

Photon beam characteristics & basic concepts of treatment planning

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Learning Objectives

- Understanding basic properties of clinical photon beams
- Understanding the parameters that influence the beam profile characteristics
- Influence of beam modifiers
- Dose distribution
- Basic concepts of treatment planning

Photons atoms interactions

- What happen when photons interact with human tissue?

- **Absorbed**

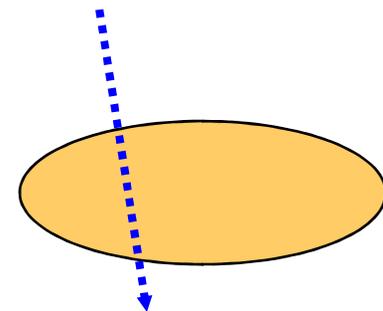
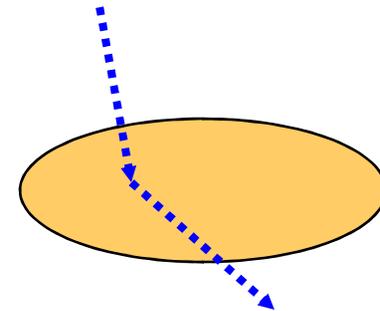
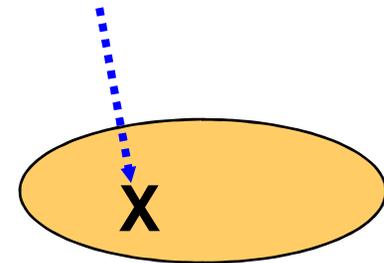
- completely removed from beam
- ceases to exist

- **Scattered**

- change in direction
- no useful information carried
- source of noise

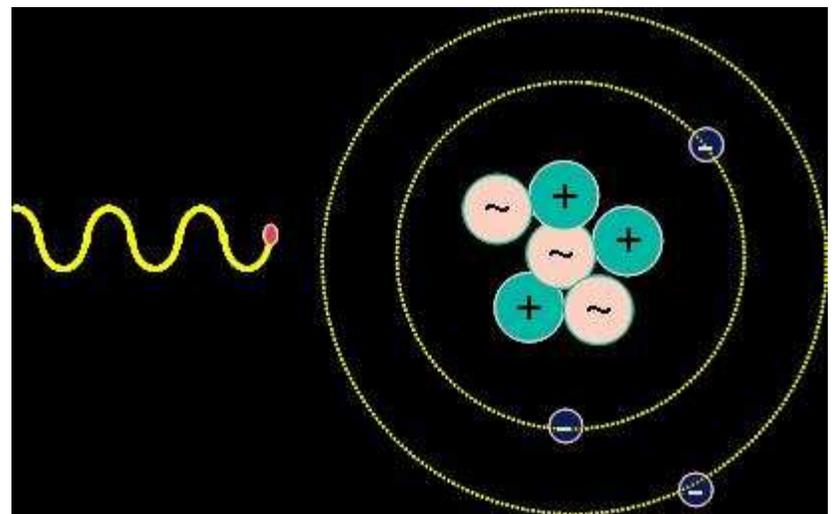
- **Nothing**

- Photon passes unmolested



Interaction depends on

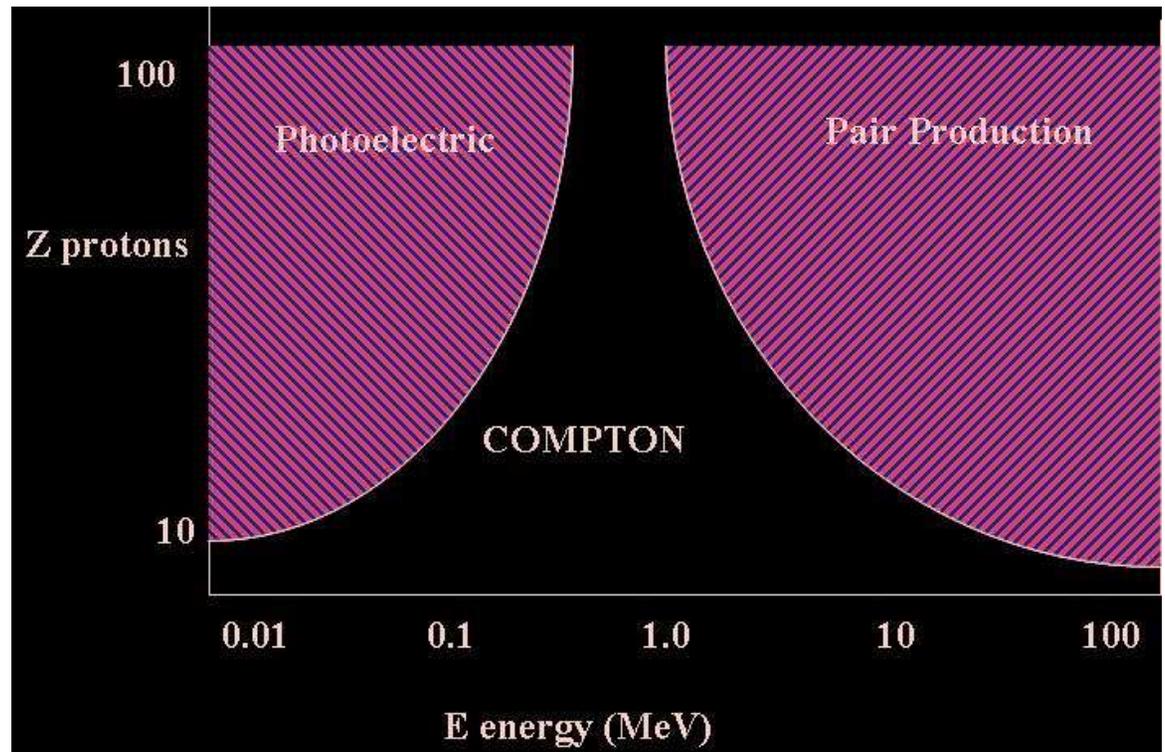
- Photon energy $E = h\nu$, $1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ J}$
- Atom atomic number Z
- Electron density e



Photon Interaction Probabilities

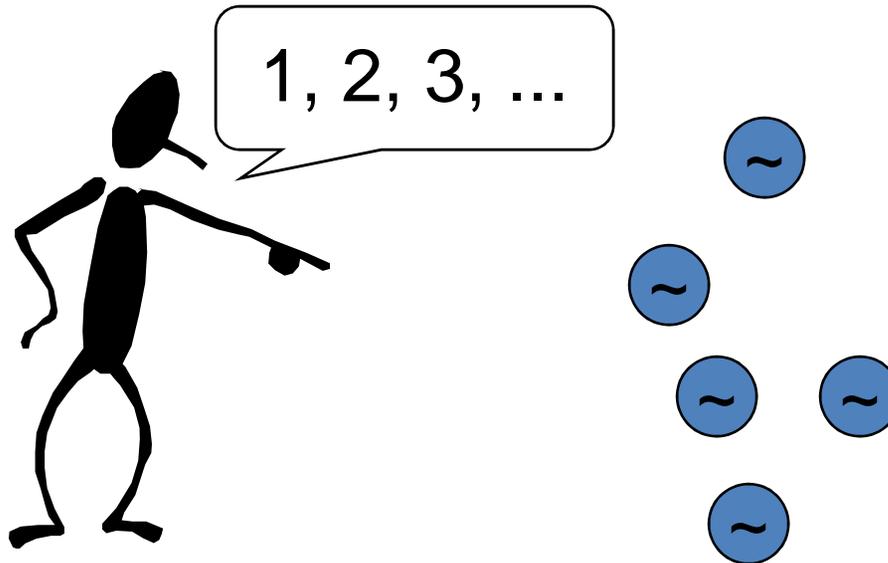
Basic Interactions:

- Coherent Scattering
- **Compton Scattering**
- **Photoelectric Effect**
- **Pair Production**
- Photodisintegration



Beam Characteristics

- **Quantity**
 - number of photons in beam

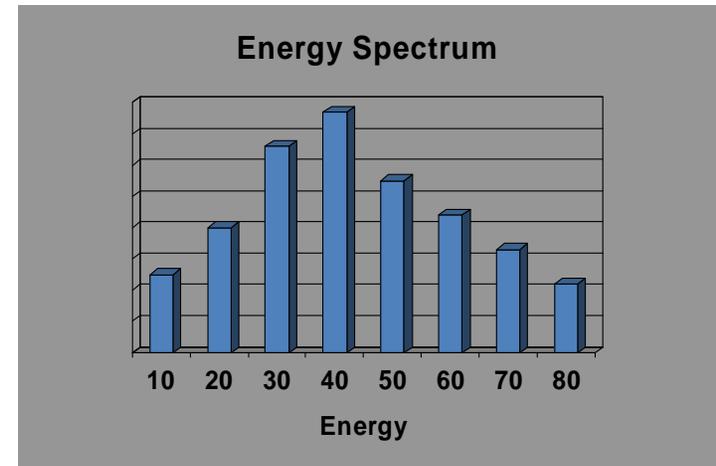
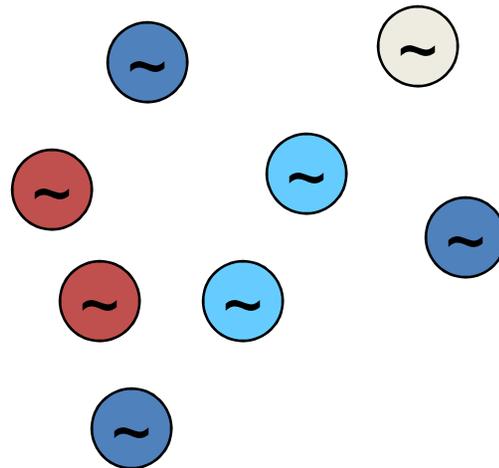
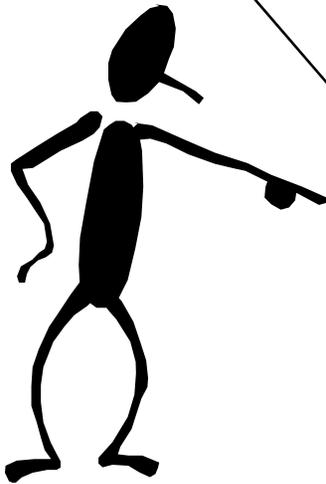


Beam Characteristics

- **Quality**

- energy distribution of photons in beam

1 @ 27 keV, 2 @ 32 keV,
2 at 39 keV, ...



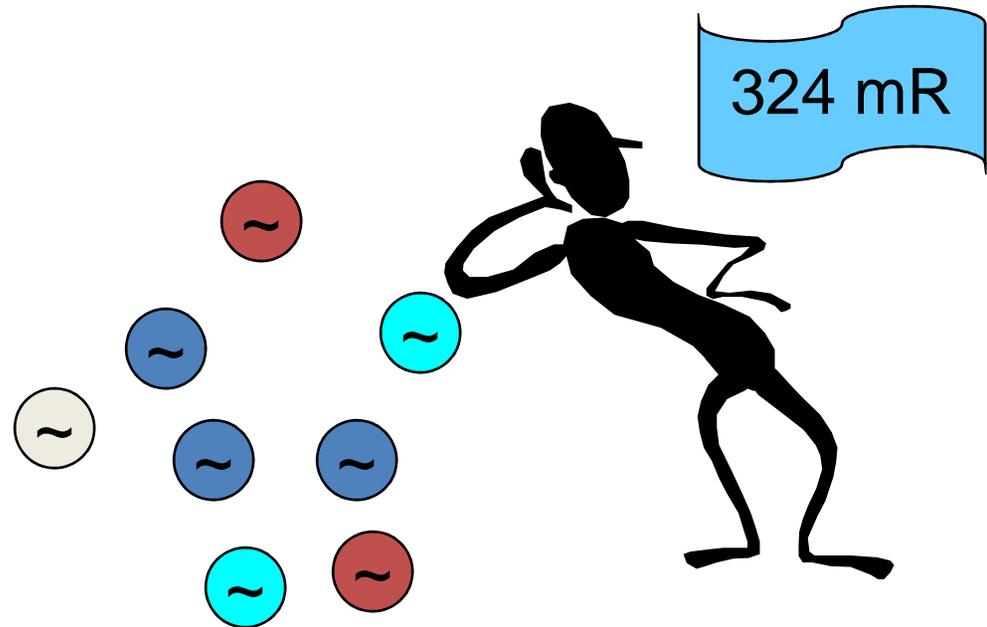
Beam Characteristics

- **Intensity**

- weighted product of number and energy of photons

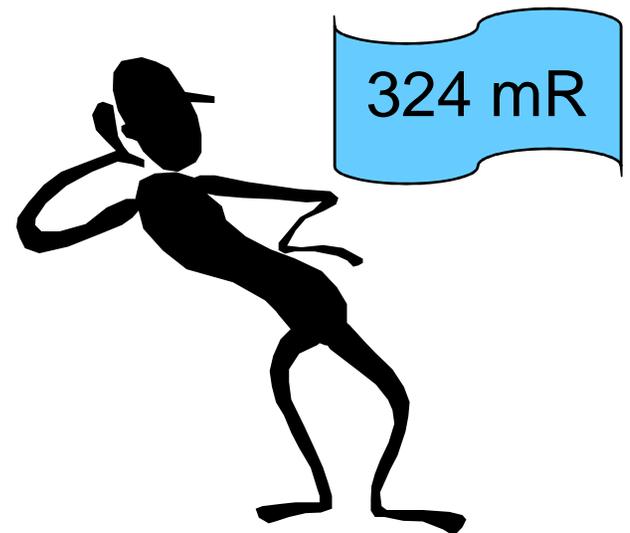
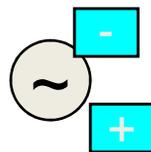
- depends on

- quantity
 - quality



Beam Intensity

- Can be measured in terms of # of ions created in air by beam
- Valid for monochromatic or for polychromatic beam



Attenuation Coefficient

- Parameter indicating fraction of radiation attenuated by a given absorber *thickness*
- Attenuation Coefficient is function of
 - absorber
 - photon energy

Monochromatic radiation beam

Linear Attenuation Coef.

- Why called linear?

 - ◆ distance expressed in linear dimension "x"

- Formula

$$N = N_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

where

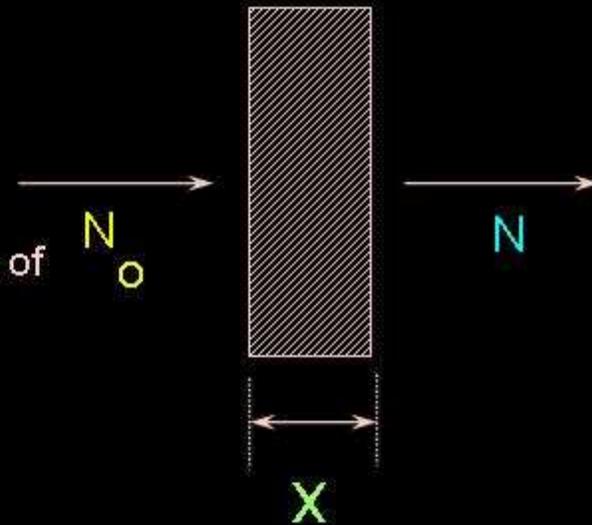
N_0 = number of incident photons

N = number of transmitted photons

e = base of natural logarithm (2.718...)

μ = linear attenuation coefficient (1/cm); property of energy material

x = absorber thickness (cm)



Monochromatic radiation beam

Linear Attenuation Coef.

Larger Coefficient = More Attenuation

- Units:

1 / cm (or 1 / distance)

$$N = N_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

- Properties

- reciprocal of absorber thickness that reduces beam intensity by e (~2.718...)

- ~63% reduction
- 37% of original intensity remaining

- as photon beam energy increases

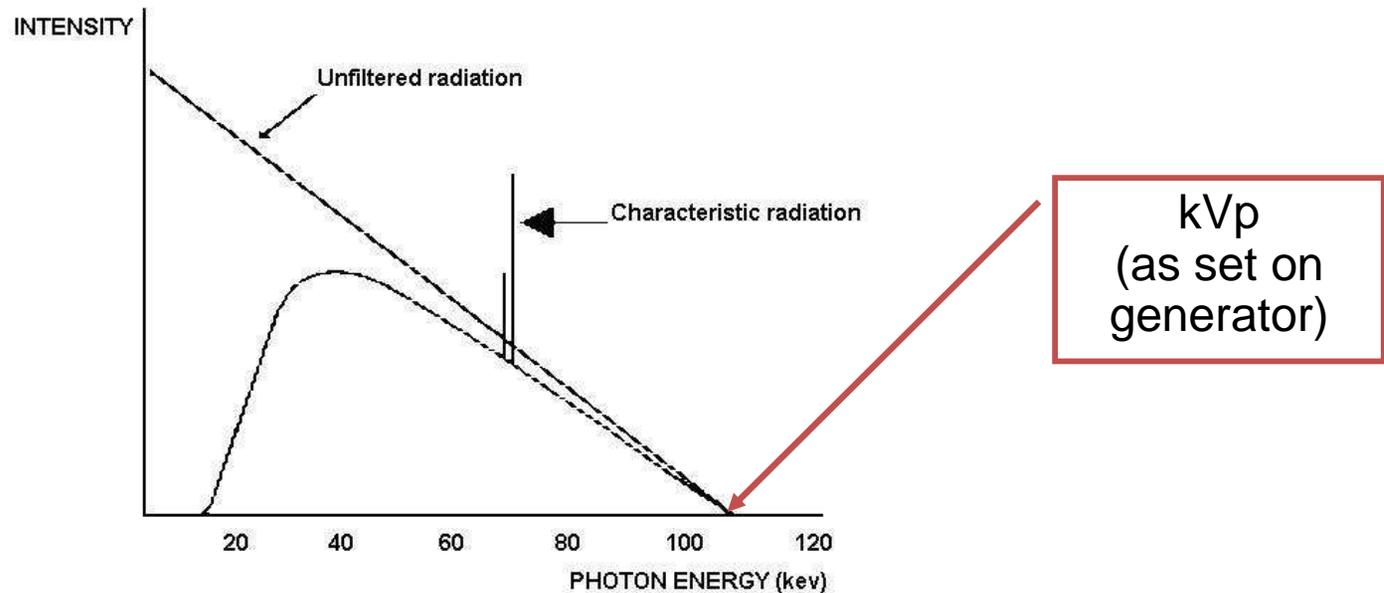
- penetration increases / attenuation decreases
- attenuating distance increases
- linear attenuation coefficient decreases

- **Note: Same equation as used for radioactive decay**

Monochromatic radiation beam

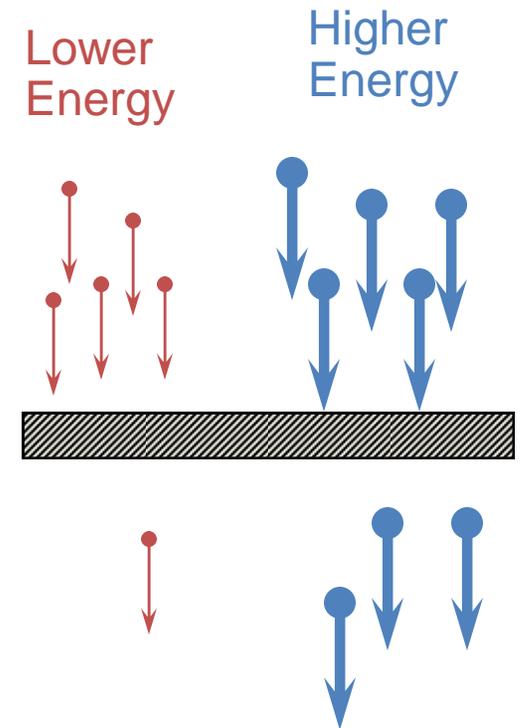
Polychromatic Radiation

- X-Ray beam contains spectrum of photon energies
 - highest energy = peak kilovoltage applied to tube
 - mean energy 1/3 - 1/2 of peak
 - depends on filtration



