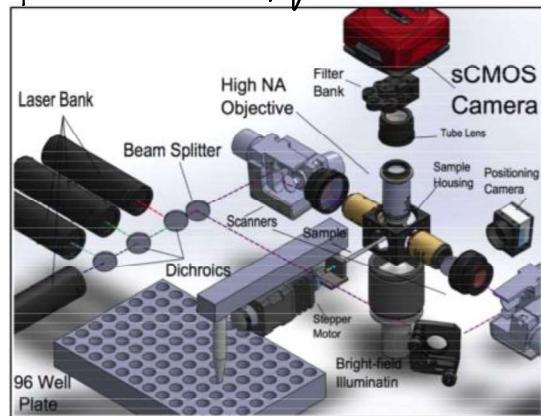
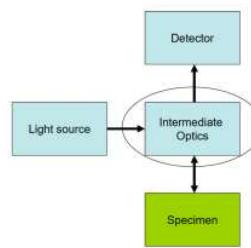


Optical Microscopy

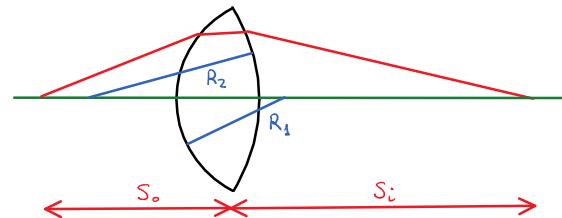


→ Components

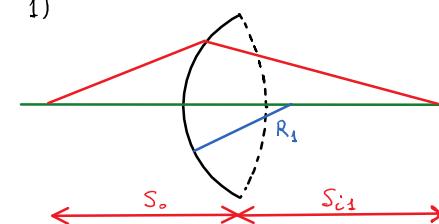
- Detector
- Light source
- Specimen
- Optical lenses



→ For two spherical interfaces: Use the image from the first refraction as the object for the second

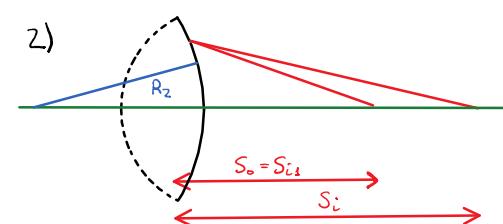


1)



$$\frac{n}{S_o} + \frac{n'}{S_{i1}} = \frac{n'-n}{R_1}$$

2)



$$\frac{n'}{S_{i1}} + \frac{n}{S_i} = \frac{n'-n}{R_2}$$

⚠ → $R_2 < 0$ for convex lens
→ $n' - n$ has opposite sign

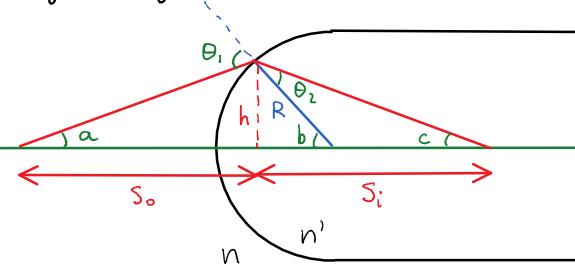
$$\frac{1}{S_o} + \frac{1}{S_i} = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{(n'-n)}{n} \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$$

→ focal length → R_o at $R_i \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{1}{f} = \frac{(n'-n)}{n} \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$$

f is S_o limit for convergent/divergent lens

1. Ray tracing



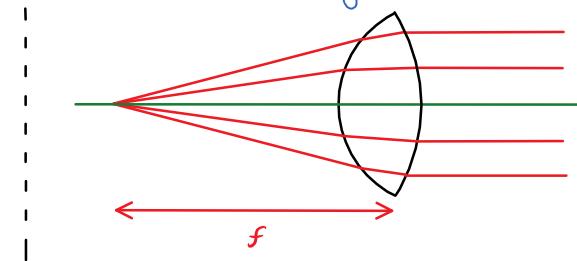
- $n \sin(\theta_1) = n' \sin(\theta_2)$ Snell
- $a+b = \theta_1$ | using $\sin(x) \approx x \approx \tan(x)$
 $\sin(a) + \sin(b) = \sin(\theta_1) = \frac{h}{S_o} + \frac{h}{R}$
 $\downarrow a \approx \sin(a)$
- $b-c = \theta_2$ | using $\sin(x) \approx x \approx \tan(x)$
 $\sin(b) - \sin(c) = \sin(\theta_2) = \frac{h}{R} - \frac{h}{S_i}$
 $\downarrow \sin(b) \approx b$ $b \approx \tan(b) \leftrightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(\theta_1) &= \frac{h}{S_o} + \frac{h}{R} & \rightarrow \frac{n}{S_o} + \frac{n}{R} = \frac{h}{R} - \frac{h}{S_i} \\ \frac{n}{n} \sin(\theta_2) &= \frac{h}{S_o} + \frac{h}{R} & \rightarrow \frac{n}{S_o} + \frac{n}{R} = \frac{n'}{R} - \frac{n}{S_i} \\ \sin(\theta_2) &= \frac{n}{n} \left(\frac{h}{S_o} + \frac{h}{R} \right) & \Rightarrow \frac{n}{S_o} + \frac{n}{S_i} = \frac{n'-n}{R} \end{aligned}$$

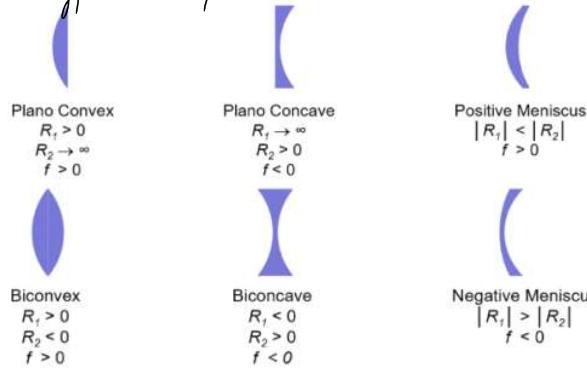
$$\begin{array}{lll} S_o > nR/(n'-n) & S_o = nR/(n'-n) & S_o < nR/(n'-n) \\ S_i > 0 & S_i \rightarrow \infty & S_i < 0 \end{array}$$

$$\frac{n}{S_o} + \frac{n'}{S_i} = \frac{n'-n}{R}$$

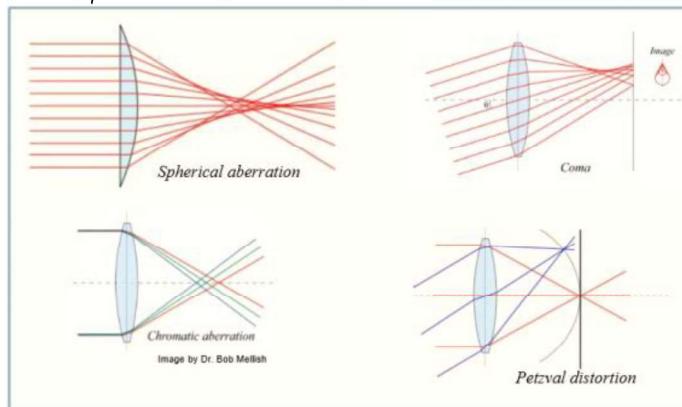
• $f = \text{focal length}$



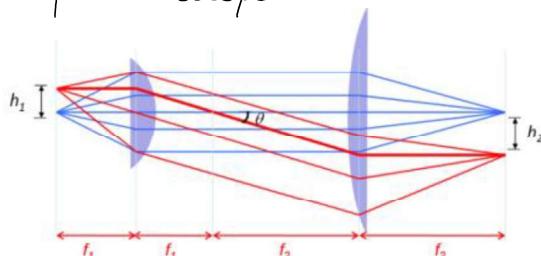
→ Types of spherical lenses



→ Optical aberrations



→ Simple microscope



Sharp focus where the specimen is placed at the focal length of the first lens

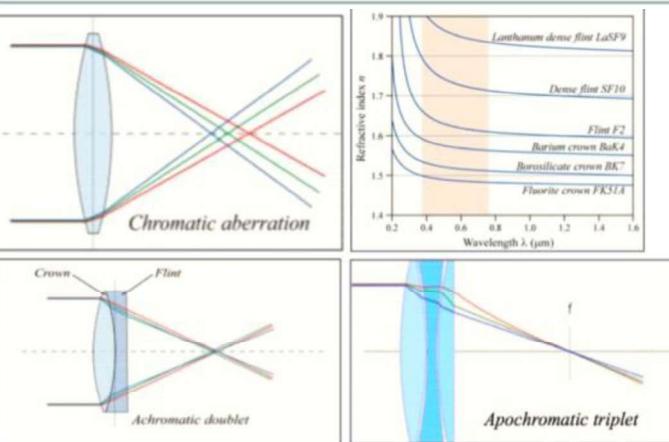
In this case is the magnification:

$$\sin(\theta) = \frac{h_1}{f_1} = \frac{h_2}{f_2} \Rightarrow M = \frac{h_2}{h_1} = \frac{f_2}{f_1}$$

WD = working distance

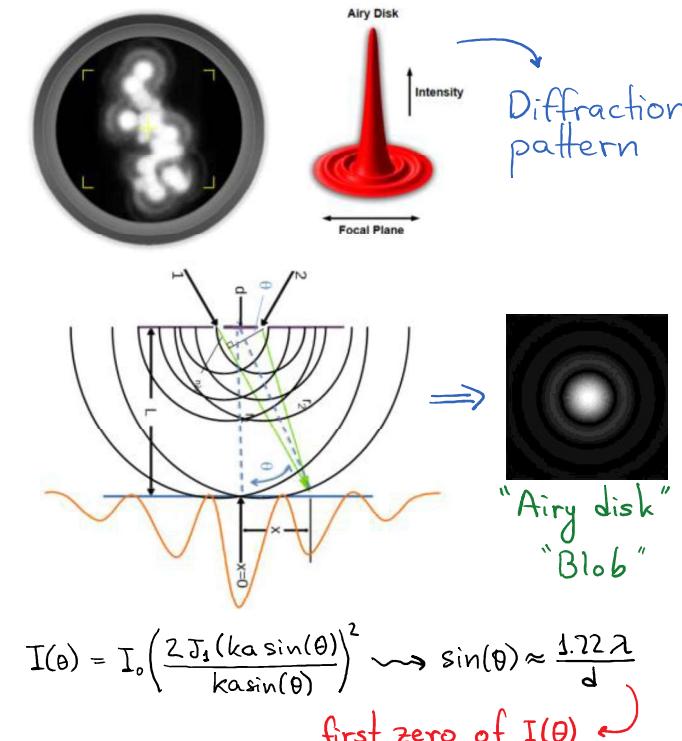
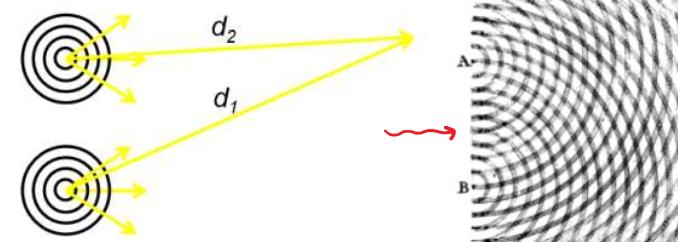
The distance from the front lens element of the objective to the closest surface of the coverslip when the specimen is in sharp focus.

→ Aberrations: Imperfections on the lenses (deformation) and the different refractive indexes for different colors (i.e. wavelengths) can distort the final image



2. Limits of lenses & resolution

→ Linear superposition of EM-waves + Huygens-Fresnel principle ⇒ Diffraction

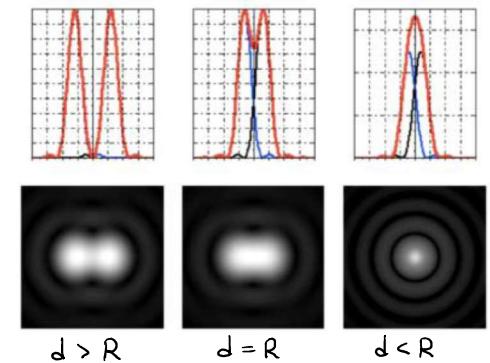


Numerical aperture

$$NA_{obj} = n \sin(\theta) = n \sin\left(\arctan\left(\frac{D}{2f}\right)\right) \approx \frac{nD}{2f}$$

$$R \approx \frac{1.22 \lambda_0}{2 NA_{obj}}$$

$$NA_{obj} \approx \frac{nD}{2f}$$



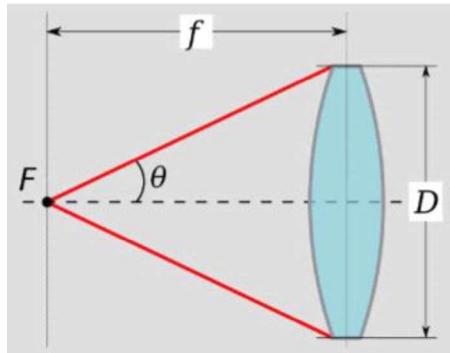
→ R is the separation at which the maximum of the airy disk made by point 2 lies on the first zero of the disk made by point 1

↳ Rayleigh Criterion

→ To increase resolution of the microscope

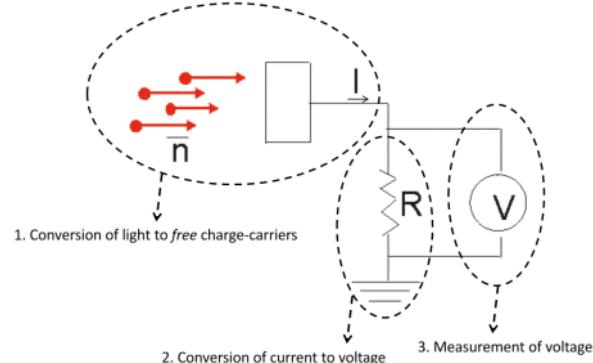
- make illumination have small λ
- Increase lens' aperture D
- Decrease focal length f

