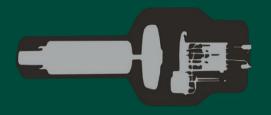
TENTH EDITION

SELMAN'S THE FUNDAMENTALS OF IMAGING PHYSICS AND RADIOBIOLOGY



VICTOR WHITE, PH.D., RT (R)

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Copy of Roentgen's radiograph of his wife's "hand with rings," made soon after his discovery of x-rays in November 1895 in Wurzburg, Germany. (See Glasser O. *Dr. W. C. Roentgen*, 2nd ed., Charles C Thomas, 1958, Springfield, p. 39.)

SELMAN'S THE FUNDAMENTALS OF IMAGING PHYSICS AND RADIOBIOLOGY

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Dedicated first, and foremost, to all my medical imaging students: past, present, and future.

Also dedicated to my father, Robert. G. White and high school physics instructor, Larry Armstrong; great mentors and retired teachers, formerly of Taylorville High School in Taylorville, IL, and to Steven B. Dowd, Ed.D, my former Radiography Program Director.

Also dedicated to Dan Bar, D.O., Michael Rafati, M.D., Sharon Hall, M.D., Hector Stella, M.D., and Ben Roberts, MFA, RT (R)(CT)(T), some of the best clinicians and academicians that I have had the pleasure of working with over the years.

Also dedicated to friends and colleagues Craig Reed, Andrea Decker, Jenna Andujar, BAS, RT (R), and Melanie Schmidt, BAS, RT (R), who all offered useful advice, helped with contracts, and/or provided illustrations regarding completion of this textbook.

Finally, dedicated to Max Lee Newlin, RT (R), a great person, radiographer, and student mentor who left us much too soon.

PREFACE

number of significant changes have been made in this tenth edition. Color **I**photographs and new illustrations have been provided for a number of existing chapters and for the new chapters in this book. Revisions and updates have been completed for Chapters 1 through 28, whereas Chapters 29 to 33 are all new. The $E = MC^2$ formula has been added to Chapter 3. An updated Periodic Table of the Elements has been added to Chapter 4. A photograph of a modern rotating anode x-ray tube, a diagram of the photodisintegration effect, and the half-life formula have been added to Chapter 12. A new photograph of a rotating anode has been added to Chapter 13, along with some heat unit problems and a diagram of a new type of x-ray tube being developed. In Chapter 14, a new photograph of a modern x-ray control panel has been added. In Chapter 15, a table showing the relationship of screen speed number and screen speed types has been added. In Chapter 20, a new photograph of a Vidicon tube and diagrams of fluoroscopy units and C-Arms have been added. In Chapter 21, a xeromammogram image has been added. In Chapter 22, new mammography, breast US, and breast MRI images, along with photographs of modern mammography equipment and digital mammography quality assurance items have been added. In Chapter 23, information regarding medical and nonmedical computer languages and data have been added. Chapter 24 is significantly revised. Chapter 25 has been significantly revised and updated with new formulas, new diagrams, and CT images. In Chapter 26, images concerning types of nuclear reactors that produce power and radionuclides, diagrams of different types of radiation detectors, and PET diagrams are provided. In Chapter 27, new tables regarding the Acute Radiation Syndrome (ARS) and cancer model data have been provided. In Chapter 28, updated tables about annual dose equivalency, organ system radiation exposure, a photograph of a Luxel[®] OSL dosimeter, diagrams and data regarding various radiation detectors and current radiobiology practice have been added. Chapter 29, Bone Densitometry, is a completely new chapter. Chapter 30, Magnetic Resonance Imaging, is now its own thoroughly revised chapter. Chapter 31, Ultrasound, is now its own thoroughly revised chapter. Chapter 32, Fusion Imaging, is a completely new chapter. Chapter 33, Molecular Imaging, is a completely new chapter.

In addition, an increased focus has been placed on computed radiography and digital imaging (Indirect and Direct Digital Radiography) to adapt to current technology and ARRT (R) Board exam topics. Chapters related to film processing, the darkroom, and film-screen technology have been maintained because this technology is still used in rural and other facilities worldwide and is still included on the ARRT State Exam for Limited X-Ray Machine Operators (LXMOs).

Additional questions have been added to the end of most chapters, and the answers or locations in the textbook where the answers can be found for all questions are now included in this edition.

I would like to thank Radiology Administrators Michael Wright, Michael Klein, Stuart Schwab, Michelle Walker, and Chief MRI Technologist Terri Camp at Billings Clinic in Billings, MT, for allowing me to take photographs of their MRI Department and related MRI equipment. I would also like to thank St. Vincent's Healthcare Radiology Department Administrator Aubrey Brennemann for allowing me to take photographs of ultrasound machines, CT units, and Mammography units at St. Vincent's Healthcare in Billings, MT. I would especially like to thank Jenna Andujar, BAS, RT (R), for her expert help and assistance in obtaining photographs of the DXA unit, DXA equipment, and a Luxel® OSL Dosimeter from St. Vincent's Healthcare.

Finally, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Michael Thomas, president of Charles C Thomas, Publisher, Ltd., for his great patience and understanding, and his most competent staff, particularly Michael Fagg, Cindy Marcy, and Sharon Moorman, for their superb help with my illustrations and the publication of this tenth edition of Selman's *The Fundamentals of Imaging Physics and Radiobiology*.

Victor N. White, PhD, RT (R)

INTRODUCTION

This, the tenth edition of Selman's *The Fundamentals of Imaging Physics and Radio-biology*, is the continuation of a seminal work in radiation physics and radiation biology first published by Joseph Selman, MD, in 1954 by Charles C Thomas, Publisher, Ltd., Springfield, IL.

