



# FONDAMENTI DI FISICA MEDICA

## PARTE 1: BASI FISICHE DELLA RADIOLOGIA (1 CFU)

### LECTURE 0 - INTRODUCTION

# Testi di Riferimento

| Author  | Title   | Year |
|---|---|------|
| Stephen Keevil, Renato Padovani, Slavik Tabakov, Tony Greener, Cornelius Lewis, editors | Introduction to medical physics<br><i>(ebook disponibile nella biblioteca di ateneo)</i>  | 2022 |
| Jerrold T. Bushberg, J. Anthony Seibert, Edwin M. Leidholdt, John M. Boone, editors     | The essential physics of medical imaging<br><i>(disponibile presso la biblioteca tecnico-scientifica)</i>                       | 2012 |
| Perry Sprawls   | The Physical Principles of Medical Imaging<br><a href="http://www.sprawls.org/resources/">http://www.sprawls.org/resources/</a> | 1993 |

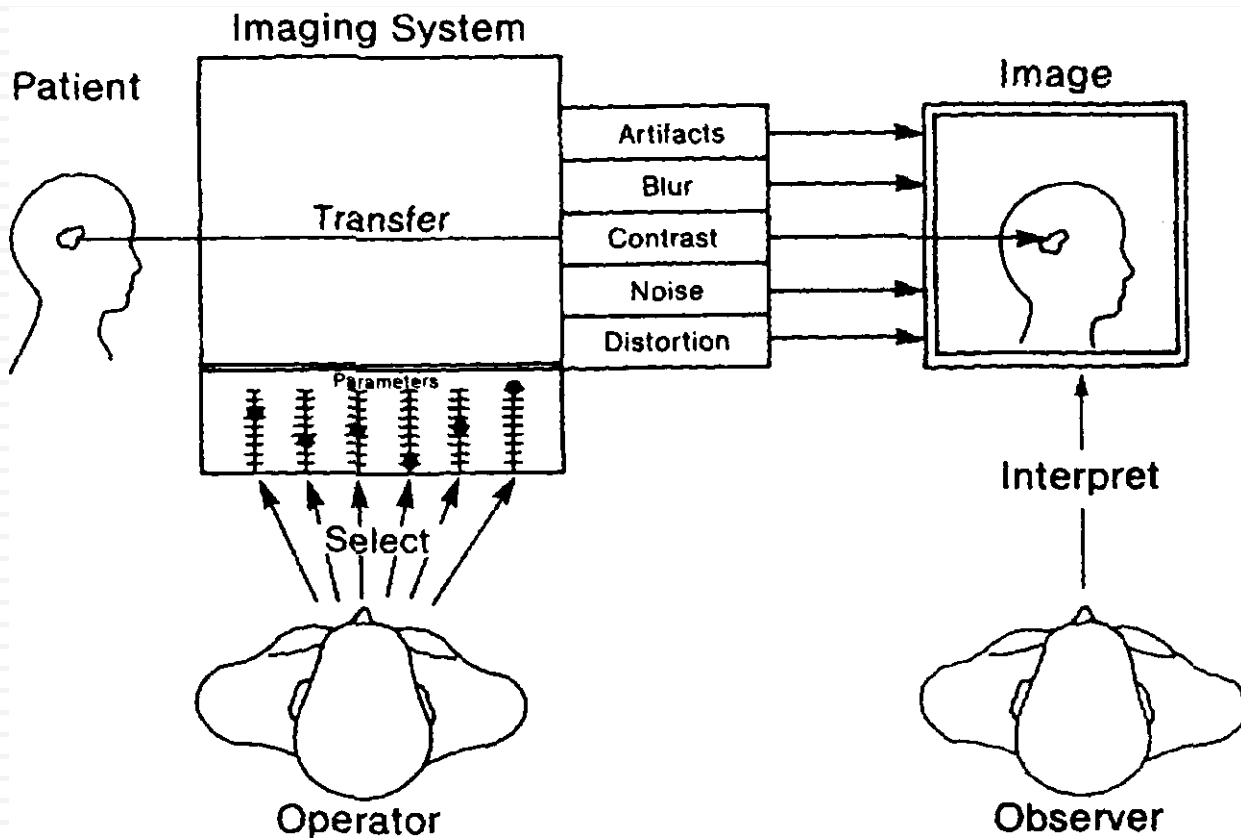
# Ulteriori Testi di Riferimento

| Author   | Title   | Year |
|--|---|------|
| Paolo Russo, editor.   | Handbook of X-ray Imaging   | 2018 |
| Andreas Brahme, editor.                                      | Comprehensive Biomedical Physics<br><i>10 volumi</i>                                | 2014 |
| Richard Van Metter, Jacob Beutel,<br>Harold Kundel, editors. | Handbook of medical imaging.<br>Volume 1, Physics and psychophysics                 | 2000 |
| Steve Webb, editor.  | The Physics of medical imaging  | 1988 |
| Bracewell, Ronald N.   | The Fourier transform and its applications  | 1986 |
| Hasegawa, Bruce H.   | The physics of medical X-ray imaging<br>(or the photon and me: how I saw the light) | 1990 |
| Knoll, Glenn F.  | Radiation Detection and Measurement   | 2010 |
| Evans, Robley D.   | The Atomic Nucleus  | 1955 |

# An invitation to Medical Imaging

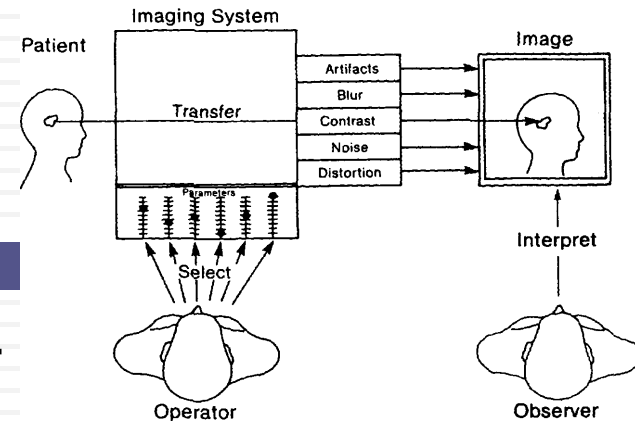
An introduction inspired by the lectures of  
prof. P. Sprawls (<http://www.sprawls.org/>)  
and prof. L. Bertocchi

# General Scheme of an Imaging Process



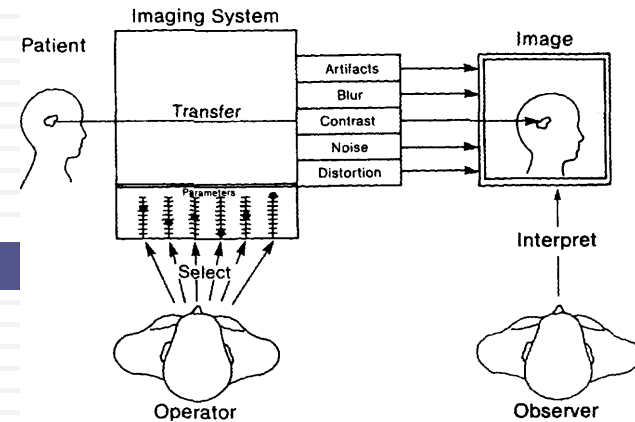
- 5 main components:
- Patient
- Imaging System
- System Operator
- Image
- Observer

# The role of the operator



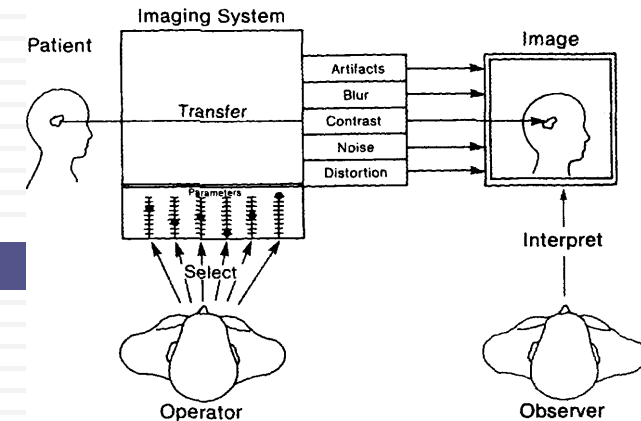
- In this *Master Lectures*' you shall meet various imaging systems, including:
  - X-rays radiology
  - Images from radioisotopes
  - Magnetic resonance
  - Ultrasounds
- In each imaging method it is possible to vary some physical parameters (the applied potential in an X-ray tube; type and concentration of radioisotopes; magnetic field gradients and their application times...) that are controlled by an operator

# The role of the observer



- There are several different methods of creating and/or registering an image (photographic plates; gamma camera; digital detectors; etc.)
- Eventually, the image is analyzed by an observer, in order to get structural (anatomic) or in some case also functional (physiological) information
- The capability of an observer to identify pathologies depends in general upon three factors:
  - a) The image quality
  - b) The observation conditions
  - c) The characteristics of the observer

