

1 **Investigation on the impact of the leaf trailing effect using**
2 **the Halcyon integrated platform system**

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Abstract

Purpose: The double-stacked design of the Halcyon multileaf collimator (MLC) presents new challenges for treatment planning systems (TPSs). The leaf trailing effect has recently been described as the result of the interplay between the fluence transmitted through the leaf tip ends of each MLC layer. This effect makes the dosimetric leaf gap (DLG) dependent on the distance between the leaves of different layers (trailing distance) and is not adequately modeled by the Eclipse TPS. The purpose of our study was to investigate and report the dose discrepancies produced by these limitations in clinical plans and to explore how these discrepancies can be mitigated and avoided.

Methods: The integrated platform with the Halcyon v2 system, Eclipse and Aria v15.6, was used. The dose discrepancies were obtained with EPID images and the portal dosimetry software and validated using radiochromic film dosimetry. The results for the AIDA commissioning test and for nine selected clinical beams with the sliding window intensity modulated radiotherapy (dIMRT) technique were thoroughly analyzed and presented. First, the DICOM RT plans were exported and the fluences were computed using different leaf tip models, and then were compared. Second, the detailed characteristics of the corresponding leaf sequences were investigated. Finally, modified DICOM RT plans were created in which the non-collimating (backup) leaves were retracted 2 mm to increase the leaf trailing distance, the modified plans were imported back into the TPS and the measurements were repeated. Dedicated in-house tools were developed in Python to carry out all analyses.

Results: Dose discrepancies greater than 10% and regions of gamma failure were found in both the AIDA test and clinical beams using static-gantry dIMRT. Fluence analysis highlighted that the discrepancies were due to limitations in the MLC model implemented in the TPS. Analysis of leaf sequences indicated that regions of failure were associated with very low leaf speeds and virtually motionless leaves within the beam aperture. Some of these discrepancies were mitigated by increasing the trailing distance of the non-collimating leaves without affecting the beam aperture, but this strategy was not possible in regions where the leaves from both layers actively defined the beam aperture.

Conclusions: Current limitations of the MLC model in Eclipse produced discrepancies between calculated and delivered doses in clinical beams that caused plan-specific quality assurance failures and interruptions in the clinical workflow. Careful evaluation of the clinical plans produced by Eclipse for the Halcyon is recommended, especially for static gantry dIMRT treatments. Some characteristics of leaf sequences are problematic and should be avoided in clinical plans and, in general, a better leaf tip model is needed. This is particularly important in adaptive radiotherapy treatments, where the accuracy and reliability of TPS dose calculations are of the utmost importance.

62 The table of contents is for drafting and refereeing purposes only. Note that all links to
63 references, tables and figures can be clicked on and returned to calling point using cmd[on
64 a Mac using Preview or some equivalent on PCs (see View - go to on whatever reader).

65 Contents

66	I. Introduction	1
67	II. Materials and Methods	2
68	II.A. Halcyon framework and description of test cases	2
69	II.B. Comparison of fluence maps computed with different leaf tip models	3
70	II.C. Analysis of leaf speeds	5
71	II.D. Modified RT plan	6
72	III. Results	7
73	III.A. Analysis of the original plans	7
74	III.B. Comparison of fluence maps computed with different leaf tip models	8
75	III.C. Analysis of leaf speeds	10
76	III.D. Modified plans	10
77	IV. Discussion	12
78	V. Conclusions	15
79	References	16

1. Introduction

A new platform for intensity modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) treatment delivery, the Halcyon™ system, was introduced by Varian (Varian Medical System, Inc. Palo Alto, California, USA) in 2017. The system features a unique design with a ring-mounted linear accelerator that provides an efficient delivery of IMRT and volumetric modulated arc therapy (VMAT) treatments because of its high leaf and gantry speed (5 cm/s and 24 deg/s, respectively)^{1,2,3}. For beam shaping and fluence modulation, the Halcyon incorporates an innovative dual-layer MLC with stacked and staggered rounded leaves with a width of 10 mm at the isocenter plane. This design provides an effective resolution of 5 mm at the isocenter while simultaneously minimizing interleaf leakage. Several authors have reported that the system complies with recommendations from international guidelines^{4,5,6,7,8,9} and, in general, good agreement has been found in patient-specific quality assurance (QA) tests, end-to-end verifications, and external audits^{2,3,10}. However, stacking two banks and using rounded leaf ends creates new challenges for proper modeling in treatment planning systems (TPSs)¹¹.

Several authors have reported that dose calculation accuracy depends on a proper beam characterization and a good MLC model^{7,8,12,13}. In fact, the current MLC model in the Eclipse TPS (Varian Medical Systems) is dependent on three parameters: MLC transmission (T), dosimetric leaf gap (DLG) and tongue and groove width¹⁴. Dosimetric characterization of the Halcyon's dual-layer MLC system has been investigated by various authors^{11,15,16}. Kim et al. (2019)¹⁵ reported that the measured DLG was different for each layer and also when the aperture was defined by both layers simultaneously. Similarly, Lim et al. (2019)¹⁶ studied the leaf end effect of the distal layer and reported a DLG of -0.19 mm at a depth of 10 cm. The same authors assessed the clinical accuracy of the leaf tip model for a selection of ten clinically representative plans in two different versions of the Eclipse TPS (Varian Medical Systems, Inc. Palo Alto, CA, USA) by comparing the calculated doses with point doses measured using an ion chamber. They obtained a mean dose discrepancy of -1% for plans evaluated with the latest TPS version.

A noteworthy aspect of the Eclipse beam model for the Halcyon system is that it is supplied with preconfigured beam data including fixed values for MLC transmission (0.47% per layer) and DLG (0.1 mm) applied to both layers, as well as tongue and groove widths (0.40 mm for the distal layer and 0.56 mm for the proximal layer). None of these values can

111 be modified by the user¹⁷.

112 Hernandez et al.(2021)¹¹ recently investigated the interplay between the two layers and
113 showed that the distance between the leaves of each MLC layer, i.e., the trailing distance, has
114 a high impact on the photon fluence transmitted through the leaf tips and hence on measured
115 DLG values. They found that measured DLG is dependent on the trailing distance: it shows
116 a sharp increase for low values and finally levels out for trailing distances around 5 mm.
117 This produces dose deviations as great as 10% for low trailing distances and sweeping gaps
118 of 5 mm calculated with Eclipse. Miyasaka et al.(2022)¹⁸ recently evaluated sequences of
119 clinical VMAT plans and found no dosimetric consequences associated to the trailing effect.
120 However, to the best of our knowledge, the impact of this effect on clinical dMLC plans has
121 not yet been investigated.

