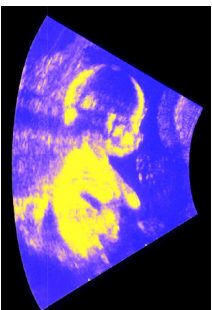


## BME2 – Biomedical Ultrasonics

### *Lecture 5: Medical Ultrasound Imaging*



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*Acknowledgments: Prof. Ronald A. Roy, George Eastman Visiting Professor 2006-07*



Department of Engineering Science

## **Contents**

- 5.1. A brief history of ultrasound imaging
- 5.2. Basic element of a B-Mode scanner and scanning methods
- 5.3. Transmit electronics and beam forming
- 5.4. Ultrasound propagation: diffraction, absorption and scattering
- 5.5. Receive beam forming and time-gain compensation
- 5.6. Filtering, detection and display

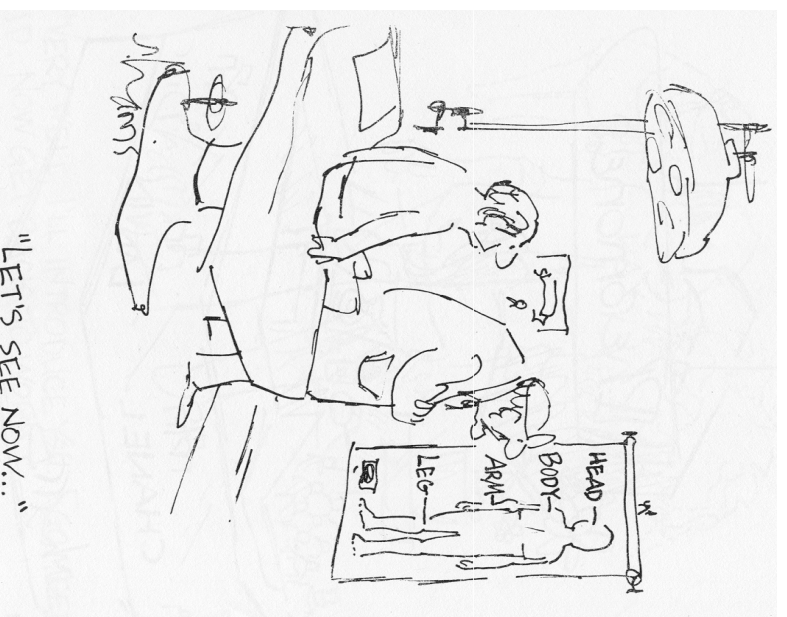
## References

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- Firestone, F. A., "The supersonic reflectoscope for interior inspection," *Metal Prog.* 48:505-512, 1945.
- Holmes, J. H. "Diagnostic ultrasound during the early years of the A.I.U.M.," *J. Clin. Ultrasound* 8:299-308, 1980.
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- T.L. Szabo, *Diagnostic Ultrasound Imaging - Inside Out*, Elsevier Academic Press, Boston, 2004 (ISBN: 978-0-12-680145-3)
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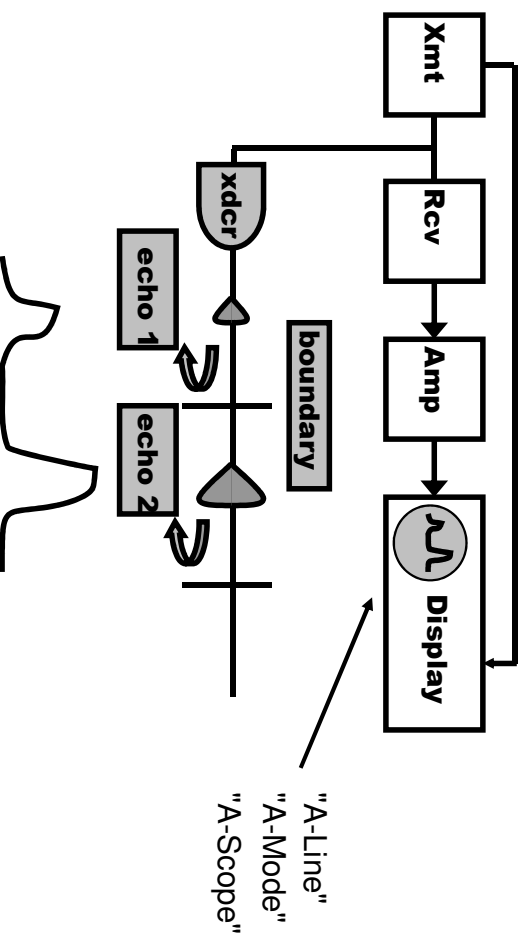
## First... a Little History About Imaging Ultrasound



Doc knows about as  
much anatomy as I  
do!

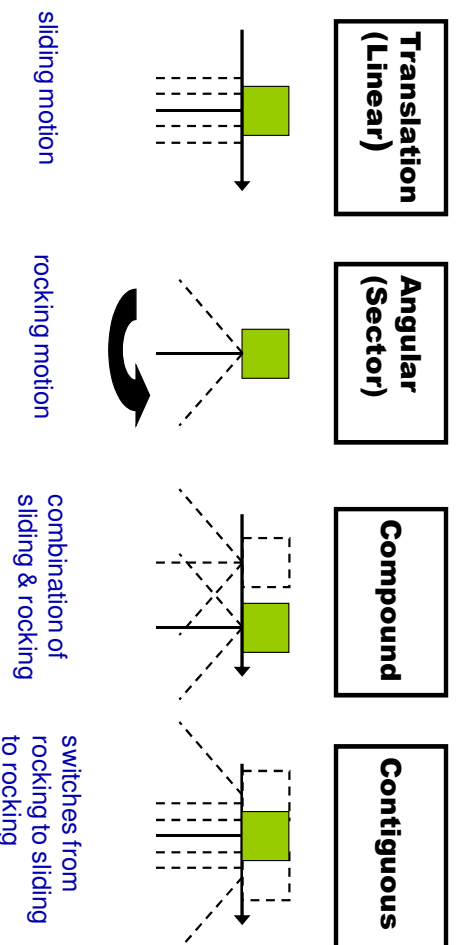
# Early Developments

- SONAR “Echo Ranging” at Ultrasound Frequencies
  - Firestone (1945) developed the “reflectoscope” and applied pulse ranging techniques to flaw detection



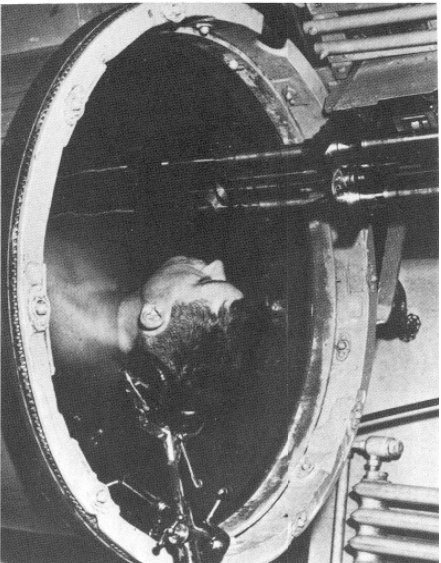
## Early Developments

- It didn't take long before someone thought to move the transducer - the 2-D "B-Mode" scan was born
  - Howey fitted a pulse echo transducer to a B-29 gun turret (Holmes, 1980); scanned a patient's neck along a circular arc
  - Early systems employed water baths
  - Wild and Reid developed first hand-held contact scanners (Wells, 1969)

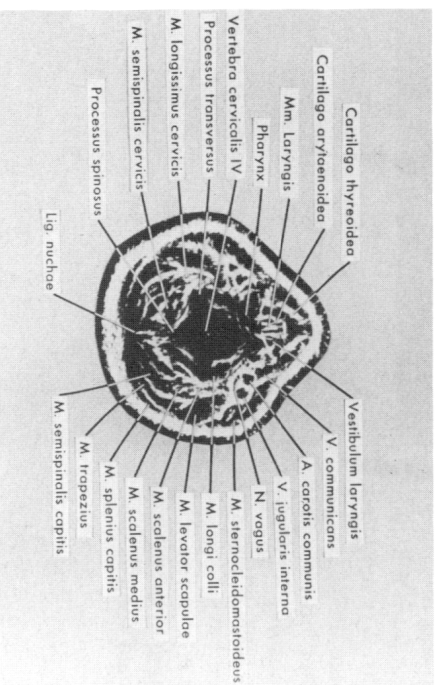


## Early Developments

### Hower's B-29 Ultrasonic Tomographic System



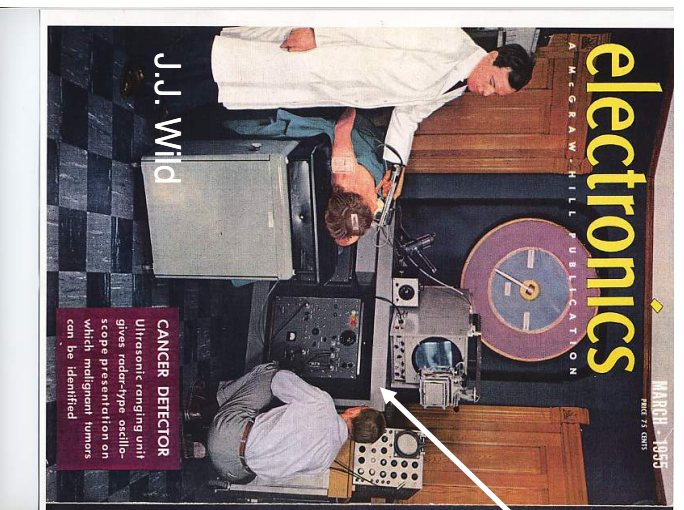
Lucky Patient



Annotated "Image" of the Neck

Adapted from Szabo (2004)

## Milestone Imaging Systems



Radar Equipment!

