Published in final edited form as:

IEEE Trans Biomed Eng. 2010 March ; 57(3): 746–753. doi:10.1109/TBME.2009.2033385.

Sequential Activation of Ground Pads Reduces Skin Heating During Radiofrequency Tumor Ablation: In Vivo Porcine Results

David J. Schutt, MS, M. Michael Swindle, DVM, Kristi L. Helke, DVM, PhD, Gorka A. Bastarrika, MD, Florian Schwarz, and Dieter Haemmerich, PhD

Abstract

Skin burns below ground pads during monopolar radiofrequency (RF) ablation are increasingly prevalent, hindering the development of higher-power RF generators capable of creating larger tumor ablation zones in combination with multiple or new applicators. Our goal was to evaluate reduction in skin temperatures via additional ground pads in an in vivo porcine model. Three ground pads placed on the animal's abdomen were activated either simultaneously, or sequentially where activation timing was adjusted to equilibrate skin temperature below each pad. 13 RF ablations (n=4 simultaneous at 300W, n=5 sequential at 300W, n=4 sequential at 375W) were performed for 12 min via two internally cooled cluster electrodes placed in the gluteus maximus of domestic swine. Temperature rise at each pad and burn degree as determined via histology were compared. Ablation zone size was determined via T2-weighted MRI. Maximum temperature rise was significantly higher with simultaneous activation than with either sequential activation group (21.4 vs. 8.1 or 9.6 °C, $p < 0.01$). Ablation zone diameters during simultaneous (300 W) and sequential activation (300W and 375W) were and 6.9 ± 0.3 , 5.6 ± 0.3 , and 7.5 ± 0.6 cm, respectively. Sequential activation of multiple ground pads resulted in significantly lower skin temperatures and less severe burns as measured by histological examination.

Keywords

Cancer; dispersive electrodes; finite-element method (FEM); grounding pads; radiofrequency ablation; RFA; RF ablation; skin heating; tumor ablation

I. INTRODUCTION

Radiofrequency (RF) ablation has been successfully utilized as a minimally invasive treatment for primary and metastatic liver tumors, as well as tumors in kidney, lung, bone, and adrenal gland tissue [1–6]. Since the introduction of RF ablation for tumor treatment, the inability to create large ablation zone volumes without multiple power applications has been a major limitation. While current commercial systems have allowed the creation of larger coagulation zones (4–6 cm) than initial systems (~1.5 cm) due in part to an increase in maximum generator power (250W vs. 50W), recent studies have shown the possibility of obtaining even larger coagulation zones by using higher power levels (up to 1000W) [7, 8]. However, it should be noted that not all applicators currently in clinical use will benefit from

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D. Haemmerich is with the Division of Pediatric Cardiology, Medical University of South Carolina, MSC 915, 165 Ashley Ave., Rm 601, Charleston, SC, USA. D. Haemmerich is also with the Department of Bioengineering, Clemson University, Clemson, SC, USA (haemmer@musc.edu)

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higher power, and new applicators may be required to take advantage of higher power levels.

During RF ablation, dispersive electrodes (or “ground pads”) serve as the return path for applied RF current. Current clinical systems typically employ two or four ground pads placed on both thighs connected in parallel to the RF generator. An important consequence of the use of increased power during RF ablations is the corresponding increase in current density (and thus heating) at the leading edge of ground pads, since current preferentially flows to the nearest edge of the most proximal pad(s) (the “leading edge effect”) [9–11]. The incidence of skin burns in recent studies ranges from 0.1 to 3.2 % for severe skin burns (2nd or 3rd degree) and from 5 to 33 % for 1st degree burns [12–18]. However, two recent studies argue that the incidence of skin burns after RF ablation may be under-reported [18, 19]. In addition to mono-polar RF devices (i.e. ones with a single electrode requiring ground pads as described above) there are also multi-polar RF devices clinically available where RF current is passed between multiple applicators or electrodes without the need for ground pads [20]. These devices have the advantage that they do not require ground pads, though they are not available in all markets (e.g. not in the United States) and the majority of devices in clinical use do employ ground pads.

