PAPER • OPEN ACCESS

Cancer risks from head radiography procedures

To cite this article: J. A. Achuka et al 2018 IOP Conf. Ser.: Earth Environ. Sci. 173 012038

View the article online for updates and enhancements.

Related content

- <u>The radiology informed consent form:</u> recommendations from the European Society of Cardiology position paper Clara Carpeggiani and Eugenio Picano
- <u>A Thermoluminescent Radiography</u> Akira Doi, Takashi Kanie and Akira Naruse

 RadRAT: a radiation risk assessment tool for lifetime cancer risk projection
 Amy Berrington de Gonzalez, A Iulian
 Apostoaei, Lene H S Veiga et al.



IOP ebooks[™]

Bringing you innovative digital publishing with leading voices to create your essential collection of books in STEM research.

Start exploring the collection - download the first chapter of every title for free.

Cancer risks from head radiography procedures

Achuka J. A.^{a*}, Aweda M. A.^b, Usikalu M. R.^a

^aDepartment of Physics, Covenant University Ota, Ogun State, Nigeria ^bDepartment of Radiation Biology, Radiotherapy, Radiodiagnosis and Radiography, College of Medicine, Lagos University Teaching Hospital, Idi-Araba, Lagos, Nigeria

justina.achuka@covenantuniversity.edu.ng

Abstract. The goal of this study is to evaluate the risk of cancer induction in head radiography procedures with a view to promote dose optimization and enhance patient safety. Thermoluminescent dosimeter (TLD 100) was used to determine the entrance surface dose (ESD) of 20 patients presented for head radiography in two tertiary healthcare institutions in Southwest Nigeria. The corresponding effective dose and doses to the brain, oral mucosa and salivary gland were evaluated using PCXMC software. Incidence cancer risks were evaluated using BEIR VII model. The total entrance surface dose (ESDT) for mandible, paranasal sinuses and skull radiography ranged between 3.01-19.12 mGy with a mean of 7.52 mGy. The resulting effective dose, brain dose, oral mucosa dose and salivary gland dose has a mean of 0.25 mGy, 2.84 mGy, 3.06 mGy, and 4.97 mGy respectively. The least incidence of cancer risk obtained in this study is 1: 7000. Failure in the adoption of complete optimization technique was responsible for the increased risk. Periodic dose audit and enforcement of radiation protection policy will help to checkmate the lapses and alleviate patient risk.

Keywords: Head radiography, Entrance surface dose, Incidence cancer risk

1. Introduction

Head radiography is used to visualize the cranium, facial bones and jaw bones for fractures. Included under head radiography are skull examinations, mandible examinations and postnasal or paranasal sinuses examinations. The examination is performed to investigate cases such as head injury, head pain, sinus infection, hypertrophy of the adenoids, inflammatory diseases of the sinus cavities, tumors, facial fractures among others [1-3].

In the developed society, higher imaging technique such as computed tomography is employed in the diagnosis of head injuries and diseases. However, in the study environment, plain radiography is the most easily accessible radiodiagnostic tool for head conditions due to its availability and cost effectiveness. The use of plain radiography for diagnosis in place of higher imaging techniques is a common phenomenon in developing countries as reported in literature [1-2, 4-5].

During head radiography procedures 2-3 views are projected thus, making the radiation dose delivered to patients to increase. Imaging of the head exposes several organs located in the head region to the risks of ionizing radiation. Cancer induction in low dose radiation cannot be overruled. Even, microwave radiation is known to induce DNA damage, produce chromosomal aberration, histological changes, genotoxic effects and others in tissues of exposed rats [6-9]. It is based on this fact that this

study was embarked upon in order to estimate the risks of cancer induction in head radiography with a view to promote dose optimization and enhance patient safety.

