

# Projected Future Cancer Risks in Children Treated With Fluoroscopy-Guided Cardiac Catheterization Procedures

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#### 1 Potential long term cancer risks in children treated with fluoroscopy-guided cardiac

#### 2 catheterization procedures

- 3 Running title: Lifetime cancer risks after cardiac catheterization procedures in childhood
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#### 29 ABSTRACT

Background: Cardiac catheterization procedures (CCPs) are increasingly performed in children
with congenital heart diseases who have now a long life expectancy and consequently potential
long term radiation-induced risks. We evaluated organ equivalent radiation doses and projected
Lifetime Attributable Risks (LARs) of cancer incidence from the most frequent procedures in
pediatrics: atrial septal defect (ASD) closure, patent ductus arteriosus (PDA) occlusion or
pulmonary valvuloplasty.

Methods: Organ equivalent doses were individually estimated for 1251 procedures performed in
children aged ≤15 years at two reference catheterization centers in France in 2009-2013, based
on medical records and exposure scenarios. Gender-specific LARs were projected using the
RadRAT software which incorporates extended BEIR VII risk models, various sources of risk
projection uncertainties and dose variability. Survival probabilities and baseline cancer risks
were those of lifelong non-smokers with no reduced life expectancy due to congenital cardiac
diseases.

Results: Median equivalent doses were 1-4 mSv (ASD closure), 8-17 mSv (PDA occlusion), and 10 mSv (pulmonary valvuloplasty) to both the lungs and breasts depending on patient age, and ≤10 mSv to other organs. There was a large individual variability, even for a given CCP type and patient age group. Median LARs ranged between 0.3 and 1.4 (ASD closure), 0.6 and 5.0 (PDA occlusion), and 1.0 and 12.0 (pulmonary valvuloplasty) per 1000 procedures, depending on patient gender and age at treatment. These excess risks from CCP radiation exposure would represent 0.4% to 6.0% of children' total lifetime cancer risk. For the 10% of procedures (all 50 types combined) with highest exposures, LARs reached 4.2 per 1000 [95% Uncertainty Interval

51 (UI): 0.8-13.1] in boys and 22.2 per 1000 (95% UI: 7.4-45.6) in girls. In boys, lung cancer

52 accounted for 70-80% of the projected LARs whereas in girls it accounted for 20-60% and breast

- cancer for 30-80% of the excess risks, depending on the CCP type and patient age.
- 54 Conclusion: There was a large individual variability in radiation exposure which may lead to

substantial organ equivalent doses and increased cancer risks in some cases. This suggests the

56 need for dose reporting in clinical practice to support recommendations for long term

57 surveillance and prevention strategies.

#### 59 **INTRODUCTION**

Congenital heart diseases (CHDs) are the most frequent birth defects, accounting for 9 per 1000 live births worldwide<sup>1, 2</sup>. Progresses in cardiac catheterization procedures (CCPs) over the past years have considerably increased the range of treatable defects and contributed in reducing infant and child mortality associated with CHDs<sup>3, 4</sup>. The longer life expectancy (which was estimated to reach 75 years in Canada in 2005<sup>4</sup>) has thus increased the number of CHD survivors and made long-term disease management and potential adverse effects of treatments an important clinical issue<sup>5</sup>.

Fluoroscopy used during CCPs to obtain hemodynamic images of the circulatory system is 67 typically associated with effective radiation doses ranging from 3 to 15 mSv, and can result in 68 organ equivalent doses exceeding 50 mSv for some complex procedures<sup>6, 7</sup>. At those dose levels, 69 the risk of radiation induced effects is to be considered, all the more so because children are 70 particularly sensitive to ionizing radiation<sup>8</sup> and, as mentioned above, many of those born with 71 CHD have now a long life expectancy<sup>4</sup>. The only two epidemiological studies to date that have 72 reported cancer risks in patients receiving CCPs found opposite results, but they involved very 73 small numbers of cases (N=13 in Canada<sup>9</sup>, 11 in Israel<sup>10</sup>) and had no dosimetry<sup>9, 10</sup>. Other cohort 74 studies are currently set-up in France<sup>11</sup> and in the United Kingdom (UK)<sup>7</sup> with inclusion of large 75 populations, collection of detailed treatment data and estimation of individual radiation doses to 76 palliate the limitations of previous studies. Considering that radiation-related cancers may have 77 latency times up to 20-25 years after exposures<sup>12</sup> and that tumors at the most exposed organs 78 (e.g. breasts, lungs and stomach) are mainly diagnosed after the age of 40 years, it is nevertheless 79 unlikely to observe excess risks before decades of follow-up after CCPs in children. In the 80

meanwhile, the use of existent biological and epidemiological knowledge on the effects of
radiation exposures allows projecting risks (with numerical simulations) and informing on
potential future cancer risks CHD survivors would face in adolescence and adulthood<sup>13</sup>.

