Connecting neurons



Imge: www.dana.org/article/how-does-the-brain-work/

Modeling the synapse

We have already encountered voltage-gated ion channels, e.g., in the Hodgkin-Huxley model

synaptic transmission involves

transmitter-activated ion channels



The membrane potential difference now evolves as

$$C_m dV/dt = -I_{ion} + I_{syn}$$

where,

Receptor binding gated conductance \rightarrow time-varying

$$I_{syn} = g_{syn} (V - E_{syn})$$

with the synaptic reversal potential

equivalent electrical circuit



Fitzhugh-Nagumo model with synapse

$$C_{m} dV/dt = -I_{ion}(V,w) + I_{syn}$$

$$dw/dt = \{W^{asymp}(V) - w\} / [\tau_{w}]$$

$$kV$$

$$V$$

$$I/\epsilon$$
with $I_{syn} = \overline{\sum_{i} \overline{g}_{syn,i} s_{i} (V - E_{syn}^{i})}$

$$E_{syn} = V_{threshold} (= \alpha) \text{ for excitatory}$$

$$V_{threshold} (= 0) \text{ for inhibitory}$$

$$Synapse$$

For each synapse, an additional dynamic variable s described by

$$ds/dt = \alpha_s(V_{pre}) (1 - s) - \beta_s(V_{pre}) s$$

where V_{pre} : membrane potential of pre-synaptic neuron

Typically

$$\begin{split} &\alpha_{s}(V_{pre}) = \alpha_{s,0} \ \mathcal{N}(V_{pre}), \\ & \text{where} \ \mathcal{N}(V_{pre}) \text{ is a sigmoid function} \\ & \text{and} \ \beta_{s}(V_{pre}) = \beta_{s,0} \ (= \alpha_{s,0}), \text{ a constant} \end{split}$$

For Fitzhugh-Nagumo model, a possible choice is $\mathcal{N}(z) = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \tanh([z - z_0] / \theta))$



MATLAB simulations

> y0=zeros(6,1); %initial values

- > [t,y]=ode15s(@fhnsynapsepair,[0 1000],y0);
- > figure, plot(t,y(:,1),'b'), hold on, plot(t,y(:,2),'r')

```
function dydt = fhnsynapsepair(t,y0)
E_syn=[5;-5]; %5: excitatory, -5: inhibitory
v_th = 0.3; v_sl = 0.001; %synaptic parameters
B = 3;A = 3;%synaptic parameters
g_m = 0.02; %synaptic conductance g_m can be varied in the range 0.01-1
%l=zeros(N,1); l(1)=0.2;%external current
l=[0.1;0];
W_syn=[0 1;1 0];
W_syn=sparse(W_syn);
v=y0(1:2);
w=y0(3:4);
s=y0(5:6);
dydt=[3*v.*(v-0.1).*(1-v)-w+l-g_m*((v.*(W_syn*s))-(W_syn*(E_syn.*s)));0.05*(v-w);(A*0.5*(1+tanh((v-v_th)/v_sl))).*(1-s)-B*s];
```

$\begin{array}{l} \text{No synaptic delay} \\ \text{Electrical synapses} \equiv gap \ junctions \end{array}$

Communication between neurons is mediated via the direct spread of electric current from one neuron to another

a connexon or a connexin hemichannel is an assembly of six connexin proteins that form the pore for a gap junction between the cytoplasm of two adjacent cells



How different are gap junctions from chemical synapses ? Can gap junctions rectify ?

Gap junctions between cells of the same type usually are bidirectional, but junctions between cells of different types may show strong rectification, with depolarizations being transferred preferentially in one direction and hyperpolarizations in the other due to the two different cells contributing different protein subunits at either side of the junction

Can gap junctions adapt ?

