

Bioengineering 280A
Principles of Biomedical Imaging

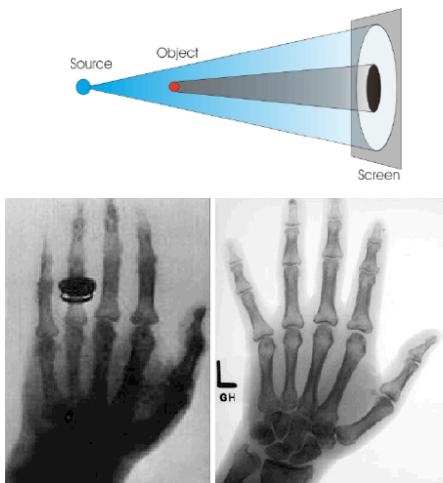
Fall Quarter 2007
X-Rays Lecture 2

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Topics

- Review topics from last lecture
- Attenuation
- Contrast
- X-Ray Imaging Equation

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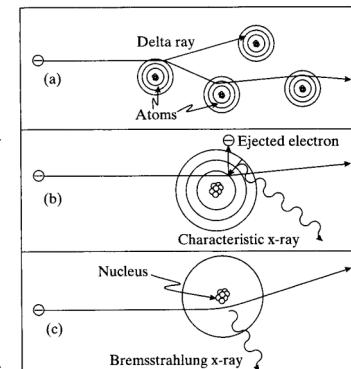


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X-Ray Production

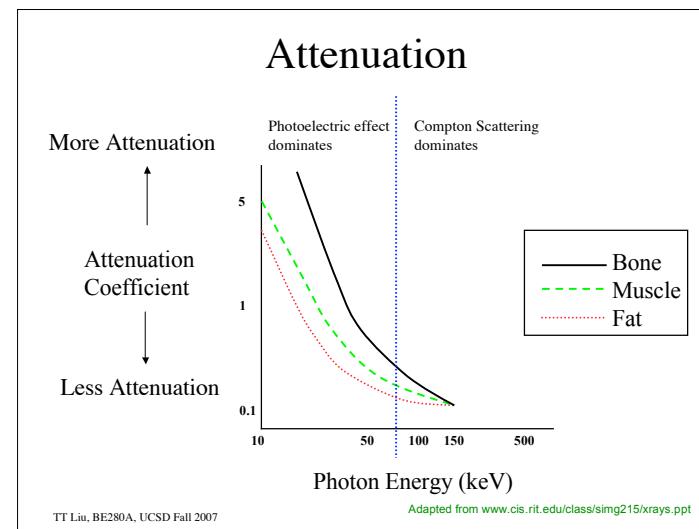
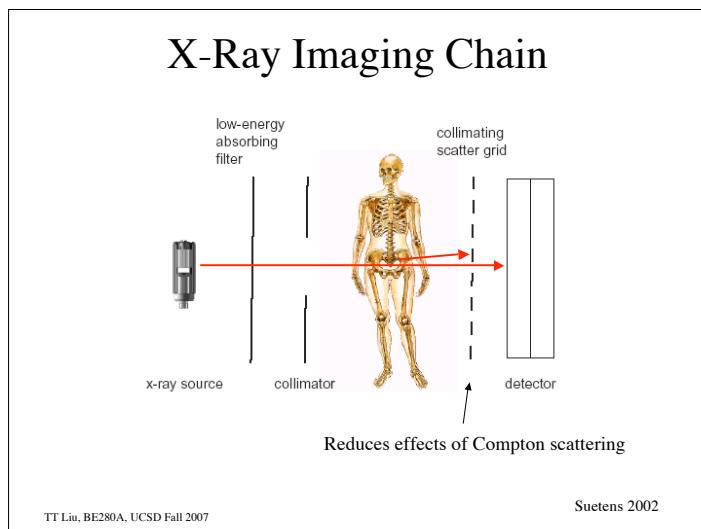
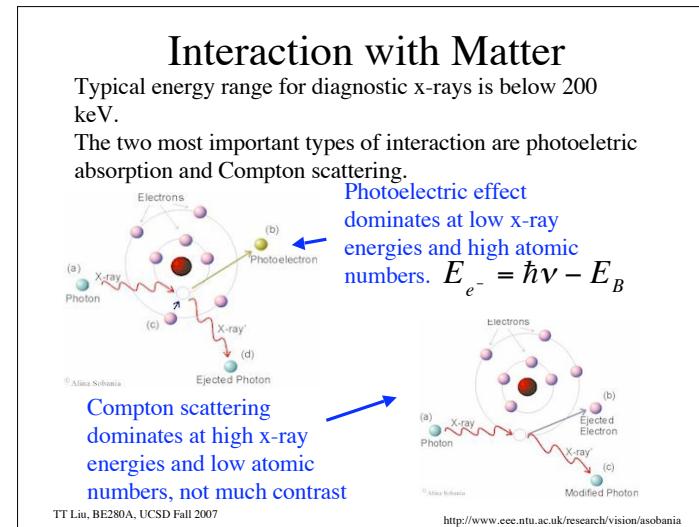
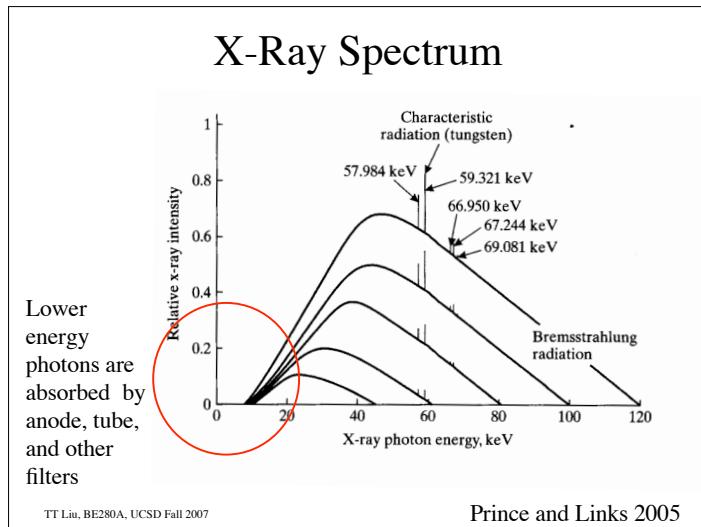
Collisional transfers

