

# The mysterious X-ray

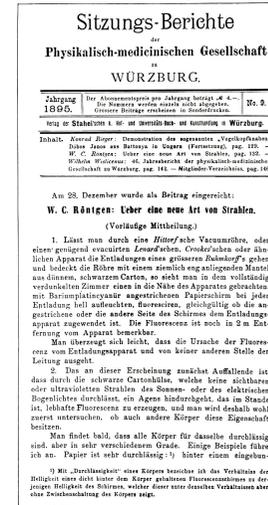
## X-ray

Generation, properties, applications

Miklós Kellermayer



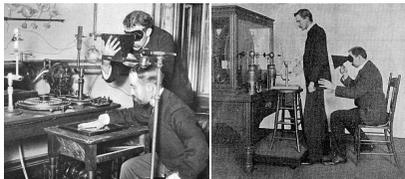
Wilhelm Konrad Röntgen (1845-1923) Nobel prize, 1901



Hand mit Ringen (Hand with Ring): Wilhelm Röntgen's first "medical" X-ray, of his wife's, Anna Bertha Ludwig's hand, taken on 22 December 1895 and presented to Professor Ludwig Zehender of the Physik Institut (University of Freiburg, 1 January 1896).

## Glorious history of x-ray

Transparency – paper funnel radioscope



Late 1890s

World war I.



Everyday applications



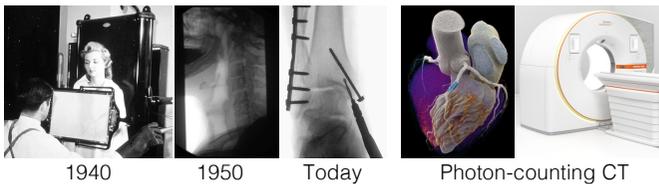
Shoe-fitting fluoroscope (1930-50)



Airport security



Medical applications



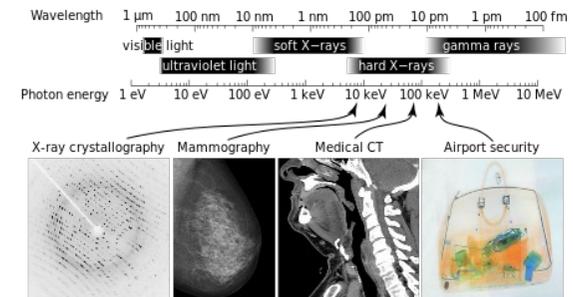
1940

1950

Today

Photon-counting CT

## X-rays are electromagnetic waves



**Wavelength** 10 - 0.01 nm.

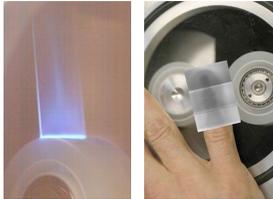
**Frequency**  $30 \times 10^{15}$  -  $30 \times 10^{18}$  Hz (petahertz - exahertz).

