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On the use of Conformal Models and Methods in Dosimetry for Non-Uniform Field Exposure

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Abstract—Numerical artifacts affect the reliability of computational dosimetry of human exposure to low-frequency electromagnetic fields. In the guidelines of the International Commission of Non-Ionizing Radiation Protection (ICNIRP), a reduction factor of 3 was considered to take into account numerical uncertainties when determining the limit values for human exposure. However, the rationale for this value is unsure. The IEEE International Committee on Electromagnetic Safety has published a research agenda to resolve numerical uncertainties in low-frequency dosimetry. For this purpose, intercomparison of results computed using different methods by different research groups is important. In previous intercomparison studies for low-frequency exposures, only a few computational methods were used, and the computational scenario was limited to a uniform magnetic field exposure. This study presents an application of various numerical techniques used: different Finite Element Method (FEM) schemes, Method of Moments (MoM) and Boundary Element Method (BEM) variants and finally by using a hybrid FEM/BEM approach. As a computational example, the induced electric field in the brain by the coil used in transcranial magnetic stimulation is investigated. Intercomparison of the computational results are presented qualitatively. Some remarks are given for the effectiveness and limitations of application of the various computational methods.

Index Terms—low frequency dosimetry, transcranial magnetic stimulation, induced fields, sphere brain model, simplified brain model

I. INTRODUCTION

Human exposure to artificial electromagnetic fields has raised an increasing public concern regarding adverse health effects [1]. The assessment of low frequency (LF) exposure is based on the evaluation of internal current density [2] or internal electric field [3], [4], while high frequency (HF) exposure is based on the evaluation of specific absorption rate averaged over 1g or 10 g of tissue, which is a surrogate of temperature rise.

In addition to environmental exposure to man-made electromagnetic fields due to steadily increasing number of power and telecommunication installations, efficient medical treatments and diagnosis using electromagnetic radiation also require the knowledge of the accurate distribution of the electromagnetic fields inside the tissues. As it is rather difficult, or even impossible, to measure directly these quantities, the use of computational methods becomes necessary to determine internal field distributions [5]–[10].

There exists two international guidelines/standard for low-frequency exposure mentioned by World Health Organization. In the IEEE C95.6 standard [4], the ellipsoid is considered to derive the external and internal field strength. The International Commission of Non-Ionizing Radiation Protection (ICNIRP) guidelines [3] use computational results using anatomical models. Although the developed high resolution anatomically based models provide the detailed body representation currently available for LF dosimetry, there are some aspects that may need consideration. In 2014, the IEEE International Committee on Electromagnetic Safety (ICES) Technical Committee 95 Subcommittee 6 (EMF Dosimetry Modeling) has been established to resolve uncertainties and advance proper use of numerical models to determine electric fields induced within the body due to external electromagnetic fields or contact currents [11].

Voxel models suffer from essential errors due to stair-casing approximations, especially when discretized at another resolution than the underlying voxels. ICNIRP thus consider a reduction factor of 3 to account for numerical uncertainty. Historically, the difference of the induced electric field in anatomical models was suggested to be large in the intercomparison by Stuchly and Gandhi [12]. In that study, different human body models with different sets of electrical conductivities were used, together with a discussion on sensitivity of the electrical conductivities. Hirata et al. [13] coordinated the intercomparison using the same anatomical model named TARO with an identical set of electrical conductivities. The 99th percentile value of the induced electric field in the human body models, which is recommended in the ICNIRP guidelines [3] as the dosimetric quantity, is in good agreement for uniform magnetic field exposures. However, it is difficult to
be certain of the reliability of the 99th percentile value of the
induced electric field because no exact analytic solution exists
for a realistic anatomical model. It is particularly applicable
to non-uniform magnetic exposure as firstly suggested in [14].
Additional issue is how to process the internal electric field
averaged over 2-mm cube [3] as discussed in [15].

