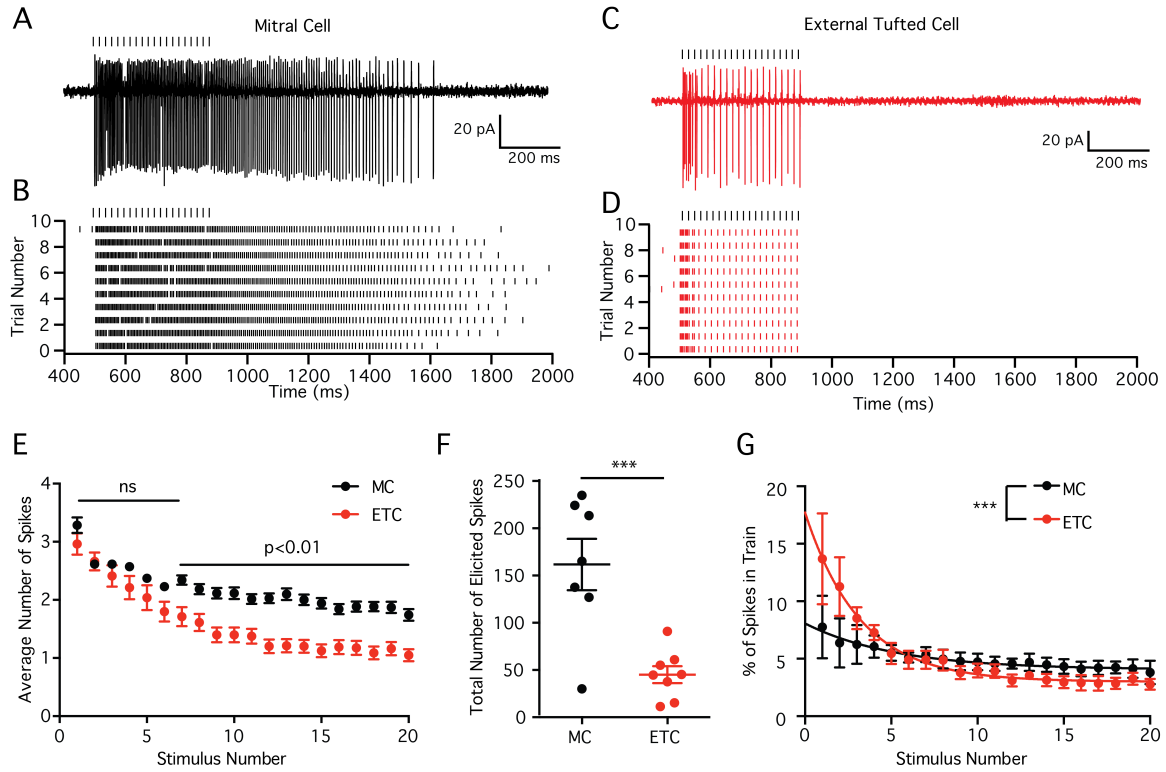


Figure 2

