

ESTIMATION OF EPICARDIAL ELECTRICAL POTENTIALS
FROM BODY SURFACE MEASUREMENTS BASED ON A
DIGITAL SIMULATION OF THE HUMAN THORAX

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ABSTRACT

The forward problem in electrocardiography has been attacked using a digital computer model of the human torso that took into account the heart muscles, intracardiac blood-mass, lungs, liver, great vessels, spine, sternum and anisotropic skeletal muscles. Physically, this model can be thought of as an assembly of discrete blocks of conductors. By assigning an alpha-numeric character to each conductor block according to its electrical properties, the entire torso anatomy is represented as coded images in the computer. The potential distributions in the model are calculated by the method of finite-differences. The set of finite-difference equations approximating the field distribution is constructed by means of the numerical-analogue developed in this study. These equations are solved iteratively using the Gauss-Seidel method. A rapid convergence of the solution is achieved by iterating firstly on a coarser model and then improving the accuracies of the solution on the finer model. The validity of this model was demonstrated by comparing simulated body-surface distributions with those observed on live subjects.

For applications to the inverse problem, a matrix of transfer coefficients relating the potentials on 26 epicardial segments to the potentials on 26 body-surface sites were calculated from this model. Using this transfer matrix, epicardial maps were reconstructed from in-vivo

body-surface measurements. The stability of the inverse solutions was found to be greatly improved by

- a) carefully selecting the 26 body-surface sites in order to minimize the condition number of the transfer matrix.
- b) spatial smoothing of the surface data before inversion.
- c) performing the inverse calculations using an iterative process.

A comparison between the calculated epicardial potentials and in-vitro data showed the results to be consistent.

This study has demonstrated the feasibility of an unconstrained, evenly-determined inverse solution based on epicardial potentials.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation describes the development of a numerical method for determining epicardial potentials from electrode measurements taken on the body surface. Non-invasive studies of this kind belong to the class of problems in electrocardiography known as the 'Inverse Problem'. Ideally, the inverse problem is concerned with the reconstruction of a physiologically realistic cardiac generator from electrical potentials recorded on the body surface. A prerequisite to such an attempt is a valid quantitative relationship between the heart sources and the body-surface potentials which they generate. To obtain such a relationship constitutes the so called 'Forward Problem'. In this study, the forward solution is found using a digital computer model of the human torso. By simulating the conduction pathways in the human body on a digital computer, the corresponding body surface distribution for any given source configuration can be calculated. Hence, the required source-surface relationship.

The forward problem has in the past, been attacked in a great variety of ways. These included analytical attempts in which the human torso is assumed to be a homogeneous conductor with highly idealized geometries such as spheres, spheroids, cylinders, etc. (Yeh and Martinek, 1957; Okada, 1956). Solutions obtained using such over-simplified models are grossly inadequate for the purpose of realistic inverse studies.

In order to obtain a more accurate relationship between the heart sources and body surface potentials, other workers constructed tank models that took into account body shape and various internal inhomogeneities. In such studies, a torso-shaped container made of some non-conducting material is filled with an electrolyte, usually a saline solution. The desired internal inhomogeneities are then simulated by introducing some porous structures so as to create regions of different resistivity inside the saline-filled container. Burger and Van Milaan (1946) used sand-bags and corks to simulate the lungs and the spine. A most ingenious idea of using a 3-dimensional matrix of interlocking plastic rods to vary the saline-spaces inside the matrix structure was proposed by Rush (1971). By trimming the edges of the rods, the density ratio of insulating plastic to the conducting saline solution in each structure could therefore be controlled. The twice life-size model he constructed which took into account the heart muscle, the cardiac blood-mass, The lungs, the liver, the great vessels, the spine, the ribs, the subcutaneous fat and the anisotropic skeletal muscles must be the most detailed modelling of the human torso that has ever been attempted. Although analogue devices of this kind are capable of a high degree of realism, they are on the other hand, expensive to build and cumbersome to use. Once constructed, their geometries or resistivity ratios cannot be easily altered. For this reason, it is unlikely that models of this kind will be used extensively for electrocardiographic investigations that involve changes in either the torso geometry or the tissue resistivities.

Human subjects have also been used in forward studies. Body-surface mapping of pacemaker impulses on cardiac patients with

implanted catheters have provided much insight into the nature of the transmission of electrical signals in the human body (Hamer, Boyle and Sowton, 1965). Studies of this kind however, are limited as the investigator has little or no control over the positioning of the catheter electrodes inside the patients. Nevertheless, these results provide invaluable data for testing the validity of other models. Cadavers offer a greater scope for more systematic investigations, but the results obtained are difficult to interpret due to the changes in tissue resistivity after death.

The availability of large high-speed digital computers makes it possible to attack this problem numerically. The earliest of such attempts was made Gelernter and Swihart (1964). Using what is essentially an intuitive approach, they derived an integral equation for the charges that accumulate at the interfaces between regions of different conductivities. From these charges, the potential at any surface point can be calculated from Coulomb's law. The idea of such a solution is to replace the single integral equation by a set of linear algebraic equations. These equations relate the unknown charge density on an elemental surface area to the charge density on every other surface elements. By solving these equations iteratively on a digital computer the unknown surface charge densities are calculated.

An alternative integral equation was later proposed by Barr et al.(1966). Unlike the Gelernter-Swihart equation which was formulated in terms of charge densities, theirs was formulated directly in terms of the interface potentials. The integral equation was then approximated by a set of linear equations that relates the potential value at one surface point to the potential

at every other surface point. As in the previous method, these equations were solved iteratively using a digital computer.

Much of the work done to promote the integral-equation method of solving the forward problem was carried out by Barnard, Duck, Lynn and Timlake (1967). They made two important contributions that were to improve on the Gelernter-Swihart technique. First, they derived a more accurate discrete approximation for the integral equation which they claimed to possess better convergence properties. Secondly, they introduced a deflation technique to speed up the convergence rate of the iterative process. Using the improved technique, they successfully calculated the body-surface potentials due to current dipole sources located inside a torso-shaped volume-conductor which included lungs and intracardiac blood-mass.

In spite of these extensive developments in the integral-equation technique for solving forward problems, the solutions obtained so far correspond to the simplest analogue models. The reason of this lies in the limitations of the integral-equation techniques: In theory, these techniques could be used to calculate the potential distribution for volume-conductors of any geometrical shapes and combinations of internal inhomogeneities. In practice, the rapidly increasing costs of both human and computational resources with shape complexity and internal inhomogeneities limits all calculations to the simplest volume-conductor configurations. Moreover, anisotropy in the volume-conductor cannot be accounted by the integral-equation methods.

An alternative numerical approach based on the more common but well established method of finite-differences is considered

in this study. Unlike the integral-equation approach, the solution obtained by finite-differences consists of point values that are distributed throughout the entire volume of the conductor. It appears at first sight that this method would require even greater computational resources since it involves solution over the entire 3-dimensional volume instead of only over the 2-dimensional boundary surfaces in the case of integral-equation approach. But as pointed out by Terry (1967), in the finite-difference formulation, the potential at each volume-point is only related to those of its nearest neighbours. In the case of the integral-equation formulation, the potential at each surface-point interacts directly with those at every other surface-points. Therefore, although the matrix of the linear equations formulated by the finite-difference method is considerably larger than the matrix of linear equations formulated by the integral-equation method, it is on the other hand extremely 'sparse'. That is, it contains a very high density of zero elements. Numerically, it can be shown that such a matrix is better suited to an iterative process. Moreover, a theorem due to Collatz (see Hilderbrand, 1968) guarantees the convergence of the finite-difference equations when either the Jacobi or the Gauss-Seidel iteration is used. The matrices derived from the integral-equations tend to be rather unstable in practice.

The reason why the finite-difference method has not previously found its way into the forward solution is that this method was originally developed for solving simple field problems in engineering and physics. It has not been sufficiently developed to tackle the immensely more complex field problems encountered in

human electrophysiology. Except for simple field configurations, the mathematical formulation of the finite-difference equations is extremely difficult and in many cases, unknown. This problem was overcome in this study by considering a straightforward resistive-network analogue which leads to convenient finite-difference equations. Being an analogue device, it can be used to solve extremely complicated field problems with the greatest conceptual ease. Its main limitations like any other analogue devices are the costs and the length of time required to construct the model. However, by borrowing the simple physical concept of the network analogue, it is possible to derive finite-difference equations for the most complex field configurations without encountering any mathematical difficulties. In essence, what has been accomplished is the development of a 'numerical-analogue' for calculating volume-conductor fields. This technique is so called because the solutions are obtained numerically on a digital computer but with a representation similar to an analogue model.

Unlike the forward problem in which the accuracy depends only on how realistic a model is used, the inverse problem on the other hand has no unique solution. Over a century ago, Helmholtz demonstrated that a given potential distribution on the surface of a volume-conductor could arise from an infinite variety of sources. Therefore, almost any kind of generators can be used to represent the electromotive forces in the heart. The earliest attempt to describe the heart activities used a single dipole which is fixed in location but allowed to vary in direction and magnitude. The inadequacies of this simple model have long been recognized. In spite of this, it has remained until today, the basis of the

clinical ECG. In order to generate a more complete description of the spatial and temporal behaviour of the electrical activities within the heart, the fixed dipole was replaced by more sophisticated source configurations such as the moving dipole (Gabor and Nelson, 1954), the multipole (Yeh et al, 1958; Geselowitz, 1960) and the multiple-dipole (Fischmann and Barber, 1963; Bellman et al, 1964; Lynn et al, 1967). The moving dipole as implied, is a single dipole that is allowed the freedom of position. Its locations are indicative of the areas of major activities. The multipole has no obvious physiological significance. Nevertheless, it describes the body-surface distributions in a very compact manner. By far the most attractive is the multiple-dipole model. Here, a finite number of dipoles are located at significant sites throughout the myocardium. Each dipole would therefore represent the net electrical activities in its vicinity. Thus if the correct values of the moment of each dipole could be determined, it would surely be of great assistance to the clinical detection of cardiac disorders.

More recently, there has been a growing interest in determining epicardial potentials as a possible inverse solution (Martin & Pilkington, 1972; Barr and Spach, 1976). This approach has two distinct advantages: In the first instance, no prior assumption as to the physiological nature of the generator is necessary. In the case of the multiple-dipole model, the direction of each dipole has to be carefully chosen in accordance with the propagation of the depolarization waves. Secondly, inverse solutions based on epicardial potentials can be compared directly with potential measurements taken on the heart surface. No such

direct comparison between the dipole moments and experimental data exists.

The important question however, is whether knowledge of epicardial potentials contribute to useful clinical information. Isochronous maps of epicardial excitation obtained by Durrer et al. (1965) showed a delay in the activation time for right ventricular hypertrophy. Taccardi et al. (1971) compared the epicardial potentials obtained before and after coronary occlusions. In all the cases, they observed a potential minimum located in the ischaemic region during the TQ interval. This minimum persisted for part of the QRS interval and was later replaced by a maximum which lasted throughout the ST and T interval. And just before the end of the T interval, this maximum disappeared and was once replaced by a minimum. In a recent study by Spach et al. (1975), they discovered two distinct features in the epicardial distributions during ectopic sequences. These were a unidirectional spread of the excitation wave from the ectopic focus during the early QRS complex and a dominance of repolarization positive potentials near the ectopic site during the ST-T interval. All these and many other similar studies clearly suggest a wealth of clinically useful information to be contained in epicardial distributions.

The greatest stumbling block to a clinically acceptable inverse solution however, remains the inability of present day techniques to resolve with sufficient accuracies the heart sources from body-surface recordings. When the multiple-dipole model was first tested by earlier workers, serious errors were demonstrated in the solutions. The magnitude of the dipole moments were either unrealistically large or the directions of the dipoles were in

contradiction with known physiological events. In order to obtain solutions in closer agreements with physiology, constraints were imposed. The most commonly applied is that of fixing the orientation of each dipole to the direction of the propagation of the depolarization wave-fronts. The most extensively developed model of this kind is that of Lynn et al.(1967). In addition to constraining the dipole directions, they further restrict the dipole movements in the solution to be non-negative, thus avoiding inward pointing dipoles which are considered to be unphysiological in the normal case at least. Other constraints included forcing each dipole to follow a given time history (Bellman et al.1964) or prescribing the dipole moment to be either 'on' or 'off' at the appropriate periods in the heart cycle (Horan and Flowers, 1967; Barr et al.,1970). The stability of an epicardial-potential inverse solution was considered by Martin and Pilkington (1972). From their investigations using a system of concentric spheres as the model for the torso, they concluded that it is not feasible to determine epicardial potentials from surface measurements using an unconstrained solution. And in a second paper (Martin et al, 1975), they discussed the use of a statistical constraint in calculating epicardial potentials.

Applying constraints to inverse solutions however, are not without their disadvantages. Surely, the ultimate objective of an inverse solution is to aid clinical detection of cardiac abnormalities. To force an inverse solution to accept what is normal may risk excluding the very abnormalities that are to be detected. An example is the case of cardiac abnormalities in

which the excitation spreads inwards from the epicardium. To use a multiple-dipole solution constrained to point outwards only is clearly unrealistic in this situation.

The purpose in this study therefore, is to investigate the feasibility of an unconstrained inverse solution based on epicardial potentials. The research to achieve this goal consists of two parts: The first of which is concerned with deriving a valid forward solution and the second, an investigation of the various factors that might influence the stability of the inverse calculations. It is hoped that an accurately configured forward solution combined with a carefully structured inverse calculation will enable a stable and unconstrained inverse solution to be found.

CHAPTER 2

MATHEMATICAL STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Much attention in electrocardiographic studies have been directed to two fundamental problems. These are the 'Forward problem' and the 'Inverse problem'.

The forward study is concerned with calculating the body surface potential distribution due to a given source configuration located in the myocardium. The inverse study on the other hand is concerned with the determination of the activities of the heart generators (hence the physiological state of the heart) from available potential measurements on the body surface.

Statement of the Problem

These problems may be stated mathematically as follows: Suppose the contribution to the potential at the point i on the body surface from a unit strength generator (assumed to be fixed in direction) in the j myocardial location is T_{ij} (Fig.2.1). Then the potential v_i at the point i on the surface due to an arbitrary source distribution $(s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n)$ is given by,

$$v_i = \sum_{j=1}^n T_{ij} s_j \quad (2.1)$$

where $s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n$ are the values of the strength of the generators in the myocardial locations $1, 2, 3, \dots, n$. Similarly,

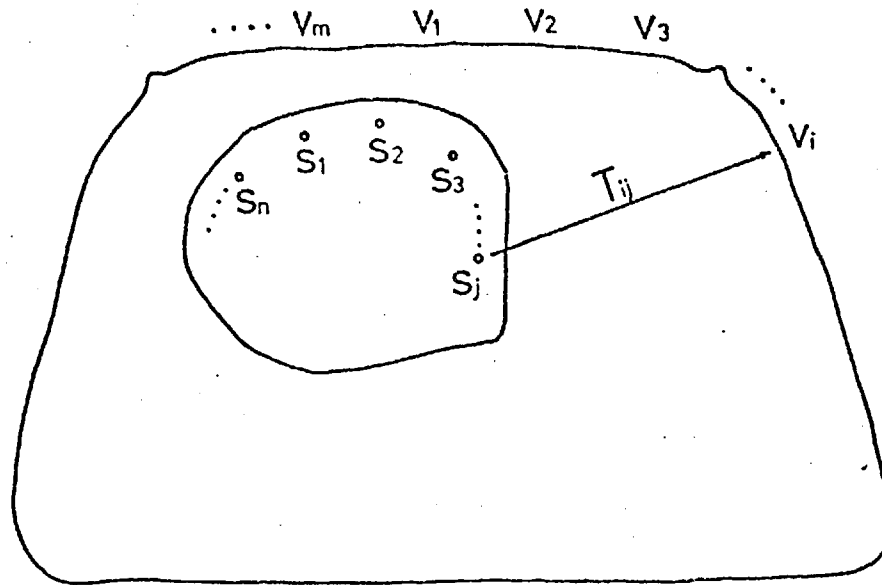


Fig.2.1 : Myocardial to body surface transfer relationship

the potential at any other surface point can be calculated by superposing the contributions from all the heart generators. Thus for m surface points on the body, the potentials at these points can be related to the source generators using the matrical equation,

$$\underline{v} = T\underline{s} \quad (2.2)$$

where $\underline{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_m)$ is a column vector containing the values of the body surface potentials, $\underline{s} = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n)$ is a column vector of the generator strengths and T is a matrix of dimension $(m \times n)$ containing the transfer coefficients between the heart generators and the point locations on the body surface.

The purpose in the forward study is to compute the matrix T which is clearly a function of the geometrical

and electrical properties of the human torso. Once T is calculated, it is then possible to determine the generator strengths \underline{s} for any given set of surface potentials \underline{v} . The latter constitutes the inverse problem which can be expressed mathematically as,

$$\underline{s} = T^{-1}\underline{v} \quad (m=n) \quad (2.3)$$

Method of Overdetermination

Ideally, n surface measurements suffice to determine n unknown heart generators. In practice, measurements are subjected to errors which often result in gross uncertainties in the solution. For this reason, the system in Eqn. 2.2 is generally made considerably overdetermined. That is, taking more measurements than the number of generators ($m > n$). Clearly, an overdetermined system cannot be solved by direct inversion. On the other hand, it is always possible to find the best approximate solution in the sense that the square of the length of the residual vector,

$$\underline{r} = T\underline{s} - \underline{v} \quad (2.4)$$

is a minimum (the principle of least square). Minimizing $|\underline{r}|^2$ yields,

$$T^T T \underline{s} = T^T \underline{v} \quad (2.5)$$

(see Lanczos, 1961).

The remarkable property of Eqn. 2.5 is that no matter how strongly overdetermined is the original system, it will always have a unique solution given by,

$$\underline{s} = (\mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{T})^{-1} \mathbf{T}^T \underline{y} \quad (2.6)$$

CHAPTER 3

CALCULATION OF VOLUME-CONDUCTOR FIELDS

3.1 Introduction

The aggregate of the passive tissues that support the flow of currents resulting from the electrical activity in the heart is generally referred to as the 'volume-conductor'. The electrical potential everywhere in the volume-conductor satisfies Poisson's equation (Plonsey, 1969)

$$\nabla^2 u = F(x,y,z) \quad (3.1)$$

where $F(x,y,z)$ is the distribution of the cardiac generators. The regions external to the myocardium are assumed to be free from any electrical generators. In these regions, Eqn. 3.1 reduces to

$$\nabla^2 u = 0 \quad (3.2)$$

which is Laplace's equation.

The problem of solving these equations is a classical one in mathematical physics known as the 'boundary value' problem. Except for a few of the simplest field configurations, these equations have no known analytical solutions. For this reason, various approximate methods of solution have to be used. These may broadly be classified into numerical techniques and analogue simulations.

Before the advent of digital computers, analogue devices

dominated the solution of boundary value problems. In analogue simulation, the original problem is replaced by an analogue model which approximates its behaviour. The purpose of constructing the analogue may be to increase or decrease the physical dimension of the original system in order to facilitate investigation, to improve the accessibility of the system to probing devices by replacing, for example, a solid medium by some fluid equivalent, or merely to avoid damaging the system due to the invasive nature of the investigation. Although conceptually very simple, analogue devices tend to be rather cumbersome to use and expensive to build. Once constructed, their geometries and other physical parameters cannot be easily altered.

With large, high-speed digital computers becoming more readily available, numerical techniques have largely replaced the more cumbersome analogue devices. The approach here is to approximate the single continuous partial-differential equation by a set of discrete linear algebraic equations which can then be handled on a computer. The main attraction of a numerical method lies in its speed and economy in obtaining a solution using general purpose computing equipment which is widely available. Of particular importance is the relative ease with which any parameter of the problem may be altered. On the other hand, the task of deriving an accurate yet manageable replacement for the original differential equation can be most formidable. Indeed, solutions to some of the more complex field problems still rely to a large extent on analogue methods.

This chapter describes the development of a 'numerical-analogue' for calculating volume-conductor fields. The technique is so called because the solutions are obtained numerically using a computer but with a representation conceptually similar to a discrete analogue model. In this way, the advantages of both numerical technique and analogue simulation are realized.

3.2 The Method of Finite-Difference

The finite-difference method is one of the most well established numerical technique for solving potential field problems. Solutions obtained using this method provide potential values at discrete points (nodes) which are spaced in some ordered manner throughout the whole of the field region. The idea of the solution is as follows: At each node, the potential which is initially unknown, is approximately related to the potentials of the neighbouring nodes by a linear algebraic equation. In this way, the single partial-differential equation is modelled by a set of linear equations which can be solved simultaneously for the unknown potentials.

Approximation of the Laplacian

Consider for simplicity a two dimensional, linear, homogeneous and isotropic conducting medium S , superimposed on which is a uniform grid of interval h (Fig. 3.1). At an arbitrary node O , the potential must satisfy the equation

$$\left. \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right|_O + \left. \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right|_O = 0 \quad (3.3)$$

where u is the unknown potential function, and x and y are the Cartesian coordinates of space.

The object of the exercise here is to approximate Eqn. 3.3 by a linear algebraic equation expressed in terms of the potentials at the nodes 1, 2, 3 and 4. This can be achieved by expanding the potentials at nodes 1, 2, 3 and 4 about the potential at node 0

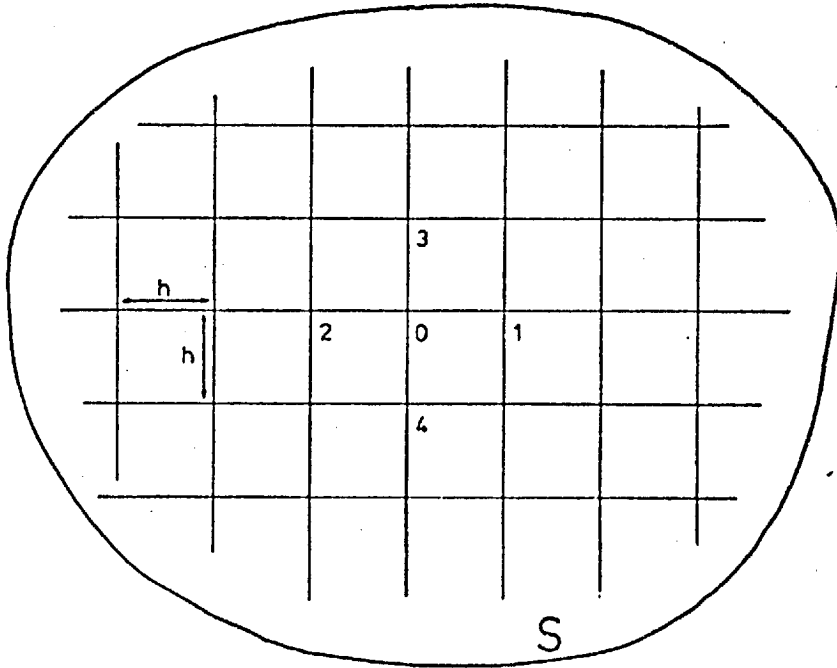


Fig. 3.1: Finite-difference representation in a uniform field region S.

using Taylor's series:

$$u_1 = u_0 + hu'_x + \frac{h^2}{2!}u''_{xx} + \frac{h^3}{3!}u'''_{xxx} + \frac{h^4}{4!}u^{(4)}_{xxxx} + \dots$$

$$u_2 = u_0 - hu'_x + \frac{h^2}{2!}u''_{xx} - \frac{h^3}{3!}u'''_{xxx} + \frac{h^4}{4!}u^{(4)}_{xxxx} + \dots$$

$$u_3 = u_0 + hu'_y + \frac{h^2}{2!}u''_{yy} + \frac{h^3}{3!}u'''_{yyy} + \frac{h^4}{4!}u^{(4)}_{yyyy} + \dots$$

$$u_4 = u_0 - hu'_y + \frac{h^2}{2!}u''_{yy} - \frac{h^3}{3!}u'''_{yyy} + \frac{h^4}{4!}u^{(4)}_{yyyy} + \dots$$

(3.4)

Adding the first two equations and ignoring the terms to the power four and above yields,

$$h^2 u_{xx}'' \doteq u_1 + u_2 - 2u_0 \quad (3.5)$$

Similarly, for the last two equations,

$$h^2 u_{yy}'' \doteq u_3 + u_4 - 2u_0 \quad (3.6)$$

On substituting Eqn. 3.5 and Eqn. 3.6 into Eqn. 3.3, the required finite-difference approximation for the potential at the node 0 is derived:

$$u_1 + u_2 + u_3 + u_4 - 4u_0 = 0 \quad (3.7)$$

The error introduced by neglecting the higher order terms in the Taylor series is of the order of h^2 .

Therefore, provided h is small, Eqn. 3.7 is a good approximation of Eqn. 3.3.

Solution of Laplace Equation as a set of Simultaneous Equations

The following example demonstrates the solution of a simple field problem using the method of finite-differences. Consider a conducting square with its four sides held at potential values V_a , V_b , V_c and V_d respectively (Fig. 3.2). Applying the finite-difference approximation in Eqn. 3.7 to each of the grid points in the conductor yields a set of linear algebraic equations which can be expressed in the following matrical form:

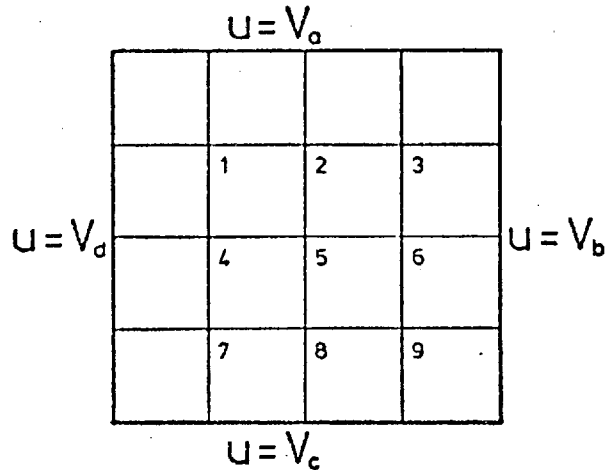


Fig.3.2: Example illustrating the finite-difference method of solution in a conducting square.

$$\begin{bmatrix}
 +4 & -1 & & & & & & & \\
 -1 & +4 & -1 & & & & & & \\
 & -1 & +4 & & & & & & \\
 -1 & & & +4 & -1 & & & & \\
 & -1 & & -1 & +4 & -1 & & & \\
 & & -1 & & -1 & +4 & & & \\
 & & & -1 & & & +4 & -1 & \\
 & & & & -1 & & -1 & +4 & -1 \\
 & & & & & -1 & & -1 & +4
 \end{bmatrix}
 \begin{bmatrix}
 u_1 \\
 u_2 \\
 u_3 \\
 u_4 \\
 u_5 \\
 u_6 \\
 u_7 \\
 u_8 \\
 u_9
 \end{bmatrix}
 =
 \begin{bmatrix}
 V_a + V_d \\
 V_a \\
 V_a + V_b \\
 V_d \\
 0 \\
 V_b \\
 V_c + V_d \\
 V_c \\
 V_b + V_c
 \end{bmatrix}
 \quad (3.8)$$

It is easily verified that this set of equations is non-singular and can therefore be solved simultaneously for the unknowns, $u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_9$.

Limitations of the Finite-Difference Method

The finite-difference approximation derived in Eqn. 3.7 applies only to nodes at the interior of a homogeneous conductor.

In the case of those nodes on the surface of the conductor or the boundaries between different media, The finite-difference equations are quite different. Therefore if a finite-difference computer program is to be useful, it must be able to identify the various nodal conditions and generate the appropriate finite-difference equation for each node in the conductor. For a simple problem where the field boundaries are straight lines or plane surfaces, identification of the various type of nodes is a straight forward matter. Moreover, numerous general finite-difference equations exist and are easily implemented to generate the required set of linear equations.

However, applications of the finite-difference method to the solution of volume-conductor field problems are somewhat limited. The reasons for this are two-fold: The first is that boundaries separating regions of different conductivity are not just simple plane surfaces but highly convoluted ones. To define these surfaces in the computer alone constitutes a major task of organization. The second reason is that many of the nodal configurations encountered in the volume-conductor have no known finite-difference equations. Although it is possible to simplify the problem by removing these nodal configurations, the validity of the solution is then in question.

3.3 The Resistive-Network Analogue

The idea of the resistive-network analogue consists essentially of approximating the original distributed field region by a network of interconnected resistors. The mechanism of the solution is in principle identical to the finite-difference method, although the original developments are entirely independent.

The Basic Network

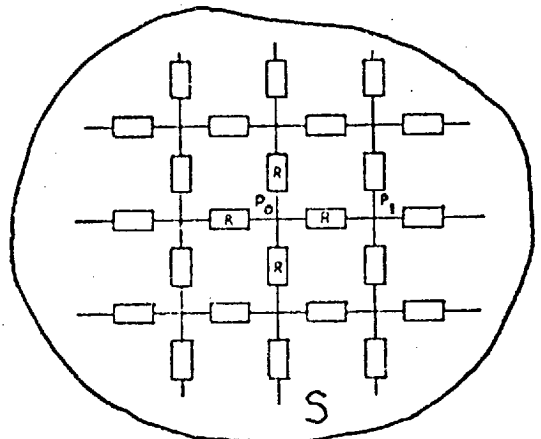
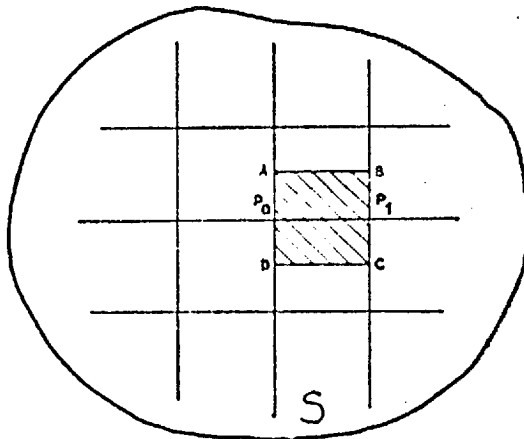


Fig.3.3: A discrete approximation of the current pathways between P_0 and P_1 by an elemental block ABCD.

Fig.3.4: A resistive-network approximation of a distributed field region S.

Consider the distributed conductor S, superimposed on which is a uniform grid (Fig. 3.3). If the flow of current between points P_0 and P_1 is assumed to be supported solely by the block conductor ABCD, then it is possible to remove this block and replace in its place, a resistor R having the same resistance value as that across the opposite sides AD

and BC of the block without affecting too significantly, the overall pattern of current flow in S . Repeating this process to every adjacent grid points in S , the entire continuous conductor is replaced by a network of discrete components (Fig. 3.4).

The error introduced by this discretization process clearly depends on the grid size. In the limit as the grid interval is made smaller and smaller, the network analogue becomes once more the continuous, distributed conductor.

Nodal Equation

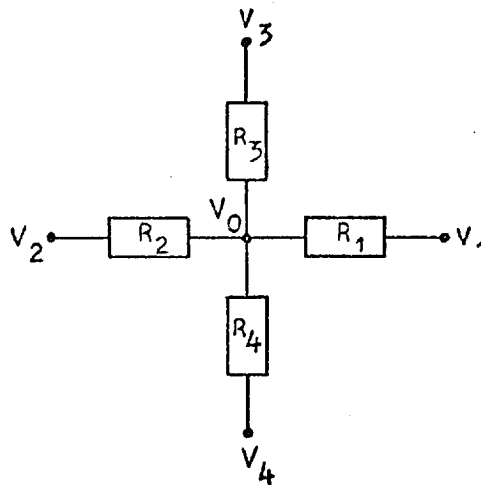


Fig.3.5: Basic network structure.

The resistive-network analogue was developed largely on an intuitive basis. In essence, its solution mechanism is similar to that of the finite-difference method. This is demonstrated by applying Kirchoff's law to the current flowing into node 0 in the network in Fig. 3.5, giving

$$\frac{V_1 - V_0}{R_1} + \frac{V_2 - V_0}{R_2} + \frac{V_3 - V_0}{R_3} + \frac{V_4 - V_0}{R_4} = 0 \quad (3.9)$$

In the case of a homogeneous, isotropic conductor, $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_4$. Eqn. 3.9 now becomes

$$V_1 + V_2 + V_3 + V_4 - 4V_0 = 0 \quad (3.10)$$

which is identical to the finite-difference equation derived in Eqn. 3.7.

It can be shown that such similarity exists for all nodal configurations. Indeed, the resistive-network can be regarded as computing mechanism with the resistors connected in such a way that the operations indicated by the finite-difference equations are carried out.

Limitations of the Resistive-Network Analogue

The network analogue may be an extremely versatile device for solving field problems, but the number of resistors required to construct an adequate network representation of the volume-conductor makes this approach totally impractical for present study. Moreover, the interior of a 3-dimensional network structure cannot be easily accessed. This makes investigation and repositioning of any internal generators extremely difficult.

3.4 A Proposed Numerical-Analogue

The numerical-analogue to be developed in this section consists of a hybrid between the finite-difference method and the resistive-network analogue. The purpose is to simplify the implementation of the finite-difference method for calculating volume-conductor fields. This is achieved in two distinct stages. The first of which is concerned with the efficient organization of the volume-conductor data on the digital computer. In the second stage, a general finite-difference equation is derived using what is essentially a network representation of the conductor.

3.4.1 Discrete Representation of a Volume-Conductor

One of the main factors limiting the use of numerical techniques in solution of volume-conductor fields is the difficulty in representing a complex geometrical shape on the computer. In the case where the boundaries of the given conductor are straight lines (Fig. 3.6), defining these boundaries is a simple matter. However, with more convoluted

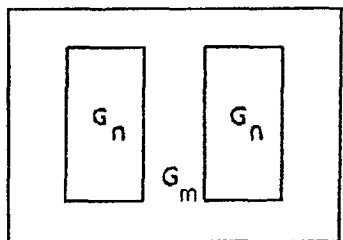


Fig.3.6: Conductor with rectangular boundaries.

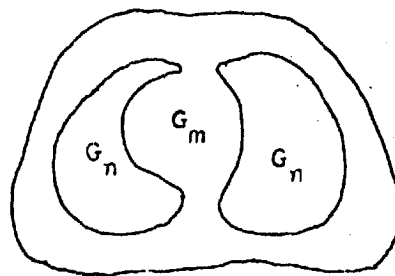


Fig.3.7: Conductor with more complicated boundary shapes.

boundary shapes as shown in Fig. 3.7, the exercise of describing the geometries rapidly becomes more difficult.

The most common and straightforward approach of defining such shapes on the computer is to use the position coordinates of a series of points distributed along the boundaries (Fig. 3.8). Such a method becomes extremely tedious when the number of points is large.

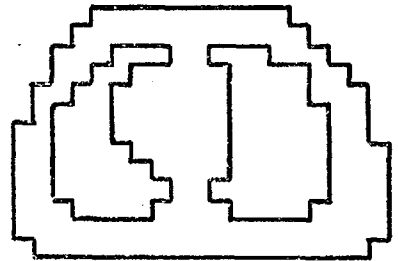
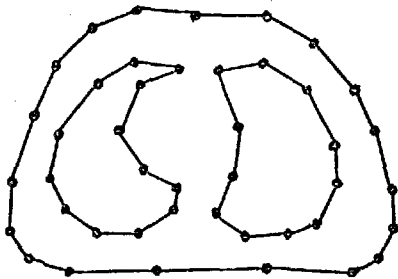


Fig.3.8: Piece-wise approximation of the conductor boundary. Fig.3.9: A discrete representation of the conductor.