The aim of the article is to project lifetime excess cancer risks for children who underwent an atrial septal defect (ASD) closure, a patent ductus arteriosus (PDA) occlusion or a pulmonary valvuloplasty (which are the most common pediatric CCPs), based on estimates of radiation doses to organs located within or outside the irradiation field in routine practice in pediatrics.

#### 88 METHODS

#### 89 **Study population**

The study included all children aged 15 years or less who underwent ASD closure, PDA 90 occlusion or pulmonary valvuloplasty between 2009 and 2013 in two reference pediatric cardiac 91 92 catheterization centers in France (APHP-Necker pediatric hospital in Paris and Marie 93 Lannelongue hospital in Le Plessis-Robinson). The included children were all participants of the 94 *Coccinelle* cohort study which aims at investigating the long-term incidence of leukemia and solid cancers among children treated in France with a CCP<sup>11</sup>. Exclusions consisted in children 95 with missing mandatory information to assess radiation doses or belonging to a non-96 representative exposure scenario group (see below). The study was approved by the French 97 National Agency regulating Data Protection [Commission Nationale Informatique et Liberté] 98 (CNIL agreement no. 911112, published on 12 December 2011). 99

#### 100 Radiation exposure scenarios and equivalent organ doses

101 Exposure scenarios were defined based on individual patient data and radiological parameters 102 routinely used in the participating hospitals. From medical records, we extracted the following information: patient's age and weight, type of procedure (ASD, PDA, pulmonary valvuloplasty) 103 104 and Kerma Area Product ( $P_{KA}$ ) (Table 1). Routine radiological parameters (x-ray beam orientation, field size, tube voltage, additional copper filtration) were collected in each hospital 105 106 based on direct observation of practices in the hospitals and the experience of the cardiologists. Exposure scenarios were subsequently defined for each patient weight group, type of procedure 107 and hospital, as shown in Appendix A (Table S1). CCPs were performed on a dual-arm Siemens 108 109 Axiom Artis BC equipped with 23 cm image intensifiers at Necker hospital, and on a dual-arm 110 Siemens Axiom Artis DBC equipped with 20 cm flat panels at Marie-Lannelongue hospital. For each exposure scenario, we estimated organ equivalent dose per unit  $P_{KA}$  (mSv/Gy.cm<sup>2</sup>) for each 111 procedure using PCXMC 2.0 (©STUK 2008, Finland). This dosimetry system dedicated to 112 calculation of patient doses in medical x-ray examinations (radiography and fluoroscopy) 113 integrates Monte Carlo particles transport simulation and idealized mathematical human 114 phantoms representing individuals of age (weight) 0 (3.4 kg), 1 (9.2 kg), 5 (19.0 kg), 10 (32.4 115 kg) and 15 (56.3 kg) years. Organ equivalent and effective doses were then calculated for each 116 117 patient by linear interpolation between the two nearest phantoms in terms of weight and multiplication of the conversion factors by the PKA of the procedure. Doses to parallel organs 118 (breasts, lungs) were averaged for the two organs. Procedures with missing information on P<sub>KA</sub> 119 120 or patient age were excluded. When information on weight was missing (15% of the procedures), a weight category was assigned according to the patient's age (<1 year: 0 to 6.5 kg, 1-4.9 years: 121 >6.5 to 14.5 kg, 5 to 9.9 years: >14.5 to 25.5 kg, 10 to 15.9 years: >25.5 to 43.5 kg)<sup>14</sup>. Exposure 122

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124

scenarios were defined only for common procedures in pediatrics. Subsequently, ASD occlusion at age <1 year and pulmonary valvuloplasty at age  $\geq 5$  years were not considered.