To date, efforts to reduce ground pad burns have primarily focused on increasing total ground pad area by adding additional pads. However, further improvement to clinical grounding systems in this fashion is impractical because there is no available skin surface to place more than two ground pads per thigh (a pad covers ~half the thigh circumference) equidistant from the active electrode (a requirement due to the leading edge effect). Two RF ablation manufacturers (Angiodynamics, Boston Scientific) have recently incorporated temperature or current monitoring features into their commercial ground pads where RF power is discontinued if temperature or current exceed a threshold. While these features are helpful in reducing the incidence of skin burns, they do not address the fundamental roadblock to higher power RF ablation systems, which is the uneven distribution of heating under ground pads due to the leading edge effect. Without modification to existing clinical grounding strategies, the incidence of skin burns during RF ablation procedures will likely increase as RF generator power continues to increase.

Two recent studies [21, 22] demonstrated in computer simulations and ex vivo gel phantom studies that in the case of three ground pads at different distances from the active electrode, sequential activation of collinear ground pad subsets leads to lower maximum temperatures at the ground pads than if all pads are connected simultaneously. The purpose of this in vivo porcine study is to evaluate the performance of a similar sequential activation algorithm in comparison to the grounding method in which all pads are activated simultaneously in an in vivo porcine model.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Animals, Anesthesia, and Procedures

Preapproval for all animal experiments was obtained from the Institutional Animal Care and Use committee. A total of 13 domestic swine (mean weight approximately 47 kg) were used in this study. Swine were preanesthetized with a combination injection of ketamine (Ketaset, Ft. Dodge Pharmaceuticals, Overland Park, KS) 22 mg/kg, acepromazine (Acepromazine, Boehringer Ingelheim, Ingelheim, Germany) 1.1 mg/kg and atropine (Atropine, Abraxis Pharmaceutical Products, Los Angeles, CA) 0.04 mg/kg SC in the neck. Animals were transported to the operating suite and induced and maintained under general anesthesia with isoflurane (Forane, Baxter Healthcare Corporation Deerfield, IL 60015) 1.5 MAC delivered in 100% oxygen using a gas anesthesia machine. Homeostasis was maintained with IV

Lactated Ringers solution 5–10 ml/kg/hr and monitored with continuous recordings of rectal temperature, pulse oximetry, and ECG [23].

Two internally cooled cluster electrodes (Valleylab ACTC 1525, Boulder, CO) with an exposed length of 2.5 cm were placed in the animal's gluteus maximus (one cluster electrode on each side) approximately equidistant from the leading edge of the proximal ground pad (Fig. 1). This placement provided similar distance between proximal ground pad and electrode as in patients. We used two simultaneously activated cluster electrodes because we found in preliminary experiments that one cluster electrode led to rapid impedance rises at the higher power levels (compared to current devices) used in this study, thereby limiting power levels. The cooling water circulated through the cluster electrodes was kept at $\sim 0^{\circ}\text{C}$ during all procedures using an ice water bath.

Three ground pads with integral temperature sensors (Thermopads, Angiodynamics, Queensbury, NY) were placed collinearly on each animal's shaved abdomen such that the adhesive region of each pad abutted the adhesive region of the adjacent pad (Fig. 1), and such that each pad's built-in temperature sensor was located proximal to the cluster electrodes. A diagram of the rationale behind the ground pad arrangement used in this study is shown in Figure 2. For the purpose of our study, the proximal pad represented the two or four pads that are currently placed equidistant from the active electrode in clinical RF ablation procedures (Fig. 2A). The middle and distal pads represented the addition of ground pad area further from the cluster electrodes (since clinically there is no skin area available for additional equidistant ground pads) to accommodate higher power application (Fig. 2C); this would be analogous clinically to 6 or 12 total ground pads (3 pads on one or both sides of each thigh, Fig. 2B).

