



08.06.2017

Patient Imaging for Proton Therapy

George Dedes

Department of Medical Physics, Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität, Munich, Germany

MEDICIS - Promed School, CNAO, Pavia, Italy





Outline



Diagnostic (too broad to be covered in this talk)

Imaging for treatment planning

Imaging for patient setup and plan adaptation

- Imaging for treatment verification
- Reconstruction algorithms/techniques

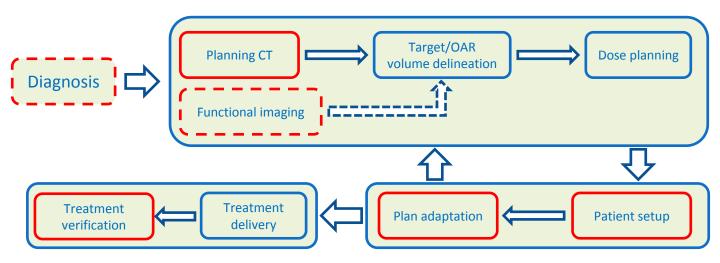


Structure of the talk

- For every section shown in the Outline slide, there will be three (four) subsections:
 - Equipment
 - Methods
 - Challenges and limitations
 - (New approaches)



Imaging for proton therapy





Outline



Diagnostic (too broad to be covered in this talk)

Imaging for treatment planning

Imaging for patient setup and plan adaptation

- Imaging for treatment verification
- Reconstruction algorithms/techniques





Equipment





- Treating with particles, imaging with photons
- The high quality CTs used for treatment planning are X-ray CTs
- Some of the state of the art X-ray CT scanners:
 - GE Discovery RT
 - Siemens Somatom
 - Phillips CT Big Bore
 - Toshiba Aquilion

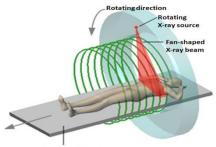






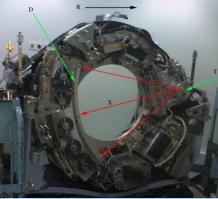


- Tube voltage: 80 140 kV
- Rotation speed: 1 sec or less
- Large bore diameter: 60 90 cm
- Scan field of view: 50 70 cm
- Minimum slice thickness: down to 0.5 mm



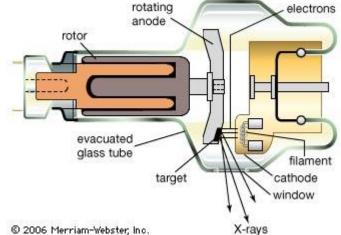
Motorized table

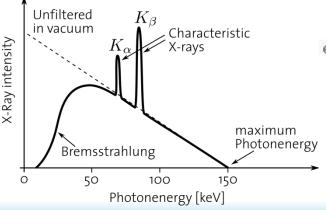






- X-ray tube designs:
 - Focal spot size 0.3-2 mm
 - Max. voltage 150 kV
 - Heating capacity 450 kJ
 - Anode rotation speed 2000 10000/min

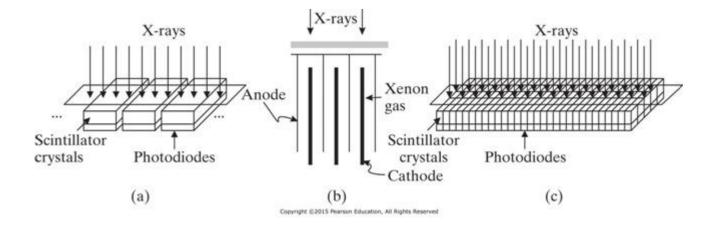






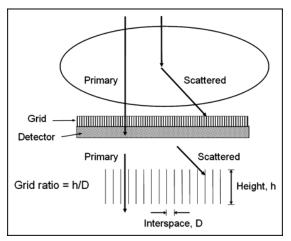


Nowadays solid state detectors (Xe detectors obsolete)

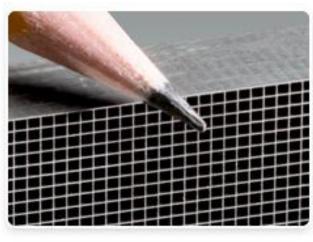




- Anti-scatter grids:
 - X-ray absorbing material
 - Ideally eliminates scattered photons



