**Abstract/intro**

Dendrites are neuronal arborizations which conduct synaptic input towards the soma. Traditional computational models of dendrites (e.g. Equivalent Circuit Theory, Cable Theory) provide valuable predictions of how electrical signals propagate along dendrites however are limited in certain respects. Firstly, they are inaccurate in low volume spaces and in areas with rapid ionic fluxes (e.g. dendritic spines), and secondly fail to adequately account for impermeant anions which can influence disease processes. Herein I propose constructing an electrodiffusion based multicompartmental neuronal model which will incorporate impermeant anions and adapt to small scale changes to ionic concentrations. Once constructed I shall run simulations to elucidate the impact impermeant anions have on the electrical and osmotic properties of the dendrite, and further probe how this may be implicated in disease processes such as neurodegenerative disorders and cerebral oedema. This work will provide a better theoretical description of normal and pathological neuronal processes and may provide avenues for therapeutic intervention.

1. **Dendrites and dendritic spines**

Dendrites are cytoplasmic extensions which emerge from the soma of neurons**.** The proximal portion of the dendrite may have the same organelles as the soma (barring the nucleus). Both proximal and distal portions of dendrites contain endoplasmic reticula and ribosomes1, and therefore the synthesis of subcellular proteins occurs throughout the soma and its dendrites. This has implications of this is that the heterogenous distribution of negatively charged impermeant proteins may influence the electrical properties of neurons.

It is thought that dendritic branching structures also may have functional implications. There are on average 1-9 dendrites per cell body each giving rise to a dendritic tree. The specific architecture of dendritic trees likely relates to the function characteristics of the related neuronal population. Alterations in the dendritic branching structures have been shown to play a role in epilepsy, Down’s Syndrome and certain dementias2.

Together with heterogenous subcellular impermeant anion distribution and variations in branching structures another consideration that is often not adequately modelled are dendritic spines. Dendritic spines are pedunculated appendages, roughly 1µm long3, along the length of dendrites in certain areas of the brain. ‘Spiny’ neurons are those that have a high density of dendritic spines which can be in the range of 40 000 – 100 000 per neuron. The function of dendritic spines is still not precisely known however synapses directed towards the dendritic spines are thought to be predominantly excitatory in nature, while the synaptic input to the rest of the dendrite is generally inhibitory. It has been speculated that alterations to dendritic spine morphology and density could be a substrate for memory based on the supposition that memory can be modelled as changes to synaptic weights4. Some functions for dendritic spines may include: chemical and/or electrical isolation; attenuation of electrical signal; amplification of electrical signal; increasing the surface area of dendrites; impedance matching; modulation.

1. **A neuroelectronic basis for computational dendritic modelling**

Detailing the biophysical properties of dendrites allows for the precise modelling and prediction of dendritic behaviour. Dendrites are walled by a cell membrane (lipid bilayer) that is approximately 3-4 nm thick. This membrane is impermeable to most charged molecules however and subsequently charges build up on either side of the cell membrane, thus the membrane is modelled as a capacitor. Ions can escape through various channel proteins and pumps which extend across the membrane. These channels can be modelled as resistors.

*Figure of a lipid bilayer with the membrane proteins.*

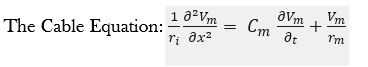
Ions move across both longitudinally along the length of the dendrite as well as across the membrane through down concentration and electrostatic gradients in order to reach a steady state where there is no net ionic movement. In most conditions the resting membrane potential is in the range of -90mV to +50mV. The primary ionic species which contributes to the overall charge are sodium (Na+), potassium (K+), and chloride (Cl-); bicarbonate (HCO3-) and hydrogen ions(H+) also play a small role. All these ionic species can move between the intracellular and extracellular compartments. Another electrical species which is often neglected are impermeant anions. These are negatively charged molecules such as proteins and nucleic acids which exist both intracellularly and extracellularly but cannot move between these compartments. Due to the vast extracellular space volume relative to the intracellular volume the concentration of the anions is much larger intracellularly and may play an important role in the electrical properties of the dendrite.

*Schematic of the various ionic species and the relative concentrations*

Cable theory aims to amalgamate these biophysical principles and

Hodgin and Huxley developed the first known computational model of a neuron by studying the giant squid axon in **1927.** Prior to this time, it had been known that nerve cells communicated via electric stimuli however this was not formalized until their depiction of the equivalent circuit.

