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# Mapping the dynamics of a bursting neuron

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## SUMMARY

The anterior burster (AB) neuron of the lobster stomatogastric ganglion displays varied rhythmic behavior when treated with neuromodulators and channel-blocking toxins. We introduce a channel-based model for this neuron and show how bifurcation analysis can be used to investigate the response of this model to changes of its parameters. Two dimensional maps of the parameter space of the model were constructed using computational tools based on the theory of nonlinear dynamical systems. Changes in the intrinsic firing and oscillatory properties of the model AB neuron were correlated with the boundaries of Hopf and saddle-node bifurcations on these maps. Complex rhythmic patterns were observed, with a bounded region of the parameter plane producing bursting behavior of the model neuron. Experiments were performed by treating an isolated AB cell with 4-aminopyridine which selectively reduces  $g_A$ , the conductance of the transient potassium channel. The model accurately predicts the qualitative changes in the neuronal voltage oscillations that are observed over a range of reduction of  $g_A$  in the neuron. These results demonstrate the efficacy of dynamical systems theory as a means of determining the varied oscillatory behaviors inherent in a channel-based neural model. Further, the maps of bifurcations provide a useful tool for determining how these behaviors depend upon model parameters and comparing the model to a real neuron.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The anterior burster (AB) neuron of the stomatogastric ganglion (STG) of the spiny lobster *Panulirus interruptus* is a conditional bursting neuron whose properties have been studied intensively (Harris-Warrick & Flamm 1987; Harris-Warrick & Johnson 1987). When isolated from other neurons, the AB cell is quiescent with a stable resting potential. Harris-Warrick and Johnson (1987) demonstrated that pharmacological blockade of several different potassium currents in this neuron can lead to rhythmic electrical activity. There are several characteristic patterns of rhythmic activity, including bursting oscillations, periodic action potentials of constant amplitude and slow oscillations without action potentials. This paper examines dynamical models for the AB cell. We introduce a new modeling strategy that is based upon multiparameter bifurcation theory, one of the developments of renewed interest in the behavior of nonlinear dynamical systems during the past two decades. Our primary purpose here is to demonstrate how these methods can produce detailed maps that partition a parameter space of a model into regions with different types of dynamical behavior. Comparisons of the behavior of the model neuron are made with a limited set of experimental data on a real neuron to illustrate how these maps allow us to select parameter values for which there is a good match

between the rhythmic patterns in model and experimental data.

The models we use are based on a system of differential equations describing the activity of a set of ion channels present in the AB cell membrane. Our models are extensions of one introduced by Plant (1981), refined by Rinzel and Lee (1987), and used by Epstein and Marder (1990) as a representation of the electrical activity of the AB cell. Our work builds upon theirs in two ways: (i) we add a representation of the transient potassium A channel to their models; and (ii) we perform an extensive analysis of bifurcations in the model's parameter space, to show how the dynamics of the models depend upon variations of model parameters. The predictions of our model are compared more directly with experimental observations than the results of previous analyses.

Voltage clamp experiments were performed to measure the characteristics of the potassium and leak channels of the neuron (Golowasch 1991; Tierney *et al.* 1992). However, for technical reasons described below, attempts to voltage clamp inward currents in the AB cell *in situ* have not yet been successful. Instead, we used simulations and analysis of the model to find parameter values that reproduce the observed responses of the cell to different environments. We assume that a fundamental aspect of the real cell's function is its sensitivity to small stimuli. Therefore, we initially pick parameter values that lie in regions

where qualitative features of the model dynamics are sensitive to small changes in parameter values. This is accomplished by computing the location of degenerate bifurcations in the model. We are encouraged that the model does reproduce many of the changes in bursting behavior during pharmacological reduction in the conductances of potassium channels observed by Harris-Warrick and Johnson (1987) and in additional experiments that were conducted as a benchmark for comparison with these models.

Without this systematic strategy for locating relevant regions of the parameter space of our model corresponding to various behaviors, it would have been difficult to achieve such a successful comparison. Previous modeling studies have produced good fits to recorded experimental measurements under fixed experimental measurements, but they have seldom explored whether the effect of modulatory changes within an experiment can be faithfully reproduced within the model. Neural systems undergo large changes in their rhythmic properties with small changes in their inputs, and this correlates with radical alterations in behavior (Harris-Warrick & Marder 1991). Thus, the ability of models to produce similar appropriate changes with subtle changes in parameters is a fundamental aspect of their representation of neural behavior. Our work demonstrates the suitability of computational approaches to these questions based upon the bifurcation theory of dynamical systems.

## 2. CHANNELS AND NEURAL MODELS BASED ON CHANNELS

Changes in the electrical potential of a neuron are primarily due to ionic currents ( $I_j$ ) that flow through channels located within the membrane. If the cell is isopotential, the membrane potential  $v$  satisfies the equation:

$$C_m \dot{v} = - \sum_j I_j + I_{\text{ext}}, \quad (1)$$

where  $C_m$  denotes the membrane capacitance, and experimentally imposed external currents are denoted by  $I_{\text{ext}}$ . The different currents are each represented by an equation of the general form

$$I_j = g_j a_j^b b_j^g (v - v_j), \quad (2)$$

where  $g_j$  is the maximal conductance,  $a_j$  is related to the probability that the channel is activated,  $b_j$  is related to the probability that the channel is inactivated and  $v_j$  is the reversal potential for the specific ion channel (Hille 1992).

The activation and inactivation processes respond to voltage changes by shifting towards a new steady state value. This steady state is voltage dependent and sometimes also depends on an ion concentration (e.g. calcium). We describe the time dependent equilibration by a typical differential equation of the form

$$\dot{a} = (a_\infty - a)K_a, \quad (3)$$

where  $K_a$  is the rate constant for the process and  $a_\infty$  is its (voltage dependent) steady state value. The acti-

vation steady state is represented by a sigmoid function

$$a_\infty(v) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\frac{v-v_a}{s_a}}}. \quad (4)$$

Here  $v_a$  is the voltage where  $a_\infty$  attains the value  $\frac{1}{2}$ . The parameter  $s_a$  is the 'width' of the sigmoid curve (negative for activation and positive for inactivation processes). For two of the channels, we take the time constant  $K_a$  to be infinite, and replace the differential equation (3) by the equation  $a = a_\infty$ . The inactivation process is described by equations analogous to 3 and 4. In some cases the inactivation process ( $b$ ) is described instead as a weighted average of two sigmoids ( $a_b, b_b$ ) with a constant rate ( $\lambda_b$ )

$$\dot{b} = \lambda_b(a_b(1 - b) - b_b b). \quad (5)$$

Activation and inactivation often occur on different time scales. One can approximate processes that are faster than the time scales of interest as instantaneous and represent the corresponding variable only by its steady state value. This reduces the number of differential equations in the model.

We now enumerate the six specific currents that are incorporated into our model cell.

1. The basic properties of voltage-activated sodium channels were characterized in the work of Hodgkin and Huxley (Hodgkin & Huxley 1952). As in most subsequent models for electrical activity in nerve membranes, we use the Hodgkin-Huxley representation of sodium channels. The conductance is given by the expression  $g_{\text{Na}} m^3 h$ , where  $g_{\text{Na}}$  represents the maximum conductance. The inactivation variable  $h$  is defined by the differential equation (9) (together with equations (15) and (16)) while the (faster) activation process  $m$  is assumed to be instantaneous and is defined by equations (12), (13) and (14). This common assumption simplifies the numerical analysis by reducing the stiffness of the resulting differential equations model and the dimension of its phase space. The sodium equilibrium potential is denoted  $v_{\text{Na}}$ . In figure 1a we have plotted the equilibrium values of  $m$ ,  $h$  and  $m^3 h$  as a function of  $v$ .

2. We have adopted the representation of calcium currents for the Aplysia R15 neuron used by Rinzel & Lee (1987). Equations (6), (7), (10) and (21) define  $I_{\text{Ca}}$ , with equilibrium potential  $v_{\text{Ca}}$  and maximal conductance  $g_{\text{Ca}}$ . The conductance of this channel is both calcium and voltage dependent. The activation variable,  $z$ , is a slow voltage dependent process shifting towards its steady state value ( $z_v$ ) with constant rate  $\tau_z$  (equation (10)). The inactivation process is assumed to respond instantaneously to calcium concentration and it is represented by  $1/(0.5+c)$  (where  $c$  denotes the dimensionless activity of free calcium in the cell). Equation (7) describes the slow dynamics of the calcium concentration, governed by the rate constant  $\rho$ . In figure 1b we plot the voltage dependence of the steady state value of Ca from its kinetic equation (7) and the coefficient  $z/(0.5+c)$  that modifies the conductance of the calcium current.

