


Kuramoto Model for Excitation-Inhibition-Based Oscillations

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The Kuramoto model (KM) is a theoretical paradigm for investigating the emergence of rhythmic activity in large populations of oscillators. A remarkable example of rhythmogenesis is the feedback loop between excitatory (E) and inhibitory (I) cells in large neuronal networks. Yet, although the EI -feedback mechanism plays a central role in the generation of brain oscillations, it remains unexplored whether the KM has enough biological realism to describe it. Here we derive a two-population KM that fully accounts for the onset of EI -based neuronal rhythms and that, as the original KM, is analytically solvable to a large extent. Our results provide a powerful theoretical tool for the analysis of large-scale neuronal oscillations.

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The Kuramoto model (KM) is an idealized mathematical model for exploring the birth of collective synchronization in its most simple form. It consists of a population of heterogeneous, all-to-all coupled oscillators, and is a unique example of an exactly solvable system of nonlinear differential equations [1–5]. Yet, the KM was originally not intended as a specific description of any particular system, and finds limited applications in the modeling and analysis of natural oscillatory phenomena, see, e.g., Refs. [6–8].

An important example of collective synchronization is that of large scale neuronal oscillations [3,9]. Despite continued work using the KM to investigate neuronal rhythms (see, e.g., Refs. [10–16]), it remains unknown whether the KM actually accounts for the neuronal mechanisms resulting in such oscillations. In this Letter we derive a simple, two-population KM, that describes one of the basic mechanisms of generation of neuronal oscillations: The feedback loop between fast excitation (E) and slow inhibition (I) in large neuronal networks [17–20].

EI-feedback loop and EI-based oscillations.—The canonical neuronal network to model the EI -feedback loop consists of two interacting populations of excitatory and inhibitory neurons [21–24]. Here, we consider two populations of N pulse-coupled “Winfree oscillators” [2,25–29] with phase variables $\{\theta_i^\sigma\}_{i=1,\dots,N}$ (populations are identified by $\sigma \in \{E, I\}$), which evolve according to

$$\dot{\theta}_i^\sigma = \omega_i^\sigma + \xi_i^\sigma + Q(\theta_i^\sigma)(K_{\sigma E}h_E - K_{\sigma I}h_I). \quad (1)$$

The natural frequencies ω_i^σ are drawn from Lorentzian distributions of half-width γ , centered at $\bar{\omega}_\sigma$

$$g_\sigma(\omega) = (\gamma/\pi)[(\omega - \bar{\omega}_\sigma)^2 + \gamma^2]^{-1}, \quad (2)$$

and ξ_i^σ are independent, zero-mean delta-correlated noise processes of strength D : $\langle \xi_i^\sigma(t)\xi_j^\sigma(t') \rangle = 2D\delta(t-t')\delta_{i,j}\delta_{\sigma,\sigma'}$.

In Eq. (1), $Q(\theta)$ is the so-called phase response curve (PRC) that determines the response of the oscillators to perturbations. Here we adopt the (infinitesimal) PRC of the theta-neuron model, $Q(\theta) = 1 - \cos \theta$, which is non-negative and thus results in phase advances or delays in response to excitatory or inhibitory inputs [30–32]. Neuronal oscillators with a non-negative PRC are called Type 1, and include a broad class of neuronal models, see, e.g., Refs. [31–33]. The oscillators interact all-to-all via the mean fields

$$h_\sigma = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N P(\theta_j^\sigma), \quad (3)$$

which are population-averaged sums of all the pulses P produced in each population. We use the family of unimodal even-symmetric functions $P(\theta) = (1-r)(1+\cos\theta)(1-2r\cos\theta+r^2)^{-1}$, with $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} P(\theta)d\theta = 2\pi$ and a free parameter $r \in (-1, 1)$, such that $\lim_{r \rightarrow 1} P(\theta) = 2\pi\delta(\theta)$ [28]. Expressed in words, the j th oscillator in the E population exerts a positive, pulselike influence $P(\theta_j^E)$ of strength $K_{EE}/N \geq 0$ to each oscillator of the E population, and of strength $K_{IE}/N \geq 0$ to each oscillator of the I population [similarly for the j th oscillator of the I population, with an explicit “–” sign in Eq. (1) corresponding to inhibition].

