

parallelity for phase imaging, single crystals should be employed after passing the x-ray beam through the polycapillary.

Since it is possible to increase the irradiation field by increasing the distance between the x-ray source and the polycapillary, this system can be applied to image a wide variety of objects in various fields, including medical radiography.

Acknowledgments

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Optimal Windows of Statin Use for Immediate Infarct Limitation

5'-Nucleotidase as Another Downstream Molecule of Phosphatidylinositol 3-Kinase

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Background—Although statins are reported to have a cardioprotective effect, their immediate direct influence on ischemia-reperfusion injury and the underlying mechanisms remain obscure. We investigated these issues in an in vivo canine model.

Methods and Results—Dogs were subjected to coronary occlusion (90 minutes) and reperfusion (6 hours) immediately after injection of pravastatin (0.2, 2, or 10 mg/kg), pitavastatin (0.01, 0.1, or 0.5 mg/kg), or cerivastatin (0.5, 5, or 50 μ g/kg). Then myocardial phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3-K) and 5'-nucleotidase activities were measured, as well as infarct size. After 15 minutes of reperfusion, pravastatin caused dose-dependent activation of Akt and ecto-5'-nucleotidase in the ischemic zone, and the effect was significant at higher doses. Pitavastatin also significantly increased these activities, and its optimal dose was within the clinical range, whereas cerivastatin caused activation at the lowest dose tested. In all cases, both Akt and ecto-5'-nucleotidase showed activation in parallel, and this activation was completely abolished by wortmannin, a PI3-K inhibitor. The magnitude of the infarct-limiting effect paralleled the increase in Akt and ecto-5'-nucleotidase activity and was blunted by administration of wortmannin, α,β -methyleneadenosine-5'-diphosphate, or 8-sulphophenyltheophylline during reperfusion. Both collateral flow and the area at risk were comparable for all groups.

Conclusions—Activation of ecto-5'-nucleotidase after ischemia by PI3-K activation may be crucial for immediate infarct-size limitation by statins. There seems to be an optimal dose for each statin that is independent of its clinical cholesterol-lowering effect. (*Circulation*. 2004;110:2143-2149.)

Key Words: statins ■ myocardial infarction ■ adenosine ■ enzymes ■ phosphates

The 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase inhibitors (statins) block the biosynthesis of cholesterol¹ and are widely used clinically to decrease serum cholesterol levels. Recent studies have focused on the pleiotropic effects of either hydrophilic^{2,4} or hydrophobic^{4,5} statins, which are independent of their cholesterol-lowering effect.^{2,3,5} Protection against ischemia-reperfusion injury is one of them, which is particularly evident after 12 hours.^{6,7} In addition, some studies showed that statins activate the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3-K)/Akt pathway within 1 hour,^{8,9} as well as activating endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS),^{9,10} to cause immediate infarct limitation.⁹

On the other hand, other studies revealed that statins also acutely activate ecto-5'-nucleotidase,¹¹ which produces the endogenous cardioprotective substance adenosine,¹² especially in response to certain stresses.¹³ Ecto-5'-nucleotidase can act only when localized on the cell membrane,¹² and the density of this enzyme on the membrane regulates its activity.^{11,14} Endocytotic turnover of ecto-5'-nucleotidase (5'-nucleotidase localized on the cell surface) is inhibited by PI3-K activation,¹⁴ which subsequently increases total 5'-nucleotidase activity within a period as short as 10 minutes.¹⁴ Therefore, we hypothesized that an increase of ecto-5'-nucleotidase activity might be critical for early cardioprotec-

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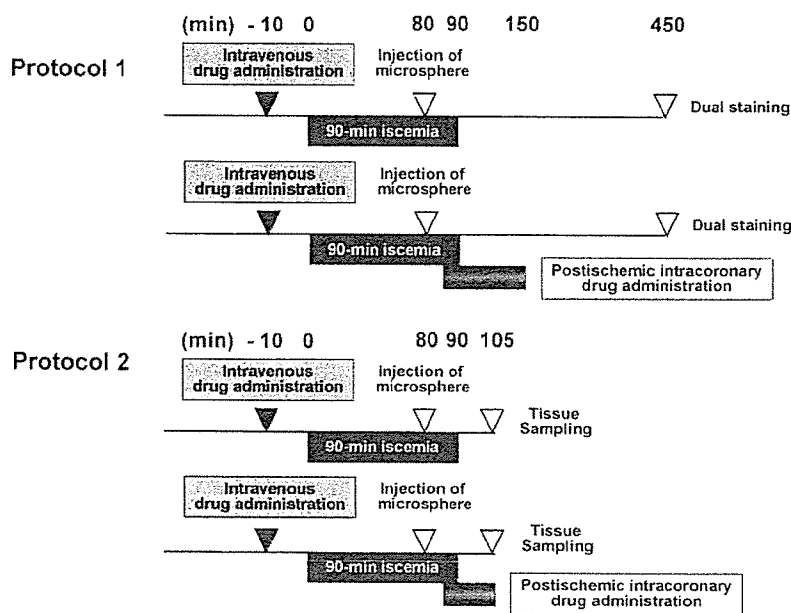


Figure 1. Experimental protocols to measure infarct size (protocol 1; Upper) and kinase activity (protocol 2; Lower).

tion mediated by statins and might be associated with rapid activation of PI3-K.

Here we used a dog model to determine whether 3 statins with different water solubilities (pravastatin, pitavastatin, and cerivastatin) could acutely limit infarct size, as well as whether adenosine and PI3-K were involved in the underlying mechanism.

Methods

All procedures were performed in conformity with the *Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals* (NIH publication No. 85-23, 1996 revision) and were approved by the Osaka University Committee for Laboratory Animal Use. Pravastatin, pitavastatin, and cerivastatin were obtained from Sankyo, Kowa, and Takeda Pharmaceuticals, respectively. The other drugs were obtained from Sigma.

Instrumentation

Beagle dogs weighing 8 to 13 kg were anesthetized and connected to an extracorporeal bypass tube as described previously.^{15,16} In all experiments, the average baseline values of mean aortic blood pressure (ABP), heart rate (HR), and arterial blood P_{O_2} were 102 ± 2.2 mm Hg, 129 ± 2.5 min^{-1} , and 109 ± 4.1 mm Hg, respectively. Both ABP and HR were measured continuously during the study.

