

Neural detection of gases – carbon dioxide, oxygen – in vertebrates and invertebrates

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Carbon dioxide (CO₂) and oxygen (O₂) are important cues that can signal the presence of food, predators, and environmental stress. Here we will review recent studies on the mechanisms of how the olfactory system detects these two molecules. In both vertebrates and invertebrates, the two molecules are detected by subsets of specialized olfactory neurons. In addition, the signal transduction cascades for sensing these two gases appear to be different from those for sensing typical odorants. CO₂ and O₂ signals can evoke stereotypical innate behaviors such as attraction and avoidance in many animal species. Future studies on the neural pathways underlying CO₂ and O₂ sensing may shed light on the circuit mechanisms of these behaviors.

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Introduction

The olfactory system of both vertebrates and invertebrates can detect numerous small volatile chemicals in the air. In the last two decades dramatic progresses have been achieved on our understanding of the molecular and cellular mechanisms of olfactory sensing. Studies in last five years provide major insights on how the olfactory systems detect two interesting gas molecules: carbon dioxide (CO₂) and oxygen (O₂). CO₂ is one of the major byproducts of cellular metabolism. Its concentration is low at atmospheric background levels (~0.038%) but can fluctuate dramatically because of the activity of organisms, such as animal respiration and the decomposition of organic material. CO₂ can thus serve as a valuable environmental cue. For example, floral CO₂ indicates food-source profitability for the hawkmoth *Manduca sexta* [1]. Although CO₂ is odorless to humans, it

is now known to be detected by the olfactory system of mammals, insects, and worms. In addition, CO₂ can elicit a variety of innate behaviors such as avoiding stressful environment and locating food source [1,2^{••},3^{••},4[•]]. Maintaining appropriate O₂ levels is important for animal survival. Although O₂ levels are rather constant in the air (~20%), they can be quite variable in soil, the natural habitat of nematode worms. Studies have shown that *Caenorhabditis elegans* can sense different O₂ levels and adapt their behaviors accordingly [5^{••},6[•],7].

A common feature revealed by recent studies is that atmospheric CO₂ and O₂ are detected by subsets of specialized sensory neurons. Mice detect CO₂ by a population of olfactory sensory neurons (OSNs) that project to the necklace glomeruli in the olfactory bulb [3^{••},8]. Insects such as fruit flies and moths detect CO₂ via a single class of OSNs on the antenna that project to one single, identified glomerulus in the antennal lobe (AL) [2^{••},9]. Acute CO₂ avoidance in *C. elegans* depends on the activity of the paired BAG neurons in the head [4[•]]. Recent studies reveal that O₂ fluctuations are detected by BAG and URX neurons in *C. elegans* [10^{••},11]. These cellular and genetic studies have revealed unique receptors and intracellular signaling cascades for CO₂ and O₂ sensing and thus enriched our understanding of the complexity of the olfactory system. Additionally, the identification of defined subsets of neurons mediating behaviors triggered by these two gas molecules may contribute to future studies on the neural circuits underlying some important behaviors.

CO₂ sensing by the vertebrate olfactory system

For decades it had remained unclear whether the mammalian olfactory system can sensitively detect atmospheric CO₂. CO₂ has no odor quality to humans [12]. Most human subjects do not report any clear olfactory sensation even when they are challenged with CO₂ pulses at the concentration of 30%. CO₂ at higher concentrations produces a pungent, painful sensation that is mediated by the trigeminal system rather than the olfactory system [12,13]. However, some early studies did suggest that some vertebrates may be able to detect CO₂ through their noses. For example, an early psychophysical study shows that rats can detect CO₂ at ~0.5% [14], which is well below the typical CO₂ concentrations that produce a trigeminal sensation in humans. In addition, 0.5–1% CO₂ evokes field potentials in the olfactory epithelium of both bullfrogs and rats [15,16]. CO₂-evoked physiological responses in

bullfrogs can be abolished by blocking the enzymatic activity of carbonic anhydrase with acetazolamide, suggesting that carbonic anhydrase may be critical for CO₂ sensing [17].

