

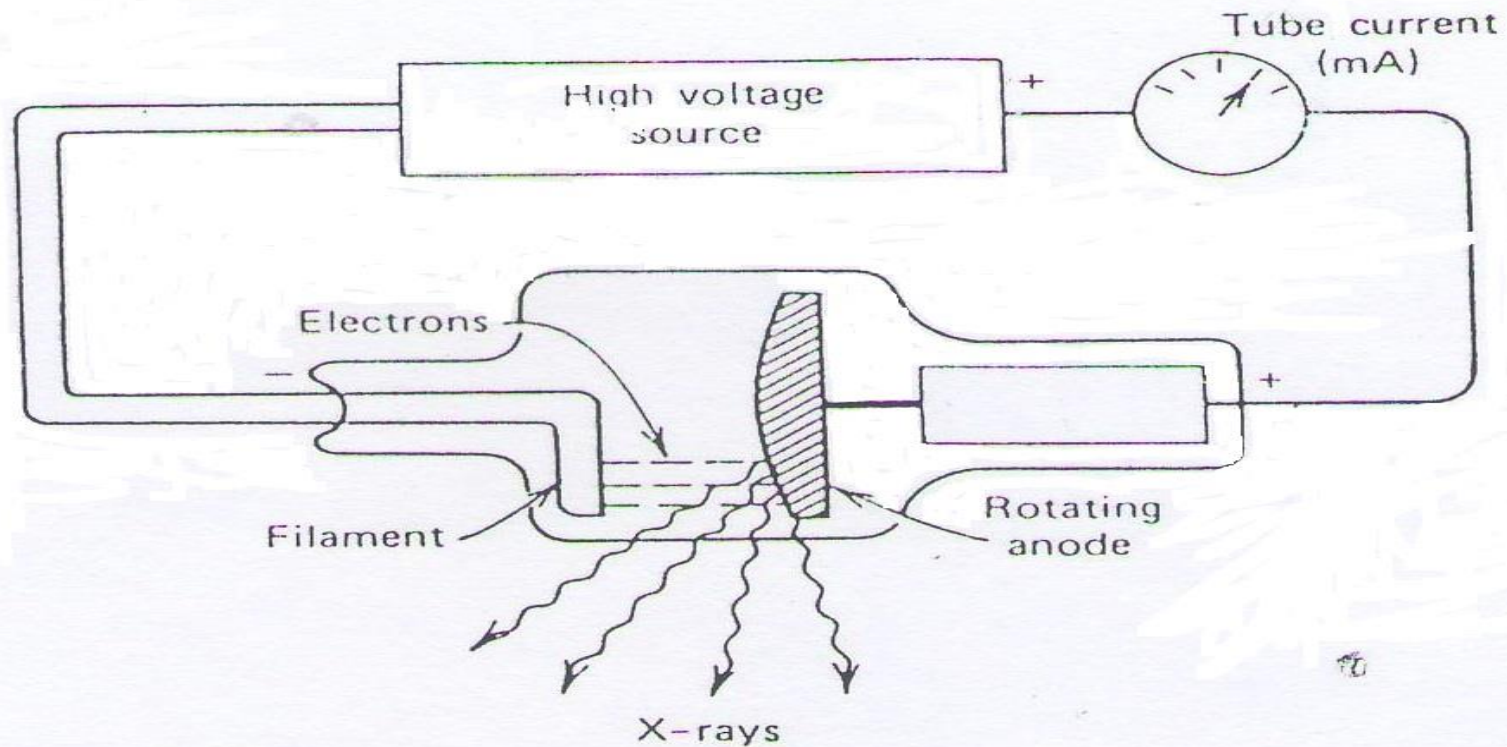
# **Physics of Diagnostic X-rays**

# 1. Production of x-ray beam

- A high-speed electron can convert some or all of its energy into an x-ray photon when it strikes an atom, to us we need to speed up electrons to produce x-rays trying to speed up on electron in air is difficult since there are too many electrons on the atoms- about  **$4 \times 10^{20}$**  in  **$1 \text{ cm}^3$** . Before an electron gets going it bumps into another one it is thus necessary to eliminate most of electrons, and this is done by using a glass bulb ( x-ray tube).

**The main components of a modern x-ray unit are.**

- 1- A source of electrons- a filament, or cathode.**
- 2- A n evacuated space in which to speed up the electron.**
- 3- A high positive potential to accelerate the negative electrons**
- 4- A target or a node, which the electrons strike to produce x-rays**



The number of electrons accelerated toward the anode depends on the temperature of the filament, and the maximum energy of the x-ray photons produced is determined by the accelerating voltage ( i.e. kilovolt peak **kVp** ).

e.g. : An x-ray tube operating at **80 kVp** will produce x-rays with a spectrum of energies up to a maximum of **80 keV** .

keV : is the energy an electron gains or losses in going across a potential difference of **1000 V** .

$$1 \text{ keV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-9} \text{ erg} = 1.6 \times 10^{-16} \text{ J} .$$

The **kVp** used for an x-ray study depends on the thickness of the patient and the type of study being done .

e.g. mammography are usually done at 25 to 50 kVp

## problems

**$e = \text{charge of electron} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$**

**$m = \text{mass of electron} = 9.10 \times 10^{-31} \text{ Kg}$**

**$h = \text{plank constant} = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}$**

**$eV = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \text{ .}$**

## Example

Compute the potential difference through which an electron must be accelerated in order that the short-wave limit of the continuous x –ray spectrum shall be exact **1Å**. The frequency corresponding to **1 Å(10<sup>-10</sup>m)** is given by.

$$F = \frac{c}{\lambda} = 3 \times 10^{18} \text{Hz}$$

$$= \frac{3 \times 10^8}{10^{-10}}$$

The energy of the photon is

$$hf = 6.62 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js} \times 3 \times 10^{18} \text{ s}^{-1} = 19.9 \times 10^{-16} \text{ J}$$

this must equal the kinetic energy of the electron,  $\frac{1}{2} mv^2$  which is also equal to the product of the electronic charge and accelerating voltage  $V$ .

$$\frac{1}{2} mv^2 = eV = 19.9 \times 10^{-16} \text{J}$$

$$e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{C}$$

$$V = \frac{19.9 \times 10^{-16}}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}} \text{J/C} = 12.400 \text{ volt}$$



# The efficiency of x-ray system depends on

- 1 - The atomic number of the anode material .
- The intensity of x-ray beam (I) depends on the anode material (i.e. the atomic number of the anode material  $Z$  :  $I \propto Z$  ) .
- 2 - The melting point of the anode material.
- The target (anode) material used should have a high melting point to overcome the heat produced because of the electron stream stoppage in the surface .

e.g. Tungsten which  $Z = 74$  and melting point  $3400^{\circ}\text{C}$  is common in use .

The electron current that strikes the target is typically  $100 - 500 \text{ mA}$  and the power  $P$  put into the surface of the target is quite large .