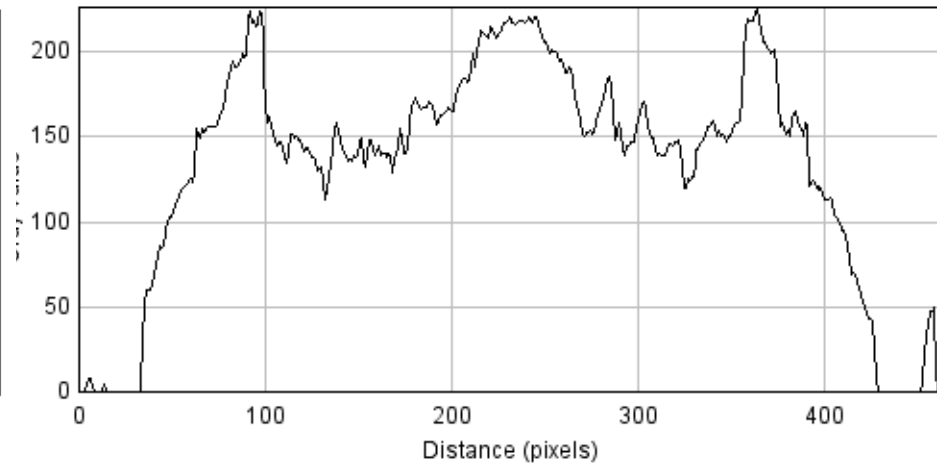
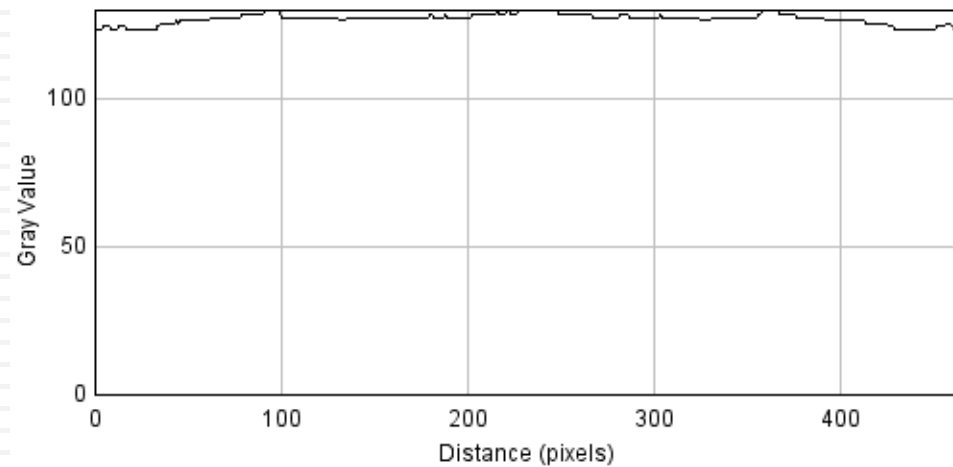
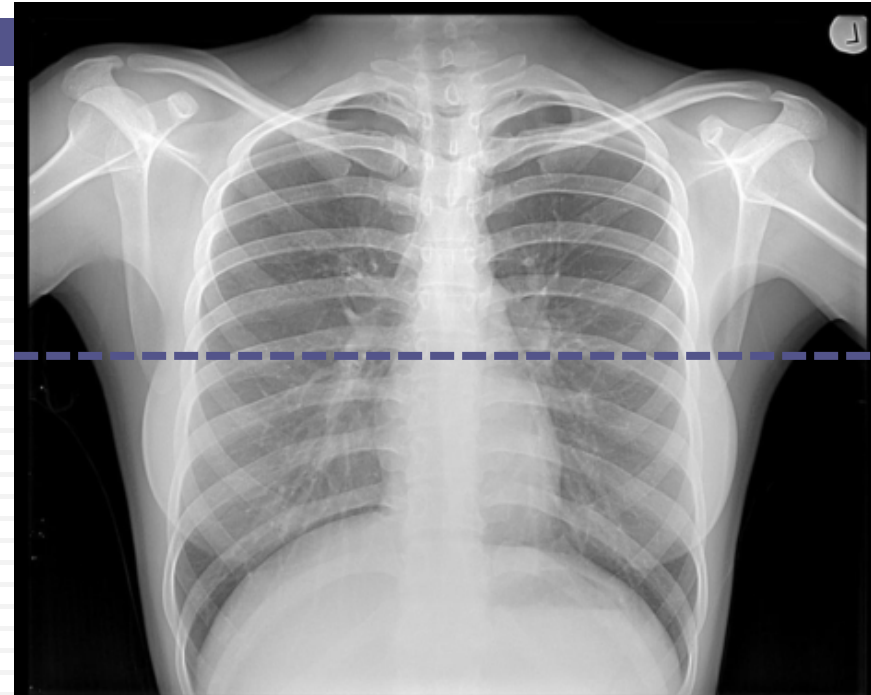
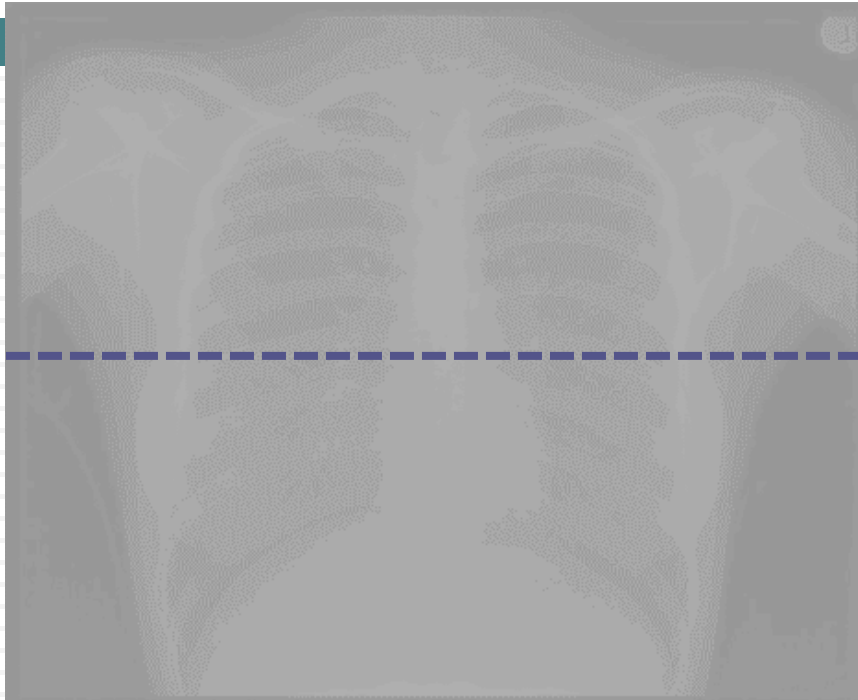
# Image quality



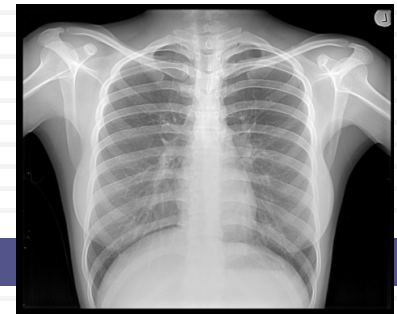
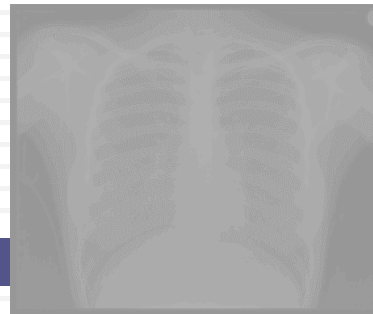
- In our simplified scheme, image quality depends from 5 factors:
  - Contrast
  - Blur (detail visibility - spatial resolution)
  - Background Noise
  - Artifacts
  - Distortions
- We will now briefly review these points, which will be studied in detail in the next lectures
- Our brief review will use the simplest imaging method (i.e. planar radiology) as a case study



# Contrast

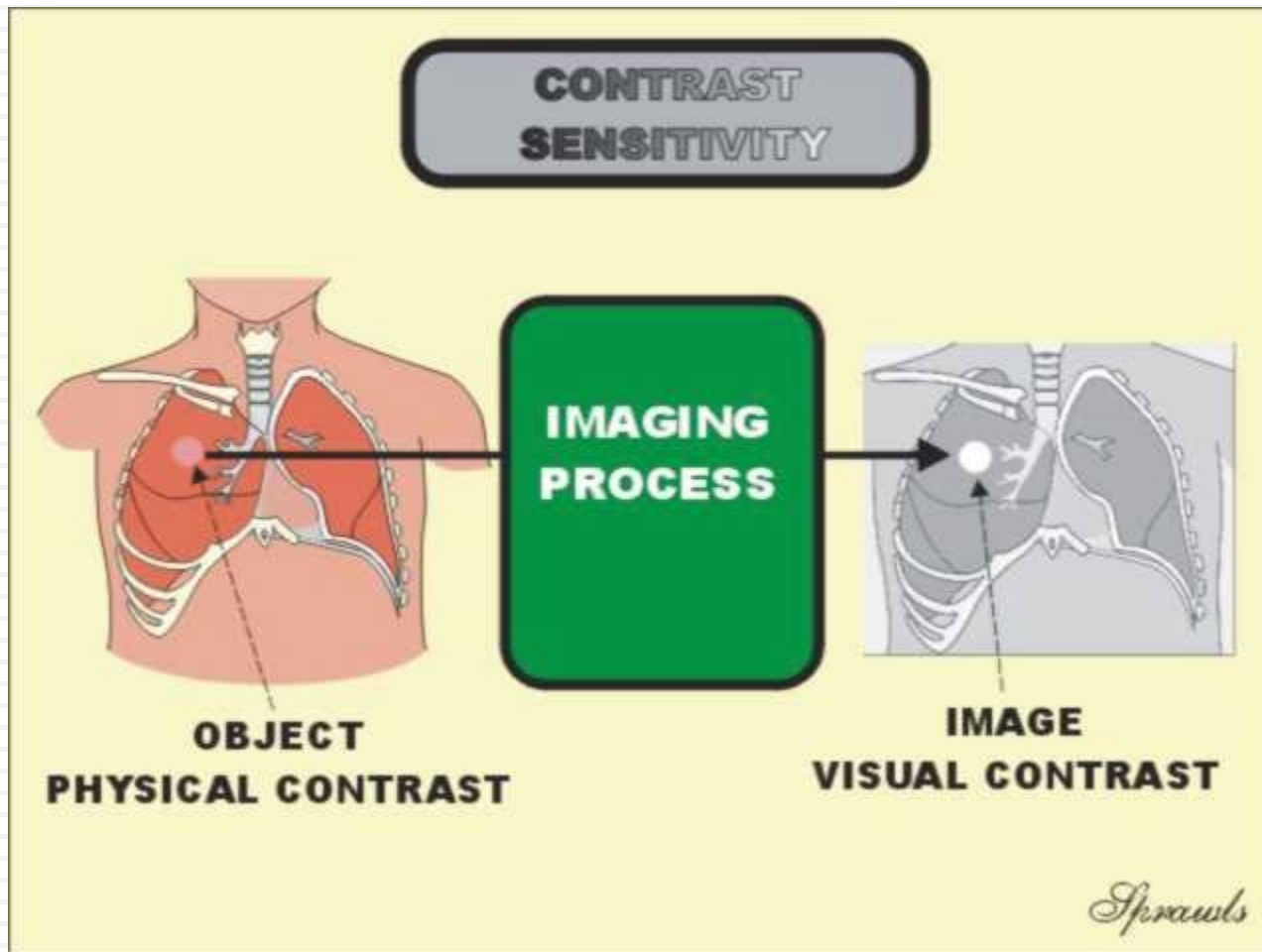


# Contrast

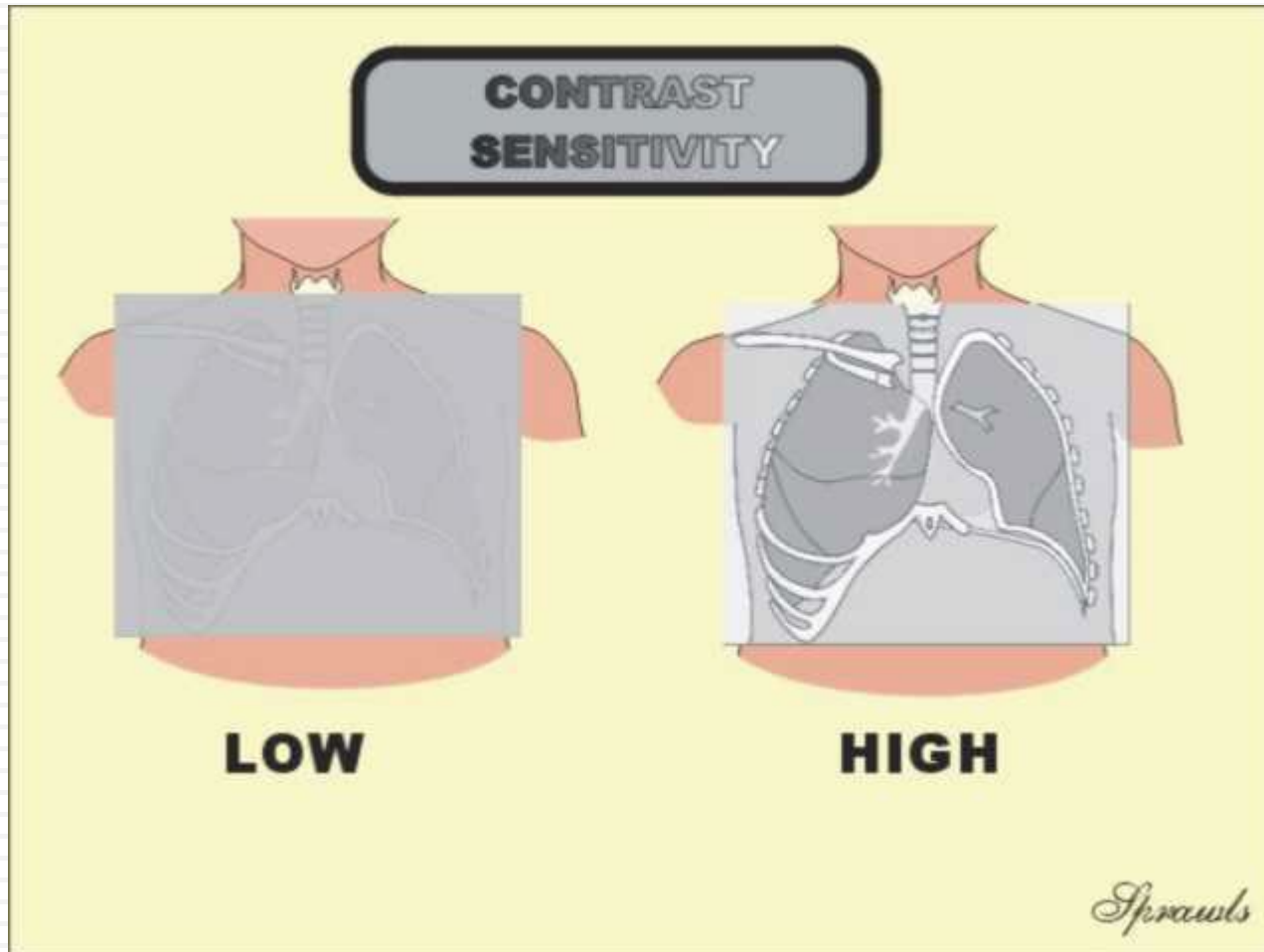


- Contrast represents the difference in one or more characteristics of the object between two specific points in the image.
- In the (digital) image it is typically represented by various tonalities of gray (gray values or gray levels).
- The contrast required to make an object visible depends both upon the imaging method and the characteristics of the imaging system.
- Different imaging methods are sensitive to different contrasts.
  - For example, one method could give evidence to different densities of the tissues, another to different atomic numbers, another to different elastic properties, another to different relaxation times, another to different concentrations of radioactive substances, etc.
  - These differences represent the physical contrast.
- The fundamental characteristic of an imaging method is its contrast sensitivity, i.e. the ability to render a physical contrast as a contrast on the image (image contrast).

