Adaptation lies at the nexus of consistency and optimality in olfactory sensing of sparse signals

Author One a,c,1, Author Twob,1,2, and Author Three a

 $^{\rm a}\text{Affiliation One; }^{\rm b}\text{Affiliation Two; }^{\rm c}\text{Affiliation Three}$

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ntroduction.

Model

Discrete-state stochastic olfactory receptor model. We describe the sensory system by a stochastic discrete-state model, analogous to those used in describing ligand binding to chemoreceptor homodimers in bacterial chemotaxis. Deferring for now the effect of temporal fluctuations, we treat the dynamics in steady state, where the combination of odorant (un)binding and receptor (in)activation conspire to produce mean-field activity levels in response to given odorant stimuli. Here, we model the sensory complex as a single unit consisting of an olfactory receptor (OR) and and a co-receptor protein Orco, known to be expressed in the majority of insect ORNs, including all OR-expressing ORNs in drosophila. This Or-Orco complex may exist in either an activated or inactivated state. and may be independently bound or unbound to volatile odorant molecular signals s_i . Binding obeys a stochastic jump process, where the affinity for binding is higher when activated. To simplify the analysis, we assume that a given receptor complex R^{ρ} may bind at most a single monomolecular odorant at one time. Among a selection of N such odorants, R^{ρ} may therefore live in one of N+1 inactivated states with associated concentrations, $\{[R^{\rho}], [R^{\rho}s_1], [R^{\rho}s_2], ..., [R^{\rho}s_N]\}$ or N+1 activated states with concentrations $\{[R_*^{\rho}], [R_*^{\rho}s_1], [R_*^{\rho}s_2], ..., [R_*^{\rho}s_N]\}.$ Assuming that the binding of odors is faster than the time to activate or deactivate, the former is approximately quasistatic, with steady state probabilities

$$p_{\rm b}^{\rho i} = \frac{\frac{[s_i]}{K^{\rho i}}}{1 + \sum_{i}^{N} \frac{[s_i]}{K^{\rho i}}}, \qquad p_{\rm b*}^{\rho i} = \frac{\frac{[s_i]}{K_*^{\rho i}}}{1 + \sum_{i}^{N} \frac{[s_i]}{K_*^{\rho i}}}, \qquad [1]$$

when (in)activated, and where $K^{\rho i}$ and $K^{\rho i}_*$ are the corresponding disassociation constants of the individual jump processes. Likewise, the activation kinetics when (un)bound obey Master equations

$$\frac{d[R_{\rm u}^{\rho}]}{dt} = w_{\rm u}^{\rho}[R^{\rho}] - w_{\rm u}^{\rho}[R_{*}^{\rho}]$$
 [2]

$$\frac{d[R_*^{\rho}]}{dt} = w_{\text{u}+}^{\rho}[R^{\rho}] - w_{\text{u}-}^{\rho}[R_*^{\rho}]$$
 [2]
$$\frac{d[R_*^{\rho}s_i]}{dt} = w_{\text{b}+}^{\rho i}[R^{\rho}s_i] - w_{\text{b}-}^{\rho i}[R_*^{\rho}s_i]$$
 [3]

When unbound, the free energy difference between inactivated and activated receptors is signal-independent, but may be distinct for differing receptors; we denote these as $\epsilon_{\rm u}^{\rho} \equiv \ln(w_{\rm u+}^{\rho}/w_{\rm u-}^{\rho})$. Detailed balance enforced on 4-cycles involving a single ligand, therefore, demands $K_*^{\rho i} w_{\rm b+}^{\rho} w_{\rm u-}^{\rho} / K^{\rho i} w_{\rm u+}^{\rho} w_{\rm b-}^{\rho} \equiv 1$, whereby the free energy difference between activated and inactivated states when bound depends on the disassociation constants: $\ln(w_{\mathrm{b+}}^{\rho i}/w_{\mathrm{b-}}^{\rho i}) \equiv \epsilon_{\mathrm{b}}^{\hat{\rho} i} = \epsilon_{\mathrm{u}}^{\rho i} + \log(K_*^{\rho i}/K^{\rho i}).$