2. Materials and Methods

This study was conducted in the radiology departments of two tertiary healthcare institutions in Southwest Nigeria, designated as centre E and centre F. A total of 10 adult human subjects who visited the x-ray unit for head radiography were selected in each centre. The study was conducted for a period of one month. Consent was obtained from each patient before the commencement of the examination. Institutional consent was also obtained from each of the hospital used and also from the Nigerian Institute of Medical Research (NIMR). Thermoluminiscent dosimeter (TLD-100: LiF: Mg, Ti) chips were used to obtain the entrance surface dose (ESD) during the procedure. The TLD chips were obtained from RadPro International GmbH, Poland. The chips were oven-annealed according to specification using Carbolite oven made in England. Irradiation was conducted at the Secondary Standard Dosimetry Laboratory (SSDL) of the National Institute of Radiation Protection and Research (NIRPR), Ibadan. Calibration of TLD chips and reader were conducted and TLD signal was read using Harshaw Reader (Model 3500) at the Department of Physics, Obafemi Awolowo University Ile-Ife. Each of the TLD was enclosed in labelled black polythene pack. A total of three coded chips were used to measure the entrance surface dose (ESD) of each projection view during each head procedure in order to obtain the mean and enhance precision. The chips were attached to an elastic tape and placed in the primary beam of x-rays where the beam intercepted with the irradiated part of the patient.

The quality control of the x-ray machines were conducted using MagicMax quality control kits (IBA Dosimetry, Germany). Patient's clinical information and exposure parameters were noted and recorded using self-structured form. The effective dose, brain dose, oral mucosa dose and salivary gland dose was evaluated from the measured entrance surface dose (ESD) using PCXMC software (version 20Rotation). Thereafter, BEIR VII model was used to estimate the incidence cancer risk. Statistical analysis was done using SPSS (Version 23).

3. Results and Discussion

Twenty (20) adult human subjects underwent head radiography under three (3) different examinations; mandible (6), paranasal sinuses (6) and skull (8). The total entrance surface dose (ESDT) delivered to each patient; the corresponding effective doses; brain dose; oral mucosa dose; salivary gland dose; incidence cancer risks and the patients' indices are presented in Table 1. Descriptive analysis of parameters in Table 1 is presented in Table 2. Analysis of variance for entrance surface dose for each projection is presented in Table 3. Table 4 displayed the coefficients of predictors and Table 5 revealed the Pearson correlation. Figures 1, 2, and 3 compares the exposure parameters and entrance surface dose between the two hospitals for mandible, paranasal sinuses and skull examinations respectively. Figure 5 compares the entrance surface dose from this study with international standards. Sample of radiographs of three views is depicted in Figure 4.

Patient dose assessment is encouraged worldwide due to increased knowledge of the health effects of ionizing radiation. High dose implies high risks. The total entrance surface dose (ESDT) for this study ranges from 3.01-19.12 mGy with a mean of 7.52 mGy. The resulting effective dose varies from 0.09-0.70 mSv with a mean of 0.25 mSv. Total dose to the brain; oral mucosa; and salivary gland ranges from 1.01-7.77 mGy; 1.02-9.03 mGy; and 1.82-13.46 mGy respectively in ascending order of dose. The order of organ dose increase is similar to that reported for Head LAT by [10]. The least incidence cancer risk is about 14 per 100,000 (1:7000); this is considered a low risk and the highest incidence cancer risk is about 156 per 100,000; this is categorized as moderate risk [10]. Large variation in radiation dose values as recorded in this study is well documented in literature [11-14].

