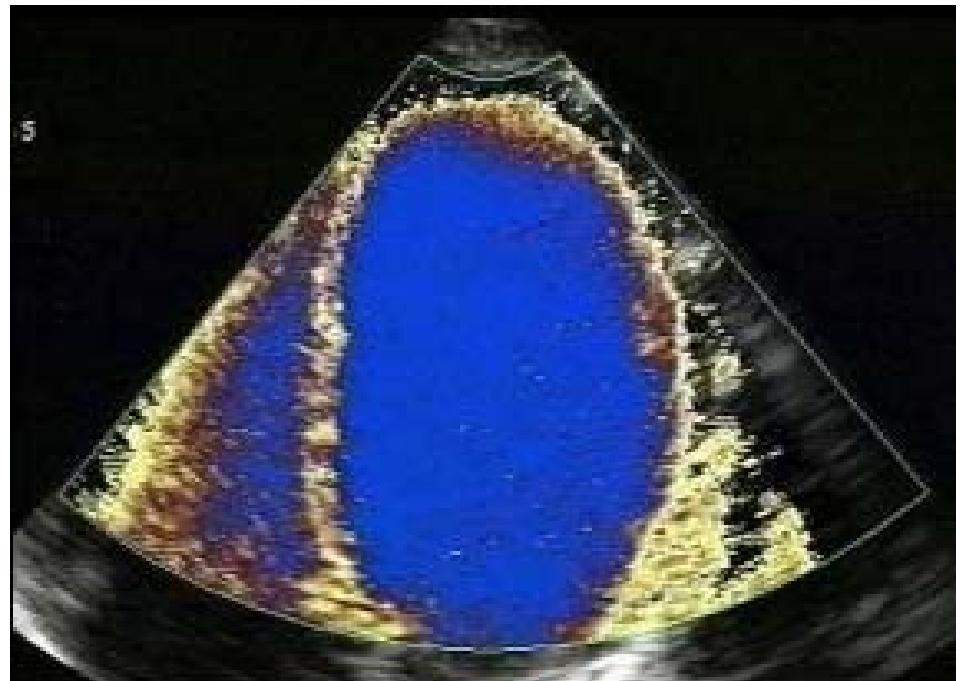


Medical Ultrasound

Contents:

- Physics of sound waves
- Ultrasound devices
- Signal processing
- Medical applications



Recommended book:

«Introduction to Medical Imaging»
Nadine Barrie Smith, Andrew Webb
Cambridge University Press, 2014

Based on lecture material from Prof. Urs Moser

Applications

Diagnostic:

- Echography (imaging tissue slices, > 30 frames/second))
- Doppler (measuring blood flow velocity)
- Bone densitometry

Frequency range: 1 to 50 MHz

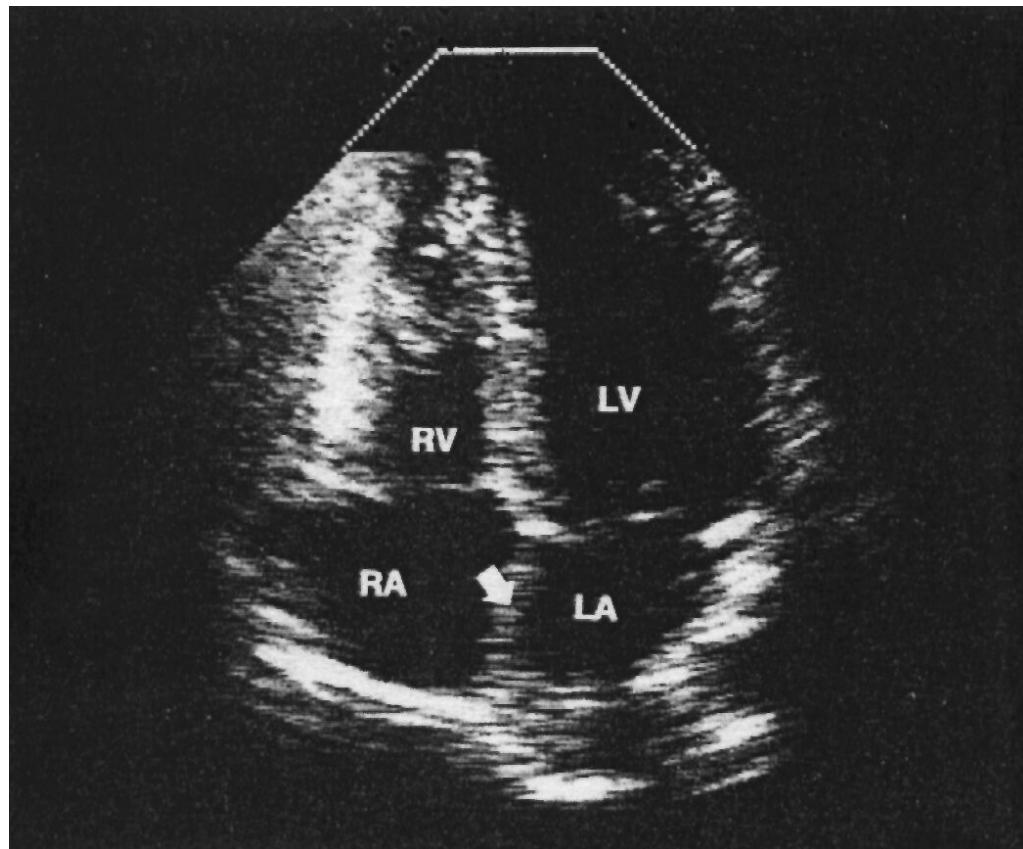
Wavelength in tissue: 1 mm down to 0.03 mm

Intensity: temporal mean 100mW/cm^2 (eye 20mW/cm^2), pulsed: 10 W/cm^2

Therapeutic:

- Lithotripter (disintegration of kidney stones)
- Thermal therapy (ligaments, tendons etc.)
- Ultrasound surgery (e.g. in the deep brain)

