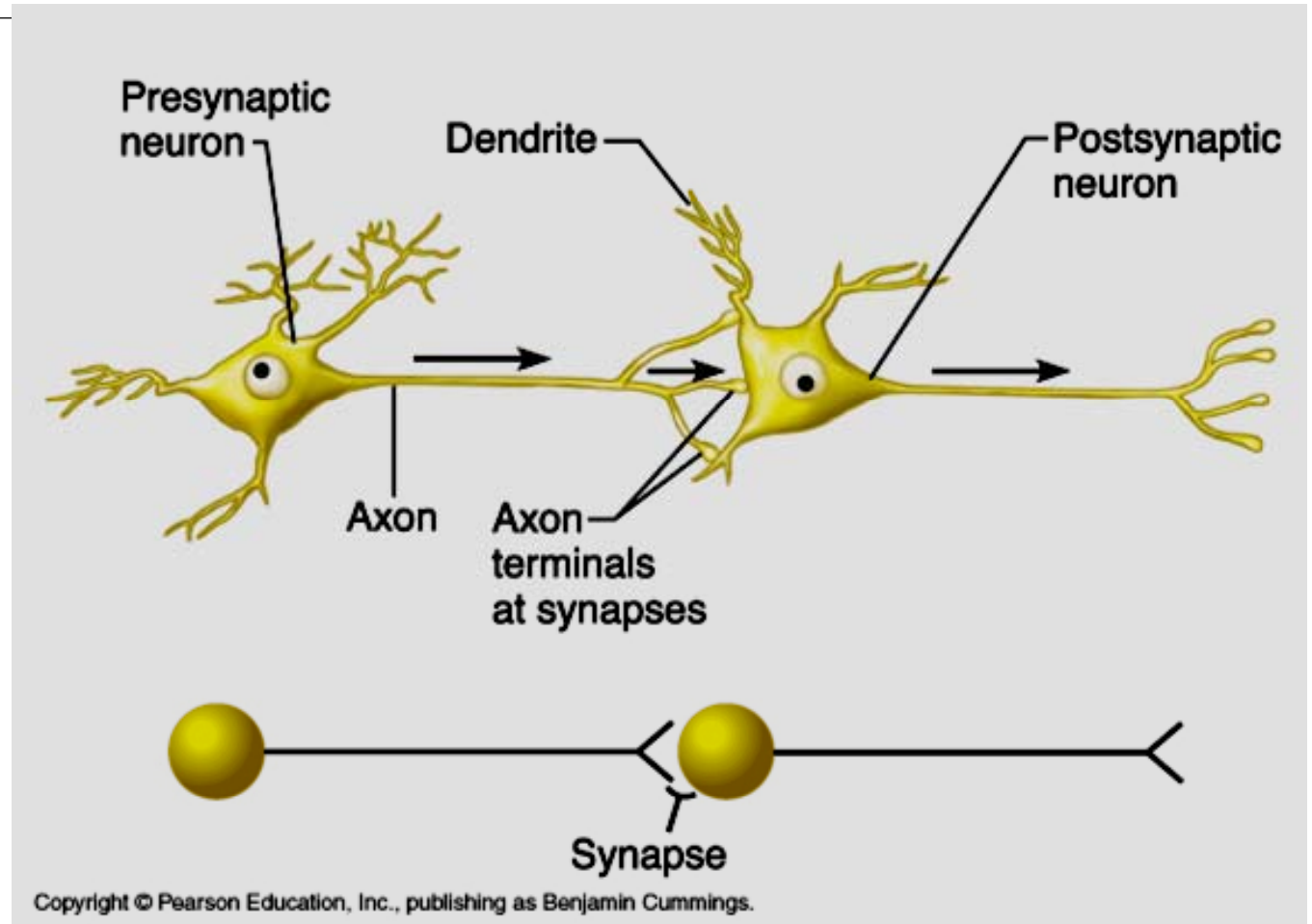


Neurophysiology

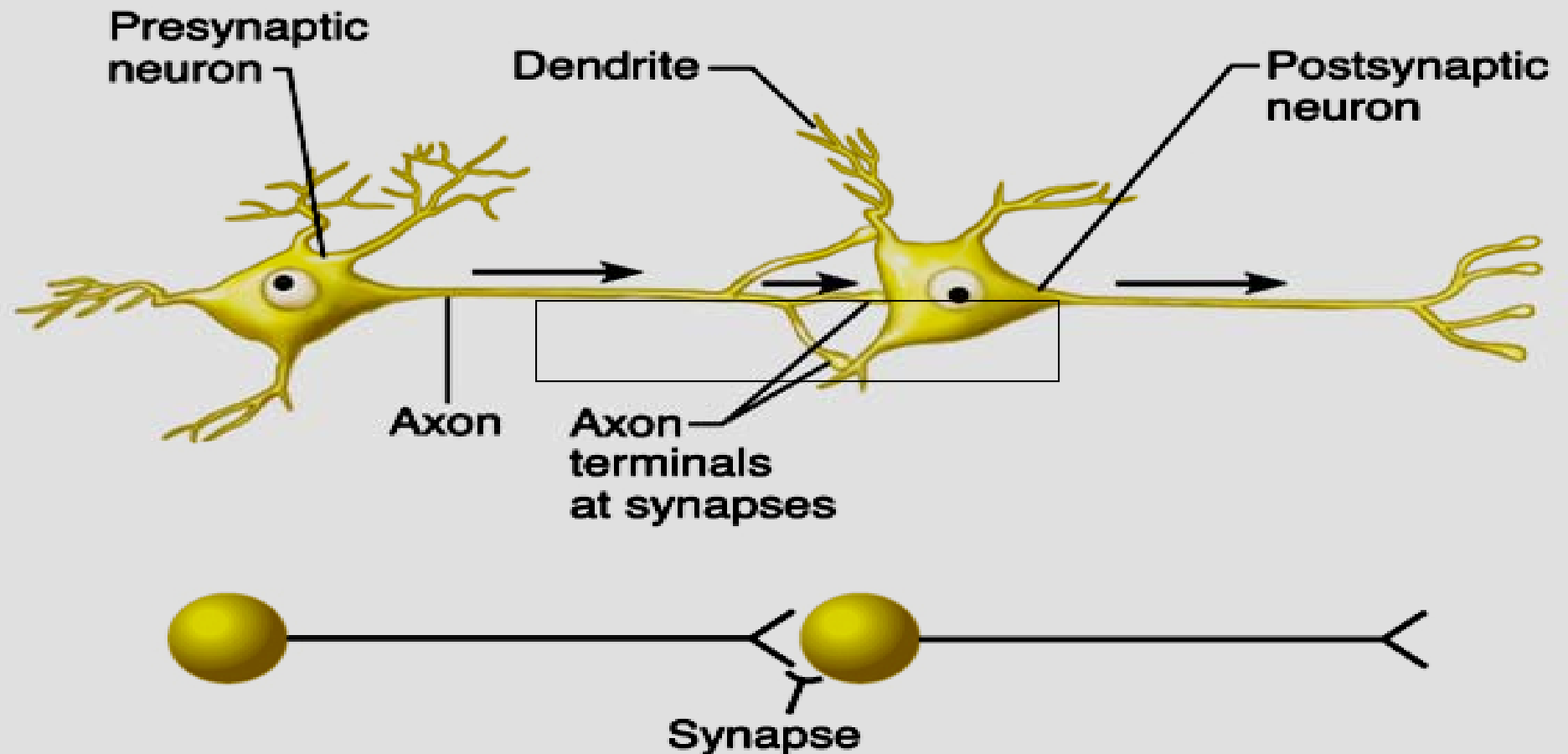
Danil Hammoudi.MD

SYNAPSES

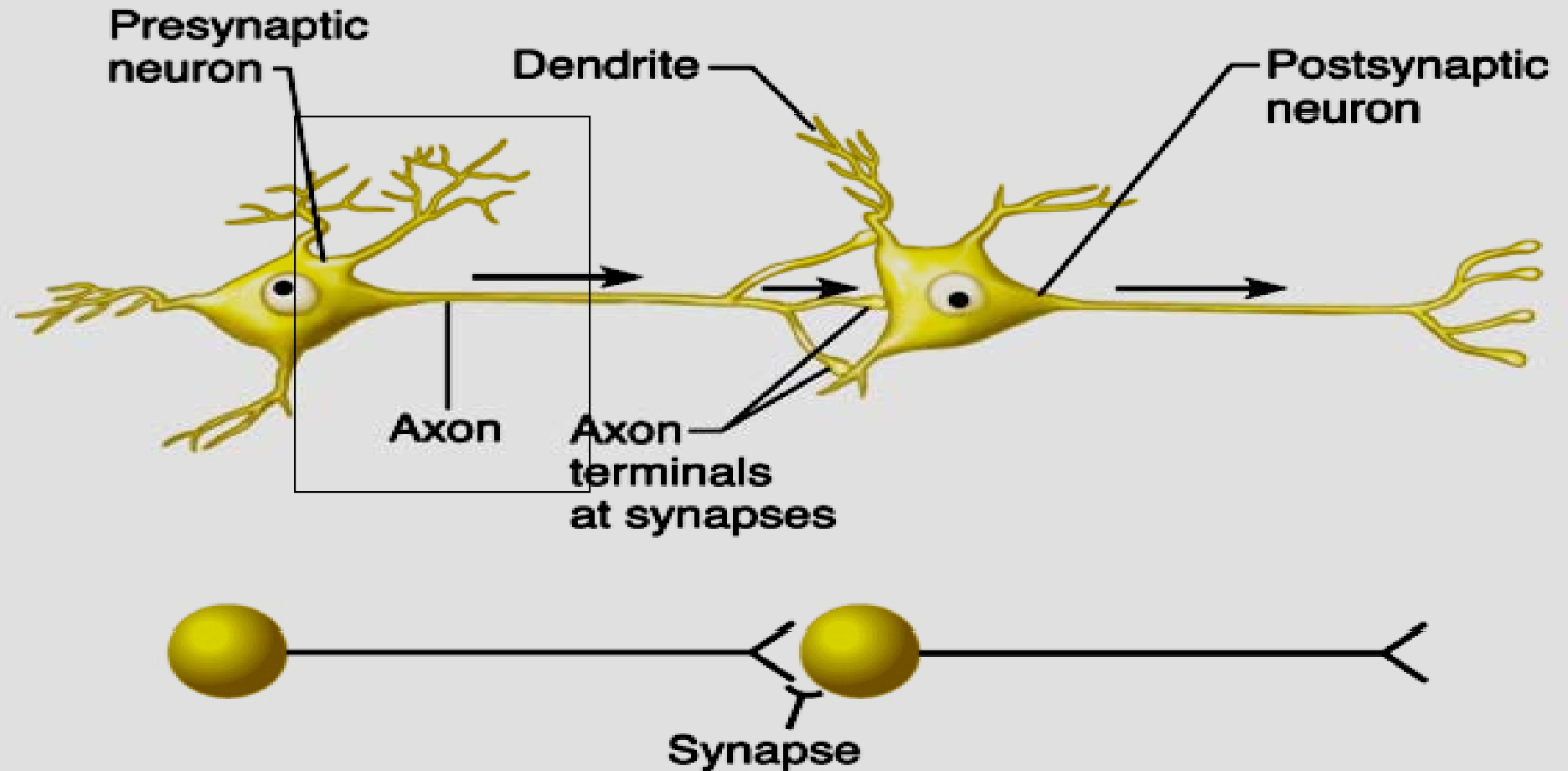
Synapses



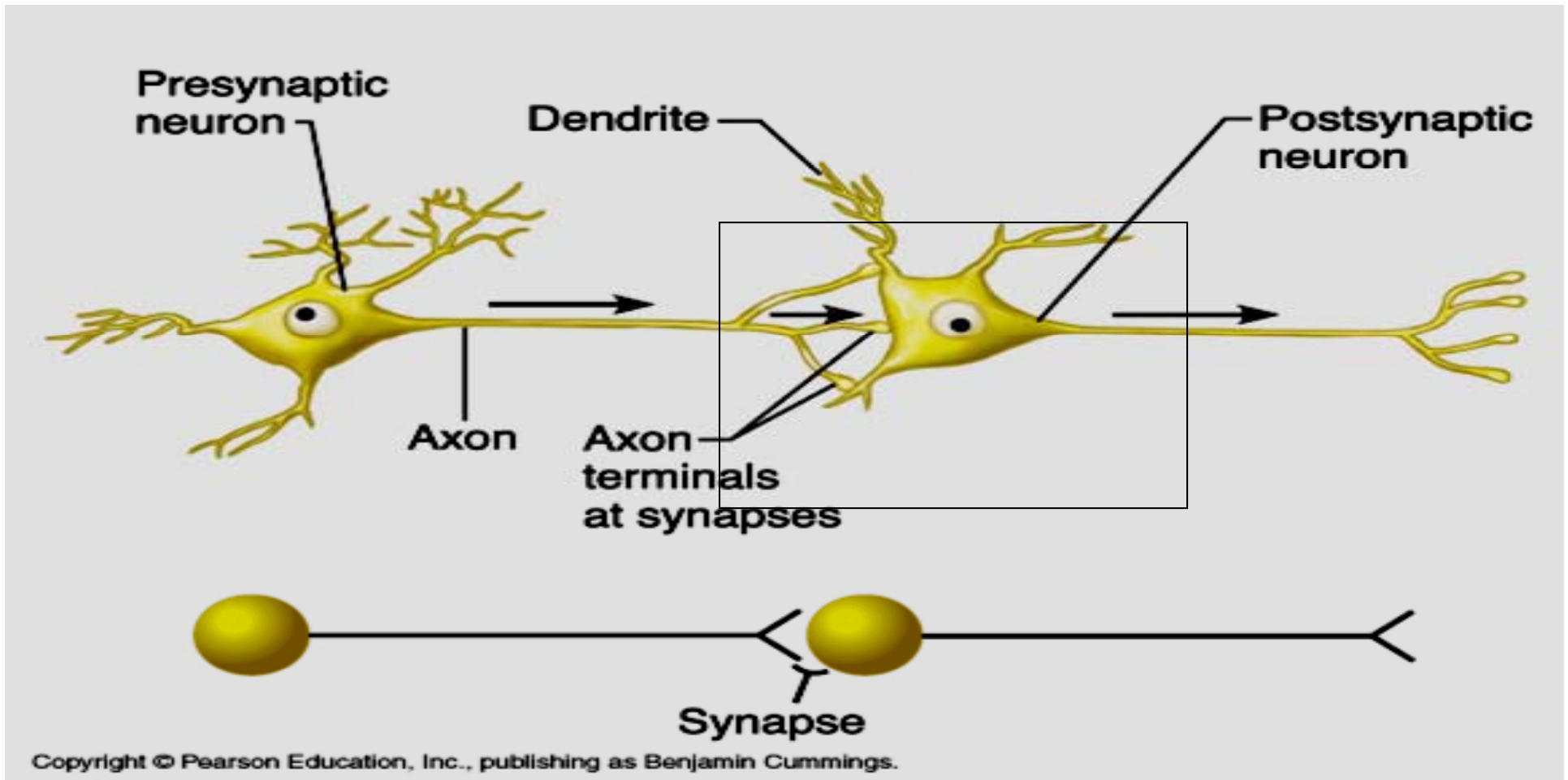
- The site at which neurons communicate is called a **synapse**,
- a cell junction that mediates the transfer of information from one neuron to the next



- Because **signals pass across most synapses in one direction only**, synapses determine the direction of information flow throughout the nervous system



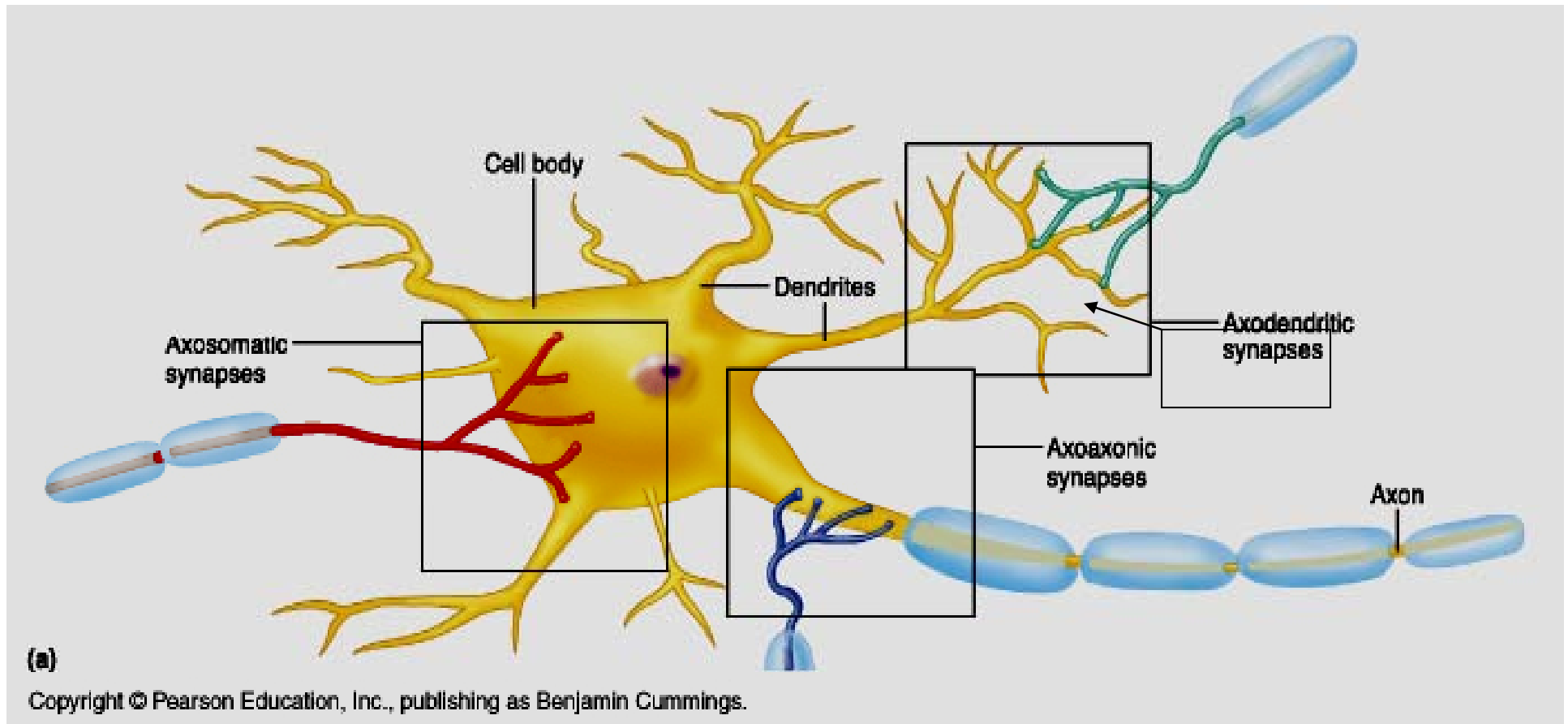
- The neuron that conducts impulses toward a synapse is called the presynaptic neuron