The suitability of the applied numerical solution methods is
then related to the highly heterogeneous electrical properties
of the body and the complexity of the external and internal
geometry. The numerical methods for LF exposure scenarios
range from simple canonical models, e.g. [16], [17], robust
finite difference scheme, e.g. [18], [19], which are ideally
suited for simulations of high-resolution, inhomogeneous mod-
els, but limited to scenarios where the wavelength is not too
big compared to the resolution, to the approaches suitable for
adaptive, conformal meshes, such as Finite Element Methods
(FEM), e.g. [20], [21] or Boundary Element Method (BEM),
e.g. [22], [23]. It should be noted that the numerical method is
not necessarily fixing the discretization approach. For example,
while FEM frequently uses adaptive unstructured meshes,
many FEM implementations (including some of those used
in this work) employ structured, rectilinear meshes or voxels.
Conversely, variants of the Finite Difference Time Domain
(FDTD) method support subcell models, conformal corrections
or local adaptivity.

Recent advancements in LF dosimetry have been reported
by a number of researchers, e.g. Chan et al. [24], De Santis et
al., [25], Hirata et al. [26], Dimbylow and Findlay [27], Laakso
et al. [28], Neufeld et al. [29], Kuster [15], [30], and others, in
addition to sensitivity analysis [6], [22], [31]. In most studies,
uniform field exposure was considered. As summarized above,
no study conduct intercomparison for low-frequency non-
uniform exposure. Dosimetry for non-uniform field becomes
essential for product safety and medical applications.

This study summarizes comparison on the implementation
of conformal models in LF dosimetry. For benchmarking pur-
poses, different research groups have carried out calculations
for non-uniform exposure. Unlike previous intercomparisons
at low frequencies, several computational methods were im-
plemented. As an example, the electric field induced in the brain
by transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) coil is considered.

II. METHODS AND MODELS

A. Stair-cased and conformal methods

Contrary to simple canonical models used in early dosime-
try papers (plane slab, cylinders, homogeneous and layered
spheres and prolate spheroids), modern realistic, anatomically
based computational models comprising of cubical cells are
mostly related to the use of the FDTD method [10], scalar-
potential finite difference method, or the FEM applied to
structured meshes. The conformal FEM, BEM, Method of
Moments (MoM), and some other methods are, on the other
hand, being used to a somewhat lesser extent.

Undoubtedly, an advantage of conformal methods, such as
BEM is that such methods themselves represent the natural
way of avoiding staircasing error in terms of the implemen-
tation of curvilinear or isoparametric elements. Furthermore,

TABLE I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geomtery</th>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Triangles</th>
<th>Tetrahedra</th>
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<td>1871</td>
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<tr>
<td>brain_800</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>1224</td>
<td>3542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brain_1200</td>
<td>1405</td>
<td>1870</td>
<td>5771</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The models have been initially prepared for MATLAB use.
The script for the viewing purposes has been prepared, as well.
The initial sphere of 1 m radius has been scaled using a factor
of 0.06, corresponding to 12 cm diameter. Dimensions of the
brain model are width 13.18 cm, length 16.11 cm, and height
13.9 cm, respectively.

Furthermore, frequency dependent parameters of the homo-
genous models are taken from [10], i.e. relative permittivity
and electric conductivity, respectively, are $\varepsilon = 46940$, $\sigma = 0.0859$ S/m, at $f=2.44$ kHz. In addition, linear and isotropic behavior is assumed for the electrical properties of tissues.

For the TMS coils, three generic geometries have been considered, namely, standard circular coil, Figure-8 coil, and butterfly coil (Figure-8 with wings inclined 10 degrees). The coil operating frequency is 2.44 kHz, while the radius, impressed current and number of turns are given in [10]. Each coil is located 1 cm over the surface of the model. The exact location of coil center (circular, 8-coil) is determined from the location of the model nodes: $V_x = \text{mean}(\text{node}(, 1)) + C_x$; $V_y = \text{mean}(\text{node}(, 2)) + C_y$, $V_z = \text{max}(\text{node}(, 3)) + C_z$, where $C_x = C_y = 0, C_z = 0.01$ are displacement of coil center (1 cm over primary motor cortex). From this geometric center, location of all other coil elements are determined.

