

How to start?

- Maybe by question(s) or quiz or test!
- By what question(s)?
- What does it mean imaging?
- What is the simplest imaging system?
- Why are the imaging systems so important?

Answers

- What does it mean imaging?
- Imaging is the representation or reproduction of an object's outward form; especially a visual representation.

the formation of an image

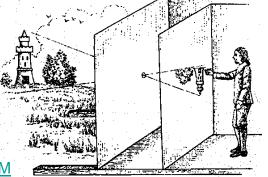
Answers

- What is the simplest imaging system?
- The camera obscura (Latin veiled chamber) is an optical device used, for example, in drawing or for entertainment.





From courses.essex.ac.uk/lt/lt204/GERMAN.HTM



Answers

- What are the imaging systems so important?
- Medical imaging systems have an important role from the point of view of the early diagnostics and the following treatment without invasive approach.

early diagnostics

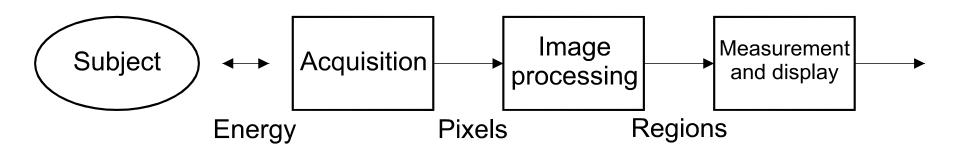
Lecture motto

 One sentence is better than thousand characters

One image is better than thousand words

One videosequence is better than thousand images

Essential parts of a medical imaging system



Acquisition = building the image = applying energy + sensing a response

reflection, transmission

Medical imaging systems

- conventional
 X-ray, X-ray TV, DSA, DR, (IR), NM
- tomographical (tomography)
 US
- tomographical (computed tomography)
 CT, MR, SPECT, PET, (EIT)

Chart of the Electromagnetic Spectrum reference man's height paperclip Size cells viruses atom thickness subatomic bacteria baseball water molecule particles → football field thickness 1 ft 1 cm 1 mm 1 mil 1μ 1 nm 1 pm wavelength λ (m) 103 10^{2} 10 10^{-1} 10-2 10-3 10-5 10-6 10-7 10-8 10-9 10-10 10-11 10-12 10-4 wavenumber (cm⁻¹) 10⁻⁵ 10-3 10-2 10-1 10^{2} 10^{3} 10⁵ 10⁶ 10⁷ 108 1010 10-4 10 104 10⁹ electron volt 10-6 10-5 10^{-3} 10-2 10² 10³ 10⁶ (eV) 10-9 10-8 10^{-7} 10-4 10-1 10 104 10⁵ 1 MHz 1 GHz 1 THz 1 PHz 1 ZHz 1 EHz frequency (Hz) 1011 10^{17} 10¹⁹ 10^{20} 105 10⁶ 10^{7} 10⁸ 10⁹ 1010 10¹² 10¹³ 10¹⁴ 10¹⁵ 1016 10^{18} 10^{21} Bands **Radio Spectrum** Infrared **Terahertz Ultraviolet** X-ray Gamma Near Extreme UV Far IR Mid IR Near **Broadcast and Wireless** Soft X-ray Hard X-ray **Microwave** optics Visible wavelengths (nm) **Dental Curing** Fiber telecom $0.7 - 1.4 \mu$ 200-350nm Sources and Uses of Medical X-rays Bands FM radio 10-0.1 Å **Mobile Phones** AM radio 88-108 MHz 900MHz-2.4GHz Radar Cosmic ray 600kHz-1.6MHz Visible Light 1-100 GHz observations Bio imaging Frequency 425-750THz <<1 Å 1-10 THz 700-400nm Baggage screen Remotes 10-1.0 Å TV Breadcast Wireless Data 850 nm 54-700 MHz ~ 2.4 GHz Ultrasound PET imaging Screening 1-20 MHz Suntan 0.1-0.01 Å 0.2-4.0 THz 400-290nm Crystallography **Sound Waves** "mm wav 2.2-0.7 Å ← 20Hz-20kHz MRI-MRS Night Vision 60-1000 MHz Mcrowave Oven "sub-mm" 10-0.7 L 2.4 GHz © 2005 SURA www.sura.org x = 3x108/freq = 1/(wn*100) = 1.24x10⁻⁶/eV Southeastern Universities SURA Copyrighted images used with permission. Rev2C 6-June-2005 Microscopy

Image acquisition modalities

 the various technologies and protocols used to acquire image data

Projection X-ray (radiography)

- Different absorption chracteristics allow to distinguish different material (and provide contrast) in the image.
- X-ray attenuation is measured by the linear attenuation coefficient (µ).
- Projection X-rays (radiographs) are 2D projections of 3D data

Conventional X-ray (projection radiography)



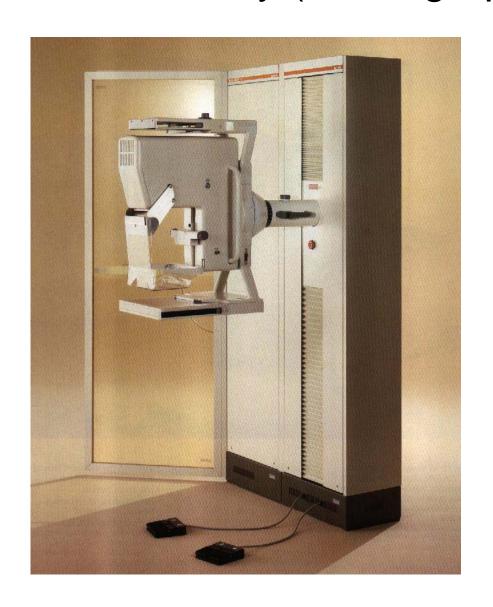
Conventional X-ray (X-ray tube)







Conventional X-ray (mamograph)



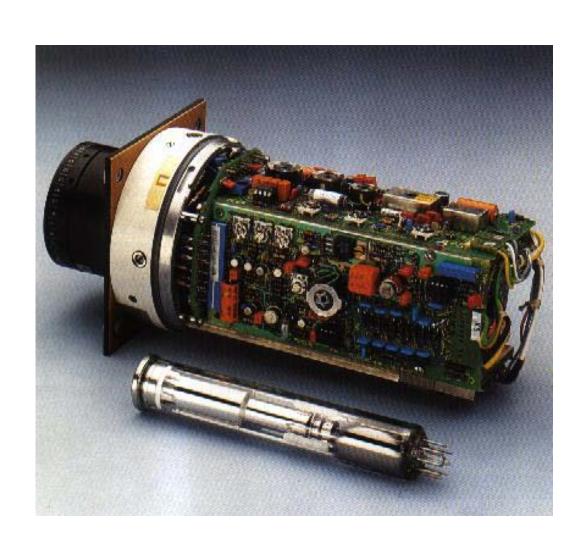
Conventional X-ray TV (C arm with II)



Conventional X-ray TV (image intensifier)



Conventional X-ray TV (TV pick-up tube)

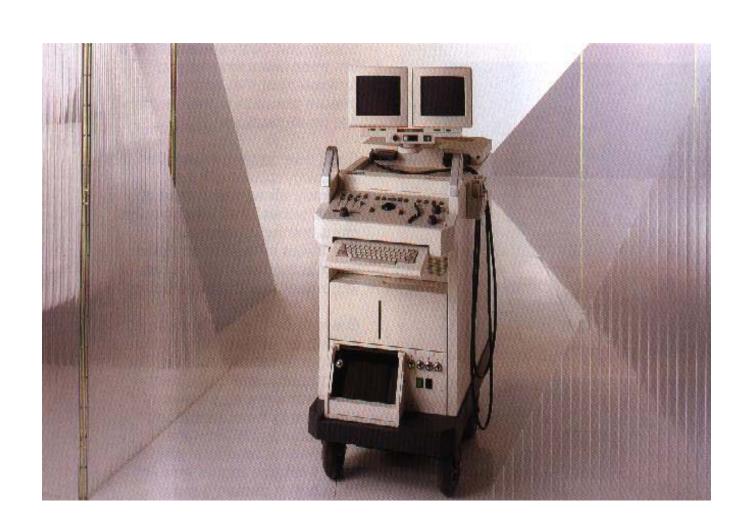


Ultrasound



- US imaging employs HF sound energy to image the interface between differing tissue types.
- When the sound wave strikes an interface, some energy moves across the interface and some energy is reflected backwards.
- The reflected energy is detected by a receiver and is used to form the image.

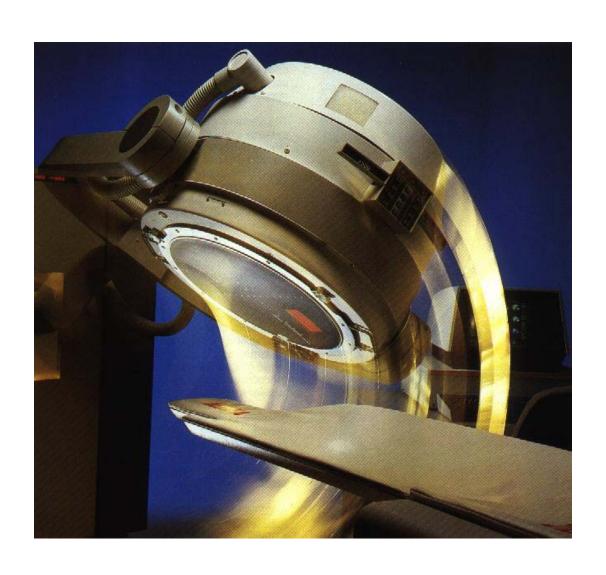
Conventional US ("tomography")



Nuclear medicine

- Radio-isotopes are introduced into the body to "tag" specifig physiologic functions.
- As the tracer accumulates in a particular anatomic location, it periodically emits a particle that can be observed and used to form an image.
- NM it can be used to form functional rather than structural images.

Conventional NM (Anger gama camera)

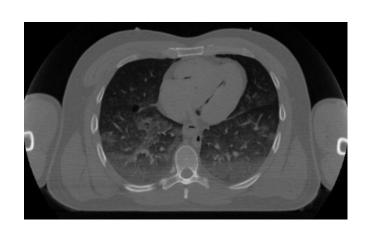


Computed tomography (CT)

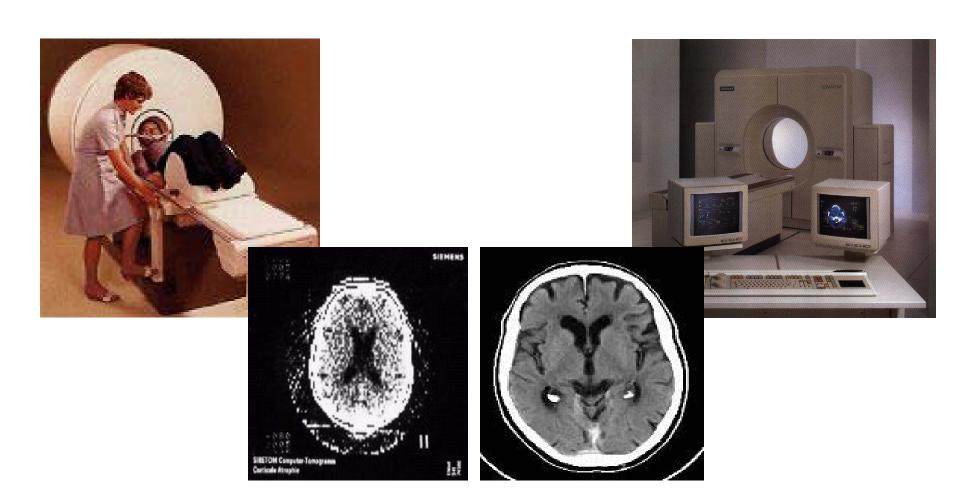
- CT is used to generate cross-sectional images (CT slices) from a set of projections images obtained at different angles.
- CT image pixels are reported in units called Hounsfield units (HU).
- The following reference points are useful to know:

CT

Material	CT number	μ [cm ⁻¹]
Bone	808	0.38
Muscle	0	0.21
Water	-48	0.20
Fat	-142	0.18
Air	-1000	0.00



CT (history vs. present)



Magnetic resonance imaging

- MRI images proton density by using a permanent magnet with a pulsed radio frequency (RF) field.
- The RF field changes the spin orientation of protons (tilting them and causing them to precess as they spin) within the body.
- We form an image by listening to a signal emitted as the protons relax back to their original orientation.

