Chapter 48

Neurons, Synapses, and Signaling

PowerPoint® Lecture Presentations for

Biology

Eighth Edition Neil Campbell and Jane Reece

Lectures by Chris Romero, updated by Erin Barley with contributions from Joan Sharp

Overview: Lines of Communication

- The cone snail kills prey with venom that disables neurons
- Neurons are nerve cells that transfer information within the body
- Neurons use two types of signals to communicate: electrical signals (long-distance) and chemical signals (short-distance)

Fig. 48-1



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- The transmission of information depends on the path of neurons along which a signal travels
- Processing of information takes place in simple clusters of neurons called ganglia or a more complex organization of neurons called a brain

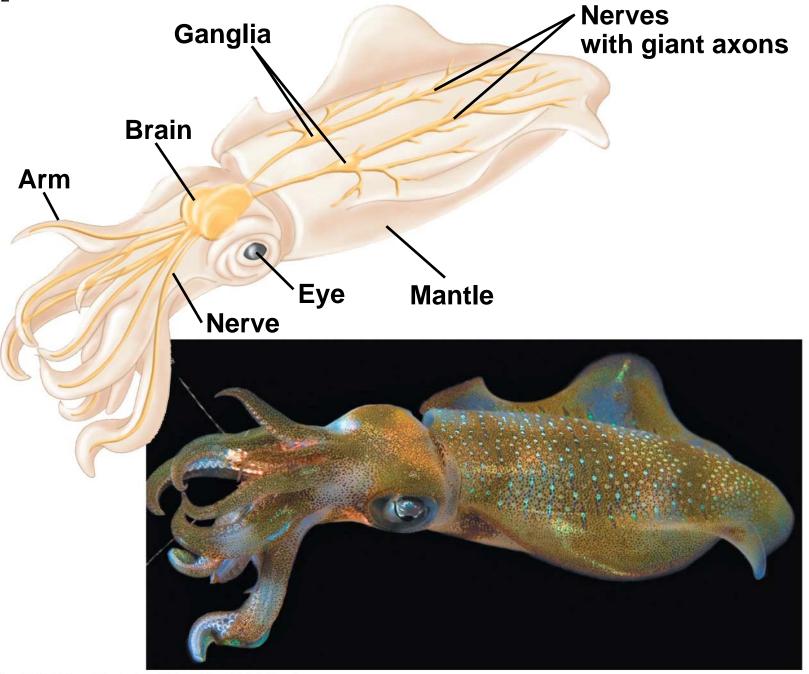
Concept 48.1: Neuron organization and structure reflect function in information transfer

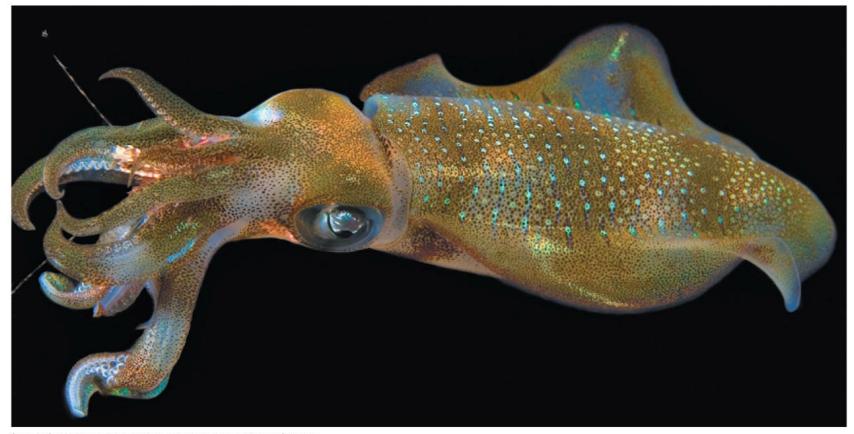
 The squid possesses extremely large nerve cells and is a good model for studying neuron function

Introduction to Information Processing

 Nervous systems process information in three stages: sensory input, integration, and motor output

Fig. 48-2



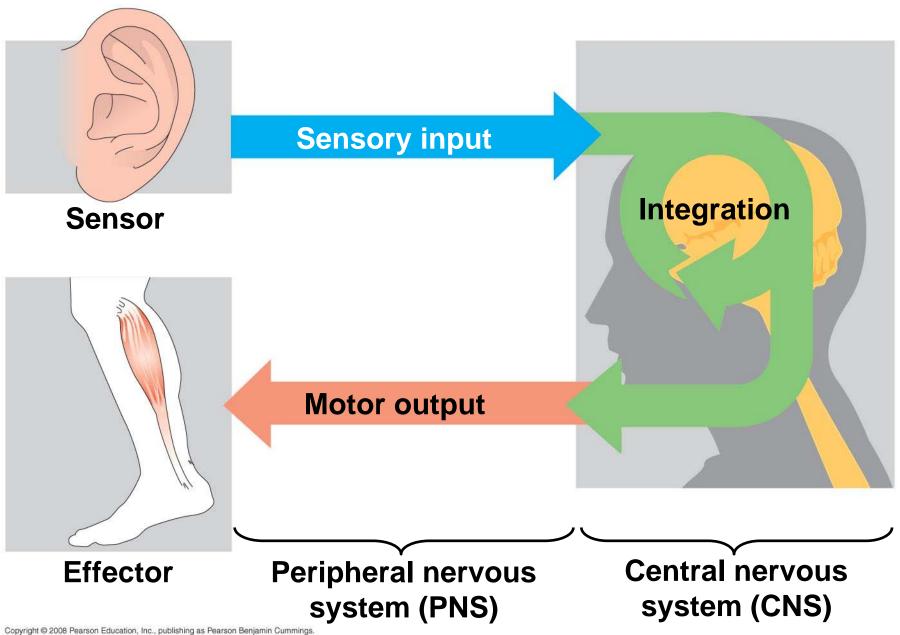


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- Sensors detect external stimuli and internal conditions and transmit information along sensory neurons
- Sensory information is sent to the brain or ganglia, where interneurons integrate the information
- Motor output leaves the brain or ganglia via motor neurons, which trigger muscle or gland activity

- Many animals have a complex nervous system which consists of:
 - A central nervous system (CNS) where integration takes place; this includes the brain and a nerve cord
 - A peripheral nervous system (PNS), which brings information into and out of the CNS

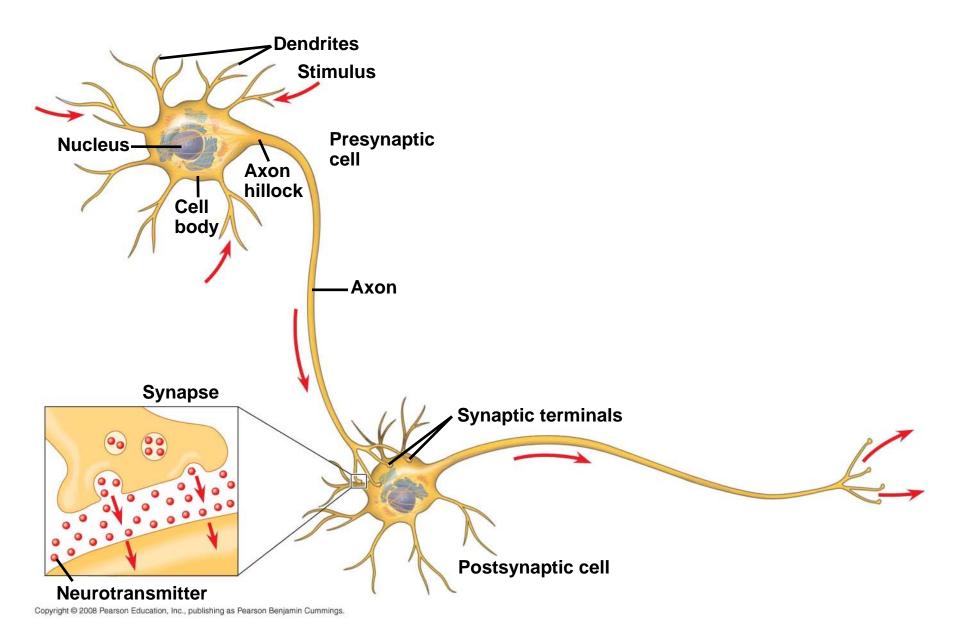
Fig. 48-3

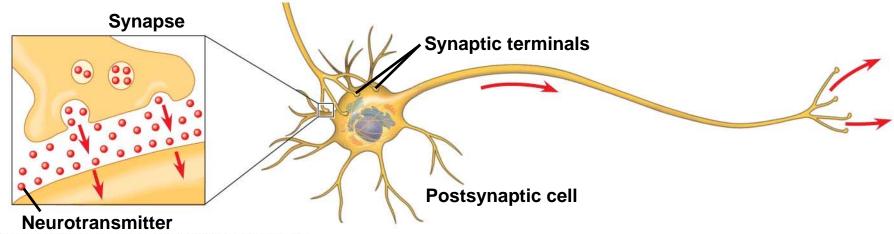


Neuron Structure and Function

- Most of a neuron's organelles are in the cell body
- Most neurons have dendrites, highly branched extensions that receive signals from other neurons
- The axon is typically a much longer extension that transmits signals to other cells at synapses
- An axon joins the cell body at the axon hillock