C. Numerical methods implemented in comparison

The following numerical methods have been used in the TMS setup comparison: Surface Integral Equation (SIE) based MoM (SIE/MoM) carried out by Cvetković, Poljak and Haueisen [7], [10]; FEM with cubical elements carried out by Laakso and Hirata [14], BEM and Hybrid FEM/BEM carried out by Bottauscio, Zilberti and Chiampi [35], [36], and FEM with rectilinear elements using Sim4Life software carried out by Neufeld and Reboux. Interested reader can find specifics on the particular formulation type and the related solution method in the above references.

At low frequencies the electric and magnetic fields are decoupled and it is possible to treat the exposure to these fields separately. Another property of LF exposures is that for most tissues the conduction currents are at least one order of magnitude higher than the displacement currents and, therefore, in most scenarios, only tissue conductivity is considered, while the permittivity can be neglected.

III. NUMERICAL RESULTS

A. Fundamental Discussion

First the intercomparison of various methods with the analytical solution is carried out for the case of a homogeneous sphere exposed to infinitesimal magnetic dipole. The goal was to evaluate the induced field strength around the surface for localized or non-uniform exposure. A dielectric sphere of radius 8 cm centered at the origin is exposed to a magnetic dipole located 3 cm above the sphere with dipole moment oriented in z-direction.

The analytical approach to analyze a multi-layer sphere with arbitrary isotropic material parameters ($\varepsilon$ and $\sigma$) exposed to magnetic and/or electric dipoles based on Mie theory provides a full-wave solution and works at any frequency (previously confirmed at both 50 Hz and in the GHz range [37]).

The set of points is selected along three lines ($x$-, $y$-, and $z$-axes) and two surfaces (2 mm and 2 cm below the sphere surface), respectively. Figure 1 shows the electric and magnetic fields along three axes for the analytical case, numerical solution obtained using quasi-static FEM with cubical elements and full-wave SIE/MoM solution. As evident from Figure 1, analytical and numerical results computed by FEM are in excellent agreement, while SIE/MoM results do not match satisfactorily. These discrepancies particularly occur for points located close to the sphere surface where rather sharp peaks are observed, and are thus a serious drawback for the integral equation based solution due to a strong singularity of the kernel. Further SIE/MoM calculations using various mesh resolutions also showed a more pronounced effect near the surface. Hence, the results by current implementation of SIE/MoM at this LF scenario should not be taken without scrutiny. It is a well known fact that the electric field integral equation, on which SIE/MoM is based, suffers from a low-frequency breakdown problem [38]. In order to avoid this, and improve the results, it is necessary to use the so called loop-tree decomposition of basis functions followed by a frequency normalization of the matrix system. More details could be found in [38].

Figure 2 shows comparisons between the induced electric field over 2 spherical surfaces obtained analytically, and numerically by FEM. Again, a very good agreement is shown, while the largest difference between FEM and the analytical solution, seems to be at points with peak field values.

B. Some specifics related to implemented Hybrid FEM/BEM

The set of results, obtained using BEM code with triangular surface elements and the FEM/BEM code featuring voxel elements are based on two different formulations: the complete formulation (where E and B fields are both unknowns) and the approximate one (where only E is a problem unknown). The latter is valid if the reaction of the induced currents on the magnetic field can be disregarded.

The solutions with the FEM/BEM voxel model are obtained by creating a voxel model of the object (sphere or brain) having approximately the same number of volume tetrahedral elements reported in Table I. As voxel models are a structured mesh (used for highly anatomical human models), the resolution can be low in some regions, without loss of shape adaptivity, but with insufficient resolution of the field inhomogeneity. This fact can explain some discrepancies with BEM results. Simulations assuming voxels of smaller size (1 mm and 2 mm) have been also carried out.

