



Electrophysiology

Goals

- Myocardial action potential
- Electrical components of the heart
- Components of an Electrocardiogram
- 3-lead rhythm interpretation



Cardiovascular Electrophysiology

MYOCARDIAL ACTION POTENTIAL



Myocardial Action Potential

- Cardiac muscle tissue is comprised of unique muscle cells called cardiomyocytes
- Stimulation for contraction occurs in a similar fashion to that of skeletal or smooth muscle cells, however cardiac myocytes have some unique properties.
 - Prolonged action potential
 - Opening of Ca²⁺ channels



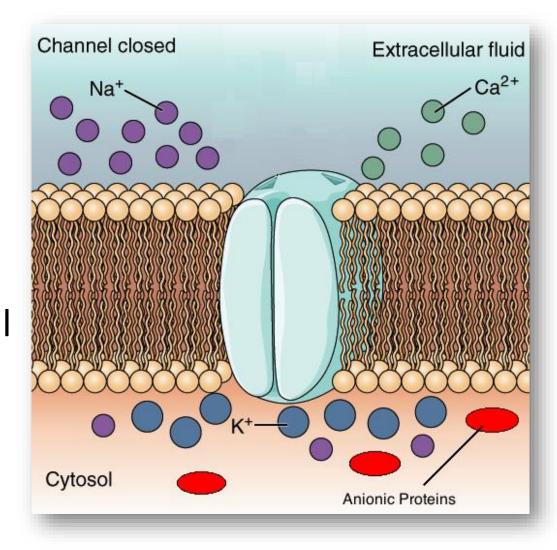
Myocardial Action Potential

- As is the case with other action potentials in the body, the presence of electrolytes in their respective intracellular and extracellular fluids is key
 - Intracellular: K⁺, negatively charged proteins
 - Extracellular: Ca²⁺, Na⁺, Cl⁻
- When electrolytes are in their normal locations, gradients are established
 - Concentration gradient
 - Electrochemical gradient



Myocardial Action Potential

- Difference in concentration of electrolytes between ECF and Cytosol create concentration gradient
- Difference in overall charge across the membrane gives rise to an electrochemical gradient





Resting Membrane Potential

- When not stimulated, the cardiomyocyte is said to be at Resting Membrane Potential
- At this time the inside of the cell (cytosol) is more negatively charged than the outside (ECF)
 - The difference in charge from one side of the membrane to the other is -90 mV (RMP)
 - Cytosol negative due to anionic proteins and passive 'leaking' out of K⁺ into ECF



Resting Membrane Potential

- With more positive charge in the ECF and more negative charge in the cytosol the membrane is now polar
- When the charges on either side of the membrane are equal the membrane is non polar.
- The process that changes the membrane from polar to non polar is called depolarization
- A process that converts the membrane back to polar is called repolarization

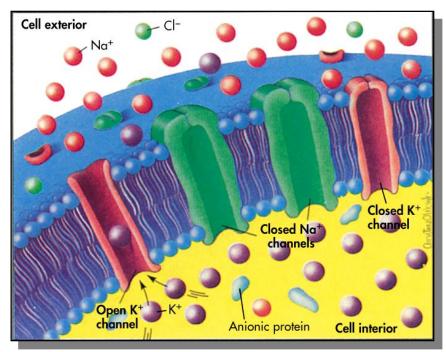


Ion Channels

- Cell membrane is selectively permeable
 - Relatively permeable to K⁺
 - Less permeable to Ca²⁺
 - Minimally permeable to Na⁺
- Transmembrane transport proteins allow for movement of non-

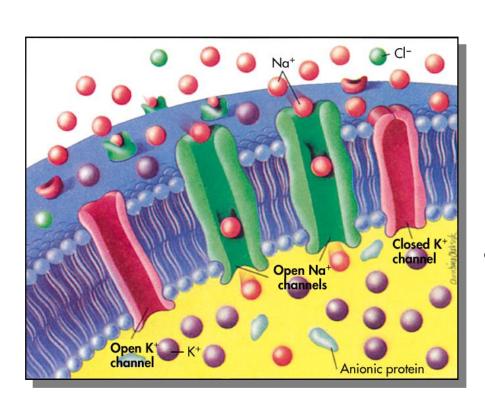
permeable ions through the membrane

Open/close based on voltage created from electrochemical gradient





Ion Channels

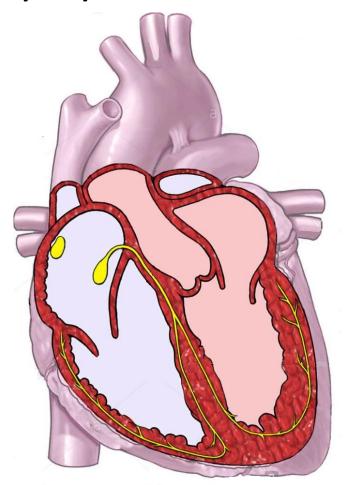


- Some channels, when open, allow for rapid movement of electrolytes ("fast channels")
 - Other channels only allow reduced flow of electrolytes ("slow channels")



Impulse Initiation

- There are 2 types of cardiomyocytes:
 - 1. Pacemaker cells
 - 2. Non-pacemaker cells





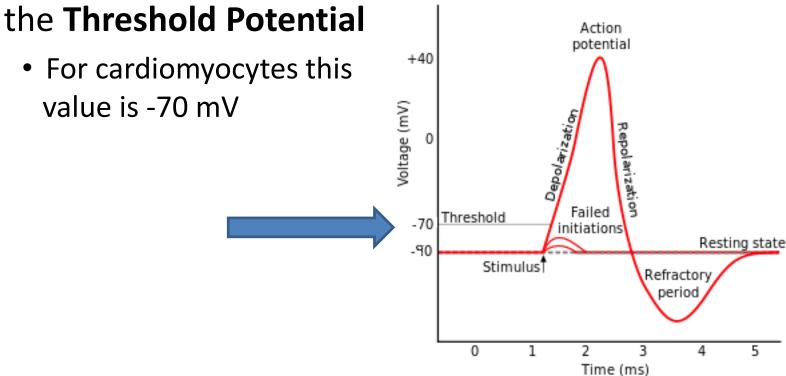
Impulse Initiation

- Pacemaker cells
 - Impulse initiation is accomplished by the individual cell (i.e. no external stimulus)
 - This gives rise to the unique property of cardiac muscle tissue known as **Automaticity**
- Non-pacemaker cells
 - Receive stimulation from other cardiomyocytes (pacemaker cells) or nerve cells to initiate an impulse
- In either case, once an impulse has been initiated an Action Potential has begun



Threshold Potential

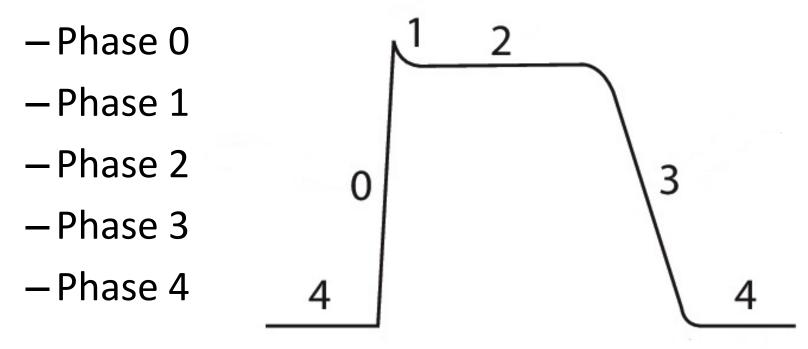
- As is the case with skeletal muscle, not all impulses result in cardiomyocyte contraction
 - The impulse must be great enough to overcome





