STEWART CARLYLE BUSHONG

Radiologic Science for Technologists

Physics, Biology, and Protection

Eleventh Edition

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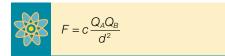
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Review of Basic Physics

ELECTROSTATICS

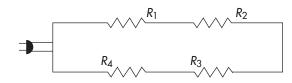
- 1. The addition or removal of electrons is called electrification.
- 2. Like charges repel; unlike charges attract.
- 3. Coulomb's law of electrostatic force:



- 4. Only negative charges can move in solids.
- 5. Electrostatic charge is distributed on the outer surface of conductors.
- 6. The concentration of charge is greater when the radius of curvature is smaller.

ELECTRODYNAMICS

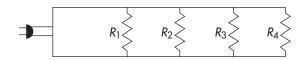
Ohm's Law: V = *IR* A series circuit:



1. $V_t = V_1 + V_2 + V_3 + V_4$

- 2. I is the same through all elements.
- 3. $R_t = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + R_4$

A parallel circuit:

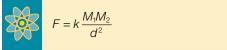


- 1. V is the same across each circuit element.
- 2. $I_t = I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4$
- 3. $\frac{1}{R_t} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \frac{1}{R_4}$

Electric power: $P = IV = I \ 2 \ R \ [(A) \ (V) = W]$ Work: Work = $QV \ [(C) \ (V) = J]$ Potential: $V = W/Q \ [J/C = V]$ Capacitance: $C = Q/V \ [C/V = F]$

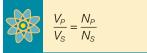
MAGNETISM

- 1. Every magnet has a north pole and a south pole.
- 2. Like poles repel; unlike poles attract.
- 3. Gauss's law:



ELECROMAGNETISM

- 1. A magnetic field is always present around a conductor in which a current is flowing.
- 2. Changing magnetic fields can produce an electric field.
- 3. Transformer law:



CLASSICAL PHYSICS

Linear force: F = ma [(kg)(m/s²) = N] Momentum: p = mv [(kg)(m/s)] Mechanical work (or energy): Work (or E) = Fs [(N)(m) = J] Kinetic energy: $E = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$ [(kg)(m²/s²) = J] Mechanical power: P = Fs/t [(N)(m)/s = J/s = W] Conservation of momentum between A and Bfn1*:

$$m_A v_A + m_B v_A = m_A v_A' = m_B v_B'$$

Conservation of kinetic energy between A and Bfn1*:

$$\frac{1}{2}m_A(v_A)^2 + \frac{1}{2}m_B(v_B)^2 = \frac{1}{2}m_A(v_A')^2 = \frac{1}{2}m_B(v_B')^2$$

*v, Initial velocity; v', Final velocity.

Useful Units in Radiology

SI Prefixes			
Factor	Prefix	Symbol	
10 ¹⁸	Exa	Е	
10 ¹⁵	Peta	Р	
10 ¹²	Tera	Т	
10 ⁹	Giga	G	
10 ⁶	Mega	Μ	
10 ³	Kilo	k	
10 ²	Hecto	h	
10 ¹	Deca	da	
10 ⁻¹	Deci	d	
10 ⁻²	Centi	С	
10 ⁻³	Milli	m	
10-6	Micro	μ	
10 ⁻⁹	Nano	n	
10 ⁻¹²	Pico	р	
10 ⁻¹⁵	Femto	f	
10 ⁻¹⁸	Atto	а	

	SI Base Units			
Quantity	Name	Symbol		
Length Mass Time Electric current	Meter Kilogram Second Ampere	m kg S A		

SI Derived Units Expressed in Terms of Base Units

	SI UNIT	
Quantity	Name	Symbol
Area	Square meter	m ²
Volume	Cubic meter	m ³
Speed, velocity	Meter per second	m/s
Acceleration	Meter per second squared	m/s ²
Density, mass density	Kilogram per cubic meter	kg/m ³
Current density	Ampere per square meter	A/m ²
Concentration (of amount of substance)	Mole per cubic meter	Mole/m ³
Specific volume	Cubic meter per kilogram	m³/kg

