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### ABSTRACT

## A Multicompartmental Model for the Simulation of Soluble Gas Exchange in the Lungs

#### by Chitaranjan Varadhan

A dynamic multicompartmental model for respiratory exchange of soluble gas is described. The motivation for this new model is the continuing interest in estimating pulmonary system parameters during anesthesia and under diseased conditions.

Here a four compartment model for the blood-tissue gas exchange is described, which will be coupled to a whole body hemodynamic model developed earlier. With this pulmonary model we can simulate the pharmacokinetics of inhaled anesthetic agents at any instant of time. Simulations are computed using the TUTSIM software package. Values for the physiological parameters used in the simulation are estimated from standard physiological sources. Where necessary, parameter values reported for animal studies were adjusted to reflect normal human physiology.

## A MULTICOMPARTMENTAL MODEL FOR THE SIMULATION OF SOLUBLE GAS EXCHANGE IN THE LUNGS

by

Chitaranjan Varadhan

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of New Jersey Institute of Technology in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Biomedical Engineering

**Biomedical Engineering Committee** 

May 1993

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### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I am grateful to Dr. Arthur Ritter, Dept. of Physiology, University of Medicine and Dentistry, NewJersey, for his moral support, guidance, advice and encouragement throughout this work and to Dr. David Kristol, Director of Biomedical Engineering Program, NJIT, for his helpful discussion during this study.

Special thanks to Dr.Richard Parker for serving as a member of the committee.

I would also like to thank Mr. Alli, System Administrator, Computer Service Department, NJIT, for allowing me to utilize the computational facilities of the university.

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## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The lung is exquisitely designed to facilitate gas exchange. Its prime function is to allow oxygen to move from the air into the venous blood and carbon dioxide to move in the opposite direction. The lung does other jobs as well. It metabolizes some compounds, filters toxic materials from the circulation, and acts as a reservoir for blood. But its cardinal function is gas exchange.

Exchange of gases such as oxygen in the lungs involves several physico-chemical processes:

a. Convective transport in the conducting pathways on the gas side of the lungs.

b. Molecular diffusion in the gas phase in the conducting pathways and alveoli on the gas side of the lungs.

c. Molecular diffusion across the surfactant layer and tissue space between the gas side and blood side of the lungs.

d. Possibly uptake by specialized transporters on the blood side of the lungs (e.g. hemoglobin transport of  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  in the red cell).

e. Convective transport of the gas by the blood stream and distribution of the gas in various organs and tissues.

If the gas is soluble in lung tissue, blood or any other tissue or is metabolized at a particular site, these processes must also be taken into account. Inspiration, excretion, uptake and metabolism are spatially and temporally separated phenomena. Convective transport (blood flow) is the process that allows coupling among these processes and the proper physiological functioning of all organs and tissues, since they are each dependent on gas exchange.

A model of the lung involves three distinct elements.

a. **Pulmonary Mechanics.** This is a mathematical description of the mechanical motion of chest wall and abdomen or diaphragm to achieve inspiration and expiration of the tidal volume of gas.

The Diaphragm is the most important muscle of inspiration. This consists of a thin dome-shaped sheet of muscle which is inserted into the lower ribs. When it contracts, the abdominal contents are forced downward and forward, and the vertical dimension of the chest cavity is increased. In addition the rib margins are lifted and moved out, causing an increase in the transverse diameter of the thorax. In normal tidal breathing, the level of the diaphragm moves about 1 cm or so, but on forced inspiration and expiration, a total excursion of up to 10 cm may occur. When the diaphragm is paralyzed, it moves up rather than down with inspiration because the intrathoracic pressure falls.

b. Transport Function. This is a mathematical description of gas transport from inspiration/expiration through the conducting vessels, into the alveoli, exchange across the lung tissue, uptake by the blood and distribution throughout the various organ and tissue compartments.

The transfer of gas across the blood-gas barrier occurs by diffusion. Diffusion through tissues is described by Fick's law. This states that the rate of transfer of gas through a sheet of tissue is proportional to the tissue area and the difference in gas partial pressure between the two sides and inversely proportional to the tissue thickness. The area of the blood-gas barrier is enormous and barrier thickness is of the order of 1 micron, so the dimensions of the barrier are ideal for diffusion. In addition, the rate of transfer is proportional to a diffusion constant which depends on the properties of the tissue and the particular gas. The constant is proportional to the square root of the molecular weight. This means that  $CO_2$  diffuses about 20 times more rapidly than  $O_2$  through the tissue sheet since it has much higher solubility and similar molecular weight.

c. Regulation of Respiration. This is a mathematical description of those factors such as exercise, increased organ metabolism or pathologies which act to change the rate

and depth of respiration (Ventilation) through neural pathways (e.g. peripheral chemoreceptors).

Expiration is passive during normal quiet breathing. The lung and chest wall are elastic and tend to return to their equilibrium position after being actively expanded during inspiration. During exercise and voluntary hyperventilation, expiration becomes active. The most important muscles of expiration are those of the abdominal wall, including the rectus abdominus, internal and external oblique muscles, and transversus abdominus. When these muscles contract, intra-abdominal pressure is raised, and the diaphragm is pushed forward. They also contract forcefully during coughing, vomiting and defecation.

#### **1.1 Review of Models**

The uptake of oxygen occurs in one particular organ, the lung, and the oxygen is carried by the arterial blood from the site of uptake to the site of consumption, the tissues. The situation concerning the release of oxygen to and its consumption by the cells in various tissues and organs is much more complicated in so far as there are many kinds of tissue with widely different characteristics. Experimental studies of tissue oxygen supply and demand are numerous but have met with many methodological difficulties and are often not easy to interpret. This is the reason why numerous investigators have taken recourse to modeling and mathematical analysis of tissue oxygen supply and demand.

Kety et al.(1951)<sup>1</sup> developed a dynamic model for respiratory exchange of blood soluble gas, which was based on a well known mathematical model of soluble gas exchange. It was developed as a quantitative description of the pharmacokinetics of inhaled anesthetic agents. Most of its applications, therefore, have addressed the time course of anesthetic uptake with specific attention to concentration in body tissues. The validity of the model for this purpose, as well as for the related problem of inhalation exposure to environmental vapors, has been well established. However, its suitability as a basis for a pulmonary perfusion was poorly established. Also, his work described the uptake and distribution of an inhaled gas in terms of an equation which is relatively simple but which gives an imperfect fit to experimental data. This is because it assumes in effect that the blood flow per unit volume of tissue is the same throughout the body.

The model developed by Jenkins et al.(1989)<sup>2</sup> described a general treatment of tidal breathing, in an inhomogeneous lung comprising distensible compartments, and multiplegas effects. Here the lung was modeled as a set of parallel homogeneous distensible ideal mixing chambers(alveoli), each ventilated through a common series dead space and perfused by a blood flow that is constant within a breath. The body was modeled as a homogeneous ideal mixing chamber(tissue compartment), perfused by a blood flow that is constant within a breath. The body was modeled as a constant within a breath. According to this model, each lung compartment received a constant fraction of the total inspired volume from one breath to another. Hence estimation of the distribution of ventilatory flow to the various lung compartments and changes thereto is a difficult problem.

In the model presented by Mapleson (1963)<sup>3</sup> the body is divided into the lungs and a number of tissue compartments such that the blood supply per unit volume is the same throughout each compartment. In this model, ventilation is regarded as continuous instead of cyclic. Failure to consider the effects of cyclic breathing may result in significant errors in the determination of cardiac output. Also in this model the Ostwald tissue-to-gas partition coefficient, which may be defined as the ratio between the volume of agent contained in an equal volume of gas with which the tissue is in equilibrium, for any tissue for any gas, or other agent, is assumed to be independent of concentration. This assumption will generally cease to be true if the concentration is high enough.

The 18-compartment hybrid computer multiple model developed by Fukui et al.(1981)<sup>4</sup> for the uptake and distribution of halothane is the basis of our present study. This study uses 88 equations and 124 parameter settings which is very complicated and cumbersome to use.

