BIOPHYSICAL EFFECTS OF ULTRASOUND

Floyd Dunn

University of Illinois

Urbana, Illinois, 61801

Dr. Dunn is Professor of BioPhysics and Electrical Engineering at the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign. He is presently engaged in research into the interaction of ultrasound with biological media. He has published many papers and is on the editorial board of several journals dealing with ultrasound. He has recently co-edited a book entitled, "Ultrasound Biophysics". His past experience includes a year as Visiting Professor in the Department of Microbiology at University College, Cardiff, Wales, under a National Institute of Health Special Research Fellowship, 1968-69. More recently he was awarded the American Cancer Fellowship and subsequently spent a year as Visiting Senior Scientist at the Institute of Cancer Research in Surrey, England, 1975-76.
I. INTRODUCTION

That ultrasound could produce effects in biological systems became apparent at its inception near the end of World War I when techniques for locating submarines were being developed. Among such pursuits were those of P. Langevin, who was investigating an acoustic method in which a piezoelectric transducer, in a circuit containing appropriate capacitors and inductors, was excited by a Poulsen arc converter to vibrate at the resonant frequency of the structure and emit ultrasound into the bay at Toulon. As the electric potentials applied to the quartz plate at times were as high as 40,000 V, the amplitude of the acoustic wave was appreciable and small fish and other marine animals were found dead in the vicinity of this radiation. Because of its inherent instability, the Poulsen arc was unsuitable for detailed investigation of these phenomena, and serious study awaited the development of the vacuum-tube oscillator for use as the piezoelectric transducer driver.

The first extensive investigation of the phenomena observed by Langevin was conducted by Wood and Loomis (1927). They described the destruction of Spirogyra and the killing of small fish and frogs exposed to 300 kHz ultrasound for several minutes at an intensity believed to be in the neighborhood of 10 W/cm². Subsequently, events were viewed with a light microscope and, at 406 kHz, streaming within cells and cellular destruction were observed, with an attending increase in temperature (Harvey and Loomis, 1928).
Following the introduction of the piezoelectric element into acoustics and the subsequent rapid developments in electronics during the next three decades, it became feasible to construct instruments for precise measurement of the velocity of propagation and the absorption coefficient of ultrasonic waves in liquids and liquid-like media. An additional advance occurred after 1945 when the adaptation of radar techniques yielded pulsed ultrasonic instrumentation operating in the multimegahertz range. Numerous techniques have been developed since that permit utilization of ultrasound in the frequency range from about $2 \times 10^4$ Hz (the arbitrary boundary with the "sonic" range) to $10^9$ Hz; extension to beyond $10^{11}$ Hz is emerging with the continued development of Brillouin scattering techniques. Simultaneous development of piezoelectric materials, lens-focusing systems, and field-measuring schemes have allowed high-intensity ultrasonics to be employed for the precision production of reversible and irreversible effects in biological media.

As a result, two distinct modes of operation have emerged, viz., passive uses, in which the acoustic field does not alter significantly structure and/or function of the interrogated systems, and active uses, in which reversible or irreversible alteration of the system is the objective. For the latter, an initial motivation for serious study was the early observation that ultrasound provided an opportunity for true deep heating in tissues and not simply the superficial heating that attended irradiation with infrared and the like (Dunn and O'Brien, 1976). In attempts to understand details of the mechanisms of the interaction of ultrasound with biological
materials, experimental studies have been conducted at various levels of biological complexity. Some attention has been devoted to interaction studies in solutions of macromolecules and suspensions of microorganisms and cells, with the hope that these would provide simpler models. Herein, a principal question deals with the necessity for the presence of cavitation to affect the biological end-point. By experimental design, thermal mechanisms are generally minimized in these systems. Cavitation is the general term used to describe the growth and subsequent behavior of cavities in an acoustically perturbed medium. It is useful to think in terms of two types of cavitation. The violent type, called transient or collapse cavitation, produces intense hydrodynamic forces within the vicinity of the collapsing bubble, which are capable of severely disrupting biological structures. Highly reactive free radicals can also be by-products of transient cavitation. For the less violent type, called stable cavitation, the bubble (or cavity) does not collapse but rather grows to a resonant size and oscillates or pulsates under the influence of the ultrasonic field. The hydrodynamic forces in the vicinity of the oscillating bubble are considered responsible for affecting biological materials (Flynn, 1964; Nyborg, 1965). Interest in the interaction of ultrasound with biological tissues, organs, and whole animals has been dominated by investigations of the role of thermal events in the production of irreversible structural changes and by determinations of levels of threshold for such effects. The motivation for these pursuits has, of course, been the probable application to medical problems,
and the choice of central nervous tissue as an often-employed tissue specimen has also been promoted by its relatively static acoustic and biological properties.