J. Reid

J.J. Wild

Early Mechanically Scanned System

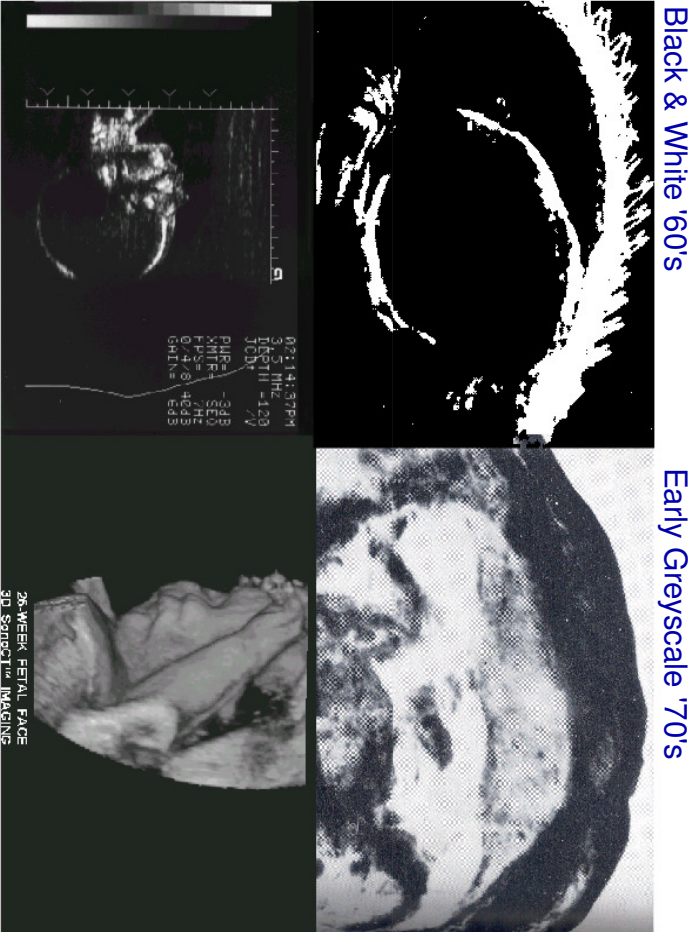


Early Phased Array System  
"HP 70020A"



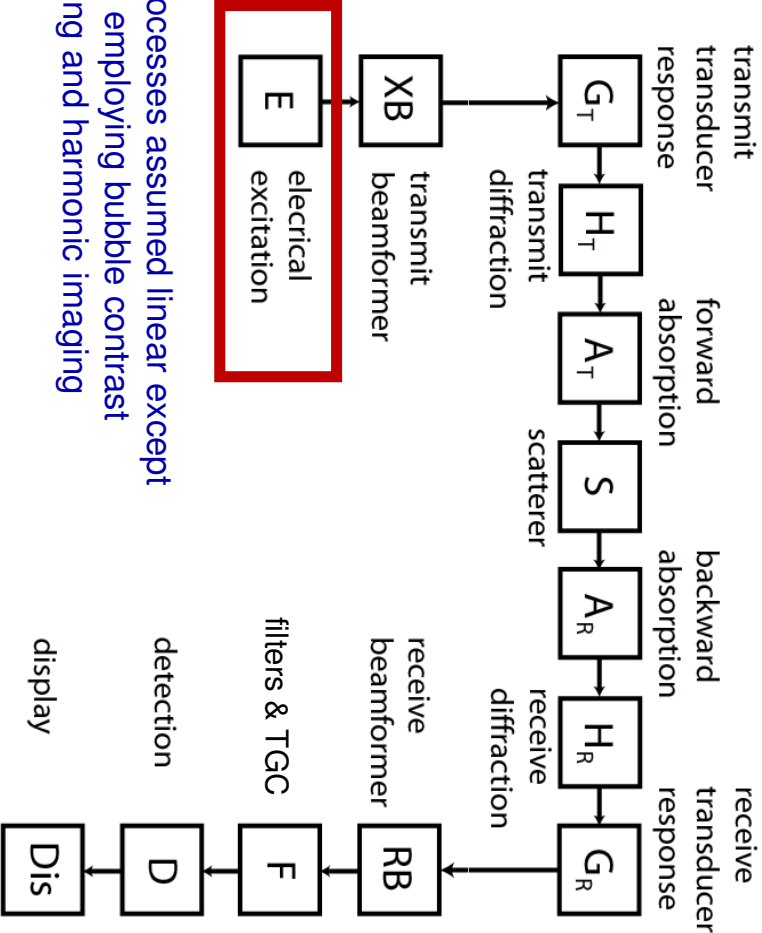
# Milestone Images

## Four Views of a Fetus



# The Imaging Roadmap

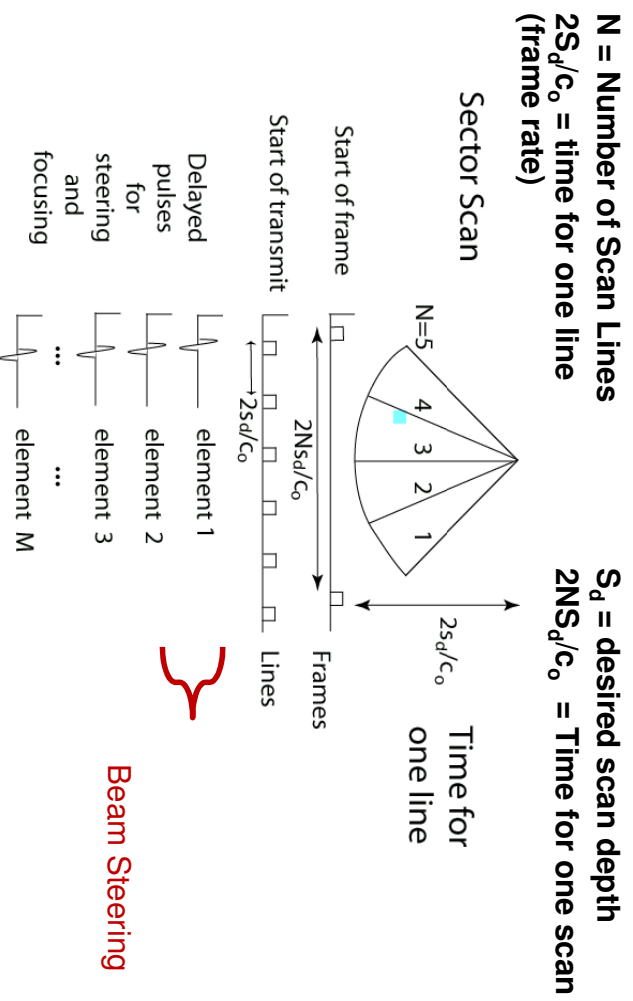
## The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway



All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging

## Step 1: Electrical Excitation

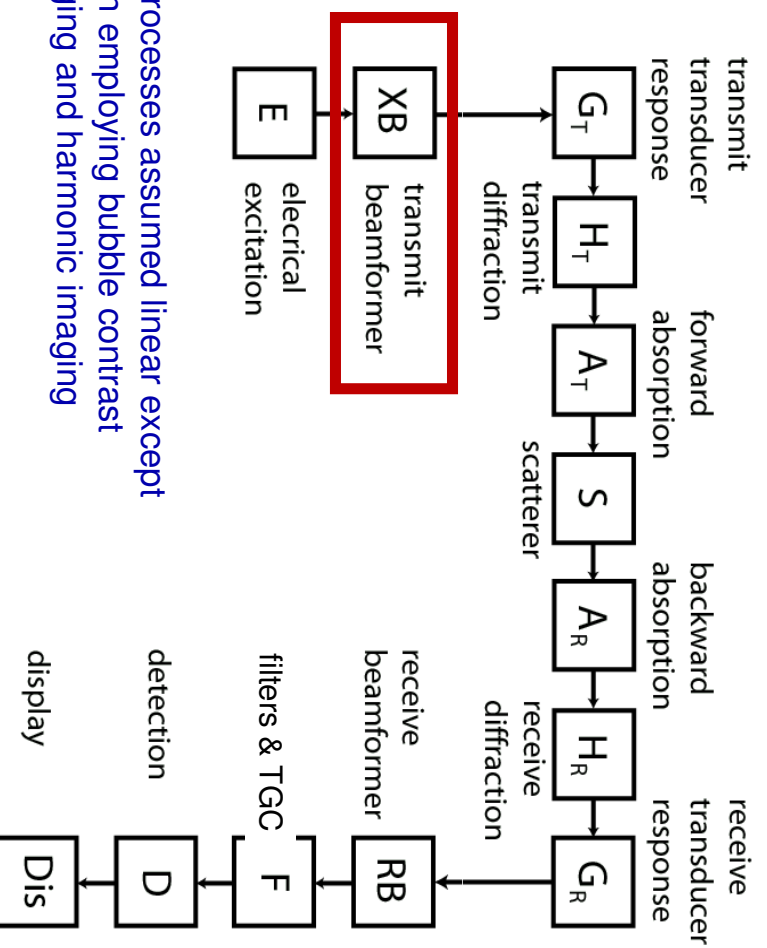
- Primitive Excitation Pulses Consist of Precisely Timed Single-Cycle Pulses or Multiple-Cycle Pulses



## The Imaging Roadmap

### The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway

Adapted from Szabo (2004)



