







Contrast Medium in Radiology and Its Hazard

Lecture 2

Objectives

- Recognize, and evaluate essential information on the biologic effects of ionizing radiation and radiation safety to ensure the safe use of x-rays in diagnostic imaging.
- Know radiation quantities and units, regulatory and advisory limit for human exposure to radiation.
- Know equipment for radiation protection and measurement.
- Understand the fundamental principles of MRI safety
- Know about contrast agents reactions and safety.
- Understand how to prepare patients for radiology studies.

Color Index: Main text Males slides Female slides Dr's notes Important Golden note Extra **Team Leaders:** Done by: Rahaf Almotairi Sara Alotaebe Mohammed Alshehri



🤶 Mayssam Aljaloud

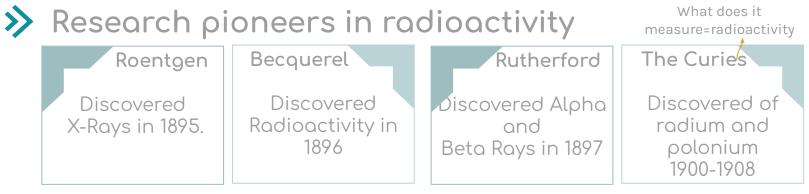


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Introduction

> Major sources of risk in radiology

- 1. Radiation hazard.
- 2. Radioactive materials hazard.
- 3. Magnetic field hazard.
- 4. Contrast agents hazard



>> What is radiation?

Radiation is an energy emitted from a substance, subdivided into:

1. Non-ionizing (non hazard)

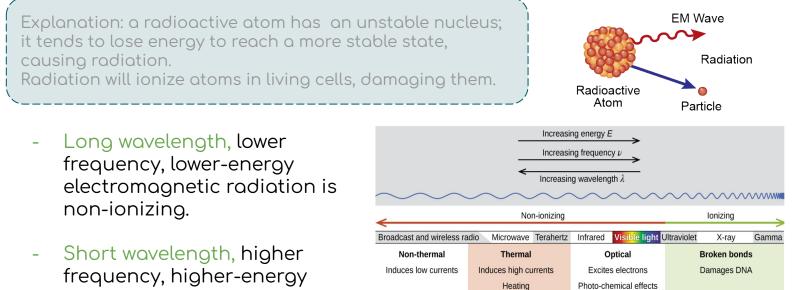
Microwave oven, Television, Radio Waves, Ultrasound. We use them in daily life and they are safe and there is no biological effect of using it.

2. **Ionizing** (used in medical imaging)

Alpha particles (a), beta (β), gamma (γ) and X-rays (among others) that are have enough energy to knock electrons out of molecules and produce ions. Ionizing radiation

-lonizing radiation such x-ray can be carcinogenic and, to the **fetus**, **mutagenic** or even lethal, causes DNA damage.

-Different types of radiation have differing abilities to pass through material. A very thin barrier, such as a sheet or two of paper, or the top layer of skin cells, usually stops alpha particles.



Static Power AM

line

field

1

FM

radio

radio

Microwave

Heat

lamp

Tanning

booth

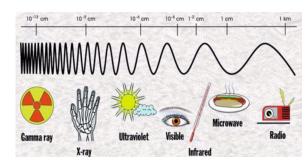
Medical

electromagnetic radiation is ionizing.

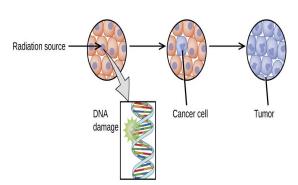
Introduction

> What is X-rays?

- X-rays are **very short wavelength** electromagnetic radiation.
- The shorter the wavelength and the <u>higher</u> the frequency, the greater the energy and the greater the ability to penetrate matter



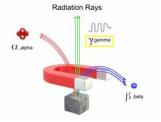
- alpha particle sources are usually not dangerous if outside the body because it can be stopped by outer layer of skin, but are quite **hazardous if ingested or inhaled**.
- Beta particles will pass through a hand (can cause damage to dep sensitive tissue), or a thin layer of material like paper or wood, but are stopped by a thin layer of metal.
- Gamma radiation is very penetrating and can pass through a thick layer of most materials.
- Some high-energy gamma radiation is able to pass through a few feet of concrete
- The ability of various kinds of emissions to cause ionization varies greatly, and some particles have almost no tendency to produce ionization.
- Alpha particles have about twice the ionizing power of fast-moving neutrons, about 10 times that of β particles, and about 20 times that of γ rays and X-rays.



