

Hodgkin-Huxley Model

Recap

Squid Giant Axon

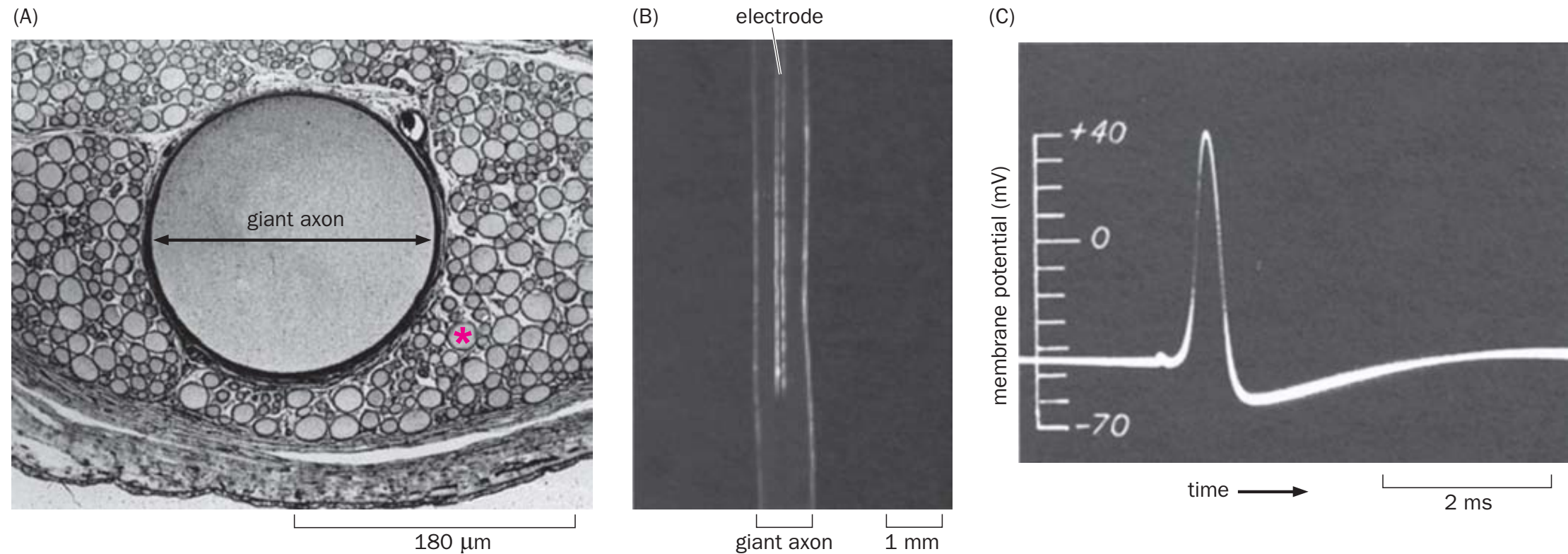
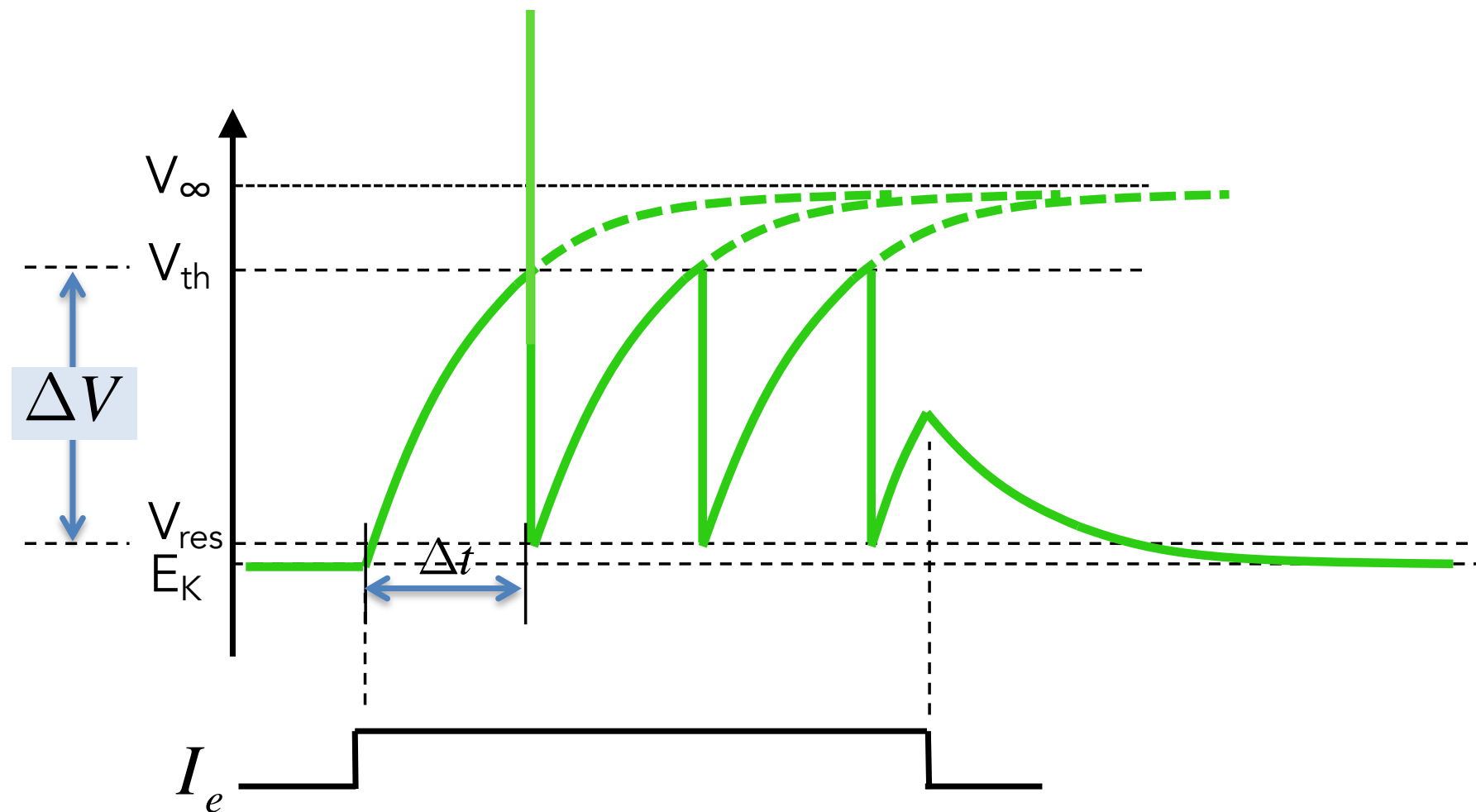


Figure 2-19 Studying action potentials in the squid giant axon. **(A)** Electron micrograph of a cross section of a squid giant axon showing its large diameter (~180 μm for this sample) as compared to neighboring axons (for example, the axon indicated by *). **(B)** Photograph of an electrode inserted inside a squid giant axon whose diameter is close to 1 mm. **(C)** An action potential recorded from the squid giant axon. (A, courtesy of Kay Cooper and Roger Hanlon; B, from Hodgkin AL & Keyes RD [1956] *J Physiol* 131:592–616; C, from Hodgkin AL & Huxley AF [1939] *Nature* 144:710–711. With permission from Macmillan Publishers Ltd.)