Journal of Nuclear Medicine Technology Volume 33, Number 1, 2005 3-18

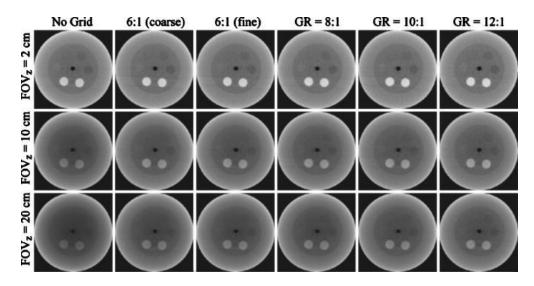


http://www.mikrosystems.com/applications/computed-tomography





- Anti-scatter grids:
 - The influence of grid granularity (the higher the better) and FOV (the lower the better)



Medical Physics 31(12):3506-20, 2005



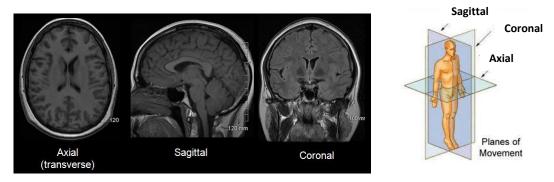


Methods





- X-ray CT image:
 - Hounsfield Units (HU), representing photon attenuation

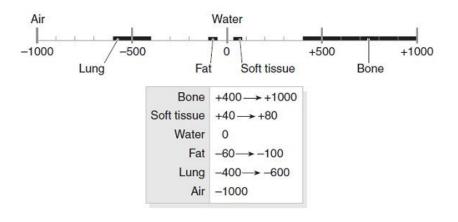


- Proton treatment plan:
 - Based on relative to water stopping power of protons (RSP)
 - Determines where the protons will stop and how much energy they will deposit along their paths
- Need to HU to RSP: No one-to-one correlation!



- X-ray CT image:
 - A few basics of what is reconstructed

 $HU = 1000 \times \frac{\mu - \mu_{water}}{\mu_{water}}$

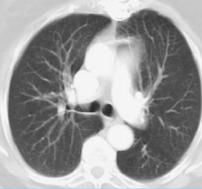




Level= +40 HU and Window = 350



Level= -600 HU and Window = 1500







- From HU units to RSP: Stoichiometric calibration Schneider, Pedroni, Lomax. Phys. Med. Biol. 41 (1996) 111–124
 - The measured HU is a function of the photon attenuation μ

$$HU = 1000 \times \frac{\mu - \mu_{water}}{\mu_{water}}$$

- The photon attenuation can be written as a function of the electron density $ρN_g$, where ρ is the mass density and N_g the number of electrons per unit volume (function of Z)

$$\mu = \rho N_g(Z, A) \{ \sigma^{ph} + \sigma^{coh} + \sigma^{incoh} \}$$

A parametrization of the cross section is:

$$\mu = \rho N_g(Z, A) \{ K^{ph} Z^{3.62} + K^{coh} Z^{1.86} + K^{KN} \}$$





- From HU units to RSP: Stoichiometric calibration schneider, Pedroni, Lomax. Phys. Med. Biol. 41 (1996) 111–124
 - Making a set of measurements (HU) of different tissue substitutes of know composition (Z, ρ_e), the K parameters are defined by a fit to the measurement

 $HU = 1000 \times \frac{\mu - \mu_{water}}{\mu_{water}}$

$$\mu = \rho N_g(Z, A) \{ K^{ph} Z^{3.62} + K^{coh} Z^{1.86} + K^{KN} \}$$

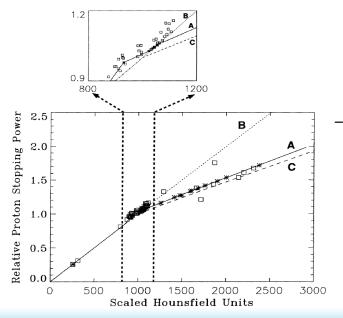
- A full parametrization of the HU (above formula + K factors) has been obtained
- For a comprehensive set of human tissues (ICRU) the parametrization is used in order to calculate the HU from their chemical composition
- Their RSP is also calculated from:

 $RSP = \rho_e \{ \log[2m_e c^2 \beta^2 / I_m (1 - \beta^2)] - \beta^2 \} / \{ \log[2m_e c^2 \beta^2 / I_{water} (1 - \beta^2)] - \beta^2 \}$





- From HU units to RSP: Stoichiometric calibration schneider, Pedroni, Lomax. Phys. Med. Biol. 41 (1996) 111–124
 - From this comprehensive set of human tissues we create an HU to RSP calibration