**Energy** 120 eV - 120 keV.

# Generation of X-ray

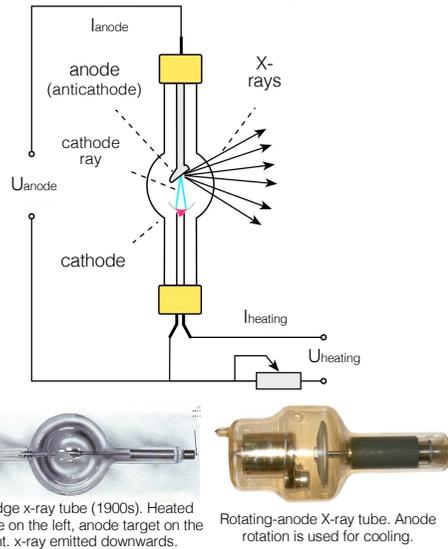
## Non-conventional method

**Triboluminescence:** light emission evoked by scratching or rubbing. (Francis Bacon, 1605)



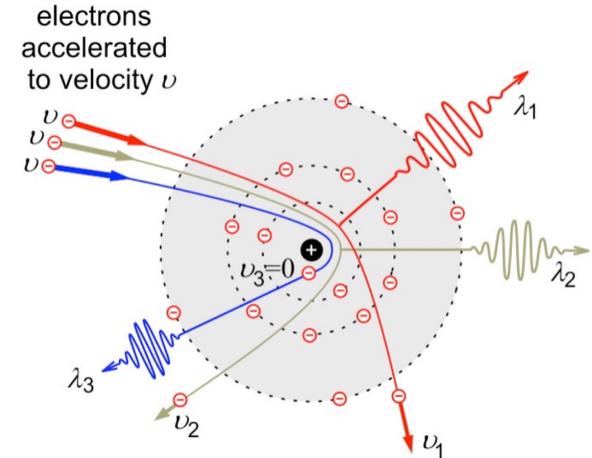
Peeling away sticky tape emits light and X-rays. (Nature News, October 2008)

## Usual method: x-ray tube



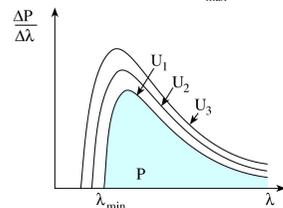
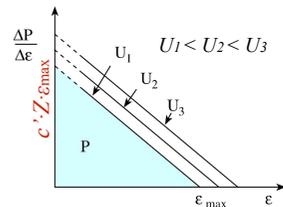
# Mechanism I. "Bremsstrahlung"

Electrons *decelerate*, thereby loose their kinetic energy, when interacting with the atoms of the anode ("braking radiation").



# Spectrum of Bremsstrahlung

## Continuous



$$eU_{anode} = \epsilon_{max} = hf_{max}$$

Maximal photon energy ( $\epsilon_{max}$ )  
 N.B.: Total kinetic energy of electron is transformed in one step (rare event).  
 $e$ : electron's charge;  
 $U_{anode}$ : accelerating voltage;  
 $eU_{anode}$ : acceleration work;  
 $h$ : Planck's constant;  
 $f_{max}$ : limiting frequency

$$\lambda_{min} = \frac{hc}{e \cdot U_{anode}}$$

Limiting wavelength ( $\lambda_{min}$ ) (Duane-Hunt Law)  
 N.B.: Limiting wavelength is inversely proportional to accelerating voltage.  
 $c$ : light speed;  
 $hc/e$ : constant (1.2398 kV-nm)

$$\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta \epsilon} = c^1 \cdot Z^1 \cdot (\epsilon_{max} - \epsilon)$$

Energy spectrum (energy dependence of power)

$$P_{tot} = \frac{1}{2} c^1 \cdot Z^1 \cdot \epsilon_{max}^2 = c^1 \cdot Z^1 \cdot U_{anode}^2 \cdot e^2$$

Total power ( $P_{tot}$ ) (based on the area of the triangle)  
 $C_{Rtg}$ : coefficient ( $1.1 \times 10^{-9} V^{-1}$ );  
 $I_{anode}$ : anode current (number of electrons hitting the anode per unit time);  
 $Z$ : atomic number of the anode atoms

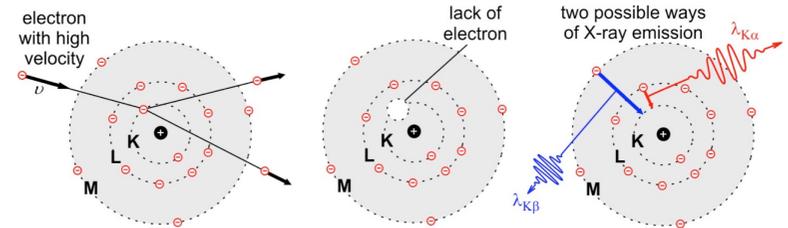
$$P_{tot} = C_{Rtg} \cdot I_{anode} \cdot U_{anode}^2 \cdot Z$$

$$\eta = \frac{P_{tot}}{P_{in}} = \frac{C_{Rtg} \cdot I_{anode} \cdot U_{anode}^2 \cdot Z}{I_{anode} \cdot U_{anode}} = C_{Rtg} \cdot U_{anode} \cdot Z$$

Efficiency ( $\eta$ )  
 $P_{in}$ : invested power  
 N.B.: Typically,  $\eta < 1\%$ .