Integrate-and-Fire model

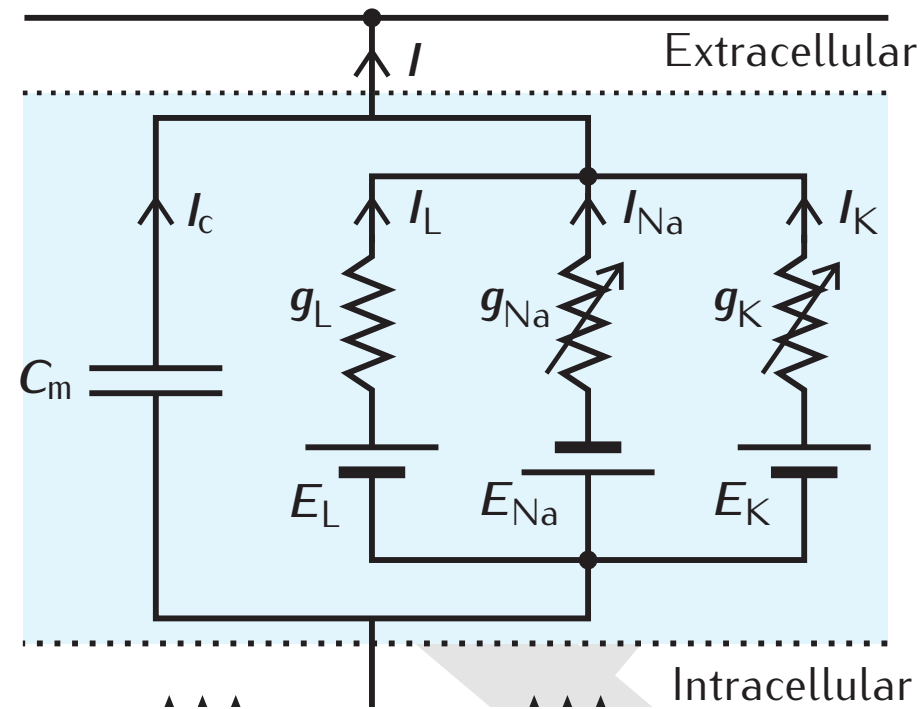


$$C \frac{dV}{dt} = -g(V - E_K) + I_e$$

$$V(t_{spike}^-) = V_{th}$$

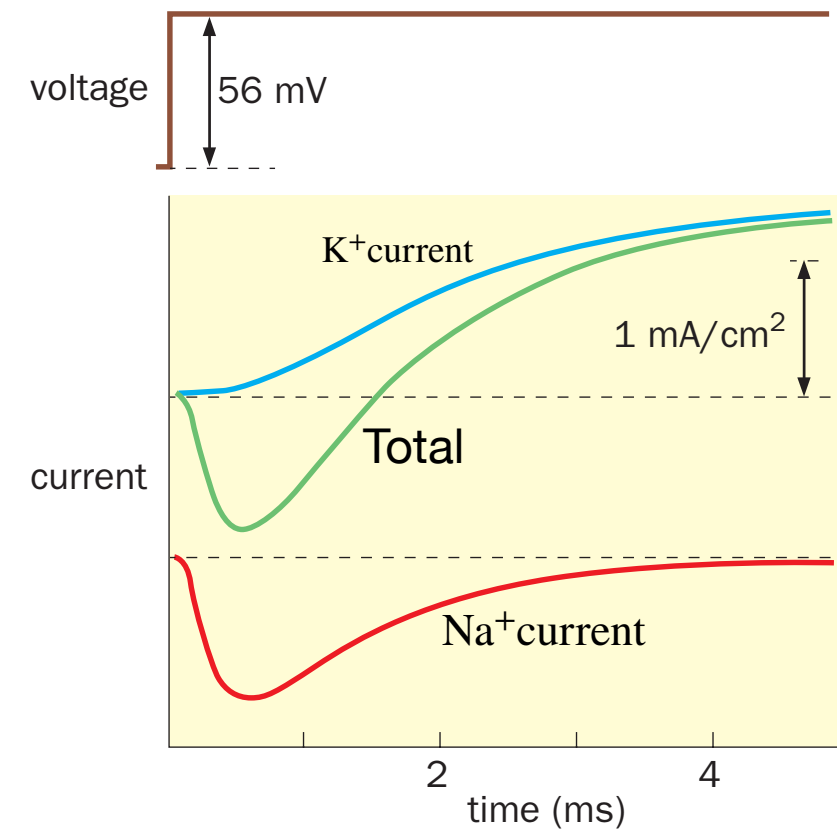
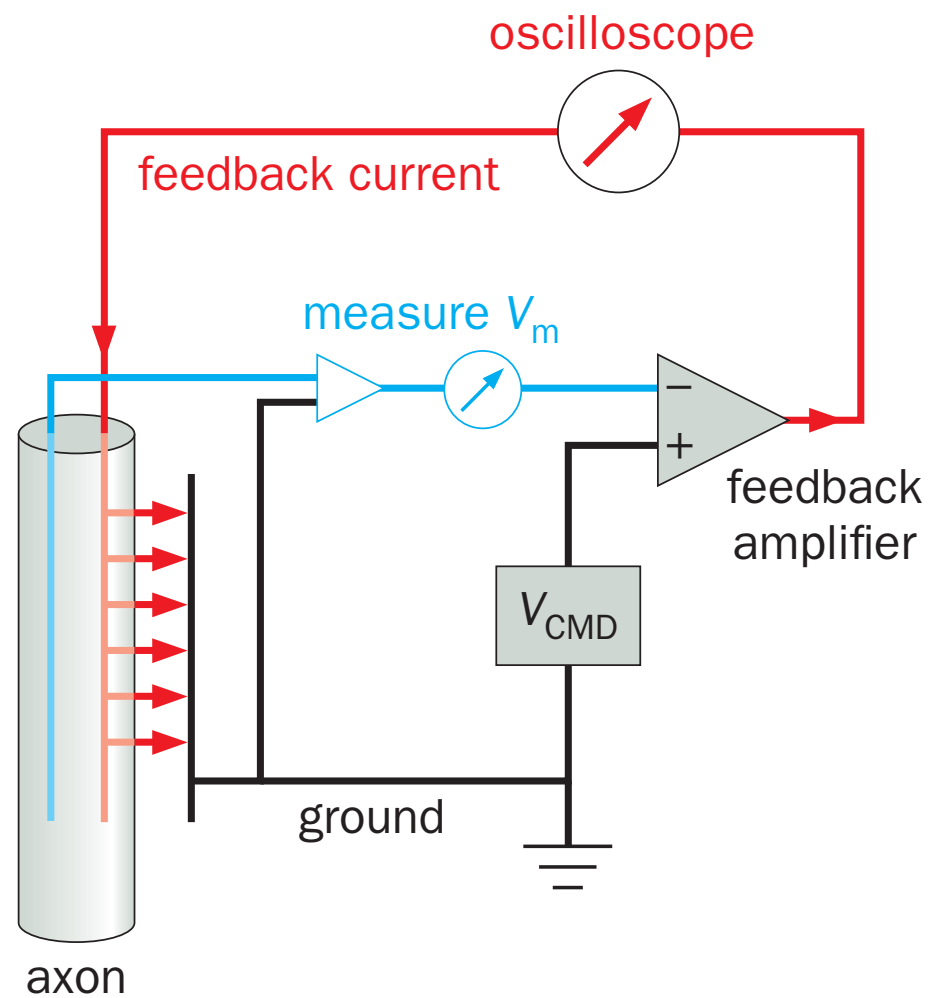
$$V(t_{spike}^+) = V_{res}$$

