



Lecture 2

Sherwood, Human Physiology Membrane Transport, Membrane Potential and Neural Communication (60-113)

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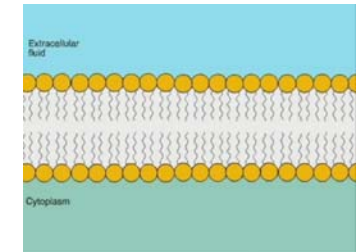
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Background Material Membrane Transport

- **Selective membrane permeability**
 - Lipid soluble substances (e.g. some vitamins) → high
 - Small substances (O₂, CO₂, etc) → high
 - Charged, ionic substances → none
 - Particles can also cross through substance-specific channels and carriers



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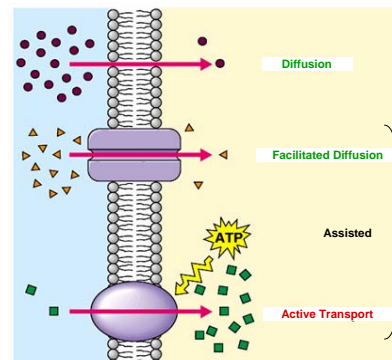
Background Material Membrane Transport

Unassisted vs. assisted transport

- Unassisted → permeable molecules can cross the membrane
- Assisted → impermeable molecules must be assisted by other proteins in order to cross the membrane

Energy expenditure

- **Passive** membrane transport
 - Due to forces that require no energy expenditure
 - Can be unassisted or assisted
- **Active** membrane transport
 - Require energy expenditure from the cell
 - Always assisted



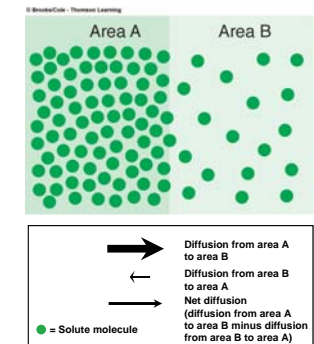
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Background Material Unassisted Membrane Transport

Unassisted transport due to

- Concentration gradient
- Electrical gradient
- **Diffusion down a concentration gradient**
 - Random motion of molecules
 - Net diffusion = net motion in direction of low concentration
 - Concentrations tends to equalize → steady state
 - E.g. O₂ transferred by diffusion
 - Lungs → Low concentration in blood, high in air
 - Tissue → Low concentration in tissue, high in blood



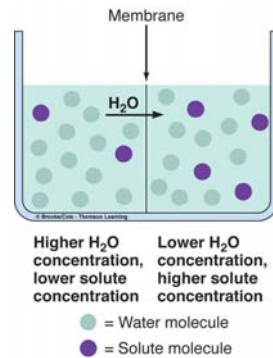
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Unassisted Membrane Transport

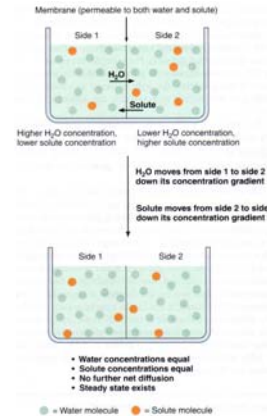
• Osmosis

- Net diffusion of water (either through membrane or through porins)
- Water flows to regions of lower water (i.e. higher solute) concentration → osmotic pressure
- Tends to equalize the concentrations

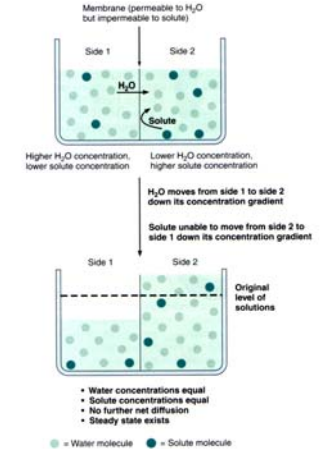


Unassisted Membrane Transport

• Unequal volumes of a penetrating solute

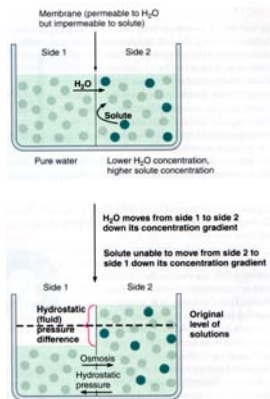


• Unequal volumes of non-penetrating solute



Unassisted Membrane Transport

• Pure water from a non-penetrating solute



Water concentrations not equal
Solute concentrations not equal
Tendency for water to diffuse by osmosis into side 2 is exactly balanced by opposing tendency for hydrostatic pressure difference to push water into side 1
Osmosis ceases
• Opposing pressure necessary to completely stop osmosis is equal to osmotic pressure of solution

• Tonicity of a solution

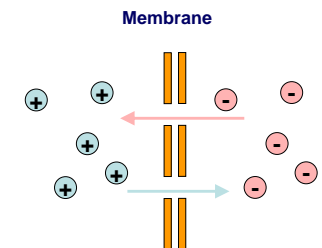
- Isotonic
 - Same concentration of non-penetrating solutes as the cell
 - No water movement by osmosis
 - Cell volume ~
- Hypotonic
 - Lower concentration of non-penetrating solutes
 - Water moves in the cell
 - Cell volume ↑
- Hypertonic
 - Higher concentration of non-penetrating solutes
 - Water moves out of the cell
 - Cell volume ↓