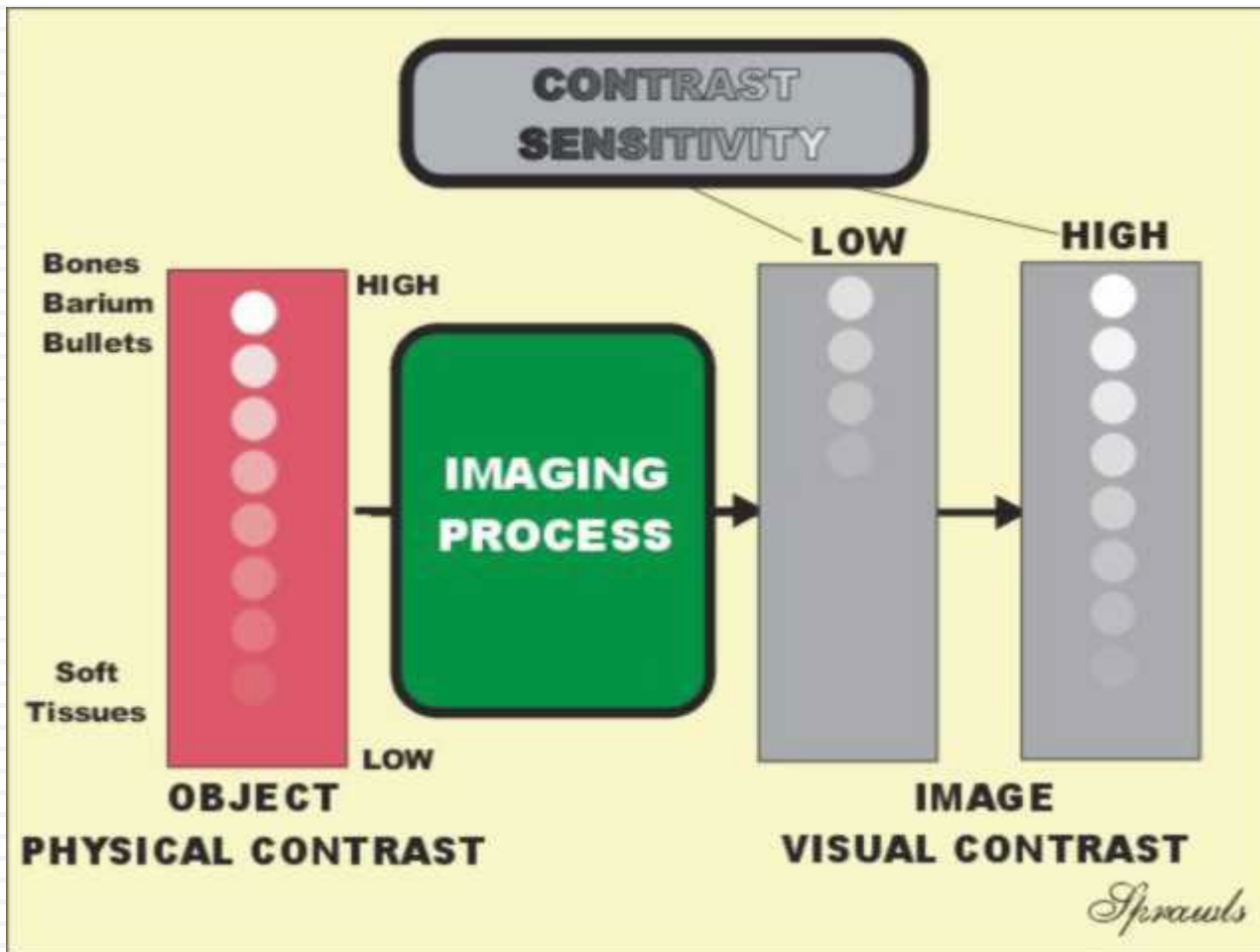
# Contrast Sensitivity



# Contrast Sensitivity



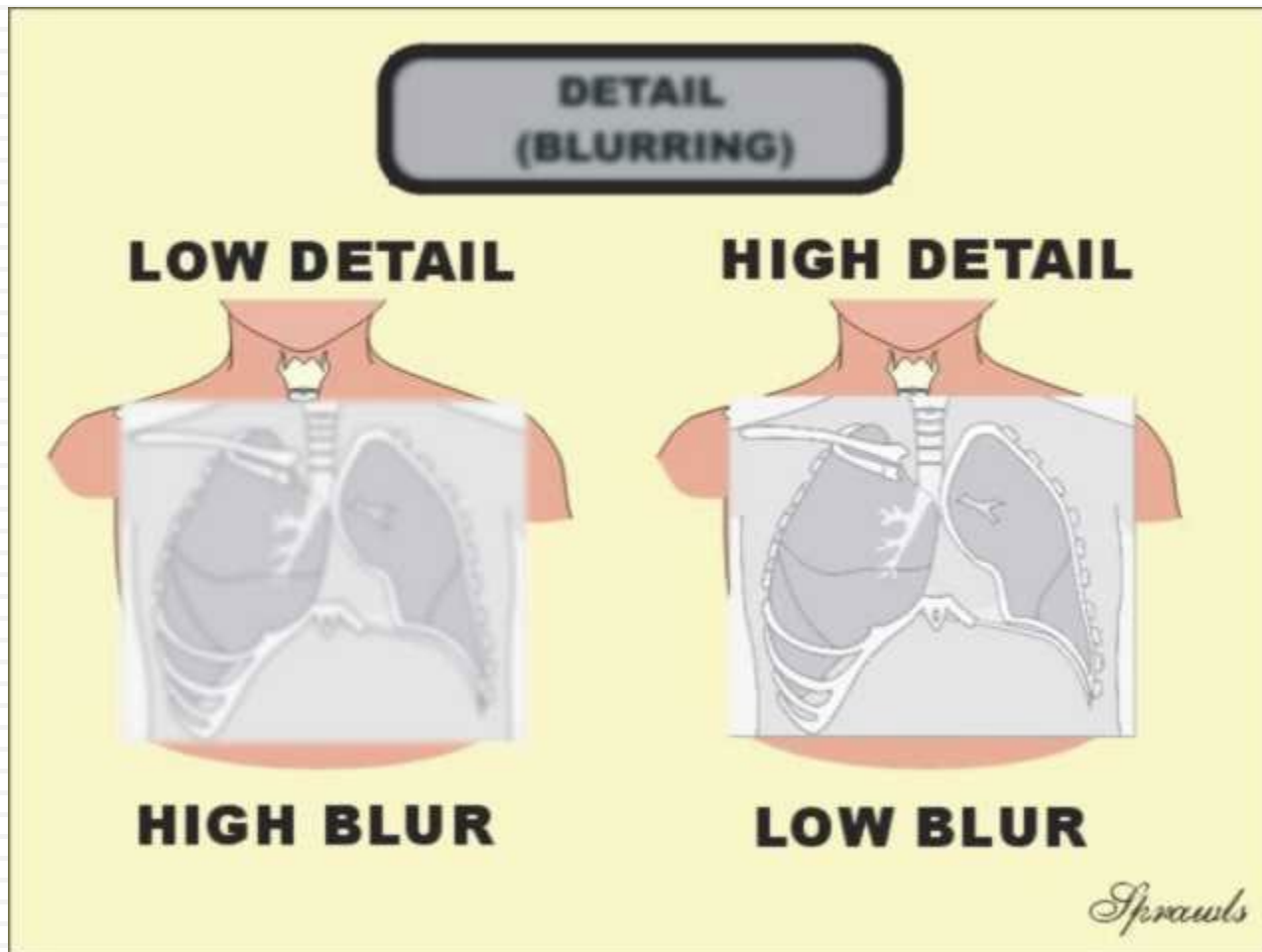
# Contrast Sensitivity



# Blur (detail visibility – spatial resolution)

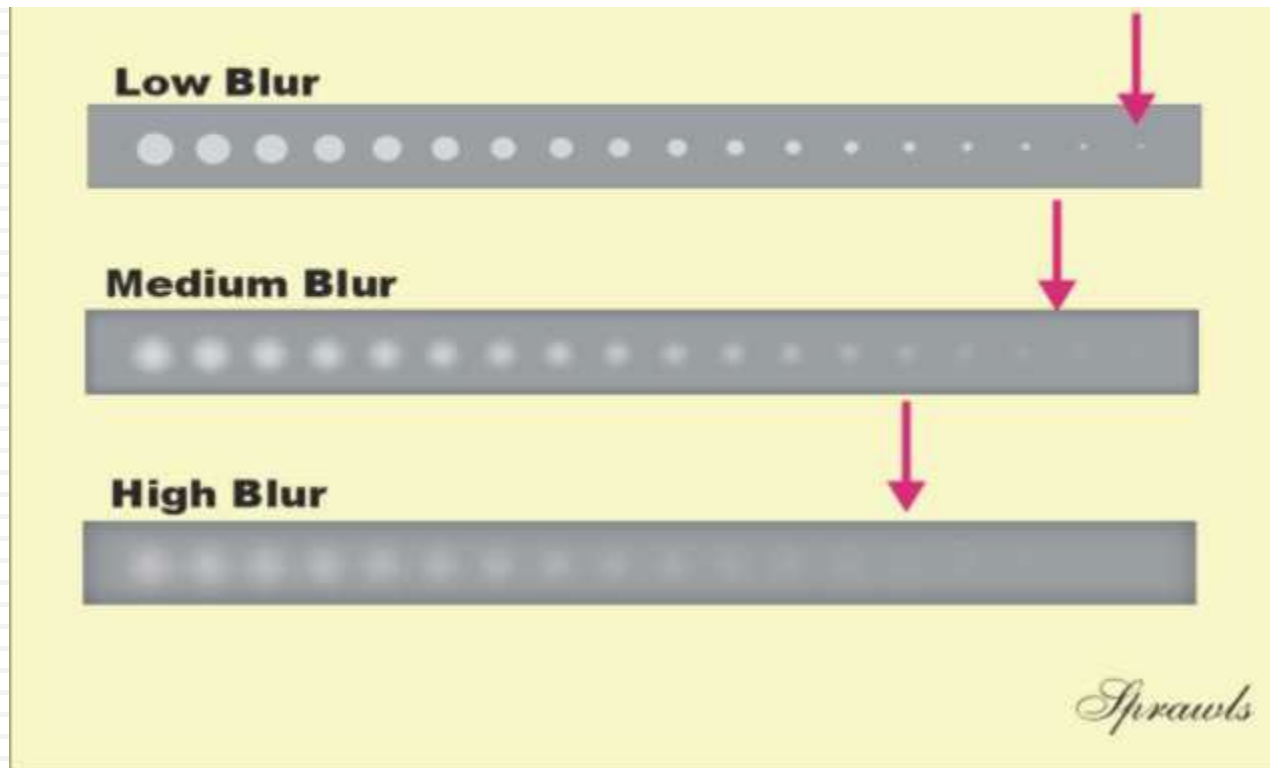
- Inside the body the objects differ not only for their characteristics but also for their dimensions, from the large organs and the bones, to the small calcifications.
- Each imaging method has a lower limit of the dimensions of the objects that can be resolved, and therefore of the details visibility.
- The visibility is limited since every imaging method introduces some "blurring" in the process.

