

**FEASIBILITY OF COMPLEMENTARY METAL
OXIDE SEMICONDUCTOR (CMOS)-BASED
TIME-OF-FLIGHT (TOF) IMAGE SENSORS IN
CONJUNCTION WITH KILOVOLTAGE (KV)
CONE BEAM COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY
(CBCT) FOR REAL-TIME TUMOUR TRACKING
IN RADIOTHERAPY**

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UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA

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by

LIM SIEW YONG @ LIM SIEW ENG

**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF SYMBOLS	xix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xx
LIST OF APPENDICES	xxii
ABSTRAK	xxiii
ABSTRACT	xxv
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Research Problem Statement.....	5
1.3 Research Objective.....	6
1.4 Contribution	6
1.5 Thesis Structure.....	7
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1 Introduction	11
2.2 Respiratory motion management	11
2.3 Time-of-Flight (ToF)	15
2.3.1 ToF working principle	17
2.3.2 The architecture and operating principle of PMD pixel	21
2.4 Comparison of ToF system with other surface imaging technologies.....	24
2.4.1 Stereoscopy	25
2.4.2 Structured light.....	27
2.5 Application of ToF surface imaging system	29

2.6	Application of ToF camera in radiotherapy treatment	30
2.7	Integrated cone beam computed tomography system	32
CHAPTER 3 CHARACTERISATION OF CMOS-BASED TIME-OF-FLIGHT CAMERAS		37
3.1	Introduction	37
3.2	Materials and methods	38
3.2.1	ToF camera models.....	38
3.2.1(a)	Argos ^{3D} P320.....	38
3.2.1(b)	Argos ^{3D} P330.....	41
3.2.2	Determination of the characteristics of Argos ^{3D} P320 and P330 cameras	43
3.2.2(a)	Warm-up time test	44
3.2.2(b)	Dark current test	48
3.2.2(c)	Room illumination test	49
3.2.2(d)	Temporal noise test	50
3.2.2(e)	Wiggling test	52
3.3	Results and discussions	54
3.3.1	Warm-up time test.....	54
3.3.2	Dark Current Test	58
3.3.3	Room illumination test.....	60
3.3.4	Temporal noise test.....	62
3.3.5	Wiggling test.....	64
3.4	Summary	70
CHAPTER 4 CALIBRATION OF TIME-OF-FLIGHT CAMERAS.....		71
4.1	Introduction	71
4.2	Materials and methods	71
4.2.1	Programmable motorised sliding platform	72
4.2.2	ToF camera setup in treatment room	74

4.2.3	Development of wiggling error correction	75
4.2.4	Determination of the motion tracking accuracy of the ToF cameras	83
4.3	Results and discussions	86
4.3.1	Wiggling error calibration.....	86
4.3.2	Determination of the motion tracking accuracy of the ToF cameras	91
4.4	Summary	96
CHAPTER 5 IMAGE QUALITY OF FAST KV CONE BEAM COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY SYSTEM		98
5.1	Introduction	98
5.2	Materials and Methods	99
5.2.1	kV CBCT imaging system.....	99
5.2.2	Image quality phantoms	104
5.2.2(a)	Catphan-600	104
5.2.2(b)	CIRS-062QA.....	107
5.2.3	Determination of kV CBCT imaging parameters of different imaging setup configuration	109
5.2.3(a)	QAP imaging protocol.....	109
5.2.3(b)	Whole phantom (WP) imaging protocol	112
5.2.4	Determination of kV CBCT image quality metrics acquired with fast imaging protocol	114
5.2.5	Image analysis.....	118
5.2.5(a)	Uniformity and noise	118
5.2.5(b)	Contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR).....	120
5.2.5(c)	CT number linearity	122
5.2.5(d)	Low contrast visibility (LCV).....	122
5.2.5(e)	Spatial resolution	123
5.3	Results and discussions	126

5.3.1	Determination of CBCT imaging parameters of different imaging setup configuration	126
5.3.1(a)	Uniformity and noise	126
5.3.1(b)	Contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR)	129
5.3.1(c)	CT number linearity	130
5.3.1(d)	Low contrast visibility (LCV)	131
5.3.1(e)	Spatial resolution	132
5.3.2	Determination of CBCT image quality metrics acquired with fast imaging protocol	134
5.3.2(a)	Uniformity and noise	134
5.3.2(b)	Contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR)	137
5.3.2(c)	CT number linearity	138
5.3.2(d)	Low contrast visibility (LCV)	139
5.3.2(e)	Spatial resolution	140
5.4	Summary	141
CHAPTER 6 APPLICATION OF TIME-OF-FLIGHT CAMERAS AND KV CONE BEAM COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY SYSTEM IN TRACKING MOVING PHANTOM		144
6.1	Introduction	144
6.2	Materials and methods	145
6.2.1	The design of dynamic phantom	145
6.2.2	The setup of the ToF camera and dynamic phantom in treatment room	146
6.2.3	Development of gantry rotational correction factor	147
6.2.4	Determination of the distance measurement accuracy and the image quality of a moving phantom	157
6.2.5	Distance measurement accuracy analysis	160
6.2.6	Image quality analysis	161
6.2.6(a)	Image uniformity evaluation	162
6.2.6(b)	Image artefact evaluation	163

6.3	Results and discussions	164
6.3.1	Development of gantry rotational correction function.....	164
6.3.2	Determination of distance measurement accuracy of a moving phantom.....	170
6.3.3	Determination of the image quality of a moving phantom	181
6.3.3(a)	Uniformity and noise	181
6.3.3(b)	Image artefact	188
6.3.3(c)	Contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR), CT number linearity and low contrast visibility (LCV)	195
6.3.3(d)	Spatial Resolution	200
6.4	Summary	202
CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS ...		205
7.1	Summary of thesis.....	205
7.2	Conclusion.....	209
7.3	Limitation.....	210
7.4	Recommendations for future development	210
REFERENCE.....		212
APPENDICES		
LIST OF PUBLICATIONS		

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 2.1	The advantages and limitations of different surface imaging system.	29
Table 3.1	The specifications of Argos ^{3D} P320 and P330.....	42
Table 3.2	The setting of the integration time with respect to the target distance for both ToF cameras.	46
Table 3.3	The camera setting used in the room illumination test.	50
Table 3.4	The camera setting used in the wiggling test.	54
Table 3.5	The range measurement captured with room lights on and off with both ToF cameras.....	61
Table 3.6	The range measurement of a high- and low-reflectivity targets acquired with both P320 and P330 ToF cameras.....	63
Table 4.1	The imaging parameters setting for P320 and P330 camera.	75
Table 4.2	Mean absolute error and the root mean square error computed for both P320 and P330 camera.....	90
Table 4.3	The distance measurement accuracy of the moving target obtained with both ToF cameras.....	94
Table 5.1	The projected x-ray beam dimension in isocentre of each collimator cassette	103
Table 5.2	Imaging parameters used in SIP	110
Table 5.3	The image reconstruction protocol applied.....	111
Table 5.4	Imaging parameters of newly developed fast imaging protocol 1 and 2.....	116
Table 5.5	List of image quality parameters measured with the corresponding test module for Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA.....	118

Table 5.6	Uniformity measurement obtained with Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA in QAP and WP imaging protocols.	127
Table 5.7	Uniformity measurement obtained with Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA using FIP_1 and FIP_2.	135
Table 5.8	A summary of the imaging parameters and the image quality metrics obtained with Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA using FIP_1 and FIP_2 protocols.	143
Table 6.1	The parameters values retrieved from the Fourier series regression curve fit for P320 and P330 ToF camera.	166
Table 6.2	The mean absolute error and RMSE computed for both P320 and P330 ToF cameras.	167
Table 6.3	The distance measurement accuracy of the moving phantom obtained with both ToF cameras with SIP protocol.	179
Table 6.4	The distance measurement accuracy of the moving phantom obtained with both ToF cameras with FIP_2 protocol.	180
Table 6.5	Uniformity measurement obtained with both QAP and FIP_2 imaging protocol.	182
Table 6.6	Image artefact results obtained from the uniformity CT image captured with both SIP and FIP_2 imaging protocol.	191
Table 6.7	Low contrast visibility value for each phantom movement determined with th CT images scanned with SIP and FIP_2 protocols.	199
Table 6.8	MTF value for each moving range obtained with the CT images captured using SIP and FIP_2 protocol.	201
Table 6.9	Summary of the image quality metrics measured with the CT images acquired with SIP, FIP_2 and Fast prostate seed S10 imaging protocol.	204

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1.1	Number of new cases diagnosed during the period of 2007 to 2016. (Abd Manan et al., 2015; Abd Manan et al., 2019) 2
Figure 1.2	An overview of the thesis structure 8
Figure 2.1	The examples of the commercial ToF imaging system: (a) SwissRanger 4000 TM from Mesa Imaging (Foix et al., 2011), (b) PMD Camcube 3.0 from PMD technologies (Giancola et al., 2018) and (c) Kinect V2 TM from Microsoft (Ernst et al., 2015). 17
Figure 2.2	The basic working principle of the CW approach ToF system (Keller et al., 2009) 19
Figure 2.3	PMD sensor chip of PhotonICs®PMD19k (Tobias et al., 2005)..... 22
Figure 2.4	The (a) cross-section (Hussmann et al., 2014) and (b) schematic diagram (Remondino et al., 2013) of a two-tap PMD pixel. 23
Figure 2.5	For symmetrical two-tap photogate PMD pixel, two measurements are acquired to measure the output voltage at each phase delay (Remondino et al., 2013). 24
Figure 2.6	The basic working theory of passive stereoscopy-based imaging system (Hussmann et al., 2008). 25
Figure 2.7	The fundamental operating theory of structured light-based imaging system (Sarbolandi et al., 2015)..... 27
Figure 2.8	The prototype of kV CBCT based IGRT system developed by Jaffray et al.(Jaffray et al., 2002). 34
Figure 2.9	A graphical illustration of CBCT geometry (Srnivasan et al., 2014). 34
Figure 2.10	The commercial kV CBCT based IGRT system: (a) Varian OBI Imaging System and (b) Elekta XVI system (Srnivasan et al., 2014). 35