Unassisted Membrane Transport

• Diffusion down an electrical gradient

- Ions diffuse down electrical gradients → to opposite charge
- If electrical gradient exists across a membrane, permeable ions will diffuse passively



• Combination of concentration and charge

- Electrochemical gradient
- Tend to balance out (we will see this in action later)



Background Material

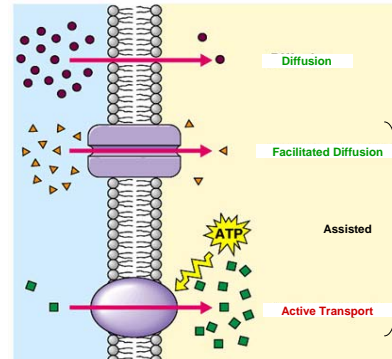
Assisted Membrane Transport

- Cells must be able to exchange larger molecules

- Glucose, aminoacids, waste, etc.

- Two types of assisted transport

- Carrier mediated transport
 - May be passive or active
 - Small molecules
- Vesicular transport
 - Always active
 - Very large molecules, particles



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Background Material

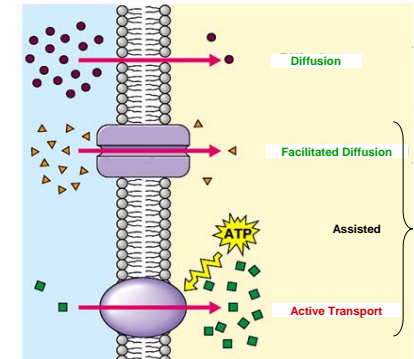
Assisted Membrane Transport

- Carrier mediated transport

- Carriers are proteins that span the membrane
- They change their shape to help molecules cross from one side to the other

- Three categories

- Facilitated diffusion
- Active transport
- Secondary active transport



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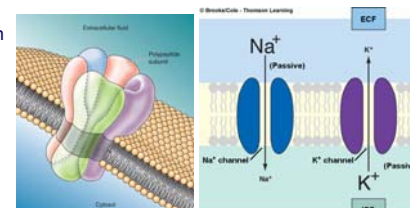
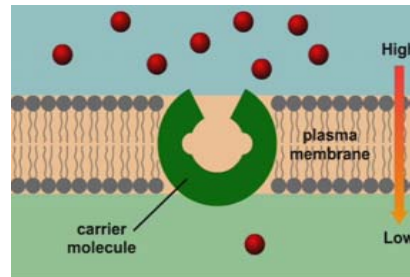


Background Material

Assisted Membrane Transport

- Facilitated Diffusion

- No energy expenditure
- Carrier Molecules
 - Move molecules down their concentration gradient
 - Unloading on the other side
 - E.g. glucose
 - High concentration side binding is more likely → Net movement in the direction of the concentration gradient
- Diffusion through channels
 - Membrane proteins form channels (water filled pores)
 - Diffusion of specific molecules through specific channels
 - E.g. Na⁺ or K⁺ channels
 - Diffusion down their electrochemical gradients (passive)
 - Can be gated (i.e. opened or closed) from external stimuli
 - Electrically gated
 - Chemically gated



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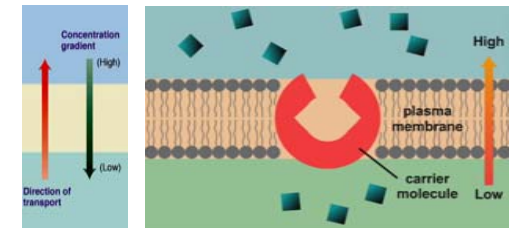


Background Material

Assisted Membrane Transport

- Active Transport

- Transport molecules against their concentration gradient
- Energy expenditure
- A.k.a. "ATPase pumps" or "pumps"
- On the low concentration side
 - High affinity sites bind solute
 - Conformation change → flip to the other side
- On high concentration side
 - Reduced affinity to the solute
 - Unload the solute and return to previous conformation



- Examples of active pumps

- H⁺-pump

- Transports H⁺ into stomach
- Against gradients of x 3-4.10⁶

- Na⁺-K⁺-pump

- All cells, 3xNa⁺ out, 2xK⁺ in
- Very important role!
 - Establish Na⁺ and K⁺ concentration gradients important for nerve and muscle function
 - Maintain cell volume by controlling solute regulation
 - Co-transport of glucose (see next)

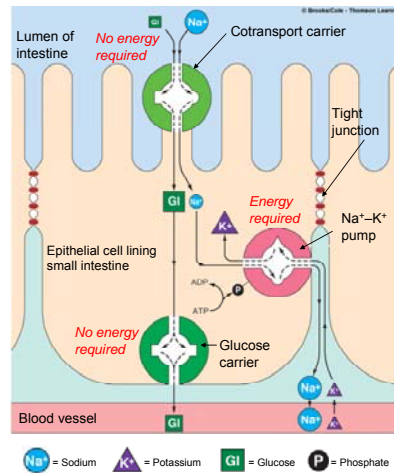
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Background Material Assisted Membrane Transport