One RF ablation was performed per animal using one of the ground pad activation algorithms described in the Experimental Groups section. After each ablation was completed, the ground pads were removed and pictures were taken of any skin burns. Euthanasia was performed while the animals were still under general anesthesia with a euthanasia solution composed of sodium pentobarbital (Sleepaway, Ft. Dodge Pharmaceuticals, Overland Park, KS) 10 ml IV and KCl (Potassium chloride, Hospira, Lake Forest, IL) 10 ml IV. When the ECG indicated death, samples of any discolored or burned skin tissue were excised and placed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for fixation for at least 48 hours. The thigh muscle tissues containing the ablation zones were also excised and placed in formalin for at least 4 weeks to ensure complete fixation of the large samples.

B. Experimental Groups and Ground Pad Control System

A total of 13 ablations (one per animal) were performed in this study. In group 1 (control), four ablations were performed in which all three ground pads were activated simultaneously for the duration of the procedure. In group 2, five ablations were performed with sequential activation of subsets of the ground pads with the same applied power (300W) as in group 1 [21]. Since we found in preliminary ablations that sequential activation created smaller ablation zones for a given power level than simultaneous activation (due to lower average current in the former), we also performed four ablations (group 3) with sequential activation and higher power levels (average $\sim 375\text{ W}$) in order to create similar ablation zone size as group 1. A diagram showing the activation cycle for the sequential algorithm used in groups 2 and 3 is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 4 shows a block diagram of the ground pad activation control system used in this study. A high-power RF generator (500W, PDX-500, AEI, Fort Collins, CO) supplied RF power at a frequency of 325 kHz (note that this frequency is somewhat lower than the range of 450 – 500 kHz used in clinical devices; however, this should not affect results

significantly). A custom program (Labview, National Instruments, Austin, TX) running on a laptop PC was used to ramp up the applied RF power from 50W initially to the set power over a period of 30 s, after which constant set power was applied for the remainder of each 12 min ablation. During power application, a data acquisition device (DAQ; 34970A, Agilent, Santa Clara, CA) continuously measured the applied RF voltage. The control program used this measured voltage and the applied power to calculate impedance and to implement an impedance control algorithm; if the calculated impedance exceeded 150% of the initially measured impedance at any point, the program turned off power application for 10 s, and reapplied power at 80% of the previous magnitude. In all groups, the temperature signals from the temperature sensors at the leading edge of each ground pad were filtered for noise removal and recorded at a sampling rate of 100 Hz using a second DAQ (DAQCard-6036E, National Instruments, Austin, TX). The magnitude of the applied RF current was calculated by dividing applied power and voltage.

In the group 2 and 3 ablations, the control program continuously updated the activation time periods for each ground pad subset (t1, t2 and t3, see Fig. 3) based on the temperatures recorded by the leading edge temperature sensors, with the goal of equilibrating temperatures at each pad. The switching between pad subsets was performed by a custom relay circuit, which interfaced with the control program via digital signals from the Agilent DAQ.

C. Temperature rise analysis

The recorded temperature data from each procedure were analyzed to determine the temperature rise at each ground pad. The differences in average temperature rise were compared amongst the three pads using one-way ANOVA within each group, and the differences in average temperature rise for each pad between groups 1 and 2 and between groups 1 and 3 were compared using the Mann-Whitney test. Statistical significance was designated as $p < 0.05$ in this, and any other statistical analyses described below.

D. Histological analysis of skin burns

Histology has long been considered the gold standard for determining burn depth [24]. It has been shown that burn severity progresses with time (up to 48 hrs) in deep dermal burns, while superficial burns remain stable [25]. However, all animals were sampled at the same interval post procedure, which eliminated this variable. After fixation, samples were trimmed, paraffin embedded, sectioned at $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). The resulting slides were then examined in a blinded fashion by a veterinary pathologist, i.e. slides were numbered sequentially starting at the initial experiment, but no information on group or pad location was provided. The sections were graded on a scale modified from the Suzuki scale [26, 27], in which a score between 0 and 5 was assigned to each section. A summary of the scoring methodology is shown in Table 1.

