# COMPUTED ACTION POTENTIALS FOR PURKINJE FIBER MEMBRANES WITH RESISTANCE AND CAPACITANCE IN SERIES

## R. ERIC McALLISTER

From the University Laboratory of Physiology, Oxford, England. Dr. McAllister's present address is the Department of Physiology and Biophysics, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Canada.

ABSTRACT The Hodgkin-Huxley equations, as modified by Noble for computation of Purkinje fiber action potentials, have been solved numerically for a membrane whose equivalent circuit contains a constant resistance in series with part of the capacitance. The rates of depolarization and repolarization of the computed action potential have thereby been brought into agreement with measured values. Possible explanations of the frequently observed pre-plateau notch and of fibrillatory activity arise. The effects of <sup>a</sup> time-dependent K conductance dependent on the second power of the parameter *n*, instead of the fourth, have also been considered.

# INTRODUCTION

In 1962, Noble published a modified version of the Hodgkin and Huxley (1952) equations which produced action potentials similar to those recorded from cardiac Purkinje fibers, and which could account for many of the changes in action potential shape found when stimulation rates or ionic concentrations were altered. He assumed an equivalent circuit for the membrane similar to the one employed by Hodgkin and Huxley (a pure capacitance in parallel with one  $emf + conductance$ path for each ion species contributing to the electrical behavior), except that the potassium ion conductance was divided into two parts (a time- and voltage-dependent outward rectifier, and an instantaneously voltage-dependent inward rectifier). Since then, experimental evidence has been obtained both for skeletal muscle (Falk and Fatt, 1964) and for cardiac muscle (Fozzard, 1966) which indicates that a considerable fraction of the membrane capacitance is not "pure," but has a significant resistance in series with it. Fozzard found that of a total Purkinje fiber capacitance of 9.4  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup>, 7  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> was in series with a resistance of 300  $\Omega$  cm<sup>2</sup>. Apparently, then, the electrical equivalent circuit of the membrane must be modified; effects of this modification on the form of the computed action potential will be discussed in this paper.

## THE EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT

Many different circuits which could account for the experimental measurements can be devised, and selection of a suitable one depends upon both morphological and practical considerations. Fig. <sup>1</sup> A illustrates the simplest acceptable one, which has already been used in the analysis of membrane impedance data (Falk and Fatt, 1964; Fozzard, 1966), and which is used for the computations of this study. It has been suggested that  $C<sub>s</sub>$  arises in the walls of the tubules forming the sarcoplasmic reticulum, R. being the resistance of the current path via the tubules to the cell surface. In reality, if  $C<sub>s</sub>$  is the capacitance of a membrane, there will also be some "leakage" resistance  $R_p$  in parallel with  $C_s$ ; in this case, when experimental data is analyzed in terms of the circuit of Fig. 1 A, then  $R_m$ ,  $R_s$ , and  $C_s$  will be in error by an amount dependent on  $R_p$ . (This can be verified by equating the Laplace transform expressions for the impedances of the two circuits. Note that  $R_m$  is itself



FiGuRE <sup>1</sup> A. Simplified equivalent membrane circuit. B. Equivalent electrical circuit representing the cardiac muscle membrane. "Leakage" currents would flow through the branch on the right; other elements of the circuit are described in the text.

an equivalent, replacing all the ionic conductances of Fig. 1 B.) If  $R_p$  is very large, it has little effect on the size of the components of Fig. 1  $\Lambda$ , and may be completely ignored. If  $R_p$  is not large but constant, then  $R_s$  and  $C_s$  will be constant but  $R_s$ will appear larger and  $C_s$  smaller than their true values. Finally, if  $R_p$  is neither large nor constant, then  $R_m$ ,  $C_s$ , and  $R_s$  will all fluctuate together with  $R_p$ .

