

**431**

**CNS** System  
central Nervous

**Block**

**Physiology Team**

Female Side

Male side

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# CNS System Nervous central

## Block

Slide No.( 2 )

### Objectives

- Define synapses
- Functions of synapses.
- Structure of synapses
- Types of synapses: anatomical & functional.
- Synaptic transmission & neurotransmitters
- Fate of neurotransmitters.
- Electrical events at synapses (EPSPs & IPSPs).
- Properties of synaptic transmission
- Factors affecting synaptic transmission

**Team Notes :**

**Blue** for **Additional information**

**Green** for **information from male slides**

**Red** for **important information**



# CNS<sup>System</sup> central Nervous

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Slide No.( 3 )

### INTRODUCTION TO SYNAPSE:

The CNS contains more than 100 billion neurons. Incoming signals enter the neuron through synapses located mostly on the neuronal dendrites, but also on the cell body.

For different types of neurons, there may be only a few hundred or as many as 200,000 such synaptic connections from input fibers.

Conversely, the output signal travels by way of a single axon leaving the neuron.

**Team Notes :**

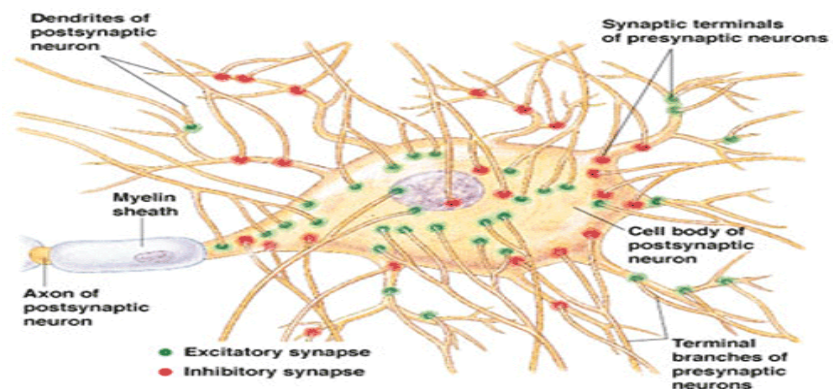
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Slide No.( 4 )

## What is a synapse?

A junction where the axon or some other portion of one cell (= presynaptic cell) terminates on the dendrites, soma, or axon of another neuron (post synaptic cell).

The term was introduced in nineteenth century by the British neurophysiologist Charles Sherrington

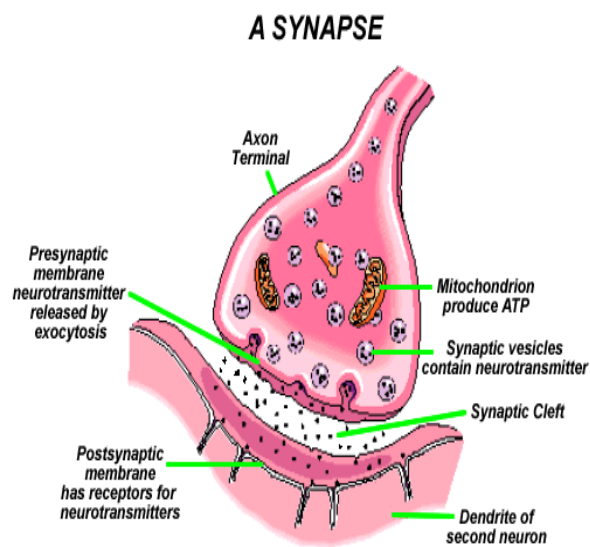


Team Notes :

Remember that: **In the synapses** the membranes of adjacent cells are **in close apposition** (contiguity=contact, not continuity).

Slide No.(5)

## Functional Anatomy of a Synapse



### Team Notes :

- \* It is important to know that the neurotransmitter in the synapses is released by a process called **Exocytosis**.

#### What is Exocytosis? ( EXTRA INFORMATION )

- the release of cellular substances (as secretory products) contained in cell vesicles by fusion of the vesicular membrane with the plasma membrane and subsequent release of the contents to the exterior of the cell.

Slide No.(6)

## Anatomical Types of Synapses

- Axodendritic – synapses between the axon of one neuron and the dendrite of another
- Axosomatic – synapses between the axon of one neuron and the soma of another
- Other types of synapses include:
  - Axoaxonic (axon to axon)
  - Dendrodendritic (dendrite to dendrite)
  - Dendrosomatic (dendrites to soma)

Team Notes :

(5) Somato-somatic



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### The Neurotransmitters

Neurotransmitter is a chemical substance released by a neuron (called presynaptic cell), crosses the synaptic cleft, and binds to a receptor located on the membrane (postsynaptic membrane) of another cell

### What are the types of transmitters?

- ❖ Excitatory neurotransmitter: It's a transmitter that produces excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) on the postsynaptic neuron.
- ❖ Inhibitory neurotransmitter: It's a transmitter that produces inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP) on the postsynaptic neuron.

### Examples of excitatory transmitter:

(1) **Acetylcholine**: Opens sodium channels in the Postsynaptic Cell Membrane  
→depolarization → EPSP.

(1) **Glutamate**: Produces EPSP by opening of  $Ca^{2+}$  channel.

(2) **Serotonin**(5-Hydroxytryptamine) Present in high concentration in brain Raphe Nuclei. It is involved in sleep production.