Diagnostic Ultrasound: Cardiology



2D image



3D image



3D image + Doppler

Diagnostic Ultrasound : Vessels

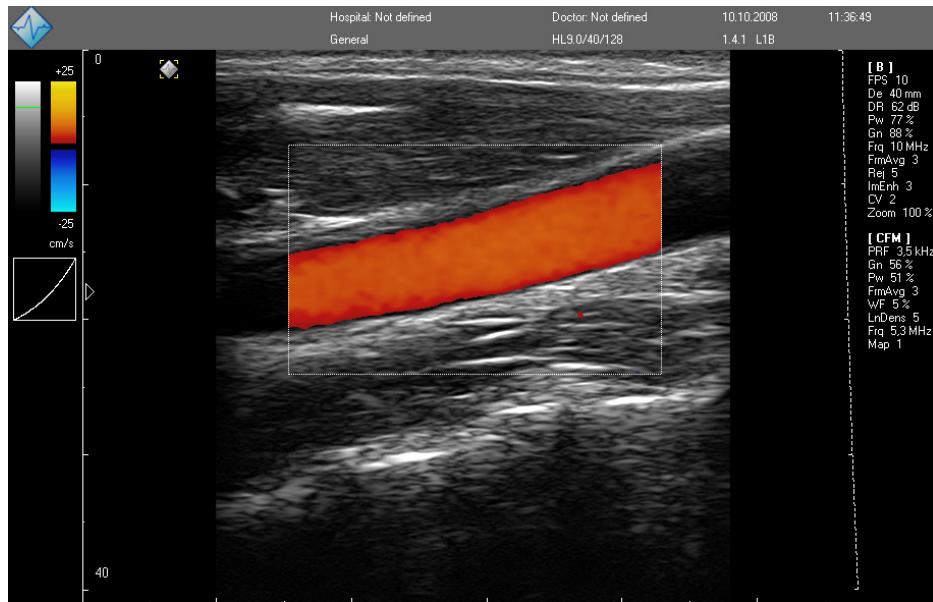
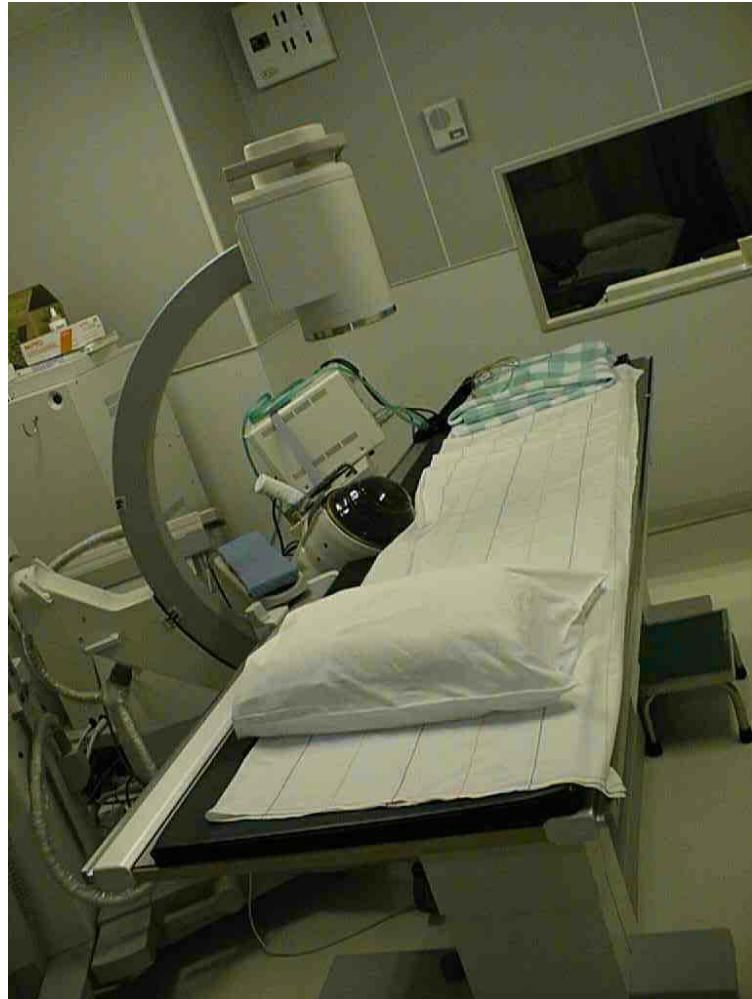


