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Computational modeling of bursting pacemaker neurons in the pre-Bötzinger complex

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Abstract

Bursting pacemaker neurons in the pre-Bötzinger complex (pBC) were modeled in the Hodgkin–Huxley style. The single neuron model included rapidly inactivating sodium, persistent sodium, and delayed-rectifier potassium currents. The kinetics of the rapidly inactivating and persistent sodium channels was modeled using experimental data obtained from whole-cell patch clamp recordings from pBC neurons in vitro. Our computational study focused on the conditions that could provide the generation of endogenous bursting activity in single pacemaker neurons and neural populations and on the specific roles of voltage-gated potassium and persistent sodium currents in triggering or suppression of endogenous population oscillations in the pBC.

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1. Introduction

The pre-Bötzinger complex (pBC) is a region in the rostroventrolateral medulla that is considered an important part of the respiratory neural network [1–4,11,12,20,25,27]. As shown in vitro, this region, under certain conditions, can generate an intrinsic rhythmic bursting activity [3,11,12,20,25,27] that is resistant to blockade of synaptic inhibition [23]. It has been suggested, that this in vitro activity is driven by a

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sub-population of pacemaker neurons located in the pBC [1-3,11,20]. The theoretical analysis of possible intrinsic cellular mechanisms led to the suggestion that this endogenous rhythm is generated with a necessary contribution of the persistent sodium current [1,2] (for an opposite view see [4]). This current was recently described in pBC neurons [10,16,19,24] and its voltage-dependent properties were characterized [19,24].

Our computational study focused on the investigation of the possible conditions that may define the generation of pacemaker-driven oscillations in the pBC and on studying the possible roles of persistent sodium and voltage-gated potassium currents in triggering these endogenous oscillations.

2. Model description

A model of a single pBC pacemaker neuron was developed using the Hodgkin– Huxley formalism. The model was based on previous models [1–3]. However, in contrast to these models based on generic descriptions of sodium channels, we incorporated voltage-gated and kinetic parameters for sodium currents drawn from our in vitro studies of isolated pBC neurons [19,24].

The following ionic currents (and the corresponding channel conductances) were incorporated into the model: rapidly inactivating (fast) sodium (I_{Naf} with maximal conductance \bar{g}_{Naf}); persistent sodium (I_{NaP} with maximal conductance \bar{g}_{NaP}); delayedrectifier potassium ($I_{\rm K}$ with maximal conductance $\bar{g}_{\rm K}$); leakage ($I_{\rm leak}$ with constant conductance g_{leak}), and synaptic excitatory (I_{synE} with conductance g_{synE}) and inhibitory $(I_{synI}$ with conductance g_{synI}) currents, which together defined the dynamics of the neuron membrane potential. The voltage-gated and kinetic parameters for I_{Naf} and I_{NaP} were drawn from our in vitro studies [19,24]. The mean values of the maximal sodium conductances used in the model ($\bar{g}_{Naf} = 150 \text{ nS}$ and $\bar{g}_{NaP} = 4 \text{ nS}$) were also set based our experimental measurements ($\bar{g}_{\text{Naf}} = 34-170 \text{ nS}$ and $\bar{g}_{\text{NaP}} = 0.5-5 \text{ nS}$; see [19,24]). Similar to Model 1 by Butera et al. [1], the persistent sodium channel in our model had slow inactivation. Because the delayed-rectifier potassium channels have not been characterized in the pBC and other respiration related areas, we used the formal descriptions of this channel taken and adapted from the model of thalamocortical neurons by McCormick and Huguenard [15]. The mean value of $\bar{g}_{\rm K}$ was set to 50 nS. The reversal potentials for sodium and potassium currents were calculated using the Nernst equation, and the leakage reversal potential was obtained using the Goldman equation. The value of the whole-cell capacitance, C = 36.2 pF, was set from experimental data obtained on neurons dissociated from the rostral ventrolateral medulla of rat [9]. The mean value of the leakage conductance, $g_{\text{leak}} = 2 \text{ nS}$, was set to fit the experimentally measured input resistance $R_{\rm in} = 500 \text{ M}\Omega$ [14].

To investigate firing behavior of pacemaker neuron populations we modeled a population of 50 neurons with all-to-all excitatory synaptic connections. Heterogeneity within the modeled neural population was set by random distribution of the maximal channel conductances (\bar{g}_{NaP} , \bar{g}_{K} and g_{leak}), values of the external excitatory drive (g_{Edr}) and weights of the synaptic interconnections within the population (w_{ij}).