Experimental Protocols

Protocol 1: Measurement of Infarct Size and Myocardial Collateral Blood Flow

After hemodynamic stabilization, we infused pravastatin (0.2, 2, or 10 mg/kg), pitavastatin (0.01, 0.1, or 0.5 mg/kg), cerivastatin (0.5, 5, or 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) or saline intravenously for 10 minutes before 90 minutes of sustained ischemia, which was followed by 6 hours of reperfusion ($n=9$ to 13 each). Some groups also received intracoronary administration of a selective ecto-5'-nucleotidase inhibitor (α,β -methyleneadenosine-5'-diphosphate [AMP-CP; 80 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$]); a nonselective adenosine receptor antagonist (8-sulfophenyltheophylline [8-SPT; 50 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$]); or a selective PI3-K inhibitor (wortmannin [1.5 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$]) between 5 minutes before and 60 minutes after reperfusion. We measured infarct size and regional myocardial collateral blood flow during 90 minutes of ischemia as described previously.¹⁵

We have already confirmed in the same model that the doses of AMP-CP,¹⁷ 8-SPT,^{17,18} or wortmannin¹⁹ used in this study were appropriate to block ecto-5'-nucleotidase, the adenosine receptors, or PI3-K, respectively. Figure 1 shows the details of this protocol, and the Table lists all of the groups studied.

Protocol 2: Myocardial Enzyme Assays

Another 54 dogs underwent a procedure identical to that of some groups from protocol 1 and were studied for enzyme assays ($n=3$ or 4 each). In this protocol, not only wortmannin (1.5 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) but also LY294002 (60 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$) was used as another selective PI3-K inhibitor. After 15 minutes of reperfusion, a myocardial tissue sample was obtained from the ischemic border zone to ensure evaluation of viable ischemic myocardium and was used for the measurement of PI3-K and ecto-/endo-5'-nucleotidase activity. The myocardial tissue was rapidly frozen in LN_2 and stored at -80°C . Measurement of PI3-K and 5'-nucleotidase activity was done as reported previously^{15,19} with minor modifications.

Criteria for Exclusion

To ensure that all of the animals included in analysis were healthy and were exposed to a similar extent of ischemia, the exclusion criteria reported previously¹⁶ for hemodynamics, excessive collateral flow, and lethal arrhythmia were adopted.

Statistical Analysis

Results were expressed as mean \pm SEM, and the number of animals or experiments is shown as n . Statistical analysis was performed by ANOVA with a modified Bonferroni post hoc test, and significance was defined at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Mortality and Exclusions in Protocol 1

Among 222 dogs used in protocols 1, 56 dogs met the exclusion criteria of ventricular fibrillation or excessive myocardial collateral blood flow (>15 $\text{mL} \cdot 100$ $\text{g}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$). Therefore, 166 dogs completed these protocols satisfactorily and were included in the data analysis (Table).

Changes in Hemodynamic Parameters, Risk Area, and Collateral Blood Flow in Protocol 1

The changes in ABP and HR were comparable among all groups throughout the protocol (data not shown), and both the

TABLE 1. Mortality, Exclusion, Area at Risk, and Collateral Flow in Each Group in Protocol 1

Groups	Excluded						
	Lethal Arrhythmia			Excessive Collateral Flow	Final No	Area at Risk, %	Collateral Flow, mL/100 g per minute
	Initial No	During Ischemia	After Reperfusion				
Control	13	1	2	1	9	40.1±2.1	8.2±1.0
Prava							
0.2	9	0	1	0	8	38.8±2.0	8.4±1.2
2.0	10	0	0	2	8	39.1±2.2	8.9±1.1
10	10	0	0	2	8	39.6±2.1	8.9±1.4
Pitava							
0.01	9	1	1	0	7	38.7±2.2	8.1±1.3
0.1	11	0	1	2	8	39.3±2.0	9.2±1.5
0.5	10	1	0	2	7	39.9±1.9	8.8±1.5
Ceriva							
0.5	11	0	1	2	8	39.2±1.9	8.5±1.3
5.0	10	1	1	1	7	38.9±2.1	8.7±1.4
50	11	0	1	3	7	39.0±2.0	9.1±1.5
AMP-CP							
+ Prava 10	9	0	2	0	7	40.4±2.3	8.6±1.3
+ Pitava 0.1	9	0	1	1	7	39.8±2.0	8.4±1.5
+ Ceriva 0.5	9	1	1	0	7	40.4±2.3	9.0±1.4
8SPT							
+ Prava 10	10	0	1	1	8	38.7±2.2	8.3±1.3
+ Pitava 0.1	11	1	2	0	8	39.9±2.1	8.2±1.6
+ Ceriva 0.5	11	0	2	1	8	38.4±2.6	8.5±1.5
WTMN							
+ Prava 10	10	0	2	1	7	38.6±2.3	9.5±1.5
+ Pitava 0.1	10	0	2	0	8	38.9±2.1	9.2±1.6
+ Ceriva 0.5	10	0	1	1	8	39.8±2.8	8.8±1.4
AMP-CP	9	0	2	0	7	38.8±2.5	8.5±1.6
8SPT	11	0	3	0	8	39.6±2.5	8.2±1.5
WTMN	9	1	2	0	6	40.5±2.3	8.6±1.6

Data expressed as mean ± SEM. Prava indicates pravastatin (mg/kg); Pitava, pitavastatin (mg/kg); Ceriva, cerivastatin (μ g/kg); 8SPT, 8-sulfophenyltheophylline; and WTMN, wortmannin.

area at risk and collateral blood flow were also comparable (Table).

Infarct Size

Figure 2 shows infarct size in the groups of protocol 1. Pravastatin (0.2, 2, and 10 mg/kg) dose-dependently reduced the infarct size ($29.5 \pm 3.5\%$, $22.5 \pm 4.0\%$, and $18.8 \pm 3.4\%$, respectively) compared with that in the control group ($39.8 \pm 3.6\%$), and the difference was significant at 2 mg/kg or more. Pitavastatin (0.01, 0.1, and 0.5 mg/kg) also reduced infarct size ($32.9 \pm 3.9\%$, $23.6 \pm 3.8\%$, and $31.4 \pm 3.9\%$, respectively), although the optimal dose was 0.1 mg/kg (the only dose that produced a significant difference). Although cerivastatin (0.5, 5, and 50 μ g/kg) caused infarct limitation ($26.2 \pm 3.2\%$, $32.1 \pm 5.3\%$, and $37.1 \pm 4.4\%$, respectively), it was significant at the lowest dose only, and the effect was

weaker at higher doses. Furthermore, cotreatment with AMP-CP, 8-SPT, or wortmannin between 5 minutes before and 60 minutes after reperfusion abrogated the infarct-limiting effect of pravastatin ($39.9 \pm 4.0\%$, $42.6 \pm 4.0\%$, or $38.6 \pm 3.6\%$, respectively), pitavastatin ($40.4 \pm 3.1\%$, $39.4 \pm 3.6\%$, or $39.1 \pm 3.1\%$, respectively), and cerivastatin ($41.1 \pm 3.7\%$, $42.1 \pm 3.9\%$, or $40.4 \pm 4.0\%$, respectively), although these drugs per se did not affect infarct size ($42.7 \pm 4.5\%$, $40.3 \pm 3.5\%$, or $42.7 \pm 4.5\%$, respectively).

