

Equivalent electrical circuit

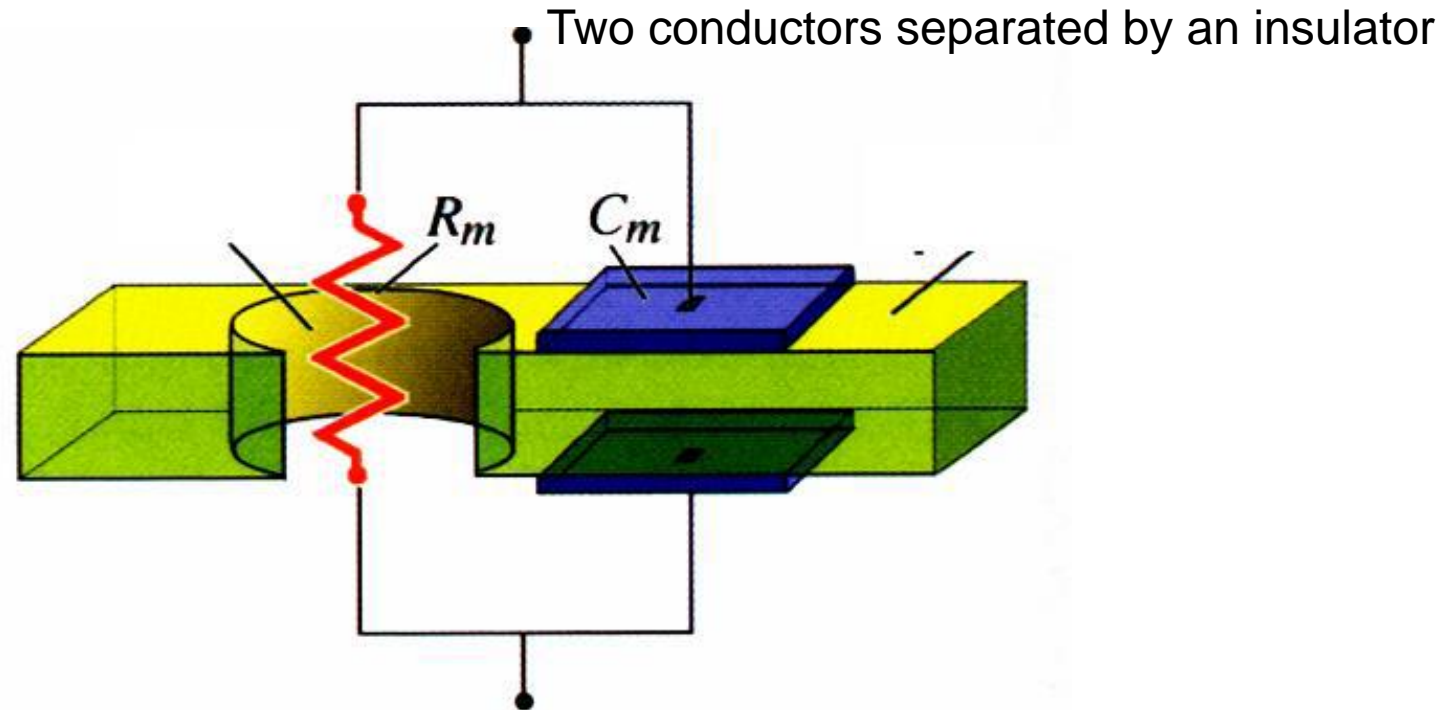
The membrane can be considered a capacitor accumulating opposite charges inside and outside the cell

$$C_m = Q / V$$

$$I = dQ / dt = C_m dV / dt$$

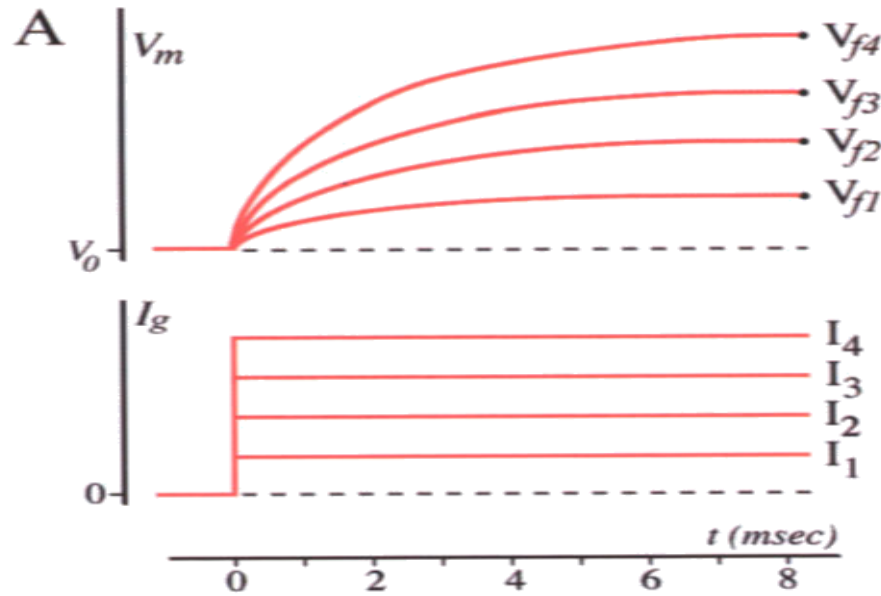
$$dV = R_m I \quad I = dV / R_m$$

the higher the membrane resistance, the lower the current required to maintain a given V_m



The membrane is indicated as a parallel resistance (R_m) and capacitance (C_m).
 R_m or conductance ($G = 1/R_m$) results from the ion channels, proteins that reduce R_m .
 C_m results from the lipid bilayer matrix

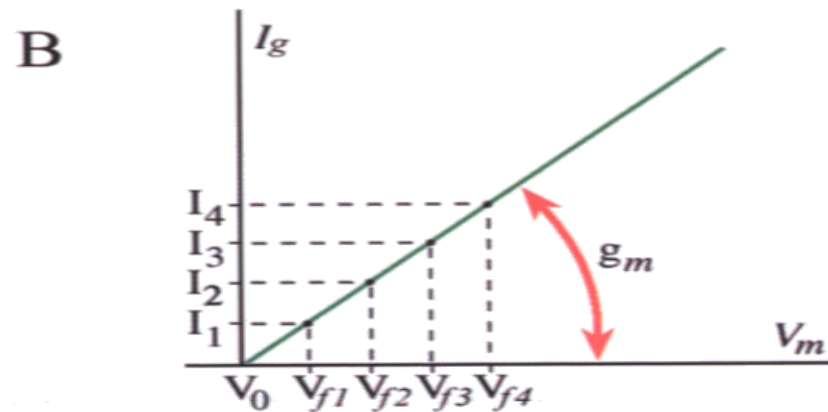
Passive variation of V_m



Ohm Low

$$\Delta V_m = R I$$

$$R = V / I$$

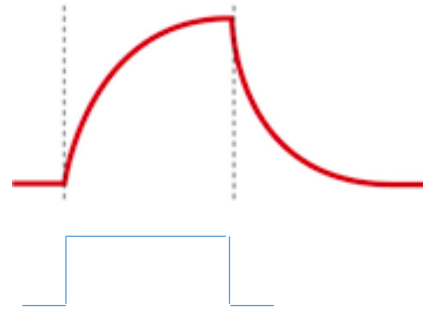


$$G = 1 / R$$

$G = I/V$ is constant,
it does not depend on V_m !!!

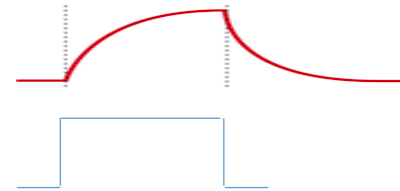
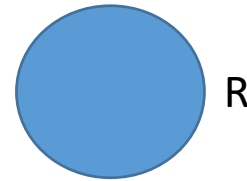
R_m or conductance ($G = 1/R_m$) results from the ion channels,
more ion channels, lower R_m .

Small cells big resistance



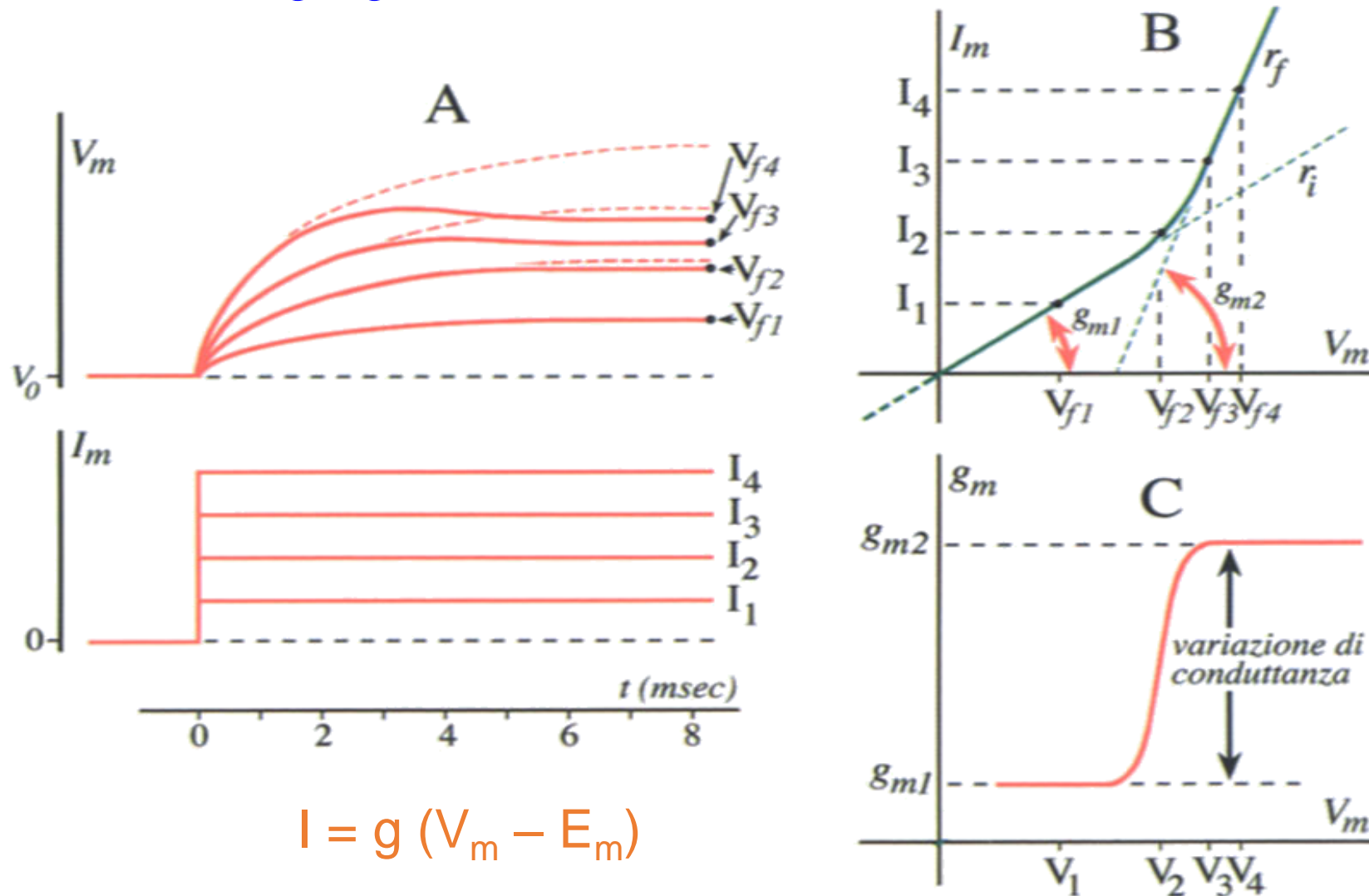
voltage response

current pulses



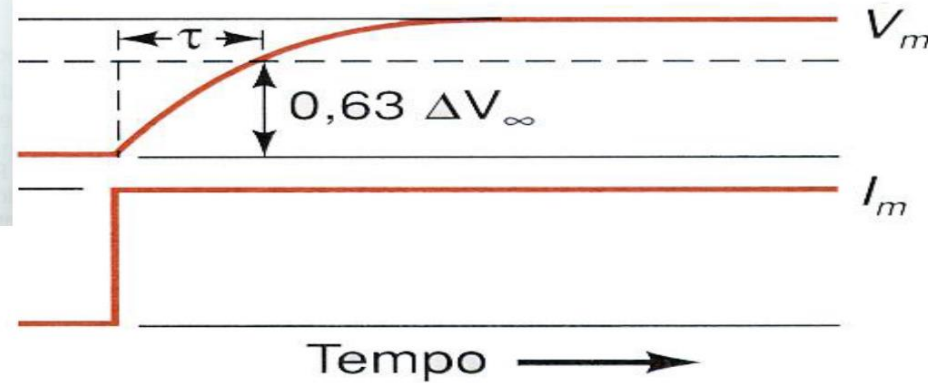
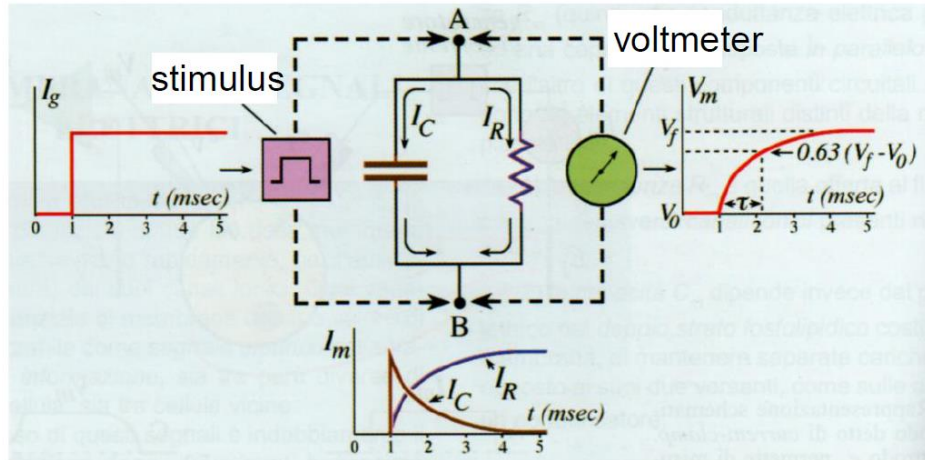
$$\Delta V_m = R I$$

Time-dependent rectifications when the ion channels are active,
See voltage-gated K^+ channels



$$I = g (V_m - E_m)$$

Membrane time constant

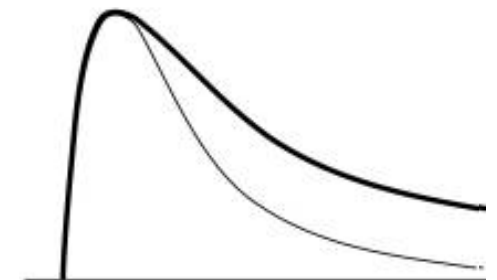


$$\tau = R_m C_m$$

Time required to charge the capacitor

63 % ($1 - 1/e$) of full charge.