} Increase NA_{obj}



Signal & Noise

→ Maximum information you can extract from any experiment is dictated by **Signal and noise**



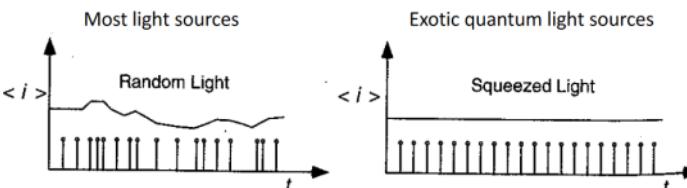
(1) **Shot noise (N_s)** – inherent noise in counting a finite number of photons/electrons per unit time

(2) **Dark current noise (N_d)** – thermally induced “firing” of the detector

(3) **Johnson noise (N_j)** – thermally induced current fluctuation in the load resistor

(4) **Technical noise and 1/f noise** – due to various detector imperfections – can be avoided by good design

1. Photon Shot Noise



• Random events obey Poisson distribution

• If the average number of photons in the time interval t is \bar{n} , then the probability of observing n photons is

$$P(n|\bar{n}) = e^{-\bar{n}} \frac{\bar{n}^n}{n!}$$

$$\sigma_n = \sqrt{\bar{n}}$$

• Converting it to noise in current

$$\bar{n} = \# \text{ of incident photons} \quad q = \text{electron charge } (1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})$$

$$\Delta t = \text{acquisition time} \quad \eta = \text{"quantum efficiency"}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Signal current} = \langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle = \frac{\eta q \bar{n}}{\Delta t}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Noise current} \quad \langle I_{\text{noise}} \rangle = \frac{\eta q \bar{n}^2}{\Delta t}$$

$$\langle I_{\text{noise}}^2 \rangle = \left(\frac{\eta q}{\Delta t} \right)^2 \bar{n} = \frac{\eta q}{\Delta t} \langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle$$

$$\hookrightarrow \langle I_{\text{noise}} \rangle \propto \sqrt{\langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle}$$

• **Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR)**

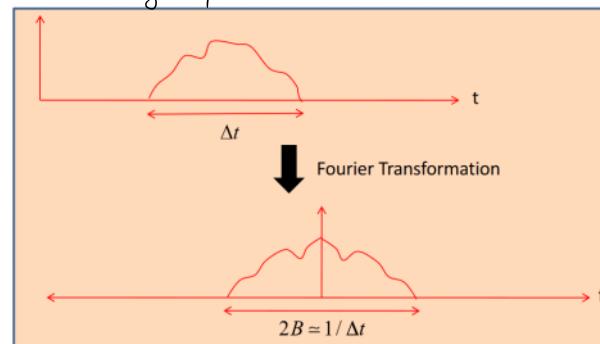
$$\text{SNR} := \frac{\text{Signal power}}{\text{noise power}} = \frac{S}{N}$$

$$S = \langle I_{\text{signal}}^2 \rangle R$$

$$N = \langle I_{\text{noise}}^2 \rangle R$$

• **Noise Equivalent Power (NEP)**

$$\text{NEP} := \text{Signal power at SNR} = 1$$



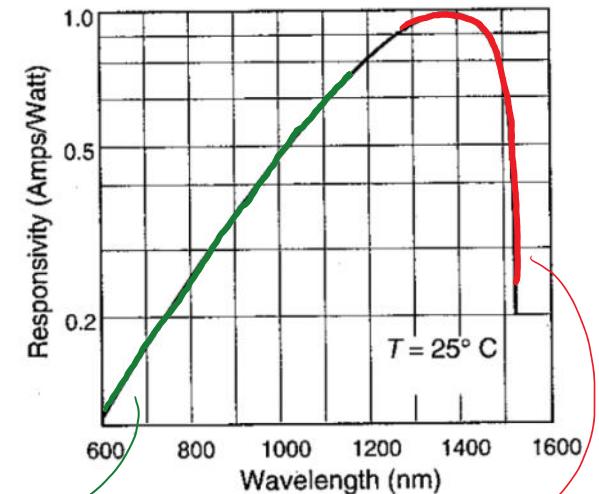
$$\cdot \langle I_{\text{noise}}^2 \rangle = \frac{\eta q}{\Delta t} \langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle = 2\eta q B \langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow N_s = \langle I_{\text{noise}}^2 \rangle R = 2R\eta q B \langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle$$

• Relating current to optical power

$$\langle I \rangle \approx q \frac{\eta \bar{n}}{\Delta t}, \quad P = \frac{\bar{n}hc}{\lambda \Delta t} \rightarrow \frac{hc}{\lambda} = 1 \text{ photon's energy}$$

$$\cdot \text{Responsivity} = \frac{\langle I \rangle}{P} = \frac{\eta q \lambda}{hc}$$



$$\frac{\langle I \rangle}{P} \approx \frac{\eta q}{hc} \lambda$$

η depends on λ , since no photons are emitted with energies below the energy gap E_g

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{current}} = \left(\frac{N_s}{N_c} \right)_{\text{current}} = \sqrt{\frac{\langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle}{2\eta q B}}$$

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{power}} = \left(\frac{N_s}{N_c} \right)_{\text{power}} = \bar{n} \quad \text{number of incident photons}$$

2. Dark Current Noise

• Generated electrons fluctuate obeying Poisson distribution

• Same equations as shot noise:

$$\langle I_{\text{noise}}^2 \rangle = 2\eta q B \langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle, \quad N_d = \langle I_{\text{noise}}^2 \rangle R = 2R\eta q B \langle I_{\text{signal}} \rangle$$

$$N_d = 2R\eta q B \langle I_d \rangle$$

3. Johnson Noise

• Temperature dependent fluctuations in the load resistor R .

Thermal energy: $\frac{kT}{2}$

Thermal power: $\tilde{N}_j = kTB$

$$I_j \propto \sqrt{\frac{kTB}{2}}$$

$$\tilde{N}_j \propto I_j^2 R \propto \frac{kTB}{2} R$$

→ Sum of all noises

$$I_{\text{noise}} = I_{\text{shot}} + I_{\text{dark}} + I_{\text{Johnson}}$$

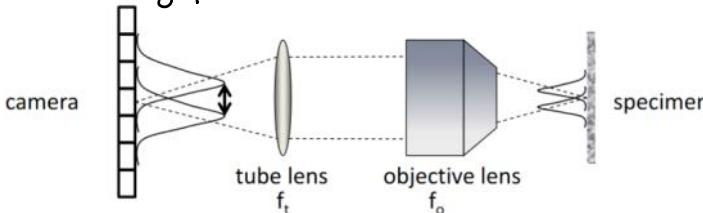
$$\langle I_{\text{noise}}^2 \rangle = \langle (I_s + I_d + I_j)^2 \rangle = \langle I_s^2 \rangle + \langle I_d^2 \rangle + \langle I_j^2 \rangle$$

uncorrelated cross noise average to zero

$$\langle I_{\text{noise}}^2 \rangle = \langle I_s^2 \rangle + \langle I_d^2 \rangle + \langle I_j^2 \rangle$$

$$N_{\text{noise}} = N_s + N_d + N_j \quad (\text{N} = \text{noise power})$$

→ Choosing pixel size

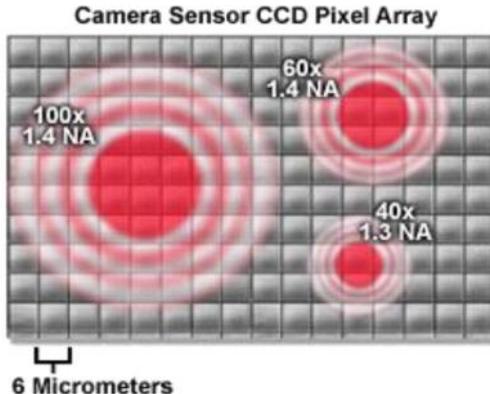


$$\text{Airy-disk size: } R \approx \frac{1.22 \lambda_0}{2 \text{NA}} \quad (\text{before magnification})$$

$$\text{Final airy-disk size: } R \approx \frac{1.22 \lambda_0}{2 \text{NA}} \cdot M \quad (M = \frac{f_t}{f_o})$$

⇒ We should be able to see "notice" differences
d of d=R

$$\text{maximum pixel size} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1.22 \lambda_0}{2 \text{NA}} \cdot M$$



$$\text{SNR} = \frac{\langle \text{Signal} \rangle}{\sigma_{\text{signal}}} = \frac{\text{Total Signal}}{\sqrt{\text{Total Noise}}}$$

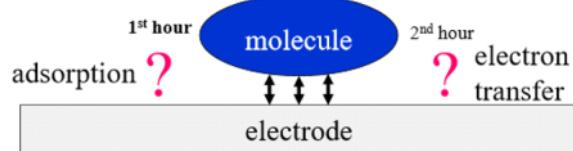
↳ standard deviation of signal = error

- No noise $\Rightarrow \sigma_{\text{signal}} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{SNR} \rightarrow \infty$
not possible, since shot noise $\sigma_{\text{shot}} = \sqrt{\text{signal}} \neq 0$
- Signal = Counts, # photons, # electrons etc
↳ with quantum efficiency $\Rightarrow \text{Signal}_{\text{tot}} = \text{QE} \cdot \text{signal}$
- Noise = $\sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 = \sigma_{\text{shot}}^2 + \sigma_{\text{dark}}^2 + \sigma_{\text{Johnson}}^2$
↳ also counts, # photons etc $\sigma_{\text{shot}} = \sqrt{\text{Signal}} \Rightarrow \sigma_{\text{shot}}^2 = \text{total signal}$
↳ With quantum efficiency $\Rightarrow \sigma_{\text{shot}} = \sqrt{\text{QE} \cdot \text{Signal}}$

$$\sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 = \text{QE} \cdot \text{Signal} + \sigma_{\text{dark}}^2 + \sigma_{\text{Johnson}}^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{SNR} = \frac{\text{QE} \cdot \text{Signal}}{\sqrt{\text{QE} \cdot \text{Signal} + \sigma_{\text{dark}}^2 + \sigma_{\text{Johnson}}^2}}$$

Molecular Adsorption and Electron Transfer



→ Schrödinger Equation

- Stationary

$$\hat{H}|\Psi\rangle = E|\Psi\rangle$$

Hamiltonian

$$H = T + V$$

kinetic energy potential

$$H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V, \quad \nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

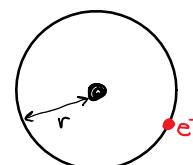
- Probability $\psi^*(\vec{r}_0) \psi(\vec{r}_0) dx dy dz$ (Born interpretation)
 $\int \psi^* \psi dxdydz = 1$ (Wave → probability)

- Time dependent $\hat{H}|\Psi\rangle = i\hbar \frac{\partial|\Psi\rangle}{\partial t}$

→ Hydrogen atom

$$H = \underbrace{T_n + T_e}_{\text{kinetic energies (nucleus/electron)}} + V_{ne} \rightarrow \text{Potential between nucleus/electron}$$

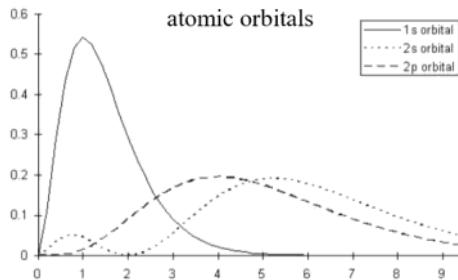
$V_{ne} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_n} \nabla_n^2 - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla_e^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$



- reduced mass $\mu = \frac{m_n m_e}{m_n + m_e}$

$$\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r)\gamma(\theta, \phi)$$

atomic orbitals



$$R(\rho) = N_{nl} \rho^l L_{n+l}^{2l+1}(\rho) e^{-\frac{\rho}{2n}}$$

$$\hookrightarrow R(\rho) \propto e^{-\frac{\rho}{2n}}$$

$$E_n = -\frac{Z^2 e^4}{32\pi^2 \epsilon_0^2 h^2} \frac{1}{n^2} = -13.6 \frac{1}{n^2} \text{ eV}$$

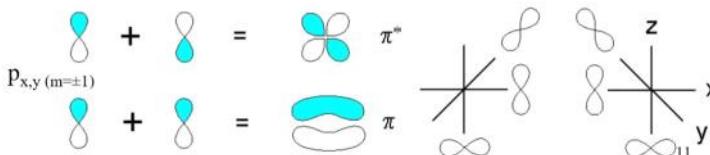
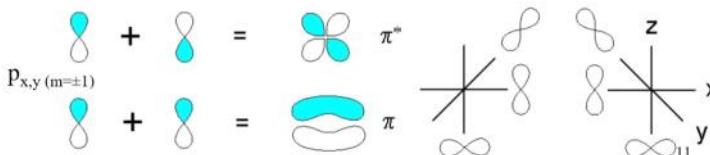
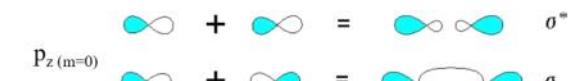
$$1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} = 23.06 \text{ kcal} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$$

→ Born-Oppenheimer Approximation

- For more than one hydrogen atom there is no analytical solution ⇒ approximation
- Nucleus is much heavier than electrons
 \rightarrow Approximation = fixed/stationary nuclei

→ LCAO MO (linear combination of atomic orbitals)