Krogh in association with Danish mathematician Erlang in 1919, developed a theoretical mathematical model for the analysis of tissue oxygen supply (Kreuzer, 1982)<sup>5</sup>. The Krogh-Erlang model is based on a number of simplifying and often unrealistic assumptions. There is an impressive list of 15 assumptions, which in turn raises the question as to how realistic and meaningful the calculations according to the Krogh model might be. For example, one assumption is that of homogeneous oxygen consumption. On the microscopic level there are always discontinuities in the tissue in that the mitochondria are the discrete oxygen sinks. This assumption implies that these minute sinks are evenly distributed in the volume of the tissue. However, the mitochondria must also be viewed in their relationship to the capillaries. Mainwood and Rakusan $(1982)^{27}$  showed that when the mitochondria are clustered around the capillaries. the Krogh cylinder radius shrinks from the anatomical value to that of the cluster. These authors assumed a lattice of 30-micrometer cells with a 1:1 cell to capillary ratio and a mitochondrial aggregation within 3-micrometers from the capillaries. They calculated a necessary oxygen pressure gradient of 24 mmHg for an homogeneous mitochondrial distribution as against 7.9 mmHg in the presence of mitochondrial aggregation. Thus, in the latter case the capillary oxygen pressure required for an adequate oxygen supply to the tissue was reduced to one third of that in the homogeneous situation.

A model of pulmonary transport was developed by Borovetz et al.(1981)<sup>6</sup> in which the lung is assumed to consist of four parallel tissue layers. Using a finite difference representation of the governing equations, the concentration distribution of Xenon gas in each of the layers of tissue is obtained for a step change in the Xe concentration in the inspired air space. Although this model gives good agreement with the experimental values it is a bit complicated, i.e. simulation could have been made simpler by using ordinary differential equations rather than partial differential equations.

A one compartment, continuous-time model was proposed for investigation of dynamic gas exchange in the lungs, by Poon et al.(1981)<sup>7</sup>. The main purpose of this

investigation was to demonstrate quantitatively and analytically the underlying mechanism responsible for the concentration and second gas effects during dynamic gas exchange in the lungs. In view of the complexity of the system, several simplifying assumptions were made to facilitate analysis and computation. For example, the effects of dead space ventilation and perfusion, and the storage capacity of lung tissue have been neglected. Likewise, the nonlinear dissociation characteristics of  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  had been approximated in a linear fashion. Due to these assumptions it should be recognized that the model is unlikely to be applicable to clinical conditions which are characterized by extreme ventilation-perfusion maldistribution or by a significant diffusion limitation across the lungs.

A general dynamic model of ventilation, perfusion, and mass transfer in the lung has been developed by S.A.Barton et al.(1988)<sup>8</sup>, as the theoretical basis for a clinical technique for monitoring on a continuous basis pulmonary performance in terms of the distribution of ventilation and perfusion through the lung. A set of describing equations has been set down with due regard to the conceptual modelers and experimental workers of the past in the field. But this is of no practical use. Before the model can be used as the basis of clinical measurements it must be tested experimentally. Its description and predictions must be compared with experimental observations in a suitable animal or human model. In addition, it must be determined what measurements of clinical interest can be made using the model, and how much the model can be simplified if it is still to yield useful information. If the working model is simple and can be described quantitatively by a small number of parameters then a small number of measurements will be required to yield those parameters. Another drawback of this model is that it does not address the general problem of multiple soluble gas exchange in parallel arrangement of tidally ventilated distensible ideal mixing boxes.

While most analyses of pulmonary gas exchange are based on models in which all of the abnormalities are taken to occur on a parallel basis, the possibility that series inhomogeneity may be of significance has received serious consideration in recent years. P.D.Wagner and J.W.Evans (1977)<sup>9</sup> developed conditions for equivalence of gas exchange in series and parallel models of the lung. The Fick principle was applied to series and parallel compartmental lung models to determine whether conditions existed under which their differentiation was theoretically possible. Respiratory and inert gases were examined under assumptions of steady-state gas exchange, continuous ventilation and blood flow, perfect mixing within each compartment and alveolar-endcapillary diffusion equilibration. All of these analyses gave us invaluable information for our multiple compartmental model for soluble gas exchange.

Although the uptake and distribution of soluble gases in the lungs have been modeled by several workers, the characterization of the associated system dynamics has received little attention. This led us to develop a multicompartmental model with lesser number of equations and parameters for gas exchange and system dynamics in the lungs. The advantage of this model is that all parameters required for dynamic simulation can be estimated from standard physiological reference materials.

### **1.3 Terms and Definitions**

#### 1.3.1 Anatomic Dead Space and Alveolar Ventilation.

The volume of air entering and leaving the nose or mouth per minute, the minute volume, is not equal to the volume of air entering and leaving the alveoli per minute. Alveolar ventilation is less than the minute volume because the last part of each inspiration remains in the conducting airways and does not reach the alveoli. Similarly, the last part of each expiration remains in the conducting airways for several anatomic reasons. First, the walls of the conducting airways are too thick for much diffusion to take place; and next, mixed venous blood does not come into contact with air. The conducting airways are, therefore, referred to as the anatomic dead space.

Thus for any respiratory cycle, not all of the tidal volume reaches the alveoli because the last part of each inspiration and expiration remains in the dead space. The relationship between the tidal volume ( $V_T$ ) breathed in and out through the nose or mouth, the dead space volume ( $V_D$ ), and the volume of gas entering and leaving the alveoli per breath ( $V_A$ ) is

$$\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{V}_{\mathsf{T}} - \mathbf{V}_{\mathsf{D}}$$

By multiplying both sides of the above equation by the breathing frequency (n) in breaths per minute,

$$n(V_A) = n(V_T) - n(V_D)$$

This means that the alveolar ventilation  $(\mathring{V}_{A})$  in liters per minute is equal to the minute volume  $(\mathring{V}_{E})$  minus the volume wasted ventilating the dead space per minute  $(\mathring{V}_{D})$ .

$$\dot{\mathbf{V}}_{A} = \dot{\mathbf{V}}_{E} - \dot{\mathbf{V}}_{D}$$

Where:  $\dot{V} = nv$ 

#### 1.3.2 Partial Pressures of Respiratory Gases.

According to Dalton's law, in a dilute gas mixture, the pressure exerted by each individual gas in a space is independent of the pressures of other gases in the mixture. The partial pressure of a particular gas is equal to its fractional concentration times the total pressure of all the gases in the mixture. Thus for any gas, a, in a mixture its partial pressure

$$Pa = \%$$
 of total gas x Ptotal

Oxygen constitutes 20.93% of dry atmospheric air. At a standard barometric pressure of 760 mmHg

$$PO_2 = 0.2093 \text{ x } 760 \text{ mmHg} = 159 \text{ mmHg}$$

Carbon dioxide constitutes only about 0.04% of dry atmospheric air, and so

$$PCO_2 = 0.0004 \text{ x } 760 \text{ mmHg} = 0.3 \text{ mmHg}$$

#### **1.3.3** Airway Resistance

Generally, the relationship between Pressure, Flow and Resistance is stated as

#### Pressure Gradient = Flow X Resistance

Therefore,

Resistance	_	Pressure Gradient (cm H <sub>2</sub> O)
Resistance		
		Flow (liters/s)

This means that resistance is a meaningful term only during flow. When airflow is considered, the units of resistance are usually cm H<sub>2</sub>0/liter/s.

The resistance to airflow is analogous to electrical resistance in that resistance in series add as sums:

$$R_T = R_1 + R_2 + \dots$$

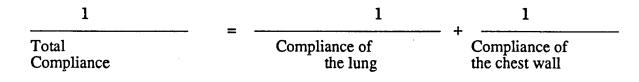
Resistances in parallel add as reciprocals:

$$1/R_{\rm T} = 1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + \dots$$

#### **1.3.4** Compliance of the lung and chest wall

The slope between two points on a pressure-volume curve of a vessel or organ is known as the compliance of that vessel or organ. Compliance is defined as the change in volume divided by the change in pressure. It is important to remember that compliance is the inverse of elasticity or elastic recoil. Compliance denotes the ease with which something can be stretched or distorted; elasticity refers to the tendency for something to oppose stretch or distortion, as well as to its ability to return to its original configuration after the distorting force is removed.

Compliance of the lung and chest wall provides useful data for the clinical evaluation of a patient's respiratory system, because many diseases or pathological states affect either the compliance of the lung or chest wall or both. The lung and chest wall are physically in series with each other and therefore their compliances add as reciprocals:



## CHAPTER 2 METHODS AND MATERIALS

The objective of this study is to develop a lung model for soluble gas exchange which will allow us to quantitatively estimate the pharmacokinetics of inhaled anesthetic agents.