MRI

 We apply energy to perturb the system, but the signal itself is generated from the tissue sample under study!

 This places some fundamental limitations on MR image acquisition.

Single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT)

- SPECT camera acquire multiple planar views of the radioactivity in an organ
- the data are then processed mathematically (iterative reconstruction)
- SPECT utilizes the single photon emitted by gama-emitting radionuclides such as 99mTc, ⁶⁷Ga, ¹¹¹In, and ¹²³I
- this is in contrast to PET

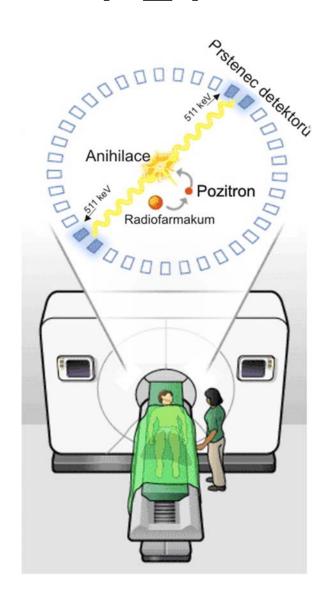
SPECT



Positron emission tomography (PET)

- PET cameras are designed to detect the paired 511-keV photons generated from the anihilation event of a positron and electron
- following emission, any positron travels only a short distance before coliding with electrons in surrounding matter
- the paired 511-keV annihilation photons travel in opposite directions (180° apart) along a line

PET



Ionizing vs. non-ionizing radiation

- Ionizing radiation applied energy is sufficient to ionize atoms (ejects an electron from orbit, creating a positively charged ion). (e.g., X-ray, CT, PET, SPECT)
- Non-ionizing radiation insufficient energy to ionize atoms (MRI, US, optical)

Imaging structure and function

- Structure: tissue density, region size, shape, and orientation.
- Function: Activity (metabolic rate), perfusion, ventilation.
- Challenge: combining structural and functional information together in a synergistic presentation (ex. display blood flow distribution on top of a CT slice of lung).

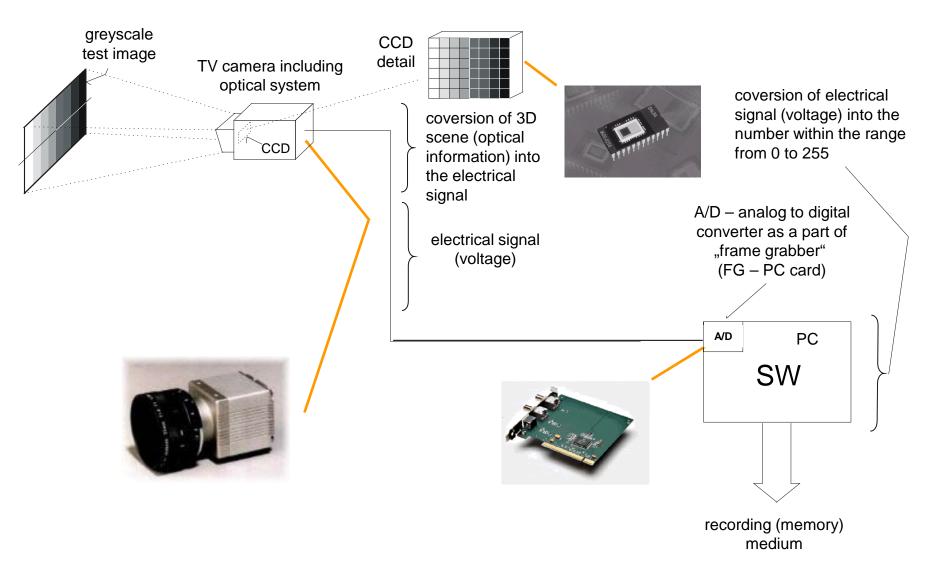
Digital image processing

- What is an image?
- Formal definition: A digital image is a multidimensional signal that is sampled in space and/or time and quantized in amplitude. An image is often represented by a multidimensional matrix (array) of numbers.
- Looser definition: An image is a "picture". The brightness value in the picture may represent distance, reflectivity, density, temperature, etc.

Digital image processing

- The image may be 2-D (planar), 3-D (volumetric), or N-D.
- Image elements: an image is composed of:
 - 2-D: pixels = picture x elements
 - 3-D: voxels = volume x elements

Analog image to digital image conversion



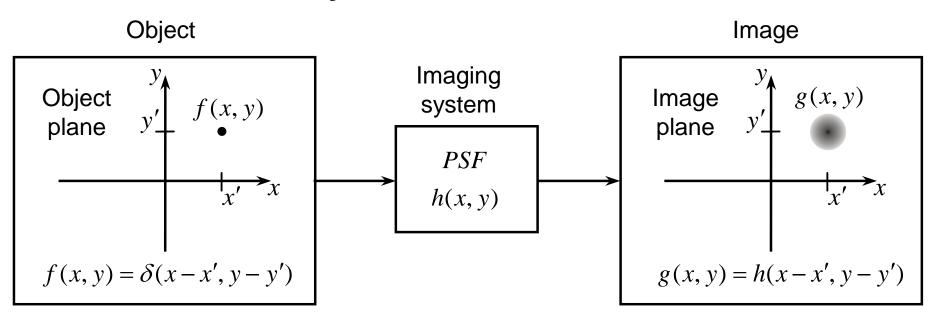
What do images represent?

- X-ray attenuation (density)
 X-ray, CT
- Water (proton) density, relaxation times MRI
- Acoustic impedance
- Brightness
- Tracer uptake (distribution of radioactivity) NM
- Heat
- Electrical impedance

Transfer properties of imaging systems

- Why?
- Analogy with 1D cases.
- Key point: spatial frequency, contrast transfer
- How to measure quality?
- Set of transfer functions

Impulse response of imaging system - PSF



$$g(x, y) = f(x, y) * h(x, y)$$

2D convolution

$$f(x, y) = \delta(x - x', y - y')$$
 $g(x, y) = h(x - x', y - y')$
 $g(x, y) = f(x, y) * h(x, y)$

$$g(x,y) = f(x,y) * h(x,y) = \int_{\Box^2} f(\alpha,\beta) h(x-\alpha,y-\beta) d\alpha d\beta$$

