

Computed tomography (CT)

Part 1

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2005–2022

¹Using images from J. Hozman, J. Fessler, S. Webb, M. Slaney, A. Kak and others

Introduction

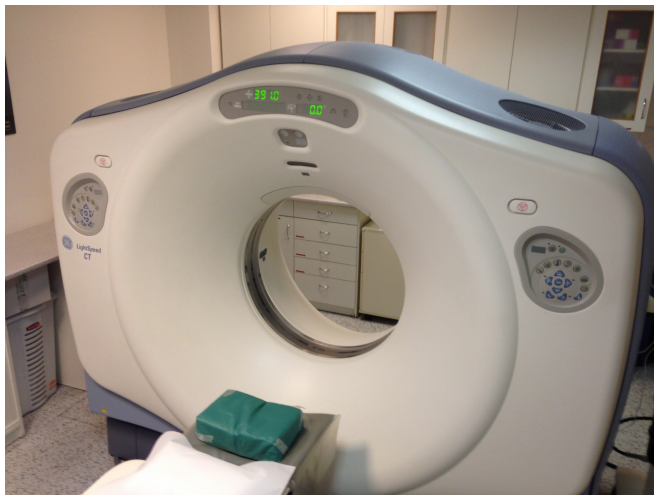
Hardware

Mathematics and Physics of CT

Radon transform

Reconstruction methods

CT scanner



CT history

- 1917** mathematical theory (Radon)
- 1956** tomography reconstruction in radioastronomy (Bracewell)
- 1963** CT reconstruction theory (Cormack)
- 1971** CT principles demonstrated (Hounsfield)
- 1972** first working CT for humans (EMI, London, Hounsfield)
- 1973** PET
- 1974** Ultrasound tomography
- 1975** whole body scanner (Hounsfield)
- 1982** SPECT
- 1985** Helical CT
- 1998** Multislice CT, 0.5 s/frame

Johann Radon

1887–1956



J. Radon

- ▶ born in Děčín (Czech Republic), lived in Göttingen, Brno, Hamburg, Greifswald, Erlangen, Breslau, Innsbruck and Vienna
- ▶ mathematician; Radon transform (1917) — reconstruction of a function from its integrals on certain manifolds (projections)

Godfrey Hounsfield

1919–2004



- ▶ physicist and engineer (did not attend university)
- ▶ worked on radar and on first transistor computers
- ▶ created the first CT X-ray scanner
- ▶ Nobel prize in Medicine (1979, together with Cormack)

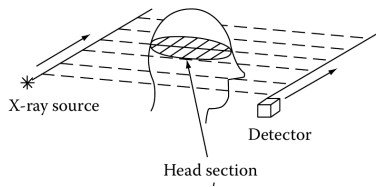
Allan MacLeod Cormack

1924–1998



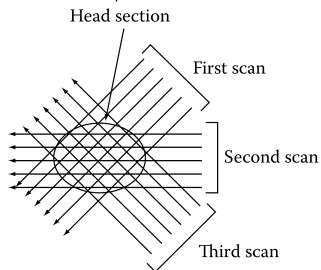
- ▶ born in South Africa, studied in Cambridge, lived in the US
- ▶ particle physicist
- ▶ theoretical foundation of CT scanning (independently of Hounsfield)
- ▶ Nobel prize in Medicine (1979, together with Hounsfield)

CT principles



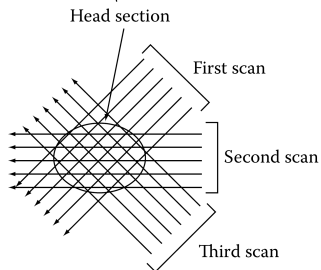
1. Sequence of parallel sections (*tomos*)

