An update on anatomy and function of the teleost olfactory system

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About half of all extant vertebrates are teleost fishes. Although our knowledge about anatomy and function of their olfactory systems still lags behind that of mammals, recent advances in cellular and molecular biology have provided us with a wealth of novel information about the sense of smell in this important animal group. Its paired olfactory organs contain up to five types of olfactory receptor neurons expressing OR, TAAR, VR1- and VR2-class odorant receptors associated with individual transduction machineries. The different types of receptor neurons are preferentially tuned towards particular classes of odorants, that are associated with specific behaviors, such as feeding, mating or migration. We discuss the connections of the receptor neurons in the olfactory bulb, the differences in bulbar circuitry compared to mammals, and the characteristics of second order projections to telencephalic olfactory areas, considering the everted ontogeny of the teleost telencephalon. The review concludes with a brief overview of current theories about odor coding and the prominent neural oscillations observed in the teleost olfactory system.

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Abstract

About half of all extant vertebrates are teleost fishes. Although our knowledge about anatomy and function of their olfactory systems still lags behind that of mammals, recent advances in cellular and molecular biology have provided us with a wealth of novel information about the sense of smell in this important animal group. Its paired olfactory organs contain up to five types of olfactory receptor neurons expressing OR, TAAR, VR1- and VR2-class odorant receptors associated with individual transduction machineries. The different types of receptor neurons are preferentially tuned towards particular classes of odorants, that are associated with specific behaviors, such as feeding, mating or migration. We discuss the connections of the receptor neurons in the olfactory bulb, the differences in bulbar circuitry compared to mammals, and the characteristics of second order projections to telencephalic olfactory areas, considering the everted ontogeny of the teleost telencephalon. The review concludes with a brief overview of current theories about odor coding and the prominent neural oscillations observed in the teleost olfactory system.

Introduction

The sense of smell plays an important role in fishes, mediating behaviors and physiological responses related to food search and feeding, social interaction, mating, detection of predators and contamination, or migration and search for spawning sites (Sorensen & Caprio, 1998; Bone & Moore, 2008). As opposed to higher vertebrates (amphibians, reptiles and mammals), which usually have access to a limited degree of light even in moonless nights, fish encounter situations of total darkness easily in turbid or deeper waters and underwater caves, where their olfactory sense may provide a degree of orientation. Olfactory information has long been known to be important for the homing of migrating salmonids and other fishes (Dittman & Quinn, 1996; Bett & Hinch, 2016). There is evidence for salmonids that some amino acids dissolved in the water of native rivers could mediate migratory conducts (Yamamoto, Hino & Ueda, 2010; Yamamoto, Shibata & Ueda, 2013). However, in general, the identity of the odors mediating orientation behavior in teleosts remains a topic of active investigation. On the other hand, amino acids are considered the most relevant odorants indicating the presence of a food source to teleosts, given

31 the behavioral responses they generate (Valentinčič, Lamb & Caprio, 1999; Whitlock, 2006;

32 Calvo-Ochoa & Byrd-Jacobs, 2019), and the fact that teleosts are generally sensitive to most

33 amino acids, with electrophysiological screening thresholds ranging from micromolar to

34 nanomolar concentrations (10^{-6} – 10^{-8} M) (Ivanova & Caprio, 1993; Nikonov & Caprio, 2007;

35 Bazáes, Olivares & Schmachtenberg, 2013; Nikonov et al., 2017; Sato & Sorensen, 2018).

36 Nucleic acids and polyamines are also related to food odor, with evidence that several

37 nucleotides, including ATP and adenosine, are able to evoke olfactory responses in channel

38 catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*), zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) and goldfish (*Carassius auratus*) (Hansen

39 et al., 2003; Rolen et al., 2003; Wakisaka et al., 2017).

40 Sensitivity thresholds for different types of odorants depend evidently on the species, but also on

41 the type of assay, behavioral versus electrophysiological, and for the latter, whether individual

42 neurons or bulk responses are recorded from the olfactory epithelium, bulb or telencephalon.