### Examples of inhibitory transmitter:

(1) **GABA**(which in some places opens chloride channels, and in others opens potassium channels).

(2) **Enkephalin**: Inhibitory transmitter. Found in the GIT and spinal cord. In the spinal cord it exerts analgesic activity, reducing the feeling of pain.

(3) **Glycine**: in the spinal cord

### In what location the neurotransmitter synthesized?

All the neurotransmitters which are peptides are synthesized in the cell body, but all those which have small molecular weight are synthesized in the nerve ending (e.g ACH)

### In what location the transmitter vesicle synthesized?

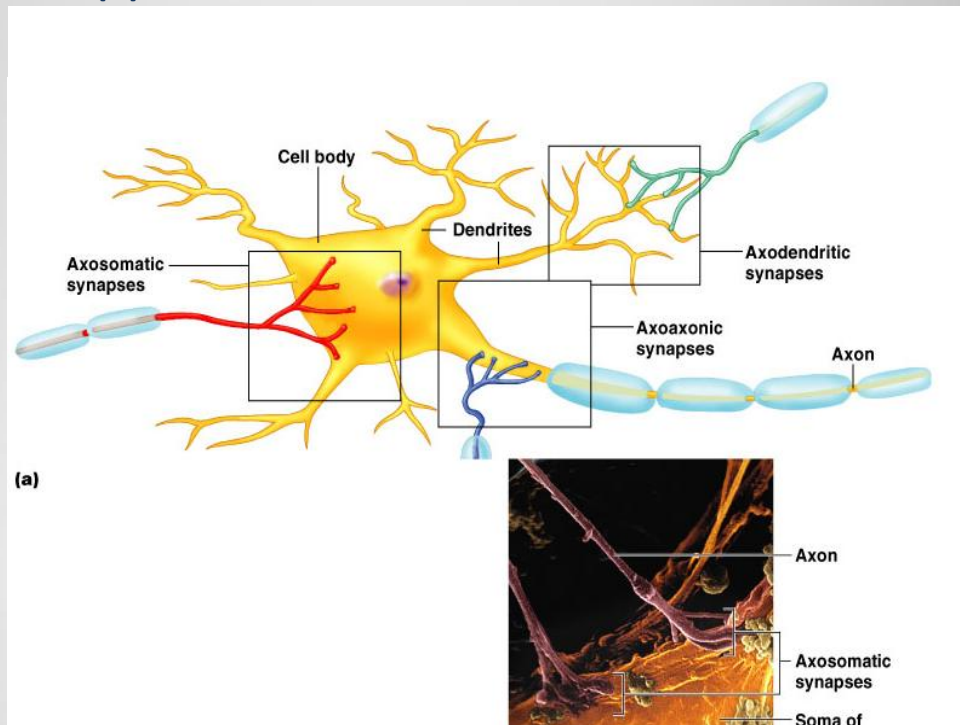
Neuron cell body.

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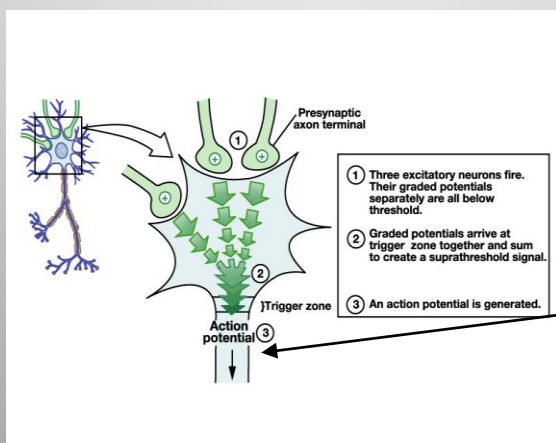
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Team Notes :


### What is the Trigger zone ?



Trigger zone ( functional term ) is at the anatomical Axon Hillockn ( Beginning of the Axon as it comes out of the Soma )

An area where Action potential is formed





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### Functional types of synapses

#### A. Chemical synapse


Almost all synapses used for signal transmission in the CNS of human being are chemical synapses.

i.e. first neuron secretes a chemical substance called neurotransmitter at the synapse to act on receptor on the next neuron to excite it, inhibit or modify its sensitivity.

#### Team Notes :

##### Notice in this slide that:

- Chemical synapses is the **MOST COMMON** type of synapses in the CNS
- In this type of synapses, there is **One-way conduction** → since that the neurotransmitter is released by the presynaptic neuron to act on the postsynaptic neuron, and cannot be in the opposite way.
- Slower than electrical synapses in conduction of nerve Impulses.



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Slide No.(9)

### B. Electrical Synapses


Membranes of the pre- and post-synaptic neurons come close together and gap junctions forms → low membrane borders which allow passage of ions.

- Are less common than chemical synapses
- Correspond to gap junctions found in other cell types
- Are important in the CNS in:
  - Arousal from sleep
  - Mental attention
  - Emotions and memory
  - Ion and water homeostasis

Team Notes :

**Notice in this slide that:**

- Gap junctions are formed in the cell membranes of the two neurons in the synapse (**why?**) → to allow the easy passage of ions across the membranes, which explains why **the electrical synapses are much more faster in conduction of nerve impulses, compared to the chemical synapses.** Therefore, it is required in process such as mental attention and arousal from sleep.
- Less common than the chemical synapses.