Figure 3.1	Argos ^{3D} P320 ToF camera.....	39
Figure 3.2	Internal structure of Argos ^{3D} P320 camera. The depth sensor is placed in between the 2D CMOS image sensor and the NIR LED light source.....	39
Figure 3.3	Schematic illustration of the FoV of (a) 90 and (b) 80 for P320 and P330 camera, respectively.....	40
Figure 3.4	(a) Depth image and (b) amplitude image are generated by the depth sensor, and (c) the RGB image is yielded by the 2D CMOS image sensor. Due to different camera properties, the RGB image has a wider FOV and greater image size.....	41
Figure 3.5	Argos ^{3D} P330 camera.....	42
Figure 3.6	The setup of ToF camera in the darkroom.....	44
Figure 3.7	Integration time has great impact in depth image. Longer integration time would overexposed the depth sensor and resulted in saturation in image pixels.	46
Figure 3.8	The crude distance data structure saved in the .csv format.....	47
Figure 3.9	(a) The depth sensor camera was covered with a black-out cover while (b) the illumination unit and the CMOS image sensor were shielded with a black-out tape over the enclosure.	49
Figure 3.10	The low reflective flat panel target used in the temporal noise test...	52
Figure 3.11	A schematic diagram of the wiggling test setup. Initially, the flat panel target was imaged using ToF camera at a distance of 800 mm. The imaging process was repeated with a 50 mm distance increment until the measured target reached 2000 mm.	53
Figure 3.12	Warm-up curves of both P320 and P330 camera recorded , where the flat panel target is placed 1m and 3m away from the camera.....	55
Figure 3.13	The normalised dark image obtained with (a) P320 and (b) P330 ToF camera at integration time 1000 μ s.	58
Figure 3.14	Dark current curves against exposure time plotted for both P320 and P330 cameras.	59

Figure 3.15	Depth image captured by P320 and P330 cameras when the integration time is programmed at 1000 μ s.	60
Figure 3.16	Wiggling measurement obtained using P320 camera, where the modulation frequency is set to (a) 20 MHz and (b) 30 MHz.....	67
Figure 3.17	Wiggling measurement obtained using P330 camera, where the modulation frequency is set to (a) 20 MHz and (b) 30 MHz.....	68
Figure 3.18	Wiggling measurement obtained using P320 camera, where the modulation frequency is set to (a) 40 MHz and (b) 80 MHz.....	69
Figure 4.1	(a) Photograph of the motorised slider and (b) the white flat panel target that was mounted on the motorised slider to work as a moving target for the motion tracking test.	73
Figure 4.2	The setup of the ToF camera and the starting position of flat panel target in treatment room. The initial distance between the ToF camera and the measured target is 1550 mm.	74
Figure 4.3	Wiggling error trend for both P320 and P330 camera at frame rate 30 fps. At distance 1550 mm region, the distance shift for P320 is below 1 mm. For P330 camera, the distance shift at 1550 mm region is a decreasing linear pattern.....	77
Figure 4.4	The flow chart for the development of the wiggling error correction function.	78
Figure 4.5	The generation of (a) global correction function and (b) linear correction function for Argos ^{3D} P320 camera.....	81
Figure 4.6	The generation of (a) global correction function and (b) linear correction function for Argos ^{3D} P330 camera.....	82
Figure 4.7	The setup of the digital camera and the scene recorded by the camera.	84
Figure 4.8	The flow chart to assess the metrology performance of the ToF cameras on tracking a moving flat panel target.	85
Figure 4.9	The formulation of wiggling global correction function using 1-degree polynomial model for (a) P320 and (b) P330 ToF camera.	

	The black dots represents the distance deviation of each pixel measured at the distance range of 1530 mm – 1570 mm. The red dotted line is the best fitted curve using polynomial interpolation approach.....	86
Figure 4.10	Distance measurement accuracy with and without wiggling correction for (a) P320 and (b) P330 ToF cameras.....	89
Figure 4.11	Mean absolute error calculated from the measured distance and the ground truth reference recorded with (a) P320 and (b) P330 camera. The mean absolute error is averaged over varying distances before and after wiggling correction.	90
Figure 4.12	Distance data derived from Argos ^{3D} P320 ToF camera for (a) 1 cm and (b) 3 cm movement amplitude.	92
Figure 4.13	Distance data derived from Argos ^{3D} P330 ToF camera for (a) 1 cm and (b) 3 cm movement amplitude.	93
Figure 5.1	Photo of Elekta kV CBCT system	100
Figure 5.2	Schematic diagram of flat-panel imager position in 3 different FOVs: (a) small, (b) medium, and (c) large.....	102
Figure 5.3	The collimator cassette of three different FOVs with the same volumetric length: S20, M20 and L20.	103
Figure 5.4	The reconstructed CT image of each test module in Catphan-600 phantom (The Phantom Laboratory, 2015).....	106
Figure 5.5	The reconstructed CT image of each test module in CIRS-062 QA phantom (CIRS Inc., 2013).....	108
Figure 5.6	QAP imaging protocol for (a) Catphan-600 and (b) CIRS_062QA with the kV source rotated to -180°	111
Figure 5.7	Schematic illustration of WP imaging protocol for (a) first half scanning and (b) second half scanning of Catphan-600.	112
Figure 5.8	Illustration diagram of WP imaging protocol for CIRS-062QA phantom.....	113

Figure 5.9	The flow chart for the image quality test performed with Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA phantom in both QAP and WP imaging protocols.....	114
Figure 5.10	The flow chart to evaluate CT image quality of FIP_1 and FIP_2..	117
Figure 5.11	The location of the selected ROIs in (a) CTP 486 and (b) uniformity test module.....	119
Figure 5.12	The ROIs selected for INU evaluateion in (a) CTP 486 and (b) unifromity test module.....	120
Figure 5.13	The selection of ROIs for CNR measurement in (a) CTP 404 and (b) CT number linearity test module.	121
Figure 5.14	The aluminium test gauge design of (a) CTP 528 and (b) spatial resolution test module.....	125
Figure 5.15	The selected ROIs for MTF measurement in (a) CTP 528 and (b) spatial resolution test module. The aluminium and solid water CT numbers are determined using on the ROIs circled in red and white, respectively.	125
Figure 5.16	Reconstructed CT slices for uniformity tet module obtained with (a) Catphan-600-QAP, (b) CIRS-062QA-QAP, (c) Catphan-600-WP and (d) CIRS-062QA-WP.....	126
Figure 5.17	Uniformity profile plot for Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA measured in QAP and WP imaging protocols.	127
Figure 5.18	The saggital view of the uniformity test module scanned in the QAP imaging protocol.....	128
Figure 5.19	CNR measurements for different materials determined by using Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA phantom in both QAP and WP imaging protocols.....	130
Figure 5.20	Linearity of CT number measured using Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA in QAP and WP imaging protocols.....	131
Figure 5.21	MTF curves of the CBCT system measured with Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA phantom in QAP and WP imaging protocols.....	133

Figure 5.22	Reconstructed CT slices for uniformity tet module obtained with (a) Catphan-600-FIP_1, (b) Catphan-600-FIP_2, (c) CIRS-062QA-FIP_1 and (d) CIRS-062QA-FIP_2.	134
Figure 5.23	Uniformity profile measured with (a) Catphan-600 and (b) CIRS-062QA using both FIP_1 and FIP_2 protocols.....	136
Figure 5.24	CNR measurements for different materials determined with Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA phantom using FIP_1 and FIP_2 protocols.....	138
Figure 5.25	Linearity of CT number measured with Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA using FIP_1 and FIP_2 protocols.....	139
Figure 5.26	MTF curves of the CBCT system measured with Catphan-600 and CIRS-062QA phantom using FIP_1 and FIP_2 protocols.....	141
Figure 6.1	The design of the dynamic phantom used in motion tracking experiment.....	146
Figure 6.2	The setup of ToF camera and the motorised image quality phantom in treatment room.	147
Figure 6.3	The gantry rotational induced offset for (a) P320 and (b) P330 ToF camera.	148
Figure 6.4	The crude data layout in .xml file. The time stamp data are highlighted in blue, and the one circled in red are the gantry angle for each projection image captured.....	149
Figure 6.5	The gantry rotational movement over time for standard imaging protocol.	150
Figure 6.6	Gantry movement induced distance offset for (a) Argos ^{3D} P320 and (b) P330 ToF camera.	152
Figure 6.7	The generation of gantry rotational correction function for (a) Argos ^{3D} P320 and (b) P330 ToF camera using Fourier series approach.....	153
Figure 6.8	The gantry rotational movement over time for fast imaging protocol.	155