A brief history about the originating author of this book is now in order. Dr. Joseph Selman was born August 25, 1915, in Albany, New York, and passed away on October 31, 2010, in Plano, Texas. Dr. Selman was a widely respected physician and an author of many medical textbooks. He was also one of the founders of the East Texas Cancer Center in Tyler, Texas, in 1951. Editions of this book start with the inaugural edition in 1954. The second edition was published in 1957, the third edition in 1961, the fourth edition in 1965, the fifth edition in 1972, the sixth edition in 1977, the seventh edition in 1985, the eighth edition in 1994, and the ninth edition in 2000. This coauthor happened to use the sixth edition of this book while a radiologic technology student in the St. John's Hospital/Lincoln Land Community College Radiologic Technology Program in Springfield, IL, graduating in 1985.

In this tenth edition, published in 2020, the overall style of Dr. Selman is still present, but, with any revision, the style of the current author is also present. In essence, my raison d'être in revising this book was to better reflect current radiology practice and to honor the work of Dr. Selman. Topics discussed in this textbook deal with the physics of x-radiation, the biological interaction of radiation with matter, and all aspects of imaging equipment and technology commonly found in the modern radiology department. The chapter on computed tomography (CT) has been heavily revised and updated. Protective measures regarding radiation safety and radiation hazards for workers and patients are thoroughly discussed, and new chapters on dual energy x-ray absorptiometry (DXA), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), ultrasound (US), fusion, and molecular imaging have been added.

This book will be very helpful to students about to take the ARRT (R) registry examination but is not a registry review book per se. This book also serves as a good overview of radiologic imaging physics for radiographers and other medical professionals.

V.N.W.

CONTENTS

		Page
Preface		vii
Introdu	ection	ix
Chapte	r	
1.	SIMPLIFIED MATHEMATICS	3
	Arithmetic	3
	Fractions	3
	Percent	4
	Decimal Fractions	4
	Significant Figures	5
	Algebra	6
	Ratio and Proportion	8
	Plane Geometry	9
	Similar Triangles	10
	Graphs and Charts	11
	Large and Small Numbers	12
	Logarithms	13
	Questions and Problems	14
2.	PHYSICS AND THE UNITS OF MEASUREMENT	16
۷.	Standard Units	17
	Fundamental Units	17
	Derived Units	18
		20
	Manipulation of Units	20
	**	20
	Questions and Problems	
3.	THE PHYSICAL CONCEPT OF ENERGY	22
	Force	22
	Work and Energy	22
	Law of Conservation of Energy	23
	Radiation as Waves and Particles	25
	Fission	25
	Fusion	25
	Questions and Problems	26

4.	THE STRUCTURE OF MATTER	27
	Subdivisions of Matter	27
	Atomic Structure: The Electrical Nature of Matter	30
	Atomic Number	32
	Mass Number	32
	Isotopes and Nuclides	32
	Isobars, Isotones, and Isomers	33
	The Periodic Table	33
	Chemical Behavior	34
	Ionization	36
	Questions and Problems	38
5.	ELECTROSTATICS	39
	Definition	39
	Electrification	39
	Methods of Electrification	39
	Laws of Electrostatics	41
	Electroscope	43
	Static Discharge	44
	Questions and Problems	45
6.	ELECTRODYNAMICS: ELECTRIC CURRENT	46
	Definition	46
	The Nature of an Electric Current	46
	Sources of Electric Current	47
	Factors in an Electric Circuit	47
	Ohm's Law	50
	Cells and Batteries	50
	Components of Elementary Electric Circuits	51
	Series and Parallel Circuits	52
	Electric Capacitor (Condenser)	56
	The Work and Power of a Direct Current	57
	Questions and Problems	57
7.	MAGNETISM	59
	Definition	59
	Classification of Magnets	59
	Laws of Magnetism.	60
	Nature of Magnetism	60
	Magnetic Fields	61
	Characteristics of Lines of Force	62
	Magnetic Induction (Magnetization)	63

Contents	X11

	Magnetic Permeability and Retentivity	63
	Magnetic Classification of Matter	64
	Earth's Magnetism	64
		65
_		
8.		66
		66
	S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S	66
	3	67
	G	68
	Direction of Induced Electron Current	69
	Self-Induction.	70
	Mutual Induction	71
	Questions and Problems	71
9.	ELECTRIC GENERATORS AND MOTORS	72
٥.		, <u> </u>
		, <u> </u>
		, ₂
		, ₂
	1	75
		76
		70 77
	3	, , 77
		, , 77
		, , 77
	1	77 78
	I	
	71	78
	3	80
	Questions and Problems	81
10.	PRODUCTION AND CONTROL OF HIGH VOLTAGE:	
	REGULATION OF CURRENT IN THE X-RAY TUBE	82
	Transformer	82
	Principle	82
	Efficiency and Power Losses	86
		86
		87
	Control of Filament Current and Tube Current	88
		88
		88
		89

	Questions and Problems	90
11.	RECTIFICATION AND RECTIFIERS	92
	Definition	92
	Methods of Rectifying an Alternating Current	93
	Rectifiers	98
	Rectifier Failure	103
	Questions and Problems	105
12.	X-RAYS: PRODUCTION AND PROPERTIES	106
	How X-Rays Were Discovered	106
	Nature of X-Rays	107
	Source of X-Rays in Radiology: The X-Ray Tube	109
	Details of X-Ray Production	111
	Electron Interactions with Target Atoms: X-Ray Production	111
	Target Material	113
	Efficiency of X-Ray Production	113
	Properties of X-Rays	114
	Specifications of the Physical Characteristics of an X-Ray Beam	114
	X-Ray Exposure (Quantity)	114
	X-Ray Quality	116
	"Hard" and "Soft" X-Rays	120
	The Interactions of Ionizing Radiation and Matter	12
	Relationship of Energy Mass and the Speed of Light	123
	Relative Importance of Various Types of Interaction	126
	Detection of Ionizing Radiation	127
	Summary of Radiation Units	127
	Exposure: Coulombs per Kilogram or the Roentgen	128
	Exposure	128
	Kerma	128
	Absorbed Dose: The Gray (Gy)	128
	RAD, REM, and Sievert	128
	Tissue Weighting Factors and Radiation Weighting Factors	129
	Tissue Weighting Factors	129
	Radiation Weighting Factors	129
	Equivalent Dose (EqD)	129
	Effective Dose (EfD)	130
	Collective Effective Dose (SE)	130
	Standard Unit of Radioactivity	130
	Activity Measurement	130
	Modification of Kilovoltage X-Ray Beams by Filters	130
	Questions and Problems	132
	~~	