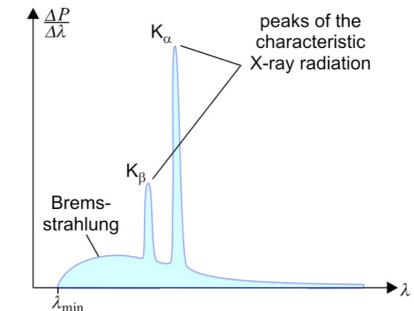
# Mechanism II. Characteristic X-ray

Knocked-out inner-shell electron is replaced by one on a higher-energy shell



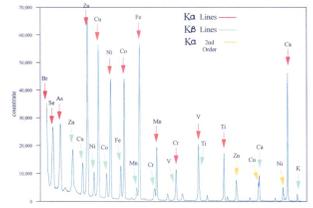
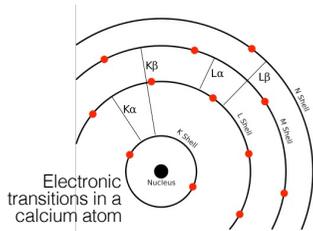
## Spectrum of characteristic X-ray

## Linear

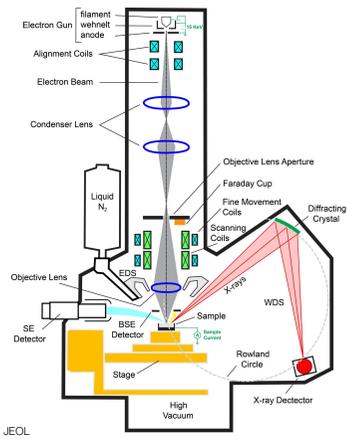


# X-ray spectrum characterizes *atomic* composition

Because inner-shell electrons participate in characteristic X-radiation, only the *atomic* (and not the molecular) properties are revealed



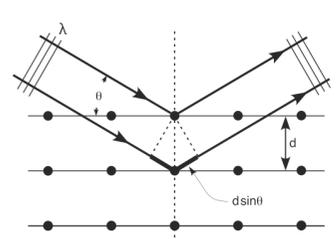
Energy dispersive X-ray fluorescence spectrum



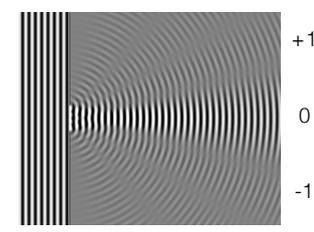
X-ray spectroscope (in an electron microscope!) (measures x-ray energy spectrum)

# Interaction of x-ray with matter

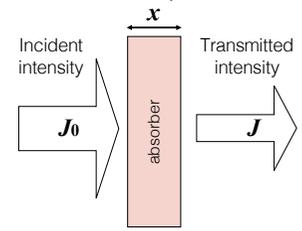
## 1. Diffraction



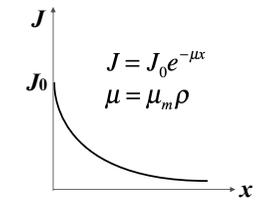
Condition of constructive interference:  $2d \sin \theta = n\lambda$



## 2. Absorption

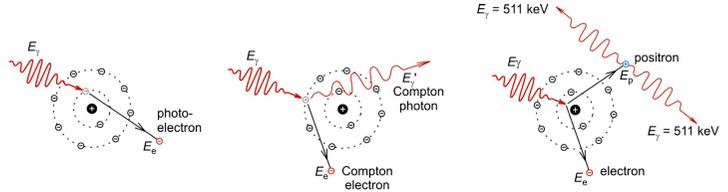


Exponential **attenuation** principle



$\mu$  : linear attenuation coefficient  
 $\mu_m$  : mass attenuation coefficient (cm<sup>2</sup>/g)  
 $\rho$  : density (g/cm<sup>3</sup>)