The values of R_m and C_m determine how quickly the steady state is reached: the larger the R_m or the C_m , the larger the charging will take.

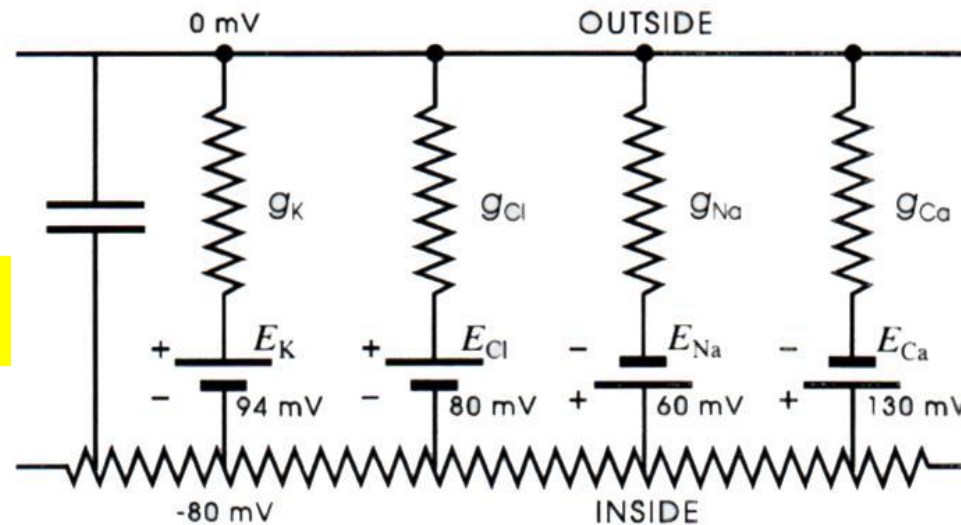


Passive electrical properties affect the time-course of synaptic potentials

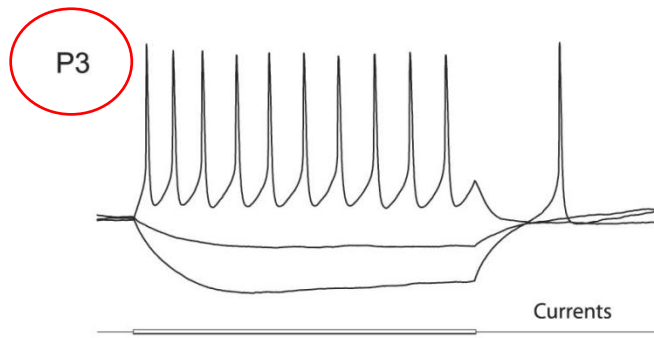
More components in the circuit

$$I = V/R$$

$$I_x = g_x (V_m - E_x)$$



In each component there is a R (ion channel) in series with a battery given by the E_x of the specific ion that across the channel. A concentration gradient exists for each ion that creates an electromotive force, a force that drives that ion through the channel.



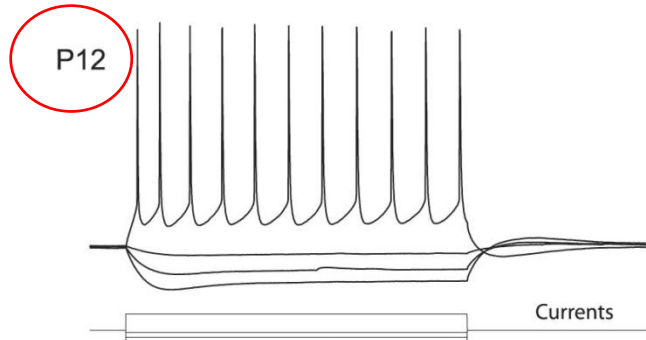
$$V_{\text{rest}} = -65 \text{ mV}$$

$$R_m = 1139 \text{ M}\Omega$$

$$\tau = 69 \text{ ms}$$

$$V_{\text{thresh}} = -42 \text{ mV}$$

Firing of Layer V pyramidal neurons in the PFC at various ages



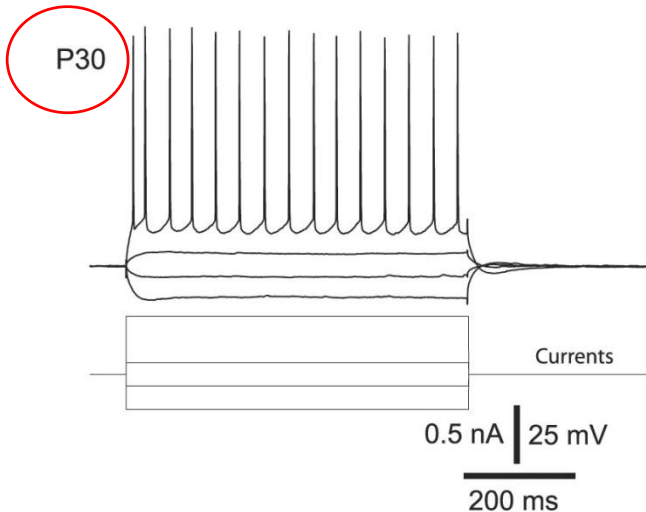
$$V_{\text{rest}} = -76 \text{ mV}$$

$$R_m = 168 \text{ M}\Omega$$

$$\tau = 28 \text{ ms}$$

$$V_{\text{thresh}} = -47 \text{ mV}$$

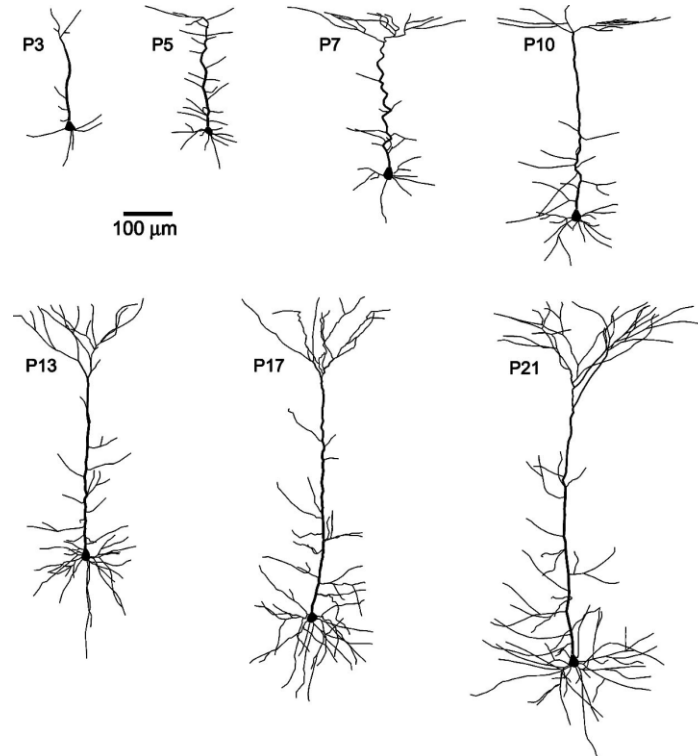
Look at the duration of action potential



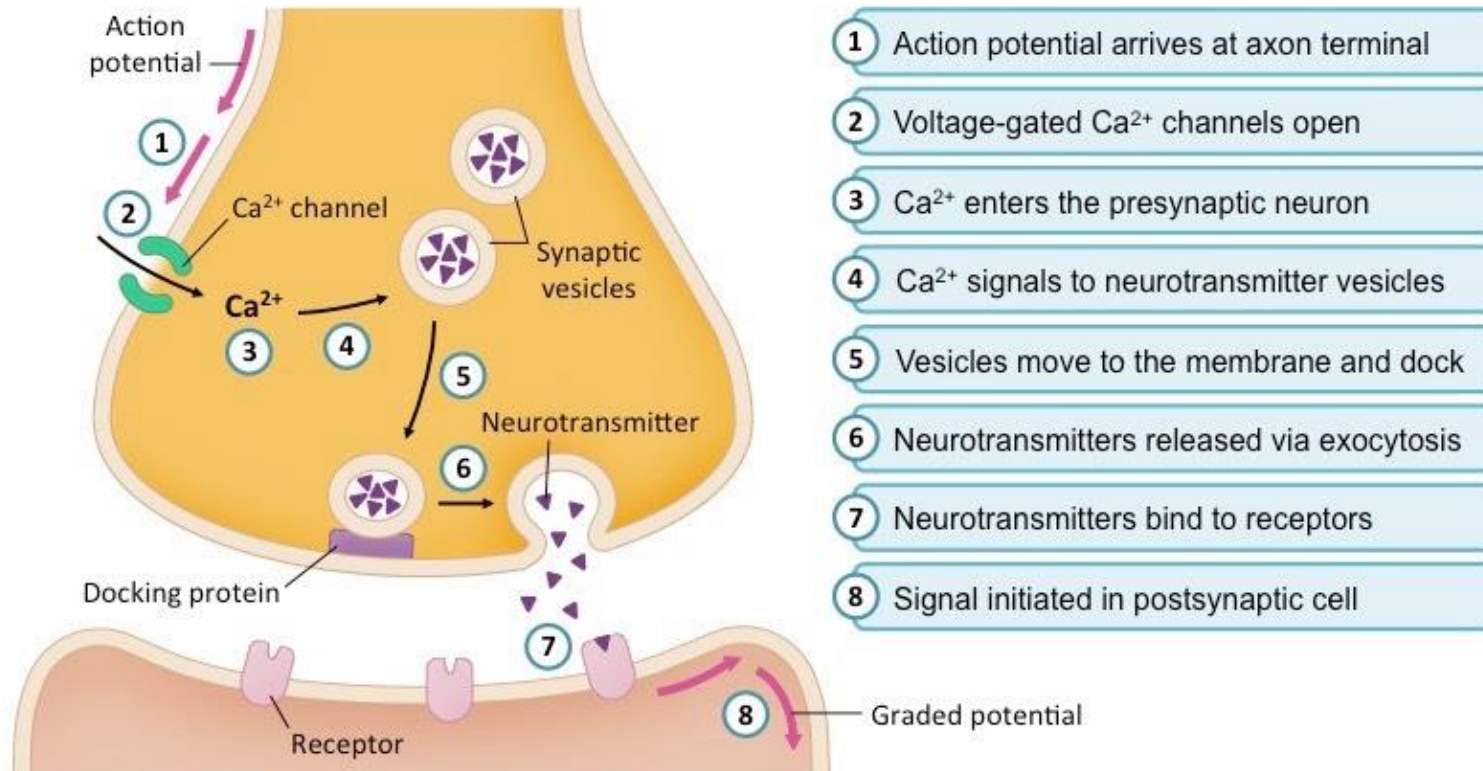
$$R_m = 70 \text{ M}\Omega$$

$$\tau = 13 \text{ ms}$$

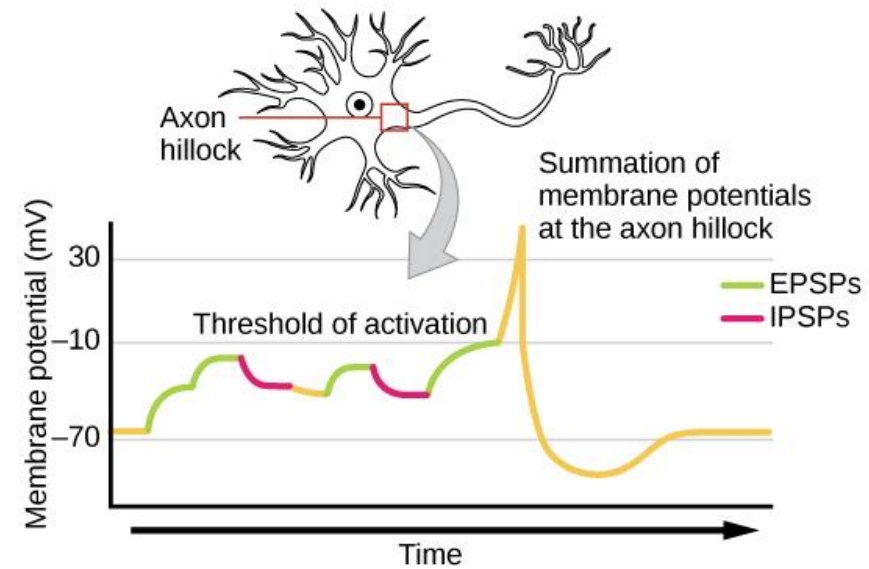
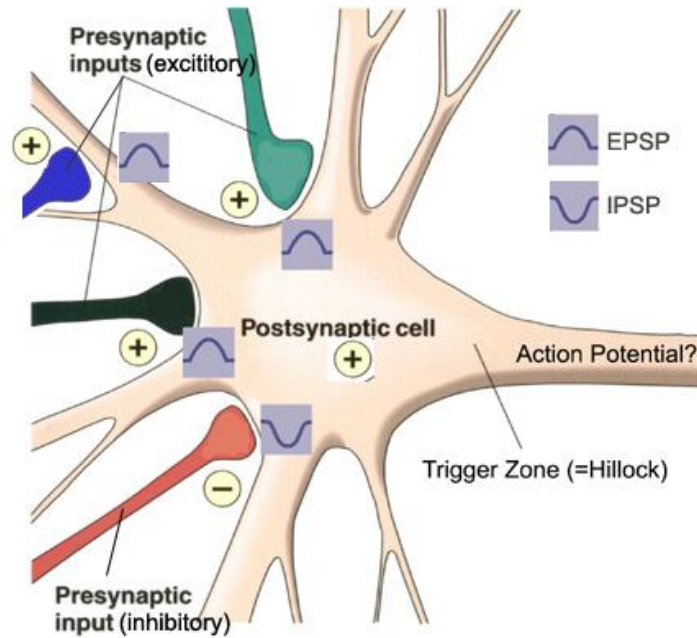
$$V_{\text{thresh}} = -55 \text{ mV}$$