Our recent study demonstrates that CO₂ can be sensitively detected by mice and this detection is carried out by the necklace olfactory subsystem [3^{••}]. We showed that carbonic anhydrase-2 (CAII) is richly expressed in a small subset of neurons (~1% of total) that also express guanylyl cyclase-D (GC-D) and phosphodiesterase 2A (PDE2A). These OSNs project their axons to the necklace glomeruli — a set of interspersed glomeruli that form the shape of a ‘necklace’ at the caudal end of the main olfactory bulb (MOB) [8,18–20] (Figure 1a). Because carbonic anhydrase is implicated in CO₂ sensing [16,21], we tested whether GC-D⁺ neurons can respond to CO₂ by carrying out calcium imaging and targeted electrophysiological recordings from the GC-D⁺ neurons *in vitro*. GC-D⁺ cells were strongly activated by CO₂, but GC-D⁻ neurons were not [3^{••},22^{*}]. Physiological recordings *in vivo* further revealed that bulbar neurons associated with the necklace glomeruli respond to external CO₂ sensitively at concentrations as low as 0.1% [3^{••}]. By performing behavioral assays using a go/no-go paradigm, we found that mice can be trained to detect CO₂ and that their detection threshold is ~0.066%, which is very close to the atmospheric background CO₂ level (0.038%). CAII mutant mice cannot detect CO₂ but can sense typical odorants without any obvious deficits [3^{••}]. In contrast, CNGA2-knockout mice, which are largely anosmic to typical odorants, can detect CO₂ normally [3^{••}]. These results together support the conclusion that mice detect CO₂ sensitively through the necklace olfactory pathway.

Several questions remain unanswered. First, how are CO₂ signals integrated with typical olfactory signals in the olfactory bulb? Second, what are the projection targets in downstream pathways that receive input from mitral/tufted cells associated with the necklace glomeruli? In addition, what is the exact function of CO₂ sensing in natural environment? One study suggests that GC-D⁺ neurons may also respond to guanylin and uroguanylin [23], two gut peptides that have been traditionally considered ligands of GC-C [24]. A recent study indicates that the necklace glomeruli also receive input from GC-D⁻ OSNs [25]. Therefore, it is possible that bulbar neurons associated with the necklace glomeruli may respond to odorants as well. Additionally, through intrabulbar circuitry, CO₂ may modulate the olfactory responses of bulbar neurons that are not directly associated with the necklace glomeruli. Thus, it will be interesting to test whether CO₂ signals are combined with some specific olfactory signals, including peptides, to regulate behavior. In a T-maze assay we found that CO₂ is an avoidance cue [3^{••}]. Local CO₂ levels can be elevated by food, predators, or other conspecific individ-

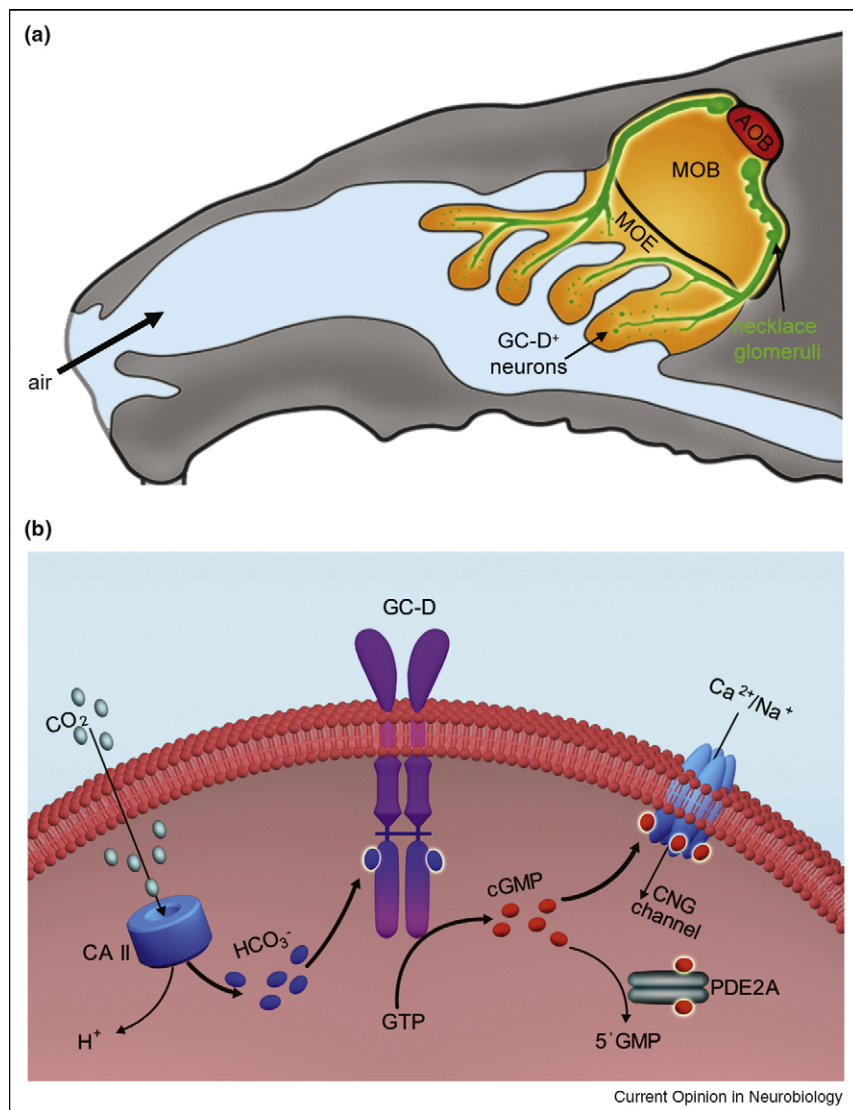
uals. Thus CO₂ cues may be combined with olfactory cues in these contexts to regulate animal behavior.