#### 125 Estimation of baseline all-cause mortality and cancer risks in CHD survivors

Previous studies reported very low mortality rates from CHD (in particular, ASD, PDA and 126 pulmonary artery stenosis) in individuals who survived beyond the age of 1 year <sup>15, 16</sup>. We thus 127 assumed a life expectancy comparable to that of the general population in children alive at age 1. 128 While all-cause mortality, baseline and radiation-induced cancer risks depends on smoking 129 behaviors, we nevertheless had to account for the presumably less frequent smoking history of 130 CHD survivors as compared to the general population. Without information on smoking 131 behaviors in CHD survivors in France, we projected cancer risks for lifelong non-smokers only. 132 133 We estimated baseline (i.e. in the absence of radiation exposure from CCP) age- and genderspecific survival probabilities in lifelong non-smokers based on the 2010-2012 life tables for the 134 French (mainland) general population published by the National Institute for Demographic 135 Studies<sup>17</sup>, where we deducted the proportion of all-cause deaths attributable to smoking. The 136 attributable fraction of all-cause mortality to smoking was derived from a previous report of 137 tobacco-attributable mortality in France<sup>18</sup> and national statistics of all-causes deaths<sup>19</sup>. Baseline 138 incidence rates of lung cancer in lifelong non-smokers were extracted from a pooled study of 139 eight cohorts in European descents<sup>20</sup>. For the other cancer sites, we calculated theoretical 140 incidence rates in never-smokers by deducting the site-specific attributable fraction to smoking 141 from the 2012 incidence rates in the French general population<sup>21</sup>. Attributable fractions of cancer 142 incidence to smoking were derived from tobacco-related risks published in the literature and age-143 144 standardized prevalence of smoking in the general population. Details of the applied methods

and estimated age- and gender-specific incidence rates for lifelong non-smokers are provided inAppendix B.

#### 147 Projection of radiation-related cancer risks from CCPs

For each CCP and child's weight category, we projected future gender-specific cancer risks 148 149 subsequent to radiation exposure from CCP using RadRAT (National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD, United States, freely accessible at https://irep.nci.nih.gov/radrat)<sup>22</sup>. This risk assessment 150 tool incorporates an extended list of cancer-specific BEIR VII (Committee on Biological Effects 151 of Ionizing Radiation VII, National Research Council, Washington, DC, United States) risk 152 models derived from cohort studies of the survivors of the Hiroshima and Nagasaki atomic 153 bombings and patients exposed to x-rays for benign health conditions<sup>23</sup>. Those models estimate 154 age-specific excess risk (which would occur in addition to baseline risk, i.e. here without 155 receiving a CCP) per dose unit depending on age at exposure, time since exposure and gender. 156 157 Projected risks at each attained age are accumulated up to age 100 while accounting for genderand age-specific survival probabilities and risks of developing a cancer without receiving a CCP 158 in childhood (baseline risks), thus providing estimates of Lifetime Attributable Risk (LAR)<sup>24</sup>. To 159 160 incorporate organ doses distributions and baseline mortality and cancer incidence rates for nonsmokers as above described, we used the home version of RadRAT built with Analytica® 161 (Lumina Decision Systems, Inc., Los Gatos, CA, USA). Risk projection uncertainties and 162 individual dose variability were propagated through projected LARs by Monte Carlo simulations 163 to produce uncertainty intervals (UIs). Uncertainties in dose-response model parameters, 164 165 minimum latency period between radiation exposure and cancer occurrence, high-to-low doses 166 risk extrapolation and population-to-population risk transport were incorporated in RadRAT as it has been detailed in the original publication<sup>22</sup>. To account for individual organ dose variability, 167

168 we considered a triangular probability distribution for each exposure scenario with minimal, 169 modal, and maximal values defined as the 5th, 50th and 95th percentiles of the dose distribution in the study population. The results are displayed as median simulated LAR values (per 1000 170 171 CCPs) with 95% UI. Due to very high uncertainties in risks at very low doses (<1 mSv), LARs were projected only for cancer sites which received at least 1 mSv, i.e. oesophagus, lung, breast 172 173 (in females only), stomach, liver, pancreas, leukemia except chronic lymphoid leukemia (related to mean whole-body dose to red bone marrow). LARs were then summed over the seven cancer 174 sites, for each CCP type and age group at the time of the CCP (<1 year, 1 to <5 years, 5 to <10175 176 years, 10 to 15 years).

#### 177 **RESULTS**

178 After exclusion of children with missing  $P_{KA}$  (n=114), missing age (n=16) or non-representative

179 exposure scenario (i.e. age < 1 year for ASD closure or  $\geq$ 5 years for pulmonary valvuloplasty,

n=27), the study population consisted in 1175 children (sex-ratio: 1.7 girls/1 boy) who

underwent 1251 procedures in 2009-2013 (Table 1). Median age at CCP was 8.7 years for ASD

closure (n=297), 2.7 years for PDA occlusion (n=685) and 1 month for pulmonary valvuloplasty
(n=269).