The method proposed in this section consists of replacing the original conductor by a discrete approximation as shown in Fig. 3.9. The discretization process is most easily performed with the aid of a graph paper superimposed on top of the conductor. By assigning an alpha-numeric character corresponding

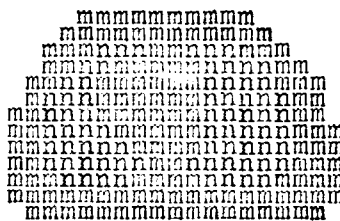


Fig.3.10: Coded image of the discrete conductor.

to the electrical property in each 'cell' in Fig. 3.9, the conductor is therefore represented in a coded form (Fig. 3.10), which is readily entered into the computer. The efficiency of data input can further be improved by compressing the data in each row in the following manner:

Row Data: --AAAAAABBBBAAAAAAAAAABBBA.....

Input Format: 2-,6A,4B,8A,3B,.....

meaning 2 bits of blanks, 6 bits of conductor with property A, 4 bits with property B and so on.

Representation in Three-Dimensions

These ideas are easily extended to three dimensions. Instead of approximating the conductor by small conducting squares, here, the volume-conductor is represented as cubes. Fig. 3.11 shows an impression of a discretized human torso.

The discretization process is essentially the same as before and is organized as follows:

- 1) Divide the 3-D conductor into horizontal slabs of thickness equal to the digitization interval (Fig. 3.12b).
- 2) Digitize each slab by means of a 2-D grid superimposed on top of that slab (Fig. 3.12c).
- 3) Finally, construct the coded image for each slab by assigning the appropriate alpha-numeric code to each discrete cube (Fig. 3.12d).

In this way, the entire 3-D volume-conductor is represented as successive planes of coded images in the computer.

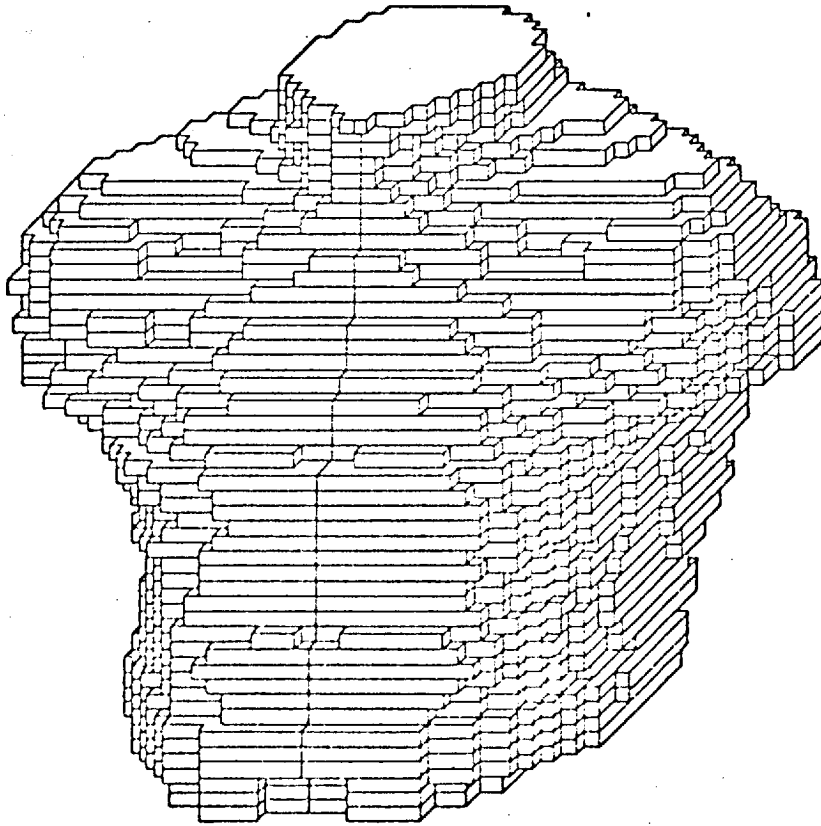


Fig.3.11: A physical impression of a discretized human torso

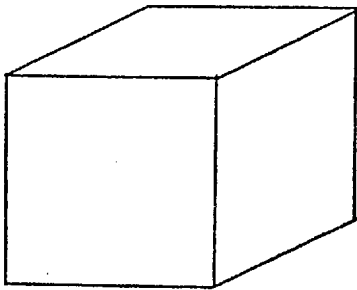


Fig.3.12a

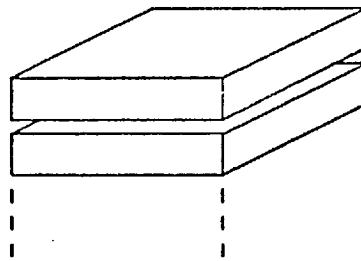


Fig.3.12b

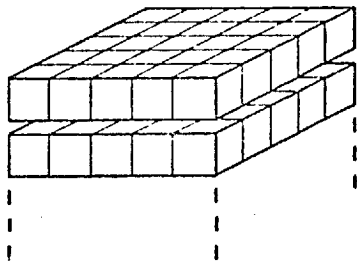


Fig.3.12c

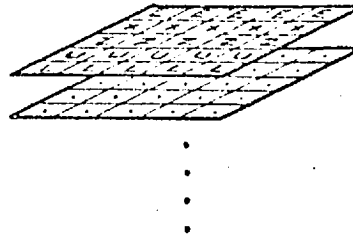


Fig.3.12d

Fig.3.12: Illustration of the stages in the discretization of a three dimensional volume-conductor.

3.4.2 Generalized Finite-Difference Equation

This section describes the development of a generalized finite-difference equation for setting up the linear equations necessary to model the volume-conductor numerically.

Consider the general nodal configuration in a 2-dimensional discretized conductor (Fig. 3.13), where A,B,C and D are four neighbouring elemental conductors with different electrical properties. The finite-difference equation for this nodal configuration has the general form:

$$K_1 u_1 + K_2 u_2 + K_3 u_3 + K_4 u_4 - (K_1 + K_2 + K_3 + K_4) u_0 = 0 \quad (3.11)$$

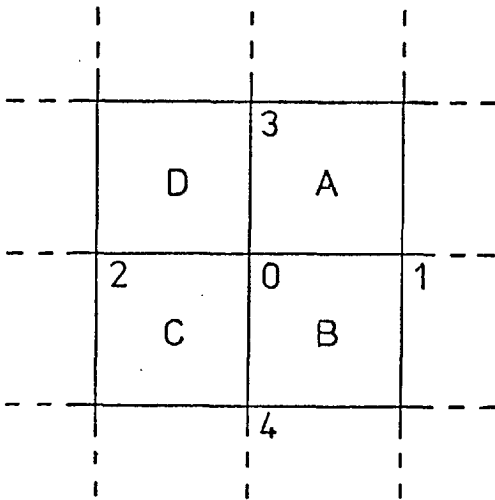


Fig.3.13: A general nodal configuration.

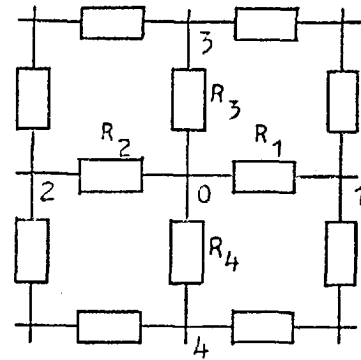


Fig.3.14: A general network configuration.

To derive the coefficients K_1, K_2, K_3, K_4 in Eqn. 3.11 using the mathematical approach described in Sec. 3.2 is extremely tedious. On the other hand, a resistive network analogue for this nodal configuration can easily be constructed (Fig. 3.14). The only

problem that remains is to determine the values of the resistances R_1, R_2, R_3 and R_4 which can then be substituted into the nodal equation in Eqn. 3.9 to obtain the required finite-difference formula:

$$\frac{1}{R_1}u_1 + \frac{1}{R_2}u_2 + \frac{1}{R_3}u_3 + \frac{1}{R_4}u_4 - \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \frac{1}{R_4} \right)u_0 = 0 \quad (3.12)$$

Notice that the resistance values of the network analogue are just the reciprocals of the finite-difference coefficients in Eqn. 3.11. It would therefore be more appropriate to consider the conductances $G_1 = \frac{1}{R_1}$, $G_2 = \frac{1}{R_2}$, $G_3 = \frac{1}{R_3}$ and $G_4 = \frac{1}{R_4}$ instead of the resistances in the network analogue. This, as will become clearer, greatly simplifies the developments to be discussed in the remaining parts of this section.

Coefficients for the Basic Equation

Recalling from Section 3.3 that the conductance G_1 approximates the current pathway WXYZ between P_0 and P_1 (Fig. 3.15). However, this block consists of one half WXP_1P_0 with property A and the other half P_0P_1YZ with property B. In this case, it would be more sensible to regard G_1 as a parallel combination of two conductances G_A and G_B , where G_A represents the conduction pathway WXP_1P_0 between P_0 and P_1 , and G_B represents the pathway P_0P_1YZ . Similarly, all other conductances in the network analogue can be represented in this manner. The purpose of using such a representation is

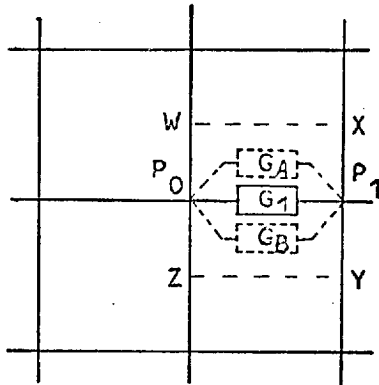


Fig.3.15: Replacement of G_1 by two parallel components G_A and G_B .

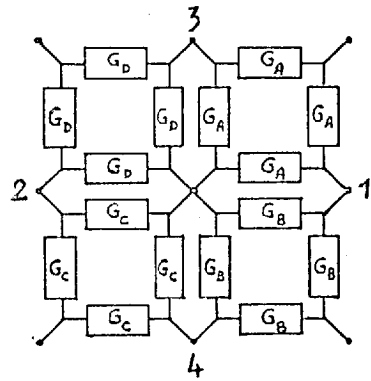


Fig.3.16: Network illustrating the relationship between the individual component and the elemental conductors A,B,C,D in Fig.3.13.

that it is now possible to relate each elemental discrete conductor to an elemental network configuration (Fig. 3.16). The importance of this will be realized in the later developments in this section.

The immediate advantage however, is that the finite-difference equation for the nodal configuration in Fig. 3.13 can be easily derived from the network analogue in Fig. 3.16 to be:

$$(G_A + G_B)u_1 + (G_C + G_D)u_2 + (G_A + G_D)u_3 + (G_B + G_C)u_4 - 2(G_A + G_B + G_C + G_D)u_0 = 0 \quad (3.13)$$

Expressed in this form, the finite-difference equation for any arbitrary node 0 can be computed given the conductivities of the four surrounding elemental blocks A,B,C and D.

Equation for Non-Uniform Grid

The use of a regularly distributed finite-difference grid is often in practice, inefficient. Whereas a given grid interval may not be adequate to represent certain parts of the field region, it may on the other hand be unnecessarily fine in other parts. In order to minimize the number of nodes (hence the size of the system of linear equations) for a required accuracy, non-uniform grids are often used so that the grid densities may be adjusted to suit the local field condition.

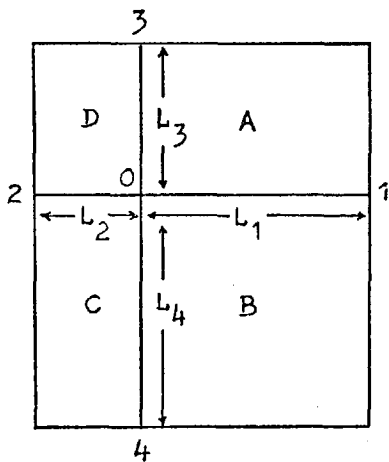


Fig.3.17: Non-uniform grid

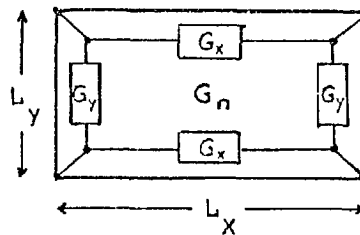


Fig.3.18: Equivalent Network for a rectangular elemental conductor

Consider a non-uniformly distributed grid configuration, Fig. 3.17. Each discrete element A,B,C,D may no longer be a square. Consider the element n, whose x and y dimensions are L_x and L_y respectively (Fig. 3.18). If the conductivity of the element is G_n , then it can be shown that the values of the x and y components in the equivalent network are:

$$G_x = \frac{L_y}{L_x} G_n, \quad G_y = \frac{L_x}{L_y} G_n \quad (3.14)$$

The finite-difference equation for the nodal configuration in Fig. 3.17 can therefore be expressed as:-

$$\frac{1}{L_1} (L_3 G_A + L_4 G_B) u_1 + \frac{1}{L_2} (L_4 G_C + L_3 G_D) u_2 + \frac{1}{L_3} (L_1 G_A + L_2 G_D) u_2 + \frac{1}{L_4} (L_1 G_B + L_2 G_C) u_4 - [] u_0 = 0 \quad (3.15)$$

where the quantity $[]$ denotes the sum of the coefficients of u_1 , u_2 , u_3 , u_4 .

Equation for Anisotropic Conductor.

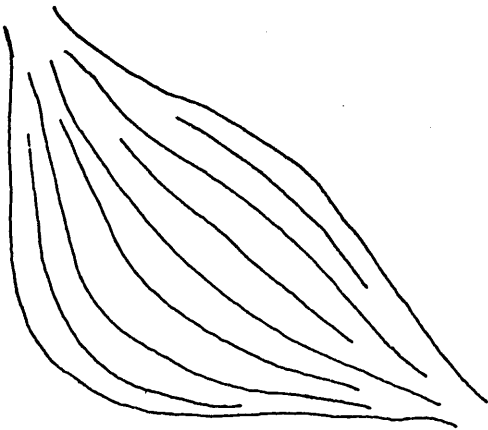


Fig.3.19: A sketch of a typical muscle layer. The 'flow-lines' indicate high conductive pathways.

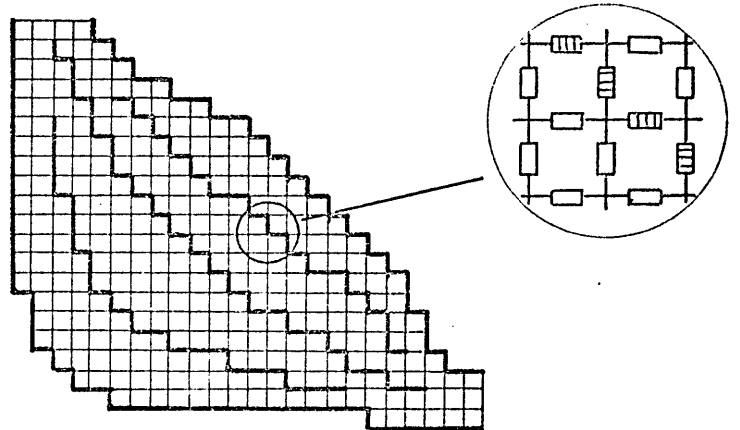


Fig.3.20: A discrete representation of the anisotropic muscle layer. The heavy lines indicate pathways connected by high conductive components.

Occasionally, it may occur that the given conductor is anisotropic. In the case where the conductivity varies from one principal axis to another, the difficulty is easily dealt with. A more difficult situation arises when the variation in conductivity follows no consistent direction. Such aniso-

tropcities occur for example in skeletal muscles where the conductivity along the muscle fibres is an order of magnitude greater than in the transverse direction and there is no specific direction in which these fibres lie. A sketch of a typical muscle layer is shown in Fig. 3.19. The 'flow-lines' indicate pathways of high conductivity.

The method proposed here to simulate such anisotropy is a natural extension to the numerical-analogue. The field concerned is discretized and approximated in the usual network form. Highly conductive pathways are then laid into the network to create the effects of anisotropy. These are represented by the heavy thick lines in Fig. 3.20. It is clearly seen that the smaller the discretization interval is made, the more accurate will be the approximation.

Consider the network in Fig. 3.20 with a high conductive pathway through it. Such a network can be constructed using discrete elements whose equivalent networks consist of different conductive components (Fig. 3.21). To derive the

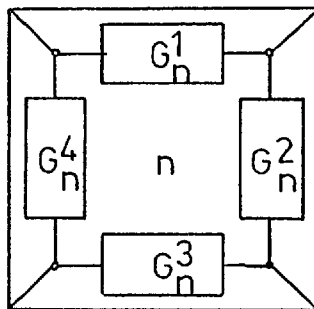


Fig.3.21: System for identifying each component in an anisotropic elemental conductor.

finite-difference equation in this case requires each individual conductance to be identified. This can be achieved by labelling the conductances in each element as indicated in Fig. 3.21.

The finite-difference equation now becomes:

$$\frac{1}{L_1} (L_3 G_A^3 + L_4 G_B^1) u_1 + \frac{1}{L_2} (L_4 G_C^3 + L_3 G_D^1) u_2 + \frac{1}{L_3} (L_1 G_A^4 + L_2 G_D^2) u_3 + \frac{1}{L_4} (L_1 G_B^4 + L_2 G_C^2) u_4 - [] u_0 = 0 \quad (3.16)$$

where $[]$ denotes the sum of the coefficients of u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4 .

Equation in 3-Dimensions

The developments described above are easily extended to 3-dimensions. Here, each discrete elemental conductor is represented by a 3-dimensional network structure as shown in Fig. 3.22. It is however, not essential to identify each individual conductance in this network for calculating volume-

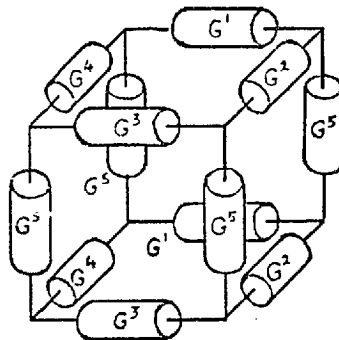


Fig. 3.22: Equivalent network for a three-dimensional elemental conductor.

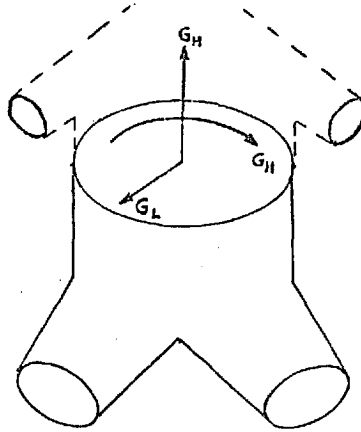


Fig.3.23: Diagram illustrating the directions of anisotropies in the upright human torso.

conductor fields. The reason is that the anisotropy in the upright torso occurs only in the horizontal planes (Fig. 3.23). Therefore, it is only necessary to define the five ratios, $G_n^1:G_n^2:G_n^3:G_n^4:G_n^5$ for an elemental conductor n as defined in Fig. 3.22. The finite-difference equation for a

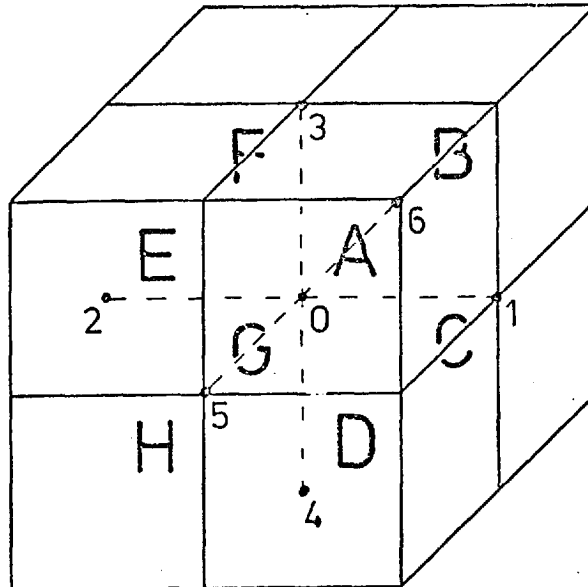


Fig.3.24: Nodal configuration in a three-dimensional volume-conductor.

node 0 at the corner of eight neighbouring cubes A,B,C,D,E,F,G and H (Fig. 3.23) is therefore given by,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{1}{L_1} (L_3 L_5 G_A^1 + L_3 L_6 G_B^3 + L_4 L_6 G_C^3 + L_4 L_5 G_D^1) u_1 \\
 & + \frac{1}{L_2} (L_3 L_5 G_E^1 + L_3 L_6 G_F^3 + L_4 L_6 G_G^3 + L_4 L_5 G_H^1) u_2 \\
 & + \frac{1}{L_3} (L_1 L_5 G_A^1 + L_1 L_6 G_B^3 + L_2 L_6 G_F^3 + L_2 L_5 G_E^1) u_3 \\
 & + \frac{1}{L_4} (L_1 L_5 G_D^1 + L_1 L_6 G_C^3 + L_2 L_6 G_G^3 + L_2 L_5 G_H^1) u_4 \\
 & + \frac{1}{L_5} (L_1 L_3 G_A^1 + L_1 L_4 G_D^1 + L_2 L_4 G_H^1 + L_2 L_3 G_E^1) u_5 \\
 & + \frac{1}{L_6} (L_1 L_3 G_B^3 + L_1 L_4 G_C^3 + L_2 L_4 G_G^3 + L_2 L_3 G_F^3) u_6 \\
 & - [] u_0 = 0 \qquad (3.17)
 \end{aligned}$$

where [] denotes the sum of the coefficients of u_1, u_2, \dots, u_6 .

3.5 Solution by Iteration

The solution of a partial-differential equation using the finite-difference method has been reduced to the solution of a set of simultaneous equations which can be expressed in the matrical form,

$$\underline{A}\underline{u} = \underline{b} \quad (3.18)$$

where A is a matrix of the finite-difference coefficients, \underline{u} is a column vector containing the unknown potentials and \underline{b} is a column vector of known values. The resultant matrix A is often very large (an order of 10,000 is necessary for an adequate representation of the torso volume-conductor). However, A is also extremely 'sparse'. That is, it contains a high density of zero elements. In a 3-dimensional conductor, the maximum number of non-zero elements in each row of the A matrix is seven. A typical configuration of a matrix formulated

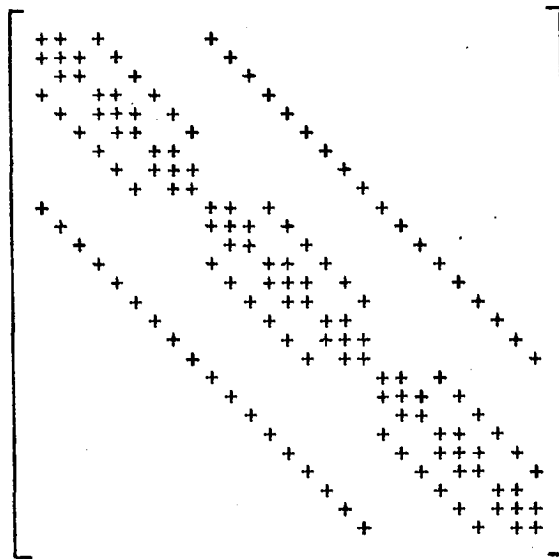


Fig.3.25: A typical matrix configuration formulated by the finite-difference method.

by finite-differences is shown in Fig. 3.25, only that it is usually of much larger order.

It is clearly seen that to attempt to solve such a system of equations using a direct method of elimination would rapidly 'fill-up' those places which are initially zero. And to attempt to implement such a method on a computer is uneconomical on storage locations. For this reason, an iterative method in which the sparsity of the matrix is fully exploited, is generally used.

Jacobi and Gauss-Seidel Iteration

Variations of iterative procedures applicable to the system in Eqn. 3.18 are numerous. The most well known being the Jacobi and the Gauss-Seidel schemes. In the Jacobi iteration, the solution is found by successive applications of the process:

$$\begin{aligned}
 u_1^{k+1} &= \frac{1}{a_{11}}(b_1 - a_{12}u_2^k - a_{13}u_3^k - \dots - a_{1n}u_n^k) \\
 u_2^{k+1} &= \frac{1}{a_{22}}(b_2 - a_{21}u_1^k - a_{23}u_3^k - \dots - a_{2n}u_n^k) \\
 &\vdots \\
 u_n^{k+1} &= \frac{1}{a_{nn}}(b_n - a_{n1}u_1^k - a_{n2}u_2^k - \dots - a_{n,n-1}u_{n-1}^k)
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{3.19}$$

where k is the index of iteration.

The Gauss-Seidel method is a refinement of the Jacobi process. It consists of replacing in each stage of the

iteration, the most recently available estimates:

$$\begin{aligned}
 u_1^{k+1} &= \frac{1}{a_{11}}(b_1 - a_{12}u_2^k - a_{13}u_3^k \dots - a_{1n}u_n^k) \\
 u_2^{k+1} &= \frac{1}{a_{22}}(b_2 - a_{21}u_1^{k+1} - a_{23}u_3^k \dots - a_{2n}u_n^k) \\
 &\vdots \\
 u_n^{k+1} &= \frac{1}{a_{nn}}(b_n - a_{n1}u_1^{k+1} - a_{n2}u_2^{k+1} \dots - a_{n,n-1}u_{n-1}^{k+1})
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{3.20}$$

This scheme has two distinct advantages over the previous one in that the solution converges much more rapidly and the instantaneous updating of the estimates means that it requires only half the storage locations of the Jacobi method. Invariably, the Gauss-Seidel scheme is preferred.

Convergence Theorem

An iterative scheme is only useful if the process converges to the true solution. The condition for the convergence of the Jacobi and the Gauss-Seidel methods are given in a theorem due to Collatz (see Hildebrand, 1968), which states that for an $(n \times n)$ system, the iterative processes will converge if A possesses the following two properties:

- 1) The matrix A does not contain a $(p \times q)$ submatrix of zeros such that $p+q \geq n$.
- 2) The magnitude of each diagonal element in A must be at least as large as the sum of the off-diagonal elements in that row, and in at least

one case, is larger than that sum.

The matrix formulated by finite-difference method does not have any zero element in its diagonal. Therefore, it cannot possess a $(p \times q)$ submatrix of zeros with $p+q \gg n$. Moreover, the diagonal element in each row is formed from the negative sum of the off-diagonal elements in that row. In solving this system, the boundary condition requires that the potential of at least one node be known. This means the removal of at least one row and one column of the matrix A. Consequently the second condition is also satisfied.

Therefore, the solution of the finite-difference equations is guaranteed to converge when either the Jacobi or the Gauss-Seidel iterative scheme is used.

Acceleration of Convergence.

It is seen clearly from the processes in Eqn. 3.19 and Eqn. 3.20 that when A is sparse, the 'propagation' of the solution will be extremely slow. In other words, a large number of iterations is required for the solution to settle to a satisfactory accuracy. The extrapolated Gauss-Siedel method provides a very simple but nonetheless effective way to accelerate the convergence of the solution. Here, a new value of the estimate is extrapolated from two most recent estimates in the following manner:

$$\bar{u}_i^{k+1} = u_i^k + w(u_i^{k+1} - u_i^k) \quad (3.21)$$

where \bar{u}_i^{k+1} is the extrapolated estimate and w the 'acceleration factor'. For $1 < w < 2$, the convergence rate is increased. And for some value w_{opt} which is different for each problem, the convergence becomes most rapid. This optimum acceleration factor can be estimated using the empirical formula (see Binns and Lawrenson, 1973),

$$w_{opt} = \frac{2}{1 + (1-c)^{1/2}} \quad (3.22)$$

where c is defined as the limiting value of the ratio of the absolute values of the maximum changes in the estimate occurring on successive iterations when the acceleration factor is unity:

$$c = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\max |u_i^{k+1} - u_i^k|}{\max |u_i^k - u_i^{k-1}|} \quad (3.23)$$

Although any arbitrary value may be used as the initial estimate for $u_1^{(0)}, u_2^{(0)}, u_3^{(0)}, \dots, u_n^{(0)}$, on the other hand a considerable amount of computing time can be saved if these initial estimates are made as close to the final solution as possible. This gives rise to a scheme to speed up convergence by obtaining firstly, an approximate solution on a coarse grid and then using this solution as the initial estimate for the final system.

Convergence error

There is no means by which the error at each step of the

iteration can be calculated. However, an upper bound to the error e_m in the solution can be estimated using the following formula (see Milne, 1953),

$$e_m = \frac{rR^2}{4h^2} \quad (3.24)$$

where R is the radius of a sphere which just encloses the volume-conductor, h is the grid interval and r is the maximum residual in the solution.

3.6 Program Organization

A complete description of the computer program for implementing the numerical-analogue is given in Appendix A. The program is organized into four phases of operations which are briefly described below:

PHASE1 - The purpose of PHASE1 is to read and unpack the volume-conductor data and store them on file TAPE1. The program assumes the input data to be arranged in the manner described in Sec. 3.4.1.

PHASE2 - This phase scans the coded data on TAPE1 and generates the finite-difference nodes for the conductor. These are stored on file TAPE2.

PHASE3 - PHASE3 is concerned with constructing the set of finite-difference equations using data on TAPE1 and TAPE2. These equations are stored on file TAPE3.

PHASE4 - This phase reorganizes the data on TAPE3 for efficient iteration. The potential at each node is calculated using the Gauss-Seidel method. The solution is stored on file TAPE4.

3.7 Simple Validation Studies

The validity of the numerical-analogue is investigated in this section by comparing the solutions obtained using this method with those obtained analytically.

Dipole in a Sphere

The formula derived by Frank (1952) to calculate the potential distribution inside a homogeneous conducting sphere due to two point current sources provides an ideal volume-conductor solution against which the validity of the numerical-analogue can be demonstrated.

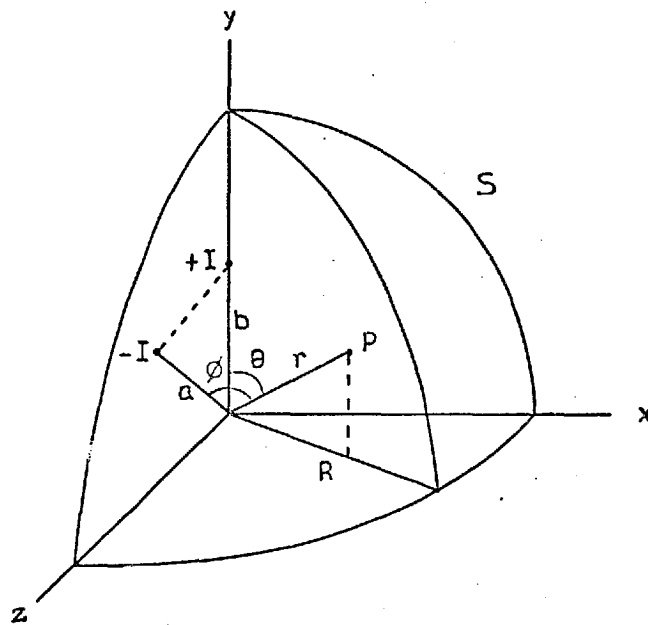


Fig.3.26: Two point current sources arbitrarily located inside a homogeneous conducting sphere, one octant of which is shown.

Consider two point current sources $+I$ and $-I$ arbitrarily

located inside a homogeneous conducting sphere S of radius R and conductivity G . The potential at any point within S can be determined from the formula,

$$V = \frac{I}{4\pi G} \left(\frac{1}{r_b} - \frac{1}{r_a} + \frac{R}{br_{bi}} - \frac{R}{ar_{ai}} + \frac{1}{R} \ln \left[\frac{r_a + R - a\cos\phi}{r_b + R - b\cos\theta} \right] \right) \quad (3.25)$$

where

$$r_a = (r^2 + a^2 - 2ra\cos\phi)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$r_b = (r^2 + b^2 - 2rb\cos\theta)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$ar_{ai} = (R^4 + r^2a^2 - 2Rra\cos\phi)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$br_{bi} = (R^4 + r^2b^2 - 2Rrb\cos\theta)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

and the parameters R , r , a , b , ϕ , and θ are as specified in Fig. 3.26.

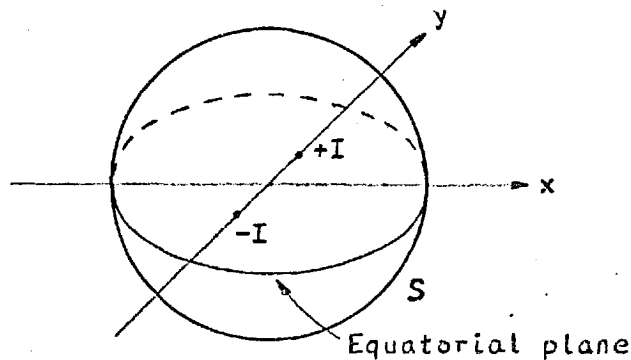


Fig.3.27: Two symmetrically placed current sources, $+I$ and $-I$ in the equatorial plane of a conducting sphere S .

The distribution for the case of two current sources symmetrically placed in the equatorial plane (Fig. 3.27)

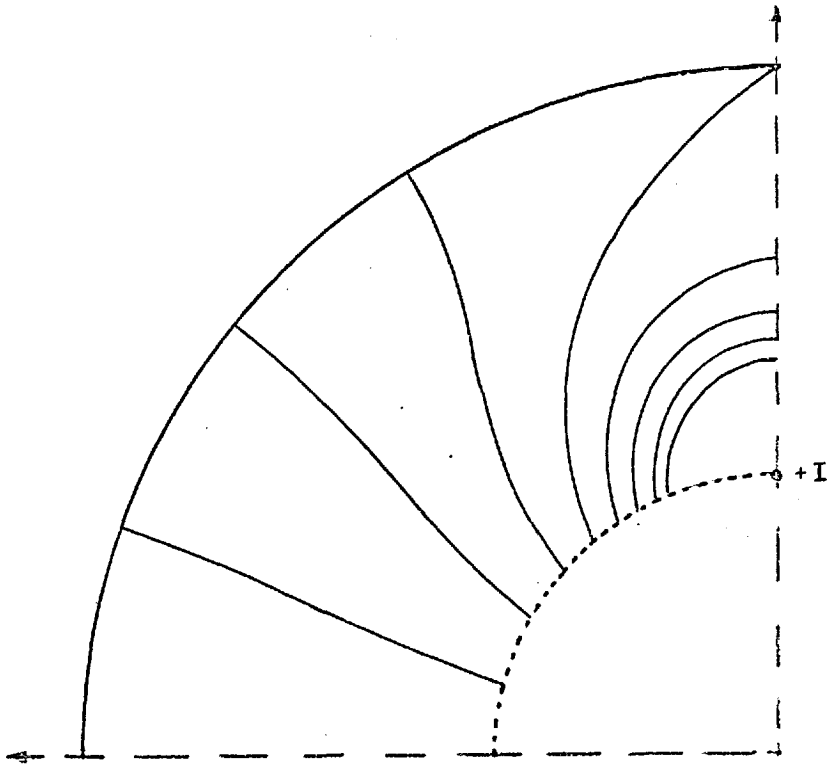


Fig.3.28: Potential distribution in one-quarter of the equatorial plane for the source configuration in Fig.3.27 calculated using Eqn.3.25.

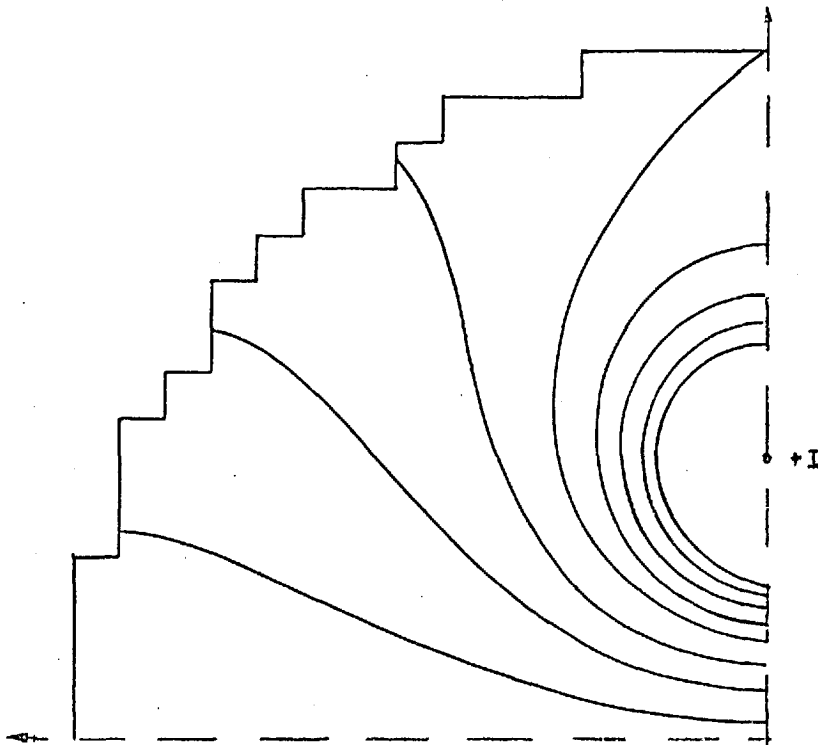


Fig.3.29: Numerical-analogue solution of the potential distribution for the source configuration in Fig.3.27.

is shown in Fig. 3.28. Because of the symmetry of the isopotentials about the x and y axes, only one-quarter of the equatorial plane is shown. The dotted circle shows the region inside which Eqn. 3.25 has no solution.