3. The voltage-dependent potassium current  $I_K$

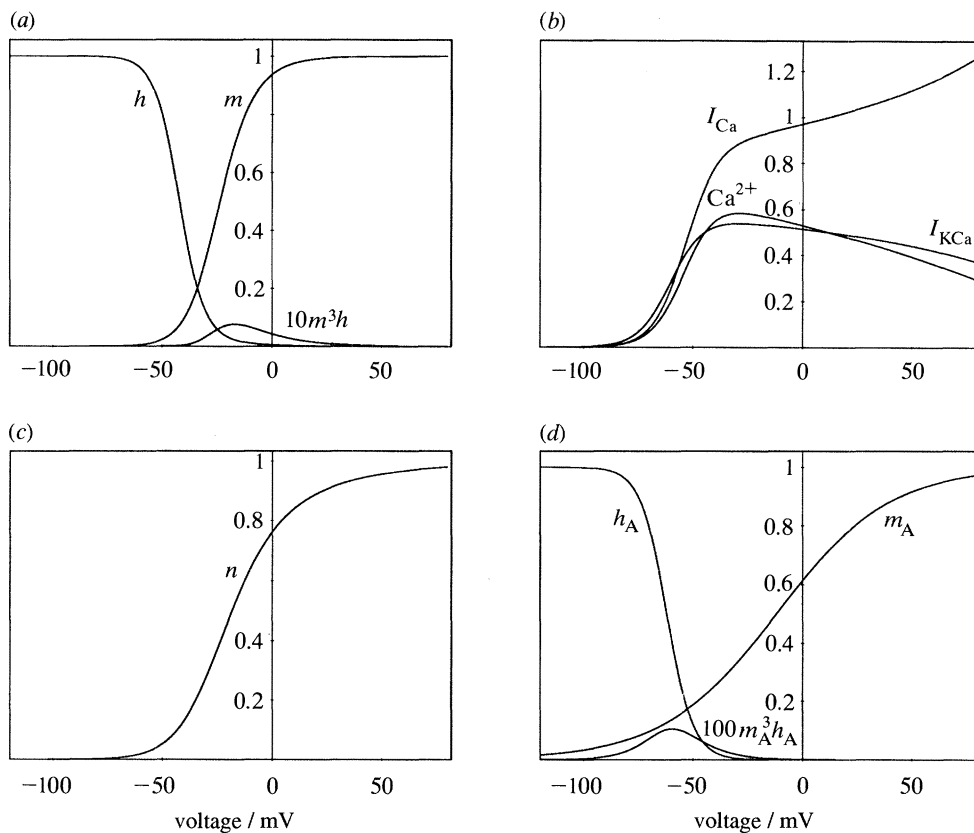


Figure 1. (a) The steady state characteristics of the sodium Na channels are plotted. The increasing curve is the steady state value of the activation variable  $m$ . The decreasing curve is the steady value of the inactivation variable  $h$ . The curve with the maximum near  $v = -20$  is the product  $10m^3h$  that modifies the conductance of the current  $i_{Na}$ . (b) The steady state characteristics of the calcium current and the potassium activated current are plotted. The curve with a maximum value approximately 0.6 is the steady state value of intracellular free  $Ca^{2+}$  obtained from solving the equation  $c=0$  with  $k_{Ca}=0.0078$ . The upper curve gives the steady state values of the factor  $z/(0.5+c)$  that multiplies  $g_{Ca}(v-v_{Ca})$  in the expression for the current  $I_{Ca}$ . The lower curve gives the steady state values of the factor  $c/(0.5+c)$  that multiplies  $g_{KCa}(v-v_{KCa})$  to give  $I_{KCa}$ . (c) The steady state values of activation variable  $n$  of the potassium K channel are shown. (d) The steady state characteristics of the potassium A channels are plotted. The increasing curve is the steady state value of the activation variable  $m_A$ . The decreasing curve is the steady value of the inactivation variable  $h_A$ . The curve with the maximum near  $v = -60$  mV is the product  $100m_A^3h_A$  that modifies the conductance of the current  $i_A$ .

(equation (6)) used here follows its representation by Hodgkin–Huxley. There is no significant inactivation process for this channel. The activation variable is denoted  $n$  (defined by the differential equation (8) together with equations (17) and (18)) and the conductance of the channel is given by the expression  $g_K n^4$ . The potassium equilibrium potential is denoted  $v_K$ . Figure 1c shows the voltage dependence of the potassium steady-state-value activation.

4. The second type of potassium current incorporated in our model is a channel whose activation is influenced by the concentration of intracellular free calcium. Gorman and Thomas (1978) demonstrated that changes in the permeability of the cell membrane to  $K^+$  ions due to changes in intracellular free calcium concentration play an important role in bursting of the *Aplysia* R15 neuron. We have used the representation of the calcium-activated potassium channel (equations (6), (7), (10) and (21)) as described in the paper of Rinzel and Lee (1987). The change in the conductance of the channel due to calcium is given by the factor  $c/(0.5+c)$ . The steady state values of this

factor are plotted in figure 1b. The associated maximal conductance is denoted  $g_{KCa}$ . In this formulation, note that the voltage dependence of  $I_{KCa}$  arises solely from the voltage dependence of the calcium current  $I_{Ca}$ . There are some preparations where  $I_{KCa}$  has an additional intrinsic voltage dependence of activation (see Barrett et al. 1982; Hille 1992), but this is not incorporated into our model.

5. A third potassium current is carried by the A channel, which allows a transient outward current to flow following a period of hyperpolarization (Connor & Stevens 1971). Since the incorporation of  $I_A$  into our model is a new addition to the Rinzel and Lee model of a bursting neuron (Rinzel & Lee 1987), we describe it in more detail than the other currents. We have taken data on  $I_A$  collected by Golowasch (1991) on the A current in the LP cell of the stomatogastric ganglion of the rock crab *Cancer borealis*, and by Tierney and Harris-Warrick (1992) in the AB cell of the stomatogastric ganglion of the spiny lobster *Panulirus interruptus*, as the basis for our representation of this current. The A current can be blocked selectively

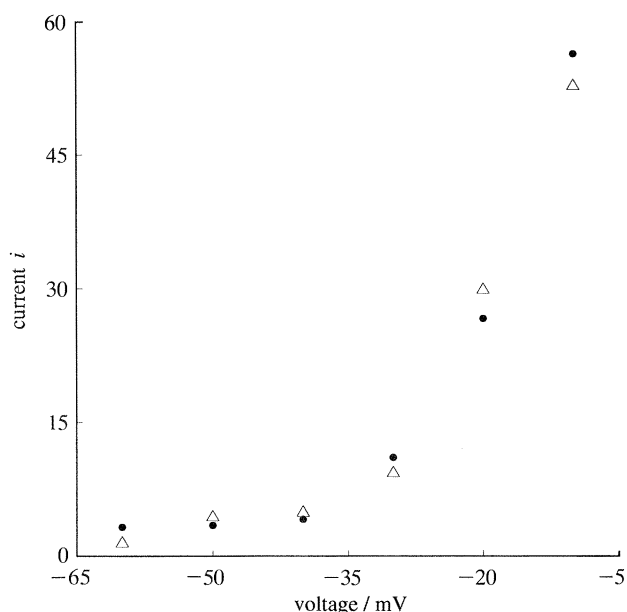


Figure 2. The steady state current-voltage relationship of the A current  $i_A$ , as measured by Tierney and Harris-Warrick (1992) versus peak measurements from our model. The conductance of the A current has been chosen as 125  $\mu\text{S}$ .

in *Panulirus* stomatogastric neurons by application of 4-aminopyridine (4-AP) (Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992). Consequently,  $I_A$  can be isolated by subtracting the total current measured with and without 4-AP.  $I_A$  can also be isolated by a digital subtraction of the evoked leak-subtracted currents from a holding potential where the channels are completely inactivated (typically  $-50$  to  $-40$  mV) from an equivalent set of leak-subtracted currents taken from a holding potential where there is no resting inactivation of  $I_A$  (typically  $-90$  to  $-100$  mV) (Golowasch 1991; Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992). We postulate that the kinetic description of the A channel is similar to that of the sodium channel (i.e. three  $a$  type and one  $b$  type gating particles). The voltage dependent variables  $m_A$  and  $h_A$  characterize activation and inactivation, respectively. The inactivation process is governed by the differential equation (11), with the steady state value  $h_{Ai}$  and the rate constant  $k_A$ . Because experiments reveal that activation occurs on a much faster time scale than inactivation, it is considered instantaneous in the model. Equations (19) and (20) describe  $m_A$  and the steady state value  $h_{Ai}$  as sigmoid exponential functions with half maximal values  $v_a$  and  $v_b$  and widths  $s_a$  and  $s_b$  respectively. They are derived by a fit to the experimental data of Golowasch (1991) and of Tierney and Harris-Warrick (1992), and differ from the model used by Golowasch (1991) and by Buchholtz *et al.* (1992). Figure 2 shows our calculation of the conductance of the A channel from these data. In contrast to its apparent weak role in the dynamics of the LP cell (Golowasch 1991), the A current plays a crucial role in the bursting patterns of the AB cell (Harris-Warrick & Johnson 1987). This conclusion is based on experiments on the isolated AB cell in which the A channels were increasingly blocked by increasing concentrations of 4-AP (Tierney & Harris-War-

rick 1992; figures 7 and 9). Increasing blockade of  $I_A$  shifts the isolated AB cell from a silent quiescent state (figures 7a and 9a) to an oscillating state (figures 7c, d and 9b-d) to tonic firing (figure 7e) or silence (figure 9e), while it only yields a relatively small depolarization of the LP cell (Golowasch 1991; Buchholtz *et al.* 1992). The pronounced effect of the A current is obtained in our model by assigning a relatively large 'maximal conductance' to the A current term. The constant  $g_A$  represents the conductance corresponding to a fully activated channel with no inactivation. Figure 2 shows the peak current-voltage relationship for  $I_A$ , as measured experimentally (Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992) versus the numerical computations from our model. In figure 1d we display the voltage dependence of the activation process, the inactivation process, and the expression  $100 m_A^3 h_A$ , (normalized A conductance, for a typical value  $g_A = 100 \mu\text{S}$ ).

6. The final current included in our model represents the leak current ( $I_l$ ) of the membrane. These are background currents, mainly due to chloride, whose conductance is assumed to be voltage independent. The parameters affecting this current are its conductance ( $g_l$ ) and equilibrium potential ( $v_l$ ).