#### **2.1** Compartmental Model

Theoretically, a compartmental description of a distributed process such as gas exchange/distribution would require many (non-unique) arrangements of series/parallel compartments to provide accurate quantitative assessment. In practice, however, values for many of the parameters in such a model and estimates of initial and boundary conditions would be unavailable. With this in mind, we have used a four compartment model for the blood-tissue exchange with the following elements. On the blood side we have the right ventricles feeding the pulmonary artery which feeds three zones (lower one third, middle one third and upper one third) of pulmonary capillaries and a small shunt flow. This is collected by the pulmonary veins and drained into the left ventricle. On the gas side, we have the airways, the trachea and the alveolar ducts. The airways consist of a series of branching tubes which become narrower, shorter and more numerous as they penetrate deeper into the lung. The trachea divides into right and left main bronchi, which in turn divide into lobar, then segmental bronchi. This process continues down to the terminal bronchioles, which are the smallest airways without alveoli. All these bronchi make up the conducting airways. Their function is to lead inspired air to the gas exchanging regions of the lung. Since the conducting airways contain no alveoli and therefore themselves take no part in gas exchange, they constitute the anatomic dead space. According to the rule of thumb, the amount of gas in ml which remains in the dead space is equal numerically to the total body weight in pounds. In our model it is assumed to be 150 ml (standard body weight of 70 kg).

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The terminal bronchioles divide into respiratory bronchioles which have occasional alveoli budding from their walls. Finally, we come to the alveolar ducts completely lined with alveoli. This alveolated region of the lung where the gas exchange occurs is known as the respiratory zone, which makes up most of the lung. Blood-airway gas exchange only takes place in the alveolar-capillary zones.

In our model the capillaries and the alveoli are divided into three compartments corresponding to the 3 physiological zones of the lung<sup>14</sup> to get a better quantitative assessment of gas transport. Mass balances for soluble gas exchange are written for each of the compartments. Parameters and initial conditions for each of the mass balance equations were estimated from various sources<sup>17-25</sup>. Respiratory mechanics were simulated by a periodic function which described inspiratory and expiratory pressure and flow around normal tidal volume.

The equations were solved on a personal computer using the TUTSIM simulation language.

#### 2.2 Development of the Model

The first step in the development of any model is to define our problem, i.e. to identify what we exactly want to do. For example, in our case we are trying develop a multicompartmental model for soluble gas exchange in the lungs. This involves several steps and procedures. These are described in detail below.

#### **2.2.1 Mass Balance Equations**

Mass balance equations for soluble gas exchange were written (see Chapter 3) for:

(a) Blood flow in the three capillary zones perfusing the alveoli.

(b) Blood side soluble gas exchange in the three capillary zones.

(c) Alveolar side soluble gas exchange in the three zones.

(d) Soluble gas exchange in the large airways, dead zone, pulmonary venous systems and pulmonary arterial system.

(e) Shunt flow.

### **2.2.2 TUTSIM Block Diagrams**

Block diagrams (see Appendix II) for all of the above models were constructed so as to comply with the requirements of TUTSIM. The functions of the blocks used as well as commands used are listed in Appendix II.

#### 2.2.3 Model Data

Parameters and Initial conditions were extracted from standard physiological references (Particularly references numbered 11-20). All parameters and initial conditions are listed in Chapter 3.

#### 2.2.4 Model Simulation

The model output was simulated on a personal computer using the TUTSIM simulation language. The results are shown in Appendix I.

#### 2.3 TUTSIM

TUTSIM simulation software allows the user to simulate the time response of a process which consists of coupled sets of ordinary differential equations without programming a numerical integration algorithm.

It is a very simple simulation program designed to give transient, time response of linear or non-linear systems. It also has a very simple block diagram syntax. It has 93 defined blocks. Only a few of them are used in our model. The function of all these 93 blocks of TUTSIM and the commands are listed in APPENDIX I. Also, when need arises for functions beyond the capability of TUTSIM, we can write our own functions in C language or FORTRAN and assign it to the USR blocks of TUTSIM.

TUTSIM block diagrams may be written from the equations term by term, or sometimes by direct inspection of the real system.

The flow is simply:

Problem:—>Mathematical Model—>Block Model—>Results

Model parameters such as the initial values of an integration are easily entered and changed. Results are usually time dependent values and are available in graphical display or numerical tables on the screen.

#### ADVANTAGES OF TUTSIM

The advantage of TUTSIM is that:

1. It is supplied as a run module that can be executed on the IBM compatible class of computers.

2. We can use particular input functions derived from experimental data (ASCII format) for the simulations.

3. We can estimate the parameters from published data.

4. Any or all blocks may be monitored or changed in the course of simulation and the simulation may also be frozen at any moment and interrogated for their output values at that moment.

5. The core of TUTSIM is written in Assembly Language. This allows for the fastest possible program execution and thus achievement of "continuous simulation" of real time systems.

6. It has the convenience of an analog computer and the speed and accuracy of a digital computer.

The only drawback of TUTSIM is its poor graphical resolution.

The most common output of TUTSIM is the graphical output to the screen. Printer plots can be made from the screen output or results may also be sent to a file (ASCII format).

Figures 7-11 show the block diagram used in the simulation.

## CHAPTER 3 SIMULATIONS AND RESULTS

## **3.1 Mass Balance Equations**

### **3.1.1 Mass Balance Equation for Blood Flow**

dPpc1	_	[Ppa-Ppc1]		[Ppc1-Ppv]
dt	-	Cpc1 * Rpc1(a)	 -	Cpc1 * Rpc1(v)
dPpc <sub>2</sub>	_	[Ppa-Ppc2]		[Ppc2-Ppv]
dt	=	Cpc2 * Rpc2(a)	 -	Cpc2 * Rpc2(v)
dPpc3	_	[Ppa-Ppc3]		[Ppc3-Ppv]
dt =	Cpc3 * Rpc3(a)		Cpc3 * Rpc3(v)	

### 3.1.2 Mass Balance Equation for Blood Side Soluble Gas Exchange

dPp02 c1	_	F1[Ppo2 a - Ppo2 v] PSo21[Ppo2 c1 - γ1 Ppo2 al1]
dt	= -	Cpc1 * Pt1
dPpo2 c2		F2[Pp02 a - Pp02 v] — PS022[Pp02 c2 - γ2 Pp02 al2]
dt	= -	Cpc2 * Pt2
dPpo2 c3		F3[Ppo2 a - Ppo2 v] — PSo23[Ppo2 c3 - γ3 Ppo2 al3]
dt	= -	Cpc3 * Pt3

### 3.1.3 Mass Balance Equation for Alveolar Side Gas Exchange

dPpo2 al1		Qi1 * Ppo2(LA) - Qe1 * Ppo2 al1 + PSo21(Ppo2c1-y1 Ppo2 al1)
dt	=	C alı * Pt alı
dPpo2 al2		Qi2 * Ppo2(LA) - Qe2 * Ppo2 al2 + PSo22(Ppo2c2-y2 Ppo2 al2)
dt	Ξ	C al2 * Pt al2

dPpo2 al3	_	Qi3 * Ppo2(LA) - Qe3 * Ppo2 al3 + PSo23(Ppo2c3-y3 Ppo2 al3)	
dt		C als * Pt als	•

3.1.4 Shunt Flow

 $\frac{dPpo2_{sh}}{dt} = \frac{F_{sh} * Ppo2(a)}{C_{sh} * Pt_{sh}}$ 

**3.1.5** Gas Exchange in Large Airways

$$\frac{dPpo_2(LA)}{dt} = \frac{Qi(LA) [Ppo_2(DZ) - Ppo_2(LA)] - Qe(LA) [Ppo_2(LA) - \gamma_1 * Ppo_2 al_1 - \gamma_2 * Ppo_2 al_2 - \gamma_3 * Ppo_2 al_3]}{C al_1 * Pt al_1}$$

3.1.6 Gas Exchange in Dead Zone

dPpo <sub>2</sub> (DZ)	$Qi[Ppo_2(Room) - Ppo_2(DZ)] - Qe[Ppo_2(DZ) - Ppo_2(LA)]$
dt =	Cdz * Pdz