Theoretical considerations concerning the properties of cell membranes suggest an upper limit for the capacitance of  $1-2 \mu F/cm^2$  (e.g. Fozzard, 1966); the higher values reported for muscle are therefore presumed to arise from additional membranes, usually of the sarcoplasmic reticulum, which may have a total area several times greater than the surface of the cell. If  $R_p$  is not large, the necessary ratio of

additional membrane area to surface membrane area becomes even larger; if there is an upper limit to this ratio, there must also be a lower limit to  $R_p$ .

In the particular case of cardiac Purkinje fibers, the sarcoplasmic reticulum is poorly developed (Muir, 1957; Sommer and Johnson, 1968); therefore the series resistance and capacitance observed by Fozzard is apparently a product of surface membranes. Two possible sources of this are  $(a)$  the cell membranes bounding the intercellular spaces within the fiber (intrafiber surface membranes), and  $(b)$  the intercalated disc.

Estimates of the width of the intercellular space vary from 13  $m\mu$  (Muir, 1965) to 20–30 m $\mu$  (Sommer and Johnson, 1968); the resistance of a path via this space to the surface of the fiber would correspond to  $R<sub>a</sub>$ . There are 1-6 chains of roughly cylindrical cells in a sheep Purkinje fiber (Muir, 1957), and, assuming a very large resistance for intrafiber surface membranes, it is conceivable that the ratio of intrafiber to exterior surface membrane areas accounts for the observed  $C_{s}/C_{m}$  ratio. However, there is no reason to suppose a different construction for this intrafiber part of the sarcolemma; and if the resistance  $R_p$  is of the same order of magnitude as in the normal sarcolemma, the required membrane area ratio increases considerably. Also, the leakage of K ions via any low-resistance path would probably cause some accumulation in the intercellular space and further diminish the membrane resistance; such accumulation effects have already been seen affecting the whole fiber (McAllister and Noble, 1966). (It is possible that the normal intercellular K concentration is high enough to remove any excitability of the adjacent membranes but keep them highly conductive to action currents, thus contributing to the syncytial nature of Purkinje fibers.) Therefore, this source seems rather unlikely, though it cannot as yet be excluded.

There are some grounds for belief that the intercalated disc membranes differ from the normal sarcolemma both histologically (and therefore possibly in capacitance: Caesar, Edwards, and Ruska, 1958) and physiologically. The well-known phenomenon of "healing-over" appears to occur here in the presence of calcium ions from the extracellular medium (Délèze, 1965; see also Weidmann, 1967), membrane resistance thus being sharply increased. Such healing-over would give rise to a high  $R_p$ ; Ca ions may exist in the spaces between intercalated disc membranes of adjacent cells (except where the membrane fuse or form desmosomes, when they appear to acquire high conductivity to action currents: Barr, Dewey, and Berger, 1965), and the resistance of these spaces would correspond to  $R<sub>s</sub>$ . In this case (i.e. with high  $R_p$ ), the  $C_s$  and  $R_s$  values of Fozzard would not require correction. Otherwise, it is possible that the disc membrane is normally a highresistance one, except at specialized junctions, and that the healing-over effect is not involved. Once again, definite information on membrane areas is lacking; however, the disc membrane appears to follow a step-wise course across the cell, so that its area is certainly considerably larger than that of a simple cross-section of the cell.

The computations of this paper are based on the circuit of Fig. <sup>1</sup> B, assuming constant values for  $R_s$  and  $C_s$ . Any resistance in parallel with  $C_s$  is assumed to be very large at all times, and has therefore been neglected. Providing it is not time dependent, however, a low  $R_p$  would affect only the conversion factor between experimental  $R_s$  and  $C_s$  measurements and actual values, and the results presented here would still be relevant.