Contents xv

13.	X-RAY TUBES	133
	Thermionic Diode Tubes	133
	Radiographic Tubes	134
	Glass Envelope	134
	Cathode	134
	Anode	135
	Space Charge Compensation	140
	Factors Governing Tube Life	141
	New Developments in X-Ray Tube Technology	147
	Questions and Problems	148
14.	X-RAY CIRCUITS	149
	Source of Electric Power	149
	The Main Single Phase X-Ray Circuits	150
	Completed Wiring Diagram	157
	Basic X-Ray Control Panel or Console	158
	Three-Phase Generation of X-Rays	160
	High-Frequency Generation of X-Rays	164
	Falling-Load Generator	165
	Special Mobile X-Ray Equipment	166
	Battery-Powered Mobile X-Ray Units	166
	Capacitor (Condenser)-Discharge Mobile X-Ray Units	167
	Questions and Problems	170
15.	X-RAY FILMS, FILM HOLDERS, AND INTENSIFYING SCREENS	171
	Composition of X-Ray Film	171
	Types of Films	173
	Practical Suggestions in Handling Unexposed Film	173
	Film Exposure Holders	174
	Intensifying Screens	175
	Questions and Problems	185
16.	THE DARKROOM	186
	Introduction	186
	Location of the Darkroom	186
	Building Essentials	187
	Entrance	187
	Size	188
	Ventilation	188
	Lighting	188
	Film Storage Bin	189
	Questions and Problems	190

17.	CHEMISTRY OF RADIOGRAPHY AND FILM PROCESSING	191
	Introduction	191
	Radiographic Photography	191
	Radiographic Chemistry	192
	Manual Processing	194
	Film Fog, Stains, and Artifacts	195
	Automatic Processing	196
	Summary of Processor Care	200
	Silver Recovery from Fixing Solutions	200
	Federal Environmental Protection Agency Rules and X-Ray Film Chemistry Questions and Problems	200 201
	2,000,100,100,100,100,100,100,100,100,10	
18.	RADIOGRAPHIC QUALITY	202
	Blur	202
	Geometric or Focal Spot Blur	203
	Focal Spot Evaluation	205
	Motion Blur	207
	Screen Blur	207
	Object Blur	208
	Radiographic Density	208
	Contrast	212
	Radiographic Contrast	213
	Subject Contrast	213
	Film Contrast	216
	Distortion	217
	Direct Magnification or Enlargement Radiography	220
	Modulation Transfer Function	223
	Questions and Problems	224
19.	DEVICES FOR IMPROVING RADIOGRAPHIC QUALITY	226
	Scattered Radiation	226
	Removal of Scattered Radiation by a Grid	228
	Principle of the Radiographic Grid	228
	Efficiency of Grids	229
	Types of Grids	231
	Precautions in the Use of Focused Grids	234
	Practical Application of Grids	236
	Removal of Scattered Radiation by an Air Gap	239
	Reduction of Scattered Radiation by Limitation of the Primary Beam	240
	Other Methods of Beam Limitation	245
	Moving Slit Radiography	245
	The Anode Heel Effect—Anode Cutoff	246

Contents	xvii

Compensating Filters	247
Summary of Radiographic Exposure	248
Questions and Problems	248
FLUOROSCOPY	250
The Human Eye	250
Fluoroscopic Image Intensification	251
Magnification in Image Intensifier	254
Multiple-Field Intensifiers	255
Viewing the Fluoroscopic Image	255
Optical Lens System	255
Television Viewing System	256
Video Cameras	256
Television Monitor	257
Charge-Coupled Device (CCD) TV Camera	259
	259
Recording the Fluoroscopic Image	260
Recording the Video Image Magnetic Tape and Disc	260
Laser Discs	261
Digital Fluoroscopy	262
Digital Fluoroscopy Imaging Process	262
Patient Radiation Protection during Fluoroscopy	263
C-Arms: Best Orientation for Radiation Protection	264
Questions and Problems	265
VANISHING EQUIPMENT	266
Stereoscopic Radiography	266
Tomography	269
Xeroradiography (Xerography)	275
X-Ray Film and Film Processors	276
Questions and Problems	277
MAMMOGRAPHY	278
Digital Mammography	280
	281
	282
	282
	282
Patient Positioning for a Breast MRI Study	282
Breast MRI Limitations and Risks	283
Quality Standards in Mammography	284
Qualifications of Radiologic Technologist (Mammographer)	285
	Summary of Radiographic Exposure Questions and Problems FLUOROSCOPY The Human Eye Fluoroscopic Image Intensification Magnification in Image Intensifier Multiple-Field Intensifiers Viewing the Fluoroscopic Image Optical Lens System Video Cameras Television Viewing System Video Cameras Television Monitor Charge-Coupled Device (CCD) TV Camera Quality of the TV Image Recording the Fluoroscopic Image Recording the Fluoroscopic Image Recording the Video Image Magnetic Tape and Dise Laser Discs Digital Fluoroscopy Digital Fluoroscopy Imaging Process Patient Radiation Protection during Fluoroscopy C-Arms: Best Orientation for Radiation Protection Questions and Problems VANISHING EQUIPMENT Stereoscopic Radiography Tomography X-Ray Film and Film Processors Questions and Problems MAMMOGRAPHY Digital Mammography Breast Sonography How Is a Breast Sonogram Performed? Advantages of Breast Ultrasound MRI of the Breast Patient Positioning for a Breast MRI Study Breast MRI Limitations and Risks Quality Standards in Mammography