43 Studies using electroolfactogram (EOG) recordings have indicated that fish are sensitive to very

44 low concentrations of certain odorants, presenting responses to some amino acids at thresholds in

45 the order of 10^{-9} M, and below 10^{-11} M for certain bile salts, steroid hormones and prostaglandins

46 (Reutter & Kapoor, 2005; Bone & Moore, 2008). Bile salts are good candidates for social odors,

47 as they are constantly released by fishes (Buchinger, Li & Johnson, 2014). However, controversy

48 persists as to what degree mixtures of bile salts are species-specific and may therefore be

49 considered pheromonal odors (Sorensen & Stacey, 2004; Giaquinto & Hara, 2008). Recently,

50 using EOG recordings in the rainbow trout, responses to lactic acid, pyruvic acid and four B

51 vitamins with thresholds in the nanomolar range been reported for the first time in rainbow trout,

52 adding these compounds to the growing list of food odors. Lactate and pyruvate are important

53 components of cellular metabolism, while B vitamins, which are synthesized by phytoplankton

54 and algae, are essential for teleost development, which might explain their sensitive detection

55 (Valdés et al., 2015).

56 Some odorants trigger an instinctive avoidance response. For example, an imminent risk of

57 predation can be detected by fish through the presence of passively released molecules when a

58 conspecific is attacked and injured, which prevail in the environment for much longer than visual

59 or mechanical signals. The skin of teleosts presents a type of cells called *club cells* that release a

60 combination of chemical warning signals in the context of predation or parasitism, generating

61 changes in the behavior of rainbow trout and other teleost species. These substances include

62 glycosaminoglycans of chondroitin, an important component of the skin's mucosa (Poulin,

63 Marcogliese & McLaughlin, 1999; Speedie & Gerlai, 2008; Wisenden et al., 2009; Mathuru et

64 al., 2012).

65 Here, we provide an update on anatomy and function of the teleost olfactory system, including

66 the important advances achieved during the last years. The review is intended to complement

67 prior major revisions of the relevant literature on fish olfaction, covering peripheral coding and

68 olfactory bulb circuitry (Satou, 1990; Laberge & Hara, 2001), the olfactory gene repertoire

69 (Korsching, 2009), the variety of olfactory receptor neurons and their respective connections

70 (Hansen et al., 2005; Hamdani & Døving, 2007; Bazáes, Olivares & Schmachtenberg, 2013;

71 Yoshihara, 2014) and the generation of olfactory behaviors (Kermen et al., 2013; Yoshihara,

72 2014).

73

Survey methodology

75 Initially, a PubMed search was conducted for the terms "teleost" and "olfactory", yielding 304

76 results. Twenty-two notable and highly cited articles on vertebrate olfaction were also included

77 in the general data base. Four books were additionally considered: "Fish Chemosenses" (Reutter

78 & Kapoor, 2005); "Biology of Fishes" (Bone & Moore, 2008); "Comparative Vertebrate

79 Neuroanatomy" (Butler & Hodos, 2005) and "Sensory Systems Neuroscience" (Hara &

80 Zielinski, 2007). A total of 116 references was finally selected and included in the review. It

81 should be noted that while the field of teleost olfaction is small compared to other biomedical

82 areas, it is still too large to be comprehensively covered in one review, and no attempt was made

83 in that direction. Particularly, an inter-species comparison was beyond the focus of this work,

84 since the large number of teleosts and their huge variety would render any such attempt hopeless.

85 Instead, we focused on the most popular model species: Channel catfish, rainbow trout, goldfish

86 and zebrafish.

87

Olfactory epithelium and nerve

89 The nasal cavities of teleost fishes, including salmonids such as rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus*

90 *mykiss*), are located on the dorsal anterior face of the head (Fig. 1A, inset). Each cavity has two

91 openings, allowing entry and outflow of water, propelled by the movement of the fish, muscular

92 pumping actions, ciliary beating of supporting cells, and water currents (Doving et al., 1977).

93 Unlike higher vertebrates, there is no connection between the olfactory and the respiratory

94 systems, and respiratory sniffing and its implications for odor detection are absent, although

95 some fishes may use muscular contractions for active olfactory sampling (Doving et al., 1977;

96 Nevitt, 1991). Teleost fishes lack a separate vomeronasal organ, and the sole olfactory

97 epithelium is located on the floor of the nasal cavity, in most species arranged in the form of

98 sheets or lamellae, which radiate from a central ridge or *raphe* and give rise to an olfactory

99 *rosette* (Hansen & Zielinski, 2005) (Fig. 1A). The number and size of the lamellae increase

100 throughout development of the teleost, but remain relatively constant after the specimen reaches

101 maturity. The lamellae are composed of two pseudostratified epithelial layers that wrap a thin

102 sheet of stroma. Sensory and non-sensory cells are irregularly interspersed within the epithelia,

103 as are mucus-producing goblet cells (Bazáes, Olivares & Schmachtenberg, 2013) (Fig. 1B).

