



Course Companion

Cambridge Advanced National in Applied Science

F186 Medical Physics

Endorsed for Cambridge OCR qualifications



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Teacher's Introduction

This course companion has been written specifically for the Cambridge OCR Level 3 Alternative Academic Qualification Cambridge Advanced Nationals in Applied Science qualification (first teaching from September 2025).

The theory notes, examples and questions cover the essential knowledge and understanding prescribed in the optional Unit F186 specification for the Extended Certificate qualification.

About Unit F186: Medical Physics

Unit F186 is centre-assessed using four practical activities that learners carry out independently. Centre assessments are OCR-moderated.

Unit F186 is an optional unit and will draw on learning from Unit F180 and Unit F181.

Each of the five topic areas has been given its own section in the resource. These are as follows:

Topic Area 1: Application of non-ionising diagnosis techniques

Topic Area 2: Application of ionising diagnosis techniques

Topic Area 3: Application of ionising therapy techniques

Topic Area 4: Application of non-ionising therapy techniques

Topic Area 5: Planning for diagnosis and therapy

Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

Within each section there are student notes covering the specification content and structure. These notes include descriptions of theory, supported with examples and diagrams where appropriate. Questions are interspersed throughout the guide to assess and develop understanding and practice the key skills required for the assessment.

In addition, two additional practice scenarios are given so that students can apply what they have learned. Prompts are given in the formative discussion questions throughout the resource.

October 2025

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Additional practice diagnosis scenario

Patient A is a 68-year-old retired man who has been suffering from persistent chest pain for the past three months. He has lost 10 kg in weight within the last two months and is experiencing dizziness and irregular heartbeats. He has also recently found blood in his stool. After the patient's wife after becoming concerned that the chest pains were worsening, and the patient was taken to hospital for further investigation following arrival at the Accident and Emergency department.

The patient has a history of smoking and drinks alcohol moderately. There is a history of prostate cancer in the patient's father died in his late 60s of prostate cancer.

The patient has previously experienced good health, and being admitted to hospital has caused him anxiety to both him and his wife.

The diagnosis technique used will need to identify any cardiovascular irregularities and any tumour, including determining whether the tumour is benign or malignant.

You are the consulting physician and are required to create a diagnosis plan for patient A and discuss it with other healthcare professionals.

Additional practice treatment scenario

Patient B is a 25-year-old woman who is a graphic designer in a marketing agency. She is fit and often works long hours. The patient exercises regularly and eats a reasonably healthy diet and consumes a lot of caffeine.

After experiencing some speech issues, migraines and mild confusion, the patient was referred for an MRI brain scan. The scan with contrast revealed a benign, low-grade temporal lobe tumour. The tumour is non-aggressive but is affecting speech and memory.

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Topic Area 1: Application of non-ionising radiation in diagnosis techniques

Medical physics refers to an area of applied physics which involves the use of physics principles in medicine and healthcare. This includes the use of non-ionising radiation for diagnosis of medical conditions by creating images of the inside of the body. Radiation therapy is used primarily for cancer, by delivering controlled doses of radiation to destroy or damage cells. Medical physics uses both ionising and non-ionising radiation for diagnosing and treating medical conditions. Ionising radiation has enough energy to remove electrons from atoms, which can potentially cause damage to cells. Non-ionising radiation is generally considered safer, as it lacks the energy to remove electrons from atoms.



Further your knowledge

First use of X-rays for diagnosing fractures	Scientists discovered the medical applications of radioactive isotopes	Development of CT scans by Hounsfield and Cormack
Late 1890s	1940s	1970s
1913	1950s	
The Coolidge tube improves the safety and quality of X-ray imaging	First use of ultrasound for non-invasive imaging	

1.1 Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)



Key points covered

- Principle of operation of an MRI machine
- Safety considerations
- Basic structure of an MRI machine
- Advantages, disadvantages

Principle of operation of an MRI machine

The human body is mostly made from a combination of water and organic molecules: proteins, carbohydrates and lipids. All of these molecules contain hydrogen atoms – some in very large numbers.

The hydrogen atom is the simplest of all atoms with a nucleus containing only one proton. It is this proton in the hydrogen nucleus that exhibits magnetic **resonance**.

Resonance is a familiar concept in everyday life. If you pluck a guitar string it will vibrate, producing a sound. This frequency is called the string's **natural frequency**.

If you play a sound near the guitar that has the same frequency of one of its strings, it will vibrate on its own. This happens because the sound waves from the external source match the natural frequency, making it absorb energy and **resonate**.

This is exactly how **magnetic resonance** works – when an object gets energy at just the right frequency, it resonates more strongly!

The proton in the nucleus of a hydrogen atom behaves in a similar way when in a magnetic field. Its natural frequency is dependent on the atoms and chemical groups to which it is attached.

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When placed in a strong magnetic field, the protons in hydrogen nuclei orient the magnets. When the magnetic field is reversed over and over again at high frequency, the protons reorient themselves rapidly.

When a burst of radio waves is sent into the body at a specific frequency (at the Larmor frequency), this excites the hydrogen atoms, making them absorb energy and move out of alignment.

When the radio waves are turned off, the hydrogen atoms return to their original alignment. The energy absorbed is released as radio signals (relaxation times). These signals are detected by MRI scanners and sent to a computer to create detailed images of tissues and organs. The brightness of the tissues depends on how quickly the hydrogen atoms realign with the magnetic field (relaxation time).

In terms of the human body, the chemical environment of the hydrogen atoms varies by tissue (muscle, bone, nerves, etc.) in which it is located. In this way, the MRI scanner can distinguish between different tissues.

Projectile and implant screening in MRI is a critical safety assessment performed before the patient enters the scanner. It ensures that ferromagnetic materials cannot be pulled violently into the scanner, or that unsafe implants or devices, e.g. orthopaedic screws and plates, do not heat up or cause heating during the procedure or compromise image quality of the scan. MRI machines have a strict metal-free zone and patients will be required to complete a pre-scan safety questionnaire.

Contrast agents in MRI are substances injected into the body to enhance image quality of some tissues. Gadolinium is a paramagnetic metal, meaning it interacts with the magnetic field. Certain tissues appear brighter or darker in the MRI scan. This makes it easier to detect abnormal tissues, especially in the brain, blood vessels, and tumours. Gadolinium is contraindicated therefore in patients with impaired renal function as it stays in the body for much longer, leading to side effects and should not be used.

Safety considerations

MRI is generally considered to be safe for patients who are pregnant after the first trimester. However, it is avoided (especially with gadolinium) within the first trimester unless essential.

An MRI scanner produces a loud noise which can exceed 110 dB. Staff and patients are advised to wear earplugs to prevent damage to their hearing and this may be unsettling for neurodiverse or anxious patients.

Recall questions

1. How does MRI distinguish between tissues?
2. Why is resonance important for MRI scanners?

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Basic structure of an MRI machine

The diagram shows the main components and their relative positions in a magnetic

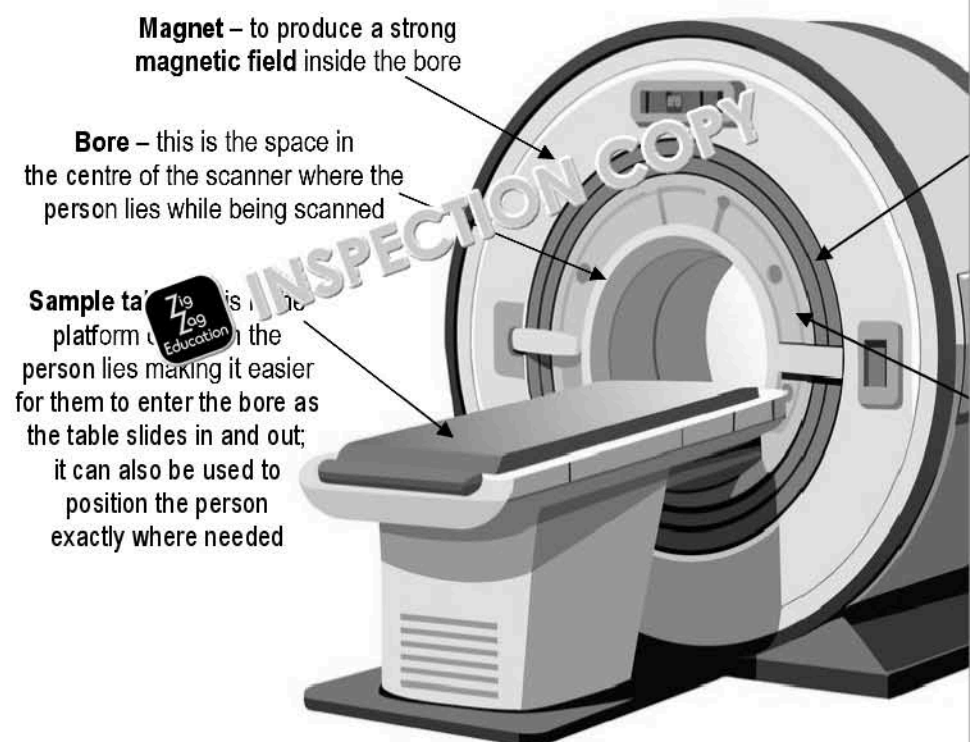


Figure 1.1. MRI machine structure

Advantages, disadvantages and uses of MRI scanning

Advantages	Disadvantages
<p>It is <u>non-invasive</u>. Tissues and organs can be examined in detail without the need for surgery. MRI is much safer than surgery because there is no damage to body tissues and risk of infections. In addition, no anaesthetics are required.</p> <p>MRI scans can be used to examine the skeletal system including joints, the brain and spinal cord, the heart and the rest of the circulatory system, plus other internal organs such as kidneys, uterus, liver and breast tissue.</p> <p>Unlike X-rays, which are ionising, an MRI scan is considered safe.</p>	<p>Very high cost of purchase and maintenance of the scanner.</p> <p>The loud noise produced during the scan can cause hearing damage and so staff, must wear ear protection.</p> <p>Sometimes patients who are claustrophobic can find the procedure can be sedated. The scanner makes periodic sounds as the current in the coils is switched on and off, which can be unsettling for some patients.</p> <p>Patients with prostheses, such as joint replacements or cochlear implants, cannot undergo MRI scanning due to the presence of metallic substances.</p>

MRI scanners are operated by medical professionals called radiographers. Radiographers have training in how to operate the machine in different types of diagnosis situations. The radiographer controls the scanner through a computer interface while seated in a different room. A radiology nurse or technologist will be responsible for the administration of the contrast media and will monitor the patient throughout the scan.

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Interpretation of the images produced by the MRI scan is carried out by a radiologist, a person who has specialised in this field. The radiologist then prepares a report that is shared directly with the person who had the scan or delivered back to their GP surgery for them.

Apply your knowledge

- Why is MRI suitable for detecting bowel cancer?
- What other techniques may be used as part of a broader diagnostic process for bowel cancer?

Formative discussion questions:

Alongside other symptoms, patient A is experiencing blood in his stool. One of the diagnostic tools available to investigate the cause of the symptoms is ultrasound. Explain why this diagnostic technique is or is not appropriate for the patient's symptoms.

1.2 Diagnostic ultrasound



Key points covered

- Anatomical ultrasound
- Doppler ultrasound
- General features of ultrasound
- The ultrasound transducer
- Advantages and disadvantages

Ultrasound is the term given to sound waves that have a frequency higher than the upper threshold of human hearing. That means frequencies of 20 kHz and above. All sound waves are longitudinal, so the particles in the medium oscillate parallel to the direction the sound wave is travelling.

Medical ultrasound relies on the fact that sound waves are reflected from boundaries. They are reflected from internal body boundaries such as those between muscle and fatty tissue.

The frequencies used in medical ultrasound are usually in the range 1–22 MHz. 1–5 MHz is used for deep abdominal imaging while 18–22 MHz is used for superficial skin and ocular scans. Most everyday probes sit between 2 MHz and 15 MHz. There are two types of ultrasound, depending on what needs to be imaged. They are anatomical and Doppler ultrasound.

Anatomical ultrasound

Anatomical ultrasound is used to produce images of structures inside the body. You have probably seen pictures of anatomical ultrasound images of unborn babies. Here, it gives sufficient detail to look for defects in the central nervous system and other organ systems of the foetus. Anatomical ultrasound can also be used in children and adults to assess swelling around joints due to injury or arthritis. Another use is for checking for possible organ damage after disease or surgery.



Figure 1.2. Anatomical ultrasound

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Anatomical ultrasound works by detecting reflections of the sound waves off boundaries between tissues. The time taken for an ultrasound wave to pass in towards the boundary and back again can be used to build up an image by calculating the distance that the wave has travelled. To do this, the software uses the equation

$$\text{distance (m)} = \text{speed (ms}^{-1}\text{)} \times \text{time (s)}$$

The distance from this result is then halved because the ultrasound wave has travelled in and away from the tissue boundary before being reflected again and the total time for this is measured.



Further your knowledge:

The speed of sound in different media; it is faster in solids than in liquids and gases. The speed also varies with temperature, but is likely to be around 1500 m/s in tissue, which is relatively constant.

Doppler ultrasound

Doppler ultrasound is used to measure the speed and direction of blood flow in a particular vessel. It makes use of the **Doppler effect**.

An ultrasound signal is sent towards or away from moving blood. The sound waves reflect off the moving blood cells and return with an apparent change of wavelength. The greater the change in wavelength, the higher the speed of the blood. By changing the direction that the ultrasound waves are transmitted and received, the direction of blood flow can be worked out.

Because this technique measures blood flow, it can be used to diagnose conditions such as deep vein thrombosis (DVT) and arterial occlusion (narrowing of arteries). It can also be done on an unborn baby and the placenta for pregnancies that are deemed to be high-risk for conditions such as intrauterine growth restriction.



Further your knowledge: the Doppler effect

The Doppler effect is again something you experience in daily life. When you are standing on a road and a motorcycle or ambulance siren passes you, the pitch of the sound changes. The sound seems to be higher in pitch when the vehicle is approaching and lower pitch when it is moving away. This effect can also be confused with the loudness of the sound.

The Doppler effect is beyond the scope of this course, but is caused by an apparent change of wavelength. It comes from, or is reflected off a moving object. The frequency of the sound (the frequency of the wave) also (grey box) speed of the object. The Doppler effect by reflecting a wave off a moving object.



Figure 1.3. Ultrasonography

Recall questions

1. Explain the difference between anatomical ultrasound and Doppler ultrasound.



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General features of ultrasound

Ultrasound is considered safe to use because it is merely a sound wave. It produces no ionisation and does not start any unwanted chemical reactions in cells. Any heating effects caused by making particles vibrate inside the body are very small.

Two properties of the ultrasound waves affect the image produced and these must be adjusted by the **sonographer** carrying out the scan. The properties are **frequency** and **gain**.

Frequency affects both **resolution** and **penetration**. The higher the frequency of ultrasound (the wave's **wavelength**), the higher the resolution, but the lower the penetration. Choice of frequency must be made carefully or chosen as a compromise between depth and resolution.

When gain is increased, this increases the amplitude of the wave. However, this too comes with compromise. When a signal is **amplified**, everything including background and unwanted signals are amplified – not just the signal that we want. Gain is applied to the ultrasound signal that has been reflected back from the tissues and adjusted to get appropriate contrast in the image between body fluids (which are usually adjusted black on an image) and solid tissues (which are usually adjusted to be white or greyscale).

Recall questions

1. Describe the use of ultrasound in medical diagnostics.

The ultrasound transducer

Ultrasound in medicine is produced and received by a device called a transducer. It is the electronic equipment that controls frequency and gain and produces the image.

The transducer contains a vibrating element to create the longitudinal wave that travels through the tissues. The transducer is placed on the skin of the person being scanned, but to avoid a large air gap, which would prevent the waves from being reflected back from the air gap between the transducer and skin, a gel must be used.

How the right transducer is chosen:

- Higher frequency transducers (shorter wavelength): better resolution but less penetration (better for shallow tissues).
- Lower frequency transducers (longer wavelength): deeper penetration but lower resolution (better for deeper organs).
- Probe size and shape: this determines how well it fits in the scanning area (e.g. endocavitary for internal exams).