Special Quantities of Radiologic Science and Their Associated Special Units

	CUSTOMARY UNIT		SI UNIT		
Quantity	Name		Symbol	Name	Symbol
Exposure	roentgen		R	air kerma	Gya
Absorbed dose	rad		rad	gray	Gy ₁
Effective dose	rem		rem	sievert	Sv
Radioactivity	curie		Ci	becquerel	Bq
Multiply	R	by	0.01	to obtain	Gy _a
Multiply	rad Gy	by	0.01	to obtain	Gyt
Multiply	rem	by	0.01	to obtain	Sv
Multiply	Ci	by	3.73×10^{10}	to obtain	Bq
Multiply	R	by	2.583×10^{-4}	to obtain	C/kg

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Radiologic Science for Technologists

Physics, Biology, and Protection

Eleventh Edition

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Radiologic Science for Technologists

Physics, Biology, and Protection

Eleventh Edition

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BCM Baylor College of Medicine

I wrote the first edition of this textbook in 1974 not expecting anyone to read it much less buy it! I wrote it to get promoted. My academic chairman explained to me that in order to be promoted to full professor at Baylor College of Medicine one had to write a textbook (Bushong, SC. A Book Report. Radiologic Technology pg. 405-409, March/ April 2013).

The greatest reward I have received in writing this 11th edition and the previous ten is the many new friends I now have because of this textbook. So I dedicate this edition to you, my friends in radiologic education. Many have contributed to this textbook and many have shared with me the speaking platform at educational meetings. Thank you very much for your friendship and I apologize to those I have left out because I'm late in the fourth quarter and I can't remember!!!

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This Book is also Dedicated to My Friends Here and Gone:

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 $(\dagger) = R.I.P.$

Dedication – Saintly Stitchers

This eleventh edition of *Radiologic Science for Technologists* is dedicated to my new friends at St. Martin's Episcopal Church, Houston, which is not even my church. I discovered that their project to knit kneelers for their new sanctuary needed additional stitchers. They taught me to stitch and that one can stitch while in conversation, while in church, while watching TV, and during many other activities. It is easy to do and easy to multi-task when stitching is one of the activities.

A recent article in the Houston Chronicle included an interview with me, one of two Saintly Stitching males. "It's a total chick magnet." When I break out my stitching at the airport or wherever, the chicks, mostly in the fourth quarter, do come flocking with lots of questions and compliments.

More importantly I've been promised that when I finish my kneeler I will be a slam-dunk to get into Heaven. I've been at it for a year now and plot my progress - that's my kneeler hanging on the railing below. At the present pace I will finish in March, 2031.



From left:

Row 1: Ada Grundy, Barbara Bush, Betty Workman, Ann Thurmond, Lee Hunnell, Marthann Weaber, Susan Rovello, Karen Fast, Nancy Marymee. Row 2: Joyce Jackson, Gerri Utterson, Bette Fryar, Pam Bentley, Clem McIver, Joan Hilley, Shirley Hopkins, Gerry Eversol, Ann Cochran, Fran Smith. Row 3: Shirley Allen Anne McFaddin, Sue Rea, Barbara Svetlik. Row 4: Michele Roberts, Stewart Bushong, Bobbie Adams, Martha Ann Linden, Dorothy Browne, Mary Epps, Kay Handley, Carroll Selander, Betty Ann Graves.

Preface

PURPOSE AND CONTENT

The purpose of *Radiologic Science for Technologists: Physics, Biology, and Protection* is threefold: to convey a working knowledge of radiologic physics; to prepare radiography students for the certification examination by the ARRT; and to provide a base of knowledge from which practicing radiographers can make informed decisions about technical factors, diagnostic image quality, and radiation management for both patients and personnel.

This textbook provides a solid presentation of radiologic science, including the fundamentals of radiologic physics, diagnostic imaging, radiobiology, and radiation management. Special topics include mammography, fluoroscopy, interventional radiology, helical computed tomography, and the various modes of digital imaging.

The fundamentals of radiologic science cannot be removed from mathematics, but this textbook does not assume a mathematics background for the readers. The few mathematical equations presented are always followed by sample problems with direct clinical application. As a further aid to learning, all mathematical formulas are highlighted with their own icon.



Likewise, the most important ideas under discussion are presented with their own colorful penguin icon and box. A PENGUIN is a very important fact that you should place on your iceberg.