104 The olfactory epithelium consists of three main types of cells: Olfactory receptor neurons

105 (ORNs), supporting or sustentacular cells, and basal cells, which are capable to divide and

106 regenerate the epithelium after injury (Iqbal & Byrd-Jacobs, 2010) (Fig. 1D). In teleosts, there

107 are four established types of ORNs intermingled in the olfactory epithelium: Ciliated and

108 microvillous receptor neurons, olfactory crypt cells and *Kappe* cells, the latter discovered in

109 zebrafish (Hansen et al., 2003; Bazáes, Olivares & Schmachtenberg, 2013; Ahuja et al., 2015). A

110 putative fifth type of ORN, termed "pear-shaped", was also recently described in zebrafish, and

111 shown to function as an adenosine sensor (Wakisaka et al., 2017). Olfactory cilia and microvilli

112 contain the olfactory receptor proteins that are exposed to chemical stimuli in the water. Ciliated

113 and microvillous ORNs are bipolar cells, with an apical cylindrical dendrite that extends to the

114 surface of the lamellae (Fig. 1B, inset) and an axon that projects towards the submucosa forming

115 the fascicles of the olfactory nerve. These cell types are morphologically and molecularly similar

116 to the ciliated and microvillous ORNs of the main olfactory and vomeronasal organs of higher

117 vertebrates (Farbman, 2000; Hansen et al., 2003). Olfactory crypt cells, which are located in

118 more apical regions of the epithelium, have an oval shape with cilia and microvilli enclosed in an

119 apical invagination, and are completely enveloped by one or two supporting cells of glial

120 characteristics (Hansen & Finger, 2000; Schmachtenberg, 2006; Bazaes & Schmachtenberg,

121 2012). The *Kappe* cells, found in the most apical epithelial positions, have a similar shape as

122 crypt cells, but are slightly more slender and do not present cilia (Ahuja et al., 2015). Finally,

123 little is known about the recently described pear-shaped zebrafish ORN, which is

124 morphologically similar to crypt and *Kappe* cells, but displays different molecular signatures,

125 such as expression of olfactory marker protein (OMP) (Wakisaka et al., 2017). These latter two

126 cell types have hitherto not been described in teleosts other than zebrafish. If they do indeed

127 qualify to be recognized as separate ORN types remains to be confirmed.

128

Olfactory bulb and tract

130 The axonal projections of vertebrate ORNs traverse the skull in olfactory nerve fascicles that

131 enter the olfactory bulbs and converge in spherical neuropil complexes termed glomeruli

132 (Mombaerts et al., 1996). The teleost olfactory bulb has several similarities and some differences

133 with respect to the olfactory bulb of other vertebrates (Satou, 1990; Kermen et al., 2013;

134 Nagayama, Homma & Imamura, 2014; Calvo-Ochoa & Byrd-Jacobs, 2019) (Fig. 1C). Recently,

135 an entire olfactory bulb of zebrafish larvae has been reconstructed from serial section electron

136 microscopy, including the skeletons of over 1000 neurons, 75% of which were identified as

137 mitral cells (Wanner et al., 2016; Wanner, Genoud & Friedrich, 2016). In the teleost olfactory

138 bulb, four layers can be identified from the periphery towards the center: Olfactory nerve layer,

139 glomerular layer, mitral cell layer and granular layer (Satou, 1990). The outermost layer of this

140 structure corresponds to the layer formed by the axonal endings of the ORNs, which are

141 distributed profusely over the surface of the bulb before traversing deeper into the glomeruli of

142 the glomerular layer, where they form glutamatergic synapses with the dendrites of the mitral

143 cells, whose cell bodies are located in the subjacent layer (Fujita, Satou & Ueda, 1988). The

144 glomerular layer of teleosts also contains nerve endings from higher telencephalic centers and

145 projections of granule cells, GABAergic cells whose cell bodies are located in the layer that

146 bears the same name and with which the mitral cells share dendrodendritic synapses (Satou,

147 1990). As opposed to mammals, mitral cells can innervate multiple glomeruli in teleost fish, but

148 not all of them do (Laberge & Hara, 2001; Fuller, Yettaw & Byrd, 2006). Bulbar glomeruli are

149 surrounded by short axon cells and periglomerular cells, which participate in this first stage of

150 olfactory processing, together with neuromodulatory efferent projections from the telencephalon

151 making synapses with granular cells in the granular layer of the bulb (Nieuwenhuys, Donkelaar

152   & Nicholson, 1998) (Fig. 1F).

