

Chapter 1

An Introduction to ECG Interpretation

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1.1 Introduction

Electrocardiography is a method that registers electrical activity against time. The changes in electrical potential difference (voltage) during depolarization and repolarisation of the myocardial fibers are recorded by electrodes positioned on the surface of the chest and on the limb (limb leads). The sources of the electrical potentials are contractile cardiac muscle cells (cardiomyocytes). The ECG waveform is either printed onto graph paper that runs at a constant speed or shown on a computer screen. The advantages of electrocardiography come with its low cost, immediate availability and easy implementation. The procedure itself is also non-invasive.

The electrocardiogram (ECG) is used to investigate some types of abnormal heart function including arrhythmias and conduction disturbances, as well as heart morphology (e.g., the orientation of the heart in the chest cavity, hypertrophy, and evolving myocardial ischemia or infarction). It is also useful for assessing performance of pacemakers.

1.2 The Electrical Conduction System of the Heart

Cardiac muscle is composed of two main cell types: cardiomyocytes, which generate electrical potentials during contraction, and cells specialized in the generation and conduction of the action potentials. These specialized electrical cells depolarize spontaneously. At rest, cardiomyocytes are polarized with an electrical membrane

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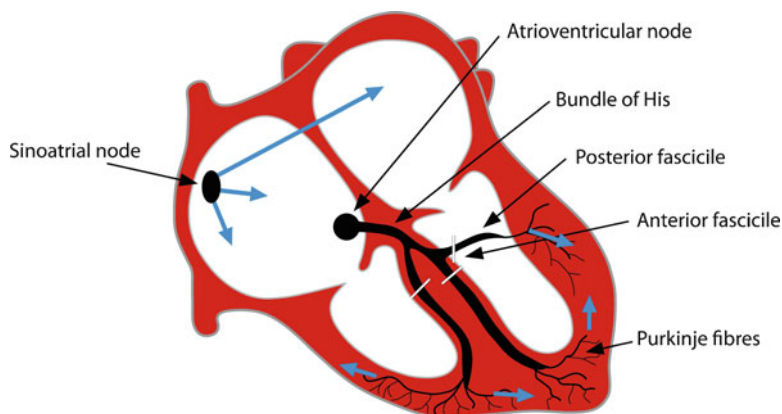


Fig. 1.1 The electrical conduction system of the heart

potential of about -90 mV. Excitation by an external stimulus can trigger a rapid reversal of the electrical potential of working myocardial cells (depolarization). The depolarization is usually due to a sudden increase in permeability of the membrane to sodium, which allows positively charged sodium ions to enter the cell. In some cardiac cells the action potential is carried by calcium ions instead of sodium ions. The downward swing of the action potential, or repolarisation phase, is mainly due to the movement of potassium ions out of the cell. After depolarization, the muscle returns to its original electrical state. During the repolarisation, the cardiac muscle is incapable of being stimulated (i.e., is refractory), which protects it against premature activation.

The conduction system of the heart is shown in Fig. 1.1. The sinoatrial node (S-A) has the highest rate of spontaneous depolarization and acts as the primary pacemaker. At normal condition, the S-A node generates impulses that stimulate the atria to contract. This node is located in the superior wall of the right atrium, close to the opening of the superior vena cava. Other elements of the conduction system include the atrioventricular node (A-V), located between the atria and the ventricles, in the lower atrial septum adjacent to the annulus of the mitral valve, and the bundle of His. The bundle of His divides into a right and left branch at the level of membranous part of the interventricular septum. The left branch is further branched into an anterior and posterior bundle. The Purkinje fibers are the final component of the conduction system, which are intertwined with muscle fibers and the papillary muscles. Their task is to conduct the wavefronts directly to the two ventricles so that they contract simultaneously. The Purkinje fibers have intrinsic automaticity (ventricular escape rhythm) generating approximately 30 bpm (beats per minute). The cells of the A-V node also depolarize spontaneously but at a higher rate (about 40–50 bpm) and this automaticity is called (escape) junctional rhythm. In physiological conditions the automaticity of these rescue pacemakers is suppressed by the activity of the S-A node.

If electrical activity appears on the ECG recording later than expected (i.e., the R-R interval is longer than the R-R interval in sinus rhythm), this means that an action potential originated in one of the lower pacemakers. However, the appearance of activity earlier than expected indicates the presence of a premature ectopic beat.

Extrasystolic beats are usually followed by compensatory pause. A full compensatory pause occurs after ventricular premature beats, see Fig. 1.16, and an incomplete compensatory pause occurs in cases of supraventricular premature beats. This happens because of the depolarization of the A-V node if the activity is supraventricular and its changes firing rate of the S-A node (Fig. 1.4).

The activity of the S-A node is regulated mainly by the autonomic nervous system. An activation of sympathetic fibers causes an increase in the heart rate, while activation of the parasympathetic fibers results in a decrease in this rate. The normal heart rate at rest is approximately 60–70bpm but is lower at night during sleep. The heart rhythm is normally regular except for minor variations with respiration especially in young individuals.

Using the terminology associated with electrical devices, the conduction system of the heart can be described as a pacemaker (S-A node), a resistor that simultaneously acts like a fuse (the A-V node) and two insulated electrical cables (branches of the bundle of His) (Fig. 1.1). The term “resistor” for the property of the A-V node is appropriate because it slows down the depolarization (conduction velocity through the A-V node is slower than in other parts of the conducting system –0.05 m/s vs. 4 m/s, respectively). This delay enables the transfer of blood from the atria to the ventricles and is responsible for ensuring that the sequence of ventricular contraction follows atrial contraction.

The comparison between the A-V node and a “fuse” is appropriate because the A-V node possesses Wenckebach’s point, which is thought to maintain the ratio of maximum conduction of the supraventricular impulses to ventricles at 1:1. Under normal conditions this is about 180 impulses/min. In certain situations, such as in atrial fibrillation, Wenckebach’s point provides protection against the propagation of atrial fibrillation to ventricular fibrillation. In the presence of accessory conduction pathways bypassing the atrioventricular A-V node, this mechanism can fail and atrial flutter or fibrillation can therefore progress to ventricular flutter or fibrillation.

A properly functioning conduction system guarantees an appropriate heart rate and sequential contractions of the atria and ventricles. Cardiac electrical dysfunction can be caused by damage to or improper functioning of any of the components of the conduction system separately or in combination with other problems (for example, sinus bradycardia and bundle-branch block). Other causes of cardiac arrhythmias can be a pathological stimulus generation (for example, premature ectopic beats) or pathological conductive loops. Re-entry, which is a recurrence of electrical impulses, is the most common mechanism responsible for the occurrence of paroxysmal and persistent tachycardia. A common arrhythmia that arises in this manner is atrial flutter. For this phenomenon to occur, a re-entry circuit formed by two conduction pathways is necessary. Impulses in the first pathway travel at high velocity (the fast pathway) while impulses in the second pathway travel at a

considerably lower velocity (the slow pathway). This means there is a delay between the arrival of the two signals, so that when the second impulse arrives, the cells are no longer refractory.