$$h_{ideal}(x, y) = \delta(x, y)$$

2D convolution – example 1

2D convolution— example 2

Transfer function of imaging system in frequency domain

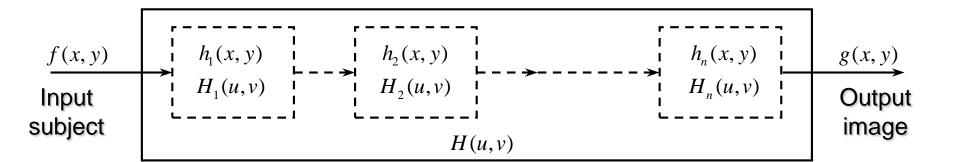
$$F\{g(x,y)\} = F\{f(x,y) * h(x,y)\}$$

$$G(u,v) = F(u,v)H(u,v)$$

The resulting transfer function of imaging system

$$h(x, y) = h_1(x, y) * h_2(x, y) * \dots * h_n(x, y)$$

$$H(u,v) = H_1(u,v) \cdot H_2(u,v) \cdot \dots \cdot H_n(u,v)$$



Spatial frequency

$$u = \frac{1}{X}, \quad v = \frac{1}{Y}$$

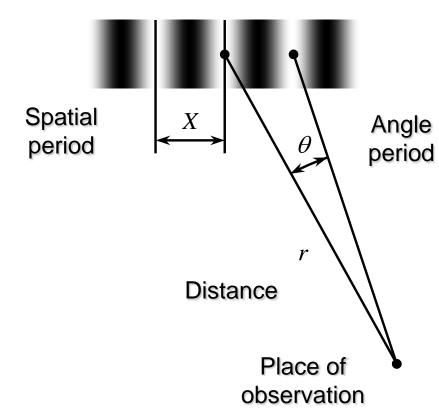
cy/mm

$$Hz \equiv cy/s$$

lp/mm

cy/mrad

$$u_a = \frac{r}{X} = ru$$



Spatial frequency

$$u = 1/X[cy/m]$$

Spatial angle frequency

$$u_a = r / X [cy / rad]$$

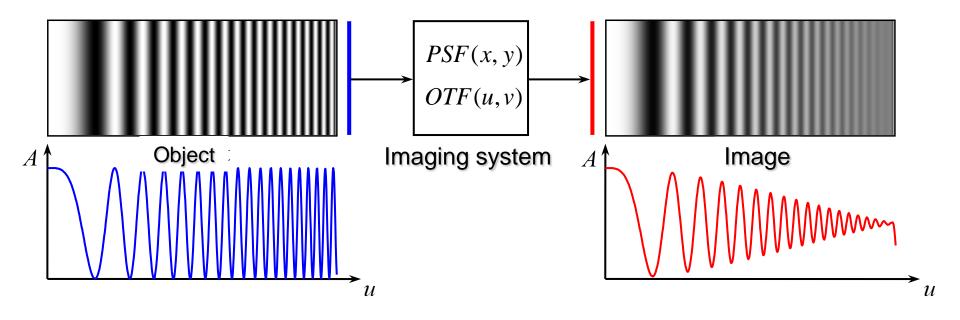
Relationships among transfer functions

$$OTF \equiv \mathsf{F} \{h(x,y)\} = |H(u,v)| e^{j\phi(u,v)}$$

$$MTF \equiv |H(u, v)|$$

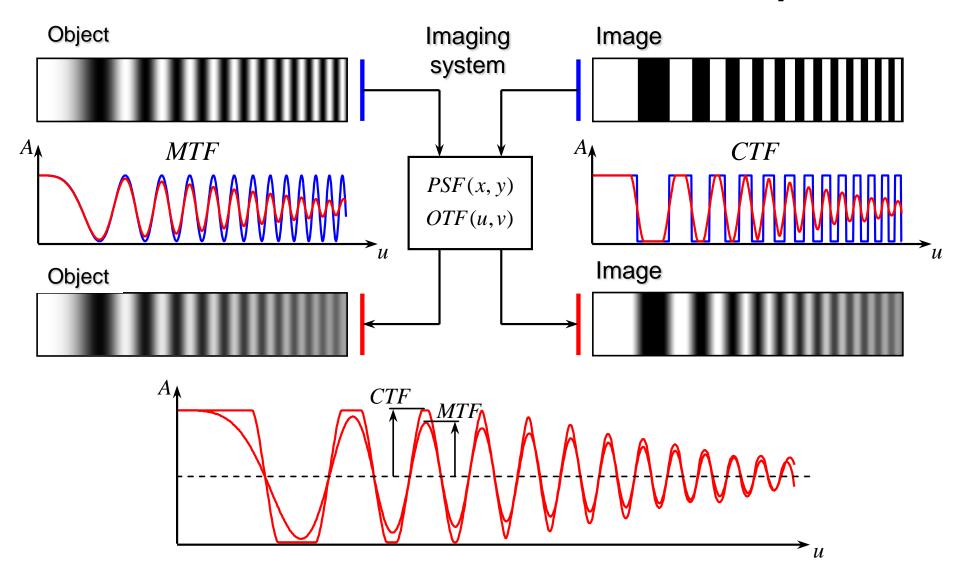
$$PTF \equiv \Box H(u,v) = \phi(u,v)$$

Modulation transfer function

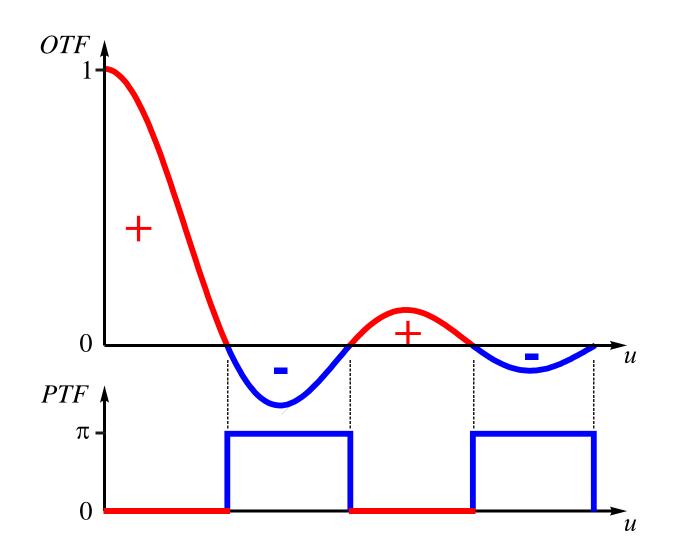


$$M = \frac{A_{max} - A_{min}}{A_{max} + A_{min}} = \frac{ac}{dc}$$

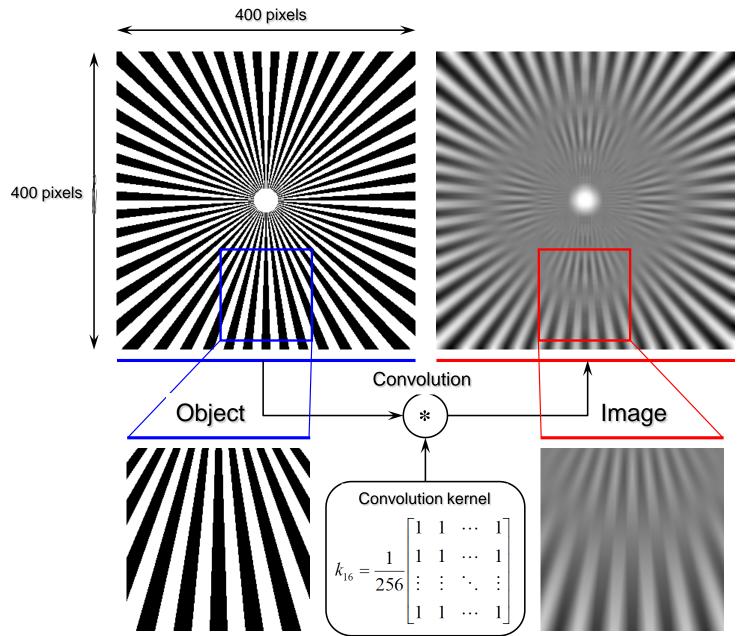
CTF and MTF relatioship



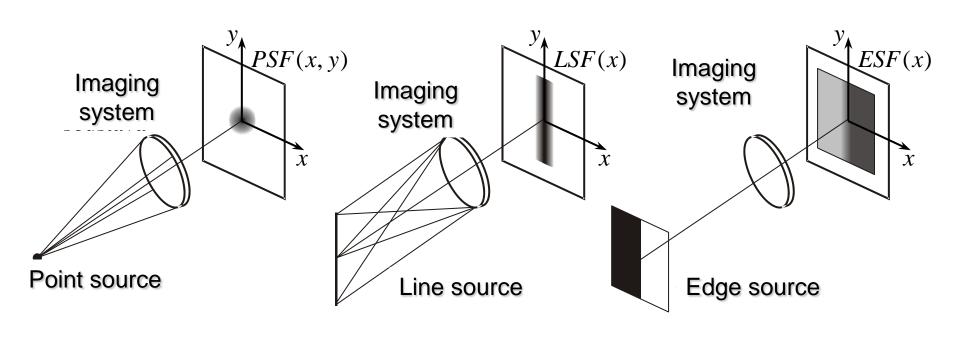
Phase transfer function (PTF)



Effect of PTF on distortion



Another transfer functions



Line spread function (LSF)

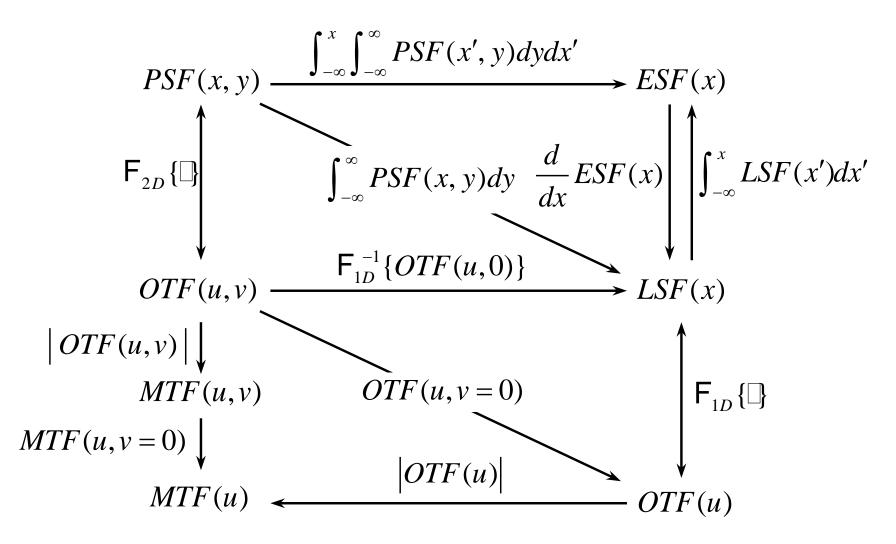
$$LSF(x) \equiv g(x, y) = f(x, y) * h(x, y) = \delta(x) * PSF(x, y)$$
$$MTF(u, 0) = |F\{LSF(x)\}| \qquad f(x, y) = \delta(y) \qquad MTF(0, v) = |F\{LSF(y)\}|$$

$$LSF(x) \neq PSF(x,0)$$

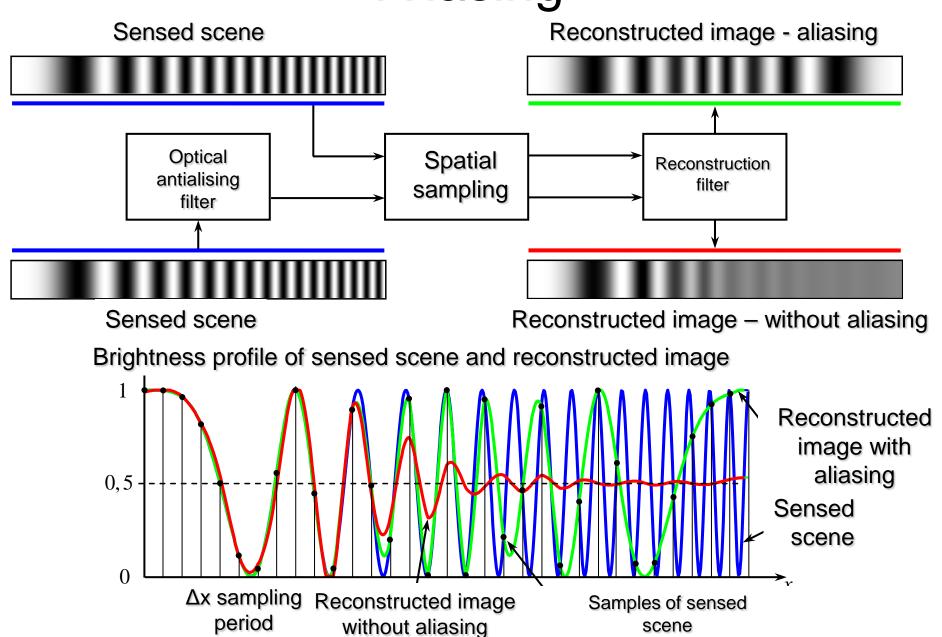
Edge spread function (ESF)

$$LSF(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{x} LSF(x') dx' \right) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(ESF(x) \right)$$

Mathematical relatioships among PSF, OTF, MTF, LSF, ESF



Aliasing



Magnetic resonance imaging

MRI physics in brief

- proton NMR physics
- MR image formation

Basic NMR physics

- Magnetization
- Resonance
- Excitation and detection
- Rotating frame
- Dephasing
- T1 & T2 relaxation

Charge, mass and spin of the proton as nuclear particle

NMR parameters of common nuclei

Nucleus	Gyromagnetic	Relative
	ratio [MHz/T]	sensitivity
¹ H	42.570	1.000
¹³ C	10.700	0.015
¹⁹ F	40.050	0.833
³¹ P	17.235	0.066
²³ Na	11.230	0.092

Only isotopes with an odd number of protons or neutrons have a non zero spin.

Bulk magnetization

Detection of magnetization (induction)

RF pulses (spin excitation)

NMR signal (spin-echo pulse sequence)

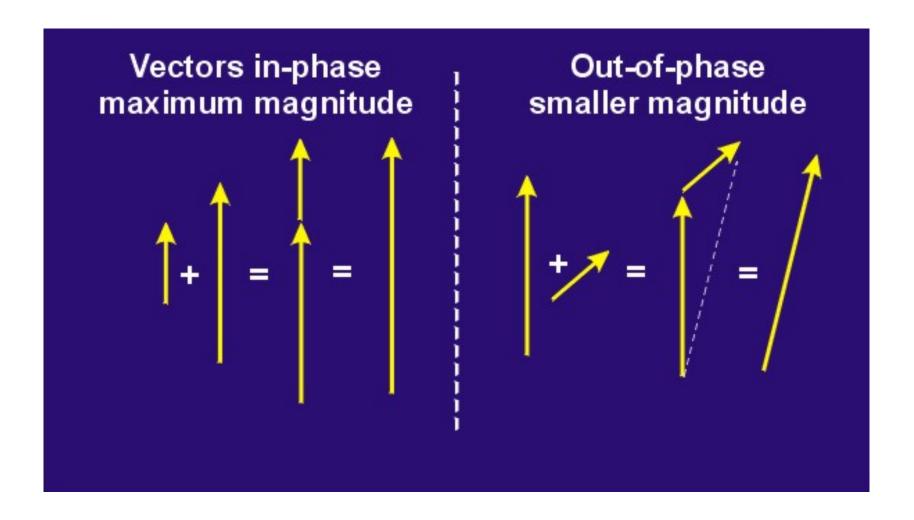
The motions of the magnetization vector

- part 1 laboratory frame point of view
- part 2 magnetization+turntable+camera in synchrony
- part 3 view of the rotating frame camera

Tissue MR properties

- Proton density (PD)
- Spin-lattice relaxation (T1)
- Spin-spin relaxation (T2)
- Susceptibility efects (T2*)
- Motion

Addition of magnetization vectors



The resulting magnetization vector

The resulting magnetization vector for laboratory and rotating frame

The MR system demodulation of the NMR signal

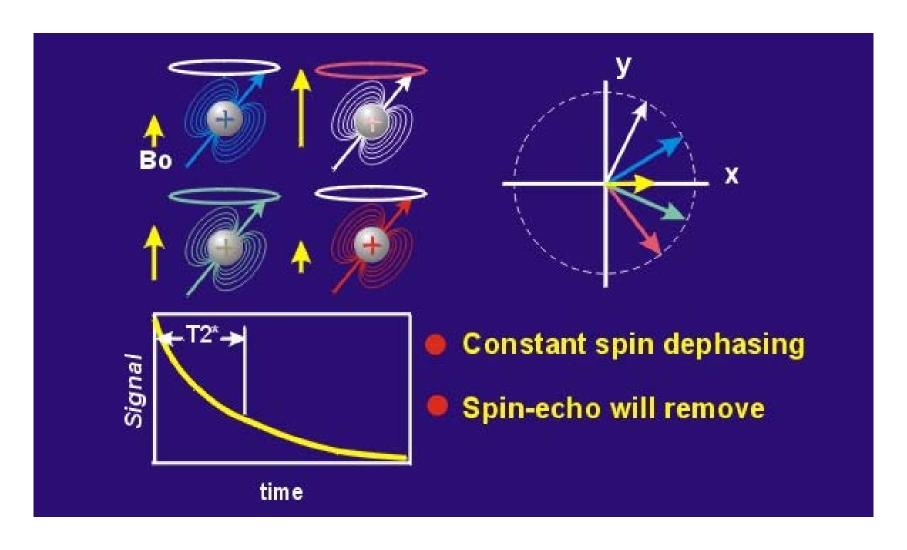
Dephasing in laboratory and rotating frame

