

$$E' = \frac{E}{1 + \frac{E}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \theta)}$$

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = K \rho \frac{Z}{A} \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \left[\ln \left(\frac{2 m_e c^2 \gamma^2 T_{max}}{I} \right) - 2\beta^2 - \delta - 2 \frac{C}{Z} \right]$$



Computational methods for Medical Physics

Lecture 4: The convolution operation and its use in proton dose calculation

Dr. George Dedes

WS 2016-2017

- Lectures 1-3:
 - MC integration technique
 - Random sampling
 - Sampling from distributions
 - MC particle transport examples
- This Lecture:
 - Definition of Convolution
 - Convolution and its role in image processing and restoration
 - Basic properties and theorems
 - The pencil beam dose calculation algorithm in proton therapy

- Let f and g be both Lebesgue integrable functions*
- We define the convolution operation $f * g$ as:

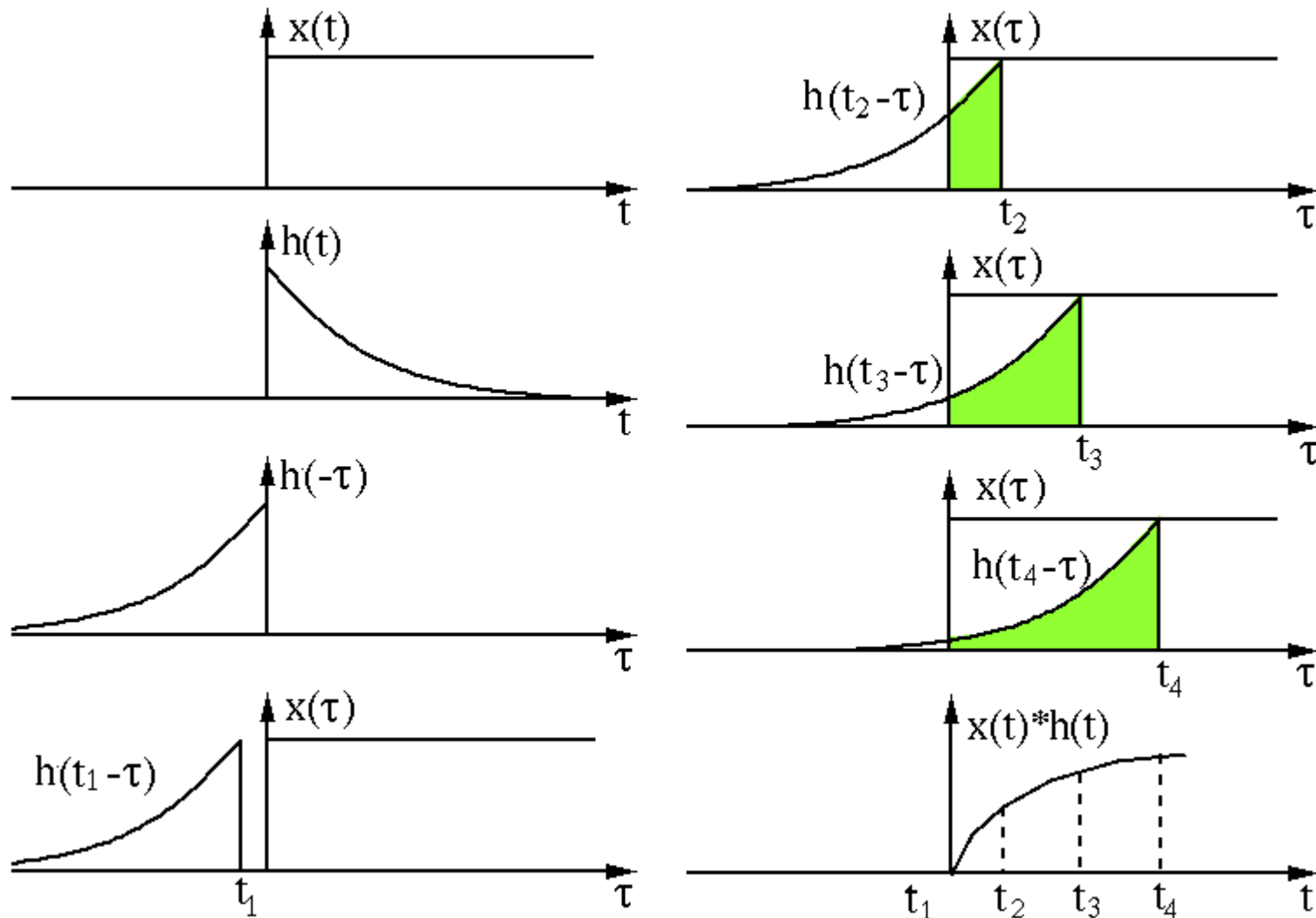
$$h(t) = (f * g)(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau)g(t - \tau)d\tau$$

and we say that the function h is the **convolution** of the functions f and g .

- The operation is similarly defined in higher dimensional spaces

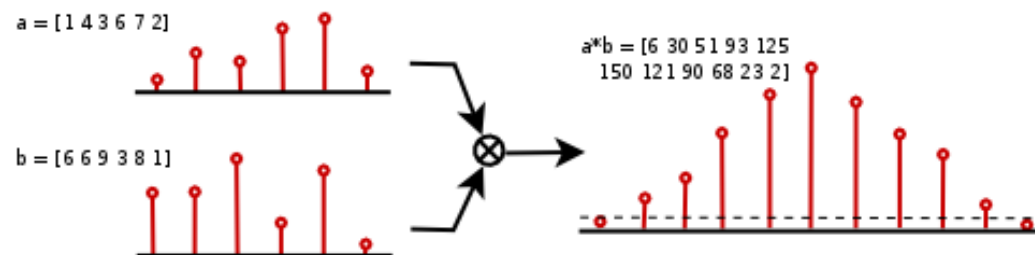
*The condition of Lebesgue integrability is sufficient but not necessary

- Schematic representation of convolution $x * h$



- Convolution can also be defined for discrete signals
- In the majority of the time this is the type of signals we deal with

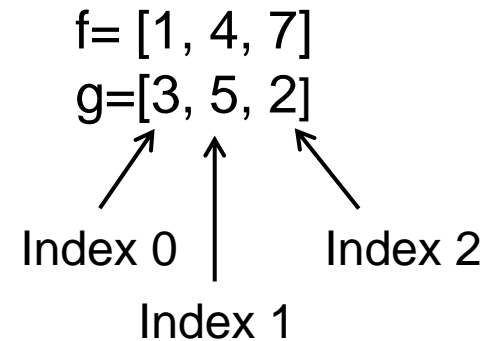
$$(f * g)[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[n-m]$$



- The length of the final vector is: $\text{length}(f) + \text{length}(g) - 1$

Example:

$$h[n] = (f * g)[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[n-m]$$



$$(f * g)[0] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[-m] = f[0]g[0] = 3$$

$$(f * g)[1] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[1-m] = f[0]g[1] + f[1]g[0] = 1*5 + 4*3 = 17$$

$$(f * g)[2] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[2-m] = f[0]g[2] + f[1]g[1] + f[2]g[0] = 1*2 + 4*5 + 7*3 = 43$$

$$(f * g)[3] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[3-m] = f[0]g[3] + f[1]g[2] + f[2]g[1] + f[3]g[0] = 0 + 4*2 + 5*7 + 0 = 43$$

$$(f * g)[4] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[4-m] = f[2]g[2] = 2*7 = 14$$

$$(f * g)[5] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[5-m] = 0$$

$$h = (f * g) = [3, 17, 43, 43, 14]$$

- The convolution operation appears in many fields and applications:
 - The potential of a field caused by an extended body (Physics)
 - The distribution of the sum of two random variables (Probability)
 - Filtering (Image processing)
 - Image deblurring (Image processing)
 - Spectra unfolding (Radiation detection)
 - Dose calculation in radiation therapy (Medical Physics)

- The convolution operation appears in many fields and applications:
 - The potential of a field caused by an extended body (Physics)
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 - Filtering (Image processing)
 - Image deblurring (Image processing)
 - Spectra unfolding (Radiation detection)
 - Dose calculation in radiation therapy (Medical Physics)
- Why the convolution operation appears in so many, seemingly completely different problems?