1.3 Electrical Axis and Orientation of the Heart in the Chest Cavity

Bipolar limb leads (I, II, III) developed by Willem Einthoven (Fig. 1.2) aim to calculate the mean depolarization vector of the heart in the frontal plane (the electrical axis of the heart) (Figs. 1.20a, b). The normal range of the electric axis lies between $+30^\circ$ and -110° in the frontal plane.

The morphology of the ECG recorded depends on the orientation of the heart. The unipolar augmented limb leads of Goldberger (aVR, aVL, and aVF) are used in determining the orientation of the heart. If the position of the heart is vertical as, for example, in asthenic women, the net deflection of the QRS complex in lead aVF is positive and it resembles lead V6 in morphology. Meanwhile, the QRS complex

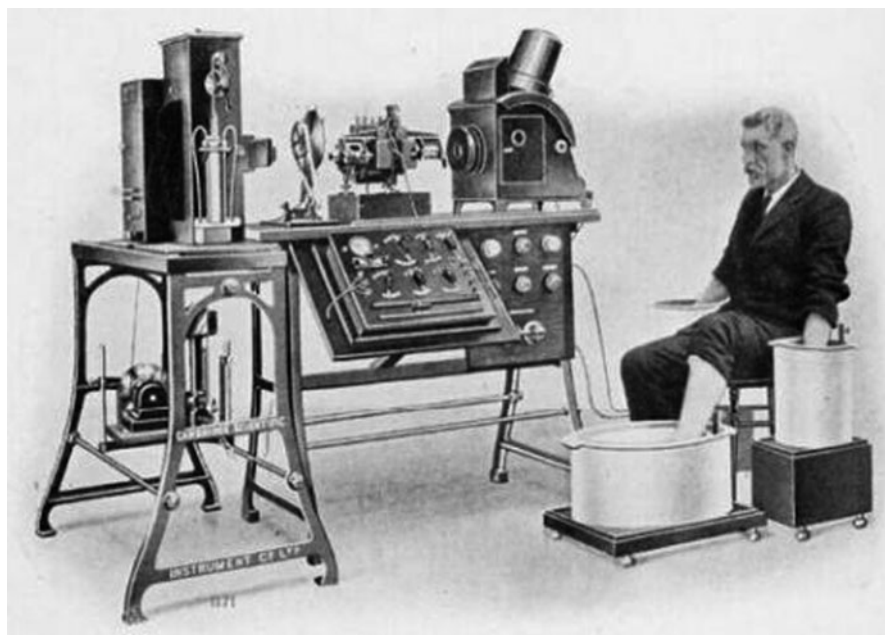


Fig. 1.2 The ECG machine constructed by [Willem Einthoven \(1860–1927\)](#). The patient is connected to the galvanometer and both hands and one leg are immersed in saline containers. The electrodes connected by cables to the galvanometer are called the limb leads. Einthoven was awarded the Nobel Prize for his discovery of mechanism of electrocardiography

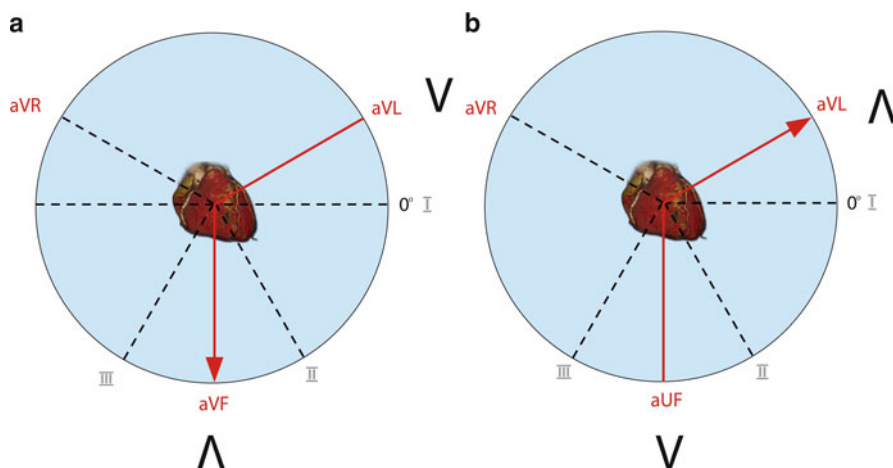


Fig. 1.3 The orientation of the heart in chest cavity. *Panel (a)* – vertical position. *Panel (b)* – horizontal position of the heart. A fundamental principle of ECG recording is that when the wave of depolarization travels toward a recording lead this results in positive or upward deflection. In contrast, if the wave of depolarization travels away, it results in negative or downward deflection

in lead aVL is negative and resembles lead V1 (Fig. 1.3a). In contrast, when the orientation of the heart is horizontal, for example, in an endomorphic individual or in someone whose diaphragm is in a high position, the QRS complex in lead aVF resembles lead V1 (the net deflection of the QRS complex is negative) and lead aVL resembles lead V6 (Fig. 1.3b).

The placement of Wilson's unipolar precordial leads is as follows:

- V1: 4th intercostal space, right of the sternum
- V2: 4th intercostal space, left of the sternum
- V3: halfway between V2 and V4
- V4: 5th intercostal space, left midclavicular line
- V5: anterior axillary line, where it is intersected by a perpendicular line from lead V4
- V6: midaxillary line, where it is intersected by a perpendicular line from lead V4

The chest leads sense the ECG in the transverse or horizontal plane. Leads V1 and V2 are placed above the anterior wall of the right ventricle. For this reason they are referred to as right ventricular leads. When the heart is normally oriented along the long axis, leads V5 and V6 are placed above the lateral wall of the left ventricle and are therefore known as left ventricular leads. The transitional zone between the left and right ventricles (interventricular septum) is found at the level of lead V3 and V4 (equal amplitudes of the R-wave and S-wave). In cases where the heart is rotated around its long axis the transitional zone is displaced, for example during an acute pulmonary embolism. The right ventricle is enlarged in this situation and the transitional zone is often shifted to the right toward the leads V5 or even V6