X-Ray Beam Attenuation

- reduction in beam intensity by
 - absorption (photoelectric)
 - deflection (scattering)
- Attenuation alters beam
 - quantity
 - quality
 - higher fraction of low energy photons removed
 - **Beam Hardening**



Half Value Layer (HVL)

$$N = N_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

- absorber thickness that reduces beam intensity by exactly half
- Units of thickness
- value of “x” which makes N equal to $N_0 / 2$
- Indication of beam quality
- Valid concept for all beam types
 - Mono-energetic
 - Poly-energetic
- Higher HVL means
 - more penetrating beam
 - lower attenuation coefficient

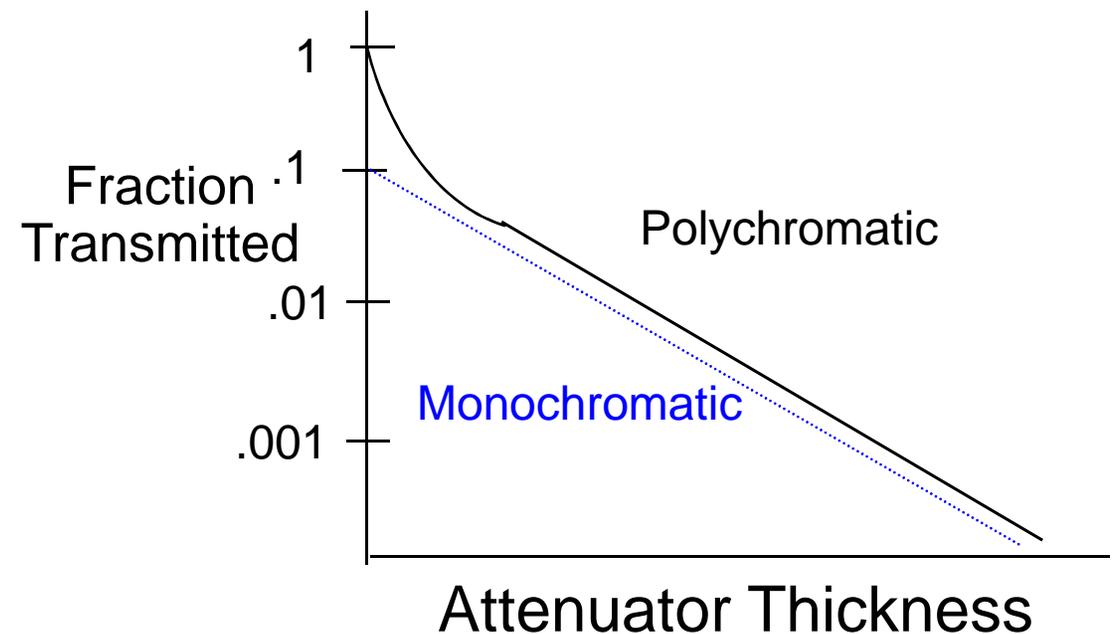
$$\text{HVL} = .693 / \mu$$

Factors Affecting Attenuation

- Energy of radiation / beam quality
 - higher energy
 - more penetration
 - **less** attenuation
- Matter
 - density
 - atomic number
 - electrons per gram
 - higher density, atomic number, or electrons per gram **increases** attenuation

Polychromatic Attenuation

- Yields curved line on semi-log graph
 - line straightens with increasing attenuation
 - slope approaches that of monochromatic beam at the peak energy
- mean energy increases with attenuation
 - beam hardening



Photoelectric vs. Compton

- Fractional contribution of each determined by
 - photon energy
 - atomic number of absorber
- Equation

$$\mu = \mu_{\text{coherent}} + \mu_{\text{PE}} + \mu_{\text{Compton}}$$

Small



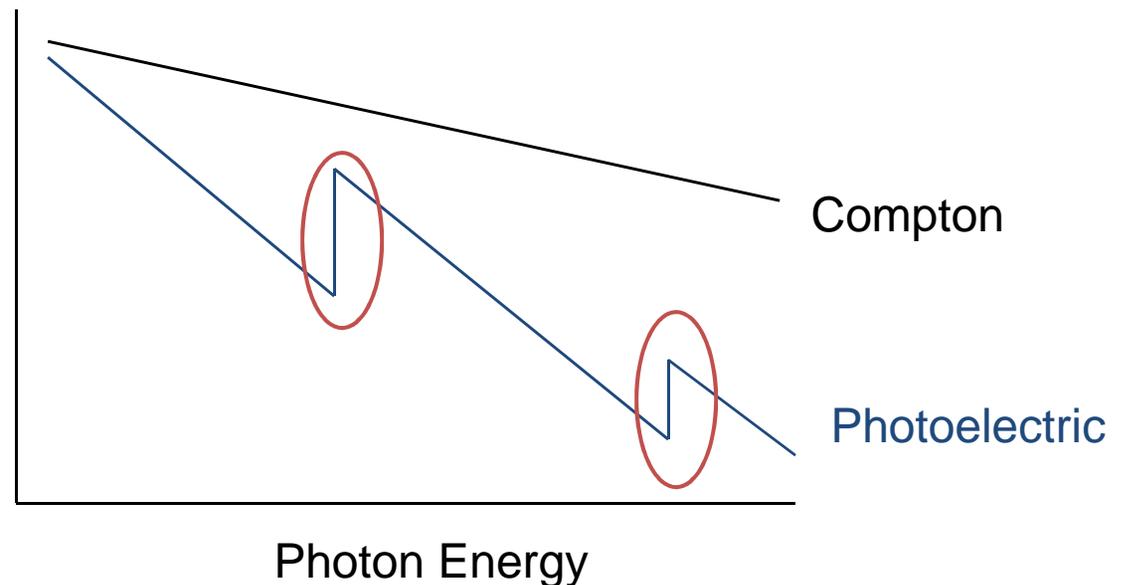
Photoelectric vs. Compton

$$\mu = \mu_{\text{coherent}} + \mu_{\text{PE}} + \mu_{\text{Compton}}$$

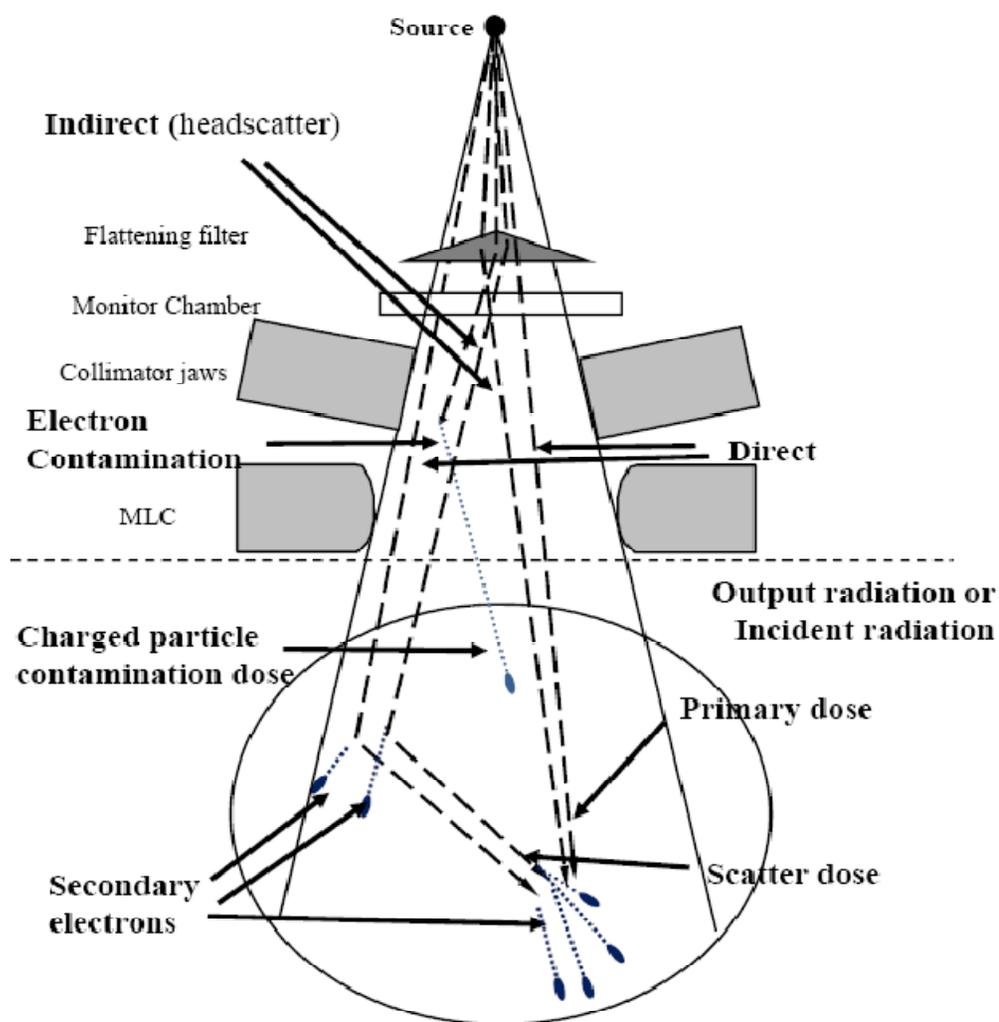
- As photon energy increases
 - Both PE & Compton decrease
 - PE decreases faster
 - Fraction of μ that is Compton increases
 - Fraction of μ that is PE decreases

- As atomic # increases
 - Fraction of μ that is PE increases
 - Fraction of μ that is Compton decreases

Interaction Probability



Sources of radiation that determine dosimetric characteristics of clinical photon beams



➤ Direct Radiation (Focal Radiation)

➤ Photon radiation generated at the target that reaches patient without any intermediate interactions.

➤ Indirect Radiation (Extra-focal Radiation):

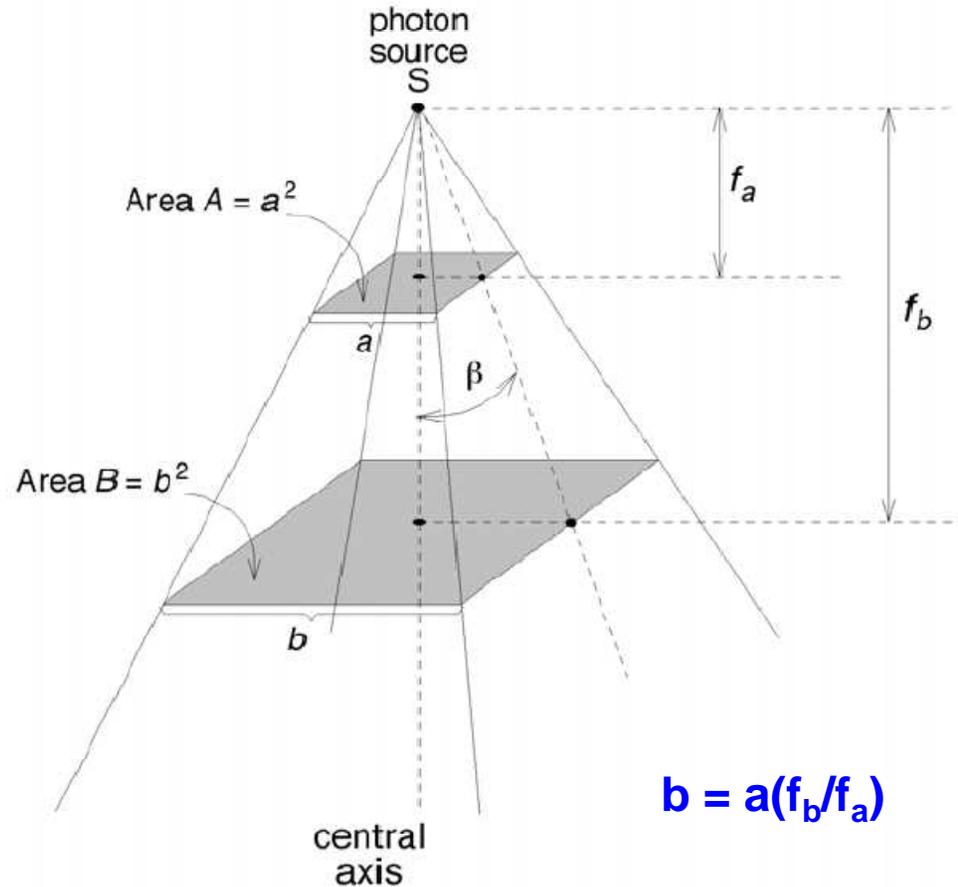
➤ Photon radiation with a history of interaction/scattering in the head of the treatment unit with the flattening filter, collimators, or other structures in the treatment head .

➤ Contaminant electrons/positrons

➤ secondary electrons and positrons released from interactions with either the treatment head or the air column .

Inverse Square Law & Field Divergence

- Photon beam sources assumed to be point sources
- Beams produced are divergent



Passage Through a Medium

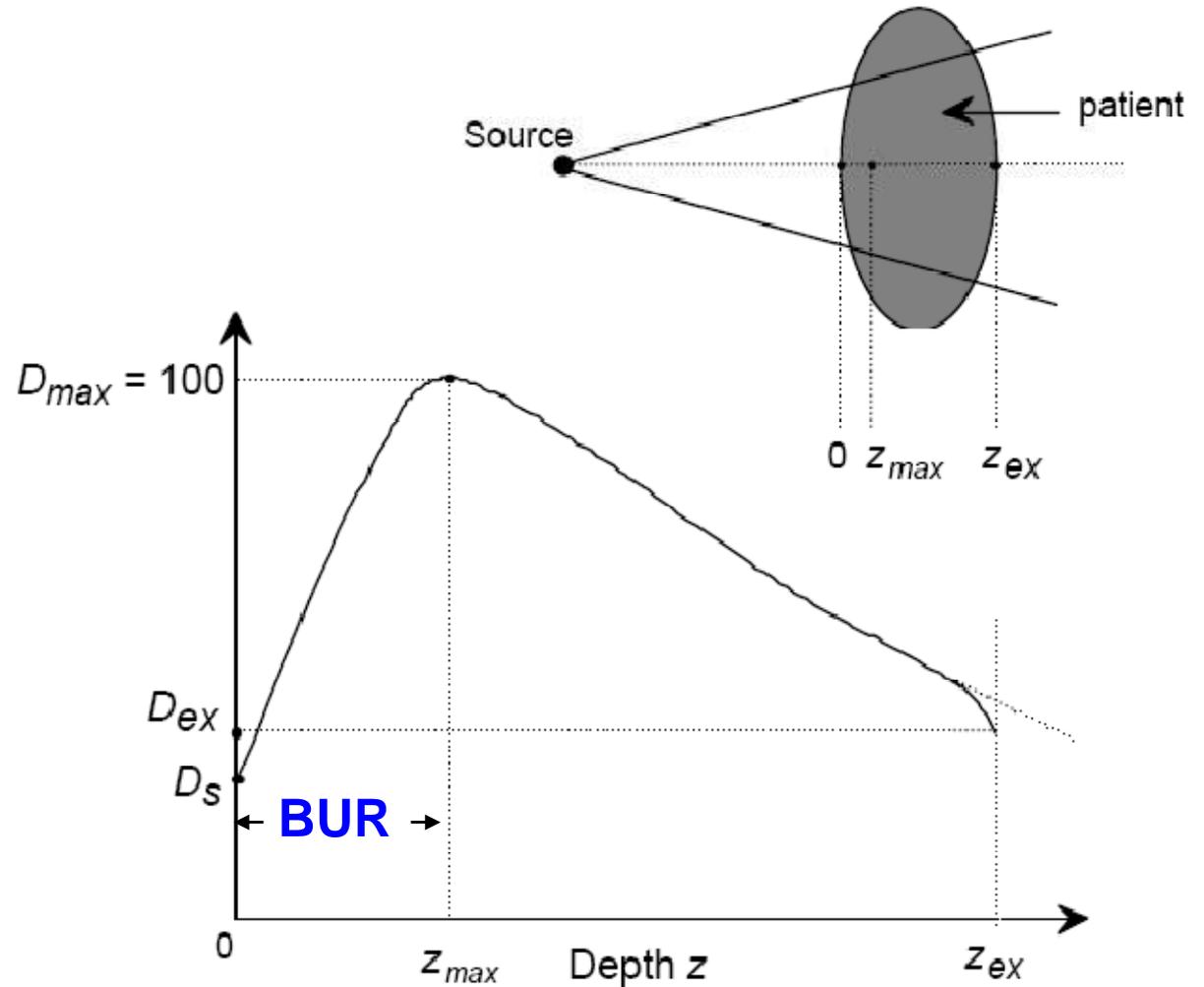
Z_{max} = depth of dose maximum (d_m)

D_{max} = Dose maximum

Z_{ex} = depth at exit surface (d_{ex})

D_{ex} = Exit dose

D_s = Surface dose



Dose buildup

Buildup of dose increases with increase in energy of the beam. The region between the surface and the point of maximum dose is called the dose buildup-region.

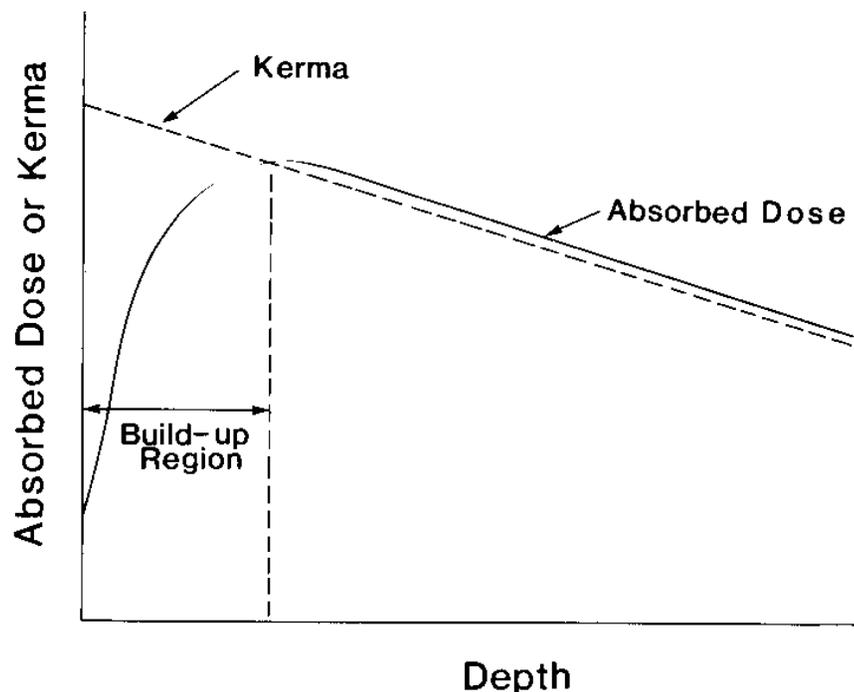


Figure 9.4. Schematic plot of absorbed dose and kerma as functions of depth.