5'-Nucleotidase Activity at Reperfusion

Figure 3 shows the activity of ecto-/endo-5'-nucleotidase in protocol 2. Sustained ischemia for 90 minutes and 15 minutes of subsequent reperfusion did not significantly change the activity of ecto-5'-nucleotidase (41.0 ± 5.7 versus 33.2 ± 1.2 nmol · mg protein⁻¹ · min⁻¹ at baseline). Preischemic treat-

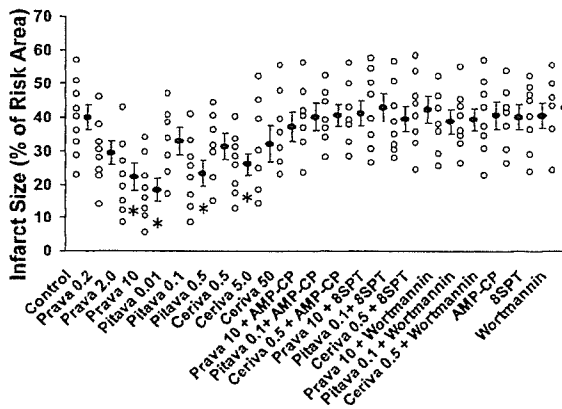


Figure 2. Infarct size in each group in protocol 1. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. * P < 0.05 vs control. Open circles show infarct size in each individual. Prava indicates pravastatin; Pitava, pitavastatin; and Ceriva; cerivastatin. All other abbreviations are as defined in text.

ment with pravastatin caused a dose-dependent and acute increase of ecto-5'-nucleotidase activity in the ischemic zone, which became significant at the highest dose (72.6 ± 6.0 nmol \cdot mg protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ at 10 mg/kg, P < 0.05 versus control). Pitavastatin also caused significant activation at its optimal (medium) dose (66.7 ± 6.1 nmol \cdot mg protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ at 0.1 mg/kg, P < 0.05 versus control). Cerivastatin caused activation at the lowest dose (62.5 ± 5.6 nmol \cdot mg protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ at 0.5 μ g/kg, P < 0.05 versus control). All of these increases were canceled by the selective PI3-K inhibitors wortmannin (39.5 ± 6.8 nmol \cdot mg protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ for pravastatin, 37.0 ± 7.1 nmol \cdot mg protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ for pitavastatin, and 38.4 ± 6.5 nmol \cdot mg protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ for cerivastatin) or LY294002 (33.5 ± 6.5 nmol \cdot mg protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ for pravastatin, 35.0 ± 6.2 nmol \cdot mg protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ for pitavastatin, and 37.5 ± 6.7 nmol \cdot mg

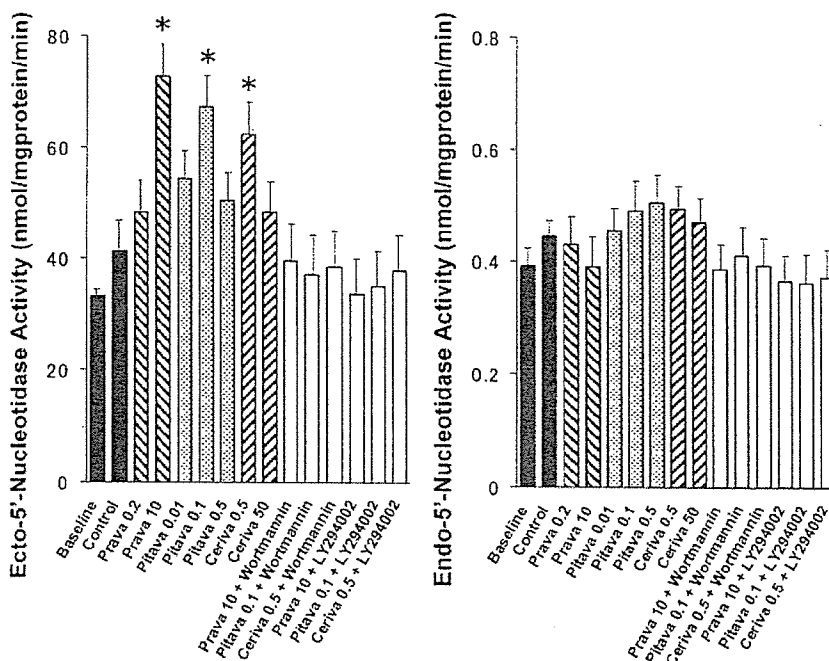


Figure 3. Myocardial ecto-/endo-5'-nucleotidase activity in each group in protocol 2. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. $n=4$ each, * P < 0.05 vs control. Abbreviations are as defined in text and in legend to Figure 2.

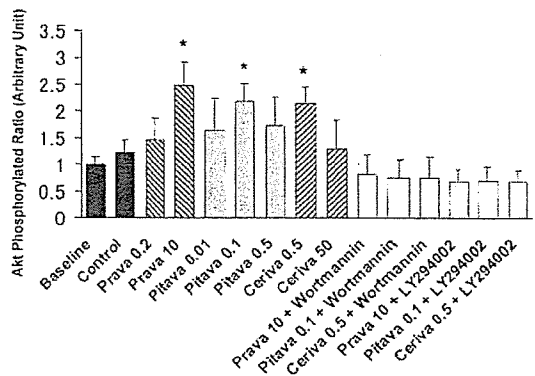


Figure 4. Myocardial PI3-K activity represented by phosphorylated ratio of Akt in each group in protocol 2. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. $n=4$ each, * P < 0.05 vs control. Abbreviations are as defined in text and in legend to Figure 2.

protein $^{-1}$ \cdot min $^{-1}$ for cerivastatin). The activity of endo-5'-nucleotidase remained unchanged in all cases.

PI3-K Activity at Reperfusion

Figure 4 shows the activity of PI3-K in protocol 2. Sustained ischemia for 90 minutes and subsequent reperfusion for 15 minutes did not change PI3-K activity significantly ($123 \pm 23\%$ versus $100 \pm 14\%$ at baseline). Preischemic treatment with pravastatin caused dose-dependent and acute activation of ecto-5'-nucleotidase in the ischemic zone, which was significant at the highest dose ($249 \pm 44\%$ at 10 mg/kg, P < 0.05 versus control). Pitavastatin also caused significant activation at its medium dose ($218 \pm 34\%$ at 0.1 mg/kg, P < 0.05 versus control), whereas cerivastatin caused activation at the lowest dose ($214 \pm 31\%$ at 0.5 μ g/kg, P < 0.05 versus control). We confirmed that all of these increases were also blocked by wortmannin ($81 \pm 38\%$ for pravastatin,

77±32% for pitavastatin, and 76±39% for cerivastatin) or LY294002 (69±23% for pravastatin, 70±27% for pitavastatin, and 68±21% for cerivastatin).