IOP Conf. Series: Earth and Environmental Science **173** (2018) 012038

doi:10.1088/1755-1315/173/1/012038

| Centre | Examination | No of | Age s | Sov | x BMI | ESD _T | ED | BD | OMD | SGD | ICR |
|--------|-------------|-------|-------|-----|-------|------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| Centre | Examination | views | (y) | ыл | | (mGy) | (mSv) | (mGy) | (mGy) | (mGy) | |
| E1 | Mandible | 3 | 20 | F | 24.22 | 9.48 | 0.35 | 3.88 | 4.24 | 6.60 | 156.04 |
| E2 | Mandible | 3 | 33 | F | 25.39 | 10.25 | 0.36 | 4.11 | 4.44 | 6.94 | 99.24 |
| E3 | Mandible | 3 | 41 | F | 28.13 | 10.30 | 0.35 | 3.88 | 3.98 | 6.61 | 89.03 |
| E4 | PNS | 3 | 54 | Μ | 24.38 | 18.7 | 0.65 | 7.28 | 7.78 | 12.52 | 102.33 |
| E5 | PNS | 3 | 60 | Μ | 26.18 | 19.12 | 0.64 | 7.03 | 6.96 | 11.80 | 93.50 |
| E6 | PNS | 3 | 47 | Μ | 21.51 | 18.84 | 0.70 | 7.77 | 9.03 | 13.46 | 118.45 |
| E7 | Skull | 2 | 65 | Μ | 27.97 | 3.69 | 0.11 | 1.25 | 1.25 | 2.23 | 13.63 |
| E8 | Skull | 2 | 49 | Μ | 25.46 | 3.08 | 0.10 | 1.11 | 1.12 | 1.95 | 18.57 |
| E9 | Skull | 2 | 55 | F | 29.69 | 3.22 | 0.10 | 1.12 | 1.16 | 1.97 | 21.66 |
| E10 | Skull | 2 | 19 | F | 21.48 | 3.34 | 0.12 | 1.38 | 1.68 | 2.70 | 57.87 |
| F1 | Mandible | 3 | 24 | Μ | 22.59 | 4.81 | 0.16 | 1.80 | 2.04 | 3.18 | 39.16 |
| F2 | Mandible | 3 | 56 | F | 28.91 | 4.99 | 0.15 | 1.70 | 1.76 | 3.01 | 31.33 |
| F3 | Mandible | 3 | 36 | Μ | 20.08 | 3.86 | 0.14 | 1.55 | 1.78 | 3.14 | 27.79 |
| F4 | PNS | 3 | 65 | Μ | 25.10 | 8.01 | 0.25 | 2.74 | 2.76 | 5.02 | 29.59 |
| F5 | PNS | 3 | 50 | Μ | 23.67 | 7.88 | 0.26 | 2.93 | 3.42 | 4.97 | 46.57 |
| F6 | PNS | 2 | 52 | F | 29.69 | 8.03 | 0.24 | 2.59 | 2.68 | 4.69 | 57.14 |
| F7 | Skull | 2 | 38 | F | 27.34 | 3.08 | 0.09 | 1.05 | 1.06 | 1.93 | 28.73 |
| F8 | Skull | 2 | 41 | Μ | 27.97 | 3.06 | 0.09 | 1.01 | 1.02 | 1.82 | 19.35 |
| F9 | Skull | 2 | 21 | F | 20.70 | 3.01 | 0.10 | 1.16 | 1.40 | 2.35 | 47.19 |
| F10 | Skull | 2 | 43 | М | 23.83 | 3.73 | 0.13 | 1.44 | 1.66 | 2.54 | 22.48 |

Table 1: Distribution of radiation doses and the associated incidence cancer risk from head radiography

BMI = body mass index; ESDT = Total entrance surface dose; ED = effective dose; BD = brain dose; OMD = oral mucosa dose; SGD = Salivary gland dose; ICR = incidence cancer risk

Radiation risk models are a function of patient dose and age at exposure. Also, exposure parameters are key factors that determine the patient dose. It is therefore important that these factors are considered during irradiation of patients. The impact of exposure parameters to entrance (ESD) in this study is significant as shown in Table 3 and 4. Literature has shown that the use of appropriate exposure parameters is a means of dose reduction strategy [11, 15]. It is evidenced in this study that the choice of appropriate exposure parameters was responsible for the low ESD recorded in centre F. This implies that the implementation of appropriate dose reduction methods are more pronounced in centre F compared to centre E as shown in Figures 1, 2 and 3. This gap might be attributable to the fact that centre F has more trained professionals compared to centre E. Ultimately, there will be a higher incidence cancer risks accrue to patients who underwent head radiography in centre E. Training on optimization of dose and procedures is essential in centre E. This will help to improve the dose outcome and minimize risk to patient.