In the mean-field limit, the collective action of binding and activation produces an activity level for each receptor: a sum of the concentrations of all activated states, bound or unbound. The dynamics of these activity levels then obeys a linear rate equation, which in steady state relaxes to

$$\bar{a}^{\rho}(\{[s_i]\}, \epsilon_{\mathbf{u}}^{\rho}) = \left(1 + e^{\epsilon_{\mathbf{u}}^{\rho}} \frac{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} [s_i]/K^{\rho i}}{1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} [s_i]/K^{\rho i}_*}\right)^{-1}.$$
 [4]

This expression is a simple generalization of the analogous expression for a 4-state receptor model with a single binding site.

At a much larger timescale than odorant binding and receptor complex activation, the free energies $\epsilon_{\mathrm{u}}^{\rho}$ may be modulated by adaptive feedback, adjusting in such a way to, ideally, maintain the sensitivity and range of the ORNs in response to fluctuating environments. We model this in a minimal fashion via $\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm u}^{\rho} = \beta^{\rho} (a_0^{\rho} - \bar{a}^{\rho})$, which assumes that the activity levels may decay at differing rates and to differing backgrounds for distinct receptor complexes R^{ρ} . Say something about WL

Decoding sparse signals. It has been observed that despite the vast array of distinct odors between which humans and other animals can discriminate, individual odors found in the natural environment contain only a handful of monomolecular components – odor signals are sparse in the N-dimensional space of constituent volatile molecules. Even without other mechanisms such as temporal dynamics, the theory of compressed sensing might explain how so many odors are reliably

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¹ A.O.(Author One) and A.T. (Author Two) contributed equally to this work (remove if not applicable).

 $^{^2\}mbox{To}$ whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: author.twoemail.com

discriminated by a few dozen ORNs. In compressed sensing, signal sparsity acts as a regulator that renders the inverse problem well-posed; if the sensor output \mathbf{a} were generated from signals \mathbf{s} through a set of linear observations, \mathbf{s} could be recovered with fidelity given fewer than N measurements — an otherwise underdetermined problem. Specifically, this estimate is the vector which minimizes the L_1 norm of the signal subject to the measured activity:

$$\hat{\mathbf{s}} = \arg\min \sum_{i=1}^{N} |s_i| \quad \text{s.t. } \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{s},$$
 [5]

where \mathbf{M} is an $M \mathbf{x} N$ measurement matrix.

But odor binding and transduction are nonlinear processes: olfactory encoding cannot be described by the simple linear input-output relation $a^{\rho}=M^{\rho i}s_{i}$, rather a more general formulation such as the steady state expression Eq. 4. One could in principle carry out the optimization in Eq. 5 with the replacement of the linear constraint, but the recovery of s is not straightforward as nonlinear programming contains no guarantees on convexity, and may well converge to a local minimum. To incorporate the odor binding dynamics in a sensible way, we assume the activity levels relax to their steady state values, Eq. 4, but use only a first-order approximation of the full binding and activation process for decoding.

Adopting the viewpoint that the neural system can learn the mean background stimulus, we linearize fluctuations of the sparse odor signals around a known background $\bar{\mathbf{s}}$, estimating only the fluctuations $\Delta \mathbf{s} = \mathbf{s} - \bar{\mathbf{s}}$ via Eq. 5. In the limit $K_*^{\rho i} \ll s_i \ll K^{\rho i}$, this gives a measurement matrix $M^{\rho i} = (e^{\epsilon_{\mathbf{u}}^{\rho}}/K_*^{\rho i})/(\sum_{i=1}^N s_i^0/K_*^{\rho i} + e^{\epsilon_{\mathbf{u}}^{\rho}})^2$.