Figures 1(a) and 1(b) show EI -based oscillations of the mean-field quantities h_σ in simulations of (a) heterogeneous and (b) noisy EI -Winfree networks, Eq. (1). The raster plots Figs. 1(c) and 1(d) show that an EI -oscillation cycle begins with the synchronous “firing” of a large cluster of phase-locked E oscillators, followed by another synchronous firing of the I oscillators. Note that, to emphasize that oscillations emerge exclusively due to the interplay between fast excitatory and slow inhibitory dynamics, in

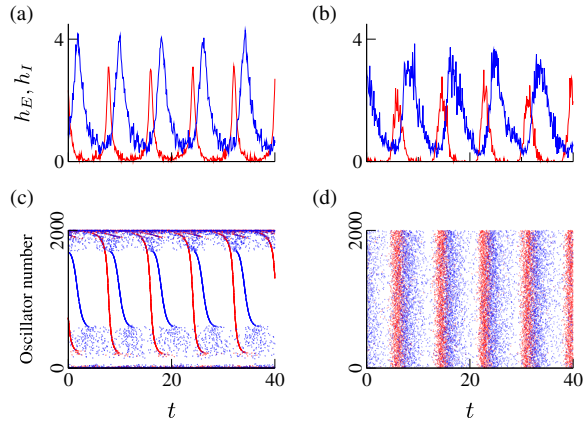


FIG. 1. *EI*-based oscillations in a population of $N = 2000$ excitatory (E) and $N = 2000$ inhibitory (I) Winfree oscillators, Eq. (1); with $\bar{\omega}_E = 1.5$, $\bar{\omega}_I = 0.5$, $K_{EI} = K_{IE} = 0.5$, $K_{EE} = K_{II} = 0$, and $r = 0.99$. (a), (b) Time series of the E (red) and I (blue) activity-based mean fields h_σ . (c), (d) Raster plots: A point is plotted when an oscillator's phase reaches a multiple of 2π , which is the peak location of $P(\theta)$. In (a) and (c) frequencies are Lorentzian distributed, with $\gamma = 0.1$, and $D = 0$. In (b) and (d) the noise strength is $D = 0.1$, and $\gamma = 0$.

Fig. 1 we set the self-coupling terms to zero, $K_{EE} = K_{II} = 0$, and consider $\Delta\omega \equiv \bar{\omega}_E - \bar{\omega}_I > 0$. In the following we derive a two-population KM that captures the main features of the oscillations shown in Fig. 1, and that is exactly solvable to a large extent.

Excitation-inhibition Kuramoto model (EI-KM).—Invoking the averaging approximation, valid for weak coupling and nearly identical oscillators [1,3], the *EI*-Winfree model in Eq. (1) reduces to the *EI*-KM [34]

$$\dot{\theta}_i^\sigma = \tilde{\omega}_i^\sigma + \xi_i^\sigma - \frac{1+r}{2N} \sum_{j=1}^N [K_{\sigma E} \cos(\theta_i^\sigma - \theta_j^E) - K_{\sigma I} \cos(\theta_i^\sigma - \theta_j^I)], \quad (4)$$

where $\tilde{\omega}_i^\sigma \equiv \omega_i^\sigma + K_{\sigma E} - K_{\sigma I}$. There are two major differences between the *EI*-KM and the classical two-population KM broadly investigated in the literature, see, e.g., Refs. [1,35–40]. First, in the *EI*-KM the excitatory and inhibitory coupling constants differentially shift the natural frequencies $\tilde{\omega}_i^E$ and $\tilde{\omega}_i^I$, and this largely affects the regions of parameters where *EI* oscillations occur. Second, although the cosine coupling does not promote synchrony in the KM [41], the positive (E) and negative (I) cross-coupling terms in Eq. (4) crucially conspire to synchronize the oscillators [42]. Therefore, in the *EI*-KM, synchrony sets in exclusively due to the cooperative action of both the E and the I populations, in consonance with the *EI*-feedback loop mechanism. Indeed, Fig. 2 shows numerical simulations of the *EI*-KM in Eq. (4) using the same parameters as in Figs. 1(a) and 1(c)—except r , which in the *EI*-KM is set to $r = 1$, see below. Figure 2(a) displays the