At each chemical synapse



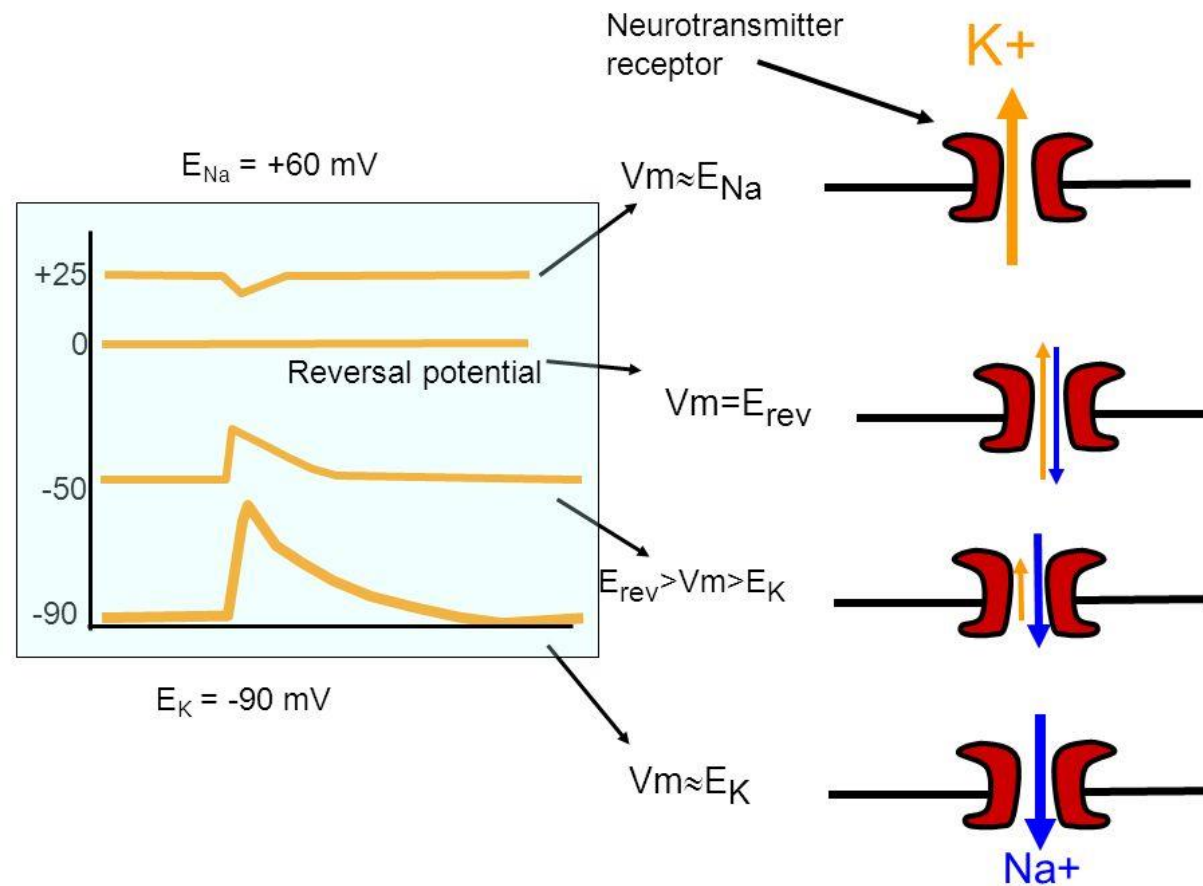
Chemical synapses generate post-synaptic potentials



Fast glutamatergic and colinergic transmissions give origin to EPSP

Ligand gated cation channels permeable to Na^+ and K^+

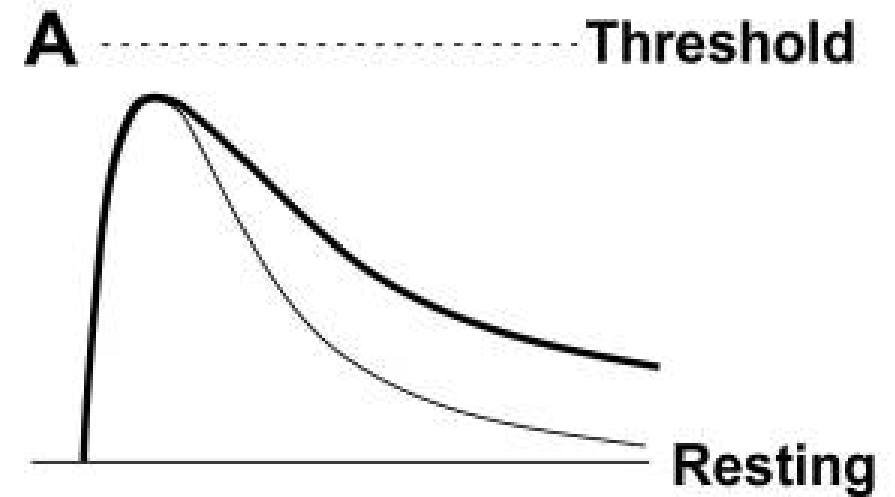
Reversal potential is the V_m in which inward current = outward current



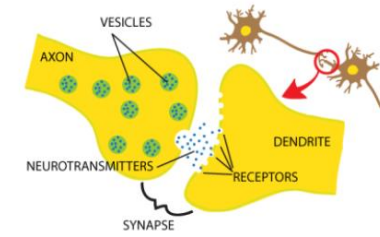
$$V_m = E_{\text{rev}} \rightarrow \text{net current} = 0$$

EPSP amplitude and time-course depend on:

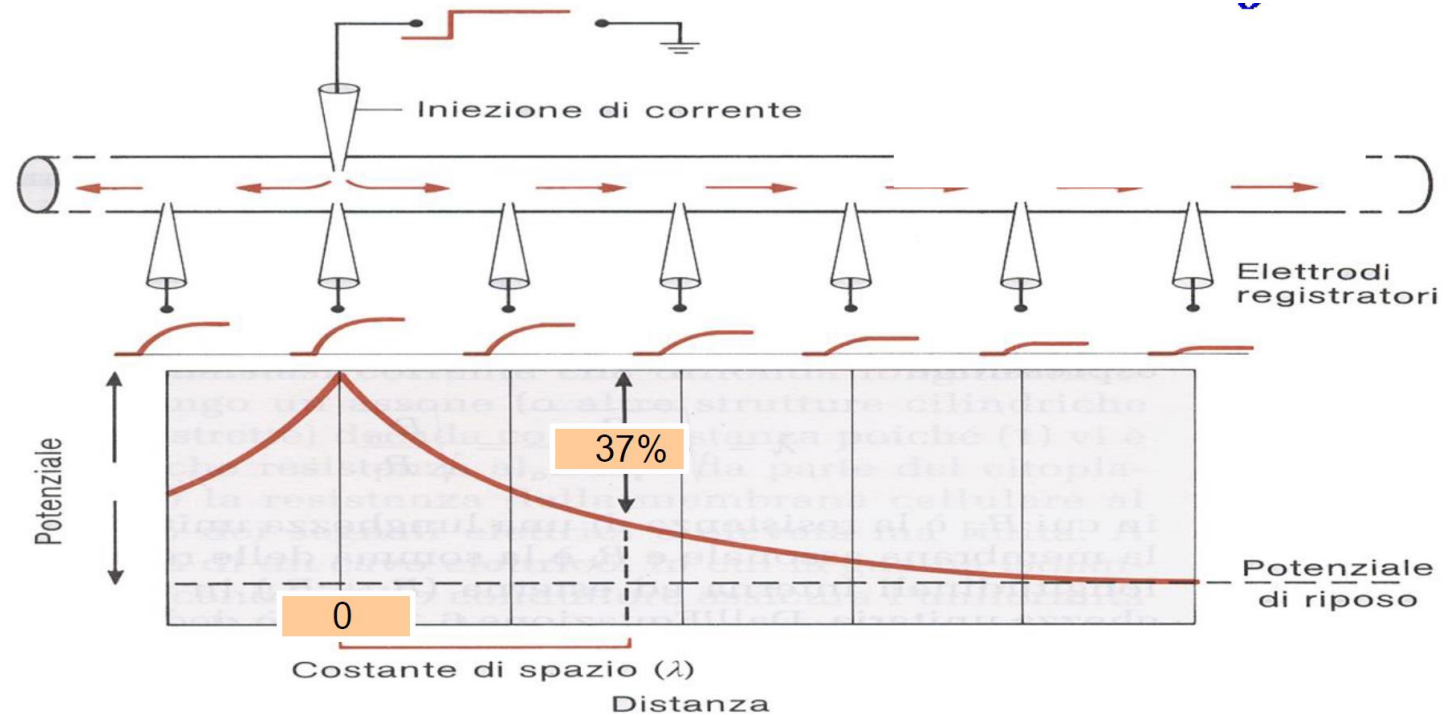
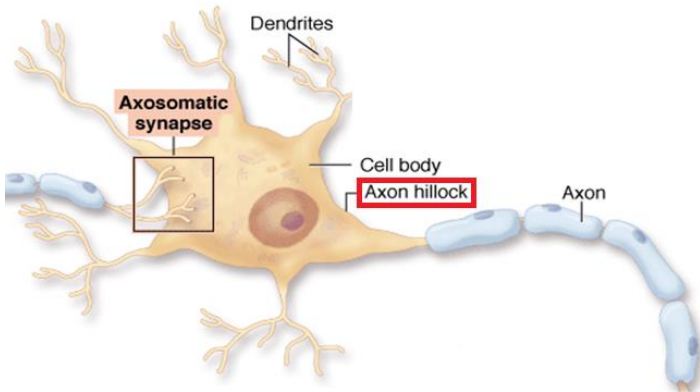
- Resistance and Capacitance of the postsynaptic cell
- Kinetics of post-synaptic channels
- Reversal potential
- Diffusion/synaptic geometry
- Enzymatic degradation
- Re-uptake



A potential problem in the signal integration: **DENDRITIC FILTERING**



Because of the leaky cable structure of dendrites, inputs fade away with distance.



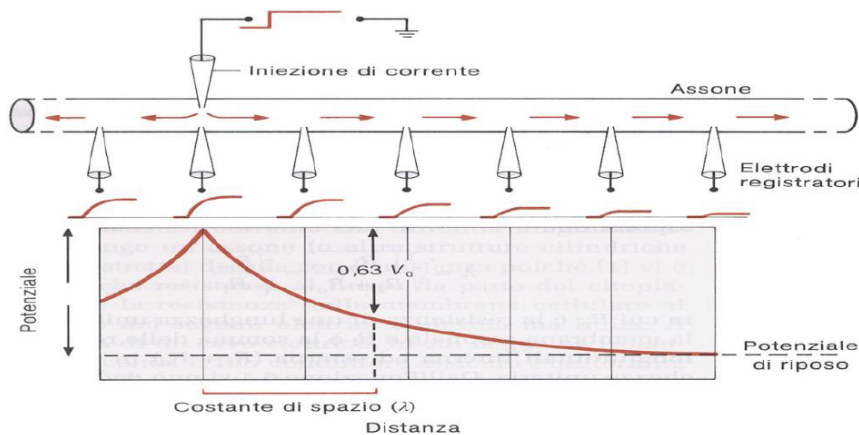
Passive membrane properties affect the efficiency to conduct PSP from their site of origin to the hillock zone

V_m decays exponentially with distance along the length of the dendrite

$$V_x = V_o e^{-x/\lambda}$$



$$\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{r_m}{r_i + r_{ext}}}$$



The length constant, λ , is the distance along the dendrite to the site where ΔV_m has decayed to $1/e$, or 37 % of its value at $x = 0$.

$$e = 2.7 \quad \text{if } x = \lambda \quad e^{-1} = 1/e = 0.37 \quad V = 37\% V_o$$

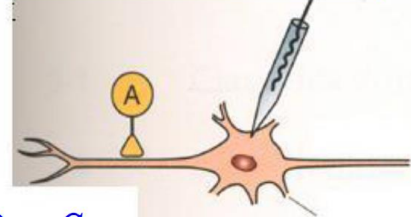
The longer the length constant, the greater the effect of a dV in the cell

r_i is the **Intracellular resistance per units length**
(decreases with diameter, increases with length)
Units: $k\Omega / \text{cm}$

r_m is the membrane resistance of a unit length
(increases with diameter)
Units: $k\Omega \text{ cm}$

$$\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{r_m}{r_i}} \quad \text{Units: cm}$$

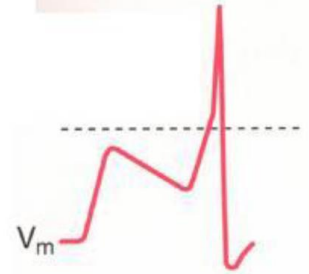
Temporal summation



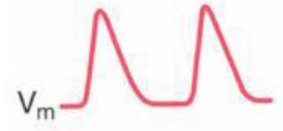
$$\tau = R_m C_m$$



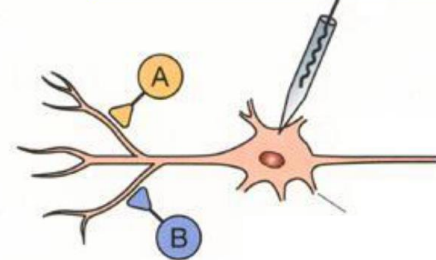
$\tau = 100 \text{ ms}$



$\tau = 20 \text{ ms}$



Spatial summation

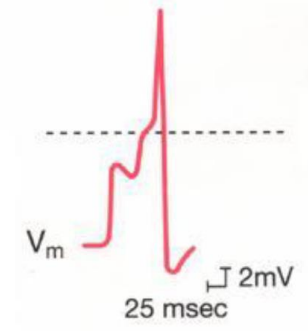


$$\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{r_m}{r_i}}$$



$I \ 2 \times 10^{-10} \text{ A}$

$\lambda = 1 \text{ mm}$



$\perp 2 \text{ mV}$
25 msec

$\lambda = 0.1 \text{ mm}$

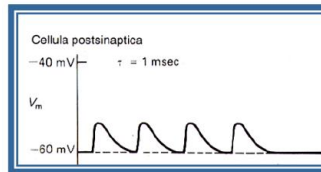
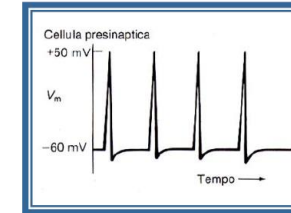


$I \ 2 \text{ mV}$

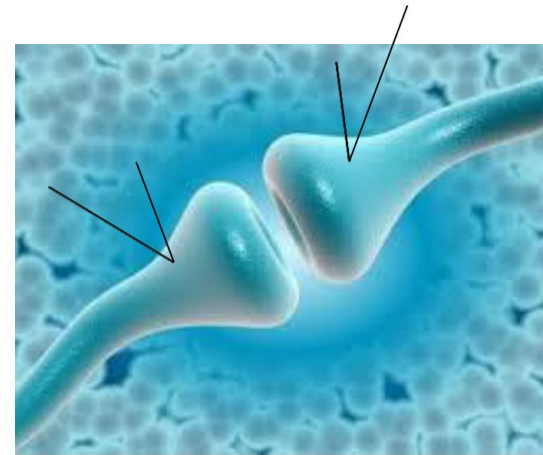
Effects of τ on postsynaptic potential integration

TEMPORAL SUMMATION???

