研究会記事

次 ——

22-1 減弱曲線のMTFによる較正 宮大工 内田 勝 22-2 散乱線が存在するときの最適拡大倍率 宮 大 工 内 田 22-3 可変視野イメージ・インテンシファイアによる拡大 およびX線拡大によるX線テレビジョン像およびイー メージ・インテンシファィア間接撮影像の像質改善 津 田 元 久 島津製作所 22-4 立体 X線像の雑音第1報 木下,井内 芝 電 東大 竹中 日立レントゲン 野田 22-5 高エネルギー X線用イメージ管 一判別能と解像度一 電通大 長谷川 東 芝 宮 代 彰 一

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ー放射線イメージ・インフォーメーション研究会ー

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第22回 放射線イメージ・インフォーメーション研究会記事

日 時 昭和44年11月22日(土)

10.30~16.00 (研究会)

16.30~19.30 (委員会)

会場 大阪市福島区堂島浜通3の1

大阪大学医学部附属病院旧東館 6階会議室

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(五十音順) 21名

(1) 報告ならびにあいさつ 内田

司 会 内田

帰朝報告 キャノン 佐柳和男

日米ホログラフィーセミナーに出席された佐柳氏からホログラフィー技術応用の最尖端について解説があり非常に有益であった。

資料22-1

FOURIER ANALYSIS OF SOME PROBLEMS IN RADIOLOGY

I.S.R.R.T. 4th World Congress 1969, Tokyo

Suguru Uchida

Department of Applied Physics
Faculty of Engineering, Miyazaki University
Japan

1. Introduction:

During the course of research into a problem on a certain dimension, we often encounter difficulties seeming to be unsolvable. Of the various techniques available in this case, the changing of the dimension is an effective one. This method consists in shifting a problem difficult to solve on dimension A to dimension B. The results may be expressed in terms of dimension B, or converted into dimension A. The present study proposes to apply Fourier analysis to the changing of dimension. Fourier analysis, the foundation of the applied science, plays an important part in the information theory. It was introduced secondarily into the computation of the information volume in the continuity system. This is due to the fact that the wide-ranged study of linear phenomenon is remarkably simplified by the application of Fourier analysis. The information theory traces its origin to the statistical study of the wave-form of noise made by Carson in 1922; it was developed to the present level of the theory by Hartley in 1928, and completed by Shannon in 1948. A Frenchman named Duffieux in Besancon, a small university town of France, published in 1946 a book entitled: "An application of Fourier Analysis to Optical Science."

Up to then, the theory of image formation of the optical science had discussed the relationship between the object and its image in terms of the intensity distribution on the spatial co-ordinates. However, in his study, the intensity distributions of the object and its image are expressed respectively in terms of their spatial frequency characteristics by means of Fourier analysis, and the image formation of the optical science is treated in the domain of the spatial frequency.

This suggests one of the analytical methods of the problem through changing the dimension as the author of this report stated at the outset. Spatial frequency characteristics of the intensity distribution of light emanating from an object means the contrast obtained by analysing the intensity distribution of the light of objects into sine wave forms of various spatial frequencies. The spatial frequency characteristics which indicate the image-forms of these through optical system are the Modulation Transfer Function (MTF). It may, therefore, be said that the theory of the MTF, now in great vogue, was originated in France.

It is in 1954 that the information theory was first introduced in this country and the application of the MTF using the technique of Fourier analysis, to the study of optics, particularly to the efficiency of lenses started in 1956. Partly due to the greatly developed camera industry, the achievements made in this field rank among the first in the world, and the progress in industrial application of this theory, in particular, has outpaced all other nations. Introduction of the information theory to radiology of this country began in 1958 and that of Fourier analysis in 1963. Stimulated by the vigorous development of researches in the field of optical science, the progress of radiological studies in the period following the introduction of these was truly remarkable. The group of Japanese radiologists working in conjunction with the Research Institute of Radiation Image Information now maintain close liaison with such reputable societies as Schober's in Europe and Rossmann's in the United States, and their findings are evaluated as the first rate.

The technique of Fourier analysis is introduced into the evaluation of the sharpness of radiation images in the form of MTF and into the evaluation of film graininess in the form of Wiener spectrum. The subject of this report is an analysis in the domain of spatial frequency, of the optimal magnification ratio of enlargement radiography and the dosimetry, which are the recurring topics of

today's radiography and measurement in their relations to the MTF.

2. Modulation Transfer Function

To begin with, if $\hat{h}(\nu,\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x,y) \exp(-j2\pi(\nu x + \tau y)) dxdy$ then $h(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{h}(\nu,\tau) \exp(j2\pi(\nu x + \tau y)) d\nu d\tau$ follows, only provided that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |h(x,y)| dxdy, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\hat{h}(\nu,\tau)| d\nu d\tau$ is absolutely integrable. (3)

The $\hat{h}(\nu, \tau)$ as used in the foregoing indicates the Fourier transform of the h(x, y).

In case the illumination of an object is incoherent, the MTF can be defined as the Fourier transform of the point spread function. The Fourier transform in this case may be expressed as follows:

$$\hat{h}(\nu,\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x,y) \exp(-j2\pi(\nu x + \tau y)) dxdy$$

$$= H_1(\nu,\tau) - jH_2(\nu,\tau)$$

$$= |\hat{h}(\nu,\tau)| \exp(-j\delta(\nu,\tau)) \qquad (4)$$

$$H_1(\nu,\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x,y) \cos(\nu x + \tau y) dxdy \qquad (5)$$

$$H_2(\nu, \tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x, y) \sin(\nu x + \tau y) dx dy \qquad (6)$$

$$|\hat{h}(\nu,\tau)| = \sqrt{H_1^2(\nu,\tau) + H_2^2(\nu,\tau)}$$
 (7)

$$\delta(\nu, \tau) = tan^{-1} \frac{H_2(\nu, \tau)}{H_1(\nu, \tau)}$$
 (8)

h(x, y): Point spread function

 ν , τ : Spatial frequencies in the direction of x axis and y axis

 $h(v, \tau)$: Modulation transfer function

 $\delta (\nu \mathcal{J}\tau)$: Phase

However, when both ν and τ equal to 0 |h $(\nu, \tau)|$ and $\delta(\nu, \tau)$ are normalized to equal respectively to 1 and 0. Since h (ν, τ) is generally the complex function of the spatial frequency ν, τ it is appropriate to present clearly its absolute value $|h(\nu, \tau)|$ and the phase $\delta(\nu, \tau)$ in order to indicate it.