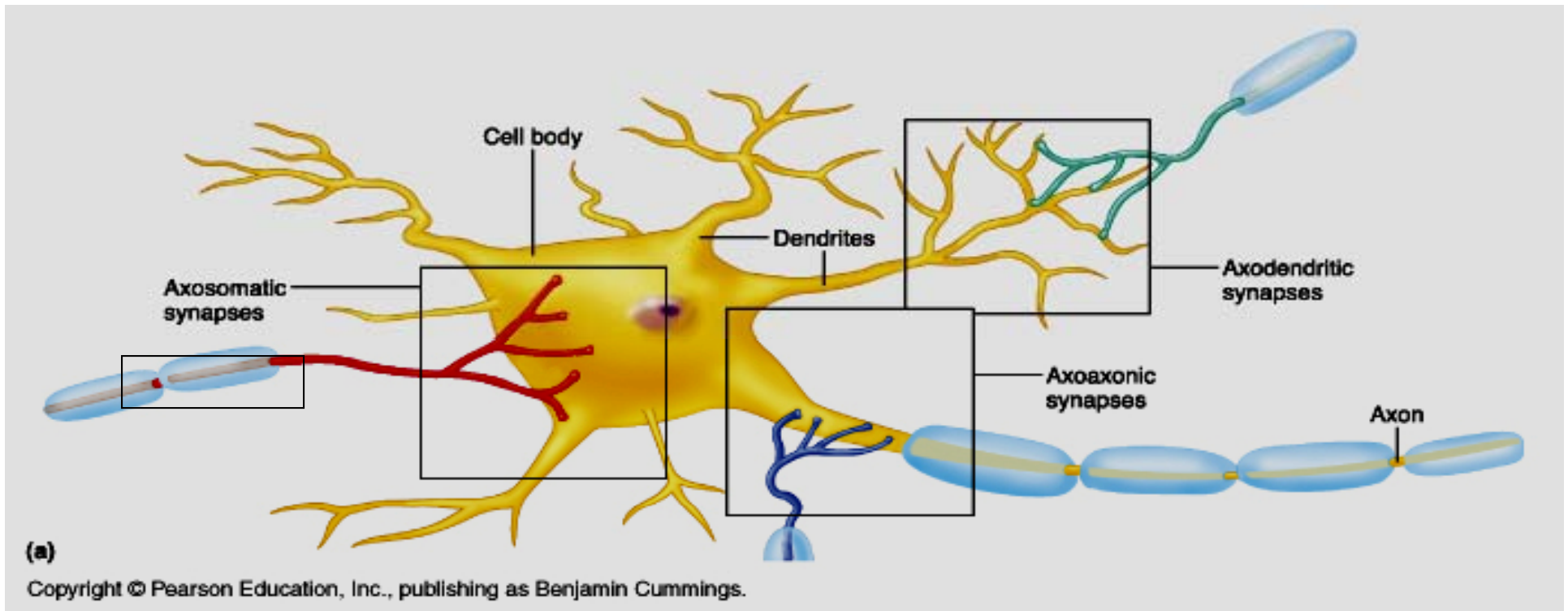
- The neuron that conducts impulses away from the synapse is called the postsynaptic neuron

Synapses

- Most neurons function as presynaptic (information sending) and postsynaptic (information receiving neurons
- In essence they get information from some neurons and dispatch it to others



- Most synapses occur between the axon terminals of one neuron and the dendrites of another axons
- These are called axodendritic synapses



- Less common, and far less understood, are:
- synapses between two axons (axoaxonic),
- between two dendrites (dendrodendritic)
- between a dendrite and a cell body (dendrosomatic)

Types of Synapses

§ ***Axodendritic – synapses between the axon of one neuron and the dendrite of another***

§ ***Axosomatic – synapses between the axon of one neuron and the soma of another***

§ ***Other types of synapses include:***

§ **Axoaxonic (axon to axon)**

§ **Dendrodendritic (dendrite to dendrite)**

§ **Dendrosomatic (dendrites to soma)**

2 FUNCTIONAL TYPE OF SYNAPSES

- **Electrical Synapses**

- § *Electrical synapses:*
- § Are less common than chemical synapses
- § Correspond to gap junctions found in other cell types
- § Are important in the CNS in:
 - § Arousal from sleep
 - § Mental attention
 - § Emotions and memory
 - § Ion and water homeostasis

- **Chemical Synapses**

§ *Specialized for the release and reception of neurotransmitters*

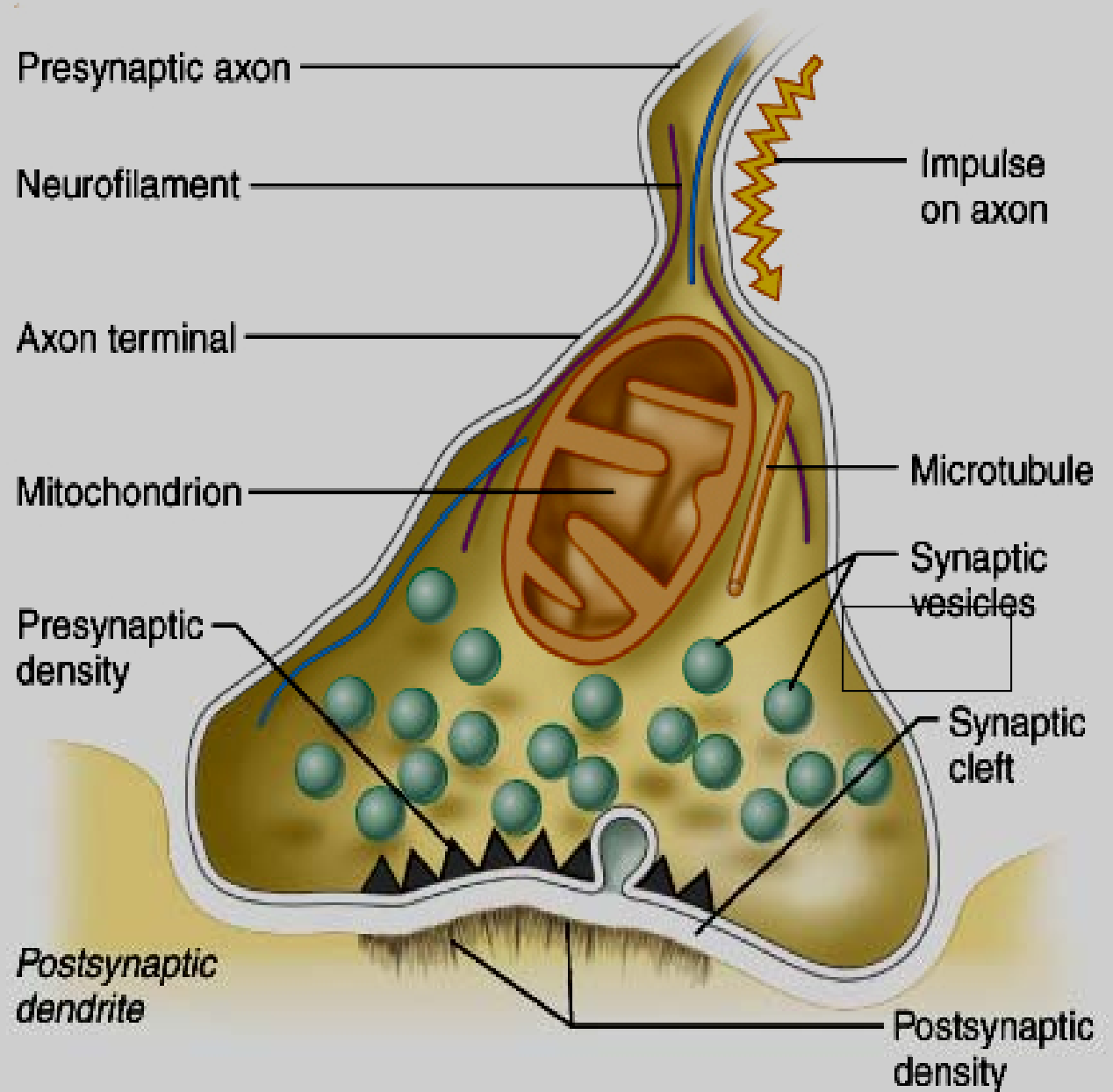
§ *Typically composed of two parts:*

§ Axonal terminal of the presynaptic neuron, which contains synaptic vesicles

§ Receptor region on the dendrite(s) or soma of the postsynaptic neuron

Synapses

- Structurally synapses are elaborate cell junctions
- At the typical axodendritic synapse the presynaptic axon terminal contains synaptic vesicles

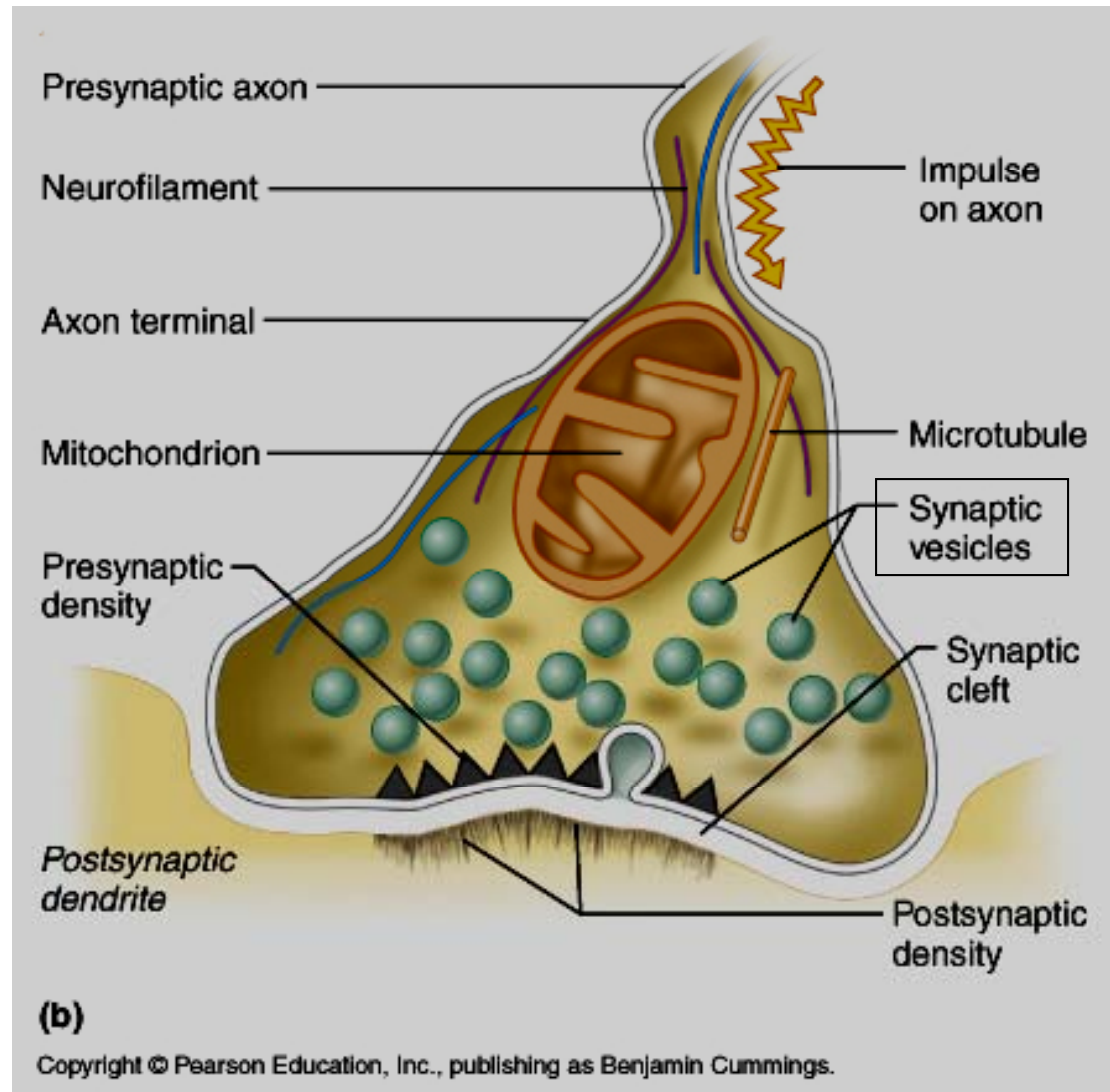


(b)

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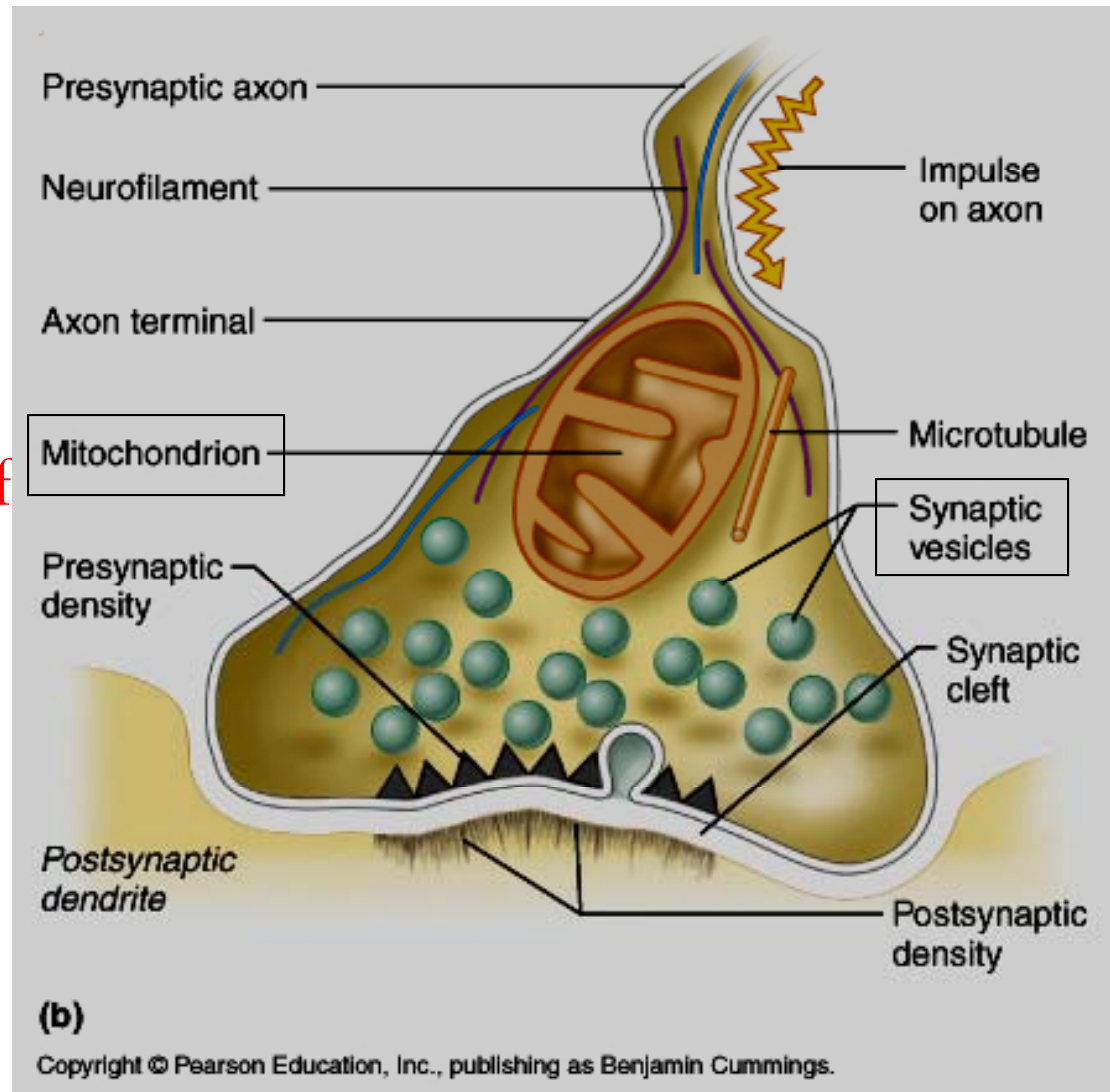
Synapses

- Synaptic vesicles are membrane bound sacs filled with molecular neurotransmitters
- These molecules transmit signals across the synapse



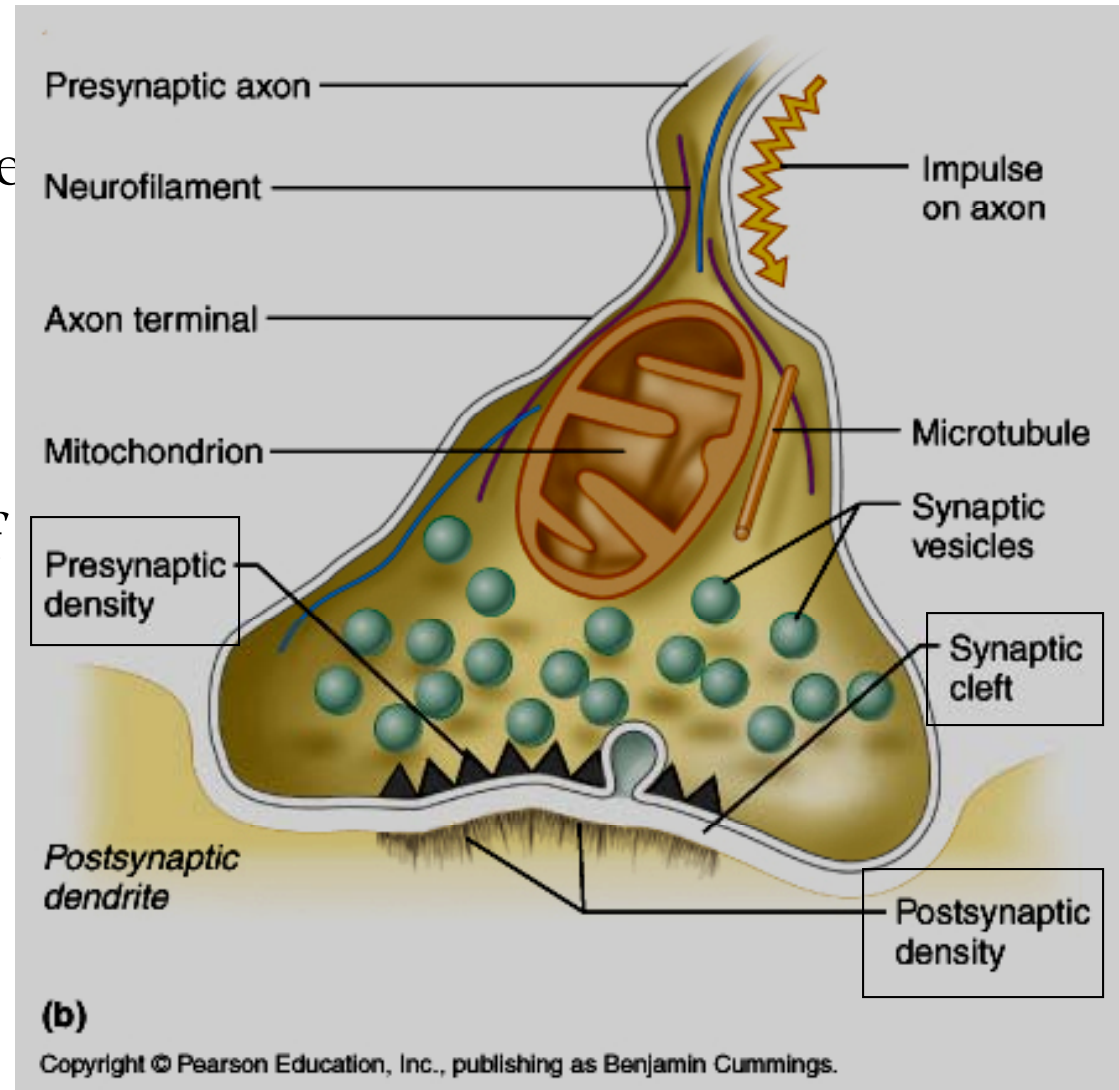
Synapses

- Mitochondria are abundant in the axon terminal as the secretion of neurotransmitters requires a great deal of energy



Synapses

- At the synapse, the plasma membranes of the two neurons are separated by a synaptic cleft
- On the under surfaces of the opposing cell membranes are dense materials; the pre- and post- synaptic densities



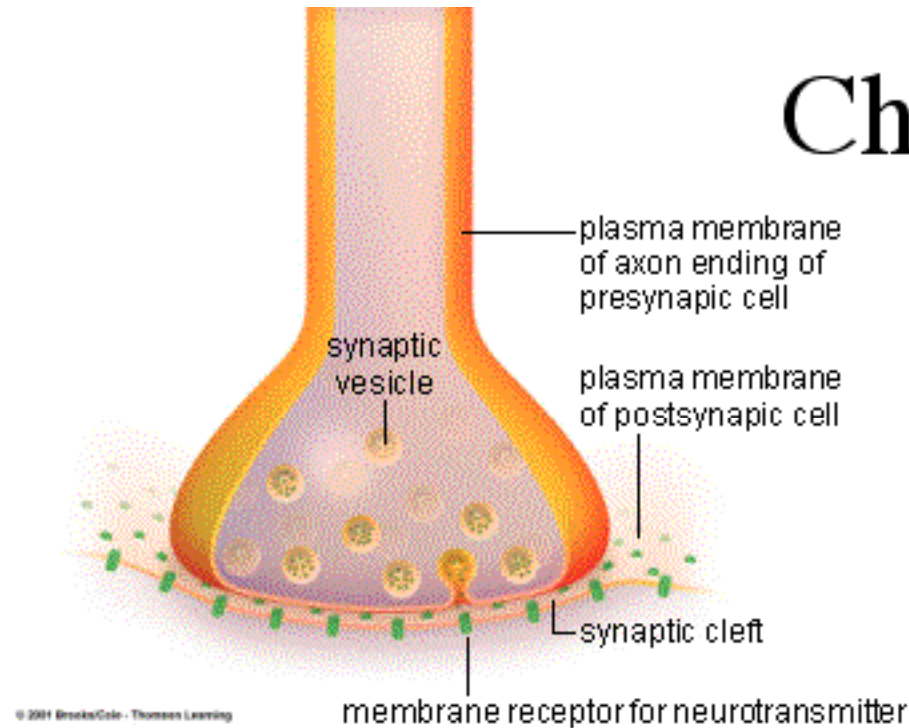
Synapses

- When an impulse travels along the axon of the presynaptic neuron, it signals the synaptic vesicles to fuse with the presynaptic membrane at the presynaptic density
- The released neurotransmitter molecules diffuse across the synaptic cleft and bind to the postsynaptic membrane at the post synaptic density