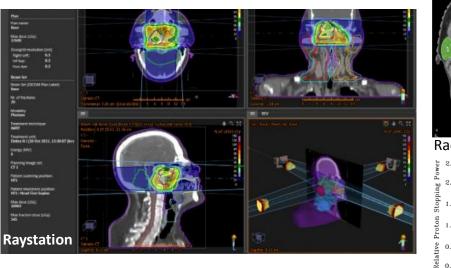


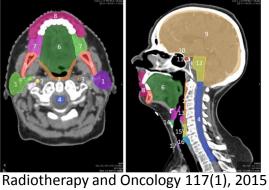
Finally, any measured HU of an unknown tissue (voxel) can be converted to RSP, based on this calibration

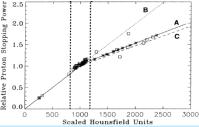




- Procedure in a nutshell:
 - "Universal" quantities: facility beam model, dose to water, HU->RSP calibration, ...
 - Patient specific quantities: organ contours, prescribed dose to target and OARS, ...



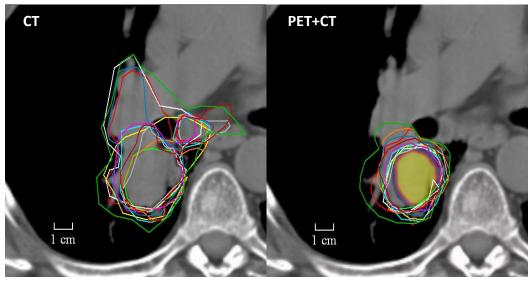








- Of course multimodal imaging can improve the procedure:
 - Example of tumor delineation on CT only and on PET+CT



International Journal of Radiation Oncology Biology Physics, Volume 64, Issue 2, 435 – 448, 2006





Challenges / Limitations





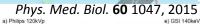
• Limitations:

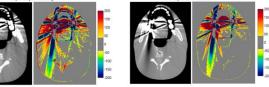
Uncertainty Category	Uncertainty Source
Uncertainties in patient CT imaging	The deviation of HU value from its calibrated value when imaging a patient. The major contributions of uncertainties are from the scatter condition and beam-hardening effect in patient geometry. Minor contributions are from out-of-field objects, such as a portion of the CT couch, immobilization device, and day-to-day variation etc.
Uncertainties the parameterized stoichiometric formula to calculate theoretical CT numbers	This includes the uncertainties in the definition and measurement of equations $(1) - (4)$ using CT imaging for a tissue substitute phantom, including the parameterization of equation (3).
Uncertainties due to deviation of actual human body tissue from ICRU standard tissue	The uncertainties caused by modeling SPR and variations of tissue composition in patient population. The original stoichiometric calibration assumes tissues to follow ICRU standard tissue compositions, which may introduce uncertainties for a given individual with different age or health status.
Uncertainties in mean excitation energies	The value of mean excitation energy is critical in calculating SPR. We evaluated the impact to SPR by the fact that we always made proton range measurement in water during the commissioning process. Only the relative uncertainties (to water) of the mean excitation energy will contribute towards the SPR calculation for a given tissue.
Uncertainty due to energy dependence of SPR not accounted by dose algorithm	For simplicity, some treatment planning systems ignored the SPR dependency on proton energy. This may be specific to a particular situation, but it shows the uncertainty of dose calculation depends on the implementation of dose calculation algorithms.

Phys Med Biol. 2012 Jul 7; 57(13): 4095-4115

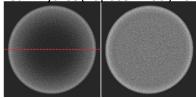


- CT imaging uncertainties:
 - Metal implant artifacts
 - Beam hardening
 - Ring artifacts
 - Motion
 - Anatomical changes, motion, etc





Med. Phys. 39(10):6397-406, 2012

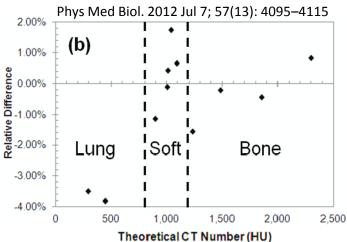








- Stoichiometric calibration:
 - Calculation of HU deviates from the real one

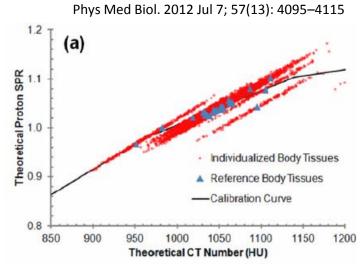


	Uncertainties (1 σ)		
Tissue Group	CT Number	SPR	
Lung	3.7%	3.8%	
Soft	1.0%	0.8%	
Bone	0.9%	0.5%	





- Stoichiometric calibration:
 - Human tissues with slight variations in chemical composition from the reference tissues don't fit well the calibration curve



Tissue Group	Uncertainties (1 σ)		
	Reference Human Tissues	Individualized Human Tissues	
Lung	0.00%	0.18%	
Soft	0.43%	1.20%	
Bone	0.29%	1.60%	