Cardiac Action Potential

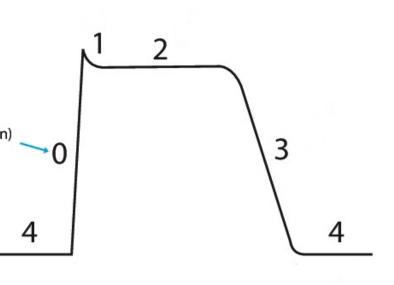
Cardiac action potential is divided into five phases





Rapid Depolarization Phase

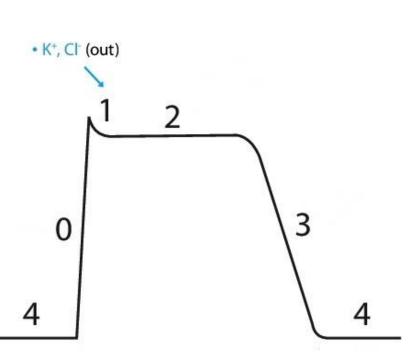
- As the membrane reaches the threshold potential, fast Na⁺ channels open allowing for fast influx of Na⁺ into the cytosol
- The previously negative cytosol becomes more positive and closer in charge to that of the ECF
- This causes the membrane to be less polar = depolarization





Phase 1 Early Repolarization Phase

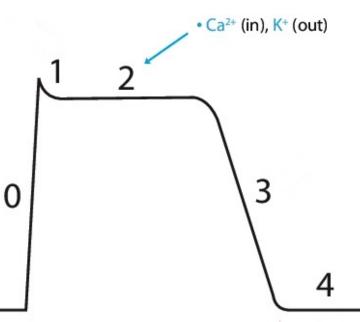
- After the large influx of Na⁺ into the cytosol, the membrane potential has now increased to become slightly positive
- This means there is now more positive charge in the cytosol compared to the ECF
- This voltage change causes K⁺ channels to open and increases movement of K⁺ from the cytosol to the ECF
- This movement starts the membrane back towards the RMP and therefore is repolarization





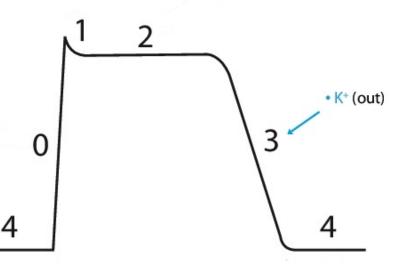
Phase 2 Plateau Phase

- Ca²⁺ channels open and Ca²⁺ starts to enter the cell
- This keeps the inside of the cell positive longer, prolonging the process of repolarization
- During this time, K⁺ is still also leaking out of the cell
- This movement of positive charge in (Ca²⁺) and positive charge out (K⁺) counteract each other and the membrane potential is unchanged (plateau)



Phase 3 Terminal Repolarization Phase

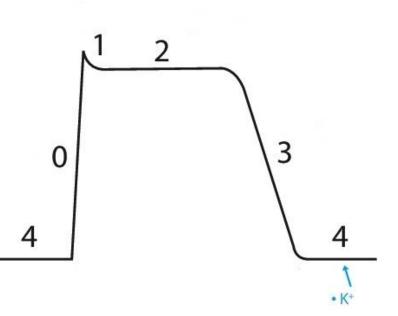
- Ca²⁺ channels close and membrane becomes even more permeable to K⁺
- Causes large decrease in positive charge in the Cytosol
- Results in the membrane potential returning back toward a negative value
- Ends when membrane potential returns to RMP and the membrane is once again polar





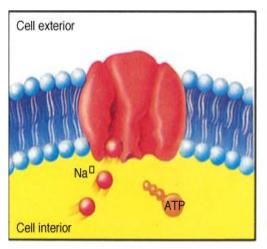
Phase 4 Resting phase

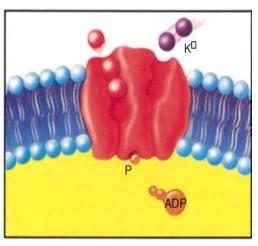
- At the end of an action potential, the membrane is back to RMP, however the electrolytes are not in their proper locations
- Na⁺ and Ca2⁺ are primarily in the Cytosol and K⁺ is primarily in the ECF
- During this phase, 3 pumps exchange electrolytes across the membrane to restore them to the correct locations

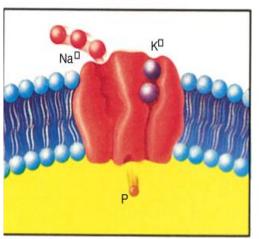


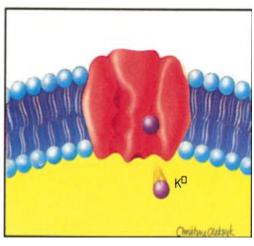


Phase 4 Na-K Pump (Na+/K+-ATPase)









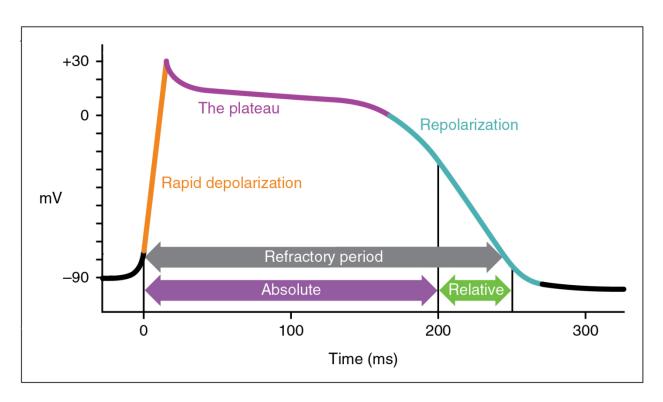
- Na⁺/Ca²⁺exchanger moves Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ back into ECF
- Ca²⁺ ATPase moves
 Ca²⁺ back into ECF
- Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase moves
 Na⁺ back into ECF and
 K⁺ back into the
 Cytosol



Refractory Period

 The refractory period represents the time in which a subsequent stimulus will either not initiate another action potential or a stronger than normal stimulus is

needed



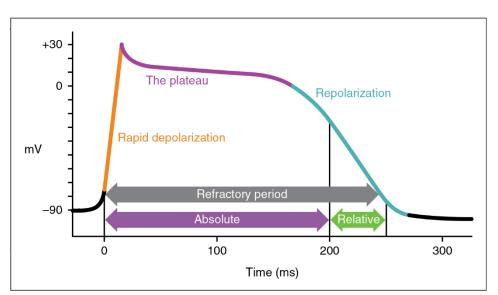


Refractory Period

- That refractory period can either be:
 - Absolute Refractory
 - No further stimulus, no matter how strong, will initiate another action potential
 - 2. Relative Refractory