The convolution operation

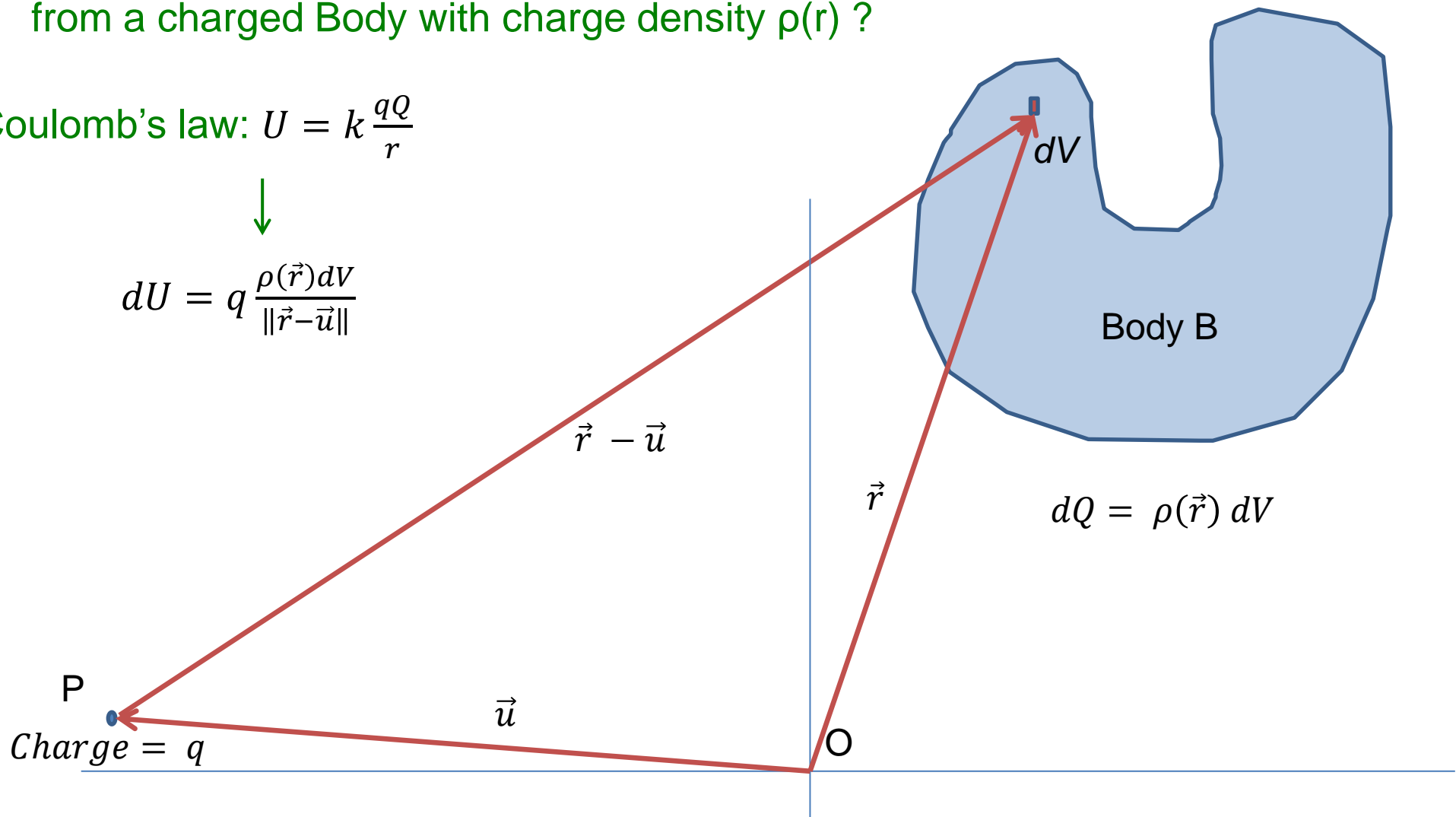
General example

- The electrostatic problem:
What is the electrostatic potential experienced by a point charge P from a charged Body with charge density $\rho(r)$?

Coulomb's law: $U = k \frac{qQ}{r}$



$$dU = q \frac{\rho(\vec{r})dV}{\|\vec{r}-\vec{u}\|}$$

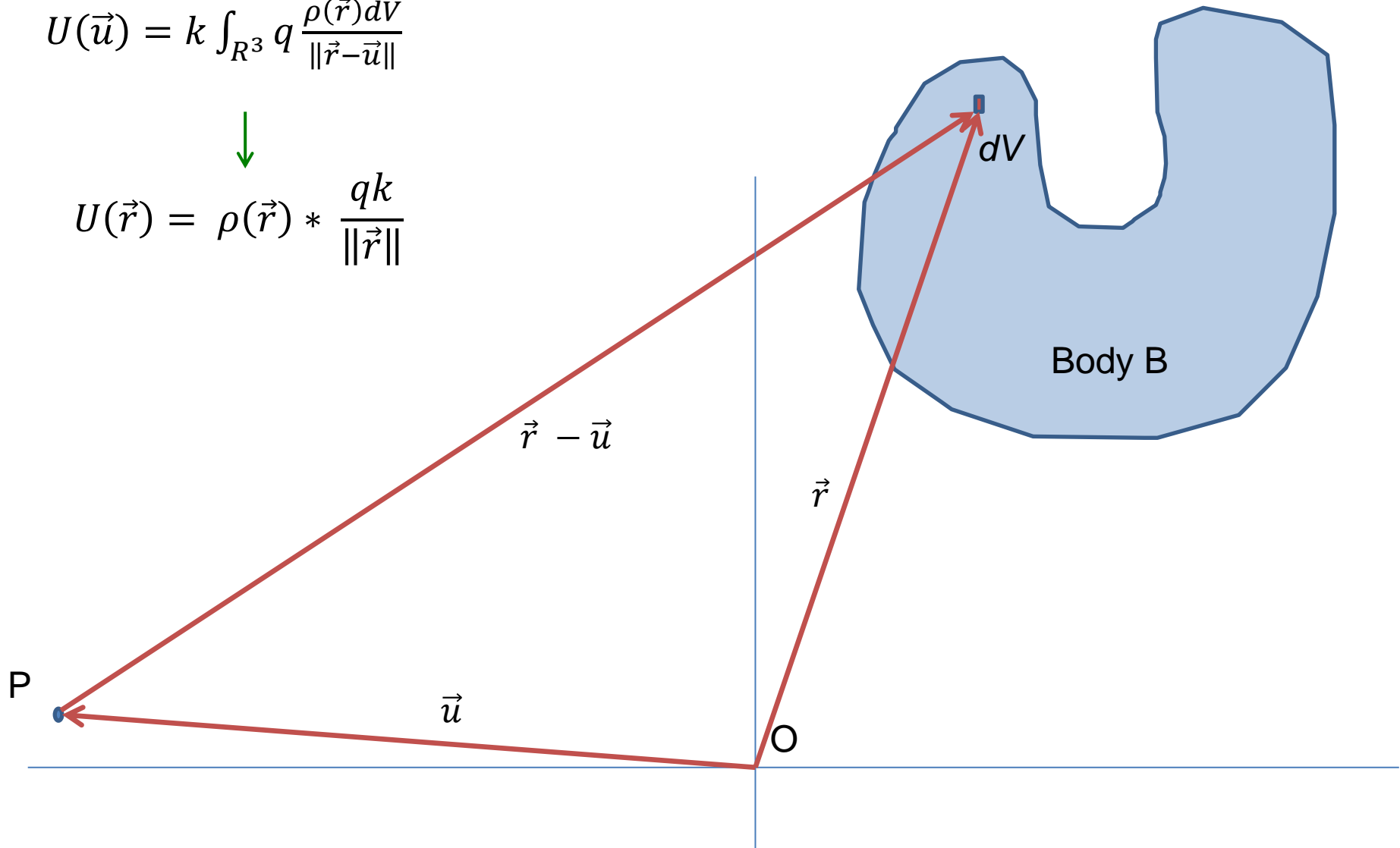


- The electrostatic problem:

$$U(\vec{u}) = k \int_{R^3} q \frac{\rho(\vec{r}) dV}{\|\vec{r} - \vec{u}\|}$$



$$U(\vec{r}) = \rho(\vec{r}) * \frac{qk}{\|\vec{r}\|}$$



- The electrostatic problem:
What is the electrostatic potential of experienced by a point charge P from a charged Body with charge density $\rho(r)$?

$$U(\vec{r}) = \rho(\vec{r}) * \frac{qk}{||\vec{r}||}$$

This is an arbitrary
charge distribution
(it may be different in
every problem)

This is Coulomb's law
(a Universal Law)

Commutative:

$$(f * g) = (g * f)$$

Associative:

$$(f * g) * h = f * (g * h)$$

Distributive:

$$f * (g + h) = (f * g) + (f * h)$$

With delta function:

$$f * \delta = f$$

With derivation:

$$\partial_x (f * g) = (\partial_x f) * g$$

- Complexity of the convolution operation:

$$(f * g)[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[n-m]$$

- The complexity of the above operation is $O(n^2)$
- It roughly means that the CPU/memory/time/storage scales with n^2