Our model is thus defined by the following set of equations where the differential equations (equations (6-11)) appear first, grouped together, followed by equations (12-20) which describe the instantaneous processes and the steady state values. Finally, equation (21) is related to the calcium kinetics.

$$C_m \dot{v} = - \left( \underbrace{g_{\text{Na}} m^3 h (v - v_{\text{Na}})}_{I_{\text{Na}}} + \underbrace{g_{\text{Ca}} \frac{z}{0.5 + c} (v - v_{\text{Ca}})}_{I_{\text{Ca}}} + \underbrace{g_{\text{K}} n^4 (v - v_{\text{K}})}_{I_{\text{K}}} + \underbrace{g_{\text{KCa}} \frac{c}{0.5 + c} (v - v_{\text{K}})}_{I_{\text{KCa}}} + \underbrace{g_A m_A^3 h_A (v - v_{\text{K}})}_{I_A} + \underbrace{g_l (v - v_l)}_{I_l} \right) + I_{\text{ext}} \quad (6)$$

$$\dot{c} = \rho \left( \frac{(k_{\text{Ca}} z (v_{\text{Ca}} - v))}{(1 + 2c)} - c \right) \quad (7)$$

$$\dot{n} = \lambda_n (a_n (1 - n) - b_n n) \quad (8)$$

$$\dot{h} = \lambda_h (a_h (1 - h) - b_h h) \quad (9)$$

$$\dot{z} = (z_v - z) / \tau_z \quad (10)$$

$$\dot{h}_A = (h_{Ai} - h_A) k_A \quad (11)$$

$$a_m = \frac{\frac{127}{105} v + \frac{201}{7}}{10 - 10e^{-\frac{201}{70} - \frac{127}{1050} v}} \quad (12)$$

$$b_m = 4e^{-\frac{188}{63} - \frac{127}{1890} v} \quad (13)$$

$$m = \frac{a_m}{a_m + b_m} \quad (14)$$

$$a_h = \frac{7}{100} e^{-\frac{94}{35} - \frac{127}{2100} v} \quad (15)$$

$$b_h = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\frac{83}{35} - \frac{127}{1050} v}} \quad (16)$$

$$a_n = \frac{\frac{127}{105}v + \frac{166}{7}}{100 - 100e^{-\frac{83}{35} - \frac{127}{1050}v}} \quad (17)$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{8}e^{-\frac{59}{140} - \frac{127}{8400}v} \quad (18)$$

$$m_A = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\frac{v-v_a}{-g_a}}} \quad (19)$$

$$h_{Ai} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\frac{v-v_b}{-g_b}}} \quad (20)$$

$$z_v = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\frac{15}{100}(v-z_b)}} \quad (21)$$

To complete the description of the model table 1 gives the values we used for the parameters that appear in equations (6–21). We quote here only those parameters which were held fixed throughout the analysis. The ranges of the parameters  $g_A$  and  $g_{KCa}$  are discussed in § 4. The units of all conductances are  $\mu\text{S}$ .

### 3. MODEL ANALYSIS

Realistic models for the responses of neurons constructed from currents conducted by several ion channels yield multidimensional systems of ordinary differential equations containing complicated analytic expressions and many different parameters. The system given above is a typical example. It is difficult to predict the activity of such a model neuron from inspection of the differential equations defining it. Computer simulations of the model predictions are required. There is no other way than numerical integration to amalgamate the information about different currents, although it is possible after the fact to give a qualitative description of the dynamics in terms of their activation and inactivation processes.

Table 1. Values of parameters that appear in equations (6–21)

parameter	value	units
$\rho$	0.003	$\text{ms}^{-1}$
$\lambda_n$	0.8	$\text{ms}^{-1}$
$\lambda_h$	0.8	$\text{ms}^{-1}$
$k_A$	1	$\text{ms}^{-1}$
$\tau_z$	23.5	ms
$k_{Ca}$	0.0078	$\text{mV}^{-1}$
$z_b$	–50	mV
$v_a$	–12	mV
$v_b$	–62	mV
$s_a$	–26	mV
$s_b$	6	mV
$v_{Na}$	30	mV
$v_{Ca}$	140	mV
$v_K$	–75	mV
$v_l$	–40	mV
$g_l$	0.0854	$\mu\text{S}$
$g_K$	8.0	$\mu\text{S}$
$g_{Ca}$	0.04	$\mu\text{S}$
$g_{Na}$	15	$\mu\text{S}$
$C_m$	1	nF

Dynamical systems theory (Guckenheimer & Holmes 1983) can be used to guide these simulations in a systematic manner.

Numerical integration of individual trajectories presents no unusual computational problems, but the characterization of how the dynamical behavior of a model depends upon its many parameters is a formidable task. In this paper, we introduce the analysis of neural models with methods that rely upon bifurcation theory. By studying properties of dynamical systems that depend upon parameters, patterns of bifurcation are identified that show how qualitative changes in the phase portraits of the vector fields occur as parameters are varied. Some types of bifurcations can be identified in neuronal models using tools from computer algebra systems. The calculation of degenerate bifurcations with the computer program Maple (Char *et al.* 1991) allows us to readily locate regions of parameter space in which the models have complex dynamical behavior similar to that seen in biological experiments with the AB neuron. The information about equilibria derived from these calculations is inserted into an interactive environment for visualizing trajectories computed by numerical integration (Back *et al.* 1992). The analysis of the unfoldings of degenerate bifurcations can also be used to locate parameter regions with a rich repertoire of dynamical behavior.

The explicit calculation of bifurcations of equilibrium points has been an important part of our investigations. Therefore, we describe how these mathematical calculations were performed. (For those with little interest in mathematical detail, the remainder of the paper is independent of this description.) If  $\dot{x}=f_\lambda(x)$  is a vector field depending upon parameters, then the equations describing bifurcations of an equilibrium of the vector field are given by  $f_\lambda(x)=0$  together with conditions on the Jacobian derivative  $Df$  of  $f$ . For saddle-node bifurcations, the condition is that  $Df$  have a zero eigenvalue, or equivalently that the determinant of  $Df$  be zero. For Hopf bifurcations, the condition is that  $Df$  have a pair of pure imaginary eigenvalues. The eigenvalues are roots of the characteristic polynomial of  $Df$ . Since the characteristic polynomial is real, the sum of a pair of pure imaginary eigenvalues is zero. The condition that the characteristic polynomial have a pair of roots with zero sum can be described by a (complicated) polynomial in the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial of  $Df$  (Guckenheimer *et al.* 1993). Whether the pair of roots are real or pure imaginary can be determined by an inequality involving the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial. In general, one does not expect explicit analytic expressions for the solutions to the multidimensional systems of equations yielding equilibrium points. In the case of neuron models, however, the complexity of the analytic expressions is largely in the dependence of  $f$  on the membrane potential  $v$  and in the nonlinear dependence of  $\dot{v}$  on the remaining variables in the system. When an equilibrium is known to occur with potential  $v_0$ , it is easy to solve for the equilibrium values of the remaining variables. We exploit this fact

in our computations. Furthermore,  $\dot{v}$  has a simple dependence on many of the system parameters such as maximal conductances for the different channels and the equilibrium potentials of different ions. Thus we can solve for the parameter values that lead to equilibria at specific values of  $v$  by treating  $v$  as an independent variable. We solve for the equilibrium values of the remaining variables and parameters that lead to solutions of the equation  $\dot{v}=0$  and the desired bifurcation equation(s). By carrying through these calculations for different values of  $v$  and leaving two parameters undetermined at the start of the calculation, we determine curves in a two dimensional parameter space at which Hopf and saddle-node bifurcations (Guckenheimer & Holmes 1983) occur.

The data obtained from the symbolic computation programs was edited into a format used by the program *DsTool* (Back *et al.* 1992) for labeling parameter values. This program provides an efficient environment for the interactive exploration of dynamical systems. Of particular interest for this study, *DsTool* provides a graphical window in which points from a two dimensional slice of the parameter space of the system can be marked with symbols and the asymptotic dynamical behavior of the corresponding trajectories observed visually. We have used this facility to label the bifurcation points of parameter space that were computed using Maple. The resulting diagram forms a 'template' that divides the parameter space into regions with different dynamical behavior. The numerical integration routines of *DsTool* were then used to compute and display the corresponding trajectories. Visual inspection of the asymptotic behavior of the trajectories led to further divisions of the parameter space into regions with (apparently) different dynamical behavior.

#### 4. RESULTS

Our goal in these computational studies has been to elucidate how the dynamics of the AB neuron model depend upon variations of its parameters. We were particularly interested in identifying and studying regions in the parameter space where small changes in the parameters produce qualitative changes in the behavior of the model, as was seen with a real AB neuron during application of channel-blocking agents and neuromodulators. To achieve this goal, we have constructed maps of the parameter space showing bifurcations between regions with qualitatively different electrical behavior. These maps could then serve as templates for the analysis of changes in the intrinsic activity of conditionally bursting neurons upon exposure to drugs and neuromodulators. Our computational environment allows us to easily manipulate two parameters at once. Following preliminary studies designed to identify the parameters upon which the model is most sensitive, we concentrated on studying simultaneous variations of the parameters  $g_{KCa}$ ,  $g_A$  that represent the maximal conductances of the calcium-activated potassium current and the transient potassium A current. Decreases of these parameters correspond to experiments in which we applied selective potas-

sium channel blockers to an isolated AB cell (Harris-Warrick & Johnson 1987; Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992).