Gap junction conductance can be modulated by various G protein-coupled receptors, leading to long lasting changes in coupling strength as the result of neuronal activity, similar to long-lasting changes in chemical synapses

Non-neuronal example: In the gravid uterus, muscle cells communicate via gap junctions whose conductance can be altered over a scale of days by hormones that promote expression of connexin proteins

Modeling gap junctions

A simple model assumes a fixed, symmetric permeability of the gap junction channels (a)



The current flowing into each neuron through the gap junction is proportional to the voltage difference between the two neurons (at the junction)

So, the equation for transmembrane potential difference for each cell

$$C_{m} dV/dt = -I_{ion} + I_{gap} \qquad For Cell 1: I_{gap} = g_{gap} (V_{2} - V_{1})$$

For Cell 2: I_{gap} = g_{gap} (V_{1} - V_{2})

From neurons to networks to brain



Imge: www.dana.org/article/how-does-the-brain-work/



Image: neuronaldynamics.epfl.ch

Neural mass models & Neural field models

Models of brain activity can be divided into two classes:

Neural mass models : characterize activity over time only; by assuming that all neurons in a population are located at (approximately) the same point.

Neural field models: prescribe how a quantity characterizing neural activity (such as average depolarization of a neural population) evolves over both space and time.

Modeling the Dynamics of a Local Brain Region



Modeling the Dynamics of a Local Brain Region



Oscillations in the Wilson-Cowan model



Image: V Sreenivasan, S N Menon & SS, Sci. Rep. 7 (2017)

Collective Dynamics of WC Networks



Resulting time-series of node activity are qualitatively similar to experimentally recorded activity in Macaque brain regions

Neural field models: Reaction-diffusion equation



$$\partial W/\partial t = \mu (\sigma_1 + i \omega_1) W - (g_r + i g_i) |W|^2 W + D \partial^2 W/\partial x^2$$

where $D = d_r + i d_i$ is a complex diffusion coefficient

This is the Complex Ginzburg-Landau Equation

Complex Ginzburg-Landau Equation Describes spatiotemporal pattern formation

Amplitude IWI





2-Dimensional CGLE on a square domain

Mean-field models of the brain

When simulating a large number of interacting neurons, it maybe easier to approximate the population dynamics of interconnected neurons by mean-field models.

By ignoring details of individual neurons, it is possible to describe the macroscopic behavior of large networks, e.g., the mean firing rate of the population

To arrive at a deeper understanding of neural activity as measured by fMRI or electrophysiology.



A simple model of activity in a homogeneous population of excitatory neurons

Q-E-R-Q model



Dynamics of the QERQ model

Change in quiescent population, dQ/dt = Gain from neurons recovering from refractory state – Loss through new excitations = $(1 / \tau_R) \times Current$ refractory population – $\beta \times mean$ number of connections of a neuron \times fraction of excited neighbours per neuron \times current quiescent population

$$dQ/dt = (I / \tau_R) R - \beta k (E/N) Q = (I / \tau_R) R - \beta k (E/N) [N - E - R]$$

Dividing by N, fractional change $dq/dt = (I / \tau_R) r - \beta k e [1 - e - r]$

Change in excited population, dE/dt =

Growth through new excitations – Loss via passage to refractory state

$$dE/dt = \beta k (E/N) [N - E - R] - (I / \tau_E) E$$

Dividing by N, de/dt = β k e [1 – e – r] – (1 / τ_E) e

Change in refractory population, dR/dt = Growth by passage of excitatory neurons to refractory state – loss from neurons recovering to quiescent state

$$dR/dt = (I / \tau_E) E - (I / \tau_R) R$$

Dividing by N, dr/dt = (I / τ_E) e - (I / τ_R) r

Dynamics of the QERQ model

The mean-field dynamics reduces to 2 coupled ODEs

de/dt = e {
$$\beta$$
 k [1 - e - r] - (I / τ_{E}) }
dr/dt = (I / τ_{E}) e - (I / τ_{R}) r

The nullclines for e are e=0 and e= $1 - r - [1/(\tau_E \beta k)]$ The nullcline for r is e = $(\tau_E / \tau_R)r$

- \Rightarrow Two equilibria are
- $e_1 *= r_1 *= 0$, and
- $e_2^* = (\tau_E \beta k 1)/(\beta k \{\tau_E + \tau_R \})], r_2^* = (\tau_E \{1/\beta k\})/(1 + \{\tau_E / \tau_R\})$

⇒ How about stability ? The $e_1^*=r_1^*=0$ is stable if $\tau_E \beta k < 1$ In other words, if $\tau_E \beta k > 1$, the network will show persistent excitation (i.e., a finite fraction will always be excited)

Analogous to the basic reproduction number R_0 in epidemiology

And hence to binary state neurons...