#### METHODS

The equations used were essentially those of Noble (1962). The time-dependent potassium and sodium conductances are generated by parameters obeying the same first-order differential equation that describes a very simple chemical reaction:

$$
\frac{dx}{dt} = \alpha_x (1 - x) - \beta_x x. \tag{1}
$$

The rate constants  $\alpha_x$  and  $\beta_x$  are empirical, voltage-dependent functions; three different pairs generate solutions of equation 1 for the three conductance parameters  $n$ ,  $m$ , and  $h$ <sup>1</sup>. The conductances are then given by

$$
g_{K2} = An^{\gamma} \quad \text{and} \quad g_{Na} = 400 \; m^3 h + 0.14. \tag{2}
$$

The other (instantaneous) component of the potassium conductance,  $g_{K1}$ , is given by an empirical function of the driving force for K ions. The electrical behavior of the membrane circuit is then described by

$$
I_m = C_m \frac{dE_m}{dt} + (g_{K1} + g_{K2})(E_m - E_K) + g_{Na}(E_m - E_{Na}), \qquad (3)
$$

where  $I_m$  is the total current flowing across the membrane,  $E_m$  is membrane potential, and  $E_K$  and  $E_{Na}$  are the potassium and sodium equilibrium potentials, respectively. Other ionic ("leakage") currents have been neglected, although their effects were investigated in Noble's analysis. In the case to be considered here, the membrane is assumed to be uniformly polarized and therefore  $I_m$  is zero; this situation is a valid approximation for short cardiac Purkinje fibers (Deck, Kern, and Trautwein, 1964).

The equation to be solved for the circuit of Fig.  $1 \, B$  is similar to equation 3, except that there are additional terms on the right side describing the current through the series resistancecapacitance (series- $RC$ ) branch. It is assumed that during each small time interval, the membrane potential changes at a constant rate; in practice the time steps are chosen small enough to validate this approximation. Then, if  $R_s$  and  $C_s$  are the resistance and capacitance in series and  $I<sub>s</sub>$  is the current through  $R<sub>s</sub>$  at the beginning of the step, equation 3 leads to

$$
I_m = [C_m + C_s(1 - \exp(-t/R_sC_s))] \frac{dE_m}{dt} + (g_{\text{K1}} + g_{\text{K2}})(E_m - E_{\text{K}}) + g_{\text{NA}}(E_m - E_{\text{Na}}) + I_s \exp(-t/R_sC_s).
$$
 (4)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These expressions are based on the original Hodgkin-Huxley ones, but it must be mentioned that they are as yet not so well-founded. Noble made certain assumptions regarding the time constants of  $g_{K2}$ , and after accepting Weidmann's data on h, he adjusted m so as to provide repetitive action potentials (hence the empirical constants in the expression for  $g_{\text{Na}}$ ); his justification was the similarity between the computed results and experimental ones, under many different conditions.

Numerical integration of equation 4 was performed using the Runge-Kutta method, whereby four different approximations for the value of  $E<sub>m</sub>$  are calculated for each step and a weighted mean is taken. Analytical solutions were used for equation 1; the value of  $x$  at the end of the step is found by assuming that  $\alpha_x$  and  $\beta_x$  are constant over one step length. Thus,

$$
x = x_{\infty} - (x_{\infty} - x_0) \exp(-t/\tau_x), \tag{5}
$$

where  $\tau_x = (\alpha_x + \beta_x)^{-1}$  and  $x_\infty = \alpha_x \tau_x$ ,

and  $x_0$  is the value of x at the beginning of the step. This method of computing the conductance parameters  $n$ ,  $m$ , and  $h$  affords a considerable saving in computation time, and does not impair the accuracy of the solution. It has been tested by recomputing Noble's action potential; his numerical results were available, and did not differ to any significant degree from the new ones. At the beginning of a computation, an initial value of  $I<sub>s</sub>$  is required. This was usually chosen by multiplying the rate of change of membrane potential in a slowlychanging part of the diastolic depolarization phase by the value of  $C_s$ ; i.e., by assuming  $I_s$ had reached its steady-state value for an applied slowly-changing ramp voltage. When the new value of  $E<sub>m</sub>$  at the end of the step was found, the average  $dE<sub>m</sub>/dt$  over this step was also calculated; the new value of  $I<sub>s</sub>$  was found from the expression

$$
I_s' = C_s \frac{dE_m}{dt} [1 - \exp(-dt/R_sC_s)] + I_s \exp(-dt/R_sC_s), \qquad (6)
$$

which gives the current at the end of a time step dt when  $dE_m/dt$  is constant during the step.