The Equivalent Electronic Circuit of a Neuron

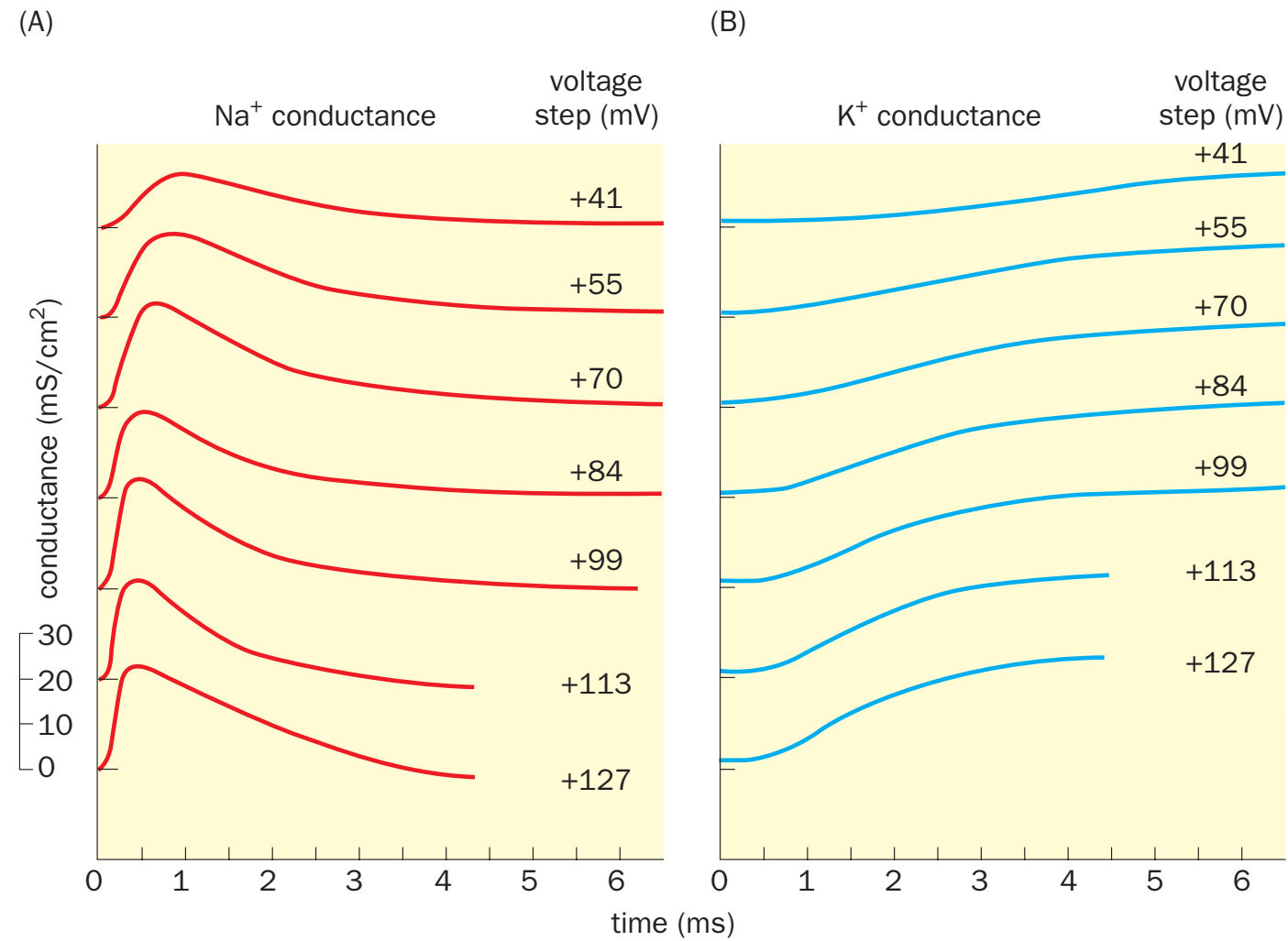


$$C_m \frac{dV}{dt} = - \sum_i g_i(V)(V - E_i) - \bar{g}_L(V - E_L) + I_e$$

Voltage Clamp Recording

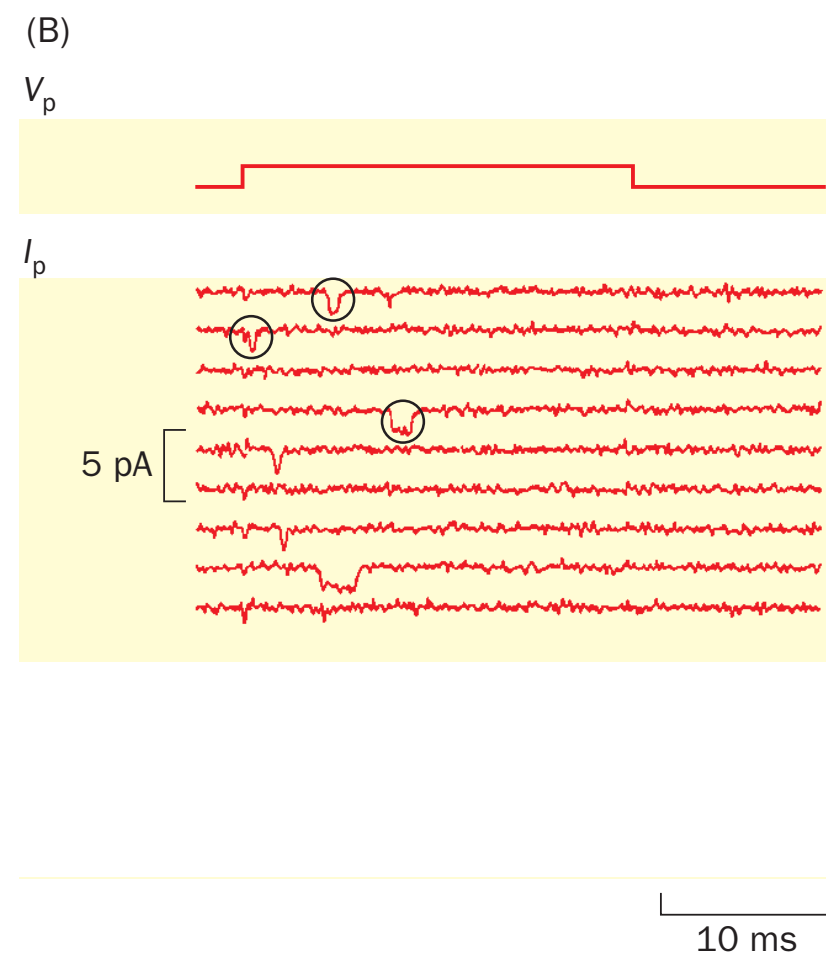
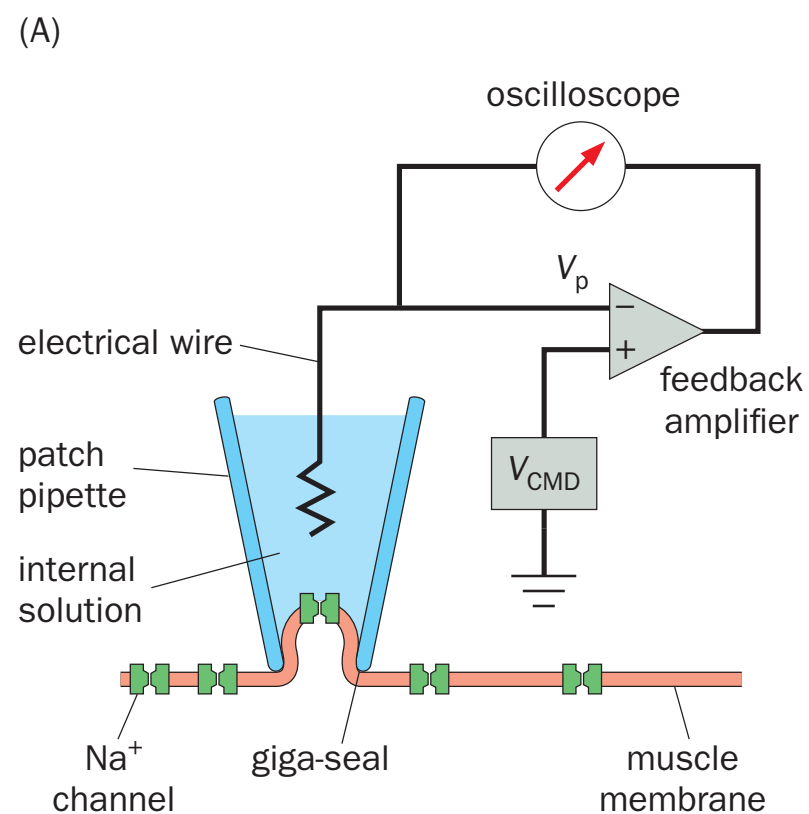


