Electrocardiography (ECG) is an important diagnostic tool in the practice of veterinary medicine. Not only does it evaluate the electrical function of the heart and provide an accurate heart rate, an ECG is also able to give information regarding noncardiac illness. When performing ECGs, it is important to recognize the benefits of their use in clinical practice, but it is also important to understand the limitations as well. The following discussion will describe ways to acquire an ECG, discuss the approach to rhythm analysis, and provide a review of the common rhythms/arrhythmias seen in veterinary practice.

The most common method of obtaining an ECG is the rhythm strip. In most cases, this type of recording involves the use of a single lead (usually lead II) to evaluate the cardiac rhythm. When recording a lead II rhythm strip, the patient is generally placed in right lateral recumbency and a positive electrode (usually red) is placed on the back left foot/leg, while a negative electrode (usually white) is placed on the front right foot. A third electrode (either black or green) is used as a ground and can be placed anywhere; by convention, black is usually placed on the left front foot/leg, and green is placed on the right rear foot/leg. When using machines that can simultaneously record multiple leads, all electrodes are placed, and the processor within the ECG machine can determine the appropriate combinations to record the frontal leads I, II, III, aVR, aVL, and aVF. Other methods for recording an ECG include wireless transmission to a remote display (telemetry), transtelephonic transmission, and ambulatory ECG recordings for extended periods of time (Holter or event monitors).

Regardless of the method of acquisition, the value of an ECG lies in its interpretation. It is important to realize that an ECG provides only two pieces of information with any degree of reliability: the heart rate and rhythm. Other information that can be obtained from an ECG tracing includes an assessment of chamber size, axis shifts, and fluid accumulation; the interpretation of these abnormalities is more or less inferred, and is therefore less dependable. For these reasons, it is reasonable to begin the analysis of the ECG by calculation of heart rate. Much like obtaining a heart rate from a physical exam, measuring the heart rate from an ECG requires counting the number of normal complexes (p waves for atrial rate, QRS complexes for
ventricular rate) in a given time period. Depending on the length of an ECG, it is easiest to count either 3 seconds (and multiply by 20) or 6 seconds (and multiply by 10). The length of paper that represents 3 or 6 seconds is dependent on the paper speed. As a convenient rule of thumb [the author/I] use(s) a length of 150mm (or 30 big boxes). At a paper speed of 25mm/sec, this length represents 6 seconds; at a paper speed of 50mm/sec, this length represents 3 seconds. The other advantage for this method is the fact that a standard Bic Round Stic pen (with the cap ON) is exactly 150mm long. Calculating a heart rate then becomes as easy as putting the pen on the ECG, counting complexes and multiplying by the appropriate factor.

In this example, there are 9 QRS complexes in the length of the Bic pen. That means in 150mm, this dog’s heart beat 9 times. If the paper speed is 50mm/sec, the 150mm would represent 3 sec \((150 \div 50 = 3)\). Therefore the heart rate would be 9 x 20, or 180bpm. In reality, the paper speed is 25mm/sec, making the 150mm pen represent 6sec \((150 \div 25 = 6)\). Therefore the heart rate is 9 x 10, or 90bpm.

Once the heart rate is obtained, the next step is to determine whether the heart rate is slow, fast or normal. It can be challenging to define a normal rate given the potential range of heart rates that could be considered normal (for a dog, 35 is normal if sleeping, but 180-200 could be normal if exercising). Therefore the term reasonable may be preferable to allow for flexibility of interpretation. The following table represents reasonable guidelines regarding heart rates in dogs and cats:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Dog</th>
<th>Cat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fast</strong></td>
<td>&gt;160</td>
<td>&gt;220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Slow</strong></td>
<td>&lt;70</td>
<td>&lt;140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the heart rate is slow, the possible explanations include abnormalities with sinus node (sinus arrest, sinus bradycardia) or alterations in AV nodal conduction (AV block, usually 2nd or 3rd degree). If the heart rate is fast, options are limited to either a sinus tachycardia,
supraventricular tachyarrhythmias (atrial or junctional), or ventricular tachycardia. If the heart rate is reasonable, then one must determine if it is entirely sinus in origin, or if there are premature beats (APCs/VPCs) or escape beats/pauses. The following algorithm can be useful when the heart rate is *reasonable*:

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Sinus ➔ Normal sinus rhythm

Norm conduction ➔ Sinus

Abn conduction ➔ Not sinus (ectopics)

Irreg ➔ AV block vs BBB

Reg ➔ APC vs VPC

Sinus arrest, AV block

Early beats (premature)

Late beats (escape)
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Another useful approach to analyzing an ECG is to consider arrhythmias as either abnormalities in impulse formation, or disorders in impulse conduction. Normally, the electrical activation of the heart originates in the SA node (primary pacemaker), but secondary pacemakers do exist, and can be responsible for impulse generation if higher pacemakers fail. These secondary pacemakers include the AV node or Purkinje fibers within the ventricles; initiation of impulses from these locations is responsible for escape beats. Impulses can also be formed abnormally by tissue that is not normally capable of pacemaking activity. These tissues generally include the working muscle of the atria and ventricles, and are responsible for premature beats (APCs and VPCs, respectively). Abnormalities in impulse conduction also occur, and are generally limited to alteration in conduction through the AV node (AV block), or conduction across the bundle branches (bundle branch block). While there are other examples of conduction disturbances, they are comparatively rare and will not be discussed. The following represents a list of arrhythmias seen in veterinary medicine:

**Rhythm origins**

**Sinus**
- Sinus rhythm
- Sinus arrhythmia (with or without wandering pacemaker)
- Sinus tachycardia
- Sinus bradycardia
- Sinus arrest

**Atrial**
- Atrial premature complexes (APCs)
- Atrial tachycardia
- Atrial flutter
- Atrial fibrillation
- Atrial standstill

**Ventricular**
- Ventricular premature complexes (VPCs)
- Ventricular tachycardia
- Ventricular flutter
- Ventricular fibrillation
- Asystole/flatline

**Conduction disturbances**
- AV block
  - 1\textsuperscript{st} degree
  - 2\textsuperscript{nd} degree
  - 3\textsuperscript{rd} degree
- Bundle branch block
  - Left BBB
  - Right BBB