A greater than normal stimulus is needed to initiate another action

potential





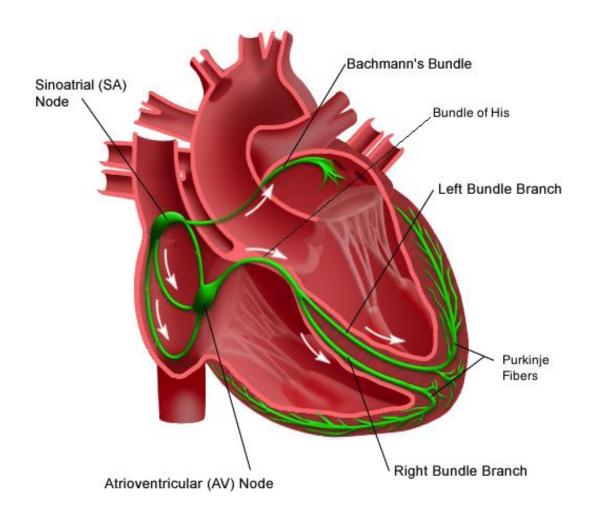
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COMPONENTS OF AN ELECTROCARDIOGRAM



Electrical Conduction System

SA node → AV node → Bundle of His → Bundle Branches → Purkinje Fibers





Electrocardiogram

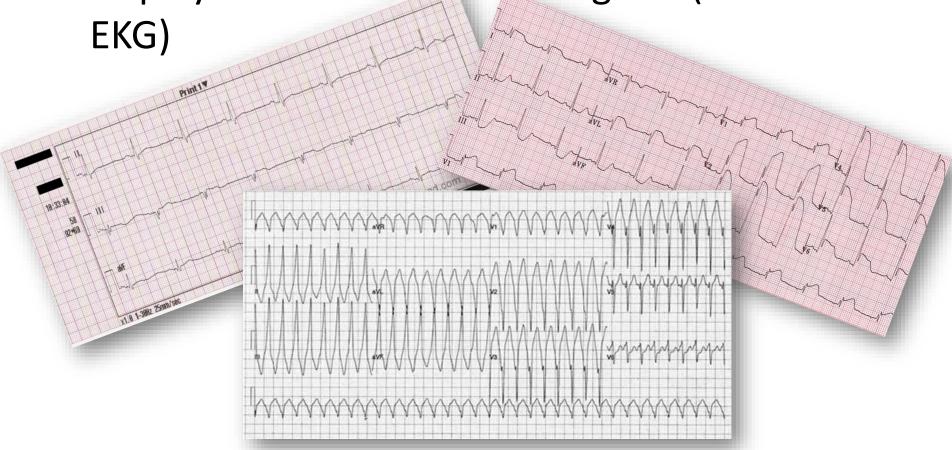
- By placing electrodes on the skin, we can detect the electrical activity of the heart.
- Options include:





Electrocardiogram

 The electrical activity is recorded and displayed as an electrocardiogram (ECG or



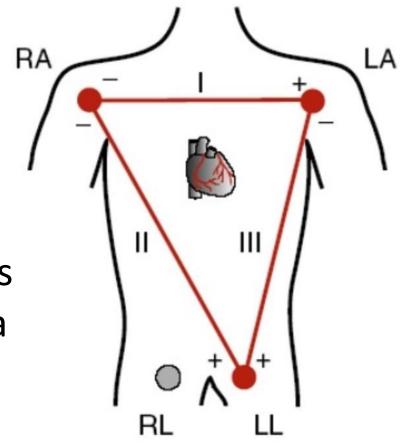


Willem Einthoven

- Dutch physician that studied and perfected the electrocardiogram in 1903
- Developed the technique that utilizes 3 leads to form equilateral triangle to detect the heart's electrical vector.
 - Later became known as Einthoven's Triangle
 - Gave rise to the three limb leads (I, II, III)

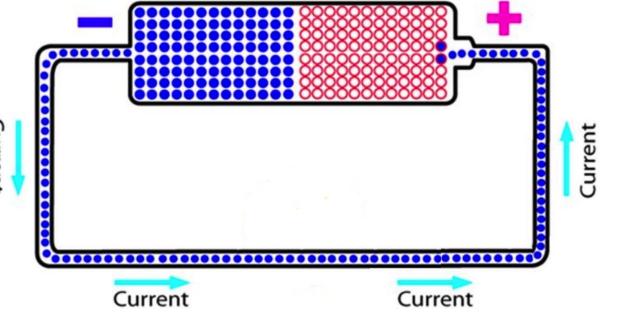


- By placing electrodes on three limbs the heart's electrical vector can be recorded from 3 directions
- These electrodes are considered **Bipolar** leads as they can represent either a positive or negative electrode



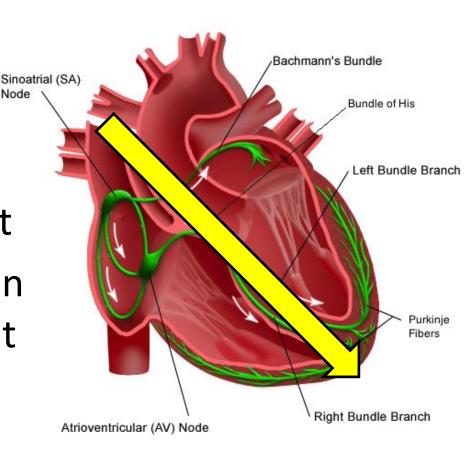


- Electrical current is the movement of electrons between poles
- Electrons move from the negative pole to the positive pole



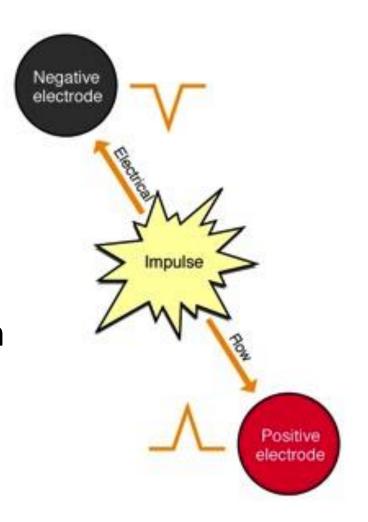


- The overall movement
 of electrical current
 (electron flow) within
 the heart is downward
 and to the patient's left
- Using electrodes we can monitor this movement



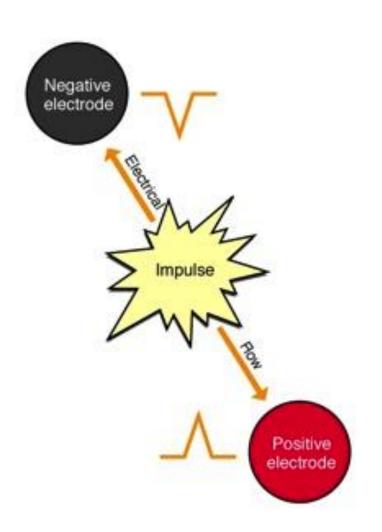


- Since normally, electrons flow toward the positive electrode, we can use the positive electrode as an observation point.
- When looking at an ECG, the tracing will deflect above or below the horizontal based on whether the electrons are flowing toward or away from the positive electrode



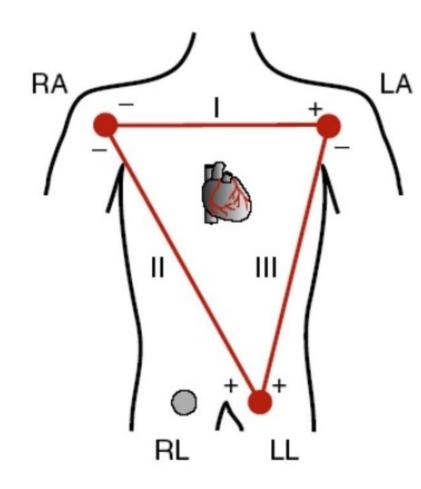


- If electrons flow away from the positive electrode = negative deflection
- If electrons flow toward the positive electrode = positive deflection