- Kerma-- (1) kinetic energy released in the medium; (2) the energy transferred from photons to directly ionizing electron; (3) **maximum at the surface and decreases with depth** due to decreased in the photon energy fluence; (4) the production of electrons also decreases with depth
- Absorbed dose: (1) depends on the electron fluence; (2) high-speed electrons are ejected from the surface and subsequent layers;(3) theses electrons deposit their energy a significant distance away from their site of origin

Depth of dose maximum (d_m) and D_{ex}

d_m depends on

Beam energy, and

Field size

- dependence on beam energy

D_{ex}

Dose at exit surface

Depends on beam energy

Beam	d_m (cm)
Co-60	0.5
4 MV	1.0
6 MV	1.5
10 MV	2.5
15 MV	3.0
18 MV	3.5

Percentage depth dose (PDD)

Percentage depth dose is defined as the quotient, expressed as a percentage, of the absorbed dose at any depth d to the absorbed dose at a fixed reference depth d_0 along the central axis of the beam

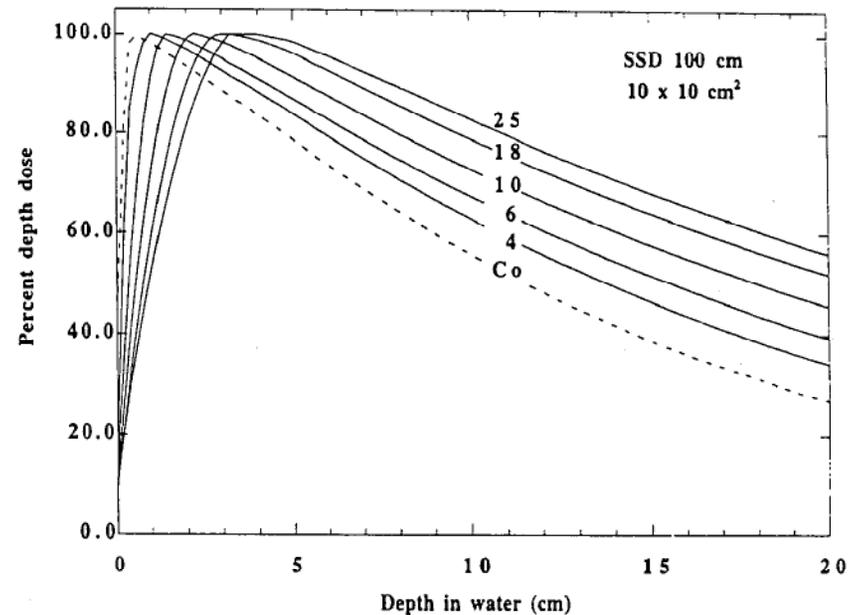
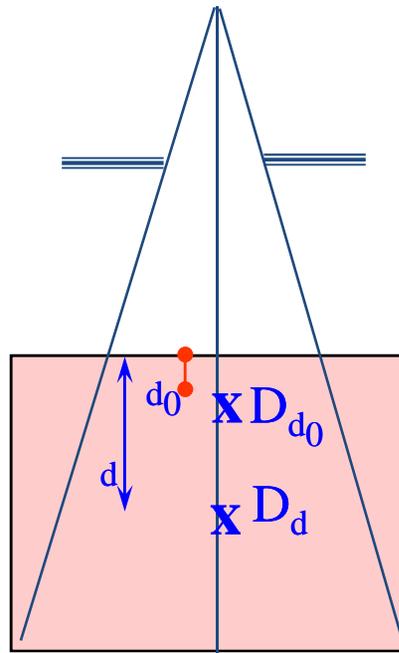
$$P = \frac{D_d}{D_{d_0}} \times 100$$

Orthovoltage (400kVp) $d_0 = \text{Surface}$
Higher energies $d_0 = d_m$

$$D_{\text{max}} = \frac{D_d}{P} \times 100$$

PDD depends on

- beam energy
- depth
- field size
- distance from source
- beam collimator system

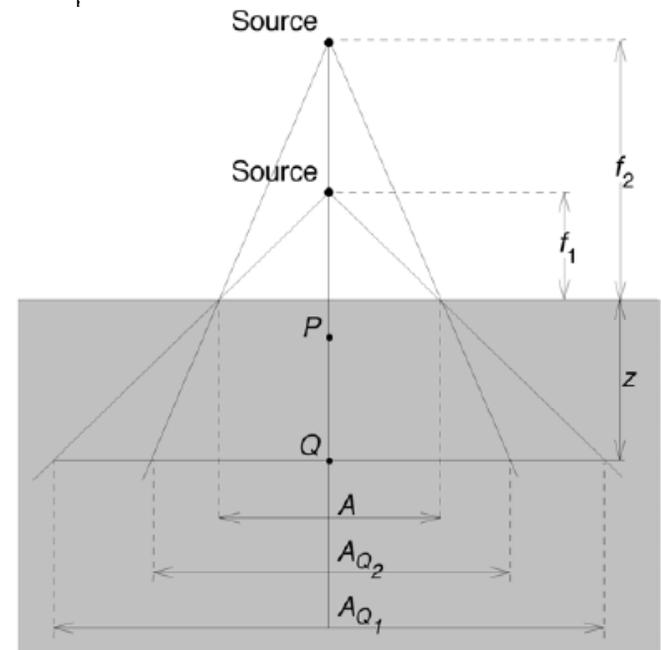
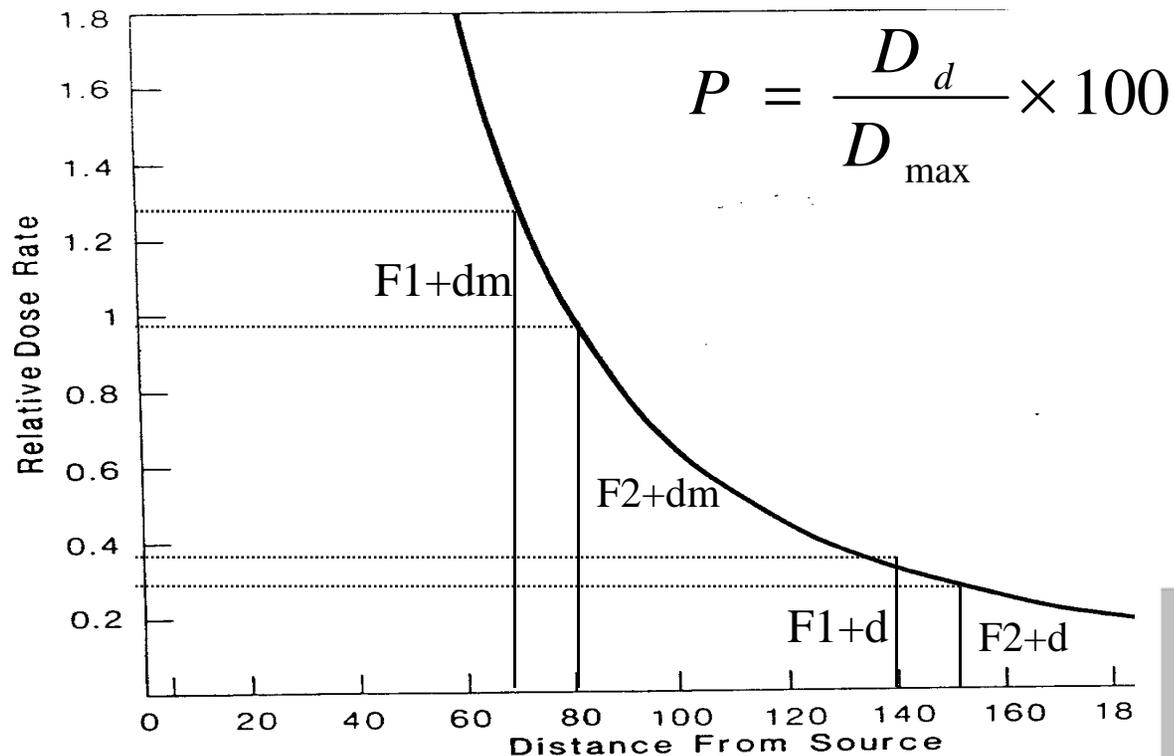


PDD dependence on SSD

Mayneord F Factor

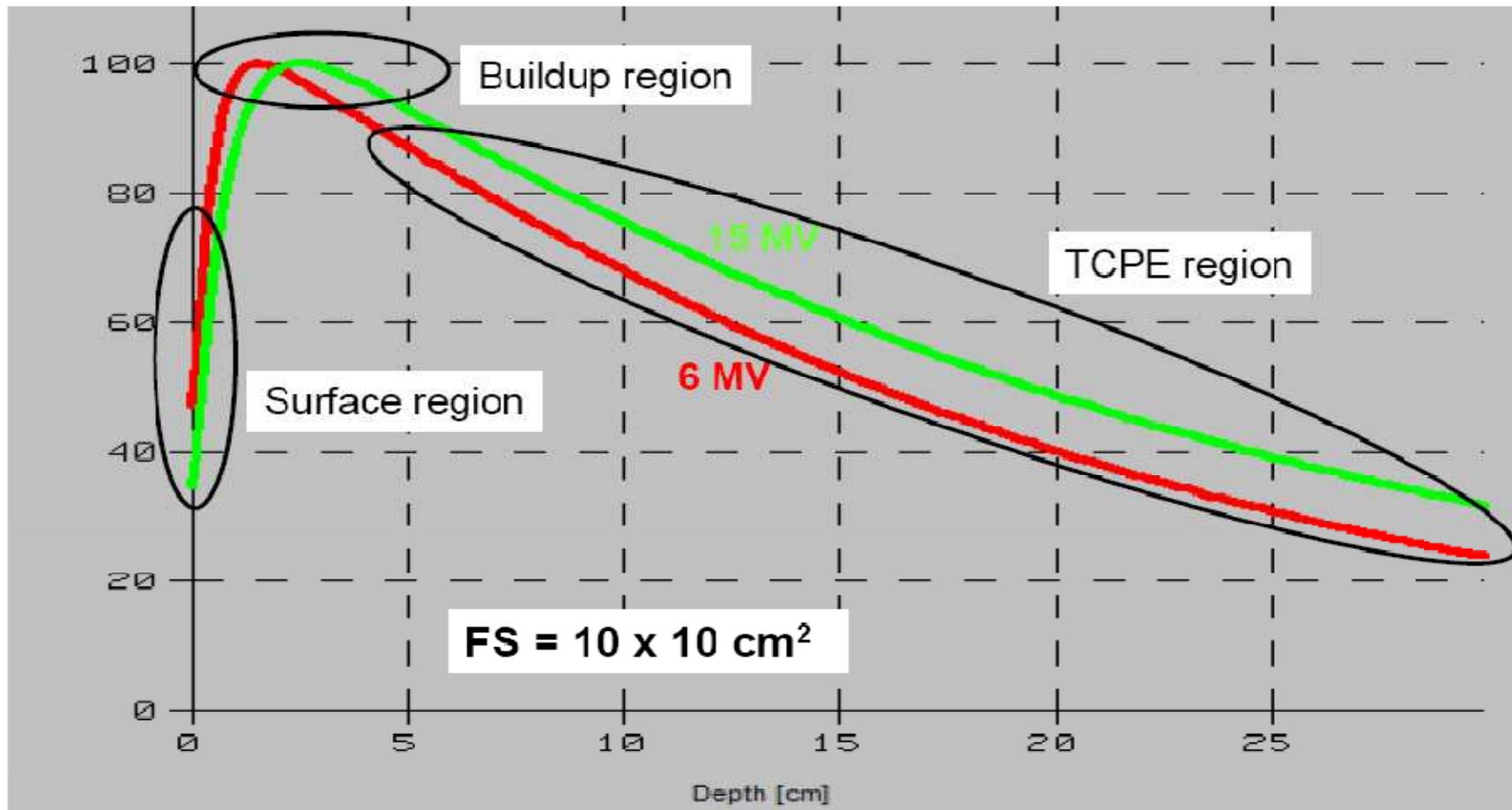
- Photon fluence from a point source varies inversely as a square of the distance from the source. (SSD > 80cm)
- PDD increase with SSD

$$F = \left(\frac{f_2 + d_m}{f_1 + d_m} \right)^2 \times \left(\frac{f_1 + d}{f_2 + d} \right)^2$$