	Equipment	285
	Quality Assurance	285
	Quality Assurance Records	286
	Radiologic Technologist Responsibilities	286
	Film Screen Mammography Quality Control Tests	286
	Daily	286
	Weekly	287
	Monthly	288
	Quarterly	288
	Semiannual	288
	Mobile Mammography Units	288
	Digital Mammography Quality Control	288
	FDA Alternative Standards for Digital Mammography QA/QC	289
	Questions and Problems	290
23.	BASIC COMPUTER SCIENCE	291
	Introduction	291
	History	291
	Data vs. Information	292
	Computer Operations	293
	Computer Components	293
	Computer Language	299
	Binary Number System	299
	Summary of Applications in Radiology	301
	Questions and Problems	301
24.	DIGITAL X-RAY IMAGING	302
	Introduction: Digital Imaging	302
	Digital Radiography: Direct Capture	302
	Digital Radiography: Indirect Capture	302
	Digital Radiography: Indirect Detectors	303
	Computed Radiography (CR)	304
	CR Equipment Design	306
	Computed Radiography Stimuable Phosphor Read-Out Process	306
	Hounsfield Units and Digital Imaging	306
	Attenuation Coefficients, Voxel, Pixel, and Matrix	307
	Matrix	308
	Exposure Index	308
	Dose Creep	309
	Post Processing	309
	Proper Technique	311
	HIS. RIS. and PACS	311

Contents	xix

	Digital QA	312
	Monitor QA Tests	312
	Digital Radiography Image Quality Items/Tests	312
	Digital Fluoroscopy	313
	Future Prospects	317
	Digital Imaging Summary	317
	Conclusion	319
	Questions and Problems	319
25.	COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY	320
	Conventional CT Scanning	320
	CT Detectors	323
	CT Subject Contrast	325
	Hounsfield Equation	327
	Linear Attenuation Coefficient (μ)	328
	CT Reconstruction Processes	328
	Backprojection	328
	Fourier Reconstruction	329
	Clinical Utility of CT Reconstruction	330
	Spiral (Helical) CT Scanning	332
	CT Tubes	333
	Pitch	334
	Single Section Pitch	334
	Multiple Section Pitch	334
	Multislice CT	335
	Dose Issues	335
	CT Dose Methods	337
	Questions and Problems	337
	~	
26.	RADIOACTIVITY AND DIAGNOSTIC NUCLEAR MEDICINE	338
	Introduction	338
	Natural Radioactivity	339
	Unstable Atoms	339
	Radioactive Series	339
	Radium	339
	Introduction	339
	Properties	340
	Types of Radiation	340
	Radioactive Decay	341
	Decay Constant	341
	Half-Life	342
	Average Life	342

	Radon	343
	Radioactive Equilibrium	343
	Artificial Radioactivity	343
	Isotopes	344
	Artificial Radionuclides	344
	Nuclear Reactor	345
	Nuclear Transformations	348
	Properties of Artificial Radionuclides	348
	Radioactive Decay	349
	Application of Radionuclides in Medicine	351
	Radionuclide Instrumentation	351
	Sources of Error in Counting	354
	Efficiency and Sensitivity of Counters	356
	Geometric Factors in Counting	357
	Methods of Counting	359
	Important Medical Radionuclides	359
	Examples of the Use of Radionuclides in Medical Diagnosis	360
	Imaging with Radionuclides: The Gamma Camera	362
	Collimators	363
	Gamma Camera Collimators	364
	CRYSTAL	364
	Crystal-Photomultiplier Complex	365
	Single-Photon Emission Computed Tomography (SPECT)	365
	Available Radionuclide Imaging	366
	Positron Emission Tomography (PET)	368
	PET Scanner Design	368
	PET Radionuclides	369
	PET Physics	369
	Correction Factors	369
	Calibration of Radiopharmaceuticals and Gamma Cameras	370
	Radiopharmaceuticals	370
	Cyclotrons and Nuclear Medicine	370
	Questions and Problems	371
27.	RADIOBIOLOGY	373
	Definition	373
	History	373
	The Physical Basis of Radiobiology	374
	Radiobiologic Effects	376
	Structure and Function of Cells	376
	Nucleus	376
	Cytoplasm	377
	Cell Reproduction	378

<i>a</i>	
Contents	XXI

	Mitosis
	Meiosis
	Structure of DNA
	Functions of DNA
	The Radiobiologic Lesion
	Modes of Action of Ionizing Radiation
	Cellular Response to Radiation
	Nuclear Damage
	Cytoplasmic Damage
	Cellular Radiosensitivity
	Modifying Factors in Radiosensitivity
	Acute Whole-Body Radiation Syndromes
	Explanation of Acute Whole-Body Radiation Syndromes
	Dose-Response Models
	Sigmoid Dose–Response Curve
	Linear Dose–Response Curve
	Linear-Quadratic Dose–Response Curve
	Injurious Effects of Radiation on Normal Tissues
	Early Effects: Limited Areas of the Body
	Late Effects
	Late Somatic Effects in High-Dose Region
	Dose Response Models and Cancer Initiation
	One-Hit Model
	Probit Model
	Weibull Model
	Multistage Model
	Late Somatic Effects in Low-Dose Region
	Risk Estimates for Genetic Damage
	Radiation Injury to Embryo and Fetus
	Questions and Problems
28.	PROTECTION IN RADIOLOGY—HEALTH PHYSICS
	Introduction
	Background Radiation 40
	BERT4
	Dose Limits, Stochastic and Non-Stochastic Effects
	Risk Assessment
	Hazard Identification 4
	Dose–Response Assessment
	Exposure Assessment
	Risk Characterization
	Risk Communication
	Derivation of Unit for Risk Assessment