The same problem is now attacked using the numerical-analogue. A discrete spherical conductor is constructed from elemental cubes of dimension $\frac{R}{15}$. The potential distribution calculated by the numerical-analogue for the same source configuration is shown in Fig. 3.29.

Notice that in spite of the rather coarse representation of the sphere, the solution obtained still agrees very closely with the one obtained analytically.

Boundary Condition

It is well known that when an isopotential line crosses a boundary between two regions of different conductivity, it must be 'refracted' according to the relation,

$$\frac{\tan \theta_1}{\tan \theta_2} = \frac{\epsilon_1}{\epsilon_2} \quad (3.26)$$

where ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 are the conductivities of the two regions, θ_1 and θ_2 are the angles which the tangents to the isopotential make with the boundary at the point of crossing (Fig. 3.30).

This boundary condition provides a simple means of testing the validity of the numerical-analogue solution of inhomogeneous fields. Fig. 3.31a and Fig. 3.31b show the potential

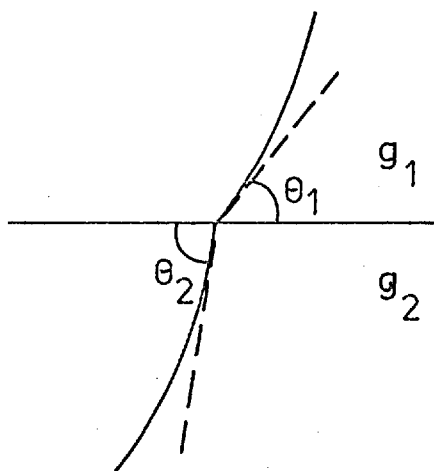


Fig.3.30: 'Refraction' of isopotential line at the boundary between two different media.

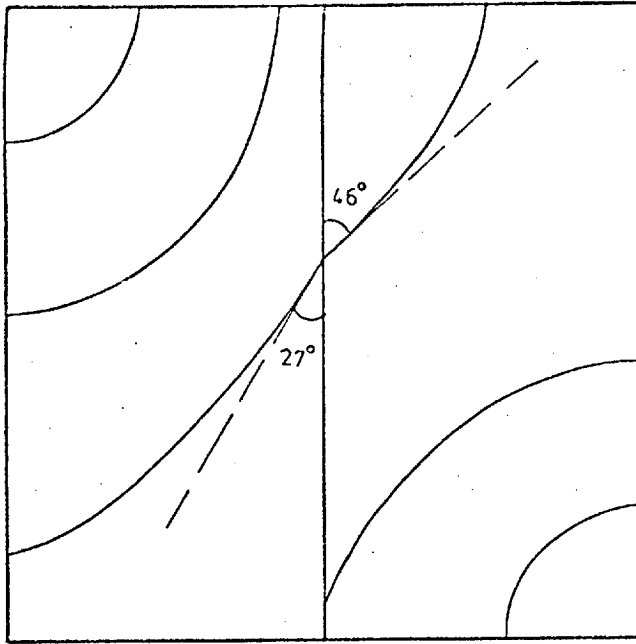
distributions in one plane through two inhomogeneous conductors. In both cases, it is seen that the isopotentials crossing the inhomogeneity interfaces satisfy the relation in Eqn. 3.26.

Anisotropy

A demonstration of the validity of the numerical-analogue for calculating anisotropic fields is now discussed. Consider the case in which the conductivities in the principal axes, x , y , and z are all different. The Laplacian for such an anisotropic conductor is,

$$g_x \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + g_y \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + g_z \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0 \quad (3.27)$$

where g_x , g_y and g_z are the conductivities in the x , y and z directions respectively. The problem in Eqn. 3.27 can be transformed into one involving isotropy using the transformation,

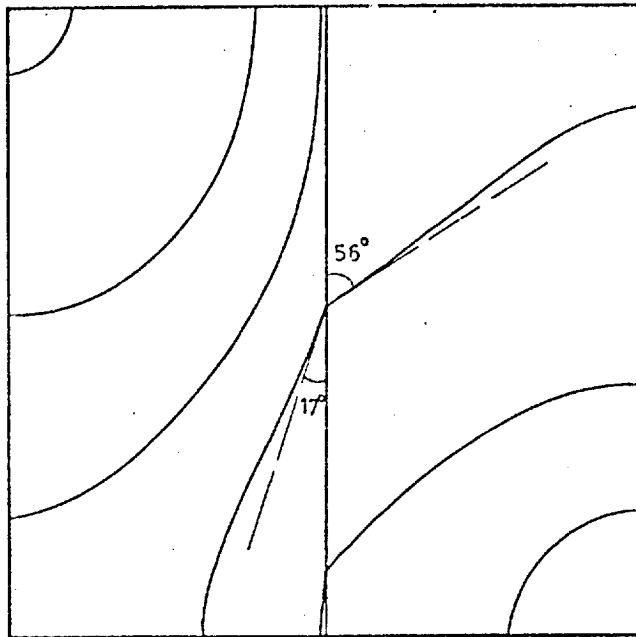


$$\epsilon_1 = 1.0 \quad \epsilon_2 = 2.0$$

Fig.3.31a

$$\frac{\epsilon_1}{\epsilon_2} = 0.5$$

$$\frac{\tan\theta_1}{\tan\theta_2} = 0.49$$



$$\epsilon_1 = 1.0 \quad \epsilon_2 = 5.0$$

Fig.3.31b

$$\frac{\epsilon_1}{\epsilon_2} = 0.2$$

$$\frac{\tan\theta_1}{\tan\theta_2} = 0.206$$

Fig.3.31: Calculations of conductivity ratios from the angles the isopotentials make with the boundaries separating two regions of different conductivities.

$$x' = \frac{(\epsilon_y \epsilon_z)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{g} x, \quad y' = \frac{(\epsilon_x \epsilon_z)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{g} y, \quad z' = \frac{(\epsilon_x \epsilon_y)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{g} z \quad (3.28)$$

where x' , y' and z' are the new systems of coordinates.

The potential gradients are related by

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x'} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial x'} = \frac{g}{(\epsilon_y \epsilon_z)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \quad (3.29)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x'^2} = \frac{g^2}{(\epsilon_y \epsilon_z)} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \quad (3.30)$$

Similarly,

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y'^2} = \frac{g^2}{(\epsilon_x \epsilon_z)} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z'^2} = \frac{g^2}{(\epsilon_x \epsilon_y)} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} \quad (3.31)$$

Substituting Eqn. 3.30 and Eqn. 3.31 into Eqn. 3.27, yields

$$\frac{\epsilon_x \epsilon_y \epsilon_z}{g^2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x'^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y'^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z'^2} \right) = 0 \quad (3.32)$$

which clearly is an expression for an isotropic conductor.

In this exercise, a numerical-analogue solution for an anisotropic conductor is computed. The isopotentials through a plane of the conductor is shown in Fig. 3.32. The same problem on the other hand, can be solved assuming isotropicity by using the coordinate transformation:

$$x' = \sqrt{6} x, \quad y' = \sqrt{3} y, \quad z' = \sqrt{2} z \quad (3.33)$$

which means calculating the potentials in an equivalent

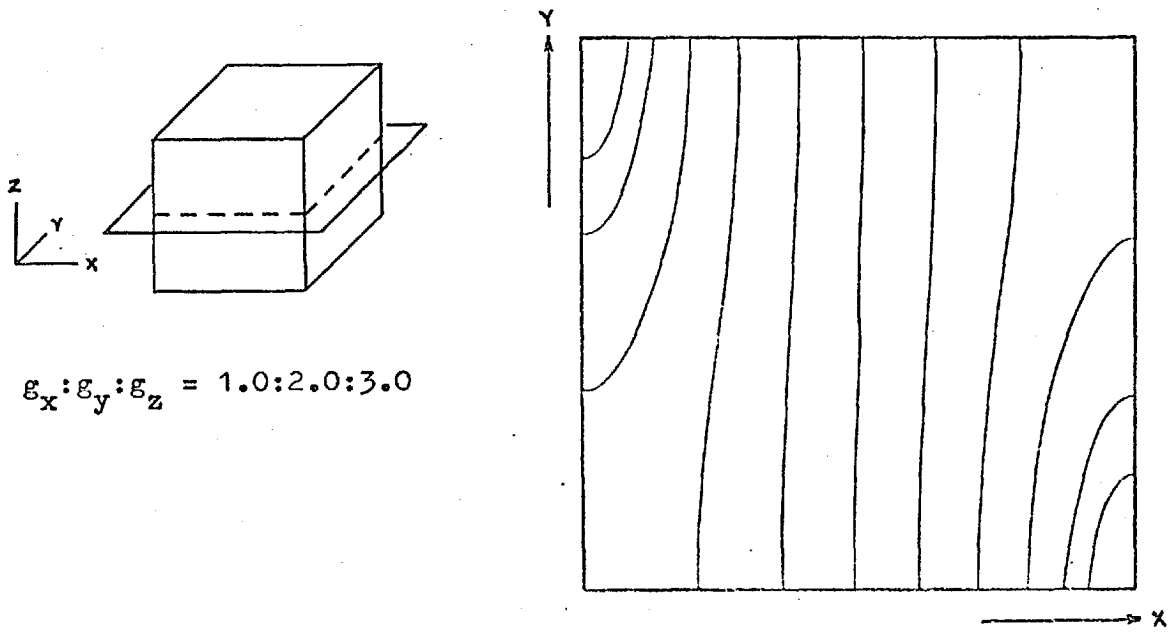


Fig.3.32: Numerical-analogue solution for an anisotropic conductor.

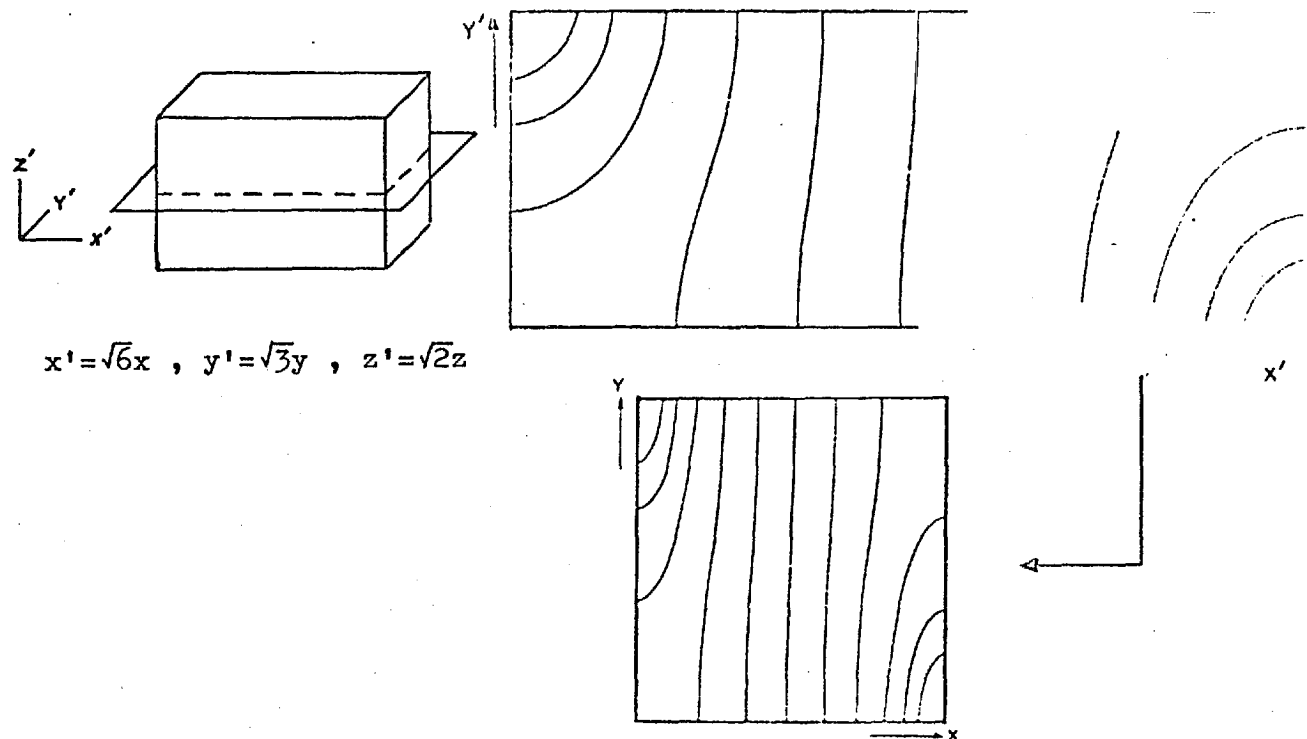


Fig.3.33: Solution to the same problem in Fig.3.32 obtained by calculating the potential distribution in an equivalent isotropic conductor. The required solution is derived by an inverse coordinate transformation.

isotropic conductor with dimensions $\sqrt{6} : \sqrt{3} : \sqrt{2}$ (Fig. 3.33). The solution to the original problem is derived by a simple inverse transformation.

It is seen clearly that the solutions obtained by the two independent methods agree.

3.8 Conclusion

The development of a numerical-analogue for calculating volume-conductor fields was described in this chapter. The method is distinct from the finite-difference method and the resistive-network analogue in that it combines the latter two methods in such a way that the advantages of both methods are realized.

The validity of the numerical-analogue was also demonstrated by comparing its solutions with those obtained by other means.

CHAPTER 4

A DISCRETE ANATOMICAL MODEL OF THE HUMAN THORAX

4.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapter, a numerical procedure for calculating the electrical fields in a volume-conductor has been described. Now, a valid digital representation of the human thorax must be derived for applications to the forward problem in electrocardiography.

The choice of an appropriate sampling grid is fundamental to this problem. Ideally, the grid interval should be made as small as possible for two reasons: The first is that the errors introduced by the finite-difference approximation vanish in the limit as the grid interval is made smaller and smaller. Secondly, a fine grid allows greater geometrical details to be resolved, hence a more realistic representation of the human torso. In practice, the limitations of speed and storage of a given computer will ultimately limit the resolution of the chosen grid.

Furthermore, it is not necessarily sensible to exploit the available computing resources to the limit for the reason that the accuracy of the solutions does not depend on the grid size alone, but also on the values of the tissue conductivities used in the simulation. In the present study, these values are taken from published sources. The problem here lies in the difficulties of estimating the accuracies of the published data due to the

inconsistencies between results obtained by different groups of investigators (see Appendix B). The differences ranges from 70% for liver to some 400% for muscular tissues. Moreover, repeated measurements for the same tissue obtained by Rush et. al.(1963) showed deviations in the results ranging from 14% for liver to 30% for muscles.

It is therefore difficult to justify the applications of vast computing resources for the purpose of minimizing the errors due to grid size when the validity of published conductivities is somewhat questionable. For this reason, it is more sensible to emphasize when constructing the torso model, on the economy of achieving a solution rather than on the numerical accuracies.

4.2 Anatomical Data

The data on which the model is based is obtained from an atlas of the anatomical cross-sections of human body prepared by Symmington (1956). These cross-sections were made from a male cadaver sectioned at approximately one inch interval. For the purpose of this study, two additional cross-sections in between the planes of the atlas were interpolated by hand. Cross-sections corresponding to the torso slabs shown in Fig. 4.1 were digitized using the grid configuration shown in Fig. 4.2. The complete specification of the digitized torso cross-sections is shown in Fig. 4.3a and Fig. 4.3b. The corresponding coded images of these cross-sections can be found in Appendix C.1.

The coded image for a model digitized at a coarser grid of one-half inch is also given in Appendix C (Appendix C.2). The purpose of using two models is to reduce the computational time required to obtain a solution. This is achieved by iterating firstly on the coarse model and then using this solution as the initial guess for the potential function in the finer model. In this way, the problem of slowly converging solution for the fine model is overcome.

The conductivity ratios for the codings used in the model are given in Table 4.1. These were derived from the set of tissue resistivity data obtained by Rush et al.(1963). The reasons for using their data is that firstly, this is the most recently available and also one of the most complete set of measurements. Secondly, their measurements were made with electrocardiographic applications specifically in mind.

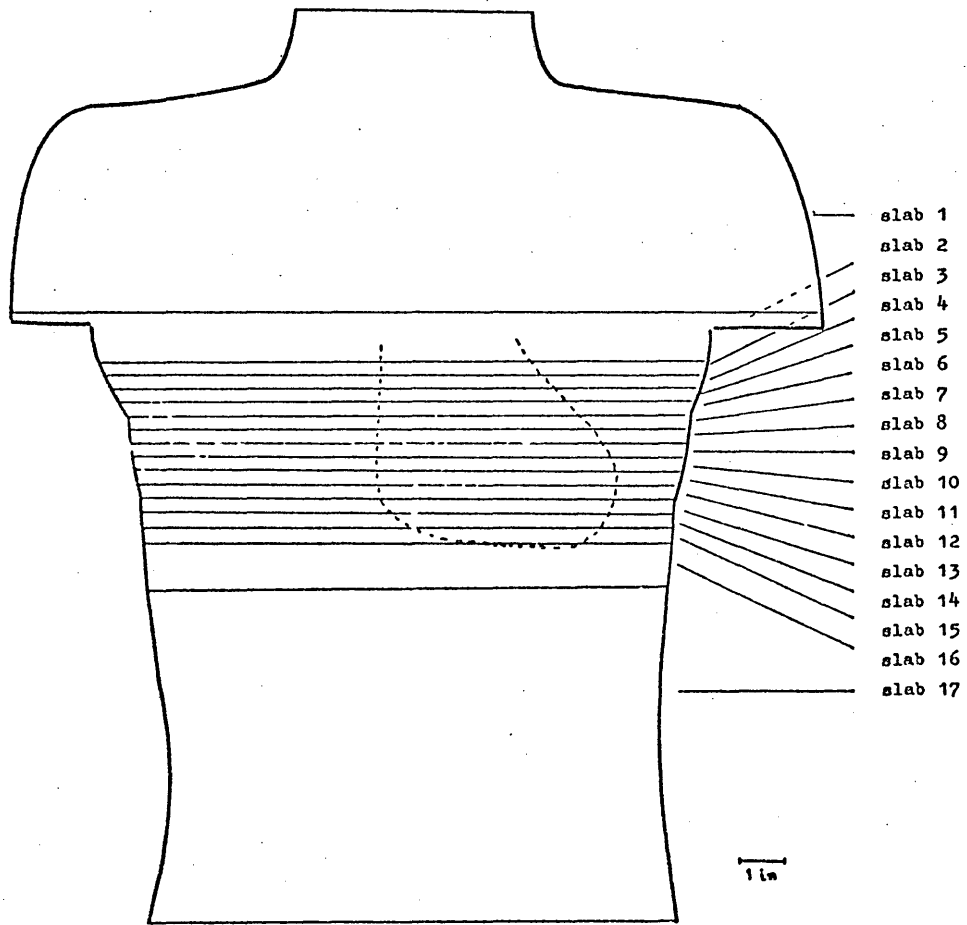


Fig.4.1: Diagram illustrating the various slabs used in the discrete model.

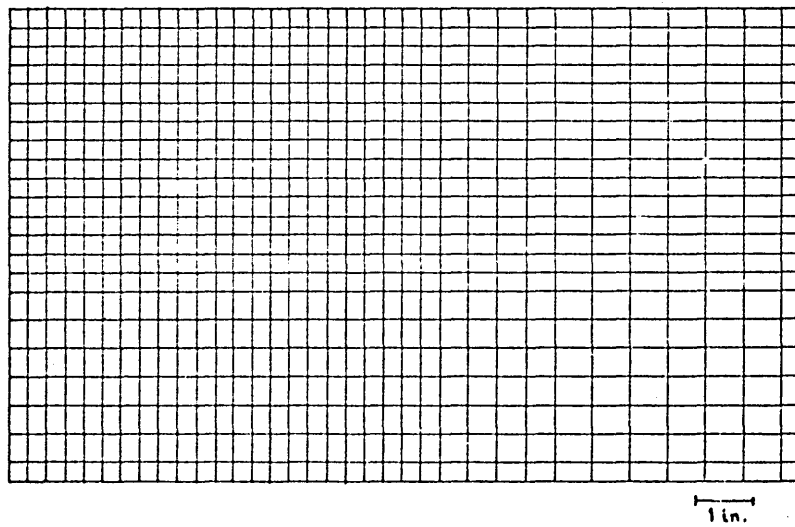
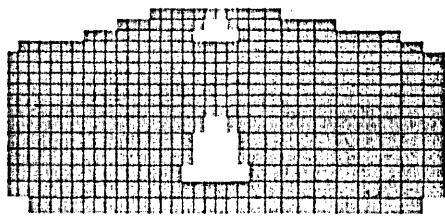
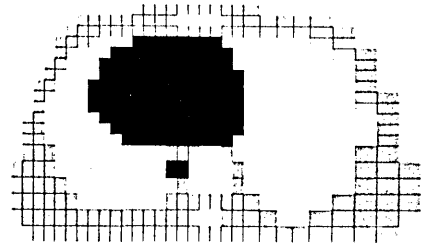


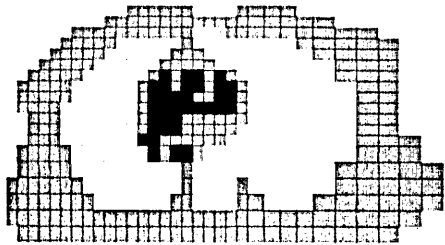
Fig.4.2: Configuration of the sampling grid.



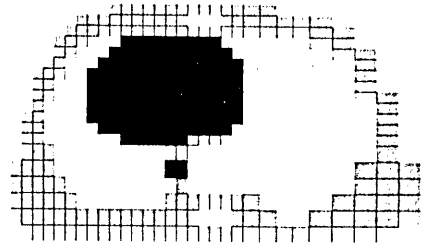
SLAB 1



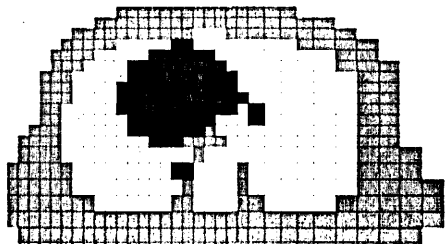
SLAB 6



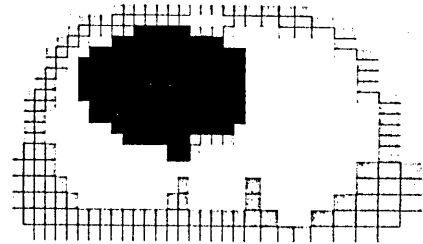
SLAB 2



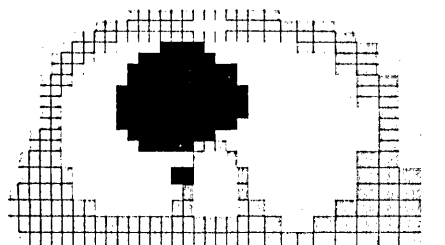
SLAB 7



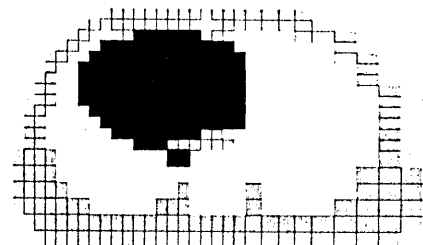
SLAB 3



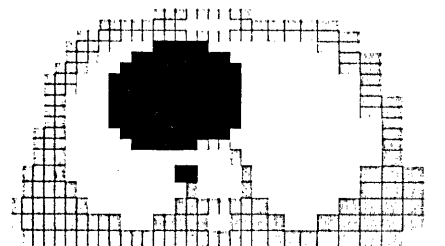
SLAB 8



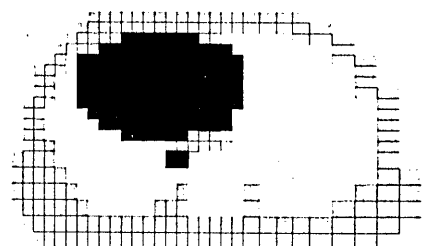
SLAB 4



SLAB 9



SLAB 5



SLAB 10

Fig.4.3a: Slab 1 to Slab 10 of the discretized torso sections.

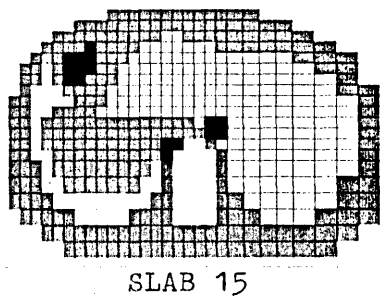
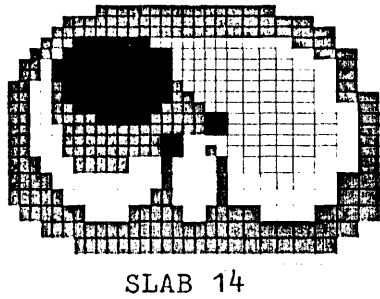
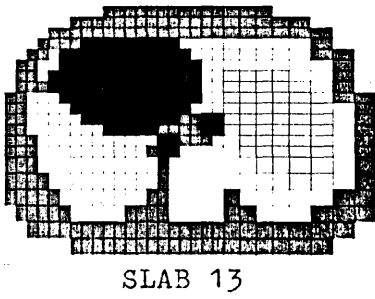
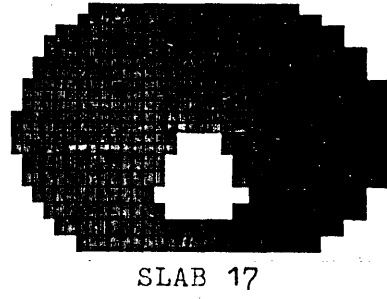
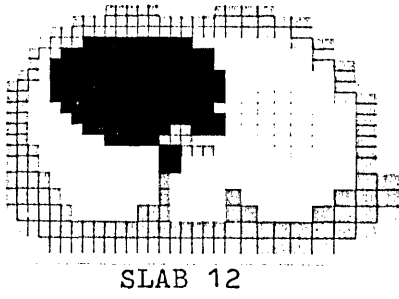
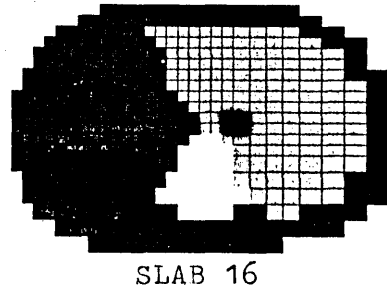
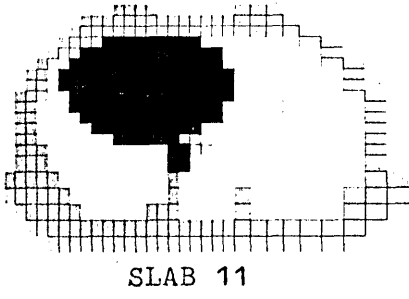


Fig.4.3b: Slab 11 to Slab 17 of the discretized torso sections.

Table 4.1: Table of codings and their conductivity ratios.

TISSUE	RESISTIVITY (ohm-cm)	CODING	CONDUCTIVITY RATIO				
Human Trunk	463	T	1.0				
Blood	162	M/V	2.8				
Heart	377*	H	1.2				
Lung	2100	L	0.2				
Liver	700	R	0.6				
Skeletal Muscle	2300 high 150 low	(Refer to Fig.3.22 for anisotropic representation)					
			G ¹	G ²	G ³	G ⁴	G ⁵
		1	3.0	3.0	0.2	0.2	3.0
		2	0.2	3.0	3.0	0.2	3.0
		3	0.2	0.2	3.0	3.0	3.0
		4	3.0	0.2	0.2	3.0	3.0
		5	3.0	0.2	3.0	0.2	3.0
6	0.2	3.0	0.2	3.0	3.0		

* The resistivity of the heart is taken to be the geometric mean of the high and low values given by Rush et al.(1963).

4.3 Adequacy of the Sampling Grid

There is no simple analytical means of determining the magnitude of the errors introduced by the finite grid size. The only practical method is to compare the solutions obtained at various grid sizes. Using the solutions obtained at two different grid sizes, the exact solution can be estimated by Richardson's extrapolation method (see Vitkovitch, 1966) which is briefly described below.

Assuming that the potential function does not contain derivatives higher than the order four, then the error introduced by the finite-difference approximation for a grid size h_a is,

$$u_o - u_a = \frac{M_4 h_a^2}{4} \quad (4.1)$$

where u_a is the potential at a given node, u_o is the exact potential and M_4 is the magnitude of the fourth order derivative. Similarly, the error due to the grid size h_b is,

$$u_o - u_b = \frac{M_4 h_b^2}{4} \quad (4.2)$$

Eliminating the quantity M_4 from the above equations gives:

$$u_o = \frac{h_a^2 u_b - h_b^2 u_a}{h_a^2 - h_b^2} \quad (4.3)$$

From the extrapolated exact solution, the error introduced by either grid size can therefore be estimated.

In order to economize on computational resources, the investigation that follows will be restricted to a two-dimensional

cross-sectional model of the human torso.

Fig. 4.4 shows the same torso cross-section digitized at different grid sizes, three of which, Fig. 4.4a, Fig. 4.4b and Fig. 4.4c are digitized using regular grids of one-sixth inch, one-third inch and one-half inch respectively. The fourth, Fig. 4.4d is digitized using an irregular grid with the sampling density greater around the cardiac region, because here the potential function varies the most rapidly.

The electrical potential distribution for each model is calculated for the same source configuration. In each case, the iteration is terminated when the upper bound for the error in the solution as determined from Eqn. 3.24 is less than 0.001%. The maximum difference between the solution obtained using the one-sixth inch grid and the one-third inch grid is of the order of 3%. Substituting this into Eqn. 4.3 gives an estimated discretization error of some 1% for the one-sixth inch model and 4% for the one-third inch one. Similarly, error for the one-half inch model is estimated to be some 10%. As the grid interval for Fig. 4.4d is irregular, it is not possible to use this technique to estimate its discretization error. However, since the maximum difference between the solution for this model and that for the one-third inch one is only some 0.3%, it is therefore unlikely that the error here would be greater than 4.5%.

The computational time required for each of these solutions is shown in Table 4.2. When the grid size is reduced from one-third inch to one-sixth inch, the computational time is increased by a staggering amount of 1600%. The corresponding improvement in

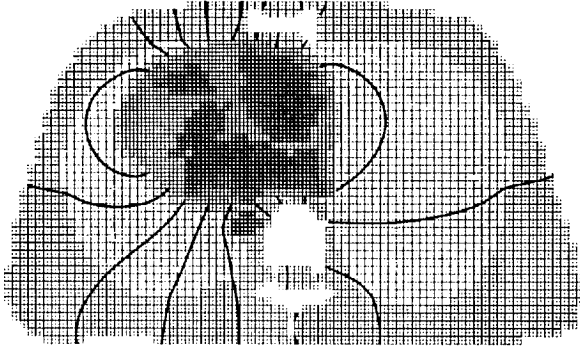


Fig.4.4a: One-sixth inch grid.

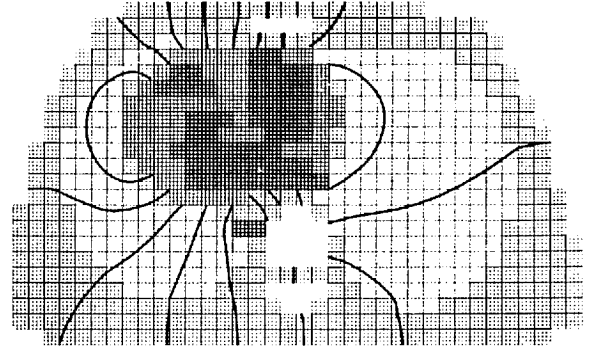


Fig.4.4b: One-third inch grid.

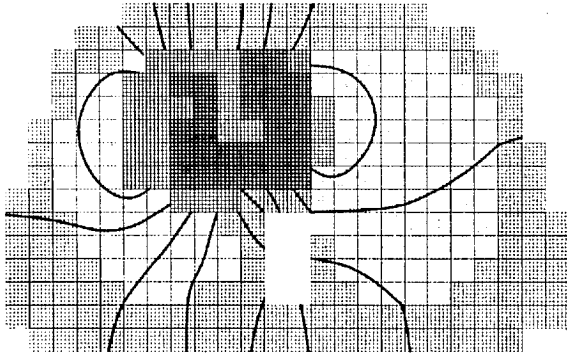


Fig.4.4c: One-half inch grid.

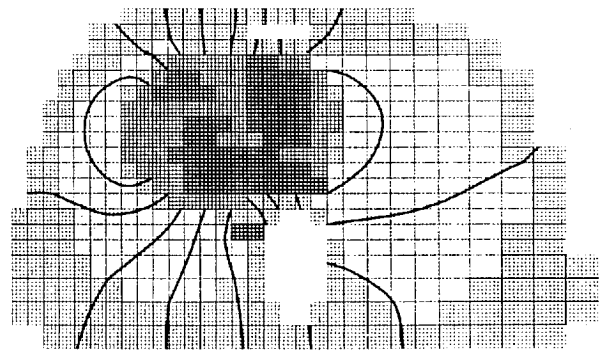


Fig.4.4d: Irregular grid.

Fig.4.4: Digitization of the same torso section using different grid sizes. The heavy thick lines are isopotentials due to a sinusoidally varying potential distribution on the heart surface.

Table 4.2: Computational time and estimated error for different grid sizes.

GRID SIZE (inch)	COMPUTATIONAL TIME (sec.)	ESTIMATED ERROR (%)
One-sixth	80	1
One-third	5	4
One-half	1	10
Irregular	2.5	5

the numerical accuracy on the other hand is only some 4% which hardly justifies the large difference in the computational costs. A further reduction of 50% in the computational cost can be achieved by using the irregular grid in Fig. 4.4d.

Although this investigation is carried out using two-dimensional models, the results nevertheless do provide useful indications as to the adequacies of the discrete three-dimensional torso model described in the previous section.