Figure 6.9	The flow chart for the development of the gantry rotational error correction function.	156
Figure 6.10	The flow chart of the phantom movement tracking with ToF camera in conjunction with kV CBCT system.	158
Figure 6.11	The position of the dynamic phantom for each second was retrieved from the projection image dataset. The extracted phantom movement was served as the ground truth data for the ToF camera distance measurement validation.	159
Figure 6.12	The CBCT imaging log file is saved in .xml format. The log file recorded the CBCT imaging information including the imaging setting, the image resolution, the gantry angle and time stamp corresponding to the projection image sequence.	160
Figure 6.13	The newly selected ROIs for (a) uniformity index and (b) integral non-uniformity evaluation.	162
Figure 6.14	The distance deviation of a static target as a function of gantry angle for (a) P320 and (b) P330 ToF cameras.	165
Figure 6.15	(a) and (b) depict the distance measurement of P320 ToF camera before and after gantry rotational calibration, acquired SIP protocol. (c) and (d) illustrate the distance results before and after gantry rotational correction, which captured with FIP_2 protocol.	168
Figure 6.16	(a) and (b) depict the distance measurement of P330 ToF camera before and after gantry rotational calibration, acquired SIP protocol. (c) and (d) illustrate the distance results before and after gantry rotational correction, which captured with FIP_2 protocol.	169
Figure 6.17	ToF image captured with (a) Argos ^{3D} P320 and (b) Argos ^{3D} P330.	170
Figure 6.18	Phantom movement tracked by P320 camera together with kV CBCT system in SIP protocol, as the phantom is (a) stationary and periodically moves in (b) 1 cm, (c) 2 cm and (d) 3 cm.	175
Figure 6.19	Phantom movement tracked by P330 camera together with kV CBCT system in SIP protocol, as the phantom is (a) stationary and periodically moves in (b) 1 cm, (c) 2 cm and (d) 3 cm.	176

Figure 6.20	Phantom movement tracked by P320 camera together with kV CBCT system in FIP_2 protocol, as the phantom is (a) stationary and periodically moves in (b) 1 cm, (c) 2 cm and (d) 3 cm.	177
Figure 6.21	Phantom movement tracked by P330 camera together with kV CBCT system in FIP_2 protocol, as the phantom is (a) stationary and periodically moves in (b) 1 cm, (c) 2 cm and (d) 3 cm.	178
Figure 6.22	Reconstructed CT slices for each moving range obtained with both SIP (upper row) and FIP_2 protocol(bottom row).....	182
Figure 6.23	Uniformity profile measured with SIP protocol for (a) a stationary phantom and phantom periodical movement of (b) 1 cm, (c) 2 cm and (d) 3 cm.	184
Figure 6.24	Uniformity profile measured with FIP_2 protocol for (a) a stationary phantom and phantom periodical movement of (b) 1 cm, (c) 2 cm and (d) 3 cm.	185
Figure 6.25	The reconstructed CT images of each moving range acquired with (a) SIP and (b) FIP_2 imaging protocols. The images in the middle and bottom row depict the distribution of noise and streak artefact after filtered the high-pass and low-pass algorithm.	189
Figure 6.26	Distribution of pixel value and the image noise of the CT images scanned with (a) SIP and (b) FIP_2 imaging protocol.....	192
Figure 6.27	Distribution of the pixel value and the corresponding image noise for each phantom movement obtained with SIP protocol.....	193
Figure 6.28	Distribution of the pixel value and the corresponding image noise for each phantom movement obtained with FIP_2 protocol.....	194
Figure 6.29	Reconstructed CT slices for CT number linearity test module obtained with both SIIP protocol (upper row) and FIP_2 protocol (bottom row).	195
Figure 6.30	CNR measurement of different materials evaluated from the contrast CT slices captured with (a) SIP and (b) FIP_2 protocol. ..	196

Figure 6.31	Linearity of CT number evaluated from the contrast CT slices captured with (a) SIP and (b) FIP_2 protocol.....	198
Figure 6.32	The spatial resolution CT images for a stationary phantom and the phantom movement of the moving range between 1cm to 3cm obtained with both SIP (upper row) and FIP_2 protocol (bottom row).....	200
Figure 6.33	MTF curve assessed from the spatial CT slices captured with (a) SIP and (b) FIP_2 protocols.	202

LIST OF SYMBOLS

c	Speed of light
Δt	Light's propagation time
ω	Angular modulation frequency
φ	Phase shift
f	frequency
τ	Phase delay
\otimes	Vector product
f_{mod}	Modulation frequency
π	Mathematical constant
$^{\circ}\text{C}$	Degree Celsius
x, y	Pixel coordinate in horizontal and vertical axis

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

2D	Two-Dimensional
3D	Three-Dimensional
4D CT	Four-Dimensional Computed Tomography
AAPM	American Association of Physicist in Medicine
ADAS	Advanced Driver Assistant System
ASD	Average Symmetrical Surface Distance
ASU	Auto set-up
CBCT	Cone-beam Computed Tomography
CCD	Charge-Coupled Device
CMOS	Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor
CNR	Contrast-to-noise Ratio
CT	Computed Tomography
CTV	Clinical target volume
CW	Continuous Wave
DIBH	Deep-inspiration breath-hold
DN	Digital Number
FBP	Filtered back-projection
FIP	Fast Imaging Protocol
fps	Frame per second
FOV	Field-of-view
HU	Hounsfield unit
IARC	International Agent of Research on Cancer
ICRU	International Commission on Radiation Unit and Measurement
IGRT	Image guided radiotherapy
IMRT	Intensity-modulated radiotherapy
INU	Integral non-uniformity
IR	Infrared
kV	Kilovoltage
LCV	Low contrast visibility
LDPE	Low-density polyethylene
LED	Light-emitting diode

lp	Line pair
LUT	Look-Up Table
MNCR	Malaysian National Cancer Registry
MHz	Megahertz
MTF	Modulation transfer function
NIR	Near Infrared
PMD	Photonic Mixer Device
PMMA	Polymethyl methacrylate
PTV	Planning target volume
QA	Quality Assurance
QAP	Quality Assurance Protocol
RADAR	Radio Detection and Ranging
RGB	Red, Green and Blue, the combination colours show in the digital monitor
ROI	Region-of-Interest
RPM	Real-time Position Management
RMSE	Root mean square error
RTRT	Real-time tumour-tracking
SBI	Suppression of Background Illumination
SBRT	Stereotactic body radiotherapy
SDD	Source-to-detector distance
SGRT	Surface guided radiation therapy
SIP	Standard Imaging Protocol
SONAR	Sound Navigation and Ranging
SNR	Signal-to-Noise Ratio
TG	Task Group
ToF	Time-of-Flight
UI	Uniformity index
WHO	World Health Organisation
WP	Whole phantom Protocol
XVI	X-ray volumetric imaging

LIST OF APPENDICES

- APPENDIX A TECHNICAL SPECIFICATION OF TOF CAMERAS
AND LIGHT DIGITAL METER
- APPENDIX B MATLAB ALGORITHMS USED FOR THE ANALYSIS
OF TOF CAMERAS CHARACTERISATION AND
IMAGE QUALITY DATA

**KEBOLEHLAKSANAAN PENGESAN IMEJ SEMIKONDUKTOR
OKSIDA LOGAM PELENGKAP (CMOS) BERASASKAN MASA TERBANG
(TOF) BERSAMA TOMOGRAFI BERKOMPUTER ALUR BERKON (CBCT)
KILOVOLTAN (KV) UNTUK PENGESANAN TUMOR MASA NYATA
DALAM RADIOTERAPI**

ABSTRAK

Pergerakan tumor yang disebabkan oleh pernafasan merupakan salah satu sumber ketidaktentuan dalam radioterapi toraks. Pergerakan tumor secara berkala akan menyebabkan penyebaran radiasi yang kurang optimum ke kawasan tumor semasa rawatan. Objektif penyelidikan ini adalah untuk menyiasat kebolehlaksanaan dua pengesan imej Time-of-Flight (ToF) berasaskan Semikonduktor Oksida Logam Pelengkap (CMOS) dalam mengesan pergerakan tumor secara masa nyata (real-time), bersempena dengan aplikasi sistem pengimej tomografi terkompulasi sinaran kon (CBCT) yang berkuasa kilovoltage (kV). Sebuah phantom imej kualiti dinamik direka bentuk untuk mensimulasikan pergerakan pernafasan berkala pesakit. Dua pengesan imej ToF (Argos^{3D} P320 & P330, BECOM Electronics, Austria) dengan saiz susunan pixel dan jenis sumber cahaya yang berbeza digunakan dalam kajian ini. Kedua-dua pengesan imej ToF digunakan bersama dengan sistem pengimejan kV CBCT (XVI, Elekta AB, Stockholm, Sweden) untuk mengesan kedudukan dan mengkaji kualiti imej phantom dinamik. Ciri-ciri pengesan ToF diselidikan sebelum digunakan dalam kajian. Kedua-dua pengesan imej ToF boleh mengesan kedudukan objek statik dengan ketepatan sub-milimeter. Namun demikian, prestasi kedua-dua pengesan terpengaruh kepada kesan wiggling dan pergerakan putaran gantri mesin linac. Dua fungsi pembetulan novel diterbitkan untuk membetulkan kesilapan berkaitan dengan kesan