- Stoichiometric calibration:
 - Inaccuracy in calculating I values
 - 10% error in I yields up to 1% error in RSP

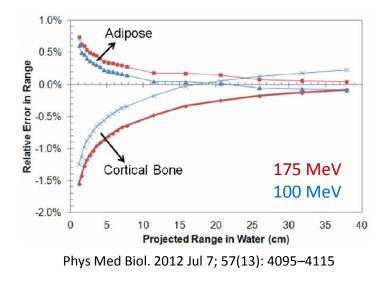
Tissue Group	Relative Differences in Theoretical SPRs (1 σ)		
Lung	0.17%		
Soft	0.23%		
Bone	0.65%		

Phys Med Biol. 2012 Jul 7; 57(13): 4095-4115





- Stoichiometric calibration:
 - Small errors from neglecting the energy dependence of RSP







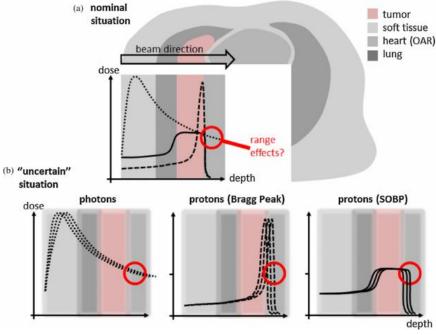
- Stoichiometric calibration:
 - Total RSP uncertainty ranges from 1.6% to 5%
 - 3.5% error covers 95% of the cases studied from three different treatment sites

	Uncertainties in SPR Estimation (1 σ)		
Uncertainty Source	Lung	Soft	Bone
Uncertainties in patient CT imaging	3.3%	0.6%	1.5%
Uncertainties the parameterized stoichiometric formula to calculate theoretical CT numbers	3.8%	0.8%	0.5%
Uncertainties due to deviation of actual human body tissue from ICRU standard tissue		1.2%	1.6%
Uncertainties in mean excitation energies	0.2%	0.2%	0.6%
Uncertainties due to energy dependence of SPR not accounted by dose algorithm	0.2%	0.2%	0.4%
Total (root-sum-square)	5.0%	1.6%	2.4%

Phys Med Biol. 2012 Jul 7; 57(13): 4095-4115



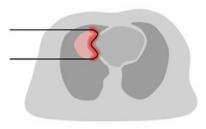




Phys. Med. Biol. 58 R131, 2013

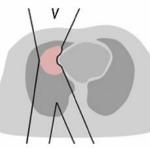


- Impact on range/dose calculations:
 - (a) **"optimal", single**field plan



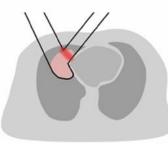
- minimal healthy tissue dose
- high risk for dose in OAR due to range uncertainties

(b) multi-field plan



- minimal risk due to range uncertainties
- high dose to normal tissue

(c) patched-field plan



tumor soft tissue heart (OAR) lung

compromise:

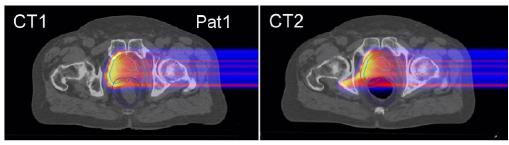
moderate dose to normal tissue, influence of range uncertainties along the patch line

Phys. Med. Biol. 58 R131, 2013



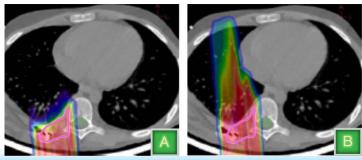


Interfractional anatomical change



Phys. Med. Biol. 60 9329, 2015

RSP determination



Courtesy Prof. R W Schulte





New Approaches



- 4DCT:
 - Motion distorts CT images
 - For example breathing:
 Amplitude of motion ~cm, breathing period ~4 sec
 - 4DCT creates a spatio-temporal anatomical dataset
 - Acquisition:

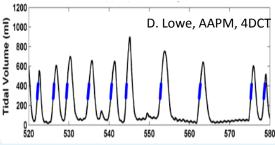
Most straightforward is gated acquisition: Acquire each slice during the same phase of motion

Or by oversampling each slice and sorting in reconstruction

Motion is usually not perfectly periodic

Image Guided IMRT, Springer, 2006, 4DCT, Chen, Rietzel









- 4DCT:
 - Example of 0.4 sec interval
 - Different treatment planning techniques:

Margin expansion to include tumor taking account of motion

Gating: beam at certain phases

Tumor tracking: beam adapted to tumor location

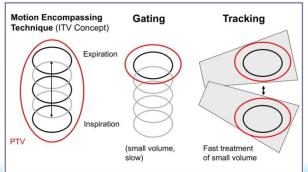
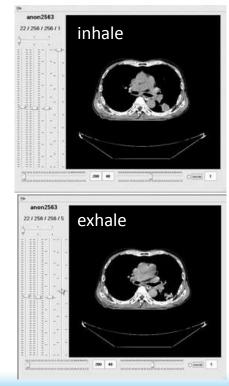


Image Guided IMRT, Springer, 2006, 4DCT, Chen, Rietzel

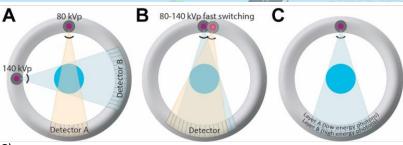




- Dual Energy CT (DECT):
 - Design concept:

Two sources, two detectors (A) One source, two energies, one detector (B) One source, one energy, layered detector (C)

Siemens Somatom Force (A)
 90kVp – 150 kVp/Sn

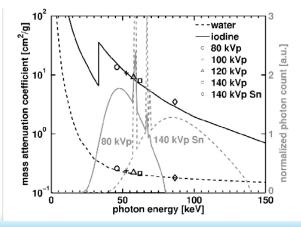








- Dual Energy CT (DECT):
 - HU related to photon attenuation $HU = 1000 imes rac{\mu \mu_{water}}{\mu_{water}}$
 - Photon attenuation is the net result of different processes $\mu \propto C_{\text{Compton}}(E)\rho_e + C_{\text{PE}}(E)Z^3$
 - 2 unknowns, DECT provides two equations (measurements)



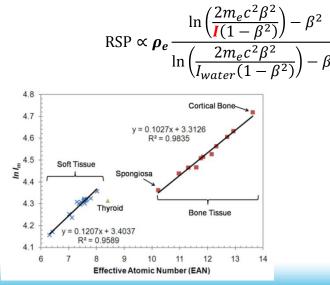
Radiother Oncol 119 (2016) 137



- Dual Energy CT (DECT):
 - Several μ decomposition methods
 - Each method results into an ρ_{ϵ} and Z_{eff} calculation
 - For proton therapy we need RSP

I value is derived from Z_{eff}

via a calibration procedure

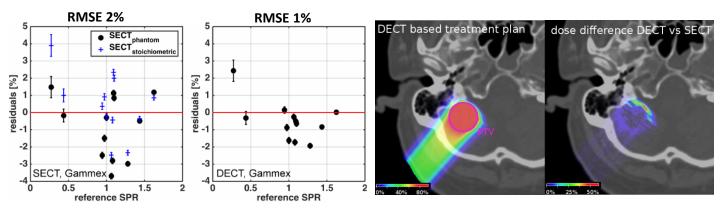


Phys Med Biol 55 (2010) 1343





- Dual Energy CT (DECT):
 - Improved RSP calculation with respect to single energy CT



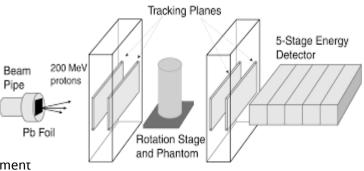
Med Phys 43 (2016) 495

Radiother Oncol 119 20016 137





- Proton CT (pCT):
 - Position measurement at the entrance/exit
 - Direction measurement at the entrance/exit -> a second position measurement
 - Energy loss or residual energy or residual range measurement at the exit
 - Single proton tracking

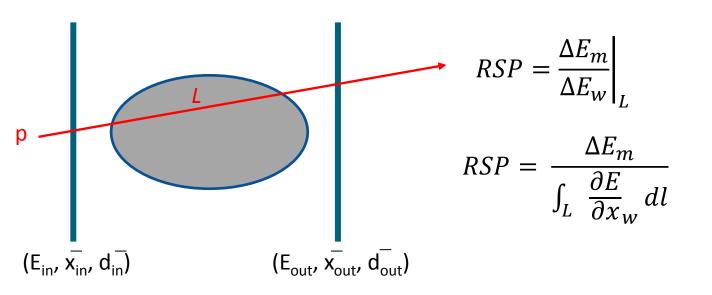


NIM A 831 394-399 (2016)





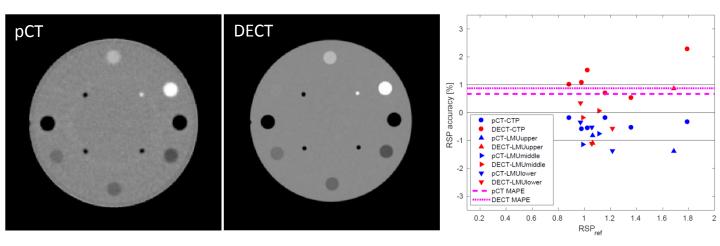
• Proton CT (pCT):