The stages in the computation were as follows: (a) Initial values of  $E_m$ , t, conductances, and control variables supplied. (b) Parameters dependent only on  $E_m$  (those corresponding to  $\alpha_x$ ,  $\beta_x$ ,  $\tau_x$ ,  $x_{\infty}$ , and also  $g_{K1}$ ) calculated. (c) New values of n, m, h,  $g_{Na}$ , and  $g_{K2}$  calculated. (d) Using equation 4 with  $I_m = 0$  and step length zero, first extrapolation to  $E_m$  performed. (e) Steps 2 and 4 repeated for this new value of  $E_m$  and step length  $dt/2$ , yielding a second approximation of  $E_m$ . (f) Steps 2 and 4 repeated for this second value of  $E_m$  and step length  $dt/2$ , yielding a third approximation of  $E_m$ . (g) Steps 2 and 4 repeated for this third value of  $E<sub>m</sub>$  and step length dt, yielding a fourth approximation of  $E_m$ . (h) Weighted mean of the approximations of  $E_m$  taken, to obtain a final new value of  $E_m$ . (i) New value of  $I_s$  computed, from equation 6. (i) Time advanced one step and control returned to step 2. This cycle was repeated until the required time interval was covered. The length of the time step dt was automatically varied, according to the rates of change of the time-dependent variables; it typically ranged between 30  $\mu$ sec and 1 msec.

Programs were written in Algol for the KDF-9 digital computer (manufactured by English Electric-Leo-Marconi Computers Ltd., Kidsgrove, Stoke-on-Trent, England) of the University Computing Laboratory, Oxford, which has a  $6 \mu$ sec cycle time. One complete action potential could be computed in about 6 min, using a store not exceeding 6000 48-bit words.

## RESULTS

The exponent of  $n$  in the first of equations 2 was usually chosen to be 4 in accordance with Noble (1962); in this case, A also had Noble's value of 1.2. However, results with  $\gamma = 2$  will be described later.

Noble used as the value of the (assumed) pure membrane capacitance 12  $\mu$ F/ cm2, which is about the value determined by Weidmann (1952) for Purkinje fibers.



FIGURE 2 Computed cardiac action potentials, with  $g_{K2} = 1.2 n^4$  and a series-RC element in the membrane. Starting potential is  $-80$  mv in every case. Pure capacitance  $(C_m)$ , series capacitance ( $C_s$ ), and a series resistance ( $R_s$ ) are indicated above each AP, in  $\mu F/cm^2$  and  $k\Omega$  cm<sup>2</sup>.

 $A$  and  $B$  of Fig. 2 show the effect on the computed action potential (AP) of reducing  $C_m$  to 9.4  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup>, one of Fozzard's measured values. The maximum rate of depolarization during the spike increased, while the overshoot increased by 10 mv; AP frequency increased about 5%. However, the shape of the AP is very similar, and not unlike many which have been recorded in experiments. The rest of Fig. 2

