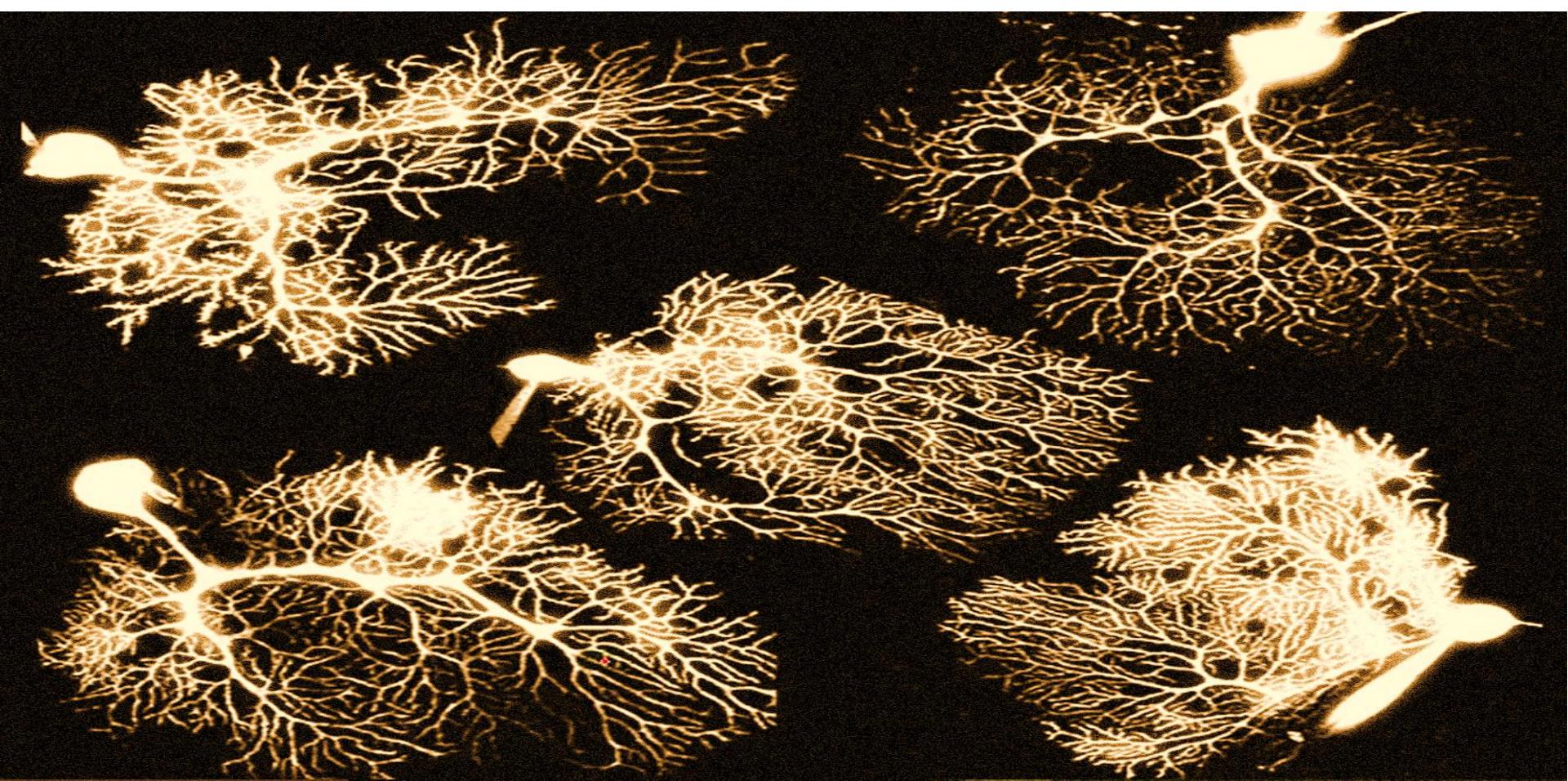


# Neuroscience of Learning, Memory, Cognition

## Part I: Neuronal Networks



1

### Neuron Models

Set III

# Outline

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- Sensing & perception
- Neurons & spikes
- The Hodgkin-Huxley equation
- Modeling neuronal dynamics

Some slides credit:

- Adrienne Fairhall, Rajesh Rao, UW course material 2013-2017
- Wulfram Gerstner, EPFL course material 2018

Other credits as noted on slides

Cover slide drawing: Santiago Ramon Y Cajal

Textbooks:

- Peter Dayan & Larry Abbott "Theoretical Neuroscience", 2005
- Wulfram Gerstner "Neuronal Dynamics", 2014
- Eugene Izhikevich "Dynamical Systems in Neuroscience", 2010

Reference book:

- Paul Miller "An Introductory Course in Computational Neuroscience", 2018

# Outline

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- Sensing & perception
  - Neurons in the brain
  - Visual cortex & receptive fields
  - Vision & perception
- Neurons & spikes
  - Electrical personality of a neuron
  - Ionic channels
  - Action potential
- The Hodgkin-Huxley equation
  - The passive membrane
  - Voltage-gated channels
  - Anatomy of a spike
- Neuronal dynamics
  - Phase portrait models
  - Fixed points and their stability
  - Bifurcation (saddle-node / Hopf)
  - Simplified 2D models

# Phase Portrait Models

slabM  
tirfjorla asdasd

# Capturing The Basic Dynamics of Neurons

- Let's start with the simplest model:
  - Write down an equation for  $V$  that does something like a neuron does:

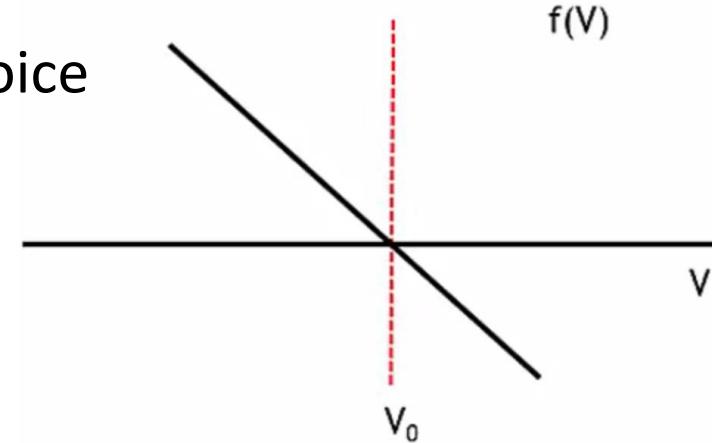
$$\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V) + I(t)$$

- We want to find a function  $f(V)$  to model the neuron's activity

$$f(V) = -a(V - V_0)$$

- A linear function may be a good choice as long as we are not close to the spiking events:

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = -a(V - V_0) + I(t)$$



Effect of  $I(t)$  is not considered here

# Capturing The Basic Dynamics of Neurons

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = -a(V - V_0) + I(t)$$

- A **fixed point** occurs where  $\frac{dV}{dt} = 0$

(Let's assume  $I = 0$  so the fixed point is at  $V = V_0$ )

- Examine the behavior on the two sides of the fixed point:

- For  $V > V_0$ :

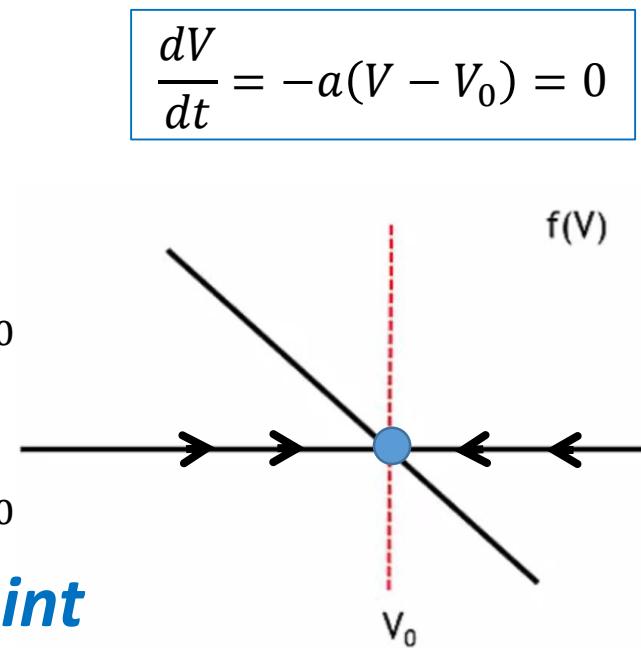
$\rightarrow \frac{dV}{dt} < 0 \rightarrow$  Making  $V$  move towards  $V_0$

- For  $V < V_0$ :

$\rightarrow \frac{dV}{dt} > 0 \rightarrow$  Making  $V$  move towards  $V_0$

- This means  $V_0$  is a **stable fixed point**

➤ Let's briefly study fixed points of a 1D dynamic system and their stability

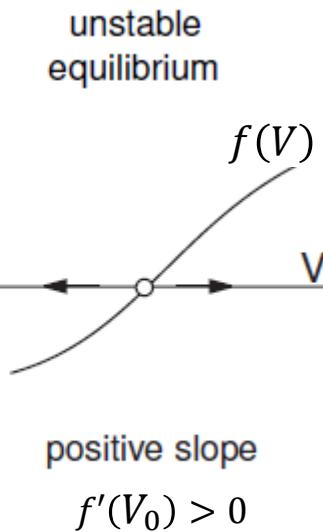
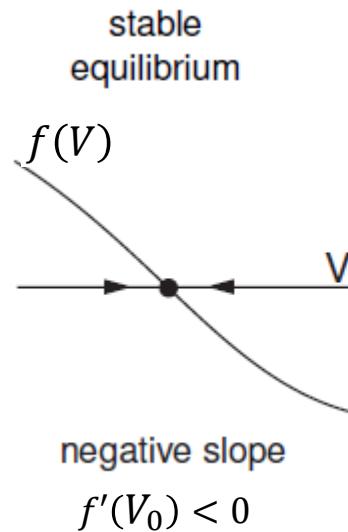


# Fixed Points and Their Stability

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V)$$

Definition of a fixed point:

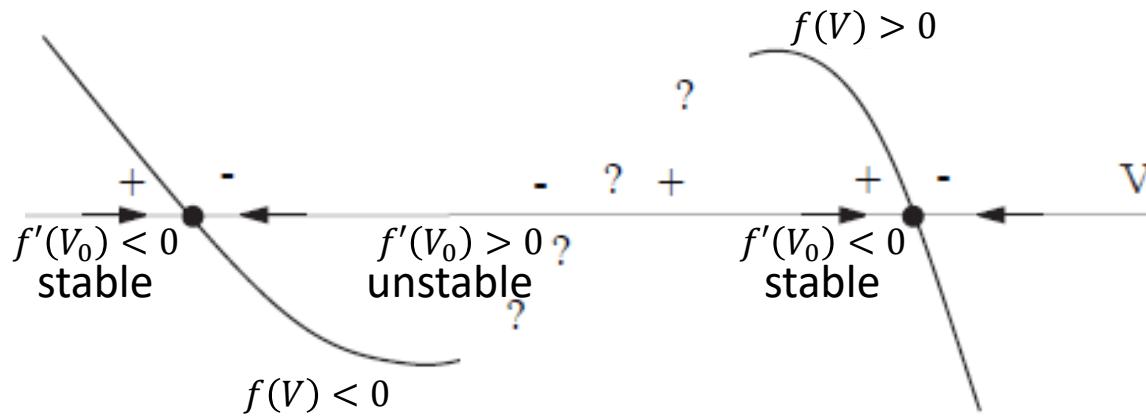
$$\left. \frac{dV}{dt} \right|_{V_0} = f(V_0) = 0$$



- The sign of the slope, i.e.  $f'(V_0)$  determines the **stability** of the fixed point
- At point  $V = V_0 + \varepsilon$  (for a small positive  $\varepsilon$ ):  
$$\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V) \approx f(V_0) + f'(V_0)(V - V_0) = 0 + f'(V_0)\varepsilon \begin{cases} > 0 \text{ if } f'(V_0) > 0 \rightarrow \text{Unstable} \\ < 0 \text{ if } f'(V_0) < 0 \rightarrow \text{Stable} \end{cases}$$

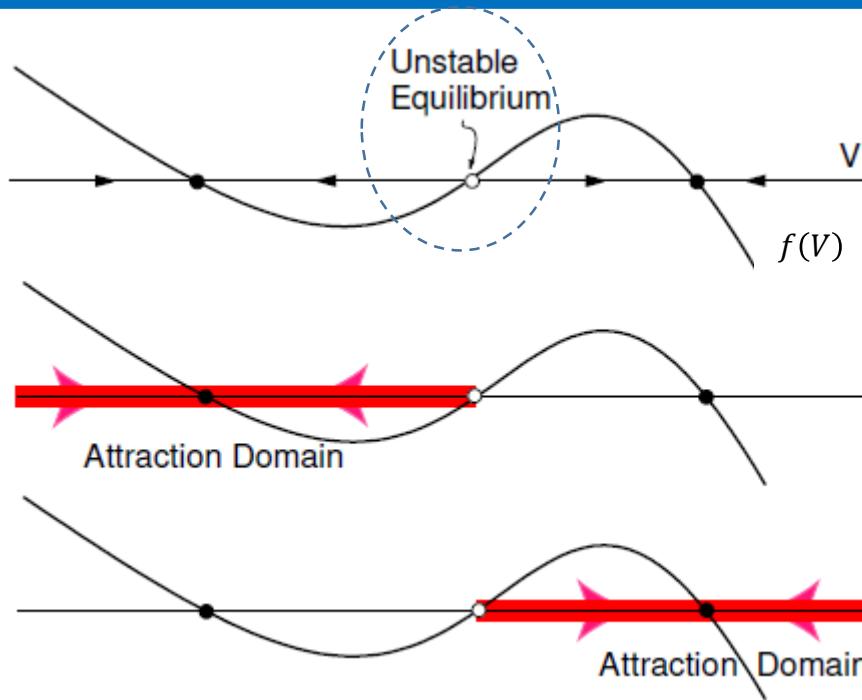
# Fixed Points and Their Stability

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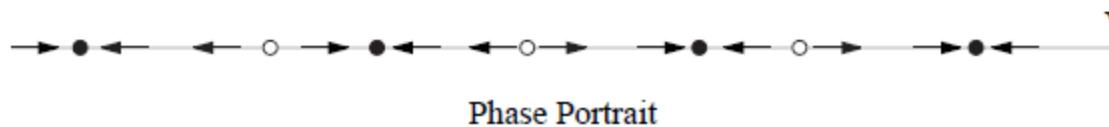
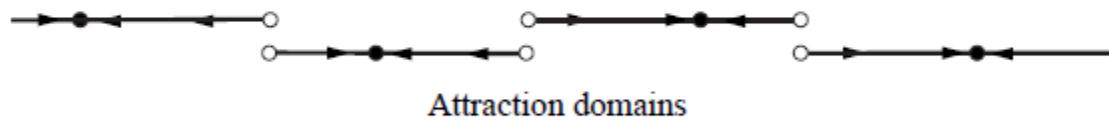
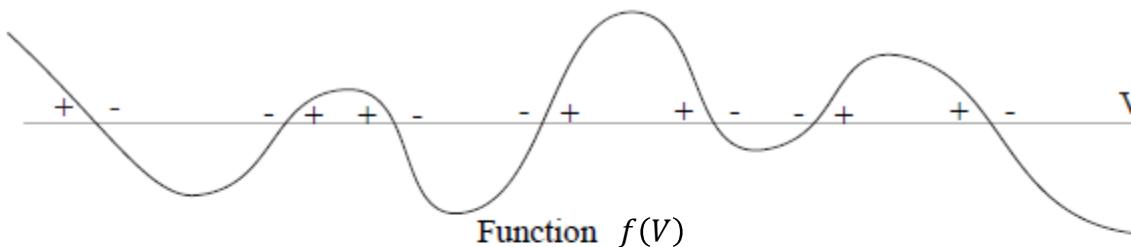
- Two stable fixed points must be separated by at least one unstable fixed point
  - Because  $f(V)$  has to change signs from minus to plus (continuity)

# Fixed Points and Their Stability



- Two **attraction domains** in a 1D system are separated by an **unstable** fixed point
  - An unstable fixed point can serve as a **threshold**  
(This is an important point which we shall discuss soon)

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

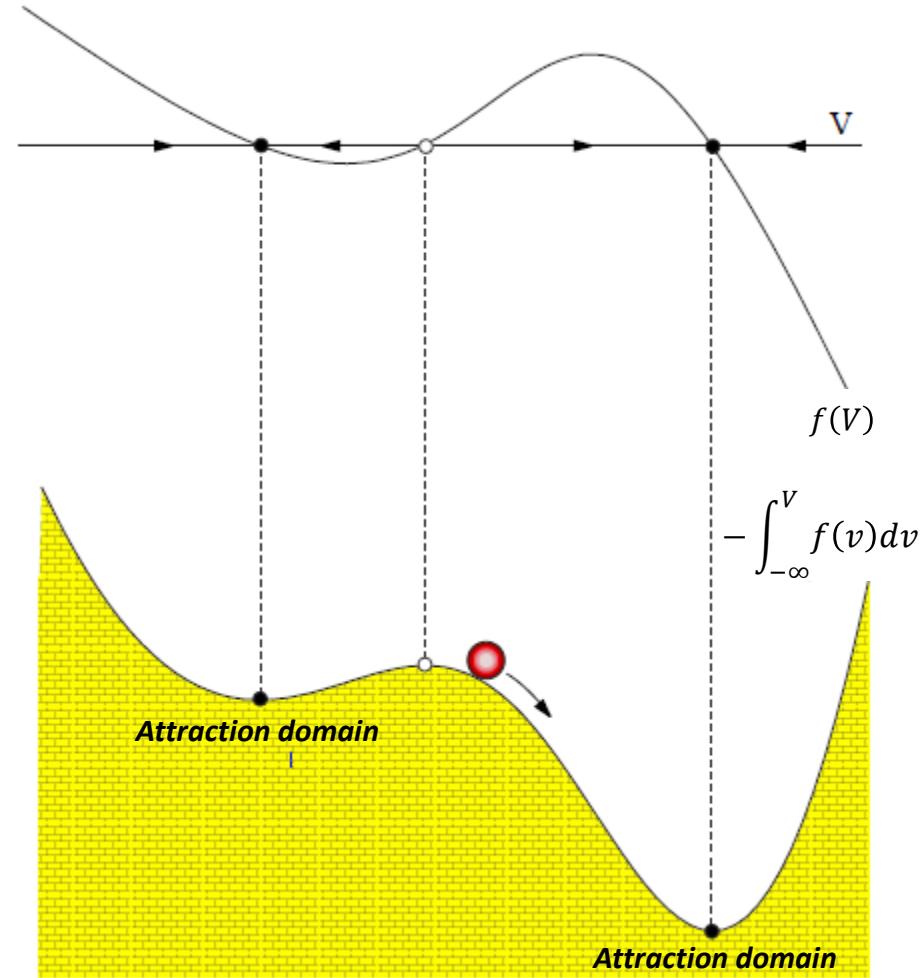


- **Phase portrait** of a 1D system shows the dynamics of its variables in graphical form

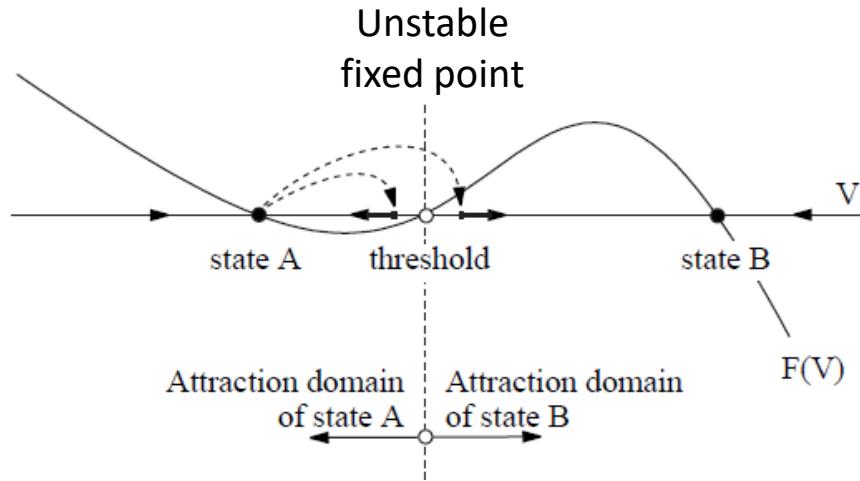
# Fixed Points and Their Stability

## Mechanistic interpretation of stable and unstable fixed points

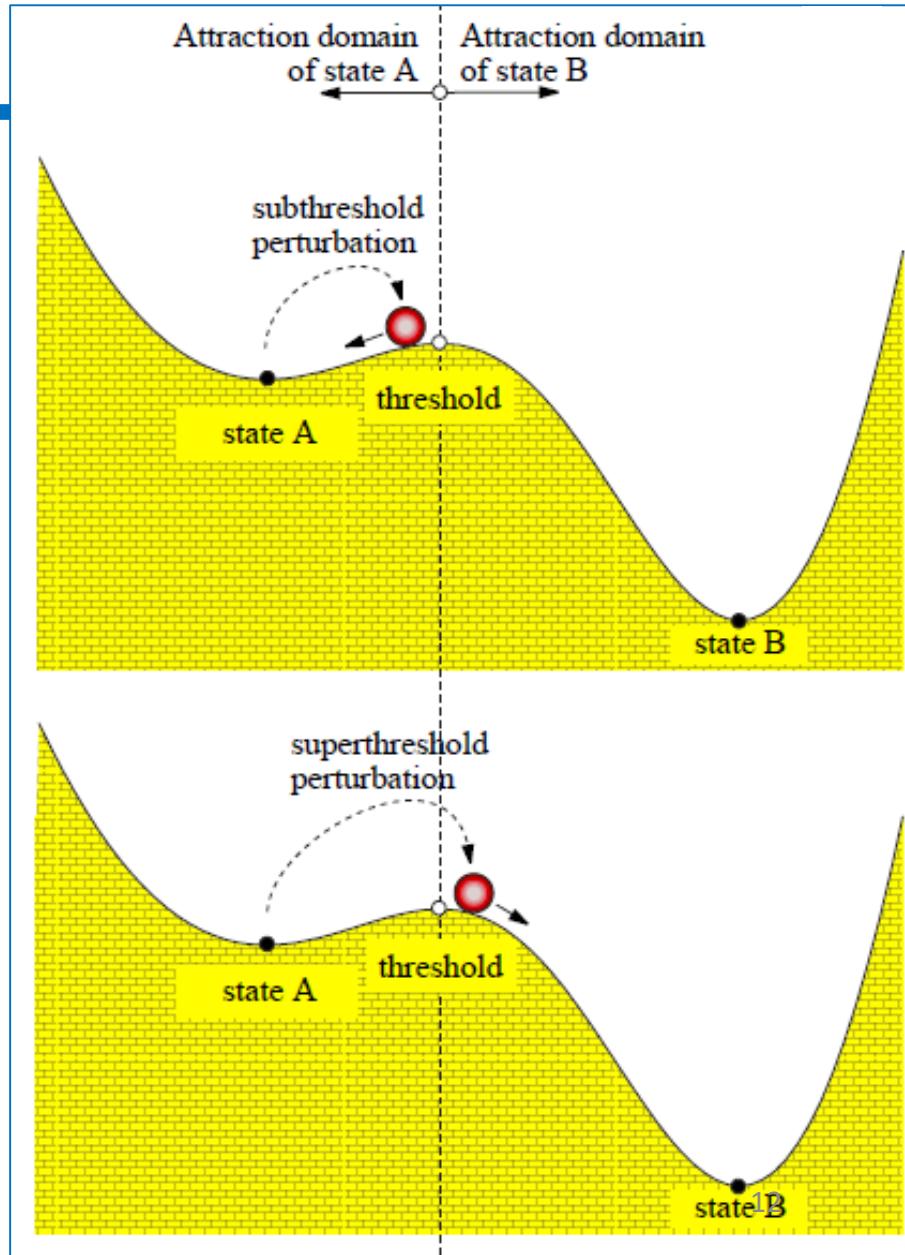
- A massless (inertia free) ball moves toward **energy minima** with the speed proportional to the slope
- A 1D system  $\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V)$  has the **energy landscape**:  
$$E(V) = - \int_{-\infty}^V f(v)dv$$
- Zeros of  $f(V)$  with negative (/positive) slope correspond to minima (/maxima) of  $E(V)$



# Fixed Points and Their Stability



- An unstable fixed point plays the role of a ***threshold***:
  - A threshold separates two attraction domains



# Back to Our Neural Dynamics – Making The Neuron Spike

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = -a(V - V_0) + I(t)$$

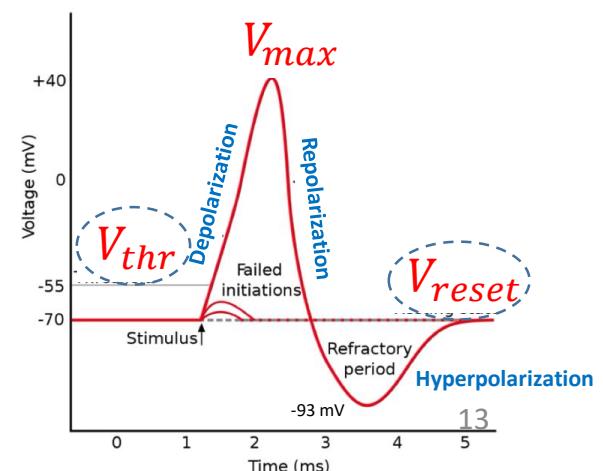
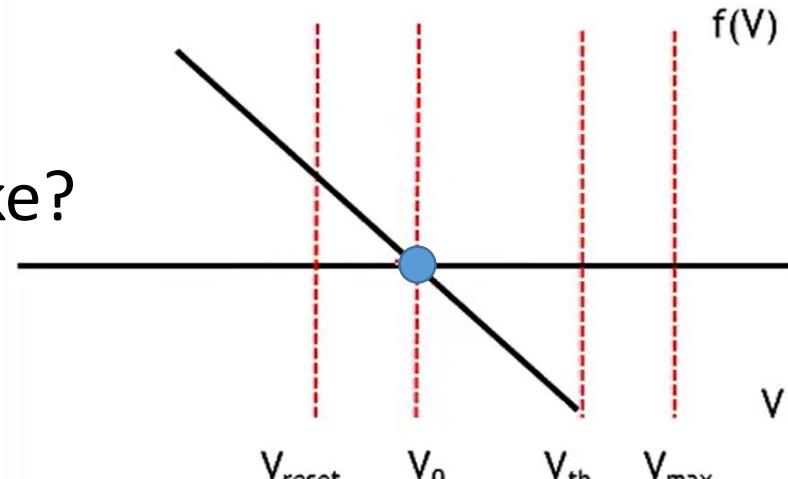
- How to make the neuron spike?
- Need to add two effects:

1. A **threshold** voltage  $V_{thr}$ :

- So that if the voltage passes it (due to an input), it won't come back to  $V_0$ , but reaches a maximum value  $V_{max}$

