

# Synaptic Transmission

## Introduction

- For information from action potentials to be processed by the rest of the nervous system it is necessary for this information to be passed on to other neurons.
- Transfer of information from one neuron to the next occurs at specialized sites of contact.
- Charles Sherrington named these sites Synapses.
- The existence of electrical synapses was proven in 1959 (Edwin Furshpan and David Potter).
- Strong evidence for chemical synapses in the heart was provided in 1921 (Otto Loewi).
- Evidence for chemical synapses in the neuromuscular junction was provided by Bernard Katz (1938-1950).
- Evidence for chemical synapses in the central nervous system was provided by John Eccles (1951).

## Types of Synapses

### Electrical Synapses

- Occur at specialized sites called gap junctions (3nm).
  - Composed of connexin proteins making a channel called a connexon.
  - Two connexons form a gap junction channel.
  - Allow ionic currents to pass between cells.
- Found in invertebrate and vertebrate nervous systems, especially during early embryonic stages.
- Also prominent in the heart.

### Chemical Synapses

- Most synaptic transmission in mature human nervous system is chemical.
- Consist of presynaptic and postsynaptic membranes separated by a synaptic cleft (20-50 nm).
  - Axon terminal (synaptic bulb) contains synaptic vesicles and or secretory granules that store neurotransmitter.
  - On the presynaptic side many proteins jut into the cytoplasm.
  - On the post synaptic side many proteins are found in and just under the membrane and include the neurotransmitter receptor.

### CNS Synapses

- Axodendritic
- Axosomatic
- Axoaxonic

## Neuromuscular Junction

- These chemical synapses are between axons of somatic or autonomic neurons and skeletal or smooth and cardiac muscle.
- The post synaptic membrane is called the motor end plate.
- One of the largest synapses in the body.

## Principles of Chemical Synaptic Transmission

- Mechanism for synthesizing neurotransmitter and packing it into synaptic vesicles.
- Mechanism for causing the vesicles to empty into the synaptic cleft in response to action potential.
- Mechanism for producing an electrical or chemical response to the neurotransmitter in the postsynaptic neuron.
- Mechanism for removing neurotransmitter from synaptic cleft.

## Neurotransmitters

### Amino Acids and Amines

- Amino acids and amines are stored in and released from synaptic vesicles.
- Amino Acids
  - Gamma Amino Butyric Acid (GABA)
  - Glutamate (Glu)
  - Glycine (Gly)
- Amines
  - Acetylcholine (Ach)
  - Dopamine (DA)
  - Epinephrine (E)
  - Histamine
  - Norepinephrine (NE)
  - Serotonin (5-HT)

### Peptides

- Peptides are stored in and released from secretory granules (vesicles).
- Peptides
  - Cholecystokinin (CCK)
  - Dynorphin
  - Enkephalins (Enk)
  - N-acetylaspartylglutamate (NAAG)
  - Neuropeptide-Y (NP-Y)
  - Somatostatin
  - Substance P
  - Thyrotropin releasing hormone (TRH)
  - Vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP)

### **Fast Synaptic Transmission**

- Fast synaptic transmission at most CNS synapses is mediated by the amino acids glutamate, GABA, and glycine.
- Fast synaptic transmission at all neuromuscular junctions is mediated by the amine acetylcholine.

### **Slow Synaptic Transmission**

- Slow synaptic transmission is mediated by the amino acid, amine and peptide neurotransmitters.

### **Neurotransmitter Synthesis and Storage**

- Glutamate and Glycine are abundant in all cells of the body; GABA and the amines are made only by the neurons that release them.
  - The synthesizing enzymes for both amino acid and amine neurotransmitters are transported to the axon terminal.
  - Once synthesized the neurotransmitter must be taken up by the synaptic vesicles using transporter proteins in the synaptic vesicles.
- Peptides are formed from amino acids by ribosomes of the cell body involving the rough ER. (This process of course involves genes, DNA and RNA.)
  - A long peptide synthesized in the rough ER is split in the Golgi apparatus and one of the peptide fragments is the active neurotransmitter.
  - Secretory granules (vesicles) containing the peptide bud off from the Golgi apparatus and are carried to the axon terminal by axoplasmic transport.

### **Neurotransmitter Release**

#### **Release of Amino Acids and Amines**

- Depolarization of the axon terminal opens voltage gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels.
- $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  rushes into the cytoplasm of the axon terminal.
- $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  changes the conformation of proteins holding vesicles onto the presynaptic membrane.
- The membranes of the vesicle and the axon terminal fuse, forming a pore through which the neurotransmitter diffuses out.
- Exocytosis take about 0.2 ms
- Vesicles are recovered by endocytosis and refilled with neurotransmitter.

#### **Release of Peptides**

- Secretory granules also release peptide neurotransmitter by exocytosis triggered by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry into the cytoplasm of the axon terminal.
- However, granule exocytosis occurs at a distance from the site of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry.
- Therefore more  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  must enter and generally requires trains of action potentials
- Exocytosis takes 50 ms or more

## Neurotransmitter Receptor

Neurotransmitters bind to specific receptor proteins in the postsynaptic membranes and cause conformation changes in the proteins.