• Proton CT (pCT):





Outline



Diagnostic (too broad to be covered in this talk)

Imaging for treatment planning

Imaging for patient setup and plan adaptation

- Imaging for treatment verification
- Reconstruction algorithms/techniques



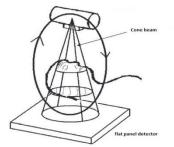


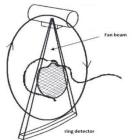
Equipment

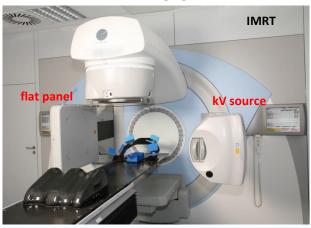


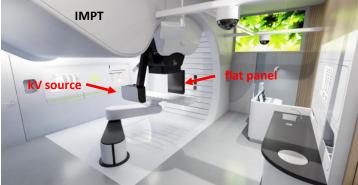


- CBCT:
 - Flat panel detector technology (scintillator + silicon detector array)
 - Cheaper than CT, compact, larger field of view, faster, lower imaging dose











- X-ray CT as for treatment planning:
 - In-room

Transfer to imaging room







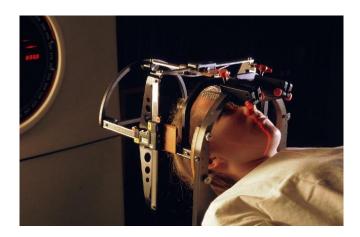
Methods





- Immobilization device and optical systems
- Inner anatomy missing

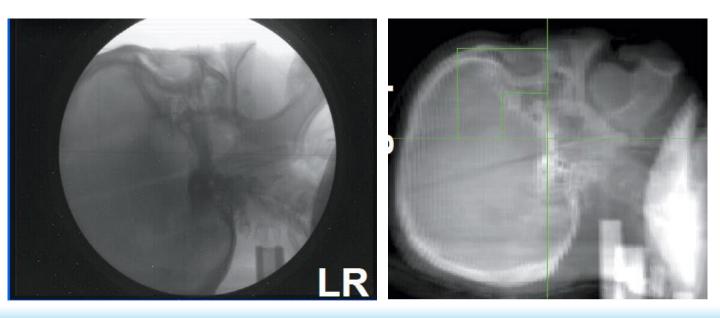








- Positioning:
 - Planar X-ray images, compared to digitally reconstructed radiograph from planning CT







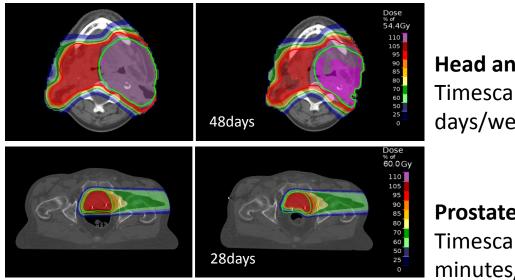
- Positioning:
 - Volumetric on iso-center imaging with CBCT
 - Registration with planning CT

The British Journal of Radiology, 79 (2006), S99–S108





- Plan adaptation:
 - Proton treatment plan sensitive to anatomical changes



Head and neck: Timescale: days/weeks

Prostate: Timescale: minutes/hours/days



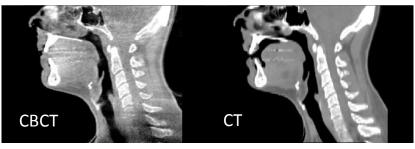


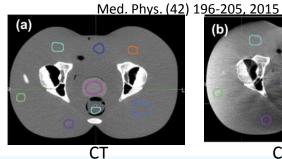
Challenges / Limitations

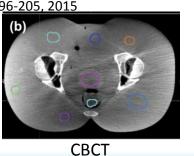




- Limitations:
 - CBCT suffers from the same limitations as X-ray CT
 - In addition due to the beam/detector geometry: increased scattering, poor soft tissue contrast, limited field of view, spatial variation of HU