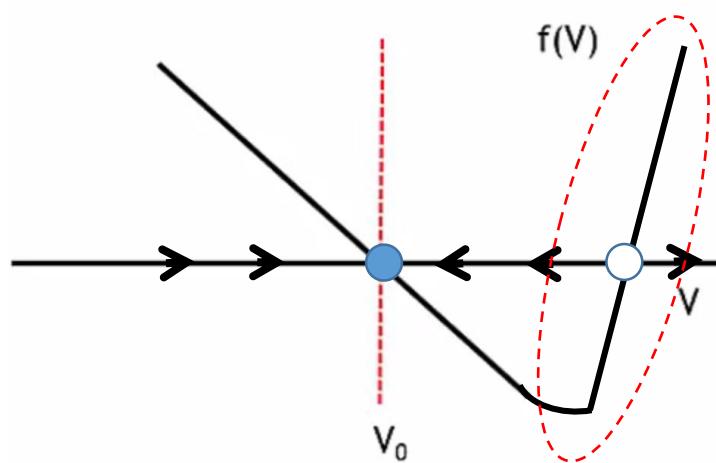
2. A **reset** voltage  $V_{reset}$ :

- After reaching the maximum, the voltage resets to this voltage



# Making The Neuron Spike

- Can we modify  $f(V)$  so that the model is intrinsically excitable?
  - Let's add another fixed point (with a positive slope, so it serves as an *unstable fixed point*, i.e. a *threshold*)



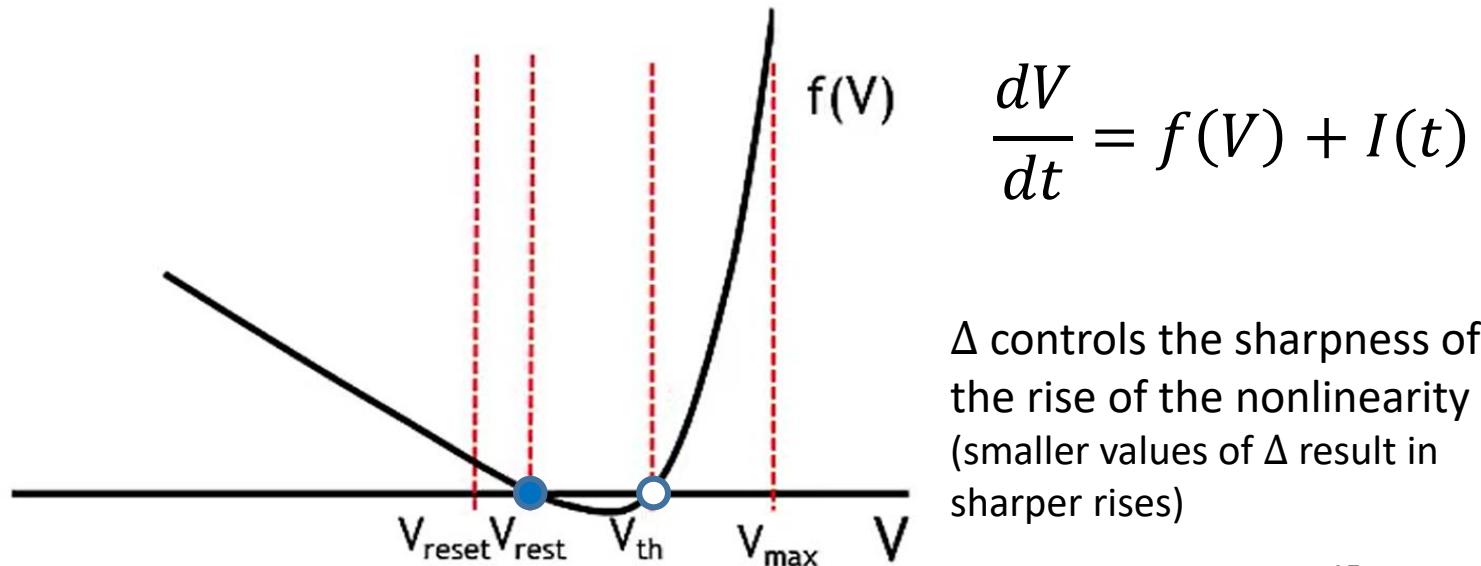
- If there is an input to take the voltage past the new fixed point, the voltage will further increase

# Making The Neuron Spike

- An example of the form of  $f(V)$  that works well is the ***exponential integrate-and-fire*** model:

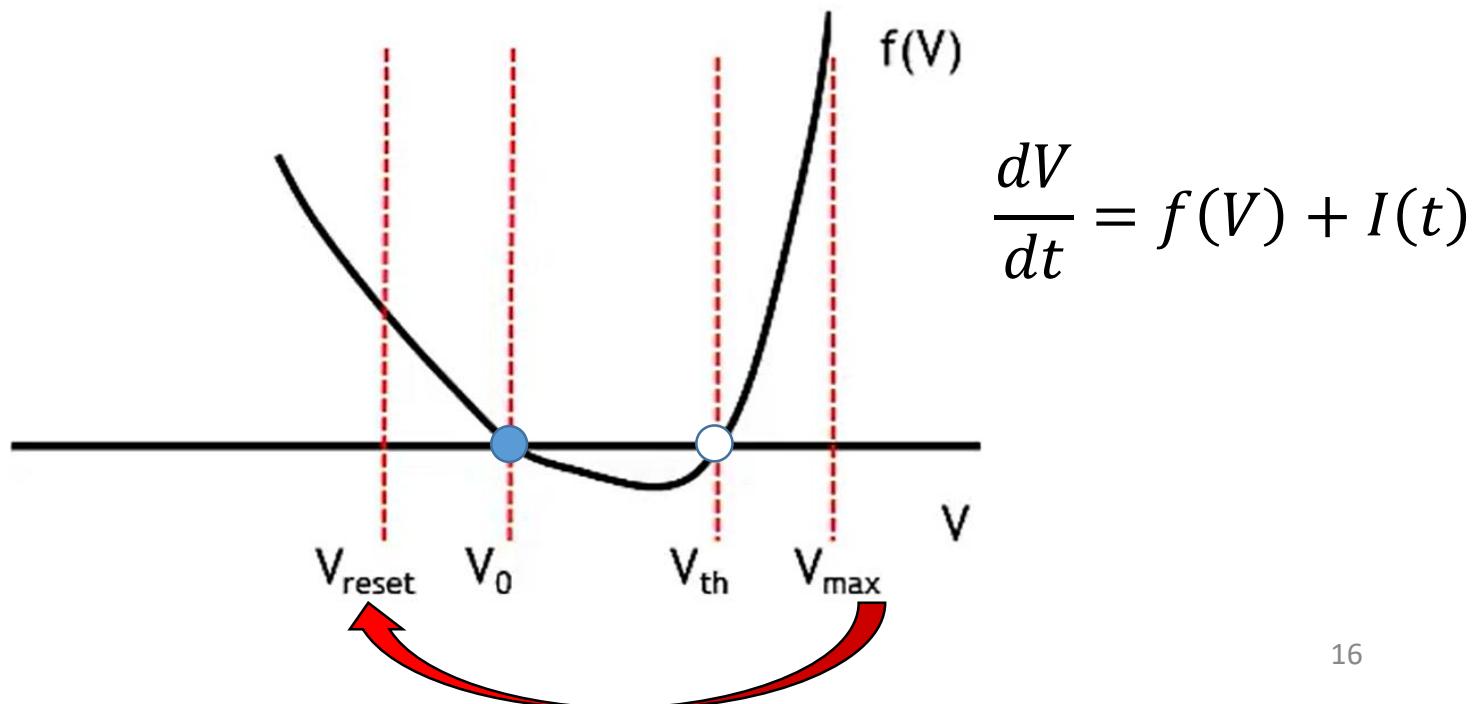
$$f(V) = -a(V - V_0) + \exp\left(\frac{V - V_0}{\Delta}\right)$$

- Another example is the ***quadratic*** function



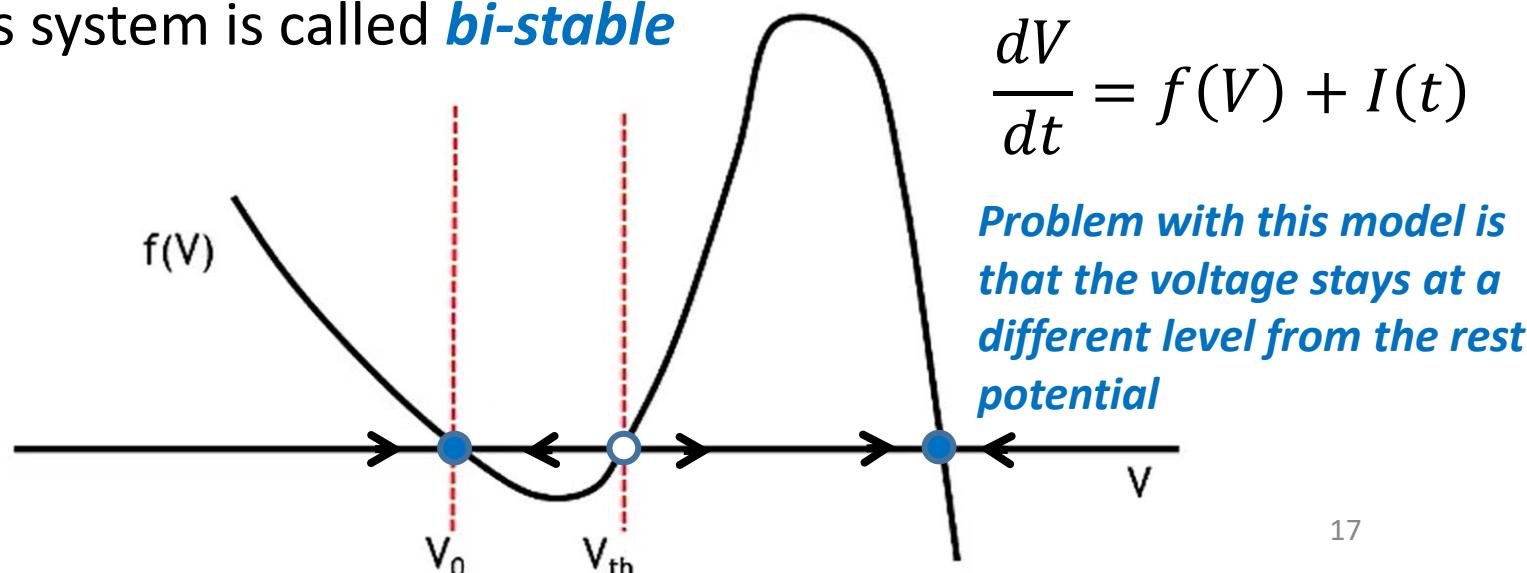
# Making The Neuron Spike

- In addition to the second fixed point at  $V_{thr}$ , we will need a maximum voltage  $V_{max}$  (beyond which the voltage cannot continue to increase)
- And when we reach the maximum value  $V_{max}$ , we need a mechanism to return to the reset value  $V_{reset}$

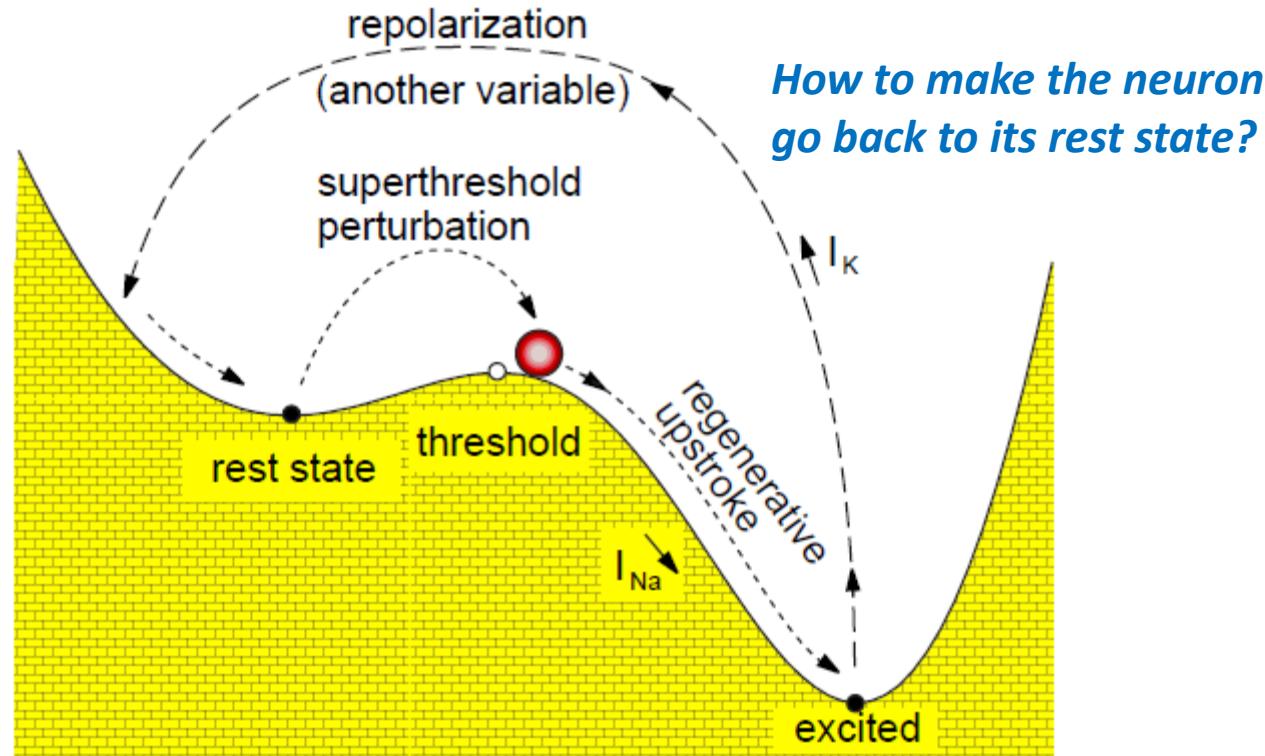


# Making The Neuron Spike

- For getting the voltage back to the reset value:
  - Let's add another fixed point by extending the curve back towards zero again
  - The new fixed point will be stable (Fixed points with negative slopes are stable, those with positive slopes are unstable)
  - After reaching the maximum value, the system goes to the new fixed point and stays there
  - This system is called **bi-stable**



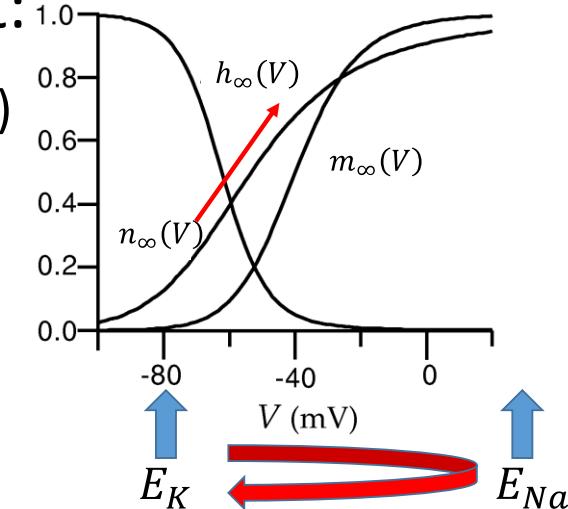
# Making The Neuron Spike



- Mechanistic concept of generation of an action potential
  - A second variable is needed for returning from the excited state to the rest state

# Two-Dimensional Models

- Recall there were 2 mechanisms in Hodgkin-Huxley which helped to restore the voltage back to rest:
  1. The sodium drive towards  $E_{Na}$  (higher potentials) was switched off
  2. The potassium channel activated to drive the voltage back towards  $E_K$
- We need to do something similar to pull the voltage back towards rest:
  - Include a second variable to take care of **inactivation**



$$\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V) + G(u) + I(t)$$
$$\frac{du}{dt} = -u + H(V)$$

➤ Let's study the ramifications of adding this new variable and its dynamics

# Two-Dimensional Models

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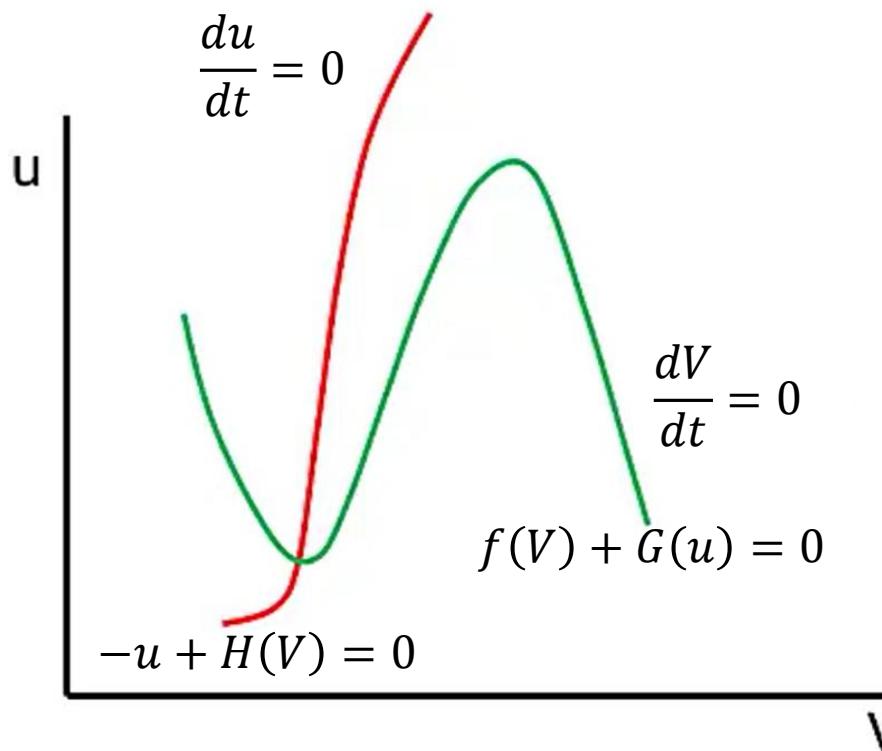
$$\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V) + \mathbf{G}(u) + I(t)$$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = -u + \mathbf{H}(V)$$

- The new variable  $u$  **decays linearly**:  $\frac{du}{dt} = -u$   
(i.e. without an input  $H(V)$ ,  $u$  decays exponentially to zero from an initial point)
- But it also has a coupling with  $V$  through  $H(V)$ 
  - When  $V$  gets large,  $u$  also becomes large
- The inactivation function  $u$  is also coupled with  $V$  through the function  $G(u)$   
(which should be **negative** → So a large  $u$  pulls  $V$  down again)

# Two-Dimensional Models

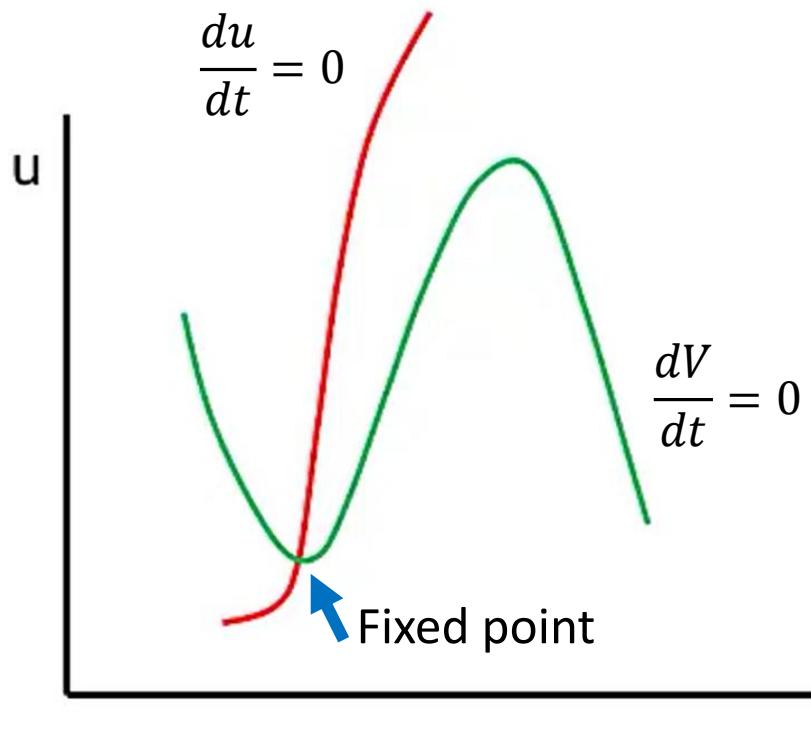
- With a 2-variable model, instead of plotting  $f(V)$  against  $V$ , a 2D **phase diagram** is plotted
  - Instead of fixed points, the entire curve on which either variable has zero derivative is considered (called **nullclines**)



$$\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V) + G(u) + I(t)$$
$$\frac{du}{dt} = -u + H(V)$$

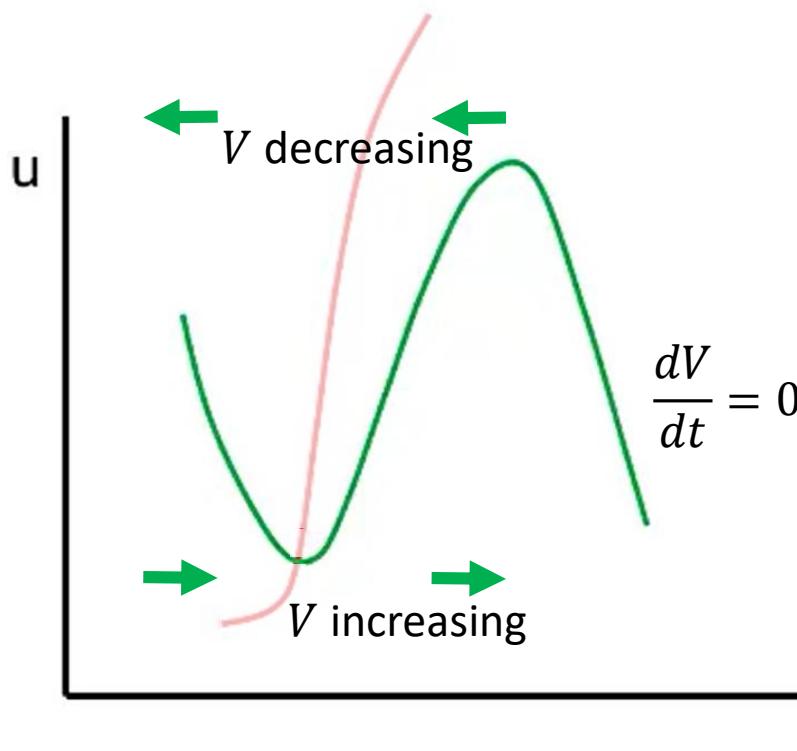
# Two-Dimensional Models

- **Fixed points** of the plot occur where the nullclines collide
  - There is one fixed point in the plot below (the rest state)



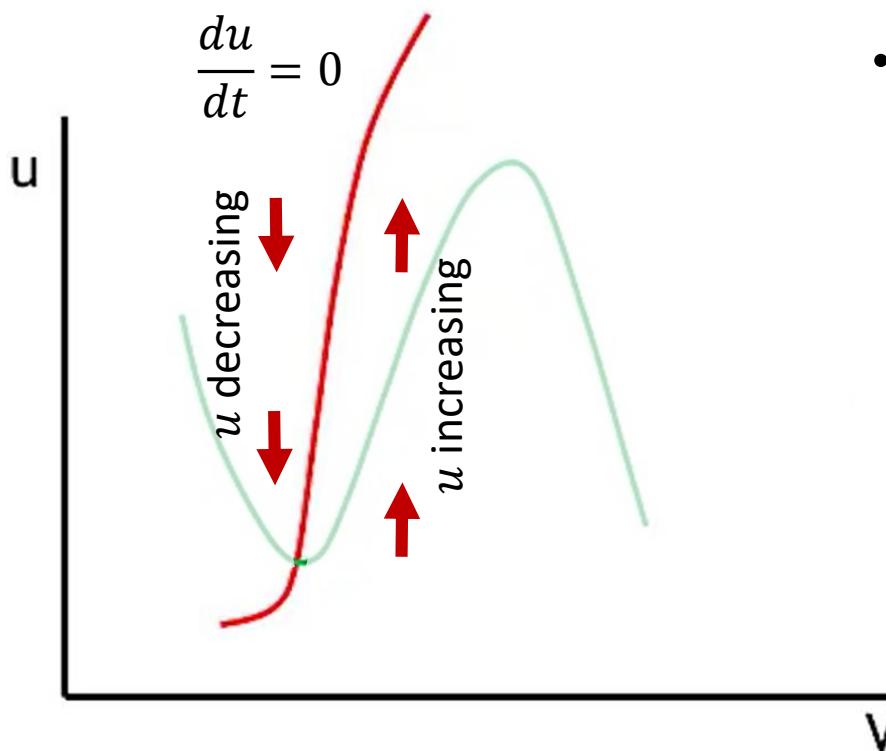
# Two-Dimensional Models

- Each nullcline curve divides the space into two parts:
  - On one side of  $\frac{dV}{dt} = 0$  the variable  $V$  is increasing ( $\frac{dV}{dt} > 0$ ) and on the other side it is decreasing ( $\frac{dV}{dt} < 0$ )



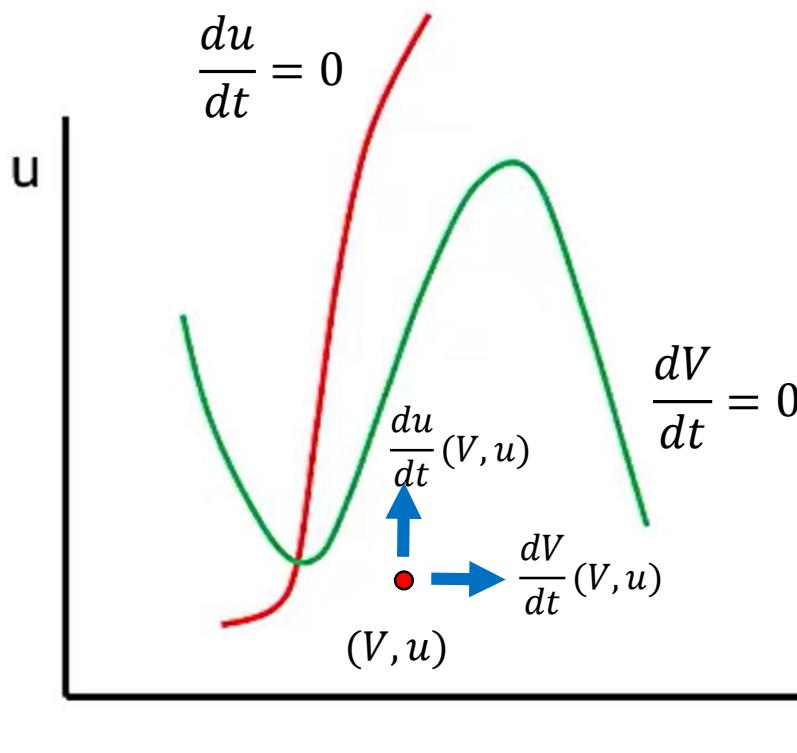
# Two-Dimensional Models

- Each nullcline curve divides the space into two parts:
  - On one side of  $\frac{dV}{dt} = 0$  the variable  $V$  is increasing ( $\frac{dV}{dt} > 0$ ) and on the other side it is decreasing ( $\frac{dV}{dt} < 0$ )
  - On one side of  $\frac{du}{dt} = 0$  the variable  $u$  is increasing ( $\frac{du}{dt} > 0$ ) and on the other side it is decreasing ( $\frac{du}{dt} < 0$ )