We start by describing the procedure we used to obtain estimates for the values of the parameters used in the model. Our experimental data were collected by recording currents and voltages intracellularly from the soma of the AB cell. When the voltage clamp procedure is used to study currents in the AB cell, only outward and leak currents are detected (Golowasch 1991; Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992). This occurs because the AB cell has a very extended neuropil which is not adequately voltage clamped with our procedures. The ion channels for inward currents carried by sodium and calcium ions appear not to be present on the cell body. We assume that they are selectively localized in the neuropil, beyond the region of adequate space clamp. Thus, we cannot obtain direct data for the inward currents in the model. Assuming the values of the equilibrium potentials and the description of the kinetic processes, choices must be made for the maximal conductances  $g_I$ ,  $g_K$ ,  $g_{KCa}$ ,  $g_A$ ,  $g_{Ca}$  and  $g_{Na}$ . We have adapted the models of Rinzel and Lee (1987) for the calcium channel and calcium-activated potassium channel. The kinetic parameters of  $I_{Ca}$ ,  $c$  and  $I_{KCa}$  have been adjusted to account for the typical 1 s period of the AB cell slow oscillations as contrasted with the 10 s period of the slow oscillations in the *Aplysia* R15 cell studied by Rinzel and Lee. Ad hoc values were chosen for the leak current. This leaves us with unknown values for the three parameters  $g_K$ ,  $g_{KCa}$ ,  $g_A$ , representing the maximal conductances of the three potassium channels. Variations of these three parameters correspond to the experimental results of Harris-Warrick and Johnson (1987) who added selective antagonists of these channels to induce rhythmic bursting in an isolated AB neuron. The conductances depend on the conductivity of an individual channel and on the number of channels that are found on the cell's membrane. Since our experimental measurements have limited accuracy due to the space clamp problems discussed above, and since a natural biological variation in the activity of the AB neuron is found in different preparations, we did not try to find exact values for the conductances. Instead, we estimated the range of values they may take while remaining in a plausible region that can represent the cell's behavior. These estimates were obtained by analysis of experimental data and exploration of the model dynamics.

Figure 3 shows a bifurcation analysis of two dimensional slices of the parameter space in which the axes are one of the pairs  $(g_{KCa}, g_A)$ ,  $(g_K, g_A)$  or  $(g_K, g_{KCa})$ . Points of Hopf and saddle-node bifurcations are drawn on these figures at locations that have been computed by solving systems of seven equations in seven unknowns with the computer algebra system Maple. These equations are obtained by setting the right hand sides of Equations (6–11) to 0 and adding one additional equation for detecting the presence of a bifurcation as described in the previous section. The saddle-node bifurcations are marked by crosses and the Hopf bifurcations are marked by points. The

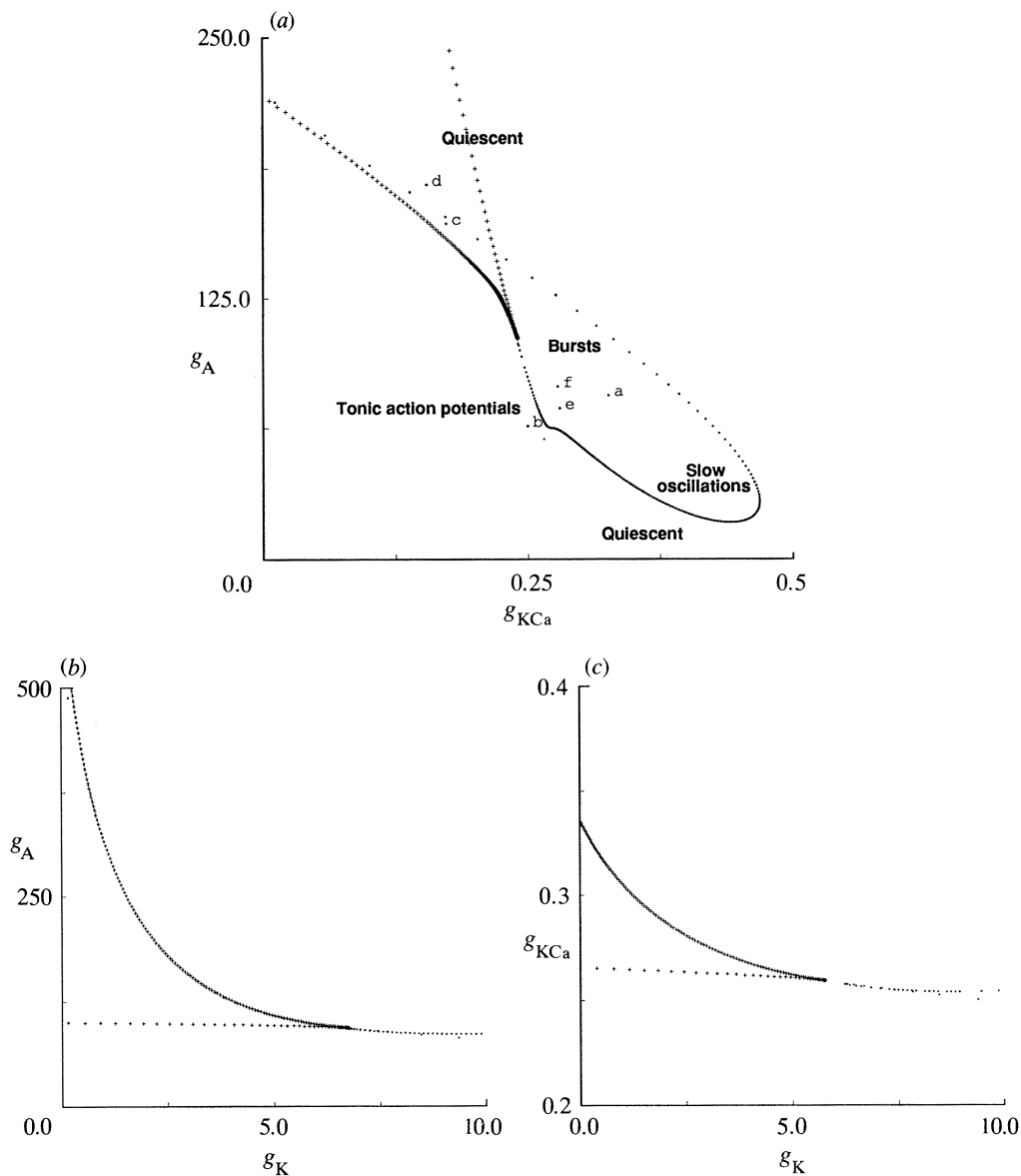


Figure 3. Two dimensional slices in the parameter space showing data on saddle-node and Hopf bifurcations. The crosses denote saddle-node bifurcations and the dots denote Hopf bifurcations. The data shown were computed using the program Maple. (a) Bifurcations in the  $(g_{KCa}, g_A)$  plane. Patterns of activity of the model in different regions of parameter space are noted. (b) Bifurcations in the  $(g_K, g_A)$  plane with  $g_{KCa} = 0.25$ . (c) Bifurcations in the  $(g_K, g_{KCa})$  plane with  $g_A = 100$ . Note that there is much less dependence of the bifurcations on the delayed rectifier conductance  $g_K$  than on the conductances  $(g_{KCa}$  and  $g_A)$ .

curves of Hopf and saddle-node bifurcations form boundaries between regions of the parameter space with qualitatively different dynamical behavior.

As the conductances of the potassium channels are varied, the behavior of the model cell is observed to vary. One can form a rough classification into four different types of observed states: quiescent, periodic with a fast period corresponding to tonic action potentials, periodic with a slow period and no action potentials, and bursting behavior which has both slow periodicity and bursts of action potentials during the depolarized phase of the slow oscillations. This classification can be refined: during bursting behavior, the number of action potentials per cycle varies considerably. Additionally, there are complex bursting states with different numbers of action potentials in each

cycle that are presumably chaotic. Quantitative aspects of the behavior such as the membrane potential of the quiescent state, the period of the oscillation and the fraction of the period that is part of a bursting cycle are important biological parameters that affect the simple rhythmic behavior driven by the pyloric network.

Using the information from the bifurcation analysis as a template, we investigated the dynamics of trajectories with parameters chosen in different regions of the  $(g_{KCa}, g_A)$  parameter plane. Some of these trajectories are displayed in figures 4 and 5. The different parameter values used to calculate trajectories figures 4a-f and 5a-f are displayed by lettered labels on figure 3a. Figure 4 shows graphs of voltage versus time (calcium versus time for one case) that can