122 In this work we present several cases of discrepancies between calculations in clinical
123 dMLC plans produced by the Eclipse TPS and measurements that can be explained by poor
124 modeling of the leaf tip and the leaf trailing effect. The goals of the study were to describe
125 the situations where such discrepancies are found, to investigate their causes, and to discuss
126 how these situations can be mitigated and solved.

127 II. Materials and Methods

128 II.A. Halcyon framework and description of test cases

129 In this investigation we report on the Halcyon v2 with SX2 MLC system and on version 15.6
130 of the Analytical Anisotropic Algorithm (AAA), smart Leaf Motion Calculator (smartLMC),
131 and Photon Optimizer (PO) of the Eclipse TPS. Since the Halcyon system was commissioned
132 in September 2019, more than one thousand patients have been treated, with approximately
133 70% of the treatments being delivered with VMAT and the remaining 30% with dIMRT.

134 We present the discrepancies found in a representative clinical beam and a test case.
135 The clinical beam was a dIMRT beam that corresponding to a field used in a breast cancer
136 treatment with involvement of supraclavicular nodes using the sliding window technique.
137 Our analysis and discussion focus on this individual clinical case. However, eight additional
138 clinical cases, corresponding to dIMRT treatments with similar discrepancies, are provided

139 as Supporting Information.

140 The test case presented is the AIDA test, which is routinely used for commissioning
141 the portal dosimetry package (PDIP)¹⁴. It consists of an optimal fluence map provided by
142 Varian with five rectangular slabs of different widths, a height of 3 cm and a separation of
143 2 cm between them. Fluence intensity is set to 1 inside the slabs and 0 outside. This optimal
144 fluence for the AIDA test was imported into Eclipse ,the leaf sequence was calculated by
145 the smartLMC algorithm, and the test was delivered with 370 MU and a dose rate of 600
146 MU/min (leaf speeds ≤ 5 cm/s).

147 All plans were evaluated using the portal dosimetry algorithm (PDIP)¹⁴, which is the
148 AAA algorithm for Halcyon. Comparisons between predicted and measured dose distri-
149 butions were performed with a local gamma metric of 2%-2mm. Finally, to rule out any
150 dose-response effects of the EPID, the AIDA test was also measured using radiochromic film
151 dosimetry¹⁹ and compared with the calculated dose distribution. The radiochromic film was
152 placed at the depth of maximum dose in a water-equivalent phantom.

153 II.B. Comparison of fluence maps computed with different leaf tip 154 models

155 In order to investigate if the observed dose differences could be associated with limitations in
156 the MLC model, two different fluence maps were produced for each case considering different
157 leaf tip models.

158 The first fluence map was with a leaf tip model equivalent to the one implemented
159 in Eclipse. Thus, a constant $DLG_{\text{const}} = 0.1$ mm was assumed and all leaf positions were
160 retracted by half the DLG value (0.05 mm). To improve the resolution between control
161 points (CP), new CPs were added by splitting the interval between CPs in 100 equal parts
162 and using linear interpolation. The fluence was then computed at each interpolated CP by
163 assigning a fluence value of 1 to the open regions within the beam aperture, 0.004 to regions
164 shielded by a single MLC and zero to regions below both MLC layers. The total fluence map,
165 φ_{const} , was finally computed by summing up all the partial fluences from each interpolated
166 CP.

167 The second fluence map was computed using a variable DLG defined as a function of the

168 trailing distance t . For that purpose, the distance between leaves in different layers (trailing
 169 distance t) was first calculated at each CP and for each effective 5 mm leaf. Next, the same
 170 procedure described above was applied. This fluence map was named φ_{var} .