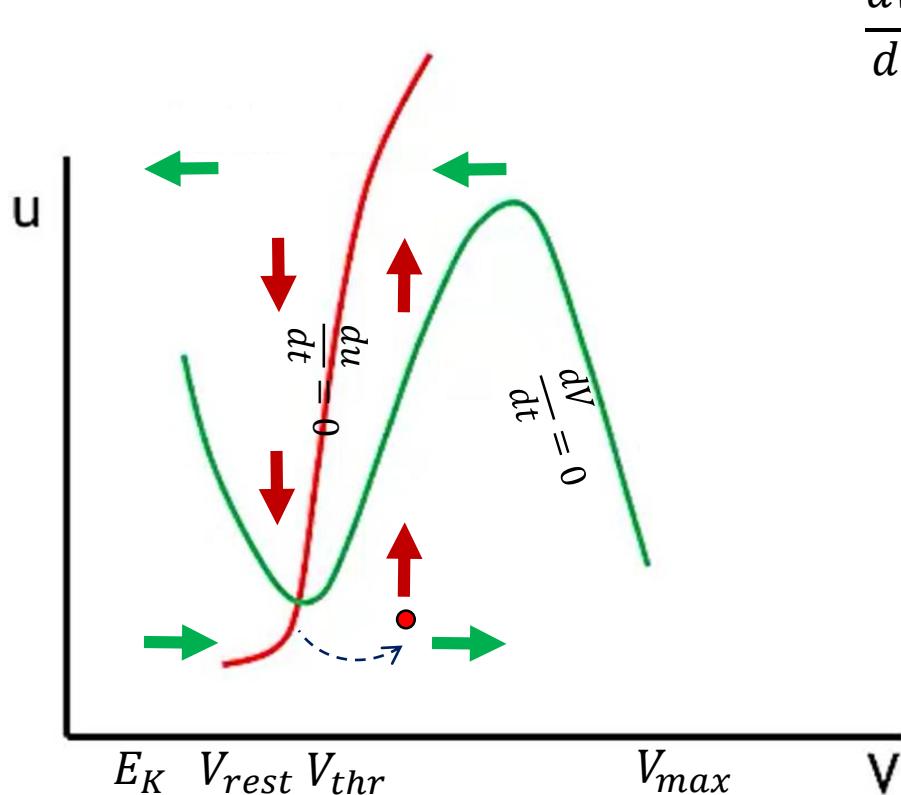
# Two-Dimensional Models

- If we start out at a point  $(V, u)$  our movement will have:
  - Velocity in the  $V$  direction as  $\frac{dV}{dt}$  (evaluated at  $(V, u)$ )
  - Velocity in the  $u$  direction as  $\frac{du}{dt}$  (evaluated at  $(V, u)$ )



# Two-Dimensional Models

- Let's now start at near rest and consider an input which takes us to some larger voltage range:

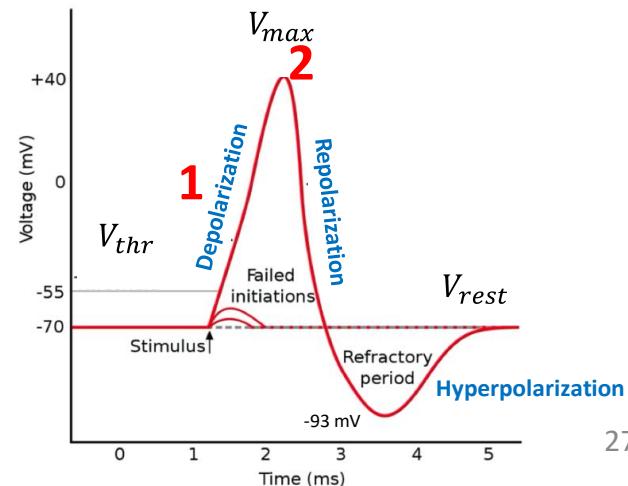
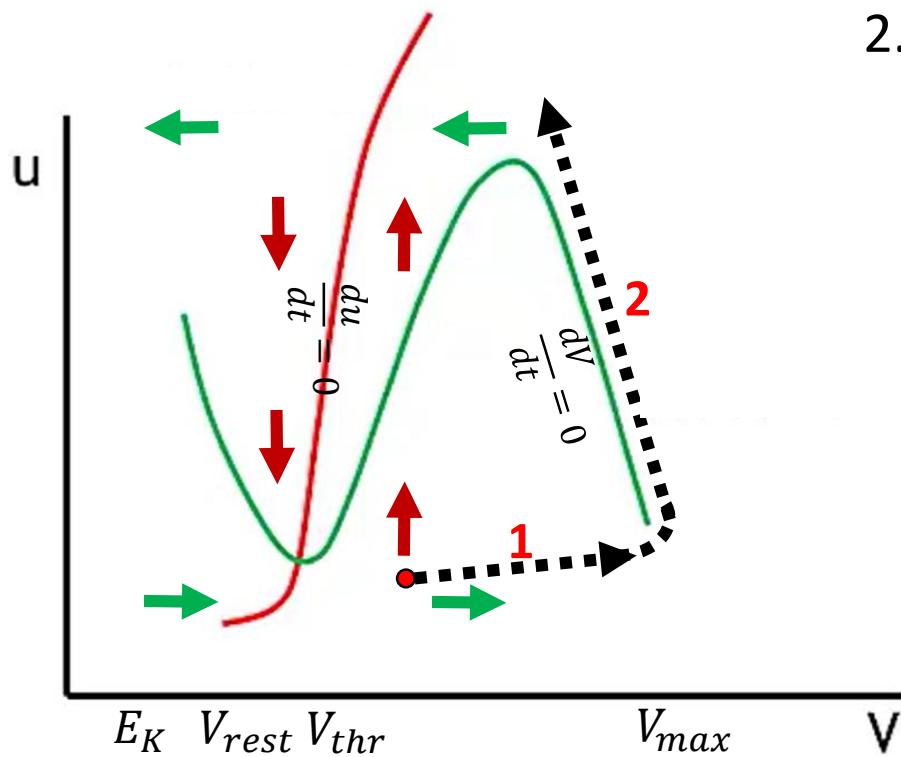


$$\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V) + G(u) + I(t)$$
$$\frac{du}{dt} = -u + H(V)$$

# Two-Dimensional Models

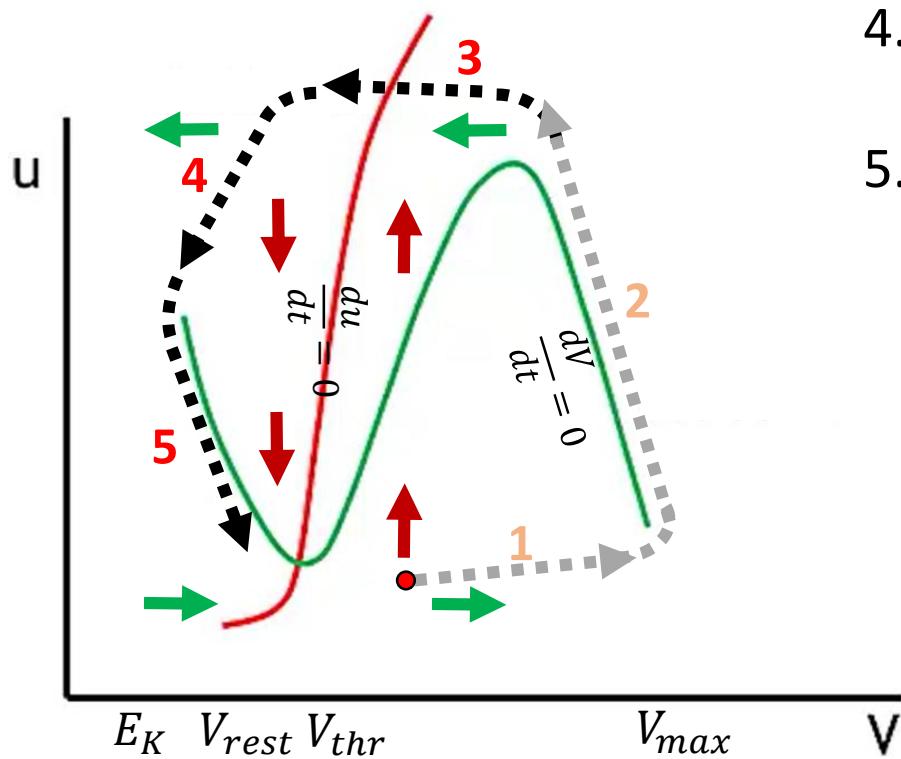
- Let's now start at near rest and consider an input which takes us to some larger voltage range:

- The nonlinearity  $f(V)$  in voltage quickly increases  $V$  (causing a spike)
- After crossing the  $V$  nullcline, the value of  $V$  decreases while we still increase in the value of  $u$

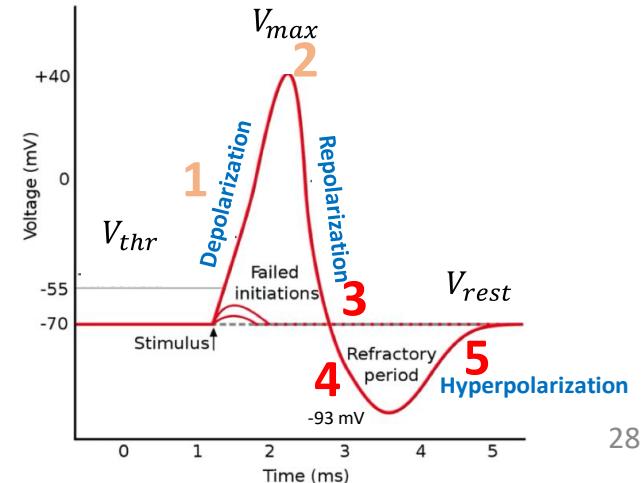


# Two-Dimensional Models

- Let's now start at near rest and consider an input which takes us to some larger voltage range:

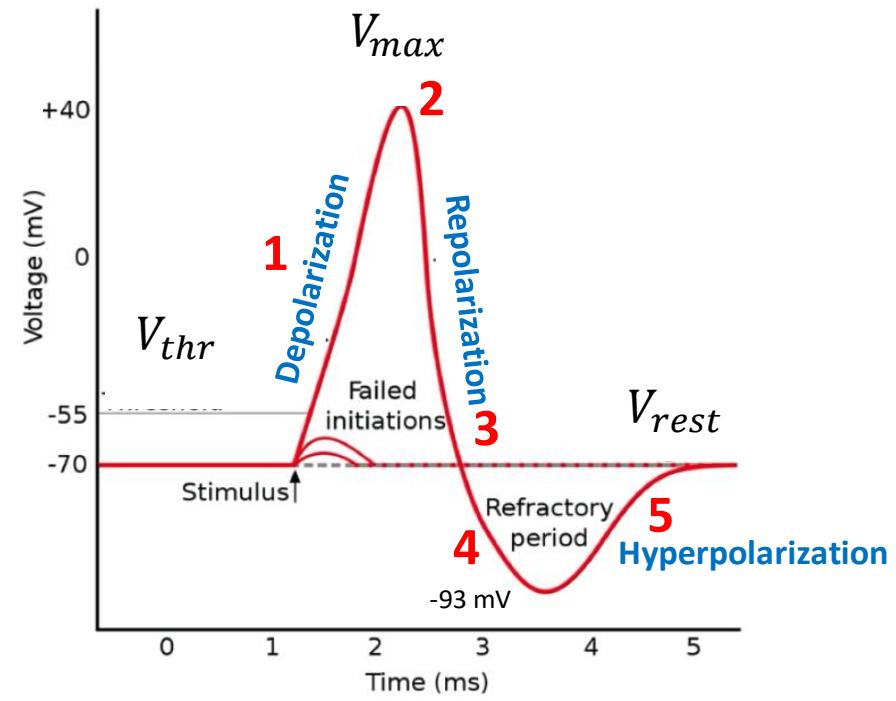
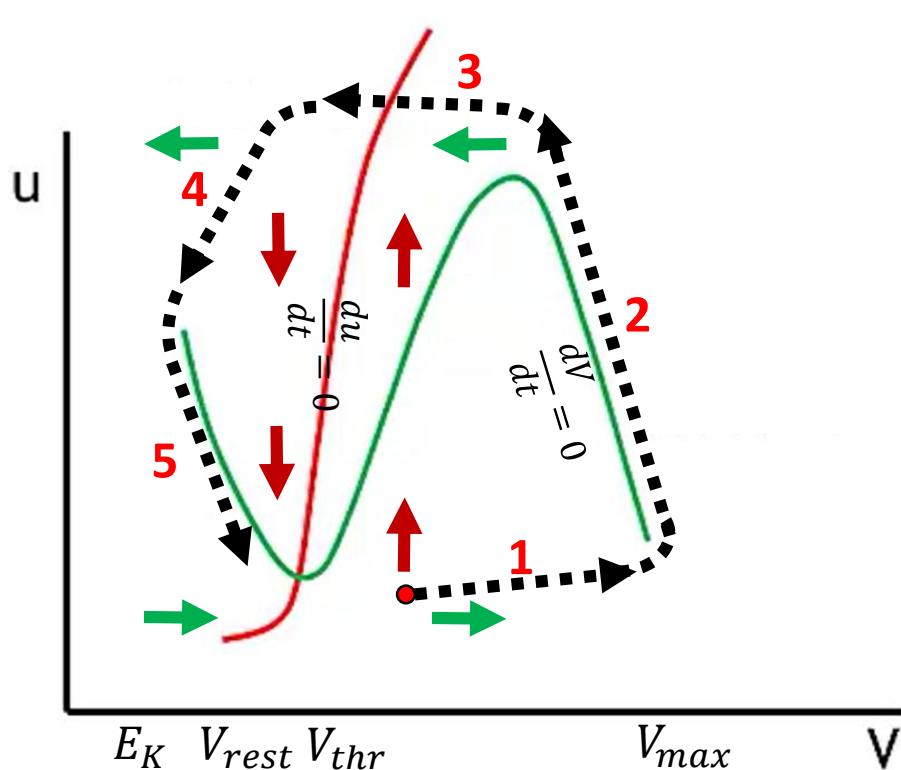


- After crossing the  $u$  nullcline, the value of  $u$  decreases
- The value of  $V$  further decreases towards  $E_K$
- Finally,  $V$  slightly increases towards  $V_{rest}$



# Two-Dimensional Models

- This process causes the membrane voltage to follow the model of an action potential (spike):



# Phase Plane

- 2D dynamical system with state variable  $(x(t), y(t))$ :

$$\dot{x} = f(x, y)$$

$$\dot{y} = g(x, y)$$

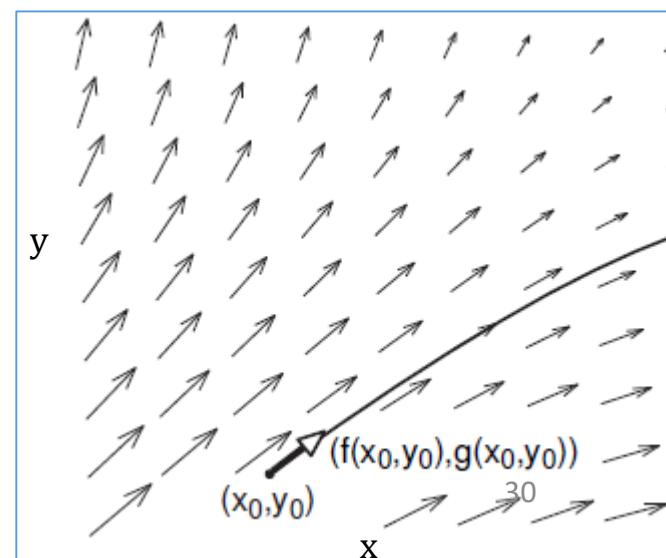
- For any point  $(x_0, y_0)$  on the phase plane:

- The vector  $(f(x_0, y_0), g(x_0, y_0))$  indicates the direction of change  $(\dot{x}, \dot{y})$  of the state variable  $(x, y)$

- Example:

$f(x_0, y_0)$  and  $g(x_0, y_0)$  both positive:

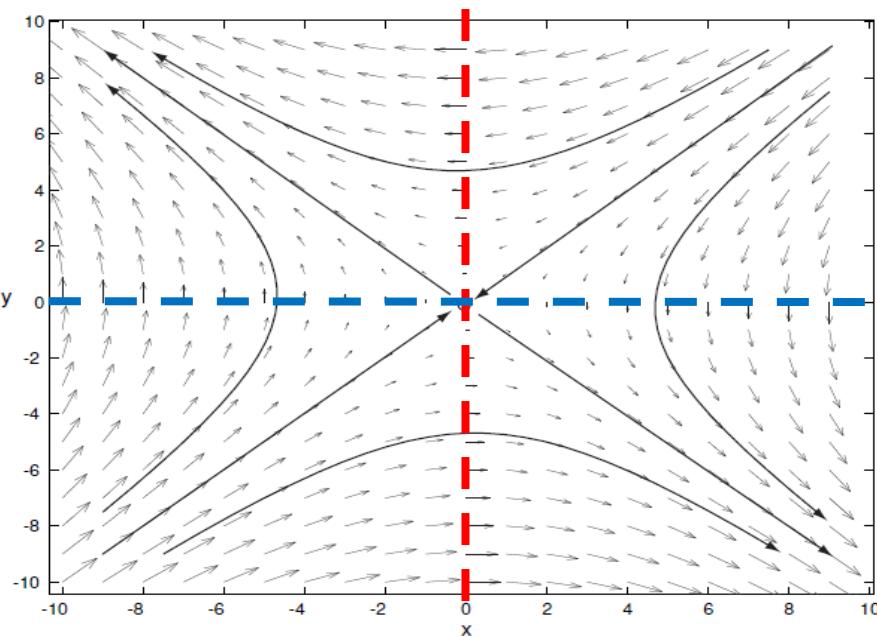
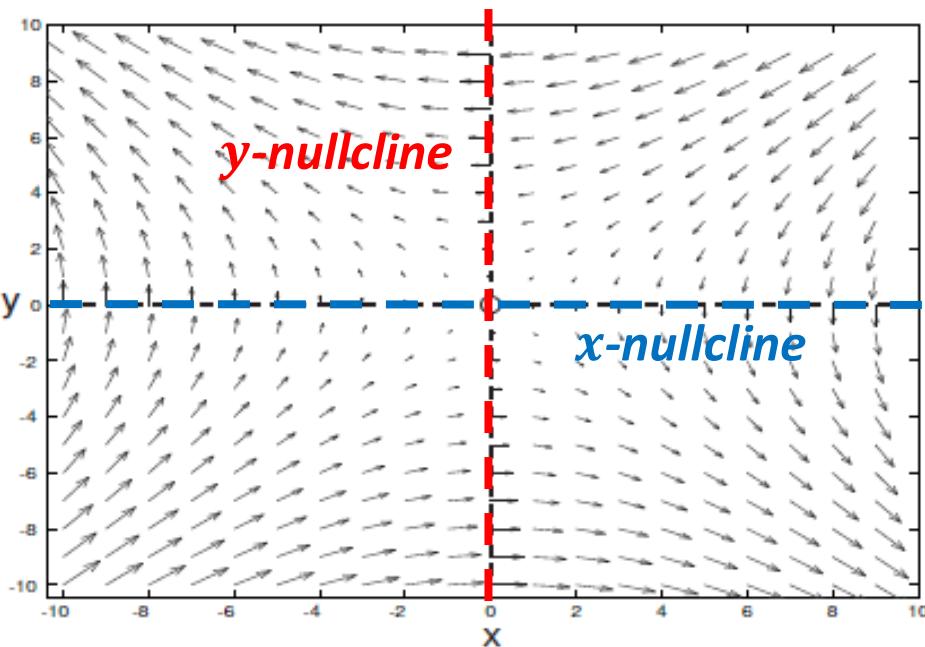
→ Both  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  increase at point  $(x_0, y_0)$



# Trajectories

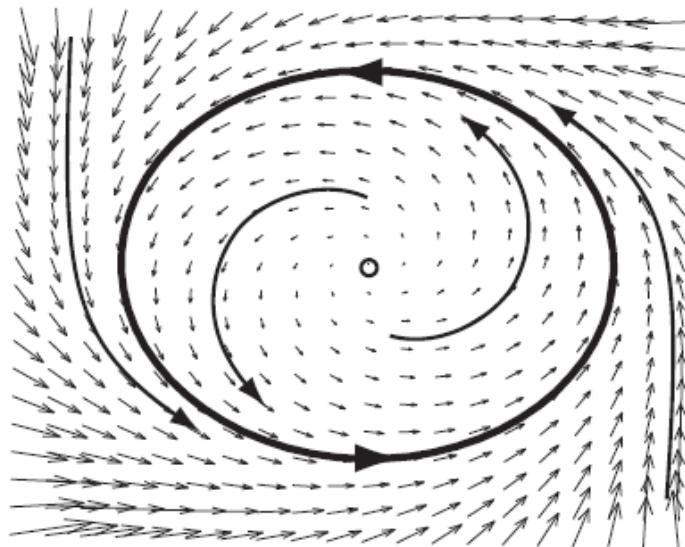
- Sample trajectories for different initial points:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(x, y) = -y \\ \dot{y} &= g(x, y) = -x\end{aligned}$$



# Limit Cycles

- A trajectory that forms a closed loop is called a **limit cycle**
  - If the initial point of the system is on a limit cycle, then the state  $(x(t), y(t))$  stays on the cycle forever
    - The system exhibits periodic behavior:  
 $x(t) = x(t + T)$ ,  $y(t) = y(t + T)$  for some period  $T > 0$



# Limit Cycles

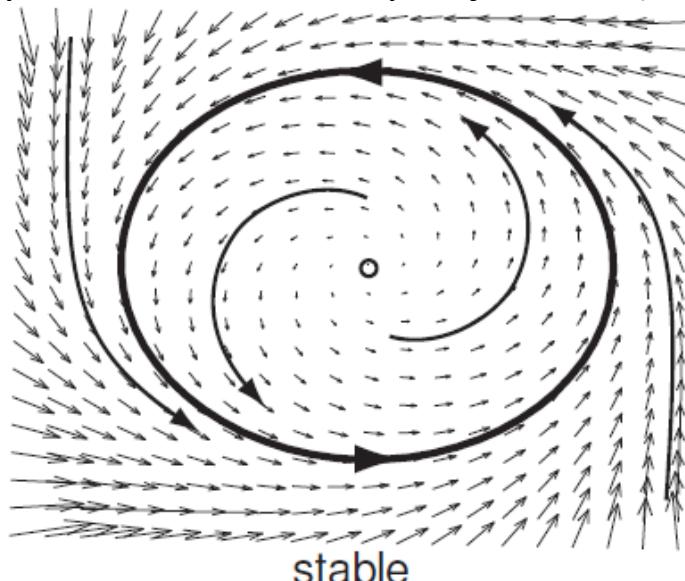
- **Asymptotically stable** limit cycle:

Any trajectory with the initial point sufficiently near the cycle approaches the cycle as  $t \rightarrow \infty$



Also called **limit cycle attractors**

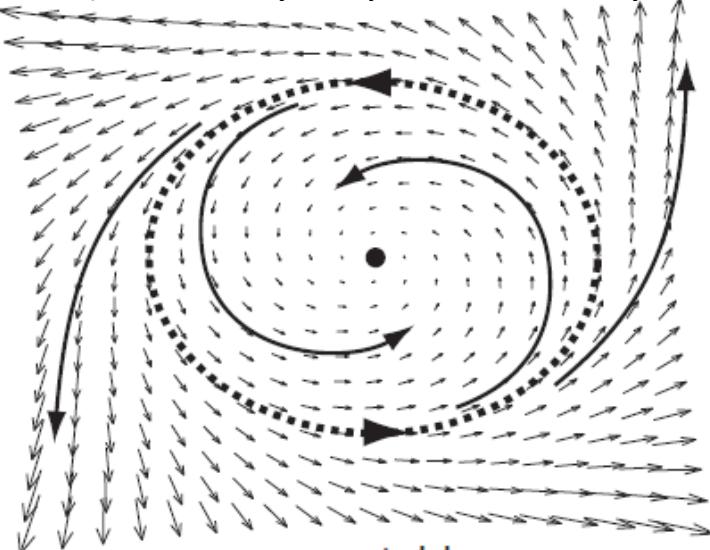
(since they “attract” all nearby trajectories)



stable

Unstable limit cycles are called **repellers**

(since they “repel” all nearby trajectories)



unstable

# Back to Our Neural Dynamics – Nullclines and Fixed Points

- Let's consider a particular neural example of the  $(V, u)$  model:

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = f(V) + G(u) + I(t)$$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = -u + H(V)$$

$$C_m \frac{dV}{dt} = I_e - g_L(V - E_L) - g_{Na}m^3h . (V - E_{Na}) - g_Kn^4 . (V - E_K)$$

- General form of the Hodgkin-Huxley gate model:

$$I = \bar{g}m^a h^b (V - E)$$

See Izhikevich Sec. 5.1 and 5.1.2

- A variant of the Hodgkin-Huxley equation:

$$C_m \frac{dV}{dt} = I_e - \underbrace{g_L(V - E_L)}_{\text{Leak } I_L} - \underbrace{g_{Na}m_\infty(V) . (V - E_{Na})}_{\text{Instantaneous } I_{Na,p}} - \underbrace{g_Kn . (V - E_K)}_{\text{Slower } I_K}$$

with a second equation modeling the slower potassium channel dynamics:

$$\tau(V) \frac{dn}{dt} = -n + n_\infty(V)$$

- This is called the  $I_{Na,p} + I_K$  (**Persistent Na plus K**) model
  - Persistent current:** No inactivation gate involved (no  $h$  gate) for  $Na$  channel
  - Instantaneous current:** Small time constant  $\tau_m$  (i.e.  $m_\infty(V)$  is reached instantly)

# Back to Our Neural Dynamics – Nullclines and Fixed Points

Variant of HH equations:

Persistent  $Na$  plus  $K$  model

$$C_m \frac{dV}{dt} = I_e - g_L(V - E_L) - g_{Na}m_\infty(V) \cdot (V - E_{Na}) - g_Kn \cdot (V - E_K)$$
$$\tau(V) \frac{dn}{dt} = -n + n_\infty(V)$$

- The  $V$ -nullcline is defined by  $\frac{dV}{dt} = 0$ :

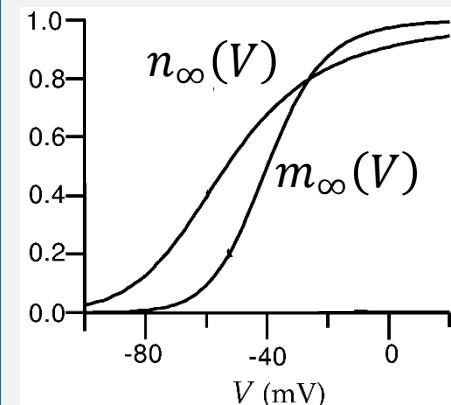
$$n = \frac{I_e - g_L(V - E_L) - g_{Na}m_\infty(V)(V - E_{Na})}{g_K(V - E_K)}$$

