

Brief olfactory learning drives perceptive sensitivity in newborn rabbits: new insights in peripheral processing of odor mixtures and induction

Patricia Duchamp-Viret, Jiasmine Boyer, Florian La Villa, G. Coureaud

▶ To cite this version:

Patricia Duchamp-Viret, Jiasmine Boyer, Florian La Villa, G. Coureaud. Brief olfactory learning drives perceptive sensitivity in newborn rabbits: new insights in peripheral processing of odor mixtures and induction. Physiology & behavior, In press, 10.1016/j.physbeh.2020.113217. hal-03024396

HAL Id: hal-03024396 https://hal.science/hal-03024396

Submitted on 2 Dec 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	Brief olfactory learning drives perceptive sensitivity in newborn rabbits: new insights in
2	peripheral processing of odor mixtures and induction
3	
4	Patricia Duchamp-Viret*, Jiasmine Boyer, Florian La Villa, Gérard Coureaud*
5	
6	Lyon Neuroscience Research Center, CNRS UMR 5292 - INSERM U 1028 - Université Claude
7	Bernard Lyon 1, Centre Hospitalier Le Vinatier - Bâtiment 462 - Neurocampus
8	95 Boulevard Pinel, 69675 Bron Cedex, FRANCE
9	
10	
11	* Corresponding authors : patricia.viret@cnrs.fr ; gerard.coureaud@cnrs.fr
12	
13	ORCID ID
14	Patricia Duchamp-Viret : https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7730-266X
15	Gérard Coureaud: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6754-3884
16	
17	

18 Abstract

Perception of the wide, complex and moving odor world requires that the olfactory system 19 engages processing mechanisms ensuring detection, discrimination and environment 20 adaptation, as early as the peripheral stages. Odor items are mainly elicited by odorant mixtures 21 which give rise to either elemental or configural perceptions. Here, we first explored the 22 contribution of the peripheral olfactory system to configural and elemental perception through 23 odorant interactions at the olfactory receptor (OR) level. This was done in newborn rabbits, 24 which offer the opportunity to pair peripheral electrophysiology and well characterized 25 behavioral responses to two binary mixtures, AB and A'B', which differ in their component 26 27 ratio (A: ethyl isobutyrate, B: ethyl maltol), and that rabbit pups respectively perceived configurally and elementally. Second, we studied the influence on peripheral reactivity of the 28 brief but powerful learning of one mixture component (odorant B), conditioned by association 29 30 with the mammary pheromone (MP), which allowed us to assess the possible implication of the phenomenon called induction in neonatal odor learning. Induction is a plasticity mechanism 31 expected to alter both the peripheral electrophysiological responses to, and perceptual detection 32 threshold of, the conditioned stimulus. The results reveal that perceptual modes are partly 33 rooted in differential peripheral processes, the AB configurally perceived mixture mirroring 34 odorant antagonist interactions at OR level to a lesser extent than the A'B' elementally 35 perceived mixture. Further, the results highlight that a single and brief MP-induced odor 36 learning episode is sufficient to alter peripheral responses to the conditioned stimulus and 37 mixtures including it, and shifts the conditioned stimulus detection threshold towards lower 38 concentrations. Thus, MP-induced odor learning relies on induction phenomenon in newborn 39 rabbits. 40

41 Keywords

42 odor mixtures; configural perception; learning; peripheral processing; induction; newborn

43 **1. Introduction**

The world of scents is defined by a quasi-limitless number of odor molecules (odorants) and 44 their combinations in mixtures organisms have to deal with. Through behavioral and 45 psychophysical experiments, odor mixtures have been revealed as perceived in a non-linear 46 47 way since interactions between odorants such as synergy, overshadowing or masking may occur [1, 2] and find their origin, at least in part, at the olfactory system peripheral level [3, 4]. Indeed, 48 in the olfactory mucosa lie olfactory receptor neurons (ORNs) expressing olfactory receptors 49 (ORs), which are mainly weakly selective [5-7]. As a consequence, odorants in mixture 50 combine their simultaneous actions on multiple ORs, resulting in antagonist or agonist 51 52 interactions through competitive or non-competitive (allosteric) effects [8-12]. At the end of the integration process, certain of or all of the odorants that compose a mixture may be 53 perceived (elemental perception) or a new odor quality may arise, i.e., a configural odor quality 54 specific to the whole mixture and distinct from the element qualities (configural perception) 55 [13, 14]. These two modes may be shown as two poles defining the olfactory perception axis 56 along which there is a perceptive continuum, which goes through a dual perception of both 57 elements and configuration named weak configural perception [15]. 58

59 Strikingly, elemental and configural perceptions are both functional from early in life. Thus, 60 newborn rabbits perceive weak configurally a binary AB mixture of element A (ethyl isobutyrate) and B (ethyl maltol) [16-18], which is also perceived configurally in human adults 61 [e.g., 19] and adult mice [20]. The ratio of components is a crucial factor in this perception. 62 63 Indeed, the AB configural perception requires a 30/70 ratio of A/B (AB mixture) while a 68/32 ratio (A'B' mixture) elicits the AB elemental perception in newborn rabbits [21]; see [19] and 64 [20] for convergent results in humans and mice. While some neurophysiological corollaries of 65 AB and A'B' differentiated perceptions have been found in the newborn rabbit brain [22], the 66 question of the processing of these mixtures at the peripheral level and the contribution of this 67

68 level to elemental vs. configural perception has remained unexplored so far. The first aim of 69 the present study was to fill that gap in the newborn rabbit model, which offers the advantage 70 of being able to pair peripheral electrophysiology (e.g. [23, 24]) and well characterized 71 behavioral responses.

In olfaction, a major process that implements and modulates perception and contributes to 72 the immediate and long-term adaptation of organisms to their environment is plasticity, which 73 occurs from the peripheral captors. However, much attention has been paid to plasticity 74 mechanisms occurring in higher brain areas (i.e. [25-28]) and much less is known about 75 peripheral mechanisms. Perceptual olfactory plasticity, dealing with peripheral changes and 76 77 driven by experience, has been first described in human adults. Indeed, Wysocki and colleagues 78 have observed that when patients displaying androstenone specific anosmia were exposed to androstenone for some minutes, three times a day during six weeks, perception of this odorant 79 80 was restored [29]. These changes have been termed "experienced incidental induction" and because anosmia was suspected to result from a genetic deficit in peripheral captors, they have 81 82 been assigned to the olfactory system periphery. Repeated exposure to androstenone would result in sensitization of some olfactory receptor neurons (ORNs) equipped with androstenone-83 binding ORs. Such ORs would be initially at subthreshold density in anosmic patients and the 84 85 sensitization would increase their expression [29]. The periphery involvement has been supported in experiments reporting that chronic exposures to odorants increased the peripheral 86 olfactory responses (measured through electro-olfactograms, EOG) in anosmic mice and 87 88 humans [30, 31]. These results concerned with anosmic patients and animals have been then extended to normosmic ones. Subsequently, a body of experimental data, collected throughout 89 the animal kingdom (from insects to various vertebrates, including in humans) confirmed that 90 changes in peripheral reactivity can happened following odorant learning or exposure protocols; 91 such changes could result mainly in an increase [32-42] or sometimes in a decrease in responses 92

to target stimuli [43] (or even in no change [44,45]). In parallel with these changes, regulation
in the expression rate of some ORs [43, 46] or proteins involved in peripheral transduction [47]
has been reported.

Thus, the analysis of the literature currently leads to consider induction as a generic 96 phenomenon, with a "positive side" (enhancement of olfactory abilities) that would mainly 97 occur after discontinuous exposure and/or conditioning, whereas passive and continuous 98 exposure to odor cues would rather reveal a "negative side" (loss in olfactory reactivity or 99 habituation). From the mechanistic perspective, induction would quantitatively and/or 100 qualitatively alter the expression of peripheral captors (ORs) leading to an optimized peripheral 101 102 tuning, without ceasing to favor the detection of new odors [48, 49]. Importantly, in conjunction 103 with the peripheral effect, induction is considered to impact the olfactory perceptual detection threshold [29]. This aspect is unfortunately weakly documented, although it directly links 104 105 peripheral processing and perceptual/behavioral performances.

In the context of induction, newborn rabbits constitute a relevant model to study to what 106 extent the induction phenomenon is involved in learning-induced plasticity in a newborn 107 mammal, an issue that has never been addressed to date. This constituted the second aim of our 108 109 study. Rabbit neonates can indeed learn a new stimulus (odorant or odor mixture) after a 110 remarkably powerful (unique, extremely rapid < 5 min) associative conditioning promoted by the mammary pheromone (MP) (e.g., [16, 22, 50]), a signal naturally emitted by all lactating 111 females in their milk and used spontaneously by pups to localize the nipples and suck (e.g., [50, 112 113 51]). Twenty-four hours after the conditioning, rabbit pups display in response to the CS the typical orocephalic behavior usually triggered by the MP itself. Thus, in close conjunction with 114 115 our analysis of the peripheral responses to mixtures vs. mixture components, we therefore tested induction by exploring in naive vs. conditioned pups the two criteria changes observed in 116 humans [29], i.e., the consequences of MP-induced conditioning for odorant B (contained in 117

the AB and A'B' mixtures) on CS electrophysiological responses (EOG) and detectionthreshold of this odorant.

120

121 **2. Methods**

122 *2.1. Animals*

New-Zealand rabbit pups (Charles River strain, France) originated from the breeding 123 124 facility of IUT Feyssine (Université Lyon 1, France). Adult males and females were housed individually in cages under constant 12:12 light-dark cycle (light on at 7 am), temperature (21-125 22°C) and ad libitum access to food and water. Nest boxes were fixed to the housing cages of 126 127 pregnant does two days prior to parturition, to allow nest building. The day of birth was designated as postnatal day 0. To equalize the time of mother-young interaction, females were 128 allowed access to the nest box only once a day for 15 min at 11:30 am. This short daily period 129 130 of nursing respected the natural rhythm of maternal visits [52]. A total of 239 pups aged 2-4 days from 56 litters were used in this study, 84 for electrophysiological recordings (38 naive, 131 46 conditioned) and 155 for behavioral procedures. All experiments were performed in 132 accordance with ethic rules enforced by French law and were approved by the ethical committee 133 of Lyon 1 University (CEEA-55) and the French Ministry of Higher Education and Research 134 135 under the no. 9745.