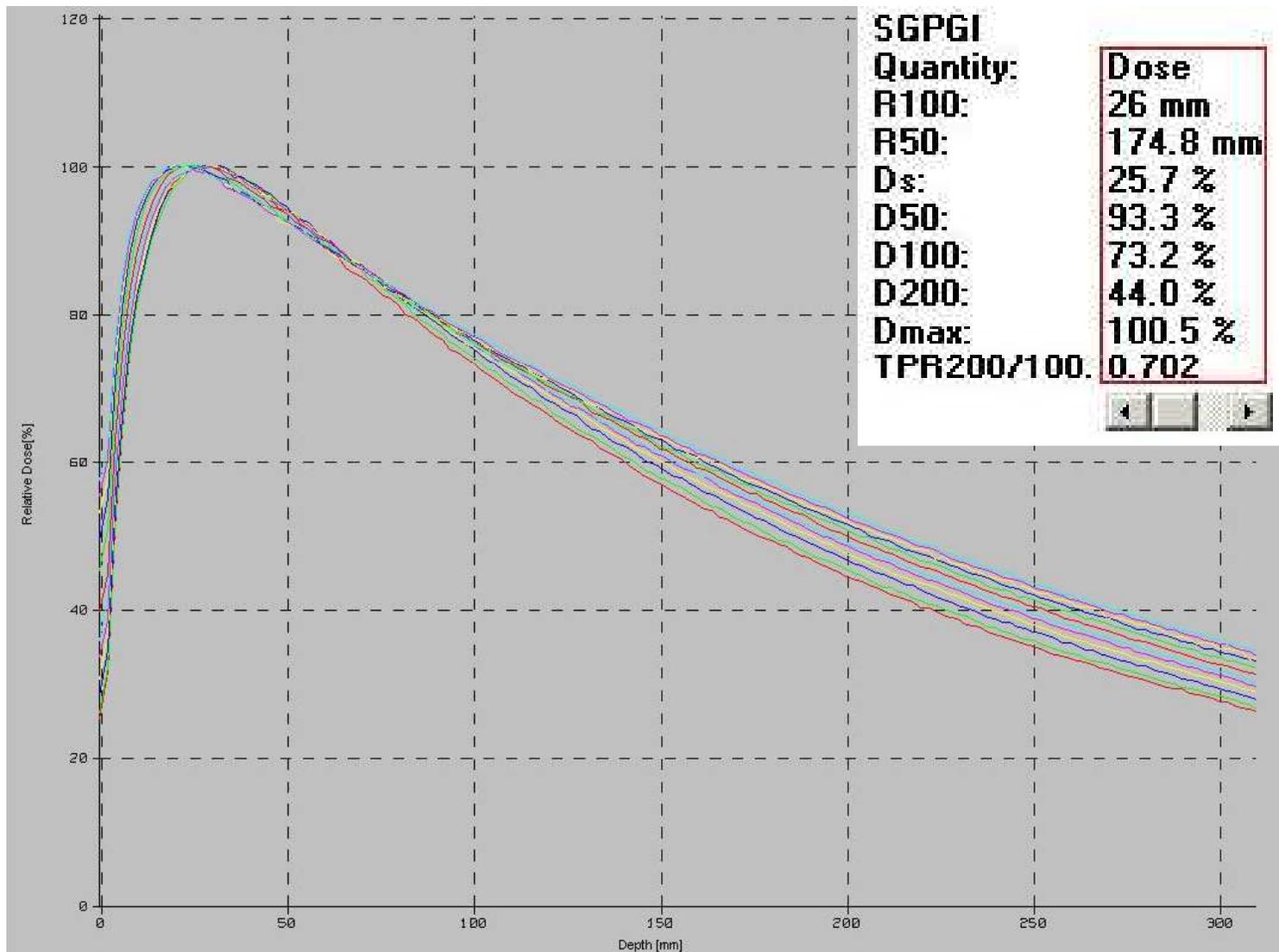


Normalized Depth Dose Data

Energy Dependence

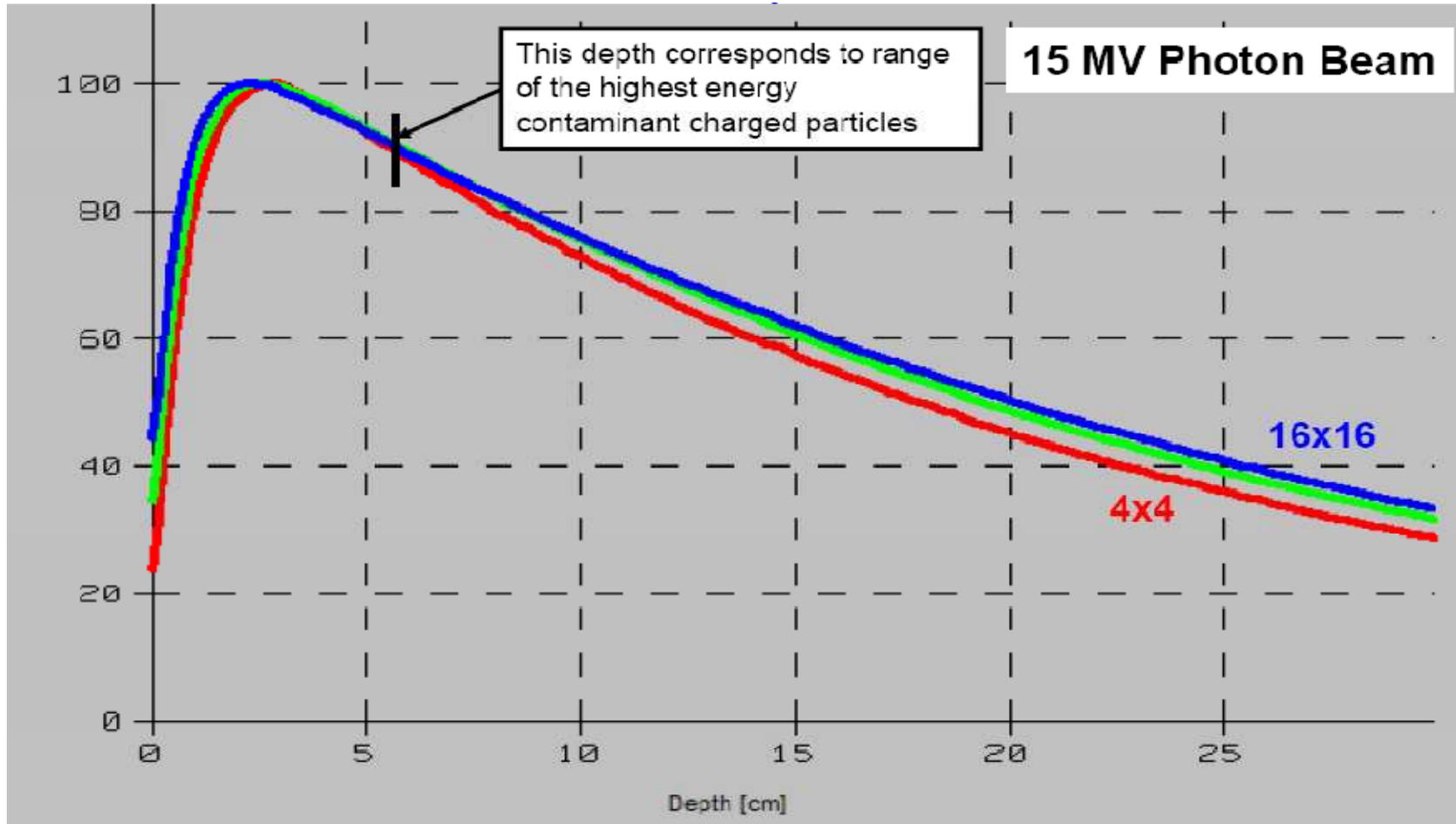


Percentage Depth Dose Characteristics



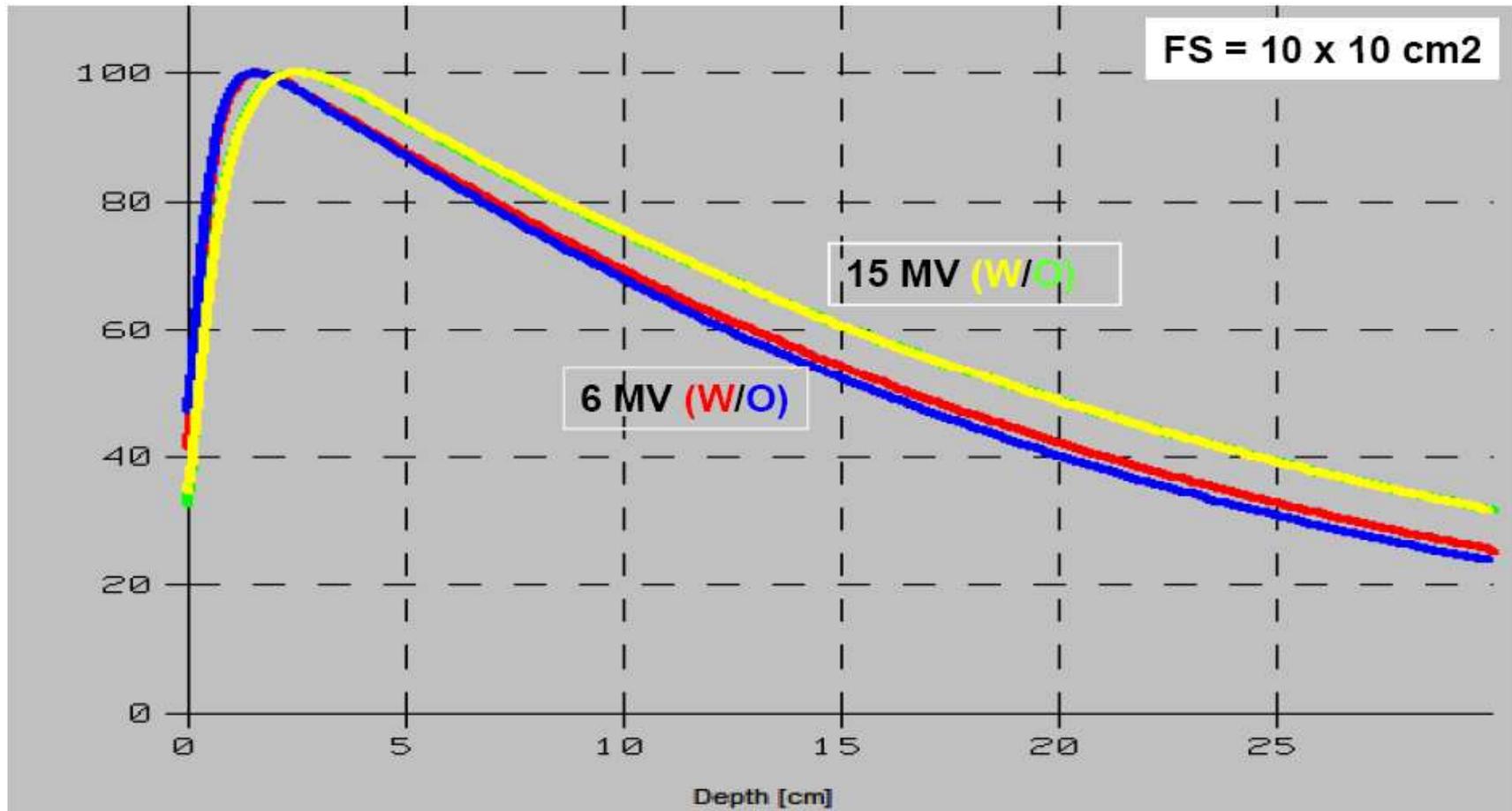
Percentage Depth Dose

Field Size Dependence



Percentage Depth Dose

Wedge/Open Comparison



Normalized Depth Dose Data

Wedge/Open Comparison

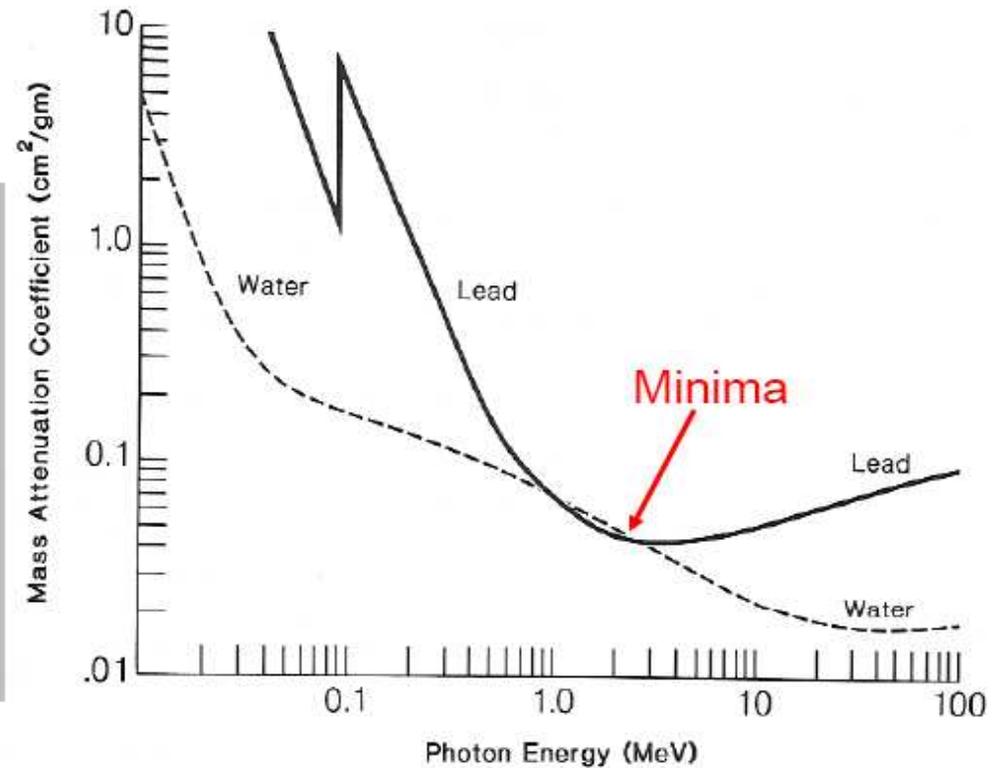
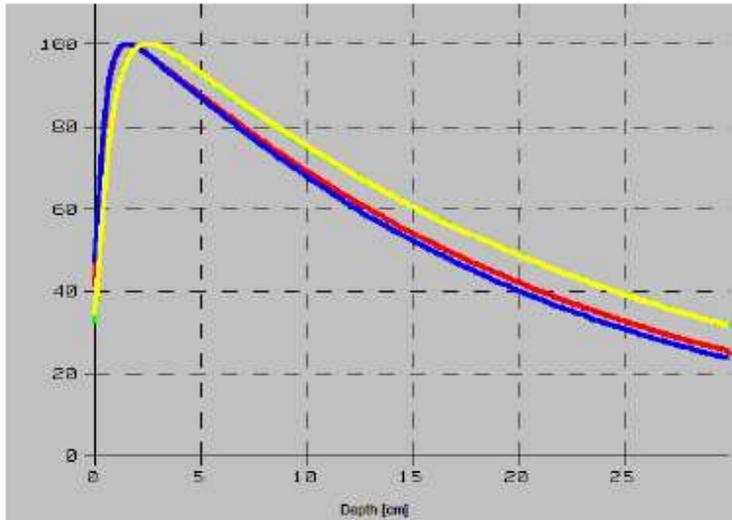
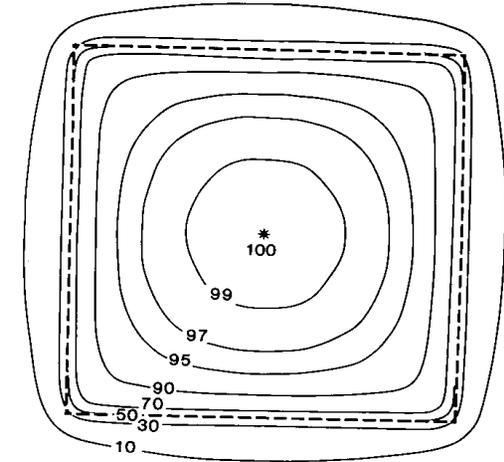


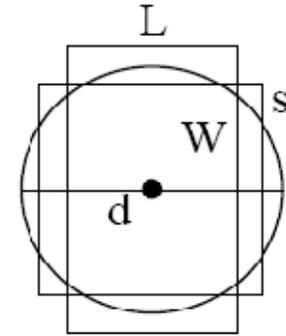
Figure 5.12. Plot of total mass attenuation coefficient (μ/ρ) as a function of photon energy for lead and water. Reprinted with permission from Johns HE, Cunningham JR. The physics of radiology. 3rd ed. Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas, 1969.

Effect of field size and shape



- Geometrical field size
- Dosimetric (Physical) field size
- Field size increases the scatter increases. Scattered dose is greater at larger depth than at the depth of Dmax. PDD increases with increasing field size.
- The increase in PDD by increase in field size depends on beam quality.
- Field size dependence of PDD is less for higher energy than for lower energy beams
- PDD for rectangular field is calculated by area by perimeter approximation

Equivalent square



Sterling Formula:

(Sterling et.al., Brit. J. Radiol. 37, 544 (1964))

$$S = \frac{2LW}{L+W} = 4A/P$$

Assuming, $\lambda = 0.26 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, and $\mu = 0.5$

$$S(L, W) = 4 \int_0^{L/2} \int_0^{W/2} D(x, y) dx dy$$

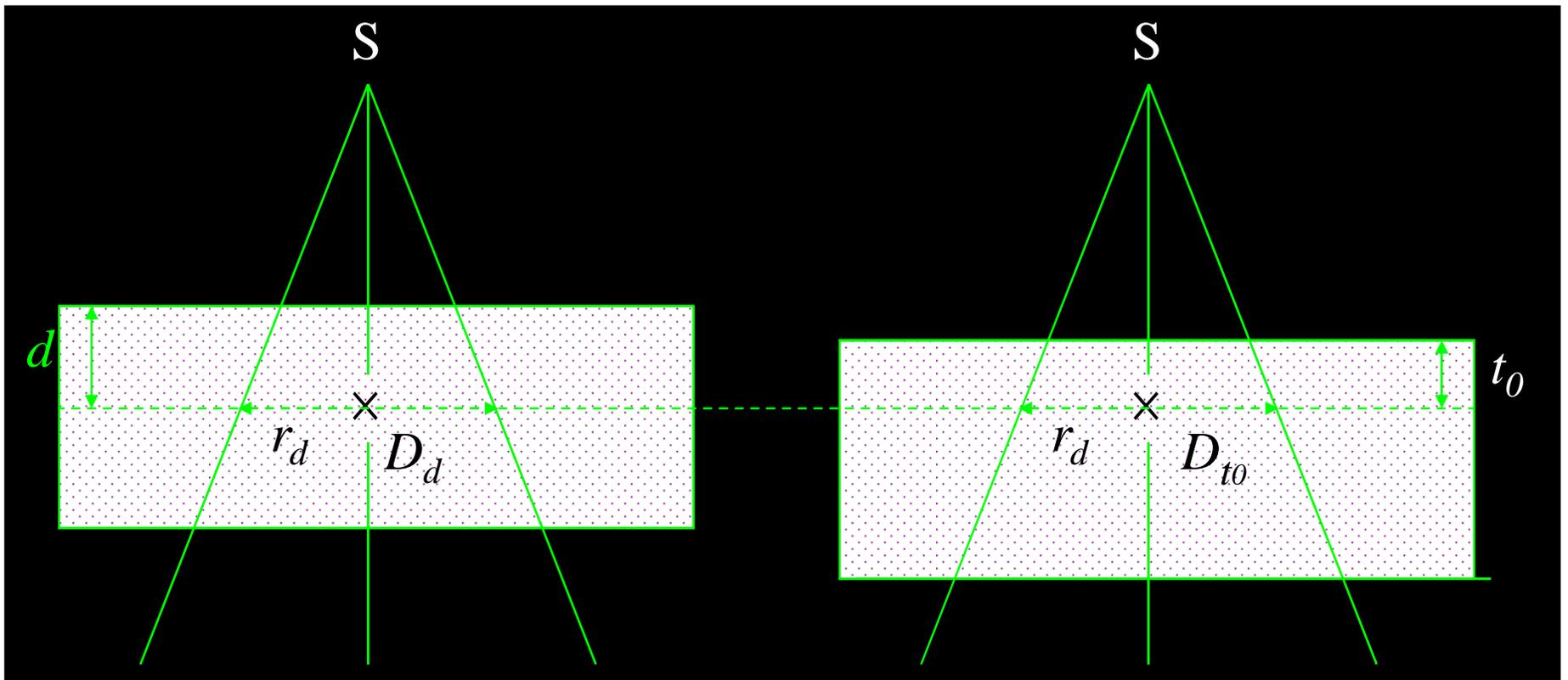
L/W	1	2	3	4	5
$S(L, W) / S(10, 10)$	1.000	0.993	0.982	0.969	0.958

TMR and TPR

$$TMR(d, r_d) = \frac{D_d}{D_{t_0}}$$

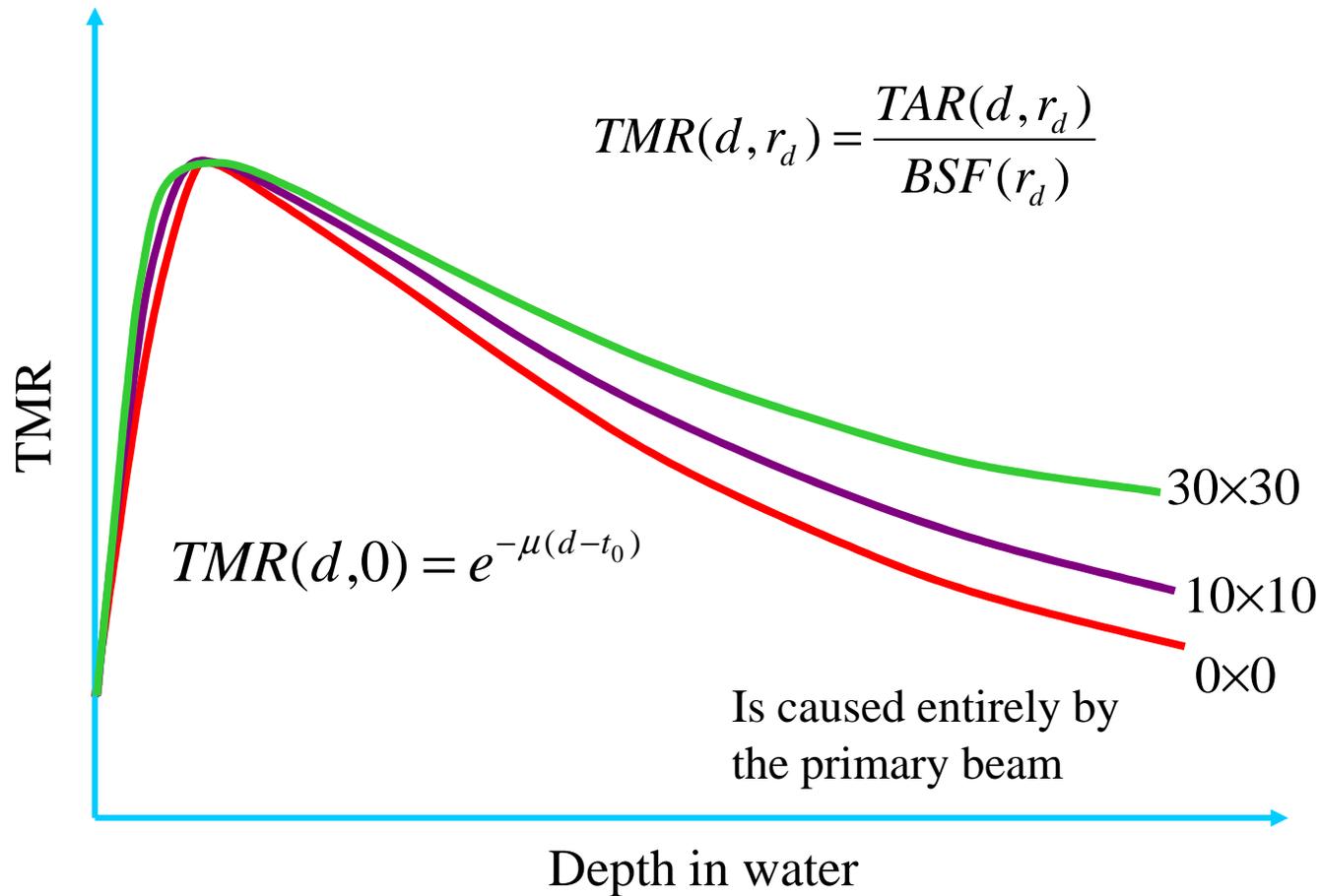
For TPR, $t_0 = d_{10}$

For TMR, $t_0 = dm$



Properties of TMR

TMR is independent of SSD, increases with energy and field size.



TMR data for 10 MV x-ray beams

Collimator Scatter Factor (S_c)

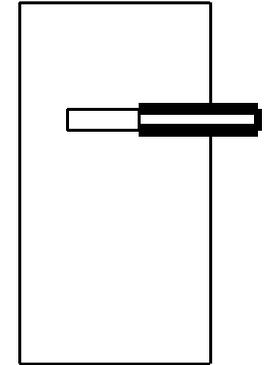
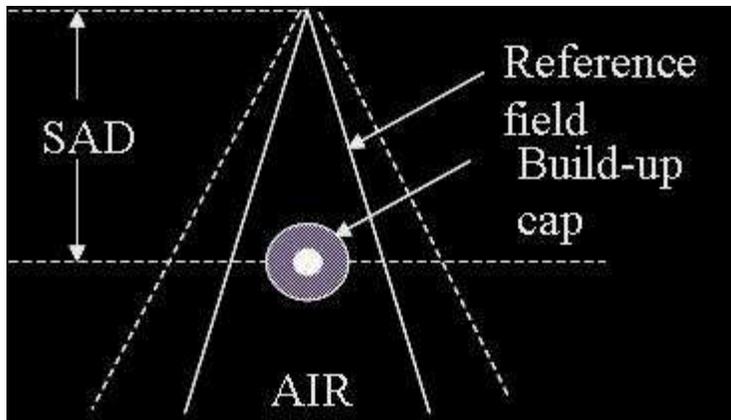
➤ The beam output measured in air depends on the field size

- Field size ↑; output ↑; collimator scatter ↑
- “Output factor”

➤ Definition

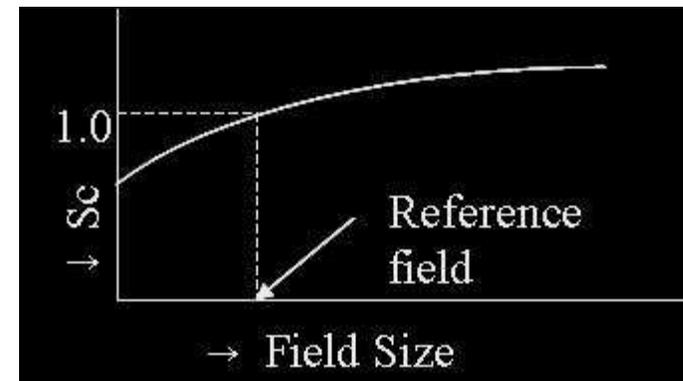
- The ratio of the output in air for a given field to that for a reference field (10 x 10 cm)