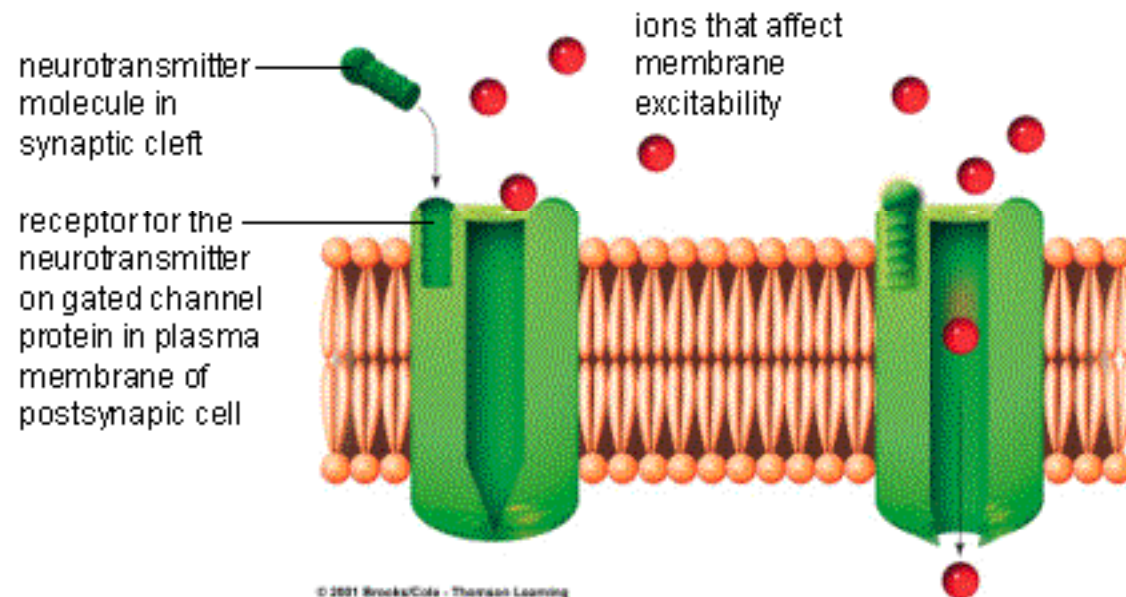
Synapse

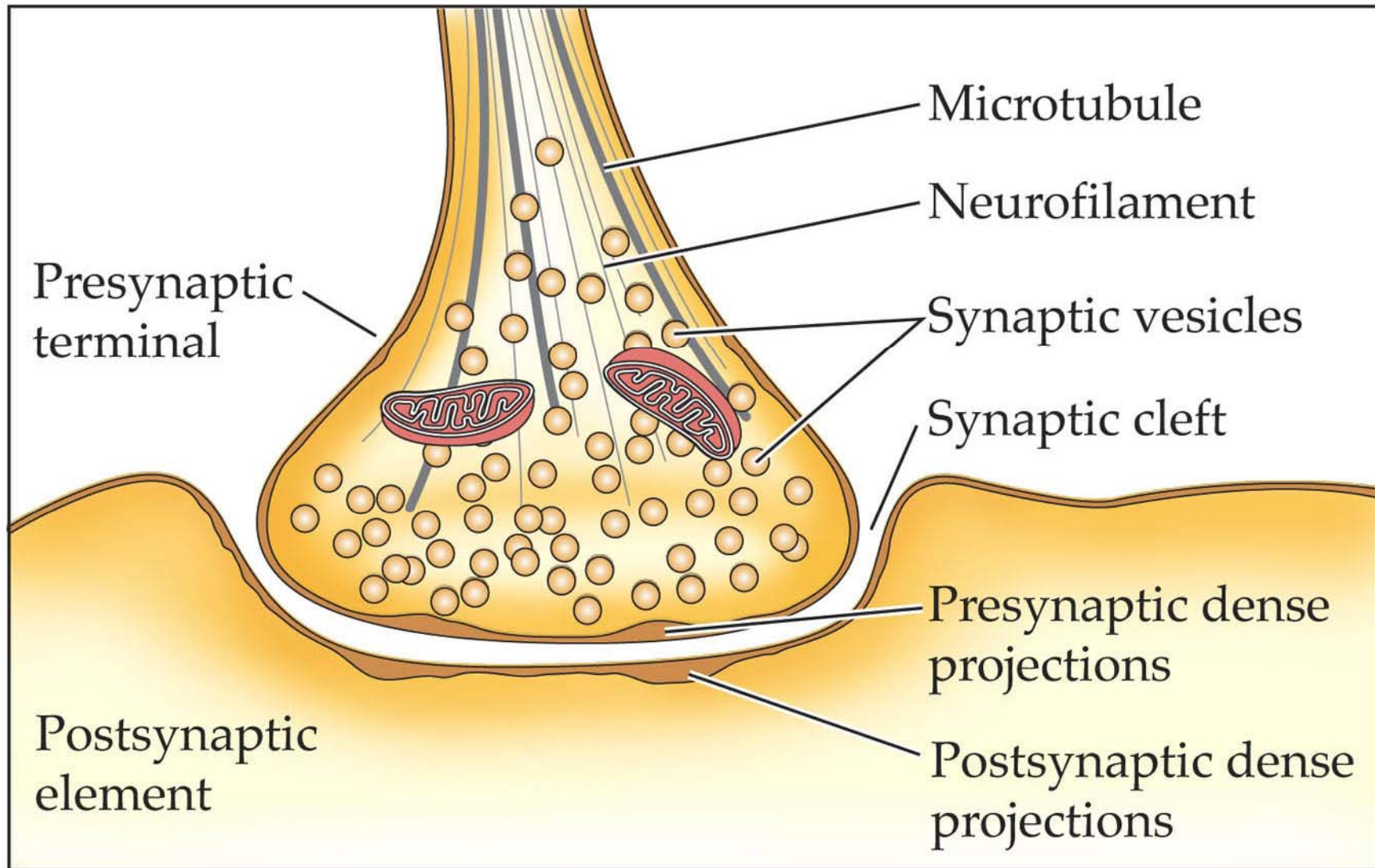
- The binding of the two membranes changes the membrane charge on the postsynaptic neuron, influencing the generation of a nerve impulse or action potential in that neuron

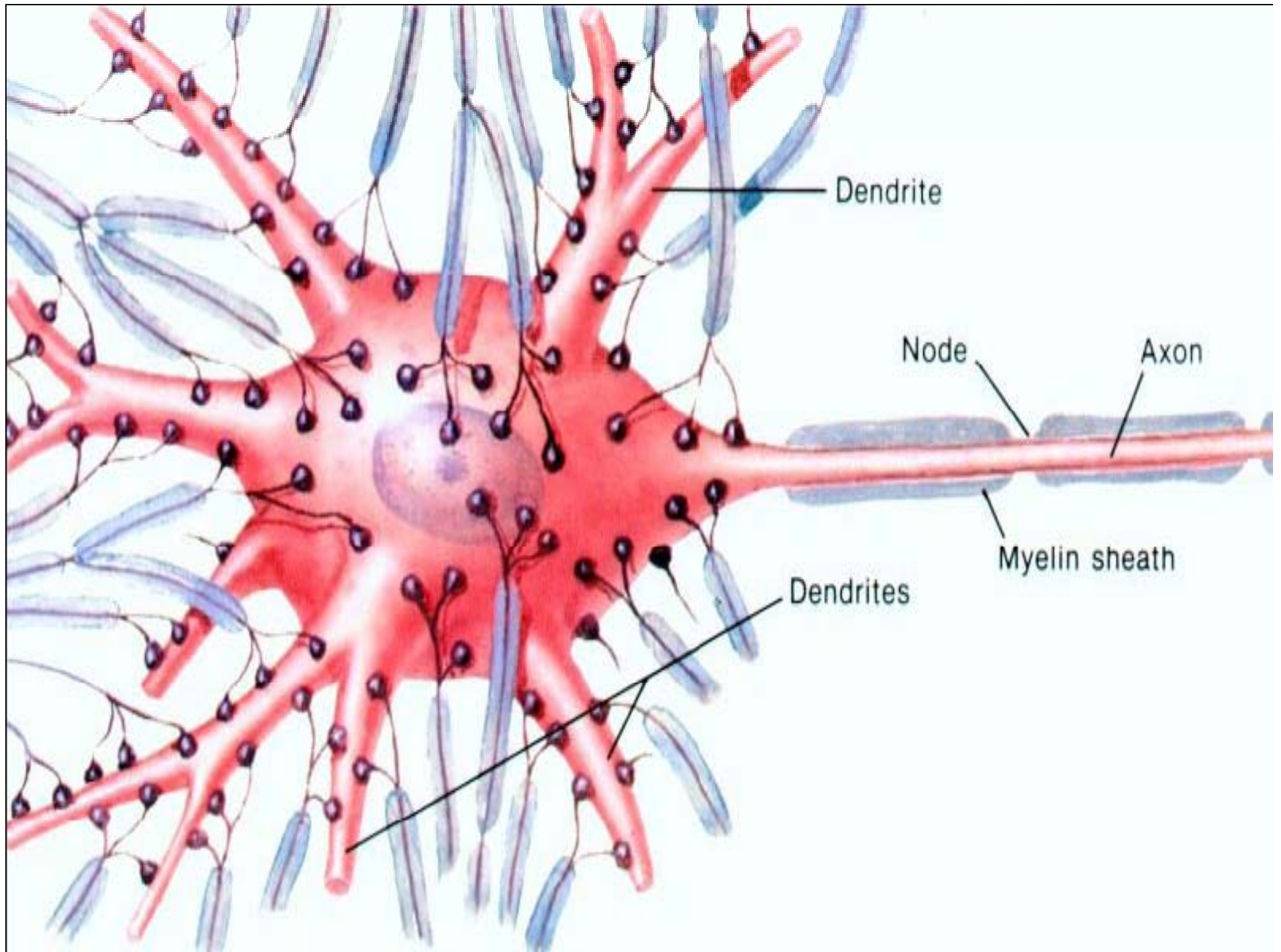
Chemical Synapse

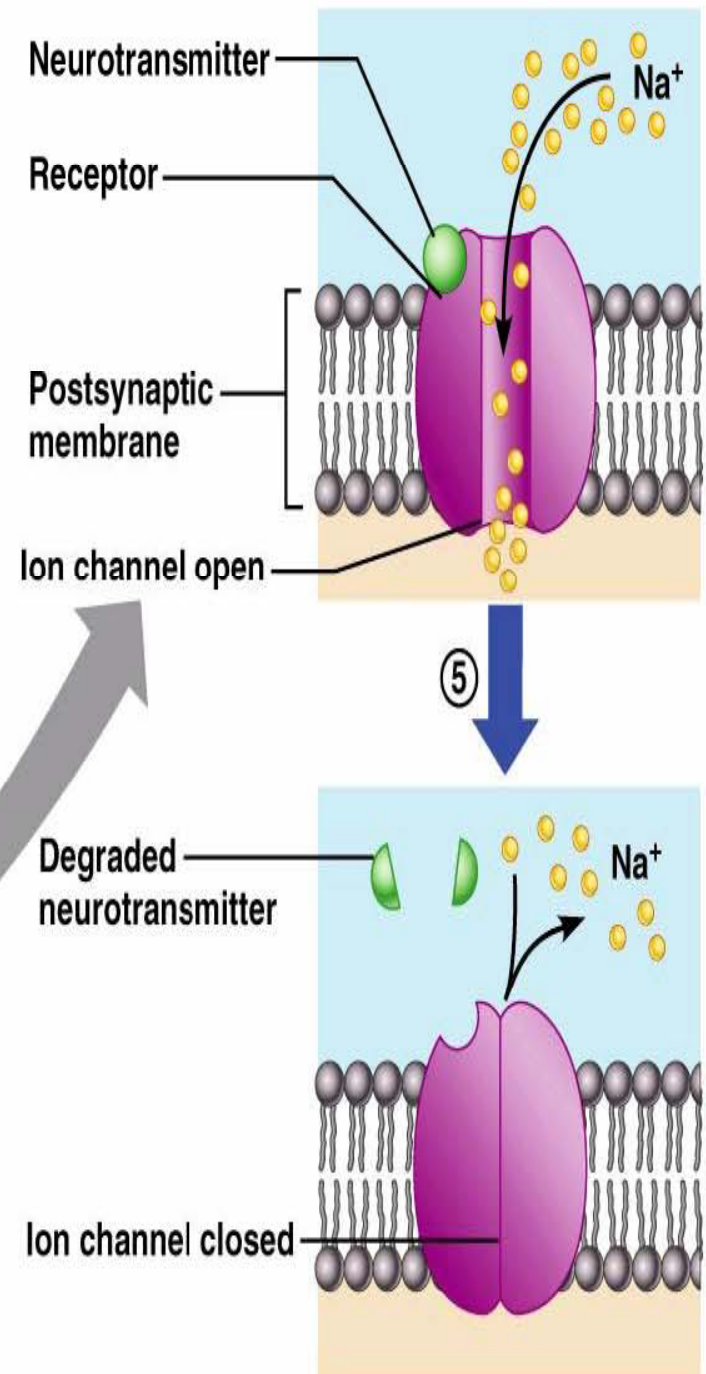
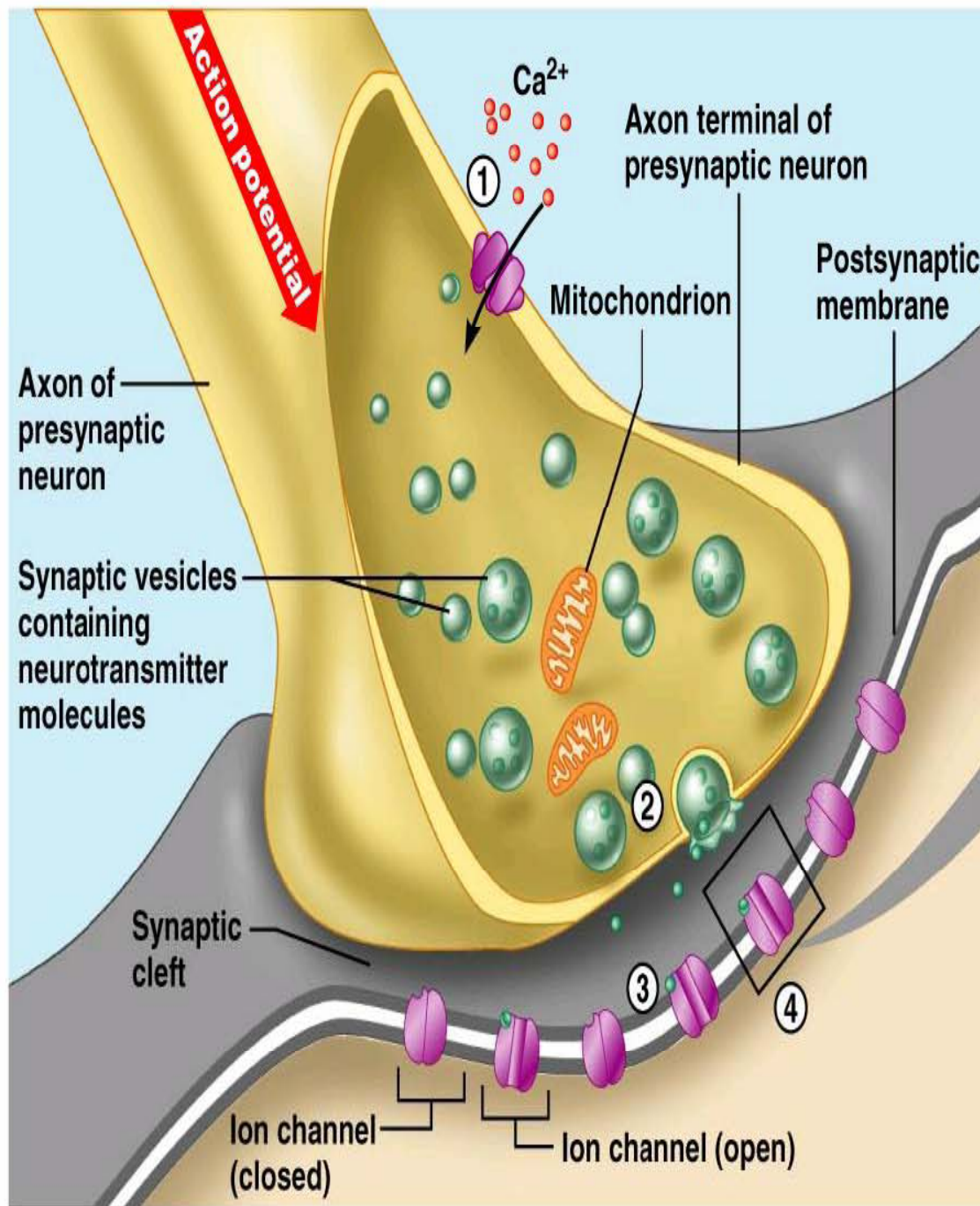


Gap between
the terminal
ending of an
axon and the
input zone of
another cell









Communication

- Begins with the stimulation of a neuron.
 - One neuron may be stimulated by another, by a *receptor* cell, or even by some physical event such as pressure.
- Once stimulated, a neuron will communicate information about the causative event.
 - Such neurons are sensory neurons and they provide info about both the internal and external environments.
 - Sensory neurons (a.k.a. afferent neurons) will send info to neurons in the brain and spinal cord. There, association neurons (a.k.a. interneurons) will integrate the information and then perhaps send commands to motor neurons (efferent neurons) which synapse with muscles or glands.

Neurotransmitters

Neurotransmitters

- Acetylcholine (ACh)
- Dopamine (DA)
- Histamine
- Norepinephrine (NE)
- Epinephrine
- Serotonin (5HT)

Peptides

- GammaAminobutyric Acid (GABA)
- Glutamate
- Aspartate
- Glycine

Neuropeptides

- Insulin
- Betaendorphin
- Neuropeptide Y
- Calcitonin

Types of NT

1. Acetylcholine (ACh)

1. this NT has 2 types of receptors

A. nicotinic receptors:

a. agonist: is nicotine

b. antagonist: is curare

B. muscarinic receptors:

a. agonist: is muscarine

b. antagonist: is atropine (deadly nightshade)

2. deactivated by acetylcholinesterase (AChE) & choline is reused

3. physostigmine: inhibits AChE (agonist) but is reversible.

4. botulinum toxin prevents the release of ACh from the terminal button (antagonist)

5. black widow spider venom causes ACh terminals to release ACh (agonist)

Monoamines

All monoamines work thru metabotropic receptors

Monoamine oxidase (MAO) & catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT) deactivate these.