- Sum of all interactions: $\Phi_i = \sum_j C_{ij} \psi_j$

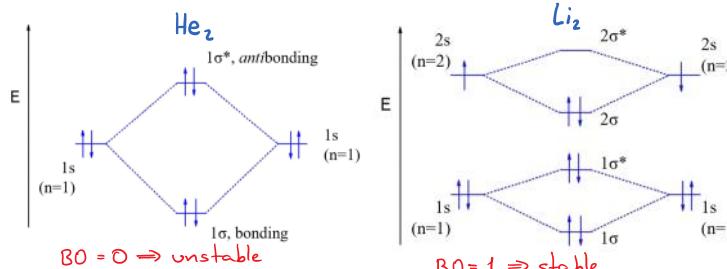


- bonding and antibonding states

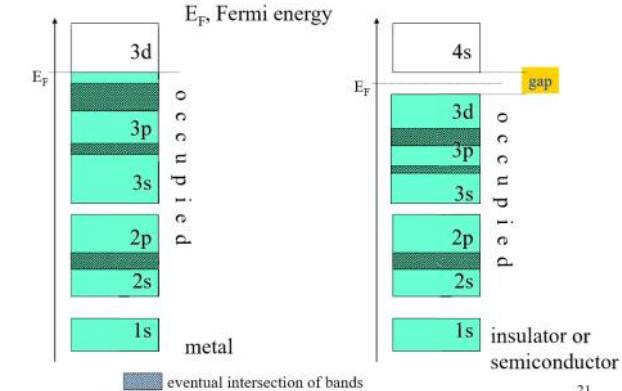
- Bond order

$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{number of electrons} \\ \text{in bonding MOs} \end{array} \right] - \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{number of electrons} \\ \text{in anti-bonding MOs} \end{array} \right]}{2}$$

$\neq 0 \Rightarrow \text{stable}, = 0 \Rightarrow \text{unstable}$

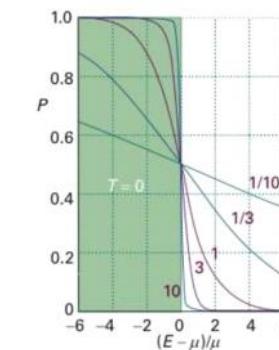


• Occupation of Crystal Bands



21

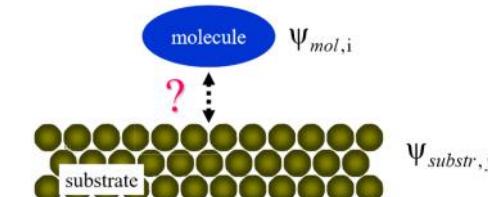
• Fermi-Dirac Distribution



$$f(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-E_F)/k_B T} + 1}$$

$k_B = \text{Boltzmann constant}$
 $= 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \frac{\text{J}}{\text{K}} \approx 8.6 \times 10^{-5} \frac{\text{eV}}{\text{K}}$

→ Molecular Adsorption



→ Physisorption (Van-der-Waals interaction)

$$U_{Keesom} = -\frac{\mu_1^2 \mu_2^2}{6(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 k_B T d^4}$$

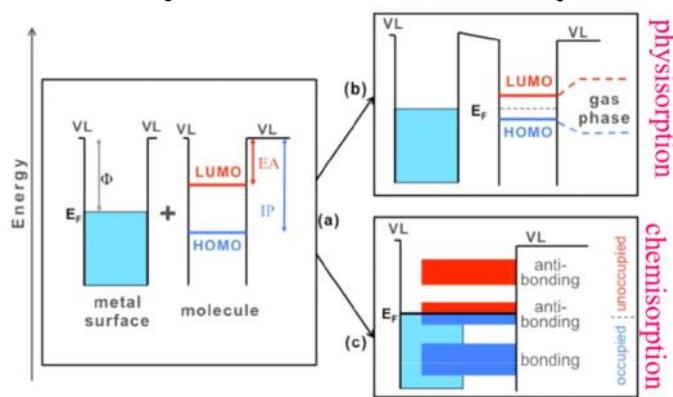
$$U_{Debye} = -\frac{\mu^2 \alpha}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 d^6}$$

$$U_{London} = -\frac{3}{2} \frac{\alpha_1 \alpha_2}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 d^6} \frac{h\nu_1 \nu_2}{(\nu_1 + \nu_2)}$$

μ , dipole
 α , polarizability
 $h\nu$, ionization energy

→ Chemisorption

- Electron transfer between surface and molecule
- Depending on $S_{ij} = \int \psi_{m,j} \psi_{substr,i} dx dy dz$ overlapping integral



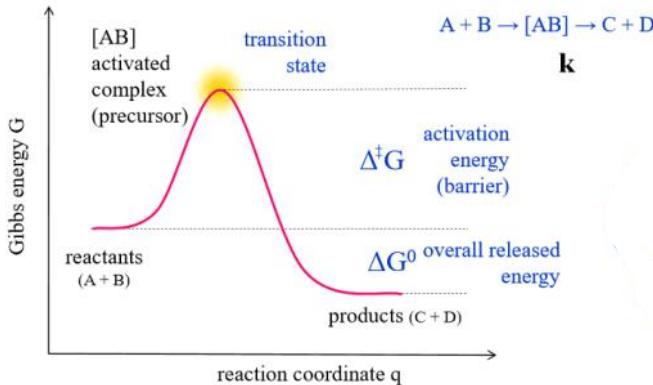
→ Gibbs Free Energy G

T , temperature
 U , internal energy
 P , pressure
 V , volume
 S , entropy

$$G = U + PV - TS$$

thermodynamic potential

- Every system (T, p constant!) seeks to achieve a minimum of free energy \Rightarrow Chemical reactions



$$k \propto e^{-\frac{\Delta^+G}{RT}}$$

$$R = \frac{k_B}{N_A} = 8.3 \text{ J} \cdot \text{K}^{-1} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$$

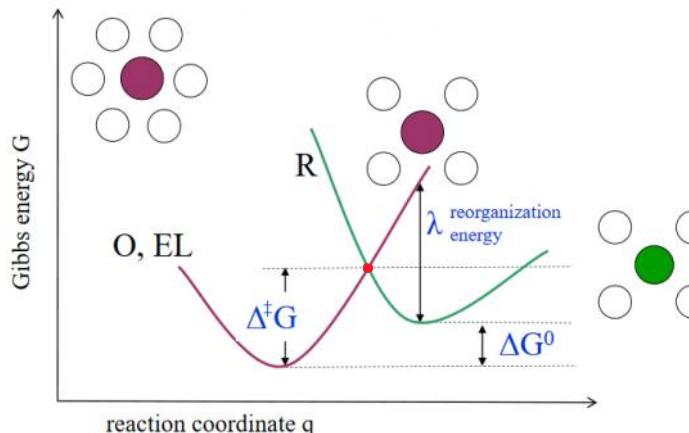
↑ Gibbs energy $\Rightarrow \downarrow k$

→ Redox: Describes all chemical reactions in which atoms have their oxidation number changed

- Ways of writing a redox reaction

- $O + e(EL) \rightarrow R$
- $D + A \rightarrow D^+ + A^-$
- $M^{(z+1)+} \cdot \text{solv} + e^-_{\text{electrode}} \rightarrow M^{z+} \cdot \text{solv} \rightarrow \text{electrochemistry}$

1. Marcus Theory



$$k_{et} = K_{p,0} V_n K_{el} e^{-\frac{\Delta^+G}{RT}}$$

$K_{p,0}$ = precursor equilibrium constant (ratio of the reactant concentration in the precursor state with respect to its bulk concentration)

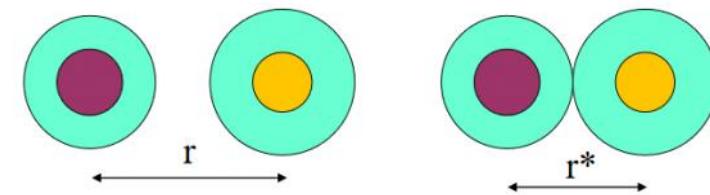
V_n = nuclear frequency factor (frequency attempts on the energy barrier)

K_{el} = electronic transmission coefficient (probability of electron tunneling)

- from the perturbation theory (Landau-Zener)

$$K_{el} \propto \langle H_{el-O} \rangle^2, \quad H_{el-O} = \int \Psi_{el}^* H_{el-O} \Psi_0$$

$$\langle H_{el-O} \rangle^2 = \langle H_{el-O}^+ \rangle^2 e^{-\beta(r-r^*)} \quad \rightarrow \quad k_{el} \propto e^{-\beta(r-r^*)}$$

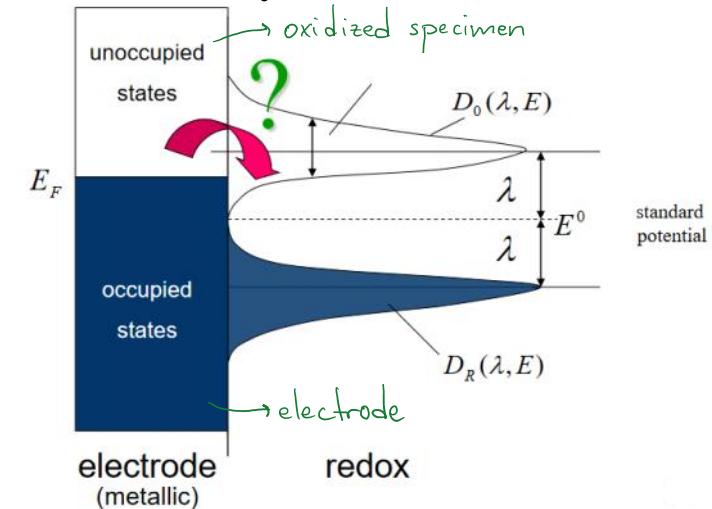


- for an effective tunneling (and consequently redox reaction) both reactants need to be very close one from the another

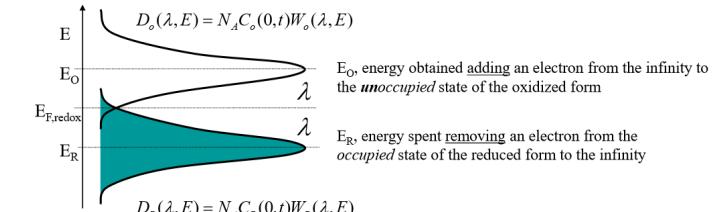
$$\Delta^+G = \frac{(\Delta G^0 + \lambda)^2}{4\lambda}$$

2. Gerischer Theory

- tries to quantify k_{et} using the energy levels



- Considering $N_{occ} = f(E) \rho(E)$



$$k_{\text{et}} = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{E}_{\text{red}}(E) W_0(\lambda, E) f(E) \rho(E) dE$$

↳ ! (proportionality function)

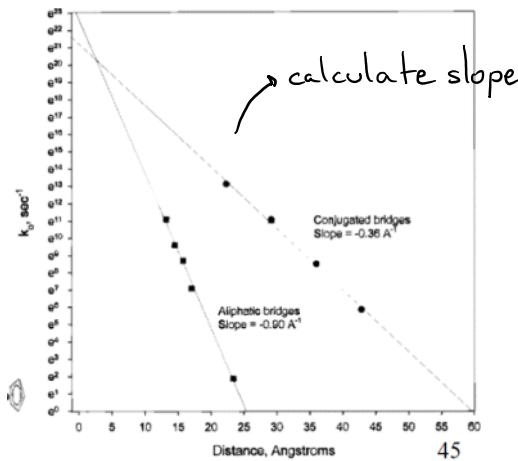
- at the end we get the same values as Marcus

→ Electron transfer through a molecular wire

$$k_{el}(x) = k_{el}^{\circ} e^{-\beta x}$$

- \emptyset = barrier in vacuum

→ Determining β



Potentiometric Biosensors

→ Chemical equilibrium: State in which the chemical activities or concentrations of the reactants and products have no net change over time.

- Forward chemical process proceeds at the same rate as the reverse reaction → dynamic equilibrium

Chemical Potential

• A form of energy that can be absorbed or released during a chemical reaction or phase transition due to a change of particle number.

• It is defined as the rate of change of the free Gibbs energy with respect to the change in the number of atoms/molecules of the species

$$\mu_i = \left[\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_i} \right]_{p,T,n'}$$

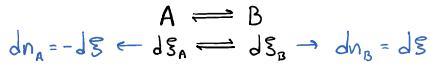
• Considering $d\xi = \frac{n_j - n_j^0}{v_j}$ = extent of reaction

n_j^0 = initial mole of substance j

n_j = mole of substance j when extent is reached

v_j = stoichiometric coefficient

$d\xi$ is constant for reactants/products (d\xi_A = d\xi_B) (in absolute value)

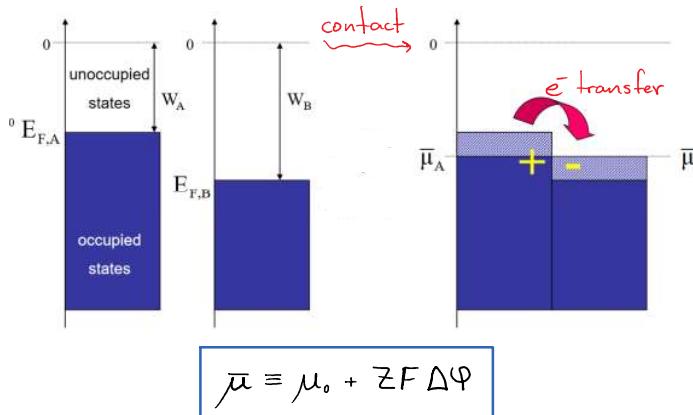


$$dG|_{p,T} = \mu_A dn_A + \mu_B dn_B = (\mu_B - \mu_A)d\xi$$

equilibrium ⇒ minimum of Gibbs energy ⇒ $dG|_{p,T} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_A = \mu_B \quad \text{condition for chemical equilibrium}$$

• The chemical potential can be interpreted (or is) the fermi energy at 0°K. When brought into contact both materials need to have the same fermi energy → $E_{F,A} = E_{F,B}$ ($\mu_A = \mu_B$)