What are the molecular and cellular mechanisms of CO₂ sensing in mammals? Typical odorants are detected by a large set of G-protein-coupled odorant receptors (GPCRs), which are encoded by over 1000 genes in rodents [26,27]. The binding of odorous ligands to odorant receptors on the ciliary membrane of OSNs leads to the activation of G $\alpha_{s,olf}$ and rapid stimulation of type III adenylyl cyclase (ACIII) to produce cAMP, which in turn opens the cyclic nucleotide-gated (CNG) cation channels and depolarizes OSNs [28]. GC-D⁺ OSNs, however, lack many of these signaling components found in canonical OSNs. GC-D⁺ OSNs are not known to express any odorant receptors. In addition, they do not express G $\alpha_{s,olf}$, ACIII, and the CNGA2 subunit, all of which are richly expressed in canonical OSNs [29]. In contrast, they express GC-D, cGMP-stimulated PDE2A [18,19]. In addition, the CNG channels in GC-D⁺ neurons contain CNGA3 subunit and are much more sensitive to cGMP than to cAMP, suggesting that the CO₂ responses of GC-D⁺ OSNs may involve cGMP as a second messenger [29].

Our findings that CO₂ responses require the enzymatic activity of CAII suggest that CO₂ is converted to bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) and protons (H⁺) and that one or both of these metabolites trigger intracellular signal cascades [3^{••}]. Recent biochemical assays from our group and the group led by Xin-Yun Huang revealed that bicarbonate can activate GC-D to produce cGMP [22^{*},30^{*}]. Finally, our imaging and pharmacological experiments suggest that CO₂ responses require the opening of cGMP-sensitive CNG channels [3^{••}]. These results lead us to propose a model of signal transduction cascades for CO₂ sensing by GC-D⁺ neurons (Figure 1b). On the basis of this model, CO₂ diffuses across cell membranes and is converted by CAII to bicarbonate and proton. Bicarbonate activates GC-D to produce cGMP, which in turn opens cGMP-sensitive CNG channels to depolarize GC-D⁺ cells. This model suggests that CO₂ is sensed by mechanisms substantially different from those of typical odorants. The model can be further substantiated in future work by studying the behavioral and physiological effects of both GC-D-knockout mice and CNGA3-knockout mice. Since biochemical studies indicate that GC-D can be activated by uroguanylin [31], the effects of uroguanylin on CO₂ sensing should also be addressed.

Because GC-D is a pseudogene in humans [32], this model provides an attractive explanation for why humans lack the ability to detect low concentrations of CO₂ via the olfactory system. Further, a recent bioinformatic study revealed that the GC-D gene became nonfunctional early in primate evolution [33^{*}], suggesting that CO₂ sensing ability might be lost in most of primates. Nevertheless, the fact that carbonic anhydrase is expressed in the OSNs of

Figure 1



Mechanisms of CO_2 sensing in mammals. **(a)** In mice, CO_2 is detected by a subset of OSNs that express GC-D (GC-D⁺ neurons, green) and project their axons to the necklace glomeruli at the caudal end of the olfactory bulb. MOE, main olfactory epithelium; MOB, main olfactory bulb; AOB, accessory olfactory bulb. **(b)** Cellular mechanisms of CO_2 sensing in mammals. CAII, GC-D, PDE2A, and cGMP-sensitive CNG channels are coexpressed in GC-D⁺ OSNs. We hypothesize that after CO_2 diffusion into cells, CAII catalyzes the conversion of CO_2 into bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) and H^+ . Bicarbonate in turn activates GC-D to produce cGMPs, which then open CNG channels and depolarize the cell.

amphibians, reptiles, and many mammals suggests that CO_2 is sensitively detected by many vertebrates [3^{••},16].