1. The drug reserpine prevents the storage of the monoamines

types of monoamines:

I. Indolamines:

1. Serotonin (5-HT)

A. produced in the raphe nuclei in the midline of the pons & medulla

2. B. the drug parachlorophenylalanine (PCPA) blocks tryptophan hydroxylase & prevents the

synthesis of 5-HT (an antagonist)

C. iproniazid block MAO (agonists)

II. Catecholamines:

The amino acid tyrosine is the precursor

NT is released thru axonal varicosities: swellings on the axon

1. Norepinephrine (NE) noradrenalin

- A. in the CNS this is produced in the locus ceruleus (nucleus in midbrain) & is distributed though out the CNS

2. Epinephrine (E) adrenaline

- A. works at the same receptors as NE
- B. stimulates the sympathetic nervous system
- C. ephedrine: alpha & beta receptor agonist
- D. propranolol: beta receptor blocker has antihypertensive effects

3 Dopamine (DA)

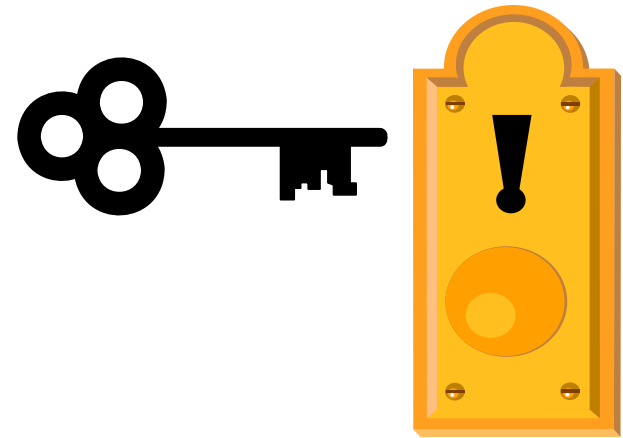
- A. produced in substantia nigra & ventral tegmental area (midbrain) & sent to the cortex, limbic system, hypothalamus, & basal ganglia
- B. implicated in movement disorders e.g., in Parkinson's disease (L-DOPA)
- C. cocaine and amphetamine work by preventing reuptake
- D. apomorphine: stimulates only autoreceptors (an antagonist)

CRITERIA

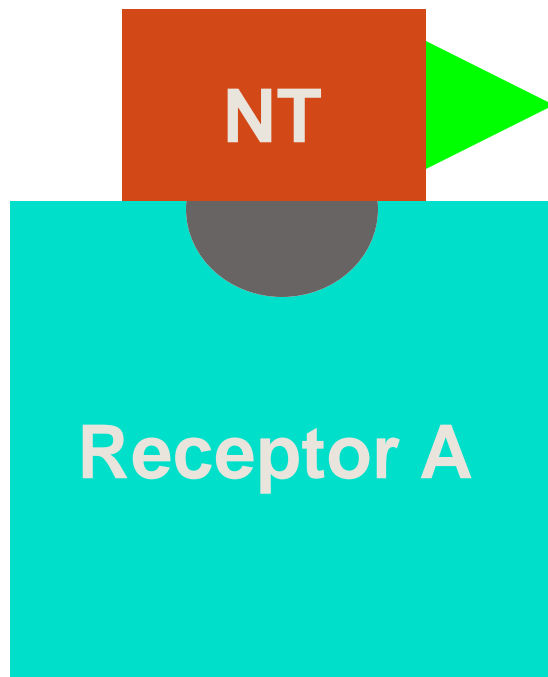
- NT found in axon terminals
- NT released by action potentials
- Synthesis identified
- External application mimic normal Response
- Pharmacology same for normal and externally applied NT ~

Lock & Key Model

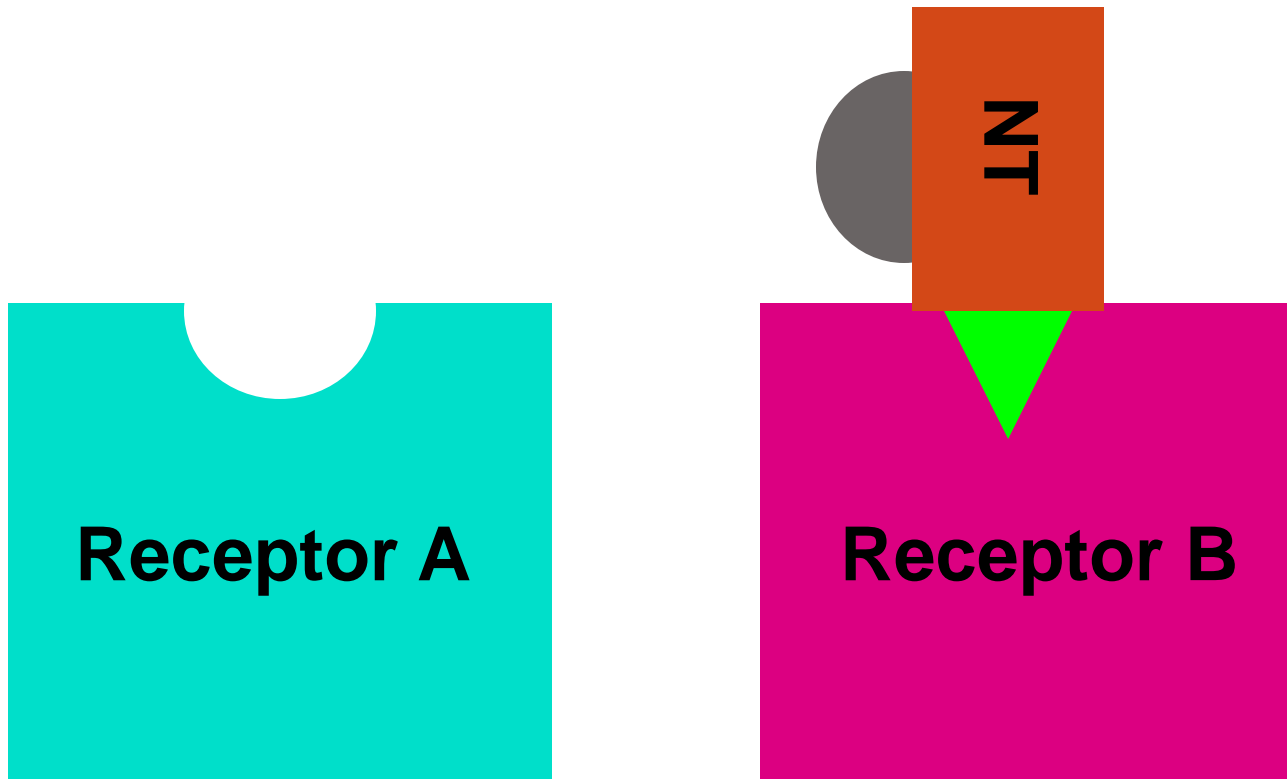
- NT binds to receptor
NT = key
Receptor = lock
- Receptor changes shape
determines if EPSP or IPSP
receptor subtypes
- NOT NT ~



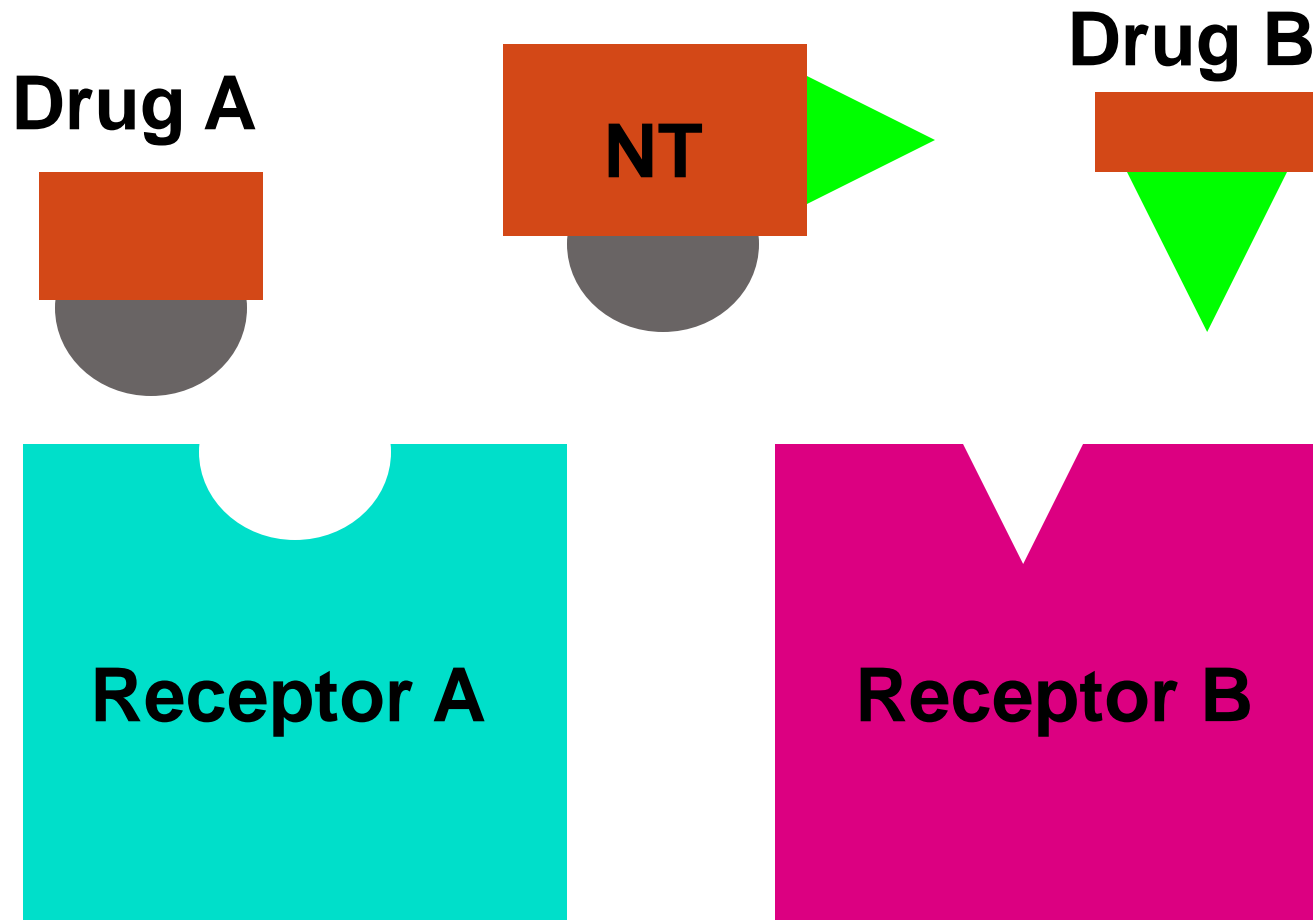
- **ligand binds to receptor**
- **activation: + or - ~**



- Same NT can bind to different -R
- different part of NT ~



Specificity of drugs



Acetylcholine - ACh

- Most abundant NT in Peripheral N.S.
 - also found in Central N.S.

- Precursor = choline
nutrient

- Degraded by acetylcholinesterase-
 - AChE

Membrane bound - pre- & postsynaptic

- Nicotinic receptor - ionotropic
- Muscarinic receptor - metabotropic ~

Ach - Distribution

- Peripheral N.S.
 - Excites somatic muscle
 - Autonomic NS
 - Ganglia
 - Parasympathetic NS
 - Neuroeffector junction
- Central N.S. - widespread
 - Hippocampus
 - Hypothalamus ~

Cholinergic Agonists

- Direct
 - Muscarine
 - Nicotine
 - small doses
- Indirect
 - AChE Inhibitors ~

AChE inhibitors

- Physostigmine
- Organophosphates - irreversible
 - DFP
 - Soman & Sarin
 - Malathion*
- Agonist or Antagonist?
indirect agonist ~

Cholinergic Antagonists

- Direct

Nicotinic - Curare

Muscarinic - Atropine

Scopolamine

- Indirect

Botulinum Toxin

Black Widow Spider Venom ~

ACh

Botulinum toxin

A

BWSV

N

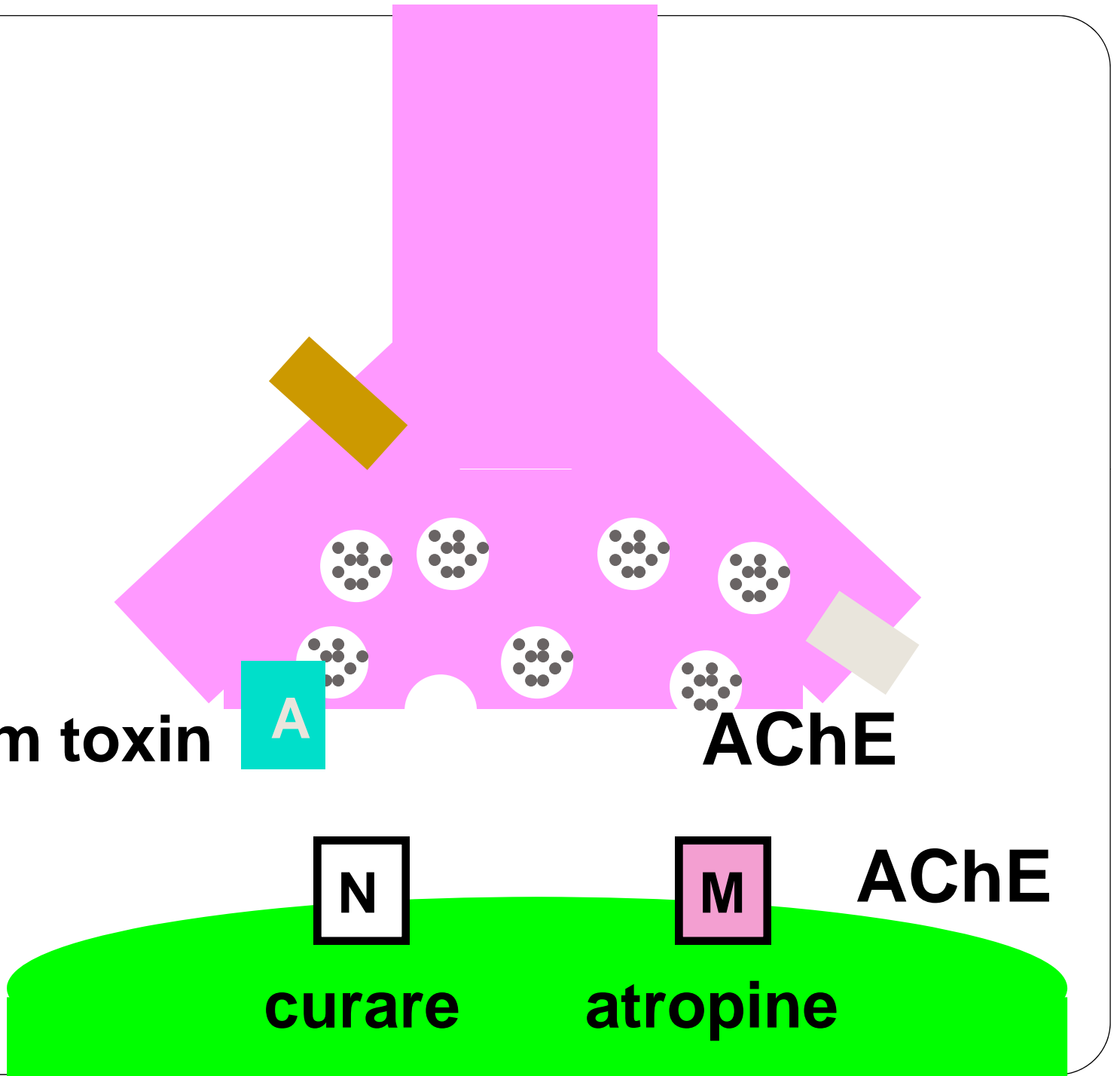
curare

M

atropine

AChE

AChE



Monamines

- Amino acid precursors
 - single amine group

- 2 groups

Catecholamines - catechol ring

Indolamine - indole ring

- Affected by many of same drugs ~

Monoamines

- Catecholamines

Dopamine - DA

- Dopaminergic

Norepinephrine - NE

- Noradrenergic

Epinephrine - E

- Adrenergic ~

- Indolamines

— Serotonin - 5-HT

- Serotonergic

Monoamines

- Terminated by...
 - reuptake
 - monoamine oxidase - MAO
 - catechol-O-methyltransferase - COMT
 - also in liver
- Reserpine ---> leaky vesicles
 - depletes monoamines ~

Monoamines

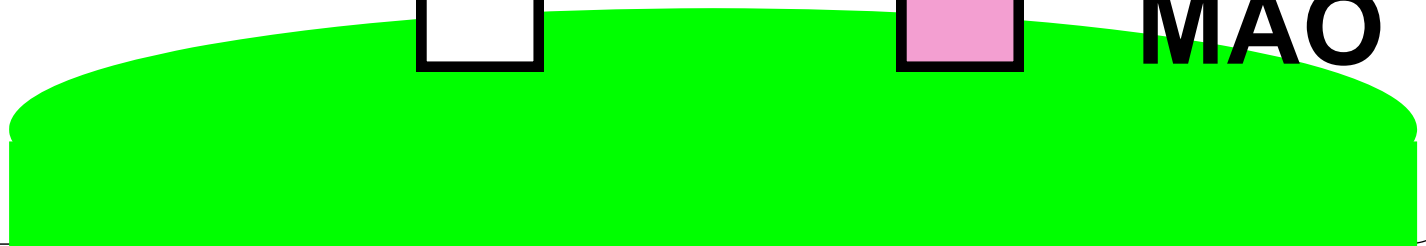
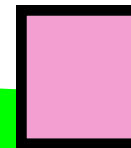
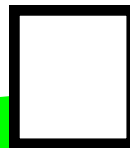
Reserpine

MAO

A

COMT

MAO



Indirect Monoamine Agonists

- MAOIs

Iproniazid

- Reuptake blockers

- Tricyclic antidepressants

- Imipramine

- Desipramine

Cocaine & Amphetamine ~

Dopamine

- Only in central nervous system
mostly inhibitory systems
- Reward
- Schizophrenia
- Movement
 - Nigrostriatal Pathway
- At least 5 DA-R types: D_1 , D_2 , etc. ~

Dopaminergic Drugs

- Agonist
 - L-dopa
- Antagonists
 - Chlorpromazine
 - D₁
 - Haloperidol
 - D₂ ~

Norepinephrine

- Peripheral N.S.
 - Sympathetic neuroeffector junction
 - Adrenal glands
- Central N.S.
 - Hypothalamus
 - Locus coeruleus
- Alpha & Beta receptor subtypes
 - NE_{α} & $NE_{\beta} \sim$

Noradrenergic Drugs

- Agonists
 - Mescaline
 - Ephedrine
- Antagonist
 - Propranolol -
 - beta receptors ~

Serotonin

- NOT a catecholamine
- Peripheral
 - 98% in blood & smooth muscle
- Central N.S.
 - Raphe nucleus
 - Hypothalamus
- R subtypes: $5HT_1$ & $5HT_2 \sim$

Serotonergic Drugs

- Agonists
 - SSRIs
 - Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitors
 - Buspirone
 - MDMA
 - Ecstasy ~

Gamma-aminobutyric acid

- GABA - GABAergic
- Major NT in brain inhibitory system
- Receptor subtypes
 - GABA_A - controls Cl⁻ channel
 - GABA_B - controls K⁺ channel
- Precursor = glutamate ~

Neuropeptide

- Substance P - pain signaling
- Endorphins - analgesia, euphoria ~

Endorphins

- Opioids

- Dynorphin

- met-enkephalin
 - leu-enkephalin
 - Beta-endorphin

Endorphins (cont.)

- Agonists
 - morphine
 - heroin
 - codeine
- Antagonists
 - naloxone
 - naltrexone ~

Other NTs

- Excitatory amino acids
 - Glutamate & Aspartate
- Histamine
 - Inflammatory Response
- Nitric Oxide - It's a gas
- Anandamide

MODE OF ACTION

Postsynaptic Potentials

§ ***Neurotransmitter receptors mediate changes in membrane potential according to:***

- § The amount of neurotransmitter released
- § The amount of time the neurotransmitter is bound to receptors

§ ***The two types of postsynaptic potentials are:***

- § EPSP – excitatory postsynaptic potentials
- § IPSP – inhibitory postsynaptic potentials order

§ Spatial summation – postsynaptic neuron is stimulated by a large number of terminals at the same time

- § IPSPs can also summate with EPSPs, canceling each other out

Excitatory Postsynaptic Potentials(EPSP)

§ *EPSPs are graded potentials that can initiate an action potential in an axon*

§ Use only chemically gated channels

§ Na⁺ and K⁺ flow in opposite directions at the same time

§ *Postsynaptic membranes do not generate action potentials*

Inhibitory Synapses and IPSPs

§ *Neurotransmitter binding to a receptor at inhibitory synapses:*

§ Causes the membrane to become more permeable to potassium and chloride ions

§ Leaves the charge on the inner surface negative

§ Reduces the postsynaptic neuron's ability to produce an action potential

Summation

§ A single EPSP cannot induce an action potential

§ EPSPs must summate temporally or spatially to induce an action potential

§ Temporal summation – presynaptic neurons transmit impulses in rapidfire order

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The main membrane processes involved in neural activities
are:

- 1. resting potential:** the transmembrane potential of a resting cell
 - 2. graded potential:** a temporary localized change in the resting potential, caused by a stimulus
 - 3. action potential:** an electrical impulse (produced by the graded potential) that propagates along the surface of an axon to a synapse.
 - 4. synaptic activity:** the release of neurotransmitters at the presynaptic membrane, which produce graded potentials in a postsynaptic membrane.
 - 5. information processing:** the response (integration of stimuli) of a postsynaptic cell.
-

The 3 main requirements for a transmembrane potential are:

- 1. A concentration gradient of ions (Na⁺, K⁺) across the cell membrane**
- 2. The membrane be selectively permeable through membrane channels**
- 3. Passive and active transport mechanisms maintain a difference in charge across the membrane (*resting potential* = -70 mV)**

***Passive* forces acting across the membrane are**

- chemical
- electrical.

