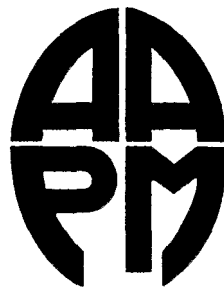


**PERFORMANCE EVALUATION
OF
HYPERTHERMIA EQUIPMENT**



Published for the
American Association of Physicists in Medicine
by the American Institute of Physics

AAPM REPORT NO. 26

**PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF
HYPERTHERMIA EQUIPMENT †**

REPORT OF
TASK GROUP NO. 1
HYPERTHERMIA COMMITTEE*

AAPM

Members

Geoffrey S. Ibbott (Chairman)
Ivan Brezovich
Peter Fessenden
Yakov Pipman
Taljit Sandhu
V. Sathiaseelan
Paul Stauffer
Adrienne Galdi (FDA liaison)
Tillman Saylor (Consultant)

*Thaddeus V. Samulski was Chairman of the AAPM Hyperthermia Committee at the completion of this Report. Bhudatt R. Paliwal was Chairman at the formation of the Task Group and during the preparation of the Report.

June 1989

Published for the
American Association of Physicists in Medicine
by the American Institute of Physics

†AAPM Report No. 27 covers hyperthermia treatment planning.

DISCLAIMER: This publication is based on sources and information believed to be reliable, but the AAPM and the editors disclaim any warranty or liability based on or relating to the contents of this publication.

The AAPM does not endorse any products, manufacturers, or suppliers. Nothing in this publication should be interpreted as implying such endorsement.

Further copies of this report may be obtained from

Executive Officer
American Association of Physicists in Medicine
335 E. 45 Street
New York, NY 10017

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 89-045906
International Standard Book Number: 0-88318-636-5
International Standard Serial Number: 0271-7344

Copyright © 1989 by the American Association
of Physicists in Medicine

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means (electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise) without the prior written permission of the publisher.

Published by the American Institute of Physics, Inc.
335 East 45 Street, New York, NY 10017

Printed in the United States of America

CONTENTS

- I RATIONALE
- II INTRODUCTION
- III PERFORMANCE EVALUATION PROCEDURES
 - A Visual Inspection
 - B. Thermometry Equipment
 - 1. Calibration Procedure
 - 2. Sources and Magnitude of Measurement Error
 - C. Generators and Power Measurement Devices
 - 1. RF Generator
 - 2. RF Power Meter
 - D. Data Acquisition and Monitoring Systems
 - 1. Evaluation Procedure
 - 2. Recommended Accuracy
 - E. Applicators
 - 1. External Radiative Electromagnetic Devices
 - a. Single Applicators
 - i. Phantom for SAR Measurements
 - ii. Recommended Measurements
 - b. Multiple Applicator Arrays for Superficial Heating
 - i. Phantom
 - ii. Recommended Measurements
 - c. Multiple Applicator Arrays for Deep Heating
 - i. Equipment
 - (1) Phantom
 - (2) Electric Field Probes
 - (3) Temperature Probes
 - ii. Performance Evaluation Procedures
 - (1) E Field Probe Calibration
 - (2) SAR Measurements
 - (3) Leakage Measurements
 - 2. External RF Applicators
 - a. Magnetic Induction Systems
 - i. RF Generator and RF Power Meter
 - ii. Inductive Applicators
 - iii. System Performance Evaluation
 - b. Capacitive Heating Systems
 - c. Temperature Control System (TCS)
 - 3. Interstitial and Intracavitary Electromagnetic Applicators
 - a. Interstitial Microwave Antennas
 - i. System Considerations
 - ii. Antenna Considerations

- b. Interstitial RF (Localized Current Field)
 - i. System Considerations
 - ii. Hardware Considerations
 - c. Interstitial Ferromagnetic Seeds
 - 4. External Ultrasound Heating Systems
 - a. Generator
 - i. Frequency
 - ii. Electrical Power
 - b. Single-Transducer Systems
 - i. Acoustical Power
 - ii. SAR Measurements
 - iii. Water Coupling System
 - iv. Reproducibility
 - c. Multiple Transducer Systems, and Scanning Systems
 - F. Control Systems
 - G. Electrical and Radiation Safety
 - 1. Electrical Leakage Currents
 - 2. Electromagnetic Radiation
 - IV. Frequency of Equipment Evaluation

I. RATIONALE

For hyperthermia to reach the status of an accepted modality, unequivocal proof that it is effective must be obtained.⁴¹ A clear, causal relationship must be demonstrated between the application of the modality and the response of the disease. A thorough understanding of the equipment is required to demonstrate such a relationship. Further, to maximize the possibility that patients treated with the equipment receive the desired effect, the equipment should conform to certain minimum standards. Equipment for hyperthermia should heat human tissue in a controlled, safe, and reproducible fashion. All ancillary equipment should operate as intended, without serious risk of failure or injury to the patient or operator. Several parameters which indicate the effect of the treatment should be monitored with suitable accuracy.

This document has been prepared as a guide to assessing the performance of hyperthermia equipment. The procedures described are felt to constitute the minimum necessary for adequate evaluation of each piece of equipment. These recommendations may be utilized for developing purchase specifications; should be considered for acceptance testing of new equipment; and should be incorporated into a quality assurance program. Performance criteria expressed here are considered the minimum acceptable for a clinical system.

As is true of many newly-introduced modalities, hyperthermia equipment and procedures undergo frequent modification. Revisions of this document will be prepared when necessary.

II. INTRODUCTION

Most clinical hyperthermia systems operate by causing a target volume of tissue to be exposed to electromagnetic (EM) fields or ultrasound (US) radiation. The EM or US power is supplied by a generator and delivered to the patient through an applicator. A diagram of the fundamental components of a hyperthermia system is shown in Figure 1. Applicators in use today consist of implantable or external electrodes, antennas, waveguides, and transducers. These devices may deposit energy to only a small volume of tissue directly adjacent to the heating device, or they may be intended to deliver regional or whole-body hyperthermia.

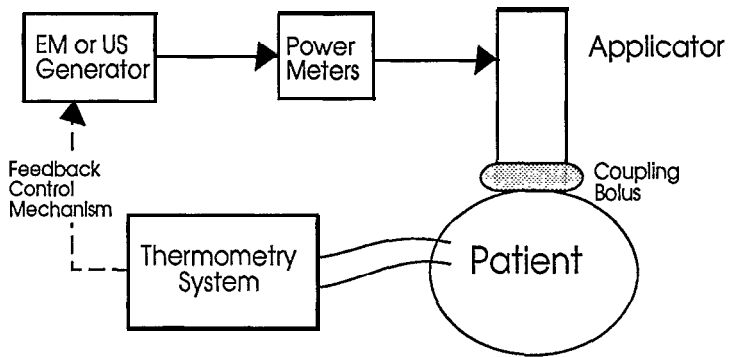


Figure 1: The fundamental elements of a representative hyperthermia system.

The clinical outcome of hyperthermia depends critically on the tissue temperatures obtained during the procedure.^{42, 43, 45, 46, 50, 53} It is therefore important to have accurate information concerning the temperature throughout the treated region of the patient. Although non-invasive thermometry which could yield complete 3-dimensional temperature information would be most desirable, such equipment is not presently available. In the absence of such an ideal thermometer, clinicians use small implanted probes, and in some cases move the probes within implanted catheters to obtain one-dimensional temperature profiles.²² To minimize the need for mechanical mapping, probes having multiple temperature sensors distributed along their length often are used.

Clinical experience has shown that only a relatively small number of temperature probes can be inserted into a patient. Consequently, the information concerning temperature distributions within the treated region will be incomplete. The problem is especially pronounced in situations where large temperature gradients are encountered: tissue temperature variations exceeding 1°C per mm have been observed.⁴² Thus, the clinician has no assurance that the temperature throughout the tumor will be represented adequately by that measured at a few points.

The temperature distribution obtained during hyperthermia treatment is influenced by the power deposition pattern and by the thermal and physiological properties of the tissue under treatment. The tissue properties vary from one anatomical site to another and from patient to patient. The idealized power deposition pattern can be characterized in the laboratory using a phantom model which is tissue-equivalent at the frequency of EM or US radiation being used. Power deposition is quantified in Watts/ kg, and is described as the Specific Absorption Rate (SAR).²³ To assure proper performance of an applicator, the SAR pattern should be evaluated under controlled laboratory conditions not only prior to its first clinical use but also at regular intervals as part of a clinical quality assurance program. During routine use, a deterioration of applicator performance could be indicated by a sudden change in the power required to achieve the desired temperature. The operator should be continually on the alert for such changes.