Results

An arbitrary activity distribution naturally preserves Weber-Law scaling. Compressed sensing relies on both input vector sparsity and measurement matrix decoherence, the latter of which implies a degree of randomness in \mathbf{M} . Sensory receptor systems such as ORNs are known to adapt their gain levels to maximize sensitivity to quasi-static backgrounds, and it is suggestive that if ORNs are indeed decoding sparse odor signals, the linearized measurement matrix – a joint function of free energies ϵ_u^ρ , activated disassociation constants $K_*^{\rho i}$, and background signals s_0 – is statistically distributed in such a way to optimally preserve sensitivity over a broad range of backgrounds.

On the one hand, we might assign a particular prior on the disassociation matrices $K_*^{\rho i}$. Alternatively, we may adopt the viewpoint that in response to fluctuating backgrounds, the sensory system adapts ϵ_0^ρ dynamically to maintain the output levels \bar{a}^ρ to a set range, and that this range is inherently tuned to sparsity. This viewpoint may be more in line with previous studies and subsequent re-analyses of drosophila ORNs indicating that firing rates appear to follow a single distribution across ORN types and mean signal magnitudes.

Adopting this perspective, let us assume that the activity response of a given olfactory receptor ρ to individual monomolecular odorants of a fixed concentration s_0 is approximately normally distributed (truncated outside of the closed interval [0, 1] in accordance with Eq. 4):

$$\bar{a}^{\rho}([s_i] = s_0) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\rho}, \sigma_{\rho})$$
 [6]

The assumption of Gaussian-distributed activity levels, however, imply non-normal statistics for the disassociation matrices. In the limit of disparate binding affinities for the activated and inactivated receptors, $K_i^{\rho i} \ll s_i \ll K^{\rho i}$, the probability density function for $K^{\rho i}$ for a given receptor ρ is

$$p_{\rho}(K_{*}^{\rho i} = x) \sim \frac{e^{-\left[\mu_{\rho} - \frac{(x/C_{\rho} + 1)^{-1}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^{2}}}\right]^{2}}}{(x/C_{\rho} + 1)^{2}},$$
 [7]

where $C_{\rho} = e^{-\epsilon_{\mathbf{u}}^{\rho}} s_0$.

As the mean odorant concentration is modulated, activity levels respond dynamically to fast fluctuations. Simultaneously, $\epsilon_{\rm u}^{\rho}$ adjusts, slowly driving activity levels back to a latent firing rate, around 30 Hz for typical ORNs. The implication of Eq. 7 is \bar{a}^{ρ} cannot be independent of background signal, unless C_{ρ} is fixed. Yet the constancy of C_{ρ} is just the adaptive scaling

$$\epsilon_{\rm u}^{\rho} \sim \log(s_0),$$
[8]

which is Weber's Law itself. The implication is that log-sensing adaptation arises naturally and consistently from normally-distributed receptor response to monomolecular signals. Same for any distribution really; however the interplay of mean and variance cold be meaningful.

The optimal ORN tuning curve. Of equal importance, the connection between individual ORN activity levels and the decoding process via Eqs. 4, 5, and 7 suggests that the precise shape of ORN tuning curves – and the diversity of these curves across distinct receptors – may in fact rely more fundamentally on maintaining activity levels in optimal regimes. To explore the effect of tuning curve shape and diversity on decoding fidelity, we first assume that all receptors exhibit identical, narrow tuning curves, $\mu_{\rho} \equiv \mu_{[\rho]}$ and $\sigma_{\rho} \equiv \sigma_{[\rho]}$, where $\sigma_{[\rho]} \sim 0.01$. We optimize the decoding error over $\mu_{[\rho]}$, using two separate metrics: the percentage of accurately estimated nonzero components, as well as the percentage of properly estimated zero components (see Materials and Methods).

Receptor diversity.

Insensitivity to background w/ Gaussian K?.

blh. asd

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Fig. 1. Placeholder image of a frog with a long example caption to show justification setting.

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= $(x+y)(x^2 + 2xy + y^2)$
= $x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^3 + x^3$. [9]

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Table 1. Comparison of the fitted potential energy surfaces and ab initio benchmark electronic energy calculations

Species	CBS	CV	G3
Acetaldehyde	0.0	0.0	0.0
2. Vinyl alcohol	9.1	9.6	13.5
3. Hydroxyethylidene	50.8	51.2	54.0

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