Nerve Cells (Neurons)

The nervous system is formed of neurons and supportive cells. A neuron, typically consists of 3 basics parts: **cell body, dendrites, and axon** (or nerve fiber). Dendrites are short projections from the cell body, which receive inputs from neighboring neurons. Axon is a long tubular like structure which projects from cone-shaped elevation in the cell body known as **axon hillock** (means small hill). The impulse begins at the junction between axon hillock and the initial segment of axon. Axon ends

into fine processes called axon terminals. Some of these terminals end with a bulb-shape structure called **synaptic end bulb (synaptic knob)**, where neurotransmitter is stored in vesicles and ready for the release.

Many classifications for neurons are known, according to shape, function, neurotransmitter they release, myelination, location…etc.

Supportive cells and function (NEUROGLIA):

Many types of supportive cells around neurons have been described (at least 6). Microglia, Astrtocytes, oligodendrogliocytes have been shown around neurons from the CNS. And glial cells which are similar to astrocytes from the CNS have been described in the neural network of the GI tract.

These cells perform the following functions:

*Maintenance of neural environment.

-uptake of K+ and neurotransmitters from the interstitial fluid around the neurons.

*Synthesize and release neurotrophic factors → maintain the survival and protection of neurons

* Other specialized supportive cells are responsible for myelination of axons. In the CNS these cells are oligodendrogliocytes. In the peripheral nervous system, these cells are known as **Schwan cells**. These cells wrap around axon segments and secrete myelin sheath (a protein lipid complex that insulates nerve fiber). There are gaps in myelin sheaths known as **nodes of Ranvier**, which appear at intervals along axon. These gaps are used for transmission of impulse along myelinated nerve fiber.

TANSMISSION OF ACTION POTENTIAL ALONG NERVE FIBERS:

Once an action potential is generated at the axon hillock, no more triggering events are needed to activate the whole nerve fiber (axon). The generated impulse is conducted along the nerve fiber by one of the followings 2 methods of propagation:

1. Continuous conduction (conduction by local current flow): occurs in unmyelinated fibers. Local currents flow between the active area, which is at the peak of action potential and the inactive area, which is still in resting potential. This flow will cause activation of Na+ channels in the inactive area and reduce

the membrane potential to the threshold, which triggers an action potential in this area (that was previously inactive).
This process is repeated all along the nerve fiber until the impulse has reached nerve terminals.

2. Saltatory conduction: In myelinated fibers, the impulse skips the myelinated regions in the axon and jumps from one node of Ranvier to the adjacent node. This process ensures faster propagation of an action potential along the myelinated axons (50 times faster than in unmyelinated fibers of the same size). The conduction also involves current flow between two adjacent nodes of Ranvier, which results in activation of Na+ channels in the adjacent node, which is still in resting potential. The process is repeated until the impulse activates the axon terminals.

Note: current flow in both types of conduction is from the **positively charged to the negatively charged regions at both sides of the membrane**, and the membrane has high resistance to the passage of current flow across it (**no** current flow can pass through the membrane).

Not only myelination can influence the velocity of conduction, but also the diameter of nerve fibers. Larger fibers conduct impulse with higher velocity.
Nerve fibers have been classified in (A, which includes as subtypes (α, β, γ, δ) fibers, B, C). The diameter and the velocity of conduction is the highest in Aα, and is the lowest in C fibers.

The importance of refractory periods in conduction:

The presence of refractory periods during action potential is very important in the conduction of impulse. The refractory periods ensure the **one-way (unidirectional)** propagation of action potential. Once an area has developed an action potential, the previous region is still under refractory period (unresponsive area). This area will not develop another action potential. But the following area that is at resting potential is capable to initiate an action potential.

SYNAPSES AND INTEGRATION OF RESPONSES:

Synapses:

Neuron may terminate at one of three structures: a neuron, a muscle, or a gland. The junction between 2 neurons is known as a synapse. The first neuron ends with end bulb (**synaptic knob**), where neurotransmitters are stored in vesicles and ready for the release. The membrane of the synaptic knob is known as **presynaptic membrane**. When secretory vesicles fuse with the presynaptic membrane, they release their content into a small space between two membranes known as the **synaptic cleft**. The released transmitters act on the second neurons by binding to their receptors at the second membrane, which is called **postsynaptic membrane** (**subsynaptic membrane**).