	Equivalent Dose	411
	Effective Dose	412
	Numerical Dose Equivalent Limits	415
	Occupational	415
	Fertile or Pregnant Radiation Workers	416
	Nonoccupational (General Public) Limit	416
	ALARA Concept	417
	Personnel Protection from Exposure to X-Rays	417
	Protective Measures	420
	Protective Barriers in Radiography and Fluoroscopy	420
	Working Conditions	422
	Acceptance (Compliance) Testing	422
	Protection Surveys	423
	Protection of the Patient in Diagnostic Radiology	425
	Dose Reduction in Radiography	427
	Protection in Mammography	429
	Computed Tomography Scanning	429
	CT Dose Calculations	430
	Computed Tomography Dose Index (CTDI) for Noncontiguous Slices	
	and CTDI for Helical Scans	430
	Dose-Length Products and Effective Dose	431
	Risk Estimates	431
	CT Noise	431
	Patient Protection in Fluoroscopy	432
	Protection from Electric Shock	434
	Protection in Nuclear Medicine	434
	Radiation Monitoring	436
	Gas-Filled Detectors	437
	Detector Efficiency	439
	Unsafe Radiation Practices in Nuclear Medicine	439
	Questions and Problems	439
29.	BONE DENSITOMETRY	441
	Overview of Bone Densitometry	441
	Definition of Osteoporosis	441
	General Risk Factors for Osteoporosis	442
	Prevalence of Osteoporosis	442
	Detection of Osteoporosis	443
	Osteoporosis Detection Technologies	443
	Quantitative Ultrasound (QUS)	444
	QUS Scanning Protocol and Machine Characteristics	445
	Physics of QUS	445
	OUS Advantages	445

0	•••
Contents	XXIII
Contents	AAIII

	Dual Energy X-Ray Absorptiometry (DXA)	445
	DXA Scanning Protocol	446
	DXA Physics	446
	DXA Advantages	447
	Comparison of QUS T Scores and DXA T Scores	448
	Quantitative Computed Tomography (QCT)	449
	QCT Scanning Protocol	449
	QCT Physics	450
	QCT Advantages and Disadvantages	450
	Quality Assurance/Quality Control	450
	Responsibility for Bone Densitometry Unit QA/QC	451
	Use of T Scores in Osteoporosis Analysis	451
	Z Scores and Osteoporosis Screening	452
	Bone Mineral Density and Bone Mass	453
	Treating Osteoporosis	453
	Nonclinical Methods for Treating Osteoporosis	454
	The Importance of Vitamins Regarding Bone Health	455
	Exercise and Osteoporosis Prevention	456
	Conclusion	456
	Questions and Problems	456
	20004010 4114 210020110	100
30.	MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING	457
	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance	457
	Angular Momentum Theory	459
	Resonance	461
	Importance of Relaxation to Clinical MR Imaging	464
	From NMR to MRI	465
	Magnetic Resonance Imaging	466
	Pulse Sequences and Pulse Flip Angles	466
	Production of a Magnetic Resonance Image	466
	Noise in MRI	473
	MR Image Scanning Artifacts	474
	Chemical Shift Artifacts	474
	Wraparound Artifact	474
	Material Artifacts	475
	MRI Equipment	475
	Surface Coils	477
	Typical MRI Unit	478
	Hazards of MRI	480
	Human Exposure Considerations	480
	Functional MRI as a Screening Tool	484
	Functional MRI and Stroke Assessment.	485
	Perfusion MRI Imaging	485
	0 0	

	Fast FLAIR Brain-Imaging Techniques	486
	Diffusion-Weighted Brain Imaging	486
	Scanning Pulse Sequences for DWI	488
	Diffusion Weighted MRI Image Appearance	488
	Diffusion-Weighted Imaging Pulse Sequences	489
	Diffusion-Weighted Brain Mapping	489
	Conclusion	490
	Questions and Problems	491
31.	ULTRASOUND IMAGING	492
	Nature of Sound	492
	Properties of Ultrasound	493
	Ultrasound Process	494
	Production of Ultrasound	494
	Types of Piezoelectric Crystals	495
	Image Construction	496
	Ultrasound Beam Characteristics	496
	Echo Reception of Ultrasound	498
	Behavior of Ultrasound in Matter	498
	Different Types of Reflection	500
	Specular Reflection	500
	Scattering	500
	Ultrasound Image Displays	501
	Common Ultrasound Procedures	503
	Features of an Ultrasound Image: Presentation	504
	Features of an Ultrasound Image: Depth	504
	Typical Appearance of Normal Tissue	504
	Enhancement	504
	Anisotropy	504
	Frame Rate	506
	Ultrasound Quality Assurance Factors	506
	Artifacts	506
	Potential Biohazards of Ultrasound	508
	Questions and Problems	508
32.	FUSION IMAGING	509
	Definition and Purpose of Fusion Imaging	509
	Technical Aspects of Fusion Imaging	509
	History of Fusion Imaging	509
	Fusion Imaging Advantages	509
	Fusion-imaging Algorithms/Processes	510
	Classification of Fusion-imaging Algorithms	510
	Low-level Fusion Techniques (Pivel level)	510