- Just as in the continuous case, convolution can also be defined for discrete signals of higher dimensions:

$$(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x-m, y-n]$$

- Example:

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

 $*$

-1	-2	-1
0	0	0
1	2	1

 $=$

?		
---	--	--

Input f

Kernel g

Result f*g

• Example:

	x\y	0	1	2		x\y	0	1	2
0		1	2	3	*	0	-1	-2	-1
1		4	5	6		1	0	0	0
2		7	8	9		2	1	2	1

Input f

Kernel g

$$(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x-m, y-n]$$

$$(f * g)[0,0] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[-m, -n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (f[m, 0] \cdot g[-m, 0]) = f[0, 0] \cdot g[0, 0] = -1$$

$$\begin{aligned} (f * g)[0,1] &= \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[-m, 1-n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (f[m, 0] \cdot g[-m, 1] + f[m, 1] \cdot g[-m, 0]) \\ &= f[0, 0] \cdot g[0, 1] + f[0, 1] \cdot g[0, 0] = -4 \end{aligned}$$

Continue like that until we fill a matrix with dimensions $x' = x_f + x_g - 1$ and $y' = y_f + y_g - 1$

- Example:

$$(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x-m, y-n]$$

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

Input f

*

-1	-2	-1
0	0	0
1	2	1

Kernel g

=

-1	-4	-8	-8	-3
-4	-13	-20	-17	-6
-6	-18	-24	-18	-6
4	13	20	17	6
7	22	32	26	9

- Example (with a trick): $(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x - m, y - n]$
- Take kernel g

-1	-2	-1
0	0	0
1	2	1

Kernel g

- Example (with a trick): $(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x - m, y - n]$
- Take kernel g , flip it in both dimensions

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1

Kernel g

- Example (with a trick): $(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x-m, y-n]$
- Take kernel g, flip it in both dimensions

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1

Kernel g

- Apply it on the input (element by element multiplication and addition)

1	2	1		
0	0	1	2	3
-1	-2	4	5	6
	7	8	9	

= -13

- Example (with a trick): $(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x-m, y-n]$
- Take kernel g, flip it in both dimensions

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1

Kernel g

- Apply it on the input (element by element multiplication and addition)

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1
1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

= -20

- Example (with a trick): $(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x-m, y-n]$
- Take kernel g, flip it in both dimensions

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1

Kernel g

- Apply it on the input (element by element multiplication and addition)

		1	2	1	
1	0	2	3	0	
4	-1	5	-2	-1	
7		8	9		

= -17

= -17

- Example (with a trick): $(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x-m, y-n]$
- Take kernel g, flip it in both dimensions

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1

Kernel g

- Apply it on the input (element by element multiplication and addition)

1	2	1	
	1	2	3
0	0	0	
	4	5	6
-1	-2	-1	
	7	8	9

= -18

- Example (with a trick): $(f * g)[x, y] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m, n] \cdot g[x-m, y-n]$
- Take kernel g, flip it in both dimensions

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1

Kernel g

- Apply it on the input (element by element multiplication and addition)

1	2	3
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Input f

*

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Kernel g

= ?

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- Take kernel g, flip it in both dimensions

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1

Kernel g

- Apply it on the input (element by element multiplication and addition)

1	2	3
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7	8	9

Input f

*

-1	-2	-1
0	0	0
1	2	1

Kernel g

=

-1	-4	-8	-8	-3
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- Take kernel g, flip it in both dimensions

1	2	1
0	0	0
-1	-2	-1

Kernel g

- Apply it on the input (element by element multiplication and addition)

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

Input f

*

-1	-2	-1
0	0	0
1	2	1

Kernel g

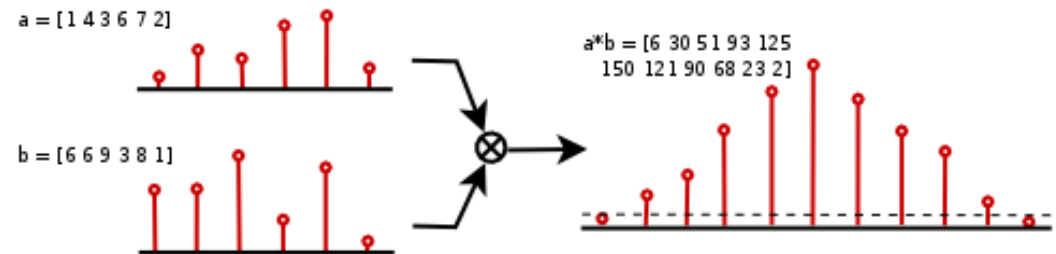
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-1	-4	-8	-8	-3
-4	-13	-20	-17	-6
-6	-18	-24	-18	-6
4	13	20	17	6
7	22	32	26	9

(Image filtering)

- Filtering: a signal (or filter, or kernel) g is used to modify another signal f

$$(f * g)[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[n-m]$$



- Some examples from image filtering

- Filtering:



Original image

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



What is the result of
this filter?



Original image

- Filtering:



Original image

$$\frac{1}{5} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



What is the result of
this filter?



Blurring

- Filtering:



Original image

$$\frac{1}{13} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



What is the result of
this filter?



(More) Blurring

- Filtering:



Original image

$$\frac{1}{9} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



What is the result of
this filter?



Motion Blurring

- Sobel operators or Sobel filters

$$G_x = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$G_y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$G = \sqrt{G_x^2 + G_y^2}$$

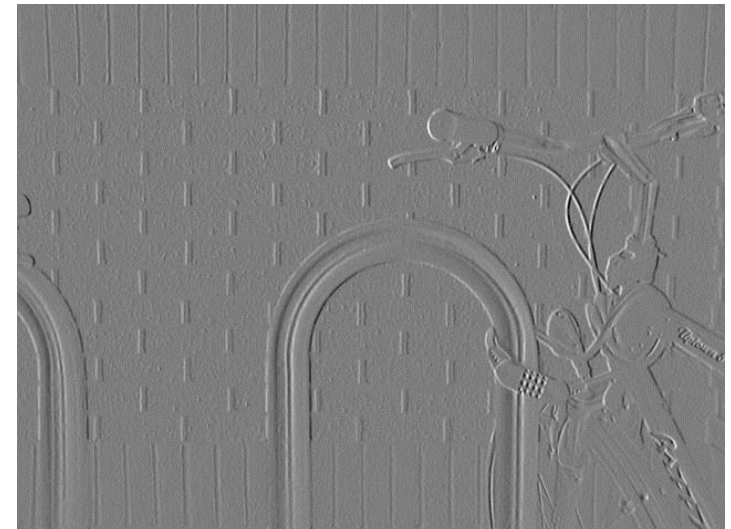
 G 

- Sobel operators or Sobel filters

$$G_x = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$G_y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$G = \sqrt{G_x^2 + G_y^2}$$

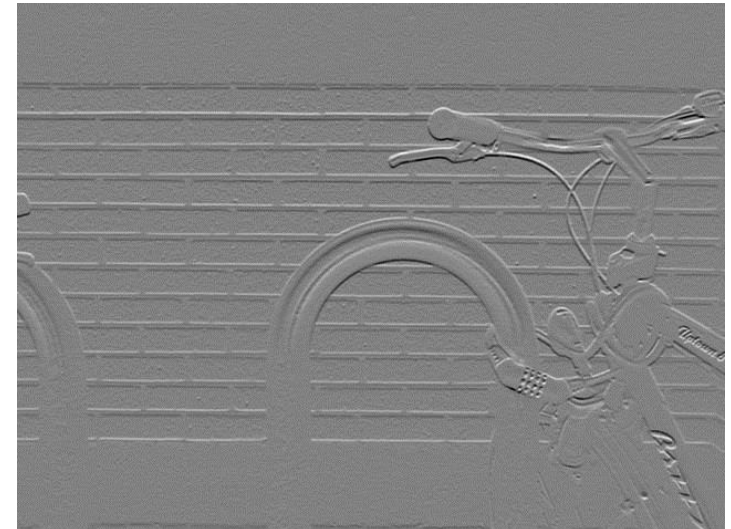
 G_x 

- Sobel operators or Sobel filters

$$G_x = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$G_y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$G = \sqrt{G_x^2 + G_y^2}$$

 G_y 

- Treatment planning of external beam radiation therapy changed drastically in the last two decades of the 20th century
 - Computed tomography (CT) scanners began being actively used in clinics world wide (3D anatomy)
 - Computer manufacturers begun providing solutions that were attractive to the clinical environment (increased computational power)
- Physicists realized that the combination of CT and computer technology there could improve the accuracy of the dose calculations in clinical practice
- In the last 30 years several dose calculation algorithms were proposed in order to achieve the goal of “accurate” treatment planning