C. Some specifics related to simulation setup for the FEM with rectilinear elements (Sim4Life) study

Regarding the implementation of models in FEM code, the brain geometries were imported as .stl (Standard Tessellation Language) format in Sim4Life. The sphere is created directly with rectilinear elements reported in Table I. As voxel models are a structured mesh (used for highly anatomical human models), the resolution can be low in some regions, without loss of shape adaptivity, but with insufficient resolution of the field inhomogeneity. This fact can explain some discrepancies with BEM results. Simulations assuming voxels of smaller size (1 mm and 2 mm) have been also carried out.
Fig. 1. Distribution of electric field (top) and magnetic field (bottom) along three axes. Comparison between analytical solution (analytical), FEM with cubical elements (num-FEM) and SIE/MoM (SIE-MoM).

Fig. 2. Maps of induced electric field over a spherical surface a) 2 cm below, b) 2 mm below, respectively. Comparison between analytical solution and numerical solution using FEM with cubical elements (side length of 0.5 mm).

As evidenced from Table II, for both the sphere and the realistic brain model, the ratio $\sigma/\omega\varepsilon$ is 13.5, which is significantly larger than one, thus indicating that the ohmic-current-dominated flavor of the magneto-quasi-static equation can be used.

The tolerance for the relative residuals of the magneto-quasi-static (convergence criterion) solver was set to $10^{-12}$. Selected results show peak amplitude distributions of the induced electric fields and magnetic flux densities.

### D. Spherical model

The first set of results is related to a TMS coil positioned 1 cm over homogeneous spherical model. The comparison is given for the induced electric field and magnetic flux density maps, respectively, on a cross-section of the sphere model, as shown in Figure 3. The results have been obtained using SIE/MoM, FEM with cubical elements, complete and approximate BEM, complete and approximate FEM/BEM, and FEM codes, respectively. Also, Table III gives a comparison of maximum induced electric field (V/m) and magnetic flux density (T) obtained using different numerical models for the case of circular coil and spherical geometry.

The results for the induced electric field obtained using different methods agree relatively satisfactorily as evidenced from the cross-sectional maps. Results for the magnetic flux density in the same cross-sectional plane are a plausible match, as well. Still, there are some numerical artifacts evident in the results using SIE/MoM code, which could be attributed to the low number of field points in the interpolation scheme.

### E. Simplified brain geometry

The following comparison between the same numerical methods has been performed on a simplified brain model. Figure 4 shows the distribution of the induced electric field at the brain surface due to three typical TMS coils: circular, figure-of-8 and butterfly, obtained using SIE/MoM and FEM. On the other hand, Figure 5 shows distribution of the induced electric field on the coronal cross-section of the brain model. The results have been obtained using SIE/MoM, FEM with cubical elements, complete and approximate BEM, complete and approximate FEM/BEM, and FEM codes, respectively. Table IV gives a comparison of maximum induced electric field (V/m) obtained using different numerical models for the case of circular coil.

The comparison from Figure 5 demonstrates that the results computed using the quasistatic solver and the FEM method and the full wave analysis carried out via SIE/MoM, respectively, do not exactly match. The electric field distribution over the cross-section is similar, but the maximum values obtained by different methods differ somewhat. Finally, some initial investigation related to the numerical errors due to discretization and convergence were investigated using structured mesh FEM code (voxels) by varying the Cartesian grid step, the
A comparison of results computed for different grid resolutions indicates good convergence for the field values inside the brain (or the sphere). A thorough convergence analysis has been performed. The maximum field values are located on the surface of the objects and thus converge more slowly.