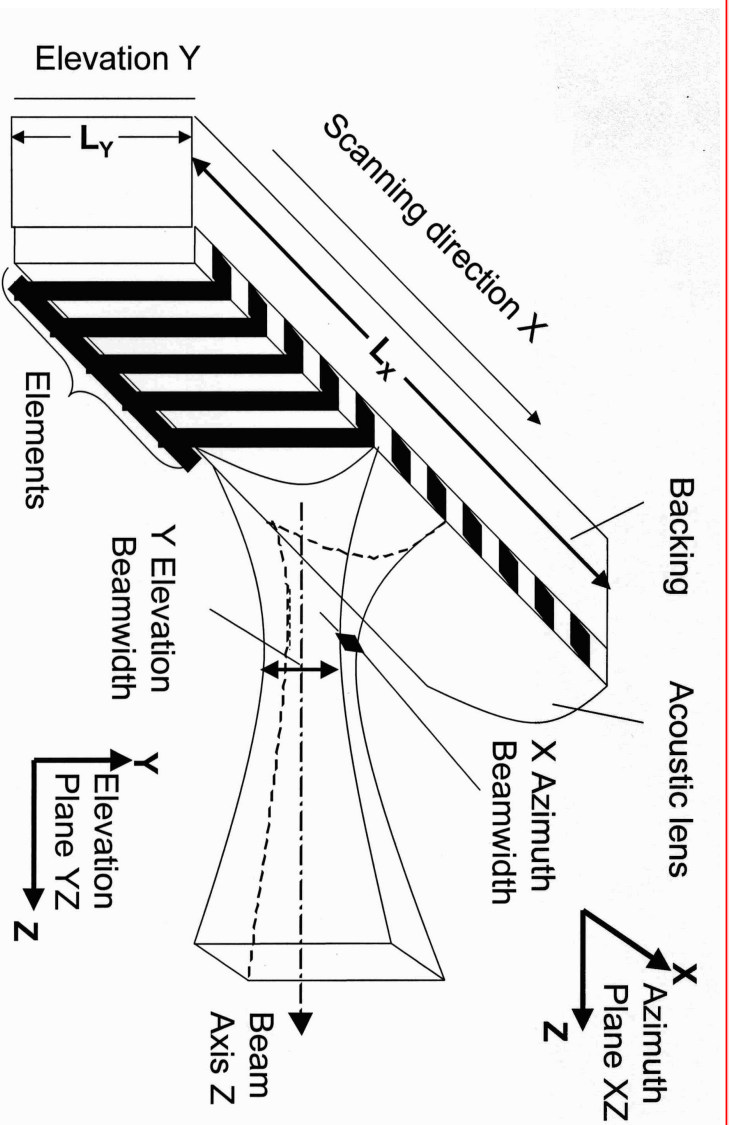
All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging

## Step 2: Transmit Beamformer

- Arrays consist of many small elements as opposed to large continuous apertures
- Each element is excited by signals delayed (phased) to steer and focus the beam electronically in the "scan" or "azimuth" plane
- A fixed focus lens provides focusing in the elevational plane
- By varying the delays to individual elements you can both focus the beam and direct its' axis.
- Beams can be radially scanned or linearly scanned
- **Beamforming on receive proceeds in the same way as on transmit**
  - You delay the received signals
  - You linearly sum the delayed signals

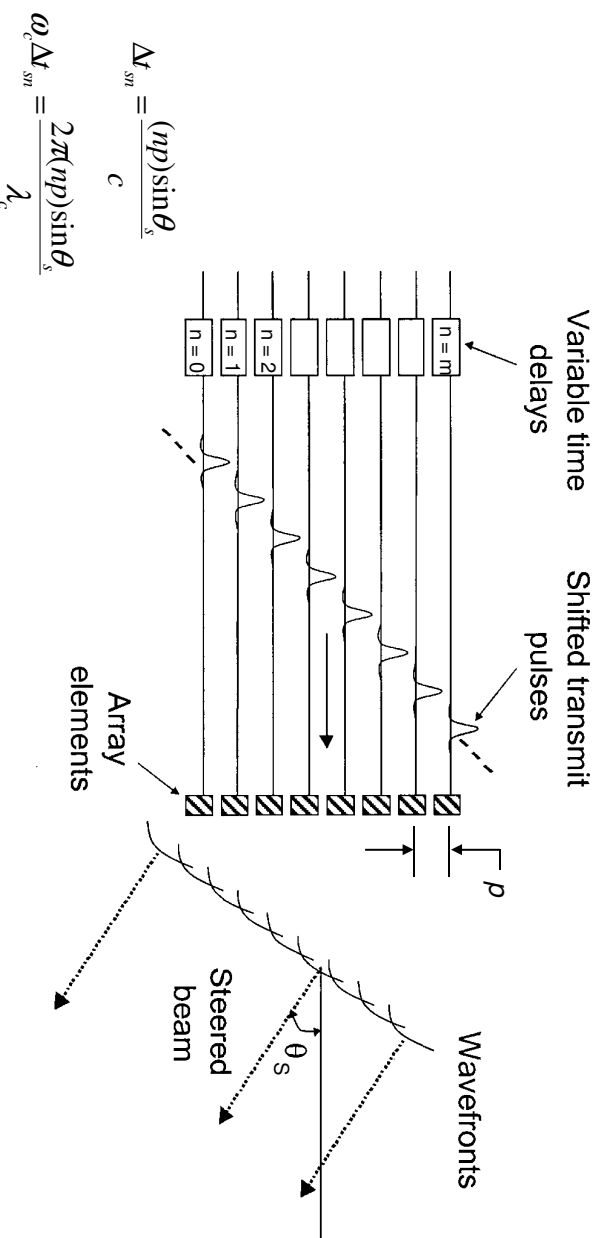
Adapted from Panda (1988) via Szabo (2004)

## Linear Array Geometry



# Phase Delay Beamsteering

- Introduce a linear time (phase) delay across the array elements corresponding to a wavefront at angle  $\theta_s$  from the Z axis.

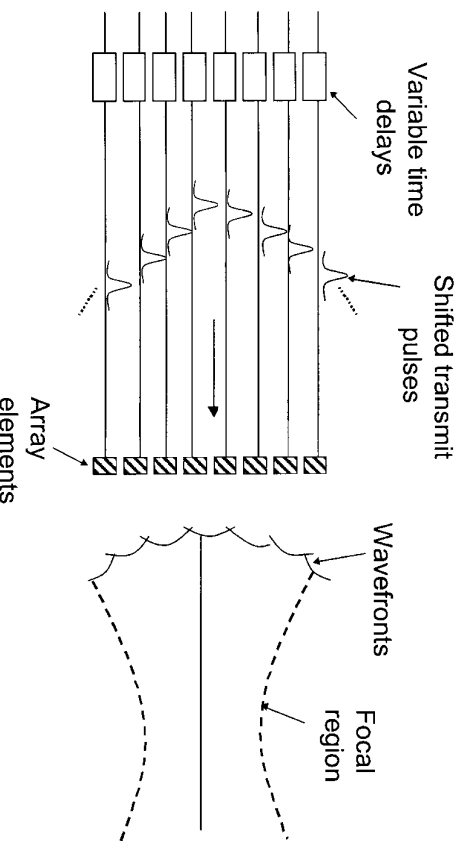


From Szabo (2004)

## Phase Delay Focusing

- Arrays can be focused by adding time delays that simulate the curved wavefront
- $r$  = distance from origin to focal point
- $x_n$  = distance from origin to center of nth element ( $np$ )
- $t_o$  = constant delay added to avoid negative delays

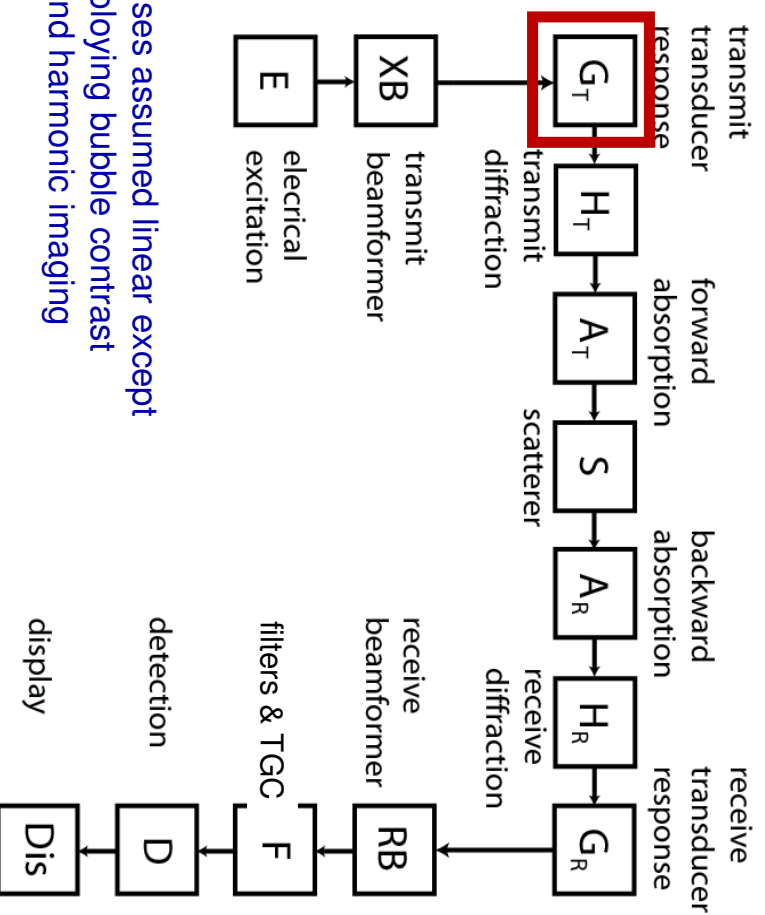
$$\tau_n = \frac{\left[ r - \sqrt{(x_r - x_n)^2 + z_r^2} \right]}{c} + t_o$$