ELECTRICAL SYNAPSES

Action potential is transmitted from one cell to another by the direct flow of current.

- Conduction can occur in both directions, and there is essentially no synaptic delay.
- Cells with electrical synapses are joined by gap junctions.

1. Chemical gradients:

- concentration gradients of ions (Na^+ , K^+) across the membrane

2. Electrical gradients:

- the charges of positive and negative ions are separated across the membrane, resulting in a *potential difference*.

- positive and negative charges attract one another
- if charges are not separated, they will move to eliminate potential difference, resulting in an electrical current

- how much current a membrane can restrict is called its resistance

Electrochemical gradient:

- 1. the sum of chemical and electrical forces acting on an ion (Na^+ , K^+) across a cell membrane is the electrochemical gradient for that ion.**
- 2. chemical gradient of potassium tends to move potassium out of the cell, but the electrical gradient of the cell membrane opposes this movement**
- 3. the transmembrane potential at which there is no net movement of a particular ion across the cell membrane is the *equilibrium potential* for that ion ($\text{K}^+ = -90 \text{ mV}$, $\text{Na}^+ = +66 \text{ mV}$).**
- 4. the electrochemical gradient is a form of *potential energy***

Active forces maintain the cell membrane's *resting potential* (-70 mV).

The cell actively pumps out sodium ions (Na^+), and pumps in potassium ions (K^+).

The sodium-potassium exchange pump (the carrier protein *sodium-potassium ATPase*), powered by ATP, exchanges 3 Na^+ for each 2 K^+ , balancing the passive forces of diffusion.

Relative Refractory Period

- Could an AP be generated during the undershoot?
 - Yes! But it would take an initial stimulus that is much, much stronger than usual.
 - *WHY?*
 - This situation is known as the **relative refractory period**.

Imagine, if you will, a toilet.

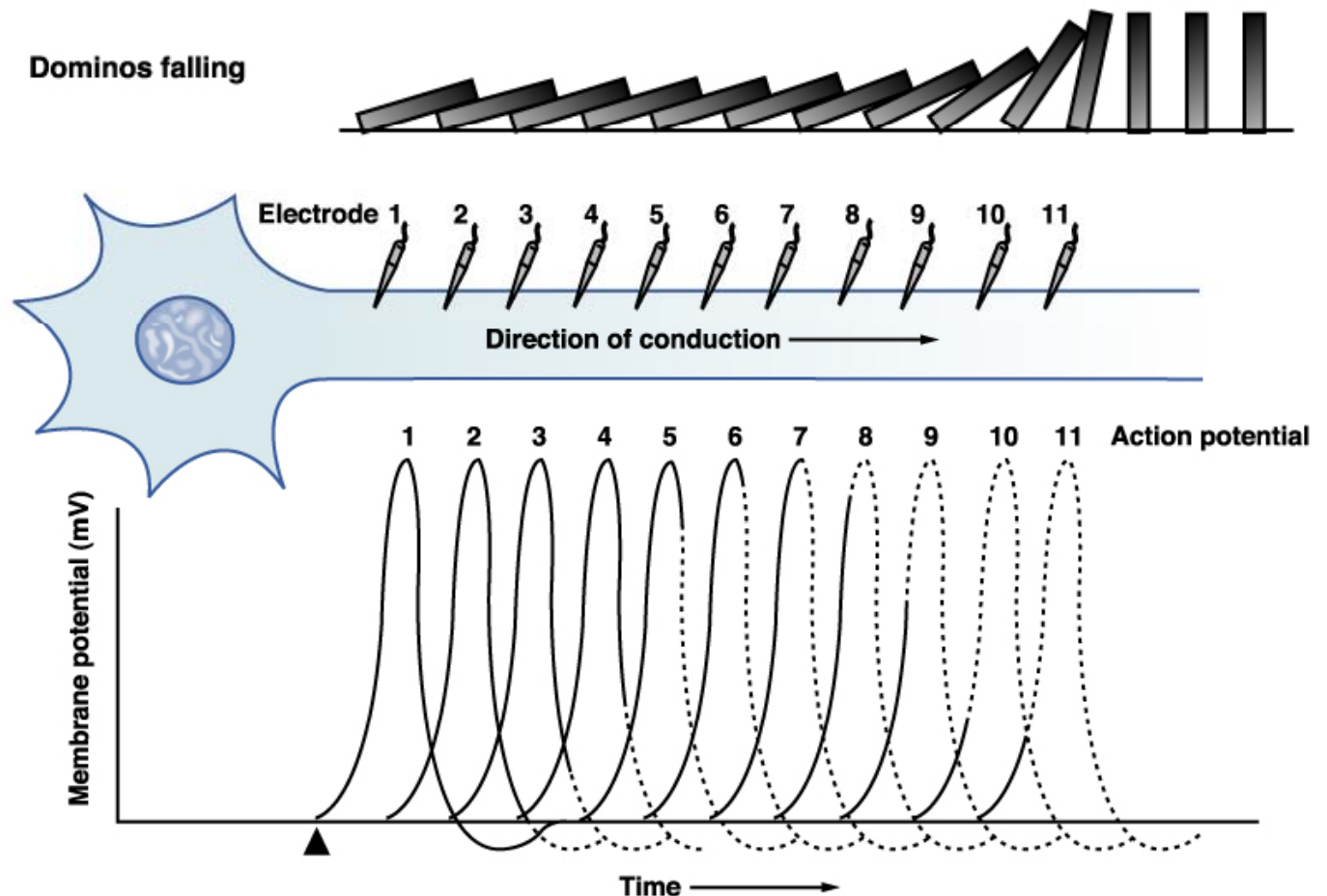
When you pull the handle, water floods the bowl. This event takes a couple of seconds and you cannot stop it in the middle. Once the bowl empties, the flush is complete. Now the upper tank is empty. If you try pulling the handle at this point, nothing happens (**absolute refractory**). Wait for the upper tank to begin refilling. You can now flush again, but the intensity of the flushes increases as the upper tank refills (**relative refractory**)

Action Potential Conduction

- If an AP is generated at the axon hillock, it will travel all the way down to the synaptic knob.
- The manner in which it travels depends on whether the neuron is myelinated or unmyelinated.
- Unmyelinated neurons undergo the *continuous conduction* of an AP whereas myelinated neurons undergo *saltatory conduction* of an AP.

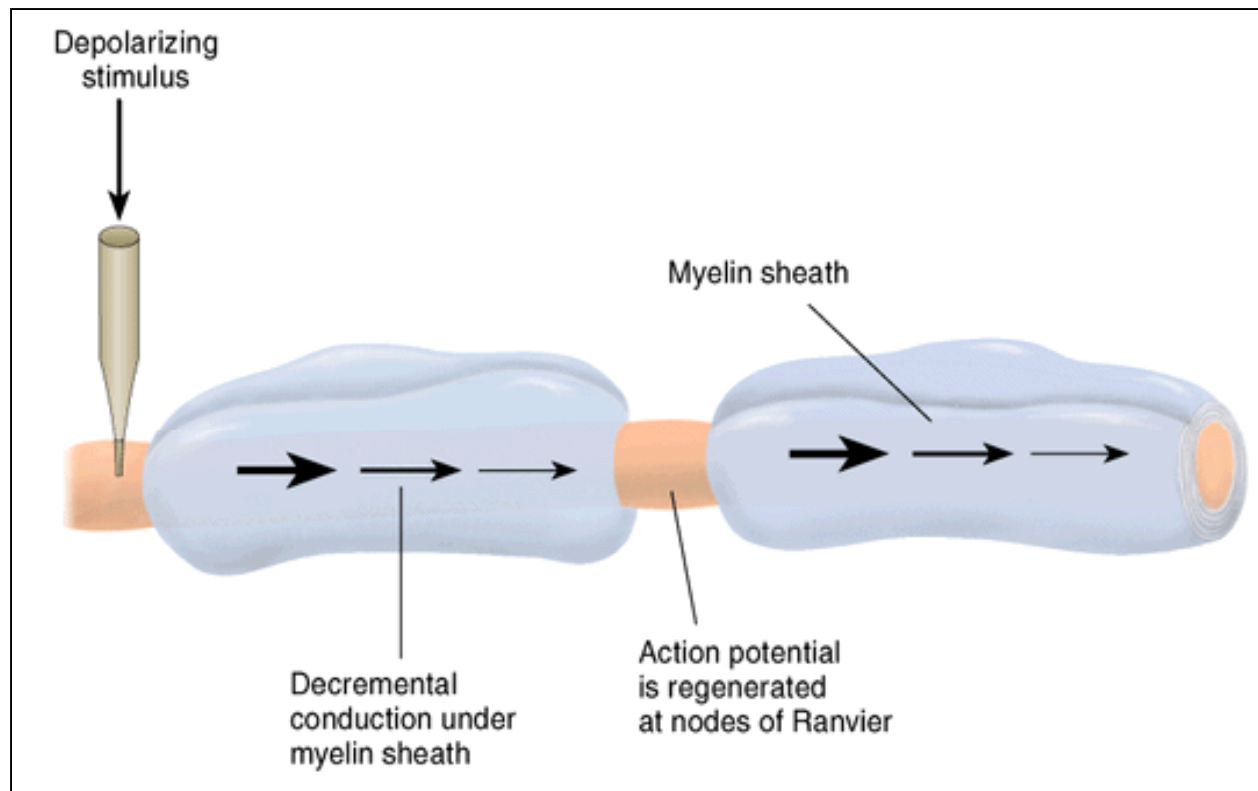
Continuous Conduction

- Occurs in unmyelinated axons.
- In this situation, the wave of de- and repolarization simply travels from one patch of membrane to the next adjacent patch.
- APs moved along the of a muscle
- Analogous to falling.

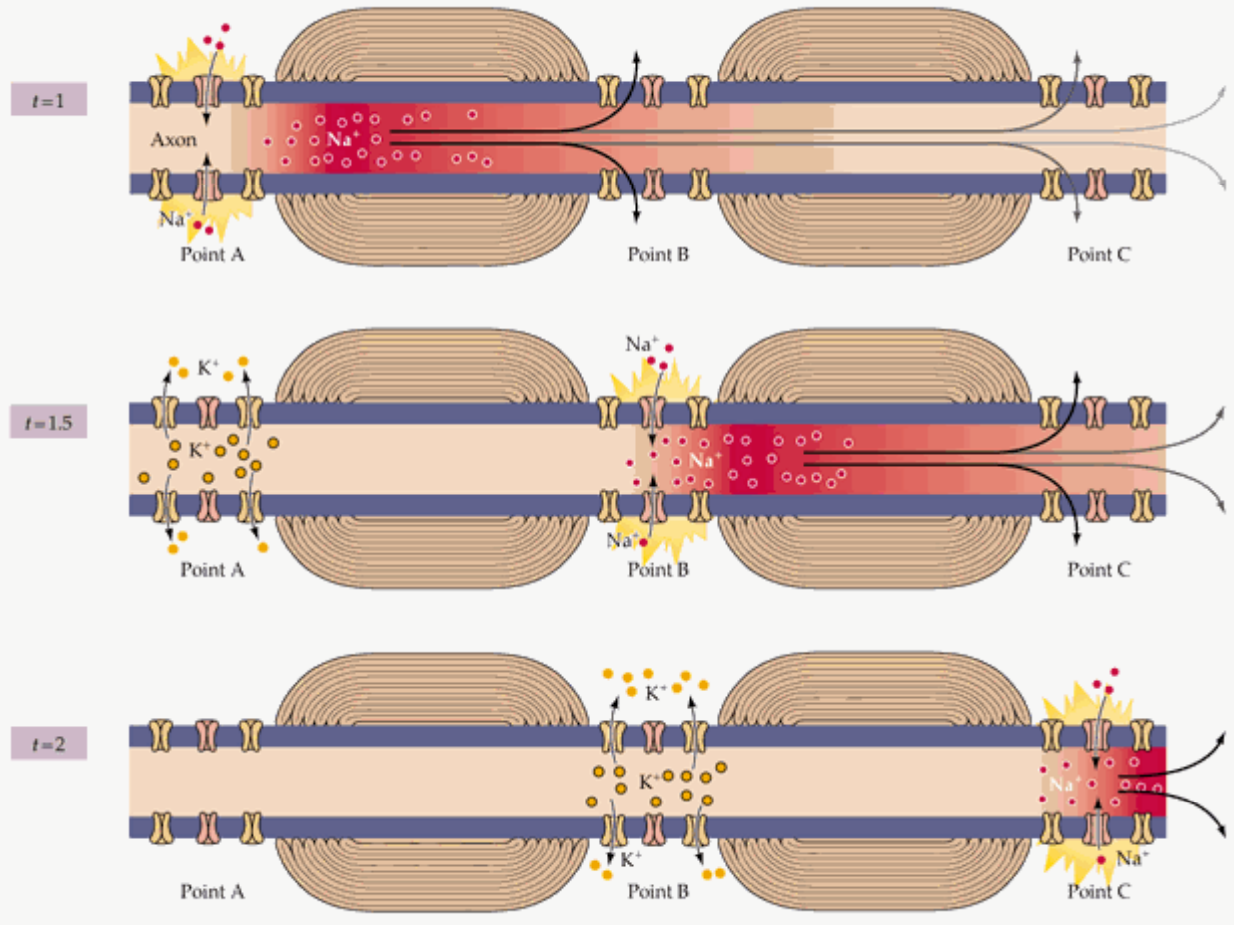


Saltatory Conduction

- Occurs in myelinated axons.
- *Saltare* is a Latin word meaning “to leap.”
- Recall that the myelin sheath is not completed. There exist myelin free regions along the axon, the nodes of Ranvier.



(B) Action potential propagation



Rates of AP Conduction

1. Which do you think has a faster rate of AP conduction – myelinated or unmyelinated axons?
2. Which do you think would conduct an AP faster – an axon with a large diameter or an axon with a small diameter?

The answer to #1 is a myelinated axon. If you can't see why, then answer this question: could you move 100ft faster if you walked heel to toe or if you bounded in a way that there were 3ft in between your feet with each step?

The answer to #2 is an axon with a large diameter. If you can't see why, then answer this question: could you move faster if you walked through a hallway that was 6ft wide or if you walked through a hallway that was 1ft wide?

Types of Nerve Fibers

1. Group A

- Axons of the somatic sensory neurons and motor neurons serving the skin, skeletal muscles, and joints.
- Large diameters and thick myelin sheaths.
 - How does this influence their AP conduction?

2. Group B

- Type B are lightly myelinated and of intermediate diameter.

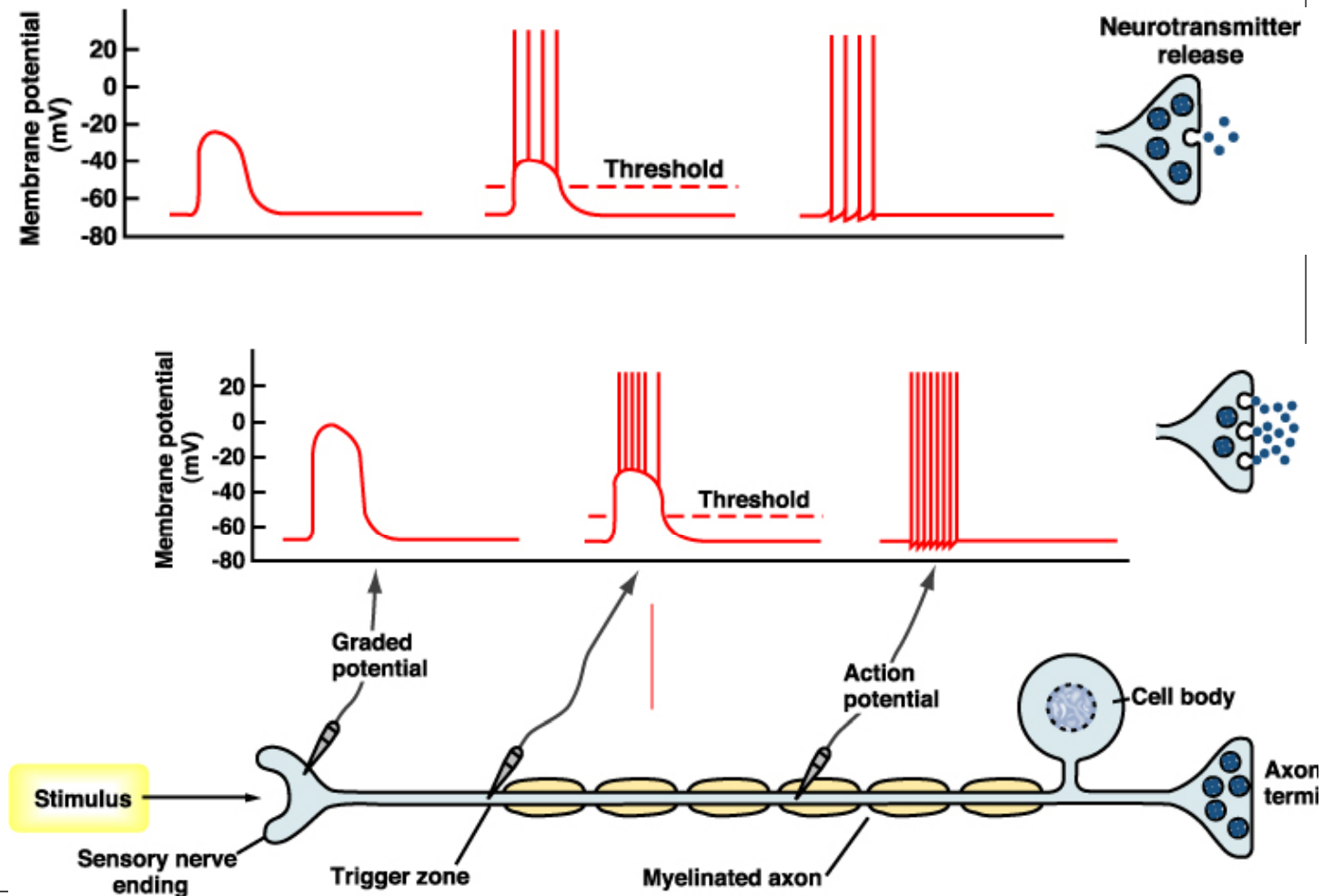
3. Group C

- Type C are unmyelinated and have the smallest diameter.
- Autonomic nervous system fibers serving the visceral organs, visceral sensory fibers, and small somatic sensory fibers are Type B and Type C fibers.

Now we know how signals get from one end of an axon to the other, but how exactly do APs send information?

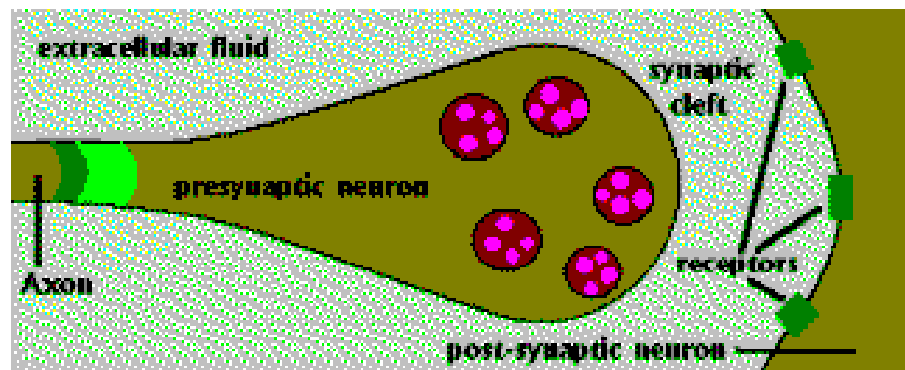
- Info can't be encoded in AP size, since they're "all or none."