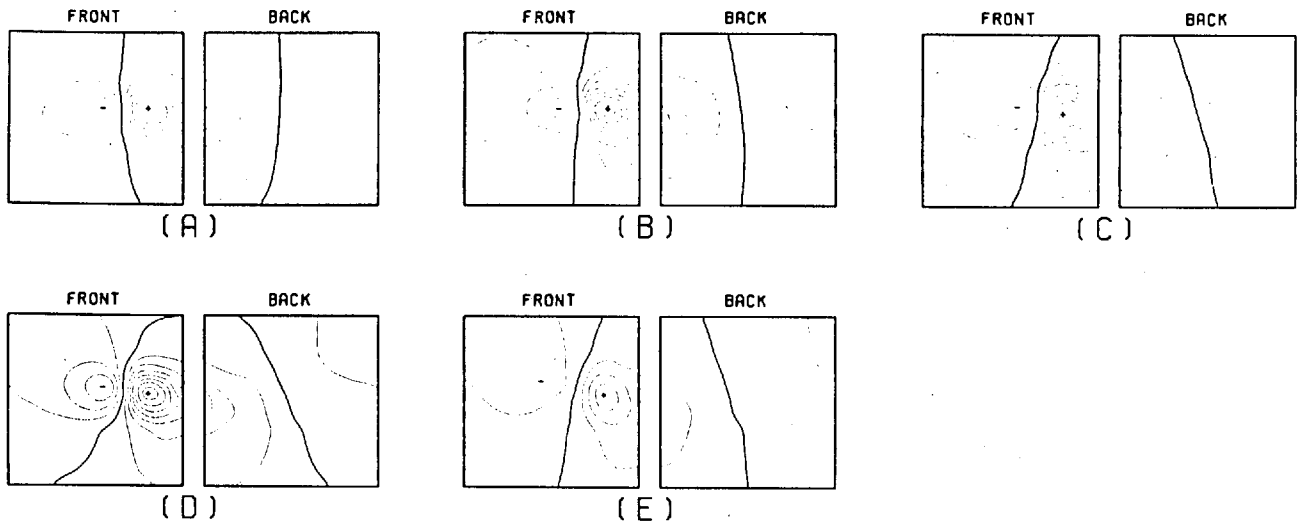
4.4 Effects of the Various Internal Inhomogeneities

The discrete model of the human torso developed in Section 4.2 includes all the internal inhomogeneities that could be resolved by the grid. It is relevant to enquire whether all the inhomogeneities are necessary. If not, then clearly it would be sensible to simplify the model accordingly.

For this investigation the surface distribution for five models with varying degree of complexity in their anatomies were used. These are shown in Fig. 4.5.

It is observed that the introduction of intracardiac blood-mass enhances greatly the magnitudes of the surface maximum and minimum. This observation is in close agreement with the results obtained by Barnard et al.(1967). Two interesting features are observed when the lungs are introduced. The first is a slight clockwise rotation of the surface potentials and the second is a 'focusing' effect towards the front of the torso. The rotation of the potentials can be explained by the difference in mass between the left and the right lungs, while the focusing effect can be accounted for by the low resistive pathways through the gaps separating the two lungs. A further rotation of the isopotentials is observed when the liver is introduced. This once again, is due to the non-uniform displacement of currents in the torso. The effects of the spine, the sternum and the great vessels are to increase the irregularities in the isopotentials. A drastic change in the pattern of the surface potentials is observed when the anisotropy of the skeletal muscles is introduced. This includes a

SURFACE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTIONS FOR DIFFERENT MODELLING ASSUMPTIONS



MODELLING ASSUMPTIONS

- (A) - HOMOGENEOUS ISOTROPIC TORSO-SHAPED VOLUME CONDUCTOR
- (B) - AS (A) + INTRACARDIAC BLOOD MASS
- (C) - AS (B) + LUNGS
- (D) - AS (C) + G.VESSELS, SPINE, LIVER AND SKEL. MUSCLE
- (E) - AS (D) BUT WITH ANISOTROPIC SKEL. MUSCLE

Figure 4.5

reduction in the magnitudes of the surface potentials and an increase in separation of the maximum and minimum. This is not unexpected since the effect of a low resistive pathway parallel to the body surface is to disperse any localized concentration of the surface currents.

Since it is shown that all the inhomogeneities contribute to the body surface potentials in a significant manner, it can therefore be argued that the data accumulated in Section 4.2 are justified in the complexities of the internal inhomogeneities.

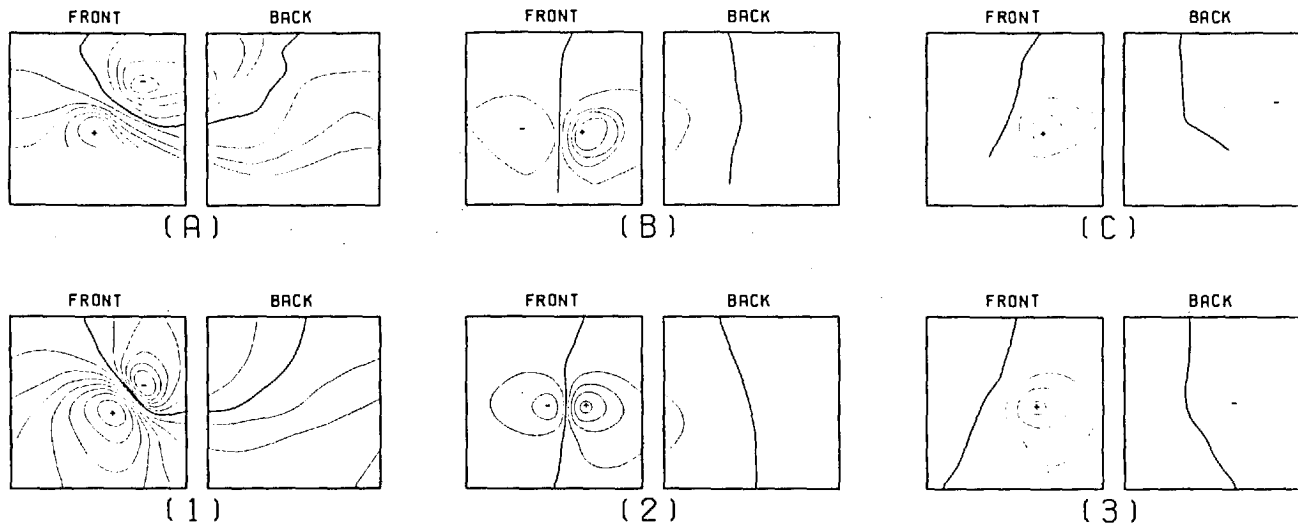
4.5 Comparison of Simulated and Observed Surface Potentials

In this section, the data of the torso model accumulated in this chapter is used to calculate catheter potentials on the body surface of cardiac patients with pacemakers implanted in their right ventricles. These simulated surface potentials are then compared with those actually measured on the patients' torsos.

The measurements of Hamer et al.(1965) from implanted pacing catheters provide an ideal basis for comparison. They recorded from several cardiac patients with implanted pacemakers in their right ventricles, the magnitudes of the pacemaker impulses at various sites on the patients' torsos. From these recordings, they reconstructed isopotential maps of what is effectively a dipole source located in the right ventricle.

From their information of the locations and orientations of the catheter tips in the patients, the corresponding surface distributions were computed using the torso model derived in this chapter. The simulated surface potential distributions and those reconstructed by Hamer et al.(1965) are shown in Fig. 4.6. It is seen that a close agreement in all the major features between the two sets of distributions can be found. This indicates quite strongly the validity of the model data accumulated in this chapter.

COMPARISONS BETWEEN SIMULATED AND
EXPERIMENTALLY OBSERVED CATHETER POTENTIALS



(A).(B).(C) - BODY SURFACE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION PRODUCED BY CATHETER IMPULSES
(REDRAWN FROM HAMER, BOYLE AND SOWTON, 1965)

(1).(2).(3) - SURFACE DISTRIBUTION OBTAINED BY SIMULATION

Figure 4.6

4.6 Conclusion

A digital computer model of the human torso which took into account the intra-cardiac blood-mass, the great vessels, the heart muscle, the lungs, the liver, the spine, the sternum and the anisotropic skeletal muscles has been derived. The validity of this model was demonstrated by comparing surface potentials computed from the model with those obtained experimentally.

In order to speed up the convergence of the solution, a coarser model was also constructed so that an initial estimate of the solution could be obtained economically. Using this estimate as the initial guess in the finer model, the number of iterations required to achieve the solution is greatly reduced.

CHAPTER 5

AN INVESTIGATION ON THE FEASIBILITY OF
AN UNCONSTRAINED INVERSE SOLUTION5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate the feasibility of an unconstrained inverse solution based on recovering epicardial potentials from surface measurements. Previous workers (Barnard et al., 1967; Brody and Hight, 1972; Martin and Pilkington, 1972) have demonstrated the inherent difficulties in such an approach due to the highly ill-conditioned property of the heart-surface transfer matrix T defined in Chapter 2. The effect is that presence of small perturbations in the measurement vector \underline{v} in the equation,

$$T\underline{s} = \underline{v} \quad (5.1)$$

will lead to serious errors to be observed in the solution vector \underline{s} . They also attempted overdetermination of the problem but met with little success in obtaining a valid solution.

In order to overcome this problem, various constraints were imposed by past workers on their inverse solutions. These constraints are usually based on some prior knowledge of the valid solution. For example, Barnard et al.(1967) constrained the dipole moments of their multiple-dipole solution to be non-negative, so avoiding solutions with

'inward pointing' dipoles which are held to be physiologically unrealistic in normal cases. Another form of constraint which was introduced by Martin and Pilkington (1972) in their epicardial solutions assumed a prior knowledge of the statistics of the solution vectors.

However, a constrained approach is not without its disadvantages. Clearly, the ultimate objective in the inverse solution is to aid diagnosis and detection of abnormalities. To constrain the solution in order to fit what is a valid result for the normal may risk excluding solutions which are correct for the abnormal. For example, in certain cardiac abnormalities, the excitation spreads outside-in which clearly would be misrepresented by a solution that constrains the dipoles to point outwards.

It is for this reason that this chapter is devoted to the study of the heart-surface transfer relationship in the hope that such investigations may lead to a formulation of an unconstrained inverse solution.

5.2 The Torso as a Spatial Filter

The distribution of body-surface potentials $g(p)$ can be related to the epicardial distribution $f(s)$ by the integral equation,

$$g(p) = \int_S K(p,s)f(s)ds \quad (5.2)$$

where $K(p,s)$ represents the body transfer characteristics and the integration is over the heart surface. The problem in inverse electrocardiography is to infer $f(s)$ from knowledge of $g(p)$. Ideally, this is achieved by a simple inverse transformation of Eqn. 5.2. In practice however, $g(p)$ is obtained by measurements which are subjected to errors such as positional uncertainties, physiological noise and measurement errors. The result can be to cause the solution to oscillate wildly.

Twomey (1965) proposed an elegant technique for investigating problems of this kind. He showed that the success of inferring $f(s)$ from $g(p)$ when the latter is subjected to noise depends on the shape of $K(p,s)$. This is most clearly illustrated by the Fourier transform of the kernel $K(p,s)$:

Spectral Kernel

Consider the Fourier transform pair,

$$f(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(w)e^{-jws}ds \quad (5.3)$$

$$F(w) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(s)e^{jws}ds \quad (5.4)$$

Substituting Eqn. 5.3 in Eqn. 5.2 gives,

$$g(p) = \int_S K(p,s) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(w) e^{jws} dw \right] ds \quad (5.5)$$

As the function $K(p,s)$ must vanish outside the area of integration, the limits of integration can be extended to $\pm\infty$. And reversing the order of integration yields,

$$g(p) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(p,w) F(w) dw \quad (5.6)$$

where

$$\Phi(p,w) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(p,s) e^{jws} ds \quad (5.7)$$

known as the spectral kernel is the Fourier transform of $K(p,s)$ with respect to the variable s .

In most physical systems, $K(p,s)$ is a smooth function of s . The corresponding spectral kernel $\Phi(p,w)$ becomes a function which decreases rapidly with increasing $|w|$. A simple example to illustrate the rapidly declining function of $\Phi(p,w)$ in the volume-conductor was given by Martin and Pilkington (1972).

Case of Two Concentric Spheres

They considered the case of a highly idealized model of the torso represented by two concentric spheres embedded in an infinitely homogeneous medium (Fig. 5.1). The inner sphere represents the heart while the outer sphere represents the torso.

For any given distribution of potential V_S on the surface of the inner sphere, the potential V_P generated on the outer sphere can be calculated using Poisson's Integral equation:

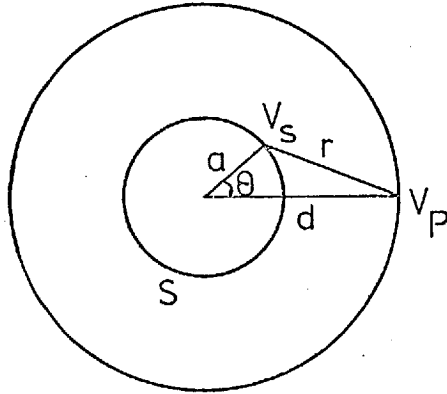


Fig.5.1: Two concentric spheres of radius a and d embedded in an infinitely homogeneous medium.

$$v_p = \int_S \frac{(d^2 - a^2)v_s}{4\pi ar^3} ds \quad (5.8)$$

where

$$r = (a^2 + d^2 - 2ad\cos\theta)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (5.9)$$

Because of the symmetry of the system, Eqn. 5.8 can be reduced to an integration over one variable by making use of the relation,

$$\delta s = 2\pi a^2 \sin\theta \delta\theta \quad (5.10)$$

The kernel of this system then becomes

$$K(c, \theta) = \frac{(c - c^3)\sin\theta}{2(1 + c^2 - 2cc\cos\theta)^{3/2}} \quad (5.11)$$

where the constant c is the ratio a/d .

A family of the spectral kernel for the various a/d ratios is shown in Fig. 5.2. Clearly, the spectral kernel has the

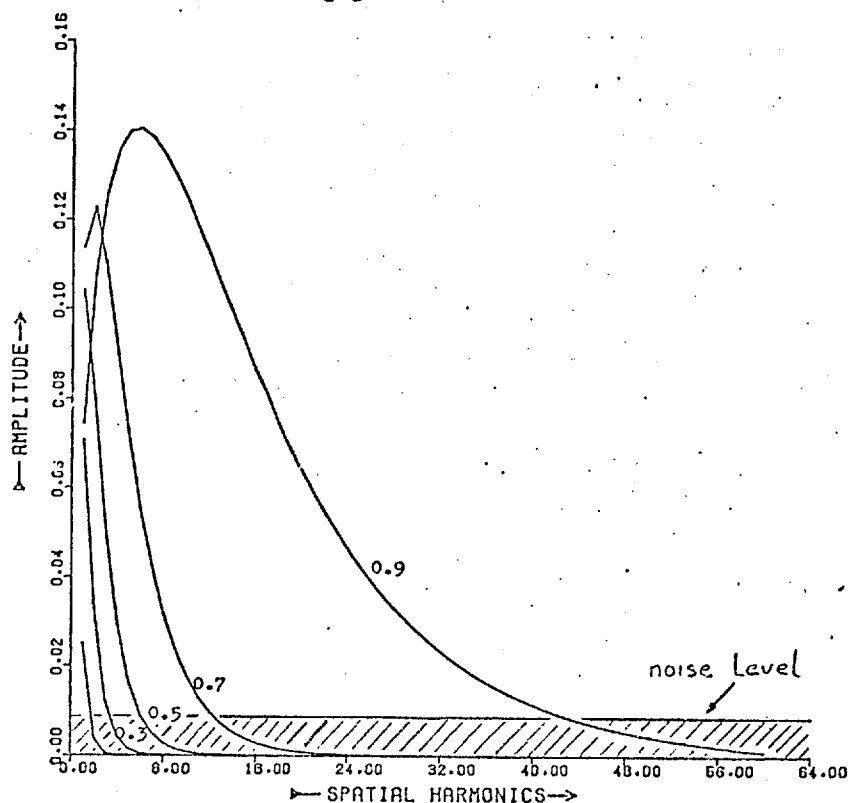


Fig.5.2: A family of spectral Kernel for various a/d ratios.

characteristics of a 'low-pass' filter. The degree of filtering depends on the distance from the source to the surface.

Interpretation

In spite of the rapidly decreasing values of $\mathfrak{E}(p,w)$ as $|w|$ increases, in theory the values only become vanishingly small. Therefore provided the system is totally free from noise and $g(p)$ can be measured precisely, the function $f(s)$ can be accurately retrieved. In practice however, the system is subjected to noise which is represented by the shaded region in Fig. 5.2. The consequence of this is that the information which can be extracted is now limited to some frequency range $(-q,+q)$ for which $\mathfrak{E}(p,w)$ is greater than the noise level. The number of independent parameters that can be inferred from $g(p)$

according to Shannon's sampling theorem is $2q$. Attempt to infer more parameters is to seek information outside the filter 'window' which will only lead to large high frequency oscillations in the solution.

To summarize:

- 1) A volume-conductor has the characteristic of a 'low-pass' spatial filter. The further the source is from the surface, the greater is the filtering effect.
- 2) Consequently, only a filtered version of the epicardial potential function can be inferred.
- 3) For a 'useful' bandwidth of q Hz, not more than $2q$ independent epicardial generators can be determined.
- 4) To attempt to infer more epicardial generators will only lead to high frequency oscillations in the solution.

The arguments of this section provide no indication as to the feasibility of an inverse solution, nor do they allow a measure of the errors likely to occur in the solution. Nevertheless, they illustrate the mechanism by which epicardial potentials are transferred to the body surface and outline the inherent limitations of inverse solutions.

5.3 System Eigenvalues as Weight Factors

A more quantitative way to investigate the effect of noise on inverse solution is to consider the eigenvalues of the system transfer matrix T . The system equation (Eqn. 5.1) can be rewritten to account for noise:

$$T(\underline{s} + \underline{f}) = (\underline{v} + \underline{e}) \quad (5.12)$$

where \underline{e} is the error vector associated with the measurements of \underline{v} , and \underline{f} is the resultant error vector in the solution \underline{s} . The crucial question here is whether the relative smallness of \underline{e} will result in relatively small \underline{f} . The answer to this question depends on the relative magnitudes of the system eigenvalues.

Orthogonal Transformation

Consider the error relation,

$$T\underline{f} = \underline{e} \quad (5.13)$$

Assuming for the moment that T is symmetric. Under this condition, T can be diagonalized by a proper rotation of the reference system (see Lanczos, 1961):

$$U^T T U = D \quad (5.14)$$

where U is an orthogonal matrix and D is a diagonal matrix containing all the system eigenvalues,

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & & \\ & d_2 & & \\ & & \cdot & \\ & & & \cdot \\ & & & & d_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.15)$$

The rotated system now becomes,

$$D\underline{f}' = \underline{e}' \quad (5.16)$$

where $\underline{e}' = U^T \underline{e}$, $\underline{f}' = U^T \underline{f}$.

The length of the error vectors are not affected by this transformation. That is, $|\underline{e}| = |\underline{e}'|$ and $|\underline{f}| = |\underline{f}'|$.

Error Magnification

The importance of the system eigenvalues in determining the errors in the solution is demonstrated clearly by the relation,

$$f'_i = \frac{e'_i}{d_i} \quad (5.17)$$

The problem arises when d_i is very small. The result of dividing the error e'_i by a very small number is a very large value of f'_i . As shown by Lanczos (1961), the critical quantity here is the ratio of the largest to the smallest eigenvalues,

$$C = \frac{d_{\max}}{d_{\min}} \quad (5.18)$$

which is known as the 'condition number' of the system. This number provides an upper bound to the magnification of the percent error in the solution. The greater the condition number, the less likely is the chance of a successful solution in the presence of noise.

Non-Symmetric System Matrix

The case where T is non-symmetric is complicated by the fact that the eigenvalues are likely to be complex. This problem is overcome by premultiplying the system matrix by its transpose:

$$T^T T(\underline{s} + \underline{f}) = T^T(\underline{v} + \underline{e}) \quad (5.19)$$

The effect of this as mentioned in Chapter 2 is to minimize the length of the residual vector in the solution. If the system is evenly-determined in the first instance (that is T is square), then this minimization has no effect on the solution. The importance of this operation however is that the new system matrix $T^T T$ is once again symmetric and thus amenable to the error analysis described in this section.

5.4 Optimization of the System Resolution

The 'low-pass' filter characteristic of the volume-conductor implies that the magnitude of the condition number will depend on the dimension of the system matrix. The smaller the system matrix, the smaller will be the condition number. This is because in a small system, information is extracted from the low-frequency region of the spatial filter where the signal-to-noise ratio is large. This leads to the impression that the only means of achieving a stable unconstrained inverse solution is to reduce the size of the system matrix until the condition number is sufficiently small. As will be demonstrated in this section, a carefully selected configuration of the measurement locations can greatly improve the system condition number.

Position for Maximum Resolution

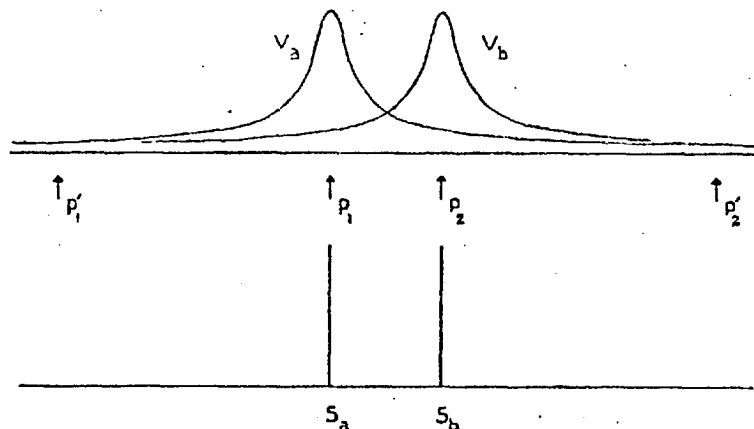


Fig.5.3: Diagram illustrating the system impulse response.

The effect of low-pass filtering is to generate a smoothed version of the epicardial distribution on the body surface. Consider two impulse generators S_a and S_b at locations a and b on the epicardial surface (Fig. 5.3). Each generator will generate a unit response having the general shape V_a and V_b on the body surface. Assuming that these are the only sources, then the optimal body-surface locations for resolving these sources are at P_1 and P_2 respectively. This is clearly illustrated in the following example:

Assuming the contribution to P_1 and P_2 due to unit impulse at a is (0.6,0.1). Similarly, the contribution to these two surface points due to a unit impulse at b is (0.1,0.6). The system equation in this case is,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.1 \\ 0.1 & 0.6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} S_1 \\ S_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.20)$$

where (S_1, S_2) are the impulse strengths and (V_1, V_2) are the potentials at P_1 and P_2 respectively. For simplicity, assume a source values of (1.0,1.0). The resulting surface values are therefore (0.7,0.7). If in measuring these values an error of say, (+0.01,-0.01) is encountered, then in the inverse calculation the values (1.02,0.98) are obtained for the generators. This represents some $\pm 2\%$ error.

On the other hand, consider the case of two badly selected locations at P_1' and P_2' , the system equation of which is say,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.025 & 0.020 \\ 0.020 & 0.025 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} S_1 \\ S_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V_1' \\ V_2' \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.21)$$

Here (V_1', V_2') are the potentials at P_1' and P_2' . For a source values of $(1.0, 1.0)$, the surface potentials are $(0.045, 0.045)$. Subjecting these observations to the same error $(+0.01, -0.01)$, the error in the inverse solution this time is +200%, which renders the solution totally useless.

Relation to Condition Number

The same conclusion on the errors in the solutions can be arrived at by considering the system condition number. The eigenvalues in the first example are 0.7 and 0.5. The condition number for this system is therefore 1.4. Consequently, for the +1.4% error in the observations, the predicted error in the inverse solution is therefore some +2%, which agrees with the error in the above example.

The eigenvalues in the second example are 0.045 and 0.005. This gives the system a condition number of 9. The percent error in the observation is some +22%. The predicted error in the solution here is some +200%, which once again is in agreement with the errors in the example.

Smoothed Errors

If it is assumed that the measurements can be made accurate to 1%, then for a 10% accuracy in the solution, the system condition number must not exceed 10. In practice however, the errors in the observations are of a smooth nature. Typically, the surface potentials are reconstructed from a limited number of sampling electrodes. This usually constitutes the most

significant source of errors. On the other hand, errors due to interpolations are of a smooth kind. As a consequence, the system condition number may now be one or even two orders larger, yet giving a solution that is stable. The reason is that the system is less sensitive to low-frequency errors. To illustrate this point, consider once again the ill-conditioned equation (Eqn. 5.21). This time, the observations are subjected to an absolutely smooth error, that is a d.c shift, of (+0.01,+0.01). The resulting inverse solution has a value of (1.22,1.22), which contains only a 22% error. Notice that inspite of a condition number of 9, the percent error in the solution has remained unchanged.

This example demonstrates quite clearly the need to interpret the system condition number more carefully. In actual fact, the system condition number gives the upper bound of the percent error magnification in the inverse solution. With low frequency errors, the magnification can be considerably less. This suggests therefore, that it is always a good practice to smooth out the high frequency fluctuations in the measurements before attempting the inverse calculation. Such a procedure may not increase the accuracy of the solution, but it does however yield a more stable solution.

5.5 Feasibility Studies using a 2-Dimensional Torso Model

In this section, the feasibility of an unconstrained inverse solution is investigated using data obtained from model calculations. A block diagram describing the procedure of the investigation is shown in Fig. 5.4

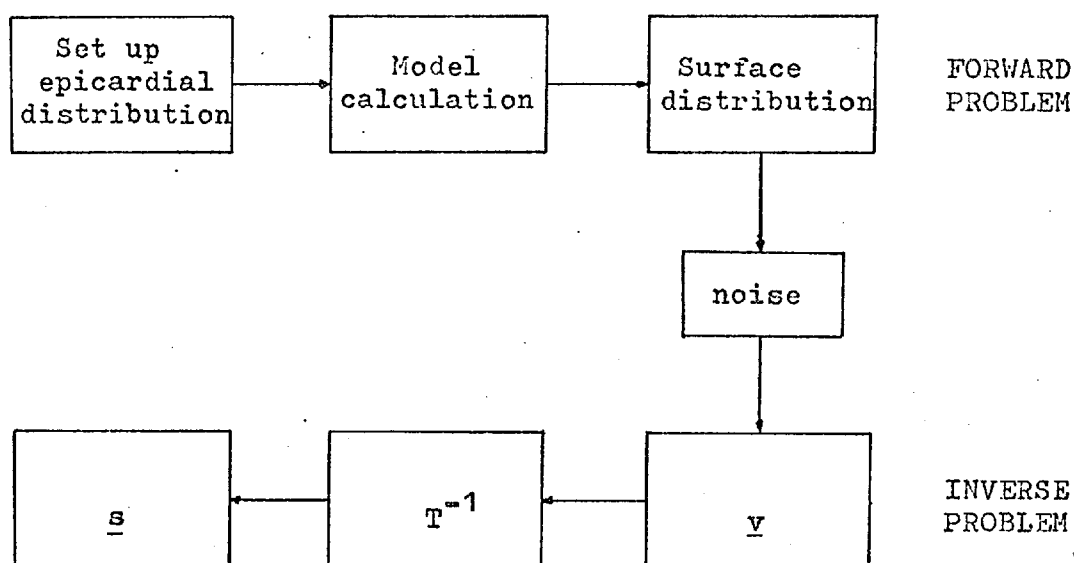


Fig.5.4: Block diagram illustrating the investigation procedure.

Fundamental to the investigation are the questions:

- 1) The number of epicardial generators that can be unambiguously inferred from surface measurements.
- 2) The optimal sites for making these observations.
- 3) The highest spatial harmonic of the epicardial distribution that can be resolved from surface measurements.

Because of the enormous amount of computing resources

required for such studies, a practical solution is to limit the investigations to a 2-dimensional model of the human thorax.

Forward Calculations

The 2-dimensional, one-sixth inch grid model of the torso constructed in the preceding chapter is used in the forward calculations in this section. Sinusoidally varying potentials of various harmonics are applied to the heart-surface as test distributions. Fig. 5.5 shows the model surface distributions for the first four harmonics.

MODEL FREQUENCY-RESPONSE

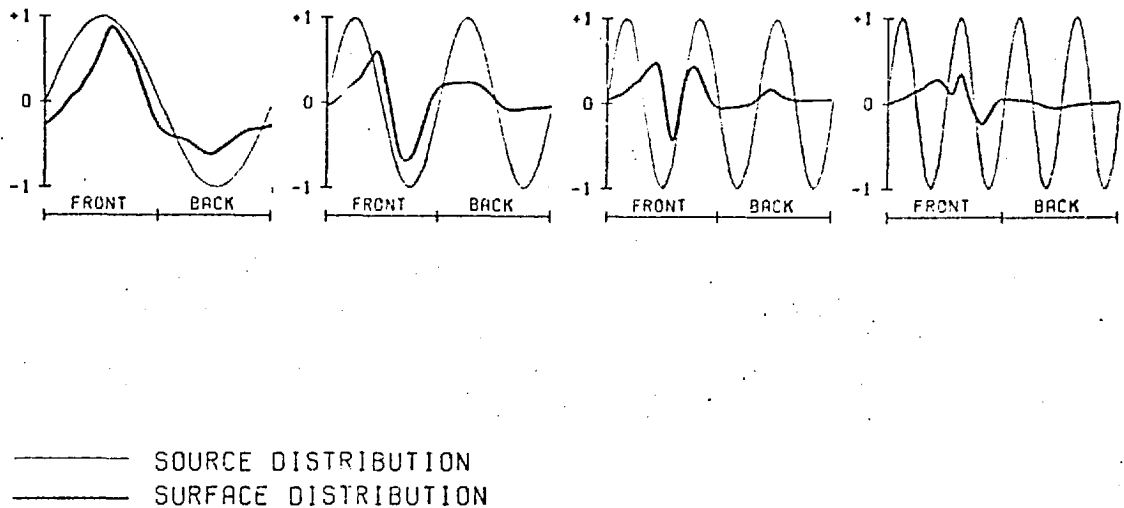


Fig.5.5: Model frequency-response for the first four harmonics.

Notice the 'low-pass' nature of the torso is clearly demonstrated by the rapidly decreasing magnitude of the surface distributions as the harmonic number increases.

A sequence of random numbers scaled to 1% of the peak-to-peak value of the test signals are added to the surface distributions in order to simulate the errors in the real system. These 'noisy' surface potentials provide the data for testing the feasibility of recovering, within some specified accuracy, the original test distributions.

The Equivalent Generator

The equivalent cardiac generators are represented by equal epicardial segments, the potential over each of which is assumed to be constant, having a value equal to the mean of the potentials over that segment. This is the same as approximating the epicardial distribution by a step function as shown in Fig. 5.6.

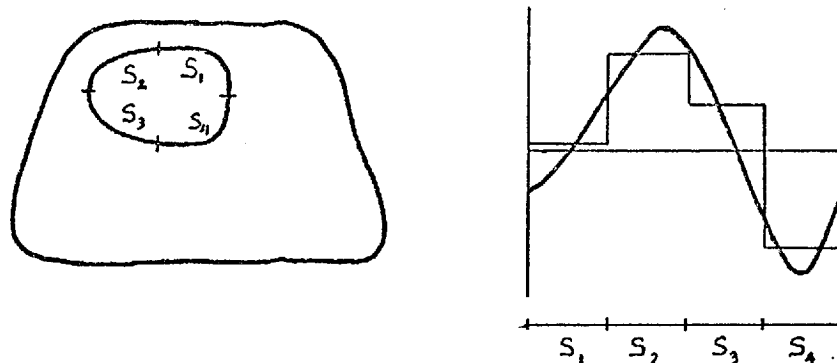


Fig.5.6: Step function approximation of the epicardial potential distribution.

The accuracy of such an approximation clearly depends on the number of segments used and the harmonic content of the epicardial potentials. If the highest harmonic number in the distribution is N , then according to the sampling theorem, $2N$ segments suffice to

represent the distribution. The original analogue function can be recovered from the step function by a smoothing process.

A suitable technique is as follows:

- 1) Decide on the number of points required to represent the smoothed function. Preferably, this should be K such that K/N is an integer, where N is the number of segments in the step function.
- 2) Set up an array of numbers (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_K) with the first K/N values equal to S_1 , the second K/N values equal to S_2 and so on. S_1, S_2, \dots, S_N are the values of the step function at segment 1, 2, \dots , N respectively.
- 3) Smooth the values in the array. For example,

$$\bar{x}_i = (x_{i-1} + 2x_i + x_{i+1})/4$$

where \bar{x}_i is the new value of the i th point.

- 4) Restore the power in each segment by adding a constant C_1 to all the values in segment 1, C_2 to all the values in segment 2, and so on, where

$$C_1 = S_1 - \frac{N}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K/N} x_i, \dots \text{ etc.}$$

- 5) Repeat steps 3 and 4 until the required degree of smoothness is achieved.

A simple example illustrating this process is shown in Fig. 5.7.

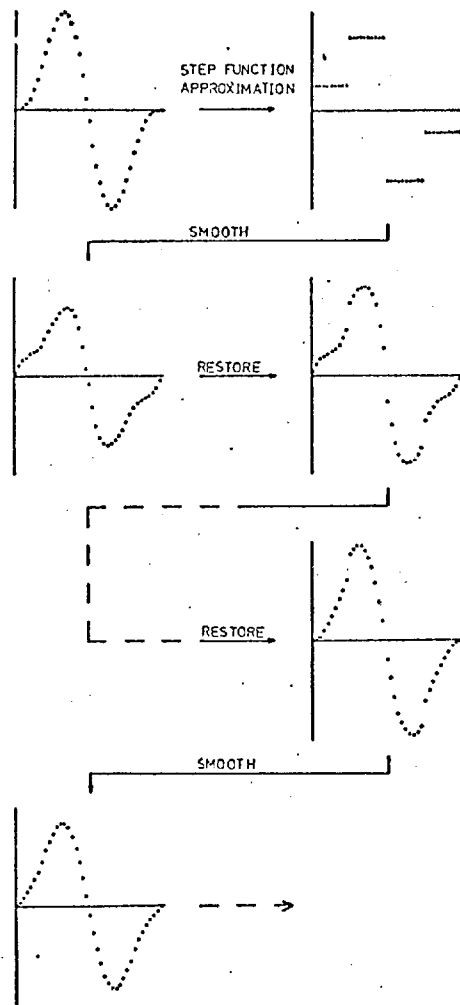


Fig.5.7: Diagram illustrating the process of recovering the analogue function from the step function.

Inverse Solutions for 4 Heart-Segment Model

The feasibility of inferring 4 epicardial generators is presently investigated. Three system matrices were constructed, one for each of the following electrode configurations:

- 1) Electrodes placed at 4 equally spaced locations.
- 2) Electrodes placed at locations where the contribution

used, the highest resolvable harmonic is 2. The solutions from electrode configurations 2 and 3 are stable, and it is not difficult to see that a good representation of the original distributions can be recovered by smoothing the step solutions in the manner described previously. On the other hand, the solution from configuration 1 is highly unstable. An investigation of the system eigenvalues revealed that this system has a condition number of 235. The condition numbers for electrode configurations 2 and 3 are 3 and 25 respectively.

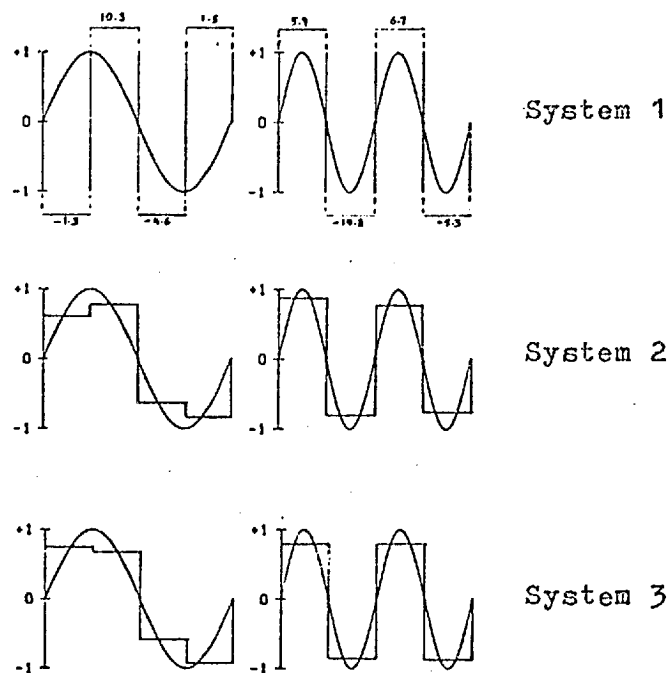


Fig.5.9: Inverse solutions for a 4-segment heart using 3 different system equations.