136

137 *2. Stimuli*

The stimuli were the mammary pheromone (MP; 2-methylbut-2-enal; CAS# 497-03-0), ethyl isobutyrate (odorant A; CAS# 97-62-1), ethyl maltol (odorant B; CAS# 4940-11-8), and their mixtures (all the odorants were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich; Saint-Quentin-Fallavier, France). The latter were AB (30/70 ratio), which was reported as generating a configural perception of a pineapple odor in human adults (e.g., [19, 53]), adult mice [20], and weak configural perception in newborn rabbits (e.g., [16-18, 22]), and A'B' (68/32 ratio), which
generates elemental perception in both human adults [19, 53], mice [20] and newborn rabbits
(e.g., [16-18, 22]).

For each odorant, stock solutions were prepared at 10^{-2} v/v, first in ethanol and then in successive dilutions in distilled water (ethanol: 0.01% in stock solutions; this solvent has been demonstrated as behaviorally neutral for rabbit pups, see [16]). To induce the associative learning of odorant B, MP was used as unconditioned stimulus at 10^{-5} g/ml (as previously validated (e.g., [16, 17, 22, 50]). The MP-B blend was prepared from 10^{-2} g/ml stock-solutions of each component in distilled water, with a final concentration of 10^{-5} g/ml of MP and B at a 50/50 ratio.

In animals dedicated to the behavioral paired with electrophysiological recordings, two groups were formed, each of which was stimulated with one or the other set of stimuli detailed in Table 2. The two series of stimuli included A, B, AB and MP (AB series) or A', B', A'B' and MP (A'B' series).

In rabbit pups devoted to the behavioral threshold determination, the conditioned odorant B was tested at concentrations ranging from 10^{-5} to 10^{-22} g/ml in 9 distinct groups (successive dilutions in distilled water; Table 1).

160

161 *3. Odor conditioning*

162 Conditioning sessions were run on postnatal days 1, 2 or 3 in an experimental room 163 close to the breeding room of the animal unit. They occurred 1h before the daily nursing (10:30 164 a.m.) to equalize the pups' motivational state and limit the impact of satiation on responses [54]. 165 The pups were transferred by groups of 5/litter into a box maintained at room temperature. The 166 MP-induced conditioning was then run following a procedure previously validated (e.g. [16, 17, 22, 50]). Briefly, 6 ml of the B + MP blend were pipetted on a 10 x 15 cm cotton pad, which was held 2 cm above the pups for 5 min. One minute after the end of conditioning, the pups
were individually marked and returned to their nest. Each procedure was run on 3 or 4
pups/litter; to avoid litter effect, only 1 or 2 of these pups were finally used for testing.

171

172 *4. Behavioral assay*

The behavioral assay consisted of an individual oral activation test previously validated 173 (e.g. [16, 17, 21, 22, 50, 51]). Briefly, each pup was gently maintained in one gloved hand of 174 the experimenter, allowing only head movements; with the other hand, the experimenter 175 presented the olfactory stimulus for 10 sec on the tip of a glass rod 0.5 cm in front of the nares. 176 177 The test was positive when the stimulus induced the on/off typical orocephalic response, i.e., head-searching usually followed by oral grasping movements. Spontaneously, this response is 178 highly selective, meaning that naive animals respond only to the MP. In our three procedures 179 180 involving behavior, each pup was tested with a maximum of 6 stimuli with an inter-trial interval of 60 sec. The order of stimuli presentation was counterbalanced from one to another pup 181 (except for the MP presentation which always occurred last, as a control). If a pup responded 182 to a stimulus, its nose was softly dried before the next stimulation. The pups were immediately 183 reintroduced to their nest after testing. To minimize litter effects, each group was drawn from 184 185 several litters, with a maximum of 5 pups tested per litter.

186 *4.1. Procedure 1 - Behavioral test before electrophysiology: pre-recording test*

The naive animals were all tested with the 3 odor stimuli from either the AB or A'B' series (Table 2), and systematically to the MP in order to assess that they did not respond spontaneously to unfamiliar stimuli but to the MP. The conditioned animals were tested to the same stimuli as the naive pups, 24h after odor learning, to determine the effectiveness of the conditioning to B. All the animals were tested at 8:00 a.m., i.e., at least 30 min before the beginning of electrophysiological recordings. Importantly, the same series was then used forthe electrophysiological recordings.

194 4.2. Procedures 2 and 3 - Behavioral test for detection threshold determination

We distinguished two procedures that used the same oral activation test in order to evaluate first the spontaneous detection threshold (ST) of naive animals to odorant B, and second the detection threshold to B after conditioning (CT) to that odorant.

Determining the spontaneous threshold to B was challenging due to the absence of spontaneous behavioral response to that odorant in rabbit pups. Our strategy consisted in a "learning failure" approach meaning that we determined the concentration level at which odorant B could not be learned anymore. Thus, 7 groups of 1- or 2-day-old pups (15 newborns/group; n total = 105) were conditioned with the MP at 7 decreasing concentrations of B from 10^{-10} to 10^{-21} g/ml (one concentration/group). All the pups were then orally tested the day after at B 10^{-5} g/ml.

Regarding the post-conditioning threshold to B, 2 groups of 2-day-old pups (n = 25/group) were conditioned to B at 10^{-5} g/ml by pairing with the MP, then tested 24h later either to B at 10^{-5} , 10^{-10} , 10^{-15} , 10^{-19} and 10^{-20} g/ml or at 10^{-5} , 10^{-17} , 10^{-21} and 10^{-22} g/ml, and systematically to MP 10^{-5} g/ml.

209

210 *5. Electrophysiology*

The electrodes were homemade silver wire ended with a silver ball plated with AgCl (200-500 μ m diameter, impedance $\leq 100 \text{ k}\Omega$). Each electrode was connected to an amplifier (WPI, DAM80, amplifier, DC, gain 1000), the output signal of which was connected to a computer via an acquisition card (analog to digital interface). The three electrodes were placed on the surface of the mucosa using micromanipulators, each on a turbinate. The electrodes were always placed in the distal part of the turbinates (Figure 1a). However, because the precision of

these locations cannot be based on any coordinate and animals naturally presented variations in 217 218 morphology (size, inclination and proximity of the turbinates to a greater or lesser extent), this choice was only intended to standardize the measurements without any chemotopic information 219 being derived from them; knowing that the existence of chemotopy has not yet been proven. 220 221 Recording visualization and acquisition were made on-line using homemade Neurolabscope© software. Data analysis was made off-line through a python script designed by S. Garcia 222 223 (CRNL, Lyon). Recordings are illustrated in Figure 1, which shows three simultaneously recorded EOGs (raw signals) from the three turbinates and details the amplitude measure. 224

225

226 6. Olfactory stimulation

227 The olfactory stimuli were delivered in gas phase through an olfactometer derived from a previous version [3]. The gaseous phase of odorants was however sucked off from vial by 228 229 bubbling 200 ml of odorized solution instead of U-shaped tubes filled with absorbent pellets. This ensured that electrophysiological recordings were done by using exactly the same stimulus 230 concentrations as those used in previously published and the present behavioral experiments. 231 The stimulation consisted of 0.35 sec square pulses at an 80 ml/sec flow rate. The protocol 232 233 consisted of delivering the same stimulus 3 times successively at 1-min intervals; the 3 234 measures being averaged.

235

236 7. Statistical analyses

237 7.1. Behavioral data

Proportions of pups responding behaviorally were compared using the Cochran's Q test when the data were dependent (i.e., pups from the same group tested for their response to the three stimuli) or the χ^2 test of Pearson (with Yates correction when necessary) when the data were independent (i.e., distinct groups tested for their response to the same stimulus). When the Cochran's Q test was significant, proportions of responding pups were compared 2x2 by the χ^2 test of McNemar. Degrees of freedom are indicated when > 1. Data were considered as significant when the two-tailed tests yielded p < 0.05. Analyses were made with Statistica software (StatSoft, Tulsa, OK, USA).

246 7.2. Electrophysiological data

A total of four sets of data were gathered: two sets from naive and two sets from 247 conditioned animals, each of which was stimulated by either the AB or the A'B' series. Mean 248 EOG amplitudes were compared inside each data set using non parametric paired-Friedman 249 test. Then, a Mann-Whitney post hoc paired test was used to compare stimuli by pair. For the 250 comparison between naive and conditioned groups, the same tests were used but for unpaired 251 252 data. The frequency of occurrence of each stimulus as being the least and the most effective within the naive and conditioned animals were tested with the χ^2 test (comparison of k 253 proportions) and Monte Carlo method (distribution of the χ^2 distance based on simulations with 254 255 the total number of observations for the k groups, followed by the Marascuilo procedure, which carries out to the pairwise comparisons (XLSTAT software, Microsoft, Redmond, USA). The 256 same tests were used to compare, for each stimulus, its occurrence as being the least and the 257 most effective stimulus in naive vs. conditioned pups. 258

259

260 **3. Results**

261 *3.1. Peripheral processing of odorants and mixtures*

262 3.1.1. Naive animals: spontaneous behavior and peripheral processing

From the 38 pups assigned to the naive group, 31 gave exploitable records, 5 did not and 2 were discarded because they did not respond to MP in the pre-recording behavioral test. Among the 31 recorded pups, 15 were stimulated with the stimulus series AB comprising A, B, AB and MP, while the remaining 16 pups were stimulated with the A'B' series including A', B', A'B' and MP. The behavioral pre-recording test showed that all pups responded positively to the MP, and none to the other odorants (in each series Q > 40, p < 0.001 and $\chi^2 > 13$, p < 0.001 for global and 2x2 comparisons) (Figure 2; for simplification, results of the two series have been pooled in the Figure).