The temperature to which the tissue is raised depends upon, among other things, the amount of EM or US power absorbed by the tissue. This quantity is determined by the power supplied by the generator, and adjustment of the gen-

erator is most often the method by which tissue temperatures are controlled.

A variety of physiological changes, including blood flow and pH, have been reported following hyperthermia.⁴⁴ In addition, many investigators have observed that their patients appear to change in some physiological manner during the course of treatment, so that the amount of power required at one heating session may be different from the level required at previous or succeeding sessions. The variation from one day to the next may be an indication of a response to the therapy, and may therefore be an important quantity to document. Documentation might be achieved through the relationship between desired temperature and the power required to reach that temperature. Consequently, a reasonably accurate indication of the power delivered during the treatment is required.

Some of the procedures described here are necessarily complex, and require the use and understanding of sophisticated equipment. It is therefore recommended that the procedures be performed or supervised by an individual with training and experience in clinical hyperthermia physics and engineering. A minimal background might consist of academic and practical training in medical physics or clinical engineering, followed by attendance at a formal course in hyperthermia physics. As with other forms of medical treatment, a dedication to the task is mandatory.

An exhaustive analysis of a hyperthermia system may exceed the capabilities of most clinical departments. Manufacturers of hyperthermia equipment should provide representative data describing the performance of their equipment, and recommended operating parameters. Suitable phantoms should be included with each system. The user of the equipment is encouraged to follow the procedures outlined below to verify compliance of the equipment with the manufacturer's specifications.

III. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION PROCEDURES

A. Visual Inspection

Some important characteristics of operation may be determined from a visual inspection of the system. Devices such as indicator lamps, digital displays, and meters should be energized to ensure that they are functional. Electrical cables should be inspected for wear or breakage, and for exposed terminals. Loose connections should be tightened. Implantable antennas which exhibit bends, fraying or other

damage that could affect performance should be discarded. Other devices which come in contact with the patient should be inspected to verify the integrity of insulation and protective coatings, and the absence of abrasive surfaces. Temperature probes should be examined for bends, breaks, or damage to connectors or insulation, and for the exact location of the temperature sensor(s). With opaque probes, moving the probe across a steep thermal gradient may be required to locate the position of the sensor.

B. Thermometry Equipment

The choice of a particular thermometry system should be made following careful consideration of its intended application. Any measuring instrument can be considered acceptable for a given purpose if the error contributed by the instrument is small compared to other errors or uncertainties in the measurement. Hence, in local hyperthermia where large temperature fluctuations are encountered, an extremely accurate thermometer may not be required. An overall error not exceeding 0.3°C is probably acceptable, but achieving this accuracy in a clinical environment may require that the thermometer agree with an institution's standard to within 0.1 or 0.2%. In whole body hyperthermia, on the other hand, where temperatures are only a few tenths of one degree below the lethal limit and homogeneity is excellent, instrument errors of more than $\pm 0.05\%$ may be unacceptable.

1. Calibration Procedure

The accuracy of the thermometry system should be verified by comparing its readings to a thermometer having its calibration traceable to the National Bureau of Standards (NBS). A high-quality mercury-in-glass thermometer with a precision of 0.05°C makes a practical, reliable and affordable standard. This standard should be calibrated to the NBS standard at two or more points within the treatment range, e.g. at 41°C and at 45°C . To carry out the comparison, the temperature probe should be affixed to the standard, so that the sensing element is close to the mercury bulb. The thermometers should be inserted into a water bath to the proper immersion depth of the mercury standard and the readings of the two thermometers compared. To minimize inaccuracies caused by temperature gradients, the water should be stirred vigorously or circulated in a thermally insulated container. At least three comparisons should be done, spanning the

temperature range for which the thermometry system is to be used.

Thermometry systems having their own calibration wells should also be checked for accuracy. A recommended procedure involves calibrating the thermometry system by use of its own well. Thereafter, the accuracy of the system should be checked with an NBS traceable standard as outlined above.

In each case, the accuracy of the thermometry system should lie within the limits specified by the manufacturer. Deviations from the specified accuracy may indicate that the equipment is unreliable and should be returned to the manufacturer for repair.

2. Sources and Magnitude of Measurement Error

Temperature measurements in hyperthermia are especially susceptible to errors since such measurements are often taken in the presence of strong electromagnetic or ultrasound fields.^{27,36} In the following, the major sources of error will be explained and methods for dealing with the ensuing problems will be suggested.

First, electromagnetic (EM) fields within the treatment room may interfere directly with the sensitive electronics of the readout unit which converts the signals from the temperature sensors to temperature readings.^{7,8,10,11,25} One must keep in mind that such signals are very weak; a typical thermocouple probe generates only 40 $\mu\text{V}/^\circ\text{C}$. Temperature probes with metallic leads as well as AC power cords can act as effective antennas for picking up FM energy and transmitting it to the readout unit. Such direct interference can be reduced substantially by proper shielding of the readout unit and by careful filtering of all incoming signal and power lines.^{7,29} A good thermometer for hyperthermia should incorporate such features.

The presence of direct electromagnetic interference can be detected readily by a sudden change in the temperature reading when the hyperthermia apparatus is turned on.^{8,16} When the apparatus is turned off, the reading should change in the opposite direction an equal amount. (see Figure 2a) The error due to direct electromagnetic interference can be positive or negative, i.e., the thermometer may read higher or lower

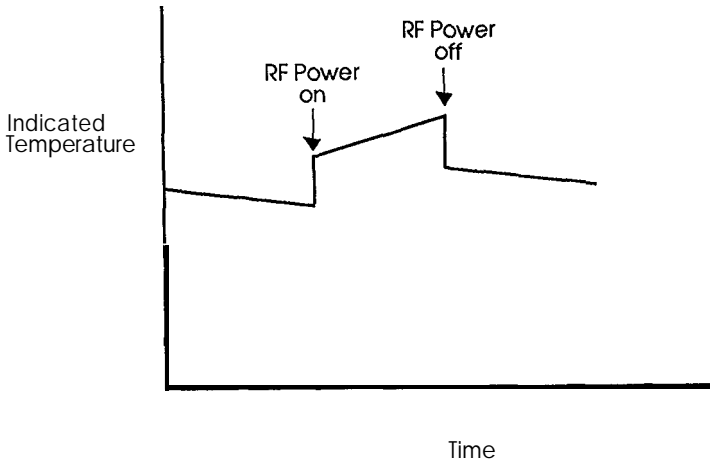


Figure 2a: An example of the effect of direct electromagnetic interference on the indicated temperature

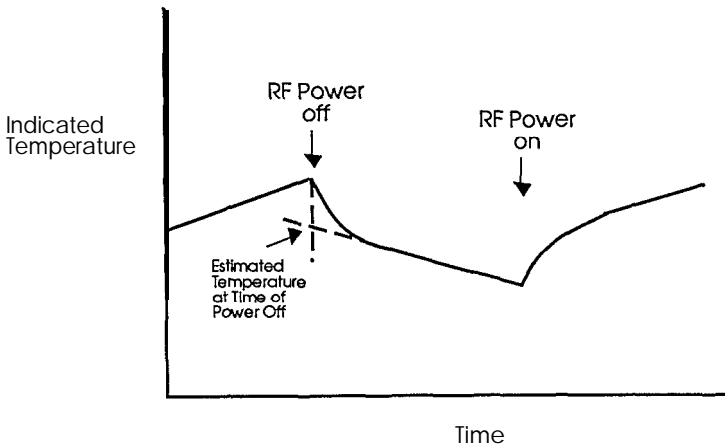


Figure 2b: Typical response of a temperature probe exhibiting electromagnetic interference or probe heating.

than it did before the hyperthermia apparatus was turned on. A direct interference error can also be identified by its strong dependence on the spatial relation between the thermometer and the hyperthermia equipment. If the electromagnetic interference is large, especially if it drives the thermometer reading out of range, frequent calibrations will be required to establish that the instrument can tolerate such strong interference without damage.