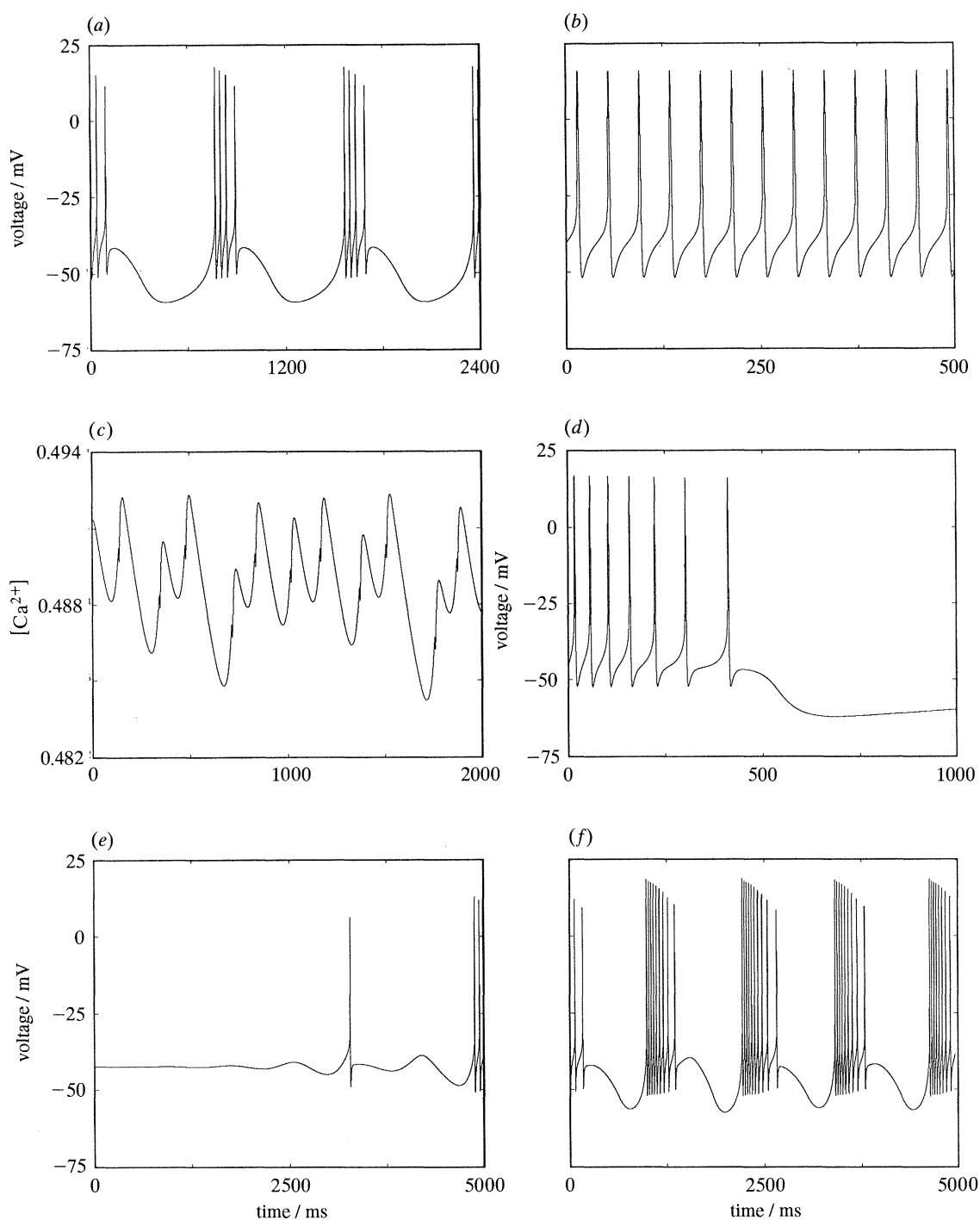


Figure 4. The graphs of voltage versus time for five different parameter values of the model and the graph of calcium concentration versus time for one parameter value. Each trajectory has been run for long enough to give apparent transients time to decay, except for (d) where the asymptotic approach to a stable equilibrium state is shown. The values of the parameters other than  $g_A$  and  $g_{KCa}$  are given in table 1. (a)  $g_A = 77.95$  and  $g_{KCa} = 0.321606$  produces a typical periodic bursting cycle with a period approximately 1 s. (b)  $g_A = 63.21$  and  $g_{KCa} = 0.245336$  produces periodic, tonic action potentials with a period approximately 40 ms. (c)  $g_A = 164.43$  and  $g_{KCa} = 0.16835$  produces a chaotic pattern of action potentials. Calcium concentration versus time is plotted since the voltage appears almost periodic. (d)  $g_A = 179.7$  and  $g_{KCa} = 0.149839$  leads to a quiescent, stable equilibrium. A transient approaching the stable equilibrium is shown. (e)  $g_A = 71.73$  and  $g_{KCa} = 0.2757$  appears close to a homoclinic cycle, a trajectory that starts near an unstable equilibrium and returns close to the equilibrium. The subsequent bursting cycle is chaotic. (f)  $g_A = 82.07$  and  $g_{KCa} = 0.273537$  shows a chaotic trajectory with a variable number of action potentials per bursting cycle.

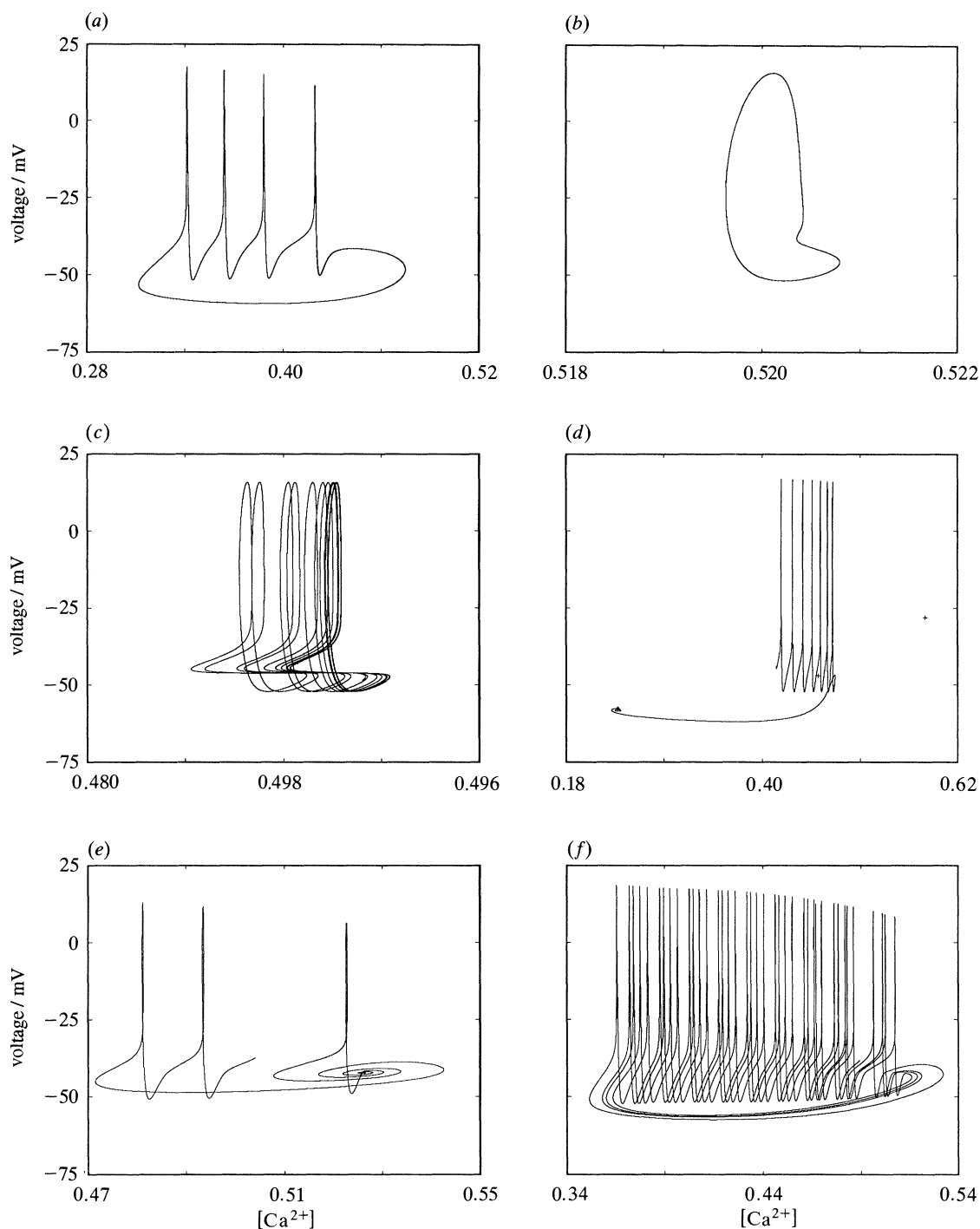


Figure 5. Plots of voltage vs calcium for the same model trajectories shown in figure 3. In (d), the triangle denotes the stable equilibrium point, and the crosses locate the projection of two unstable equilibrium points onto the  $(Ca, v)$  plane.

be compared directly to experimental voltage recordings from the AB cell. Since the concentration of intracellular free calcium changes more slowly than the other variables, it is an important determinant of the properties of the slow oscillations. Therefore, we present in figure 5, plots of voltage versus calcium concentration for the same trajectories shown in figure 4.

