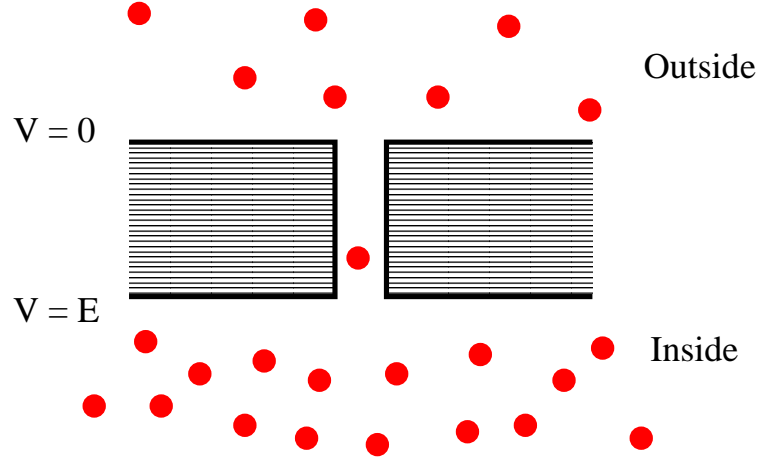


Leaky Integrate-and-Fire Model Neuron

Nernst Equation and Equilibrium/Reversal Potential

Considering one type of ion (diagram is typical of Potassium, K) with negative reversal potential, $E_K \approx -90mV$.



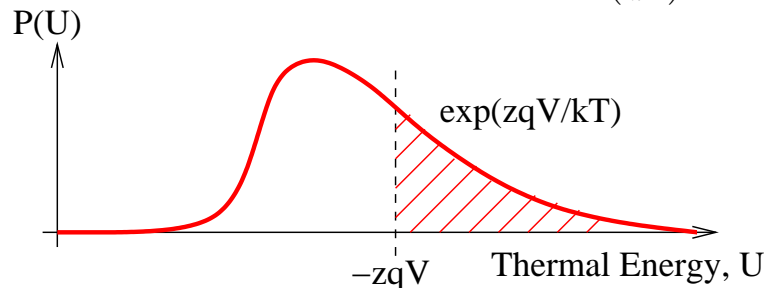
Pumps (requiring ATP and without transferring charge) ensure concentration of potassium $[K^+]$ is greater inside than outside the cell.

Potassium ions (carrying charge) would on average flow out of the cell through ion channels, leaving the inside at a negative potential ($E_K < 0$) until a dynamic equilibrium is reached where the flow in matches the flow out.

Rate of flow in either direction is proportional to concentration at starting point.

But only a fraction of ions with enough energy can make it out once there is a potential difference across the membrane.

Fraction with thermal energy, U , greater than $-zqV$ is $\exp\left(\frac{zqV}{kT}\right)$.



For one ion equilibrium potential E is where $[inside] \exp\left(\frac{zqE}{kT}\right) = [outside]$. Hence

$$E = \frac{kT}{zq} \ln\left(\frac{[outside]}{[inside]}\right) \quad \text{Nernst Equation} \quad (1)$$

Each ion has its own E . Calculation of equilibrium for all types of channel leads to a reversal potential or equilibrium potential or leak potential, V_L , of the cell, where overall charge flow is zero. $V_L \approx -70mV$.

Membrane potential, V_m

If $V_m > V_L$ (that is we **depolarize**, make less negative) charge flows out of the cell and the membrane potential goes back down (becomes more negative).

If $V_m < V_L$ (that is we **hyperpolarize**, make more negative) charge flows into the cell and the membrane potential goes back up (becomes less negative).

Current flow per unit area **out** of the neuron through “leak” channels in the membrane is given by $I_m = G_L (V_m - V_L)$. (Positive membrane current is outward.)

Change in potential due to current flow depends on the membrane capacitance, C_m , via $Q = C_m V_m$ where Q is excess charge inside the neuron.