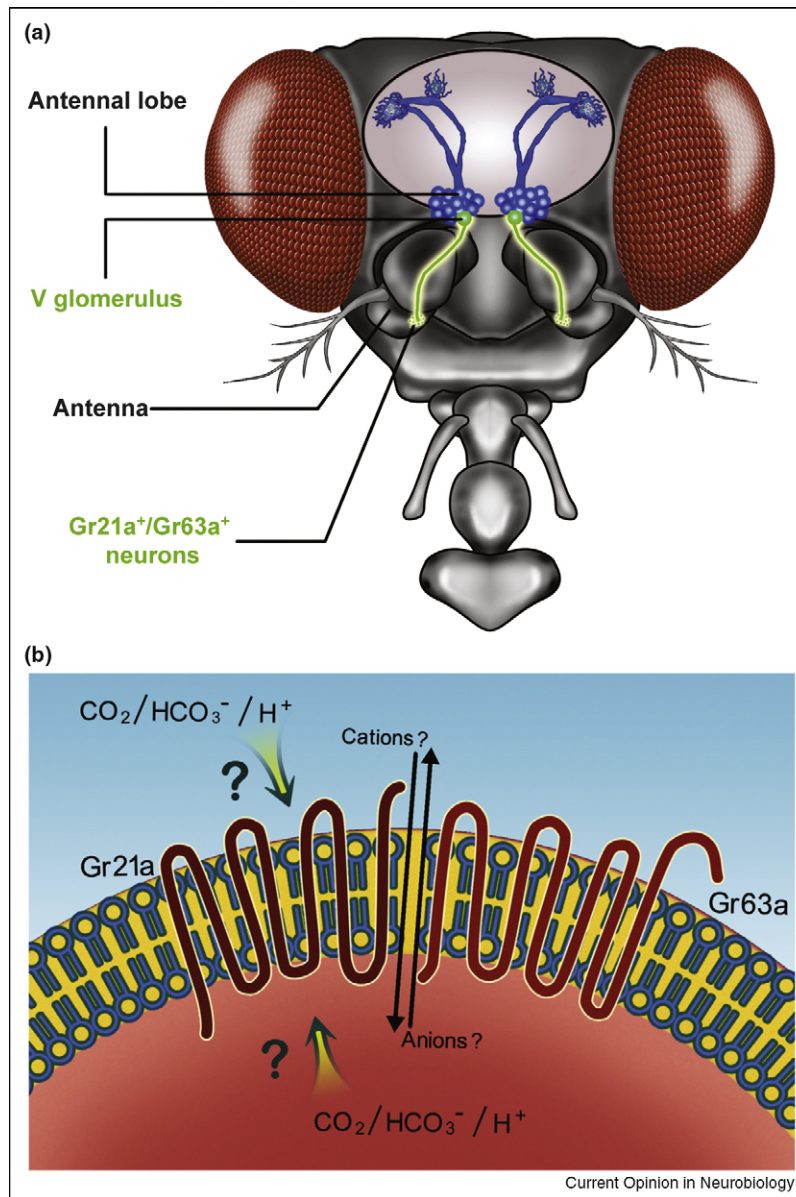
CO_2 sensing by the invertebrate olfactory system

As in mammals, CO_2 is detected by a subset of specialized OSNs in insects. In the moth *M. sexta*, CO_2 -responsive OSNs are located in the labial-palp pit organ (LPO) [34]. These neurons extend their axons to the LPO glomerulus in the AL [9,34], the counterpart of the mammalian olfactory bulb. The anatomical position and central projection patterns of CO_2 receptor neurons of mosquitoes

share many characteristics with those of the moth [35]. OSNs in the LPO respond to CO_2 at levels as low as 0.03%. They are not activated by typical odorants, suggesting that they are dedicated to sensing atmospheric CO_2 [34]. Unlike to odorants, the responses to CO_2 by both LPO OSNs and AL neurons associated with the LPO glomerulus do not adapt to chronic stimulation by CO_2 [9,34].