153   The tufted cells of mammals are either absent or indistinguishable from mitral cells in the teleost

154   olfactory bulb (Edwards & Michel, 2002). However, a second type of projection neuron termed

155   ruffed cells has been observed in fish that is not present in mammals (Kosaka & Hama, 1979,

156   1981). The ruffed cells, which project to the telencephalon together with the mitral cells, also

157   present dendrites in the glomerular layer but only appear to make synapses with granule cells

158   (Kosaka & Hama, 1979; Satou, 1990). These cells are thought to play an important role in

159   olfactory processing and in the generation of prominent olfactory oscillations in the teleost bulb,

160   since their response is of opposite polarity compared to that of mitral cells (Zippel, 1998) (Fig.

161   1E). The axons of the mitral cells give rise to the olfactory tracts that carry the information to

162   other relay centers in the telencephalon (Nieuwenhuys, Donkelaar & Nicholson, 1998) (Fig. 1F).

163   Studies using tracers, electrophysiology, genetics and behavior in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus*

164   *mykiss*), zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), goldfish (*Carassius auratus*), crucian carp (*Carassius*

165   *carassius*) and other teleosts have allowed to determine the presence of two subdivisions of the

166   olfactory tract: the lateral olfactory tract and the medial olfactory tract (Folgueira, Anadón &

167   Yáñez, 2004a; Hamdani & Døving, 2007; Miyasaka et al., 2009, 2014). These can be further

168   subdivided into fiber bundles which conserve the chemotopic organization of the olfactory bulb

169   to some degree, thus maintaining the odotopically organized processing of different types of

170   odors (Finger, 1975; Satou, 1990). In crucian carp, ablation studies of the different olfactory

171   tracts that project to various telencephalic regions indicated that the medial bundle of the median

172   olfactory tract mediates escape behavior in response to odors considered as alarm signals

173   (Hamdani et al., 2000), while the lateral bundle of the median olfactory tract relays odor

174   information related to reproductive behavior (Weltzien et al., 2003). Finally, the lateral olfactory

175   tract has been reported to convey information about odorants related to feeding behaviors in this

176   species (Hamdani, Alexander & Døving, 2001).

177

The odor transduction process

179   In the ciliary and microvillous membranes of vertebrate ORNs, odorant receptor proteins

180   belonging to the OR superfamily of G protein-coupled receptors are expressed (Buck & Axel,

181   1991). In addition, a subset of receptor neurons express another class of odorant receptor

182   proteins, termed trace-amine associated receptors (TAARs) (Liberles & Buck, 2006). A third

183   class of receptor proteins, the vomeronasal receptors (VRs), is expressed within the vomeronasal

184   organ of many higher vertebrates, and in the olfactory epithelium of fishes, where it may serve to

185   detect conspecific odors and pheromones (Silva & Antunes, 2016). It was demonstrated in

186   several teleost species that the different types of olfactory receptor proteins are expressed

187   differentially in the specific ORN types, which in turn present different transduction processes

188   associated with diverse types of G-proteins (Hansen et al., 2003; Hansen, Anderson & Finger,

189   2004). While ciliated ORNs generally express receptor proteins of the OR and TAAR types,

190   which are associated with $G\alpha_{olf}$ proteins, microvillous receptor neurons present V1R-type

191   receptors associated with $G\alpha_i$, and V2R receptors coupled to the G-proteins $G\alpha_o$ (Fig. 1D), $G\alpha_q$,

192   $G\alpha_{q/11}$ and $G\alpha_{i-3}$. Crypt cells express V1R type receptors coupled to $G\alpha_o$, $G\alpha_{q/11}$ and $G\alpha_{i1b}$, while

193   *Kappe* cells, although their class of odorant receptor proteins remains unknown, are thought to be

194   associated with $G\alpha_o$ proteins (Hansen et al., 2003; Hansen, Anderson & Finger, 2004; Hansen &

195   Zielinski, 2005; Bazáes, Olivares & Schmachtenberg, 2013; Ahuja et al., 2015).

196   The olfactory receptor gene repertoire has been analyzed in several teleost species, revealing a

197   significant degree of variation and diversity, with 189 functional genes and 31 pseudogenes

198   detected in zebrafish, the highest number in teleosts counted to date (Korsching, 2009;

199   Yoshihara, 2014). In the case of salmonid fishes, a total of 60 functional genes and 51

200   pseudogenes have been found in *Salmo salar*, which are distributed among the different families

201   of olfactory receptors in such a way that 24 functional OR-type receptors have been found

202   together with 24 pseudogenes, 7 genes of functional V1R-type receptors and 1 pseudogene, and

203   29 genes of V2R-ype receptors with 26 pseudogenes (Johnstone et al., 2012). More recently, the

204   discovery of 27 putative functional genes and 25 putative pseudogenes of the TAAR family has

205   been added to this list (Tessarolo et al., 2014).