➤ Direct measurement



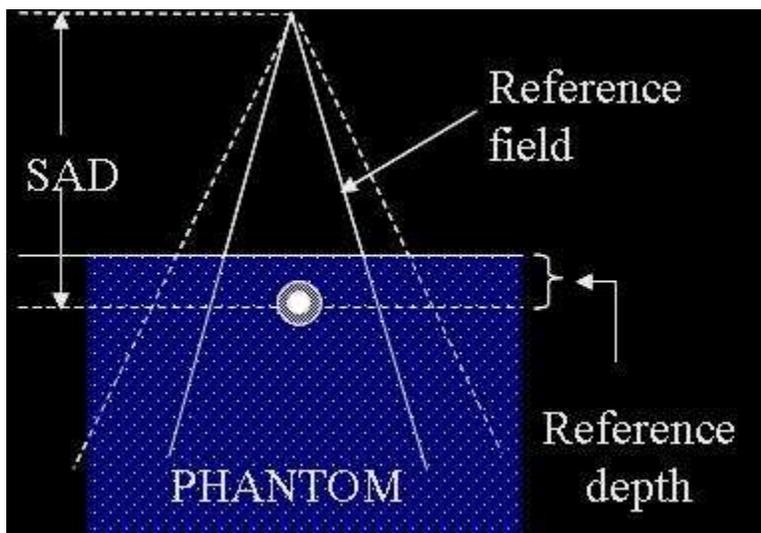
Mini phantom

$$S_c = D(r) / D(10)$$

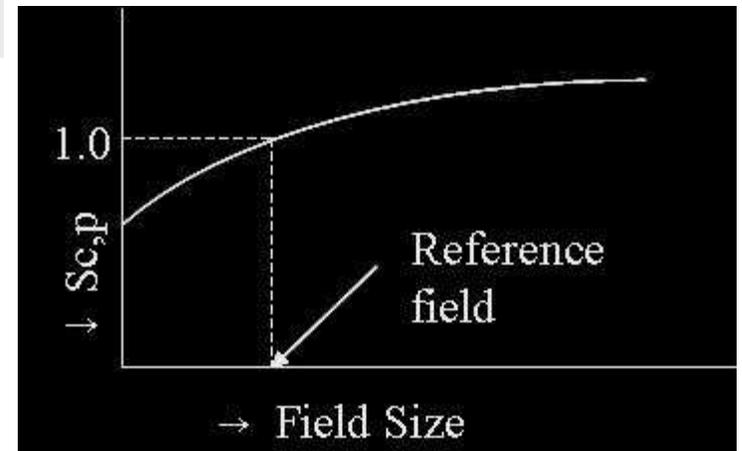


Phantom Scatter Factor (S_p)

- The change in scatter radiation originating in the phantom reference depth as the field size is changed
- Definition
 - The ratio of the dose rate for a given field at a reference depth (e.g. depth of D_{max}) to the dose rate at the same depth of the reference field size (10 x 10 cm), with the same collimator opening
- Related to the change in the volume of the phantom irradiated



$$S_p = \frac{S_{c,p}(r)}{S_c(r)}$$

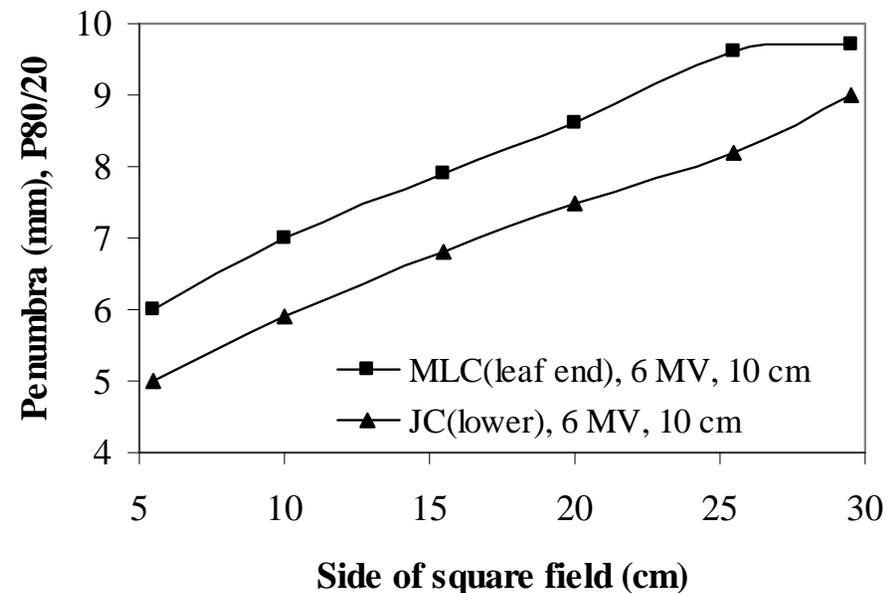
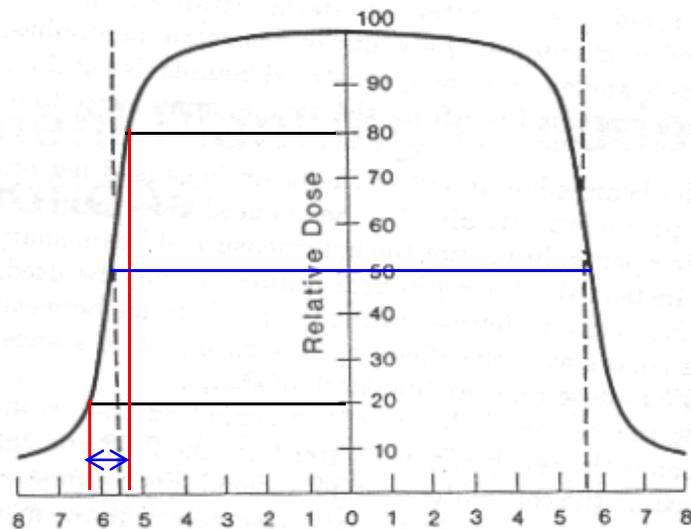


Photon Beam Penumbra

The penumbra region

The dose rate decreases rapidly as a function of lateral distance from the beam axis.

The width of geometric penumbra depends on **source size**, **distance from the source**, and **source-to-diaphragm distance**.



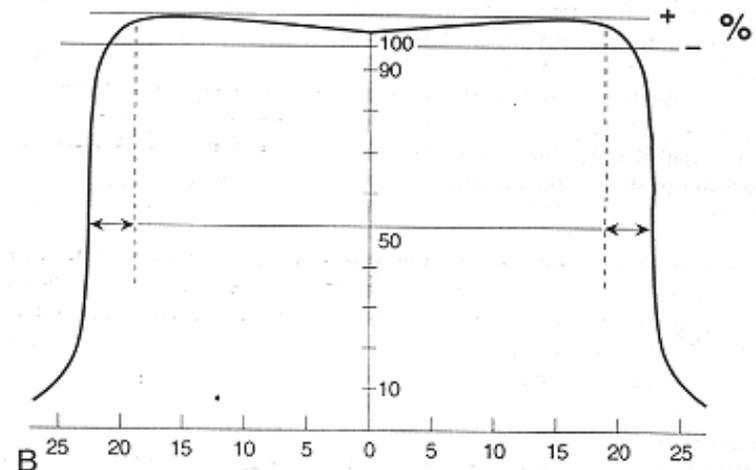
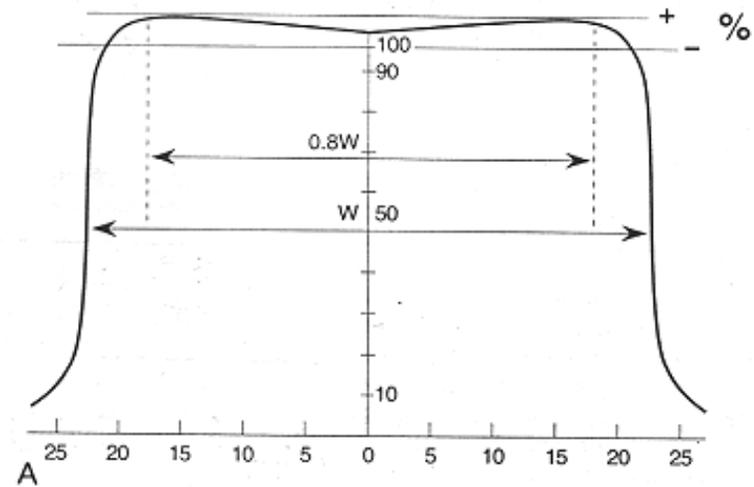
Flatness and Symmetry

- Flatness
 - within $\pm 3\%$. over 80% of the field

$$F = 100 \times \frac{D_{\max} - D_{\min}}{D_{\max} + D_{\min}}$$

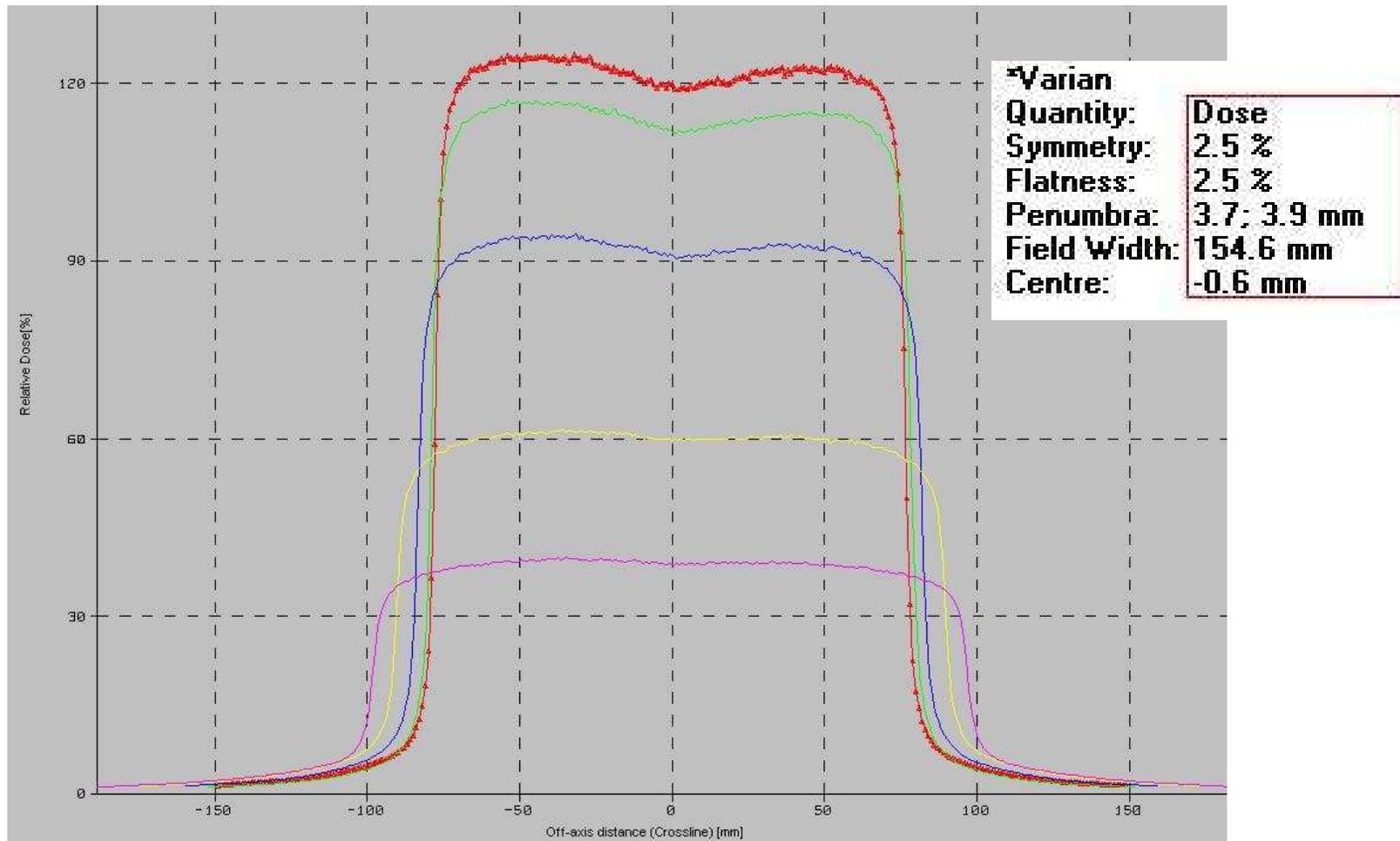
- Symmetry
 - within $\pm 2\%$ over 80% of the field

$$S = 100 \times \frac{(\text{area}_{\text{left}} - \text{area}_{\text{right}})}{(\text{area}_{\text{left}} + \text{area}_{\text{right}})}$$



Profile characteristics

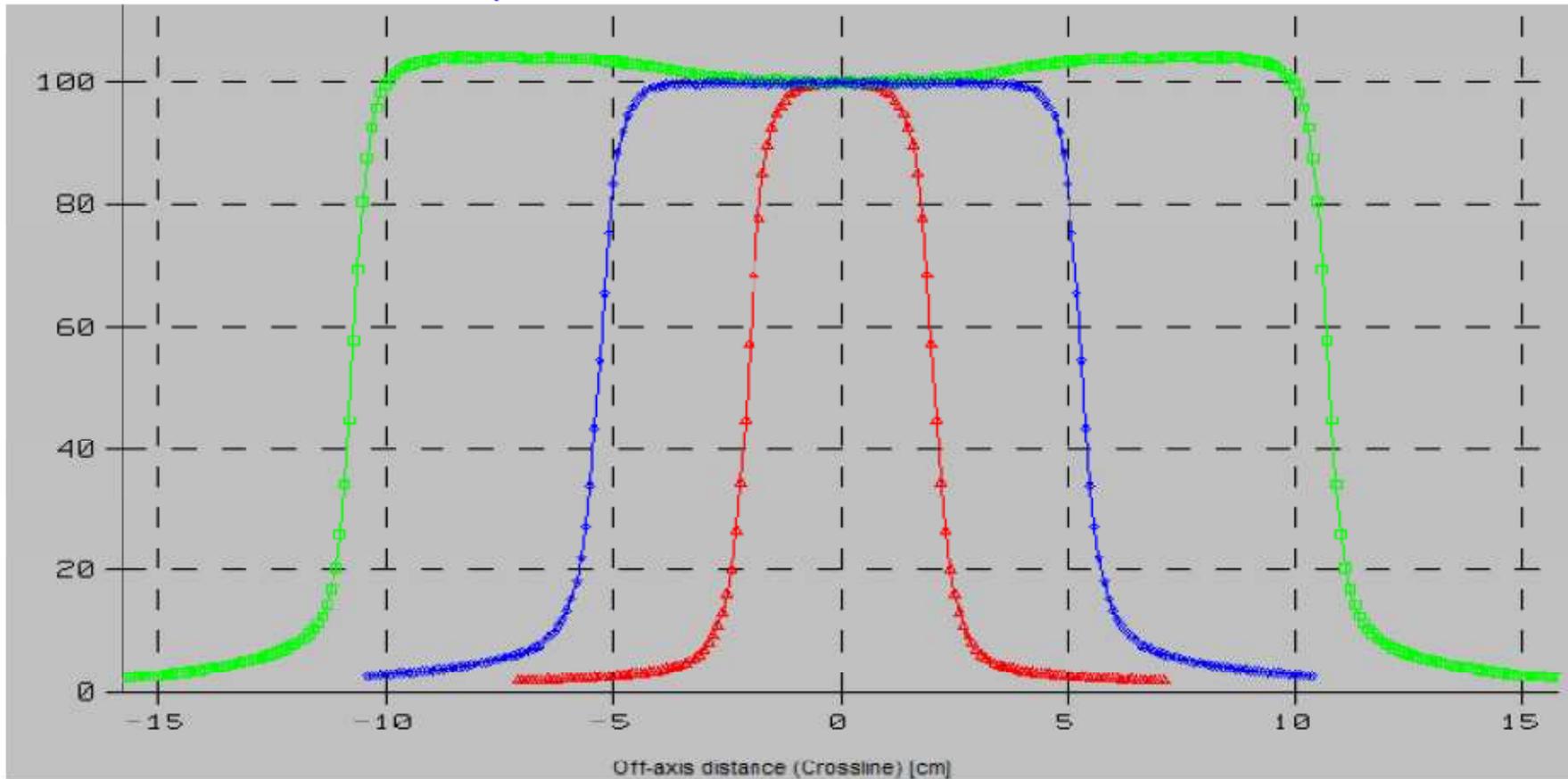
15 MV Photon Beam, Field size of 15x15cm², Depth 2.5, 5.0, 10, 15, 20 cm



The field flatness changes with depth. This is attributed to an increase in scatter to primary dose ratio with increasing depth and decreasing incident photon energy off axis

Cross Beam Profile

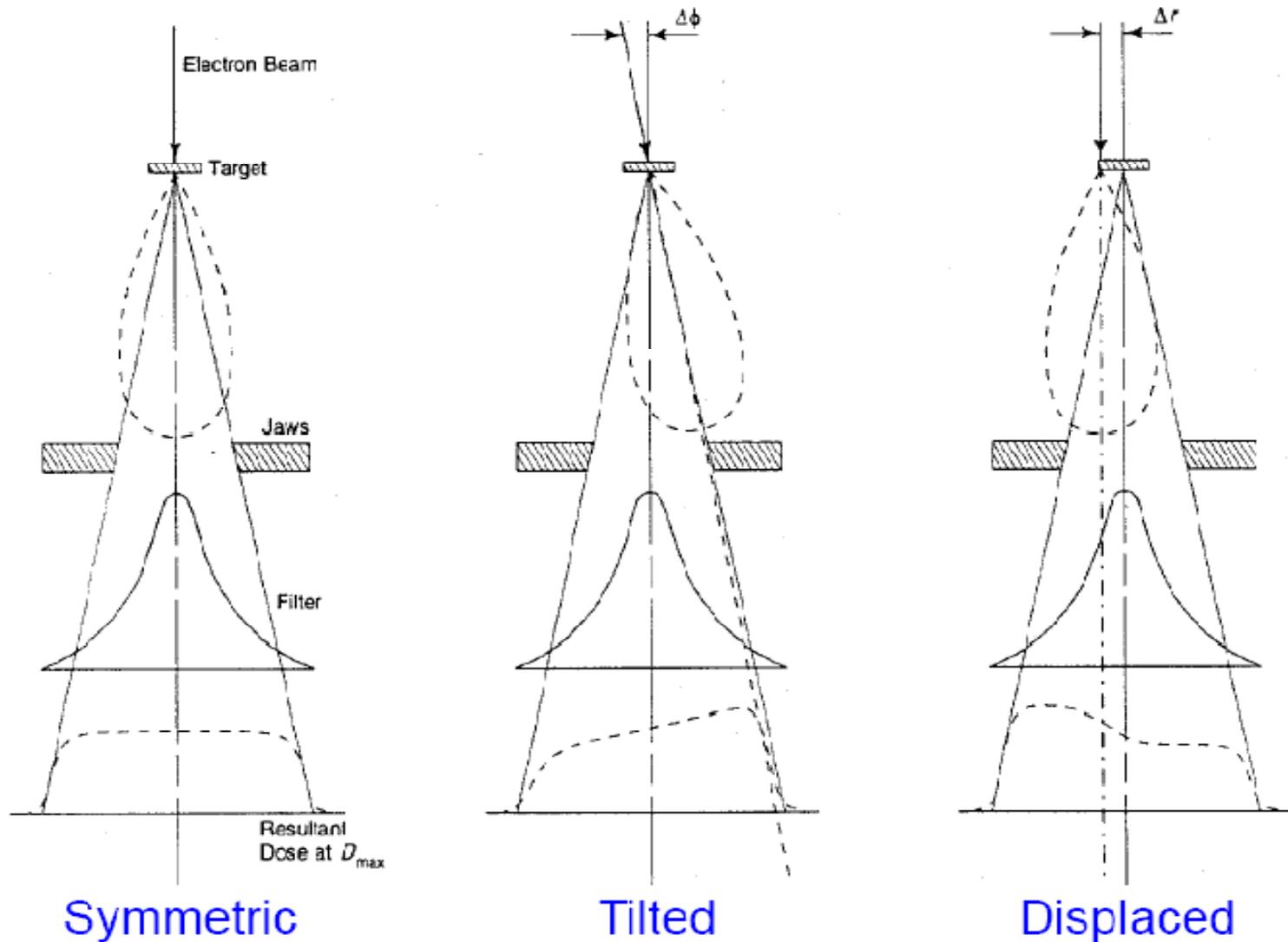
6 MV Photon Beam, Depth of 5.0 cm, Field size of 4x4, 10.4x10.4, and 21x21cm²



The flatness of photon beams is extremely sensitive to change in energy of the incident beam. A small change in the penetrative quality of a photon beam results in very large change in beam flatness.