Assuming the intensity distribution of the light of the object at O(x', y'), O(x', y') is an assemblage of points, and the points at x' and y' are distributed at x and y on the image plane as the point image of h(x-x', y-y'). Accordingly, the image i(x, y) of the object is represented by the convolution integral of O(x', y') and h(x, y). That is to say,

$$i(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} o(x',y') h(x-x',y-y') dx' dy' \qquad (9)$$

Even if the point spread function h(x, y), which is the image forming characteristic of the optics system, is already known, it is difficult to obtain the image i(x, y) from the O(x', y') of a given object, and generally it is the numerical integral of Equation (9) mentioned above. This is due to the relationship between the object and the image being discussed in terms of the intensity distribution and this is the weakness inherent in the optical wave-form image formation theory. Transformed by means of Fourier analysis, Equation (9) is represented as follows:

$$\hat{i}(\nu,\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} o(x,y') h(x-x,y-y') \exp(-j2\pi(\nu x + \tau y)) dx' dxdy' dy$$

In other words, the spatial frequency characteristics $i(\nu, \tau)$ of the image are represented by the simple product of the spatial frequency characteristics of the object, $\hat{O}(\nu, \tau)$, and those of the point image $\hat{h}(\nu, \tau)$. The $\hat{h}(\nu, \tau)$ is a function determined by the optical system, and when it is already known, the $\hat{i}(\nu, \tau)$ can be obtained from $\hat{O}(\nu, \tau)$ and vice versa. Now, assuming that the $\hat{i}(\nu, \tau)$ and $\hat{h}(\nu, \tau)$ are already known, in order to calculate $\hat{O}(\nu, \tau)$ from $\hat{O}(\nu, \tau)$, inverse Fourier transform of $\hat{O}(\nu, \tau)$

r), that is to say

$$o(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{o}(\nu,\tau) \exp(j2\pi(\nu x + \tau y)) d\nu d\tau$$
 (11)

will be made. Thus the Fourier's theory of image formation is proved to be right.

3. Modulation Transfer Function of Radiographical System

Generally speaking, factors causing blurs in radiographical system are as follows: in the case of direct radiography, they are the focus of the X-ray tube, the scattered radiations from the object, the intensifying screen, the film and the naked human eyes; in the case of indirect radiography, the fluorescent screen, the lense, and the mirror; and in the case of fluoroscopy, the fluorescent screen, the image amplifier and the television. In addition, the movements of the radiographical equipment or the object also cause blurs. As means for diminishing blurs, there are grids and a collimater. These blurs are indicated on the vertical axis by such different measures as the intensity of X-rays or lights. The unitary evaluation measure has been used in these systems and the uniformity of the measure facilitates the expression of individual blurs and the comparison of blurs within a given element, but it is difficult to synthesize as a whole. On the other hand when they are viewed in terms of spatial frequency, individual blurs can be indicated by a single measure and at the same time the synthesis of blurs caused by heterogeneous elements. In radiography, the spatial frequency characteristics of an object are perceived as the final image created through, as described above, blurs of many different spatial frequency characteristics. Accordingly, it is necessary for an effective radiographical system to have the blurs of different spatial frequency characteristics well balanced. One must bear in mind the fact that some of the elements of blurs have the non-linear image transmission system. For instance, in the case of films, the MTF should be calculated after the blackening rate was converted into effective exposure by means of such conversion characteristics as the characteristics curve.

Let us review the basic elements of radiographical system, that is, the source of rays, the object, and the receptor system. The distribution on the image plane of penetration rates of the rays through a plane object from the point source is set at $O(x_2, y_2)$ on the co-ordinate of the plane of the object, the point spread functions of the focus and the receptor system on the image plane are set at $f(x_1, y_1)$ and i(x, y) on their respective co-ordinate. The intensity distribution z(x, y) of the final image on the image plane is represented by the following convolution integral.

$$\hat{x}(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} o(x_2, y_2) f(x_1 - x_2, y_1 - y_2) i(x - x_1, y - y_1) dx_2 dx_1 dy_2 dy_1 \dots (12)$$
Then the above is transformed according to Fourier analysis with regard to x and y, it becomes
$$\hat{x}(y, \tau) = \hat{o}(y, \tau) \hat{f}(y, \tau) \hat{i}(y, \tau) \dots (13)$$

Each of the spatial frequency characteristics of Equation (13) above is that registered on the image plane. If the distance between the focus and the plane object is designated as r_1 , that between the plane object and the image plane as r_2 , the magnification ratio m of the focus is r_2/r_1 and the enlargement of the object is $(r_1 + r_2)/r_1$. In other words, when m is used, it becomes m + 1.

Accordingly, if the point spread functions of the actual dimensions on respective co-ordinate are designated as $f_o(x_1, y_1)$ and $Oo(x_2, y_2)$, the $\dot{f}(v, \tau)$ and $\dot{o}(v, \tau)$ of Equation (13), they are represented by the Fourier transform of

$$f(x_1, y_1) = f_0\left(\frac{x_1}{m}, \frac{y_1}{m}\right), o(x_2, y_2) = o_0\left(\frac{x_2}{m+1}, \frac{y_2}{m+1}\right)$$

respectively. These relationships pose interesting questions to the enlargement radiography. This is the question of the optimal magnification ratio enlargement radiography. In order to simplify the calculation, Equation (13) is treated on a simple dimension and when considered on the spatial frequency axis of the image plane, it becomes as follows:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{z}}(\boldsymbol{\nu}) = \hat{\boldsymbol{f}}_{0}(\boldsymbol{m}\boldsymbol{\nu}) \hat{\boldsymbol{o}}_{0}((\boldsymbol{m}+1)\boldsymbol{\nu}) \hat{\boldsymbol{I}}(\boldsymbol{\nu}) \qquad (11)$$

If $(m + 1)\nu$ is equated to ν_0 and Equation (14) is viewed on the spatial frequency axis of the object plane, it becomes

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{z}}_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{\nu}_{0}\right) = \hat{\boldsymbol{f}}_{0}\left(\frac{m}{m+1}\,\boldsymbol{\nu}_{0}\right)\,\hat{\boldsymbol{o}}_{0}\left(\boldsymbol{\nu}_{0}\right)\,\hat{\boldsymbol{i}}\,\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{\nu}_{0}}{m+1}\right) \qquad \qquad (15)$$

As Equation (15) shows, if the enlargement magnification ratio m is increased, the spatial frequency characteristics of the focus $\hat{f}_0\left(\frac{m}{m+1}\nu_0\right)$ moves down toward the low frequency side and the spatial frequency characteristics of the receptor system $\hat{i}\left(\frac{\nu_0}{m+1}\right)$ moves up toward the high frequency side. This suggests that as the blur of the focus becomes larger, the object also becomes larger and the blur of the receptor system relatively smaller. On the basis of Equation (15), the existence of the optimal magnification ratio of the enlargement radiograph can be conjectured. In an experiment with a minimal focus of 50μ and a fine intensifying screen, it was confirmed that the optimal enlargement magnification ratio lies in the vicinity of 4-fold.

The problem to be analyzed in radiographical system is the one of the optimal enlargement magnification ratio when scattered rays exist due to the plane object being in the phantom of a certain volume. Studies are made taking into consideration the Groedel effect on the spatial frequency characteristics of the scattered rays as the enlargement magnification ratio m increases. In practical enlargement radiography, the scattered rays emanating from the object gives a profound influence on the image quality. It seems, therefore, meaningless to discuss the optimal magnification ratio without referring to the scattered rays. Investigations were also made to compare the spatial frequency characteristics of the enlargement radiographical system containing scattered rays and those not containing them and to determine how the scattered rays in the hypersensitive intensifying screen and those in the high fine intensifying screen are affected by the Groedel's effect.

4. Modulation Transfer Function of Dosimetric System

The concept of MTF was first introduced into the radiography and produced many fruitful results. In the radiographical system, mainly the techniques of Fourier transform has been used and the evaluation of the image has been made on the basis of MTFs. This is because of the fact that the use of the MTF in the optical system has been developed as the best means for the rationalization of the radiographical system, the evaluation of the image quality and the improvement of image has facilitated the application of a similar idea to the radiographic image. MTF is an effective tool for expressing the characteristics as long as the conditions of the linear type and the constancy are adequately satisfied. Since many other systems can meet its mathematical conditions, the MTF should be applied not only to the system relating to the radiographical image but also to other systems. In this sense it is but a natural development that the question of image correction should be dealt with in the study of the MTF of the R.I. scanning system, the studies of the super-decomposition of the radiation spectorum and of the analysis of the γ -ray spectorum by electronic computers. This is an example of the dimension-shifting method as stated at the outset of this paper, that is, how to get an answer by transferring to dimension B the question difficult to solve on dimension A and by re-transferring the answer to the original dimension to get a final result.