Though low ESD enhances minimal risks, the influence of age factor to incidence cancer risks should not be compromised. According to the risk models, age at exposure is proportional to risks [10, 16]. But age grouping by the world standards in radiology considers age 16 and above as adults [12, 17]. This implies using the same exposure parameters for all adults; the outcome will be higher risk to young adults compared to older adults. It is important that the adult age bracket should be revisited such that exposure parameters will be age dependent within the adult age bracket just as we have for paediatrics. This will enhance low risk to young adults. At centre F, though the ESD is low but the age at exposure increased the incidence cancer risk for younger patients. Same was also observed in centre E for patients with low ESD and young in age.

| | | Age | ESD _T | ED | BD | OMD | SGD | ICR |
|---------------|------------|--------|------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|
| Ν | Valid | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mean | | 43.45 | 7.52 | .25 | 2.84 | 3.06 | 4.97 | 55.98 |
| Median | | 45.00 | 4.90 | .16 | 1.75 | 1.91 | 3.16 | 42.87 |
| Std. Deviati | on | 14.51 | 5.52 | .20 | 2.19 | 2.38 | 3.69 | 40.12 |
| Variance | | 210.58 | 30.48 | .04 | 4.81 | 5.66 | 13.59 | 1608.64 |
| Skewness | | 336 | 1.302 | 1.350 | 1.352 | 1.435 | 1.376 | 1.067 |
| Std. Error of | f Skewness | .512 | .512 | .512 | .512 | .512 | .512 | .512 |
| Kurtosis | | 863 | .593 | .711 | .707 | 1.196 | .841 | .327 |
| Std. Error of | f Kurtosis | .992 | .992 | .992 | .992 | .992 | .992 | .992 |
| Range | | 46.00 | 16.11 | .61 | 6.76 | 8.01 | 11.64 | 142.41 |
| Minimum | | 19.00 | 3.01 | .09 | 1.01 | 1.02 | 1.82 | 13.63 |
| Maximum | | 65.00 | 19.12 | .70 | 7.77 | 9.03 | 13.46 | 156.04 |
| Percentiles | 25 | 33.75 | 3.25 | .10 | 1.18 | 1.29 | 2.26 | 23.81 |
| | 50 | 45.00 | 4.90 | .16 | 1.75 | 1.91 | 3.16 | 42.87 |
| | 75 | 54.75 | 10.06 | .35 | 3.88 | 4.18 | 6.61 | 92.38 |

Table 2: Statistical analysis of radiation doses and incidence cancer risks

 $\overline{\text{ESDT}}$ = Total entrance surface dose; $\overline{\text{ED}}$ = effective dose; $\overline{\text{BD}}$ = brain dose; $\overline{\text{OMD}}$ = oral mucosa dose; $\overline{\text{SGD}}$ = Salivary gland dose; $\overline{\text{ICR}}$ = incidence cancer risk





IOP Conf. Series: Earth and Environmental Science 173 (2018) 012038 doi:1

doi:10.1088/1755-1315/173/1/012038



Figure 2: Comparison of exposure parameters for PNS examination in the two centres



Figure 3: Comparison of exposure parameters for Skull examination in the two centres

doi:10.1088/1755-1315/173/1/012038



(b) (c) (a) Figure 4: Radiographs of head examination: (a) lateral (LAT) view (b) occipitomental view (OMV) (c) posterior-anterior (PA) view