# The Imaging Roadmap

## The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway

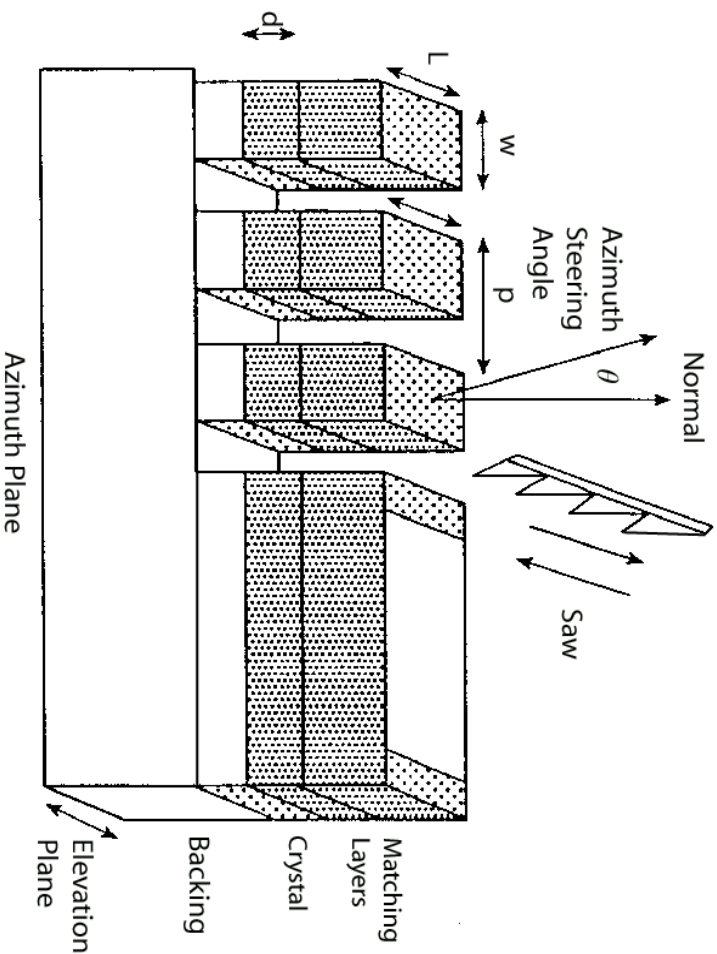


All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging

## Step 3: Transducer Considerations

- Most arrays employ piezoelectric elements characterized by a resonance frequency and Q determined by material properties and construction.
  - Geometry and shape of piezoelectric material
  - Crystallographic orientation of PZT
  - Electrode placement
- Most arrays are stacked layers with large surface area bonded onto a backing pedestal
- The sandwich is cut into rows using a saw
  - Space between elements is the "kerf"
  - Width of the elements is given by "w"
  - Distance between element centers is the "pitch",  $p$  (typically  $1/2$  a wavelength)
- The cut elements are then covered by a cylindrical lens for elevational focusing

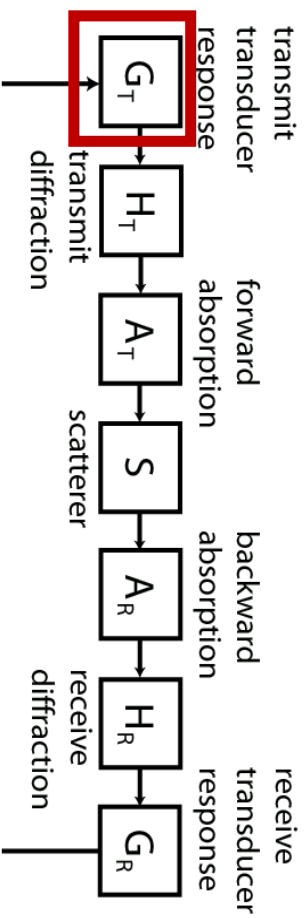
# Step 3: Transducer Considerations



Adapted from Szabo (2004)

## The Imaging Roadmap

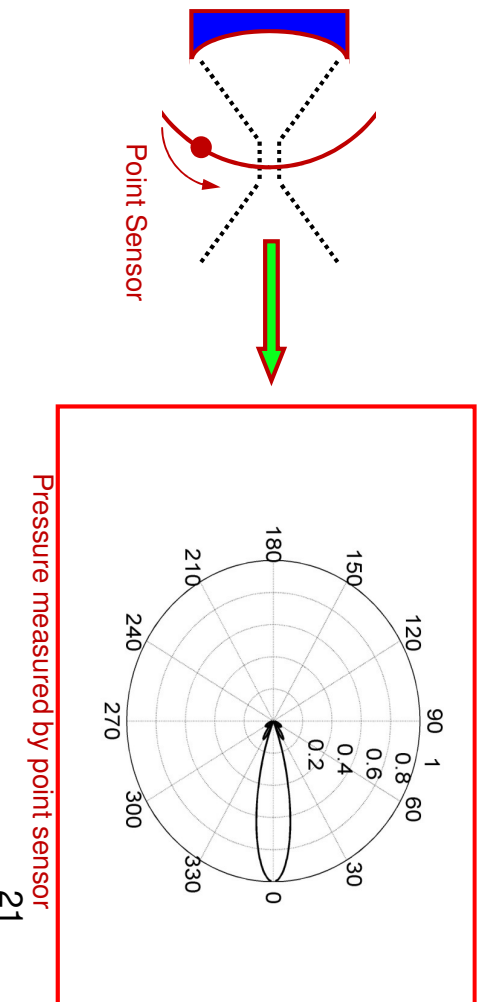
### The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway



Damping	Pulse Length	Band Width	Quality Factor	Efficiency	Best Used For...
Low	Long (20 cycles)	Narrow	High (order 20)	High	Therapy
High	Short (1.5 cycles)	Broad	Low (order 1)	Low	Imaging

## An Important Principle: Reciprocity

- In its most elementary form the acoustic reciprocity principle states that an acoustic response remains the same when the source and receiver are interchanged
- A useful corollary: The **acoustic** response of a linear transducer is the same on receive as it is on transmit



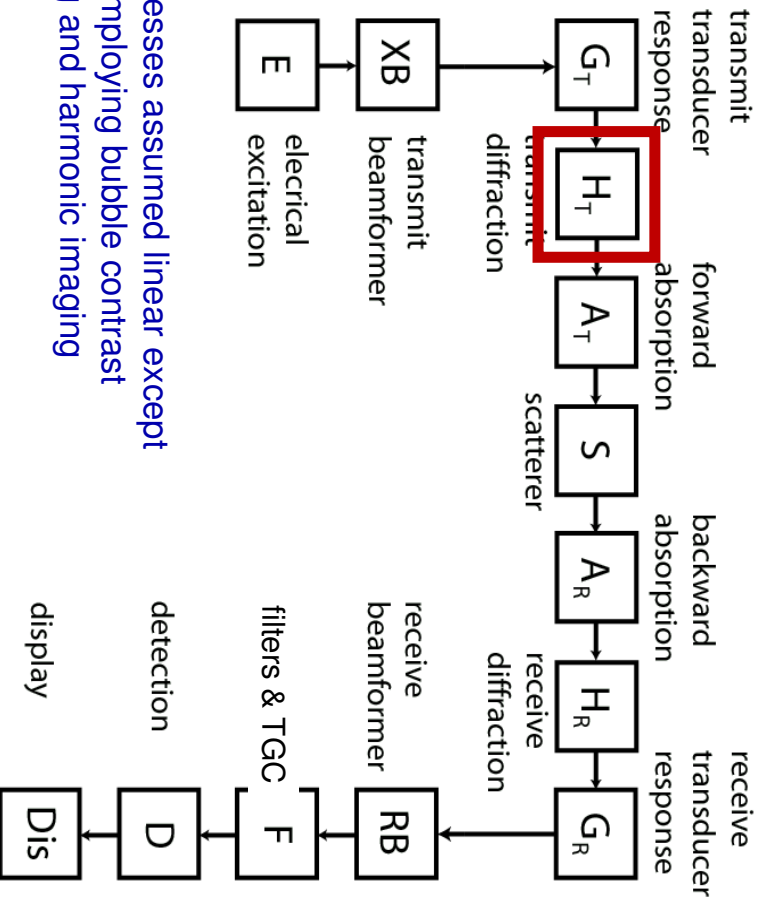
## Competing Transducer Characteristics

### Imaging vs Therapy

- **Axial resolution is given by the spatial pulse length**
  - B-mode imaging: 1-2 cycle pulse length
  - Doppler-mode imaging: 5-10 cycle pulse
  - Imaging transducers therefore possess a low quality factor
    - Lots of damping (inefficient)
    - Operate at low duty cycles to minimize heating and adverse bioeffects
- **Therapy arrays must generate high peak acoustic intensities**
  - Axial resolution given by focusing
  - CW or very long pulses
  - Tight focusing requires a large aperture
  - High efficiency requires low damping (high quality factor)
- **A tradeoff exists**
  - Good imaging transducers are poor therapy transducers, and vice versa
  - Image-guided therapy scan-heads usually employ separate transducers for imaging and therapy

# The Imaging Roadmap

## The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway



All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging

## Step 4: Transmit Diffraction

- Radiating sources on the scale of a wavelength create a field described by the mutual interference of "wavelets" generated along the source surface.
  - Subdivide the continuous source into an array of point sources
  - Each point source is acoustically compact and generates spherical wave fronts
  - Sum these individual fields together to yield the radiated pressure field

- Rayleigh-Sommerfeld integral (Goodman, 1968)

$$\phi(r, \omega, t) = \frac{-1}{2\pi} \int_S \frac{e^{i[\omega \cdot \vec{r} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}_o]}}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_o|} v_n(r_o) dS$$

- Where  $v_n(r_o)$  is the surface-normal component of the particle velocity and S is the radiating surface

## Step 4: Transmit Diffraction

---

- Let  $A_n(r_o)$  be the distribution of normal particle velocity across S, then

$$v_n(r_o) = V A_n(r_o)$$

- Rayleigh-Sommerfeld integral becomes

$$p(r, \omega, t) = \frac{i \rho c k V}{2\pi} \int_S \frac{e^{i[\omega \vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_o)]}}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_o|} A_n(r_o) dS$$

- The Fresnel (or paraxial) approximation assumes that lateral dimensions are small compared with axial distances, thus

$$|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_o| \approx z$$

## Step 4: Transmit Diffraction

---

- Therefore:

$$p(r, \omega, t) = \frac{i \rho c k V}{2\pi z} e^{i\omega z} \int_S e^{i[\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}]} A_n(r_o) dS$$