Total dephasing in laboratory and rotating frame

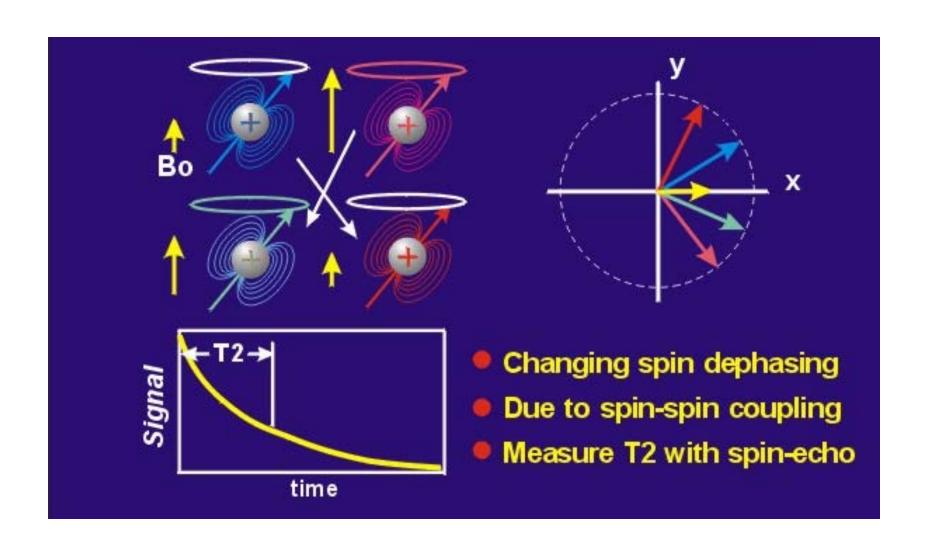
Total dephasing in laboratory and rotating frame – T2* decay time

Video_11_2

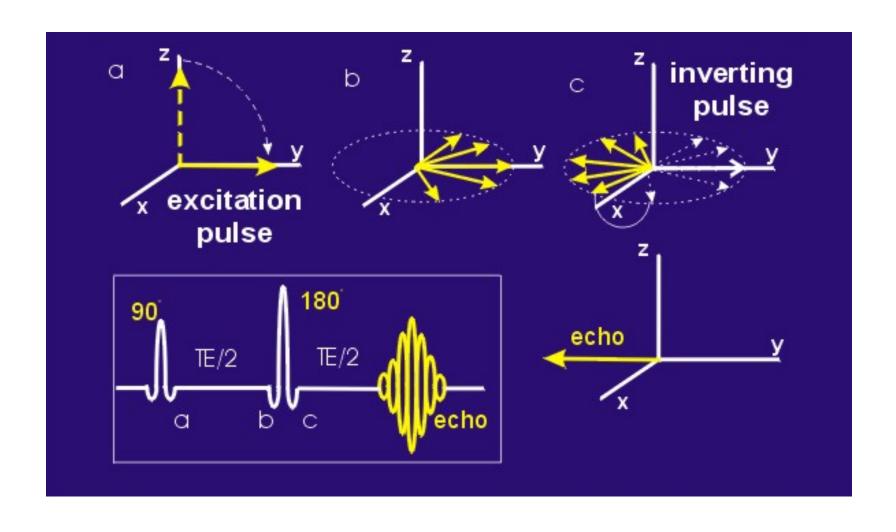
MNR signal decay (spin-echo)



Spin-spin interactions



Spin-echo

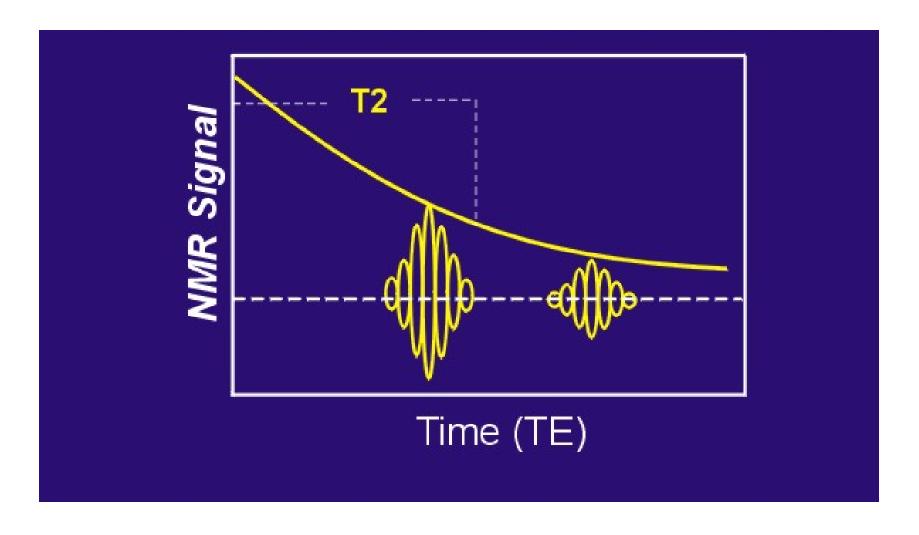


Details of the spin-echo sequence

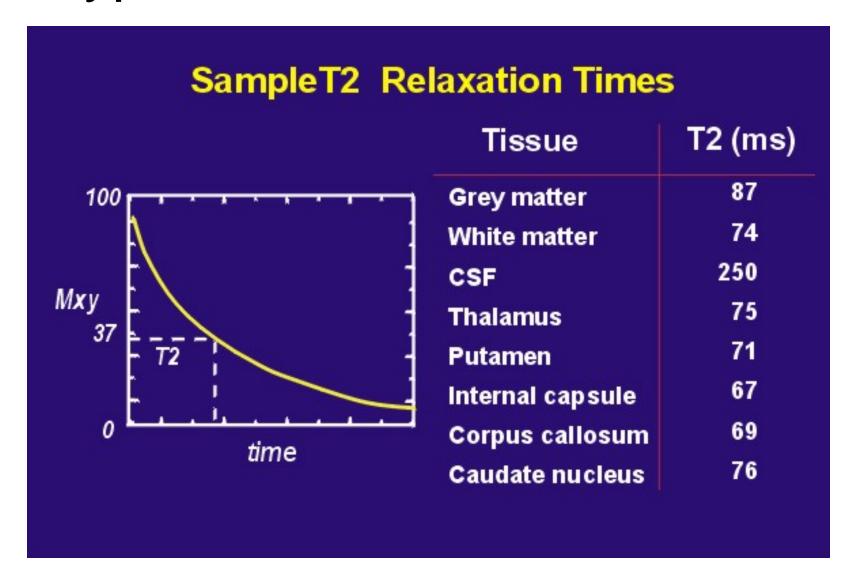
- part 1 the behavior of spin dephasing and RF pulses during the sequence
- part 2 NMR signal for different echo times TE
- part 3 detailed view of the transverse magnetization components alone

Video_12

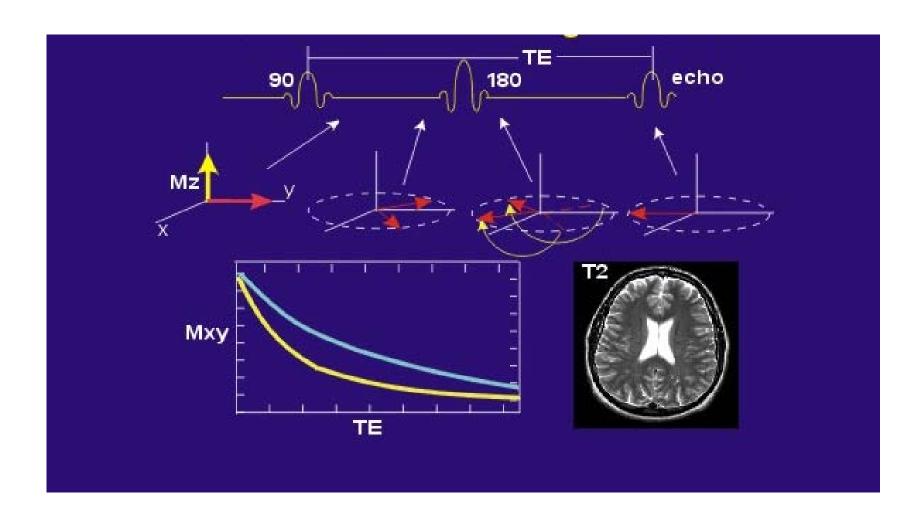
The spin echo - T2 summary (MNR signal vs. the time TE)



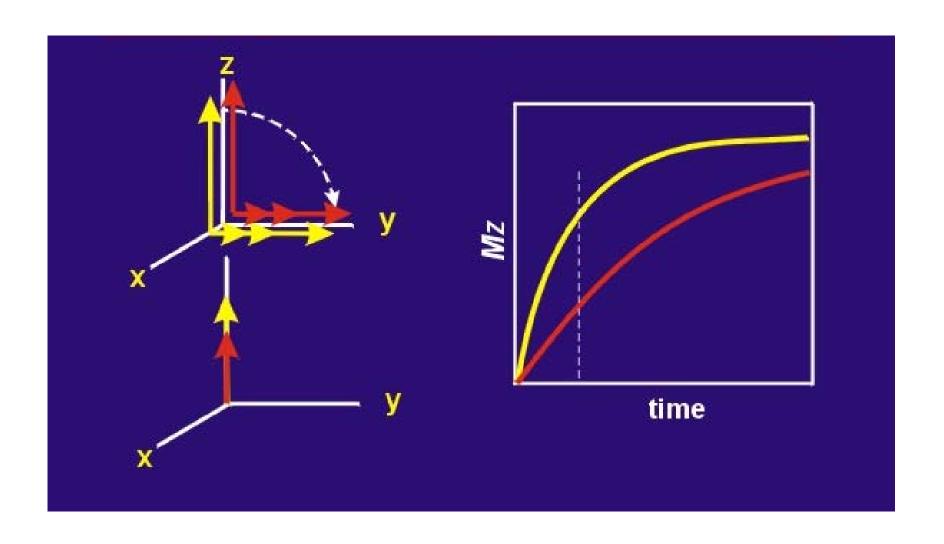
Typical T2 values in the head



T2 modulation of image contrast



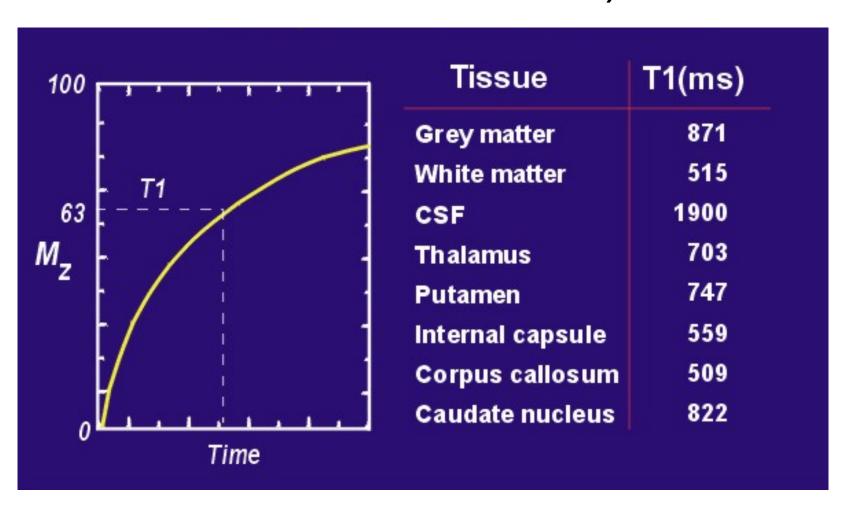
Spin-lattice (T1) relaxation



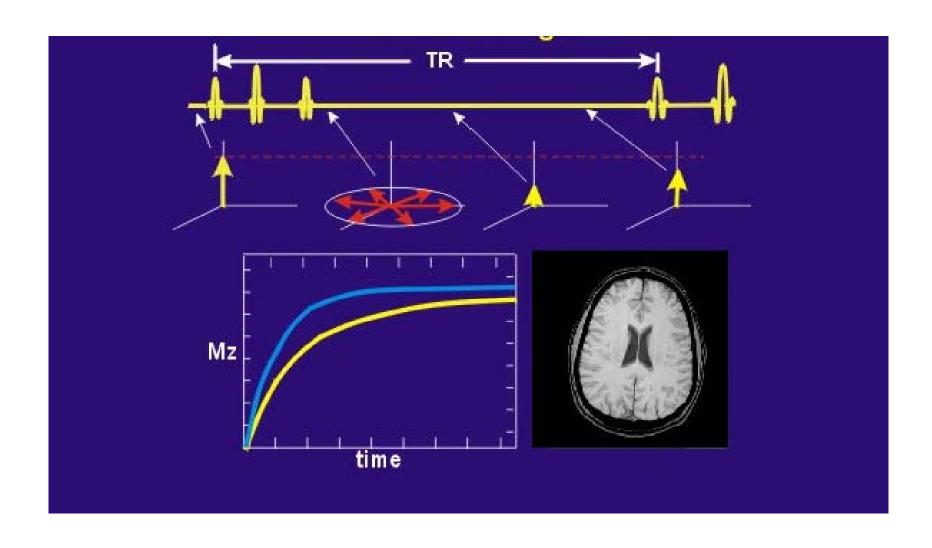
Spin-lattice (T1) relaxation - animation