- The  $n$ -nullcline is defined by  $\frac{dn}{dt} = 0$ :

$$n = n_\infty(V)$$

➤ ***Let's draw these nullclines and create a phase plane diagram for the neural dynamics***

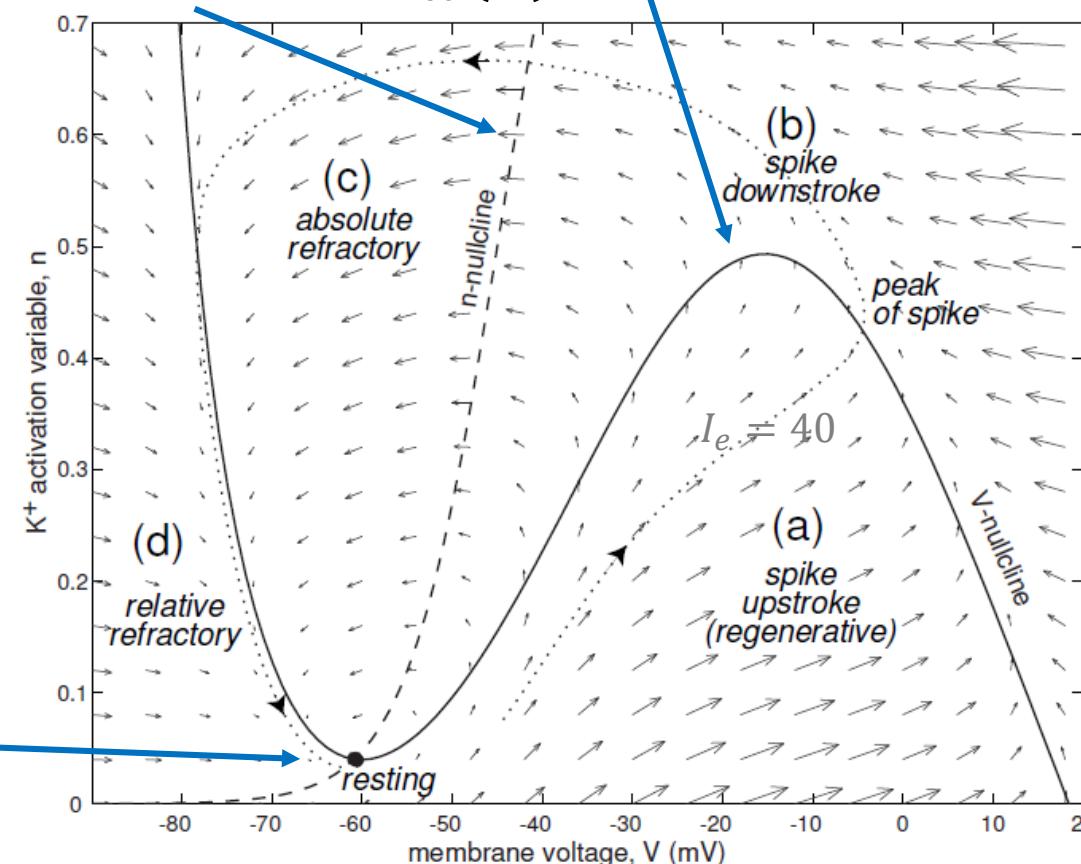
Recall the  $K^+$  steady-state activation function  $n_\infty(V)$  and the  $Na^+$  activation function  $m_\infty(V)$



# Back to Our Neural Dynamics – Nullclines and Fixed Points

- The  $V$ -nullcline:  $n = \frac{I_e - g_L(V - E_L) - g_{Na}m_\infty(V)(V - E_{Na})}{g_K(V - E_K)}$
- The  $n$ -nullcline:  $n = n_\infty(V)$

(This typically has the form of a cubic parabola)



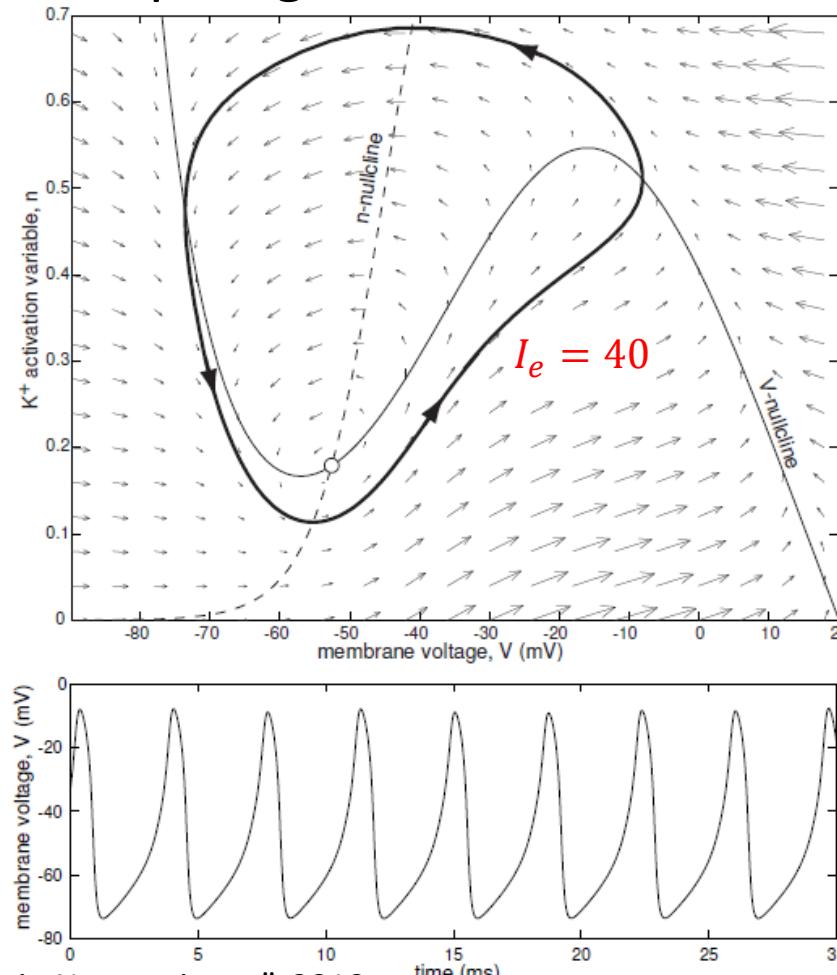
The **fixed point** corresponds to the neuron's resting state

At neuron's resting potential:

- Both  $m_\infty(V)$  and  $n_\infty(V)$  are very small
- With  $m_\infty(V) \approx 0$  and  $n = n_\infty(V) \approx 0$  and without input current  $I_e$ , the voltage  $V$  is close to  $E_L$

# Neural Dynamics – Limit Cycle

- A strong input current changes the trajectory to a limit cycle and causes periodic spiking of the neuron



# Fixed Points and Their Stability

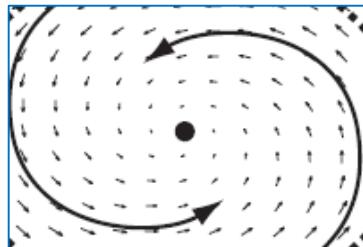
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# Fixed Points and Their Stability

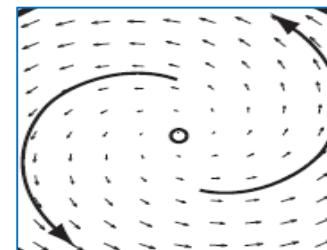
$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(x, y) \\ \dot{y} &= g(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

Fixed points:

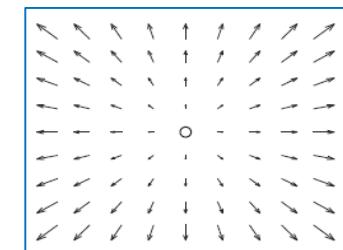
- Points where  $\dot{x} = \dot{y} = 0 \rightarrow \begin{cases} f(x, y) = 0 \\ g(x, y) = 0 \end{cases}$  ] Intersection of nullclines
- If the initial point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is near the fixed point:
  - The trajectory may converge to / diverge from the fixed point (depending on its stability)



Asymptotically stable fixed point



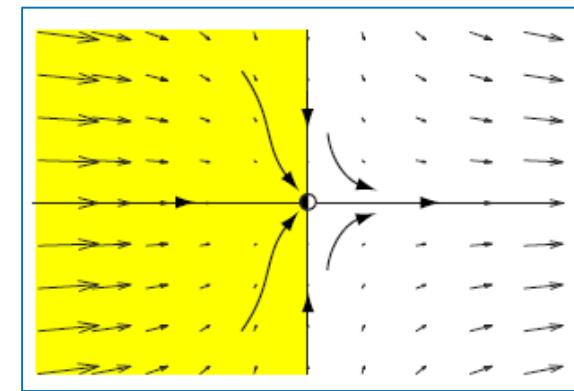
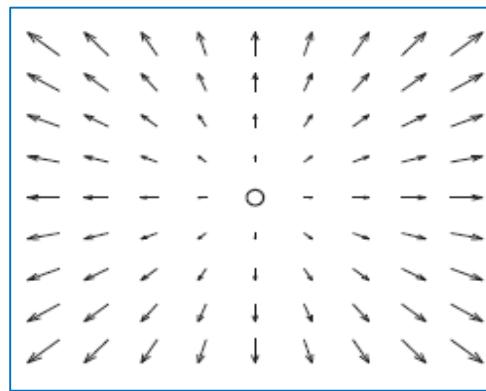
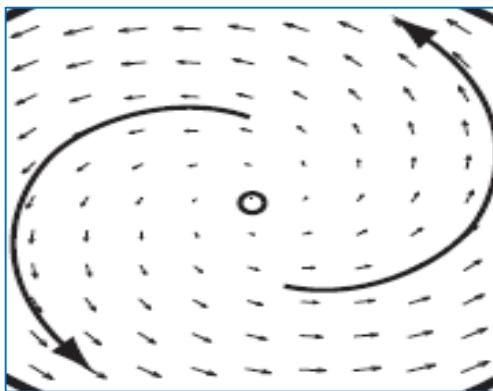
Unstable fixed points



# Fixed Points and Their Stability

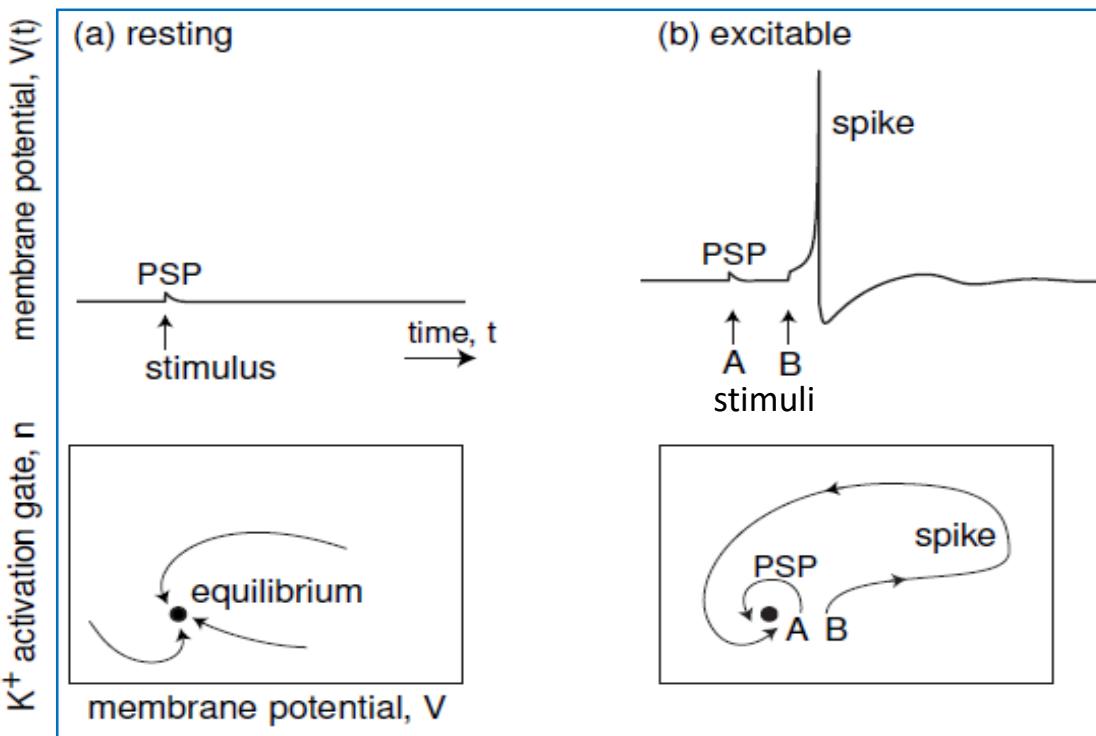
## Unstable fixed point:

- At least one trajectory diverges from the fixed point  
(This should happen no matter how close the initial condition is to the fixed point)



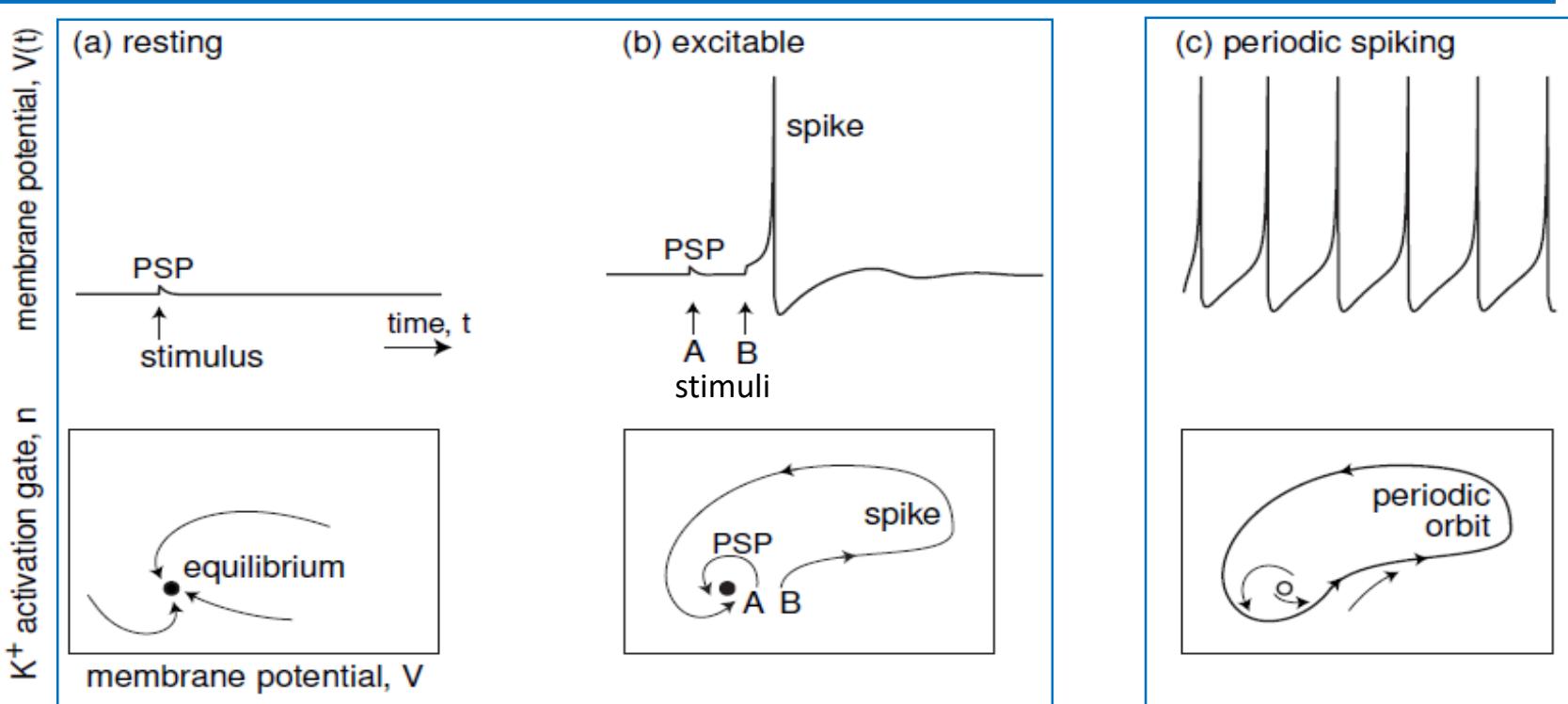
- Any trajectory starting in the yellow area (**attraction domain**) converges to the fixed point
- But any trajectory starting in the white area diverges from it (regardless of how close the initial point is to the fixed point)

# Neuronal States – Resting → Excitable & Periodic Spiking



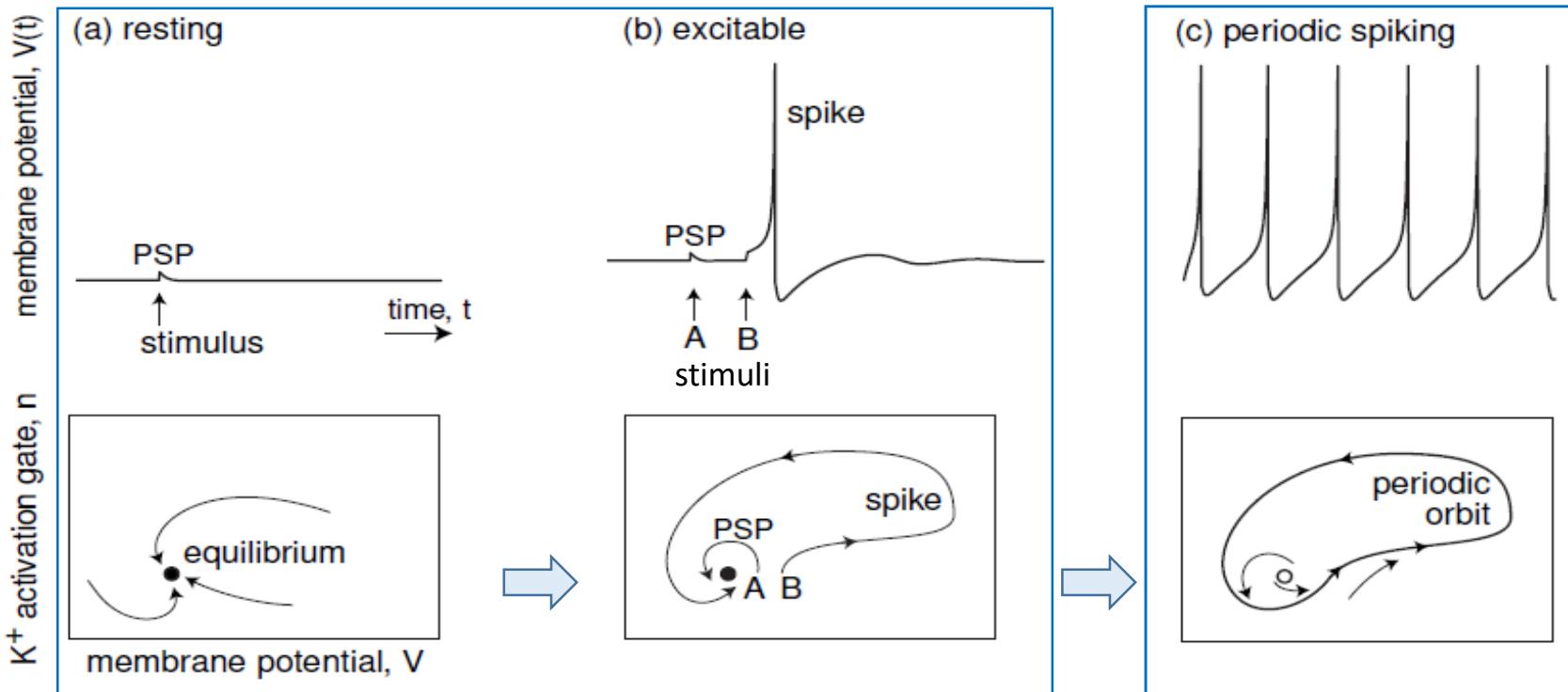
- The neuron remains quiet with small stimuli  
**(Stable equilibrium)**
- Small stimulus (A) → Small excursion from equilibrium (no spike)
- Large stimulus (B) → Amplified by neuron's dynamics → Spike  
**(Stable equilibrium)**

# Neuronal States – Resting → Excitable & Periodic Spiking



- Sufficiently strong input  
→ Periodic spiking activity  
**(Stable limit cycle)**

# Neuronal States – Resting → Excitable & Periodic Spiking



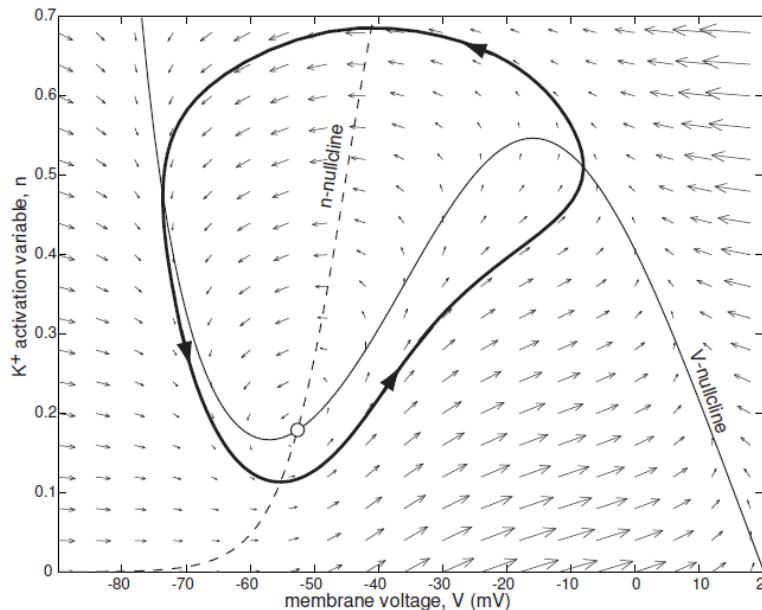
Only **quantitative**  
change of behavior

A **qualitative**  
change of behavior

- *We will study how a neuron changes its behavior to repeated and periodic spiking*

*This change of behavior is called **bifurcation***

# Fixed Points and Their Stability



- How to determine the stability of a fixed point?
    - We need to look at the **behavior of the 2D vector field** in a local neighborhood of the fixed point
      - Often visual inspection of the vector field does not give conclusive information about stability
- ***This can be done using analytical tools which we discuss next***

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

*Practice in HW*

---

- Consider a 2D dynamical system:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(x, y) \\ \dot{y} &= g(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

with a fixed point  $(x_0, y_0)$

- The nonlinear functions  $f$  and  $g$  can be linearized near the fixed point:

$$f(x, y) = a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0) + \text{higher order terms}$$

$$g(x, y) = c(x - x_0) + d(y - y_0) + \text{higher order terms}$$

where:

$$a = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)}, \quad b = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)}$$

$$c = \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)}, \quad d = \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)}$$

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

*Practice in HW*

---

- Define:

$$u = x - x_0$$

$$w = y - y_0$$

as deviations from the fixed point

- We will have:

$$\dot{u} = \dot{x} = f(x, y) \approx a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0) = au + bw$$

$$\dot{w} = \dot{y} = g(x, y) \approx c(x - x_0) + d(y - y_0) = cu + dw$$

- The linearized system:

$$\dot{u} = au + bw$$

$$\dot{w} = cu + dw$$

or in matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{u} \\ \dot{w} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

*Practice in HW*

---

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{u} \\ \dot{w} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

- The Jacobian matrix corresponding to fixed point  $(x_0, y_0)$ :

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

*Practice in HW*

- **Eigenvalues** and **eigenvectors** of  $L$ :

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} L\boldsymbol{\nu}_1 &= \lambda_1 \boldsymbol{\nu}_1 \\ L\boldsymbol{\nu}_2 &= \lambda_2 \boldsymbol{\nu}_2 \end{aligned}$$

- We can solve for the eigenvalues by setting:

$$(L - \lambda I)\boldsymbol{\nu} = 0$$

→ This equation states that the vector  $\boldsymbol{\nu}$  is in the null space of the matrix  $(L - \lambda I)$

- In other words, the matrix  $(L - \lambda I)$  has a rank deficiency  
→ Its determinant is zero:

$$\det(L - \lambda I) = 0$$

Characteristic equation of matrix  $L$

Refer to linear algebra for details

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

*Practice in HW*

- Solution of the characteristic equation yields eigenvalues of  $L$ :

$$\det(L - \lambda I) = \det \begin{bmatrix} a - \lambda & b \\ c & d - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

- In polynomial form:

$$\lambda^2 - (a + d)\lambda + ad - bc = 0$$

or:

$$\lambda^2 - \tau\lambda + \Delta = 0$$

with:

$$\tau = \text{trace}(L) = a + d$$

$$\Delta = \det(L) = ad - bc$$

- Eigenvalues:

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\tau + \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}, \quad \lambda_2 = \frac{\tau - \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$

- Both real when:  $\tau^2 - 4\Delta \geq 0$

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

*Practice in HW*

- General form of the solution to:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{u} \\ \dot{w} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

(for distinct eigenvalues) is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u(t) \\ w(t) \end{bmatrix} = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} v_1 + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} v_2$$

$c_1$  and  $c_2$  depend on  
the initial conditions

- Stability:

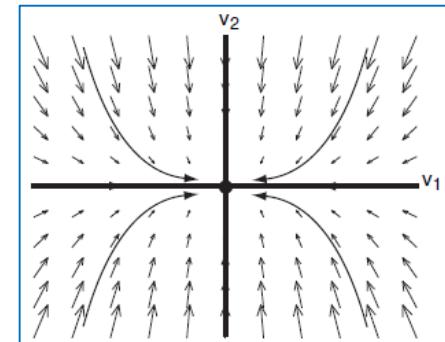
- If both eigenvalues have negative real parts:  $e^{\lambda_1 t}, e^{\lambda_2 t} \rightarrow 0$

$$(u(t), w(t)) \rightarrow (0, 0)$$

Thus:

$$(x(t), y(t)) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)$$

→ The fixed point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is exponentially  
(asymptotically) stable



