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# Non destructive testing — Radiation methods — Computed Tomography

Part 3: Operation and interpretation

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**National foreword**

This British Standard is the UK implementation of EN 16016-3:2011.

The UK participation in its preparation was entrusted to Technical Committee WEE/46, Non-destructive testing.

A list of organizations represented on this committee can be obtained on request to its secretary.

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# EN 16016-3

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English Version

# Non destructive testing - Radiation methods - Computed Tomography - Part 3: Operation and interpretation

Essais non destructifs - Méthodes par rayonnements - Tomographie numérisée - Partie 3: Fonctionnement et interprétation

Zerstörungsfreie Prüfung - Durchstrahlungsverfahren - Computertomographie - Teil 3: Durchführung und Auswertung

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# Contents

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# Foreword

This document (EN 16016-3:2011) has been prepared by Technical Committee CEN/TC 138 "Non-destructive testing", the secretariat of which is held by AFNOR.

This European Standard shall be given the status of a national standard, either by publication of an identical text or by endorsement, at the latest by February 2012, and conflicting national standards shall be withdrawn at the latest by February 2012.

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EN 16016 consists of the following parts:

— *Non destructive testing — Radiation methods — Computed tomography — Part 1: Terminology*;

— *Non destructive testing — Radiation methods — Computed tomography — Part 2: Principle, equipment and samples*;

— *Non destructive testing — Radiation methods — Computed tomography — Part 3: Operation and interpretation*;

— *Non destructive testing — Radiation methods — Computed tomography — Part 4: Qualification*.

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# Introduction

This document gives guidelines for the general principles of X-ray computed tomography (CT) applicable to industrial imaging (in the context of this standard, industrial means non-medical applications); it also gives a consistent set of CT performance parameter definitions, including how these performance parameters relate to CT system specifications. This document deals with computed axial tomography and excludes other types of tomography such as translational tomography and tomosynthesis.

# 1 Scope

This European Standard specifies an outline of the operation of a CT system, and the interpretation of the results in order to provide the user with technical information to select suitable parameters.

# 2 Normative references

The following referenced documents are indispensable for the application of this document. For dated references, only the edition cited applies. For undated references, the latest edition of the referenced document (including any amendments) applies.

EN 16016-1:2011, *Non destructive testing — Radiation method — Computed tomography — Part 1: Terminology*

EN 16016-2:2011, *Non destructive testing — Radiation method — Computed tomography — Part 2: Principle, equipment and samples*

# 3 Terms and definitions

For the purposes of this document, the terms and definitions given in EN 16016-1:2011 apply.

# 4 Operational procedure

## 4.1 General

For target-oriented CT inspection procedures, the test and measurement tasks are defined in advance with regard to the size and type of features/defects to be verified; for example, through the specification of appropriate acceptance levels and geometry deviations. In the following, the process steps of a CT application are described and information on its implementation provided.

## 4.2 CT system set-up

### 4.2.1 General

The CT system set-up is oriented towards the requirements for the given task. The required spatial resolution (taking into account the tube focal spot size), contrast resolution, voxel size and the CT image quality can be derived from these requirements. The quality of the CT image is determined by different parameters, which under certain circumstances counteract each other.

In the following, system parameters are described and information is provided on setting up a CT system for inspection. Due to the interactions of the different system parameters, it may be necessary to run through the set-up steps several times in order to acquire optimal data.

The optimal energy is that which gives the best signal-to-noise ratio and not necessarily that which gives the clearest radiograph (the dependency of the detector efficiency on the energy is to be taken into account). However, in order to differentiate between materials of different chemical composition it may be necessary to adjust the accelerating voltage to maximise the difference in their linear attenuation coefficients.

### 4.2.2 Geometry

The source-detector and source-object distances and thus also the beam angle used should be specified. In order to achieve high resolutions, the projection can be magnified onto the detector. The magnification is equal to the ratio of the source-detector distance to the source-object distance. Increasing source-detector

distance leads to a reduced intensity at the detector and thus to a reduced signal to noise ratio. Accordingly, this also applies when using detectors with improved detector resolution, which can result in a reduction of the signal-to-noise ratio due to the reduced intensity per pixel. In general, for this reason, minimisation of the source-object distance is to be preferred.

In order to obtain high beam intensity at the detector, the source-detector distance should be selected so that it is as small as possible taking into account the required resolution so that the beam cone still fully illuminates the detector. In the case of 3D-CT, the (in general vertical) total cone beam angle measured parallel to the rotation axis should typically be less than 15°, but this is specimen dependant, in order to minimise reconstruction-determined (Feldkamp) distortions of the 3D model. In addition, these restrictions do not apply for the perpendicular (in general horizontal) beam angle. For a higher geometric magnification, the object must be positioned as near as possible to the source, taking into consideration the limit on sharpness imposed by focal spot size. The rotation of the object must take place at at least 180 °plus beam angle of the X-ray beam, whereby an improved data quality is the result of an increasing number of angular increments. For this reason, the object is typically turned through 360 °. Ideally, the number of angular increments should be at least $\pi/2 \times matrix\,size$ where the matrix size is the number of voxels across the sample diameter or the largest dimension. For more information, refer to 5.5.

In order to obtain as complete information as possible on the specimen, the requirement in general for a CT is that the object (or the interesting section of the object) is completely mapped in each projection on the detector. For large components that exceed the beam cone, a so-called measurement range extension is used. This measurement range extension is accomplished by laterally displacing either the object or the detector, recording the projection data in sequential measurements, and finally concatenating (joining) them. Under certain circumstances, it is also possible to only scan a part of the object (region-of-interest CT), which may lead to a restricted data quality in the form of so-called truncations.

A possible deviation of the recording geometry (offset between the projected axis of rotation and the centre line of the image) must be corrected for in order to obtain a reconstruction which is as precise as possible. This can be achieved by careful realignment of the system or be corrected using software.

### 4.2.3   X-ray source

At the X-ray source, the maximum beam energy and tube current are to be set such that sufficient penetration of the test object and tube power with a sufficiently small focal spot are ensured. The required voltage is determined by the maximum path length, in the material to be X-rayed in accordance with EN 16016-2:2011, 8.2. For the best measurement results, an attenuation ratio of approx. 1:10 should be used. That is the grey level through the sample should be about 10% of the white level (both measured with respect to the dark level). The optimal range can be achieved through the use of prefilters. It should be noted that every prefilter reduces the intensity. Prefilters have the additional advantage of reducing beam hardening, though further improvements can be made with software correction.

### 4.2.4   Detector

The following detector settings need to be set appropriately for the sample being scanned:

— Exposure time (Frame rate);

— Number of integrations per projection;

— Digitisation gain and offset;

— Binning.

If necessary, corrections for offset, gain and bad pixels (which may depend on X-ray settings) should be applied.

The individual CT projection is determined by the detector properties: its geometric resolution, its sensitivity, dynamics and noise. The gain and exposure time can be adjusted together with the radiation intensity of the source so that the maximum digitised intensity does not exceed 90 % of the saturation level.

To reduce scattered radiation, a thin filter, grid or lamellae can be used directly in front of the detector (post-filtering).