Image of vessel with blood flow



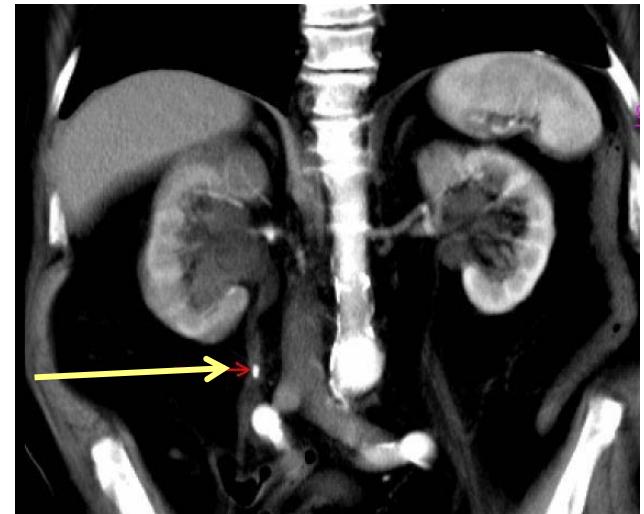
Vessel bifurcation

Therapeutic Ultrasound: Lithotripter



Lithotripsy device

Kidney stone
blocking ureter



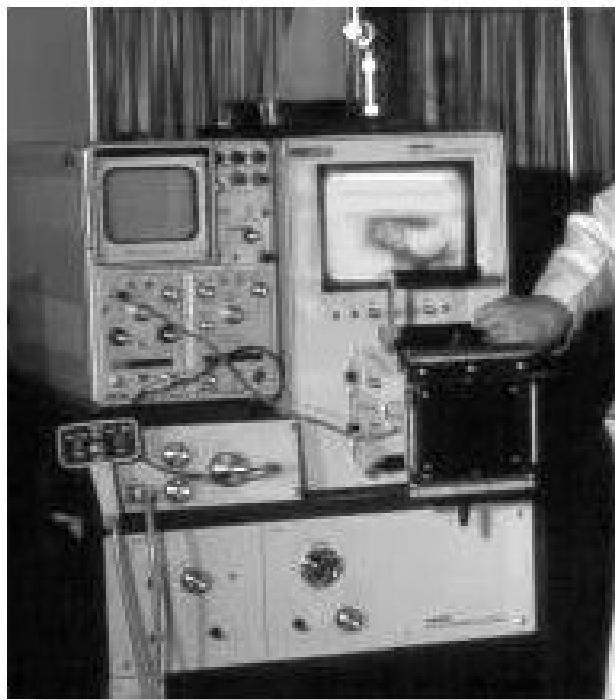
Kidney stone



History

- 1822 Daniel Coladon: Measures speed of sound in lake Geneva
- 1877 Lord Rayleigh: „The theory of sound“
- 1914 Langevin: first ultrasound generator using piezoelectric effect
- 1949 Ludwig, Struthers: detection of gall stones
- 1952 Howry: first slice images in water
- 1954 Edler, Hertz: adopt ultrasound cardiography
- 1957 Satomura: uses Doppler shift to detect heart beat
- 1958 Donald, Brown: 2D US diagnostics in obstetrics and inner medicine
- 1984 Baba: 3D ultrasound, fetal imaging
- since Continued development, powered by microelectronics

Development of Devices



about 1970



2005



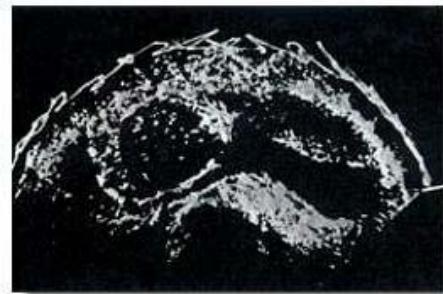
2010: pocket device

Development of Devices

2017

(<https://www.clarius.me>)

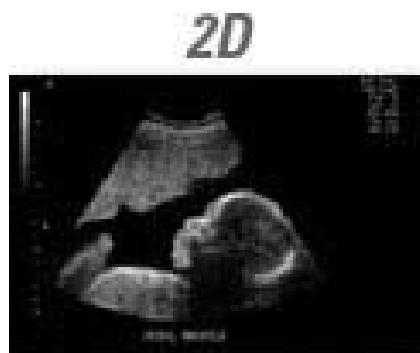
Development of Image Quality



1970

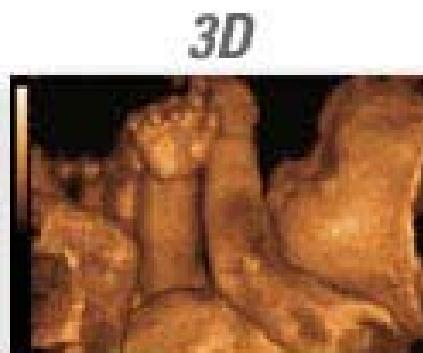


1980



2D FETAL PROFILE

1990



3D FETAL PROFILE

1995



4D FETAL PROFILE

2002

Clinical Applications

- Obstetrics/Gynaecology
- Cardiology (echocardiography, real-time imaging)
- Internal Medicine: liver, gall bladder, kidney etc.
- Musculoskeletal system: muscles, tendons, ligaments
- Breast imaging
- Urology: prostate
- Blood flow measurement (US Doppler)

Advantages and Drawbacks of Ultrasound

Advantages:

- small, mobile, bed-side
- patient-friendly
- real-time capability
- comparatively low costs
- no ionizing radiation

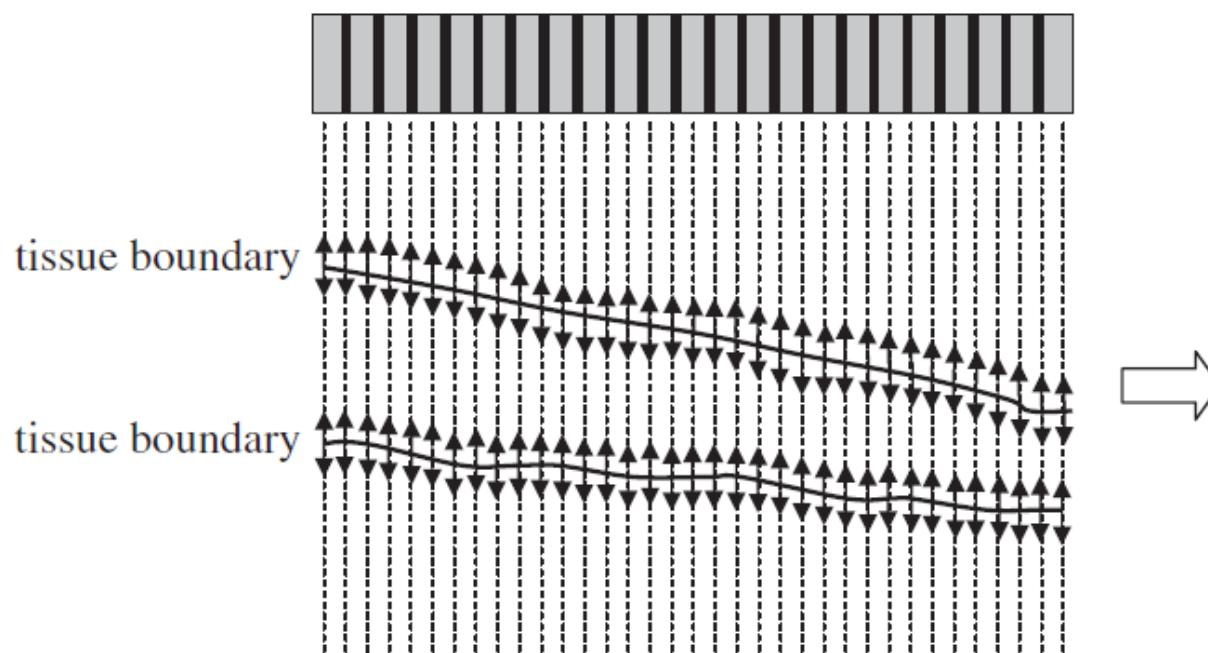
Drawbacks:

- moderate image quality, poor soft-tissue contrast
- need for ,acoustic window‘
- substantial training required

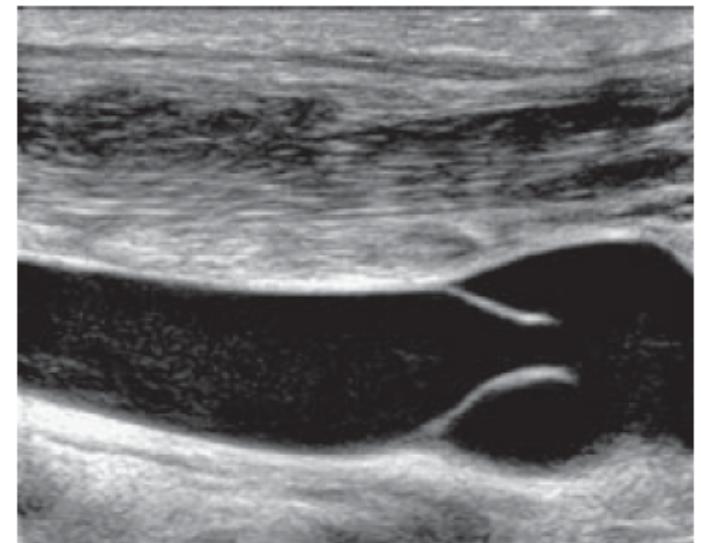
Basic Principle of Ultrasound Imaging

Chapter
5.18

Transducer



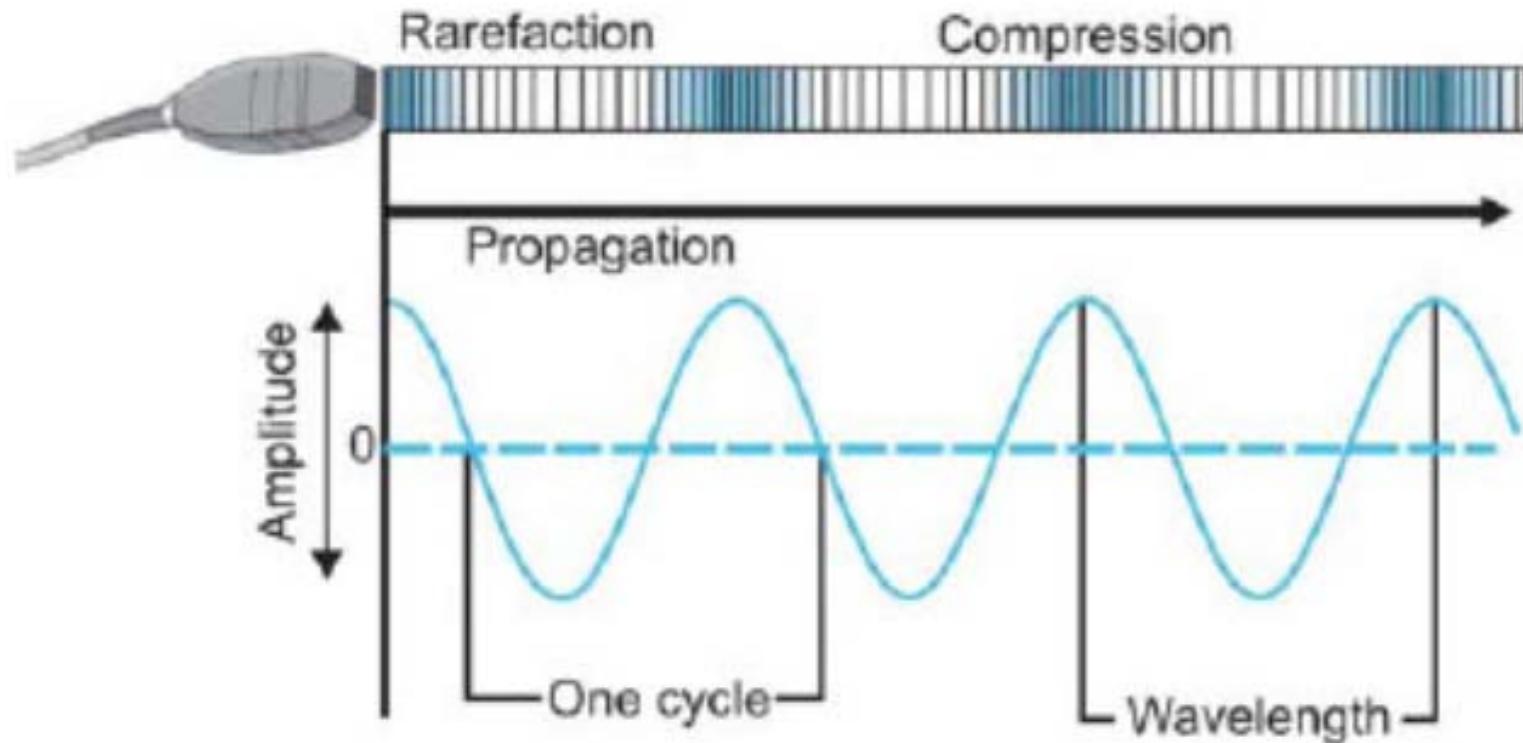
Image



from Smith/Webb

Ultrasonic Waves

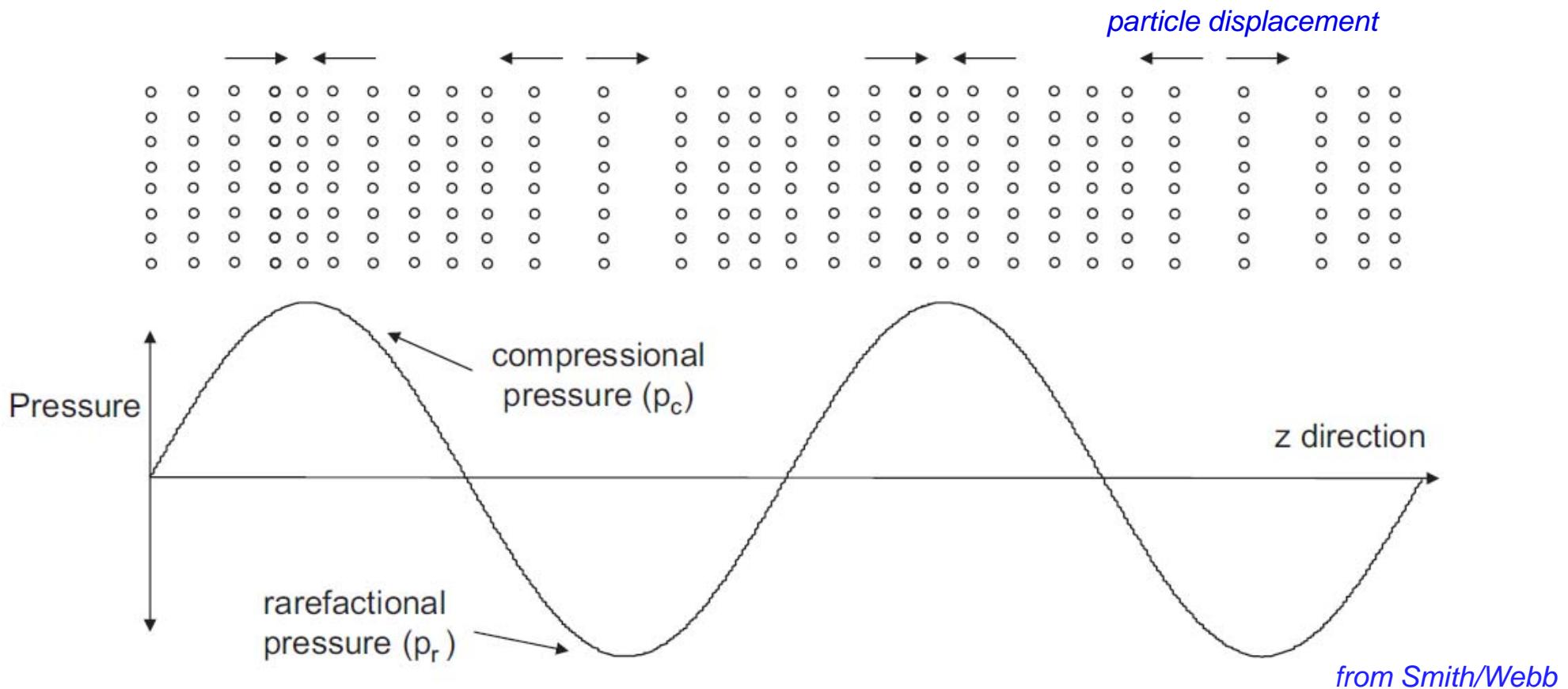
Chapter
4.2



Ultrasound Propagation in Tissue

Longitudinal pressure wave

$$\nabla^2 p - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial t^2} = 0$$



from Smith/Webb

Key Quantities and Relationships

wave speed $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\kappa\rho}}$ κ = compressibility, ρ = mass density

pressure $p = \rho c u_z$ u_z = particle velocity

wave impedance $Z = \frac{p}{u_z} = \rho c = \sqrt{\frac{\rho}{\kappa}}$

wave intensity $I = \frac{1}{2} p u_z$

Acoustic Properties of Biological Tissue

as well as materials used for the transducer construction

Substance	Z [kg/m ² s]	ρ [g/cm ³]	c [m/s]
Water	$1.48 \cdot 10^6$	1.0	1480
Blood	$1.65 \cdot 10^6$	1.06	1560
Brain	$1.58 \cdot 10^6$	1.03	1530
Fat	$1.36 \cdot 10^6$	0.92	1476
Muscle	$1.66 \cdot 10^6$	1.06	1568
Bone	$6 \cdot 10^6$	1.3 -1.8	2800-4100
Air	400 (!)	0.0012	330
Epoxy	$3 \cdot 10^6$	1.2	2500
Plexiglass	$3.2 \cdot 10^6$	1.18	2730
PZT Ceramic	$29 \cdot 10^6$	7.65	3790
Steel	$39 \cdot 10^6$	7.7	5000