Table: Comparison of maximum induced electric field using various numerical models for the case of brain geometry and circular TMS coil.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Surface, conforming</th>
<th>Triangles</th>
<th>BEM, complete</th>
<th>BEM, approximate</th>
<th>Voxels, nonconforming</th>
<th>FEM/BEM, complete</th>
<th>FEM/BEM, approximate</th>
<th>Triangles</th>
<th>SIE</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E [V/m]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>244</td>
<td>83.4</td>
<td>88.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>854 (10mm)</td>
<td>93.5</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>98.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>494</td>
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<td>89.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>1718 (8mm)</td>
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<tr>
<td>734</td>
<td>90.5</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4105 (6mm)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>976</td>
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<td>92.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>5347 (5.5mm)</td>
<td>84.8</td>
<td>84.8</td>
<td>976</td>
<td>108.3</td>
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<td>B [T]</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>976</td>
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<td>0.495</td>
<td></td>
<td>5347 (5.5mm)</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>976</td>
<td>0.561</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

triangulated mesh density of the brain surface, and the residual tolerance of the iterative solver. Results are shown in Figure 6 for the strictest criteria and finest resolutions, for the geometry of the brain.

A comparison of results computed for different grid resolutions indicates good convergence for the field values inside the brain (or the sphere). A thorough convergence analysis has not yet been performed. The maximum field values are located on the surface of the objects and thus converge more slowly.

IV. DISCUSSION

The intercomparison of numerical results by involved research groups obtained a reasonable agreement in the induced electric fields.

When comparing different numerical results in literature, the observed differences can be related to factors such as, human model size and detailedness, posture, organ size and shape, dielectric properties, the exposure source model, boundary conditions, and numerical factors (accuracy of the numerical method, discretization resolution, mesh quality, convergence).

While all of these are important factors when talking about comparing different studies, most of these should not be relevant for intercomparisons with clearly defined setups as all should use the same geometry, same properties, etc. In the presented intercomparison, the observed differences are partly related to the different numerical techniques, but unfortunately also to insufficiently well defined setup specification – the exact source positioning (angles) relative to the brain model and the evaluation planes and points were not specified, making quantitative comparison impossible. Hence, it is suggested that in future work, much of the differences resulting from comparison at different planes and setups are to be overcome by giving specific set of evaluation trajectories and also including precise source information, in order to allow more quantitative comparison the type of approximation introduced by the different methods.

When comparing the methods, their performance (including scaling with increasing resolution), accuracy, and strengths (e.g., ability of dealing with inhomogeneity) must be investigated, while considering the interdependence of these factors. For example, methods based on voxels are more likely to introduce stair-casing artifacts, but cannot directly be compared with methods featuring a similar number of conformal elements, as the structuredness of their discretization facilitates scaling to higher resolutions, thus reducing discretization errors. In general, a good comparison should require the methods to first perform a convergence study to determine the method-specific requirements to get a converged solution. Then the solution quality and computational efforts can be compared.

Surface plots should be interpreted and compared carefully, due to the combination of interpolation to the surface, field discontinuity at interfaces, and surface element orientation discontinuities at edges. The cross-section and line plots are more reliable to get quantitative information.
A. Limitations

This study featured comparison on only very simple problems (homogeneous, isotropic, single, mostly smooth surface, without internal structure or inclusions), although some of the employed approaches can perform calculation on very detailed geometries at high resolution (already within this study, in the case of the FEM method using cubical elements, the finest spherical mesh has been discretized using 0.5 mm cubical elements, equivalent to 7.4 million degrees of freedom). On the other hand, calculations using the SIE/MoM code could be undertaken only on a coarsely discretized geometry. In addition, using the SIE/MoM, the field values at intermediate points are calculated using an interpolation scheme. Low number of elements and field determined at restricted number of points will result in some numerical artifacts particularly evident on the cross-sectional results for the magnetic flux density. This could be overcome by determining the field at higher resolution.

As previously highlighted, the employed conformal brain geometry is still an extremely simplified model (mainly for the purpose of comparison). The surface is radically smoothed (missing folding structures of gyri and sulci) and the model consists of a single, homogeneous structure. Although it is more realistic than the sphere, it lacks the detailed cortical structures and inhomogeneity (grey/white matter, ventricles, etc.). In order to overcome this limitation, the future work should therefore include comparisons on detailed anatomically correct head model, featuring complex material maps and shapes.