### 3.1.7 Gas Exchange in Pulmonary Veins

dPpo2 v	F10*Pp02 C1 + F20*Pp02 C2 + F30*Pp02 C3 - FPV*Pp02 + Fsh*Pp02	
= =	Cv * Ptv	

3.1.8 Gas Exchange in Pulmonary Arteries

dPpo2 a FRV\*Ppo2 RV — Fa\*Ppo2 a

dt

Ca \* Pta

#### **3.2** Parameters and Initial Conditions

#### **3.2.1 Pulmonary Blood Flow**

- Rpc1(a) = Pulmonary Capillary Resistance in the arterial side of Zone 1 = 2.5 mmHg/mlsec
- $Rpc_1(v) = Pulmonary Capillary Resistance in the venous side of Zone 1 = 2.0 mmHg/ml-sec$
- Rpc<sub>2</sub>(a) = Pulmonary Capillary Resistance in the arterial side of Zone 2 = 1.8 mmHg/mlsec
- $Rpc_2(v) = Pulmonary Capillary Resistance in the venous side of Zone 2 = 1.7 mmHg/ml-sec$
- Rpc<sub>3</sub>(a) = Pulmonary Capillary Resistance in the arterial side of Zone 3 = 1.7 mmHg/mlsec
- $Rpc_3(v) = Pulmonary Capillary Resistance in the venous side of Zone 3 = 1.6 mmHg/ml-sec$
- Cpc1(a) = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in the arterial side of Zone 1 = 3.0 ml/mmHgCpc1(v) = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in the venous side of Zone 1 = 2.0 ml/mmHgCpc2(a) = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in the arterial side of Zone 2 = 4.0 ml/mmHgCpc2(v) = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in the venous side of Zone 2 = 3.0 ml/mmHgCpc3(a) = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in the arterial side of Zone 3 = 5.0 ml/mmHgCpc3(v) = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in the venous side of Zone 3 = 4.0 ml/mmHgCpc3(v) = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in the venous side of Zone 3 = 4.0 ml/mmHgPpc1(0) = Partial pressure of blood in the capillary of Zone 1 at time zero = 10 mmHgPpc2(0) = Partial pressure of blood in the capillary of Zone 2 at time zero = 8.0 mmHgPpc3(0) = Partial pressure of blood in the capillary of Zone 3 at time zero = 7.0 mmHgRc = Total Pulmonary Capillary Resistance = 0.6 mmHg/ml-sec
- Cc = Total Pulmonary Capillary Compliance = 12 ml/mmHg

#### 3.2.2 Alveolar and Capillary Gas Exchange

- $F_1 =$  Blood Flow into Capillary Zone 1 = 1.25 ml-min
- $F_2 =$  Blood Flow into Capillary Zone 2 = 1.75 ml-min

- $F_3$  = Blood Flow into Capillary Zone 3 = 2.0 ml-min
- $Pso_{21} = Diffusing Capacity of Oxygen in Zone 1 = 105 ml/min$
- Pso<sub>22</sub> = Diffusing Capacity of Oxygen in Zone 2 = 125 ml/min
- $Pso_{23}$  = Diffusing Capacity of Oxygen in Zone 3 = 150 ml/min
- $\lambda_{0_{21}}$  = Partition coefficient for Zone 1 = 0.381
- $\lambda_{022}$  = Partition coefficient for Zone 2 = 0.524
- $\lambda_{023}$  = Partition coefficient for Zone 3 = 0.60
- Cpc<sub>1</sub> = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in Zone 1 = 3.0 ml/mmHg
- Cpc<sub>2</sub> = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in Zone 2 = 4.0 ml/mmHg
- Cpc<sub>3</sub> = Pulmonary Capillary Compliance in Zone 3 = 5.0 ml/mmHg
- Calv<sub>1</sub> = Compliance of Alveolar Zone 1 = 5.44 ml/mmHg
- $Calv_2 = Compliance of Alveolar Zone 2 = 8.16 ml/mmHg$
- $Calv_3 = Compliance of Alveolar Zone 3 = 13.6 ml/mmHg$
- QI<sub>1</sub>, QI<sub>2</sub>, QI<sub>3</sub> = Inspiratory Flow of Oxygen in Zone 1, 2, &3 = 6000 ml/min
- QE<sub>1</sub>, QE<sub>2</sub>, QE<sub>3</sub> = Expiratory Flow of Oxygen in Zone 1, 2, &3 = 6000 ml/min
- Ppo<sub>2</sub>AL<sub>1</sub>, <sub>2</sub>, &<sub>3</sub>(0) = Partial Pressure of Oxygen in alveolar Zone 1, 2, &3 at time Zero = 8.0 mmHg
- Ppo<sub>2</sub>C<sub>1</sub>, <sub>2</sub>, &<sub>3</sub>(0) = Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Capillary Zone 1, 2, &3 at time Zero = 40.0 mmHg
- Pt1, 2, &3 = Total Pressure in Capillary Zone 1, 2, &3 = 90 mmHg
- $PAL_1 = Total Pressure of Oxygen In alveolar Zone 1, 2, & 3 = 100 mmHg$
- $Ppo_2A(0) = Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Arteries at time Zero = 40 mmHg$
- $Ppo_2V(0) = Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Veins at time Zero = 104 mmHg$

 $Ppo_2LA(0) = Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Large Airways at time Zero = 100 mmHg$ 

#### 3.2.3 Large Airways and Dead Zone

 $\gamma_1$  = Mixing (Blood & Gas) Coefficient for Zone 1 = 0.2

- $\gamma_2$  = Mixing (Blood & Gas) Coefficient for Zone 2 = 0.3
- $\gamma_3 =$  Mixing (Blood & Gas) Coefficient for Zone 3 = 0.5
- QE LA = Amount of Expired Air From Large Airways = 800 ml/min
- QI LA = Amount of Inspired Air into Large Airways = 200 ml/min
- CLA = Compliance of Large Airways = 4.32 ml/mmHg
- PtLa = Total Pressure in Large Airways = 100 mmHg
- QE DZ = Amount of Expired Air From Dead Zone = 150 ml/min
- QI DZ = Amount of Inspired Air into Dead Zone = 300 ml/min
- Ppo<sub>2</sub> Room = Partial pressure of Oxygen at Room conditions = 159 mmHg
- CDZ = Compliance of Dead Zone = 0.3 ml/mmHg
- PDZ = Partial Pressure of Oxygen In Dead Zone = 60 mmHg

#### 3.2.4 Arteries and Veins

F10 = Blood Flow out of Capillary Zone 1 = 500 ml/min F20 = Blood Flow out of Capillary Zone 2 = 300 ml/min F30 = Blood Flow out of Capillary Zone 3 = 200 ml/min Fpv = Blood Flow into Pulmonary Veins = 2000 ml/min Cpv = Compliance of Pulmonary Veins = 105 ml/mmHg Ptpv = Total Pressure in Pulmonary Veins = 40 mmHg Frv = Blood Flow from Pulmonary Veins = 1600 ml/min Fpa = Blood Flow from Pulmonary Arteries = 1800 ml/min Cpa = Compliance of Pulmonary Arteries = 8.4 ml/mmHg Ptpa = Total Pressure in Pulmonary Arteries = 100 mmHg

#### 3.3 Results

Figure 1 shows the partial pressure of blood in the pulmonary arteries, veins, and the capillaries. The systolic pressure in the right ventricle of the normal human being averages approximately 25 mmHg, and the diastolic pressure averages about 0 to 1 mmHg, values that are only one fifth those for the left ventricle.

**Pressures in the Pulmonary Artery.** During systole, the pressure in the pulmonary artery is essentially equal to the pressure in the right ventricle as shown in figure 1. However, after the pulmonary valve closes at the end of systole, the ventricular pressure falls precipitously, whereas the pulmonary arterial pressure falls slowly as blood flows through the capillaries of the lungs. As shown in the figure 1, the systolic pulmonary arterial pressure averages approximately 25 mmHg in the normal human being; the diastolic pulmonary arterial pressure, approximately 15 mmHg.

**Pulmonary Capillary and Venous Pressures**. The capillary pressure as shown in the figure 1 is approximately 11 mmHg and the pulmonary veins average approximately 8 mmHg. For a normal human being the venous pressure varies from as low as 1 mmHg to as high as 8 mmHg.