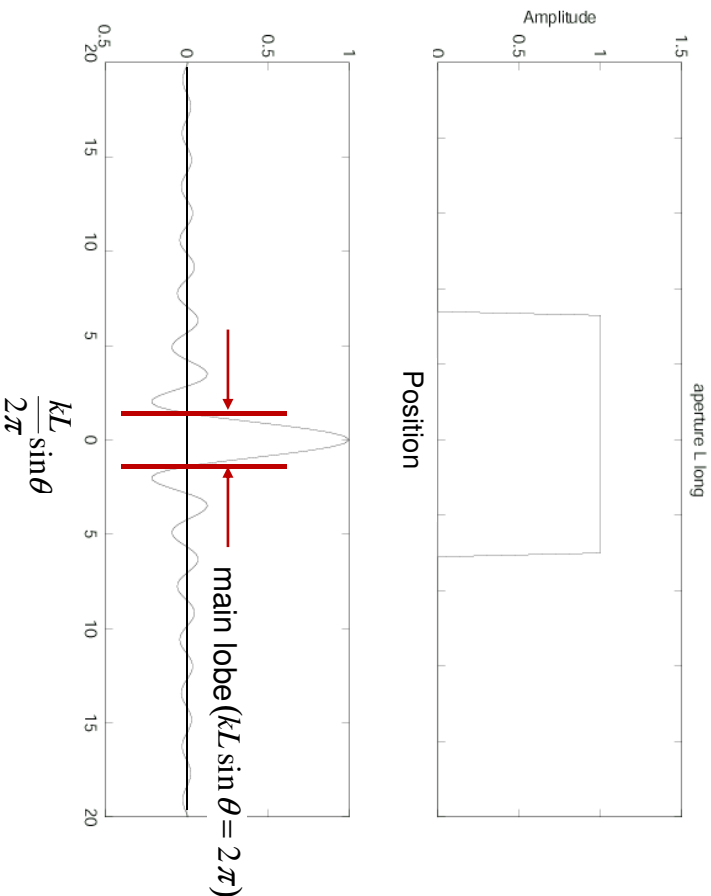
- The far field radiation pattern for a transducer looks something like the spatial Fourier transform of  $A_n(r_o)$  -- the "apodization" function.
- For a uniform line source of length L, the apodization function is the rectangular function. The transform is a sinc function. Can show that

$$p(\theta) \propto \sin\left(\frac{kL}{2\pi} \sin\theta\right) = \frac{\sin(\frac{1}{2} kL \sin\theta)}{\frac{1}{2} kL \sin\theta}$$

- Beam possesses a main lobe plus side lobe structure
- Acoustically small aperture -- small kL -- wide beam
- Acoustically large aperture -- large kL -- narrow beam

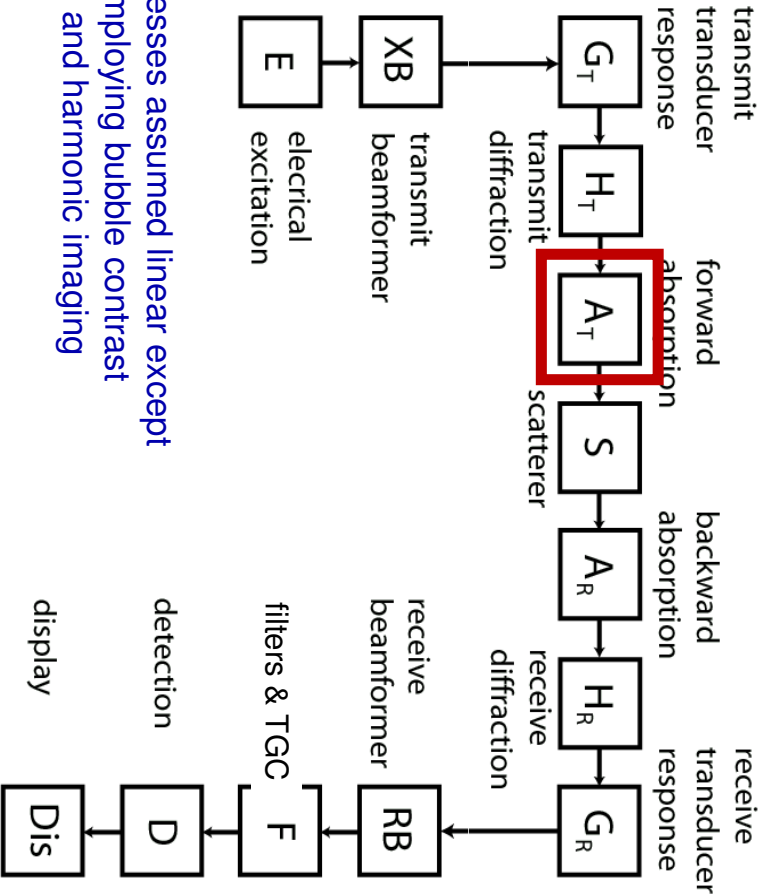


# Step 4: Transmit Diffraction



# The Imaging Roadmap

## The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway



All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging

## Step 5: Propagation Losses in Tissue

---

- Waves propagating in real media experience losses
  - Thermal conductivity
  - Viscous losses
  - Molecular relaxation
- These losses, along with scattering, remove energy from the propagating wave, a process known as attenuation.
  - A time harmonic propagating plane wave is written as

$$P(z,t) = P_0 e^{-\alpha z} e^{i(\omega t - kz)}$$

where alpha is the attenuation coefficient in nepers/cm. This is essentially a plane wave with a loss factor that increases exponentially with distance.

- Because imaging is done with pulse echoes, it is useful to consider the effect of attenuation on pulse waveforms as well as intensities
  - Understanding frequency-dependent attenuation is key

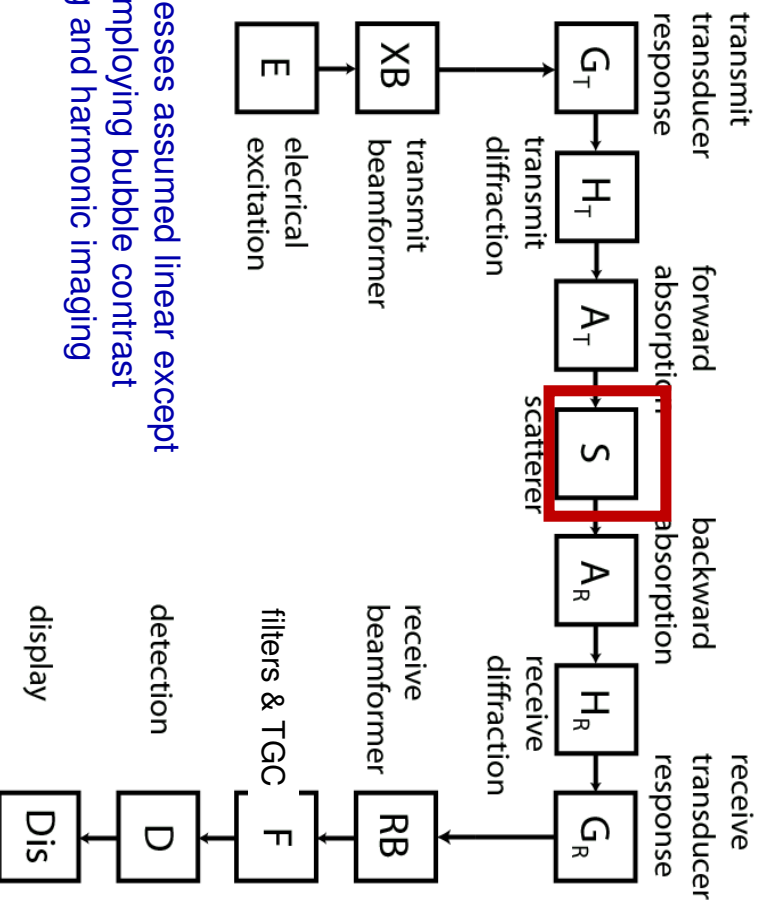
## Step 5: Propagation Losses in Tissue

---

- Visco-thermal absorption has quadratic frequency dependence
- Not the case for propagation through tissues
  - Power law attenuation model:  $\alpha(f) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 f^y$
  - Dispersion  $c(f) = c_0 + \Delta c(f)$
- General rule of thumb for power law attenuation:  $y \approx 1.1$ 
  - Duck (1990) has compiled data for a number of different tissues
  - Scattering contributes to measured attenuation
    - About 10-15% of total attenuation at low MHz frequencies
- Deviation from viscothermal behavior is not fully understood
  - Viscoelastic rheology, multiple relaxation times, etc
  - Beyond scope of lecture: See Szabo (2004) for a detailed discussion

# The Imaging Roadmap

## The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway



All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging

## Step 6: The Scattering Medium

- **What information is contained in an ultrasound image?**
  - Spatially dependent backscatter and transmission "properties" of the propagation medium
    - Interfaces
    - Volume scattering
    - Transmission and forward scatter impacts returns from objects "downstream"
  - This information is further "colored" by systemic characteristics
    - Transducer spatial and temporal response
    - Signal processing algorithms
    - Image processing algorithms
    - Frequency-dependent propagation losses
    - Nonlinearity
- Radiologists are needed to bridge the gap between what you see on the screen and the diagnosis of illness