CT principles



1. Sequence of parallel sections (*tomos*)
2. Sequence of projections from multiple directions

CT principles



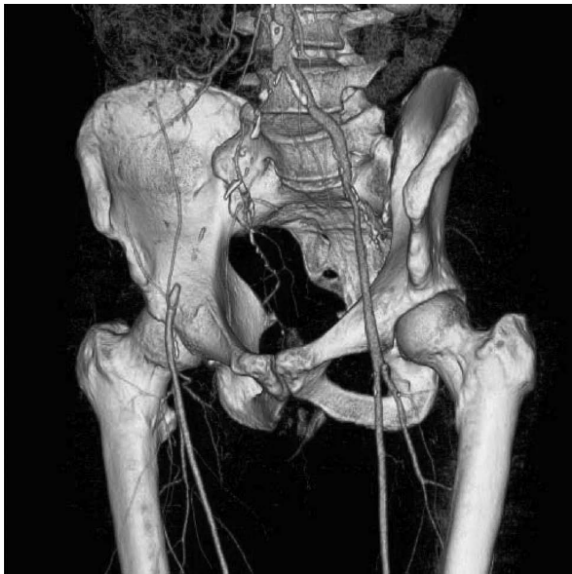
1. Sequence of parallel sections (*tomos*)
2. Sequence of projections from multiple directions
3. Reconstruction of the object

CT example scans



Head and kidneys

CT example scans



CT angiography, pelvis

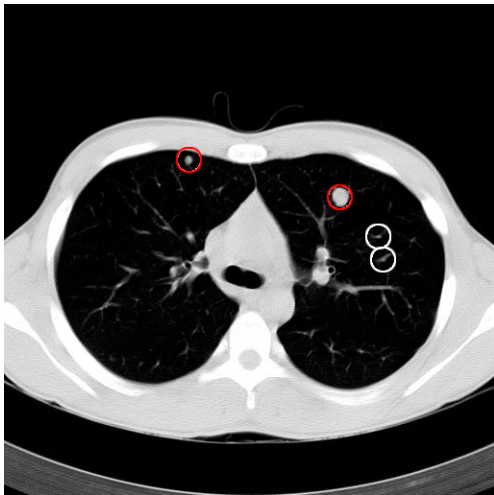
Clinical applications

- ▶ Lungs



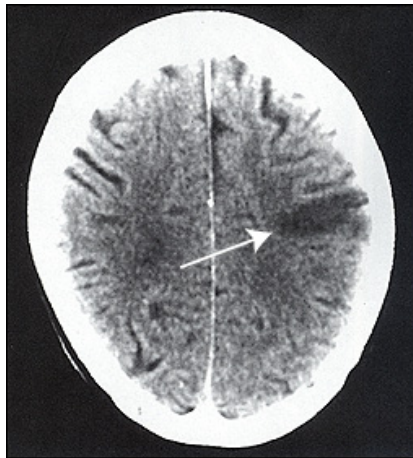
Clinical applications

- ▶ Lungs



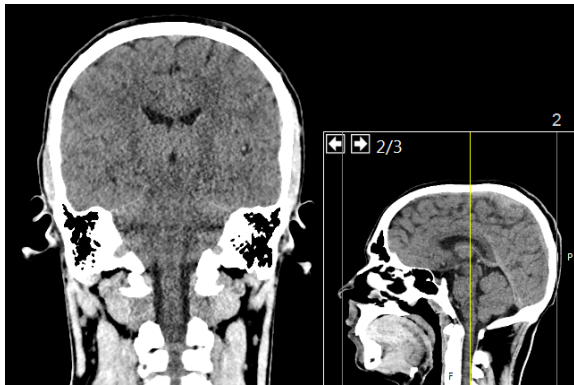
Clinical applications

- ▶ Lungs
- ▶ Head



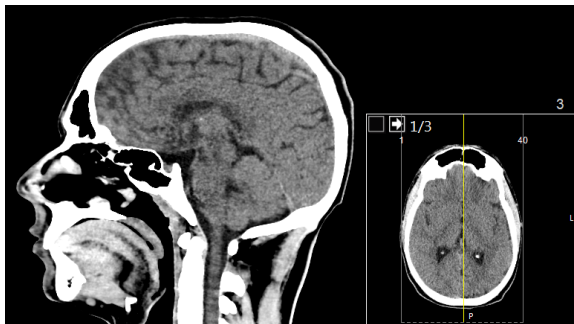
Clinical applications

- ▶ Lungs
- ▶ Head



Clinical applications

- ▶ Lungs
- ▶ Head



Clinical applications

- ▶ Lungs
- ▶ Head
- ▶ Abdomen



Tomography modalities

- ▶ X-rays — CT
- ▶ gamma rays — PET, SPECT
- ▶ light — optical tomography
- ▶ RF waves — MRI
- ▶ DC — electric impedance tomography
- ▶ ultrasound — ultrasound tomography