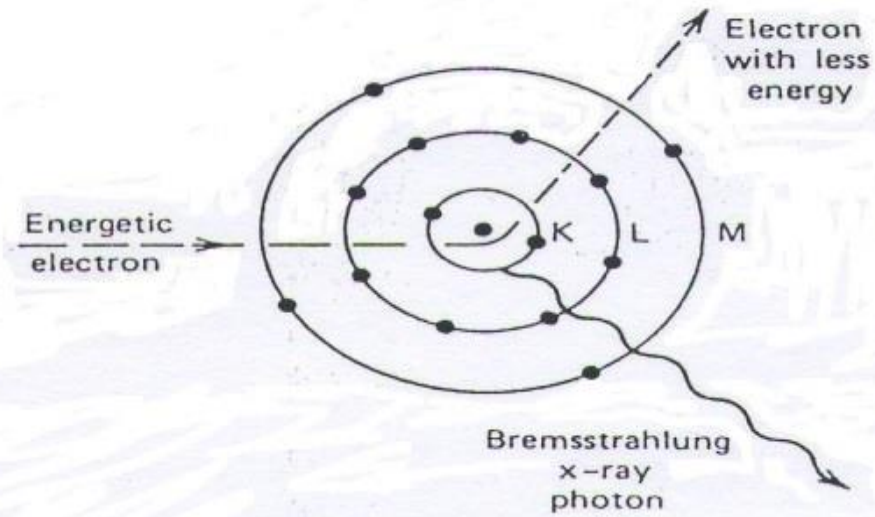
$P = IV$  where  $I$  is the current in amperes and  $V$  is the voltage in volts then  $P$  is in watts.

**Example:** for a system uses  $I = 1 \text{ A}$  and  $V = 100 \text{ kV}$

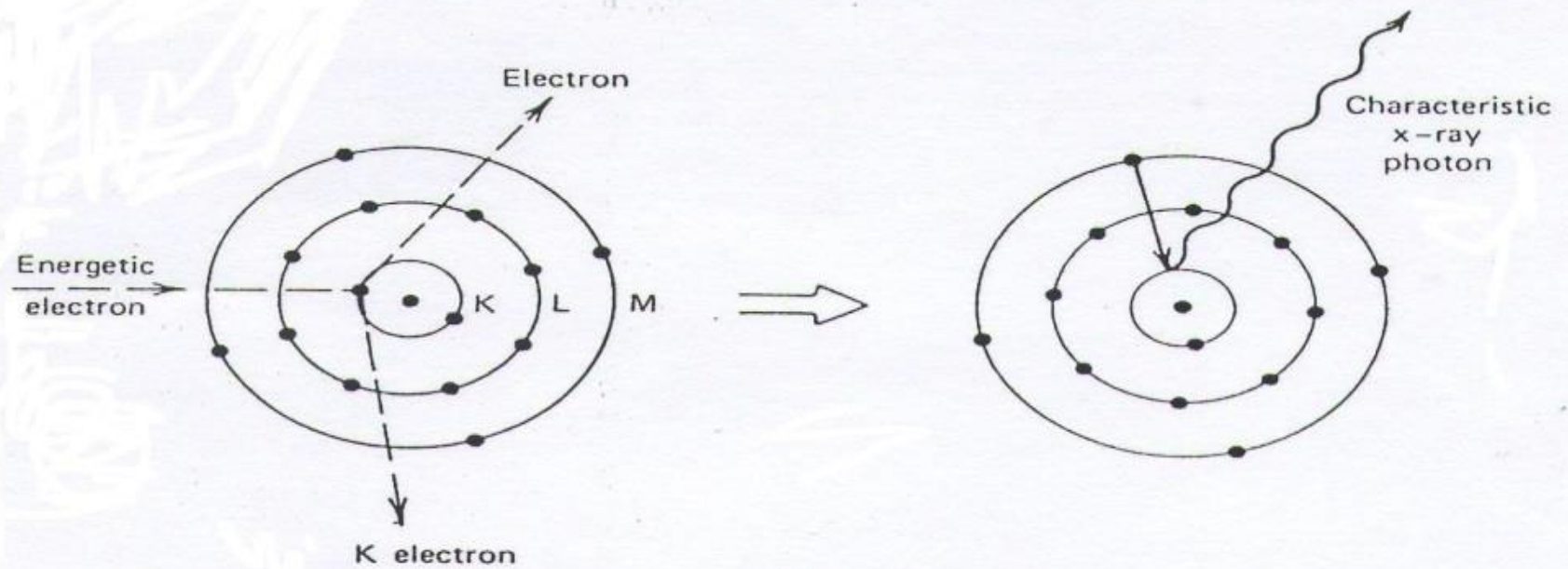
$$P = IV = 1 \times 10^5 \text{ W} = 100 \text{ kW} .$$

# X-ray spectrum

- X-ray spectrum consists of :
- 1 - *Braking radiation or Bremsstrahlung* which is produced due to the diversion of a fast electron near the nucleus of the target atom and loss some of its energy (fig.2a)



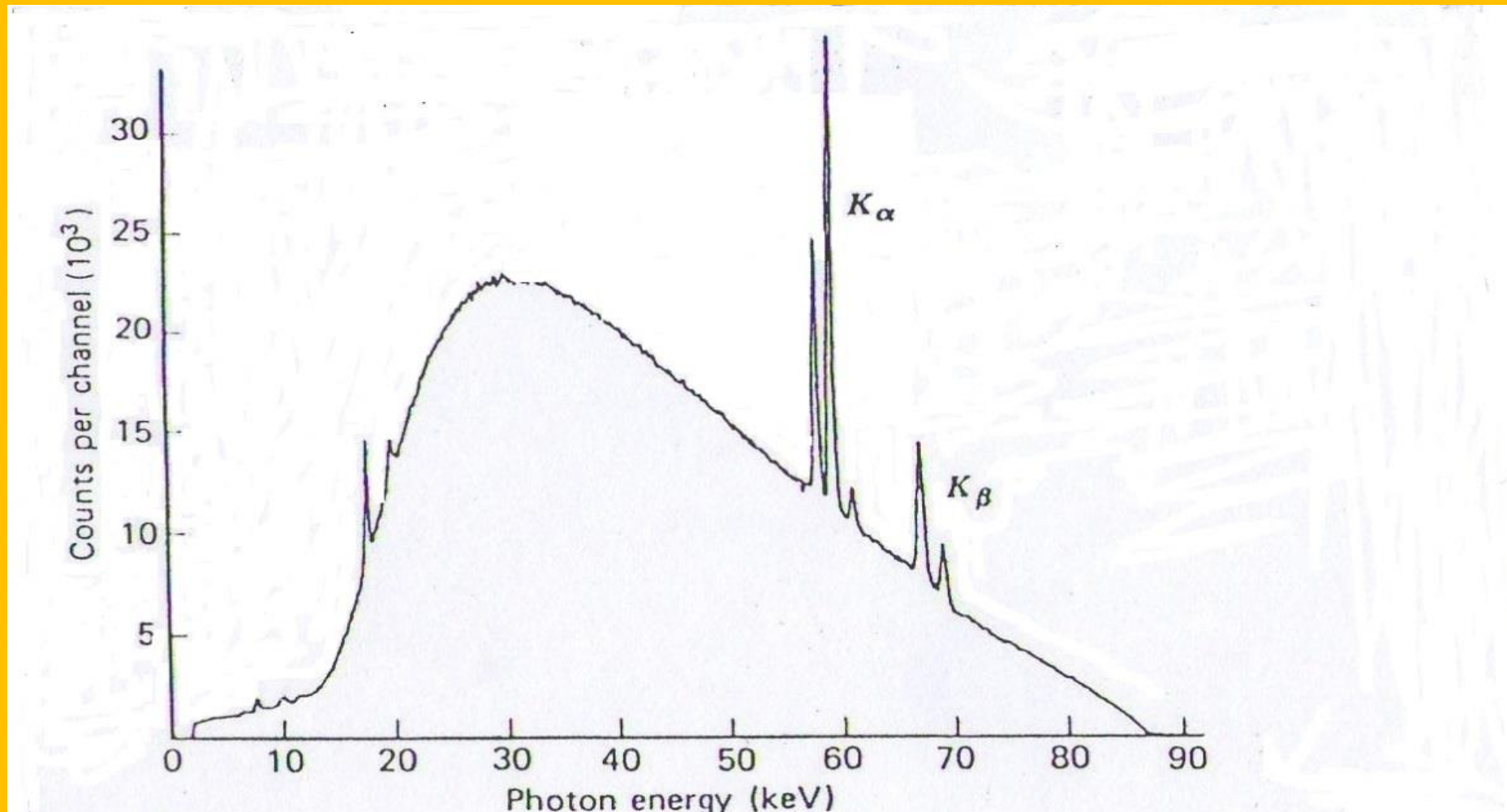
(a)