wiggling dan pergerakan putaran gantri. Secara purata, ketepatan pengukuran jarak dibetulkan sebanyak 96.6% bagi kesilapan demi kesan wiggling dan 90.5% untuk kesilapan berkaitan dengan putaran gantri. Pergerakan phantom berkala dengan amplitud pergerakan 1 cm hingga 3 cm diimbas dengan pengesan imej ToF dan sistem kV CBCT secara serentak. Bagi sistem pengimejan kV CBCT, dua protokol pengimejan digunakan: (i) protokol pengimejan standard (SIP) yang digunakan dalam program jaminan kualiti dan (ii) protokol pengimejan pantas (FIP_2) yang diterbitkan untuk mengurangkan artefak yang berkaitan dengan pergerakan phantom. Metrik kualiti imej yang dinilai adalah indeks keseragaman (uniformity index), keterlihatan kontras rendah (LCV) dan resolusi spasial (spatial resolution). Bagi ketepatan pergerakan phantom, ketepatan pengukuran menurun secara beransur-ansur apabila amplitud pergerakan meningkat. Namun demikian, walaupun pada amplitud pergerakan 3 cm, kedua-dua pengesan ToF berkebolehan untuk mengukur kedudukan sasaran dengan sisihan mutlak kurang dari 1 mm. Dari segi penilaian kualiti imej, kualiti imej CT dipengaruhi oleh pergerakan phantom yang melebihi 1 cm. Bagi protokol pengimejan SIP, imej kualiti metrik meningkat dua hingga tiga kali ganda apabila amplitud pergerakan meningkat dari 1 cm hingga 3 cm. Kualiti imej CT yang diimbas dengan protokol FIP_2 mempunyai trend peningkatan yang sama dengan protokol SIP, tetapi dengan nilai metrik kualiti imej 1.5 – 1.9 kali ganda lebih tinggi. Punca utama kemerosotan imej kualiti CT adalah berkaitan rapat dengan jarak dan kelajuan pergerakan phantom. Secara kesimpulan, penyelidikan ini telah membuktikan bahawa kedua-dua pengesan imej ToF berkebolehan untuk mengesan pergerakan permukaan objek dalam persekitaran bilik rawatan radioterapi. Argos^{3D} P330 mempunyai prestasi yang lebih baik dari segi ketepatan pengukuran jarak dan resolusi imej berbanding dengan Argos^{3D} P320.

**FEASIBILITY OF COMPLEMENTARY METAL OXIDE
SEMICONDUCTOR (CMOS)-BASED TIME-OF-FLIGHT (TOF) IMAGE
SENSORS IN CONJUNCTION WITH KILOVOLTAGE (KV) CONE BEAM
COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY (CBCT) FOR REAL-TIME TUMOUR
TRACKING IN RADIOTHERAPY**

ABSTRACT

Respiratory induced tumour movement is one of the main causes of error in thoracic radiotherapy. The tumour movement may result in sub-optimal delivery of radiation to the target during treatment. The objective of this research is to investigate the feasibility of two Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor (CMOS)-based Time-of-Flight (ToF) image sensors in conjunction with kilovoltage (kV) cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT) imaging system for real-time tumour tracking in radiotherapy. A dynamic phantom was designed to simulate the periodic breathing motion of patient. Two ToF image sensors (Argos^{3D} P320 & P330, BECOM Electronics, Austria) of different pixel array size and type of illumination system were employed. The image sensors were used together with kV CBCT imaging system (XVI, Elekta AB, Stockholm, Sweden) to track the position and to assess the image quality of the dynamic phantom. The performance of the ToF image sensors were characterised prior to the application. Both ToF image sensors measure a static target position with sub-millimetre accuracy. However, both sensors were suffering from the wiggling related error and the error due to gantry rotational movement. Two novel correction functions were developed to compensate for the wiggling- and gantry rotational-related offset, respectively. On average, the distance measurement accuracy improves by 96.6% for wiggling offset and 90.5% for gantry rotational error. The periodic phantom

movements of 1 cm to 3 cm were imaged synchronously with the ToF image sensors and kV CBCT imaging system. For kV CBCT imaging system, two imaging protocols were employed: (i) a standard imaging protocol (SIP) used in the imaging quality assurance programme and (ii) a fast imaging protocol (FIP_2) developed with the objective in reducing motion-related artefacts. The image quality metrics evaluated were the uniformity index, low contrast visibility (LCV) and spatial resolution. For phantom movement accuracy, the measurement accuracy decreases gradually as movement amplitude increases. However, even at 3 cm movement amplitude, both ToF image sensors measure the target position with a mean absolute deviation of less than 1 mm. In terms of image quality evaluation, the CT image quality is affected by the phantom movement greater than 1 cm. For SIP imaging protocol, the image quality metrics increase by two- to threefold as the movement amplitude increases from 1 cm to 3 cm. The image quality metrics acquired with FIP_2 protocol has a similar increasing trend of that obtained using SIP protocol, but with 1.5 – 1.9 times higher image quality metric values. The degradation of the CT image quality is mainly due to the moving range and the speed of the movement. In conclusion, this work has proven the feasibility of both ToF image sensors to track surface movement in radiotherapy treatment room. Argos^{3D} P330 has a better performance in terms of distance measurement accuracy and image resolution in comparison to Argos^{3D} P320.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Lung cancer is one of the dominant cause of global death over the past fifteen years. According to World Health Organisation's International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), a total of 2.1 million new cases and 1.8 million cancer deaths were estimated occurred in 2018 worldwide (Bray et al., 2018). Among the new lung cancer incidence, 58.5% was reported in the Asia countries (Bray et al., 2018; Ferlay et al., 2019).

The Malaysian National Cancer Registry (MNCR) reported the number of new cases registered during the year 2012 to 2016 has reached 11,256, which is a 6.0% increase compared to the total new cases diagnosed in the past five years (2007-2011) (Abd Manan et al., 2019). Figure 1.1 shows the incidence of lung cases diagnosed in the past ten years (2007-2016). On average, there were 2200 new cases registered each year, and the prevalence of lung cancer for male and female is 69.2% and 30.8%, respectively. In terms of the survival rate, lung cancer has the lowest five years of relative survival (11%). From 2012 through 2016, lung cancer was responsible for a total of 7287 deaths in Malaysia (Malaysia, 2018). The main reason for the low survival rate is related to the late detection of the disease. As reported by MNCR, 90% of lung cancer cases were detected at stage III and IV (Malaysia, 2018). In order to reduce the number of new lung cancer and death, awareness related to lung cancer prevention and early diagnosis should be emphasised, and treatment on lung cancer should be improved.

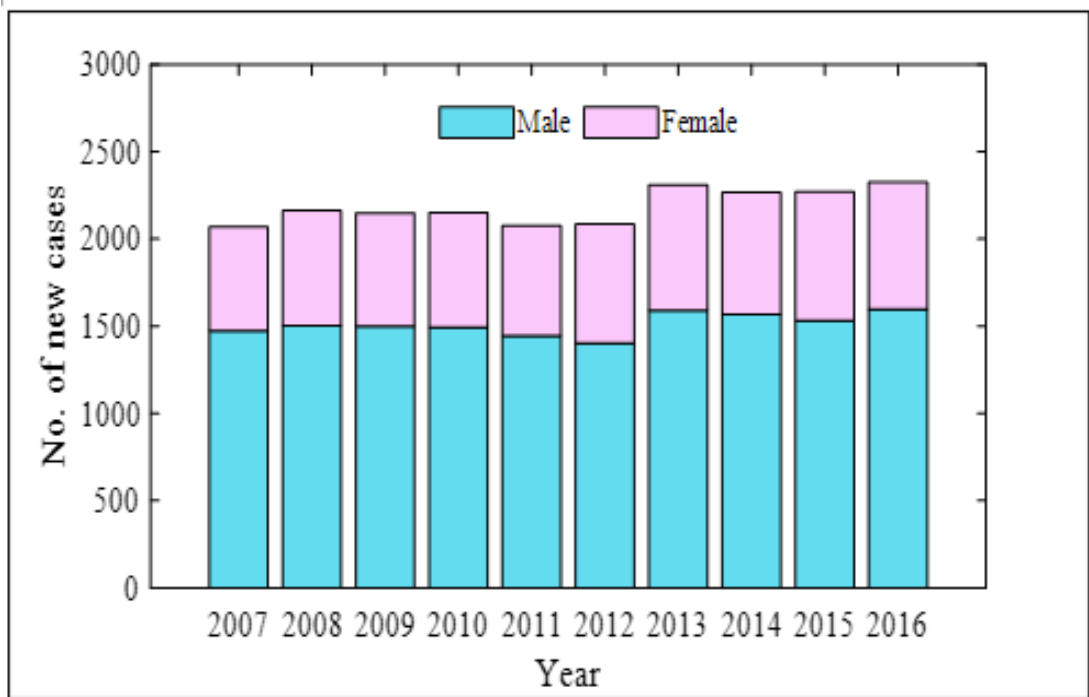


Figure 1.1 Number of new cases diagnosed during the period of 2007 to 2016. (Abd Manan et al., 2015; Abd Manan et al., 2019)

Lung cancer is categorised into two types, which are the non small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and small cell lung cancer (SCLC). There are several ways to treat lung cancer, including surgery, chemotherapy, radiotherapy, adjuvant therapy and immunotherapy. The choice of treatment depends on the type of lung cancer and stage of cancer. In this work, we will concentrate on the advanced radiotherapy treatment and the measure to improve the treatment solution.

Radiotherapy is the cancer treatment which utilises high energy radiation beam from a linear accelerator (linac) machine to kill the cancerous cells. The primary goal of radiotherapy is to irradiate the tumour target with optimal radiation dose while minimising the damage to the neighbouring healthy tissues and critical organs. To accomplish this goal, higher precision, and effective radiation beam delivery are imperative throughout the treatment. The technological advances of radiotherapy treatment technique over the past three decades has gradually transformed the

conventional radiotherapy treatment to a more conformal and complex treatment technique such as intensity-modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) and stereotactic body radiotherapy (SBRT) (Baskar et al., 2012; Thariat et al., 2012). These advanced treatment techniques deliver higher radiation (up to 80 Gy) to tumour target with a tighter treatment margin to improve therapeutics outcome. However, there is a high potential of geographical target miss in these treatment techniques due to patient-related uncertainty, such as patient setup error and patient motion. Hence, treatment verification is highly crucial in radiotherapy and to promote better treatment verification, image-guided radiotherapy (IGRT) is introduced.