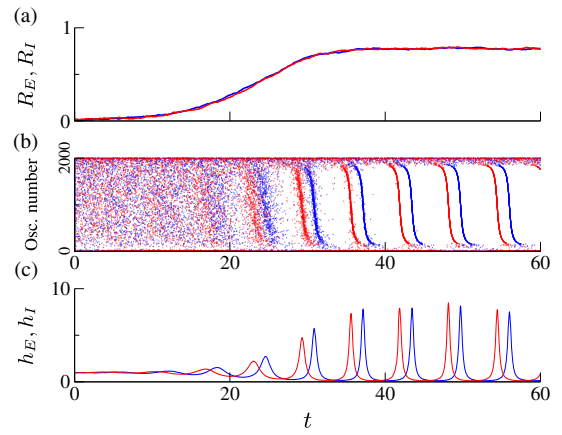


FIG. 2. *EI*-based oscillations in the *EI*-KM Eq. (4) with quenched heterogeneity and $N = 2000$. (a) Amplitude of the Kuramoto order parameters, R_E (red) and R_I (blue); (b) raster plots; (c) mean fields obtained applying Eq. (14) to Z_σ ; parameters are as in Figs. 1(a) and 1(c), except that here $r = 1$, instead of $r = 0.99$.

amplitude of the complex Kuramoto order parameters $Z_\sigma \equiv R_\sigma e^{i\Psi_\sigma} = N^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^N e^{i\theta_j^\sigma}$. At $t = 0$, the amplitudes R_E and R_I are near zero since the initial values of all the phases are randomly distributed in the interval $[0, 2\pi)$. Then, after a brief transient, the Kuramoto order parameters converge (up to finite-size fluctuations) to uniformly rotating solutions $Z_\sigma(t) = R_* e^{i\Psi_\sigma(t)}$, with $0 < R_* < 1$ and $\dot{\Psi}_\sigma = \Omega$, signaling the onset of collective synchronization. Note that the raster plot in Fig. 2(b) shows that the cluster of E oscillators precedes the cluster of I oscillators, consistent with Fig. 1(c).

Finally, in the *EI*-KM the width of the pulses (controlled by r) influences the intensity of the cosine coupling functions. To lighten the notation, hereafter we set $r = 1$ in Eq. (4), corresponding to the limit of infinitely narrow (Dirac delta) pulses—this is close to the value used in Fig. 1. The generalization of our results to general r is trivial.

Analysis of the EI-KM.—Equation (4) can be efficiently analyzed in the thermodynamic limit, $N \rightarrow \infty$. To do so, the discrete sets of phases and frequencies turn into continuous variables $\{\theta_i^\sigma, \omega_i^\sigma\} \rightarrow \{\theta_\sigma, \omega_\sigma\}$, and the corresponding probability density functions $f^\sigma(\theta_\sigma | \omega_\sigma, t)$ satisfy coupled Fokker-Planck equations

$$\partial_t f^\sigma = -\partial_{\theta_\sigma} (f^\sigma \dot{\theta}_\sigma) + D \partial_{\theta_\sigma}^2 f^\sigma, \quad (5)$$

for which the fully incoherent state $f^E = f^I = (2\pi)^{-1}$ is always a trivial solution [35,43]. It is convenient to introduce the Fourier expansion of f^σ :

$$f^\sigma(\theta | \omega, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} f_l^\sigma(\omega, t) e^{il\theta}, \quad (6)$$

where $f_0^\sigma = 1$ and $(f_{-l}^\sigma)^* = f_l^\sigma$ (the asterisk denotes complex conjugate). Thus, the Kuramoto order parameters are

$$Z_\sigma = \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_1^\sigma(\omega, t) g_\sigma(\omega) d\omega \right)^*. \quad (7)$$

Substituting Eq. (6) into Eq. (5), yields two infinite sets of integro-differential equations for the Fourier modes