The ideal acquisition time is dependent on the required quality of the CT image and it is often limited by the time available for inspection.

## 4.3 Reconstruction parameters

The volumetric region to be reconstructed, the size of the CT image (in terms of voxels) as well as its dynamic range (which should take into account the detector dynamic range) shall be specified. In order to achieve sufficient CT image quality, settings for the reconstruction algorithm or corrections should be optimised.

The volumetric region is defined by the number of voxels along the X, Y & Z axes.

## 4.4 Visualisation

Using volume visualisation, the CT image can be presented as a 3D object. Individual grey values can be assigned any colour and opacity values to highlight or hide materials with different X-ray densities. Zooming, scrolling, setting contrast, brightness, colour and lighting facilitate an optimal presentation of the CT image. In addition, it is possible to place user-defined sectional planes through the object in order to examine the internal structure, or to interactively visualise the CT image, for example by rotating and moving it as a 3D object. Image processing can be applied to CT images to improve feature recognition.

It may not be possible to load the whole CT image at full resolution into memory at once.

## 4.5 Analysis and interpretation of CT images

### 4.5.1 General

Typical features for inspection are pores, cavities, cracks, inclusions, impurities or inhomogeneous material distributions.

Typical measurement tasks are obtaining dimensional properties (such as length or wall thickness) or calculating object morphology.

### 4.5.2 Feature testing/defect testing

Features in the sample generally give rise to changes in CT grey level within the CT image. Analysis of CT images is performed by qualified personnel using software. A suitable contrast range or an automatic or manual calibration is used. The position, CT grey value and dimensions of features can be determined. Several tools are available for this, including manual ones or automatic tools such as strobe lines or gauges that engage at grey value thresholds or edges. For examining the structure and location of assembled components, a qualitative comparison of CT images without determination of the dimensions can suffice.

For an automatic determination using visualisation software tools (for example fault analyses), a calibration via the specification of a grey value range is, in general, required for the sample material to be measured. The specification of the grey levels can be done manually using histograms or in an interactive manner.

The detectability of features depends on the size of the feature relative to the geometric resolution and the contrast resolution compared with the contrast difference of the feature from the base material, as well as the quality of the image (signal to noise ratio, etc.) and any possible interference effects between adjacent voxels (partial volume effect). For the detectability of singular pores, cavities or cracks, their minimum extent should typically be 2 to 3 times the demagnified pixel size (at the position of the sample).

### 4.5.3   Dimensional testing

#### 4.5.3.1    General

Depending on the task, there are various methods currently in use for determining geometric features. Point-to-point distances can be manually determined in the CT slices or more complex features can be extracted with the help of analysis software.

The measurement of the geometric properties of an object using CT is an indirect procedure, in which the dimensional measurement takes place in or is derived from CT images. For this reason, in order to facilitate precise measurements, an accurate knowledge of two important variables is necessary:

— the precise image scale or voxel size and

— the boundary surface of two materials, for example the component surface (material-to-air transition), which can be determined via a CT grey value threshold in the CT image.

#### 4.5.3.2    Determination of precise image scale

The precise image scale or voxel size must be determined through the measurement of a suitable calibration standard (together with the measurement object and directly before/after the object inspection) or using a reference geometry at the object. For this, the voxel size or magnification M specified by the CT system is compared with the actual available and precisely determined (using the reference body/geometry) voxel size or magnification M*. Thus, for example, the exact voxel size can be determined with high precision via measurements without the disturbing influence of other variables (for example, the precise position of the component surface (grey value threshold) in the CT image) for the centre distances of a test piece (e.g. dumbbell, see Figure 1). In this procedure, it must be taken into account that the CT grey values of the test item can, under certain circumstances, be influenced by the accompanying reference bodies (for example, through changes to the contrast ratios, interferences and artefacts). Using the actual voxel sizes determined in this way, the visualisation software can be correspondingly scaled/corrected as regards the voxel size specified by the system.



**Figure 1 — Reference objects (dumbbell)**

#### 4.5.3.3    Threshold value determination

In order to be able to carry out dimensional measurements, the component surface or material contact surface must be determined in the CT image. The component surface is generally derived from the transition from

solid object to surrounding air. The boundary surface is defined via a threshold value and is thus dependent on the materials and the X-ray settings. This threshold may be specified globally for the entire CT image as an average grey value of, for example, the material and air. This is sometimes known as the "Iso50 threshold". A global threshold value or calibration using the Iso50 method is suitable for many measurement tasks on objects made from homogeneous materials.

A global threshold is not suitable for objects made from several materials. In these cases, different thresholds should be used according to the materials either side of the boundary. Even in the case of objects made from homogeneous materials, beam hardening, scattering and other artefacts can result in local dimming or lightening in the CT image which would distort the measurement results. The grey value threshold, for example, for surfaces in the inside of the component thus frequently differs from that for surfaces on the outside of the component. The threshold can, if necessary, be determined locally from grey levels either side of the boundary. A determination of the overall component surface via locally determined threshold values, while more time consuming, is more tolerant towards contrast variations and artefact influences.

### 4.5.3.4    Adjustment of geometrically primitive bodies

In addition to simple point-to-point operations (see 4.5.3), methods from coordinate measurement technology, such as reference geometry adjustment may be employed. In this connection, so-called geometric primitive bodies or reference elements (for example planes, cylinders, spheres or similar) are fitted, using software, to object contours of interest in the correspondingly calibrated data. At the reference elements, geometric features (for example, diameter, distances, angles, etc) are determined directly or by combining reference elements. By fitting to the typically several thousand measurement points of the corresponding data, there is thus, due to the statistic averaging and reduction of the user influence, an often much higher precision than via the manual distance measurement of two points.

### 4.5.3.5    Generation of geometric data

So-called triangular models can be extracted from the voxels and calibrated grey value threshold. These models represent the calibrated threshold value-Iso-surface, i.e. the material surface in the form of linked triangles. The triangular model contains – as part of the extraction process precision (see below) – the geometry information on the object surface. It consists of only two types of information: the so-called vertices and the information as to which vertices belong to a triangle. The vertices are 3D points, which lie on the threshold value-Iso-surface. The quantity of all vertices is also designated a point cloud. It is initially the linking information, i.e. the information as to which three vertices in each case form a surface triangle, which defines the course of the object surface.

A standard format for data exchange is the so-called STL file format (ASCII or binary and dimension-less). Alternatively, the point cloud (vertices without triangle information) can be exported, whereby in general important information on adjacent vertices is lost and if necessary must subsequently be reproduced.

The geometric quality of the generated point cloud or triangular model depends entirely on the number and position of the vertices. Since only triangles are assumed between the vertices in the triangular model, detailed surface structures, contained in the voxels, between the individual vertices can, under certain circumstances, not be represented and are thus lost.

The extraction of a point cloud or a triangular model from the voxels corresponds to a scanning of the object surface. For further processing, the amount of data must in general be reduced. The quality or geometric precision of the triangular model depends on how good the triangle can reproduce the actual course of the material surface (e.g. chord error). With special software applications, a low-loss reduction of the number of triangles is aimed for.

For each of these process steps, the involved losses are to be taken into account for the subsequent steps. Due to the special process conditions, the quality of the dimensional data is to be checked for plausibility and significance.