The eleventh edition improves this popular feature of information bullets by including even more key concepts and definitions in each chapter. This textbook also presents learning objectives, chapter overviews, and chapter summaries that encourage students and make the text user-friendly for all. Challenge Questions at the end of each chapter include definition exercises, shortanswer questions, and a few calculations. These questions can be used for homework assignments, review sessions, or self-directed testing and practice. Answers to all questions are provided on the Evolve site at http://evolve.elsevier.com.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

For seven decades after Roentgen's discovery of x-rays in 1895, diagnostic radiology remained a relatively stable field of study and practice. Truly great changes during that time can be counted on one hand: the Crookes tube, the radiographic grid, radiographic intensifying screens, and image intensification.

Since the publication of the first edition of this textbook in 1975, however, newer systems for diagnostic imaging have come into routine use: multislice helical computed tomography, computed radiography, digital radiography, digital radiographic tomosynthesis, and digital fluoroscopy. Truly spectacular advances in computer technology and x-ray tube and image receptor design have made these innovations possible, and they continue to transform diagnostic imaging.

NEW TO THIS EDITION

The eleventh edition has been reorganized, consolidated, and updated to reflect the current imaging environment. Currently we are essentially engaged in digital imaging. Digital radiography has replaced screen-film radiography rapidly and this requires that radiologic technologists acquire a new and different fund of knowledge in addition to what has been required previously and in the same length of training time! Two new chapters were added on digital imaging, primarily focusing on patient dose safety with these newer techniques. Though the trend is to replace film/screen radiography with digital radiography, chapters concerning film/ screen radiography were left in this 11th edition for reference purposes and those schools still teaching film/ screen radiography.

In addition, the targeted focus on this necessary new content and closer alignment with ASRT core curriculum ensures student technologists are prepared to take the ARRT exam and have the background they need to perform well in the clinical environment.

ANCILLARIES Student Workbook

This resource has been updated to reflect the changes in the text and the rapid advancements in the field of radiologic science. Part I offers a complete selection of worksheets organized by textbook chapter. Part II, the Math Tutor, provides an outstanding refresher for any student. The Laboratory Experiments collect experiments designed to demonstrate important concepts in radiologic science. These are now available on the Evolve site at http://evolve.elsevier.com for ease of use.

Evolve Resources

Instructor ancillaries, including an ExamView Test Bank of over 900 questions, an image collection of all of the images in the text, and a PowerPoint lecture presentation are all available to instructors at http://evolve.elsevier.com.

Students and instructors have access to the textbook challenge questions answer keys, laboratory experiments, the workbook math tutor answer key, and the workbook worksheet answer keys.

A NOTE ON THE TEXT

Although the ARRT has not formally adopted the International System of Units (SI units), they are presented in this eleventh edition. With this system come the corresponding units of radiation and radioactivity.

The roentgen and the rad are being replaced by the gray (Gy_a and Gy_t respectively) and the rem by the sievert (Sv). In this edition, the SI units are presented first, followed by the earlier units in parentheses. A summary of special quantities and units in radiologic science can be found on the inside front cover of the text.

Radiation exposure is measured in SI units of C/kg, measured in mGy. Because mGy is also a unit of dose, a measurement of radiation exposure is distinguished from tissue dose by applying a subscript *a* or *t* to mGy, according to the recommendations of Archer and Wagner (*Minimizing Risk From Fluoroscopic X-rays*, **PRM**, 2007). Therefore radiation exposure is measured in mGy_a and tissue dose in mGy_t.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

For the preparation of the eleventh edition, I am indebted to the many readers of the previous editions who

submitted suggestions, criticisms, corrections, and compliments.

I am particularly indebted to the following radiologic science educators, whom I have identified on the Dedication page of this eleventh edition. Their suggestions for change and clarification were always right on target. Many supplied illustrations, and they are additionally acknowledged with the illustration in this eleventh edition.

My friend and colleague, Ben Archer, is the author of the Penguin Tale (Page 3), which for me has become a particularly effective teaching tool. And that, in turn, has led to some 30 Penguintoons suggested by educators and students, which I now show regularly during lectures. I'll never forget the first. Three of Ruby Montgomery's students interrupted me at Judy William's Atlanta SRT Student and Educators' Conference in 2002. "Do polar bears eat penguins?" they asked. "Sure they do, they're carnivorous," I responded. "No, polar bears live at the North Pole, penguins at the South Pole!" ... intense audience laughter.