• Secondary Active Transport

- Intestine and kidneys must transport glucose against its concentration gradient
- Cotransport carrier = Glucose + Na⁺
 - Cotransport uses Na⁺ gradient to push along glucose against its concentration gradient
- Na⁺-K⁺-pump maintains Na⁺ concentration gradient (ATP required)
- Energy required for the overall process → secondary active transport



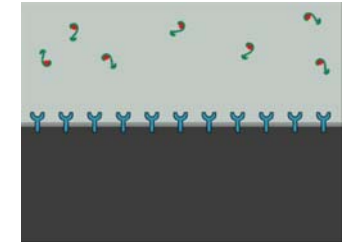
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Background Material Assisted Membrane Transport

• Vesicular Transport

- Endocytosis
 - Exocytosis
 - Opposite of endocytosis
- Slow process for larger particles (bacteria) or larger quantities (stored hormones)
- Membrane size must be maintained (added or retrieved)
- See table 3-2, p.74



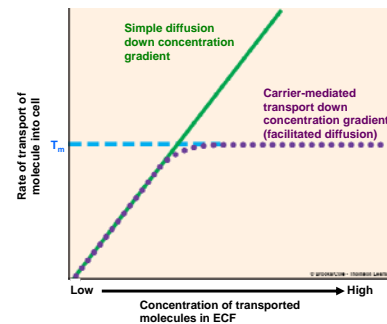
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Background Material Assisted Membrane Transport

• Important characteristics of carrier mediated transport

- Specificity
 - One or a few similar molecules
 - No crossing over
- Saturation
 - There is a maximum amount of substance a set of carriers can transport in a given time → Transport maximum (T_m)
 - Number of carriers can be upregulated (e.g. insulin → ↑ glucose carriers)
- Competition
 - If the carrier can transport more than one substance → competition between substances

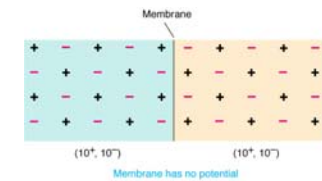


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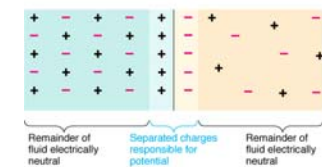


Membrane Potential

- Opposite charges attract and similar repel
- Membrane potential → opposite charges across the membrane

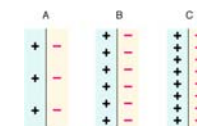


- Equal number of + and - on each side → electrically neutral
- Charges separated (more + on one side, more - on other) → electrical potential
- Measured in V
 - More charge → ↑ V



• Note:

- Only a very small number of charges is involved → majority of ECF and ICF are still neutral



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Membrane Potential

- All cells are electrically polarized
- Changes in membrane potential serve as signals (nerve & muscle)

Resting membrane potential

- Potential at steady state
- Primarily by Na⁺, K⁺, and A⁻ (negatively charged intracellular proteins)
- Note table 3-3
 - A⁻ found only in cells
 - Na⁺ and K⁺ can diffuse through channels (K⁺>Na⁺)
 - Concentration of Na⁺ and K⁺ maintained by Na⁺-K⁺-pump (most critical role)

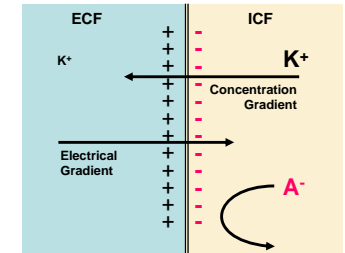
ION	Concentration (millimoles/liter)		Relative Permeability
	Extracellular	Intracellular	
Na ⁺	150	15	1
K ⁺	5	150	50-75
A ⁻	0	65	0



Membrane Potential

Resting membrane potential

- Effect of K⁺ alone
 - Assume no potential and only K⁺ and A⁻ present
 - K⁺ will tend to flow out
 - Net + charge in the ECF, net - charge in ICF
 - Potential opposes flow of K⁺
 - Forces balance → no net flow
 - Equilibrium → K⁺ equilibrium potential (calculated from Nerst equation)



$$E = \frac{61}{z} \log \frac{C_o}{C_i} \Rightarrow E_k = \frac{61}{1} \log \frac{5mM}{150mM} = -90mV$$

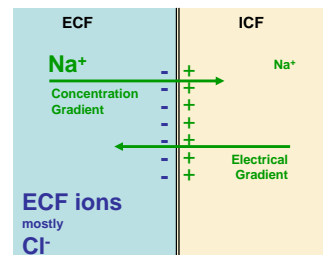
- Concentration does not significantly change since infinitesimal changes of K⁺ are enough to set up the potential



Membrane Potential

Resting membrane potential

- Effect of Na⁺ alone
 - Assume no potential and only Na⁺ and Cl⁻ present
 - Na⁺ will tend to flow in
 - Net + charge in the ICF, net - charge in ECF
 - Potential opposes flow of Na⁺
 - Forces balance → no net flow
 - Equilibrium → Na⁺ equilibrium potential (calculated from Nerst equation)



$$E = \frac{61}{z} \log \frac{C_o}{C_i} \Rightarrow E_k = \frac{61}{1} \log \frac{150mM}{15mM} = +60mV$$