#### 4.5.3.6 Nominal-actual comparison

A dimensional CT application is the comparison of the recorded part (actual object) with the nominal geometry from the CAD (or other sources). After registering the CT coordinate system with the CAD coordinate system, there is the option, via the appropriate software, of comparing the geometric deviation of the CT-measured actual component with the CAD specification of the nominal geometry. The nominal-actual comparison can be carried out between the exported STL model or the point cloud and the CAD data or by directly comparing the voxels with the CAD data without previous STL or point cloud extraction.

#### 4.5.3.7 Further processing of geometric data

CT can also be used for the non-destructive determination of geometric data (reverse engineering), e.g. of prototype parts or adjacent components.

CAD models are not based on triangular models, rather on geometric primitives (e.g. cylinder) and so-called free-form surfaces. For this reason, a further processing of the geometric data in CAD systems, for example, the engineering of the surface determined from the voxels in a CAD-established model, is required. With the appropriate software, triangular models can be transferred to CAD-compatible elements (so-called reverse engineering), whereby CT-examined objects, i.e. real geometries, can again be incorporated into the CAD process.

## 5 Requirements for acceptable results

### 5.1 Image quality parameters

#### 5.1.1 Contrast

The quantity that is reconstructed in X-ray CT imaging is the linear attenuation coefficient, $\mu$. It is measured in units of inverse length (e.g. mm$^{-1}$) and is approximately proportional to the electron density of the material. To be distinguishable, a feature shall have a linear attenuation coefficient, $\mu_f$, that is sufficiently different from the linear attenuation coefficient of its background material, $\mu_b$.

Linear attenuation coefficients are functions of the incident X-ray energy. For simplicity in these discussions, the X-rays used are assumed to have a single energy, $E$, or to be approximated by some mean energy, $\overline{E}$ if a spectrum of energy is used. If this is not known, a reasonable rule of thumb would be one third of the accelerating potential if the test object is weakly attenuating or 2/3 if the test object is strongly attenuating.

Figure 2 shows the functional energy dependence of the X-ray linear attenuation coefficients of two hypothetical materials, $\mu_b$ and $\mu_f$. $\Delta\mu$ is the difference in attenuation for these two materials:

$$\Delta\mu = \left| \mu_b - \mu_f \right| \tag{1}$$

Contrast in CT has been defined historically as the percent difference of a feature from a background material.

$$\text{Contrast: } \Delta\mu\,(\%) = \frac{\left| \mu_b - \mu_f \right|}{\mu_b} \times 100 \tag{2}$$

This definition for contrast assumes that the feature in question extends throughout the thickness of the CT slice. If the feature has thickness, $h_f$, but is imaged with a slice of larger thickness, $h_s$, the contrast is further reduced by the factor $h_f / h_s$ (partial volume effect).
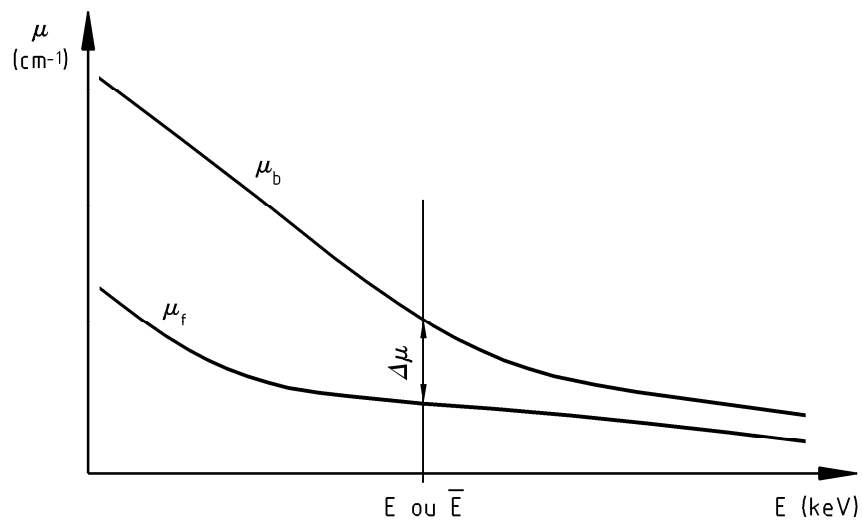
**Figure 2 — $\Delta\mu$ as a function of X-ray energy [adapted from ISO 15708-1:2002]**

This difference $\Delta\mu$ and thus the contrast depends greatly on the X-ray energy, which is thus an important parameter. Choosing a low energy maximizes contrast but is detrimental to good detectability (degraded signal to noise ratio). The optimum trade-off clearly depends, to a great extent, on the specific application.

If the CT system did not introduce degradation, a profile through the centre of the object shown in Figure 3a) (a feature centred in a background) would have the sharp form shown in Figure 3b).
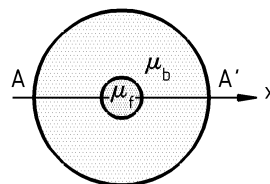


**a) CT slice of an element whose attenuation coefficient is $\mu_f$ included in a background element whose attenuation coefficient is $\mu_b$**
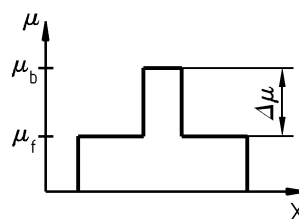


**b) Signal profile plot through the object in a) along the line AA'**

**Figure 3 — Illustration of contrast [adapted from ISO 15708-1:2002]**

### 5.1.2 Noise

The number of photons produced per unit time varies because of the statistical nature of the radiation emission process. The variations have well-defined characteristics, which can be described by what is referred to mathematically as Poisson statistics. This ubiquitous radiographic problem of photon statistics is handled in CT by integrating (or counting) long enough to keep statistical noise to a diagnostically acceptable level. What constitutes an acceptable noise level is defined by the application and can vary widely.

The photon noise (or quantum noise) on the X-ray signal is characterized by the fact that the variance of the signal is equal to its mean (Poisson statistics).

It is customary to specify noise as the standard deviation, which is the square root of the variance. This means that if an average of N photons is detected per sampling period, the number recorded in any particular sampling period will be in the range of $N \pm \sqrt{N}$ approximately 68 % of the time.

There may be additional noise from the detector electronics and scattered radiation. In a detailed analysis, these contributions shall be included.

Noise is measured on a test phantom representative in terms of the tested object's size and attenuation (the test phantom can be the same cylinder used for measurement of the MTF, see 5.1.5). The test phantom must have a sufficiently extensive homogeneous area to provide satisfactory statistics.

Experimentally, the usual process for determining the standard deviation, $\sigma$, for a homogeneous area of a reconstructed image containing $m$ pixels, each with some value $\mu_i$, is to first find the mean value of the set of $m$ pixels:

$$\bar{\mu} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mu_i \tag{3}$$

and then compute $\sigma$, the standard deviation of the values of $\mu_i$ about the mean $\bar{\mu}$, as follows:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} (\mu_i - \bar{\mu})^2}{m-1}} \tag{4}$$

$\sigma$ is not very sensitive to the number of pixels averaged if $m$ is in the range of $25 \leq m \leq 100$. The noise in a reconstructed image does have a positional dependence, especially near the edges of an object, so extremely large regions shall not be used. The noise in CT images is not completely uncorrelated, but the effect on σ is small.

