

Synaptic Transmission

N500, 30 Aug., 2015

- Otto Loewi's experiments
- Bernard Katz's experiments
- Quantal analysis
- Synaptic transmission
- Synaptic reversal potentials
- Gap junctions

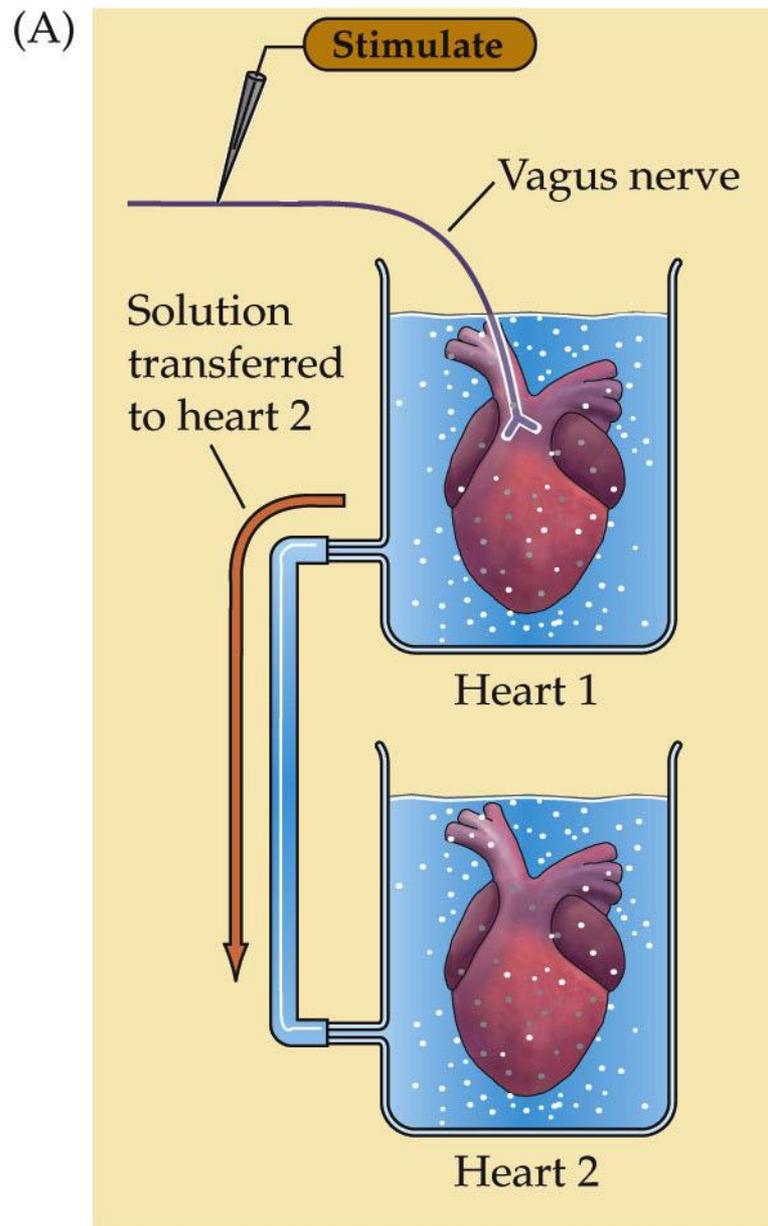
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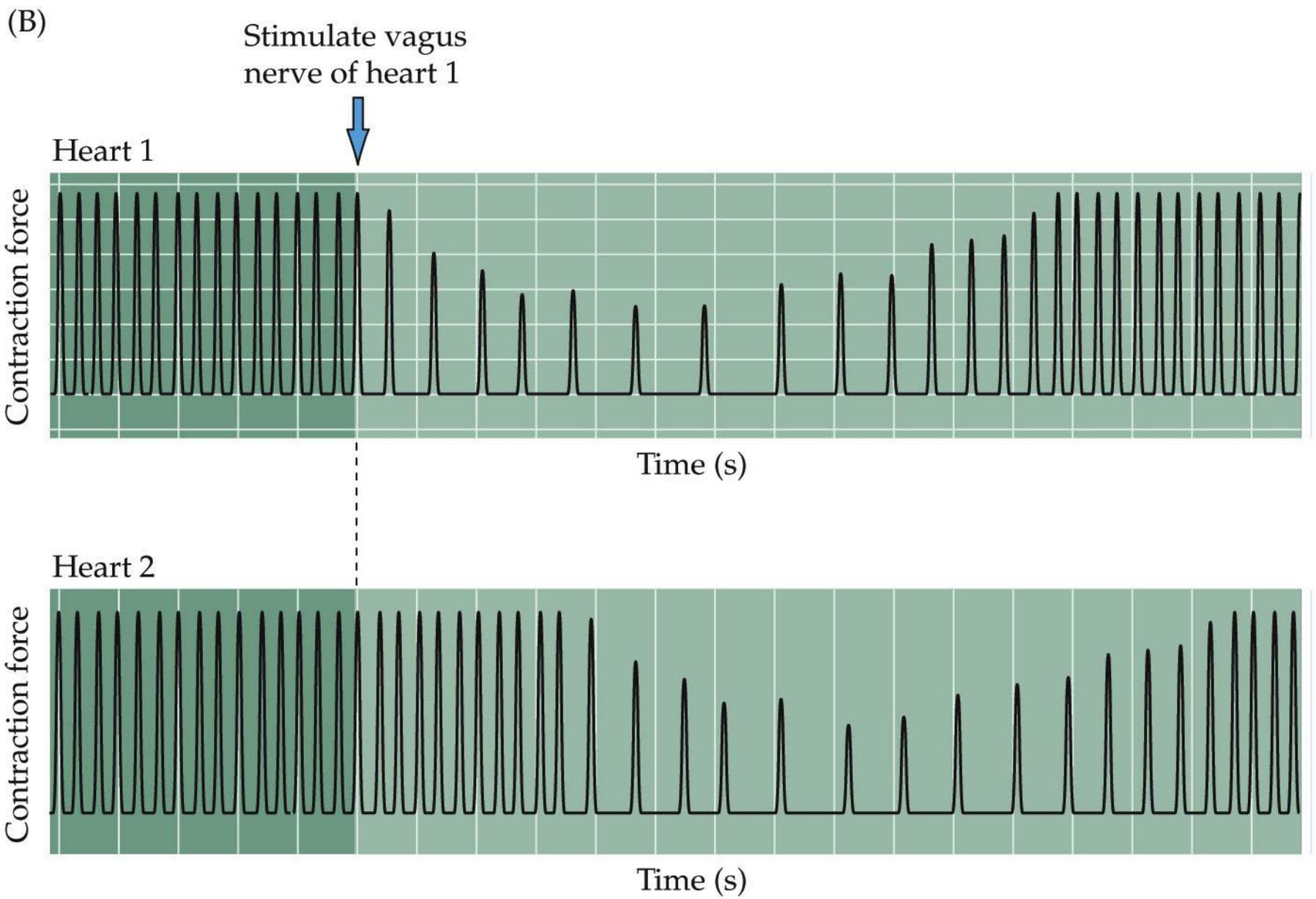


Otto Loewi 1873 - 1961

Is transmission
chemical?

If so, how could
this be tested?





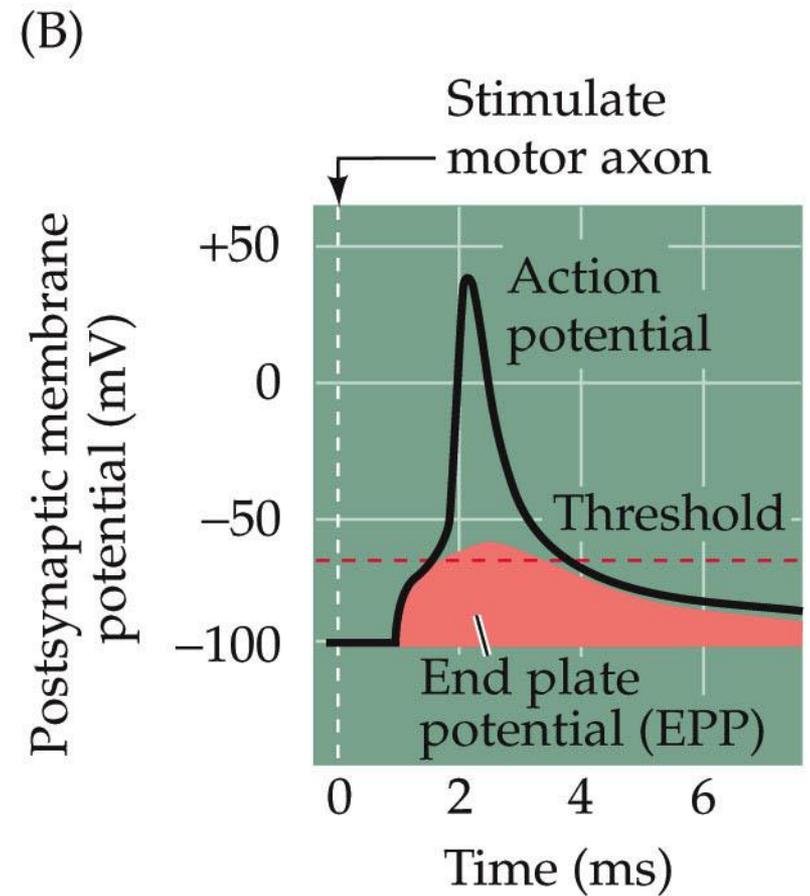
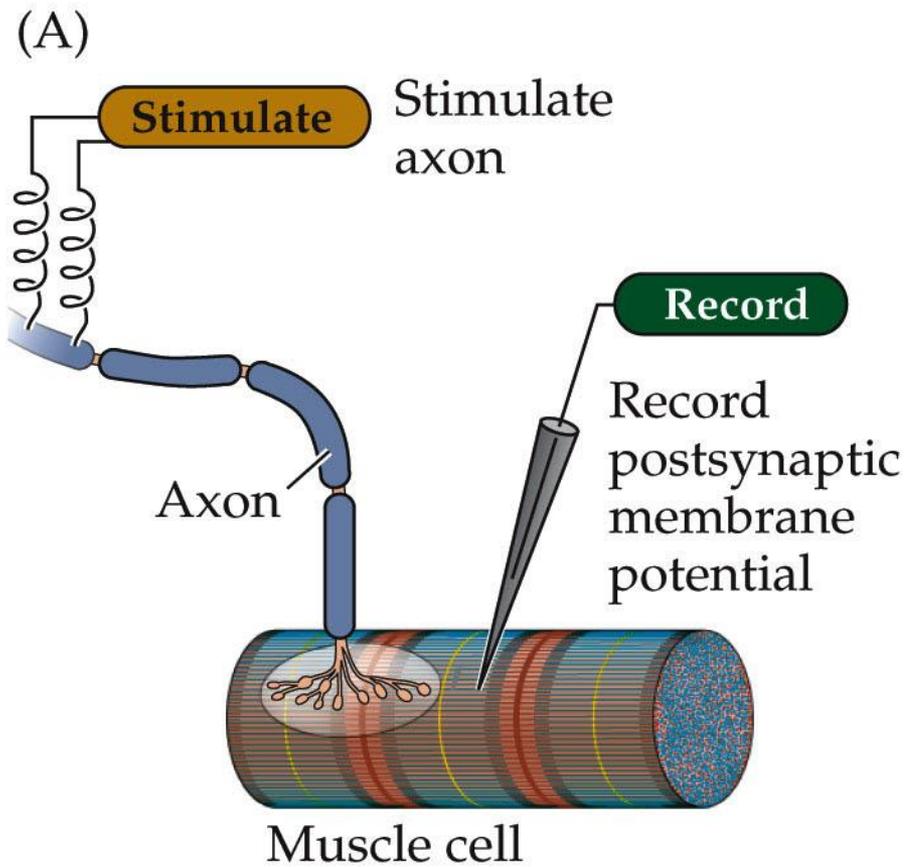
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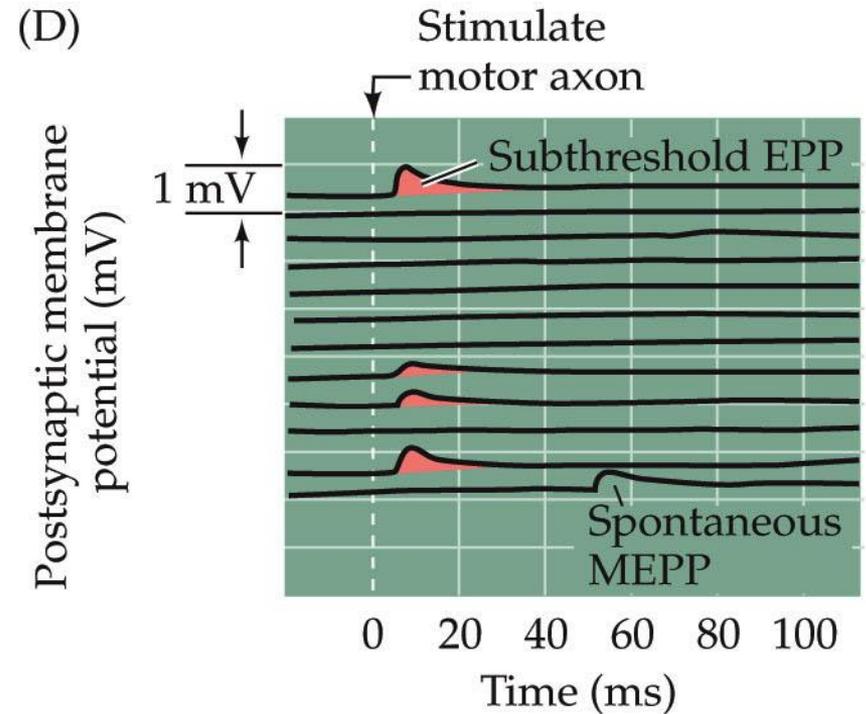
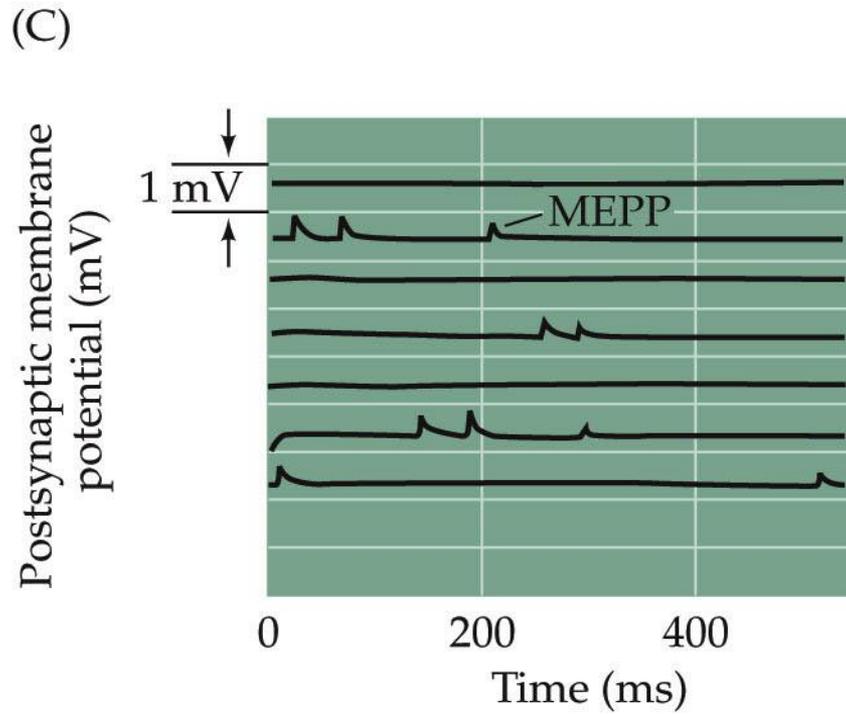


Bernard Katz 1911 - 2003

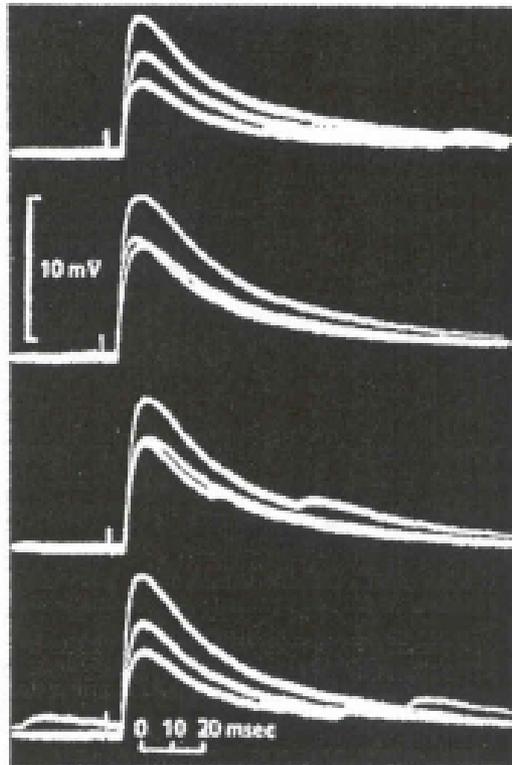
How is chemical
transmission
accomplished?

Are there packets
of transmitter
molecules?



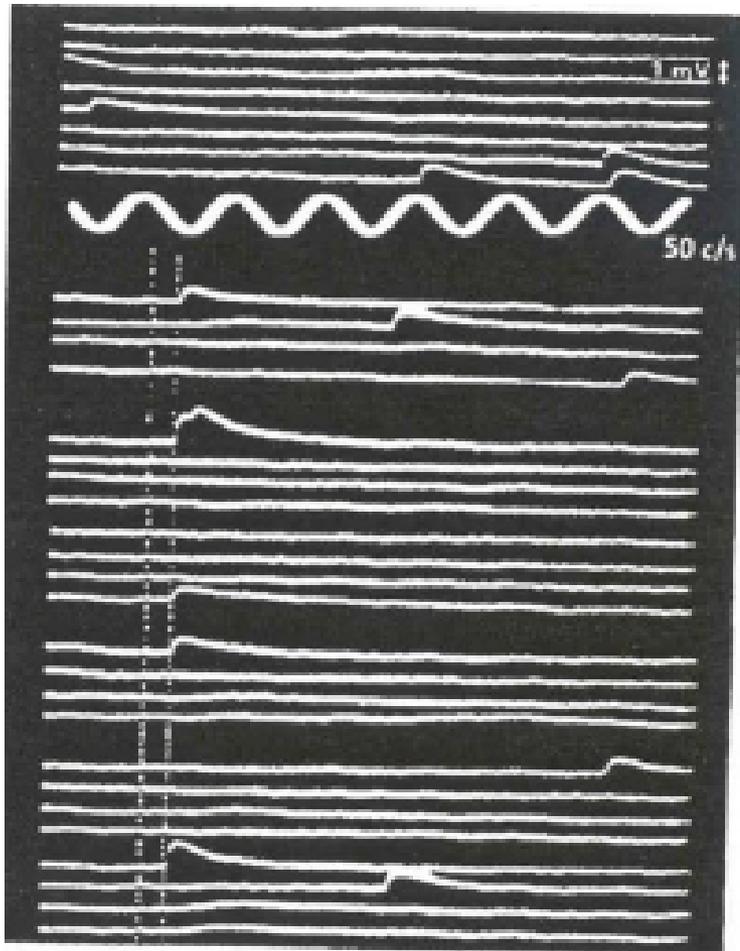


Endplate potentials in normal Ca^{2+} , elevated (10 mM) Mg^{2+}



- Responses now smaller, subthreshold
- Varied amplitude of evoked response apparent
- Occasional spontaneous waveforms (less varied)

Endplate potentials in low Ca^{2+} (0.9 mM), elevated (10 mM) Mg^{2+}



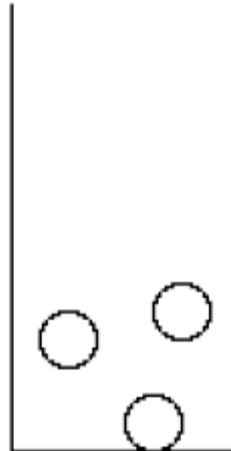
- Persistence of spontaneous “miniature” EPPs (mEPPs)
- Smaller average evoked EPP, with emergence of transmission failures
- Smallest EPPs were similar in amplitude to mEPPs.

Katz's “quantal hypothesis”

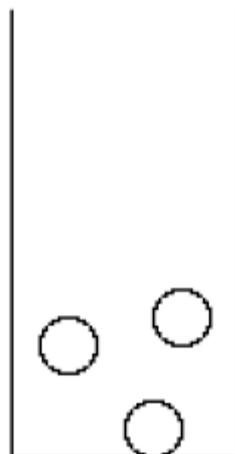
1. The quantum of transmitter underlying the smallest nerve-evoked EPP and the spontaneous MEPP are one and the same;
2. The release of each quantum of neurotransmitter is independent of the release of other quanta and occurs with a very low statistical probability (i.e. random);
3. The evoked EPP is caused by the synchronous release of several quanta, due to a transient and large increase in the probability of release of individual quanta.

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quantal content = $m = n * p$

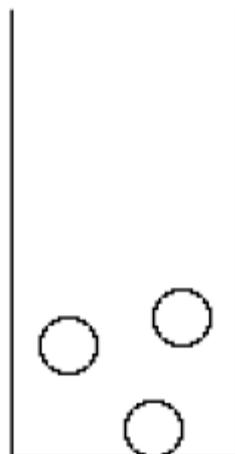


$n = 3$
 $p = 0.1$
 $m = 0.3$



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 $m = 0.3$

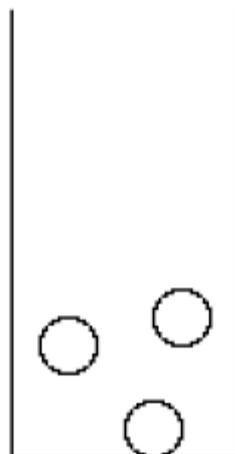
$$P(3) = p \cdot p \cdot p = p^3 \quad (= 0.001)$$



n = 3
p = 0.1
m = 0.3

$$P(3) = p \cdot p \cdot p = p^3 \quad (= 0.001)$$

$$P(0) = (1-p) \cdot (1-p) \cdot (1-p) = q \cdot q \cdot q = q^3 \quad (= 0.729)$$



n = 3
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$$P(3) = p \cdot p \cdot p = p^3 \quad (= 0.001)$$

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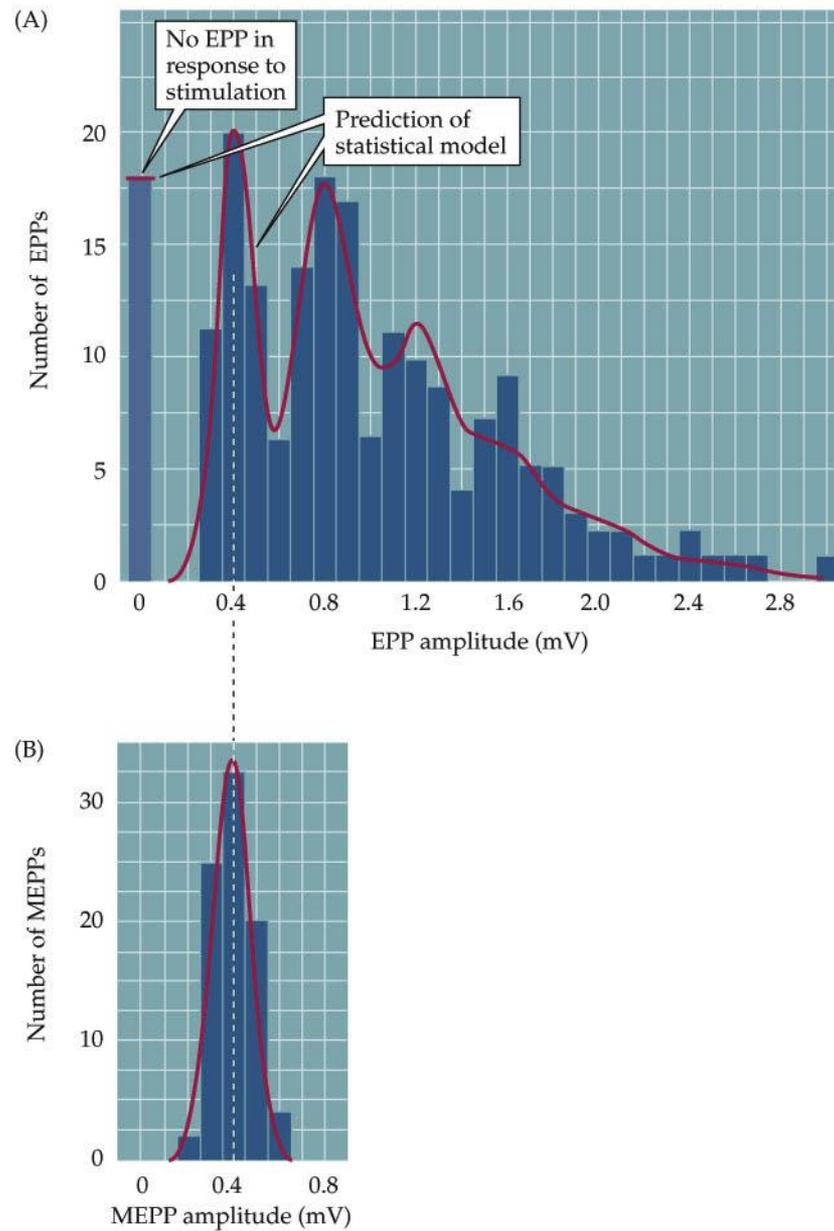
$$P(0) = (1-p).(1-p).(1-p) = q.q.q = q^3 (= 0.729)$$

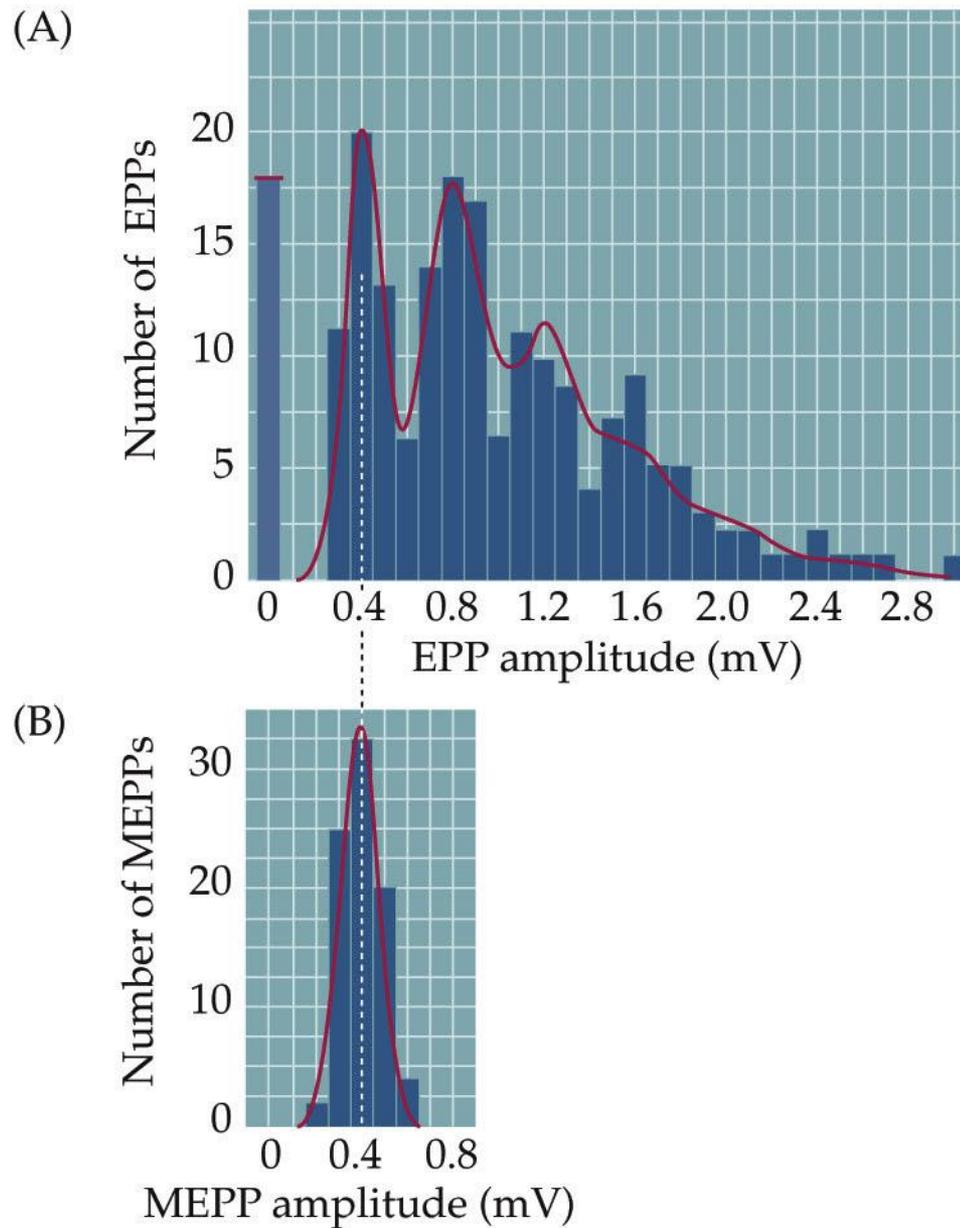
$$P(1) = p.q.q + p.q.q + p.q.q = 3 p.q^2 (= 0.243)$$

$$P(2) = p.p.q + p.p.q + p.p.q = 3 p^2.q (=0.027)$$

$$P(3) = p.p.p = p^3 (= 0.001)$$

Figure 5.7 Quantized distribution of EPP amplitudes evoked in a low Ca^{2+} solution





Quantal hypothesis (part 1)

- mEPP represents quantal unit
- Evoked EPPs represent integer multiples of this quantal unit.
- If so, mean number of quanta released equals mean EPP/mean mEPP
- $m_d = V_{avg}/q_{avg}$
 - m avg. # quanta released by AP, or *quantal content*
 - V_{avg} is avg. EPP
 - q is quantal size (avg)
- This is the direct method of calculating quantal content (m).

Quantal hypothesis (part 2)

- Failures and variability in EPP amplitude implied *probabilistic* nature of transmission
- Statistical models might be applied to quantitatively describe transmission
- Katz et al. considered models in which there were n quanta available for release with probability p .
- One special case that accounts for situations where n is very large, p very small: Poisson statistics.

1st test of Poisson model: method of failures

$$P(x) = \frac{m^x e^{-m}}{x!}$$

When $x = 0$

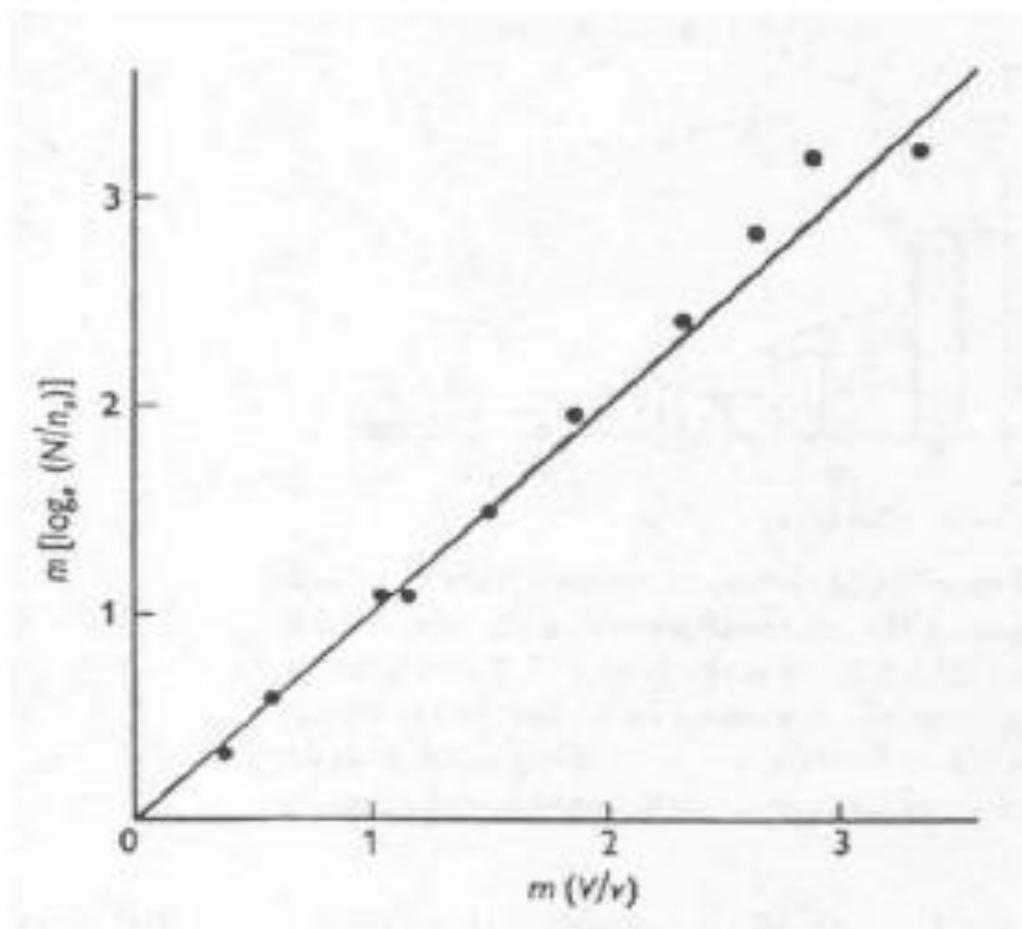
$$m_f = \ln\left(\frac{N}{N_0}\right)$$

N = # trials,

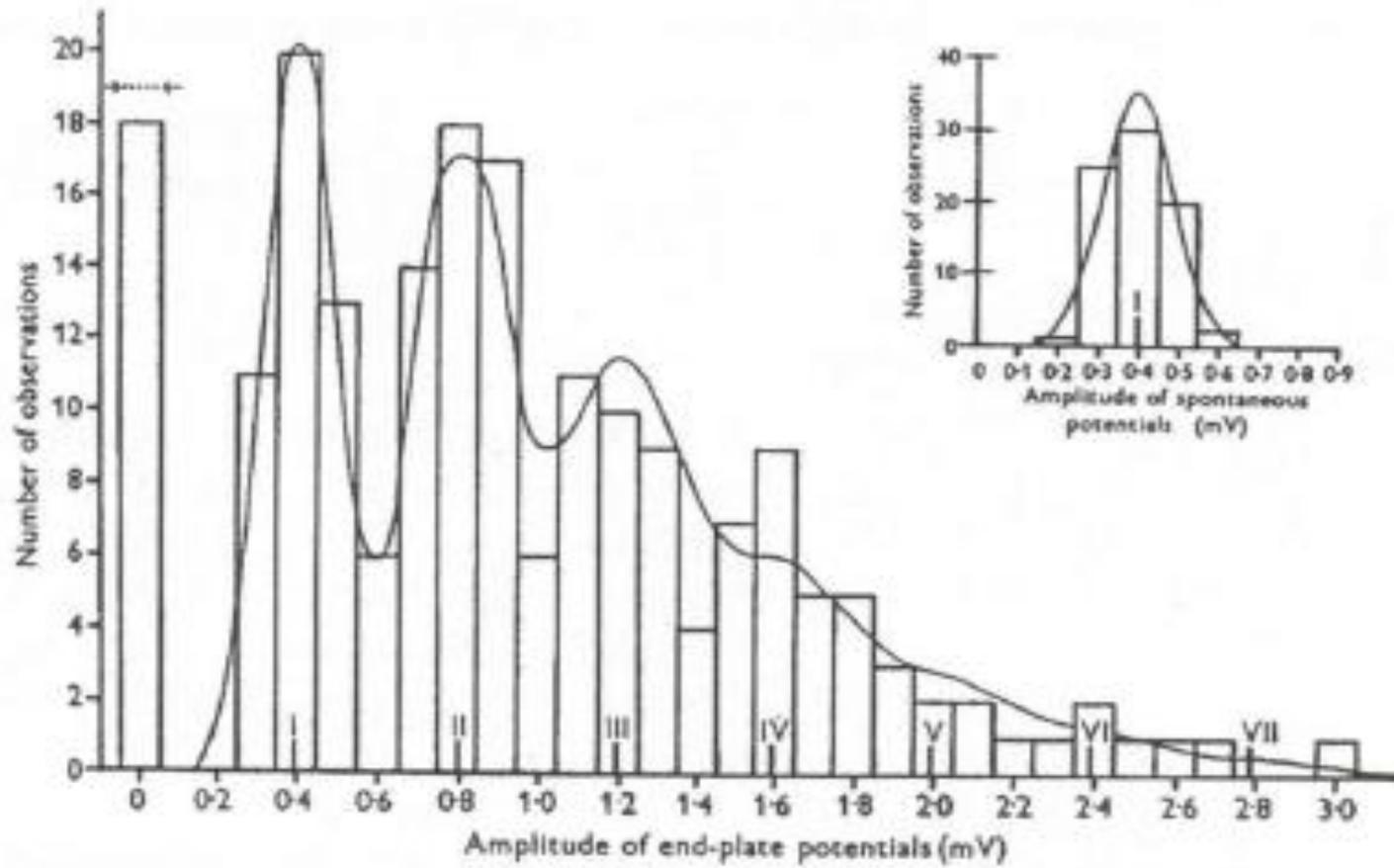
N_0 = # trials where failure occurred

Prediction: $m_f = m_d$

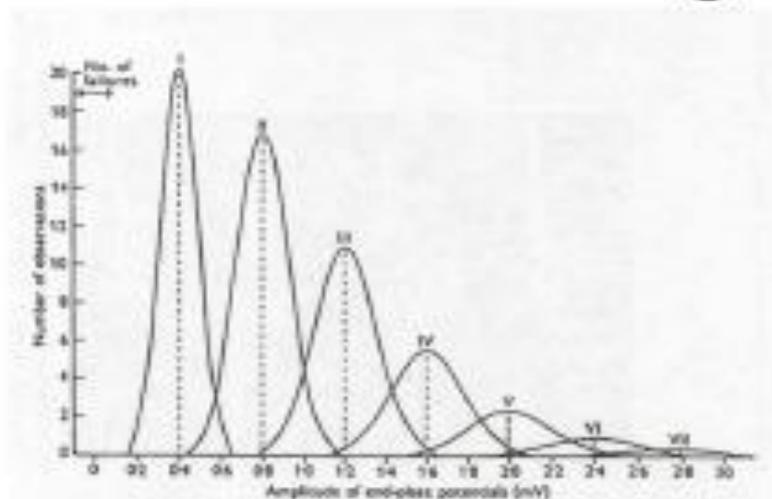
Correspondence between m_f and m_d



2nd test of Poisson model: histogram fitting



Histogram fitting



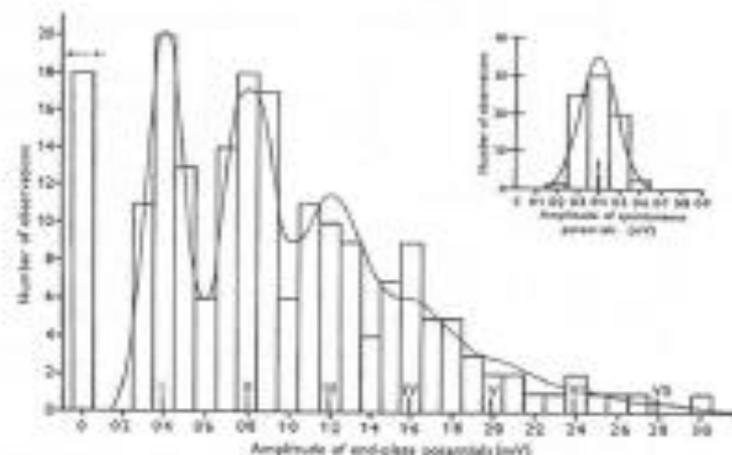
Predictions of Poisson model

$$N_0 = N e^{-m}$$

$$N_1 = (m e^{-m}) N = m N_0$$

$$N_2 = \frac{m^2 e^{-m}}{2} N = \frac{m}{2} N_1$$

$$N_3 = \frac{m^3 e^{-m}}{6} N = \frac{m}{3} N_2$$



Observations (bars)

Sum of predictions (line)

A final test Poisson model: coefficient of variation

- For Poisson distribution mean = variance

- $A = \sigma_a^2$; $m = \sigma_m^2$

- A = amplitude of evoked response

- m = quantal content

- σ^2 = variance

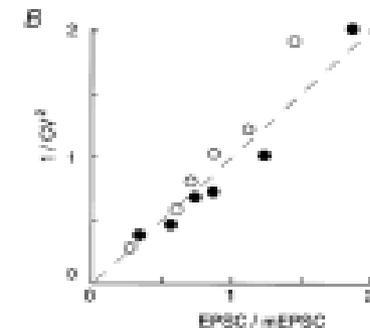
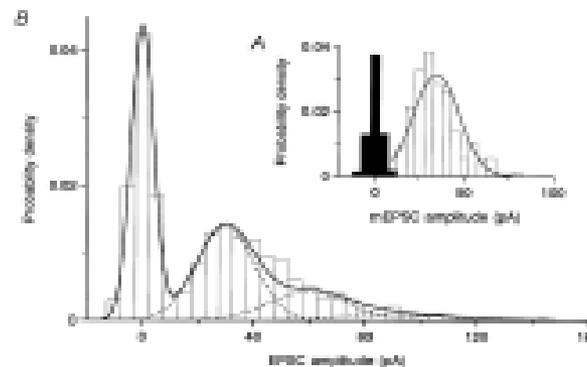
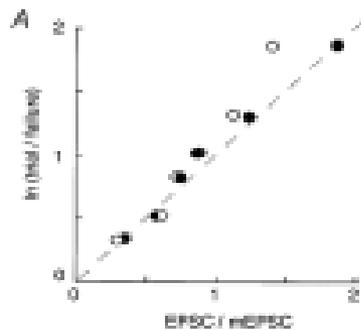
$$CV = \frac{\sigma}{m} = \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}$$