Nonetheless, regarding the use of the homogeneous model it is important to emphasize that it is reasonable to start comparing different numerical techniques using simple models thus opening the subject. In any case one has to deal with discrepancies in numerical results due to complexity of the geometry and material (inhomogeneity). It was shown in some previous papers [39] that computational artifacts are caused at the air-tissue boundary. It was also shown in some previous papers that integral equation techniques are more sensitive to irregularities in geometry than inhomogeneities, e.g. [6], [22].

Also, since there is only a qualitative comparison between the methods, any future effort should include the quantitative comparison between the different methods (either in terms of accuracy or in terms of computational effort) as well as detailed convergence study.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

There are several aspects to be improved in the human dosimetry for low-frequency field exposure, as suggested in the Research Agenda by IEEE ICES [11]. One of the specific issues is the stair-casing error arising from the commonly-used voxel anatomic models, which could be removed by using conformal methods, such as BEM or FEM.

The present paper reviewed and presented intercomparison on the use of various numerical techniques applied to conformal models in LF dosimetry. Unlike previous intercomparisons [12], [13], non-uniform exposure was considered and several computational methods were used. We particularly discussed
Fig. 4. Maps of the induced electric field over the brain surface. Top to bottom: circular coil, Figure-8 coil, and butterfly coil. Results obtained by SIE/MoM for conformal surface comprising of 1224 triangles (left), and FEM (right) using grid resolution of 0.5 mm.

Fig. 5. Maps of the induced electric field for conformal and stair-cased brain geometry, respectively, due to circular coil. Results obtained by: a) SIE/MoM with 976, b) FEM with cubical elements, c) approximate BEM, and d) complete BEM using 1870 triangles, respectively, e) approximate FEM/BEM using 155546 voxels (2 mm), f) complete FEM/BEM using 5394 voxel elements (5.5 mm), and g) FEM using grid resolution of 0.5 mm

Fig. 6. Induced electric field (peak) at different grid resolutions for the circular coil, at the centered sagittal cross-section. Top to bottom: 2 mm, 1 mm, 0.5 mm. Results obtained using structured mesh FEM (voxels).

the differences attributable to the implementation of methods for non-uniform exposure. The implementation of MoM, FEM, BEM, hybrid FEM/BEM has been investigated on the TMS setup, for the geometry of a sphere and of a conformal simplified geometry of a homogeneous, isotropic brain. Illustrative computational examples related to the assessment of

APPENDIX A
ON THE APPLICATIONS OF FDTD AT VERY LOW FREQUENCIES

The suitability of applying the FDTD technique to dosimetry at very low frequencies has been examined by E. Neufeld from ETH Zurich, Switzerland, C. Warren and A. Giannopoulos from University of Edinburgh, UK and F. Costen from Manchester University, UK with regard to the reference TMS setups.

Researchers from University of Edinburgh have access to a full body model (AustinMan – http://bit.ly/AustinMan) [40] which can be used in their FDTD simulation software (gprMax – http://www.gprmax.com) [41]. The brain grey and white matter of the brain have been extracted from the full body model, which is meshed with 2x2x2mm cells. As an initial step, a magnetic dipole can be used to simulate the coil.