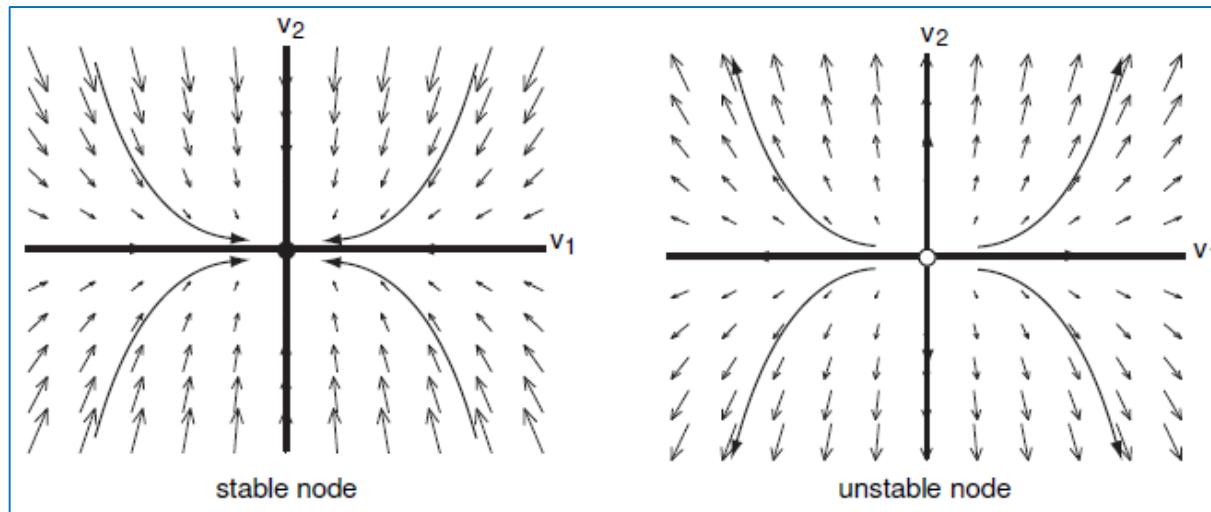
- If either eigenvalue has a positive real part, the fixed point is unstable

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

Classification of fixed points:

## 1. Node:

- **Real eigenvalues, both the same sign**  $|\lambda_1| < |\lambda_2|$
- **Stable** if both negative:  $\lambda_2 < \lambda_1 < 0$
- **Unstable** if both positive:  $\lambda_2 > \lambda_1 > 0$
- Trajectories converge to or diverge from the node along eigenvector  $v_1$  (corresponding to the eigenvalue having smallest absolute value)



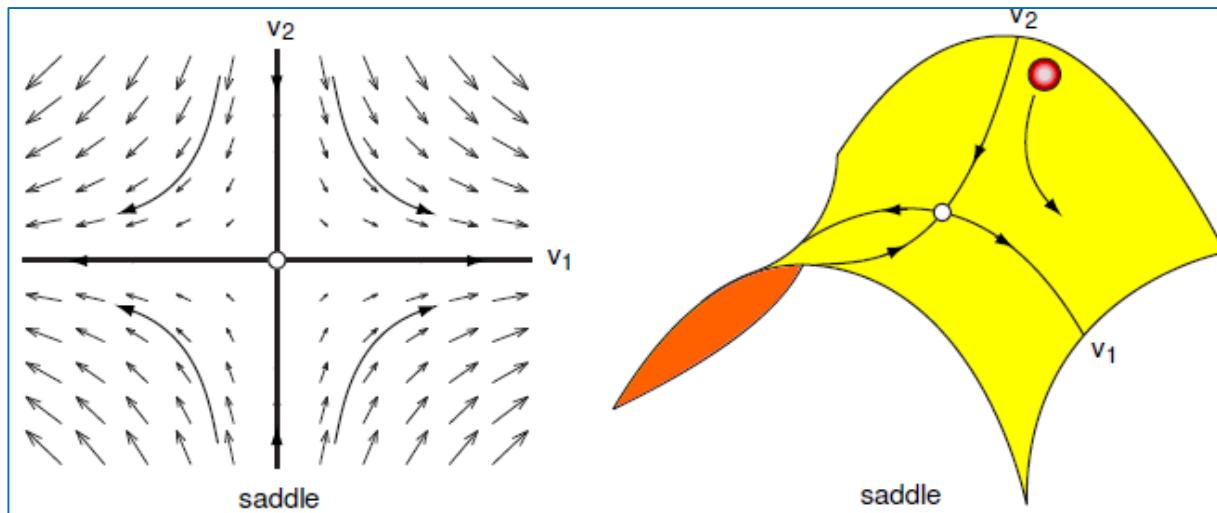
# Fixed Points and Their Stability

Classification of fixed points:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u(t) \\ w(t) \end{bmatrix} = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} v_1 + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} v_2$$

## 2. Saddle:

- **Real eigenvalues, opposite signs:**  $\lambda_2 < 0 < \lambda_1$
- **Always unstable**
- Trajectories approach saddle along eigenvector  $v_2$  (corresponding to negative (stable) eigenvalue) and diverge from the saddle along eigenvector  $v_1$  (corresponding to positive (unstable) eigenvalue)



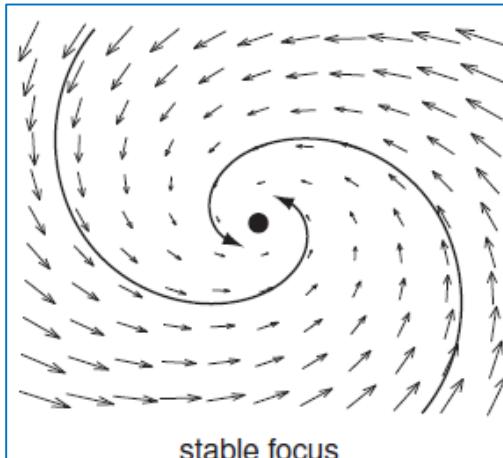
# Fixed Points and Their Stability

Classification of fixed points:

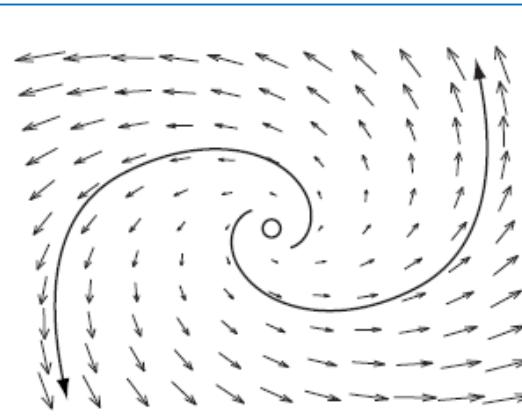
$$\begin{bmatrix} u(t) \\ w(t) \end{bmatrix} = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} v_1 + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} v_2$$

## 3. Focus:

- **Complex conjugate eigenvalues:**  $\lambda_1 = \sigma + j\omega$ ,  $\lambda_2 = \sigma - j\omega$
- **Stable** when real parts negative:  $\sigma < 0$
- **Unstable** when real parts positive:  $\sigma > 0$
- Imaginary part  $\omega$  determines the frequency of rotation of trajectories around the focus



stable focus

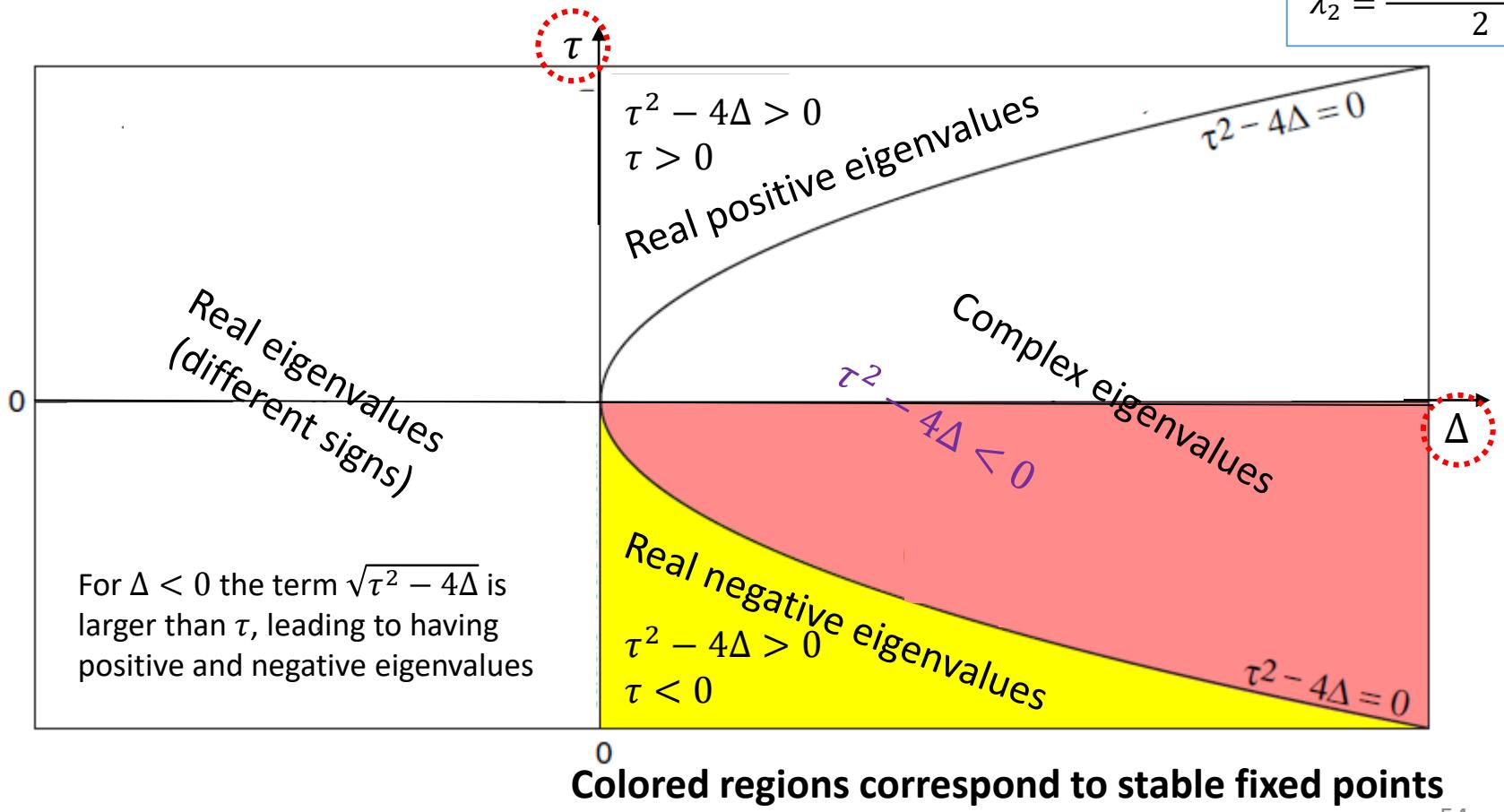


unstable focus

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

Classification of fixed points according to the trace ( $\tau$ ) and the determinant ( $\Delta$ ) of the Jacobian matrix  $L$

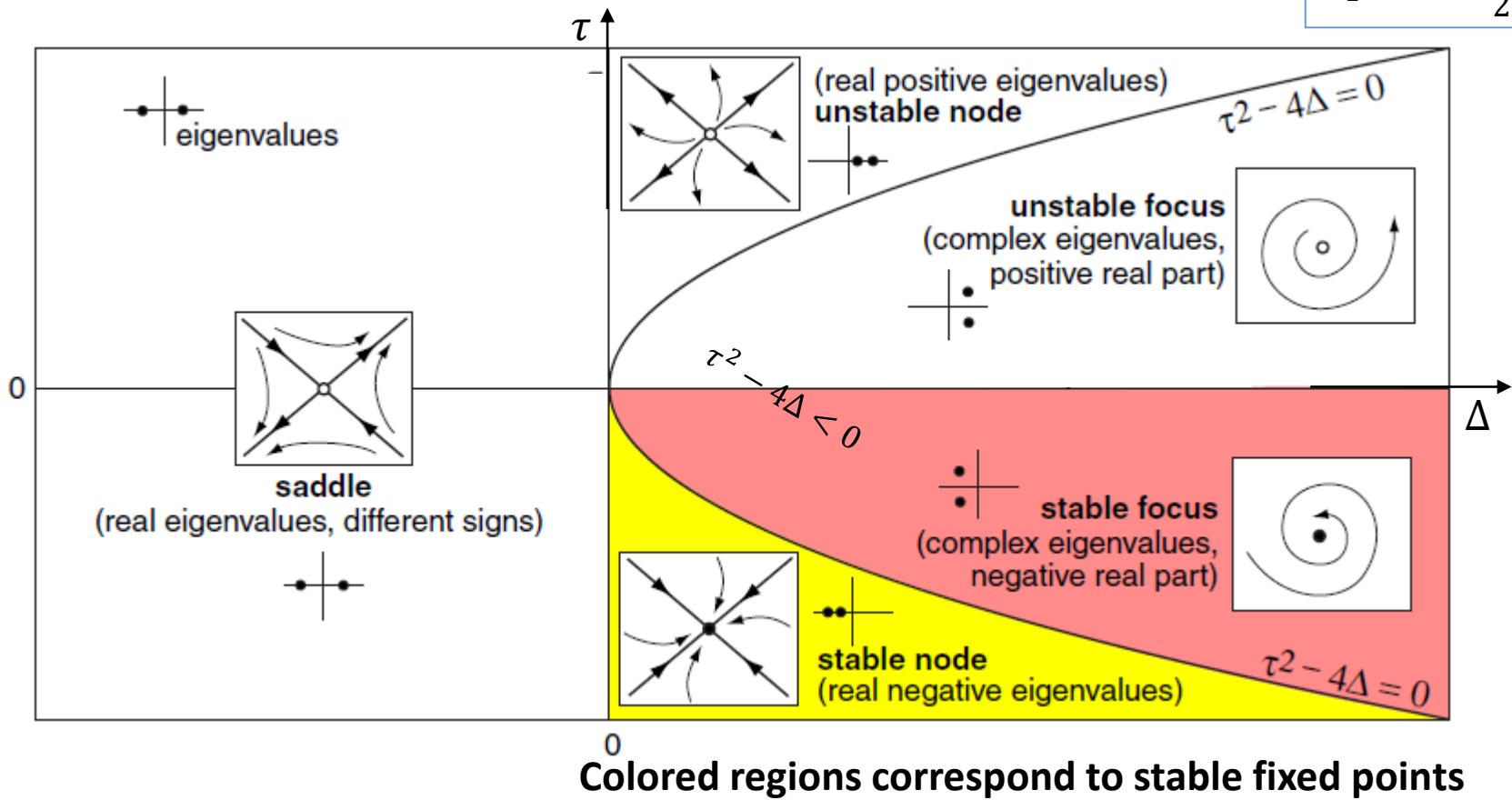
$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\tau + \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$
$$\lambda_2 = \frac{\tau - \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$



# Fixed Points and Their Stability

Classification of fixed points according to the trace ( $\tau$ ) and the determinant ( $\Delta$ ) of the Jacobian matrix  $L$

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\tau + \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$
$$\lambda_2 = \frac{\tau - \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$

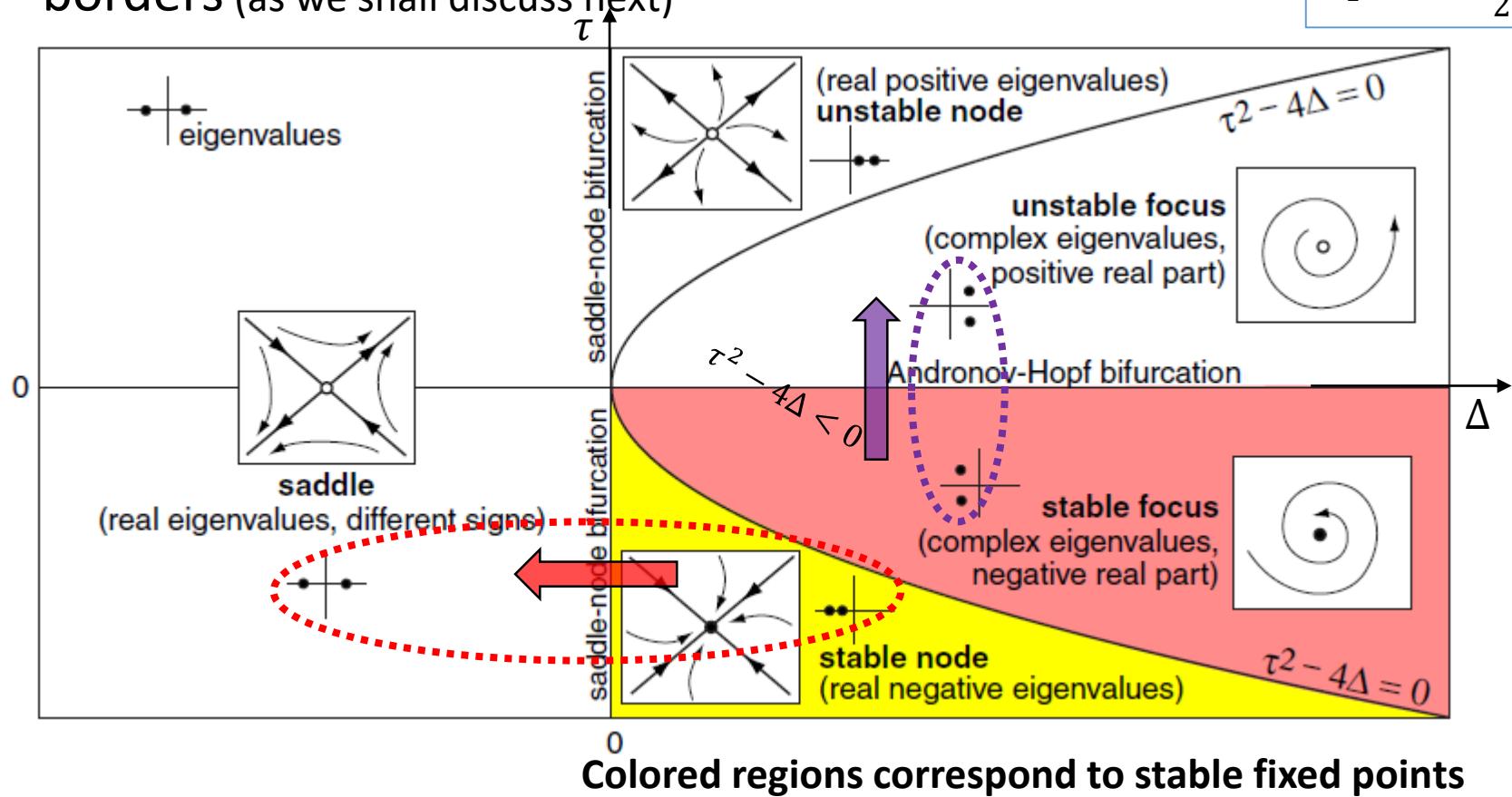


# Fixed Points and Their Stability

- Interesting change of behavior occurs when the eigenvalues corresponding to a fixed point cross the borders (as we shall discuss next)

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\tau + \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$

$$\lambda_2 = \frac{\tau - \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$



# Fixed Points and Their Stability

---

We have studied so far:

- Fixed points with eigenvalues with non-zero real-parts (called *hyperbolic*) which can be stable or unstable

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

Extra Info

We have studied so far:

- Fixed points with eigenvalues with non-zero real-parts (called *hyperbolic*) which can be stable or unstable
  - The Hartman-Grobman theorem:  
*The vector-field and the dynamic of a nonlinear system near such a hyperbolic equilibrium is topologically equivalent to its linearization*  
(i.e. the higher-order terms can be ignored)

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(x, y) \\ \dot{y} &= g(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

The nonlinear functions  $f$  and  $g$  can be linearized near the fixed point  $(x_0, y_0)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}f(x, y) &= a(x - x_0) + b(y - y_0) + \text{higher order terms} \\ g(x, y) &= c(x - x_0) + d(y - y_0) + \text{higher order terms}\end{aligned}$$

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

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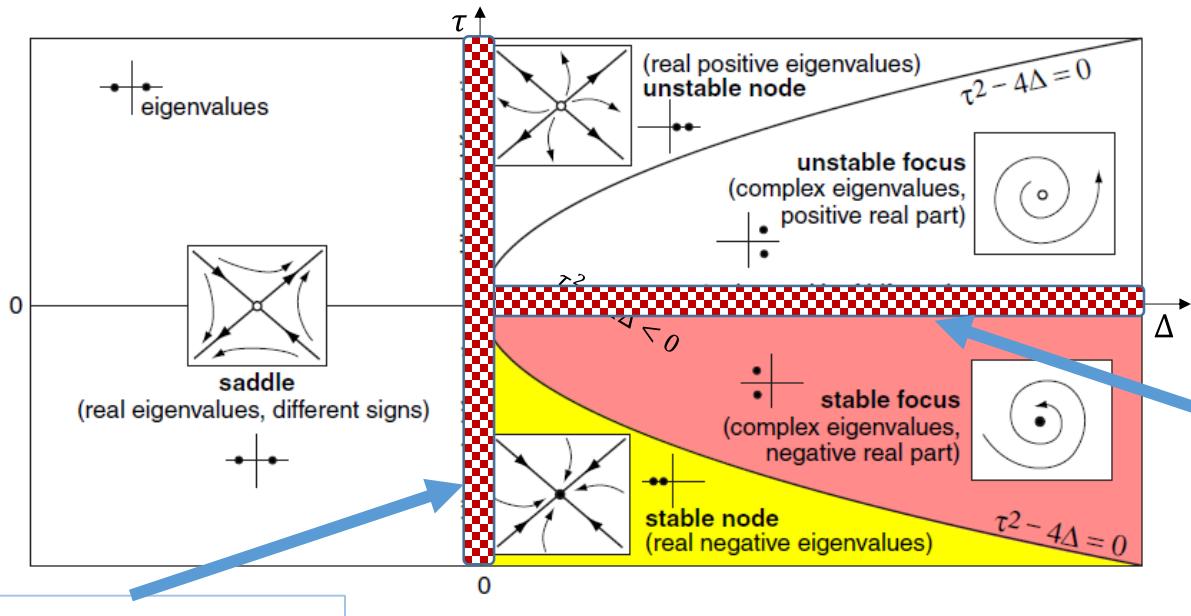
What about zero eigenvalues (or eigenvalues with zero real parts)?

- A fixed point with an eigenvalue with zero real-part is called ***non-hyperbolic***
- A zero eigenvalue (or a pair of eigenvalues with zero real parts) arises when the fixed point undergoes a ***bifurcation*** (*change of behavior*)

# Fixed Points and Their Stability

What about zero eigenvalues (or eigenvalues with zero real parts)?

- A fixed point with an eigenvalue with zero real-part is called **non-hyperbolic**



$$\Delta = 0 \rightarrow \\ \lambda_1 = \tau, \quad \lambda_2 = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\tau + \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$
$$\lambda_2 = \frac{\tau - \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$

$$\tau = 0, \quad \Delta > 0 \rightarrow \\ Re\{\lambda_1\} = Re\{\lambda_2\} = 0$$

Pure imaginary eigenvalues

# Bifurcation (Saddle-Node / Hopf)

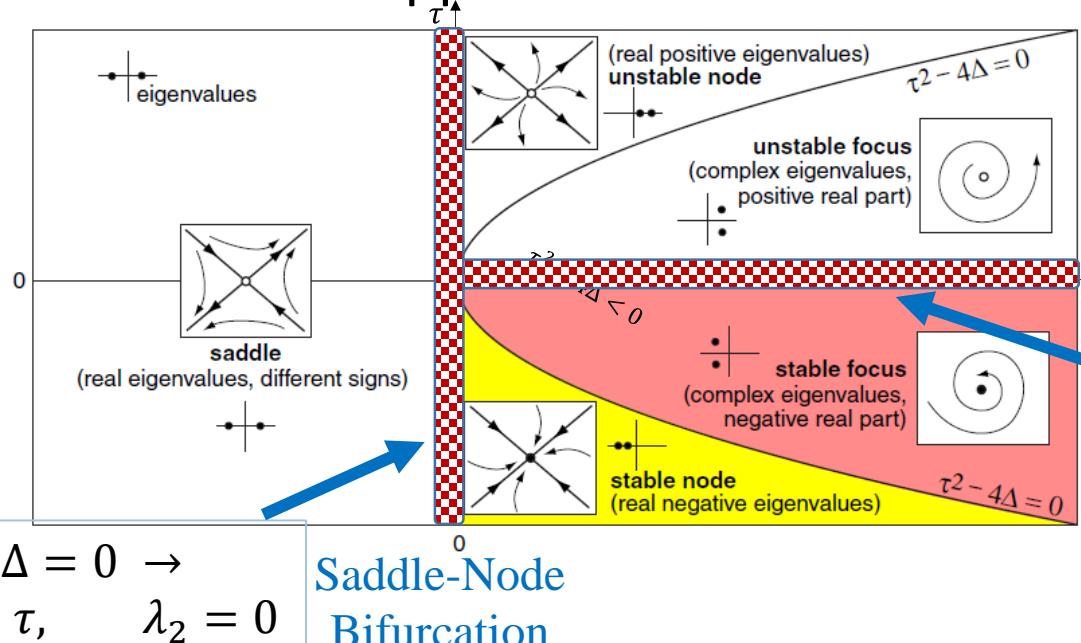
(Saddle-Node \ Hopf)

Bifurcation

# Two Types of Bifurcation – (Transition from resting state to repetitive spiking)

Starting from a stable fixed point (the yellow or pink regions in the diagram):

- Both eigenvalues have negative real values
  - **Saddle-Node Bifurcation:** When  $\Delta$  becomes zero, one eigenvalue ( $\lambda_2$ ) turns zero
  - **Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation:** When  $\tau$  becomes zero (for  $\Delta > 0$ ), the real part of both eigenvalues become zero
- This shift can happen due to an increase in input current



$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\tau + \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$
$$\lambda_2 = \frac{\tau - \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$

Andronov – Hopf  
Bifurcation

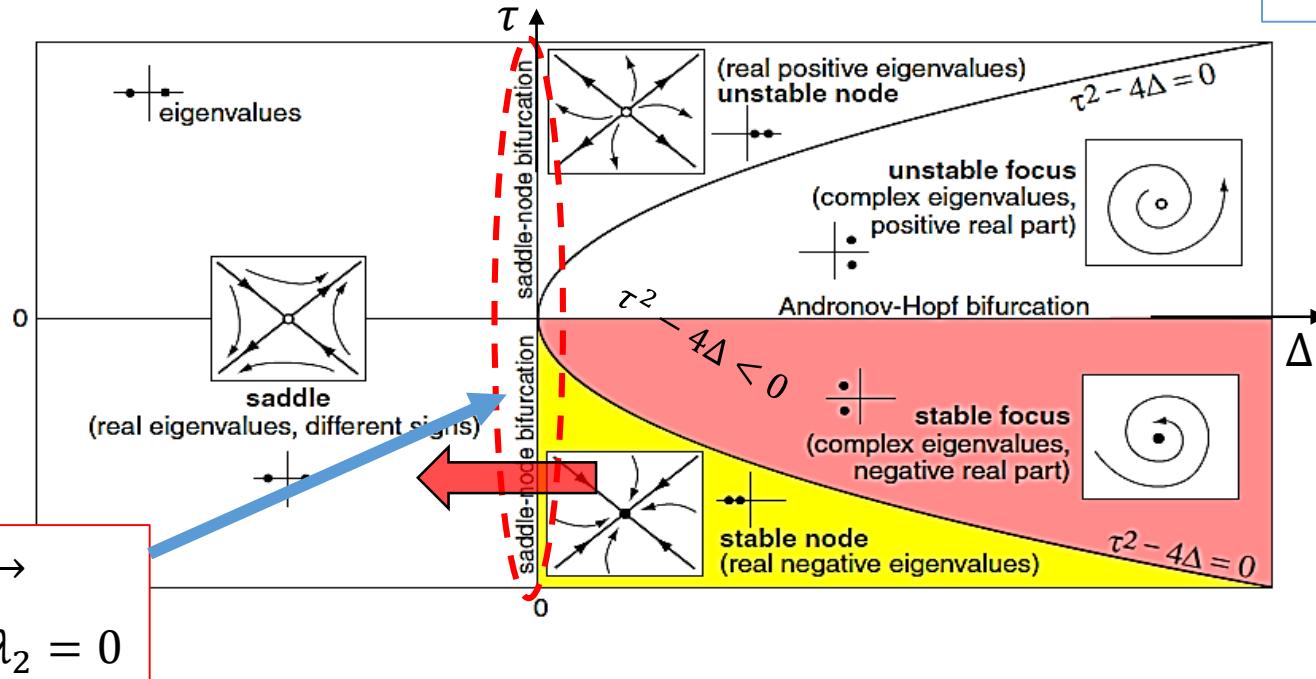
$$\tau = 0, \quad \Delta > 0 \rightarrow$$
$$Re\{\lambda_1\} = Re\{\lambda_2\} = 0$$