Voltage-gated Conductance

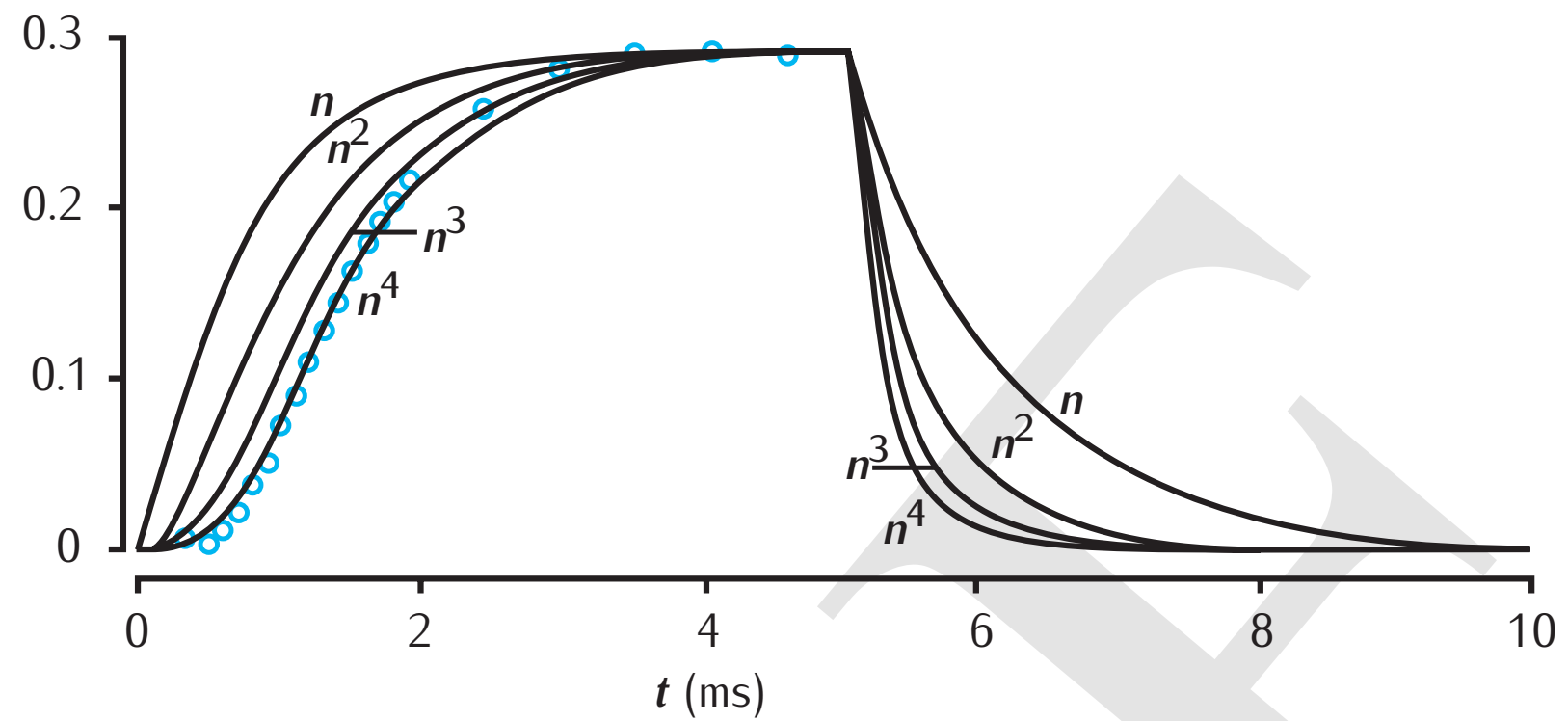


Patch-clamp recording allows the measurement of single channel conductance

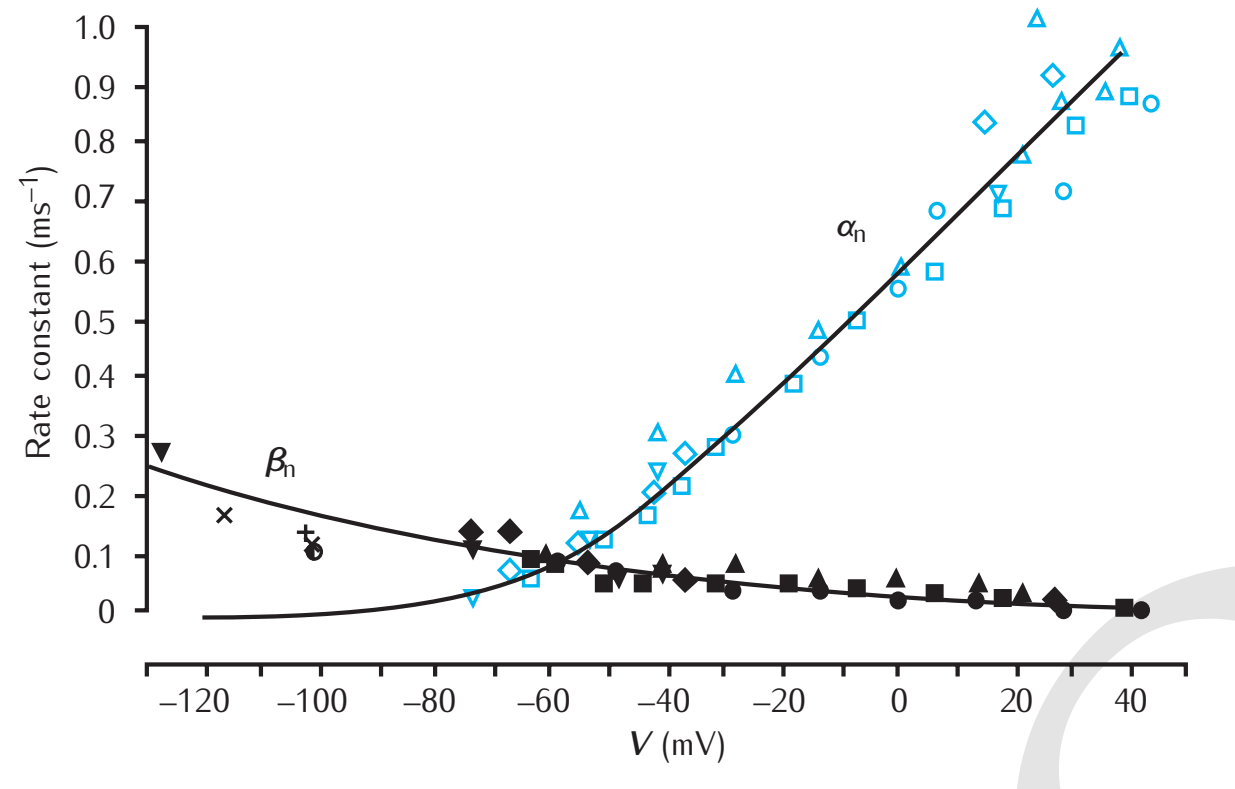