IGRT incorporates an on-board imaging device into the modern linear accelerator (linac) machine to localise tumour target and to guide targeted radiation beam during treatment (Greco et al., 2008; Thariat et al., 2012). There are various types of IGRT system, such as electronic portal imaging device (EPID), kilovoltage (kV) cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT), in-room CT scanner, ultrasound and others. Of all IGRT systems, EPID and kV CBCT based IGRT systems are the commonly used IGRT systems in the hospital (Chan et al., 2011; Cho et al., 2010; Jaffray et al., 2012). By providing planar and volumetric images, patient setup is verified via matching the bony structures of the generated two-dimensional (2D) or three dimensional (3D) image with the CT reference image. An immediate patient shift can be performed before treatment, if there is any patient setup error . Guckenberger et al. study reported that the patient setup uncertainty below 1 mm is achievable with the implementation of IGRT system (Guckenberger et al., 2007). Beyond that, Zelefsky et al. also showed that prostate cancer patient, who is treated with IGRT technique, has lower urinary toxicity and better biochemical control after radiotherapy treatment (Zelefsky et al., 2012).

However, in lung cancer treatment, patient setup variation is not the only source of error in radiotherapy planning and delivery. Tumour in the thoracic site is additionally affected by patient respiratory motion. During inspiration and expiration process, rib cage, chest wall and lungs would expand and return to their relaxed state periodically, and this, in turn, causes the cyclic displacement of the tumour target and the internal organ in all three orthogonal directions. Numerous investigations concerning the breathing induced tumour motion had been performed. As reported by Seppenwoolde et al., the respiratory induced tumour movement is the greatest in the cranial-caudal direction, and the movement range of the tumour located on the lower lobe in the lung is more significant than that in the upper lobe (Seppenwoolde et al., 2002). In American Association of Physicists in Medicine (AAPM) Task Group (TG) 76, Keall et al. also showed that the displacement of the tumour target in cranial-caudal direction is the highest of 3 mm to 22 mm, on average. Besides, the range of motion is affected by the tumour pathology and the location of the tumour (Keall et al., 2006). Due to the respiratory induced tumour motion, it is challenging to delineate tumour target, and deliver radiation dose precisely. Therefore, over the past two decades, several motion management systems or techniques are introduced to resolve the tumour motion issue. The recommended motion management systems were described in details in Chapter 2. Although various motion management techniques were recommended, such as enlarging treatment margin, using deep inspiration breath hold technique (DIBH), implementing four dimensional computed tomography (4DCT) system as well as the X-ray and optical-based tumour tracking system, respiratory induced tumour motion still remained a major challenge in radiotherapy treatment (Bertholet et al., 2019; Dhont et al., 2020).

1.2 Research Problem Statement

Breathing motion is a potential source of error in thoracic radiotherapy. As mentioned above, the breathing induced motion can range up to 22 mm in the cranial-caudal direction and require larger treatment margin to encompass the tumour motion (Keall et al., 2006; Seppenwoolde et al., 2002; Shimizu et al., 2001). Although several motion management techniques are introduced, each technique has its strength and limitation. For example, DIBH technique can effectively restrict the tumour motion and reduce the treatment margin. However, it requires patient compliance, and patient with weak lung may have difficulty in holding their breath repeatedly during treatment (Keall et al., 2006). 4DCT is a powerful imaging system that can provide a good CT image quality of a dynamic tumour and the motion range, but a good image quality result is limited to normal breathing motion only (Stine, 2015). The X-ray based tumour tracking system, like RTRT system, tracks and treat tumour motion in real-time. Nonetheless, with the implementation of fluoroscopy, the patient will be exposed to excessive radiation dose. Furthermore, the implantation of the gold surrogate may also cause the issues of pneumothorax (Harada et al., 2002; Jiang, 2006) and migration of the implanted surrogate (Shirato et al., 2003). Thus, there is a need of developing a non-intrusive image-based tracking system, which can monitor patient surface movement and internal organ motion in real-time. This study proposes the application of time-of-flight (ToF) image sensor and kV CBCT system in tracking a dynamic target. The ToF image sensor tracks the target movement, while the kV CBCT system provides the CBCT image of the dynamic target in terms of image quality metrics.

1.3 Research Objective

The primary objective of this research work is to investigate the feasibility of a commercial Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor (CMOS)-based ToF image sensor for real-time tumour tracking in radiotherapy, in conjunction with fast 3D kV CBCT system. To achieve the research goal, the characteristics of the ToF image sensor and the definition of fast 3D kV CBCT imaging are studied, prior to the application of both imaging system in tumour tracking. The research study is divided into four main sections which are as follows:

- a) To determine the characteristics of the ToF image sensors.
- b) To configure and calibrate the ToF image sensor in the treatment room and develop appropriate algorithms to correct the measurement due to environmental change.
- c) To develop a set of fast CBCT imaging protocols to be used in conjunction with ToF image sensor and to characterise the resulted CBCT image quality with multiple commercial image quality phantoms.
- d) To develop a dynamic phantom capable of simulating patient breathing motion as well as respiratory induced internal organ movement. To track the dynamic phantom movement with both ToF image sensor and kV CBCT system and to correlate the CBCT image quality with the target movement amplitude.

1.4 Contribution

In image-guided radiotherapy era, cone-beam CT image quality plays a vital role in the treatment verification process. The significance of the research study is the monitoring of a moving target with a cost-effective fast optical surface imaging device and

providing the image quality of the object movement quantitatively. This research work presents the operational framework of the ToF image sensor in treatment room. A set of algorithms which aims to improve the inherent wiggling error and the environment-related effect was developed. Besides, the developed dynamic phantom and a groundwork for evaluating the influence of target movement in the context of image quality may be useful in motion management quality assurance programme (QAP). Furthermore, this study also provides the findings on the correlation of the cone-beam CT image quality and the object moving amplitude.

1.5 Thesis Structure

Figure 1.2 depicts an overview of the thesis structure. This thesis comprises of seven independent chapters, as illustrated in Figure 1.2. In general, the first two chapters provide a background study of the research work. The following chapters describe the frameworks and results related to aforementioned the research objectives and the final chapter provides the summary and recommendations for future work. The following are the details of each chapter:

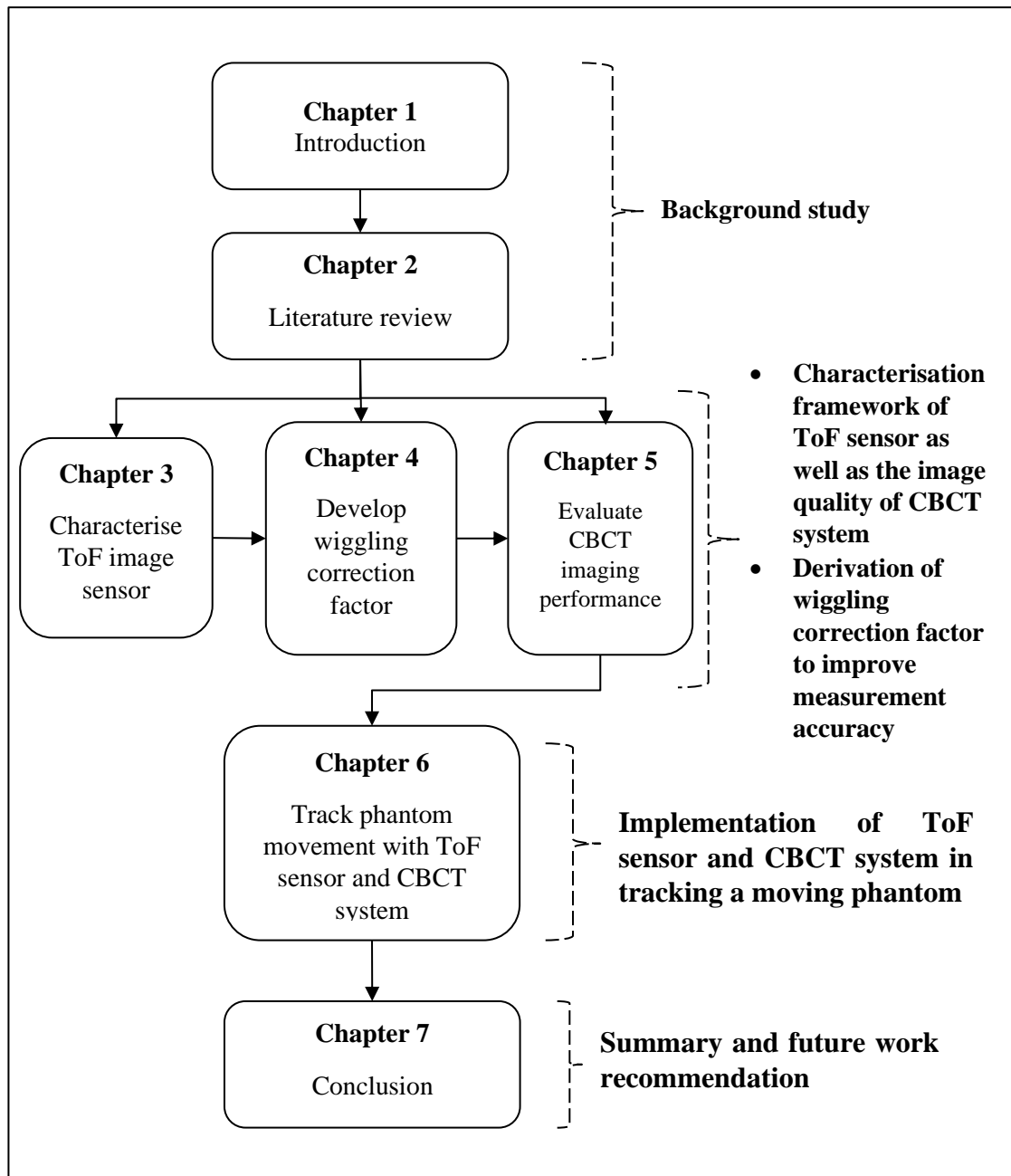


Figure 1.2 An overview of the thesis structure

Chapter 1 provides a brief overview of the breathing motion-related error in advanced radiotherapy treatment. It is followed with the problem statement, the objective and the contribution. A brief thesis structure is also included in this chapter.