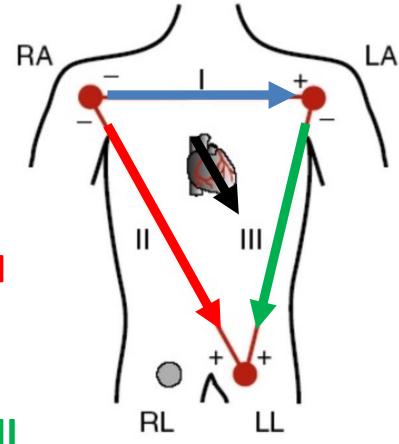


 When obtaining a 3-lead ECG, we place bipolar electrodes on the Right Arm (RA), Left Arm (LA) and Left Leg (LL) then can obtain various "views" of the heart's electrical current



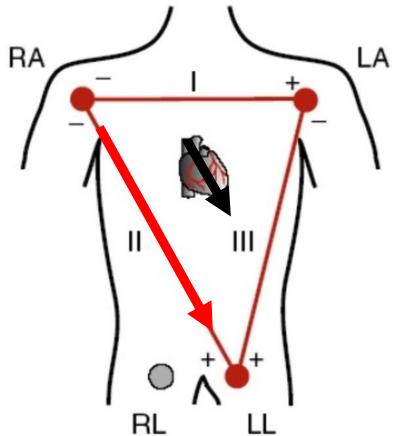


- When RA is a negative electrode, and LA is a positive electrode = Lead I
- When RA is a negative electrode, and LL is a positive electrode = Lead II
- When LA is a negative electrode, and LL is a positive electrode = Lead III





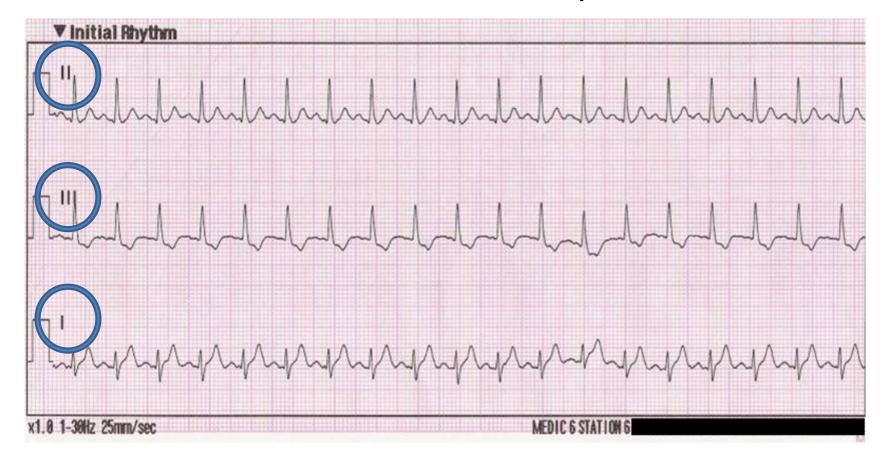
 The direction of flow for lead II is closest to the heart's normal electrical current and as such is used as the primary lead in rhythm interpretation





3-lead ECG Tracing

 3-lead ECG showing 3 different views at the same time of the heart's electrical activity



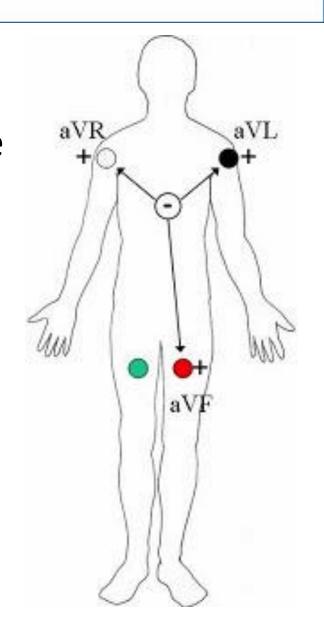


- In addition to the bipolar electrodes providing the three limb lead views, the ECG machine can use these same electrodes to create three different views
- The ECG machine can computationally use the heart's center as a negative pole and then use each bipolar electrode as a the positive pole
- This gives rise to three new views referred to as Augmented leads





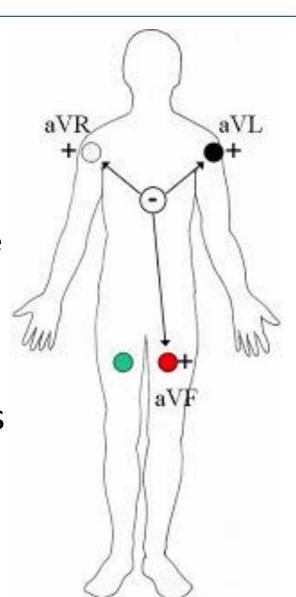
- Augmented leads are named based on the positive electrode
 - aVR = augmented vector right because RA is used as positive electrode
 - aVL = augmented vector left because LA is used as positive electrode
 - aVF = augmented vector foot because LL is used as positive electrode





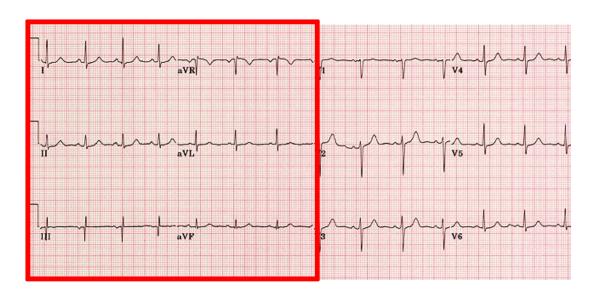


- The corresponding ECG tracings these augmented leads produce follow the same principles as the limb leads
 - i.e. if flow of current moves toward positive electrode the ECG will show positive deflection
- Therefore, when looking at the positive electrode of aVR, the normal current of the heart moves directly away from it
 - Therefore, aVR should be negatively deflected on an ECG





- As a result of correctly placing the 3 limb leads, we can obtain 6 different views of the heart's electrical current
 - Leads I, II & III, aVR, aVL, aVF
 - This provides us with half of the 12 views of a 12-lead ECG





- In order to obtain the final 6 views of a 12lead ECG we must place 6 more electrodes on the patient
- These 6 electrodes provide us with 6 more views known as the precordial leads





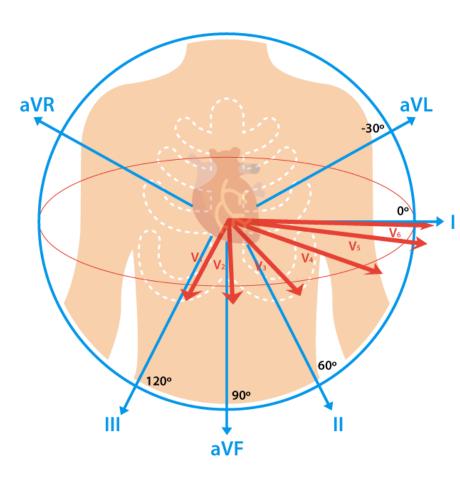


- Similar to the augmented leads, the precordial leads use the heart's center as the negative electrode and each precordial electrode acts as the positive
- The difference, however, is that the precordial leads view the heart on a different axis than the limb and augmented leads