In the diagram on the right, notice the effect that the size of the graded potential has on the **frequency of AP's** and on the quantity of NT released. The weak stimulus resulted in a small amt of NT release compared to the strong stimulus.



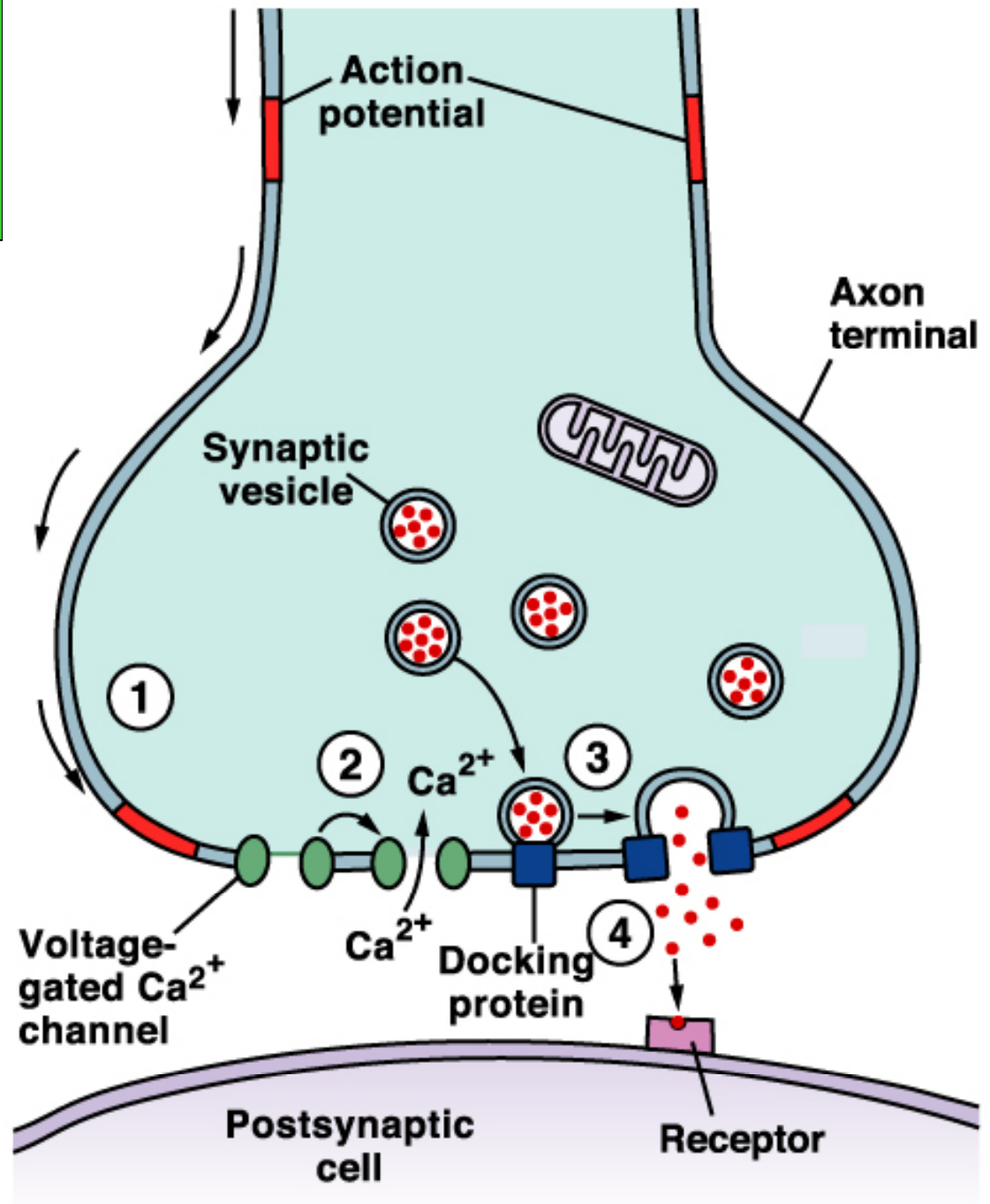
Chemical Signals

- One neuron will transmit info to another neuron or to a muscle or gland cell by releasing chemicals called neurotransmitters.
- The site of this chemical interplay is known as the **synapse**.
 - An axon terminal (**synaptic knob**) will abut another cell, a neuron, muscle fiber, or gland cell.
 - This is the site of **transduction** – the conversion of an electrical signal into a chemical signal.



Synaptic Transmission

- An AP reaches the axon terminal of the presynaptic cell and causes V-gated Ca^{2+} channels to open.
- Ca^{2+} rushes in, binds to regulatory proteins & initiates NT exocytosis.
- NTs diffuse across the synaptic cleft and then bind to receptors on the postsynaptic membrane and initiate some sort of response on the postsynaptic cell.



Effects of the Neurotransmitter

- Different neurons can contain different NTs.
- Different postsynaptic cells may contain different receptors.
 - Thus, the effects of an NT can vary.
- Some NTs cause cation channels to open, which results in a graded depolarization.
- Some NTs cause anion channels to open, which results in a graded hyperpolarization.

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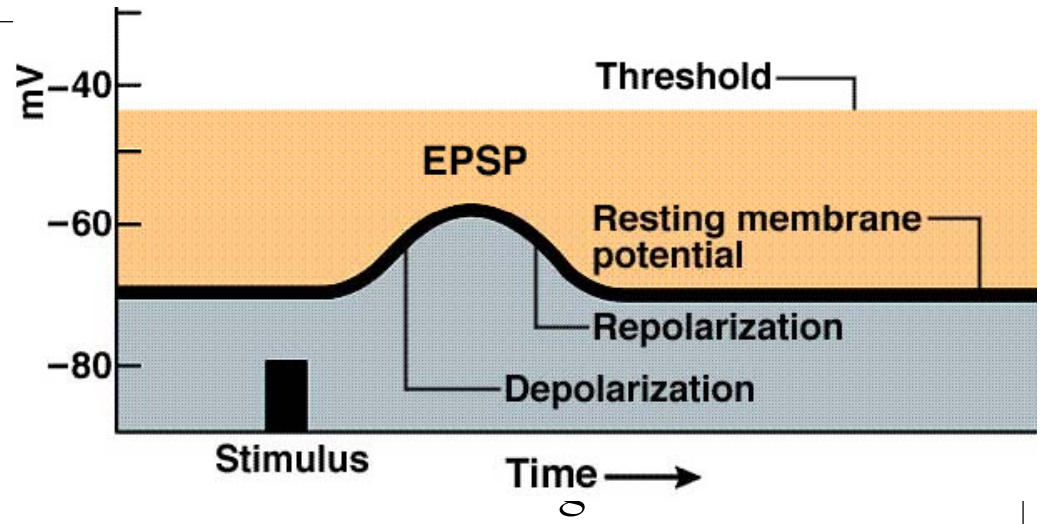
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EPSPs & IPSPs

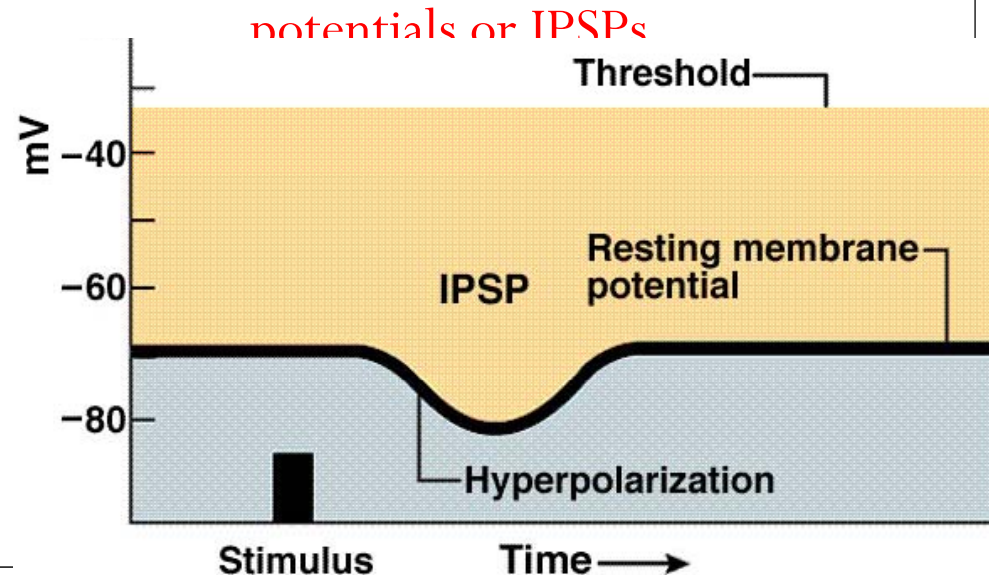
- Typically, a single synaptic event is not strong enough to migrate hillock and

- However, a graded depolarization will bring the neuronal V_M closer to threshold. Thus, it's often referred to as an **excitatory postsynaptic potential or EPSP**.

- Graded hyperpolarizations bring the neuronal V_M farther away from threshold and thus are referred to as **inhibitory postsynaptic potentials or IPSPs**.



bring the neuronal V_M farther away from threshold and thus are referred to as **inhibitory postsynaptic potentials or IPSPs**.



Characteristics of EPSPs

Transient depolarizations

- Excitatory because E_m moves closer to threshold
- Increase in conductance to Na^+ and K^+
- Na^+ influx causes depolarization.
- EPSPs at synapses between neurons are similar to the EPPs at neuromuscular junctions.

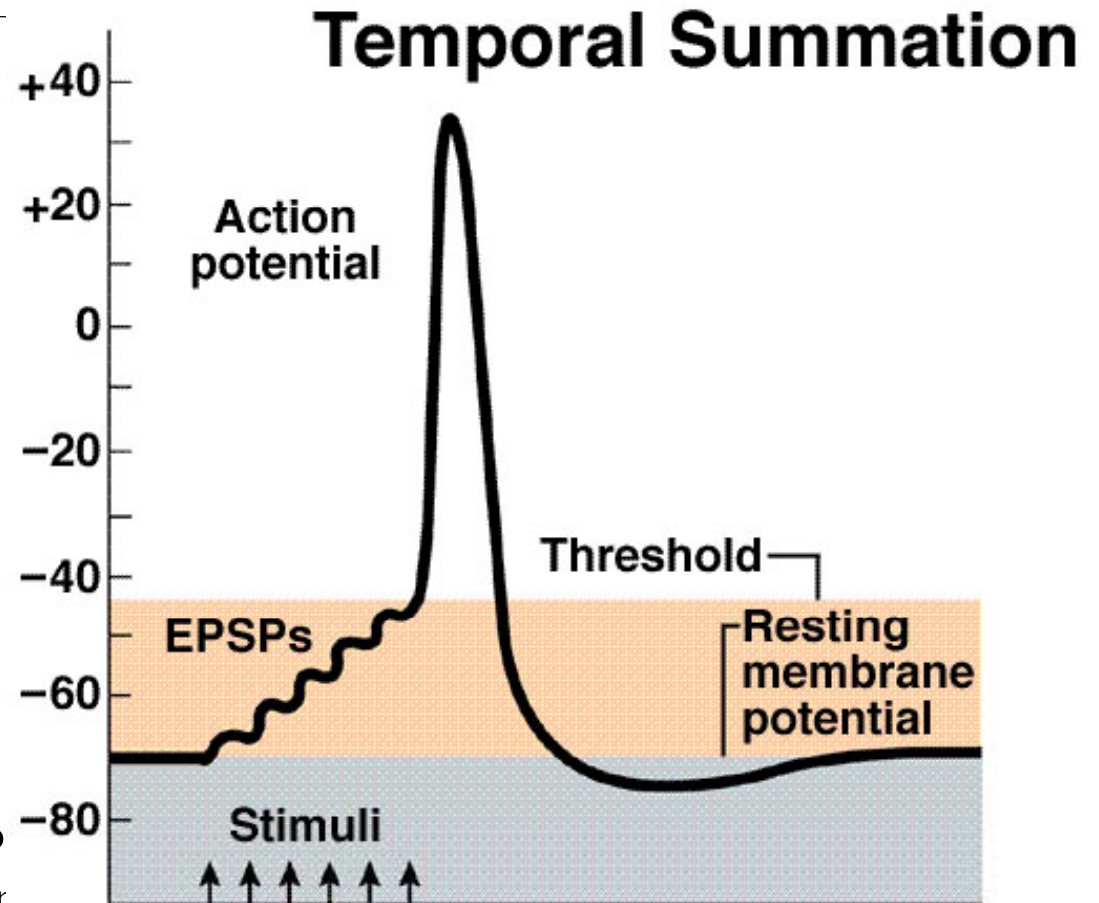
Characteristics of IPSPs

Transient hyperpolarizations

- Inhibitory because E_m moves farther away from its threshold
- Increased conductance to Cl^-
- Cl^- influx causes hyperpolarization
- Also can be produced by increased K^+ conductance and an accelerated K^+ efflux

Summation

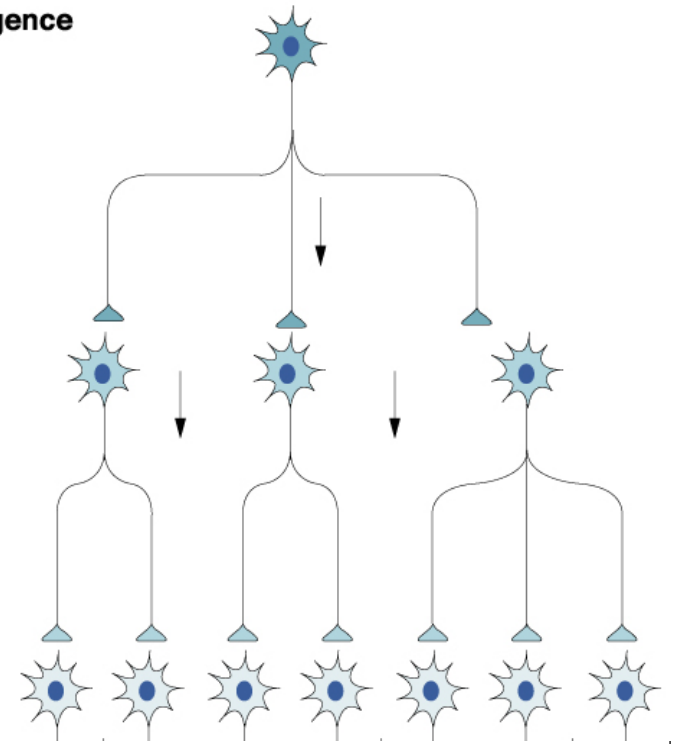
- One EPSP is usually enough
- However, EPSPs may summed.
- **Temporal summation**
 - The same presynaptic stimulates the multiple times in a brief period combination of all the EPSPs may be able to cause an AP.
- **Spatial summation**
 - Multiple neurons all stimulate a postsynaptic neuron resulting in a combination of EPSPs which may yield an AP



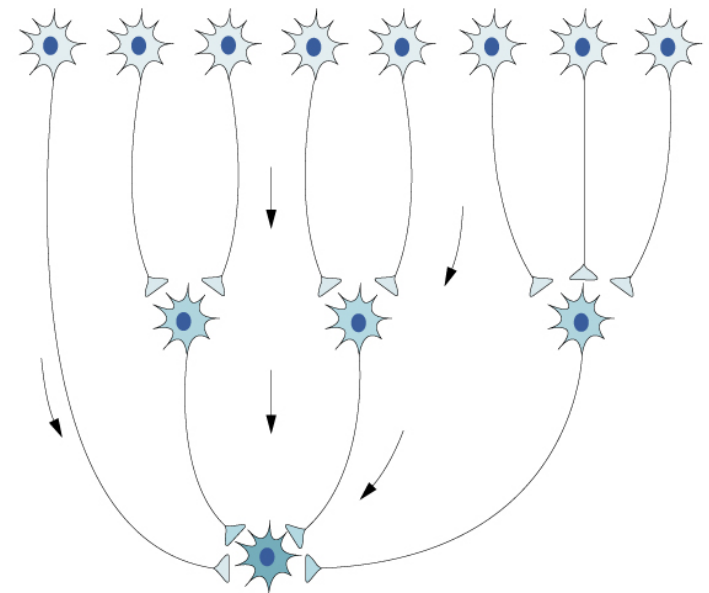
Communication btwn neurons is not typically a one-to-one event.

- Sometimes a single neuron branches and its collaterals synapse on multiple target neurons. This is known as **divergence**.
- A single postsynaptic neuron may have synapses with as many as 10,000 presynaptic neurons. This is **convergence**.
- *Can you think of an advantage to having convergent and divergent circuits?*

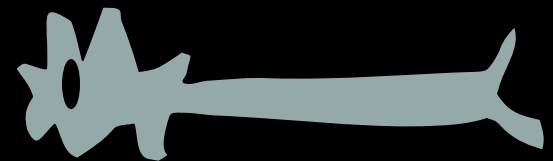
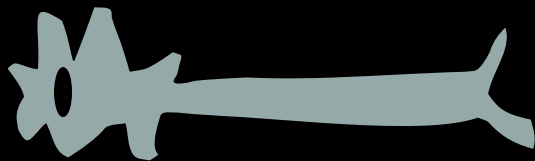
Divergence