CO_2 is a key constituent of chemicals released by stressed fruit flies [2^{••}]. *Drosophila melanogaster* avoids CO_2 at levels as low as 0.1% [2^{••}]. Using two-photon imaging

Figure 2



Mechanisms of CO₂ sensing in insects. **(a)** In *Drosophila*, CO₂ is detected by a small subset of OSNs that express both GR21a and GR63a (GR21a⁺/GR63a⁺ neurons, green) and project to the V glomerulus. ANT, antenna. **(b)** In *Drosophila*, Gr21a and Gr63a are critical for CO₂ sensing. These two genes encode membrane proteins that may form CO₂-gated channels, although it remains unclear whether the binding of CO₂ occurs extracellularly or intracellularly or even whether CO₂ or some other metabolite such as bicarbonate or H⁺ constitutes the true ligand for this receptor complex (question marks).

with the Ca²⁺-sensitive fluorescent protein G-CaMP, this study further shows that CO₂-responsive OSNs in the antenna and AL neurons associated with their projection targets, the V glomerulus, are activated by CO₂ (Figure 2a) [2^{••}]. Moreover, these neurons are not activated by any other odorants tested, suggesting that they are dedicated to CO₂ detection [2^{••},36]. When ChannelRhodopsin-2 is expressed in CO₂-responsive neurons, photostimulation produces similar avoidance behavior,

strongly suggesting that the CO₂-responsive neurons in *Drosophila* provide a simple and genetically tractable system to dissect the neural circuits that translate a specific sensory signal into an avoidance response [37[•]]. Interestingly, a subset of fly taste receptors on the proboscis labellum also responds to carbonated water, indicating that CO₂ or bicarbonate might have taste quality in addition to an olfactory quality senses by the antenna [38].

What is the molecular identity of olfactory CO₂ receptors in insects? In *Drosophila*, CO₂ responses of OSNs projecting to the V glomerulus require the coexpression of a pair of membrane receptors, *Gr21a* and *Gr63a* (Figure 2b) [39^{••},40[•]]. Ectopic expression of these two receptors in other OSNs confers CO₂-responsiveness to these cells [39^{••},40[•]]. Similarly, mosquito CO₂ responses require the coexpression of two homologous receptors, *GPRGR22* (*AgGR22*) and *GPRGR24* (*AgGR24*) [39^{••},41]. Because many insect pests use CO₂ for host-seeking, the identification of these CO₂ receptors may facilitate efforts of discovering compounds for blocking CO₂ sensing.

Recent studies indicate that the detailed mechanisms of odorant detection in the insect antenna can be quite different from those in the mammalian olfactory epithelium. In mammals, odorants are detected by odorant GPCRs. However, Compelling evidences indicate that the insect olfactory receptors are heteromeric ligand-gated ion channels [42^{••},43^{••}]. For example, pentyl acetate, a ligand of the *Drosophila* odorant receptor *OR47a*, can directly evoke electric currents from heterologous cells coexpressing *OR47a* and *Or83b* [42^{••},43^{••}]. The fact that other insect odorant receptors are ionotropic receptors [42^{••},43^{••}] raises the intriguing possibility that the olfactory CO₂ receptors in insects share the same ionotropic coupling mechanism. However, it remains unclear whether CO₂ acts on the extracellular domains or intracellular domains of these receptors. Additionally, it is unclear whether the responses are the direct results of CO₂ action or indirect action after CO₂ is converted into bicarbonate or H⁺ (Figure 2b).

Under natural conditions, the nematode *C. elegans* live in an environment with a broad range of CO₂ concentrations. Two recent studies report that CO₂ is an avoidance sensory cue for well-fed *C. elegans*, which avoid CO₂ levels above 0.5% [4[•],6[•]]. These two studies also show that such avoidance is modulated by metabolism and environmental contexts. Although the exact sensory neurons responding to CO₂ have not been identified, genetic analysis indicates that the BAG neurons are critical for CO₂-mediated avoidance behavior [4[•]]. In addition, acute CO₂ sensing requires a cGMP-sensitive heteromeric channel TAX-2/TAX-4 [4[•],6[•]]. A membrane guanylyl cyclase, DAF-11, is also essential [4[•]]. However, DAF-11 is not expressed within the BAG neurons [4[•],44]. It remains unclear whether DAF-11 or other membrane GCs in *C. elegans* can be activated by bicarbonate. Nevertheless, the fact that CO₂ responses in worms require membrane guanylyl cyclase and cGMP-gated CNG channels is reminiscent of the signaling transduction pathway in CO₂-responsive OSNs in mammals (Figure 1b). It will be interesting to test whether the mechanisms of CO₂ sensing are conserved between mammals and worms.