A second error can arise during hyperthermia if the temperature probe (or the catheter) absorbs energy more rapidly than the surrounding tissues. In this case the sensor will become hotter than the body tissues and the measurement, although showing the correct sensor temperature, will be higher than the unperturbed tissue temperature.^{8,16} Plastic encased temperature probes, for example, are particularly susceptible to this type of error when used in US fields^{7,20,30,33,35} Because of the high rate of US energy absorption by most plastics, the casing will overheat and transmit the high temperature to the sensing element.

A third type of error can arise if the temperature probe perturbs the US or electromagnetic field and thereby alters the tissue temperature.^{9,10,14} A typical example for this problem is the tissue heating around a thermocouple in microwave or RF hyperthermia. At high frequencies capacitive RF currents can be induced in the thermocouple wire. The ensuing concentration of RF current flow in the immediate vicinity of the thermocouple will lead to a corresponding increase in tissue temperature. While the indicated readings will represent correct tissue temperatures, the highly localized hot spots will be poor indicators of the prevailing temperature within the tumor.

The presence of the latter two error sources can be detected by an initially rapid rise of the indicated temperature occurring immediately after the hyperthermia apparatus has been turned on (Figure 2b). After the equipment has been turned off, a similar rapid drop in the temperature indication will occur, often with a decay time of a few seconds. If such errors are found to be present, all temperature readings during clinical hyperthermia should be taken while the heating power has been interrupted briefly.^{20,29} However, a small error will always remain since it will

be difficult to distinguish precisely between the "tail" of the initial rapid temperature drop and the more gradual normal cooling of the tissues. Extrapolation to the correct tissue temperature at the time of power off is therefore inaccurate. If this sudden change exceeds one or two degrees C, temperature measurements will become unreliable and a better suited thermometer should be used.

Another source of error is introduced by the thermal conductivity of temperature probes, especially metallic probes. The result is poor spatial accuracy and is especially noticeable in regions of high thermal gradient.^{8, 15, 35}

Finally, mechanical distortion of temperature probes can affect the measurement. Specifically, bending some fiber-optic probes can introduce error.

Note: Because the accuracy of temperature measurements depends not only on the thermometer but also on the hyperthermia equipment and its configuration, the performance of a thermometry system should always be evaluated in conjunction with the hyperthermia apparatus to be used later for patient treatments. One should carry out the evaluation under simulated clinical conditions which might be expected to produce maximum measurement error.

C. Generators and Power Measurement Devices

1. RF Generator

The RF generator must be capable of producing the full output power specified by the manufacturer at all intended operating frequencies. Output power should be controllable from virtually zero to maximum in a smooth or stepwise fashion. The generator should be connected through an appropriate power meter to a matched load (typically 50 ohms) for all tests (see Figure 3). The operating frequency should be checked with a digital frequency counter or an oscilloscope.

For a generator to be suitable for clinical hyperthermia it must be capable of tolerating some impedance mismatch. If the manufacturer specifies the generator to be immune to any impedance mismatch, one should test this capability by connecting the output to an in-line power meter. When the output side of the power meter is left unconnected, an infinite load

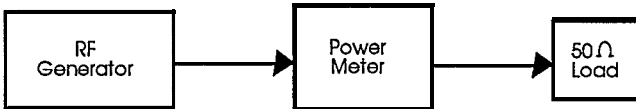


Figure 3: Block diagram of a hyperthermia generator connected through a power meter to a matched 50-ohm load.

impedance is achieved, while a short-circuited output represents a zero-impedance load. For both conditions the output power control of the generator should be gradually increased from its minimum to its maximum position and the indication of the power meter observed. The performance of the generator can be considered satisfactory if the power meter follows smoothly the position of the power control, and there is no evidence of oscillation or frequency instability.

If the generator is not fully immune to impedance mismatch, tests should be performed to verify that it complies with the manufacturer's specifications. In the absence of such specifications, open circuit and short circuit tests should be done as described before, except that the selected power level should not exceed 10% of the highest available output power. Equipment which exhibits instabilities, especially if it has the tendency to grossly exceed the output power selected by the power control or if it cannot tolerate these tests without damage, should not be used for hyperthermia. In a clinical setting an occasional slippage of an applicator (electrode, induction coil, etc) is virtually unavoidable. An unstable generator which responds to the ensuing change in load impedance with a sudden increase in output power is not sufficiently stable for clinical hyperthermia. However, a generator which reduces the output power in response to an impedance mismatch, or which shuts itself off completely, is acceptable.

The long-term stability of the power level should be monitored over a period comparable to a typical patient treatment (1 hour). Variations in output power should not exceed the manufacturer's specification, or 10% if not specified.

2. RF Power Meter:

The hyperthermia apparatus should be equipped with an output power meter having an error not larger than +/-10% over the range of powers used clinically. Its accuracy should be checked against a high quality power meter connected to a suitable load resistor, or to an applicator which is coupled to a phantom. The readings of the two instruments should be compared throughout a wide range of power levels and irradiation conditions. If the power meter under test is ca-

pable of measuring forward power, reflected power, and load power, each one of these scales should be compared to the standard meter.

D. Data Acquisition and Monitoring Systems

1. Evaluation Procedure

If possible, determine the accuracy of the device to be monitored. (See previous sections) This may not be practical if the device (for example, a thermometer) is an integral part of a system which incorporates monitoring capabilities. However, individual analysis of each component of a system assures the most dependable operation. Follow the recommendations in the appropriate section of this protocol.

Repeat several of the measurements suggested for the component to be monitored using the data acquisition system to measure and record the data. Select a range over which to test the device, which approximates clinical conditions.

Compare the various sets of data to determine the precision of the monitoring and recording devices.

2. Recommended Accuracy

Equipment used for monitoring and recording in hyperthermia systems is generally standard and conventional. The techniques used for transferring the data are likewise straightforward and uncomplicated. Consequently, no concession to accuracy need be tolerated, as might be the case for the measuring equipment itself. Monitoring and recording equipment should be accurate to within +/-1 percent of full scale for analog devices, and to within +/- one digit for digital equipment.

The frequency of data acquisition should be determined before the instrument is placed into clinical service. Sampling rates of less than one reading (of each parameter) every 10 seconds may be inadequate for clinical use.

The accuracy of calculation algorithms for thermal "dose"^{21,49} is not easily specified. It is recommended that the user of such an algorithm compare its performance against the manufacturer's description of its operation. Discrepancies should be reported to

the manufacturer, and use of the capability should be suspended or moderated until the discrepancy is resolved. At this time, calculation procedures do not have widespread acceptance and must be used with caution.

E. Applicators

1. External Radiative Electromagnetic Devices

a. Single Applicators

The most practical method for the evaluation of SAR patterns of external applicators is based on the measurement of temperature rise during a short interval of time. The SAR is defined as the power absorbed per unit mass²³, and is computed as

$$\text{SAR} = c \frac{dT}{dt} \quad [\text{W/kg}],$$

where

c = specific heat of the tissue or phantom material in J/kg°C (a typical value for muscle phantom is 3500 J/kg°C), and

dT = temperature rise (degrees C) during time interval dt (seconds). Ideally, the temperature rise and time interval would be true differentials. In practice, dT/dt is approximated by $\Delta T/\Delta t$ where the time interval is sufficiently short that conduction effects are negligible and the temperature rise ΔT is proportional to the time interval Δt .

dT can be measured either using a temperature probe or a thermographic camera.¹³(Figure 4) The thermographic camera technique has the advantage that the SAR pattern is obtained in a plane rather than at a point as in a single measurement trial. This, however, is accomplished at the expense of accuracy in the measurement of temperature rise in comparison with the use of a temperature probe such as a thermister.²² Regardless of the method used, one should be aware that SAR measurements often involve large uncertainties. The measurements should be repeated several times, and an average value determined.