It is not difficult to see why the system stability is increased by overdetermination since the chances of covering the optimal sites are increased using a large number of electrodes.

Inverse Solution for greater number of Heart Segments

The same inverse calculations were performed for systems with 6,8,10 and 12 epicardial segments. Table 5.1 lists the condition numbers for all the systems investigated.

Table 5.1: System condition numbers.

No. of Heart Segments	Equally Spaced	Optimally Spaced	3X Over-determined
4	235	3	25
6	475	6	80
8	1175	40	364
10	36410	73	540
12	1359610	1117	6480

The sizes of the condition numbers in column 1 of Table.5.1 indicates clearly the unlikely success of an unconstrained solution using evenly-determined systems with arbitrarily selected sampling sites.

Solutions for the 6,8 and 10 heart-segment models are shown in Fig. 5.10, Fig. 5.11 and Fig. 5.12 respectively for electrode configurations 2 and 3. The solutions are stable up to 10 heart segments. Beyond that, the solutions begin to oscillate wildly.

Notice that the condition numbers for the overdetermined systems are one order of magnitude larger than the corresponding

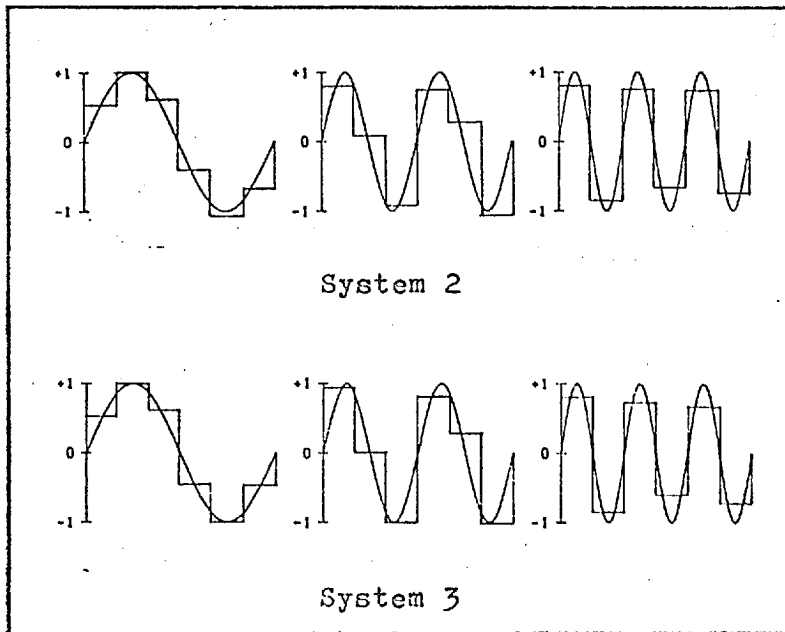


Fig.5.10: Solution for 6-segment heart.

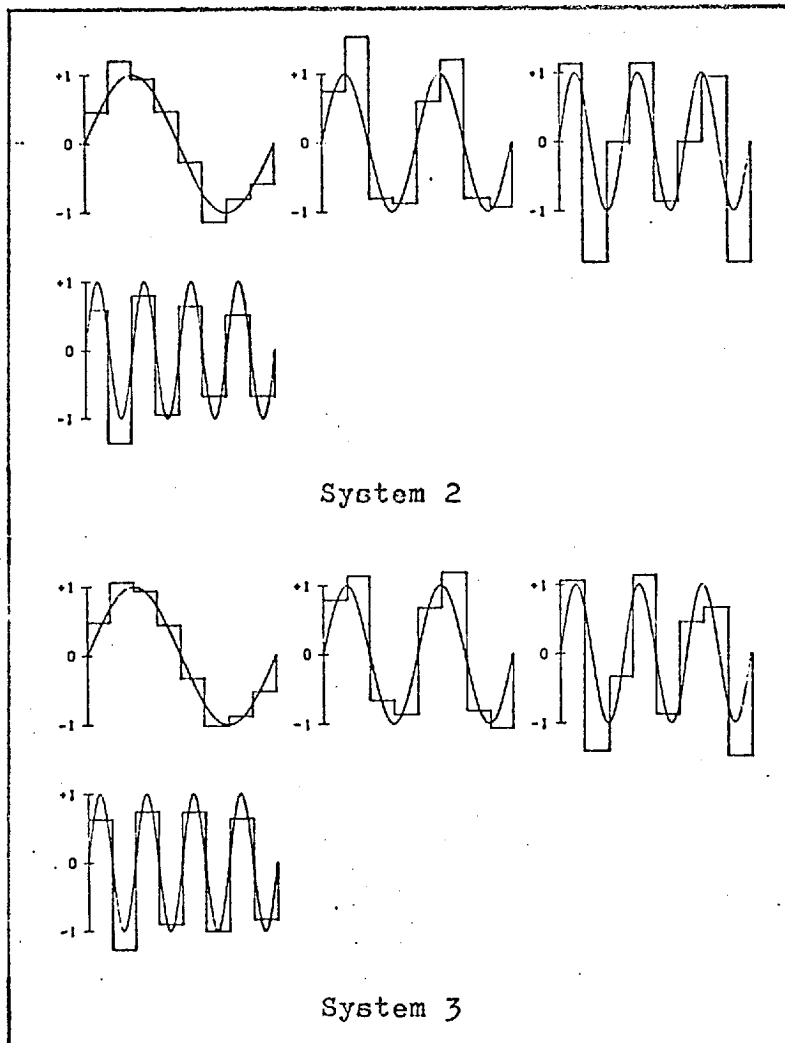


Fig.5.11: Solution for 8-segment heart

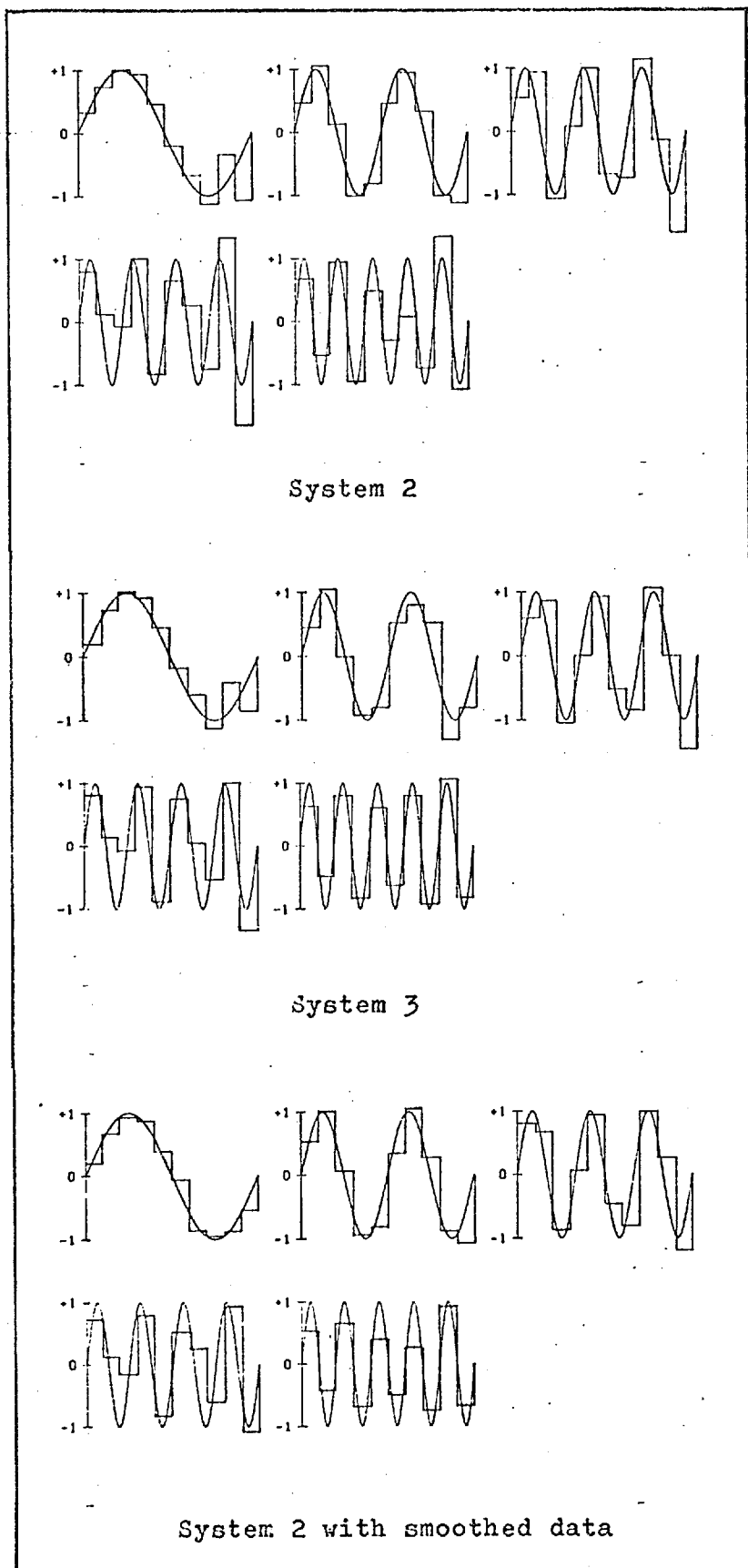


Fig.5.12: Solutions for 10 heart-segments

systems using optimally selected electrode sites. In spite of this, the solutions are stable while those for the evenly-determined systems at the same order of condition numbers are unstable. This is because in evenly-determined systems, the solutions are found by the process,

$$\underline{s} = T^{-1}\underline{y} \quad (5.22)$$

which as discussed in Section 5.3, favours high frequency fluctuations. On the other hand, solutions obtained using the method of overdetermination ,

$$\underline{s} = (T^T T)^{-1} T^T \underline{y} \quad (5.23)$$

are such that the errors are minimized in the least-square sense (see Lanczos, 1961).

From the solutions, it is also seen that the first 3 harmonics of the epicardial distributions can be quite accurately recovered using the 6 heart-segment systems. The accuracies of retrieving the higher harmonics using systems with greater number of heart segments are limited by the system stabilities. This problem is somewhat improved by smoothing the data slightly before attempting the inverse calculations (Fig. 5.12).

5.6 Conclusion

The investigations in this chapter have shown that it is feasible to infer up to the 5th harmonic of the epicardial potentials in a 2-dimensional torso model using unconstrained inverse solution. It is not unreasonable to assume that similar results would exist in the 3-dimensional case although the spatial resolution may be poorer. The important achievement in this chapter, nevertheless, is the insight into the inverse problem provided by this investigation. It is also shown that the ability to resolve the epicardial distributions is greatly improved by,

- 1) carefully selecting the sites of electrode measurements. The optimal sites being those where the contribution from each generator in turn is the maximum.
- 2) overdetermination of the problem.
- 3) smoothing the data before inversion.

Although not mentioned in the investigations, clearly, overdetermination of the problem is most effective when all the optimal sites are included in the electrode configuration.

CHAPTER 6

CALCULATIONS OF EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS FROM
IN-VIVO SURFACE MEASUREMENTS6.1 Introduction

The investigations in the previous chapter showed that an unconstrained inverse solution is feasible using simulated data on a 2-dimensional model of the human torso. In this chapter this investigation is extended to more realistic 3-dimensional torso model derived in Chapter 4 using surface data measured in-vivo.

For the purpose of the forward calculations, the surface of the heart is divided into 26 approximately equal areal segments. These are configured in three rows of eight segments round the heart and two polar caps. The transfer of the electrical potentials from each segment to the body surface is calculated using the digital model of the torso constructed in Chapter 4.

The system transfer matrix relating the potentials on 26 epicardial segments to 26 body surface locations is then constructed from the forward solutions. These 26 body surface locations are selected from sites where the contribution from each epicardial segment is the maximum. This ensures that the system condition number is kept to a minimum as discussed earlier.

The surface data used in the inverse solutions were obtained from the collection of surface ECG maps acquired by Monro¹. A

¹ A private communication.

complete description of the data acquisition and mapping procedure of the surface ECG is found in his publication, Monro et al.(1974).

6.2 Forward Calculations

The surface of the heart is segmented into 26 approximately equal areas. These are arranged in three rows of eight segments around the heart and two polar caps, one at the apex and the other, the basal region of the heart (Fig.6.1). The advantage

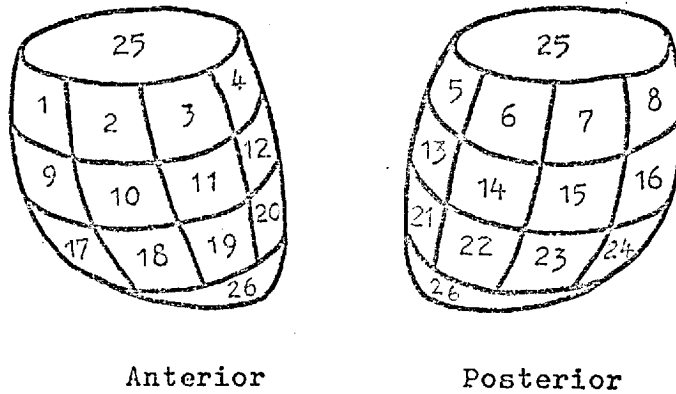


Fig.6.1: Segmentation of the heart-surface into 26 discrete areas.

of using such a configuration is that these segments can be mapped into a regular pattern on a cylindrical surface as shown

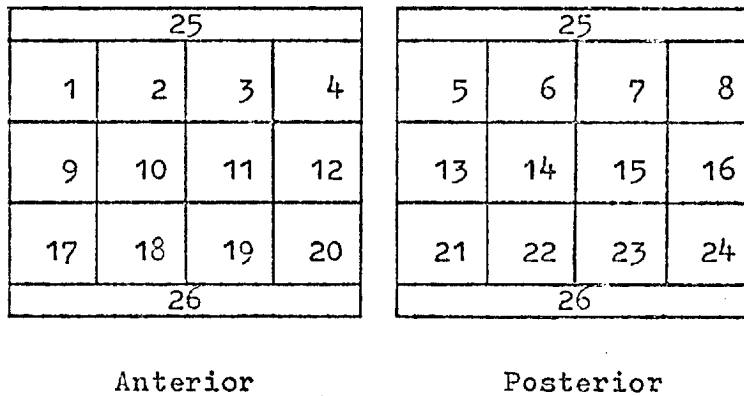


Fig.6.2: Cylindrical projection of the 26 epicardial segments.

in Fig. 6.2. This greatly simplifies the task of reconstructing the epicardial distributions in the later stage of the development. Furthermore, as demonstrated by Monro et al (1974), a configuration of this kind can be unfolded into a two dimensional array that repeats along the rows and the columns (Fig. 6.3). The importance is that this array is now directly

5									
25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	
8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		
17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24		
26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26		
21	22	23	24	17	18	19	20		
13	14	15	16	9	10	11	12		
5	6	7	8	1	2	3	4		
25									
1									

Fig.6.3: A repetitive 2-dimensional array obtained by 'unfolding' the closed heart surface.

amenable to a 2-dimensional discrete Fourier transform, thus opening the possibility of future spectral analysis on the epicardial distribution.

The potential transfer from these segments to the body surface is calculated using the numerical technique developed in Chapter 3 and the anatomical model of the thorax described in Chapter 4. The calculations are made for each segment in turn by applying a unit potential over the segment concerned and

zero potential everywhere else on the heart surface. The resulting body surface distribution is listed in Appendix D.

From the forward calculations a system matrix is constructed which relates the potentials on the epicardial segments to the potentials at 26 locations on the body surface. These locations are selected to correspond to the sites where the potential contribution from each segment is the maximum. Fig. 6.4 shows the positions of these locations on two planes which represents

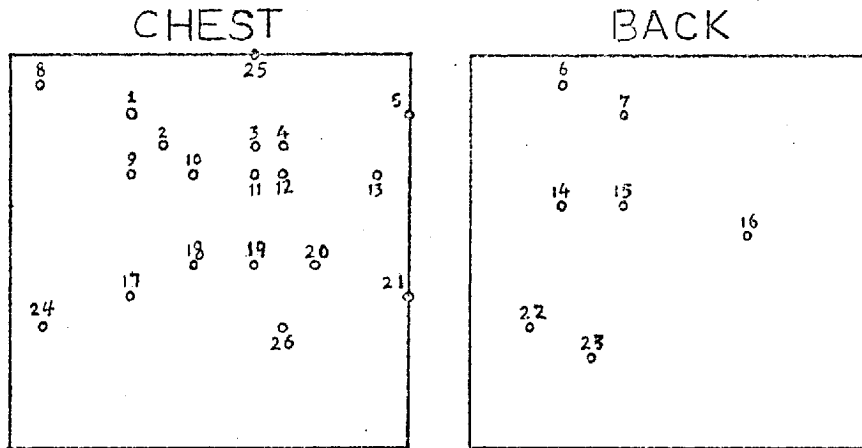


Fig.6.4: Locations on the body-surface where the transfer relationships are computed.

the cylindrical projection of the front and the back of the body surface. The forward transfer matrix for this configuration is given in Table. 6.1.

Table 6.1: The forward transfer matrix.

41	109	80	13	13	39	48	56	44	70	32	21	8	6	14	18	28	43	23	21	16	19	24	34	126	46
35	129	101	13	10	30	35	40	47	109	48	21	6	5	10	13	27	52	29	18	12	15	19	27	103	39
14	58	223	40	17	30	29	23	13	51	111	83	11	5	7	6	10	21	34	40	13	11	12	12	92	27
12	38	140	54	29	42	36	25	9	27	75	129	22	8	11	7	10	16	27	71	24	17	16	15	96	38
15	35	65	32	41	72	60	36	12	20	27	64	32	17	23	13	16	21	20	63	41	35	32	27	112	64
19	39	55	24	34	83	76	46	15	22	22	43	24	17	28	18	19	24	19	46	34	35	36	33	123	62
20	39	46	17	27	80	83	53	17	24	19	32	19	17	34	23	23	28	20	39	32	37	42	41	113	67
33	63	50	12	16	51	64	66	32	40	20	21	11	10	25	29	34	41	23	27	23	30	39	52	117	65
34	107	61	8	8	25	31	37	69	113	34	15	6	5	12	17	45	80	35	18	14	19	25	41	76	55
19	105	124	11	7	17	20	21	35	171	95	22	4	3	6	8	25	77	59	17	9	11	13	20	59	37
8	38	194	31	10	16	15	12	9	57	200	106	8	3	4	4	8	28	87	50	10	8	8	9	45	28
7	24	119	46	22	27	23	15	6	23	108	183	20	6	7	5	7	15	54	121	23	14	12	11	57	39
11	27	58	35	39	53	44	26	9	17	30	92	43	16	18	10	14	20	22	106	55	37	31	24	83	76
13	27	37	17	28	66	62	35	13	18	17	35	27	25	39	20	24	29	23	55	52	58	57	44	79	94
16	31	34	13	22	64	69	42	16	21	15	26	19	22	47	28	29	33	23	43	41	54	62	54	79	90
20	36	32	10	15	48	58	48	23	28	15	19	13	15	38	37	41	45	28	34	34	48	63	75	75	96
16	33	25	7	10	29	35	33	27	33	15	14	9	10	25	29	64	72	41	35	35	52	67	96	52	132
13	34	23	5	6	18	21	21	33	57	22	11	6	6	14	18	85	141	70	29	25	38	50	77	35	135
8	25	23	3	4	10	12	12	22	71	48	13	3	3	8	9	59	205	170	29	17	24	30	41	21	125
3	10	20	4	3	5	6	5	6	26	83	42	3	2	4	3	19	91	331	111	13	15	16	17	11	146
4	9	20	10	11	17	15	9	4	8	19	60	20	7	9	5	12	20	49	352	61	33	25	19	24	171
7	16	24	12	17	31	28	17	9	13	14	37	26	15	19	11	23	33	35	127	89	71	54	39	41	185
9	18	22	9	14	33	33	21	12	16	12	24	19	18	28	16	32	41	35	70	75	89	79	57	42	170
10	21	22	8	13	33	35	25	15	19	12	19	15	16	32	21	40	48	36	53	60	83	87	71	44	157
28	87	129	25	21	50	52	47	23	51	44	38	12	7	13	12	16	26	20	28	17	17	19	22	154	36
5	11	12	4	5	12	13	10	9	16	16	16	7	6	11	9	34	72	108	103	45	51	48	44	19	306

6.3 Inverse Calculations.

Also superimposed on the two body surface planes are the locations where the ECG measurements for surface mapping were taken (Fig. 6.5). The data required for the inverse calculations were recovered from these measurements by means

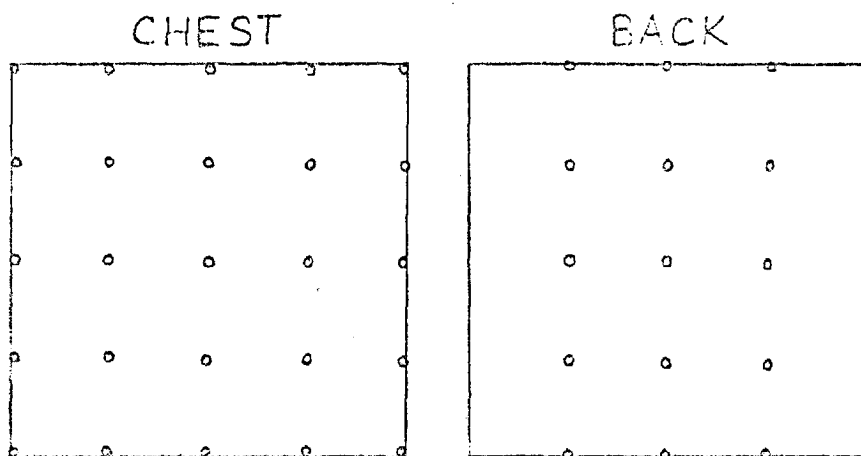


Fig.6.5: Locations on the body surface where surface measurements are taken.

of the 'band-limited' interpolation procedure described by Monro et al.(1974).

Fig. 6.6 shows 20 frames of body surface isopotential maps for a normal subject taken at 2msec. intervals. The corresponding potential values on the 26 epicardial segment for each frame is calculated using the unconstrained solution.

$$\underline{s} = T^{-1} \underline{v} \quad (6.1)$$

where T is the system matrix given in table 6.1, \underline{v} is the surface data on the 26 surface locations shown in Fig. 6.4 and \underline{s} , the calculated potential values on the 26 epicardial

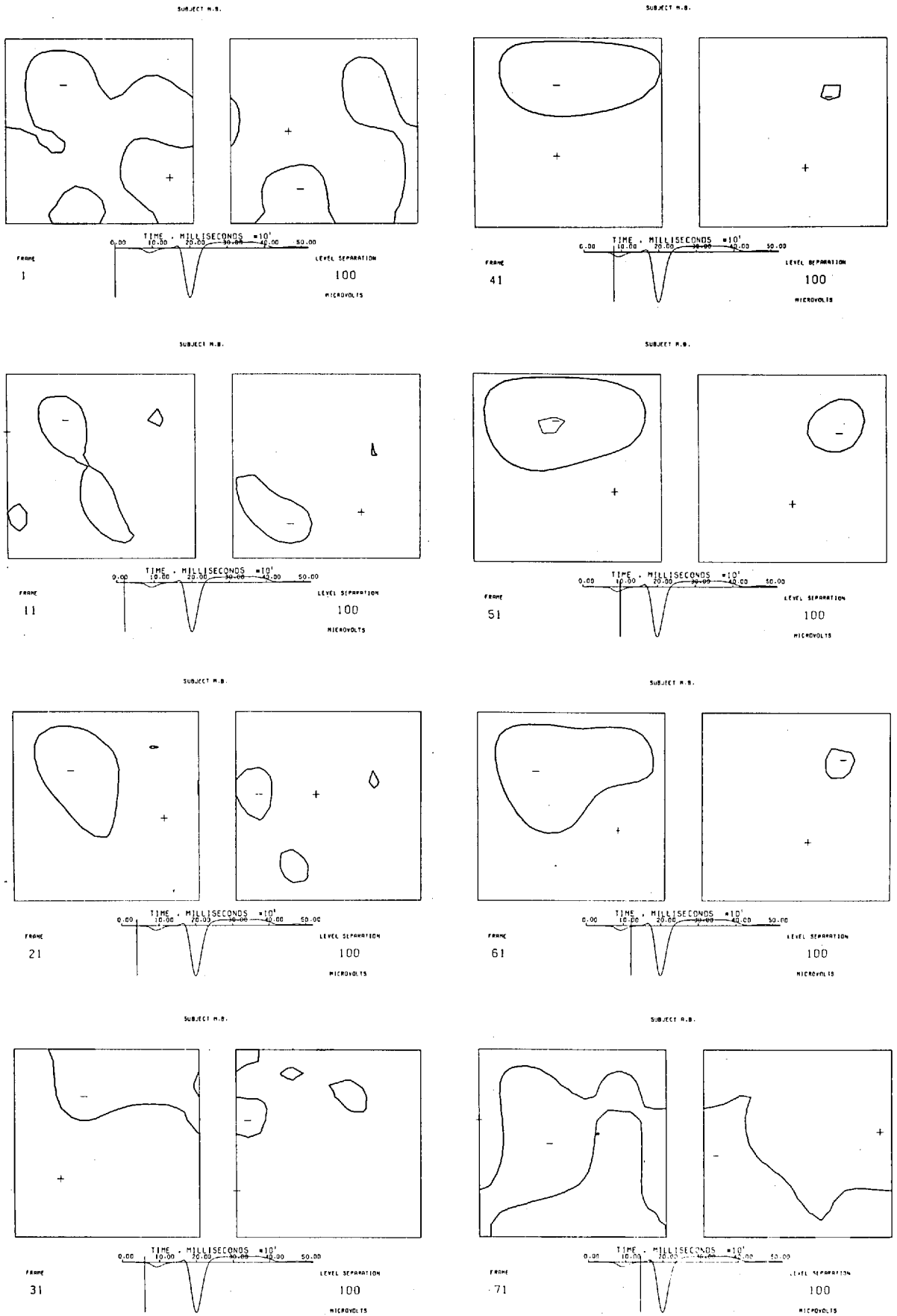


Fig.6.6a: Body-surface maps. Frame 1 - 71.

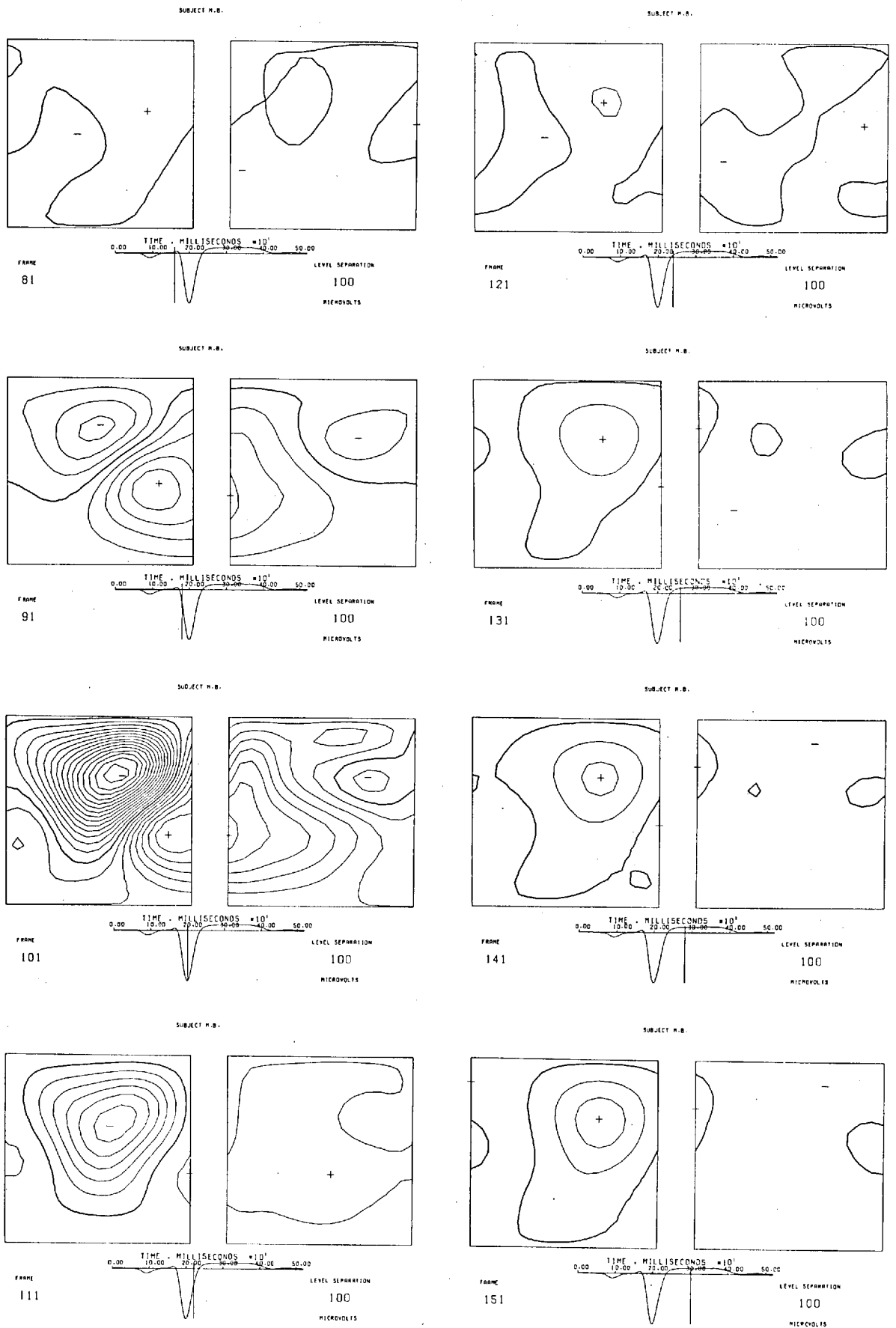


Fig.6.6b: Body-surface maps. Frame 81 - 151.

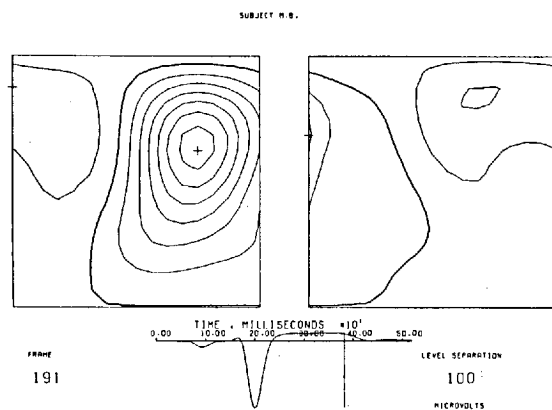
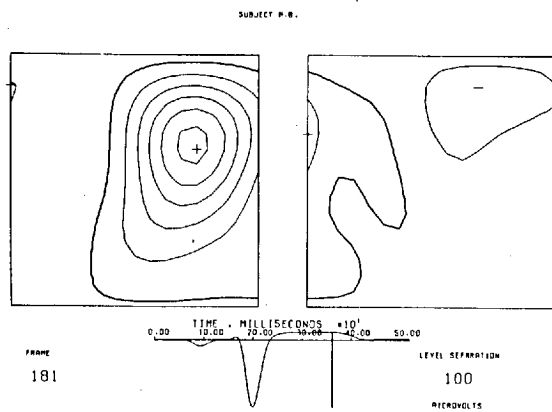
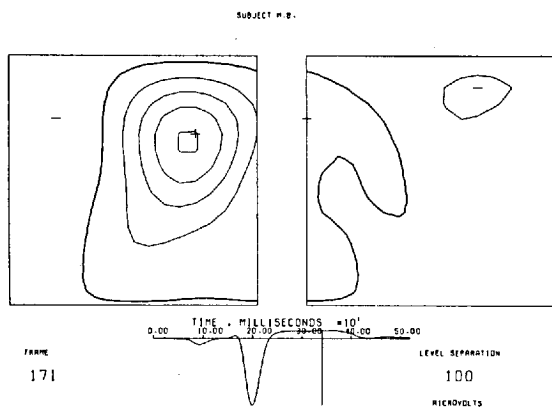
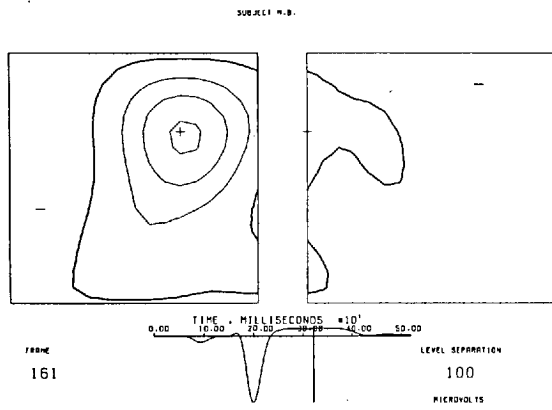


Fig.6.6c: Body-surface maps. Frame 161 - 191.

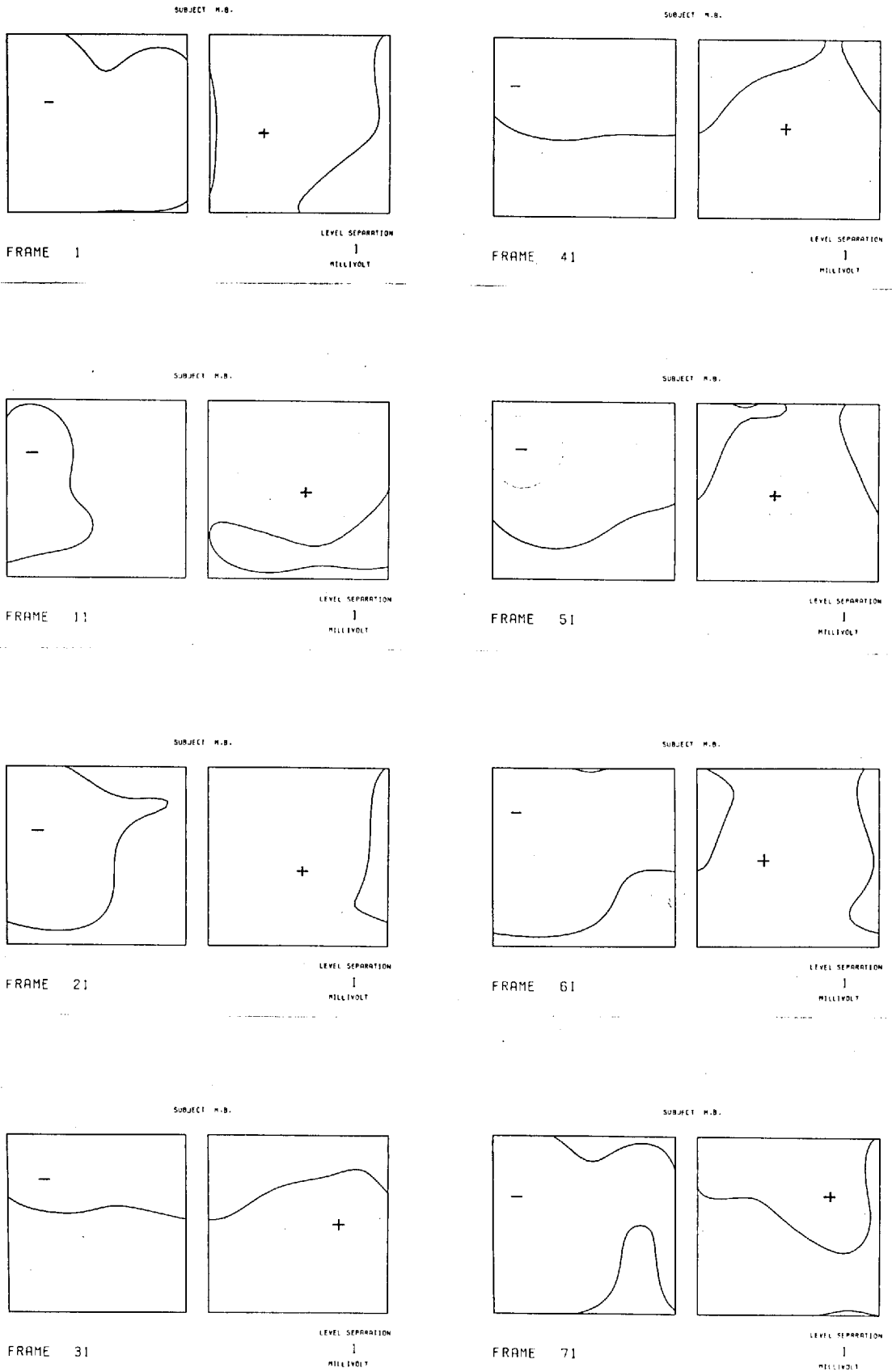


Fig.6.7a: Epicardial maps. Frame 1 - 71.