The mean EOG amplitudes recorded in naive pups in response to the two-stimulus series are shown in Figure 3. For the AB series, regardless of the stimulus, EOGs recorded in turbinate 1 (T1) were statistically smaller than those recorded in T2 and T3 (Friedman test, p = 0.007, T1 vs. T2: p < 0.0001, T1 vs. T3: p = 0.002). For the A'B' series, no statistical differences were observed between the three turbinates.

In the AB series (Figure 3a), the MP induced the largest response in T2 (Wilcoxon: $0.04 \le p \le 0.06$) and one of the largest in T1 and T3. Responses to the AB configural mixture were not different from those of its components in T2-T3, lower than responses to A and MP in T1 (Wilcoxon: p = 0.042 and 0.037) and lower than response to MP in T2.

In the A'B' series (Figure 3b), the MP elicited one of the largest responses in T1 and the largest one in T2 and T3 (Wilcoxon: $0.0001 \le p \le 0.05$). By contrast, the elemental mixture A'B' elicited one of the lowest responses in T1 and T2. In particular, response to A'B' was lower than that to the single A' component (A'B' vs. A' in T1 and T2: p=0.002 and <0.001), despite the mixture concentration being very close to that of A'.

To sum up, regardless of the turbinates, the AB and A'B' mixtures spontaneously induced differential responses compared to their components: the AB mixture tended to trigger responses closer to its components than the A'B' mixture, which mostly induced lower responses than A'. Strikingly, the MP appeared in the two series as the most, or one of the most, powerful stimuli (despite a concentration lower than those of A, A', AB and A'B').

290

291 *3.1.2. Conditioned animals: post-learning behavior and peripheral processing*

From the 46 pups assigned to the conditioned group, 36 gave exploitable records, 3 did not and 7 were discarded because they failed to give clear behavioral responses to B (CS). Among these 36 newborn rabbits, 17 pups were stimulated with the AB series and 19 pups with the A'B' series. In terms of behavior, within the AB series, pups strongly responded to B (94.1%) and to the MP (100%) but not to A and AB (whole comparison: Q = 47, df = 3, p < 0.001; 2x2 comparisons between B or MP vs. A or AB: $\chi^2 > 14.06$, p < 0.001; B vs. MP: $\chi^2 < 0.5$, p > 0.05) (Figure 2; to simplify reading, responses of the two series were pooled in the Figure).

Within the A'B' series, a strong proportion of pups responded behaviorally to B (89.5%) and to the MP (100%) as for the AB series, but also to A'B' (84.2%); however, as for the AB series, the pups did not respond to A' (0%) (whole comparison: Q = 46, df = 3, p < 0.001; 2x2 comparisons between B or MP or A'B' vs. A': $\chi^2 > 14.06$, p < 0.001; B vs. MP or AB and MP vs. AB: $\chi^2 < 0.5$, p > 0.05) (Figure 2). Thus, as expected, conditioned pups responded behaviorally more to B and to A'B' than naive animals ($\chi^2 > 20.5$, p < 0.001 in the 2x2 comparisons between conditioned vs. naive pups) and as much to the MP (100%) (Figure 2).

The mean EOG amplitudes recorded in conditioned pups in response to the two-stimulus 306 series are shown in Figure 4. In the AB series (Figure 4a), EOGs' amplitudes recorded in T1 307 differed from those recorded in T2 and T3 (Friedman test, p < 0.0001, T1 vs. T2 and T1 vs. T3, 308 p < 0.001); T1 EOGs being lower regardless of the stimulus. In addition, T2 and T3 responses 309 differed too (Friedman, p = 0.024); noticeably in T2, B induced larger EOGs than in T3 310 (Wilcoxon, p = 0.041). In T2, A and B both elicited larger responses than AB (Wilcoxon, B > 311 312 AB, p = 0.008; A > AB, p = 0.001). In T3, odorant A, the odorant with the highest concentration, induced larger responses than AB (Wilcoxon, p = 0.003) and MP (Wilcoxon, p = 0.029). 313

In the A'B' series (Figure 4b), EOGs' amplitudes recorded in T1 differed from those recorded in T2 and T3 (Friedman, p < 0.001, T1 vs. T2 p < 0.0001; T1 vs. T3 p = 0.0002); T1 EOGs being lower regardless the stimulus. In T2, B' induced larger responses than A'B' and MP (B' 317 > A'B'; Wilcoxon, p = 0.028, B' > MP; Wilcoxon, p = 0.031). In T3, B' induced larger 318 responses than A'B' (Wilcoxon p = 0.037).

To sum up, regardless of the turbinates, after conditioning to the odorant B, the AB mixture triggered lower responses compared to A, while the A'B' mixture triggered responses that were close to those induced by its components. Strikingly, although the conditioned stimulus (B/B') was the lowest concentration stimulus, it triggered the largest or one of the largest responses.

323

324 *3.1.3. Comparison of EOG amplitudes in naive vs. conditioned animals*

Regarding the AB series (Figure 5a), in conditioned pups the response to B increased in T2 (p = 0.033) while the response to MP decreased in the three turbinates (p < 0.045). Regarding the A'B' series (Figure 5b), in conditioned pups the response to B' increased in T2 and T3 (p < 0.05) as well as the responses to A' and A'B' in T2 (p < 0.05 and < 0.01). In T1, the response to MP decreased in conditioned pups (p = 0.037).

Thus, the conditioning mainly impacted the responses to MP and B (B'): responses to MP decreased while those to B (B') increased, regardless of the stimulus series. However, the conditioning to B appeared to be more impacting on the responses to A'B' than to AB.

333

334 *3.1.4. Comparison of stimulus relative effectiveness in naive vs. conditioned animals*

Here, we addressed the question of the high variability in EOG amplitude for a same stimulus (from one recording site to another, from one nasal cavity to another and from one animal to another), by analyzing the differences in response between different stimuli in relative terms. To that end, based on their amplitude, the EOG responses were ranked from the lowest to the largest and the corresponding stimulus sequence was used to determine the least or the most effective stimuli; only the sets of recording comprising exploitable responses to the 5 stimuli (i.e., complete stimulus sequence) were taken into account. Doing so, we compared the occurrence of each stimulus as being the least and the most effective one, first, within the naive
and conditioned groups for the AB and A'B' series, respectively, and then between the two
groups.

345 *3.1.4.1. Occurrence of stimuli as least effective (Figure 6a)*

Within the AB-series naive animals (Figure 6a-left, grey bars), all stimuli occurred as the least effective with the same probability (p > 0.5). By contrast, within the A'B'-series naive animals (Figure 6a-right, grey bars) statistical differences appeared between stimuli (p < 0.0001, χ^2 and Monte Carlo method): the occurrence of A'B' differed from that of A' and MP, A'B' being most frequently the least effective stimulus (p < 0.05, pairwise comparisons by the Marascuilo procedure).

In conditioned animals, statistical differences existed in both stimulus series (χ^2 and Monte Carlo method; p < 0.0001). In the AB series (Figure 6a-left, black bars), the stimulus pairwise comparison (Marascuilo procedure) showed that AB and MP occurred more frequently as the least effective stimuli compared to A. In the A'B' series (Figure 6a-right, black bars), A' was most rarely observed as the least effective stimulus in comparison with B', A'B' and MP (p<0.05).

The comparisons between naive and conditioned groups showed that the occurrence of MP as the least effective stimulus increased from 28% to 43% (p < 0.05, in the AB series) and from 18% to 34% (p = 0.02; in A'B' series) in conditioned neonates. Comparatively, the occurrence of A'B' as the least effective stimulus decreased from 43% in naive pups to 29% in conditioned ones (p < 0.05, bilateral test of two proportions, confirmed with Monte-Carlo method).

363 *3.1.4.2. Occurrence of stimuli as most effective (Figure 6b)*

Within both naive and conditioned groups, and in both AB and A'B' series, stimuli differed in their occurrence as the most effective stimulus (p < 0.0001, χ^2 and Monte Carlo method). In the AB-series naive animals (Figure 6b-left, grey bars), MP and A significantly differed from B and AB (p < 0.05), and were most often the most effective stimuli. In the A'B'-series naive animals (Figure 6b-right, grey bars), MP and A' differed from B and A'B', and B differed from A'B' (p < 0.05). MP and A' were most often the most efficient stimuli especially compared to A'B', which never induced the largest EOGs.

In the AB-series conditioned animals (Figure 6b-left, black bars), A and B differed from AB (p < 0.05) and were the most effective stimuli. In the A'B'-series conditioned animals (Figure 6b-right, black bars), the odorants B, A' and MP were more frequently the most effective stimulus compared to A'B' (p < 0.05).

Comparisons between naive and conditioned pups showed that the occurrence of B as the most effective stimulus increased in conditioned vs. naive pups for both the AB and A'B' series (14 vs. 34 %. and 13 vs. 33% respectively; $p \le 0.002$ for the two groups). Furthermore, the occurrence of A'B' as the most effective stimulus increased from 1% to 15%, (p = 0.001). The opposite result was observed for MP after conditioning: its occurrence as the most effective stimulus decreased from 46 to 24% (p = 0.001).

381

To sum up, regardless of the AB and A'B' series, the comparison of relative effectiveness 382 between the stimuli showed that MP, the most effective stimulus in naive animals, lost this 383 384 status in conditioned pups: since, after conditioning its occurrence increased as the least effective stimulus, while simultaneously decreased as the most effective one. At the same time, 385 the frequency of odorant B (i.e., the conditioned stimulus) as the most effective stimulus, alone 386 387 (for the AB series) or in the elemental mixture A'B' (for the A'B' series), increased in conditioned animals, whereas the occurrence of B as the lowest effective cue did not change in 388 the two series. 389

390

391 *3.2. Detection threshold in naive and conditioned animals*

Our original assumption considered that MP-induced conditioning is based on induction. This assumption requires theoretically that some plasticity happens at the periphery of the olfactory system during/after the conditioning (see above), and also that the detection threshold of the conditioned stimulus is influenced by the conditioning. Here, we therefore determined the detection threshold of the odorant B, both before and after it has been learned by pairing with the MP.