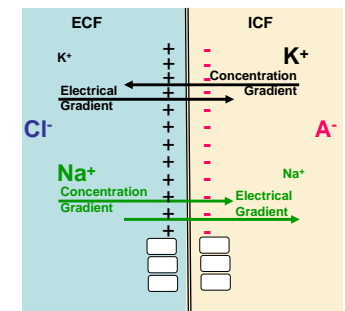
- Concentration does not significantly change since infinitesimal changes of Na⁺ are enough to set up the potential



Membrane Potential

Resting membrane potential

- Concurrent effects
 - Both K⁺ and Na⁺ present
 - The higher the permeability the greater the tendency to drive the membrane potential to its equilibrium value
 - Na⁺ neutralizes some of the K⁺ potential but not entirely
 - K⁺ permeability is much higher
 - Resting membrane potential = -70mV

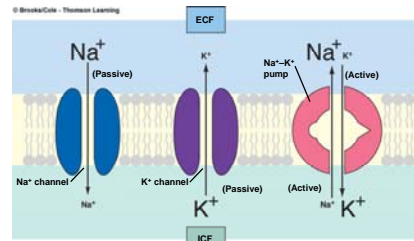




Membrane Potential

Balance of passive leaks and active pumping

- At -70 mV both K^+ and Na^+ continue to flow
- Na^+ - K^+ -pump maintains the concentrations
- Implication: cells need energy continuously just to maintain their membrane potential



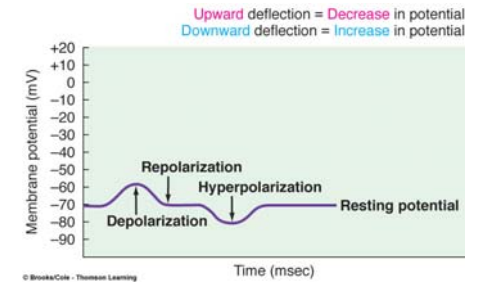
Excitable Tissues

Nerve and muscle are excitable tissue

- Change their membrane potential to produce electrical signals
- Neurons → messages
- Muscle → contraction

Membrane potential changes

- Polarization
 - When a potential (either + or -) exists across a membrane
- Depolarization
 - Reduction of the magnitude of potential (e.g. -70 mV → -50 mV)
- Repolarization
 - Return to resting potential
- Hyperpolarization
 - Increase in the magnitude of the potential (e.g. -70 mV → -90 mV)



Excitable Tissues

Changes are triggered by

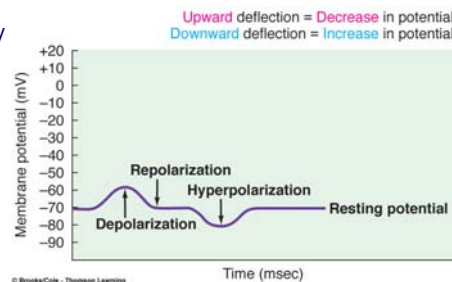
- Change of the local electrical field
- Interaction with chemical messenger and surface receptor
- Stimulus (e.g. sound, light, etc)
- Spontaneous change of potential by inherent ion leaks

Changes are caused by movement of ions

- Leak channels
 - Open all the time
- Gated channels
 - Can be open or closed (conformation change)
 - Types
 - Voltage gated
 - Chemically gated
 - Mechanically gated
 - Thermally gated

Electrical signals

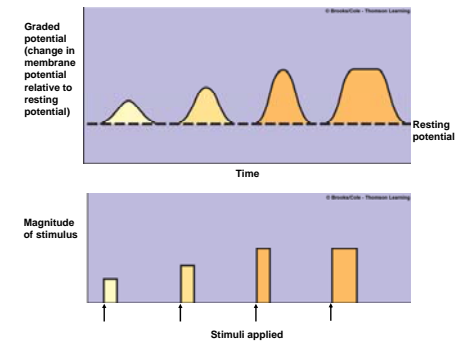
- Graded Potentials
- Action Potentials



Graded Potentials

Local changes in membrane potential

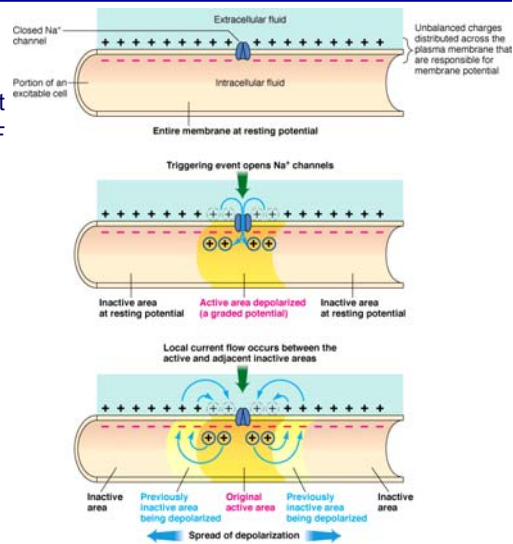
- Confined to a small area, the **Active Area**
- Remaining cell is still at resting potential (**Inactive Area**)
- Triggered by specific events
 - E.g. sensory stimuli, pacemaker potentials, etc
- Gated channels (usually Na^+ open)
- Magnitude and duration proportional to triggering event