Precordial Leads

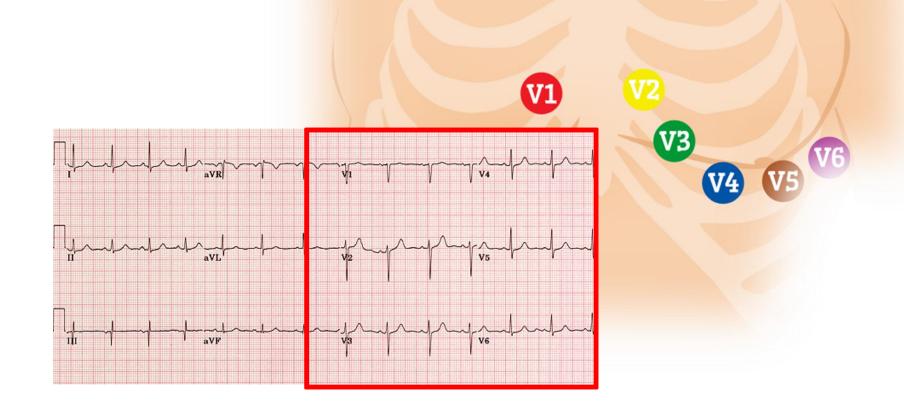
- The limb & augmented leads view the heart in a vertical (frontal) axis
- The precordial leads view the heart in a horizontal (transverse) axis





Precordial Leads

 The precordial leads are labelled V1 – V6 and provide the final 6 views of the 12-lead ECG.



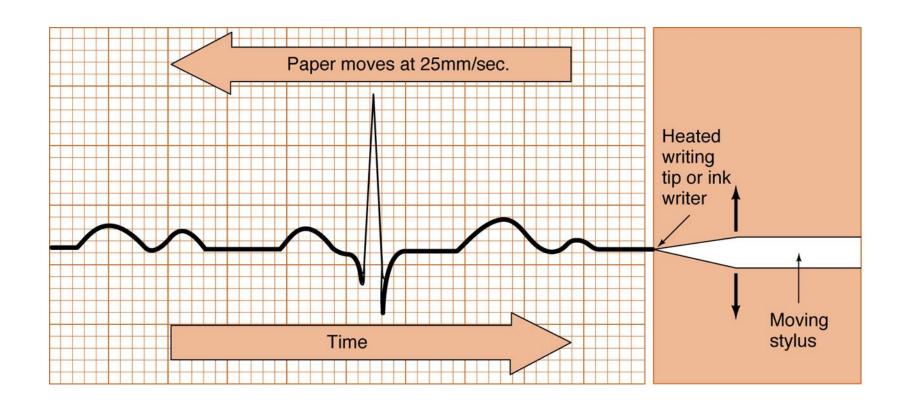


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3-LEAD ECG INTERPRETATION

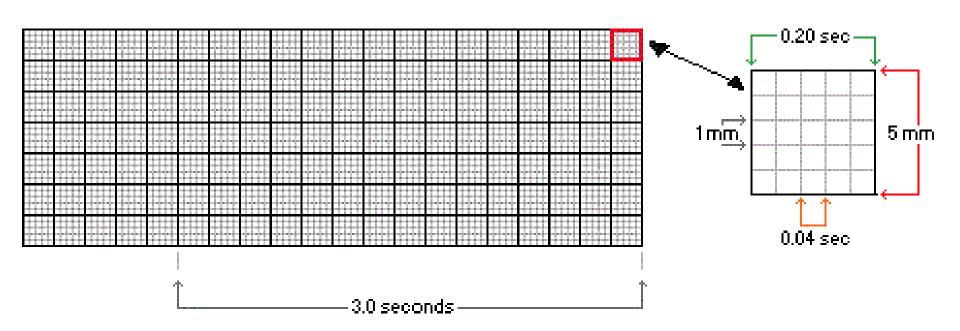


 Speed and amplitude are standardized to allow for comparative analysis



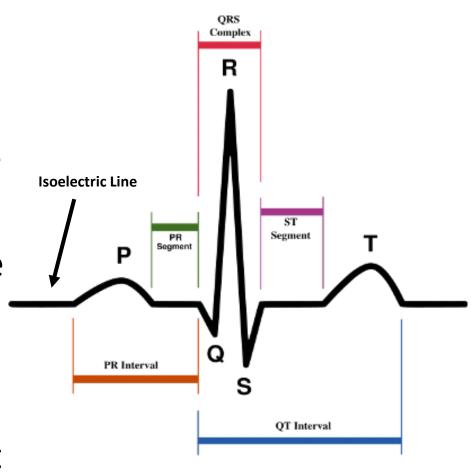


ECG Paper



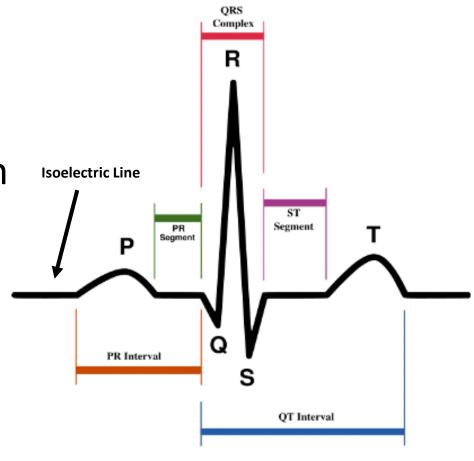


- As the electrical current of the heart passes through the conduction system, it depolarizes the cardiomyocytes
- The positive and negative deflections on the ECG represent depolarization and repolarization of various parts of the heart



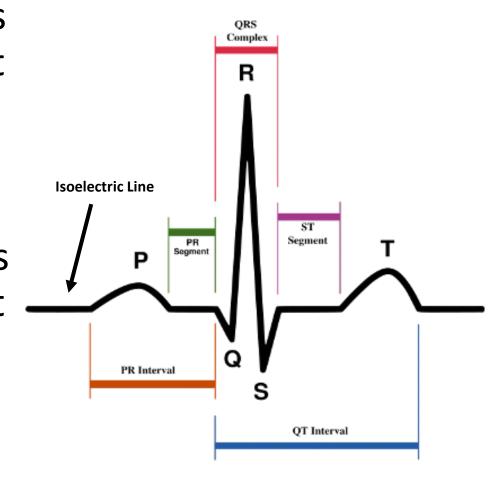


- The baseline of the tracing is known as the isoelectric line
- P wave = depolarization of the atria
- QRS complex = depolarization of the ventricles
- T wave = repolarization of the ventricles



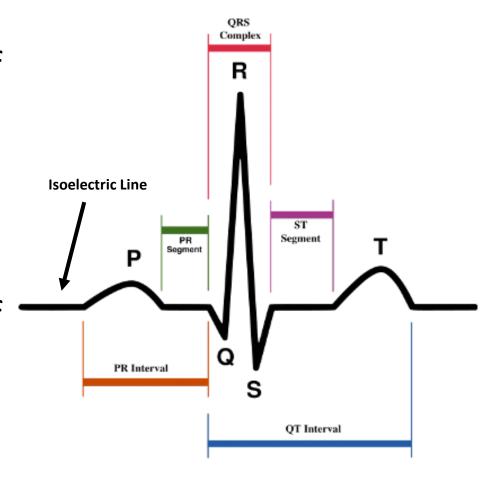


- PR Interval: represents the time from the start of atrial depolarization to start of ventricular depolarization
- QT Interval: represents the time from the start of ventricular depolarization to the end of ventricular repolarization