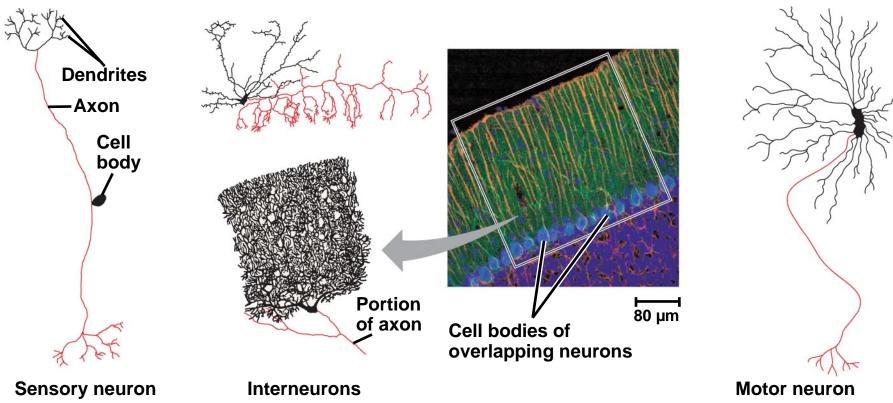
Fig. 48-4

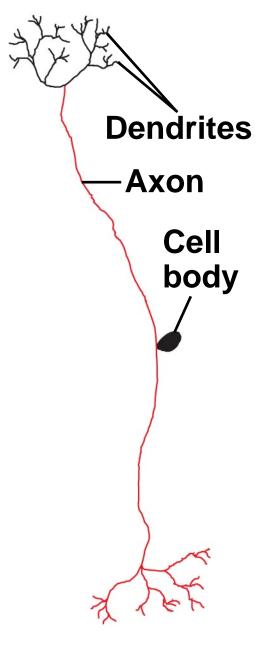




- A synapse is a junction between an axon and another cell
- The synaptic terminal of one axon passes information across the synapse in the form of chemical messengers called neurotransmitters

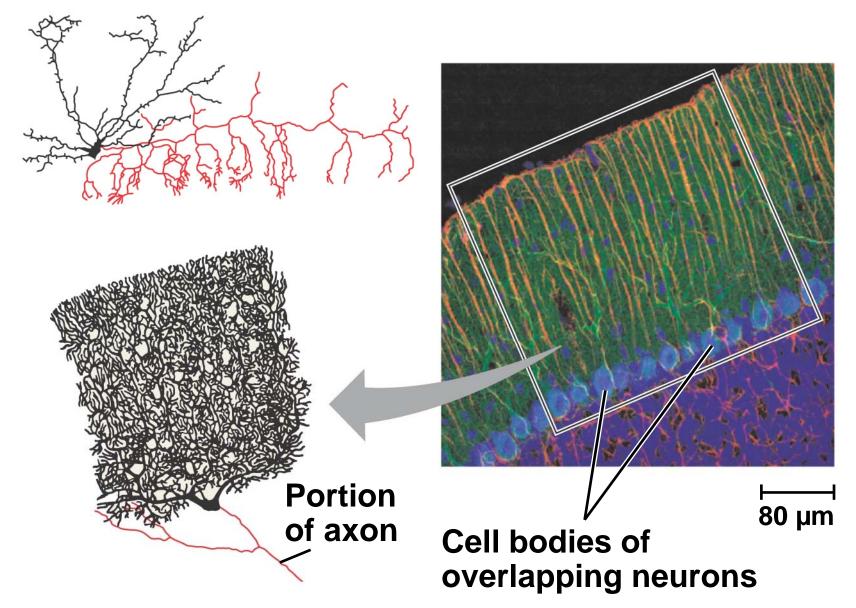
- Information is transmitted from a presynaptic cell (a neuron) to a postsynaptic cell (a neuron, muscle, or gland cell)
- Most neurons are nourished or insulated by cells called glia



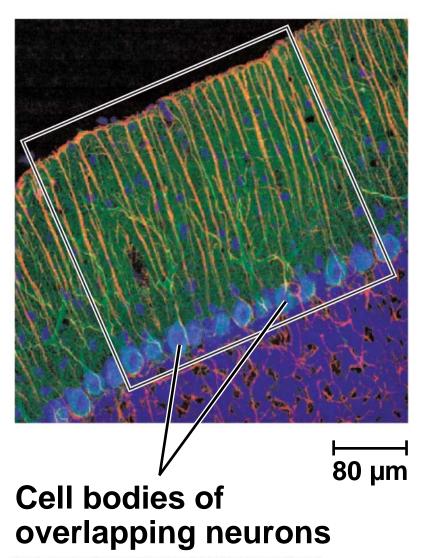


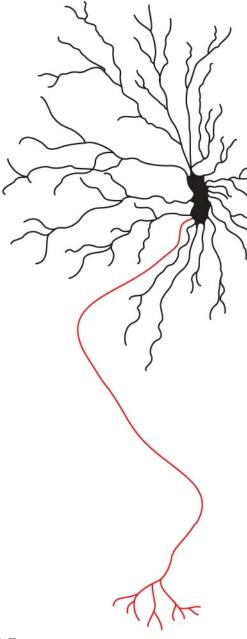
Sensory neuron

Fig. 48-5b



Interneurons





Motor neuron

Concept 48.2: Ion pumps and ion channels maintain the resting potential of a neuron

- Every cell has a voltage (difference in electrical charge) across its plasma membrane called a membrane potential
- Messages are transmitted as changes in membrane potential
- The resting potential is the membrane potential of a neuron not sending signals

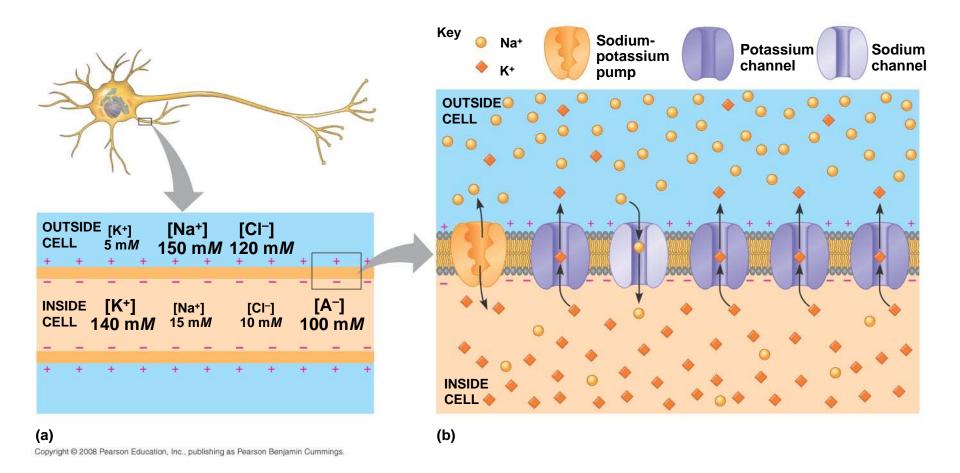
Formation of the Resting Potential

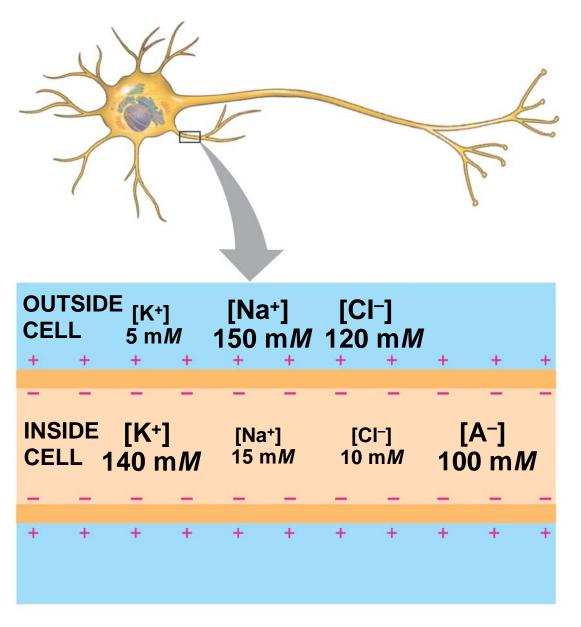
- In a mammalian neuron at resting potential, the concentration of K+ is greater inside the cell, while the concentration of Na+ is greater outside the cell
- Sodium-potassium pumps use the energy of ATP to maintain these K⁺ and Na⁺ gradients across the plasma membrane
- These concentration gradients represent chemical potential energy