- $m = 1/CV^2$

- Prediction $1/CV^2 = m_d$

- Castillo and Katz found that this prediction also was met

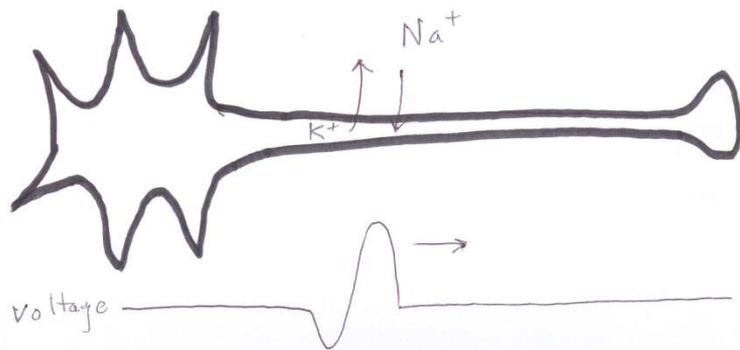
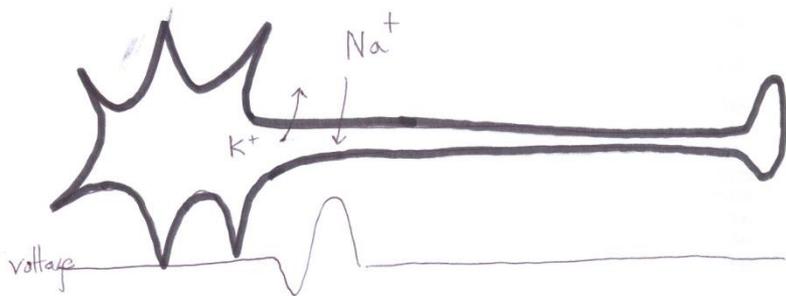
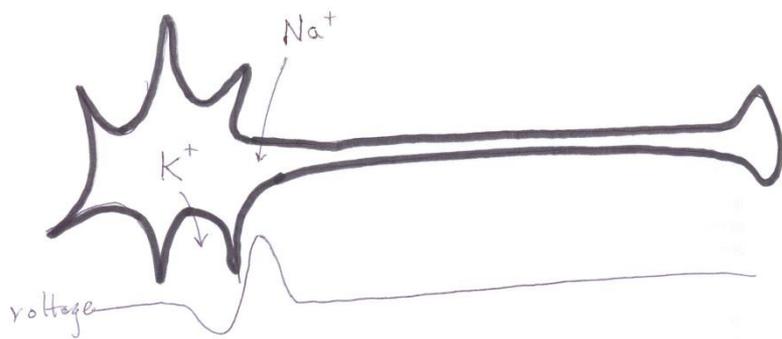
Transmitter release obeys Poisson statistics at a central synapse



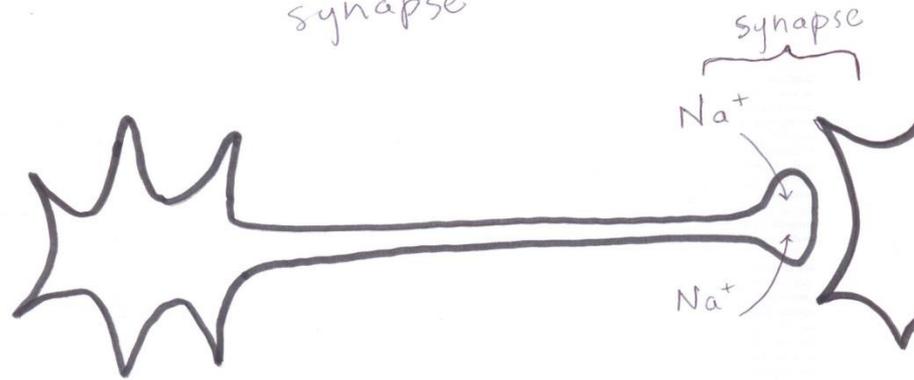
Sahara and Takahashi (2001) J Physiol 536: 189

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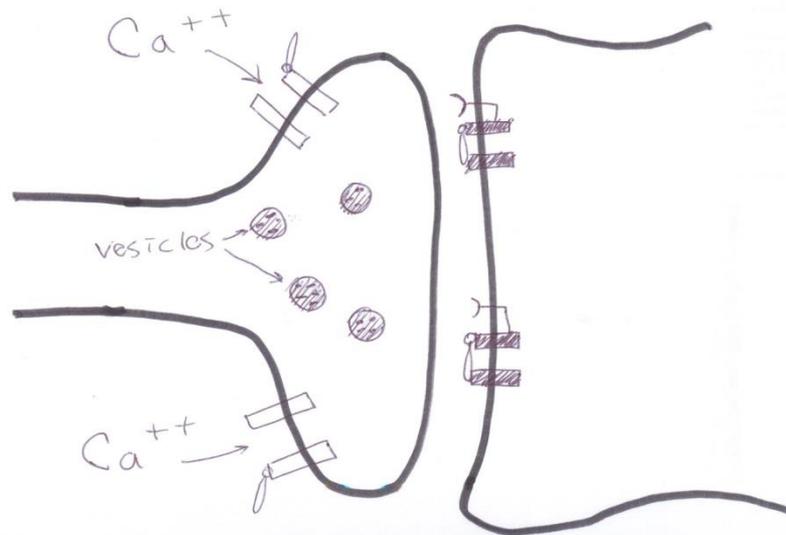
How voltage pulses travel



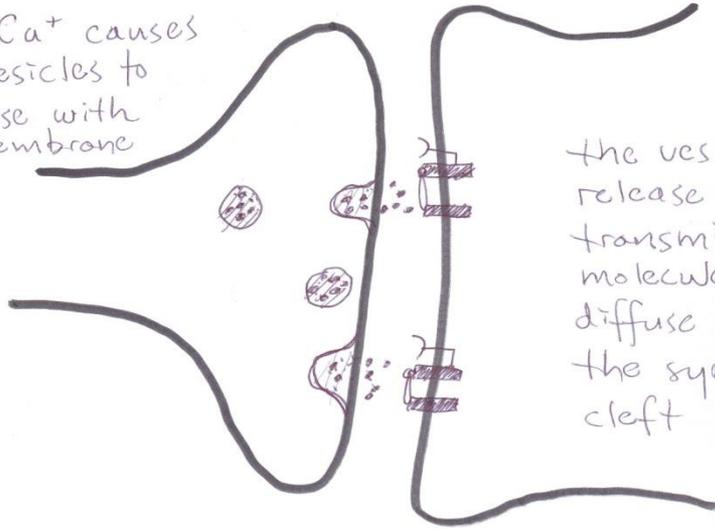
How a pulse travels across a synapse



voltage-gated channels open, letting in Ca⁺⁺

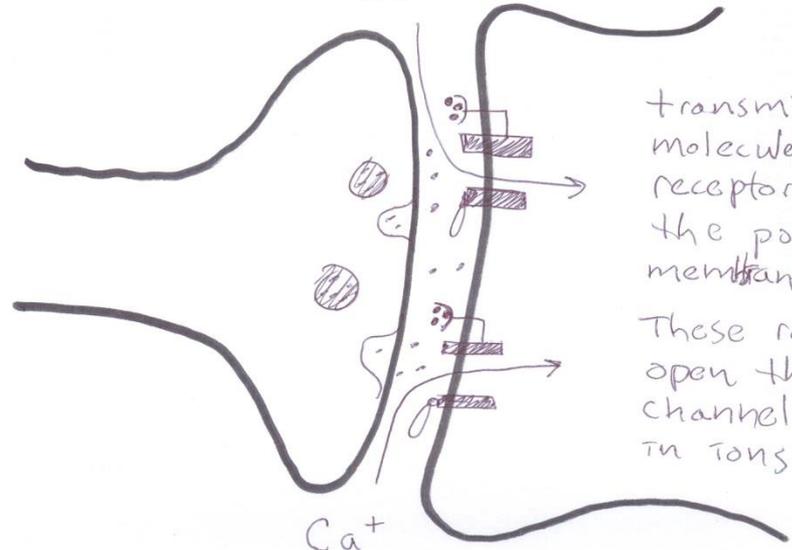


Ca⁺ causes vesicles to fuse with membrane



the vesicles release transmitter molecules that diffuse across the synaptic cleft

Ca⁺



transmitter molecules reach receptors on the postsynaptic membrane.

These receptors open the channels, letting in ions.

Ca⁺

- Two major types of synapses
 - Electrical
 - Chemical
- Chemical Synapses
 - Specialized neuroanatomy to support it.
 - Typical synapse in mammalian brain is very small ($< 1 \text{ } \mu\text{m}^2$)
 - Neurons have large numbers of synapses: 5-10 K for small neurons, as many as 100 K for large neurons.
 - Axons branch, taper, and form synaptic boutons: presynaptic terminals, postsynaptic density, synaptic cleft which separates them (20-40 nm)
- Neurotransmitter release
 - Ca^{2+} -dependent release of packets of neurotransmitter, packaged into vesicles.
- Two categories of chemical synaptic transmission
 - Ionotropic: fast, local channel-mediated changes in membrane potential (EPSPs, IPSPs)
 - Metabotropic: slow, G-protein- and second-messenger- mediated changes

- FIGURE 12.1. Overview of synaptic transmission mechanisms. Gap junctions (left) directly couple the presynaptic and postsynaptic membrane potentials. Ionotropic receptors open ion-selective channels that can modify the postsynaptic membrane potential as well as pass calcium ions, which play an important role in intracellular second messenger pathways. G-protein coupled receptors, also called metabotropic receptors, can directly affect the properties of ion channels such as K^+ or Ca^{2+} channels. They can also cause calcium to be released from internal stores through activation of phospholipase C (PLC) and generation of inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate (IP₃). In addition, diacylglycerol (DAG) can activate protein kinase C (PKC) which in turn affects the function of K^+ and Ca^{2+} channels. Finally, protein kinase A (PKA) can affect the function of Ca^{2+} channels following activation by adenylyl cyclase and cyclic AMP (cAMP). Intracellular calcium can in turn activate calmodulin and a range of calmodulin-dependent enzymes.

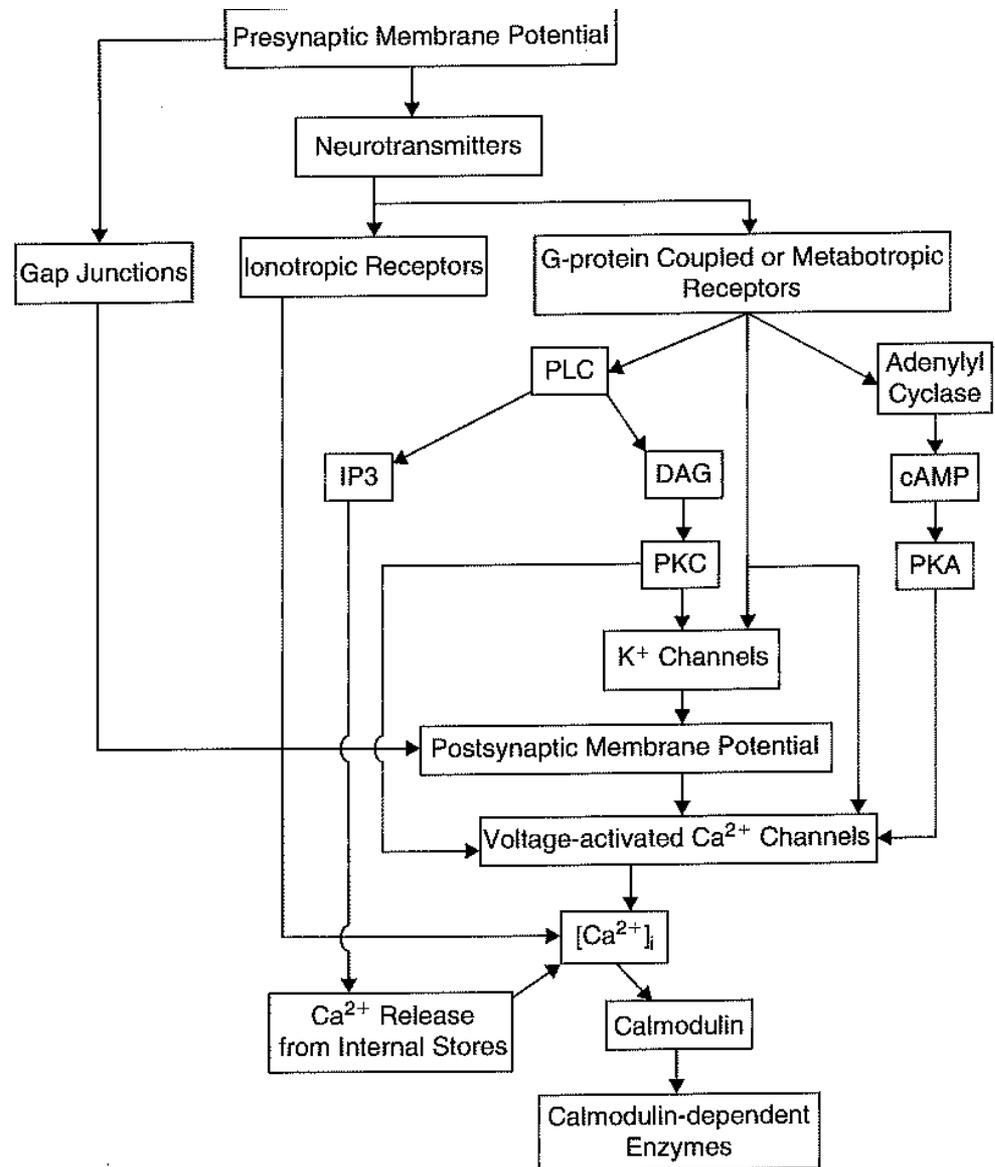
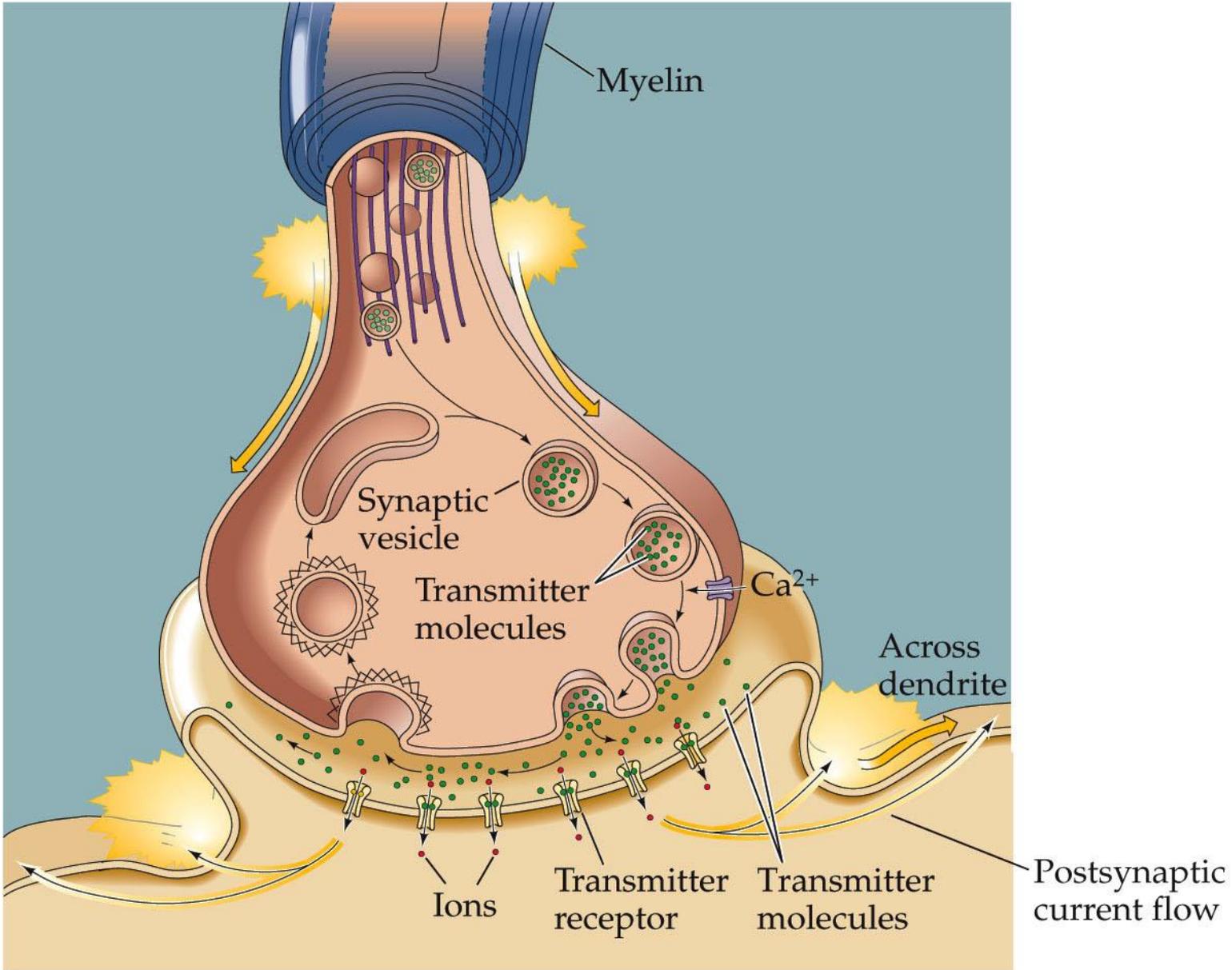
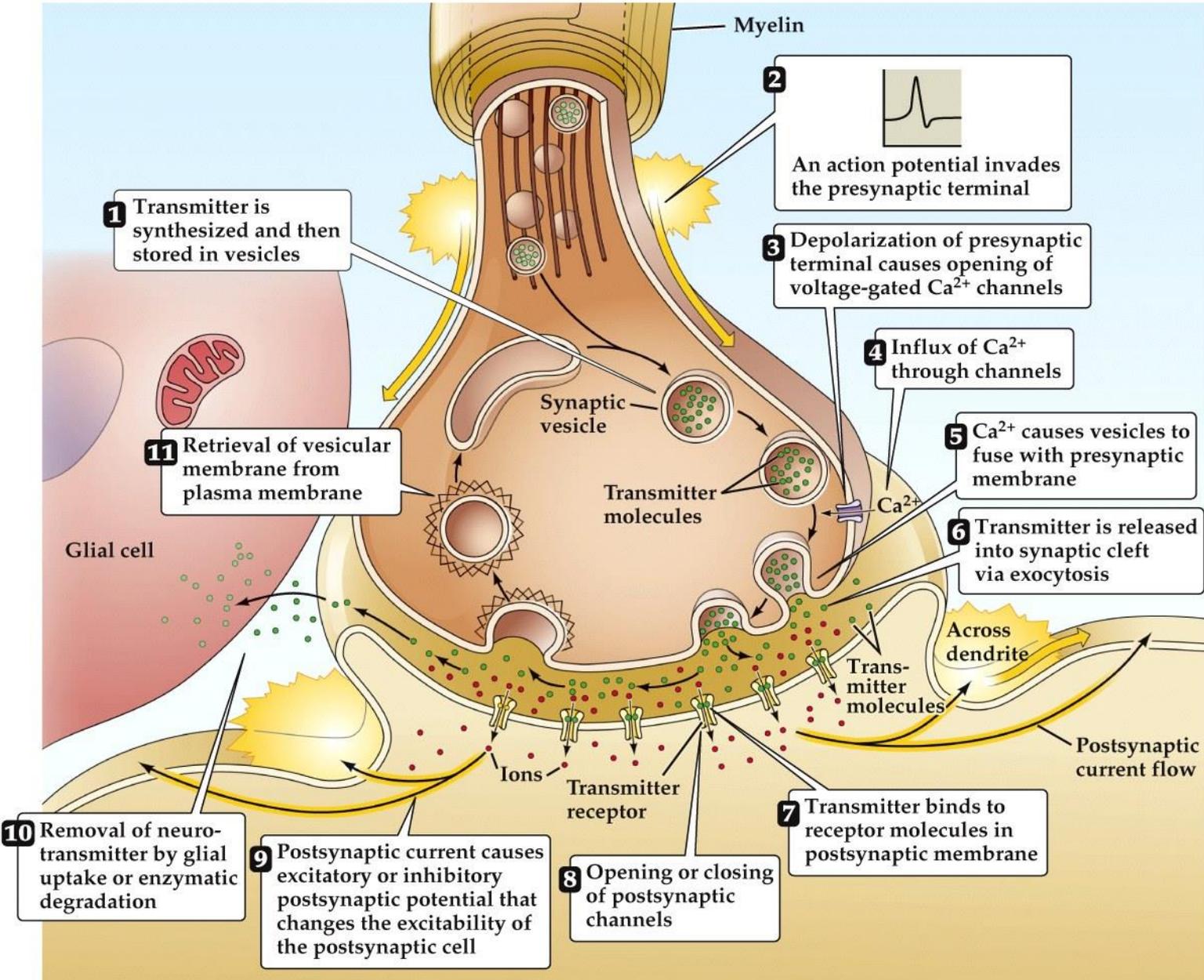


Figure 5.3 Sequence of events involved in transmission at a typical chemical synapse



NEUROSCIENCE, Fourth Edition, Figure 5.3

Figure 5.3 Sequence of events involved in transmission at a typical chemical synapse



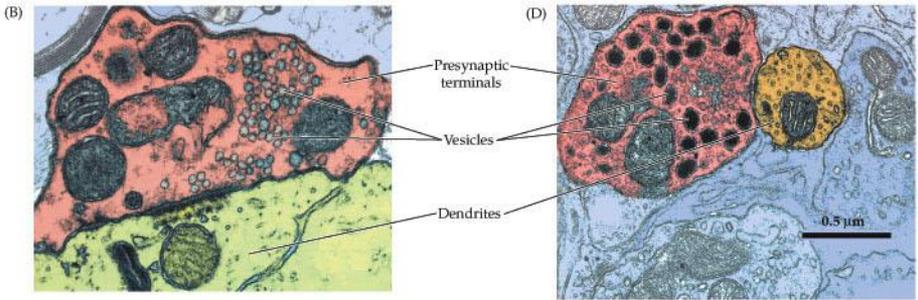
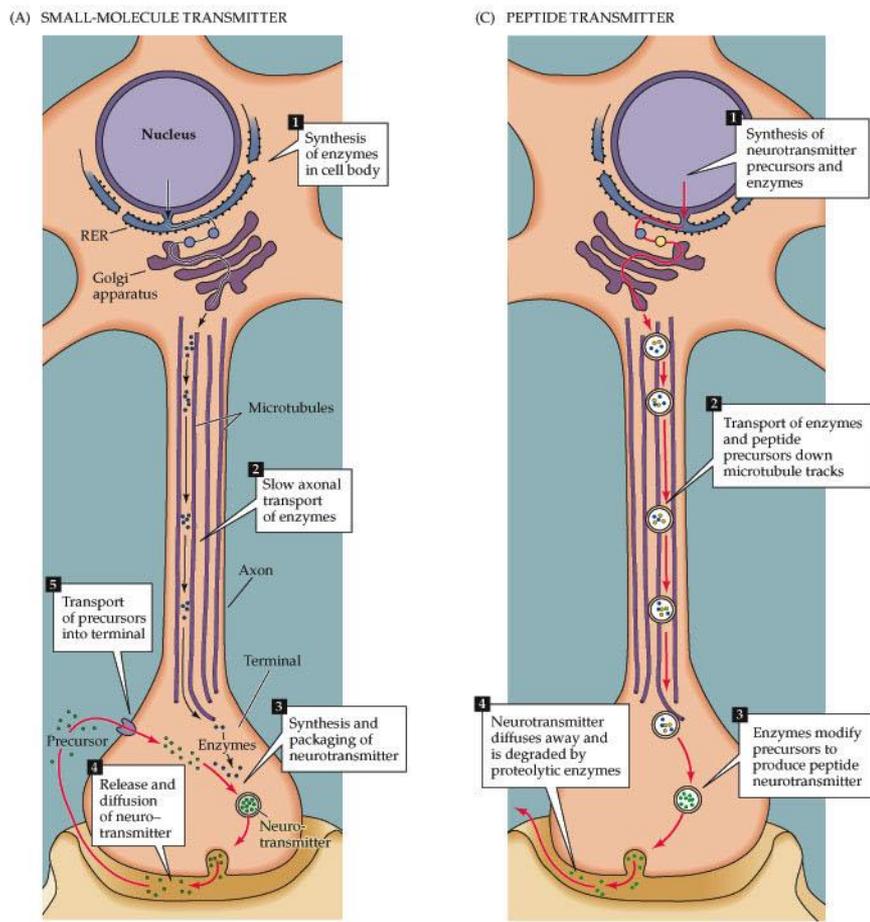
NEUROSCIENCE 5e, Figure 5.3

Benefits of chemical transmission

- Amplification
- Sign inversion
- Graded vs. all-or-none
- Varied temporal duration
- Multiple receptors with distinct properties
- Malleability/plasticity

- **Steps in neurotransmission**
- Vesicle loading, docking, priming
- Action potential invasion
- Ca^{2+} channel opening, Ca^{2+} influx
- Exocytosis
- Postsynaptic membrane potential change
- Membrane reuptake (endocytosis)

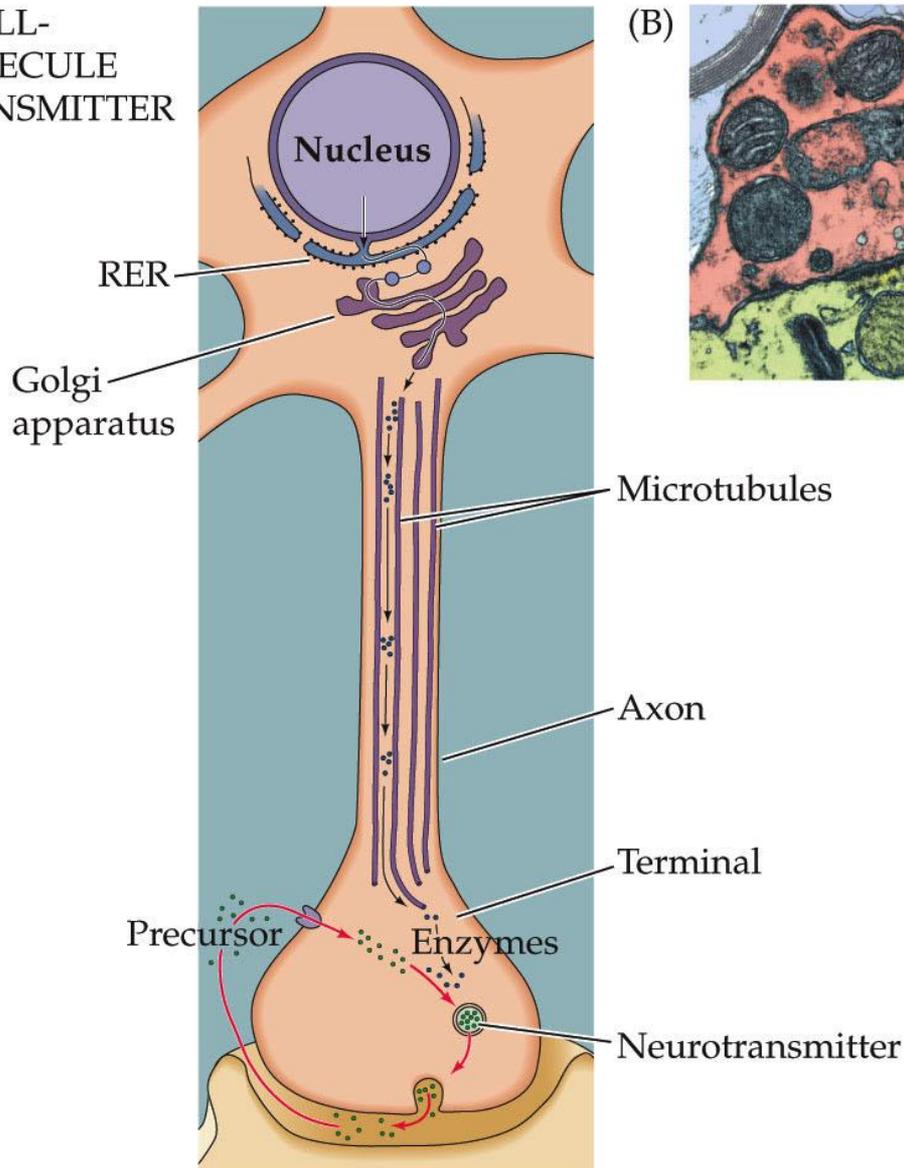
Figure 5.5 Metabolism of small-molecule and peptide transmitters



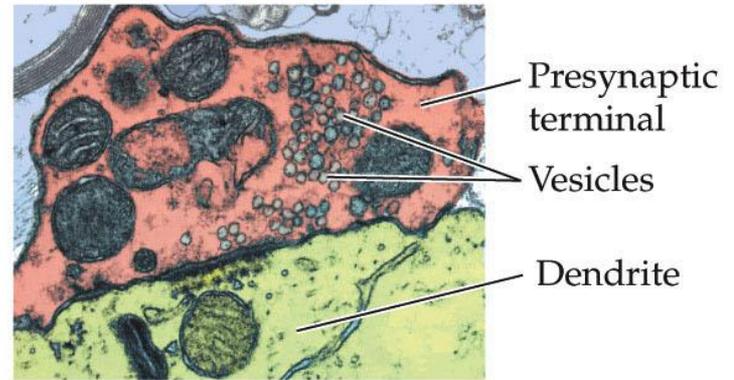
NEUROSCIENCE, Fourth Edition, Figure 5.5

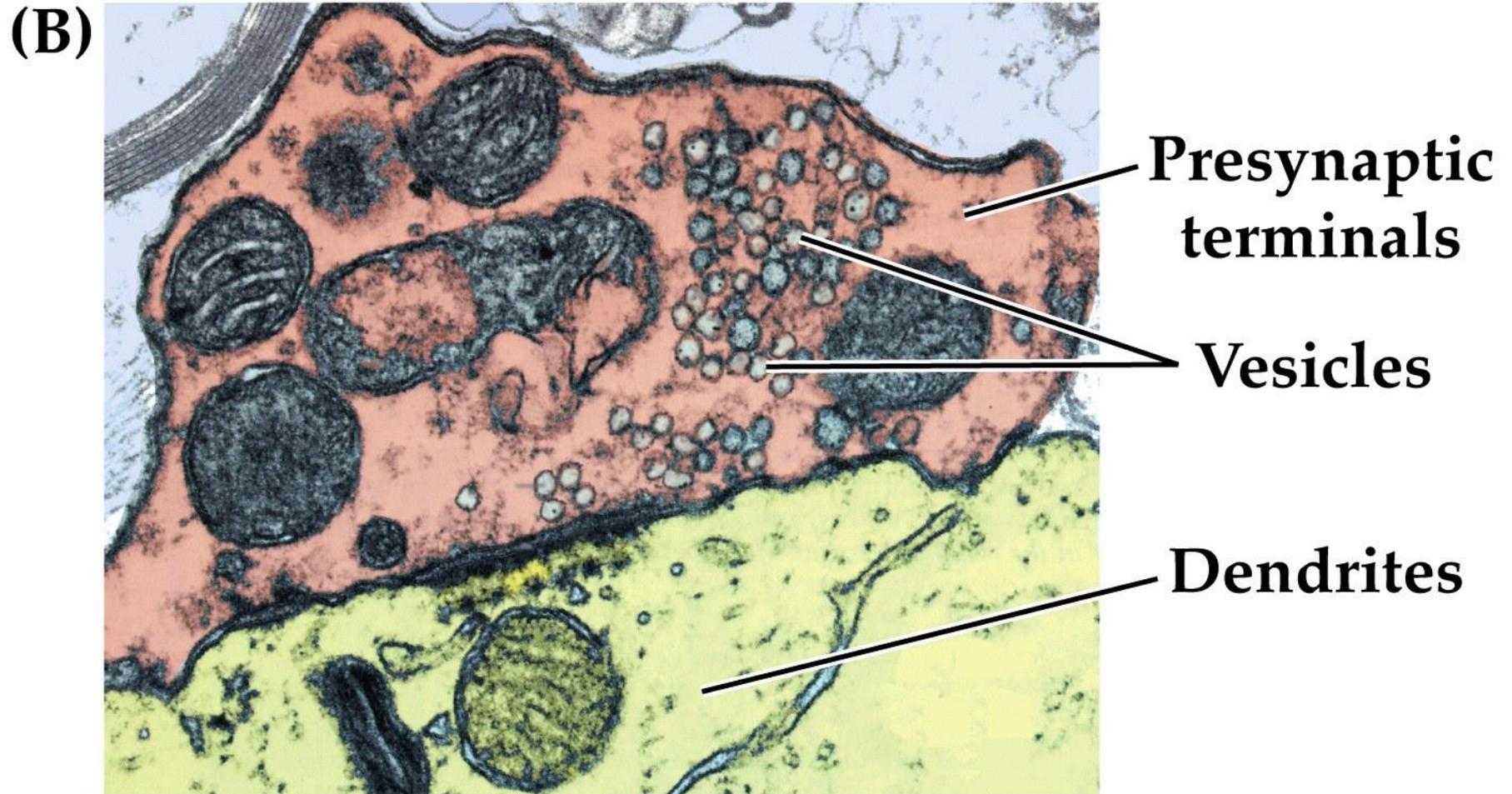
Figure 5.5 Metabolism of small-molecule and peptide transmitters (Part 1)

(A) SMALL-MOLECULE TRANSMITTER



(B)

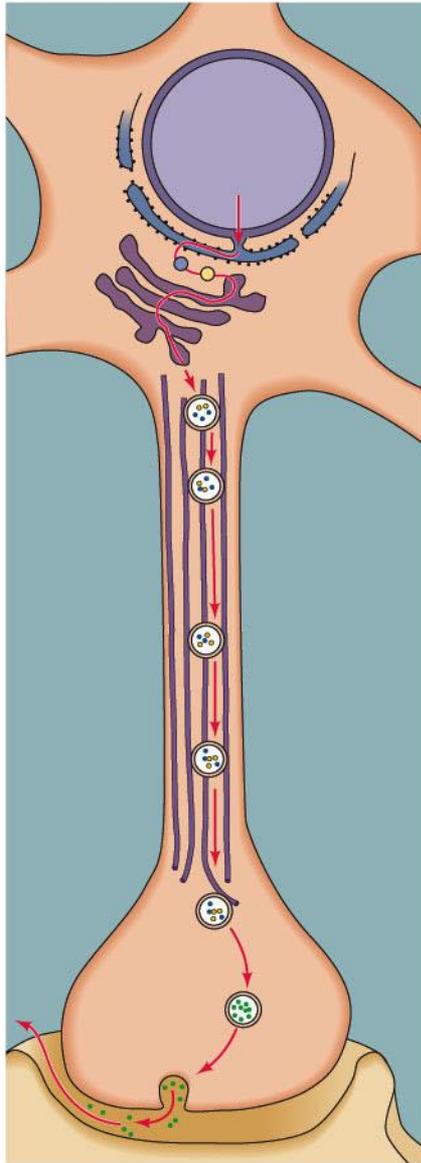




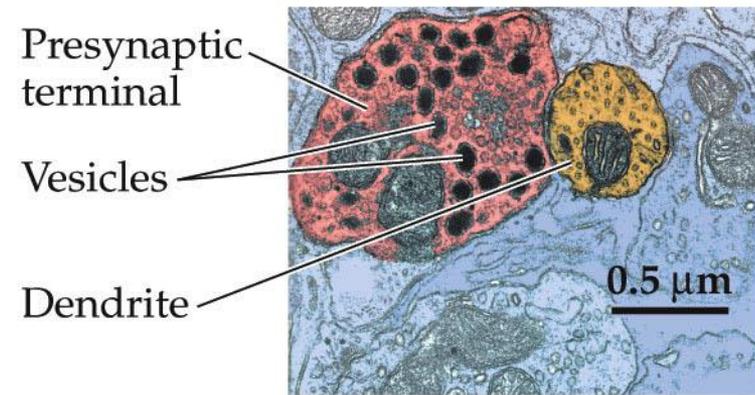
NEUROSCIENCE 5e, Figure 5.5 (Part 2)

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(C) PEPTIDE TRANSMITTER



(D)



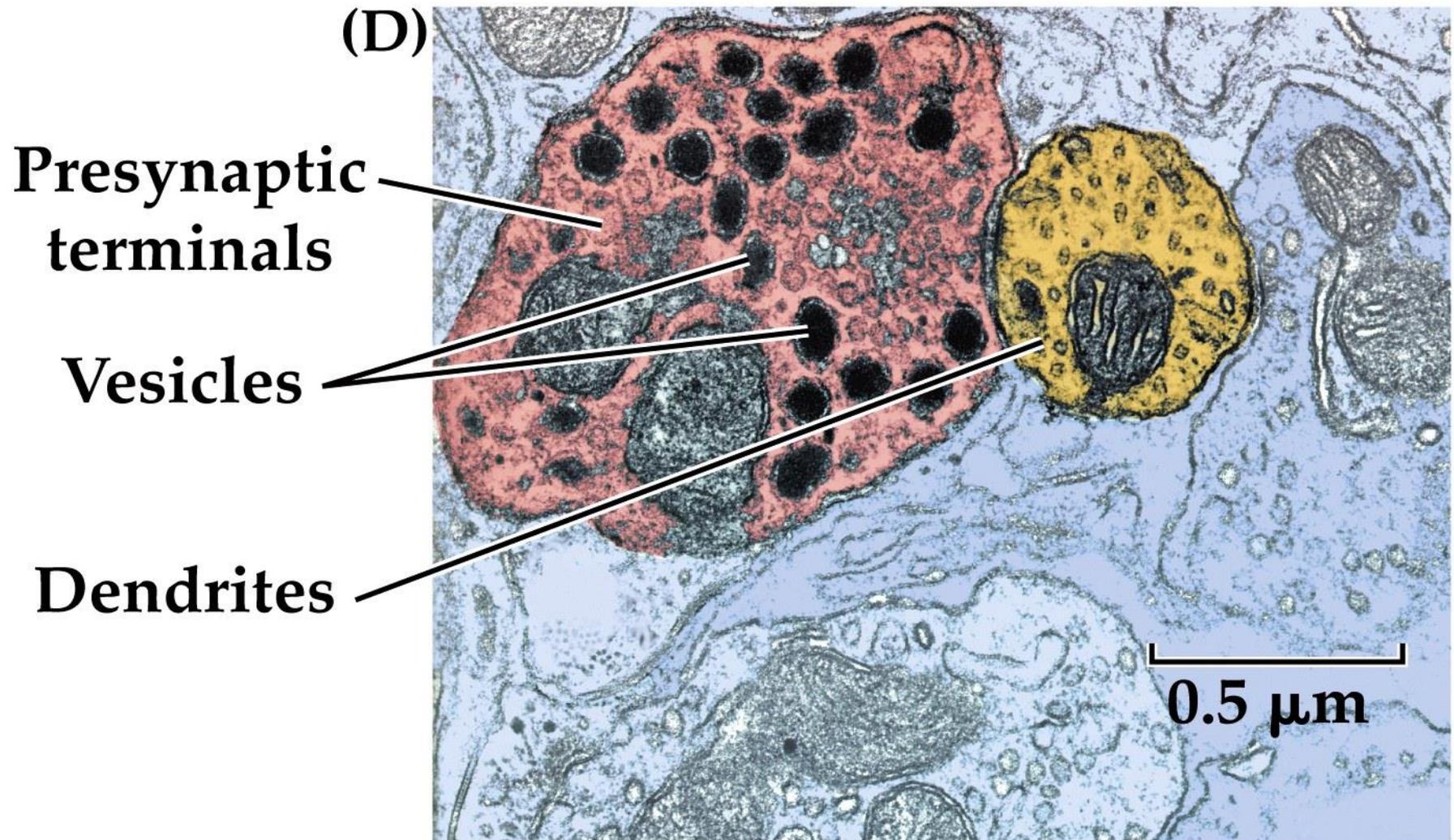
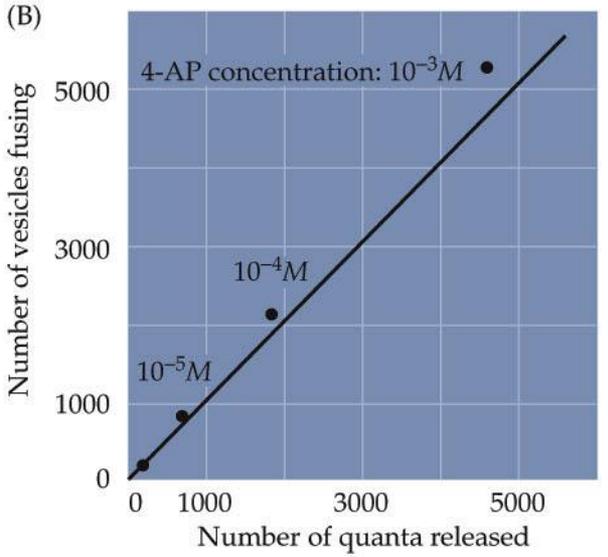
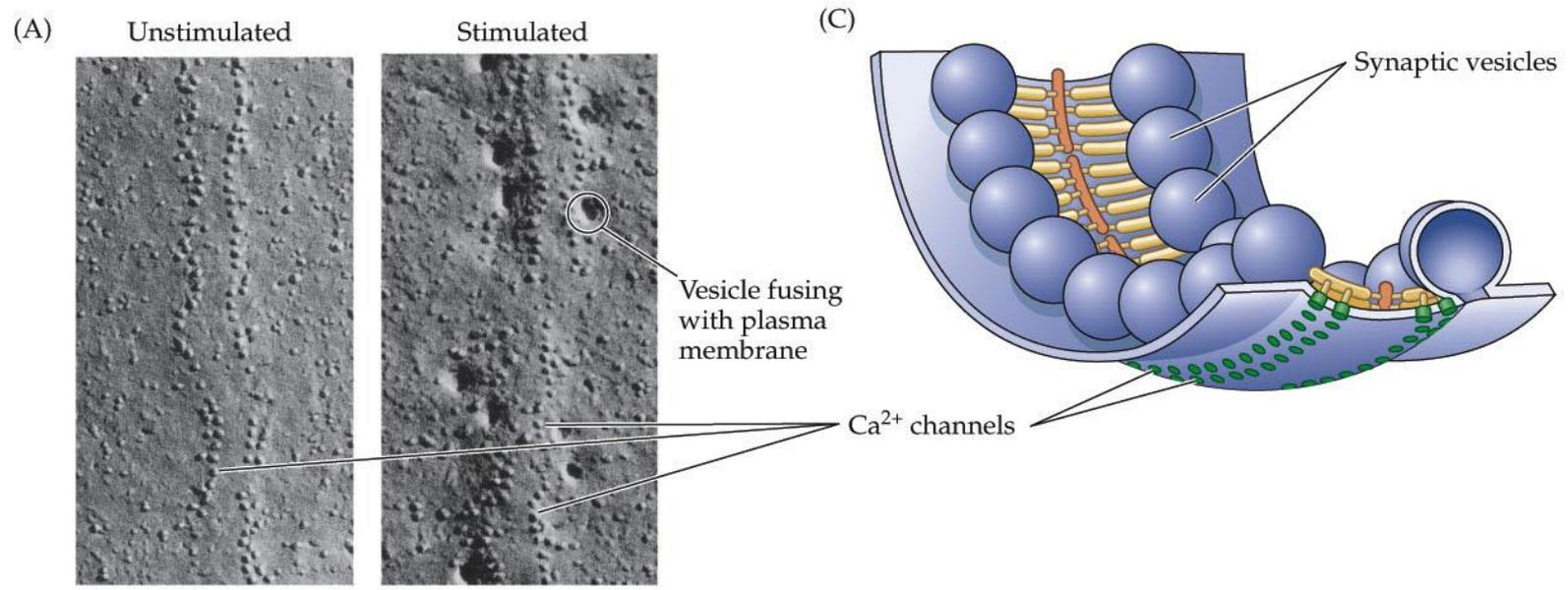


