



Designation: E2007 – 08

Standard Guide for Computed Radiography¹

This standard is issued under the fixed designation E2007; the number immediately following the designation indicates the year of original adoption or, in the case of revision, the year of last revision. A number in parentheses indicates the year of last reapproval. A superscript epsilon (ϵ) indicates an editorial change since the last revision or reapproval.

1. Scope

1.1 This guide provides general tutorial information regarding the fundamental and physical principles of computed radiography (CR), definitions and terminology required to understand the basic CR process. An introduction to some of the limitations that are typically encountered during the establishment of techniques and basic image processing methods are also provided. This guide does not provide specific techniques or acceptance criteria for specific end-user inspection applications. Information presented within this guide may be useful in conjunction with those standards of section 1.2.

1.2 CR techniques for general inspection applications may be found in Practice E2033. Technical qualification attributes for CR systems may be found in Practice E2445. Criteria for classification of CR system technical performance levels may be found in Practice E2446. Reference Images Standard E2422 contains digital reference acceptance illustrations.

1.3 The values stated in inch-pound units are to be regarded as standard. The values given in parentheses are mathematical conversions to SI units that are provided for information only and are not considered standard.

1.4 *This standard does not purport to address all of the safety concerns, if any, associated with its use. It is the responsibility of the user of this standard to establish appropriate safety and health practices and determine the applicability of regulatory limitations prior to use.*

2. Referenced Documents

2.1 ASTM Standards:²

- E94 Guide for Radiographic Examination
- E746 Practice for Determining Relative Image Quality Response of Industrial Radiographic Imaging Systems
- E747 Practice for Design, Manufacture and Material Grouping Classification of Wire Image Quality Indicators (IQI) Used for Radiology

¹ This guide is under the jurisdiction of ASTM Committee E07 on Nondestructive Testing and is the direct responsibility of Subcommittee E07.01 on Radiology (X and Gamma) Method.

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² For referenced ASTM standards, visit the ASTM website, www.astm.org, or contact ASTM Customer Service at service@astm.org. For *Annual Book of ASTM Standards* volume information, refer to the standard's Document Summary page on the ASTM website.

E1025 Practice for Design, Manufacture, and Material Grouping Classification of Hole-Type Image Quality Indicators (IQI) Used for Radiology

E1316 Terminology for Nondestructive Examinations

E1453 Guide for Storage of Magnetic Tape Media that Contains Analog or Digital Radioscopic Data

E2002 Practice for Determining Total Image Unsharpness in Radiology

E2033 Practice for Computed Radiology (Photostimulable Luminescence Method)

E2339 Practice for Digital Imaging and Communication in Nondestructive Evaluation (DICONDE)

E2422 Digital Reference Images for Inspection of Aluminum Castings

E2445 Practice for Qualification and Long-Term Stability of Computed Radiology Systems

E2446 Practice for Classification of Computed Radiology Systems

2.2 SMPTE Standard:

RP133 Specifications for Medical Diagnostic Imaging Test Pattern for Television Monitors and Hard-Copy Recording Cameras³

3. Terminology

3.1 Unless otherwise provided within this standard guide, terminology is in accordance with Terminology E1316.

3.2 Definitions:

3.2.1 *aliasing*—artifacts that appear in an image when the spatial frequency of the input is higher than the output is capable of reproducing. This will often appear as jagged or stepped sections in a line or as moiré patterns.

3.2.2 *basic spatial resolution (SR_b)*—the read-out value of unsharpness divided by 2 as effective pixel size of the CR system (Practices E2445 and E2446).

3.2.3 *binary/digital pixel data*—a matrix of binary (0's, 1's) values resultant from conversion of PSL from each latent pixel (on the IP) to proportional (within the bit depth scanned) electrical values. Binary digital data value is proportional to the radiation dose received by each pixel.

3.2.4 *bit depth*—the number "2" increased by the exponential power of the analogue-to-digital (A/D) converter resolution. Example 1): in a 2 bit image, there are four (2^2) possible

³ Available from Society of Motion Picture and Television Engineers (SMPTE), 3 Barker Ave, 5th Floor, White Plains, NY 10601.

combinations for a pixel: 00, 01, 10 and 11. If “00” represents black and “11” represents white, then “01” equals dark gray and “10” equals light gray. The bit depth is two, but the number of gray levels that can be represented is 2^2 or 4. Example 2): a 12 bit A/D converter would have 4096 (2^{12}) gray levels that can be represented.

3.2.5 *blooming or flare*—an undesirable condition exhibited by some image conversion devices brought about by exceeding the allowable input brightness for the device, causing the image to go into saturation, producing an image of degraded spatial resolution and gray scale rendition.

3.2.6 *computed radiographic system*—all hardware and software components necessary to produce a computed radiograph. Essential components of a CR system consisting of: an imaging plate, an imaging plate readout scanner, electronic image display, image storage and retrieval system and interactive support software.

3.2.7 *computed radiographic system class*—a group of computed radiographic systems characterized with a standard image quality rating. Practice E2446, Table 1, provides such a classification system.