The question of analysis in the dosimetric system boils down to that of correction of the dosimetry by spatial frequency characteristics. Despite the bulk of data gleaned by many scientists on

the dosimetry, many problems remain yet to be solved. Of particular interest is the effect of the volume of the ionization chamber on the depth dosimetry. Analytical approaches have already been attempted to solve this problem, but the question of how to determine the real dose distribution, free from errors, is yet to be worked out.

Generally, the dosimetric system consists of a source, a collimator, a test object (phantom) and a dosimeter. These elements contribute to the blur of the image and they can be treated as a series of linear spatial frequency filters. Ordinarily, the spatial frequency characteristics of the radiation dosimetric system are expressed as follows. A measurement plane is located at a fixed site within the phantom. Now, the depth intensity distribution on the measurement plane, which is formed by collimating the radiation emanating from a point source, is designated as $d(x_2, y_2)$ on the co-ordinates of the collimating plane, the point spread function of the extended source in the position of measurement plane in air and that of the ionization chamber in the depth radiation on the measurement plane are designated as $f(x_1, y_1)$ and m(x, y) on their respective co-ordinates. The depth dose distribution z(x, y) which is obtained by examining the field at the measurement plane with the ionization chamber is given by the following convolution integral:

$$z \cdot x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-x}^{\infty} d(x_2, y_2) f(x_1 - x_2, y_1 - y_2) m(x - x_1, y - y_1) dx_2 dx_1 dy_2 dy_1 \cdots (10)$$
The Fourier transform of Equation (16) is
$$\hat{z}(\nu, \tau) = \hat{d}(\nu, \tau) \hat{f}(\nu, \tau) \hat{m}(\nu, \tau) \cdots (17)$$
Accordingly, the spatial frequency characteristics of the ionization chamber in depth dosimetry is
$$\hat{m}(\nu, \tau) = \hat{z}(\nu, \tau) / \hat{d}(\nu, \tau) \hat{f}(\nu, \tau) \cdots (18)$$
Conversely, the real depth dose distribution $r(x, y)$ in the field is to be obtained by the following processes, i.e., if
$$\hat{d}(\nu, \tau) \hat{f}(\nu, \tau) = \hat{r}(\nu, \tau) \cdots (19)$$
then
$$\hat{r}(\nu, \tau) = \hat{z}(\nu, \tau) / \hat{m}(\nu, \tau) \cdots (20)$$

In this paper, assuming the spatial frequency characteristics of a 4mm diameter ionization chamber in dosimetry both in air and in depth at 2 and 3, computation will be made and the soundness of the assumption will be checked by comparing with the results obtained by some experiments with a lead slit. Furthermore, the dose distribution in air and in depth in the collimated field will be examined by scanning the ionization chamber, and the errors of blurring caused by chamber size will be corrected by means of Fourier analysis in order to obtain the real dose distribution. The above-mentioned experiments were performed using 190kVp X-rays and Co^{60} γ -rays respectively, and the results of these experiments were compared with the energy dependency of the chamber. With regard to the depth dosimetry, studies are made on the dose distribution not only on the x-y plane but also on the plane in the direction of z axis, that is, the correction of the attenuation curve.

As regards Equations (16) up to (21), similar analysis in air dosimetry is made much easier and the same approach can be taken for the correction of the attenuation curve.

Conclusion

The study of the spatial frequency characteristics in the radiological domain is already in its maturity. This report dealt with the basic concepts of MTF and an introduction to a few problems of particular interest, such as the optimal magnification ratio of enlargement radiography and the correction in dosimetry. These analytical approaches are expected to make greater development and it will largely contribute to the progress of radiology.

IMPROVEMENT OF X-RAY TELEVISION FLUOROSCOPIC IMAGE

AND FLUOROGRAPHIC IMAGE THROUGH EMPLOYING VARIABLE

FIELD IMAGE INTENSIFIER AND X-RAY ENLARGEMENT TECHNIQUE

SADAO TANABE and MOTOHISA TSUDA

(The aim of this studay)

Improvement of image quality through electron optical enlargement using dual field image intensifier and that through X-ray enlargement are studied on X-ray television fluoroscopic image and image intensifier fluorographic image.

Moreover, image qualities, X-ray quantities and costs necessary for making a picture are compared among image intensifier fluorography, X-ray television fluoroscopy, direct radiography and photofluorography.

Comparison of image qualities is carried out with the modulation transfer functions.

(Method of the study)

As to the image quality of X-ray television fluoroscopy and image intensifier fluorography, comparison are carried out among the following four cases.

- 1.) the object is close to the input surface of image intensifier
- 2.) electron optical enlargement is introduced
- 3.) X-ray enlargement is introduced
- 4.) both electron optical enlargement and X-ray enlargement are introduced

Generally speaking, X-ray enlargement of small degree is always

introduced into radiography, fluorography or fluoroscopy inevitably. In the case 1.), therefore, X-ray enlargement of 1.2 is employed, both for direct radiography and photofluorography.

Electron optical enlargement of 11"/7" dual field image intensifier used is 1.7 times. So, the X-ray enlargement of 1.7 is also used. Consequently, the enlargement employed in cases 2.) and 3.) is 2.0 (1.2 x 1.7) and that in case 4.) is 3.4.

Modulation transfer functions are obtained through the following two methodes.

- 1.) By using a slit made of lead plate, 0.05 mm in width, line spread function of the system in question is obtained. Through Fourier transformation and slit correction, modulation transfer function will be obtained.
- 2.) By using square wave chart made of lead foil, modulation transfer function for square wave is obtained directly, from which sinusoidal modulation transfer function will be obtained through Coltman's correction.

For obtaining the modulation transfer function of X-ray television fluoroscopy, the image on the television monitor is photographed with 70 mm camera. Modulation transfer function of image intensifier fluorography is also obtained from the film taken with 70 mm camera. Transparency of processed film is converted into light intensity by means of characteristics curve of the film used.

Lead slit and lead chart are shown in slide No. 1. (Experimental apparatus)

Image intensifier : ll"/7" dual field image intensifier

Television unit : Pick up tube — vidicon, Band width of video-signa: 6 MHz

Number of pictures per second — 30 fram

Jo ITalie

Number of holizontal scanning lines ___ 625 lines

Focal spot size of X-ray tube used: 0.3 x 0.3 mm

(for image intensifier)

2.0 x 2.0 mm

(for radiography and photofluorography)

Distance from focal spot to image intensifier, cassette or fluorescent screen ::: 382 cm

Intensifying screen used in radiography: Medium speed

Setting of the experimental apparatus is illustrated in slide No.2.

Modulation transfer functions are measured at the central part of pictures. For X-ray television, modulation transfer functions are measured in the holizontal scanning direction.

(Result)

1. X-ray television fluoroscopy

Slide No. 3 and No. 4 show the modulation transfer functions obtained by lead slit and lead chart respectively.

The order of image qualities of four cases described before estimated by modulation function is as follows.