# Attenuation mechanisms

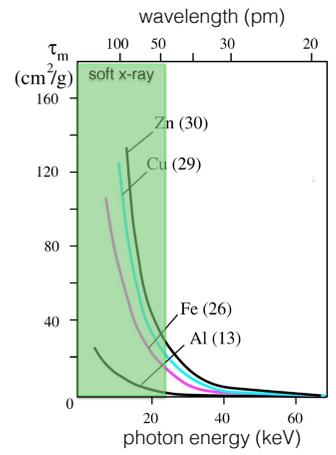


- a.) **photoeffect**  
 $E_i = A + E_{e^-}$   
 $A = \text{work function (escape energy)}$   
 $\tau = \tau_m \rho$   
 $\tau_m, \sigma_m, \kappa_m$ : mass attenuation coefficients,  $\rho$ : density
- b.) **Compton scattering**  
 $E_i = A + E_e + E_{\gamma'}$   
 $\sigma = \sigma_m \rho$
- c.) **pair production, annihilation**  
 $E_i = 2 m_0 c^2 + E_e + E_p$   
 ( if  $E_i > 1022 \text{ keV}$  )  
 $\kappa = \kappa_m \rho$   
 $\mu_m = \tau_m + \sigma_m + \kappa_m$

Mechanism	Photon energy ( $\epsilon$ ) dependence of the mass attenuation coefficient	Atomic number (Z) dependence of the mass attenuation coefficient	Relevant energy range in soft tissue
Photoeffect	$\sim 1 / \epsilon^3$	$\sim Z^3$	10 - 100 keV
Compton scatter	falls gradually with $\epsilon$	$\sim Z/A$ (A: mass number)	0.5 - 5 MeV
Pair production	rises slowly with $\epsilon$	$\sim Z^2$	> 5 MeV

Diagnostic X-ray:  
 1. Contrast mechanism between soft tissue and bone: photoeffect ( $\sim Z^3$ )  
 2. Contrast mechanism within soft tissue: Compton-scatter ( $\sim \rho$ )

# Photoeffect attenuation depends strongly on photon energy and atomic number



$$\tau_m = \text{const} \cdot \frac{Z^3}{\epsilon^3} = C \cdot \lambda^3 \cdot Z^3$$

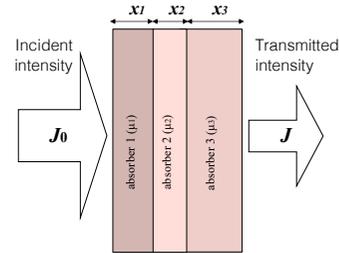
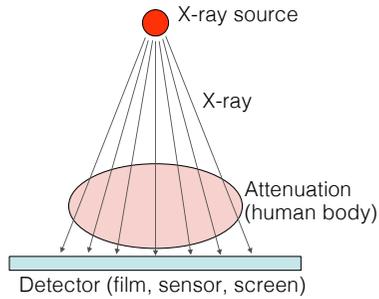
For multi-component system: "effective atomic number" ( $Z_{\text{eff}}$ )

$$Z_{\text{eff}} = \sqrt[3]{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i Z_i^3}$$

$\epsilon$ =photon energy  
 $Z$ =atomic number  
 $w$ =mole fraction  
 $n$ =number of components

Material	$Z_{\text{eff}}$
Air	7.3
Water	7.7
Soft tissue	7.4
Bone	13.8

# Application I. X-ray imaging



$$J = J_0 e^{-(\mu_1 x_1 + \mu_2 x_2 + \mu_3 x_3 + \dots)}$$

$$\lg \frac{J_0}{J} = (\mu_1 x_1 + \mu_2 x_2 + \mu_3 x_3 + \dots) \cdot \lg e$$

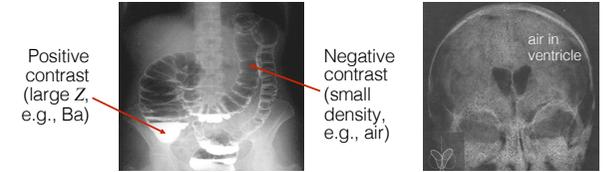
$\mu_n$ :  $n^{\text{th}}$  absorber's attenuation coefficient  
 $x_n$ :  $n^{\text{th}}$  absorber's thickness

The X-ray image is a summation image ("X-ray image", "radiographic image", "roentgenogram"). Contrast arises due to spatially varying attenuation.