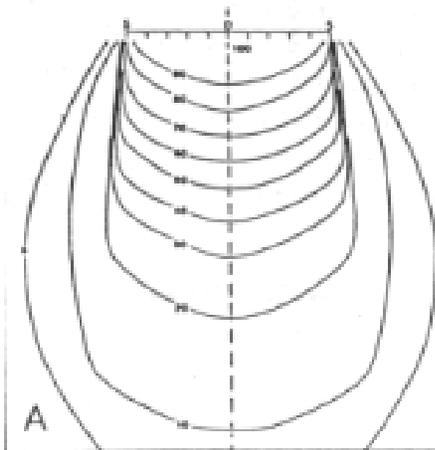
Effect of Electron Steering

Beam Flatness

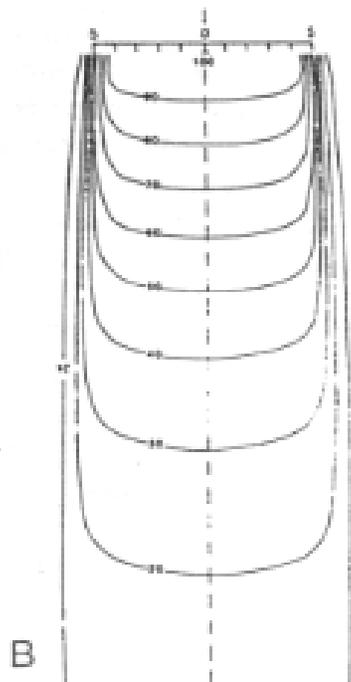


Beam Quality

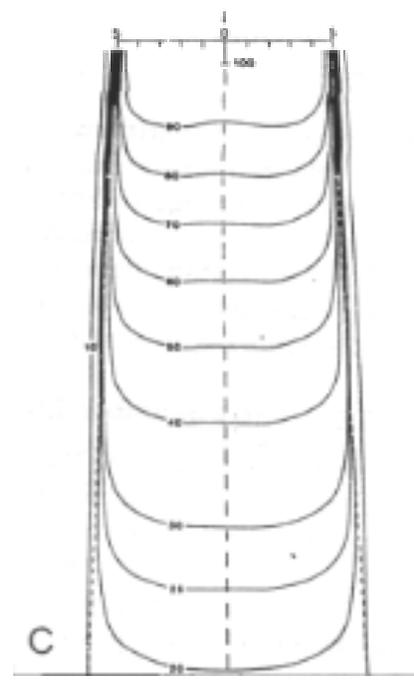
- The depth of a given isodose curve increases with beam quality.
- Greater lateral scatter associated with lower-energy beams
- For megavoltage beams, the scatter outside the field is minimized as a result of forward scattering and becomes more a function of collimation than energy.



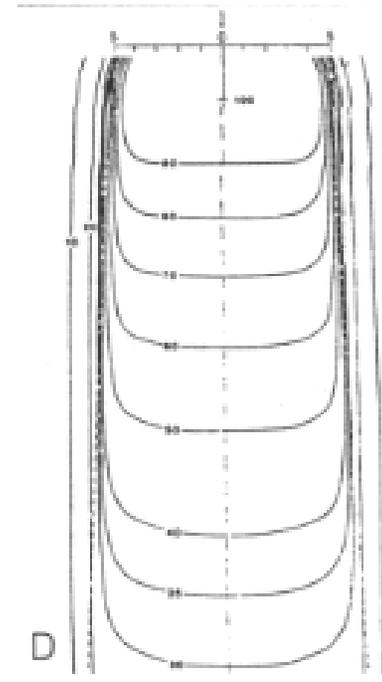
200 kVp,
SSD=50 cm



^{60}Co , SSD=80 cm



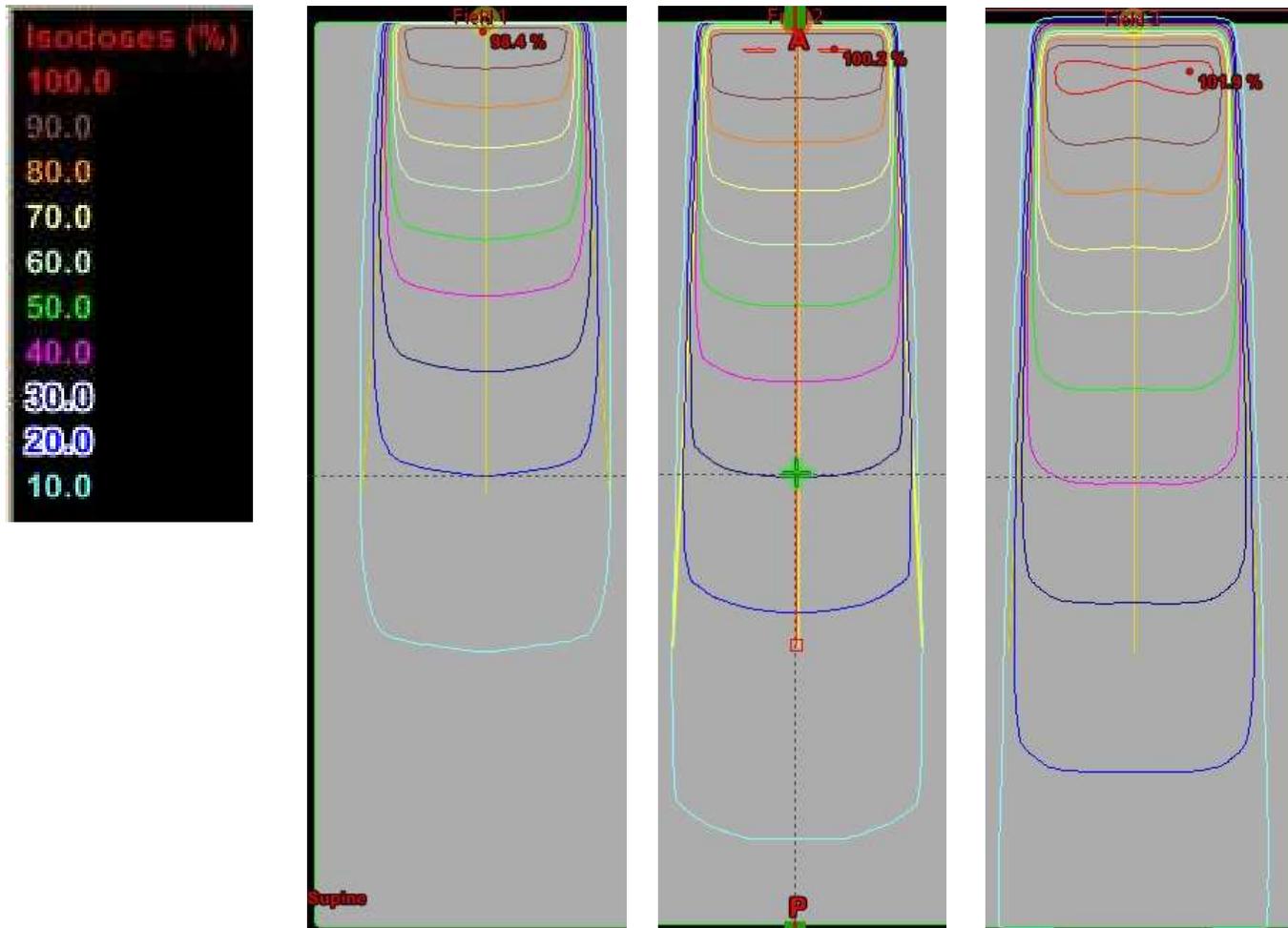
4 MV, SSD=100 cm



10 MV, SSD=100 cm

Isodose distribution

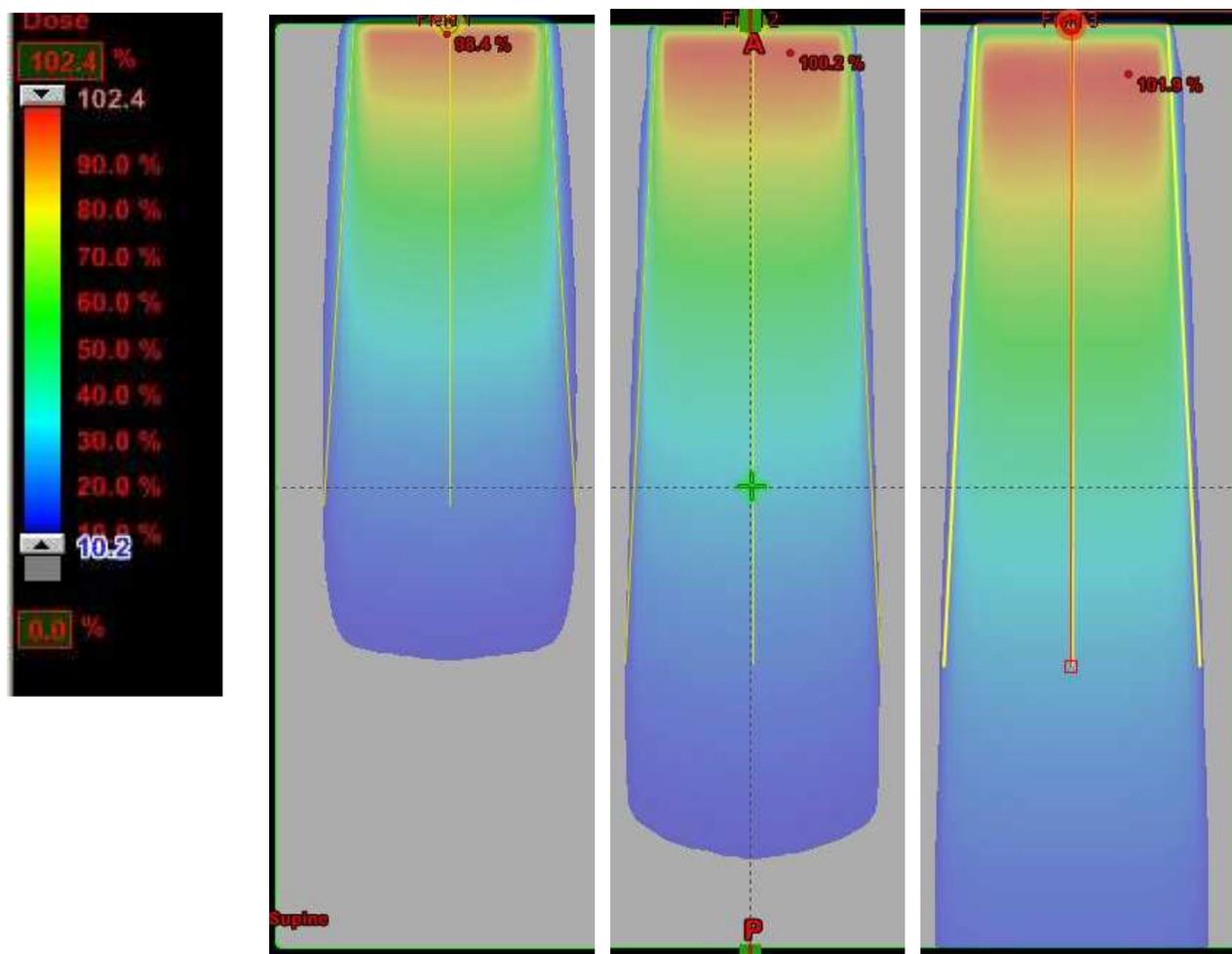
Co-60, 6 & 15 MV Photon Beam, Field size of 10x10cm²



The field flatness changes with depth. This is attributed to an increase in scatter to primary dose ratio with increasing depth and decreasing incident photon energy off axis

Isodose distribution

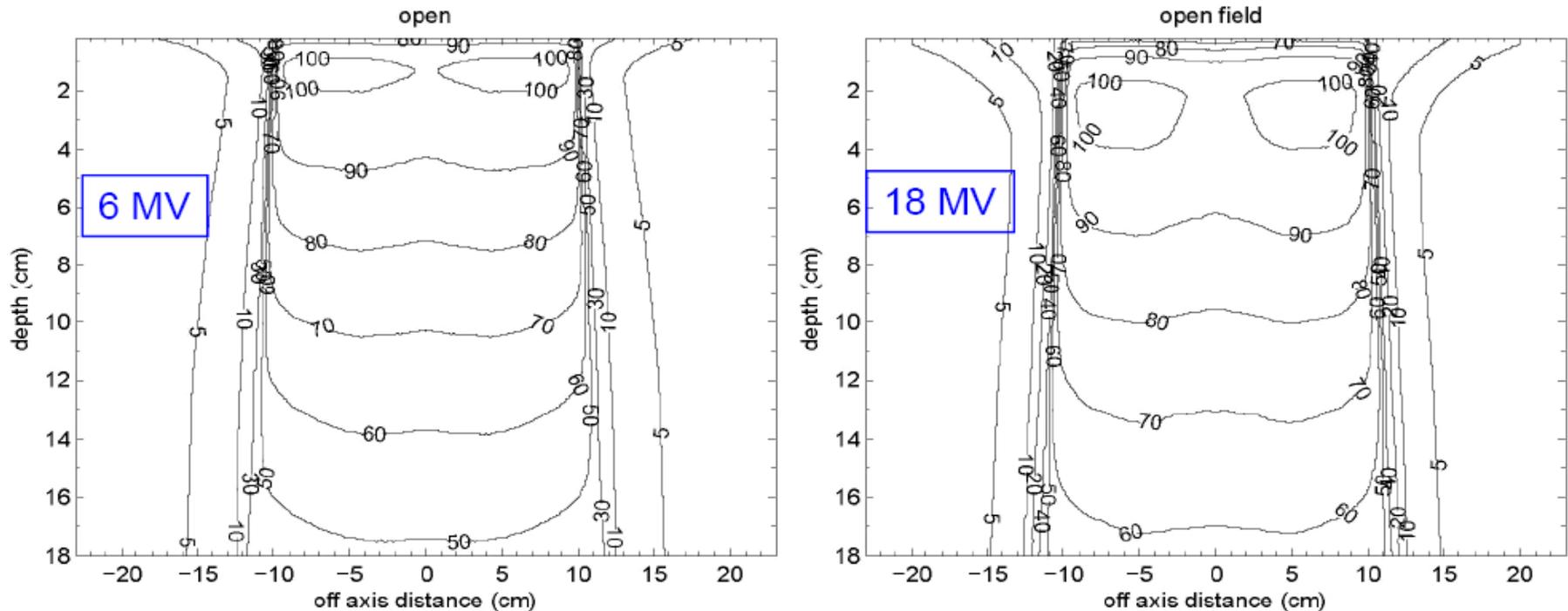
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Isodose distribution

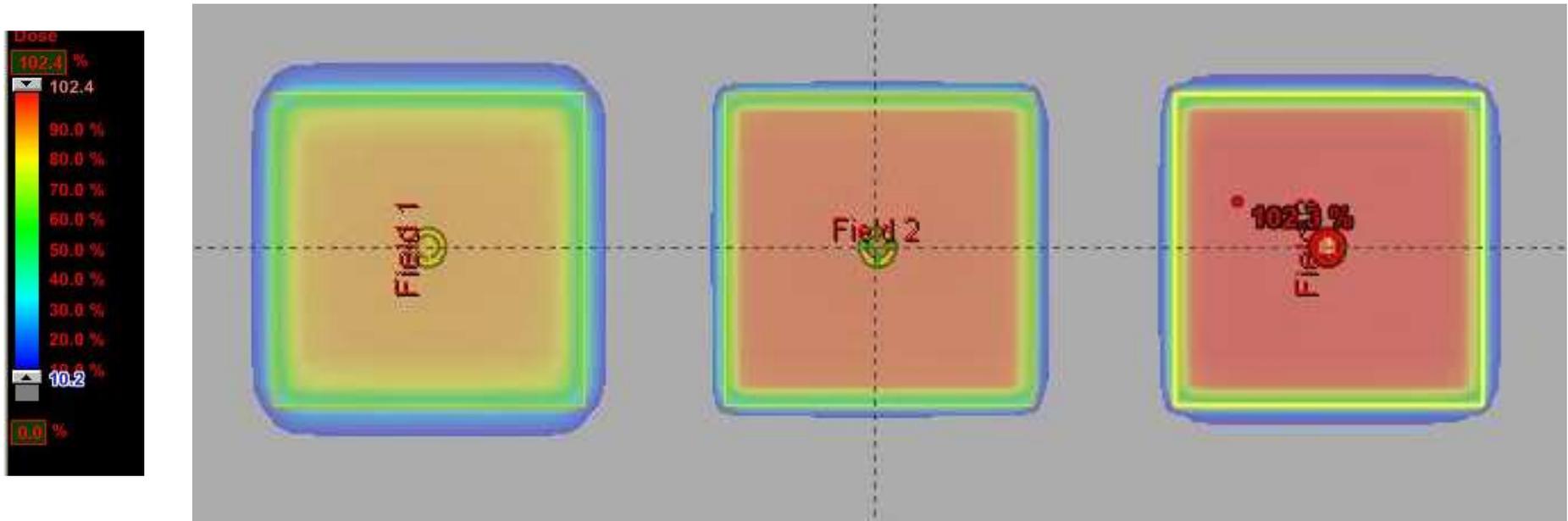
Field size of 20x20cm²



Note contaminant electrons contribute to dose outside the field at shallow depths. The magnitude and extent of dose outside the geometric edge of a field at shallow depths increases with beam energy.