α	
Contents	XXV
Contents	AAV

	Spatial Transform Domain and Frequency Domain Transform	51.
	Image Registration Overview	512
	Data Registration	512
	Structure Mapping	512
	Pixel-level Techniques: Transform Domain Multiresolution	513
	Networking Requirements	513
	Fusion-imaging Hardware	513
	Modalities of Image Fusion	514
	Nuclear Medicine and Fusion Imaging	514
	Radiation Therapy and Fusion Imaging	515
	Overall Advantages of Fusion Imaging by Modality	515
	Technologist Training in Fusion Imaging	516
	Summary	516
	Questions and Problems	516
33.	MOLECULAR IMAGING	517
	Molecular Imaging	517
	Increased Digitization of Diagnostic and Therapeutic Imaging Data	517
	Human Genome	518
	Increased Technological Ability to Analyze Human Genes and Tissue	
	at the Molecular Level	518
	Genes	522
	Chromosomes	523
	Mitosis and Meiosis	524
	Disease and Pathology	524
	Molecular Imaging, Biomarkers, and Monoclonal Antibodies	524
	Molecular Imaging and Monoclonal Antibodies	524
	Imaging Probes	525
	Molecular Probes	525
	Nuclear Medicine Imaging Probes	526
	Magnetic Resonance Imaging Probes	527
	Ultrasound Imaging Probe	527
	Optical Imaging	528
	Molecular Imaging Strategies	529
	Direct Imaging	529
	Conclusion	530
	Questions and Problems	530
Appena	dix–Answers to Problems	531
	raphy	541
Index		551

SELMAN'S THE FUNDAMENTALS OF IMAGING PHYSICS AND RADIOBIOLOGY

Chapter 1

SIMPLIFIED MATHEMATICS

Learning Objectives

After completing this chapter, the reader will be able to:

- Define mathematics and the differences between arithmetic, algebra, and plane geometry.
- Describe ratio and proportion.
- · Describe differences between charts and graphs.

ALL OF THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES have in common a firm basis in mathematics. This is no less true of radiologic physics, an important branch of the physical sciences. Clearly, then, in approaching a course in radiologic physics you, as a student radiographer, graduate student, or radiology resident, should find your path smoothed by an adequate background in the appropriate areas of mathematics.

We shall assume here that you have had at least basic exposure to mathematics, although this may vary widely from place to place. However, realizing that much of this material may have become hazy with time, we shall review the simple but necessary aspects of arithmetic,

- Describe differences between small and large numbers.
- Describe logarithms.
- Answer questions and solve the problems at the end of the chapter.

algebra, ratio and proportion, and plane geometry. Such a review should be beneficial in at least two ways. First, it should make it easier to understand the basic principles and concepts of radiologic physics. Second, it should aid in the solution of such everyday problems as conversion of radiographic techniques, interpretation of tube rating charts, determination of radiographic magnification, and many others that may arise from time to time.

The discussion will be subdivided as follows: (1) arithmetic, (2) algebra, (3) ratio and proportion, (4) geometry, (5) graphs and charts, (6) large and small numbers and (7) logarithms. Only fundamental principles will be included in this chapter.

ARITHMETIC

Arithmetic is calculation or problem-solving by means of definite numbers. We shall assume that you are familiar with addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division and shall therefore omit these operations.

Fractions

In arithmetic, a fraction may be defined as one or more equal parts of a unit. For example, ½, ½, and ½ are fractions. The

quantity below the line is called the *denominator*; it indicates the number of equal parts into which the unit is divided. The quantity above the line is the *numerator*; it indicates the number of equal parts taken. Thus, if a pie were divided into three equal parts, the denominator would be 3; and if two of these parts were taken, the numerator would be 2, so, the two segments would represent $\frac{2}{3}$ of the pie.

Fractions represent *the division of one quantity by another*. This extends the concept

of fractions to expressions in which the numerator is larger than the denominator, as in the fraction ½.

If the numerator is smaller than the denominator, as 3/5, we have a **proper fraction**. If the numerator is larger than the denominator, as 5/3, we have an *improper fraction*, because $5 \div 3 = 1\frac{1}{3}$, which is really an integer plus a fraction.

In adding fractions, all of which have the **same** denominator, add all the numerators first and then place the sum over the denominator:

$$\frac{2}{7} + \frac{3}{7} + \frac{6}{7} + \frac{5}{7} = \frac{2+3+6+5}{7} = \frac{16}{7}$$
$$\frac{16}{7} = 2\frac{2}{7}$$

Subtraction of fractions having identical denominators follows the same rule:

$$\frac{6}{7} - \frac{4}{7} = \frac{6-4}{7} = \frac{2}{7}$$

If fractions are added or subtracted, and the denominators are different, then the least common denominator must be found. This is the smallest number which is exactly divisible by all the denominators. Thus,

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} - \frac{3}{4} = ?$$

The smallest number which is divided exactly by each denominator is 12. Place 12 in the denominator of a new fraction:

Divide the denominator of each of the fractions in the old equation into 12, and then multiply the answer by the numerator of that fraction; each result is then placed in the numerator of the new fraction:

$$\frac{6+8-9}{12} = \frac{5}{12}$$

Multiplying fractions means taking their product. To multiply fractions, take the product of the numerators and place it over the product of the denominators,

$$\frac{4}{5} \times \frac{3}{10} = \frac{4 \times 3}{5 \times 10} = \frac{12}{50}$$

The resulting fraction can be reduced by dividing the numerator and the denominator by the same number, in this case, 2:

$$\frac{12}{50} \div \frac{2}{2} = \frac{6}{25}$$

which cannot be further simplified.

Note that when the numerator and the denominator are both multiplied or divided by the same number, the value of the fraction does not change.