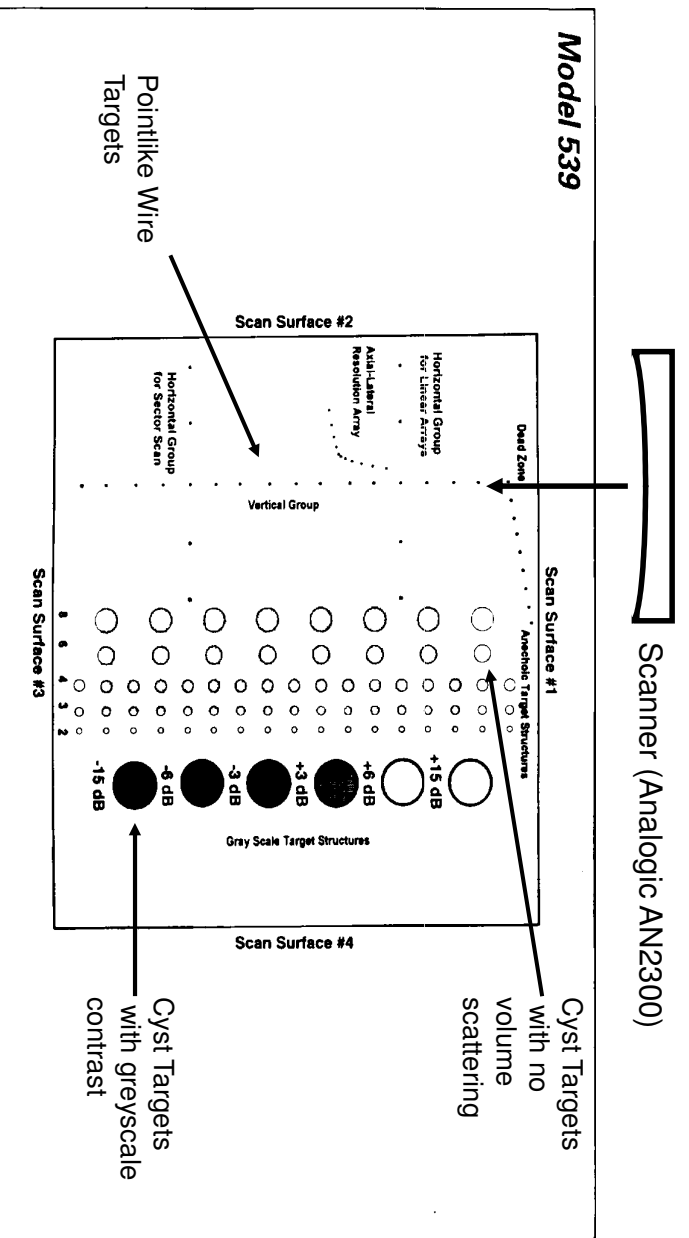
## Step 6: The Scattering Medium

### Tissues present scatterers possessing several length scales

- **Class 1: Objects much smaller than  $\lambda$  - diffusive scattering**
  - Rayleigh scattering from individual particles (Morse & Ingard, 1968)
  - Pronounced frequency dependence ( $I_s$  proportional to  $f^4$ )
  - Discrete returns are not resolved - you get volume scattering
  - **Contrast based on compressibility and density of the particles and the number density of scattering particles -- not changes in bulk acoustic impedance**
- **Class 2: Objects on the order of  $\lambda$  - diffractive scattering**
  - Discrete returns with complicated angle and frequency dependence
  - Governed by matching boundary conditions -- continuity of normal stress and normal velocity -- at the surface of the scatterer (Morse & Ingard, 1968)
  - Invoke the Born approximation
- **Class 3: Objects and interfaces much larger than  $\lambda$  - specular reflection**
  - Manifested as discrete returns that obey Snell's law
  - **Contrast based primarily on the impedance mismatch at the boundary**
  - **Interfacial transmission loss matters too!**

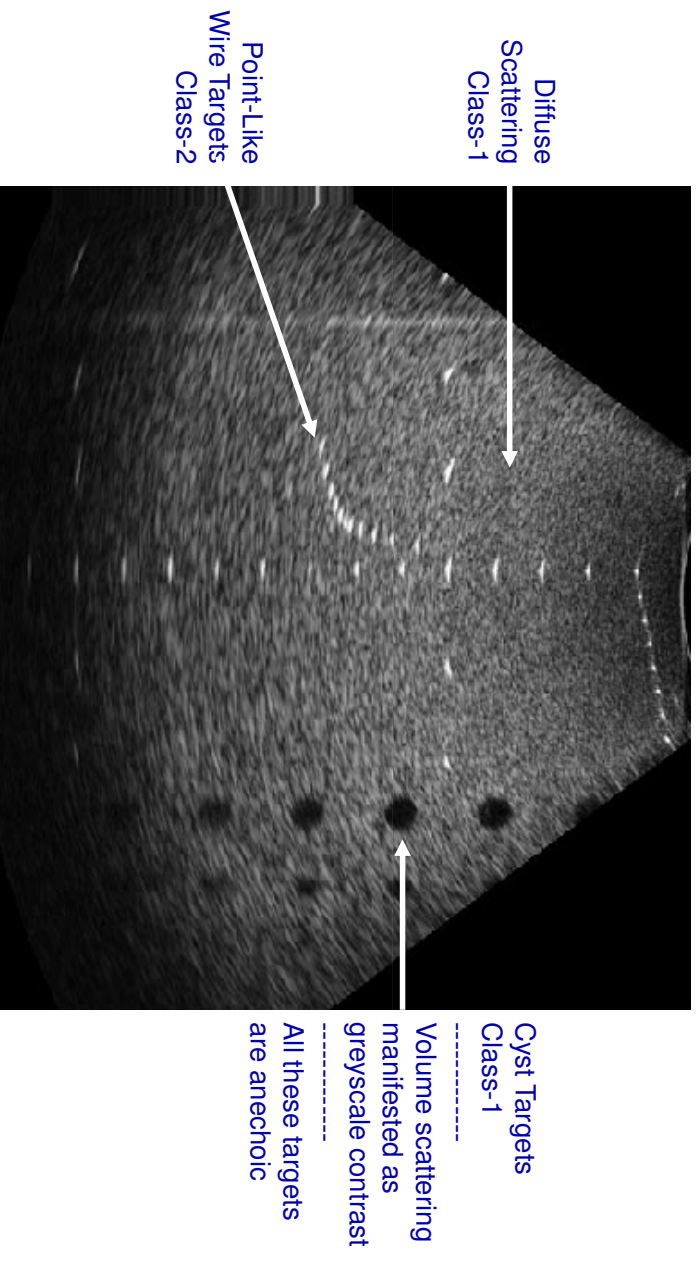
## Step 6: The Scattering Medium

### Geometry of A.T.S. Labs Calibration Phantom



## Step 6: The Scattering Medium

### B-Mode Image of A.T.S. Labs Calibration Phantom

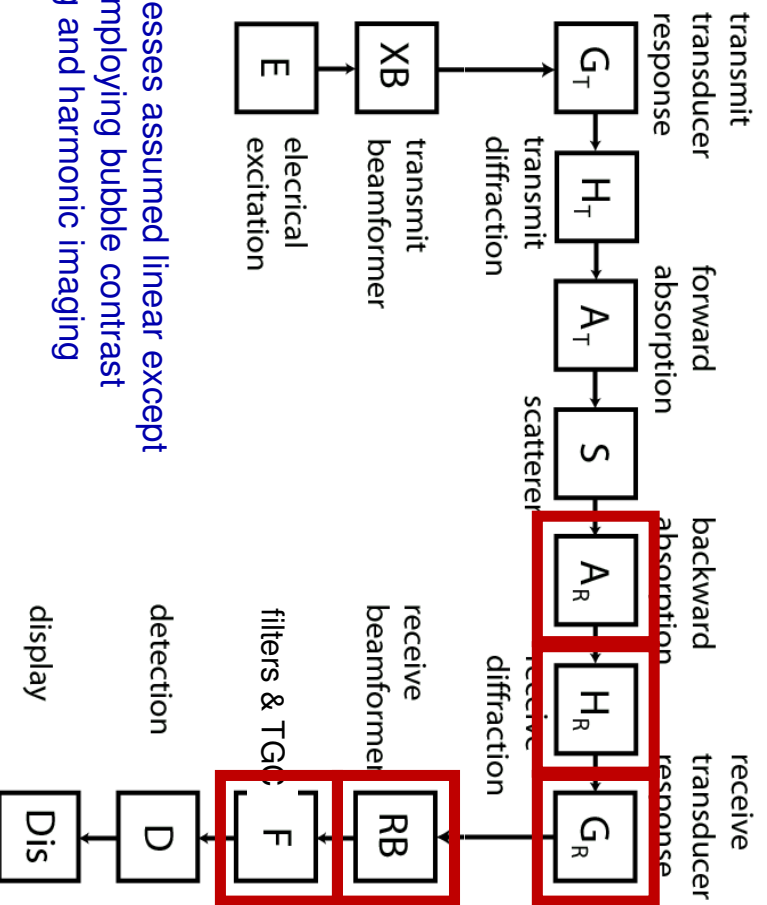


Analogic AN2300 equipped with a 5 MHz convex array scanhead

Adapted from Szabo (2004)

## The Imaging Roadmap

### The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway

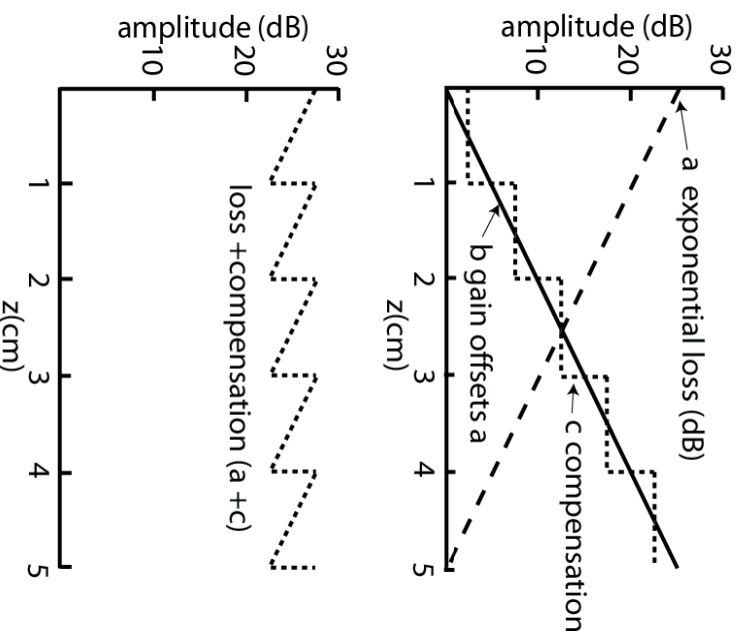


All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging



## Step 11: Correcting for Attenuation Loss Time Gain Compensation

- Divide the image into a **stack of separate strips**
  - Horizontal strips (linear scan format)
  - Concentric arcs (sector scanned format)
- Data arriving in time windows corresponding to each strip is fed to a different receive preamplifier stage
- Set the TGC gains to offset average loss in each zone