# Blur (detail visibility – spatial resolution)



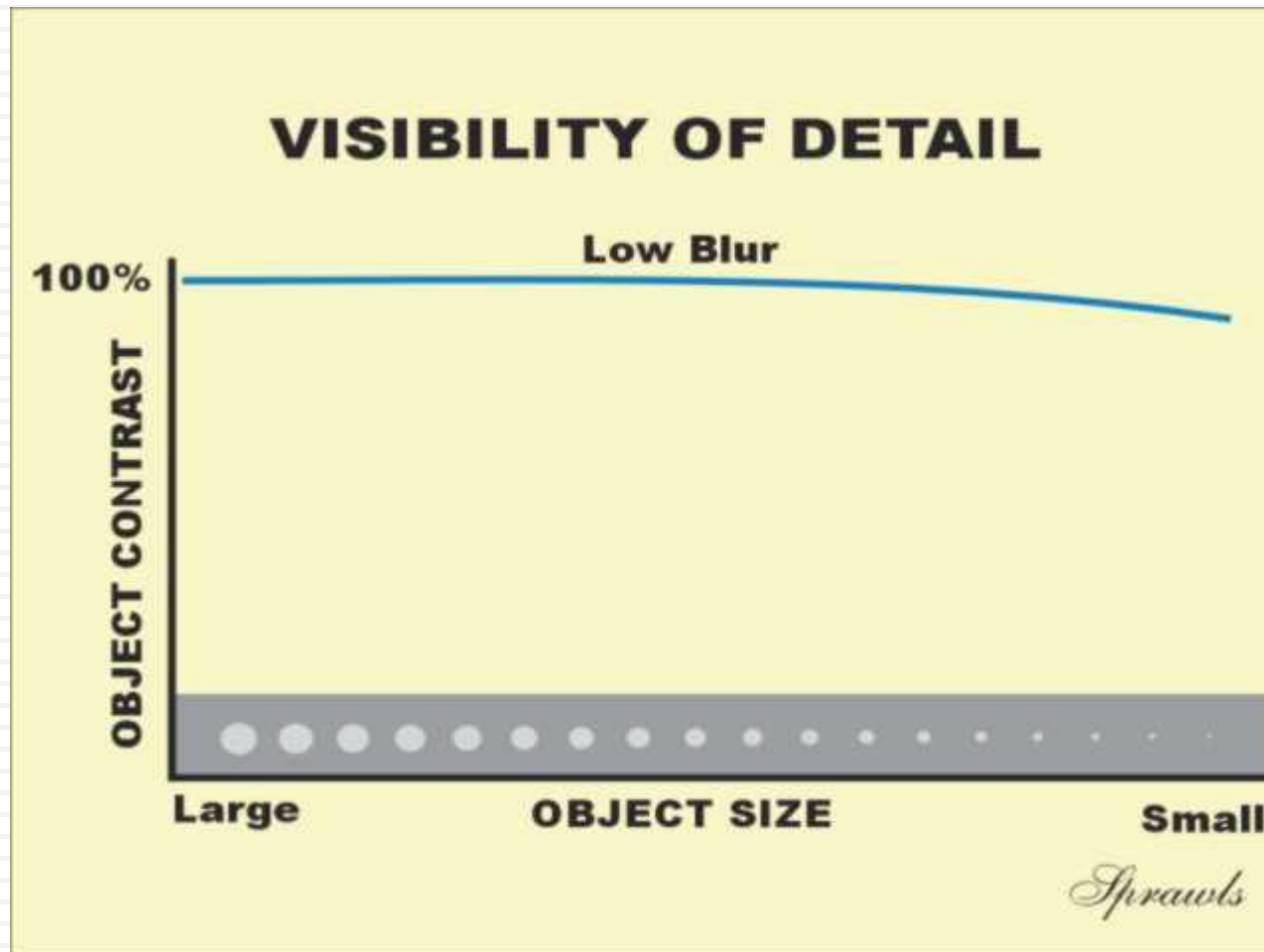
# Blur (detail visibility – spatial resolution)

Obviously the blur has a little effect on the visibility of large objects, while it reduces the visibility and the contrast of small objects

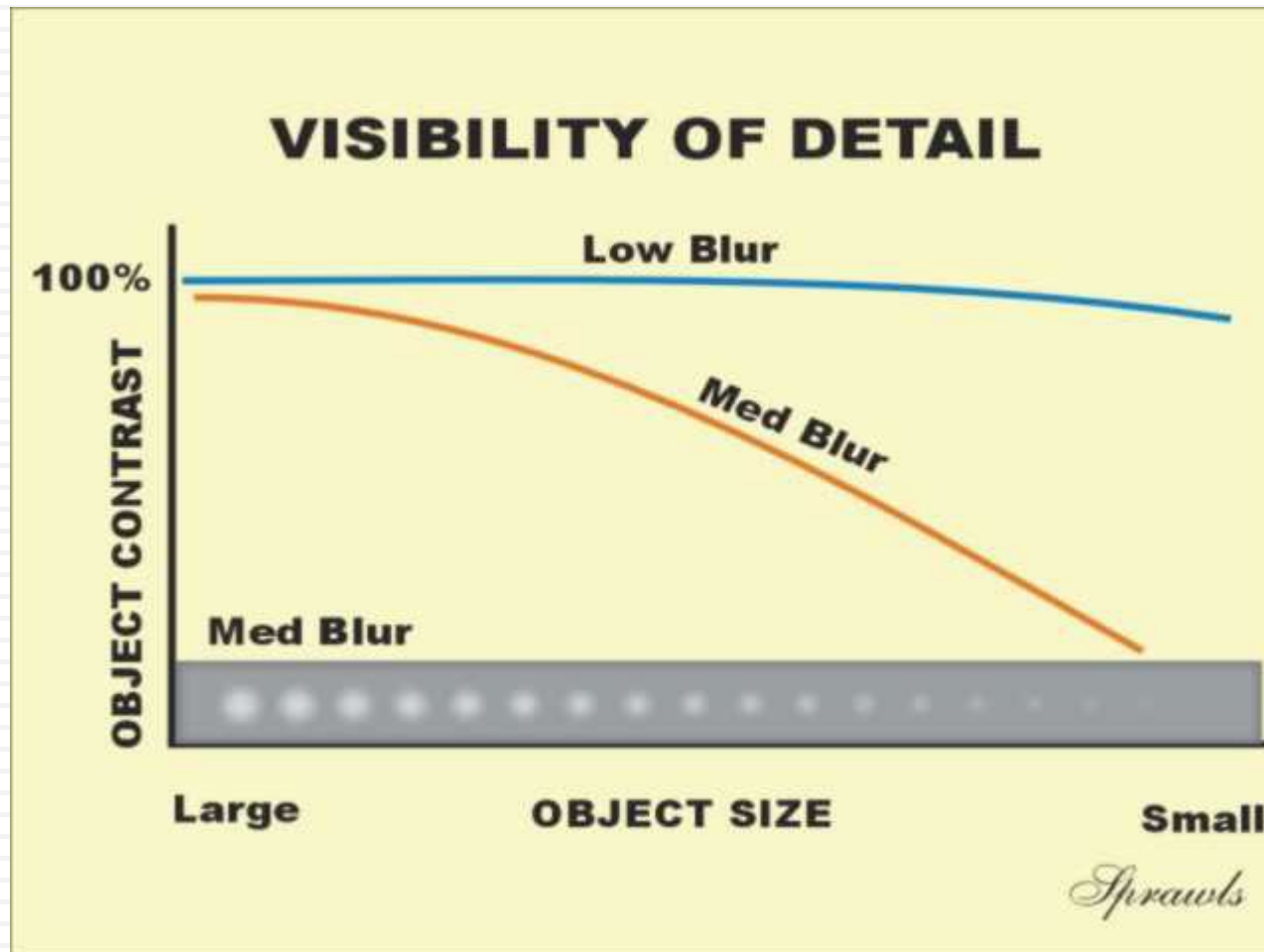




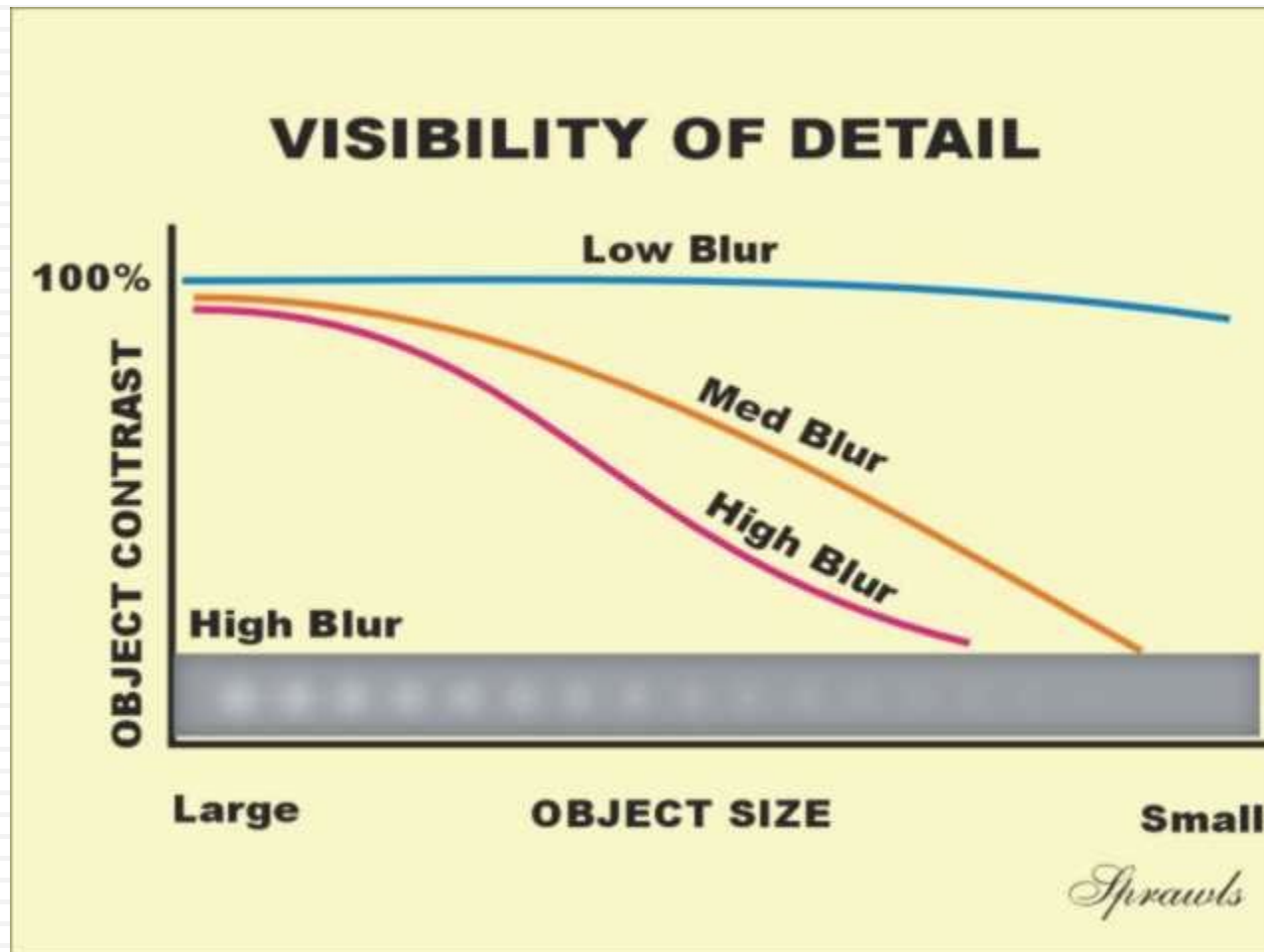
# Blur (detail visibility – spatial resolution)