The purpose of this paper is to identify findings that have emerged from these kinds of studies, with progression extending, for convenience, from whole organism studies, through tissues and organs, to the cellular and molecular levels. No attempt has been made to be exhaustive, rather to illustrate the nature of the studies undertaken and the character of the results obtained at the low megahertz frequencies. Thus, two otherwise important topics are omitted completely, viz., studies dealing with the interaction of ultrasound and plant systems and kilohertz ultrasound investigations. The latter omission includes effects associated with airborne sound and ultrasound. As sufficient detail cannot be included for all readers, important literature references are provided. Studies were carried out for a variety of purposes, satisfying specialized interests in specific topics, and leading to a very scattered litterature. Thus, crucial questions directed toward a specified purpose may not be answerable simply because the pertinent experiments and measurements have not been carried out.
II. WHOLE BODY RADIATION

Noting that in the low megahertz frequency range the wavelength of sound in soft tissues is of the order of a millimeter and that the half-power beam width of transducers designed for clinical purposes rarely extends beyond about a centimeter, it is apparent that whole body exposure of animals to ultrasound will be limited to a few cases. Foremost among these is the mammalian fetus, though model studies have included insects and microorganisms.

A number of studies have been conducted following the report of Shoji et al. (1972) that pregnant mice irradiated on the ninth day of gestation, and sacrificed on day 18, for 5 hrs at 40 mW/cm² with 2.25 MHz ultrasound exhibited a significant increase in fetal mortality. They also observed some increase in fetal abnormalities, but no significant alteration in fetal weight. Lele (1975) suggested that the unusual irradiation conditions could result in a uterine temperature increase sufficient to produce the observed abnormalities. Mannor et al. (1972) were unable to detect differences in abnormality rates in fetuses, between days 8 and 20 of gestation, as well as in subsequent brother-sister cross-matings, of mice irradiated for as much as 60 min per day for as much as five days for up to 1 W/cm² with 2.25 MHz ultrasound. Taylor and Dyson (1974) found early chick embryos (corresponding to approximately three weeks human development) to be affected by 5 min. exposure to pulsed 1 MHz ultrasound of 2.5 W/cm² average intensity, but not to 1 W/cm² average intensity. More advanced embryos (corresponding to approximately six weeks human development) were unaffected at 10 W/cm² average intensity. They further found no
effects upon developing embryos exposed to 24 hrs to irradiation from a 2.25 MHz Doppler diagnostic instrument having an electrical input power of 100 mW/cm². Others have reported finding no effects upon mice (Kirsten et al., 1963; Smyth, 1966; Warwick et al., 1970), nor upon rats (McClain et al., 1972; Takeucha et al., 1970; Woodward et al., 1970), nor upon rabbits (Holmes et al., 1962).

More recently O'Brien (1976) has shown that the mean weight per fetus is reduced significantly when pregnant mice are exposed to 1 MHz ultrasound for 5 min at an average intensity as low as 1 W/cm². Further, while Curto (1976) found irradiation of pregnant mice with 1 MHz, 0.35 W/cm² averaged intensity for 3 min to result in a significant increase in mortality in litters observed on the 21 days post partum, Edmonds et al. (1979) find no such increase. This discrepancy may be put to the day of gestation on which exposure to the ultrasound was perpetrated and other differences in specimen preparation and procedure.

An early study with insects involved exposure of Drosophila eggs to 1 MHz, 0.5 W/cm² ultrasound with demonstration of a variety of developmental abnormalities appearing (Selman and Counce, 1953), most likely associated with undetected cavitation. A more recent study involving large scale breeding experiments with Drosophila surviving the irradiation procedure exhibited no significant increase in the frequency of recessive lethal mutations and chromosomal non-disjunction, even under exposure conditions sufficient to kill a substantial portion of the flies (Thacker and Baker, 1976).
III. TISSUES AND ORGANS

Much activity has occurred in the area (1) of identification of specific effects to selected tissues and organs irradiated by particular ultrasonic exposure regimes and (2) of quantitative determination of threshold levels at which unique events manifest themselves. The following discussion illustrates the very appreciable range of interests exhibited by investigators and the breadth of their findings.