Radiative transfers



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Prince and Links 2005



Intensity

$$I = E\phi$$

Energy Photon flux rate

$$\phi = \frac{N}{A\Delta t}$$

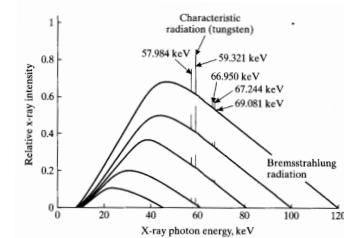
Number of photons
Unit Area Unit Time

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Intensity

$$\phi = \int_0^\infty S(E')dE'$$

X-ray spectrum



$$I = \int_0^\infty S(E')E'dE'$$

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Attenuation

$$n = \mu N \Delta x \text{ photons lost per unit length}$$

$$\mu = \frac{n/N}{\Delta x} \text{ fraction of photons lost per unit length}$$

$$\Delta N = -n \longrightarrow \frac{dN}{dx} = -\mu N \longrightarrow N(x) = N_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

For mono-energetic case, intensity is

$$I(\Delta x) = I_0 e^{-\mu \Delta x}$$

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Attenuation

Inhomogeneous Slab

$$\frac{dN}{dx} = -\mu(x)N \longrightarrow N(x) = N_0 \exp\left(-\int_0^x \mu(x')dx'\right)$$

$$I(x) = I_0 \exp\left(-\int_0^x \mu(x')dx'\right)$$

Attenuation depends on energy, so also need to integrate over energies

$$I(x) = \int_0^\infty S_0(E')E' \exp\left(-\int_0^x \mu(x'; E')dx'\right) dE'$$

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Background intensity $\rightarrow A = N_0 \exp(-\mu x)$

Object intensity $\rightarrow B = N_0 \exp(-\mu(x + z))$

Contrast

$$C = \frac{B - A}{B + A}$$

$$= \frac{N_0 \exp(-\mu(x + z)) - N_0 \exp(-\mu x)}{N_0 \exp(-\mu(x + z)) + N_0 \exp(-\mu x)}$$