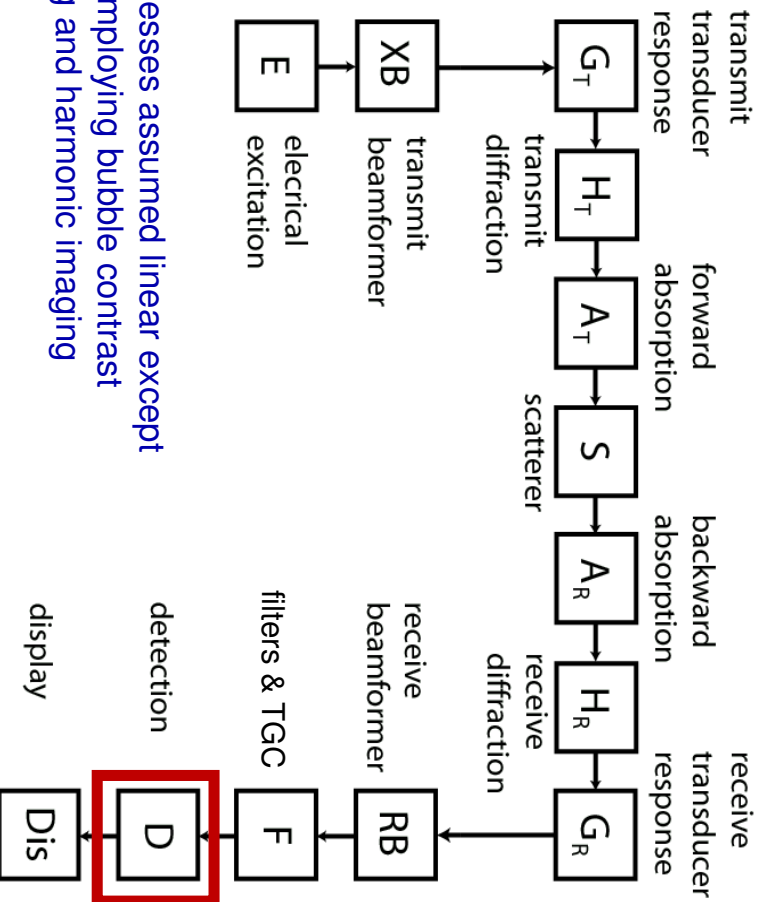


## Step 11: Filtering

- Low-pass anti-aliasing filter
- Bandpass filter centered at  $\omega_0$  for conventional B-Mode imaging
- Bandpass filter centered at  $2\omega_0$  for harmonic imaging

# The Imaging Roadmap

## The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway

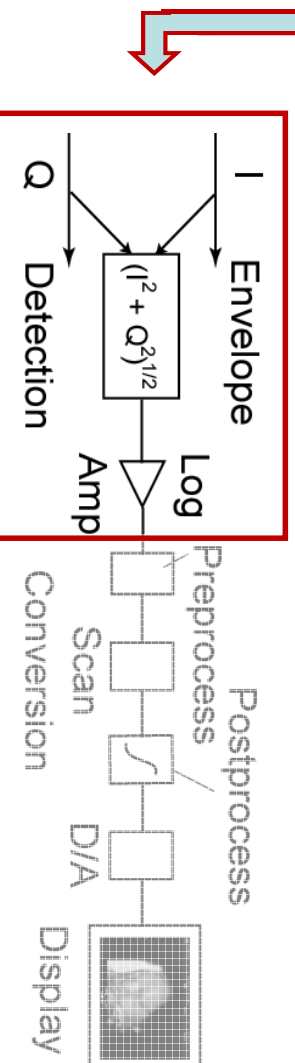


All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging

Adapted from Szabo (2004)

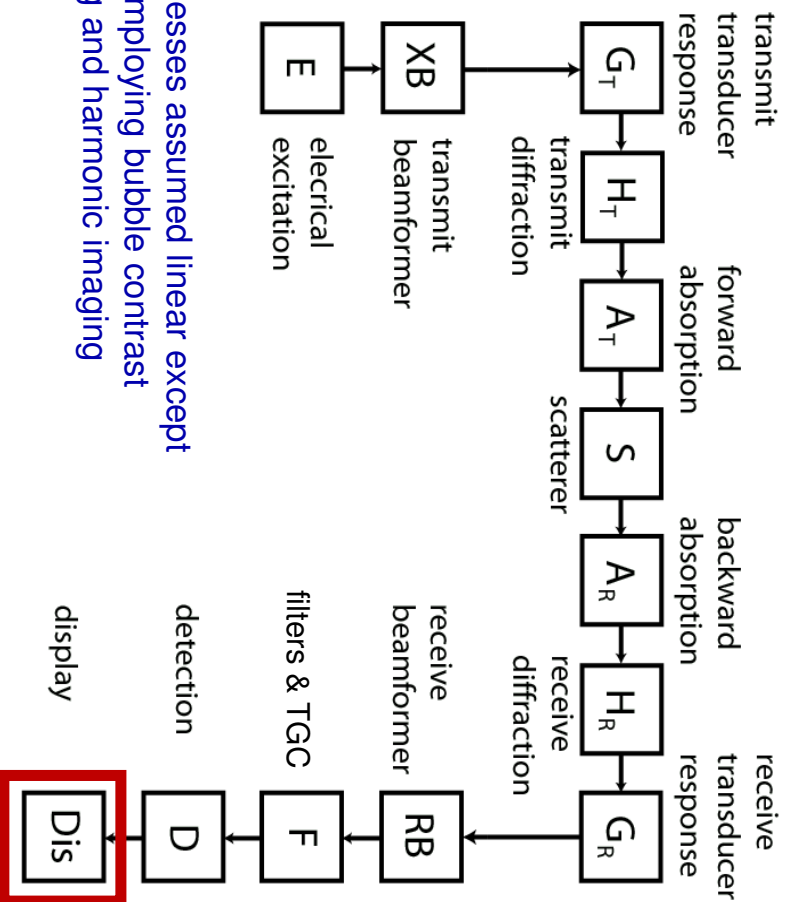
## Step 12: Detection

- **Filtered beamformed signal is envelope detected**
  - Done in analog using diode bridges (lose phase information)
  - Done in analog using a quadrature demodulator (preserves phase information -- good for Doppler)
  - Done digitally using a variety of techniques
- **Result is logarithmically compressed**
- **End up with an "A-line" in a known scan vector direction**



# The Imaging Roadmap

## The Diagnostic Imaging Signal Pathway

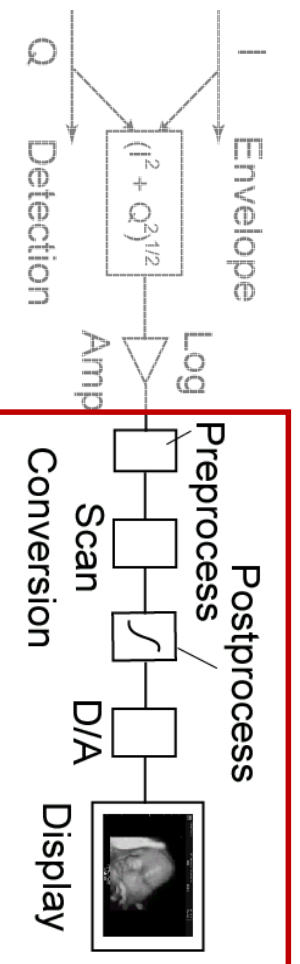


All processes assumed linear except when employing bubble contrast imaging and harmonic imaging

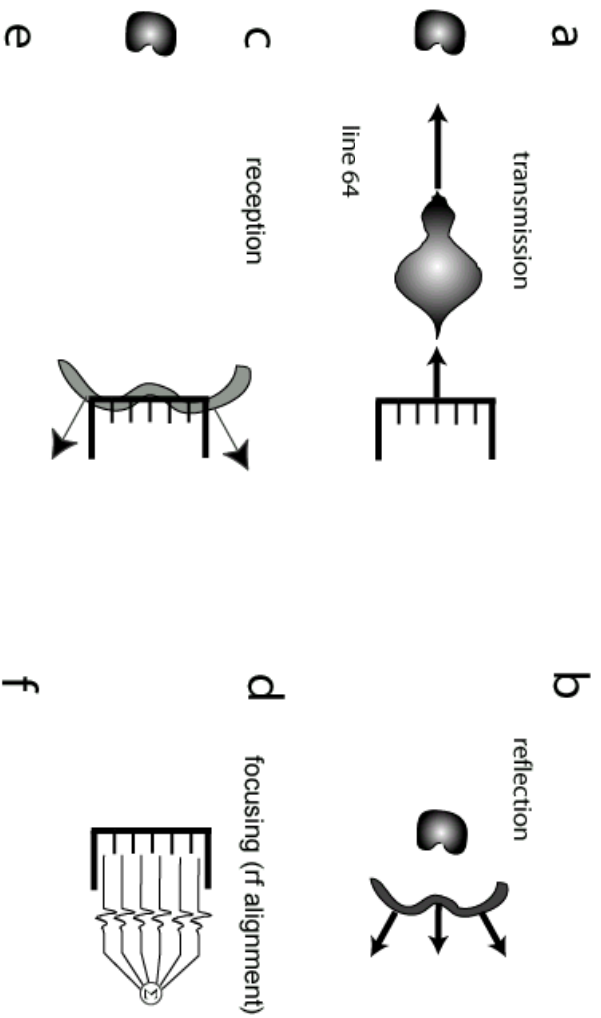
Adapted from Szabo (2004)