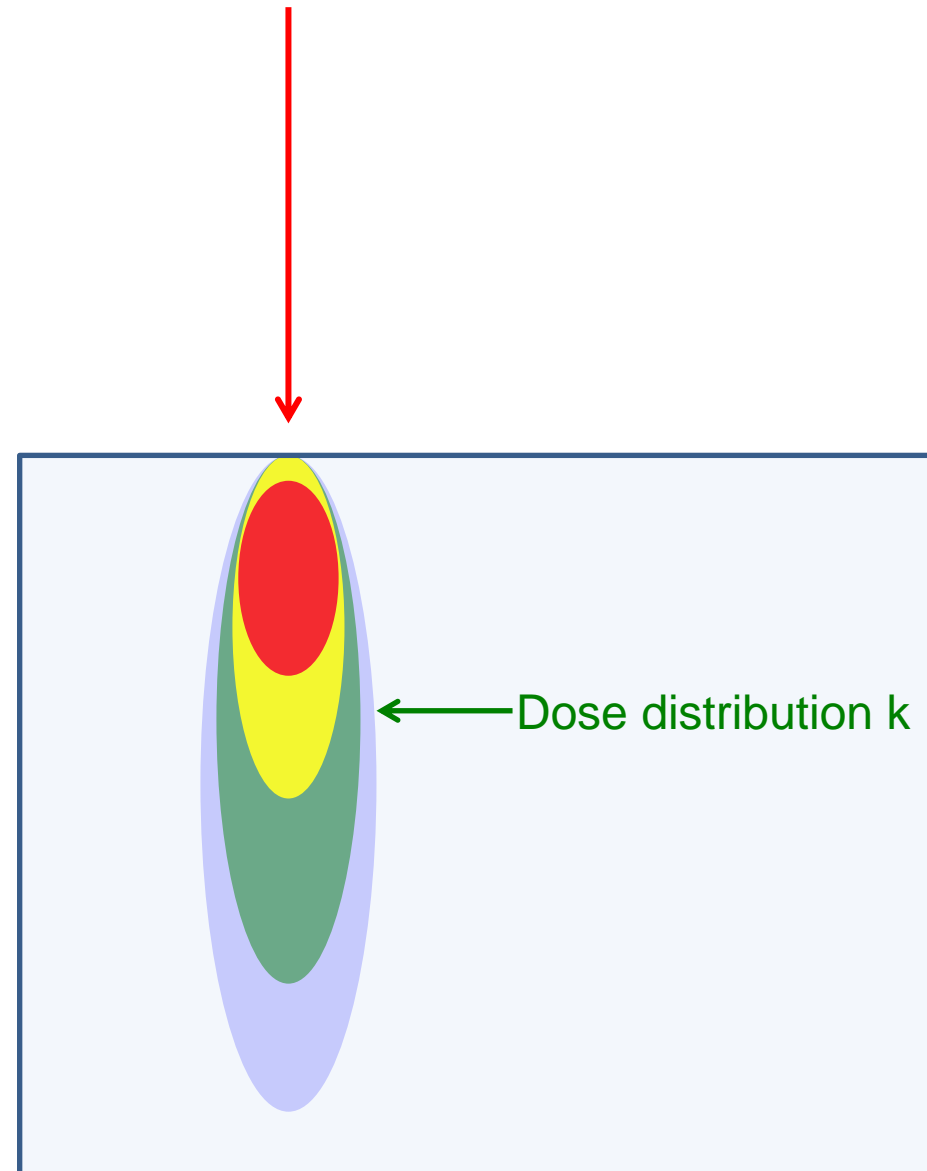
- The 90's and early 00's was the Pencil Beam (PB) algorithm was developed
- Of course there is also Monte Carlo. Highly accurate but too slow to be used
- The idea of the convolution methods:
 - Instead of doing a full Monte Carlo dose calculation
 - Precalculate via Monte Carlo the relevant physical information common to all particular cases
- The problem of dose calculation uses two types of info:
 - “Universal” physical information (dose deposition patterns)
 - Specific physical information (fluences, materials, geometries)

- Treatment planning of external beam radiation therapy changed drastically in the last two decades of the 20th century
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- In the 80's the center of development was what is now called the Convolution/superposition method
- The 90's and early 00's was the time of the Pencil Beam Algorithm
- Of course there is also Monte Carlo. Highly accurate but too slow to be used
- The idea of the convolution methods:
 - Instead of doing a full Monte Carlo dose calculation
 - Precalculate via Monte Carlo the relevant physical information common to all particular cases
- The problem of dose calculation uses two types of info:
 - "Universal" physical information (dose deposition patterns)
 - Specific physical information (fluences, materials, geometries)

The Pencil Beam Algorithm (PB)

- Consider the case of an infinitesimal pencil beam on a water target



The Pencil Beam Algorithm (PB)

- A bit more realistic:
 - An extended beam
 - The dose contribution in point P
 - If each PB has a different intensity/fluence

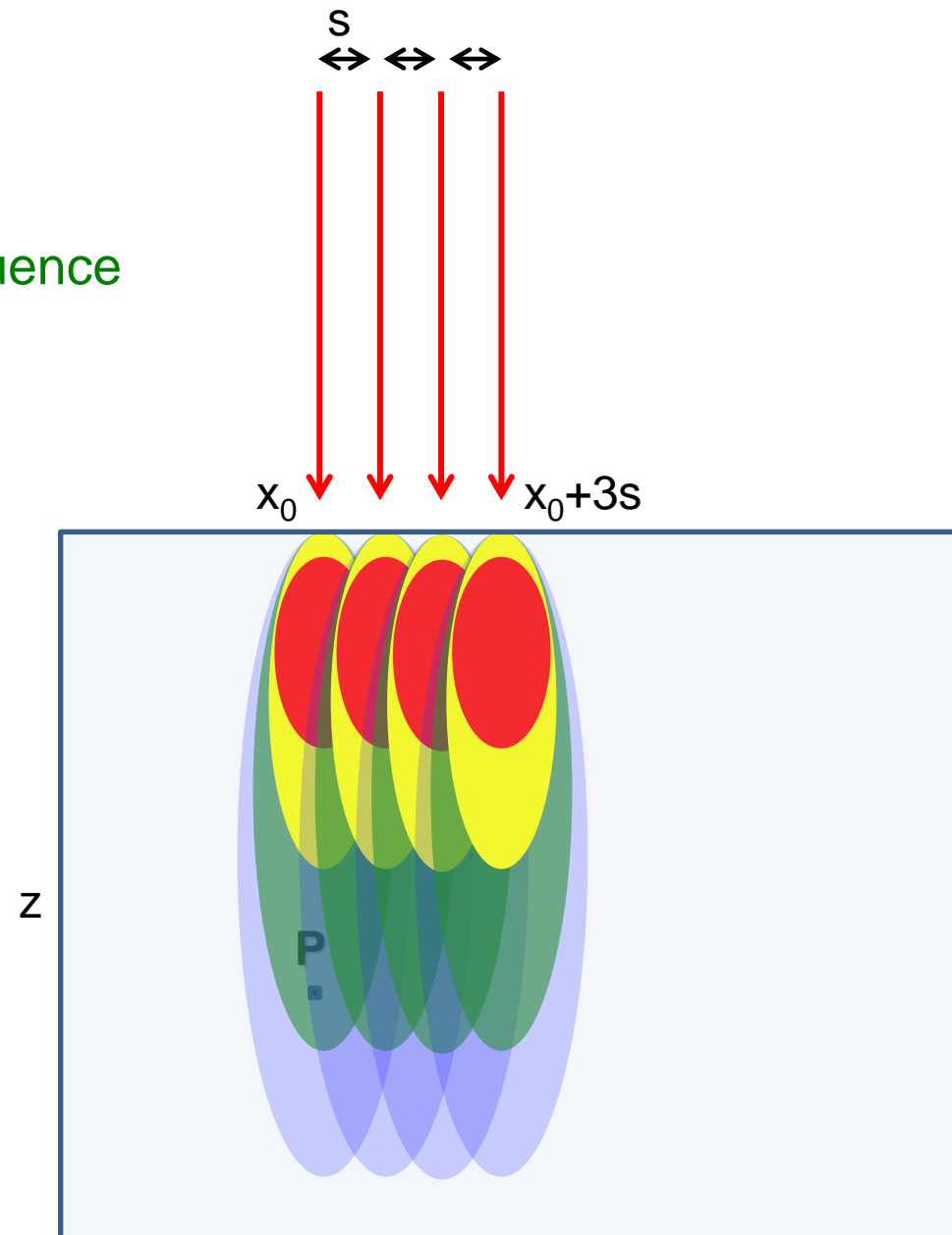
$$d(x, z) = \sum_{i=0}^3 \phi(i) k(x - i \cdot s, z)$$