Bushberg et al 2001

Subject/Local Contrast

$$C_s = \frac{B - A}{A}$$

$$= \frac{N_0 \exp(-\mu(x + z)) - N_0 \exp(-\mu x)}{N_0 \exp(-\mu x)}$$

$$= \exp(-\mu z) - 1$$

(A) X-ray Imaging

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X-Ray Imaging Geometry

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Inverse Square Law

Inverse Square Law

$$I_0 = \frac{I_s}{4\pi d^2}$$

$$I_d(x, y) = \frac{I_s}{4\pi r^2} \text{ where } r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + d^2$$

$$= \frac{I_0 d^2}{r^2} = I_0 \cos^2 \theta$$

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Obliquity Factor

Obliquity Factor

$$I_d(x, y) = I_0 \cos \theta$$

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X-Ray Imaging Geometry

Beam Divergence and Flat Panel

$$I_r = I_0 \cos^3 \theta$$

Example: Chest x-ray at 2 yards with 14x17 inch film.

Question: What is the smallest ratio I_r/I_0 across the film?

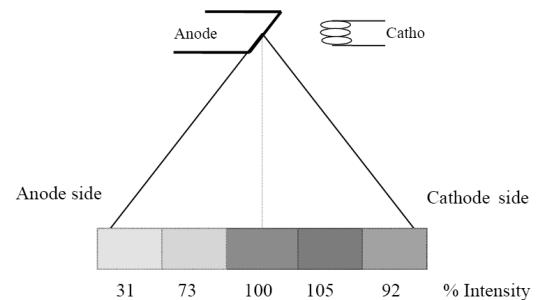
$$r_d = \sqrt{7^2 + 8.5^2} = 11$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{d}{\sqrt{r_d^2 + d^2}} = 0.989$$

$$\frac{I_r}{I_0} = \cos^3 \theta = 0.966$$

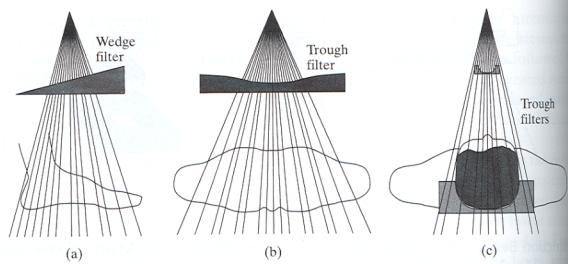
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Anode Heel Effect



<http://www.animalinsides.com/radphys/chapters/Lect2.pdf>

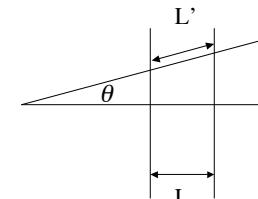
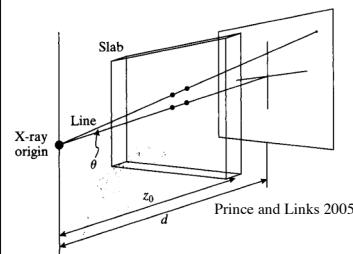
Compensation Filters



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Path Length

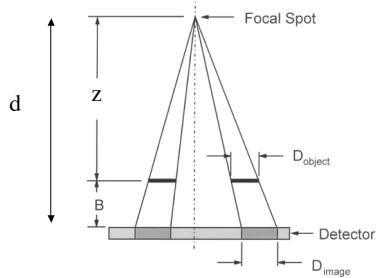


$$L' = L / \cos \theta$$

$$I_d(x, y) = I_0 \cos^3 \theta \exp(-\mu L / \cos \theta)$$

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Magnification of Object



$$M(z) = \frac{d}{z}$$

= Source to Image Distance (SID)
= Source to Object Distance (SOD)

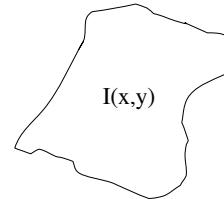
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Bushberg et al 2001