Cross section isodose distribution

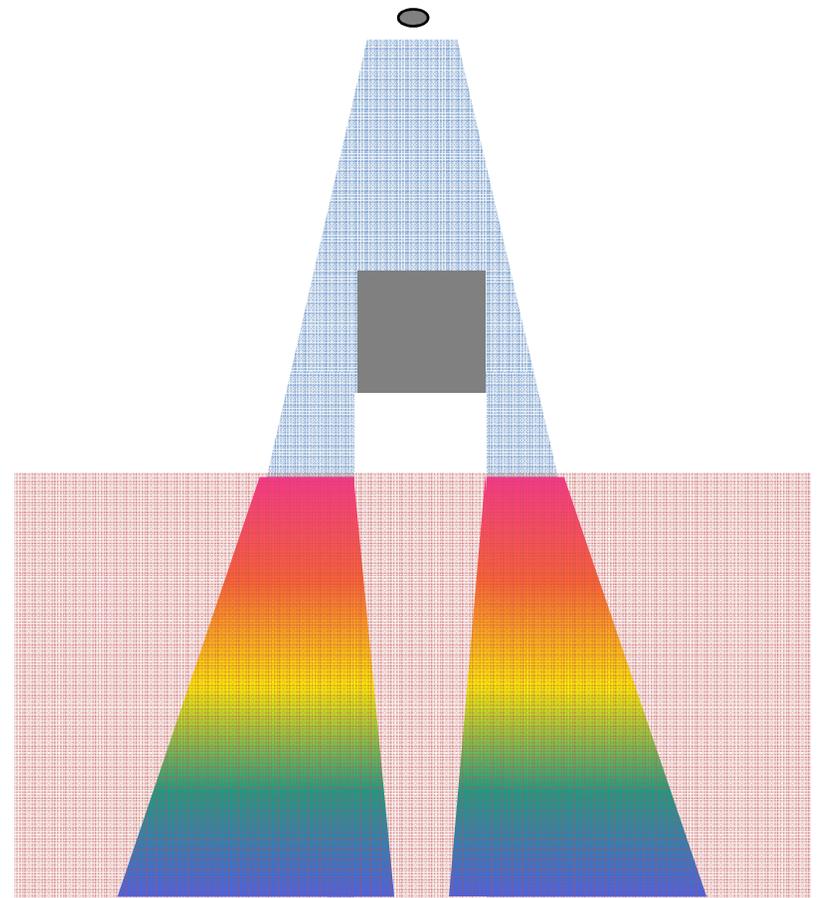
Co-60, 6 & 15 MV Photon Beam, Field size of 10x10cm²



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Problem in beam modification

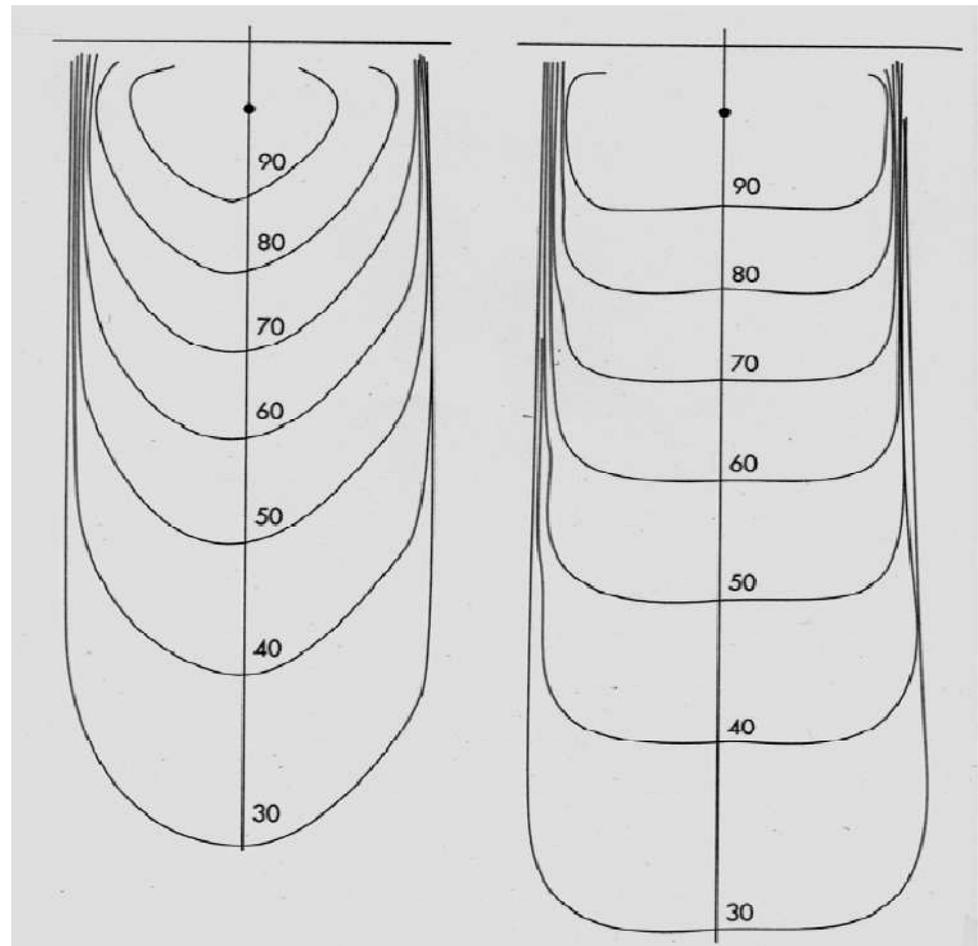
- Radiation reaching any point, is made up of primary and scattered photons.
- Any introduction of the modification devices results in alteration of dose distribution, due to these two phenomena.
- The phenomena scattering results in an “blurring” of the effect of the beam modification.
- Scattering is more in kilovoltage radiation than in megavoltage radiation therapy.



Beam flattening filter

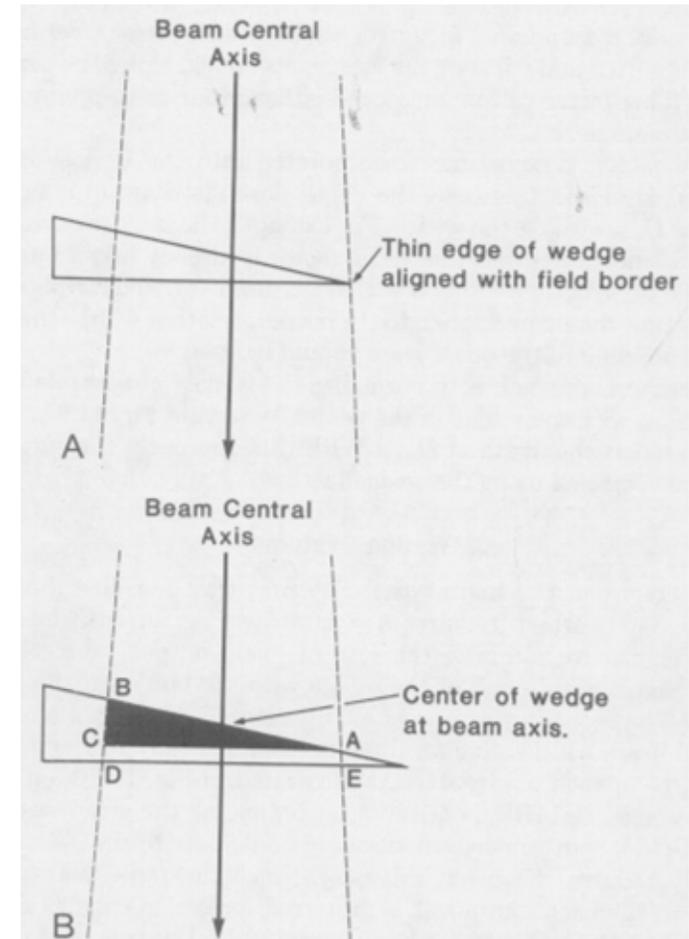


- Isodose curve for a 10 MV x-ray beam without (Left) and with (right) beam-flattening filter in place.
- Lateral horns of the curves are apparent near the surface with the beam-flattening filter.
- For IMRT purposes we explore using FFF beam

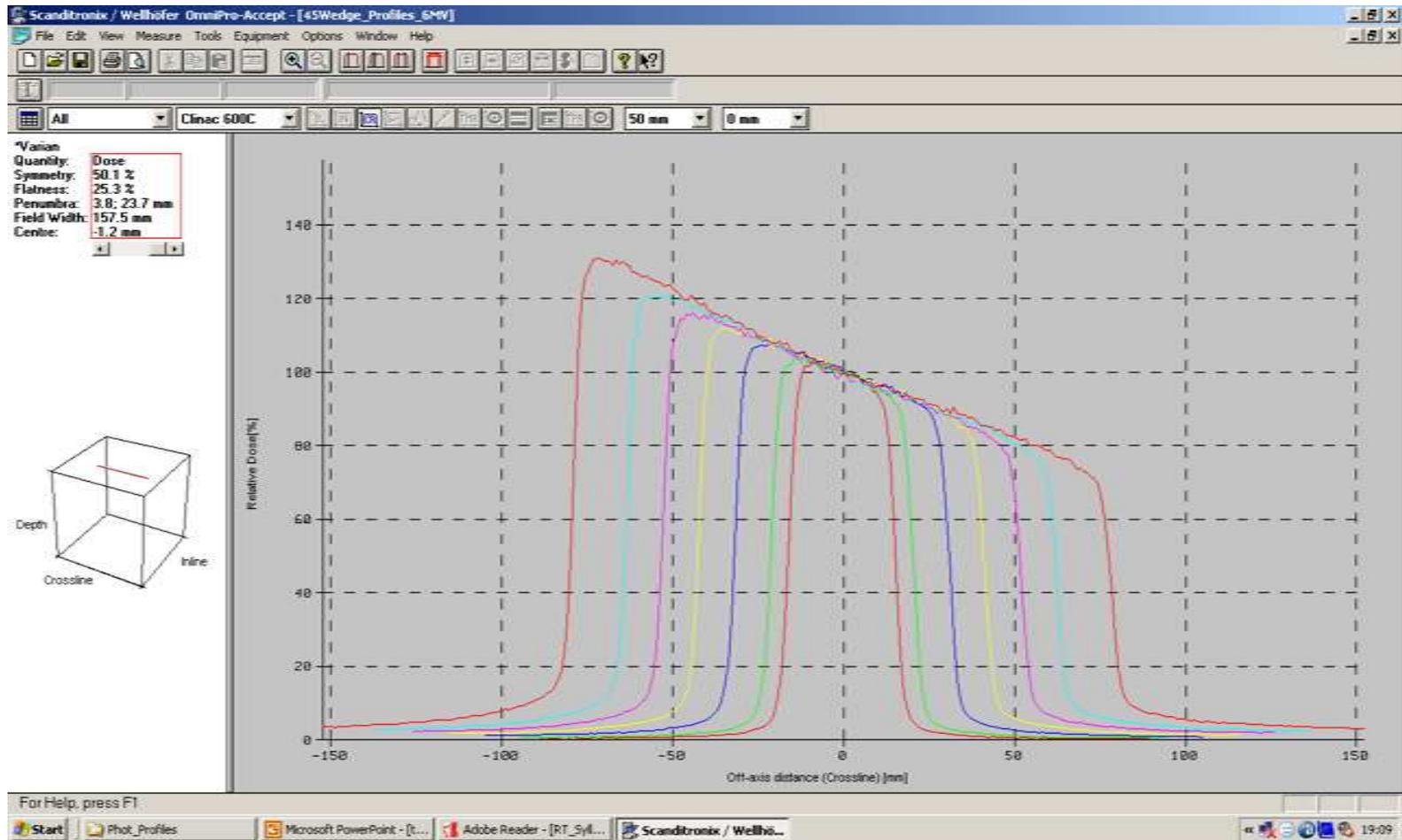


Wedge Filter

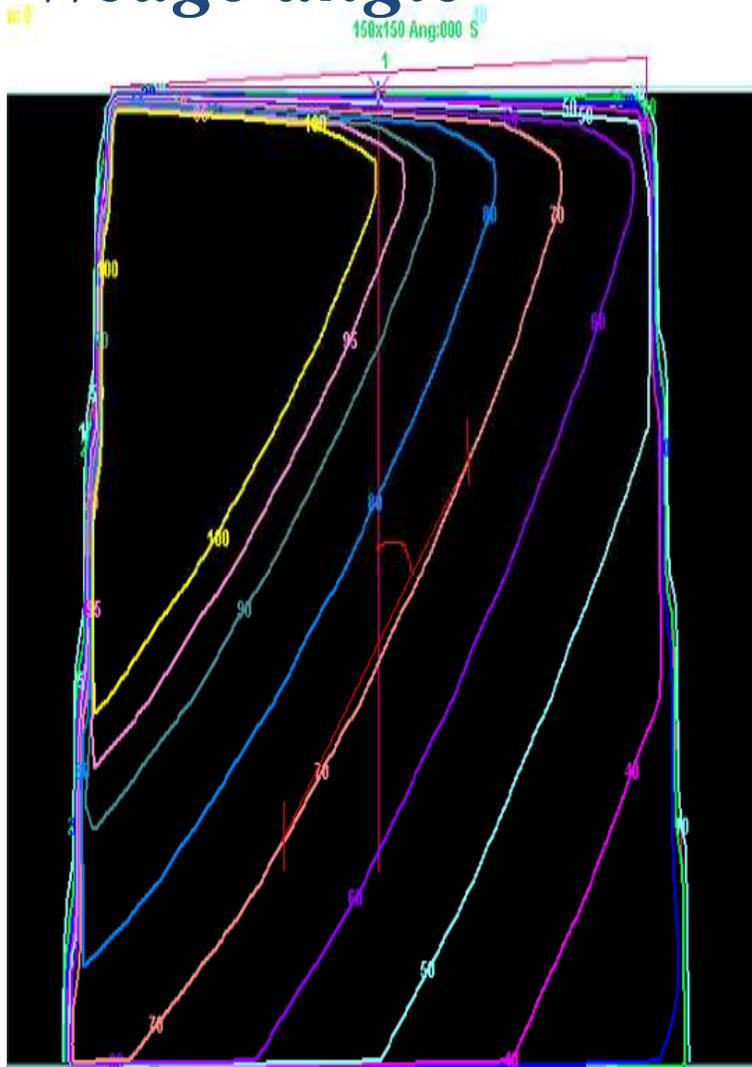
- Wedge shaped absorber which causes a progressive decrease in the intensity across the beam, resulting in a tilt of the isodose curves from their normal position.
- Made of dense material : Lead, copper or steel
- Wedge transmission factor, < 1
- Individualized wedge system
 - A separate wedge for each beam width
 - to minimize the loss of beam output
 - To align the thin end of the wedge with the border of the light field
 - Used in ^{60}Co
- Universal wedge system
 - A single wedge for all beam widths
 - Fixed centrally in the beam
 - Used in Linac



Wedge profile at 5cm depth (45 degree)



Wedge angle



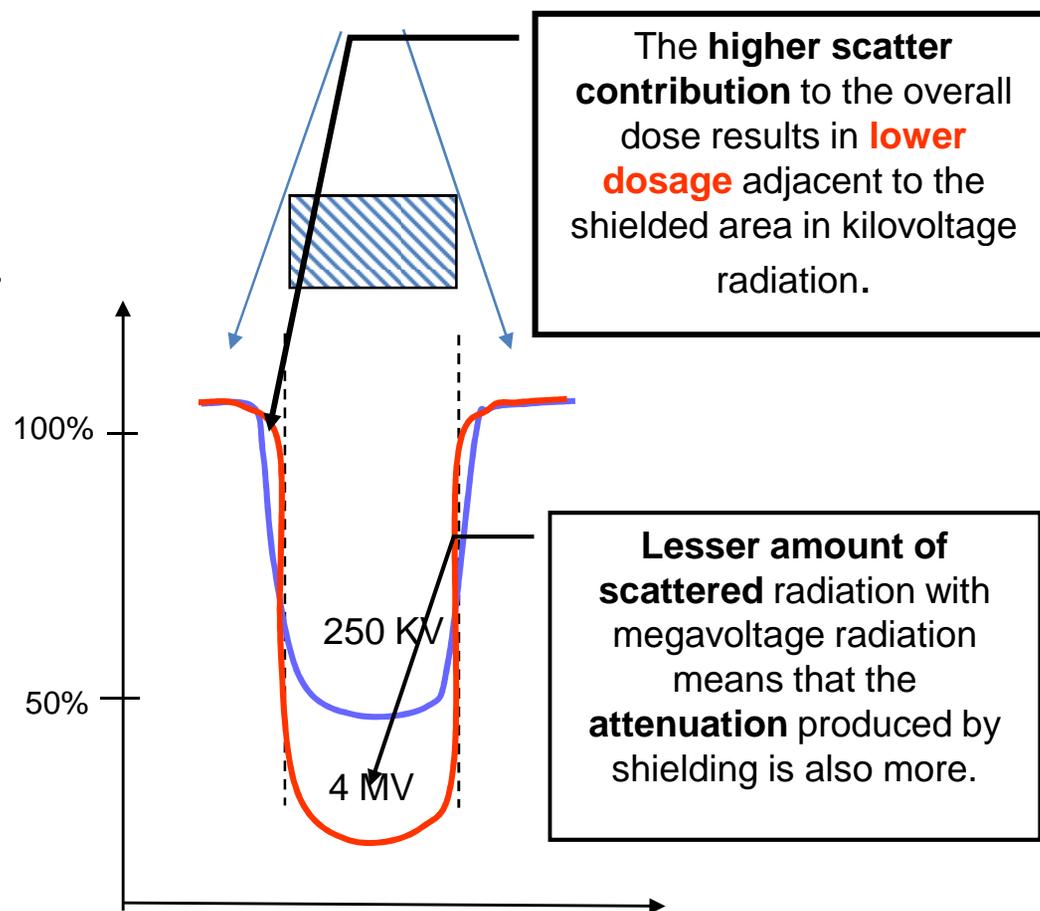
- The wedge isodose angle (θ) is the **complement** of the angle through which the isodose curve is tilted with respect to the **central ray** of the beam at any specified depth.
- This depth is important because the angle will **decrease** with increasing depth.
- The choice of the reference depth varies:
 - **10 centimeters.**
 - 1/2 - 2/3rd of the beam width.
 - At the 50% isodose curve (kV).

It is angle is defined as the complement of the angle through which the isodose curve with respect to the beam central axis at reference depth of 10cm.

(ICRU Report N0.24)

Beam modifiers

- Field blocking and shaping devices:
 - Shielding blocks.
 - Custom blocks.
 - Asymmetrical jaws.
 - Multileaf collimators.



Shielding blocks

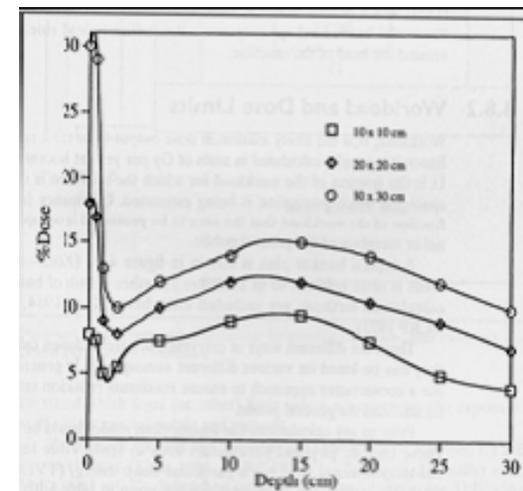
- To spare the critical organ & Normal tissue
- Should be at least 5 HVL (3.125%) ; $1/2^n = \%$ transmission
- Made of
 - Lead 11.3gm/cm^3
 - Cerro-bend alloy 9.4gm/cm^3
 - (Bi -50%, Pb -26.7%, tin -13.3% & Cd -10%)

Beam Quality	5 HVL Lead (cm)
Cs -137	3.0
Co - 60	5.0
4 MV	6.0
6 MV	6.5
10 MV	7.0
15 MV	7.0

Dose under blocks: %DD under a 2 cm wide block

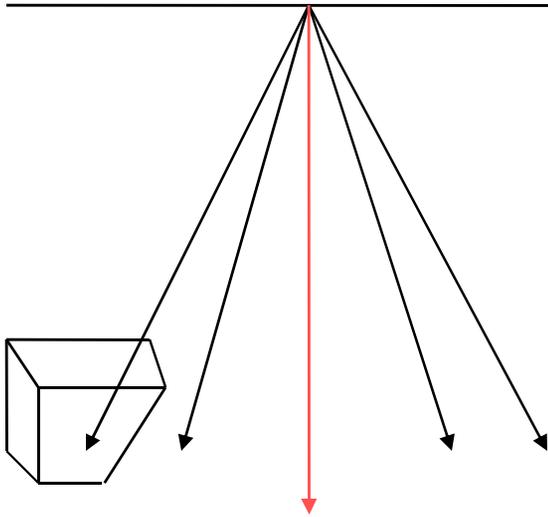
Larger fields produce more dose under the block due to increase in tissue scatter

Note: initial dose is high due to electron contamination, followed by a rapid reduction in dose, then a slow climb to a plateau at about $d=15\text{cm}$