For instance,

$$\frac{3}{5} \times \frac{2}{2} = \frac{6}{10}$$

is the same as
$$\frac{3}{5} \times 1 = \frac{3}{5}$$

When two fractions are to be divided, as $\frac{4}{5} \div \frac{3}{7}$, the fraction that is to be divided is the **dividend** and the fraction that does the dividing is called the **divisor**. In this case, $\frac{4}{5}$ is the dividend and $\frac{3}{7}$ the divisor. The rule is to invert the divisor (called "taking the reciprocal") and multiply the dividend by it:

$$\frac{4}{5} \div \frac{3}{7}$$

$$\frac{4}{5} \times \frac{7}{3} = \frac{28}{15} = 1\frac{13}{15}$$

Percent

A special type of fraction, **percent**, is represented by the sign % to indicate that the number standing with it is to be divided by 100. Thus, 95% = 95/100. We do not use percentages directly in mathematical computations but first convert them to fractions or decimals. For instance,

$$150 \times 40\%$$
 is changed to $150 \times 40/100$ or $150 \times 2/5$ or 150×0.40 .

All these expressions equal 60.

Decimal Fractions

Our common method of representing numbers as multiples of ten is embodied in the **decimal system**. A **decimal fraction** has as its denominator 10, or 10 raised to some power such as 100, 1000, 10,000, etc. The denominator is symbolized by a dot in a certain position. For example, the decimal 0.2 = 2/10; 0.02 = 2/100; 0.002 = 2/1000, etc. Decimals can be multiplied or divided, but care must be taken to place the decimal point in the proper position:

$$\begin{array}{r}
2.24 \\
\underline{\psi 1.25} \\
1120 \\
448 \\
\underline{224} \\
2.8000
\end{array}$$

First, add the total number of digits to the right of the decimal points in the numbers being multiplied, which in this case turns out to be four. Then point off four places from the right in the answer to determine the correct position of the decimal point. The decimal system is used everywhere in science and in the vast majority of countries in daily life.

Significant Figures

The precision (reproducibility of results) of any type of measurement is limited by the design of the measuring instrument. For example, a scale calibrated in grams as shown in Figure 1.1 allows an estimate to the nearest tenth of a gram. Thus, the scale in Figure 1.1 reads 8.4 g. The last figure, 0.4, is estimated and is the *last significant figure*—that is, it is the last meaningful digit. Obviously, no greater precision is possible with this particular instrument. To improve precision, the scale would have to show a greater number of subdivisions.



Figure 1.1. With this calibrated scale, we can estimate to the nearest tenth. Thus, the position of the pointer indicates 8.4 units, the 0.4 being the last significant figure.

Significant figures are used in various mathematical operations. For example, in addition:

Item 1	98.26 g
Item 2	$1.350~\mathrm{g}$
Item 3	<u>260.1</u> g
	359.710 g

Notice that three digits appear after the decimal point in the answer. But in item (3), there is only one digit, 1, after the decimal point; beyond this, the digits are unknown. Therefore, the digits after the 7 in the answer imply more than is known, since the answer can be no more precise than the least precise item being added. In this case, the answer should be properly stated as 359.7. In addition and subtraction, the answer can have no more significant figures after the decimal point than the item with the *least number of significant figures after its decimal point*.

A different situation exists in multiplication and division. Here, the total number of significant figures in the answer equals that in the items having the *least total number of significant figures*. For example, in

$$25.23$$
 cm
 ψ 1.21 cm
 2523
 5046
 2523
 30.5283 cm²

1.21 cm has fewer significant figures—three in all—so the answer should have three significant figures and be read as 30.5 (dropping the 0.0283).

In general, to **round off** significant figures, observe the following rule: if the digit following the last significant figure is equal to or greater than 5, the last significant figure is increased by 1; if less than 5, it is unchanged. The rule is applied in the following examples:

45.157 is rounded to 45.16 45.155 is rounded to 45.16 45.153 is rounded to 45.15

where the answer is to be expressed in four significant figures.

ALGEBRA

The word *algebra*, derived from the Arabic language, connotes that branch of mathematics which deals with the relationship of quantities usually represented by letters of the alphabet—Roman, Greek, or Hebrew.

Operations. Mathematical operations with *letter symbols* are the same as with *numerals*, since both are symbolic representations of numbers which, in themselves, are abstract concepts. For example, the concept "four" may be represented by 4, 2^2 , 2×2 , 2 + 2, or 3 + 1; or by the letter x if the value of x is specifically designated to represent "four." In algebra, just as in arithmetic, the fundamental operations include addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; and there are fractions, proportions, and equations. Algebra provides a method of finding an unknown quantity when the relationship of certain known quantities is specified.

Algebraic operations are indicated by the same symbols as in arithmetic:

+ (plus) add

/ (minus) subtract

× (times) multiply

 \div (divided by) divide

= equals

To indicate *addition* in algebra, use the general expression

$$x + y$$
 (1)

The symbols x and y, called **variables**, may represent any number or quantity. Thus, if x = 4 and y = 7, then, substituting these values in equation (1),

$$4 + 7 = 11$$

Similarly, to indicate **subtraction** in algebra, use the general expression

If x = 9 and y = 5, then 9 / 5 = 4

Notice that algebraic symbols may represent whole numbers, fractions, zero, and negative numbers among others. Negative numbers are those whose value is less than zero and are

designated as / x. In algebraic terms, add a positive and a negative number as follows:

$$x + / y$$

If x = 8 and /y = /3, then

$$8 + / 3$$

is the same as

$$8/3 = 5$$

The + sign is omitted in the designation of positive numbers, being reserved to indicate the operation of addition.

On the other hand, to subtract a negative quantity from a positive one

If x = 4 and /y = /6, then

is the same as

$$4 + 6 = 10$$

Multiplication in algebra follows the same rules as in arithmetic. However, in the multiplication of letter symbols the \times sign is omitted, $x \times y$ being written as xy. If x = 3 and y = 5, then substituting in the expression xy,

$$3 \times 5 = 15$$

Division in algebra is customarily expressed as a fraction. Thus, $x \div y$ is written as x/y. If x = 3 and y = 5, then

$$3 \div 5 = \frac{3}{5}$$

When two negative quantities are multiplied or divided, the answer is positive. Thus, $/ x \times / y = xy$ and / x// y = x/y. When a positive and a negative quantity are multiplied or divided, the answer is negative; thus, $x \times / y = / xy$, and $x \div / y = / x/y$.