## Step 13: Display

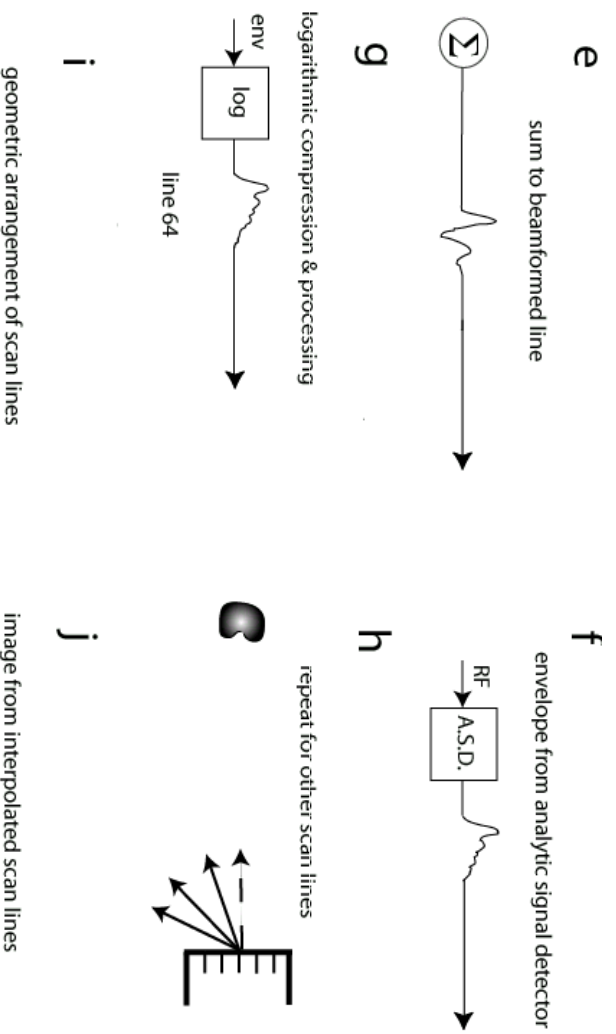
- Subsequent scan vectors are obtained and stored in memory
- All the lines are interpolated or "scan converted", forming a pulse-echo image where the lines are arranged in their proper geometrical orientation
- The image is converted to grey scale (represented compressed echo amplitude information) and displayed



# Recapitulation



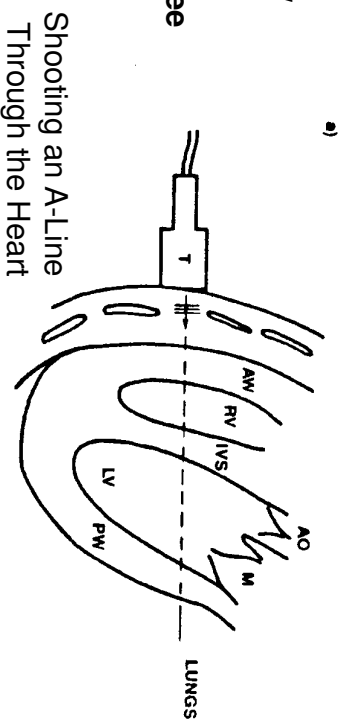
# Recapitulation



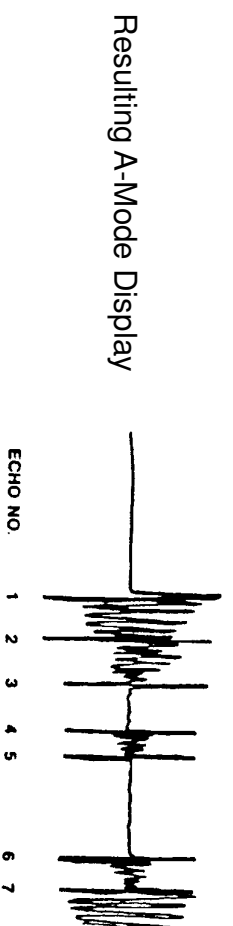
# Popular Imaging Modalities

- **A-Mode**

- Shoot a single line and view the depth (time) dependent returns.
- Similar to what you might see on an oscilloscope display, where time is converted to distance:  $\Delta z = c\Delta t$



b)



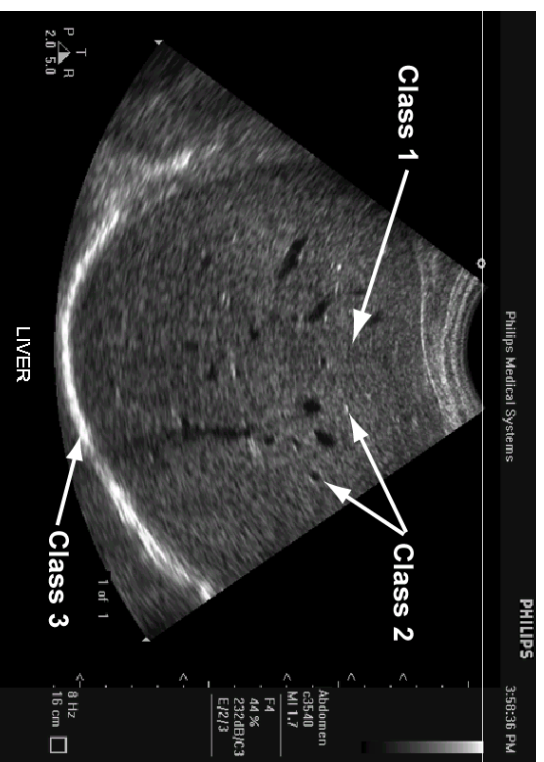
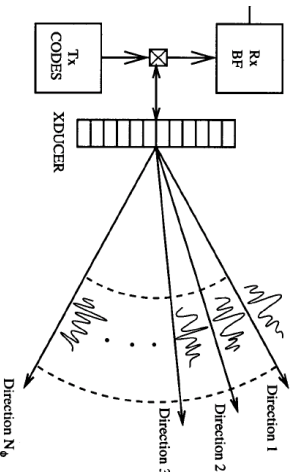
45

Philips Medical Systems

# Popular Imaging Modalities

- **B-Mode**

- Generate a series of scan lines in a plane (the imaging plane)
- The lines can be scanned linearly (linear scan) or angularly (sector scan).
- Propagation time is converted to distance:  $\Delta z = c\Delta t$
- Combine the scans to form a 2-D image.





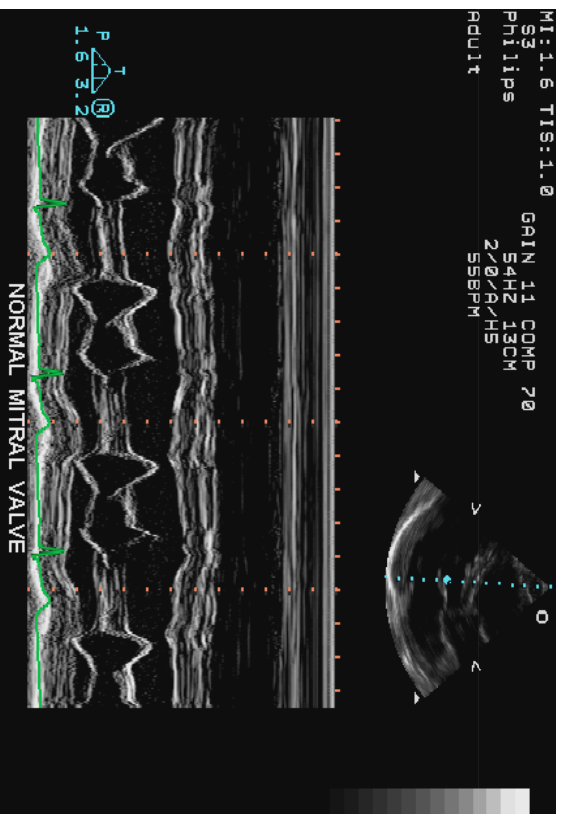
# Popular Imaging Modalities

- **M-Mode**

- x-y display where depth is y and x is a running display of the same imaging line shot over and over, and return amplitudes are encoded as brightness
- Displays a **time history of activity** (interface motion) for a given line
- Duplex M-Mode: displayed in conjunction with B scan

Duplex B-mode image and M-mode display of a mitral valve in the heart

The cardiac cycle is clearly evident in the M-mode display



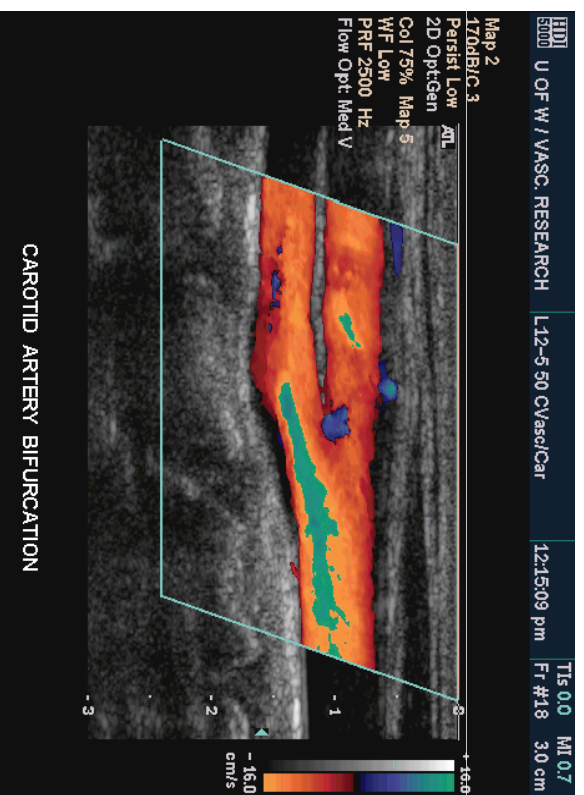
# Popular Imaging Modalities

- **Color Flow Doppler**

- A spatial map that depicts blood flow mean velocity with direction given by color
- The map is overlaid on a B-Mode image

Linear B-mode image with color Doppler overlaid

Contiguous imaging format (sector steering plus translation)



# Popular Imaging Modalities

- **Color M-Mode**
  - Standard M mode plus a color flow depiction of flow
  - Displays a time history of a single color flow line

Color Flow Doppler  
Image (top)

-----

Color M-Mode display  
(bottom)