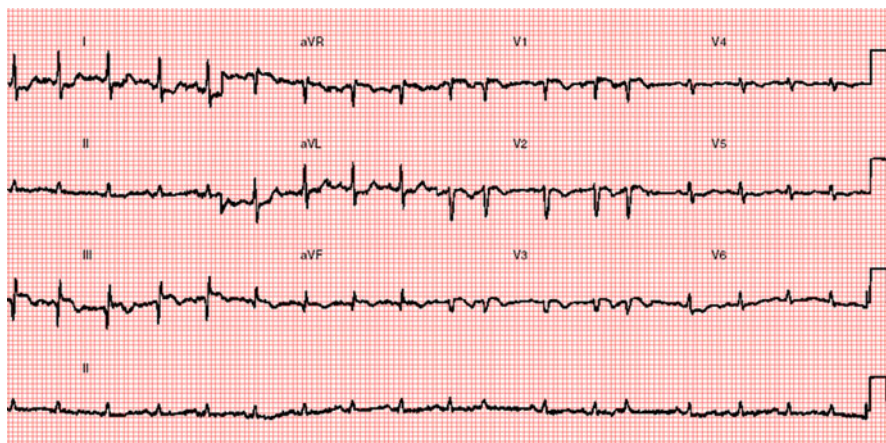


Fig. 1.4 Acute pulmonary embolism. The transitional zone in the chest leads is located near lead V5. In this situation the right ventricular leads are V1–V4. The first left ventricular lead is V6. This ECG shows the ST segment elevation in leads III, aVF, and V1–V3 with negative T-waves in these leads (characteristic pattern of ischaemia of the right ventricle). The eleventh and fourteenth cardiac cycles are premature supraventricular beats. The compensatory pause is incomplete. The RR interval including premature contractions is shorter than double the regular R-R interval of sinus rhythm (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 8, Fig. 2.4. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

(see Fig. 1.4). According to the ECG shown in Fig. 1.4 the right ventricular leads are V1–V4 and the left ventricular lead is V6. For this reason, the right ventricular leads are best defined as lying to the right of the transitional zone, while the left ventricular leads lie to the left of the transitional zone. In patients with cyanotic congenital heart defect with significant hypertrophy and enlargement of the right ventricle, most or even all of the precordial leads can be found overlying the right ventricle. In these situations the displacement of the transitional area is accompanied by a high voltage wave in V1 and V2, which is typical for right ventricular hypertrophy.

1.4 Waves, Segments, and Intervals

There are certain elements in the ECG waveform (Fig. 1.5):

- The isoelectric line: a horizontal line when there is no electrical activity on ECG.
- Segments: the duration of the isoelectric line between waves
- Intervals: the time between the same segments of adjacent waves.

The P-wave is the first deflection of the ECG. It results from depolarization of the atria. Atrial repolarisation occurs during ventricular depolarization and is obscured. The QRS complex corresponds to the ventricular depolarization.

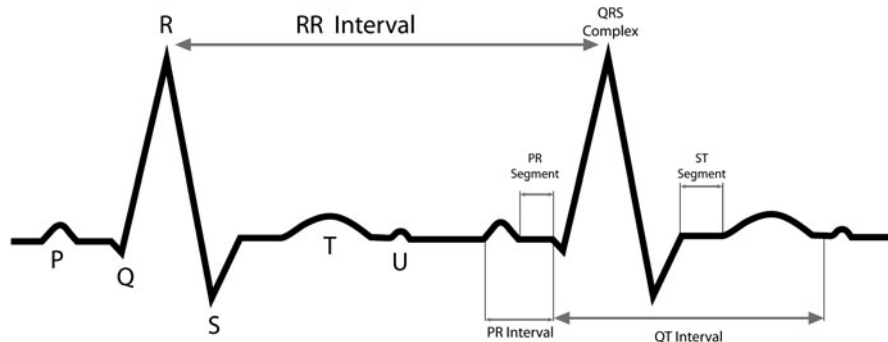


Fig. 1.5 The ECG waves, segments, and intervals

The T-wave represents ventricular repolarisation, i.e., restoration of the resting membrane potential. In about one-quarter of population, a U-wave can be seen after the T-wave. This usually has the same polarity as the preceding T-wave. It has been suggested that the U-wave is caused by after-potentials that are probably generated by mechanical–electric feedback. Inverted U-waves can appear in the presence of left ventricular hypertrophy or ischaemia.

The PQ segment corresponds to electrical impulses transmitted through the S-A node, bundle of His and its branches, and the Purkinje fibers and is usually isoelectric. The PQ interval expresses the time elapsed from atrial depolarization to the onset of ventricular depolarization. The ST-T interval coincides with the slow and rapid repolarisation of ventricular muscle. The QT interval corresponds to the duration of the ventricular action potential and repolarisation. Then TP interval is the period for which the atria and ventricles are in diastole. The RR interval represents one cardiac cycle and is used to calculate the heart rate.

1.5 Interpretation of the ECG

After describing the predominant heart rhythm, the mean electrical axis, and the position of the heart in the chest, the next step of the ECG analysis is to evaluate the shape, amplitude, and duration of the waves, segments, and intervals.

1.6 The P-wave

The P-wave is usually positive in most leads (but it is always negative in aVR) (Fig. 1.18). It can sometimes have a negative deflection in leads III and V1 or be biphasic in these leads and in lead aVL. The normal duration of the P-wave is

no longer than 0.12 s, and the voltage in the limb leads should not exceed 0.25 and 0.15 mV in the precordial leads. A P-wave that is notched, and exceeds the values given above (voltage, duration, and polarization in the appropriate leads) is considered abnormal. This can result from atria enlargement and hypertrophy or from atrial depolarization generated in locations other than the S-A node.

1.7 The PQ Interval

The normal range for the PQ interval is 0.12–0.20 s. Longer PQ intervals are seen in cases of first- or second-degree atrioventricular block. The PQ interval can be shortened in pre-excitation syndromes, in which depolarizations from the atria are transmitted to the ventricles via an anomalous accessory conduction pathway that bypasses the A-V node.

1.8 The QRS Complex

This is the largest group of waves on the ECG and represents ventricular depolarization. The first downward deflection is the Q-wave. The first upward deflection is called the R-wave. The S-wave is the last downward deflection of the QRS complex. The Q-wave is not a constant component of the QRS (ventricular) complex.

During physiological conduction through the branches of the bundle of His, the left and right ventricle are depolarized simultaneously and contract along the direction of ventricular outflow tract. Ventricular depolarization propagates from the medial part of the septum downward through the apex of the heart and further along the free wall of the ventricles toward the base of the heart. The normal duration of the QRS complex does not exceed 0.12 s. The voltage usually varies between 1.5 and 2.0 mV. Durations greater than 0.12 s are most likely due to an asynchronous depolarization of both ventricles. This occurs in cases of bundle-branch block, pre-excitation syndromes, or premature ventricular contraction. In these situations, one ventricle is depolarized earlier than the other. In such cases the QRS complex consists of one R-wave followed by an R'-wave. These waves correspond to the depolarization of one and then the other ventricle, respectively. In this situation the QRS complex gets subsequently wider. If the widened and notched QRS complex is most pronounced in the right ventricular leads V1 and V2 (Fig. 1.6) then it could be caused by a right bundle-branch block. Analogously, if a notched QRS complex is recorded in the left ventricular leads V5 and V6, it may result from a left bundle-branch block (Fig. 1.7). If there is a pre-excitation syndrome with an accessory conduction pathway located on the right side, then the QRS complex mimics left bundle-branch block morphology. Similarly, if a premature beat originates in the right ventricle, then the QRS complex can also resemble left bundle-branch block. In both of these situations the right ventricle is