### 5.1.3 Signal to noise ratio

The signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) is given by:

$$SNR = \frac{\bar{\mu}}{\sigma} \tag{5}$$

The SNR depends on the level of the attenuation encountered and can vary according to the location of the area in the object or in the reconstruction diameter. The SNR increases with the X-ray dose: the higher the SNR, the better the image quality.

### 5.1.4 Contrast to noise ratio

Noise ($\sigma$) will increase the distribution of CT grey values ($\mu$) in a material and may cause CT grey values in different materials ($\mu_f$ and $\mu_b$) to overlap, see Figure 4.
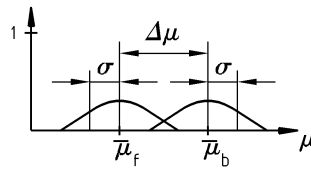
**Figure 4 — CT grey value distribution in material and background [adapted from ISO 15708-1:2002]**

The contrast to noise ratio (CNR) indicates whether the attenuation difference between a feature and its background is greater than the background noise level. Typically, a CNR value of 3 represents a good confidence detectability.

$$CNR = \frac{\left| \mu_f - \mu_b \right|}{\sigma_b}$$ (6)

Since CNR is a function of $\mu_b$, it can not be considered as an absolute property of the CT system.

NOTE      Contrast to noise ratio (CNR) is sometimes referred to as density resolution. It can only be related to material density with a proper calibration as described in EN 16016-4:2011, 6.4.4.

### 5.1.5  Spatial resolution

The standardised parameter to characterize the system spatial resolution is the concept of modulation-transfer function (MTF), which is the modulus of the one-dimensional Fourier transform of a Dirac profile convolved by the system's point spread function (PSF) .The PSF is thus the response of the system to an ideal point object. The MTF describes the ability of the system to reproduce spatial frequencies. In general, low frequencies (large, homogeneous features) are reproduced more faithfully than high frequencies (small features). The MTF is not only a purely theoretical mathematical representation. It is used to predict and measure system performance, and compare different systems.

Figure 5 illustrates the experimental method of obtaining the MTF from the image of a simple cylinder. The use of a cylinder (see Figure 5 (a)) is preferred because, once its centre of mass is determined, profiles through this point are perpendicular to the cylinder edge. Many profiles can be aligned and averaged to reduce system and quantum noise on the edge-response function (ERF) (see Figure 5 (b)).

By convention, the height of the MTF is normalized to unity. It is plotted in spatial-frequency units, usually expressed in line pairs per millimetre (lp/mm). This procedure is easy to execute and not open to misinterpretation.
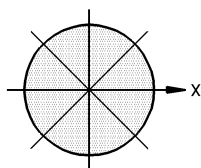
**a) CT image of a cylinder**
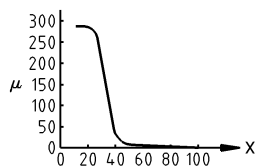


**b) Profile along a diameter: Edge response function (ERF)**
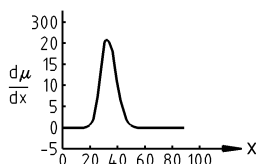


**c) Derivative of the ERF: Line response function (LRF) or Point Spread Function (PSF)**
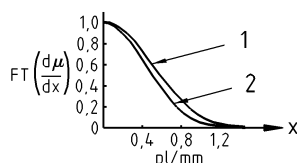


**Key**
1    theoretical curve
2    experimental curve

**d) Modulus of the LRF Fourier transform : Modulation Transfer Function (MTF)**

**Figure 5—Method to obtain the Modulation Transfer Function (MTF) from the image of an homogeneous cylinder [adapted from ISO 15708-2:2002]**

A test phantom manufactured as a simple cylinder of the same material as the actual test object is recommended (to be representative of the attenuation level) for the measurements. A cylinder of same or comparable attenuation or size as the test has the advantage of serving double duty for the MTF and SNR measurements. However, it also limits the amount of knowledge that can be obtained about MTF variations within the CT reconstruction. A cylinder made of more attenuating material than the test object can be made much smaller than the reconstruction diameter and has the advantage of providing a measure of the

modulation transfer function (MTF) as a function of position. In this case, a separate test phantom may be required to obtain representative results.

Line pair gauges may be used to directly confirm the MTF at discrete points. The measurement method using such dedicated test objects is detailed in Annex A.

## 5.2  Suitability of testing

The process steps/procedures, the features to be measured and the accuracy required are to be documented. The results are to be evaluated via comparison with the corresponding specifications on, for example, density resolution, "critical defect" detection or accuracy and uncertainty of the measurement of geometric features.

The suitability of testing is obtained if specifications are respected. Image quality parameters are selected depending on the application. For example, for obtaining best density resolution, SNR is to be optimised, whereas for dimensional measurements spatial resolution is to be optimised. For a limited time scan, it is not possible to optimise both of these at the same time.

## 5.3  CT examination interpretation and acceptance criteria

Interpretation can be manual, computer-assisted or completely automatic.

It is not practical to try to evaluate the "absolute performance" of a CT system. Such an evaluation shall always be performed within the context of the parts tested.

Therefore, any purchaser of a CT system shall agree acceptance criteria with the supplier at the time of purchase.

## 5.4  Records and reports

Table 1 covers the parameters that are useful to include in records and examination reports.

**Table 1 — Parameters useful to record**

| Acquisition parameters | Reconstruction parameters |
|---|---|
| — voltage or energy | — type of algorithm used: |
| — intensity or flow | — name and version of software |
| — focal spot size and/or main collimator size | — reconstruction size (in pixels or voxels) |
| — acquisition geometry | — plane or volume reconstructed |
| — detector type and characteristics | — software filtering |
| — size of detector or size of backup collimator | — format of reconstructed data |
| — number of projections | — operator |
| — acquisition intervals | |
| — acquisition fields: | |
| — integration time | |
| — material and thickness of the filter | |
| — format of acquired data | |
| — operator | |

## 5.5 Artefacts

### 5.5.1 General

An artefact is an artificial feature which appears on the CT image but does not correspond to a physical feature of the object. All imaging systems, whether CT or not, exhibit artefacts. Some of the artefacts are inherent in the physics and the mathematics of CT and cannot be eliminated, such as "edge effects" on the edges of areas with high attenuation. Others are due to hardware or software deficiencies in the design and can be attenuated by improved engineering. Examples of the latter type of artefact are due to scattered radiation and deviations in response between the detectors.

Artefacts occurring at the interfaces between differently attenuating materials are more subtle. There is often an overshoot or undershoot in the grey-level profile at such a boundary. This may lead to misinterpretation (false indications of defects or, more importantly, situations in which defects go undetected). The type and severity of artefacts are some of the factors that distinguish one CT system from another with otherwise identical specifications.

The purchaser and supplier of CT examination services shall understand the differences in these artefacts and how they will affect the integrity of the CT examination. For example, absolute material density measurements will be severely affected by uncompensated cupping effects, see 5.5.2, but the same artefact will probably not affect the detectability of radial cracks.