- The opening of ion channels in the plasma membrane converts chemical potential to electrical potential
- A neuron at resting potential contains many open K+ channels and fewer open Na+ channels; K+ diffuses out of the cell
- Anions trapped inside the cell contribute to the negative charge within the neuron



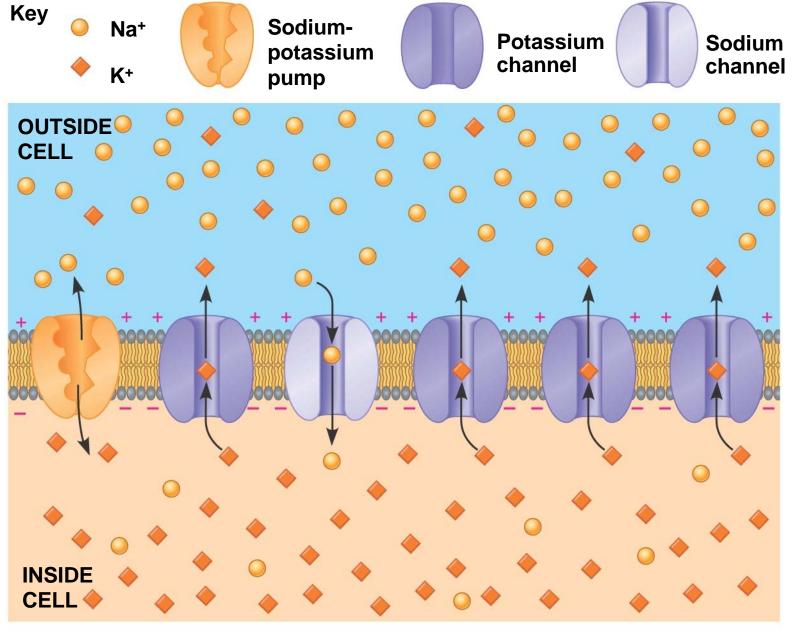
Animation: Resting Potential





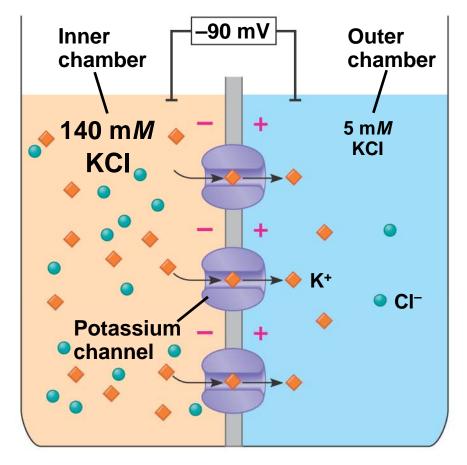
(a)

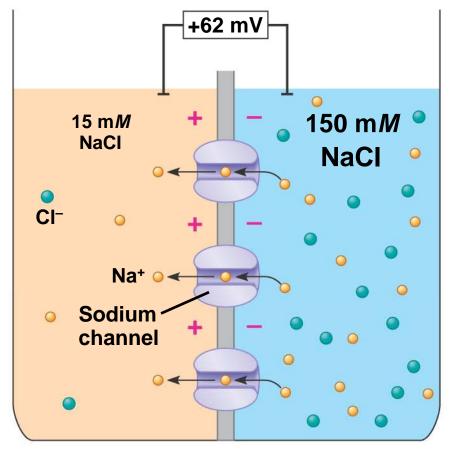
Fig. 48-6b



Modeling of the Resting Potential

- Resting potential can be modeled by an artificial membrane that separates two chambers
 - The concentration of KCI is higher in the inner chamber and lower in the outer chamber
 - K+ diffuses down its gradient to the outer chamber
 - Negative charge builds up in the inner chamber
- At equilibrium, both the electrical and chemical gradients are balanced





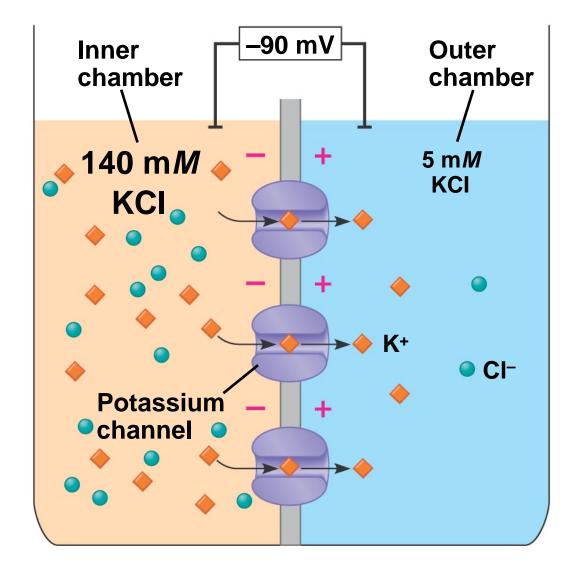
(a) Membrane selectively permeable to K⁺

$$E_{K} = 62 \text{ mV} \left(\log \frac{5 \text{ m}M}{140 \text{ m}M} \right) = -90 \text{ mV}$$

(b) Membrane selectively permeable to Na⁺

$$E_{\text{Na}} = 62 \text{ mV} \left(\log \frac{150 \text{ m}M}{15 \text{ m}M} \right) = +62 \text{ mV}$$

Fig. 48-7a



(a) Membrane selectively permeable to K⁺

$$E_{K} = 62 \text{ mV} \left(\log \frac{5 \text{ m/M}}{140 \text{ m/M}} \right) = -90 \text{ mV}$$

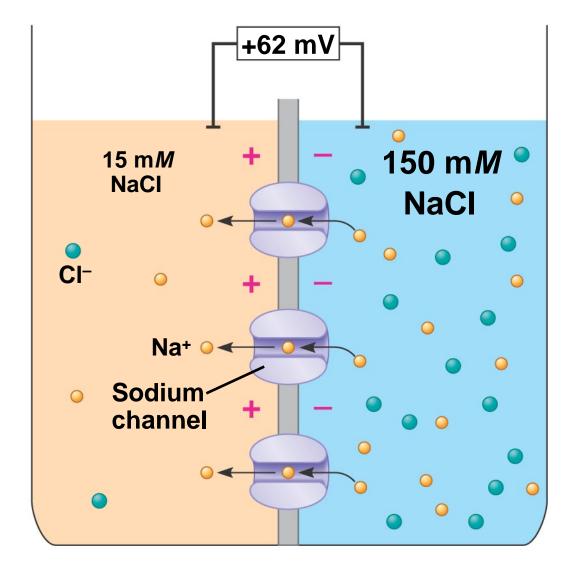
 The equilibrium potential (E_{ion}) is the membrane voltage for a particular ion at equilibrium and can be calculated using the Nernst equation:

$$E_{\text{ion}} = 62 \text{ mV } (log[ion]_{\text{outside}}/[ion]_{\text{inside}})$$

• The equilibrium potential of K^+ (E_K) is negative, while the equilibrium potential of Na^+ (E_{Na}) is positive

 In a resting neuron, the currents of K+ and Na+ are equal and opposite, and the resting potential across the membrane remains steady

Fig. 48-7b



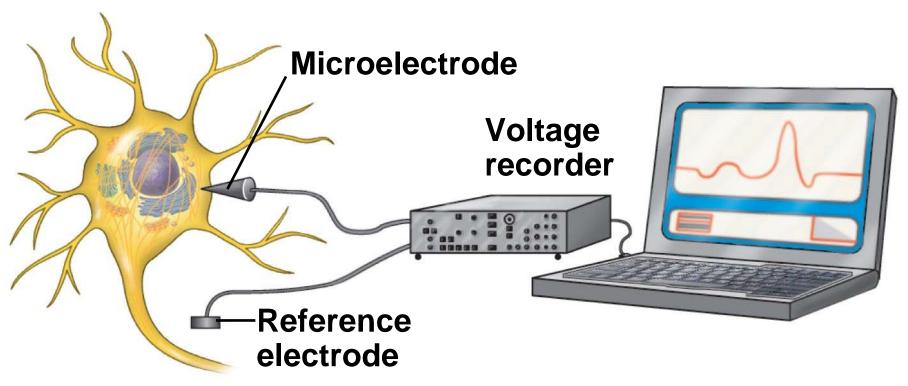
(b) Membrane selectively permeable to Na⁺

$$E_{\text{Na}} = 62 \text{ mV} \left(\log \frac{150 \text{ m}M}{15 \text{ m}M} \right) = +62 \text{ mV}$$