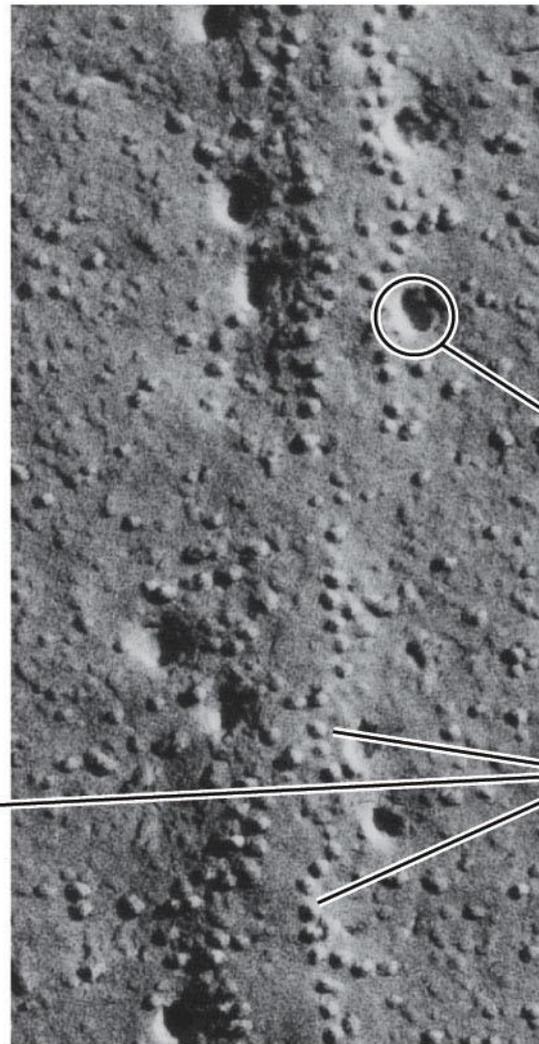
Figure 5.8 Relationship of synaptic vesicle exocytosis and quantal transmitter release



(A)

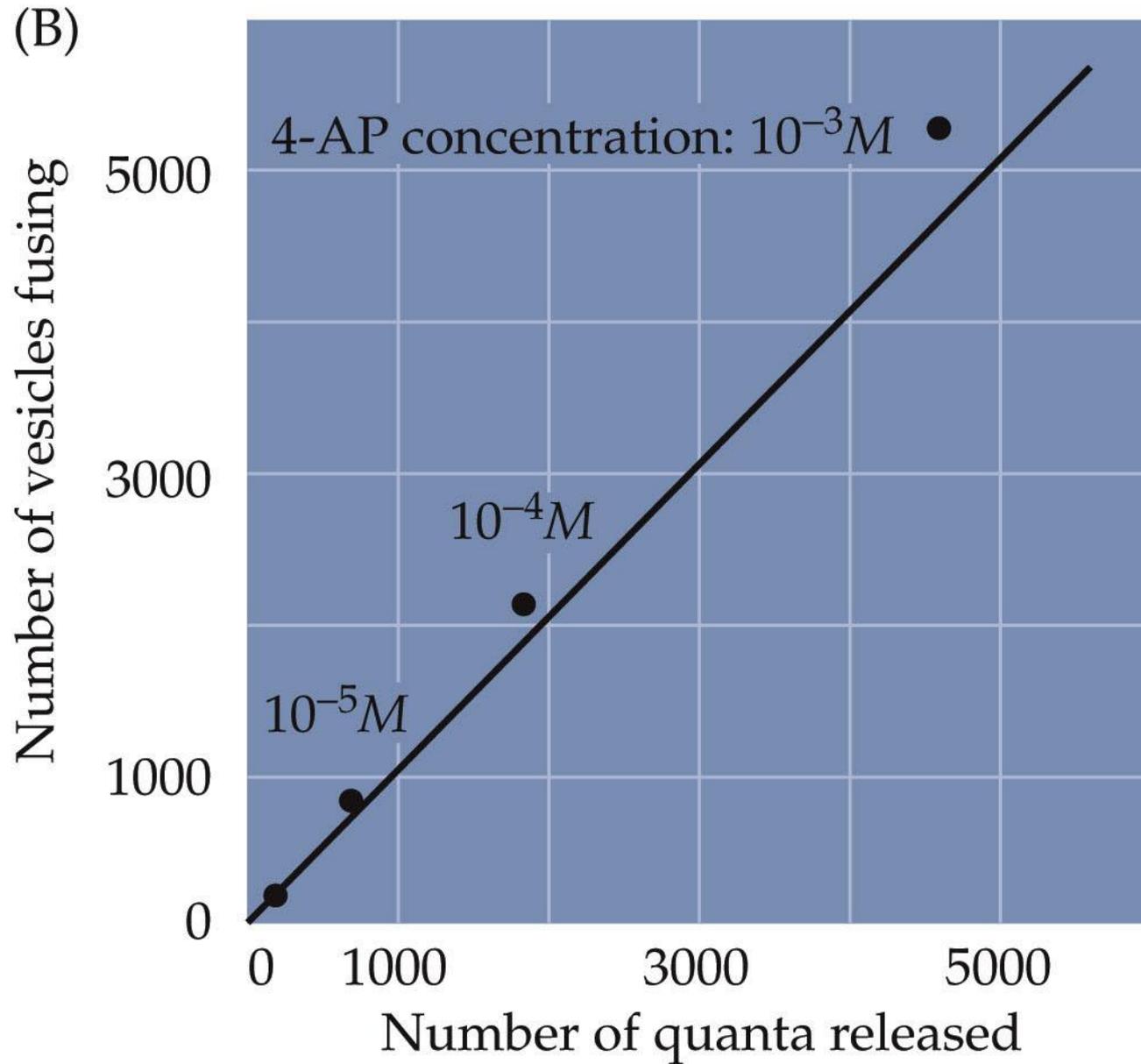
Unstimulated

Stimulated



Vesicle fusing with plasma membrane

Ca²⁺ channels



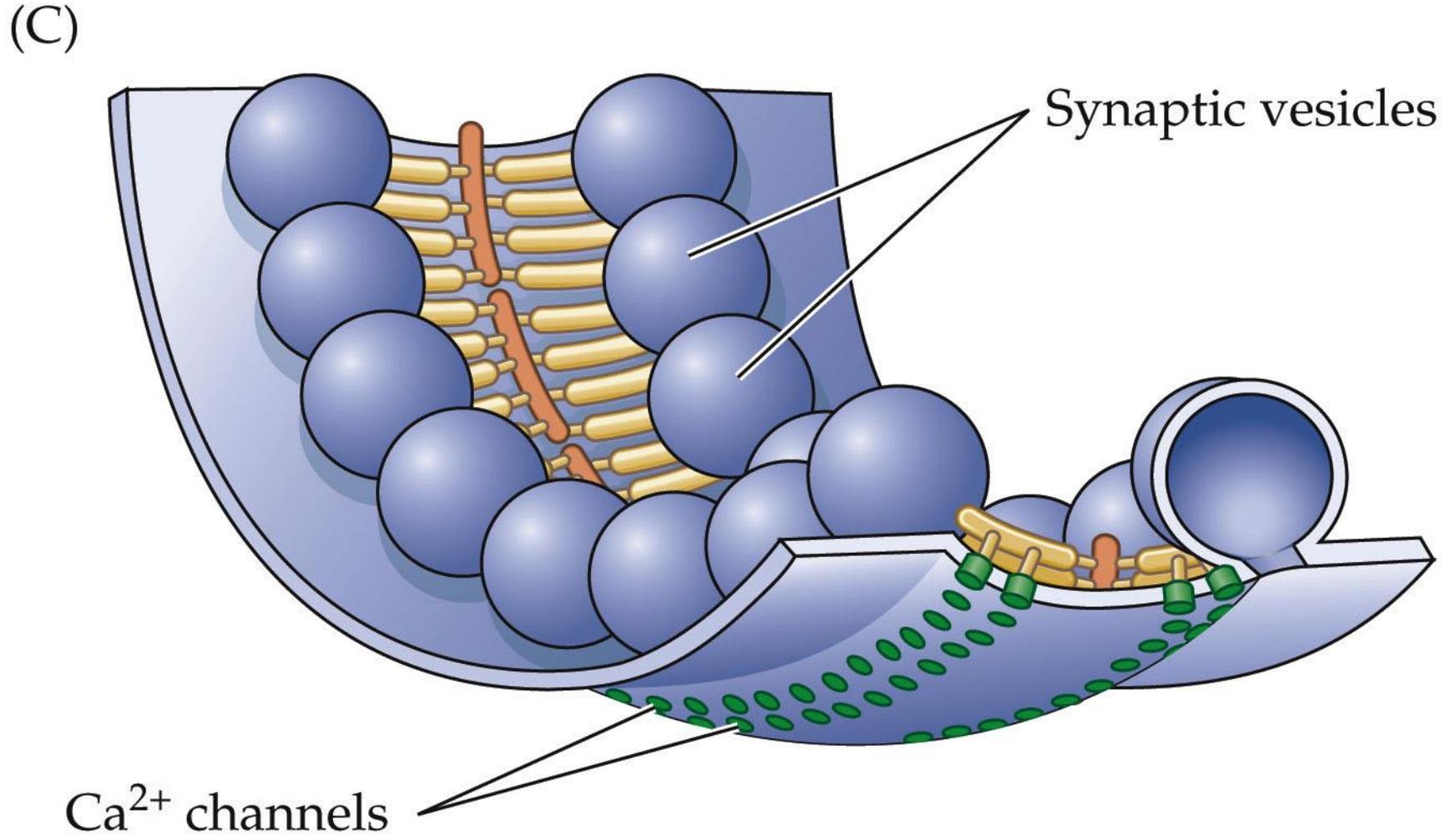
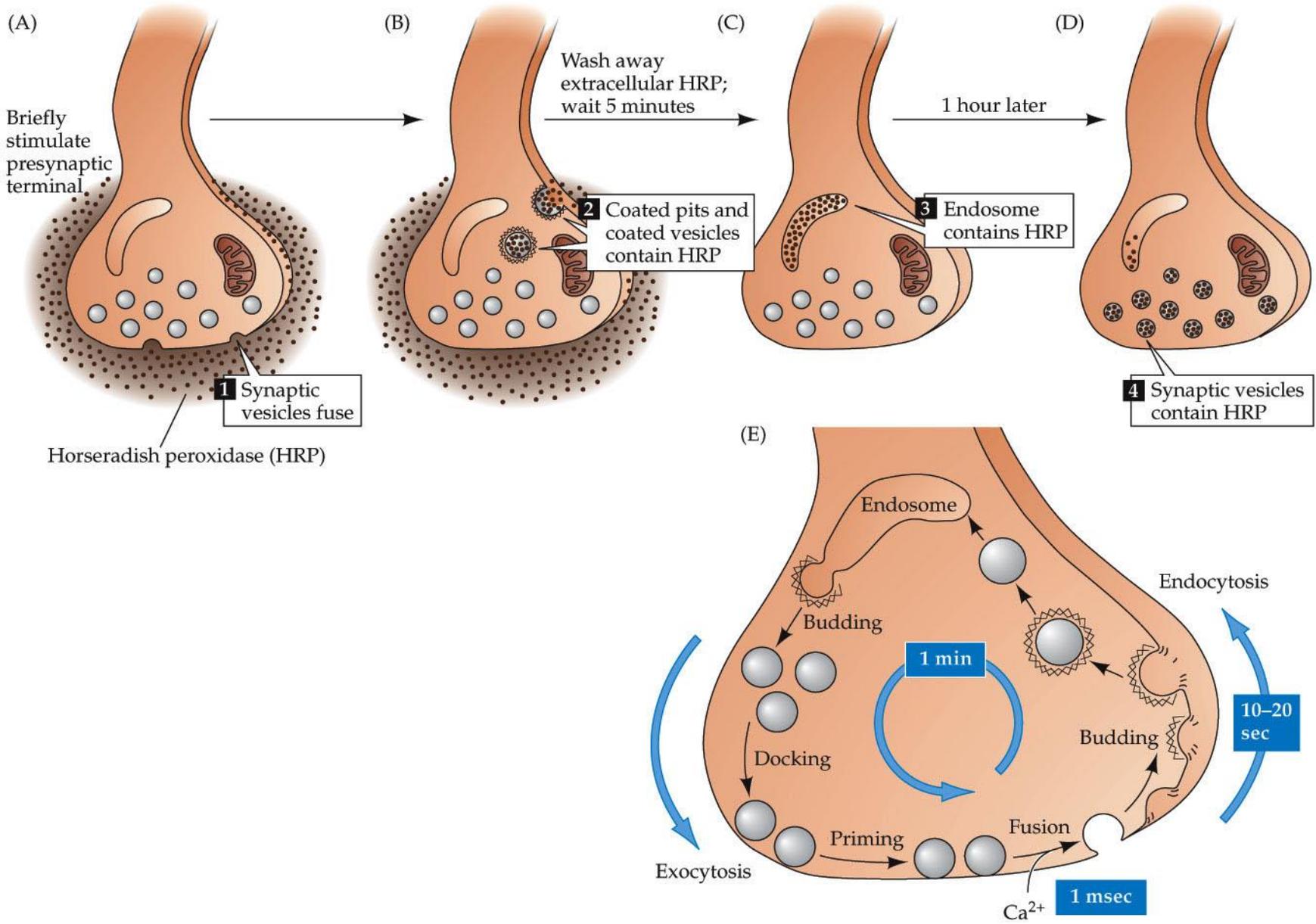


Figure 5.9 Local recycling of synaptic vesicles in presynaptic terminals



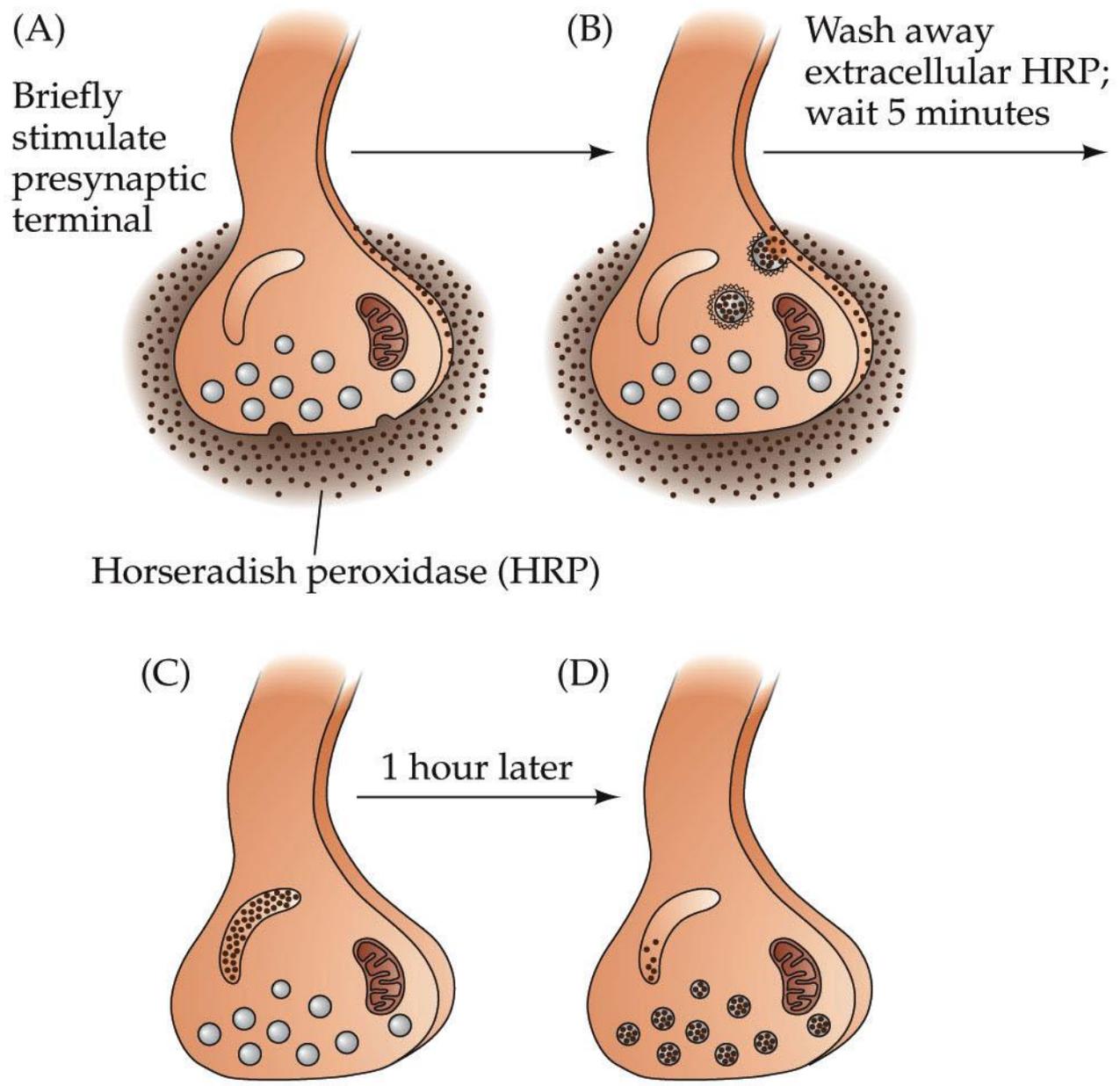
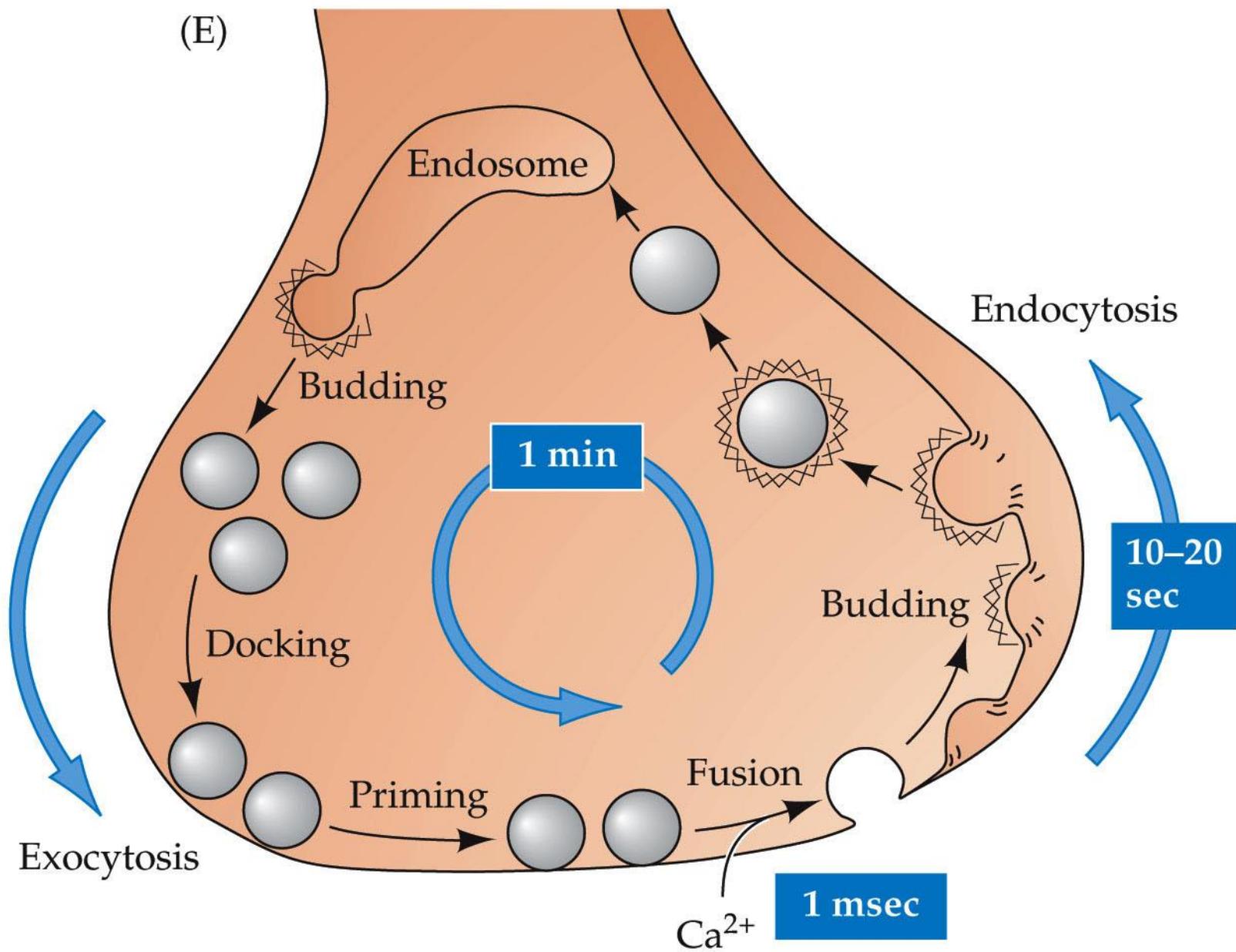
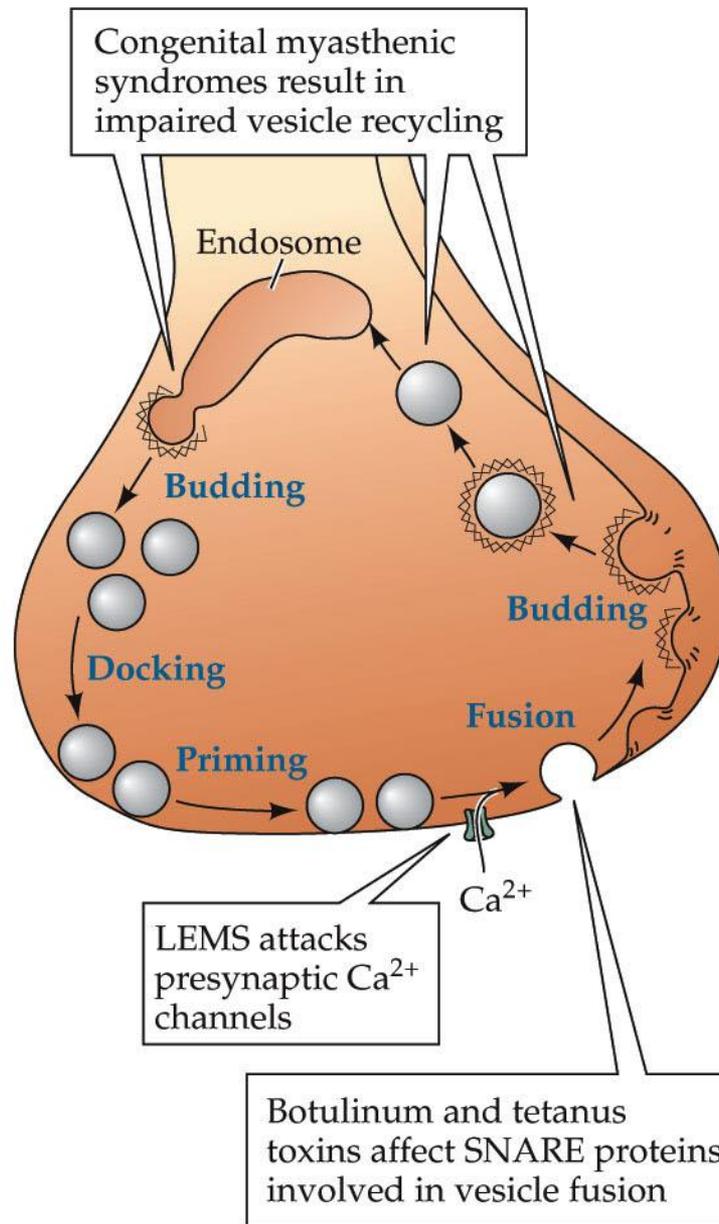
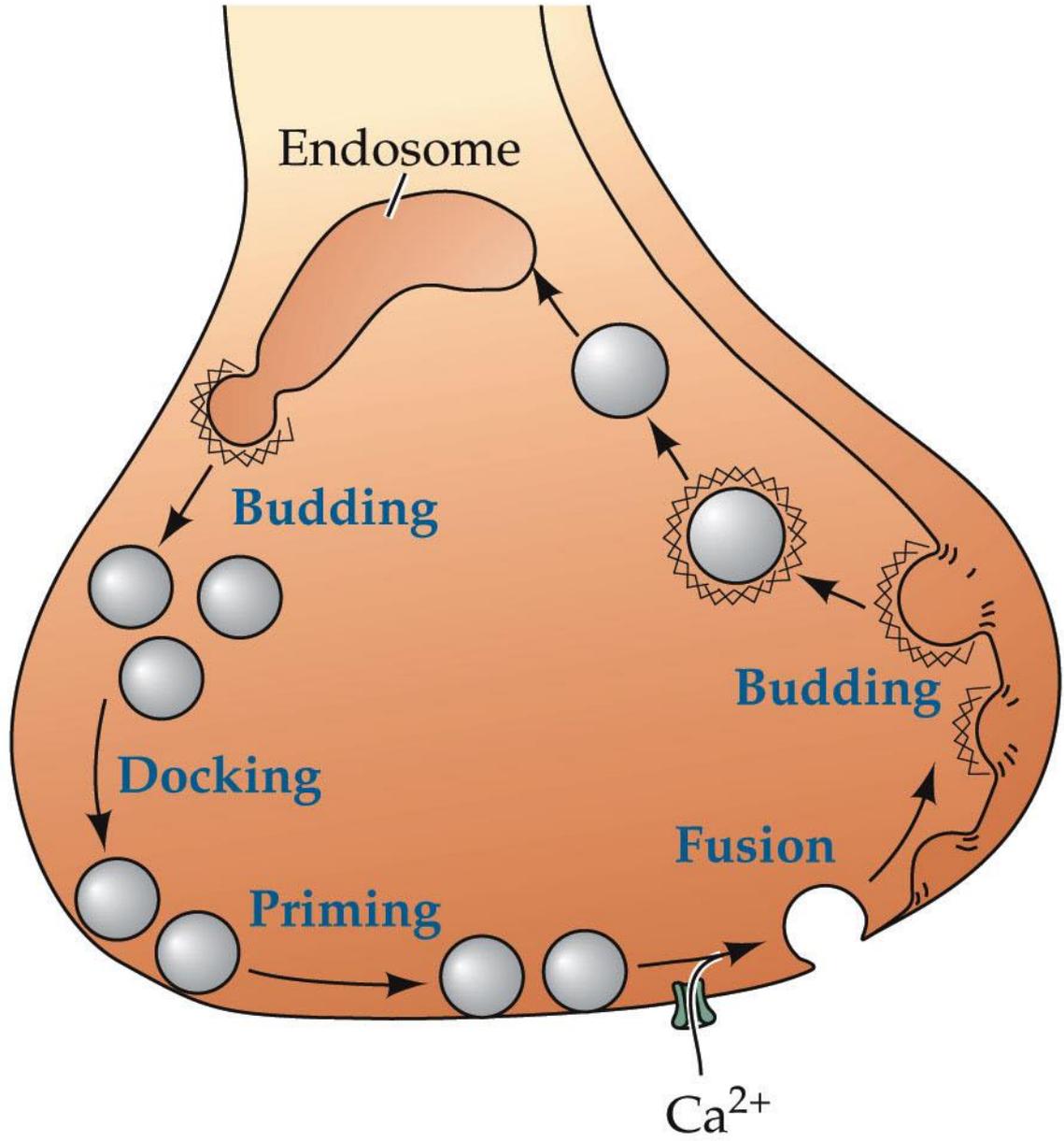


Figure 5.9 Local recycling of synaptic vesicles in presynaptic terminals (Part 2)



Box 5B Diseases That Affect the Presynaptic Terminal





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- **Synaptic reversal potentials**
- Gap junctions

Figure 5.10 Ca^{2+} entry through the specific voltage-dependent calcium channels in the presynaptic terminals causes transmitter release

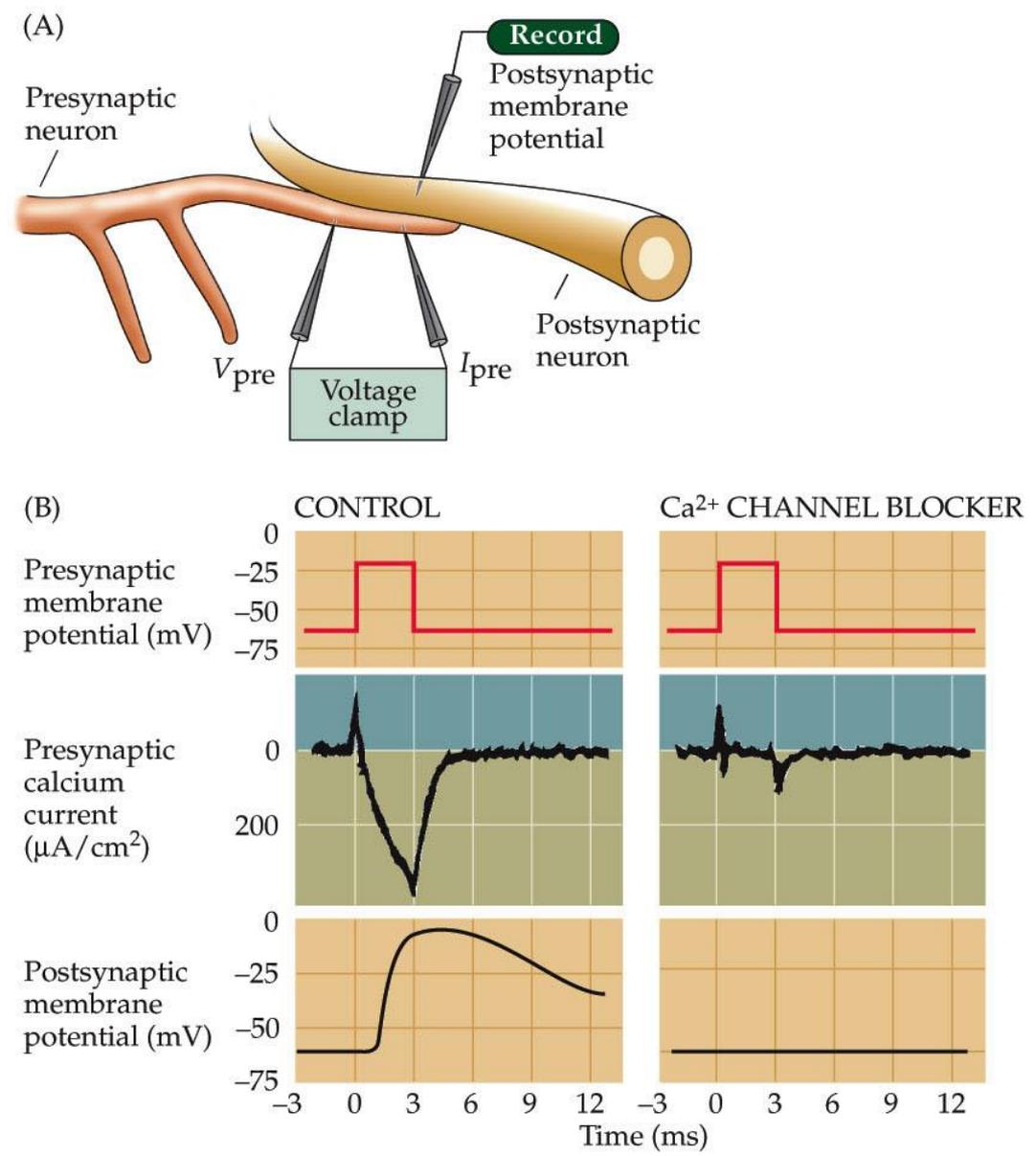


Figure 5.10 Ca^{2+} entry through the specific voltage-dependent calcium channels in the presynaptic terminals causes transmitter release (Part 1)

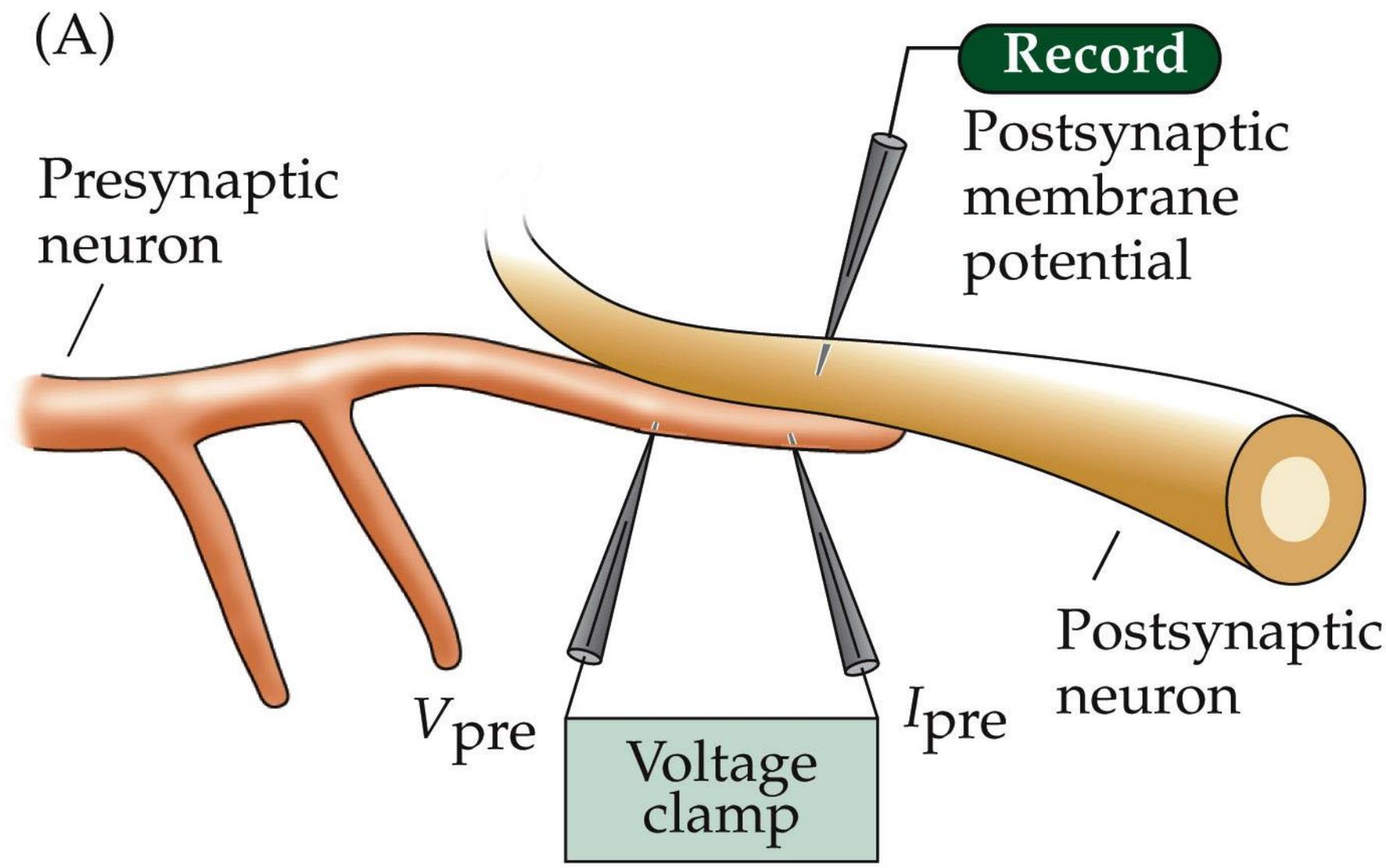


Figure 5.10 Ca^{2+} entry through the specific voltage-dependent calcium channels in the presynaptic terminals causes transmitter release (Part 2)

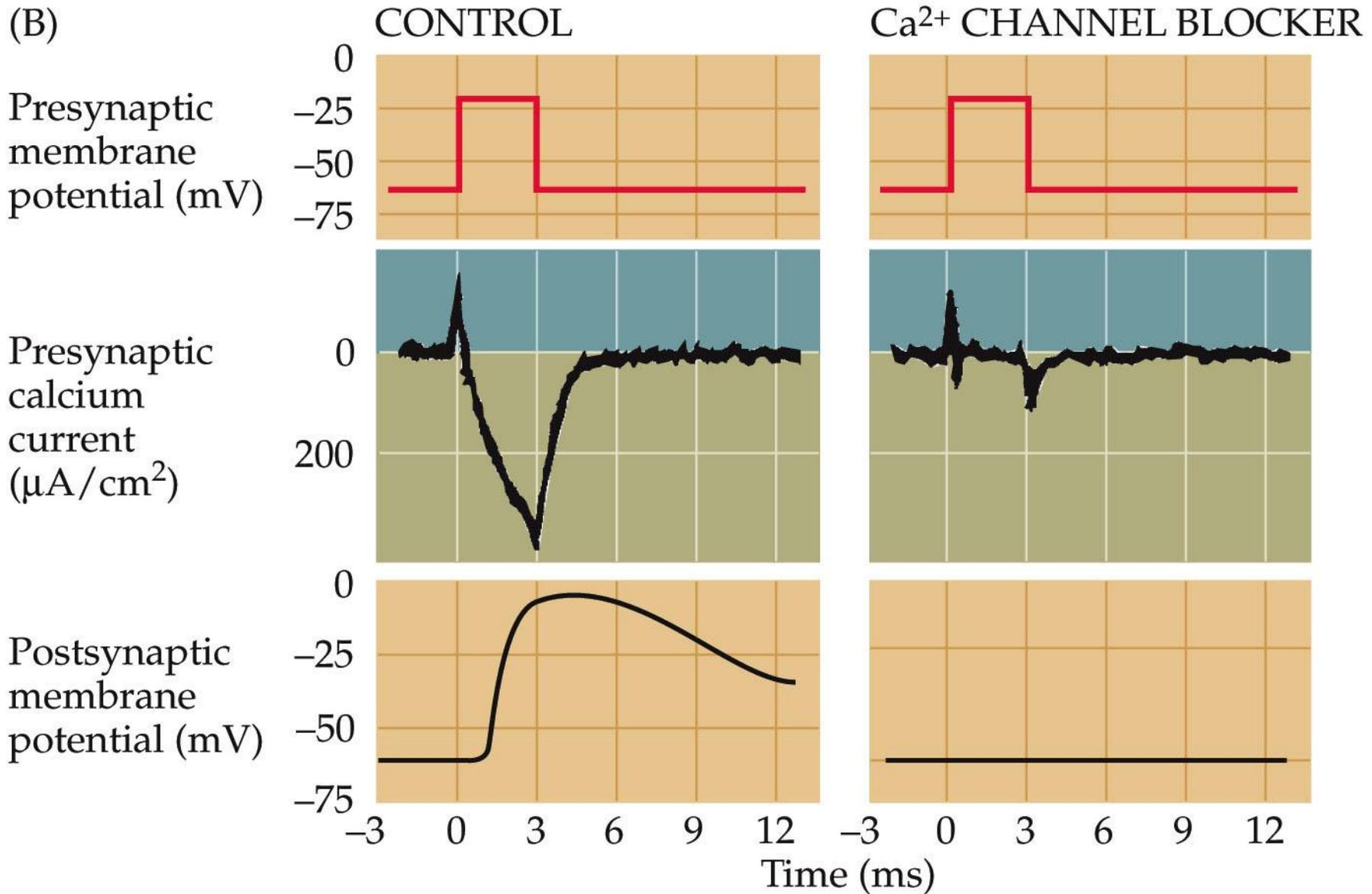


Figure 5.11 Evidence that a rise in presynaptic Ca^{2+} concentration triggers transmitter release from presynaptic terminals