The drawing of the Penguintoons and the illustrations in this book are the work of another close friend and colleague, Kraig Emmert. Thanks, Kraig, for your exceptional time and effort.

When I am in the audience of a lecture and leave with a single Penguin, I consider the lecture successful. Please send me your Penguins!

As you, student or educator, use this text and have questions or comments, I hope you will email me at *sbushong@bcm.edu* so that together we can strive to make this very difficult material easier to learn. I may not respond immediately, but I promise I will respond.

"Physics is fun" is the motto of my radiologic science courses.

Stewart Carlyle Bushong

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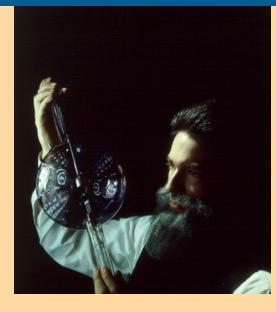
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PART

RADIOLOGIC PHYSICS

C H A P T E R

Essential Concepts of Radiologic Science

OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this chapter, the student should be able to do the following:

- 1. Describe the characteristics of matter and energy.
- 2. Identify the various forms of energy.
- 3. Define electromagnetic radiation and ionizing radiation.
- 4. State the relative intensity of ionizing radiation from various sources.
- 5. List the concepts of basic radiation protection.
- 6. Discuss the derivation of scientific systems of measurement.
- 7. List and define units of radiation and radioactivity.

OUTLINE

Nature of Our Surroundings	Mechanics
Matter and Energy	Velocity
Sources of Ionizing Radiation	Acceleration
Discovery of X-Rays	Newton's Laws of Motion
Development of Medical Imaging	Weight
Reports of Radiation Injury	Momentum
Basic Radiation Protection	Work
Filtration	Power
Collimation	Energy
Protective Apparel	Heat
Gonadal Shielding	Terminology for Radiologic
Protective Barriers	Science
Standard Units of Measurement	Numeric Prefixes
Length	Radiologic Units
Mass	The Medical Imaging Team
Time	
Units	

HIS CHAPTER explores the basic concepts of the science and technology of x-ray imaging. These include the study of matter, energy, the electromagnetic spectrum, and ionizing radiation. The production and use of ionizing radiation as a diagnostic tool serve as the basis for radiography. Radiologic technologists who deal specifically with x-ray imaging are radiographers. Radiographers have a great responsibility in performing x-ray examinations in accordance with established radiation protection standards for the safety of patients and medical personnel.

The instant an x-ray tube produces x-rays, all of the laws of physics are evident. The projectile electron from the cathode hits the target of the anode producing x-rays. Some x-rays interact with tissue, and other x-rays interact with the image receptor, forming an image. The physics of radiography deals with the production and interaction of x-rays.

Radiography is a career choice with great opportunities in a number of diverse fields. Welcome to the field of medical imaging!

NATURE OF OUR SURROUNDINGS

In a physical analysis all things can be classified as matter or energy. Matter is anything that occupies space and has mass. It is the material substance of which physical objects are composed. All matter is composed of fundamental building blocks called *atoms*, which are arranged in various complex ways. These atomic arrangements are considered at great length in Chapter 2.

A primary, distinguishing characteristic of matter is **mass**, the quantity of matter contained in any physical object. We generally use the term *weight* when describing the mass of an object, and for our purposes we may consider mass and weight to be the same. Remember, however, that in the strictest sense they are not the same. Whereas mass is actually described by its energy equivalence, weight is the force exerted on a body under the influence of gravity.

Mass is measured in kilograms (kg). For example, on Earth, a 200-lb (91-kg) man weighs more than a 120-lb (55-kg) woman. This occurs because of the mutual attraction, called *gravity*, between the Earth's mass and the mass of the man or woman. On the moon, the man and the woman would weigh only about one-sixth what they weigh on Earth because the mass of the moon is much less than that of the Earth. However, the mass of the man and the woman remains unchanged at 91 kg and 55 kg, respectively.



Mass is the quantity of matter as described by its renergy equivalence.