Figure 5: Comparison of entrance surface dose for skull with other studies

| Table 5: Analysis of variance for entrance surface dose | | | | | | | | | |
|---|------------|----------------|----|-------------|--------|------------|--|--|--|
| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | | | |
| 1 | Regression | 169.203 | 5 | 33.841 | 41.639 | $.000^{b}$ | | | |
| | Residual | 37.385 | 46 | .813 | | | | | |
| | Total | 206.588 | 51 | | | | | | |

| Table 3: Analysis | of variance | for entrance | surface dose |
|-------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
|-------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|

IOP Conf. Series: Earth and Environmental Science **173** (2018) 012038 doi:10.1088/1755-1315/173/1/012038

| | | | Unstandardized Coefficients | Standardized Coefficients | | |
|---|------------|-------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--------|------|
| | Model | В | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. |
| 1 | (Constant) | 7.257 | 2.322 | | 3.125 | .003 |
| | BMI | 051 | .045 | 074 | -1.138 | .261 |
| | kVp | 023 | .021 | 111 | -1.072 | .289 |
| | mAs | .114 | .020 | .641 | 5.678 | .000 |
| | FFD | .125 | .049 | .446 | 2.575 | .013 |
| | FSD | 212 | .049 | 823 | -4.368 | .000 |

| Table 4: N | Model summarv | showing | coefficients | of predictors |
|-------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|
| 1 4010 11 1 | | DIIO WIII S | e o e menemes | or preaterors |

 Table 5: Pearson Correlation showing correlation between variables

| | | ESD | BMI | kVp | mAs | FFD | FSD |
|-------------|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Pearson | ESD | 1.000 | 063 | .613 | .828 | 575 | 739 |
| Correlation | BMI | 063 | 1.000 | .120 | .053 | .163 | .100 |
| | kVp | .613 | .120 | 1.000 | .790 | 365 | 472 |
| | mAs | .828 | .053 | .790 | 1.000 | 450 | 582 |
| | FFD | 575 | .163 | 365 | 450 | 1.000 | .924 |
| | FSD | 739 | .100 | 472 | 582 | .924 | 1.000 |

 $\overline{\text{ESD}}$ = entrance surface dose; $\overline{\text{BMI}}$ = body mass index; kVp = kilo-voltage peak; current time product; $\overline{\text{FFD}}$ = focus film distance; $\overline{\text{FSD}}$ = focus skin distance

Though skull radiography is considered out dated [5], comparison with other studies as depicted in Figure 5 showed that it is still relevant in similar society such as ours. The entrance surface (ESD) for skull examination for this study was lower compared to others because the mean ESD was used while other studies used the third quartile. Also, large variation in ESD is bound to occur due to different methods employed in its evaluation. The importance of head radiography in diagnosis of injuries and diseases cannot be over emphasized especially in an environment where higher imaging equipment for such examination is scarce. The relevance of head radiography in a developing society cannot be neglected in view of its availability and accessibility for skull imaging, it is important that the procedure is evaluated in order to minimize risk to patient.

4. Conclusion

Incidence cancer risk was evaluated in head radiography procedures. Entrance surface dose (ESD), age at exposure, professional expertise and choice of exposure parameters were factors that influenced the incidence cancer risks. Failure in the adoption of complete optimization technique was responsible for the increased risk. It is important that age of adults and dose reduction strategies are considered during irradiation of patients. This will enhance optimization of dose and minimize radiation risk to patients.

5. Acknowledgment

The authors are grateful to the Center for Research, Innovation and Discovery (CUCRID), Covenant University Ota, Nigeria for sponsoring this research. Special thanks to all the Radiographers, Radiologists and the healthcare institution used for this study.