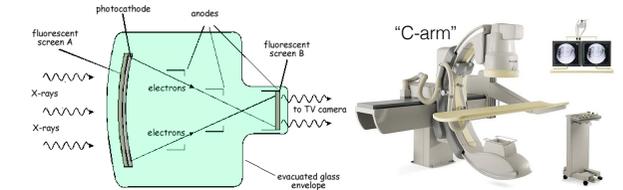


# Improving X-ray imaging I.

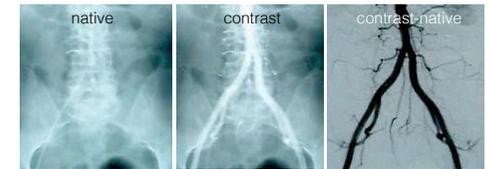
Increasing contrast: contrast agents



Enhancing sensitivity: intensifier

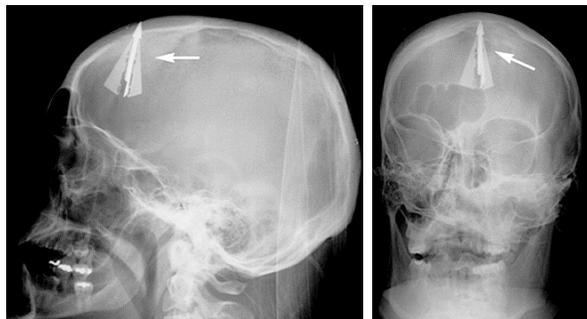


Background subtraction: "Digital Subtraction Angiography" (DSA)



# Improving X-ray imaging II. Spatial resolution

Bi-directional X-ray imaging

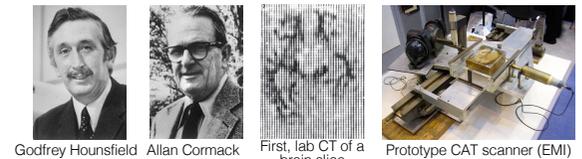


Bi-directional cranial X-ray of an individual who tried to commit suicide with a crossbow.

# Improving X-ray imaging: the CAT scanner

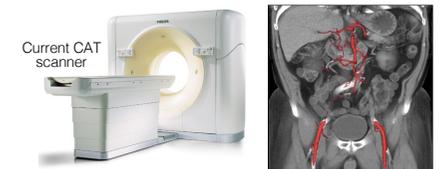
## History

- Röntgen, Hounsfield and Cormack
- 1967: first CAT scan
- 1972: prototype
- 1974: first clinical CAT image (head)
- 1976: whole body CAT scan
- 1979: Nobel-prize
- 1990: spiral CAT scanner
- 1992: multislice CAT scanner
- 2006: 64 slice (and more...)
- multiple and hybrid modes: SPECT-CT, PET-CT, Dual-source CT



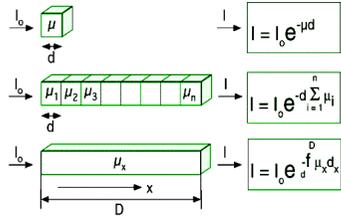
## Summary

- **Tomographic** digital imaging method that uses **x-rays**: displays x-ray **absorbance** by the different points of the tomographic slice.
- **Multidetector** spiral CT (4-64 detector array): one slice 0.4-1 s; entire examination 5-15 s.
- **Ionizing** radiation. Absorbed **dose** ~50-100 times that of conventional x-ray. Significant **scattered** intensity.



