Appendices Appendix 1: Basic knowledge related to x-rays

1.1. The physics of x-rays

X-rays are wave-like forms of electromagnetic energy that are carried by photons. They are characterized by a wavelength comprised of between 0.03 nm and 10 nm, which means they fall between gamma radiation and ultraviolet light on the electromagnetic spectrum. The energy associated with X-ray is usually measured in electro-volts (eV). The shorter the wavelength of an electromagnetic wave is, the higher the energy of the associated photons. For example, visible light photons have an energy of around 2eV, while X-ray photons have energies between 30 to 150keV.¹

X-rays are classified as ionizing radiation, meaning they have the potential to interact with biological matter when they collide with it, altering its molecular bonds and producing ionisations. The process of ionisation (in which an electron is given enough energy to break away from an atom) releases energy that can damage living tissues.

There are three possible outcomes when X-rays encounter matter (Figure A1):²

- Transmission: once the X-ray beam hits an object it passes through it without any interaction, keeping the same direction and energy.
- Diffusion/Scattering: upon hitting the object, X-rays are reflected in different directions, without energy transfer, or with partial transfer of energy and induction of ionisation – a phenomenon known as the Compton effect.
- \blacksquare Absorption: the energy associated with X-ray is absorbed upon passing through an object, induction atomic ionisation – this is known as the photoelectric effect.

The production of images for medical applications is dependent on the Compton and Photoelectric effect of X-rays, which relies on ionisation and, therefore, has the potential to cause biological damage.

Figure A1: Main mechanisms of interaction between X-rays and matter.

1.2. X-ray production and image generation

X-ray generators (Figure A2) used in endovascular operating rooms rely on an electric current (characterized by a potential (kV)) to accelerate and induce electron collision on an anode. As much as 99% of the current's energy is transformed into heat, explaining the need for cooling systems in imaging equipment. The remaining 1% of energy is used to generate an X-ray beam that exits the X-ray tube.³

Figure A2: Example of an X-ray generator; electrons are accelerated (blue arrow) and collided on an anode (blue structure). Most of the energy is released in the form of heat, the remaining 1% forms X-rays.

The X-ray beam released travels through the operating table and the patient. Part of the beam is redirected in random directions due to the Compton effect, which accounts for scattered radiation. A proportion of the beam crosses the patient, with part of its energy being absorbed (photoelectric effect) before reaching the detector. The differences in the amount of X-ray absorbed as it passes through the body results in variable attenuation and, therefore, heterogeneous intensity of the X-rays leaving the body. Production of radiological images is ren this phenomenon.

The beam generated by X-ray machines is composed of X-rays carrying various energies (Figure A3). "Soft" X-rays carry low energy photons and are rapidly stopped by matter (absorption), they will mostly induce ionisation and are not useful for producing images.³ "Hard" X-rays with high energy photons cross biological matter with minimal interaction also does not generate a radiological image. The "intermediate" X-rays, however, carry enough energy to allow part of the beam to cross the matter and reach the detector and the rest to be absorbed. This is the fraction of the X-ray beam that will produce images.

Figure A3: Differences between the X-rays produced in a generator and their role in producing an image.

Spectral filters, usually made of aluminium or copper, are positioned at the exit of the X-ray generator tube and used to stop or attenuate the low energy "soft" X-rays. Without this, the image generated by the X-ray machine would be blurred.

The filtered X-ray beam directed towards the body crosses structures that have different densities. Once the uniform X-rays enters the patient, the range of densities of the structures it crosses results in a range of attenuation, thus transforming it into a heterogenous beam,⁴ that is registered as a characteristic image via the detectors (Figure A4).

Figure A4: Image formation from the different densities of the structures crossed by the X-ray beam.

Appendix 2: Radiation exposures reported for endovascular procedures

Table A1: Literature review of published dose reports after EVAR between 2016 and 2022. Results are reported in means with standard deviation (SD) or (*) in median with range, or interquartile range (IQR) if stated. ¤, Dose measurement above the lead protections; *I*, Dose to the anaesthesiologists; \# . ALARA : As Low As reasonably Achievable; KAP: Kerma-Area Product; CAK: Cumulative Air-kerma; CEUS: Contrast-Enhanced UltraSound; EVAR: Endovascular Aortic aneurysm Repair; EVAS: Endovascular Aortic aneurysm Sealing.

Table A2: Literature review of published dose reports after fenestrated or branched endovascular aortic aneurysm repair (F/BEVAR) between 2016 and 2022. Results are reported in means with standard deviation (SD) or (*) in median with range, or interquartile range (IQR) if stated. ¤, Dose measurement above the lead protections; ǂ, Dose to the anaesthesiologists. ALARA: As Low As reasonably Achievable; KAP: Kerma-Area Product; CAK: Cumulative Air-kerma.

Table A3: Literature review of published dose reports after endovascular repair of lower extremities arterial disease between 2016 and 2020. Results are reported in means with standard deviation (SD) or (*) in median with range, or interquartile range (IQR) if stated. ¤, Dose measurement above the lead protections. ALARA: As Low As reasonably Achievable; KAP: Kerma-Area Product; CAK: Cumulative Air-kerma.

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