Radiation exposure was the highest to the lungs and breasts with estimated median equivalent
doses ranging respectively from 3 to 17 mSv and 1 to 16 mSv, depending on the type of
procedure and patient age (Table 1). Median doses were 2-9 mSv to the esophagus, 1-5 mSv to
active bone marrow, stomach, liver and pancreas median doses, and below 1 mSv to the other
organs (Appendix A - Table S2). A wide individual variability was nevertheless estimated, even
within age groups. For a given procedure, the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile intervals of breast and lung doses

(i.e. ratios between 97.5<sup>th</sup>/2.5<sup>th</sup> percentile values of the dose distribution) by age group ranged
from 15 to 80 mSv (Table 1).

Pulmonary valvuloplasty was the procedure associated with the highest median projected LARs, 192 ranging from 5 to 12 per 1000 procedures in girls and 1 to 2 per 1000 procedures in boys. For 193 194 PDA occlusion, median LARs ranged from 4 to 7 per 1000 in girls and 0.5 to 1 per 1000 in boys, depending on the age group (Table 2). For ASD closure, median LARs were about 1 and 0.5 per 195 1000 in girls and boys respectively. The 25% of CCPs with highest radiation exposure (i.e. 196 effective dose >5 mSv) were associated with LARs of 9 (95% UI: 4-20) per 1000 procedures in 197 girls and 2 (95%UI: >1-6) per 1000 procedures in boys, and the 10% of CCPs with effective dose 198 >10 mSv were associated with LARs of 22 (95% UI: 7-46) per 1000 in girls and 4 (95% UI: 1-13) 199 200 per 1000 in boys (Table 3).

201 The projected LARs were highest in the youngest patients, except for pulmonary valvuloplasty 202 (Table 2). In these latter procedures, LAR in children aged less than 1 year were half those in 203 children aged 1-5 years due to a much reduced  $P_{KA}$ . Overall, projected LARs were 3 to 7 times higher in girls than in boys (Table 2), mainly due to breast exposure and higher risks of lung 204 cancer in females than males (Appendix C - Table S6). In boys, lung cancer accounted for 70-205 80% of the projected CCP-related risks whereas, in girls, lung cancer accounted for 20-60% and 206 207 breast cancer for 30-80%, depending on the procedure type at age at treatment (Appendix C -Figure S1). Other cancer sites accounted each for less than 15% of the projected LARs. 208

209 To put the projected LARs in the context of baseline risks, we calculated that radiation exposure

from a CCP in childhood would account for 0.4-0.7% (ASD), 0.8-3.7% (PDA occlusion), and

211 1.5-6.0% (pulmonary valvuloplasty) of the total lifetime risk of developing a cancer in children

who will never smoke during their lifetime, depending on their gender and age at treatment

213 (Table 2). Similar to the trends of incidence rates by age in the general population (Appendix B,

Table S5), radiation-related risks would sharply increase from age 40 for breast cancer, age 50

for lung cancer and age 70 for liver cancer (Figure 1).

#### 216 **DISCUSSION**

Among children treated in 2009-2013 for a CHD in two of the largest catheterization centers in France, the projected LARs of cancer incidence ranged from 0.3 to 12.0 per 1000 procedures, depending on the procedure type, patient's gender and age at treatment (Table 2). Assuming a normal life expectancy and a lifelong non-smoking history, excess cancer risks subsequent to radiation exposure from a childhood CCP would represent 0.4% to 6.0% of the children' total lifetime cancer risks, with lung and breast cancers accounting for the vast majority of the radiation-related risk.

The LARs of cancer would be higher for pulmonary valvuloplasty and PDA occlusion than for 224 225 ASD closure. They would also be higher in children treated before age 5 than in older patients, 226 and in girls who had 3 to 7 times higher LARs than boys due to breast exposure but also higher radiation-related risks of lung cancer per dose unit in females<sup>22</sup>. There was nevertheless a very 227 large variability in individual radiation doses (and projected subsequent risks), even for a given 228 type of CCP, gender and age group (Table 1). For the 10% most irradiating procedures, 229 radiation-related cancer risks would account for 5.0% and 10.7% of boys' and girls' total lifetime 230 231 cancer risks (Table 3).