### 5.5.2 Beam hardening artefacts

Beam hardening is an effect encountered with polychromatic X-ray sources, such as X-ray tubes or linear accelerators (linacs). Such sources of Bremsstrahlung, as opposed to monoenergetic (i.e., isotopic) sources, produce a flux whose average radiation energy becomes progressively higher as it propagates through an object because the lower-energy photons are preferentially absorbed with respect to the more energetic ones. Since this filtered X-ray beam is more penetrating, it leads to an underestimate of the linear attenuation in the inside of the sample relative to that of the unfiltered beam nearer the edge of the sample. Such a reduction in attenuation inside the sample is also known as a "cupping effect" (see Figure 6). Although this effect can be partially controlled by conscious engineering choices, it is generally a significant problem and shall be corrected for at some stage in the reconstruction process.

A typical correction procedure consists in acquiring the signal of a step wedge covering a sufficient range of thicknesses made of the same material as the sample. Then, the grey-values in the projection data can be converted to true thickness values and a corrected slice is thus reconstructed. However, this procedure may not be valid in the case of a sample made of several materials.
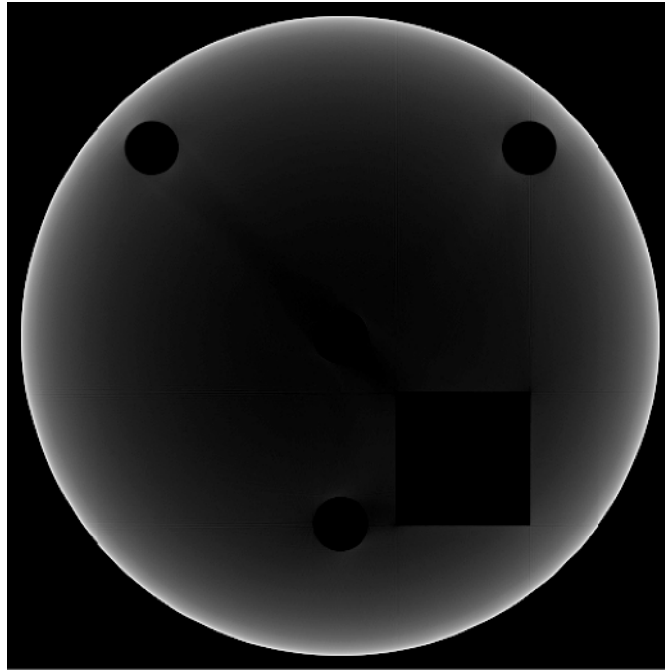
**Figure 6 – Example of cupping effect [4]**

### 5.5.3 Edge artefacts

Another source of difficulties is the finite width of the beam. A beam of X-rays is geometrically defined by the size of the focal spot of the X-ray source and the active area of each detector element. Each measurement represents a convolution of the desired line integral with the profile of the beam. In general, the width of the strip integrals is small enough that although some loss of spatial information occurs, no distracting artefacts are generated. The exception occurs when there are sharp changes in signal level. The error then becomes significant enough to produce artefacts in the reconstructed image which becomes manifest in the form of streaks between high-contrast edges in the image, see Figure 7. These edge artefacts are caused by the difference between the measured quantities and the requirements of the reconstruction process. What is measured is the logarithm of the line integral convolved with the profile of the beam. What the reconstruction process requires is the convolution of the beam profile with the logarithm of the line integral. These are not mathematically equivalent.

Unfortunately, edge artefacts cannot be eliminated by simply reducing the effective size of the focal spot or the detector apertures, or both, through judicious collimation. As the strip integrals are reduced to approximate line integrals better and to reduce susceptibility to edge artefacts, count rates become severely curtailed, which either leads to much noisier images or much longer CT scan times, or both. In practice, the focal spot size and the active area of each detector element in correspondence to the employed magnification are engineered to be as small as practicable, and if further reductions in edge-artefact content are required, these are handled in software. However, software corrections entail some type of deconvolution procedure to correct for the beam profile and are complicated by the fact that the intensity profile of the beam has a complex geometrical shape that varies along the path of the X-rays.

Edge artefacts that manifest themselves as streaks between high-contrast edges in the reconstructed image, can occur when there are sharp changes in signal level.
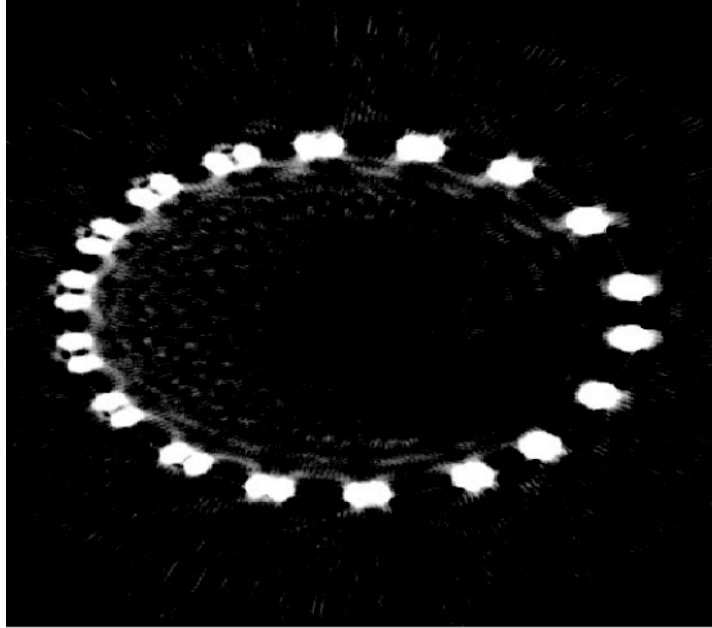
**Figure 7 — Dark streaks between high-contrast edges due to edge artefacts [4]**

### 5.5.4 Scattered radiation

Still another source of problems arises from the presence of scattered radiation. When multiple detector elements are used, there is always the chance that radiation removed from the incident flux by Compton interactions will be registered by another detector element. This scattered radiation, which increases with higher energies, cannot be easily distinguished from the true signal and therefore corrupts the measurements. This problem can be reduced, but not eliminated, through the use of proper collimation.

Electronic and mechanical nonlinearities and instabilities may result from corrigible engineering deficiencies or basic physical limitations of the individual components of the CT system. In some cases the problem can be corrected (or reduced) in software; in others it can be fixed only by re-engineering the offending subsystem. Considerable effort is required to keep these types of errors small compared to other less manageable sources of error, such as those discussed above.

### 5.5.5 Instabilities

Electronic and mechanical nonlinearities and instabilities also represent sources of inaccuracy. These may result from corrigible engineering deficiencies or basic physical limitations of the available components. The validity of the data is impacted in either case. In some cases, the problem can be corrected (or reduced) in software; in others, it can be fixed only by reengineering the offending subsystem. Because the bulk of existing information on this crucial topic is commercially sensitive and therefore proprietary, the literature is relatively sparse. All that can be said on these issues in this context is that considerable effort is required to keep these types of errors small compared to other less manageable sources of error, such as those discussed above.