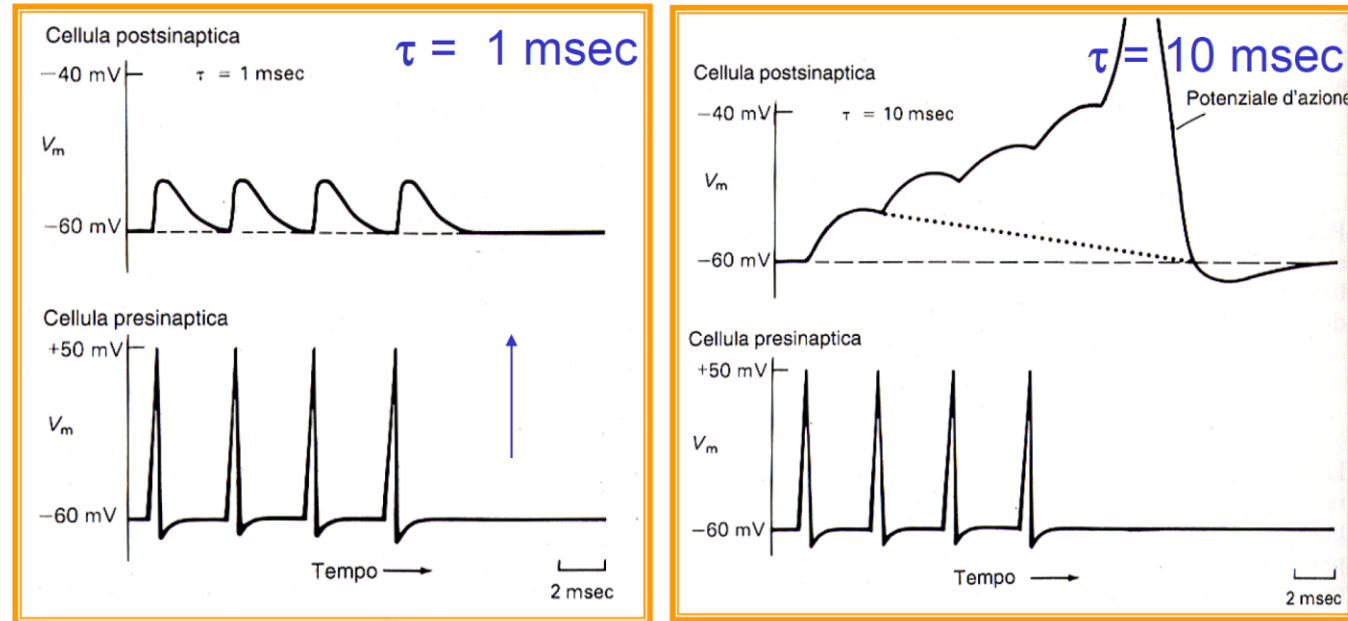
presynaptic
action potential



postsynaptic
graded potentials



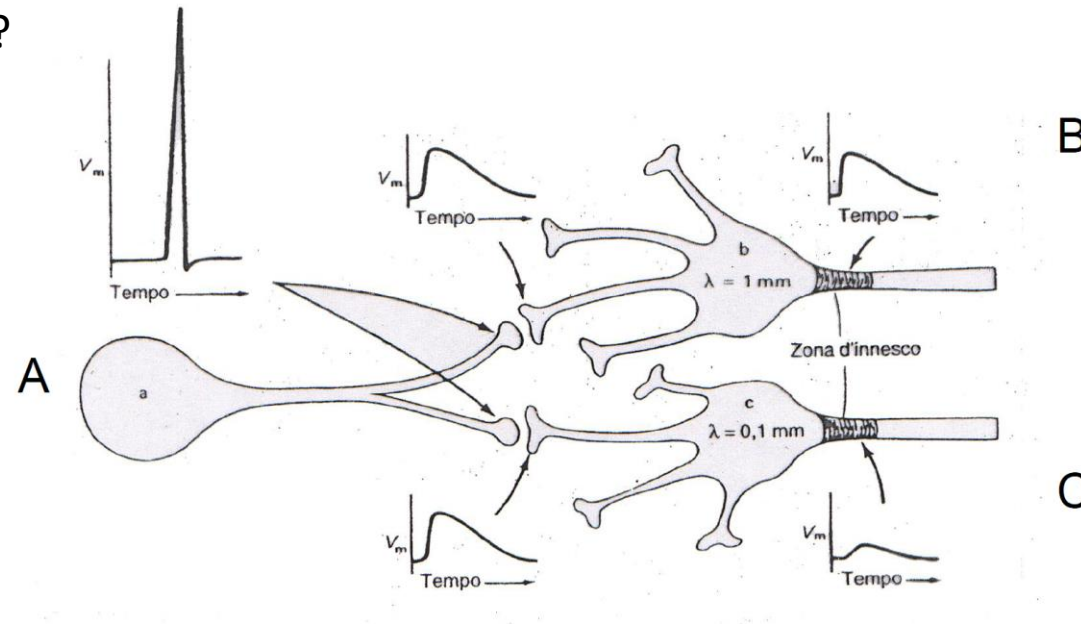
The larger the membrane time constant, τ , of the postsynaptic cell, the longer the postsynaptic potential lasts



and greater the extent of temporal summation

The length constant λ , affects the efficiency of electrotonic conduction of synaptic potentials

SPACIAL SUMMATION ??



The two EPSP are equal in amplitude at their sites of initiation.
The amplitude of EPSP that arrives at the trigger zone in cell B ($\lambda = 1 \text{ mm}$) is much larger than in C ($\lambda = 0.1 \text{ mm}$).

The longer is the length constant of the postsynaptic cell, the higher is the postsynaptic potential peak for long distances and greater will be the extent of spatial summation

Problems with chemical transmission-electrotonic filtering

Possible physiological solutions:

Passive membrane properties:

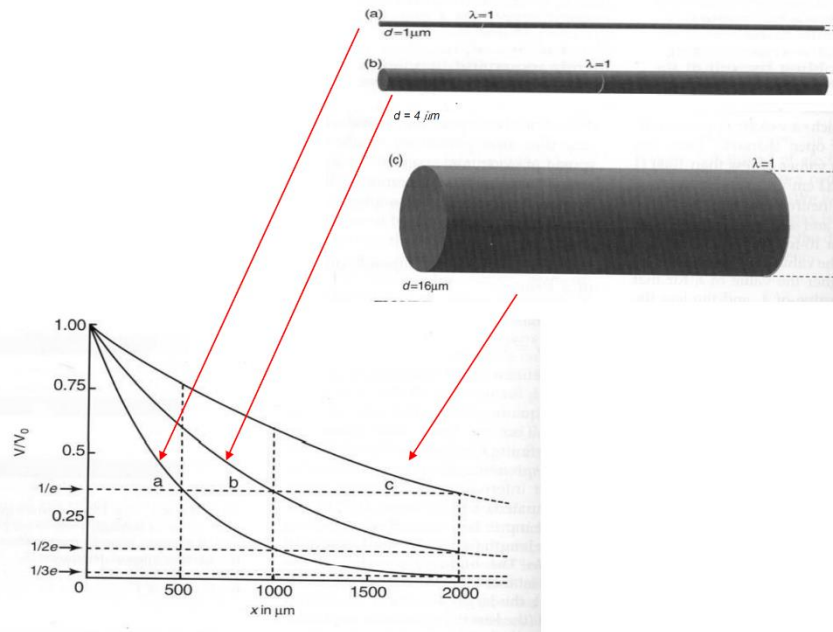
- High length constant to increase the size of EPSPs distally

Active properties:

- Voltage-dependent ion channels could boost the signal along the way.

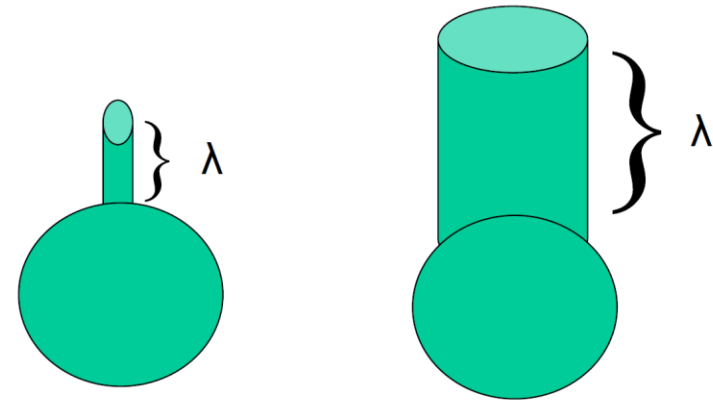
Higher process diameter / Decrease in internal resistance

Length constant is proportional to square root of process diameter



$$\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{r_m}{r_i}}$$

Problem: changes in morphology are not always practical:



In order for the length λ constant to double, the diameter of the dendrite has to increase by a factor four.

Increase strength of distal synapses features

Use voltage-gated channels to boost distal inputs

Active properties vary within and between neurons

Purkinje cells

- P-type calcium channels
- Few sodium channels

Cortical pyramidal cells

- Calcium and sodium channels
-
- Some neurons have minimal active properties

Propagation of action potential

Factors influencing Conduction Velocity

- Axonal diameter
- Myeline

Faster propagation of action potential..

One adaptive strategy for rapid propagation of action potential is **increasing the axon diameter**.

Axons with larger diameters have **bigger length constant**, the current will propagate faster

But ...the larger the membrane surface, the larger the capacitance, the more charge must be deposited on the membrane to change the V_m .

$$\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{r_m}{r_i}}$$

Length constant is proportional to square root of process diameter

A second mechanism for increasing conduction velocity is “Myelination”
wrapping of glial membrane around the axons

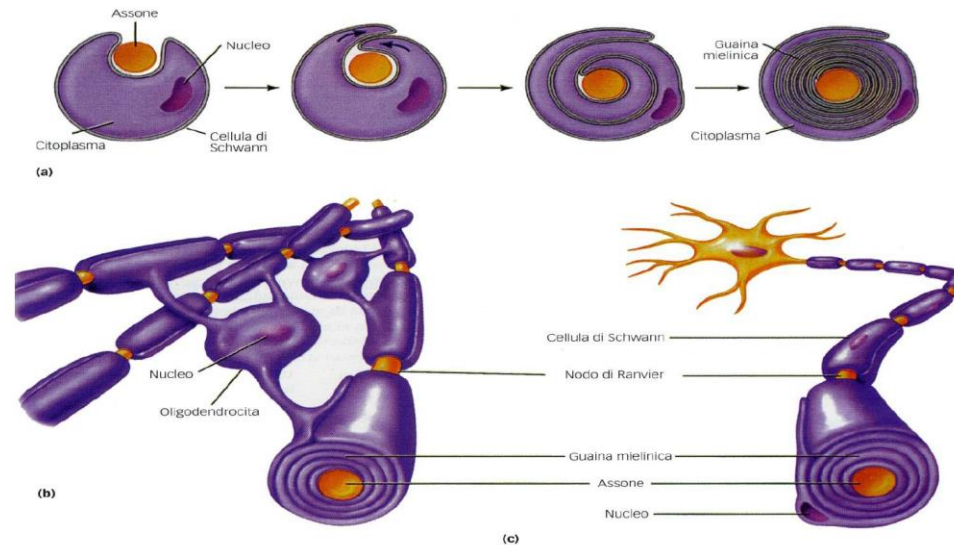


FIGURA 6.5 Formazione ed origine delle guaine mieliniche. (a) Formazione della guaina mielinica da parte delle cellule di Schwann. La mielina, che è formata da strati concentrici di membrana citoplasmatica forniti dalle cellule di Schwann oppure dagli oligodendrociti, forma uno strato isolante intorno all'assone. (b) Formazione delle guaine mieliniche ad opera degli oligodendrociti nel SNC. Un singolo oligodendrocita invia processi citoplasmatici che formano rivestimenti di mielina attorno a molti cilindri. Notate i nodi di Ranvier, che rappresentano zone sprovviste di mielina. (c) Avvolgimento degli strati di mielina formati dalle cellule di Schwann nel sistema nervoso periferico. Una singola cellula di Schwann avvolge soltanto un singolo assone.

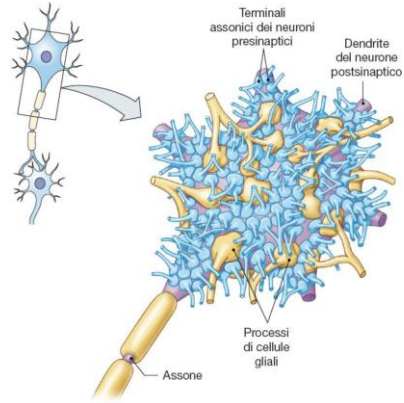
The CONDUCTANCE of a capacitor is in inverse proportion to the thickness of the insulating material, therefore ----

MYELINATION DECREASES C_m

The smaller the C_m , the less charge must be deposited on the membrane to change the V_m

-MYELINATION INCREASES R_m .