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Slide No.(10)

### C. Conjoint synapse

Both electrical and chemical.  
Examples → neurons in lateral  
vestibular nucleus.

**Team Notes :**

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.



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Slide No.( 11 )

### What happens at the synapse?


Information is transmitted in the CNS mainly in the form of APs “=nerve impulse”, which pass from one neuron to another.

Each impulse through its way from one neuron to another may be:-

1. **blocked** in its transmission from one neuron to another
  2. changed from single impulse to **repetitive impulses**.
- ∴ Synaptic transmission is a complex process that permits grading and adjustment of neural activity necessary for normal function.

Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.



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Slide No.( 12)


### Examples of synapses outside CNS

1. NMJ

2. Contact between:  
autonomic neurons and  
smooth , cardiac muscles,  
and other effector cells.

**Team Notes :**

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.



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Slide No.(13)

### **SYNAPSE: STRUCTURE & FUNCTIONS**

**Synaptic cleft:** This the space between the axon terminal and sarcolemma. It has a width of 200-300 angstroms.

**Synaptic knobs** (presynaptic terminal ) cover about 40% of soma and 70% of dendritic membrane

**Team Notes :**

- **Synaptic Knob contains neurotransmitters**
- **Synaptic Cleft (space) contains enzymes that destroy neurotransmitters.**

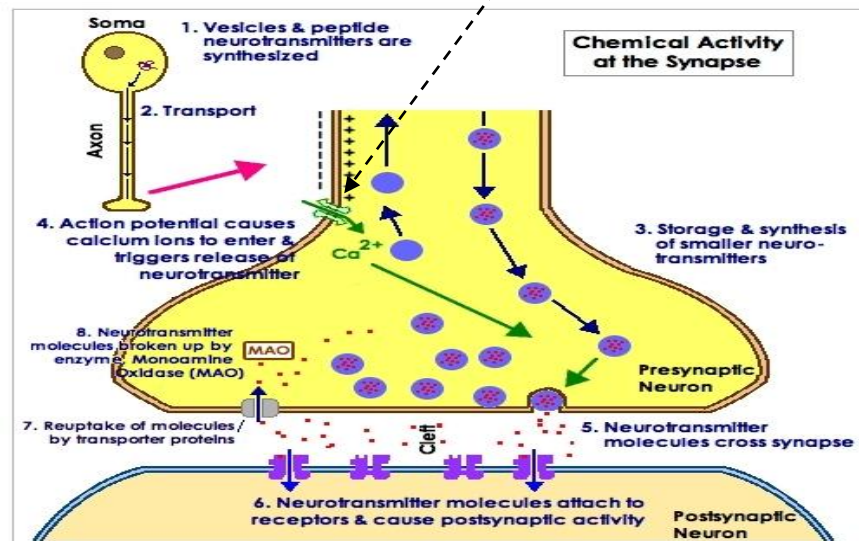
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## IMPORTANT:

Calcium is the ion that causes the release of neurotransmitter from the presynaptic axon terminal, and it enters to the axon terminal by Voltage-gated calcium Channels

Slide No.(14)

### Mechanism of Synaptic Transmission:



### Team Notes :

#### \* The story of Synaptic Neurotransmission:

1. Synthesis of Neurotransmitter peptides and the vesicles in the cell body, and then they will be transferred to the Axon terminal.
2. In the Axon terminal, the neurotransmitter will be stored in those small vesicles.
3. Action potential will be traveling along the axon until it reaches the axon terminal where it causes the opening of Voltage-gated Calcium channel, allowing the influx of the  $Ca^{++}$ .
4. The entry of  $Ca^{++}$  will cause the release of neurotransmitter in the synaptic cleft.
5. Neurotransmitter will act on the postsynaptic cell receptors and cause an activity there (according to the type of neurotransmitter)
6. After acting on the receptors, the neurotransmitter will be either: diffused to the fluid outside the synaptic cleft, undergone enzymatic destruction, or uptaken by Active transport to the presynaptic axon terminal where it will be stored again in vesicles.



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### Action of the transmitter substance on post-synaptic neuron:

At the synapse, the membrane of post-synaptic neuron contains large number of receptor proteins. Binding of the neurotransmitter to its receptor will result in **inhibition** or **excitation** of the post-synaptic membrane depending on the type of the neurotransmitter i.e. excitatory or inhibitory.