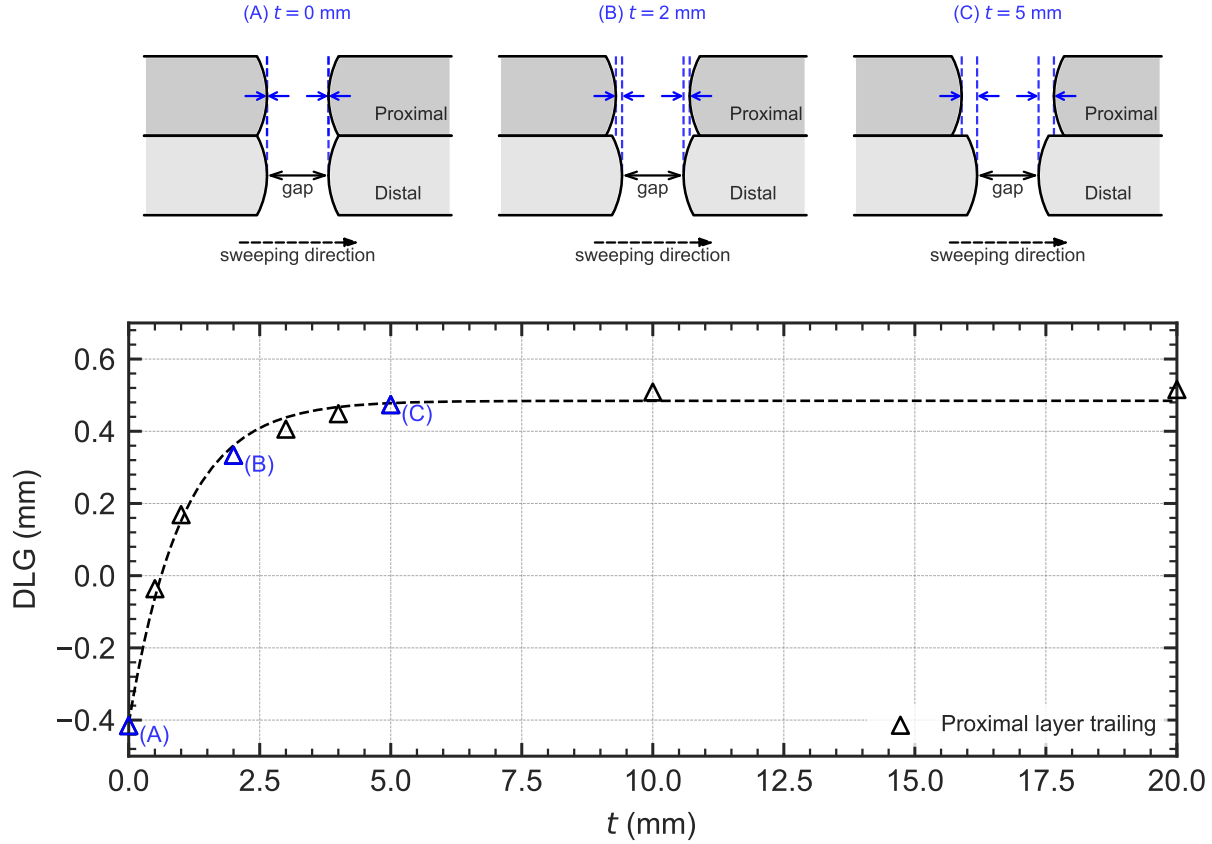


Figure 1: Sketch showing an MLC gap with three trailing distances t for proximal leaves acting as trailing (or backup) leaves (upper plot). The lower plot shows the dosimetric leaf gap (DLG) plotted as a function of the trailing distance. Letters (A, B, C) are used to identify each leaf arrangement and its corresponding DLG value.

171 The dependence of the DLG on the trailing distance between the two MLC layers (trailing
 172 effect) is illustrated in Figure 1. The trailing distance affects the photon transmission
 173 through the leaf tips and hence the measured DLG value, which depends on the distance
 174 between leading and back-up leaves (trailing distance).

175 To obtain the DLG as a function of the trailing distance t , the agreement with results
 176 reported for other Halcyon systems was verified measuring the trailing sweeping gap tests¹¹
 177 and an analytical fit of the DLG was obtained using the empirical equation:

$$178 \quad \text{DLG}(t) = \alpha \left(1 - e^{-\beta t}\right) + \gamma \quad , \quad (1)$$

179 where α , β and γ are fitting parameters that depend on the layer acting as a collimating
 180 layer. The values obtained for the proximal layer were $\alpha = 0.89(6)$ mm, $\beta = 0.99(1)$ mm⁻¹
 181 and $\gamma = -0.41(6)$ mm and for the distal layer were $\alpha = 0.77(5)$ mm, $\beta = 1.2(2)$ mm⁻¹ and
 182 $\gamma = -0.41(4)$ mm. This function provided a very good fit (shown in Supporting Materials),
 183 with all residuals < 0.03 mm.

184 Finally, the two fluence maps were compared using the percentage of differences defined
 185 as:

$$186 \quad \text{Diff}(\%) = \frac{\varphi_{\text{var}} - \varphi_{\text{const}}}{\varphi_{\text{const}}} \quad . \quad (2)$$

187 Note that the only difference between fluence maps φ_{const} and φ_{var} was the leaf tip
 188 model used. This comparison therefore indicated the impact of the leaf tip model on TPS
 189 calculations , which is useful to investigate whether experimental discrepancies could be
 190 explained by limitations in the leaf tip model.

191 II.C. Analysis of leaf speeds

192 To analyze the characteristics of the leaf sequence, the RT plan was exported from the TPS
 193 in DICOM format and an in-house Python program was created to extract the leaf positions
 194 from both MLC layers, the gantry angle and the meterset weight at each control point. This
 195 information was used to determine the treatment time between each pair of CPs ²⁰. The leaf
 196 speed between each pair of CPs was then calculated and a 2D map of leaf speeds, $S(x, y)$,
 197 was computed for each leaf bank as:

$$198 \quad S(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} v_i(x, y) \quad , \quad (3)$$

199 where N is the total number of CPs, v_i is the speed (cm/s) between CPs i and $i + 1$ and
 200 x, y are the spatial coordinates swept by each leaf with the y axis taken to be perpendicular
 201 to leaf motion.

202 II.D. Modified RT plan

203 With the information obtained from the exported DICOM RT plans, two types of leaves
 204 were identified with respect to their role in primary fluence collimation: *collimating* and
 205 *non-collimating* leaves. A given leaf in any layer is considered to be a non-collimating or
 206 trailing leaf when its DICOM position is more retracted than its pair of overlapping of leaves
 207 from the other layer. A sketch illustrating this concept is depicted in Figure 2. In the latest
 208 implementation of the Halcyon, v2, both distal and proximal leaves can be collimating and
 209 non-collimating.

(a) Original plan.

(b) Modified plan.

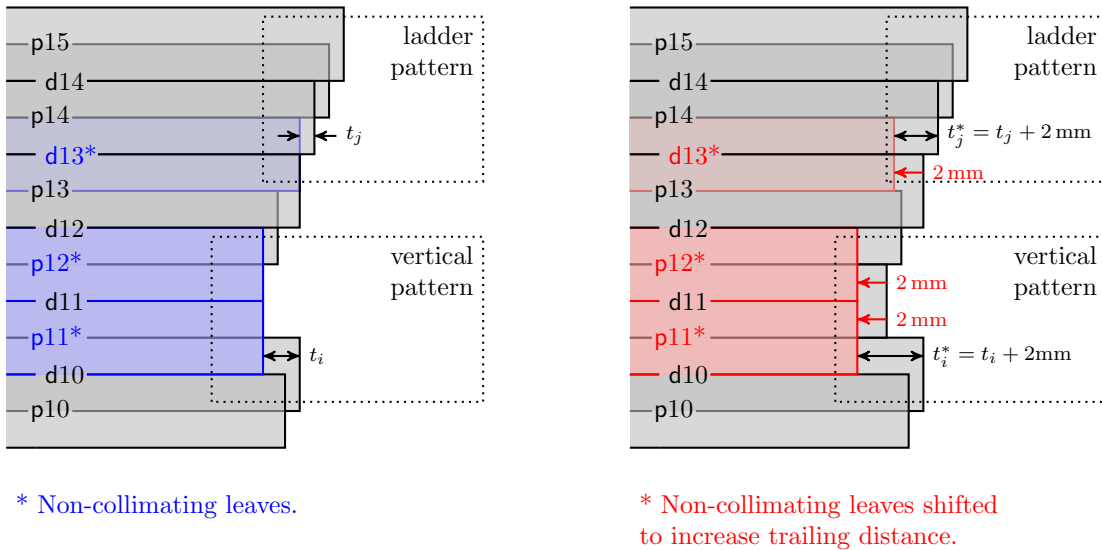


Figure 2: Sketch illustrating a leaf pattern from an original plan and the modified plan after applying the algorithm that detects and retracts non-collimating leaves. In the original plan (a) the backup or non-collimating leaves that did not define the beam aperture were identified. In the modified plan (b) the non-collimating leaves were further retracted to increase the trailing distance by 2 mm.