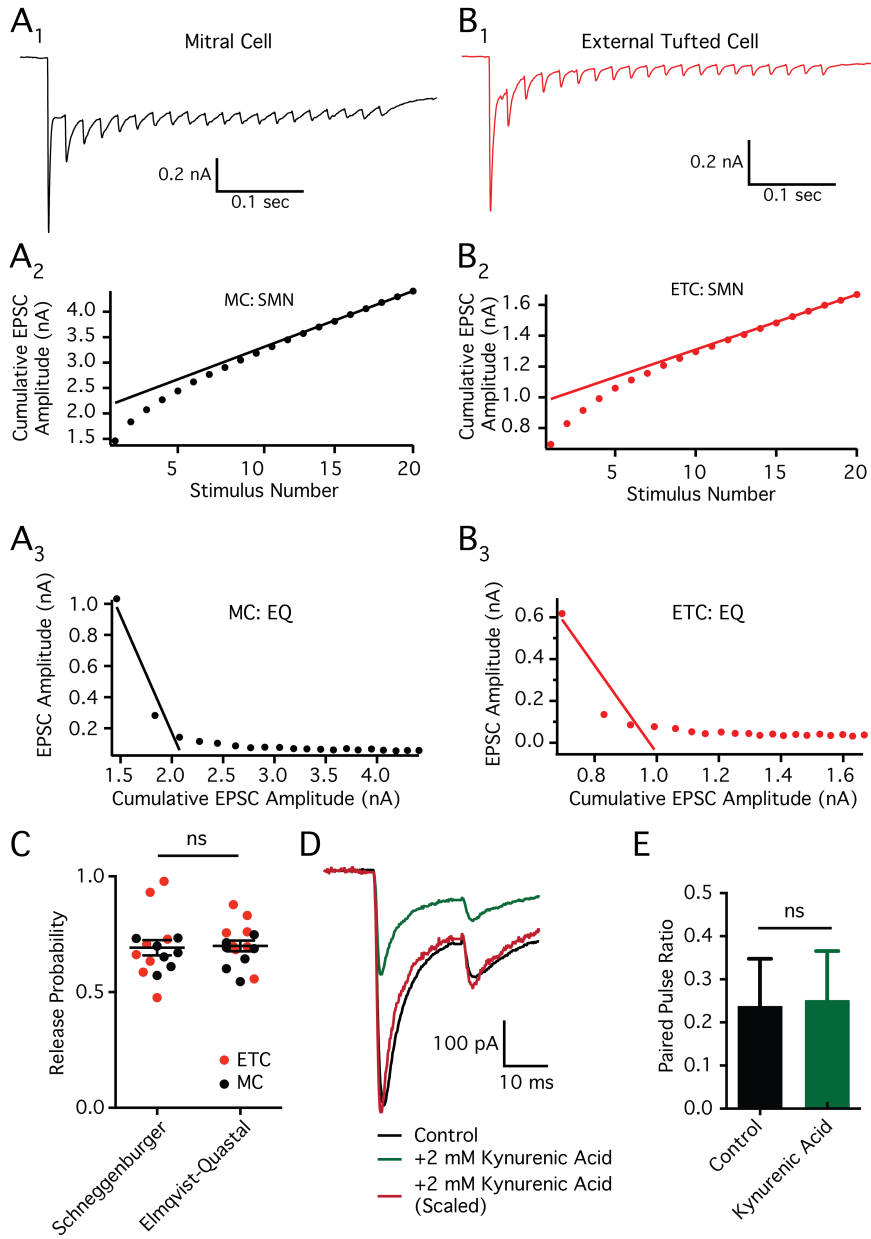


Figure 3

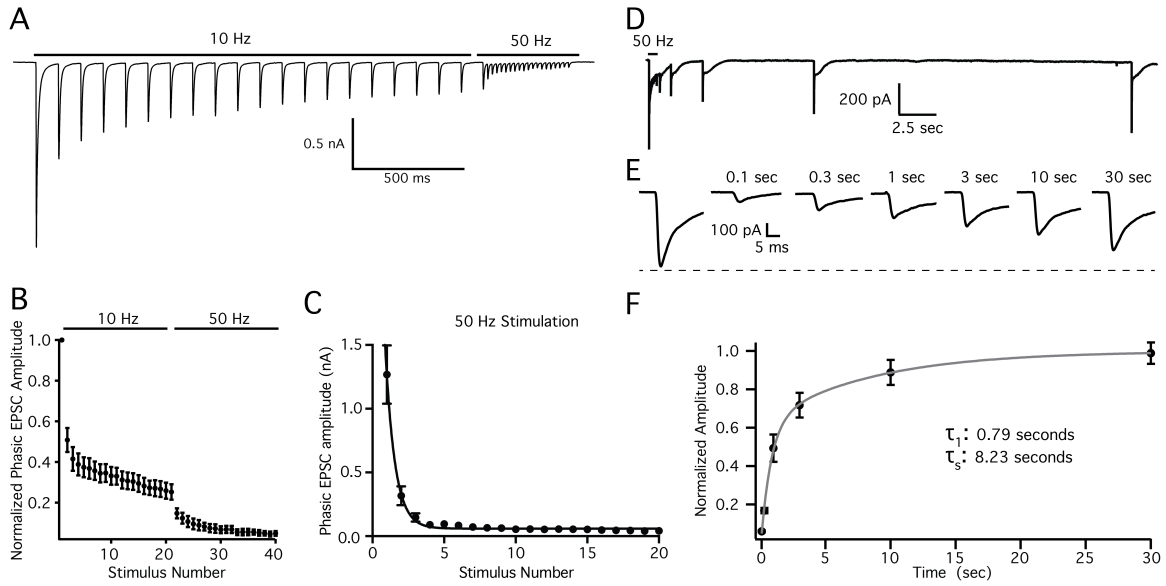