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{f}_l^\sigma &= -(il\tilde{\omega}_\sigma + l^2 D) f_l^\sigma + \frac{il}{2} f_{l-1}^\sigma (K_{\sigma E} Z_E^* - K_{\sigma I} Z_I^*) \\ &+ \frac{il}{2} f_{l+1}^\sigma (K_{\sigma E} Z_E - K_{\sigma I} Z_I), \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where $\tilde{\omega}_\sigma \equiv \omega_\sigma + K_{\sigma E} - K_{\sigma I}$. The stability of the incoherent state can be analyzed by linearizing Eq. (8) [44]. To simplify the analysis, we study the case in which cross- and self-couplings are symmetric,

$$K_{EI} = K_{IE} \equiv K, \quad K_{II} = K_{EE} \equiv \epsilon K, \quad (9)$$

and use the new parameter $\epsilon \geq 0$ as a measure of the ratio of self- to cross-coupling. Then we find that the eigenvalues determining the stability of incoherence are

$$\lambda_\pm = -\gamma - D \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{K^2 - [\Delta\omega + (\epsilon - 2)K]^2} - i\Omega, \quad (10)$$

where $\Omega = (\tilde{\omega}_E + \tilde{\omega}_I)/2$ is the center of the frequency distribution combining E and I populations. Note that parameters γ and D play identical roles in Eq. (10), as it occurs in the KM [40,43]. Imposing $\text{Re}(\lambda_+) = 0$ in Eq. (10), we find the boundary of incoherence

$$\left(\frac{\Delta\omega}{\gamma + D} \right)_c^\pm = (2 - \epsilon) \frac{K}{\gamma + D} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{K}{\gamma + D} \right)^2 - 4}, \quad (11)$$

which is the family of hyperbolas depicted by solid and dashed black lines in Figs. 3(a)–3(d), for increasing values of ϵ . A necessary condition for the boundary Eq. (11) to exist is

$$\frac{K}{\gamma + D} \geq 2. \quad (12)$$

Hence, given a certain level of heterogeneity and/or noise, synchronization sets in at large enough values of the coupling strength. This is remarkably similar to the KM [1,43], although here K represents cross-, and not self-coupling. Moreover, Eq. (12) is not a sufficient condition for synchronization in the EI -KM. If Eq. (12) is satisfied, then Eq. (11) shows that synchronization is only achieved for a particular range of values of the frequency mismatch $\Delta\omega$. The coupling ratio ϵ does not affect Eq. (12), but it critically controls the range of $\Delta\omega$ for stable incoherence: Note that when $\epsilon \leq 1$, the boundary Eq. (11) is located at positive values of $\Delta\omega$, and thus incoherence is always stable when I oscillators are intrinsically faster than E

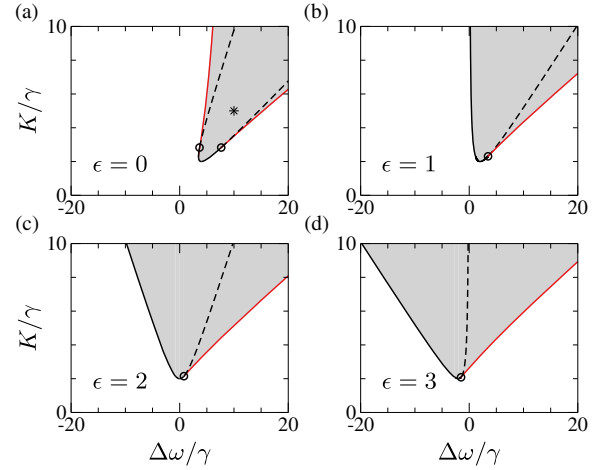


FIG. 3. Phase diagrams of the EI -KM Eq. (4) with $D = 0$ and coupling constants given by Eq. (9), for (a) $\epsilon = 0$, (b) $\epsilon = 1$, (c) $\epsilon = 2$, and (d) $\epsilon = 3$. Regions of stable synchronization are highlighted in gray. Synchronization and incoherence are both stable in regions limited by black-dashed and red lines. The asterisk in (a) marks the parameter values used in Fig. 2. Black lines correspond to Eq. (11). Solid and dashed lines are separated by codimension-2 points—obtained from Eq. (19)—and indicate super- and subcritical bifurcations, respectively. Red curves indicate saddle-node bifurcations.

oscillators ($\Delta\omega < 0$), see Fig. 3. Increasing the parameter ϵ shifts the boundary, with asymptotes at $K = \Delta\omega/(3 - \epsilon)$ and $K = \Delta\omega/(1 - \epsilon)$, towards negative values of $\Delta\omega$. Thus, increasing the coupling ratio through ϵ provides a key ingredient for synchronizing EI networks when $\tilde{\omega}_I > \tilde{\omega}_E$, as I -to- I coupling slows down I oscillators while E -to- E coupling speeds up E oscillators.