Introduction

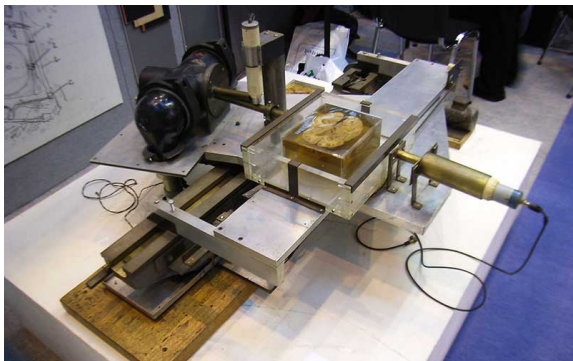
Hardware

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Radon transform

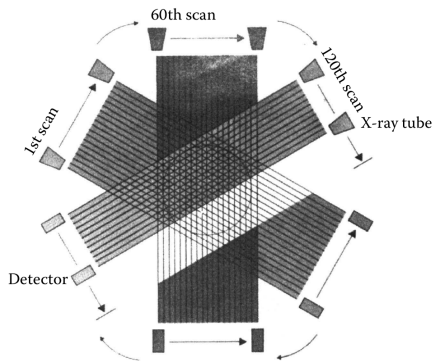
Reconstruction methods

First scanner



Scanner geometry — generation 1

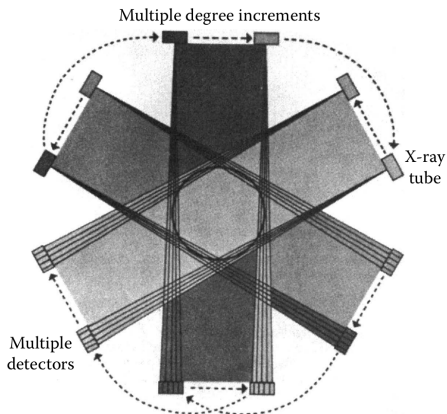
1971



- ▶ Single source and single detector
- ▶ Finely collimated narrow beam
- ▶ Alternating translation and rotation
- ▶ Very slow (4 min / section), low resolution
- ▶ Low cost, good scatter rejection, easy calibration

Scanner geometry — generation 2

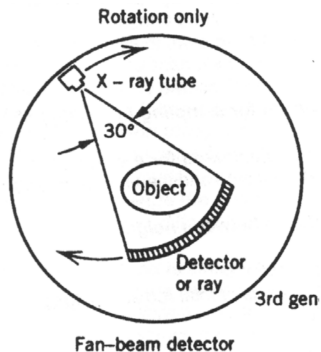
1974



- ▶ Narrow fan beam ($\sim 10^\circ$), multiple detectors (N)
- ▶ N projections acquired in parallel
- ▶ Increased rotation increment
- ▶ Increased speed (20 s / section)

Scanner geometry — generation 3

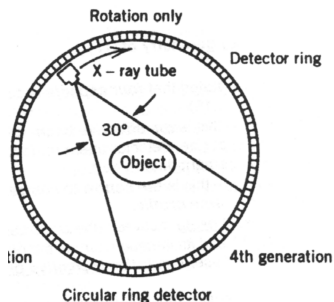
1975



- ▶ Wide fan beam ($30^\circ \sim 60^\circ$) covering complete field of view
- ▶ 100s of detectors
- ▶ Only rotation, no translation
- ▶ Pulsed or continuous acquisition
- ▶ Fast (5 s / section)

Scanner geometry — generation 4

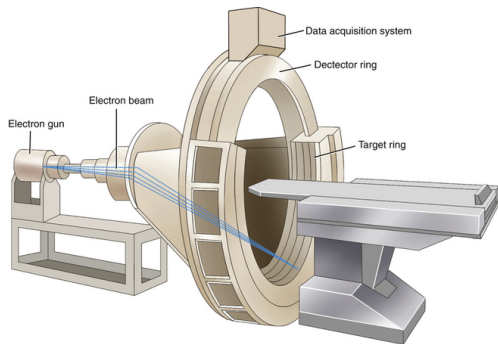
~ 1977



- ▶ Rotating source, stationary detector rings
- ▶ More expensive
- ▶ Avoids rotating contacts
- ▶ Fast

