# Chapter 8 - Blood Flow

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#### Introduction

- The development of **colour flow imaging** has significantly enhanced blood flow analysis for diagnosing **vascular and non-vascular disorders**.
- Understanding blood flow physics is crucial for accurate interpretation of colour flow images and Doppler spectra.
- Reverse flow observed in a colour image may indicate disease or represent normal physiological flow within a vessel.
- Velocity changes and Doppler spectrum variations assist in identifying and quantifying diseases.
- Misunderstanding **normal and pathological blood flow** can lead to **misdiagnosis** and loss of important clinical data.
- Blood flow is inherently **pulsatile** and occurs in a **non-homogeneous fluid** within **elastic tubes**.
- A simplified model of **steady flow in a rigid tube** provides basic insights into blood flow dynamics.

#### Structure of the Vessel Walls

- Arterial walls have a three-layered structure:
  - Intima: Inner endothelial layer on an elastic membrane.
  - o Media: Smooth muscle and elastic tissue.
  - Adventitia: Connective tissue, including collagen and elastic fibers.
- Ultrasound visualization of the intima-media layer is possible in carotid arteries, typically measuring 0.5–0.9 mm.
- Arterial diseases can alter vessel wall thickness, reducing blood flow and potentially leading to embolic events.
- Veins have a similar three-layer structure but feature a thinner media layer.
- Blood vessels are **not just conduits**; they dynamically respond to **nervous** and **chemical stimuli** to regulate blood flow.

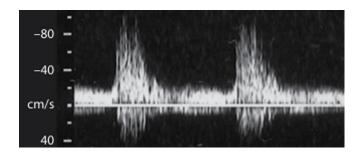
# **Blood Flow Dynamics**

#### **Structure of the Vessel Walls**

- Changes in arterial wall structure due to disease can be detected using ultrasound.
- The three-layer structure of arteries:
  - o Intima: Inner endothelial layer over an elastic membrane.
  - o Media: Composed of smooth muscle and elastic tissue.
  - Adventitia: Outer connective tissue with collagen and elastic fibers.
- **Intima-media layer** can be visualized with **ultrasound** in **carotid arteries**, with a normal thickness of **0.5–0.9 mm**.
- Arterial disease affects wall thickness, potentially reducing blood flow or generating
- Veins have a similar structure but with a thinner media layer.
- Blood vessels function not only as conduits but also respond dynamically to nervous and chemical stimuli.

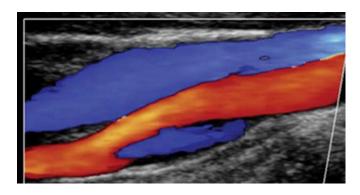
#### Laminar, Disturbed, and Turbulent Flow

• Laminar flow: Blood moves in layers, with each layer sliding over the other, maintaining velocity differences while cells remain within their layers.



#### • Turbulent flow:

- Occurs when velocity increases significantly, as in stenosis.
- Blood moves randomly in all directions at variable speeds, but with overall forward velocity.
- Requires more energy and results in a greater pressure drop to maintain flow rate.
- o Can be identified by **spectral Doppler broadening** (Figure 8.1).



#### • Disturbed flow:

- o Characterized by vortices (eddies) and flow reversal.
- Vortices may appear downstream of atherosclerotic plaques and can either be static or shed downstream before dissipating.
- Flow reversal in the carotid bifurcation (Figures 8.3, 8.8) is considered normal.

## Laminar, Disturbed, and Turbulent Flow (Page 160)

#### • Laminar Flow:

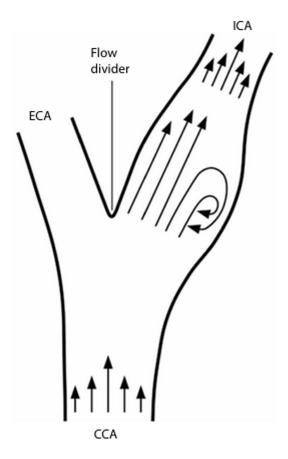
- In normal arteries at rest, blood moves in **layers**, with each layer **sliding over the other**.
- Different layers can have **different velocities**, but blood cells stay within their layers.

#### • Turbulent Flow:

- If velocity increases significantly (e.g., due to stenosis), laminar flow can break down into turbulence.
- Turbulent flow moves randomly in all directions at variable speeds, while still maintaining an overall forward velocity.
- More energy is required to maintain flow rate, leading to a greater pressure drop.
- Turbulent flow is visible distal to a severe stenosis, as seen in the spectral **Doppler waveform** (Figure 8.1), which shows increased spectral broadening.