# Saddle-Node Bifurcation

Starting from a stable node (the yellow region in the diagram):

- Both eigenvalues are real and negative
- When  $\Delta$  becomes zero, one eigenvalue ( $\lambda_2$ ) turns zero  
**→ Saddle-Node Bifurcation**

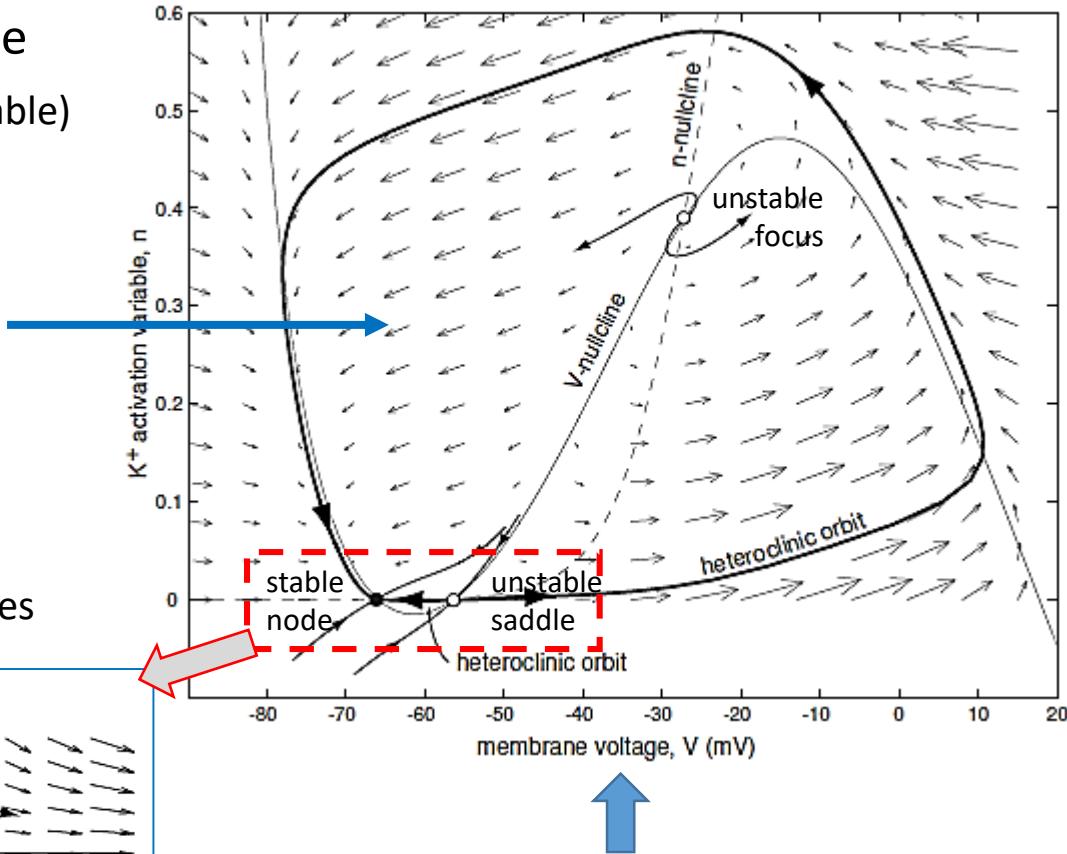
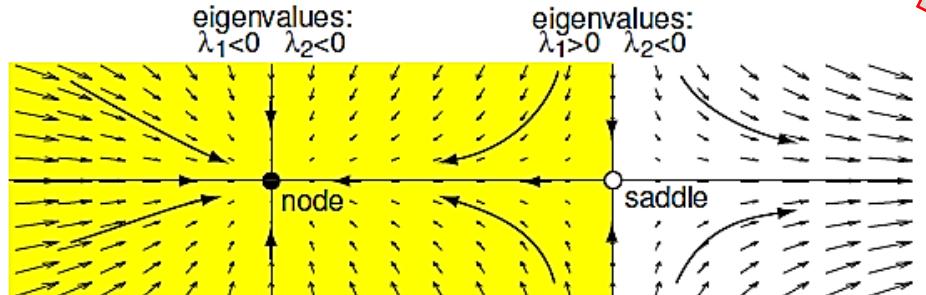
$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\tau + \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$
$$\lambda_2 = \frac{\tau - \sqrt{\tau^2 - 4\Delta}}{2}$$



# Saddle-Node Bifurcation

- Phase portrait for a zero value of the input current:  $I = 0$ 
  - A stable node: Resting state
  - A saddle (which is always unstable)
  - An unstable focus
- Trajectories inside the loop (including those originating at the unstable focus) terminate at the stable node

The saddle serves as a threshold

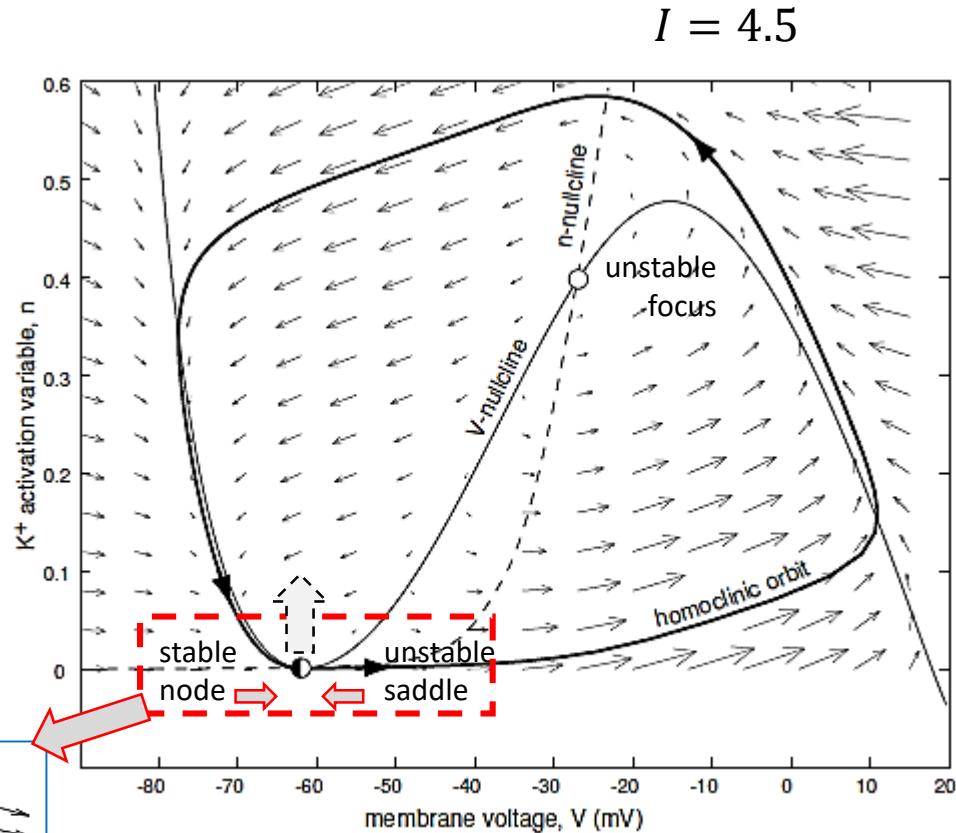
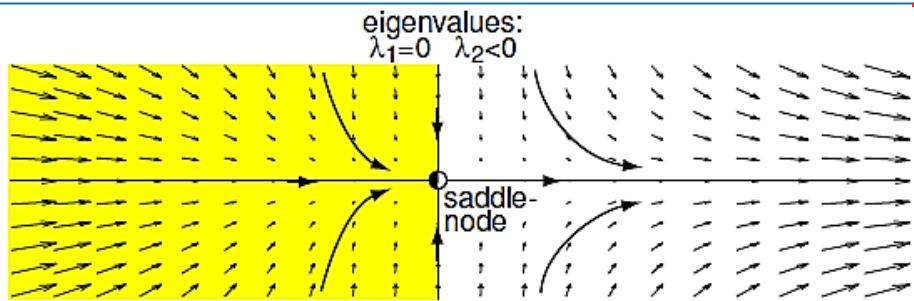


The two nullclines collide at 3 fixed points in this case

# Saddle-Node Bifurcation

- Increasing the input current:

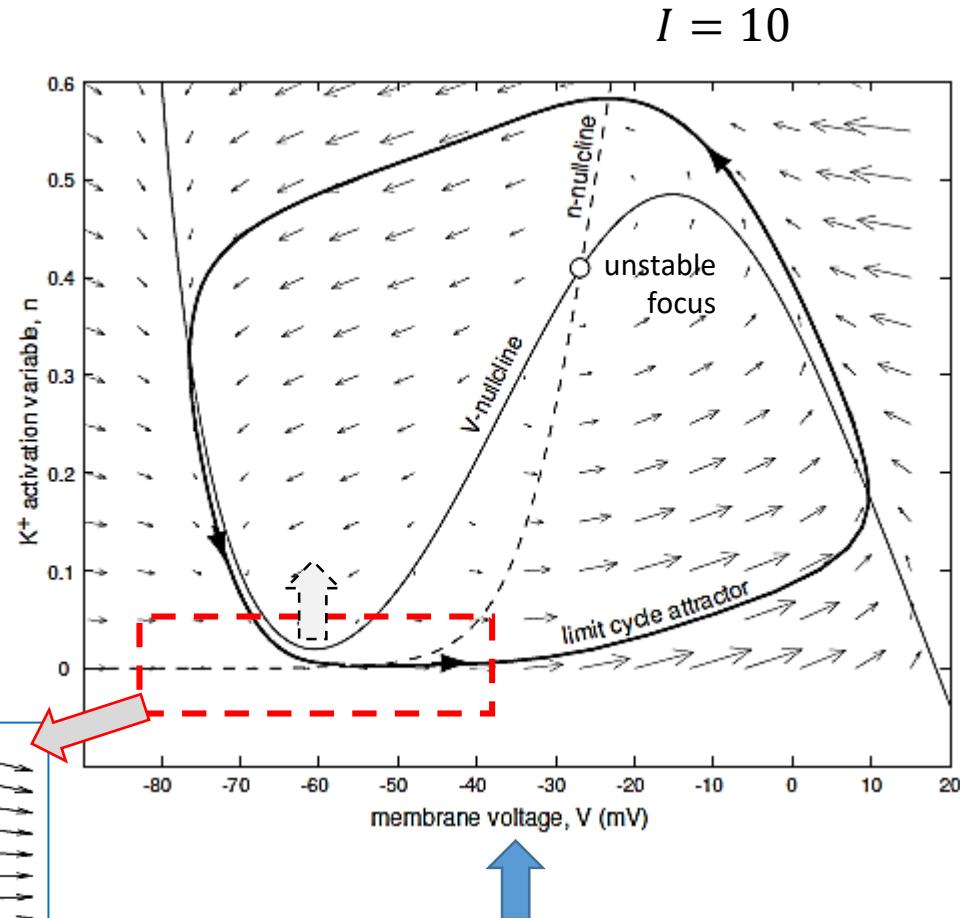
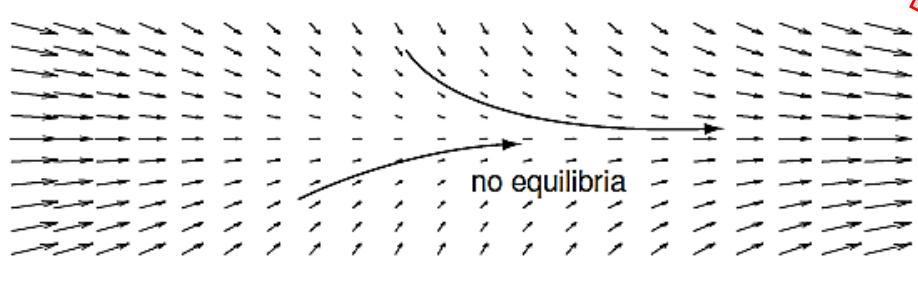
- Shifts the cubic V-nullcline upward  
→ Distance between the node and saddle decreases until they merge → One eigenvalue is zero
- The nullclines only touch each other in this case:
  - Saddle-node bifurcation** occurs



Stable on one side (left),  
unstable on the other side (right)

# Saddle-Node Bifurcation

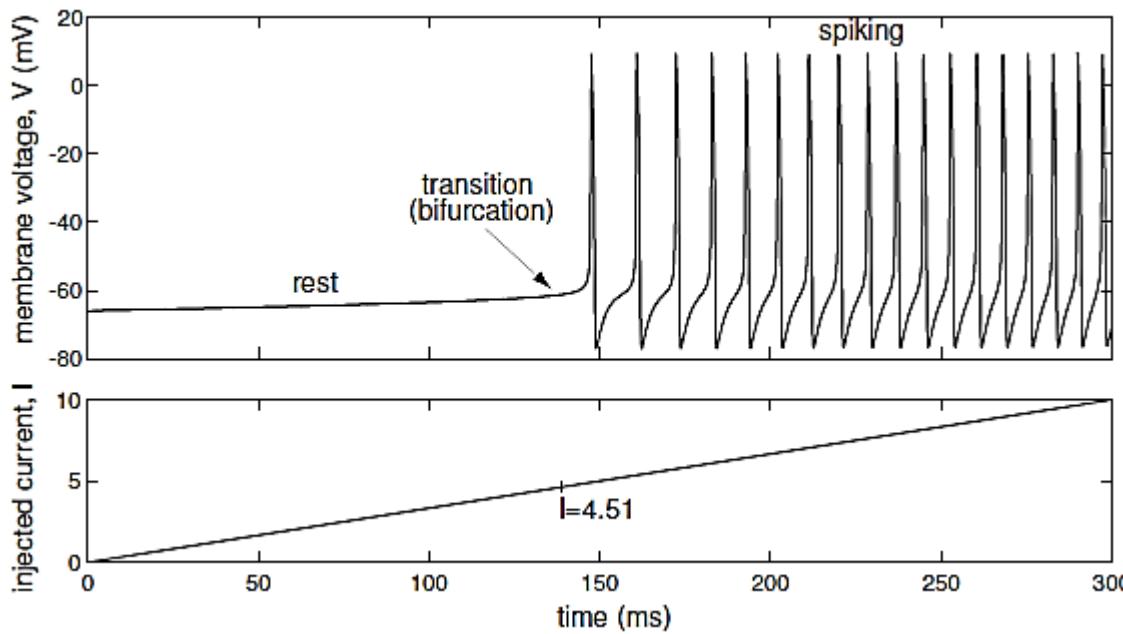
- Further increasing the input current:
  - Shifts the cubic V-nullcline more upward  
→ The node and the saddle disappear
  - The new phase portrait has only a limit cycle attractor
    - It corresponds to repetitive firing



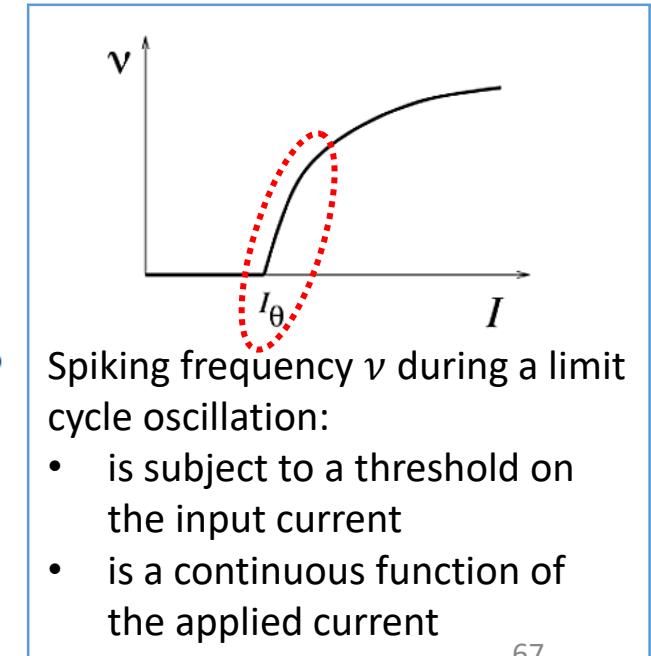
A limit cycle is created, causing repeated spiking by the neuron

# Saddle-Node Bifurcation

- Transition from resting state to repetitive spiking
  - With injected ramp current  $I$

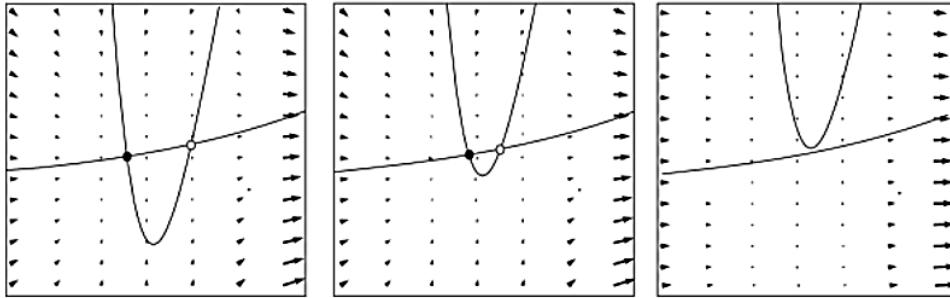


➤ Spiking rate increases with increasing  $I$  while the voltage amplitude remains fixed

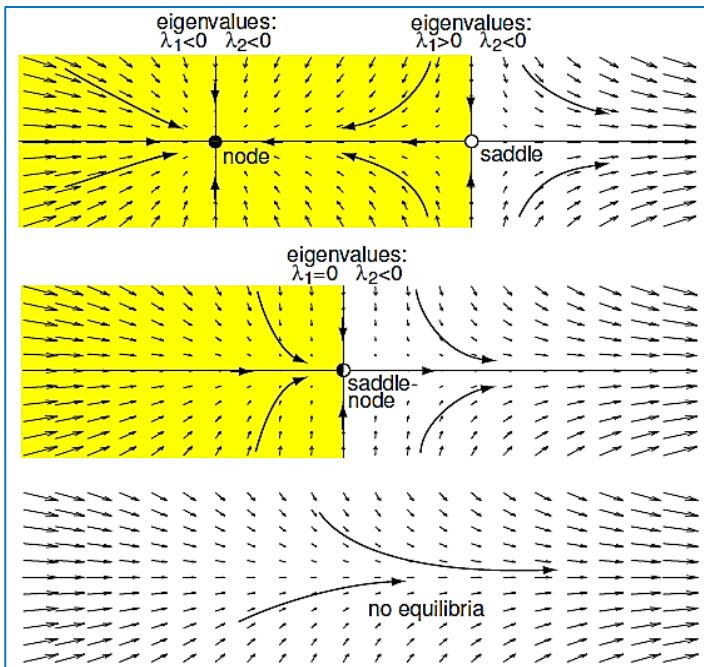


# Saddle-Node Bifurcation – Summary

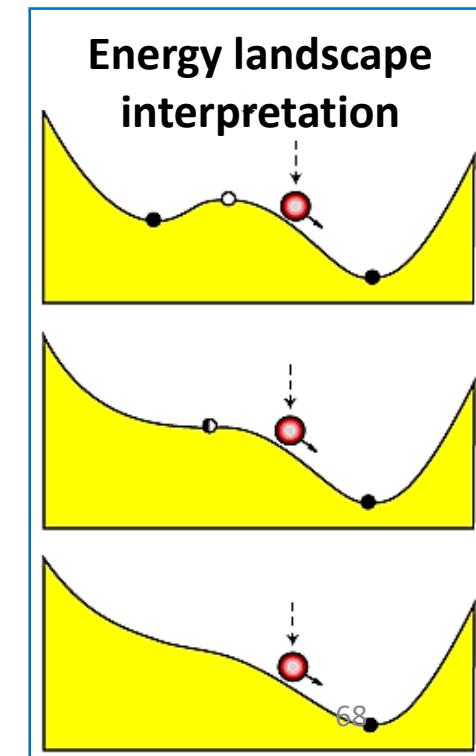
- The  $V$ -nullcline moves upward as the current is increased



Wulfram Gerstner "Neuronal Dynamics", 2014



- The saddle and node fixed points approach each other, merge, and annihilate each other



Energy landscape interpretation

Eugene Izhikevich "Dynamical Systems in Neuroscience", 2010

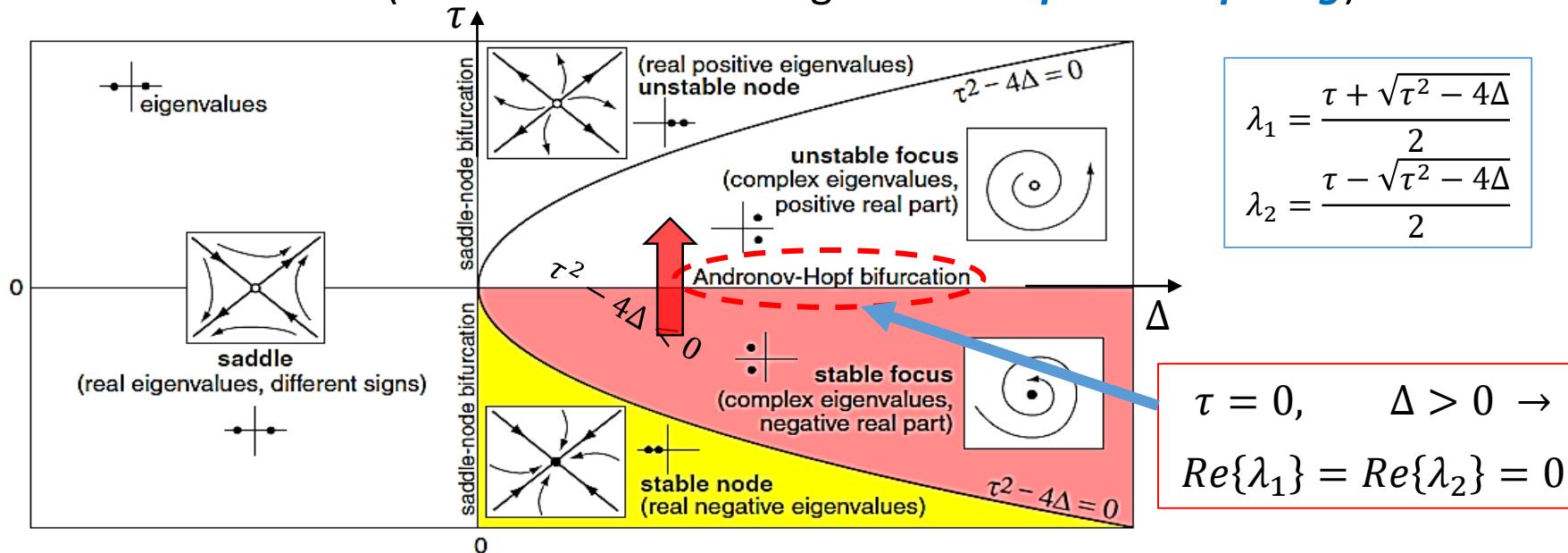
# Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

This is also called *Poincare-Andronov-Hopf* bifurcation, or *Hopf* bifurcation in different books on dynamical systems

Starting from a stable focus (the pink region in the diagram):

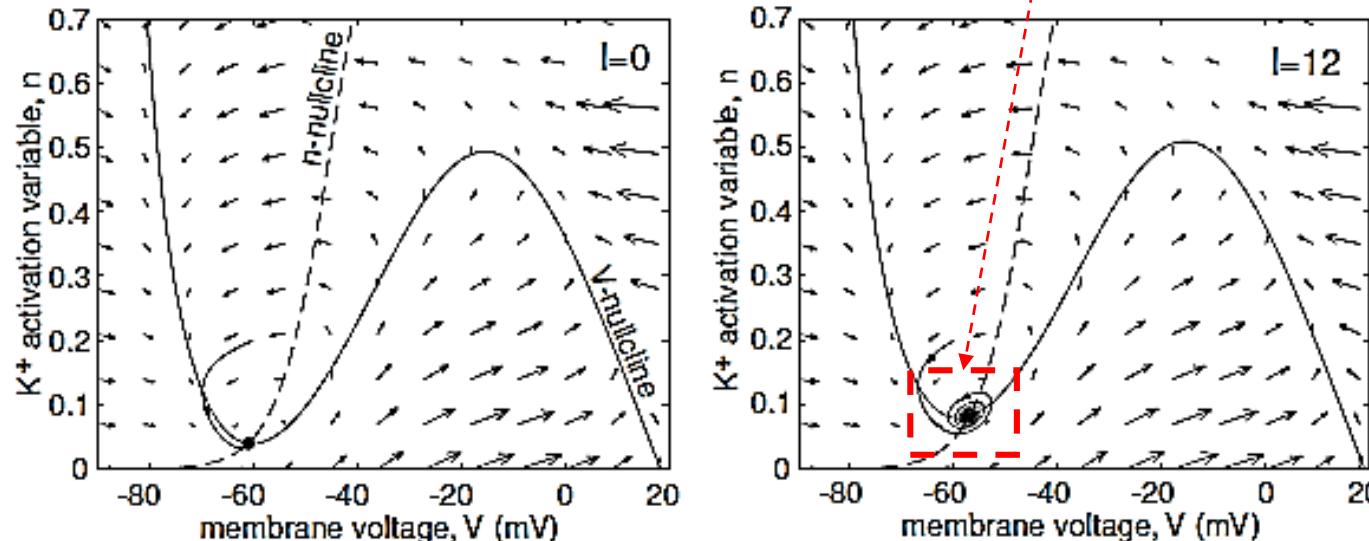
- Both eigenvalues are complex with negative real parts
- When  $\tau$  becomes zero, real parts of eigenvalues turn zero (pure imaginary eigenvalues)

→ Bifurcation (transition from resting state to *repetitive spiking*)