$$g_i = \bar{g}_i P_i(V)$$

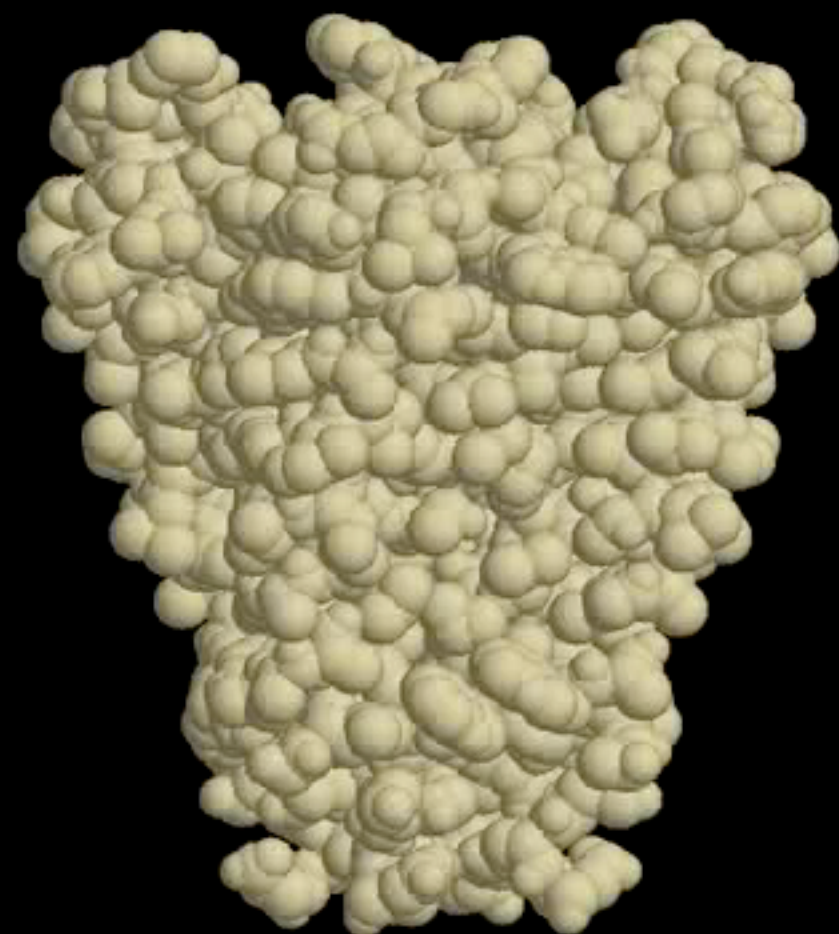


Voltage-gated Conductance of K^+

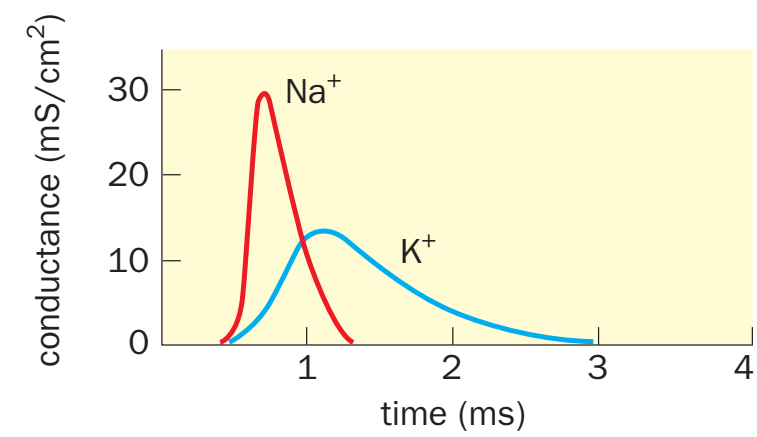