398 *3.2.1 Spontaneous detection threshold of the odorant B*

Because rabbit pups did not respond spontaneously to B, the determination of B spontaneous 399 threshold (ST) could not be evidenced in really naive animals but in animals which failed to 400 401 learn. This issue was addressed by using decreasing concentrations of B paired with a constant concentration of MP, expecting that at a given concentration of B this odorant would cease to 402 be perceived and, therefore, would not be learned anymore. The ST was then set between the 403 404 last concentration of B supporting learning and the first concentration of B failing to induce it. We tested 105 pups divided in 7 groups. Each group was conditioned by pairing B at 10⁻⁵, 10⁻ 405 10 , 10⁻¹⁵, 10⁻¹⁷, 10⁻²⁰, 10⁻²¹ or 10⁻²² g/ml with MP at 10⁻⁵ g/ml. All the pups were tested 24h later 406 for their orocephalic response to B alone at 10^{-5} g/ml. 407

The results showed that differences existed in pup responsiveness to B depending on the 408 concentration of the odorant used during the conditioning (Q = 81.2, df = 7, p < 0.001) (Figure 409 7a). A strong and similar proportion of pups responded to B after conditioning at 10^{-5} , 10^{-10} and 410 10^{-15} g/ml (> 80%; $\chi^2 < 0.7$, p > 0.05 in all 2x2 comparisons) attesting that B was effectively 411 learned, i.e., that it was spontaneously perceived at these concentrations. The level of 412 responsiveness dropped dramatically between $10^{\text{-15}}$ and $10^{\text{-17}}$ g/ml (80 vs. 20%; χ^2 = 7.1, p <413 0.01) and then remained very low from $10^{\text{-}17}$ to $10^{\text{-}22}$ g/ml (<20%; χ^2 < 0.7, p > 0.05 in all 2x2 414 comparisons). 415

416 Thus, rabbit pups could not learn the odorant B when its concentration fell below 10^{-15} g/ml, 417 setting ST for this odorant between 10^{-15} and 10^{-17} g/ml in our conditions.

418 *3.2.2. Post-conditioning detection threshold of the odorant B*

To determine the detection threshold of odorant B after MP-induced conditioning 419 ("conditioned threshold", CT), two groups of 25 pups were conditioned to B 10⁻⁵ g/ml (paired 420 with MP 10⁻⁵ g/ml), then each tested 24h later to several concentration steps of B over a range 421 from 10⁻⁵ and 10⁻²² g/ml, and systematically to MP 10⁻⁵ g/ml in the end. In the two groups, the 422 responsiveness to B varied according to its concentration (Q < 73.1, df = 3 and 4, p < 0.001). 423 The proportion of responding pups was strong and similar to B from 10⁻⁵ to 10⁻¹⁹ g/ml 424 (> 80%; χ^2 < 3.2, p > 0.05 in all 2x2 comparisons) but it strongly decreased at 10⁻²⁰ g/ml (20%; 425 $\chi^2 > 16.05$, p < 0.001 in all 2x2 comparisons between 10⁻²⁰ vs. stronger concentration steps) 426 and then remained low or null until 10^{-22} g/ml (< 20%; χ^2 < 3.5, p > 0.05 in all 2x2 comparisons) 427 (Figure 7b). 428

Between the ST and CT determination procedures, no difference contrasted the pups' responsiveness to B at 10⁻⁵, 10⁻¹⁰, 10⁻¹⁵, 10⁻²⁰, 10⁻²¹ and 10⁻²² g/ml ($\chi^2 < 0.5$, p > 0.05 in all comparisons). Conversely, in the CT determination procedure, rabbit pups responded clearly more to B at 10⁻¹⁷ and 10⁻¹⁹ g/ml than in the ST determination procedure ($\chi^2 > 20.6$, p < 0.001 in the two comparisons).

Thus, after a single and brief conditioning to B at 10^{-5} g/ml, the conditioned threshold appeared to be set between 10^{-19} and 10^{-20} g/ml, i.e., 100 times lower than the spontaneous threshold.

437

438 **4. Discussion**

The present study provides original insights into the peripheral contribution to odor mixtures' perception, by focusing on the AB and A'B' mixtures initially characterized as 441 perceived configurally and elementally, respectively, in both human adults and newborn 442 rabbits, and also more recently in adult rodents [20]; this by using here the same concentrations 443 and ratios of components for acquisition of electrophysiological and behavioral data. At the 444 same time, the use of MP as a reference stimulus led us to observe the peripheral processing of 445 this pheromone. In addition, by assessing in parallel potential alterations of peripheral 446 electrophysiological activity and behavioral detection threshold, we tested whether the 447 induction phenomenon contributes to MP-induced odor learning in the newborn rabbit.

448

449 *4.1. Spontaneous peripheral processing of odor mixtures*

In this work, EOG measures have been done simultaneously from 3 turbinates and successively from the two nasal cavities of pups. This strategy primarily intended to optimize the number of measures and, as expected, no clear-cut chemotopic reactivity between turbinates and stimuli was evidenced; all stimuli induced EOG in the three turbinates. However, this does not mean that there is no differential sensitivity over the turbinates for the used stimuli, but establishing such a difference would require the use of ranges of concentrations for each. This was not the purpose of our work.

Regarding the AB mixture, the mean EOG response to AB was lower than to A in turbinate T1, but not different than those to A and B in T2 and T3, and close to MP, the most effective stimulus in T3. According to the relative comparison of effectiveness, AB was the least effective stimulus in 30% of cases (which is similar to its components, A and B), whereas it was the most powerful in 12% of cases (which is similar to B, only).

462 Compared to what happened with AB, the interactions between components seem to operate 463 differently regarding the A'B' mixture. In naive animals, A'B' responses were smaller than 464 those to A' in T1 and to the components in T2. When considering the relative effectiveness of stimuli, A'B' was the least effective stimulus in 44% of cases and the most effective stimulusin only 1%; such frequencies ranked it as the least effective of all the stimuli.

Mixture processing at the peripheral level is reported to as involving mainly suppressive 467 interactions between odorants, whether in binary [3, 4, 11, 55-57] or more complex mixtures 468 [58-60]. Moreover, such a predominance of suppressive interactions seems true whatever the 469 overlapping, or absence of overlapping ORs' assemblies activated by the odorants [60]. In line 470 471 with this, the responses to AB and A'B' both appeared as mainly resulting from suppressive interactions between the components. However, such interactions seem to be consistently 472 weaker in AB, which would involve either hypoadditive or at least less marked suppressive 473 474 interactions than A'B'. This result fits with some others gathered in adult rats, suggesting that AB involves hypoaddition, synergy and only then suppression, in descending order of 475 importance [61, 62 and personal observations]. Comparatively, the elemental A'B' mixture 476 477 would engage stronger suppressive interactions, as shown in rats for the elemental isoamyl acetate (ISO)/whiskey lactone (WL) mixture [4, 61]. Strikingly, both A'B' and ISO/WL 478 combine a high vapor pressure component (A' and ISO, respectively) with a low vapor pressure 479 one (B' and WL). Regarding the AB and A'B' concentrations, the high vapor pressure of A 480 means that in both AB (A/B ratio: 30/70) and A'B' (68/32), the odorants A and A' are largely 481 dominant in concentration: 1.23 x 10⁻⁶ and 16.16 x 10⁻⁶ mol/l, respectively, vs. 2.38 x 10⁻¹² 482 mol/l for B (and B'). Therefore, the theoretical concentrations of the mixtures are close to those 483 of A and A', while A'B' is about 5 times more concentrated than AB; thus, the higher the 484 485 concentration of A in mixture (A'B'), the stronger the suppressive interaction with B (and B'). Taken together, the results obtained in rabbit neonates here, and previous ones obtained in 486 adult rats, argue that the peripheral responsiveness to a mixture mainly results from suppressive 487 or antagonistic interactions, whatever the elemental or configural perceptual attributes of the 488 mixture. Additionally, our observations lead us to go further by suggesting that if A and B in 489

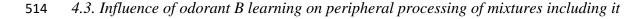
490 mixture mainly show negative interactions, these interactions are less marked in AB than A'B' 491 depending on the concentration of A/A' (which impacts *de facto* the ratio with B). The 492 observation that AB is perceived configurally, (even weakly) in rabbit pups, may lie in the fact 493 that A and B at the 30/70 ratio and current concentrations set in motion suppressive interactions 494 to a lesser extent than A' and B' do in the A'B' mixture. The reason why A'B' peripheral 495 responses would induce stronger inhibitory interaction than AB remains unknown. It could rely 496 on the higher concentration of A' and negative action of B/B' on OR responding to A' [57].

497

498 4.2. Conditioning impacts the peripheral processing of odorant B

In naive animals, as expected because it was the weakest concentrated stimulus in the AB 499 and A'B' series, odorant B induced the smallest or one of the smallest EOG responses. 500 However, B gained in effectiveness after conditioning, in T2 in the AB series' recordings and 501 in T2-T3 in the A'B' series. This gain was confirmed when considering the relative 502 503 effectiveness of B over the recorded sites: its occurrence as the most effective stimulus increased from 13 to 34%. Noteworthy here is that B learning contemporarily impacted the 504 505 relative effectiveness of MP in conditioned animals: indeed, the gain in B effectiveness led to 506 a loss of MP peripheral stimulating hegemony in favor of B.

The increase of peripheral responses to a conditioned stimulus, observed here in newborn rabbits, is in agreement with previous studies in adult rodents including peripheral recordings [30, 31, 35-37, 42] and optical imaging of olfactory bulb inputs [38, 63]. However, in rabbit neonates, it is remarkable that this gain observed at the periphery appeared after only a single and extremely brief conditioning episode (5 min), a result that highlights the rapidity of the physiological (i.e., cellular, molecular) mechanisms engaged in peripheral plasticity.