(b)

**2 - *Characteristic x-rays*:** which is produced due to the energy released when electron of an outer shell in the target atom falls immediately into the inner shell that has a vacancy because the accelerated electron strikes the target electron and knocks it out of its orbit and free of the atom . If the released electron is from K-shell and the vacancy is filled with electron from L-shell , the radiation produced is called  *$K_{\alpha}$  characteristic x-ray* , and when the vacancy is filled with electron from M-shell, the radiation produced is called  *$K_{\beta}$  characteristic x-ray* (fig. 2b) .

the spectrum of x-rays , the broad smooth curve  
is due to the bremsstrahlung and the spikes  
represent the characteristic x-rays



# **Absorption of x-rays :**

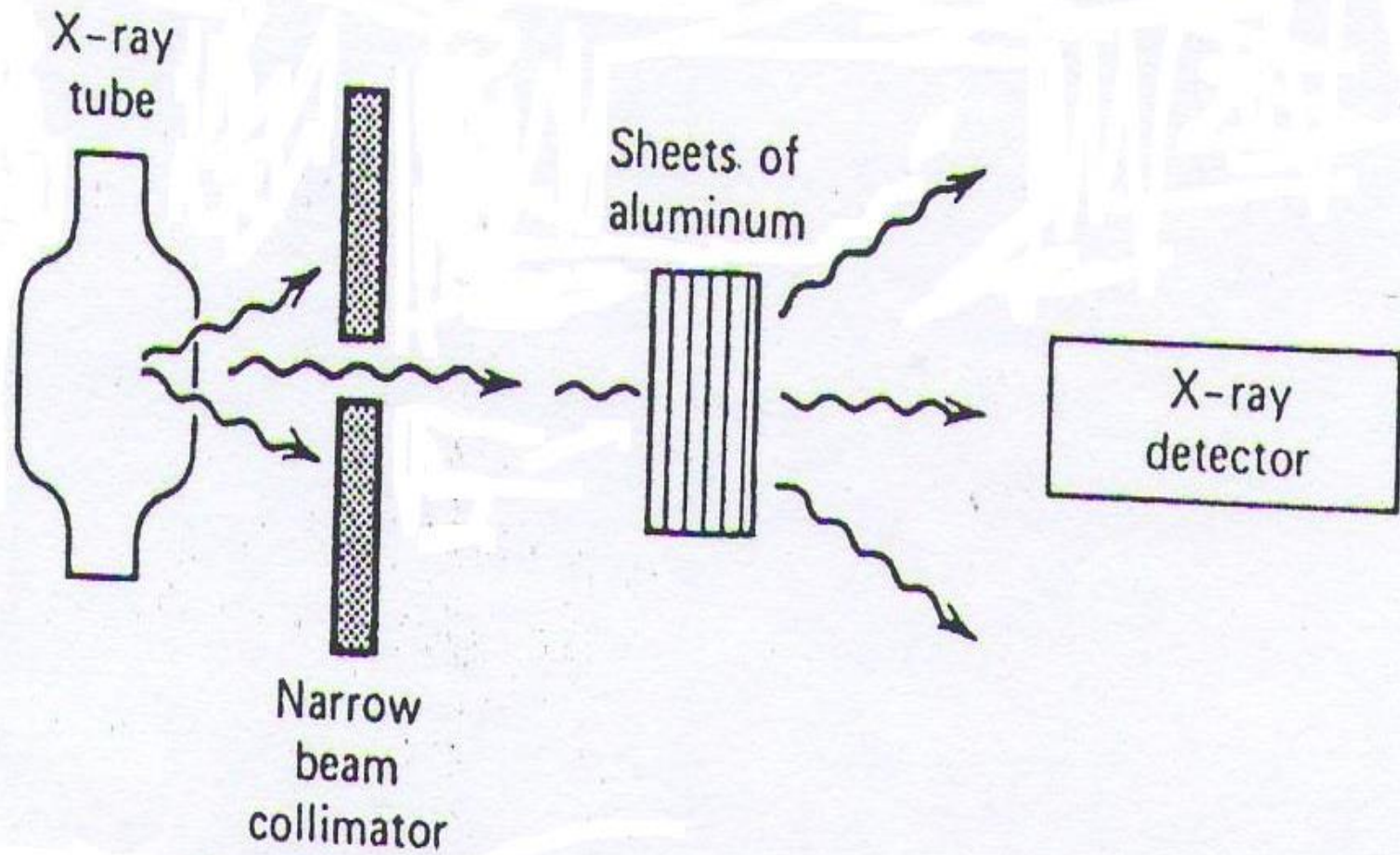
X-rays absorption depends on the composition of the matter penetrated.

Heavy elements such as Ca are much better absorbers of x-rays than light elements such as C, O<sub>2</sub> & H<sub>2</sub> so the bones are the best , while the soft tissues like fat , muscles and tumors all absorb x-rays equally , thus they are difficult to distinguish from each other on an x-ray image .

The attenuation of an x-ray beam is its reduction due to absorption and scattering of some of photons out of the beam. A simple method of measuring the attenuation of an x-ray beam is shown.



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



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

where :

$I_0$  is the intensity of un attenuated x-ray beam .

$e = 2.718$  .

$I$  is the intensity of the attenuated beam.