- Then the dose in position P is:

$$d(x, z) = \phi(x) * k(x, z)$$

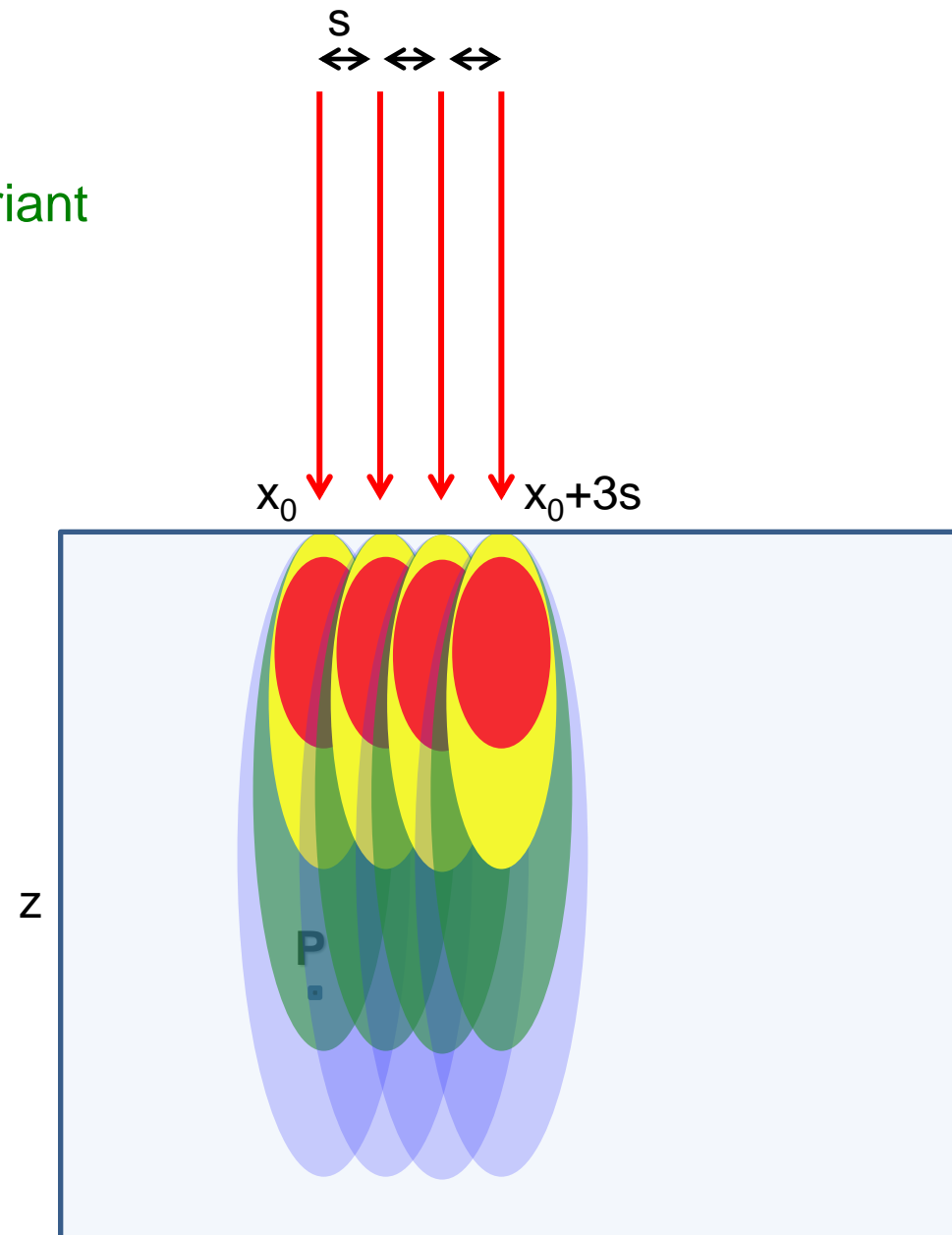
- Similarly to:

$$h[n] = (f * g)[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m] \cdot g[n - m]$$



The Pencil Beam Algorithm (PB)

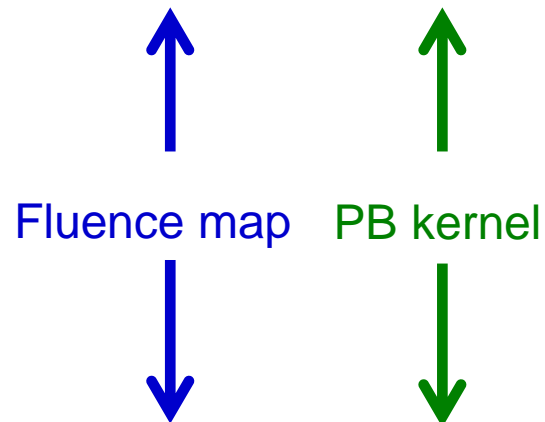
- It shouldn't be surprising that convolution has appeared:
 1. The pencil beam kernel is shift invariant
 2. The absorbed dose obeys linearity
- Convolution is a superposition operation with a constant shift invariant kernel
- The kernel is a constant (for the same energy the dose kernel remains the same)
- The intensity/fluence of each PB is the specific information (could be different in every case)



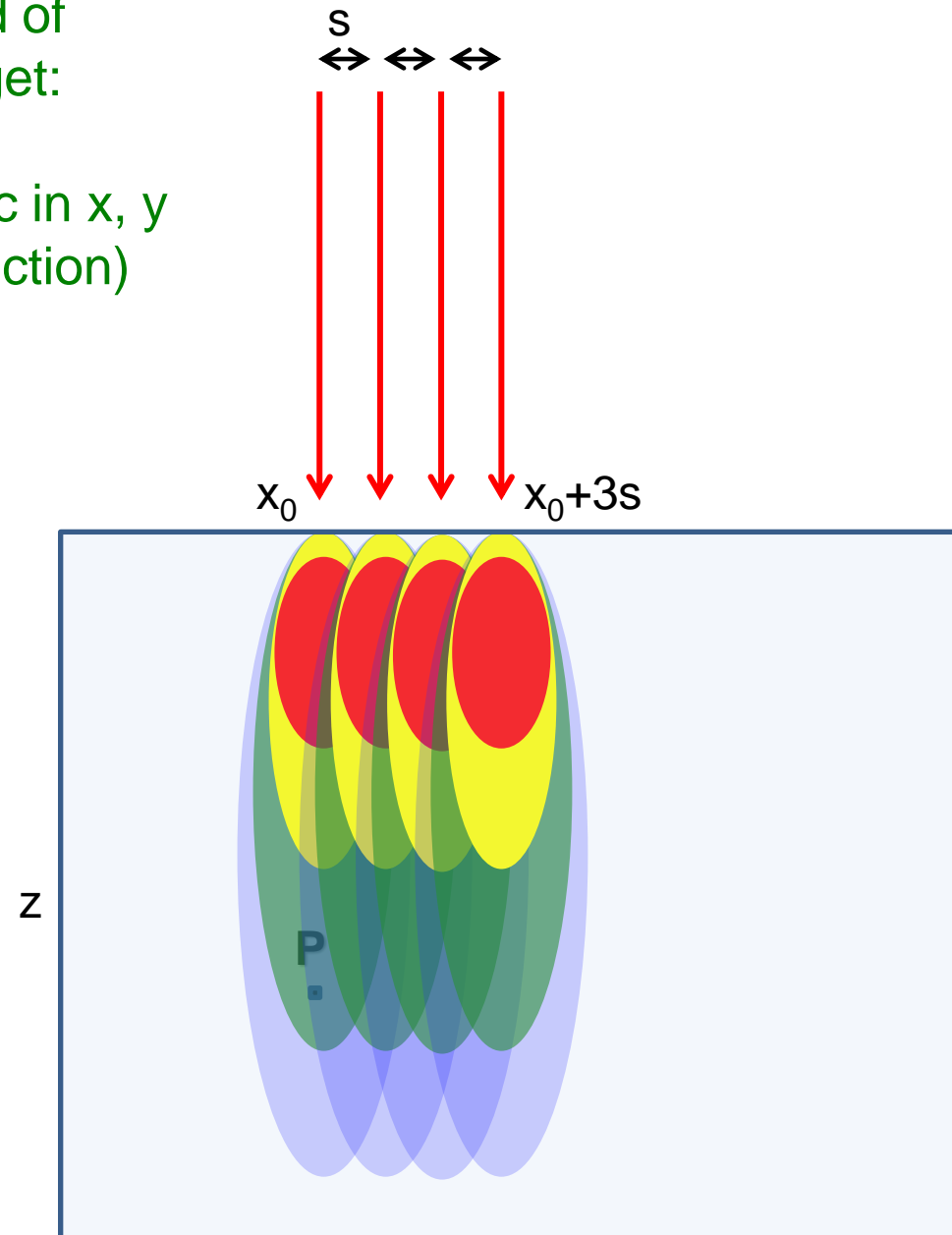
The Pencil Beam Algorithm (PB)