Scanner geometry — generation 5

Electron beam CT (EBCT, 1983)



- ▶ No moving parts
- ▶ Directional X-ray source
- ▶ Extremely fast (beating heart)
- ▶ Lower signal to noise ratio and spatial resolution

CT X-ray sources

Similar but bigger than radiography X-ray sources

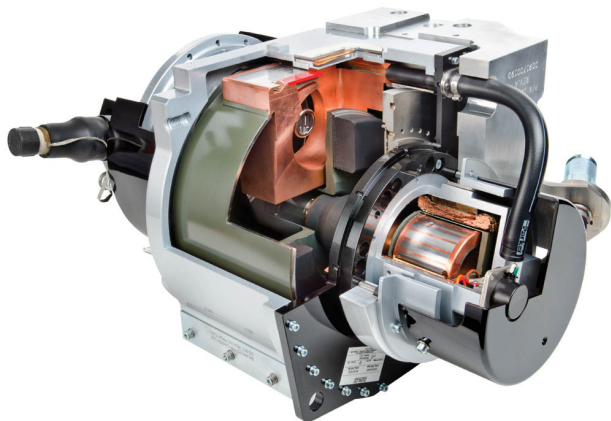
Typical properties of an X-ray tube used for CT compared to those of a conventional radiographic tube.

	Conventional X-Ray Tube	CT X-Ray Tube
Typical exposure parameters	70 kV, 40 mAs	120 kV, 10,000 mAs
Energy requirements	2,800 J	1,200,000 J
Anode diameter	100 mm	160 mm
Anode heat storage capacity	450,000 J	3,200,000 J
Maximum anode heat dissipation	120,000 J/min	540,000 J/min
Maximum continuous power rating	450 W	4000 W
Cooling method	Fan	Circulating oil

- ▶ Challenges: Power leads, cooling, vibration, ...

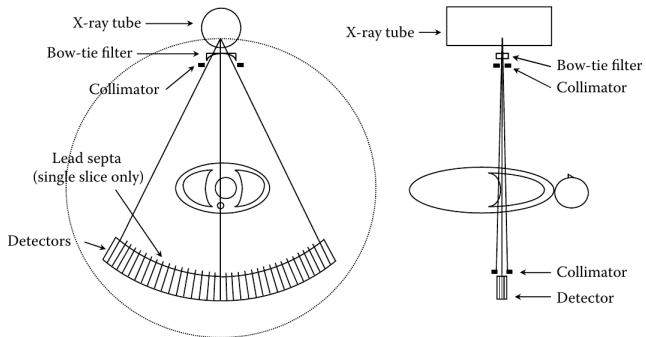
CT X-ray sources

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Filtering and collimation (1)



Filtering and collimation (2)

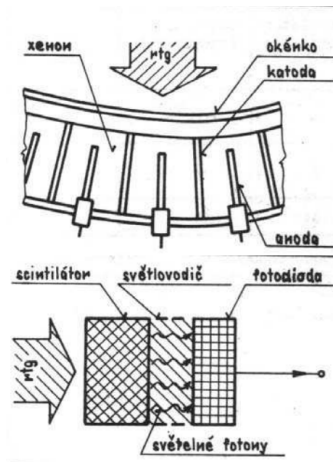
- ▶ Beam shaping (attenuate lateral part of the beam)



- ▶ Prepatient and detector collimation — beam(slice) width

CT detector types

- ▶ Xenon ionization chamber detectors
 - ▶ Faster but less sensitive
- ▶ Scintillation detectors
 - ▶ More sensitive but slower (afterglow, scintillator dependent)