#### • Disturbed Flow:

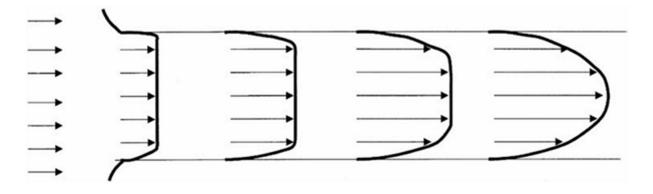
- The term refers to regions where **circulating vortices (eddies)** and **flow reversal** occur.
- Vortices are commonly observed distal to an atherosclerotic plaque.
- These vortices may be **static** or may **shed and move downstream**, dissipating after a short distance.



• Disturbed flow alone does not necessarily indicate disease—for example, flow reversal in the carotid bifurcation (Figures 8.3 and 8.8) is considered normal.

## **Velocity Profiles (Page 160)**

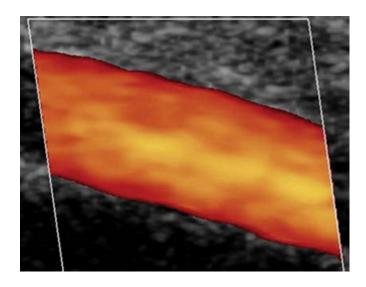
- Blood within a vessel does not all move at the **same velocity** at a given time.
- Typically, **faster flow** occurs in the **center** of the vessel, while **slower-moving blood** is found near the **walls**.
- This variation in velocity across the vessel is called the **velocity profile**.
- The shape of the velocity profile affects both the color flow image and the Doppler spectrum.
- In a simple system with **steady (non-pulsatile) flow** entering a long, rigid tube, the velocity profile transitions:
  - From a **blunt profile** (uniform velocity) to a **parabolic profile** (higher velocity in the center).
  - This transition occurs due to **viscous drag exerted by the vessel walls**, causing a velocity gradient across the diameter of the vessel.



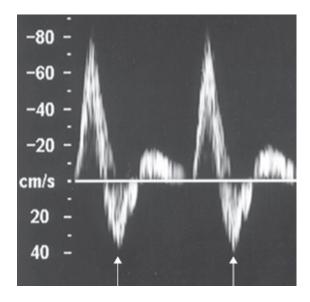
• The distance required for this transition depends on tube diameter and fluid

#### velocity (Figure 8.4).

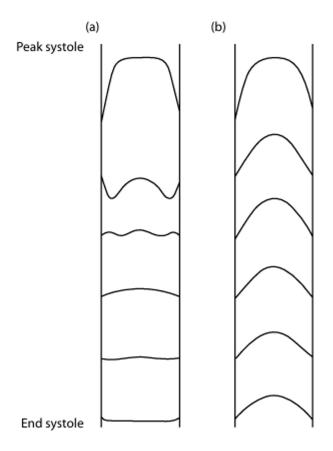
- Different vessels show different velocity profiles:
  - Ascending aorta: Typically blunt flow profile.
  - o Mid-superficial femoral artery: More parabolic profile.
- Pulsatile nature of blood flow complicates the velocity profile further.
  - Flow reversal during certain phases of the **cardiac cycle** affects velocity distribution.



- The velocity profile may be visible on a **color flow image**, where **slower-moving blood near the walls** is apparent (Figure **8.5**).
- Normal velocity profiles in arteries vary with time and location due to:
  - Pressure pulses from the **heart**.
  - Reflection of pressure waves from distal vessels.



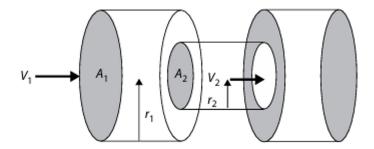
- High distal resistance, which can cause flow reversal during diastole (Figure 8.6).
- **Different arterial locations** have distinct profiles:
  - Common carotid artery: Typically does not show flow reversal.
  - Common femoral artery: Exhibits diastolic flow reversal, visible in Doppler spectra.



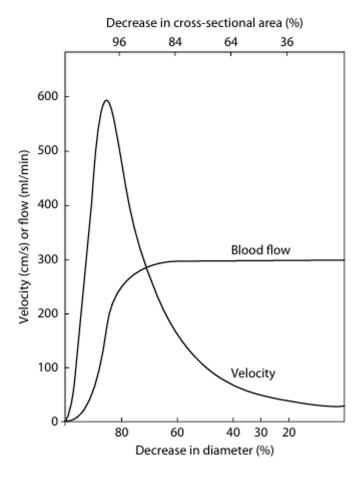
• Flow direction changes can be observed in **color flow imaging** as shifts from **red to blue** or **blue to red**, depending on the transducer orientation (Figure **8.7**).

## **Velocity Changes Within Stenosis (Page 163)**

- Changes in velocity across a narrowing (stenosis) are essential for detecting and quantifying arterial disease.
- The relationship between **steady flow (Q), velocity (V), and cross-sectional area (A)** is given by: Q=V×AQ = V \times AQ=V×A
  - If no fluid is lost along the tube, flow remains constant, meaning velocity must change as cross-sectional area decreases.