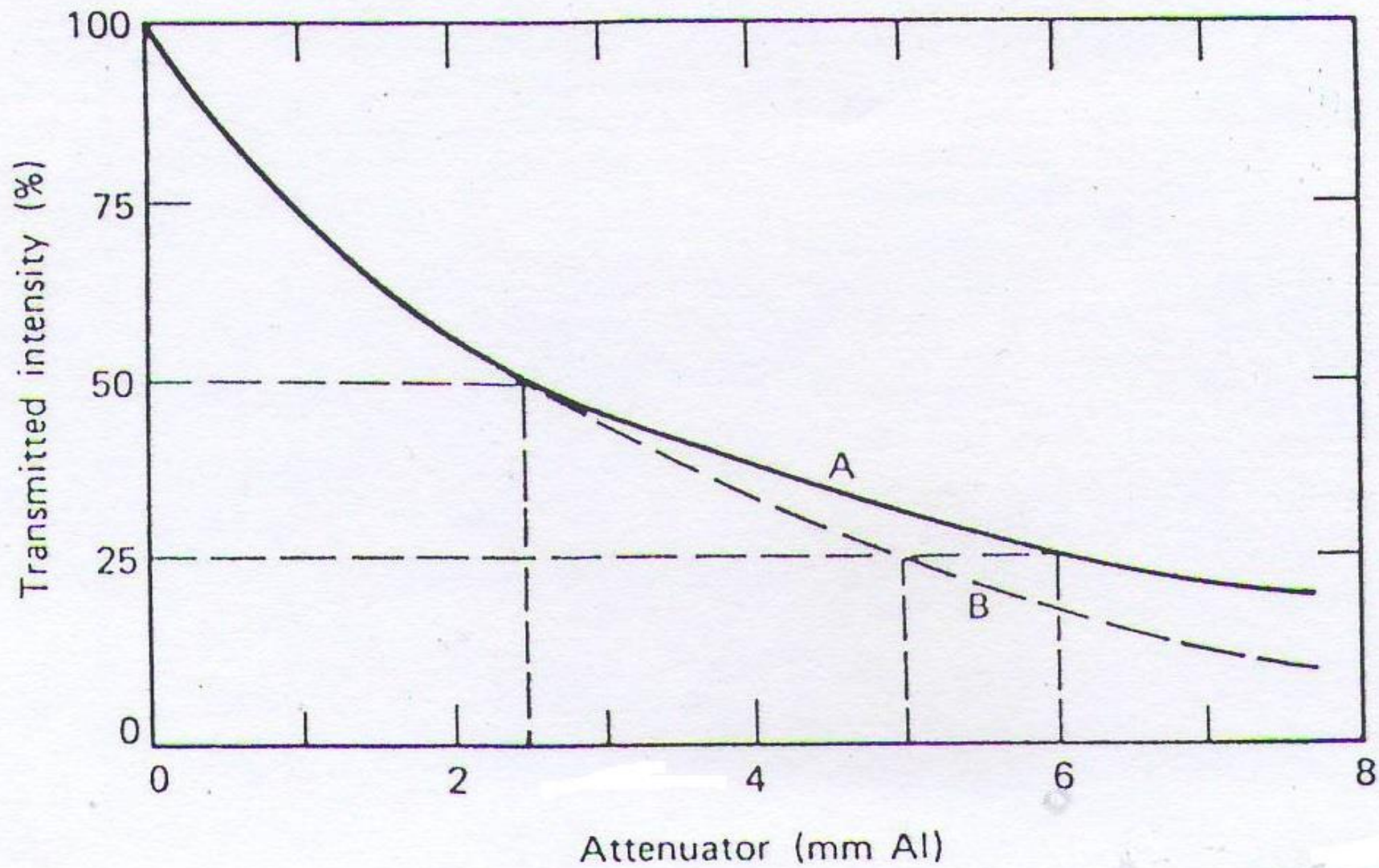
$x$  is the thickness of the attenuator, and  $\mu$  is the linear attenuation coefficient of the attenuator which is dependent on the energy of x-rays (as the beam become harder  $\mu$  decreases).

The equation above means that the attenuation is exponentially

## **The half value layer (HVL) :-**

The half value layer (HVL) for an x-ray beam is the thickness of a given material that will reduce the beam intensity by one –half. Fig. 4 shows HVL at certain transmitted intensity of x-rays for (Al) used as attenuator. For a monoenergetic x-ray beam, the second HVL equals the first HVL while, in general, x-rays consists of several energies in the spectrum so HVLs are not equal.

$$\mathbf{HVL = 0.693 / \mu}$$



# **The equivalent energy :**

The equivalent energy of an x-ray beam is the energy of a monoenergetic x-ray beam with the same HVL .

e.g. : A typical x-ray set operating at 80 kVp with a filter of 3 mm Al would have a HVL of about 3mm Al . Since a beam of monoenergetic 28 keV x-rays also has a HVL of 3 mm Al , the equivalent energy of x-ray beam would be 28 keV .

# The mass attenuation coefficient ( $\mu_m$ )

To remove the effect of density when comparing attenuation in several materials , mass attenuation coefficient ( $\mu_m$ ) can be used which is the linear attenuation coefficient ( $\mu$ ) divided by the density ( $\rho$ ) of the material , so that :

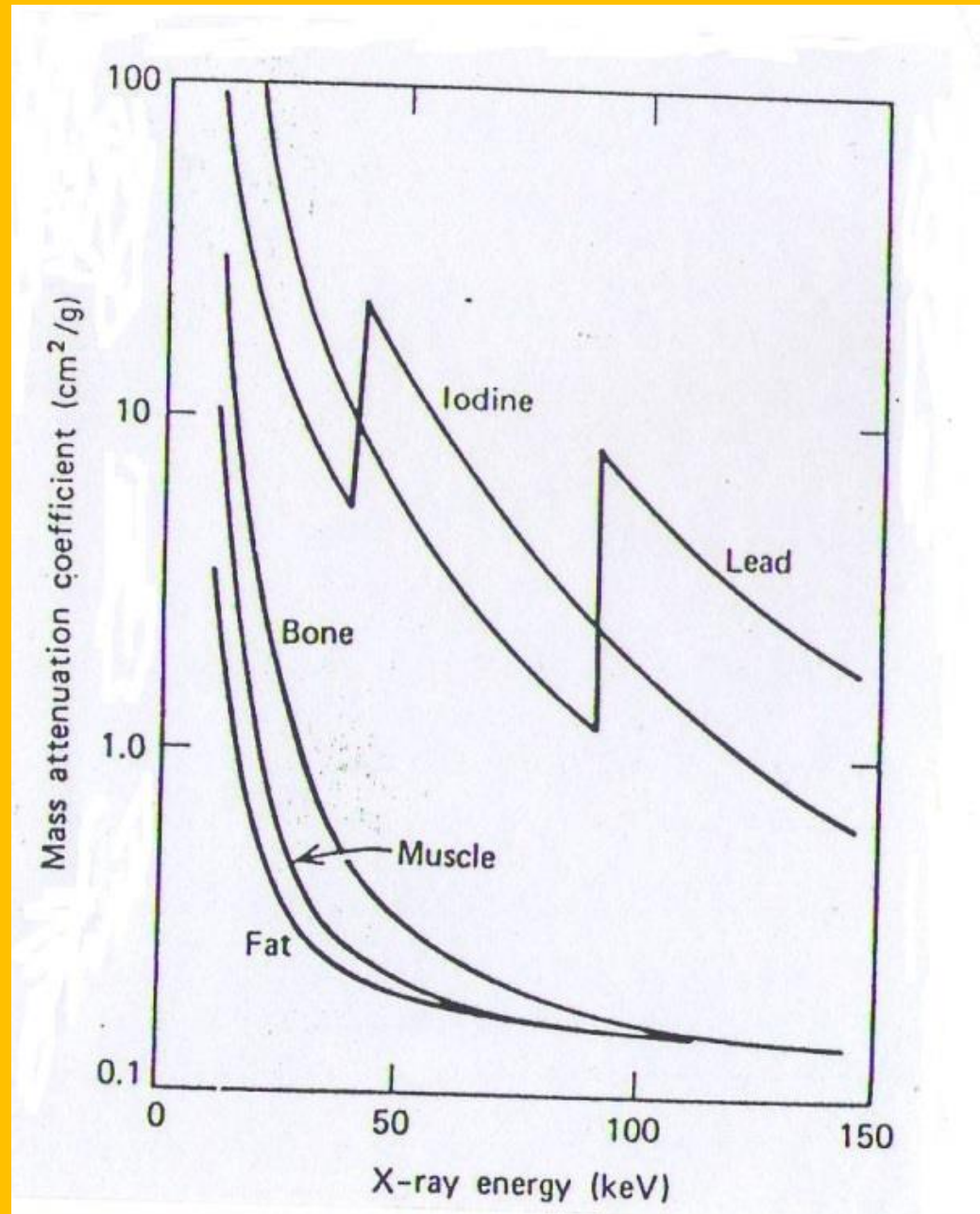
$$I = I_0 e^{-(\mu/\rho)(\rho x)} = e^{-(\mu_m)(\rho x)}$$