Discussion

The present study demonstrates that several statins provide immediate infarct limitation of different magnitudes and at different optimal doses. Our results also suggest that activation of ecto-5'-nucleotidase through the activation of PI3-K after ischemia was involved in this cardioprotective mechanism of statins.

Cholesterol-Lowering Effects and Immediate Infarct Limitation of Statins

In this study, we set the doses of statins in line with their clinical cholesterol-lowering properties. In Japan, the standard clinical doses to obtain a 20% to 30% reduction of total plasma cholesterol levels were 10 mg/d for pravastatin, 2 mg/d for pitavastatin, and 0.15 mg/d for cerivastatin. Our preliminary trials in the same dog model revealed that a single intravenous injection of 0.2 mg/kg pravastatin, 0.1 mg/kg pitavastatin, or 5 µg/kg cerivastatin approximated the clinical cholesterol-lowering dose based on the maximal plasma concentration of each statin (data not shown). Because (1) the maximal infarct limitation was achieved by a higher dose of pravastatin than the clinical dose, whereas the dose was similar to the clinical dose for pitavastatin and lower for cerivastatin, and (2) these statins showed early cardioprotection within 2 hours of administration in this model, it is strongly suggested that the magnitude of immediate infarct limitation by each statin is not correlated with its cholesterol-lowering effect.

Existence of Optimal Cardioprotective Doses for Each Statin

In the present report, we have directly shown that pitavastatin has the optimal dose to reduce infarct size. Obviously, there is also an optimal dose for cerivastatin under the lowest dose we tried, because infarct size with far lower doses of cerivastatin near zero will converge with those of control levels. In the case of pravastatin, our additional experiment, within the limitation with regard to the total amount of the drug we could obtain, showed that 100 mg/kg pravastatin administered in the same manner as in protocol 1 exerted similar (but a slightly weaker) magnitude of reducing infarct size (20.9±4.5%, n=5) compared with that achieved with 10 mg/kg of this agent. Although we could not show direct evidence in this case, it would at least not deny the possibility for the existence of an optimal dose of pravastatin. Furthermore, other reports also showed the existence of an optimal dose of atorvastatin for infarct limitation⁹ or of simvastatin for PI3-K activation.⁸ Taken together, the existence of optimal doses should be ubiquitous among all (or at least all hydrophobic) statins.

Although direct exhibition of the reason for this phenomenon remains unclear in this study, there might be some reasons to regulate the respective optimal windows for each statin, eg, differences in the ability to attenuate inflammatory response²⁰ or in the potency of direct absorption into cellular

membrane to modulate intracellular signaling systems. In addition, our present finding that infarct limitation completely paralleled the activation of PI3-K leads us to hypothesize that the lesser effects by the higher doses of statins should be regulated upstream of PI3-K. One possibility is that all hydrophobic statins can dose-dependently activate apoptosis-related signals,²¹ which might also explain the wide range of higher cardioprotective doses for pravastatin specifically. Finally, additional studies will need to be performed to obtain direct evidence.

Cardioprotective Mechanisms

Our observations that (1) activation of PI3-K and ecto-5'-nucleotidase was coincident with a substantial limitation of infarct size, (2) either wortmannin or AMP-CP abolished cardioprotection by all 3 statins, (3) different PI3-K inhibitors at reperfusion actually inhibited PI3-K activity (Figure 4) and subsequently reduced ecto-5'-nucleotidase activity (Figure 3), and (4) our preliminary documentation that PI3-K inhibition by either wortmannin or LY294002 before ischemia did not abolish the infarct limitation by statins in the present study (n=4 or 5, data not shown), together suggest that infarct limitation in this model was linked to the activation of PI3-K during reperfusion, not before ischemia, followed by ecto-5'-nucleotidase activation.

In this study, we did not determine the exact mechanism of how PI3-K activates ecto-5'-nucleotidase. Although we have previously reported that phosphorylation of ecto-5'-nucleotidase might be crucial,²² other mechanisms may also be involved, such as endocytotic turnover.¹⁷ In addition, although we did not evaluate real-time regional myocardial production of adenosine in each group, treatment with a potent adenosine receptor antagonist (8-SPT) during reperfusion also blunted infarct limitation by statins along with the inhibition of ecto-5'-nucleotidase, further suggesting that cardioprotection against ischemia-reperfusion injury via ecto-5'-nucleotidase activation might be mediated by an increase of adenosine, the main product of ecto-5'-nucleotidase.^{11,13,22} However, other implicated mechanism of enhanced activation of the adenosine receptor (eg, increased receptor sensitivity) should be determined by future studies.

Possible Link Between Cardioprotection by Adenosine and NO

Previous studies support our present findings that statins rapidly activate the PI3-K/Akt pathway,^{8,9} and we obtained another preliminary finding that the cotreatment with *N*^ω-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester (10 µg · kg⁻¹ · min⁻¹) in the same manner as in protocol 1, which we confirmed did not affect baseline infarct size in the present model,²³ blunted the infarct limitation by pravastatin (36.8±4.1%, n=7), pitavastatin (39.9±3.9%, n=6), and cerivastatin (42.6±4.6%, n=5). Therefore, there is a possibility that ecto-5'-nucleotidase and NO act in series to cause statin-induced cardioprotection.

Although elucidation of a direct effect should be the focus of future studies, there are at least 2 lines of evidence to support the explanation that adenosine and NO synergistically caused infarct limitation in this study. First, NO directly exerts cardioprotection²⁴: NO inhibits cell-to-cell adhesion,

such as that between platelets²⁵ or between neutrophils and endothelial cells,^{26,27} by reducing expression of P-selectin,²⁷ E-selectin, and intercellular adhesion molecule-1,²⁸ which leads to attenuation of the inflammatory response^{22,24,25} or protects against ischemia-reperfusion injury.^{25–28} In addition, NO is reported to inhibit caspase-3 activity and to block apoptosis of cardiac myocytes.²⁹ On the other hand, adenosine also rescues injured myocardium through activating adenosine receptors.^{13,30–32} Either administration of adenosine or enhancement of endogenous adenosine release during reperfusion after sustained ischemia limits infarct size.^{13,17} We and others have shown that (1) adenosine receptor (A₁ and A₂) activation improves contractile dysfunction after reperfusion,¹⁴ (2) inhibition of norepinephrine release from the presynaptic vesicles and attenuation of calcium influx occur through the A₁ receptor and the coupled inhibitory G protein,^{33,34} (3) inhibition of platelet aggregation and leukocyte activation occurs through the A₂ receptor and the coupled stimulatory G protein,^{34–36} and (4) activation of extracellular signal-regulated kinase, one of the reperfusion injury survival kinase pathways,³⁷ takes place during reperfusion through the A₃ receptor.³⁸ Therefore, either adenosine or NO similarly and potentially protects injured myocardium through multiple pathways.