Special precautions should be taken in the measurement of temperature rise when temperature probes

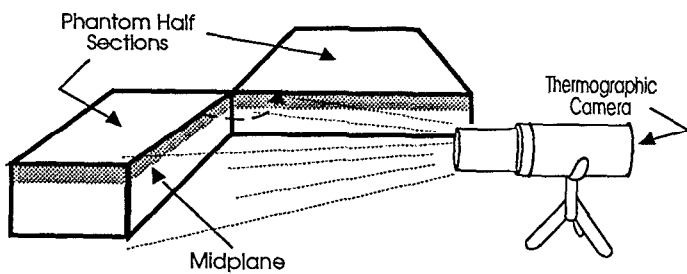
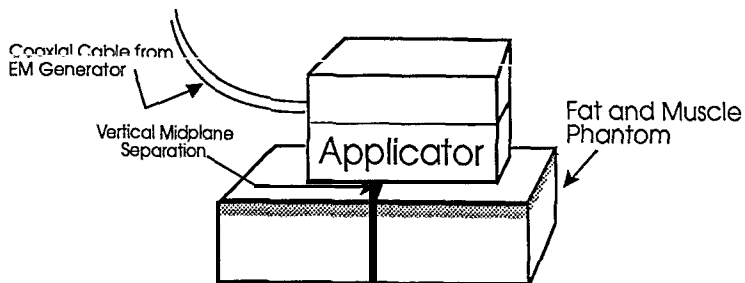


Figure 4: Measurement of the SAR pattern using a thermographic camera and split phantom technique.

such as thermistors or thermocouples are used. Non-perturbing and interference-free probes such as high resistance thermistors or fiber-optic sensors are preferred. If ordinary thermistors or thermocouples are used the accuracy of the temperature measurement in the microwave field should be established before SAR measurements are made. (Section III.B.2.)

The temperature rise data to be used for SAR calculations should be taken from the linear portion of the temperature vs time plot (Figure 5). It is recommended that high power for short intervals (less than 30 seconds) be employed for this purpose. This is necessary to minimize effects due to thermal conduction. If the temperature at the measurement point is changing prior to power-on, one can correct for this as described by Roemer et al.⁴⁸

i. Phantom for SAR Measurements

For performance evaluation of most microwave external applicators, a phantom consisting of layers of fat- and muscle-equivalent material can be used. For example, a 30 cm x 30 cm x 15 cm (depth) plexiglass container filled with muscle-equivalent material, with a 1 cm thick overlying layer of fat-equivalent material is sufficient. Procedures for preparing muscle phantoms have been described by Chou¹² and Hartsgrove²⁶ for a wide range of microwave frequencies. The fat layer is optional and may be deleted. However, it should be understood that the fat layer may affect the coupling efficiency.

ii. Recommended Measurements:

(1). Although a complete three-dimensional map of SAR is preferred, this may not be practical for many users. For routine measurements, at least three profiles should be obtained: The central depth profile, and two orthogonal profiles at 1 cm depth in muscle in a plane perpendicular to the depth profile. These lateral profiles should extend several cm beyond the applicator boundaries, to indicate whether hot spots exist outside the aperture.

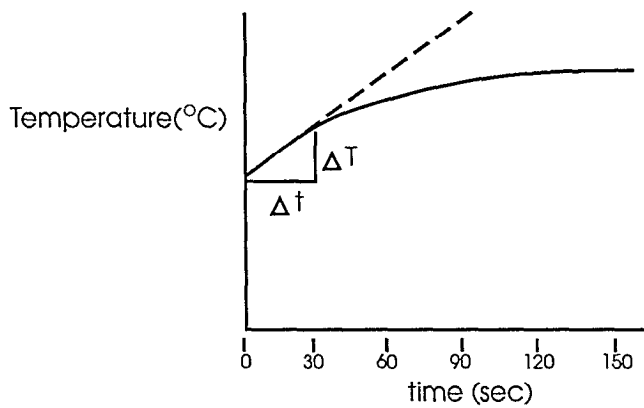


Figure 5: Determination of the temperature rise from a plot of temperature vs. time.

(2). Some applicators are designed to be operated at several different frequencies or over a frequency range. The above measurements should be repeated at the intended frequencies (or representative frequencies) to cover the range of use. This is important since the SAR pattern of a particular applicator is likely to change with the frequency of the applied power.

(3). The user should be aware that the attachment of a coupling bolus can have a large influence on the power deposition pattern. The procedures described here should be conducted for arrangements which mimic the anticipated clinical use of the equipment.

(4). The absolute value of the SAR per unit net input power should be measured at a fixed depth (1 cm) in muscle phantom on the central axis of the applicator. Note that, particularly in the case of ultrasound hyperthermia, the appropriate reference depth may vary with the applicator and operating conditions, and should be selected carefully. This value should be monitored at periodic intervals (Section IV) to assure stable, reproducible performance.

(5). Prior to using the applicator for the first time, and whenever new treatment configurations are contemplated, leakage radiation should be measured using an isotropic probe, calibrated near the frequency of use.^{4,38} This can be done initially with the same set-up and power levels used for SAR measurements as described above. Measurements of leakage radiation should be made during treatments, to assure operator and patient safety. Measurements of power density (mW/cm^2) should be made in the aperture plane at a lateral distance of 5 cm from the applicator walls. Recommended limits of leakage radiation are described in Section 3,³⁸

b. Multiple Applicator Arrays for Superficial Heating

Radiating-element applicators are sometimes arranged in planar arrays for superficial tissue heat-

ing. The total SAR pattern, however, is generally not a superposition of the SAR patterns of individual elements. Instead, the array must be evaluated as an intact unit.

i. Phantom

The phantom to be used is again a planar model as described above (III.E.1.a.).

ii. Recommended Measurements:

(refer to Section III.E.1.a.)

(1) For a multiple-element planar array applicator, the lateral SAR profiles should be chosen so that the space between radiating elements is covered. For example, when evaluating a rectangular arrangement of radiating elements (Figure 6a), the recommended lateral profiles are AA' BB', CC' and DD' at 1 cm depth in muscle-equivalent material.

Similarly, a minimum of two depth profiles should be obtained (Figure 6b).

(2) The dependence of the SAR distribution on operating frequency can be evaluated as described in section III.E.1.a. above for single applicators.

(3) A measurement of the SAR per unit net input power can be made as described in section III.E.1.a. above for single applicators.

(4) Measurements of leakage radiation should be made as suggested in section III.E.1.a. above.

C. Multiple Applicator Arrays for Deep Heating

The most basic array for external deep heating will likely consist of an annular ring of radiating apertures. The parameters of interest are the external electric fields within the array at the surface of the patient's body, the SAR pattern within the target volume, and the radiation leakage levels of the scattered fields around the device. A performance evaluation kit consisting of a phantom, electric field

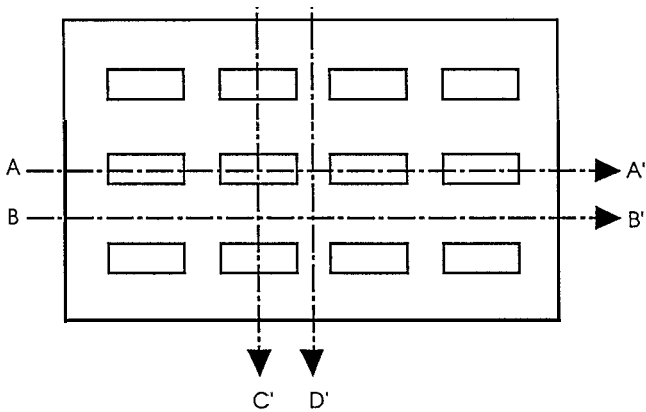


Figure 6a: The recommended location of lateral profiles for evaluating a planar array of radiating-element applicators. All profiles are at 1 cm depth in a phantom.

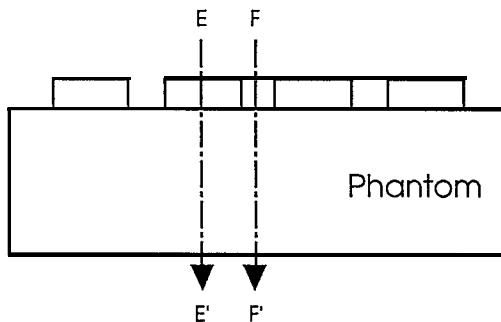


Figure 6b: The minimum recommended locations of depth profiles for evaluating a planar array of radiating-element applicators. Either profile EE' or profile FF' should pass through the center of the array.

probes and temperature probes is recommended to study these parameters.

i. Equipment

(1) Phantom

A standard torso phantom similar to the one developed by the Center for Devices and Radiological Health (CDRH) for quality assurance of regional heating devices⁵ should be used. By replacing a highly variable hyperthermic system load (the patient) with a stable load (a phantom) the relative heating capabilities can be determined under stable, repeatable conditions, with a reduced number of variables. The use of a standard phantom will also enable intercomparison of "similar" devices at different sites.