- 1.) both X-ray enlargement and electron optical enlargement is introduced
- 2.) X-ray enlargement is introduced

- ., 3.) electron optical enlargement is introduced
 - 4.) without enlargement
- 2. Image intensifier fluorography

Slide No. 5 and No. 6 show the modulation transfer functions obtained by lead slit and lead chart respectively.

The order of image qualities is the same as in the case of X-ray television fluoroscopy.

3. Direct radiography and photofluorography

Slide No. 7 shows the modulation transfer functions of direct radiography, photofluorography with mirror camera and photofluorography with lens camera obtained by lead chart.

The order of image qualities is as follows.

- 1.) direct radiography
- 2.) photofluorography with mirror camera
- 3.) photofluorography with lens camera
- 4. X-ray quantity and cost necessary for making a picture by each system

Data are shown in Table No. 1.

An X-ray film of rather smaller size 6.5" x 8.5" costs ¥86.00. On the other hand, an image intensifier fluorogram costs only ¥12.00, and needs less X-ray quantity than direct radiogram.

Ad image intensifier fluorogram also needs far less X-ray quantity than photofluorogram.

(Considerations)

There is some difference between modulation transfer functions

oblained by lead slit and those obtained by lead chart. The order of image qualities, however, is consistent even if the methods are different.

As observed before, image quality of image intensifier fluorography is very much improved through X-ray or electron optical enlargement. The effect of X-ray enlargement is somehow more eminent than that of electron optical enlargement.

The improvement of image quality in the case where both enlargement techniques are employed is most eminent.

The image quality in the case where both enlargement techniques are employed is almost equal to that of direct radiography, or is better than that of direct radiography if the motion of the object is taken into account.

As shown in Table No. 1, exposure time necessary for direct radiography is longer than that for image intensifier fluorography. Consequently, blurring caused by object motion affects much more to direct radiography than to image intensifier fluorography. Slide No. 8 depicts these effects.

The image quality of image intensifier fluorography without enlargement is almost equal to that of photofluorography with mirror camera, and that of image intensifier fluorography with enlargement is more excellent than photofluorography. (See slide No. 8)

In the case of X-ray television fluorocsopy, degree of improvement in image quality introduced by enlargement is more prominent than in the case of image intensifier fluorogram. (See slide No. 9)

The image quality of X-ray television without enlargement is

worse than that of image intensifier fluorography. But, the more enlargement is introduced, the closer the image quality of X-ray television becomes to that of image intensifier fluorography.

At the extreme case where both enlargement techniques are employed, the image quality of X-ray television fluoroscopy and image intensifier fluorography becomes almost the same.

In this way, enlargement technique in X-ray television is very effective (See slide No.9).

A feature of X-ray television fluoroscopic image is that the line spread function of this system has a sag as is seen is slide No. 10. (although line spread function is defferent by the characteristics of videosignal circuit in television unit). Because of the sag in line spread function, modulation transfer function of X-ray television fluoroscopic image has a region in spatial frequency where the modulation exceeds 1.0. In other words, the contrast of the fluoroscopic image is increased in this region.

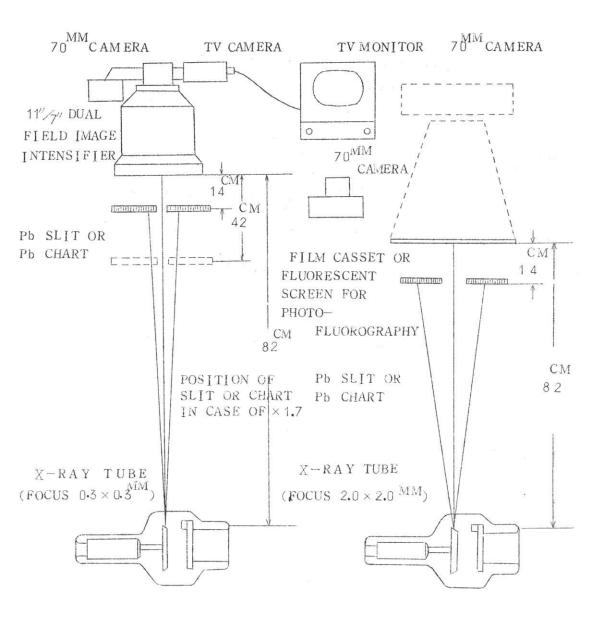
This phenomenon resembles to the so called "development effect" or "edge effect" observed in the field of photography. This phenomenon does not appear in the case of image intensifier fluorography.

(Conclusion)

X-ray enlargement and electron optical enlargement are very useful for improving image quality in X-ray television fluoroscopy or image intensifier fluorography.

Through employing enlargement, X-ray television image intensifier fluorographic image becomes as good as direct radiographi image.

The improvement through X-ray enlargement is a little better than that through electron optical enlargement.

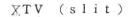


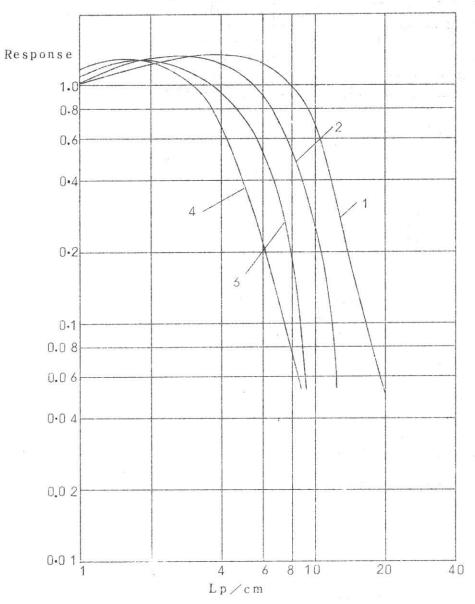
X-RAY TELEVISION OR FLUOROGRAPHY USING IMAGE INTENSIFIER

DIRECT RADIOGRAPHY OR PHOTO-FLUOROGRAPHY

Slide 2

Modulation transter functions

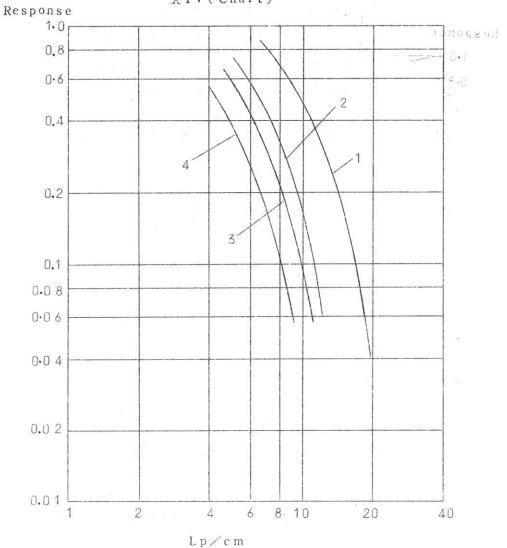




- 1 X-ray and electron optical enlargement ($\times 1.7 \times 1.7$)
- 2 X-ray enlargement (×1.7)
- 3 Electron optical enlargement(1.7)
- 4 Without enlargement

Slide 3

Modulation transfer functions XTV(Chart)