Quiescent, i.e., resting state $\equiv 0$

Active, i.e., firing action potentials $\equiv 1$





Spin models as a paradigm for Complex Systems The McCulloch-Pitts neuron

Inage:infonintelli.blogspot.com



Image: Current Biology

Image: chatbotslife.com/keras-in-a-singlemcculloch-pitts-neuron-317397cccd45



Magnetic moments of atoms reduced to a single (z) component, allowed to be only in 1 of 2 states and interact only with nearest neighbors



For spontaneous ordering in a ferromagnet, $J_{ii} = J > 0$ and h = 0

Once we introduce thermal fluctuations (at finite temperature T>0) system behavior is governed by

Free energy
$$F = U - T$$
. S

Disorder at any finite temperature in a 1-dimensional array of Ising spins

Let there be a perfectly ordered arrangement of N+1 Ising spins (all spins parallel)

+ + + + + + + + + + + + +

Can disorder by introducing a single boundary in the array where neighboring spins are not in parallel orientation – has an energy cost of 2 J

The boundary can be placed in any of N positions in the array \Rightarrow Entropy gain of k log N

Change in Free Energy is 2 J – k log N \Rightarrow For large N, free energy is always lower for disordered state when T > 0

So no order in ID for finite temperature

The Peierls argument (1936) Can there be order in 2D for T>0 ?





Rudolf Peierls

Energy cost as well as entropy varies with N

A similar chain of argument will show that disorder does not have a lower free energy at a low but finite temperature

 \Rightarrow The array will show spontaneous ordering below a critical temperature T_c

A model for self-organized coordination

The system spontaneously orders at T $< T_c$





A model for self-organized coordination

The system spontaneously orders at T < T_c





A model for self-organized coordination

The system spontaneously orders at T < T_c





A model for self-organized coordination

The system spontaneously orders at T $< T_c$







Selinger, Introduction to the Theory of Soft Matter, Springer



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Jake Wyman/Corbis

Discontinuous or First-order phase transition



Continuous phase transition



Memory Recall in Hopfield Network

 \Box Start from arbitrary initial configuration of $\{x\}$

□ What final state does the network converge ?

Evaluate an 'energy' value associated with the network state:



In neurons, fluctuations in the release of neurotransmitters in discrete vesicles \Rightarrow neurons may fire even when weighted input < threshold or not fire when input > threshold

Noise \rightarrow Stochasticity in neuronal firing

Amount of noise quantified by "pseudo temperature" T T=0 \rightarrow deterministic dynamics



T>0 or Stochastic dynamics The Monte Carlo Method Using repeated random sampling to solve problems







Stan Ulam got the idea while recovering from surgery, playing solitaire to estimate the odds of a successful game. Realized that, instead of doing combinatorics, a more practical method to estimate is to lay out the game hundreds of times and count the number of successful plays.

Named Monte Carlo Method because of its association with chance and gambling by



Nicholas Metropolis

The Monte Carlo Method



Let's consider a particular spin configuration in a 2-dimensional Ising model with each spin interacting with strength J with its 4 nearest neighbours

The Monte Carlo Method



Let's randomly select a particular spin whose new state will be decided

How much will the energy of the system change if we flip the spin to its opposite orientation ?



The Monte Carlo Method



As the energy decreases as a result of the flip, this change is accepted and the new state will be

The Monte Carlo Method



Next, randomly choose another spin

... and ask what will be the energy change if we flip it ?

$$\Delta E = -\{\sum_{j} J(-1)(+1)\} - \{-\sum_{j} J(+1)(+1)\} = 8 J$$

The Monte Carlo Method



As the energy increases, we don't immediately accept the change but ask: can this additional energy cost be obtained from thermal fluctuations ($\sim k_B T$ at temperature T) ?

Probability of accepting the move: P (+ \rightarrow –) ~ exp (– Δ E / k_B T)

The Monte Carlo Method

Continue to repeat this process by randomly selecting a spin at successive rounds and deciding what its state will be (i.e., to flip or not to flip)