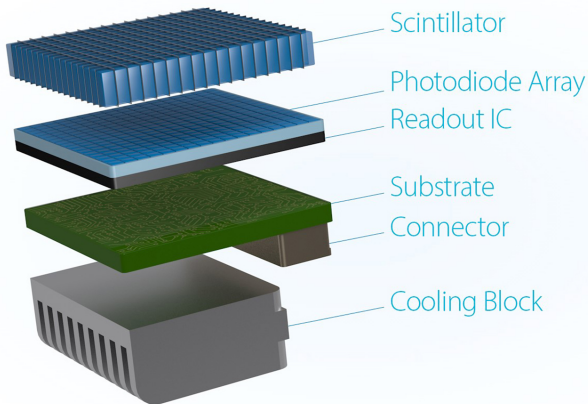


CT detector types

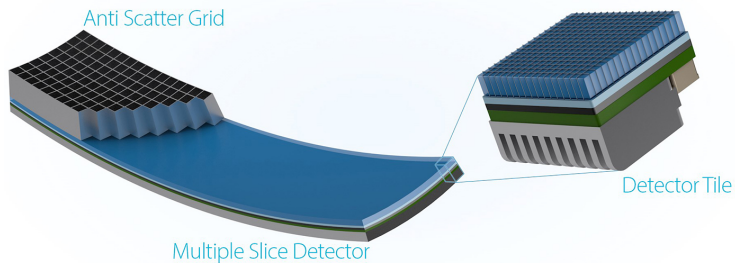
Properties of detectors in common use in CT scanning.

	Xenon Detectors	Crystal Scintillator	Ceramic Scintillator
Detector	High pressure (8–25 atm) Xe ionisation chamber	CaWO ₄ + silicon photodiode	Gd ₂ O ₂ S + silicon photodiode
Detector array	Single chamber, divided into elements by septa	Discrete detectors	Discrete detectors
Signal	Proportional to ionisation intensity	Proportional to light intensity	Proportional to light intensity
Detector efficiency	40%–70%	95%–100%	90%–100%
Geometric efficiency (in fan direction)	>90%	>80%	>80%
Afterglow limitations	No	Yes	No
Detector matching	No	Yes	Yes

Scintillation detector construction

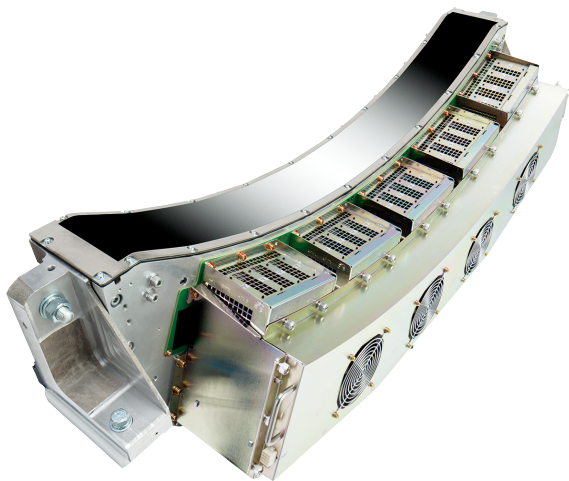


Scintillation detector construction



Multiple (e.g. 32, 64) slices \rightarrow acceleration

Scintillation detector construction



Multiple (e.g. 32, 64) slices \rightarrow acceleration

Electric processing — corrections

- ▶ Offset correction (zero signal at rest)
- ▶ Normalization correction (x-ray source intensity fluctuation)
- ▶ Sensitivity correction (inhomogeneous detectors and amplifiers)
- ▶ Geometric correction
- ▶ Beam hardening correction
- ▶ Cosine correction (for fan beam geometry)

Introduction

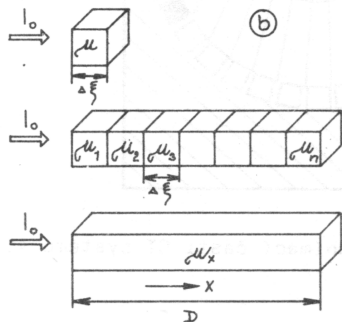
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Attenuation along a line



Homogeneous material (Beer-Lambert's law)

$$I = I_0 e^{-\mu \Delta\xi}$$

Piecewise homogeneous material

$$I = I_0 \prod_{i=1}^n e^{-\mu_i \Delta\xi} = I_0 e^{-\Delta\xi \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i}$$

Continuously varying $\mu(x)$, $x = i\Delta\xi$

$$\begin{aligned} I &= I_0 e^{-\lim_{\Delta\xi \rightarrow 0} \Delta\xi \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i} \\ &= I_0 e^{-\int_0^D \mu(x) dx} \end{aligned}$$