Video_13

Spin-lattice relaxation values for various tissues (sample T1 relaxation times)



T1 modulation on image contrast



Summary of T1 and T2 relaxation (relaxation effects)

T1 Relaxation

- spin-lattice interactions
- dissipation of energy
- 200-2000 ms time constant

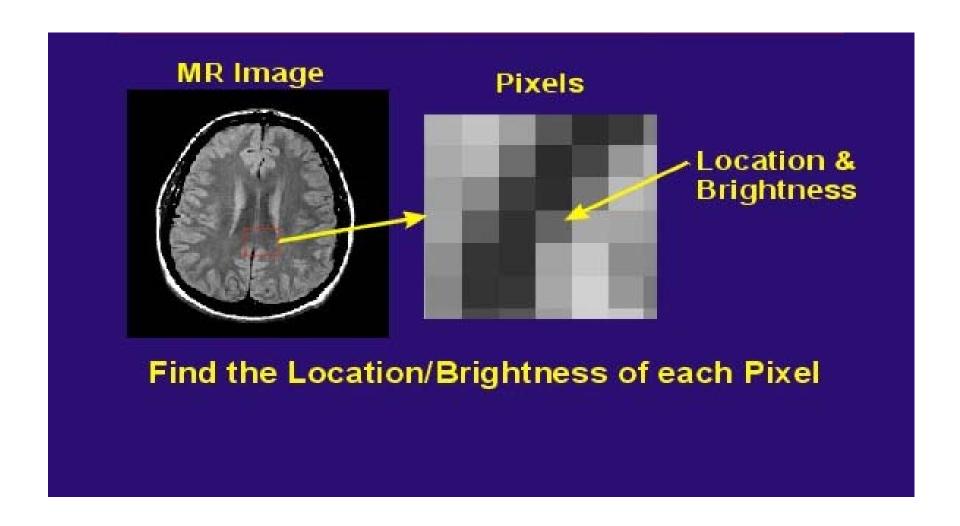
T2 Relaxation

- spin-spin interactions
- loss of spin phase (order)
- 25-250 ms time constant

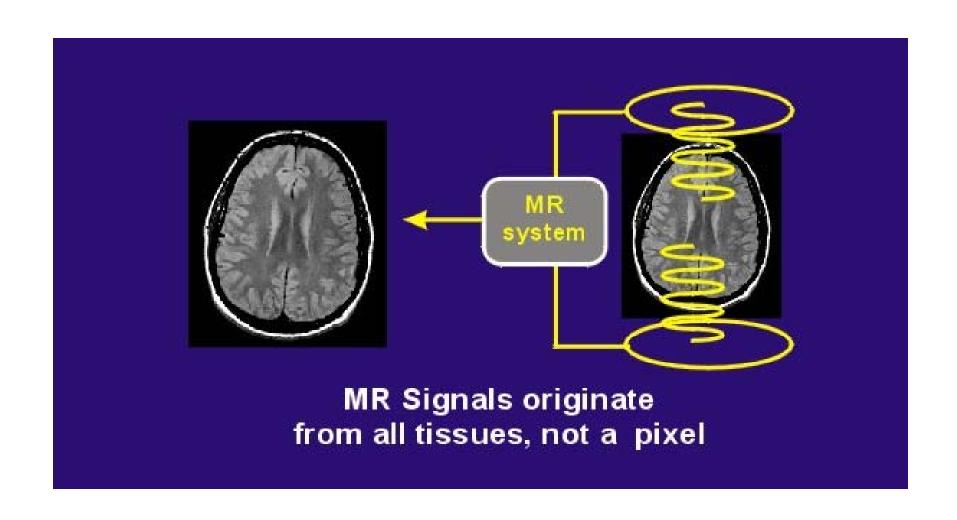
Overview of lecture on the physics of image formation (MR imaging)

- Image structure
- Fourier representation
- Magnetic field gradients
- Moving through K-space
- Collecting K-space data
- MRI sequence summary

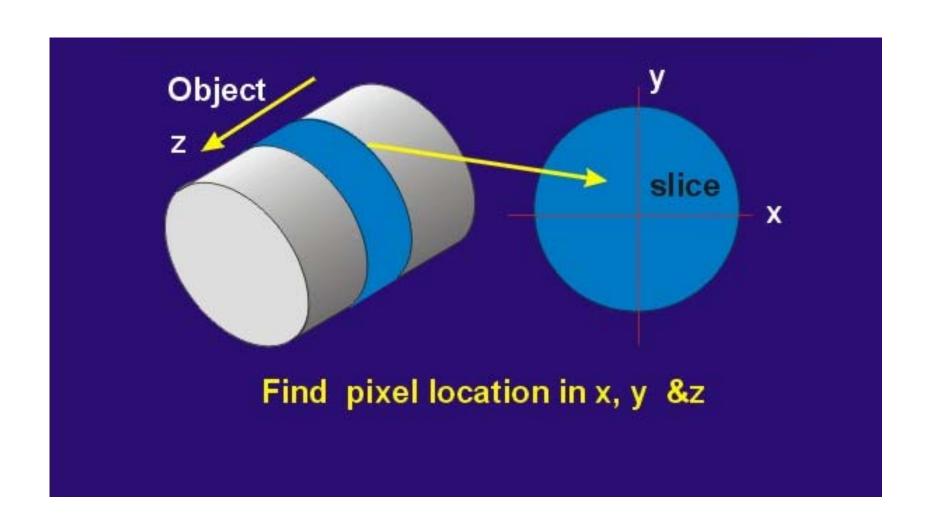
Structure of MR images



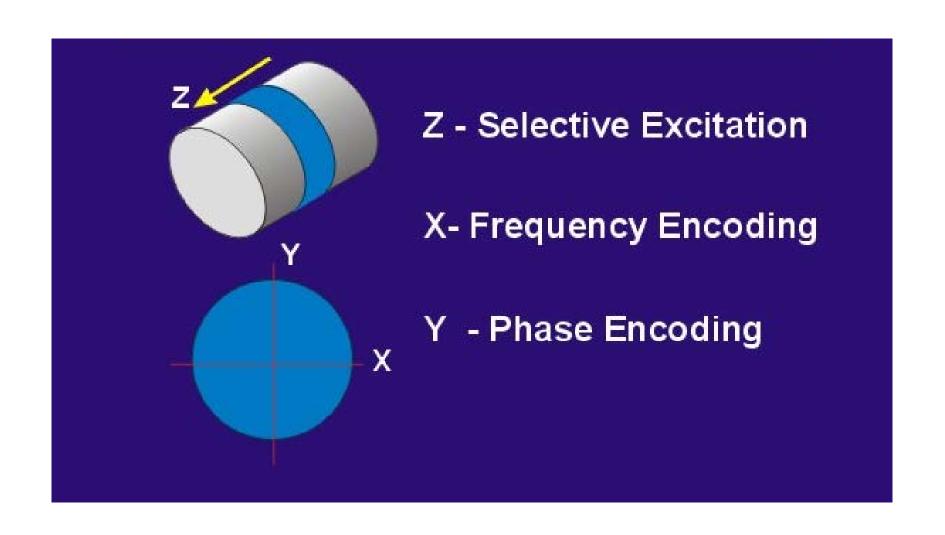
The question of localization (How do we localize the signal?)



The spatial location task



Techniques for spatial localization

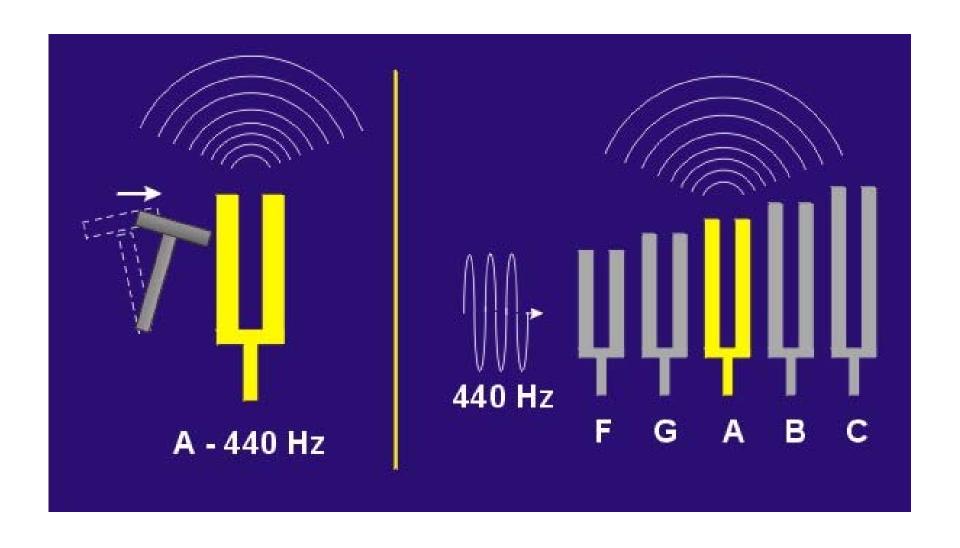


Selective excitation: The ingredients

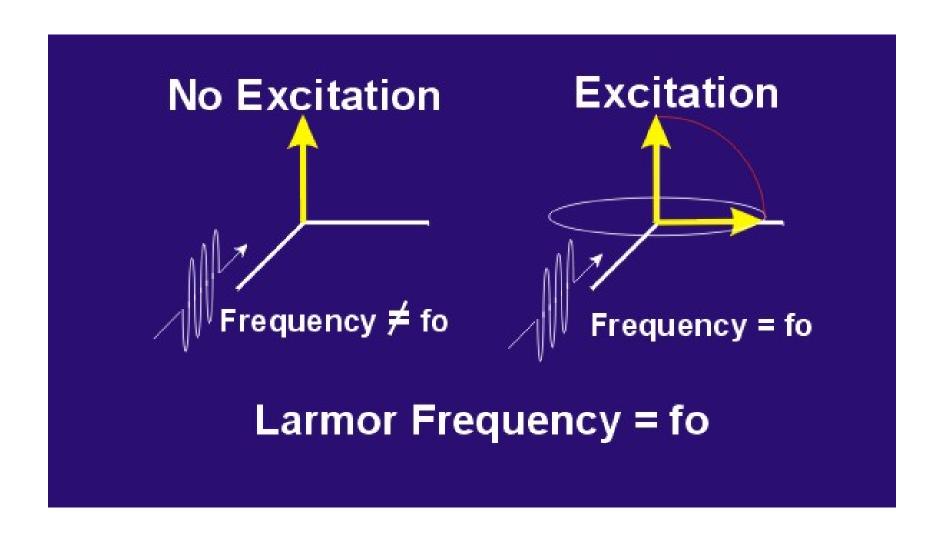
Combines effects of:

- NMR resonance
- Magnetic Field Gradient
- RF excitation frequency

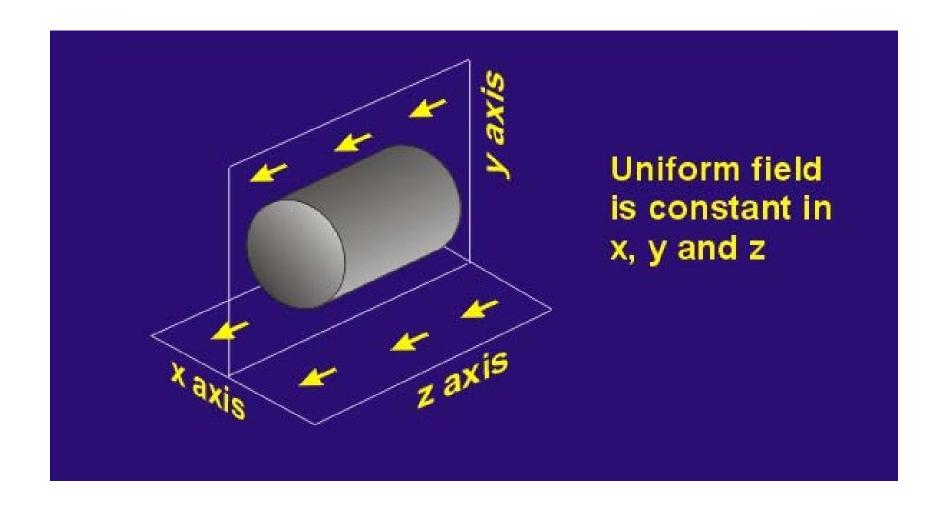
Selective excitations: An analogy - resonance



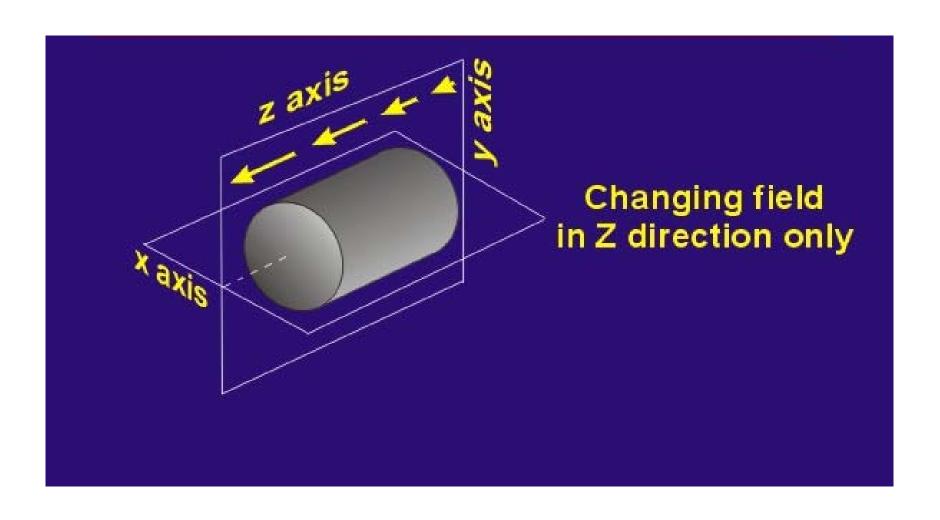
Selective excitations and NMR resonance



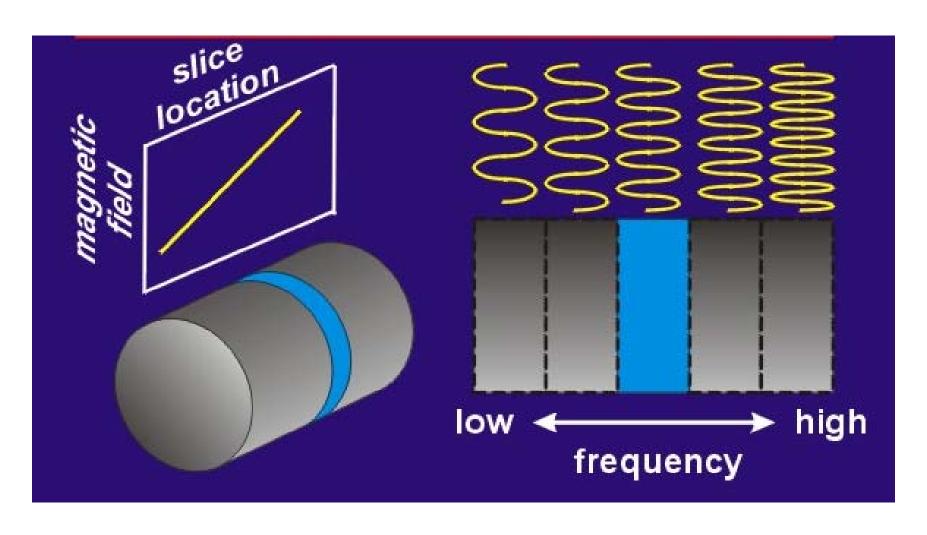
A uniform magnetic field (magnetic field gradients)



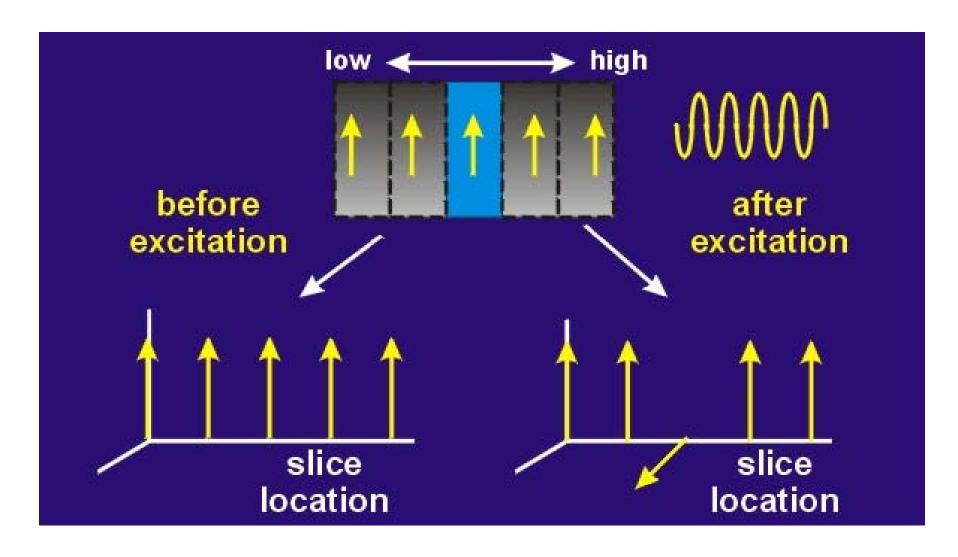
A magnetic field gradient (Gz - in Z direction)



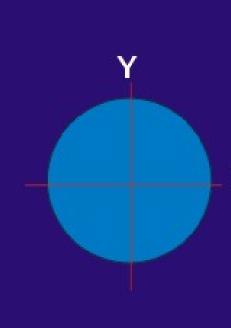
Selective excitation and a Gx gradient



The effect of RF pulses in selective excitation



In plane localization



X - Frequency Encoding

Measures NMR signal in the presence of a gradient in the X direction

Y - Phase Encoding

Induces a different gradient to induce a phase twist in the Y direction.

The relation between the MR system and image formation

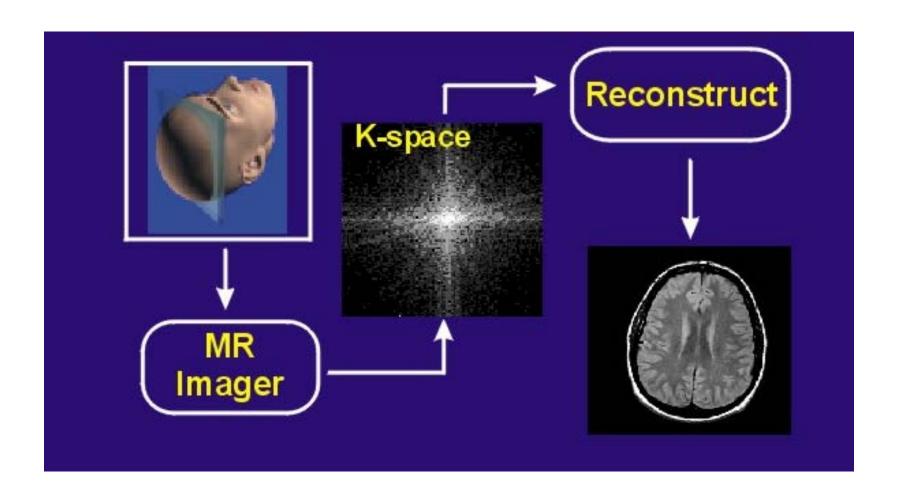
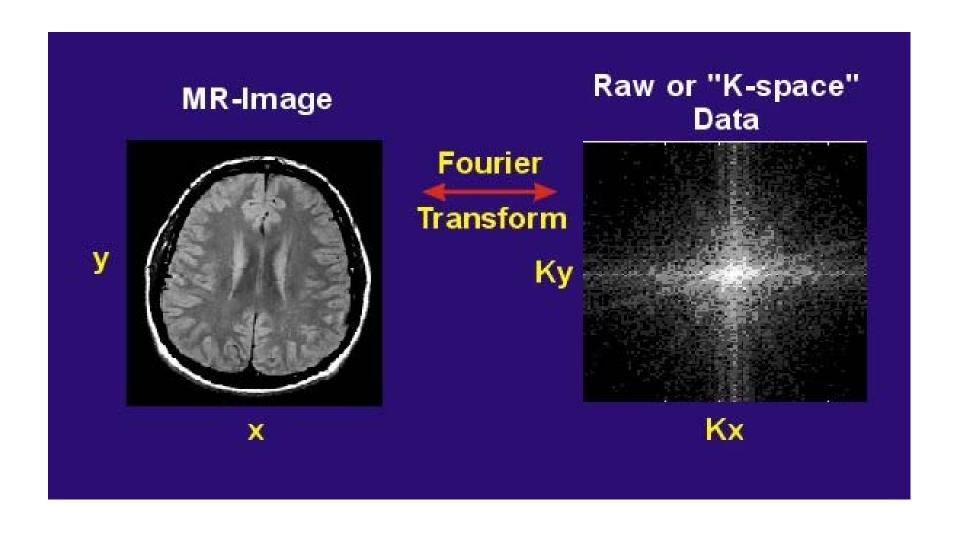
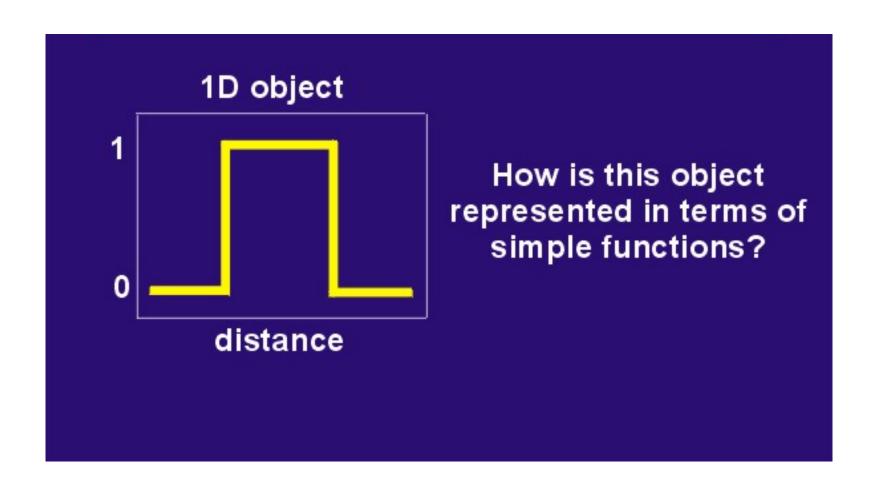