3.2.8 *computed radiography*—a radiological nondestructive testing method that uses storage phosphor imaging plates (IP’s), a PSL stimulating light source, PSL capturing optics, optical-to-electrical conversion devices, analogue-to-digital data conversion electronics, a computer and software capable of processing raw digital image data and a means for electronically displaying or printing resultant image data.

3.2.9 *contrast and brightness*—an application of digital image processing used to “re-map” displayed gray scale levels of an original gray scale data matrix using different reference lookup tables.

3.2.9.1 *Discussion*—This mode of image processing is also known as “windowing” (contrast adjustment) and “leveling” (brightness adjustment) or simply “win-level” image processing.

3.2.10 *contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR)*—terminology used to describe image quality associated with a quotient of contrast and noise level within the image.

3.2.11 *detector signal-to-noise ratio (SNR_D)*—quotient of mean pixel value and standard deviation of pixel value noise (and intensity distribution) for a defined detector area-of-interest and ISO exposure dose (see Practice E2446).

3.2.11.1 *Discussion*—Notwithstanding extraneous sources of digital image noise, SNR_D will normally increase as ISO exposure dose is increased over the useful exposure range of the detector. SNR_D is intended for evaluation of detector performance without influence of absorbing materials.

3.2.12 *digital driving level (DDL)*—terminology used to describe displayed pixel brightness of a digital image on a monitor resultant from digital mapping of various gray scale levels within specific look-up-table/s.

3.2.12.1 *Discussion*—DDL is also known as monitor pixel intensity value; thus, may not be the PV of the original digital image.

3.2.13 *digital dynamic range*—maximum material thickness latitude that renders acceptable levels of specified image quality performance within a specified pixel intensity value range.

3.2.13.1 *Discussion*—Digital dynamic range should not be confused with computer file bit depth.

3.2.14 *digital image contrast*—pixel intensity value difference between any two areas of interest within a computed radiograph.

3.2.14.1 *Discussion*—digital contrast = PV2 – PV1 where PV2 is the pixel value of area of interest “2” and PV1 is the pixel value of area of interest “1” on a computed radiograph.

3.2.15 *digital image noise*—imaging information within a computed radiograph that is not directly correlated with the degree of radiation attenuation by the object or feature being examined, or insufficient radiation quanta absorbed within the detector IP, or both.

3.2.15.1 *Discussion*—Digital image noise results from random spatial distribution of photons absorbed within the IP and interferes with the visibility of small or faint detail due to statistical variations of pixel intensity value.

3.2.16 *digital image processing*—the use of algorithms to change original digital image data for the purpose of enhancement of some aspect of the image.

3.2.16.1 *Discussion*—Examples include: contrast, brightness, pixel density change (digital enlargement), digital filters, gamma correction and pseudo colors. Some digital processing operations such as sharpening filters, once saved, permanently change the original binary data matrix (Fig. 1, Step 5).

3.2.17 *equivalent penetrameter sensitivity (EPS)*—that thickness of penetrameter, expressed as a percentage of the section thickness radiographed, in which a 2T hole would be visible under the same radiographic conditions. EPS is calculated by: $EPS\% = 100/X(\sqrt{Th/2})$, where: h = hole diameter, T = step thickness and X = thickness of test object (see E1316, E1025, E747, and Practice E746).

3.2.18 *gray scale*—a term used to describe an image containing shades of gray rather than color. Gray scale is the range of shades of gray assigned to pixel values that determines pixel display brightness.

3.2.18.1 *Discussion*—The number of shades is usually positive integer values taken from the bit depth. For example: an 8-bit gray scale image has up to 256 total levels of gray from 0 to 255, with 0 being white and 255 being black with 254 gray levels in between.

3.2.19 *image morphing*—a potentially degraded CR image resultant from over processing (that is, over driving) an original CR image.

3.2.19.1 *Discussion*—“Morphing” can occur following several increments of image processing/file save cycles where each preceding image was “overwritten” resulting in an image that is noticeably altered from the original.

3.2.20 *look up table (LUT)*—one or more fields of binary digital values arbitrarily assigned to a range of reference gray scale levels (viewed on an electronic display as shades of “gray”).

3.2.20.1 *Discussion*—A LUT is used (applied) to convert binary digital pixel data to proportional shades of “gray” that

without this basic conversion (to gray scales) there would be no discernable radiographic image (see Fig. 2B).

3.2.24 *photostimulable luminescence (PSL)*—photo stimulated luminescence (PSL) is a physical phenomenon in which a phosphor that has ceased emitting light because of removal of the stimulus once again emits light when excited by light with a longer wavelength than the emission wavelength.

3.2.25 *pixel brightness*—the luminous (monitor) display intensity of pixel/s that can be controlled by means of electronic monitor brightness level settings or changes of digital driving level (see 3.2.12).

3.2.26 *pixel density*—the number of pixels within a digital image of fixed dimensions (that is, length and width).

3.2.26.1 *Discussion*—For digital raster images, the convention is to describe pixel density in terms of the number of pixel-columns (width) and number of pixel rows (height). An alternate convention is to describe the total number of pixels in the image area (typically given as the number of mega pixels), which can be calculated by multiplying pixel-columns by pixel-rows. Another convention includes describing pixel density per area-unit or per length-unit such as pixels per in./mm. Resolution (see 7.1.6) of a digital image is related to pixel density.