Radiation can harm biological systems by damaging the DNA of cells. If this damage is not properly repaired, the cells may divide in an uncontrolled manner and cause cancer. The Dr. focused on this table

.....

The three types of radiation				
	Alpha	Beta	Gamma	
Nature	It's a nucleus of helium, two protons and two neutrons	It's an electron	lt's an electromagneti c wave	
Charge	+2	-1	0	
Mass	Relatively large	Very small	No mass	
Speed	Slow	Fast	Speed of light	
lonisation effect	Strong	Weak	Very weak	
Most dangerous	When source is inside the body	When source is outside the body	When source is outside the body	



Introduction

Radiation units

1. **RAD** (Radiation Absorbed Dose)

Original measuring unit for expressing the absorption of all types of ionizing radiation (alpha, beta, gamma, neutrons, etc) into any medium. (measures quantity)(is a measurement of the radiation absorbed by the material or tissue)

2. REM (Roentgen Equivalent Man)

Is a measurement that correlates the dose of any radiation to the biological effect of that radiation. Since not all radiation has the same biological effect, the dosage is multiplied by a "quality factor" (Q). For example, a person receiving a dosage of gamma radiation will suffer much less damage than a person receiving the same dosage from alpha particles, by a factor of three. (measures quality) (is a

measurement of the biological effects of that absorbed radiation)

RAD :e.g.: patient exposed to 2 RAD radiation, it means the amount of radiation. However, to quantify the risk we use REM. which=RADxQ.

Q is the danger of that factor, depend on type of ionizing radiation

Quantity	Unit	SI unit	Relation between units
Absorbed dose	RAD	Gray (Gy)	1 Gy=100 RAD 100 mGy=10 RAD 10 mGy=1 RAD 1 mGy= 100mRAD
Equivalent dose	REM	Sievert (Sv)	1 Sv= 100 REM 100 mSv= 10 REM 10 mSv=1 REM 1 mSv=100 mREM

Measuremen t Purpose	Unit	Quantity Measured	Description
activity of	becquerel (Bq)	radioactive	amount of sample that undergoes 1 decay/second
source	curie (Ci)	decays or emissions	amount of sample that undergoes 3.7 × 1010 decays/second
absorbed	gray (Gy)	energy absorbed	1 Gy = 1 J/kg tissue
	radiation absorbed dose (rad)	per kg of tissue	1 rad = 0.01 J/kg tissue
biologicall	sievert (Sv)	tissue damage	Sv = RBE × Gy
y effective dose	roentgen equivalent for man (rem)		Rem = RBE × rad

- Gray, Rem, rad, Curie, Becquerel and Sievert are units of radiation.
- One chest x-ray 0.15 mGray.
- To reach the hazardous level of 2 Gray you need 10000 chest x ray or 100 CT abdomen or 30 mins to 1 hr fluoroscopy exposure.
- 1 CT= 100 X-rays.
- Fluoroscopy has the highest and X-ray has the lowest

3

>> Effects of nuclear exposure

DOSE (Gy)	PHYSICAL CONDITION	CHANCE OF SURVIVAL	 _		
20+	Neurovascular Syndrome onset	Death almost certain Multiple organ failure sets in	 		- Death not likely
11			4	de la	50 percent of the population will survive for 60 day
10		P	3	8	+ without medical care
9		Death likely Stem cell transplants required to survive	2		B
8			 		Death not happening Medical treatment not necessary
7	Gastrointestinal Syndrome onset	Death possible	1	Hematopoietic Syndrome onset	
6	8	 50 percent of the population will survive for 60 days with supportive medical care 	0	2	

✤ Goals of Radiation Safety:

To eliminate **deterministic** (acute) effects.