- For an extended photon beam composed of infinitesimal PBs on a homogeneous target:
- Assuming that the PBs are symmetric in x, y (plane perpendicular to the beam direction)

$$d(x, y, z) = \phi(x, y) * k(x, y, z)$$

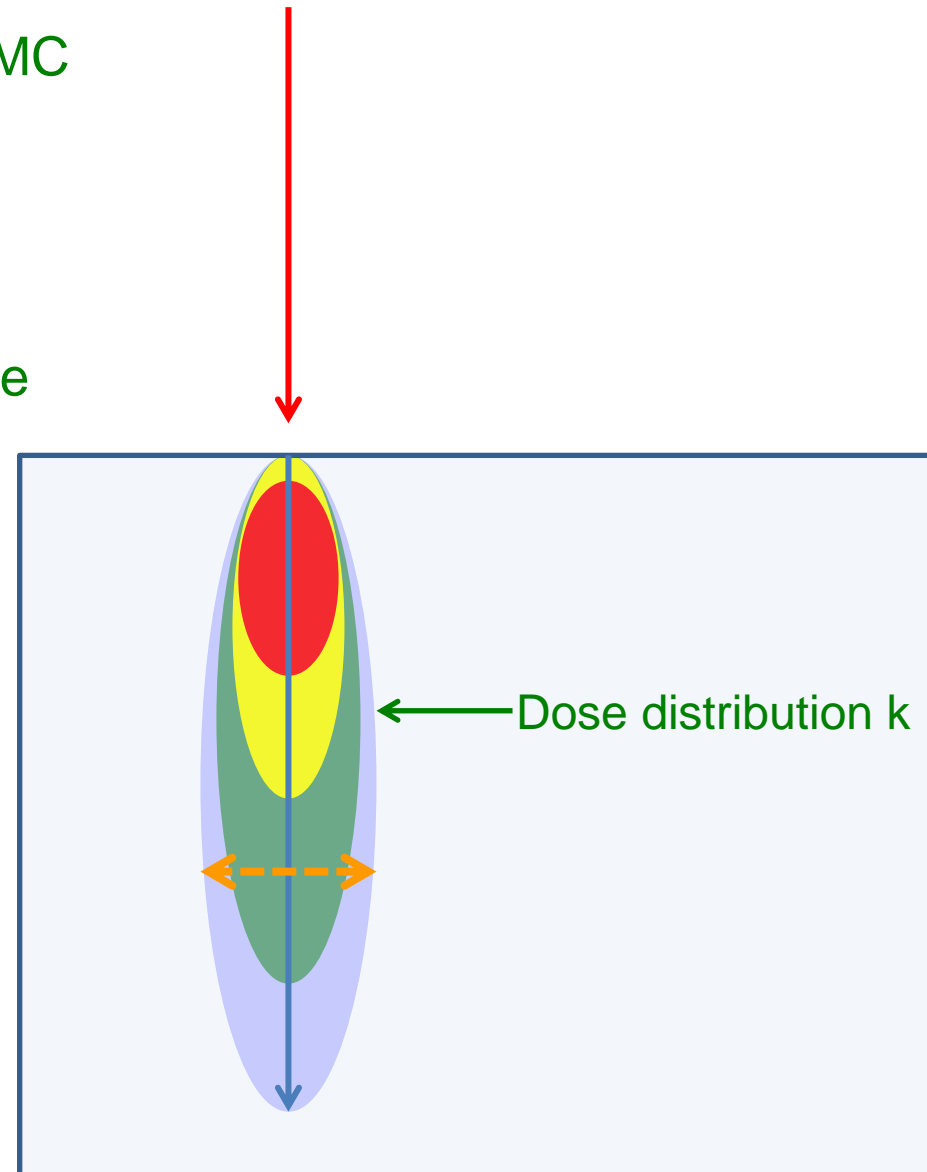


$$d(r, z) = \phi(r) * k(r, z)$$



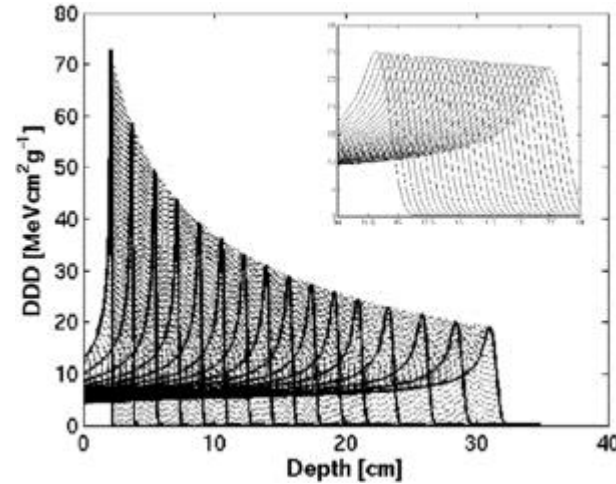
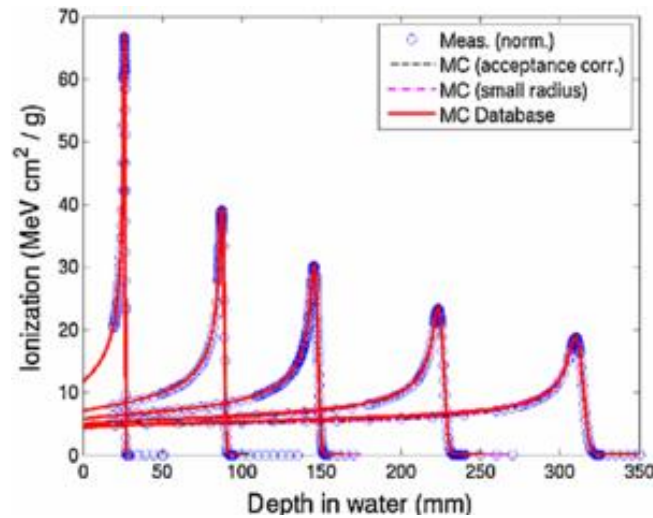
- Description of the dose kernel k :
 - The dose kernel is precalculated with MC and consists of dose in water from PBs of different E (basic input data to the TPS)
 - Based on those data, the TPS splits the dose kernel into two terms: a central-axis term C and an off-axis term O , so that:

$$k(x, y, z) = C(z) \cdot O(x, y, z)$$



The Pencil Beam Algorithm (PB)

- The central-axis term is taken from the laterally integrated PB input data



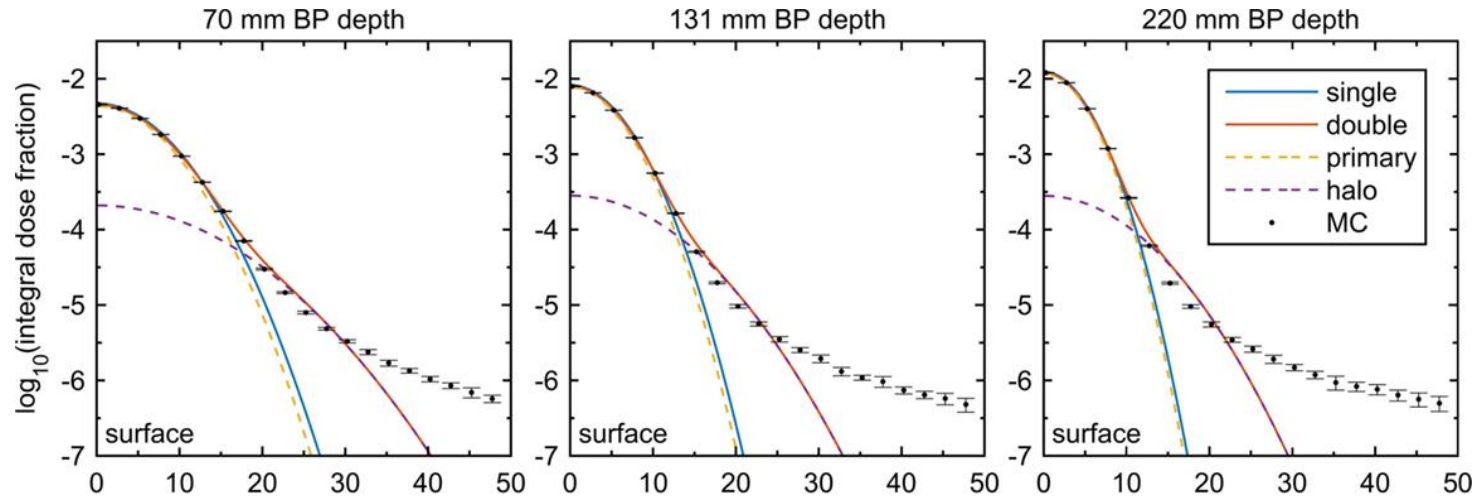
Parodi et al, Phys Med Biol, Volume 57, Number 12