We describe the major features revealed by this analysis of the  $(g_{KCa}, g_A)$  parameter plane. There is a region of parameters in which the cell displays

bursting behavior or slow oscillations without action potentials. The boundary of this region is approximated by (but not coincident with) the large loop of Hopf bifurcations. Figures 4a and 5a show a periodic bursting trajectory with four action potentials per burst. The region of tonic action potentials in the parameter plane lies to the left of the 'tail' in the Hopf bifurcation curve that extends down from the loop of bifurcations, intersecting the  $g_{KCa}$  axis near  $g_{KCa} = 0.3$ . Figures 4b and 5b show a periodic trajectory with tonic action potentials. In some regions, the mechan-

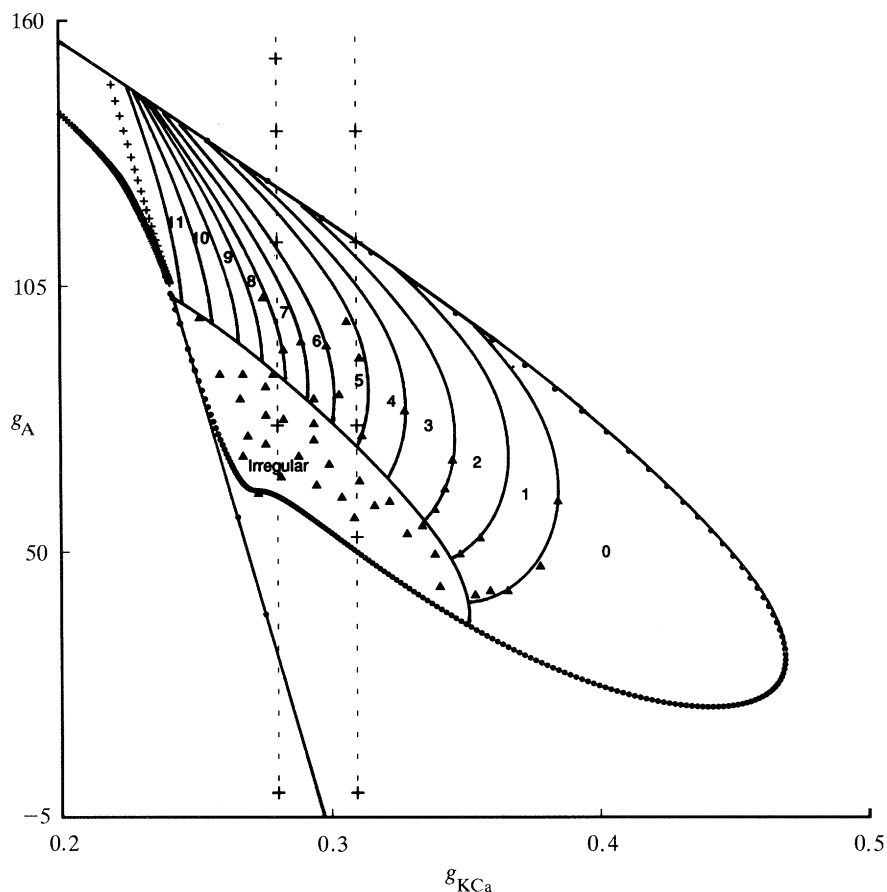


Figure 6. Map of parameter space showing the region of figure 3a with underlying slow oscillations divided into subregions with different numbers of action potentials per burst. The numbers label the number of action potentials per burst in each region. The triangles label points at which irregular bursting behavior was observed, either more complex periodicity or chaotic behavior. The large crosses label parameter values used in the comparison between model data and experimental records shown in figures 7 and 9.

isms by which the tonic action potentials disappear are complex. Figures 4c and 5c show a trajectory near this boundary in which the voltage trace is approximately periodic, but the concentration of intracellular free calcium appears to be chaotic. The region to the right of the tail in the Hopf bifurcation curve and outside the loop of Hopf bifurcations has a stable quiescent state. Figures 4d and 5d show a trajectory that goes through one burst before settling at a quiescent state. Note that the parameter values associated with figure 5d are chosen inside the cusp curve of saddle-nodes in the bifurcation diagram. Here there are three equilibrium states, but only one is stable.

By more extensive sampling of parameter values and initial conditions for numerical integrations of trajectories, we produced a more refined division of the parameter space into regions with different types of attracting states supporting oscillations. Figure 6 shows the division of the region with slow oscillations and bursting behavior into regions with different numbers of action potentials per burst. These regions have been mapped by inspecting trajectories with randomly chosen initial conditions at a large number of different parameter values within the region. There is a general trend for the number of action potentials per burst to increase with decreasing conductance of

the calcium activated potassium concentration, although the shape of the regions is hardly regular.

The final step in our study was to make explicit comparisons between a real AB neuron with the behavior of our model during sequential changes in a single parameter. Our computational results give clear predictions about the response of the AB cell to variations in its potassium conductances. These predictions are qualitatively consistent with the experimental findings of Harris-Warrick and Johnson (1987) and Tierney and Harris-Warrick (1992). Their experiments involved addition of selective potassium channel antagonists to a quiescent AB cell. A number of antagonists induced rhythmic bursting, including 4-aminopyridine (a selective blocker of  $I_A$ ), tetraethylammonium ion (which blocks  $I_K$  and  $I_{KCa}$ ), apamin (which partially blocks  $I_{KCa}$ ) and a number of conditions which selectively reduce  $Ca^{2+}$  entry into the cell (thus blocking  $I_{KCa}$ ). Although these experiments were qualitative, they suggested that  $I_A$ ,  $I_K$  and  $I_{KCa}$  are at least partially active at the normal resting potential, and all that is needed to induce rhythmic bursting is to reduce their currents by reducing the corresponding  $g_A$ ,  $g_K$  or  $g_{KCa}$ . In figure 6, for example, the quiescent AB cell can be induced to burst by reductions of  $g_A$ , moving the cell vertically down into the

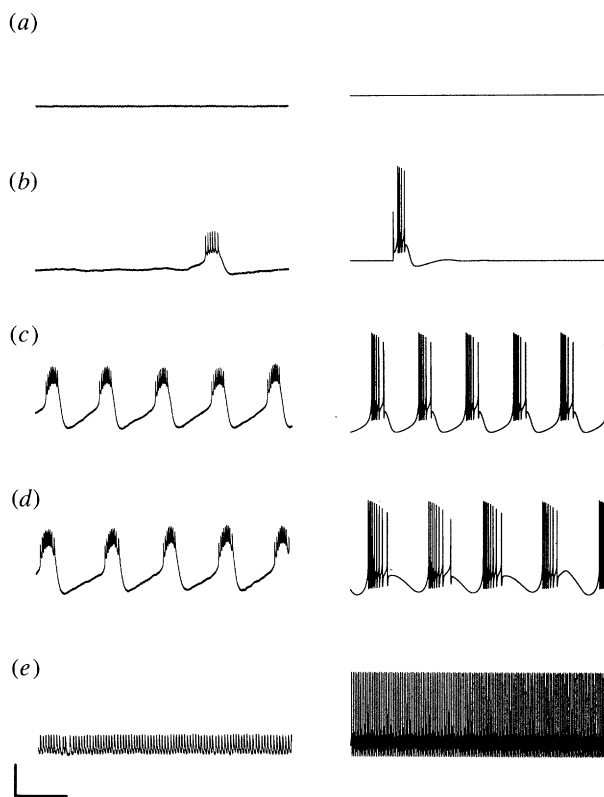


Figure 7. Side by side comparisons between typical experimental time traces of voltage versus time with time traces from the model. The experimental data on the left are taken from a single cell superfused with increasing concentrations of 4-AP. The model data on the right are steady state activity patterns (except for a voltage pulse in (b)) taken from a set of parameter values with varying  $g_A$ . The value of  $g_{KCa}$  is 0.28 and the values of the other parameters are taken from table 1. (a) 0 mM 4-AP,  $g_A = 152$ ; (b) 0.5 mM 4-AP,  $g_A = 136.8$ ; (c) 1.0 mM 4-AP,  $g_A = 114$ ; (d) 2.0 mM 4-AP,  $g_A = 76$ ; (e) 10.0 mM 4-AP,  $g_A = 0$ . Left panel markers: 1 s, 15 mV. Right panels show 5 s of traces from the model cell.

region enclosed by Hopf bifurcations. We emphasize that the different channel blockers evoked bursting with very different characteristics (Harris-Warrick & Johnson 1987). This is expected from our model, since each antagonist moves the cell in a different direction of the parameter space, thereby locating the cell in parameter regions with distinct behaviors.

Figures 7 and 8 show a comparison of the responses of an AB neuron and our model to a series of reductions of  $g_A$ . The left panels show five traces of voltage versus time recorded from a single isolated AB neuron; these traces were obtained with increasing concentrations of 4-AP (0, 0.5, 1, 2, and 10 mM). The right traces show similar behavior in the model neuron. With reference to figure 6, we choose initial values of  $g_{KCa} = 0.28$  and  $g_A = 152$  for the quiescent cell model. Starting with these values, we then decreased the value of  $g_A$  to 90, 75, 50 and 0 percent of normal, respectively. These percentages correspond to our estimates of the reduction in the maximum conductance of the A current for the corresponding concentrations of 4-AP in the left panels (Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992). The asymptotic state of the model is shown in the right panels. We have indicated

the corresponding values of  $(g_{KCa}, g_A)$  as the left hand series of crosses in the map of parameter space for the model neuron shown in figure 6.

In the absence of 4-AP, both the experimental neuron and the model cell are initially in a quiescent state (figure 7a). When a tonic depolarizing current,  $I_{ext}$ , of 0.5 nA is applied, both the neuron and the model respond by firing a few action potentials before finding a new quiescent equilibrium at a depolarized membrane potential (figure 8a). With 0.5 mM 4-AP (90% of initial  $g_A$ ), the AB neuron shows an unstable quiescent equilibrium that is slightly depolarized from the previous resting potential, and fires an occasional single burst of action potentials (figure 7b). The model also shows the slight depolarization but does not fire bursts of action potentials. We consider it likely that this discrepancy arises from 'noise' in the biological system, allowing the AB neuron to occasionally depolarize above threshold to fire a burst. Consistent with this interpretation, a brief depolarizing pulse was given to the model and it responded with a single burst of action potentials as shown in the right hand trace. When  $I_{ext}$  (0.5 nA) is applied to either the AB neuron or the model, both respond with the induction of rhythmic oscillation with bursts of action potentials that lasts as long as the current injection (figure 8b).