3.2.27 *pixel value (PV, also known as gray value)*—a positive integer numerical value within the gray scale values of a picture data element (pixel) directly proportional with binary pixel data values of a digital image.

3.2.27.1 *Discussion*—PV is directly related to binary pixel data via a look-up-table (Fig. 2 illustrates). The number of available PV's is associated with gray scale bit depth of digital image.

3.2.28 *relative image quality response (RIQR)*—a means for determining the image quality performance response of a given radiological imaging system in relative comparison to the image quality response of another radiological imaging system.

3.2.28.1 *Discussion*—RIQR methods are not intended as a direct measure of image quality for a specific radiographic technique application. Practice E746 provides a standard RIQR method.

3.2.29 *storage phosphor imaging plate (IP)*—a photostimulable luminescent material that is capable of storing a latent radiographic image of a material being examined and, upon stimulation by light of appropriate wavelength, will generate luminescence (PSL) proportional to radiation absorbed.

3.2.29.1 *Discussion*—When performing computed radiography, an IP is used instead of a film. When establishing techniques related to source focal geometries, the IP is referred to as a detector (that is, source-to detector-distance or SDD).

4. Significance and Use

4.1 This guide is intended as a source of tutorial and reference information that can be used during establishment of computed radiography techniques and procedures by qualified CR personnel for specific applications. All materials presented within this guide may not be suited for all levels of computed radiographic personnel.

4.2 This guide is intended to build upon an established basic knowledge of radiographic fundamentals (that is, film systems) as may be found in Guide E94. Similarly, materials presented

within this guide are not intended as “all-inclusive” but are intended to address basic CR topics and issues that complement a general knowledge of computed radiography as described in 1.2 and 4.3.

4.3 Materials presented within this guide may be useful in the development of end-user training programs designed by qualified CR personnel or activities that perform similar functions. Computed radiography is considered a rapidly advancing inspection technology that will require the user maintain knowledge of the latest CR apparatus and technique innovations. The REFERENCES section of this guide contains technical reference materials that may be useful in further advancement of knowledge associated with computed radiography.

5. Computed Radiography Fundamentals

5.1 This section introduces and describes primary core components and processes of a basic computed radiography process. The user of this standard guide is advised that computed radiography is a rapidly evolving technology where innovations involving core steps and processes are continually under refinement. Tutorial information presented in this section is intended to illustrate the fundamental computed radiography process and not necessarily any specific commercial CR system.

5.2 *Acquiring the CR Image*: Computed radiography (CR) is one of several different modes of digital radiography that employs re-usable photostimulable luminescence (PSL) storage phosphor imaging plates (commonly called IP's) for acquisition of radiographic images. Figure 1 illustrates an example of the fundamental steps of a basic CR process arrangement.

5.2.1 In this illustration, a conventional (that is, Guide E94) radiographic exposure geometry/arrangement is used to expose a part positioned between the radiation source and IP. Step 1 involves exposure of the IP (Fig. 3 illustrates typical cross section details of an IP) and creation of a residual latent image with delayed luminescence properties (section 6 details physics).

5.2.2 Step 2 involves index scanning the exposed IP with a stimulus source of red light from a laser beam (Fig. 4 illustrates Steps 2 through 8).

5.2.3 During the scan, the IP is stimulated to release deposited energy of the latent image in the form of bluish photostimulated visible light. Step 3: the bluish photostimulated light (PSL) is then collected by an optical system containing a chromatic filter (that prevents the red stimulus light from being collected) and channeled to a photo-multiplier tube (PMT). Step 4: PSL light is converted by the PMT to analogue electrical signals in proportion to quantity of PSL collected. Step 5: analog electrical signals are amplified, filtered, passed through an analog-to-digital (A/D) converter and “clock” synchronized to a spatially correct pixel location within a binary data matrix (Fig. 5 illustrates assignment of binary data to a pixel matrix).

5.2.4 The actual size of the binary pixel element (length and width) is determined by the scanning speed of the transport mechanism in one direction and the clock speed of the sampling along each scan line (how fast the laser spot moves