Gel is placed between the transducer and the skin to reduce the air gap and ensure the ultrasound waves from the transducer into the tissues. Most ultrasound gels are designed for use at a range of ultrasound frequencies and are seen as 'general purpose' for that reason. However, some gels are designed for specific frequencies for use on people's skin. Gels need to be thick enough so they don't run off the skin following the scan. They should be colourless so as not to stain skin as well as being hypoallergenic.

Ultrasound gels are chosen according to their:

- Viscosity: thicker gels are used for longer examinations where more gel is used.
- Conductivity: high conductivity gels enhance the ultrasound transmission for better resolution.
- Skin sensitivity: hypoallergenic gels or those free from irritants are used for sensitive skin.
- Procedure type: some gels are designed for external scans, while others are for internal scans.

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Recall questions

1. Describe the properties of ultrasound waves that can affect the image produced.

Advantages and disadvantages of ultrasound for imaging

Ultrasound has several advantages and disadvantages for imaging in medical applications, summarised as follows.



Advantages

- Safety: ultrasound uses sound waves, not ionising radiation, making it safe for children, as well as patients who are pregnant.
- Painless: there's no discomfort involved in an ultrasound scan.
- Real-time imaging: ultrasound provides immediate images, allowing for use in other medical procedures.
- Versatile: can be used to examine various parts of the body, including organs and blood flow.
- Cost-effective: widely available: ultrasound is less expensive than other imaging techniques.
- Portable: ultrasound machines can be easily moved to different locations for bedside examinations.
- Ultrasound is generally a quiet, mobile technology which is accessible for patients with disabilities.



Disadvantages

- Operator-dependent: the quality of the images can vary depending on the skill of the operator. In the UK, sonographers need formal CQE accreditation.
- Limited penetration: ultrasound waves can be blocked by bone or air, meaning certain organs or structures are difficult to image.
- Not ideal for deep tissues: ultrasound may not provide clear images of structures located deep within the body.
- Cannot visualise certain tissues: some tissues, like bone and lung tissue, are difficult to visualise with ultrasound.
- Potential for **artefacts**: echoes from surrounding tissues can sometimes interfere with image quality, creating artefacts.
- The more invasive techniques such as transvaginal ultrasound are intimate and many patients find difficult to tolerate and which require sensitive communication and feelings of exposure.

An accredited sonographer or clinical scientist will perform the scan and adjust the settings. An obstetrician will interpret the images and issue a report to the consultant doctor who requested the scan.

Formative discussion questions:

Patient A has been experiencing blood in their stool. Although ultrasound would not be the primary diagnostic technique for bowel cancer, it may be used for an initial assessment of the abdomen.

Summarise how ultrasound might be used in this scenario.

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1.3 Endoscopy



Key points covered

- Structure of a modern endoscope
- Advantages and disadvantages
- Types of endoscopies
- Staff involved and risks to patient

Endoscopy is a medical procedure that involves inserting a long, thin tube with a camera at one end into a part of your body. This tube is called an endoscope. It's inserted through a natural opening or through a small incision. Endoscopes use fibre optics which is a technique where light is transmitted through thin glass fibres. Fibre-optic cables are also used in applications like telecommunications.

Structure of a modern endoscope

The diagram (Figure 1.4) shows the general structure of an endoscope.

When you look at an object in everyday life, you are looking at the light that is reflected from it. However, as there is no source of light inside the body, we must introduce one if we are to produce visual images. Therefore, the endoscope contains two basic parts: a flexible fibre-optic cable to shine light onto the tissue and another with a camera chip at the end to capture the internal images.

The other end of the imaging cable can be connected to an imaging system so that the image can be viewed directly or displayed on a screen.

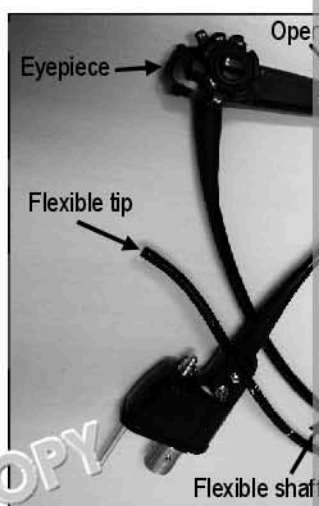


Figure 1.4

The individual fibres within these two cables are usually configured in different ways. The one that shines the light onto the tissue can be **non-coherent**. As long as light is transmitted from one end to the other, it doesn't matter what order the fibres go in. Non-coherent cables are cheaper and easier to manufacture. The imaging cable must have glass fibre optics or electronic sensors which convert the image to an electrical signal which is sent by micro-cable to the processor to display the image.

Types of endoscopies

Most types of endoscopies are carried out through existing openings in the body and

- bronchoscopy – the imaging cable is inserted through the mouth and directed into the bronchi (the widest airways in the lungs)
- colonoscopy – the imaging cable is inserted through the anus and rectum and into the large intestine
- gastroscopy – the imaging cable is inserted into the mouth and down the throat into the upper digestive tract
- cystoscopy – the imaging cable is inserted through the urethra (tube that carries urine out of the body) and directed into the bladder

Other types of endoscopies must be carried out through an incision (cut) made in the body for inserting the imaging cable. These include:

- laparoscopy – the incision is made in the abdomen (belly) so that organs in the abdominal cavity can be examined
- mediastinoscopy – the incision is made just above the sternum (breast bone) so that lymph nodes can be examined

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Another type of endoscope is the capsule endoscope. This is a tiny light source and a capsule that is small enough to be swallowed. When swallowed, the capsule enters the digestive system, sending images back to a receiver outside the body. As the entire small intestine is almost four metres long, capsule endoscopy is a better way to image all of it – part of the small intestine which is difficult to reach by traditional endoscopy.

Apply your knowledge

For each of the four types of endoscopy, create an imaginary patient who would need endoscopy for diagnostic purposes.



Staff involved and risks to patients

The medical staff that carry out endoscopy will be specialists in the region being investigated.

Professional	Role
Gastroenterologist	Performs the endoscopy, diagnoses conditions. Takes biopsies or removes polyps.
Endoscopy nurse	Prepares the patient before the procedure. Assists the doctor and provides post-procedure care.
Pathologist	A doctor who analyses biopsy samples from the tissue taken present during the procedure.
Endoscopy technician	Handles and maintains the endoscopic equipment.
Sedation nurse / anaesthetist	Administers sedation to the patient and monitors vital signs.

People having an endoscopy must prepare before the procedure. Examination of the colon by colonoscopy will require fasting before the procedure and treatment with a strong laxative to ensure the large intestine is unobstructed. Patients undergoing bronchoscopy will also need to fast and stop smoking in order to improve lung function in preparation for the procedure, and avoid alcohol for a cystoscopy.



It is important that the patient fully understands what the procedure involves and that the risks have been fully explained and consent obtained. It may be that additional services such as translation are required if there is a language barrier or the patient is visually or hearing impaired.

Bronchoscope



Oesophagus

Trachea (windpipe)

Right lung

Left bronchus

Left lung

Additional research

There is more information on the ranges of effective doses at the following websites:

zzed.uk/F186-bronchoscopy
zzed.uk/F186-cystoscopy



Your turn

Create a patient leaflet for the three types of imaging you have studied so far, explain in simple terms what each one is for, how it works, and the possible risks to the patient.

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Advantages and disadvantages of endoscopy for imaging

Endoscopy has several advantages and disadvantages for imaging in medical applications. These can be summarised as follows.



Advantages

- Minimally invasive: there is minimal trauma to the body because endoscopy uses natural openings, although colonoscopies or laparoscopies are invasive and carry a perforation risk.
- Quick recovery: since there is less tissue damage, patients usually recover quickly.
- Provides a clear and direct view of internal organs, aiding in precise diagnosis.
- Low risk of infection: small incisions reduce the chances of infections and bleeding.



Disadvantages

- Although rare, complications such as bleeding, infections, or perforation can occur.
- Discomfort: some patients may experience mild pain, bloating, or discomfort during the procedure.
- Anaesthesia risks: some types of endoscopy require sedation or anaesthesia, which carries its own risks.
- Not all conditions can be diagnosed or treated through endoscopy, and other procedures are needed.
- The procedure can be costly, especially if advanced technology or specialised staff are required.
- Not always conclusive: in some cases, endoscopy may not provide a definitive diagnosis, requiring further tests or procedures.
- Capsule endoscopy does not allow biopsy tissue to be collected and requires bowel preparation and decontamination.
- There may be positioning challenges for patients with mobility issues.

Formative discussion questions:

Patient A has been experiencing blood in his stool.

As part of the diagnostic tools available the doctor may order the patient to undergo a colonoscopy. Analyse the advantages and disadvantages of this technique for confirming the diagnosis.

1.4 Electrocardiogram (ECG)



Key points covered

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Structure of the heart Control of the cardiac cycle Principles of operation of the ECG Interpreting the ECG trace | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ECG and CT scans Advantages and disadvantages Staff involved |
|--|--|

The heart is the organ that pumps blood around the body. It is mainly made from muscle tissue, but this muscle differs in a significant way from the skeletal muscle that moves the body around.

It is called **cardiac muscle** and is described as being **myogenic**. In order to understand how the heart, and electrocardiogram (ECG), works we need to look at the structure of the heart and in more detail about how its beat is started and regulated.

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Structure of the heart

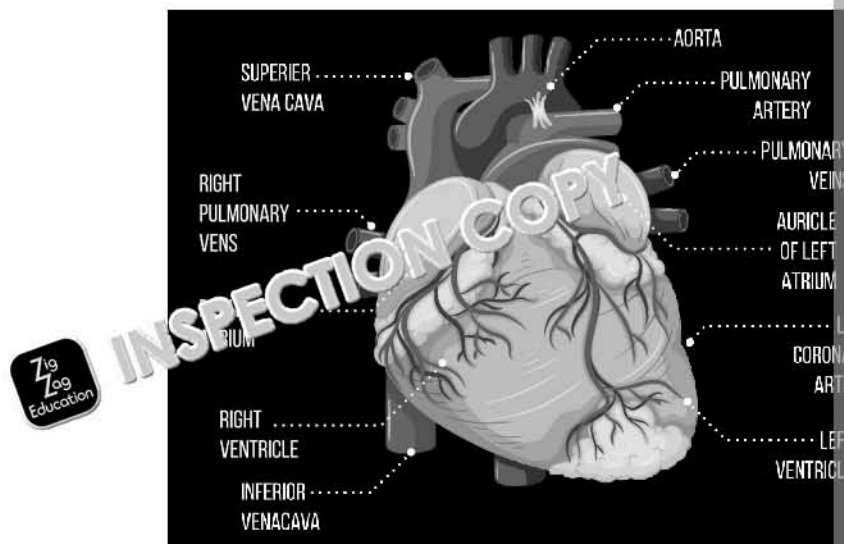


Figure 1.6 Diagram showing the structure of the heart

The heart is composed of two pairs of chambers – the left and right atria at the top and the left and right ventricles at the bottom. During the **cardiac cycle**, blood enters the heart from veins into the atria. The atria then contract together, pushing blood down into the ventricles. The ventricles then contract to push blood out through arteries around the body. The key timings of the cardiac cycle are:

- atria must contract together and from the top down
- atria must contract while the ventricles are relaxed
- there must be a slight delay to allow ventricles to fill before they contract
- ventricles must contract together and from the bottom up
- atria must be relaxed when ventricles are contracting
- the cycle must repeat for the rest of the life of the person

Control of cardiac cycle

The cardiac cycle is continuous so has no start and end points, but we can consider the **sinoatrial node (SAN)**. This structure is located in the wall of the right atrium. The SAN emits electrical impulses that spread down across the walls of the atria. As the wave of electrical activity spreads across the atrial walls, the atria contract. This forces blood down and into the ventricles.

When the wave of electrical activity reaches the base of the atria, it encounters the **atrioventricular node (AVN)**. Here it stops, preventing it from continuing down to the ventricles. However, in the wall of the heart just below the AVN is a patch of conducting tissue called the **atrioventricular node (AVN)**.

The AVN is often described as a relay station because it picks up the electrical impulse from the SAN and passes it on to the ventricles. From here, the electrical pulse spreads up and across the walls of the ventricles, causing them to contract. The AVN also introduces the necessary delay between the contraction of the atria and the ventricles.

After the ventricles have contracted, the cycle begins again with the SAN emitting electrical impulses.

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Recall questions

1. Create an annotated diagram which shows what happens during a complete cardiac cycle.

Principles of operation of the ECG

An ECG works by detecting the electrical impulses emitted by the heart through the cardiac cycle. A standard 12-lead ECG uses 10 electrodes connected to the skin at various positions on the body: four are positioned on the limbs and six are on the chest, as shown. Hence, the ECG is non-invasive.

The electrodes measure the potential difference between the skin and a reference voltage which does not change. Body tissues contain cells that are surrounded by tissue fluid. Tissue fluid is an aqueous solution containing many substances, some of which are ions. Therefore, tissue fluid acts as a conductor, conducting the electrical impulses from the heart to the electrodes on the surface.

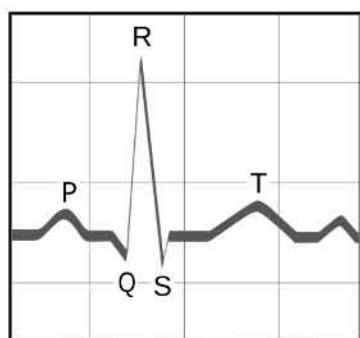


Figure 1.8 A typical ECG trace

The changes in potential difference are displayed as a graph. The ECG waveform consists of deflections that represent the phases of the cardiac cycle. A positive deflection (impulses move towards a positive electrode) appears upwards, above the baseline. A negative deflection (impulses move away from a positive electrode) appears downwards, below the baseline.

The result looks like a graph with potential difference on the y-axis and time on the x-axis. This pattern is called an ECG trace. A typical pattern looks like this, where the letters P–T represent the different phases of the cardiac cycle.

Interpreting the ECG trace

An ECG trace reveals a lot about the activity of the heart.

The **P wave** represents the impulse emitted from the SAN to start atrial contraction. The **QRS wave** represents the electrical activity that causes the ventricles to contract.

Heart rate, which is the number of beats per minute, can be worked out from the trace.

- noting the time in seconds for one complete cycle (or several complete cycles)
- heart rate = $60 / \text{time for one complete cycle}$ to get beats per minute

There are systematic differences in the ECG traces, generally, for male and female patients. Female patients generally have a longer QT interval. It is important therefore for health professionals to note a patient's sex when interpreting their trace. For transgender and non-binary patients, health professionals should approach this sensitively, respecting gender identity whilst explaining that sex is clinically determined.

The ECG trace changes dramatically just after someone has acute myocardial infarction (AMI). Just after the AMI, the trace starts to look more like that of a healthy person. Long after AMI, it will still show signs of the infarction.

For example, this image shows an ECG trace of a person three minutes after AMI. In this trace, the ST section is much higher because there is a blockage in a coronary artery.

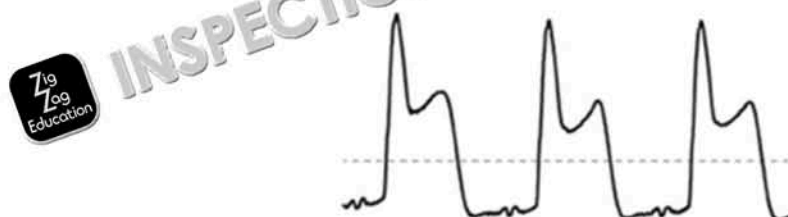


Figure 1.9 An ECG trace of a person after three minutes of AMI (heart attack)

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The next example shows the ECG trace of a person with sinus arrhythmia, which is a condition where the heart's rhythm is irregular. It is caused by impulses arising from the SAN. You can see an irregular heart beat with different time intervals between beats. In this condition, the shorter time interval coincides with inhalation and the longer interval coincides with exhalation.