The actual transfer of gases occurs in the 250 million or so tiny sacs called alveoli which comprise the terminal ends of the whole branched network of flow passages. The time averaged oxygen and carbon dioxide concentrations in the alveoli are 104 mmHg and 40 mmHg respectively versus 149 mmHg and 0.3 mmHg in the humidified air.

Figure 2 shows the partial pressure of oxygen in the three alveolar zones with respect to time. Because higher ventilation rates and higher metabolic rates usually occur together, we can deduce that on balance oxygen and carbon dioxide partial pressures in the alveoli will stay nearly constant over a wide range of conditions.

Figure 3 shows that the Po<sub>2</sub> in a red blood cell entering the capillary is normally about 40 mmHg. Across the blood-gas barrier, less than 1/2 micron away, is the alveolar Po<sub>2</sub> of

100 mmHg. Oxygen is transported down this large pressure gradient, and the  $Po_2$  in the red blood cell rapidly rises; it nearly reaches the  $Po_2$  of alveolar gas by the time the red blood cell is only one-third of its way along the capillary. Thus, under normal circumstances, the difference in  $Po_2$  between alveolar gas and end-capillary blood is immeasurably small-a mere fraction of a mmHg. In other words, the diffusion reserves of the normal lung are enormous.

In all the models so far developed for gas exchange in the lungs, the large airways were simply considered as tubes for air to move from the mouth into the alveoli. But in reality there is some gas exchange in the large airways. Figure 4 shows the partial pressure of oxygen in the large airways with respect to time.

At the end of inspiration, the upper airways are filled with inspired gas that has undergone no gas exchange, and alveolar units contain gas that approximates pulmonary capillary blood in composition. Between these two sites, in large airways, the gas partial pressure must vary between these two extremes (between 100 mmHg and 149 mmHg). In our model it stays nearly constant at 105 mmHg.

Not all the air that passes through the mouth reaches the alveoli. Some of the air remains in the dead space where no gas exchange occurs. Figure 4 shows the partial pressure of oxygen during inspiration and expiration. Since no gas exchange occurs in this region the partial pressure also remains constant at 135 mmHg.

Figure 5 shows the partial pressures of oxygen in the arteries and the veins. Under equilibrium conditions, the partial pressure of the gas in the gas phase and in the liquid phase are equal<sup>23</sup>. This is because the number of gas molecules leaving the liquid per unit time is equal to the number entering the liquid. So the partial pressure of oxygen in the arteries (Figure 5) is almost equivalent to the blood pressure in pulmonary arteries and veins (Figure 1).

Figure 6 shows the blood pressure in the three capillary zones, which ranges between 9 mmHg and 13 mmHg.

## CHAPTER 4 CONCLUSION

The Model developed in this thesis is a physiologically based pharmacokinetic model of inhaled gases in the lung. The model can be used to simulate the blood-alveolar exchange of gases such as oxygen and carbon dioxide as well as a wide variety of anesthetic gases of varying solubility in blood and lung tissue.

The major advantages of the model developed in this work are as follows:

1. The lung compartments are physiologically based. Under normal resting conditions alveolar-blood gas exchange takes place in three physiologically defined zones from the apex to the base of the lung. These are defined as follows:

Zone 1: Approximately, the top 1/3 of lung. No open capillaries. Well ventilated but not perfused.

Zone 2: Approximately, the middle 1/3 of lung. Capillaries only open about half the time. Poorly perfused but well ventilated.

Zone 3: Approximately, the lower 1/3 of lung. All capillaries open all the time. Well perfused and well ventilated.

2. The proportion of the lung which operates in zones 1, 2 and 3 changes with exercise and trauma. The model developed in this thesis simulates these adaptations by changing the proportion of the total blood flow perfusing each zone.

3. Also under normal resting conditions a small proportion of the total blood flow through the lungs occur as an arterial-venous shunt. This proportion can change with various pathologies. The model can readily simulate these changes by changing one variable.

4. Changes in other physiological lung compartments (for example, dead space) can readily be accomplished to simulate other pathologies.

5. Anesthetic gases of varying degrees of blood-tissue solubility can be simulated by changing the solubility coefficient in the mass balance equations.

6. The model can readily be coupled to a whole body hemodynamic model developed earlier to simulate distribution, uptake and metabolism of the inhaled gases by a variety of tissues and organs.

7. The model is implemented using TUTSIM simulation software. This software package runs on a PC and requires no programming experience. Equations are built up using functional blocks. The blocks are symbolic and the software for implementation of each function is transparent to the user. The blocks are interconnected to form the inputs and outputs for each equation. Parameters and initial conditions are associated with each block and can be easily altered to change simulation conditions. The output from the simulation can be sent to a file which can be easily imported by a wide variety of graphics software for preparation of graphs and reports.

## **APPENDIX I**

This section contains the results of TUTSIM simulation program.