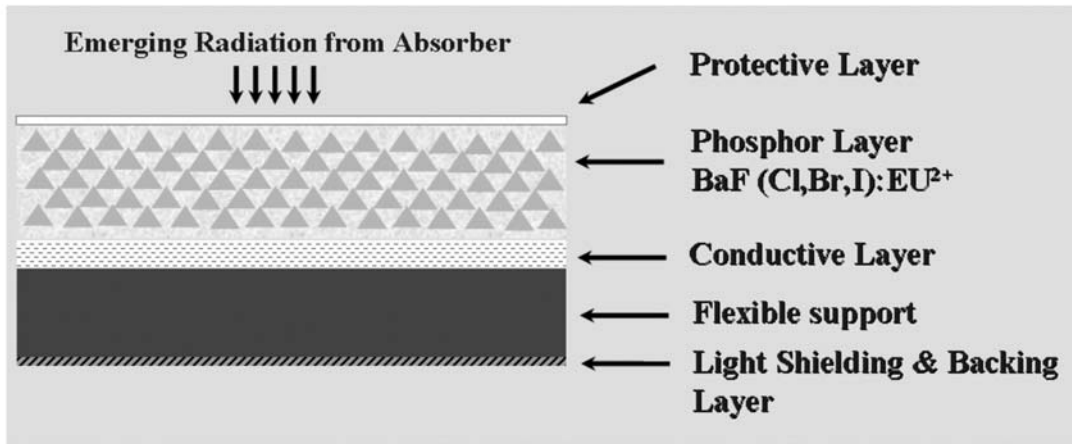


FIG. 3 Cross Section of a Typical Storage Phosphor Imaging Plate

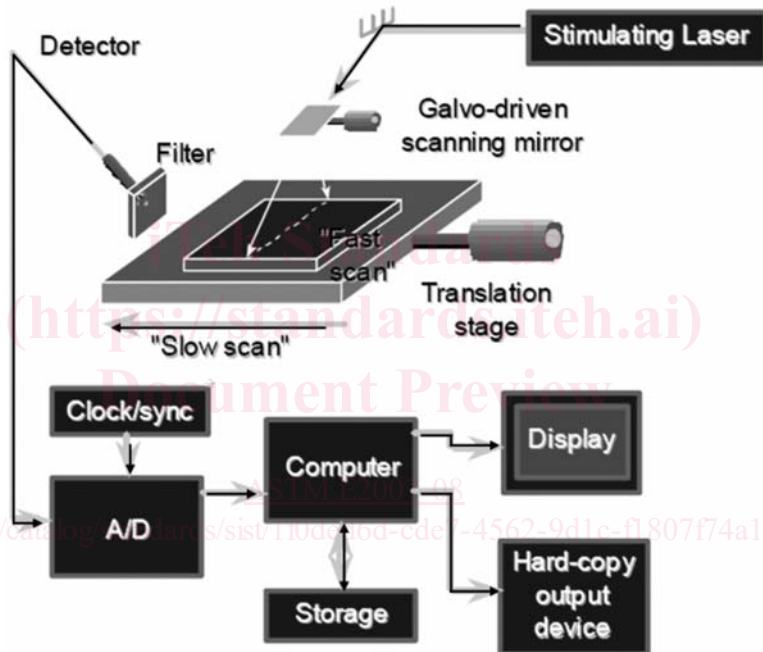


FIG. 4 Fundamental CR Image Acquisition and Display Process



FIG. 5 Assignment of Binary Data to a Pixel Matrix (3 bit depth illustrated)

divided by the sampling rate). Although resolution is limited by pixel size, the size of individual phosphor crystals, the phos-

phor layer thickness of the image plate, laser spot size and optics also contribute to the overall quality (resolution) of the

image. Each of these components thus becomes a very essential contributor to the overall binary storage matrix that represents the latent digital image. These individual elements represent the smallest unit of storage of a binary digital image that can be discretely controlled by the CR data acquisition and display system components and are commonly called “pixels”. The term “pixel” is thus derived from two word components of the digital matrix, that is, picture (or pix) and elements (els) or “pixels”. Picture elements or pixels represent the heart and soul of a digital image and thus become the basis for all technical imaging attributes that comprise quality and composition of the resultant image. An organized matrix of picture elements (pixels) containing binary data is called a binary pixel data matrix since proportional gray levels have not yet been assigned. (Ref (2) contains basic tutorial information on binary numbering system and its usefulness for digital applications).

5.2.5 *Step 6:* computer algorithms (a string of mathematical instructions) are applied that match binary pixel data with arbitrary files (called look-up-tables) to assign individual pixel gray scale levels. An example is to assign gray scale levels in proportion to the magnitude of the binary numbers (that is, a higher binary number associated with a greater amount of photo stimulated light for that pixel registration can be assigned a darker gray value) to create an original gray scale data matrix with a standard format (DICONDE, TIFF, BITMAP, etc) ready for software transformation. Figure 2A illustrates a simple linear look-up-table for an original “negative” gray scale data matrix and Fig. 2B illustrates a graphical version of the application as might be applied by an algorithm to produce an image with a “negative” gray tonal appearance (visually similar to a radiographic film negative). Most algorithms employed for original CR images assign gray scale values in linear proportion to the magnitude of each binary pixel (value). The range (number) of selectable gray values is defined within the image viewing software as “bit depth”.

5.2.6 *Step 7:* a) viewing software is used to transform the original gray scale data matrix into an original image; b) the original image can be output to an electronic display monitor or printer; the resultant CR digital image can have a similar “negative” gray tonal appearance as its film counterpart (as

illustrated with the LUT shown in Fig. 2A) in that as gray values become larger, displayed luminance becomes smaller. With the negative digital image display, inspected features can pretty much be characterized and dispositioned similar to a radiographic film negative. Both image modalities require evaluations within environments of subdued background lighting. Aside from these basic similarities, however, the CR digital image is an entirely different imaging modality that requires some basic knowledge of digital imaging fundamentals in order to understand and effectively apply the technology; c) once the original digital image is visualized, additional image processing techniques (see Section 8) may be performed to further enhance inspection feature details and complete the inspection evaluation process. This entire process is called computed radiography because of the extreme dependence on complex computational processes in order to render a meaningful radiographic image. Finally (Step 8), original and/or processed digital images and related electronic records may be saved to optical, magnetic or print media for future use. Some applications may benefit from a high quality digital print of the saved image. Typical CR system commercial hardware components are illustrated in Fig. 6. Computed radiographic technology is complex in nature; therefore, subsequent sections of this standard are intended to provide some additional levels of detail associated with the basic computed radiography process. Additional levels of information may be found within the REFERENCES section at the end of this guide.