Fig. 1. Firing activity of a model of pBC pacemaker neuron under different conditions. (A) Firing behavior of the model without excitatory drive $(g_{Edr} = 0)$ at different levels of extracellular potassium concentration $([K^+]_0)$. $[K^+]_0$ increases bottom-up. An increase of $[K^+]_0$ triggers the rhythmic bursting activity at some threshold of $[K^+]_0$. Further increase in $[K^+]_0$ increases burst frequency and decreases burst duration. At a high level of $[K^+]_0$, bursting switches to tonic firing. (B) Firing behavior of the model at $[K^+]_0 = 4$ mM. g_{Edr} increases bottom-up. An increase in g_{Edr} causes an increase in the tonic firing frequency. Note the absence of bursting activity at any value of g_{Edr} . (C) Firing behavior of the model at $[K^+]_0 = 8$ mM. g_{Edr} increases bottom-up. Busting activity is triggered when g_{Edr} exceeds some threshold. The frequency of bursts increases with an increase of g_{Edr} until the neuron switches to tonic firing at a higher level of g_{Edr} . (D1) and (D2) Dynamics of the neuronal membrane potential (*V*, top trace), the persistent sodium (I_{NaP} , middle trace, black) and delayed-rectifier (I_K , middle trace, gray) currents, and the persistent sodium inactivation variable h_{NaP} (bottom trace) during tonic activity (D1) and bursting (D2).

3. Results

The model of a single pBC pacemaker neuron demonstrated the ability to generate endogenous bursting activity under certain conditions (within a particular area in the parameter space). Fig. 1A shows that an increase in extracellular potassium concentration $([K^+]_0)$ triggered a rhythmic bursting activity at some threshold of $[K^+]_0$. A further increase in $[K^+]_0$ increased burst frequency and decreased burst duration, and then, at a higher $[K^+]_0$, bursting switched to tonic firing (Fig. 1A). An increase in excitatory tonic drive to the neuron (g_{Edr}) at the basic level of $[K^+]_0$ (4 mM) did not produce bursting, but increased the tonic firing frequency (Fig. 1B). At a higher level of $[K^+]_0$ (e.g. at $[K^+]_0 = 8$ mM, Fig. 1C), busting activity was triggered when g_{Edr} exceeded some threshold. The frequency of bursts increased with an increase of $g_{\rm Edr}$ until the neuron switched to tonic firing at a high level of g_{Edr} (Fig. 1C). As described in detail by Butera et al. [1], the burst generation mechanism in this type of bursting pacemaker neuron model is explicitly dependent on the slow voltage-dependent inactivation of the persistent sodium current (h_{NaP}), which increases slowly during interburst periods and decreases during bust periods (Fig. 1D2). Comparison of the amplitudes of I_{NaP} and I_K during spikes showed that both the I_{NaP} amplitude and the ratio of amplitudes $I_{\text{NaP}}/I_{\text{K}}$ is much higher in the bursting mode than in the mode of tonic activity (Figs. 1D1, 1D2).

To investigate firing behavior of a population of pacemaker neurons we modeled a population of 50 neurons with all-to-all excitatory synaptic connections. Our simulation showed that both an increase in the weights of excitatory synaptic interconnections and a randomization of neuronal parameters within the population increased the area of the parameter space that produced population busting compared to that for a single pacemaker neuron (see also [2,3]). Fig. 2 shows an example of our simulations at the population level. An increase of $[K^+]_0$ above some threshold (about 7.5 mM) triggered synchronized bursting activity in the population. Further elevation of $[K^+]_0$ produced increased burst frequency and decreased burst amplitude. At a higher level of $[K^+]_0$, the population bursting activity switched to high-frequency asynchronous firing (Fig. 2A). An increase of the g_{Edr} at the basic level of $[K^+]_0$ (4 mM) did not produce population bursting, but only increased the level of asynchronous activity (Fig. 2B). At higher values of $[K^+]_0$ (e.g. at $[K^+]_0 = 6$ mM, see Fig. 2C), population busting was triggered when g_{Edr} exceeded some threshold. The frequency of bursts increased with

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Fig. 2. Firing activity of a model of population of pacemaker neurons under different conditions. The result of each simulation is represented by two diagrams: the top diagram is a raster plot for spike times in all 50 cells, sorted on the ordinate axis by cell index number; the bottom diagram is a corresponding integrated histogram of population activity (bin size = 10 ms). (A) An example of firing behavior of the model without excitatory drive ($g_{Edr} = 0$) at different $[K^+]_0$. [$K^+]_0$ increases bottom-up. An increase of $[K^+]_0$ increases burst frequency and decreases burst amplitude. At a higher level of $[K^+]_0$, firing activity switches to asynchronous firing. (B) An example of firing behavior of the model at $[K^+]_0 = 4$ mM. Mean value of g_{Edr} in the population increases bottom-up. Note the absence of bursting at any value of g_{Edr} . (C) An example of firing behavior of the model at $[K^+]_0 = 6$ mM. Busting activity is triggered when g_{Edr} exceeds some threshold. At a higher level of g_{Edr} population activity switches to asynchronous firing.





