

## Imaging Science: Bringing the Invisible to Light

### Introduction to Medical Imagery

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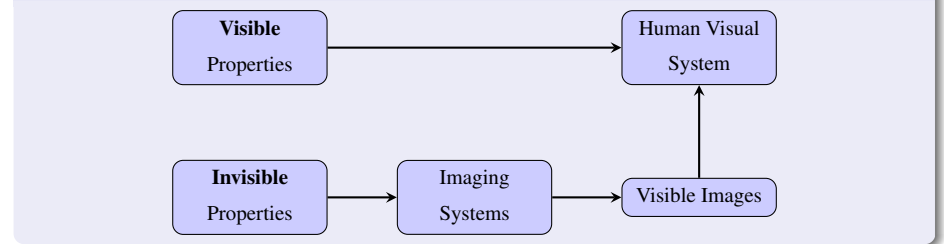
2012/10/23

## Purpose of Medical Images

Medical images allow us to see

- Anatomy (bones, soft tissues, ...)
- Anatomical Movement (heart, lung, ...)
- Physiological measures (blood flow, ...)
- Metabolism processes (biochemistry: use of radioactive markers)

### Principle of Medical Image Acquisition



## Imaging Science: Bringing the Invisible to Light

Element	Imaging Systems	Abbreviations
Light	Endoscopy	–
Ultra-sound	Ultra-sound imaging Doppler Effect	US Duplex US
X-Ray	X-Ray imaging Digital Angiography Computed Tomography Computed Tomography Angiography	XR DSA CT-Scan CTA
Gamma Ray	Scintigraphy Single Photon Emission Computed Tomography Positron Emission Tomography	SPECT PET
Electromagnetic Field	Magnetic Resonance Imagery Magnetic Resonance Angiography	MRI MRA

## Principle

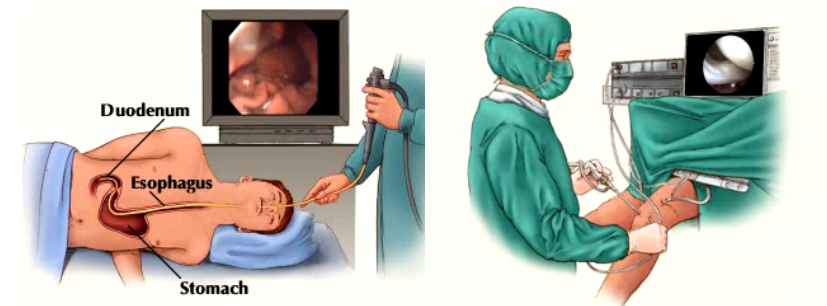
### Medical Terminology

- *endo*: within
- *scopy*: examination of
- *scopy* = visualization of a body part by means of a scope.

Endoscopy = looking inside

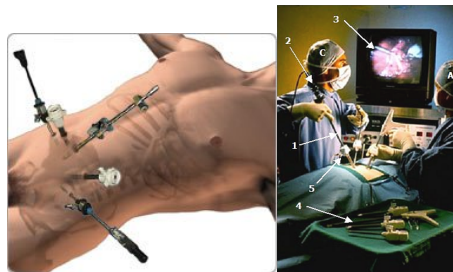
A minimally invasive way to *look inside*

## Endoscopy with fibroscope / Arthroscopy



<http://www.mayoclinic.com>

## Laparoscopy



- C Assistant
- A Surgeon
- 1 Endoscope
- 2 Endoscopic Video Camera
- 3 Endoscopic Image
- 4 Surgical Instruments

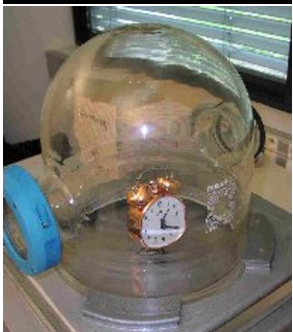
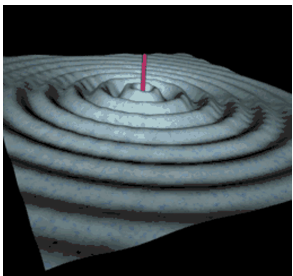
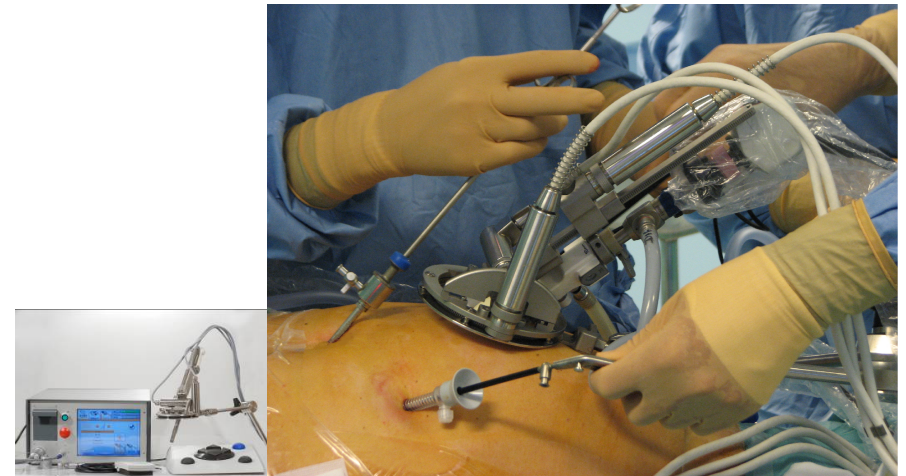
## Endoscopy

### Advantages

- Minimally invasive
- Allows local anesthesia
- quick healing / less reinfection.