6. Brief History and Physics of Computed Radiography

6.1 *Photo Stimulated Luminescence:* Photo stimulated luminescence (PSL) is a physical phenomenon in which a phosphor that has ceased emitting light because of removal of the stimulus once again emits light when excited by light with a longer wavelength than the emission wavelength. In other words, phosphors capable of “PSL” exhibit a unique physical property of delayed release of visible light subsequent to radiation exposure; thus, the reason this type of phosphor is sometimes referred to as a “storage phosphor”. Figure 7 illustrates the photo excitation process when this phosphor is exposed (following exposure of the phosphor to radiation) to a



FIG. 6 Typical CR Scanner, Workstation and Image Plate

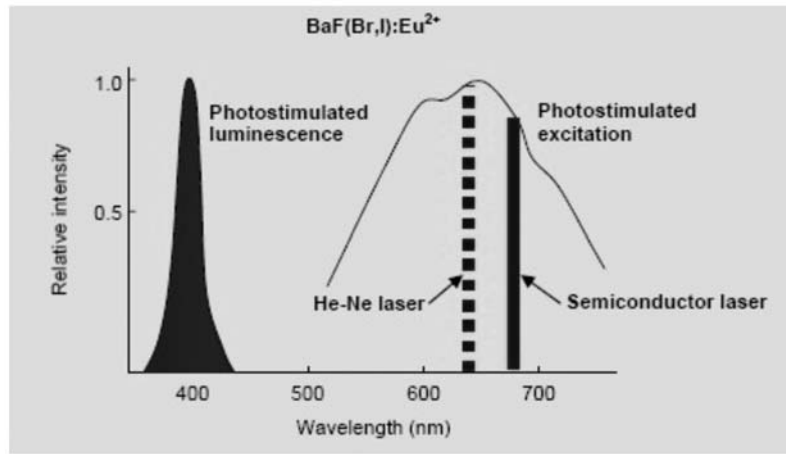


FIG. 7 Spectra of Photostimulated Luminescence and Excitation

source of red light (He-Ne or semiconductor laser). The “bluish-purple” light emitted during this stimulation is referred to as “photostimulated luminescence” or “PSL” for short. During collection of PSL light for computed radiography, the red light source is separated from PSL using a chromatic filter (see Fig. 4). The “PSL” process is the very heart of CR technology and is thus important for understanding how computed radiography works.

6.2 Early History of Photo Stimulated Luminescence: The earliest written reference to fluorescence, the phenomenon that causes materials to emit light in response to external stimuli, dates back to 1500 B.C. in China. This phenomenon did not attract scientific interest until 1603, when the discovery of the Bolognese stone in Italy led to investigation by a large number of researchers. One of these was Becquerel, who, in his 1869 book *La Lumiere*, revealed that he had discovered the phenomenon of stimulated luminescence in the course of his work with phosphors. Photo stimulated luminescence (PSL) is a phenomenon which is quite common since photostimulable phosphors cover a broad range of materials—compounds of elements from Groups IIB and VI (for example, ZnS), compounds of elements from Groups 1A and VIIB (for example, alkali hydrides), diamond, oxides (for example, Zn₂SiO₄:Mn and LaOBr;Ce,Tb), and even certain organic compounds. The materials, therefore, lend themselves to data storage because radiation could be used to write data to the material, the light or secondary excitation to read the data back. Storage phosphor imaging plate (IP) is a name given to a two dimensional sensor (see Fig. 3) that can store a latent image obtained from X-rays, electron beams or other types of radiation, using photostimulable phosphors.

6.3 Recent History of Computed Radiography: With the introduction of photostimulable luminescence imaging systems in the early 1980’s in combination with continued advancements in computer technologies, CR was “born”. In the early 1990’s, further advancements in computer technologies in conjunction with refined phosphor imaging plate developments initiated limited applications, mostly driven by the medical industry. The medical industry became interested in CR for several reasons: 1) the desire for electronic transport of digital images for remote diagnostics and 2) the increased latitude of

diagnostic capability with a single patient exposure. Throughout the 90’s, technology advancements in CR were driven primarily by the medical industry for similar reasons. In the late 90’s, as image quality attributes continued to improve, industrial radiographers became more interested in CR for its ability to detect small features within heavier materials with reliabilities approaching some classes of film systems. In 1999, continued industrial user interests led to the development and publication of ASTM’s first computed radiography standard, E2033-99 “Standard Practice for Computed Radiology”. ASME adopted its first article for ASME Code compliant computed radiography in 2004. In 2005, further interests from industrial users led to the development and publication of Practice E2445 and Practice E2446. ASTM published its first ever set of all-digital reference images (E2422) for the inspection of aluminum castings in 2005.