### 5.5.6 Ring artefacts

Ring artefacts are systematic errors which are always connected to a gain error in the detector (faulty element in the sensor array, non-linearity of response, ageing of the detector or the like) or suboptimal calibration. Furthermore high spatial resolution enhances the development of ring artefacts. These artefacts appear in the reconstructed image as a number of concentric rings, which have their centres on the rotational axis of the CT system, see Figure 8. Reduction of ring artefacts is possible by appropriate calibration, by flat-field correction, which involves the generation of an "empty" image without the corresponding object or by post-processing methods.
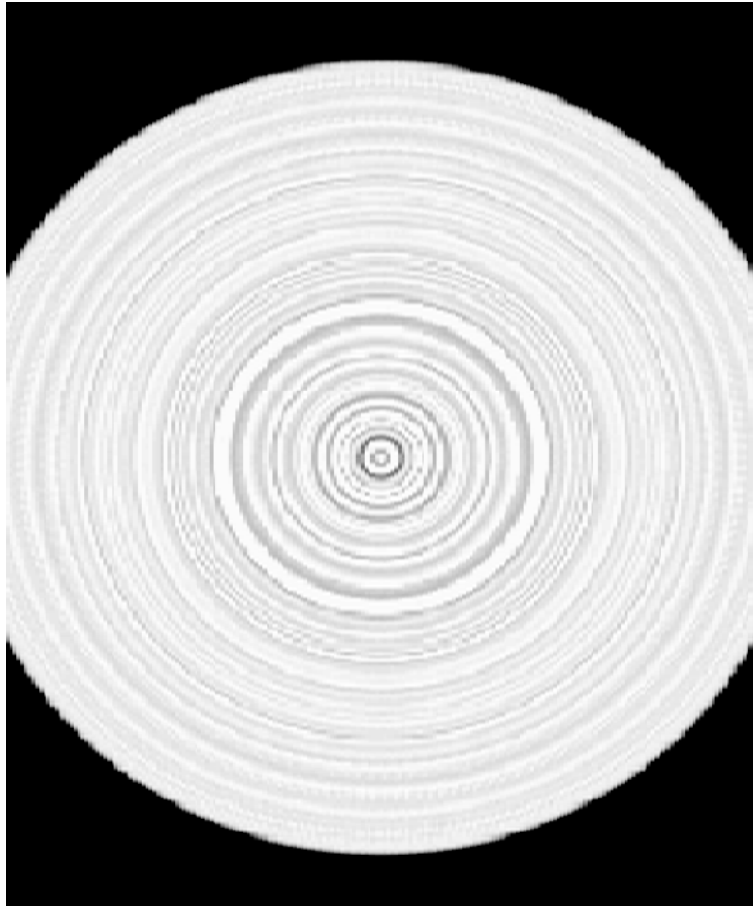
**Figure 8 — Ring artefacts [4]**

### 5.5.7 Centre of rotation error artefacts

Centre of rotation artefacts are systematic errors due to an error in the measurement of the inspection geometry. If the axis of rotation is not measured precisely then the projection images are not correctly projected back through the volume and a particular point-like feature in the projection images will not be reconstructed to a point in the CT volume, but rather a circular shape. The overall effect is to make slices perpendicular to the rotation axis doubled, while not affecting slices parallel to the rotation axis, see Figure 9.

Most acquisition software and / or reconstruction software should allow the user to determine the correct axis of rotation, or determine it automatically. Any tilt of the rotation axis relative to the vertical columns of pixels in the detector should be corrected by the reconstruction software.
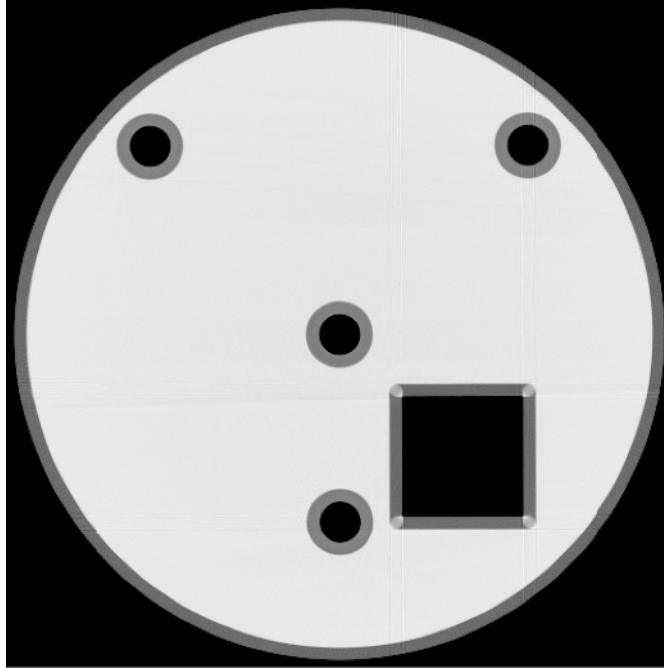
**Figure 9 — Centre of rotation error artefacts [4]**

### 5.5.8   Motion artefacts

Motion artefacts are caused by sample movement during the CT scan. Since such movement is generally only in one direction, the streak artefacts introduced tend to be orientated in one direction only. There will often be a doubling within the CT slices, but this will be asymmetric, and not symmetric as in the centre of rotation artefacts, see Figure 10.
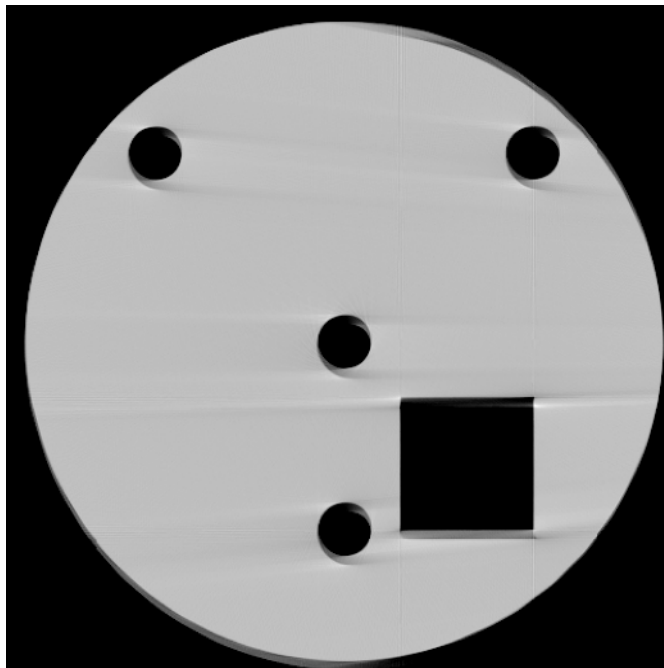