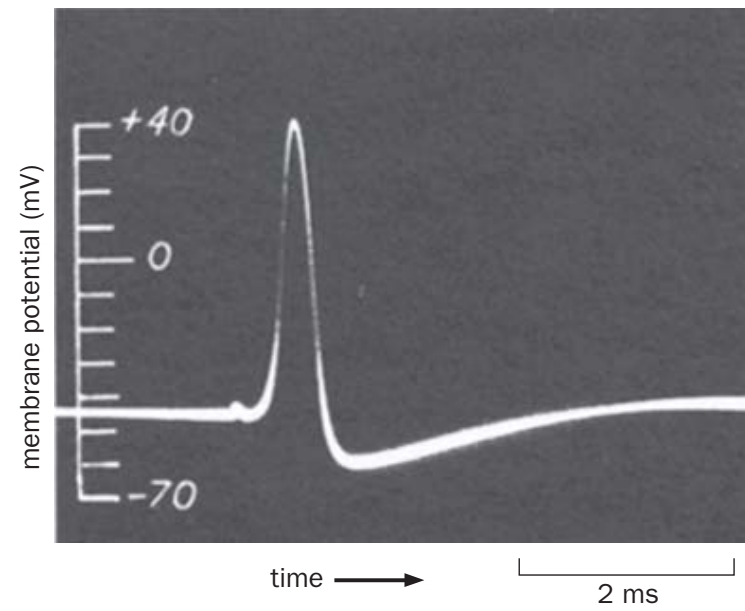


Voltage-gated Conductance of K^+



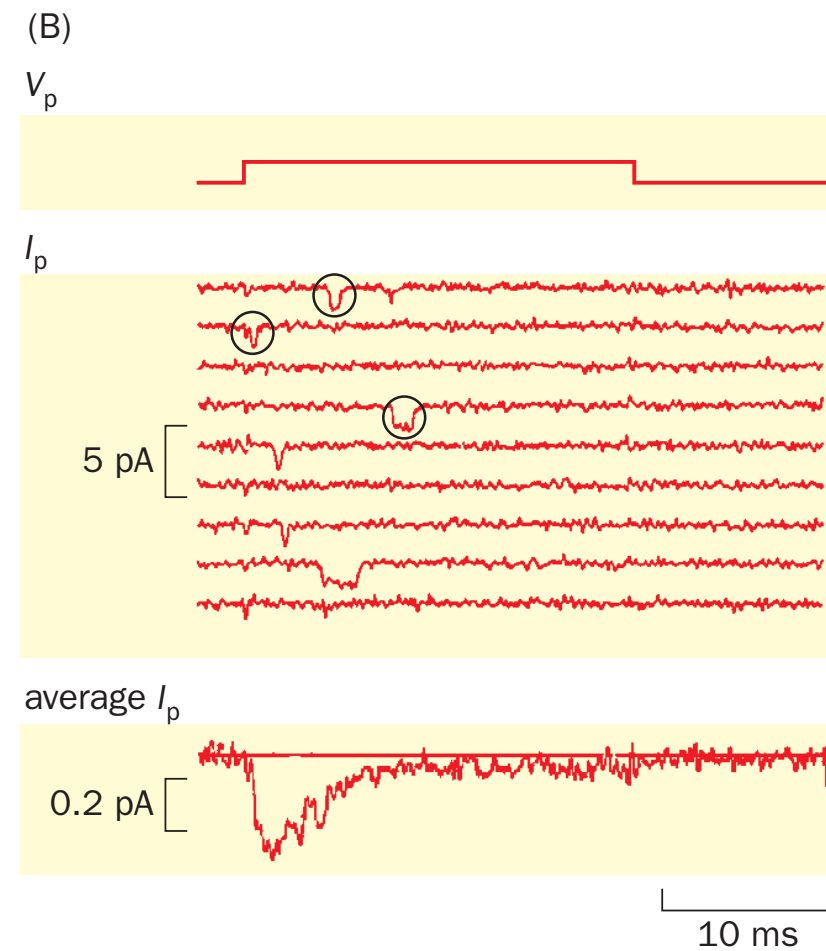
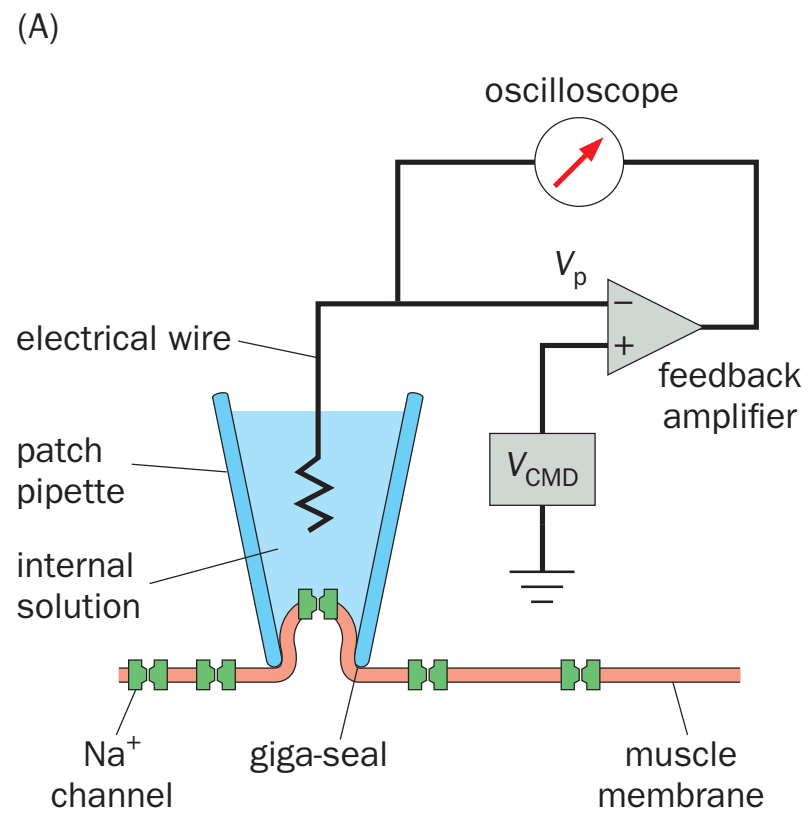


(c)