6.4 PSL Crystal Structure: Fig. 8 illustrates the basic physical structure of a typical Barium Fluorohalide phosphor crystal. Figure 9 illustrates a photo-micrograph of these type crystal grains as seen through a scanning electron microscope at approximately 10 microns. These crystal structures are the basis of the phosphor layer shown in Fig. 3 and constitute the heart of the physical “PSL” process described in the following text.

6.5 Latent Image Formation: A widely accepted mechanism for PSL in europium-activated halides was proposed by Takahashi et al (10). In the phosphor-making process, halogen ion vacancies, or “F⁺” centers, are created. Upon exposure of the

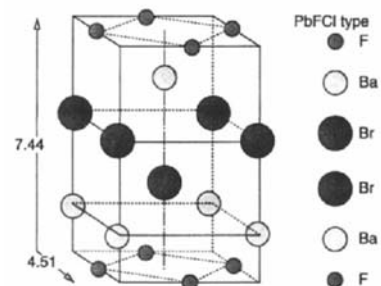


FIG. 8 BaFBr Crystal Structure

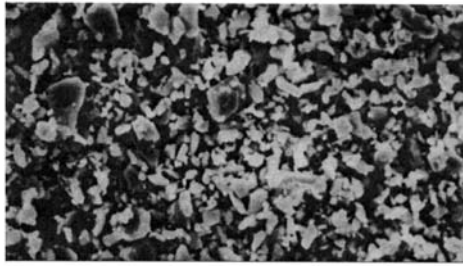


FIG. 9 Conventional BaFX: Eu Grains (10 microns)

phosphor particles to ionizing radiation (Fig. 10 provides an energy level diagram that illustrates this process), electrons are excited to a higher energy level (conduction band) and leave behind a hole at the Eu^{2+} ion (valance band). While some of these electrons immediately recombine and excite the Eu^{2+} to promptly emit, others are trapped at the F^+ centers to form metastable F centers, also known as color centers, from the German word “Farbe”, which means color. The energy stored in these electron-hole pairs is the basis of the CR latent image and remains quite stable for hours. This mechanism has been disputed by some and supported by others; however, the end result is photostimulable luminescence.

6.6 *Processing the Latent Image:* When this phosphor (bearing the latent image) is subsequently exposed (that is, scanned with a laser as shown in Fig. 4) to a source of red light, most of the trapped electrons are “liberated” and return to the lower energy level (valence band) of the phosphor molecule causing PSL to be emitted. Figure 11 provides a simplified graphic illustration of this process that may be helpful in better understanding the fundamentals of this unique process.

6.7 *Residual Latent Image Removal:* Following a normal latent image process scan (see Fig. 4), all phosphors on the imaging plate must be further exposed to a high intensity source of white light in order to remove any remaining “residual” trapped electrons in the F centers. This process is referred to as an IP “erasure” and is usually performed subsequent to the IP scan and prior to any subsequent re-exposures of the IP. If an erasure cycle is not performed, an unwanted residual latent image may be superimposed on the next CR exposure if the IP is re-exposed soon after the first exposure. In the event no subsequent re-exposure of the IP is

performed, any residual latent image (trapped electrons) will eventually fade as natural sources of red light energy (heat, etc.) cause remaining electrons to be liberated via the same physical process described above. Similarly, if erased IP’s are stored near sources of radiation (background or other sources of ionizing radiation) an unwanted residual latent image (background) may develop within affected phosphors of the IP. Figure 12 illustrates a typical life cycle for the generation of PSL and PSL fading during exposure to X-ray radiation, followed by exposure to a high intensity source of “red” light. Since this process is primarily passive, the actual phosphor is often referred to as a “storage phosphor”.

6.8 *CR Latent Image Issues:* Now that some of the fundamental physics of CR are established, we need to understand how this knowledge relates to everyday use and production of quality CR images. Most radiographers have a good understanding of the importance in the use of lead intensifying screens during film applications. It is known, for example, that lead foil placed in intimate contact with film during exposure to radiation will intensify the formation of the film latent image and the physical mechanism responsible for this is electrons liberated during radiation absorption within the lead screens. In this case, production of secondary electrons is desirable and actually contributes to the productive formation of the photographic latent image. With CR, however, secondary electrons (especially in excess) can actually degrade the latent image and result in a final image that appears mottled, faded or otherwise reduced in image quality. At higher levels of radiation energy (in the approximate range of 1.2 MeV), radiation absorption within lead screens (as well as the part under examination) will be more dominated by the pair production process. The pair production process produces more “left-over” electrons that can potentially penetrate well into the phosphor layer (see Fig. 3) of the CR imaging plate and interfere with developing CR latent image sites before the primary exposure process is completed. It is therefore, important to control unwanted electrons during the acquisition of quality CR images during higher energy applications.