A score of 1 corresponds to the clinical assessment of a first degree burn, scores 2–4 correspond to varying levels of a second degree burn, and score 5 is consistent with a third degree burn. Several sections of each sampled area were examined, with the most severe or highest score assigned considered the score for the entire sample. Collagen fibers lose linearity and appear as dense clumps, which is distinct for thermal injury [28]. It is the depth of loss of collagen detail that was used to determine depth of injury.

We performed the Mann-Whitney test between groups 1 and 2 and between groups 1 and 3 at each pad location (proximal, middle, and distal) to determine whether there was a difference in burn score between algorithms. We performed ANOVA within each group to determine whether there was a difference in burn score between different pad locations.

E. Ablation zone and RF current measurement

Ablation zone dimensions were determined via MR imaging of the fixed muscle samples orthogonal to the RF electrode. Imaging was performed using a 1.5 Tesla MR system (45 mT/m amplitude, 200 T/m/s slew rate) (Magnetom Avanto, Siemens Medical Solutions, Erlangen, Germany). A plastic container including the fixed muscle samples was placed in a 4-element head matrix coil. Initial 3D gradient echo localizers were used to locate samples. Subsequently high-resolution T2-weighted fast spin-echo imaging was performed with the following parameters: echo train length of 14, repetition time (TR): 4000 ms, echo time (TE): 86 ms; 2 signal averages, field of view (FOV) 100 mm×100 mm, matrix 256×256, slice- thickness 2 mm, no interslice gap. The obtained in-plane resolution was 390 μm ×390 μm . The scans were then manually analyzed to determine the ablation zone maximum transverse diameter and axial diameter by one person in blinded fashion. The ablation zone appears as a hypointense (i.e. dark) region surrounded by a hyperintense (i.e. bright) rim in the MR images (Figure 5). A previous study comparing the extents of this region in MR images to histological results demonstrated that the outer boundary of this rim corresponds to the border of necrosis after RF ablation [29]. Axial and maximum transverse ablation zone diameters for groups 1 and 2 and groups 1 and 3 were compared using the Mann-Whitney test. We also reported the measured current during each trial, as well as the impedance values measured 15 s after initial power application.

III. RESULTS

A. Temperature Rise Analysis

In group 1, the temperature rise at the leading edge of the proximal ground pad was significantly higher ($p<0.001$) than the other two pads after 12 minutes (Table 2). A graph of the temperatures at the leading edge of each pad for representative ablations in each group is shown in Figure 6.

In groups 2 and 3, the temperature rise was not significantly different between the three pads ($p=0.5, 0.6$). The temperature rise at the proximal pad was significantly higher in group 1 than in group 2 or 3, while the temperature rise at the middle and distal pads was significantly higher in groups 2 and 3 than in group 1. The maximum temperature rise after 12 minutes was significantly higher in group 1 than in group 2 or 3 (21.4 vs 8.1 or 9.6 $^{\circ}\text{C}$).

B. Histological analysis of skin burns

Figure 8 summarizes the measured skin burn scores. All animals in group 1 had severe burns; 3rd degree (Fig 7B) burns (score of 5) in 3 cases and a deep dermal 2nd degree burn (score of 4) in 1 case. Animals in group 2 had varied burn severities (ranging from 1–4) (Fig. 7A). Individuals in group 3 had more severe burns than those in group 2 (one had severe 3rd degree with score of 5, and rest had 2nd degree burns with scores of 2 to 3), although overall they were less severe than those in group 1. While there was no significant difference in burn score at the middle pad, the distal pad burns were significantly more severe in group 3 than in both groups 1 and 2, and the proximal pad in group 1 had a significantly higher score than the proximal pad in group 2 (Fig. 8). The simultaneous grounding method (group 1) produced severe full thickness burns extending throughout the dermis into the hypodermis with consistent loss of epidermal layers (Fig. 9A). In contrast, the sequentially switched algorithm (groups 2 and 3) typically produced only superficial burns with collagen denaturation extending into the superficial dermis (Fig. 9B). The epidermis was consistently affected in groups 2 and 3, with nuclear shrinkage and condensation, but not to the degree observed in group 1, which exhibited complete loss of cellular detail and separation of the epidermis from the dermis.