Passive electrical properties of nerve membranes

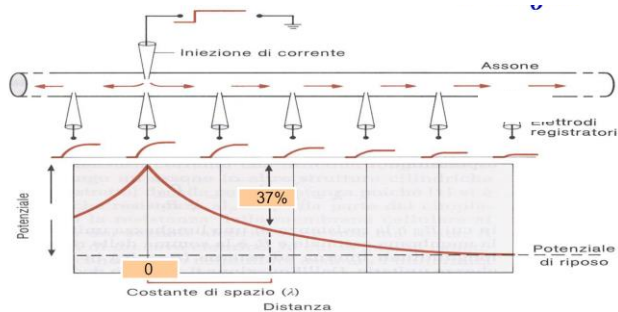
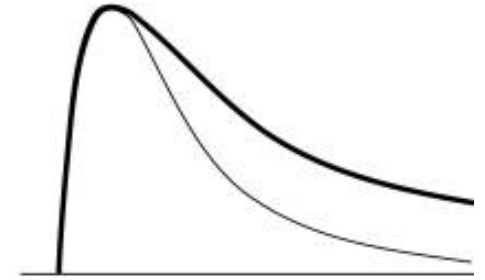


The passive electrical properties, specifically the R_m and C_m of the neurons and the resistance of the cytoplasm, play a major role in signaling.

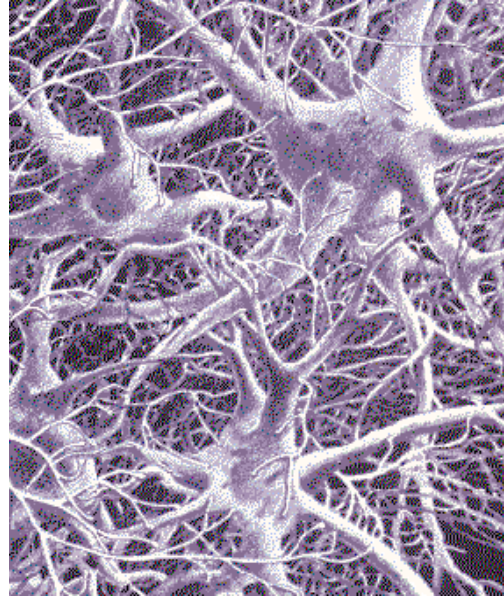
At the synapses they contribute to synaptic integration to generate or not an action potential.

-They **affect the time course of synaptic potentials** as well as how efficiently they are conducted from their site of origin to the trigger zone.

- Once an action potential is generated, the speed of conduction depends on the passive electrical properties of the axon



The ability of the brain to produce complex behaviour is related to the interconnection of neurons into networks or circuits.



Organization of neural networks :
objective of modern Neuroscience

The operation of a neural network depends upon interactions among multiple **non-linear processes** at the **cellular**, **synaptic** and **network** level. Modulation of **BUILDING BLOCKS** can change the network operation.

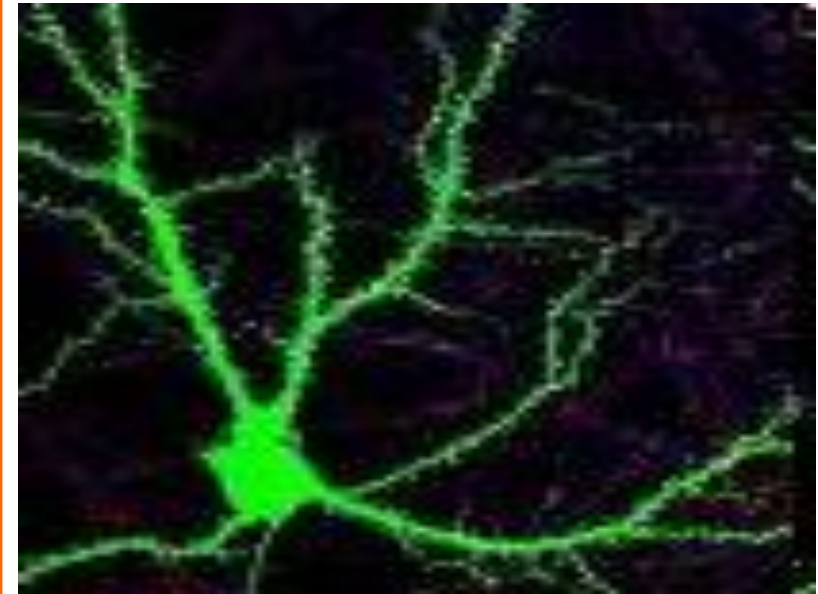
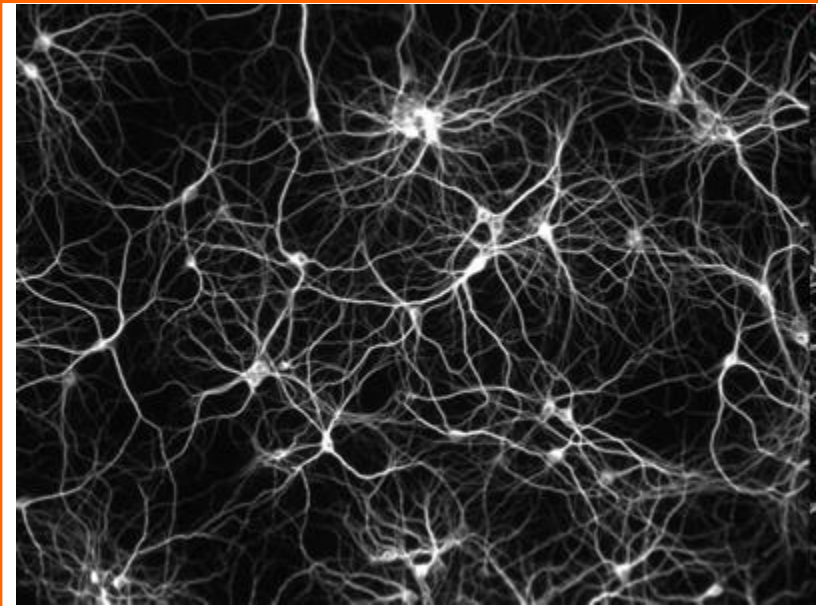
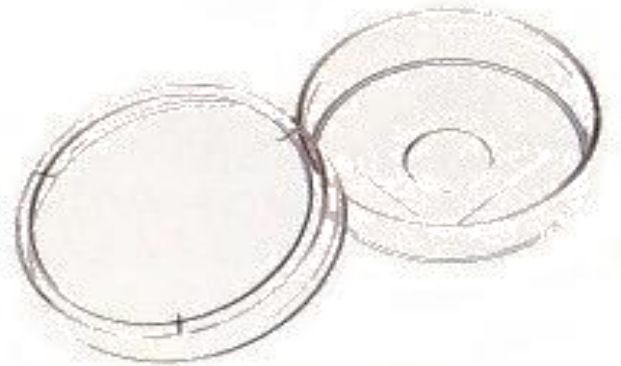
Cellular	Synaptic	Connectivity
Phosphorylation	Sign	Mutual
Threshold	Strength	or recurrent inhibition
F-I relationship	Time course	Reciprocal or
Spike frequency adapt.	Transmission	recurrent excitation
Post-burst hyperpol.	Electrical	Recurrent cyclic inhib.
Delayed excitation	Chemical	Parallel excitation /inhib.
Post-inhibitory rebound	Release mechanism	
Plateau potentials	Graded	
Bursting	Spike	

Functional properties of ion channels are identified with electrophysiological studies using the *voltage-clamp* and the *current-clamp* modes.

Electrophysiological properties studied in **neuronal cultures**

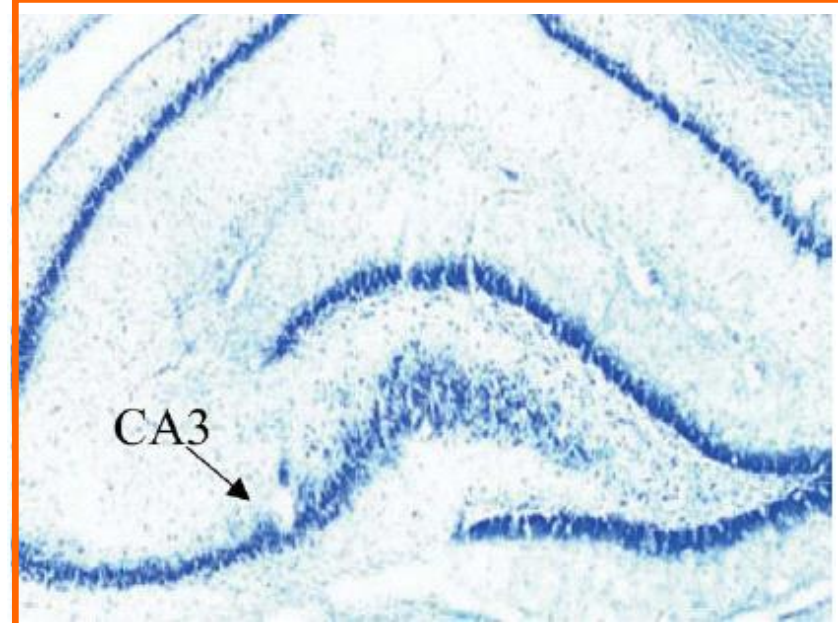
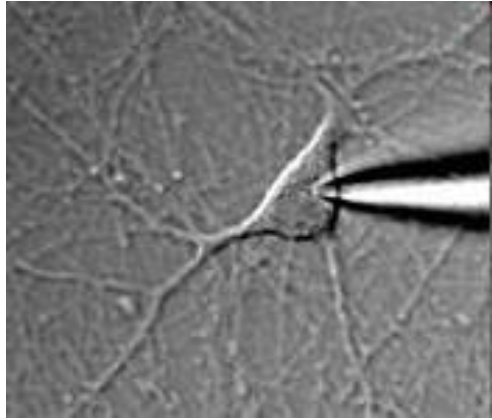
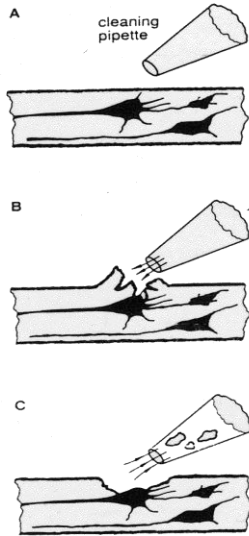
- Better control of extracellular behavior
- Better control of V_m

- Emphasize the somatic membrane properties
- Biophysical mechanisms can be altered
- Not easy to identify the nature of single cells

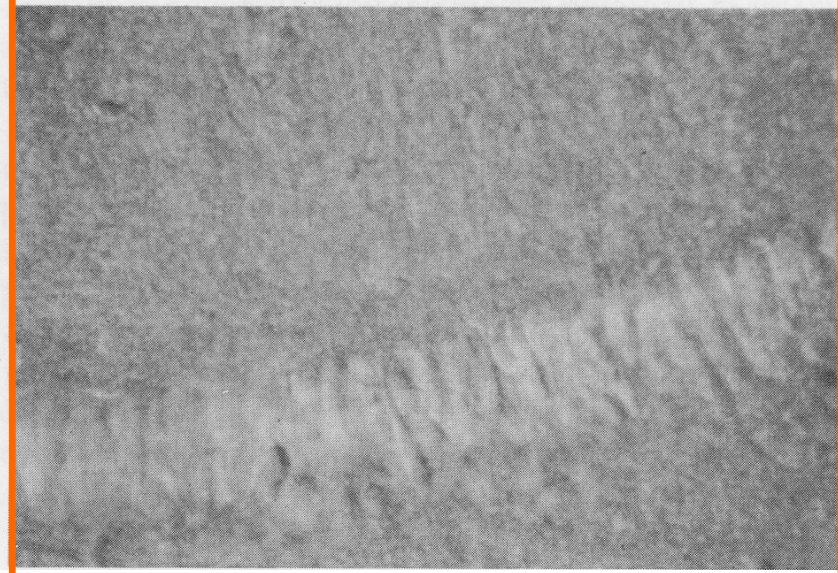


What about brain slices?

- ↑ -Minimal loss of cell morphology



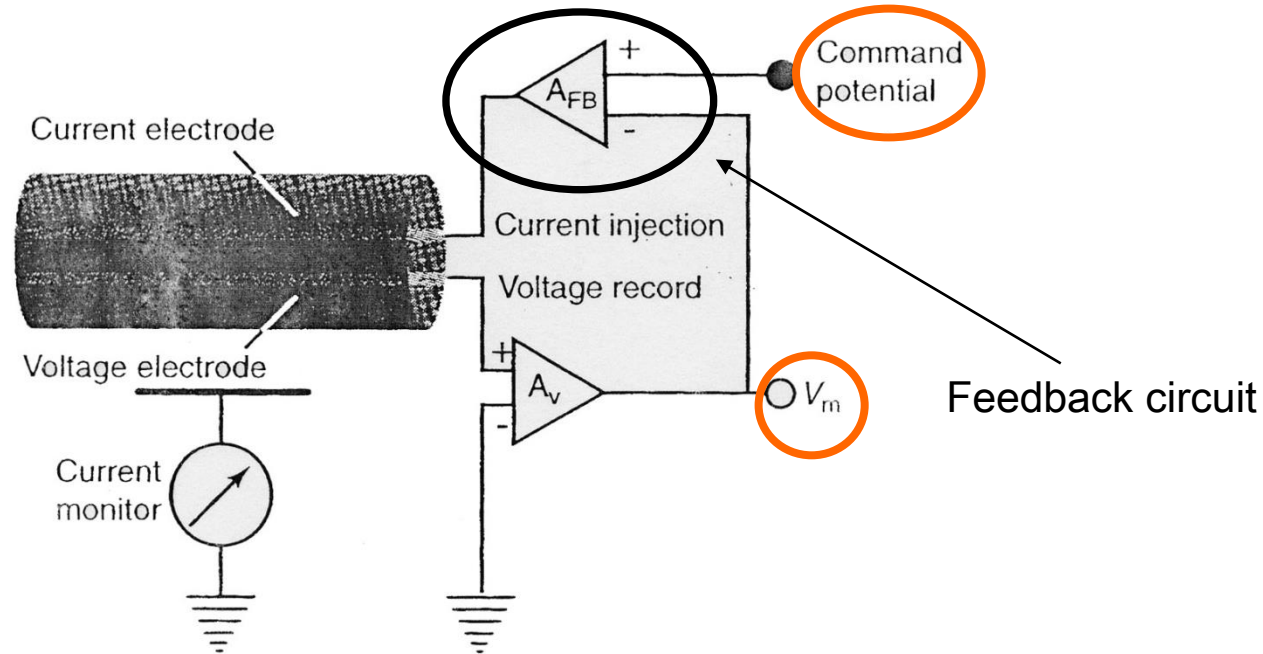
- ↓ -Low access to pharmacological manipulations.
-Low control of V_m



As we have already said.....