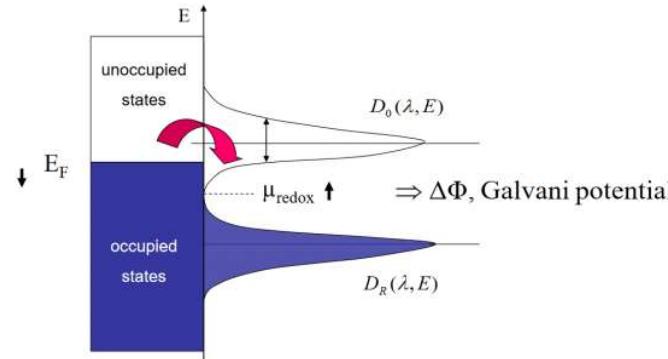
$\bar{\mu}$ = chemical potential at equilibrium

Z = number of charges for each ion (electron = -1)

F = Faraday's constant

Electrode-Solution Interface

• μ_{redox} = redox fermi energy = energy E^* where the densities of states match → $D_{\text{red}}(\lambda, E^*) = D_{\text{metal}}(\lambda, E^*)$



• Galvanic Potential: the potential generated as consequence of the electrons jumping into the available levels at lower energy

$$\bar{\mu} = \mu_0 + ZF\Delta\Phi \quad \rightarrow \quad \Delta\Phi = -\frac{\Delta_r G}{Z F}$$

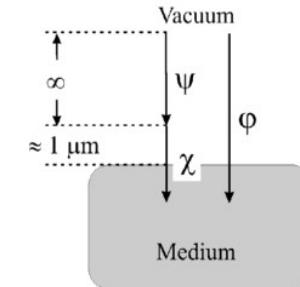
The different potentials

i) Volta/external potential Ψ : Potential difference when bringing a charge from infinity ($\Psi(\infty) = 0$)

to a region close to the surface ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$)

ii) Surface potential χ : Potential at the internal phase passing through the interface → Determined by dipoles aligned at the surface and by surface charges

iii) Galvanic potential φ : Sum of all potentials



We only work with the Galvanic potential (we can ignore these other potentials :))

Nernst Equation

$$\mu_j = \mu_j^0 + RT \ln(a_j) \rightarrow$$

$$\Delta\Phi = \Delta\Phi_c^0 + \frac{RT}{nF} [\sum_{\text{ox}} \ln(a_{\text{ox},j}) - \sum_{\text{red}} \ln(a_{\text{red},j})]$$

$$\begin{cases} V_{\text{prod}} > 0 \\ V_{\text{react}} < 0 \end{cases} = \Delta\Phi_c^0 - \frac{RT}{nF} \ln(Q), \quad Q = \left(\prod_j a_j^{v_j} \right)_{\text{equilibrium}}$$

measures the relative amounts of reactants and products → can be compared to the rate of the reaction k , but k is only for equilibrium. Q is for any point in time → But in this equation Q is $Q_{\text{equilibrium}}$, which is k .

$$\Delta\Phi_j = \Delta\Phi_c^0 - \frac{RT}{Z F} \ln(Q)$$

n = # of electrons transferred in one reaction

ΔΦ and concentration

• Since the activity a_j is proportional to the concentration of ions ($a_j \propto r_{\text{ion}} \cdot [\text{ion}]$)

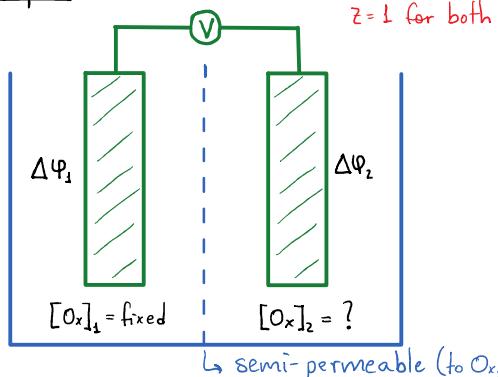
$$\Rightarrow \Delta\Phi_j = C_j + \frac{RT}{Z F} \ln(a_{\text{ion}}) = C_j + \frac{RT}{Z F} \ln([\text{ion}])$$

~59 mV when using log (without Z)

$$\Delta\Phi_j = C_j + \frac{0.059}{Z} \log ([\text{ion}])$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{RT}{F} = 0.05916 \text{ V}$$

• example:



$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \Delta\Phi_1 = \Delta\Phi^\circ - \frac{RT}{F} \ln [O_x]_1 \\ \Delta\Phi_2 = \Delta\Phi^\circ - \frac{RT}{F} \ln [O_x]_2 \end{array} \right\} V = \Delta\Phi_1 - \Delta\Phi_2$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \frac{RT}{F} \ln \left(\frac{[O_x]_1}{[O_x]_2} \right)$$

→ Nernst at semi-permeable membranes

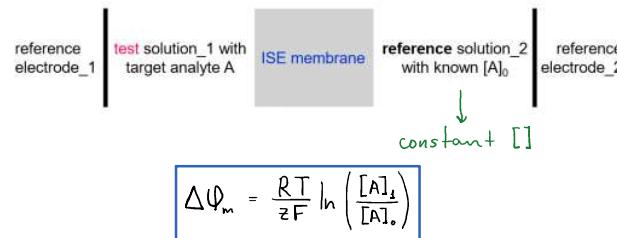
$$\begin{aligned} j_{\text{total}} &= j_{\text{diffusion}} + j_{\text{drift}} \xrightarrow{\text{equilibrium}} 0 \\ &= -|z|D \frac{dc}{dt} - \mu|z|F \frac{c}{dx} \end{aligned}$$

Diffusion constant D ↳ mobility, not potential

• Integrating from outside to inside

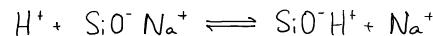
$$V_{\text{out}} - V_{\text{in}} = - \frac{k_B T}{Q} \int \frac{dc}{C} \Rightarrow \Delta\Phi = V_{\text{out}} - V_{\text{in}} = \frac{k_B T}{Q} \ln \left(\frac{C_{\text{out}}}{C_{\text{in}}} \right)$$

• Ion-selective Electrodes (ISE)

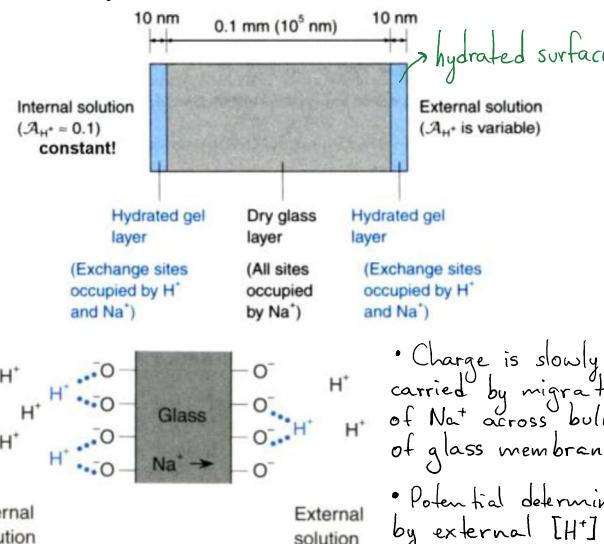


→ pH Electrode

• When in aqueous solution, Corning 015 (a type of glass) forms a hydrated surface, resulting in the formation of negatively charged sites ($-SiO^-$). Na^+ serve as counter ions. Because H^+ binds more strongly to $-SiO^-$ than does Na^+ , they displace the sodium ions



• The transport of charge across the membrane is carried by the Na^+ ions



• Charge is slowly carried by migration of Na^+ across bulk of glass membrane

• Potential determined by external $[H^+]$

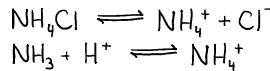
• Potential of a glass electrode obeys the equation
 $\Delta\Phi = \text{constant} + 0.059 \log ([H^+])$ ($pH := -\log [H^+]$)

$$\Rightarrow pH = \frac{\text{constant} - \Delta\Phi}{0.059}$$

constant
⇒ needs calibration

→ Gas Sensors

1. NH_3



$$E_{\text{cell}} = E_{\text{ind}} - E_{\text{ref}}$$

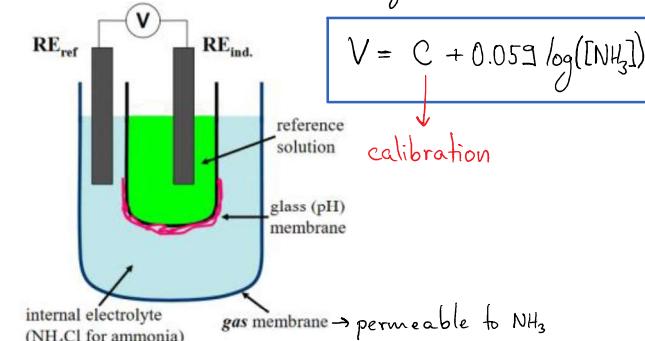
Indicator is H^+ sensitive

Use a pH sensor to calculate change in $[H^+]$, consequently $[NH_3]$

$$\text{Nernst equation} \rightarrow K_{el} = \frac{a_{NH_3} a_{H^+}}{a_{NH_4^+}}$$

$$\log(a_{H^+}) = \log(K_{el}) + \log(a_{NH_4^+}) - \log(a_{NH_3})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow E_{\text{cell}} &= \text{constant} + 0.059 \log(a_{H^+}) \\ &= \text{constant}' + 0.059 \log(a_{NH_3}) \end{aligned}$$



2. CO_2

$$\begin{aligned} CO_2 + H_2O &\rightleftharpoons H_2CO_3 \\ H_2CO_3 &\rightleftharpoons HCO_3^- + H^+ \end{aligned} \left. \right\} K = \frac{[H^+][HCO_3^-]}{[H_2CO_3]}$$

$$pH = pK + \ln \left(\frac{[HCO_3^-]}{[H_2CO_3]} \right) \rightarrow \text{at equilibrium } [H_2CO_3] \propto [CO_2]$$

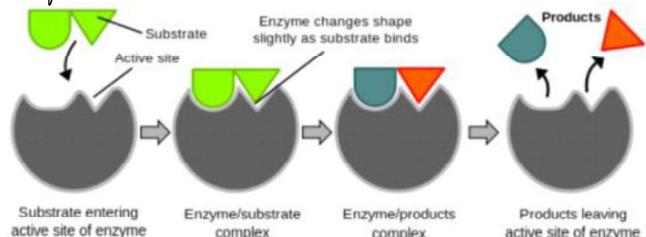
$$pH = pK' + \ln \left(\frac{[HCO_3^-]}{[CO_2]} \right)$$

• For different gases

Gas	Inner Solution	Sensor
CO_2	$NaHCO_3$	pH glass
SO_2	$NaHSO_3$	pH glass
HF	H^+	F-LaF ₃
H_2S	pH 5 buffer	$S^{2-}-Ag_2S$
HCN	$KAg(CN)_2$	Ag^+-Ag
NH_3	NH_4Cl	pH glass

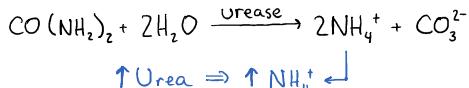
→ Enzymes: Proteins that catalyze (i.e. accelerate) chemical reactions by lowering the activation energy (E_a or ΔG°)

- They are not consumed by the reactions nor do they alter the equilibrium of these reactions



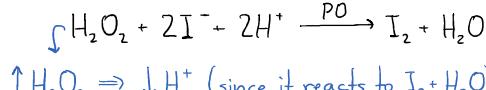
1. Urease

- We can get the urea concentration by using urease and an ammonia-selective gas electrode



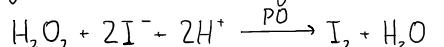
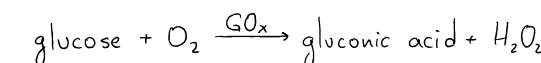
2. Peroxidase (PO)

- Get H_2O_2 concentration by measuring pH (or using an iodide electrode)



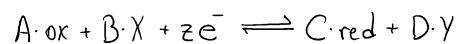
3. Glucose Oxydase (GOx)

- Use same sensor as before



→ Helpful tips

- For reactions of the form



we have

$$E = E^\circ + \frac{RT \cdot 2.303}{F \cdot z} \log \left(\frac{a_{\text{ox}}^{\text{A}} \cdot a_{\text{X}}^{\text{B}}}{a_{\text{red}}^{\text{C}} \cdot a_{\text{Y}}^{\text{D}}} \right)$$

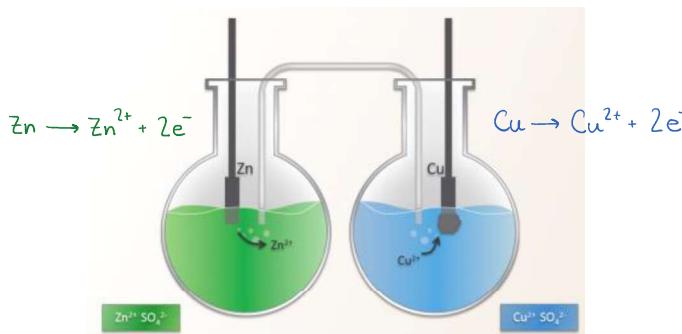
- Values for the activity a

i) Ions $\Rightarrow a = \frac{r_{\text{ion}} [\text{ion}]}{1\text{M}}$ (normally is $r_{\text{ion}} = 1$)

ii) Gases $\Rightarrow a = \text{partial pressure } P_{\text{gas}} = \frac{P_{\text{gas}}}{P_{\text{atm}}}$

iii) Solids/fluids $\Rightarrow a \approx 1$ (H_2O , metals etc)

- Example: ZnCu cell



for Zn:

$$E_{\text{Zn}} = E_{\text{Zn}}^\circ + \frac{0.059}{2} \log \left(\frac{[\text{Zn}^{2+}]}{[\text{Zn}]} \right) = -0.76 + \frac{0.059}{2} \log ([\text{Zn}^{2+}])$$