C. Electrical Parameters and Ablation Zone Dimensions

Resection of each ablation zone in its entirety was difficult due to the large size of the zones and the heterogeneity of muscle tissue. Therefore, we only included the measurements of 15 ablation zones ($n = 4, 4, \text{ and } 7$ for Groups 1, 2, and 3 respectively) in our statistical analysis of their dimensions.

The average applied power was significantly higher in group 3 than in group 1 ($p < 0.05$), but not different between groups 1 and 2 ($p = 0.99$). The RMS current applied in group 2 was significantly lower than in group 1, and higher in group 3 than groups 1 and 2. Correspondingly, the maximum transverse diameter of the group 2 ablation zones was also significantly lower than group 1 (Table 4). The higher root mean square current applied in the group 3 ablations resulted in larger maximum transverse diameters than group 1 (Table 4) with the difference approaching statistical significance ($p = 0.05$). There was no significant difference in the axial diameters of the ablation zones between the three groups. There was also no significant difference in initial impedance (with all 3 pads activated) between the three groups ($p = 0.07$) (Table 3). An impedance rise was observed during power application in one case in groups 1 and 2 and in two cases in group 3.

IV. DISCUSSION

Higher RF generator power will likely be required in future monopolar RF tumor ablation systems to create larger ablation zones that fully treat large tumors. Two recent studies showed that even with some current commercial RF electrodes, larger ablation zones could be created if higher RF power was used [7, 8]. However, existing ground pad technology is currently a limiting factor for further increase in RF generator power for clinical tumor ablation devices. It should be noted that there are also multipolar RF devices available where multiple electrodes (on a single, or on multiple applicators) are inserted into the tumor, where RF current is passed between these multiple electrodes. Since these devices do not require ground pads, skin burns are not a concern. There are clinical multipolar RF devices available in some markets, though the majority of procedures are performed with monopolar devices that do require ground pads.

One potential way to reduce skin heating compared to current clinically used ground pad methodology (Fig 2A) is increasing the ground pad area, or - as employed in the current study - increasing the number of ground pads (Fig 2B). We compared two methodologies of activating these additional pads: (1) simultaneous activation where all pads are active, and (2) sequential activation via algorithm shown in Figure 3. Note that while in the animal study only 3 pads were applied (equivalent to the arrangement on one thigh, Fig. 2C), the results can be extended to multiple thighs as clinically used; i.e. three pads would be placed on each thigh (Fig. 2B) and activated according to the algorithm described above.

In this study, we performed ablations with up to 375 W for 12 min, which is considerably higher power than currently used clinically (200–250W). Three ground pads with integrated temperature sensors were placed in a collinear arrangement approximately 30 cm from the active electrodes (Figs. 1 and 2C). As may be expected, the simultaneous activation of three collinear ground pads (ie at varied distances from the active electrode) resulted in heating of primarily the proximal pad (Fig. 5) where the majority of applied current is dispersed with likely little benefit of the two additional pads. Therefore the arrangement in Fig. 2B does not provide significant benefit over the currently clinically used arrangement in Fig. 2A. The goal of this study was to investigate whether the use of a sequential activation algorithm with this ground pad configuration could reduce skin heating during ablation in comparison to the simultaneous activation of all pads. The sequential activation algorithm resulted in considerably lower maximum skin temperature at the leading edge of the pads at both power

levels (Table 2), and significantly reduced the incidence and severity of skin burns (Figure 8-10). Simultaneous activation consistently resulted in severe, full-thickness skin burns at the proximal pad due to the leading edge effect (i.e. most electrical current and resulting heating is produced at the ground pad edge closest to the RF electrode), while sequential activation typically only resulted in superficial burns.