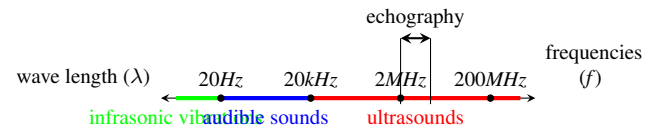
### Drawbacks

- Very partial view
- Need of an assistant to manipulate the endoscope
- Loss of touch sensitivity
- 2D Views



Mechanical waves

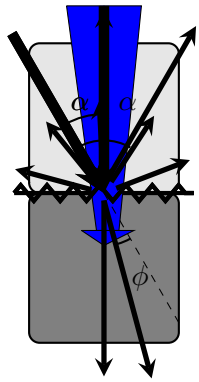
- Propagate through the matter using
  - compressions
  - relaxations
- No propagation in vacuum



Sound propagation speed

Environment	Propagation speed (m/s)
Air	333
Water	1480
Fat matter	1446
Muscle	1542–1626
Blood	1566
Bones	2070–5350

# Interaction with matter



- Absorption
- Reflection (echo)
- Refraction
- Dispersion / Scattering

### Attenuation

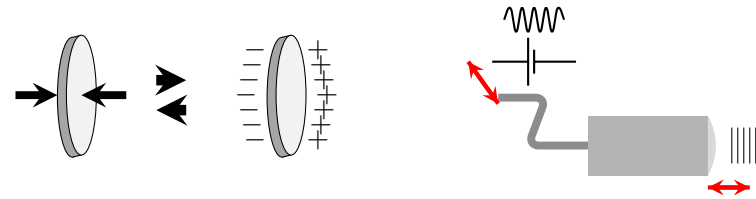
probe frequency	max depth
2,5-3,5 MHz	> 15cm
5 MHz	10cm
7,5 MHz	5-6cm
10 MHz	2-3 cm

# Piezoelectric Effect

### Piezoelectric Effect

Capacity to

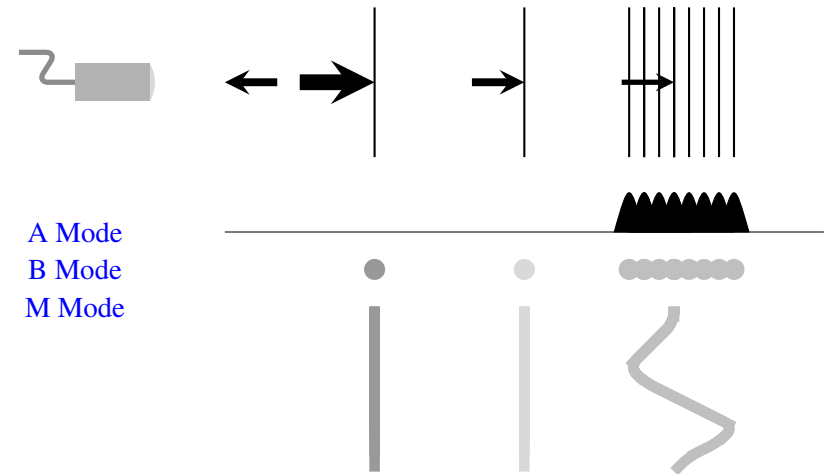
- Charge during a compression
- Bend under electricity



# Hypotheses for Ultrasound Images Reconstruction

- The ultrasound beam is unique
- Only reflections happens
- The distance between the probe and the location of the reflection is calculated using the mean sound speed in soft tissues (1540 m/s)