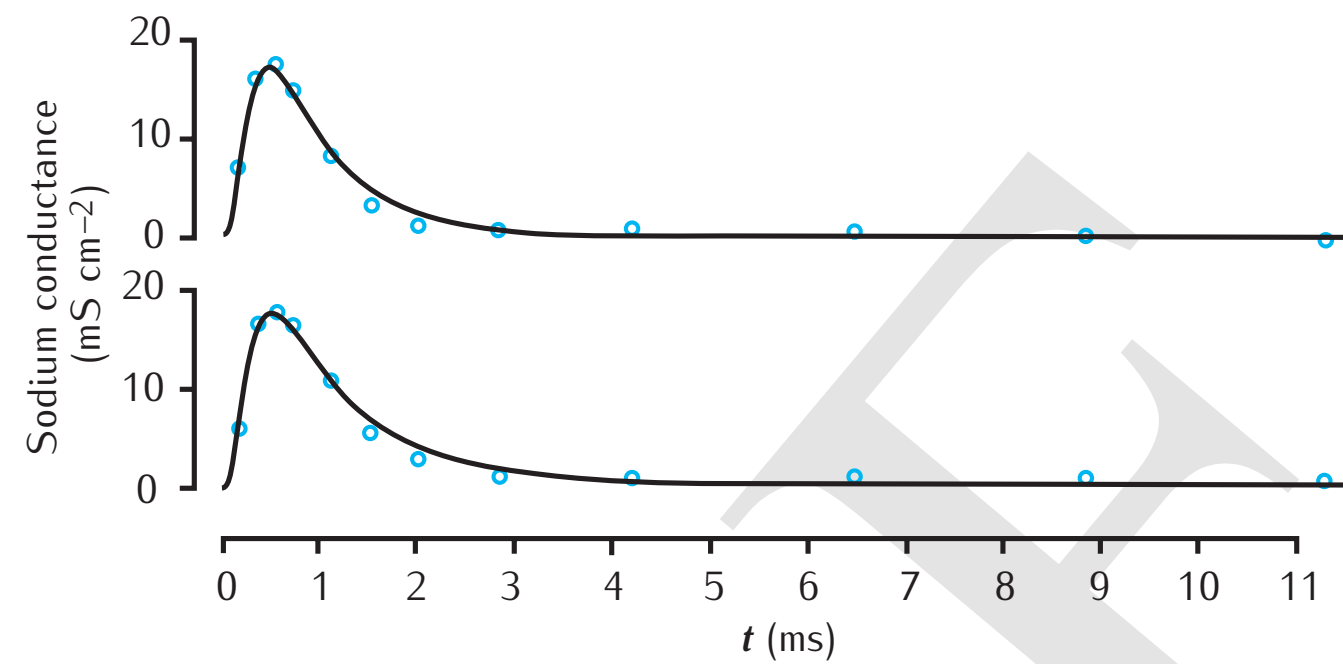


$$C \frac{dV}{dt} = -g_K n^4 (V - E_K) - g_{Na} m^3 h (V - E_{Na}) - g_L (V - E_L) - I_e$$

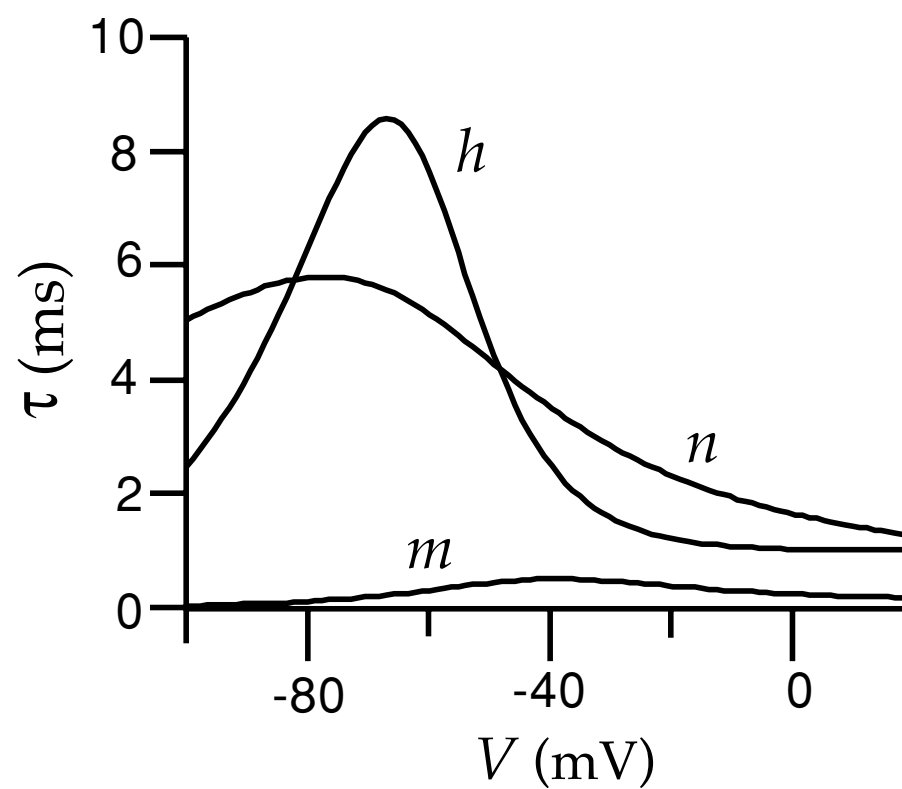
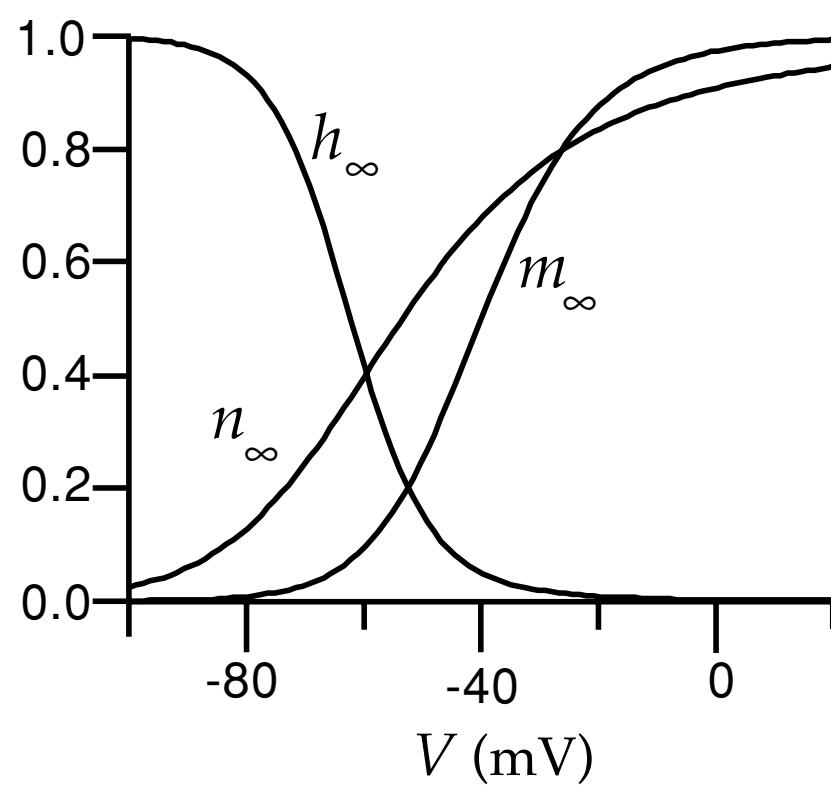
Transient Na^+ channel conductance