Leading edge temperatures at all three pads were successfully equilibrated in the group 2 and 3 ablations (Table 2, Figures 6 and 7), whereas in the group 1 ablations only the proximal pad experienced significant heating (Table 2, Figure 5) as expected. However, burn score was not equivalent between each pad within groups 2 and 3. This may be due to variance in the temperature profile along the leading edge of each pad based on the distance from the active electrode; additional temperature sensors near the pad corners where the most severe burns occurred (see Figure 8a) may allow for better control during sequential activation.

During the time periods when only one or two pads were activated with the sequential algorithm (activation times t_2 and t_3 in Figure 3), the impedance increased (Table 3). This increase occurred because the distance between the cluster electrodes and the closest activated ground pad increased, and because the overall activated ground pad area was reduced (Table 3). This is also the reason why typically the switching period lengths were ranked such that $t_1 > t_2 > t_3$ (see for further details)

During ablation, the total available RF power produces intended tissue heating around the RF electrode as well as unintended skin heating below the pads. With reduced ground pad area in group 2 compared to group 1, more power was deposited below the pads and less power deposited around the RF electrode. This resulted in smaller ablation zone diameters in group 2 versus group 1 (5.6 vs. 6.9 cm) (Table 4). To account for the effect of increased impedance during sequential activation on ablation zone size, we applied higher power (~ 375 W avg., Table 3) using the sequential activation algorithm in group 3. The higher applied power used in group 3 led to larger ablation zone diameters than group 1 (7.3 vs. 6.9 cm, $p=0.05$) (Table 4), while still significantly lowering maximum ground pad temperature and reducing burn severity, although this difference did not reach significance ($p = 0.12$, Figure 9). Likely, skin temperatures in group 3 were close to the threshold required for 3rd degree burns (burn score 5); therefore, even though temperatures were considerably higher in group 1, the difference in burn score was smaller than the temperature differences would suggest since once the burn score has reached maximum value, further increases in temperature do not increase burn score.

Additional optimization of the size of multiple pads and their distance from the RF electrode may provide further reduction in skin heating during application of the sequential algorithm [22]. Note, that instead of multiple pads a single pad with multiple isolated pad areas would achieve the same affect while likely being more practicable.

We had investigated the potential benefit of sequential activation of multiple ground pads in two recent studies, where we employed computational heat-transfer modeling to determine tissue temperatures [21, 22]. While absolute temperature values in the computer simulations are not directly comparable to the current study due to differences in applied RF energy and pad size, qualitatively the in-vivo results presented here are in agreement with the computational modeling studies with considerably smaller tissue temperatures with sequential activation. In computer simulations temperature increase was reduced by $\sim$ two times [22], which is in the same range that was observed here (see Table 2). I.e. in this case computational models allowed testing of our hypothesis and thereby reduced the need for animal studies.

The limitations of this study include the reduced number of measurements obtained due to difficulties in excising the ablation zones, which may affect the accuracy of our comparisons. Additionally, as noted previously, the highest temperatures at each pad during the ablations may not have occurred at the location of the temperature sensor. Finally, it is important to note that the results presented in this study could vary during clinical application due to differences in skin and fat layer thickness, perfusion, and other parameters.

V. CONCLUSION

The benefit of using multiple ground pads on each thigh during monopolar RF ablation was investigated via two different activation algorithms. While simultaneous activation provides little benefit, sequential activation takes advantage of the additional pad area and considerably reduces skin heating. In addition, the sequential activation algorithm would eliminate the need to place all ground pads equidistant from the active RF electrode, since pad activation times are adjusted to keep all pads at the same temperature. This method would therefore allow the placement of ground pads on currently unused areas of the patient's skin (e.g. back, or additional pads on thighs corresponding to the arrangement in the current study), thereby reducing maximum skin temperatures and skin burn incidence and/or allowing the use of higher RF generator power.