Convergence

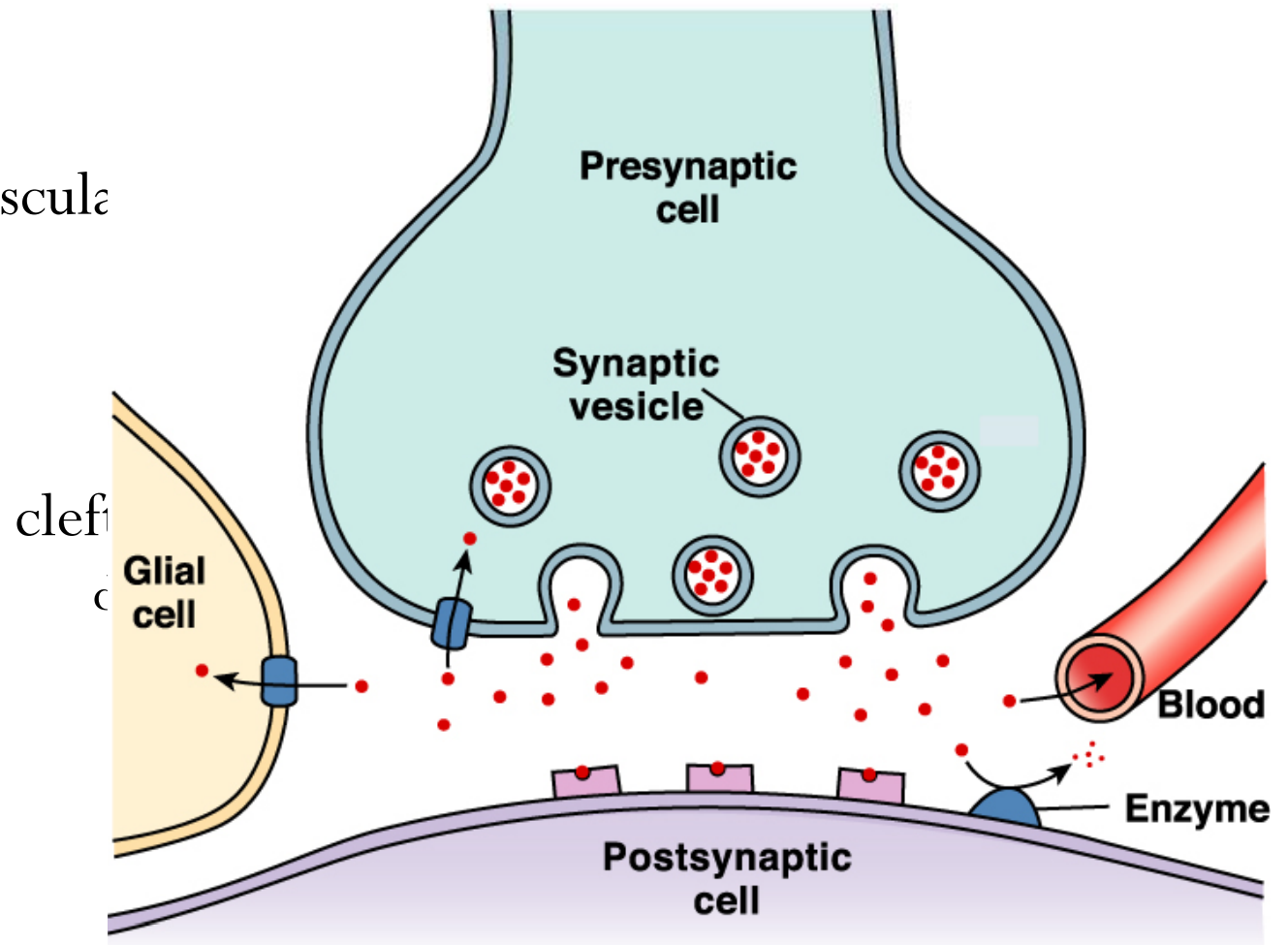


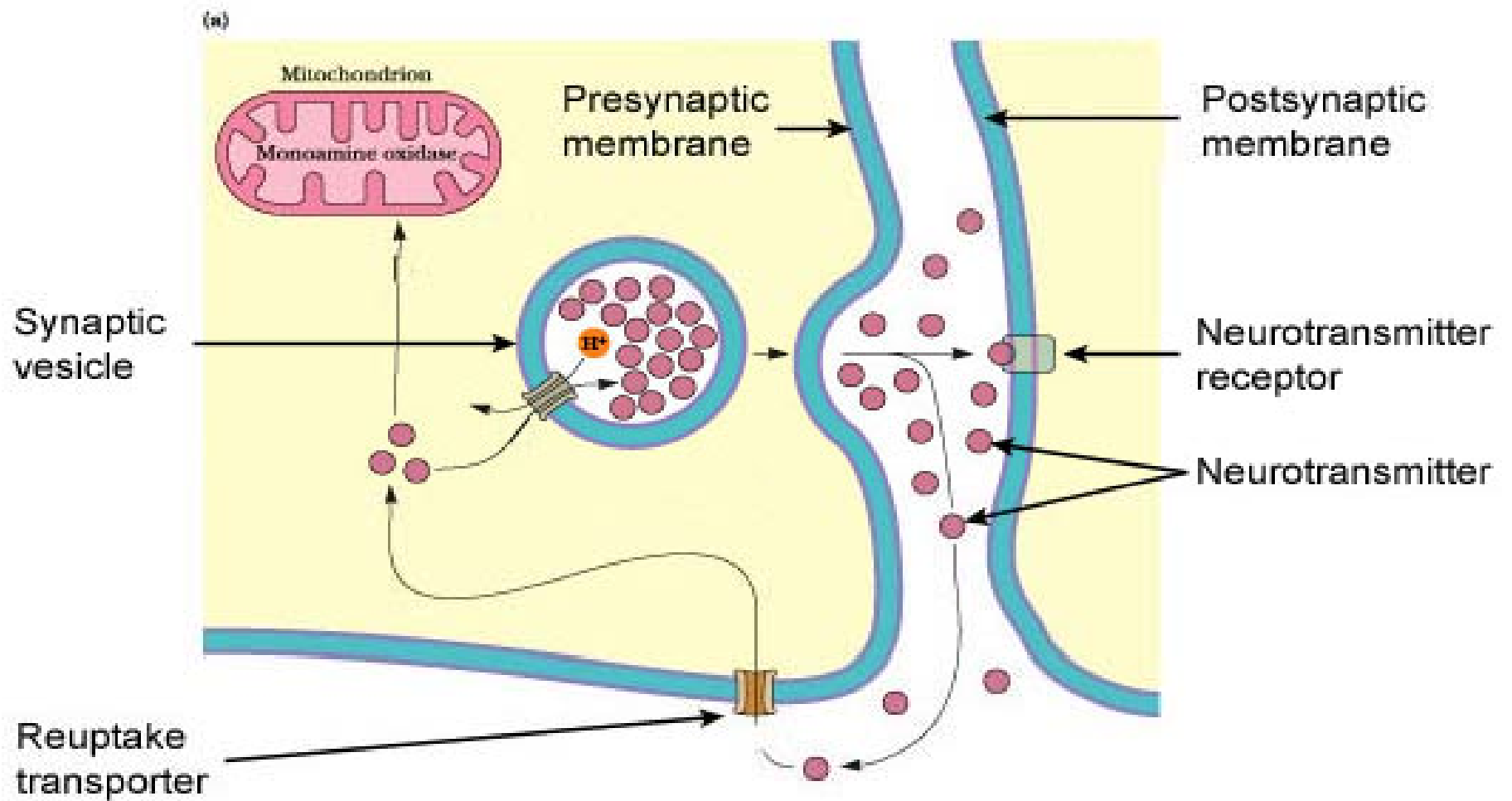
- Neurons may also form reverberating circuits.
 - A chain of neurons where many give off collaterals that go back and synapse on previous neurons.
 - What might be a benefit of this arrangement?



Neurotransmitter Removal

- Why did we want to remove ACh from the neuromuscular junction?
- How was ACh removed from the NMJ?
- NTs are removed from the synaptic cleft
 - Enzymatic
 - Diffusion
 - Reuptake





modified from:
[http://www.web.virginia.edu/H eidi/chapter34/
Images/8883n34_hb_01a.jpg](http://www.web.virginia.edu/H eidi/chapter34/Images/8883n34_hb_01a.jpg)

Phases of the Action Potential

- 1 – resting state
- 2 – depolarization phase
- 3 – repolarization phase
- 4 – hyperpolarization

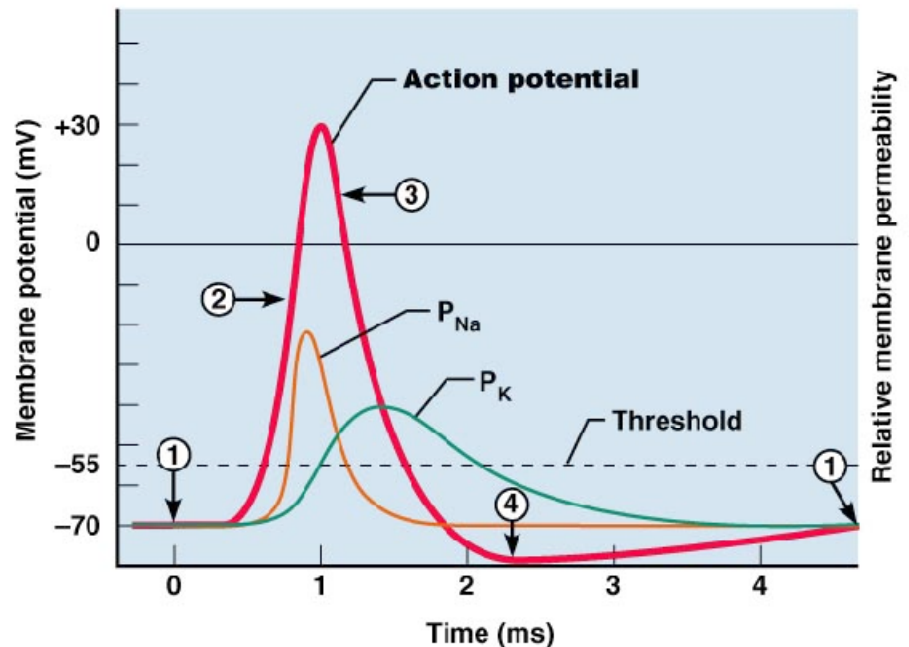


Figure 11.12

Absolute and Relative Refractory

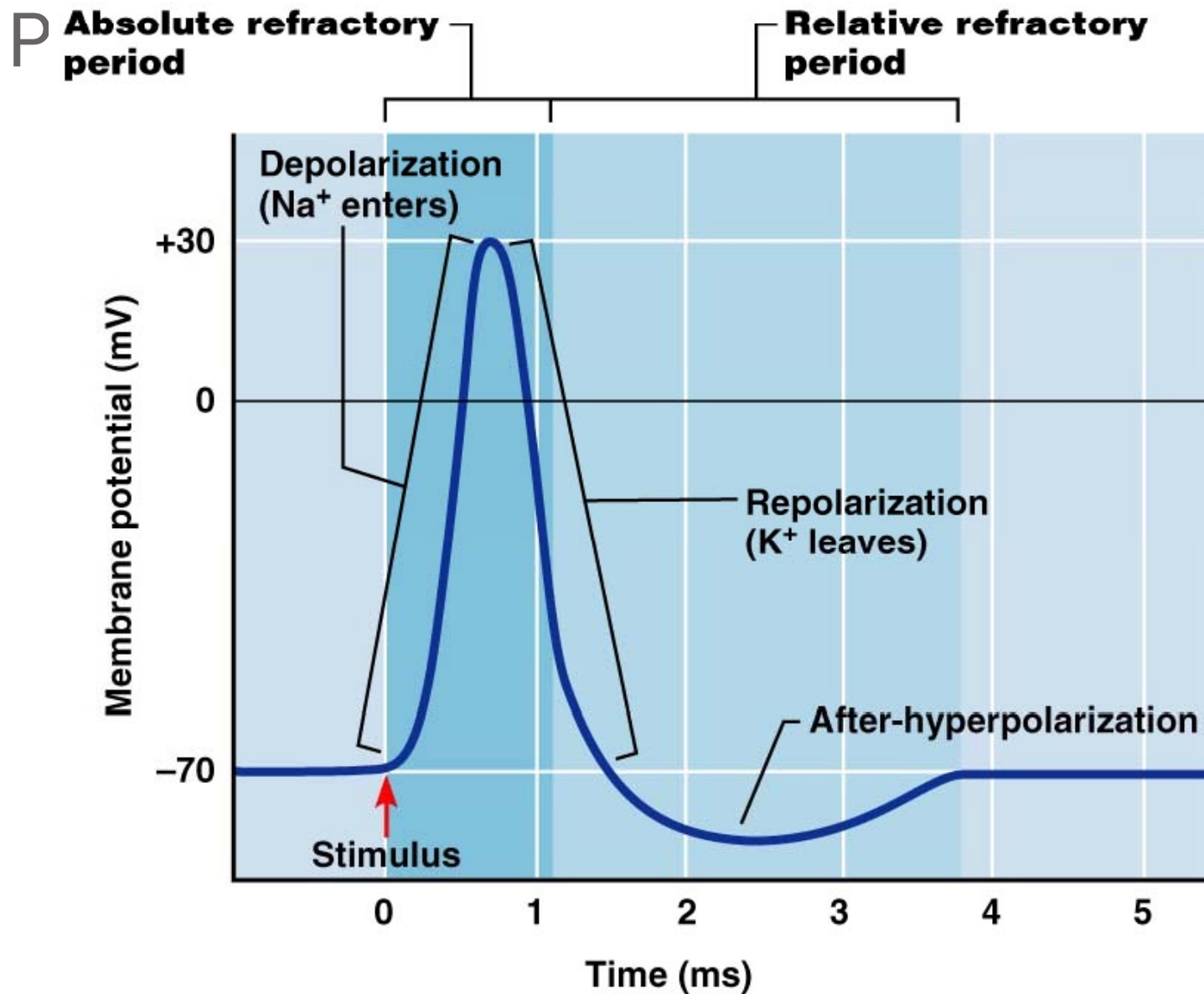


Figure 11.15

Axonal Conduction

- Depolarization
 - Threshold
 - Axon Hillock
 - Na ions rush in resulting in:
 - Action potential;
 - All or none phenomenon, high frequency
 - Afterpotentials; hyperpolarizing, depolarizing;
 - slow frequency
 - Changes in membrane permeabilities
 - Propagation
- Refractory period

Postsynaptic Potentials

§ ***Neurotransmitter receptors mediate changes in membrane potential according to:***

- § The amount of neurotransmitter released
- § The amount of time the neurotransmitter is bound to receptors

§ ***The two types of postsynaptic potentials are:***

- § EPSP – excitatory postsynaptic potentials
- § IPSP – inhibitory postsynaptic potentials order

§ Spatial summation – postsynaptic neuron is stimulated by a large number of terminals at the same time

- § IPSPs can also summate with EPSPs, canceling each other out

Excitatory Postsynaptic Potentials(EPSP)

§ EPSPs are graded potentials that can initiate an action potential in an axon

§ Use only chemically gated channels

§ Na⁺ and K⁺ flow in opposite directions at the same time

§ Postsynaptic membranes do not generate action potentials

Inhibitory Synapses and IPSPs

§ Neurotransmitter binding to a receptor at inhibitory synapses:

§ Causes the membrane to become more permeable to potassium and chloride ions

§ Leaves the charge on the inner surface negative

§ Reduces the postsynaptic neuron's ability to produce an action potential

Summation

§ A single EPSP cannot induce an action potential

§ EPSPs must summate temporally or spatially to induce an action potential

§ Temporal summation – presynaptic neurons transmit impulses in rapidfire order

§ Spatial summation – postsynaptic neuron is stimulated by a large number of terminals at the same time

§ IPSPs can also summate with EPSPs, canceling each other out

Synaptic Transmission

Post-synaptic potentials (PSP's);

- Excitatory
- Inhibitory
- Interaction

Summation/Integration

- **temporal**
- **spatial**
- **decremental conduction** on dendrites and soma
axon hillock is critical area at which threshold must be reached

After release of neurotransmitter,

reuptake
degradation

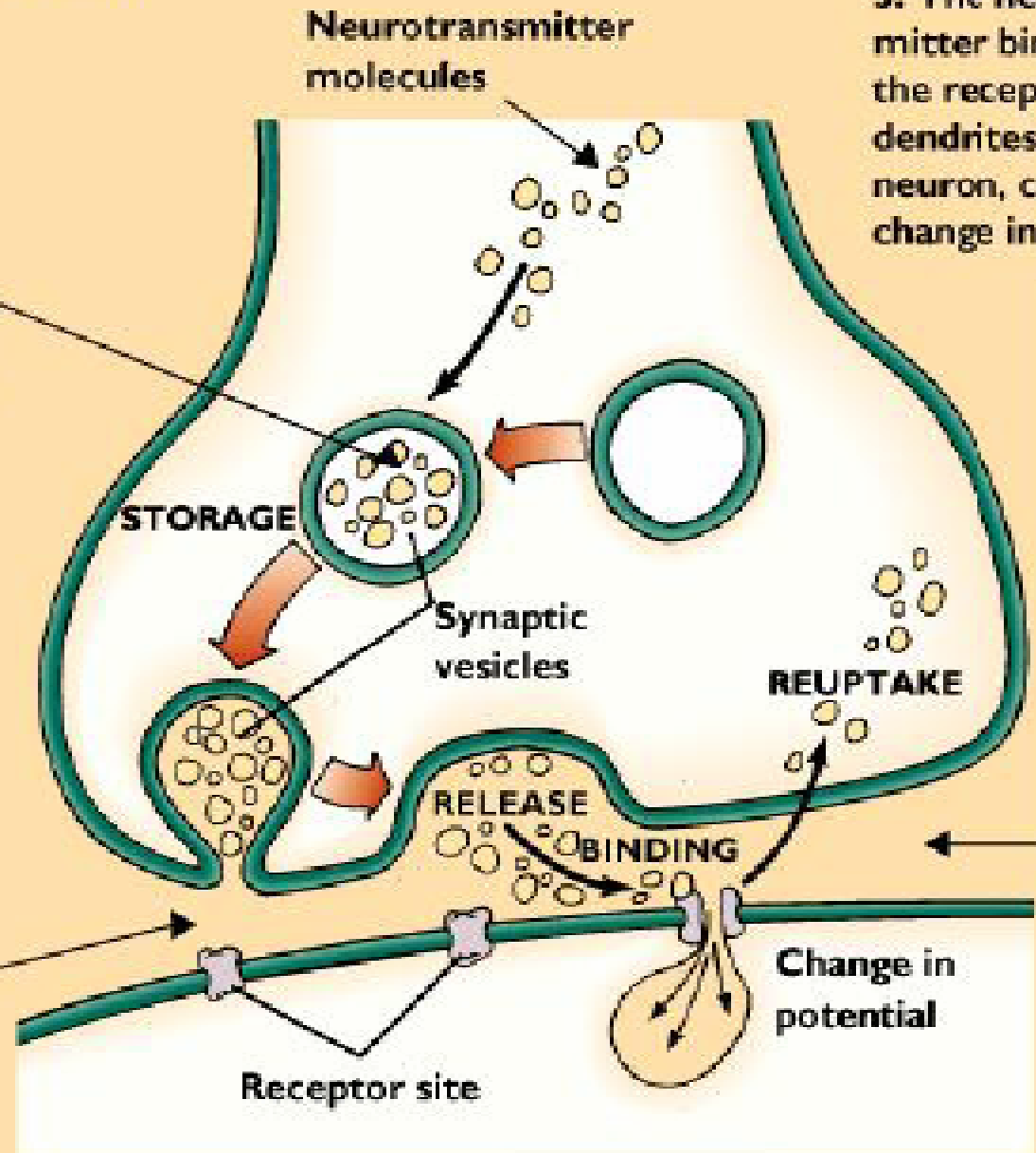
Functional Synaptic Units

Synaptic Transmission

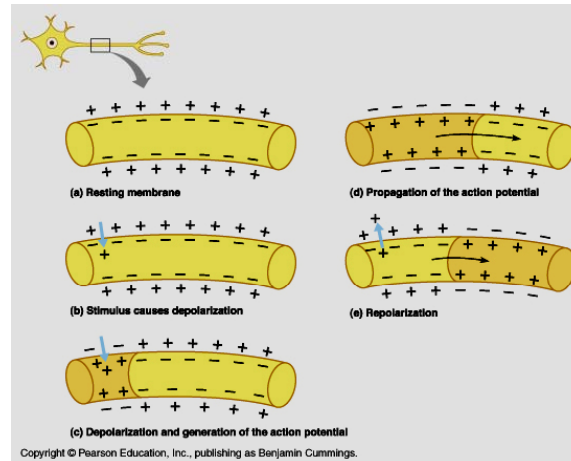
1. Within the axons of the neuron are neurotransmitters, which are held in storage-like vesicles until they are released when the neuron is stimulated.

2. The small space between the axon terminal and the dendrite of the next axon is called the synapse. An action potential stimulates the release of neurotransmitters across the synapse.

3. The neurotransmitter binds itself to the receptor sites on dendrites of the next neuron, causing a change in potential.