O₂ sensing by *C. elegans*

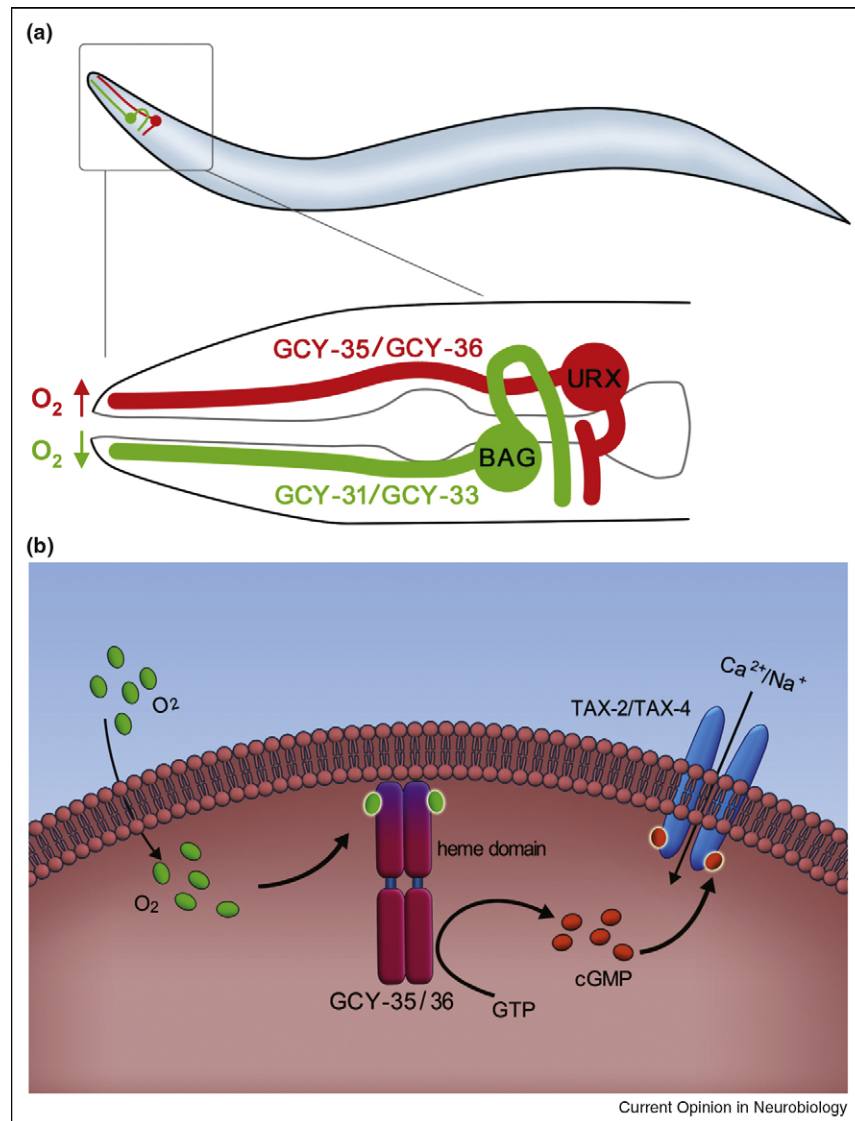
O₂ homeostasis is critical for an animal's survival. For mammals, internal blood O₂ level is believed to be detected by the carotid body [45]. For a vast majority of terrestrial animals, atmospheric O₂ concentrations are rather stable at high concentrations (~21%). However, nematode *C. elegans* live in natural environments that have dramatically variable O₂ levels. They exhibit a strong behavioral preference for 5–10% O₂, avoiding higher and lower O₂ levels [5^{••}]. Several recent studies have identified sensory neurons for O₂ and shed light on the molecular mechanisms underlying rapid O₂ sensation. URX and BAG neurons mediate the behavioral responses to O₂ upshifts and downshifts, respectively [5^{••},10^{••}] (Figure 3a). Consistently, calcium imaging revealed that URX neurons are rapidly activated by an upshift of O₂ levels to 15–21% [5^{••},10^{••},11], whereas BAG neurons are activated by a downshift to 4–10% O₂ [10^{••}]. Wild strains of *C. elegans* respond much more strongly when O₂ upshifts are simultaneously coupled to CO₂ downshifts [46^{••}]. As mentioned earlier, BAG neurons have been found to be critical for CO₂ sensing as well [4[•]], suggesting that they might be important for integrating CO₂ and O₂ signals to regulate CO₂-triggered avoidance behavior [6[•]].