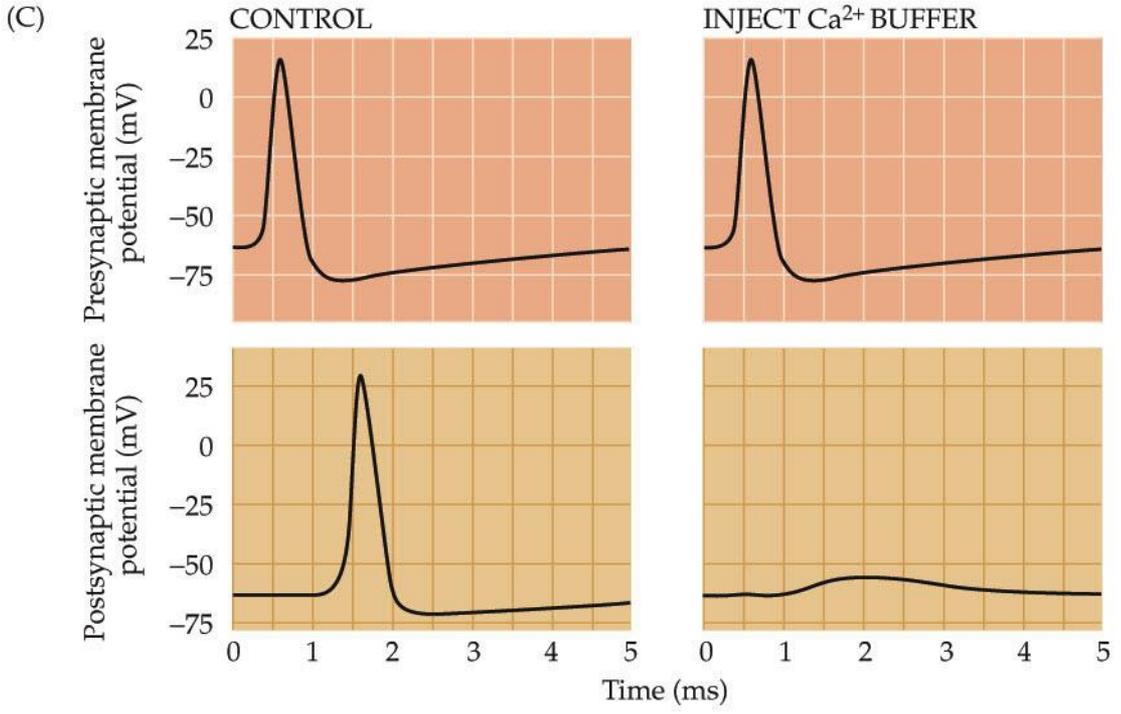
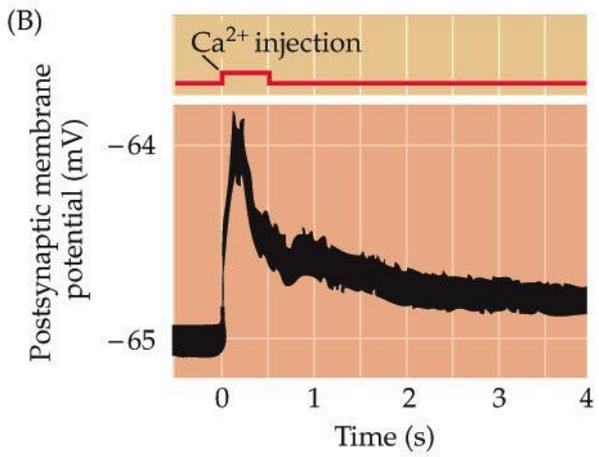
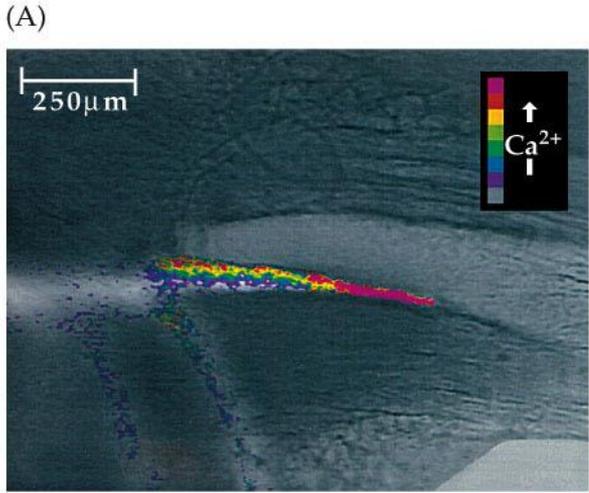
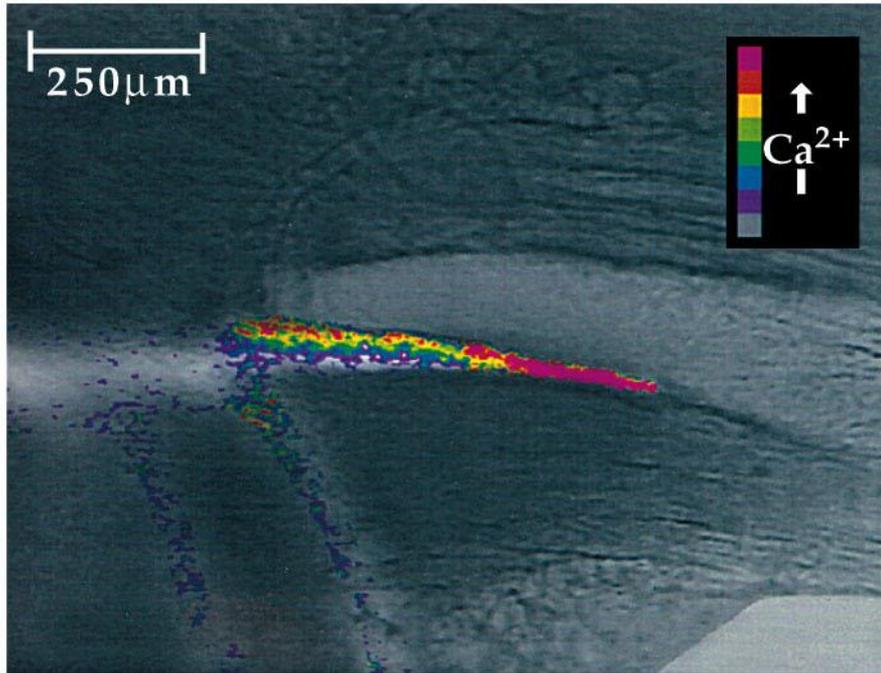


Figure 5.11 Evidence that a rise in presynaptic Ca^{2+} concentration triggers transmitter release from presynaptic terminals (Part 1)

(A)



(B)

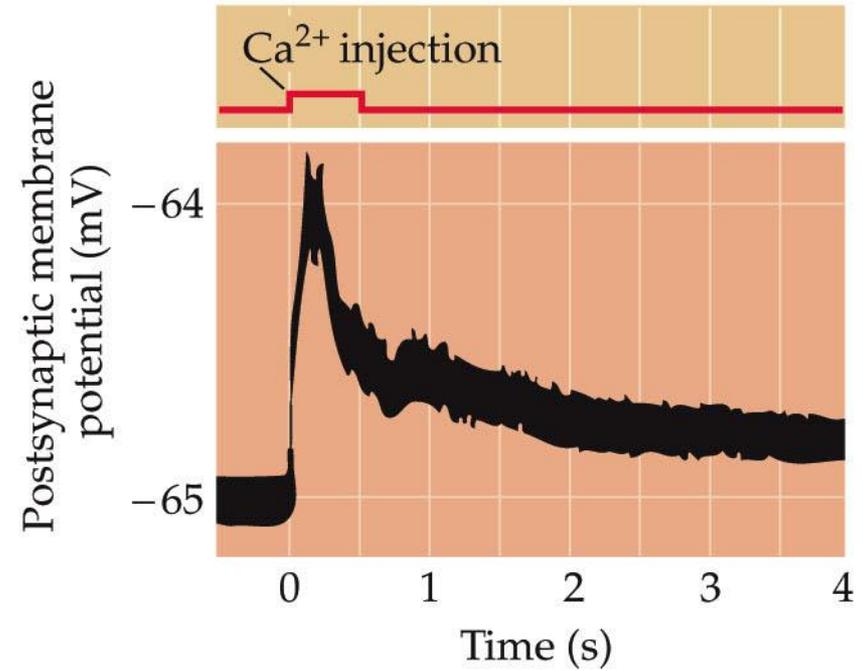


Figure 5.11 Evidence that a rise in presynaptic Ca^{2+} concentration triggers transmitter release from presynaptic terminals (Part 2)

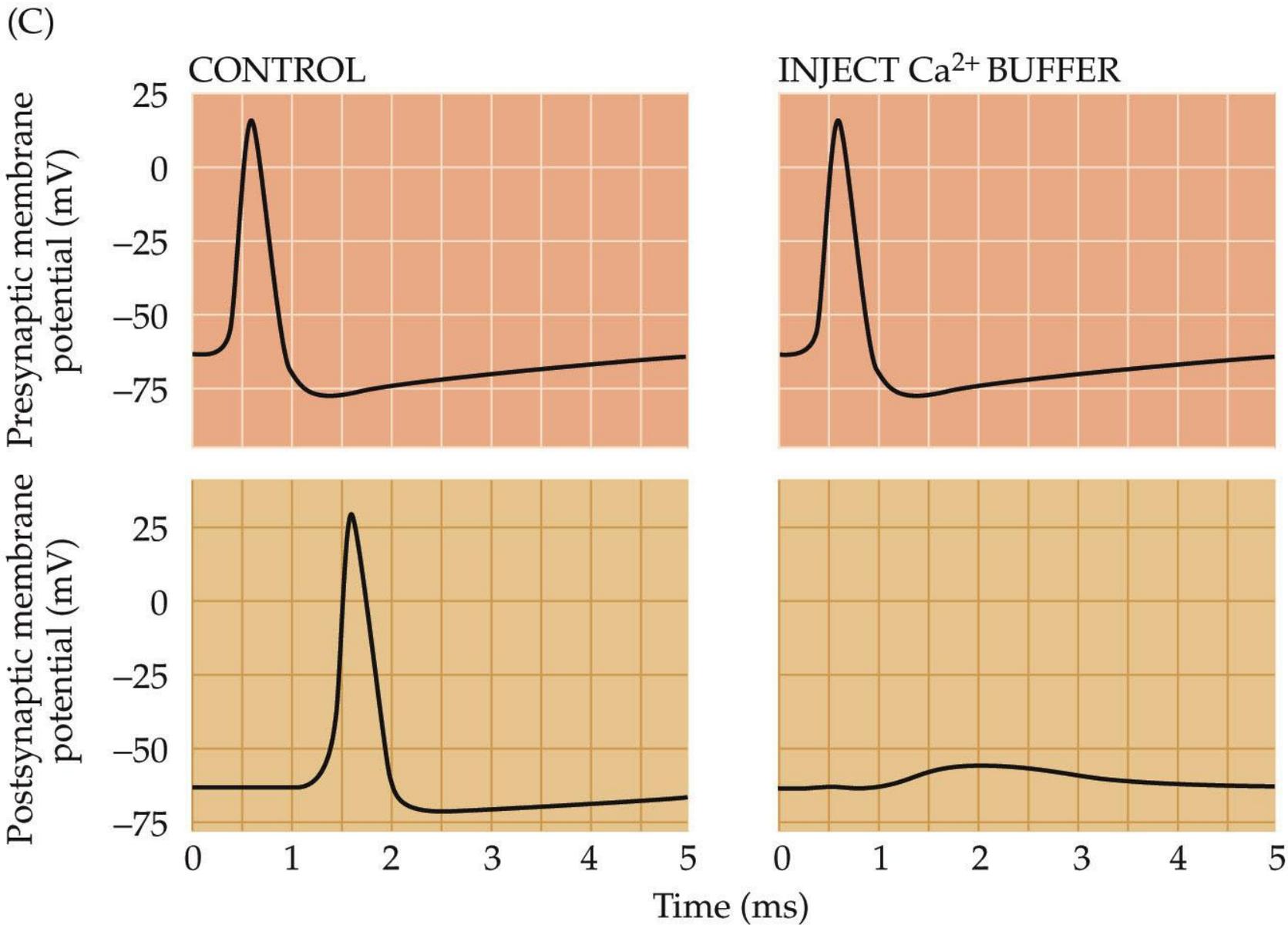
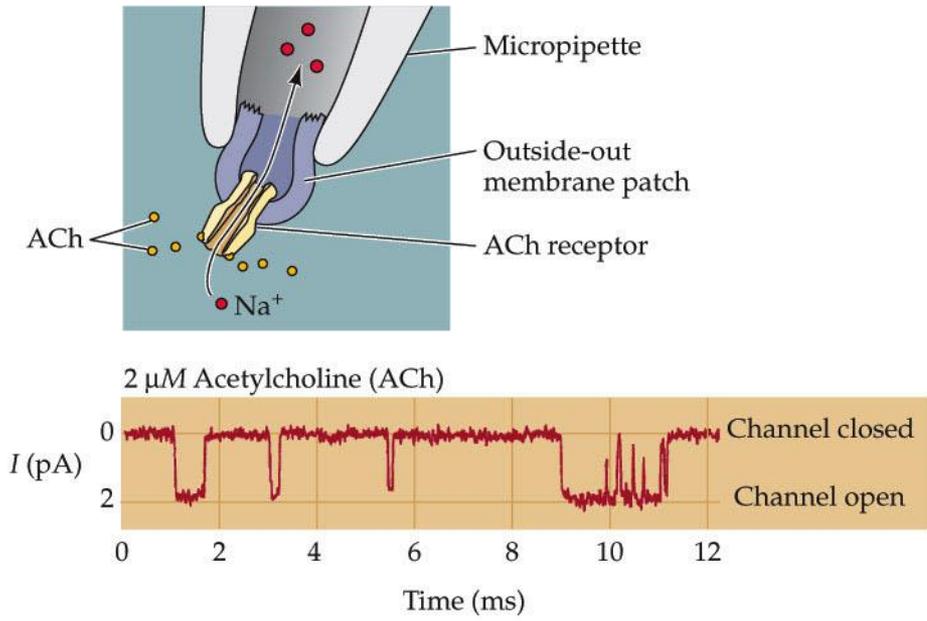
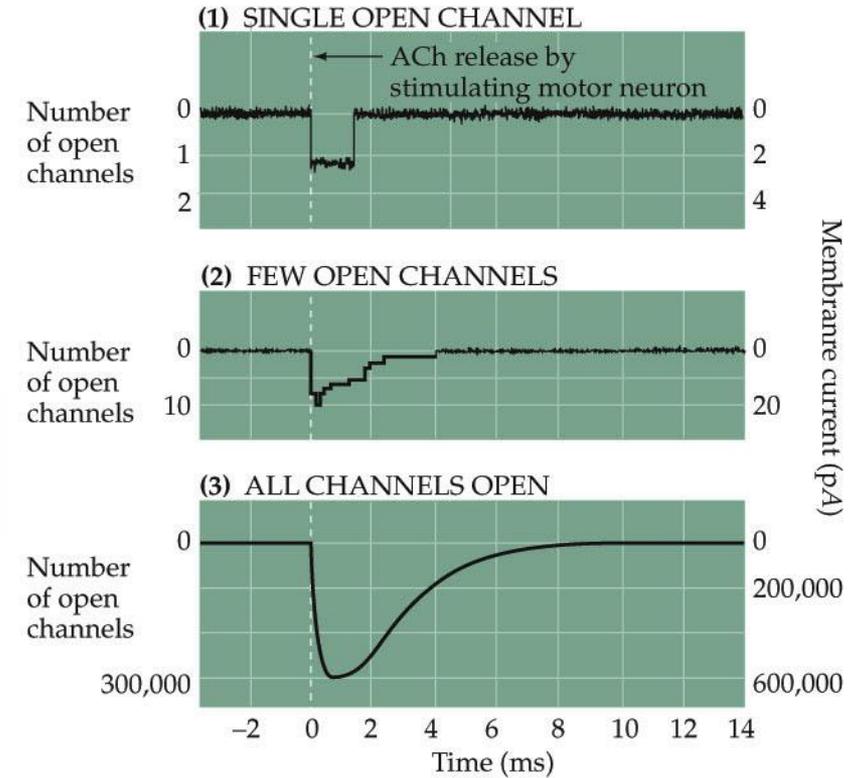


Figure 5.16 Activation of ACh receptors at neuromuscular synapses

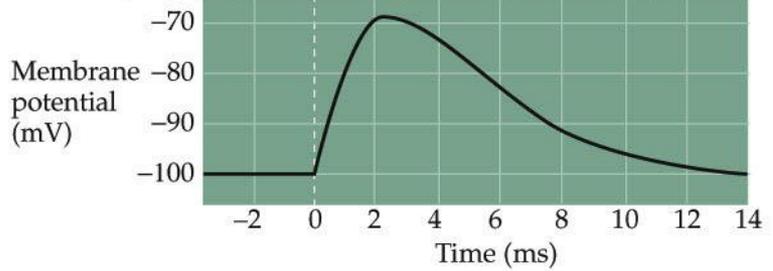
(A) Patch clamp measurement of single ACh receptor current



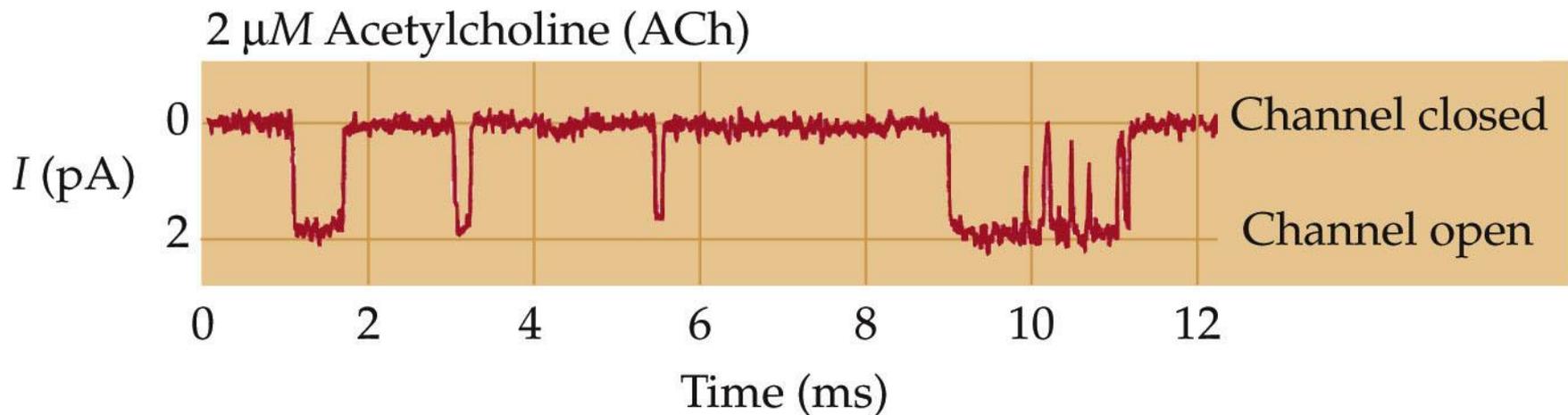
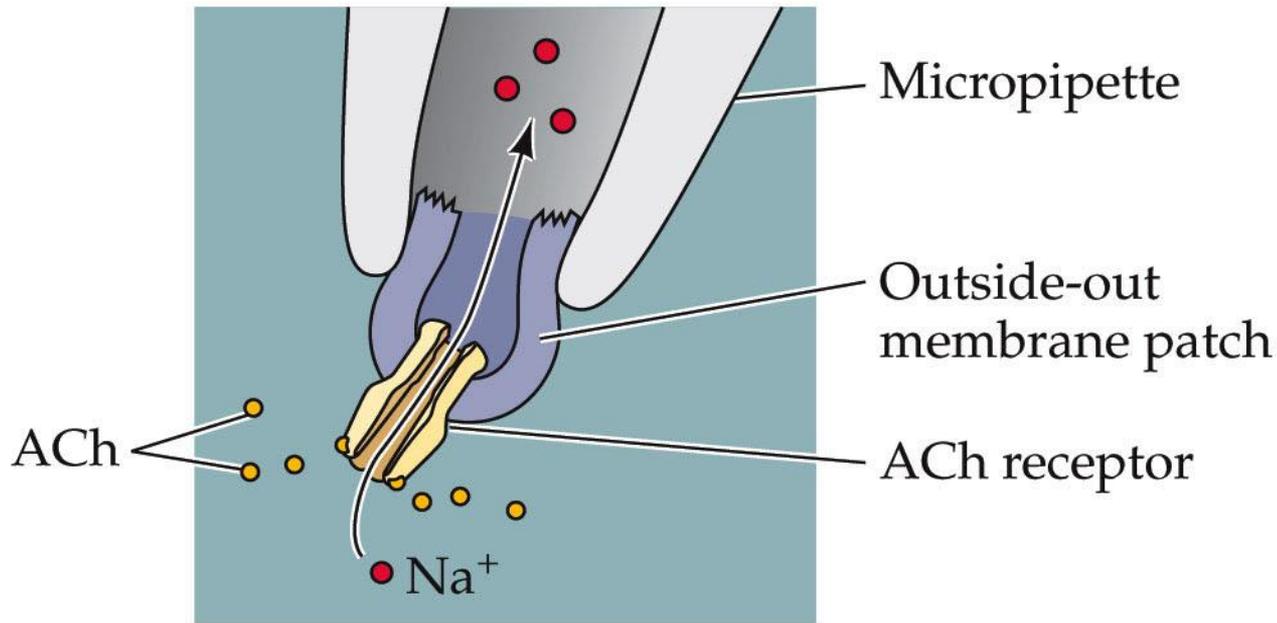
(B) Currents produced by:



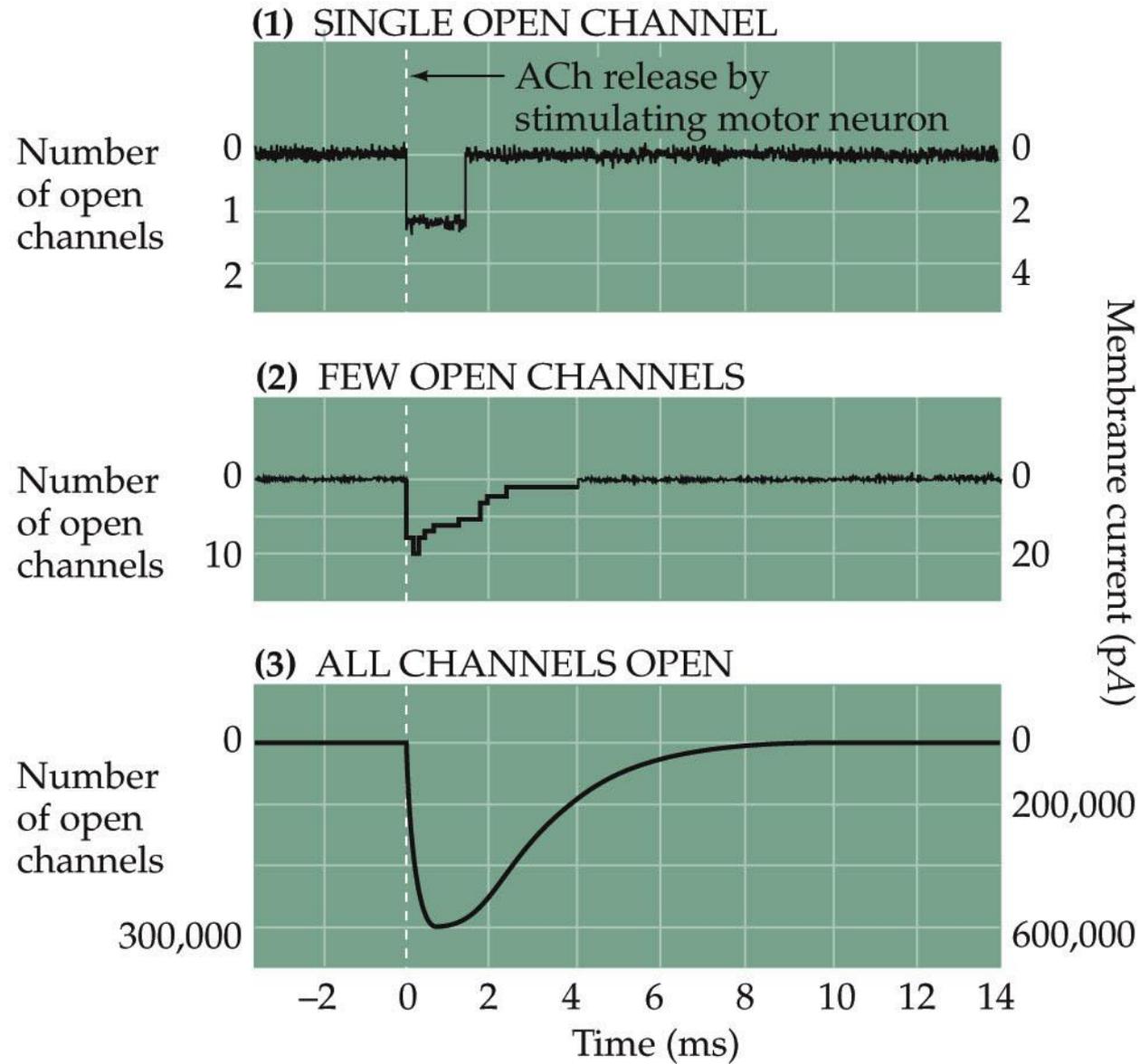
(C) Postsynaptic potential change (EPP) produced by EPC



(A) Patch clamp measurement of single ACh receptor current



(B) Currents produced by:



(C) Postsynaptic potential change (EPP) produced by EPC

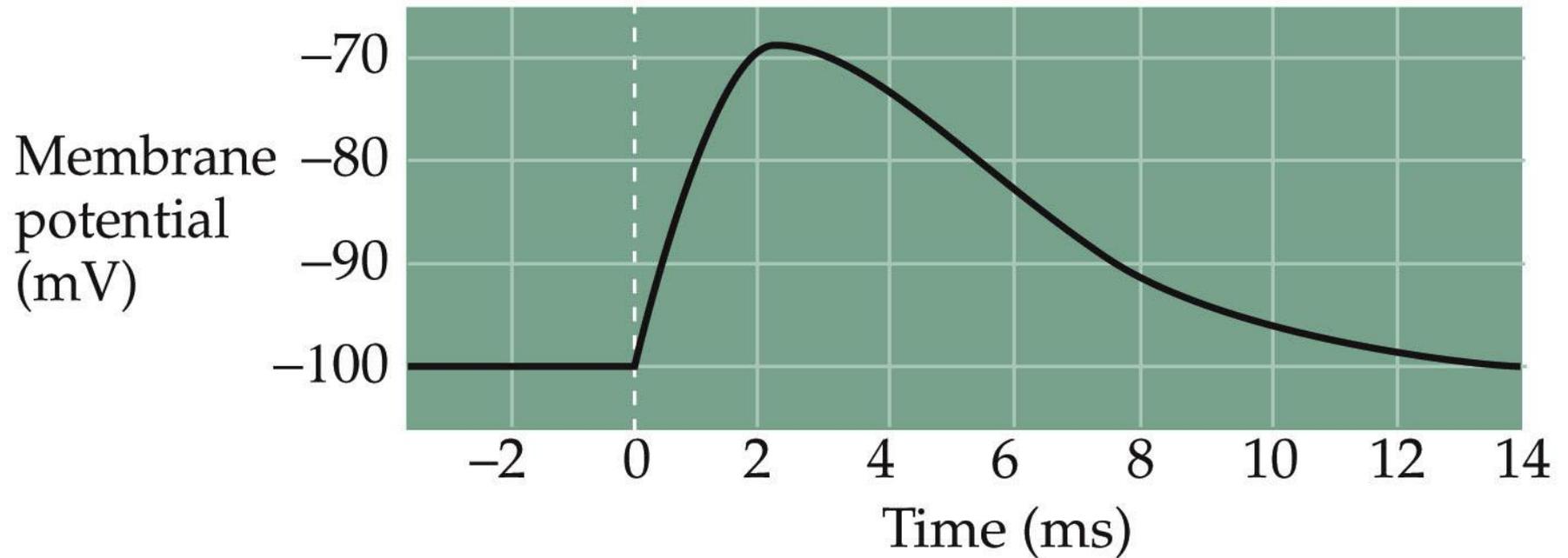
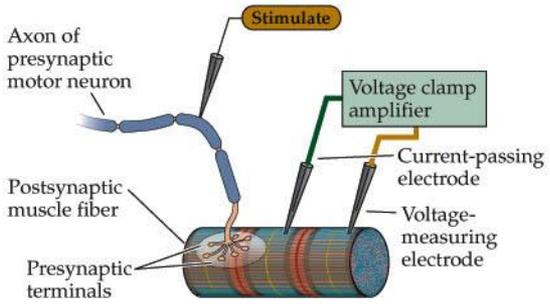
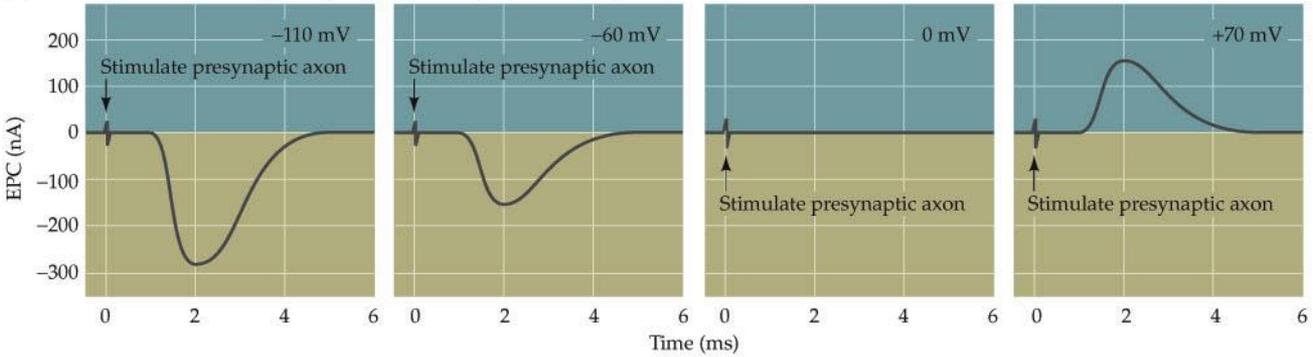


Figure 5.17 The influence of the postsynaptic membrane potential on end plate currents

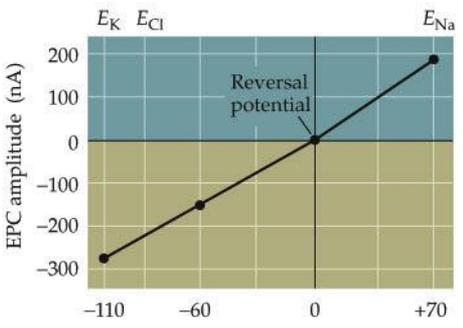
(A) Scheme for voltage clamping postsynaptic muscle fiber



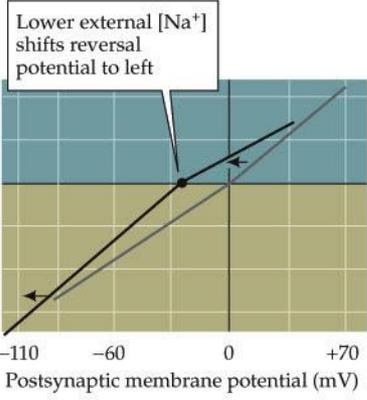
(B) Effect of membrane voltage on postsynaptic end plate currents (EPCs)



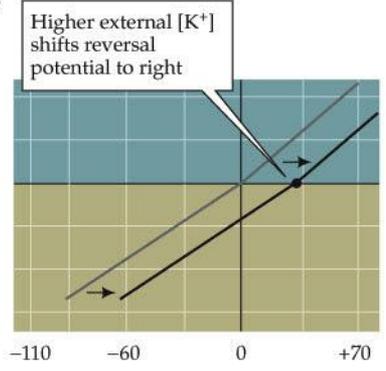
(C)



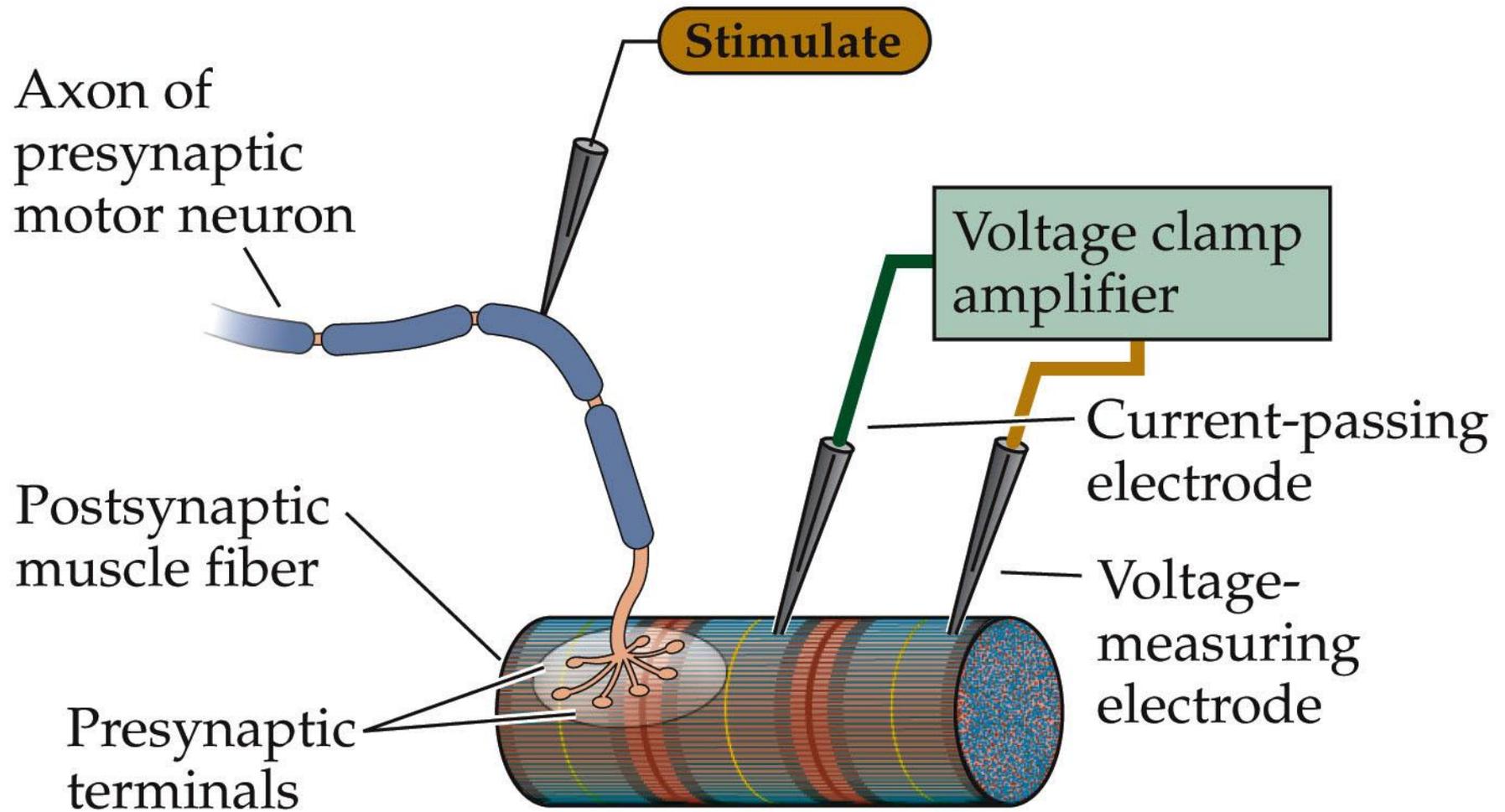
(D)



(E)



(A) Scheme for voltage clamping postsynaptic muscle fiber



(B) Effect of membrane voltage on postsynaptic end plate currents (EPCs)

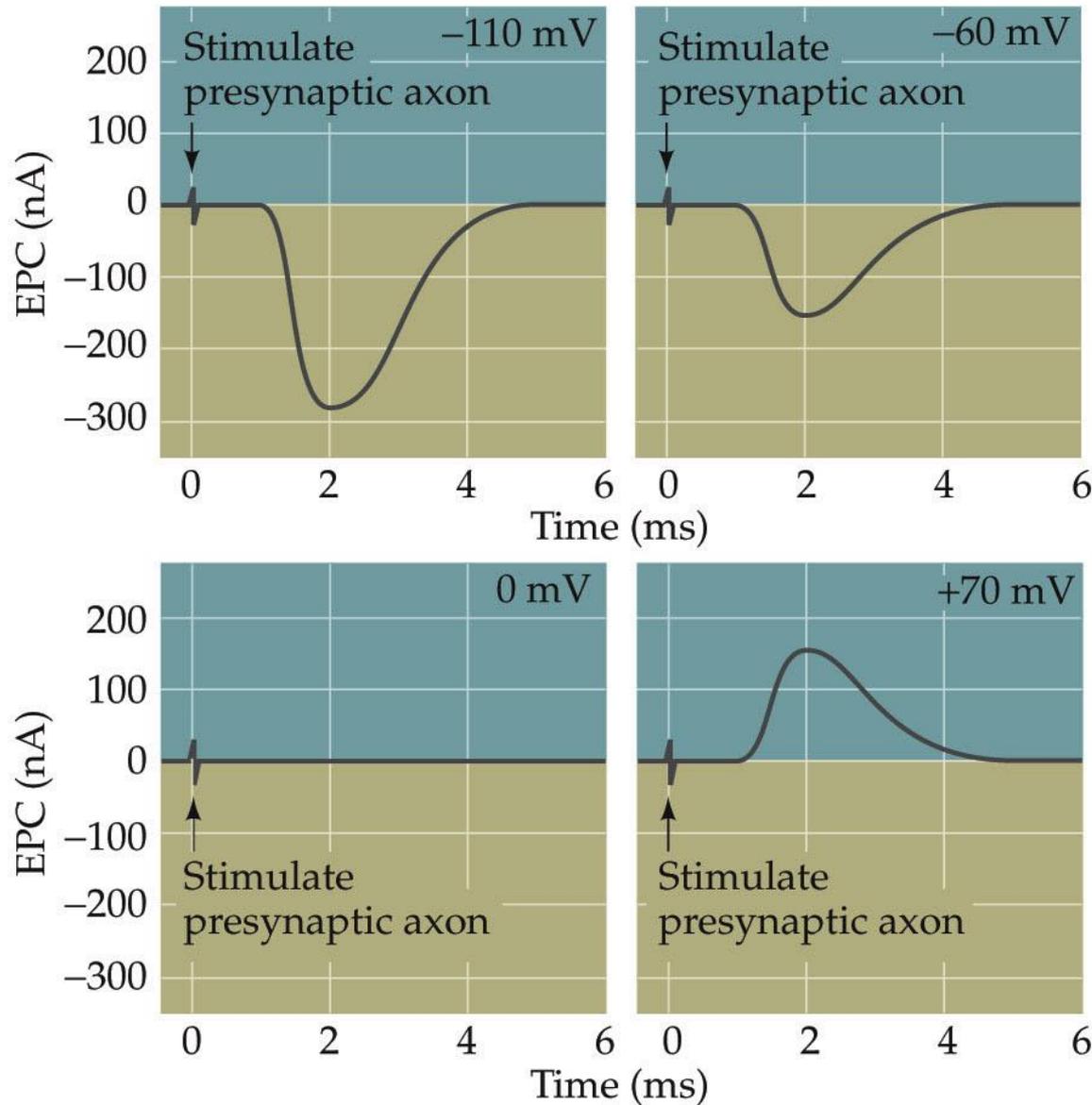


Figure 5.17 The influence of the postsynaptic membrane potential on end plate currents (Part 3)