- Scaling of the Bragg peaks as calculated into water for the cases of different materials is based on water equivalent path length

- The off-axis term was initially parameterized as a Gaussian shape of the lateral profile as a function of depth, for each PB

$$O(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{2\pi[\sigma_{tot}(z)]^2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2[\sigma_{tot}(z)]^2}\right)$$

- Where σ_{tot} is the quadratic sum of all contributions broadening the beam
- The single Gaussian parameterization is not adequate. Therefore, double Gaussian is used:



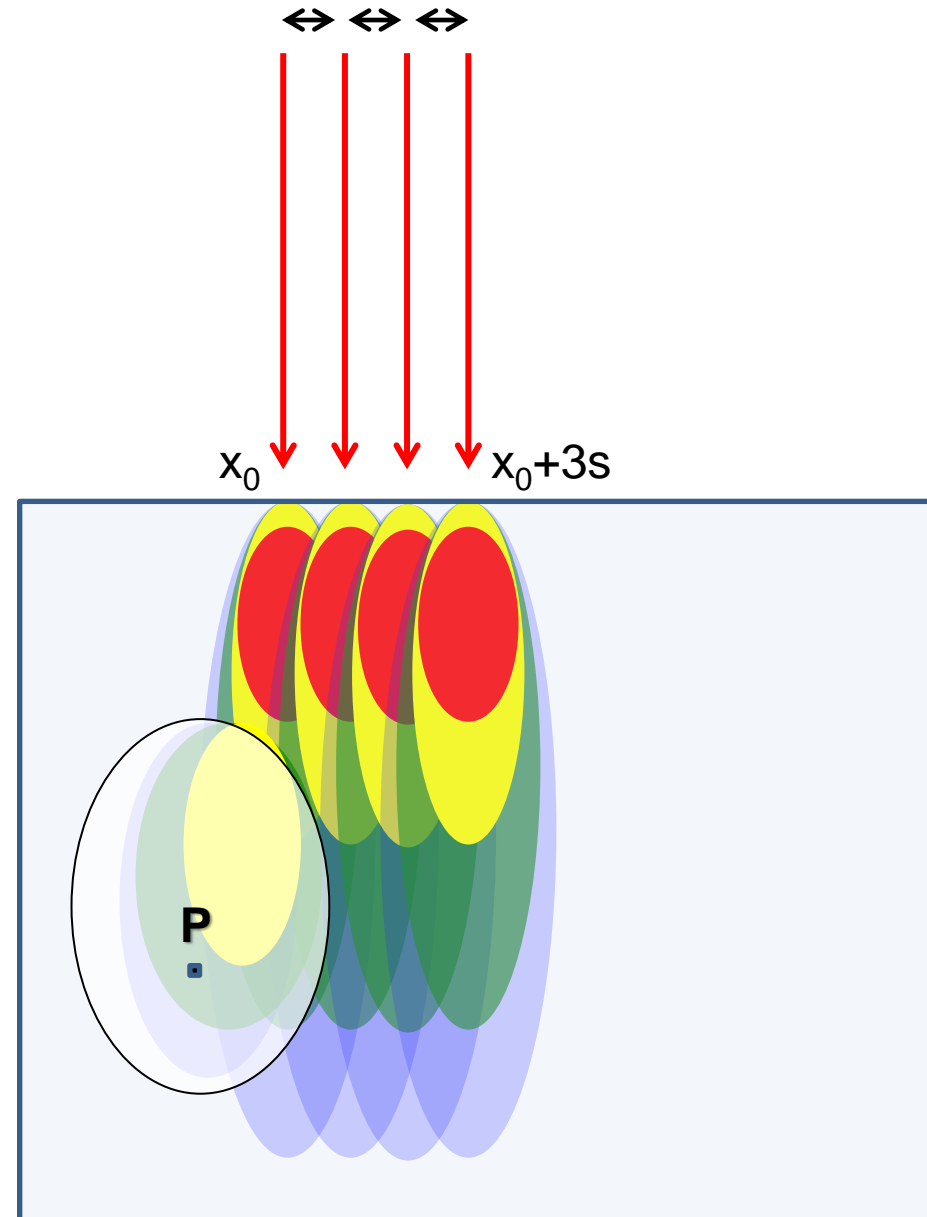
The Pencil Beam Algorithm (PB)

- A patient is clearly not a water tank
- What happens with heterogeneities?

$$d(x, y, z) = \phi(x, y) * k(x, y, z)$$

Fluence map PB kernel

$$d(r, z) = \phi(r) * k(r, z)$$



- The kernel is not shift invariant anymore (takes a position dependent shape)

- What happens in presence of heterogeneities?:
- Tabulate the dose kernel $k(r,z)$ in water (as for the homogeneous case)
- using CT data, apply a correction factor $A(z_{rad})$ (1D)

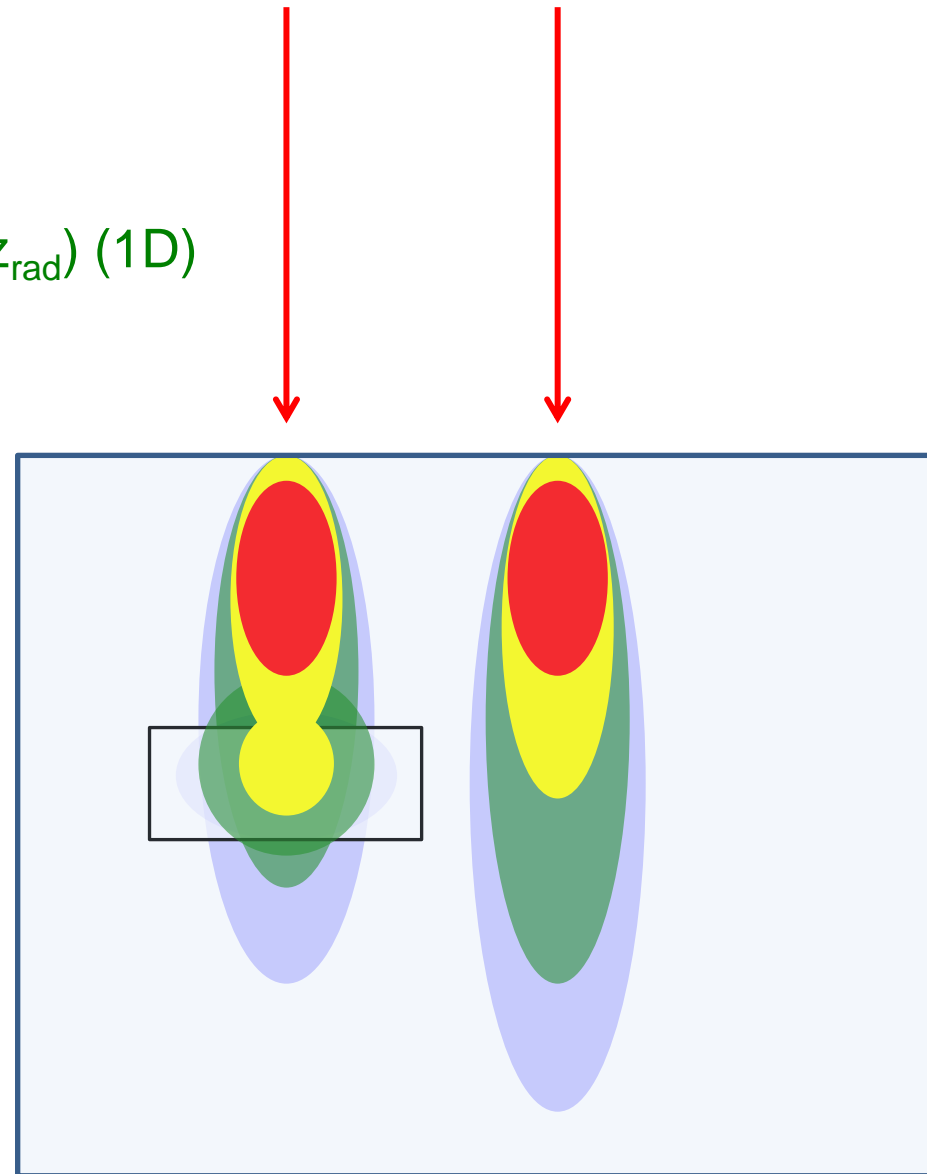
$$k'(x, y, z) = A(z_{rad})k(x, y, z)$$

- or $A(x,y,z_{rad})$ (3D)