(2) Electric field probes

E-field probes are useful for measuring relative electric field strengths external to the patient's body and internal fields within a phantom. This is necessary to assess the symmetry of the fields. A microwave diode with its leads acting as a dipole antenna and connected to the detecting circuitry using high resistance leads can be used as an E-field probe. The probe outputs a maximum dc voltage when aligned with the electric field. The detected voltage is directly proportional to the square of the electric field strength at the measurement point. These probes are commercially available⁵⁵ and may be provided by the manufacturer of the array.

(3) Temperature probes

Nonperturbing temperature probes should be used for the SAR measurements. The probes should be small in diameter and long enough to permit measurements throughout the length of the phantom.

ii. Performance Evaluation Procedures

(1) E-field probe calibration

The absolute magnitude of E-field probe readings is generally less important than the relationship between the readings of several probes. Consequently, comparison with a standard E-field instrument is not recommended here. Instead, the probes should be compared with each other under reproducible conditions, keeping in mind that the orientation of the probe to the field may affect the reading. The phantom described above may be used, with catheters taped to its surface (top, bottom, and both sides) to fix the probe position. The generator should be adjusted to a relatively low power setting (e.g. 200 watts), and readings made at each location with each probe. It may be useful to leave one probe fixed while the others are moved, to monitor the stability of the power level.

(2) SAR measurements

Before attempting SAR measurements, the output power level of the applicators should be adjusted for symmetric (or if desired, asymmetric) power deposition. The E-field probes should be used for this adjustment. SAR measurements should be made in at least three planes; the central plane, and representative parallel planes on either side. The SAR can be measured by determining the rate of temperature rise in the tissue simulating gel during a short exposure of RF power. The temperature probes are inserted into the catheter tracks so that the tips lie in the plane of interest. The relative temperature rise obtained when a power of about 600 watts is applied for about 1 minute will give the required SAR. This procedure can be repeated for other planes. As discussed in section III.E.1.a., conduction effects, particularly in regions of steep thermal gradient, may be significant. If the temperature vs. time plots indicate a non linear relationship, a shorter time interval may be required.

(3) Leakage measurements

Antenna arrays for deep heating present unusual leakage problems. Because it is more difficult to couple the energy effectively into the patient from multiple applicators, the relative leakage level may be higher than for a single applicator. In addition, the overall power applied to the array is often quite high. These leakage levels may cause substantial patient heating outside the intended treatment volume, especially in regions of small diameter such as the head and neck and extremities.^{24, 55} A survey of the leakage radiation should consider these locations, as well as locations likely to be occupied by the staff. Reflections from shielded enclosures and other equipment may cause high leakage readings at unexpected locations.

A calibrated RF radiation hazard monitor, suitable for the unit's operating frequency, should be used. An isotropic probe is preferable. The levels will be influenced by the type of load in the array and the environment within the room and these measurements can only provide a guideline. The survey should be performed with the phantom positioned in the array. In addition, it will be necessary to monitor the levels routinely during treatments.

2. External RF Applicators

a. Magnetic Induction Systems

Induction hyperthermia equipment generally consists of an RF power generator, an RF power meter, an impedance matching network, one or more induction coil applicators, a set of connecting cables, and (sometimes) a patient support assembly. The impedance matching network can be a separate unit, or it can be incorporated into the applicators or the RF generators. To evaluate the performance of the equipment it is recommended that the proper functioning of each of the major components be evaluated separately. Thereafter, the performance of the entire system should be checked on a phantom, using a setup typical for the intended patient treatments. If the individual components of the apparatus are not easily accessible, a thorough check of the entire system can be substituted

for the performance evaluation of the individual components. In that case, the system performance should be tested over a broad range of anticipated treatment situations. These tests should include operation at all intended RF frequencies with phantoms simulating large and small patients.

The need to evaluate the performance of the complete system is due to the fact that the interaction between the individual components (matching network, applicators, generator) can lead to unexpected problems. For example, an RF generator may work perfectly when its output is connected to a shielded load. In an actual hyperthermia treatment, however, the large RF applicators together with the patient act as powerful transmitting antennas. Unless the oscillator and other low power components within the RF generator are properly shielded, a positive feedback loop can develop, causing the system to go into uncontrolled self-oscillations. This can cause the RF generator to behave erratically, possibly producing its full output power, regardless of the setting of the output power control. The frequency of such self-oscillation may be different from the normal operating frequency of the hyperthermia system.

i. RF Generator and RF Power Meter

The performance of these units should be evaluated as described in section III.C.

ii. Inductive Applicators

Induction coils should be inspected visually to assure that their construction complies with the manufacturer's specifications. Considering the high voltage and power levels present in many induction coils, particular attention should be paid to the adequacy of the insulation. Although high frequency currents at the power levels used in hyperthermia are generally not life-threatening, they can cause painful burns to the patient or the operator. Because of the strong interaction between the various components and the patients, applicators should be tested as part of the system evaluation.

iii. System Performance Evaluation

After the hyperthermia system has been fully assembled it should be tested on a suitable phantom. Because inductive hyperthermia systems generally operate in the frequency range of 1 MHz to 27.12 MHz, a phantom can be made easily from tap water by dissolving in it 4.4 g table salt per liter. The so-formed saline solution can be contained in any electrically non-conducting container having suitable dimensions. The geometrical shape of the phantom should resemble the shape of the patient region to be treated, but does not need to include areas where the magnetic field strength is less than 10% of its maximum within the patient. For example, a 10 cm diameter surface applicator to be used for treatments at 3 cm depth or less, can be checked by placing it against the surface of a 15 cm cubic container of saline solution. The magnetic field-intensity beyond the container will be negligible, and one can therefore expect very little variation in the outcome of the test if the dimensions of the container are increased.

b. Capacitive Heating Systems

Capacitive hyperthermia equipment generally consists of an RF power generator, an RF power meter, an impedance matching network, a set of electrode applicators, a temperature control system for the applicators, a set of connecting cables and water cooling hoses, and a patient support assembly. To evaluate the performance of the equipment, it is recommended that the proper function of each of the major components be evaluated as a system, for reasons discussed earlier. (Section III.E.2.a.).

c. Temperature Control System (TCS):

Most capacitive hyperthermia systems will be equipped with provisions for controlling the temperature of the electrode applicators via circulating water. The performance of the TCS should be evaluated with the hyperthermia system fully assembled and the RF power adjusted to levels ranging from zero to typical clinical values. It should be verified that the TCS is capable of controlling the electrode tempera-

ture within the full range specified by the manufacturer. The time required to respond to changes in the selected electrode temperature should also be recorded and compared to the specifications (if available). A surface temperature probe of reasonably high quality can be used to measure electrode temperatures. Good contact between the probe and the electrode is required.

3. Interstitial and Intercavitary
Electromagnetic Applicators
- a. Interstitial Microwave Antennas
 1. System Considerations

Optimum tissue heating is dependent upon the division of RF power among the antennas. The operation of the power distribution system should be evaluated with all outputs terminated with either a dummy load or an applicator and a phantom, and with the power distributed equally among the channels. (Refer to Section III.C for recommended power measurement procedures.) A through-line power meter can be inserted between the generator and antenna of the channel to be tested. The measurements should be made with the generator adjusted to 25, 50, and 100% of its maximum power, to demonstrate linearity of power distribution. All outputs should be tested in this way, and each should fall within 10% of the mean value. Systems which exceed this tolerance should be serviced or replaced.

All coaxial cables should be inspected regularly for power loss, cable or connector heating, or loose connectors. Visual inspections play a major role, but measurements should also be made of reflected power when the cables are terminated with a 50 ohm load. Under these conditions, reflected power levels exceeding 10 or 20% are indicative of physical damage to the cables or connectors.

The temperature monitoring and control systems should be tested according to section III.D.

ii. Antenna Considerations

As with external applicators, interstitial antennas should be matched properly to the tissue or phantom and the generator. Reflected power less than 10% of the forward power indicates acceptable matching.