Experimental arrangement

Two-electrode voltage-clamp experiments on squid axons

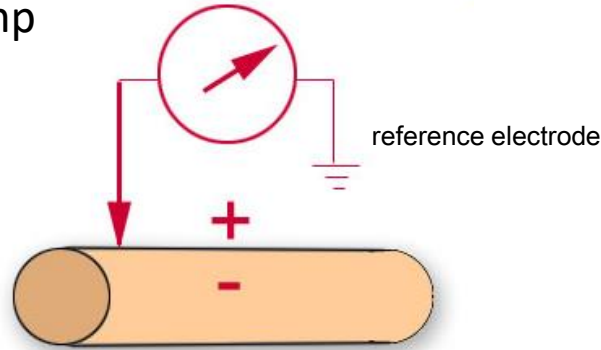


Two silver wires are inserted longitudinally. One of the wires provides a measure of the membrane potential, V_m inside the fiber with respect to that of the seawater (which is grounded); the other to inject current in the axon. **These electrodes are connected to a feedback circuit to compare the V_m with the V_c , set by the person doing the experiment. If V_m is different by V_c , output current is injected in the axon to remove the voltage difference between the two inputs.**

If the circuitry is properly designed, the change in V_m is achieved within a few microseconds. The delivered current is equal to the current flowing through the channels and it is that measured by the experimenter.

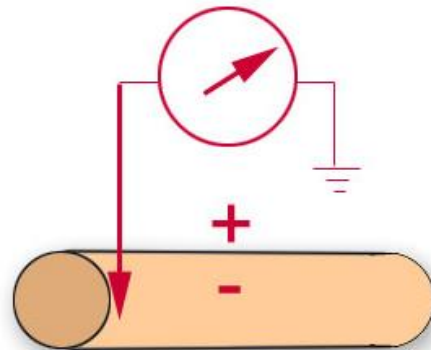
Extracellular *versus* Intracellular recordings

Current clamp or voltage clamp



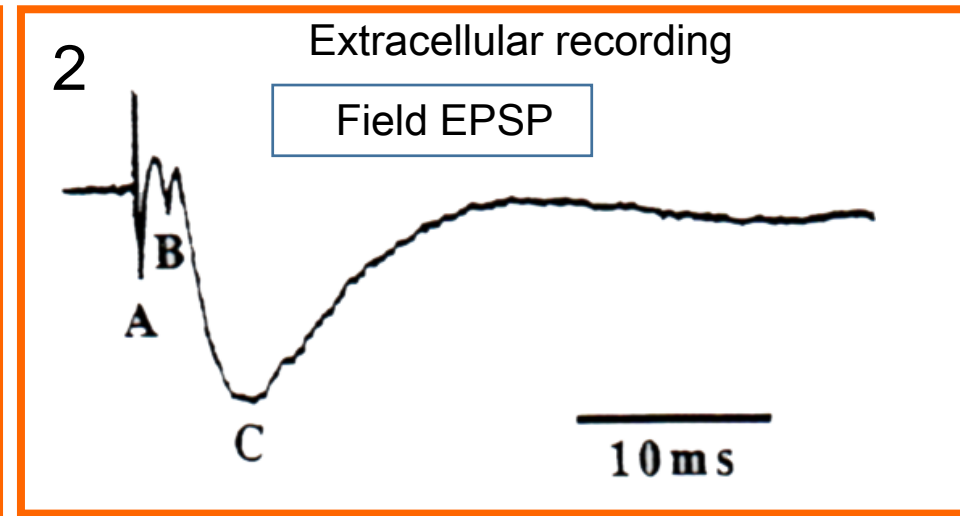
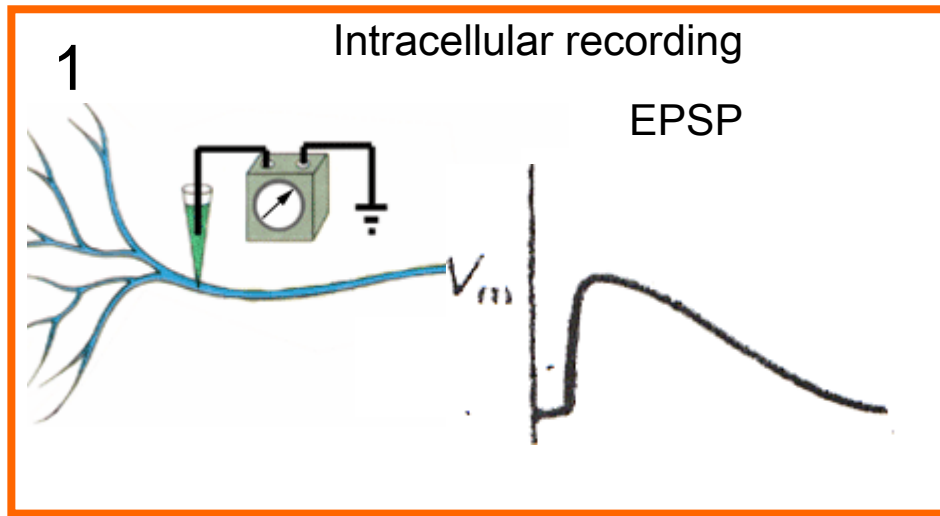
This arrangement **records potential changes at the membrane surface** rather than across the membrane. Extracellular techniques are therefore better suited where you only want to record the activity of an entire population of cells.

Extracellular positioning of the recording electrode

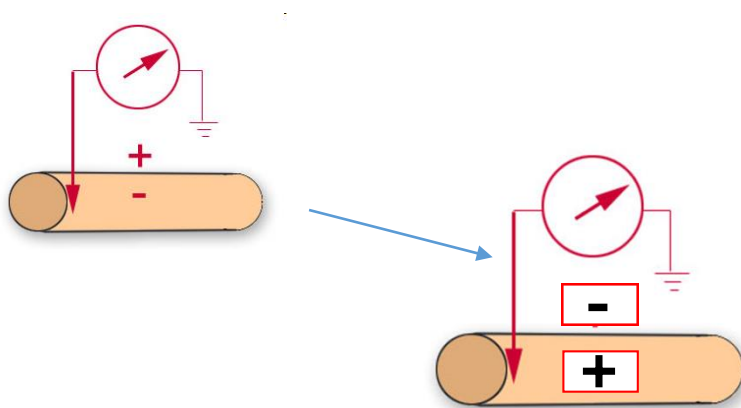


One can measure a **single trans-membrane potential** by inserting a glass pipette into one cell and recording the potential changes with respect to an extracellular reference electrode.

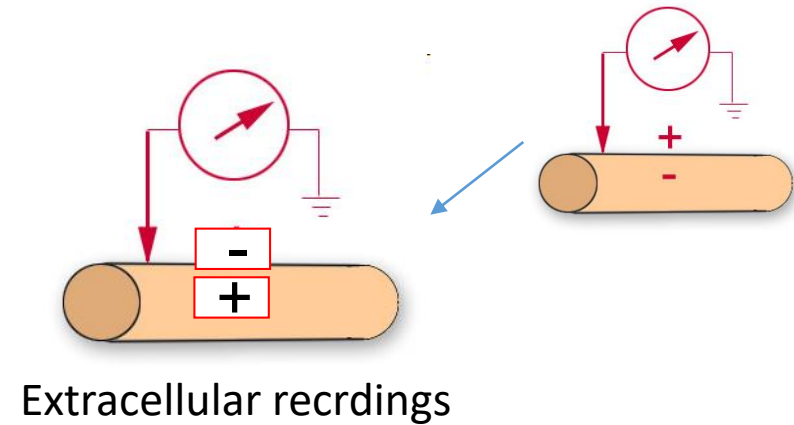
Intracellular positioning of the recording electrode



Typical EPSP obtained by **intracellular recording** (1) and the field EPSP obtained by **extracellular recording** (2) after an electrical stimulus.



After Electrical stimulation



Intracellular recording

Extracellular recordings / summary

Field potentials reflect the linear sum of fields generated by e.g. EPSPs and IPSPs. The recordings can reflect the synchronized synaptic activity of the population of neurons in the local area around the recording electrode.

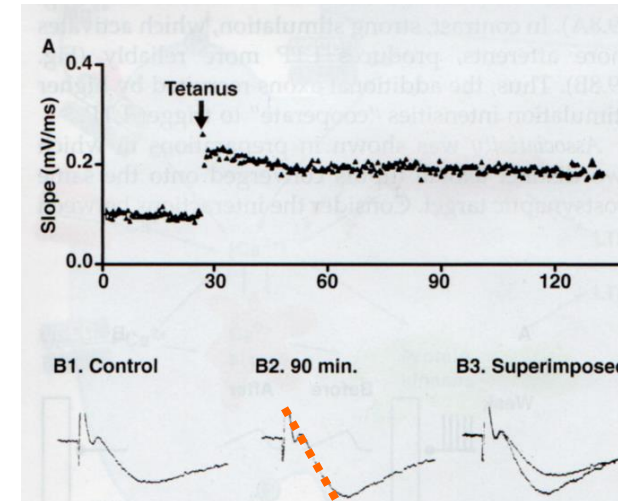
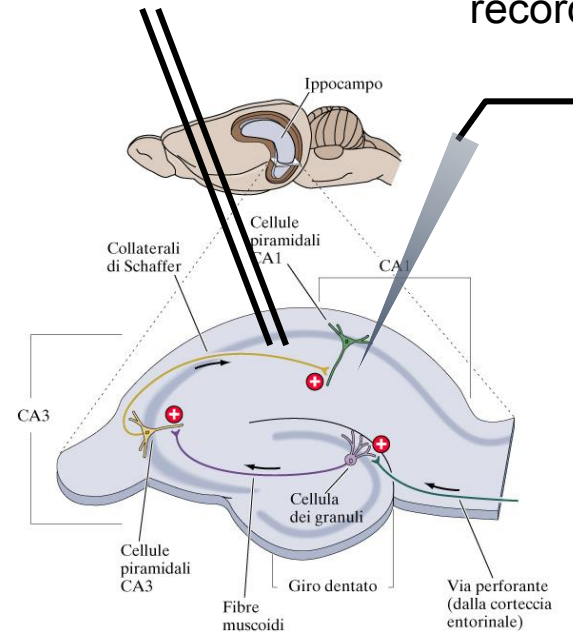
Extracellular recordings suffer from low signal-to-noise ratio, precluding detection of subthreshold synaptic potentials.

Since the fluctuations in the local field potential that occur in the brain are commonly less than 1 millivolt, the signal must be amplified so that it may be detected and recorded.

Extracellular recordings - plasticity

stimulating electrode

recording electrode

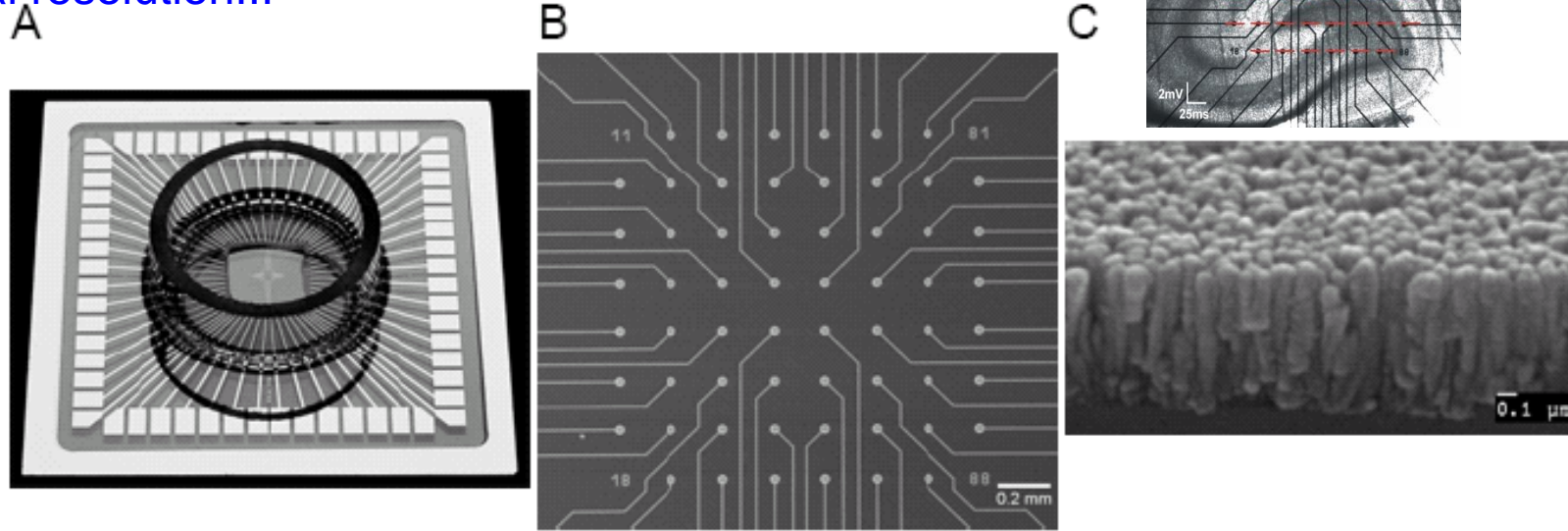


Hippocampal LTP: Electrical stimulation of Schaffer Collaterals (SC) gives origin to f EPSP in CA1 region. A tetanic stimulation of SC gives origin to LTP.

Slope is proportional to the amplitude of the synaptic response.
Often the amplitude can be disturbed by population spikes!!

Multi- electrode array

Devices with multiple (ten to thousands) electrodes
Spatial resolution!!!