Magnification of Object



$$M = 1: I(x,y) = t(x,y)$$



$$M = 2: I(x,y) = t(x/2,y/2)$$

$$\text{In general, } I(x,y) = t(x/M(z),y/M(z))$$

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X-Ray Imaging Equation

At $z = d$ there is no magnification, so

$$I_d(x,y) = I_0 \cos^3 \theta \cdot \exp\left(-\int_{L_{x,y}} \mu(s) ds / \cos \theta\right)$$

$$= I_0 \cos^3 \theta \cdot t_d(x,y)$$

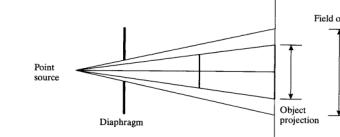
where $t_z(x,y)$ is the transmittivity of the object at distance z

In general, with magnification

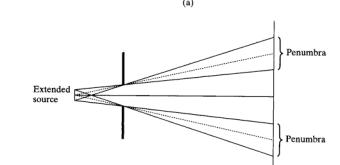
$$I_d(x,y) = I_0 \cos^3 \theta \cdot t_z(x/M(z),y/M(z))$$

Prince and Links 2005

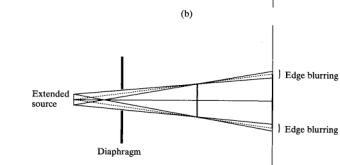
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(a)



(b)



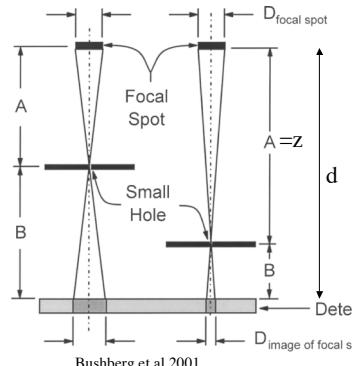
(c)

Figure 5.18
Effects of extended source.
(a) Ideal field of view and object projection (with no penumbra). (b) Penumbra at edges of field of view due to extended source. (c) Blurred object edges due to extended source.

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Prince and Link 2005

Source magnification



$$\frac{D_{image}}{D_{focal}} = \frac{d-z}{z}$$

$$m(z) = -\frac{d-z}{z} = -\frac{B}{A}$$

$$= 1 - M(z)$$

Bushberg et al 2001

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Image of a point object

$$I_d(x,y) = ks(x/m, y/m)$$

$$\int \int ks(x/m(z), y/m(z)) dx dy = \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow k = \frac{1}{m^2(z)}$$

$$I_d(x,y) = \lim_{m \rightarrow 0} \frac{s(x/m, y/m)}{m^2}$$

$$= \delta(x,y)$$



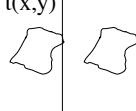
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Image of arbitrary object

$s(x,y)$



$t(x,y)$



$$\lim_{m \rightarrow 0} I_d(x,y) = t(x,y)$$

$s(x,y)$



$t(x,y)$



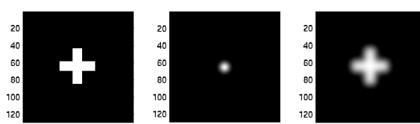
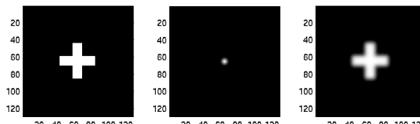
$m=1$