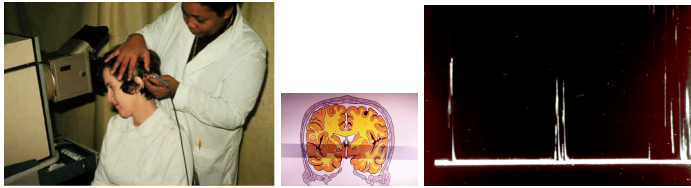
# Ultrasound Imaging in 1D



A Mode  
B Mode  
M Mode

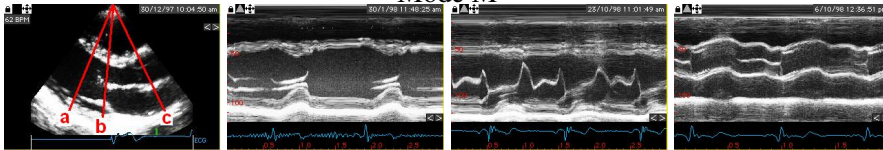
# Ultrasound Imaging in 1D

## Mode A



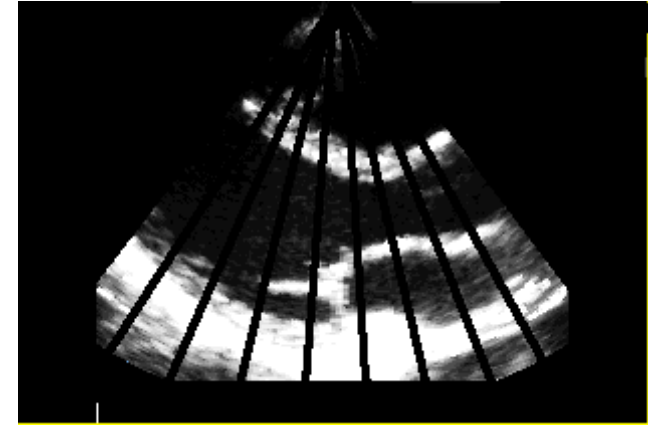
<http://www.obgyn.net/ultrasound/>

## Mode M



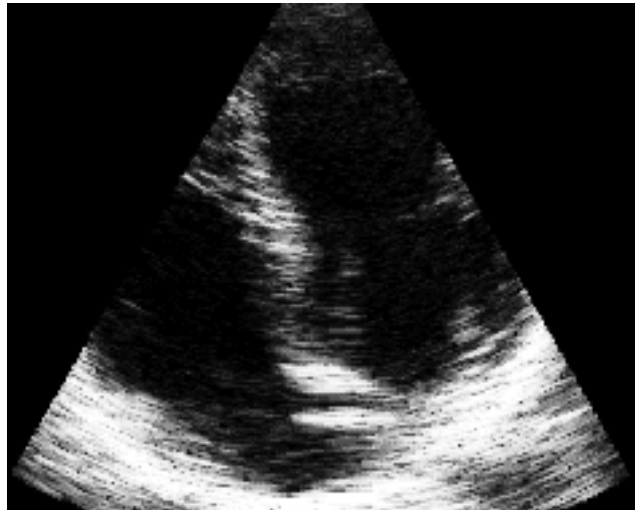
<http://folk.ntnu.no/stoylen/strainrate/Ultrasound>

# Ultrasound Imaging in 2D



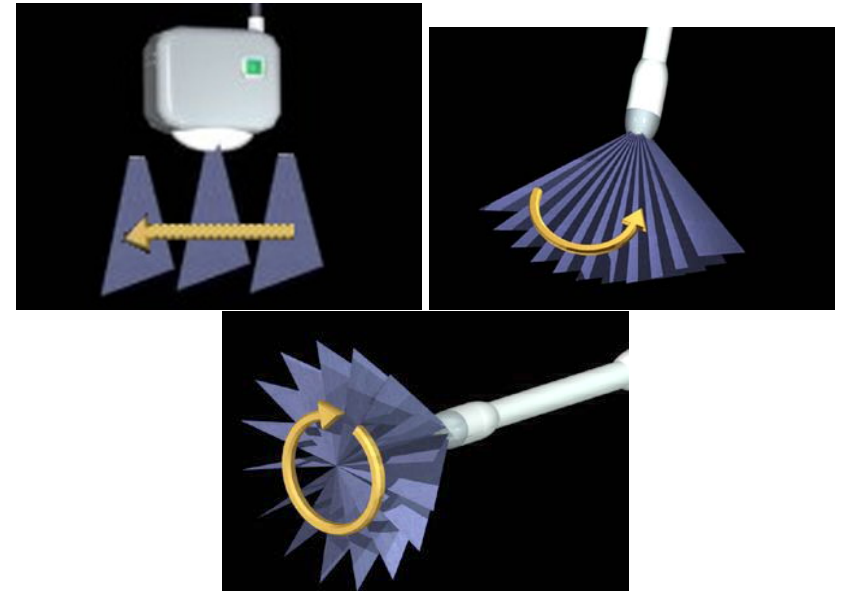
<http://folk.ntnu.no/stoylen/strainrate/Ultrasound>