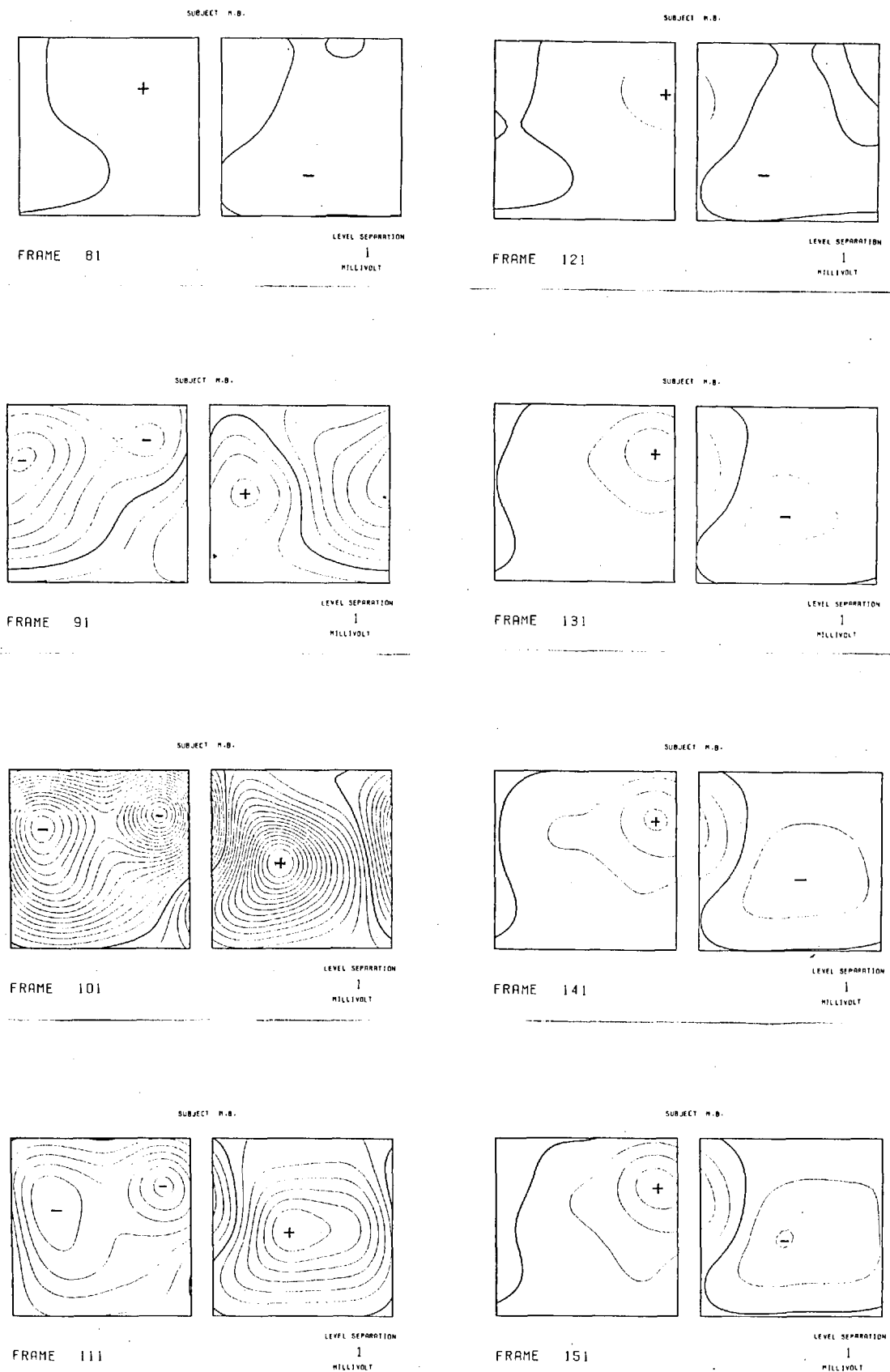


Fig.6.7b: Epicardial maps. Frame 81 - 151.

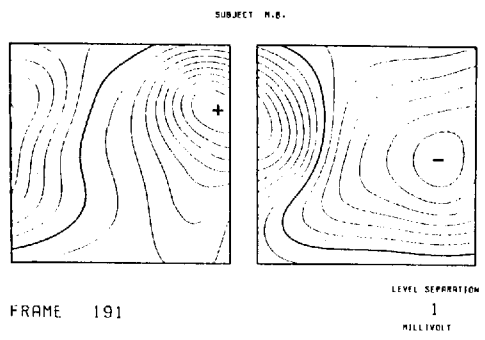
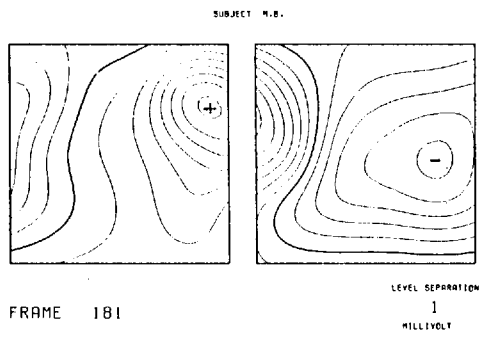
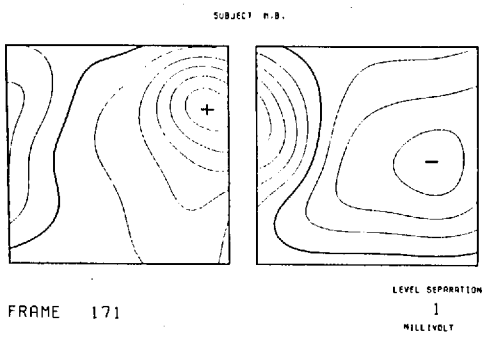
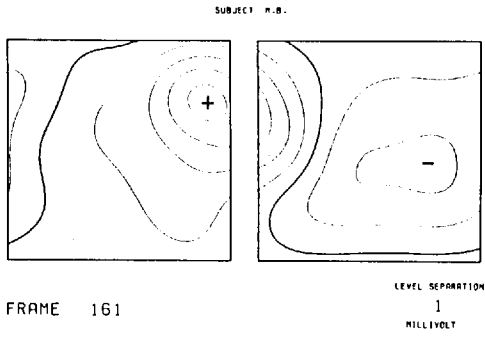


Fig.6.7c: Epicardial maps. Frame 161 - 191.

segments. From the inverse solutions, epicardial isopotential maps were reconstructed using the smoothing technique described in the previous chapter, except that here, the process is in two dimensions. These maps are shown in Fig. 6.7. In order to aid interpretation of the epicardial potential maps, the various regions of the heart surface as projected onto the cylindrical surface is shown in Fig. 6.8.

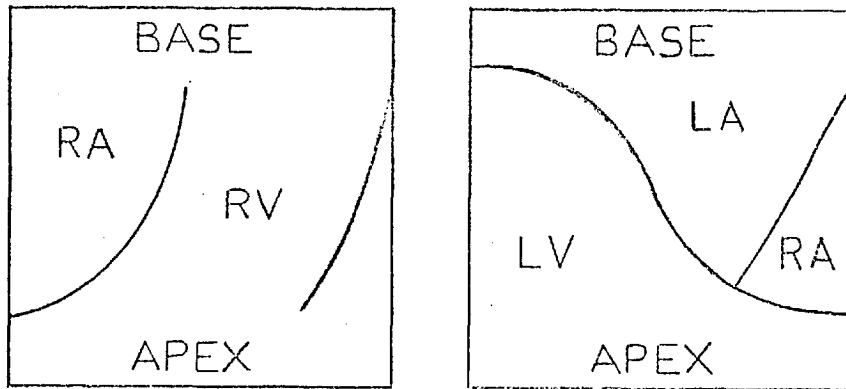


Fig.6.8: Diagram illustrating the cylindrical projection of the heart surface.

6.4 Stability of Inverse Solution

Serious errors were observed in the inverse solution when the validity of Equation 6.1 was first tested. This was later discovered to be due to the limited accuracies in which the exact inverse of the matrix T can be computed. The effect of the errors in the inversion is to cause large oscillating values in the solution. This is clearly seen in the listing of the inverse calculations in Appendix E.1.

This problem was overcome by using an iterative method of solving the system equation. In an iterative scheme, the solution is obtained by successive approximations which in the limit approaches the exact solution. Such a process is relatively unaffected by the machine resolution. Because of the manner in which the system matrix is constructed, the elements along the diagonal are either the largest or of the same order as the largest element in each row. This makes the system equation directly amenable to the Gauss-Seidel iteration previously described in Section 3.5. The solutions obtained using this method is given in Appendix E.2.

There remains however, the question of the magnification of the percentage error expected in the solution. An eigenvalue analysis showed that the system has a condition number of 2104. In the worst case therefore, the percentage error in the solution would be some 2000 x the percentage error in the data. Assuming the magnitude of the surface potentials to be of the order of $\pm 1\text{mV}$, then for a $\pm 10\text{uV}$ error in the measurements, the error in the solution would therefore be some 2000%. But as discussed

in the previous chapter, the magnification of the error in a practical system can be considerably less.

A more useful test of the system stability is to perturb the surface data by some noise and observe if the error in the solution remains within an acceptable limit. The inverse calculations in Appendix E.2 were repeated with 10uV of noise added to the surface data. This is shown in Appendix E.3. An investigation of the inverse solutions showed that the noise level is everywhere of the order of 100uV. Since the values of the inverse solution are an order of magnitude larger than the surface data, the percentage noise level therefore, has remain virtually unchanged. In other words, there is virtually no deterioration in the signal-to-noise ratio in the calculated epicardial potentials in spite of the fact that the system's condition number is some 2000.

6.5 Validity of the Inverse Calculations

The validity of the inverse calculations is somewhat impossible to verify without an accurate and complete picture of the actual epicardial potentials of the same subject to compare with. In-vivo epicardial measurements are beyond the scope of the present study. And even then, it is uncertain whether the epicardial distributions would remain unchanged in an open-chest experiment.

However, several research workers have previously mapped the epicardial potentials for the canine heart (Taccardi and Marchetti, 1965; Spach et al., 1975). Although the excitation of the canine heart is known to differ from the human heart, nevertheless, there exists a large degree of correspondence between them (Durrer et al. 1965). A rough estimate of the validity of the inverse solution can therefore be obtained by comparing the reconstructed epicardial maps with published maps of the canine heart.

One such experiment was conducted by Taccardi and Marchetti (1965) in which an isolated dog's heart was immersed in a Ringer's bath. An exploring electrode was then rotated around the heart, mapping the potentials on a cylindrical surface enclosing the heart. Fig. 6.9 shows the canine maps redrawn from Taccardi at four instances in the QRS cycle corresponding approximately to Frame number 81, 91, 101 and 121 of the calculated human epicardial maps.

It should be noted that the dog's heart in the experiment was suspended in an upright position with both atria superior to the ventricles. Normally, the heart in the body lies on its side.

The map of the various epicardial regions for the inverse calculations is illustrated in Fig. 6.8. The map for the cylindrical projection of the heart surface in the experiment is shown in Fig. 6.10. At the beginning of the QRS cycle, both sets of maps show the presence of a potential maximum directly over the right ventricle and a minimum over the left ventricle. About half-way between the Q-R interval, the potential maximum over the right ventricle is replaced by a minimum in both maps. Another minimum is found over the right atrium and a maximum over the left ventricle. Both sets of maps agree very closely in these features. At the instant of the R-peak, both maps show the right ventricle and the right atrium to be negative while the left ventricle and the left atrium to be positive. However, the calculated map shows two minimum, one over the right ventricle and the other over the right atrium. This feature is also observed in the surface map. The canine map on the other hand showed only one minimum over the right ventricle. This difference could be due to several factors ranging from the electrophysiological difference between the human and the canine heart to simply the fact that in the experiment, the epicardial potentials were mapped 'remotely', resulting in the loss of spatial resolution. The two maps agree once more at the end of the QRS complex with a potential maximum appearing over the right ventricle and a minimum over the left ventricle.

These results are also in agreement with the findings of Spach and Barr (1975).

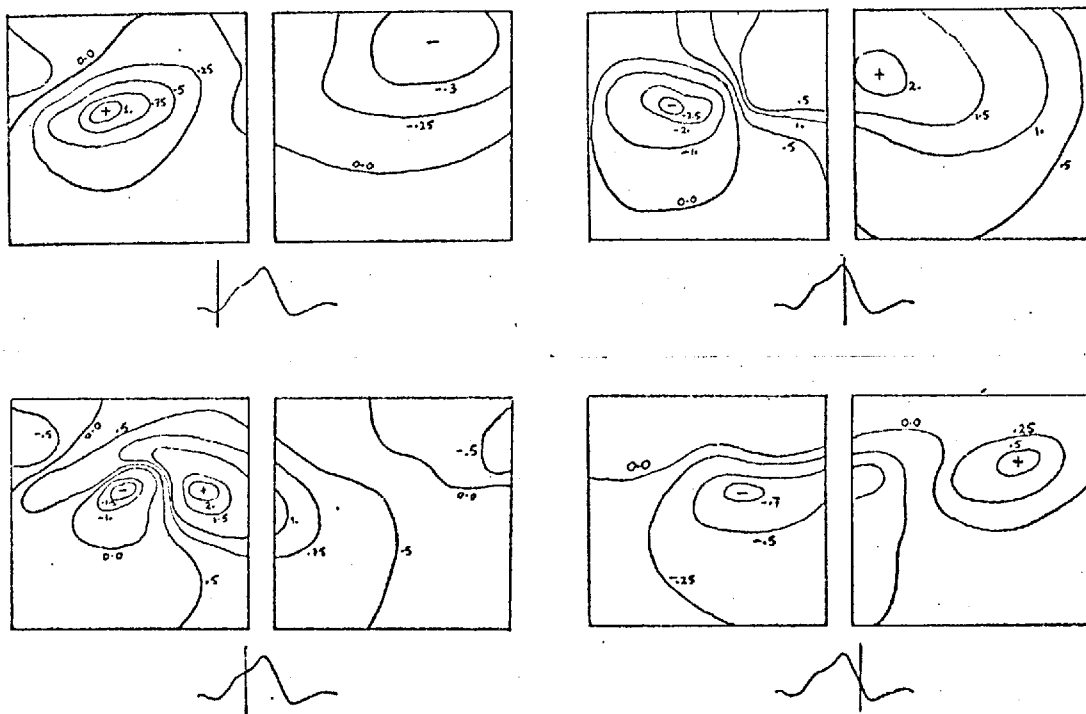


Fig.6.9: Epicardial maps of the canine heart.
 (Redrawn from Taccardi and Marchetti).

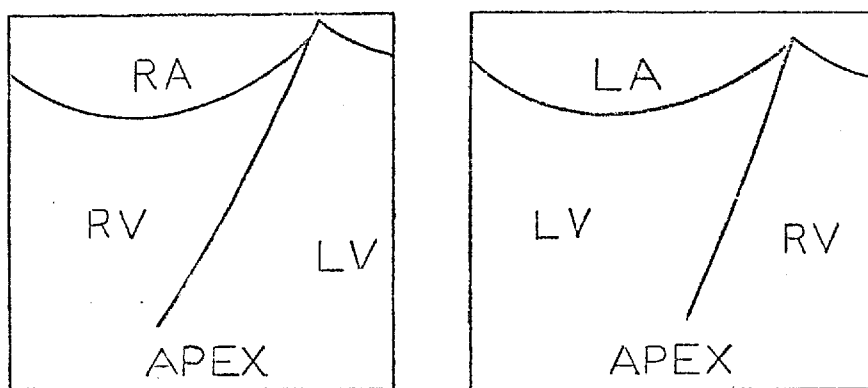


Fig.6.10: Conjectural diagram illustrating the projection of the dog's heart onto the mapping cylinder.

6.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the transfer function between 26 epicardial segments and 26 body surface locations was calculated. Using this transfer relationship, epicardial potentials were reconstructed from in-vivo surface ECG maps. The validity of the inverse calculations was demonstrated by comparing the reconstructed epicardial maps with published maps of the canine heart.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

This dissertation is concerned with two fundamental problems in electrocardiography, namely the forward problem and the inverse problem.

Forward Solution

The forward problem was approached using a digital computer model of the human torso based on the numerical-analogue developed in this study. Physically, the model can be thought of as an assembly of discrete blocks of conductors. Each block is assumed to be homogeneous but not necessarily isotropic. In order to represent the torso anatomy on the computer, each discrete block is assigned an alpha-numeric character corresponding to the electrical property of that block. In this way, the entire 3-dimensional torso structure is represented as coded images in the computer. The potential at each node in the model is calculated by the method of finite-differences. A set of linear algebraic equations relating the potential at each node to the potentials at neighbouring nodes is constructed using the general finite-difference equation formula derived in this study. This set of equations is then solved iteratively using the accelerated Gauss-Seidel method. Because of the enormous number of equations involved, the convergence of the solution can be extremely slow indeed. By using a coarser model to obtain an initial estimate

of the solution and then improving the accuracy of this solution on the finer model, the amount of computational time required to achieve a solution is greatly reduced.

The validity of this model was demonstrated by comparing simulated body-surface distributions due to a catheter located inside the heart with those actually observed on cardiac-patients with implanted pacemakers.

Inverse Solution

The inverse problem on the other hand, was approached by a careful investigation of the factors that could lead to an unstable solution. It was shown that the torso can be regarded as a kind of spatial filter to the potential transfer from the heart to the body surface. This filter is of a 'low-pass' nature. Consequently, the spatial resolution of the cardiac generators is limited to the 'bandwidth' of this filter. To attempt to resolve cardiac generators outside this bandwidth will only lead to instability. A carefully chosen configuration of generators will therefore greatly increase the chances of a successful inverse solution. It was also demonstrated that a well selected body-surface locations for constructing the epicardial to body-surface transfer matrix will enhance the stability of the inversion. The optimum body sites being those where the contribution from each generator is the maximum. The transfer matrix so constructed has amongst the smallest condition number.

Other procedures proposed for improving the stability of the inverse calculations included spatial smoothing of the data before

inversion and using an iterative procedure to calculate the inverse solution. Smoothing may be useful because the low-pass characteristic of the torso means that in the inverse transformation the high frequency components are magnified in a much greater proportion than the low frequency ones. Consequently, any high frequency noise in the data could be disproportionately magnified rendering the solution totally useless. The limited resolution of the computer word introduces a similar kind of instability in direct inversion of the system matrix. Here, the noise is a numerical one caused by rounding off during the computation. This problem is overcome by using an iterative process to obtain the inverse solution where the stability of the solution is relatively unaffected by the machine resolution.

Epicardial potential distributions at 2msec. intervals were calculated from in-vivo body surface measurements. The reconstructed epicardial maps were shown to be grossly consistent with those found in the literature. The stability of the inverse solutions was tested by adding random noise to the surface data. The solutions showed virtually no deterioration in their signal-to-noise ratios.

In conclusion, this study has demonstrated the feasibility of an unconstrained inverse solution based on recovering the epicardial potentials.

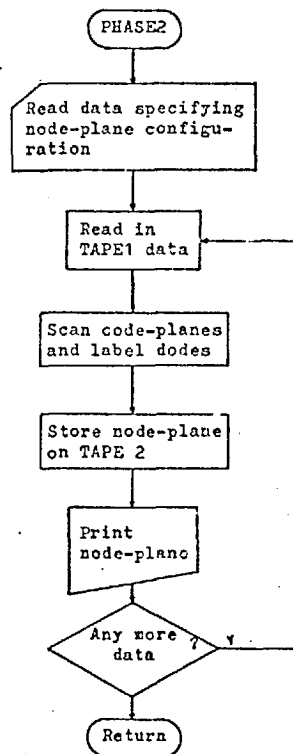
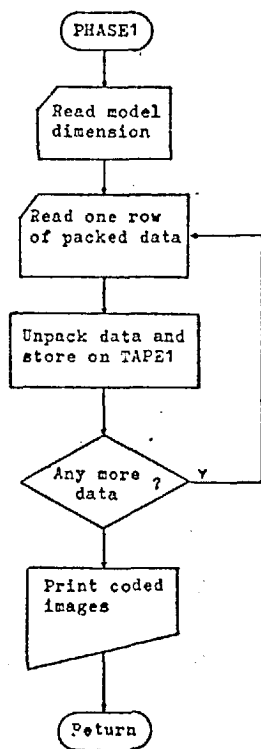
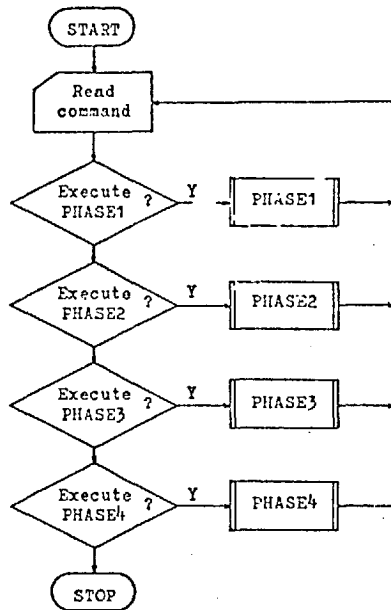
APPENDIX A

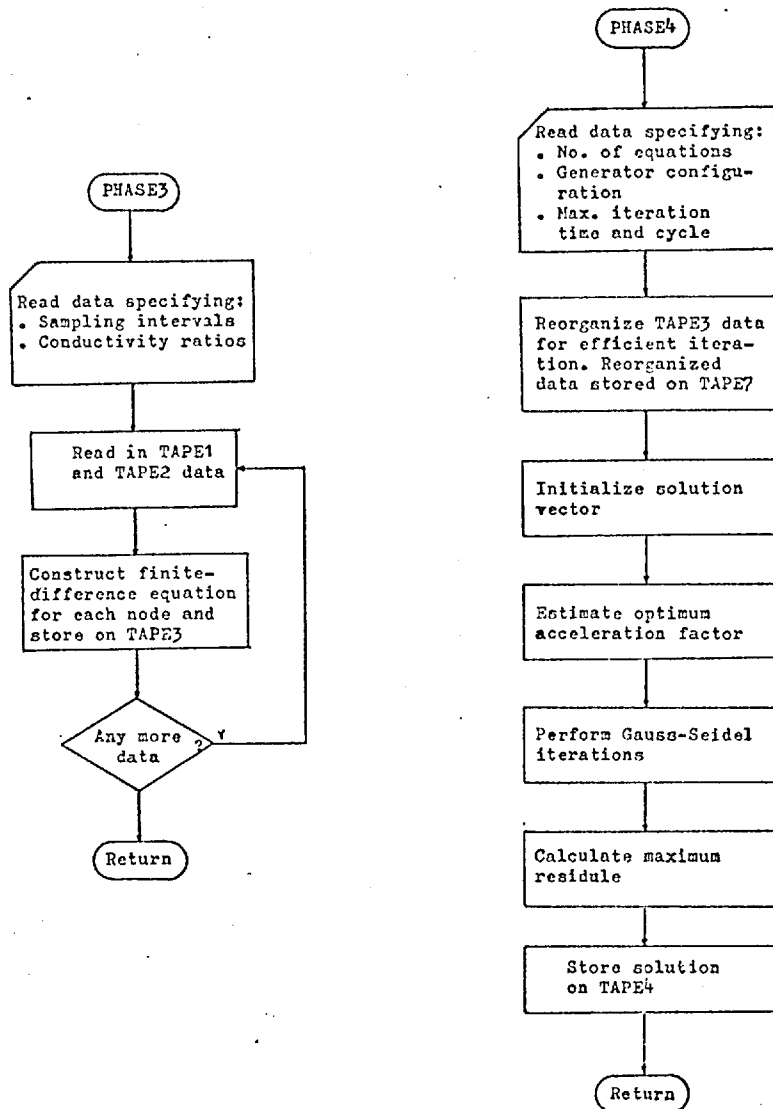
PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

A computer program for calculating volume-conductor fields based on the numerical-analogue developed in Chapter 3 is described. The Program is organized into four phases as follows:

- PHASE1 - Unpacks the input data into coded cross-sectional images.
- PHASE2 - Generates the finite-difference nodes.
- PHASE3 - Constructs the set of finite-difference equations.
- PHASE4 - Solves the set of equations iteratively using the Gauss-Seidel method.

A.1 Program Flow Diagrams





A.2 Program Listings

PROGRAM FINITE (INPUT, OUTPUT, TAPE1, TAPE2, TAPE3, TAPE4, TAPE5, TAPE6)

```
40 CALL PHASE4
   GO TO 1
50 PRINT 3010
   STOP
   END
```

PROGRAM FINITE COMPUTES THE ELECTRICAL POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTION IN A VOLUME-CONDUCTOR USING THE METHOD OF FINITE-DIFFERENCES. THE PROGRAM IS ORGANIZED INTO 5 PHASES OF OPERATIONS:

```
PHASE1  READS AND UNPACK THE COMPRESSED INPUT DATA INTO CODED
         CROSS-SECTION IMAGES OF THE DISCRETE CONDUCTOR.
PHASE2  SCANS THE DATA ON TAPE1 AND GENERATES THE FINITE-
         DIFFERENCE NODES FOR THE CONDUCTOR.
PHASE3  GENERATES THE SET OF FINITE-DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS
         FROM THE DATA ON TAPE1 AND TAPE2.
PHASE4  CALCULATES THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTIONS BY SOLVING
         THE SET OF EQUATIONS ITERATIVELY USING THE GAUSS-
         SEIDEL METHOD. THE SOLUTIONS ARE STORED ON TAPE6.
```

THE EXECUTION SEQUENCE OF THE PROGRAM IS DEFINED BY A DATA CARD.

EXAMPLE:

```
          TO EXECUTE PHASE1 AND PHASE2 ONLY, THEN
PHASE1, PHASE2
          IF TAPE1 AND TAPE2 DATA ARE ALREADY AVAILABLE
PHASE3, PHASE4
```

INPUT FORMAT OF THE COMMAND CARD IS 10(I6,1X)

```
      DIMENSION KOMAND(10), NAME(5)
      DATA NAME/'PHASE1', 'PHASE2', 'PHASE3', 'PHASE4', ' //
```

FORMAT STATEMENTS

```
1000 FORMAT(10(A6,1X))
3000 FORMAT('  ILLEGAL COMMAND IN COLUMN ', I2)
3010 FORMAT('/// ***** RUN COMPLETED *****///')
```

```
      READ(5, 1000) (KOMAND(I), I=1, 10)
      IND=0
      1  IND=IND+1
         DO 2 I=1, 5
           K=1
           IF (KOMAND(IND).EQ.NAME(I)) GO TO 3
      2  CONTINUE
         PRINT 3000, IND
         GO TO 1
      3  GO TO (10, 20, 30, 40, 50), K
10  CALL PHASE1
   GO TO 1
20  CALL PHASE2
   GO TO 1
30  CALL PHASE3
   GO TO 1
```

```

SUBROUTINE PHASE1
PHASE1 READS AND UNPACKS THE COMPRESSED FORM OF CODED IMAGES
AND STORES THE DATA ON TAPE1
  NSLAB  SPECIFIES THE NUMBER OF SLABS
  IBIT   SPECIFIES THE Y-DIMENSION OF THE GRID
  JBIT   SPECIFIES THE X-DIMENSION OF THE GRID
  NUM    ARRAY CONTAINING THE NUMBER OF CODINGS IN EACH SEQUENCE
  KODE   ARRAY CONTAINING THE CODINGS IN EACH OF THE SEQUENCE
  IP     SUPPRESS LISTING OF TAPE1 DATA IF IP=0

ARRAY DIMENSIONS
  ARRAY NAME      DIMENSION
  IC              NO. OF CARD COLUMNS
  IB              NO. OF CARD COLUMNS
  NUM             MAX. NO. OF CODE SEQUENCES IN A ROW
  KODE            MAX. NO. OF CODE SEQUENCES IN A ROW

COMMON IC(80),IB(80),NUM(20),KODE(20)
DATA IB/80*''

FORMAT STATEMENTS
1000 FORMAT(3I5)
1010 FORMAT(20(I2,A1))
1020 FORMAT(30A1)
1030 FORMAT(/// SLAB NUMBER ',I5/)
1050 FORMAT(/// NSLAB =',I5,' IBIT =',I5,' JBIT =',I5)
3000 FORMAT(/// ***** EXECUTE PHASE1 *****///)
3010 FORMAT(/// NSLAB =',I3,' IBIT =',I3,' JBIT =',I3)
3020 FORMAT(/// ***** END PHASE1 *****///)

READ IN PARAMETERS SPECIFYING THE NO. OF SLABS AND THE GRID
DIMENSIONS
  PRINT 3000
  REMIND 1
  READ(5,1000)NSLAB,IBIT,JBIT
  WRITE(1,1000)NSLAB,IBIT,JBIT
  PRINT 3010,NSLAB,IBIT,JBIT

BEGIN LOOP TO READ IN CODED DATA
  DO 30 NS=1,NSLAB
  DO 30 I=1,IBIT
  DO 5 J=1,JBIT
  5 IC(J)=IB(J)
  READ(5,1010)(NUM(J),KODE(J),J=1,20)

UNPACK DATA
  KK=0
  DO 10 K=1,20
  L=NUM(K)

```

```

IF(L.LE.0)GO TO 20
DO 10 KL=1,L
KK=KK+1
IC(KK)=KODE(K)
10 CONTINUE

WRITE UNPACKED DATA ONTO TAPE1
20 WRITE(1,1020)(IC(J),J=1,JBIT)
30 CONTINUE

LIST TAPE1 DATA
  READ(5,1000)IP
  IF(IP.EQ.0)GO TO 50
  REMIND 1
  READ(1,1000)NSLAB,IBIT,JBIT
  DO 40 NS=1,NSLAB
  PRINT 1030,NS
  DO 40 I=1,IBIT
  READ(1,1020)(IC(J),J=1,JBIT)
  PRINT 1020,(IC(J),J=1,JBIT)
40 CONTINUE
50 PRINT 3020
RETURN
END

```

SUBROUTINE PHASE2

PHASE2 SCANS THROUGH THE CODED IMAGE OF THE TORSO AND NUMBER
THOSE NODES THAT BELONGS IN THE FIELD.
THE INPUT DATA ARE ON TAPE1.
THE NODE NUMBERS AND THEIR POSITION IN THE FIELD ARE STORED
ON TAPE2.