Second, recent articles have shown that either adenosine^{38–40} or NO⁴¹ can reactivate PI3-K downstream. However, increasing the production of both agents is known to negatively regulate further increases of production of these molecules,^{42,43} suggesting the requirement of both pathways to confer sufficient cardioprotection in the physiological system. Taking all of these together, it is likely that adenosine and NO synergistically confer the statin-derived immediate cardioprotection shown in this study.

In conclusion, our findings suggest the cellular mechanism by which statins attenuate myocardial injury, which may indicate the possibility of acute protective therapies for ischemia and associated myocardial stresses.

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Weakly ionized cerium plasma radiography

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ABSTRACT

In the plasma flash x-ray generator, high-voltage main condenser of about 200 nF is charged up to 55 kV by a power supply, and electric charges in the condenser are discharged to an x-ray tube after triggering the cathode electrode. The flash x-rays are then produced. The x-ray tube is of a demountable triode that is connected to a turbo molecular pump with a pressure of approximately 1 mPa. As electron flows from the cathode electrode are roughly converged to a rod cerium target of 3.0 mm in diameter by electric field in the x-ray tube, the weakly ionized linear plasma, which consists of cerium ions and electrons, forms by target evaporating. At a charging voltage of 55 kV, the maximum tube voltage was almost equal to the charging voltage of the main condenser, and the peak current was about 20 kA. When the charging voltage was increased, weakly ionized cerium plasma formed, and the K-series characteristic x-ray intensities increased. The x-ray pulse widths were about 500 ns, and the time-integrated x-ray intensity had a value of about 40 $\mu\text{C}/\text{kg}$ at 1.0 m from x-ray source with a charging voltage of 55 kV. In the angiography, we employed a film-less computed radiography (CR) system and iodine-based microspheres. Because K-series characteristic x-rays are absorbed easily by the microspheres, high-contrast angiography has been performed.

Key words: Plasma x-ray, cerium target, weakly ionized cerium plasma, characteristic x-ray, high contrast angiography

1. INTRODUCTION

Flash x-rays are useful in order to perform high-speed radiography, and various generators have been developed to correspond to specific radiographic objectives.¹⁻⁶ In the cases of multiple-shot and cine radiographies, we have developed several different repetitive-flash⁷⁻¹¹ and stroboscopic x-ray generators.¹²⁻¹⁸ Although most flash x-ray generators have cold-cathode tubes, the stroboscopic generators utilize hot-cathode tubes.

In conjunction with single crystals, synchrotrons generate monochromatic x-rays. These rays play important roles in parallel radiography and have been employed to perform high-contrast micro-angiography¹⁹ and x-ray phase imaging.^{20,21} However, it is difficult to obtain sufficient machine times for various research projects including medical applications.

As for angiography using iodine-based contrast mediums, K-series characteristic x-rays of cerium are extremely useful, since the rays are absorbed easily by iodine. In particular, since quite intense and sharp characteristic x-rays have been produced from weakly ionized linear plasmas²²⁻²⁵ of nickel, copper and molybdenum, the development of a cerium-target x-ray tube for angiography is highly desirable.

In this research, we developed a single flash x-ray generator with a cerium-target plasma tube and performed a tentative study on weakly ionized cerium plasma angiography.

2. GENERATOR

2.1 High-voltage circuit

Figure 1 shows block diagram of a high-intensity plasma flash x-ray generator. This generator consists of the following essential components: a high-voltage power supply, a high-voltage condenser with a capacity of about 200 nF, a turbo-molecular pump, a krytron pulse generator as a trigger device, and a flash x-ray tube. In this generator, a low-impedance transmission line is employed in order to increase maximum tube current. The high-voltage main condenser is charged up to 55 kV by the power supply, and electric charges in the condenser are discharged to the tube after triggering the cathode electrode by the trigger device. The plasma flash x-rays are then produced.

2.2 X-ray tube

The x-ray tube is a demountable cold-cathode triode that is connected to the turbo molecular pump with a pressure of approximately 1 mPa (Fig. 2). This tube consists of the following major parts: a pipe-shaped carbon cathode with a bore diameter of 10.0 mm, a trigger electrode made from a copper wire, a stainless-steel vacuum chamber, a nylon insulator, a polyethylene terephthalate (Mylar) x-ray window of 0.25 mm, and a rod-shaped cerium target of 3.0 mm in diameter. The target tip is embedded in the carbon rod in order to absorb the characteristic x-rays of carbon by the window. The distance between the target and cathode electrodes is approximately 20 mm, and the trigger electrode is set in the cathode electrode. As electron beams from the cathode electrode are roughly converged to the target by electric field in the tube, the weakly ionized plasma, which consists of cerium ions and electrons, forms around the target by evaporating.

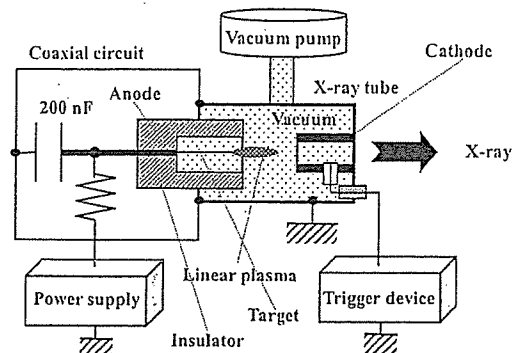


Figure 1: Block diagram of high-intensity plasma flash x-ray generator.

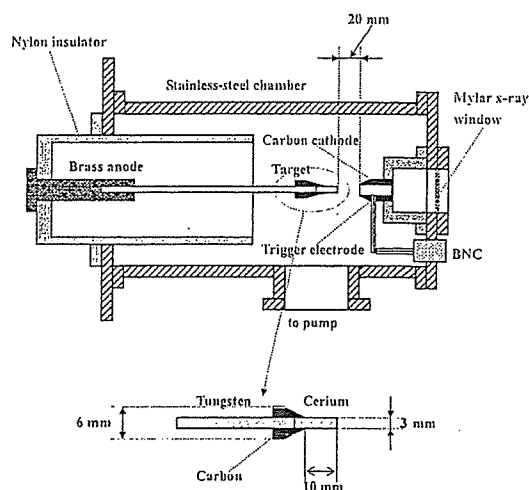


Figure 2: Schematic drawing of flash x-ray tube with a rod target.