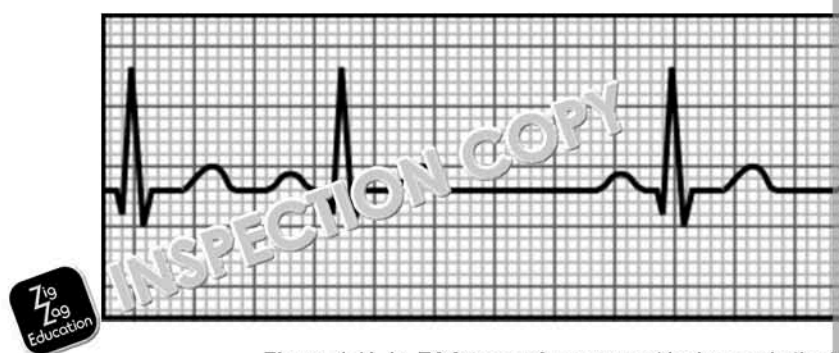


Figure 1.10 An ECG trace of a person with sinus arrhythmia

Compared to normal heart function which would show a regular pattern, with a P wave, QRS complex and T wave, irregular heart rhythms can be visualised on an ECG trace, such as:

Condition	
Atrial fibrillation	No P waves and the R-R intervals would be irregular and quivering instead of beating properly
Ventricular tachycardia	QRS complexes would be wide and fast due to fast heart rate
Ventricular fibrillation	Whole ECG totally disorganised with no clear waves
Heart block	Long PR interval because there is a slow signal between the atria and the ventricles

ECG and CT scans

ECG can be used in conjunction with CT scans of the cardiovascular system. ECG enhanced CT scans through a technique called **ECG gating**.

The benefits of this are:

- **Reduced motion artefacts:** by capturing images during the same phase of the cardiac cycle (usually during the diastole, when the heart is relaxed), ECG gating minimises the blurring caused by heart motion. This leads to clearer and more accurate images of the coronary arteries and heart chambers.
- **Improved image quality:** with reduced motion artefacts, the overall image quality is improved, allowing for improved visualisation of even small coronary lesions.
- **Increased diagnostic accuracy:** by providing a clearer picture of the coronary arteries, ECG-gated CT scans help doctors more accurately diagnose coronary artery disease (CAD) and the presence of blockages.

Applications of ECG-gated CT scans

- **Coronary artery disease (CAD) evaluation:** detecting and assessing the severity of coronary artery blockages.
- **Cardiac calcium scoring:** measuring the amount of calcium build-up in the coronary arteries, a risk factor for heart disease.
- **Congenital heart defects:** evaluating the structure and function of the heart in patients with congenital heart conditions.
- **Heart failure assessment:** assessing the heart's pumping function and structural changes in heart failure.

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Advantages and disadvantages of ECG

ECG is a low-risk procedure. People having this diagnosis have no risk of electric shock as they are just passive measuring devices. Some people may develop a slight rash where the electrodes are attached to skin, similar to that where an adhesive plaster was attached.

Advantages and disadvantages of ECG can be summarised as follows.



Advantages of ECG

- Non-invasive: ECG does not require any surgical procedures.
- Quick and painless: ECG takes only a few minutes to perform.
- Widely available: ECG is a standard diagnostic tool found in most health settings.
- Relatively inexpensive: compared to other diagnostic tests, ECG is relatively inexpensive.
- Accurate in detecting heart rhythm abnormalities: ECG is excellent at identifying arrhythmias.
- Can provide evidence of heart damage: ECG can show signs of previous heart attacks or heart injuries.
- Helps in monitoring heart conditions: ECG can be used to track the progression of heart diseases.



Disadvantages of ECG

- Provides a snapshot in time: ECG only records heart activity at the moment of the test, so it may not detect irregular heartbeats that occur infrequently.
- Limited in detecting certain heart conditions: while ECG is good at detecting arrhythmias, it may not accurately identify other heart issues such as heart failure or coronary artery disease.
- Interpretation can be subjective: ECG results require interpretation by a healthcare professional, and there can be variations in how different experts read the results.
- Affected by external factors: factors such as patient movement, electrode placement, and electrical interference can affect the accuracy of ECG results.
- ECG does not specifically detect ischaemia and the results can be difficult to interpret in some cases.



Apply your knowledge

Create a risk assessment for using this diagnostic technique.

- What are the identified hazards, and what level of risk is involved?
- What is the level of risk for each hazard?
- What are the control measures that can be put in place to reduce the risks?



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Staff involved

The healthcare professionals involved in administering an ECG may be different depending on the clinical situation under which the ECG is required; for example, in an emergency situation a paramedic or ambulance technician would be carrying out the procedure.

Healthcare professional	Role
Paramedic	Performs ECGs in emergencies, e.g. during heart attacks, and recognises abnormal ECG patterns
Cardiac nurse	Performs ECGs in hospitals and monitors continuous ECGs
Cardiologist	Expert interpretation of ECGs to diagnose heart conditions
Cardiac physiologist	Performs and analyses complex ECG tests such as stress tests
ECG healthcare assistant	Routine patient preparation and data handling

Your turn

Create a mind map of all of the different healthcare professionals you have come across and the different roles they perform. You could add information about the educational training required for each role as well.

Formative discussion questions:

Look at the diagnostic scenario in the next section. What does it suggest that Patient A would benefit from?

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Topic Area 2: Application of ionising diagnosis techniques

2.1.1 Plain X-ray image

!	Key points covered
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Medical applications of X-rays X-ray structure Production of X-rays Improving X-ray images 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effective radiation dose Safety considerations and protection Advantages and disadvantages

Medical applications of X-rays

There are many applications of X-ray imaging in medicine. These include:

- Bone fractures: identifying breaks or cracks in bones.
- Dental issues: examining teeth for cavities, infections or abnormalities.
- Lung conditions: detecting pneumonia, tuberculosis or other lung diseases.
- Heart problems: assessing the size and shape of the heart, identifying blockages in blood vessels.
- Digestive system: examining the oesophagus, stomach and intestines for obstructions or inflammation.
- Breast cancer screening: mammography to detect early-stage breast cancer.
- Guided procedures: assisting in procedures such as angiograms, biopsies, and orthopaedic surgeries.

Recall questions

1. Make a list of all the uses of medical x-rays.

X-ray tube structure

X-rays are emitted when fast-moving electrons collide with a metal surface where there are many free electrons in the metal.

Figure 2.2 shows the main components of a typical X-ray tube.

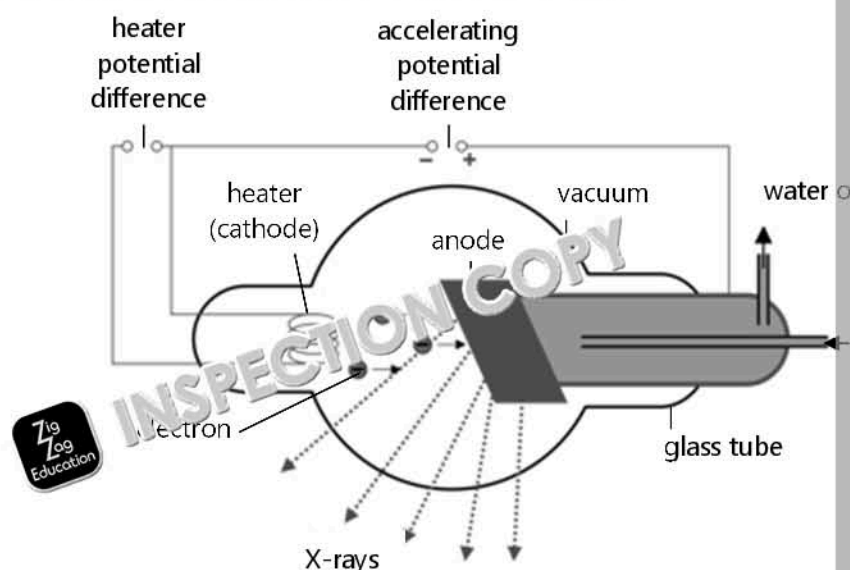


Figure 2.2. A typical X-ray tube.

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Production of X-rays

There are two key parameters to be considered when producing medical X-rays from an X-ray tube. One of these is the peak potential difference between the **cathode** and **anode** in the tube, and the other is the current between the two.

As the peak potential difference is measured in kV, it is usually referred to as kVp. The current controls the number of X-rays produced and is usually measured in mA. Higher current will increase image brightness and produce a clearer image of thick abdomen, but will also increase the radiation dose and therefore will often be low.

The kVp setting influences the acceleration of the electrons towards the anode and arrival at the anode. The higher the kVp the higher the electron energy and, therefore, higher energy X-rays are more penetrating of dense materials and can produce better images as they are able to penetrate the lungs and ribs, and for obese patients to ensure X-rays reach the film. Lower kVp settings are often suitable for X-ray images of hands and feet to improve contrast. Higher kVp settings are used for more X-rays at lower energy, and for paediatric imaging to reduce the dose of radiation.

The exposure time, measured in seconds, determines how long X-rays are produced. Short exposure times of less than 0.1 seconds are used to reduce motion blur from breathing when producing chest X-rays or movement of young children. Longer exposure times are often necessary when the patient is unable to hold their breath for the lower X-ray production, e.g. when producing images of the hands and feet.

When X-rays pass through matter, they interact with the particles in the matter producing two main effects: **attenuation** and **scattering**.

Attenuation is a decrease in intensity of the X-rays which can be caused by X-ray photons being absorbed or scattered.

Scattering, as the name suggests, is a random change in direction of the X-ray photon due to interaction with electrons in the matter through which it is passing. Scattering contributes to a decrease in intensity because the number of X-ray photons emerging from the matter in the direction expected is reduced.

Collimators can be used to improve the quality of the X-ray beam.

A collimator is a device used to restrict the size and shape of an X-ray beam. A collimator is a series of lead shutters that can be adjusted to match the size of the area being imaged.

This has the advantages of:

- Reducing patient exposure: by limiting the X-ray beam to the area of interest it minimises unnecessary radiation exposure to the patient.
- Improving image quality: by reducing scatter radiation, it enhances image contrast and clarity.
- Protecting staff: helps to protect healthcare workers from unnecessary radiation.

An X-ray filter is a sheet of material, usually aluminium, copper or tin, placed in the path of the X-ray beam. It is designed to absorb low-energy X-rays that contribute little to image formation.

Functions of a filter:

- Reduces patient exposure: by removing low-energy X-rays, it decreases the patient dose.
- Improves image quality: by increasing the energy of the X-ray beam it improves contrast and penetration.
- Protects the patient: reduces the skin dose, which is particularly important for paediatric patients.

Recall questions

1. Write an explanation in your own words of how x-ray is produced.

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Improving X-ray images

Image contrast enhancement is a method to make diagnosis from an X-ray image easier. This is where software is programmed to exaggerate the difference between light and dark areas on the image.

Patient positioning is crucial in minimising artefact on X-ray images. Incorrect positioning can lead to various image distortions, obscuring or distorting structures, and hindering accurate diagnosis.

General positioning principles are:

- The X-ray film should be perpendicular to the part being imaged to minimise distortion.
- The body part of interest should be parallel to the image receptor to avoid magnification.
- Use positioning aids, sandbags, or restraints to prevent movement.
- Ensure patient comfort to reduce anxiety and potential movement.

Some examples of positioning include:

- Chest X-ray: erect posture, arms raised, chin extended to avoid obscuring lung fields.
- Abdominal X-ray: supine position, knees flexed to reduce bowel gas.
- Limb X-ray: part aligned parallel to the image receptor, avoiding rotation.

Further your knowledge

Various types of artefact can occur due to incorrect positioning:

- **Motion artefact:** occurs due to movement during exposure. Can be minimised by clear instruction, immobilisation, and short exposure times. Results in blurred images, superimposed structures.
- **Magnification artefact:** occurs when the part being imaged is at a distance from the image receptor. Results in a larger image of the part of interest as close to the receptor as possible.
- **Rotation artefact:** occurs when the body part is not parallel to the image receptor. Results in distorted shapes. Corrected by careful positioning.
- **Overlapping structures:** occurs when structures are not clearly defined. Addressed by careful patient positioning.

Your turn

Create a training poster for a medical imaging facility outlining the steps to be taken to ensure high quality x-ray image quality.

Effective radiation dose

Effective dose is a measure of the overall risk of developing radiation-induced cancer from radiation, such as X-rays. It takes into account the different sensitivities of various organs and tissues.

To calculate effective dose, two factors are considered:

1. **Equivalent dose:** this measures the biological effect of different types of radiation.
2. **Tissue weighting factor:** this reflects the sensitivity of different organs and tissues.

By multiplying the equivalent dose by the tissue weighting factor for each irradiated organ and summing these products, the effective dose is obtained.

Effective dose (Sv) = Absorbed dose × Tissue weighting factor

Effective dose is measured in sieverts (Sv) or more commonly in millisieverts (mSv).

	Weighting factor
Brain	0.01
Liver	0.04
Testes	0.08
Lungs	0.12

Additional information

There are various resources available and a table of weighting factors for different organs and tissues is available at www.hpa.gov.uk/radiation and [zzed.uk/](http://www.zzed.uk/).

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The effective dose from an X-ray examination varies depending on the type of exam and the specific technique used. Generally, the effective dose from diagnostic X-rays is relatively low.

For example:

- Chest X-ray: 0.05–0.24 mSv
- Dental X-ray (depending on the type of dental X-ray): 0.001–0.03 mSv
- Mammogram: 0.1–0.6 mSv
- Abdominal X-ray: 0.01–0.1 mSv

It is important to note that these are average values and the actual dose can vary.

The current advice on maximum dose per person is 1 mSv per year averaged over 5 years. Healthcare professionals, however, have a limit of 20 mSv per year, averaged over 5 years.

Safety considerations and professionals involved

Staff, called **radiographers**, protect themselves from X-rays by going out of the room or by standing behind a lead screen when an X-ray image is being taken. Staff also wear film badges which are sent off for development at regular intervals. If the film is seen to go too dark, then their exposure is deemed to have been too high.

Patients can be protected by wearing protective covers to prevent X-rays from penetrating sensitive tissues that are not part of the diagnostic procedure. These covers are usually in the form of aprons that contain lead panels.

Understanding effective dose helps healthcare providers and patients make informed decisions about the benefits and risks of medical imaging procedures. By minimising radiation exposure while maintaining diagnostic quality, the principle of 'as low as reasonably achievable' (ALARA) is applied.

X-ray images are interpreted by doctors who specialise in radiology and are trained in nuclear medicine images, called radiologists. Orthopaedic surgeons analyse bone dislocations, and dentists and oral surgeons will interpret dental X-rays to view wisdom teeth and jaw fractures.

Additional Information
There is a range of effective doses for the following procedures:
zzed.uk
zzed.uk
zzed.uk
zzed.uk
zzed.uk



Fig. 1.1

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Advantages and disadvantages of X-ray imaging

The advantages and disadvantages of medical X-ray imaging can be summarised as follows:



Advantages

- Rapid and accessible: X-rays are quick to administer and the results are available quickly.
- Relatively inexpensive: compared to other imaging techniques, X-rays are relatively cheap.
- Wide range of applications: X-rays can be used to diagnose a variety of conditions, including fractures, pneumonia, and dental issues.
- Non-invasive: X-rays do not require surgery or incisions.
- Effective for diagnosing certain conditions: X-rays are excellent at visualising some organs and structures.



Disadvantages

- Radiation exposure: X-rays use ionising radiation, which can increase the risk of cancer with repeated exposure.
- X-ray imaging cannot provide detailed images of soft tissues such as the brain and ligaments. A better alternative for imaging these areas would be MRI or CT scans. For example, a suspected brain tumour or spinal cord injury would require an MRI scan.
- Potential for false positives or negatives: X-ray images can sometimes be misinterpreted, leading to incorrect diagnoses.
- Not suitable for pregnant patients due to the level of exposure to radiation.
- Allergic reactions: some contrast agents used in X-ray procedures can cause allergic reactions.
- X-rays often fail to identify small tumours and cannot distinguish between benign and malignant growths. For example, if a patient had unexplained weight loss and fatigue, a CT scan would be more likely to identify early-stage cancer.
- Blood clots and vascular blockages also cannot be detected by X-ray. A CT scan or pulmonary embolism would require a CT scan or pulmonary angiogram to visualise blood flow.