To reduce incidence of stochastic (Chronic) effects. Called Background radiation (Esp. near nuclear plant areas)

>> Deterministic and Stochastic Effects:

	Acute/deterministic effects	Chronic/Stochastic effects. (Random events)
Definition	Acute radiation symptoms are caused by <u>high levels</u> of radiation usually over a <u>short period of time</u> .	 Also referred to as (Probabilistic), probability of occurrence depends on absorbed dose. Chronic radiation symptoms are caused by <u>low-level</u> radiation over a <u>long period of time</u>.
Characteristic s	 They cannot be predicted with certainty. Severity of damage increases with increasing <u>dose</u> above that threshold. 	 The effect may (potentially) occur following any amount of exposure, there is no threshold. (By accumulation) Even the smallest quantity of lonizing Radiation exposure can be said to have a finite probability of causing an effect. Severity of the effect is not dose related.
Examples	 Cataract formation Bone marrow failure Lung Fibrosis Infertility hair loss lowering the WBC count Skin reddening (erythema). 	 Carcinogenic effect Genetic effect

>> Acute Deterministic Effects



Chronic Stochastic Effects



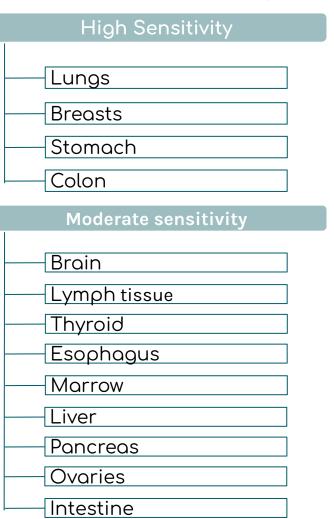
Threshold for deterministic effects

Major organs annual dose limits for preventing deterministic effects are as follows :

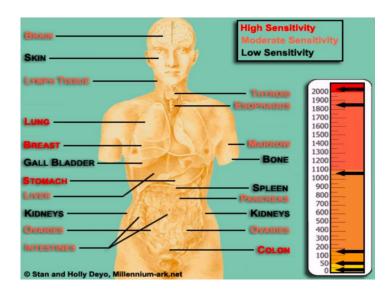
doctor said numbers aren't important just know the effects and compare between them

Organ	Effects	One single absorption (Gy)	Prolonged absorption (Gy-year)
Testes	Permanent infertility	3.5 - 6	2 this is the hazardous level
Ovaries	Permanent infertility	2.5 - 6	>0.2
Eye lens	Milky of lens cataract	0.5 - 2 5	>0.1 >0.15
Bone marrow	Blood forming deficiency	0.5	>0.4

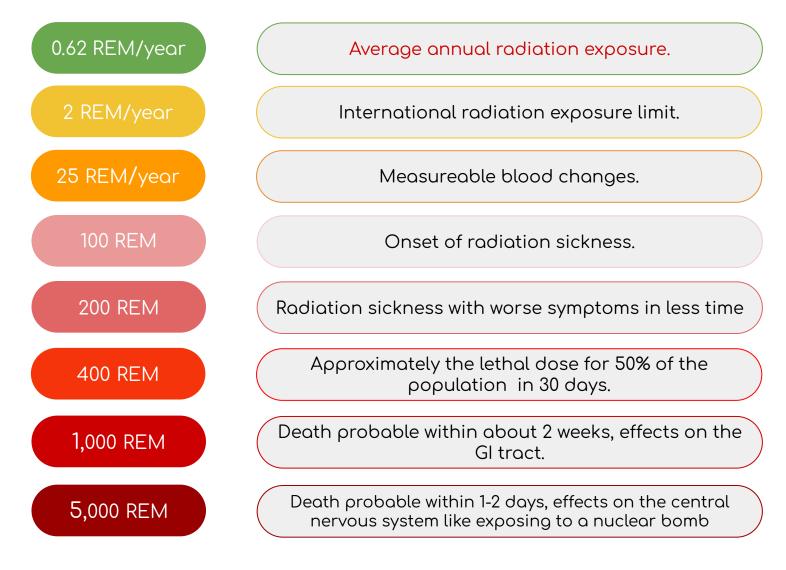
>> Organ sensitivity to radiation



Low sensitivity		
Skin		
Bone		
Gall bladder		
Spleen		
Kidneys		



Radiation Exposure Levels and Effects



>> Typical Radiation Detectors

1. Film packet E.g X-ray film

2. Thermoluminescent Dosimeter (TLD) Radiology staff carry it to measure radiation exposure.

3. Ionization chamber Detect radiation leakage

- 4. Geiger-Müller (GM) detector
- 5. Scintillation Detector For radioactive materials.