# CT Foundations I: determination of $\mu$

Objective: to determine the attenuation coefficient ( $\mu_x$ ) of the individual volume elements (voxels)

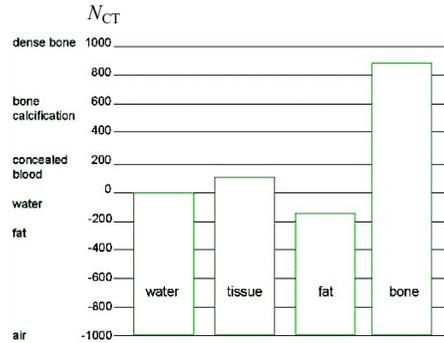


$\mu_x$ : linear attenuation coefficient  
 $dx$ : size of the voxel

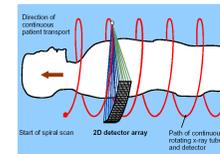
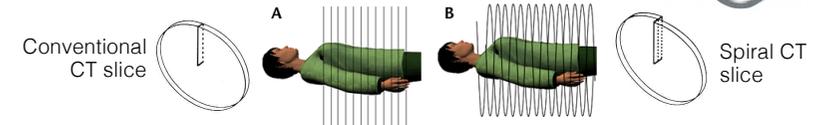
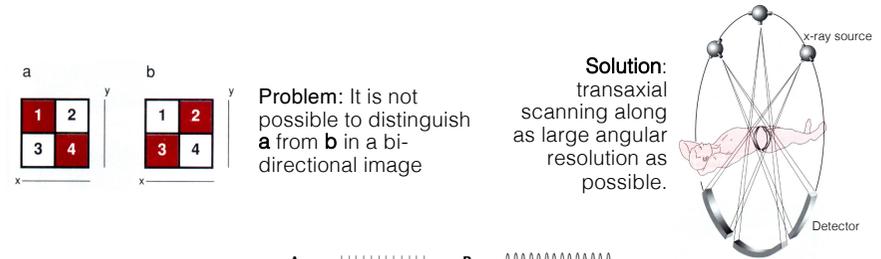
CT Image: density matrix

$$N_{CT} = 1000 \frac{\mu - \mu_w}{\mu_w}$$

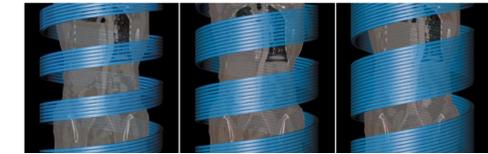
$N_{CT}$ : density, CT number, Hounsfield units  
 $\mu$ : attenuation coefficient of voxel  
 $\mu_w$ : attenuation coefficient of water



# CT foundations II. scanning



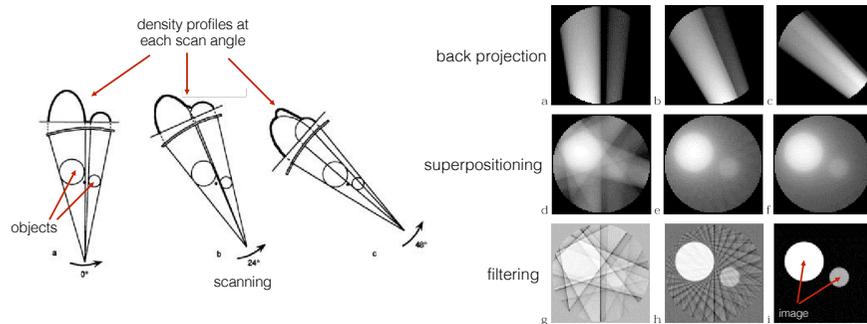
Multi-detector CT (MDCT)



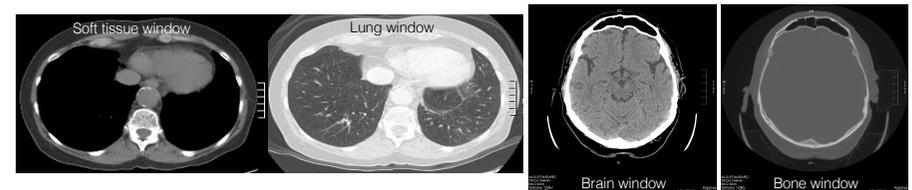
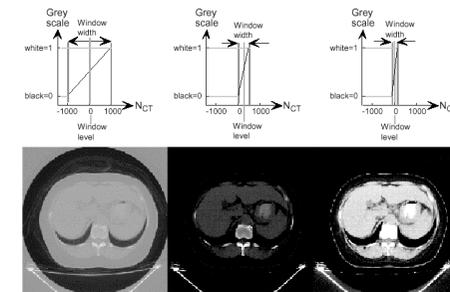
Multi-slice CT (MSCT)