Chapter 2 provides the description of various motion management techniques. Besides, the basic principles of ToF image sensor as well as the architecture and

operational method of the CMOS-based ToF image sensor are illustrated in details. The other optical surface imaging system of different working concept are studied and compared in this chapter. The advantages and the application of ToF image sensor in radiotherapy treatment verification are briefly described. In addition, a description of kV CBCT system and its application in radiotherapy treatment are presented.

Chapter 3 presents the study on the characterisation of the ToF image sensor. It starts with the specification of the ToF image sensors and the equipments used in this research study. A series of tests were performed to determine the performance of the ToF image sensors, including dark current test, warm-up time, the impact of room lights, temporal noise test, wiggling test and the distance measurement accuracy on a static object.

Chapter 4 covers the setting and calibration of the ToF image sensors in the radiotherapy treatment room. ToF image sensors are calibrated and the correction factor related to wiggling effect are developed. The methods on how the correction factor were developed is elaborated in this chapter. The motion tracking test was carried out to evaluate the efficacy of the developed correction factor as well as the performance of the ToF image sensors in tracking a target motion.

Chapter 5 describes the development of a fast imaging protocol of the kV CBCT system and the evaluation of the imaging performance. It begins with the technical specification of the kV CBCT system and the phantoms used in this work. The imaging procedure, the development of the fast imaging protocol and the determination of the image quality metrics are outlined in this chapter. The image quality results obtained using different imaging protocols were compared and discussed.

Chapter 6 presents the application of the ToF image sensor on monitoring the target movement together with kV CBCT system in real-time. Prior to the application, a correction function was developed to compensate for distance measurement offset caused by the changes in environmental or background. Then the movement of the target is recorded simultaneously with both ToF image sensor and kV CBCT system. The surface movement is determined by the ToF image sensor measurement and the image quality of the moving target is analysed with the CT data collected.

Chapter 7 summarises the findings and limits of this work, as well as the recommendation for future development.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Description of various respiratory motion management methods are provided in this chapter. As mentioned in Chapter 1, in order to noninvasively monitor both surface movement and the internal motion in real-time, two different imaging systems are required: (a) optical surface imaging system and (b) kV CBCT system. With the advancement of technology, various optical surface imaging systems with various technologies and working principles have become available. An in-depth study on optical surface imaging technology is required to discover the potential surface imaging system for this research work.

This section starts with the overview of several respiratory motion management techniques available. This is followed by the descriptions of the fundamental concept of the Time-of-Flight imaging system as well as the architecture and the working principle of the Time-of-Flight sensor. Besides, the other well known surface imaging systems, of different operating concept, are studied and compared. In addition, in this chapter, the advantage and the application of the ToF image sensor are reported. This chapter concludes with an explanation of the working principle of kV CBCT and the its application radiotherapy treatment.

2.2 Respiratory motion management

Throughout the years, numerous respiratory motion management techniques were introduced to account for the respiratory induced intra-fractional uncertainty. The motion management systems and techniques can be categorised into three main groups, including imaging technology, breath-hold technique and motion tracking system. With

the advances in imaging technology, slow CT and 4DCT are developed to account for the impact posed by the respiratory induced motion. Slow CT is the CT imaging of the tumour target using a slow gantry rotational speed (approximately 4 to 6 second per projection). The generated CT slices provide the full tumour movement due to respiration (Abdul Ghani & Ng., 2018). Meanwhile, 4DCT is the CT imaging performed with the helical or axial mode in conjunction with a respiratory tracking device, such as the abdominal belt or infrared markers. The reconstructed CT image has less motion artefacts compared to that acquired with standard CT scanner, and it gives information the tumour position at specific breathing phase. A target volume that covers the motion range can be applied in a more individualised approach to enclose the breathing motion uncertainty (Stine, 2015). The main constraint of 4DCT is that it requires longer processing time due to large image dataset (Kwong et al., 2015), and it has the problem with missing images due to the phase or amplitude sorting method (Abdul Ghani & Ng, 2018).

Apart from obtaining the motion extent through advanced imaging system, the breath-hold technique is another measure, which reduce the treatment field margin by restricting the tumour motion during radiation treatment. One of the most widely used breath-hold technique is the DIBH, where the patient is required to maintain a maximum breath-hold for 10 to 20 second during treatment. To ensure the reproducibility of the inhalation level, patient breath-hold level is monitored by a spirometer or surface imaging device. The implementation of the DIBH technique successfully reduces the tumour and internal organ movement while sparing a substantial amount of healthy lung tissue from the treatment field margin (Rosenzweig et al., 2000; Solberg et al., 2006). Forced shallow breathing technique is another motion management strategy, which provides a similar treatment outcome as DIBH technique. By using the abdominal

compression plate and stereotactic body frame, this technique reduces the diaphragmatic movement to a motion range of 5 mm to 10 mm, as the patient is still able to breathe shallowly (Cole et al., 2014; Dieterich et al., 2016; Keall et al., 2006). However, both motion management techniques required patient compliance and may introduce discomfort to the patient.

Another way of accounting for respiratory induced tumour motion is real-time tumour tracking and deliver the radiation beam as the tumour target move to a specific position. Ideally, this method can deliver the prescribed radiation dose to the target without extending the treatment volume to encompass the tumour motion, provided that the equipped tracking system can detect the tumour motion precisely. A number of studies on the real-time tracking system were published, and a few tumour tracking systems were invented and implemented clinically (Abdul Ghani et al., 2018; Kitamura et al., 2002; Stine, 2012).

The tracking systems can be divided into two types. The first type of tracking system monitors the tumour motion directly with the additional X-ray source or by detecting the surrogates implanted nearby the tumour target, such as the fluoroscopic real-time tumour-tracking system (RTRT) ((Mitsubishi Electronics Co., Ltd., Tokyo), ExacTrac[®] dynamic (BrainLab AG, Germany) and the Calypso[®] 4D localisation system (Calypso Medical Technologies, Inc, USA). In Shirato et al. study, three lung cancer patients were treated with RTRT system, and the PTV margin below 10 mm was successfully achieved (Shirato et al., 2000). However, patients who are treated with this technique would receive additional diagnostic imaging doses. According to Shirato et al., one fluoroscope in RTRT system can provide a patient a skin surface dose up to 1182 mGy per hour (Shirato et al., 2007).

Another type of tracking system, namely the optical surface tracking system, monitors patient breathing motion using an optical tracking device, and estimates the tumour position based on the breathing signal measured. The well-known surface tracking systems are the Real-time Position Management (RPM) system (Palo Alto, USA), SentinelTM Catalyst (C-Rad AB, Uppsala, Sweden) and AlignRT system (VisionRT, London, UK) (Dieterich et al., 2016; Giraud & Houle, 2013). RPM system monitors patient breathing motion with an infrared camera and gates the radiation beam at a defined breathing phase during radiotherapy treatment. A study by Ford et al. reported that eight lung and liver cancer patients were treated using the RPM system and reduced the respiratory induced uncertainty by approximately 7 mm in cranial-caudal direction (Ford et al., 2002). On the other hand, AlignRT and Catalyst track the respiratory movement of patients using two stereoscopy based cameras. The surface tracking imaging systems are connected with the treatment machine and if the patient's movement exceed a certain limit, the radiation beam would be turned off to prevent patient from further radiation exposure. (Willoughby et al., 2012). A major challenge of AlignRT system is that it has a limited imaging speed of 10 frame per second (Halperin et al., 2019) and suffer from the occlusion of camera view due to the setting of the system (Gilles et al., 2016; Hoisak & Pawlicki, 2018).

Besides the commercially available surface tracking systems, the Time-of-Flight (ToF) image sensor, developed in year 2006, was introduced as an alternative surface tracking device. The ToF image sensor is a fast surface imaging device that provides distance information of a measured image by computing the phase difference between the emitted and reflected light signals. Several studies on patient setup verification (Gilles et al., 2016; Placht et al., 2011) and patient breathing motion tracking (Fayad et al., 2009; Wentz et al., 2012) using the Time-of-Flight (ToF) image

sensor were carried out since year 2008. In comparison to other surface tracking system, although the ToF image sensor is a compact and less complicated surface imaging device, it is innately suffered from wiggling error (described in Chapter 3).