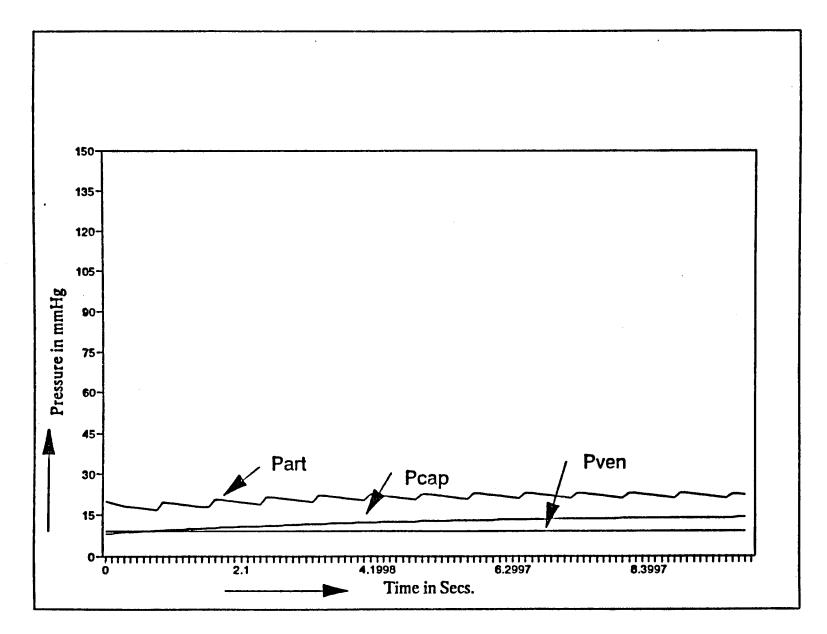


Figure 1 Blood Pressure in Pulmonary Arteries, Veins and Capillaries

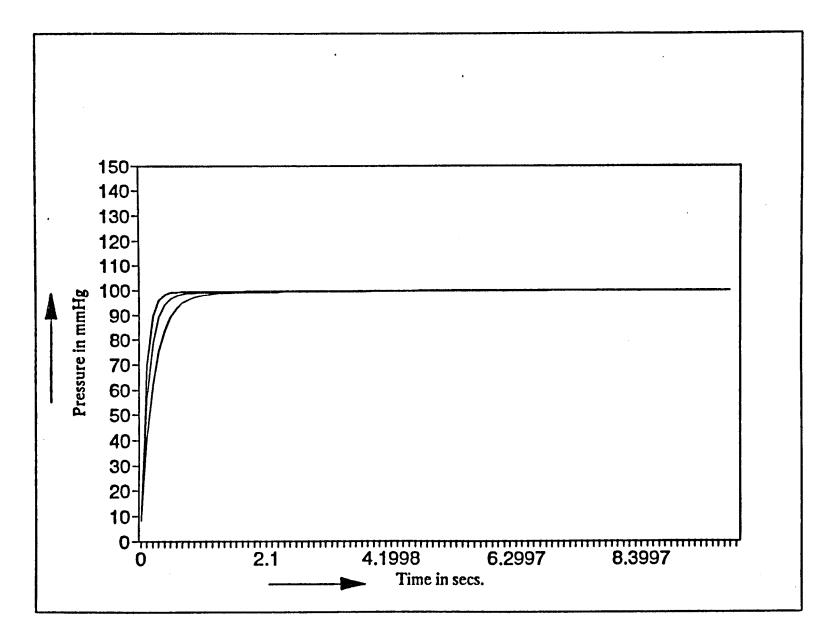


Figure 2 Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Alveolar Zones

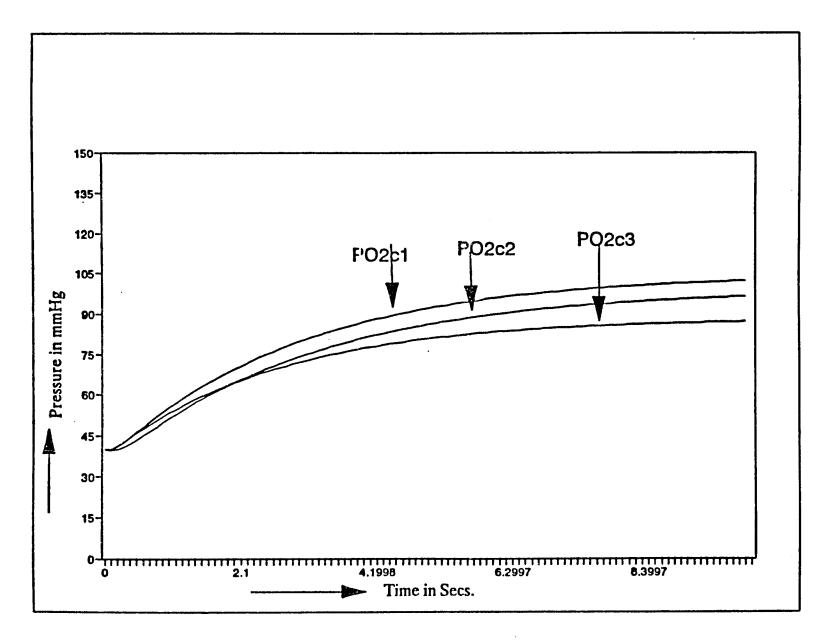


Figure 3 Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Capillary Zones

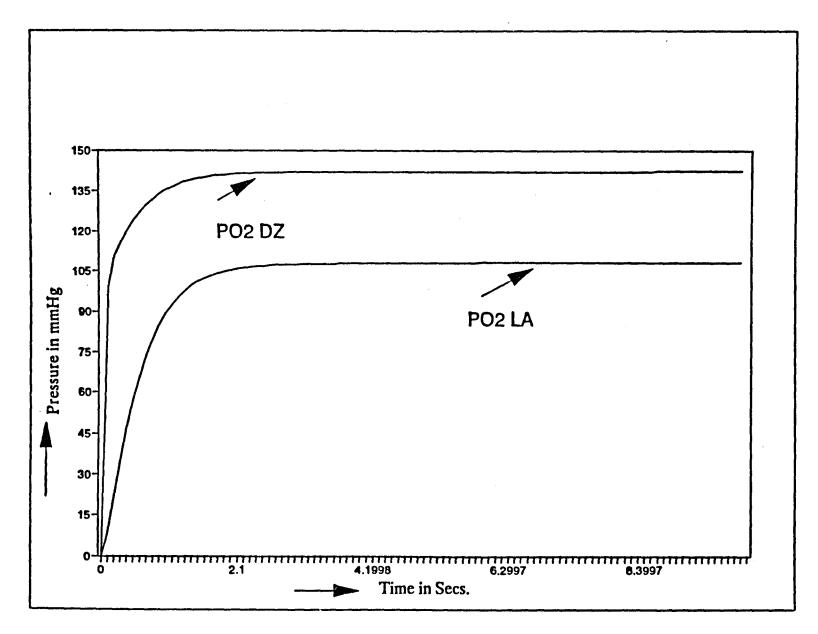
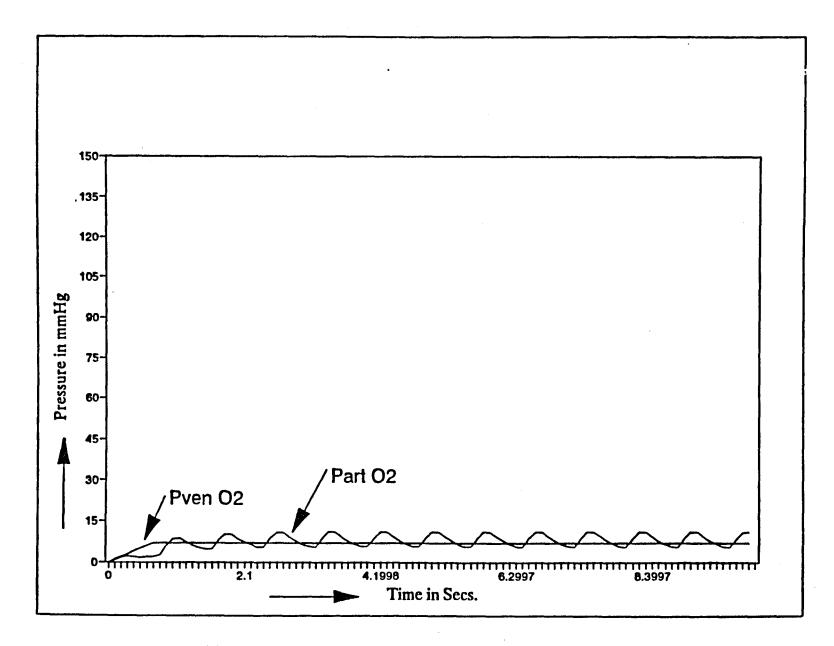


Figure 4 Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Large Airways and Dead Zone



## Figure 5 Partial Pressure of Oxygen in Arteries and Veins

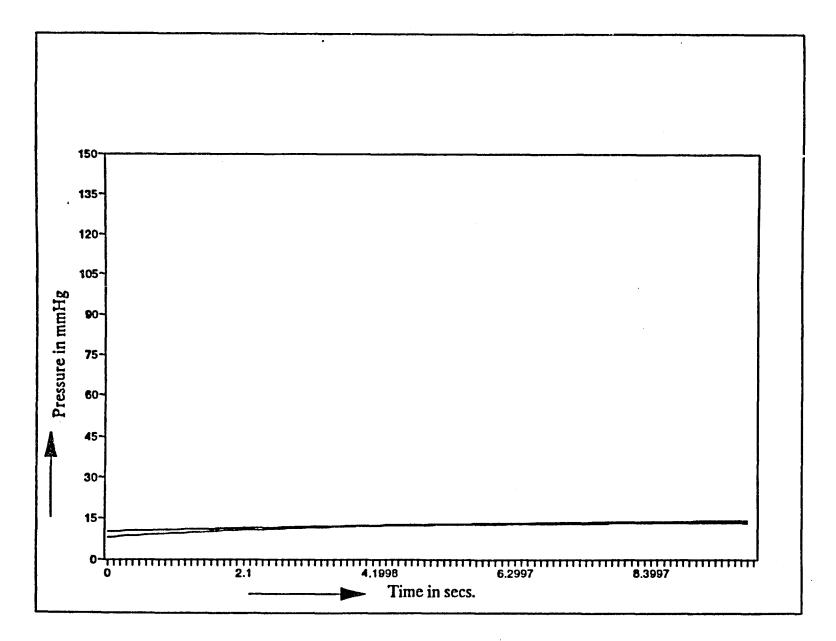


Figure 6 Blood Pressure in Capillary Zones

# **APPENDIX II**

This section contains TUTSIM Block functions, Commands, Simulation Program and the Block diagrams used for Simulation.

### TUTSIM BLOCKS

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TUTSIM BLOCKS

#### TUTSIM BLOCKS

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#### TUTSIM OPTIONS BLOCKS

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#### THE TUTSIM DOMINANDS

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- SP
- 3PP
- NR SF
- PE Porometer Estimation Simulations

### Proceeding with Simulation ofter on Internet

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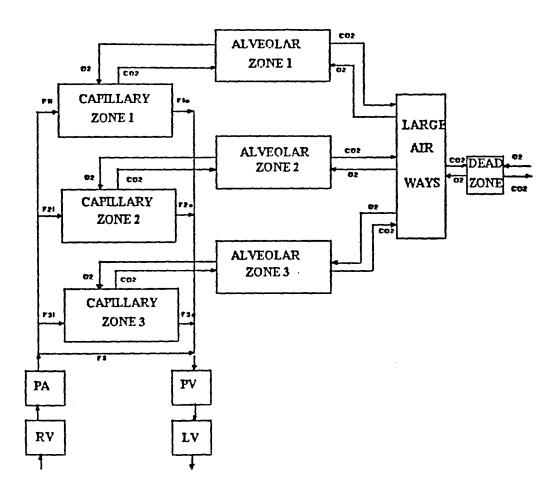
#### Function Key Screen Labels

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  F9 Clears the screen.
  F9 Clears the screen.
  F9 Sives a 15 point summory of the simulation values.