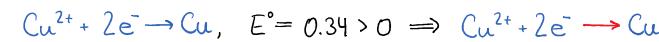
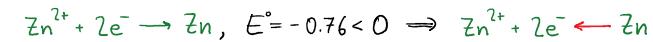
$$E_{\text{Cu}} = E_{\text{Cu}}^\circ + \frac{0.059}{2} \log \left(\frac{[\text{Cu}^{2+}]}{[\text{Cu}]} \right) = 0.34 + \frac{0.059}{2} \log ([\text{Cu}^{2+}])$$

for Cu:

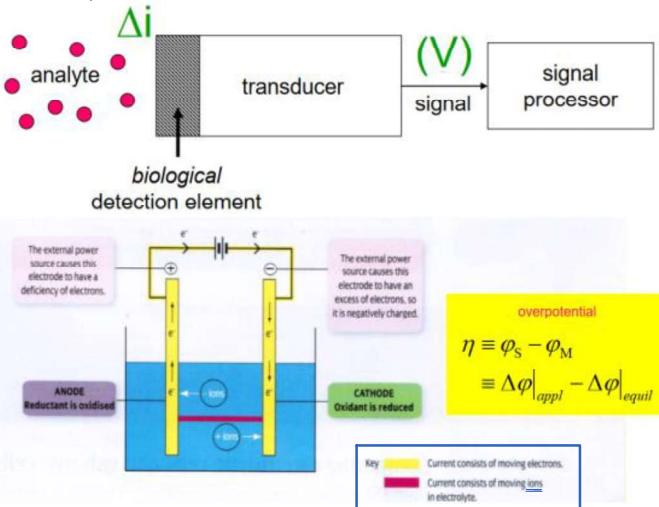
- Initial values for E° are the redox numbers of the reaction \Rightarrow table

$\text{I}_2(s) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow 2\text{I}^{-}(aq)$	0.54
$\text{O}_2(g) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(l) + 4\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow 4\text{OH}^{-}(aq)$	0.40
$\text{Cu}^{2+}(aq) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{Cu}(s)$	0.34
$\text{Sn}^{4+}(aq) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{Sn}^{2+}(aq)$	0.15
$2\text{H}^+(aq) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{H}_2(g)$	0
$\text{Pb}^{2+}(aq) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{Pb}(s)$	-0.13
$\text{Ni}^{2+}(aq) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{Ni}(s)$	-0.26
$\text{Cd}^{2+}(aq) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{Cd}(s)$	-0.40
$\text{Fe}^{2+}(aq) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{Fe}(s)$	-0.45
$\text{Zn}^{2+}(aq) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{Zn}(s)$	-0.76
$2\text{H}_2\text{O}(l) + 2\text{e}^-$	$\rightarrow \text{H}_2(g) + 2\text{OH}^{-}(aq)$	-0.83

- The sign of the redox number tells us in which direction the reaction normally happens (according to the direction given in the table)

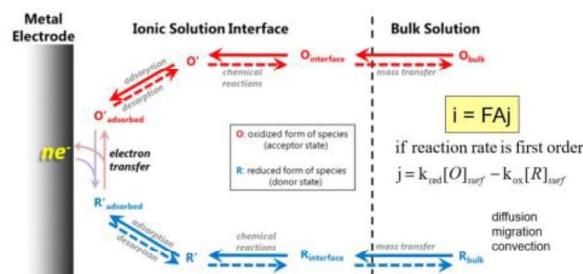
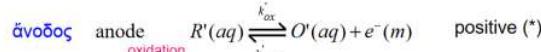
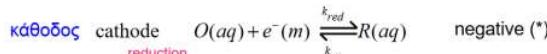
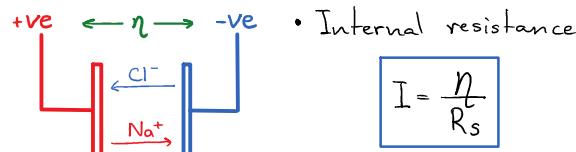


Amperometric Sensors



↳ $\eta = 0 \Rightarrow$ net current equals zero

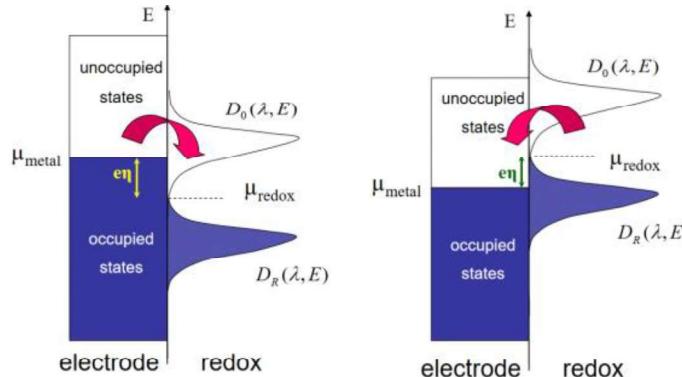
$\eta \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ net current different from zero



$$I = FAj = FA(k_{red}[O]_{surf} - k_{ox}[R]_{surf})$$

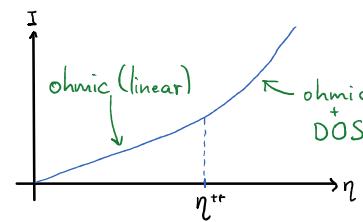
→ η in the Gerischer's view

- The applied overpotential η shifts the μ_{redox} up or down (positive/negative applied voltage) to a state with bigger $D(\lambda, E)$
- Consequently more levels are empty \Rightarrow more e^- jumping \Rightarrow higher current



• In general $Current_{tot} = Current_{ohmic} + Current_{DOS}$

But $Current_{DOS}$ is only noticeable after a threshold overpotential η^{tr}



→ Faraday's Laws

- The quantities of substances involved in the chemical change are proportional to the quantity of electricity which passes through the electrolyte
- The masses of different substances set free or dissolved by a given amount of electricity are proportional to their chemical equivalents

$$M = \frac{q \cdot EW}{F} = \frac{I \cdot t \cdot EW}{F}$$

$EW = \frac{\text{molecular weight}}{\text{valency}}$

$$EZ = \frac{M}{z}$$

$$\Rightarrow m = \frac{q M}{F z} = \frac{I \cdot \Delta t \cdot M}{F z}$$

• Example: Amount of Ni deposited in 45min with a current of 1.5A ($Ni^{2+} + 2e^- \rightarrow Ni$, $M = 58.7 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$)

$$\Rightarrow m = \frac{q M}{F z} = \frac{1.5 \cdot 45 \cdot 60}{96485 \text{ C} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}} \cdot \frac{58.7 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}}{2} = 1.23 \text{ g}$$

• If we want the quantity in moles

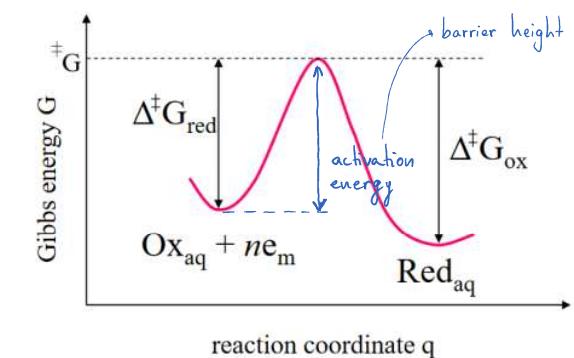
$$\Rightarrow n = \frac{m}{M} = \frac{q M}{F z} \cdot \frac{1}{M} = \frac{q}{F z} = \frac{I \cdot \Delta t}{F z}$$

$$[\text{mol}] \rightarrow n = \frac{Q}{F z} = \frac{I \cdot \Delta t}{F z}$$

$$[\text{g}] \rightarrow m = \frac{Q M}{F z} = \frac{I \cdot \Delta t}{F z}$$

→ Butler-Volmer Equation

- Calculates the electron flow in the presence of an electrode potential
- We want to find the barrier height (intersection of the Gibbs energies for reactants/products) when a potential is applied



→ Considering

- $O^{2-}(aq) + ne^-(m) \rightleftharpoons R^{(z-n)+}(aq)$
- φ_s = potential of the ions in the solution
- φ_m = potential of the electrons in the electrode
- z = valency of the oxidized species, n = number of transferred electrons $\Rightarrow z-n$ = valency of the oxidized species
- $\eta = \varphi_s - \varphi_m = \Delta\varphi|_{app} - \Delta\varphi|_{equiv}$

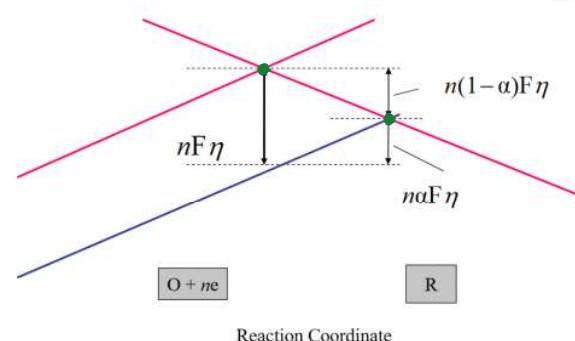
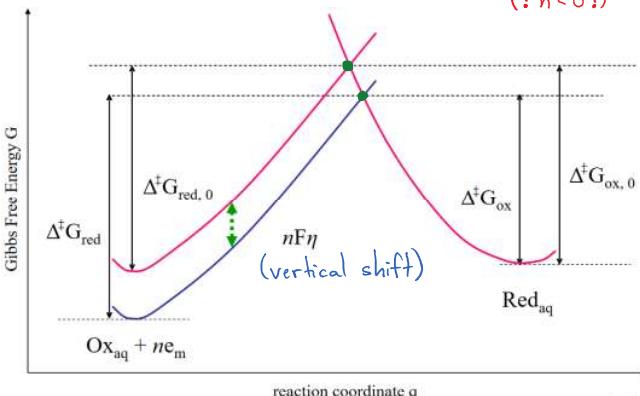
New Gibbs energy $\rightarrow G = G_{\text{no potential}} + G_{\text{Coulombic potential}}$

$$G_{\text{react}} = G'_{\text{react}} + zF\varphi_s - nF\varphi_m$$

$$= G'_{\text{react}} + (z-n)F\varphi_s - nF(\varphi_m - \varphi_s)$$

$$G_{\text{prod}} = G'_{\text{prod}} + (z-n)F\varphi_s$$

↳ $nF\eta$ (vertical shift)
(! $n < 0$!)



• We want to study the intersection, since this defines the height of the barrier

↳ Introduce transfer coefficient α (unknown)

$$\Rightarrow nF\eta = n(1-\alpha)F\eta + \alpha F\eta$$

→ We can now find the barrier height seen from the reactant minimum and seen from the product minimum

$$\Delta^\ddagger G_{\text{red}} = \Delta^\ddagger G_{\text{red},0} + n\alpha F\eta$$

$$\Delta^\ddagger G_{\text{ox}} = \Delta^\ddagger G_{\text{ox},0} - n(1-\alpha)F\eta$$

$$k_{\text{red}} = A_{\text{red}} e^{-\frac{\Delta^\ddagger G_{\text{red}}}{RT}} = A_{\text{red}} e^{-\frac{\Delta^\ddagger G_{\text{red},0}}{RT}} e^{-\frac{n\alpha F\eta}{RT}}$$

$$k_{\text{ox}} = A_{\text{ox}} e^{-\frac{\Delta^\ddagger G_{\text{ox}}}{RT}} = A_{\text{ox}} e^{-\frac{\Delta^\ddagger G_{\text{ox},0}}{RT}} e^{\frac{n(1-\alpha)F\eta}{RT}}$$

considering equilibrium $C(0,t) = C^*$, $\eta = 0 \Rightarrow k_{\text{red}} = k_{\text{ox}} = k_0$

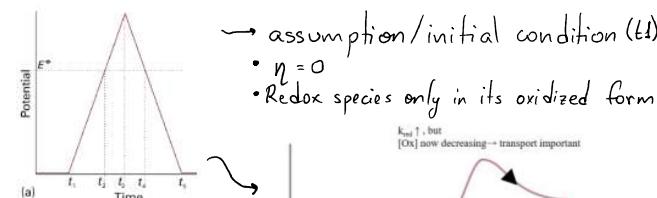
$$k_{\text{red}} = k_0 e^{-\frac{n\alpha F\eta}{RT}} \quad \text{and} \quad k_{\text{ox}} = k_0 e^{\frac{n(1-\alpha)F\eta}{RT}}$$

$$\text{using } I = F \cdot A \cdot j = F \cdot A \cdot (k_{\text{red}} [O]_{\text{surf}} - k_{\text{ox}} [R]_{\text{surf}})$$

$$\Rightarrow I = FAk_0 \left(C_{\text{ox}}(0,t) e^{-\frac{\alpha n F \eta}{RT}} - C_{\text{red}}(0,t) e^{\frac{(1-\alpha)n F \eta}{RT}} \right)$$

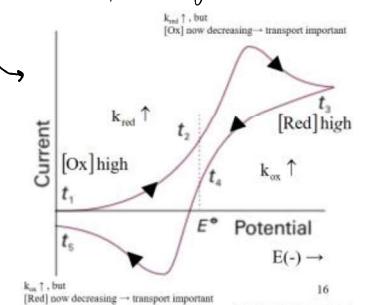
→ Cyclic Voltammetry (CV)

- Type of potentiodynamic electrochemical measurement
- The idea is to apply a positive cyclic sawtooth voltage and record the current



→ assumption/initial condition (t_1):

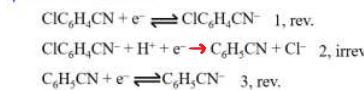
- $\eta = 0$
- Redox species only in its oxidized form