Overall, the aforementioned respiratory motion management techniques greatly reduce treatment uncertainty caused by respiratory motion. Nevertheless, these techniques may have system limitation, involve patient compliance or even expose patient to additional radiation dose. Hence, this research aims to devise a non-invasive motion tracking system using ToF image sensor together with kV CBCT system. The study on ToF image sensor and kV CBCT system are covered in Section 2.3 and 2.7, respectively.

2.3 Time-of-Flight (ToF)

The Time-of-Flight (ToF) is a surface imaging technique that can capture a scene and provide the corresponding distance information of the target in real-time. The ToF system concept is inspired by the biological navigation skills of dolphins and bats called echolocation. Similar to echolocation, the ToF system acquires the distance details of a measured target or scene by measuring the propagation time of a signal that travels back and forth between the signal transmitter and the measured target. SONAR (sound navigation and ranging) and RADAR (radio detection and ranging) are effective ToF systems that employ sound wave and radiofrequency, respectively, to detect the distance of a measured object. These distance measurement techniques have been used for more than a hundred years, especially in the field of aeronautical and marine navigation (Bhandari et al., 2016; Teizer et al., 2007). The idea of devising an optical-based ToF system was not successful until year 2000. This is because the technology at that time was not capable of measuring the propagation time of light accurately. With the rapid

growth in the electronic field, it has been possible to realise the distance measurement with optical signals.

The optical-based ToF system is a monocular vision system. It consists of an illumination unit and an optical image sensor. The illumination unit comprises light-emitting diodes (LED) or laser diodes that actively emit infrared (IR) or near-infrared (NIR) lights with a wavelength of about 850 nm. NIR light has a wide wavelength spectral range from 700 nm to 2000 nm. The NIR light of wavelength 850 nm is imperceptible to human vision and interferes less with the natural light from the surroundings (Bamji et al., 2015; Mooney et al., 2009). Furthermore, the reflectance of most of the materials on this wavelength is comparatively higher than that of the visible light spectrum (Fang et al. 2013). Longer NIR wavelengths (>1400 nm) have a greater water absorption coefficient (Curcio & Petty, 1951) and can be easily absorbed by water and skin tissues (Tsai et al. 2017). Thus, by utilising NIR light of wavelength 850 nm, the probability of light signals loss due to absorption and transmittance is therefore minimised.

The optical image sensor is the heart of the ToF imaging system. It comprises a pixel array of photosensing unit to convert the analogue signals into digital signals, and compute the distance value simultaneously at each pixel. Moreover, the optical sensor can accumulate the distance information, and generate a grey-scale and distance image at the same time. Hence, the optical sensor pixel is also named as ‘smart pixel’. The first “smart pixel” optical sensor was manufactured by Photonic Mixer Device (PMD) technologies, Germany, and is therefore often referred to as a PMD sensor or depth image sensor in many publications (Dal Mutto et al., 2012; Mersmann et al., 2013;

Schiller et al., 2007). Figure 2.3 displays three examples of commercial ToF imaging systems, which are widely used in a number of research studies.



Figure 2.1 The examples of the commercial ToF imaging system: (a) SwissRanger 4000™ from Mesa Imaging (Foix et al., 2011), (b) PMD Camcube 3.0 from PMD technologies (Giancola et al., 2018) and (c) Kinect V2™ from Microsoft (Ernst et al., 2015).

2.3.1 ToF working principle

The optical-based ToF imaging system captures distance information in two different approaches: (a) pulse modulation approach and (b) continuous wave (CW) modulation approach. These distance acquisition methods are associated with the illumination method and the pixel sensor architecture. The pulse modulation approach acquires the distance measurement by illuminating the scene with short light pulses. The propagation time of the light pulses is recorded at the pixel level. The distance to the target, d , is determined using Equation 2.1

$$\text{Distance, } d = \frac{c \times \Delta t}{2} \quad 2.1$$

where Δt represents the light's propagation time, and c is the speed of light with a constant value of $3 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$. This approach enables the ToF system to detect an object located at a further distance. However, the distance resolution of the ToF system is restricted by the sensor response rate and the high generation speed of the light pulses.

As reported in Luan studies, it remains a challenge for LEDs and laser diodes to generate short light pulses with a high repetition rate (Luan, 2001).

On the contrary, the CW modulation approach acquires the distance information based on the phase shift between the emitted and reflected light signals. The depth image sensor detects the modulated light signals, and extracts the phase shift by correlating the emitted and the reflected light signals. Figure 2.2 illustrates the working principle of the CW modulation approach. At first, the NIR light is modulated to generate a waveform signal by alternating the input current. A square- or sinusoidal-wave with a 10 – 100 MHz modulation frequency is generated and actively projected towards the measured scene. The emitted and detected light signals are as shown in Equation 2.2 and 2.3, respectively.

$$\textit{Emitted light signal, } g(t) = \cos(\omega t) , \quad 2.2$$

$$\textit{Detected light signal, } s(t) = b + a \cos(\omega t + \varphi) , \quad 2.3$$

The ω is the angular modulation frequency, where $\omega = 2\pi f$ and φ is the phase shift between the emitted and reflected light wave. The amplitude of the emitted light and the excess noise or uncertainty associated with the background illumination are denoted as a and b separately.

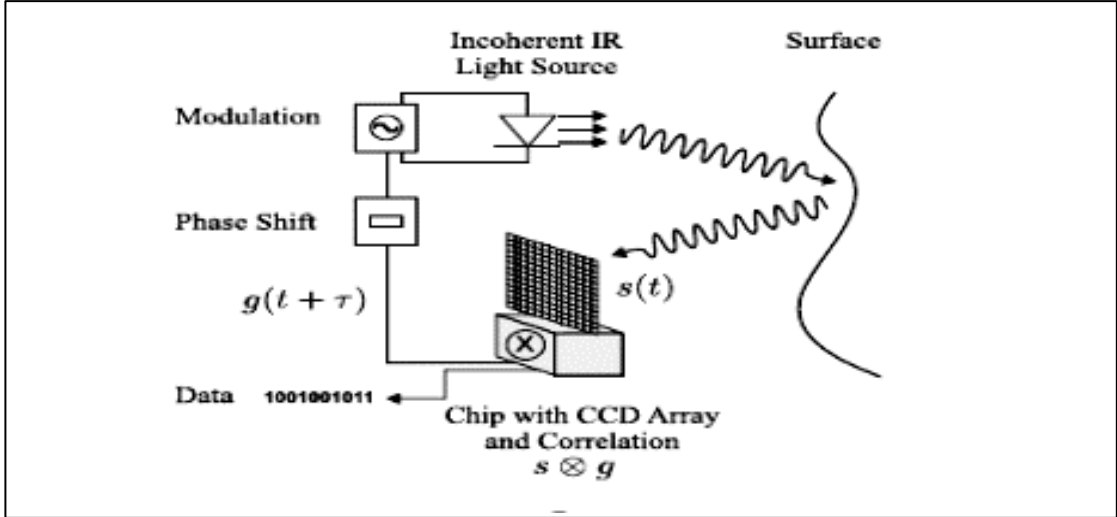


Figure 2.2 The basic working principle of the CW approach ToF system (Keller et al., 2009)

When the pixel detected the reflected signal, the pixel samples the reflected and emitted light signals for a phase delay τ . The cross-correlation function, $C(\tau)$, is formulated as shown in Equation 2.4.

$$C(\tau) = s \otimes g = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} s(t) \cdot g(t + \tau) dt \quad 2.4$$

By using fundamental trigonometric calculation, the cross-correlation function is solved (see Equation 2.5), with φ as the argument of the function.

$$C(\varphi) = b + \frac{a}{2} \cos(\tau + \varphi) \quad 2.5$$

To obtain the amplitude, phase shift and signal uncertainty values, multiple sets of emitted and reflected light signal with different phase delay are acquired and sampled. As stated in Lange et al. and Giancola et al. studies, the four-bucket technique is recommended in solving the cross-correlation function (Giancola et al., 2018; Lange et al., 2001). In the four-bucket technique, the emitted and reflected signals with a phase delay of 0° , 90° , 180° , and 270° are sampled. Equation 2.6 to 2.9 show the cross-correlation function of different phase delay. In considering the effect of background signals, a K value is added to acquire the actual measured values.

$$A_0 = C(\tau_0) + K = \frac{a}{2} \cos(\varphi) + K, \quad \tau_0 = 0^\circ \quad 2.6$$

$$A_1 = C(\tau_1) + K = -\frac{a}{2} \sin(\varphi) + K, \quad \tau_1 = 90^\circ \quad 2.7$$

$$A_2 = C(\tau_2) + K = -\frac{a}{2} \cos(\varphi) + K, \quad \tau_2 = 180^\circ \quad 2.8$$

$$A_3 = C(\tau_3) + K = \frac{a}{2} \sin(\varphi) + K, \quad \tau_3 = 270^\circ \quad 2.9$$

Based on Equation 2.6 to 2.9, the phase shift value, φ , amplitude, a , and signal uncertainty, b , are determined (see Equation 2.10 and 2.12).

$$\varphi = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{A_3 - A_1}{A_0 - A_2}\right), \quad 2.10$$

$$a = \frac{\sqrt{(A_3 - A_1)^2 + (A_0 - A_2)^2}}{2}, \quad 2.11$$

$$b = \frac{A_0 + A_1 + A_2 + A_3}{4}, \quad 2.12$$

For a sinusoidal-wave, the phase delay, τ , is given as in Equation 2.13. By substituting Equation 2.13 and 2.10 in Equation 2.1, the distance between the target and ToF sensor is calculated for a known modulation frequency (see Equation 2.14).