Transient Na⁺ channel conductance



Transient Na⁺ channel conductance



A simplified two-dimensional model

$$C_m \frac{dV}{dt} = -\bar{g}_K n(V - E_K) - \bar{g}_{Na} m_\infty(V)(V - E_{Na}) - \bar{g}_L(V - E_L) + I_e$$

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

Fix Point on one dimension

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

$$F(V^*) = 0$$

Fix Point in high dimensions

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_\infty) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t)) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_\infty) + \mathbf{J}\epsilon(t),$$

$$J_{ij} = \frac{\partial f_i(x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_N)}{\partial x_j}$$

$$\frac{d\epsilon}{dt} = \mathbf{J}\epsilon$$

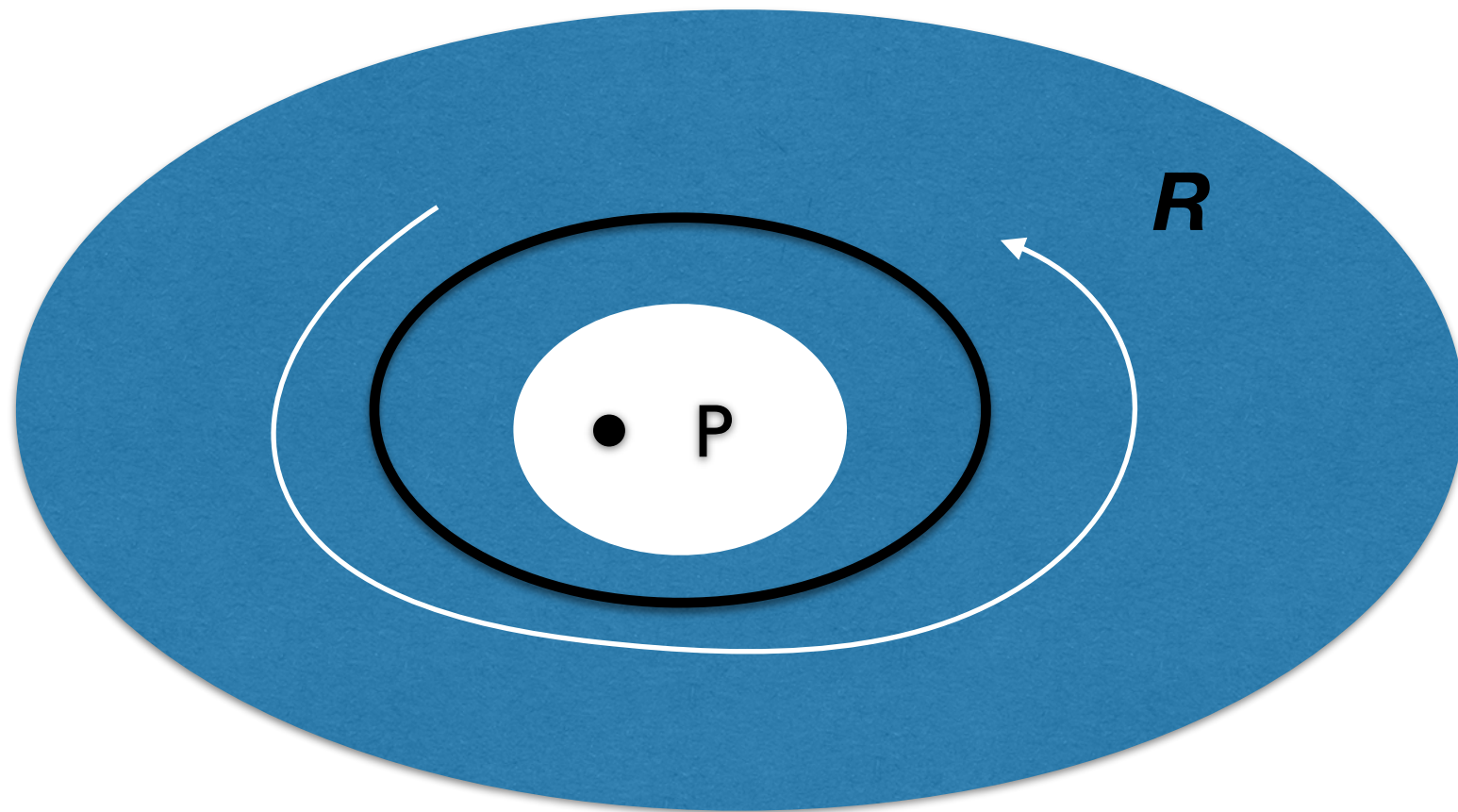
An example, fix point in two dimensions...

Poincare-Bendixson Theorem (2D)

- R is a closed, bounded subset of the plane;
- $\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ is a continuously differentiable vector field on an open set containing R ;
- R does not contain any fixed points; and
- There exists a trajectory C that is “confined” in R , in the sense that it starts in R and stays in R for all future time

Then either C is a closed orbit, or it spirals toward a closed orbit at $t \rightarrow \infty$. In either case, R contains a closed orbit.

Poincare-Bendixson Theorem (2D)



Fixed points and stability

Global stability: starting from **any** initial condition

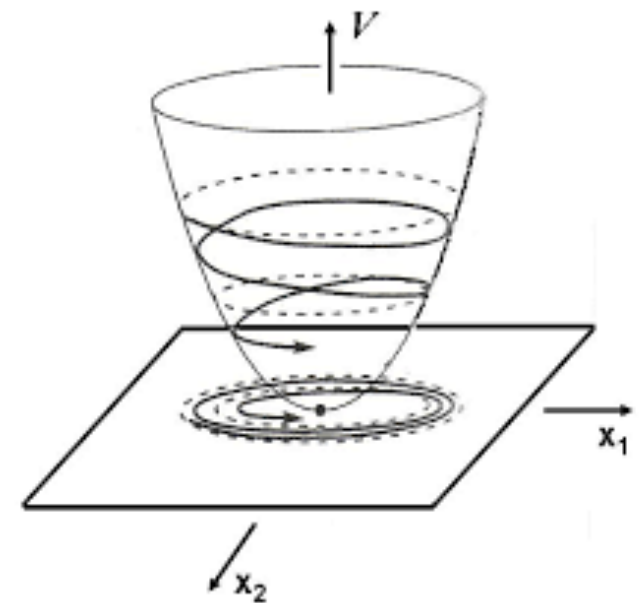
$$\frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{u})$$

Lyapunov function $V(u)$

$V(u) \geq V_0$, has a lower bound

$$\frac{d}{dt}V(u(t)) \leq 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}V(u(t)) = 0 \Rightarrow \nabla V(u) = 0$$



Theorem: If there exists a Lyapunov function, the system is (globally) stable where the trajectory will converge to one of the extrema of $V(u)$.

An example

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -x + 4y$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -x - y^3$$

Consider $V(x, y) = x^2 + \alpha y^2$

$$\dot{V} = 2x\dot{x} + 2\alpha y\dot{y} = 2x(-x + 4y) + 2\alpha y(-x - y^3)$$