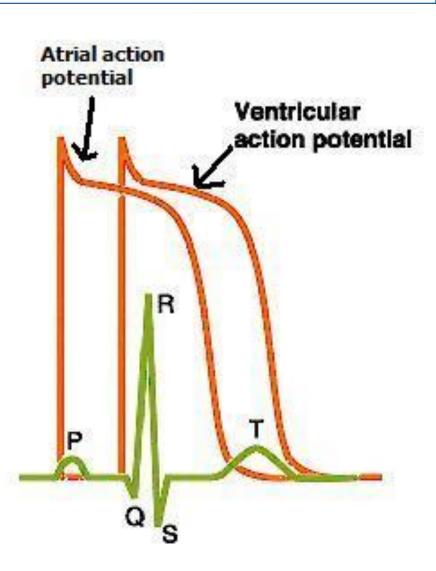
- PR Segment: represents the time from the end of atrial depolarization to start of ventricular depolarization
- ST Segment: represents
 the time from the end of
 ventricular
 depolarization to the
 start of ventricular
 repolarization





Action Potential

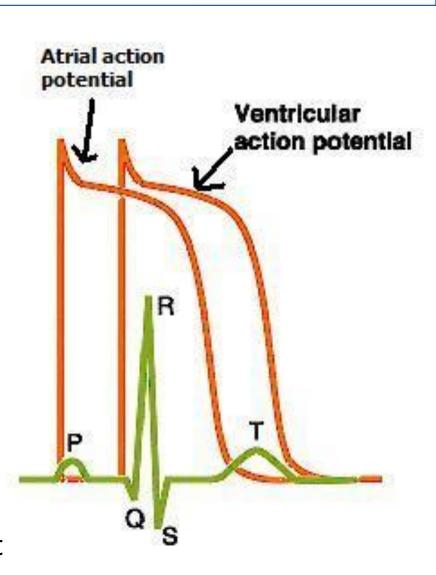
- When we overlap the action potential graph we can see that phase 0 of the atria (depolarization) corresponds to the start of the P wave
- Phase 0 of the ventricles corresponds to the start of the QRS complex
- Note: due to very low amplitude, the repolarization of the atria does not cause deflection on the ECG tracing





Action Potential

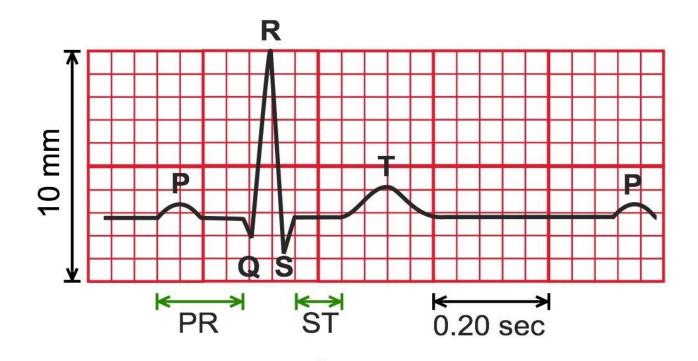
- As a result of depolarization, the cardiomyocytes contract
- Therefore we can see that atrial contraction occurs just after the start of the P wave and ventricular contraction just after the start of the QRS complex
- The delay between the two allows for complete filling of the ventricles prior to contraction
 - corresponds to the PR segment



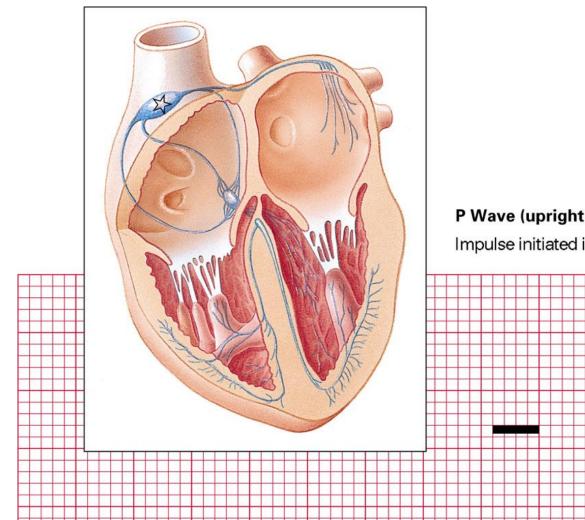




- Typical ranges for a normal heart:
 - PRI = 0.12 0.20 seconds (3-5 small boxes)
 - QRS Interval = 0.04 0.12 seconds (1-3 small boxes)



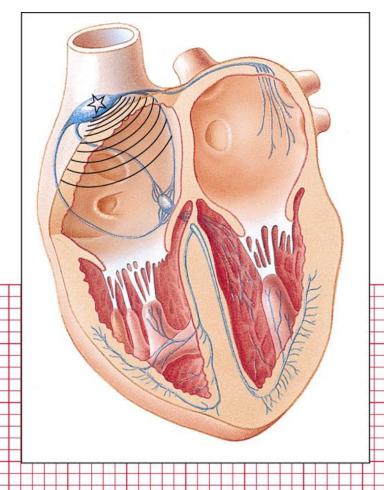




P Wave (upright in lead II)