232 A large variability in radiation exposures among children undergoing CCPs has already been reported in previous studies<sup>7, 25-27</sup>. The survey conducted by Cevallos et al, which collected 233 dosimetry information at nine US congenital cardiac catheterization center in 2014-2015, showed 234 ratios of the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile to the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile values of individual  $P_{KA}$  distributions ranging 235 from 4 to 12 depending on the age group for ASD closure (n=289), PDA occlusion (n=445) and 236 pulmonary valvuloplasty  $(n=250)^{26}$ . Other studies have also reported a large individual 237 variability in dosimetry indexes (i.e. fluoroscopy times,  $P_{KA}$ )<sup>25</sup>, but relatively few studies have 238 assessed its impact on organ equivalent doses<sup>7, 14, 27</sup>. The largest one was conducted at three 239 hospitals in the UK and achieved dose reconstruction for 10,257 diagnostic and therapeutic CCPs 240 performed between 1994 and 2013<sup>7</sup>. In this study, the interquartile ratios of lung and breast doses 241 ranged between 5 and 14 depending on the weight group, for all procedure types combined. 242 Previous studies have projected potential subsequent cancer risks from practices in few hospitals 243 in Israel<sup>28</sup>, US<sup>29</sup>, and UK<sup>13</sup>. Among 59 children aged 2.8 years on average at the time of a 244 diagnostic or interventional CCP in 2007, Ait-Ali et al projected LARs of 0.6 per 1000 (in boys) 245 and 0.9 per 1000 (in girls) associated with cumulative exposures from CCPs and prior x-ray 246 examinations corresponding to cumulative effective doses of 7-9 mS $v^{28}$ . Johnson et al projected 247 LARs of 0.06 (UI: 0.04-0.11) per 1000 children undergoing an ASD closure (n=21) and 0.13 248 (UI: 0.09-0.22) per 1000 children undergoing an atrial switch operation (n=24) for both genders 249 combined, corresponding to mean cumulative effective doses of 0.2-0.6 mSv which included 250 both CCPs and other x-ray examinations received within the first 3 years of life<sup>29</sup>. These two 251 252 single-institution studies had nevertheless limited sample sizes to account for the variability of 253 practices and clinical situations. The use of effective doses, rather than organ equivalent doses, also limited their interpretation. As previously underlined, the concept of effective dose, which is 254

255 useful to compare radiation exposures from different sources or protocols, is not appropriate for risk projection, especially for children and medical exposures targeting specific body regions<sup>30</sup>, 256 <sup>31</sup>. The study conducted by Harbron et al used organ equivalent doses from a large sample (2749 257 CCPs, of which 1641 ASD, PDA occlusion procedures or pulmonary valvuloplasty)<sup>13</sup>. From the 258 supplementary tables provided by the authors, we derived median LARs of cancer incidence for 259 all sites (lung, stomach, liver, thyroid, breast and leukemia) of 0.4, 0.9 and 1.5 per 1000 260 procedures for ASD closure, PDA occlusion and pulmonary valvuloplasty, respectively, in boys, 261 and 0.9, 2.7 and 2.6 per 1000 procedures for ASD closure, PDA occlusion, and pulmonary 262 263 valvuloplasty in girls, at reference ages. The lower median doses for PDA occlusion and 264 pulmonary valvuloplasty in this population as compared to the present study were associated with lower risks in girls but not in males. The assumption the authors made on similar smoking 265 266 behaviors in CHD survivors than in the UK general population when deriving baseline cancer and mortality risks probably contributed in projecting higher LARs per dose unit in males who 267 are more frequently smokers than females. In this study, the possibility of a reduced life 268 269 expectancy in CHD survivors was considered by accumulating excess risks up to various attained ages (in a similar manner than it is shown in Figure 1) but without reducing the survival 270 probabilities at each prior age, which might have led to overestimate the LARs at intermediate 271 272 ages for individuals with a reduced early life expectancy.

The present study assumed a normal life expectancy beyond the age of 1 year in CHD survivors undergoing an ASD closure, a PDA occlusion or a pulmonary valvuloplasty, in agreement with results from long time series of mortality rates in similar populations<sup>15, 16</sup>. Subsequently, the current risk projections do not apply to specific cases where the cardiac disease or subsequent comorbidities substantially reduce the survival probability after CCP. More generally, those risk 278 projections must not be used for prediction of individual risks, which can be modified by a variety of clinical, genetic, environmental and lifestyle factors. The usefulness of LAR projection 279 is rather to provide the clinicians with information on the potential cancer burden in the 280 population of CHD survivors that might justify long term surveillance and prevention strategies 281 for all or in some patient groups. Smoking prevention could be a component of such strategies in 282 view of the existing evidence of higher radiation-related risks of lung cancer among low-to-283 moderate smokers (1-20 cigarettes per day) than in non-smokers<sup>32</sup>. For other cancer sites, there 284 has been no detailed investigation to our knowledge at low radiation doses, but a multiplicative 285 286 interaction between radiation exposure and smoking is plausible, as well as is a reduction of LARs due to a shortened life span among smokers. 287