Antennas should show comparable and consistent heating in a tissue-equivalent phantom. A measurement of SAR should be made at a point 5 mm from the antenna axis, at the point of maximum SAR. The value determined should be compared with the measurement made when the probe was new. A value of approximately 30 W/kg per watt of applied power is typical of some designs.

The relative SAR pattern also should be measured, for comparison with data provided by the manufacturer. Heating times should be kept as short as possible (30 seconds is reasonable). At a minimum, the SAR should be measured along a line parallel to the antenna, at a distance of 5 mm away from the axis. The antenna should be inserted into the phantom to a depth comparable to that used for clinical treatments. The sensitivity of the heating pattern to the depth of the antenna should be investigated, as extreme surface heating may occur with incorrect depths.

b. Interstitial RF (Localized Current Field)

i. System Considerations

Begin by ensuring that the RF power is divided properly among all channels activated, and that the reflected power is reasonable. A power meter and a 50 ohm load should be used as described in part III.E.3.a.i (above). Next, investigate the time sequencing or duty cycle control of the channels. A visual inspection of all indicators and switches should be performed. The accuracy and linearity of the cycle timing can be determined by displaying the output waveform with an oscilloscope. (A bandwidth of at least 10 MHz is recommended.) Ensure that there are no switching transients or current overshoots which exceed 10% of the output amplitude.

The output should also be measured with both open and short circuit conditions. The design of the equipment should minimize the risk of development of electric current paths not intended for treatment. Likewise, the user should be aware of the possible electrical hazard to the patient in the event that an electrode should become disconnected.'

Refer to Section III.G for electrical safety measurements, and to Section III.D for temperature monitoring and control functions.

ii. Hardware Considerations

Several visual inspection procedures can help assure proper operation of the hardware. All cables should be checked for physical damage, and connectors should be clean and tight. Reusable electrodes must be straight and sharp, and without damage to the insulation. In most situations, electrodes must be parallel for optimum heating, so bent or kinked electrodes should be discarded.

c. Interstitial Ferromagnetic Seeds

Proper heating of interstitial seeds depends upon correct operation of the inductive heating apparatus. Refer to section III.E.2.a. for procedures for evaluating the heating equipment. Refer also to Section III.B for procedures for evaluating the thermometry system.

The thermoregulating temperature of curie-point ferromagnetic seeds may be investigated in a phantom. A suitable thermometer probe may be positioned at 5 mm radius from the midpoint of the seed. Sufficient RF power should be applied to reach the thermoregulation mode, and maintained for a predetermined interval (at least 10 min). The temperature reached should be constant to within 2%. Compare the temperature at the reference point to the original seed performance; adjust the thermal dosimetry (ferro-seed spacing) accordingly, or discard the seed. Bent seeds should be discarded, as they may not heat properly.

4. External Ultrasound Heating Systems

a. Generator

RF generators for ultrasound (US) hyperthermia operate in the frequency range from 300 kHz to 5 MHz. Because transducer operating characteristics usually are extremely sensitive to generator frequency, the performance requirements are stringent.

i. Frequency

As the character of the near field is very sensitive to frequency, the frequency of the generator should be known to within 1.0 kHz, and should be stable for no less than the duration of a typical heating session (a minimum of two hours is recommended). A calibrated frequency meter should be used. The generator frequency should be adjustable throughout a range which includes the nominal resonance frequency $\pm 10\%$ for each transducer associated with the system. The range will accommodate variations in operating parameters sometimes required to reduce near-field effects.

ii. Electrical Power

Requirements for and evaluation of US generators are similar to those for generators for RF heating systems, and include investigation of electromagnetic interference (EMI). Refer to Section III.C for recommended specifications and measurement procedures.

b. Single-Transducer Systems

i. Acoustical Power

The relationship between electrical power and acoustical output for a given transducer is sometimes non-linear at high power levels. Consequently, it is necessary to characterize each transducer over a range of representative power levels, for each nominal operating frequency.³¹ An US wattmeter or radiation force balance should be used. Next, the dependence of acous-

tical power on frequency should be determined. The peak acoustical power should occur at a frequency falling within 10% of the nominal operating frequency (selected to suppress near-field effects, while at the same time having acceptable output power and efficiency). During this test, it is advisable to operate the generator at a level corresponding to an acoustical power output of approximately 50% of the maximum achievable. Heating of the transducer element itself is normal, and may affect the relationship between acoustical output and electrical input power. This relationship should be measured as a function of time of operation at high power. If transducer heating causes a change in the relationship of more than 5%, adjustments to the transducer cooling system should be made.

ii. SAR Measurements

As with RF applicators, a full three-dimensional map of the power deposition pattern is desirable, but impractical. In practice, a measurement of peak SAR at a reference location is combined with longitudinal and transverse profiles of relative power deposition.

The SAR should be measured in a tissue-equivalent phantom¹⁷ using bare thermocouples fixed at a multiplicity of spatial points. Alternatively, this may be done by mapping tight-, fitting probes in good thermal contact with very thin-walled stainless steel needles embedded in the phantom. This latter technique will lead to some thermal smearing which must be assessed (section III.B.2.) If a tissue-equivalent liquid^{18,44} (or water) phantom is used, the relative power deposition profile can be made rapidly using an RTV-encapsulated thermocouple¹⁹ or a miniature hydrophone. Refer to Section III.E for the procedure for computing SAR, and Section III.B.2. for cautions concerning temperature measurement errors in US fields.

The transducer should be indexed to assure reproducible positioning, and lateral beam profiles should be measured at 2 cm intervals throughout the heated volume. Scans should be made with the transducer rotated to different

angles, to demonstrate circular symmetry of the heating pattern. The power deposition pattern of focussed transducers should be mapped at high spatial resolution, ideally 2 mm in all directions in the vicinity of the nominal focus.

The measurements should be repeated at all frequencies intended for clinical operation, and at representative power levels for each transducer.

iii. Water Coupling System

A water system is required for good acoustical coupling, and circulation is necessary to cool both the transducer and the patient surface. The volume of water circulated must be adequate to carry out both tasks. To provide adequate control over patient surface temperature, the water temperature should be regulated to within 0.5%. The cooling water must be degassed well, particularly for operation at high power. Recommended procedures for degassing are:

- boiling for 15 minutes, or
- maintaining at a pressure of less than 30 mm of mercury for 3 hours,

less than 12 hours before use.^{19,31} Inadequate degassing may result in cavitation and greatly reduced heating efficiency. Evidence of cavitation may be observed by shining a bright flashlight through the coupling water adjacent to the transducer, when operating the system in a darkened room. The user will observe the presence of minute bubbles and enhanced scattering of light.

iv. Reproducibility

Repositioning of the applicator and reproducible coupling to the phantom should be assured by repeating a phantom set-up at least five times. A measurement of SAR should be made at a reference point at both low and high power, each time the setup is repeated. The standard deviation of the measurements should not exceed 5%.

C. Multiple Transducer Systems, and Scanning Systems

Each transducer of a multiple transducer system should be characterized as described above. Because arrays and scanning systems can vary widely, it will be necessary to devise tests which evaluate the reproducibility and safety of representative clinical configurations.

F. Control Systems

Improper operation of the control devices installed in a hyperthermia system can lead to extremely dangerous situations. It is of paramount importance that the device (or software) which controls the heat-delivering equipment respond properly to the temperature or other parameter being measured. It is difficult to analyze such a control system in a manner which is representative of the clinical use of the equipment without employing an animal patient or a dynamic phantom model.

However, it is possible to perform the simpler analysis recommended here. The procedures described below should be conducted prior to clinical use, and at any time that the operation of the unit is questioned. Otherwise, routine clinical operation will demonstrate that the system is functioning properly.

All other recommended quality-assurance procedures should be performed to ensure the proper operation of each component. Two water baths (or similar environments with controllable temperature) are required. The power-delivery equipment (antennas, transducers, etc) should be arranged to heat a phantom unrelated to the water baths. The temperature and power absorbing qualities of the phantom are not important for this control system verification (Figure 7).

If the control system permits regulation of the heat-delivery equipment based on the temperature of one or more thermometers, these thermometers and the target temperature (say, 43%) should be designated. Similarly, if the control system terminates heating whenever a predetermined temperature is exceeded, the maximum allowable temperature (say, 47°C) should be designated. All thermometer probes should be placed in one of the water baths adjusted to a temperature several degrees below the target temperature (say, 41%). The heat-delivery system should then be energized.