210 To investigate the effect of the trailing distance t on the delivered dose, trailing distances
 211 for non-collimating leaves were modified using an in-house Python program. The program
 212 identified non-collimating leaves at each CP and further retracted their position by 2 mm
 213 with respect to the leading leaves. This shift was selected because, as can be seen in Figure
 214 1, 2 mm is sufficient to avoid the steep increase in the DLG(t) curve and would produce a
 215 DLG close to its plateau. Since only non-collimating leaves were moved, the beam aperture

216 in the modified plan remained unaltered. This procedure is depicted in Figure 2. After
217 modifying the RT plan, the new plan was imported back into Eclipse and the predicted
218 portal image was recalculated, portal images were reacquired and the analysis was repeated.

219 III. Results

220 We found evident dose discrepancies between calculations and measurements in approxi-
221 mately 10-12% of the sliding window plans, but not in the VMAT plans. On average, the
222 problematic dMLC plans had six beams and two of them were affected. The total percentage
223 of sliding window beams with dose discrepancies was therefore around 3–4%. The differ-
224 ences in a test case (the AIDA test) and a representative clinical beam are reported and
225 analyzed below. Additional clinical cases are provided as Supporting Material.

226 III.A. Analysis of the original plans

227 The gamma analysis results for both the AIDA test and the selected clinical case are shown
228 in Figure 3. For the AIDA test, vertical bands indicating gamma failures ($\gamma > 1$) were
229 clearly identified on the four rectangles at approximately similar distances from their right
230 border (see Figure 3a). A crossline dose profile taken through the lower rectangle shows that
231 the Eclipse TPS overestimated the dose by as much as 18% (see Supplementary Figure S3)
232 in the region of gamma failure. Measurements for this test were repeated with radiochromic
233 film and the same pattern with vertical bands within the homogeneous fluence region was
234 observed, which confirmed the results obtained with portal dosimetry (shown in Supporting
235 Information Figure S2).

236 The gamma map for the clinical beam displays regions of gamma failure with two
237 distinct patterns. First, vertical straight bands with measured doses lower than calculated
238 doses (cold spots, as in the AIDA test). Second, areas with a ladder-like pattern, where the
239 measured doses were greater than calculated doses (hot spots). This is illustrated with a
240 dose profile that includes both types of regions (Figure 3b). These dose discrepancies were
241 as great as $\pm 20\%$ (see Supplementary Figure S4).

242 A strict local gamma 2%-2 mm criterion was used to better identify the failing regions.
243 However, most dose discrepancies were in high dose regions and were greater than 10%;