- Simulation values. F18 Allows the user to enter a title on the present graph.

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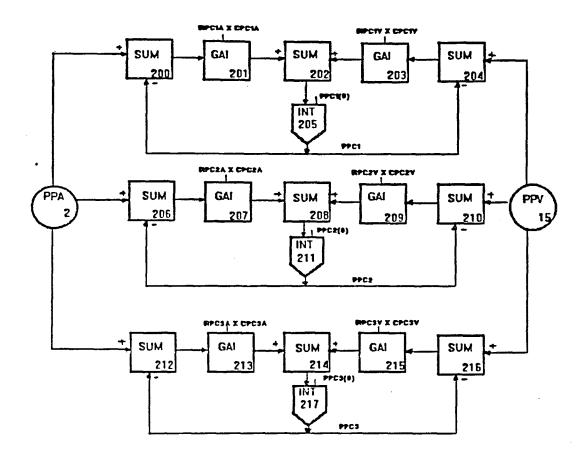


Figure 8 Tutsim Block Diagram for Pulmonary Blood Flow

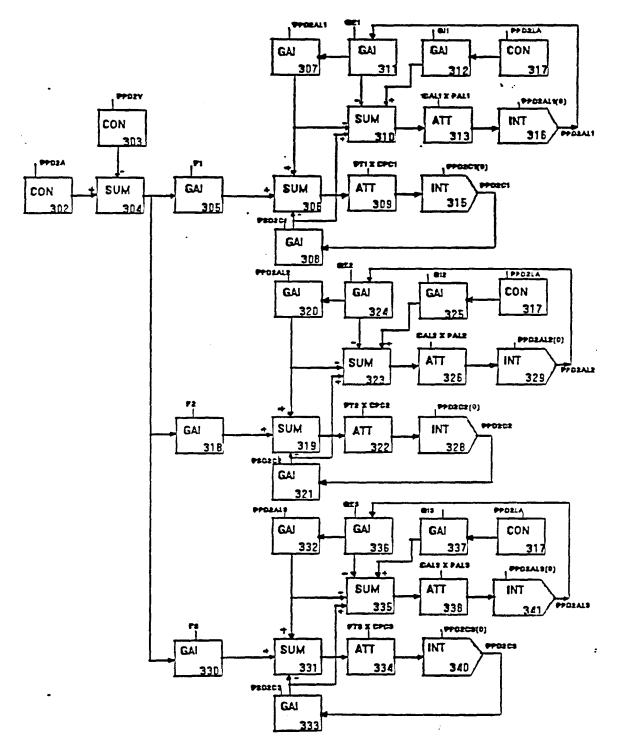


Figure 9 Tutsim Block Diagram for Alveolar and Capillary Gas Exchange

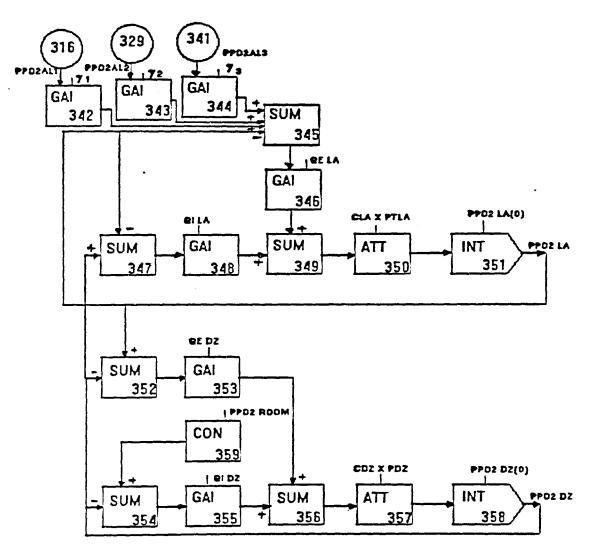


Figure 10 Tutsim Block Diagram for Large Airways and Dead Zone

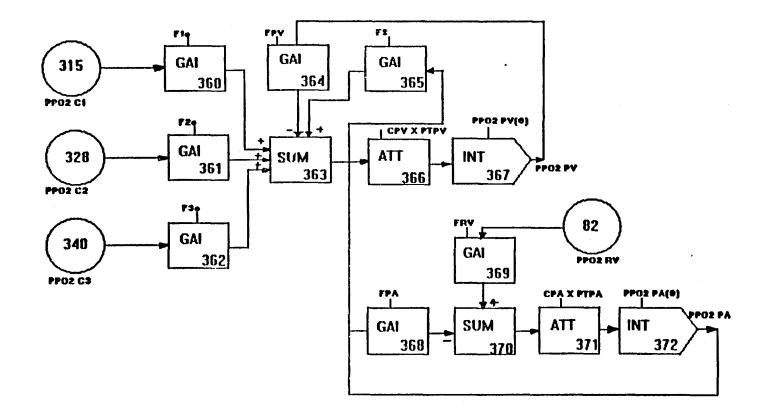


Figure 11 Tutsim Block Diagram for Arterial and Venous Pressures

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X,Y-	30	0.5800		0.0213000	
X,Y- X,Y-	31 32	0.6000		0.0211000	
X,Y-	33	0.6400		0.0208000	
X,Y-	34	D:6600		0.0207000	
X,Y- X,Y-	35 36	0.6800		0.0205000	
m,, −				0.0201001	,

ų

.

X,Y <del>.</del> 37 X,Y- 38 X,Y- 39	0.7200000 0.7400000 0.7600000	0.0202000 0.0201000 0.0233330
X,Y- 40 X,Y- 41 36 FND	0.7800000 0.8000000 33	D.0600000 O.0800000
37 FNC	34	<b>P1= 35.0000</b>
X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- X,Y- 10 X,Y- 20 X,Y- 30 X,Y- 31 X,Y- 32 X,Y- 33	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.0000} \\ \textbf{0.0200000} \\ \textbf{0.0400000} \\ \textbf{0.0600000} \\ \textbf{0.0800000} \\ \textbf{0.1200000} \\ \textbf{0.1200000} \\ \textbf{0.1400000} \\ \textbf{0.1600000} \\ \textbf{0.1800000} \\ \textbf{0.2200000} \\ \textbf{0.2200000} \\ \textbf{0.2200000} \\ \textbf{0.2200000} \\ \textbf{0.2200000} \\ \textbf{0.2200000} \\ \textbf{0.2400000} \\ \textbf{0.260000} \\ \textbf{0.260000} \\ \textbf{0.260000} \\ \textbf{0.3200000} \\ \textbf{0.3200000} \\ \textbf{0.3800000} \\ \textbf{0.3800000} \\ \textbf{0.3800000} \\ \textbf{0.3800000} \\ \textbf{0.4000000} \\ \textbf{0.4000000} \\ \textbf{0.4000000} \\ \textbf{0.400000} \\ \textbf{0.400000} \\ \textbf{0.4600000} \\ \textbf{0.5000000} \\ \textbf{0.5500000} \\ \textbf{0.5500000} \\ \textbf{0.5600000} \\ \textbf{0.5600000} \\ \textbf{0.6600000} \\ \textbf{0.6600000} \\ \textbf{0.6600000} \\ \textbf{0.6600000} \\ \textbf{0.6600000} \\ \textbf{0.7200000} \\ \textbf{0.7600000} \\ \textbf{0.7800000} \\ \textbf{0.7800000} \\ \textbf{0.7800000} \end{array}$	0.533330 0.7100000 0.7970000 1.0090 1.2740 1.4090 1.5370 1.6000 1.5950 1.5950 1.5900 1.5260 1.3333 0.8133300 0.4000000 0.1600000 0.0395000 0.0395000 0.0395000 0.0395000 0.0341000 0.0373000 0.044000 0.0432000 0.0429000 0.0429000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.042000 0.045000 0.0400000 0.040000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.04000000 0.040000000 0.00000000000000000000000000000000000
38 MD	33	P1= 37.0000
39 SUM 40 LIM	-76 26 39	
		<b>P1= 0.0</b> 000 <b>P2= 999.9</b> 80E+03
41 GAI	40	P1= 0.0427350
42 INT	46	P1= 60.0000
43 SUM	-47 42	