Formative discussion questions

A patient has been suffering from persistent chest pain and shortness of breath for the past few days, along with unexplained weight loss and blood in his stool. Lung cancer is suspected; the doctor would like to use X-ray to locate the tumour. What would be the expected findings on the X-ray?

2.1.2 Computerised tomography (CT) scans and contrast



Key points covered

- Structure and function of a CT scanner
- Radiopaque media
- Effective radiation dose
- Safety considerations and professionals involved
- Advantages and disadvantages of CT scans

A CT scan, or computed tomography scan, is a medical imaging technique that produces detailed cross-sectional images of the body. Unlike X-rays, which produce a single 2D image, CT scans create a 3D image by combining multiple X-ray images taken from different angles.

CT scans can be used to provide detailed images of organs and tissues in cancer diagnosis, and for a patient with head trauma to check the brain for bleeding and swelling.



Figure 2.4

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Structure and function of a CT scanner

Figure 2.5 shows the basic structure of a CT scanner.

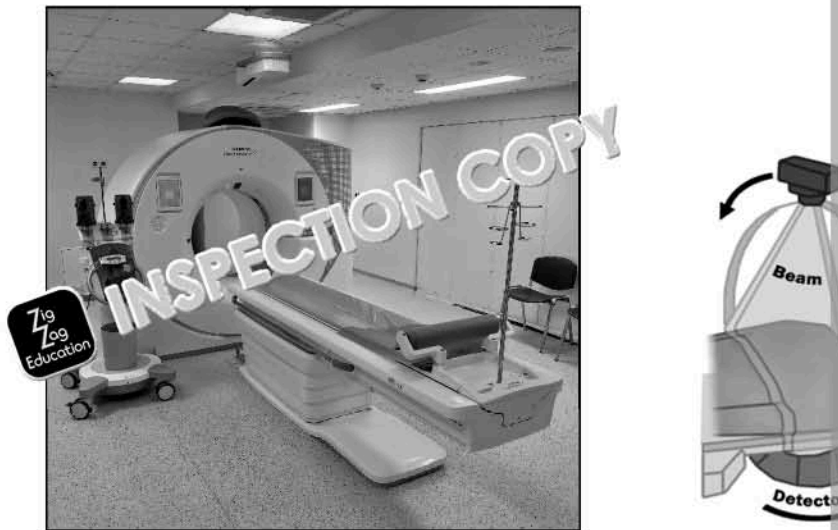


Figure 2.5. The basic structure of a CT scanner.

The gantry is a ring that slowly rotates around the part of the patient to be scanned opposite the multiple row detector as the gantry rotates. The multiple row detector detects X-rays as opposed to just one. This increases the imaging angle at each position.

To scan larger areas of the body, the table can either move through the gantry as the gantry rotates or the table can move along the table.

Although CT is a fast procedure, the environment and noise may be stressful for patients and children. Medical professionals should give clear, simple instructions, sometimes through a practice run before the actual procedure in order to put the patient at ease.

Radiopaque media

A contrast medium is a substance used in medical imaging to improve the visibility of internal structures. In the context of CT scans, it's typically an iodine-based liquid injected into a vein, or a barium compound that is eaten and swallowed with food.

The contrast medium travels through the bloodstream and accumulates in specific areas. For example, barium compounds pass through the digestive tract accumulating in various locations.

This accumulation increases the density of these areas, making them appear white on the scan. Contrast helps radiologists differentiate between different types of tissues and identify abnormalities more clearly. At the end of the procedure the iodine is filtered by the kidneys and excreted in urine. If a patient has impaired renal function this can take longer. Barium compounds pass through the digestive tract and are excreted in faeces.

An angiogram is a specialised imaging test that involves injecting a contrast medium into blood vessels such as arteries and veins. It is used in a CT scan in order to detect blockages. An angiogram can be used to monitor blood flow through the heart, brain, kidneys, etc.

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Recall questions

1. Why might a contrast medium be used?

Effective radiation dose

The effective radiation dose from a CT scan can be greater than that of a plain X-ray. The dose depends on the scan length and number of phases.

CT scan type	Range of effective dose (mSv)
Head	1–2
Chest	5–7
Abdomen and pelvis	8–10
Cardiothoracic agram	5–15
CT coronary angiogram	4–7

Safety considerations and professionals involved

Radiographers are the people who operate CT scanners, and the safety procedures are different from those when taking plain X-ray images.

While CT scans with contrast media are generally safe, there are potential risks. The risks are relatively uncommon, and the benefits of the scan often outweigh them. People with a history of allergies or with kidney problems are at greater risk than other people.

The most common risks with contrast media are:

- Allergic reactions (hypersensitivity) to the media: this can range from mild itching to anaphylaxis.
- Kidney damage: contrast media can potentially harm the kidneys, especially in people with pre-existing kidney problems.

Less common risks are:

- Thyroid problems: in rare cases, contrast media can affect the thyroid gland.
- Other side effects: these can include nausea, vomiting, headache, and a warm feeling.

Advantages and disadvantages of CT scans

The advantages and disadvantages of CT scans can be summarised as follows.



Advantages

- Provides highly detailed cross-sectional images of the body.
- Relatively quick procedure compared to other imaging techniques.
- Can be used to diagnose various conditions, including injuries, infections, and tumours.
- Can quickly identify life-threatening conditions such as internal bleeding.
- Can be used to guide biopsies, surgeries, and other medical procedures.



Disadvantages

- CT scans expose patients to significant radiation and are not suitable for use during pregnancy. Children and young adults should also avoid frequent scans. People with suspected appendicitis should be evaluated with an ultrasound before a CT scan.
- If a contrast medium is used, there's a risk of allergic reactions or kidney damage.
- Compared to MRI (topic area 1.1), CT scans provide less detailed images of soft tissue.
- Can be expensive and not all medical facilities have a CT scanner for this purpose.
- Some patients may experience claustrophobia or discomfort during the scan.
- Because CT scans show structure rather than functions such as blood flow, they are not ideal for diagnosing conditions such as epilepsy and dementia. A PET scan would be a better choice for a patient with suspected Alzheimer's disease.

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Apply your knowledge

Research some medical scenarios in which the speed of a CT scan would be important. In each case, state what images would be produced from the scan, and what the

CT and MRI are often combined in medical diagnosis because they provide complementary information about different tissues and structures.

CT scans will provide images of bones and dense structures. It is quick, widely available and good at visualising bone, **calcification** and heavy bleeding, so it would be chosen first in a trauma or stroke.

MRI scans will provide information about soft tissues such as muscle, nerves, ligaments, cartilage, marrow and tumours. It is used in cases when soft-tissue injury characterisation is needed after trauma. It does not use ionising radiation, but cannot see through metal implants.

However, both scans can often be combined. For example, with a suspected spinal injury, a CT scan will show bone fractures, while an MRI will assess nerve or spinal cord damage. Using both provides a more complete picture than either scan alone.

Formative discussion questions:

Along with the primary symptoms of chest pain and shortness of breath, patient A is also experiencing blood in his stool. In order to investigate this the doctor ordered a CT scan of the bowel.

Explain why this diagnostic test is appropriate for the patient's symptoms.

2.2.1 Radiopharmaceuticals



Key points covered

- The gamma camera
- Radioactive tracers
- Health and safety in respect of radioactive tracers
- Advantages and disadvantages of radioactive tracers

Radiopharmaceuticals are specialised drugs that contain radioactive elements called radioisotopes. These drugs are used in both diagnostic and therapeutic applications in medicine.

Radiopharmaceuticals are designed to accumulate in specific organs or tissues. The emitted radiation can be detected by imaging equipment, providing valuable information about the function and structure of these organs. This helps in diagnosing diseases such as cancer, heart disease, and neurological disorders.

Examples of radiopharmaceuticals

- Technetium-99m: used for imaging various organs including heart, brain, bones
- Fluorine-18: key component of PET radiopharmaceuticals to detect cancer and metabolic activity
- Iodine-131: used for the treatment of thyroid conditions

Radiopharmaceuticals are carefully regulated to ensure patient safety. The radiation is controlled, and the drugs are administered by trained medical professionals.

The gamma camera

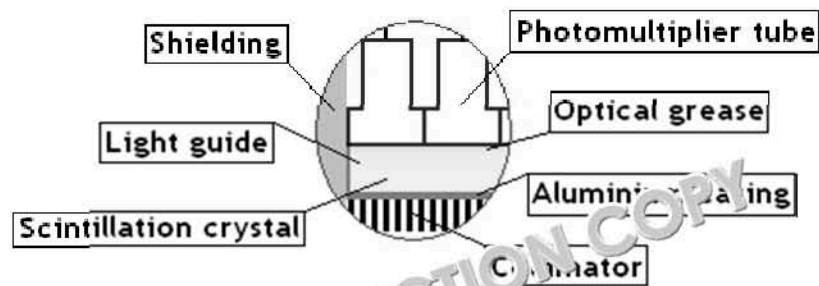
Because gamma rays are composed of photons and are not relatively large, charged particles, they are detected in a different way.

A gamma camera is designed to be able to produce an image from a gamma-emitting isotope such as technetium-99m. It is comprised of:

- A collimator, which focuses gamma rays onto the crystal.
- **Scintillation crystals** that convert gamma ray photons into photons of visible light.
- **Photomultiplier tubes** that convert light into electrical signals.

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Figure

A computer is used to process the output from the photomultiplier tubes and produce an image.

Radioactive tracers

A radioactive tracer is a molecule that has a **radionuclide** incorporated into it. The tracer is designed to be introduced into the body by injection, inhalation or ingestion. The tracer enters certain organs or tissues and is detectable by the radiation that it emits. Radionuclides used in medical imaging become non-radioactive and are eliminated from the body through natural biological processes; for example, such as technetium-99 are excreted in urine. Patients are often advised to drink plenty of water to increase the clearance of the radionuclide.

There are many different radioactive tracers available for medical use. The selection is done by a nuclear medicine specialist. This is a critical decision that depends on several factors:

- The tracer should preferentially accumulate in the target organ or tissue. The distribution in the body should be understood to avoid interference from other organs.
- Different tracers are suitable for different types of imaging based on the nature of the radiation they emit. The tracer's decay characteristics should produce high-quality images.
- The tracer should be appropriate for the intended use, whether diagnostic or therapeutic, and also provide the necessary information for the clinical question.
- Age, weight, allergies and kidney function are all patient factors that influence the choice of tracer and dosage.
- Levels of physical activity, diet and smoking and substance abuse are some of the factors that account when deciding on an appropriate tracer to use.
- The tracer's half-life should be suitable for the study duration.
- The tracer should deliver a minimal radiation dose to the patient. Although radionuclides have different half-lives, typical diagnostic imaging tracers result in effective doses of 1–10 mSv. For example, a gamma emitter with a half-life of six hours, in comparison to iodine-123, a beta emitter radionuclide, with a half-life of 13 hours.
- Practical considerations such as availability and cost influence the choice of tracer.

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Recall questions

1. What would technetium-99m be used for in a scan of the heart?
2. What might affect the quality of the image?

Health and safety in respect of radioactive tracers and professionals

The use of radioactive tracers in medicine is a carefully regulated process with strict rules in place. In the UK, an organisation called **ARSAC**, which stands for the Administrative Radioactive Substances Advisory Committee, gives advice on licence applications from organisations that use radioactive tracers on people.

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Healthcare professionals who handle radioactive materials undergo rigorous training and protocols to protect themselves from exposure. General safety measures associated with the use of radioactive tracers include:

- The amount of radioactive material used in medical procedures is incredibly small.
- Most radioactive tracers are quickly eliminated from the body through urine.
- Healthcare professionals use appropriate shielding to protect themselves and patients from exposure. They must wear personal protective equipment including gloves, gowns, and lead aprons.
- Radioactive materials should be stored in lead containers inside locked metal cabinets.
- Imaging rooms are well-ventilated to minimise airborne contamination.
- Radioactive waste is handled and disposed of according to strict regulations.
- Healthcare professionals require regular monitoring, and radiation film badges to track their exposure.
- Hospitals must have a plan in place for handling accidents or spills.

Patients undergoing procedures involving radioactive tracers are carefully monitored. They are given detailed information about the procedure, including potential risks and benefits before they proceed, which is called **informed consent**. Special additional precautions are taken when selecting a radioactive tracer with the shortest possible half-life and encouraging fluid intake in order to clear the tracer from the body as quickly as possible. Post-procedure guidelines are given specific instructions on fluid intake, hygiene, and avoiding close contact with others.

Doctors specialising in nuclear medicine with an ARSAC licence are responsible for the selection and dosage of radionuclide tracers for patients and for interpreting the results. A radiopharmacist will ensure safe and accurate compounding of radioactive tracers, working to ARSAC standards before administration and will monitor radioactive dose. A nuclear medicine technologist or specialised radiographer will carry out the intravenous injection. A dedicated staff will monitor the patient after administration.

The risk to the public from radioactive tracers used in medical procedures is extremely low. The radiation emitted is minimal and rapidly decreases over time.

Recall questions

1. What are the risks of using tracers such as technetium-99m?

Advantages and disadvantages of radioactive tracers

The advantages and disadvantages of radioactive tracers can be summarised as follows:



Advantages

- High sensitivity: they can detect extremely small amounts of substance.
- Specificity: they can target specific organs or tissues.
- Non-invasive: most procedures involving radioactive tracers are non-invasive.
- Functional information: they provide information about physiological processes and anatomical structures.
- Early detection: they can detect diseases in their early stages.
- Versatility: they can be used for various medical applications, from diagnosis to treatment.



Disadvantages

- Radiation exposure: while the amount of radiation is minimal, there is still a small risk of exposure.
- Cost: the equipment and radioactive materials can be expensive.
- Image quality: sometimes the quality can be affected by factors such as physiological processes like cardiac motion, breathing, blood flow and gastric intestinal motion.
- Availability: not all facilities have access to nuclear medicine imaging.
- Allergic reactions: some patients may experience allergic reactions to the tracer.

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Recall questions

1. What are the advantages of using this technique in terms of patient's experience?

A radionuclide tracer and gamma camera provides functional information rather than structural information; for example, a patient with a suspected brain tumour would need a gamma camera scan to visualise the cancer.

Radionuclide imaging takes time for tracer uptake and cannot rapidly detect internal or traumatic injuries. A car accident victim with suspected internal bleeding needs a radionuclide scan.

Similarly to other diagnostic techniques involving ionising radiation, radionuclide imaging is not suitable for radiation-sensitive patients such as children and young adults, or those who are pregnant.

Formative discussion questions:

Because patient A is suffering from chest pain and shortness of breath, a myocardial perfusion scan using technetium-99 and gamma camera imaging is ordered to identify heart disease.

What are the advantages and disadvantages of this technique for confirming the diagnosis?

2.2.2 Positron emission tomography (PET)



Key points covered

- Fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG)
- Locating a tumour using CT and PET scans
- Safety precautions for PET scans
- Advantages and disadvantages of PET scans

Positron emission tomography or PET is a medical imaging technique that produces a three-dimensional image of metabolic processes in the body. PET scans measure metabolic activity, which is a key indicator of tissue function. Because PET scans measure function, they can detect abnormalities earlier than structural imaging techniques like CT or MRI.

A small amount of a radioactive substance (tracer) is injected into the body. This tracer is designed to accumulate in specific organs or tissues based on their metabolic activity. The radiotracer emits a **positron**, which is the **antiparticle** of an electron. The positron collides with an electron, resulting in the production of two gamma rays that travel in opposite directions. The PET scanner detects these gamma rays and uses their direction to determine their origin. A computer reconstructs a three-dimensional image based on the location of the gamma ray pairs.



Figure 2.2.2

positron – identical mass to an electron but with a positive charge

antiparticle – counterpart to a particle with the same mass but opposite charge

Fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG)

Fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG) is the most commonly used radioactive tracer in PET scans. It is an analogue of glucose, meaning it is a molecule very similar to glucose in terms of structure and function. It is radiolabelled with fluorine-18 to make it radioactive. Glucose is the body's preferred energy source, so it means it is taken up in large quantities by cells that are active.