7. Basic Computed Radiography Techniques

7.1 Many exposure and technique arrangements for CR are often very similar to conventional film radiographic methods as

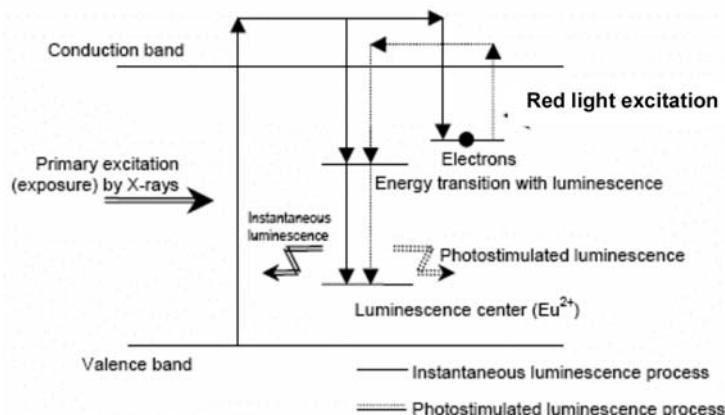


FIG. 10 Energy Level Diagram Illustrating Mechanism for Generating PSL in BaFBr: Eu²⁺ Crystal

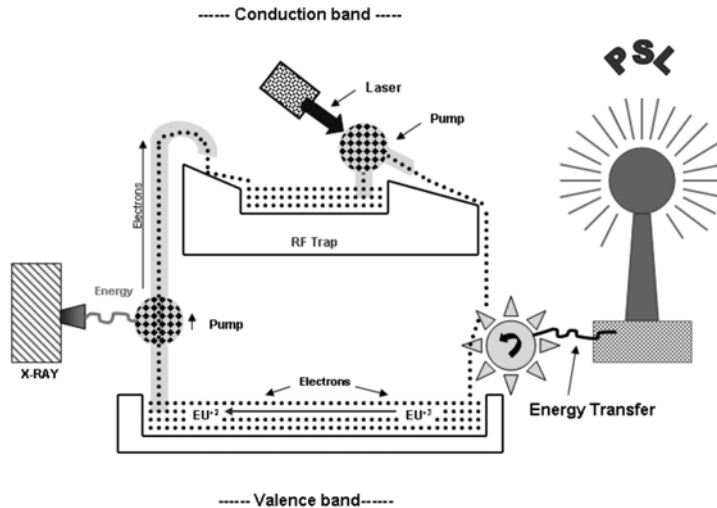


FIG. 11 Illustration of PSL Generation

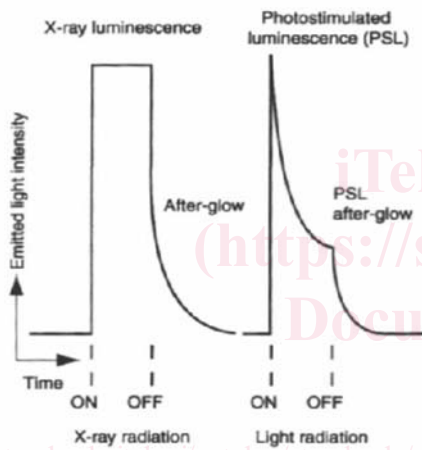


FIG. 12 Typical PSL Life Cycle

relationship (exposure dose/quanta versus pixel value) for each major material (including thickness ranges inspected) and type of radiation used. Figure 13 illustrates a typical CR exposure relationship for a specific material, specific thickness, type of radiation source and exposure arrangement. Exposure is measured in units of time at a specified intensity, that is, 180 seconds @ 10 milliamps; 90 seconds @ 60 curies (minimum), etc. An alternate means of controlling exposure could be expressed as 1800 ma-s, not to exceed 180 seconds, or 5400 curie seconds, not to exceed 90 seconds. The concept is to achieve a specified exposure level within a specified time “window”, thus controlling quanta and dose. CR exposure data can be linear (within a specified linearity tolerance) or logarithmic (depending upon LUT’s and equipment used) over a fairly wide range of exposure levels resulting in predictable contrast (PV 2-PV 1) level for the same material thickness difference. Additionally, as exposure level is increased with CR, image quality performance will normally improve to a point. In other words, as pixel value increases, detector signal-to-noise performance (determined by means of EPS, SNR_D or SNR_N as illustrated in Fig. 13) usually improves as well. At the present time, no standard minimum pixel value can be specified to assure image quality results similar to the use of minimum optical densities with film. This is related to the wide variation of current CR system components and sensitivities. Variation of LUT’s during establishment of an original CR image will likely change the relationship between measured output pixel value and exposure level. Each user should qualify a specific pixel value range using exposure data that demonstrates a satisfactory level of image quality performance for the application. Although dependant upon the particular CR system used, most all IP detectors will reach a point of exposure saturation at some point on the higher end of the exposure range where image quality can become significantly diminished. An IP is considered “saturated” when a sufficiently large amount of phosphor crystals are overexposed to the extent that no meaningful contrast is obtained between an inspected feature and it’s surrounding background. For example: the

described in Guide E94, dependant upon the application. There are; however, numerous technical and physical issues that differentiate CR exposure techniques from film that require careful consideration during development of specific CR techniques. Successful CR techniques are usually dependent upon exposure technique (see Fig. 1, Step 1) in conjunction with adequate image processing techniques (see Section 8) to achieve required image quality/dynamic range objectives. Similar to film systems, CR techniques are dependant upon control of contrast, noise and resolution imaging properties.