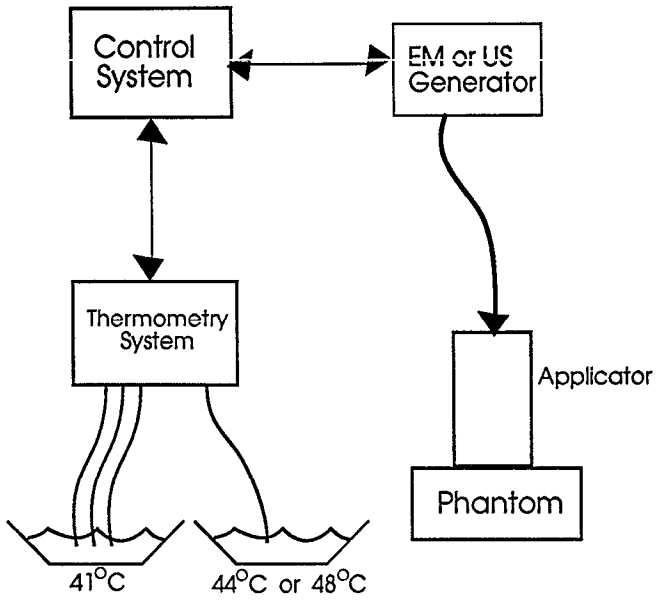


Figure 7: Arrangement for evaluating the operation of control systems.

The following test of the control system should be conducted:

1. Move one of the control thermometers from the 41°C water bath to a 44°C environment. Verify that the power to the heat-delivery system (or portion controlled by the thermometer which was moved) is reduced.

2. Replace the thermometer into the 41°C environment and verify that the power to the heat-delivery system is adjusted toward its original level.

Repeat these steps for each of the control thermometers.

The limiting capability should be tested as follows:

1. Place a thermometer into a 48°C environment and verify that the power to the heat-delivery system is interrupted.

2. Return the thermometer to the 41°C environment, and verify that the heat-delivery system can be energized readily.

Repeat these steps for each thermometer. Note that a more demanding test may be conducted by choosing water-bath temperatures which are closer to the target and limiting temperatures.

G. Electrical and Radiation Safety

1. Electrical Leakage Currents

As with any electrical equipment to be used in a patient environment, hyperthermia equipment must be checked routinely for electrical safety. Test procedures for 60 Hz electrical leakage current have been described by the American National Standards Institute.¹ This standard recommends semi-annual inspection of output isolation from ground at 60 Hz and at the RF source frequency. Limits are 10 uA RMS electrode-to-ground and 100 uA RMS chassis-to-ground worst case leakage current at 60 Hz with the equipment ground Intact and Disconnected, polarity Normal or Reversed, and the unit Off or in Standby-On mode. No published standards could be found which address electrical leakage at frequencies above 1 MHz, although ANSI¹ suggests that the limits recommended at 100 kHz be applied to higher frequencies. However, the Na-

tional Fire Protection Association recognizes the need for further study.⁴⁰ The American National Standards Institute limits the high frequency leakage power from electrosurgical devices to 4.5 watts.³ This standard may be a suitable guideline for components of a hyperthermia system other than the applicator.

These tests should normally be performed by the Clinical or Biomedical Engineering house staff at each facility who are qualified to interpret the detailed listing of test procedures, current limits, and test conditions recommended in the guidelines. Compliance with these standards is especially important for hyperthermia equipment with direct electrical connections to the patient, such as interstitial RF electrodes and implanted temperature sensing devices, where the electrical safety hazard is greatest.

2. Electromagnetic Radiation

Hyperthermia treatments involving the use of high-power high-frequency generators are potentially hazardous to both the patient and equipment operators due to leakage of electromagnetic energy from the generators treatment applicators and interconnecting cables.^{34,47} This undesired "leakage radiation" can produce significant interference with nearby sensitive equipment such as thermometry systems and physiological monitors. In addition to the electrical interference problem there are potential biological hazards of non-ionizing electromagnetic radiation, even at low power levels.^{6, 28, 37, 38, 39, 51} Stray radiation may produce excessive heating at sites remote from the intended treatment site, however. Thus, the FDA's Center for Devices and Radiological Health (CDRH) has produced the ANSI Radiofrequency Protection Guide to establish limits on the allowable leakage radiation around high-frequency equipment.^{3,38} While the limits are frequency dependent, the standard recommends a maximum six-minute averaged leakage power density of 5 mW/cm² (measured ≤ 5 cm from any chassis or applicator surface) for microwave frequencies above 1.5 GHz. Even more stringent requirements are specified for lower frequencies and for longer exposure times. Thus, leakage radiation should be monitored with a calibrated isotropic radiation survey meter during each new procedure to comply with the regulations and to ensure safe operating conditions.⁴ Special attention should be given to monitoring sensitive regions such as the eyes, face or groin area. Treatment conditions

which produce leakage in excess of the limits should be reconfigured.

IV. FREQUENCY OF EQUIPMENT EVALUATION

The following table is intended as a guide to the frequency at which performance evaluation procedures should be repeated. Similar guidelines have been published elsewhere.^{52,53}

Evaluation frequencies are specified for two conditions: For equipment that is operating normally and has demonstrated its reliability, a "normal minimum" frequency of evaluation is suggested. Equipment which has not yet demonstrated such reliability or which exhibits unstable or erratic behavior should be evaluated more often, at no less than the "initial recommended" frequency. In addition, the evaluation procedures should be conducted whenever damage to the equipment is suspected, and also when a piece of equipment is returned to service after a hiatus exceeding the "initial recommended" frequency, or following repair or modification.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION FREQUENCY

<u>SECTION</u>	<u>ITEM</u>	<u>INITIAL RECOMMENDED FREQUENCY</u>	<u>NORMAL MINIMUM FREQUENCY</u>
III-A	Visual Inspection	Prior to each treatment	Beginning of each treatment day
III-B	Thermometry Equipment	Prior to each treatment	Weekly, or follow manufacturer's recommendations
III-C-1	RF Generator	Monthly	Annually
III-C-2	RF Power Meter	Weekly	Annually
III-D	Monitoring and Recording System	Prior to each treatment	Weekly
III-E	Applicators SAR at reference point Power deposition distribution	Weekly Monthly	Semiannually Annually
III-F	Control Systems	Daily	Monthly
III-G	Electrical Safety EM Radiation Safety	Prior to use During each treatment	Following Service or Semi-Annually With each new setup

REFERENCES

1. ANSI/AAMI ES1 "Safe Current Limits for Electromedical Apparatus." New York, 1985.
2. ANSI/AAMI HF18 "American National Standard for Electrosurgical Devices." New York, 1986.
3. ANSI-C95.1 "Safety Levels with Respect to Human Exposure to Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Fields," New York, 1981.
4. ANSI-C95.3 "Techniques and Instrumentation for the Measurement of Potentially Hazardous Electromagnetic Radiation at Microwave Frequencies," New York, 1979.
5. S. Allen, G. Kantor, H. Bassen, and P. Rugerra: CDRH RF phantom for hyperthermia systems evaluations. Int. J. of Hyperthermia 4(1):17-24 (1988).
6. F.S. Barnes: Radio-microwave interactions with biological materials. Health Physics 56(5):759-766 (1989).
7. P. Carnochan, R.J. Dickinson, and M.C. Joiner: The practical use of thermocouples for temperature measurement in clinical hyperthermia. Int. J. Hyperthermia 2:1-19 (1986).
8. T.C. Cetas: Invasive Thermometry in Physical Aspects of Hyperthermia, Edited by G.H. Nussbaum (American Institute of Physics Inc., New York, 1982), pp 231-265.
9. D.P. Chakraborty and I.A. Brezovich: A source of thermocouple error in radiofrequency electric fields. Electronics Letters 16(22):853-854 (1980).
10. D.P. Chakraborty and I.A. Brezovich: Error sources affecting thermocouple thermometry in RF electromagnetic fields. J. Microwave Power. 17:17-28 (1982).