shows the effects of placing part of the membrane capacitance in series with a resistance. In C, the values calculated by Fozzard from Purkinje fiber experiments have been used:  $7 \mu \text{F/cm}^2$  is in series with 300  $\Omega$  cm<sup>2</sup>, and 2.4  $\mu \text{F/cm}^2$  has no series resistance. The shape of the AP is practically unchanged, except in one notable respect: the spike is sharper and of shorter duration, with a maximum rate of depolarization of 286 v/sec (compared with 97.3 v/sec for the pure-capacitance-only case). The AP frequency is increased about 1.5%. The time constant  $(R_sC_s)$  of the series-RC element is 2.1 msec, so that the potential on  $C_s$  can lag appreciably behind that on  $C_m$  if the latter potential is changing rapidly; in this case, when the peak overshoot potential is reached,  $C<sub>s</sub>$  is charged only to  $-40$  mv and is therefore drawing a considerable current. (The current drawn by  $C<sub>s</sub>$  is given by the difference in potentials on  $C_m$  and  $C_s$ , divided by  $R_s$ .) This current load slows the rate of depolarization, since less current is available to charge  $C_m$ ; but  $C_m$  is much smaller than the 9.4  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> of Fig. 2 B, so that despite the reduced current the capacitance is charged more quickly.

Depolarization is brought about by a rapid increase in  $g_{\text{Na}}$ , accountable almost entirely to an increase in the conductance parameter  $m$  which occurs with a time constant of 0.1–0.2 msec over the range  $-80$  to  $+35$  mv; by the time the peak overshoot is reached, m is within  $1\%$  of its steady-state value at that level. The potential would undergo a further slight increase as  $C<sub>s</sub>$  is charged to the same potential and  $I<sub>s</sub>$  disappears, except that the inward (Na) current is so reduced by the fall in electrochemical potential gradient that it cannot supply the required charging current; therefore current is drawn from  $C_m$ , and repolarization begins even before the net ionic current (the algebraic sum of those through  $g_{\text{Na}}$ ,  $g_{\text{K1}}$ , and  $g_{K2}$ ) reverses in sign. This cannot occur if none of the membrane capacitance is in series with a resistance. At the same time but at a slower rate, the parameter  $h$  is declining toward its very small steady-state value at the peak potential, so the inward current will decline with time nevertheless and cause repolarization; the time constant for changes in h varies from 8 msec at  $-80$  mv to 1 msec at  $+35$  mv. The two important points to note at this stage of the analysis are, then,  $(a)$  the rate of depolarization is increased when  $C_m$  or  $C_s$  is decreased or when  $R_s$  is increased; and  $(b)$  repolarization begins earlier when the charging current  $I<sub>s</sub>$  is greater at the peak of the spike. Condition  $b$  will be satisfied when  $C<sub>s</sub>$  is made larger for a given  $C_m$  and  $R_s$ : compare Figs. 2 C and 2 D, computed for capacitances of 7 and 10.4  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> in series with 300  $\Omega$  cm<sup>2</sup>. It will also be satisfied when R<sub>s</sub> is large enough to allow a fast rate of depolarization and slow rate of charging  $C_s$ , but also small enough to allow a substantial  $I<sub>s</sub>$  to flow when potential on  $C<sub>s</sub>$  lags behind  $E<sub>m</sub>$ . Clearly, then, there will be an optimal value of  $R_s$  giving the earliest repolarization for given  $C_m$  and  $C_s$ ; in Figs. 2 C, 2 E, and 2 F, all with the same capacitances, the widths of the spike at the  $+20$  mv level are respectively, 4.67 msec ( $R_s = 300$ ), 4.04 msec ( $R_s = 700$ ), and 4.95 msec ( $R_s = 3000 \Omega \text{ cm}^2$ ).

Once the repolarization has begun, its rate will be controlled by the interrelation between  $I_s$  and the net ionic current; it will cease when these are equal. Without <sup>a</sup> series-RC element, <sup>a</sup> balance between the inward Na current and the outward K current arises near the 0 mv level because of the changes in  $g_{N_a}$  and the driving forces for K and Na ions, and <sup>a</sup> "plateau" begins. With <sup>a</sup> series-RC element, however, the repolarization ceases when a balance between the currents is reached such that  $I^s + I^k + I^{Na} = 0$ . Even during the briefest spikes, h declines to a level below its steady level at 0 mv. If the repolarization occurs slowly, it will remain near its steady-state value thereafter; however, if the repolarization is rapid, it may still be significantly below its steady-state value when the plateau level is reached. In such case,  $I_s$  decreases as  $C_s$  is charged nearer the plateau level, as usual; but in addition,  $I_{\text{Na}}$  increases with a time constant of about 1 msec as h rises towards its steady-state value. Thus there arises the possibility of <sup>a</sup> significant alteration in AP shape: the appearance of a "notch" between the spike and the plateau. The delayed increase in  $I_{\text{Na}}$  means a decrease in the net outward ionic current. Both this and the normal decrease of  $I_s$  will tend to slow the rate of repolarization, and if their sum is sufficiently great a secondary depolarization can occur.