During application of 1 mM (75%  $g_A$ ) and 2 mM (50%  $g_A$ ) 4-AP, the AB neuron is in the stable bursting region (figure 7c,d). As 4-AP is increased, the neuron oscillates at a slightly lower frequency, and fires more action potentials per burst (eight in 1 mM 4-AP (figure 7c) versus 9 in 2 mM 4-AP). However, note that the third burst of action potentials in figure 7d has eight action potentials rather than nine, so the bursting is not regular. The model cell displays similar behavior for  $g_A = 114$  (figure 7c) and  $g_A = 76$  (figure 7d). With  $g_A = 114$ , the model cell is periodic, firing six action potentials per burst. When  $g_A$  is reduced to 72, the parameter fall in the irregular (chaotic) region of figure 6, and the model cell fires bursts of action potentials in which the number of action potentials per burst varies between six and ten.

For 10 mM 4-AP,  $g_A = 0$  (Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992). Under these conditions, this AB neuron fired tonic action potentials at high frequency (figure 7e). The model also fires tonically without the slow oscillations seen in figures 7c and 7d. As seen in figure 6, the elimination of  $g_A$  places the parameters of the model below the region of parameter space where bursting occurs, and now shows tonic activity. The model fires action potentials at a higher rate than the AB neuron; this may reflect the more rapid kinetics of the currents underlying the action potential in our model than in the real cell.

Results similar to those shown in figures 7 and 8 were observed with four isolated AB neurons. However, a fifth cell showed somewhat different responses to reduction in  $g_A$  (left panels, figure 9). We hypothesize that this difference arose from the natural biological variability in the properties of the AB cell in different preparations (Harris-Warrick & Flamm 1987; Harris-Warrick & Johnson 1987; Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992). This difference can be

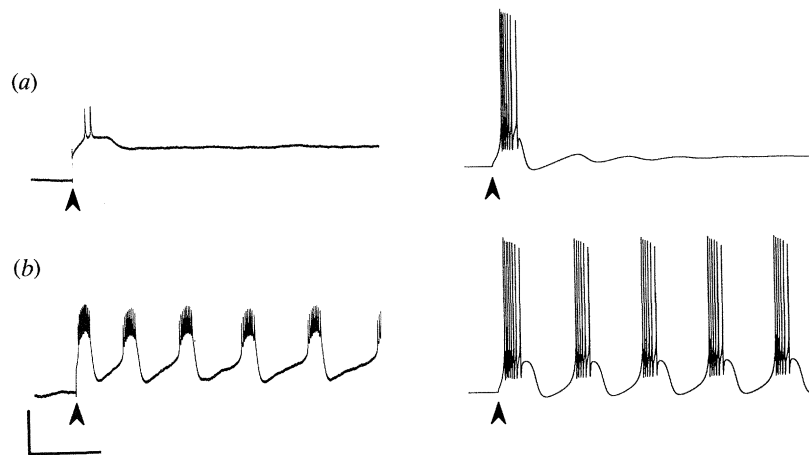


Figure 8. Responses of the AB neuron and model to external current injection. The same neuron and parameter values from figure 7*a* and 7*b*. In each panel, external current injection of 0.5 nA is applied at the arrow and maintained for the rest of the trace. (a) 0 4-AP; (b) 0.5 mM 4-AP.

modelled by choosing an initial value of  $g_{KCa}$  that is slightly different from those in the model cell shown in figures 7 and 8. Based upon figure 6 and the cell's response to 4-AP, we selected a value of 0.309361. The corresponding values of  $(g_{KCa}, g_A)$  are shown as the right-hand vertical series of crosses in the parameter space for the model shown in figure 6. The five traces in the left panels of figure 9 were obtained from an experiment where the AB cell was bathed with 4-AP concentrations of 0.5, 1, 2, 3 and 10 mM 4-AP (which, respectively, correspond to 90, 75, 50, 35 and 0 percent of the initial value of  $g_A$ ). The traces showing the asymptotic state of the model at these values of  $g_A$  are shown in the right panels of figure 9.

The neuron was quiescent at both 0 (data not shown) and 0.5 mM 4-AP (figure 9*a*); the only difference was a slight depolarization of the neuron with 0.5 mM 4-AP, which is duplicated with the model for 90% of the normal  $g_A$  for this cell. At 1 mM 4-AP, the AB neuron oscillated irregularly, and with a low number of action potentials per burst (4–5 in figure 9*b*). When the  $g_A$  value was reduced to 75% of its initial value of 152, the model cell was periodic, firing two action potentials per burst.

At 2 mM 4-AP (corresponding to 50% of initial  $g_A$ ), this AB neuron fired rhythmically at a higher frequency, with seven action potentials per burst (figure 9*c*). The model produces a similar result: the cell is still periodic, with a higher frequency and a larger number of action potentials per burst (five). As  $g_A$  was further reduced by increasing the concentration of 4-AP to 3 mM, the AB neuron entered a region of unstable bursting, with bursts containing variable (but smaller) numbers of action potentials (figure 9*d*). The model shows very similar behavior with  $g_A = 53$ , corresponding to 35% of the initial  $g_A$  value. The model cell is irregular, oscillating in a manner that reaches threshold for firing action potentials on some cycles, but not others. When the cell fires action potentials, it fires one or two per burst. This reduction in the number of action potentials per burst is consistent with the smaller number of action potentials per burst of the biological AB neuron in 3 mM 4-AP (figure 9*d*)

compared with 2 mM 4-AP (figure 9*c*). Finally, elimination of  $g_A$  with 10 mM 4-AP caused this neuron to fall silent (figure 9*e*). The model predicts the identical result.

The general properties of the model in this parameter range match these experimental data well. Based on an analysis of the parameter space in figure 6, our model predicts that the second neuron (figure 9) has a slightly larger value of  $g_{KCa}$  than the first neuron (figure 7). Reduction of  $g_A$  with application of 4-AP is equivalent to vertical downward movement in the parameter space of figure 6 (see crosses for the values used to represent the model cells). Modest reductions of  $g_A$  from the chosen initial value 152 moves both cells into the region of rhythmic oscillations, but with different numbers of action potentials per burst (more in the first neuron (figure 7) than in the second (figure 9)). Further reduction of  $g_A$  carries the first neuron into the region of tonic activity bounded by a curve of Hopf bifurcations on the right, while the second neuron moves to the region corresponding to quiescent equilibrium activity on the opposite side of this Hopf bifurcation curve (figure 6). Thus, our model predicts appropriate responses of both neurons to increasing concentrations of 4-AP, assuming that their initial parameters of  $g_{KCa}$  were slightly different. This is entirely consistent with the subtle variations of electrical activity of the AB neuron in different preparations (Harris-Warrick & Flamm 1987; Harris-Warrick & Johnson 1987; Tierney & Harris-Warrick 1992). We emphasize the ability of our model to mimic this natural variability by selecting appropriate values for the parameters; this is greatly expedited by comparison of the experimental data with thoroughly analyzed maps of parameter space such as the one displayed in figure 6.

Despite the agreement between our model and these experimental data, there remain important differences. Perhaps the greatest discrepancy between the two is the difference in the shape of the voltage versus time recordings in figures 7 and 9. The amplitude of the action potentials within the model is much larger than the amplitude of the action poten-

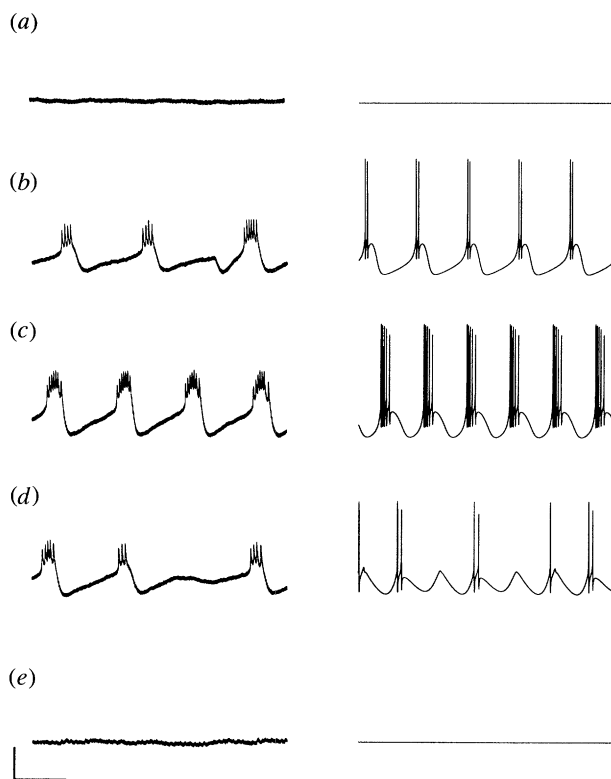


Figure 9. Side by side comparisons between experimental time traces of voltage versus time from a different neuron with time traces from the model. The experimental data on the left are taken from a single cell superfused with increasing concentrations of 4-AP. The model data on the right are taken from a set of parameter values with varying  $g_{\text{KCa}}$ . The value of  $g_{\text{KCa}}$  is 0.309361 and the values of the other parameters are taken from table 1. (a) 0.5 mM 4-AP,  $g_{\text{A}} = 136.8$ ; (b) 1.0 mM 4-AP,  $g_{\text{A}} = 114$ ; (c) 2.0 mM 4-AP,  $g_{\text{A}} = 76$ ; (d) 3.0 mM 4-AP,  $g_{\text{A}} = 53$ ; (e) 4.0 mM 4-AP,  $g_{\text{A}} = 0$ .

tials recorded in the soma of the AB cell. As described above, the soma of the AB cell is electrically inexcitable and lacks the ion channels generating the inward currents of action potentials. Thus the action potentials, generated in the neuropil, propagate passively along a long thin process to the soma. This process acts as a low pass filter, greatly diminishing the spike amplitude of the action potentials while not markedly affecting the amplitude of the slow oscillations. The low amplitude of the experimental spikes is an artifact of the recording site. The second important difference is that there are systematically more action potentials per burst in the AB neurons than in the model cells (for the chosen parameters). Finally, there are differences in the properties of the underlying slow oscillations. The real neuron had a more linear rise of voltage during the recovery phase of the bursting cycle than does the model neuron for the parameter values illustrated here. It also did not exhibit the 'overshoot' after the last action potential of the burst that the model cell predicted. We expect that these differences may be alleviated by further changes in other parameters than the ones that have been the focus of this investigation.