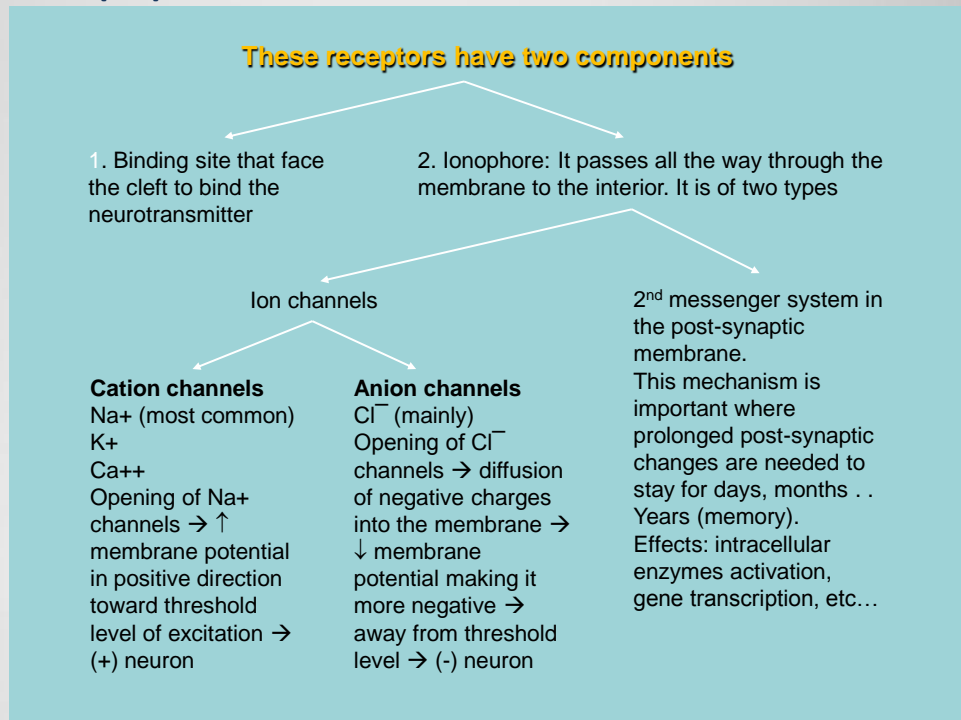
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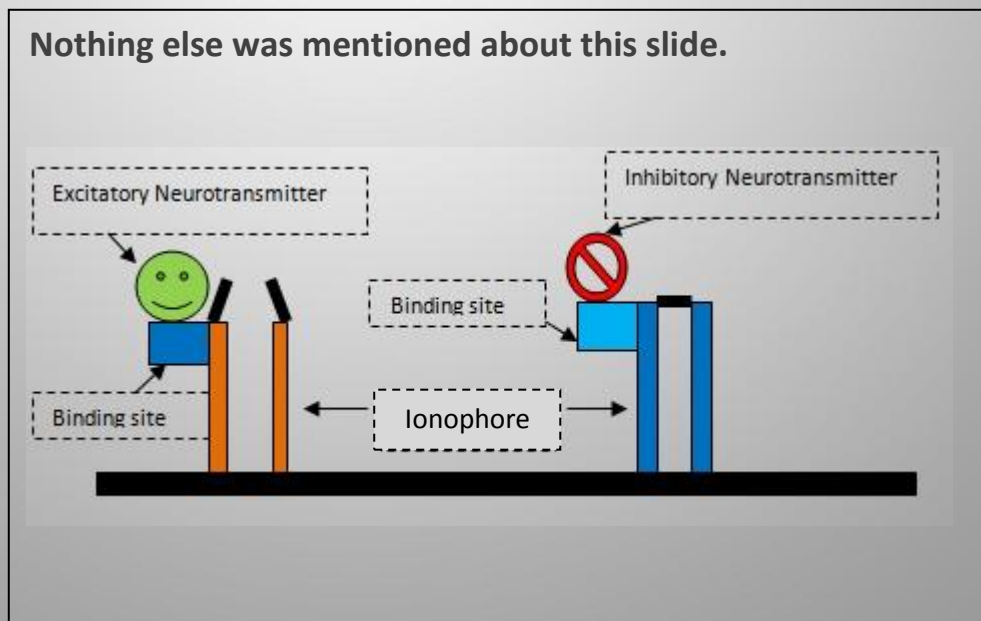



## Block

Slide No.(16)



Team Notes :





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## Block

Slide No.(17)

### Fate of a neurotransmitter

After a transmitter substance is released at a synapse, it must be removed by:-

- Diffusion out of synaptic cleft into surrounding fluid
- Enzymatic destruction e.g. Ach esterase for Ach
- Active transport back into pre-synaptic terminal itself e.g. norepinephrine

Team Notes :


Q: What happens to the transmitter after it has combined with its postsynaptic receptors and produced its effect?

**It can be destroyed**

**For example:**

**Acetylcholine** → Acetyl cholinesterase (ACh-esterase)

**Noradrenalin** → Monoamine Oxidase (MAO) intracellularly; or Catechol-O-Methyl Transferase (COMT) extracellularly.



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Slide No.(18)

### Electrical events in post-synaptic neurons:

#### 1. RMP of neuronal soma:

$\approx -65\text{mV}$  i.e. less than sk. ms.  $[-70$  to  $-90\text{mV}]$

- If the voltage is less negative  $\rightarrow$  the neuron is excitable

Causes of RMP:

1. Leakage of  $\text{K}^+$  (high  $\text{K}^+$  permeability)
2. Large number of negative ions inside: proteins, phosphate
3. Excess pumping of  $\text{Na}^+$  out by  $\text{Na}^+-\text{K}^+$  pump

Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.

## Block

- **What are EPSP and IPSP?**

They are local responses

- **What is their bioelectric nature?**

Graded Potentials (i.e., proportional to the strength of the stimulus).