The mammalian central nervous system provides an acoustically static organ for study, in that the ultrasonic propagation properties remain largely unchanged in response to physiological and behavioral stimuli. Thus three laboratories have exhibited remarkable agreement in the determination of the relationship between the acoustic intensity in the tissue and the single-pulse duration necessary to produce threshold lesions in the brain (Fry et al., 1970; Pond, 1970; Robinson and Lele, 1972). The relationship $It^{1/2} = 200$, where $I$ is the acoustic intensity at the site of interest in the tissue in $(W/cm^2)$ and $t$ is the time duration of the single-pulse exposure in (sec), defines threshold in that exposures greater than $200 W/cm^2 sec^{1/2}$ always produce optical-microscopically identifiable lesions, while those less than this value do not. This relation has been determined experimentally to describe the threshold events over the range of exposure from 100 μsec to 10 min, beyond which it alters to approach an infinite time exposure condition. Thermal processes have been shown to dominate in the low intensity-long pulse exposure region (Lerner et al., 1973), while evidence abounds for transient cavitation events
to be of upper most importance at the highest intensity-shortest pulse exposure region. In the mid-intensity region, viz., about 700 to 1500 W/cm², other mechanical mechanisms are believed to occur. Histologically, white matter exhibits a lesser threshold than does gray matter, with the vascular structures being most resistant (Fry, 1958). The observed lack of frequency dependence (Johnston and Dunn, 1976) of the threshold boundary may be due, at least in the thermal region, to the combined effects of the nearly linear dependence upon frequency of the absorption coefficient and the inverse frequency dependence of focal volume, which tend to balance each other maintaining a relatively constant lesion volume, independent of frequency. A study involving exposure of the lumbar enlargement of the spinal chord of neonatal mice (maintained at 37°C), a preparation permitting temperature variation of the specimen, and involving a functional rather than structural endpoint, yields threshold levels approximately one-eighth of the above for mature brain (Dunn, 1958; Dunn and Fry, 1971).

Taylor and Pond (1972) irradiated exposed rat spinal cords, as a function of ultrasonic frequency in the range 0.5 - 6 MHz, with 25 W/cm² in a pulsing regime of 10 μsec pulses and a 10% duty factor. They observed a decrease in damage with increase in frequency and increased damage under hypoxic conditions. A recent study by Chan and Frizzell (1977) shows the threshold for irreversible structural changes in cat liver to be twice that for brain. Kremkau and Witkofski (1974) reported a significant reduction in the frequency of mitotic cells in surgically stimulated rat liver in response to exposure to 60 mW/cm², 1.9 MHz ultrasound. However, Miller et al. (1976) were
unable to confirm these findings with surgically stimulated rat liver irradiated one and five minutes with 2.2 MHz ultrasound in the range 0.06 to 16 W/cm². One major difference in the procedures employed by these two groups is that the latter involved a circular motion of the transducer over the animal's ventral surface, while the transducer was maintained stationary in the former case. Barnett and Kossoff (1977) have also obtained negative results for exposure of regenerating rat liver to 2.5 MHz ultrasound pulsed at 10 - 50 kHz prf and 33 W/cm² peak intensity. Taylor and Pond (1970), however, noted an increase in the frequency of hemorrhage at the lower frequencies, in the range 0.5 to 6 MHz, in surgically exposed liver to 56 W/cm² peak intensity ultrasound for 5 min under a pulsing regime wherein a 10% duty factor and 10 ms pulses were employed. Though the temperature rise did not exceed 5°C, damage was particularly severe in the neighborhood of the central vein.

Conflicting reports have resulted from animal studies of the ultrasonic effects upon testes, viz., Kamocsay et al. (1955) and Fahim et al. (1975) have reported observing effects upon spermatogenesis and fertility while Lyon and Simpson (1974) and Urry et al. (1978) failed to make such observations. In a more recent study mouse testes were exposed sequentially for 30 sec at a spatial peak ultrasonic intensity of 25 W/cm² at 1 MHz, removed at varying times post irradiation from immediately to 19 days, and examined histologically. The results suggest that two types of ultrasonically induced damage occur for different specimens under identical exposure conditions, viz.,
either seminiferous tubule disruption occurs with a suggestion of minor intertubule space involvement or a more severe form of tubule damage occurs with significant interstitial tissue involvement (O'Brien et al., 1979). Spermatocytes appear to be affected earlier than spermatogonia, contrary to the situation following ionizing radiation.