Graded Potentials

Propagate to adjacent areas

- Movement of ions = current
- Current spreads in the ECF and ICF (low resistance) but not through the membrane (high resistance)
- Depolarizes adjacent regions
- Graded potentials propagate

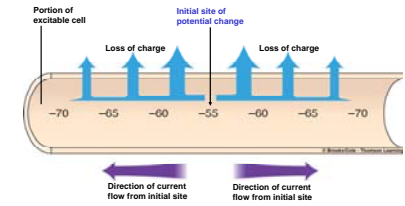


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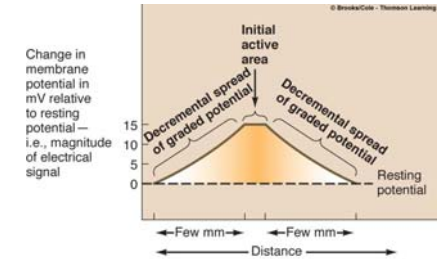
Graded Potentials

Graded potentials die out over short distances

- Loss of charge
- Magnitude decreases as it moves away from the point of origin
- Completely disappear with a few mm



* Numbers refer to the local potential in mV at various points along the membrane.

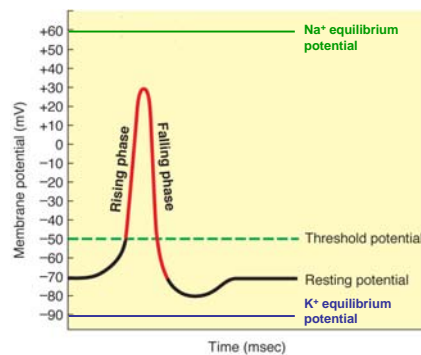


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Action Potentials

Large (~100 mV) changes in the membrane potential

- A.k.a *spikes*
- Can be initiated by graded potentials
- Unlike graded potentials action potentials propagate
- Transmit information

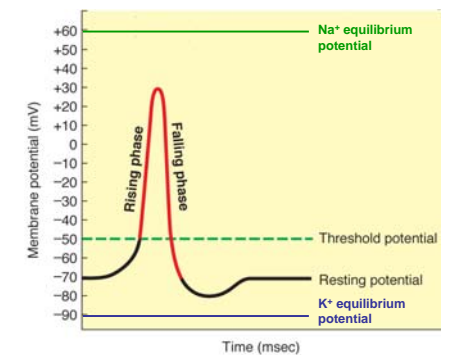


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Action Potentials

Changes during an action potential

- Gradual depolarization to threshold potential (-50 to -55 mV)
 - If not reached no action potential will occur
- Rapid depolarization (+30 mV)
 - Portion between 0 and 30 mV is called an *overshoot*
- Rapid repolarization leading to hyperpolarization (-80 mV)
- Resting potential restored (-70 mV)
- **Constant duration and amplitude for given cell type ("all-or-none")**
 - E.g. Nerves → 1 msec



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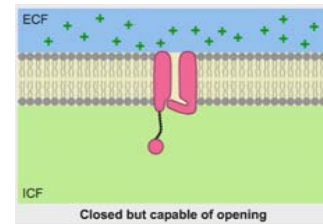


Action Potentials

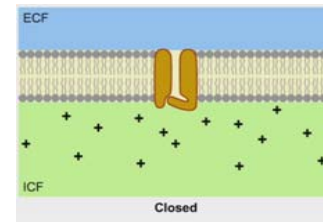
• APs are a result of changes in ion permeability

- Voltage-gated channels
 - Proteins which change conformation depending on potential
 - Allow passage of ions
 - Voltage-gated Na⁺ channels
 - Activation (immediate) and inactivation gates (delayed)
 - Voltage-gated K⁺ channels
 - Activation gate (delayed)

Voltage-gated Na⁺ channels

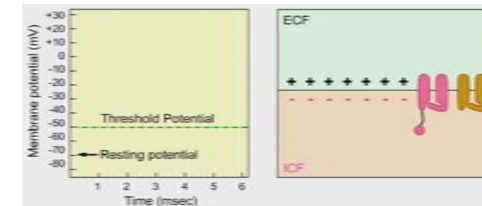
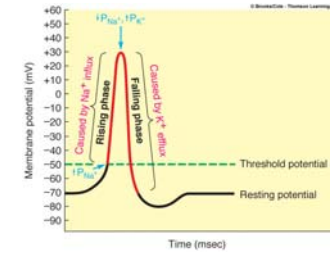