Electrode diameter 30 μm

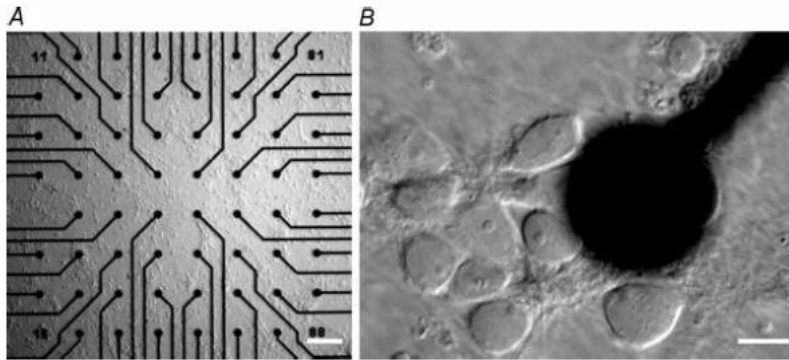
distance between the
electrodes 200 μm

Figure 10-1. Design of a substrate integrated microelectrode array as used in our laboratory. (A) This version is on a 5×5 cm glass plate with conducting gold leads. A glass ring forms the recording chamber. (B) SEM micrograph of the recording area. The leads are insulated except for the center of the circles at the end of each lead. (C) SEM micrograph of a break-away of the electrode surface. Titanium nitride sputtered onto the electrode forms a columnar structure with a large inner surface, increasing the capacitance of the electrode area. MEAs from other producers are similar in their basic layout (Images by courtesy of Multi Channel Systems, Reutlingen and NMI Reutlingen, Germany).

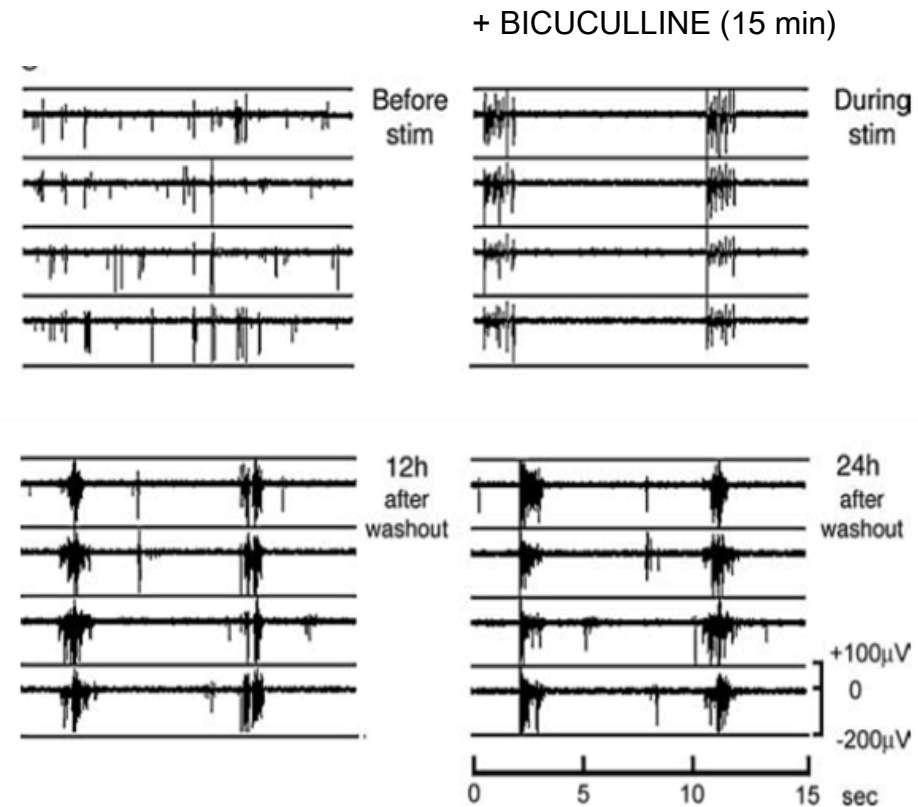
Hippocampal cultures on MEA

After exposure to bicuculline (GABA receptor blocker):
a change in network activity from uncoordinated firing of
neurons to a highly organized periodic and synchronous
burst pattern

Arnold et al., J Physiol, 2005



Electrode diameter 30 μm
distance between the electrodes 200 μm



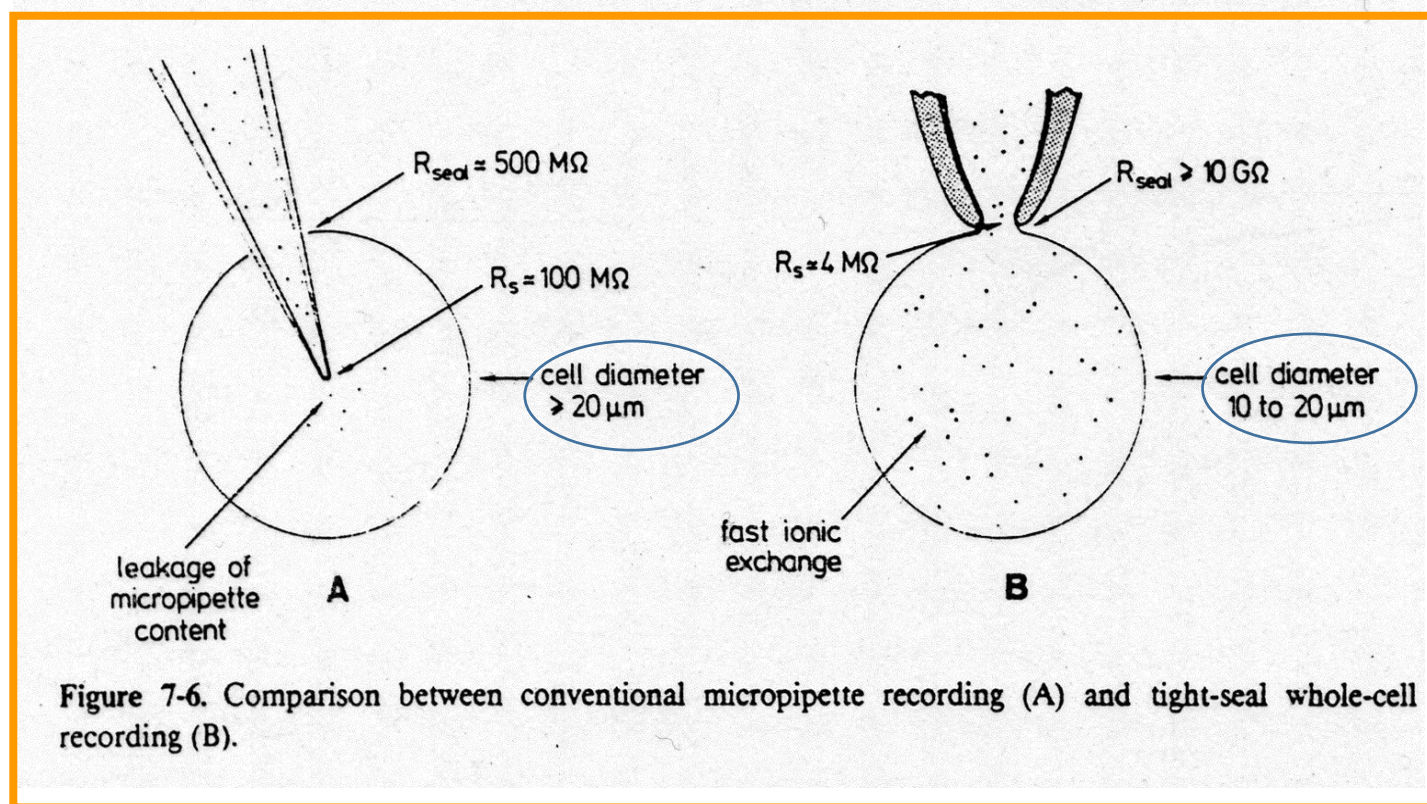
Benefits to recording neuronal activity from extracellular recording electrodes.

- Extracellular electrophysiology is currently the best tool for performing high-resolution **recordings from neural tissue in an awake animal**.
- Relative ease and long duration of recordings.
- Improving micro-machining techniques and personal computers, is possible to record simultaneously from hundreds of neurons in a population.

Major problems

The technique obscures differential functions within the network. There is no way to know the anatomy of the recorded neurons. **Details on the transmission, on the processing of the stimulus information (intensity, quality, duration, velocity) can not be assessed.**

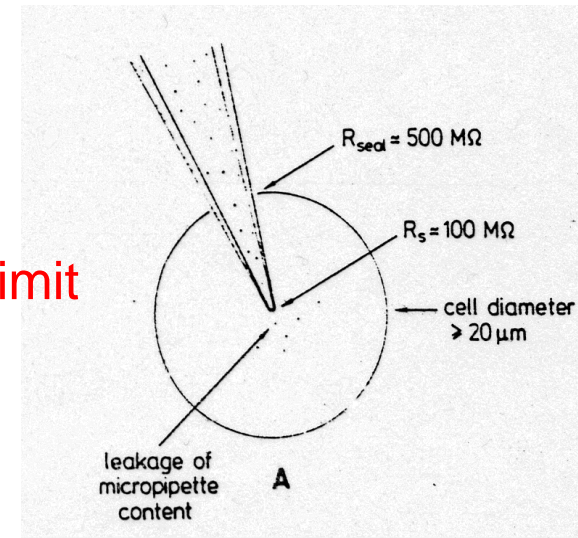
Unlike traditional **two-electrode voltage clamp** recordings, **sharp intracellular recordings** and **patch-clamp recordings** use a single electrode to record voltage and current and allow to record transmembrane potentials.



Sharp intracellular recording technique

no age limit

(pipette resistance 150-180 M Ω)



Sharp recordings cause a leakage resistance in the neuronal membrane, therefore they produce a drop in neuronal R_m

DG granule cells:

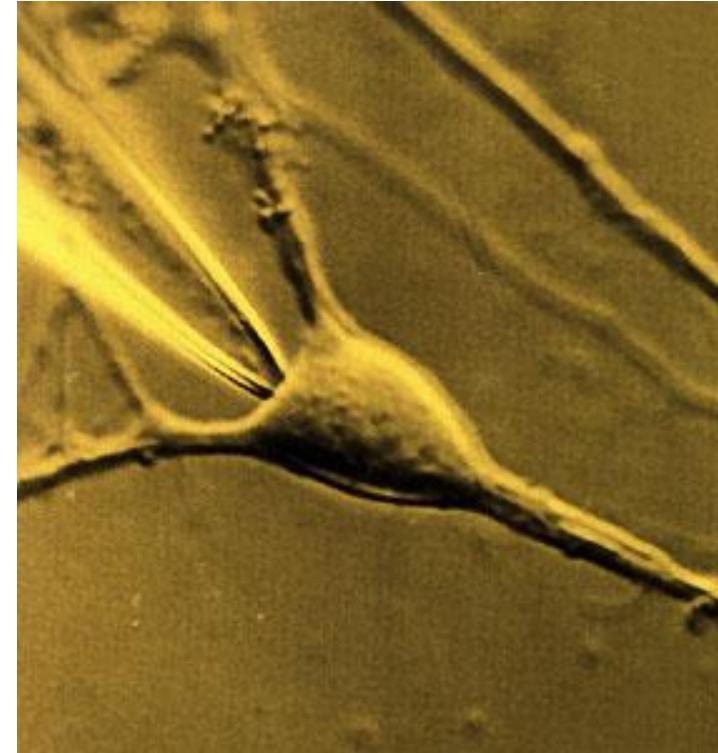
$R_m = 107\text{-}228 \text{ M}\Omega$ with whole-cell recordings,
 $37\text{-}54 \text{ M}\Omega$ with the sharp electrode recordings

Patch-Clamp technique

**The Nobel Prize in
Medicine 1991**

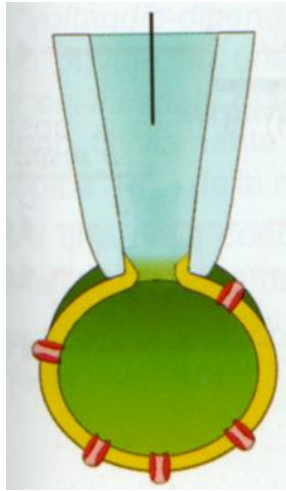


Bert Sakmann Erwin Neher

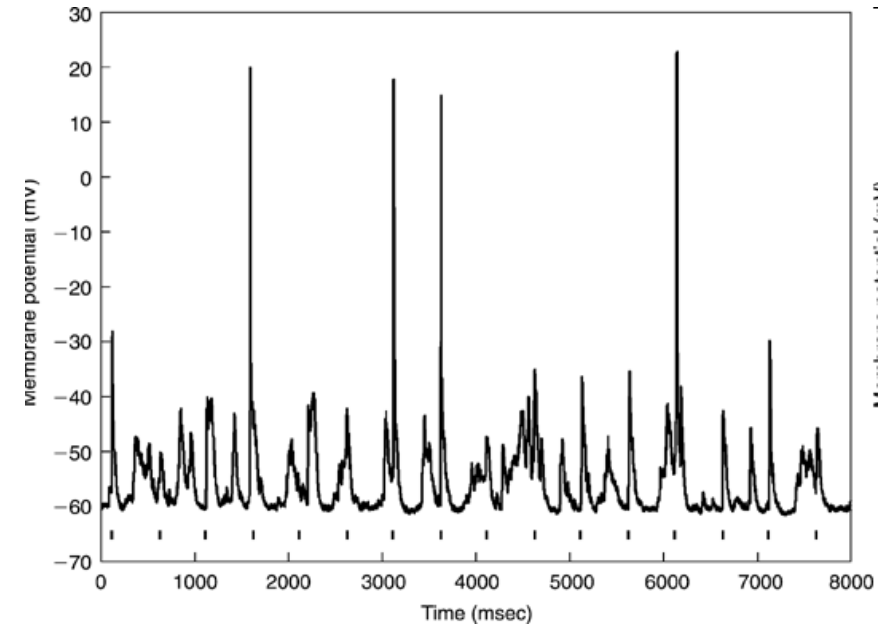


The real time movement of a single protein!!