The methodology applied to project future cancer risks potentially induced by x-ray exposures 288 from CCPs is undoubtedly subjected to uncertainties. As it has been extensively discussed in the 289 literature<sup>23, 33</sup>, the main sources of uncertainty are related to the shape of the dose-response 290 291 relationship, particularly at doses below 100 mSv and after childhood exposures, the joint effect of radiation and other risk factors for cancer and the latency time between radiation exposure and 292 293 cancer diagnosis. Propagation of uncertainties by Monte Carlo simulations as it is implemented in RadRAT accounts for these uncertainties to provide ranges of possible risk values<sup>22</sup>. However, 294 it only considers one set of risk models and does not allow for different modelling of the dose-295 response relationship and modifying effects for particular cancer sites. Published and ongoing 296 epidemiological studies focusing on radiation exposures, such as computed tomography (CT) 297 298 scans, during childhood, adolescence and young adulthood are contributing in better characterizing the long-term risks for children medically exposed to ionizing radiations <sup>34-36</sup>. 299

Current evidence is supporting the assumptions we made for risk projection, at least for brain
 cancer and leukemia<sup>36</sup>.

Other important sources of uncertainty were the lack of information on beam collimation in the 302 patient medical records and the inability to account for the inhomogeneous radiation exposure to 303 parallel organs/tissues (e.g. breasts, lungs) and those partially located within the primary beam 304 (e.g. esophagus) with the use of PCXMC software. Based on the current state of knowledge, we 305 considered mean doses to organs (and the two sides of parallel organs) assuming that the risk 306 was not modified by a heterogeneous low-dose distribution, but further investigations could 307 invalidate this assumption. Last, the present study only considered CCPs in CHD management, 308 309 which accounts for the largest part of the radiation exposure but do not reflect the total cumulative exposure from diagnostic and therapeutic x-ray procedures  $^{28, 29}$ . Other imaging 310 procedures, such as CT scans, could also increase the long-term cancer risks in children with 311 CHD, in particular if they are repeated over time<sup>37</sup>. 312

#### 313 Conclusion

In a large population of children who underwent a CCP, this study shows a large variability in patient radiation doses, even for a given age group and procedure type. The potential subsequent cancer risks would also widely vary among children, and could reach 2.2% among girls and 0.4% among boys who received the highest doses. In the future, the ongoing *Coccinelle* cohort study should contribute to better evaluate the potential long-term cancer risks among those children<sup>11</sup>. At the present time, the high degree of individual dose variability and the possible accumulation of radiological exposures for management of CHDs and their potential subsequent

321	comorbidities suggests the need for systematic dose reporting to support recommendations for
322	long term surveillance and prevention strategies, particularly for lung and breast cancers.

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#### 331 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

332 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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449	Table 1. Number of children and procedures involved and main dosimetry information
450	Table 2. Effective and equivalent doses to organs or tissues of interest (in mSv), median values
451	(95th percentile intervals)
452	Table 3. Projected lifetime risks of developing a tumor (at the esophagus, lungs, breasts,
453	stomach, liver, pancreas, or leukemia) from cardiac catheterization procedures in children
454	Table 4. Radiation exposure and projected lifetime attributable risks among children who
455	received highest effective doses
456	Figure 1. Projected cumulative excess risks of cancer incidence subsequent to radiation
457	exposures from cardiac catheterization procedures in childrenthe example of Patent Ductus

- 458 Arteriosus occlusion
- 459 Supplementary material:
- 460 Appendix A Detailed information on the radiation exposure scenarios
- 461 Appendix B Estimation of age- and gender-specific incidence rates in lifelong non-smokers
- 462 Appendix C Supplementary results

#### Table 1. Main dosimetry information on radiation exposure scenarios from pediatric CCPs: median values (95th percentile intervals) 463