- X-ray CT: expensive, high dose, bulky, patient needs to be moved



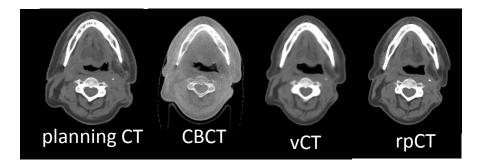


New Approaches





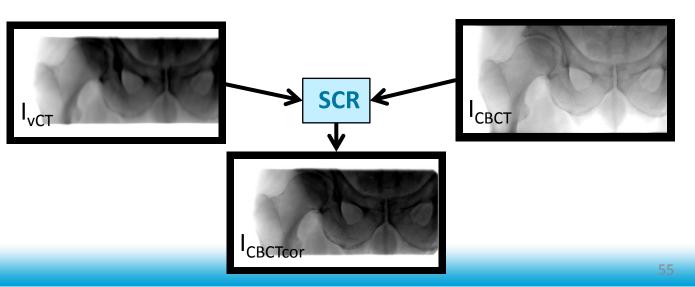
- CBCT anatomy of the day, CT correct HU:
- For plan adaptation:
 - Deform planning CT to CBCT. This creates a virtual CT (vCT) which should match the rpCT ground truth (correct anatomy and HU)







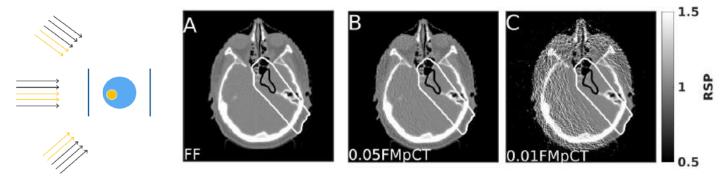
- CBCT anatomy of the day, CT correct HU:
- For plan adaptation:
 - Apply scatter correction to CBCT, using vCT as a prior







- pCT with fluence modulation
 - Exploit the pCT accuracy in RSP estimation, with a spatially varying image quality to achieve a low dose imaging for positioning/plan adaptation



Dose savings up to 50% while retaining RSP accuracy in the ROI (beam path)



Outline



Diagnostic (too broad to be covered in this talk)

Imaging for treatment planning

Imaging for patient setup and plan adaptation

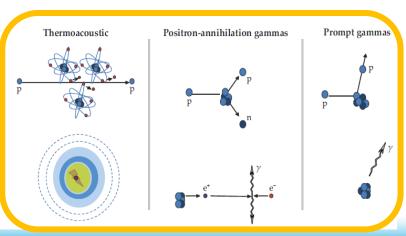
- Imaging for treatment verification
- Reconstruction algorithms/techniques





- Beam particles do not escape the patient
- They can be detected indirectly

Different emission mechanisms



Imaging particle beams fo

Jerimy C. Polf and Katia Parodi

Proton and carbon-ion radiotherapy are powerful tools for killing tumor cells, but only if the particles deposit their energy where they're supposed to.

n 2014 approximately 1 in 7 deaths worldwide were due to cancer and an estimated 14 million new cases of cancer were diagnosed. Many cancer patients receive radiotherapy either on its own or in conjunction with chemotherapy or surgery. Radiotherapy works as a cancer treatment by depositing energy through atomic and nuclear interactions in patient tissues and thereby damaging tumor cells. That energy deposition, known as the treatment dose, is measured in units of joules per kilogram of tissue, or grays. The goal is to deliver the prescribed radiation treatment dose to the entire tumor volume while minimizing or eliminating the dose received by healthy tissues and organs. Toward that end, the past 20 years have seen the development and deployment of sophisticated new treatment techniques designed to precisely target and deliver radiation to the tumor volume. (See the article by Arthur Boyer, Michael Goitein, Antony Lomax, and Eros Pedroni, PHYSICS TODAY, September 2002, page 34.) In particular, the prevalence of radiotherapy



Jerimy Polf is an assistant professor of radiation oncology at the University of Maryland School of Medicine in Baltimore. Katia Parodi is a professor and chair of medical physics at wig-Maximilians University in Munich.

beams has rapidly increased over the past 10-15 years. The distinct dinical advantage that ion beams provide over x rays was first pointed out in 1946 by Robert Wilson.1 To first order, the rate at which proton and carbon-ion beams deposit dose in a medium is inversely proportional to the particles' kinetic energy. As a result, the dose delivery rate is lowest when the beam first enters the patient, gradually increases with depth as the particles lose energy, and culminates in a localized sharp increase, known as the Bragg peak, just before the beam stops. The depth of the sharp dose falloff just beyond the Bragg peak, called the beam range, is a function of the proton or ion energy used for treatment. By carefully selecting and modulating the beam energy, radiation oncologists can choose the beam range so that the high-dose Bragg peak is precisely delivered to the tumor while critical organs beyond the tumor are almost entirely spared. The ability to deliver more dose to the tumor and less to the surrounding healthy tissue means, in principle, that patients are less likely to experience posttreatment complications and side effects and are more likely to be cured of their cancer.