Where  $\rho x$  is in  $\text{g} / \text{cm}^2$  and called the area density .

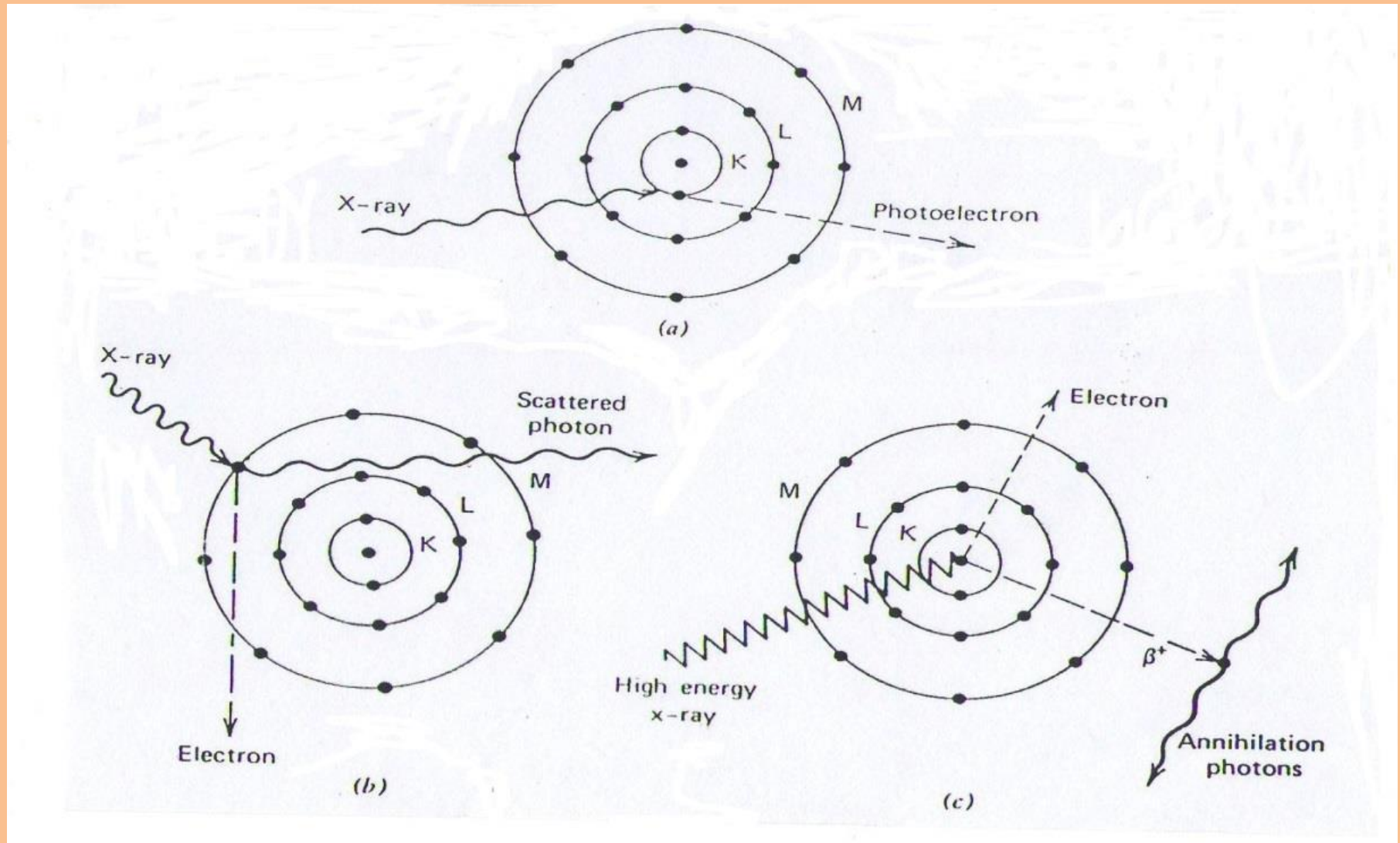
$$\text{Again } \text{HVL} = 0.693 / \mu_m$$



Fig shows the mass attenuation coefficients of fat, muscle, bone, iodine, and lead as function of x-ray energy. Iodine is better absorber than lead from about 30 to about 20 keV. This phenomenon is due to the photoelectric effect. The mass attenuation coefficients of bone are greater than muscle and fat but on a mass basis all tissues attenuate about the same above 100 keV.



# Interaction of x-rays with the matter :





X-rays lose energy in three ways :

**1- Photoelectric effect** : It occurs when an x-ray photon transfers all of its energy to an electron in an inner shell which then escapes from the atom (fig. 7a).