As mentioned above,  $I_{\text{Na}}$  will increase with a time constant of about 1 msec. This must be much faster than the decrease in  $I<sub>s</sub>$ , for if the series-RC element had such a short time constant  $C_8$  would be practically fully-charged by the time the repolarization to the plateau is complete, and  $I<sub>s</sub>$  would be zero. Thus it is clear that the controlling factor in the generation of the notch is  $h_i$ ; it certainly will not have a nonsteady value at the beginning of the plateau, however, unless the repolarization to that level is hastened by a series-RC element.

Figs. 2 E, 3 A, and 3 B show computed AP's with a notch which grows deeper as the series-RC time constant approaches 20 msec. Fig. 4 shows the changes in the sodium current during the notch of Fig.  $3 B$ , on a much-increased time scale; the changes in  $I<sub>k</sub>$  and  $I<sub>K</sub>$  during this time are relatively slight. If  $R<sub>i</sub>$  is increased somewhat further, the peak of the effect is reached, beyond which it begins to decline;  $I<sub>s</sub>$  is reduced and the repolarization from the peak potential occurs more slowly, allowing  $h$  to approach its steady state more closely. The limit for large  $R_s$  is the case for which  $I_s = 0$ , i.e. when  $C_m$  is 2.4  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> but  $C_s$  and  $R_s$  are omitted; the highest possible rate of depolarization (393 v/sec) is attained, and only a slight trace of a notch remains (Fig.  $3 D$ ). With this low membrane capacitance, even the final repolarization to the resting level is very rapid, and the AP assumes a very rectangular appearance. The AP of Fig.  $3 C$  is practically identical to that of Fig. 3 D; the product  $R_sC_s$  has been kept the same as for the AP with the greatest notch, Fig. 3 B, but  $C_s$  was reduced and  $R_s$  increased. This indicates the importance of a large  $I_s$ , prevented here by the large  $R_s$ , in causing the rapid repolarization and hence the notch.

If the capacitance  $C_s$  is increased from 7 to 10.4  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> and the other elements are as for Fig. 3 B, another interesting result is obtained (Fig. 3  $E$ ): a repetitive



FIGURE 3 Computed cardiac action potentials. Starting potential is  $-80$  mv in every case, but in E only the steady-state configuration is shown. The values above each AP give  $C_m$ ,  $C_s$ , and  $R_s$  in  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> and k $\Omega$  cm<sup>2</sup>.

train of six spikes of varying amplitude and a seventh one followed by a short notched AP. The notch after each of the first six spikes is apparently deep enough to cause all-or-nothing repolarization (Hall and Noble, 1963). This configuration only occurs after  $g_{K2}$  has been increased, as during the plateau of a normal AP;



FIGURE 4 Events during the notch in the AP of Fig. 3 B. Upper solid curve is  $E_m$ . Lower curves: sodium and potassium currents, and current drawn by  $C<sub>s</sub>$ . The time scale is greatly expanded. Only  $I_{\text{Na}}$  (of which the negative has been plotted) varies considerably during the notch, principally because of changes in h.