- **In what way do they affect the excitability of the postsynaptic membrane?**

EPSP makes the postsynaptic membrane more excitable (thus more liable to fire AP; & IPSP makes it less excitable)

- **In what ways do they differ from action potentials?**

(1) They are proportional to the strength of the stimulus ( i.e., do not obey All-or-None Law)

(2) They can summate (addup )

Characteristics	Graded Potentials	Action Potentials
<b>Origin</b>	Arise mainly in dendrites and cell bodies	Arise at trigger zones and propagate along axon
<b>Types of channel</b>	Chemical, mechanical, or light	Voltage gated ion channels
<b>Conduction</b>	Not propagated, localized, thus permit communication over a few mm	Propagated, thus permit communication over long distances
<b>Polarity</b>	May be hyperpolarizing (inhibitory to generation of action potential) or depolarizing (excitatory to generation of action potential)	Always consist of depolarizing phase followed by repolarizing phase and then return to resting membrane potential
<b>Refractory Period</b>	No, thus exhibit <b>temporal</b> and <b>Spatial</b> summation	Yes, therefore not subject to summation



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Slide No.(19)

### 2. Effect of synaptic excitation on post-synaptic membrane:

= **Excitatory post-synaptic potential [EPSPs]**

When **excitatory** neurotransmitter binds to its receptor on post-synaptic membrane → partial depolarization [ $\uparrow$  Na influx] of post-synaptic cell membrane immediately under presynaptic ending, i.e. EPSPs  
If this potential rises enough to threshold level → AP will develop and excite the neuron ( via central or neuronal summation)

**Team Notes :**

#### **What happens if the neurotransmitter is excitatory in action?**

1. The neurotransmitter will bind to its binding site, which will cause opening of Na<sup>+</sup> channels.
2. There will be increase in the positivity inside the cell due to influx of sodium → causing partial depolarization immediately under presynaptic ending, i.e. EPSP (and we said "immediately under the presynaptic endings" because EPSP is not propagated)
3. If this change in potential rises to the threshold level, AP will develop and excite the neuron.



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This summation will cause the membrane potential to increase from  $-65\text{mV}$  to  $-45\text{mV}$ .

$\therefore$  EPSPs =  $+20\text{mV}$  which makes the membrane reach the firing level  $\rightarrow$  AP develops at axon hillock.

N.B. Discharge of a **single** pre-synaptic terminal can **never** increase the neuronal potential from  $-65\text{mV}$  to  $-45\text{mV}$ .

### Team Notes :

- \* The discharge of only one presynaptic neuron can **NEVER** increase the neuronal potential from resting to the firing level, so to raise it up to the threshold level; it requires the process of **summation**.



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Slide No.(21)

### EPSPs are characterized by:

- Graded, unpropagated response.
- Proportionate to the strength of the stimulus
- Can be summated
- If large enough to reach firing level → AP is produced  
Post-synaptic potential of +10 to +20mV is needed to produce AP

### Team Notes :

So, we can say that EPSP is the step before developing AP.

#### \*Summary:

RMP → EPSP by Na<sup>+</sup> influx, if it reaches the firing level → AP will develop → Nerve is excited.

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Slide No.(22)

### 3. Inhibitory post-synaptic potentials (IPSPs):

When an **inhibitory** neurotransmitter binds to its receptor on post-synaptic membrane, it causes hyperpolarization of the post-synaptic memb. which is the IPSP.

Causes:

An increase in membrane permeability to  $\text{Cl}^-$  of post-synaptic memb. (produced by inhibitory neurotransmitter)  $\rightarrow \downarrow$  excitability and memb. potential becomes away from firing level.

Also IPSP can be produced by:-

- Opening of  $\text{K}^+$  channels  $\rightarrow$  outward movement of  $\text{K}^+$
- Closure of  $\text{Na}^+$  or  $\text{Ca}^{++}$  channels
- IPSP =  $-5\text{mV}$

Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.





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### What is long-term-potentialiation (LTP ) ?


- Repetitive stimulation makes the postsynaptic membrane more excitable for a longer than normal period of time.
- For example: It potentiates (facilitates) transfer of information across that synapse → making it easier & longer lasting.

### What transmitter is involved in it?

- Glutamate Receptors play important role in this process of LTP

### What is the physiological function of LTP?

- This LTP is a is essential for formation of memories in the brain



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Slide No.(23)


### Synaptic properties

#### 1. One-way conduction

Synapses generally permit conduction of impulses in one-way i.e. from pre-synaptic to post-synaptic neuron.

Team Notes :

One-way conduction especially seen in the **Chemical Synapses** .



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## Block

Slide No.(24)

### Properties of synapses (con...)

#### 2. Synaptic delay


Is the minimum time required for transmission across the synapse.

This time is taken by

- Discharge of transmitter substance by pre-synaptic terminal
- Diffusion of transmitter to post-synaptic membrane
- Action of transmitter on its receptor
- Action of transmitter to  $\uparrow$  membrane permeability
- Increased diffusion of  $\text{Na}^+$  to  $\uparrow$  post-synaptic potential

Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.



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## Block

Slide No.(25)

### Properties of synapses (con...)

### 3. Synaptic inhibition

Types:

- A. Direct inhibition
- B. Indirect inhibition
- C. Reciprocal inhibition
- D. Inhibitory interneuron

Team Notes :

#### ***Inhibitions:***

- A/ Presynaptic Inhibition ( indirect)
- B/ Postsynaptic Inhibition (also called Direct Inhibition)
- C/ Feedback Inhibition (Renshaw Cell Inhibition)
- D/Lateral (Surround) Inhibition



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Slide No.(26)

### Properties of synapses (con...)


#### A. Direct inhibition

Occurs when an inhibitory neuron (releasing inhibitory substance) acts on a post-synaptic neuron leading to → its hyperpolarization due to opening of  $\text{Cl}^-$  [IPSPs] and/or  $\text{K}^+$  channels.