Impulse initiated in the sinus node

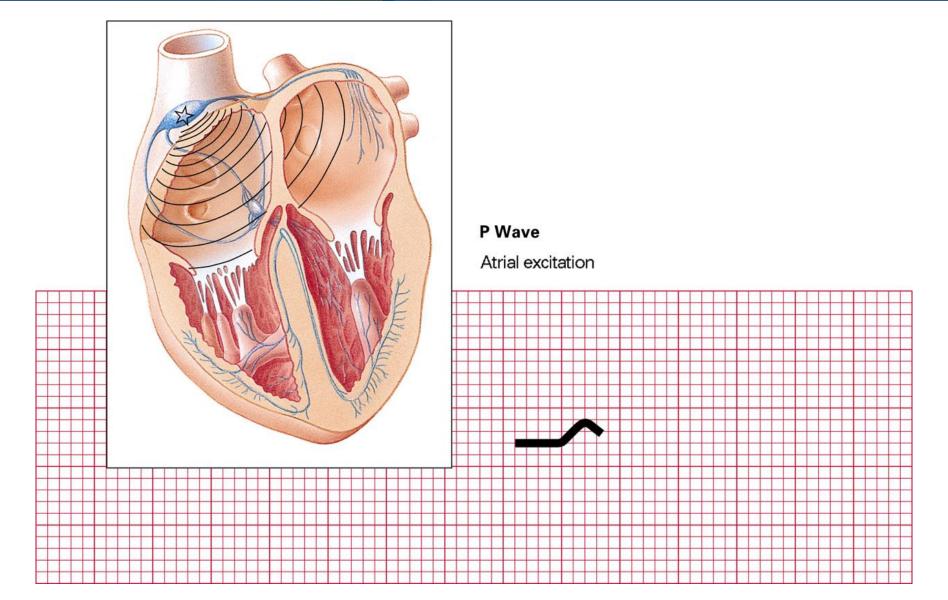




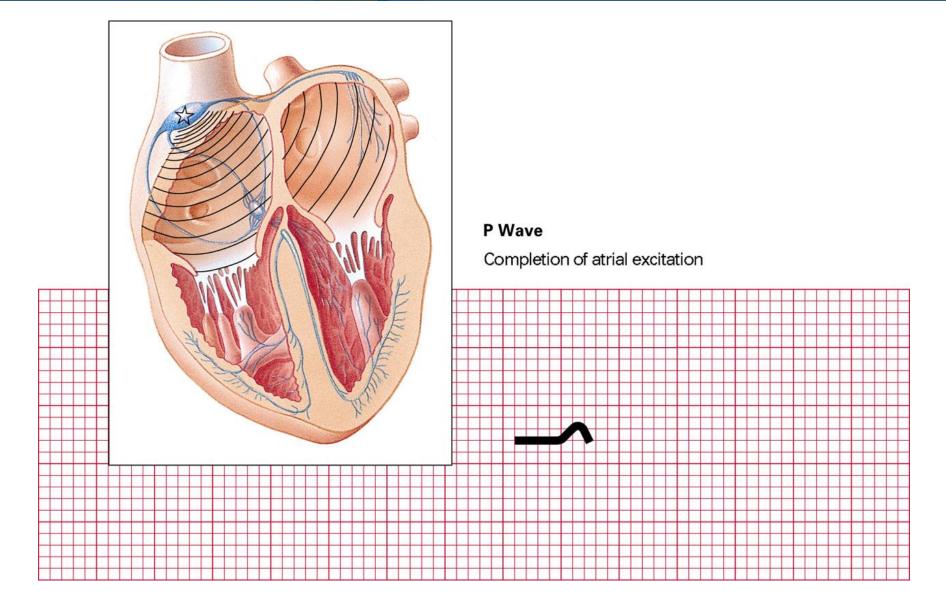
P Wave

Beginning of artial excitation

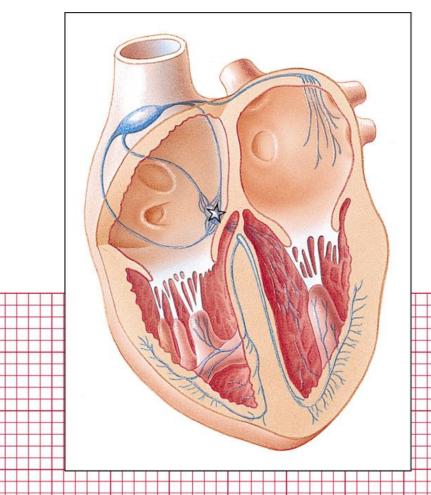








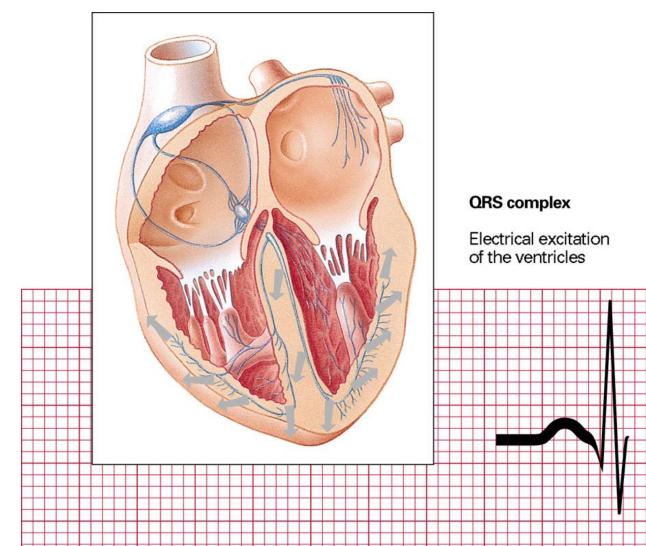




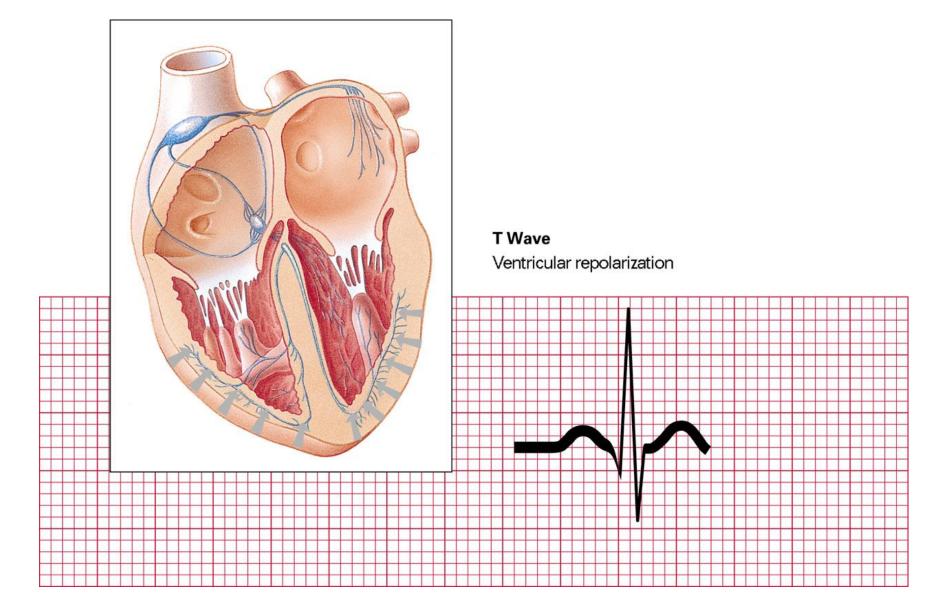
P-R Interval

Impulse delay at AV junction











- The use of 3-lead ECGs is mainly for underlying rhythm interpretation
- In order to efficiently interpret tracings, follow the same process each time:
 - 1. Rate
 - 2. Rhythm
 - 3. P wave
 - 4. PRI
 - 5. QRS



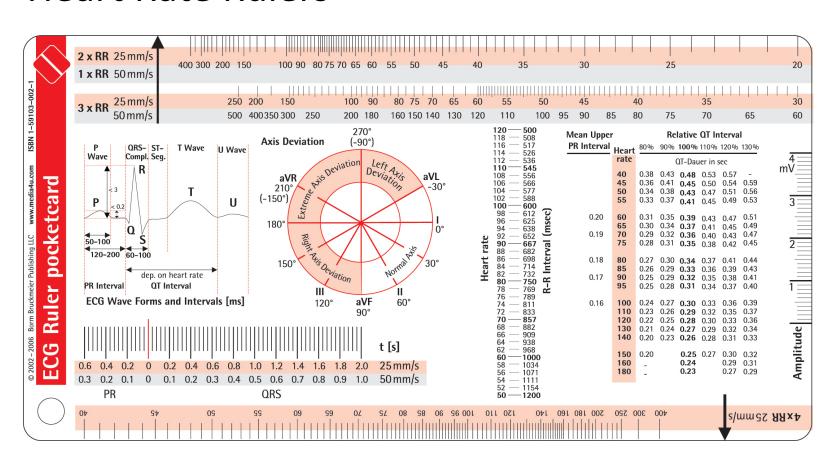
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- At this point, don't need to determine exact HR, just get approximation
- Can utilize various methods:
 - Heart Rate Rulers
 - Six-Second Method
 - R–R Interval
 - Triplicate Method