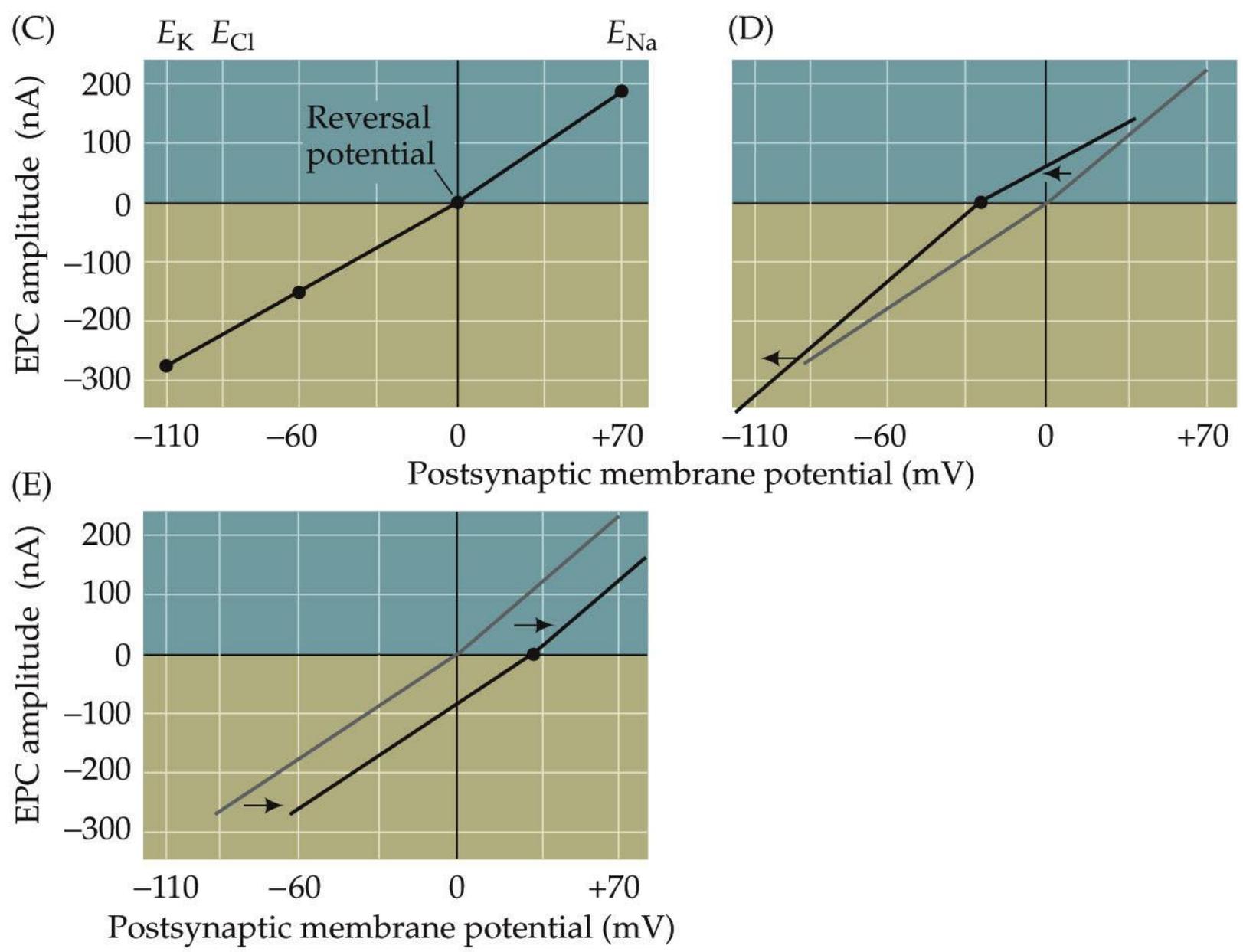


Figure 5.18 The effect of ion channel selectivity on the reversal potential

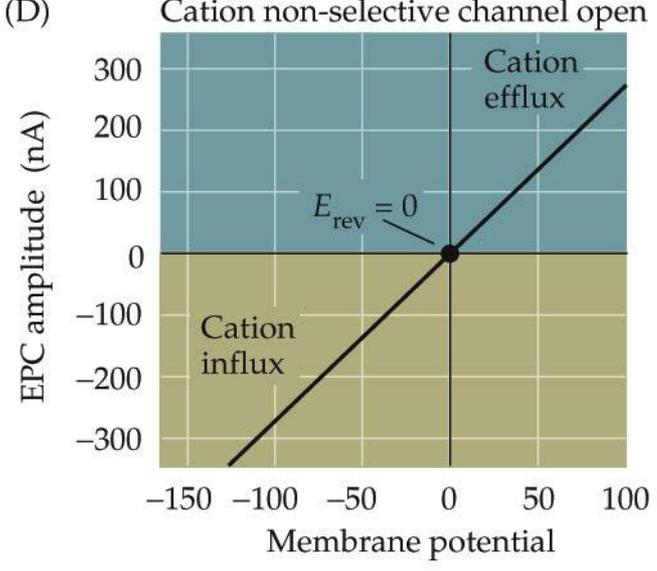
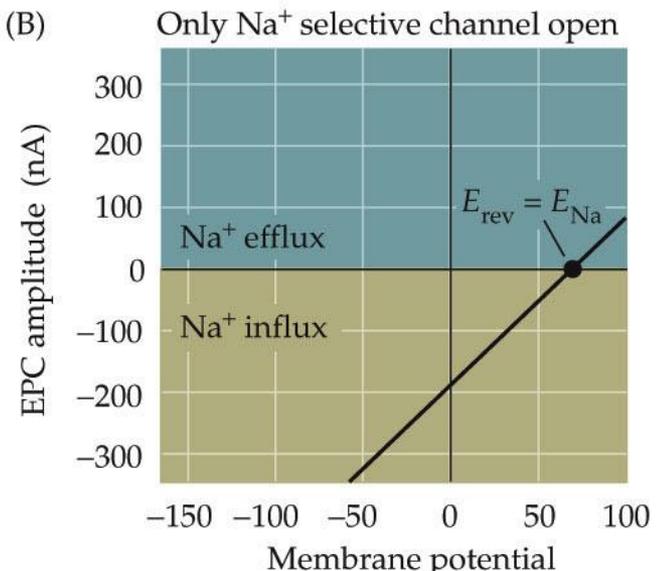
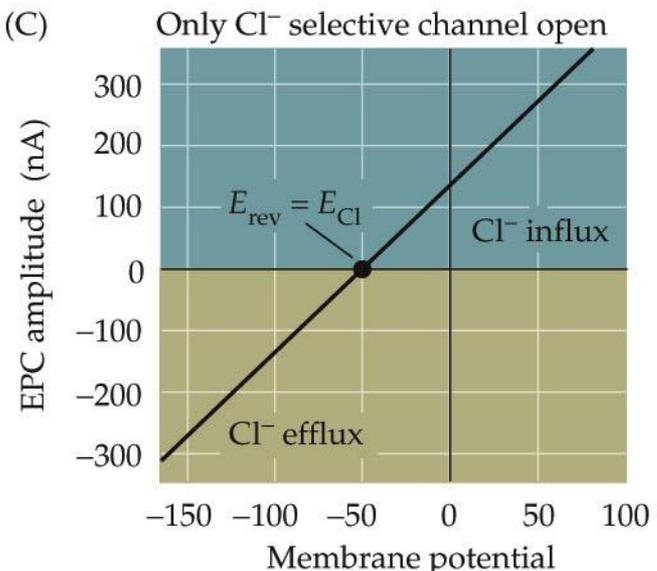
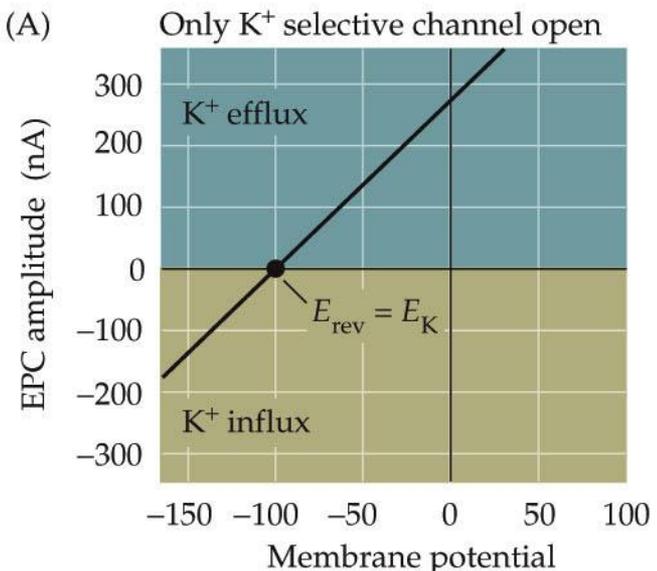


Figure 5.18 The effect of ion channel selectivity on the reversal potential (Part 1)

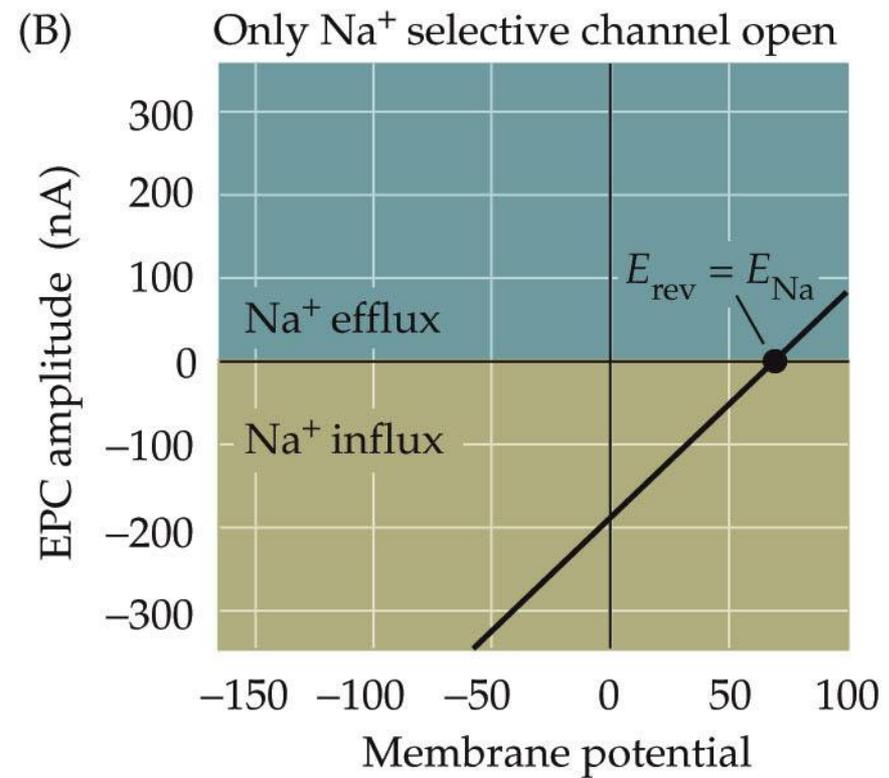
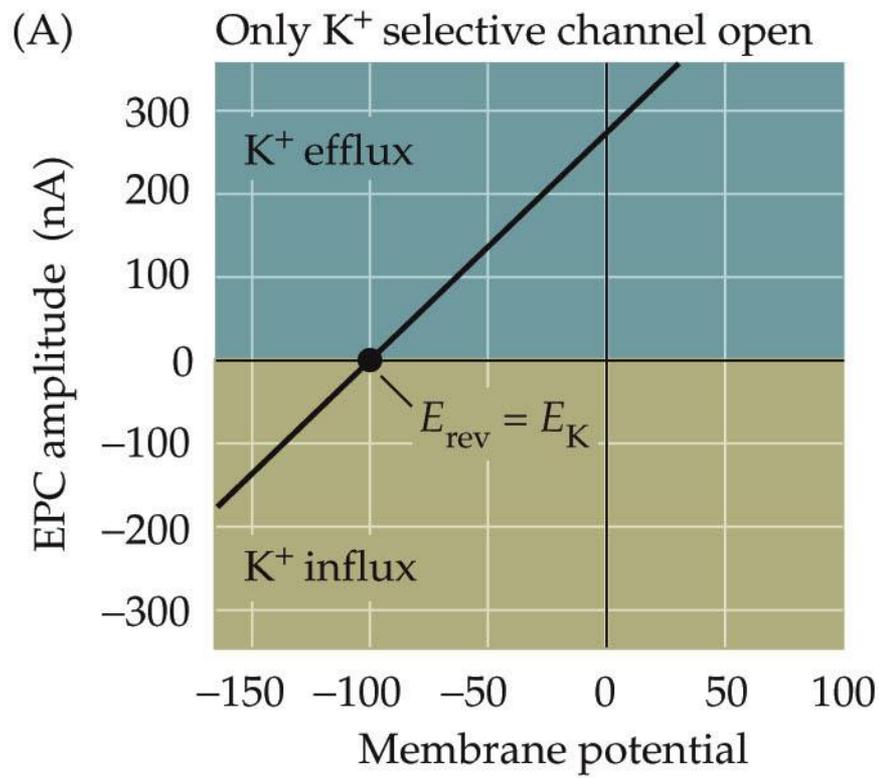


Figure 5.18 The effect of ion channel selectivity on the reversal potential (Part 2)

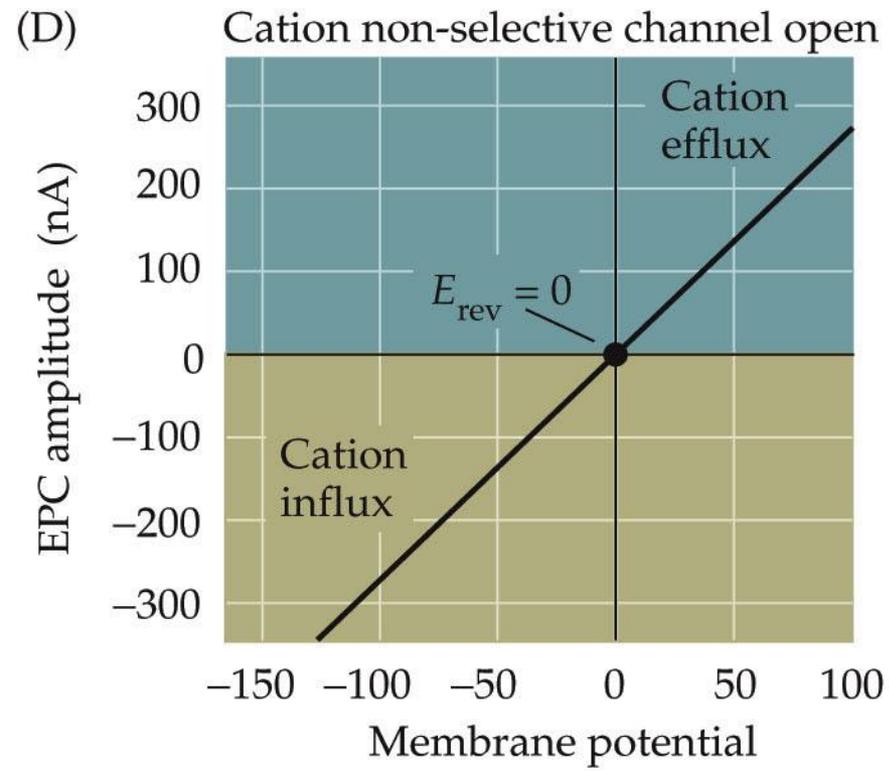
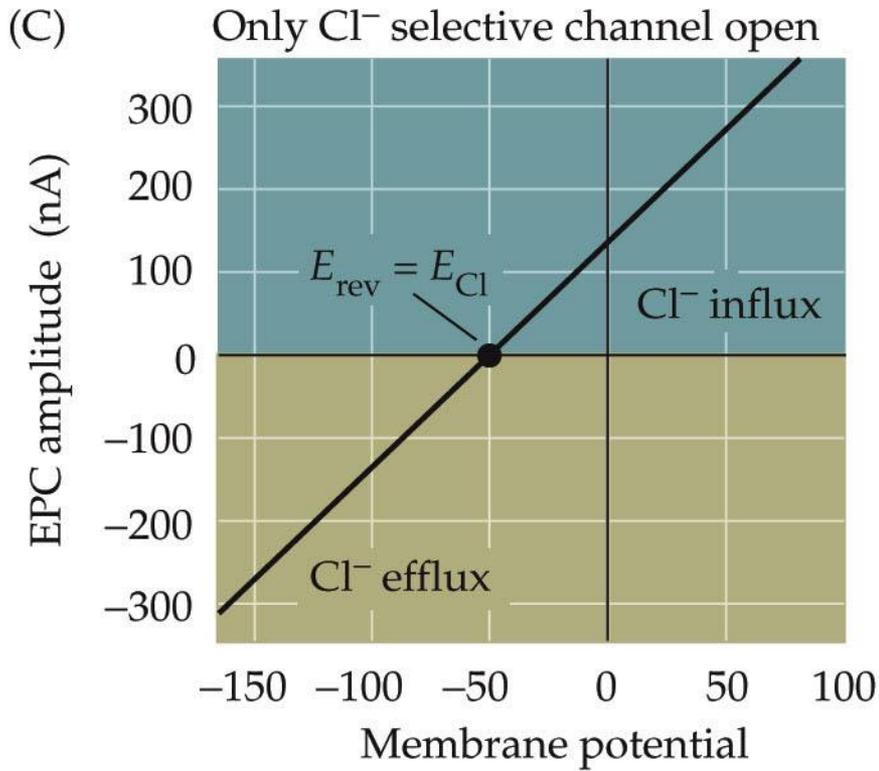
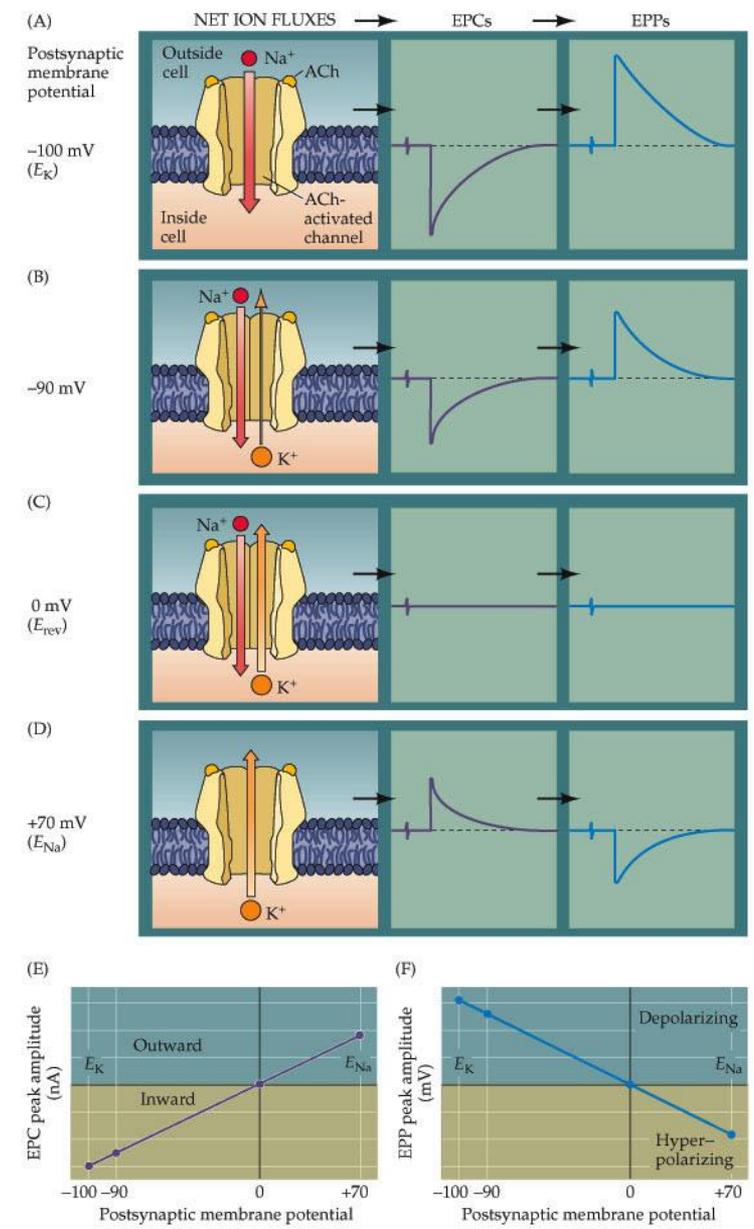


Figure 5.19 Na⁺ and K⁺ movements during EPCs and EPPs



NEUROSCIENCE, Fourth Edition, Figure 5.19

Figure 5.19 Na⁺ and K⁺ movements during EPCs and EPPs (Part 1)

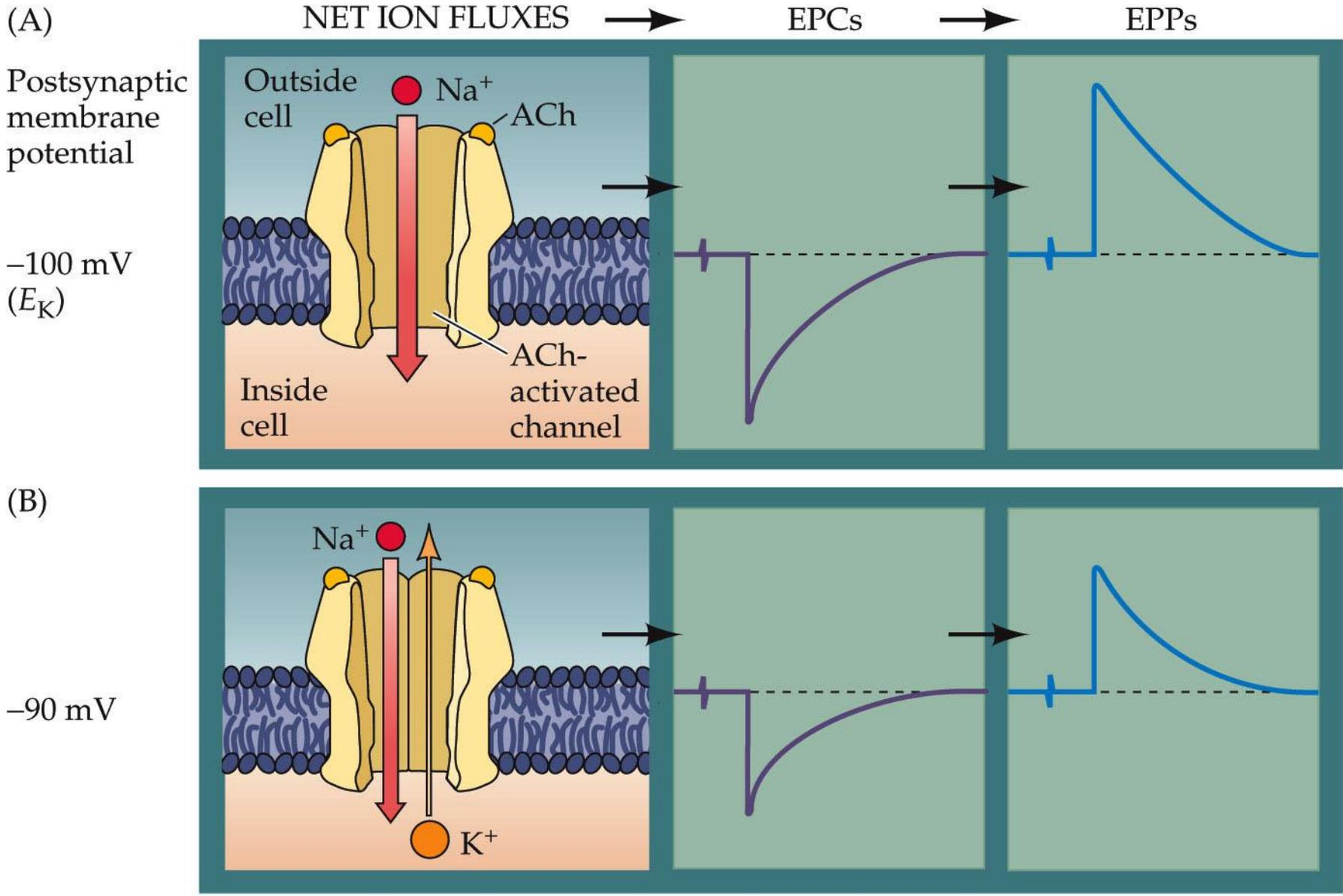


Figure 5.19 Na^+ and K^+ movements during EPCs and EPPs (Part 2)

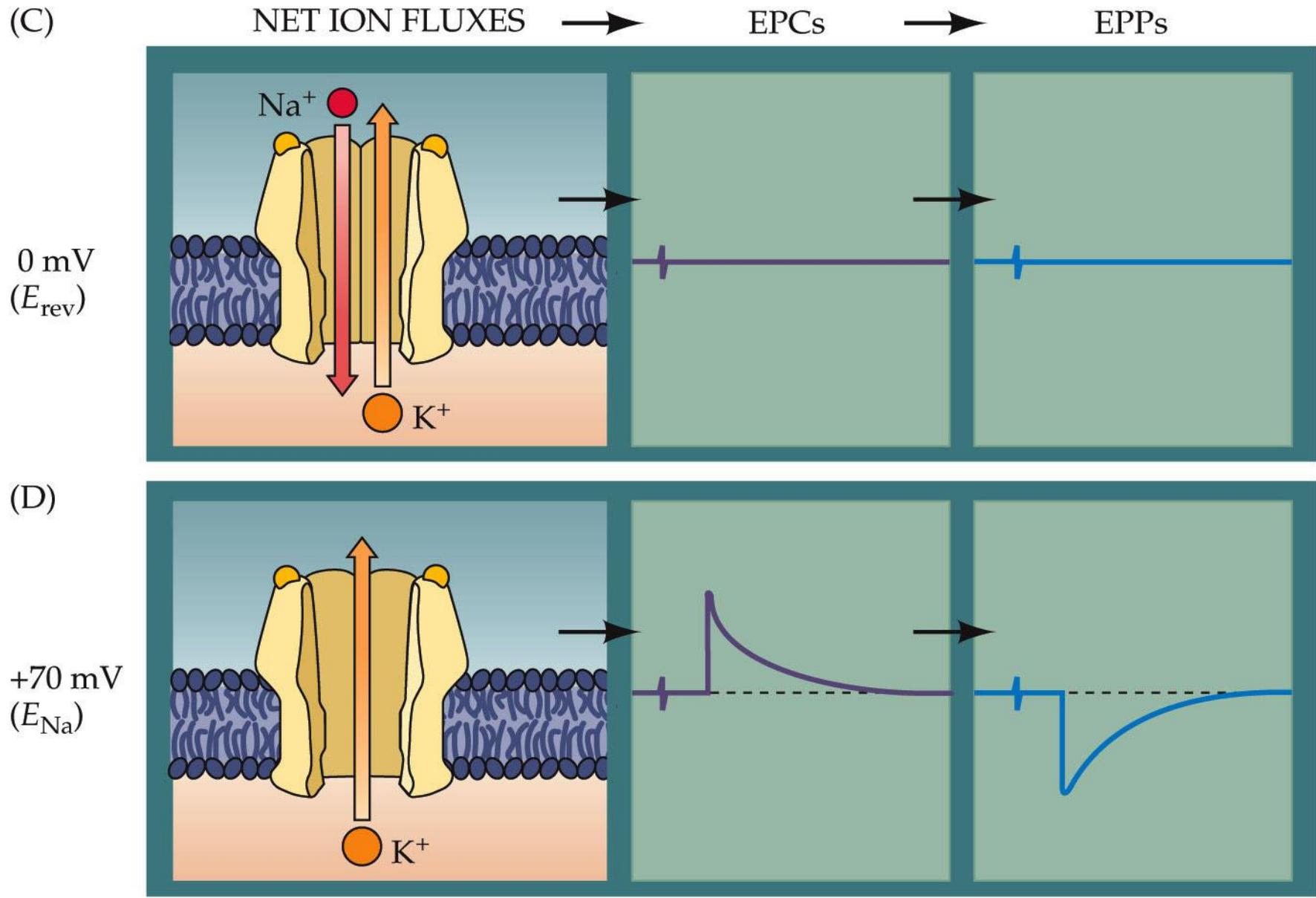


Figure 5.19 Na⁺ and K⁺ movements during EPCs and EPPs (Part 3)

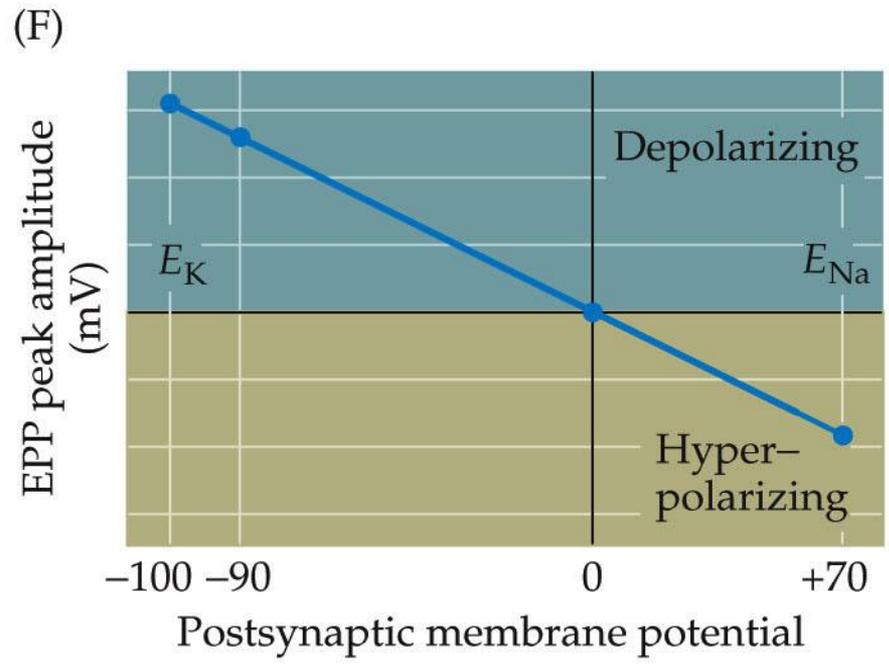
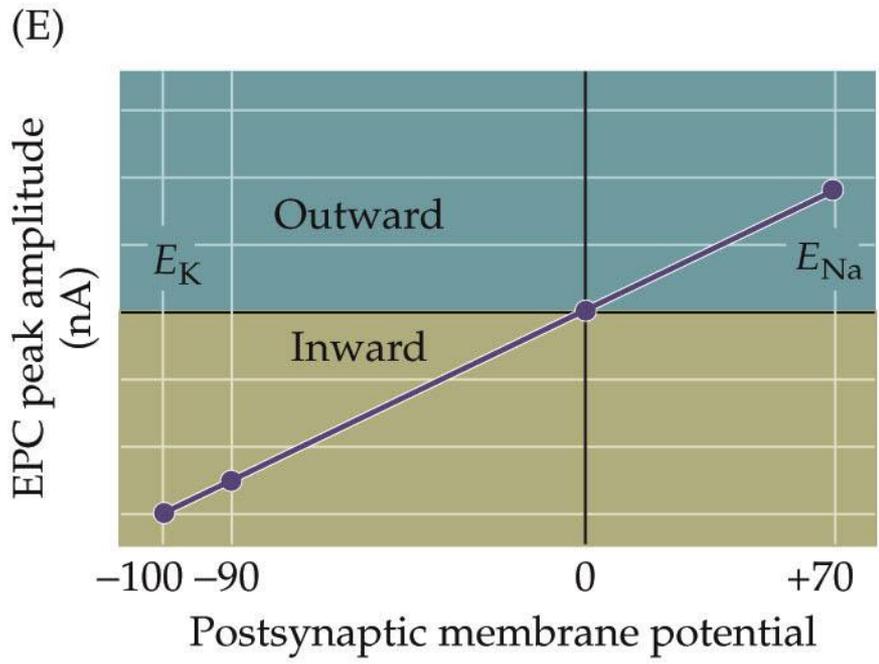


Figure 5.20 Reversal and threshold potentials determine postsynaptic excitation and inhibition

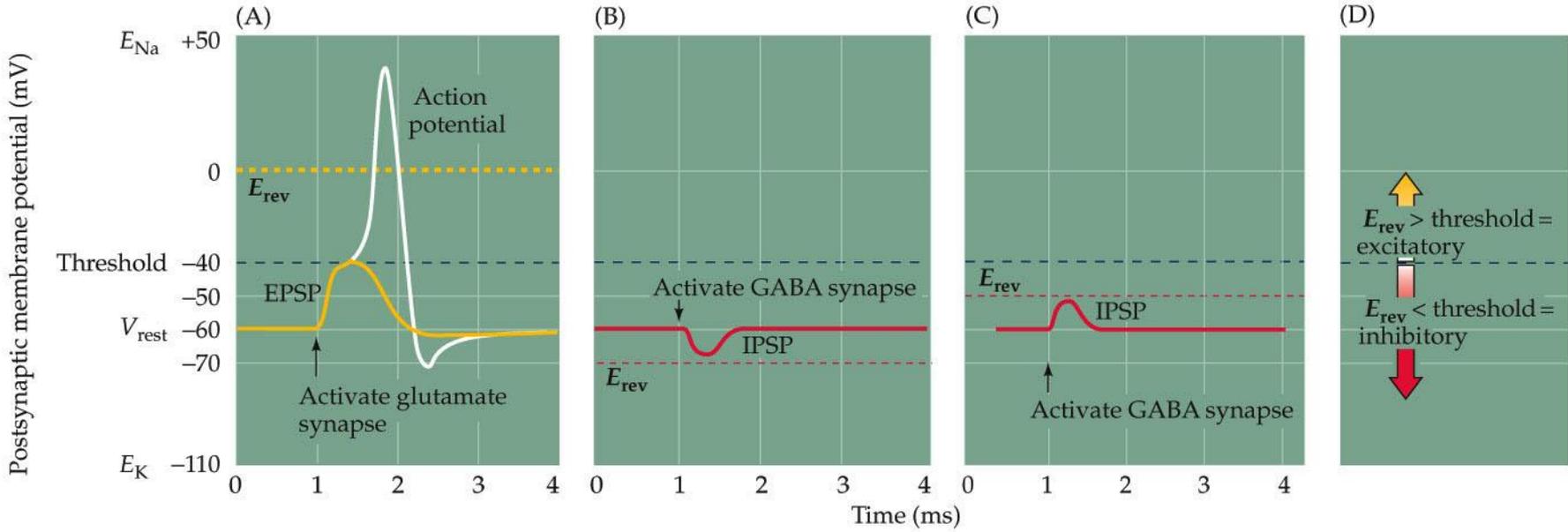


Figure 5.20 Reversal & threshold potentials determine postsynaptic excitation & inhibition (Part 1)

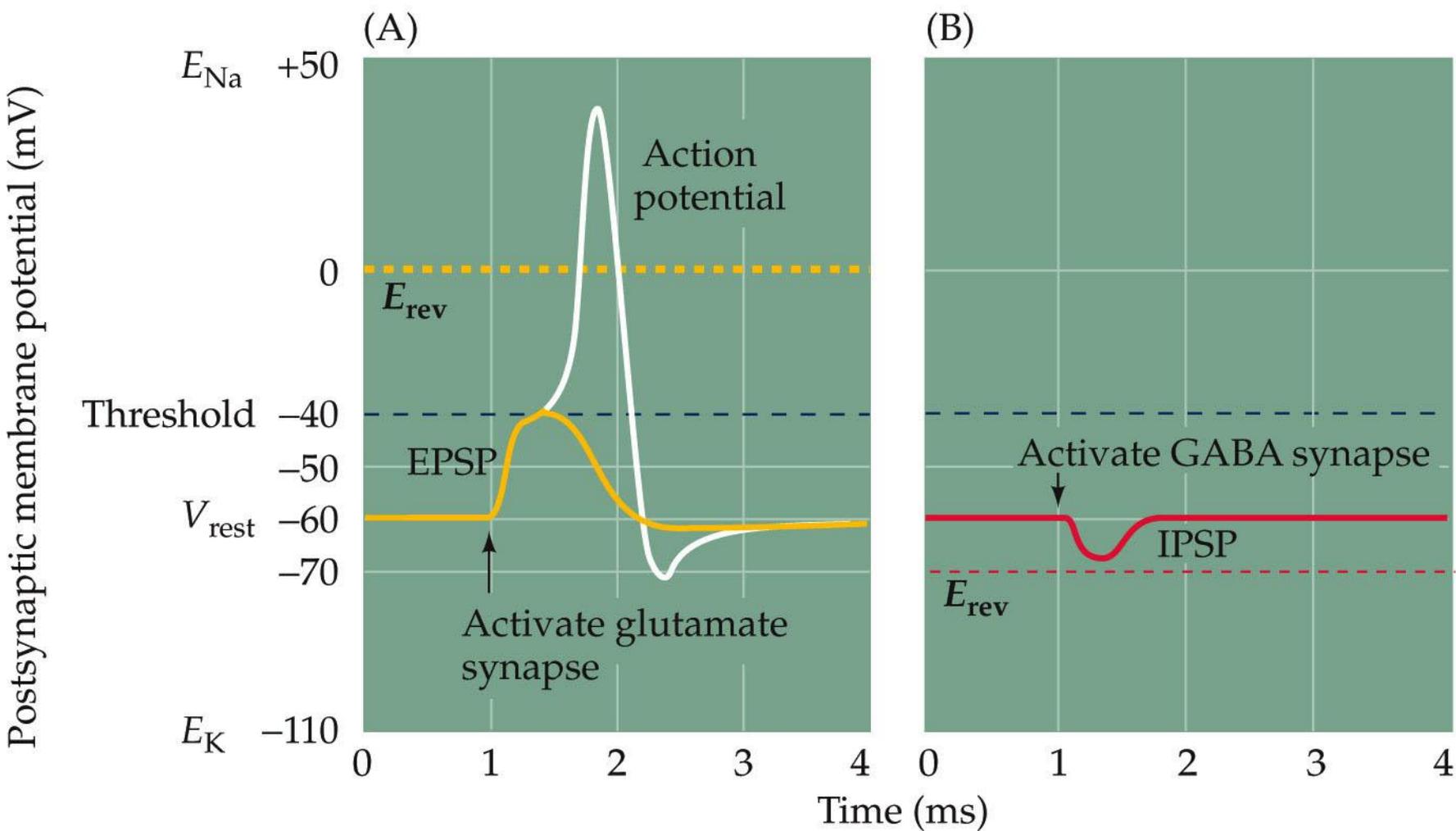


Figure 5.20 Reversal & threshold potentials determine postsynaptic excitation & inhibition (Part 2)

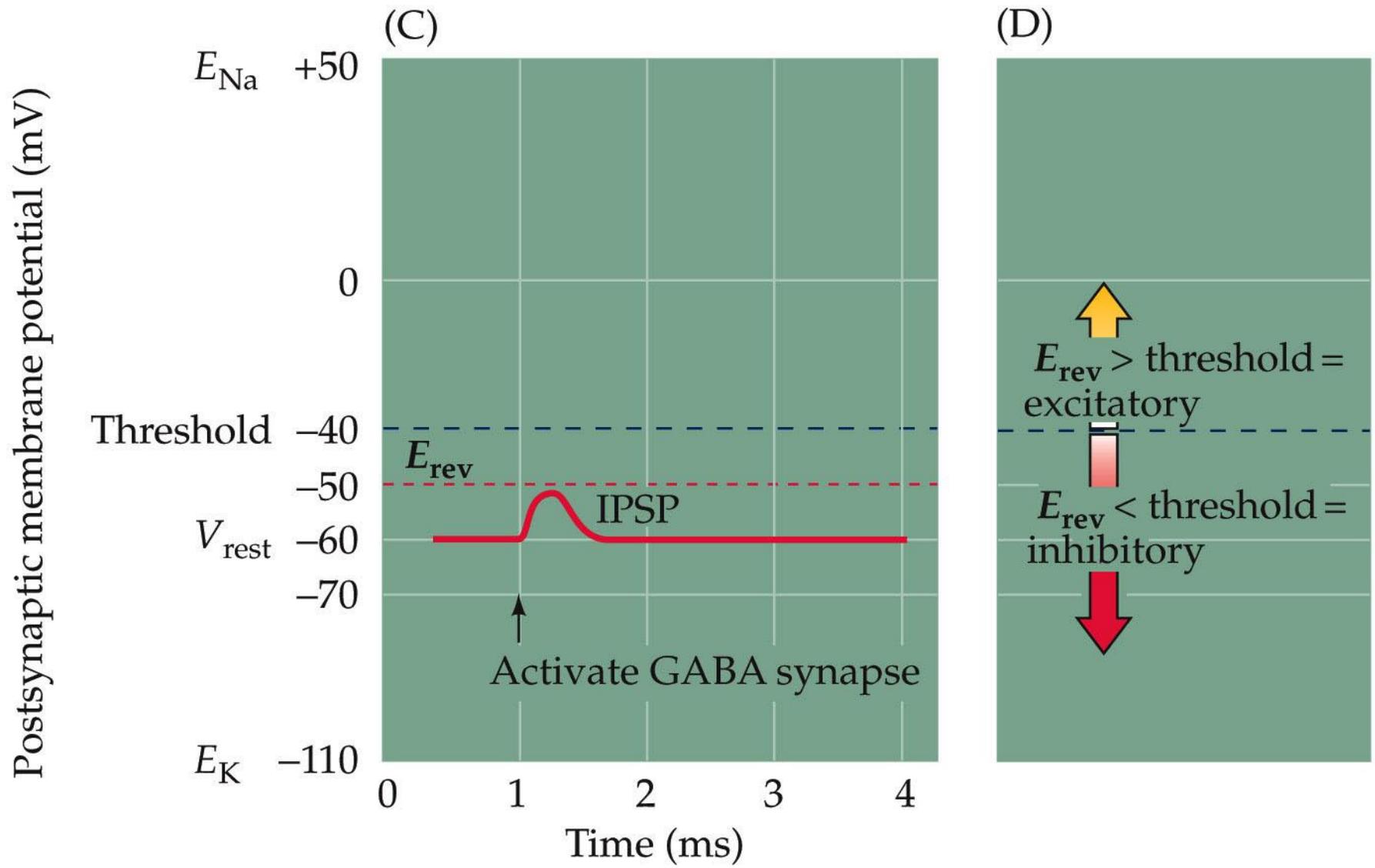
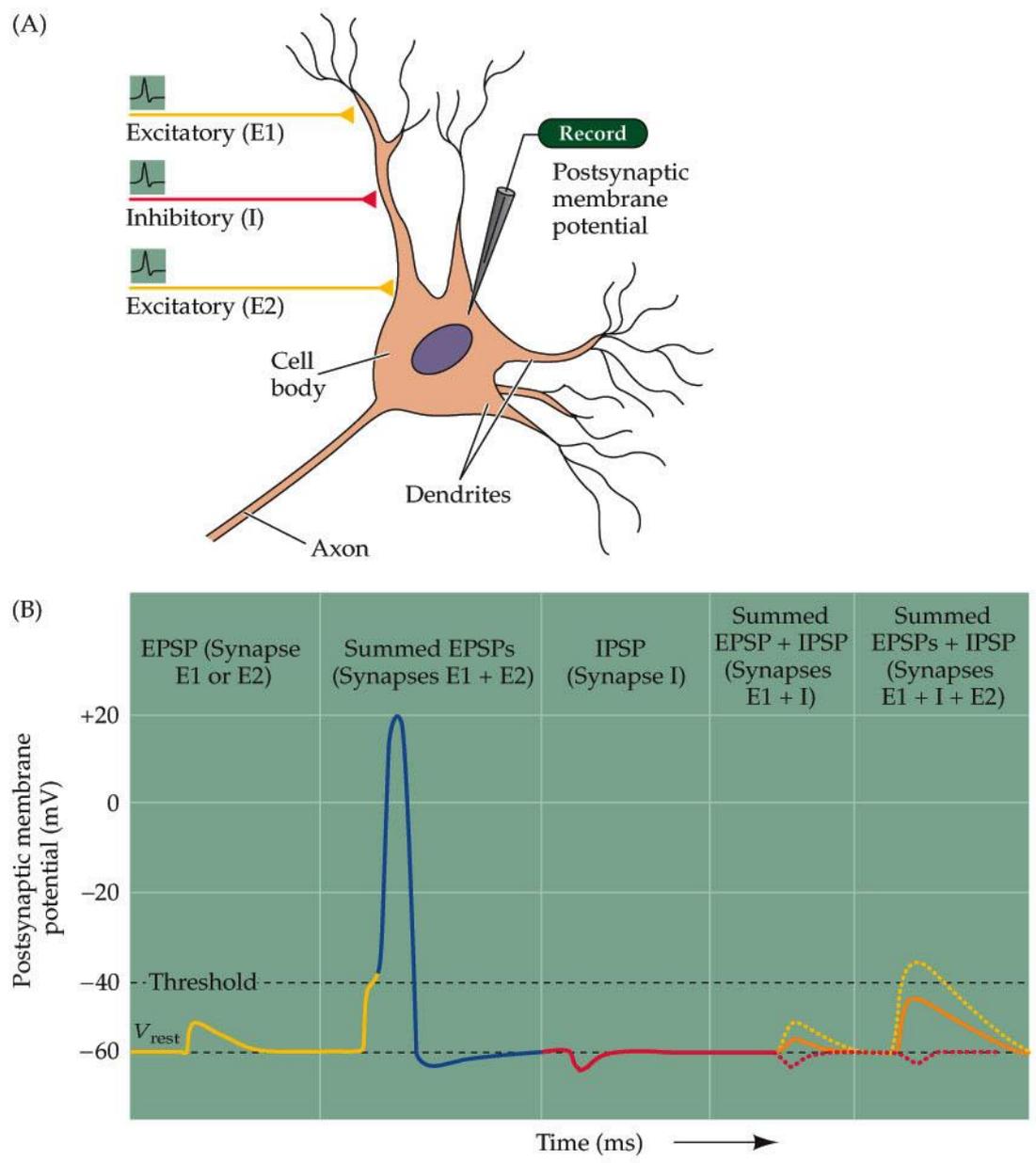