206   The conformational change that the receptor undergoes due to the binding of an odorant induces

207   the activation of the respective G proteins, which dissociate their alpha subunit. In ciliated ORNs

208   of teleosts, as in those of higher vertebrates (Buck & Axel, 1991), the alpha subunit of the $G\alpha_{olf}$

209   protein triggers the activation of the enzyme adenylate cyclase, generating an increase in cyclic

210   AMP (cAMP) that functions as a second messenger (Hansen et al., 2003; Schmachtenberg &

211   Bacigalupo, 2004). cAMP causes the activation of cationic cyclic nucleotide-gated channels

212   (CNGCs), allowing the influx of sodium and to a lesser extent of calcium, which depolarizes the

213 cell membrane directly and by an amplifying effect, through the activation of nearby calcium-
214 dependent chloride channels (Kurahashi & Yau, 1994; Reisert & Reingruber, 2019). In addition,
215 calcium contributes to the termination of the response through an adaptive reduction of the
216 sensitivity of CNGCs to cyclic nucleotides by means of calcium-calmodulin activation, until
217 intracellular calcium levels return to pre-stimulation levels mainly by action of the sodium-
218 calcium exchanger (Matthews & Reisert, 2003). In *O. mykiss*, the function of calcium-activated
219 chloride channels (termed either Anoctamin 2 or TMEM16B) has been demonstrated directly
220 with patch clamp recordings of ORNs and by electroolfactogram (EOG) recordings of the
221 olfactory organs, indicating that the olfactory transduction process operates in the same way in
222 freshwater fish as in higher vertebrates (Sato & Suzuki, 2000). In seawater, the large
223 extracellular sodium chloride concentration would make the amplificatory outward chloride
224 currents both unnecessary and impossible (Osorio & Schmachtenberg, 2013), however, the
225 absence of Anoctamin 2 or TMEM16B channels from ORNs of marine teleosts remains to be
226 shown. The transduction pathways of the other teleost ORN classes are less well understood, and
227 have been reviewed elsewhere (Bazáes, Olivares & Schmachtenberg, 2013).
228

229 The teleost telencephalon

230 In the brain, sensory input is analyzed and compared with available memories, integrated
231 between different sensory modalities; new memories are formed and behavioral responses may
232 be initiated. Between the main groups of vertebrates, there is a marked difference in the
233 development of the brain, which makes comparative neuroanatomical studies between species
234 difficult. While in vertebrates including lampreys, cartilaginous fish, amphibians and amniotes,
235 the telencephalon develops from the neural tube through a process called *evagination*, in teleost
236 fishes a process called *eversion* is generated, in which structures of the brain are distributed
237 differently (Butler, 2000; Butler & Hodos, 2005; Folgueira et al., 2012). Evagination is produced
238 by the expansion of the lumen of the neural tube, which gives rise to the lateral ventricles inside
239 the telencephalon. The eversion process, however, generates a telencephalon without cavities,
240 developing a ventricular surface located dorsally (Nieuwenhuys, 2011). Although the sections of
241 the neural tube that give rise to the different functional cortical regions of species generating the
242 evagination process are homologous to those found in teleost fishes, once the eversion process is

243   completed during embryonic development, the functional regions, including those that process

244   olfactory information, present a disposition that differs greatly from the other groups of

245   vertebrates (Butler & Hodos, 2005; Ito & Yamamoto, 2009; Folgueira et al., 2012). A distinctive

246   feature of the mammalian telencephalon is the presence of a neocortex or six-layer pallium,

247   which is considered responsible for superior cognitive functions. The pallium of the teleost fishes

248   lacks a six-layer cortex, and even laminar structures. Instead, the teleost telencephalon contains

249   zones and nuclei that are neuroanatomically and functionally analogous to the pallial and

250   subpallial structures of evaginating vertebrates (Ito & Yamamoto, 2009).