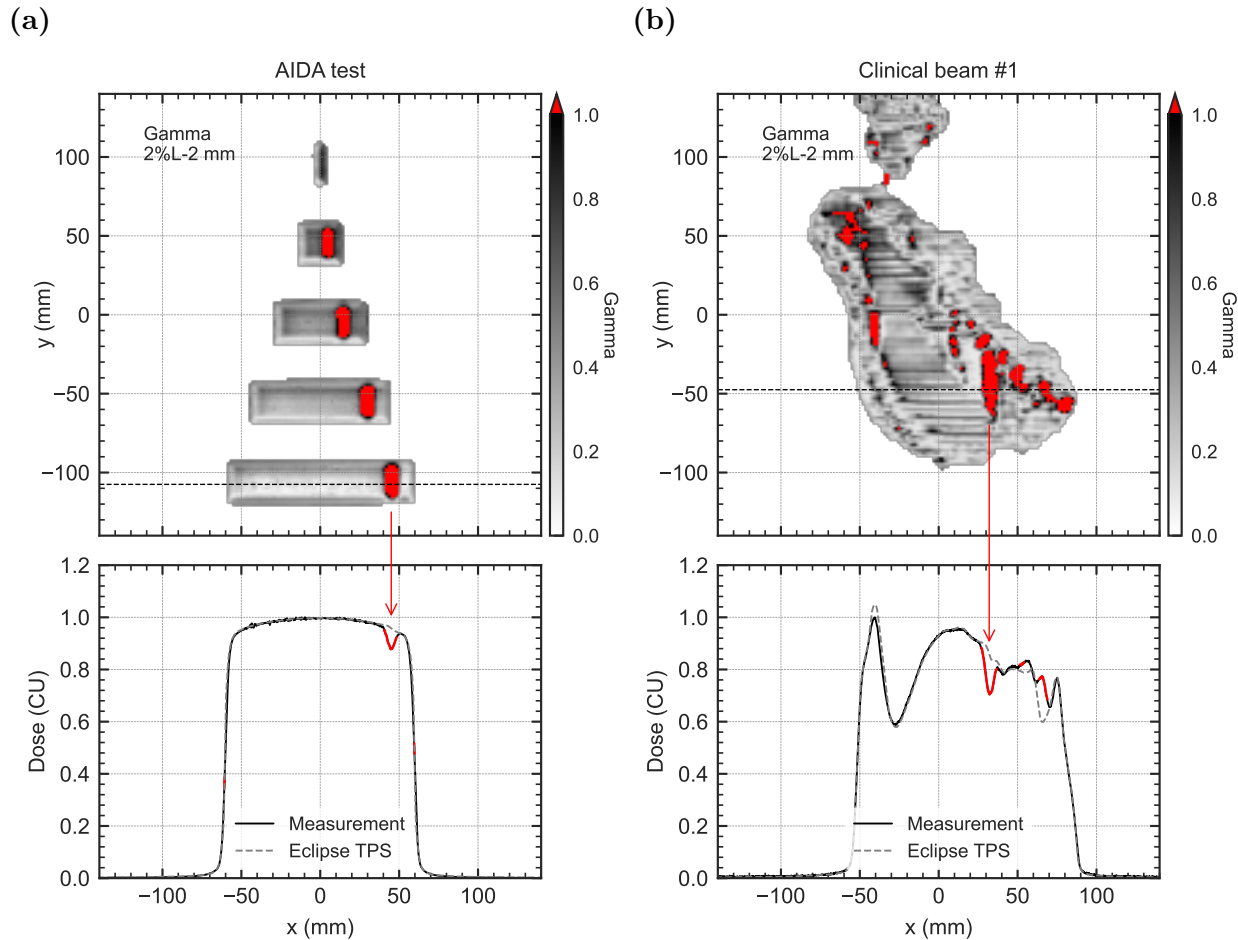


Figure 3: Comparison between the Eclipse and portal dosimetry system. Gamma maps (2% local, 2 mm) and dose profiles along the dotted lines are given for (a) the AIDA test and (b) the clinical case. Red regions indicate gamma values greater than 1.

244 hence, they would also fail with global gamma 3%-2mm.

245 III.B. Comparison of fluence maps computed with different leaf tip 246 models

247 The constant DLG value used to generate φ_{const} was 0.1 mm, the same fixed value used in
248 the Eclipse TPS. The fluence maps φ_{var} were computed using the DLG_{var} given in Eq. (1).
249 Figure 4 shows the comparisons between both fluences, including fluence difference maps as
250 described in Eq. (2) (upper row), and fluence profiles along the dashed lines (lower row).

251 Interestingly, the gamma map of φ_{var} and φ_{const} for a 2% local and 1 mm criteria, shown
252 in Figure 4, closely reproduced the experimental gamma maps illustrated in Figure 3. The

253 only difference between the fluence maps φ_{var} and φ_{const} was the leaf tip model used in the
 254 fluence computation. Therefore, this high spatial correspondence clearly points out to the
 255 leaf tip model as the reason for the experimental discrepancies found.

256 For the AIDA test, the fluence values obtained using DLG_{var} were lower than those
 257 obtained using $\text{DLG}_{\text{const}}$ in the same locations where vertical bands of failure were measured
 258 (cold spots in Figure 4a, middle row). The fluence difference was around 18% and had
 259 a similar shape but larger discrepancies than the cold spots shown in Figure 3a. For the
 260 clinical case (Figure 4, middle row), the fluence difference map was more complex and showed
 261 DLG_{var} created regions with either higher or lower values than the ones found with $\text{DLG}_{\text{const}}$.
 262 These regions appeared in the difference map as large hot and cold spots (in ladder patterns
 263 and vertical bands, respectively). In the cold vertical bands, differences of around -30%

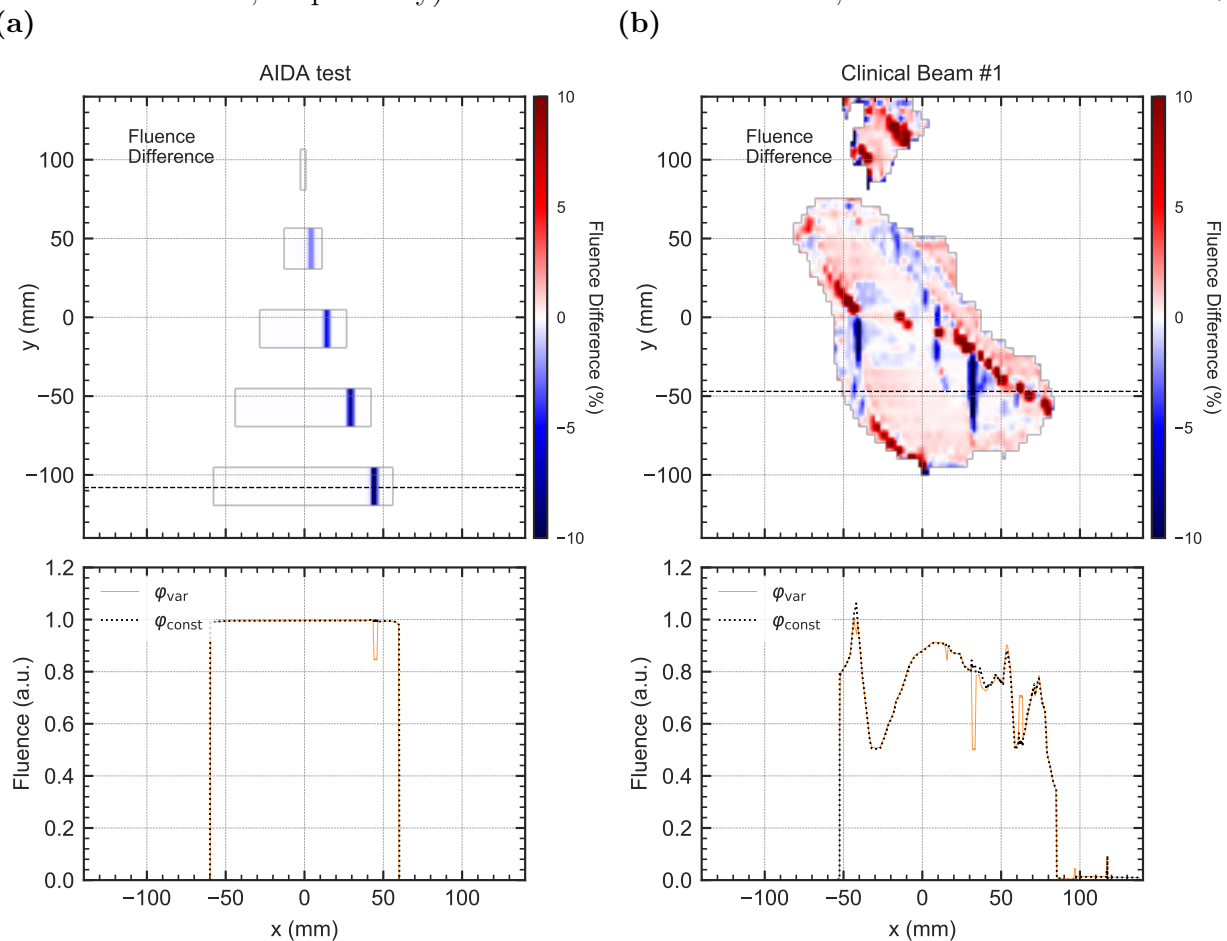


Figure 4: Comparisons between the fluence computed with a fixed ($\text{DLG}_{\text{const}}$) and a variable DLG (DLG_{var}). From top to bottom: fluence difference maps, and fluence profiles along the dashed profiles for (a) the AIDA test and (b) the clinical case.