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FDG is injected into the bloodstream. Cells with high metabolic activity, such as cancer cells, take up glucose for respiration. Since FDG is similar to glucose, it's also taken up by these cells. However, FDG cannot be fully metabolised, so it accumulates in cells with high glucose uptake. The PET scanner detects the radiation emitted by FDG, allowing medical professionals to visualise areas of high metabolic activity.

FDG will usually be administered by a nuclear medicine physician.

Locating a tumour using CT and PET scans

PET scans can be often combined with CT scans (PET/CT) to provide both functional and structural information. For example, the precise location of a tumour requires the PET/CT combination. The CT scan provides structural information about the body and tissues, allowing a tumour to be located. A PET scan will visualise the metabolic activity of cells as bright spots showing physiological information. Together, they provide the location and nature of the tumour, improving diagnosis and treatment planning.

Safety precautions for PET scans

PET scans are usually carried out by radiologists who also interpret the images.

Generally, the amount of radiation used in a PET scan is relatively low, and the procedure is safe for most people. However, as PET scans involve the use of a radioactive tracer, there are some safety precautions to follow.

- **Minimal radiation dose:** the quantity of radioactive tracer used in a PET scan is very small.
- **Rapid elimination:** the radioactive tracer is quickly eliminated from the body.
- **Shielding:** healthcare professionals use appropriate shielding to protect themselves from radiation exposure.
- **Post-procedure guidelines:** patients are given specific instructions on fluid intake. They are advised to drink plenty of water to eliminate the tracer and to avoid close contact with anyone who is pregnant for the first few hours afterwards.

Recall questions



1. List the potential hazards of a PET scan on a patient with a low-grade temporal lobe tumour.

Advantages and disadvantages of PET scans

The advantages and disadvantages of PET scans can be summarised as follows.



Advantages

- **High sensitivity:** PET scans can detect abnormalities in the early stages of disease.
- **Functional information:** provides information about how organs and tissues are functioning, not just their structure.
- **Wide range of applications:** used for various diseases, including cancer, heart disease, and neurological disorders.
- **Accuracy:** offers precise localisation of abnormal tissue.



Disadvantages

- **Cost:** PET scans are often more expensive than other imaging techniques.
- **Radiation exposure:** while the amount of radiation is relatively low, patients are exposed to ionising radiation.
- **Availability:** not all healthcare facilities have access to PET scanners.
- **Requires specialised equipment and personnel:** PET scans require specialised equipment and trained technicians.
- **Less detailed anatomical information:** compared to CT or MRI scans, PET scans provide less detailed anatomical information.

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PET scans focus on function, not anatomical structure, meaning they are not ideal for detecting fractures, organ structure changes, or soft tissue injuries; for example, a patient with a suspected spinal fracture or bone abnormality needs a CT scan or an MRI scan rather than a PET scan.

PET scans take time for tracer uptake, making them too slow for emergencies and unable to detect acute bleeding or fractures. A patient involved in a car accident would require a CT scan rather than a PET scan to identify the extent of their injuries quickly.

Patients are required to lie still for 20-60 minutes for the scan to complete which may be difficult for patients with mobility impairments and children. Healthcare professionals may need to use hoists or sliding sheets to assist the patient on to the scanning bed and may use cushions or supports to reduce pain and stiffness. Using clear, simple explanations helps to reassure patients and sometimes even playing music during the scan helps to distract patients and reduce anxiety.

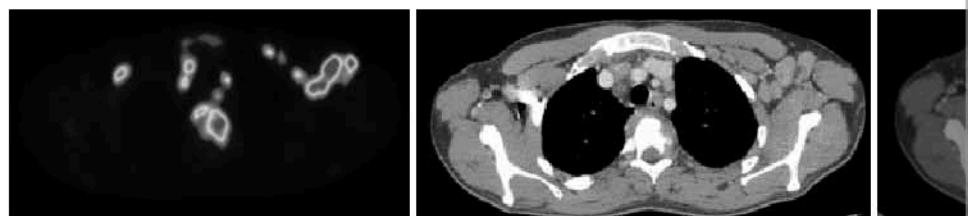


Figure 2.9. Scans of a patient with cancer metastases – PET scan (left), CT scan (middle) and

Formative discussion questions

An MRI brain scan with contrast enhancement has revealed a benign, low-grade temporal lesion. There are no signs of metastasis on the MRI scan. Why might a doctor also order a PET scan?

Apply your knowledge

Create an overview table of all of the diagnostic techniques you have studied with their advantages and disadvantages. Consider the following headings, as well as any others you think are relevant.

	Patient safety	Patient comfort	Speed	Versatility	Cost	Availability
Diagnostic technique						

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Topic Area 3: Application of ionising therapy techniques

Principle of ionising therapy

Ionising therapy, also known as radiation therapy or radiotherapy, uses ionising radiation to treat various medical conditions, primarily cancer. It works by damaging the DNA of cancer cells, preventing them from undergoing cell division and eventually leading to their death.

The two main types of ionising radiotherapy are external radiotherapy and internal radiotherapy. External radiotherapy uses a machine outside the body to direct radiation beams at the tumour. Internal radiotherapy involves placing radioactive materials inside the body, either as implants or intravenously.

The use of all forms of ionising radiation therapy must be carefully considered, and pregnant women usually require strict pregnancy screening due to the radiation risk to a developing fetus. Factors such as age and genetic predisposition will also impact on radiosensitivity therefore communication by healthcare professionals should be respectful of gender identity but should be clear the biological sex is important for treatment planning.

Type of ionising therapy	Penetration	Advantages
X-ray	Moderate to deep	Widely available, precise dosing
Gamma ray	Deep	High penetration
Ultraviolet	Very shallow	Ideal for surface treatment
Proton beam	Precise depth	Highly targeted, spares surrounding tissue
Radionuclide	Variable (depends on radioisotope used)	Can target specific tissues and organs
Brachytherapy	Localised	High dose to tumour, minimal impact on surrounding tissue

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3.1 Treatment with external source



Key points covered

- X-ray radiotherapy
- Gamma Knife radiosurgery
- Ultraviolet skin treatment
- Proton beam therapy
- Safety procedures

There are four external ways of using radiotherapy: X-rays, gamma rays, short-wave diathermy and proton beams.

X-ray radiotherapy

X-ray radiotherapy is a precise and effective type of cancer treatment that uses high-energy X-rays to kill cancer cells or slow their growth. X-rays are directed at the tumour. Modern radiotherapy techniques allow for precise targeting of the tumour, minimising damage to surrounding healthy cells.



Figure 3.1. Photograph of a patient receiving X-ray radiotherapy.

X-ray radiotherapy can be used in various stages of cancer in different ways:

- To completely eliminate the cancer.
- To increase the chances of a cure after surgery.
- To shrink a tumour before surgery.
- To relieve symptoms and improve quality of life when a cure is not possible.

While radiotherapy is generally a very effective treatment, it can cause side effects, such as:

- Fatigue
- Skin irritation
- Nausea
- Hair loss (in the treated area)

These side effects are usually temporary and can be managed with appropriate care.

X-ray radiotherapy is usually administered by a therapeutic radiographer. Other professionals may be involved with delivering the therapy are:

- Radiation oncologist: this is the doctor who prescribes the radiation dose, plans the treatment and monitors the patient throughout the therapy.
- Medical physicist: ensures the equipment is safe and accurate, performs the quality assurance of the treatment plans.
- Dosimetrist: works with the oncologist and the physicist to create the treatment plan and ensure the radiation is delivered accurately.

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Gamma Knife radiosurgery

Stereotactic Gamma Knife radiosurgery is a highly specialised form of radiation therapy that uses focused beams of gamma rays to treat tumours and other abnormalities. Unlike most X-ray radiotherapy, which delivers radiation in multiple sessions, gamma radiotherapy delivers a concentrated dose of radiation in a single treatment.

Gamma radiosurgery uses precise targeting. Gamma rays are focused on a specific area with extreme accuracy, minimising damage to surrounding healthy tissue.

Gamma rays have a higher energy region of the electromagnetic spectrum than X-rays.



Figure 3.2. Patient undergoing Gamma Knife radiosurgery.

Gamma radiosurgery is primarily used to treat tumours in the brain and spinal cord, but it can also be used for other parts of the body. It's often preferred for:

- Small tumours
- Tumours in difficult-to-reach locations
- Tumours that are inoperable or where surgery carries significant risks

✓ Advantages

- Targets the tumour with exceptional accuracy, sparing healthy tissue.
- No incisions are required, reducing the risk of infection and complications.
- Often completed in a single session.
- Patients typically experience minimal side effects and can resume normal activities quickly.

📋 Side effects

While gamma radiosurgery generally has fewer side effects than traditional surgery, patients may experience:

- Headaches
- Fatigue
- Swelling at the treatment site

These side effects are usually mild and temporary but because the full effect cannot be felt immediately, patients may experience side effects during this latency period, which varies depending on the condition treated.

Just like with X-rays, therapeutic radiographers operate the gamma therapy machine and radiation oncologists will prescribe and oversee the treatment.

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Ultraviolet skin treatment

Ultraviolet (UV) skin treatment, sometimes called phototherapy, makes use of long wavelength, high frequency, ultraviolet rays. While the lower frequency end of the UV spectrum, the long frequency part is ionising. UV therapy is normally administered by a dermatologist.

UV radiation affects the skin in several ways:

- Reduces inflammation so helps calm and soothe irritated skin.
- Slows skin cell growth so controls conditions such as psoriasis where skin cells grow too fast.
- Helps regulate the immune response involved in some skin conditions.

UV can be used to treat the following conditions:

- Psoriasis: a common skin condition causing red, scaly patches.
- Eczema: a skin condition characterised by itchy, dry and inflamed skin.
- Vitiligo: a skin condition that causes patches of skin to lose their colour.
- Mycosis fungoides: a type of lymphoma affecting the skin.
- Jaundice in newborns: can help break down bilirubin (made from old red blood cells).

However, the side effects from UV treatments are:

- Increased risk of skin cancer: long-term and excessive UV exposure can increase the risk of skin cancer.
- UV light can dry out the skin.
- Common side effects are usually mild and can include temporary burning or redness.
- Protective eyewear must be worn during treatment to prevent eye damage.

Your turn

Create a patient information sheet on UV skin treatment suitable for a patient with psoriasis.

Proton beam therapy

Proton beam therapy is a type of radiation therapy that uses high-energy protons, rather than X-rays or gamma rays, to treat cancer. It's a highly precise treatment that can target tumours with minimal damage to surrounding healthy tissue. Radiation oncologists (cancer specialists) usually administer proton beam therapy.

Protons are directed at the tumour where they release most of their energy, destroying cancer cells. Unlike X-rays or gamma rays, which release energy gradually as they pass through tissue, protons deliver a concentrated dose of radiation directly to the tumour and can be targeted very precisely.

Proton beam therapy is often used for:

- Tumours near sensitive areas: such as the brain, spinal cord, heart and lungs.
- Cancer in children: where preserving healthy tissue is crucial for long-term health.
- Recurrent tumours: where previous radiation treatments have damaged surrounding healthy tissue.



Figure 1.1
Orsay proton therapy

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Advantages of proton beam therapy include:

- High precision: targets the tumour with exceptional accuracy, minimising damage to surrounding healthy tissue
- Reduced side effects: lower risk of damage to nearby organs and tissues
- Effective for certain cancers: particularly beneficial for tumours located near vital organs.



While proton beam therapy generally has fewer side effects than traditional radiotherapy with X-rays or gamma rays, some patients may experience:

- Fatigue
- Irritation
- Hair loss (in the treated area)

These side effects are usually mild and temporary.

Further your knowledge

The UK government established a proton beam therapy service in 2009, with only two centres in the UK which offer the treatment. Prior to this, patients needing

Proton beam therapy is a specialised treatment that requires advanced technology and equipment. It's not always widely available compared to traditional radiotherapy.

Recall questions

1. Describe proton beam therapy in your own words.

Safety procedures

The principle of ALARA (as low as reasonably achievable) is followed in all aspects of proton beam therapy in order to protect patients and staff.

Patient safety	Staff safety
Precise treatment planning to avoid exposing healthy tissue to radiation, including a pregnancy check	Treatment rooms lined with lead to prevent radiation from escaping
Immobilisation devices to keep the patient in exactly the same position for each treatment session	Therapeutic radiographers wear dosimeters to monitor exposure over time
Lead blocks and collimators are sometimes used for shielding	Staff wear dosimeters to monitor exposure over time
Staff watch and talk to the patient during treatment to monitor well-being	Regular calibration of equipment to ensure delivery is accurate and consistent
In vivo dosimetry (real-time measurement of the radiation dose inside the patient)	Controlled area signage

Formative discussion questions:

Patient B has been diagnosed with a benign low-grade temporal lobe tumour. Why might proton beam therapy be suitable for this tumour?

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3.2 Treatment with internal source



Key points covered

- Internal radionuclide therapy
- Brachytherapy
- Safety procedures

The source of ionising radiation that is used to target a tumour can be external as well as internal. However, ionising sources can also be delivered inside the body. The choice between external and internal sources in radiotherapy depends on clinical and practical factors:

- Tumour location: some tumours may be better treated with internal source radiotherapy if they are close to the skin whereas deep-seated tumours require external source radiotherapy to reach the tissues without invasive procedures.
- Cancer type: tumours of the head, neck, brain and lung usually require external source radiotherapy due to the complex anatomy involved, whereas tumours of the thyroid are treated with internal source.
- Tumour size and spread: large, diffuse tumours require external source radiotherapy to cover a wider area. Small, localised tumours can be better treated with internal source radiotherapy to deliver a precise, high dose to a small area.
- Patient factors such as suitability for surgery, variability in suitability for implants, previous radiation exposure and general health.
- Equipment and expertise: some facilities may lack the capacity to deliver some types of internal source radiotherapy or proton therapy.

Internal radionuclide therapy

Internal radionuclide therapy is a type of cancer treatment that involves systemic administration of radioactive substances directly into the body. This targeted approach allows for a high dose of radiation to be delivered to cancer cells while minimising damage to healthy tissues. It's often referred to as **systemic radiotherapy**. It is normally prescribed by a radiation oncologist.

There are two primary methods of delivering radionuclides:

- Oral or intravenous administration:
 - Radioactive substances are given as a drink or an injection.
 - They travel through the bloodstream and accumulate in specific organs where the cancer is located.
 - Commonly used for treating thyroid cancer, certain bone cancers, and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma.
- Targeted therapy:
 - Radioactive substances are attached to molecules that bind to specific receptors on cancer cells.
 - This targeted delivery increases the concentration of radiation in cancer cells.
 - Used for treating specific types of cancer, such as prostate cancer and certain types of breast cancer.



Advantages of internal radionuclide therapy are:

- High precision: delivers radiation directly to cancer cells.
- Minimal damage to healthy tissues: reduces side effects compared to external beam radiotherapy.
- Effective for various cancer types: can be used for both localised and widespread disease.
- Potential for long-term control: can provide sustained cancer cell killing over time.

Internal radionuclide therapy is used to treat a range of cancers, including:

- Thyroid cancer
- Bone metastases
- Neuroendocrine tumours
- Prostate cancer
- Certain lymphomas

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Typically, internal radionuclide therapy is used to treat cancers that are localised and to implant the source. The treatment is also usually restricted to tumours that have sensitive to radiotherapy.



Side effects

Side effects vary depending on the type of radionuclide used and the specific treatment. They may include:

- Nausea
- Vomiting
- Fatigue
- Bone marrow suppression
- Mouth sores
- Skin reactions

Internal radionuclide therapy should not be used in pregnancy or if the patient has a severe bleeding disorder because this reduces the patient's ability to clear the radionuclide and could result in a high dose to the fetus or to the patient.

Brachytherapy

Brachytherapy involves placing a sealed radioactive source directly within or very close to the tumour. It is a form of internal radionuclide therapy which is an unsealed, systemically administered source and is physically confined. Radioactive seeds, wires or capsules are surgically implanted into the tumour. These sources emit radiation, destroying cancer cells. The duration of treatment depends on the type of cancer and the radioactive material used.