251   In the teleost telencephalon, two regions defined by topographic criteria can be recognized: The

252   dorsal area (*Area Dorsalis Telencephali*), and the ventral area (*Area Ventralis Telencephali*)

253   considered homologous to the pallium and the subpallium, respectively, of the remainder of

254   vertebrates. Both telencephalic regions were shown to receive bulbar projections in zebrafish

255   (Miyasaka et al., 2014). These telencephalic areas have been subdivided into zones and nuclei by

256   various authors, among which the ventral area of the telencephalon can be distinguished into a

257   central (Vc), ventral (Vv), dorsal (Vd), lateral (Vl); supracomissural (Vs) and paracomissural

258   (Vp) nucleus, while the dorsal area can be subdivided into a central (Dc), dorsal (Dd), lateral

259   (Dl), medial (Dm) and posterior (Dp) zone (Nieuwenhuys, Donkelaar & Nicholson, 1998;

260   Wullimann & Rink, 2002; Folgueira, Anadón & Yáñez, 2004b; Biechl et al., 2017) (Fig. 1F). It

261   should be noted however, that in rainbow trout, the dorsal and the dorsolateral region of the

262   dorsal area of the telencephalon (Dd + Dl-d), have been proposed to form a homogeneous region

263   according to cytoarchitectonic and neurochemical criteria (Folgueira, Anadón & Yáñez, 2004b).

264   The differences in the development of the teleost telencephalon make it difficult to identify areas

265   that are functionally homologous to the telencephalon of other vertebrates. Studies analyzing

266   neurochemistry, connectivity, gene expression and development in several species of teleosts

267   suggest that the nuclei located dorsally within the *Area Ventralis*, Vc and Vd, represent the

268   striatum of other vertebrates. Also, the Vs represents subpallial tonsillar regions, and Vv and Vl,

269   located ventrally in the telencephalon, could represent the septum, with Vv being a homologue of

270   the lateral septum, the *nucleus accumbens* and the *substantia innominata*, which are related to

271   the reward system. In the dorsal area of the telencephalon, Dc represents the pallium, the most

272   medial part of Dm is thought to be analogous to portions of the amygdala, and Dl is likely

273   homologous to the hippocampus.

274 Studies in different species of teleosts have established the pallial regions and the subpallial

275 nuclei that receive projections from the olfactory bulb: Dp, Dl, Vv, Vs, Vp, Vc, Vl, among which

276 the Vv region stands out related to the reward systems, and Dp related to the identity of odorants.

277 Dp is the main target of the secondary olfactory fibers (Fig. 1F), comparable to the primary

278 olfactory cortex or piriform cortex of higher vertebrates (Wullimann, Rupp & Reichert, 1996;

279 Nieuwenhuys, Donkelaar & Nicholson, 1998; Cerdá-Reverter, Zanuy & Muñoz-Cueto, 2001;

280 Wullimann & Rink, 2002; Folgueira, Anadón & Yáñez, 2004a,b; Butler & Hodos, 2005; Mueller

281 et al., 2011; Kermen et al., 2013; Biechl et al., 2017). Olfactory stimulation causes patterns of

282 activity in specific sectors of the olfactory bulb and in the Vv and Dp sectors of the

283 telencephalon in channel catfish and zebrafish (Nikonov, Finger & Caprio, 2005; Yaksi et al.,

284 2009). Blumhagen showed that extracellular recordings of the Dp region of zebrafish are

285 synchronized with the activity of mitral cells after olfactory stimulation (Blumhagen et al.,

286 2011). This is in line with evidence supporting the notion that the Vv and Dp regions of the

287 teleost telencephalon are analogous to structures related to olfactory processing and learning in

288 higher vertebrates (Butler & Hodos, 2005; Ito & Yamamoto, 2009; Mueller et al., 2011).

289

Olfactory coding in teleosts

291 The coding of olfactory information regarding stimulus identity, intensity, time course and

292 spatial origin occurs at different levels of the olfactory system, allowing parallel and

293 differentiated processing of different aspects of the olfactory stimuli. Initial coding occurs at the

294 level of the olfactory epithelium and is determined by the types and numbers of ORNs that are

295 activated (Kang & Caprio, 1995; Duchamp-Viret, Duchamp & Chaput, 2000). The information is

296 odotopically organized in the olfactory bulb and modified by efferent input and complex circuits

297 formed by local interneurons, as in higher vertebrates (Li et al., 2019). Finally, a percept is

298 thought to be generated at the level of several telencephalic regions (Wilson & Mainen, 2006). In