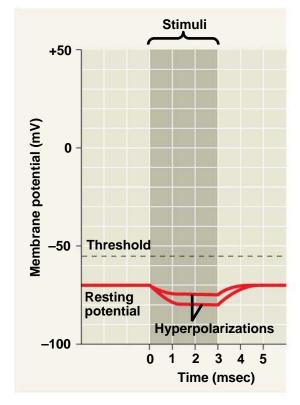
Concept 48.3: Action potentials are the signals conducted by axons

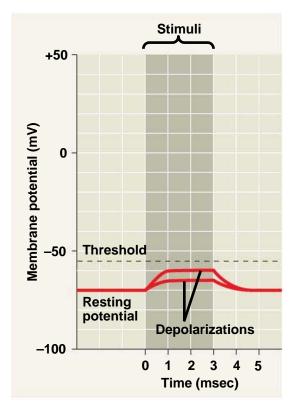
 Neurons contain gated ion channels that open or close in response to stimuli

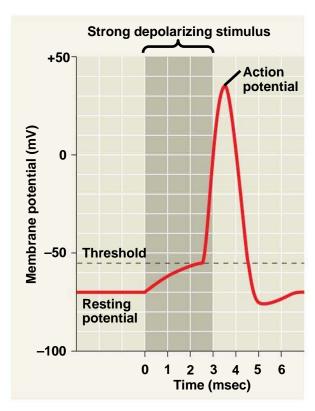
TECHNIQUE



- Membrane potential changes in response to opening or closing of these channels
- When gated K+ channels open, K+ diffuses out, making the inside of the cell more negative
- This is hyperpolarization, an increase in magnitude of the membrane potential



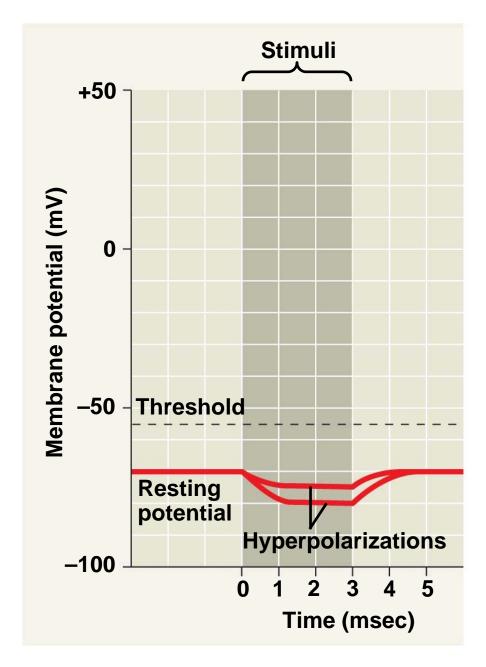




(a) Graded hyperpolarizations

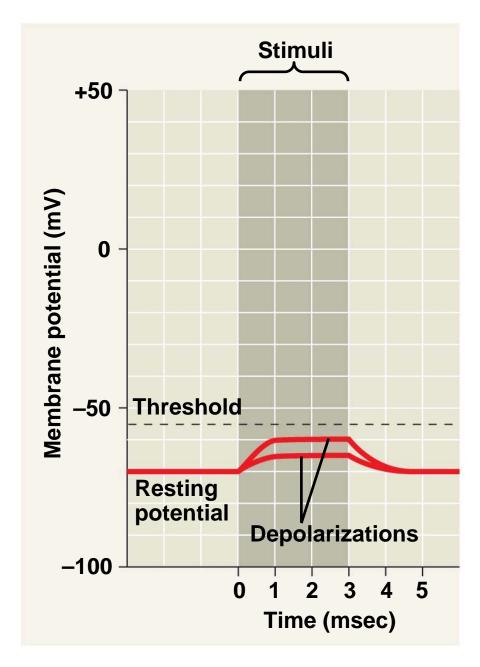
(b) Graded depolarizations

(c) Action potential



(a) Graded hyperpolarizations

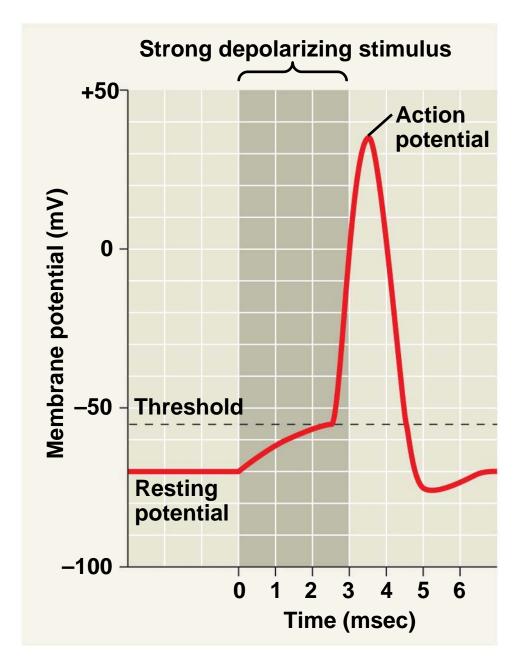
- Other stimuli trigger a depolarization, a reduction in the magnitude of the membrane potential
- For example, depolarization occurs if gated Na+ channels open and Na+ diffuses into the cell
- Graded potentials are changes in polarization where the magnitude of the change varies with the strength of the stimulus



(b) Graded depolarizations

Production of Action Potentials

- Voltage-gated Na⁺ and K⁺ channels respond to a change in membrane potential
- When a stimulus depolarizes the membrane,
 Na+ channels open, allowing Na+ to diffuse into the cell
- The movement of Na⁺ into the cell increases the depolarization and causes even more Na⁺ channels to open
- A strong stimulus results in a massive change in membrane voltage called an action potential



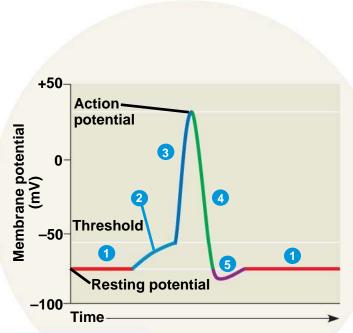
(c) Action potential

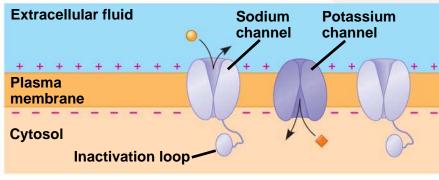
- An action potential occurs if a stimulus causes the membrane voltage to cross a particular threshold
- An action potential is a brief all-or-none depolarization of a neuron's plasma membrane
- Action potentials are signals that carry information along axons

Generation of Action Potentials: A Closer Look

- A neuron can produce hundreds of action potentials per second
- The frequency of action potentials can reflect the strength of a stimulus
- An action potential can be broken down into a series of stages









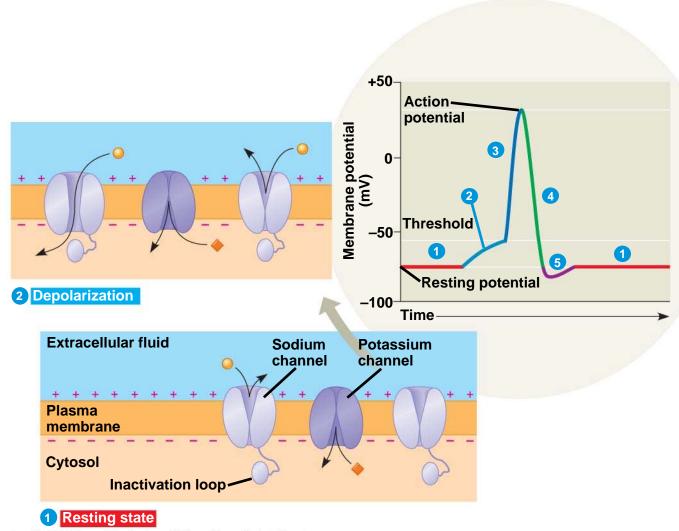
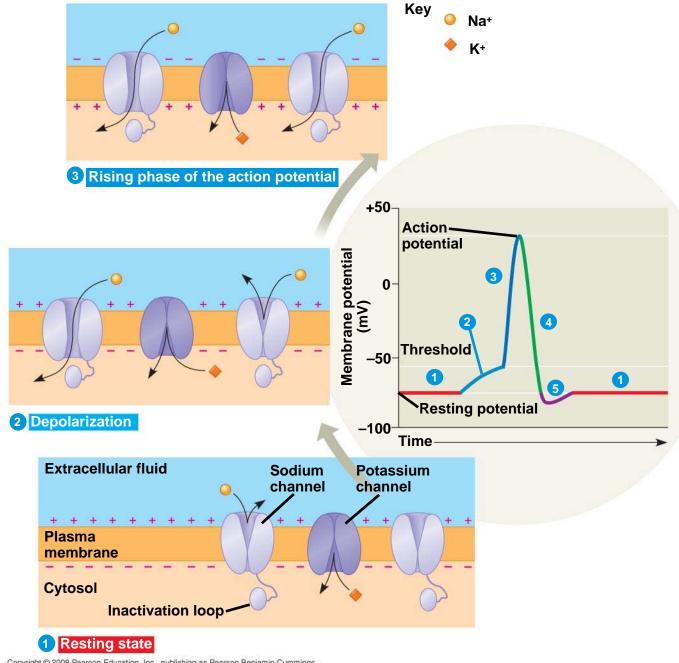