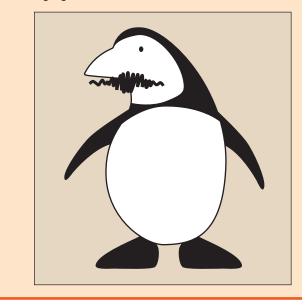
MATTER AND ENERGY

Matter is anything that occupies space. It is the material substance having mass of which physical objects are composed. The fundamental, complex building blocks of matter are **atoms** and **molecules**. The kilogram, the

A PENGUIN TALE BY BENJAMIN RIPLEY

In the vast and beautiful expanse of the Antarctic region, there was once a great, isolated iceberg floating in the serene sea. Because of its location and accessibility, the great iceberg became a Mecca for penguins from the entire area. As more and more penguins flocked to their new home and began to cover the slopes of the ice field, the iceberg began to sink farther and farther into the sea. Penguins kept climbing on, forcing others off the iceberg and back into the ocean. Soon the iceberg became nearly submerged owing to the sheer number of penguins that attempted to take up residence there.

Moral: The **PENGUIN** represents an important fact or bit of information that we must learn to understand a subject. The brain, similar to the iceberg, can retain only so much information before it becomes overloaded. When this happens, concepts begin to become dislodged, like penguins from the sinking iceberg. So, the key to learning is to reserve space for true "penguins" to fill the valuable and limited confines of our brains. Thus key points in this book are highlighted and referred to as "**PENGUINS.**"



scientific unit of mass, is unrelated to gravitational effects. The prefix kilo stands for 1000; a kilogram (kg) is equal to 1000 grams (g).

Although mass, the quantity of matter, remains unchanged regardless of its state, it can be transformed from one size, shape, and form to another. Consider a 1-kg block of ice, in which shape changes as the block of ice melts into a puddle of water. If the puddle is allowed to dry, the water apparently disappears entirely. We know, however, that the ice is transformed from a solid state to a liquid state and that liquid water becomes water vapor suspended in air. If we could gather all the molecules that make up the ice, the water, and the water vapor and measure their masses, we would find that each form has the same mass.

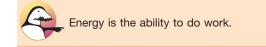
Similar to matter, energy can exist in several forms. In the International System (SI) energy is measured in joules (J). In radiology the unit electron volt (eV) is often used.

Potential energy is the ability to do work by virtue of position. A guillotine blade held aloft by a rope and pulley is an example of an object that possesses potential energy (Figure 1-1). If the rope is cut, the blade will descend and do its ghastly task. Work is required to get the blade to its high position, and because of this position, the blade is said to possess potential energy. Other examples of objects that possess potential energy



FIGURE 1-1 The blade of a guillotine offers a dramatic example of both potential and kinetic energy. When the blade is pulled to its maximum height and is locked into place, it has potential energy. When the blade is allowed to fall, the potential energy is released as kinetic energy.

include a rollercoaster on top of the incline and the stretched spring of an open screen door.



Kinetic energy is the energy of motion. It is possessed by all matter in motion: a moving automobile, a turning windmill wheel, a falling guillotine blade. These systems can all do work because of their motion.

Chemical energy is the energy released by a chemical reaction. An important example of this type of energy is that which is provided to our bodies through chemical reactions involving the foods we eat. At the molecular level, this area of science is called **biochemistry**. The energy released when dynamite explodes is a more dramatic example of chemical energy.

Electrical energy represents the work that can be done when an electron moves through an electric potential difference (voltage). The most familiar form of electrical energy is normal household electricity, which involves the movement of electrons through a copper wire by an electric potential difference of 110 volts (V). All electric apparatus, such as motors, heaters, and blowers, function through the use of electrical energy.

Thermal energy (heat) is the energy of motion at the molecular level. It is the kinetic energy of molecules and is closely related to temperature. The faster the molecules of a substance are vibrating, the more thermal energy the substance has and the higher is its temperature.

Nuclear energy is the energy that is contained within the nucleus of an atom. We control the release and use of this type of energy in electric nuclear power plants. An example of the uncontrolled release of nuclear energy is the atomic bomb.

Electromagnetic energy is perhaps the least familiar form of energy. It is the most important for our purposes, however, because it is the type of energy that is used in x-ray imaging. In addition to x-rays and gamma rays, electromagnetic energy includes radio waves; microwaves; and ultraviolet, infrared, and visible light. Electromagnetic energy does not include sound or diagnostic ultrasound.