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The photoelectron uses some of its energy (the binding energy) to get away from the positive nucleus and spends the remainder ripping electrons of (ionizing) surrounding atoms. The photoelectric effect is more apt to occur in the intense electric field near the nucleus than the outer levels of the atom, and in the elements with high **Z** more than with low **Z**

***K-edges*** : are sharp rises in the curve of x-rays energy versus mass attenuation coefficient  $\mu_m$  (fig. 7), when the energy of the x-rays is just slightly greater than the binding energy so the probability of photoelectric effect increases greatly

## 2 – Compton effect :

It occurs when an x-ray photon collides with a loosely bound outer electron which receives part of the energy and the remainder is given to a Compton (scattered photon), then this photon travels in a direction different from the original x-ray (fig.7b). Compton Effect depends on the number of electron per cubic centimeter which is proportional to the density

The energy transferred to the electron can be calculated in the same way as the energy transferred during a billiard ball like collision by using the laws of conservation of energy and momentum

**The effective mass of x-ray ( $m$ )=  $E/c^2$  (Einstein's equation  $E=mc^2$  )**

**The momentum =  $E/c$**

**The energy equivalent of electron mass is 511 keV  
so Compton Effect needs to occur an  
X-rays with this energy.**

**Compton Effect is common in low  $Z$  elements. e.g.  
in water or soft tissue at energies**

**Above 30 keV and in bone at energies above 100  
keV.**

**3 – Pair production** : It occurs when a very energetic photon enters the intense electric field of the nucleus , it may be converted into two particles :an *electron* and a *positron* ( $\beta^+$ ) . X-ray photon energy must be at least 1.02 MeV which is equivalent to the mass of the two produced particles . If the energy is more than 1.02 MeV the remainder is given to the particles as kinetic energy.

After the positron spent its kinetic energy in ionization it does a death dance with an electron (annihilation), then both vanish and their mass energy appears as two photons of 511 keV called annihilation radiation.



Pair production is common in light  $Z$  materials with an x-ray energy more than  $1.02 \text{ MeV}$

Pair production is no use in diagnostic radiology because of the high energies needed and that photoelectric effect is more useful than the Compton effect because it permits use to see bones and other heavy materials such as bullets in the body. At  $30 \text{ keV}$  bone absorbs x-rays about 8 times better than tissue due to photoelectric effect.

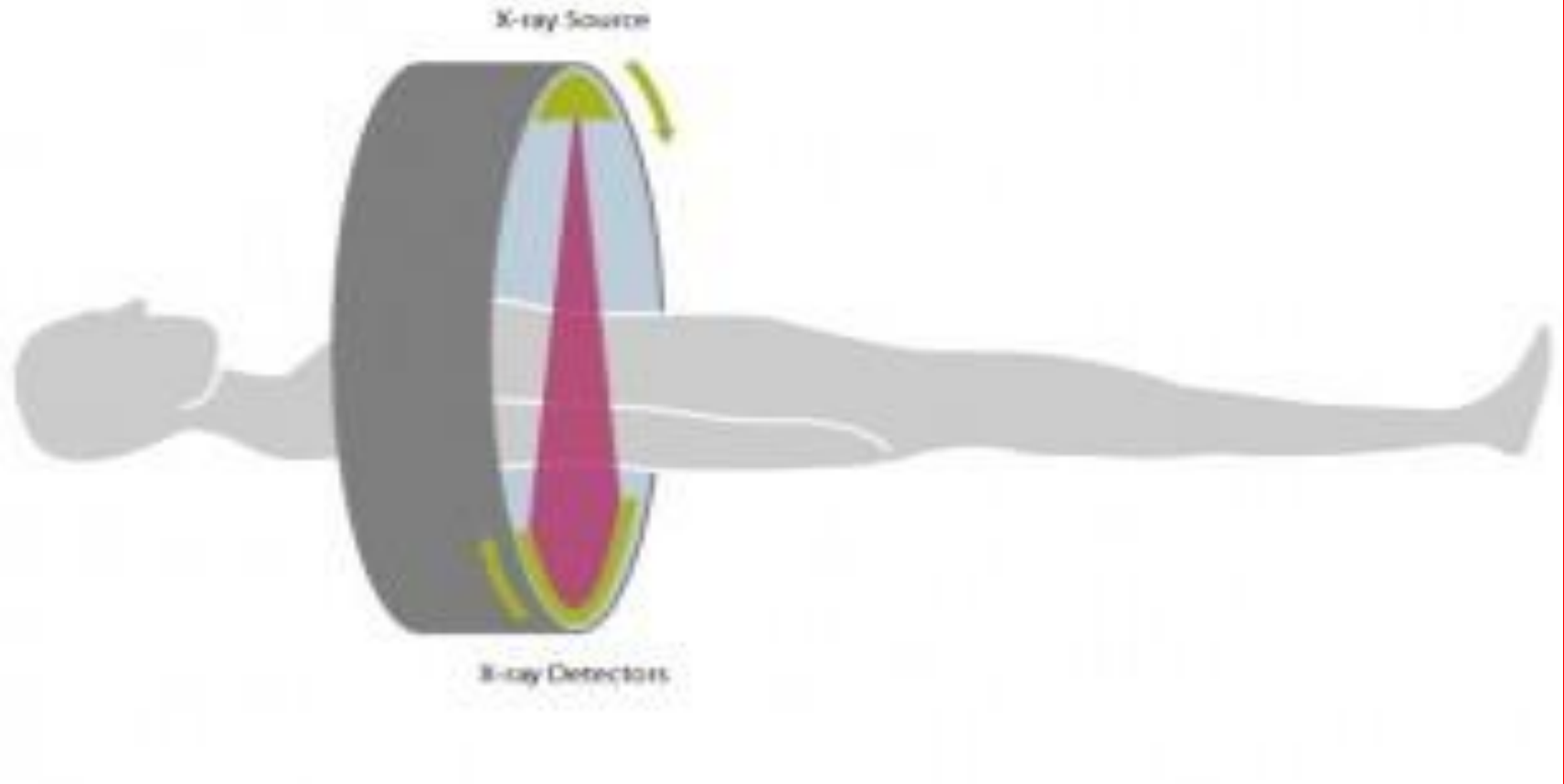
**Compounds containing iodine are often injected into the blood stream to show arteries, and only mist containing iodine is some time sprayed into lungs to make airways visible.**

**Radiologists give barium compounds oral to see parts upper gastrointestinal tract (upper GI) and barium enemas to view the other end of digestive system (lower GI), since gases are poorer absorbers of x-rays than liquids and solids.**

# Computed tomography (CT)

Computed tomography (CT) scanners have been available since the mid-1970s and have revolutionized medical imaging.

