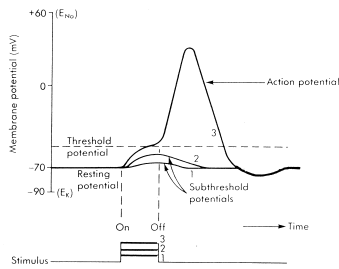
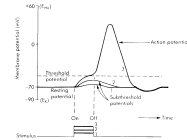


Action potentials



Events in an action potential

- a stimulus causes depolarisation of membrane potential.
- if stimulus is of sufficient strength, the depolarisation will be large enough to reach threshold .
- this results in a very rapid +ve going potential (upstroke) which lasts 0.2 - 0.5ms.
- membrane potential heads towards E_{Na} (overshoot).
- membrane potential then returns towards resting potential (repolarisation).
- small after - hyperpolarisation.
- duration is approximately 1-3 ms
- all-or-none response.



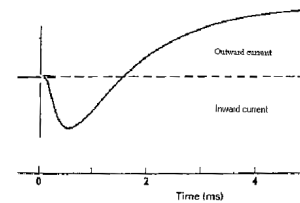
Sodium Theory of Action Potential

- Hodgkin and Katz (1949) proposed that the action potential was due to a rapid and specific increase in the permeability of the membrane to Na^+ (ie g_{Na} becomes temporarily much greater than g_K , so that E_m moves towards E_{Na})

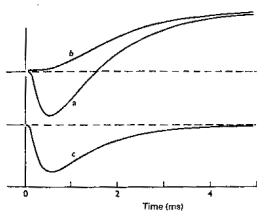
- the rising phase of the action potential is due to inward movement of Na^+ , the falling phase to outward movement of K^+

- voltage clamp experiments make it possible to move the membrane potential (either depolarisation or hyperpolarisation) by passing current into the fibre \rightarrow any desired potential can be generated and the membrane clamped at that level \rightarrow the amount of current injected to set the membrane potential at a desired value is equal and opposite to the current flowing across the membrane due to ions

- using squid giant axon, in normal sea water there was a transient inward current followed by a delayed outward current that is maintained for as long as the membrane potential is clamped



- Hodgkin and Huxley removed 90% of Na^+ from external solution (E_{Na} is correspondingly reduced - the membrane potential clamped at -9mV corresponds to E_{Na} and sodium can make no further contribution) \rightarrow current can then only be carried by K^+



$$\begin{aligned} a &= I_{Na} + I_K \\ b &= I_K \\ c &= I_{Na} \end{aligned}$$

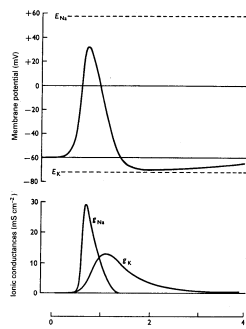
- I_{Na} and I_K can be determined as a function of time and membrane potential

- g_{Na} and g_K can be determined

$$I_{Na} = g_{Na} (E_m - E_{Na})$$

$$I_K = g_K (E_m - E_K)$$

- both g_{Na} and g_K are increased by depolarising the membrane



- initially g_K is small but g_{Na} is much smaller, so resting potential closer to E_K .

- when membrane depolarised, g_{Na} increases, so small number of sodium ions cross membrane, flowing down their electrochemical gradient - results in further depolarisation and further increase in g_{Na} , so more Na^+ cross membrane.

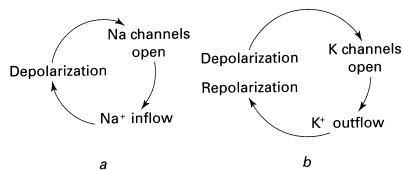
- membrane potential races towards sodium equilibrium potential (E_{Na}).

-sodium conductance is then inactivated

- g_K increases but at a slower rate \rightarrow membrane potential brought rapidly back to resting level (repolarisation).

- g_K is still higher than usual so membrane potential passes resting level and moves closer to E_K .

- as g_K declines, membrane potential moves back to its resting level.



- increase (and decrease in case of sodium inactivation) is due to Na^+ and K^+ gating mechanisms that are voltage dependent.

- 3 independent processes.

1. Na^+ channels normally closed ($\sim 0.12\%$ open at -90 mV) but swing open rapidly when the inside becomes more positive \rightarrow Na activation (m gate).

2. Na^+ channels normally open (50% open at 90 mV) but swing closed slowly when the inside becomes more positive \rightarrow Na inactivation (h gate).

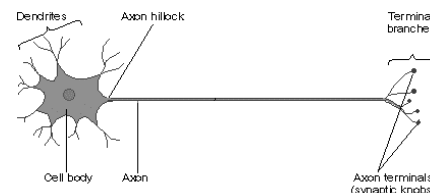
3. K^+ channels normally closed (1% open at -90 mV) but swing open slowly when the inside becomes more positive (n gate).