$$I_d(x,y) = ???$$

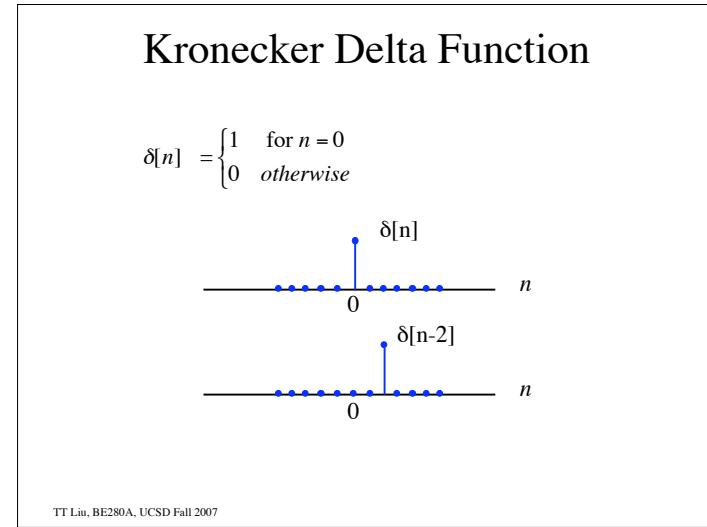
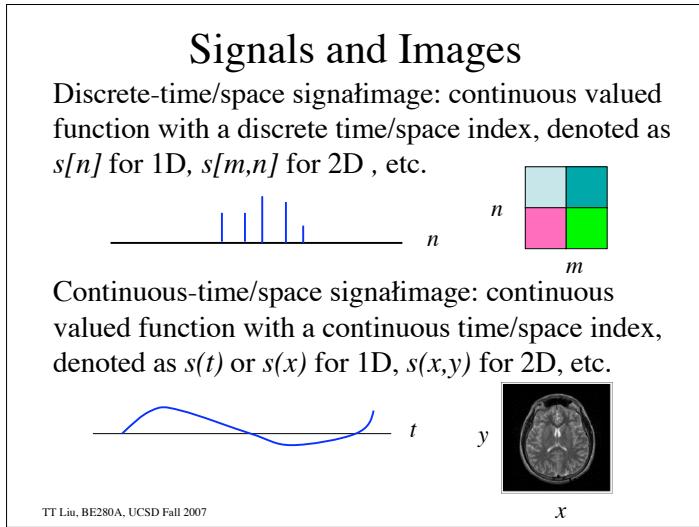
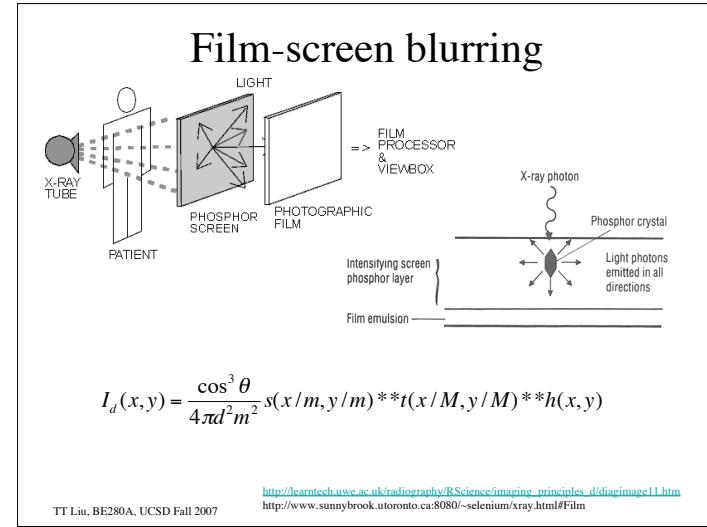
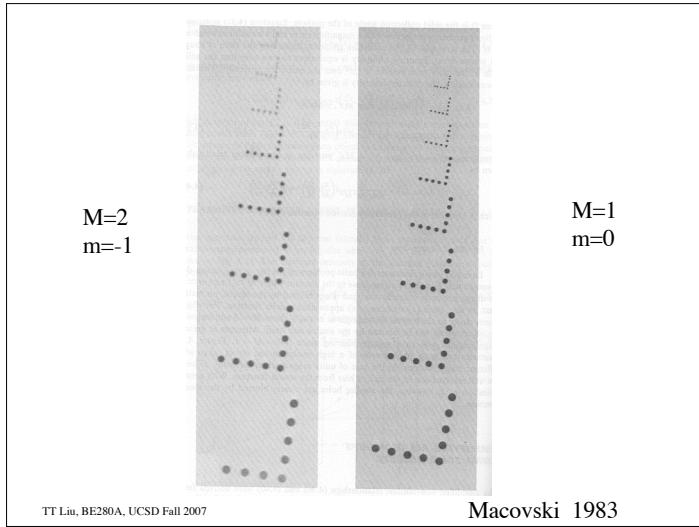
$$I_d(x,y) = \frac{\cos^3 \theta}{4\pi d^2 m^2} s(x/m, y/m) * * t(x/M, y/M)$$