# 2D + Time Imaging

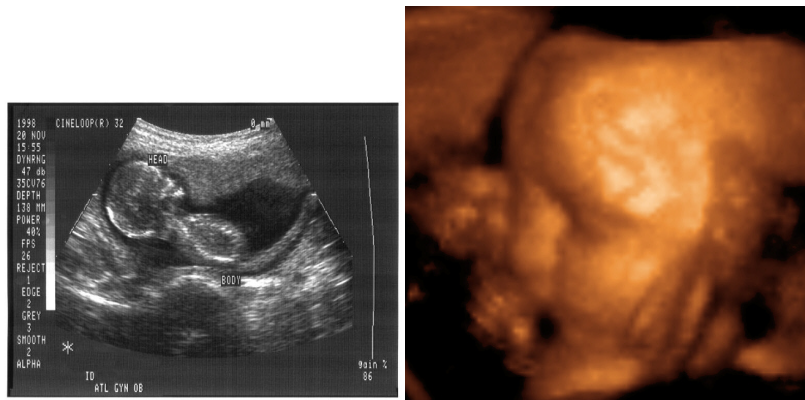


<http://www-sante.ujf-grenoble.fr/sante/CardioCD/cardio/video.htm>

# 3D Ultrasound Imaging



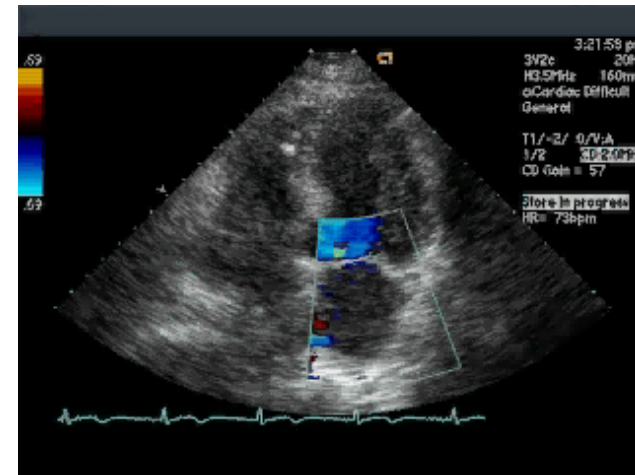
## 3D Ultrasound Imaging



## Conclusion

- Interface Imagery
- Anatomical information
- Functional information (Doppler effect)
- Good Space resolution (about 1mm)
- Good time resolution
- Less expensive than other methods
- Noisy images

## Doppler: Example

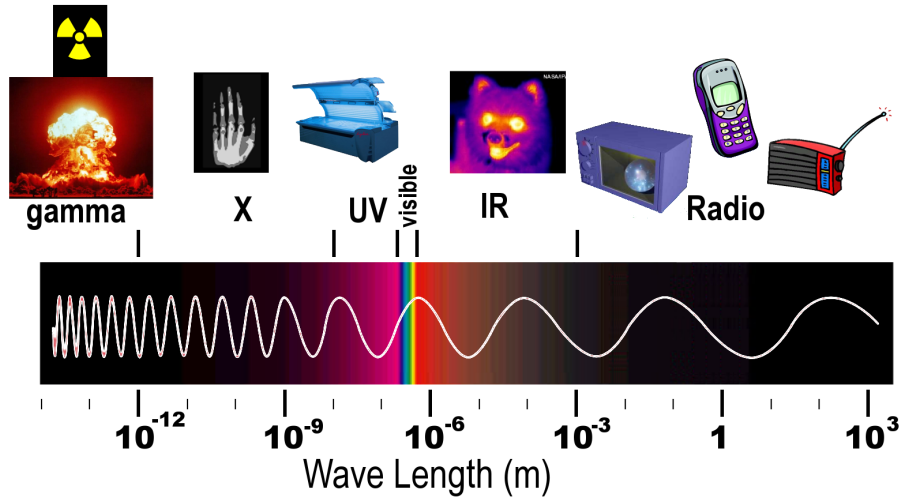


<http://www-sante.ujf-grenoble.fr/sante/CardioCD/cardio/video.htm>

## Questions

- Why is a water-based gel is usually placed between the patient's skin and the probe ?  
*ultrasounds move very slowly in the air.*
- Why do physicians avoid rib bones to image the heart ?  
*ultrasounds are absorbed by bones*
- Why is *speckle* noise a multiplicative noise ?  
*It is ultrasound interferences.*
- Why does a smooth surface slanted with respect to the probe makes the signal disappear ?

## X-Rays



corpuscular theory

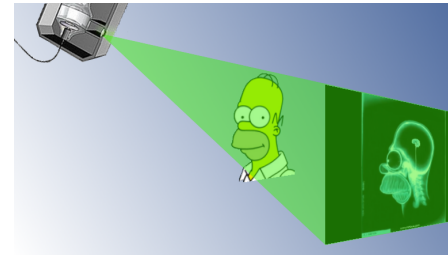
waves theory

## X-Ray photography

Principle : Attenuation of X-Rays differs according to tissues  
(thickness, density, Z, X-Ray energy)

X-Rays may be

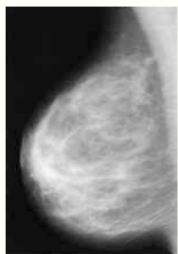
- Not affected
  - ▶ Darkest parts of the radiography
- Stopped (Photoelectric effect)
  - ▶ Gray levels on the image depend on this effect
- Deviated (Compton scattering)
  - ▶ Scattered rays
  - ▶ Produces a uniform shadow on the radiography



## Exemples of application



Fracture



Mammographie



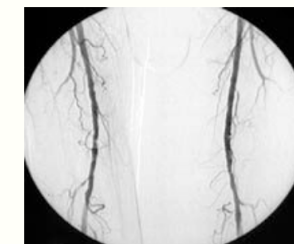
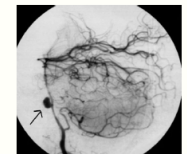
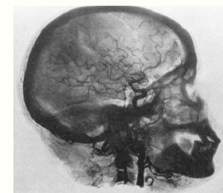
Tube digestif



## Angiography

Injection of a contrast media opaque to X-rays in blood vessels

- ▶ visualization of blood network.