-44 J.IM	43			
			P1= P2=	0.0000 999.980E+03
45 GAI	44		<b>P1</b> =	2.0953
46 GAI	-41	-45	29 P1=	1.0000
47 INT	58		<b>P1=</b>	30.0000
48 SUM 49 LIM	-54 48	47		
			P1= P2=	0.0000 999.980E+03
50 GAI	49		 P1=	3.1818
51 SUM 52 LIM	-71 51	42	• • -	
	~		P1= P2=	0.0000 999.9805+03
53 GAI	52		P1=	<b>D.3</b> 836200
54 INT	62			
55 SUM	- 63	54	₽1 <b>-</b>	20.0000
56 LIM	55		<b>P1=</b>	0.0000
57 GAI	56		P2=	
58 GAI	-66	-50		45
59 SUM	- 63	47	P1=	1.1500
60 LIM	59		P1=	0.0000
61 GAI	60		P2=	999.980E+03
E2 GAI	-61	-57	₽1= 50	0.1275500
63 INT	70		P1=	0.0700000
64 SUM	- 63	42	<b>P1=</b>	15.0000
65 LIM	64	•	Pi=	0.0000
66 GAI	65		<b>P</b> 2=	
67 SUM	-71	63	<b>P1=</b>	0.1923070
68 LIM	67	00	Pl=	0.0000
69 GAI	68		P2=	999.980B+03
	_	61	P1= 57	433.6800
70 GAI	-69	01	97 P1=	0.0500000
71 INT	75	<b>*</b> -	P1=	8.0000
72 SUM 73 LIM	-76 . 72	71		
			<b>P1-</b>	0.0000

74	GAI	73		<b>P</b> 2-	999.980E+03
			<b>c</b> 0	P1.	
	GAI	-74	69	66 Ple	53 • 0.0030000
	INT	80		P1-	6.0000
	sum Lim	-82 77	76		
				P1 P2	
79	GAI	78		P1.	
80	GAI	-79	74	41 Pl-	
81	INT	83		 P1-	
	MUL GAI	81 -5	36 79	***	4.0000
		_	/3	<b>P1</b> -	1.0000
04	LIM	35		P1-	
85	GAI	2		<b>P</b> 2•	
86	GAI	10		P1-	30.7692
87	GAI	15		<b>P1</b> •	• 11.1111
89	GAI	26		P1-	200.0000
90	GAI	42		<b>P1</b> •	1.0000
91	GAI	47		<b>P1</b> •	4.1665
	GAI	54		P1-	0.8695650
				<b>P1</b> -	14.2857
	GAI	63		P1-	20.0000
	GAI	71		<b>P1</b> -	166.6670
	GAI	76		P1-	
100 101	sum Gai	82 105	-101	102	103
102	GAI	110		P1-	2.8200
103	GAI	107		P1=	1.7500
104		100		<b>P1</b> •	0.0660000
105		104		<b>P1</b> -	0.0341250
106		107		. <b>P1</b> -	8.0000
107	_	115		P1-	3.0000
	GAI	110		<b>P</b> 1-	1.0000
200	347	**		<b>P1</b> -	4.0000

109 SUM 110 GAI	-108 113	105	106	
111 ATT	105		<b>P1=</b>	1.0000
112 ATT	109		<b>P1</b> =	16.0000
113 INT	112		<b>P1=</b>	0.0540000
			<b>P1=</b>	5.0000
114 ATT	113		<b>P1-</b>	0.2000000
115 INT	118		<b>P1=</b>	4.0000
116 GAI	115		P1=	5.0600
117 SUM 118 ATT	111 117	114	-116	
119 GAI	. 105		P1=	0.0500000
120 GAI	113		P1=	0.0325000
121 GAI	115		P1=	0.0900000
	105		<b>P1=</b>	0.0500000
122 GAI			P1=	1.0000
123 GAI	113		<b>P1=</b>	0.6000000
124 GAI	115		<b>P1=</b>	0.2000000
200 SUM 201 GAI	2 200	-205		
202 SUM	201	203	P1=	0.1330000
203 GAI	204		<b>P1</b> =	0.2500000
204 SUM 205 INT	-205 202	15		
206 SUM	2	-211	<b>P1=</b>	10.0000
208 SOM 207 GAI	206	-211	<b></b>	
208 SUM	207	209	<b>P1=</b>	0.1390000
209 GAI	210		P1=	0.1960000
210 SUM 211 INT	-211 208	15		
212 SUM	2	-217	<b>P1</b> =	8.0000
213 GAI	212		<b>P1=</b>	0.1180000
214 SUM 215 GAI	213 216	215		
216 SUM	-217	15	P1=	0.1560000
210 SOM 217 INT	214	47	: 191	10 0000
218 SUM	204	210	P1= 216	10.0000
302 CON			<b>P1=</b>	40.0000

303 CON			•	<b>D</b> 1-	104.0000
304 SUM 305 GAI	302 304	-303		<b>~</b> ~	202.0000
306 SUM		344		<b>P1</b> =	5.0000
307 GAI	305 316	307	-308	•	
308 GAI	315				96.0000
309 ATT	306				105.0000
310 SUM	-307	308	-311		270.0000 12
311 GAI	316			<b>P1=</b> '	6.000B+03
312 GAI	317			<b>P1=</b>	6.000E+03
313 ATT	310			<b>P1=</b>	544.0000
315 INT	309			<b>P1</b> =	40.0000
316 INT	313				8.0000
317 CON					100.0000
318 GAI	304			P1=	
319 SUM	318 329	320	-321	£ 4 **	4. <i>13</i> 74
320 GAI				<b>P1=</b>	132.0000
321 GAI	328			P1=	125.0000
322 ATT	319		<b>.</b> -		360.0000
323 SUM 324 GAI	-320 329	-324	321	3	
325 GAI	317			<b>P1=</b>	6.000B+03
326 ATT	323			<b>P1=</b>	6.000B+03
328 INT	322			<b>P1=</b>	816.0000
329 INT	326			<b>P1=</b>	40.0000
330 GAI	304			<b>P1=</b>	8.0000
331 SUM		332		<b>P1=</b>	2.0000
331 SOM 332 GAI	341		ل ن ب ·	<b>D</b> 1_	150.0000
333 GAI	340				
334 ATT	331				150.0000
335 SUM	-332	-336	333	P1- 3	450.0000 37
336 GAI	•			<b>P1=</b>	6.000B+03
337 GAI	317			<b>P1=</b>	6.000B+03
338 ATT	335				

	INT	334		1	P1-	1.360B+03
_	INT	338		1	P1=	40.0000
	GAI			1	P1=	8.0000
		316		1	21=	0.2000000
	GAI	329		1	P1-	0.3000000
	GAI	341		-	21=	
	sum Gai	342 345	343	344	-3	51
347	SUM	-351	358	1	?1-	800.0000
348	GAI	347		I	?1 <b>=</b>	200.0000
	SUM ATT	346 349	348		_	
	INT	350		1	21=	432.0000
-	SUM	351	-358	3	21=	0.0000
	GAI	352	-320	-		
_	SUM	359	-358		-1=	150.0000
	GAI	354		1	21=	300.0000
	SUM ATT	353 356	355			
358	INT	357		I	?1=	18.0000
359	CON			1	<u> 1</u> =	0.000
360	GAI	315		I	21-	159.0000
361	GAI	328		3	21=	500.0000
	GAI	340		I	P1=	300.0000
-			262	-	21=	200.0000
	sum Gai	360 367	361	362		• • • • • • •
365	GAI	372		_	21-	2.000E+03
366	ATT	363		F	?1=	100.0000
367	INT	366		1	?1=	4.200B+03
368	GAI	372		I	?1=	0.0000
	GAI	82		I	21-	1.8008+03
	SUM	-368	369	I	21-	1.600B+03
	ATT	370		. 1	2=	840.0000
372	INT	371			21=	0.0000
373	LIM	367				0.0000

P1= 0.0000 P2= 7.0000

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