Acknowledgments

This work was conducted in a facility constructed with support from the National Institutes of Health, Grant Number C06 RR018823 from the Extramural Research Facilities Program of the National Center for Research Resources. In addition this project was supported by NIH Grant Number R01 CA118990.

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Figure 1.

Typical electrode and ground pad placement. The internally cooled cluster electrodes (black arrows) were placed percutaneously in the center of the left and right gluteal muscles. The ground pads (white arrows) were placed collinearly ~25–30 cm from the cluster electrodes. Temperatures were measured at the center of the leading edge of each ground pad (black diamonds).

Figure 2.

Diagram of pad placement arrangement. (A) Standard clinical placement with 2 equidistant pads. (B) Two additional pads are added on each thigh further from the electrode than the original pads (shown in A). (C) Pad placement used in this study, which would correspond to (B) in a clinical setting (i.e. can be translated into humans by using this arrangement on both thighs).

Figure 3.

Timing diagram for sequential activation algorithm of ground pads; pads are labeled proximal, middle and distal according to location relative to RF electrode. Pads active during each time period t_1 , t_2 and t_3 are shaded. During power application, skin heating occurs primarily at the leading edge of the activated ground pad that is nearest to the active RF electrode (ie, the proximal pad during t_1 , the middle pad during t_2 , and the distal pad during t_3). Ratios between t_1 , t_2 and t_3 were adjusted and total period ($t_1+t_2+t_3$) was fixed at 2s. Typically, $t_1 > t_2 > t_3$ as indicated on the time axis, since active total pad area is largest during t_1 and smallest during t_3 (see also [22]).

Figure 4.

Diagram of ground pad activation control system. A control algorithm on the PC regulated the generator output power P . A digital multimeter/data acquisition device (DAQ) measured the applied voltage V and relayed it to the control algorithm, which then calculated the current and impedance. A second DAQ recorded the temperatures (T_1 , T_2 , T_3) at the leading edge of each ground pad. During the group 1 procedures, all 3 ground pads were activated for the entire ablation. During the groups 2 and 3 ablations, the control algorithm adjusted the switching periods (t_1 , t_2 , and t_3) via the digital multimeter/DAQ to keep leading edge temperature equal between pads in a way such that total period ($t_1+t_2+t_3$) was kept constant at 2s.

Figure 5. MR image of ablation zone orthogonal to electrode axis. Location of three-electrode array insertion is visible at the center as three white dots. Dotted arrow represents maximum transverse ablation zone diameter (8.2 cm in this case), and is measured at the boundary of the hyperintense (i.e. bright) rim.

Figure 6. Temperature profiles for representative experiments in groups 1, 2 and 3. Temperature profiles for proximal, middle and distal pads are labeled separately for group 1, but not for groups 2 and 3 due to the small difference between pad temperatures.

Figure 7. Gross pathology of skin burns. (A) Animal from group 2: skin shows light reddening (black arrows). This lesion correlated to a score 1, or 1st degree burn. (B) Animal from group 1: blistering and charring of skin (black arrows) below proximal pad. This lesion correlated to a score 5, or 3rd degree burn.

Figure 8.

Graph illustrates mean burn score at each pad for group 1 (simultaneous 300W), group 2 (sequential 300W), and group 3 (sequential 375W). There was a significant difference in the severity of the burn between groups 1 and 2 ($p = 0.04$) but not between groups 1 and 3 ($p = 0.12$). There was no significant difference in burn severity between the groups at the middle pad, but significantly more severe burns at the distal pad in group 3 than group 1 ($p = 0.04$). Comparing the burn scores at pad locations within each respective group, there are significant differences within groups 1 and 3 ($p < 0.0001$ and 0.04), and difference was approaching significance within group 2 ($p = 0.06$).