264 were obtained, whereas in the hot ladder regions, differences reached +20%. In both cases,
265 φ_{const} behaved similarly to Eclipse and φ_{var} behaved similarly to measurements. The fluence
266 differences were greater than the experimental discrepancies shown in Figure 3b, which can
267 be explained because only direct fluence without any spatial convolution was considered and
268 this produces steeper dose variations.

269 III.C. Analysis of leaf speeds

270 The leaf speed was computed for each leaf and control point and the leaf speed map $S(x, y)$
271 for each leaf bank is shown in Figure 5. The speed maps reveal that the dose differences
272 caused by the limitations in the leaf tip model coincided with the positions at the lowest
273 leaf speeds, in this case speeds < 0.5 cm/s. Correspondence with dose differences is observed
274 for all regions of failure, i.e., in both vertical bands and ladder-like patterns. For instance,
275 note the agreement between the positions with low leaf speeds and the positions where the
276 gamma test failed as illustrated in the lower plots of Figure 5 where both the leaf speed
277 and gamma map have been simultaneously represented for a single leaf pair. A high spatial
278 correspondence exists for both leaf banks because the regions with low speeds are practically
279 the same for banks A and B, meaning that opposing leaves were practically motionless in
280 the same positions. The speed maps also show some low-speed areas that did not fail the
281 gamma analysis, mostly at the periphery of the beam aperture, where steep dose gradients
282 are present. Small differences in these regions pass the gamma analysis due to the distance-
283 to-agreement criterion but would not be clinically relevant.

284 III.D. Modified plans

285 After determining that the reported dose differences were due to limitations in the leaf tip
286 model implemented in the TPS (i.e., a fixed DLG), we investigated whether it was possible to
287 minimize the impact of such limitations by increasing the trailing distance for non-collimating
288 leaves. For this purpose, the trailing distances for the non-collimating leaves were increased
289 by 2 mm, the modified plans were recalculated and measurements were repeated.

290 The gamma analysis and dose profiles for both the modified AIDA test and the modified
291 clinical case are shown in Figure 6. In the AIDA test, the discrepancies were greatly improved

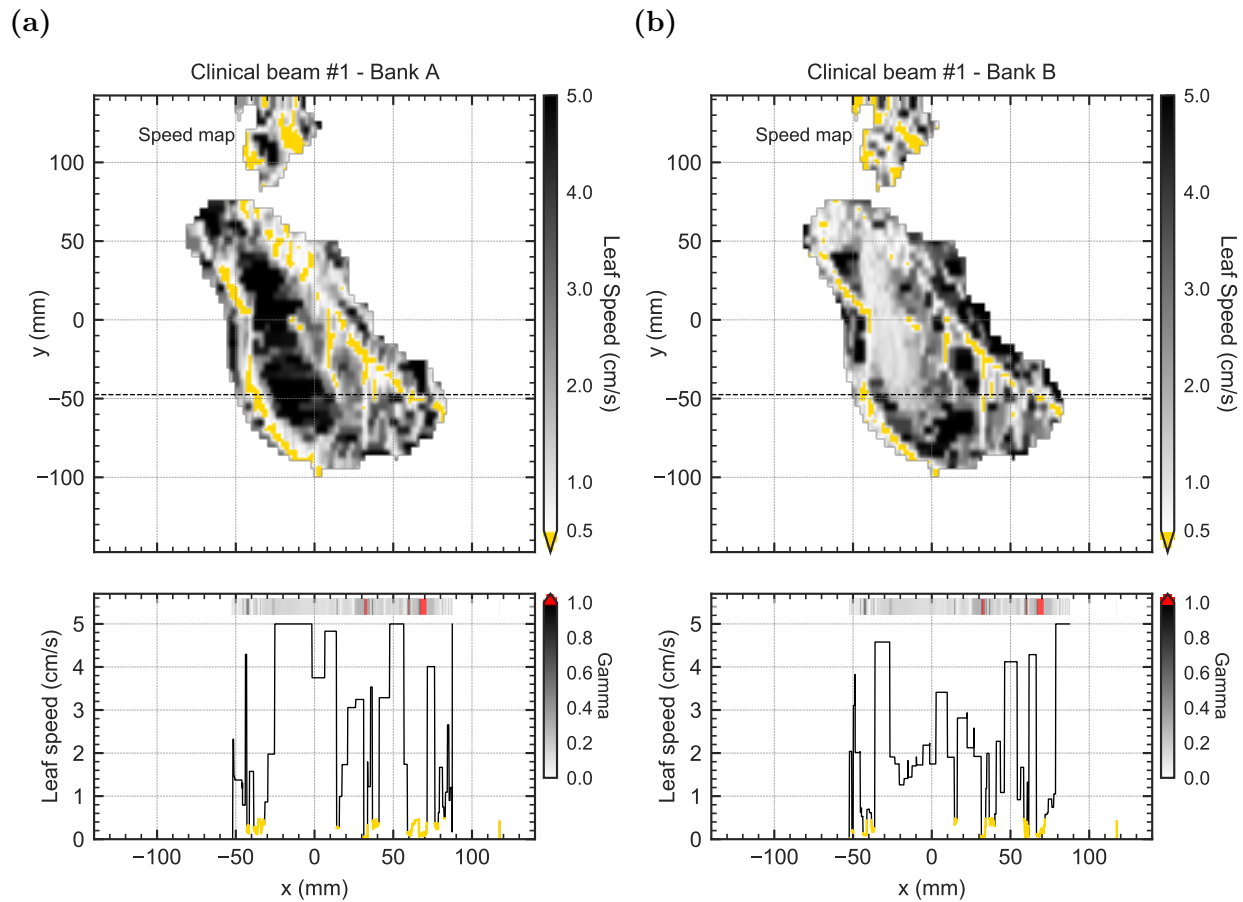


Figure 5: Speed maps $S(x,y)$ indicating the distribution of leaf speeds for the clinical case for each MLC bank, (a) bank A, (b) bank B. The profiles of leaf speeds along the dashed lines in (a) and (b) are plotted below. A 1D representation of the gamma values obtained along the same line is attached to the upper part of the profile plot. Speeds lower than 0.5 cm/s and gamma values greater than 1 are represented in yellow and red, respectively.