Fig. 48-10-3



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Fig. 48-10-4

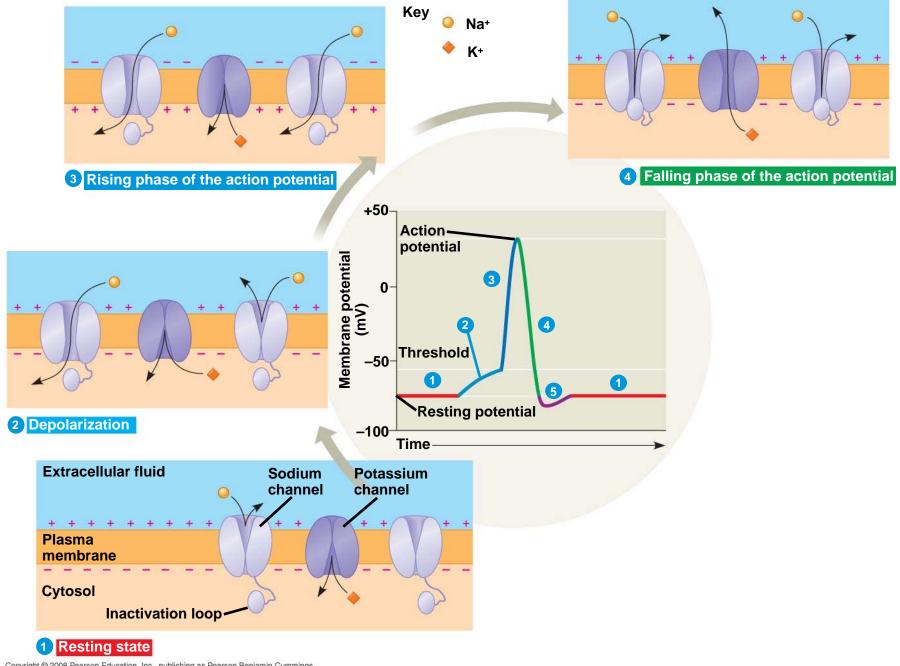
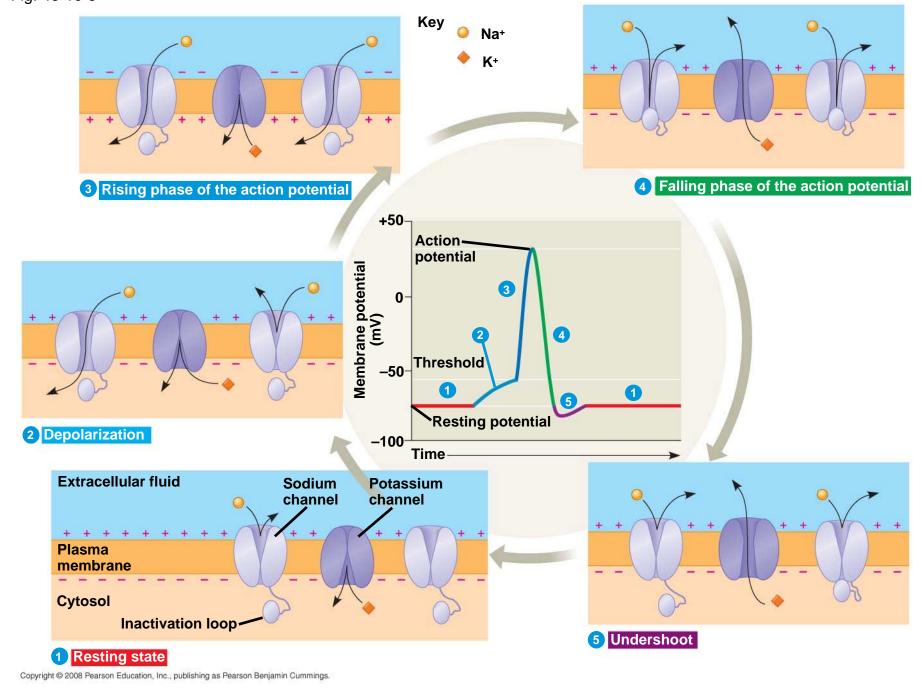


Fig. 48-10-5



- At resting potential
 - Most voltage-gated Na+ and K+ channels are closed, but some K+ channels (not voltagegated) are open

- When an action potential is generated
 - 2. Voltage-gated Na+ channels open first and Na+ flows into the cell
 - 3. During the *rising phase*, the threshold is crossed, and the membrane potential increases
 - 4. During the *falling phase*, voltage-gated Na+ channels become inactivated; voltage-gated K+ channels open, and K+ flows out of the cell

5. During the *undershoot*, membrane permeability to K+ is at first higher than at rest, then voltagegated K+ channels close; resting potential is restored

- During the refractory period after an action potential, a second action potential cannot be initiated
- The refractory period is a result of a temporary inactivation of the Na+ channels

PLAY BioFlix: How Neurons Work

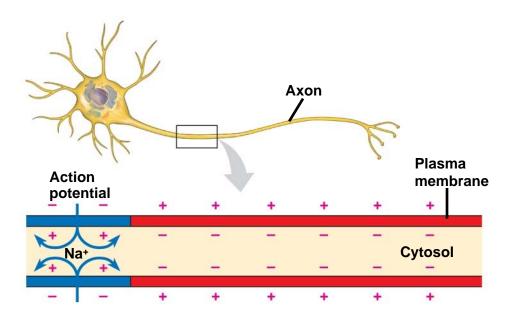
PLAY Animation: Action Potential

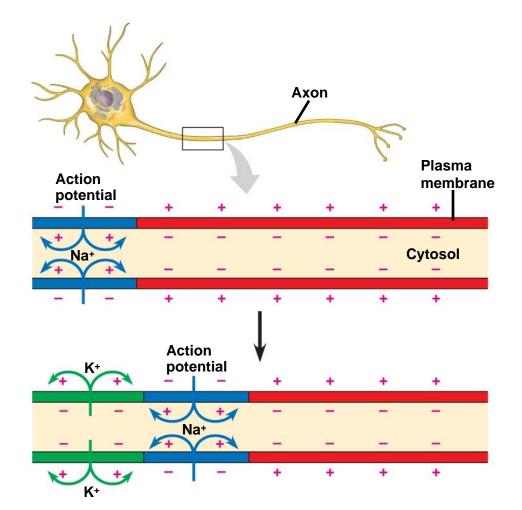
Conduction of Action Potentials

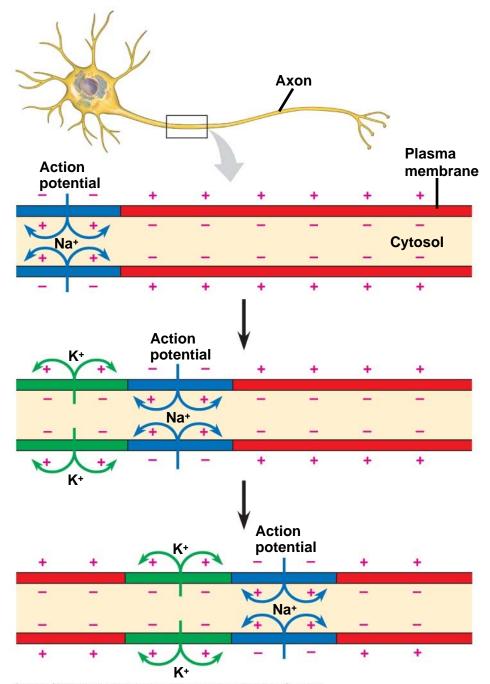
- An action potential can travel long distances by regenerating itself along the axon
- At the site where the action potential is generated, usually the axon hillock, an electrical current depolarizes the neighboring region of the axon membrane