299 the olfactory epithelium, ORNs choose and express one allele of the olfactory receptor gene

300 repertoire (Khan, Vaes & Mombaerts, 2011), and receptor neuron groups of variable size that

301 express a common olfactory receptor gene send their axons to the same pair of glomeruli in the

302 bulb. Since odorant receptor proteins are generally of a broad spectrum and activated by

303 different, albeit mostly structurally similar molecules, each odor activates a practically unique

304 combination of ORNs in the olfactory epithelium, and of glomeruli in the olfactory bulb (Malnic

305 et al., 1999; Wilson & Mainen, 2006). The combination of the afferents of many ORNs in the

306 olfactory bulb also causes an increase in signal strength and helps reduce the noise associated

307 with local fluctuations in odorant concentration (Kay & Stopfer, 2006).

308 In fish, the projections of the diverse types of ORNs reach different sectors of the olfactory bulb,

309 although there is also evidence that a small subpopulation of ORNs projects directly to the

310 ventral region of the telencephalon (Hara & Zielinski, 2007; Tierney, 2015).

311 Electrophysiological studies in trout and channel catfish have confirmed that different types of

312 odorants are processed in different parts of the olfactory bulb, generating a gross general odotopy

313 (Friedrich & Korsching, 1997; Hara & Zhang, 1998; Nikonov & Caprio, 2004, 2005; Nikonov,

314 Finger & Caprio, 2005; Rolen & Caprio, 2007). Using retrograde tracers in channel catfish, it

315 was observed that the ciliated ORNs project their axons to medial regions of the olfactory bulb,

316 which are activated by bile salts, and ventral regions, which respond to amino acids, while the

317 microvillous ORNs project mainly to the dorsal surface of the bulb, where mainly responses to

318 amino acids (anterior region) and nucleotides (posterior region) are observed. These separate

319 innervation patterns of the two main types of teleost ORNs were beautifully confirmed in

320 transgenic zebrafish (Sato, Miyasaka & Yoshihara, 2005).

321 Furthermore, immunohistochemical studies of zebrafish crypt cells have shown that these project

322 to the single posterior mediodorsal glomerulus 2 (mdG2) in the olfactory bulb (Ahuja et al.,

323 2013), which may be involved in pheromone and/or kin recognition (Bazaes & Schmachtenberg,

324 2012; Biechl et al., 2016). *Kappe* cells also project to a single glomerulus, posterior mediodorsal

325 glomerulus 5 (mdG5) in zebrafish (Hansen et al., 2003, 2005; Ahuja et al., 2013, 2015; Kress,

326 Biechl & Wullimann, 2014), but their function(s) remain enigmatic to date. Thus, the general

327 odotopic map of vertebrate olfactory bulbs is complemented by a coarser ORN type and odorant

328 class-dependent map in teleost fishes.

329 Odors usually represent complex mixtures that involve many odorants, and the perception of

330 odors does not generally allow the identification of individual components, unless they are

331 limited in number, as elegantly demonstrated in the catfish *Ameiurus melas* (Valentincic et al.,

332 2011). Instead, the components are united generating a recognition based on patterns (Laurent,

333 2002). The olfactory system is able to decompose odors with different degrees of resolution,

334 from a qualitative point of view, thus recognizing the "family" of odorants with which the

335   perceived odor is related. Changes in odor concentration can also be determined, which may

336   affect the perceived smell quality (Friedrich & Laurent, 2001; Laurent, 2002). This process of

337   decoding the depends on the complete olfactory system, involving an analysis at the

338   telencephalic level, which acts as a secondary relay of odor information (Yaksi et al., 2009). The

339   first relay, the bulb, performs the task of de-correlating the information, thus increasing the

340   coding space, implying a decrease in the overlap, over time, between odorant mixtures

341   (Friedrich, Laurent & Rainer, 2004). In this process, patterns of oscillatory activity are generated

342   in response to odor stimulation, which are the result of the summation of synaptic activity of

343   multiple afferent neurons (Laberge & Hara, 2001; Friedrich, Habermann & Laurent, 2004;

344   Buzsáki & Draguhn, 2004; Schoppa, 2006). In teleost fishes, olfactory stimulation causes

345   patterns of transient oscillatory activity in specific sectors of the olfactory bulb and in the Vv and

346   Dp sectors of the telencephalon in channel catfish, zebrafish and rainbow trout (Nikonov, Finger

347   & Caprio, 2005; Yaksi et al., 2009; Olivares, 2019) (Fig. 1E). The most prominent oscillations

348   are observed in the 7-12 Hz range, which may functionally correspond to the beta-range in

349   mammals (Satou & Ueda, 1978; Satou, 1990; Kay et al., 2009). As early as in 1938, Adrian had

350   been able to observe and record oscillations in the central olfactory system of decapitated fish,

351   using different methods of mechanical and chemical stimulation (Adrian & Ludwig, 1938).