Neurons are traditionally modelled using the cable theory or equivalent circuits. In such models the equilibrium potential of each ion is represented by a battery whose driving force (EMF) is given by the Nernst Potential. Changes in the membrane permeability are modelled by changes to conductances. Such changes to conductances do not change the equilibrium potentials of the neuron.



Cable theory is useful in modelling many neuronal processes, however there are limitations to its applicability. In areas of small intracellular volume (e.g. dendritic spines), the ionic concentrations can change rapidly (e.g. calcium transients). Such concentration changes are not accounted for in cable theory as ionic reversal potentials are fixed and not dependant on concentration changes with time. Thus an additional term is needed to account for this, and the equation needs to be computed for each ion in time.

These models make use of the Cable Theory by Rall which assumes that the ionic reversal potentials remain constant along the length of the cable5. Recent work by our group has suggested that variable activity of chloride channels along dendrites may result in local changes to chloride reversal potentials resulting in non-isopotential dendritic compartments– thus violating a core assumption in Cable Theory. Investigating what the implications of this violation are on the electrical and information processing properties of the neuron may shed further light on how the brain is able to function and may better depict how neurons behave in certain disease states.

In this equation there is no consideration for the dynamic effects of the reversal potential based on rapid changes in ions. Moreover, as the reversal potentials of the ions are considered constant, the equation fails to consider the fact that impermeant anions may be distributed in a spatially heterogenous manner.

1. **Electrodiffusion based models**

In the traditional computational models two main assumptions are made; firstly, that the extracellular soup is far larger than the subcellular space; and that there are no external sources of electric fields. Both assumptions used to simplify the complexity of the brain are likely invalidated in living tissue.

According to Savtchenko et al.6 there are 3 major sources of electric fields: (1) fields as a result of electric current flow also referred to local field potentials, (2) fields to the heterogeneity in the distribution of channels causing net submembrane currents, (3) fields across the synaptic cleft

Electrodiffusion based models incorporate the electrical driving forces (drift) of ions, as well as the movement of ions along their concentration gradients (diffusion). Albert Hodgkin, one of the pioneers in the field of neuronal modelling, makes the following analogy: “*diffusion is like a hopping flea… electrodiffusion is like a flea that is hopping in a breeze”*  7*.* To make this analogy more complete we need to consider different fleas moving at different speeds with different breezes. Moreover, each flea is impact the other as a function of time.

Clearly modelling this highly dynamic and complex process requires significant computational power. This factor has dissuaded computational biologists from pursuing such models, however with the computational resources publicly available in the year 2020/2021, such computations can be performed in a few hours as opposed to days or weeks.

1. **Impermeant anions in an electrodiffusion model**

The Gibbs-Donnan effect describes the broad implications of impermeant anions (proteins, nucleic acids, metabolites etc.) have on the cellular compartments enclosed by a semi-permeable membrane8,9. As impermeant anions are trapped intracellular they require cations of equal net ionic charge to move intracellularly to ensure electroneutrality. This will bring water into the cell via osmosis and subsequently dilute the intracellular compartment. The concentration gradient of permeant anions will then also be driven inwards. This repetitive cycle would ultimately lead to uncontrolled cell swelling and bursting if not for active sodium extrusion via Na-K-ATPases. Another possible cellular strategy could be to pump water out of the cell however there is no evidence of aquaporins or similar structures in neurons.

Dusterwald et. al10 showed that the addition of impermeant anions in a multicompartmental model effects the electrical and osmotic functions of dendrites. In a single compartmental model, Dusterwald showed that altering the concentrations of impermeant anions intracellularly or extracellularly does not change the steady state concentrations of the major ionic species due to balanced osmotic changes. However, when the average charge of impermeant anions changes there are significant changes to reversal potentials of various ions, as well as changes to the membrane potential. Due to the relatively constant ratio of these changes the driving force (Vm – Reversal potential) of the various ions do not significantly change.

Similar effects were demonstrated in a multicompartmental model, however the changes to the driving force were even less due to the impact electrodiffusion had on the sodium ion concentrations thus impacting the Na\_K\_APTase. In both the single and multicompartment simulations, impermeant anion concentrations were key determinants of cell/compartment volumes. Similarly changing the average charge of impermeant anions had a persistent impact on cell volume.