- Inactivated Na⁺ channels behind the zone of depolarization prevent the action potential from traveling backwards
- Action potentials travel in only one direction: toward the synaptic terminals

Fig. 48-11-1



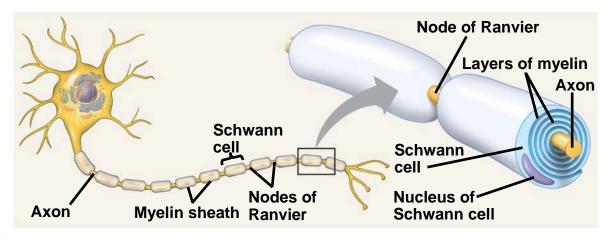


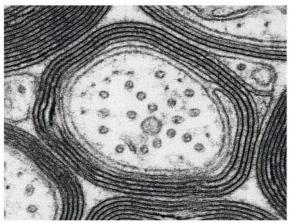


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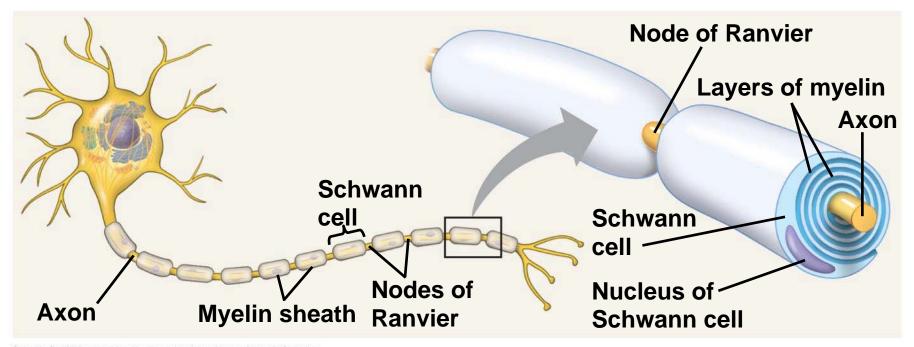
Conduction Speed

- The speed of an action potential increases with the axon's diameter
- In vertebrates, axons are insulated by a myelin sheath, which causes an action potential's speed to increase
- Myelin sheaths are made by glia oligodendrocytes in the CNS and Schwann cells in the PNS

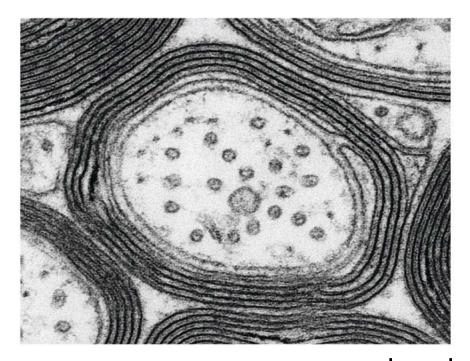




0.1 µm

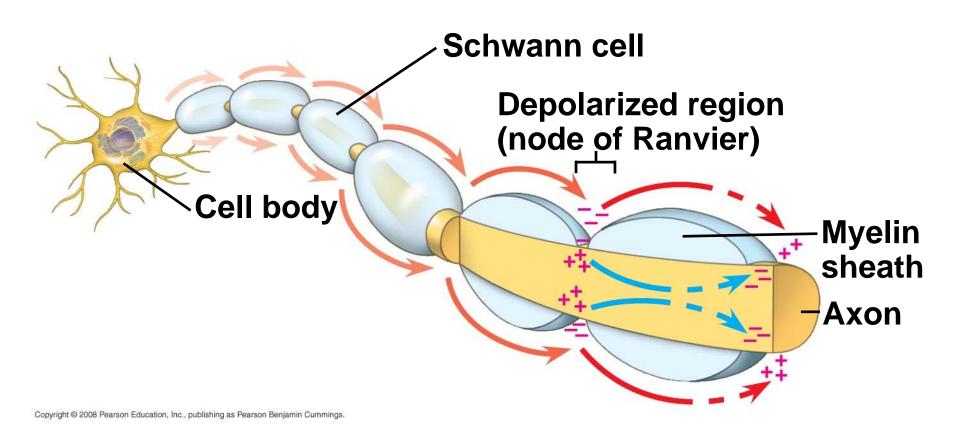


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Myelinated axon (cross section) 0.1 μm

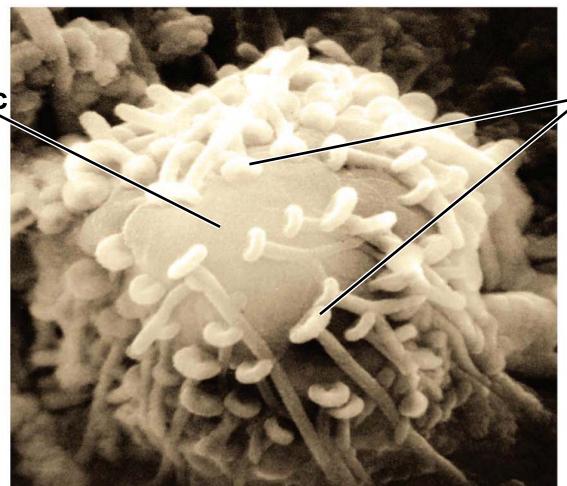
- Action potentials are formed only at nodes of Ranvier, gaps in the myelin sheath where voltage-gated Na+ channels are found
- Action potentials in myelinated axons jump between the nodes of Ranvier in a process called saltatory conduction



Concept 48.4: Neurons communicate with other cells at synapses

- At electrical synapses, the electrical current flows from one neuron to another
- At chemical synapses, a chemical neurotransmitter carries information across the gap junction
- Most synapses are chemical synapses

Postsynaptic neuron



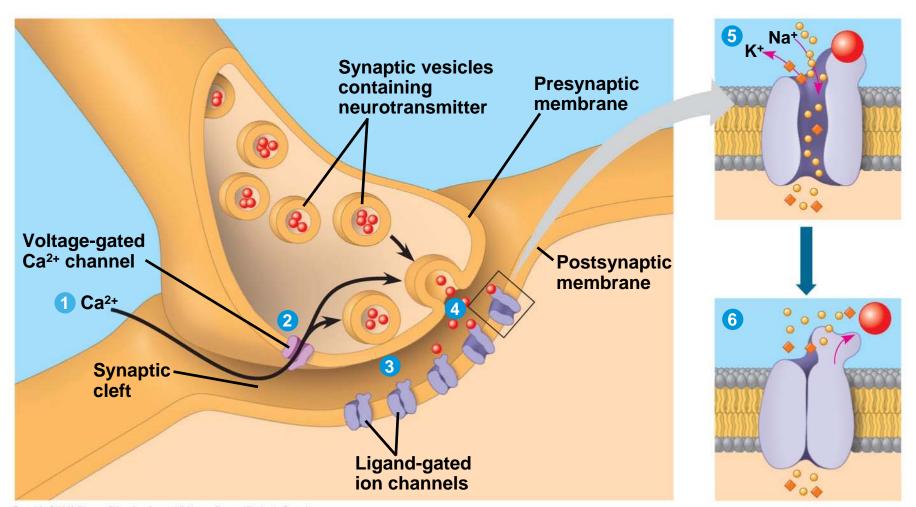
Synaptic terminals of presynaptic neurons

5 µm

- The presynaptic neuron synthesizes and packages the neurotransmitter in synaptic vesicles located in the synaptic terminal
- The action potential causes the release of the neurotransmitter
- The neurotransmitter diffuses across the synaptic cleft and is received by the postsynaptic cell



Animation: Synapse



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Generation of Postsynaptic Potentials

- Direct synaptic transmission involves binding of neurotransmitters to ligand-gated ion channels in the postsynaptic cell
- Neurotransmitter binding causes ion channels to open, generating a postsynaptic potential

- Postsynaptic potentials fall into two categories:
 - Excitatory postsynaptic potentials (EPSPs)
 are depolarizations that bring the membrane
 potential toward threshold
 - Inhibitory postsynaptic potentials (IPSPs)
 are hyperpolarizations that move the
 membrane potential farther from threshold

- After release, the neurotransmitter
 - May diffuse out of the synaptic cleft
 - May be taken up by surrounding cells
 - May be degraded by enzymes