3. CHARACTERISTICS

3.1 Tube voltage and current

Tube voltage and current were measured by a high-voltage divider with an input impedance of $1 \text{ G}\Omega$ and a current transformer, respectively. Figure 3 shows time relation between the tube voltage and current. At the indicated charging voltages, they roughly displayed damped oscillations. When the charging voltage was increased, both the maximum tube voltage and current increased. At a charging voltage of 55 kV, the maximum tube voltage was almost equal to the charging voltage of the main condenser, and the maximum tube current was about 20 kA.

3.2 X-ray output

X-ray output pulse was detected using a combination of a plastic scintillator and a photomultiplier. The x-ray pulse height substantially increased with corresponding increases in the charging voltage (Fig. 4). The x-ray pulse widths were about 500 ns, and the time-integrated x-ray intensity measured by a thermoluminescence dosimeter (Kyokko TLD Reader 1500 utilizing MSO-S elements without energy compensation) had a value of about $40 \mu\text{C}/\text{kg}$ at 1.0 m from the x-ray source with a charging voltage of 55 kV.

3.3 X-ray source

In order to measure images of the plasma x-ray source, we employed a pinhole camera with a hole diameter of $100 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 5). When the charging voltage was increased, the plasma x-ray source grew, and both spot dimension and intensity increased. In contrast, both the dimension and intensity decreased according to insertion of the monochromatic filter.

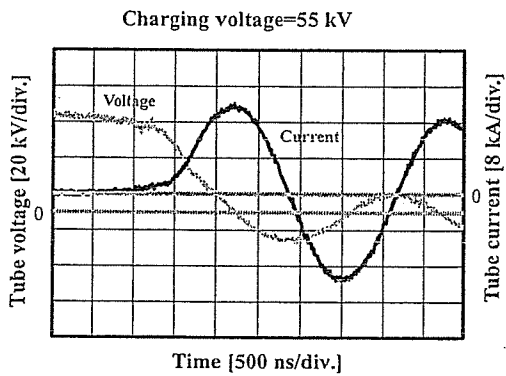
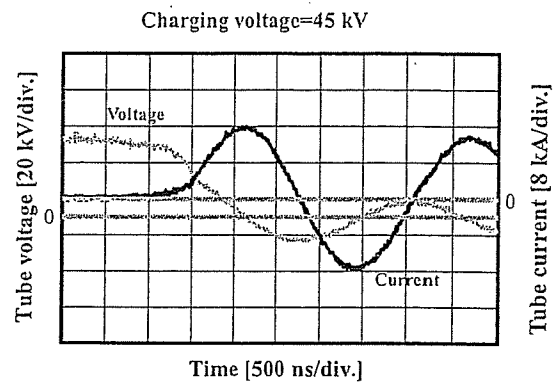
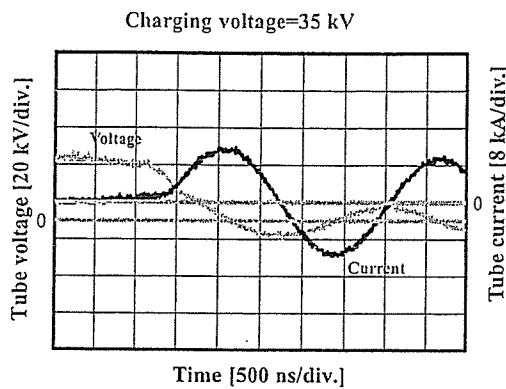


Figure 3: Tube voltages and currents at the indicated charging voltages.

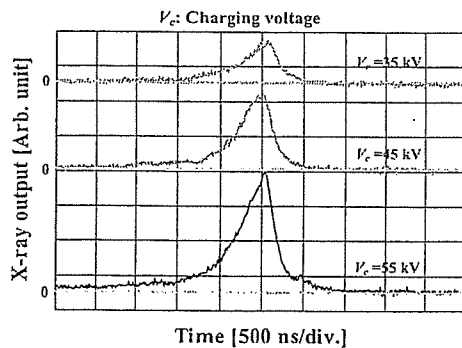


Figure 4: X-ray outputs at the indicated conditions.

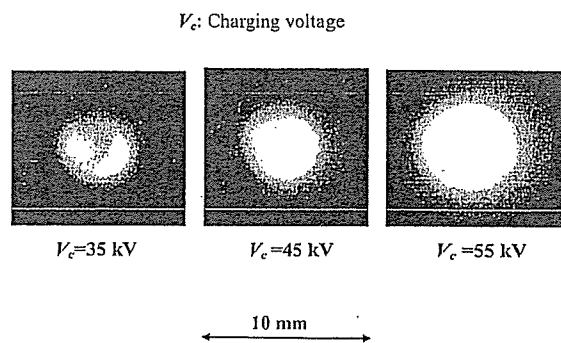


Figure 5: Images of plasma x-ray source.

3.4 X-ray spectra

X-ray spectra from the plasma source were measured by a transmission-type spectrometer with a lithium fluoride curved crystal of 0.5 mm in thickness (Fig. 6). The spectra were taken by a computed radiography (CR) system²⁶ (Konica Regius 150) having a wide dynamic range, and relative x-ray intensity was calculated from Dicom digital data. Figure 7 shows measured spectra from the cerium target. In this experiment, although we observed both the bremsstrahlung and characteristic x-rays, we could not observe characteristic x-rays with a charging voltage of 35 kV

because the critical excitation energy is 40.3 keV. Both the intensities increased substantially with increases in the charging voltage.

3.5 X-ray divergence by slits

In order to ascertain difference of characteristics between x-rays from a conventional tube and these from the plasma tube, we employed two lead slits in order to measure the divergence of the x-rays (Fig. 8). As compared with x-rays from a conventional tube having a tungsten target, the characteristic x-rays from the plasma were diffused greatly after passing through two slits (Fig. 9).

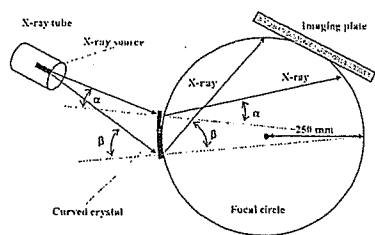


Figure 6: Transmission-type spectrometer with a lithium fluoride curved crystal and an imaging plate.

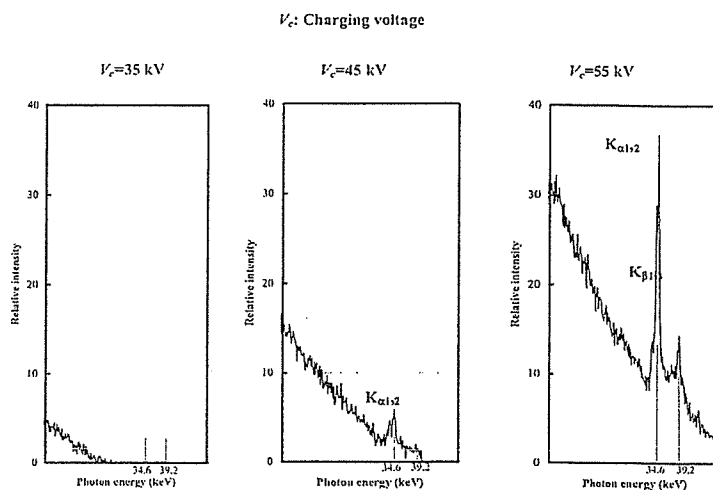


Figure 7: X-ray spectra from weakly ionized cerium plasma.