# CT foundations III: Image Reconstruction

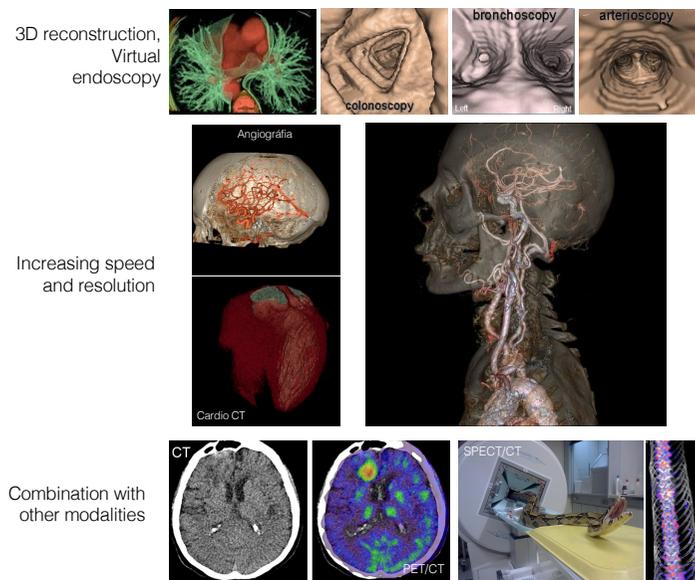
1. Algebraic reconstruction techniques
2. Direct Fourier reconstruction
3. „Filtered Back Projection” (current method)



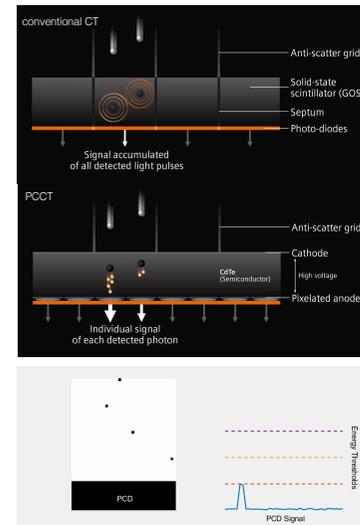
# CT foundations IV: Contrast manipulation „Windowing”



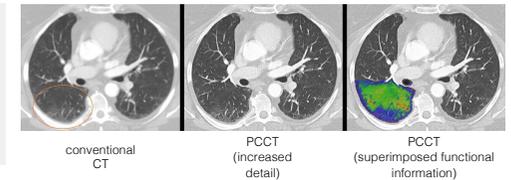
# Modern CAT scanning



# Photon Counting CT (PCCT)

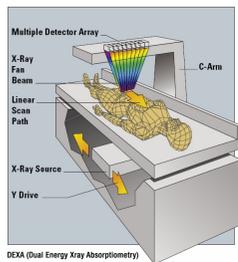


- PCD: Photon Counting Detector (cadmium telluride crystal, CdTe)
- PCD keeps track of the energy of incoming photons
- PCD provides x-ray energy spectrum
- increased sensitivity (lower x-ray dose, lower contrast-agent dose)
- functional imaging possibility

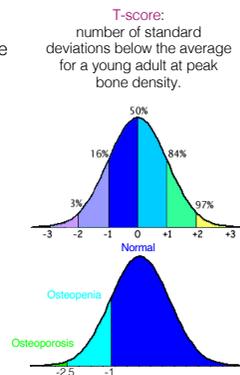
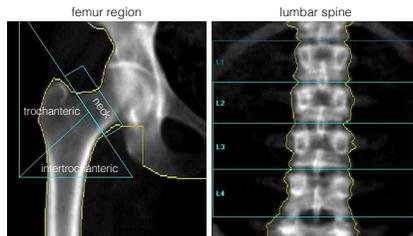