Summation of Postsynaptic Potentials

- Unlike action potentials, postsynaptic potentials are graded and do not regenerate
- Most neurons have many synapses on their dendrites and cell body
- A single EPSP is usually too small to trigger an action potential in a postsynaptic neuron
- If two EPSPs are produced in rapid succession, an effect called temporal summation occurs

Fig. 48-16

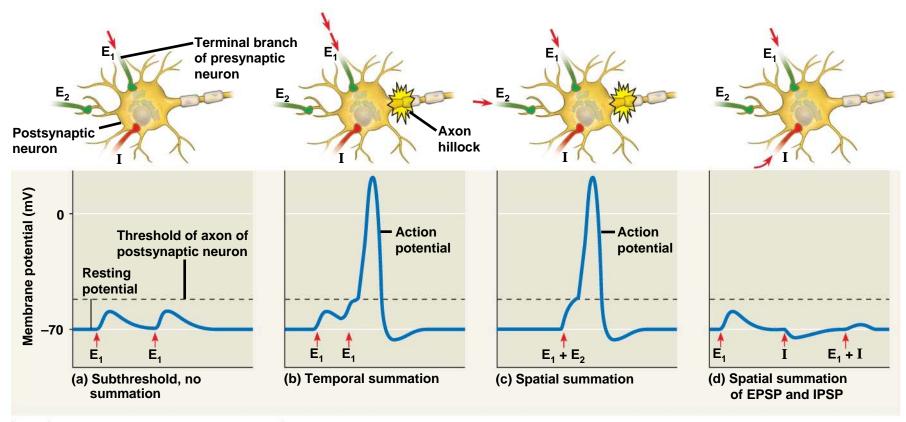
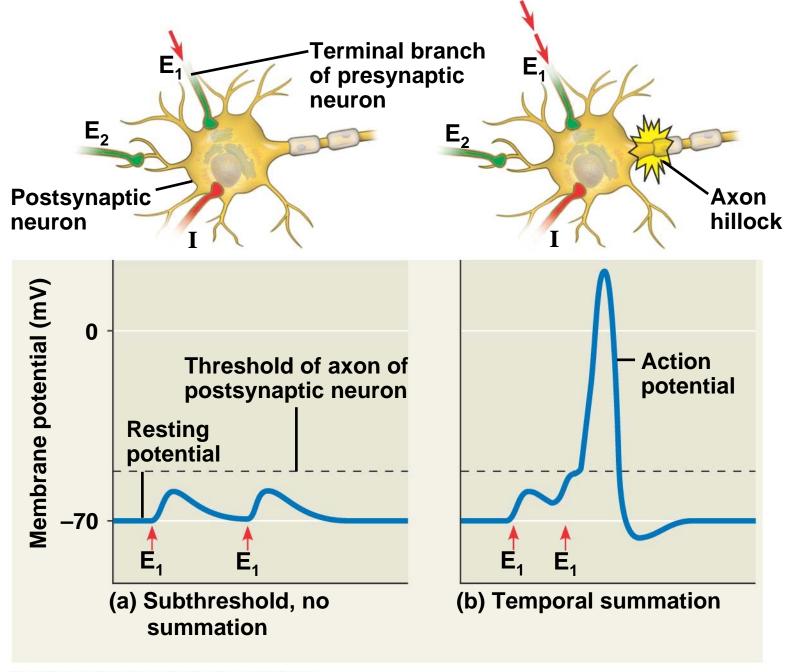
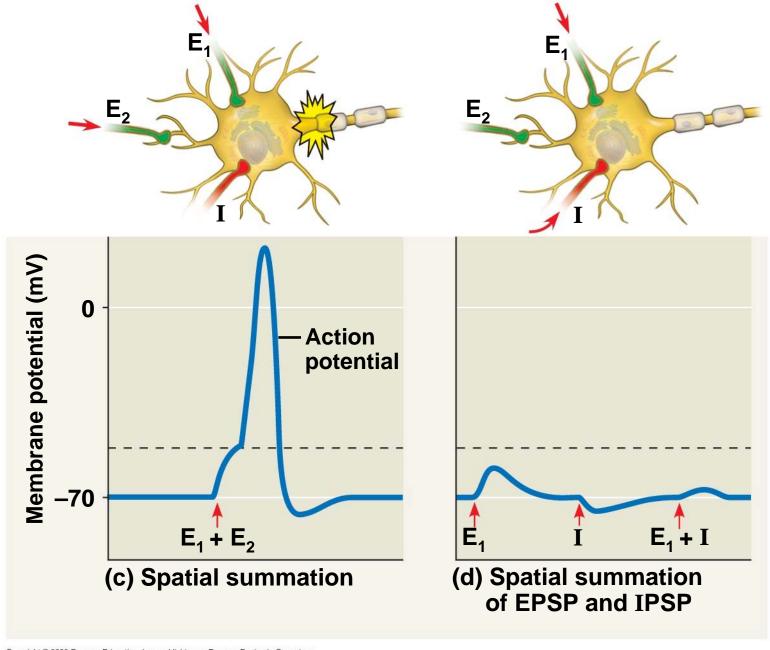


Fig. 48-16ab



- In spatial summation, EPSPs produced nearly simultaneously by different synapses on the same postsynaptic neuron add together
- The combination of EPSPs through spatial and temporal summation can trigger an action potential

Fig. 48-16cd



- Through summation, an IPSP can counter the effect of an EPSP
- The summed effect of EPSPs and IPSPs determines whether an axon hillock will reach threshold and generate an action potential

Modulated Synaptic Transmission

- In indirect synaptic transmission, a neurotransmitter binds to a receptor that is not part of an ion channel
- This binding activates a signal transduction pathway involving a second messenger in the postsynaptic cell
- Effects of indirect synaptic transmission have a slower onset but last longer

Neurotransmitters

- The same neurotransmitter can produce different effects in different types of cells
- There are five major classes of neurotransmitters: acetylcholine, biogenic amines, amino acids, neuropeptides, and gases

Table 48.1 Major Neurotransmitters				
Structure	Functional Class	Secretion Sites		
$H_{3}C$ — C — O — CH_{2} — CH_{2} — N^{+} — $[CH_{3}]_{3}$	Excitatory to vertebrate skeletal muscles; excitatory or inhibitory at other sites	CNS; PNS; vertebrate neuromuscular junction		
но				
HO—CH—CH ₂ —NH ₂ OH	Excitatory or inhibitory	CNS; PNS		
$HO \longrightarrow CH_2 - CH_2 - NH_2$	Generally excitatory; may be inhibitory at some sites	CNS; PNS		
HO CH CH ₂ CH ₂ NH ₂	Generally inhibitory	CNS		
H_2N — CH_2 — CH_2 — $COOH$	Inhibitory	CNS; invertebrate neuromuscular junction		
H ₂ N—CH—CH ₂ —CH ₂ —COOH COOH	Excitatory	CNS; invertebrate neuromuscular junction		
H ₂ N — CH ₂ — COOH	Inhibitory	CNS		
Neuropeptides (a very diverse group, only two of which are shown)				
Arg—Pro — Lys — Pro — Gln — Gln — Phe — Phe — Gly — Leu — Met	Excitatory	CNS; PNS		
Tyr—Gly—Phe—Met	Generally inhibitory	CNS		
N=0	Excitatory or inhibitory	PNS		
	Structure $H_3C - C - O - CH_2 - CH_2 - N^+ - [CH_3]_3$ $HO - CH_2 - CH_2 - NH_2$ $HO - CH_2 - CH_2 - NH_2$ $HO - CH_2 - CH_2 - NH_2$ $HO - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_2 - NH_2$ $HO - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_2 - NH_2$ $HO - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_2 - COOH$ $H_2N - CH_2 - CH_2 - CH_2 - COOH$ $H_2N - CH_2 - CH_2 - COOH$ $COOH$	Structure Functional Class Excitatory to vertebrate skeletal muscles; excitatory or inhibitory at other sites HO HO HO HO CH 2-CH 2-NH 2 HO HO CH 2-CH 2-NH 2 HO HO CH 2-CH 2-NH 2 HO HO HO CH 2-CH 2-CH 2-NH 2 HO		

Neurotransmitter	Structure	Functional Class	Secretion Sites
Acetylcholine	$H_{3}C$ — C — O — CH_{2} — CH_{2} — $ICH_{3}I_{3}$	Excitatory to vertebrate skeletal muscles; excitatory or inhibitory at other sites	CNS; PNS; vertebrate neuromuscular junction
Biogenic Amines	но		
Norepinephrine	HO—CH—CH ₂ —NH ₂ OH	Excitatory or inhibitory	CNS; PNS
Dopamine	$HO \longrightarrow CH_2 - CH_2 - NH_2$	Generally excitatory; may be inhibitory at some sites	CNS; PNS
Serotonin	HO CH CH2 CH2 NH2	Generally inhibitory	CNS