292 and the vertical regions of gamma failure either disappeared or became much smaller. The
 293 dose differences with the modified plans were about 3%, much lower than the 10% differences
 294 obtained with the original plans.

295 Similarly, increasing the trailing distance in the clinical case also improved the dose
 296 agreement in the vertical bands, with a reduction from 20% measured for the original plans
 297 to 7% for the modified plans with increased trailing distances. The ladder-like regions of
 298 failure, however, remained unaffected, with cold spots and dose differences of around 20%.
 299 This strategy thus improved the global agreement but was not effective in all the regions of
 300 failure.

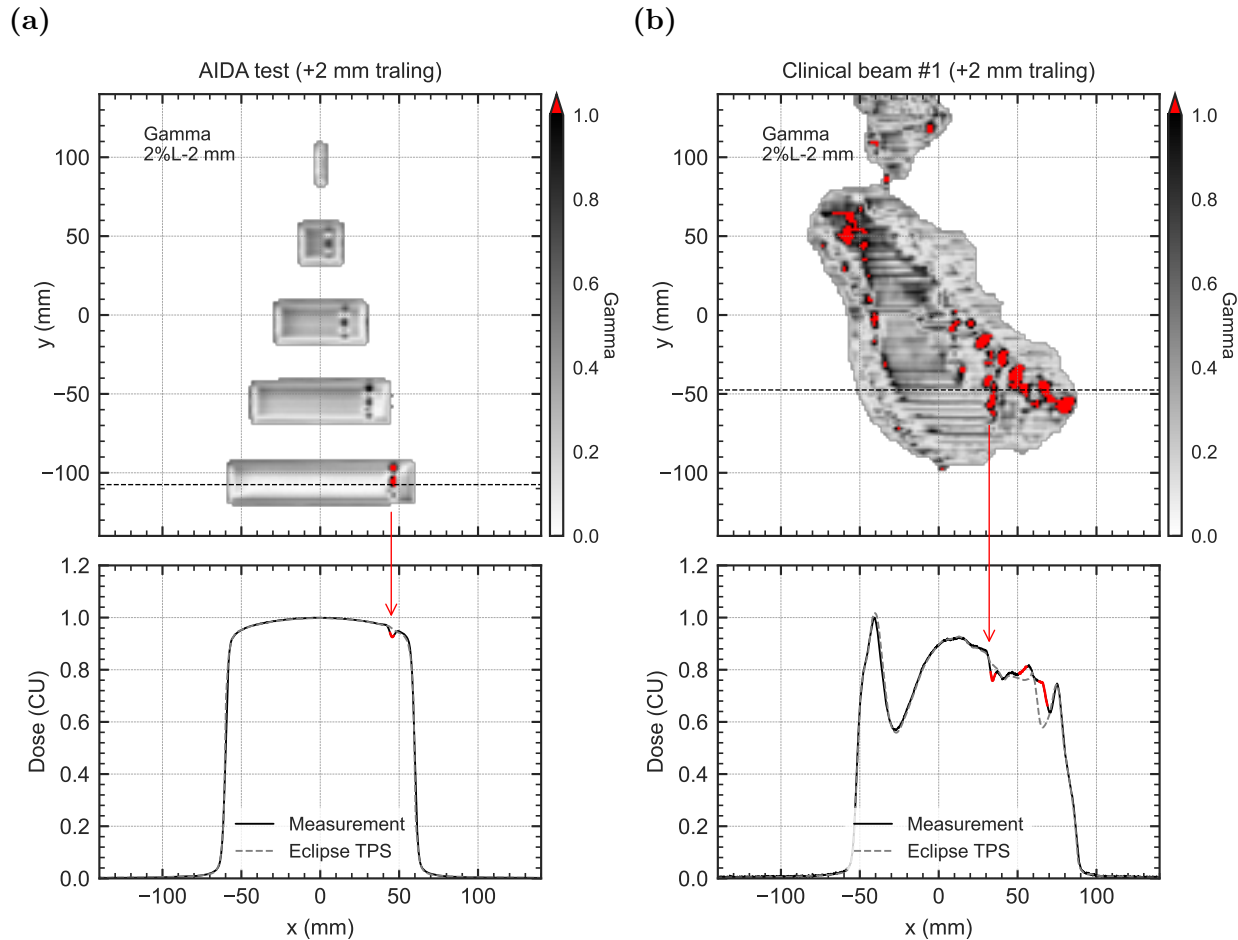


Figure 6: Comparison between Eclipse and the portal dosimetry system for the modified plans with increased trailing distances. Gamma maps (2% local, 2 mm) and dose profiles along the dotted lines are given for (a) the modified AIDA test and (b) the modified clinical case. Red regions indicate gamma values greater than 1.

301 The analysis performed in the previous sections was also applied to the eight additional
 302 clinical beams, which exhibited similar behavior. A complete set of plots for all cases is
 303 provided as Supporting Material, including, for completeness, the two cases presented in the
 304 main manuscript.

305 IV. Discussion

306 Dose discrepancies in test and clinical beams delivered with the Halcyon system caused by
 307 poor modeling of the leaf tip (trailing effect) were reported and analyzed. The discrepancies
 308 were found in dMLC beams with static gantry angles and were clearly detected with EPID

309 and film dosimetry. We did not find any evident discrepancies in VMAT treatments, probably
310 because in VMAT the leaves move faster and perform multiple sweepings across the beam
311 aperture. In VMAT treatments, dose discrepancies in the patient would also smear out
312 during gantry rotation ¹⁸. In dMLC plans, on the contrary, there is no gantry rotation
313 while the beam is on and the leaves move slower and in only one direction, which increases
314 the risk of dose discrepancies accumulating in the same region.

