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Though the meaning of *mA* is clear, **s** can be ambiguous in CT. When **s** means, as shown in the previous slides, the time, t_d , that a point on the axis is exposed to *detected* radiation, *mA* x s is called "effective mAs" or "mAs/slice" (Philips). Thus "effective mAs" or "mAs/slice" in CT has essentially the same meaning as "mAs" does in other x-ray applications.

Not really a word, *mAs* is more of a mix of an acronym and algebraic symbolism and when used by itself in CT, *mAs* often, but not always, means *mA* x s/rotation which is not the same thing and does not tell as complete a story as "effective mAs."

Now semi-official: Tube current time product and effective tube current time product. (AAPM CT Lexicon version 1.1, 08/31/2011)



¹R. L. Dixon and J. M. Boone, Med. Phys. 37, 2703-2718 (2010).

Pitch (IEC)

$$Pitch = \frac{Table \ movement/rotation}{(detected) \ beam \ width}$$

$$p = \frac{b}{nT}$$

where b is the table increment per rotation and p is the pitch. (The word *pitch* has a related meaning for screw threads. A course-threaded screw has a higher pitch than a fine-threaded screw. Usually pitch is used only for helical scans but it could be applied to axial scans as well.)





Proof:

The time t_d is the detected beam width nT divided by the table speed v and so the effective mAs is

$$mAs_{eff} = mA \times t_d = mA \times \frac{nT}{v}$$

Note that the effective mAs is independent of rotation time t_r

Proof (2):

Now, if we multiply and divide by the rotation time t_r , and do some algebra, the effective mAs becomes

$$mAs_{eff} = \frac{mA}{v/(nT)} = \frac{mA \times t_r}{vt_r/(nT)} = \frac{mA \times t_r}{b/(nT)} = \frac{mA \times t_r}{p}$$

where $b = vt_r$ is the table increment per rotation and p is the pitch. The final expression is the one most often used as the definition of effective mAs.











Infinity is impractical. How long does the cylinder need to be to effectively reach D_{eq}?

It is convenient to define L_{eq} as the value of L where D has reached 98% of its limiting value. (This is around 45 cm for 32 cm diameter acrylic.) For this scan of finite length, we no longer have translational symmetry. However, the central region of the scan has the same dose distribution as there *would* be for an infinite scan.



TG200 Phantom (built by John Boone and his team at UC Davis).

30 cm in diameter by 60 cm in length and is made of high density polyethylene. There are three sections, 29.3 lb (13.3 kg mass) each. (The 32 cm CTDI phantom has a mass of 14.4 kg and weighs 31.7 lb). Three holes are bored deep into the phantom for probes.





Dose (energy/mass) integrated
over entire volume of cylinder.
$$E_{tot} = N\rho \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{R} f(r,z) 2\pi r dr dz = \rho N b \int_{0}^{R} 2\pi r dr \left\{ \frac{1}{b} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(r,z) dz \right\} = \rho L \int_{0}^{R} D_{eq}(r) 2\pi r dr$$
$$E_{tot} = \rho \pi R^{2} L \left\{ \frac{1}{\pi R^{2}} \int_{0}^{R} D_{eq}(r) 2\pi r dr \right\} = \rho \pi R^{2} L \overline{D_{eq}}$$

(Note the resemblance of $\overline{D_{eq}}$ and E_{tot} to CTDI_{vol} and DLP.) Though E_{tot} divided by the scanned volume is equal to $\overline{D_{eq}}$, the energy spills out of the scanned volume and so $\overline{D_{eq}}$ is *not* equal to the average energy within the scanned volume (for a finite scan).

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Finite Scans on an Infinite Cylinder: *h*(*L*)

Consider a scan of length *L* along a line (in the *z* direction) within the cylinder. The dose at the center of the scan is D(L) and

$$\lim_{L\to\infty} D(L) = D_{eq}$$

Define $h(L) = D(L)/D_{eq}$.

- h(L) has the limiting upper value of 1 as L increases.
- h(L) is nearly independent of kV and collimation width.
- The scatter component is significantly greater in the center than at the periphery.

CTDI_L and D(L)

$$CTDI_L = \frac{1}{nT} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} f(z) dz$$

$$D(L) = \frac{1}{b} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} f(z) dz$$

b is the table increment per rotation and *nT* is the *detected* beam width, measured at the axis of rotation. *nT* is less than the collimated beam width *a*. (For a pitch of 1, the actual beam overlaps the detectors.) In the limit as *L* grows very large, these parameters go to $CTDI_{\infty}$ and D_{eq} . (In order to confuse matters further, $CTDI_{vol}$ effectively has the divisor *b* instead of *nT*. More on that later.

































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effective diameter. The individual data points correspond to four independent research groups, as indicated in the key. (Mc=McCollough, MG=McNitt-Gray, TS=Toth/Strauss, ZB=Zhou/Boone). Scanners represented are also indicated in the key (GE=General Electric, Si=Siemens, Ph=Phillips, To=Toshiba, Mx=Mixed Scanner manufacturers).







So, how does this affect patient dose in a child?

- Magnification requires a higher detector dose.
- But lower attenuation allows us to reduce dose.
- How does this balance out? Along with size considerations, we also need to account for the diagnostic needs of the child.
- Goske, Strauss et al., suggest that SSDE can be used to adjust an adult protocol to fit a child (or a small adult or a very large adult).
- (What about slice width?)

M. J. Goske, K. J. Strauss et al., "Diagnostic Reference Ranges for Pediatric Abdominal CT," Radiology 268(1), 208-218 (2013).



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