- CV can help to find irreversible steps

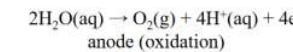
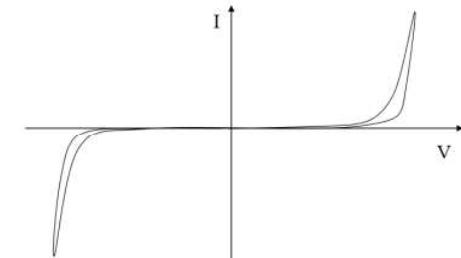
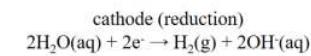
1, red & 2, red

p-chlorobenzonitrile



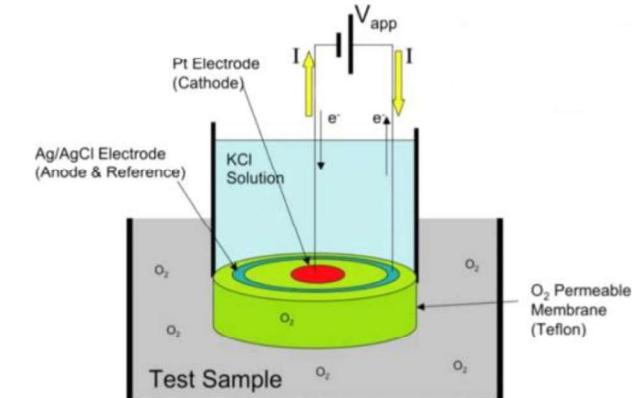
- One minimum missing for ox \Rightarrow this is an irreversible step

• Water electrolysis



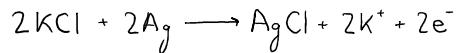
→ Clark Electrode

$$V_{\text{app}} = -0.6\text{V}$$

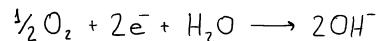


- Platinum and silver electrodes submerged in a concentrated KCl solution
- O_2 permeable membrane (Teflon)
- Voltage source

- By applying a voltage between the Pt (cathode, electron receiver) and Ag (anode, electron donor) electrodes, one oxidizes the silver



- Platinum is a strong catalyst for the covalent dissociation or reassociation of water. If there are electrons present, O_2 will reduce



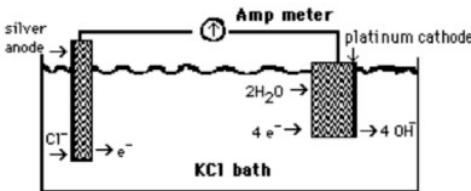
- formation of K^+ (at anode) and consumption of H^+ at cathode \Rightarrow charge balance

- This current flowing through the electrodes will only happen if there is enough O_2 to be reduced

$$\uparrow[\text{O}_2] \Rightarrow \uparrow \text{Current}$$

• The voltage applied helps to move the electrons. At too high voltages we get the electrolysis of KCl so that the current generated will be governed by moving K^+ and Cl^- and not $[\text{O}_2]$. The voltage that is normally applied is the mean of the Nernst potentials of both electrodes.

- Cathode is normally made out of noble metals like platinum, so it does not participate in the reactions

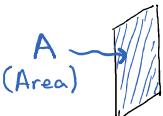
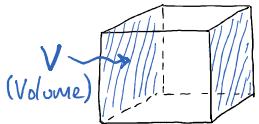


for more details

https://books.google.ch/books?id=pTcJNiRoscsC&pg=PA370&lpg=PA370&dq=:clark+electrode&source=bl&ots=mRWk1I_Ny9&sig=TQFvHtyjDCtmgHPvDzybmtWD_00&hl=de&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwiGmpSyvtLYAhVHuRQKHRxzDfM4ChDoAQh7MA0#v=onepage&q=%3Aclark%20electrode&f=false

Membranes and Transport

1. Concentration & Diffusion



concentration
 $c(x,t) = \lim_{V \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{amount of substance}}{V}$
 $[c(x,t)] = \text{mole} \cdot \text{L}^{-1} = M$
 $1 M = 10^{-3} \text{ mole} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$

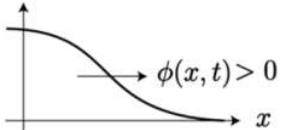
flux
 $\phi(x,t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{amount of substance flowing through A in } \Delta t}{\Delta t \cdot A}$
 $[\phi(x,t)] = \text{mol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$

→ Fick's First Law

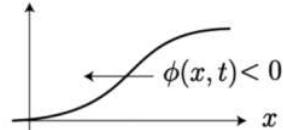
$$\phi(x,t) = -D \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial x}$$

D = Diffusion constant

$c(x,t)$



$c(x,t)$



In general ↑ Molecule size ⇒ ↓ D

→ Continuity equation: for $\Delta x, \Delta t \rightarrow 0$

$$-\frac{\partial \phi(x,t)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial t}$$

• Steady state: outcome for large times t (" $t \rightarrow \infty$ ") → time independent (flux and concentration not changing)

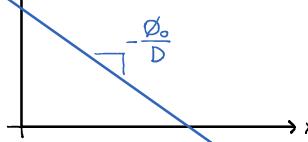
$$\frac{\partial \phi(x,t)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial t} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \phi(x,t)}{\partial x} = 0$$

⇒ $\phi(x,t)$ is constant (in x)

$$\Rightarrow -D \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial x} = \text{constant} = \phi$$

⇒ $c(x,t)$ = linear function of $x = c(x,t_0)$

$c(x,t) \rightarrow t \rightarrow \infty$ for steady state

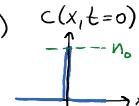


Steady state ≠ Equilibrium

• Time-dependent solution (no steady-state)

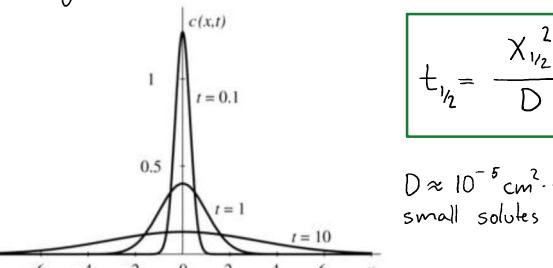
$$\left. \begin{aligned} -\frac{\partial \phi(x,t)}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial t} \\ \phi(x,t) &= -D \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial x} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 c(x,t)}{\partial x^2}$$

• Example: given $c(x,t=0) = n_0 \delta(x)$
 delta-like initial distribution



$$\text{solution: } c(x,t) = \frac{n_0}{\sqrt{4\pi Dt}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4Dt}}$$

→ gaussian mean = 0 $\rightarrow \sigma = \sqrt{2Dt}$

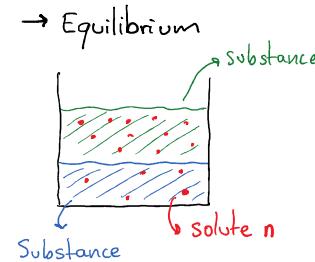
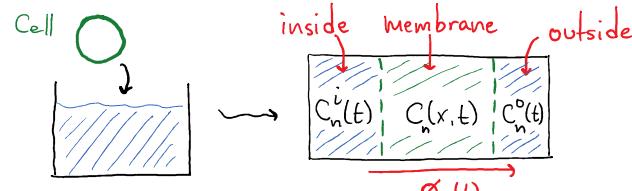


$$D \approx 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \text{ for small solutes (e.g. Na⁺)}$$

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{D}$$

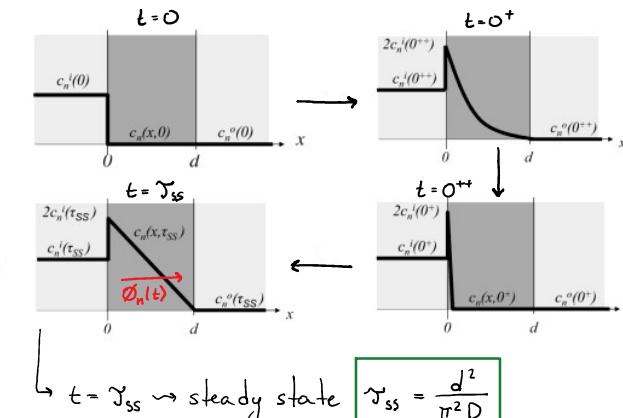
$t_{1/2} = \text{time it takes for half (50%) of the solute diffuse to } |x| > x_{1/2}$

2. Diffusion across membrane



$$k_{A:B} := \frac{C_A}{C_B}$$

partition coefficient



$t = \tau_{ss} \rightarrow \text{steady state}$

$$P_n = \frac{D n k_n}{d}$$

$$\phi_n(t) = P_n (c_n^i(t) - c_n^o(t))$$

↳ permeability of membrane to solute n

3. Osmosis

→ Movement of solvent/water across membranes

→ Membrane may be only permeable to one single substance (only water or only solvent, for example)

4. Ion Transport

$$\rightarrow -\frac{\partial \phi(x,t)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial t} \rightarrow \phi = \frac{\# \text{Ions}}{A \cdot \Delta t} = \frac{I}{A} = J$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial J(x,t)}{\partial t} = -z_n F \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial t}$$

Continuity $\frac{\partial J_n(x,t)}{\partial x} = -z_n F \frac{\partial c_n(x,t)}{\partial t}$ Remember: $-\frac{\partial \phi(x,t)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial c(x,t)}{\partial t}$

A difference in- versus out- flux of charge (i.e. gradient in current density)
→ Increase/decrease in local charge

Poisson's Equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi(x,t)}{\partial x^2} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} \sum_n z_n F c_n(x,t)$$

Electric field potential ↔ Local charge density

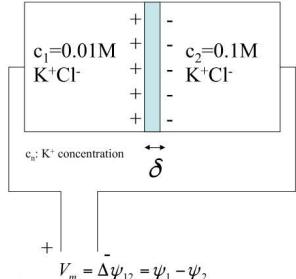
Nernst-Planck Equation

$$J_n(x,t) = -z_n F D_n \frac{\partial c_n(x,t)}{\partial x} - u_n z_n^2 F^2 c_n(x,t) \frac{\partial \psi(x,t)}{\partial x}$$

Molar mechanical mobility

Current ↔ Diffusion of charge + Mobility of charge in E-field

Membrane permeable only to K^+



$$V_n \approx \frac{60}{z_n} \log_{10} \left(\frac{c_s^o}{c_s^i} \right) \text{ mV}$$

↓
Nernst Potential for a specific ion

$$\Delta \psi_{12} = \psi_1 - \psi_2 = \frac{D_n}{u_n z_n F} \ln \left(\frac{c_2}{c_1} \right) = \frac{RT}{z_n F} \ln \left(\frac{c_2}{c_1} \right) \quad \text{Nernst Potential}$$

$c_{K^+}^i$	$c_{K^+}^o = V_m = V_K = \frac{RT}{F} \ln \left(\frac{c_{K^+}^o}{c_{K^+}^i} \right)$	No K^+ diffusion
$c_{Na^+}^i$	$V_m = V_{Na^+} = \frac{RT}{F} \ln \left(\frac{c_{Na^+}^o}{c_{Na^+}^i} \right)$	No Na^+ diffusion
$c_{Cl^-}^i$	$c_{Cl^-}^o = V_m = V_{Cl^-} = \frac{RT}{(-1)F} \ln \left(\frac{c_{Cl^-}^o}{c_{Cl^-}^i} \right)$	No Cl^- diffusion
⋮	⋮	⋮
⋮	$\left(\frac{c_{K^+}^o}{c_{K^+}^i} \right) = \left(\frac{c_{Na^+}^o}{c_{Na^+}^i} \right)^{-1} = \left(\frac{c_{Cl^-}^o}{c_{Cl^-}^i} \right)^{1/2} = \dots = \left(\frac{c_X^o}{c_X^i} \right)^{\frac{1}{z_X}} = e^{\left(\frac{z_F V_m}{RT} \right)}$	

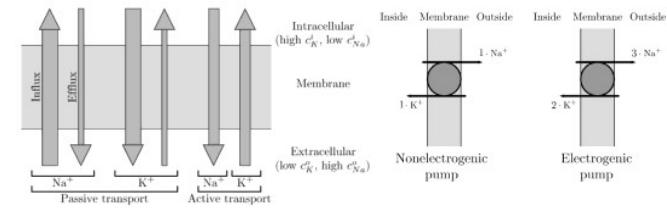
Donnan Equilibrium

→ Ion concentrations

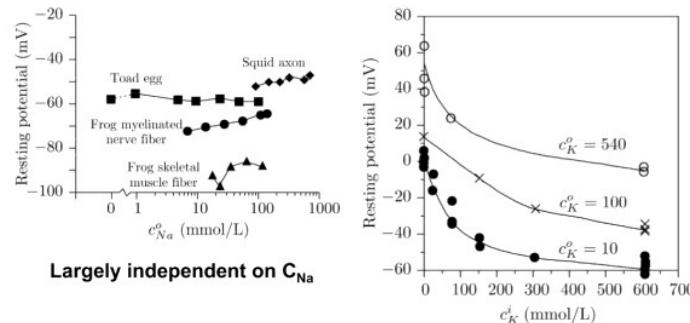
Component	Intracellular Concentration (mM)	Extracellular Concentration (mM)	Nernst Potential (mV)
Cations			
Na^+	5-15	145	58 ~ 86
K^+	140	5	-85
Mg^{2+}	0.5	1-2	17.8 ~ 35.5
Ca^{2+}	10^{-4}	1-2	236
H^+	7×10^{-5} (10 ^{-7.2} M or pH 7.2)	4×10^{-5} (10 ^{-7.4} M or pH 7.4)	-14
Anions			
Cl^-	5-15	5-15	-

5. Active Transport

→ Active-driven pump for each ion to maintain quasi-equilibrium ($J^a + J^p \approx 0$)

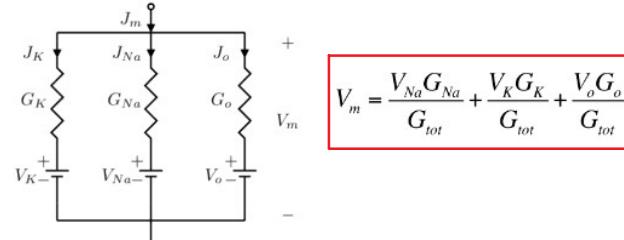


• Resting potential is at about -70 mV and is mostly dependent on potassium concentrations (C_K^i and C_K^o)