Voltage-gated K⁺ channels



Action Potentials

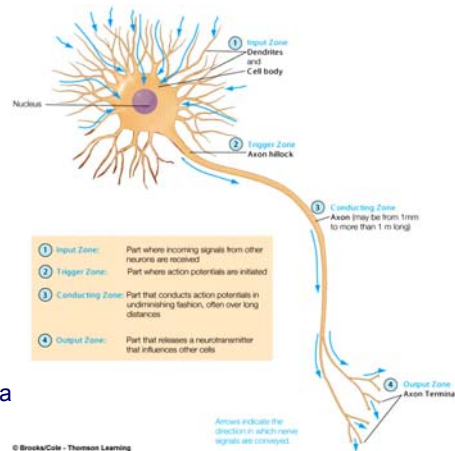
Time	Event	Potential
0 msec	Resting state All channels are closed Graded potential arrives Begins depolarization	-70 mV
2 msec	Threshold reached Activation gates of Na ⁺ channels open Activation gates of K ⁺ channels begin to open slowly Inactivation gates of Na ⁺ channels begin to close slowly	-50 mV
2.5 msec	Peak potential reached Inactivation gates of Na ⁺ channels are now closed Activation gates of K ⁺ channels are now open	30 mV
3.75 msec	Hyperpolarized state Activation gates of K ⁺ channels close	-80 mV
5 msec	Resting state Na ⁺ -K ⁺ -pump restores resting potential Na ⁺ channels are reset to close but active	-70 mV



Action Potentials

• Neuron structure

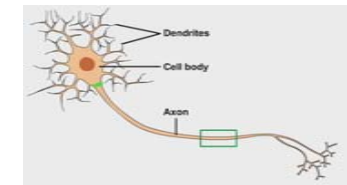
- Input Zone
 - Dendrites (up to 400 000)
 - Cell Body
 - Have receptors which receive chemical signals
- Conduction zone
 - Axon or nerve fiber (axon hillock to axon terminals) <1 mm to >1m
- Output zone
 - Axon terminal



Action Potentials

• AP Propagation

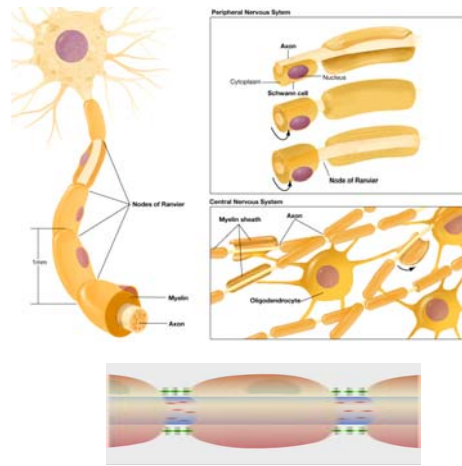
- APs initiated at the axon hillock
 - More voltage-gated channels → lower threshold
- Once initiated the AP travels the entire axon
 - Contiguous conduction
 - Saltatory conduction
- Contiguous conduction
 - Flow of ions → depolarization of adjacent area to threshold
 - As AP is initiated in adjacent area, the original AP is ending with repolarization
 - The AP itself does not travel, it is regenerated at successive locations (like "wave" in a stadium)





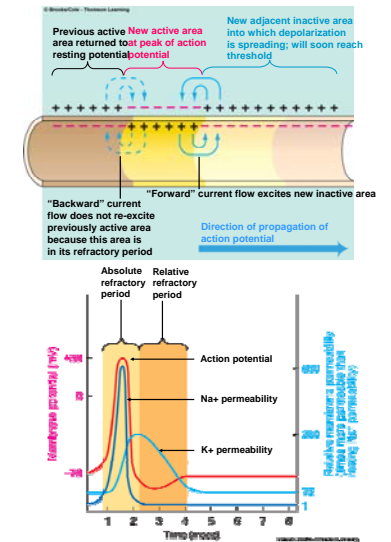
Action Potentials

- Saltatory Propagation
 - Some neurons are myelinated
 - Covered with myelin (lipid barrier)
 - Formed by oligodendrocytes (CNS) and Schwann cells (PNS)
 - No ion movement across myelinated areas
 - Nodes of Ranvier
 - Areas between myelin sheaths
 - Ions can flow → APs can form
 - Local current can generate AP at the next node
 - APs “jump” from node to node → information travels 50x faster, less work by pumps to maintain ion balance
 - Loss of myelin can cause serious problems
 - E.g. multiple sclerosis



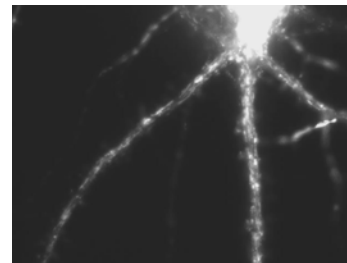
Action Potentials

- Refractory Period
 - APs do not travel backwards
 - Local currents do not regenerate an AP in the previously-active-now-inactive area
 - Certain time must pass before a second AP can be triggered → **refractory period**
 - Absolute refractory period
 - During an AP
 - No APs can be triggered
 - Relative refractory period
 - Na⁺ channels are mostly inactive
 - K⁺ channels are slow to close
 - After an AP → second AP can be triggered only by exceedingly strong signals
 - Refractory period sets an upper limit to the frequency of APs → ~2.5 KHz