References

- Cantalupo B.L.V.C., Xavier A.C.S., Silva C.M.L., Andrade M.E.A., Barros V.S.M., Khoury H.J. (2016). Dosimetric evaluation of x-ray examinations of paranasal sinuses in pediatric patients. Radiologia Brazileira, 49 (2): 79-85.
- [2] Kolo E.S., Salisu A.D., Tabari A.M., Dahilo E.A., Aluko A.A. (2010). Plain radiographic

IOP Conf. Series: Earth and Environmental Science 173 (2018) 012038 doi:10.1088/1755-1315/173/1/012038

evaluation of the nasopharynx: do raters agree? International Journal of Pediatric Otorhinolaryngology, 74 (5): 532-534.

- [3] American Society of Radiologic Technologists (ASRT, 2009). Skull radiography. American Society of Radiologic Technologists, Albuquerque. www.asrt.org.
- [4] Adedeji T.O., Amusa Y.B., Aremu A.A. (2016). Correlation between adenoidal nasopharyngeal ratio and symptoms of enlarged adenoids in children with adenoidal hypertrophy. African Journal of Paediatric Surgery, 13 (1): 14-19.
- [5] Hitesh C., Malhotra R., Yadav R.K., Griwan M., Paliwal P.K., Aggarwal A.D. (2015). Diagnostic utility of conventional radiography in head injury. Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research, 9 (6): TC 13-TC 15.
- [6] Usikalu M.R., Aweda M.A., Alimba C.G., Achuka J.A. (2016). Chromosomal aberration after exposure to 2.45 Ghz microwave radiation. Research Journal of Applied Sciences, 11(5): 232-234.
- [7] Usikalu M.R., Obembe O.O., Akinyemi M.L., Zhu J. (2013). Short duration exposure to 2.45 Ghz microwave radiation induces DNA damage in Sprague Dawley rat's reproduction systems. African Journal of Biotechnology, 12 (2): 115-122.
- [8] Usikalu M.R., Rotimi S.O., Oguegbu A.E. (2012). Effect of exposure of 900 MHz radiofrequency radiation on rat brain. European Journal of Experimental Biology, 2 (6): 2499-2504.
- [9] Tice R.R., Hook G.G., Donner M., McRee D.I., Guy A.W. (2002). Genotoxicity of radiofrequency signals: Investigation of DNA damage and micronuclei induction in cultured human blood cells. Bioelectromagnetics, 23: 113-126.
- [10] Wall B.F., Haylock R., Jansen J.T.M., Hillier M.C., Hart D., Shrimpton P.C. (2011). Radiation risks from medical x-ray examinations as a function of the age and sex of the patient. Health Protection Agency, HPA-CRCE-028: 1-70.
- [11] Alzimami K., Sulieman A., Babikir E., Alsafid K., Alkhorayef M. and Omer H. (2015). Estimation of effective dose during hysterosalpingography procedures in certain hospital in Sudan. Applied Radiation and Isotopes, 100: 2-6.
- [12] European Commission (EC, 2014). Diagnostic reference levels in thirty six European Countries. Radiation Protection No 180. Luxembourg, European Union.
- [13] Abdelhalim M.A.K. (2011). Diagnostic radiographic examinations in Saudi Arabia based on thermoluminescent dosimetery. African Journal of Biotechnology, 10 (48): 9817-9823.
- [14] International Atomic Energy Agency, Applying radiation safety standards in diagnostic radiology and interventional procedures using x-rays, Safety standards series No. 39, IAEA, Vienna, (2006).
- [15] Gholami M., Maziar A., Khosravi H.R., Ebrahimzadeh F., Mayahi S. (2015). Diagnostic reference levels (DRLs) for routine x-ray examinations in Lorestan province, Iran. International Journal of Radiation Research, 13 (1): 85-90.
- [16] Biological Effects of Ionizing Radiation (BEIR VII, 2006). Health risks from exposure to low level of ionizing radiation. National Research Council BEIR VII Phase, National Academies, Washington D.C.
- [17] United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR, 2008). Sources and effects of ionizing radiation, Report to the General Assembly with scientific annexes.