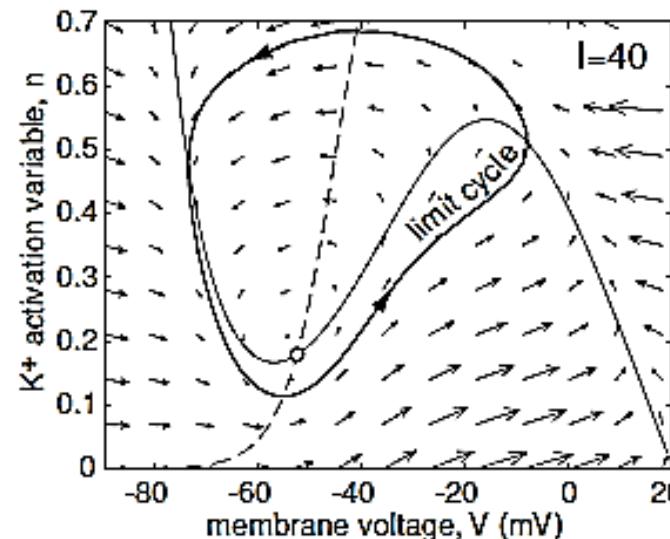
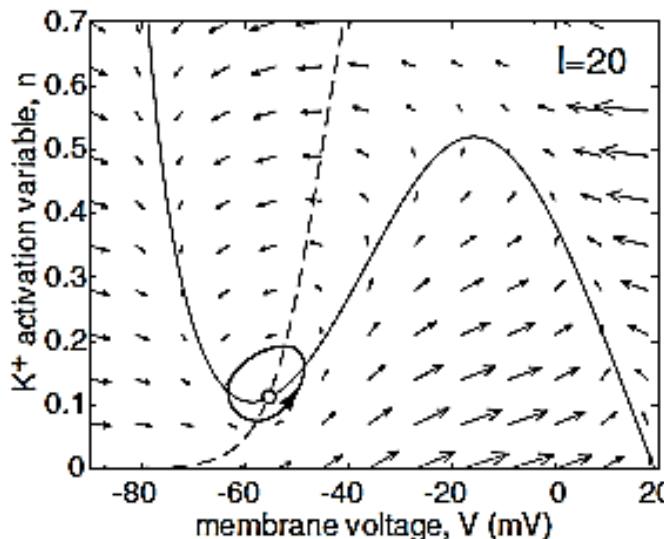
# Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

- Small  $I \rightarrow$  The fixed point is a **stable focus** (rest state)  
(a pair of complex-conjugate eigenvalues with negative real part)
- When  $I$  increases past  $I = 12$ , the focus loses stability:
  - The real part of the eigenvalues increases as  $0 < I < 12$
  - It becomes zero at  $I = 12$  (purely imaginary eigenvalues)  
→ A small-amplitude limit cycle attractor begins
  - The real part becomes positive for  $I > 12$



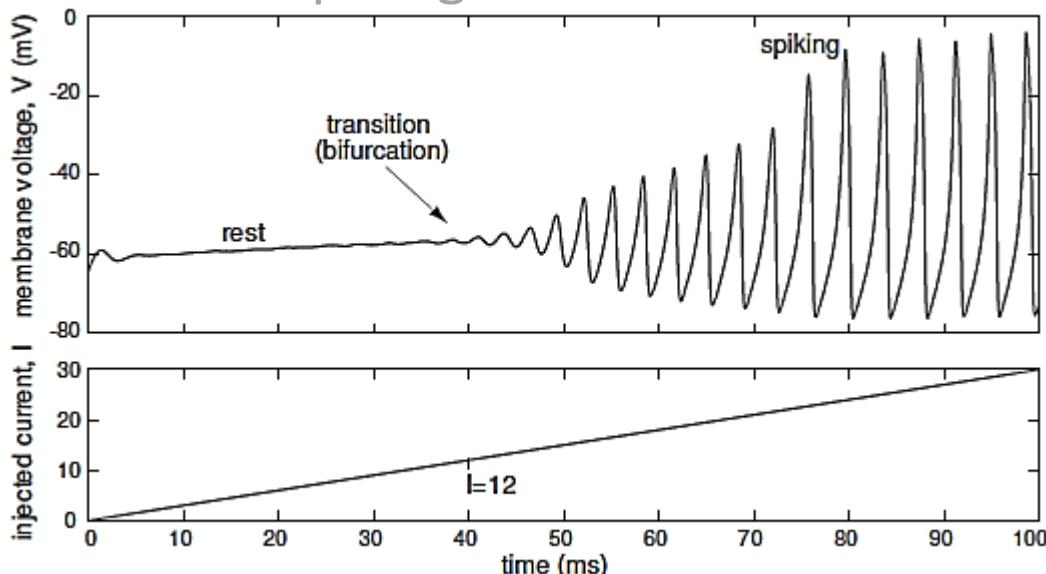
# Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

- The transition from stable to unstable focus described above is called **Andronov-Hopf** bifurcation
  - It occurs when the eigenvalues become purely imaginary, as it happens when  $I = 12$
- Increasing  $I$  beyond  $I = 12$  results in the transition from rest to spiking behavior
  - Note: The cycles can be small or large depending on the input current

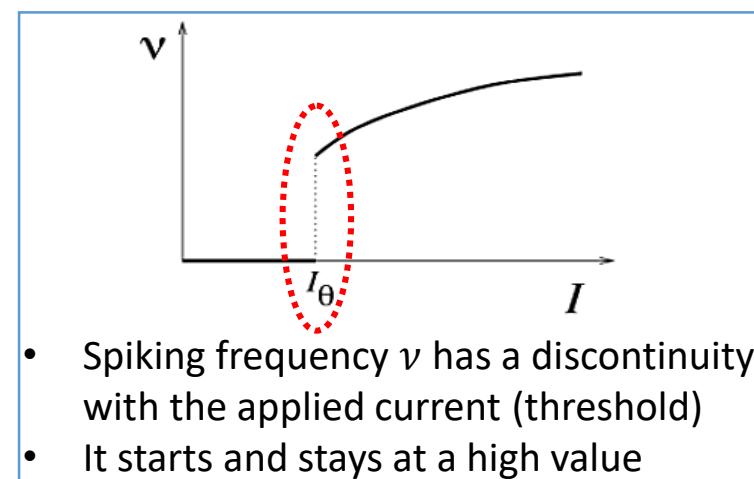
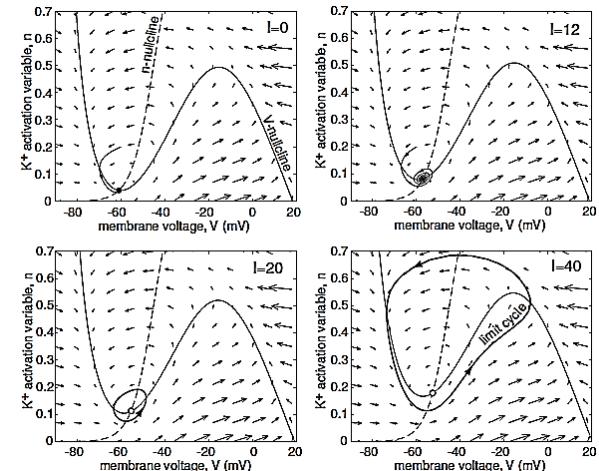


# Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

- Increasing  $I$  beyond  $I = 12$  results in the transition from rest to spiking behavior



- Spiking rate remains fixed with increasing  $I$  but the amplitude of the voltage swing increases

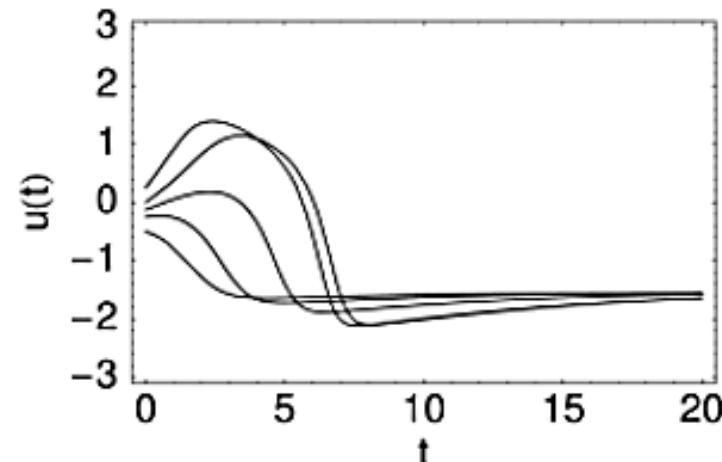
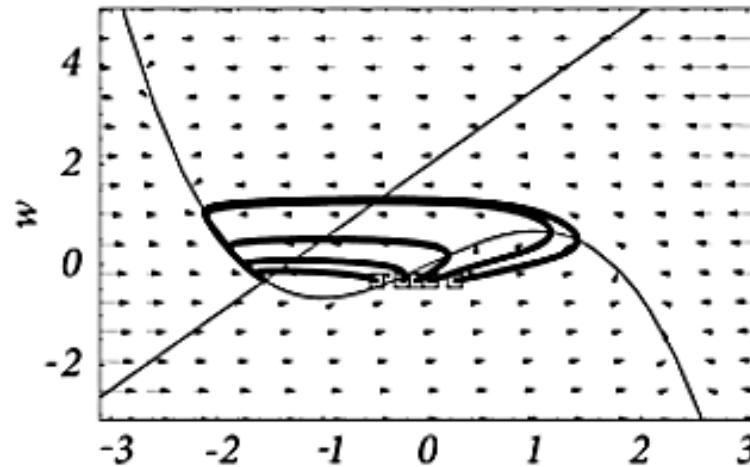


# Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

*Extra Info*

## Unlike the saddle-node bifurcation:

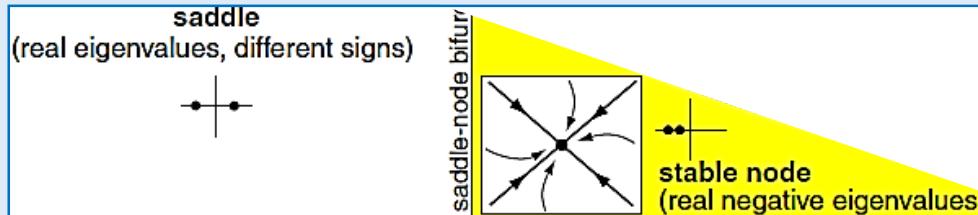
- Slight increase of the amplitude of the input pulse → Large increase in the amplitude of the response
- Peak of the response is always reached with roughly the same delay (independently of the size of the input pulse)  
Velocity of larger trajectories is larger → Similar time cycles for different trajectory sizes (**imaginary part of the eigenvalues determines the oscillation frequency**)
- Amplitude of the response increases continuously with the input



# Saddle – Node versus Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

- The saddle-node and Andronov-Hopf bifurcations result in dramatically different neuro-computational properties:

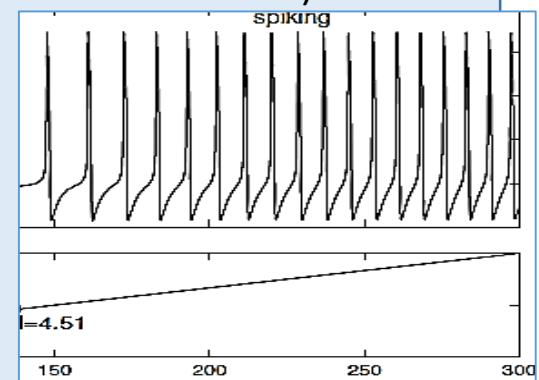
- Neurons near saddle-node bifurcation act as **integrators**



- These are filters with poles on the real axis:  
→ They act like lowpass filters

(**Integrator** refers to the transfer function  $\frac{1}{s}$  with its pole shifted on the real axis)

- They integrate over the input pulse trains of their neighbors
  - Higher input spike rates → Increased input current → Higher output spike rate

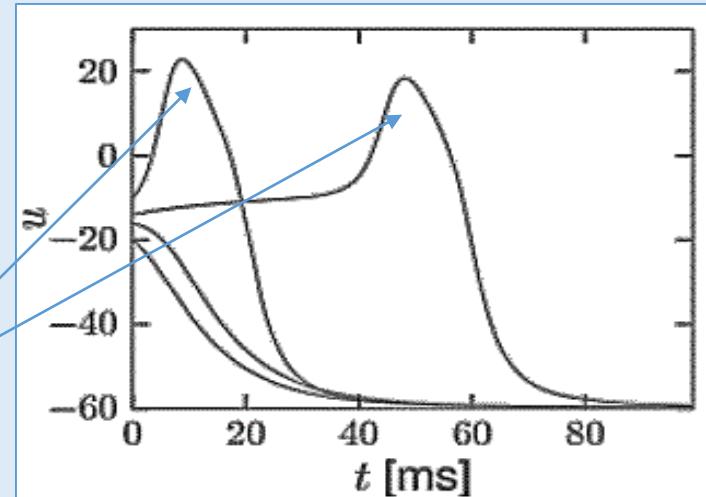
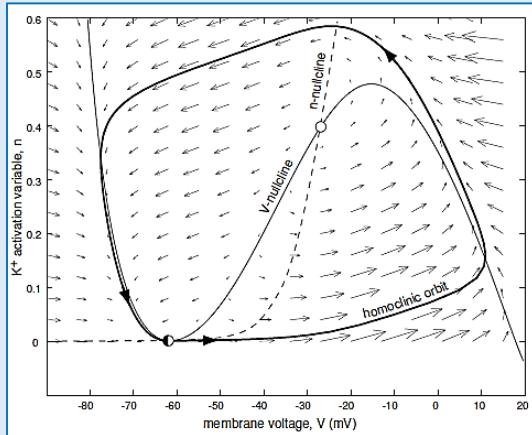


# Saddle – Node versus Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

*Extra Info*

- The saddle-node and Andronov-Hopf bifurcations result in dramatically different neuro-computational properties:

- Neurons near saddle-node bifurcation act as **integrators**
  - They show a **threshold (all-or-nothing) behavior**
    - They either generate a significant pulse (for a large input pulse)
    - Or their state decays back to rest (for a small input pulse)



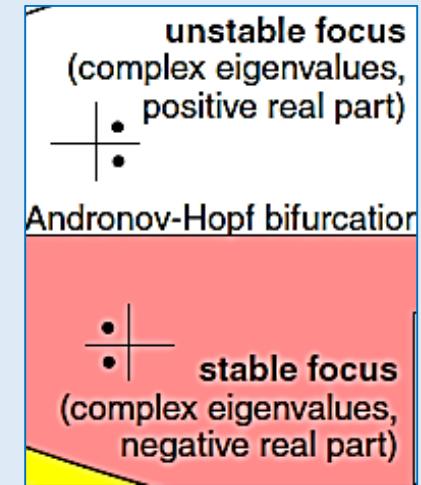
- **The shape of the output action potential is always the same**

# Saddle – Node versus Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

➤ The saddle-node and Andronov-Hopf bifurcations result in dramatically different neuro-computational properties:

- Neurons near Andronov-Hopf bifurcation show damped oscillatory potentials and act as **resonators**

- They prefer oscillatory input with the same frequency as that of their own damped oscillations (**resonant frequency**)
  - Increasing the input's frequency may delay or even terminate their response (they may filter out the input)



- These are filters with conjugate complex poles near the imaginary axis:

→ They act like bandpass filters

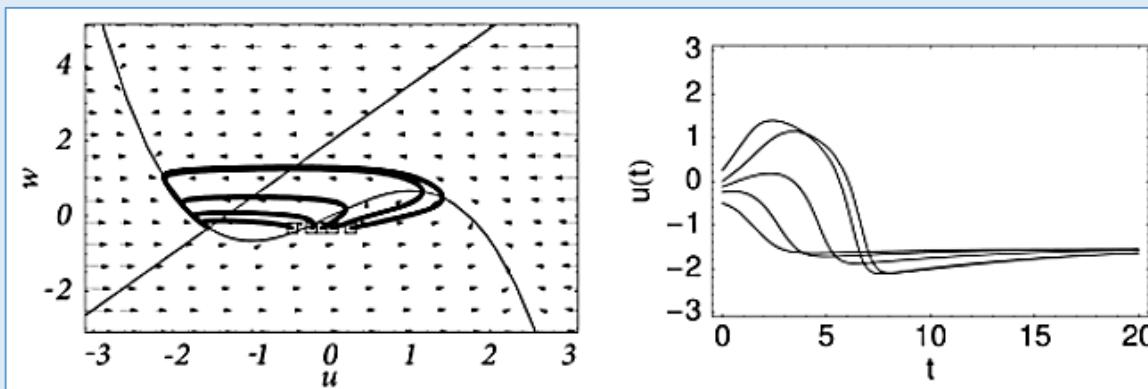
(**Resonator** refers to a bandpass filtering behavior tuned to a resonance frequency)

# Saddle – Node versus Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation

*Extra Info*

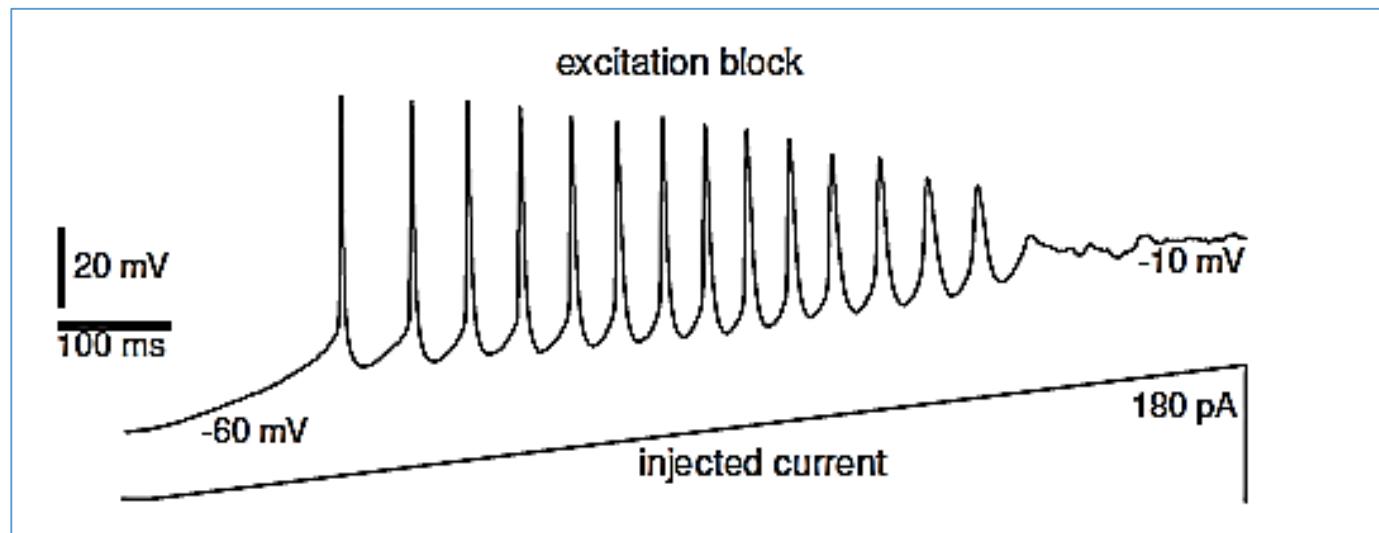
➤ The saddle-node and Andronov-Hopf bifurcations result in dramatically different neuro-computational properties:

- Neurons near Andronov-Hopf bifurcation show damped oscillatory potentials and act as **resonators**
  - Amplitude of response depends continuously on the amplitude of input pulse:
    - **The size of the limit cycle can grow with the input amplitude**



# Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation – Excitation Block

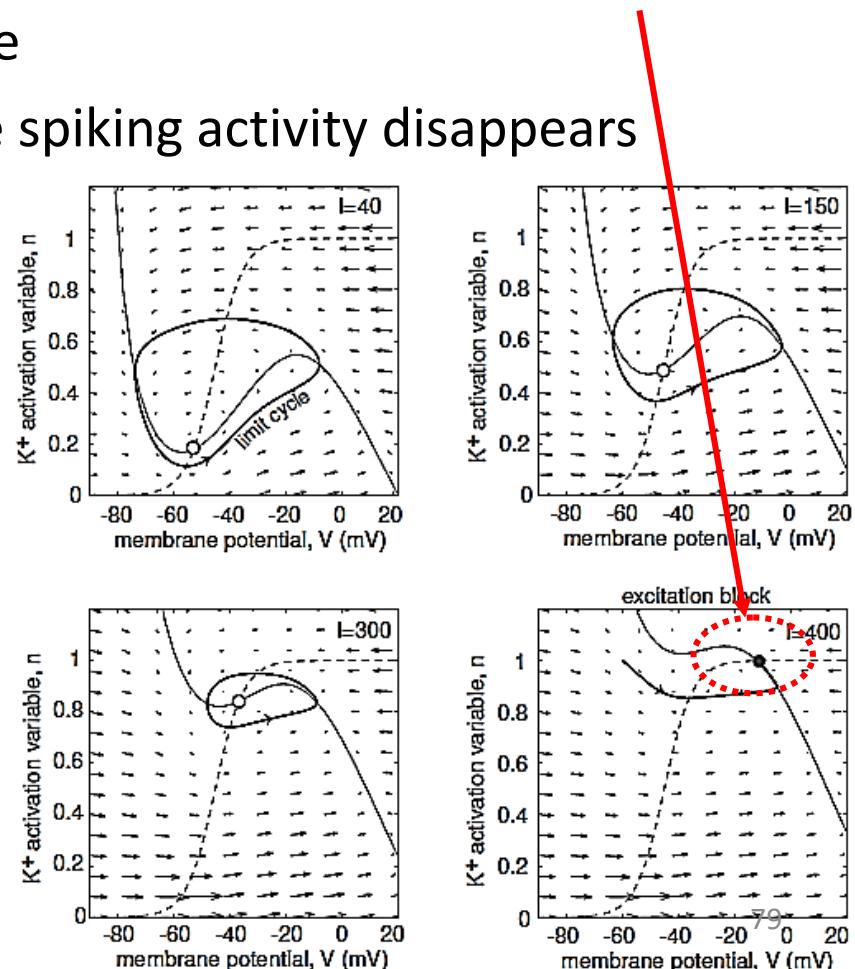
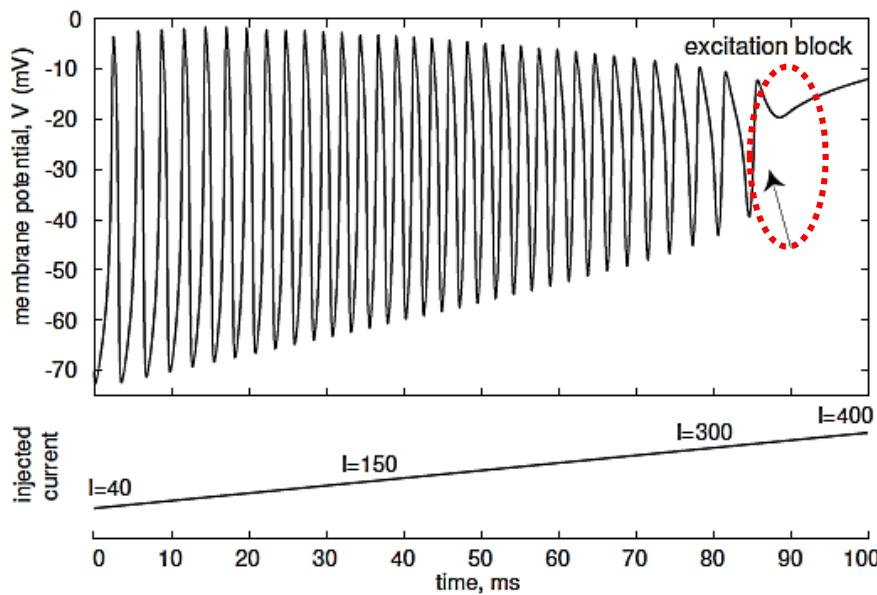
- Spiking activity of a (layer 5 pyramidal) neuron of rat's visual cortex is **blocked by strong excitation** (i.e. injection of strong positive current)



➤ *Let's examine the phase plane to see why this happens*

# Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation – Excitation Block

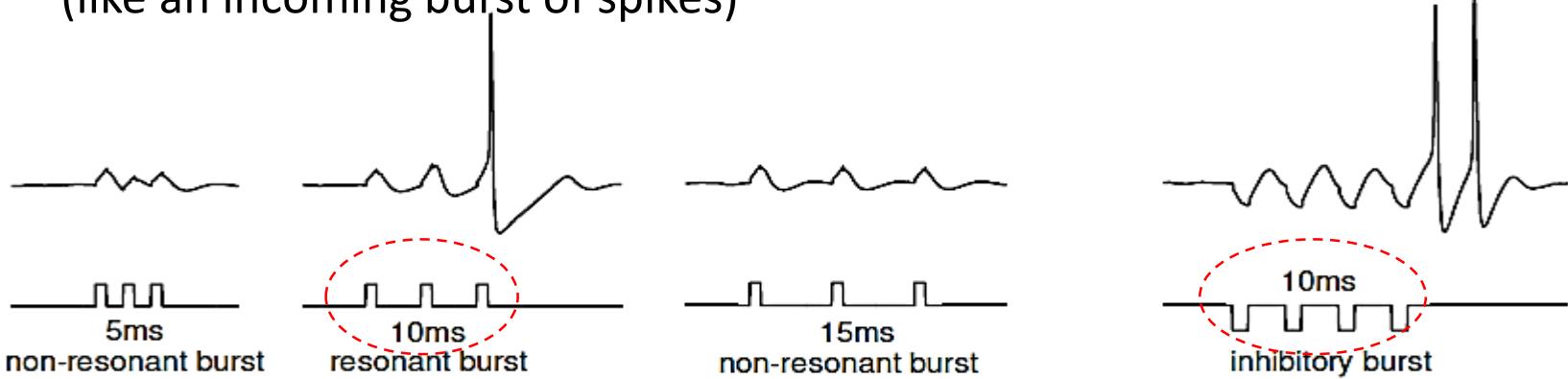
- As the magnitude of the injected current increases:
    - The unstable fixed point moves to the right branch of the  $V$ -nullcline and becomes stable
- The limit cycle shrinks and the spiking activity disappears



# Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation – Excitatory and Inhibitory Pulse Trains

A rat's (brainstem mesencephalic V) neuron:

- Neuron is stimulated with **brief pulses of current**  
(like an incoming burst of spikes)



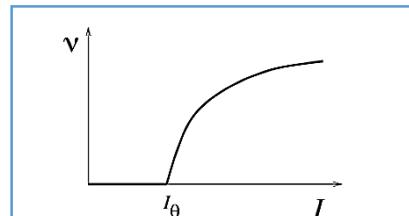
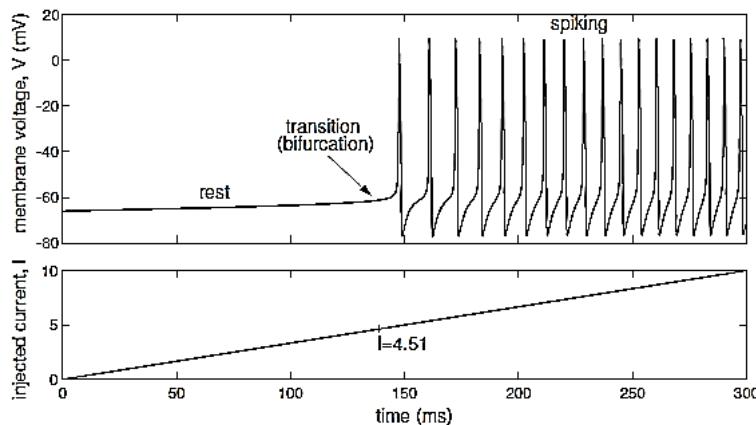
High stimulation rate (strong input) → No spikes	Slow (10 ms) stimulation rate → Spike	Slower stimulation rate → No spikes	Same slow (10 ms) stimulation rate with <b>inhibitory</b> input → Spikes
---	--	--	--