	Atrial septal defect occlusion			Patent ductus arteriosus occlusion				Pulmonary valvuloplasty	
	Age at exposure (in years)								
	1-<5	5-<10	10-15	0-<1	1-<5	5-<10	10-15	0-<1	1-<5
	(N=37)	(N=145)	(N=115)	(N=219)	(N=315)	(N=101)	(N=50)	(N=232)	(N=37)
Weight (in kg)	15 (10,25)	20 (15,45)	40 (25,65)	5 (5,10)	10 (5,20)	20 (15,35)	45 (25,90)	5 (0,10)	15 (10,20)
Kerma Area Product (in Gy.cm2)	1.0 (0.5,7.5)	1.5 (0.5,10)	3.5 (0.5,28.5)	1.5 (0.5,6)	1.5 (0.5,7)	2.5 (0.5,12)	8.0 (1,47)	1.0 (<0.5,4)	) 2.0 (0.5,22)
Equivalent doses (in mSv)									
Oesophagus	2 (1,18)	2 (1,14)	2 (<1,21)	9 (3,42)	6 (2,29)	5 (1,20)	5 (1,34)	8 (2,38)	7 (1,74)
Lungs	3 (1,27)	3 (1,25)	4 (1,41)	11 (3,50)	8 (2,39)	10 (2,45)	17 (3,93)	10 (3,46)	10 (2,104)
Breasts	1 (<1,13)	1 (<1,10)	1 (<1,10)	16 (4,72)	12 (3,61)	9 (2,56)	10 (1,59)	10 (3,50)	10 (2,143)
Stomach	1 (<1,6)	<1 (<1,4)	<1 (<1,4)	2 (1,10)	1 (<1,6)	1 (<1,4)	1 (<1,7)	2 (1,10)	2 (<1,14)
Liver	1 (<1,7)	<1 (<1,5)	1 (<1,5)	5 (2,26)	3 (1,15)	3 (1,11)	4 (1,18)	5 (2,25)	4 (1,49)
Pancreas	1 (<1,12)	1 (<1,7)	1 (<1,8)	3 (1,17)	2 (<1,9)	2 (<1,6)	2 (<1,12)	4 (1,18)	4 (<1,24)
Active bone marrow	1 (<1,5)	1 (<1,5)	1 (<1,8)	1 (<1,5)	1 (<1,3)	1 (<1,3)	1 (<1,7)	1 (<1,6)	1 (<1,10)
Effective dose (in mSv)*	1 (<1,8)	1 (<1,7)	1(<1,11)	5 (1,21)	3 (1,16)	3 (1,13)	4 (1,23)	4 (1,17)	4 (1,41)

N: Number of procedures during the study period \*International Commission on Radiological Protection (ICRP 103) tissue weighting factors. Weight and PKA values are respectively rounded at the nearest 5 and 0.5 unit.

### 466 Table 2. Projected lifetime risks of developing a tumor (at the esophagus, lungs, breasts, stomach, liver, pancreas, or leukemia) from cardiac

#### 467 catheterization procedures in children

Procedure	Patient age group (in years) _	Lifetime attributable risks per 1000 procedures			Number of procedur one radiation	res that would lead to -related cancer	Proportion of attributable cancers among 1000 children who will be diagnosed with cancer over their lifetime*		
		Girls	Boys	Ratio girls:boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	
ASD occlusion	1-<5	1.4 (0.5,3.5)	0.5 (0.1,2.0)	2,8	730 (285,2215)	2045 (515,9265)	7.3 (2.4,0.2)	6.1 (1.4,0.2)	
	5-<10	0.9 (0.2,2.6)	0.3 (0.1,1.2)	2,8	1070 (385,4185)	3020 (810,15325)	5.0 (1.3,0.1)	4.1 (0.8,0.2)	
	10-15	1.0 (0.3,2.9)	0.4 (0.1,1.6)	2,7	1025 (340,4015)	2720 (640,11010)	5.2 (1.3,0.2)	4.6 (1.1,0.2)	
PDA occlusion	0-<1	7.1 (2.2,17.2)	1.2 (0.2,4.8)	5,9	140 (60,460)	825 (210,4715)	36.8 (11.6,0.9)	14.9 (2.7,0.6)	
	1-<5	5.0 (1.4,11.9)	0.7 (0.2,3.2)	7,3	200 (85,720)	1470 (310,6380)	26.0 (7.4,0.6)	8.5 (2.0,0.4)	
	5-<10	3.6 (1.0,9.5)	0.6 (0.1,2.1)	5,7	275 (105,1025)	1585 (470,9115)	19.0 (5.2,0.5)	7.9 (1.4,0.3)	
	10-15	4.1 (1.3,10.5)	1.0 (0.2,4.6)	4,1	245 (95,780)	985 (220,6725)	21.7 (6.8,0.6)	12.6 (1.9,0.6)	
Pulmonary valvuloplasty	0-<1	5.0 (1.8,11.8)	1.2 (0.2,3.6)	4,2	200 (85,565)	855 (275,4460)	26.0 (9.4,0.6)	14.5 (2.8,0.5)	
	1-<5	12.0 (2.1,29.5)	2.0 (0.3,8.0)	6,0	85 (35,475)	505 (125,3050)	60.4 (11.2,1.6)	24.3 (4.1,1)	