The most prominent part of a CT scanner is the gantry – a circular, rotating frame with an X-ray tube mounted on one side and a detector on the opposite side. A fan-shaped beam of X-rays is created as the rotating frame spins the X-ray tube and detector around the patient. As the scanner rotates, several thousand images are taken in one rotation resulting in one complete cross-sectional image of the body



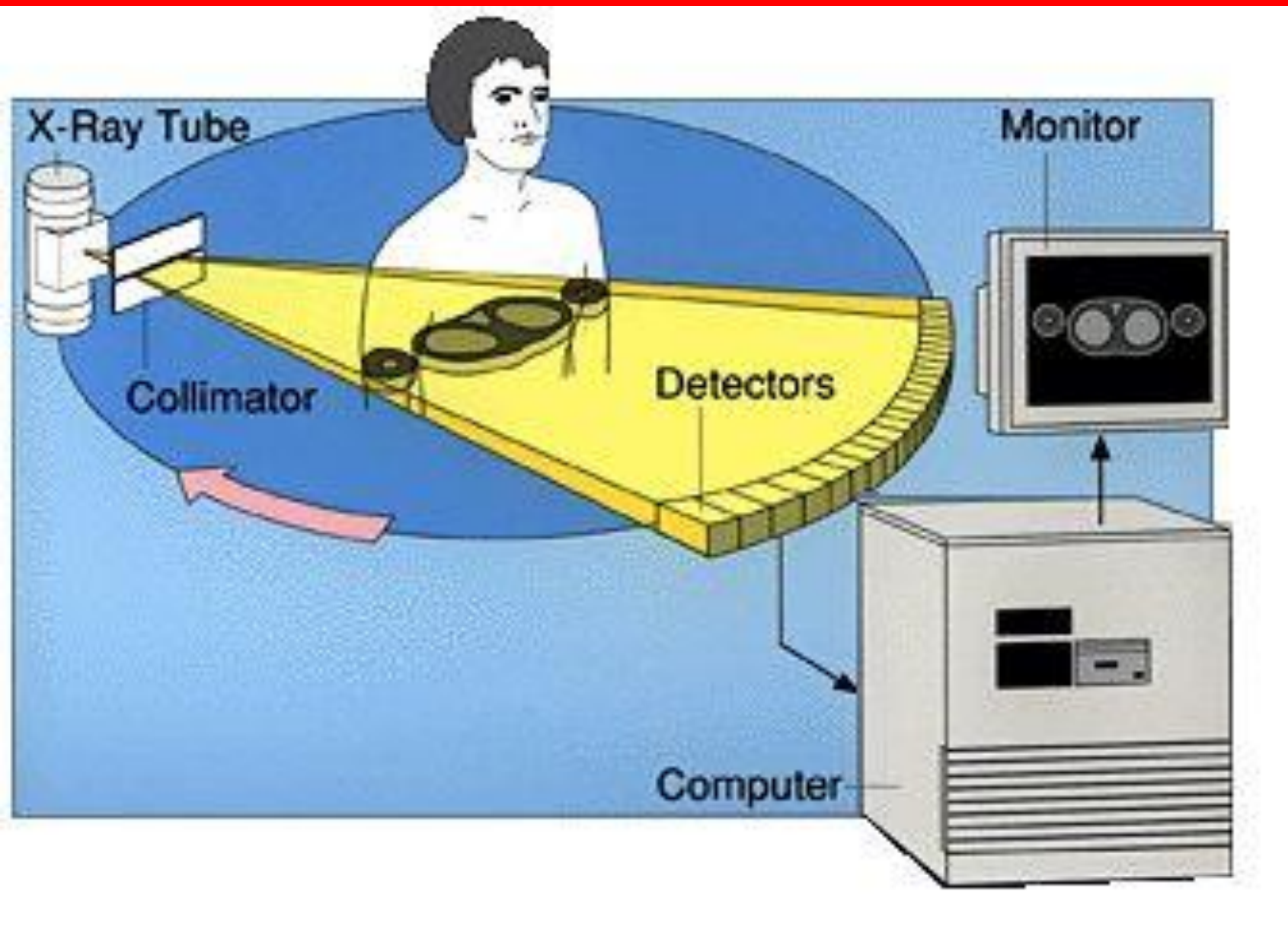
**Fig: The principle of computed tomography with an X-ray source and detector unit rotating synchronously around the patient. Data are acquired continuously during rotation.**

CT scans provide far more detailed images than with conventional X-rays, especially in the case of blood vessels and soft tissue such as internal organs and muscles.

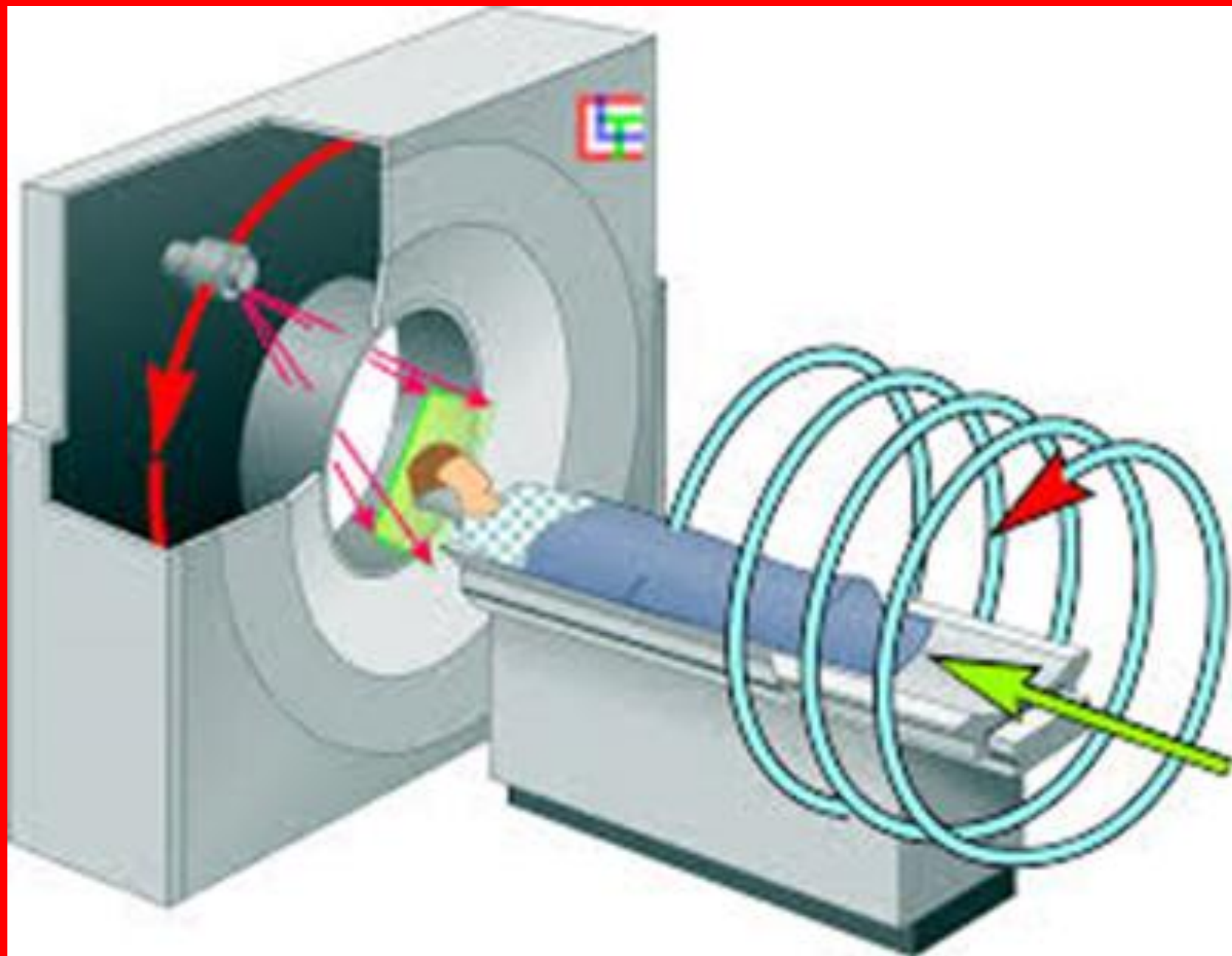


Fig. 2: Modern CT scans provide very detailed images by using relatively low radiation doses, e.g. blood vessels, and internal organ.