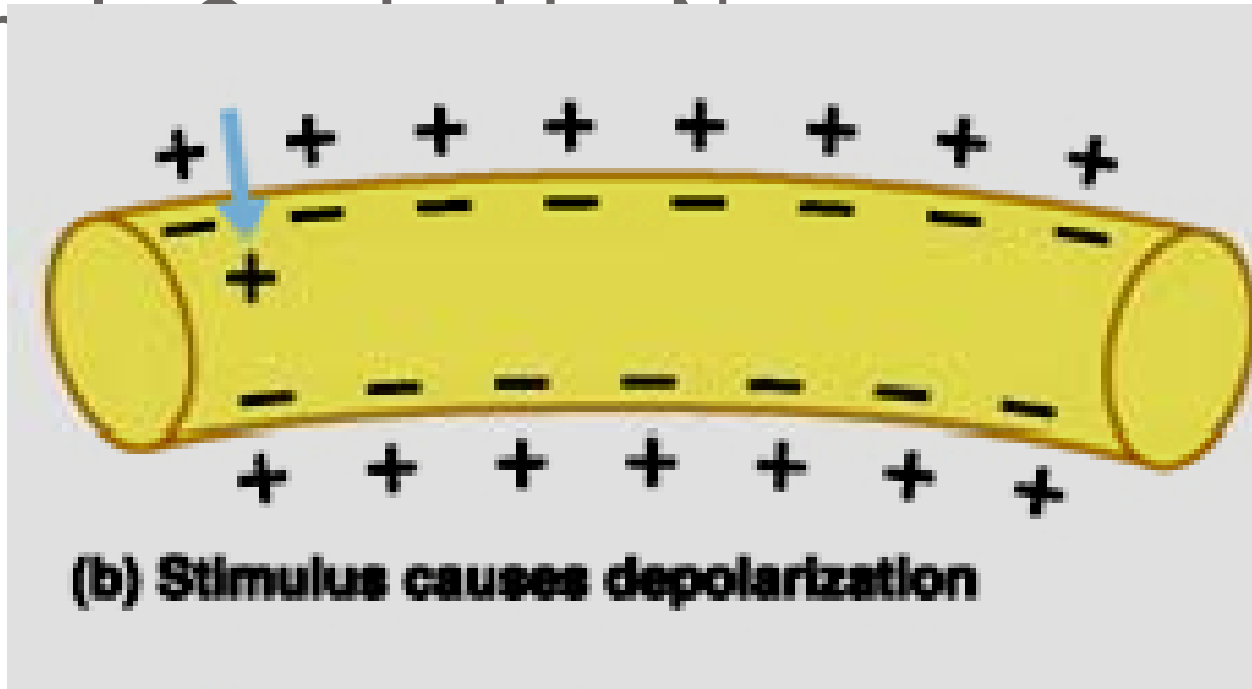


Signals Carried by Neurons



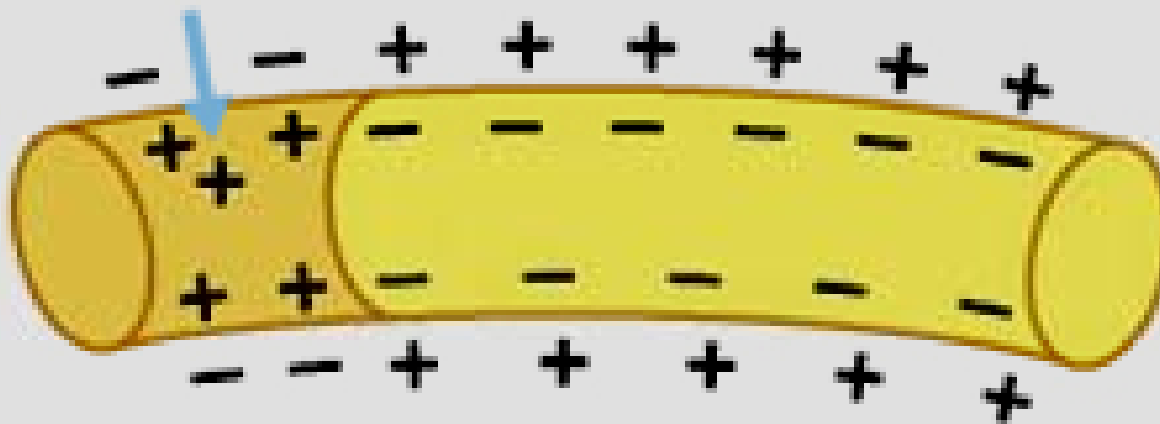
- In a resting (unstimulated) neuron, the membrane is polarized which means that the inner cytoplasmic side is negatively charged with respect to its outer, extracellular side

Signal travels down the axon



- When a neuron is stimulated the permeability of the plasma membrane changes at the site of the stimulus, allowing positive ions to rush in.
- As a result, the inner face of the membrane becomes less negative or depolarized

Signal Carried by Neurons



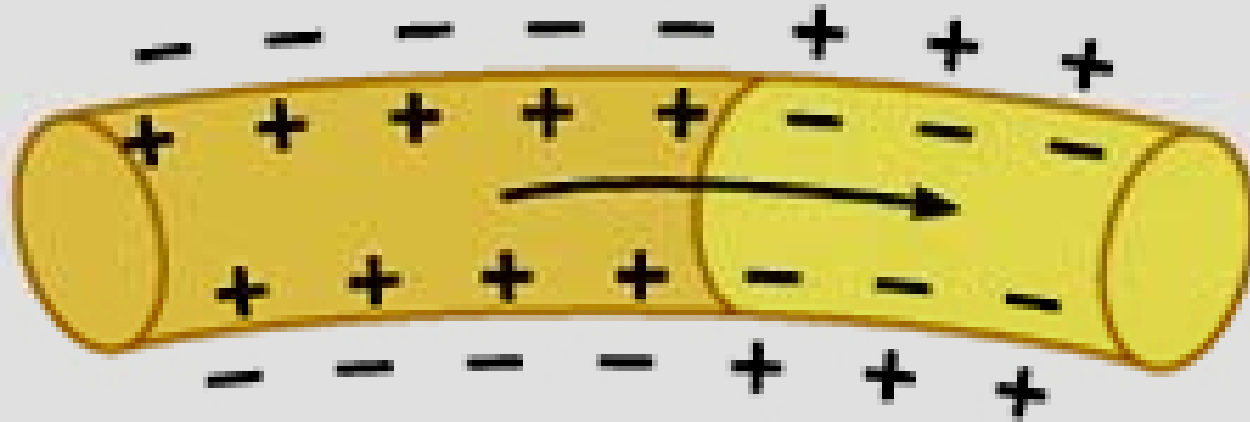
(c) Depolarization and generation of the action potential

- Any part of the neuron depolarizes if stimulated, but at the axon alone this can result in the triggering of a nerve impulse or action potential

Signals Carried by Neurons

- When a nerve impulse or action potential develops the membrane is not only depolarized , but its polarity is completely reversed so it becomes negative externally and positive internally

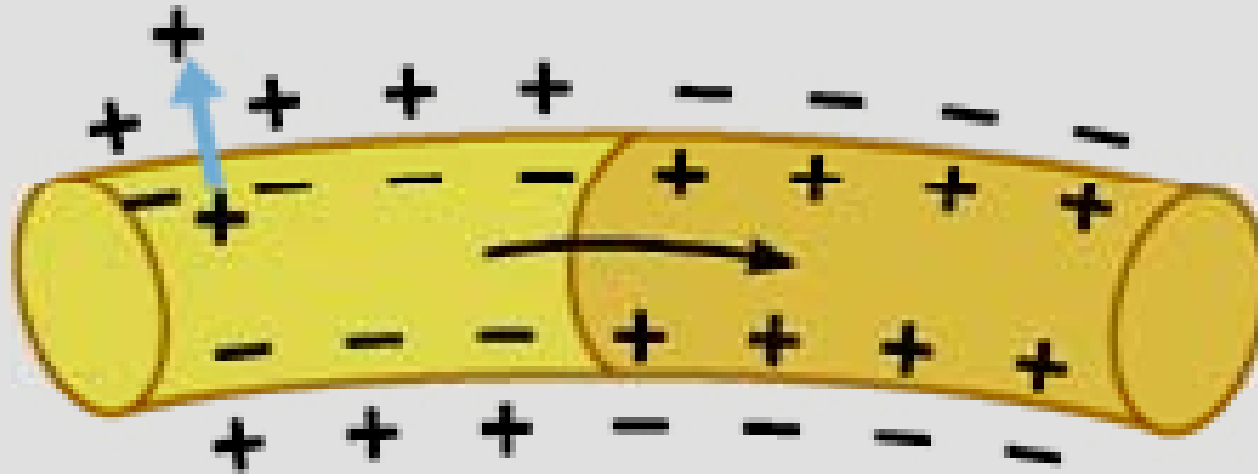
Sign



(d) Propagation of the action potential

- Once begun, the nerve impulse travels rapidly down the entire length of the axon without decreasing in strength

Sig



(e) Repolarization

- After the impulse has passed the membrane repolarizes itself

Graded Potential

- In humans, natural stimuli are not applied directly to axons, but to dendrites and the cell body which constitute the receptive zone of the neuron
- When the membrane of this receptive zone is stimulated it does not undergo a polarity reversal
- Instead it undergoes a local depolarization in which the inner surface of the membrane merely becomes less negative

Graded Potential

- This local depolarization is called a graded potential which spreads from the receptive zone to the axon hillock (trigger zone) decreasing in strength as it travels
- If this depolarizing signal is strong enough when it reaches the initial segment of the axon, it acts as the trigger that initiates an action potential in the axon
- Signals from the receptive zone determine if the axon will fire an impulse

Synaptic Potential

- Most neurons in the body do not receive stimuli directly from the environment but are stimulated only by signals received at synapses from other neurons
- Synaptic input influences impulse generation through either excitatory or inhibitory synapses

Synaptic Potential

- In excitatory synapses, neurotransmitters released by presynaptic neurons alter the permeability of the postsynaptic membrane to certain ions, this depolarizes the postsynaptic membrane and drives the postsynaptic neuron toward impulse generation

Synaptic Potential

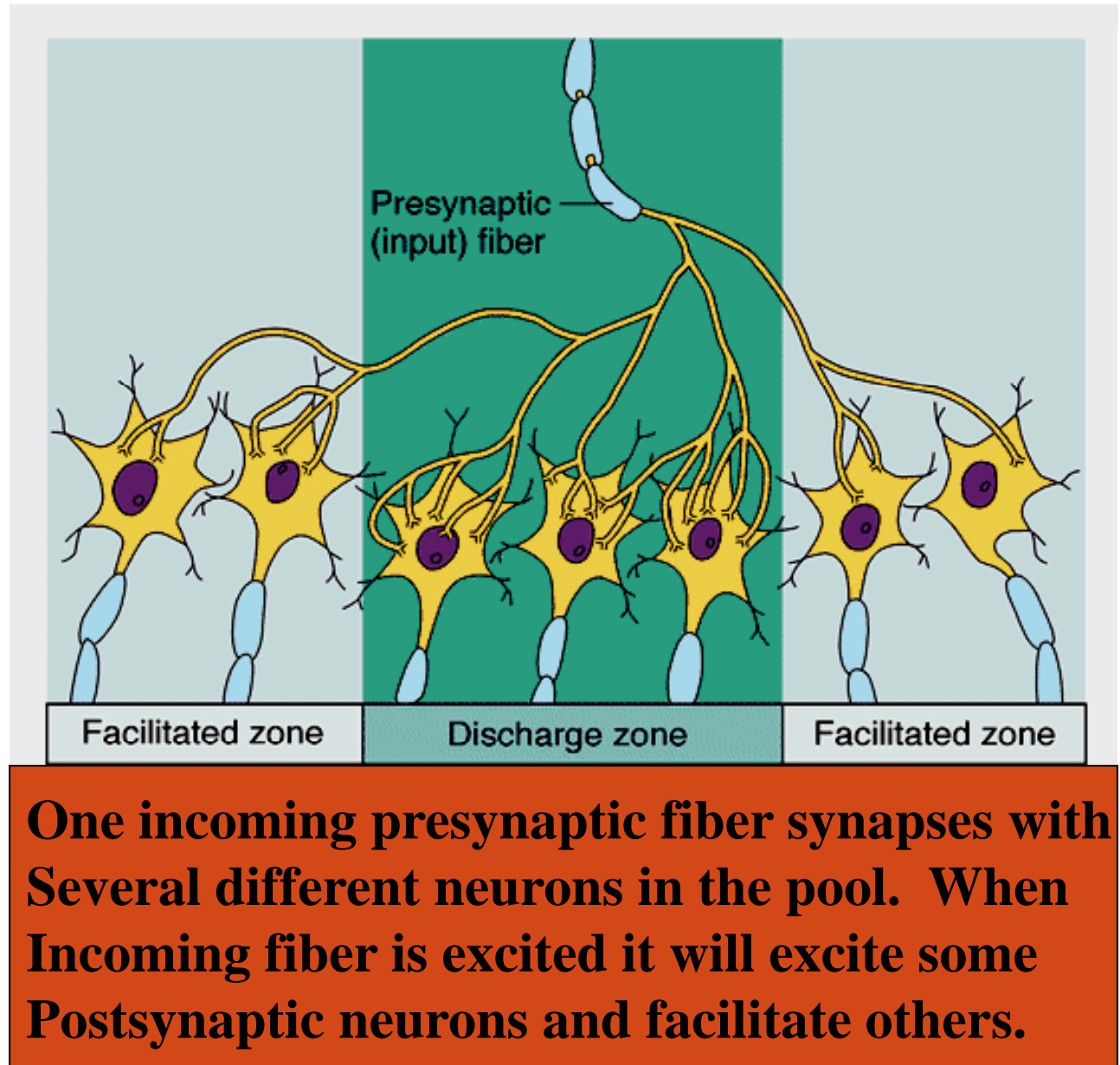
- Inhibitory synapses cause the external surface of the postsynaptic membrane to become even more positive, thereby reducing the ability of the postsynaptic neuron to generate an action potential
- Thousands of excitatory and inhibitory synapses act on every neuron, competing to determine whether or not that neuron will generate an impulse

Neural Integration

- The organization of the nervous system is hierarchical
- The parts of the system must be integrated into a smoothly functioning whole
- Neuronal pools represent some of the basic patterns of communication with other parts of the nervous system

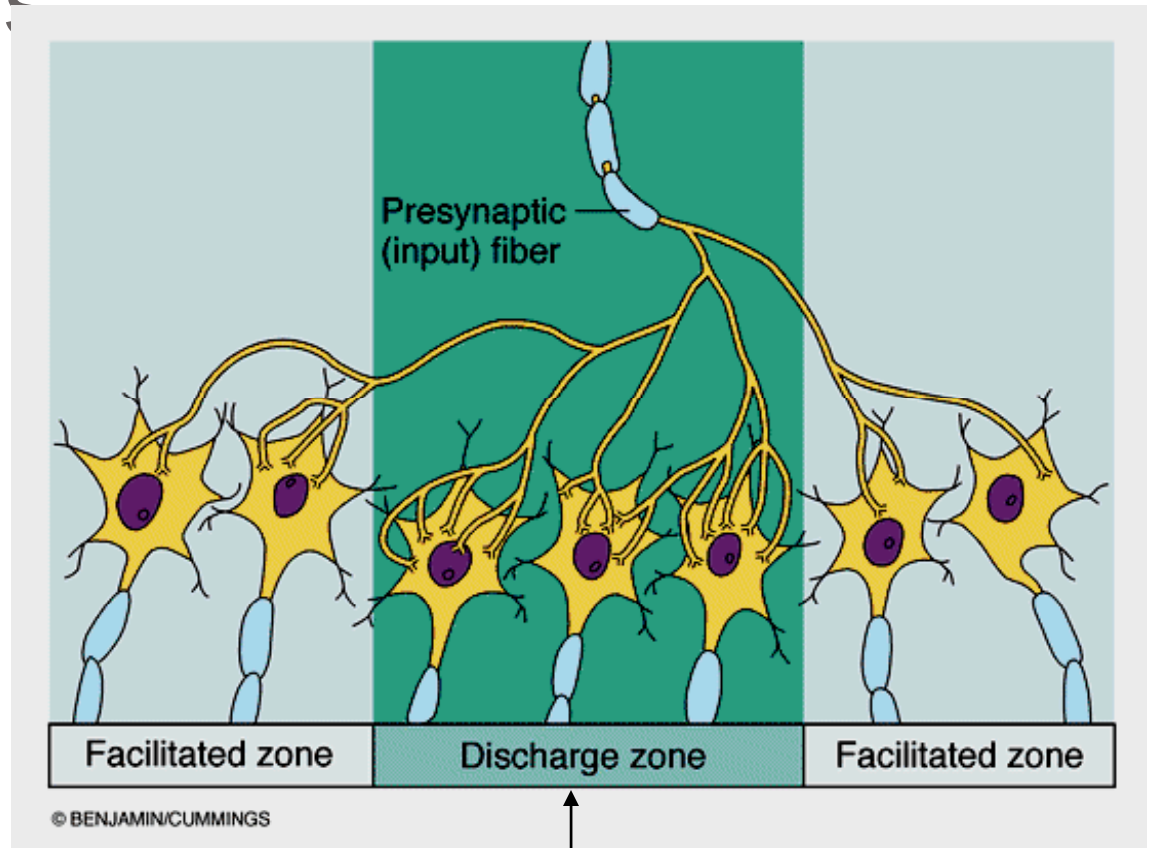
Neuronal Pools

- Neuronal pools are functional groups of neurons that process and integrate incoming information from other sources and transmit it forward



Neuronal Pools

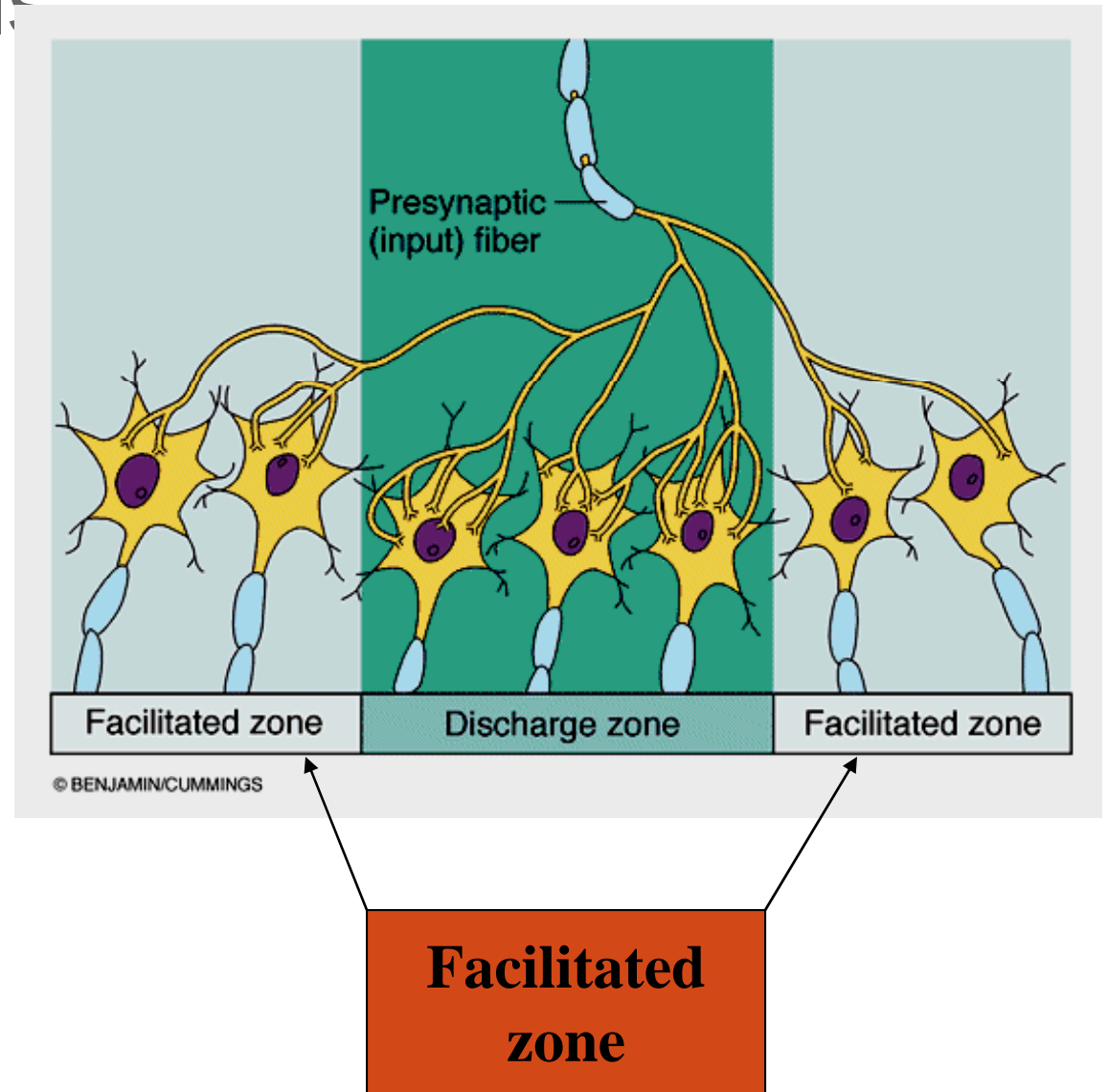
- Neurons most likely to generate impulses are those most closely associated with the incoming fiber because they receive the bulk of the synaptic contacts
- These neurons are in the discharge zone



Discharge Zone

Neuronal Pools

- Neurons farther away from the center are not excited to threshold by the incoming fiber, but are facilitated and can easily be brought to threshold by stimuli from another source
- The periphery of the pool is the facilitated zone



Neuronal Pools

- Note: The illustrations presented are a gross oversimplification of an actual neuron pool
- Most neuron pools consist of thousands of neurons and include inhibitory as well as excitatory neurons