General methods of protection

What are Three basic methods for reducing exposure of workers to X-rays?

- 1. Minimize exposure time.
- 2. Maximize distance from X-Ray source.
- Exposure varies inversely with the square of the distance from the X-Ray tube
- 3. Use shielding (stand behind lead protection).
- Operators view the target through a leaded glass screen.
- Wear lead aprons. almost any material can act as a shield from gamma or X-Rays if used in sufficient amounts.
- Standard 0.5mm lead apron protects you from 95% from radiation exposure.

>> ALARA Rule:

As Low As Reasonably Achievable:

- Reduce number of exams.
- Reduce time of exams.
- Radiation Hazard symbol displayed at places where radioactive materials are used and stored.
- Use alternative (Ultrasounds or MRI).





Radioactive materials hazard

>> What does radioactivity means?

- Radioactive decay is the process in which an unstable atomic nucleus loses energy by emitting radiation in the form of particles or electromagnetic waves.
- An unstable nucleus releases energy to become more stable.

Sources of radioactivity

- Naturally Occuring Sources:
- 1. Radon from the decay of uranium and thorium. موجود بالتربة بشكل طبيعي
- 2. Potassium -40, found in minerals and in plants.
- 3. Carbon 14, found in plants and animal tissue. It's used to know the age of fossils.
- Manmade Sources:
- 1. Medical use of Radioactive Isotopes. E.g. Radioactive iodine is typically used in thyroid tests. Also radioactive technetium used in renal/kidney scans
- 2. Certain consumer products e.g. Smoke detectors.
- 3. Fallout from nuclear testing.
- 4. Emissions from nuclear power plants.

Radioisotopes

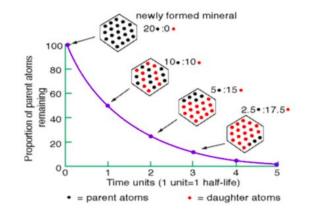
-Any two or more forms of a chemical element, having the same number of protons in the nucleus, or the same atomic number, but having different numbers of neutrons in the nucleus, or different atomic weights are called isotopes.

-Isotopes of an atom that are radioactive are called radioisotopes. Examples of natural radioisotopes are 238 U (uranium), 40 K (potassium), 232 Th (thorium) and their child nuclei (obtained by radioactive decay of the previous ones) 226 Ra (radio), 222 Rn (radon) and 218 Po (polonium).

-This is called radioactive decay.

>> Radioactive decay

- In the process of radioactive decay. An atom actually changes from one element to another by changing its number of protons.
- The half-life of radioactive substances is the amount of time they require to lose one half of their radioactivity and transform into another element.



These are other hazard found in the department in the department other than x-ray radiation

>> Medical use of Radioactive Isotopes. Important

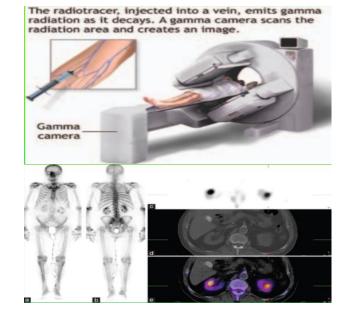
- Radioactive isotopes are introduced into the body and can be distinguishable by their radiation from the atoms already present.

- This permits the relatively simple acquisition of information about the dynamics of processes of uptake, incorporation, exchange, secretion, etc.

e.g in the thyroid scan we know that iodine accumulated in thyroid so we inject the patient with ionized iodine which will accumulate there to and then scan the patient to see how much accumulated.