Low-dose rate (LDR)	Radioactive sources remain in place for several days, delivering a continuous low dose of radiation.
High-dose rate (HDR)	Radioactive sources are inserted for a short period, delivering a high dose of radiation.
Permanent implants	Radioactive seeds are permanently placed within the tumour, delivering a continuous dose of radiation.

Brachytherapy is effective in treating various cancers, including:

- Prostate, breast and cervical cancer because these cancers tend to be small, localised and accessible. The radiation sources are placed very close to the tumour, just a few millimetres from the cancerous tissues and less than 1 cm from healthy tissues.
- Head and neck cancers because the radiation 'exit dose' through healthy tissues is low, reducing the risk of long-term complications.
- Tumours where high dose radiation is needed for effective treatment like prostate cancer. Higher doses can be delivered to the tumour than could be achieved by external beam therapy, sparing the bladder and rectum.



Advantages of brachytherapy are:

- High precision: delivers radiation directly to the tumour.
- Minimal damage to healthy tissue: reduces side effects compared to external beam therapy.
- Effective for various cancer stages: can be used for early and advanced stages.
- Potential for long-term control: can provide sustained cancer cell killing.



Side effects vary depending on the treated area and the type of brachytherapy. Side effects include:

- Fatigue
- Skin irritation
- Bladder or bowel problems
- Nausea and vomiting
- Pain at the treatment site

Brachytherapy should not be used in pregnancy or if the patient has a severe bleeding disorder because of the increased risk of complications from the implantation surgery. It should also not be used if the tumour is too large or if the patient has a severe infection.

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Recall questions

1. Describe Brachytherapy in a way that would be suitable for a patient.
2. Why is Brachytherapy not suitable for deep tumours.

Safety procedures for treatment with internal source

People undergoing internal radionuclide therapy may need to take special precautions to limit radiation exposure because the radiation is inside the patient's body. This may involve:

- Limiting contact with others for a specific period: patients may be treated in isolation or limited or allowed for short durations only.
- Patient education: patients are informed of how long they are going to be radioactive and how to be around others, particularly close contact with those who are pregnant or breastfeeding.

Alongside this, the principle of ALARA will be used to protect staff administering treatment. This could include: minimising time spent near radioactive patients during treatment; using lead barriers where possible; wearing a personal dosimeter; and adhering to strict protocols for the storage and disposal of radioactive materials.

The cost and availability of treatment with internal radionuclides varies according to the provider. Brachytherapy involves fewer sessions and less equipment time than external beam therapy, however, the need for anaesthesia, surgery and hospital admission increases the cost. Often, these procedures are carried out in specialised cancer centres.

Formative discussion questions:

Patient B has been diagnosed with a benign, low-grade temporal lobe tumour.

Explain why treatment with brachytherapy is not suitable for this scenario. What treatment is preferable to brachytherapy for this tumour?

Note: If you have already covered proton beam therapy on page 33 you do not need to cover this question.

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Topic Area 4: Application of non-ionising therapy techniques

4.1 Lasers



Key points covered

- Properties of laser light
- Laser safety considerations



Properties of laser light

Laser light differs from light produced from a light bulb in three main ways:

- Laser light is all of the same wavelength, so appears as a single colour, which is called **monochromatic**.
- Laser light is directional, so it emerges as a narrow, parallel, **collimated** beam rather than spreading out in all directions.
- Laser light is **coherent**, which means that all the light waves in the beam are in unison with each other.

These properties make lasers useful in medicine because the light energy can be concentrated in one spot and allows for precise, minimally invasive procedures and treatments.

The wavelength of a laser determines its interaction with body tissues. Different wavelengths interact with different molecules, leading to differences in absorption, scattering and penetration.

- **Absorption:** different tissues and molecules absorb light at specific wavelengths. For example, water absorbs infrared light, while haemoglobin (red pigment in red blood cells) absorbs green light.
- **Scattering:** the way light interacts with tissue also depends on wavelength. Shorter wavelengths scatter more, while longer wavelengths penetrate deeper.
- **Penetration depth:** the depth to which a laser can penetrate tissue is influenced by wavelength. Shorter wavelengths are absorbed closer to the surface, while longer wavelengths can penetrate deeper.

For lasers to be used effectively and safely, clinicians need to understand how light interacts with tissue. Too little absorption by the tissues would result in no effect, while too much absorption could cause tissue damage. Choosing the right penetration is key when treating either superficial or deep tissues that require more penetrating lasers. Laser systems are designed to minimise side effects and remain tight and controlled.

Laser therapies

There are two primary categories of laser therapy:

1. **High-intensity laser therapy (HILT)** uses high-powered lasers that deliver a strong beam of light to the tissue, which can be used to cut, cauterise tissue (sealing to prevent bleeding), vaporise tissue, or heat the water in the cells to steam, causing the cells to break apart. It is used in surgery, removal of tumours, and treatment of skin conditions.
2. **Low-level laser therapy (LLLT)** or cold laser therapy employs low-power laser light to stimulate healing and reduce pain. It is often used for pain management, inflammation reduction.

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The specific mechanism of action of the laser on tissues depends on the type of laser application. However, some general principles include:

- Thermal effects: high-intensity lasers can produce heat, which can cut, vaporise or coagulate tissue.
- Photochemical effects: certain lasers can induce chemical changes in tissue, like photodynamic therapy.
- Biostimulation: low-level lasers stimulate cellular activity, promoting healing.

Common applications of laser therapy include:

Surgery:

- Cutting and cauterising tissue with precision
- Removing tumours and abnormal growths
- Performing delicate procedures such as eye surgery

Using laser therapy in surgery reduces the risk of infection and promotes faster healing. However, it is an expensive equipment with specialised training and there is a risk of tissue damage.

Dermatology:

- Removing hair, tattoos, and skin lesions
- Treating acne, wrinkles, and skin rejuvenation
- Managing psoriasis and vitiligo

Dermatological laser treatment targets skin layers precisely and promotes growth of new skin cells. There is, however, risk of hyperpigmentation and treatment costs.

Dentistry:

- Removing tooth decay, soft tissue, and gum disease
- Whitening teeth

Laser therapy in dentistry is often less painful than surgical options because it reduces bleeding and swelling. However, there can be limited access to these expensive tools.

Pain management:

- Relieving muscle and joint pain
- Accelerating wound healing
- Treating chronic pain conditions

Although effective at promoting healing and reducing inflammation, there is limited evidence for LLLT for pain management.

Orthopaedics:

- Treating sports injuries and arthritis
- Accelerating bone healing

Apply your knowledge

Create a patient history for one of the applications of lasers you have covered and explain why the treatment proposed would be suitable.

Laser therapy should not be used if cancer is suspected because lasers stimulate cell growth and could make tumours worse. It should also not be used if the patient has photosensitivity or is on photosensitising medication, because this could increase the risk of burns, rashes or adverse reactions. Additionally, laser therapy can cause damage to the retina and uncontrolled coagulation disorders.

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Lasers are versatile medical tools and are used generally for surgical cutting, vaporising, stimulating healing and remodelling. The table shows some examples of different medical applications.

laser type	wavelength / nm	application
argon	488, 514	Sealing leaky blood vessels in the eye and removing pigmented lesions
carbon dioxide	10 600	Cutting and cauterising soft tissue, e.g. wrinkles and acne scars) and mole removal
erbium-YAG	2940	Cavity preparation without drills, skin resurfacing (wrinkles) and removing pigmented lesions
neodymium:YAG	1064	Treatment of glaucoma, hair and tattoo removal, acne scarring, prostate tissue removal

The medical professional using the laser in a particular application will be a specialist. For example, laser eye surgery will be carried out by an ophthalmologist and removal of tooth decay by a dentist.

Safety considerations

Light from a laser is never ionising because the photon energies in the laser light are in the visible or near-infrared region of the electromagnetic spectrum that photon energy is proportional to frequency and inversely proportional to wavelength. Even the shortest wavelength laser produces photons with energies that are not enough to ionise atoms.

However, there are safety considerations that should be made with both high- and low-intensity laser therapy because potential risks include:

- Eye damage if proper protective measures are not taken with all laser use. Eye protection should be matched to wavelength.
- Skin burns or irritation. Even though LLLT doesn't generate heat, prolonged use on one spot can still cause irritation and mild burns.
- Infection (rare) resulting from skin burns.
- There are mandatory 'laser controlled area' rules, which include a warning light and interlocked doors.

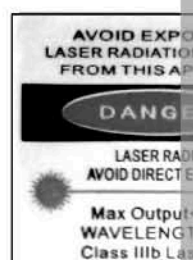


Figure 4.1. A typical ANSI laser warning label.

Plume evacuation refers to the process of removing surgical smoke or laser-generated aerosols (known as plume) from the room using specialised suction and filtration systems. This protects patients and staff and is removed using high-efficiency suction and activated carbon filters.

Overall, laser therapy is a highly precise, minimally invasive procedure that results in less pain and swelling. The disadvantages are, however, that the procedure is often expensive, has limited availability and is not suitable for all patients or may require multiple sessions.

Recall questions

1. Make a list of the advantages and disadvantages of laser therapy.

Formative assessment questions:

Patient Ben is diagnosed with a benign, low-grade temporal lobe tumour.

What are the advantages and disadvantages of using laser therapy to treat the tumour? Do you recommend it?

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4.2 Photodynamic therapy (PDT)



Key points covered

- Properties of laser light
- Safety considerations
- Laser therapies

Photodynamic therapy (PDT) is a relatively recent medical treatment developed using a photosensitising drug to destroy abnormal cells. It is frequently used to treat cancer and certain skin conditions and eye diseases.

Photodynamic therapy is managed by a multidisciplinary team with specific responsibilities for each purpose of the treatment.

- A dermatologist or specialist medical doctor will select the photosensitising agent and choose the light source and exposure time.
- A specialist nurse will prepare the patient and apply the photosensitising agent to ensure the patient is comfortable and safe throughout the light activation.
- An oncologist or a surgeon may insert fibre-optic probes into internal tumours.
- A medical physicist will ensure the correct light dose and maintain and calibrate the equipment to ensure the correct dosage.

The principle of PDT operation is:

1. A special drug, called a photosensitiser, is introduced into the body. This drug targets abnormal cells. These drugs are classed as **phototoxic** because they become toxic when exposed to light.
2. Light activation: a specific type of light (usually laser light) is directed at the target area.
3. Cell destruction: when the photosensitiser is exposed to light from the laser, it produces a **free radical**, called a radical that starts chemical reactions that produce compounds called **cytotoxic**, which means that they can kill the cells.

Uses of photodynamic therapy include:

- Cancer treatment: PDT is used for various types of cancer, including skin, lung, bladder and oesophageal cancer. Cancer cells often retain photosensitisers longer than normal cells, and light can be applied only to the tumour to reduce side effects.
- Skin conditions: it can target abnormal cells in actinic keratosis, a **precancerous** skin condition, and other types of abnormal skin growths. It can also help in the management of acne by killing bacteria and reducing oil gland activity.
- Eye diseases: PDT is used to treat age-related macular degeneration (AMD), a common cause of vision loss in older adults by closing off abnormal blood vessels in the retina without damaging surrounding retinal tissue.

Photodynamic therapy should not be used on patients who have photosensitivity as they may suffer severe reactions to light activation. Patients with severe liver and kidney disease should not be prescribed photodynamic therapy because these organs metabolise and clear the drug. Impaired function could result in toxicity. Additionally, immunosuppressed patients have a weakened immune response and so an increased risk of infection and should therefore avoid this therapy.

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**Advantages of photodynamic therapy**

- Minimally invasive: unlike surgery, PDT often requires only local anaesthesia.
- Precise: the light can be focused on the target area, minimising damage to surrounding tissues.
- Potential for long-term effects: in some cases, PDT can stimulate the immune system to destroy remaining cancer cells.

**Disadvantages of photodynamic therapy**

- PDT is only effective where light can reach. So deep or large tumours cannot be treated as light can't penetrate the tissues.
- Advanced cancers that have metastasised may also be hard to treat with PDT. As PDT requires the production of reactive species, solid tumours with a poor oxygen supply may not respond well to treatment.
- The timing of treatment can be more complex because the therapy requires the administration of a photosensitising agent, waiting for a specific time followed by light treatment.

Side effects of PDT in comparison to ionising therapies can include:

- Skin sensitivity to light lasting for several weeks after treatment which can cause discomfort (like bad sunburn) and eye discomfort in bright light
- Fatigue
- Nausea caused by the photosensitising drug
- Skin redness and tenderness or swelling in the treated area

Apply your knowledge

Create a risk assessment for the use of photodynamic therapy in the treatment of

4.3 Artificial cardiac devices**Key points covered**

- The structure and operation of the pacemaker
- The implantable cardioverter defibrillator (ICD)

In this section we will describe the structure and operation of artificial devices that can be implanted to treat various heart conditions – artificial cardiac devices.

The pacemaker

A pacemaker can be required when a person's heart beats too slowly (bradycardia), too fast (tachycardia) or can stop periodically causing the person to experience dizziness or loss of consciousness. These conditions can be diagnosed by an ECG, which we described earlier in this unit.

A pacemaker is a small, battery-powered medical device implanted in the chest to regulate the heart's rhythm. It consists of two main components:

1. **The pulse generator.** This is the main body of the pacemaker, 4–5 cm in width and 2–3 cm in height. It is sometimes be seen beneath the skin of someone who has one. It contains a small computer chip, and electronic circuitry. The computer chip controls the pacemaker's pacing rate, mode, and output.
2. **Leads.** These are thin, insulated wires that carry electrical impulses from the pulse generator to the heart. One end of the lead is attached to the pulse generator, and the other end has electrodes that make contact with the cardiac muscle. Most pacemakers have one or two leads, depending on the type of heart condition being treated.

Further you may find

In the study of various terms, you may find that many words are usually derived from Greek, so do not be surprised if you find many Greek words in English. The term 'cardiac' is derived from the Greek word *kardia*, meaning 'heart'. Other examples include 'cardiology' (the study of the heart) and 'cardiac arrest' (a sudden stop of the heart).

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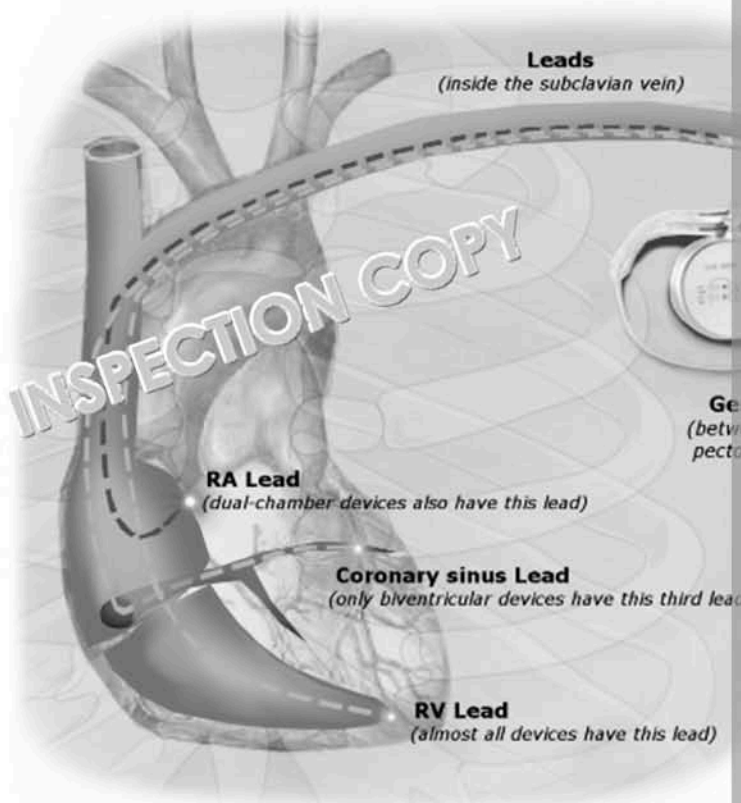


Figure 4.3. Illustration of implanted cardiac pacemaker showing locations of cardiac leads

Further your knowledge

There are different types of pacemakers. For example:

- Single-chamber pacemaker: This has one lead connected to either the right or left ventricle. It is used to treat heart rhythm problems.
- Dual-chamber pacemaker: With two leads, this type connects to both the right and left ventricles. It helps coordinate the pumping action of the heart more effectively.
- Biventricular pacemaker: This uses three leads, with two in the ventricles and one in the coronary sinus. It is specifically used for heart failure patients to synchronise the heart's contraction.