Example : **Glycine at the level of the spinal cord to block pain impulses.**

Team Notes :

\* So , Glycine is an **inhibitory** neurotransmitter



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Slide No.(27)

### Properties of synapses (con...)

#### B. Indirect inhibition

(=Pre-synaptic inhibition).

This happens when an inhibitory synaptic knob lie directly on the termination of a pre-synaptic excitatory fiber.

The inhibitory synaptic knob release a transmitter which inhibits the release of excitatory transmitter from the pre-synaptic fiber.

The transmitter released at the inhibitory knob is **GABA**.

The inhibition is produced by  $\uparrow \text{Cl}^-$  and  $\uparrow \text{K}^+$ . e.g. occurs in dorsal horn  $\rightarrow$  pain gating.

#### Team Notes :

- \* **GABA is Also an inhibitory Neurotransmitter**

#### *Also called Presynaptic Inhibition:*

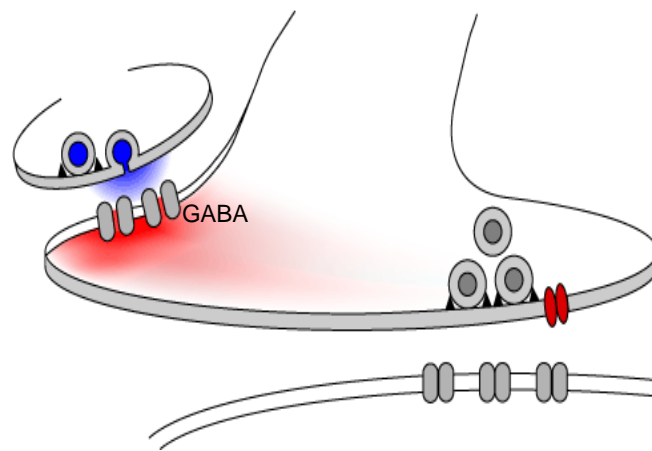
It's an inhibitory neuron, not acting directly on the target cell, but makes axo-axonal synapse on an excitatory ending that ends on the target cell. This inhibitory interneuron releases GABA which acts via either:

- \* **GABA<sub>a</sub> receptors:** increase chloride conductance— decreasing calcium entry into the excitatory synaptic knob
- \* **GABA<sub>b</sub> receptor:** through G-protein  $\rightarrow$  increase potassium conductance, thereby decreasing calcium entry into the synaptic knob of the excitatory neuron

# Block

Slide No.(28)

## Pre-synaptic inhibition



Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.

Slide No.(29)

**Properties of synapses (con...)**

**C. Reciprocal inhibition**

Inhibition of antagonist activity is initiated in the spindle in the agonist muscle.

Impulses pass directly to the motor neurons supplying the same muscle and via branches to inhibitory interneurons that end on motor neurones of antagonist muscle.

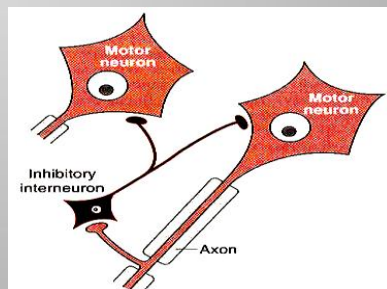
**Team Notes :**

***C/ Feedback Inhibition (Renshaw Cell Inhibition)***

Neurons may also inhibit themselves in a negative feedback fashion (Negative Feedback inhibition).

A spinal motoneuron gives collateral that synapses Renshawcell which is inhibitory interneuron. Then Renshaw cell, in turn, sends back axons that inhibit the spinal motoneuron. These axons secrete an inhibitory

transmitter that produces IPSPs on cell-bodies of motoneurons and inhibit them.



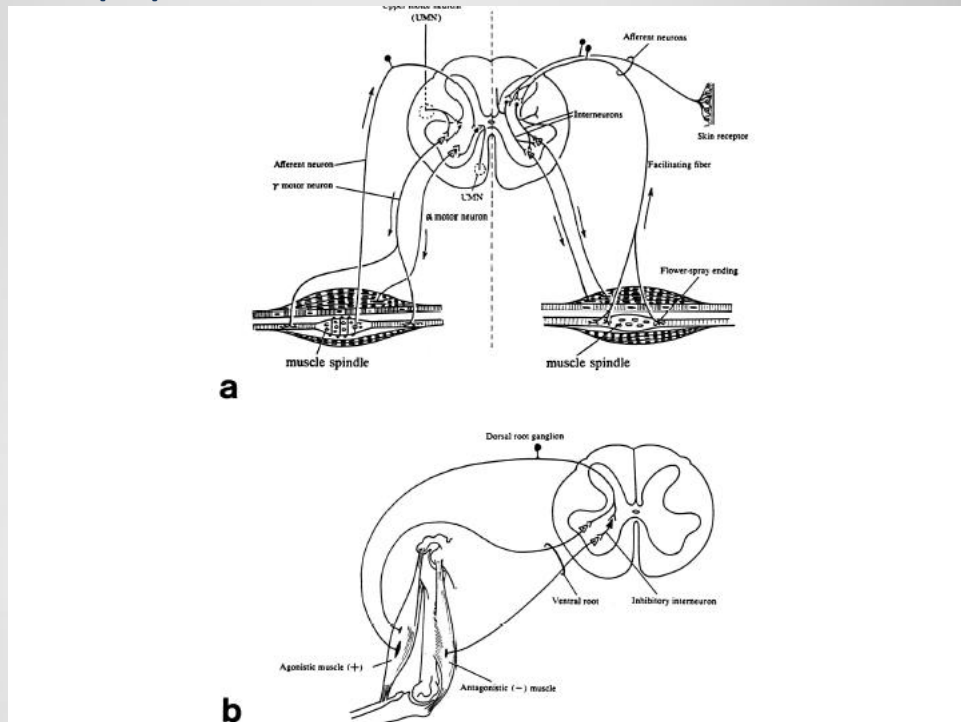


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Team Notes :