once  $g_{K2}$  is sufficiently high, spike-like action potentials as computed by Noble (1962; see his Fig. 13, curve a) for a membrane with high  $g<sub>K</sub>$  occur. In the present case, after the plateau of the short notched AP,  $g_{K2}$  declines during the next six spikes because the positive excursions are of too little duration to cause a net increase. At the same time, however,  $C<sub>s</sub>$  is discharging from its high potential of  $-19$  mv reached during the plateau; as it does so it provides progressively less depolarizing current, and the maximum diastolic potential rises after each of the first three spikes. Then, the continued decline in  $g_{K2}$  takes precedence and maximum diastolic potential falls again, until  $g_{K2}$  becomes so low that there is insufficient repolarizing current after a spike to turn the notch into a complete repolarization, and another plateau occurs. The cycle then repeats, and in this way Noble's spikelike AP's become repetitive. (Damped oscillations of h about its steady-state level occur early in the plateaux of this figure, because the rise in  $h$  towards its plateau level carries the membrane potential far enough to establish a new and lower steadystate level, etc.) If  $C_m$  is made smaller, the same process appears to occur, but at a much higher frequency because of the slight current needed to change the potential



FIGURE 5 Computed cardiac action potentials. A.  $g_{K2} = 1.2 n^4$  and  $C_m = 12 \mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup>. B.  $g_{K2} = 0.6 n^2$  and  $C_m = 12 \mu F/cm^2$ . C.  $g_{K2} = 0.6 n^2$  and  $C_m = 9.4 \mu F/cm^2$ . The starting potential is  $-80$  mv in each case.

on  $C_m$ . Sixteen spikes have been computed in 200 msec this way when  $C_m$  is only 0.1  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup>, their envelope appearing much like that of the first three spikes in Fig. 3 E; however, step lengths of integration as low as 5  $\mu$ sec were needed, and too much computer time was required for this computation to be extended to cover the whole steady-state configuration. Obviously, though, at least some of the membrane capacitance must not have a resistance in series with it, if the Hodgkin-Huxley model is valid.

The results of recent voltage-clamp experiments on short Purkinje fibers (McAllis-

ter and Noble, 1966 a, b) have suggested that the exponent of n in equation 2 is at least as low as 2. Using this value, some of the computations above have been repeated. A value of 0.6 was required for A, in order to keep  $g_{K2}$  to a satisfactory amplitude; lower values than this prevented repolarization from the plateau, and higher values decreased the AP frequency and shortened the AP duration. Fig. <sup>5</sup> compares the effects of 4th and 2nd powers of  $n$ , and also in the latter case of decreasing the membrane capacitance from Weidmann's (1952) value of  $12 \mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup> to 9.4  $\mu$ F/cm<sup>2</sup>, a total value measured by Fozzard (1966). The lowest value of A which would permit repolarization after the plateau also caused the highest firing frequency, and this was increased further when  $C_m$  was decreased. However, it is apparent that when the exponent of  $n$  is changed, the same frequency of firing cannot be reproduced without altering some other conductance parameter. Altering the magnitude of  $g_{K1}$  would probably be the simplest solution, until more voltageclamp data is available to suggest a better one. The difference in frequency apart, there seems little reason for preferring a 4th power of n relation, if a 2nd power relation is indicated by experimental data. Also, the slower rate of firing connected with an  $n^2$  relation is by no means an unphysiological one.

# **DISCUSSION**

The finding that the rate of depolarization during the spike is increased when part of the membrane capacitance is in series with a resistance-and in particular that, when the configuration is as measured by Fozzard, the maximum rate of depolarization is near the range found by Weidmann-eliminates the main discrepancy between Noble's computed AP and that found in experiments. Noble (1962) suggested that such a membrane circuit could overcome the difficulty, but had only the measurements from skeletal muscle with which to speculate. Another difference between his computed AP and the recorded ones was in the rate of repolarization after the peak overshoot; the reduced pure capacitance in the membrane could account for this, as could a delayed fall in  $g_{\text{KL}}$  which he postulated might also account for the notch sometimes seen before the plateau. It has now been shown that the notch is a logical result of the equations when a series-RC circuit is considered, even when changes in  $g_{K1}$  are (as usual) considered instantaneous.