- Figure 8.12 illustrates this principle:
  - As vessel area decreases, velocity increases.
  - The **velocity ratio** between different points in the vessel helps assess stenosis severity.



- Theoretical model predictions (Figure 8.13):
  - Mild stenosis (<70-80% diameter reduction): Flow remains relatively unchanged.
  - Severe stenosis (>80% diameter reduction): Flow becomes restricted (hemodynamically significant stenosis).
  - Velocity increases within the stenosis even when flow remains constant.
  - **Beyond a critical narrowing**, flow reduces significantly, causing a **drop in velocity** ("trickle flow").

#### • Clinical application:

- Velocity changes are more sensitive than flow reduction for detecting stenosis.
- **Doppler ultrasound** can identify these changes, as shown in **Figure 8.14**, which displays a **velocity increase at a superficial femoral artery stenosis**.

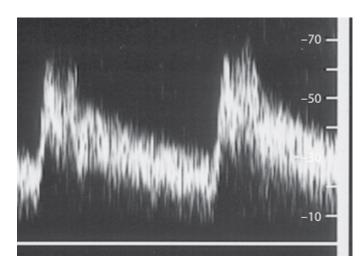
# **Resistance to Flow (Page 165)**

- Blood flow depends on the pressure difference between two points in a vessel and the resistance to flow.
- Resistance is described by **Poiseuille's equation**: Pressure drop=Flow×Resistance \text{Pressure drop} = \text{Flow} \times \text{Resistance}
  - Resistance is influenced by: Resistance=8×Viscosity×Lengthπ×Radius4
    \text{Resistance} = \frac{8 \times \text{Viscosity} \times \text{Length}} {\pi \times \text{Radius}^4}
  - The radius of the vessel has the greatest impact on resistance (inversely proportional to the fourth power of the radius).

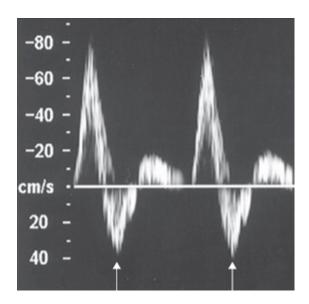
#### • Clinical relevance:

- o In the normal circulation, most resistance occurs at the arteriole level.
- Different organs have different resistance levels:
  - Brain, kidney, placenta → Low-resistance vascular beds.
  - Resting muscles → Higher resistance.
- Pathological changes:

- Placental abnormalities → High-resistance placenta, leading to reduced fetal oxygen and nutrition.
- Arterial narrowing (e.g., superficial femoral artery disease) → Increased resistance, causing reduced blood flow and pain.
- Waveform characteristics:
  - The **shape of the Doppler waveform** depends on the resistance of the vascular bed.
  - Low-resistance arteries (e.g., internal carotid artery, renal arteries):



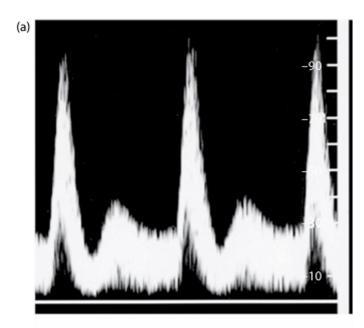
- Continuous forward flow during **diastole** (Figure **8.15**).
- High-resistance arteries (e.g., superficial femoral artery):

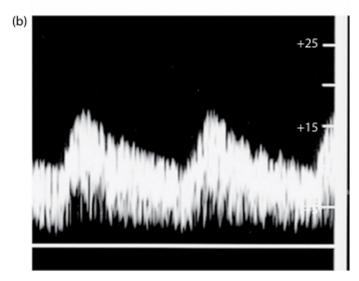


- Diastolic flow reversal seen in the Doppler waveform (Figure 8.6).
- Significance in vascular disease:
  - Identifying resistance changes in Doppler waveforms can help diagnose vascular abnormalities.

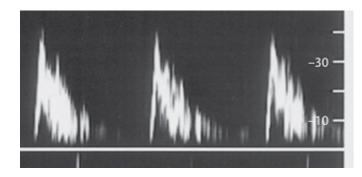
# Physiological and Pathological Changes That Affect the Arterial Flow (Page 166)

- Tissue perfusion is regulated by arteriolar diameter changes, which alter peripheral resistance.
- Exercise-induced changes:
  - Increased demand in **leg muscles** during exercise **reduces peripheral resistance** by **arteriolar dilation**, leading to **increased blood flow**.