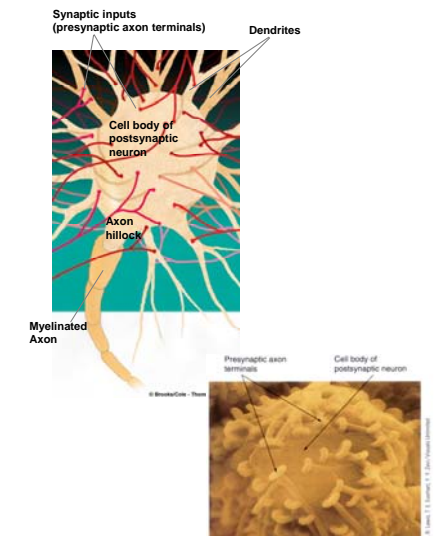
Action Potentials

- Characteristics of APs
 - How does strength vary?
 - Always the same! → All-or-None Law
 - Does not decrease during propagation
 - How are stronger stimuli recognized?
 - Faster generation of APs → ↑ Frequency
 - More neurons fire simultaneously
 - What determines the speed of APs?
 - Myelination
 - Neuron diameter (↑ diameter → ↓ Resistance to local current → ↑ Speed)
 - Large myelinated fibers: 120 m/sec (432 km/hr) → urgent information
 - Small unmyelinated fiber: 0.7 m/sec (2.5 km/hr) → slow-acting processes
 - Without myelin the diameter would have to be huge! (50 x larger)



Synapses and Integration

- A neuron innervates (terminates or supplies) on
 - Other neurons, Muscle, Gland
- Synapse
 - A junction between two neurons
 - Presynaptic neuron
 - Synaptic knob
 - Synaptic vesicles with neurotransmitter (chemical messenger molecule)
 - Synaptic Cleft
 - Postsynaptic neuron
 - Subsynaptic membrane
 - Most inputs on the dendrites
 - No direct ion flow → Chemical signaling
 - One-directional signaling

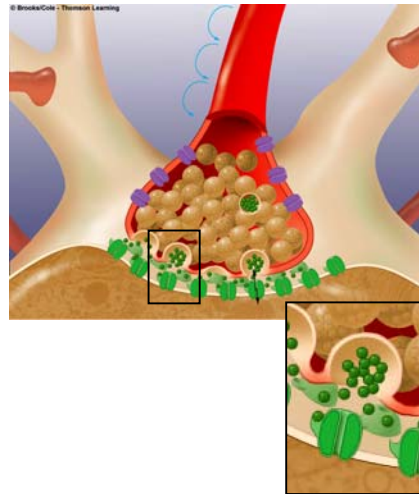




Synapses and Integration

Synaptic Signaling

- AP reaches the synaptic knob
- Voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels open
- Ca^{2+} flows into the synapse from the ECF
- Ca induces exocytosis of vesicles and release of neurotransmitter
- Neurotransmitter diffuses across the synaptic cleft to the subsynaptic membrane and binds to specific receptors
- Binding triggers opening of ion channels
 - Each neuron releases one specific neurotransmitter
 - Many different neurotransmitters exist
 - Cause permeability changes of different ions
 - Can be excitatory or inhibitory synapses



Synapses and Integration

Neurotransmitters and Receptors

- Variety of neurotransmitters
- Can bind to variety of receptors
- Each particular synapse releases one specific neurotransmitter (very rarely two)
- Each neurotransmitter-receptor combination produces the same response
 - Glutamate \rightarrow EPSPs in the brain
 - γ -Aminobutyric Acid (GABA) \rightarrow IPSPs in the brain
- Neurotransmitters combined with different receptors can produce different responses
 - Norepinephrine \rightarrow varied responses depending on receptor

Some Common Neurotransmitters	
Acetylcholine	Histamine
Dopamine	Glycine
Norepinephrine	Glutamate
Epinephrine	Aspartate
Serotonin	Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA)

Neurotransmitter clearing

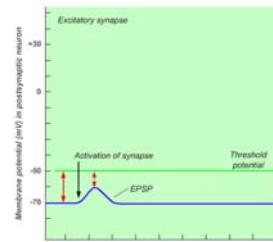
- Removal or inactivation to stop the end the signal
 - Inactivation by specific enzymes within the subsynaptic membrane
 - Reuptake back in the axon \rightarrow recycling



Synapses and Integration

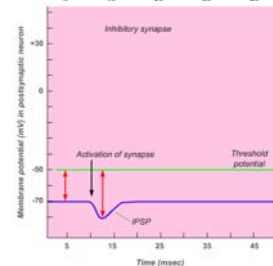
Excitatory Synapses

- Open non-specific cation channels (both Na^+ and K^+ can pass through)
- More Na^+ flows into the cell than K^+ flows out
 - Both the chemical and electrical gradients favor Na movement
- Net result \rightarrow **Excitatory Postsynaptic Potential** (a small depolarization)
- Usually one EPSP is not enough to trigger an AP
- Membrane is now more excitable



Inhibitory Synapses

- Different neurotransmitters
- Open either K^+ or Cl^- channels
- K^+ efflux or Cl^- influx \rightarrow **Inhibitory Postsynaptic Potential** (a small hyperpolarization)



Synaptic Delay

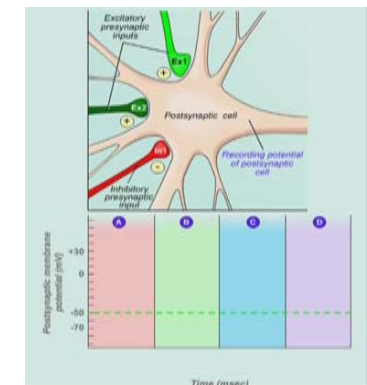
- 0.5 to 1 msec
- Travel through more synapses \rightarrow \uparrow Total reaction time