NONO NO. OF CODINGS FOR WHICH NO NODES ARE TO BE GENERATED
NEND NO. OF CODINGS FOR WHICH NODES ARE PREFIXED BY -VE SIGN
NO ARRAY CONTAINING THE CODINGS FOR NO NODE GENERATION
NE ARRAY CONTAINING THE CODINGS FOR -VE NODES
IP SUPPRESS LISTING OF NODE PLANES IF IP=0

ARRAY DIMENSIONS

ARRAY NAME	DIMENSION
IC1	(IBIT,JBIT)
IC2	(IBIT,JBIT)
N	(IBIT-1,JBIT-1)
M	(IBIT-1)
MM	(IBIT-1)
NO	(NONO)
NE	(NEND)

COMMON IC1(22,34),IC2(22,34),N(21,33),M(21),MM(21),NO(4),NE(4)
DATA IB// //

FORMAT STATEMENTS

1000 FORMAT(16I5)
1010 FORMAT(40(A1,1X))
1020 FORMAT(20A1)
2000 FORMAT(20I4)
2010 FORMAT(' TOTAL NO. OF NODES = ',I5)
2020 FORMAT(///)
3000 FORMAT(///) ***** EXECUTE PHASE2 *****
3010 FORMAT(' NONO =',I3,' NEND =',I3)
3020 FORMAT(' NO(I) =',4(1X,A1))
3030 FORMAT(' NE(I) =',4(1X,A1))
3040 FORMAT(///) ***** END PHASE2 *****

READ IN DATA

PRINT 3000
REWIND 1
REWIND 2
REWIND 7
READ(1,1000)NSLAB,IBIT,JBIT
READ(5,1000)NONO,NEND
PRINT 3010,NONO,NEND
IF(NONO.EQ.0)GO TO 1
READ(5,1010)(NO(I),I=1,NONO)
PRINT 3020,(NO(I),I=1,NONO)

1 IF(NEND.EQ.0)GO TO 2
READ(5,1010)(NE(I),I=1,NEND)
PRINT 3030,(NE(I),I=1,NEND)
2 READ(5,1000)IP

INITIALIZE VALUES

II=IBIT-1
JJ=JBIT-1
NOW=0
NSL=NSLAB+1
DO 10 I=1,IBIT
DO 10 J=1,JBIT
10 IC2(I,J)=IE

BEGIN LOOP TO GENERATE NODE PLANE

DO 180 NS=1,NSL
DO 20 I=1,IBIT
DO 20 J=1,JBIT
20 IC1(I,J)=IC2(I,J)
IF(NS.NE.NSL)GO TO 40
DO 30 I=1,IBIT
DO 30 J=1,JBIT
30 IC2(I,J)=IE
GO TO 60

READ IN ONE SLAB OF CODED SECTION

40 DO 50 I=1,IBIT
50 READ(1,1020)(IC2(I,J),J=1,JBIT)
60 DO 130 I=1,II
DO 130 J=1,JJ
M(1)=IC1(I,J)
M(2)=IC1(I,J+1)
M(3)=IC1(I+1,J)
M(4)=IC1(I+1,J+1)
M(5)=IC2(I,J)
M(6)=IC2(I,J+1)
M(7)=IC2(I+1,J)
M(8)=IC2(I+1,J+1)

CHECK IF NODE TO BE GENERATED

IF(NONO.EQ.0)GO TO 90
DO 80 K=1,8
DO 70 KK=1,NONO
IF(M(K).EQ.NO(KK))GO TO 80
70 CONTINUE
GO TO 90
80 CONTINUE
M(I,J)=0
GO TO 130
90 NOW=NOW+1

```

C
C CHECK IF NODE TO BE ASSIGNED -VE
C
  IF(NEND.EQ.0)GO TO 110
  DO 100 K=1,8
  DO 100 KK=1,NEND
  IF(N<K).EQ.NE<KK>)GO TO 120
100 CONTINUE
110 N<I,J>=NOW
  GO TO 130
120 N<I,J>=-NOW
130 CONTINUE
C
C WRITE NODE-PLANE ONTO TAPE2
C
  WRITE<2,1000><<N<I,J>,J=1,JJ>,I=1,II>
C
C LIST NODE PLANES
C
  IF(IF.EQ.0)GO TO 180
  PRINT 2020
  DO 170 J=1,JJ
  DO 140 I=1,II
140 M<I>=N<IBIT-I,J>
  DO 150 I=1,II
150 MM<I>=M<I>/1000
  PRINT 2000,<MM<I>,I=1,II>
  DO 160 I=1,II
  M<I>=IABS<M<I>>
160 MM<I>=MOD<M<I>,1000>
  PRINT 2000,<MM<I>,I=1,II>
170 CONTINUE
180 CONTINUE
  PRINT 2010,NOW
  PRINT 3040
  RETURN
  END

```

```

SUBROUTINE PHASE3
C
C PHASE4 COMPUTES THE MATRIX OF FINITE-DIFFERENCE COEFFICIENTS
C AND STORES THE COEFFICIENTS ON TAPE4.
C
C STN ARRAY CONTAINING THE RATIOS OF SLAB THICKNESSES
C STI ARRAY CONTAINING THE RATIOS OF GRID INTERVAL IN
C THE Y-DIRECTION
C STJ ARRAY CONTAINING THE RATIOS OF GRID INTERVAL IN
C THE X-DIRECTION
C NCODE NO.OF CODINGS USED IN THE DIGITIZATION
C ICODE ARRAY CONTAINING ALL CODINGS USED IN THE DISCRETE
C CONDUCTOR
C SEG ARRAY CONTAINING THE CONDUCTIVITY RATIOS OF THE CODINGS
C ARRAY DIMENSIONS
C ARRAY NAME DIMENSION
C STN (NSLAB+2)
C STI (IBIT)
C STJ (JBIT)
C SEG (NCODE+1,5)
C ICODE (NCODE)
C IC1,IC2 (IBIT,JBIT)
C N1,N2,N3 (IBIT-1,JBIT-1)
C ACOEF,ICOEF (6)
C
C COMMON STN(19),STI(22),STJ(34),SEG(15,5),ICODE(15)
C COMMON IC1(22,34),IC2(22,34),N1(21,33),N2(21,33),N3(21,33)
C COMMON ACOEF(6),ICOEF(6)
C
C FORMAT STATEMENTS
C
1000 FORMAT(16I5)
1010 FORMAT(20F4.1)
1020 FORMAT(A1,4X,5F5.2)
1030 FORMAT(80A1)
1040 FORMAT(15,6(15,F7.3))
3000 FORMAT(/// ***** EXECUTE PHASE3 *****///)
3010 FORMAT(' RATIO OF STEP SIZES IN Z-DIRECTION')
3020 FORMAT(' RATIO OF STEP SIZES IN Y-DIRECTION')
3030 FORMAT(' RATIO OF STEP SIZES IN X-DIRECTION')
3040 FORMAT(' NCODE =',I3)
3050 FORMAT(' CODINGS CONDUCTIVITY RATIOS')
3060 FORMAT(5X,A1,5X,5(1X,F5.2))
3070 FORMAT(/// ***** END PHASE3 *****///)
C
  PRINT 3000
  REWIND 1
  REWIND 2
  REWIND 3
C
C READ IN DATA
C
  READ<1,1000>NSLAB,IBIT,JBIT
  NSL=NSLAB+1

```

```

IIB=IBIT-1
JJB=JBIT-1
READ(5,1010) (STN(I),I=2,NSL)
PRINT 3010
PRINT 1010, (STN(I),I=2,NSL)
READ(5,1010) (STI(I),I=1,IBIT)
PRINT 3020
PRINT 1010, (STI(I),I=1,IBIT)
READ(5,1010) (STJ(I),I=1,JBIT)
PRINT 3030
PRINT 1010, (STJ(I),I=1,JBIT)
STN(I)=1.
STN(DEL+1)=1.
READ(5,1000) NCODE
PRINT 3040, NCODE
PRINT 3050
DO 20 K=1, NCODE
READ(5,1020) ICODE(K), (SEG(K+1,I), I=1,5)
IF (SEG(K+1,3).GT.0.) GO TO 20
DO 10 I=2,5
10 SEG(K+1,I)=SEG(K+1,1)
PRINT 3060, ICODE(K), (SEG(K+1,I), I=1,5)
20 CONTINUE
DO 30 I=1,5
30 SEG(I,I)=0.
DO 40 I=1,IBIT
DO 40 J=1,JBIT
40 IC2(I,J)=1
DO 50 I=1,IIB
DO 50 J=1,JJB
50 N2(I,J)=0
READ(2,1000) ((N3(I,J),J=1,JJB),I=1,IIB)
C
C
C BEGIN LOOP TO SCAN FOR NODES
DO 190 I=1,NSL
DO 60 I=1,IBIT
DO 60 J=1,JBIT
60 IC1(I,J)=IC2(I,J)
DO 70 I=1,IIB
DO 70 J=1,JJB
N1(I,J)=N2(I,J)
70 N2(I,J)=N3(I,J)
IF (IS.NE.NSL) GO TO 100
DO 80 I=1,IIB
DO 80 J=1,JJB
80 N3(I,J)=0
DO 90 I=1,IBIT
DO 90 J=1,JBIT
90 IC2(I,J)=1
GO TO 140
C
C
C READ IN TAPE1 AND TAPE2 DATA

```

```

100 READ(2,1000) ((N3(I,J),J=1,JJB),I=1,IIB)
DO 110 I=1,IBIT
110 READ(1,1030) (IC2(I,J),J=1,JBIT)
C
C CONVERT CODINGS INTO CONDUCTIVITY ADDRESSES
DO 130 I=1,IBIT
DO 130 J=1,JBIT
DO 120 K=1,NCODE
IF (IC2(I,J).NE.ICCODE(K)) GO TO 120
IC2(I,J)=K+1
GO TO 130
120 CONTINUE
130 CONTINUE
140 DO 180 I=1,IIB
DO 180 J=1,JJB
IF (N2(I,J).EQ.0) GO TO 180
N2(I,J)=IABS(N2(I,J))
KOUNT=0
INODE=N2(I,J)
C
C
C COMPUTE THE FINITE-DIFFERENCE COEFFICIENTS
CALL EQ(I,J,IS,KOUNT,IIB,JJB)
WRITE(3,1040) INODE, (ICDEF(K),ACDEF(K),K=1,KOUNT)
180 CONTINUE
190 CONTINUE
PRINT 3070
RETURN
END
SUBROUTINE EQ(I,J,L,KOUNT,IIB,JJB)
C
C
C THIS SUB ROUTINE COMPUTES THE FINITE DIFFERENCE COEFFICIENTS
COMMON STN(19),STI(22),STJ(34),SEG(15,5),ICCODE(15)
COMMON IC1(22,34),IC2(22,34),N1(21,33),N2(21,33),N3(21,33)
COMMON ACDEF(6),ICDEF(6)
DO 80 K=1,6
GO TO (10,20,30,40,50,60),K
10 N=N1(I,J)
IF (N.EQ.0) GO TO 20
II=IC1(I,J)
JJ=IC1(I,J+1)
KK=IC1(I+1,J+1)
LL=IC1(I+1,J)
SIGMA=((SEG(II,5)+STJ(J)+SEG(JJ,5)+STJ(J+1))+STI(I)+
+SEG(KK,5)+STJ(J+1)+SEG(LL,5)+STJ(J))+STI(I+1))/STN(L)
GO TO 70
20 IF (I-1.LE.0) GO TO 30
N=N2(I-1,J)
IF (N.EQ.0) GO TO 30
II=IC1(I,J)
JJ=IC1(I,J+1)
KK=IC2(I,J+1)

```

```

LL=IC2(I,J)
SGMA=(SE6(II,2)*STJ(J)+SEG(JJ,4)*STJ(J+1))*STN(L)+
+ (SEG(KK,4)*STJ(J+1)+SEG(LL,2)*STJ(J))*STN(L+1))/STI(I)
GO TO 70
30 IF (J-1,LE,0) GO TO 80
N=N2(I,J-1)
IF (N,EQ,0) GO TO 80
II=IC1(I+1,J)
JJ=IC1(I,J)
KK=IC2(I,J)
LL=IC2(I+1,J)
SGMA=(SE6(II,1)*STI(I+1)+SEG(JJ,3)*STI(I))*STN(L)+
+ (SEG(KK,3)*STI(I)+SEG(LL,1)*STI(I+1))*STN(L+1)/STJ(J)
GO TO 70
40 IF (J+1,GT,JJB) GO TO 80
N=N2(I,J+1)
IF (N,EQ,0) GO TO 80
II=IC1(I+1,J+1)
JJ=IC1(I,J+1)
KK=IC2(I,J+1)
LL=IC2(I+1,J+1)
SGMA=(SE6(II,1)*STI(I+1)+SEG(JJ,3)*STI(I))*STN(L)+
+ (SEG(KK,3)*STI(I)+SEG(LL,1)*STI(I+1))*STN(L+1)/STJ(J+1)
GO TO 70
50 IF (I+1,GT,IIB) GO TO 80
N=N2(I+1,J)
IF (N,EQ,0) GO TO 80
II=IC1(I+1,J)
JJ=IC1(I+1,J+1)
KK=IC2(I+1,J+1)
LL=IC2(I+1,J)
SGMA=(SE6(II,2)*STJ(J)+SEG(JJ,4)*STJ(J+1))*STN(L)+
+ (SEG(KK,4)*STJ(J+1)+SEG(LL,2)*STJ(J))*STN(L+1)/STI(I+1)
GO TO 70
60 N=N3(I,J)
IF (N,EQ,0) GO TO 80
II=IC2(I,J)
JJ=IC2(I,J+1)
KK=IC2(I+1,J+1)
LL=IC2(I+1,J)
SGMA=(SE6(II,5)*STJ(J)+SEG(JJ,5)*STJ(J+1))*STI(I)+
+ (SEG(KK,5)*STJ(J+1)+SEG(LL,5)*STJ(J))*STI(I+1)/STN(L+1)
70 KOUNT=KOUNT+1
ACDEF(KOUNT)=SGMA
ICDEF(KOUNT)=IABS(N)
80 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

```

```

SUBROUTINE PHASE4
C
C PHASE4 COMPUTES THE POTENTIAL DISTRIBUTIONS BY SOLVING
C THE FINITE-DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS ON TAPE3 ITERATIVELY
C USING THE GAUSS-SEIDEL METHOD.
C NGEN NO. OF EQUATIONS IN TAPE3
C NGEN NO. OF GENERATORS
C NOD ARRAY CONTAINING THE NO. OF NODES IN THE GENERATORS
C NODE ARRAY CONTAINING THE NODE NUMBERS OF GENERATORS
C ISOCE ARRAY CONTAINING THE MAGNITUDES OF THE GENERATORS
C ITIME MAXIMUM ITERATION TIME IN SECONDS
C ITMAX MAXIMUM NO. OF ITERATIONS
C IFILE READ INITIAL SOLUTION VECTOR FROM TAPE4 IF IFILE=1
C ARRAY DIMENSIONS
C ARRAY NAME DIMENSION
C ACDEF,ICDEF (6,MBUFF)
C INODE,ICONT (MBUFF)
C ACC,ICD (6)
C NOD,ISOCE (NGEN)
C X (NGEN)
C
COMMON ACDEF(6,100),ICDEF(6,100),INODE(100),ICONT(100)
COMMON ACC(6),ICD(6),NOD(26),ISOCE(26),NODE(200)
COMMON X(10000)
C
C FORMAT STATEMENTS
C
1000 FORMAT(16I5)
1010 FORMAT(15,6(15,F7.3))
1030 FORMAT(10F8.3)
3000 FORMAT(/// ***** EXECUTE PHASE4 *****//)
3010 FORMAT(' NGEN =',I3)
3020 FORMAT(' NGEN =',I3)
3030 FORMAT(' MAGNITUDES OF GENERATORS:')
3040 FORMAT(' ITIME =',I5,' ITMAX =',I5)
3050 FORMAT(' MAXIMUM RESIDUE =',E10.3)
3060 FORMAT(' NODE NUMBERS OF GENERATORS:')
3070 FORMAT(/// ***** END PHASE4 *****//)
C
PRINT 3000
CALL SECOND(T1)
REWIND 3
REWIND 4
REWIND 7
C
C INITIALIZE VALUES
C
MBUFF=100
NUM=0
M=0
KF=1
C
C READ IN DATA SPECIFYING GENERATOR CONFIGURATION
C

```



```

READ(5,1000)NEQN
PRINT 3010,NEQN
READ(5,1000)NGEN
PRINT 3020,NGEN
PRINT 3060
DO 1 N=1,NGEN
READ(5,1000)NOD(N)
PRINT 1000,NOD(N)
KL=NOD(N)+KF-1
READ(5,1000)(NODE(I),I=KF,KL)
PRINT 1000,(NODE(I),I=KF,KL)
KF=KL+1
1 CONTINUE
READ(5,1000)(ISOCE(I),I=1,NGEN)
PRINT 3030
PRINT 1000,(ISOCE(I),I=1,NGEN)

C
C READ IN DATA SPECIFYING MAX. ITERATION TIME AND CYCLE
C
READ(5,1000)ITIME,ITMAX
PRINT 3040,ITIME,ITMAX

C
C REORGANIZE EQUATIONS ON TAPES FOR EFFICIENT ITERATION
C
DO 100 NE=1,NEQN
READ(3,1010)IND,(ICD(I),ACD(I),I=1,6)

C
C REMOVE EQUATIONS FOR NODES BELONGING TO GENERATORS
C
DO 10 K=1,KL
10 IF(IND.EQ.NODE(K))GO TO 100

C
C COMPUTE NO. OF COEFFICIENTS IN EQUATION
C
KOUNT=0
DO 20 I=1,6
20 IF(ICD(I).NE.0)KOUNT=KOUNT+1
M=M+1
INDE(M)=IND
ICONT(M)=KOUNT

C
C NORMALIZE COEFFICIENTS
C
SUM=0.
DO 30 I=1,KOUNT
30 SUM=SUM+ACD(I)
IF(ABS(SUM).LT.1.E-20)GO TO 50
DO 40 I=1,KOUNT
40 ACD(I)=ACD(I)/SUM
50 DO 60 I=1,KOUNT
ICDEF(I,M)=ICD(I)
60 ACDEF(I,M)=ACD(I)

C
C WRITE INTO A BUFFER ARRAY

```

```

C IF BUFFER FULL DUMP INTO TAPE7
C
IF(M.NE.M2BUFF)GO TO 100
WRITE(7)INDE,ICONT,ICDEF,ACDEF
NUM=NUM+M
M=0
100 CONTINUE
WRITE(7)INDE,ICONT,ICDEF,ACDEF
NUM=NUM+M

C
C INITIALIZE SOLUTION VECTOR
C
IF(IFILE.NE.1)GO TO 105
READ(4,1000)NEQM
READ(4,1030)(X(I),I=1,NEQM)
GO TO 115
105 DO 110 I=1,NEQN
110 X(I)=0.
K=0
115 DO 120 N=1,NGEN
KK=NOD(N)
DO 120 N1=1,KK
K=K+1
120 X(NODE(K))=FLOAT(ISOCE(N))

C
C BEGIN ITERATIONS
C COMPUTE OPTIMUM ACCELERATION FACTOR
C
IT=ITMAX/10
DO 200 ITER=1,IT
150 REMIND 7
XXX=0.
NT=0
MB=MBUFF
160 READ(7)INDE,ICONT,ICDEF,ACDEF
NT=NT+MBUFF
IF(NT.GT.NUM)MB=NUM+MBUFF-NT
DO 180 JK=1,MB
IFL=INDE(JK)
KKK=ICONT(JK)
XX=X(IFL)
X(IFL)=0.
DO 170 K=1,KKK
J=ICDEF(K,JK)
X(IFL)=X(IFL)+ACDEF(K,JK)*X(J)
170 CONTINUE
IF(ABS(XX-X(IFL)).GT.XXX)XXX=ABS(XX-X(IFL))
180 CONTINUE
IF(NT.LT.NUM)GO TO 160
IF(ITER.NE.IT)GO TO 200
R=XXX/XX1
IF(R.LT.1.)GO TO 190
ACC=1.
GO TO 200

```

```

190 ACC=2./(1.+SQRT(1.-R))
200 XX1=XXX
C
C ACCELERATED GAUSS-SEIDEL ITERATIONS
C
ITMAX=ITMAX-IT
DO 250 ITER=1,ITMAX
PRINT,ITER
210 REMIND 7
NT=0
MB=MBUFF
220 READ(7) INODE, ICONT, ICDEF, ACDEF
NT=NT+MBUFF
IF (NT.GT.NUM) MB=NUM+MBUFF-NT
DO 240 JK=1,MB
IFL=INODE(JK)
KKK=ICONT(JK)
XX=X(IFL)
X(IFL)=0.
DO 230 K=1,KKK
J=ICDEF(K,JK)
X(IFL)=X(IFL)+ACDEF(K,JK)*X(J)
230 CONTINUE
X(IFL)=XX+ACC*(X(IFL)-XX)
240 CONTINUE
IF (NT.LT.NUM) GO TO 220
CALL SECND(T2)
IF (T2-T1.GE.FLOAT(ITIME)) GO TO 260
250 CONTINUE
C
C COMPUTE MAXIMUM RESIDUE
C
260 REMIND 7
XXX=0.
NT=0
MB=MBUFF
270 READ(7) INODE, ICONT, ICDEF, ACDEF
NT=NT+MBUFF
IF (NT.GT.NUM) MB=NUM+MBUFF-NT
DO 290 JK=1,MB
IFL=INODE(JK)
KKK=ICONT(JK)
XX=0.
A=0.
DO 280 K=1,KKK
A=A+ACDEF(K,JK)
J=ICDEF(K,JK)
XX=XX+ACDEF(K,JK)*X(J)
280 CONTINUE
XX=X(IFL)+A-XX
IF (XXX.LT.ABS(XX)) XXX=ABS(XX)
290 CONTINUE
IF (NT.LT.NUM) GO TO 270

```

```

C END OF ITERATIONS
PRINT 3050,XXX
C STORE SOLUTION VECTOR ON TAPE4
C
WRITE(4,1000) NEQN
WRITE(4,1030) (X(I),I=1,NEQN)
300 PRINT 3000
RETURN
END

```

A.3 Variable Name List

	VARIABLE NAME	DESCRIPTION
Program control	KOMAND	Array containing execution sequence.
PHASE1	NSLAB	Number of slabs.
	IBIT	Y-dimension of sampling grid.
	JBIT	X-dimension of sampling grid.
	NUM	Array of number of times a coding is repeated.
	KODE	Array containing the coding sequence.
	IP	Output listings suppression indicator.
PHASE2	NONO	No. of codings for which no equations are generated.
	NENO	No. of codings for which the nodes are labelled with a negative sign to facilitate identification of specific regions.
	NO	Array containing codings for no equations.
	NE	Array containing codings for -ve nodes.
	IP	Output listings suppression indicator
PHASE3	STN	Array of sampling ratios in the Z-direction.
	STI	Array of sampling ratios in the Y-direction.
	STJ	Array of sampling ratios in the X-direction.
	NCODE	Number of codings used.
	ICODE	Array containing the codings used.
	SEG	Array of conductivity ratios of the codings.
PHASE4	NEQN	Number of equations generated. This is specified from the output of PHASE2.
	NGEN	Number of generators. Each generator is made up of one or more nodes.
	NOD	Array containing the number of nodes for each generator.
	NODE	Array containing the node numbers which constitute the generators.

	ISOCE	Array containing the generator strengths.
	ITIME	Maximum iteration time in seconds.
PHASE4	ITMAX	Maximum iteration cycle.
	IFILE	Indicator to read in the initial solution vector from previous TAPE4.

A.4 Data Format

	CARD STRUCTURE	FORMAT
Program control	KOMAND(1),KOMAND(2),..... KOMAND(10)	10(A6,1X)
PHASE1	NSLAB,IBIT,JBIT	3I5
	NUM(1),KODE(1),..... NUM(20),KODE(20)	20(I2,A1)
	⋮ (NSLAB x IBIT) sets	⋮
	⋮	⋮
	NUM(1),KODE(1),..... NUM(20),KODE(20)	⋮
	IP	I5
PHASE2	NONO,NENO	2I5
	NO(1),NO(2),..... NO(NONO)	40(A1,1X)
	NE(1),NE(2),..... NE(NENO)	40(A1,1X)
	IP	I5
PHASE3	STN(1),STN(2),..... STN(NSLAB)	20F4.1
	STI(1),STI(2),..... STI(IBIT)	20F4.1
	STJ(1),STJ(2),..... STJ(JBIT)	20F4.1
	NCODE	I5
	ICODE,SEG(1),SEG(2),..... SEG(5)	A1,4X,5F5.2
	⋮ NCODE sets	⋮
	⋮	⋮
ICODE,SEG(1),SEG(2),..... SEG(5)	⋮	
PHASE4	NEQN	I5
	NGEN	I5
	NOD	I5
	NODE(1),NODE(2),..... NODE(NOD)	16I5
	⋮ NGEN sets	⋮
	⋮	⋮
	NOD	⋮
	NODE(1),NODE(2),..... NODE(NOD)	⋮
	ISOCE(1),ISOCE(2),..... ISOCE(NGEN)	16I5
	ITIME,ITMAX	2I5
IFILE	I5	

A.5 Sample Problem

The following example illustrates the application of the computer program for calculating the potential distribution due to a dipole source located in the centre of a conducting sphere which is embedded inside a solid cylinder. The conductivity of the sphere is three times greater than that of the cylinder. Fig. A.1 shows the manner in which the conductor is digitized.

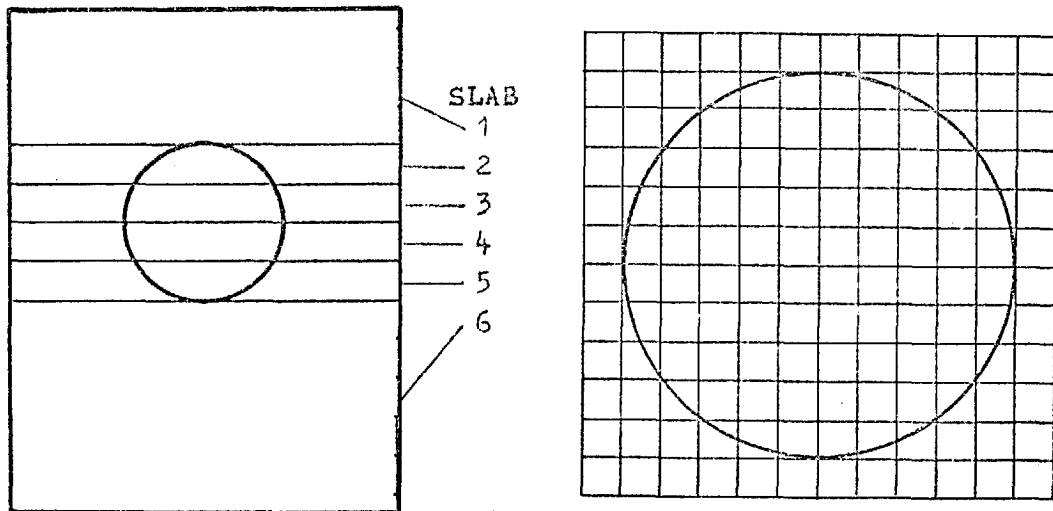


Fig.A.1: Discretization of the volume-conductor.

What follows illustrates the input data structure and outputs from the program.

***** EXECUTE PHASE1 *****

CARD 1	PHASE1-PHASE2		NCLAB = 6	IBIT = 12	JBIT = 12
CARD 2	6	12			
CARD 3	12				
CARD 4	4	4S 4			
CARD 5	2	SS 2			
CARD 6	2	SS 2			
CARD 7	1	10S 1			
CARD 8	1	10S 1			
CARD 9	1	10S 1			
CARD 10	1	10S 1			
CARD 11	2	SS 2			
CARD 12	2	SS 2			
CARD 13	4	4S 4			
CARD 14	12				
CARD 15	12				
CARD 16	4	4S 4			
CARD 17	2	SS 2			
CARD 18	2	SS 2			
CARD 19	1	10S 1			
CARD 20	1	4S 2M 4S 1			
CARD 21	1	4S 2M 4S 1			
CARD 22	1	10S 1			
CARD 23	2	SS 2			
CARD 24	2	SS 2			
CARD 25	4	4S 4			
CARD 26	12				
CARD 27	12				
CARD 28	4	4S 4			
CARD 29	2	SS 2			
CARD 30	2	SS 2			
CARD 31	1	4S 2M 4S 1			
CARD 32	1	SS 4M 3S 1			
CARD 33	1	SS 4M 3S 1			
CARD 34	1	4S 2M 4S 1			
CARD 35	2	SS 2			
CARD 36	2	SS 2			
CARD 37	4	4S 4			
CARD 38	12				
CARD 39	12				
CARD 40	4	4S 4			
CARD 41	2	SS 2			
CARD 42	2	SS 2			
CARD 43	1	4S 2M 4S 1			
CARD 44	1	SS 4M 3S 1			
CARD 45	1	SS 4M 3S 1			
CARD 46	1	4S 2M 4S 1			
CARD 47	2	SS 2			
CARD 48	2	SS 2			
CARD 49	4	4S 4			
CARD 50	12				
CARD 51	12				
CARD 52	4	4S 4			
CARD 53	2	SS 2			
CARD 54	2	SS 2			
CARD 55	1	10S 1			
CARD 56	1	4S 2M 4S 1			
CARD 57	1	4S 2M 4S 1			
CARD 58	1	10S 1			
CARD 59	2	SS 2			
CARD 60	2	SS 2			
CARD 61	4	4S 4			
CARD 62	12				
CARD 63	12				
CARD 64	4	4S 4			
CARD 65	2	SS 2			
CARD 66	2	SS 2			
CARD 67	1	10S 1			
CARD 68	1	10S 1			
CARD 69	1	10S 1			
CARD 70	1	10S 1			
CARD 71	2	SS 2			
CARD 72	2	SS 2			
CARD 73	4	4S 4			
CARD 74	12				
CARD 75	1				
CARD 76	1	1			
CARD 77					
CARD 78	M				
CARD 79	1				

SLAB NUMBER 1

SSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSS

SLAB NUMBER 2

SSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSS

SLAB NUMBER 3

SSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
 SSSSSSSSSS
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SLAB NUMBER 4

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0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 573 582 551 540 529 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 593 584 574 563 553 541 530 520 511 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 594 585 575 564 553 542 531 521 512 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
602 595 587 576 565 554 542 532 522 513 506
0 0 0 0 -0 -0 -0 0 0 0 0
603 596 587 577 566 555 544 533 523 514 507
0 0 0 0 0 -0 -0 -0 0 0 0
604 597 588 578 567 556 545 534 524 515 508
0 0 0 0 -0 -0 -0 0 0 0 0
605 598 589 579 568 557 546 535 525 516 509
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
606 599 590 580 569 558 547 536 526 517 510
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 600 591 581 570 559 548 537 527 518 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 601 592 582 571 560 549 538 528 519 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 583 572 561 550 539 0 0 0

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0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 674 663 652 641 630 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 694 685 675 664 652 642 631 621 612 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 695 686 676 665 654 643 632 622 613 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
702 696 687 677 666 655 644 633 623 614 607
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
704 697 688 678 667 656 645 634 624 615 608
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
705 698 689 679 668 657 646 635 625 616 609
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
706 699 690 680 669 658 647 636 626 617 610
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
707 700 691 681 670 659 648 637 627 618 611
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 701 692 682 671 660 649 638 628 619 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 702 693 683 672 661 650 639 629 620 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 684 673 662 651 640 0 0 0
TOTAL NO. OF NODES = 707