Dyson et al. (1974) have demonstrated that blood flow in the vessels of chick embryos can be checked by exposure to ultrasound in the range of 1 to 5 MHz. Both CW and pulsed ultrasound are effective and the intensity necessary to produce the stasis may be a low as 0.5 W/cm² (at 3 MHz), depending upon blood vessel size, types, and orientation. The stasis is reversible upon cessation of the sound exposure, though electron microscopy has revealed damage to some endothelial cells lining the embryonic vessels in which the stasis is produced. As the production of the stasis is associated with standing waves, it can be avoided by either continual movement of the sound source or employment of sufficiently short pulses of irradiation in the exposure procedure (ter Haar and Wyard, 1978).

Tissue regeneration in response to ultrasonic irradiation has been studied by Dyson et al. (1968). The rate of repair of 10 mm square holes in rabbit ears exposed to 3.6 MHz ultrasound for 5 min three times per week, under either 0.1 W/cm² CW application or various pulsing regimes with the intensity in the range 0.25 to 8 W/cm², was significantly more rapid than the untreated control ear. The attending temperature rise was considered to small to be responsible for the effects. Subsequently, patients with chronic varicose ulceration were treated with 3 MHz ultrasound at 1 W/cm² for 10 min three times
per week for four weeks with encouraging results (Dyson et al., 1978). Other reports of enhanced tissue regeneration in response to ultras
sonic irradiation have also appeared, e.g., Pizzarello et al. (1975) wherein slightly faster tissue renewal of the amputated prelimb of a newt occurred, over that of the opposite also amputated prelimb, though details are sparse and conditions complicated for identifying crucial dosage conditions.

The effects of ultrasound on neoplastic tissues have involved at least two lines of inquiry, viz., a direct effect upon the tissues possibly involving hyperthermic effects and a synergistic involvement with other modalities. A recent example of the former deals with the irradiation of subcutaneously implanted Rat Wilm's tumors with 1 MHz ultrasound at 1.5 W/cm² to achieve reduction in tumor volume, reduction in tumor weight, and increase in mean rat survival time (Longo et al., 1975). Histological observation revealed nuclei with condensed chromatin patterns. Substantial temperature increases also occurred. With regard to synergism, Lehmann and Krusen (1955) noted that the X-ray dosage required to produce regression in an experimental tumor was substantially reduced when simultaneously irradiated with 1 MHz ultrasound at 8.4 W/cm², and they believed the heating effect due to the attending sound absorption. Woeber (1965) has reported marked improvement in the treatment of human superficial cancer from simultaneous employment of ultrasound and X-ray. However, Clarke et al. (1970) failed to observe such synergistic effects using either cultured mouse lymphoma cells or implanted tumors in rats. Gavrilov et al. (1975), however, have found that a preliminary
irradiation, of transplanted sarcoma 37 tumors in mice, with 1 MHz ultrasound in the range 0.5 to 2.5 W/cm$^2$ for periods of 1 to 5 min, enhances the sensitivity of the tumor cells to subsequent gamma radiation. A synergism with chemotherapy has been suggested by Heimburger et al. (1975), wherein malignant brain tumors were irradiated simultaneously, through a boneflap, with 1 MHz ultrasound at 3 W/cm$^2$. Though the patient population was small, they believed the effectiveness of the chemotherapy improved.

Enhanced DNA synthesis has been reported by Elmer and Fleischer (1974) in neonatal mouse tibiae exposed for 5 min, three times in 24 hrs, to 1.8 W/cm$^2$, 1 MHz ultrasound. Observations revealed that growth, protein accumulation, and $^3$H-proline incorporation remained unaffected. The DNA synthesis may have been affected by the substantial temperature rise measured, attending absorption of the ultrasonic energy in the high absorbing bone tissue.
IV. CELLS AND MICROORGANISMS

Cells and microorganisms in suspension provide model systems, of tissues and organs, having the advantage of being comprised of single cell lines, possibly even in mitotic synchrony, but with the disadvantage of not being constrained by tissue architectural features, though gel-caging can reduce the importance of this. Such systems have been attractive for studies dealing with the physical mechanisms by which ultrasound can produce alterations in more complex structures. Thus, it has emerged that ultrasonic exposure of cells and microorganisms in suspension can lead to cell death and that cavitation is important to the process. Indeed, Coakley et al. (1971) have been able to associate the destruction of an amoeba with the specific number of discrete cavitation events occurring during the irradiation procedure. This apparent necessity for the presence of cavitation is most important in attempts to determine risk in clinical employment of ultrasound as virtually nothing is known of cavitation phenomena in tissues. It appears that cell disintegration occurs preferentially, at least when cavitation is allowed to occur, during the mitotic phase of the cell cycle, e.g., mouse leukemia cells in aqueous suspension were most susceptible to damage in M-phase when exposed to 1 MHz ultrasound having spatial peak intensity of $15 \text{ W/cm}^2$ for 10 sec (Clarke and Hill, 1969). It has been suggested that there may occur variations in the mechanical strength of the cell membrane about the cell cycle. An interesting report is that of Brown and Coakley (1975) who exposed gel-caged suspensions of an amoeba to 1 MHz ultrasound sufficient to produce irreversible alterations in mammalian tissues. Though they
employed CW and pulsed regimes, samples from logarithmically growing and from synchronous cultures, treated in free field and standing wave field conditions, failed to exhibit differences in their growth patterns compared to controls.