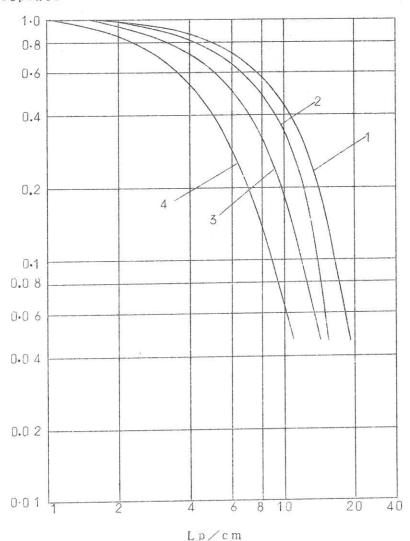
- 1 X-ray and electron optical enlargement ($\times 1.7 \times 1.7$)
- 2 X-ray enlagement ($\times 1.7$)
- 3 Electron optical enlargement($\times1.7$)
- 4 Without enlargement

Slide 4

Modulation transfer function

Responce

I.I Fluorography (slit)

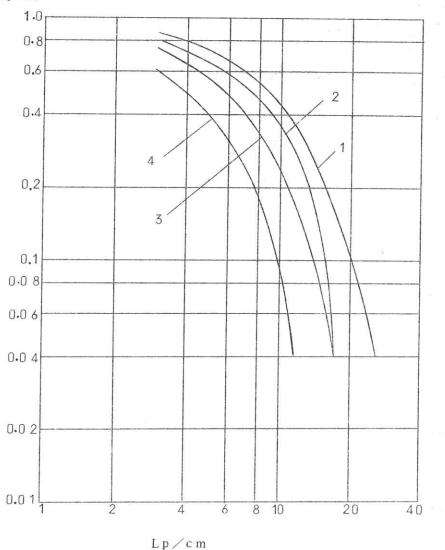


- 1 X-ray and electron optcal enlargement ($\times\,1.\,7\,\times\,1.\,7$)
- 2 X-ray enlargement (×1.7.)
- 3 Electron optical enlargement(×1.7)
- 4 Without enlargement

Modulation transfen functions

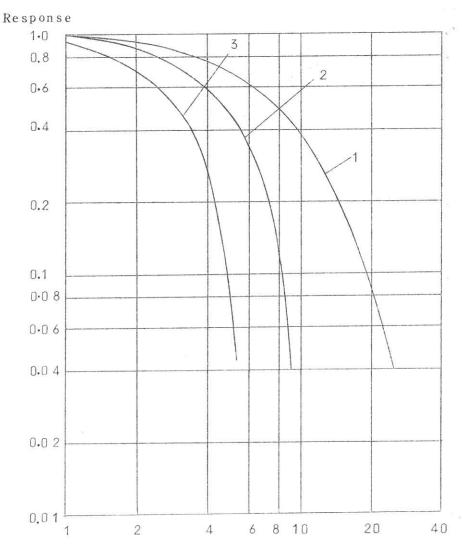
I.I Fluorography(chart)

Respons



- 1 X-ray and electron optical enlargement($\times\,1.7\,\times\,1.7$)
- 2 X-ray enlargement ($\times 1.7$)
- 3 Electron enlargement(×1.7)
- 4 Without enlargement

Modulation transfer functions (Without enlargement)

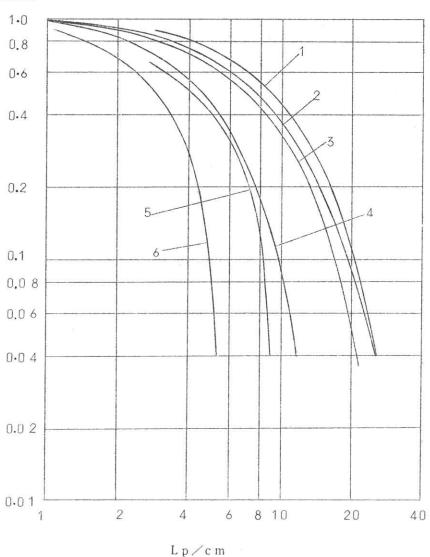


Lp/cm

- 1 Direct radiography
- 2 Photofluorography (Mirror camera)
- 3 Photofluorography(Lens camera)

X-ray tube focus: 2.0 × 2.0 mm Intensifying screen: Medium speed Slide 7

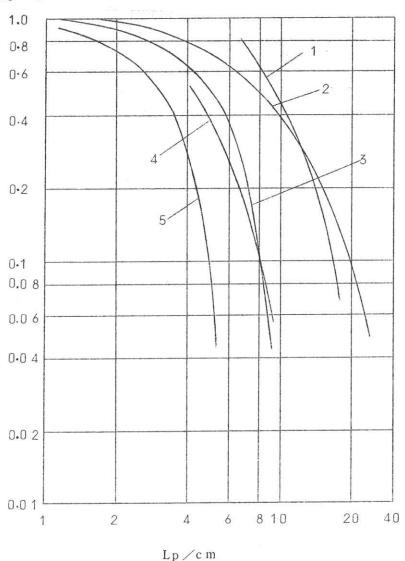
Response



- 1 I.L fluorography($\times 1.7 \times 1.7$)
- 2 Direct radiography
- 3 Direct radiography (With motion 2^{mm}/sec. Q1sec)
- 4 I.I.fluorography (Without enlargement)
- 5 Photofluorography (Mirror Camera)
- 6 Photofluorography(Lens Camera)

Slide 8

Respons



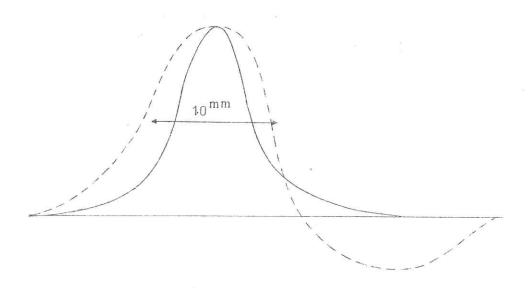
- 1 X-ray fluoroscopy($\times 1.7 \times 1.7$)
- 2 Direct radiography
- 3 Photofluorography(Mirror Camera)
- 4 X-ray fluoroscopy(Without enlargement)
- 5 Photofluorography(Lens Camera)

Slide 9

Line spread function (Including 0.05 mm Pb slit)

I.I. fluorography(Without enlargement)

XTV (Without enlargement)



Teble I

Necessary	Direct Radiography	Mirror camera Lens car	Lens camera	Without Electro	on I ement	Without Electron optical enlargement enlargement	thout Electron optical largement enlargement
Necessary X-ray quantity	900µR	1,500μR	3,500μR	160 µR	430 µR	30mR/min 75mR/min	75mR/mi
Necessary Cost	6.5"×8.5 " ¥86(24)	¥12 (33)	・	¥12(3.3)	¥12(33)		
Typical exposure time	0.1 sec	0.1 sec	0 2 Sec	0.0 2 sec	0.05 ^{sec}		

X-ray quantities and cost for making a picture.