11. D.A. Christensen: Thermometry and Thermography in Hyperthermia in Cancer Therapy, edited by F.K. Storm (G.K. Hall Medical Publishers, Boston, MA. 1983), pp 223-232.
12. C.K. Chou et. al.: Formulas for preparing phantom muscle tissue at various radiofrequencies. Bio-electromagnetics 5:435-441 (1984).
13. C.K. Chou, A.W. Guy, J.A. McDougall, A. Dong. and K.H. Luk: Thermographically determined specific absorption rate patterns of 434-MHz applicators. Med. Phys. 13(3):385 (1986).
14. R.T. Constable, P. Dunscombe, A. Tsoukatos, and K. Malaker: Perturbation of the temperature distribution in microwave irradiated tissue due to the presence of metallic thermometers. Med. Phys. 14:385-388 (1987).
15. R.J. Dickinson: Thermal conduction errors of managanin-constantan thermocouple arrays. Phys. Med. Biol. 30:445-453 (1985).
16. P.B. Dunscombe, J. McLellan, and K. Malaker: Heat production in microwave irradiated thermocouples. Med. Phys. 13:457-461 (1986).
17. P.D. Edmunds, W.C. Ross, E.R. Lee, and P. Fessenden: Spatial Distributions of heating by ultrasound transducers in clinical use, indicated in a tissue-equivalent phantom. Proc. IEEE 1985 Ultrasonics Symposium pp 908-912.
18. P.D. Edmunds. ed. Methods of Experimental Physics, Vol 19, Ultrasonics, (Academic Press, 1981) p 10-11.
19. P. Fessenden, E.R. Lee, P.L. Anderson, J.W. Strohbahn, J.L. Meyer, T.V. Samulski, J.B. Marmor: Experience with a multi-transducer ultrasound system for localized hyperthermia of deep tissues. IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering BME-31, pp 126-135 (1984).
20. P. Fessenden, E.R. Lee, and T.V. Samulski: Direct temperature measurement, Cancer Research (Suppl) 44:4799s-4804s (1984).

21. S.B. Field: Studies relevant to a means of quantifying the effects of hyperthermia. Int. J. Hyperthermia 3(4):291-296 (1987).
22. F.A. Gibbs: "Thermal Mapping" in experimental cancer treatment with hyperthermia: description and use of a semi-automatic system. Int J. Radiat. Biol. Phys. 9(7):1057-63 (1983).
23. A.W. Guy: Correspondence, J. Microwave Power 10:(4),358 (1975).
24. M.J. Hagman and R.L. Levin: Aberrant heating: problem in regional hyperthermia. IEEE Trans. Sec. Bio. Med. Eng. 33:405-411 (1986).
25. J.W. Hand and J.R. James.: in Physical Techniques in Clinical Hyperthermia, edited by J.W. Hand and J. R. James (Research Studies Press, Letchworth, Hertfordshire, England).
26. G.W. Hartsgrove. et. al.: Simulated biological materials for electromagnetic radiation absorption studies. Bioelectromagnetics 8:29-36 (1987).
27. HHS Publication FDA 81:8143 Procedures for Evaluating Nonperturbing Temperature Probes in Microwave Fields (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Rockville, MD, May 1981).
28. D.L. Hjeresen, A. Francendese, and J.M. O'Donnell: Microwave attenuation of ethanol-induced interactions with noradrenergic neurotransmitter systems. Health Physics 56(5):767-776 (1989).
29. P. Horseman, D. Law, P. Dunscombe, K. Gammampila, and B.M. Southcott: A computer based multithermocouple system for use in microwave fields, J. Med. Engineering Tech. 7:96-100 (1983).
30. K. Hynynen, C.J. Martin, D.J. Watmough, and J.R. Mallard: Errors in temperature measurement by thermocouple probes during ultrasound induced hyperthermia. Brit. J. Radiol. 56:969-970 (1983).
31. I.E.C.-150: Testing and calibration of ultrasonic therapeutic equipment, Publication 150, International Electrotechnical Commission.

32. G. Kantor and T.C. Cetas: A comparative heating pattern study of direct contact applicators in microwave diathermy. Radio Science 12:111-120 (1977).
33. P.K. Kuhn and D.A. Christensen: Influence of temperature probe sheathing materials during ultrasonic heating. IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering BME 33:536 (1986).
34. J.R. LaCourse, M.C. Voght, W.T. Miller, S.M. Selikowitz: Spectral analysis interpretation of electrosurgical generator nerve and muscle stimulation. IEEE Trans. BME 35(7):505-509 (1988).
35. Lyons BE, Samulski TV and Britt RH: Temperature measurements in high thermal gradients: 1. The effects of conduction. Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 11:951-962 (1985).
36. NCRP Report 67, Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Fields, National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements, March 1, 1981, Washington, DC 20014.
37. NCRP Report No. 74, Biological Effects of Ultrasound: Mechanisms and Clinical Implications, December 30, 1983, National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements, Bethesda, MD.
38. NCRP Report No. 86, Biological Effects and Exposure Criteria for Radiofrequency Electromagnetic Fields, April 2, 1986, National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements, Bethesda, MD.
39. R. Nilsson, Y. Hamnerius, K.H. Mild, H.A. Hansson, E. Hjelmqvist, S. Olanders, and L. I. Persson: Microwave effects on the central nervous system - A study of radar mechanics. Health Physics 56(5):777-780 (1989).
40. NFPA-99-1987: Health Care Facilities Handbook. 2nd edition, edited by Burton R. Klein (The National Fire Protection Association, 1987).
41. J.R. Oleson: If we can't define the quality, can we assure it? Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 16:879 (1989).

42. J.R. Oleson, M.W. Dewhirst, I. Duncan, M. Engler, and D. Thrall. "Temperature gradients: Prognostic and dosimetric implications," in Frontiers of Engineering & Computing in Health Care-1985. Proc. 7th Annual Conf. of the IEEE Engin. in Med. & Biol. Soc., edited by J.C. Lin and B.N. Feinberg (IEEE, New York, 1985).
43. J.R. Oleson, M.W. Dewhirst, J.M. Harrelson, K.A. Leopold, T.V. Samulski. and C.Y. Tso: Tumor temperature distributions predict hyperthermia effect. Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 16:559-570 (1989).
44. J. Ophir and P. Jaeger: A ternary solution for independent acoustic impedance and speed of sound matching to biological tissues. Ultrasonic Imaging 4:163-170 (1982).
45. J. Overgaard: The current and potential role of hyperthermia in radiotherapy. Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 16:535-549 (1989).
46. C.A. Perez, B. Gillespie, T. Pajak, N.B. Hornback, B. Emami, and P. Rubin: Quality Assurance problems in clinical hyperthermia and their impact on therapeutic outcome: a report by the radiation therapy oncology group. Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 16:551-558 (1989).
47. The Handbook of Biological Effects of Electromagnetic Fields edited by C. Polk and E. Postow (CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 1986).
48. R.B. Roemer et al: Obtaining local SAR and blood perfusion data from temperature measurements: steady state and transient techniques compared. Int. J. of Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 11(8):1539-1550 (1985).
49. S.A. Sapareto: Thermal isoeffect dose: addressing the problem of thermotolerance. Int. J. Hyperthermia 3(4):297-306 (1987).
50. S.A. Sapareto and P.M. Corry: A proposed standard data file format for hyperthermia treatments. Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 16:613-627 (1989).

51. B. Servantie: Damage criteria for determining microwave exposure. Health Physics 56(5):781-786 (1989).
52. P.N. Shrivastava, T.K. Saylor, A.Y. Matloubieh, and B.R. Paliwal: Hyperthermia thermometry evaluation: criteria and guidelines. Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 14:327-335.
53. P. Shrivastava, K. Luk, J.K. Oleson, M.W. De-whirst, T. Pajak, B. Paliwal, C. Perez, et al: Hyperthermia quality assurance guidelines. Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys. 16:571-587, 1989.
54. C.W. Song: "Physiological Factors in Hyperthermia of Tumors," in Physical Aspects of Hyperthermia, edited by G.H. Nussbaum, (American Institute of Physics Inc., New York, 1982), pp 231-265.
55. P.F. Turner: Hyperthermia and inhomogeneous tissue effects using an annular phased array. IEEE Transactions on Microwave Theory and Techniques, MTT-32, 874-882 (1984).
56. F.M. Waterman and R.E. Nerlinger: The effect of coupling materials on specific absorption rate distributions at 915 MHz. Med. Phys. 13(3):391-395.