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Convolution

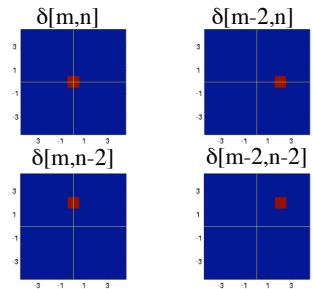


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Kronecker Delta Function

$$\delta[m,n] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } m = 0, n = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

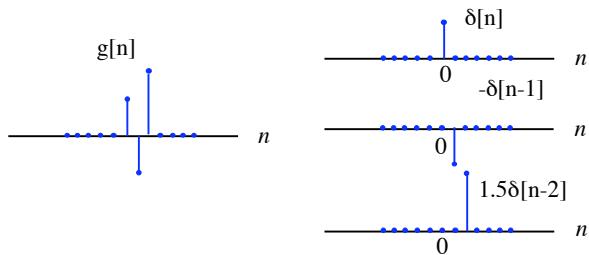


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Discrete Signal Expansion

$$g[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} g[k] \delta[n-k]$$

$$g[m,n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} g[k,l] \delta[m-k, n-l]$$



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2D Signal

$$\begin{matrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} 0 & 0 \\ c & 0 \end{matrix}$$

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Image Decomposition

$$\begin{matrix} c & d \\ a & b \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{matrix} + \begin{matrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g[m,n] &= a\delta[m,n] + b\delta[m,n-1] + c\delta[m-1,n] + d\delta[m-1,n-1] \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^1 \sum_{l=0}^1 g[k,l] \delta[m-k, n-l] \end{aligned}$$

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Dirac Delta Function

Notation :

$\delta(x)$ - 1D Dirac Delta Function

$\delta(x,y)$ or $^2\delta(x,y)$ - 2D Dirac Delta Function

$\delta(x,y,z)$ or $^3\delta(x,y,z)$ - 3D Dirac Delta Function

$\delta(\vec{r})$ - N Dimensional Dirac Delta Function

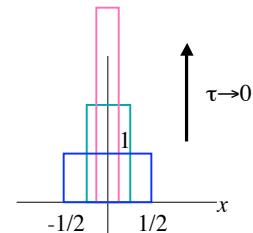
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1D Dirac Delta Function

$$\delta(x) = 0 \text{ when } x \neq 0 \text{ and } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

Can interpret the integral as a limit of the integral of an ordinary function that is shrinking in width and growing in height, while maintaining a constant area. For example, we can use a shrinking rectangle function

$$\text{such that } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tau^{-1} \Pi(x/\tau) dx.$$



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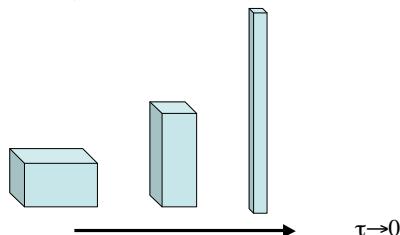
2D Dirac Delta Function

$$\delta(x,y) = 0 \text{ when } x^2 + y^2 \neq 0 \text{ and } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x,y) dx dy = 1$$

where we can consider the limit of the integral of an ordinary 2D function that is shrinking in width but increasing in height while maintaining constant area.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x,y) dx dy = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tau^{-2} \Pi(x/\tau, y/\tau) dx dy.$$

Useful fact : $\delta(x,y) = \delta(x)\delta(y)$



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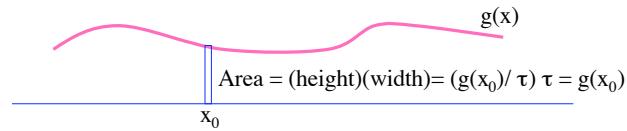
Generalized Functions

Dirac delta functions are not ordinary functions that are defined by their value at each point. Instead, they are generalized functions that are defined by what they do underneath an integral.