315 To investigate these discrepancies, we focused on a test case (AIDA) and a clinical beam
316 from a breast treatment plan. The comparison of fluence maps computed with different leaf
317 tip models showed differences that replicated the experimental dose differences and gamma
318 maps, thus indicating that limitations in the leaf tip model were responsible for the dose dis-
319 crepancies observed. Additionally, analysis of leaf speeds indicated that these discrepancies
320 took place in regions where the leaves moved slowly (<0.5 cm/s). Low leaf speeds translated
321 into long permanence times and, consequently, the contribution of transmission through the
322 leaf tip accumulated in the same region and resulted in dose discrepancies. We observed
323 two distinct spatial patterns for these dose discrepancies: straight bands perpendicular to
324 the leaf motion direction and ladder shapes formed by several leaf tips from both layers at
325 a similar distance from each other. In both cases, the leaf speeds from both banks were low
326 (high permanence times) in the same positions. In the straight band patterns, the leaves
327 from both layers were almost in the same position, trailing distances were close to zero and
328 cold spots were found (measured doses lower than computed doses). In the ladder patterns,
329 the leaves from each layer were several millimeters apart (trailing distance were also several
330 millimeters) and hot spots were obtained (measured doses higher than computed doses).
331 This was also consistent with the differences expected due to poor modeling of the trailing
332 effect ¹¹.

333 Taking into account the previous observations, we attempted to implement a mitigation
334 strategy with the goal of minimizing dose trailing effects while preserving the leaf tip model
335 in the TPS. We therefore externally modified the RT plans in order to increase the trailing
336 distance of the non-collimating leaves, which could be done without affecting the beam
337 apertures. The agreement of the modified plans greatly improved in the regions of failure
338 with straight bands, whereas it remained unaltered in the regions of failure with ladder
339 patterns. This was due to the fact that, in regions with ladder patterns, both MLC layers
340 defined the beam aperture and all rge leaves acted as collimating leaves, which meant that

341 the trailing distance could not be increased. On the contrary, in the straight band region,
342 only the leaves of one layer acted as collimating leaves and the leaves of the other layer could
343 be retracted and the trailing distance increased without affecting the beam aperture.

344 These discrepancies in clinical plans produced failures in pre-treatment verifications,
345 which made it necessary to replan the treatment by tentatively changing beam orientations,
346 collimator rotation angles, and optimization parameters until the issues were finally resolved.
347 However, this is a time-consuming process that undesirably delays the start of the treatment
348 course. A more efficient workflow would therefore be preferable. As we have shown, an-
349 ticipating these situations is possible through analysis of the plan, i.e., by comparing the
350 fluence maps computed with different MLC models and by direct analysis of leaf speeds.
351 This analysis can be performed either externally (exporting the plan and using dedicated
352 tools) or within the TPS itself (using scripting tools) to flag problematic beams, take early
353 actions and prevent interruptions in the clinical workflow.

354 The detailed and thorough analysis carried out in this study allowed us to identify
355 the causes behind the discrepancies found in pretreatment verifications of dMLC plans.
356 Our results show that the reported dose discrepancies were caused by a combination of
357 two factors: limitations in the MLC model and some peculiar characteristics of certain leaf
358 sequences. Regarding the leaf sequences, it was surprising to observe that some leaves were
359 virtually motionless in regions with a homogeneous fluence, both in clinical beams and the
360 AIDA test. Increasing the trailing distance for non-collimating leaves improved agreement
361 in some regions, but some dose discrepancies persisted because this strategy was ineffective
362 in ladder-like leaf patterns. Another solution is therefore necessary.

363 This problem can be solved in two different ways. First, the leaf sequencer in the TPS
364 (LMC algorithm) can be optimized to avoid very low leaf speeds within the beam aperture.
365 This would greatly help reduce the problem and would be relatively simple to achieve in
366 regions with a homogeneous fluence, especially because there is no limitation in terms of leaf
367 span in the Halcyon system. **Second, a better MLC model could be implemented in the TPS,**
368 **taking into account the dependence of the DLG with the trailing distance, to improve the**
369 **accuracy of dose calculations in all situations.** As shown by Hernandez et al. (2021)¹¹, a more
370 detailed model of the leaf tip is needed to tackle the interplay between leaf tip transmissions
371 from different MLC layers and its dependence on the distance between leaf positions (leaf

372 trailing distance). The plans showing the greatest discrepancies (and failing pre-treatment
373 verifications) were static gantry IMRT plans using the sliding window technique, but we
374 believe that better modeling of these effects in TPSs will also reduce uncertainties in VMAT
375 treatments and improve overall system reliability. This is remarkably important in adaptive
376 radiotherapy treatments, where fewer pre-treatment verifications can be carried out and a
377 high accuracy and reliability of TPS dose calculations are essential.

378 One limitation of this study is that the clinical impact of the discrepancies found was not
379 assessed. The reason is that clinical impact is strongly dependent on each particular case.
380 Dose discrepancies of up to 10-20% were found in individual beams, but clinical plans using
381 the sliding window technique involve multiple beams, which means that dose discrepancies
382 in composite plans will be reduced. The overall impact on a clinical plan will depend on
383 the exact position of these regions and on their projection within the patient's anatomy.
384 Assessing the potential clinical impact of such discrepancies is beyond the scope of this
385 study, but we believe that it should be carefully evaluated in each particular case.

386 V. Conclusions

387 Modeling the double-stacked MLC used in the Halcyon system is challenging due to trans-
388 mission through rounded leaf-ends and the change in this transmission depending on the
389 distance of the leaf positions in each MLC layer. Careful evaluation of clinical plans pro-
390 duced by Eclipse for the Halcyon is therefore recommended, especially for static-gantry
391 IMRT treatments.

392 In this study we reported failures in pre-treatment verifications of sliding window plans
393 and carried out a thorough analysis that linked these discrepancies to limitations in the MLC
394 model and to specific characteristics of leaf sequences. In particular, poor modeling of the
395 leaf tip and very low leaf speeds were identified as the causes of QA failures. Based on these
396 results, strategies to anticipate, mitigate and avoid these failures are proposed. In general,
397 leaf sequences that include trailing distances close to zero and very low leaf speeds should
398 be avoided to reduce dose discrepancies in clinical plans. Better modeling of the leaf tip is
399 also needed. This is particularly important in adaptive radiotherapy treatments, where the

400 accuracy and reliability of TPS dose calculations are of the utmost importance.

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