352   Blumhagen et al. (2011), showed that local field potential recordings of the Dp region of

353   zebrafish are synchronized with the activity of mitral cells recorded during olfactory stimulation

354   (Blumhagen et al., 2011). There is mounting evidence indicating that the origin of oscillations in

355   the olfactory system is the olfactory bulb (Satou & Ueda, 1978; Kay, 2014). Although the role of

356   oscillations evoked by odors in the olfactory system of vertebrates is not yet understood, one

357   attractive possibility is that the synchronization of neural networks at specific frequencies allows

358   to isolate transient communication pathways between distant brain regions (Buzsáki & Draguhn,

359   2004). The different types of oscillations observed in the olfactory system differ in frequency

360   and power depending on the behavioral state of the animal, however, the frequency ranges used

361   for the classification of these signals are species-specific, and generally significantly lower in

362   fishes than in mammals (Kay et al., 2009).

363

Conclusions

364

365   The teleost olfactory system displays important cellular, anatomical and functional differences

366   compared to other classes of vertebrates. These are in part due to the aqueous nature of their

367   habitat, the presence of a sole type of olfactory organ compared to up to five in mammals, and

368   the separation of the olfactory from the respiratory system in fishes. Ciliated and microvillous

369   ORNs have conserved features across vertebrates, whereas olfactory crypt, pear-shaped and

370   *Kappe* cells appear unique to fishes. The teleost olfactory bulb lacks tufted cells but contains

371   ruffed cells instead, and mitral cells may innervate more than one glomerulus. Olfactory tracts to

372   the telencephalon preserve the bulbar odotopy among their bundles and innervate telencephalic

373   areas that are functionally but not anatomically homologous to higher vertebrates. Prominent

374   field potential oscillations, of lower frequency than in mammals and lacking respiratory rhythms,

375   are observed in response to odorant stimulation, originating in the olfactory bulb and expanding

376   through the olfactory tracts to olfactory telencephalic areas. Future studies will, among others,

377   define the species-specific odors guiding migratory behavior in certain teleosts, notably in

378   salmonids, clarify how olfactory memories are created and stored, define the roles of pear-

379   shaped and *Kappe* cells, and hopefully elucidate the function of the olfactory oscillations, which

380   has remained enigmatic for decades.

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Figure 1

Rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) as model system for teleost olfactory research.

Fig. 1. Rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) as model system for teleost olfactory research. (A) Isolated olfactory rosette of a juvenile specimen. Inset: Exposed olfactory organs of *O. mykiss*. (B) Toluidine blue-stained cryosection of the olfactory lamellae from *O. mykiss*. Inset: Ultrastructural detail of the dendritic endings of a microvillous (m) and a ciliated (c) ORN. (C) Horizontal cryosection through the olfactory bulbs, stained with toluidine blue. (D) Transverse section through the sensory neuroepithelium, immunohistochemically labeled for Ga_o (red) to mark microvillous ORNs, and for PCNA (green) to label basal cells. Modified from Bazáes et al., 2013. (E) Synchronous responses to a mixture of amino acids, recorded from the olfactory epithelium (EOG), olfactory bulb (OB), and telencephalic areas Vv and Dp in a live anesthetized specimen of *O. mykiss*. Note prominent field potential oscillations during the odor response. From Olivares 2019, PhD thesis, Universidad de Valparaiso. (F) Top: Schematic drawing of the rainbow trout brain. The telencephalic olfactory areas Dp and Vv are indicated in their respective sections. Below, ORN types, olfactory bulb circuitry and tracts to the telencephalon. ORN: Olfactory Receptor Neuron; OB: Olfactory bulb; Tel: Telencephalon; OT: Optic tectum; Cb: Cerebellum; R: Ruffed cell; MC: Mitral Cell; Gr: Granule Cell; CF: Centrifugal fiber; Vv: Ventral nucleus of ventral telencephalon; Dp: Dorsal posterior area; EOG, electroolfactogram. Scale bars: A: 1 mm, B: 300 µm; C: 500 µm, D: 100 µm.