Figure 5.21 Summation of postsynaptic potentials



(A)

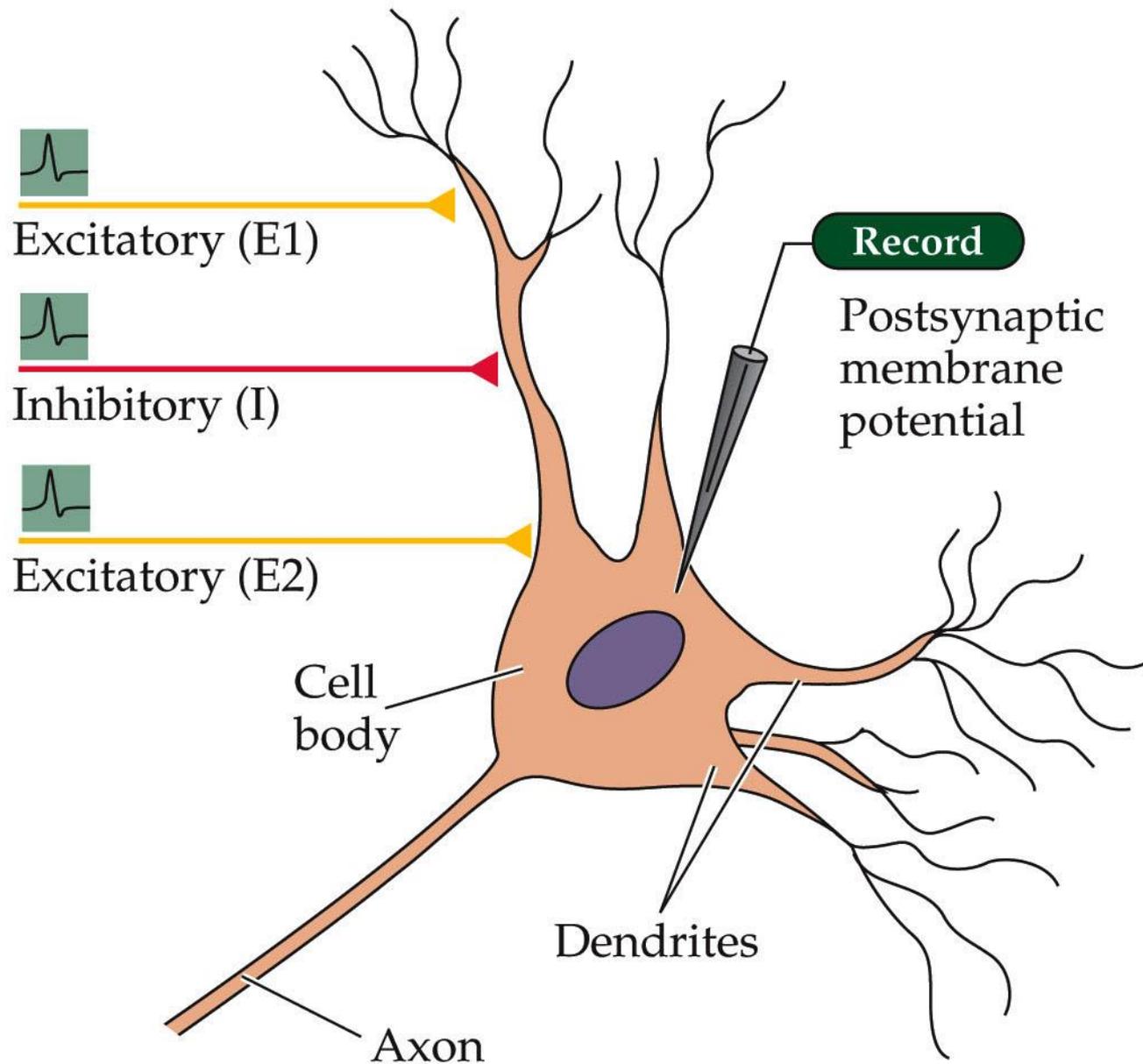
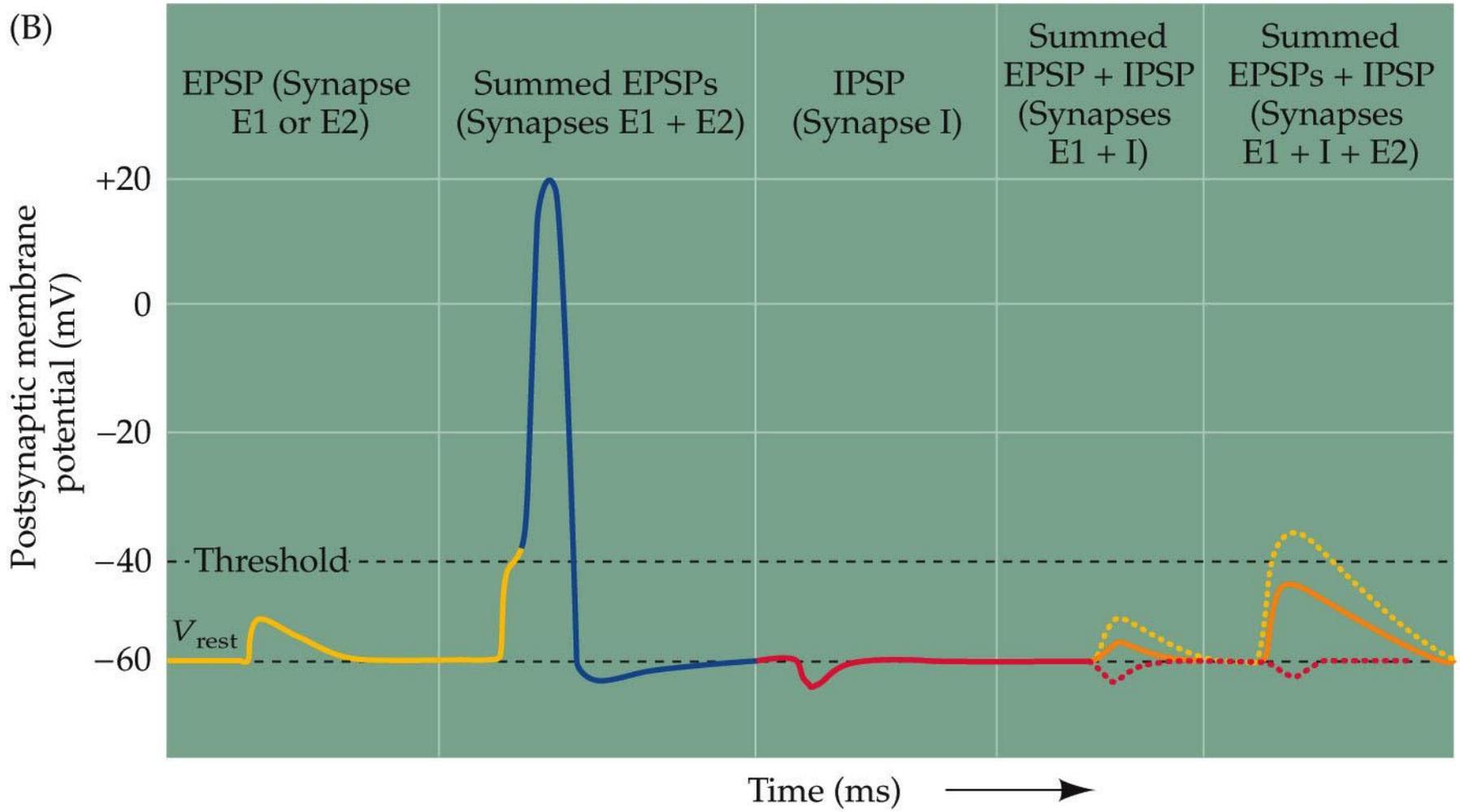
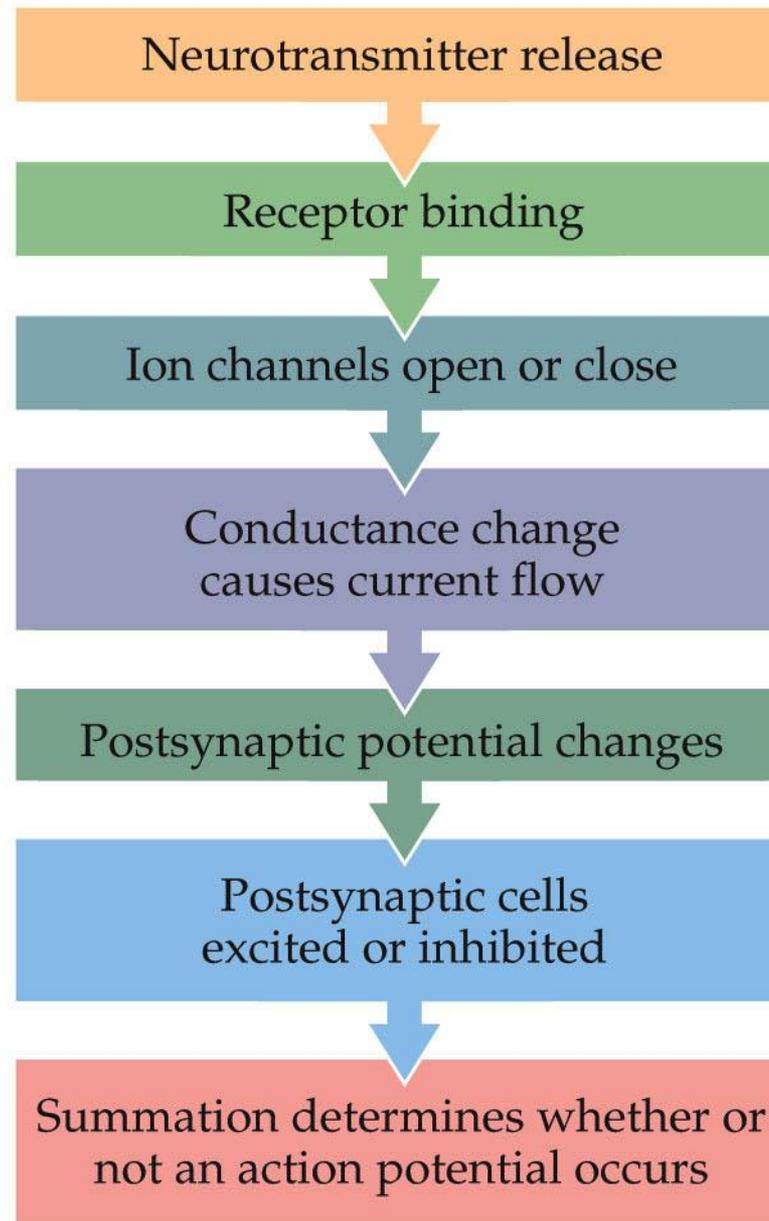


Figure 5.21 Summation of postsynaptic potentials (Part 2)

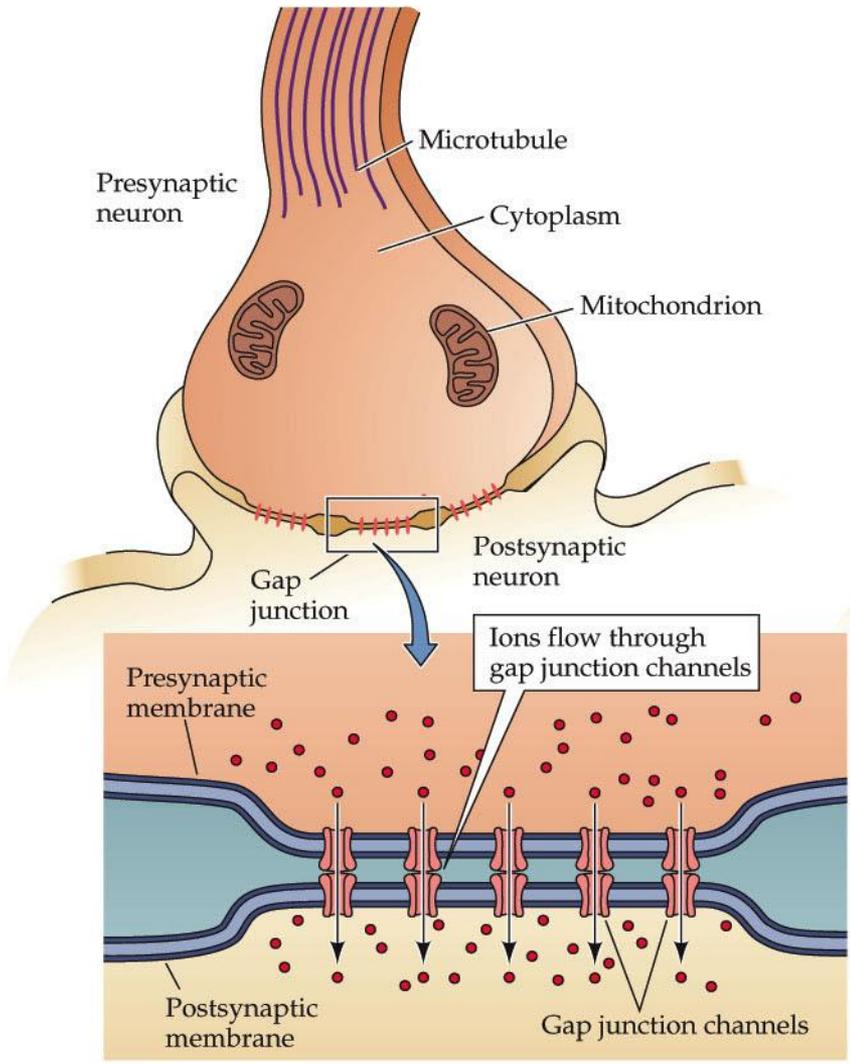




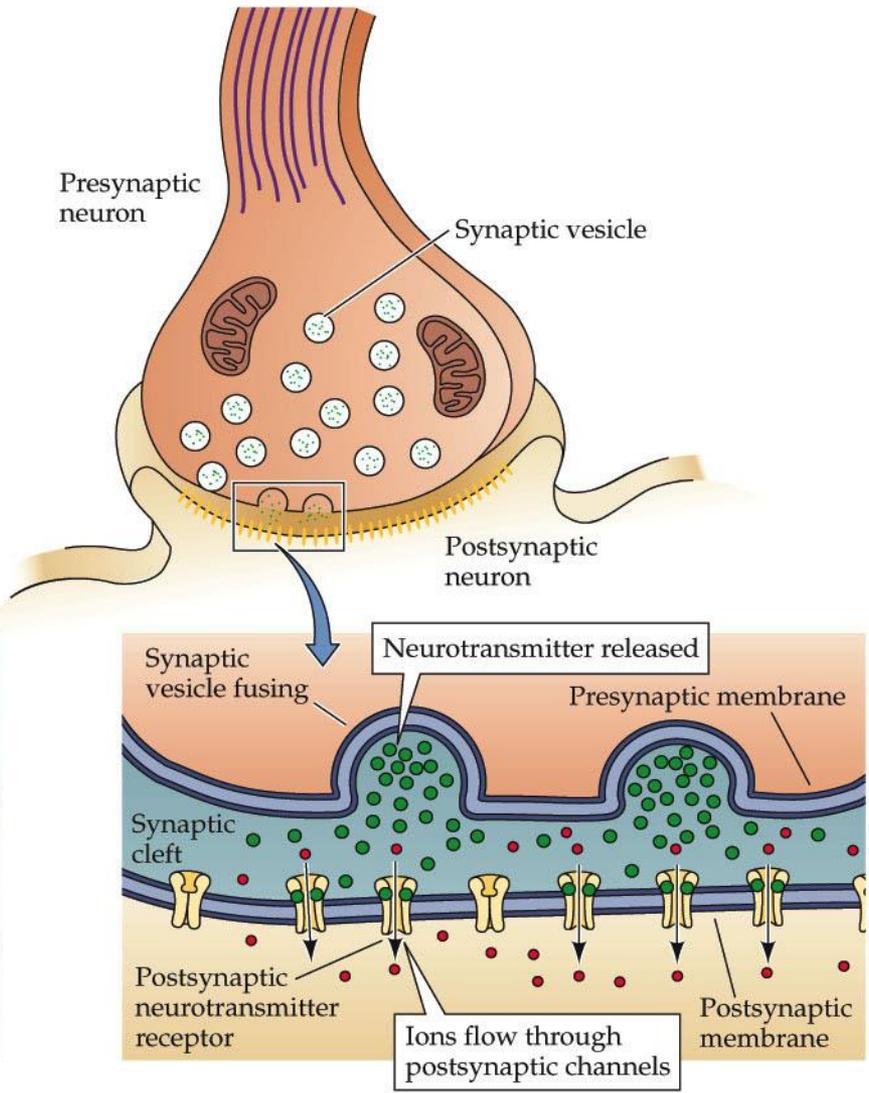
- Otto Loewi's experiments
- Bernard Katz's experiments
- Quantal analysis
- Synaptic transmission
- Synaptic reversal potentials
- Gap junctions

Figure 5.1 Electrical and chemical synapses differ in their transmission mechanisms

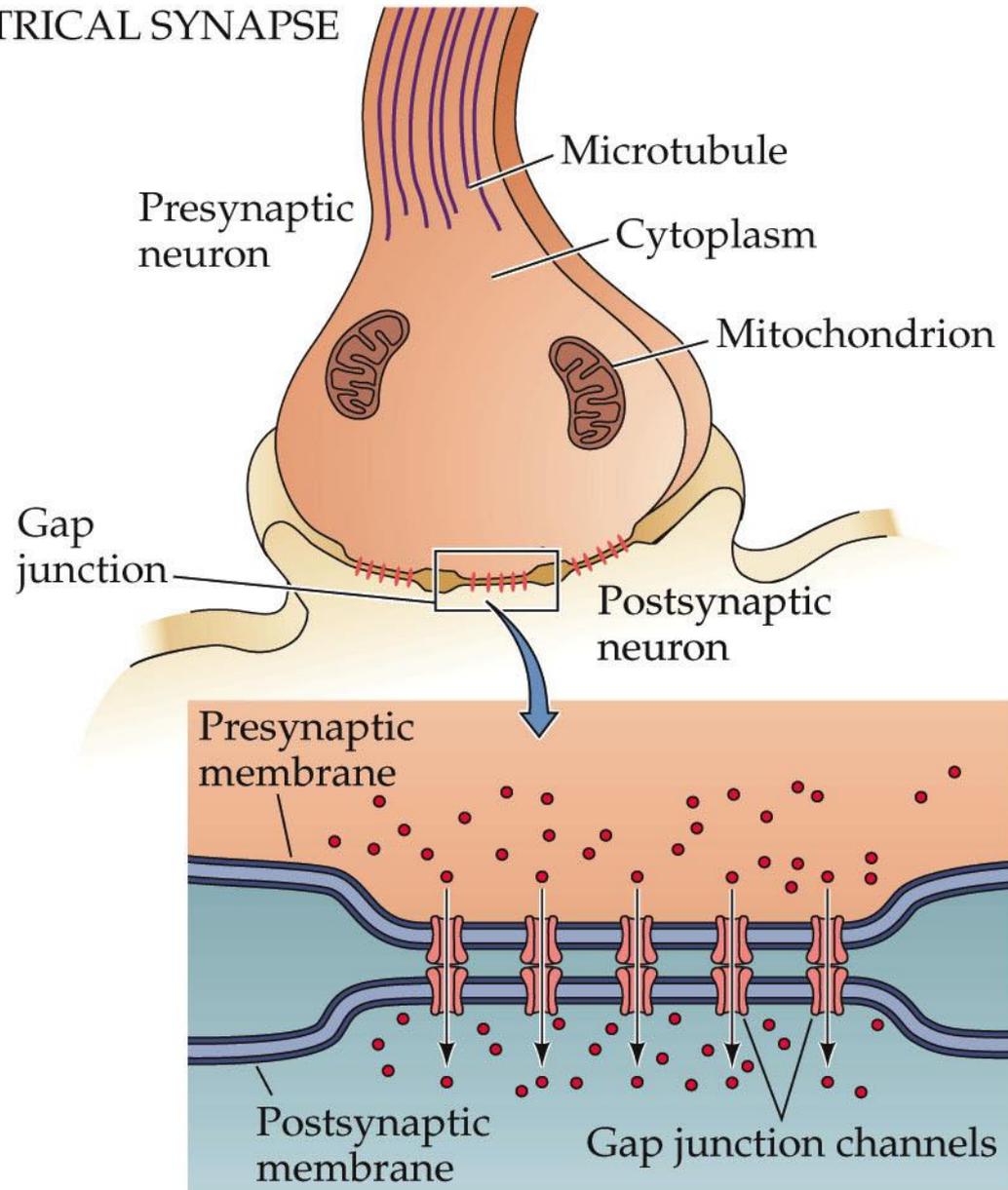
(A) ELECTRICAL SYNAPSE



(B) CHEMICAL SYNAPSE



(A) ELECTRICAL SYNAPSE



(B) CHEMICAL SYNAPSE

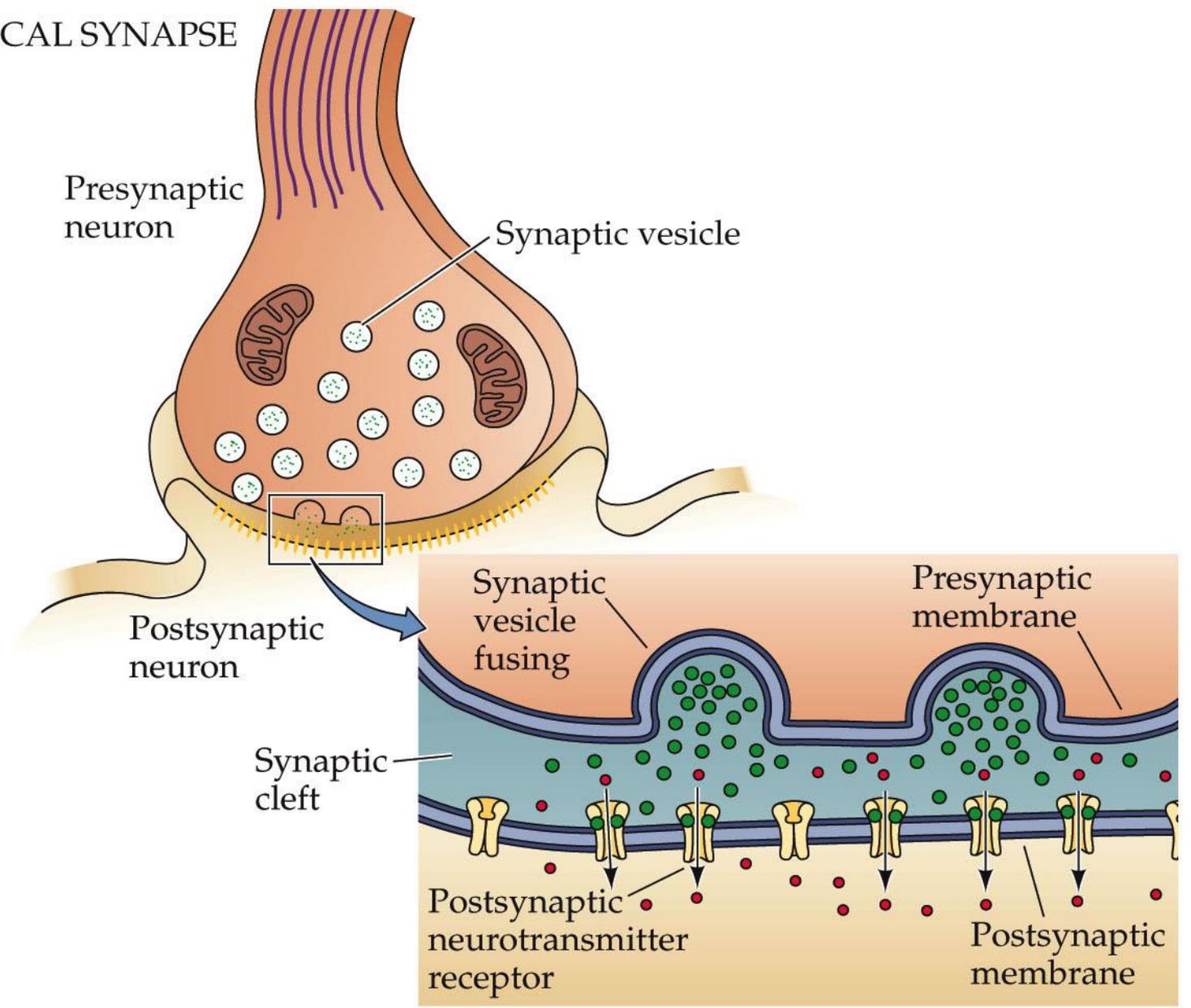


Figure 5.2 Structure and function of gap junctions at electrical synapses

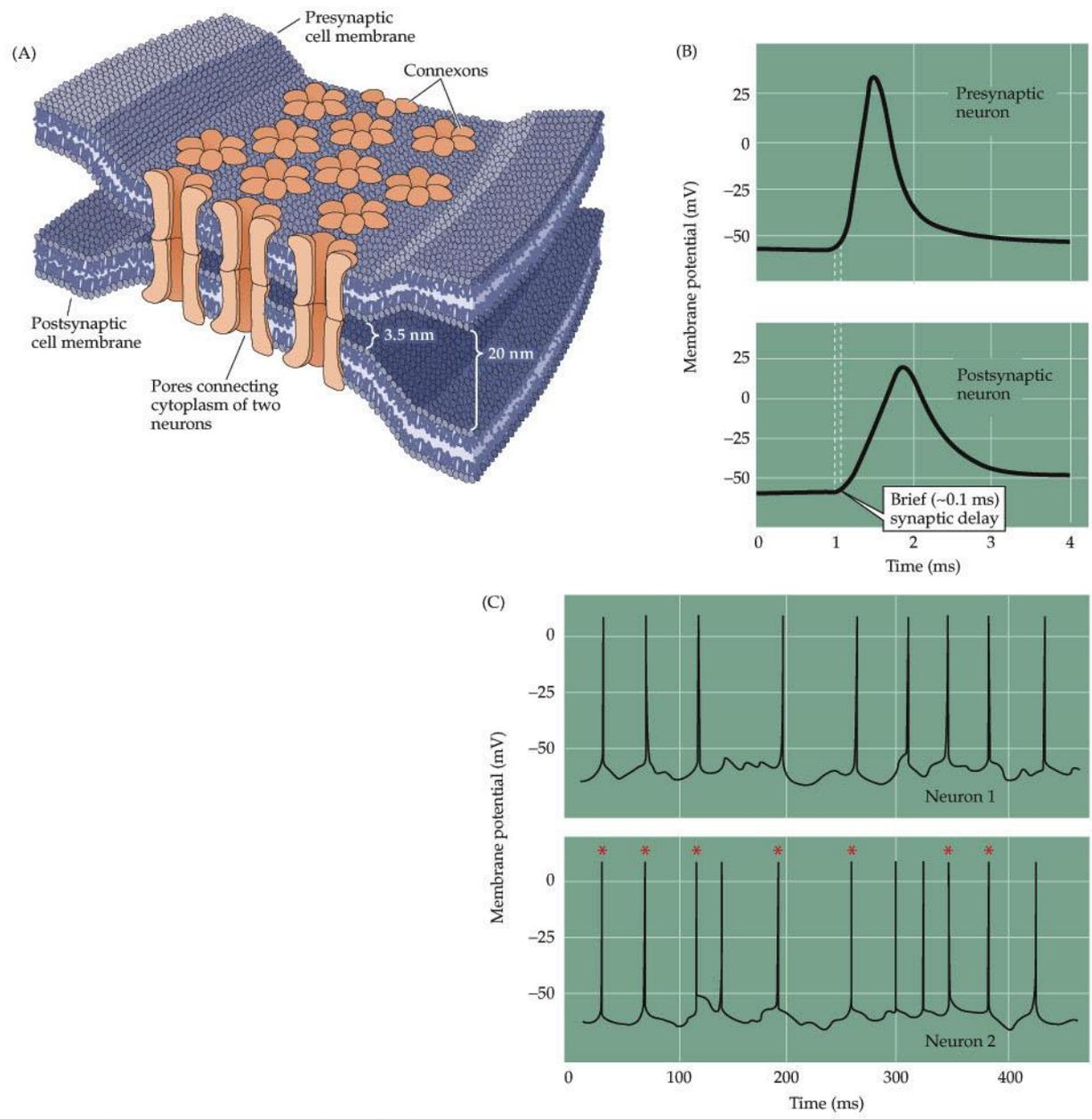


Figure 5.2 Structure and function of gap junctions at electrical synapses (Part 1)

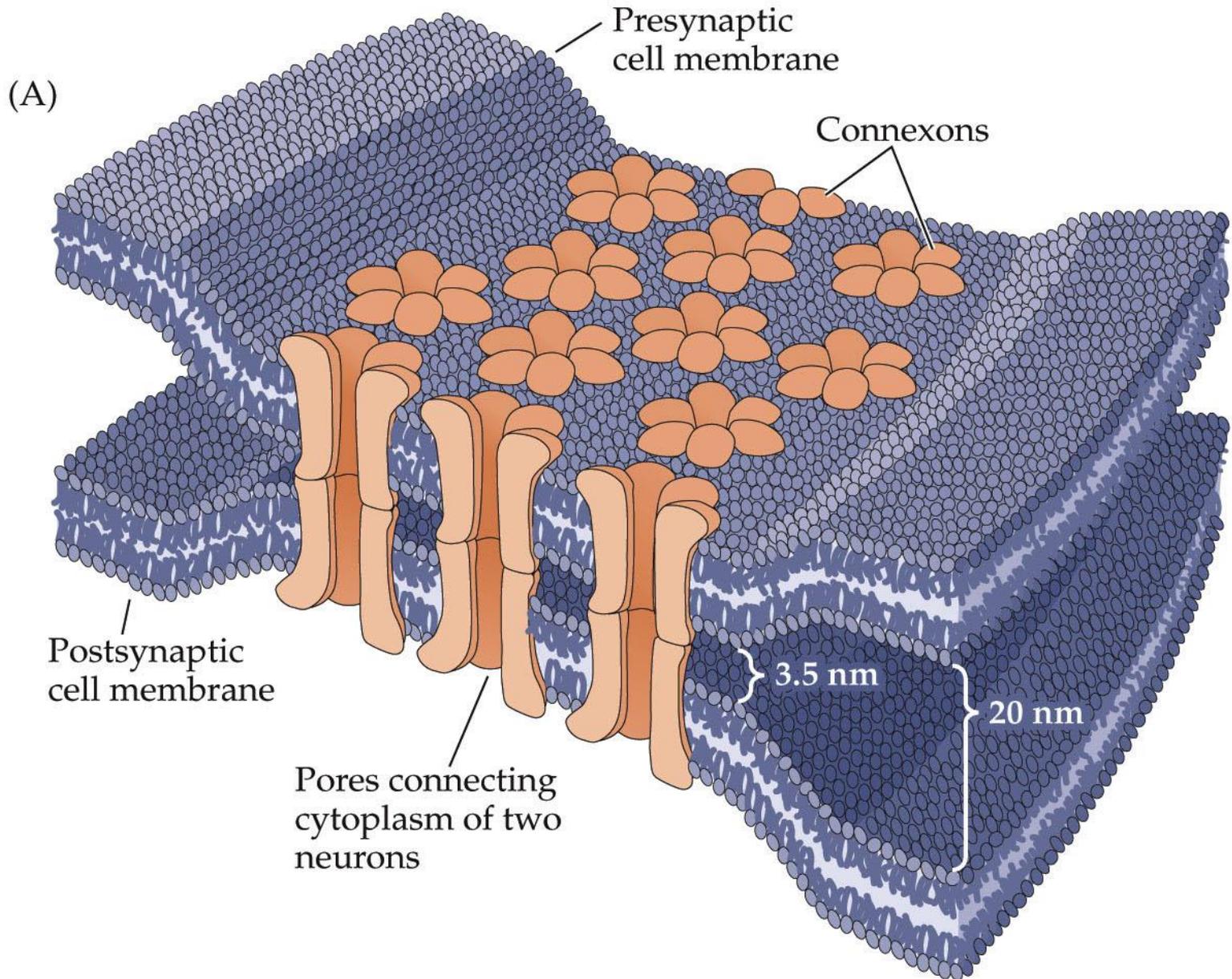
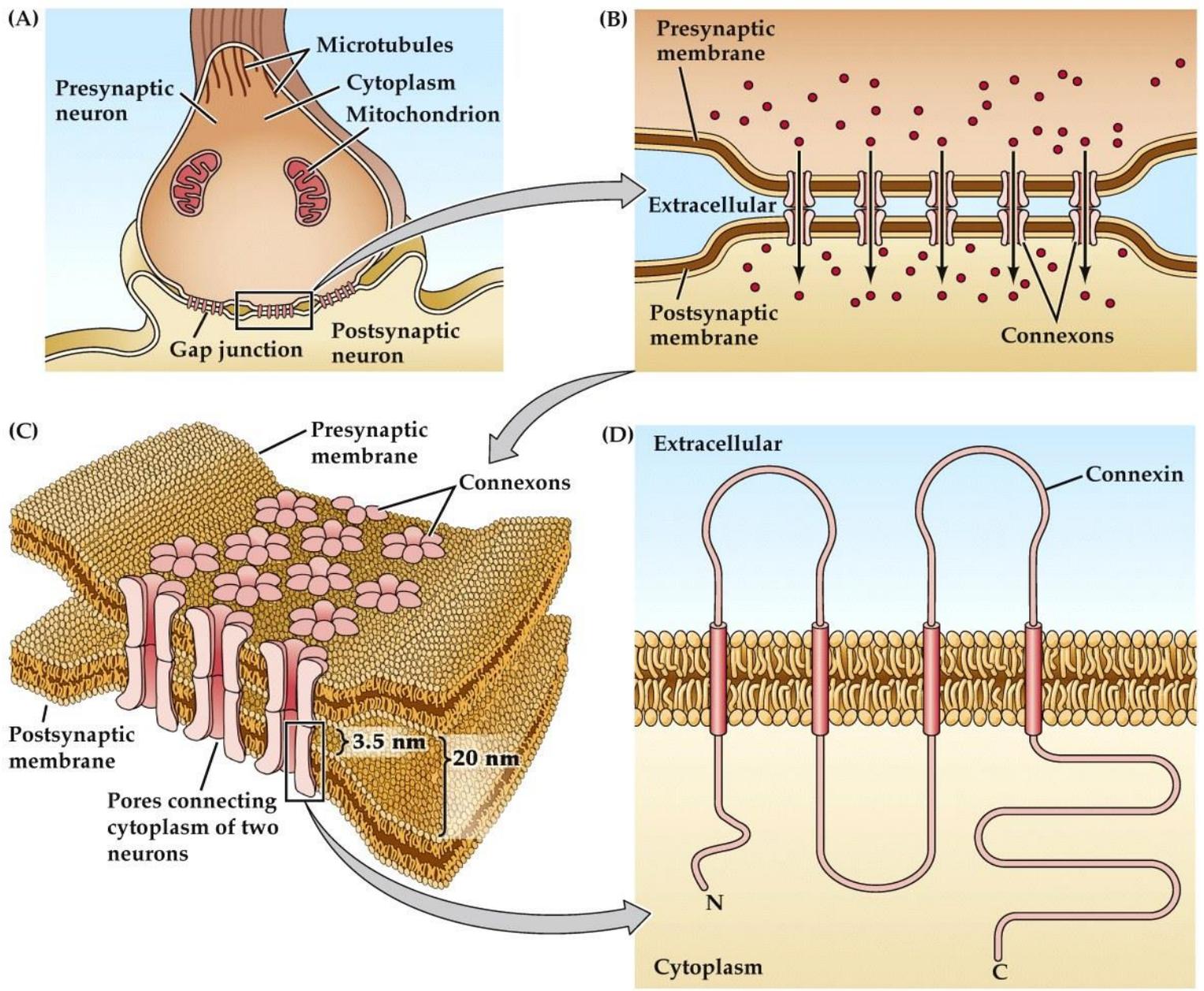
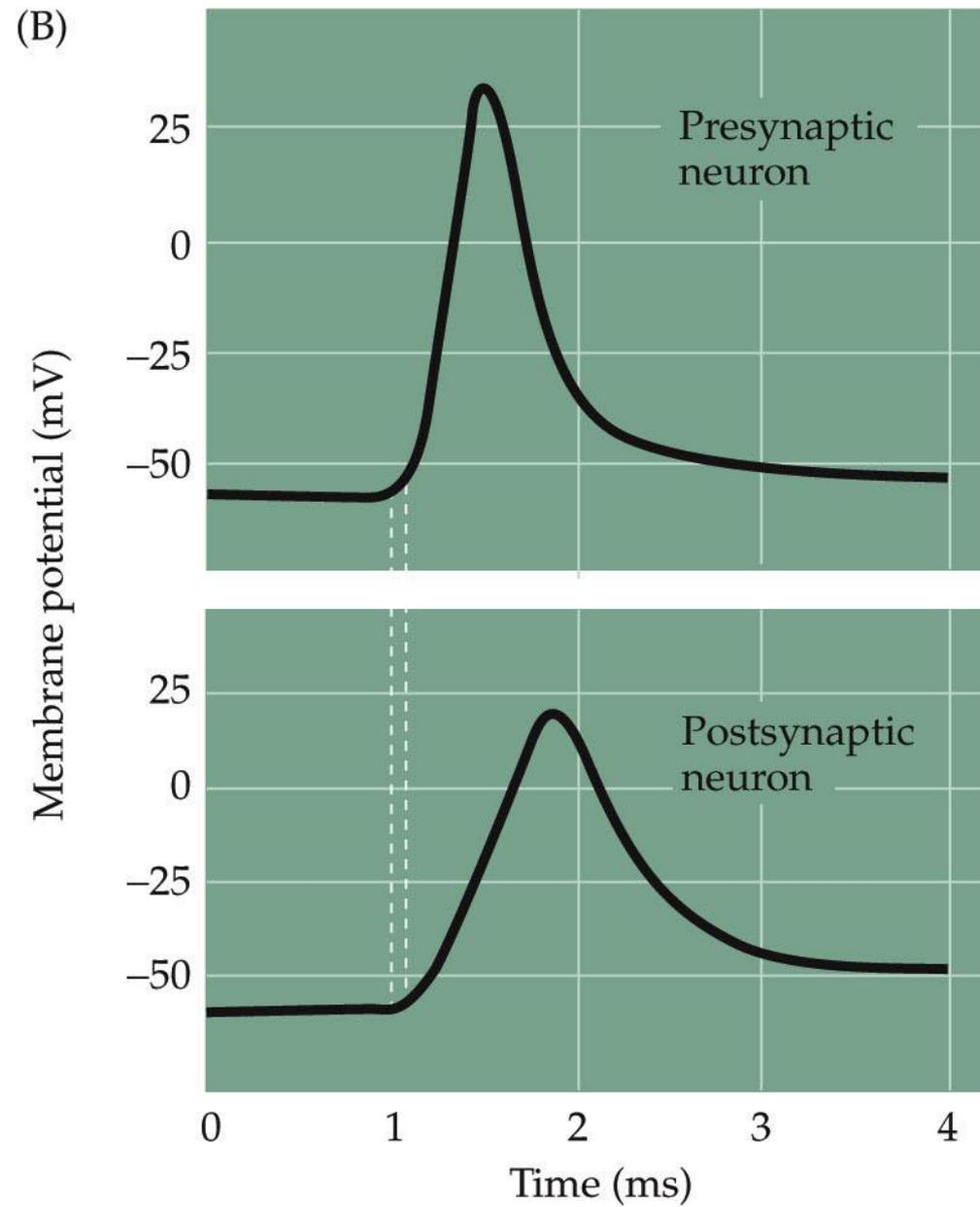
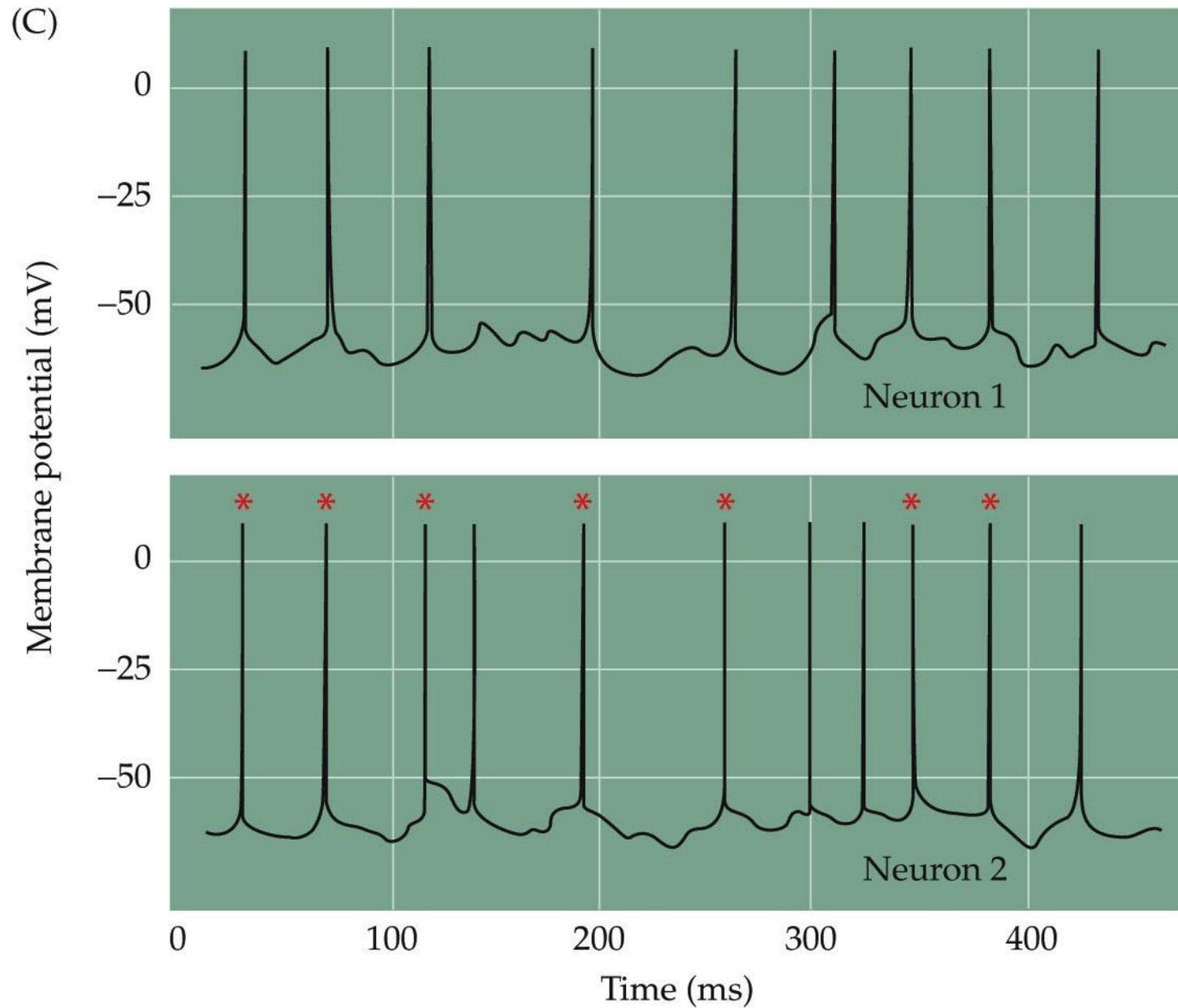