$$\text{Phase delay, } \tau = \frac{\varphi}{2\pi f_{mod}}, \quad 2.13$$

$$\text{Distance, } d = \frac{c}{4\pi f_{mod}} \varphi = \frac{c}{4\pi f_{mod}} \cdot \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{A_3 - A_1}{A_0 - A_2}\right), \quad 2.14$$

It should be noted that the range of the measured distance is limited by the modulation frequency used. Due to the modulated light signals that vibrate periodically, the measured phase shift wraps around or restarts again for every 2π . The CW modulation

approach will generate erroneous measurement for the phase shift value greater than 2π . This condition is referred to phase wrapping ambiguity. The non-ambiguous distance, d_{namb} , or the maximum measurable distance range is determined with Equation 2.15. For a 50 MHz modulation frequency, the accessible distance is ranging from 0 to 3 m.

$$\text{Non-ambiguous distance, } d_{namb} = \frac{c}{2f_{mod}} \quad 2.15$$

2.3.2 The architecture and operating principle of PMD pixel

The working concept and distance calculation of the optical-based ToF surface imaging system are fully realised by the PMD sensor. Due to the rapid growth in solid-state physics, the PMD sensor chip fabrication has been moved from the charge-coupled device (CCD) technology to CMOS technology. Figure 2.3 displays an example of a PMD sensor chip PhotonICs®PMD19k (Tobias et al., 2005). With the specific pixel architecture, every pixel within the sensor is capable of performing the following operations independently:

- a. Detects the reflected light signals
- b. Converts optical signals to electron charges
- c. Performs cross-correlation and arithmetic estimation, and
- d. Stores the accumulated electron charges.

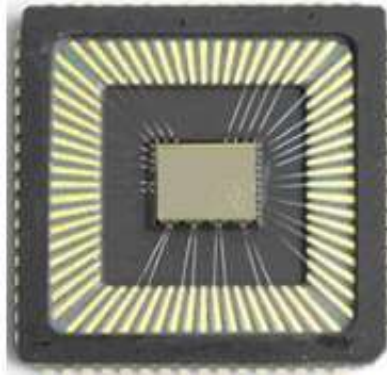


Figure 2.3 PMD sensor chip of PhotonICs@PMD19k (Tobias et al., 2005).

Over the past twenty years, various studies have been conducted to develop and implement the pixel architectures for ToF imaging system, such as the two- and four-tap photogate PMD, metal-electrode PMD, and micro-channel-plate PMD (Heredia Conde, 2017). Among the pixel designs introduced, the symmetrical two-tap photogate PMD is the most widely used pixel design for commercial PMD sensor chips (Heredia Conde, 2017; Hussmann et al., 2014; Remondino et al., 2013). Figure 2.4 (a) and (b) illustrate the cross-section and the schematic diagram of the two-tap pixel design. This pixel design comprises two photogates and two storage capacitors. As illustrated in Figure 2.4 (a), the transparent photogates are located at the centre of the pixel, which served as the modulated light signals receiver. A thin layer of silicon oxide, SiO_2 , or silicon nitride, Si_3N_4 , separates the transparent photogates from the p-doped substrate. There are two read-out diodes on the left and right of the photogates, connected separately to the read-out circuitry.

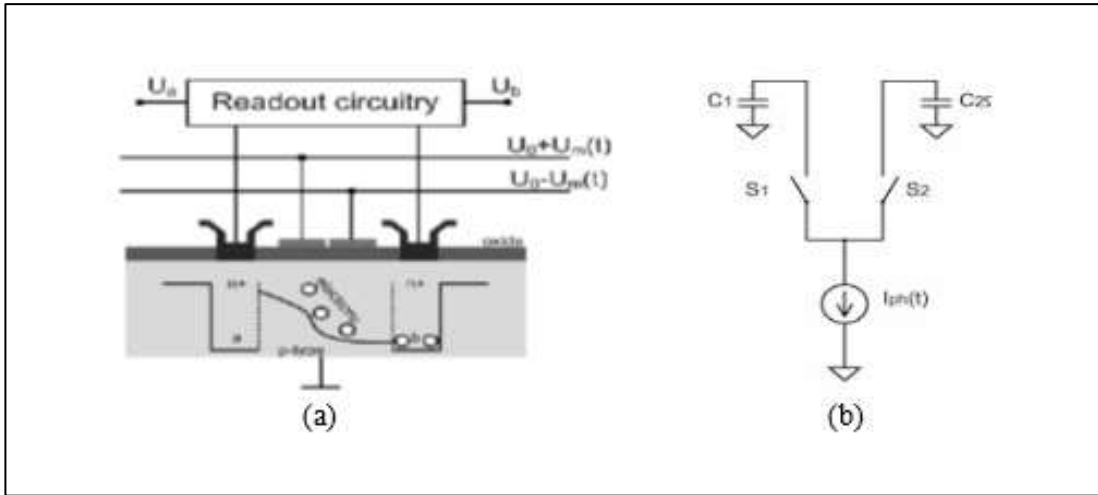


Figure 2.4 The (a) cross-section (Hussmann et al., 2014) and (b) schematic diagram (Remondino et al., 2013) of a two-tap PMD pixel.

When the modulated light signals hit the photogates, electrons are generated due to the photoelectric effect. These electrons are controlled by the push-pull voltages connected to the photogates, that transport the electrons to the storage channel on the left or right. In the cross-correlation process, the emitted signal or reference signal is connected to the photogates. If the light signal received is not modulated, the generated electrons are transported equally to channel a and b , within a modulation period. However, if the light signal detected is modulated, and the phase difference between the modulated and reference signal is 0° , the generated electrons are moved to channel a . If the phase difference is 180° , the electrons are drifted to channel b instead. The accumulated electrons in channel a and b are then read-out as voltage U_a and U_b . Figure 2.5 presents the operation of PMD pixel. In order to obtain the output voltage at each phase delay, two measurements have to be taken. The first measurement samples the output for phase delay 0° and 180° . The other measurement collects the output for phase delay 90° and 270° (Remondino et al., 2013). To eliminate background illumination, the output voltage of each phase delay is determined by Equation 2.16.

$$\text{Output voltage, } \Delta U_{ab}(\tau) = U_a(\tau) - U_b(\tau), \quad \tau = 0^\circ, 90^\circ, 180^\circ, 270^\circ \quad 2.16$$

By substituting the output voltage of difference phase delay in Equation 2.10 and 2.14, the calculation of phase-shift value and distance can be rewritten as in Equation 2.17 and 2.18 (Hussmann et al., 2011).

$$\varphi = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\Delta U_{ab}(270^\circ) - \Delta U_{ab}(90^\circ)}{\Delta U_{ab}(0^\circ) - \Delta U_{ab}(180^\circ)}\right), \quad 2.17$$

$$\text{Distance, } d = \frac{c}{4\pi f_{mod}} \cdot \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\Delta U_{ab}(270^\circ) - \Delta U_{ab}(90^\circ)}{\Delta U_{ab}(0^\circ) - \Delta U_{ab}(180^\circ)}\right), \quad 2.18$$

Overall, the PMD pixel is capable of performing the complex demodulation process consecutively at high speed and with a low power consumption. The small pixel size of 40 – 100 μm range improves the speed of the charge movement and the modulation bandwidth of the smart pixel.

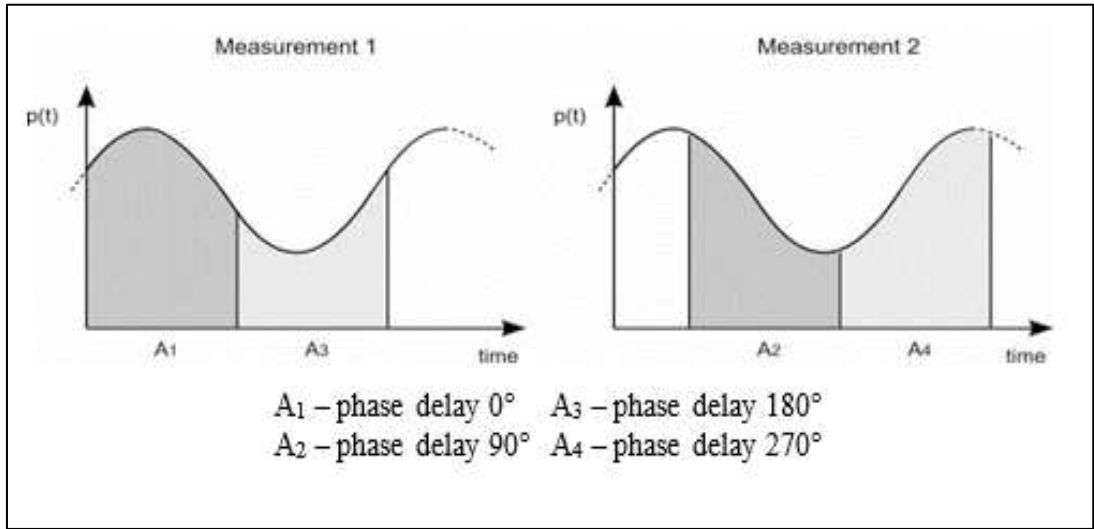


Figure 2.5 For symmetrical two-tap photogate PMD pixel, two measurements are acquired to measure the output voltage at each phase delay (Remondino et al., 2013).

2.4 Comparison of ToF system with other surface imaging technologies

Beside ToF system, stereoscopy- and structured light-base surface imaging systems are another two widely use surface imaging systems that can capture a scene image and retrieve the distance details simultaneously. The working principle of these imaging systems are completely different from the ToF surface imaging system. The difference