Fig. 3. Triggering endogenous bursting activity in the model of a population of pacemaker neurons. (A) An example of triggering endogenous bursting activity by elevation of $[K^+]_0$ (bottom traces). $[K^+]_0$ was increased from 4 to 8 mM. (B) An example of triggering endogenous bursting activity by reduction of the mean value of \bar{g}_K in the population. The mean value of \bar{g}_K was reduced from 50 to 25 nS to. (C) An example of triggering endogenous bursting activity by augmentation of the mean value of \bar{g}_{NaP} . The mean value of \bar{g}_{NaP} was increased from 4 to 7 nS.

an increase in g_{Edr} . Finally, at some level of g_{Edr} , firing behavior of the population switched to high-frequency asynchronous firing (Fig. 2C).

The important conclusion from our modeling studies is that an increase of excitatory drive to the neuron and an increase of $[K^+]_0$ produce different effects on neuronal and population firing behavior. Specifically, an increase of excitatory drive at a normal physiological level of $[K^+]_0$ causes cellular depolarization without changing a balance between I_{NaP} and I_{K} . In this case, the normally expressed I_{K} provides sufficient membrane repolarization after each generated spike to reduce the membrane potential below the level of I_{NaP} activation and does not permit endogenous oscillations. In contrast, an increase of $[\text{K}^+]_0$ produces two simultaneous effects: one is the cellular depolarization (via shifting the leakage reversal potential to more positive values of voltage); the other is the reduction of I_{K} by shifting the potassium reversal potential to more positive values of voltage. Therefore, at higher levels of $[\text{K}^+]_0$, the reduced I_{K} does not produce a sufficient postspike repolarization and hence cannot restrain endogenous I_{NaP} -dependent bursting activity.

In this study, we focused on the investigation of the specific roles of the $I_{\rm K}$ and $I_{\rm NaP}$ in inducing or suppressing endogenous population bursting activity. Fig. 3 shows examples of our simulations. Elevation of $[{\rm K}^+]_0$ from the basic level of 4–8 mM triggered bursting activity in the population. This bursting activity stopped when $[{\rm K}^+]_0$ returned to the basic level (Fig. 3A). At the same time, the synchronized population bursting could also be triggered at $[{\rm K}^+]_0 = 4$ mM by a reduction of $\bar{g}_{\rm K}$ (Fig. 3B) or an augmentation of $\bar{g}_{\rm NaP}$ (Fig. 3C).

4. Conclusion and discussion

In summary, our modeling studies demonstrate that rhythmic bursting activity in a population of pacemaker neurons may be initiated by (1) an increase of the extracellular potassium concentration, or (2) a suppression of the voltage-gated potassium currents, or (3) an augmentation of the persistent sodium currents.

This conclusion is consistent with the majority of in vitro studies of endogenous rhythmic activity in the pBC, in which the researchers elevated $[K^+]_0$ to 7–9 mM in order to trigger and maintain a robust activity, e.g. see [11,12,27]. Our modeling predictions was recently confirmed by Pierrefiche et al. [18], who demonstrated that rhythmic bursting in the medullary slice could be triggered either by elevation of $[K^+]_0$ to 7 mM, or by application of different potassium current blockers (TEA or 4-AP) at $[K^+]_0 = 3$ mM.

Our results are also consistent with the suggestion that gasping during hypoxia is produced by a pacemaker-driven mechanism in the pBC [21,22,26]. Specifically, hypoxia is accompanied by elevation of $[K^+]_0$ [17], suppression of voltage-gated potassium currents [5,8,13], and augmentation of I_{NaP} [6,7,9], which are the same factors that produced the population oscillations in our modeling studies. The results of a recent study of the neurogenesis of gasping in situ [26] are also consistent with this idea. Specifically, application of 4-AP and strychnine in combination with an increase of $[K^+]_0$ converted the eupneic pattern of phrenic nerve discharge to a decrementing discharge similar to that recorded both in vitro and during ischemia-induced gasping in situ [26].

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