In solving an algebraic expression consisting of a collection of **terms** we must perform the indicated **multiplication and division first** and then carry out the indicated addition and subtraction. An example will clarify this:

$$ab + c/d / f = ?$$

Suppose a = 2, b = 3, c = 4, d = 8, and f = 5. Substituting in the preceding expression,

$$2 \times 3 + \frac{4}{8} - 5 = ?$$

Performing multiplication and division first,

$$6 + \frac{4}{8} - 5 = ?$$

Then, performing addition and subtraction,

$$6\frac{4}{8} - 5 = 1\frac{4}{8} = 1\frac{1}{2}$$

A parenthesis inclosing a group of terms indicates that all of the terms inside the parenthesis are to be multiplied by the term outside the parenthesis. This is simplified by performing all the indicated operations in correct sequence—inside the parenthesis first—and then multiplying the result by the quantity outside the parenthesis. For example,

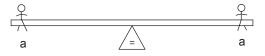
$$6 (8 / 4 + 3 \times 2) = 6 (8 / 4 + 6) = 6 \times 10 = 60$$

Equations. The simpler algebraic equations can be solved without difficulty by the application of basic rules. You can easily verify these rules by substituting numerals. In the equation

$$a+b=c+d\tag{2}$$

a+b is called the **left side** and c+d the **right side**. Each letter is called a term. If any quantity is added to one side of the equation, the same quantity must be added to the other side in order for this to remain an equation. Similarly, if any quantity is subtracted from one side, the same quantity must be subtracted from the other side. To simplify the concept of the equation, we may picture it as a see-saw as in Figure 1.2. If persons of equal weight are placed at each end, the board will remain horizontal—the equation is balanced. If a second person is now added to one end of the see-saw, a person of similar

weight must be added to the other end in order to keep the board level.



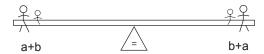


Figure 1.2. Analogy of algebraic equation to a see-saw.

Return again to the simple equation:

$$a + b = c + d$$

in which each term is a variable. If any three of the variables are known, the fourth can be found. Suppose, *a* is 3, *b* is 4, *c* is 1, and *d* is unknown. Substituting these values in the equation,

$$3 + 4 = 1 + d$$

How can *d* be found? Simply rearrange the equation so that *d* is alone, that is, **the only term in its side**. In this case, subtract 1 from both sides of the equation. However, a mathematical short cut can be used: **a term may be transposed from one side of an equation to the other side, provided it is given the opposite sign**. Following this rule, 1 becomes a minus 1 when moved to the left side. Thus,

$$3 + 4 / 1 = d$$

 $6 = d$
or, $d = 6$

Usually, in solving algebraic equations, rearrange the terms before substituting their numerical values. In the equation a + b = c + d to find d, transpose c to the left side and change its sign.

$$a + b / c = d$$

or, $d = a + b / c$

(Reversing both sides of an equation does not alter its equality.)

In algebraic equations in which terms are multiplied or divided, analogous rules apply. For example, equation

$$x = y/z$$

may be solved for y by multiplying both sides by z,

$$xz = yz / z$$

$$xz = y$$
or,
$$y = xz$$

The same result may be obtained by moving z from the denominator of the right side to the numerator of the left side. Thus, we have the short-cut rule for cross-multiplication: if the denominator of one side of an equation is moved, it multiplies the numerator of the other side and, conversely, if the numerator of one side is moved, it multiplies the denominator of the other side.

Suppose that in the equation x = y/z, x and y are known, then z is solved as follows: move z into the numerator of the opposite side as a multiplier,

$$\chi z = y$$

and move *x* into the denominator of the right side as a multiplier, and

$$z ? y/x$$
 (3)

The above rule can be readily tested. Suppose that y is 12 and x is 3. Substituting in equation (3),

$$z = \frac{12}{3}$$
z? 4
$$4 = \frac{12}{3}$$
 (4)

If we wish to move 3, we must place it in the numerator of the left side of equations (4),

$$4 \times 3$$
 ? 12 (4a)

Note that numerical equations (4) and (4a) balance.

Now, referring again to equation (4), suppose we wish to move 12. We must place it in the denominator of the left side

$$\frac{4}{12} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Again, it is evident that the equation balances.

RATIO AND PROPORTION

A **ratio** is a fixed relationship between two quantities, simply indicating how many times larger or smaller one quantity is relative to another. It has essentially the same meaning as a fraction. One symbol that expresses a ratio is the colon (:). Thus, *a:b* is read "*a* is to *b*." Or, 1:2 is read "1 is to 2." In modern mathematics, ratios are usually represented as fractions:

a:b is the same as
$$a/b$$
 1:2 is the same as $\frac{1}{2}$

As noted above, the fraction $\frac{1}{2}$ indicates that the numerator is $\frac{1}{2}$ as large as the denominator. Similarly, $\frac{2}{3}$ indicates that the numerator is $\frac{2}{3}$ as large as the denominator.

The meaning of ratio is important to the technologist because it underlies the concept of **proportion**, defined as **an expression showing that two given ratios are equal**. Thus, we may have an algebraic proportion,

$$a/b = c/d \tag{5}$$

which is read "a is to b as c is to d." The same idea can also be represented numerically. For example,

$$\frac{3}{6} = \frac{4}{8}$$

If any three terms of a proportion are known, the fourth may easily be determined. Suppose in proportion (5) a is 2, b is 4, d is 8, and c is to be found. Then,

$$\frac{2}{4} = \frac{6}{8}$$

Moving 8 to the numerator of the left side (cross multiplying),

$$\frac{2\times8}{4} = c$$

$$c = \frac{16}{4} = 4$$

There are three general types of proportions that pertain to radiography.