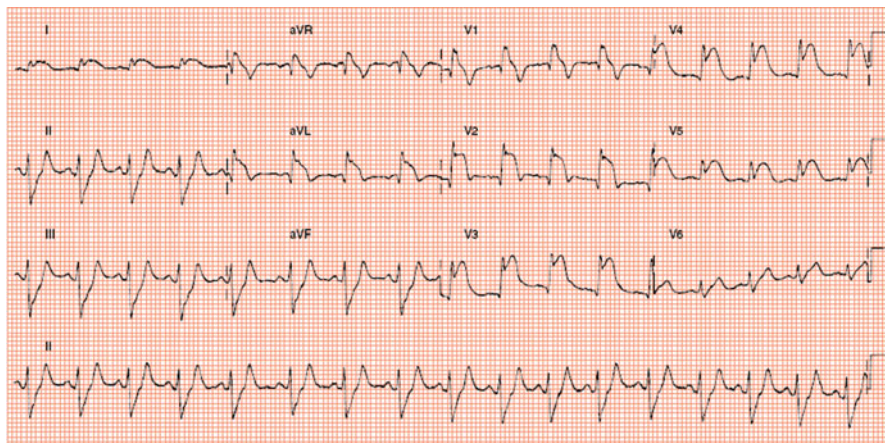


Fig. 1.6 Right bundle-branch block during an anterior wall MI showing ST segment elevation in leads V1–V6 and in leads I and aVL. There is a reciprocal ST segment depression in leads II, III, and aVF (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 112, Fig. 10.1.2a. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

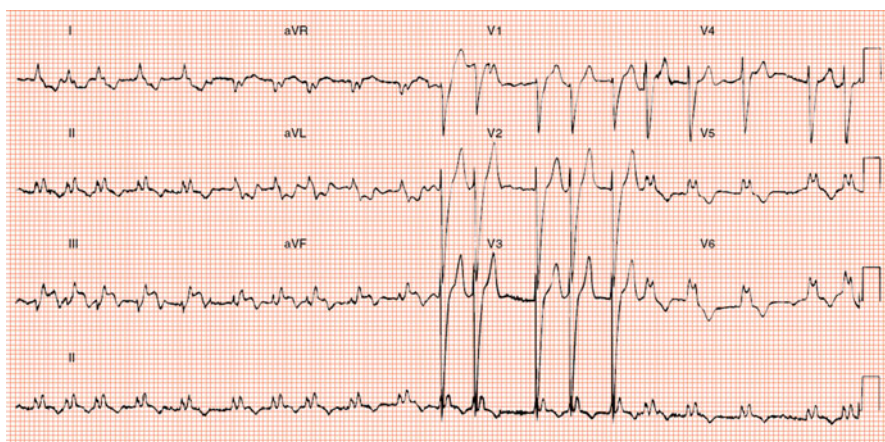


Fig. 1.7 Irregular heart rhythm (atrial fibrillation and left bundle-branch block). Notched and widened QRS complex with secondary changes in the ST segment and T-wave (ST segment depression and T-waves opposite to net deflection of QRS complex). Note the ST segment elevation in leads II, II and aVF (an inferior wall MI) (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 118, Fig. 10.2.2. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

depolarized first, as in left bundle-branch block. In pre-excitation syndromes with an accessory conduction pathway located on the left side of the heart, or when a premature beat originates in the left ventricle, the widened QRS complex occurs in the right ventricular leads. In this case the QRS complex will resemble right

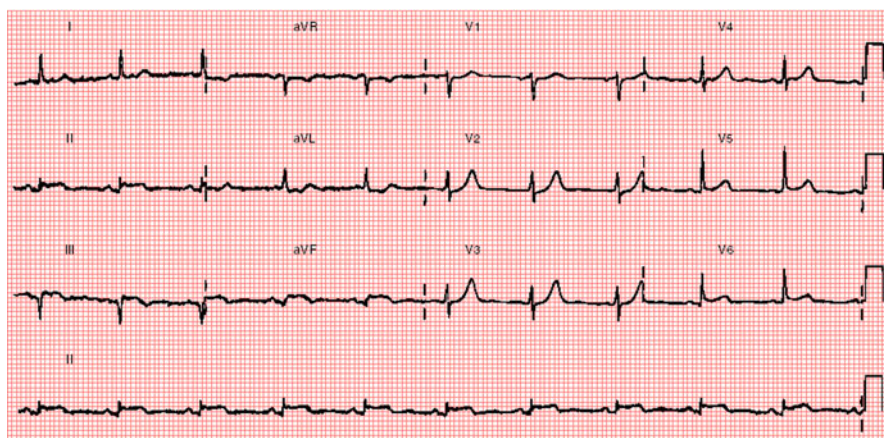


Fig. 1.8 ST segment elevation in lead III equal to the elevation in lead II, with a reciprocal ST segment depression in lead aVL. ST segment in lead I runs in the isoelectric line. The QS complex is present in leads III and aVF. ST segment elevation in leads V5 and V6. High R-wave (R-wave voltage is greater than S) in lead V2 with a positive T-wave. Evolution of inferoposterolateral wall MI (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 81, Fig. 8.1.5. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

bundle-branch block (Fig. 1.16). Widening of the QRS complex is also seen in ventricular hypertrophy although in this situation the voltage criteria for hypertrophy must also be satisfied.

A small Q-wave is present in leads V5 and V6 and comes as a manifestation of depolarization of the septum. Each Q-wave in the precordial leads (except for the QS complex in V1) or widened and deep Q-waves in leads V5 or V6 are considered to be pathological and indicate the presence of necrotic tissue after a myocardial infarction (MI). A Q-wave in leads II, III, and aVF is considered pathological when the duration is longer than 0.03 s and its amplitude greater than 25% of the height of the R-wave and 50% of the voltage of the R-wave in lead aVL. In the case of a myocardial scar of the left ventricle posterior wall the equivalent of a Q-wave in leads V1 and V2 is an R-wave greater than the S-wave in one of these leads. Usually in this situation, the T-wave in leads V1 and V2 is positive (Figs. 1.8 and 1.16).

1.9 The ST Segment

The ST segment is a part of the ECG from the QRS complex (the J point) to the onset of the T-wave. It is normally isoelectric. The most important reason for ST segment elevation is an MI (Fig. 1.9), but it can also occur in the course of other diseases such as pericarditis (Fig. 1.10) and pulmonary embolism (Fig. 1.4) or can be a persistent abnormality in subjects with a post-MI left ventricular aneurysm.