The pacemaker essentially takes over the role of the sino-atrial node (SAN), the first node in the heart's electrical system. A typical pulse amplitude is 2–5 V, although this varies by device. The pulse width is typically 0.4–1.0 milliseconds.

Modern pacemakers can sense the heart's activity, either from the atria or from the ventricles, and respond to correct any abnormal rhythm. Modern pacemakers use sensing and delivery of a pulse when needed, making pacing more efficient and responsive to the patient's natural heart rate. A demand mode continuously monitors the heart's electrical activity. If it detects a natural heart rate, no pulse will be delivered. In the demand mode the pacemaker only delivers a pulse if the heart rate is below its own within the set time.

Some more modern pacemakers have no leads and are much smaller so can be implanted directly into the heart muscle.

There are some circumstances when a pacemaker should not be used, e.g. if the patient has a mechanical tricuspid valve which could be damaged by placing a pacemaker lead. Some patients may also be hypersensitive to the components in a pacemaker such as titanium or cobalt. Pacemakers are also sensitive to electromagnetic interference. Most devices, including mobile phones, machines, and anti-theft gates, can generate interference that may interfere with the pacemaker, leading to inappropriate pacing inhibition, asynchronous pacing, or even device reversion to a backup mode.

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The implantable cardioverter defibrillator (ICD)

If someone has a history of sudden cardiac arrest, certain inherited heart conditions they may require an **implantable cardioverter defibrillator (ICD)** to be fitted.

The ICD is an implanted device that continually monitors the heart's activity and the cardiac muscle to correct potentially fatal changes in activity such as rapid or irregular heartbeats or stops altogether.

The electric shock delivered from the ICD can be painful to the person but is life-saving.

The structure of the ICD is similar to that of a pacemaker in that it has a body containing a pulse generator and two leads between the body and the heart. However, the body is much larger, often the size of a credit card and a smartphone. It needs to be larger to contain a component called a **capacitor** which stores charge from the battery.

A capacitor can be completely discharged much faster than a battery so can deliver a shock to the heart in a short time than the battery could.

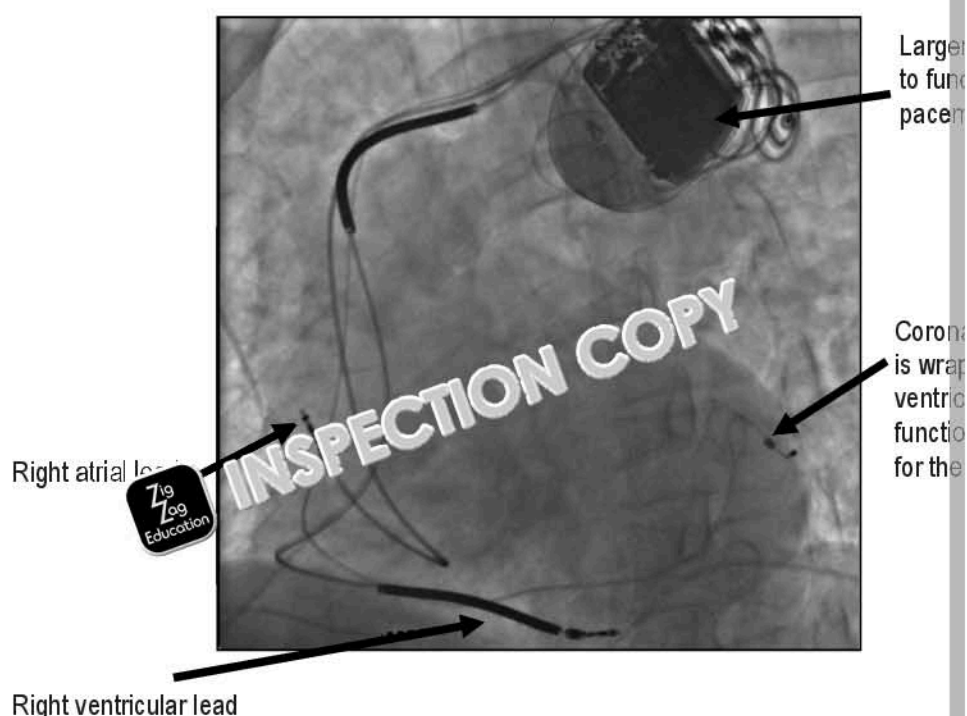


Figure 4.4. This image shows a combined ICD and pacemaker.

Both pacemakers and ICDs will be implanted under the supervision of a cardiologist.

Recall questions

1. What is a pacemaker?
2. How are pacemakers and ICDs different?
3. How do the clinical uses of artificial cardiac devices differ?
4. What conditions are pacemakers and ICDs used for?

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Advantages of artificial cardiac devices

- Implantation can improve quality of life by reducing breathlessness, and reduce the number of hospitalisations by managing chronic conditions
- Most devices are fine-tuned to be able to meet individual patient's needs so are suitable for long-term use (typically, pacemakers last 5–15 years)
- Proper heart rhythm control can prevent the risk of stroke from atrial fibrillation



Disadvantages of artificial cardiac devices

- Insertion of an artificial device requires surgery which carries risks such as infection
- Leads can break, dislodge or cause blood clots, and as with any mechanical devices need regular maintenance and regular follow-up.
- Implantation and surgery may be expensive and may not be accessible in all areas
- Sometimes ICDs can shock the heart unnecessarily, which can be painful
- Risk of an air leak, when air enters the pleural space during or after pacemaker insertion through accidental puncture of the lung.
- 'Twiddler's syndrome' happens when a patient consciously or unconsciously manipulates the pacemaker generator in its pocket, causing the leads to dislodge or fracture

It is important that patients with hearing or vision impairment have accessible instructions, for example instructions in braille or vibration alarms rather than sound in order to manage the device.

Apply your knowledge

Patients who have been diagnosed with abnormal cardiac rhythms such as bradycardia (too slow) or tachycardia (too fast) can be fitted with a pacemaker. Summarise the use of artificial cardiac devices in the treatment of abnormal cardiac rhythms.

4.4 Ultrasound therapies



Key points covered

- High-intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU)
- Low-intensity pulsed ultrasound (LIPUS)
- Shock wave lithotripsy (SWL)
- Ultrasound hyperthermia

Ultrasound, which we have previously described earlier in this unit and also in Unit 4.1, is a form of energy which uses high-frequency sound waves, beyond the range which humans can hear, to create heating effects in tissues. It is delivered using a handheld transducer.

In general, ultrasound therapy uses lower frequency and higher intensity than diagnostic ultrasound to create heating effects in tissues which stimulates blood flow, reduces pain, and promotes healing. It can also be used to destroy unwanted tissue.

Therapeutic ultrasound machines use larger, more specialised applicators than diagnostic ultrasound. They also involve cooling systems and robotic positioning systems for precision. While diagnostic ultrasound is used for minimal procedures, patients undergoing therapeutic ultrasound may require sedation.

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High-intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU)

High-intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU) is a non-invasive or minimally invasive medical treatment that uses focused ultrasound waves to treat various conditions. A typical operating frequency range of HIFU is 0.8–10 MHz. Unlike diagnostic ultrasound, which uses sound waves to create images, HIFU employs extremely high-intensity sound waves from the transducer to pass through skin, muscle and soft tissue to heat and destroy targeted tissue, e.g. a tumour.

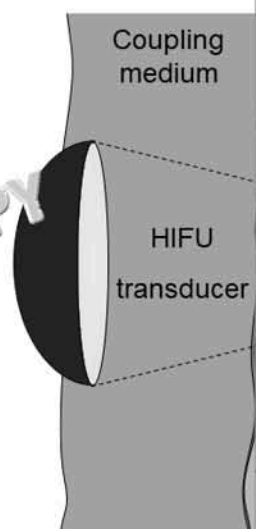


Figure 4.5. Diagram of HIFU treatment setup.

HIFU works in the following ways:

- **Focused energy:** high-intensity ultrasound waves are focused on a specific point within the body.
- **Heat generation:** the concentration of energy transfer to a small area creates heat at the focal point, causing tissue destruction.
- **Precision:** the treatment is highly precise, allowing for the destruction of targeted tissue while minimising damage to surrounding healthy tissue.

HIFU has a growing range of applications, including:

- **Cancer treatment:** it can be used to destroy tumours in various organs, such as the liver, prostate and kidney.
- **Uterine fibroids:** HIFU can reduce the size and symptoms of uterine fibroids and the muscle tissue of the wall of the uterus.
- **Skin tightening:** HIFU is used in cosmetic procedures to improve skin tone and texture.
- **Other applications:** research is ongoing to explore HIFU for treating other conditions such as Parkinson's disease, and essential tremor.



Its advantages are due to the fact that HIFU is:

- **Non-invasive or minimally invasive:** often requires no incisions or hospitalisation.
- **Precise:** targets specific tissue with minimal damage to surrounding areas.
- **Short recovery time:** patients typically recover quickly compared to traditional surgery.



The disadvantage of HIFU is, however, that it is limited to specific locations and is only suitable for well-defined, localised tumours, e.g. prostate cancer, and is not suited to diffuse or embedded tumours. It also cannot be used near bones, bowel or lung due to the risk of damage and risk to nearby structures.

Side effects of HIFU can vary depending on the treated area and individual patient. Common side effects include pain, swelling and bruising.

Benefits	Risks
Non-invasive, no incisions or stitches, and therefore minimal risk of infection	May not fully destroy larger tumours
With precise targeting, surrounding tissue is spared	It requires precise imaging, and breath-holding can reduce accuracy
Minimal recovery time and usually an outpatient procedure	May be unintended heat damage to surrounding tissue
Safe for high-risk patients	Post-treatment symptoms can include urinary or bowel issues (when treating prostate)

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Low-intensity pulsed ultrasound (LIPUS)

Low-intensity pulsed ultrasound (LIPUS) is a type of ultrasound therapy that uses waves to stimulate tissue repair and regeneration, typically in the range of ~ 1.5 MHz. Unlike high-intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU), which targets specific tissue for destruction, LIPUS is used to reduce inflammation.

LIPUS works by delivering low-energy sound waves to the affected area. These sound waves create vibrations within the tissue, which can stimulate cellular activity and promote healing. The exact mechanisms of how LIPUS works are still being researched, but it is currently thought to:

- Increase blood flow to the area
- Stimulate cell growth and division
- Reduce inflammation

LIPUS is primarily used to treat bone and soft tissue injuries.

Some common applications include:

- Fracture healing: accelerates bone healing, especially in cases of fractures that are slow to heal.
- Osteoporosis (brittle bone disease): may help increase bone density.
- Tendinitis (swelling in tendons) and other soft tissue injuries: can reduce inflammation and promote tissue repair.



The advantages of LIPUS include:

- Non-invasive and painless treatment
- Can be used in conjunction with other therapies
- Relatively low cost compared to some other treatment options

Further research is needed to confirm the benefits of LIPUS for fracture healing.



Currently, the limitations of LIPUS are:

- The exact mechanisms of action are not fully understood.
- Effectiveness can vary depending on the condition and individual patient.
- Not universally recommended for all bone and soft tissue injuries.

Benefits	Limitations
Non-invasive and therefore limited risk of infection	Limited effectiveness unless used consistently over weeks/months
Short treatment time, typically 20 minutes per treatment	Evidence is inconsistent, not always showing significant improvement
Suitable for high-risk patients, people who cannot undergo surgery	Not recommended for use on pregnant women or for patients who are pregnant

Recall questions

1. What is the difference between HIFU and LIPUS?
2. Give one example of a patient who would be suitable for treating with LIPUS.

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Shock wave lithotripsy (SWL)

Shock wave lithotripsy (SWL) is a non-invasive procedure used to treat people who have kidney stones.

It involves breaking down stones into tiny pieces using high-energy ultrasound shock waves. The fragments can then pass out of the body in the urine painlessly.

SWL works by:

- Targeting the stone: using ultrasound, the medical staff precisely locate the kidney stone.
- Delivering shock waves: high-energy shock waves are generated and directed at the stone.
- Breaking the stone: the shock waves create vibrations that break the stone into smaller pieces.

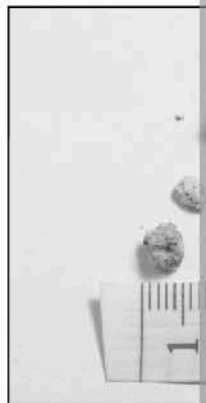


Figure 4.6



The advantages of SWL are:

- Non-invasive: no surgical incisions are required.
- Less painful than other stone removal methods.
- Shorter recovery time compared to surgery.



The main limitation of SWL is that it may not be suitable for all kidney stone composition of the stone will determine the best treatment option.

Potential side effects of SWL include:

- Pain in the back or side
- Blood in the urine
- Infection
- Kidney injury (rare)

Ultrasound hyperthermia

Ultrasound hyperthermia is a therapeutic technique that uses ultrasound energy to heat specific tissue within the body. Ultrasound hyperthermia typically heats tissue to 42°C. This controlled heating process can be employed to treat various medical conditions.

It works using ultrasound energy. High-frequency sound waves are directed at the tissue. The ultrasound energy is transferred to thermal energy within the tissue, raising its temperature. This temperature increase can have therapeutic effects, such as:

- Directly killing cancer cells
- Enhancing the effectiveness of other cancer treatments such as chemotherapy
- Stimulating the immune system to target the cancer

Applications of ultrasound hyperthermia include:

- Cancer treatment: often used in combination with other therapies to improve outcomes.
- Pain management: can reduce inflammation and pain in certain conditions.
- Wound healing: may accelerate tissue repair and regeneration.



The advantages of ultrasound hyperthermia are:

- Non-invasive or minimally invasive
- Targeted heating of the affected area
- Can be used in combination with other treatments
- Potential to improve treatment outcomes

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- ⊗ There are, however, disadvantages to the treatment: it can be difficult to target bone or fat is in the way, because ultrasound energy loses intensity in deep tissue. Precise temperature control and imaging guidance to prevent overheating are required.

There are limitations to the use of ultrasound hyperthermia, in particular:

- It requires specialised equipment and expertise, and therefore isn't always available.
- There is variable clinical evidence, and some studies lack strong evidence.
- It is not suitable for all patients or conditions. There is a risk of overheating of implants, and it may interfere with artificial cardiac devices. It is also contraindicated in patients with certain respiratory conditions, because the heat stress could cause them to breathe in more oxygen, and if gas-filled implants are overlying the target.

The management and delivery of therapeutic ultrasound treatments depend on the condition being treated, and the healthcare setting.

- LIPUS is commonly delivered by physiotherapists who may be working in rehabilitation or orthopaedic settings.
- Radiation oncologists will oversee HIFU and ultrasound hyperthermia when used for cancer treatment.
- Medical physicists will be involved with the planning, calibration and safety of the treatment. The energy levels and tissue targeting are accurate and safe.

Formative discussion questions:

Patient B has been diagnosed with a benign, low-grade temporal lobe tumour. External beam radiotherapy is a promising approach for the treatment of brain tumours.

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Topic Area 5: Planning for diagnosis and therapy

5.1 Diagnosis plan

!	Key points covered
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Producing a diagnosis planInforming patient and carers to patients	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Risk assessmentEmotional, social and mental

A diagnosis plan outlines the steps necessary to determine the cause of a patient's **symptoms** or condition. It is a systematic and logical approach that involves:

- Collecting patient history: gathering information about the patient's symptoms, medical history, family history and lifestyle.
- Assessing the results of an initial physical examination into the patient's overall health and identifying any physical **signs** or symptoms.
- Ordering diagnostic tests: conducting tests to gather more information about the patient's condition.