Non-lethal effects upon cells have also been investigated. Repacholi et al. (1971) and Taylor and Newman (1972) observed a reduction in the electrophoretic mobility of Ehrlich ascites cells following exposure to low megahertz ultrasound, implying alteration of the electric charge density of the cellular surface. Ultrasonic irradiation at 1.8 MHz with intensities greater than 1 W/cm² of rat thymocytes was followed by an immediate decrease in potassium content, suggesting a sublethal alteration in the structures intimate to permeability (Chapman, 1974). Additionally, investigations of ultra-structural details has revealed mitochondrial modifications in cells exposed to ultrasound (Hrazdiva, 1970).

Microorganisms have been employed in genetic studies without positive results. Thus Combes (1975) did not find an increase in the back-mutation of an auxotrophic strain of *Bacillus subtilis* in response to 2 MHz ultrasonic irradiation for 5 min at intensities up to 60 W/cm², in a pulsing regime. Also, Thacker (1974) found that abnormal genetic effects did not occur in ultrasonically irradiated yeast cells, even when treated in such a manner that the cells were killed to 0.1% of the survival rate of the controls.
V. BIOMACROMOLECULES AND THEIR ASSEMBLAGES

The response of large molecules of biological importance, to ultrasonic exposure, have been studied in aqueous solution for details of tissue interaction mechanisms. The findings that ultrasonic absorption is largely attributable to tissue protein content (Carstensen et al., 1953) and that tissue interactions resulting in irreversible structural changes must occur at levels of structure below that identifiable with the light microscope (Dunn, 1958) encouraged some of these inquiries.

For molecules having molecular weights below about $10^4$, i.e., proteins, in aqueous solution, it appears that degradation occurs only in the presence of cavitation in the ultrasonic frequency range 1 to 27 MHz (Macleod and Dunn, 1968). For larger molecules in aqueous solution, e.g., DNA with molecular weights greater than about $10^6$, it has been possible to demonstrate degradation in the absence of any phenomena suggesting the presence of cavitation (Hawley et al., 1963). Herein, intensities as high as 30 W/cm$^2$ were employed and essentially monodisperse fragments were produced with the limiting value depending upon intensity, i.e., greater intensities of exposure produced smaller fragments. This sequential halving of the molecules, with continued irradiation time, is also a characteristic feature of the much more prevalent studies of degradation of DNA in the presence of cavitation (Peacocke and Pritchard, 1968). The breaking of the DNA molecules preferentially at the midpoints of their extended conformation in solution suggests a mechanical mechanism being responsible, though chemical effects, largely due to free radical production in the presence
of cavitation, have been described extensively (El'piner, 1964), in particular in the low megahertz frequency range (Hill, 1972). Nonetheless, while it is an easy task to degrade nucleic acid molecules in solution, it has not been possible to produce mutagenic lesions following \textit{in vitro} irradiation of transforming DNA (Combes, 1975). The apparent necessity for the extended conformation of DNA molecules in solution to affect degradation implies the much lesser opportunity for denaturation of cellular DNA to occur.

An interesting finding from two laboratories is that the order of ultrasonic reactivity obtained by observing spectral changes in nucleic acid bases in solution at 1 MHz and less than 5 W/cm$^2$, viz., Thy > Ura > Cyt > Gua > Ade (McKee et al., 1977) seems to be the same as that obtained by chromatography in dilute solutions of nucleic acids at 800 kHz and approximately 10 W/cm$^2$ (Braginskaya and El'piner, 1964). No information exists with regard to the occurrence of such events in cellular situations.