The conditioning to B enhanced the contrast between the AB and A'B' mixtures' peripheral 515 516 processing. Indeed, the mean response amplitude to A'B' was clearly increased in conditioned 517 vs. naive pups, which may mirror weaker suppressive interactions occurring between A' and B' after the conditioning. In parallel, in terms of relative efficacy, A'B' elicited less frequently 518 the lowest response (decreasing from 44 to 29%) and more the highest one (rising from 1 to 519 520 15%) in conditioned vs. naive animals. By contrast, responses to AB did not appear to be 521 influenced by B conditioning, neither through the comparison of the absolute mean amplitudes nor the relative effectiveness. Such a differential impact of B learning on peripheral 522 responsiveness to A'B' and AB further supports the different processing of these mixtures and 523 524 the particular (configural) perception of AB. It can be proposed that after learning, AB and A'B' mixtures faced a differently tuned population of ORs, at least in part. Indeed, odor learning 525 could have increased the expression of ORs presenting high affinity for B [29, 46]; this might 526 527 contribute to improving the peripheral processing of the elemental A'B' mixture by increasing the perceptual weight of B' (i.e., B) component. 528

These results from EOGs are fully consistent with those obtained in behavioral tests during which the pups conditioned to B responded to A'B' but not to AB. Interestingly, if a single conditioning to B does not alter the peripheral processing and configural perception of AB, it may already modulate the processing of A'B'. Along the same line, the observation that three or nine repeated conditionings to A or B alters the AB perception and leads rabbit pups to perceive the AB mixture more elementally [64] might also involve OR expression changes.

Altogether, the results highlighting that AB and A'B' are spontaneously processed differently at the periphery and differently influenced by the learning of B are fully in line with previous ones, which indicated the distinct processing of these mixtures both before and after learning at the olfactory bulb and piriform cortex brain levels in newborn rabbits [22].

540 4.4. Molecular and cellular mechanisms underlying peripheral plasticity and EOG alterations 541 The current observations of EOG alterations in response to B and to mixtures including B, after the brief B-learning could be supported by OR expression regulation. ORs are expressed in a 542 monogenic, monoallelic and seemingly stochastic location [65, 66]. Furthermore, it has been 543 544 reported that OR transcription (and then expression) can be induced by odorant stimulation, especially during ORN differentiation, but also in mature neurons, 545 thanks to de novo DNA methyltransferase [67]; this enzyme would be responsible for both repressive and 546 active transcriptional states within neurons, which generate the full set of gene responses 547 associated with neuronal plasticity. Regulation of specific ORs' expression have been observed 548 549 in honeybees in correlation with change in EAG (i.e., EOG in vertebrates; [43]) and with more central plasticity like long term memory [68, 69]. A role of down and up-regulations of ORs 550 would be to ensure that new floral scents are detected and would allow the honeybees to adapt 551 552 to their ever-changing scent environment [48, 49]. From a broader view, OR plasticity linked to olfactory environment influence appears a widespread phenomenon [46, 48, 49, 70, 71]. 553 Here, the increase of peripheral response to B supports a parallel increase of either the density 554 of ORs dedicated to B processing or of the number of ORNs expressing such ORs (mainly 555 556 through an activity dependent orientation in OR selection in newly mature ORNs, or both). The 557 reported results [63] that odorant exposure did not alter spatial pattern, peak magnitude, or odorant-selectivity of aldehyde-evoked OSN input to olfactory bulb glomeruli, but did alter the 558 temporal dynamics of that input, plead in favor of an increase of density of B sensitive ORs 559 560 expressed by ORNs spontaneously responsive to B.

561

562 *4.5. MP peripheral processing is spontaneously prioritized in rabbit neonates*

563 In a previous *ex vivo* study in rabbit pups, high concentrations of MP $(1.17 \times 10^{-5} \text{ and } 10^{-6} \text{ mol/l})$

induced large EOGs (up to 8 mV; [24]). Strikingly, here, despite the MP delivery at a lower

concentration (7.18 x 10^{-7} mol/l), which was ranked in the optimal concentration range known 565 566 to elicit behavioral responses [72], MP induced one of the largest, even the largest EOG in naive pups. This observation supports the conclusion that spontaneous peripheral processing of MP 567 is favored in rabbit neonates' olfactory mucosa, a result consistent with the crucial function of 568 this pheromonal signal in newborn rabbits [e.g., 24, 50, 51, 73]. This raises the question of the 569 origin of MP prioritization at the olfactory system periphery. Since MP is absent in the uterine 570 571 environment (no trace of the molecule has been found in the amniotic fluid or blood of pregnant rabbit females; [51]), the hypothesis of prenatal MP learning can be rejected. Moreover, the 572 releasing activity of MP is immediately displayed at birth, even before any postnatal exposure 573 574 to the natural MP contained in the rabbit milk [50, 51]. Therefore, even if in our conditions the peripheral sensitivity to MP could be putatively enhanced thanks to the sucking experience of 575 the first postnatal days, it would only complement a predisposed MP-OR tuning effective 576 577 immediately at birth. Our results give the first demonstration of the strong and direct link that may exist between peripheral and behavioral processing for a pheromone in mammals as soon 578 as early in life. 579

580

581 4.6. Impact of learning on odorant B detection threshold

MP-induced learning of B resulted in an increase of the B sensitivity of newborn rabbits, in our 582 conditions by a factor of at least 100. This validated the second criteria of induction [29]. 583 Strikingly, in both naive and conditioned pups, the B threshold concentrations were extremely 584 low, i.e., around 3.40 x 10^{-22} mol/l (1 x 10^{-15} g/ml) for the spontaneous threshold and 3.40 x 10^{-10} 585 26 mol/l (1 x 10⁻¹⁹ g/ml) for the conditioned threshold. Thus, the spontaneous and conditioned 586 thresholds were respectively 5.3 x 10^{11} and 5.3 x 10^{15} times lower than the detection threshold 587 observed for MP in a previous study (1.79 10⁻¹⁰ mol/l gas estimated concentration; [72]). It may 588 seem surprising that the MP threshold was higher than that of B, a spontaneously non-relevant 589

odorant. However, in ecological conditions, the MP threshold in newborn rabbits must fit with 590 591 an optimal detection, discrimination and recognition of that signal in the mother milk. Furthermore, B concentration (at saturated vapor pressure value) is about 7.35 x 10^6 lower than 592 the MP one. Thus, it can be proposed that the olfactory system adapted to the reality of odor 593 molecule concentrations in order to detect low volatile and (or) concentrated odorants; this may 594 explain, at least partly, why the B threshold value is very low even spontaneously. In line with 595 596 this hypothesis, the sexual Bombykol pheromone in Bombyx Mori (Lepidoptera) is perceived at around 2.82 10⁻²² mol/l (gas estimated concentration from [74]), thus far lower than the MP 597 one but close to the ST observed for odorant B in our conditions (3.40 x 10⁻²² mol/l). However, 598 599 although sharing pheromonal status, MP is contained in the milk and detected by rabbit pups in 600 the near proximity of the nipples, whereas Bombykol must be detected in the air during the flying of moths, thus at very low concentrations, requiring highly sensitive and specialized 601 OR(s). The olfactory system of this invertebrate is adapted for such an extreme sensitivity since 602 "one pheromone molecule is sufficient to elicit a nerve impulse" [75]. In rabbit neonates, 603 according to our results, B presents a spontaneous threshold quite close to that of Bombykol. 604

Thus, it can be summed up first that the olfactory system of rabbit neonate is amazingly 605 potent to spontaneously detect low vapor pressure compounds at very low concentration, and 606 607 second, that by promoting the rapid learning of the odorant B, MP would further increase such exceptional detection abilities to the odorant that became relevant through conditioning. This 608 may be adaptive in the sense that, in nature, some odorants present in the nest or carried by the 609 610 maternal body may be learned by MP co-perception, and then become key information for the neonates in their immediate environment, or later on when the pups leave the nest and are 611 autonomous [76]. 612

613

In rodents, the anatomical connection between the first two stages of the olfactory system, 615 616 namely ORNs and olfactory bulb glomeruli takes place very early in life and for instance ORNs respond to odorants immediately at birth ([77] and personal observations). It has been proposed 617 that ORN/OR activity is a prerequisite to the basal expression of ORs [78, 79] and to the correct 618 projection of the axons defining the initial glomerular map [80]. Indeed, the selective 619 suppression of activity in a set of ORNs prevents the formation of the targeted glomeruli [81]. 620 621 Conversely, chronic exposition to heptaldedyde and acetophenone in adult mice induced the formation of supernumerary glomeruli receiving I7 and M72 axons (these two OR types 622 interacting with the two odor ligands [81]), while exposition to acetophenone and isopropyl 623 624 tiglate around birth enlarged the size of glomeruli receiving M72 and M71 inputs [82]. Not only 625 simple exposure but also and mainly odor associative learning can induce alteration of the glomerular map [36, 83, 84]. Thus, the literature converges towards the idea that olfactory 626 627 experience not only influences OR expression and OR signaling (i.e., ORN activity) but governs the development and plasticity of the glomerular map with sensory experience, resulting in the 628 permanent formation or reorganization of glomeruli through a "constructivist" process [85]. 629

Our results suggest that B paired to MP during the conditioning episode triggers or (and) up-630 regulates the expression of ORs having high affinity to B. The weight of B inputs at the 631 632 olfactory bulb would be thus increased leading the pups to have a lower perceptual threshold. Because we are testing neonates here, and are using a powerful and crucial pheromone for them 633 as unconditioned stimulus during the associative conditioning procedure, olfactory bulb and 634 635 targeted central neuroanatomic structures may quickly adapt in less than 24h (see also [22]). In addition, the co-input of B and MP confers a high level of biological pertinence to B, likely 636 637 involving the amygdala, which mediates emotionally arousing experiences by reinforcing memorization (e.g., [22]). 638