The most important property of the Dirac delta is the sifting property

$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x - x_0) g(x) dx = g(x_0)$ where $g(x)$ is a smooth function. This sifting property can be understood by considering the limiting case

$$\lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tau^{-1} \Pi(x/\tau) g(x) dx = g(x_0)$$



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Representation of 1D Function

From the sifting property, we can write a 1D function as

$$g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\xi) \delta(x - \xi) d\xi.$$

$$g(x) \approx \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(n\Delta x) \frac{1}{\Delta x} \Pi\left(\frac{x - n\Delta x}{\Delta x}\right) \Delta x.$$



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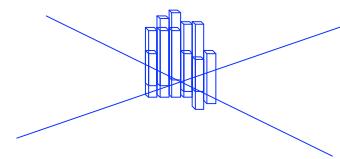
Representation of 2D Function

Similarly, we can write a 2D function as

$$g(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\xi, \eta) \delta(x - \xi, y - \eta) d\xi d\eta.$$

To gain intuition, consider the approximation

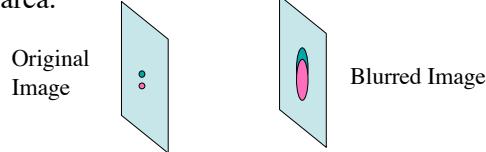
$$g(x, y) \approx \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(n\Delta x, m\Delta y) \frac{1}{\Delta x} \Pi\left(\frac{x - n\Delta x}{\Delta x}\right) \frac{1}{\Delta y} \Pi\left(\frac{y - m\Delta y}{\Delta y}\right) \Delta x \Delta y.$$



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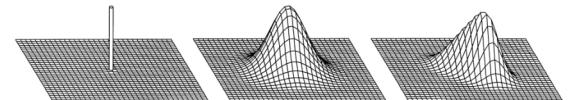
Impulse Response

Intuition: the impulse response is the response of a system to an input of infinitesimal width and unit area.



Since any input can be thought of as the weighted sum of impulses, a linear system is characterized by its impulse response(s).

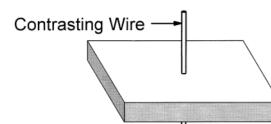
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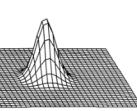
(A) Point Stimulus

(B) Isotropic PSF

(C) Non-Isotropic PSF



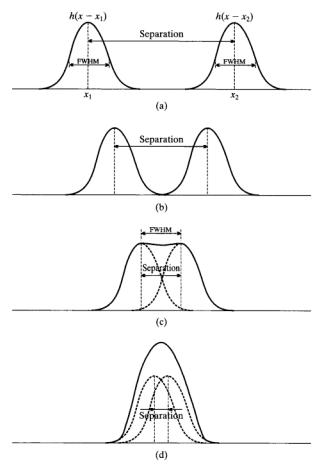
(D) Tomographic Image



(E) PSF

Bushberg et al 2001

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Full Width Half Maximum (FWHM) is a measure of resolution.

Figure 3.6
An example of the effect of system resolution on the ability to differentiate two points. The FWHM equals the minimum distance that the two points must be separated in order to be distinguishable.

Prince and Link 2005

Impulse Response

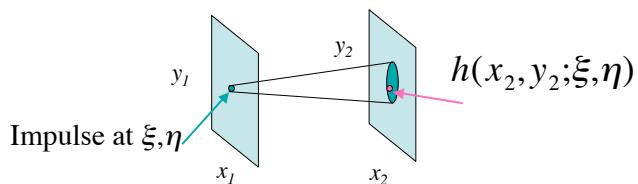
The impulse response characterizes the response of a system over all space to a Dirac delta impulse function at a certain location.

$$h(x_2; \xi) = L[\delta(x_1 - \xi)]$$

$$h(x_2, y_2; \xi, \eta) = L[\delta(x_1 - \xi, y_1 - \eta)]$$

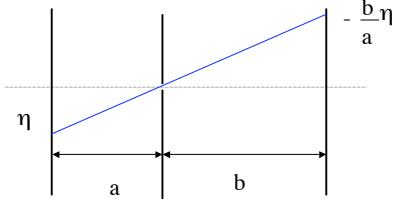
1D Impulse Response

2D Impulse Response



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Pinhole Magnification Example



In this example, an impulse at (ξ, η) will yield an impulse at $(m\xi, m\eta)$ where $m = -b/a$.

Thus, $h(x_2, y_2; \xi, \eta) = L[\delta(x_1 - \xi, y_1 - \eta)] = \delta(x_2 - m\xi, y_2 - m\eta)$.

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