# Blur (detail visibility – spatial resolution)

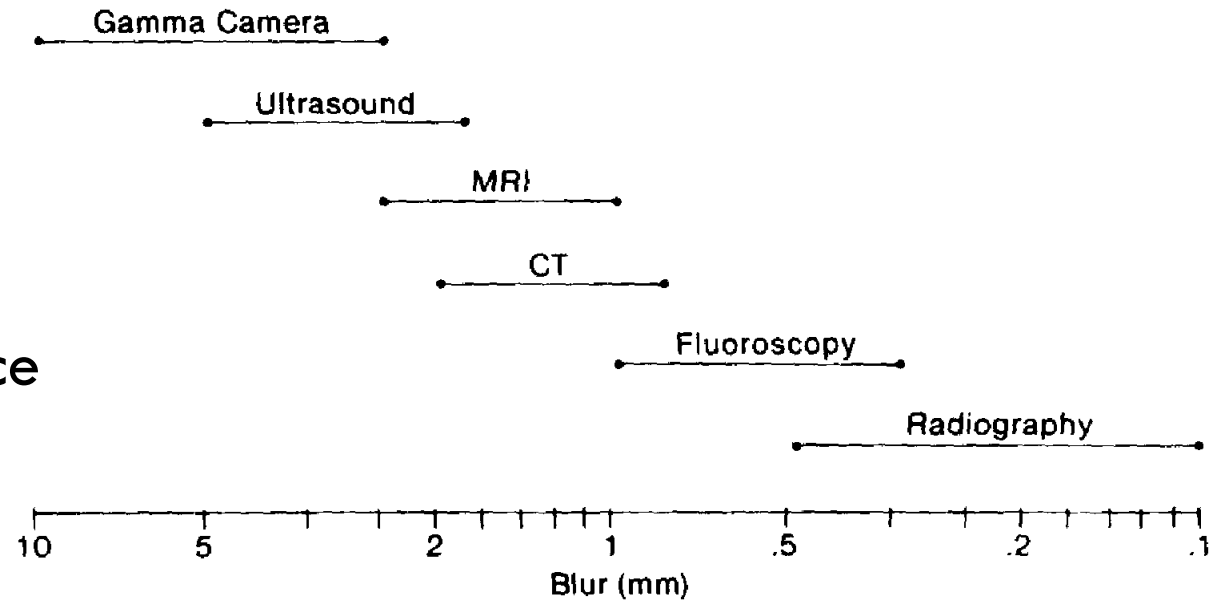


# Blur (detail visibility – spatial resolution)



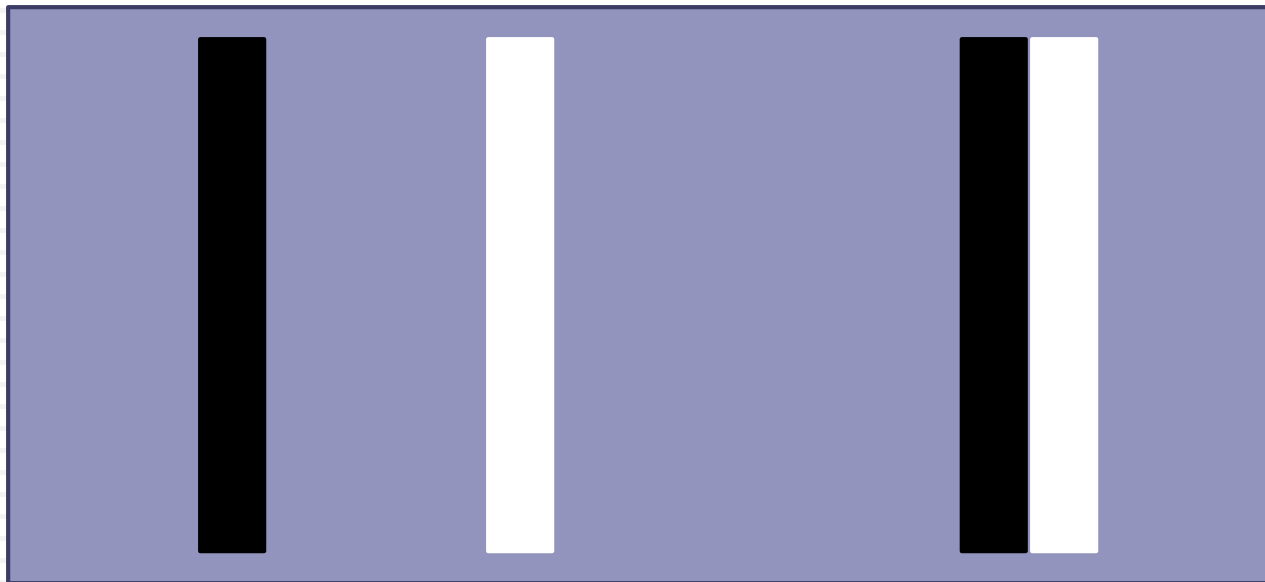
# Blur (detail visibility – spatial resolution)

- gamma camera
  - ▣ from 10 to 3 mm
- ultrasounds
  - ▣ from 5 to 2 mm
- magnetic resonance
  - ▣ from 3 to 1 mm
- tomography
  - ▣ from 2 to 0.8 mm
- fluoroscopy
  - ▣ from 1 to 0.4 mm
- conventional radiography
  - ▣ from 0.5 to 0.1 mm (down to 0.05 in mammography)

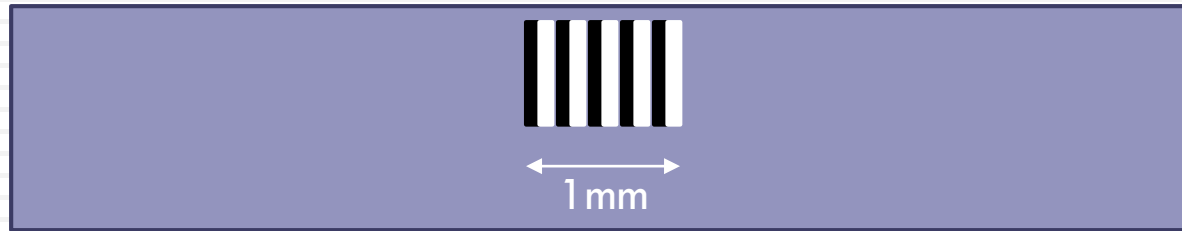


# Spatial resolution (lp/mm)

- The spatial resolution of an imaging method is often defined in terms of "line pairs per millimeter", lp/mm
- A line is either a dark line or a light line; a line pair comprises a dark line and an adjacent light line.

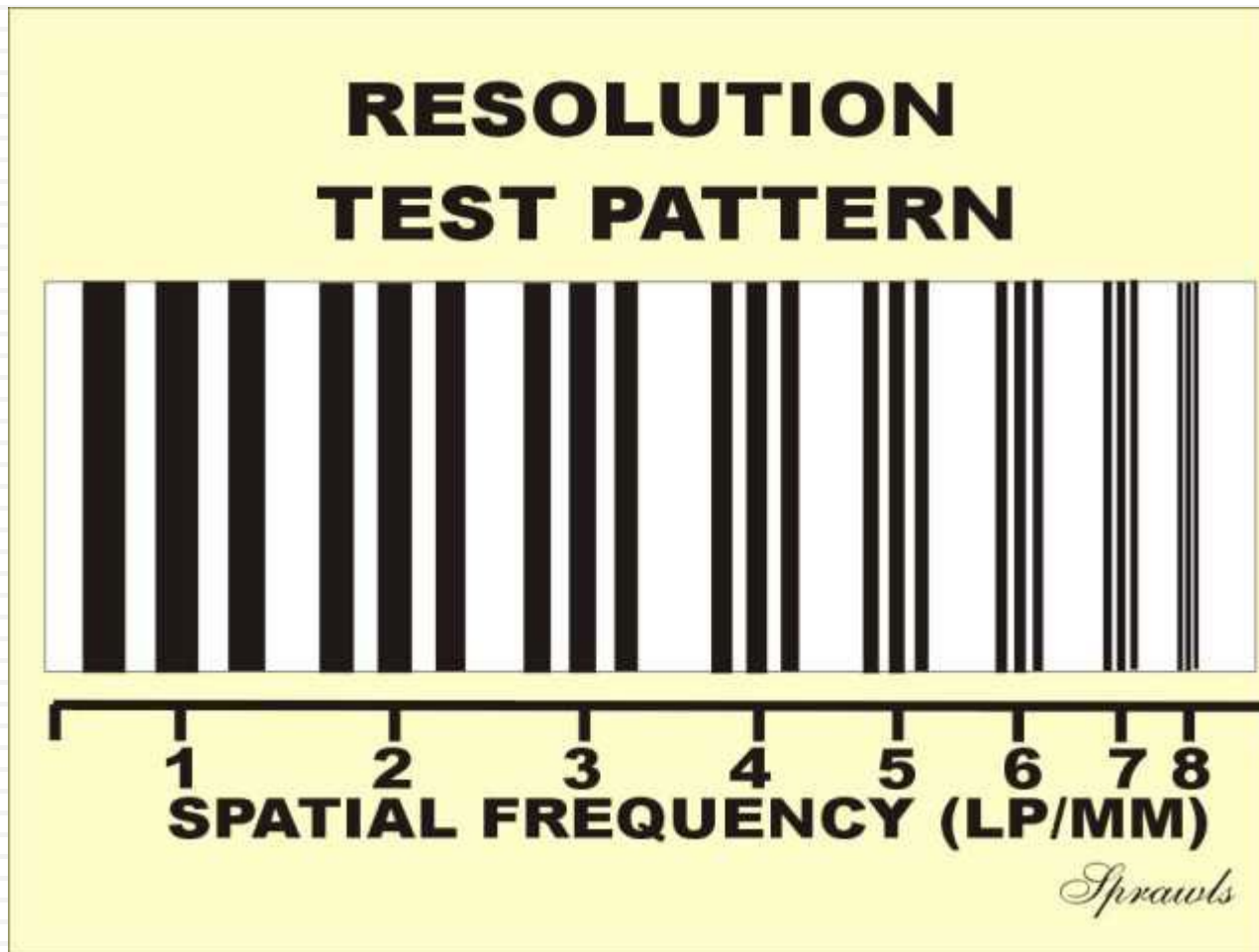


# Spatial resolution (lp/mm)

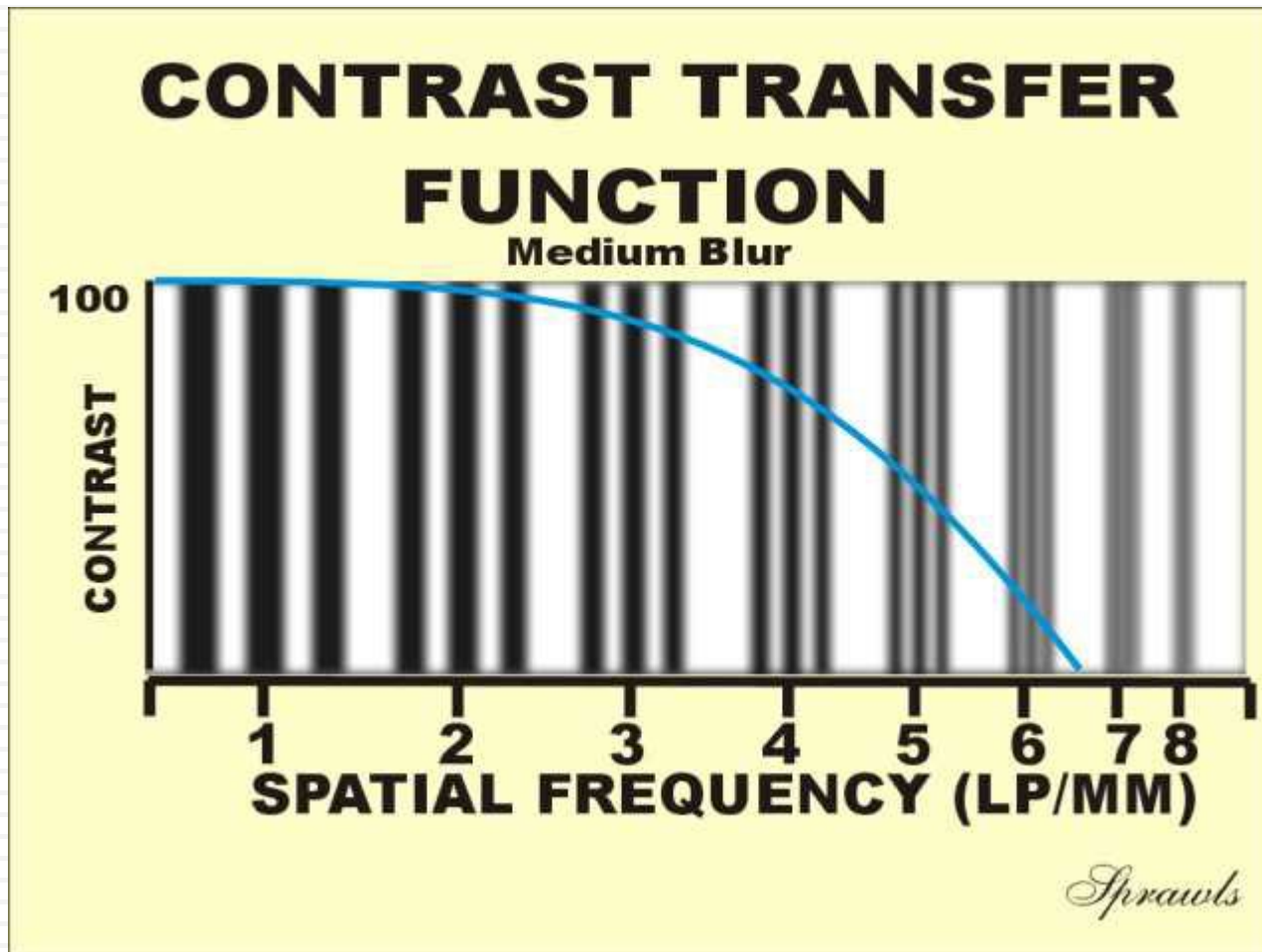


- Example: a resolution of 10 lines per millimeter means that the system can render:
  - 5 dark lines of 0.1 mm alternating with 5 light lines of 0.1 mm.
  - Overall, I have 10 lines in 1 mm, i.e. 5 line pairs per millimeter (5 lp/mm).
- The number of lp/mm defines a spatial frequency
- The higher spatial frequency that the system can render, the better its spatial resolution.