640 **5. Conclusions**

First, our results highlight that, as soon as the periphery, the olfactory system differentially 641 and spontaneously processes two mixtures containing the same elements, making more or less 642 salient antagonistic interactions between odorants, and leading to their distinct perception in the 643 644 same animals (i.e., AB and A'B' mixtures in newborn rabbits here). Such a differential process probably results from the concentration (dependent on the volatility) and ratio of the 645 components; the periphery being adapted to deal with low saturated vapor pressure components, 646 such as odorant B, allowing them to largely influence the mixture processing, with respect to 647 one component with high saturated vapor pressure (as for example odorant A). Thus, peripheral 648 649 processes may contribute, at least in part, to the configural vs. elemental perception of odor 650 mixtures. Moreover, MP-induced odor learning of B altered the peripheral processing of the A'B' mixture by decreasing suppressive interaction between the components, which may 651 652 facilitate the detection of the learned component in that elemental mixture and explain the behavioral responsiveness of the pups to A'B' (although the mixture is initially inactive on the 653 behavior). Conversely, the configural perception of AB would be favored by less suppressive 654 interactions between its odorants. 655

656 Second, our results demonstrate that MP-induced single trial odor learning involves (at least 657 partly) an induction phenomenon in newborn rabbits. Indeed, the conditioning promoted by MP increased extremely rapidly (24h) and in parallel the peripheral reactivity to the learned 658 stimulus and its detection abilities by the animal. These changes totally agree with the seminal 659 660 results pinpointing induction in anosmic human patients [29] and extend the notion of induction to the neonatal period in normosmic animals. After learning, MP loses its spontaneous and 661 unique privileged peripheral processing to the shared benefit of the conditioned odorant. As a 662 consequence, some new elements (odorants) from the external chemical environment appears 663 to become relevant for the young organism, the olfactory system favoring their detection from 664

the OR level, while remaining reactive to spontaneously valuable stimuli (as the MP). In ecological conditions of mother-young interactions, MP-induced odor learning is functional when the mother comes into the nest to nurse her litter and newborns are exposed to odor cues carried by her body during nursing, allowing them to acquire odors contemporarily present in the living environment of the mother and social group [18, 76].

Induction is consistent with the idea that the olfactory system structure and functioning operates according to constructivist theory, perfectly adapted to a sensory system facing a quasiinfinite number of stimuli. Thus, even if over phylogenetic evolution, neocortex, auditory and visual information apparently take the place of the chemosensory systems primarily contributing to decision-making in most mammals, olfaction supports detection and perception performances even more remarkable than visual and acoustic ones [86]. This is highlighted here very early in life, in organisms still partly immature.

677

678

679 Acknowledgements

We sincerely thank Thierry Joly for his crucial involvement in our first experiments in Lyon,
Ludovic Say, Patrice Del Carmine, Amandine Dallemagne and Marie El Baba (IUT Feyssine,
Lyon) for helpful cooperation, Thierry Thomas-Danguin for its expert advice on the calculation
of odorant concentrations, Brett East for his contribution to data acquisition, and an anonymous
referee for her/his contribution to English improvement of the manuscript.

685

686 Funding

The work was supported by special credits allocated by the CNRS to G. Coureaud as part of his
installation at the CRNL, and by regular funds from CNRS/INSERM/Université Claude
Bernard Lyon 1.

690

691 **Conflict of Interest**

692 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

693

694 **Ethical approval**

All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use of
animals were followed. All procedures performed were approved by the ethical committee of
Lyon 1 University (CEEA-55) and covered by the authorization no. 9745 from the French
Ministry of Higher Education and Research.

699

700 Informed consent

This article does not contain any studies with human participants performed by any of theauthors.

703

704 7. References

705	1.	Livermore, A. and Laing, D.G. (1998) The influence of chemical complexity on the
706		perception of multicomponent odor mixtures. Percept Psychophys, 60:650-61.

- 707 2. Kay, L.M., Lowry, C.A., and Jacobs, H.A. (2003) Receptor contributions to configural
 708 and elemental odor mixture perception. Behav Neurosci, 117:1108-14.
- 3. Duchamp-Viret, P., Duchamp, A., and Chaput, M.A. (2003) Single olfactory sensory
 neurons simultaneously integrate the components of an odor mixture. Eur J Neurosci,
 18:2690-2696.
- Chaput, M.A., El Mountassir, F., Atanasova, B., Thomas-Danguin, T., Le Bon, A.M.,
 Perrut, A., Ferry, B., and Duchamp-Viret, P. (2012) Interactions of odorants with
 olfactory receptors and receptor neurons match the perceptual dynamics observed for

715		woody and fruity odorant mixtures. Eur J Neurosci, 35:584-97.
716	5.	Duchamp-Viret, P., Chaput, M.A., and Duchamp, A. (1999) Odor response properties
717		of rat olfactory receptor neurons. Science, 284:2171-2174.
718	6.	Zwicker, D., Murugan, A. and Brenner, M.P. (2016) Receptor arrays optimized for
719		natural odor statistic. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 113:5570-5575.
720	7.	Kepchia, D., Sherman, B., Haddad, R. and Luetje, C.V. (2017) Mammalian odorant
721		receptor tuning breadth persists across distinct odorant panels. PLoS One, 12:
722		e0185329.
723	8.	Oka, Y., Nakamura, A., Watanabe, H., and Touhara, K. (2004) An odorant derivative
724		as an antagonist for an olfactory receptor. Chem Senses, 29:815-22.
725	9.	Rospars, J.P., Lansky, P., Chaput, M., and Duchamp-Viret, P. (2008) Competitive and
726		noncompetitive odorant interactions in the early neural coding of odorant mixtures.
727		J Neurosci, 28:2659-66.
728	10	Ukhanov, K., Corey, E.A., Brunert, D., Klasen, K., and Ache, B.W. (2010) Inhibitory
729		odorant signaling in Mammalian olfactory receptor neurons. J Neurophysiol, 103:1114-
730		22.
731	11.	De March, C.A., Titlow, W.B., Sengoku, T., Breheny, P., Matsunami, H., and
732		McClintock, T.S. (2020) Modulation of the combinatorial code of odorant receptor
733		response patterns in odorant mixtures. Mol Cell Neurosci, 104:103469.
734	12	Zak, J.D., Reddy, G., Vergassola, M., and Murthy, V.N. (2020) Antagonistic odor
735		interactions in olfactory sensory neurons are widespread in freely breathing mice.
736		Nat Comm, 11:3350.
737	13	Kay, L.M., Crk, T., and Thorngate, J. (2005) A redefinition of odor mixture quality.
738		Behav Neurosci, 119:726-33.
739	14	Thomas-Danguin, T., Sinding, C., Romagny, S., El Mountassir, F., Atanasova, B., Le

740	Berre, E., Le Bon, A.M., and Coureaud, G. (2014) The perception of odor objects in
741	everyday life: a review on the processing of odor mixtures. Front Psychol, 5:504.
742	15. Romagny S., Coureaud G., Thomas-Danguin T. (2018) Key odorants or key
743	associations? Insights into elemental and configural odour processing in humans.
744	Flavour Fragr J, 33, 97-105.
745	16. Coureaud, G., Thomas-Danguin, T., Le Berre, E., and Schaal, B. (2008) Perception of
746	odor blending mixtures in the newborn rabbit. Physiol Behav, 95:194-9.
747	17. Coureaud, G., Thomas-Danguin, T., Wilson, D.A., and Ferreira, G. (2014) Neonatal
748	representation of odour objects: distinct memories of the whole and its parts.
749	Proc R Soc B, 281:20133319.
750	18. Coureaud, G., Letagneaux, C., Thomas-Danguin, T., and Romagny, S. (2020)
751	Developmental changes in elemental and configural perception of odor mixtures in
752	young rabbits. Dev Psychobiol, 62:471-83.
753	19. Le Berre, E., Beno, N., Ishii, A., Chabanet, C., Etievant, P., and Thomas-Danguin, T.
754	(2008) Just noticeable differences in component concentrations modify the odor quality
755	of a blending mixture. Chem Senses, 33:389-95.
756	20. Wilson, D.A., Fleming, G., Vervoordt, S., and Coureaud, G. (2020) Cortical processing
757	of configurally perceived odor mixtures. Brain Res 1729:146617.
758	21. Coureaud, G., Gibaud, D., Le Berre, E., Schaal, B., and Thomas-Danguin, T. (2011)
759	Proportion of odorants impacts the configural versus elemental perception of a binary
760	blending mixture in newborn rabbits. Chem Senses, 36:693-700.
761	22. Schneider, N.Y., Datiche, F., Wilson, D.A., Gigot, V., Thomas-Danguin, T., Ferreira,
762	G., and Coureaud, G. (2016) Brain processing of a configural vs elemental odor mixture
763	in the newborn rabbit. Brain Struct Funct, 221:2527-39.
764	23. Semke, E., Distel, H., and Hudson, R. (1995) Specific enhancement of olfactory

receptor sensitivity associated with foetal learning of food odors in the rabbit.Naturwissenschaften, 82:148-9.

767 24. Hanser, H.I., Faure, P., Robert-Hazotte, A., Artur, Y., Duchamp-Viret, P., Coureaud, 768 G., and Heydel, J.M. (2017) Odorant-odorant metabolic interaction, a novel actor in 769 olfactory perception and behavioral responsiveness. Sci Rep, 7:10219.

- 25. Buonomano, D.V. and Merzenich, M.M. (1998) Net interaction between different forms
- of short-term synaptic plasticity and slow-IPSPs in the hippocampus and auditory
 cortex. J Neurophysiol, 80:1765-74.
- 773 26. Feldman, D.E. and Brecht, M. (2005) Map plasticity in somatosensory cortex. Science,
 774 310:810-5.
- 27. Accolla, R. and Carleton, A. (2008) Internal body state influences topographical
 plasticity of sensory representations in the rat gustatory cortex. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S
 A, 105:4010-5.
- 28. Lai, C.S., Franke, T.F., and Gan, W.B. (2012) Opposite effects of fear conditioning and
 extinction on dendritic spine remodelling. Nature, 483:87-91.
- 29. Wysocki, C.J., Dorries, K.M., and Beauchamp, G.K. (1989) Ability to perceive
 androstenone can be acquired by ostensibly anosmic people. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA,
 86:7976-8.
- 30. Wang, H.W., Wysocki, C.J., and Gold, G.H. (1993) Induction of olfactory receptor
 sensitivity in mice. Science, 260:998-1000.
- 31. Wang, L., Chen, L., and Jacob, T. (2004) Evidence for peripheral plasticity in human
 odour response. J Physiol, 554:236-44.
- 32. Nevitt, G.A., Dittman, A.H., Quinn, T.P., and Moody, W.J. Jr (1994) Evidence for a
 peripheral olfactory memory in imprinted salmon. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 91:428892.