The notch or hump early in the plateau has been recorded by almost every investigator of Purkinje fiber electrophysiology at some time. (Records of notched AP's are reproduced in: Draper and Weidmann, 1951; Trautwein, Gottstein, and Dudel, 1954; Hoffman and Cranefield, 1960; Carmeliet, 1961; Johnson and Tille, 1961; Deck and Trautwein, 1964; Moore, Preston, and Moe, 1965; Vassalle, 1966; Temte and Davis, 1967.) Fozzard (1966), however, did not show such a notch or mention recording it; possibly, therefore, the series resistance and capacitance measured in his experiments were not the same as would be found for fibers showing a notched AP. If the resistance  $R<sub>s</sub>$  were only twice the value found by him, a notch

might occur; higher values of  $R_s$  would make a notch even more likely, and would not seem to be "unphysiological" in view of the resting membrane resistance of 1900  $\Omega$  cm<sup>2</sup> found by Weidmann (1952).

The basic requirements for a notch are an overshoot of membrane potential lasting long enough for  $h$  to decline to near its steady-state value, and a repolarization at the end of this time too fast for  $h$  to follow. With the equations as used, this can only occur for normal values of membrane capacitance when there is a resistance in series with some of the capacitance. The equations for  $h$  adopted by Noble were related to Weidmann's experimental values, and so should not be far in error;  $R_m$ ,  $R_s$ , and  $C_s$  have all been measured in experiments, so that all the factors directly involved in creating a notch are known quantitatively. If some other mechanism or agent were to assist in the repolarization, it could add to this effect (although the series-RC would probably still be necessary in order to achieve a sufficiently fast depolarization); a possibility here is some other ion whose equilibrium potential is at or below the plateau potential, such as the passive anion current considered by Noble, or the active chloride current suggested by Dudel, Peper, Rüdel, and Trautwein (1967) on the basis of their observations.

It is tempting when considering the result shown in Fig.  $3 E$  to suppose a role for the series-RC, together with an increased  $g_{K2}$ , in cardiac fibrillation. Cooling is known to increase the tendency to fibrillation, and might also be expected to slow changes in  $h$  and thus cause a larger pre-plateau notch. Decreasing the magnitude of <sup>h</sup> with drugs and depolarizing with high external K concentration are both known to stop fibrillation; so is a large electric shock, which might have the effect of reducing  $g_{K2}$ . It would presumably be possible to reconstruct Fig. 3 E by other means than increasing  $C_s$ , if  $C_m$  and  $R_s$  were suitably varied, and possibly to reduce the frequency of occurrence of plateaux (but not eliminate them, if the train of spikes is to continue for long). This has not yet been attempted, and further such speculation on fibrillar mechanism may be premature. In any case, it is not yet certain exactly what membrane potential changes occur during fibrillation. It is interesting, however, that Pillat (1967) has obtained spike-like responses from sheep ventricular fibers in the extended post-AP relative refractory period caused by quinidine-like drugs. He has suggested that the drugs may cause a blocking of  $g_{K2}$  in the fullyactivated state, since stimulation-rate effects on AP duration are also abolished. Toward the end of the relative refractory period, the spike potentials changed to normal action potentials with a very deep notch.

Many AP's are recorded in a cable-like preparation, yet still show a notch; the present calculations have been for an AP occurring uniformly over the entire fiber. In the cable, some current is diverted along the axis of the fiber and so is not available for charging the capacitance. This will slow the rates of depolarization, but not so greatly that a notch need not occur by the mechanism described here; for with a conduction velocity of  $1-2$  m/sec along the fiber, even during the fastest conductance changes several millimeters of fiber will have practically the same membrane conductance (except when  $m$  is changing rapidly during the upstroke, and this does not directly concern the notch). On the other hand, a series-RC element in the cell membrane would be advantageous to the organism by increasing the AP conduction velocity and safety factor.

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