We make a number of more technical comments about the structure of bifurcations and the presence of

chaotic behavior in the system, for the benefit of mathematically inclined readers. As one crosses the Hopf bifurcation curve vertically upward in the bursting region near the point (0.309361, 114) marked with a large cross in figure 6, unstable periodic orbits emerge at the Hopf bifurcation. There is a region of bistability above the Hopf bifurcation curve (i.e. larger  $g_{\text{A}}$ ) for which different initial conditions tend to either a stable equilibrium or to a bursting oscillation. These bursting oscillation solutions appear to merge with the family of periodic orbits that bifurcated from the equilibrium at the Hopf bifurcation. In the course of this process, either the stable bursting oscillations become slow oscillations without bursts, or the unstable oscillations develop bursts.

As one moves from the bursting region across the saddle-node curve into the region with multiple equilibria by decreasing  $g_{\text{KCa}}$  (to the left of the region labeled as having 11 action potentials per burst in figure 6), there is a complex transition from bursting solutions (figures 4a and 5a) to periodic action potentials (figures 4b and 5b). Approaching this transition from the left (increasing  $g_{\text{KCa}}$ ), the periodic action potentials appear to go through a transition to aperiodic, but rapid action potentials, that follows the classical 'period-doubling' route to chaos. There is a small region of the parameter space in which the range of variation of the calcium concentration changes chaotically in sequences of action potentials (figures 4c and 5c). At the boundary of this region, the small variations of the chaotically varying calcium concentration reach a threshold at which the calcium concentration falls to a low value and the membrane potential becomes hyperpolarized for a time that is long compared to the time scale of the action potentials. The calcium concentration eventually begins to increase and the membrane depolarizes, leading to a burst of action potentials during which the calcium concentration further increases. Chaotic action potentials are interspersed with intermittent bursts in this régime.

The Hopf bifurcation curve passes through a point of double Hopf bifurcation along its lower branch. One can interpret the two modes as representing the slow oscillations and the action potentials and view the small loop in the curve of Hopf bifurcations as the parameter regime in which the time scales for these oscillations become comparable. At the point of double Hopf bifurcation, the ratio between the periods of the two oscillations is approximately six (as determined from the eigenvalues computed by the program *DsTool* at the point of double Hopf bifurcation), which is not as large as the typical ratio between the time scales of action potentials and slow oscillations. The period of a typical action potential is approximately 30 ms while the slow oscillations have a period of approximately 1 s. Near a point of double Hopf bifurcation, one expects the possibility of nonlinear interactions of two modes that can be described by a reduction to 'normal form' for the system (Guckenheimer & Holmes 1983). The effect of these nonlinear interactions depends upon coefficients in the normal form equation that we did not try to compute.

Additionally, the angle between the two curves of Hopf bifurcation is small in the model, making it difficult to see these interactions easily.

The final property of the bifurcation diagram of figure 6 that we comment upon is the presence of a curve of 'homoclinic bifurcation' associated with chaotic trajectories in the region that is labeled 'irregular'. Silnikov and later Tresser (Guckenheimer & Holmes 1983) analyzed the properties of dynamical systems in which there was a trajectory asymptotic to an equilibrium point in both forwards time and backwards time. Generically, the approach to the equilibrium occurs in the directions for which the linearization has the slowest rate of approach (in both forward and backwards time). There are several different cases distinguished by whether the trajectories approach the equilibrium in an oscillatory fashion or from a well defined direction, and by the ratio of the rates of approach. In the system studied here, the homoclinic orbit that we identify leaves an equilibrium in an oscillatory manner with a slower rate than it approaches it. One expects to find chaotic trajectories in the vicinity of the homoclinic orbit. We do indeed find a rather large chaotic area within the bursting region of the parameter space near this homoclinic bifurcation.

## DISCUSSION

The main conclusion of our study is that bifurcation analysis can be used to map the behavior of realistic, channel-based models for the response of a conditionally bursting neuron to changes in its environment. We compared the activity of the AB cell in the stomatogastric ganglion of the spiny lobster *Panulirus interruptus* to that of a six dimensional vector field representing six currents in the membrane of this cell. Through computer analysis and simulation, we have produced maps that illustrate the response of the model to variations in the conductances of the potassium channels of this cell. These maps give us new insight in our studies of how the cell responds to changes in its environment. We are particularly interested in the response of the AB neuron to neuromodulators such as the monoamines dopamine, serotonin and octopamine (Harris-Warrick & R. E. Flamm 1987). In other stomatogastric neurons, these amines appear to modulate the conductances of several potassium currents (Kiehn and R. M. Harris-Warrick 1992; Harris-Warrick *et al.* 1992). Comparison of AB responses to amines and potassium channel antagonists will be greatly facilitated by quantitative reference to maps of the AB cell parameter space (figures 3 and 6).

The repertoire of dynamical behavior displayed by the model neurons is rich and includes chaotic phenomena. Since many of the details of the bifurcations observed in the models require careful analysis of numerically integrated trajectories, matching experimental data with model behavior is still a difficult task. There are many parameters in the model we have explored, and direct measurement of some of these in the AB cell is not yet experimentally feasible.

Therefore, determination of parameters that fit well with indirect observations of overall neural activity is an exhaustive task, much of which has not yet been automated. It is more feasible to match a series of neuronal responses to sequential modification of a single variable, as we have done using 4-AP to reduce  $g_A$ . This imposes significant constraints on the choice of parameters, hopefully to make them similar to the values in the real cell. For example, in a parameter range  $0.15 < g_{KCa} < 0.6$ , there are no fewer than ten different sequences of changes in the qualitative rhythmic patterns produced by the model during reductions of  $g_A$ . The ranges of parameter values for the conductance  $g_{KCa}$  that do match the data are relatively narrow. The two dimensional parameter space map illustrated in figure 6 provides an essential tool for making a successful match between the model and the experimental data. Our confidence that this match is meaningful is strengthened by the fact that the model captures important features in the variability of the data between neurons with only small changes in the model conductance of  $g_{KCa}$ . Previous studies of neural models have demonstrated the important roles of the A current and the calcium activated potassium current in shaping oscillatory properties of a cell (Connor & Stevens 1971; Gorman & Thomas 1978), but we show how the delicate balance in the relative magnitude of these two conductances influences the complex patterns of rhythmic behavior displayed by a model neuron.

We do not argue that this model has enough structure to represent all observed behavior of the AB neuron. There are noticeable differences in the model and the data in the magnitude of the action potentials. As described above, this is due to the attenuation of the action potentials between their initiation in the neuropil of the AB neuron and the site of recording in the soma. We do not know the extent to which the single compartment model that we are using can be a good representation for the qualitative properties of this neuron, which clearly has important spatial segregation of currents. Moreover, the model does not contain an exhaustive list of all possible ion channels in the AB cell. For example, we have preliminary evidence for a slow hyperpolarization-activated inward current,  $I_h$ , in several STG neurons (Golowasch 1991; Kiehn & Harris-Warrick 1992; Harris-Warrick *et al.* 1992). Other oscillatory neurons appear to contain ion channels with very slow activation and inactivation kinetics. These currents are not present in our model, and they may become important to model certain aspects of the oscillatory behavior of the AB cell. Changes in the form of the model may thus be needed to capture all of the AB neuron's responses to changes in its environment, but this can only be determined through exhaustive study of the properties of the model and further comparison with experimental data. What has been demonstrated is that the currents contained in this model are sufficient to explain the complicated sequential modulation of rhythmic patterns that are produced by increasing blockade of the potassium A current by 4-AP. Systematic mapping of the parameter space associated with

the conductances of the potassium channels that are incorporated in the model has enabled us to understand the range of rhythmic behavior displayed by the model in a substantial region of its parameter space.

There is a final philosophical point that deserves discussion concerning the parameter values that we have chosen for our model. When initiating our studies, we deliberately sought parameter values at which degenerate bifurcations occur. While it appears fortuitous that these parameter values have yielded a good match with experimental observations, there may be evolutionary advantages for a nerve cell to operate in such a region of the parameter space. One of the functions of the nervous system is to be maximally sensitive to its environment and to radically modify its behavior in response to small changes within that environment. Bifurcations locate points of the parameter space at which a small change in parameter values results in qualitative changes in the system behavior. Near degenerate bifurcations, this sensitivity to small parameter changes is even greater, and there are often more regions of different types of qualitative behavior that are accessible nearby. Using a term introduced by Thom (1975), the nerve cell can function as a maximally sensitive signal detector if it operates at a point of the parameter space that is an 'organizing center'. The computation of such points in models is an effective procedure for locating regions in which the models are sensitive to small changes in the model parameters. We speculate that many neurons and/or neural networks have evolved to operate in such regions.

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