昭和44年11月22日大阪大学村属病院におけるRII研究会例会において発表した津田の演題に対する質疑応答

佐々木:イメジアンプリファイアのMTFは昔より良くなっているか。

津田:かなり向上してきている。

野 田:直接撮影,間接撮影,イメージアンプリファイア間接撮影の像質比較を行なっているが, MTFはスリットから求めたものか,チヤートから求めたものか。

津 田:チャートから求めたもので比較した。

4

立体系線像の雑音 (第1報)

芝電基礎研 木下幸次郎 井内昭一 東大放 医 竹中栄一 日 レ ン 野田峰男

Encance: No

はしがき

医用立体放射線像は,特殊な撮影条件から常に最良のS/Nが得られるとは限らない。そのため,S/Nが実用上いくらあればよいか?を確かめておく必要が生じる。今回は簡単な幾何学的構造の対象につき,立体X線像のS/Nを測定し,雑音の立体視の場合における特殊な性質を求める事が出来たので第1報として報告する。

雑音の種類

二次元の画像中の雑音は,画面上に無作意な明るさと座標をもつ点集合であるから,その性質はその集合のもつ統計的な分布関数の性質で分類出来,視覚的性質も分布関数が大きく支配した。しかし,立体像では立体像伝送系へ雑音が導入される点等により,導入された雑音は,左伝送系と右伝送系との間で相関をもつ場合と,相関の無い場合とが生じる。(前者を Coherent Noise,後者を Tncoherent Noise と名づける。)との点が二次元画像伝送系と大いに異なる点である。 Coherent Noise と Tncoherent Noise の例と見本とを第1表に示してある。

実験の方法

- 1)試料の作り方:立体用左右 X線管を140 m_m 離し,中心から800 m_m 離れた所に,I.I. の受光面がある。その直前に1辺107 m_m で11 m_m ϕ の鉛球を頂点にもった三角錐をおき,左右 X線を曝射して,左右のモニター T V の像を写真にとって原画とする。1辺200 m_m の正方形内に約4万点を有する一様分布関数をもったランダムチャートを,S/Nを変えるために明るさを変えて 撮影し,原画をかさね合わせて写真をとり試料とする。第1図に示す。
- 2) 観測装置:第2図に示すように、二台の縦横の偏光のかかったスライドプロジェクタに1)で作った試料を入れ、くもりガラススクリーン上に投影し、観察者は左眼の偏波面と右眼のそれが直交する偏光フィルターをもつメガネを通して立体観をする。そして、立体像の点を測定してもらうために自作のステレオマーカーを用いた。
 - 3)被験者:第2図の装置を用いて,25才前後の男子数名に,Coherent Noise,

Throherent Noise の場合について,立体感得時間と立体計測,即ちスクリーンから立体像の頂点までの距離を測定してもらった。スクリーン上の照度は約1304x である。

実験の結果とその検討

Coherent Noise の場合の立体感得時間を調べた所,第3図に示すようになり,横軸に時間(秒),縦軸に被験者群のレスポンスをとるとS/Nの変化につれて1からものようになり,実験式はI=1-e xp $(-\alpha t)$ となる。S/Nの劣化につれ立体感得時間が長くなる。又,立体計測をした所第4図のようになり計算値の回りに分布している。Tncoherent Noise の場合の立体感得時間は第5図のようになり計算値の回りに分布している。Tncoherent Noise の場合の立体感得時間は第5図のようになり,Coherent Noise の場合より惑得時間が長くなっている。立体計測は第6図であり,S/Nが劣化すると計算線から離れて正確な計測ができなくなる事を示している。Coherent Noise と Tncoherent Noise の場合のS/Nと減衰係数 α との関係は第7図であり,80%の人が 1 分(この時間は通常左右両眼間の輻 開始時間 に近い。)で立体感を得るには,Coherent Noise の場合は4d B,Tncoherent Noise の場合は15,6d Bは心要であると思われる。立体計測の場合の区間ごとの平均値を調べた所,S/Nの劣化につれ Coherent Noise の場合は多少計算値よりさがるが, Tncoherent Noise の場合は大きく変化し,2d B 附近では計算値の半分近くを示している。標準偏差は Coherent Noiseの場合はほぼ一定しているが,Tncoherent Noise の場合はS/Nが劣化すると極端に大きくなり,2d B 附近で Coherent Noise の約10倍も大きい。

結論

立体視の場合には,Coherent Noise 及び Tnc oherent Noise の二種の雑音がある事が見出された。立体感得時間は I=1-e x p ($-\alpha t$) で近似でき α はS/Nの関数でれる。 Coherent Noise の場合は $\alpha=3.3$ $\sqrt[3]{(S/N)^2}$,Tnc oherent Noise の場合は $\alpha=0.19 \cdot (S/N)^2$ 但し $(S/N)_p=dB$, α は $(sec)^1$ である。雑音の見え方は Coherent Noise の場合は雑音が一平面的であり, Tnc oherent Noise の場合は霧のようなもので,S/Nが悪くなると立体像がベールにつつまれ,立体感がうすれ,正確な計測ができなくなる事が判った。 観察者の80%が $\frac{1}{2}$ 砂で立体感を得るには,Coherent Noise の場合は4dB以上(電力比), Tnc oherent Noise の場合は $15\sim16dB$ 以上(電力比)必要であるう。 Coherent Noise の場合80%識別 値は $(S/N)_p=4dB$ である。この値は著者の1人が前に報告 $\frac{1}{2}$ した二次元の場合の $\frac{1}{2}$ 0を表と大きく相違する。この相違の理由は次の如くである。二次元の場合は彼写体と Random chart が同一平面上にあるから識別 値が高い。三次元の場合で Coherent Noise の場合には,被写体は多くの場合 Noise の存在する平面と離れた場所に存在する。本例の場合には特に第9図に示すように,被写体は Coherent Noise 平面

ら突出した点にあった。従って,25dB約3dBも近い 値になったと考えられる。これから立体の場合,Noise平面が着目すべき被写体の部分の後方に存在するような像の形成を行なり事が望まい。

参考文献

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高エネルギ系線用イメージ管の解像度

電気通信大学 長谷川 伸東芝綜合研 宮代彰一

線形加速機,ベータトロンなどの高エネルギ X線を用いた厚い鉄材用の非破壊検査装置が開発された。 との装置の検査性能は判別能曲線で示されるが,その数値は用いるイメージ管の出力像の光学的な S/N 比で定まる筈で,系の特性や使用状態から計算することができる。これを実測値と照合し,満足し得る 結果を得た。

1.はしがき

線形加速機,ベータトロンなどから発生する高エネルギX線を厚い鉄材に照射し,透過X線の蛍光像を閉回路テレビ系で観察すると材料のキズを発見し得る。これに用いるイメージ管に関して,ターゲットを外部につけた管については以前から発表があったが¹⁾,ターゲットを内蔵した管については我々の手で1965年に小形管²⁾、1969年に大形管の開発報告を行なった³⁾。

この装置の性能は,ふつうの写真による非破壊検査装置と同様に判別能を以って表現されている。すなわち厚い鉄材(厚さT)に鉄線(直径 ΔT)を重ねて透視し,出力像を観察して判別し得る最小の針金直径 ΔT min を測定し, ΔT min を判別能と定義しており,この装置では $10\sim20\,\mathrm{cm}$ の厚さの鉄板に対し $2\sim3\%$ という値を得た。出力像を判別し得るか否かは当然像の光学的S/N比によってきまり,しかも系は極めて高い量子利得を持ち,出力側では入力側の光子に起因する大きな量子雑音が見えることとなる。従って出力像のS/Nは前報 4 のイメージ管の場合と同様,入力雑音と管のMT Fから計算されることになり,判別能の数値を求めることができる。この結果と実測結果を照合することが本報の目的である。

2.装置

装置の構成は図1に示す如くである。イメージ管の入力ターゲットは重金属増感板,蛍光体層,光電面を積層したもので,有効径は5″(小形試作管),9″(大形管)である。重金属板は高エネルギの X線を吸収し,Compton効果による低エネルギX線と光電子を放出して次の蛍光体層を光らすと共に, 被検体からの散乱X線を吸収してコントラストを上げる作用をもつもので,1mmtのヘビーアロイ等 の重金属板を使用している。その他の構造は医用のX線テレビと同様である。