# Spatial resolution (lp/mm)

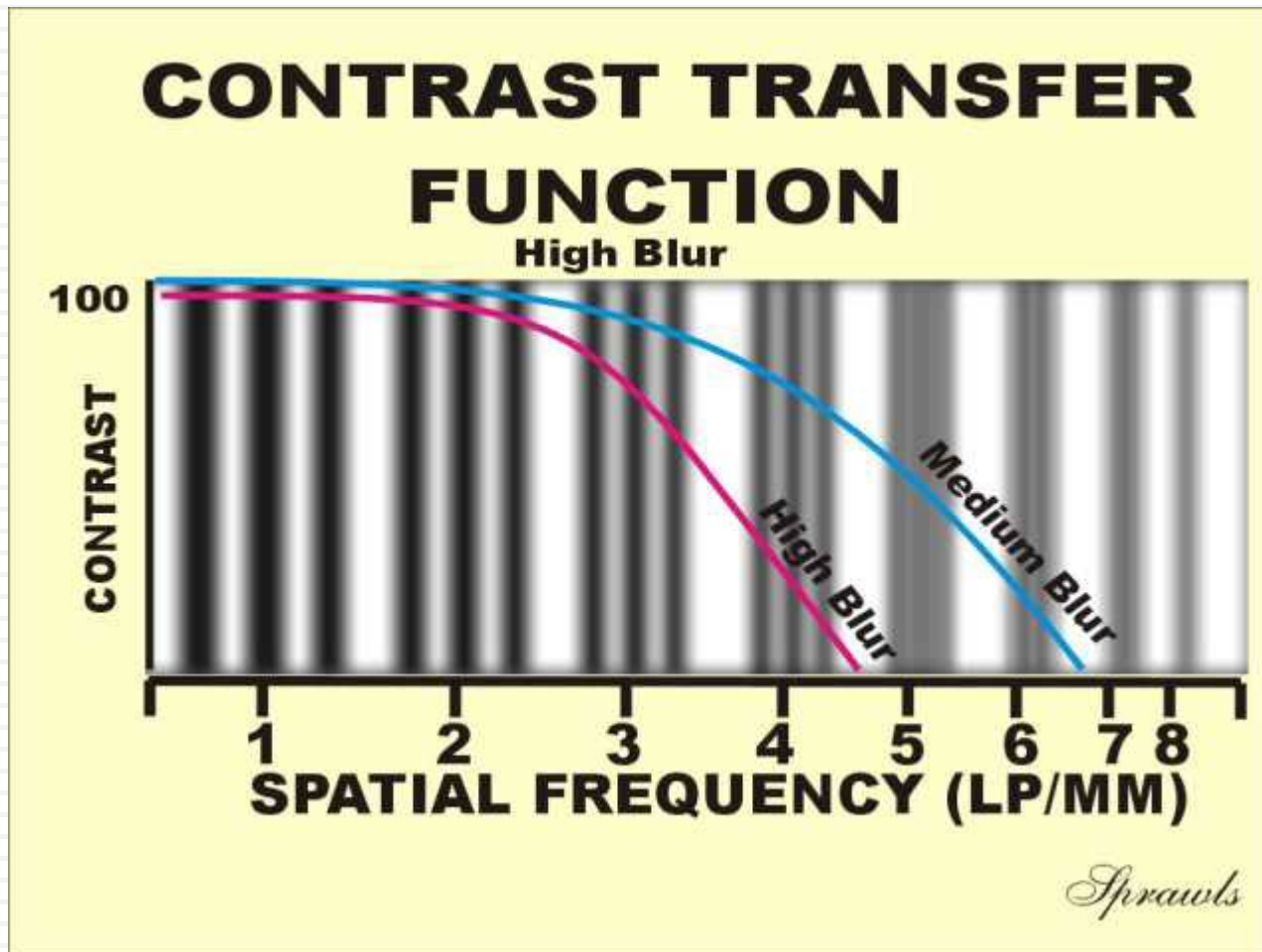


# Spatial resolution (lp/mm)





# Spatial resolution (lp/mm)



# Noise

- The background noise gives a "granular" aspect to the image, and tends therefore to diminish the visibility of small and/or low-contrast objects.



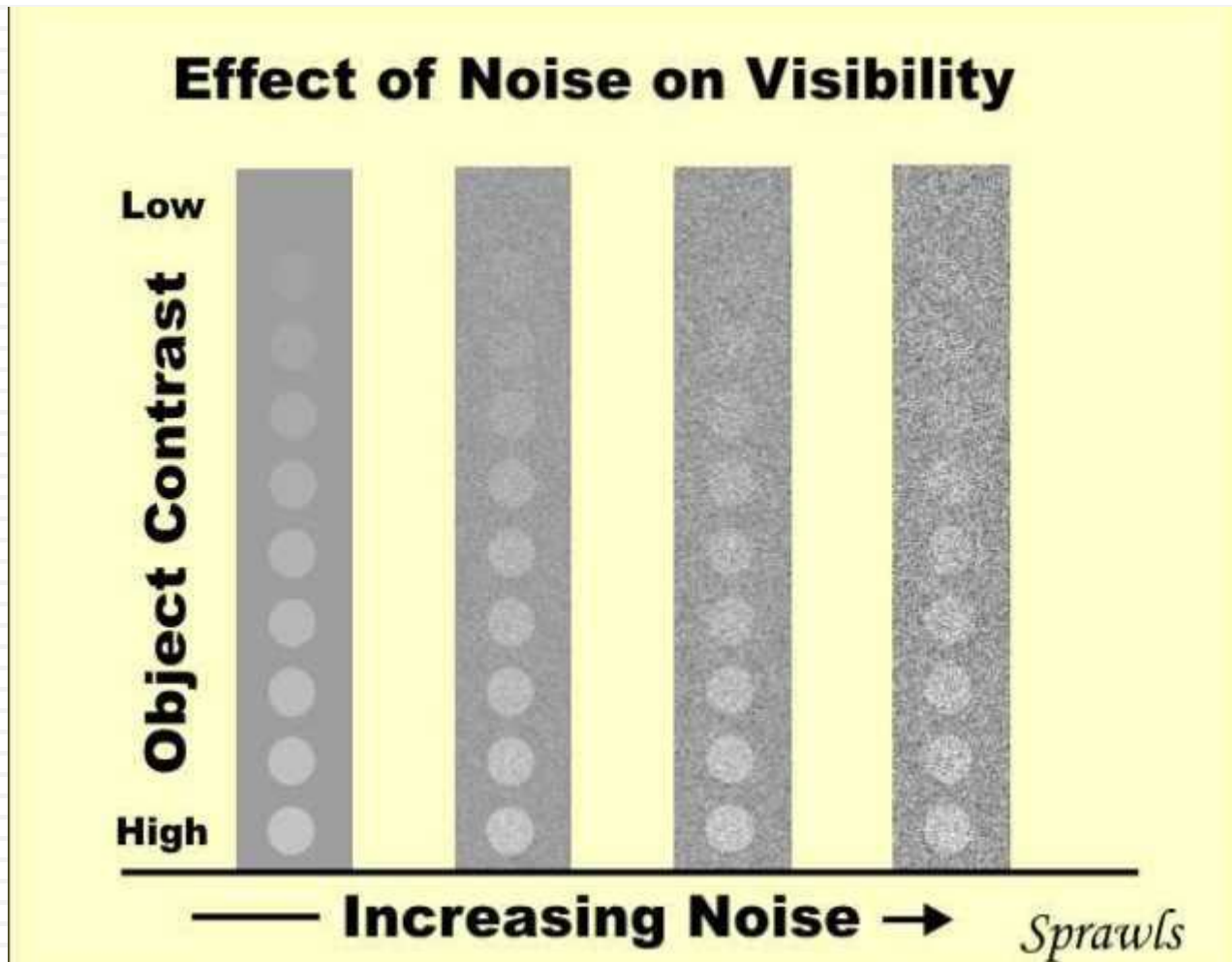
**LOW**



**HIGH**

*Sprawls*

# Noise



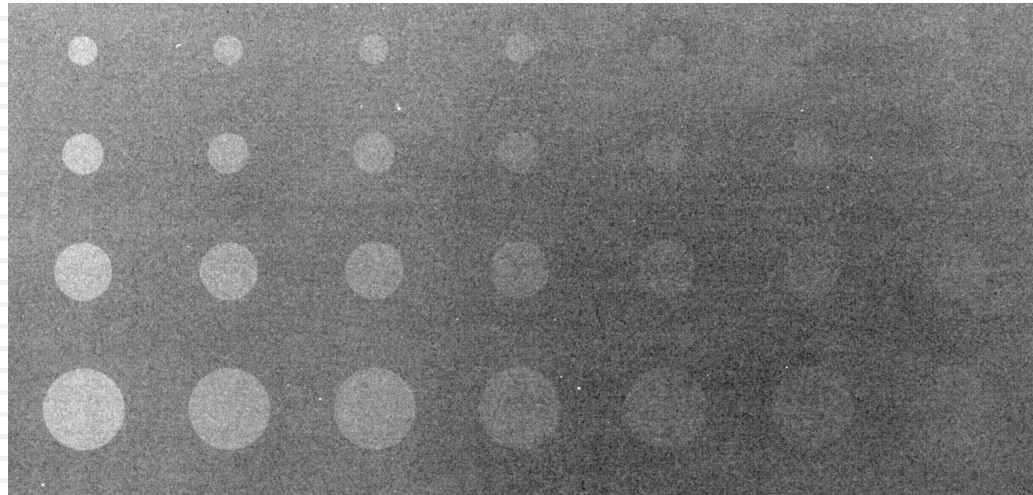
# Contrast-Detail (CD) phantom

- A CD phantom allows to quickly assess the Blur and Noise characteristics of an imaging system.
- The phantom contains a matrix of details.
  - ▣ All of the details in a given row have a constant contrast.
  - ▣ All of the details in a given column have a constant size.