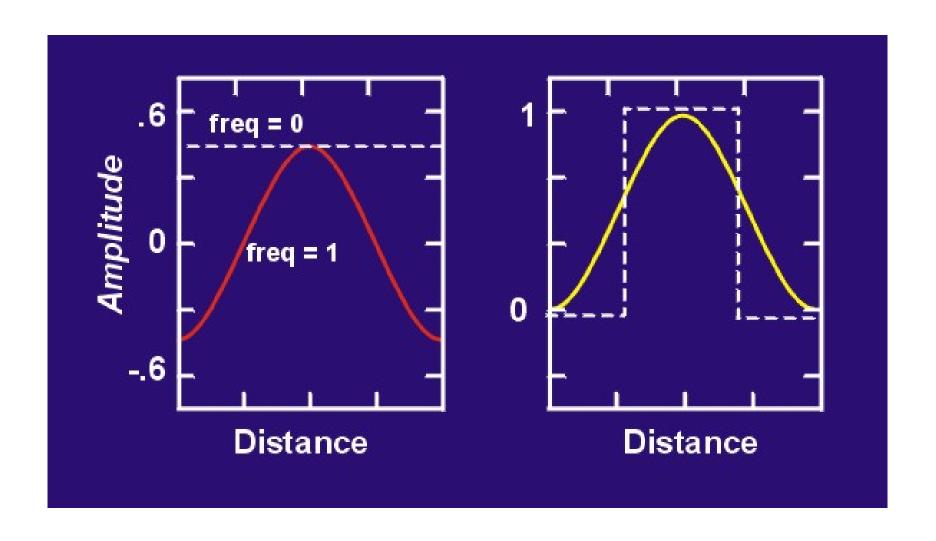
Image space vs. K-space



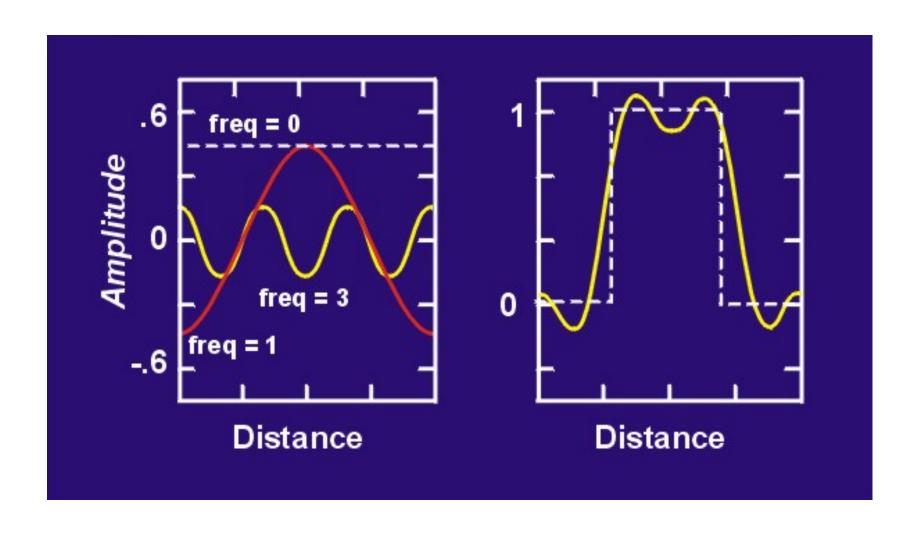
A one dimensional problem (Fourier transform)



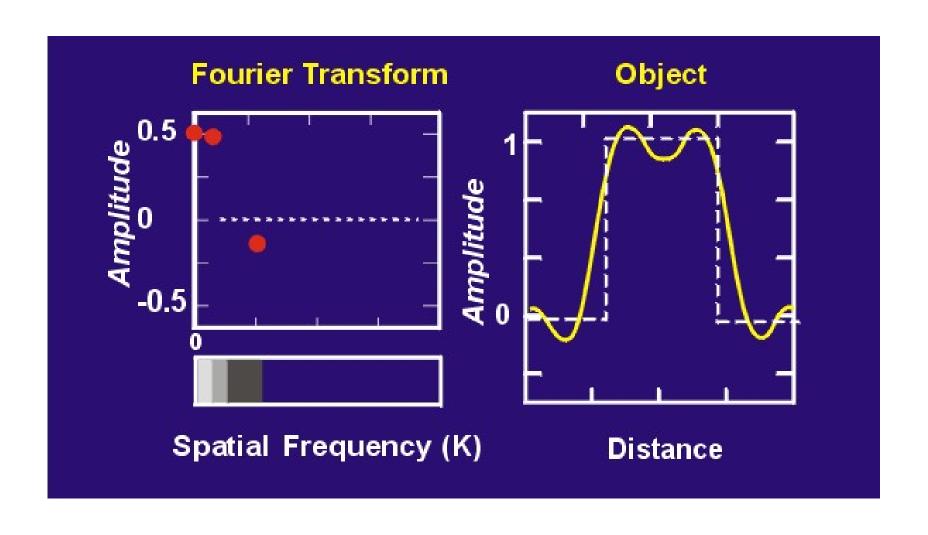
A crude Fourier approximation



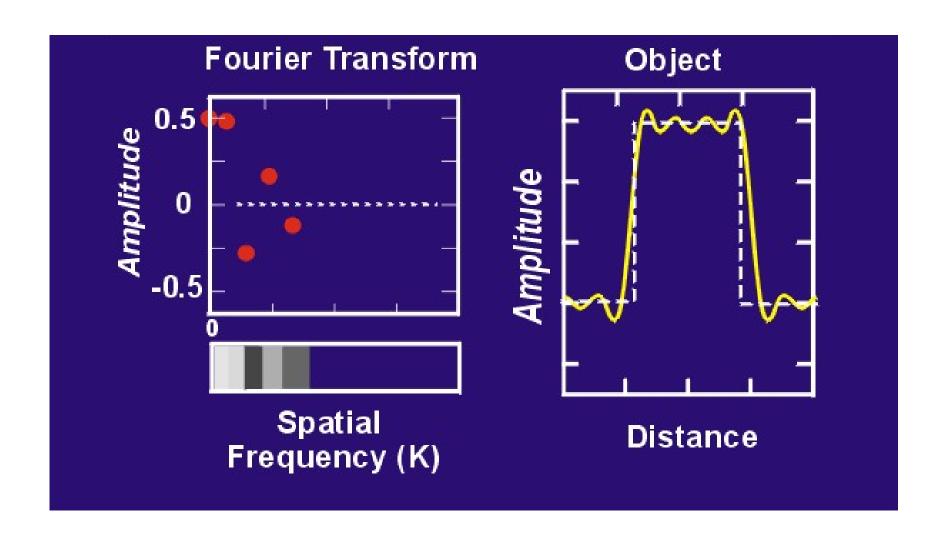
A better Fourier approximation



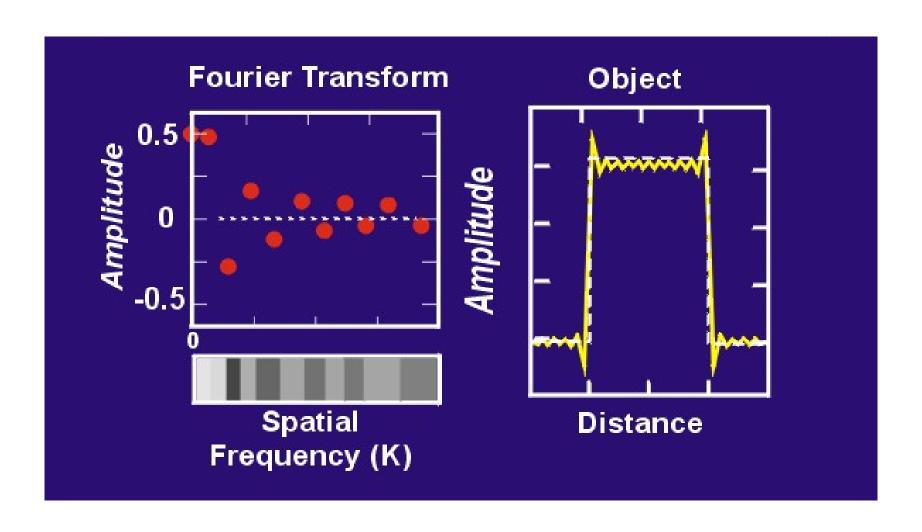
The definition of K-space



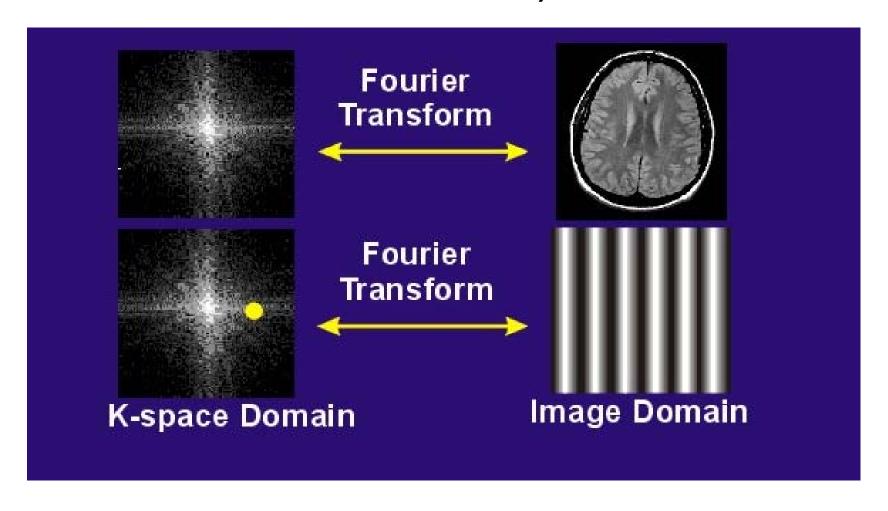
Successively better approximation



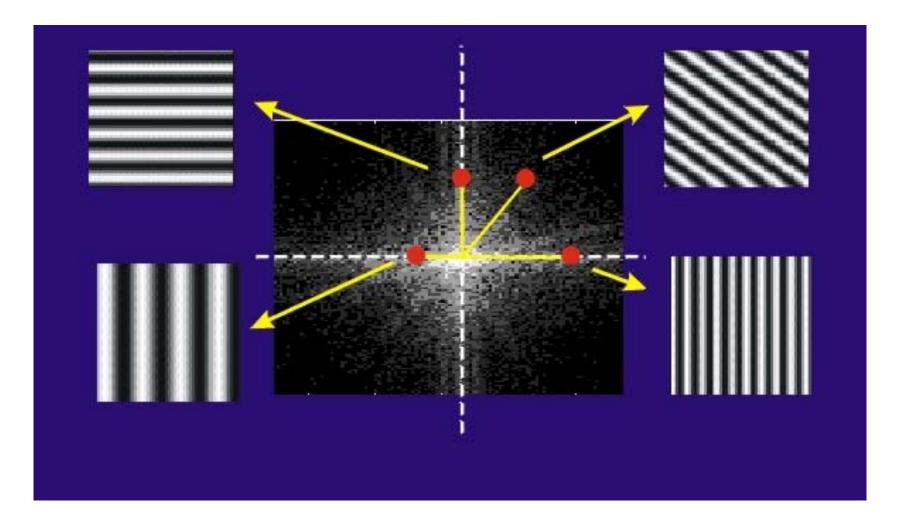
Successively better approximation



Two dimensional K-space and image space (space and image domains)



The meaning of various points on K-space (Fourier transform representation)

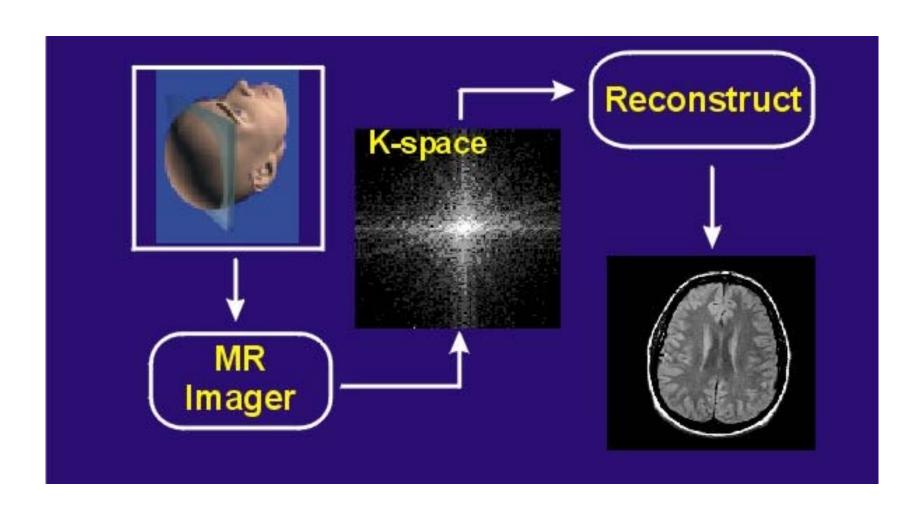


The question of How stripes are made in MRI? (MR image formation)

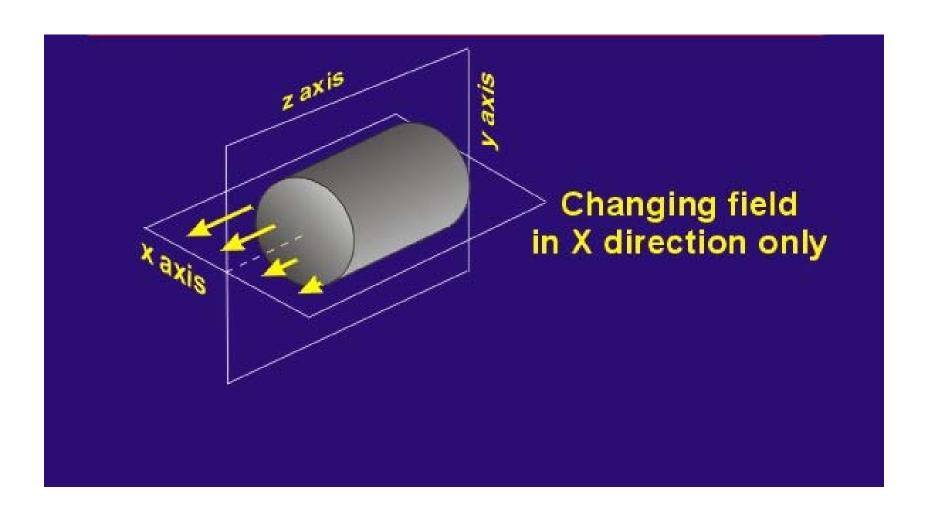
How does MR imaging make

- stripes?
- variable spatial frequency?
- variable orientation?