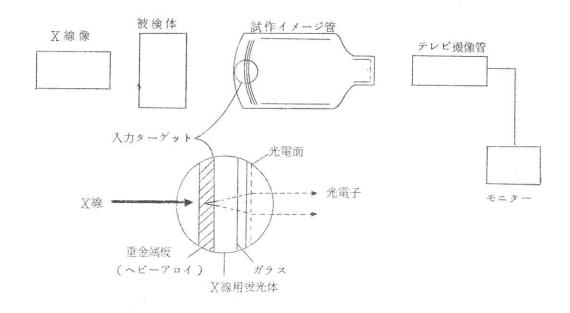


図1 試作イメージ管による透視テレビ装置

3・判別能の解析

(1) 入力 X線強度分布

図2のように鉄板と鉄線を重ねてX線をあてたときの透過度分布曲線のPP値(図2)を求める。 入力量子密度を ν_I ($photons/cm^2sec$),視認のさいの積分長さをh(cm),積分時間をt(秒)とする。鉄材のX線吸収係数を μ (cm^{-1})とすると信号のピーク値での入射密度は

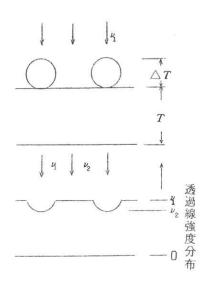
$$\begin{aligned} \nu_1 &= \nu_I \, e^{-\mu \tau} \\ \nu_2 &= \nu_I \, e^{-\mu \tau (\tau + \Delta \tau)} \end{aligned}$$

従って入力信号 Sin 及び平均入力レベルは $\triangle T \ll T$ として

$$Sin = (\nu_1 - \nu_2) h \tau = \nu_1 h \tau \{1 - 1 + \mu \triangle T + \cdots \}$$

$$= \nu_{I} h \tau \cdot \mu \triangle T e^{-\lambda \tau}$$
 (1)

$$\overline{Sin} = \frac{\nu_1 + \nu_2}{2} \quad h \ \tau = \nu_I \ e^{-\kappa_I} \qquad h \ \tau \tag{2}$$



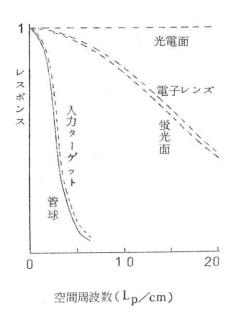


図2 被検体モデルと透過X線強度

図3 イメージ管の空間周波数特性

(2) 出力信号

図1の系の要素の中ではイメージ管のレスポンス関数が最も悪く,テレビ系,光学系による出力像の解像度低下は考えないでよい。イメージ管とその各部のレスポンス関数の測定結果を図3に示す。管のレスポンス関数 $R \cdot F \cdot$ をガウス分布で近似して

$$R \cdot F = e^{-a^{\frac{1}{4}} \tau^{\frac{2}{4}}} \tag{3}$$

とすると図3から $a=\frac{1}{3}$ cmである。イメージ管の量子利得を η とすると出力信号 S_{out} は

$$S_{out} = \nu_I e^{-\mu r} \cdot h \tau \cdot \mu \triangle T \cdot e^{-\alpha^2 F r^2} \cdot \eta \tag{4}$$

となる。但し F_i は特定の太さ $\triangle T_i$ の鉄線を同じ間隔で並べたパターンの空間周波数で, F_i =1/(2 $\triangle T$)であり,且つ入力信号をP-Pが(1)式で与えられる正弦波で代表させてある。

(3) 出力雑音

図中, ν_I は単位の放射線に含まれるエネルギ量(4.8×10^{-4} J/c m²)とスペクトルのピーク値を最大値の70%とし,その波長の光量子

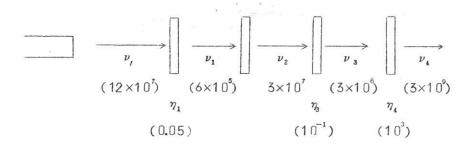


図4 $6M_eV$, 1R/min の放射線が入射したときの系の各段量子数 ν (photons/cm²/sec)と量子効率 η

エネルギ (6.7 × 10^{-13} Joule) から計算した。 重金属板の量子効率は p b の吸収係数 (0.5 c m $^{-1}$) から厚さを 1 mm として算出, ν_4 の値は予備実験で出力光束の測定結果から算出,他の値は蛍光面,光電面についてふつうに用いられる量子効率から算出した。

図4のような状態ではイメージ管に到着する光量子が少いため、その空間的、時間的なバラッキが 入力雑音を与えるが、実際は重金属板の吸収係数がきわめて小さいためことでの分配雑音が問題となる。 との原因による出力像の光学雑音は

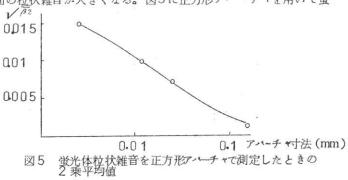
$$N_0 = 2 \overline{Sin} \eta_1 \eta_{\tau}^2 \int_0^\infty (RF)^2 dF$$

$$(5)$$

光電面の熱電子についてはS-1 1 光電面では 10^{-16} A/cm^2 すなわち 10^3 electrons/ cm^2/s e c 以下であり,図 4 の ν_1 にくらべ無視できる。また前報 によれば入射線量がふえると相対的に量子雑音が減じ,出力蛍光面の粒状雑音が大きくなる。図 5 に正方形アパーチャを用いて蛍

-31-

光面を走査したときの雑音の2乗 平均値を示す。一般のイメージ管 では被写体の解像寸法が0.01~ 0.02mmであるから粒状雑音は 無視できない。しかし,この場合 は被写体は1mm以上あるので肉



眼が空間的な Filter 作用をもつとすれば粒状雑音は無視して差支えない。

(4) S/Nと判別能

(4)(5)式から出力像の雑音が量子雑音である場合出力像の光学的S/N比を求めると(6)が得られる。

$$\frac{S}{N} = \frac{S_{0}ut}{\sqrt{N_{0}}} = \frac{S_{i} n \cdot \eta_{i} \cdot \eta_{\tau} e^{-\alpha^{2}F^{2}}}{\sqrt{2 S_{i} n} \eta_{i} \eta^{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} (RF)^{2} dF}$$

$$= \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \left(\nu_{i} e^{-\mu \tau} \eta_{i} h \tau a\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\alpha^{2}F^{2}} \mu \Delta T \tag{6}$$

例として20R/min の線源を用いた場合 ν_I $\eta_1=12\times10^7/c\,\mathrm{m}^2$, sec , $a=\frac{1}{3}$ cm^{-1} , $h=5\,\mathrm{cm}$, $\tau=\frac{1}{30}$ sec を入れると(6)は

$$\frac{S}{N} = 180 \times \triangle T \times e^{-\frac{T}{\delta}} \times e^{-(\frac{1}{\delta \triangle T})^2}$$
 (6)

となり,各項は夫々鉄線の太さによるコントラスト増,被検体厚に伴う雑音増レスポンス関数による解像度低下を示す。(6)においてS/N>3の場合出力像を識別し得るとし,Tを与えたときに判別し得る鉄線の太さ $\triangle T$ min を計算し, $\triangle T$ min = y として判別能 yを計算すると図6 実線を得る。