# Application II. Absorptiometry

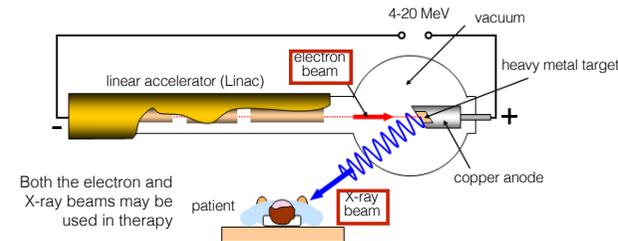
## Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA or DEXA)



- Most important method for measuring bone density
- Characteristic X-ray is used as source
- Two different photon energies are employed (so that bone vs. soft-tissue absorption can be differentiated)
- Low dose is applied
- Whole-body scan is recorded
- Densities of distinct areas (e.g., femur, spine) are compared with reference databases
- Bone Mineral Density (BMD) calculated
- T-score is established



# Application III. Radiation therapy



First patient (Gordon Isaacs) treated with Linac radiation therapy (electron beam) for retinoblastoma (1955)



Modern hospital Linac

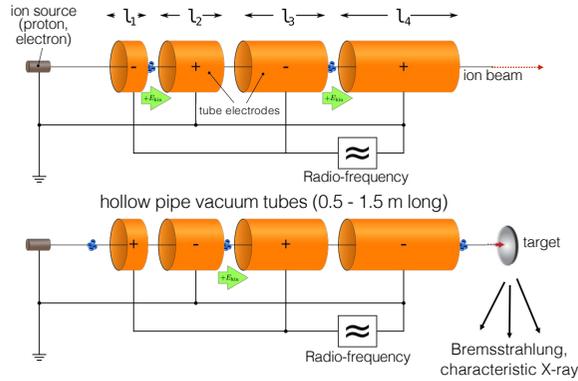
### Advantages:

- Radiation may be turned on and off
- No contaminating radioactivity

# Generating high-energy X-ray

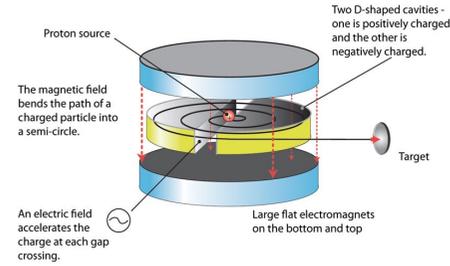
## Linear accelerator (Linac)

- Charged particle (electron, proton) accelerated between electrodes (but not inside the electrode).
- Velocity of particle increases in steps.
- Electrode polarity is alternating.
- Electrodes are gradually longer ( $v_n$  increases) in order to maintain synchrony.
- Accelerated particles are directed at suitable target material (to generate X-ray).



# Ring-shape particle accelerators

## Cyclotron

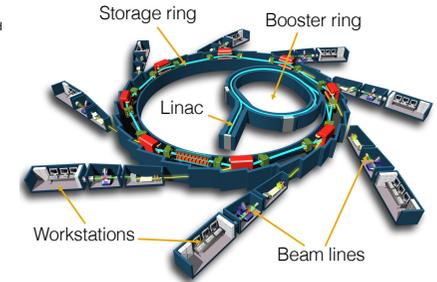


- Lorentz forces keep particles on circular path (causes limitations)
- Few tens of MeV particles are generated
- Used for generating positron-emitting isotopes (PET)
- Clinical cyclotrons in PET centers

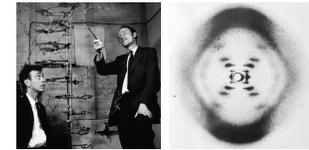


11 MeV medical cyclotron

## Synchrotron



- Very high energy particles can be generated (GeV)
- Relativistic speeds can be achieved (near light speed)
- X-rays used for high-resolution structural research
- Few facilities around the world (Grenoble, Chicago, etc.)



J.D. Watson and C.F. Crick, and the first x-ray image of DNA (1953)

## Feedback



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