7.1.1 *Exposure Level and Image Quality*: In general, CR image quality is directly proportional to the quantity of meaningful radiation exposure received by the IP, just as it is with film. Exposure level is most effectively determined in CR via measuring the pixel value within the image area of interest, similar to measuring a film system’s optical density with a densitometer device. With a digital “negative” image, a darker pixel value means more radiation reached that pixel (on the scanned IP) than a lighter pixel value. A good fundamental place to begin adapting to CR techniques is with the CR exposure curve. A good practice is to create an exposure

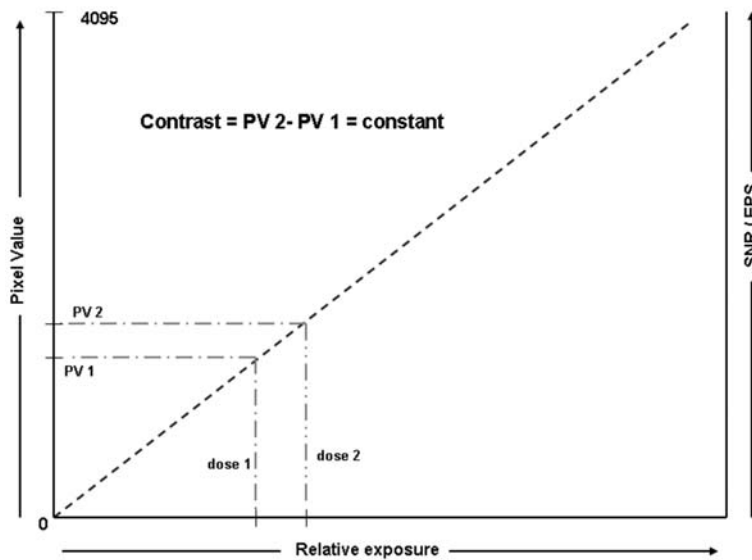


FIG. 13 Original CR Exposure vs. Pixel Value

overall image quality of a 12 bit high-resolution CR system (as determined by EPS) can become significantly diminished as pixel values exceed approximately $\frac{3}{4}$ bit depth or ≈ 3000 pixel value. Again, the exact determination will depend upon the image quality assessment technique employed and the image quality requirements of the application. In order for a user to change contrast from that shown in Fig. 13, the slope of the curve must be increased or decreased. This can be potentially accomplished with a change of IP/scanner system or via image processing (covered in Section 8).

7.1.2 *Dynamic (Pixel Value) Range*: CR has the unique property (when compared to single film systems) of displaying a wide range of visible gray scale levels for a defined range of material thickness, especially when image processing is used; however, CR image quality is very dependant upon achieving good detector signal-to-noise performance in order to achieve required image quality levels for inspection applications. Simply stated, the IP must obtain sufficient exposure quanta levels to render effective image quality results. For this reason, dynamic range is defined as the material thickness range that renders acceptable levels of image quality performance (usable contrast range). In general, the more liberal are image quality

requirements, the greater will be CR's total dynamic range performance in comparison to single film systems.

7.1.3 Digital image noise within a computed radiograph generally originates from several complex sources that result in an "overly" random spatial distribution of photons absorbed within the detector IP. These undesirable events interfere with visibility of small or faint detail due to statistical variations of pixel value. Figure 14 illustrates the effect of increased noise on image quality.

7.1.4 The root causes of undesirable noise events are usually attributable to one or more of the following: 1) non-uniformities within the phosphor materials of the IP detector (that is, irregular size, non-uniformly spaced or simply an insufficient mass of crystals); 2) the IP detector receives an insufficient quanta of radiation photons to affect an adequate detector signal-to-noise ratio (SNR_D); 3) primary radiation scattering (absorption) within the test part material under examination; 4) secondary radiation scattering from the exposure environment. Digital detectors that employ (PSL) materials are especially prone to higher noise levels since these materials are generally more sensitive to ionizing radiation than silver-based film, especially to lower energy photons.

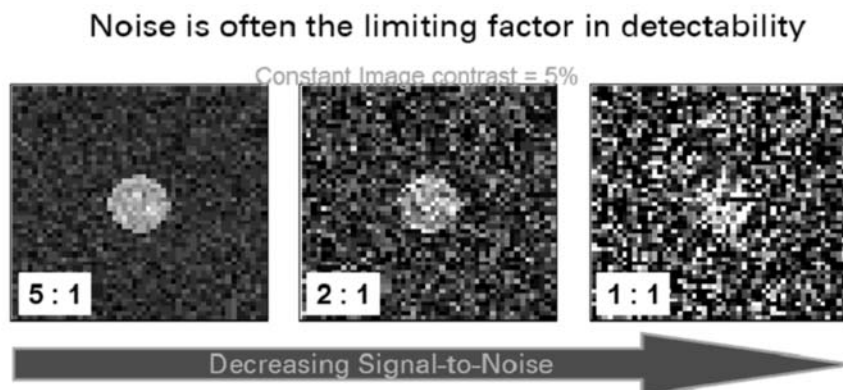


FIG. 14 Effects of Noise on Digital Image Quality