Radio-Pharmaceuticals

- The most widely used radioisotope is **Technetium (Tc),** with a half-life of six hours. .(Important to tell us when to scan)
- The activity in the organ can then be studied either as a two dimensional picture or, with a special technique called tomography, as a three dimensional picture (SPECT, PET). so the patient will be first injected with Tc then after 6 h he will come to be scanned and we will be able to trace Tc



>> Handling of Radio-Pharmaceuticals

- No radioactive substances should be handled with bare hands. Alpha and beta emitters can be handled using thick gloves.
- Radioactive materials must be stored in thick lead containers.
- Reactor and laboratories dealing with radioactive materials must be surrounded with thick concrete lined with lead.
- People working with radioactive isotopes must wear protective clothing, which is left in the laboratory.
- The workers must be checked regularly with dosimeters, and appropriate measures should be taken in cases of overdose.
- Radioactive waste must be sealed and buried deep in the ground.

Spill response

- On Skin —> flush completely.
- On Clothing —> remove them
- If Injury —> administer first aid.
- Radioactive Gas Release —> vacate area, shut off fans, post warning.
- Monitor all the people and define the area of contamination.



Magnetic Field Hazard

MRI hazard

- MRI is one of the imaging modality that is widely used in radiology.
- There is no dangerous radiation in MRI instead it uses very high magnetic field up to 3 Tesla (1 Tesla = 20000 times earth gravity).
- This strong magnetic field produces a powerful attractive force and torque which the magnet exerts on ferromagnetic objects, this is called missile effect.
- The missile effect can pose a significant risk to anyone in the path of the projectile, and cause significant damage to the scanner.
- The effect is clearly greater for high field systems.

Equipment made specific for MRI room are made of diamagnetic material (such as wood and stainless steel).

Precautions

- To guard against accidents from metallic projectiles, the **"5 gauss line"** should be clearly demarcated and the area with that line kept free of ferromagnetic objects.
- The 5, 10 and 200 Gauss lines are marked on the floor of each magnet room. These Gauss lines serve as a reminder that you are inside a magnetic field which increases sharply as you move closer to the magnet. The 5 Gauss line (the outermost line) defines the limit beyond which ferromagnetic objects are strictly prohibited.
- It is essential that patient with ferromagnetic surgical clips, implants containing ferromagnetic components and who have suffered shrapnel or steel fragments injuries (such as those who work in mines), especially to the eyes, to be excluded from the imager.
- A number of general precautions must be taken to ensure the safety of patients and personal working in the imaging suite:
 - Access to the imaging area should be limited, and signs should be displayed to warn persons with cardiac pacemaker or neuro-stimulators not to enter the area.
 - 2. Credit cards and watches with mechanical parts should be left outside the imaging area to prevent magnetic tape erasure and watch malfunction.
- Some body implants are paramagnetic, or even ferromagnetic. These implants tend to move and align with the main magnetic field.
- This results in a force and torque on the implant and the implant may become dislodged, resulting in severe injury to the patient or death if displaced such as Aneurysm clips, Pacemaker and implanted cardiac defibrillator are typical examples of such devices.

there are two units for measuring a magnetic field: Tesla and Gauss, where 1 tesla = 10,000 gauss

contrast Agents

- Compounds used to improve the visibility of internal bodily structures in an image.
- Since their introduction in the 1950s, organic radiographic iodinated contrast media (ICM) have been among the most commonly prescribed drugs in the history of modern medicine.
- These contrast agents attenuate x-rays more than body soft tissues due to their high atomic weight.
- Millions of intravascular contrast media examinations are performed each year.
- Iodinated contrast media generally have a good safety record.
- Adverse effects from the intravascular administration of ICM are generally mild and self-limited.
- Reaction's that occur from the extravascular use of ICM are rare.
- Nevertheless, severe or life-threatening reactions can occur with either route of administration.

Types of Contrast Agents

- Contrasts that acts as the natural contrast in the body (Negative Contrast)—>(Air or CO2).
- Contrasts that acts as denser material in the body (Positive Contrast) —> (Barium or Iodine).

Negative Contrast (air or Co2)	Positive Contrast (Barium or lodine)
 Organs become more radiolucent. X-rays penetrate more easily. Low atomic # material Black on film Commonly used to inflate a structures like: distinguish colon from other structures 	 Organs become radiopaque X-rays absorbed by substance High atomic # material White on film Most common media: -lodinated contrast agent. -Barium sulfate.