Line integral for line L

$$= I_0 e^{-\int_L \mu(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}}$$

Hounsfield units

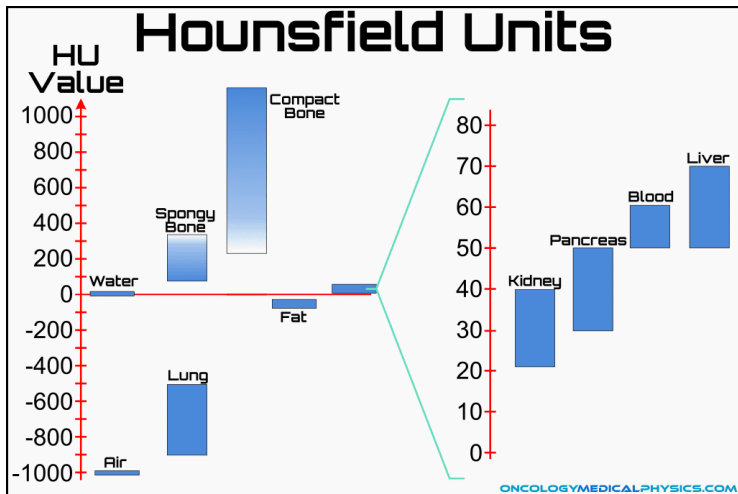
HU, CT number

$$CT = 1000 \frac{\mu - \mu_{\text{water}}}{\mu_{\text{water}}}$$

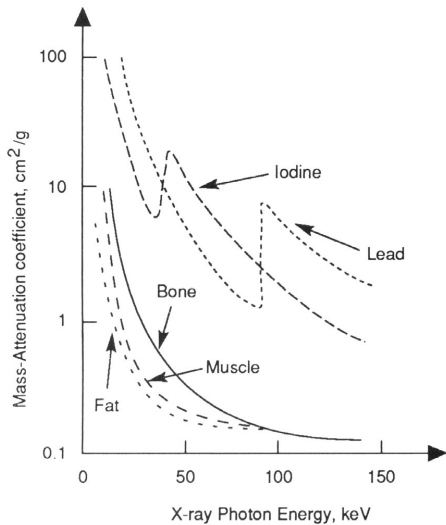
- ▶ Values between -1000 (air) and approximately 1000 (bones)
- ▶ Densities in HU are *reproducible* between devices
- ▶ To differentiate soft tissue types, tumor types etc.
- ▶ Accurate calibration is needed

Hounsfield units

HU, CT number

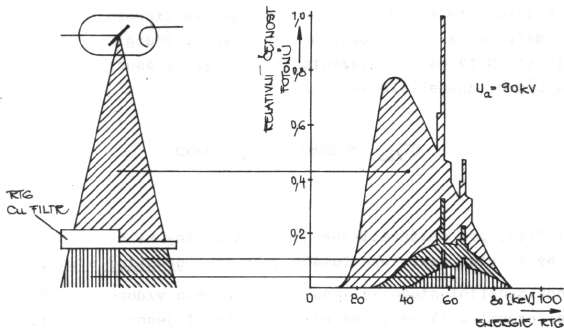


Beam hardening



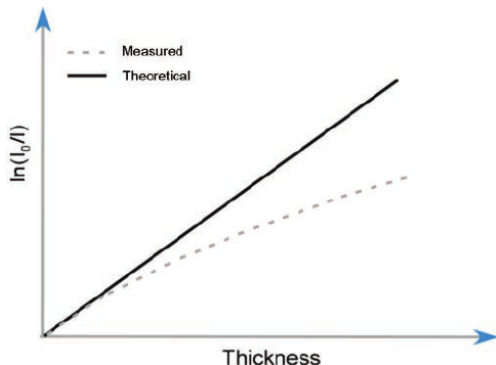
- ▶ Attenuation decreases with E

Beam hardening



- ▶ Attenuation decreases with E
- ▶ \rightarrow low E rays are attenuated more
- ▶ \rightarrow mean E increases

Beam hardening

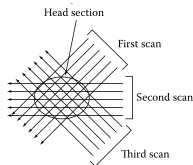


- ▶ Attenuation decreases with E
- ▶ \rightarrow low E rays are attenuated more
- ▶ \rightarrow mean E increases
- ▶ Measured attenuation $p = \log(I_0/I) <$ theoretically linear $\mu\Delta\xi$.