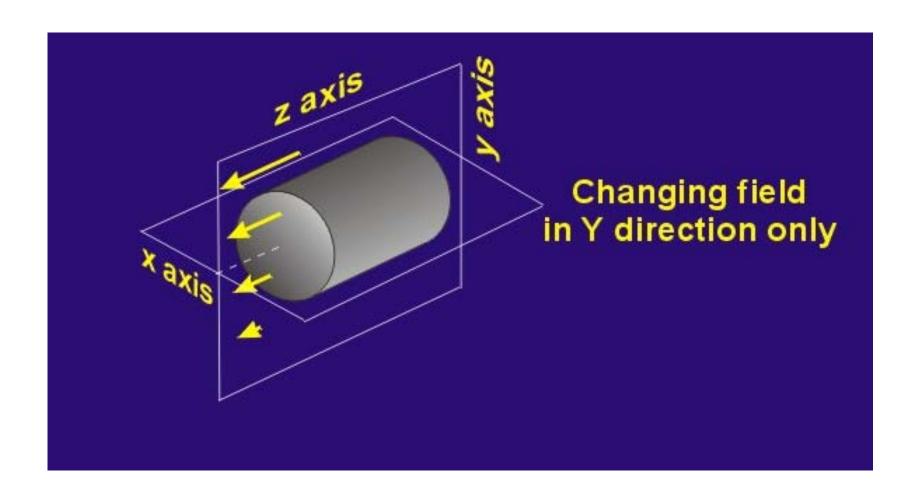
Return to the relation of the MR system and image formation



Gradient in X (gradient X direction)

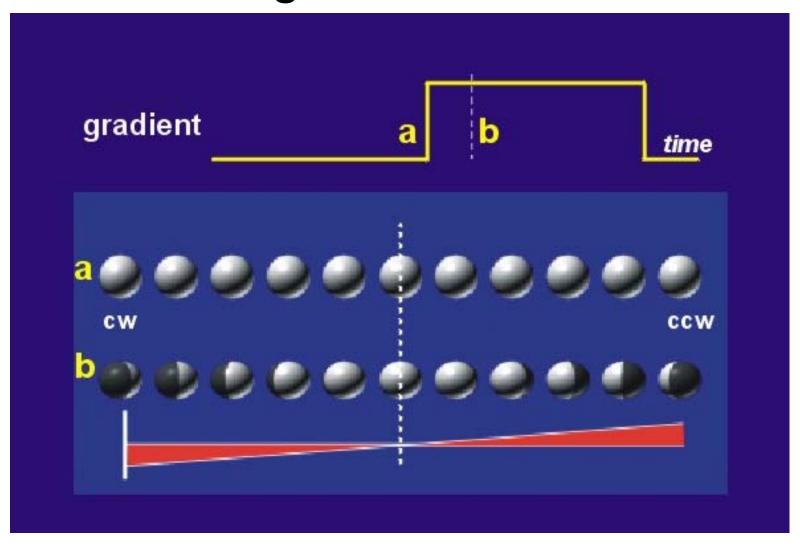


Gradient in Y (gradient Y direction)



An alternative representation for magnetization

The effect of a gradient on an array of magnetization balls



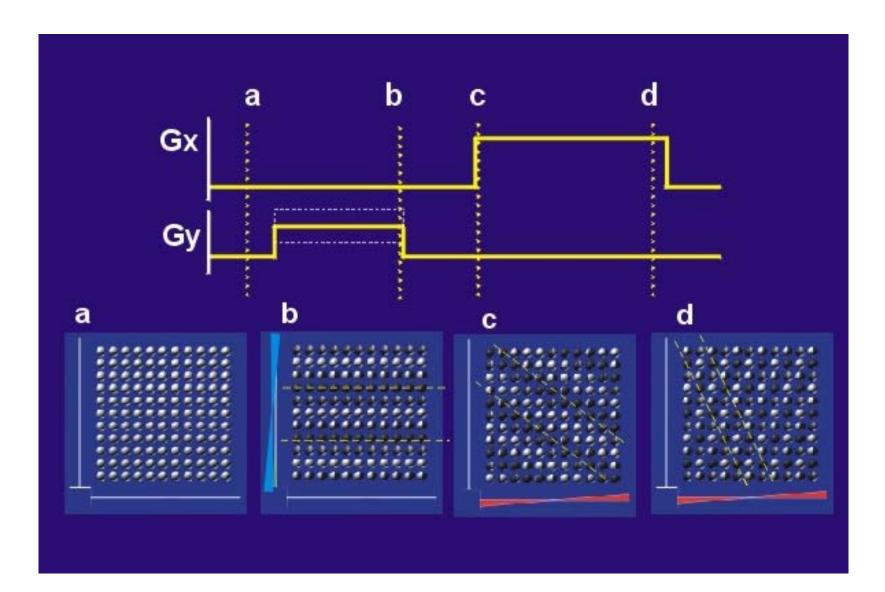
The effect of a gradient on an array of magnetization balls (animation)

Creating vertical stripes

Creating horizontal stripes

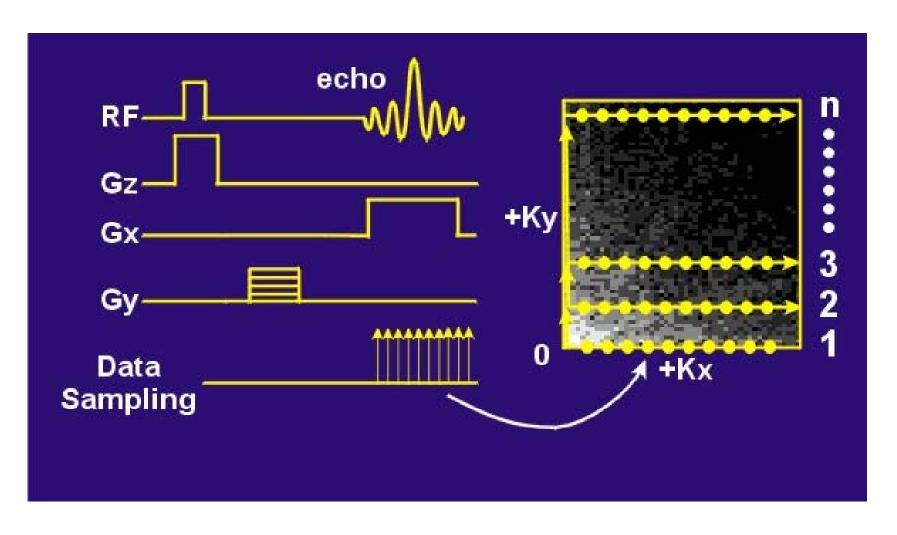
Creating blique stripes and K-space

Oblique stripes: A summary

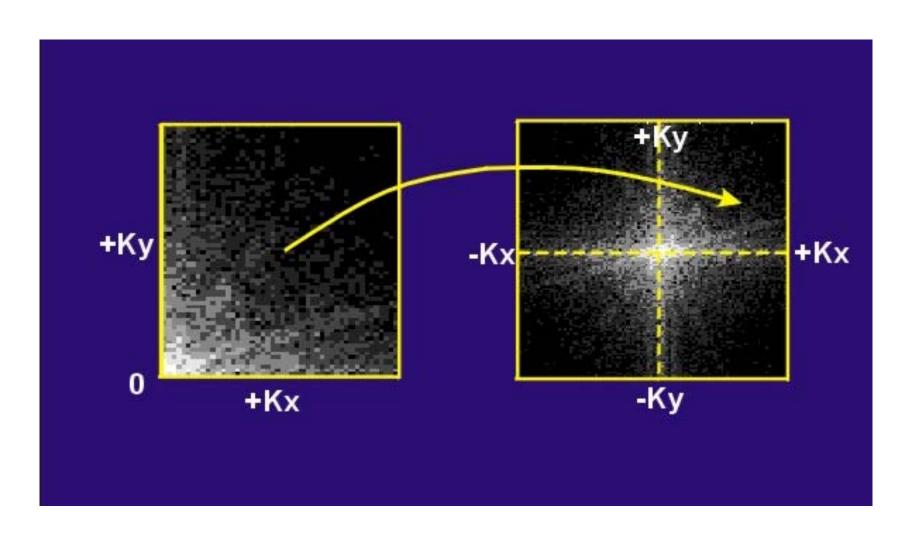


How does the MRI system measure the K-space signals?

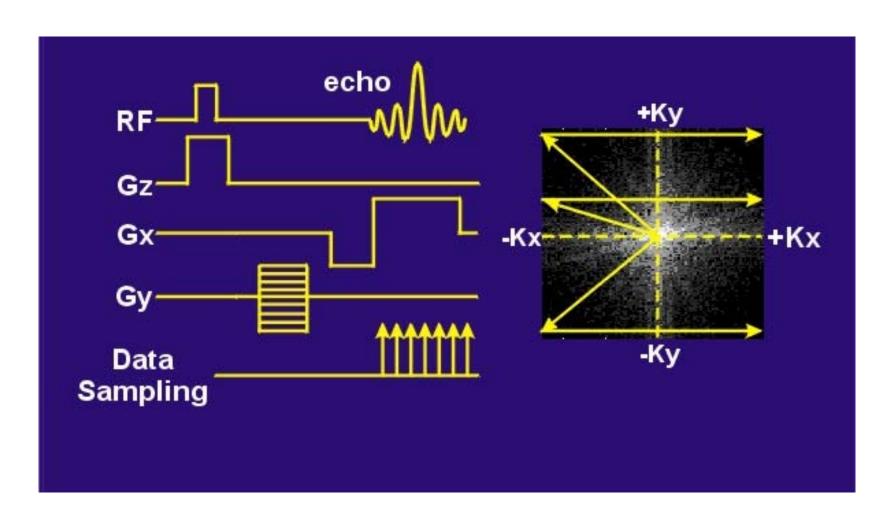
A simple (but incomplete) MRI pulse sequence



The four quadrants of K-space (symmetric 2D K-space)



A more complete MRI pulse sequence



Fourier reconstruction of K-space: part A

Fourier reconstruction of K-space: part B

<u>Video_20_2</u>

Conclusion I (MR image formation)

- Spatial location by application of three orthogonal gradients
- Selection excitation defines slice location and width
- In-plane locations done by: Frequency Encoding Phase Encoding

Conclusion II (MR image formation)

Frequency Encoding

- Measures location in one direction
- MR signal measured with gradient on
- MR signal vs time measures the K-space data

Conclusion III (MR image formation)

- Phase-encoding defines Y position
- Incremented phase-encoding gradient generates Ky data
- Combined phase/frequency encoding defines all K-space data
- Requires many RF/gradient pulses to fill all K-space