Figure 9.

H&E stained skin samples from region under the ground pad edge. (A, left) Skin from animal in group 2. The epidermis is intact with mild perivascular cellular infiltrate within the upper dermis (white arrowhead). This lesion correlates to a score of 1, or 1st degree burn. (B, right) Skin below proximal pad from animal in group 1. The epidermis is necrotic and has separated from the dermis (star). Collagen is disrupted and denatured with a hyaline appearance (arrow). This lesion correlates to a score of 5, or 3rd degree burn. 20X magnification.

Table 1

Summary of histological scoring system used to grade skin burns.

Score	Histological features	Clinical burn degree
0	No gross abnormalities	None
1	Vasodilation with sparse perivascular infiltration	1 st
2	Features of 1 plus epidermal necrosis and dense perivascular infiltration	2 nd
3	Features of 2 plus collagen degeneration limited to the upper dermis	2 nd
4	Features of 3 with collagen degeneration in both the upper and mid dermis	2 nd
5	All of the above plus collagen degeneration extending into the hypodermis	3 rd

Table 2

Measured initial and final (after 12 min RF ablation) temperatures at each ground pad in groups 1–3.

Group	Proximal pad temperatures, °C		
	Initial	Final	Rise (ΔT)
1	32.2 ± 0.6	$53.6 \pm 4.2^{\dagger}$	$21.4 \pm 3.6^{\dagger}$
2	32.9 ± 0.5	$41.0 \pm 1.0^*$	$8.1 \pm 1.1^*$
3	32.2 ± 0.3	$41.8 \pm 0.9^*$	$9.6 \pm 1.2^*$
Middle pad temperatures, °C			
	Initial	Final	Rise (ΔT)
1	33.7 ± 0.4	$35.3 \pm 0.6^{\dagger}$	$1.6 \pm 0.6^{\dagger}$
2	34.0 ± 0.7	$41.7 \pm 1.1^*$	$7.7 \pm 1.0^*$
3	33.5 ± 0.3	$42.4 \pm 0.8^*$	$8.8 \pm 1.1^*$
Distal pad temperatures, °C			
	Initial	Final	Rise (ΔT)
1	33.7 ± 0.1	$34.7 \pm 0.5^{\dagger}$	$1.0 \pm 0.3^{\dagger}$
2	34.0 ± 0.6	$41.2 \pm 1.0^*$	$7.2 \pm 0.9^*$
3	33.4 ± 0.3	$42.3 \pm 0.8^*$	$8.9 \pm 1.0^*$

Note: Values are means $\pm$ standard deviations

* $p < 0.05$ (vs. Group 1)

† $p < 0.001$ (Group 1 ANOVA)

Table 3

Measured electrical parameters during 12 minute RF ablations

Group	RMS current (A)	Average power (W)	Impedance, all pads (Ω)	Impedance, 2 pads (Ω)	Impedance, 1 pad (Ω)
1	3.4 ± 0.1	292 ± 3	31.7 ± 1.7	NA	NA
2	$3.0 \pm 0.1^*$	292 ± 7	30.4 ± 2.0	36.8 ± 2.6	44.6 ± 2.2
3	$3.7 \pm 0.1^*$	$376 \pm 8^*$	25.8 ± 0.8	31.0 ± 0.7	39.5 ± 0.5

Table 4

Measured ablation zone dimensions from 12 minute RF ablations

Group	n	Maximum transverse diameter (cm)	Axial diameter (cm)
1	4	6.9 ± 0.3	5.6 ± 0.8
2	4	$5.6 \pm 0.3^*$	5.6 ± 0.5
3	7	$7.5 \pm 0.6^+$	6.5 ± 0.8

Note: Values are means $\pm$ standard deviations.*
p < 0.05 (vs. Group 1)+
p = 0.12 (vs. Group 1)