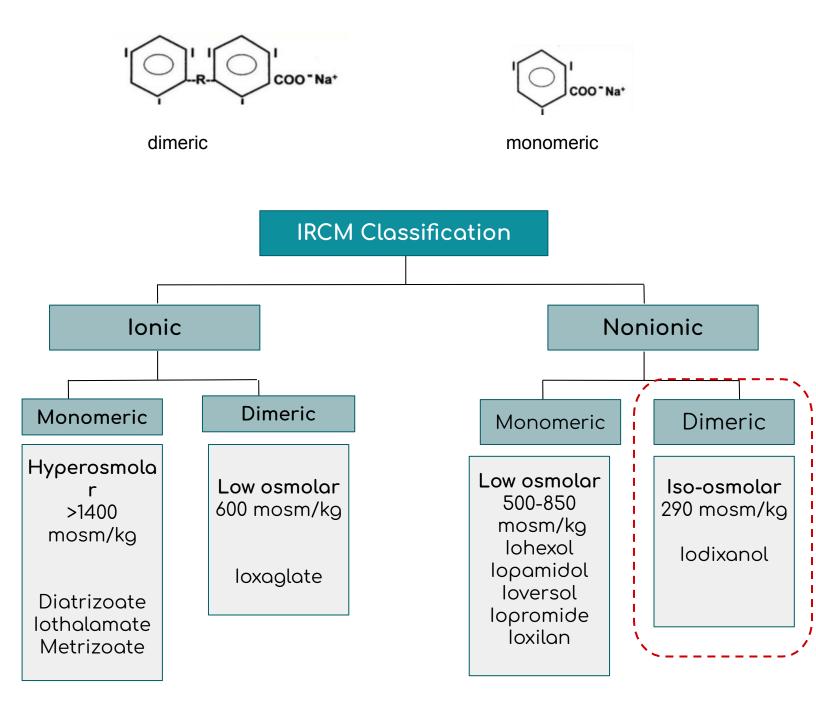
≫Why iodine ?

- IODINE (atomic wt 127) provides excellent radio-opacity.
- Higher atomic number maximizing the photo-electric effect.

Classification of agents

Contrast agents are classified based on three properties:

- 1. The charge of the iodinated molecule (ionic or nonionic).
- 2. The molecular structure (monomeric or dimeric).
- 3. The osmolality of the injected preparation (hyperosmolal, low osmolal, or iso-ismolal relative to normal serum osmolality [275 to 290 mosm/kg]



Iodinated contrast media (ICM)

- The toxicity of contrast agents decreases as osmolality approaches that of serum.
- This has been accomplished by developing nonionizing compounds and then combining two monomers to form a dimer.
- Currently used iodinated agents are cleared almost completely by glomerular filtration.
- Circulatory half life is 1-2 hours, assuming normal renal function.

Effects of ionic Vs. Nonionic contrast media		
lonic	Non ionic	
Dissociates into separate ions when injected	Does not dissociate	
Creates hypertonic condition	Remains near isotonic	
Increase in blood osmolality	No significant increase in osmolality	
Less money	More money	
More reactions	Less reactions	

Methods of administration of contrast material

- INGESTED

 ORAL: Barium sulfate suspension
- RETROGRADE
 _ AGAINST NORMAL FLOW: Barium Enema
- INTRATHECAL – Spinal canal
- INTRAVENOUS

 Injecting into bloodstream
 (anything other than oral)







barium swallow

	Note:Has highest
i	degree of
1	radiation among
÷	ct chest and
- i	x-ray



Reaction Classification

Immediate reactions

 Were defined as those occurring within the department (within one hour).

Delayed reactions

 As those occurring between the time the patient left the department and up to seven days later.

The American College of Radiology has divided adverse reactions severity to contrast agents into the following categories:

- Mild
- Moderate
- Severe

Mild reaction (5%)

- Signs and symptoms appear self-limited without evidence of progression.
- Nausea, vomiting, warmth, headache, dizziness, shaking, altered taste, itching, flushing, chills, sweats, rash, nasal stuffiness, swelling: eyes, face and anxiety.
- **Treatment**: Observation and reassurance. Usually no intervention or medication is required; however, these reactions may progress into a more severe category.