(5) 視認限度

・(6)式に従えば入射線量を増すと量子雑音は減り,S/Nはいくらでも改善され判別能が向上する筈であるが,実際には信号の大きさが極めて小さくなり識別できなくなる。Rose によれば肉眼の視認限度が輝度比2%とされている。(4)から出力像の心度比Dは

$$D = \frac{S_{out}}{S_{out}} = \mu \triangle T \quad e^{-\alpha^2 F \epsilon^2}$$
 (7)

となる。D=2 %になる効を求めると $\triangle T=0.185$ (cm)となり,とれ以下の鉄線は線量に関係なく視識できない。これを図6 の点線に示す。

(6) テレビ系による S/N低下

上述のS/N等はイメージ管自体のものであるが実際はその出力像をテレビ系を通して見るととになるため、豫像管光電面照度が不足の場合雑音が附加される。図4の条件で出力像の明かるさは管の 宿小率が $^{1}/_{10}$ として $0.8\,\mathrm{rl}_{\mathrm{X}}$ に相当する。透過率0.7,F1 のレンズをタンデムに使うと仮定 し、 $20\,R/min$, $600\,R/min$ の線源と Vidicon (イメージ管の出力像を1:1に結像), 1.0.(1:2に拡大結像)を組み合わせて使うとして光電面照度を計算すると図7が得られる。図中 の印は夫々の管の標準動作点であり, $600\,R/min$ の線源ならばどちらの最像管でもほど支障な 〈 $20\,\mathrm{cm}$ 迄の厚さの鉄の透視検査が行なわれるが, $20\,R/min$ の場合は,I.0.0.6 年いても $15\,\mathrm{cm}$

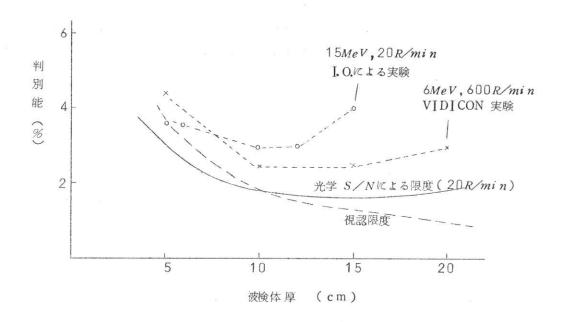


図 6 判別能曲線

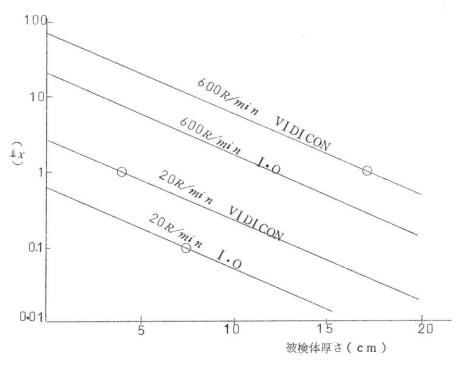


図7 撮像管光電面照度

以上の被検体に対してはS/Nが低下することを示す。

4 透視実験

透視実験として6MeV, 600R/min の線形加速機,小形イメージ管,ビジコンカメラの組合せによる判別能測定 $(\times \Pi)$, 15MeV, 20R/min の線源 (ベータトロン), 大形イメージ管, $I\cdot O\cdot$ カメラの組合せによる判別能測定 $(\bigcirc \Pi)$ を行なった結果を図6に示す。後者の場合は線質が異るが,それでもこの種の実験としては計算値とよく一致する。

5. む す び

高エネルギ非破壊検査用透視テレビ装置の解像特性をイメージ管の光学的S/N比,撮像管の光電面 照度から解析し,ほぶ実験と合う結果が得られた。高エネルギ装置としては, $10\,c$ m以上の鉄板検査のさいはベータトロンでは線量が不足する。この様な解析方法は一般のX線テレビにも使えるであるう。

1) W. Oosterkamp : Philips Tech. Rev. 21 281 ('59/60)

2)長谷川,海野,井上 :テレビジョン全国大会 4-3 (1965)

3) 宮代, 井上, 今井, 長谷川: 昭44電気4学会連合大会 1755

4) S. Ha segawa :電気通信大学学報 No 25 1 (1969)

5)石井 五郎 : 非破壞検査(日刊工業) p.7

(工業物理学講座)

6) A. Rose : JOSA 38 196 (1948)

R.I.I 研究会第6回委員会議事録。

日 時 昭和44年11月22日 午後4時30分~7時

場 所 阪大医学部附属病院 6 階会議室

出席者 内田 勝,金森仁志,木下幸次郎,佐柳和男,佐々木常雄,竹中栄一,高野正雄, 津田元久,野田峰男,長谷川 伸 (五十音順)

議 題 1・白書に関する件

- 2. 任期満了に伴う事務局の移動および委員改選の件。
- 3・文部省班研究(微小焦点による拡大撮影の研究に関する R I I 研究会の部分的支援) に関する件。

4. その他

審議結果

- 1 白書に関する件
- 1.1 7月15日付研究白書案を部分訂正し、キャノンイメージ第1巻特別号に掲載した経過報告が 佐柳委員、竹中常任委員よりなされ、委員会はこれを承認した。
- 1.2 他の研究雑誌への発表形式に関する審議

キャノンイメージに掲載したもののミスプリント,文法的ミスの訂正を行ない,下記の雑誌,担当者を通し,発表の手続を委任した。

一和文一

- (1) 放射線医学会
- (2) アイソトープ

竹中常任委員

- (3) 放射線技術学会
- (4) 非破壞検査

内田常任委員

(5) 放射線工業技術会

津田委員.

(6) 応物(光学=ユース) 佐柳 委 員

一英文一

(1) アイソトープ

竹中常任委員

1.3 抜刷に関する審議

和文抜刷を200部,英文抜刷を300部研究会費用で購入する。

なお,和文抜刷をどの雑誌から取るかは佐柳委員,竹中常任委員で相談し決める。

1.4 その他の審議

- 1.4.1 研究会会員の英・和文共に送付する。
- 1.4.2 英文は ICR時のインフォーマルミイーティングの出席者に送付する。 その他土井委員(米国在中)PR用に数部送付する。

2. 事務局および委員改選に関する審議

- 2.1 昭和45年2月に行なう委員改選に伴い事務局を竹中常任委員に移動する。
- 2.2 会長、委員の改選方法は信任投票で行なう。

3、文部省班研究に関する審議

- 3.1 12月6日名古屋商工会議所ビルで行なわれる報告会にRII研究会としての報告を用意する。
- 3.2 佐々木常任委員より内田,佐柳,竹中,津田各常任委員,委員に案内状を送付する。

4. その他

4-1 竹中常任委員より X線像の処理,解析の研究に関し,その重要性について日本内外の研究状況 から説明があり,当研究会として文献調査の必要性があることを認めた。

書記野田

(昼間作業所)	1	発 行 所	責編 任 者集	発行日	
池田 ○七二七1六一1八六一一 箕面 ○七二七1二二1九九○三 渡 辺 龍 史 堂 大阪府箕面市瀬川八八一	: - : - : - : - : - : - : - : - : - : -	R・ I・ I 研 宮崎市西丸山町一一八 宮崎市西丸山町一一八 宮崎市西丸山町一一八 宮崎市西丸山町一一八 二 十 大阪中央連絡事務所 二 1	内田	昭和四十四年十二 月	研究会記事 第二十二回
中 八 九 六九 世 一三		完 完 完 完 完 完 完 完 完 完 完 完 完 完	勝	月十五日	