Synapses and Integration

Grand Postsynaptic Potential (GPSP)

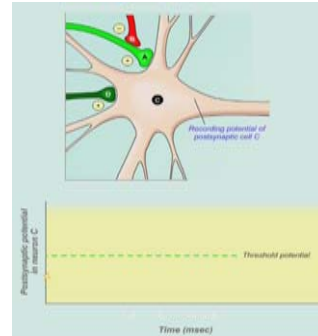
- EPSPs and IPSPs are graded potentials and can be summed
- About 50 EPSPs are required to initiate AP
- Temporal Summation
 - EPSPs occurring very close in time can be summed
 - E.g. repeated firing of pre-synaptic neuron because of a persistent input
- Spatial Summation
 - EPSPs from different adjacent synapses can be summed
- Concurrent EPSPs and IPSPs
 - Cancel each other (more or less) depending on amplitude and location





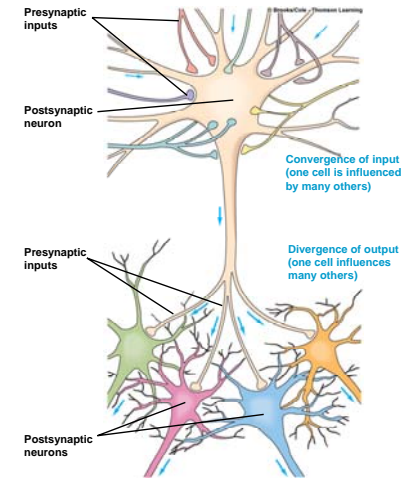
Synapses and Integration

- **Variation in synaptic activity**
 - Neuromodulation
 - Neuromodulators released by neuron
 - Large molecules which fine-tune a neuron's response
 - Change neurotransmitter production or release
 - Change number of receptors
 - Etc
 - Effect are long term (days, months or years)
 - Pre-synaptic inhibition or Pre-synaptic facilitation
 - Pre-synaptic terminal innervated by modulatory axon terminal
 - Modulatory neuron can inhibit or facilitate the action of a neuron
 - Changing amount of Ca²⁺ entering
 - Does not have any effect on the post-synaptic neuron



Synapses and Integration

- **Post-synaptic Integration**
 - APs are initiated depending on a combination of inputs
 - Neuron is a complex computational device
 - Synapses = inputs
 - Dendrites = processors
 - Axons/APs = output
 - Signaling and frequency of APs is a result of integration of information from different sources
 - Information not significant enough is not passed at all
 - Neurons are integrated into complex networks (10¹¹ neurons and 10¹⁴ synapses in the brain alone!)
 - Converging
 - Diverging

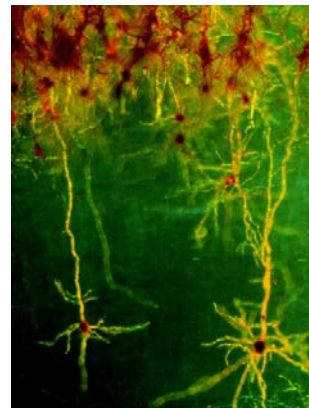


Arrows indicate direction in which information is being conveyed.



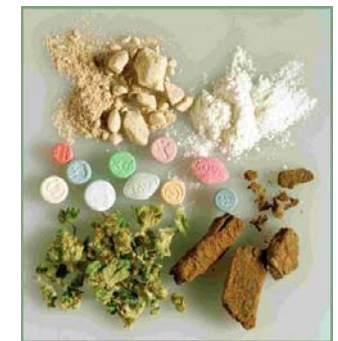
Synaptic Plasticity & Learning

- **Short- and long-term changes in synaptic function**
- **Posttetanic Potentiation**
 - Enhancement lasts up to 60 seconds
 - Accumulation of Ca²⁺
- **Habituation**
 - The stimulus gradually disappears
 - Decreased intracellular Ca²⁺
- **Sensitization**
 - Habituated response paired once or several times with a noxious stimulus
- **Long-Term Potentiation**
 - Rapidly developing persistent enhancement of the postsynaptic potential
 - plays a role in memory
- **Long-Term Depression**
 - LTD is the opposite of LTP



Synapses and Integration

- **Effects of drugs and diseases**
 - Drug actions may include
 - Altering the synthesis, axonal transport, storage, or release of a neurotransmitter
 - Modifying the neurotransmitter interaction with the postsynaptic receptor
 - Influence neurotransmitter reuptake or destruction
 - Replace a neurotransmitter with a substitute either more or less powerful
 - Examples
 - Cocaine → blocks reuptake of neurotransmitter dopamine → pleasure pathways remain "on"
 - Tetanus toxin → prevents release of inhibitory neurotransmitter GABA → muscle excitation unchecked → uncontrolled muscle spasms
 - Strychnine → blocks the receptor of inhibitory neurotransmitter glycine → convulsions, muscle spasticity





Next Lecture ...

Sherwood, Human Physiology

The Central Nervous System

(131-157, 163-166, 168-179)

Excluded: molecular mechanisms of memory, habituation,
potentiation, permanent synaptic connections, sleep