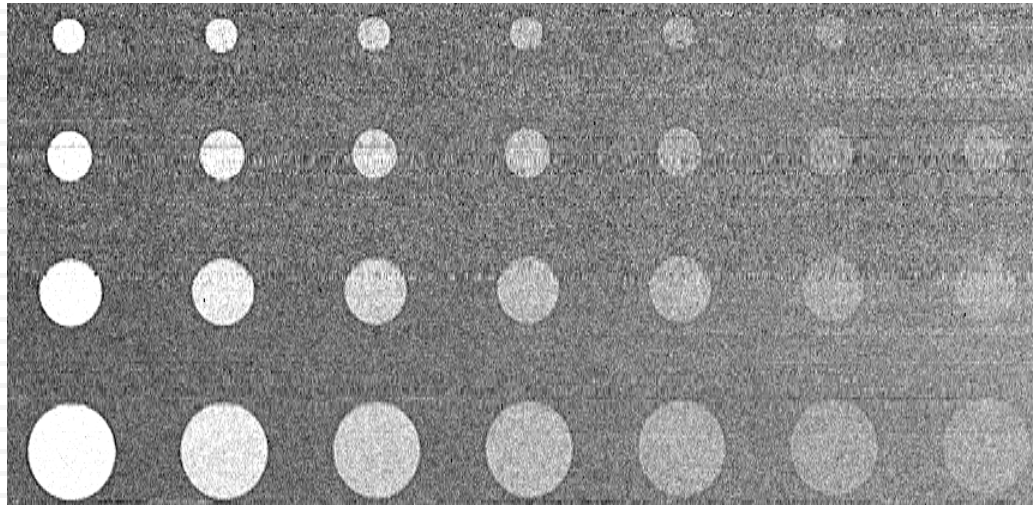


# Example: system comparison with CD

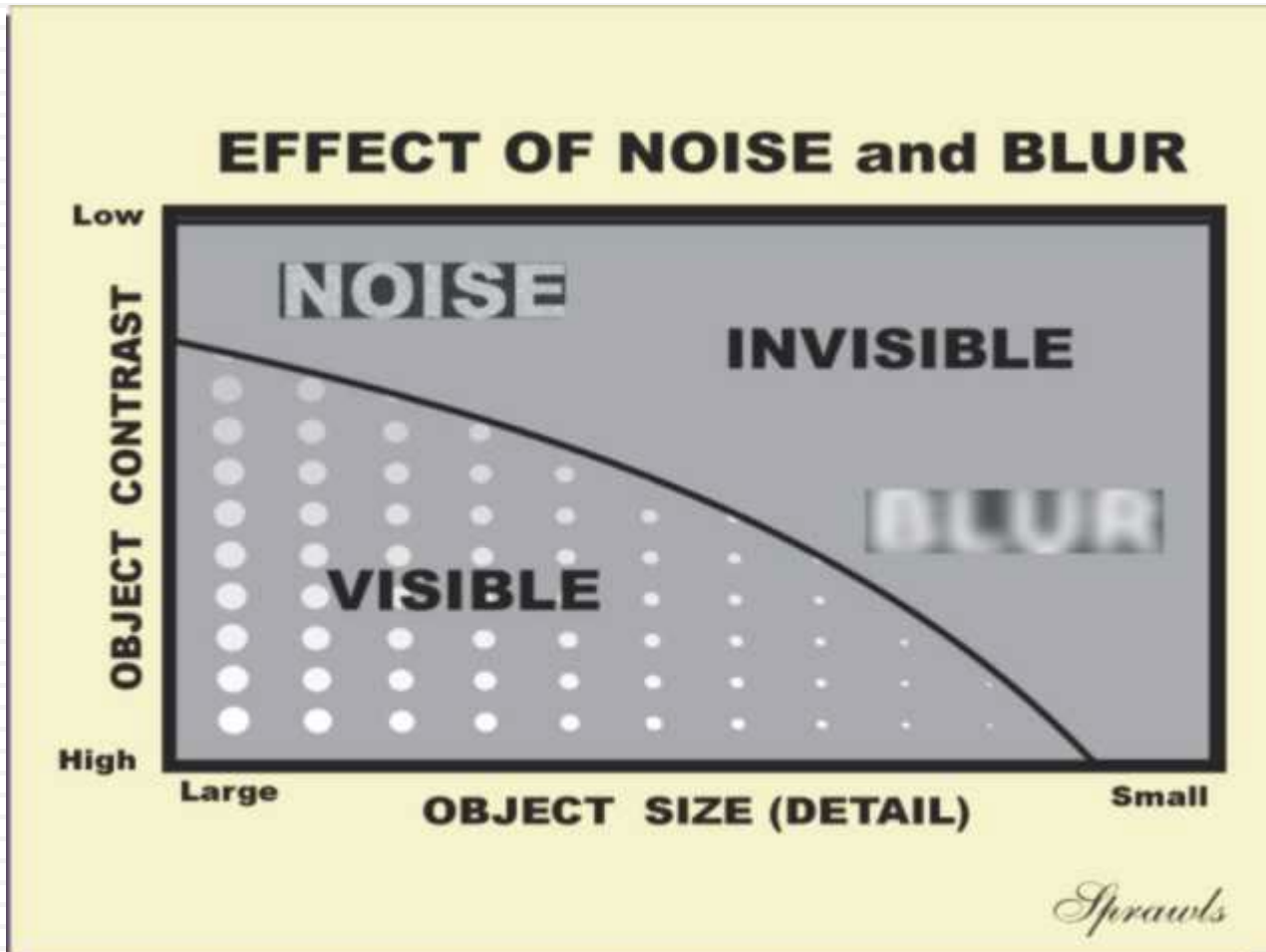
1.  
Conventional Screen-Film  
Mammographic system  
26 kVp  
Dose: 1.8 mGy



2.  
"Frost" Digital detector (INFN)  
Single photon counting  
Synchrotron radiation  
20 keV  
Dose: 1.4 mGy



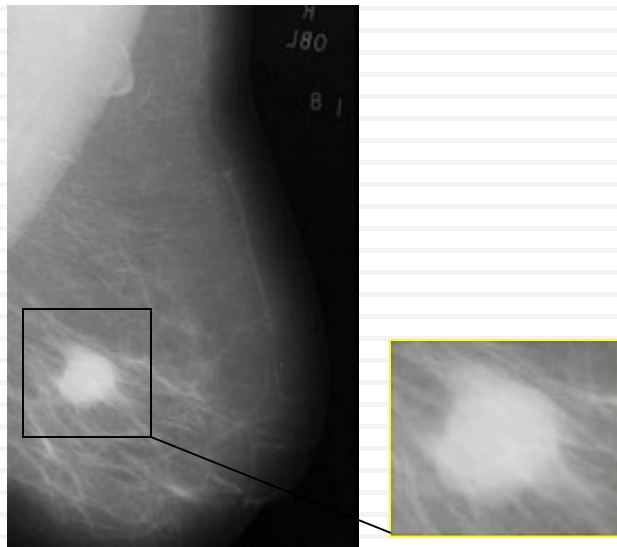
# Blur Vs Noise: effect on visibility



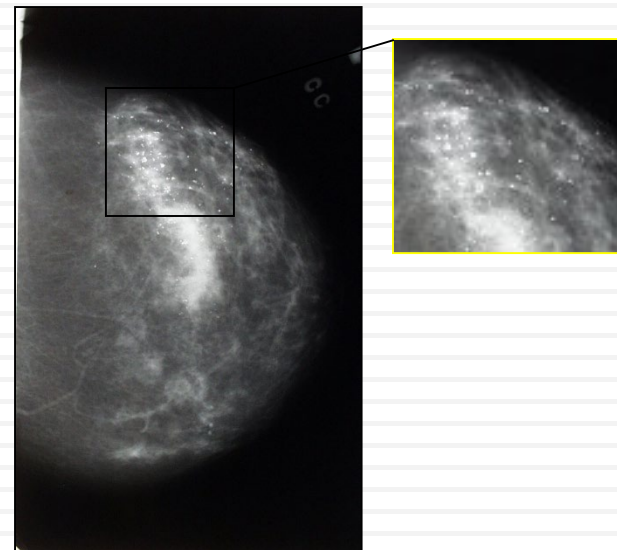
# Structural Noise

- An example from mammography
- In mammography, radiologists evaluate the presence of

- ▣ Masses



- ▣ Micro-calcifications



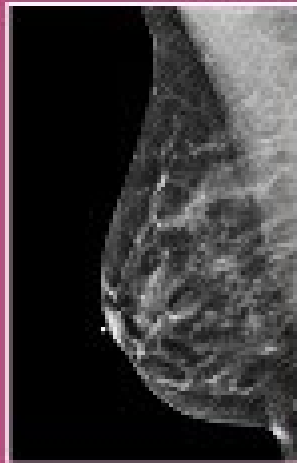
# Structural noise

- But these features may be hard to find in dense breasts, due to the presence of healthy glandular tissue (structural noise)

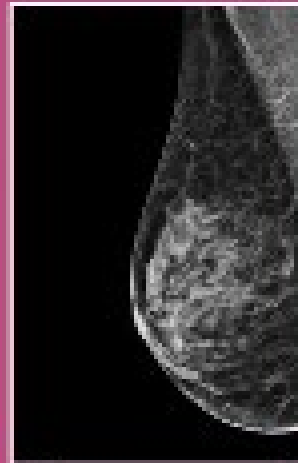
Radiologists classify breast density using a 4-level scale:



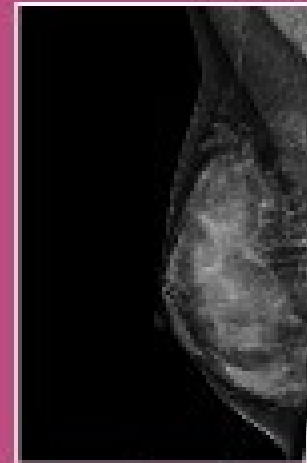
almost entirely  
fatty



scattered areas  
of fibroglandular  
density



heterogeneously  
dense

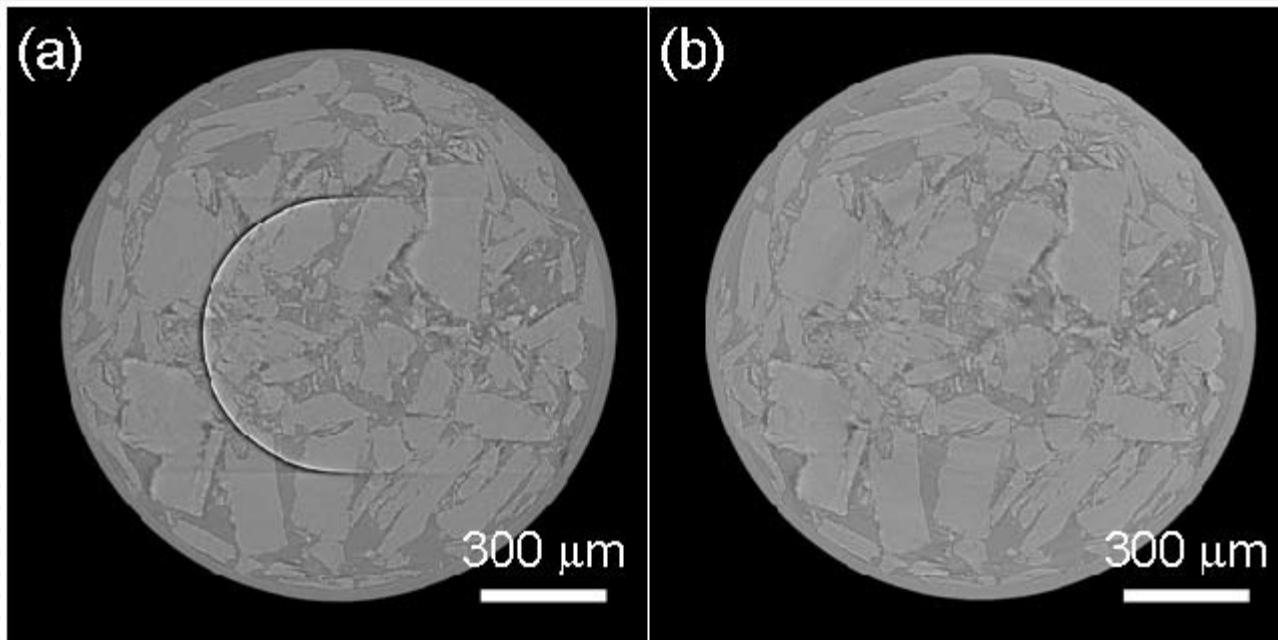


extremely  
dense



# Artifacts

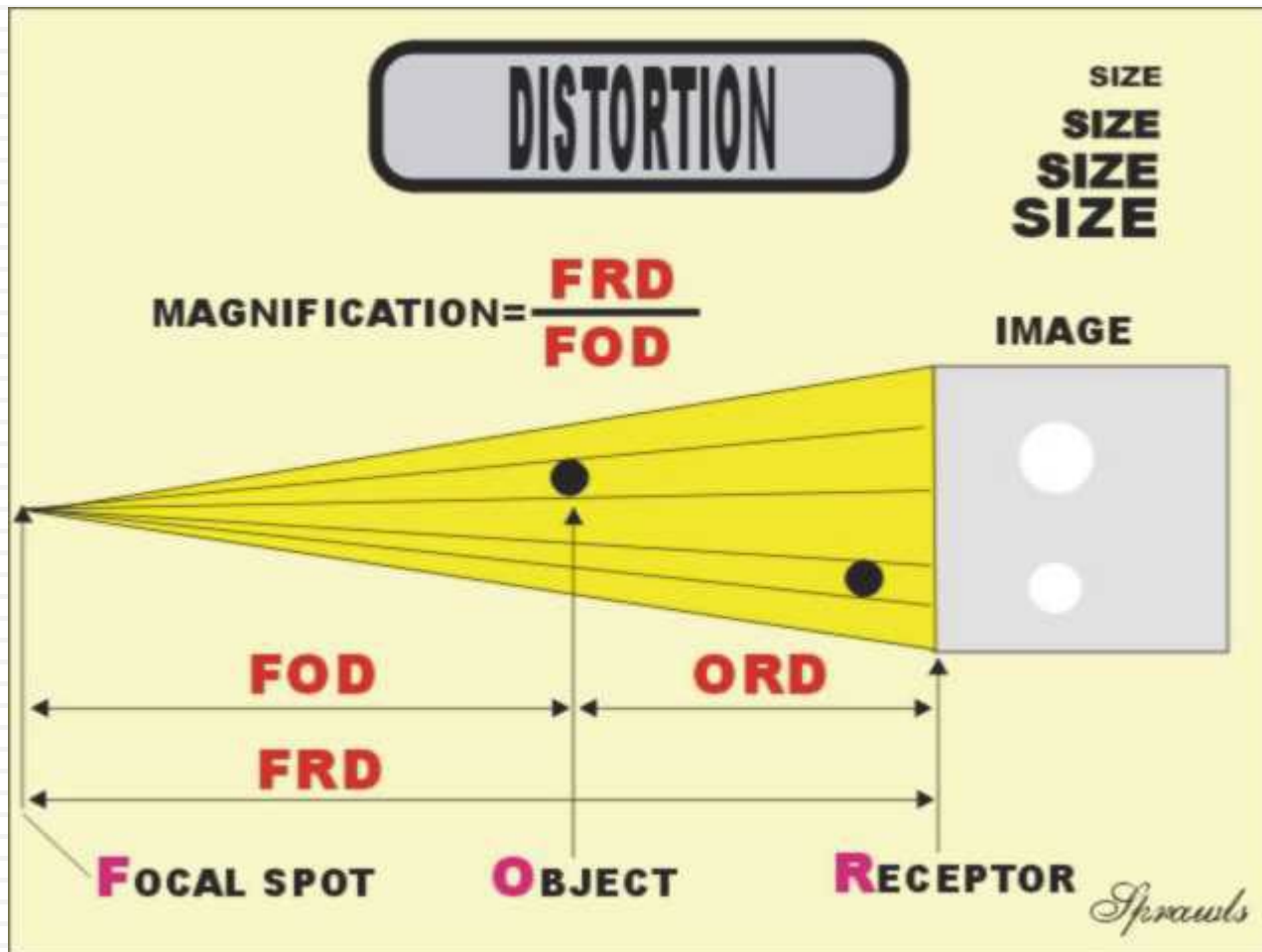
- Most of the imaging techniques produce in the image characteristics that do not correspond to real structures of the object under examination. These "false" characteristics are known as "artifacts".



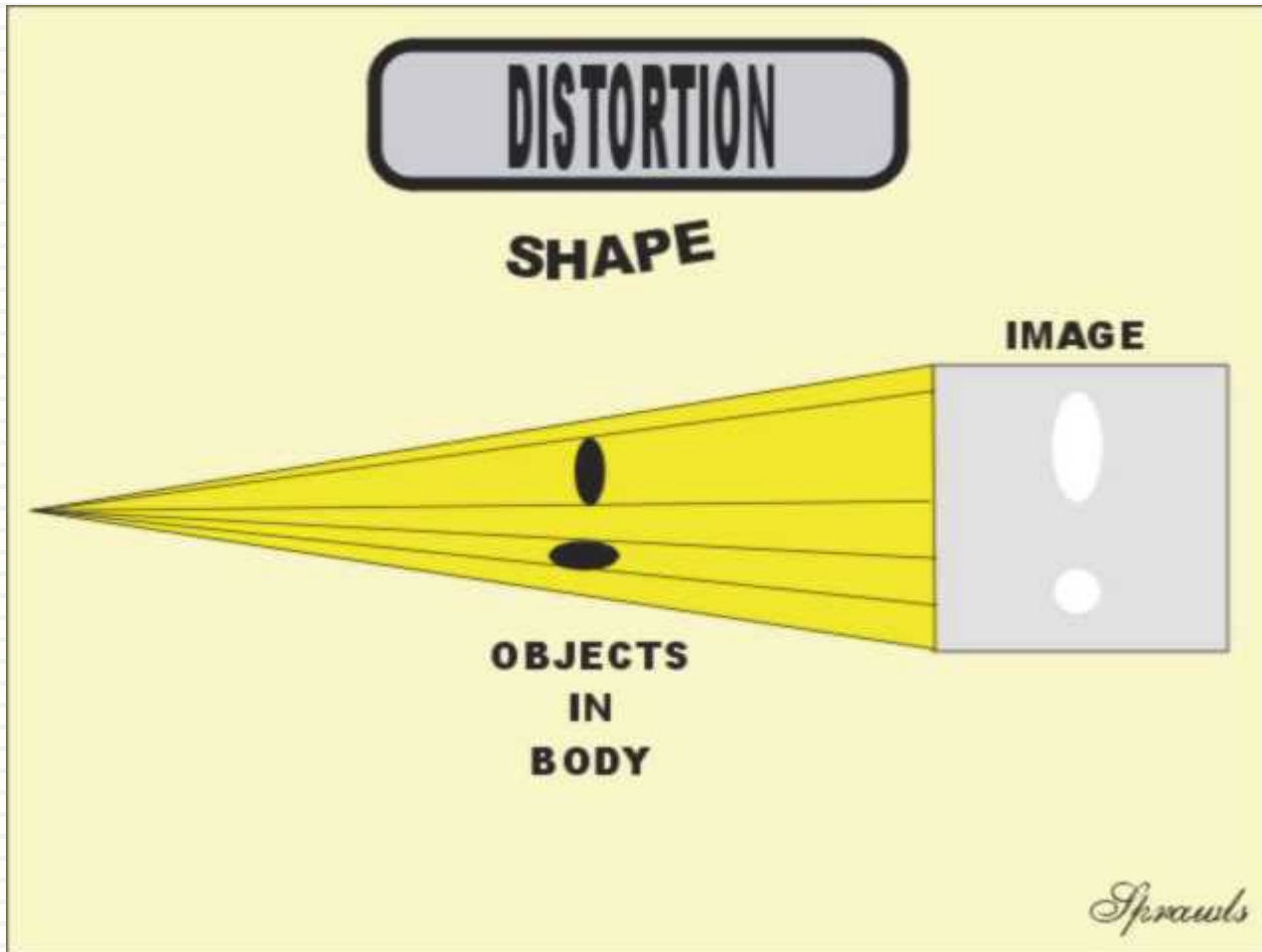
# Distortions

- An image should represent in an accurate way
  - ▣ Dimensions
  - ▣ Shape
  - ▣ Relative positions of the objects.
  
- Every imaging method can however introduce distortions in all these three factors.

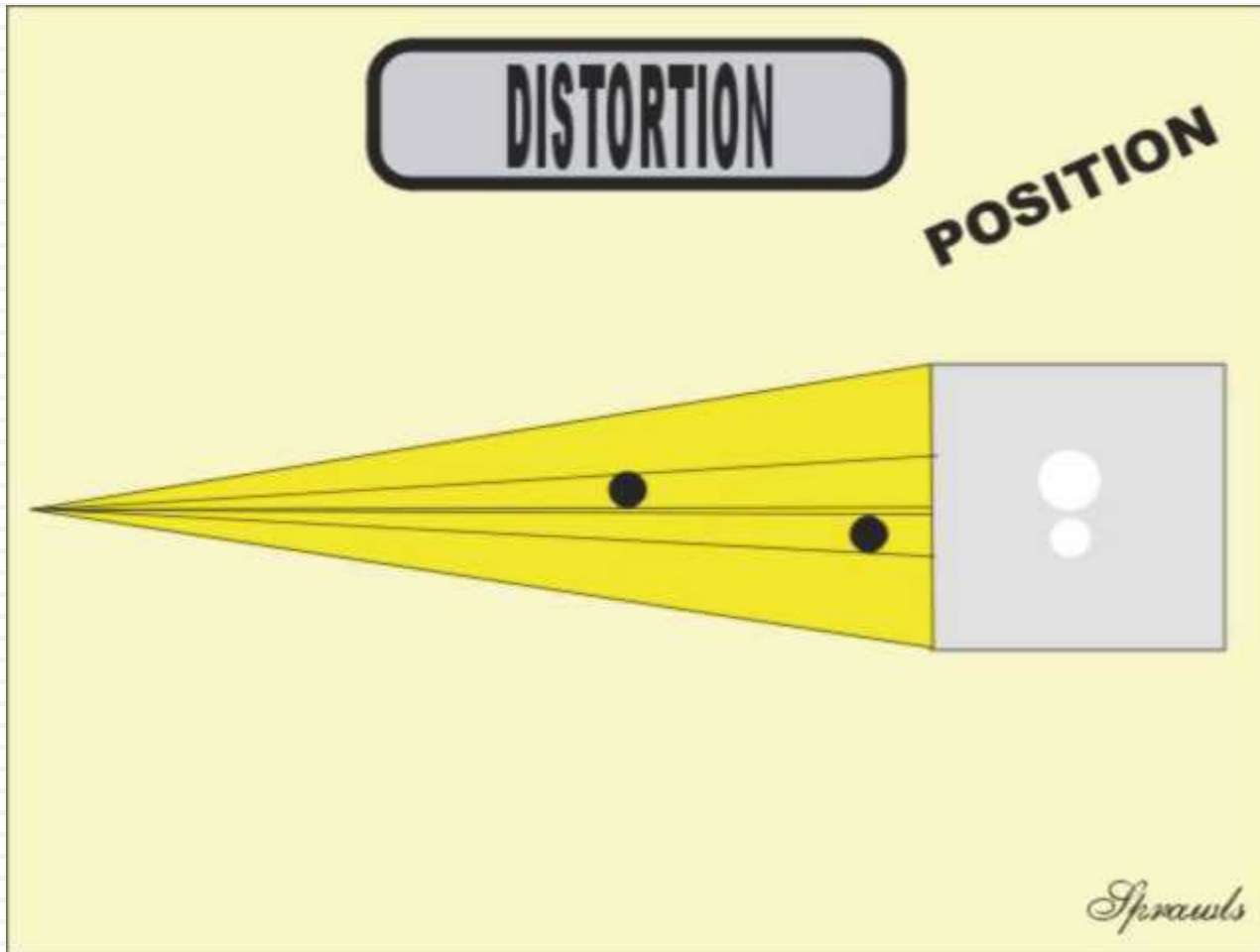
# Distortions (size)



# Distortions (shape)



# Distortions (positions)



# General concluding remarks

- In general, it would be advisable to optimize the various parameters of the measurement so that the maximal visibility is obtained.
- In many cases however changing one parameter improves one of the characteristic of the image, but other characteristics are worsened.
- Often one gets an improvement of the image to the detriment, for example, of the total time of the measurement, and this could lead to other possible inconvenients (increase of the exposure to radiations, possible movements of the patients, higher cost, etc.)
- One should therefore look for the best compromise among the different factors, according to the characteristics one desires to know best.