There are three key components of a diagnosis plan.

- Patient information:
 - Demographics – age, sex, ethnicity, etc.
 - Presenting complaints – the main reason the patient has presented to the GP
 - Medical history – previous illnesses, surgeries, current medications
 - Family history – relevant or related genetic conditions
 - Social history – lifestyle, occupation, diet, level of exercise etc.
- Potential diagnosis:
 - The GP may make a suggestion of a possible diagnosis based on the patient's symptoms and the rationale behind the diagnostic tests selected.
- Diagnostic tests and procedures:
 - Specific tests to rule in or out potential diagnoses, e.g. imaging studies or electrocardiogram. The plan must name the practitioner who will justify the test.
 - Reason for selecting each test.
 - Summarise why the test was chosen and briefly explain how it is carried out.
 - Complete additional resource to justify your choice of test.
 - Explain why other tests are not suitable.
 - Write down the advantages and disadvantages of the test you have chosen.
 - Expected outcomes of the tests.

When assessing the quality of a diagnosis plan, these factors need to be considered:

- Patient-centredness: Involve the patient in the decision-making process, including obtaining written consent for invasive tests.
- Evidence-based: Is the plan supported by current medical knowledge and guidelines?
- Timeliness: Does the plan outline a reasonable time frame for diagnostic tests?
- Efficiency: Does the plan avoid unnecessary tests or procedures? Is it cost-effective?
- Risk assessment: Does the plan identify potential risks and complications?
- Communication: Use clear and understandable terms and bear in mind who the plan is for. For example, avoid scientific and medical specialist terms if it is to be presented to a patient.
- Cultural competence: Does the plan consider the patient's cultural background?
- Ethical considerations: Does the plan respect patient autonomy and confidentiality?

These factors can be assessed in advance both by the person writing the plan and in retrospect it can be assessed through patient satisfaction surveys.

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Creating a risk assessment for the diagnosis plan

Risk assessment is a critical component of a well-structured diagnosis plan. It involves identifying potential harms or adverse events associated with the diagnostic process and implementing strategies to mitigate these risks (make them less severe).

The types of risks in diagnosis include:

- Diagnostic errors: incorrect diagnosis leading to inappropriate treatment.
- Test-related risks: complications from invasive procedures or exposure to radiation.
- Delayed diagnosis: prolonged suffering and worsening of the patient's condition.
- Over-diagnosis: unnecessary tests or procedures leading to increased costs and potential harm.
- Patient anxiety: stress and worry caused by the diagnostic process.

The risk assessment process is carried out in this order:

1. Identify potential risks: consider the patient's medical history, age, comorbidities, and the tests being considered.
2. Evaluate the likelihood and severity of risks: determine the probability of each risk occurring and its potential impact on the patient.
3. Implement risk mitigation strategies: develop plans to reduce the likelihood or severity of risks.
4. Communicate risks to the patient: explain potential risks and benefits of diagnosis in understandable terms.
5. Obtain informed consent: ensure the patient understands the risks and benefits before proceeding with diagnostic tests.

Some examples of risk mitigation strategies include:

- Choosing the least invasive test: opting for non-invasive imaging studies over surgery when possible.
- Providing patient education: explaining the purpose and potential side effects of tests.
- Monitoring for complications: closely observing patients after invasive procedures for adverse events.
- Timely follow-up: scheduling follow-up appointments to monitor test results and patient recovery.

Emotional and mental health impact on the patient

The process of developing and communicating a diagnosis plan can have significant emotional and mental health impacts on both the patient and the healthcare provider.

Uncertainty: the unknown nature of the illness can lead to anxiety and fear.

- Fear of the unknown: uncertainty about the diagnostic process and potential outcomes can be overwhelming.
- Anger and frustration: patients may feel angry or frustrated with their symptoms and the diagnostic process.
- Hope and optimism: conversely, the possibility of finding answers can create hope and optimism.
- Relief: once a diagnosis is made, there can be a sense of relief, even if the diagnosis is not what was hoped for.
- Social aspects: a patient may be concerned about how their family, friends, and community will react to the diagnosis.

Any or all of these issues can give rise to questions from the patient. Healthcare professionals should be prepared to answer them honestly and with empathy and clarity. It is better to use simple medical terminology that the patient may not fully understand as this could make them feel confused or overwhelmed. Answers should be clear and easy to understand, and key messages should be repeated to help the patient remember everything. It is often helpful if they have a friend or relative to accompany them or take notes too. If the patient asks a question that you cannot answer be honest and offer to look it up. Overall, the patient should be reassured that they are not alone and that the healthcare team is committed to their care.

Healthcare professionals should take into account any additional needs the patient may have. This could include language adjustments they need to make to the way in which they communicate with the patient. A barrier a translator may be required or if the patient has cognitive impairment it may be necessary to have a relative accompany them to assist the patient in making decisions.

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The emotional impact of delivering a diagnosis plan on the healthcare provider can be:

- Empathy and compassion: understanding the patient's emotional state is crucial.
- Frustration: complex cases or diagnostic challenges can lead to frustration.
- Burnout: dealing with patients under stress can contribute to burnout.
- Satisfaction: successfully guiding a patient through the diagnostic process and seeing them improve can be rewarding.

Strategies for managing emotional impact are:

- Open communication: encourage open and honest communication between the patient and healthcare provider.
- Empathy and support: provide emotional support and understanding to the patient.
- Involving the patient: involve the patient in the decision-making process to ensure they understand the situation.
- Managing expectations: clearly communicate the diagnostic process and potential outcomes.
- Self-care: healthcare providers should prioritise self-care to prevent burnout.

By recognising and addressing the emotional aspects of the diagnosis plan, healthcare providers can improve patient experience and enhance the overall quality of care.

5.2 Therapy plan



Key points covered

- Producing a therapy plan
- Information and advice to patients
- Risk assessment
- Emotional, social and psychological aspects

A therapy plan is a roadmap for treatment, outlining specific goals, interventions, and a timeline. It is a collaborative document created with the patient, ensuring their needs and preferences are met, and addressing the medical needs of their condition.

The essential components to be included in a therapy plan are as follows.

1. Patient information:

- Demographics – age, sex, ethnicity, etc.
- Presenting problems – main reason for presenting
- History – medical, psychiatric, social
- Diagnosis – if this has been carried out
- Treatment history – previous therapies, previous surgeries, current medical conditions

2. Assessment and diagnosis:

- Summarise the findings of the diagnostic tests and assessments that have been carried out.
- Specify the details of the diagnosis or differential diagnosis if it is unclear.

3. Goals:

- Goals should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound (SMART).
- Set short-term and long-term goals for the treatment.
- All goals to be patient-centred goals. This means they reflect the patient's desired outcomes and focus on improving quality of life from the patient's perspective, rather than what the doctor thinks is medically important. Patient capacity and consent should be obtained before any intervention is booked.

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4. Interventions:

- The specific therapeutic techniques or methods to be used including and clearly evaluated advantages and disadvantages of each technique and known contraindications. Where ionising radiation is involved the professional exposure (for example, the consultant clinical oncologist) should be included.
- Frequency and duration of sessions, balancing the medical need of the patient with the requirements and preferences of the patient who needs to be able to attend.
- Self-care regimen – regular tasks and lifestyle changes that the patient will undertake in conjunction with the treatment received in hospital.

5. Termination and follow-up:

- Criteria for ending therapy
- Plans for follow-up care or support

Other factors that need to be considered in the therapy plan are the cost and availability of treatment. Some therapies are widely available, but some more specialised treatments are available at a limited number of sites, and this could limit the options open to the patient if they live at long distances for frequent treatment.

Creating a risk assessment for the therapy plan

A risk assessment is a fundamental component of effective therapy planning. It involves identifying risks to the client, the therapist, and others, and developing strategies to mitigate those risks. The aim is for ensuring the safety and well-being of all parties involved.

The key components of a risk assessment are:

- Patient history: previous treatments or therapies, other medical conditions and allergies.
- Treatment specific risks: risks from the therapy carried out, potential side effects (if ionising radiation is used) and drug interactions.
- Patient specific factors such as age and frailty, for example.
- Psychological factors such as emotional readiness for treatment, especially if the treatment has side effects or could be difficult for the patient to tolerate.

Once the risks have been identified, ways to mitigate them should be incorporated into the plan where possible. This might involve:

- Using the principle of ALARA if ionising radiation is used, to protect patients and staff.
- Sedating the patient during therapy if appropriate.
- Clear communication within the treatment team and with the patient.

It is crucial to consider ethical implications when conducting risk assessments and developing the therapy plan.

- Confidentiality: protecting client information while balancing the need to share information with other parties. All personal data in the plan is stored on NHS approved encrypted drive.
- Duty to warn: determining when there is a duty to warn potential victims of harm.
- Informed consent: obtaining client consent for treatment, including risk assessment.

Risk assessment and therapy planning are ongoing processes that require flexibility and communication. Considering potential risks and developing appropriate interventions, therapists can ensure the best therapeutic outcome for their patients.

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Emotional, social and mental health impact

A therapy plan, while a detailed and patient-centred document, can have a profound impact on patients. It's more than just a roadmap to recovery; to the patient and their family, it represents hope, progress and potential.

Positive emotional impacts include:

- **Hope and motivation:** a well-crafted plan can instill hope, providing a sense of direction and purpose that motivate clients to actively participate in their therapy.
- **Empowerment:** being involved in creating the plan can foster a sense of control. Clients may feel more invested in the process.
- **Clarity and focus:** a clear plan can reduce feelings of overwhelm and confusion, helping clients stay focused on their healing journey.
- **Validation:** the therapist's commitment to creating a personalised plan can validate the client's struggles.

Potential negative emotional impacts

- **Overwhelm:** if the plan is too complex or detailed, it might induce feelings of being overwhelmed.
- **Disappointment:** if progress isn't as rapid as expected, clients might experience disappointment.
- **Fear of failure:** some clients may fear not being able to meet the goals outlined in the plan.
- **Resistance:** if the client feels pressured or coerced into the plan, they might develop resistance.

To maximise the positive impacts and minimise the negative ones, therapists can:

- **Involve the client:** collaborative plan creation can increase buy-in and reduce resistance.
- **Set realistic goals:** ensure goals are achievable and measurable to prevent disappointment.
- **Flexibility:** emphasise that the plan is a living document, subject to change as needed.
- **Open communication:** encourage clients to express their feelings about the plan.
- **Celebrate small wins:** acknowledging progress, no matter how small, can boost morale.

A therapy plan presentation should be tailored differently for patients and healthcare professionals. Needs, knowledge levels, and communication styles are very different. For the patient, the language should be simple and avoid complex medical terminology and the tone should be reassuring. The focus should be on what the treatment means for them in terms of the impact on their daily life. It should be a personal presentation with patient-centred goals at its heart and focus on their individual journey.

A presentation directed to a team of healthcare professionals requires a different approach. They need different information. For clarity, healthcare professionals would expect clinical details. They need to be told the details of the treatment plan such as dosages, treatment times, etc. The information included should be evidence-based, which may mean that charts and graphs should be included. The focus should be the rationale for the treatment, and the expected outcomes (e.g. tumour regression) rather than personal. The presenter should be prepared to discuss the plan based on clinical protocol and medical facts rather than offering reassurance and emotional support.

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Creating and delivering a presentation



Key points covered

- Communicating a plan
- Information and advice given to patients
- Healthcare professionals
- Healthcare professionals

A good presentation slide is clear, focused and visually engaging. It supports the message to convey and doesn't overwhelm the audience.

Slides should be kept simple with one main idea per slide

Stick to one or two text fonts, use bold text to highlight key words where necessary

Organise logically: introduction – main points – conclusion

Ionising Techniques

Diagnosis: Lymphoma in the neck. Confirmed by X-ray with contrast medium

External Beam Radiotherapy with a gamma source

- Preferable for small tumours
- Can accurately target the tumour, sparing surrounding tissues
- No surgery required, minimal infection risk

It is a good idea to create a checklist to help you think about both the presentation and the content. This will help you to consider the reasons for the design and content of your presentation and ensure it is tailored to your presentation and target audience.

Preparing Questions

The most important preparation for answering questions on a presentation to either patients or healthcare professionals is to know the plan inside out so that you have all the information you need to give an answer. The type of questions and how they should be answered will be different for patients or healthcare professionals delivered to patients or to healthcare professionals.

Patients	Healthcare professionals
Be clear on the personal impact of the diagnosis or therapy. 'What will it mean for me?'	Be ready to explain the clinical decisions
Be ready to break down complex terms into understandable information	Anticipate technical questions and <i>contraindications for the treatment</i>
Practise calm, supportive answers to emotional responses	Anticipate alternative options and explain why you discount them
Rehearse answers to common questions such as 'Can I work during treatment?'	If appropriate, have research ready to include in an answer

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Obtaining feedback on the presentation

The feedback on the plan can be provided by fellow students and/or your teacher. You need to be able to summarise the key points and use them as the basis for the plan and presentation. It is helpful to use a structured feedback sheet with comments down into clear sections and to ensure that you get information about the plan and the presentation:

1. Clarity of information included – was the diagnosis and therapy clearly explained?
2. Use of visual aids – if diagrams or images were included, were they helpful?
3. Suitability for the target audience – was the information tailored for the people you were presenting to? Was the presenter's empathy and tone appropriate for the audience?
4. Engagement – did the presentation keep the audience's attention?
5. Questions – were the questions answered completely and correctly?

The audience could give a score out of 5 (a Likert scale) along with comments for each criterion. The presenter should encourage both positive and constructive points and could ask questions such as 'Was anything unclear?' or 'Is there anything I could explain better?'.

Summarising the feedback

Once collected, summarise the feedback into a table or a short paragraph. This could be done by calculating the average score for each of the criteria you have summarised the average score given by the audience. The comments on the performance, both positive and constructive. This summary, if it appears more than once in the feedback you have collected, can then be used to address the weaknesses of the plan and form the basis of any improvements that you think you need to make. You should also consider whether there is any additional information that you need to collect in order to be able to make the improvements you think are necessary.

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Glossary

absorption	– light taken in by another material
amplification	– increasing the height or strength of a wave resulting in a more powerful signal
anode	– the positive terminal in an electric circuit
antiparticle	– counterpart to a particle with the same mass but opposite charge
attenuation	– reduction in the intensity of radiation
calcification	– when bone tissue or other material in the body becomes hard because of the deposition of calcium salts
cardiac cycle	– one complete heartbeat
cardiac muscle	– the type of muscle in the heart
cathode	– the negative terminal in an electric circuit
coherent	– rays of light in the same phase
collimated	– the rays of light are parallel to each other producing a narrow, focused beam
collimator	– a device which controls the size and shape of an X-ray beam
ECG gating	– with the patient's heart rhythm – synchronising the CT scan
filter	– material which removes low-energy X-rays
frequency	– the number of waves passing any point per second
gain	– in the context of wave signals this means amplification, or increasing the amplitude
monochromatic	– having only one wavelength
myogenic	– the signals to make the heart muscle contract originate in the muscle itself. The heart initiates its own depolarisation.
non-coherent	– the orientation of each fibre can be different at one end to the other
penetration	– how deeply light passes through a material before being absorbed
penetration	– how far into body tissue can be imaged
phototoxic	– becomes toxic when exposed to light
positron	– identical mass to an electron but with a positive charge
precancerous	– precancerous cells are cells that have grown abnormally but are not yet cancerous
radionuclide	– unstable atom that emits radiation as it decays
radiopaque medium	– accumulates in tissues, improving contrast
resolution	– the ability to see objects that are close together as separate objects. Higher resolution, the more detailed the image
resonance	– an object vibrating at maximum energy because the external force is at the same frequency
scattering	– a random change in the direction of a particle due to its interaction with another particle
scattering	– happens to particles in a medium and being redirected in other directions
sign	– something about the patient that is noticeable to someone else, e.g. a limp
sonographer	– healthcare professional specialising in ultrasound imaging
symptom	– something that the patient themselves perceives that another person might not, e.g. headache or stomach pain

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