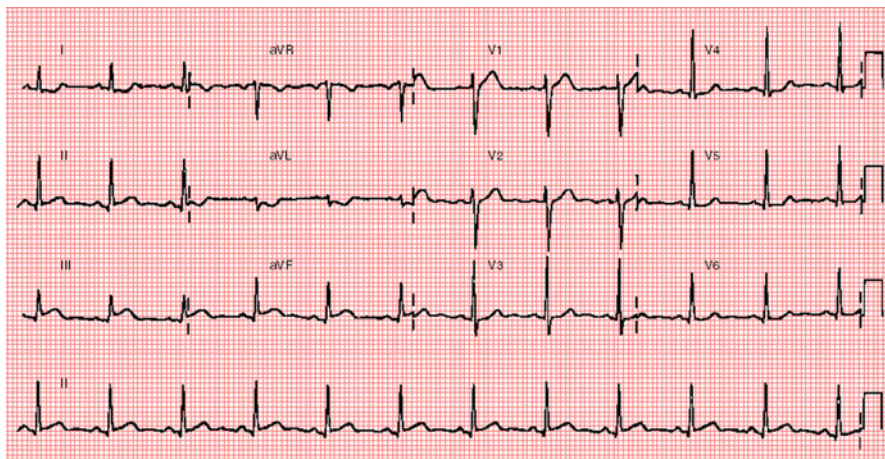


Fig. 1.9 ST segment elevation in leads II, III, and aVF. The ST segment elevation in lead III is higher than in lead II. The ST segment elevation in the right ventricular lead V1 and the lack of a reciprocal ST segment depression in lead V2 indicate that the MI of the inferior wall of the left ventricle is accompanied by a right ventricular MI (This ECG pattern suggests right coronary occlusion above the origin of the right ventricular branch) (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 94, Fig. 8.2.5a. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

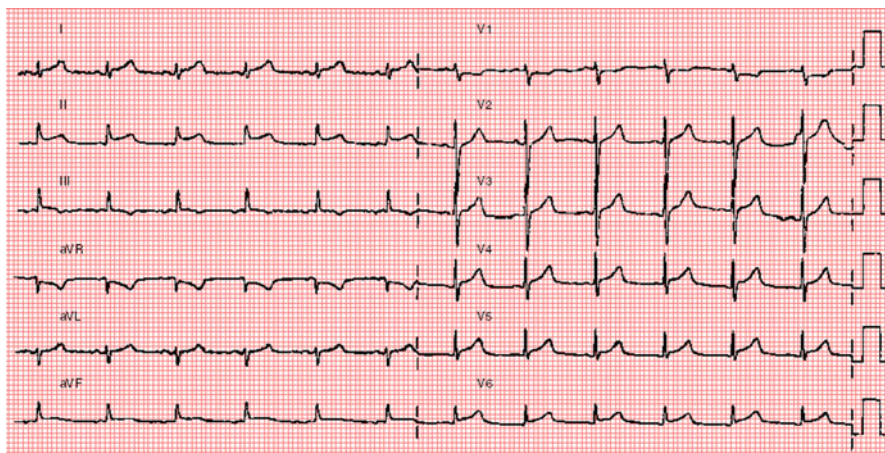


Fig. 1.10 Acute pericarditis. The widespread ST segment elevation. ST segment depression in leads aVR and V1. Note the upward concavity of the ST segment elevation and notching at the J point in leads I, II, III, and V4–V6 (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 6, Fig. 2.1. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

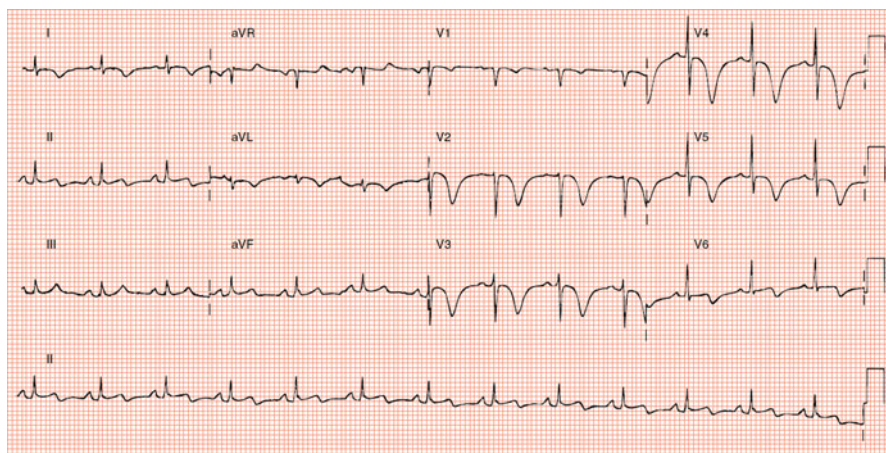


Fig. 1.11 Anterior wall MI during an occlusion of the anterior descending artery (LAD-T-wave pattern). Note the presence of deep symmetrical negative T-waves in leads V2–V5 and negative T-wave in leads I and aVL, biphasic T-wave in lead V6 and a positive T-wave in lead aVR (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 11, Fig. 2.6a. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

Other situations include a dissecting aortic aneurysm (if the dissection involves the ostium of the coronary arteries), Brugada's syndrome, hyperkalaemia, hypothermia, hypervagotonia, and early repolarisation syndrome. A displacement of the ST segment secondary to the alternation of the sequence of depolarization accompanies bundle-branch block (Figs. 1.7 and 1.16), preexcitation syndromes, and premature ventricular contraction (T-wave polarity opposite to that of the R wave).

An ST segment depression in leads aVR and V6 with an ST elevation in most of the leads is found in exudative pericarditis (Fig. 1.10). A horizontal or oblique downward depression, of the ST segment, especially in patients with chest pain, is the most specific sign of ongoing myocardial ischaemia.

1.10 T-Wave

The T-wave should be positive in most leads except for aVR and sometimes in V1, in which it can be horizontal or negative. Deeply negative T-waves can be a sign of MI, e.g., due to occlusion of the left anterior descending artery (LAD-T-wave pattern) (Fig. 1.11). Other situations include hypertrophic cardiomyopathy and subarachnoid haemorrhage. T-wave inversion sometimes occurs without obvious causes (idiopathic global T-wave inversion).

1.11 The QT Interval

The QT interval is measured from the beginning of the QRS complex to the end of the T-wave. The length of the QT interval is directly affected by the heart rate (the slower the heart rate, the longer the interval). To eliminate this influence, a corrected QT (QTc) should be calculated using either Bazett's formula ($QTc = QT/RR^{0.5}$) or Fridericia's formula ($QTc = QT/RR^{0.33}$). The disadvantage is that these formulas overestimate the QT interval when the heart rate is fast and underestimate it when the heart rate is slow. Prolongation of the QT interval can be caused by many factors, including some medications, and it is also associated with the increased risk of polymorphic tachycardia known as torsades des pointes ("twisting of the points") – sudden cardiac death can result (Dessertenne 1966). The normal range for the QT interval is up to 0.44 s.