Whole-cell recordings

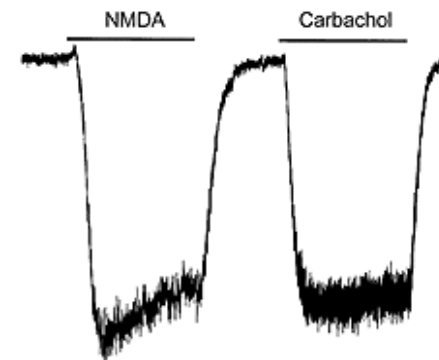
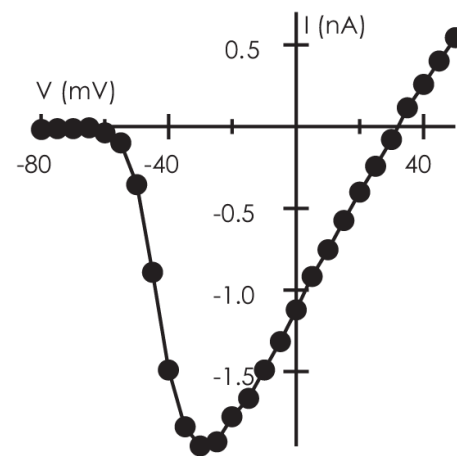
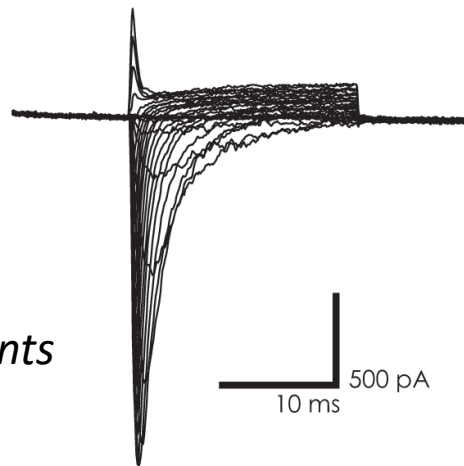


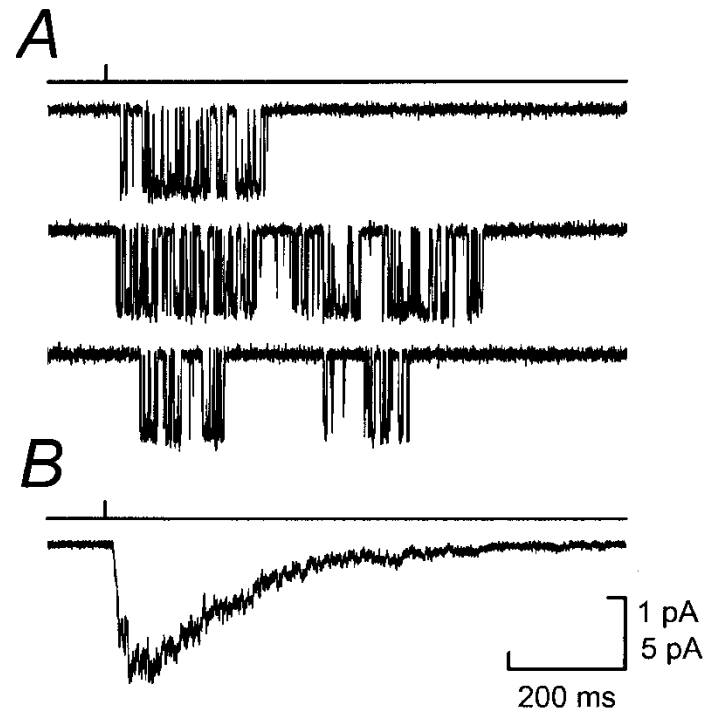
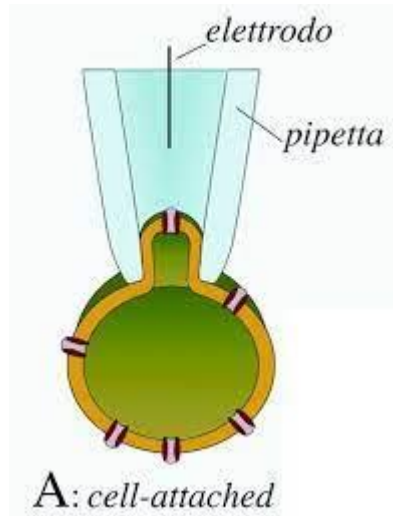
Current-clamp recordings



Voltage-clamp mode

Na⁺ currents





The whole cell current recorded in B is the result of single channel openings in A

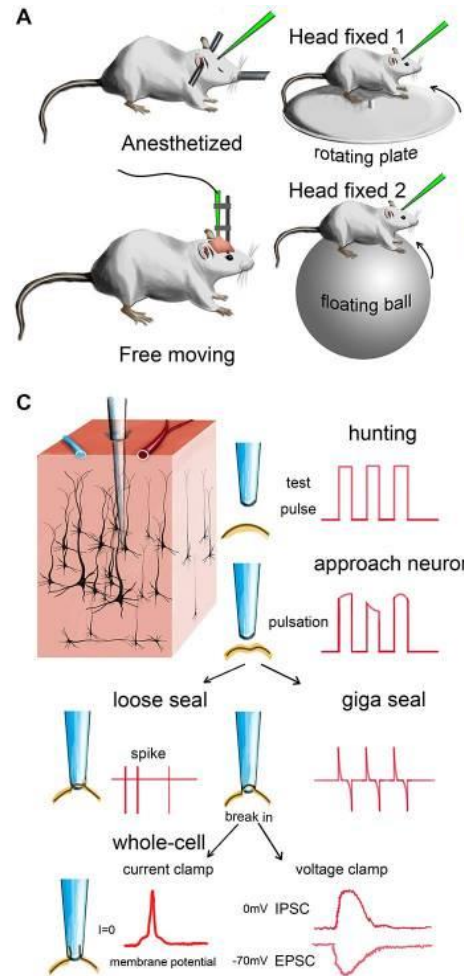
The whole-cell recording technique rapidly took over from conventional sharp electrode intracellular recording in preparations of cultured cells and *in vitro* studies.

The whole-cell technique is believed to result in less damage to the recorded cell and lead to a more faithful recording of the cell's electrical signals.

With the development of ***in vivo* patch-clamp recording**, researchers can not only directly measure neuronal activity, such as spiking responses or membrane potential dynamics, but also quantify synaptic inputs from excitatory and inhibitory circuits in living animals.

Heart rate and breathing is relatively stable and smooth

To study higher brain function such as cognition

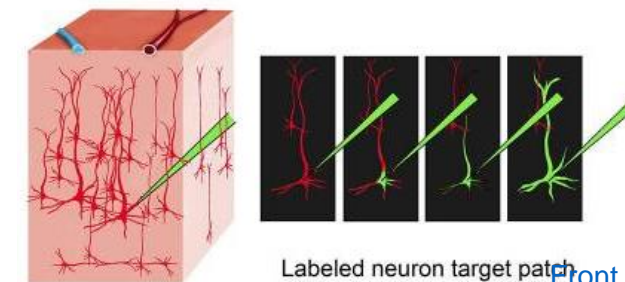
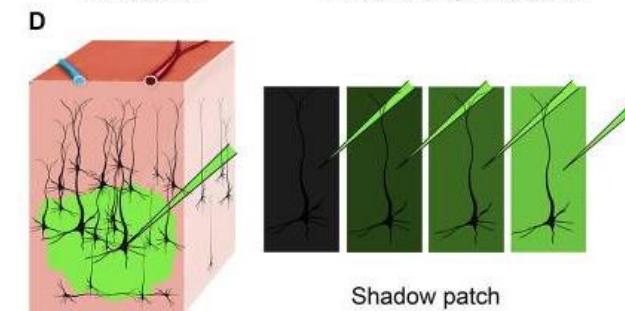
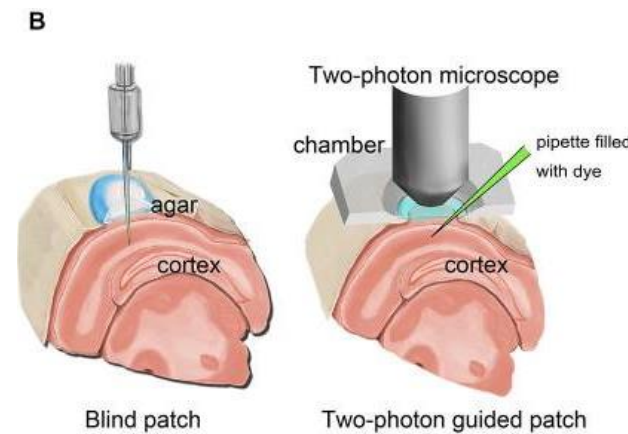
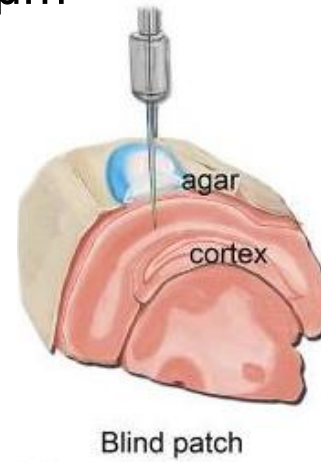


Patch clamp *in vivo*

A stereoscope is used

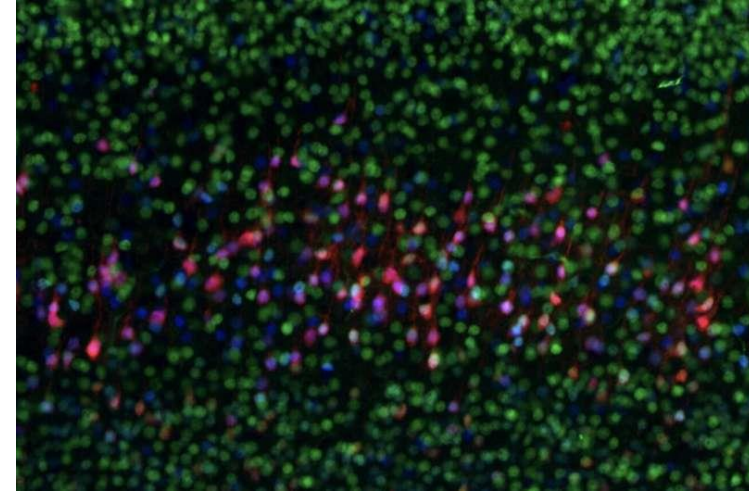
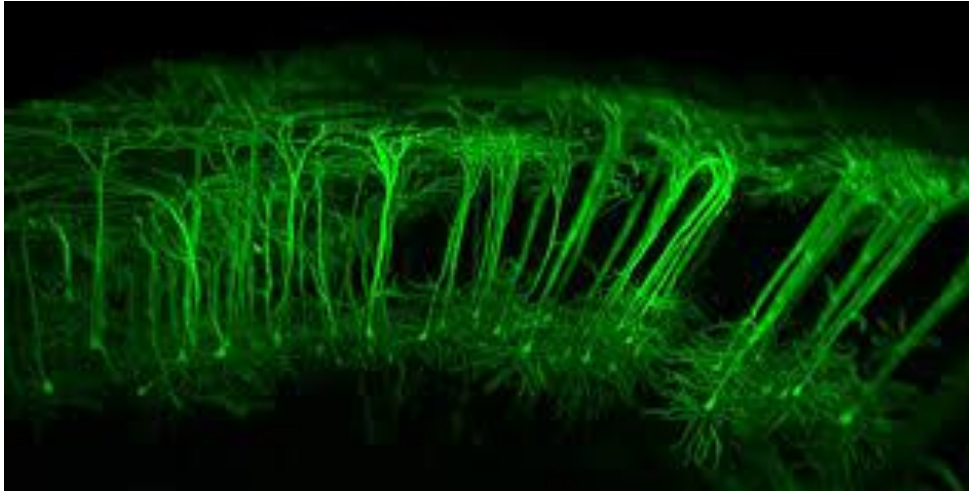
Imaging

Possible depth of imaging is generally less than 500 μm



Combining *in vivo* patch-clamp recording with other techniques, such as two-photon imaging or optogenetics, can provide even clearer functional dissection of the synaptic contributions of different neurons or nuclei.

It would be interesting to map the brain on the chemical identity of neurons



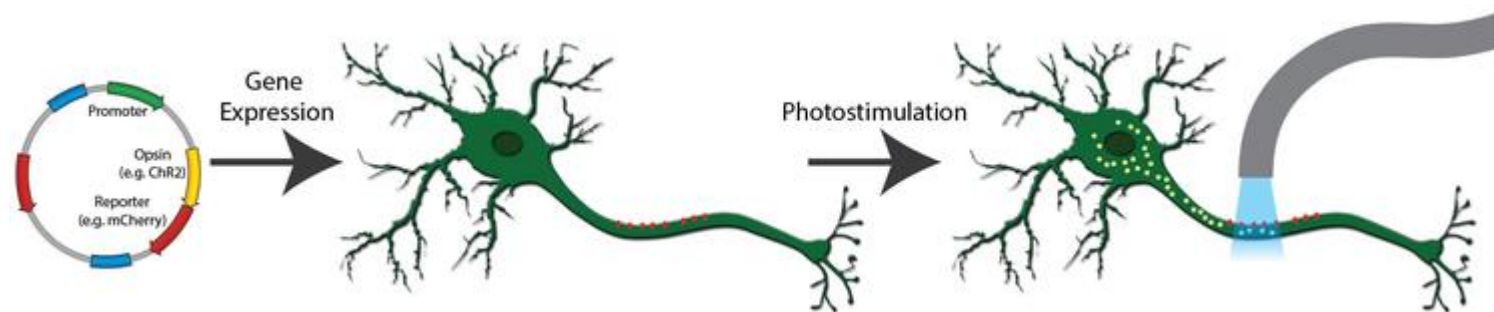
It is possible to install in neurons proteins (see channelrhodopsin) able of converting light into electricity and use laser light to stimulate specific cells

This allow to turn on or off the cells to control their participation to a neuronal network and stimulate them with magnetic transcranial stimulation

Optogenetics controls the activity of neurons with light

Genetic targeting strategies are developed such as cell-specific promoters or attenuated virus, to deliver the **light-sensitive probes** to specific populations of neurons.

Shining light on the specific neurons, light get converted to electricity.



Efforts have been made to confer light sensitivity onto ion channels to switch their activity

The major limitation of *in vivo* patch-clamp recording is its technical difficulty, which requires experienced personnel and a large amount of patience.

A completely automated *in vivo* patch-clamp setup is expected to be available in the near future as more research groups become interested in applying this tool to facilitate their research work.