Beam hardening

- ▶ Attenuation decreases with E
- ▶ \rightarrow low E rays are attenuated more
- ▶ \rightarrow mean E increases
- ▶ Measured attenuation $\rho = \log(I_0/I) <$ theoretically linear $\mu\Delta\xi$.
- ▶ Beam hardening correction

Linear forward problem



For N straight lines L_j , measure the attenuation

$$p_j = \log \frac{\mu_0^j}{\mu^j} = \int_{L_j} \mu(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

Assumptions

- ▶ Infinitely thin rays
- ▶ Straight lines — no scattering, reflection or refraction
- ▶ Monochromatic radiation — no beam hardening

(Assumptions can be relaxed but more complicated dependency.)

Linear forward problem

For N straight lines L_j , measure the attenuation

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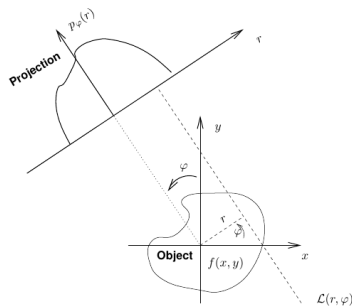
(Assumptions can be relaxed but more complicated dependency.)

Discretization

$$\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^M c_i \varphi_i(\mathbf{x})$$

→ linear system of equations $\mathbf{Lc} = \mathbf{p}$

Integration lines in polar coordinates



Describe integration lines by angle φ and offset r :

$$\begin{aligned} L(\varphi, r) &= \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2; x \cos \varphi + y \sin \varphi = r\} \\ &= \{(r \cos \varphi - t \sin \varphi, r \sin \varphi + t \cos \varphi); t \in \mathbb{R}\} \end{aligned}$$

Integration lines in polar coordinates

Describe integration lines by angle φ and offset r :

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Implicit line equation, $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$

$$[\cos \varphi, \sin \varphi] \mathbf{x} = 0$$

Parametric line equation

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{rotation matrix } R(\varphi)} \begin{bmatrix} r \\ t \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{x}$$

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Rotating system of coordinates

$$\begin{bmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{bmatrix} = R(\varphi) \begin{bmatrix} \xi' \\ \eta' \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \xi' \\ \eta' \end{bmatrix} = R^T(\varphi) \begin{bmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{bmatrix}$$

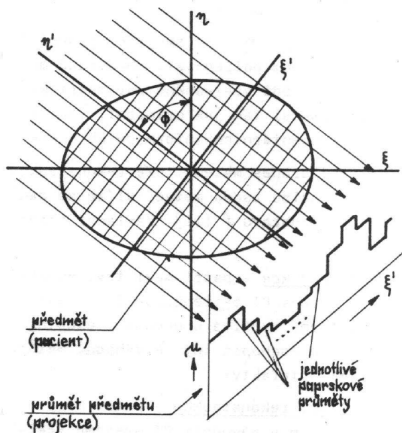
$$R^T(\varphi) = R(-\varphi)$$

Projection

$$\begin{aligned} P_\varphi(\xi') &= \int_{L(\varphi, \eta')} \mu(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \int o(\xi, \eta') d\eta' \end{aligned}$$

Measurements

$$P_\varphi(\xi') = \log \frac{I_0}{I(\varphi, \xi')}$$



Change of variables

$$\xi' = r, \quad \eta' = t, \quad x = \xi, \quad y = \eta$$

Radon transform

Projection in polar coordinates:

$$P_\varphi(\xi') = \mathcal{R}[o(\xi, \eta)]$$

$$P_\varphi(\xi') = \int_L o(\xi, \eta) dl$$

along the line L defined by φ a ξ' :

$$\xi' = \xi \cos \varphi + \eta \sin \varphi$$

Equivalently

$$P_\varphi(\xi') = \int o(\xi' \cos \varphi - \eta' \sin \varphi, \xi' \sin \varphi + \eta' \cos \varphi) d\eta'$$