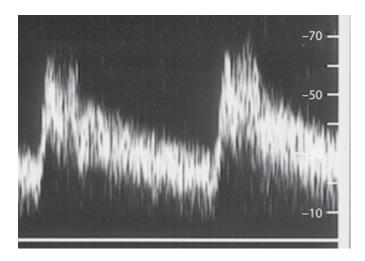




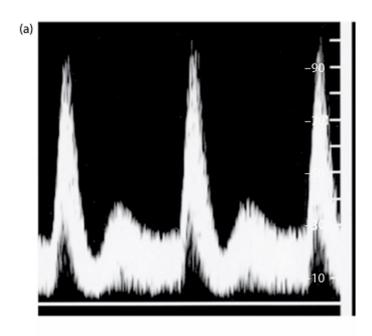
- This results in a waveform shape change, with diastolic flow becoming entirely forward-directed (Figure 8.16a).
- Effects of arterial disease:
  - Arterial narrowing significantly alters resistance to flow.
  - A decrease in vessel diameter causes resistance to increase, impacting blood flow.
  - Doppler waveform changes can indicate arterial occlusion distal to the measured site.

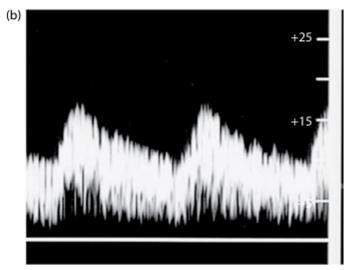


- Figure 8.17 shows a Doppler spectrum from the common carotid artery proximal to an internal carotid artery occlusion:
  - Short acceleration time (systolic onset to peak).



 Absence of diastolic flow, which is normally present in the cerebral circulation (Figure 8.15).



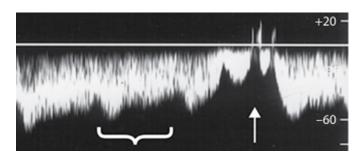


- Waveform changes distal to occlusion:
  - In severe superficial femoral artery disease, arterioles dilate maximally to lower peripheral resistance and maintain tissue perfusion.
  - Figure 8.16b shows a damped waveform with:
    - Prolonged systolic acceleration time.

- Increased diastolic flow.
- The velocity of flow distal to the occlusion is lower than hyperemic flow in normal vessels (Figure 8.16a).
- Collateral circulation:
  - Alternative pathways (collateral flow) may bypass stenosis or occlusion, altering expected waveform changes.
  - Good collateral circulation can compensate for severe disease, influencing resistance and waveform shape.

## **Venous Flow (Page 167)**

- Veins transport blood back to the heart, aided by bicuspid valves that prevent retrograde flow.
  - Distal veins have more valves compared to proximal ones.
- Venous return mechanisms:
  - o Pressure changes from the cardiac cycle influence venous flow.

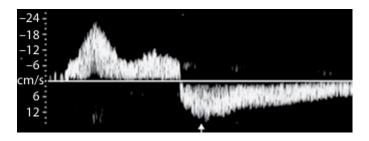


- Respiration affects venous return (Figure 8.18).
- o Posture changes and calf muscle pump action enhance flow.
- Central venous system effects:
  - Right atrial volume changes impact venous flow and pressure.
  - **Proximal arm and neck veins** show **pulsatile flow patterns** in Doppler spectra due to proximity to the chest.
  - Lower limb and peripheral arm veins are less affected by cardiac cycle due to vein compliance, which dampens pressure changes.
  - Venous valves and intra-abdominal pressure shifts during respiration also influence venous flow, particularly in distal veins.

## Venous Flow (Page 168)

- Respiration and Venous Return:
  - Thoracic volume changes (due to diaphragm and rib movement) assist venous return
  - Inspiration expands the thorax, increasing venous flow into the chest.
  - Expiration decreases flow into the chest while increasing flow from the legs to the abdomen.
  - These changes are observed as **phasic flow variations** in the **Doppler spectrum of proximal veins** (e.g., **common femoral vein**) (Figure **8.18**).
- Effect of Posture on Venous Flow:
  - Lying supine: Small pressure difference between ankle veins and right atrium.
  - Standing: Increased hydrostatic pressure gradient, requiring the calf muscle pump to assist venous return.
  - The calf muscle pump:
    - Compresses deep veins and venous sinuses to force blood toward the heart.
    - Valves prevent backward flow.
    - Creates a pressure gradient between superficial and deep veins, ensuring proper drainage.
- Venous Valve Failure and Reflux:

- Incompetent venous valves result in retrograde flow, reducing calf muscle pump efficiency.
- Leads to increased venous pressure after muscle relaxation.
- Chronic venous hypertension can contribute to venous ulcers.



- Colour flow imaging and spectral Doppler are used to detect venous incompetence, seen as retrograde flow after calf compression (Figure 8.19).
- Venous outflow obstruction is identified by the loss of normal spontaneous phasic flow on Doppler.