**Figure 10 — Motion artefacts [4]**

### 5.5.9 Artefacts due to an insufficient number of projections

If the number of projections in a CT scan is insufficient (the exact number of projections needed depends on the shape of the object), then radial streaks may appear in CT slices perpendicular to the rotation axis. The strength of these artefacts will diminish if more projections are included in the reconstruction. The strength of the artefact varies with the sample geometry and is stronger around angular components, see Figure 11.
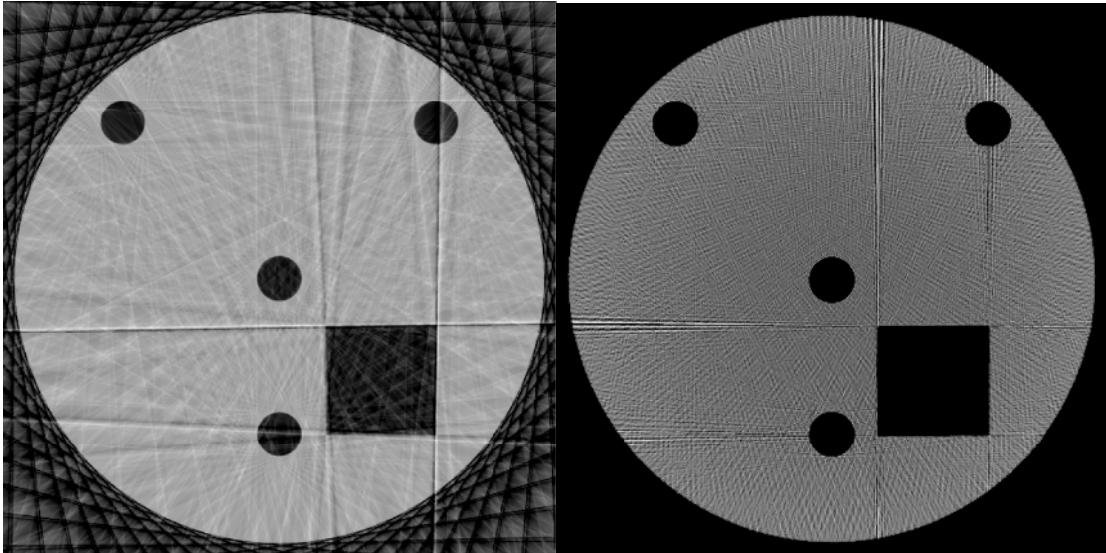


**Figure 11 — Artefacts due to an insufficient number of projections [4]**

### 5.5.10  Cone beam artefacts

Certain reconstruction algorithms, e.g. Feldkamp cone beam, assume that all parts of the sample are viewed from a set of angular positions perpendicular to the rotation axis. This is only true for the parts of the sample on the beam axis, and the slight deviations from perpendicularity for the rest of the sample may introduce so-called "cone beam artefacts", see Figure 12.
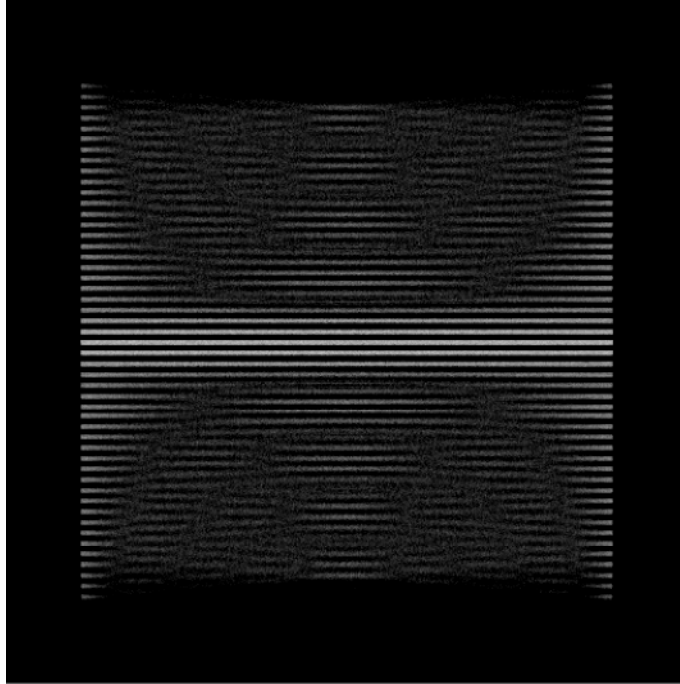
**Figure 12 — Cone beam artefacts in a stack of discs [4]**

# Annex A
## (informative)

# Spatial resolution measurement using line pair gauges

## A.1  Line pair gauges

The reference objects selected to develop the measurement method in the experimental case described are comprised of a 65 mm diameter cylinder in which a square section of 8 rows of 5 holes are machined, spaced at a distance equal to the length of their sides. These square sections vary from 0,4 mm × 0,4 mm to 2,5 mm × 2,5 mm (see Figure A.1).

The rows of holes were chosen by their similarity with the IQI generally used in traditional radiography, indicated by systems with line pairs. The correlations between the rows of calibrated holes and the line pairs per centimetre are shown in Table A.1

**Table A.1 — Correlation between hole sizes and their equivalence in line pairs per centimetre**

| Row<br>mm | Equivalent line pairs/cm |
|---|---|
| 0,4 x 0,4 | 12,5 |
| 0,75 x 0,75 | 6,67 |
| 1 x 1 | 5 |
| 1,25 x 1,25 | 4 |
| 1,5 x 1,5 | 3,33 |
| 1,75 x 1,75 | 2,86 |
| 2 x 2 | 2,5 |
| 2,5 x 2,5 | 2 |