Since $dQ/dt = -I_m$ we have in general:

$$C_m \frac{dV_m}{dt} = -G_L (V_m - V_L) + I_{app} \quad (2)$$

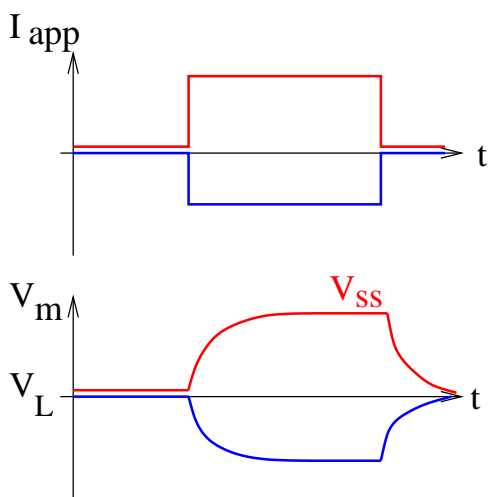
where I_{app} is an externally applied (inward) current. (Positive applied current is inward.)

c_m is specific membrane capacitance = capacitance per unit area. Total capacitance, $C_m = c_m A$.

r_m is specific membrane (surface) resistance, Total input resistance, $R_{in} = r_m / A$.

$g_L = 1/r_m$ is specific membrane conductance. Total conductance, $G_L = g_L A$.

Response to a long current pulse



Time course is exponential decay to a steady state (V_{ss}) with a time constant τ_m .

Proof: rewrite Eq. 2 as

$$\frac{dV_m}{dt} = \frac{V_{ss} - V_m}{\tau_m} \quad \text{where} \quad (3)$$

$$\tau_m = \frac{C}{G_L} = C R_{in} \approx 20ms \quad (4)$$

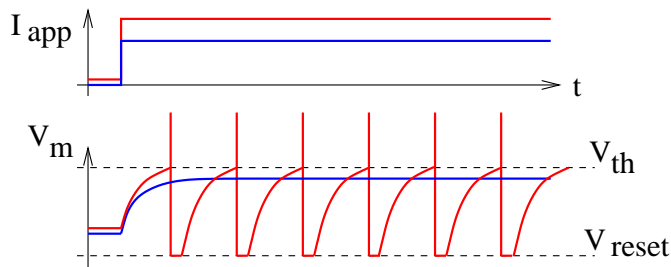
$$\text{and } V_{ss} = V_L + I/G_L \quad (5)$$

If current switches at time, $t = 0$ then solution is:

$$V_m(t) = V_{ss} + [V_m(0) - V_{ss}] e^{-t/\tau_m}. \quad (6)$$

Leaky integrate-and-fire

We have already shown leaky integration. Now add a ‘fire’ by hand when V_m reaches a threshold, V_{th} then reset to V_{reset} and wait a short refractory time, τ_{ref} before further integration.



What is the firing rate, $f(I)$? Time between spikes is $\tau_{ref} + T$ where T is time for V_m to increase from V_{reset} to V_{th} .

Again, integrating Eq. 3:

$$\int_{V_{reset}}^{V_{th}} \frac{dV_m}{V_{ss} - V_m} = \int_0^T \frac{dt}{\tau_m} \quad (7)$$

leads to

$$T = -\tau_m \ln \left[\frac{V_{ss} - V_{th}}{V_{ss} - V_{reset}} \right] \quad (8)$$

Then $f(I) = 1/(\tau_{ref} + T)$ if $I > I_c$.

I_c defined by $V_{ss} = V_{th}$ leads to $I_c = G_L (V_{th} - V_L)$.

Euler method for ODEs

Cf *Numerical Recipes* by W.H.Press *et al.*

See also: *Modeling in Biology: Differential Equations* by Clifford Taubes, Prentice Hall, 2001.