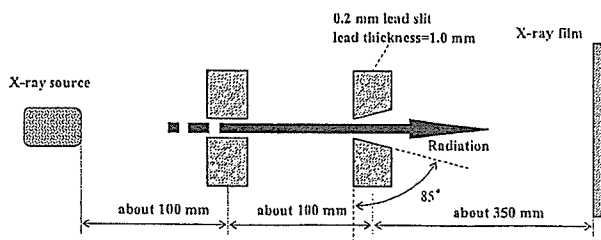


Figure 8: Experimental setup for measuring x-ray divergence using two lead slits.

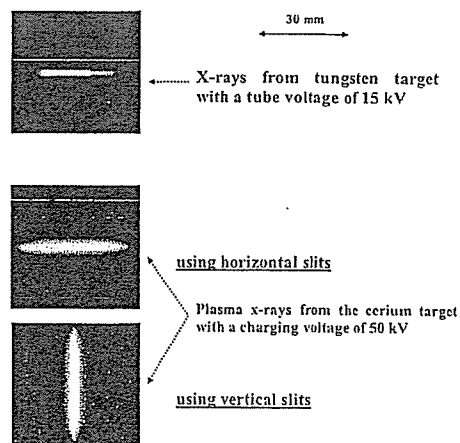


Figure 9: X-ray divergence by two lead slits.

4. ANGIOGRAPHY

The plasma angiography was performed by the CR system without using a monochromatic filter, and the distance between the x-ray source and the imaging plate was 1.2 m.

Firstly, rough measurements of image resolution were made using wires. Figure 10 shows radiograms of 50 μm -diameter tungsten wires coiled around a pipe and a rod made of polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) with a charging voltage of 55 kV. Although the image contrast increased using the pipe, 50 μm -diameter wires could be observed.

The image of water falling into a polypropylene beaker from a glass test tube is shown in Fig. 11. This image was taken with a charging voltage of 55 kV, with the slight addition of an iodine-based contrast medium. Because the x-ray duration was about 1 μs , the stop-motion image of water could be obtained.

Angiograms of rabbit hearts are shown in Fig. 12. These two images were obtained using iodine and cerium microspheres of 20 μm , respectively, with a charging voltage of 55 kV. In case where the cerium spheres were employed, the coronary arteries were barely visible. Figure 13 shows an angiogram of the external ear of a rabbit using iodine spheres with a charging voltage of 55 kV, and fine blood vessels of about 50 μm are clearly visible. In angiography of a larger heart extracted from a dog, using iodine spheres, a PMMA plate was set in front of heart facing x-ray source, and image contrast of coronary arteries increased with increases in the plate thickness (Fig. 14).

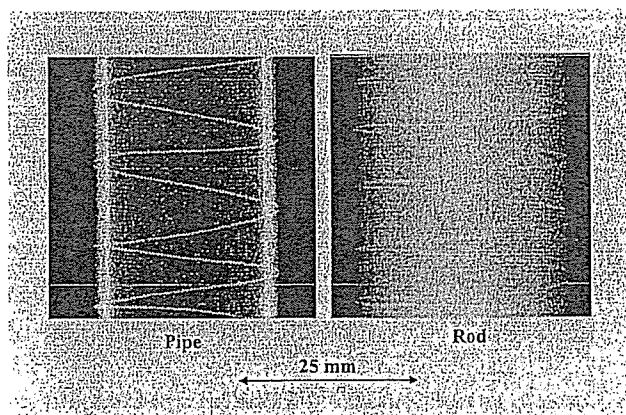


Figure 10: Radiograms of tungsten wires of 50 μm in diameter coiled around pipe and a rod made of PMMA.

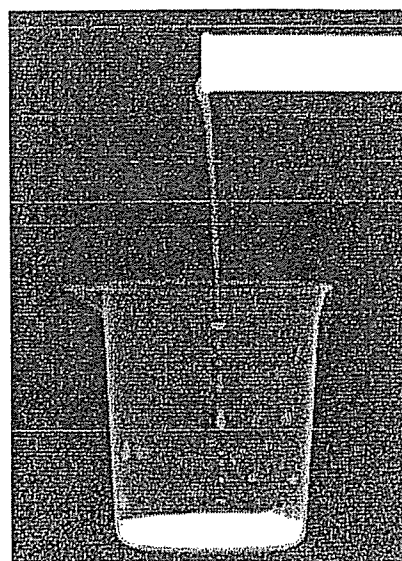
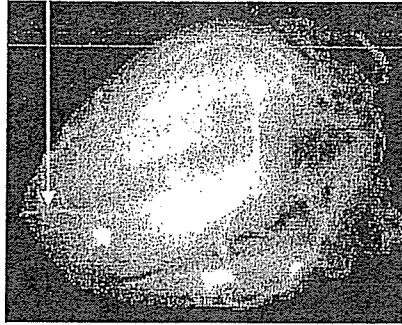
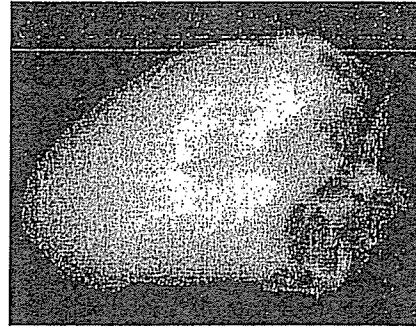


Figure 11: Radiogram of water falling into a polypropylene beaker from a glass test tube.

50 μm tungsten wire



Iodine microspheres



Cerium microspheres

30 mm

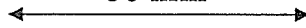
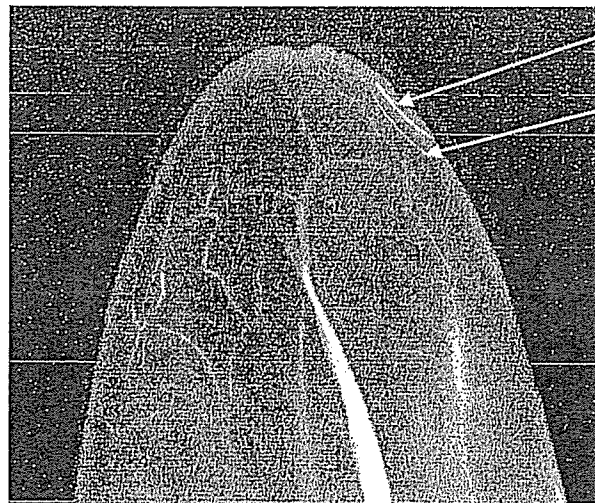


Figure 12: Angiograms of rabbit hearts using iodine and cerium microspheres.