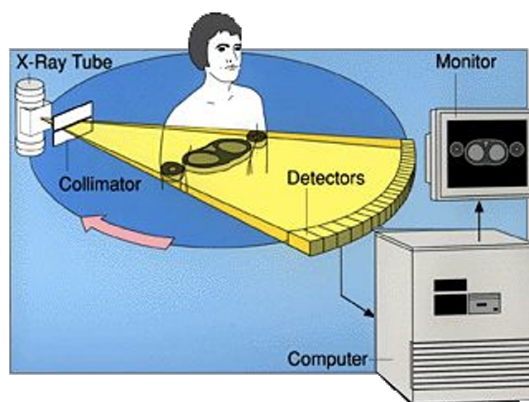
## Conclusion

- Anatomical information
- Good contrast bone / soft tissues (high resolution)
- 70% of medical images
- Dangerous
  - ▶ precautions must be taken for patients (definition of doses and areas exposed to x-rays) and for radiologist
- Loss of information 3D ▶ projection in 2D

## Questions

- Why do radiologists use lead aprons when they perform X-Ray radiology ?
- Why do we baryum or iodine are injected in the patient's blood for angiography ?

## X-Ray Computed Tomography (CT)



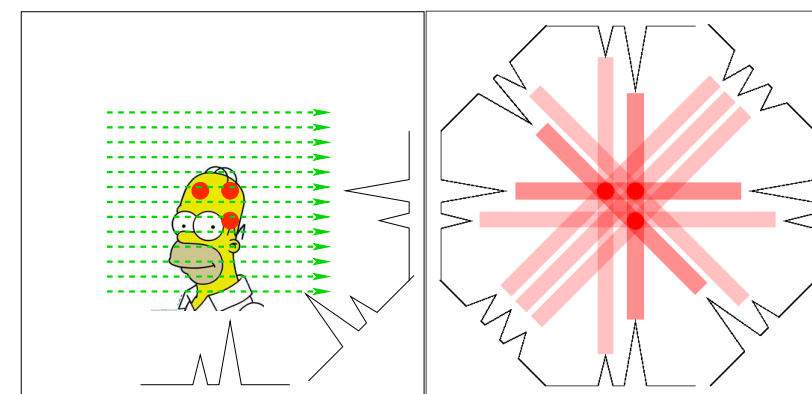
Physical information  
acquisition

Mathematical / computerized  
processing

screen / reconstruction  
visualization

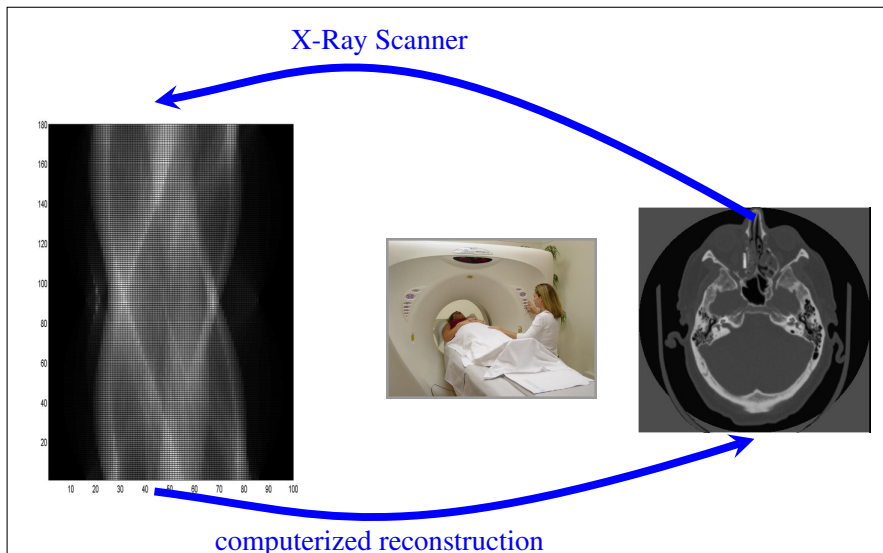
## Computed Tomography: Principle

Mac Cormac' idea : 2D reconstruction from 1D projections

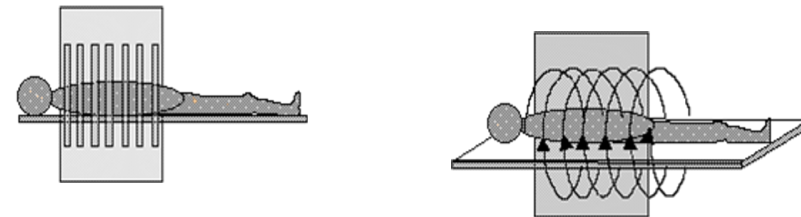




# CT and Radon transform



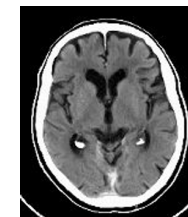
# X-Ray Computed Tomography (CT)