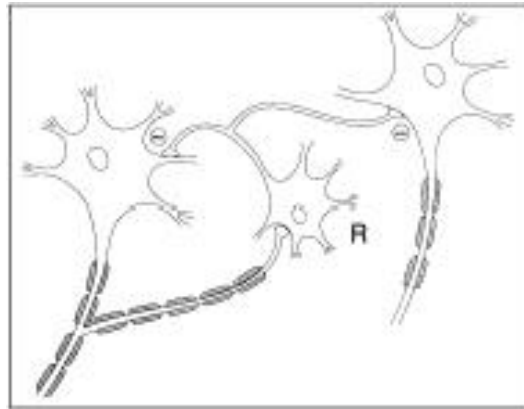
Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.

Slide No.(31)

**Properties of synapses (con...)**


**D. Inhibitory interneuron ( Renshaw cells)**

Negative feedback inhibitory interneuron of a spinal motor neuron .



**Team Notes :**

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.



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## Block

Slide No.(32)

### Properties of synapses (con...)

#### 4. Summation

##### a. Spatial summation.

When EPSP occurs in more than one synaptic knob at the **same time**

##### b. Temporal summation.

If EPSPs in a pre-synaptic knob are **successively** repeated without significant delay so the effect of the previous stimulus is summated to the next.

#### Team Notes :

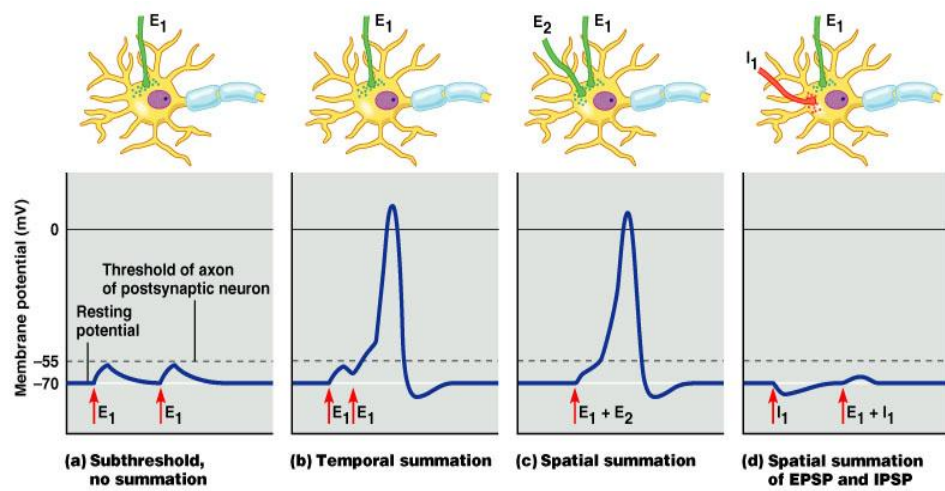
**Spatial summation** occurs when excitatory potentials from many different presynaptic neurons cause the postsynaptic neuron to reach its threshold and fire.

**Temporal summation** occurs when a single presynaptic neuron fires many times in succession, causing the postsynaptic neuron to reach its threshold and fire.

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Slide No.(33)

## Summation



Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.



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Slide No.(34)

### Properties of synapses (con...)

## 5. Convergence and divergence

### Convergence

When many pre-synaptic neurons converge on any single post-synaptic neuron.

### Divergence

Axons of pre-synaptic neurons divide into many branches that diverge to end on many post-synaptic neurons.

### Team Notes :

#### Advantages of DIVERGENCE

- (1) Spread of information.
- (2) Amplification of the postsynaptic responses.

Example: in the sympathetic system one pre-ganglionic neuron can innervate up to 20 post-ganglionic neurons

#### Advantage of CONVERGENCE

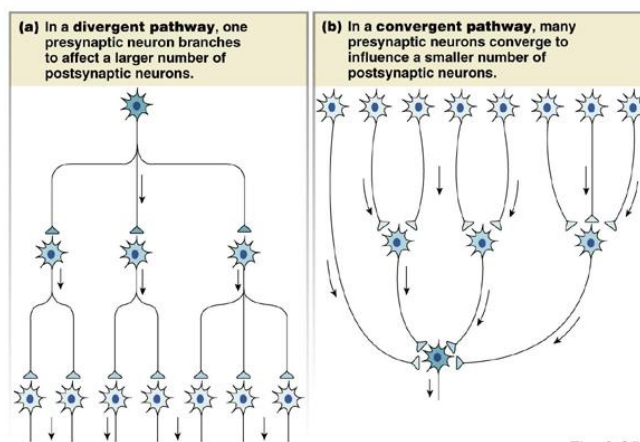
- (1) Spatial Summation
- (2) Integration and modulation of information.