- 33. De Jong, R. and Pham-Delegue, M.H. (1991) Electroantennogram responses related to
 olfactory conditioning in the honey bee (*Apis mellifera ligustica*). J Insect Physiol,
 37:319-324.
- 34. Wadhams, L.J., Blight, M.M., Kerguelen, V., Le Metayer, M., Marion-Poll, F., Masson,
 C., Pham-Delegue, M.H., and Woodcock, C.M. (1994) Discrimination of oilseed rape
 volatiles by honey bee: Novel combined gas chromatographic-electrophysiological
 behavioral assay. J Chem Ecol, 20:3221-31.
- 35. Youngentob, S.L. and Kent, P.F. (1995) Enhancement of odorant-induced mucosal
 activity patterns in rats trained on an odorant identification task. Brain Research,
 670:82-88.
- 36. Jones, S.V., Choi, D.C., Davis, M., and Ressler, K.J. (2008) Learning-dependent
 structural plasticity in the adult olfactory pathway. J Neurosci, 28:13106-11.
- 802 37. Kass, M.D., Rosenthal, M.C., Pottackal, J., and McGann, J.P. (2013) Fear learning
 803 enhances neural responses to threat-predictive sensory stimuli. Science, 342:1389-1392.
- 38. Abraham, N.M., Vincis, R., Lagier, S., Rodriguez, I., and Carleton, A. (2014) Long term
 functional plasticity of sensory inputs mediated by olfactory learning. Elife, 3:e02109.
- 39. Pekala, K., Chandra, R.K., and Turner, J.H. (2016) Efficacy of olfactory training in
 patients with olfactory loss: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Int Forum Allergy
 Rhinol, 6:299-307.
- 40. Hummel, T., Stupka, G., Haehner, A., and Poletti, S.C. (2018) Olfactory training
 changes electrophysiological responses at the level of the olfactory epithelium.
 Rhinology, 56:330-335.
- 41. Jiang, R.S., Twu, C.W., and Liang, K.L. (2019) The effect of olfactory training on odor
 identification in patients with traumatic anosmia. Int Forum Allergy Rhinol, 9:1244-51.
- 42. Cavazzana, A., Larsson, M., Munch, M., Hahner, A., and Hummel, T. (2018)

- Postinfectious olfactory loss: A retrospective study on 791 patients. Laryngoscope,
 128:10-15.
- 43. Claudianos, C., Lim, J., Young, M., Yan, S., Cristino, A.S., Newcomb, R.D.,
 Gunasekaran, N., and Reinhard, J. (2014) Odor memories regulate olfactory receptor
 expression in the sensory periphery. Eur J Neurosci, 39:1642-54.
- 44. Bhagavan, S. and Smith, B.H. (1997) Olfactory conditioning in the honey bee, *Apis mellifera*: effects of odor intensity. Physiol Behav, 61:107-17.
- 45. Sandoz, J.C., Pham-Delegue, M.H., Renou, M., and Wadhams, L.J. (2001)
 Asymmetrical generalisation between pheromonal and floral odours in appetitive
 olfactory conditioning of the honey bee (*Apis mellifera* L.). J Comp Physiol A, 187:55968.
- 46. Cadiou, H., Aoude, I., Tazir, B., Molinas, A., Fenech, C., Meunier, N., and Grosmaitre,
 X. (2014) Postnatal odorant exposure induces peripheral olfactory plasticity at the
 cellular level. J Neurosci, 34:4857-70.
- 47. Barbour, J., Neuhaus, E.M., Piechura, H., Stoepel, N., Mashukova, A., Brunert, D.,

830 Sitek, B., Stuhler, K., Meyer, H.E., Hatt, H., and Warscheid, B. (2008) New insight into

- stimulus-induced plasticity of the olfactory epithelium in *Mus musculus* by quantitative
 proteomics. J Proteome Res, 7:1594-605.
- 48. Menzel, R. and Muller, U. (1996) Learning and memory in honeybees: from behavior
 to neural substrates. Annu Rev Neurosci, 19:379-404.
- 49. Eisenhardt, D. (2012) Extinction learning in honey bees. In Honeybee Neurobiology
 and Behavior. Eds: Galizia, C.G., Eisenhardt, D. & Giurfa, M. Springer, New York, pp.
 423-438.
- 50. Coureaud, G., Moncomble, A.S., Montigny, D., Dewas, M., Perrier, G., and Schaal, B.
- 839 (2006) A pheromone that rapidly promotes learning in the newborn. Curr Biol, 16:1956-

840

61.

- Schaal, B., Coureaud, G., Langlois, D., Giniès, C., Sémon, E., and Perrier, G. (2003)
 Chemical and behavioural characterisation of the rabbit mammary pheromone. Nature,
 424:68-72
- 52. Zarrow, M.X., Denenberg, V.H., and Anderson, C.O. (1965) Rabbit: frequency of
 suckling in the pup. Science, 150:1835-6.
- 53. Le Berre, E., Thomas-Danguin, T., Beno, N., Coureaud, G., Etievant, P., and Prescott,
 J. (2008) Perceptual processing strategy and exposure influence the perception of odor
 mixtures. Chem Senses, 33:193-9.
- 54. Montigny, D., Coureaud, G., and Schaal, B. (2006) Rabbit pup response to the
 mammary pheromone: from automatism to prandial control. Physiol Behav, 89:742-9.
- 55. Atanasova, B., Thomas-Danguin, T., Chabanet, C., Langlois, D., Nicklaus, S., and
 Etievant, P. (2005) Perceptual interactions in odour mixtures: odour quality in binary
 mixtures of woody and fruity wine odorants. Chem Senses, 30:209-17.
- 56. Ishii, A., Roudnitzky, N., Beno, N., Bensafi, M., Hummel, T., Rouby, C., and ThomasDanguin, T. (2008) Synergy and masking in odor mixtures: an electrophysiological
 study of orthonasal vs. retronasal perception. Chem Senses, 33:553-61.
- 857 57. Rioux, D., and Carlson, J.R. (2020) Olfaction: receptor antagonistes. Curr Biol,
 858 30:R815-R817.
- 58. Stierle, J.S., Galizia, C.G., and Szyszka, P. (2013) Millisecond stimulus onsetasynchrony enhances information about components in an odor mixture. J Neurosci,
 33:6060-9.
- 862 59. Reddy, G., Zak, J.D., Vergassola, M., and Murthy, V.N. (2018) Antagonism in olfactory
 863 receptor neurons and its implications for the perception of odor mixtures. Elife, 7.
- 60. Zac, J. D., Reddy, G., Vergassola, M., and Murthy, V. N. (2020) Antagonistic odor

- 865 interactions in olfactory sensory neurons are widespread in freely breathing mice.866 Nature Comm, 11:3350.
- 867 61. Duchamp-Viret, P. (2016) Odor mixture coding from the neuronal point of view. In: E.
 868 Guichard, A.M. Le Bon, M. Mortzel & C. Salles (eds.) Flavour, from food to perception.
 869 Wiley- Blackwell, pp: 341-372.
- B70 62. Duchamp-Viret, P., Baly, C., Lacroix, M. C. and Kuczewski, K. (2017) Olfactory
 perception and integration. In Flavor: From food to behaviors, wellbeing and health,
 Eds: Voilley, A., Salles, C., Guichard, E., Etiévant, P. and Sykes, R. Elsevier. pp: 57100.
- 63. Kass, M.D., Guang, S.A., Moberly, A.H., and McGann, J.P. (2016) Changes in
 Olfactory Sensory Neuron Physiology and Olfactory Perceptual Learning After Odorant
 Exposure in Adult Mice. Chem Senses, 41:123-33.
- 877 64. Sinding, C., Thomas-Danguin, T., Crepeaux, G., Schaal, B., and Coureaud, G. (2011)
 878 Experience influences elemental and configural perception of certain binary odour
 879 mixtures in newborn rabbits. J Exp Biol, 214:4171-8.
- 65. Chess, A., Simon, I., Cedar, H., and Axel, R. (1994) Allelic inactivation regulates
 olfactory receptor gene expression. Cell, 78:823-34.
- 66. Monahan, K., Schieren, I., Cheung, J., Mumbey-Wafula, A., Monuki, E.S., and
 Lomvardas, S. (2017) Cooperative interactions enable singular olfactory receptor
 expression in mouse olfactory neurons. Elife, 6:e28620.
- 67. Colquitt, B.M., Markenscoff-Papadimitriou, E., Duffie, R., and Lomvardas, S. (2014)
 Dnmt3a regulates global gene expression in olfactory sensory neurons and enables
 odorant-induced transcription. Neuron, 83:823-38.
- 68. Biswas, S., Reinhard, J., Oakeshott, J., Russell, R., Srinivasan, M.V., and Claudianos,
- 889 C. (2010) Sensory regulation of neuroligins and neurexin I in the honeybee brain. PLoS

890

One, 5: e9133.