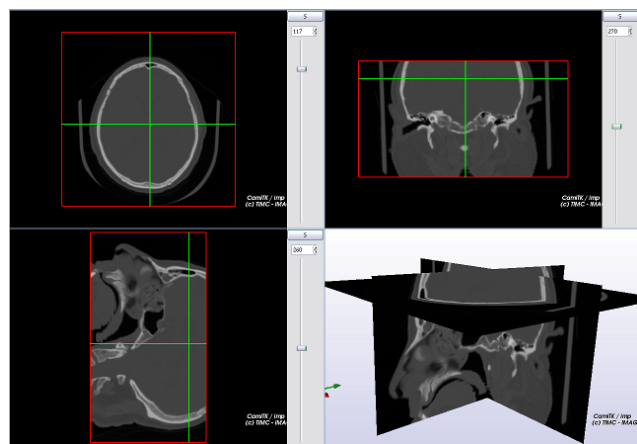
- 1971: Low acquisition (5 minutes) and low reconstruction (15minutes)
- Planar, sequential acquisition



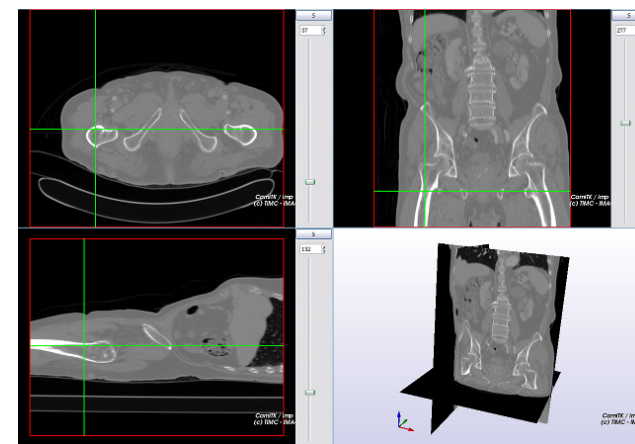
- 80': helicoid scan
- Fast volume acquisition



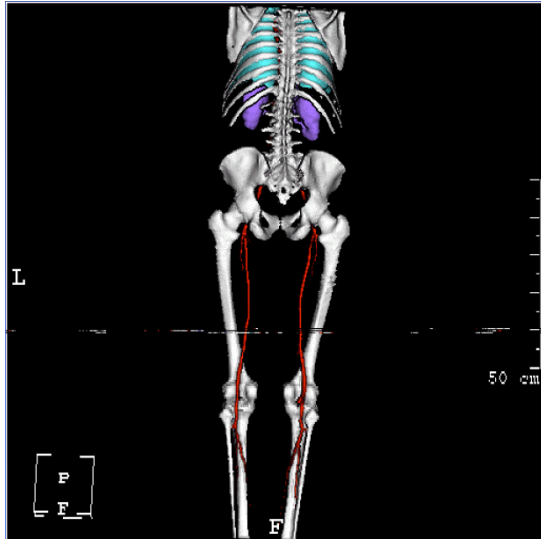
# Examples



# Examples



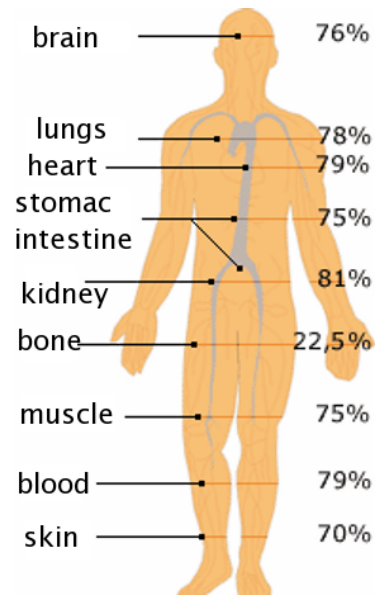
## Examples



## Conclusion

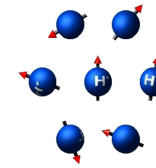
- Good contrast bones / air
- Good spatial resolution ( $\approx 0.5mm$ )
- Fast image acquisition
- No gray level superposition (contrary to radiography)
- Irradiation of the patient
- Risks with contrast media
- Several reconstruction methods

## Hydrogen in human body

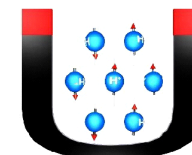


## Nuclear Spin

Outside magnetic field



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Under a macroscopic magnetization field  $\vec{B}_0$ 

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Proton  $H^+$ 

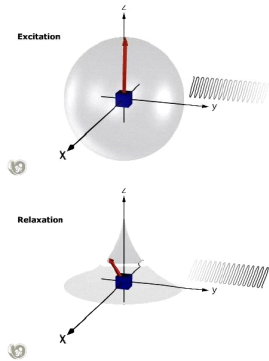
- Nuclear Magnetic Dipole
- Rotating around its axis
- ▶ No Global magnetization