Reflection at Interfaces

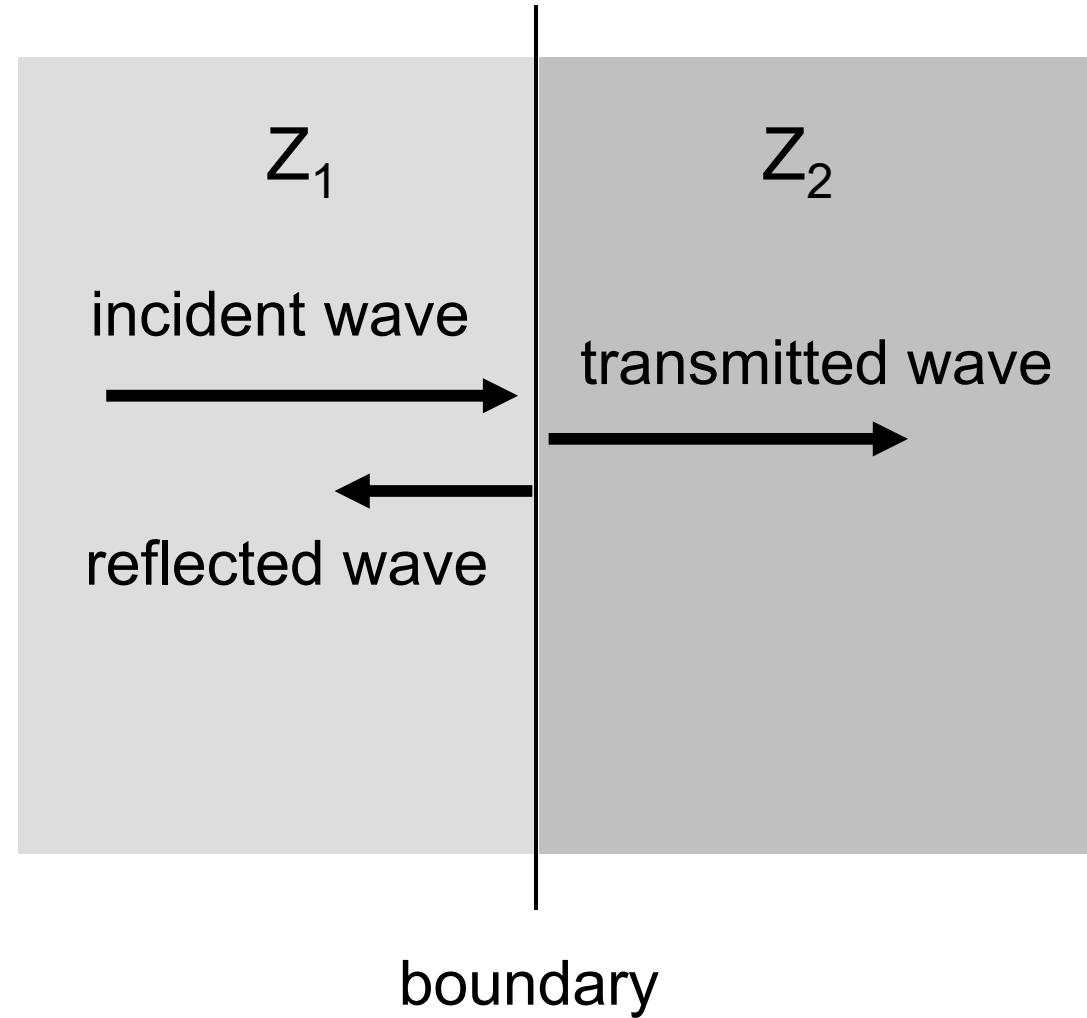
Chapter
4.3

Pressure reflection coefficient r

$$r = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$$

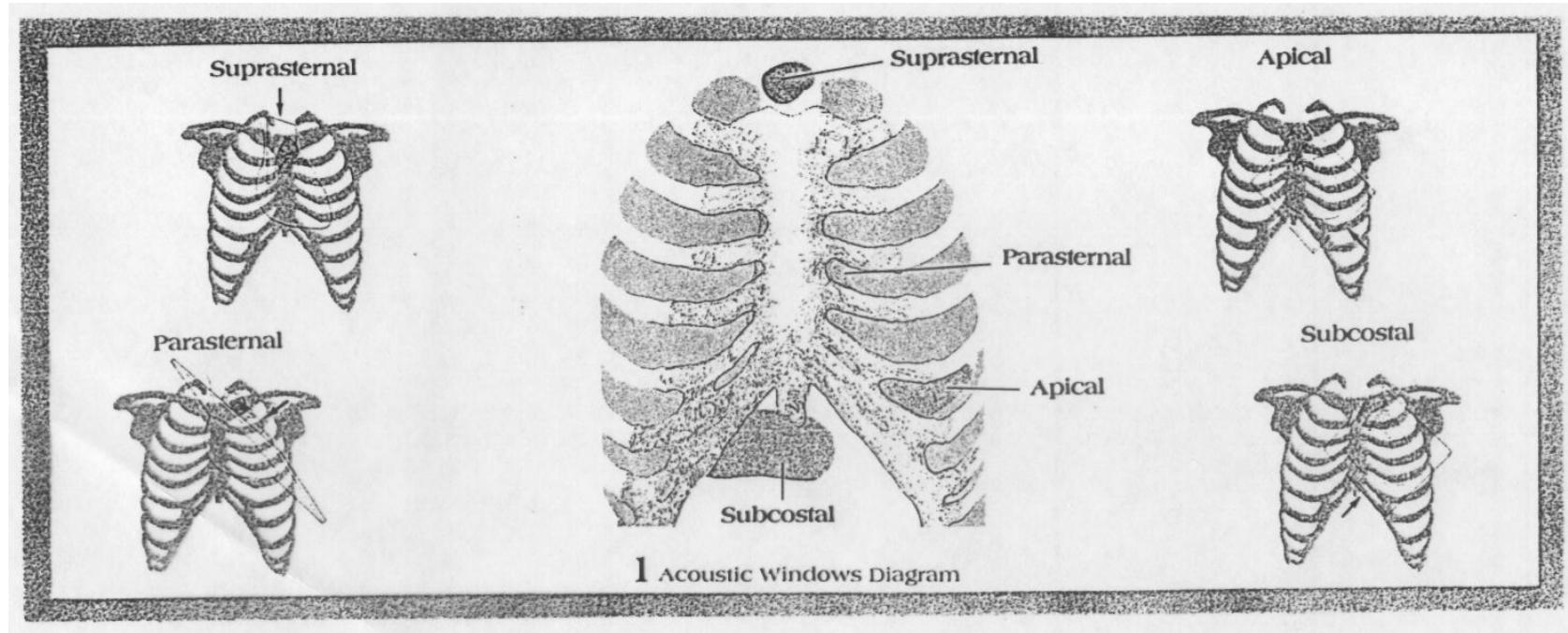
Pressure transmission
coefficient t

$$t = \frac{2Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_1}$$



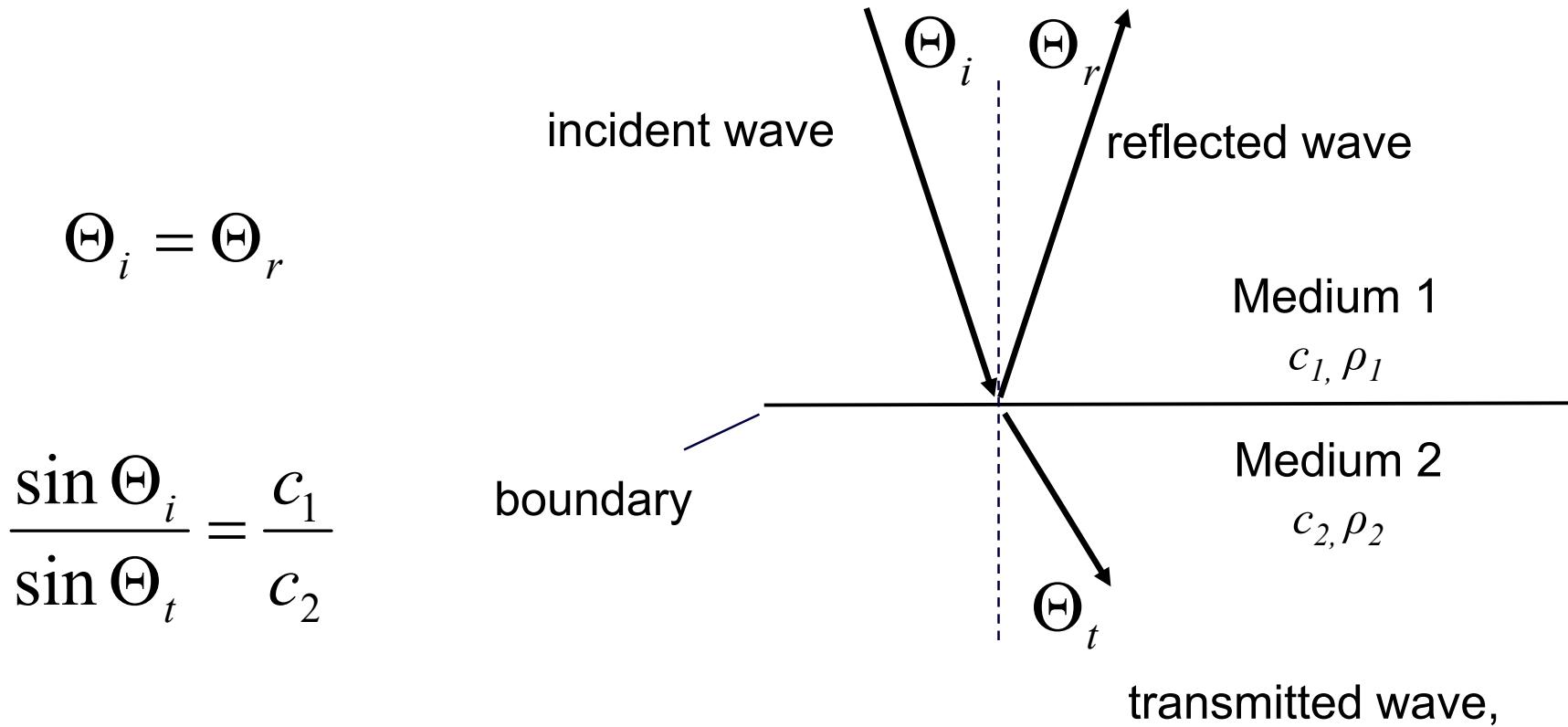