Neurotransmitter	Structure	Functional Class	Secretion Sites
Amino Acids			
GABA (gamma- aminobutyric acid)	H_2N — CH_2 — CH_2 — CH_2 — $COOH$	Inhibitory	CNS; invertebrate neuromuscular junction
Glutamate	H ₂ N—CH—CH ₂ —CH ₂ —COOH COOH	Excitatory	CNS; invertebrate neuromuscular junction
Glycine	H ₂ N — CH ₂ — COOH	Inhibitory	CNS
Neuropeptides (a ver	diverse group, only two of which are shown)		
Substance P	Arg—Pro — Lys — Pro — Gln — Gln — Phe — Phe — Gly — Leu — Met	Excitatory	CNS; PNS
Met-enkephalin (an endorphin)	Tyr—Gly—Phe—Met	Generally inhibitory	CNS
Gases			
Nitric oxide	N=0	Excitatory or inhibitory	PNS

Acetylcholine

- Acetylcholine is a common neurotransmitter in vertebrates and invertebrates
- In vertebrates it is usually an excitatory transmitter

Biogenic Amines

- Biogenic amines include epinephrine, norepinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin
- They are active in the CNS and PNS

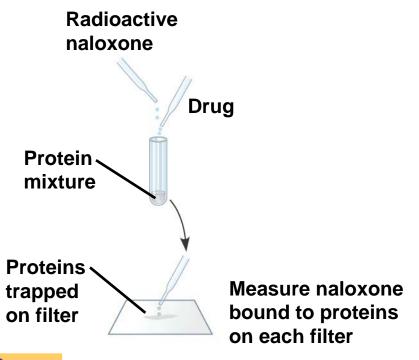
Amino Acids

 Two amino acids are known to function as major neurotransmitters in the CNS: gammaaminobutyric acid (GABA) and glutamate

Neuropeptides

- Several neuropeptides, relatively short chains of amino acids, also function as neurotransmitters
- Neuropeptides include substance P and endorphins, which both affect our perception of pain
- Opiates bind to the same receptors as endorphins and can be used as painkillers

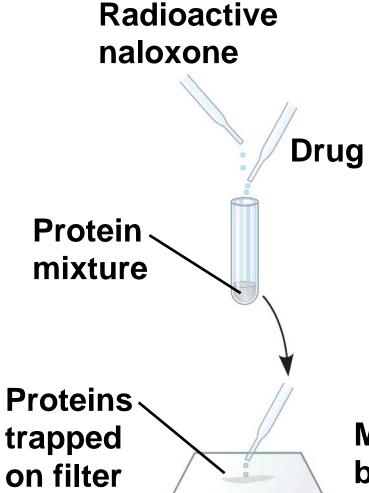
EXPERIMENT



RESULTS

Drug	Opiate	Concentration That Blocked Naloxone Binding
Morphine	Yes	$6 \times 10^{-9} M$
Methadone	Yes	$2 \times 10^{-8} M$
Levorphanol	Yes	$2 \times 10^{-9} M$
Phenobarbital	No	No effect at $10^{-4} M$
Atropine	No	No effect at $10^{-4} M$
Serotonin	No	No effect at $10^{-4} M$

EXPERIMENT



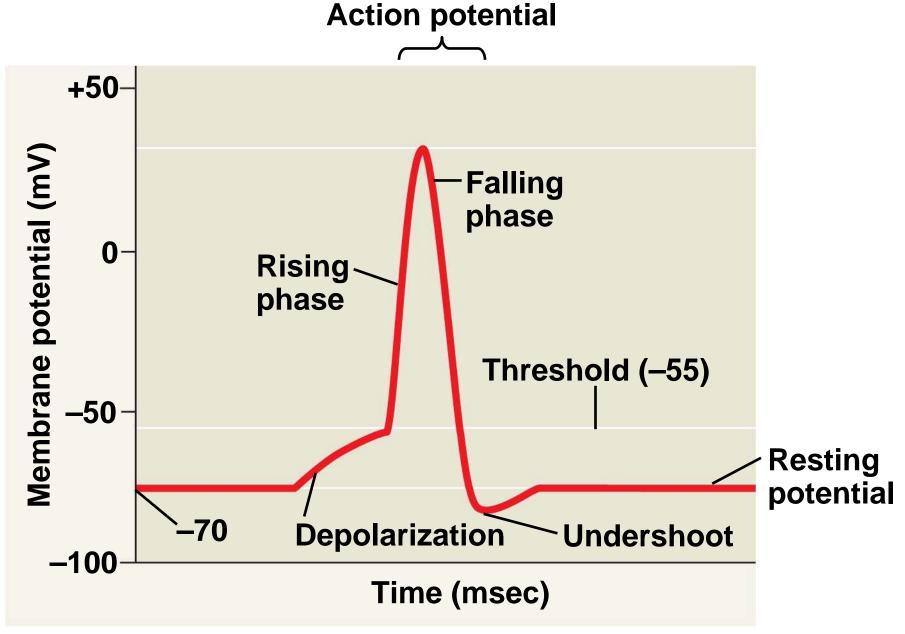
Measure naloxone bound to proteins on each filter

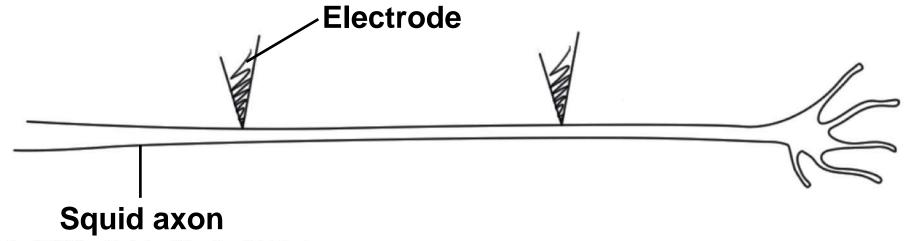
RESULTS

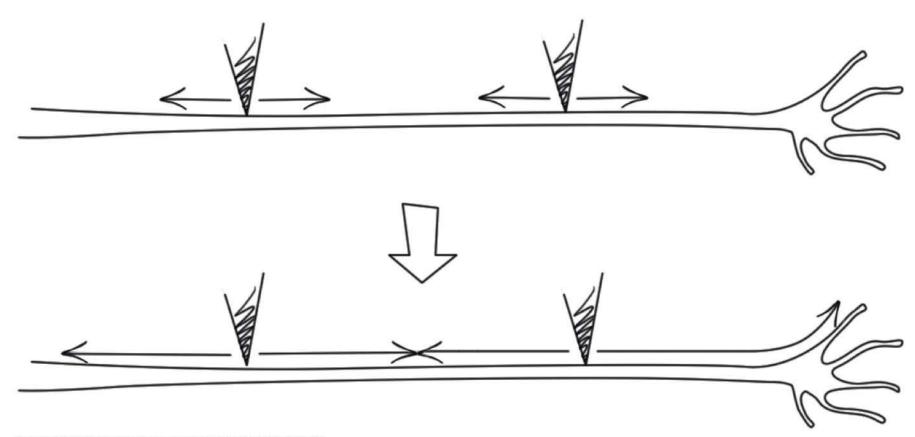
Drug	Opiate	Concentration That Blocked Naloxone Binding
Morphine	Yes	$6 \times 10^{-9} M$
Methadone	Yes	$2 \times 10^{-8} M$
Levorphanol	Yes	$2 \times 10^{-9} M$
Phenobarbital	No	No effect at $10^{-4} M$
Atropine	No	No effect at $10^{-4} M$
Serotonin	No	No effect at $10^{-4} M$

Gases

 Gases such as nitric oxide and carbon monoxide are local regulators in the PNS







You should now be able to:

- Distinguish among the following sets of terms: sensory neurons, interneurons, and motor neurons; membrane potential and resting potential; ungated and gated ion channels; electrical synapse and chemical synapse; EPSP and IPSP; temporal and spatial summation
- 2. Explain the role of the sodium-potassium pump in maintaining the resting potential

- Describe the stages of an action potential; explain the role of voltage-gated ion channels in this process
- Explain why the action potential cannot travel back toward the cell body
- 5. Describe saltatory conduction
- 6. Describe the events that lead to the release of neurotransmitters into the synaptic cleft

- 7. Explain the statement: "Unlike action potentials, which are all-or-none events, postsynaptic potentials are graded"
- 8. Name and describe five categories of neurotransmitters