Dependent on both C_K^i and C_K^o (Squid giant axon)

→ Multiple-ion Model



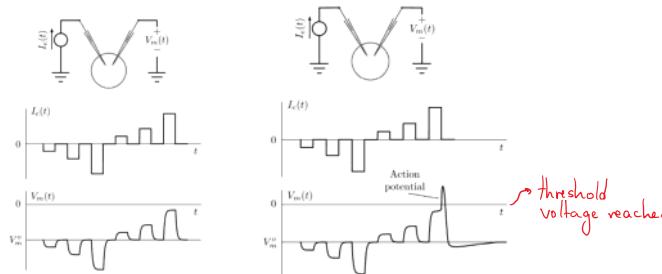
$$V_m = \frac{V_{Na} G_{Na}}{G_{tot}} + \frac{V_K G_K}{G_{tot}} + \frac{V_o G_o}{G_{tot}}$$

Ion	G_n (S/cm ²)	G_n/G_m	c_n^o/c_n^i	V_n (mV)
K^+	3.7×10^{-4}	0.55	0.05	-72
Na^+	1×10^{-5}	0.016	9.8	+55
leakage	3.0×10^{-4}	0.44	—	-49

AP & HH

→ Non-excitatory vs excitatory cells (i.e. neurons)

Graded Response
(Electrically non-excitatory cells) vs Action Potential
(Electrically excitatory cells)



→ Properties of action potentials

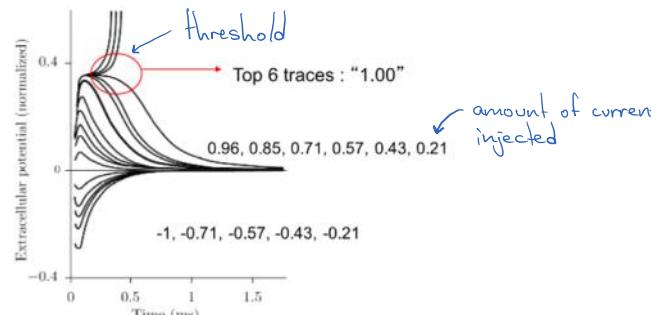
1. They are universal → same concept for all animals

2. All-or-none Threshold

- Very sharp threshold → too high current will also not generate an action potential

all-or-none

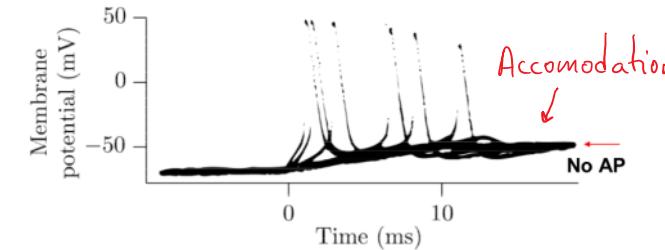
- After reaching threshold, APs are pretty much the same



3. Accommodation

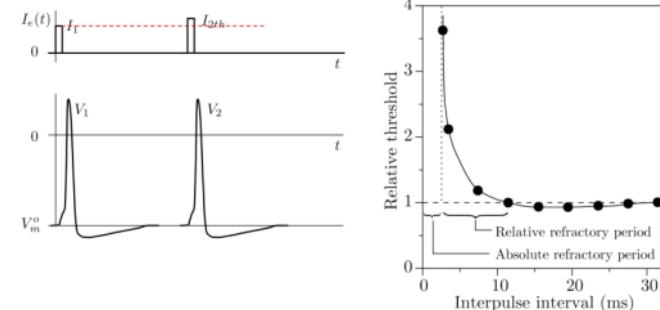
- Cells ignore slow increasing currents → they are "smart"

- "Threshold" is not a simple definition (constant voltage, for example)



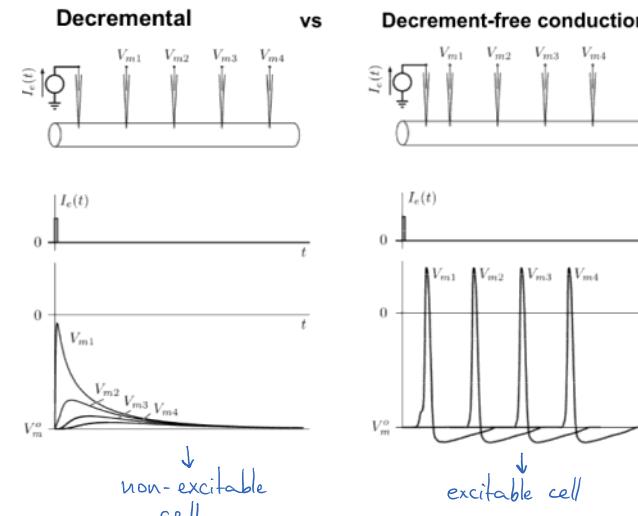
4. Refractoriness

- After firing an AP it is more difficult to fire subsequent APs

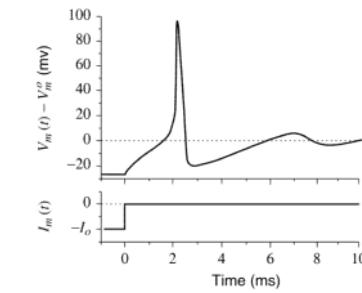


5. Decrement-free conduction

- Graded potential: Conducts decrementally (decaying)
- Action potential: Conducts dissipation-free (amplification?)



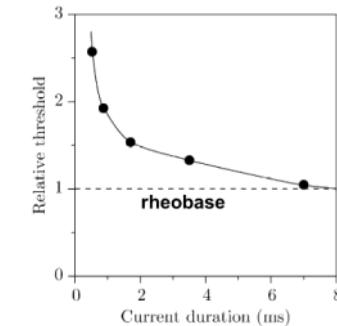
6. Anode Break



7. Strength-duration relation

For longer duration current pulse, the lower the current threshold for stimulation of AP.

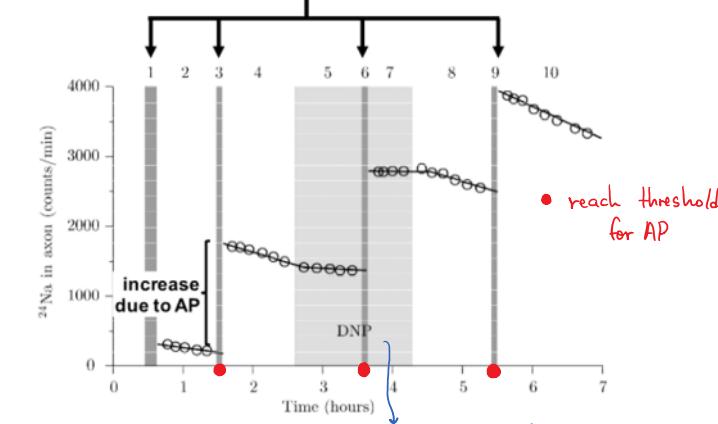
Rheobase : threshold in response to a current of arbitrarily long duration



8. Active pumps are not responsible for APs

- DNP blocks active pump functionality

Action potential is inducible repeatedly even after DNP treatment

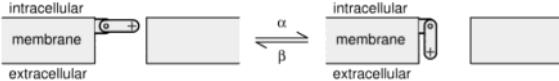


AP even though we blocked active pumps

- One action potential causes only a little change in Na concentration

- By hyperpolarizing (more negative) and the repolarizing back to resting potential, you could elicit action potentials as well

→ Channel Modeling



Assume \mathcal{N} channels per unit area, of which $n(t)$ are open.

$$\frac{dn(t)}{dt} = \alpha(\mathcal{N} - n(t)) - \beta n(t)$$

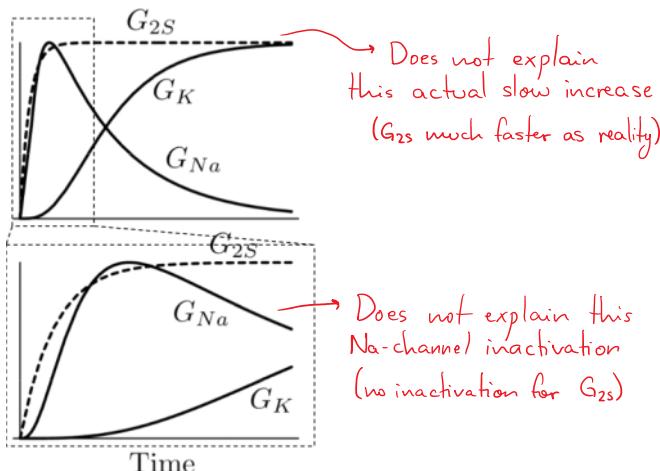
$$n(t) = n_\infty + (n(0) - n_\infty) e^{-t/\tau_x}; \quad n_\infty = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \mathcal{N}, \quad \tau_x = \frac{1}{\alpha + \beta}$$

Assume \mathcal{N} is large.

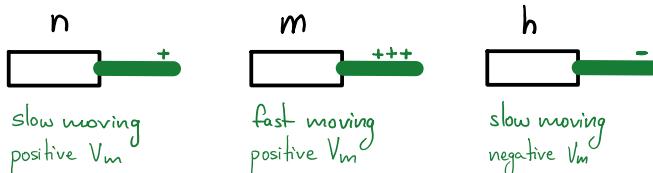
$$x(t) = \text{probability gate is open} \approx \frac{n(t)}{\mathcal{N}}$$

$$x(t) = x_\infty + (x(0) - x_\infty) e^{-t/\tau_x}; \quad x_\infty = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}, \quad \tau_x = \frac{1}{\alpha + \beta}$$

- The 2-state ion-channel model could not perfectly describe $G_K(V_m, t)$ and $G_{Na}(V_m, t)$



- Solution: Multi-stage ion-channels



$$\frac{dn}{dt} = \alpha_n(V_m)(1 - n) - \beta_n(V_m)n$$

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = \alpha_m(V_m)(1 - m) - \beta_m(V_m)m$$

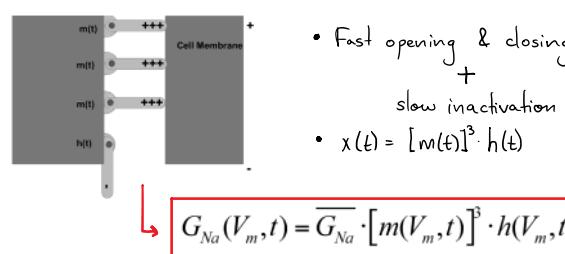
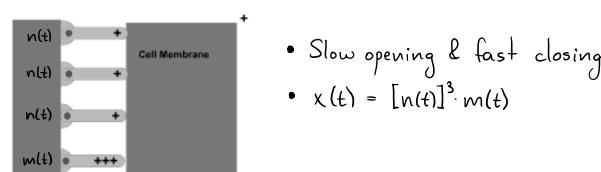
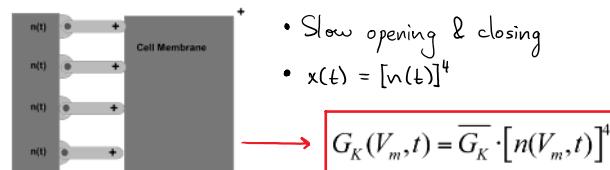
$$\frac{dh}{dt} = \alpha_h(V_m)(1 - h) - \beta_h(V_m)h$$

• Original parameters used by Huxley

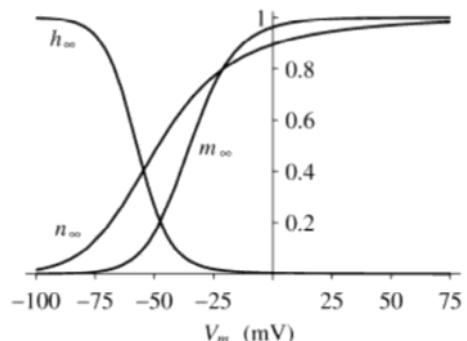
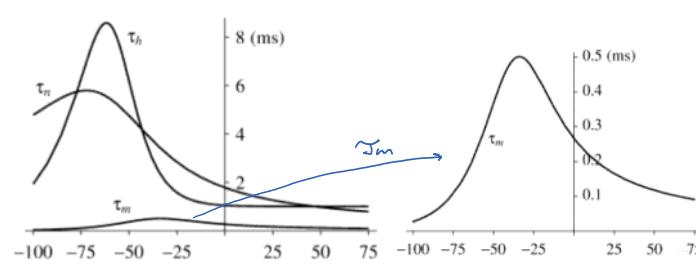
$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_n(V_m) &= \frac{0.01(10 - V_m)}{\exp\left(\frac{10 - V_m}{10}\right) - 1} & \alpha_m(V_m) &= \frac{0.1(25 - V_m)}{\exp\left(\frac{25 - V_m}{10}\right) - 1} & \alpha_h(V_m) &= 0.07 \exp\left(\frac{-V_m}{20}\right) \\ \beta_n(V_m) &= 0.125 \exp\left(\frac{-V_m}{80}\right) & \beta_m(V_m) &= 4 \exp\left(\frac{-V_m}{18}\right) & \beta_h(V_m) &= \frac{1}{\exp\left(\frac{30 - V_m}{10}\right) + 1} \end{aligned}$$

- Nowadays it is generalized to $\frac{A_p(V_m - B_p)}{\exp\left(\frac{V_m - B_p}{C_p}\right) - D_p}$
same for α, β