1.12 Adjacent and Opposing Leads

When assessing the ECG it is important to be familiar with the adjacent and opposing leads. The placement of the leads in relation to the structure of the heart is shown in Fig. 1.12. The adjacent leads are: lead II and aVF and lead aVF and III. These leads represent the inferior wall of the left ventricle. The adjacent limb leads are also leads I and aVL, and represent the basal segment of the left ventricle. Among precordial leads adjacent leads are for example V5 and V6 placed in front of the lateral wall of the left ventricle. The opposing leads (groups of leads where the displacement of the ST segment in one direction is accompanied by the displacement of the ST segment in the reciprocal direction in the other group of leads) are defined as follows: leads I and aVL are opposing to leads II, III, and aVF; whether the highest ST segment elevation is seen in lead aVL, the deepest ST segment depression is present in lead III (Fig. 1.13). In unipolar leads opposing leads for V1 and V2 are leads V7 and V8 covering the posterior wall. In a plane perpendicular to the front of the limbs, the reciprocal ST segment depression in leads V1–V3 are present, with an ST elevation in the inferior wall leads or as an ST elevation in lead aVR with an ST segment depression in lead V6 and vice versa.

Knowledge about adjacent and opposing leads is necessary for assessing ECG changes seen in an ST elevation MI and helps determine the infarct-related artery, and even the localization of the occlusion. In case of an inferior wall infarct caused by occlusion of the right coronary artery, the displacement of the vector of the ST segment elevation in the limb leads is to the right, while in a myocardial infarction associated with occlusion of the circumflex coronary artery, the displacement of the ST segment elevation vector is to the left. The association between the ECG, the angiographic localization of the infarct, and diagnostic algorithms is discussed in further detail elsewhere (Poloński and Wasilewski 2004).

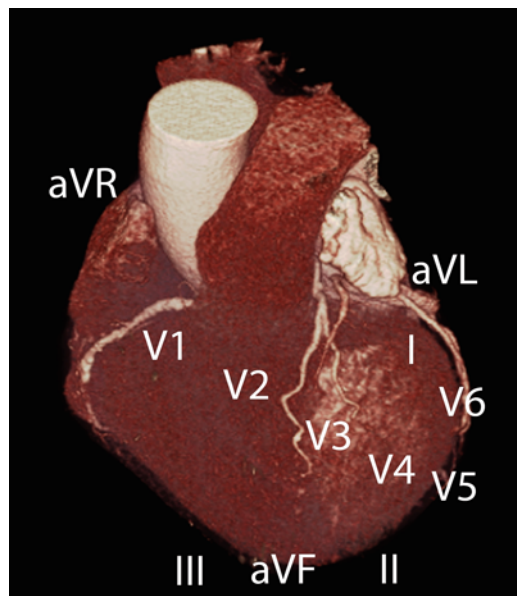


Fig. 1.12 Myocardial infarction due to the right coronary artery, the vector of the ST segment elevation is directed to the right toward lead III (the ST segment elevation in lead III is greater than in lead II and the ST segment depression in lead aVL is greater than in lead I). If the left circumflex artery is responsible for the MI then the ST segment elevation is in lead II \geq III and there is no ST segment depression in lead I (the ST segment elevation vector is directed to the left toward lead II). In an anterior wall MI the highest ST segment elevation is seen in leads V2 and V3. In a MI with occlusion of the diagonal artery or the marginal artery, ST segment elevation appears in leads I and aVL, which are the leads representing the basal segment of the heart (Fig. 1.13). ST segment elevations are accompanied by ST segment depression in the opposite leads (reciprocal or reflected ST depression)

1.13 Negative or “Inverted” Leads

Negative leads are leads that are not present in the 12-lead ECG but are formed by inversion of the 12 standard leads. The angle between them, in contrast with the opposite leads, is always 180° (opposite orientation). The names of the negative leads are analogous to the 12 standard leads, but are preceded by a minus sign. An ECG in which negative leads are analyzed is called a 24-lead ECG. It offers supplemental clinical information without increasing the number or even altering the position of the 10 standard electrodes (Figs. 1.13 and 1.15).

Even though leads V1 (V2R) and V2 (V1R) are defined as right ventricular leads, this designation is not precise. In the absence of hypertrophy or enlargement of the right ventricle, these leads represent a view of the left ventricle posterior wall as a mirror image (Figs. 1.14–1.17). The action potential of the right ventricle is too small to have any vital influence on the ECG waveform in these leads. Consequently,

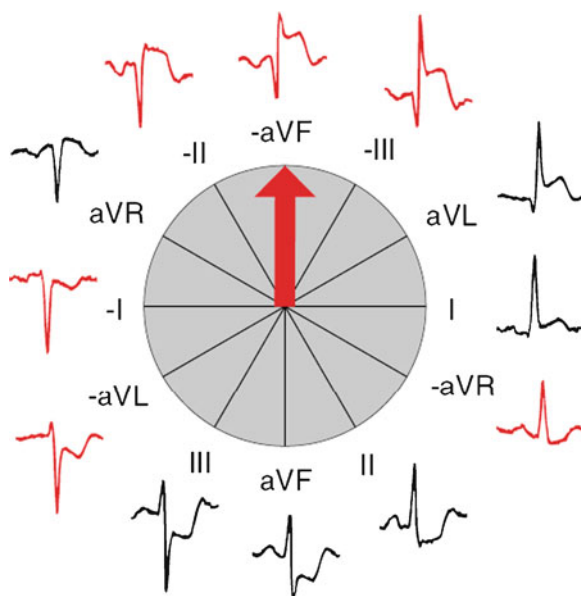


Fig. 1.13 The limb leads and corresponding negative limb leads. ST segment depressions in leads II, aVF, and III represent reciprocal ST segment elevation on the opposing leads I and aVL. Displacement of the ST segment is also seen in the all negative leads. MI of the basal segment of the heart due to occlusion of the diagonal branch (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 35, Fig. 2.1c. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

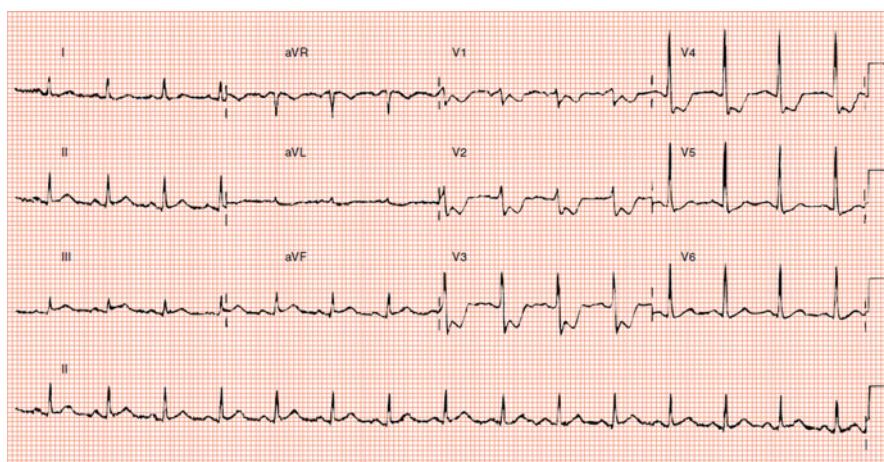


Fig. 1.14 ST segment elevation in leads II, III, and aVF, in which the elevation in lead II is equal to that in lead III. A small reciprocal ST segment depression can be seen in lead aVL. A reverted Pardee wave is present in leads V1–V4 (“up-sidedown injury”). ST segment elevation in lead V6. Inferoposterolateral wall MI. Diagnosis of posterior wall MI was made from reciprocal changes appear in leads V1–V4 (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 98, Fig. 8.4.3a. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