Figure 4

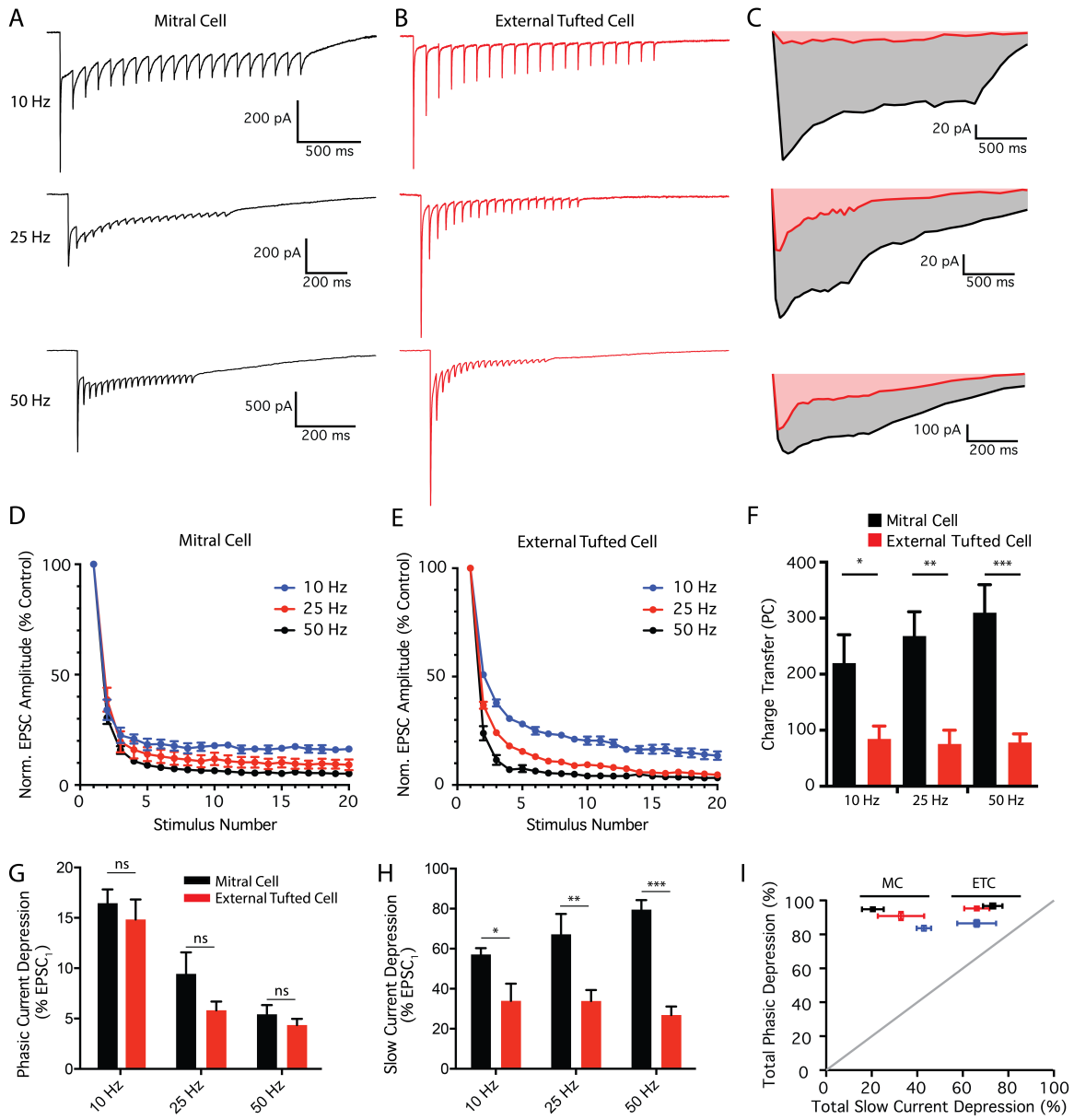


Figure 5