A very considerable attention has been devoted to the concern over possible ultrasonic effects on chromosomes. Much of this interest has been associated with studies involving human lymphocyte chromosomes, from cultured preparations, with the overwhelming result that ultrasound does not produce an increase in aberrations even at much greater exposure intensities and longer irradiation times than are likely to occur during medical diagnostic procedures (Coakley et al., 1972; Hill et al., 1972; Watts et al., 1972; Bucton and Baker, 1972; Rott and Soldner, 1973; Macintosh et al., 1975), though such a synergistic effect with X-ray may occur (Kunze-Mühl, 1975).
A few studies have treated membranes and membrane models. Thus Rohr and Rooney (1978) were able to increase the permeability of membranes formed from oxidized cholesterol exposed to 1 MHz ultrasound at intensities greater than 1.5 W/cm$^2$. Liver plasma membranes exhibited decreased 5' nucleotidase activity and altered morphology in response to 0.87 MHz ultrasound in the range 0.75 to 3 W/cm$^2$ for exposures ranging from 2 to 10 min (Montmory and Pourhadi, 1976). Coble and Dunn (1976) found an unlinking of the membrane potential and short circuit current to occur in that their time courses in response to ultrasound differed, i.e., the short circuit current increased continuously for exposures of 0.5 sec and longer while the membrane potential reached its maximum within 0.5 sec and did not alter with increased duration of exposure. This occurred at 1 MHz in the intensity range 1 to 100 W/cm$^2$, for isolated frog skin preparations. Williams et al. (1976) were able to alter the recalcification time of platelet-rich plasma with 1 MHz at approximately 0.2 W/cm$^2$ (spatial peak) in 5 min.
VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the investigations that have been conducted, it appears that ultrasound can be considered to be a very inefficient mutagenic agent. Chromosome damage that does occur in response to ultrasonic irradiation is most likely to be lethal. Because of the particular molecular conformation necessary to bring about effects in vitro, it does not appear likely that selective effects can be produced in cellular nucleic acids.

As ultrasound appears to induce embryological effects, treatment of pregnant women in the abdominal area, e.g., possibly for lower back pain, should be avoided.

A systematic analysis of existing reliable data for mammalian tissues has led to the following two summary statements (Nyborg, 1977):

No substantial bioeffects have been demonstrated for spatial peak-temporal average intensities less than 100 W/cm².

No substantial bioeffects have been demonstrated for which the product of $I_t$ is less than 50 J/cm² where, for pulsed operation, $t$ is the total ("on" + "off") time.

(It should be noted that the spatial peak intensities referred to in the statements are typically very much greater than the spatial average values of intensity used in the specification of ultrasonic instrumentation.) The statements, while providing terse and compendious rendering of a huge literature, may need to be modified as new data
appear, since (1) most of its data are from mammals other than man and the extrapolation to man is not always clear, (2) the influence of exposure factors such as pulsing conditions and acoustic frequency are not included, and (3) the most sensitive biological tests may not have been employed.

No fully satisfactory epidemiological study has as yet been performed. However, a retrospective survey, but not case-controlled, of more than 1000 apparently normal women examined with ultrasound during various stages of pregnancy exhibited a 2.7% incidence of congenital abnormalities on newborn physical examination, as compared with a figure of 4.8% exhibited in a separate and unmatched survey of women not having received ultrasonic diagnosis (Hellman et al., 1970). Neither the gestation period at which the first ultrasonic examination occurred nor the number of examinations appeared to increase the risk of fetal abnormality occurring. A smaller study has also yielded no indication of either congenital malformations or chromosomal aberrations in the fetus (Koranyi et al., 1972).

Finally, though not scientifically objective, it must be noted that a very substantial number of persons receiving ultrasonic diagnosis also undergo subsequent clinical examinations, and undesirable effects from such procedures, or suspicions thereof, have not been reported (Dunn and Fry, 1971).
VII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author acknowledges gratefully support, from the National Science Foundation and the National Institutes of Health, of the portion of the work described herein performed in his laboratory.
VIII. REFERENCES


Dunn, F., and O'Brien, W. D., Jr., eds., Ultrasonic Biophysics, (Dowden, Hutchinson, and Ross, Stroudsburg, 1976).


Hrazdina, I., Changes in cell ultrastructure under direct and indirect action of ultrasound. In Ultrasonographia Medica, ed. by J. Bock
et al., (Academy of Medicine, Vienna, 1970), pp. 457-463.


Kunze-Mühl, E., Chromosome damage in human lymphocytes after different combinations of X-ray and ultrasonic treatment. In Ultrasonics in Medicine, ed. by E. Kazner et al., (Excerpta Medica, Amsterdam, 1975), pp. 3-9.