Orientation of the spins in  $\vec{B}_0$  direction

- parallel direction  
*low energy*
- antiparallel direction  
*higher energy*

# Nuclear Magnetic Resonance

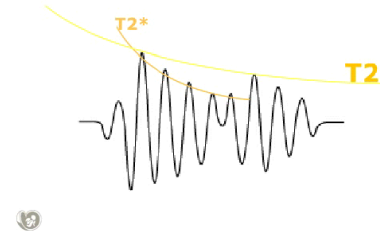
## Interaction with Radio Frequency Wave



- Radio Frequency =  $\omega_0$
- Brings energy to the system
  - ▶ *excitation*
- End of the RF wave
  - ▶ *relaxation*
- energy emission

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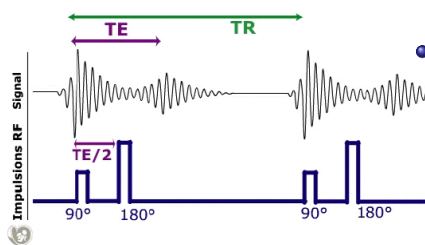
# 180° RF Pulse



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- After a 90° RF pulse
  - spins dephase and transverse magnetization decreases.
- If we apply a 180° RF pulse
  - ▶ spins rephase
- ▶ transverse magnetization reappears

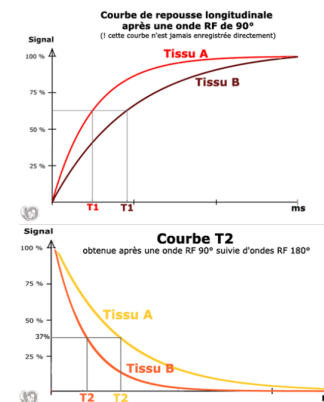
# Spin Echo



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- Repetition of 90° - 180° RF pulses
- Echo Time (TE)
  - time between the 90° RF pulse and MR signal sampling, corresponding to maximum of echo.
  - The 180° RF pulse is applied at time TE/2.
- Repetition Time (TR)
  - time between 2 excitations pulses (time between two 90° RF pulses).

# Signal Weighting (T1, T2, PD)

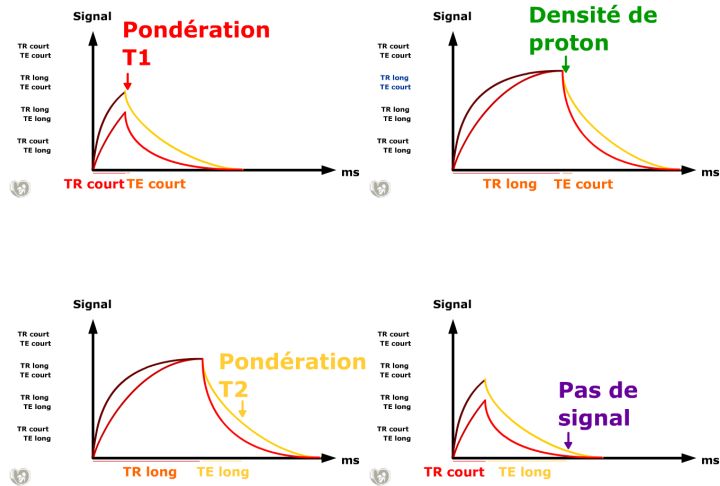


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Each tissue has a specific proton density, T1 and T2 time. The NMR signal depends on these 3 factors.

- T1 : time for the longitudinal magnetization has returned to 63 % of its final value.
- T2 : time for the transverse magnetization has returned to 37 % of its initial value.

## Signal Weighting (T1, T2, PD)

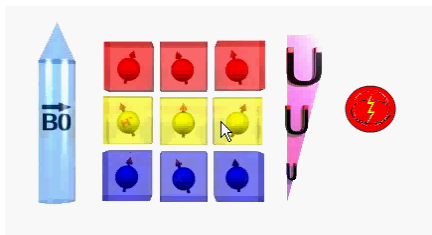


## Spatial Encoding

Spatial localization is based on magnetic field gradients, applied successively along different axes. Magnetic gradient causes the field strength to vary linearly with the distance from the center of the magnet. These gradients are employed for slice selection, phase encoding and frequency encoding.

- Slice selection is performed thanks to a slice selection gradient *SSG*
- Selection of the vertical position and horizontal position of a point within a slice are performed thanks to phase encoding gradient (*PEG*) and frequency encoding gradient (*FEG*).

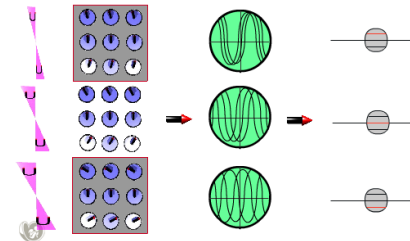
## Slice Selection Gradient



- A magnetic field gradient is applied perpendicular to the desired slice plane (Slice-selection gradient).
- *SSG* adds to  $\vec{B}_0$
- As the magnetic field varies in the direction of the gradient, all the planes perpendicular to the direction of the gradient have different precessional frequencies.
- A RF pulse is applied at the resonance frequency of the spins on the desired slice plane:  
 $\Rightarrow$  only the protons of the desired slice will be excited.