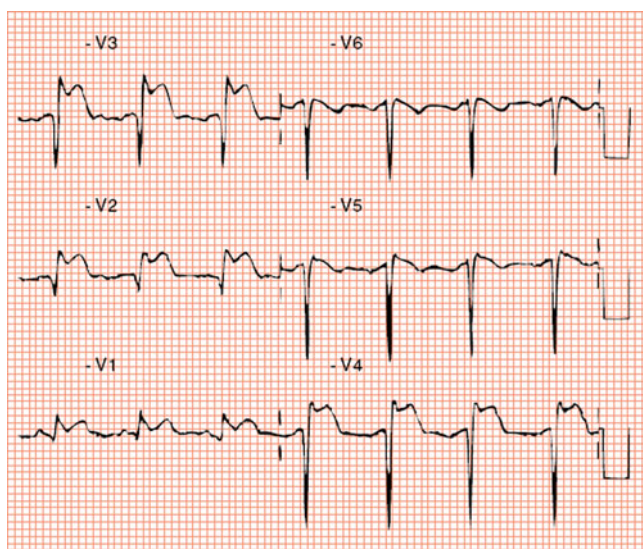


Fig. 1.15 Precordial leads shown in Fig. 1.14 are presented as their negative counterpart. Pardee's wave is clearly seen in leads $-V1$ to $-V4$. The maximal information that could be gained without the placement of additional electrodes but adding inverted leads for evaluation of ST-segment displacement (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 99, Fig. 8.4.3c. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

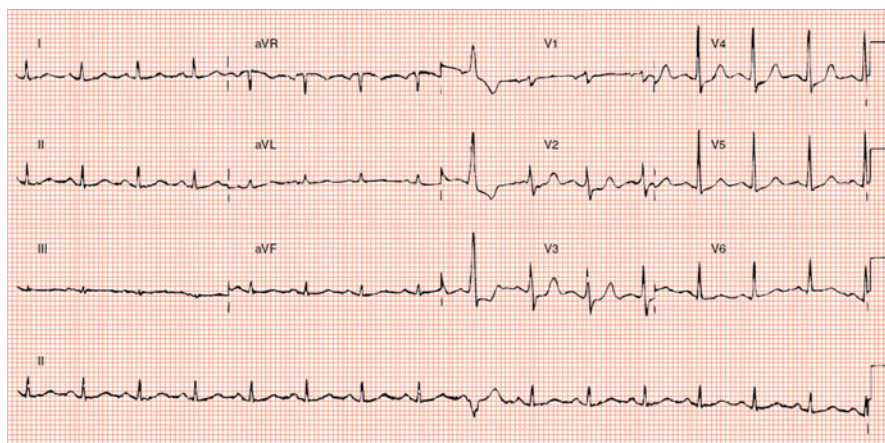


Fig. 1.16 The same patient as in Fig. 1.14, but the ECG is recorded 1 h after the patency of the artery has been restored. Note the high voltage R-wave in lead V2 (the amplitude of R-wave is greater than S) and a positive T-wave. The ninth cardiac cycle is a premature ventricular beat. The RR interval that contains the extrasystole is twice as long as the RR interval in sinus rhythm. A full compensatory pause is present. The premature ventricular contraction has morphology that resembles a right bundle-branch block and indicates that the premature ventricular contraction originates in the left ventricle (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 99, Fig. 8.4.3b. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

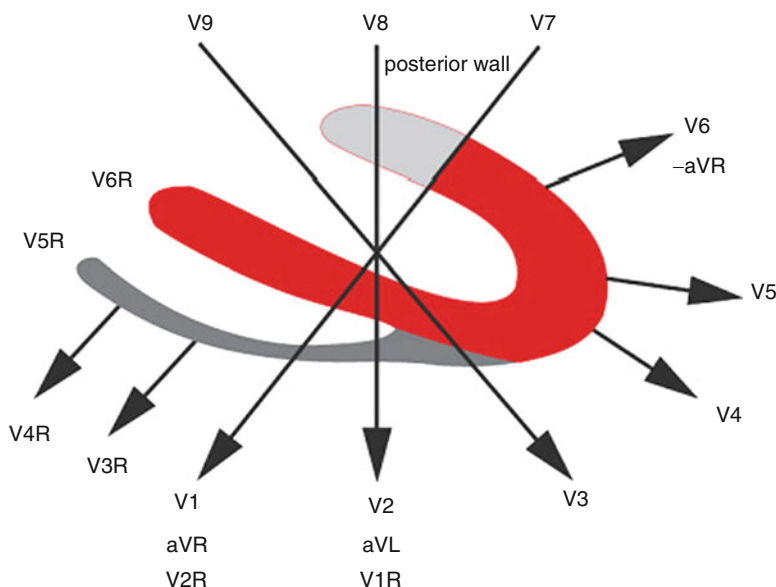


Fig. 1.17 The schematic diagram shows the placement of the precordial leads and their position in relation to leads aVL and aVR. The opposite leads related to leads V1 and V2 are leads V7 and V8 (This figure was published in [Poloński and Wasilewski \(2004\)](#), p. 29, Fig. 5.1. Copyright Elsevier Urban & Partner Sp. z.o.o, 2006, Wrocław)

the right ventricle is said to be “invisible” in the ECG. Under this assumption, the equivalent of the small Q-wave in V6 is a small R-wave in lead V1. The equivalence of a high R-wave in V6 is a deep negative S-wave in lead V1. The theory of opposite leads helps explain why, in case of left ventricular hypertrophy, there is an increase in the R-wave voltage in lead V6, which is accompanied by further S-wave voltage increase in lead V1. According to the Sokolow-Lyon index, left ventricular hypertrophy can be diagnosed when the sum of the voltages of the R-wave in V6 and the S-wave in V1 is greater than 35 mV ([Sokolow and Lyon 1949](#)).

Knowledge of adjacent and opposite leads not only helps to identify the orientation of the heart axis but also explains why, in lead aVR, the P-waves and T-waves and QRS complex are negative (Fig. 1.18). It also explains why in left axis deviation the QRS complex is positive in lead I and negative in lead III. If the average of depolarization vector in frontal plane is moving toward an electrode, this electrode records a positive deflection (lead I). At the same time, a wave of depolarization is moving away from lead III and this lead records a negative deflection (Figs. 1.19 and 1.20a). This effect is reversed if the electrical axis deviates to the right. Then the depolarization vector approaches lead III (the positive QRS complex in lead III), and distances itself from lead I (the negative QRS complex in lead I) (Figs. 1.19 and 1.20b).