ASD: Atrial septal defect; PDA: Patent ductus arteriosus.

\*We estimated a total lifetime baseline risk (i.e. without receiving a cardiac catheterization procedure) of developing a cancer of the esophagus, lungs, breasts, stomach, liver, pancreas, or a leukemia of 18.6% in females and 8.0% in males among lifelong non-smokers in France, in 2010-2012. NB: Number of procedures that would lead to one radiation-related cancer are rounded at the nearest 5 unit.

#### 468 Table 3. Radiation exposure and projected lifetime attributable risks among children who received highest

469 effective doses

	ED> 5mSv	(N=369)	ED >10 mS	ED >10 mSv (N=114)		
	Med	lian values (95th	percentile intervals)			
Age (in years)	1 (0,	14)	1 (0	1 (0.14)		
Weight (in kg)	8 (3,	61)	8 (3	8 (3,70)		
Dose Area-Product (in Gy.cm2)	3 (1.	31)	5 (2	5 (2,55)		
Effective dose (in mSv)	7 (5,	26)	13 (1	13 (10 59)		
Equivalent doses (in mSv)	. (0,			0,007		
Esophagus	15 (8	,55)	25 (11.115)			
Stomach	3 (1,	13)	6 (2	6 (2.24)		
Liver	9 (5,	38)	14 (7.70)			
Pancreas	6 (2,	21)	9 (4.35)			
Luna	20 (13	, 3.75)	34 (25,158)			
Breast	24 (10	).87)	44 (14.206)			
Active bone marrow	2 (1,	10)	3 (2,16)			
Lifetime attributable risk (per 1000						
procedures)	girls	boys	girls	boys		
All ages combined†	9.4	2.0	22.2	4.2		
	(3.5,20.1)	(0.4,6.4)	(7.4,45.6)	(0.8,13.1)		
<1 year	10.2	2.1	24.6	4.7		
	(3.7,22.4)	(0.4,7.0)	(8.3,52.1)	(0.9,14.4)		
I-<5 years	9.0 (3.0.10.8)	2.1 (0.4.6.4)	23.3 (7.6.44.9)	4.3 (0.0.13.8)		
5-<10 years	(3.9,19.0)	(0.4,0.4)	(7.0,44.9)	(0.9,13.0)		
	(2.8,16.9)	(0.3,5.0)	(5.8,38.4)	(0.6,10.2)		
10-15 years	6.0	1.3	14.5	2.7		
	(2.0,12.5)	(0.3,4.4)	(4.7,29.6)	(0.6,9.5)		
Proportion of future attributable						
cancers (per 1000 children who	48	24	107	50		
would be diagnosed with cancer)†	(19,98)	(5,74)	(38,197)	(10,141)		

ED: Effective dose; †Mean risks weighted by the frequency of each age group by procedure types (for ED >5 mSv, <1 year: 49.6%, 1-<5 years: 30.1%, 5-<10 years: 12.2%, 10-15 years: 8.1%; for ED>10 mSv, <1 year: 45.6%, 1-<5 years: 29.8%, 5-<10 years: 13.2%, 10-15 years: 11.4%). NB: Procedures associated with ED >5 mSv are atrial septal defect (N=12; 3.2%), patent ductus arteriosus (N=252; 68.4%), pulmonary valve stenosis (N=105; 28.4%); procedures associated with ED >10 mSv are atrial septal defect occlusion (N=5; 4.4%), patent ductus arteriosus occlusion (N=80; 70.4%), balloon pulmonary valvuloplasty (N=29; 25.2%)

470



\*Risks of breast cancer are given per 1,000 procedures, risks of cancer at other sites than breast are given per 10,000 pocedures

Figure 1. Projected cumulative excess risks of cancer incidence subsequent to radiation exposures from cardiac catheterization procedures in children --the example of Patent Ductus Arteriosus occlusion