Figure 5.1 Structure of electrical synapses

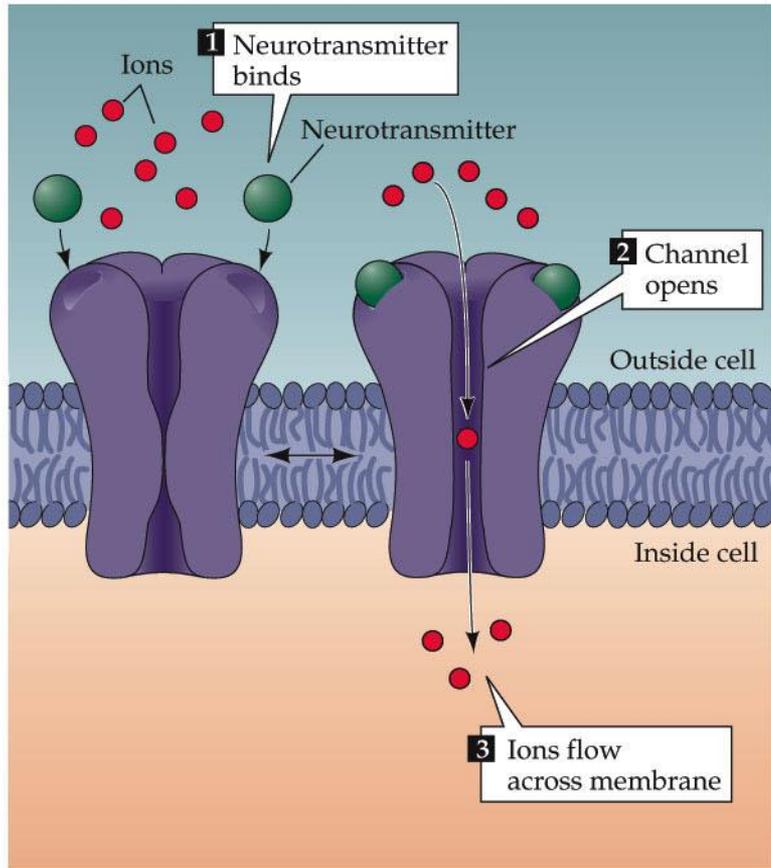




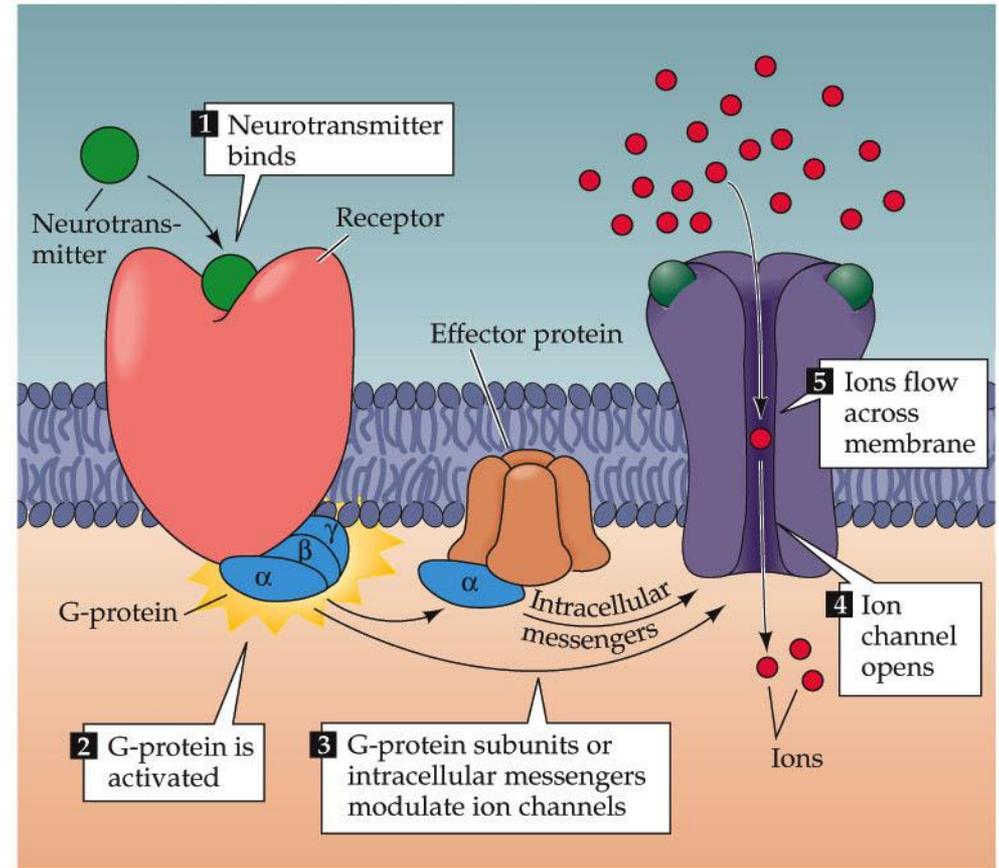


- Supplementary slides

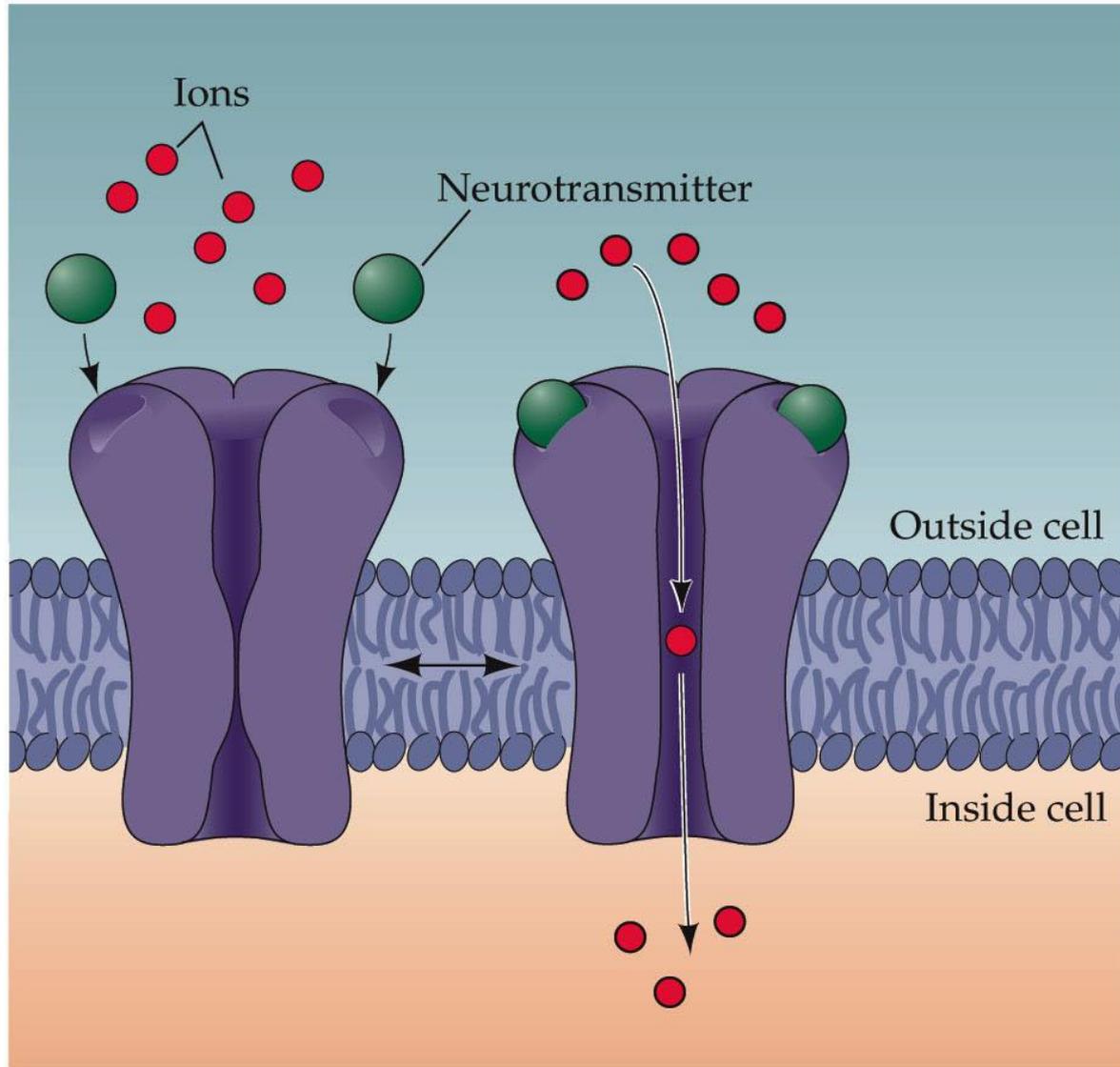
(A) LIGAND-GATED ION CHANNELS



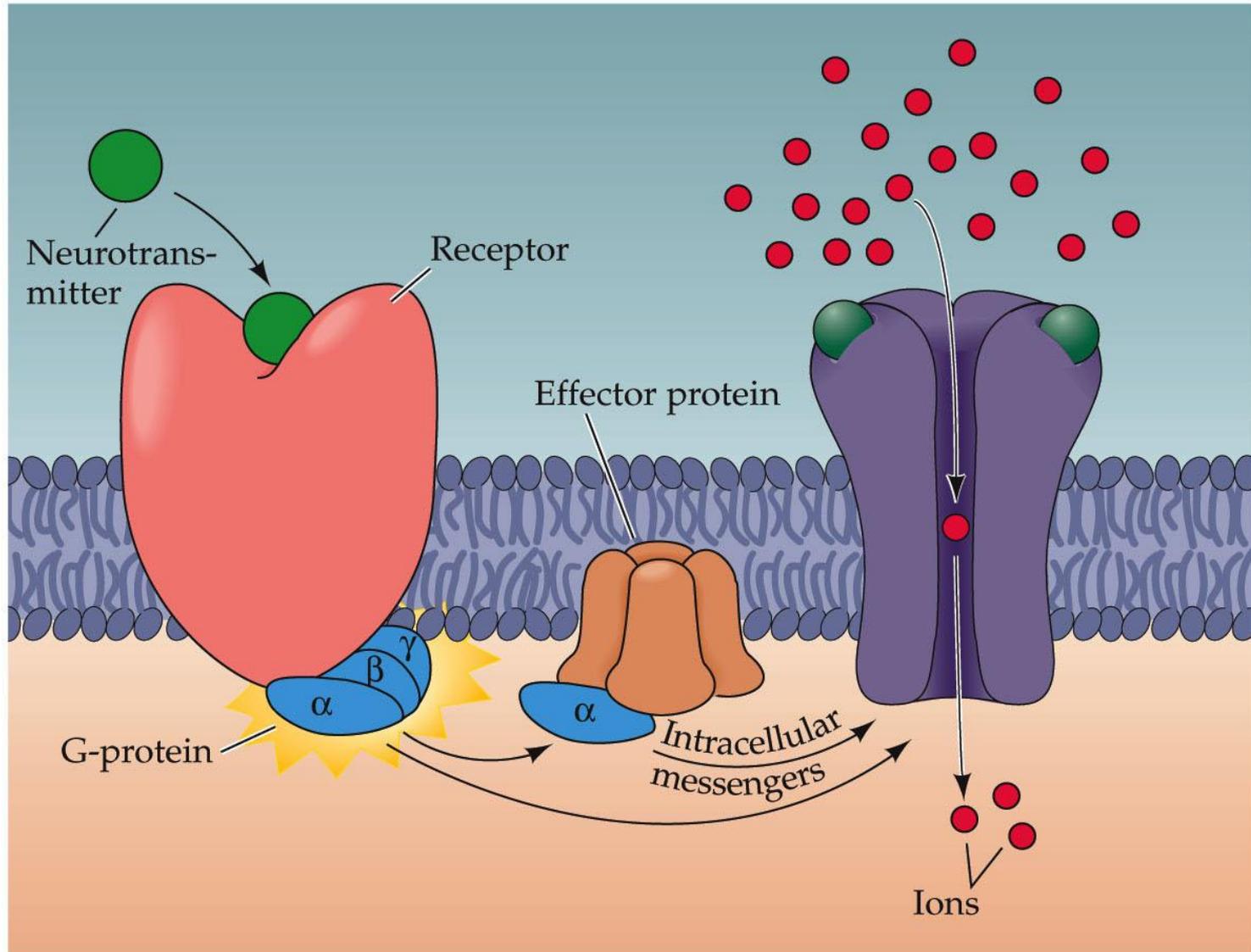
(B) G-PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTORS

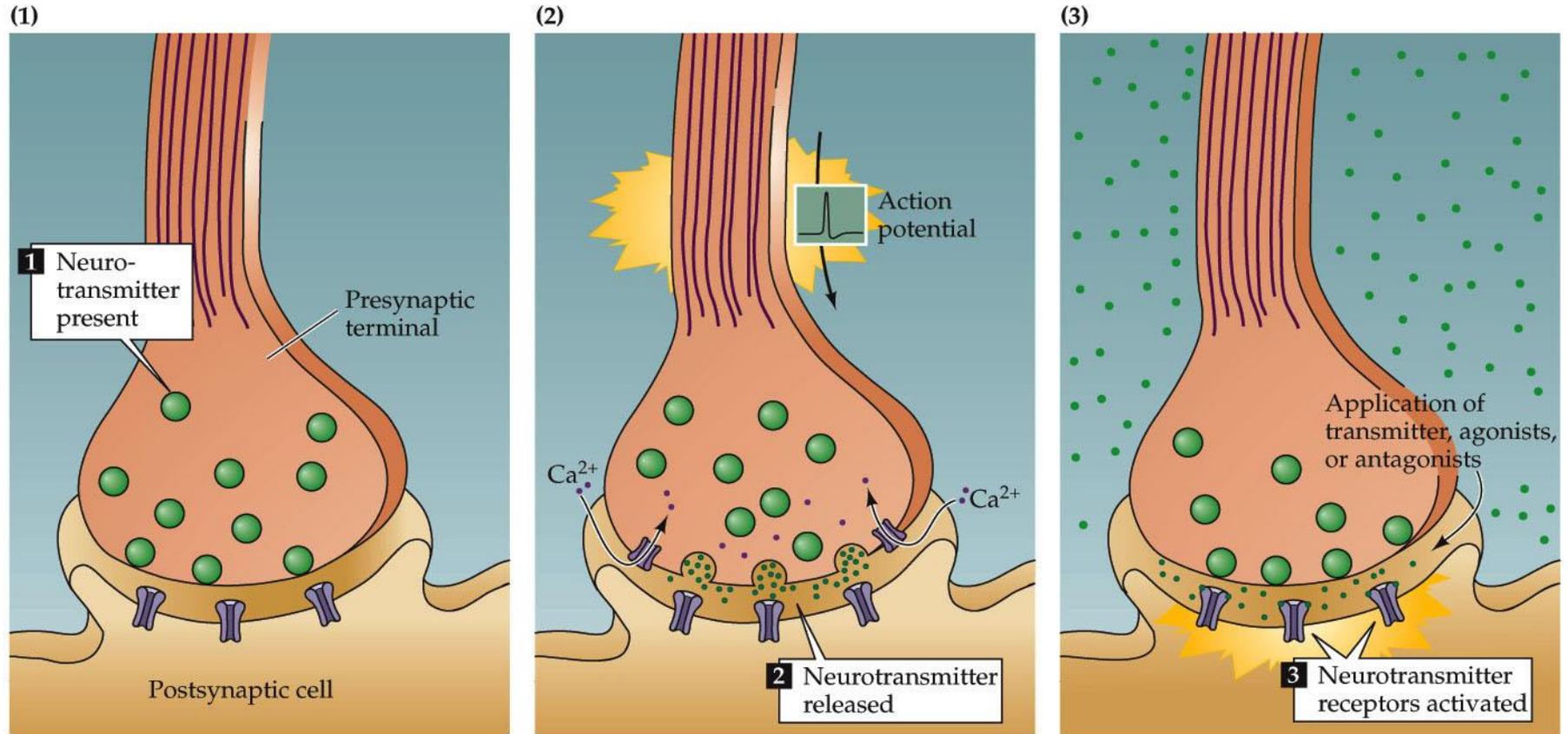


(A) LIGAND-GATED ION CHANNELS

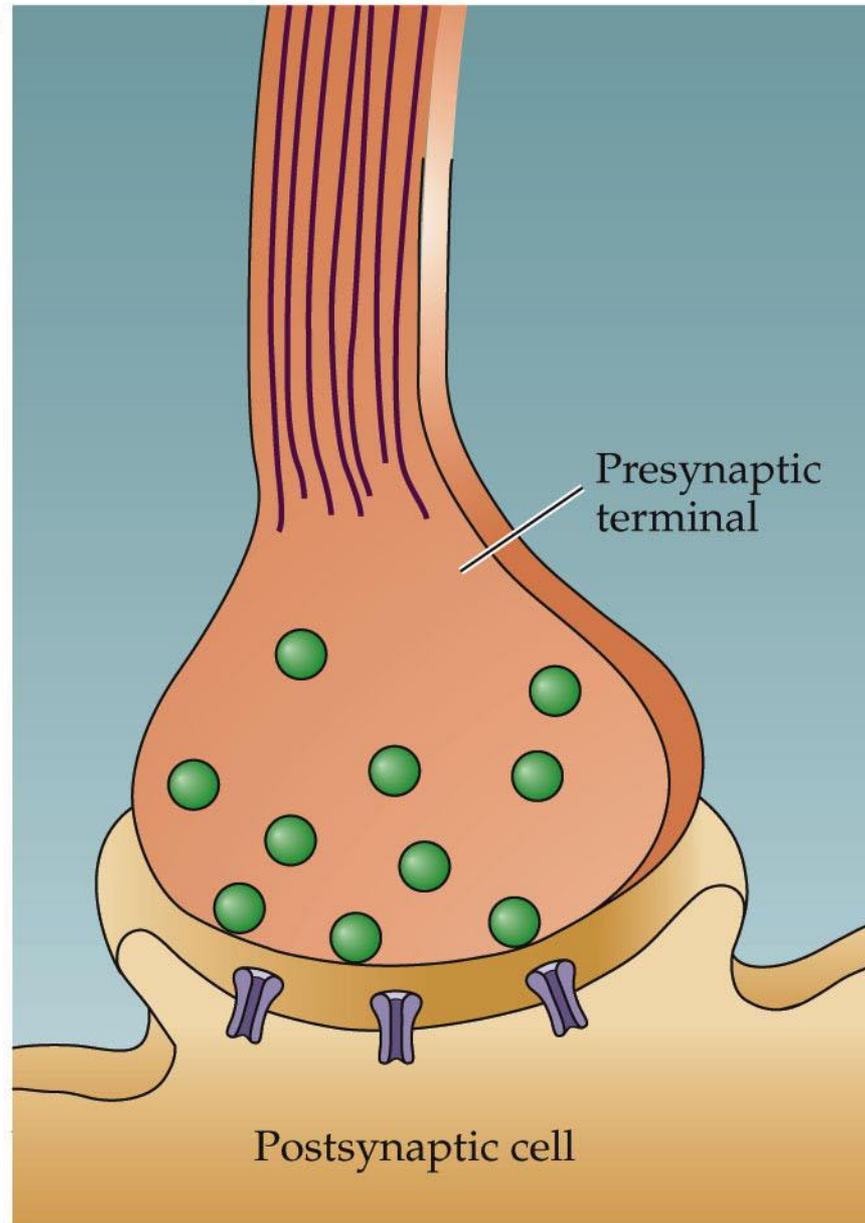


(B) G-PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTORS

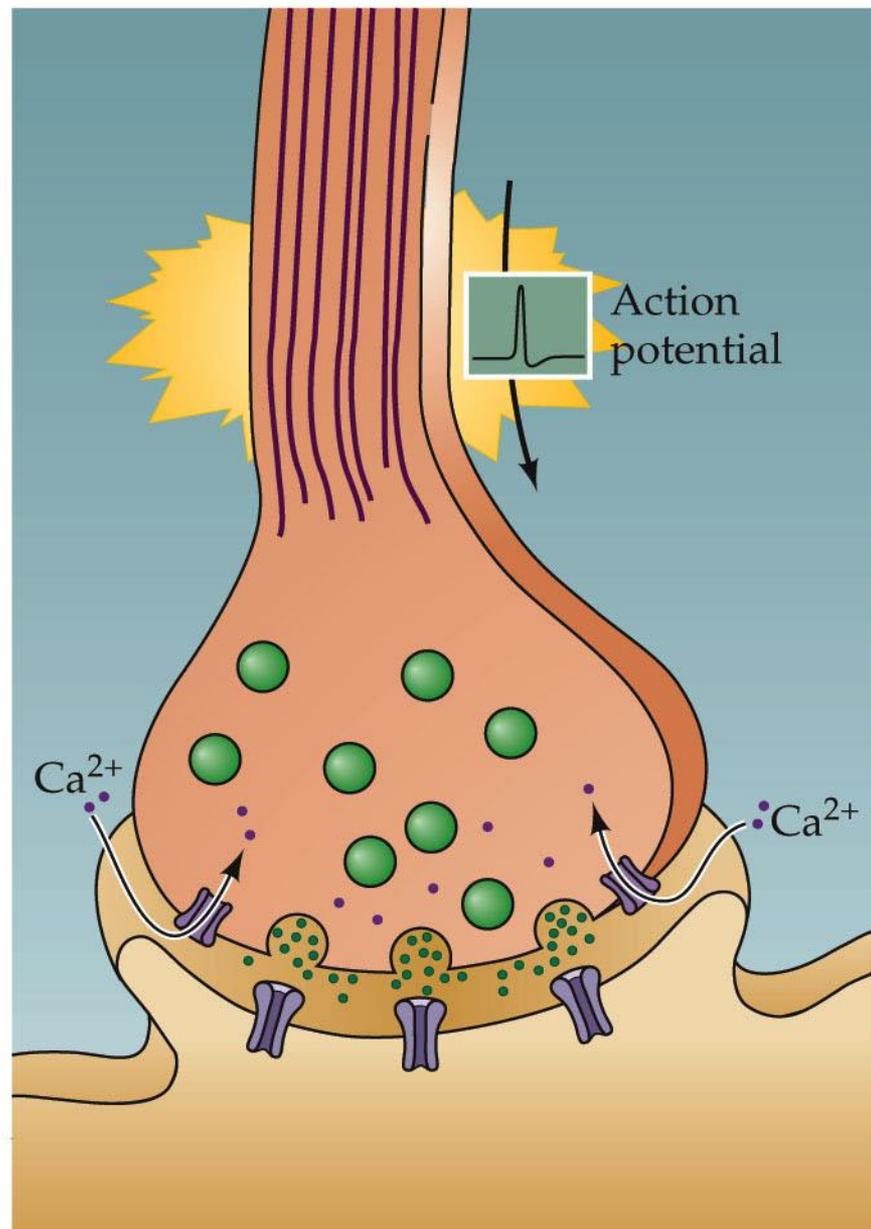




(1)



(2)



(3)

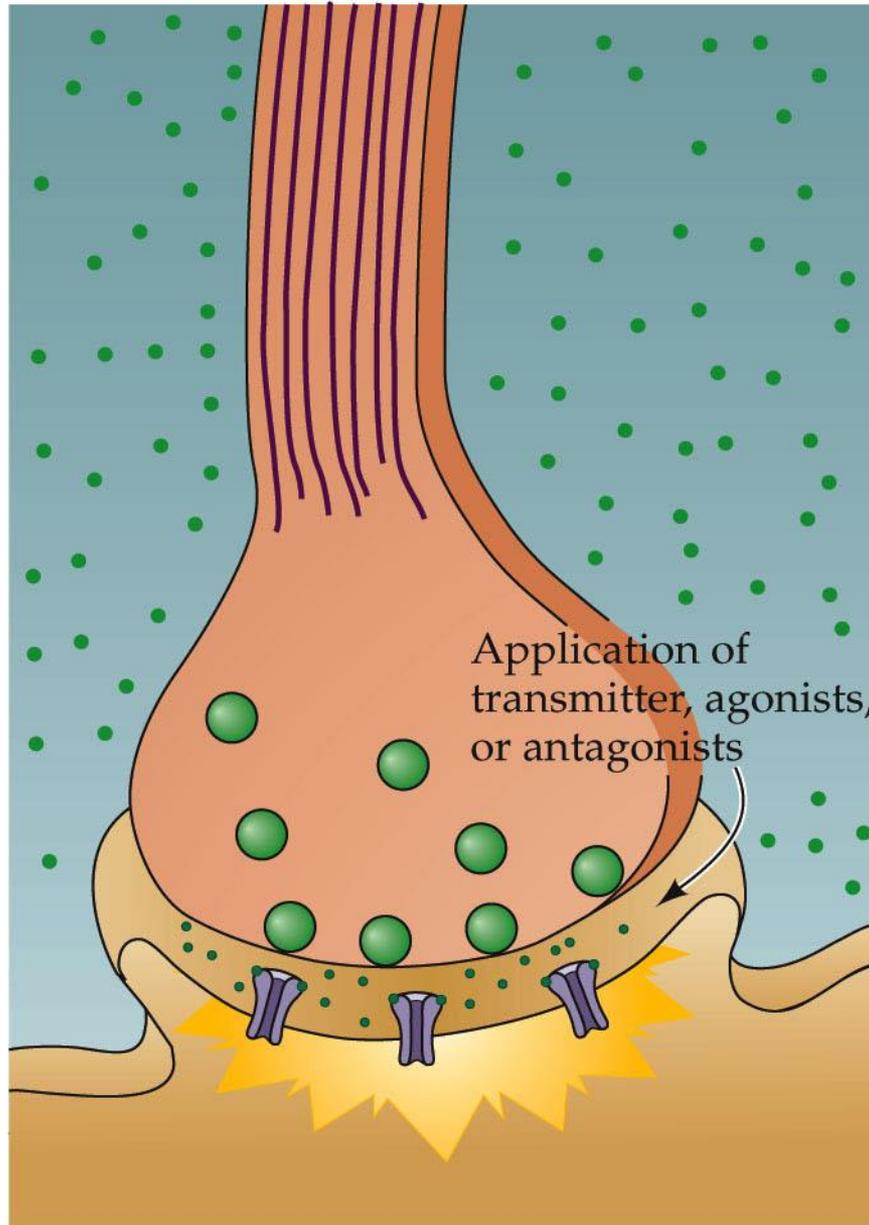
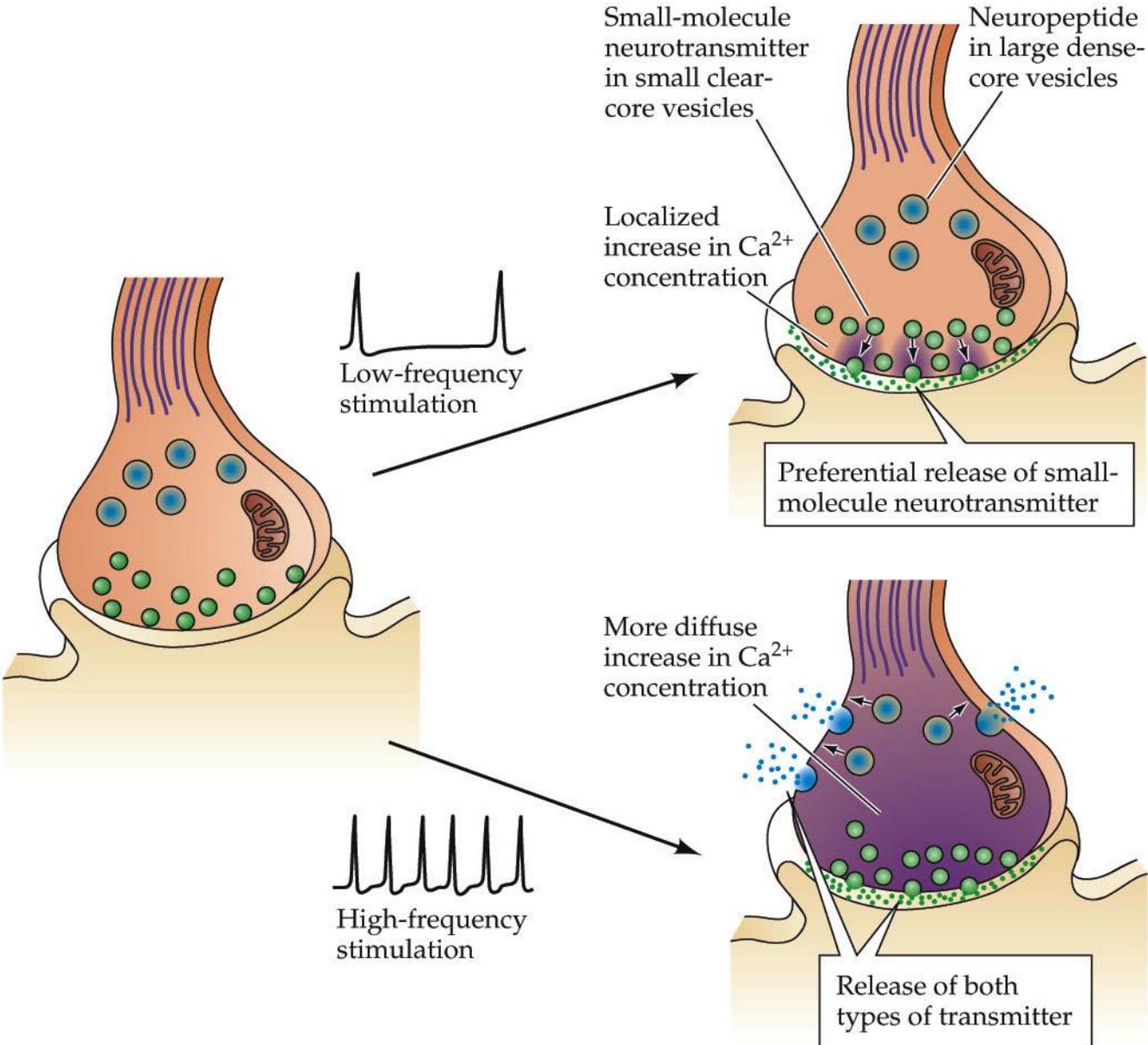


Figure 5.12 Differential release of neuropeptide and small-molecule co-transmitters



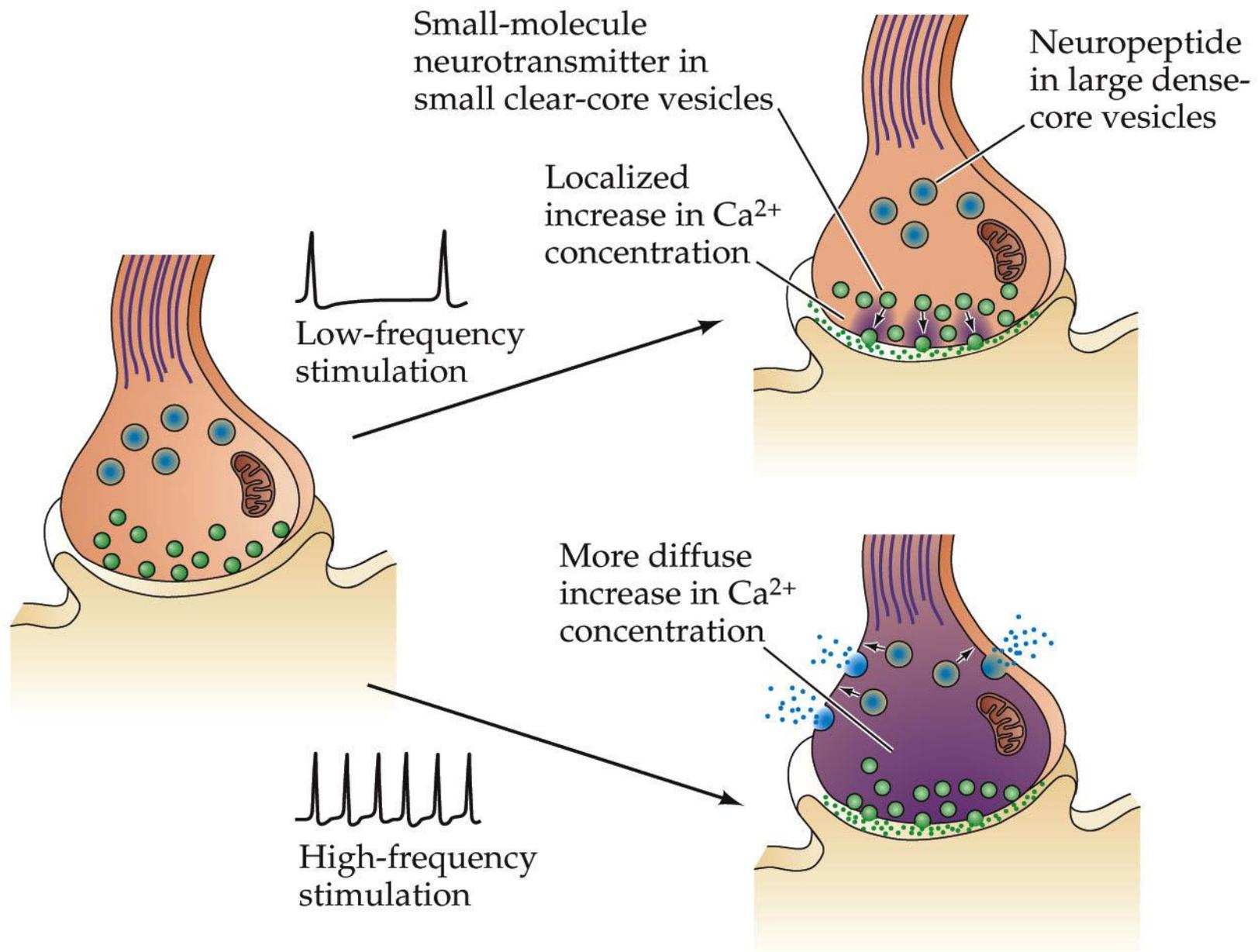


Figure 5.13 Presynaptic proteins and their roles in synaptic vesicle cycling

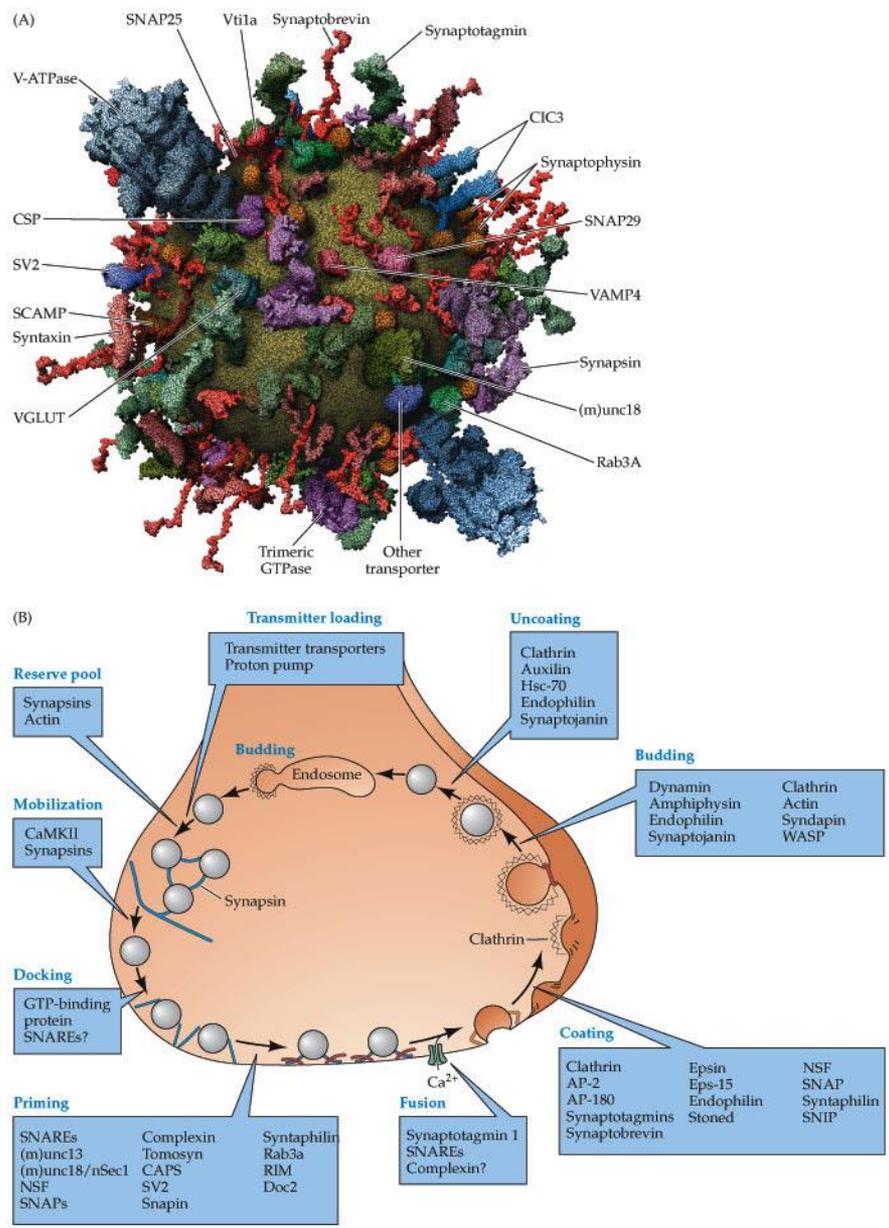
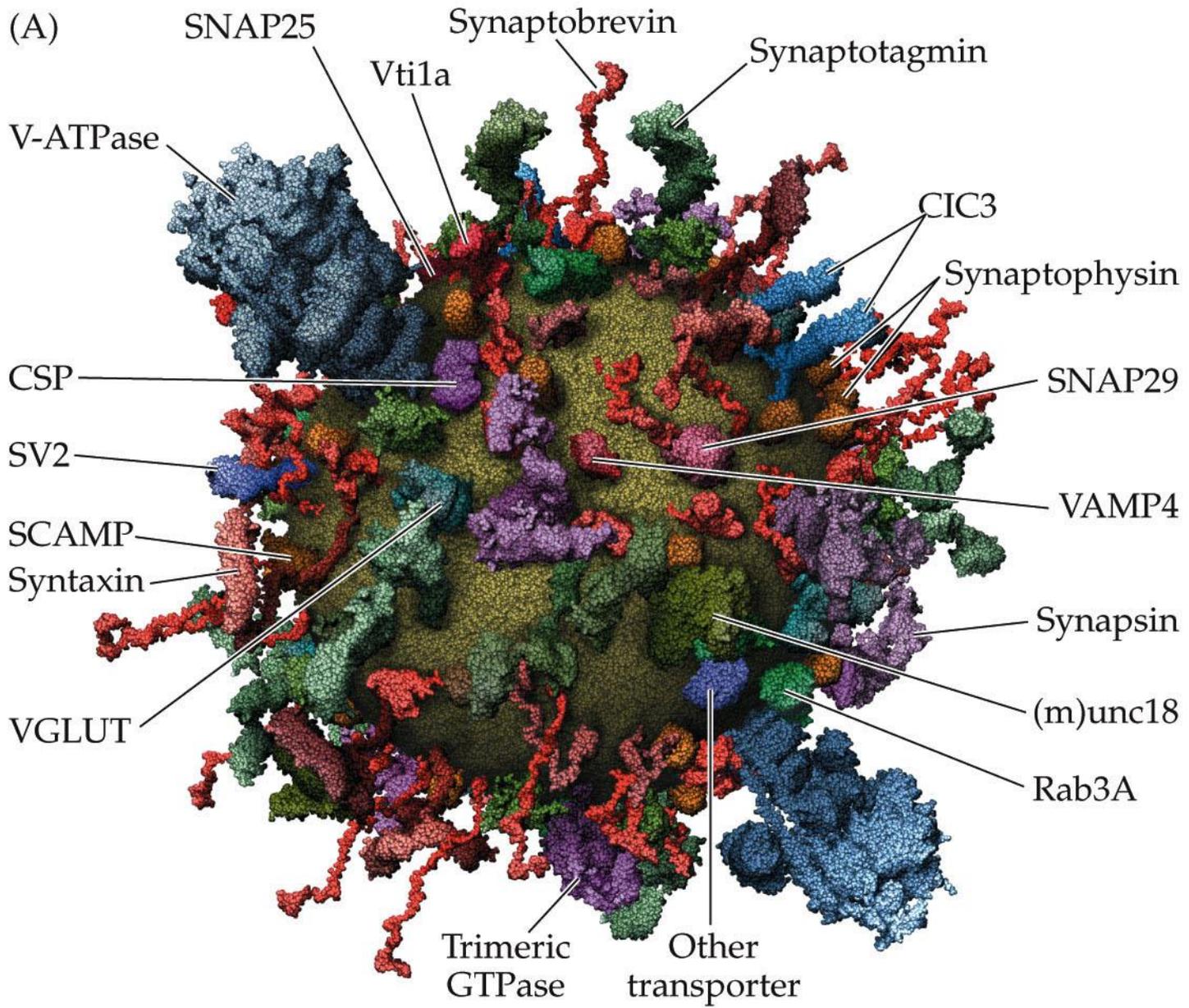