To solve numerically:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x) \quad \text{with} \quad x_0 = x(t=0) \quad (9)$$

Write $x_n = x(t = n\Delta t)$. Define: $\Delta x_{n+1} = x_{n+1} - x_n$ then for small Δt Eq. 9 becomes

$$\frac{\Delta x_{n+1}}{\Delta t} = f(x_n) \quad (10)$$

hence

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + f(x_n)\Delta t \quad \text{error per step} \quad \approx (\Delta t)^2 \quad (11)$$

Euler method with white noise

White noise, $w(t)$ is defined as having zero mean, but a variance that is a delta-function in time.

$$\langle w(t) \rangle = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle w(t)w(t') \rangle = \delta(t - t') \quad (12)$$

The integral (dt) over a delta-function gives, unity, so the delta-function has units of inverse time (ms^{-1}) and the white noise function has units of square-root of inverse-time, ($\text{ms}^{-1/2}$).

Equation to integrate:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x) + \sigma w(t) \quad (13)$$

Must be implemented numerically:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + f(x_n)\Delta t + \sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}\tilde{w}_n \quad (14)$$

where \tilde{w}_n is a random selection from a Gaussian, with distribution:

$$p(\tilde{w}_n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\tilde{w}_n^2/2} \quad (15)$$

This has zero mean, and variance 1 for a particular n but covariance 0 for terms with different n : this can be written $\langle \tilde{w}_n\tilde{w}_{n'} \rangle = \delta_{n-n'}$.

Warning: only read further if everything up until now is straightforward to you!

Why scale noise term by $\sqrt{\Delta t}$ in simulations?

In words: the white noise term adds variance to x , not a mean effect.

For N independent choices of noise term (one for each time step) if the amplitude of the noise term is A then the variance of N terms is NA^2 . Hence at time $T = N\Delta t$ the variance is NA^2 .

If we change Δt the number of time steps, N to reach T changes inversely, $N = T/(\Delta t)$. But we do not want the variance to change as we change the time step of our simulation, so we want NA^2 to remain fixed. This means A^2 scales as $1/N \propto \Delta t$. Recall A is the amplitude of the noise term, so the amplitude scales as $A \propto \sqrt{\Delta t}$.

Mathematical proof: just consider contribution of the noise term, which only depends on time, so we ignore $f(x)$ in Eq. 13. If:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \sigma w(t) \quad (16)$$

then

$$x(T) = x_0 + \sigma \int_0^T w(t') dt' \quad (17)$$

and $\langle x(t) \rangle = x_0$ while

$$\begin{aligned} Var(x) = \langle (x - x_0)^2 \rangle &= \left\langle \sigma^2 \int_0^T w(t') dt' \int_0^T w(t'') dt'' \right\rangle \\ &= \sigma^2 \int_0^T dt' \int_0^T dt'' \langle w(t') w(t'') \rangle \\ &= \sigma^2 \int_0^T dt' \int_0^T dt'' \delta(t' - t'') \\ &= \sigma^2 \int_0^T dt' = \sigma^2 T. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

This is the analytic solution (using continuous time) that we must achieve numerically (using discrete time steps).

Now we prove that Eq. 14, ignoring the $f(x_n)$ term, gives the correct result:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \sigma \sqrt{\Delta t} \tilde{w}_n \quad (19)$$

leads to

$$x_N = x_0 + \sigma \sqrt{\Delta t} \sum_{k=1}^N \tilde{w}_k \quad (20)$$

where the sum is over N independent variables, each with mean 0 and variance 1 so $\langle x_N \rangle = x_0$ and

$$\begin{aligned} Var(x_N) = \langle (x_N - x_0)^2 \rangle &= \sigma^2 \Delta t \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{k'=1}^N \langle \tilde{w}_k \tilde{w}_{k'} \rangle \\ &= \sigma^2 \Delta t \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{k'=1}^N \delta_{k-k'} \\ &= \sigma^2 \Delta t \sum_{k=1}^N 1 \\ &= \sigma^2 \Delta t N = \sigma^2 T \quad \text{where} \quad T = N \Delta t. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

This agrees with Eq. 18 as required.