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***** END PHASE2 *****

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CARD 1 PHASE3,PHASE4
CARD 2 3.5 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 5.5
CARD 3 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0
CARD 4 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0
CARD 5 3
CARD 6 0.0
CARD 7 S 1.0
CARD 8 M 3.0
CARD 9 707
CARD 10 2
CARD 11 1
CARD 12 353
CARD 13 1
CARD 14 355
CARD 15 100 -100
CARD 16 20 200

```


APPENDIX B

TABLE OF BODY TISSUE RESISTIVITIES*

Mean resistivity in Ohm-Cm.

TISSUE	Kaufman and Johnston	Burger and van Milaan	Schwan and Kay	Burger and van Dongen	Rush Abildskov and McFee
Blood	208	160	100	160	162
Liver	506		840		700
Lung	744		1120		2100
Fat	2060	1500-5000			2500
Heart	216	965			563high 252low
Skeletal muscle		470high 230low		675high 245low	2300high 150low
Human trunk		415			463

* Table taken from Rush et al. (1963).

APPENDIX C

COMPUTER DATA OF THE DISCRETE TORSO MODELS

APPENDIX D

POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTIONS FROM EACH EPICARDIAL SEGMENT
TO THE BODY SURFACE

FRONT												SEGMENT 1		BACK											
33	36	38	39	39	37	33	29	25	21	18	17	17	17	17	18	19	21	23	25	27	28	30	31	32	33
32	36	38	40	40	38	33	28	23	19	17	16	16	16	17	17	18	20	22	24	26	28	29	30	31	32
32	36	39	41	42	38	32	26	21	17	16	15	16	16	16	17	18	19	21	23	25	27	29	30	31	32
31	35	38	41	41	35	27	20	15	13	13	14	14	14	15	16	17	18	20	22	24	26	27	29	30	31
29	33	36	37	35	28	20	13	8	8	10	12	13	13	14	15	15	16	18	20	22	24	26	27	29	29
26	28	30	28	24	17	11	7	4	4	6	9	11	11	12	13	14	15	16	18	20	22	24	25	26	26
23	23	23	21	16	12	8	5	3	3	4	7	9	9	11	12	13	14	15	17	19	20	21	23	23	23
19	19	18	16	14	11	8	6	5	4	5	7	8	8	9	10	12	13	14	15	17	18	19	20	20	19
17	17	16	14	13	11	9	7	6	5	6	7	7	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	15	16	16	17	18	17
17	16	15	14	12	11	9	8	7	6	6	7	8	8	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	16	17	17
16	15	14	13	12	11	10	8	7	7	7	7	8	8	9	9	10	11	12	13	14	14	15	16	16	16
15	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	8	7	8	8	8	9	9	10	11	11	12	13	14	14	15	15	15
15	14	13	13	12	11	10	9	9	8	8	8	8	8	9	9	10	11	11	12	13	13	14	14	15	15

FRONT												SEGMENT 2		BACK												
62	70	77	86	95	100	98	88	72	56	45	41	38	38	38	38	39	41	43	46	49	52	55	57	59	62	
61	69	78	89	102	109	107	93	73	53	43	39	37	37	36	37	38	39	42	45	48	51	53	56	58	61	
60	69	79	93	109	119	116	97	72	50	40	37	35	35	35	35	36	37	40	43	46	49	52	55	57	60	
59	68	79	97	117	129	122	91	58	39	35	33	32	32	33	33	33	35	37	40	43	47	50	53	55	59	
55	63	75	91	108	116	105	70	38	25	25	27	29	29	30	30	31	32	34	37	40	44	47	50	53	55	
49	55	63	72	72	64	51	33	18	12	15	20	23	23	26	27	28	29	31	34	37	40	43	46	48	49	
43	46	51	51	44	35	25	17	10	7	10	16	19	19	22	24	26	27	29	32	34	37	39	42	43	43	
38	38	39	38	34	29	22	16	11	8	10	14	16	16	19	21	23	25	27	29	32	34	35	37	38	38	
35	35	34	32	29	26	21	17	14	12	12	14	15	15	17	19	20	22	24	26	28	30	32	33	34	35	
33	33	32	30	28	25	21	18	15	13	13	15	16	16	17	19	20	22	23	25	27	29	30	32	33	33	
32	31	30	29	27	24	21	19	16	15	15	15	16	16	18	19	20	21	23	25	26	28	29	31	31	32	
30	30	29	27	26	24	21	19	18	16	16	16	17	17	18	19	20	21	23	24	26	27	28	29	30	30	
29	29	28	27	25	23	21	20	18	17	17	17	17	17	17	18	19	20	21	22	24	25	27	28	28	29	29

FRONT												SEGMENT 3		BACK											
49	54	59	67	80	96	114	129	130	110	89	77	67	67	61	58	56	53	51	49	48	48	48	48	48	49
48	53	57	66	80	100	125	149	152	122	91	76	65	65	59	56	53	51	49	47	46	46	46	46	47	48
47	51	56	64	80	104	137	172	177	134	93	76	63	63	57	54	51	48	46	45	45	44	45	45	46	47
45	49	53	60	75	102	149	213	223	141	92	72	58	58	54	51	48	45	43	42	42	42	42	43	44	45
42	45	48	52	62	82	124	186	194	119	76	59	52	52	50	46	43	40	39	38	38	39	40	41	42	42
37	38	40	41	42	45	55	68	69	53	41	40	41	41	42	40	38	36	35	34	35	36	37	38	38	37
33	32	32	31	29	26	23	21	20	18	20	27	32	32	35	34	33	32	32	32	32	32	33	33	34	33
29	28	27	25	24	22	19	16	13	12	15	21	25	25	28	27	28	28	28	29	29	30	30	30	30	29
27	26	25	23	21	20	18	15	14	13	14	18	20	20	21	22	23	23	24	24	25	26	26	27	27	27
26	25	24	22	21	19	18	16	15	14	15	17	19	19	20	21	22	22	23	23	24	25	25	26	26	26
25	24	23	22	21	19	18	16	15	15	16	17	19	19	20	20	21	21	22	23	23	24	25	25	25	25
24	24	23	21	20	19	18	17	16	16	16	17	18	18	19	20	20	21	21	22	23	23	24	24	24	24
23	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	17	16	17	17	18	18	19	19	20	20	21	22	22	23	23	23	24	23

FRONT											SEGMENT 7					BACK										
64	63	61	59	56	54	53	52	54	56	59	62	65	65	69	72	76	80	81	81	78	74	71	68	66	64	
63	61	59	56	53	50	48	47	48	52	56	59	63	63	67	71	76	80	82	81	78	74	70	67	65	63	
62	60	57	53	49	45	42	41	42	47	52	57	62	62	66	71	76	81	83	82	78	74	70	66	64	62	
60	57	53	47	41	36	32	29	29	36	46	52	59	59	64	68	73	79	82	81	76	72	68	65	63	60	
57	53	48	40	32	26	20	16	15	23	35	44	54	54	60	64	69	74	77	76	72	68	64	62	61	57	
51	46	40	32	25	18	13	9	7	11	22	35	45	45	53	59	63	67	70	69	66	63	61	58	55	51	
45	40	34	27	21	16	12	9	6	7	15	27	36	36	44	51	56	60	63	63	61	58	55	52	49	45	
39	36	31	26	22	18	15	12	10	9	15	23	29	29	36	41	47	51	53	54	53	51	48	45	43	39	
37	34	30	26	23	20	17	15	14	14	17	22	25	25	30	33	36	39	40	42	42	42	41	40	39	37	
35	33	30	26	24	21	19	17	16	16	18	22	25	25	28	31	34	36	38	39	39	39	39	38	37	35	
34	32	29	26	24	22	20	19	18	18	20	22	25	25	28	30	32	34	35	37	37	37	37	37	36	34	
33	32	29	27	25	23	22	21	20	20	21	23	24	24	27	29	31	32	33	34	35	35	35	35	34	33	
32	31	29	27	25	24	23	22	21	21	22	23	24	24	26	28	30	31	32	33	34	34	34	34	33	32	

FRONT											SEGMENT 8					BACK										
67	67	66	65	61	56	51	47	44	41	39	39	39	39	41	44	47	51	55	60	63	65	66	66	66	67	
66	66	65	63	59	53	47	43	39	37	36	37	38	38	40	42	45	49	54	59	63	65	66	66	66	66	
65	65	64	61	56	50	43	38	34	33	34	35	36	36	38	41	44	48	53	58	62	64	65	65	65	65	
63	63	61	56	48	41	33	27	24	25	29	32	34	34	36	38	41	45	50	56	60	62	63	63	63	63	
60	59	56	48	38	30	22	16	13	16	22	26	31	31	34	36	38	42	47	52	56	58	59	60	61	60	
53	51	46	37	28	20	14	9	6	8	14	21	26	26	30	33	35	38	43	47	51	53	55	56	55	53	
45	42	37	30	22	17	12	8	5	5	10	16	21	21	25	29	32	35	39	43	47	49	49	50	48	45	
38	36	31	26	21	18	14	10	8	7	10	15	18	18	22	24	28	31	35	38	41	43	43	43	42	38	
35	33	29	25	22	19	16	13	12	11	12	14	16	16	19	21	24	26	29	31	34	35	36	37	36	35	
33	32	28	25	22	20	17	15	13	12	13	15	17	17	19	21	23	25	27	30	32	33	34	35	34	33	
32	30	28	25	22	20	18	16	15	14	14	16	17	17	19	21	23	24	26	28	30	32	32	33	33	32	
31	29	27	24	22	21	19	17	16	15	16	17	17	17	19	21	22	24	25	27	29	30	31	31	31	31	
29	28	26	24	23	21	20	18	17	17	17	17	18	18	19	20	22	23	25	26	28	29	30	30	30	29	

FRONT											SEGMENT 9					BACK										
32	35	37	38	36	33	28	23	19	15	13	13	13	13	14	14	15	17	19	21	23	26	28	30	31	32	
32	36	39	41	40	36	29	23	18	14	13	12	13	13	13	14	15	16	18	21	23	26	28	30	31	32	
33	33	41	45	45	40	31	23	17	12	12	12	12	12	13	14	14	16	18	20	23	26	28	30	31	33	
34	39	46	55	57	47	33	21	13	10	10	11	12	12	12	13	14	15	17	20	23	25	28	30	31	34	
34	41	51	65	70	58	36	18	9	7	8	10	11	11	12	13	14	15	17	19	22	25	27	29	31	34	
33	41	52	64	63	49	29	15	7	4	5	8	10	10	11	12	13	15	17	19	22	24	27	29	31	33	
32	38	47	51	45	34	22	13	7	4	5	8	9	9	11	12	13	15	17	19	21	24	26	29	30	32	
30	33	36	37	34	28	20	14	9	6	6	8	9	9	10	12	13	15	17	19	21	23	25	27	29	30	
28	30	31	30	28	24	20	15	12	9	8	9	10	10	11	12	13	15	16	18	20	22	24	26	27	28	
27	28	29	28	26	23	19	16	13	11	10	10	10	10	11	13	14	15	17	18	20	22	23	25	27	27	
26	27	27	27	25	22	19	16	14	12	11	11	11	11	12	13	14	15	17	18	20	22	23	24	26	26	
25	26	26	25	23	21	19	17	15	13	12	12	12	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	20	21	22	24	25	25	
25	25	24	23	22	21	19	17	15	14	13	13	13	13	13	13	14	15	16	17	18	20	21	22	23	24	25

FRONT														SEGMENT 10				BACK							
39	44	47	52	56	59	58	52	42	31	26	24	22	22	22	22	23	24	26	28	30	32	34	36	38	39
39	44	49	56	63	68	67	59	45	31	25	23	21	21	21	22	22	23	25	27	30	32	34	36	38	39
40	45	51	60	71	79	78	67	48	30	24	22	21	21	21	22	23	24	27	29	32	34	36	37	40	40
40	46	55	70	92	109	111	86	51	27	21	20	20	20	20	21	22	23	26	28	31	33	35	37	40	40
39	46	57	80	114	153	171	122	58	23	17	17	18	18	19	19	20	21	22	25	27	30	32	35	36	39
38	45	58	82	107	138	152	102	44	16	12	14	16	16	17	18	19	20	22	24	26	29	31	34	35	38
37	43	55	69	78	80	71	50	26	11	9	12	14	14	16	17	18	20	21	23	26	28	30	33	35	37
35	39	45	53	57	56	49	36	22	12	10	12	14	14	15	17	18	19	21	23	25	27	29	32	34	35
34	36	40	43	43	41	36	30	23	17	14	14	14	14	16	17	18	19	21	23	25	27	29	31	33	34
33	35	37	39	40	38	33	28	23	18	15	15	15	15	16	17	19	20	21	23	25	27	28	30	32	33
32	34	35	37	36	35	31	27	23	19	17	16	16	16	17	18	19	20	22	23	25	27	28	30	31	32
31	32	33	34	33	32	29	26	23	20	18	17	17	17	18	19	20	21	22	24	25	27	28	29	31	31
31	31	32	32	31	30	28	25	23	21	19	18	18	18	19	19	20	21	22	24	25	27	28	29	30	31

FRONT														SEGMENT 11				BACK							
20	22	24	26	30	35	41	45	45	41	35	31	27	27	25	24	23	21	20	20	20	19	20	20	20	20
20	22	23	26	31	38	46	53	55	47	37	32	27	27	25	23	22	21	20	19	19	19	19	19	20	20
20	22	23	27	33	41	53	64	67	55	40	33	27	27	24	23	21	20	19	19	18	19	19	19	19	20
19	21	23	27	35	49	73	103	112	75	45	33	26	26	23	22	20	19	18	18	18	18	18	19	19	19
19	20	22	26	35	53	95	171	200	108	48	30	24	24	22	20	19	18	17	17	17	17	18	18	19	19
18	19	21	25	31	44	79	157	196	100	34	23	20	20	20	19	17	16	16	16	16	16	17	17	18	18
17	18	20	22	27	35	48	70	83	46	20	17	18	18	18	17	16	15	15	15	15	16	16	17	17	17
16	17	18	20	22	26	31	34	32	22	14	14	15	15	15	14	14	14	14	14	14	15	15	15	16	16
16	16	17	18	19	20	21	21	20	16	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	14	14	14	15	15	16	16
15	16	16	17	18	18	19	19	18	15	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	14	14	14	15	15	15	15
15	15	16	16	17	17	17	17	16	15	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	14	14	14	15	15	15	15
15	15	15	16	16	16	16	16	15	14	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	14	14	14	15	15	15	15
15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	14	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	14	14	14	15	15	15	15

FRONT														SEGMENT 12				BACK							
21	21	21	22	24	27	32	39	50	64	68	65	58	58	53	48	43	38	34	30	27	25	23	22	22	21
21	21	21	21	23	26	31	39	55	74	75	70	60	60	53	48	43	38	33	29	26	24	23	22	21	21
20	20	20	20	21	24	30	40	61	87	86	75	62	62	54	48	43	37	32	28	26	24	22	21	21	20
20	19	19	18	19	21	28	42	83	130	111	83	63	63	54	47	42	36	31	27	24	23	22	21	20	20
19	18	17	16	15	17	23	41	107	183	143	92	62	62	52	45	39	34	29	26	23	22	21	20	20	19
18	17	15	14	13	13	16	30	95	170	128	79	57	57	49	42	36	31	27	24	22	21	20	19	19	18
16	15	14	13	12	12	13	19	43	65	61	55	49	49	44	37	32	28	25	23	21	20	19	18	17	16
15	15	13	12	12	12	12	14	19	26	32	37	38	38	36	30	27	25	23	21	20	19	18	17	16	15
15	14	14	13	12	12	12	14	16	21	26	28	28	28	26	24	22	21	19	18	18	17	16	16	15	15
15	14	14	13	13	12	12	13	14	16	19	23	25	25	24	22	21	20	19	18	17	17	16	16	15	15
15	14	14	13	13	13	13	13	14	16	19	22	23	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	17	16	16	16	15	15
15	14	14	14	13	13	13	14	14	16	18	20	21	21	21	20	19	18	18	17	16	16	16	15	15	15
15	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	15	16	17	19	20	20	19	19	18	18	17	17	16	16	16	15	15

FRONT													SEGMENT 13		BACK												
11	11	10	10	10	10	11	12	15	21	26	28	29	29	28	27	25	22	19	17	15	14	13	12	12	11		
11	11	10	10	9	9	10	11	15	21	27	30	31	31	30	28	25	22	20	17	15	14	13	12	12	11		
11	10	10	9	8	8	9	10	14	21	29	32	32	32	31	29	26	23	20	17	15	14	13	12	12	11		
11	10	9	8	7	7	7	8	12	22	31	36	35	35	33	30	27	24	20	17	15	14	13	12	11	11		
11	10	9	7	6	5	5	5	8	20	36	43	39	39	35	32	28	24	20	17	15	13	12	12	11	11		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	4	13	33	43	40	40	36	32	28	23	20	17	15	13	12	12	11	10		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	4	8	20	32	35	35	35	31	26	22	19	16	14	13	12	11	10	10		
9	9	8	7	6	6	5	5	5	7	14	23	27	27	29	26	22	20	17	15	14	12	11	11	10	9		
9	9	8	8	7	7	6	6	7	8	12	17	20	20	21	20	18	16	15	13	12	12	11	10	10	9		
9	9	8	8	7	7	7	7	7	9	12	16	18	18	19	18	17	15	14	13	12	11	11	10	10	9		
10	9	9	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	12	15	17	17	17	16	15	14	14	13	12	11	11	10	10	10		
10	9	9	9	8	8	8	8	8	9	10	12	14	15	15	15	14	14	13	12	12	11	11	10	10	10		
10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	10	12	13	14	14	14	14	14	13	13	12	11	11	11	10	10	10		

FRONT													SEGMENT 14		BACK												
11	10	9	8	8	7	7	7	8	10	13	15	16	16	17	17	17	17	16	15	14	13	12	12	11	11		
11	10	9	8	7	7	6	7	8	10	13	15	17	17	18	18	18	18	17	16	14	13	12	12	11	11		
11	10	9	8	7	6	6	6	7	9	13	15	17	17	19	19	19	19	18	16	15	14	13	12	11	11		
11	10	9	7	6	5	5	4	5	8	12	16	18	18	20	21	21	21	19	17	16	14	13	12	12	11		
11	10	8	7	5	4	3	3	3	6	11	16	19	19	21	23	23	23	21	19	17	15	13	12	12	11		
11	10	8	7	5	4	3	2	2	4	9	16	20	20	23	25	25	24	22	20	17	15	14	12	12	11		
10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	3	8	14	19	19	23	25	25	24	22	20	17	15	14	12	11	10		
10	10	8	7	6	6	5	4	4	5	8	13	16	16	20	22	23	22	20	18	16	15	13	12	11	10		
10	10	9	8	7	7	6	6	6	7	9	12	14	14	17	18	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10		
10	10	9	8	8	7	7	7	7	7	9	12	13	13	15	17	17	17	16	15	14	13	12	12	11	10		
10	10	9	9	8	8	8	8	8	8	10	12	13	13	15	16	16	16	15	14	14	13	12	11	11	10		
10	10	10	9	9	9	8	8	8	9	10	12	13	13	14	14	15	15	14	14	13	12	12	11	11	10		
11	10	10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	10	12	12	12	13	14	14	14	14	13	13	12	12	11	11	11		

FRONT													SEGMENT 15		BACK												
25	23	21	19	16	15	14	13	14	16	18	21	23	23	25	27	28	29	30	31	30	29	28	27	27	25		
25	23	21	18	16	14	12	12	12	15	18	20	23	23	26	28	29	31	32	33	32	31	29	28	27	25		
26	23	21	18	15	12	11	10	11	13	17	20	23	23	26	29	31	33	35	35	34	32	30	29	28	26		
26	23	20	17	13	11	9	8	8	11	16	20	24	24	27	30	33	37	39	39	36	34	31	30	28	26		
26	24	20	16	12	9	7	5	5	8	13	19	24	24	28	32	37	41	44	43	40	36	33	30	29	26		
27	24	20	16	12	9	7	5	3	5	11	18	23	23	28	34	39	45	47	46	42	38	34	31	29	27		
26	23	20	16	13	10	8	6	4	4	9	16	21	21	27	33	40	45	47	46	43	39	35	31	28	26		
26	24	20	17	15	13	11	9	8	7	11	16	20	20	25	31	37	41	43	43	40	37	34	30	28	26		
25	24	21	19	17	15	14	12	11	11	14	17	19	19	24	28	32	35	37	37	35	33	31	29	27	25		
25	24	21	19	18	16	15	14	13	13	15	18	20	20	23	27	30	33	34	34	33	32	30	28	27	25		
25	24	22	20	19	17	16	15	15	15	16	18	20	20	23	26	29	31	32	32	31	30	29	28	26	25		
25	24	22	20	19	19	18	17	16	16	18	19	20	20	23	25	27	29	30	30	30	29	28	27	26	25		
25	24	22	21	20	19	19	18	18	16	19	20	21	21	23	24	26	27	28	28	28	28	27	26	25	25		

FRONT														SEGMENT 16				BACK							
29	27	25	23	19	16	14	12	12	11	12	13	14	14	15	17	18	20	22	25	27	29	30	30	30	29
30	28	26	23	19	16	13	11	10	10	12	13	14	14	15	17	18	20	23	26	28	30	30	31	31	30
31	29	27	23	19	15	12	10	9	9	11	12	14	14	15	17	19	21	24	27	29	31	32	32	31	31
32	30	27	23	18	14	10	8	6	8	10	12	13	13	15	17	19	22	25	29	32	33	33	33	32	32
33	32	29	24	18	12	8	5	4	5	8	11	13	13	15	17	20	23	27	31	34	35	35	34	33	33
34	33	29	24	18	13	8	5	3	3	6	10	12	12	15	17	20	24	28	33	36	37	36	35	35	34
33	32	28	23	17	13	10	6	4	3	6	9	12	12	14	17	21	24	29	33	36	37	37	36	35	33
32	30	27	23	19	15	12	9	7	6	7	10	12	12	14	17	20	24	28	31	34	35	35	34	33	32
31	29	26	23	20	17	14	12	10	9	10	11	12	12	14	17	20	22	25	29	31	32	33	32	32	31
30	28	26	23	20	18	16	13	12	11	11	12	13	13	15	17	20	22	25	27	29	31	31	31	30	30
29	27	25	23	20	19	16	15	13	12	12	13	14	14	16	17	19	22	24	26	28	29	30	30	29	29
28	27	25	23	21	19	17	16	15	14	14	14	14	14	16	18	19	21	23	25	27	28	28	28	28	28
27	26	24	23	21	20	18	17	16	15	15	15	15	15	16	18	19	21	23	24	26	27	27	28	27	27

FRONT														SEGMENT 17				BACK							
34	33	32	29	26	23	20	17	15	14	15	15	16	16	18	18	20	21	23	25	28	30	32	33	34	34
35	35	33	31	27	23	19	16	14	13	14	15	16	16	18	19	20	21	23	26	28	31	33	34	35	35
36	36	35	33	29	24	19	16	13	12	14	15	16	16	18	19	20	22	24	26	29	32	34	35	36	36
38	39	39	38	34	28	20	14	10	10	12	15	17	17	18	19	21	23	25	28	31	33	35	37	38	38
41	44	45	48	46	37	25	15	9	8	11	15	17	17	19	20	22	24	27	30	33	36	38	39	40	41
48	53	58	64	67	61	44	27	13	7	10	16	18	18	20	22	24	26	29	32	36	39	41	43	45	48
56	63	71	79	82	76	60	38	20	10	12	18	20	20	22	24	26	29	31	35	38	41	45	48	51	56
61	67	76	84	85	81	68	50	34	21	19	22	24	24	25	28	30	32	35	39	42	46	50	53	57	61
63	68	75	80	82	79	70	58	46	35	29	28	28	28	30	33	35	36	41	44	48	51	54	57	61	63
63	67	73	77	78	75	68	58	48	39	33	31	31	31	33	35	38	40	43	46	50	53	55	58	61	63
63	67	71	74	74	71	66	58	50	42	36	35	34	34	36	38	40	42	45	48	51	54	56	59	61	63
63	66	69	70	70	68	63	57	51	45	40	38	37	37	38	40	42	44	46	49	52	55	57	59	61	63
63	65	67	68	67	65	61	57	52	47	42	40	39	39	40	42	43	45	48	50	53	55	57	59	62	63

FRONT														SEGMENT 18				BACK							
41	41	41	39	37	34	30	27	23	21	20	21	22	22	23	24	25	26	28	31	33	36	38	40	41	41
42	43	43	42	40	37	32	27	23	20	20	21	22	22	23	24	25	26	28	31	34	36	39	41	42	42
43	44	45	45	43	40	35	28	22	19	19	20	22	22	23	24	25	27	29	31	34	37	40	41	43	43
45	47	49	53	55	53	45	33	22	16	18	20	22	22	23	25	26	27	30	33	36	39	41	43	44	45
48	52	57	69	81	86	78	55	29	15	16	20	23	23	24	26	27	29	31	34	38	41	43	45	46	48
55	61	72	94	126	155	163	127	63	30	16	22	25	25	26	27	29	31	34	37	40	43	45	48	51	55
62	71	87	115	155	190	206	173	91	31	21	26	28	28	28	30	32	34	36	39	42	46	49	53	57	62
68	76	92	116	141	164	178	162	109	52	33	33	34	34	33	36	37	38	41	44	47	50	54	59	63	68
71	78	90	106	120	130	136	129	106	73	49	42	40	40	41	42	43	45	48	50	54	57	59	63	67	71
71	78	88	101	111	118	121	116	100	74	53	47	44	44	45	45	47	48	51	53	56	59	61	65	68	71
72	77	86	96	103	108	110	105	93	73	57	50	48	48	48	49	50	51	53	56	58	61	63	66	70	72
73	77	84	90	95	98	98	95	86	72	60	54	52	52	52	52	53	54	56	58	61	63	65	68	71	73
73	77	82	87	90	91	90	87	82	72	62	57	54	54	54	54	55	56	58	60	62	64	66	69	71	73

FRONT											SEGMENT 19				BACK								
24	23	23	22	21	21	21	21	20	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	20	20	21	22	23	23	24	24
24	24	24	23	22	22	22	22	21	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	21	22	22	23	24	24	24
25	25	24	24	24	24	24	25	24	22	20	20	20	20	20	20	21	22	23	24	24	25	25	25
26	26	26	26	27	30	34	37	35	28	22	21	21	21	21	21	22	23	24	25	25	25	25	26
27	28	29	31	35	43	59	82	88	54	27	23	22	22	21	22	22	22	23	24	25	26	26	27
30	32	35	41	55	79	128	209	248	132	36	26	25	25	24	23	23	24	24	25	26	27	27	28
34	37	41	51	72	106	171	279	332	168	49	32	28	28	26	26	25	25	26	26	27	28	30	31
38	41	47	56	71	93	134	194	224	137	57	39	34	34	31	30	29	29	29	29	30	31	33	34
40	43	49	56	66	79	98	121	133	108	64	47	40	40	37	35	34	34	34	34	34	35	35	36
41	44	49	56	64	73	88	104	112	96	63	48	42	42	40	38	37	36	36	36	37	37	38	39
43	45	49	55	61	69	80	91	97	85	61	49	44	44	42	40	39	39	38	38	39	39	40	41
44	46	50	54	59	64	71	79	82	75	59	50	46	46	44	42	41	41	40	40	40	41	41	42
45	47	50	54	58	61	66	70	72	67	57	51	48	48	46	44	43	42	42	42	42	42	42	43

FRONT											SEGMENT 20				BACK								
28	26	25	24	24	24	25	28	35	45	54	56	56	56	54	51	47	43	39	36	33	31	30	29
28	26	25	24	23	22	24	27	35	49	58	60	59	59	56	52	48	43	39	36	33	31	30	29
28	26	25	23	21	21	22	26	35	53	64	65	62	62	59	54	49	44	40	36	33	32	30	29
28	26	24	22	20	19	20	24	40	72	80	75	68	68	63	57	52	46	40	37	34	32	31	29
28	27	24	22	19	17	17	23	51	121	135	106	79	79	68	61	54	47	42	38	35	33	31	30
30	28	26	23	21	20	21	30	78	255	277	158	102	102	78	64	56	49	43	39	36	34	32	31
31	30	27	26	25	26	29	40	111	334	353	197	124	124	90	69	57	50	44	40	37	35	33	32
33	32	31	30	29	31	34	43	84	212	251	170	122	122	93	71	58	51	46	41	38	36	35	34
34	33	33	33	34	35	39	47	63	104	136	124	107	107	86	70	60	53	48	44	40	38	37	35
35	35	35	35	36	38	42	48	60	88	114	109	98	98	81	68	59	53	49	45	42	39	38	37
36	36	36	37	38	40	44	49	59	80	99	97	90	90	77	66	59	54	49	46	43	41	39	38
37	38	38	39	40	42	46	50	58	72	85	86	82	82	72	65	58	54	50	47	44	42	40	39
38	38	39	40	42	44	47	51	57	66	75	77	76	76	69	63	58	54	51	47	45	42	41	40

FRONT											SEGMENT 21				BACK								
24	22	21	19	18	17	16	17	20	25	31	35	37	37	38	37	35	33	31	29	28	27	26	25
24	22	21	19	17	16	15	16	18	25	32	36	39	39	40	39	37	34	32	30	28	27	26	25
24	23	21	18	16	14	13	14	17	24	33	38	41	41	42	41	38	36	33	31	29	28	27	26
25	23	21	18	15	13	11	11	14	24	35	43	47	47	46	44	42	38	35	32	30	29	28	27
26	24	21	18	15	12	9	8	10	23	42	55	55	55	51	50	47	43	38	35	32	30	29	28
28	26	23	20	17	15	12	10	9	22	57	76	70	70	63	57	52	47	42	36	35	33	31	29
30	28	26	23	21	19	17	15	14	25	61	87	84	84	76	67	57	51	45	40	37	35	33	31
32	31	29	27	26	25	24	24	26	34	63	86	88	88	82	74	63	55	49	44	40	37	35	34
34	33	32	31	31	31	32	33	37	46	66	81	86	86	83	76	67	60	54	48	44	40	38	36
35	35	34	33	33	34	35	37	40	49	65	77	81	81	79	73	66	60	54	49	45	42	40	37
37	36	36	36	36	37	38	40	44	51	64	74	77	77	75	70	65	59	54	50	46	43	41	39
38	38	37	38	38	40	41	44	47	53	53	70	73	73	71	68	63	59	54	50	47	44	42	40
39	39	39	39	40	42	44	46	49	54	62	67	70	70	69	66	62	58	55	51	47	45	43	41

FRONT												SEGMENT 22		BACK											
31	29	27	24	21	19	16	18	19	22	27	30	33	33	35	35	35	35	34	34	33	33	33	33	32	31
32	29	27	24	21	18	16	16	17	21	27	31	34	34	37	37	37	36	36	35	35	34	34	34	33	32
32	30	27	24	20	17	15	14	15	20	27	31	36	36	38	39	39	38	37	37	36	35	35	34	34	32
33	31	28	24	19	16	13	11	12	18	26	33	39	39	42	43	43	42	41	40	39	38	37	36	35	33
36	33	29	25	20	15	11	9	8	14	26	38	44	44	46	49	50	49	47	45	43	41	40	38	37	36
39	37	33	28	25	21	17	12	9	12	28	46	54	54	56	57	59	57	54	51	48	45	43	41	40	39
43	41	37	34	31	28	25	20	15	17	34	54	63	63	66	69	68	64	60	56	52	49	47	44	44	43
48	46	44	41	39	37	35	33	32	33	47	63	72	72	77	82	79	73	68	62	57	54	52	49	48	48
50	49	48	46	46	46	46	47	48	52	62	73	79	79	86	89	88	84	78	71	65	60	57	53	51	50
52	51	50	50	49	50	51	52	53	57	66	75	80	80	86	88	87	83	78	72	66	62	58	55	53	52
54	53	53	52	53	53	55	56	57	61	69	76	80	80	85	86	85	82	77	72	67	63	60	57	55	54
56	55	55	55	56	57	58	60	62	65	72	77	80	80	83	84	83	81	77	72	68	64	61	59	57	56
57	57	57	57	56	59	61	63	65	68	74	78	80	80	82	83	82	80	76	72	68	65	62	60	58	57

FRONT												SEGMENT 23		BACK											
39	37	34	30	26	23	21	19	20	22	26	28	31	31	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	41	41	41	39
40	37	34	30	25	22	19	18	18	21	25	29	32	32	35	37	38	39	40	41	42	42	43	42	42	40
41	38	35	30	25	20	17	16	16	19	25	29	33	33	36	38	40	41	42	43	44	44	44	44	43	41
43	40	36	30	24	19	15	12	12	17	23	29	35	35	38	41	43	45	47	48	48	47	47	46	45	43
46	43	38	32	26	19	14	10	8	13	22	31	38	38	42	46	50	53	54	55	54	52	51	49	48	46
52	49	44	38	32	27	21	15	10	10	22	36	43	43	47	52	58	61	63	62	60	58	56	53	53	52
58	56	50	45	41	36	30	23	16	15	25	40	48	46	53	60	66	69	70	69	66	63	61	59	58	58
63	62	59	54	51	47	43	38	33	30	37	48	55	55	61	71	76	78	78	76	72	69	67	65	63	63
66	65	63	61	59	58	56	53	50	48	52	58	63	63	72	79	85	88	87	84	80	76	73	70	67	66
68	67	65	64	62	61	60	58	56	55	58	62	66	66	74	80	85	87	87	84	80	77	74	71	69	68
69	68	67	66	65	65	64	62	61	60	62	66	69	69	75	80	84	86	85	83	80	77	75	72	70	69
70	70	69	68	68	68	67	66	66	65	67	70	71	71	77	80	83	84	84	82	80	78	75	73	72	70
71	71	70	70	70	70	70	69	69	69	70	72	73	73	77	81	83	84	83	82	80	78	76	74	72	71

FRONT												SEGMENT 24		BACK											
53	50	46	41	35	29	26	23	21	22	24	25	27	27	30	32	33	36	39	42	46	49	52	53	54	53
54	51	47	42	35	29	24	21	19	20	23	25	28	28	30	32	34	37	40	44	48	51	54	55	56	54
56	53	49	43	35	28	23	19	17	18	22	25	28	28	31	33	35	38	41	46	50	53	56	57	58	56
60	57	52	45	36	28	20	15	13	15	20	25	29	29	32	34	37	40	44	49	53	57	59	61	61	60
66	64	59	52	41	30	20	13	9	11	18	25	30	30	33	36	40	44	49	54	59	63	65	65	65	66
76	77	73	64	54	43	30	19	11	9	17	27	32	32	36	39	44	49	55	60	66	69	71	72	74	76
87	89	85	76	66	55	42	29	18	13	19	30	35	35	38	44	49	54	59	65	71	75	79	81	83	87
94	96	94	87	77	68	56	45	35	27	29	36	40	40	44	50	56	60	66	73	78	82	87	90	92	94
97	98	96	92	86	79	70	61	52	44	42	44	47	47	52	58	64	69	75	82	87	91	93	95	96	97
97	97	96	92	87	81	73	65	58	51	48	49	51	51	56	61	66	71	77	83	88	91	93	95	96	97
96	96	95	91	87	82	76	69	63	57	54	54	55	55	59	64	66	73	78	83	86	91	93	95	96	95
96	96	94	91	87	83	78	73	67	62	59	59	59	59	63	66	71	75	79	83	87	90	92	94	95	96
95	95	93	91	88	84	80	75	71	66	63	62	62	62	65	68	72	76	80	84	87	90	92	94	95	95

FRONT													SEGMENT 25	BACK												
116	122	127	134	142	148	152	154	153	146	135	129	123	123	121	122	123	124	124	123	121	119	117	115	115	116	
113	118	122	128	135	140	143	143	144	138	128	123	118	118	116	117	118	119	119	118	116	115	113	112	112	113	
110	114	117	122	127	130	132	133	133	128	120	116	114	112	111	112	113	114	114	113	112	110	109	108	109	110	
105	107	109	107	104	103	100	96	92	97	104	105	103	103	104	104	104	104	104	104	104	103	103	103	104	105	
97	97	95	86	76	69	59	50	45	57	75	84	91	91	95	93	92	91	91	92	93	94	95	97	98	97	
83	80	75	64	52	40	31	23	18	25	42	60	72	72	79	82	80	79	80	81	82	84	87	88	87	83	
70	65	59	50	39	30	22	15	11	13	25	43	55	55	64	67	69	71	72	73	75	76	76	77	75	70	
60	56	49	42	36	30	24	18	15	14	22	34	43	43	51	53	57	60	62	64	66	67	66	66	64	60	
54	51	46	40	36	31	27	23	20	19	24	30	35	35	40	43	45	47	49	52	54	55	56	57	56	54	
52	49	45	40	36	32	28	25	23	22	26	31	34	34	38	41	43	45	47	49	51	52	53	54	54	52	
50	48	44	40	36	33	30	27	25	25	27	31	34	34	37	39	41	43	45	47	49	50	51	51	51	50	
48	46	43	39	37	34	31	29	28	27	29	32	34	34	36	38	40	41	43	45	46	48	49	49	49	48	
47	45	42	39	37	35	33	31	30	29	30	32	33	33	35	37	39	40	42	43	45	46	47	47	47	47	

FRONT													SEGMENT 26	BACK												
66	62	58	53	47	42	39	37	38	43	50	56	60	60	63	63	63	63	63	64	65	65	67	68	68	66	
68	64	59	53	46	41	37	34	35	42	51	57	63	63	65	66	65	65	65	66	67	68	69	70	70	68	
70	66	61	54	46	39	34	32	32	40	51	59	66	66	68	69	68	67	67	68	69	70	71	72	72	70	
73	69	64	56	48	40	33	28	28	38	52	63	71	71	73	74	74	73	72	73	73	74	75	75	75	73	
79	76	70	64	56	46	37	30	28	39	58	76	81	81	81	82	83	82	80	80	80	81	81	80	79	79	
91	89	85	81	81	79	76	70	62	67	90	109	107	107	99	94	94	92	90	89	89	89	88	87	89	91	
103	105	103	104	110	117	125	130	147	178	172	157	140	140	122	114	108	103	99	97	96	96	97	98	100	103	
117	120	124	129	136	147	167	195	246	296	261	211	180	180	154	143	130	122	116	112	110	109	110	111	113	117	
126	129	135	144	155	172	196	228	267	307	290	245	211	211	188	171	157	149	141	134	129	126	125	124	124	126	
131	135	142	151	162	177	199	227	258	290	278	242	214	214	194	178	166	157	149	143	137	134	131	130	131	131	
137	141	148	157	167	180	199	222	247	271	263	236	214	214	198	183	172	164	156	149	144	140	138	136	136	137	
143	147	153	162	172	184	200	218	236	253	248	230	215	215	201	189	178	171	163	156	151	146	144	142	142	143	
146	151	159	166	176	186	200	214	228	240	237	226	216	216	204	192	183	175	168	161	155	151	148	147	146	146	

APPENDIX E

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS CALCULATED FROM
IN-VIVO BODY-SURFACE MEASUREMENTS

FRAME 121

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)

4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
25	-18	35	150	41	13	8	-16
30	-24	0	94	-18	-3	-12	30
-2	-8	30	0	-8	-36	12	0
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)

-348	-348	-348	-348	-348	-348	-348	-348
-2396	744	-12	629	48	215	-293	1316
140	-266	-7	-54	87	115	-408	156
-54	69	25	2	-183	77	109	-111
11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11

FRAME 141

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)

-25	-25	-25	-25	-25	-25	-25	-25
-8	24	206	301	53	-10	-53	-41
-16	-22	117	178	-33	-25	-38	-24
-41	-12	51	8	-20	-80	-30	-48
-13	-13	-13	-13	-13	-13	-13	-13

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)

-813	-813	-813	-813	-813	-813	-813	-813
-2686	1144	-26	1763	-1061	1755	-2053	2711
-92	-344	-12	-178	807	-1304	1273	-1541
141	68	53	3	-401	528	-727	359
24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24

FRAME 131

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)

-8	-8	-8	-8	-8	-8	-8	-8
0	2	135	260	38	-4	-16	-33
-2	-16	93	135	-46	-33	-33	-10
-38	-19	36	-16	-32	-72	-24	-30
-12	-12	-12	-12	-12	-12	-12	-12

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)

-705	-705	-705	-705	-705	-705	-705	-705
-3310	1186	-33	1495	-334	1261	-1293	2503
73	-377	-2	-164	700	-1095	717	-1185
79	77	43	5	-374	520	-561	266
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8

FRAME 151

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)

-30	-30	-30	-30	-30	-30	-30	-30
-27	-25	211	346	60	-18	-62	-55
22	-32	138	235	-10	-32	-33	-30
-41	-12	90	24	-27	-51	-22	-41
-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)

-866	-866	-866	-866	-866	-866	-866	-866
-4419	1444	-53	1882	-1321	2054	-2663	3815
175	-452	4	-189	1243	-2525	2430	-2575
34	107	51	9	-665	1295	-1618	765
30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30

FRAME 121

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)

8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
30	-15	37	143	38	7	3	-21
32	-16	8	93	-18	-4	-5	20
5	-3	28	8	-12	-39	9	9
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)

1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
-55	62	49	255	67	-6	-8	6
9	24	39	61	119	-79	-43	13
-27	-9	17	62	-71	-79	-54	-27
16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16

FRAME 141

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)

-31	-31	-31	-31	-31	-31	-31	-31
-10	23	205	296	44	-8	-53	-38
-19	-25	108	168	-40	-24	-29	-31
-32	-7	58	6	-19	-71	-20	-52
-5	-5	-5	-5	-5	-5	-5	-5

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)

-27	-27	-27	-27	-27	-27	-27	-27
22	149	138	527	60	-37	-88	-63
87	85	92	120	217	-212	-120	-165
-10	47	58	111	-133	-142	-123	-111
30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30

FRAME 131

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)

1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
-6	-3	135	265	37	-1	-7	-34
-2	-18	89	140	-37	-43	-32	-15
-44	-13	38	-16	-31	-62	-28	-34
-4	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)

-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3
-30	145	100	477	59	-25	-25	-31
77	78	33	106	198	-251	-107	-96
-4	43	52	99	-113	-118	-101	-106
20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20

FRAME 151

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)

-38	-38	-38	-38	-38	-38	-38	-38
-37	-33	136	353	68	-19	-52	-56
12	-27	129	239	-7	-24	-30	-35
-48	-20	75	24	-21	-42	-14	-45
-15	-15	-15	-15	-15	-15	-15	-15

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)

-36	-36	-36	-36	-36	-36	-36	-36
-130	138	117	622	96	-59	-99	-98
59	85	108	152	298	-266	-151	-213
-32	48	74	155	-151	-163	-133	-167
45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45

FRAME 161

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)							
-32	-32	-32	-32	-32	-32	-32	-32
-13	-45	259	424	166	15	-67	-74
-32	-43	131	321	10	-3	-24	-44
-42	-22	113	54	-9	-35	-13	-53
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)							
-36	-36	-36	-36	-36	-36	-36	-36
-180	142	134	740	158	-67	-132	-102
57	100	133	189	386	-272	-172	-285
-41	67	100	206	-177	-197	-163	-199
63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63

FRAME 181

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)							
-77	-77	-77	-77	-77	-77	-77	-77
-125	-143	213	678	208	31	-169	-198
-34	-121	2+2	631	114	5	-78	-116
-88	-77	175	172	53	-17	-36	-87
-9	-9	-9	-9	-9	-9	-9	-9

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)							
-82	-82	-82	-82	-82	-82	-82	-82
-496	123	133	1160	294	-127	-312	-295
-39	103	201	323	704	-489	-425	-669
-195	41	156	389	-245	-330	-323	-424
136	136	136	136	136	136	136	136

FRAME 171

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)							
-58	-58	-58	-58	-58	-58	-58	-58
-78	-104	228	539	158	18	-105	-116
-62	-59	137	447	47	15	-56	-72
-61	-47	138	111	49	-11	-19	-62
-6	-6	-6	-6	-6	-6	-6	-6

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)							
-60	-60	-60	-60	-60	-60	-60	-60
-356	143	160	931	238	-95	-202	-197
18	103	153	243	522	-296	-300	-443
-106	43	113	277	-137	-221	-224	-296
94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94

FRAME 191

BODY-SURFACE POTENTIALS (MICROVOLTS)							
-112	-112	-112	-112	-112	-112	-112	-112
-189	-216	133	846	295	30	-207	-244
-122	-162	252	783	189	76	-72	-130
-96	-68	224	279	142	43	-20	-97
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

EPICARDIAL POTENTIALS (10 MICROVOLTS)							
-116	-116	-116	-116	-116	-116	-116	-116
-723	96	239	1439	435	-179	-394	-406
-121	89	233	405	304	-373	-497	-323
-276	4	170	467	-234	-339	-375	-533
180	180	130	180	180	180	180	180

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