- Spiking occurs when the frequency of input current **resonates** with the frequency of **subthreshold oscillation** of the neuron
- If the same inputs are applied to a cortical pyramidal neuron (integrator type), only the first input (high stimulation rate) may cause spikes

# Saddle – Node versus Andronov – Hopf Bifurcation – Summary

## Saddle-Node Bifurcation:

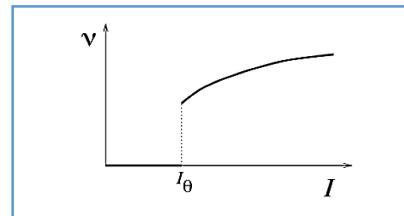
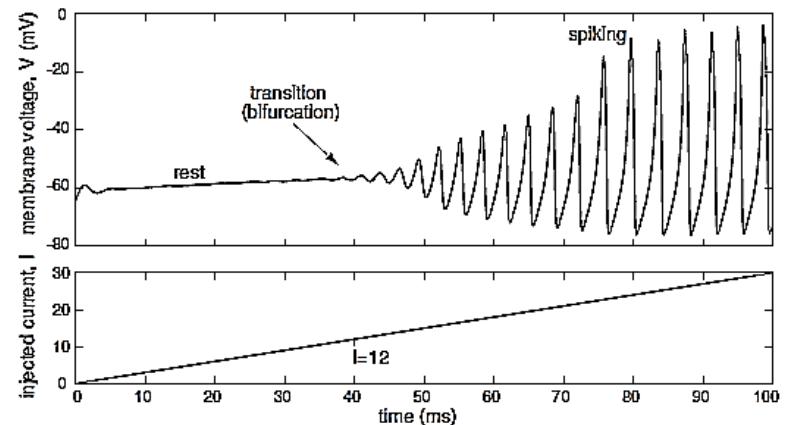
- Increase in input current  
→ Higher spiking rate



- Spiking frequency  $\nu$  during a limit cycle oscillation:
- is subject to a threshold on the input current
  - is a continuous function of the applied current

## Andronov–Hopf Bifurcation:

- Increase in input current  
→ Almost fixed spiking rate



- Spiking frequency  $\nu$  has a discontinuity with the applied current (threshold)
- It starts and stays at a high value

*Practice in HW*

# Simplified 2D Models

slabOM DS buildingis

# FitzHugh – Nagumo Model

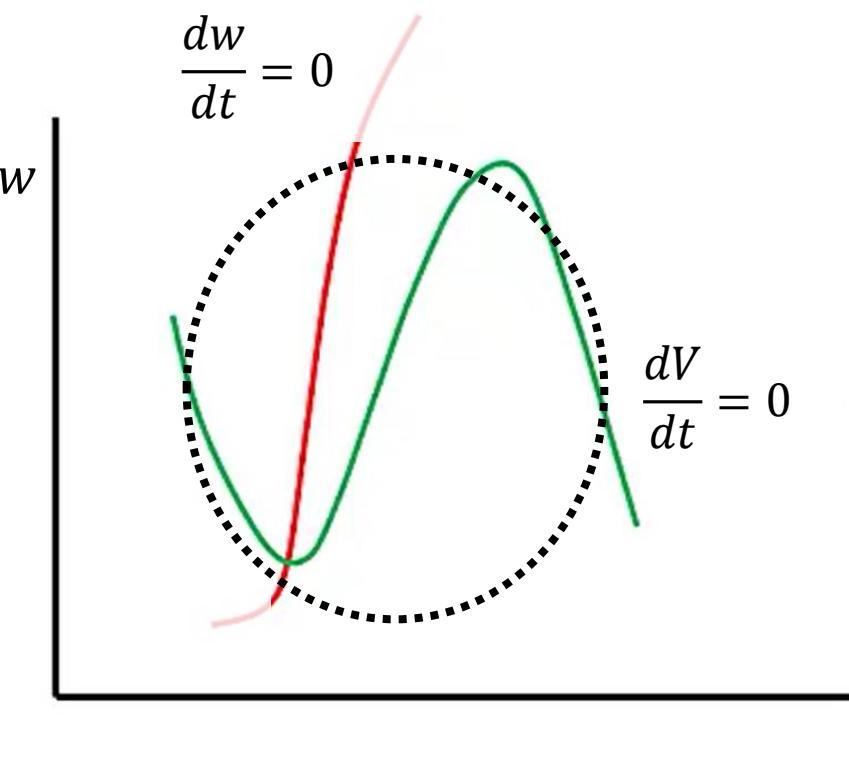
- Many neural spiking activities can be described by only considering the region of the phase plane around its fixed point:
- Voltage dynamics can be approximated by a **cubic** function:

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = V(a - V)(V - 1) - w + I$$

with a linear (negative) coupling to  $w$

- Dynamics of  $w$  are **linear** in  $V$  and  $w$ :

$$\frac{dw}{dt} = -cw + bV$$



# FitzHugh – Nagumo Model

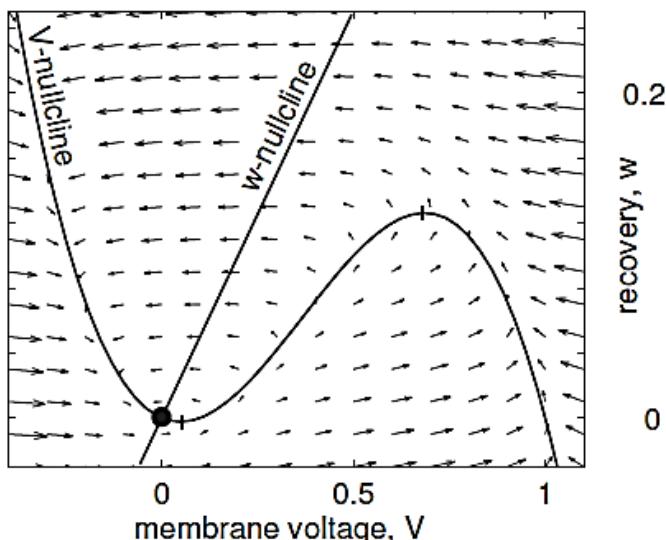
- $V$ -nullcline:

Assume  $I = 0 \rightarrow$  Fixed point at  $(0, 0)$

$$\begin{aligned}f(V, w) &= V(a - V)(V - 1) - w \\&= -V^3 + (a + 1)V^2 - aV - w = 0\end{aligned}$$

- $w$ -nullcline:

$$g(V, w) = -cw + bV = 0$$



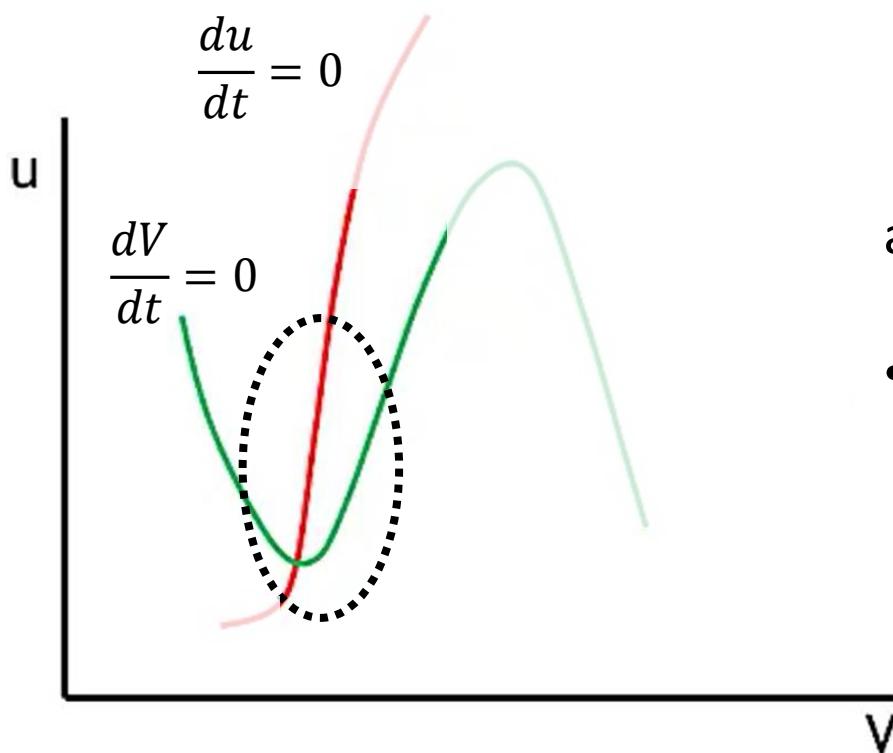
**Note:** In order to calculate the derivatives for the Jacobian matrix, one needs to write the nullcline equations this way

There can be 1, 2, or 3 fixed points

# Izhikevich “Simple” Model

*Practice in HW*

- Many neural spiking activities can be described by only considering the region of the phase plane around its fixed point:



- Voltage dynamics are approximated by a **quadratic** function:  
$$\frac{dV}{dt} = -\alpha V + \beta V^2 + \gamma - u + I(t)$$
 and a linear coupling to  $u$
- Dynamics of  $u$  are **linear** in  $V$  and  $u$ :

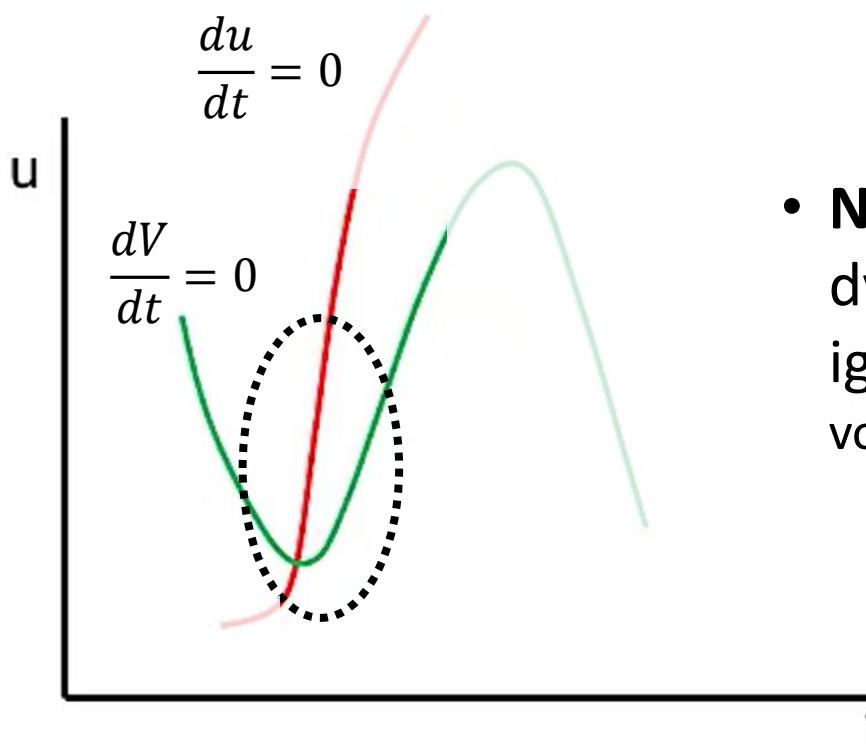
$$\frac{du}{dt} = a(-u + bV)$$

# Izhikevich “Simple” Model

*Practice in HW*

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = -\alpha V + \beta V^2 + \gamma - u + I(t)$$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = a(-u + bV)$$



- As  $V$  gets larger, so does  $u$  (2<sup>nd</sup> Eq.)

- Then the coupling of  $-u$  to  $V$  in the 1<sup>st</sup> Eq. causes  $V$  to decrease

- **Note:** The role of higher order dynamics in variables has been ignored (they are needed to restore the voltage to reset after a spike)
  - We need to add in a maximum value and a reset value for the variables (see next page)

# Izhikevich “Simple” Model

*Practice in HW*

- The role of higher order dynamics in variables has been ignored (they are needed to restore the voltage after a spike)  
→ We need to add in a maximum value and a reset value for the variables

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 0.04V^2 + 5V + 140 - u + I(t)$$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = a(-u + bV)$$

→ {  
if  $V = 30 \text{ mV}$   
then  $V \rightarrow c$  and  $u \rightarrow u + d$

# Izhikevich “Simple” Model

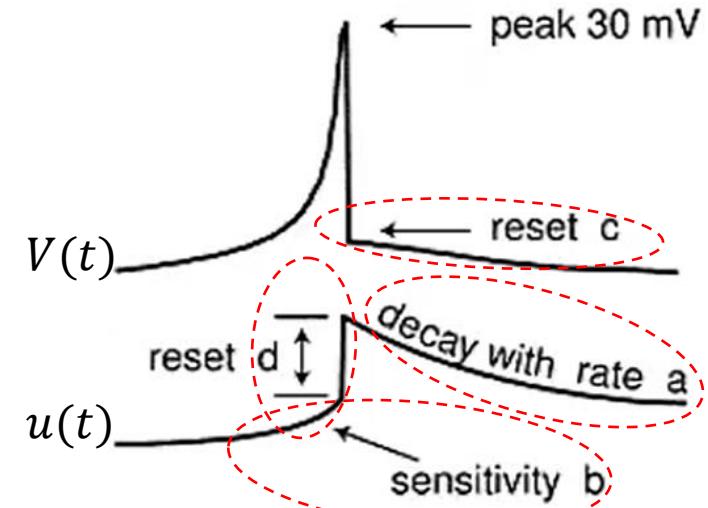
Practice in HW

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 0.04V^2 + 5V + 140 - u + I(t)$$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = a(-u + bV)$$

if  $V = 30 \text{ mV}$

then  $V \rightarrow c$  and  $u \rightarrow u + d$

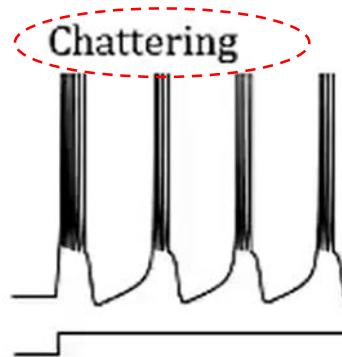
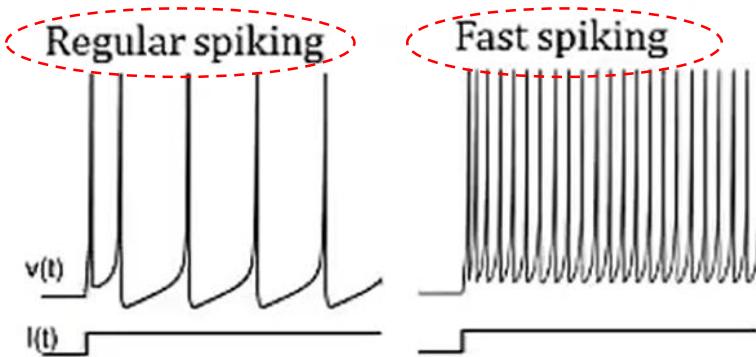


- $a$  sets the time scale of the recovery variable ( $\frac{1}{a}$  is the time constant, so low values of  $a$  correspond to slow recovery)
- $b$  describes the sensitivity of the recovery variable to fluctuations of the membrane potential (large  $b$  causes more increase in  $u$  due to an increase in  $V$ )
- $c$  is the voltage reset value
- $d$  describes the reset of the recovery variable (high values delay repeated spiking)

# Izhikevich “Simple” Model

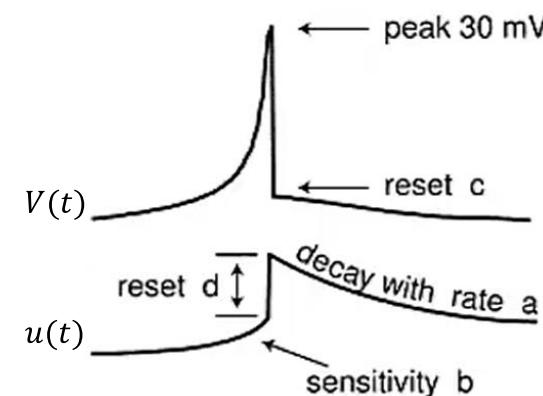
*Practice in HW*

- Examples of neural spiking activity generated by the simplified model (using the 4 parameters):



$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 0.04V^2 + 5V + 140 - u + I(t)$$
$$\frac{du}{dt} = a(-u + bV)$$

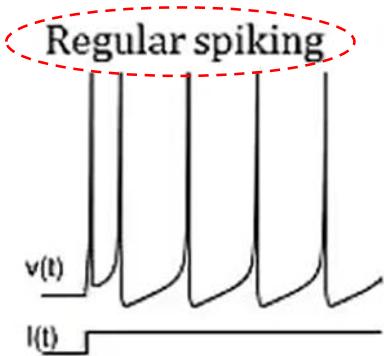
if  $V = 30 \text{ mV}$   
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# Izhikevich “Simple” Model

Practice in HW

- Examples of neural spiking activity generated by the simplified model (using the 4 parameters):



$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 0.04V^2 + 5V + 140 - u + I(t)$$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = a(-u + bV)$$

if  $V = 30 \text{ mV}$

then  $V \rightarrow c$  and  $u \rightarrow u + d$

Base values for the model parameters:

$$a = 0.02, \quad b = 0.2, \quad c = -65, \quad d = 2,$$

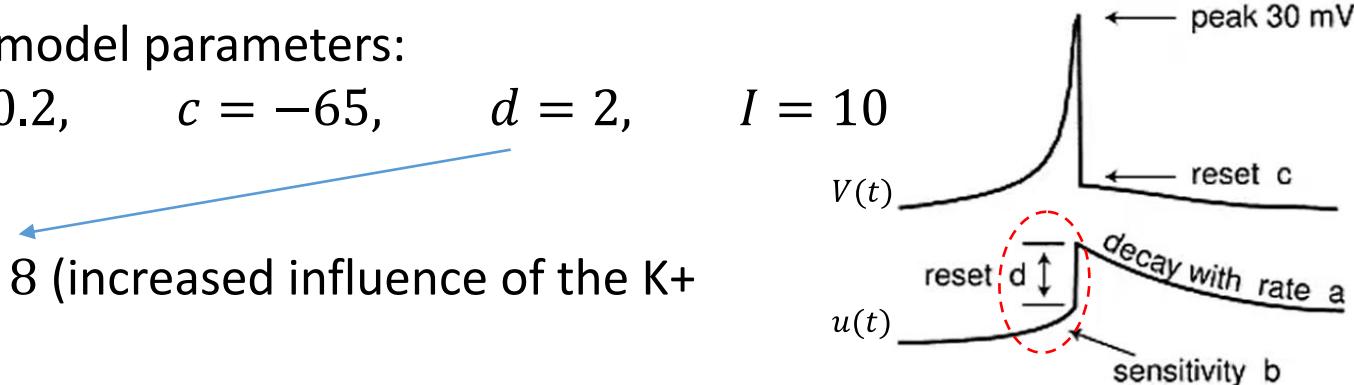
$$I = 10$$

- A high value  $d = 8$  (increased influence of the K<sup>+</sup> channel)

→ **Regular spiking**

(common for excitatory neurons – spiking with fatigue)

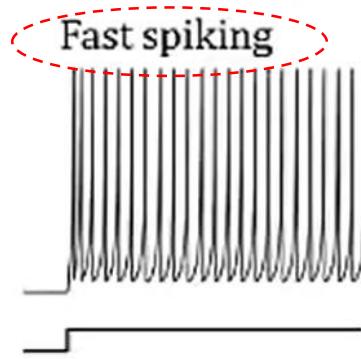
© 2018, D. Izhikevich



# Izhikevich “Simple” Model

Practice in HW

- Examples of neural spiking activity generated by the simplified model (using the 4 parameters):



$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 0.04V^2 + 5V + 140 - u + I(t)$$

$$\frac{du}{dt} = a(-u + bV)$$

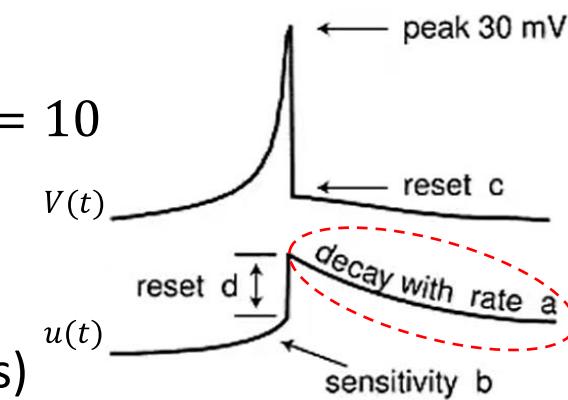
if  $V = 30 \text{ mV}$

then  $V \rightarrow c$  and  $u \rightarrow u + d$

Base values for the model parameters:

$$a = 0.02, \quad b = 0.2, \quad c = -65, \quad d = 2, \quad I = 10$$

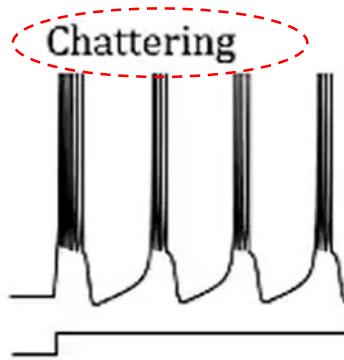
- A high value  $a = 0.1$  (fast closing of the K<sup>+</sup> channel)  
→ **Fast spiking** (common in some inhibitory neurons)



# Izhikevich “Simple” Model

Practice in HW

- Examples of neural spiking activity generated by the simplified model (using the 4 parameters):



$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 0.04V^2 + 5V + 140 - u + I(t)$$

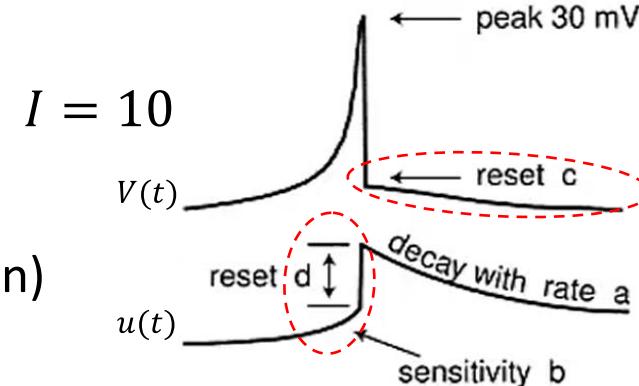
$$\frac{du}{dt} = a(-u + bV)$$

if  $V = 30 \text{ mV}$

then  $V \rightarrow c$  and  $u \rightarrow u + d$

Base values for the model parameters:

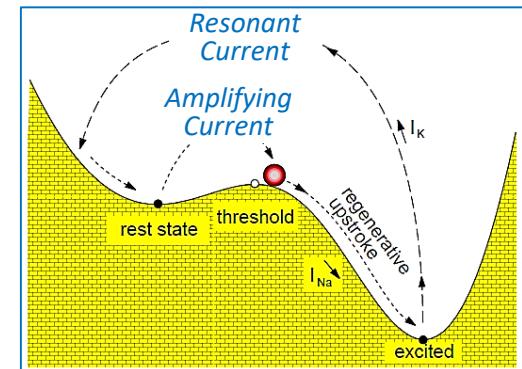
$$a = 0.02, \quad b = 0.2, \quad c = -65, \quad d = 2,$$



- A high value  $c = -50$  (voltage is ready to rise again) and moderate value  $d = 2$  (effect of K<sup>+</sup> channel rapidly ends) → Chattering

# Summary

- The types of currents that flow into and out of the membrane determine neuronal dynamics
- All currents can be divided into two types:
  - **Amplifying (integrating):**  
E.g. persistent Na<sup>+</sup> current  $I_{Na,p}$   
(increase of membrane potential due to Na<sup>+</sup> influx)
  - **Resonant:**  
E.g. persistent K<sup>+</sup> current  $I_K$   
(fast closing of the K<sup>+</sup> channel allows for repeated spiking)
- There are tens of known currents
  - Millions of electrophysiological mechanisms of spike generation
  - Any mechanism must have at least one amplifying and one resonant current



➤ Explore more: **Izhikevich book**

Eugene Izhikevich "Dynamical Systems in Neuroscience", 2010



# Outline

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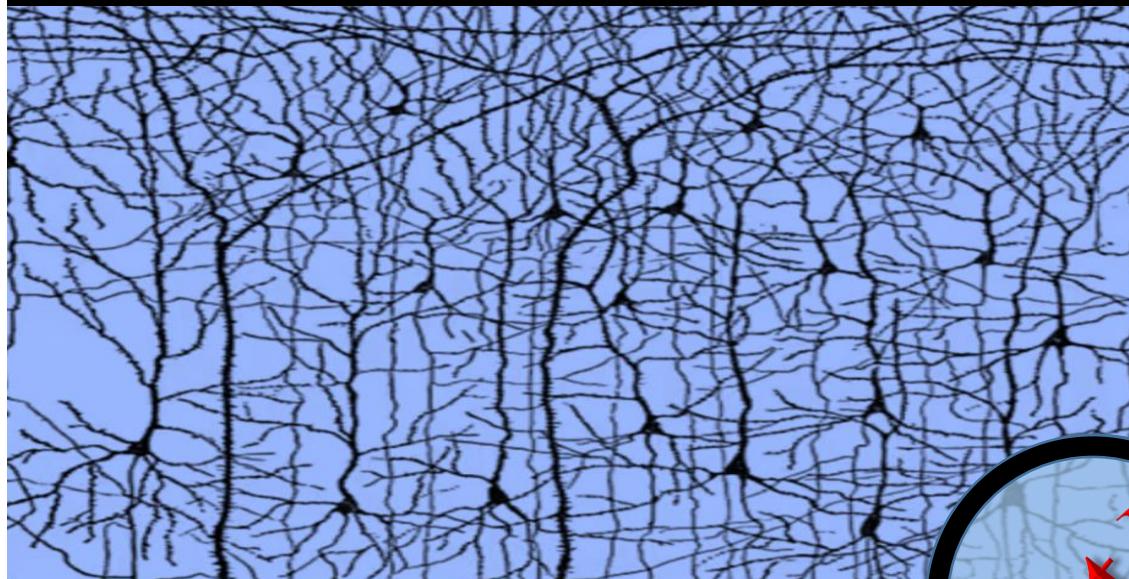
- Sensing & perception
  - Neurons in the brain
  - Visual cortex & receptive fields
  - Vision & perception
- Neurons & spikes
  - Electrical personality of a neuron
  - Ionic channels
  - Action potential
- The Hodgkin-Huxley equation
  - The passive membrane
  - Voltage-gated channels
  - Anatomy of a spike
- Neuronal dynamics
  - Phase portrait models
  - Fixed points and their stability
  - Bifurcation (saddle-node / Hopf)
  - Simplified 2D models

# Next

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## Neuroscience of Learning, Memory, Cognition

### Part I: Neuronal Networks



2

### Network Models

Set  
<sub>Set I</sub>