Acoustic Windows

Ultrasound is strongly absorbed in bones and is reflected nearly to 100% by tissue/air or air/tissue interfaces -> need for 'acoustic windows'



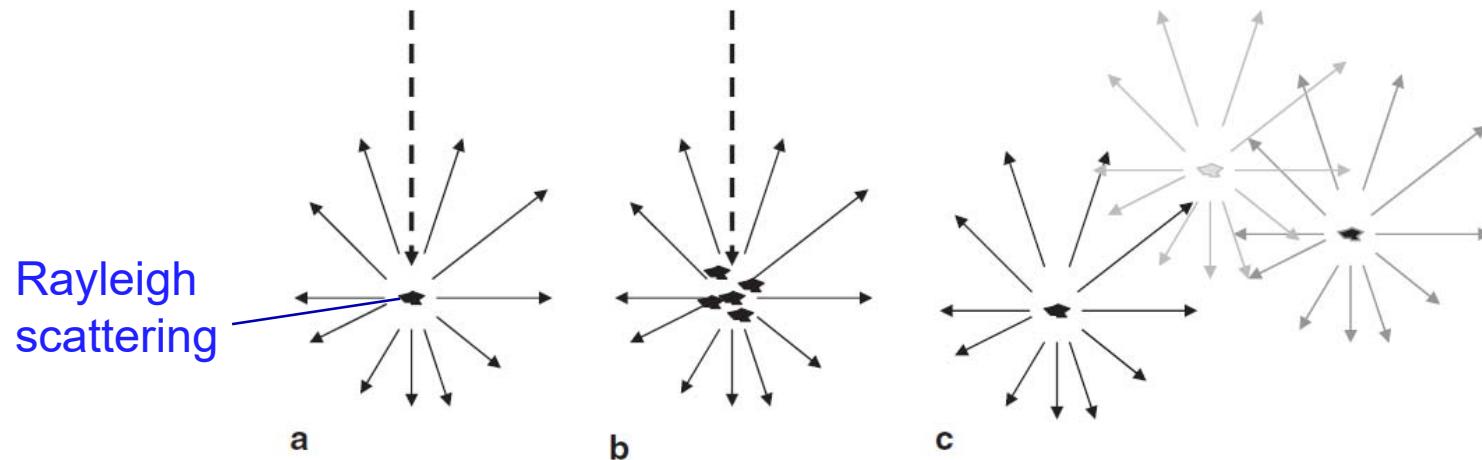
Acoustic windows for cardiac imaging

Refraction of Transmitted Waves



In general the effect of refraction is negligible,
i.e. $\Theta_i \approx \Theta_t$