Moderate reaction (1%)

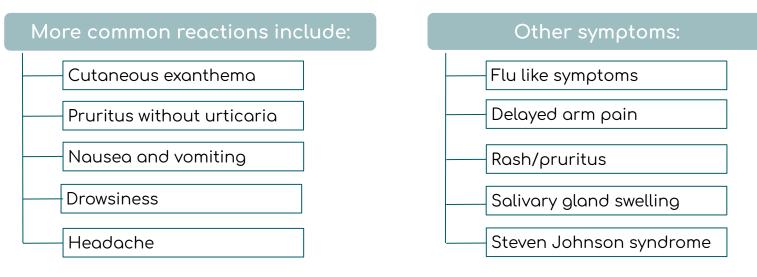
- Reactions which require treatment but are not immediately life-threatening.
- Tachycardia/ bradycardia, hypertension, pronounced cutaneous reaction, hypotension, dyspnea, pulmonary edema, bronchospasm, wheezing and laryngeal edema.
- Treatment: Prompt treatment with close observation.

Severe reaction (0.05%)

- Life-threatening with more severe signs or symptoms including: Laryngeal edema (severe), profound hypotension, convulsion, unresponsiveness and cardiopulmonary arrest.
- **Treatment**: Immediate treatment, antiemetic drugs. Usually requires hospitalization.

>> Delayed Contrast Reactions

- Delayed contrast reactions can occur anywhere from 3 hours to 7 days following the administration of contrast.
- It is important for anyone administering intravenous contrast media to be aware of delayed reactions.



- Skin effects:itching, rash, and hives.
- GI side effects: Nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea.
- General side effects: headache, dizziness, and fever.
- Infants and patients older than 60 years old are at increased risk of developing a side effect.

Some Reaction Medications

Aggressive fluids	Lasix	Dopamine	Mannitol

Contraindications For Contrast

- 1. Renal failure
 - Check BUN and Creatinine, elevated levels could cause renal shutdown

Skin effects included itching, rash, and hives.

- 2. Anuria (no urine production, so no clearance)
- 3. Asthma
 - Possible allergies
- 4. History of contrast allergy/ reactions
- 5. Diabetes
 - Get a history of medications taken
 - Glucophage must be stopped 48 hrs before contrast injection.
- 6. Multiple Myeloma
- 7. Pregnancy
 - Risk of fetal thyroid toxicity
- 8. Allergic reaction, pre-medication is available

Extravasation

- Contrast material has seeped outside of vessel.
- Apply warm compress 1st 24 hours.
- Cool compress for swelling.

Extravasation of Contrast into soft tissue of arm.





MRI Contrast Agents

- The Contrast used in MRI is based on paramagnetic ions e.g. Gadolinium.
- By themselves these ions are highly toxic so bound up in large molecules eg. DTPA.
- Provides a greater contrast between normal and abnormal tissues.

Gadolinium Side Effects

• With impaired kidney function, gadolinium could lead to a serious and potentially fatal disorder called Nephrogenic Systemic Fibrosis (NSF)

- NSF: Nephrogenic systemic fibrosis (NSF), also known as nephrogenic fibrosing dermopathy (NFD), is a disease of fibrosis of the skin and internal organs reminiscent but distinct from scleroderma or scleromyxedema. It is caused by gadolinium exposure used in imaging in patients who have renal insufficiency. It could even lead to death.

- Check if the patient has renal failure, decreased GFR, decreased clearance before giving Gadolinium.



Summary

Radiation hazard

- Hazardous Ionizing radiation comprize (α , β , γ) particles, and X-rays.

Acute/deterministic effects	Chronic/Stochastic effects
 Caused by high levels of radiation usually over a short period of time. Severity of damage increases with increasing dose above that threshold. Cataract formation, Bone marrow failure, Lung Fibrosis, Infertility, hair loss, lowering the WBC count, Skin reddening (erythema). 	 Caused by low-level radiation over a long period of time. Severity of the effect is not dose related. Carcinogenic effect and Genetic effect.