- 69. Reinhard, J. & Claudianos, C. (2012) Molecular insights into honeybee brain plasticity.
 In Galizia, C.G., Eisenhardt, D. & Giurfa, M. (Eds), Honeybee Neurobiology and
 Behavior. Springer, New York, pp. 359-372.
- 894 70. Zhou, S., Stone, E.A., Mackay, T.F., and Anholt, R.R. (2009) Plasticity of the
 895 chemoreceptor repertoire in *Drosophila melanogaster*. PLoS Genet, 5: e1000681.
- 71. De Groof, G., Gwinner, H., Steiger, S., Kempenaers, B., and Van der Linden, A. (2010)
 Neural correlates of behavioural olfactory sensitivity changes seasonally in European
 starlings. PLoS One, 5:e14337.
- 72. Coureaud, G., Langlois, D., Sicard, G., and Schaal, B. (2004) Newborn rabbit
 responsiveness to the mammary pheromone is concentration-dependent. Chem Senses,
 29:341-50.
- 902 73. Coureaud, G., Fortun-Lamothe, L., Langlois, D., and Schaal, B. (2007) The reactivity
 903 of neonatal rabbits to the mammary pheromone as a probe for viability. Animal, 1:1026904 1032.
- 74. Tabuchi, M., Sakurai, T., Mitsuno, H., Namiki, S., Minegishi, R., Shiotsuki, T., Uchino,
 K., Sezutsu, H., Tamura, T., Haupt, S.S., Nakatani, K., and Kanzaki, R. (2013)
 Pheromone responsiveness threshold depends on temporal integration by antennal lobe
 projection neurons. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 110:15455-60.
- 75. Kaissling, K.E. (2014) Pheromone Reception in Insects: The Example of Silk Moths.
 In: Mucignat-Caretta C, editor. Neurobiology of Chemical Communication. Boca Raton
 (FL): CRC Press/Taylor & Francis. Chapter 4.
- 912 76. Jouhanneau, M., Schaal, B., and Coureaud, G. (2016) Mammary pheromone-induced
 913 odour learning influences sucking behaviour and milk intake in the newborn rabbit.
 914 Anim Behav, 111:1-11.

915	77. Lam, R. S. and Mombaerts, P. (2013) Odorant responsiveness of embryonic mouse
916	olfactorysensory neurons expressing the odorant receptors S1 or MOR23. Eur J
917	Neurosci, 38: 2210-7

- 918 78. Lewcock, J.W. and Reed, R.R. (2004) A feedback mechanism regulates monoallelic
 919 odorant receptor expression. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 101:1069-74.
- 920 79. Serizawa, S., Miyamichi, K., Nakatani, H., Suzuki, M., Saito, M., Yoshihara, Y., and
 921 Sakano, H. (2003) Negative feedback regulation ensures the one receptor-one olfactory
 922 neuron rule in mouse. Science, 302:2088-94.
- 80. Valle-Leija, P. (2015) Odorant Receptors Signaling Instructs the Development and
 Plasticity of the Glomerular Map. Neural Plast, 2015:975367.
- 81. Yu, C.R., Power, J., Barnea, G., O'Donnell, S., Brown, H.E., Osborne, J., Axel, R., and
 Gogos, J.A. (2004) Spontaneous neural activity is required for the establishment and
 maintenance of the olfactory sensory map. Neuron, 42:553-556.
- 82. Todrank, J., Heth, G., and Restrepo, D. (2011) Effects of in utero odorant exposure on
 neuroanatomical development of the olfactory bulb and odour preferences. Proc R Soc
 B, 278:1949-55.
- 83. Kerr, M.A. and Belluscio, L. (2006) Olfactory experience accelerates glomerular
 refinement in the mammalian olfactory bulb. Nat Neurosci, 9:484-6.
- 84. Dias, B.G. and Ressler, K.J. (2014) Parental olfactory experience influences behavior
 and neural structure in subsequent generations. Nat Neurosci, 17:89-96.
- 85. Valle-Leija, P., Blanco-Hernandez, E., Drucker-Colin, R., Gutierrez-Ospina, G., and
 Vidaltamayo, R. (2012) Supernumerary formation of olfactory glomeruli induced by
 chronic odorant exposure: a constructivist expression of neural plasticity. PLoS One,
 7:e35358.
- 939 86. Bushdid, C., Magnasco, M.O., Vosshall, L.B., and Keller, A. (2014) Humans can

940 discriminate more than 1 trillion olfactory stimuli. Science, 343:1370-2.

Stimulus reference	Concentration in water (g/ml) in vials	Estimated gaseous concentration (mol/l)*	Estimated gaseous concentration (ppm v/v)
B-5	10-5	3.40 x 10 ⁻¹²	7.61 x 10 ⁻⁵
B ⁻¹⁰	10 ⁻¹⁰	3.40 x 10 ⁻¹⁷	7.61 x 10 ⁻¹⁰
B ⁻¹⁵	10-15	3.40 x 10 ⁻²²	7.61 x 10 ⁻¹⁵
B ⁻¹⁷	10 ⁻¹⁷	3.40 x 10 ⁻²⁴	7.61 x 10 ⁻¹⁷
B ⁻¹⁹	10 ⁻¹⁹	3.40 x 10 ⁻²⁶	7.61 x 10 ⁻¹⁹
B ⁻²⁰	10 ⁻²⁰	3.40 x 10 ⁻²⁷	7.61 x 10 ⁻²⁰
B ⁻²¹	10 ⁻²¹	3.40 x 10 ⁻²⁸	7.61 x 10 ⁻²¹
B ⁻²²	10 ⁻²²	3.40 x 10 ⁻²⁹	7.61 x 10 ⁻²²

942 Table 1. Concentrations of odorant B used in behavioral tests

943 *: calculated by using Henry law constant [(Pi/Ci) Pa.m3/mol]

944

945

946 Table 2. Stimuli used in electrophysiological recordings

Stimuli	2-methylbut- 2-enal	Ethyl Maltol	Ethyl Isobutyrate		Configural mixture	Elemental mixture
Abbreviation	MP	B and B'	A	A'	AB	A'B'
Concentration in liquid phase (g/ml)	1 x 10 ⁻⁵	7 x 10⁻⁵	3 x 10 ⁻⁶	1.5 x 10 ⁻⁵	1 x 10 ⁻⁵	2.2 x 10 ⁻⁵
Estimated gaseous concentration*: (mol/l)	7.18 x 10 ⁻⁷	2.38 x 10 ⁻¹²	1.23 x 10 ⁻⁶	6.16 x 10 ⁻⁶	1.23 x 10 ⁻⁶	6.16 x 10 ⁻⁶
Estimated gaseous concentration (ppm)	1.61 x 10 ¹	5.33 x 10 ⁻⁵	2.76 x 10 ¹	1.38 x 10 ²	2.76 x 10 ¹	1.38 x 10 ²

947 *: calculated by using Henry law constant [(Pi/Ci) Pa.m3/mol]

948

949

951

Figure Legends

952

Figure 1: a. Positioning of the three electrodes on the three turbinates (T1, T2, T3) on the hemi-953 head of a rabbit neonate (the large arrow indicating an enlargement of the area). The olfactomer 954 nozzle is positioned so that the odorized puff (materialized in grey shadow) sweeps the 3 955 956 turbinates. as if it was naturally entering through animal's nostril. the 957 **b.** Illustration of raw recordings simultaneously obtained from the three turbinates. The EOG amplitude (here in response to the odorant A) is measured between the baseline level sampled 958 within 100 ms prior to the start of olfactory stimulation (STIM) and the peak amplitude. 959

960

Figure 2: Proportions of newborn rabbits (in %) responding in the oral activation test either 961 spontaneously (naive pups in grey, n = 31) or 24h after MP-induced acquisition of the odorant 962 963 B (conditioned pups in black, n = 36) to the odorant B (B') and the stimulus series comprising single odorants and mixtures (see Table 1 for stimuli concentrations). Stimuli are ordered from 964 the left to the right in ascending level of concentration except for MP, which was always tested 965 at the end as a control. Distinct geometrical symbols above the bars indicate significant 966 differences within naive or conditioned pups, respectively, at p < 0.05, and ** differences 967 between naive and conditioned pups at p < 0.01 (Cochran, McNemar and χ^2 tests). 968

969

Figure 3: Mean EOG amplitudes (\pm SD) recorded in the three nasal turbinates of naive rabbit neonates in response to **a.** AB series (n = 15 pups); **b.** A'B' series (n = 16 pups). Stimuli are ordered in ascending level of concentration from the left to the right except for MP, which was always tested in the end as a control. Within each graph, distinct geometrical symbols indicate statistical differences at p \leq 0.05 (Wilcoxon test for matched samples). **Figure 4:** Mean EOG amplitudes (\pm SD) recorded in the three nasal turbinates of conditioned rabbit neonates in response to **a.** the AB series (n =19 pups); **b.** the A'B' series (n = 17 pups). Stimuli are ordered in ascending level of concentration from the left to the right except for MP, which was always tested in the end as a control. Within each graph, distinct geometrical symbols indicate statistical differences at p \leq 0.05 (Wilcoxon test for matched samples).

980

Figure 5: Comparisons of mean EOG amplitudes (\pm SD) in response to **a.** the AB series, and **b.** the A'B' series, in nasal turbinates 1, 2 and 3 of naive and conditioned rabbit neonates. Stimuli are ordered in ascending level of concentration from left to right except for MP, which was always tested at the end as a control. *, **, *** indicate differences at p < 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 (Wilcoxon test for non-matched samples).

986

987 Figure 6: Occurrences of each odor stimulus as being a. the least effective (i.e., inducing the smallest EOGs) or **b.** the most effective (i.e., inducing the largest EOGs) in naive (grey bars) 988 and conditioned (black bars) rabbit neonates for the stimulus series AB (left) and A'B' (right). 989 Within the naive and conditioned conditions, χ^2 test and Monte Carlo method were applied on 990 the distributions. Then the Marascuilo procedure gives the statistical classification of stimuli. 991 Distinct l geometrical symbols above each bar (grey symbols for: naive pups; black symbols: 992 conditioned pups) indicate statistical differences at p < 0.05, and *, **, *** differences between 993 naive and conditioned pups at p < 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001, respectively; bilateral test of two 994 proportions, confirmed with Monte Carlo method. 995

996

Figure 7: **a.** Proportions of newborn rabbits responding to the odorant B at 10^{-5} g/ml, as a function of the concentration of B used during the conditioning (ran 24h before). The conditioning concentrations were ranged from 10^{-5} to 10^{-22} g/ml (grey bars). This experiment

- allowed to assess the spontaneous threshold (ST) of B in the animals (n = 50); **b.** Proportions
- 1001 of newborn rabbits responding to the odorant B at concentrations ranged from 10^{-5} to 10^{-22} g/ml
- 1002 24h after conditioning to B at 10^{-5} g/ml. This experiment pinpointed the conditioning threshold
- 1003 (CT) of B in the animals (n = 105).