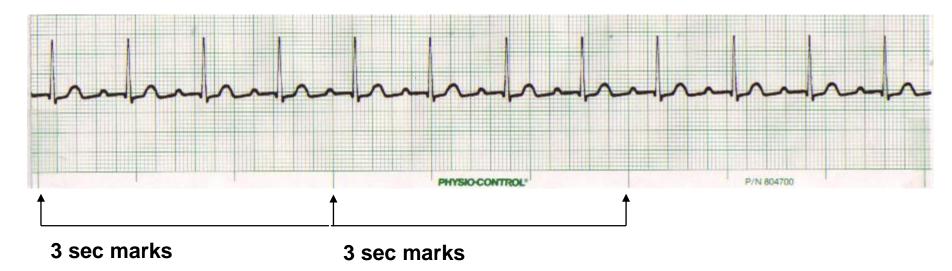


Heart Rate Rulers



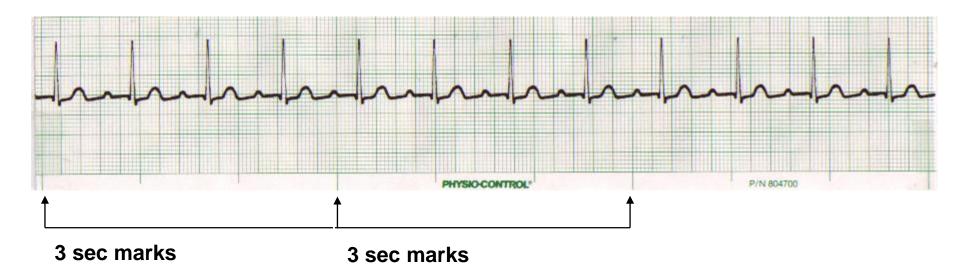


- Six Second Rule
 - Count the # of QRS complexes in 6 seconds and multiply by 10
 - Ex. 8 QRS complexes in 6 seconds = HR approx. 80bpm
 - Works well for normal to bradycardic rhythms



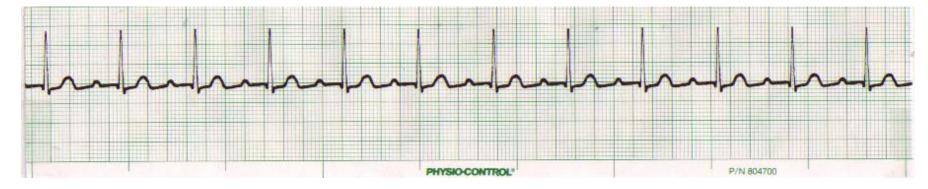


- Six Second Rule
 - If 3-second tick marks aren't visible, recall that:
 - 5 large boxes = 1 sec
 - 15 large boxes = 3 sec



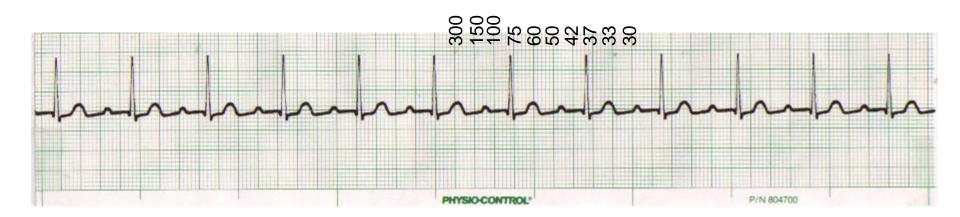


- R-R Rule
 - Works only if regular rhythm
 - Measure R-R Interval 3 ways:
 - Divide 60 by R-R in seconds
 - -60/0.72 sec = 83
 - Divide 300 by # of large squares in R-R
 - -300/4 = 75
 - Divide 1500 by # of small squares in R-R
 - -1500/19 = 79



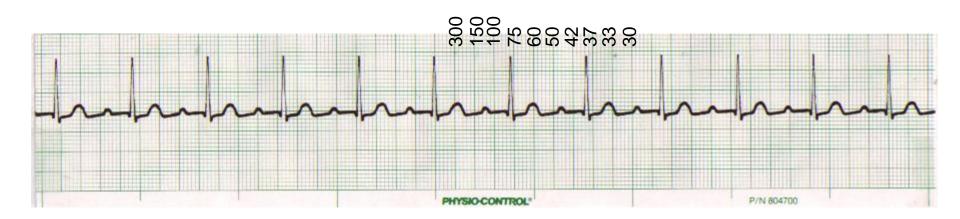


- Triplicate Method
 - Works only if regular rhythm
 - Better for faster rhythms
 - Required memorization of below numbers





- Triplicate Method
 - Locate a QRS peak that falls on thick line
 - Then locate the next QRS segment and determine its corresponding rate

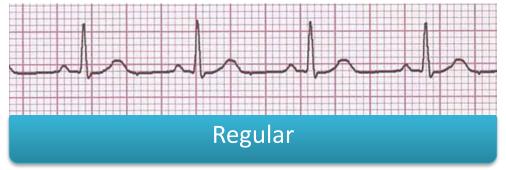


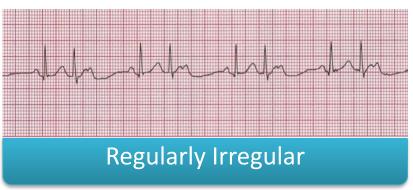


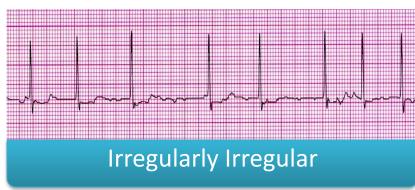
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 - 5. QRS



- Analyzing Rhythm
 - Determine the regularity of the rhythm









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 - 1. Rate
 - 2. Rhythm
 - 3. P wave
 - 4. PRI
 - 5. QRS



- When analyzing P Waves ask yourself:
 - Are P waves present?
 - Are the P waves regular in appearance?
 - Is there one P wave for each QRS complex?
 - Are the P waves upright or inverted?
 - Do all the P waves look alike?





- What is there are no P waves?
 - No atrial depolarization
- What if there is more than one P wave for each QRS complex?
 - Possible AV block?
- What if the P wave is inverted?
 - Possible retrograde electrical movement from a junctional rhythm?
- What if there P waves with different appearance?
 - Depolarization occurring in different atrial locations = multiple atrial foci



- The use of 3-lead ECGs is mainly for underlying rhythm interpretation
- In order to efficiently interpret tracings, follow the same process each time:
 - 1. Rate
 - 2. Rhythm
 - 3. P wave
 - 4. PRI
 - 5. QRS



- What is the P-R Interval?
 - Recall normal is 0.12 0.20 seconds (3-5 small boxes)
- What if it is shorter?
 - Means there is a shorter pause between atrial and ventricular depolarization
 - Possible finding with WPW
- What if it is longer?
 - Means there is a longer pause between atrial and ventricular depolarization
 - Possible finding with AV blocks



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 - 4. PRI
 - 5. QRS

Health Edu Santé

QRS Complex

- What is the width of the QRS complex?
 - Recall normal is 0.04 0.12 seconds (1-3 small boxes)
- What if it is more narrow?
 - Means the depolarization of the ventricles is happening quicker than normal
 - Not a typical finding
- What if it is wider?
 - Means the depolarization of the ventricles is happening slower or depolarization of the R and L ventricles are not happening concurrently
 - Possible finding with ventricular rhythms
 - Could represent a BBB



Overdrive Suppression

- When the conduction system of the heart is functioning normally, the rate is paced by the SA node
 - This area paces the heart at a normal intrinsic rate of 60 - 100bpm
- As a result of this rate, the remaining regions
 of the conduction system are suppressed from
 pacing at their own intrinsic (and slower) rates
 - This is known as overdrive suppression



Overdrive Suppression

- The possible pacemaking sites of the heart and their intrinsic rates are:
 - SA node (Atria): 60 100 bpm
 - AV node (Junction): 40 60 bpm
 - Purkinje fibers (Ventricles): 20 40 bpm
- When the SA node is working properly it overdrives the junction and ventricles
 - If the SA node failed, the junction would take over pacemaking at it's intrinsic rate