## Transmitter Gated Ion Channels

Amino acid or amine neurotransmitters acting on gated ion channels cause rapid, short lasting responses.

- A neurotransmitter binds to a channel permeable to  $\text{Na}^+$ , opens the channel, and allows  $\text{Na}^+$  to rush into the postsynaptic cell which causes depolarization.
  - The depolarization is called an excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP).
  - Activation of acetylcholine gated ion channels or activation of glutamate gated ion channels cause EPSPs.
- A neurotransmitter binds to a channel permeable to  $\text{Cl}^-$ , opens the channel, and allows  $\text{Cl}^-$  to rush into the postsynaptic cell which causes hyperpolarization.
  - The hyperpolarization is called an inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP).
  - Activation of glycine gated ion channels or activation of GABA gated ion channels cause IPSPs.

## G-Protein Coupled Receptors (GPCRs)

Amino acid, amine, or peptide neurotransmitters acting on G-protein coupled receptors cause slow, long lasting, and more diverse responses.

1. A neurotransmitter binds to a receptor protein embedded in the postsynaptic membrane.
2. The receptor proteins activate small proteins (G-proteins) that can move along the intracellular face of the postsynaptic membrane.
3. The activated G-proteins activate other ‘effector’ proteins.
  - The effector proteins can be G-protein gated ion channels.
  - Enzymes that synthesize other molecules (second messengers) that in turn:
    - Activate additional enzymes that regulate ion channels.
    - Activate additional enzymes that regulate cellular metabolism.

## Response Diversity

The same neurotransmitter can have (and usually does have) different postsynaptic actions depending on what receptor it binds to.

## Autoreceptors

In addition to postsynaptic receptors there are also presynaptic receptors, often called autoreceptors.

- Presynaptic receptors are sensitive to neurotransmitter released by the presynaptic terminal.
- Presynaptic receptors are involved in feedback control of neurotransmitter release and/or synthesis.

## Neurotransmitter Recovery and Degradation

Neurotransmitter may be cleared from the synaptic cleft by several mechanisms:

- Diffusion
- Reuptake into the presynaptic axon terminal via transporter proteins in the presynaptic membrane.
  - The neurotransmitter is subsequently destroyed or reloaded into synaptic vesicles (especially for amino acid and amine neurotransmitters)
- Uptake into glial cells (astrocytes) via transporter proteins.
- Destruction in synaptic cleft by enzymes
  - For example acetylcholine in the neuromuscular junction is cleaved by acetylcholinesterase.

## Neuropharmacology

Each step of synaptic transmission is chemical and therefore can be affected by specific drugs. For example by:

- Inhibitors that interfere with normal function of specific proteins.
- Receptor antagonists that bind to and “block” a receptor.
- Receptor agonists that bind to a receptor and mimic the action of a neurotransmitter.

## Synaptic Integration

Most CNS neurons receive thousands of synaptic inputs that activate different combinations of neurotransmitter gated ion channels and G-protein coupled receptors. The signals are integrated together to give rise to an output. This process is often called neural computation.

### Integration of EPSPs

The content of 1 synaptic vesicle = 1 quantum of EPSP

- At the neuromuscular junction an action potential causes the exocytosis of about 200 synaptic vesicles which will cause an EPSP of about 40 mV
- At a CNS synapse an action potential causes the exocytosis of as few as 1 synaptic vesicle which will cause an EPSP of about 0.2 mV.

Neurons in the CNS perform sophisticated computations requiring that many EPSPs are added together.

- Spatial summation occurs when EPSPs generated simultaneously at many different synapses on a dendrite are added together.
- Temporal summation occurs when EPSPs generated at the same synapse in rapid succession (1-15 ms ) are added together.

### Inhibition

The neurotransmitter gated channels of most inhibitory synapses are permeable to only  $\text{Cl}^-$ .

- If the membrane potential is less negative than -65 mV, opening of  $\text{Cl}^-$  channels will cause a hyperpolarizing IPSP.
- If the membrane potential is already -65 mV, opening of  $\text{Cl}^-$  channels will not cause hyperpolarization but an inward movement of  $\text{Cl}^-$ .
- Opening of  $\text{Cl}^-$  channels will reduce the magnitude of EPSPs.

Other inhibitory synapses utilize neurotransmitter gated channels that are permeable to  $K^+$ .

- Opening of  $K^+$  channels allows  $K^+$  ions to leave the cell and will cause an IPSP.
- Opening of  $K^+$  channels will reduce the magnitude of EPSPs.

### **Modulation**

Modulation modifies the effectiveness of EPSPs generated by other synapses.

- Closing  $K^+$  channels prevents the movement of  $K^+$  ions out of the cell and will cause an EPSP.
- In dendrites closing  $K^+$  channels make the cell more excitable.