Synapses operate in one direction. Transmit signals from one neuron to an adjacent neuron. When the impulse from the presynaptic neuron reaches the synaptic knob, this will cause activation of voltage dependent Ca++ channels. This will result in Ca++ diffusion into the synaptic knob. The increase in Ca++ concentration inside the axon terminal will trigger the release of neurotransmitter from vesicles into synaptic cleft by a process of exocytosis. Inactivation of synaptic knob by inhibitory inputs that may synapse with the membrane at the nerve terminal may induce inhibition of the release of transmitter. This inhibition that appears at this site reduces the effectiveness of transmission in the synapse. This type of inhibition is known as presynaptic inhibition.

Once released, neurotransmitter binds to its receptor at the postsynaptic membrane. According to transmitter – receptor combination, this will induce either a decrease in membrane potential (depolarization) or increase in membrane potential (hyperpolarization). When there is a decrease in membrane potential, the developed postsynaptic potential is called **EPSPs** (**E**xcitatory **P**ost **S**ynaptic **P**otentials), while the increase in membrane potential is called **IPSPs** (**I**nhibitory **P**ost **S**ynaptic **P**otentials).

After inducing the appropriate response at the postsynaptic membrane, the transmitter is inactivated or removed, leaving the postsynaptic membrane ready to receive additional messages from the same presynaptic membrane. The inactivation of transmitter takes place by postsynaptic membrane bound enzymes. An example of these enzymes is *acetylcholine esterase*, which destroys acetylcholine (Ach) into acetyl and choline molecules, which then transported back to the synaptic knob, where they combine again to form new Ach molecules. Some types of transmitters are transported back, without inactivation, into

synaptic knob. Conditions that alter the activity of destroying enzyme, uptake of transmitter by nerve terminal, or induce release of high concentration of transmitter (presynaptic facilitation) alter the activity of synapse by prolonging the activation of receptors at the postsynaptic (subsynaptic) membrane. In addition to that, some drugs may combine with receptor and prevents binding of transmitter to its receptor. These drugs are known as **blockers**. An example of these is hexamethonium, which can bind to acetylcholine (Ach) receptor at postsynaptic membrane and prevents Ach from binding. This will inhibit transmission induced by Ach neurons.

The EPSPs are not action potentials. They are small depolarization (subthreshold potential) that can be induced by activation of few Na+ channels.

The IPSPs are usually induced by activation of K+ channels. Which result in efflux of K+ and change in the membrane potential to more negative potential. Some transmitters activate Cl- channels, the activation of these channels will not induce hyperpolarization (during rest, neural cell is near the E_{cl}, and the opening of Cl- channels will not induce inward diffusion of Cl-). But this activation is inhibitory on neural activity. This inhibition is achieved by holding the membrane at its resting potential and preventing depolarization.

The time it takes for a signal from the first neuron to induce changes in membrane potential in the second neuron is known as **synaptic delay**.

Integration of responses at postsynaptic membrane:

Usually, the complexity of neural network connections permit synapsing of many axonal terminals from different neurons to one neural cell body (called **convergence**), and branching of one nerve fiber to many terminals that synapse to different neurons (**divergence**). This complexity results in converting the signal from one neuron to many postsynaptic neurons in the case of divergence, and many inputs from presynaptic neurons can be received by a single postsynaptic neuron in the case of convergence.

As mentioned before, one stimulus may induce depolarization or hyperpolarization at the postsynaptic membrane. The induced depolarization is not an action potential, but it is a subthreshold potential. The action potential will develop only when the threshold is achieved. In a neural network, to have subthreshold potentials eliciting an action potential, **summation** (two depolarizations can sum to elicit a higher

depolarization) must take place between responses at the postsynaptic membrane.

Two types of summation are known at the postsynaptic membrane. **Spatial summation** appears when 2 or more responses from 2 or more different neurons have appeared simultaneously (at the same time) at the same site of postsynaptic membrane, which result in summing of these responses into a final response. This summation can take place between 2 or more IPSPs to elicit more hyperpolarization, two or more EPSPs to elicit more depolarization in the membrane, or between excitatory and inhibitory potentials which results in cancellation of potentials and induce postsynaptic inhibition.

The second type of summation is called **temporal summation**. Appears when 2 or more postsynaptic potentials, which were elicited by **one** presynaptic neuron at different times, sum to induce more depolarization in the membrane potential. In this case, the repetitive excitation of postsynaptic membrane from a single input induces a higher depolarization that may elicit an action potential at the postsynaptic membrane.

Recordings of action potential:

Recording of **monophasic action potential** is by placing one electrode inside the cell and the other electrode outside the cell. While a different configuration of an action potential can be obtained by placing the two electrodes outside the cell membrane. The later recording is known as **biphasic action potential**. Two waves are obtained in the recording of biphasic action potential, the first represents depolarization, and the second is in the reverse direction of the first and represents repolarization.