As the x-ray tube and detector make this 360° rotation, the detector takes numerous snapshots (called profiles) of the attenuated x-ray beam. Typically, in one 360° lap, about 1,000 profiles are sampled. Each profile is subdivided spatially (divided into partitions) by the detectors and fed into about 700 individual channels. Each profile is then backwards reconstructed (or "back projected") by a dedicated computer into a two-dimensional image of the "slice" that was scanned.







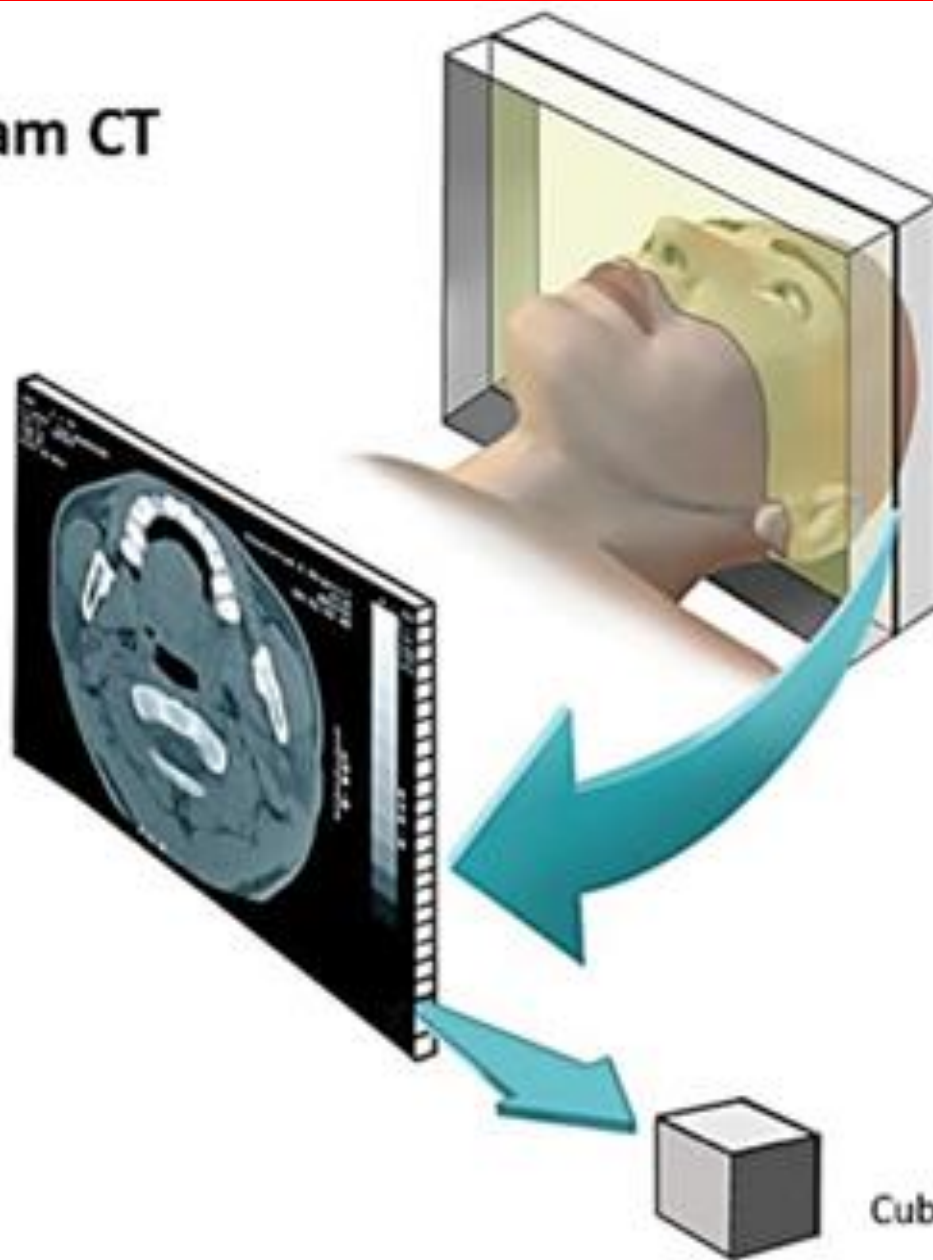
## Cone Beam CT

Section

Volume of  
Tissue of  
Jaw

Figure 3.

Cuberille



## H.W

**1:** The penetrating power of X-rays increases with the

- (a) Increase in its velocity
- (b) Increase in its frequency.
- (c) Increase in its intensity
- (d) Decrease in its velocity

**2:** X-rays and gamma rays are both electromagnetic waves.

Which of the following statements is true

- (a) In general X-rays have larger wavelength than of gamma rays.
- (b) X-rays have smaller wavelength than that of gamma rays
- (c) Gamma rays have smaller frequency than that of X-rays
- (d) Wavelength and frequency of X-rays are both larger than that of gamma rays

**3:** On increasing the number of electrons striking the anode of an *X*-ray tube, which one of the following parameters of the resulting *X*-rays would increase

- (a) Penetration power
- (b) Frequency
- (c) Wavelength
- (d) Intensity.

**4:** If the voltage of *X*-ray tube is doubled, the intensity of *X*-rays will become

- (a) Half
- (b) Unchanged.
- (c) Double
- (d) Four times

5: Which of the following is the primary interaction between x-ray photons and tissue during CT examination

- (a) Bremsstrahlung effect
- (b) Characteristic effect
- (c) Compton effect.
- (d) Coherent scattering

6: artifacts on the CT image are associated with one of the following tube detector relationships?

- (a) Rotate-nutate
- (b) Rotate-stationary
- (c) Rotate-rotate.
- (d) Translate-rotate

7: The principal advantage of CT over projection radiography is

- (a) Speed of image acquisition
- (b) Energy resolution
- (c ) Contrast resolution.
- (d) Spatial resolution

8: Computed tomography is otherwise identified as

- (a) Emission tomography
- (b) Transmission tomography.
- (c ) Reflection tomography
- (d) Temporal tomography

9: When compared to projection radiography, conventional tomography shows

- (a) Better spatial resolution
- (b) Improved contrast resolution.
- (c) Reduced patient dose
- (d) Less operator involvement

10: Decreasing kV in CT is advantageous because

- (a) X-ray penetration improves
- (b) Tissue contrast improves.
- (c) Scan times are reduced
- (d) Metal streak artifacts are improved

**11: Dose in CT can be reduced by which of the following parameter adjustments (assuming other factors constant)**

**(a) Increasing kV**

(b) Increasing mAs

(c) Increasing Pitch.

**(d) Increasing scan length**