Just as matter can be transformed from one size, shape, and form to another, so too can energy be transformed from one type to another. In radiology, for example, electrical energy in the x-ray imaging system is used to produce electromagnetic energy (the x-ray), which then is converted to chemical energy in the radiographic film or an electrical signal in a digital image receptor.

Reconsider now the statement that all things can be classified as matter or energy. Look around you and think of absolutely anything, and you should be convinced of this statement. You should be able to classify anything as matter, energy, or both. Frequently, matter and energy exist side by side—a moving automobile has mass and kinetic energy; boiling water has mass and thermal energy; the Leaning Tower of Pisa has mass and potential energy.

Perhaps the strangest property associated with matter and energy is that they are interchangeable, a characteristic first described by Albert Einstein in his famous theory of relativity. Einstein's **mass-energy equivalence** equation is a cornerstone of that theory.

This mass-energy equivalence serves as the basis for the atomic bomb, nuclear power plants, and certain nuclear medicine imaging modalities.

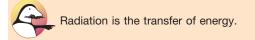


MASS-ENERGY

 $E = mc^2$ where *E* is energy, *m* is mass, and *c* is the velocity (speed) of electromagnetic radiation (light) in a vacuum.

Energy emitted and transferred through space is called **radiation**. When a piano string vibrates, it is said to radiate sound; the sound is a form of radiation. Ripples or waves radiate from the point where a pebble is dropped into a still pond. Visible light, a form of electromagnetic energy, is radiated by the sun and is **electromagnetic radiation**. Electromagnetic energy is usually referred to as electromagnetic radiation or, simply, *radiation*.

Matter that intercepts radiation and absorbs part or all of it is said to be *exposed* or **irradiated**. Spending a day at the beach exposes you to ultraviolet light. Ultraviolet light is the type of radiation that causes sunburn. During a radiographic examination, the patient is exposed to x-rays. The patient is said to be *irradiated*.



Ionizing radiation is a special type of radiation that includes x-rays. Ionizing radiation is any type of radiation that is capable of removing an orbital electron from the atom with which it interacts (Figure 1-2). This type of interaction between radiation and matter is called **ionization**. Ionization occurs when an x-ray passes close to an orbital electron of an atom and transfers sufficient energy to the electron to remove it from the atom. The ionizing radiation may interact with and ionize additional atoms. The orbital electron and the atom from which it was separated are called an **ion pair**. The electron is a negative ion, and the remaining atom is a positive ion.

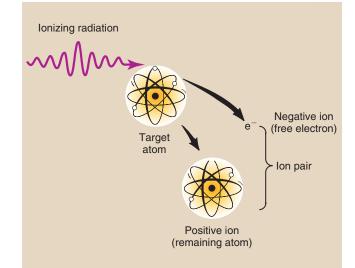


FIGURE 1-2 Ionization is the removal of an electron from an atom. The ejected electron and the resulting positively charged atom together are called an *ion pair*.

Ionization is the removal of an electron from an atom.

Thus any type of energy that is capable of ionizing matter is known as ionizing radiation. X-rays, gamma rays, and ultraviolet light are the only forms of electromagnetic radiation with sufficient energy to ionize. Some fast-moving particles (particles with high kinetic energy) are also capable of ionization. Examples of particle-type ionizing radiation are alpha and beta particles (see Chapter 2). Although alpha and beta particles are sometimes called *rays*, this designation is incorrect.

SOURCES OF IONIZING RADIATION

Many types of radiation are harmless, but ionizing radiation can injure humans. We are exposed to many sources of ionizing radiation (Figure 1-3). These sources can be divided into two main categories: natural environmental radiation and man-made radiation.

Natural environmental radiation results in an annual dose of approximately 3 millisieverts (mSv). Man-made radiation results in 3.2 mSv annually. An mSv is the unit of effective dose. It is used to express radiation exposure of populations and radiation risk in those populations.

Natural environmental radiation consists of four components: cosmic rays, terrestrial radiation, internally deposited radionuclides, and radon. Cosmic rays are particulate and electromagnetic radiation emitted by the sun and stars. On Earth, the intensity of cosmic radiation increases with altitude and latitude. Terrestrial radiation results from deposits of uranium, thorium, and other radionuclides in the Earth. The intensity is