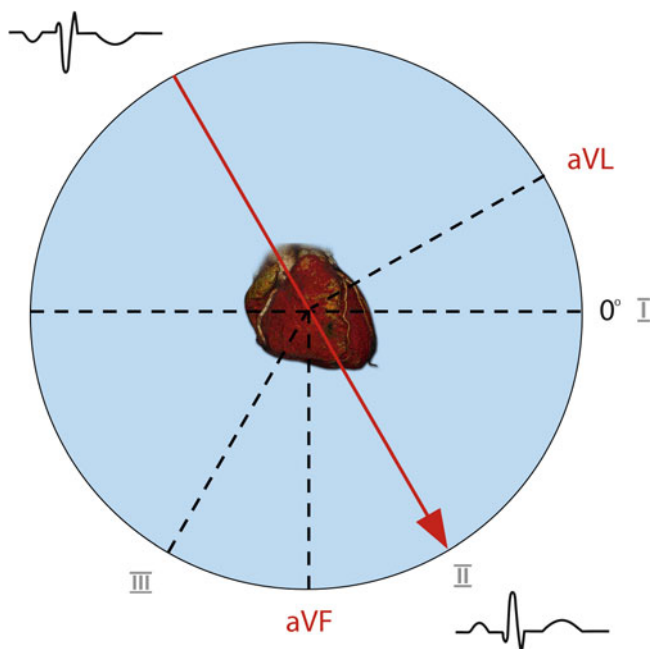


Fig. 1.18 The morphology of the ECG in leads aVR and II. Positive electrical impulses in the ECG directed toward the electrode (lead II) are registered as upward deflections, while the same impulses moving away from the electrode (aVR) are registered as downward deflections. In sinus rhythm when the depolarization is spread normally in the cardiac muscle the P-wave in lead II, the QRS complex, and the T-wave are positive

A detailed discussion of issues associated with arrhythmias and conduction problems are beyond the scope of this chapter. Hundreds of books, monographs, studies, and ECG articles have been dedicated to these topics; this is an old diagnostic procedure despite which a continuous progress is still being made (Fig. 1.21).

1.14 Conclusions

Applying digital methods to the ECG increases the resolution of the signal, thus enhancing its diagnostic capabilities. At the same time sophisticated methods also make it possible to apply algorithms that automatically interpret the ECG both in terms of morphology (the evaluation of multiple leads) and arrhythmias and conduction disorders (usually monitoring of a single lead is sufficient). Careful assessment of the ECG helps determine the mechanism and origin of the electrical impulse and propagation of electrical wave in the cardiac muscle and provides a wealth of useful information about the orientation of the heart, hypertrophy and

Fig. 1.19 The orientation of the bipolar leads. Lead I is placed horizontally and directed from the right to the left shoulder. The direction of lead II is from the right shoulder toward the lower left limb, while the third lead is directed from the left shoulder toward the lower right limb. In the Einthoven triangle, the angle created by lead II is 60° while the angle created by lead III is 120° . The deflection in a lead is highest when the electromotor vector is approaching the electrode

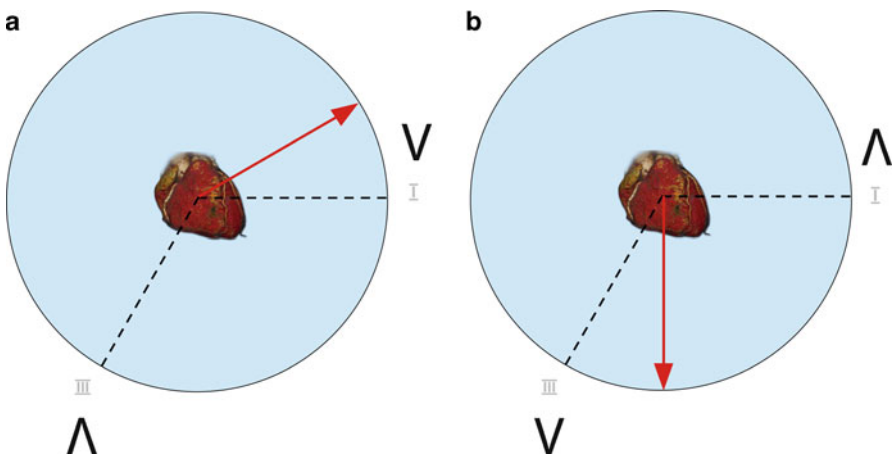
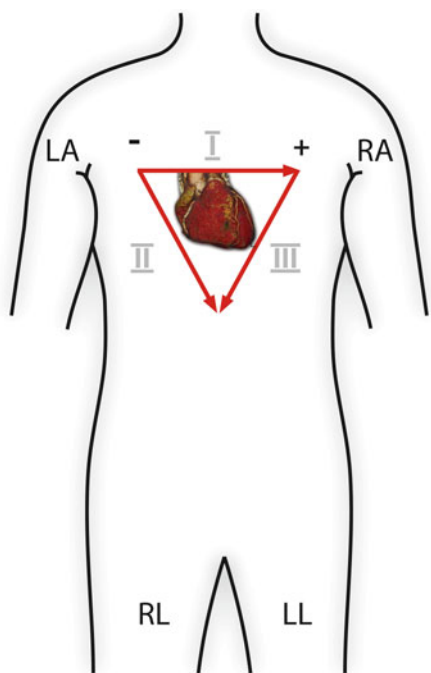


Fig. 1.20 (a) Sinistrogram. (b) Dextrogram

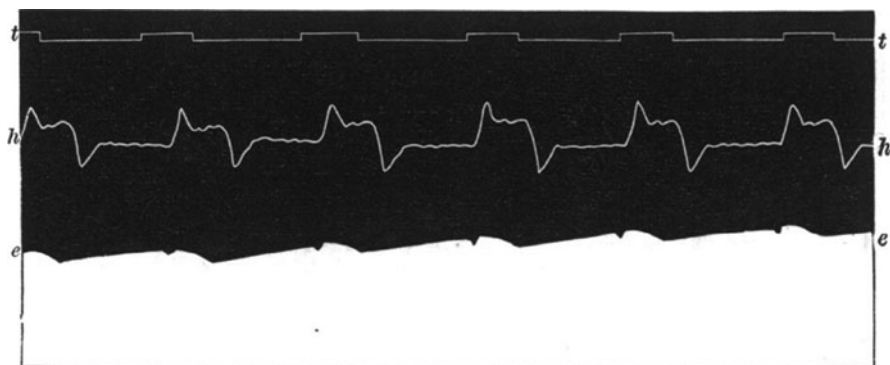


Fig. 1.21 The first human ECG recorded in 1887 by August Desire Walter (1856–1922) (Waller 1887). Walter presented his work in 1889 at the First International Congress of Physiologists, while Einthoven, the father of modern electrocardiography, watched

ischaemia, injury, or necrosis. Although simple to implement, the ECG can be very difficult to interpret. While computer programs and protocols to assess the ECG are helpful in establishing a preliminary diagnosis, an overall patient's clinical status should be taken into consideration when interpreting the ECG.

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