The synchronization region turns out to be larger than the hyperbolic boundary defined by Eq. (11), particularly for large ϵ values (see Fig. 3 for the noise-free case). The reason is that the bifurcation at Eq. (11) is often subcritical. To investigate this further, next we consider the purely heterogeneous ($D = 0$) and the purely noisy ($\gamma = 0$) cases separately, and show that the global picture is remarkably similar in both instances.

The noise-free problem is particularly simple since it can be assumed that the densities in Eq. (6) satisfy the so-called Ott-Antonsen (OA) ansatz [45,46]

$$f_{l>1}^\sigma(\omega, t) = [f_1^\sigma(\omega, t)]^l. \quad (13)$$

A first useful outcome of the OA ansatz is that it allows us to infer the mean field h_σ , Eq. (3), from the Kuramoto order parameter Z_σ , Eq. (7). Specifically, in the thermodynamic limit $h_\sigma(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_0^{2\pi} P(\theta) f^\sigma(\theta|\omega, t) g_\sigma(\omega) d\omega d\theta$. Then, considering $P(\theta)$ as defined above, and the heterogeneity in Eq. (2), one finds $h_\sigma = \text{Re}[(1 + Z_\sigma)/(1 - rZ_\sigma)]$, see Ref. [47]. In the limit $r \rightarrow 1$, this relation reduces to

$$h_\sigma = (1 - R_\sigma^2)(1 + R_\sigma^2 - 2R_\sigma \cos \Psi_\sigma)^{-1}. \quad (14)$$

Figure 2(c) displays the mean fields $h_\sigma(t)$ obtained applying Eq. (14) to the Kuramoto order parameters $Z_\sigma(t)$ of the *EI*-KM. It can be seen that uniformly rotating solutions of the Kuramoto order parameters correspond to pulsatile oscillations of the activity-based mean fields $h_\sigma(t)$ [48]. Though the agreement between Figs. 1(a) and 2(c) is only qualitative, it gradually improves as parameters γ and $\Delta\omega$ are decreased and the averaging approximation becomes more accurate [49].

A major simplification occurs assuming that f^σ evolve in the so-called OA manifold, Eq. (13), as the system of Eq. (8) becomes independent of the index l . Then, solving the integrals in Eq. (7) by virtue of the residue theorem, we find a system of two complex-valued ordinary differential equations for $Z_\sigma(t) = f_1^\sigma(\omega = \bar{\omega}_\sigma - i\gamma, t)^*$

$$\dot{Z}_\sigma = i \left[\hat{\omega}_\sigma Z_\sigma - \frac{K_{\sigma E}}{2} (Z_\sigma^2 Z_E^* + Z_E) + \frac{K_{\sigma I}}{2} (Z_\sigma^2 Z_I^* + Z_I) \right], \quad (15)$$

with $\hat{\omega}_\sigma \equiv \bar{\omega}_\sigma + K_{\sigma E} - K_{\sigma I} + i\gamma$. Restricting our analysis to the case defined by Eq. (9), Eq. (15) reduces to a three-dimensional system for the amplitudes R_σ and the phase difference $\Phi \equiv \Psi_E - \Psi_I$. The analysis becomes further facilitated restricting to the symmetric subspace

$$R_E = R_I \equiv R, \quad (16)$$

in consistency with our numerical observations, the transverse stability of the fixed points [50], and related work [51]. Hence, we analyze the planar system

$$\dot{R} = R \left[-\gamma + \frac{K}{2} (1 - R^2) \sin \Phi \right], \quad (17a)$$

$$\dot{\Phi} = \Delta\omega + K[(1 + R^2) \cos \Phi - 2 + \epsilon(1 - R^2)]. \quad (17b)$$

Besides the fixed point at $R_* = 0$, corresponding to incoherence, the nontrivial fixed points of Eqs. (17) satisfy [52]

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{\gamma} = [2 + \epsilon(R_*^2 - 1)] \frac{K}{\gamma} \pm (R_*^2 + 1) \sqrt{\frac{K^2}{\gamma^2} - \frac{4}{(1 - R_*^2)^2}}. \quad (18)$$

Figure 4(a) displays R_* obtained from Eq. (18) for $\epsilon = 0$. In this case the transitions to synchronization are hysteretic and the stable synchronized solution (solid black line) exists only in an interval of values of $\Delta\omega > 0$. As the self-coupling terms are increased, Fig. 4(b) shows that the region of stable synchronization becomes broader, and invades negative values of $\Delta\omega$, see also Figs. 3(a)–3(d).