Radon transform properties

▶ **Linearity:**

$$\mathcal{R}[\alpha f + \beta g] = \alpha \mathcal{R}[f] + \beta \mathcal{R}[f]$$

▶ **Periodicity:**

$$P_{\varphi}(\xi') = P_{\varphi \pm 2\pi}(\xi') = P_{\varphi \pm \pi}(-\xi')$$

... and many others

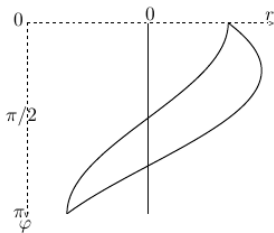
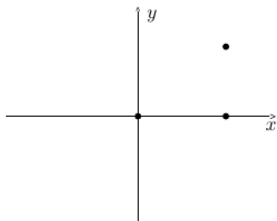
Radon transform of a point

$$o(\xi, \eta) = \delta(\xi - \xi_0, \eta - \eta_0)$$

$$P_\varphi(\xi') = \mathcal{R}[o(\xi, \eta)] = \delta(\xi_0 \cos \varphi + \eta_0 \sin \varphi - \xi')$$

... is a sinusoid with amplitude $\sqrt{\xi_0^2 + \eta_0^2}$ and phase $\angle(\xi_0, \eta_0)$.

$$\xi' = \xi_0 \cos \varphi + \eta_0 \sin \varphi$$

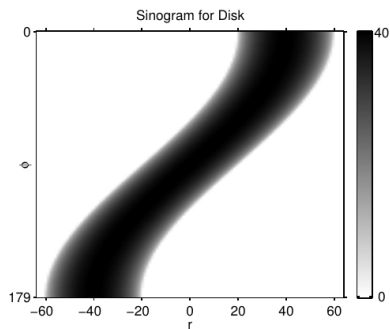


Radon transform result $P_\varphi(\xi')$ is called a *sinogram*

Radon transform

(sinogram)

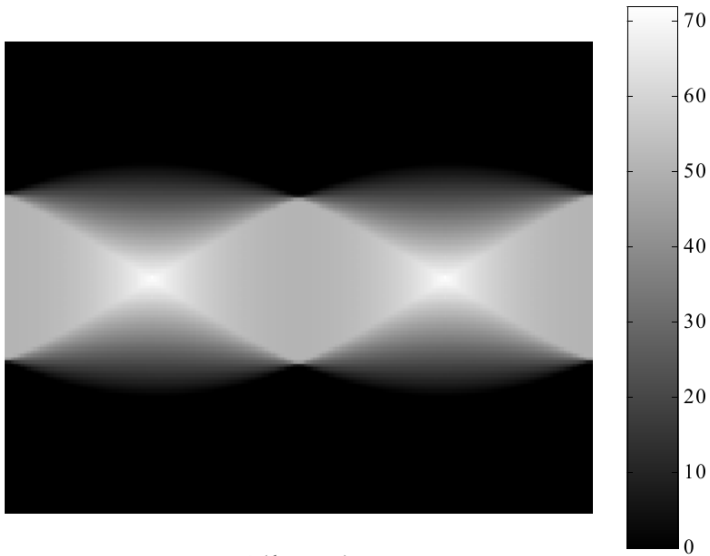
of a disc



Radon transform

(sinogram)

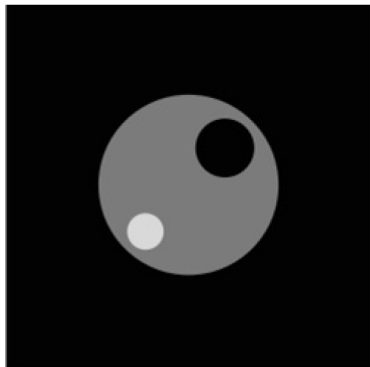
of a square (inverted)



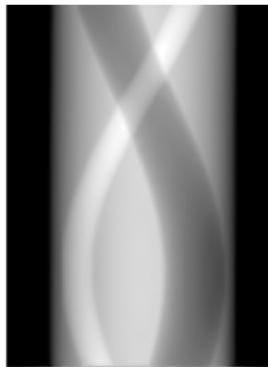
Radon transform

(sinogram)

of an object with inserts (inverted)



Object



Sinogram