Example: the spinal motor neuron (anterior horn cell, AHC) receives between 1000 – 110,000 synaptic inputs: Some of these terminals are excitatory (produce EPSPs). And others are inhibitory (produce IPSPs) on the soma or dendrite of the post-synaptic cell.

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Slide No.(35)

## Divergence & convergence



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Fig. 8-25

Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.

Slide No.(36)

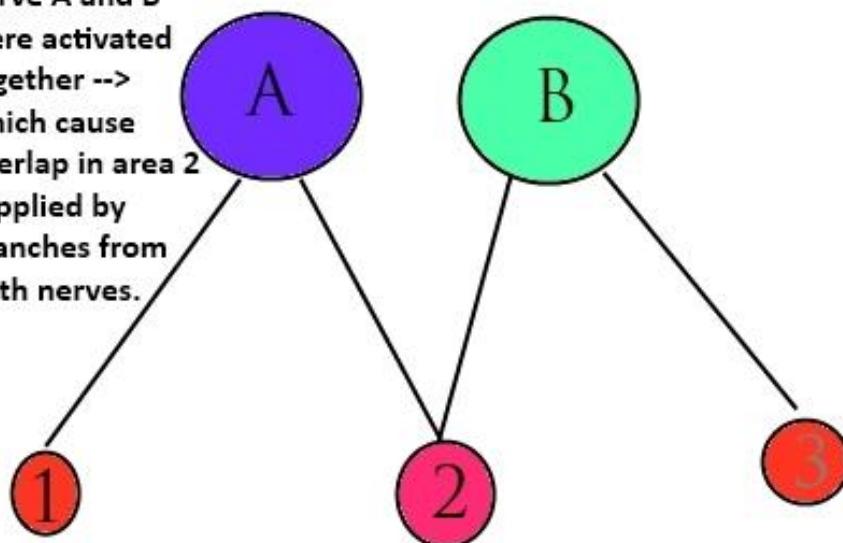
## Properties of synapses (con...)


### 6.Occlusion

It is a decrease in the expected response due to pre-synaptic fibers sharing post-synaptic neuron [=overlap].

#### Team Notes :

nerve A and B  
were activated  
together -->  
which cause  
overlap in area 2  
supplied by  
branches from  
both nerves.





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Slide No.(37)

### Properties of synapses (con...)

#### 7. Fatigue


It is due to exhaustion of neurotransmitter.

If the pre synaptic neurons are continuously stimulated there may be an exhaustion of the neurotransmitter. Resulting in stoppage of synaptic transmission.

#### Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.





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Slide No.(38)

### Factors affecting synaptic transmission:

#### Alkalosis:

Normally, alkalosis greatly increases neuronal excitability.

For instance, a rise in arterial blood pH from the 7.4 norm to 7.8 to 8.0 often causes cerebral epileptic seizures because of increased excitability of some or all of the cerebral neurons.


This can be demonstrated by asking a person who is predisposed to epileptic seizures to over breathe.

The over breathing blows off carbon dioxide and therefore elevates the pH of the blood momentarily

#### Team Notes :

\* **Focus on those points:**

1. Alkalosis normally causes neuronal excitation.
2. It causes epileptic attacks
3. An Example of that, is a young child who is crying all the day, which cause him to hyperventilate and more wash out of Co<sub>2</sub>, this child is predisposed to have epilepsy.



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Slide No.(39)

## **Acidosis:**

Conversely, acidosis greatly depresses neuronal activity;

A fall in pH from 7.4 to below 7.0 usually causes a comatose state.

For instance, in very severe diabetic or uremic acidosis, coma virtually always develops.

## **Team Notes :**

\* **Focus on those points:**

- 1. Acidosis normally causes depression of the neuronal activity.**
- 2. An important example on this point is a patient with diabetic ketoacidosis, he might be comatose.**



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### Drugs:

Many drugs are known to increase the excitability of neurons, and others are known to decrease excitability.

*Caffeine* found in coffee, tea, *increases* neuronal excitability, by reducing the threshold for excitation of neurons.

Team Notes :

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.



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### **Strychnine:**


Is one of the best known of all agents that increase excitability of neurons.

It *inhibits the action of some normally inhibitory transmitter substances*, especially glycine in the spinal cord.

Therefore, the effects of the excitatory transmitters become overwhelming, and the neurons become so excited that they go into rapidly repetitive discharge, resulting in severe tonic muscle spasms.

**Team Notes :**

Nothing else was mentioned about this slide.



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### Hypoxia

- Depression of neurons

Team Notes :

So, to summarize the last points:

- Alkalosis
  - Drugs such as caffeine & Strychnine
- } Causes Neuronal Excitation
- Acidosis
  - Hypoxia
- } Causes Neuronal depression

## Questions :-

### 1) Synaptic transmission is depressed by:

- a. Hypertension
- b. Alkalosis
- c. Hypoxia
- d. Hypokalemia

### 2) The excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP):

- a. It is propagated through the nerve fiber
- b. A single (EPSP) in one neuron can produce an AP
- c. Is produced by K efflux
- d. It is a local response on the cell membrane
- e. Cannot be summated

### 3) GABA:

- a. In one of the major excitatory neurotransmitters
- b. Mediates synaptic facilitation
- c. Acts by opening chloride channels
- d. Deficiency results in muscle paralysis
- e. Is secreted mainly by peripheral nerves

### Answers :-

1- C

2- D

3- C