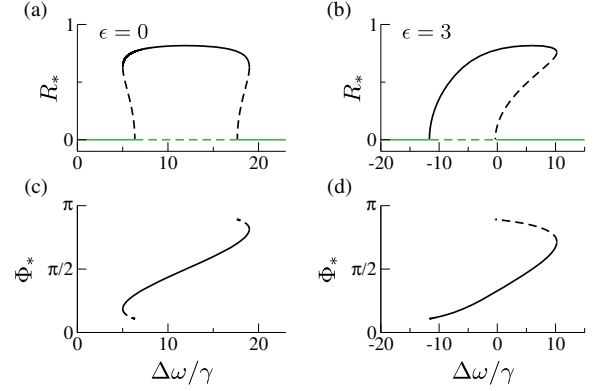


FIG. 4. Bifurcation diagrams of synchronized (black) and incoherent (green) states of Eqs. (17) for $K/\gamma = 6$, obtained using Eq. (18). (a), (b) Amplitude R_* and (c,d) phase difference Φ_* between the Kuramoto order parameters for (a), (c) $\epsilon = 0$ and (b), (d) $\epsilon = 3$.

Note that the phase difference Φ_* between Z_E and Z_I increases monotonically with $\Delta\omega$, see Figs. 4(c) and 4(d), but lies within the interval $(0, \pi)$, and thus excitation always precedes inhibition, see also Eq. (17).

Differentiating Eq. (18) with respect to R_*^2 and equating the result to zero, allows us to analytically obtain the red boundaries in Fig. 3 in parametric form (not shown), corresponding to saddle-node bifurcations. As $R_* \rightarrow 0$, these bifurcations meet the boundaries Eq. (11) at codimension-2 points where the instabilities change from sub- to supercritical. The exact value of the K coordinate is

$$(K/\gamma)_{c2}^\pm = \sqrt{(8 - 2\epsilon^2 \mp 2\epsilon\sqrt{8 + \epsilon^2})/(1 - \epsilon^2)}. \quad (19)$$

Substituting these values into Eq. (11) with $D = 0$, we find the location of the codimension-two points represented in Fig. 3.

Finally, we have numerically verified that very similar bistability regions appear in the phase diagrams for the noisy *EI*-Kuramoto model Eq. (4) with identical oscillators ($D > 0, \gamma = 0$). In addition, following Ref. [58], we found that the codimension-2 points of the noisy *EI*-KM are located at [59]

$$(K/D)_{c2}^\pm = \sqrt{(12 - 2\epsilon^2 \mp 2\epsilon\sqrt{24 + \epsilon^2})/(1 - \epsilon^2)}, \quad (20)$$

which is strikingly similar to Eq. (19), but here the points lie at slightly larger K values.

Conclusions.—Using the averaging approximation we derived a two-population Kuramoto model—that we call *EI*-KM—from an *EI*-network of pulse-coupled, Type 1 oscillators. The resulting *EI*-KM displays a transition to synchronization that has the main features of the *EI*-based (also known as PING, pyramidal-interneuron gamma) rhythms [17–24]: (i) Oscillations set in exclusively due

to the cooperative action of both E and I populations; (ii) oscillations emerge if excitatory dynamics is faster than inhibition, irrespective of ϵ . (iii) Otherwise, when inhibition is faster than excitation, strong enough self-coupling ($\epsilon > 1$) is necessary for synchrony to occur. (iv) Excitation always precedes inhibition ($0 < \Phi_* < \pi$). (v) The transition between incoherence and synchronization is often hysteretic, see, e.g., Ref. [23]. While these results have been rigorously demonstrated in the *EI*-KM with Lorentzian heterogeneities (by means of the OA ansatz), perturbative and numerical analysis of the *EI*-KM with noise reveal the same global picture.

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- [49] See Supplemental Material at <http://link.aps.org/supplemental/10.1103/PhysRevLett.120.244101> for the numerical demonstration.
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