As impermeant anions had significant effect on cell volumes it was postulated that adding impermeant anions in the apical portions of the dendrites may mimic the increases in cell size of a growth cone. This too was shown via simulations thus illustrating the potential ability of impermeant anions to grow neuronal processes, and it may be possible that neurons could use the transport and tethering of impermeant anions to grow or modify the volume of neuronal compartments

Don’t know what the effect of varied Vm on these properties will be

Non isopotential

1. **Impermeant anions in disease**

As physiological osmotic balance in the brain is highly regulated by impermeant anions, in cerebral oedema it is likely that impermeant anions play a role in the pathophysiological processes as well. After a stroke or a traumatic brain injury (TBI) the brain swells leading to an increase in intracranial pressure (ICP). High ICPs result in the paradoxical occlusion of blood vessels leading to worsening ischaemia. Ischaemia leads to further swelling which compresses the brain leading to more cell death in a self-perpetuating and destructive manner.

The transition from ischaemia to swelling can be partially attributed to the impact of impermeant ions. When ATP (adenosine triphosphate) is depleted in ischaemia, the sodium-potassium pumps fail leading to an inability to pump cations out of the cell. Impermeant anions drive the inward movement of cations via the Donnan osmotic pressure. This flow causes water to enter the cell and result in cell swelling. Although there are other hypotheses to explain the swelling in ischaemia, it is likely that impermeant anions are perpetuating the pathological processes that are occurring11.

Impermeant anions also contribute to the pathology seen in several neurodegenerative disorders, most prominently are the Tauopathies where Tau protein is one of the hallmarks of several diseases including Alzheimer’s Disease. The Tau protein begins as a soluble intracellular protein but as it becomes phosphorylated and bundled together with microtubules these proteins become insoluble and thus are trapped within the intracellular compartment. Indeed, the clinical progression from short term memory loss to executive dysfunction in Alzheimer’s Disease closely mirrors the accumulation and spread of Tau proteins through specific brain regions (described by Braak’s staging)12. Interestingly, Tau proteins can also accumulate in glial cells and play a role in Progressive Supranuclear Palsy (PSP) and Corticobasal Degeneration (CBD), while increased Tau proteins in astrocytes have been linked to aging.

Several other neurodegenerative disorders are also characterised by subcellular protein build up. In Parkinson’s Disease intracellular alpha-synuclein deposition and is correlated to disease progression and symptomatology. Similarly, in Pick’s Disease, Pick bodies can be found inside neurons. Extracellular protein deposition also occurs in Huntington’s disease, Multiple Sclerosis, Spinocerebellar Ataxia and Transmissible Spongiform Encephalopathy (the most common being Jakob-Creutzfeldt disease)13.

Electrical properties and signalling in Alzheimer’s disease. What is the average intracellular charge of Tau proteins?

NEEDS FURTHER RESEARCH BY ME.

A common theme throughout the disease spectrum is neurodegenerative change associated with subcellular build up of protein. Perhaps such intracellular protein deposition plays a role in the electrical and computational properties of dendrites and thus may contribute disease processes.

Need for understanding the therapeutic benefits of a better understanding.

## CONCLUDING PARAGRAPH

Dendrites convey electrical signals from the periphery towards the cell body. Traditional computational models of neuronal signal propagation are imprecise in certain conditions(specific), and thus electrodiffusion based model may be more suitable. Moreover, traditional models may not adequately appreciate the influence of impermeant anions on the electrical properties of the dendrite. Impermeant anions play a role in several disease processes such as that occurring in cerebral oedema and neurodegenerative disorders. Modelling the role impermeant anions play in normal and pathological states may help lead to a better pathophysiological understanding of the conditions and ultimately to better therapies.

# Aims and objectives

The overall aim of my thesis is to develope a biophysically accurate computational neuronal model incorporating electrodiffusion and investigate the influence of impermeant anions on the electrical and information processing properties of neurons.

The objectives are as follows:

1. Develop a computational tool to dynamically model ion homeostasis, volume regulation, and electrical changes that occur within a neuron.
   1. Create a single compartment model.
   2. Create a multicompartment model incorporating the properties of electrical drift and diffusion.
   3. Create a tool to visualize the changes to the ionic concentrations, electrical properties and cell volume within each compartment as these properties vary with time.
2. Investigate the effects of adding excitatory or inhibitory synaptic input on each of the dendritic compartments as well as at the soma.
3. Investigate the effect of impermeant anions may have on the osmotic regulation of neurons.
4. Investigate the effect non-isopotential neurons have on information processing and dendritic computation
5. Explore how any observed effects may be relevant to disease processes.
   1. How do impermeant anion concentrations change in diseases. Can this be modelled.

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