Soluble guanylyl cyclases (sGCs) are important for O₂ sensing. Unlike conventional sGCs that are activated by nitric oxide, a separate class of atypical sGCs are rather insensitive to nitric oxide but are activated by O₂ [47]. These O₂-sensitive sGCs include Gyc-88E and Gyc-89D in *Drosophila* [47] and GCY-35, GCY-36, GCY-31, and GCY-33 in *C. elegans* [5^{••},10^{••},11,48]. More specifically, it has been shown that GCY-35/36 heterodimers in URX neurons are activated by O₂ upshift [10^{••},11], whereas GCY-31/33 heterodimers might respond to O₂ downshift [10^{••}]. Supporting this view, it has been found by biochemical assays that the heme domain of GCY-35 binds to O₂ molecules [5^{••}]. Although biochemical assays on the O₂ sensitivity of GCY-35/36 heterodimers have not yet been performed, current data support the hypothesis that the activation of GCY-35/36 by O₂ increases cGMP levels, which can in turn open the cGMP-gated channel TAX-2/TAX-4 (Figure 3b).

Interestingly, food context and naturally occurring genetic variation regulate the O₂ preference of *C. elegans* through NPY homolog, NPR-1 and the TGF- β homolog DAF-7 [6[•],7]. Two recent studies have also revealed that *glb-5*, which encodes a neuronal globin protein, acts in O₂-sensing neurons to modulate O₂-evoked calcium signals as well as behavioral responses [46^{••},49^{••}]. GLB-5 may be activated by varying O₂ and then modulate the components within the sGC signaling pathway [49^{••}].

In addition to rapid response to O₂, slower O₂ sensation of *C. elegans* is responsible for monitoring internal O₂ levels

Figure 3



Mechanisms of O₂ sensing in *C. elegans*. **(a)** URX neurons (red) and BAG neurons (green) detect O₂ upshift and downshift, respectively. The sGC genes expressed in each sensory neuron are indicated. This image is adopted from pictures kindly provided by M Zimmer. **(b)** A simplified schematic showing the cellular mechanisms of O₂ sensing by sensory neurons in *C. elegans*. O₂ may activate the sGC heterodimer GCY-35/36 to produce cGMPs, which in turn open the cGMP-sensitive channels TAX-2/TAX-4. Other components, such as NPR-1 and GLB-5, have also been implicated in O₂-evoked responses in these neurons.

to regulate metabolism and proliferation. Such slower sensation is mediated by hypoxia-inducible factor-1 (HIF-1) transcriptional pathway [6,50], which is also conserved in mammals [21].

Conclusion

In this review, we have summarized recent progresses in our understanding of neurobiological mechanisms of CO₂ sensing by the olfactory systems of both vertebrates and invertebrates. We also briefly reviewed recent studies on the mechanisms of O₂ sensing by nematode *C. elegans*. A common feature revealed by these studies is

that CO₂ as well as O₂ is detected by specialized subsets of sensory neurons. The intracellular signaling transduction cascades for CO₂ sensing in mammals are substantially different from those for sensing typical odors. Specifically, cGMP, rather than cAMP, appears to be the critical second messenger. Interestingly, CO₂ and O₂ sensing by *C. elegans* also depends on components of cGMP signaling. In contrast, CO₂ sensing of insects requires the coexpression of two receptors that may form ligand-gated channels. At the systems level, these two gas molecules mediate innate behaviors such as avoidance or attraction. The fact that they are detected by a

small subset of sensory neurons suggests that they may activate discrete neural circuits that mediate some easily quantifiable animal behaviors. Future studies on these neural circuits may have the exciting potential to reveal neural mechanisms of animal behavior at levels from genes to behaviors.

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