To meet the requirements of the different installations used in the comparison system, three materials with different attenuation were used to create these reference objects: plexiglass, an aluminium alloy and stainless steel. The three parts are shown in Figure A.1.
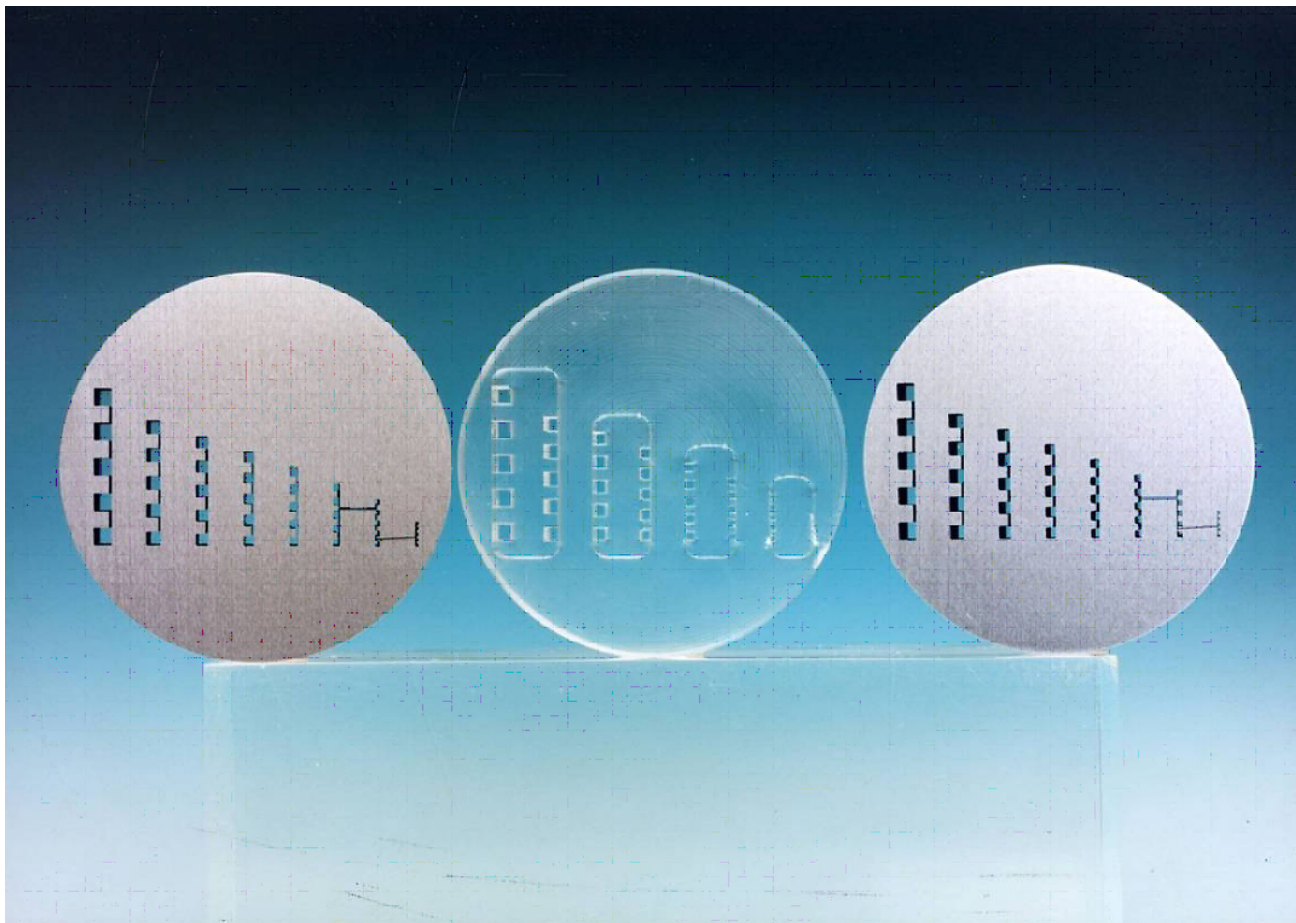
**Figure A.1 — Example of reference objects for spatial resolution measurement made of different materials (from left to right respectively aluminium, plexiglass and steel)**

These three parts machined according to the same principle are used as the reference. The choice of materials and the number of parts created are not limited. They can be chosen, complying with the principles defined in EN 16016-2:2011, Clause 5, so as to specifically meet the requirements of the tests to be run.


## A.2 Principle of measurement

The purpose of the measurement is to indicate simply the CT system response to the reference object particularities (described in Figure A.1 and Table A.1.) The determining factor for this measurement is taken as a coefficient R indicating the percentage of contrast as a function of resolution in line pairs per centimetre. The plot of R as a curve is a useful mean to compare several CT systems.
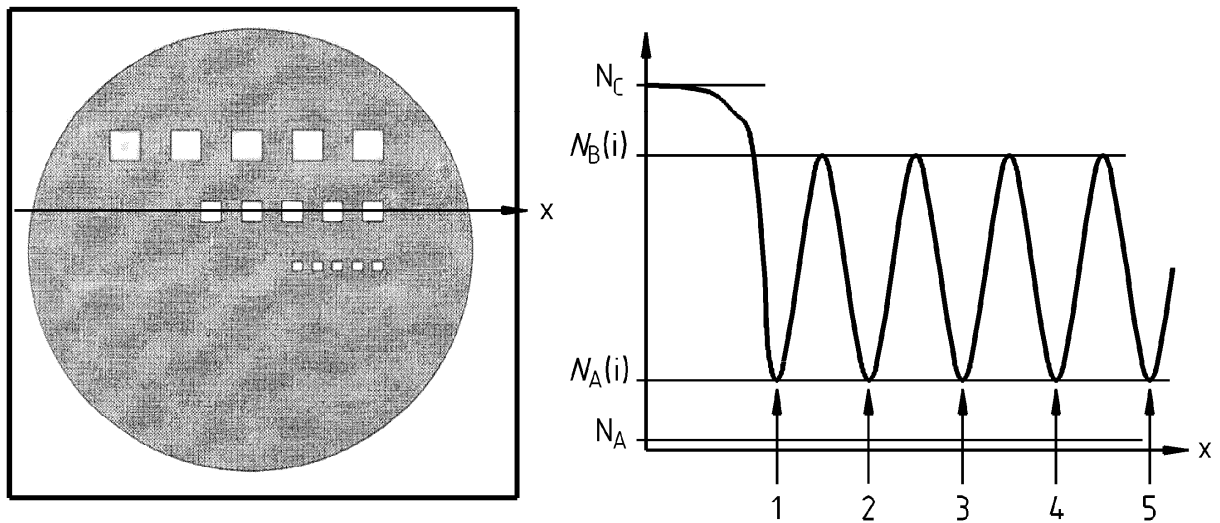
a) Scheme of the square holes in the cylinder

b) Signal profile along a line of constant spatial frequency

**Key**

$N_A$  signal inside the holes;
$N_B$  signal between holes
$N_C$  material signal

**Figure A.2 — Measurement principle of response factor using line pairs gauge**

This response factor expressed in percentage is defined by the Equation (A.1):

$$R(i) = \frac{N_B(i) - N_A(i)}{N_C - N_A} \times 100 \qquad\qquad (A.1)$$

where

$N_A(i)$      is the mean value of the CT grey values in the 5 holes in row i;

$N_B(i)$      is the mean value of the CT grey values between two holes in row i.

These two values are measured using a grey-level profile determined along the hole axis and unaveraged (see Figure A.2).

$N_C$  is the mean value of the grey-level value of the material measured on a surface of at least 10 pixels square, located at the centre of the reference part.

$N_A$  is the mean value of the air grey value measured on an area of at least 10 pixels square, located outside the reference part.

$N_A(i)$, $N_B(i)$, $N_C$ and $N_A$ are shown in Figure A.2. Note that the response factor can be positive or negative because different CT systems may have different grey-level dynamic ranges so that air can have a lower or higher value than a dense material.

To include statistical grey-level distribution in the measurements, a quantity denoted as $\dfrac{\Delta S}{3\sigma}$ is defined as follows:

$$\frac{\Delta S}{3\sigma}(i) = \frac{\left| N_{\mathrm{B}}(i) - N_{\mathrm{A}}(i) \right|}{3\sigma} \tag{A.2}$$

where

    $\sigma$    is the standard deviation of the background material CT grey values measured over a surface of at least 10 pixels square (noise).

# Bibliography

[1]     EN 16016-4:2011, *Non destructive testing — Radiation methods — Computed tomography Part 4: Qualification*

[2]     ISO 15708-1:2002, *Non-destructive testing — Radiation methods — Computed tomography — Part 1: Principles*

[3]     ISO 15708-2:2002, *Non-destructive testing — Radiation methods — Computed tomography — Part 2: Examination practices*

[4]     Davis, G. R. and Elliott, J. C., "*Artefacts in X-ray microtomography of materials*.", 2006, *Mat. Sci. Tech*, vol. 22, n°9, pp. 1011 – 1018

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