Despite the promise and potential of the Bragg www.physicstoday.org

based on proton and carbon-ion

28 October 2015 Physics Today

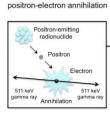




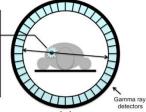
Equipment



- Use of positron emission tomography
 - Positron emitter induced by beam interaction with tissue

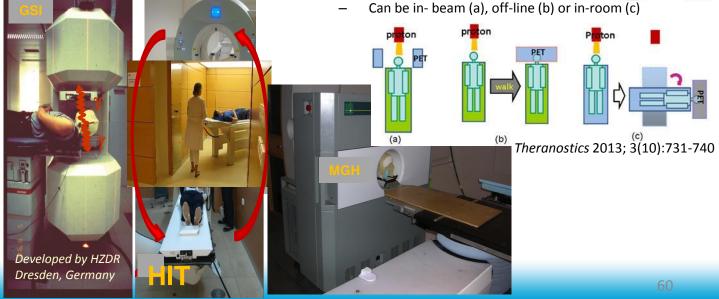


Positron emission and



PET scanner

Front. Oncol., 13 August 2013





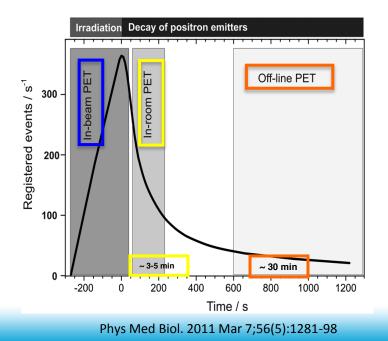


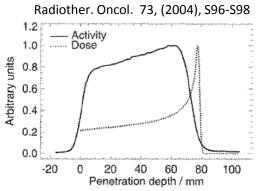
Methods





- PET distribution correlated to proton/ion range
 - Not one-to-one correlation of PET profile to Bragg peak



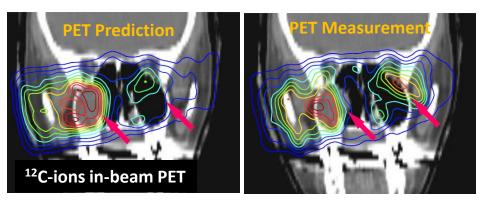


 PET is a dynamic process depending on time of irradiation and acquisition





- PET distribution correlated to proton/ion range
 - Calculate a PET prediction according to the treatment plan, compare it with the PET measurement



K. Parodi PhD Thesis 2004 Radiother Oncol 2004

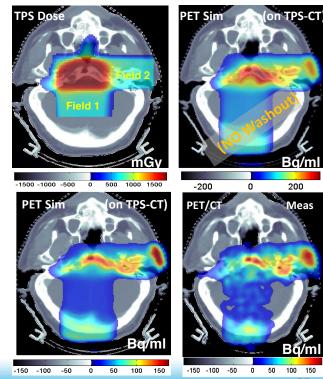




Challenges/Limitations



- PET clinical application as treatment verification technique
 - Low SNR
 - Biological washout
 - Suboptimal hardware
 (adapted from clinical or small animal PET)
 - Need of fast & accurate model
 - In-house developed workflow



Parodi et al, IJROBP 68, 2007





New Approaches



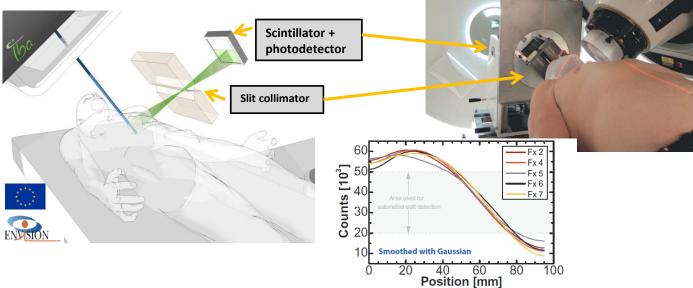


New detectors and scanner design for PET









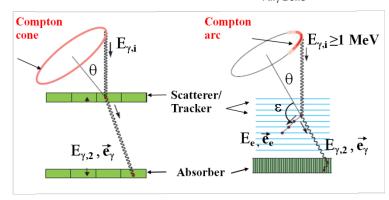


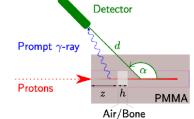


- Exploiting the emission of prompt gamma
 - Compton camera's (no mechanical collimation + 3D imaging)
 - Prompt gamma timing

....

Prompt gamma spectroscopy









Thank you for your attention