100 μm tungsten wire

50 μm tungsten wire

Figure 13: Angiograms of the external ear of a rabbit.

V_c : Charging voltage

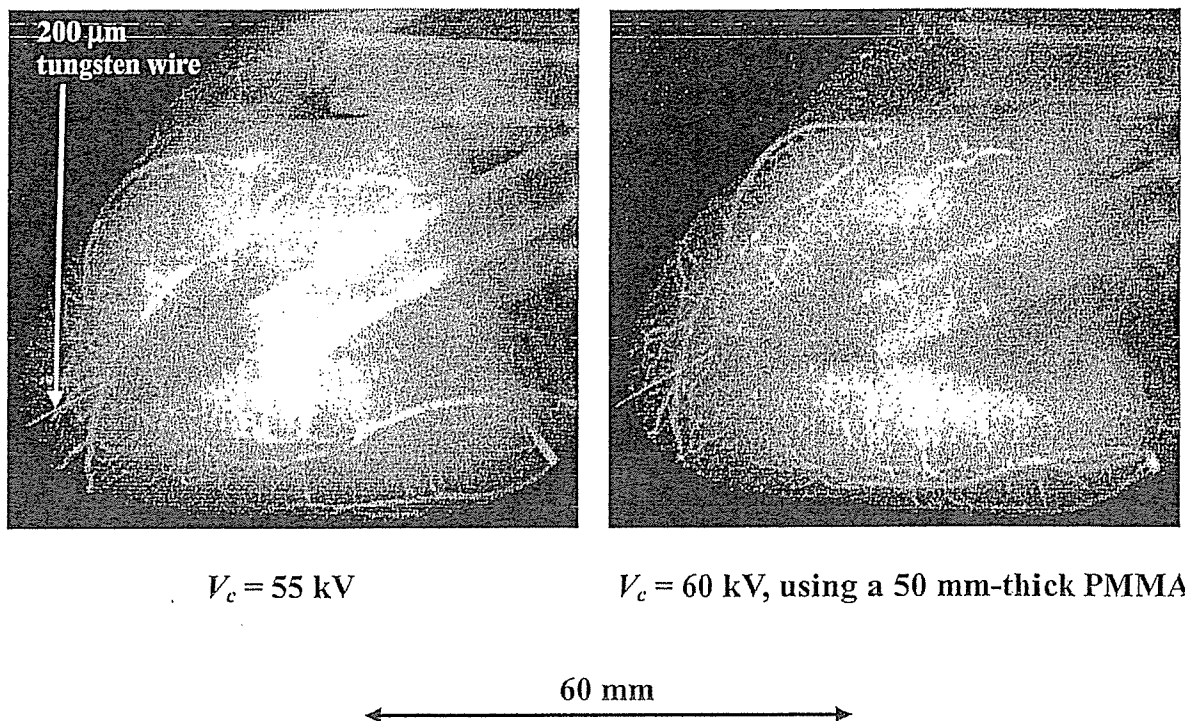


Figure 14: Angiograms of an extracted heart of a dog.

5. DISCUSSION

Cerium is a rare earth element and has a high reactivity. However, the average photon energy of K_{α} lines is 34.566 keV, and iodine spheres with a K-absorption edge of 33.155 keV absorb the lines easily (Fig. 15). Next, since the spheres easily transmit bremsstrahlung x-rays with energies of lower than the edge, it is important that the rays be absorbed as much as possible before angiography in order to increase the image contrast.

In an earlier experiment using a copper target,²³ bremsstrahlung x-rays were hardly observed at all, and we confirmed the irradiation of quite sharp and intense K-series characteristic x-rays such as lasers. In the present work, although we confirmed intense characteristic x-rays with a higher charging voltage, bremsstrahlung x-rays were detected, since the bremsstrahlung intensity is proportional to the atomic number of the target element. Therefore, the condenser charging voltage should be raised as high as possible to increase the characteristic x-ray intensity. In order to decrease emission of bremsstrahlung x-rays from the carbon target holder, the target length should also be set as long as possible.

In this research, we obtained sufficient x-ray intensity per pulse for CR radiography, and the generator produced high-dose-rate plasma x-rays of approximately 80 C/kg·s at 1.0 m with a charging voltage of 55 kV. In addition, because the x-ray intensity increases with increases in the electrostatic energy in the main discharge condenser, the flash x-rays from weakly ionized linear cerium plasma can be employed to perform high-speed angiography for cardiovascular disease.

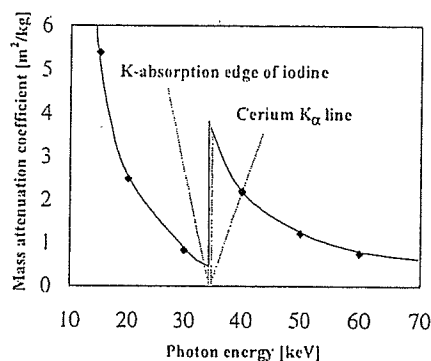


Figure 15: Relation between the mass attenuation coefficient of iodine and the average photon energy of cerium K_{α} lines.

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Weakly ionized plasma flash x-ray generator and its distinctive characteristics

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ABSTRACT

In the plasma flash x-ray generator, a high-voltage main condenser of approximately 200 nF is charged up to 50 kV by a power supply, and electric charges in the condenser are discharged to an x-ray tube after triggering the cathode electrode. The flash x-rays are then produced. The x-ray tube is a demountable triode that is connected to a turbo molecular pump with a pressure of approximately 1 mPa. As electron flows from the cathode electrode are roughly converged to a rod copper target of 3.0 mm in diameter by the electric field in the x-ray tube, weakly ionized linear plasma, which consists of copper ions and electrons, forms by target evaporation. At a charging voltage of 50 kV, the maximum tube voltage was almost equal to the charging voltage of the main condenser, and the peak current was about 15 kA. When the charging voltage was increased, the linear plasma formed, and the K-series characteristic x-ray intensities increased. The K-series lines were quite sharp and intense, and hardly any bremsstrahlung rays were detected. The x-ray pulse widths were approximately 700 ns, and the time-integrated x-ray intensity had a value of approximately 30 $\mu\text{C}/\text{kg}$ at 1.0 m from the x-ray source with a charging voltage of 50 kV.

Keywords: Flash x-ray, weakly ionized linear plasma, K-series characteristic x-rays, monochromatic x-rays, x-ray divergence, rectilinear power