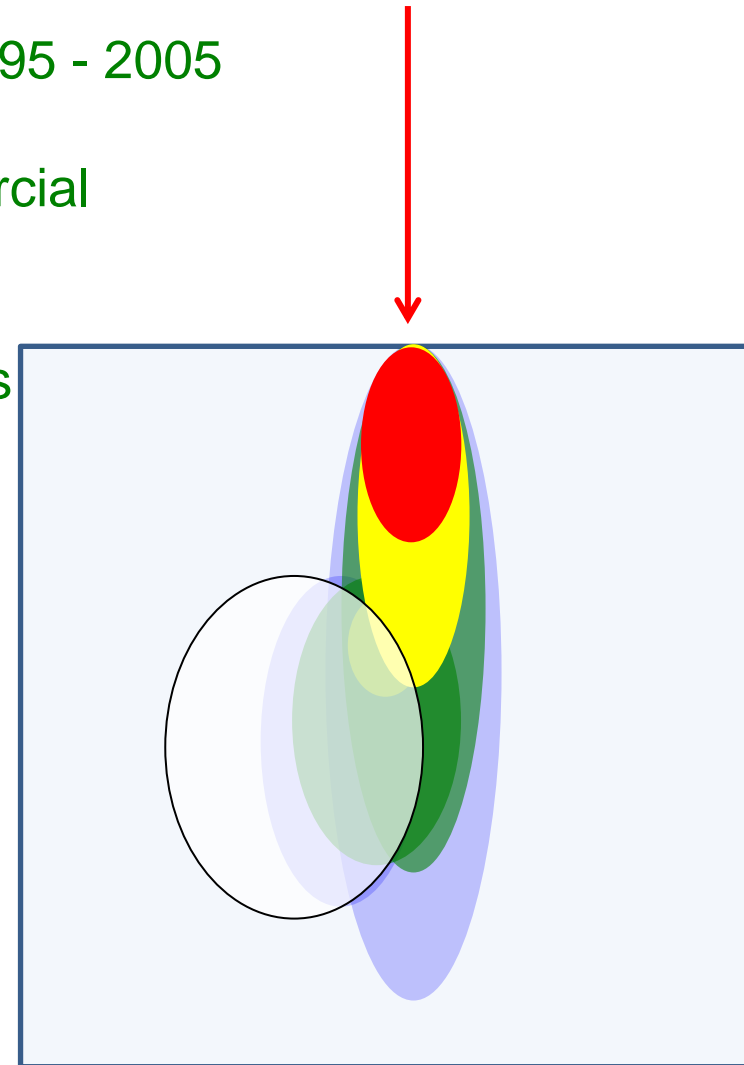
$$k'(x, y, z) = A(x, y, z_{rad})k(x, y, z)$$

- This function is not shift invariant:
- Convolution does not describe the problem
- It becomes a more general superposition

$$d(x, y, z) = \sum_{i=0}^N \phi_i k'_i(x, y, z)$$

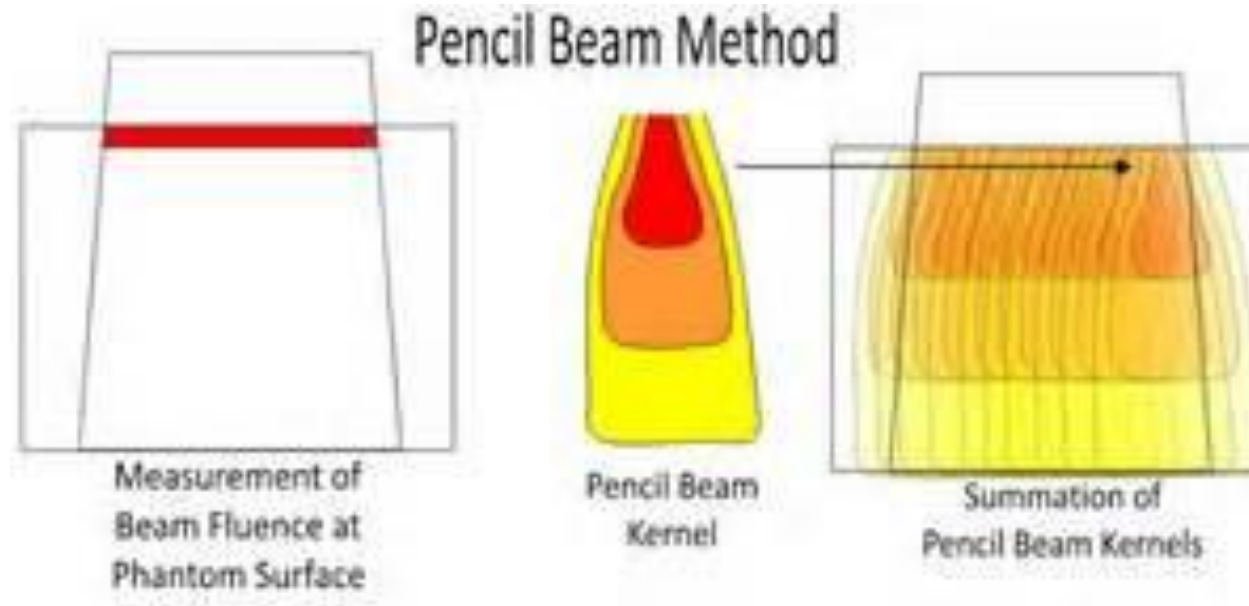


- The golden years of the pencil beam algorithm: 1995 - 2005
- The PB algorithm for photons appeared in commercial implementations of several manufacturers
- The main reason of the popularity of PB algorithms was the need for a fast dose calculation for IMRT
- Nevertheless, the algorithm fails to give a good description in the presence of strong heterogeneities
- Especially 1D scaling extremely fast but not accurate enough

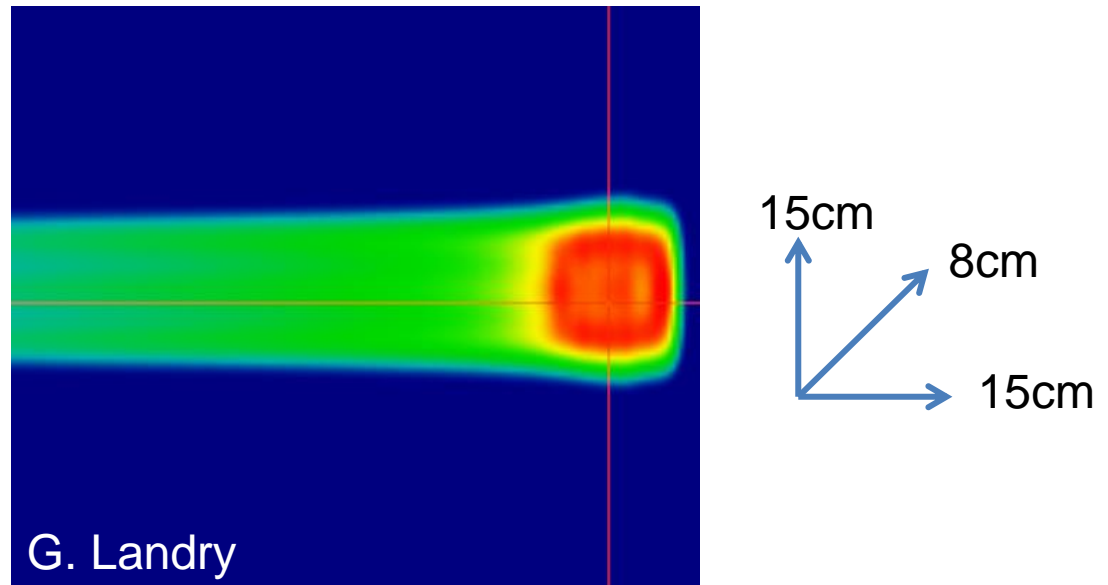


The Pencil Beam Algorithm (PB)

- A summarizing sketch of the PB algorithm:



- Programming Exercise 5:
 - Calculate the dose distribution using the PB algorithm according to the basic data (dose kernel) available on the lecture's website
 - Assume homogeneous water geometry (15cmx15cmx8cm – voxel size 1mmx1mmx1mm) and a single Gaussian lateral spread parameterization
 - For PB energies in between the nominal ones, use linear interpolation for both the laterally integrated dose and the lateral spread σ
- The dose should look like:



- Programming Exercise 5:
 - Report on the calculation time and plot a longitudinal and a lateral dose profile