However, the main problem in using the FDTD method for this scenario remains the low excitation frequency. Using a 2 mm spatial resolution coupled with a 2.44 kHz excitation, results in an unfeasibly large number of iterations, and hence simulation time, e.g. for 1 ms duration simulation, ∼260x10^6 iterations (2.5 months with moderate parallelization, although this is very implementation dependent) are required. Therefore,
without moving to higher excitation frequencies it is not really feasible to run a FDTD simulation. As far as the FDTD simulations are concerned, for LF dosimetry it can be stated that at such low frequencies (kHz frequency range with geometry in $10^{-1}$ m range) FDTD is not suitable. This is because the maximal stable time step relative to the EM time period is proportional to the ratio of grid step to wavelength. The spatial discretization required for FDTD is usually around 1/10 of the wavelength at the frequency of interest, with an additional need to resolve the skin depth, while in LF simulations at very low frequencies the resolution required to resolve the geometry is much finer than that, which results in an extremely large number of time steps for a simulation. Even when applying various established numerical techniques or algorithms, such as a wide variety of implicit schemes, subgridding and subcell methods, frequency scaling or innovative source models, FDTD simulations would require unfeasibly long durations. For example, a simulation of the model setup with a time window of 300 $\mu$s for $\Delta x = 1$ cm, which is the very coarse sampling of the object, would need to run more than $10^7$ time steps.

REFERENCES


Ilkka Laakso received the M.Sc.(Tech.) degree from Helsinki University of Technology, Espoo, Finland, in 2007, and the D.Sc.(Tech.) degree in electromagnetics from Aalto University, Espoo, Finland, in 2011. Between 2013 and 2015, he has been a Research Assistant Professor and Research Associate Professor at the Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Nagoya Institute of Technology. Since 2015, he has been an Assistant Professor in Electromagnetics in health technologies at Aalto University. His research interest are in computational bioelectromagnetic modeling for assessment of human safety and biomedical applications. He is the author of more than 75 papers published in international journals and conference proceedings. He has been the recipient of several awards, included Student Award in International Symposium on EMC, Kyoto, 2009; Ericsson Young Scientist Award, 2011; and Young Scientist Award in URSI Commission B International Symposium on Electromagnetic Theory, Hiroshima, Japan, 2013. He is the secretary of Subcommittee ‘EMF Dosimetry Modeling’ of IEEE International Committee on Electromagnetic Safety and a member of the scientific expert group of International Commission on Non-ionizing Radiation.

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Sylvain Rebourx was born in 1982 in eastern France. Sylvain completed his engineering degree in Mathematics and Mechanics at the Ecole Polytechnique Paris, France) in 2005, his M.Sc. degree in Fluid Mechanics at the Universit Pierre and Marie Curie (Paris, France) in 2005 and his PhD degree in Applied Mathematics at the University of Nottingham (Nottingham, UK) in 2008. Sylvain worked for 4 years as a postdoctoral researcher in the Department of Computer Science of ETH Zurich, developing novel computational methods and algorithms in a high-performance computing environment. He then joined ASCOMP AG, an ETHZ spinoff company specializing in computational fluid dynamics solutions. As head of research there, his role was to initiate and develop research projects in collaboration with universities and research institutes, as well as consultancy projects for industry. Sylvain joined ZMT in August 2015 as Senior Software Engineer for Computational Life Sciences.

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Fumie Costen (M’07-SM’12) received the B.Sc. and M.Sc. degrees in electrical engineering and the Ph.D. degree in informatics from Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan. From 1993 to 1997, she was with Advanced Telecommunication Research International, Kyoto, where she was involved in research on direction-of-arrival estimation based on multiple signal classification algorithm for 3-D laser microvision. She was invited to give five talks in Sweden and Japan during 1996-2014. From 1998 to 2000, she was with Manchester Computing, University of Manchester, Manchester, U.K., where she was involved in research on metacomputing and has been a Lecturer since 2000. She filed three patents from the research in Japan in 1999. She filed a patent from the research on the boundary conditions in 2012 in the U.S. Her current research interests include computational electromagnetics in such topics as a variety of the finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) methods for microwave frequency range and high-spatial resolution, FDTD subgridding and boundary conditions, the hardware acceleration of the computation using general-purpose computing on graphics processing units, streaming single instruction multiple data extension, and advanced vector extensions instructions. Dr. Costen was a recipient of the ATR Excellence in Research Award in 1996 and the Best Paper Award from the 8th International Conference on High-Performance Computing and the Networking Europe in 2000.

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