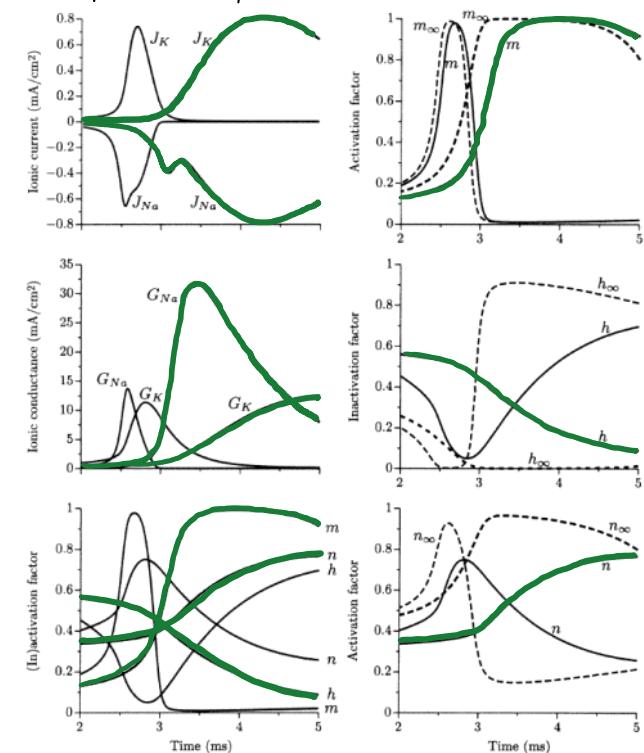
↳ values determined experimentally



T_n, T_m, T_h, h_∞, m_∞, n_∞, change with V_m, hence with time during AP



• Temperature dependence



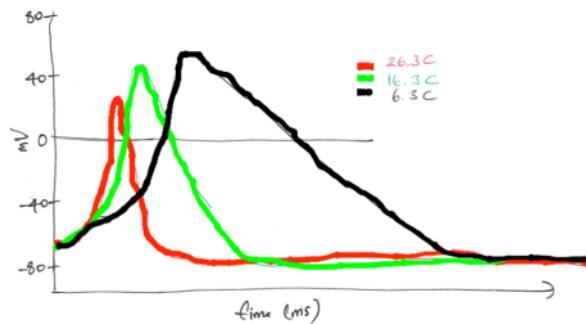
Green ⇒ 6.3 °C

Black ⇒ 26.3 °C

→ Temperature increase affects the speed of an AP

→ Temperature can affect both the Nernst Potential and the different rate constants (h, n, m)

↳ Change caused by Nernst Potential is negligible!



- Concentration dependence

→ Affects the Nernst Potential $\phi_{ion} = \frac{RT}{zF} \ln \left(\frac{[ion]^o}{[ion]^i} \right)$

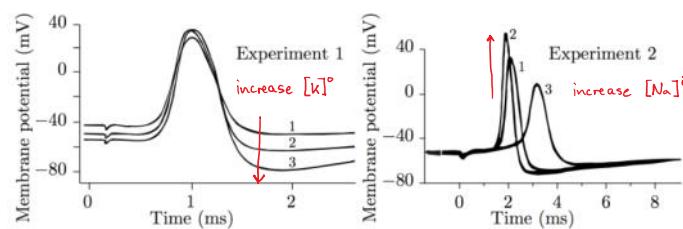
* Na concentrations affect depolarization maximum, since at depolarization the membrane voltage V_m reaches V_{Na}

* K concentrations affect hyperpolarization minimum, since at hyperpolarization the membrane voltage V_m reaches V_K

$$J_m \propto G_{Na}(V_m(t) - V_{Na}) + G_K(V_m(t) - V_K)$$

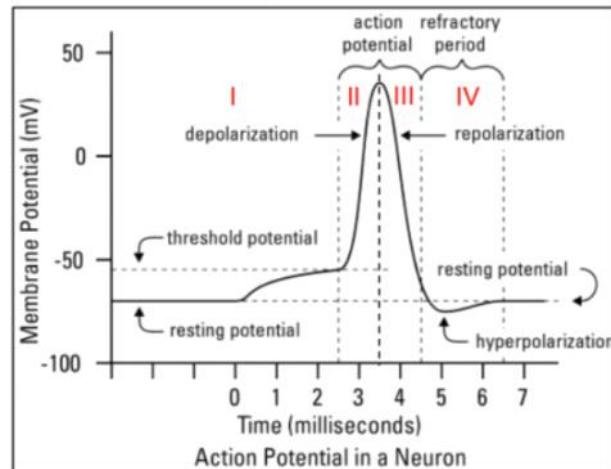
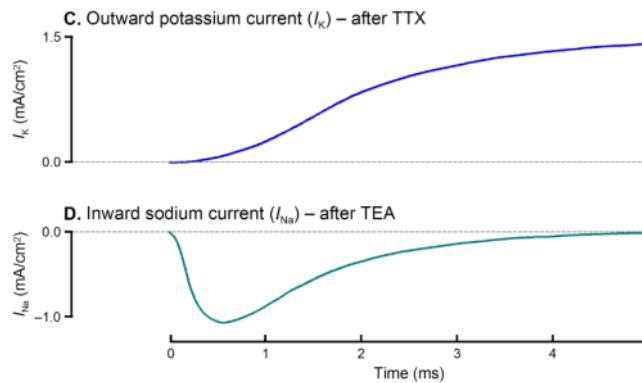
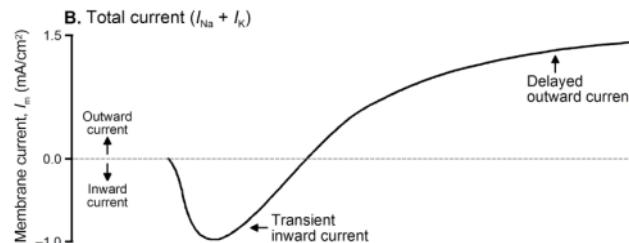
⇒ ↑ intracellular $[Na]^i \Rightarrow \downarrow V_{Na} \Rightarrow \uparrow V_{m, peak}$

⇒ ↑ extracellular $[K]^o \Rightarrow \uparrow V_K \Rightarrow \downarrow V_{m, hyp.}$ (also resting potential)



⇒ Concentration differences only create a shift on V_m / J_m

• Total Current $J_m = J_{Na} + J_K$

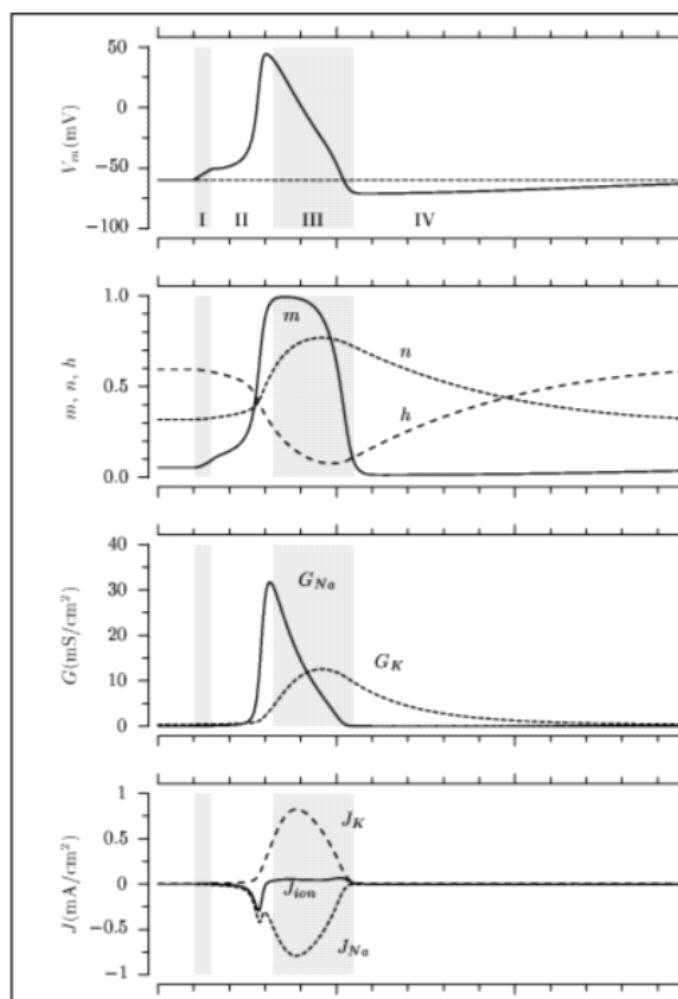


I: Pre-AP threshold

II: AP initiation (Depolarization)

III: AP ending (Repolarization)

IV: Post-AP refractory period (Hyperpolarization)

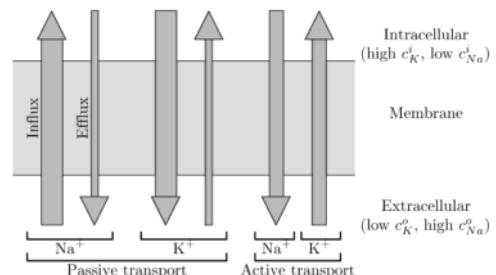


	A	B	C	D
Stage of action potential	Resting	Depolarization	Repopulation	Hyperpolarization
Voltage-gated Na Channel status	Closed	Open	Closed	Closed
Voltage-gated K Channel status	Closed	Closed	Open	Open
No Flow through Na Channel	Zero	Flows into Axon	Zero	Zero
K Flow through K Channel	Zero	Zero	Out of Axon	Zero

- Active Pumps

→ When blocking the pumps, two things happen

1. Na influx $\rightarrow [Na]^i \downarrow, [Na]^o \Rightarrow \downarrow V_{m, peak}$
2. K efflux $\rightarrow [K]^i \downarrow, [K]^o \Rightarrow \uparrow V_{m, rest}$



Properties

3. Accommodation → Na⁺-channels inactivate over small ramp-up currents ($h \approx 0$)

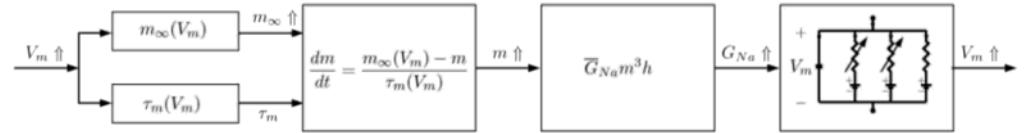
4. Refractoriness → Na⁺-channels still inactive ($h \approx 0$)

6. Anode Break

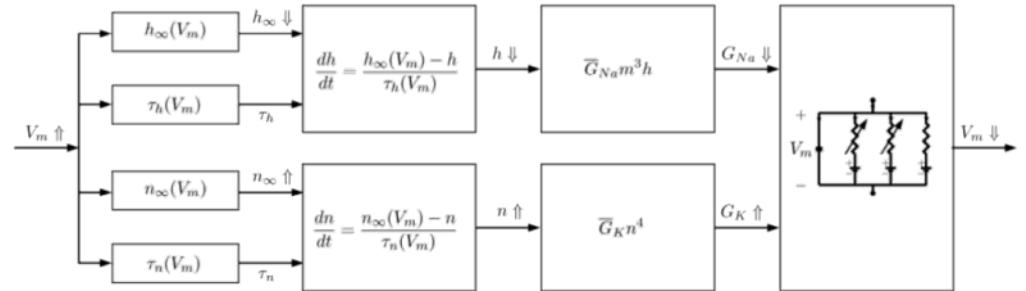
Less inactive Na⁺ channels } upon immediate return to old
Less open K⁺ channels } resting potential

→ These cannot respond fast enough → lower threshold for AP

Depolarization mechanism – positive feedback (early on during AP)



Repopulation mechanisms – negative feedback (later during AP)



Original Hodgkin Huxley Model

4 state variables: $V_m(t), n(t), m(t), h(t)$

4 Initial conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} V(t=0) &= V_m^o \\ n(t=0) &= n_\infty(V_m^o) \\ m(t=0) &= m_\infty(V_m^o) \\ h(t=0) &= h_\infty(V_m^o) \end{aligned}$$

4 state update equations :

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_n(V_m) \frac{dn(V_m, t)}{dt} + n(V_m, t) &= n_\infty(V_m) \\ \tau_m(V_m) \frac{dm(V_m, t)}{dt} + m(V_m, t) &= m_\infty(V_m) \\ \tau_h(V_m) \frac{dh(V_m, t)}{dt} + h(V_m, t) &= h_\infty(V_m) \end{aligned}$$

$$G_K(V_m, t) = \bar{G}_K n^4(V_m, t)$$

$$G_{Na}(V_m, t) = \bar{G}_{Na} m^3(V_m, t) h(V_m, t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} J_m(t) &= J_C + J_{Na} + J_K + J_L + J_{ext} \\ &= C_m \frac{dV_m(t)}{dt} + G_{Na}(V_m, t) \cdot (V_m(t) - V_{Na}) \\ &\quad + G_K(V_m, t) \cdot (V_m(t) - V_K) + G_L \cdot (V_m(t) - V_L) + J_{ext} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_m &= \frac{1}{\alpha_m + \beta_m} \quad \text{and} \quad m_\infty = \frac{\alpha_m}{\alpha_m + \beta_m}, \\ \tau_h &= \frac{1}{\alpha_h + \beta_h} \quad \text{and} \quad h_\infty = \frac{\alpha_h}{\alpha_h + \beta_h}, \\ \tau_n &= \frac{1}{\alpha_n + \beta_n} \quad \text{and} \quad n_\infty = \frac{\alpha_n}{\alpha_n + \beta_n}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_m &= \frac{-0.1(V_m + 35)}{e^{-0.1(V_m + 35)} - 1} K_T \\ \beta_m &= 4e^{-(V_m + 60)/18} K_T \\ \alpha_h &= 0.07e^{-0.05(V_m + 60)} K_T \\ \beta_h &= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-0.1(V_m + 30)}} K_T \\ \alpha_n &= \frac{-0.01(V_m + 50)}{e^{-0.1(V_m + 50)} - 1} K_T \\ \beta_n &= 0.125e^{-0.0125(V_m + 60)} K_T \end{aligned}$$

where V_m is expressed in mV and all the α 's and β 's are expressed in 1/ms.