## Phase encoding

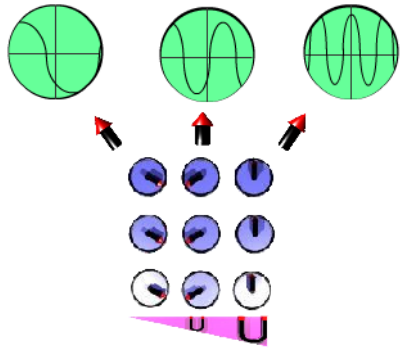
For one of the plane direction



- A magnetic gradient field is applied briefly in the direction of the columns (Oy).
- As the change in frequency is very brief, when the gradient is switched off  
 $\Rightarrow$  It causes a change in phase that is proportional to the distance.
- The protons in the same column have different phases.
- $N$  lines  $\Rightarrow N$  acquisitions with a different phase encoding.

NB: In the following animation, the signals of each row are drawn separately to show the phase shift. The actual recorded signal is a mix of all these signals.

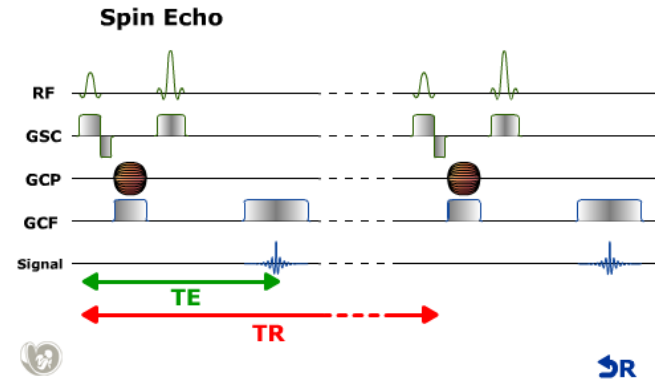
# Frequency encoding



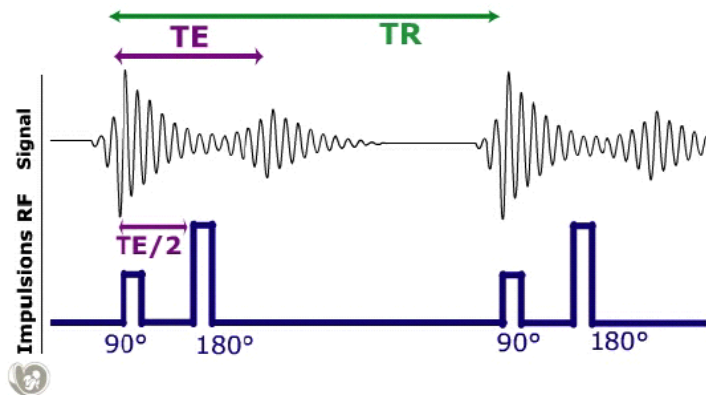
During data acquisition

- Frequency Encoding Gradient *FEG*
- Modifies Larmor frequency of spins  
 ⇒ The MR signal is a mix of all these frequencies (encoding in the frequency-encoding direction) and phase shifts (encoding in the phase-encoding direction).

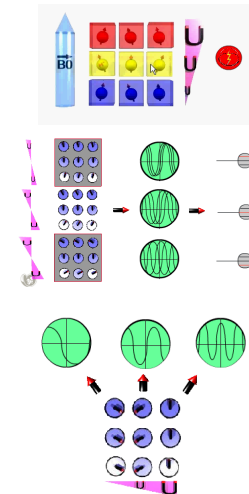
# Spatial Encoding



# MRI Acquisition Sequence



# Spatial Encoding



Slice Selection Gradient  
*(we get one plane)*

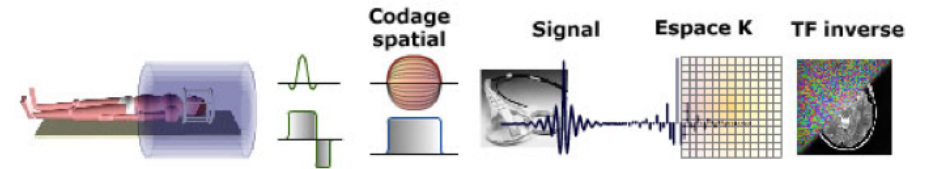
Phase Encoding Gradients  
*phase encoding in 1 direction*

Frequency Encoding Gradients  
*frequency encoding in 1 direction*

# MR Image Formation

- Application of the different steps of MRI acquisition (FR pulses at  $90^\circ$  and  $180^\circ$ )
- Application of the spatial encoding steps
- Signal numerization and signal processing to obtain the numerical image
- Signal RNM stored in a talbe name K Space or Fourier plane or Frequency space
- Inverse Fourier Transform

# MR Image Formation



# Questions

- Why is it difficult to see bones on MRI ?