Refractory periods

- absolute refractory period -after an action potential has been initiated it is impossible to initiate another action potential \rightarrow corresponds to the time to recover from sodium inactivation - also g_K is still high during this period.

- relative refractory period -- period in which it is possible to initiate a second action potential but the stimulus needs to be stronger to reach threshold \rightarrow corresponds to the return of potassium conductance to normal.

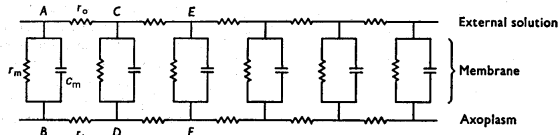
Action potential propagation in axons



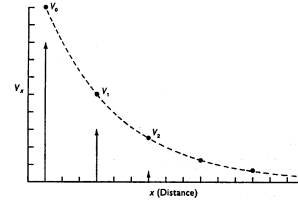
- propagation of an action potential along an axon depends on the electrical excitability of the nerve membrane and also on the cable structure of the axon.

- when a region of membrane is shifted away from its resting potential an electrical gradient is set up between that region and distant regions.

- membrane can be represented as an electrical circuit



- if a constant current is passed across the membrane so as to set up a potential difference (V_0), then voltage falls off exponentially with distance from the point at which current was applied.



- the distance over which the potential decreases to 37% of its maximum value is termed a space constant (λ) (sometimes termed length constant)

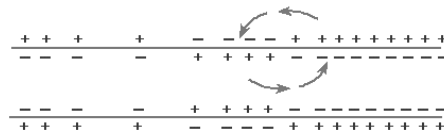
$$\lambda^2 = \frac{r_m}{r_o + r_i}$$

- if r_o considered much less than r_i

$$\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{r_m}{r_i}} \propto \sqrt{d}$$

- the higher r_m and the lower r_i , the further the signal spreads (i.e. larger λ - core becomes a better conductor and membrane a better insulator).

- current flows in local circuits in the axon due to the cable structure of the nerve (local circuit theory).



- action potential conducted along the axon as a wave of depolarisation as the local currents depolarise the membrane ahead of it.

- if the diameter and membrane properties of the axon are uniform, both the amplitude and conduction velocity of the action potential will be constant and behave in an all-or-none fashion.

- conduction of the action potential along the axon will be speeded up by an increase in λ , as the resting membrane will be triggered further ahead of the advancing impulse ($\lambda = \sqrt{d}$, therefore large axons conduct faster than smaller ones).

$$\text{conduction velocity } \varnothing = \frac{\lambda}{\tau}$$

τ = time constant

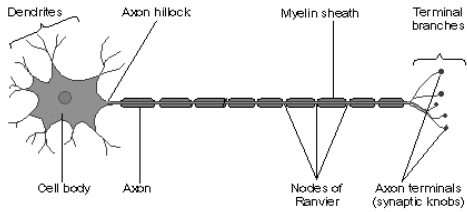
- If τ (the time for membrane to become depolarised) remains constant (depends on membrane capacitance, time for Na^+ to move through membrane i.e. sodium current density)

$$\varnothing = \lambda \propto \sqrt{d} \text{ in unmyelinated fibres}$$

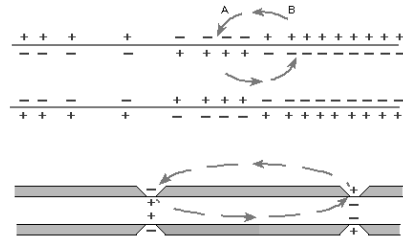
i.e. dependent on r_i (as $d \uparrow$, $r_i \downarrow$).

Myelinated axons

- most peripheral nerves in the mammal are surrounded by myelin (formed from Schwann cells).



- conduction along a myelinated axon is termed saltatory conduction, with action potentials occurring only at nodes.



- the myelin sheath has the effect of increasing r_m between nodes. (i.e. insulating the axon).

- has the effect of increasing λ without increasing τ

$$\lambda = \frac{r_m + r_{my}}{r_i}$$

- for myelinated axons $\lambda \propto d$

Extracellularly recorded action potentials



- the potential across the active membrane is reversed making the outside -ve with respect to the inside.

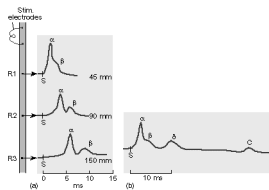
- biphasic action potential.

- conduction velocity $\lambda = \Delta l / \Delta t$

Compound action potential

- whole nerve trunk contains fibres of different diameter, spike durations and conduction velocities.

- if stimulate a nerve strongly enough to excite all fibres in it, extracellular recording contains several waves because of dispersion of the conducted action potentials with distance.



- there are three main groups of waves--> A, B and C.

- the A group is further subdivided into four groups --> $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$

- wide distribution in conduction velocity due to variation in fibre diameter (large fibres conduct faster than small fibres, A α fibres are the largest, A β the second largest etc.)

- with weak stimulus only A α excited, if slightly stronger, A α and A β excited and so on until all fibres in the nerve are excited.