General methods of protection	
Three basic methods for reducing exposure of workers to X-rays:	ALARA Rule: As low as reasonably achievable:
- Minimize exposure time. - Maximize distance - Use shielding	 Reduce number of exams. Reduce time of exams. Radiation Hazard symbol displayed at places where radioactive material are used and stored. Use alternative (US or MRI).

Radioactive materials hazard

- Radioactive decay is the process in which an unstable atomic nucleus loses energy by emitting radiation in the form of particles or electromagnetic waves.

- Examples: Radioisotopes and Radiopharmaceuticals.

- Spill response:

- On Skin \rightarrow flush completely.
- On Clothing \rightarrow remove them.
- If Injury \rightarrow administer first aid.
- Radioactive Gas Release \rightarrow vacate area, shut off fans, post warning.
- Monitor all the people and define the area of contamination.

Magnetic field hazard

MRI Safety:

- The "5 gauss line" should be clearly demarcated and the area free of ferromagnetic objects.
 Access to the imaging
 Patients wit surgical clip shrapnel or injuries...
 - area should be limited, and signs should be displayed to warn persons with cardiac pacemaker or neuro-stimulators not to enter the area.

MRI Contraindications:

- Patients with ferromagnetic surgical clips Pacemaker, shrapnel or steel fragment injuries...

MRI Contrast Agents:

- The Contrast used in MRI is based on paramagnetic ions e.g. Gadolinium.
- With impaired kidney function, gadolinium could lead Nephrogenic Systemic Fibrosis. (NSF)

Summary

Contrast Agents

- Adverse effects: Adverse effects from the intravascular administration of ICM are generally mild and self-limited; Reactions that occur from the extravascular use of ICM are rare.

Classification of contrast agents

- The toxicity of contrast agents decreases as osmolality approaches that of serum. (non-ionizing ,dimeric compounds)

lonic	Non ionic
 Creates hypertonic condition Increase in blood osmolality Less money More reaction 	- Remains near isotonic - No significant increase - More money - Less reaction

Reaction classifications

The most common reactions include:

- Cutaneous exanthema, pruritus without urticaria, nausea, vomiting, drowsiness, headache ,flu like symptoms delayed arm pain , salivary gland swelling, and Steven Johnson syndrome.
- Duration:
 - 1- immediate reaction
 - 2- delayed reaction
- Severity:
 - 1- Mild Reaction (5%)
 - 2- Moderate Reaction (1%)
 - 3- Severe Reaction (0.05%)

Reaction medications

- Aggressive fluids
- Lasix
- Dopamine
- Mannitol

Contraindication for contrast

- Diabetes
- Multiple Myeloma.
- Renal Failure
- Anuria
- Asthma
- Hx of Contrast Allergy / Reactions
- Pregnancy
- Allergic Reaction.
- Get a hx of medications taken

quiz

- 1- Which of the following is a characteristic of X-ray
- a. Shorter wavelength and shorter frequency
- b. High wavelength and high frequency
- c. Shorter wavelength and high frequency
- d. High wavelength and Shorter frequency

2- Which of the following is an example of stochastic effects

- a. Cataracts
- b. Infertility
- c. Lung fibrosis
- d. Carcinogenic abnormalities

3- which organ is considered highly sensitive to radiation

- a. Pancreas
- b. Stomach
- c. Intestine
- d. Kidney

5- The area around the MRI should be clear of any ferromagnetic objects due to?

- a. Missile effect
- b. Patient falls
- c. Radiation
- d. Distorted results

7- Which cell structure that is the most affected by radiation?

- a. Cell membranes
- b. Cell wall
- c. DNA
- d. Cytoplasm

4- The least toxic class of contrast agents:

- a. ionizing, dimers
- b. non ionic, monomer
- c. non ionic, dimer
- d. ionizing, monomers

6- Which of the following cause NSF with impaired kidney function?

- a. barium
- b. gadolinium
- c. Thorotrast
- d. lodinated contrast

8- Which of the following IS NOT a side effect of iodinated contrast material?

- a. Urticarial rash
- b. Bronchospasm
- c. Laryngeal edema
- d. Hypertension
 - Answers 1) c 2)d 3)b 4)c 5) a 6) b 7)c 8)d