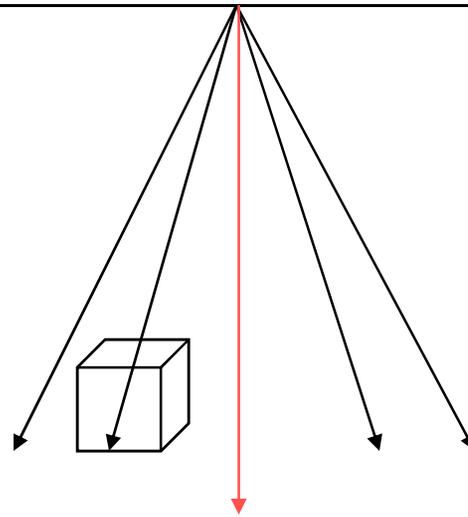
Regular Vs Divergent shielding block

Divergent blocks

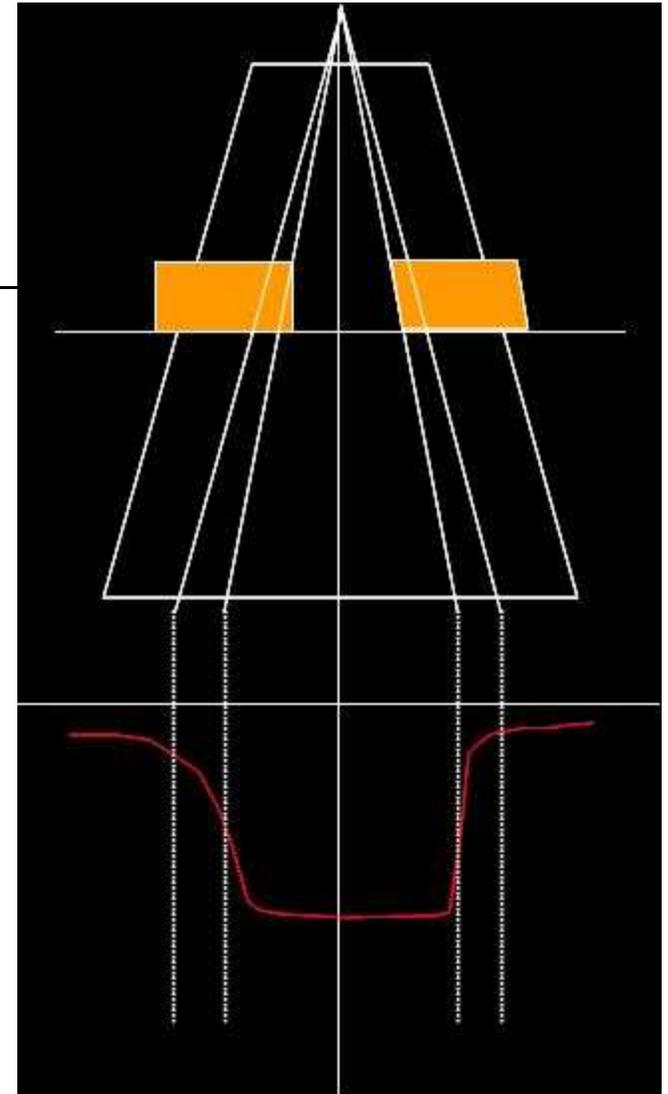


- Sharp penumbra
- Tighter shielding margin
- Particular STD

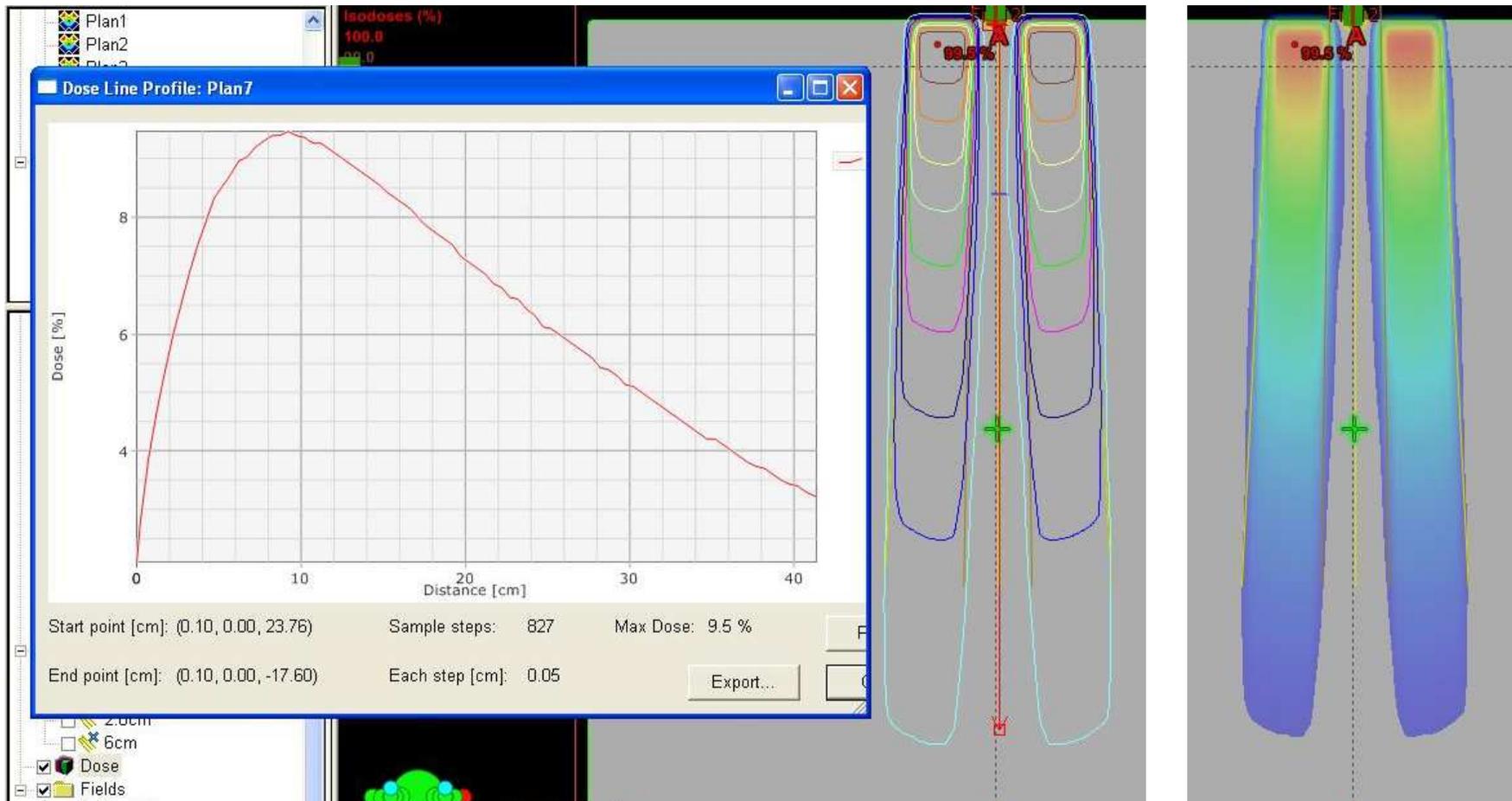
Non-divergent blocks



- Increased penumbra
- Larger shielding margin
- Any STD (20cm clearance)



Isodose distribution with shielding block



Concepts in treatment planning

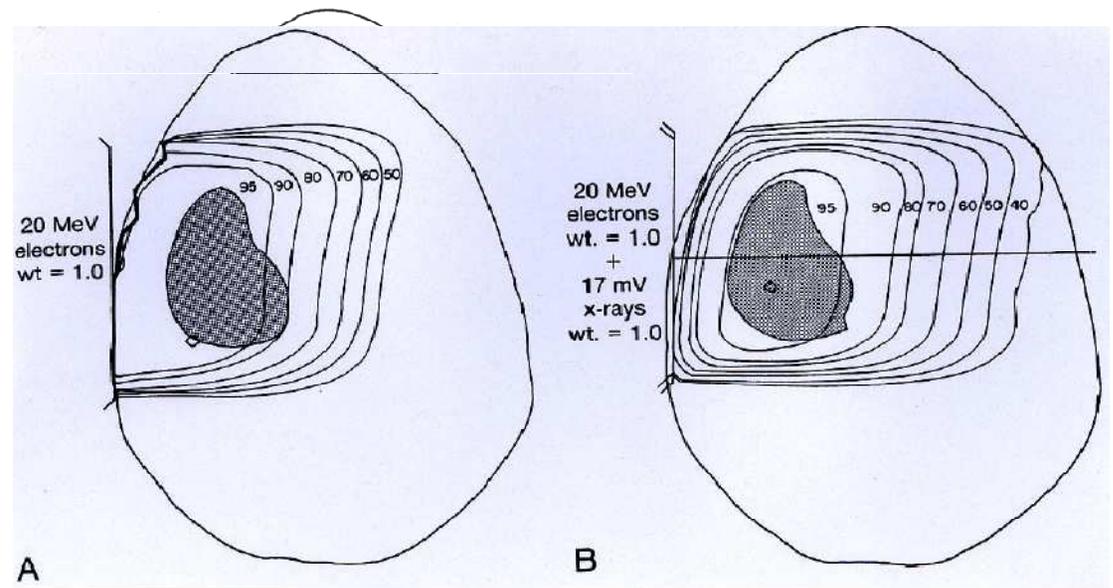
- Beam arrangement
- Beam weighting
- Fixed treatment technique
- Isocentric treatment technique
 - Co planner & non- co planner
- Beam blocking
- Asymmetric collimation
- Intensity modulation

Criteria for Using Single Enface Treatment Fields

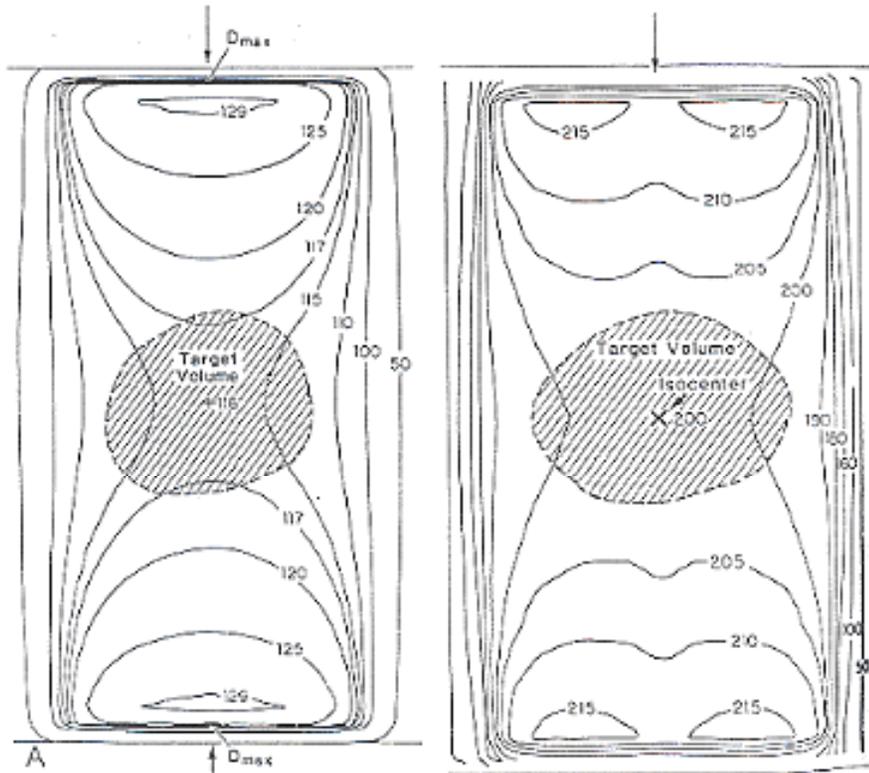
- Dose distribution within the tumor volume is reasonably uniform (+ 5%)
- Maximum dose is not excessive, not more than 110% of prescribed dose
- Critical structures are kept below tolerances

Examples of enface fields:

- a) s'clav
- b) internal mammary
- c) spinal cord compression



Parallel Opposed Fields



A, Each beam weighted 100 at D_{max} .

B, Each beam weighted 100 at the isocenter.

The advantages

- The simplicity and reproducibility of setup
- Homogeneous dose to the tumor
- Less chances of geometrical miss

Disadvantage

- The excessive dose to normal tissues and critical organs above and below the tumor

Characteristics of parallel opposed fields are as follows:

- Hour glass shape of the 100% isodose curve
- A uniform distribution at the patient midline

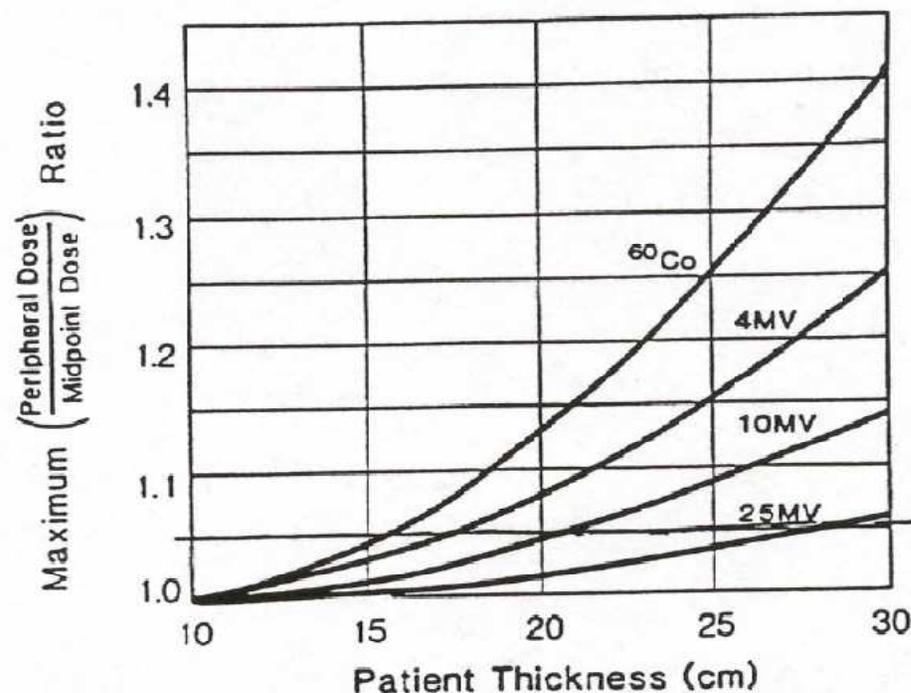
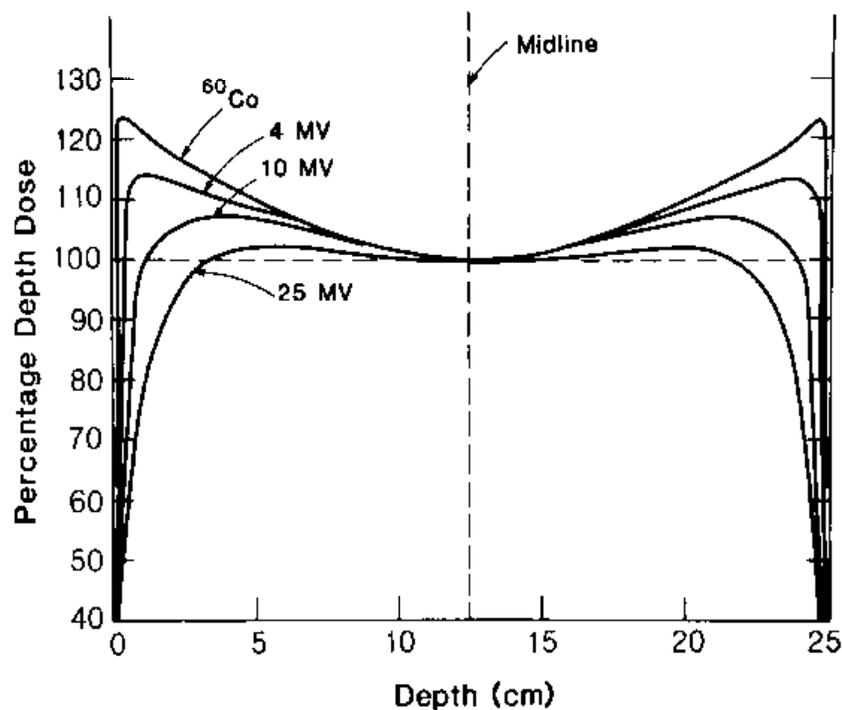
Patient Thickness vs Dose Uniformity

Parallel opposed beams give a uniform dose distribution across the patient.

Dose uniformity depends on thickness, energy, and beam flatness

Dmax dose increases as either

- thickness increases
- energy decreases



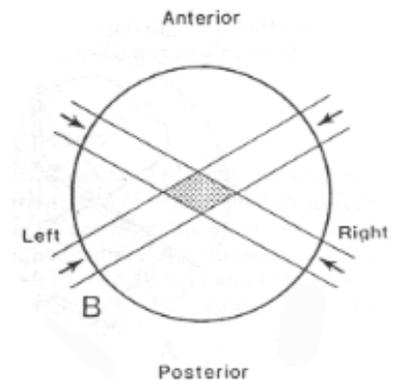
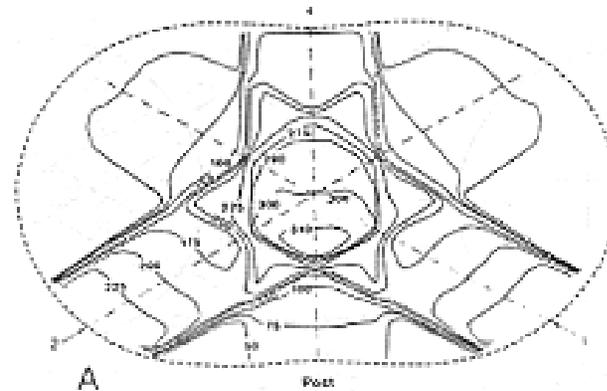
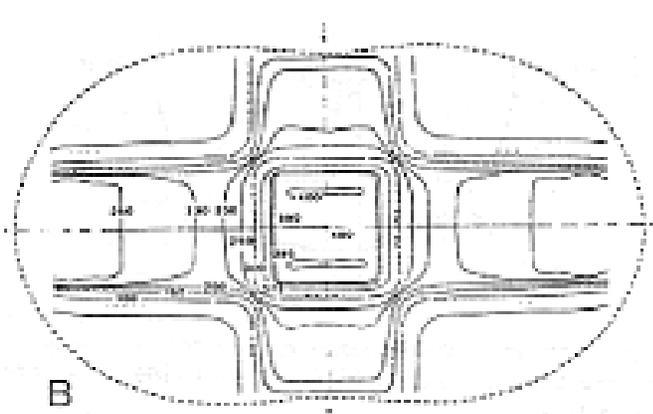
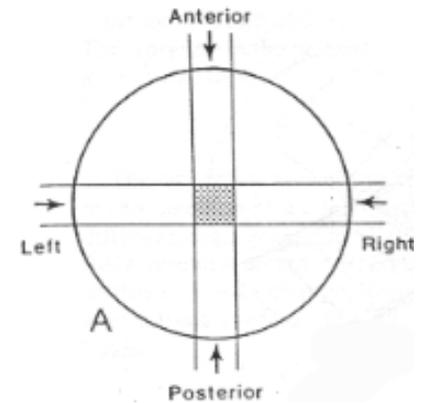
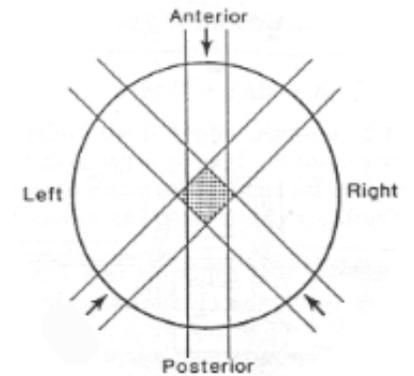
Isocentric Techniques

- The **isocenter** is the point of intersection of **the collimator axis and the gantry axis of rotation.**
- Isocentric technique
 - Placing the isocenter at a depth with the patient and directing the beams from different directions
 - $SSD = SAD - d$
- Stationary beams
- Arc & rotational beams

Multiple Fields

To deliver maximum dose to the tumor and minimum dose to the surrounding tissues

- Using fields of appropriate size
- Increasing the number of fields or portals
- Selecting appropriate beam directions
- Adjusting beam weights
- Using appropriate beam energy
- Using beam modifiers



Summary

- **Basic properties of photon beams :**
Quantity, Quality, Intensity, Linear attenuation & HVL
- **Parameters that influence the beam profile characteristics :**
PDD, TMR, Buildup, Scatter, Field size & SSD dependence & Penumbra
- **Influence of beam modifiers:**
Flattening filter, Wedge & Shielding blocks
- **Dose distribution:**
Energy dependence, Penumbra & Contaminant electrons
- **Basic concepts of treatment planning :**
Single versus multiple beams and techniques