Figure 5.13 Presynaptic proteins and their roles in synaptic vesicle cycling (Part 1)



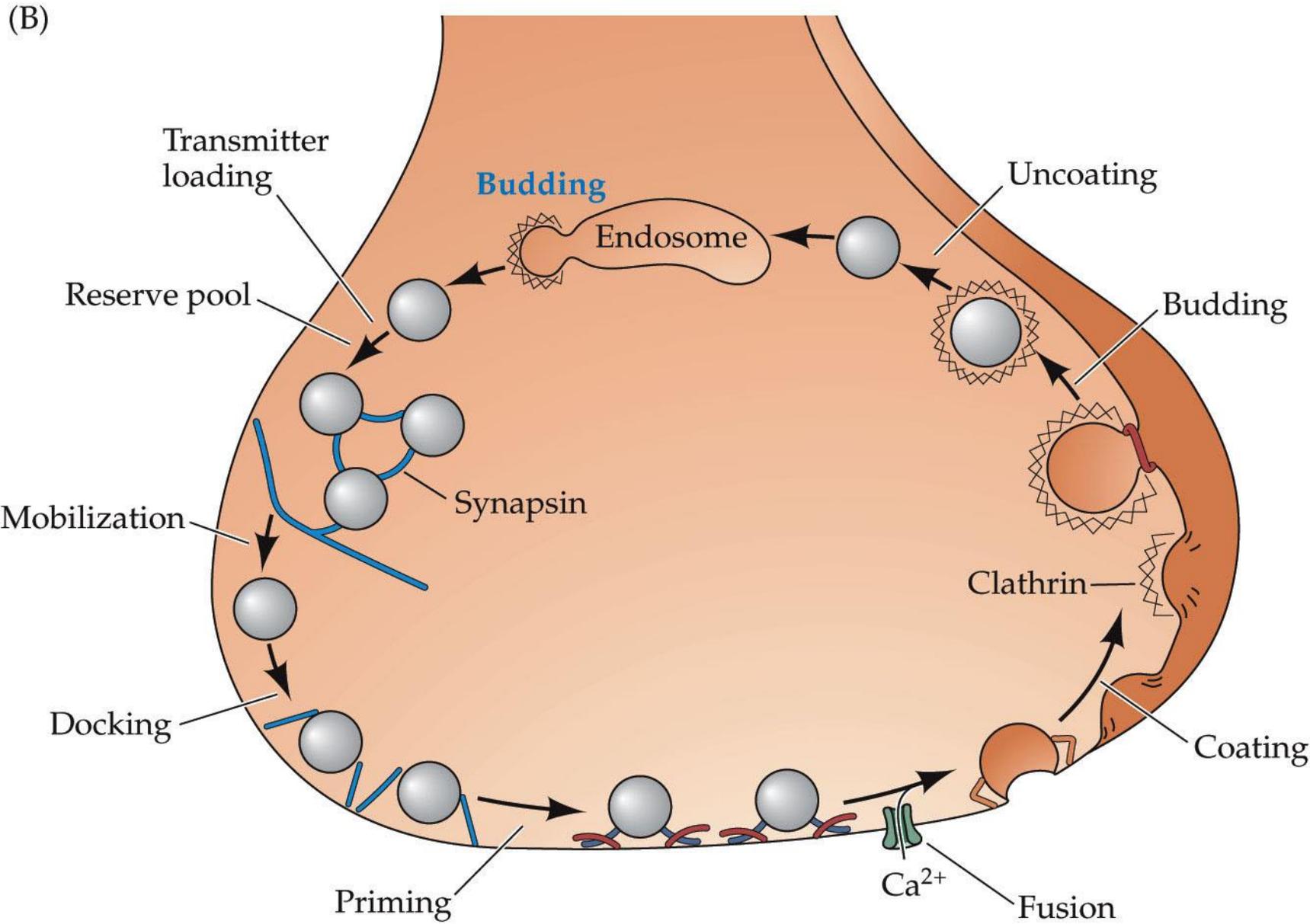
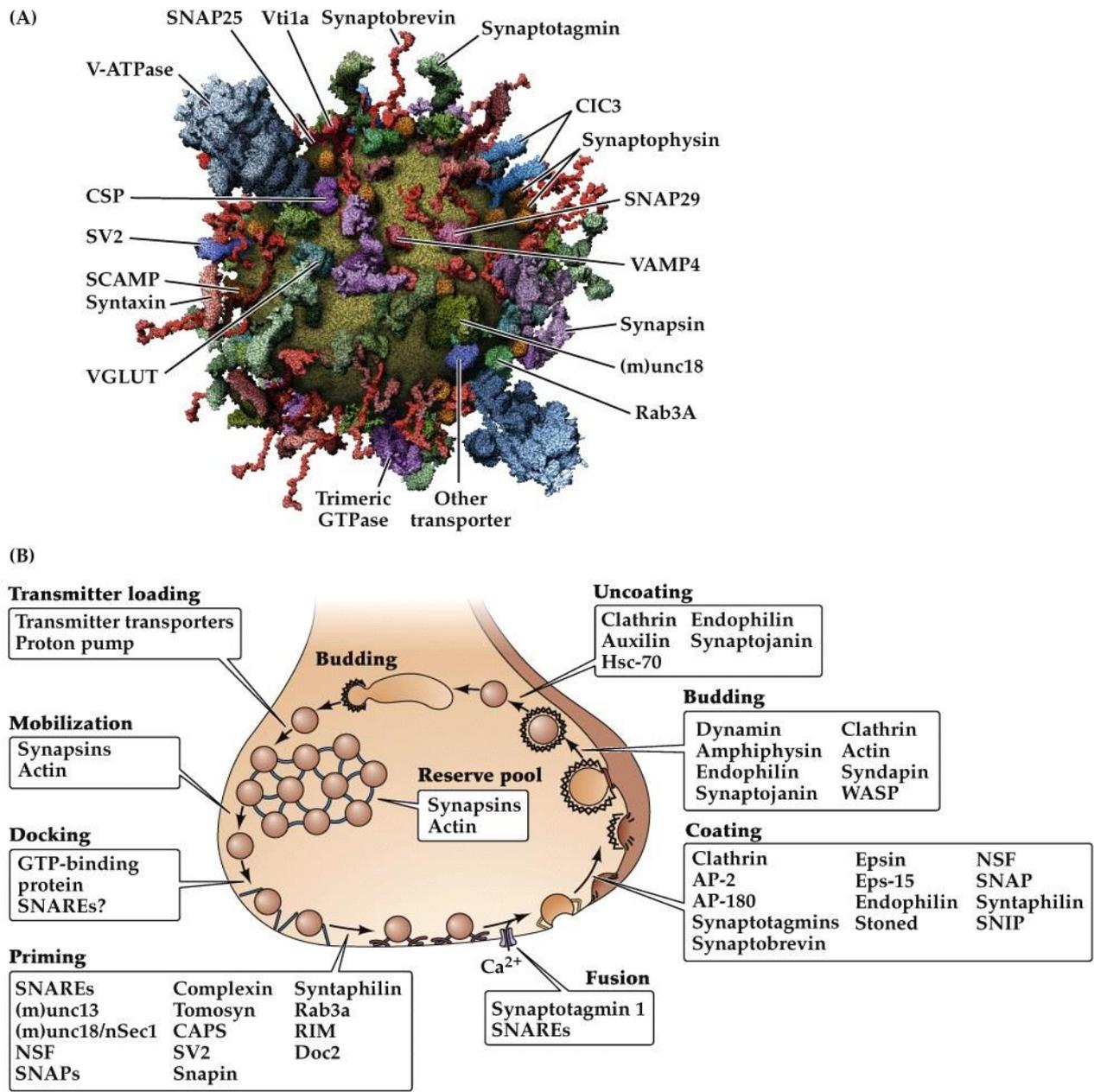
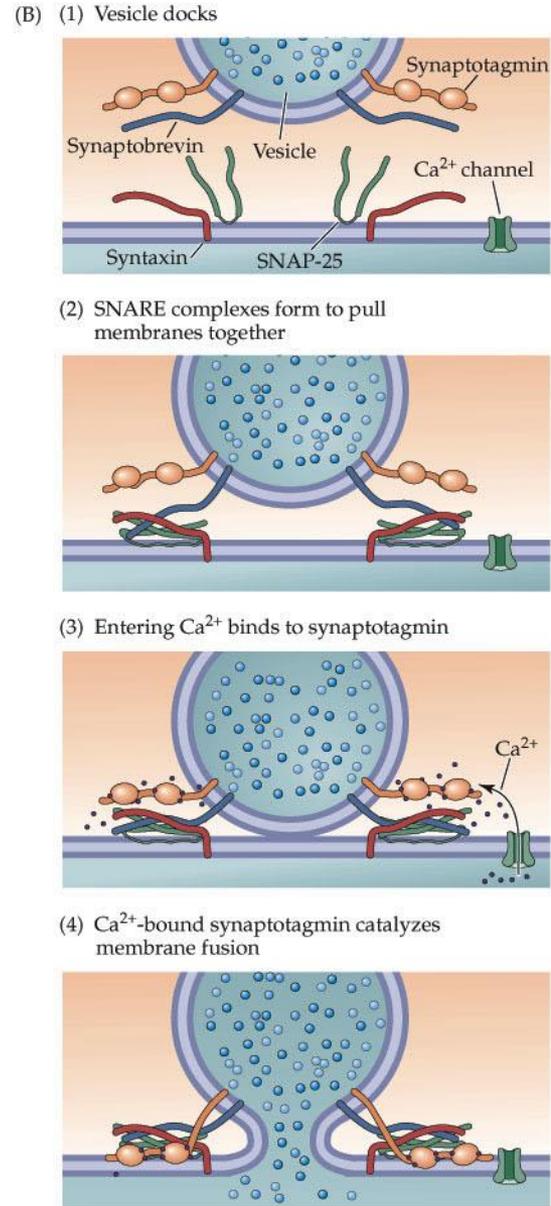
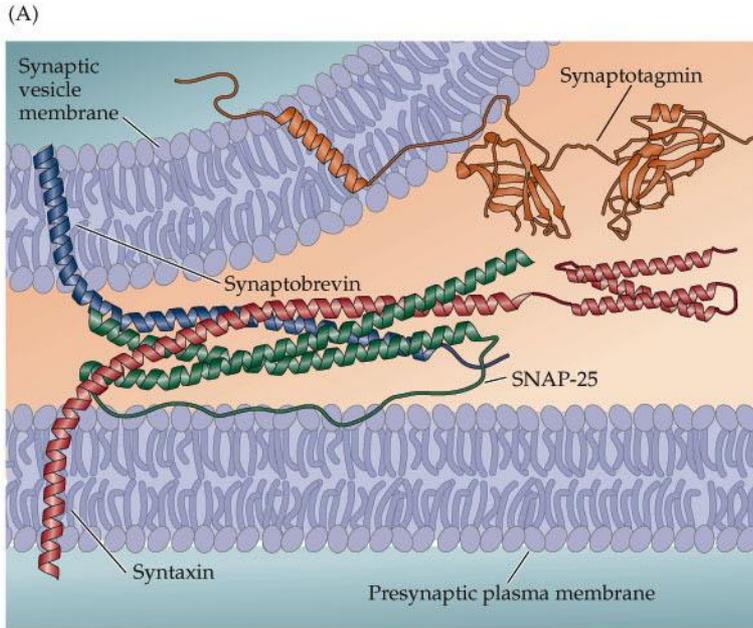


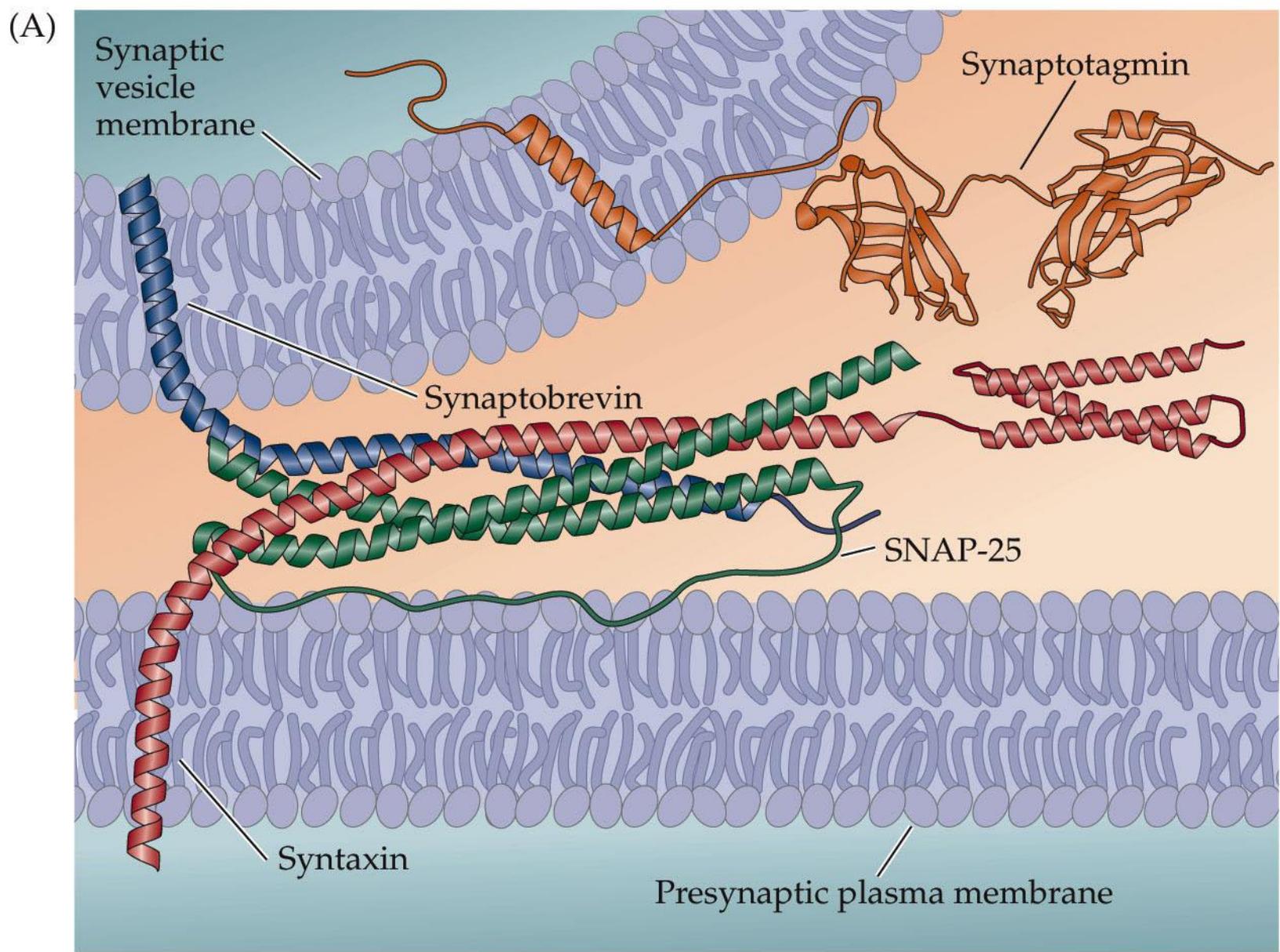
Figure 5.13 Presynaptic proteins and their roles in synaptic vesicle cycling

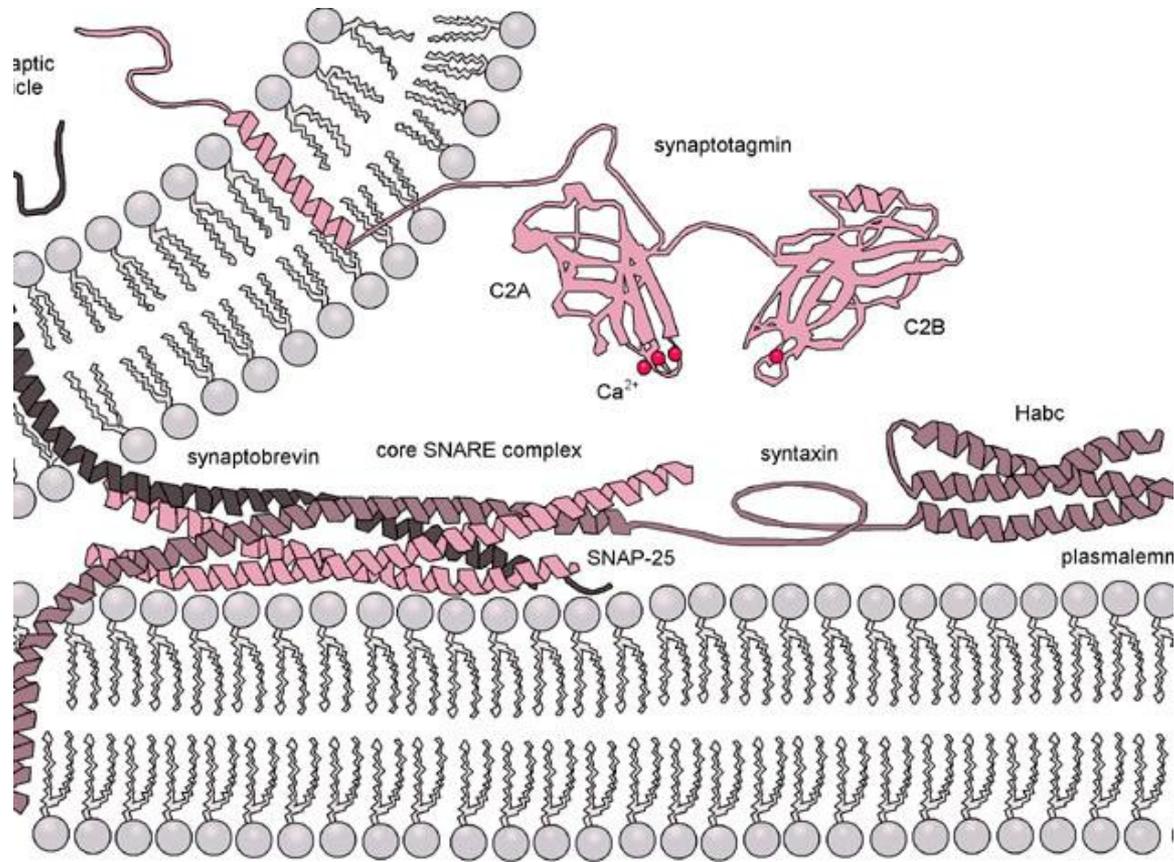


NEUROSCIENCE 5e, Figure 5.13

Figure 5.14 Molecular mechanisms of exocytosis during neurotransmitter release







Molecular machinery driving [vesicle fusion](#) in neurotransmitter release. The core SNARE complex is formed by four α -helices contributed by synaptobrevin, syntaxin and SNAP-25, synaptotagmin serves as a calcium sensor and regulates intimately the SNARE zipping

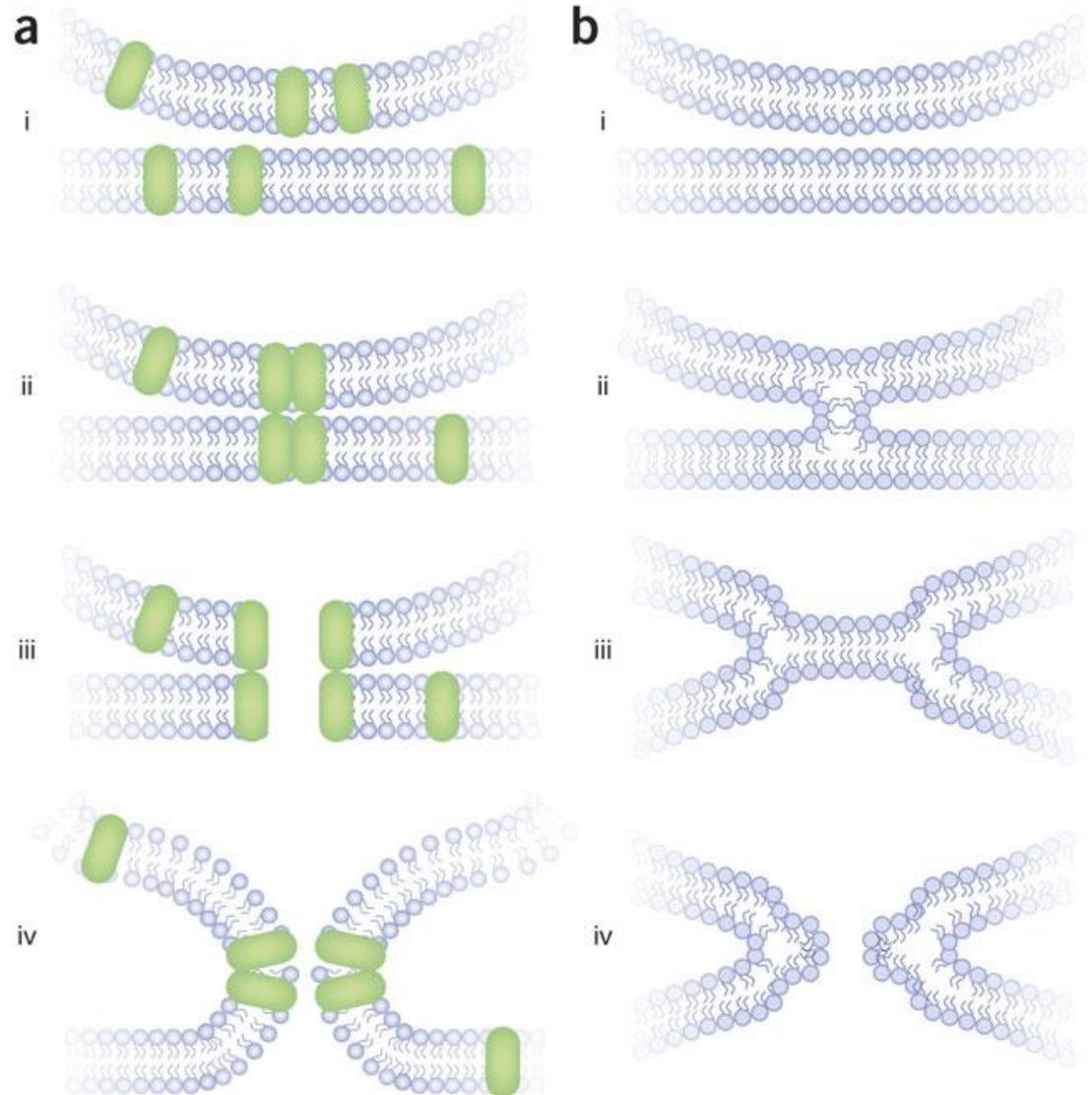
(**a, i**) Proteins capable of forming a fusion pore are present in the vesicle and plasma membranes. (**ii**) These proteins associate into a closed pore. (**iii**) A conformational change in this complex opens the pore. (**iv**) The lipid bilayers merge through a remodeling of the two lipid bilayers. (**b**) Lipid fusion according to the stalk model²³. (**i**) Lipid bilayers are pulled together. In regulated exocytosis, proteins (not shown) exert the necessary force. (**ii**) An initial merger stage forms, in which the outer leaflets remodel to form a stalk. (**iii**) The outer leaflets draw apart and the inner leaflets form a bilayer in this hemifusion diaphragm. (**iv**) A pore forms in the new bilayer of inner leaflets.

From the following article

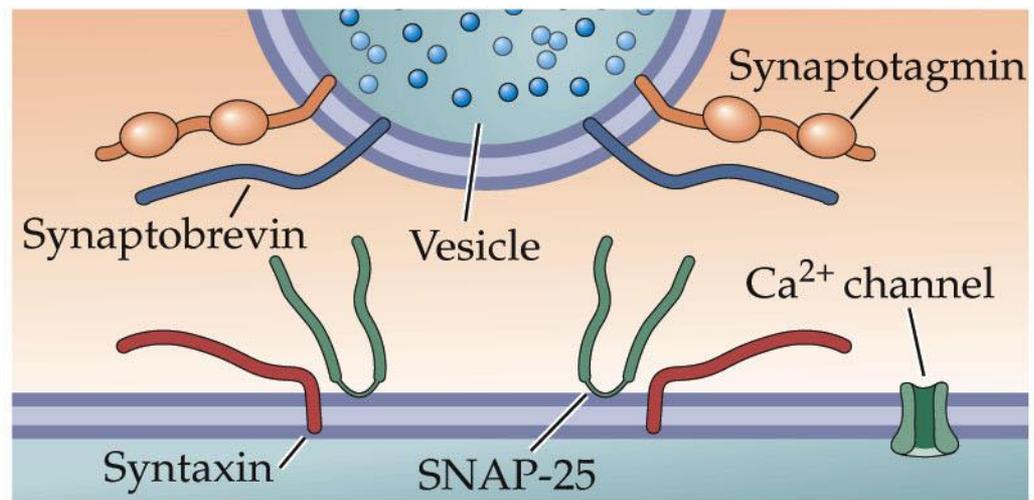
[The fusion pores of Ca²⁺-triggered exocytosis](#)

Meyer B Jackson & Edwin R Chapman

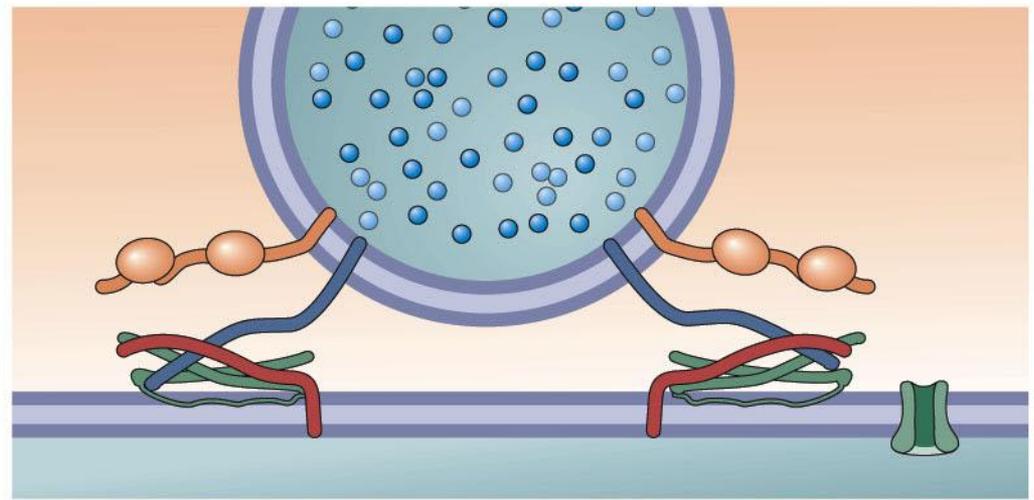
Nature Structural & Molecular Biology
15, 684 - 689 (2008)



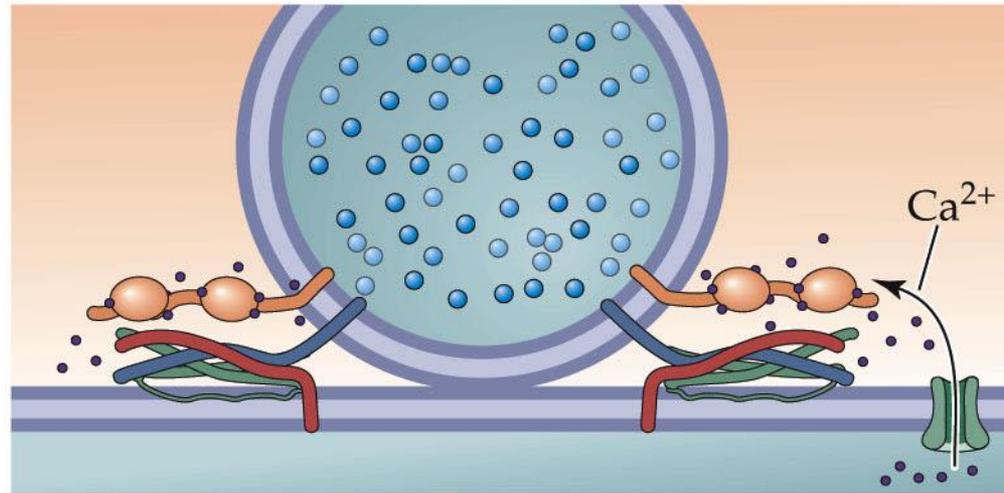
(B) (1) Vesicle docks



(2) SNARE complexes form to pull membranes together



(3) Entering Ca^{2+} binds to synaptotagmin



(4) Ca^{2+} -bound synaptotagmin catalyzes membrane fusion

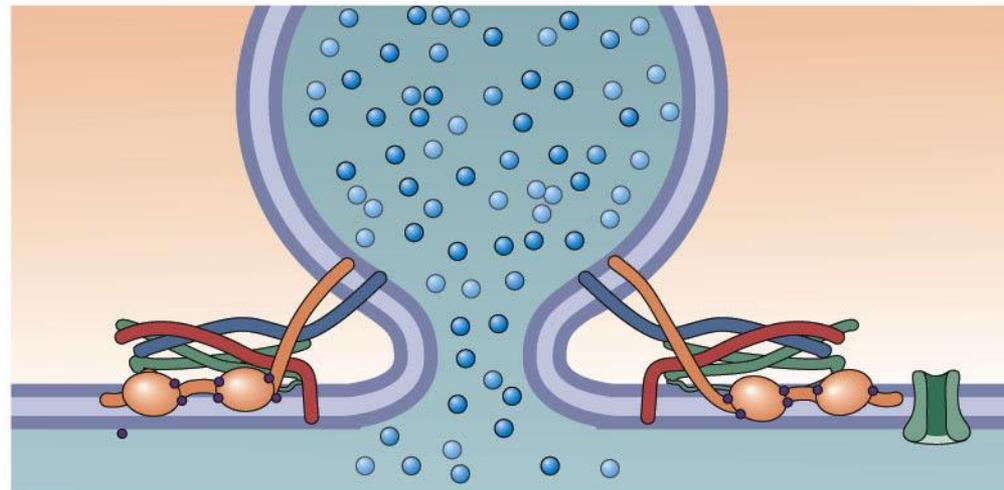


Figure 5.15 Molecular mechanisms of endocytosis following neurotransmitter release

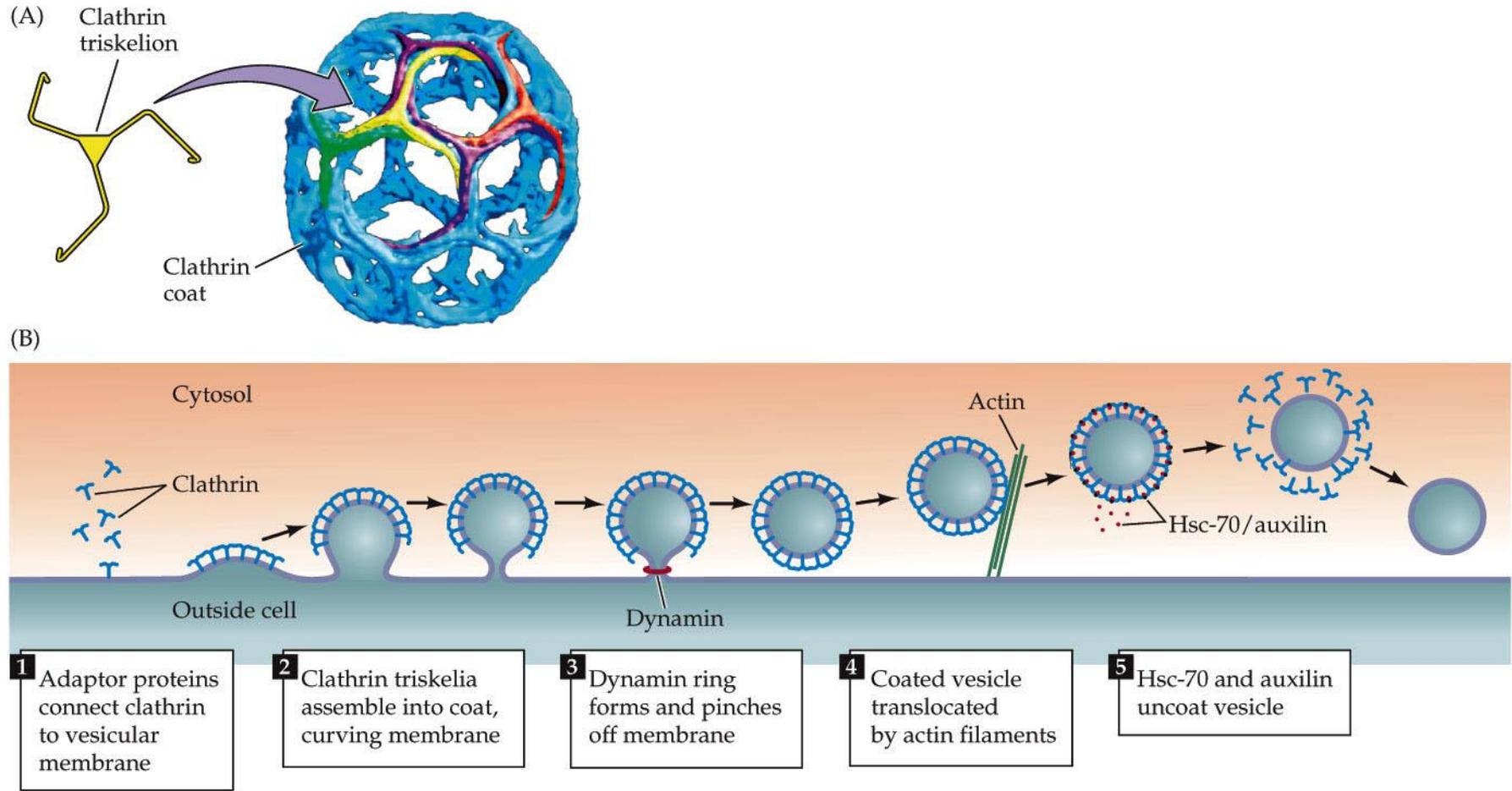
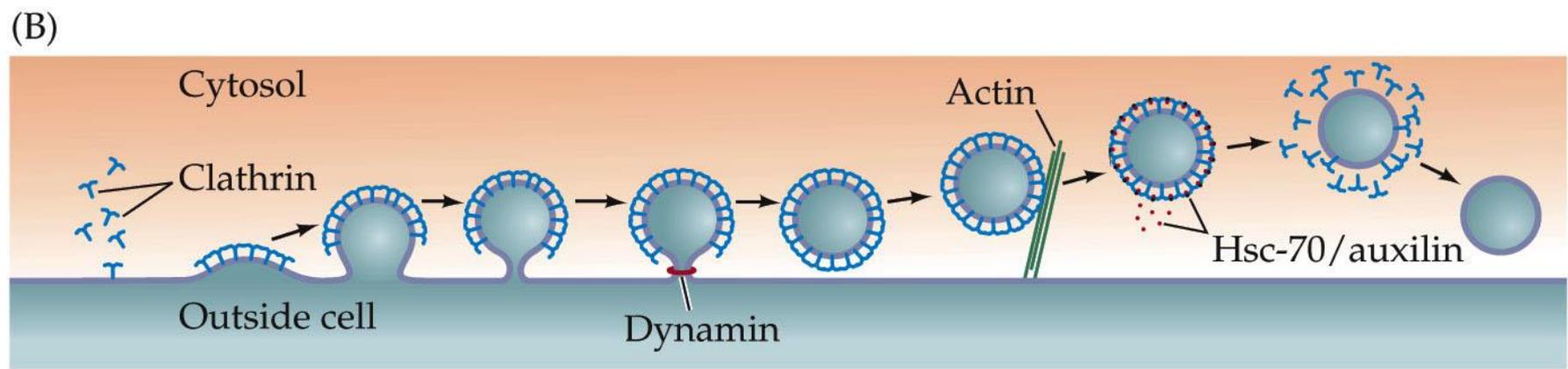
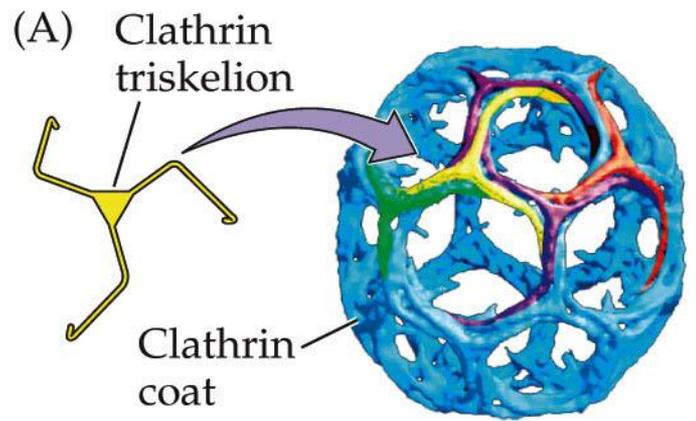


Figure 5.15 Molecular mechanisms of endocytosis following neurotransmitter release



Box 5C Toxins That Affect Transmitter Release