Rayleigh Scattering by Small Structures



Rayleigh scattering

a

b

c

Speckles produced by
constructive interference



from Smith/Webb

Attenuation

Absorption (conversion to heat), scattering cause attenuation.

In homogeneous tissue pressure decreases exponentially:

$$p(z) = p_0 e^{-\alpha z}$$

z : distance in cm

p_0 : pressure amplitude at $z=0$

α : damping factor

Decibel notation: $\alpha_0 = 20 \log \left[\frac{p_0}{p(z)} \right] \frac{1}{z} = 8.686 \alpha [dB/cm]$

Attenuation in Biological Tissue

The attenuation increases exponentially with frequency, therefore the attenuation measure in 'dB' is roughly proportional to frequency:

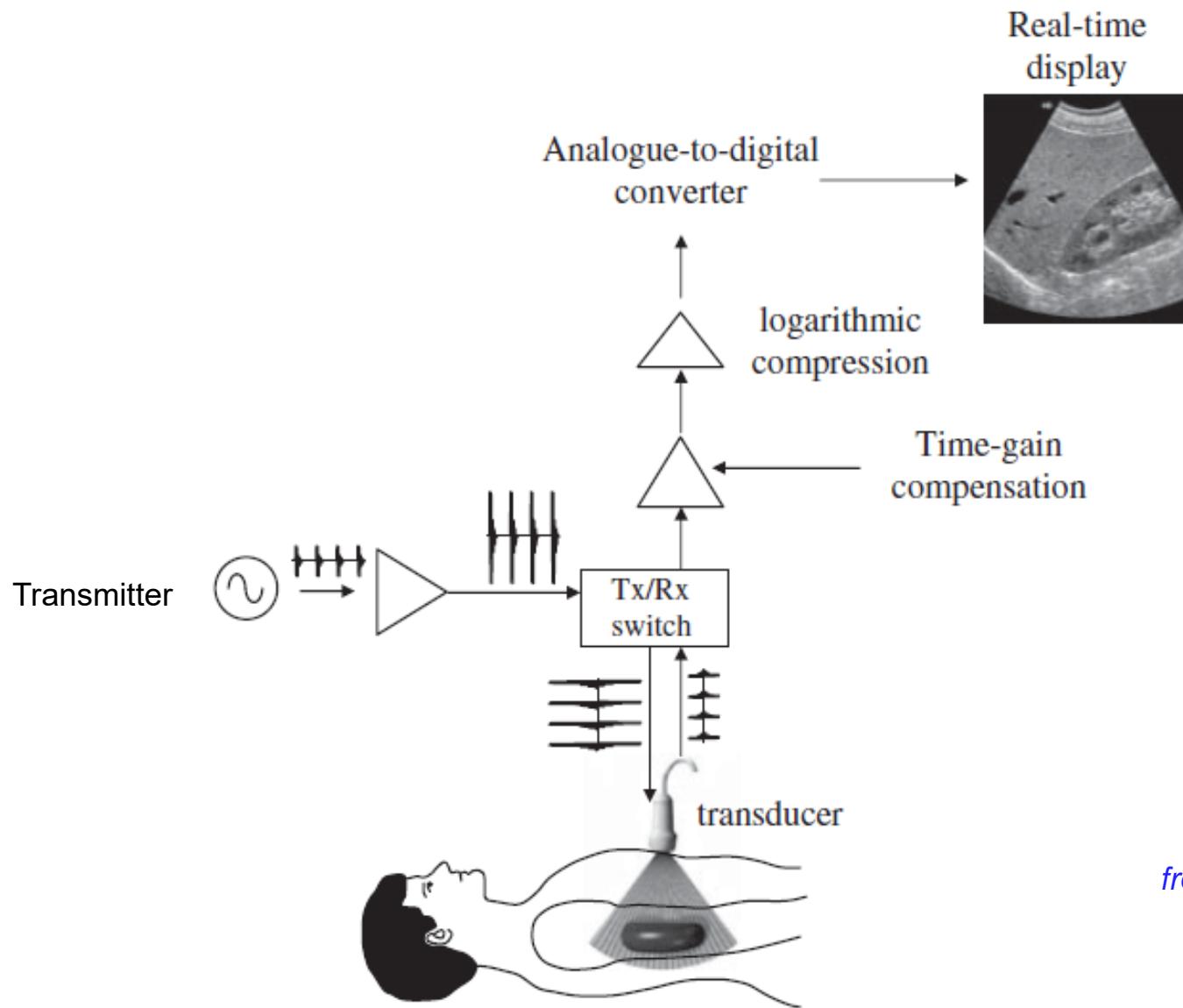
Attenuation measure / frequency	[dB/(cm MHz)]
kidney, brain	ca. 1.0
liver	0.8 - 1.3
skeletal muscle	1.5 - 2.2
fat	ca. 0.5
bone	ca. 13

For a given penetration depth, the sound frequency is limited due to strong increase of the attenuation with frequency.

Example: A 5 MHz sound wave is attenuated in kidney by 5 dB per cm.

Instrumentation

Chapter
4.5

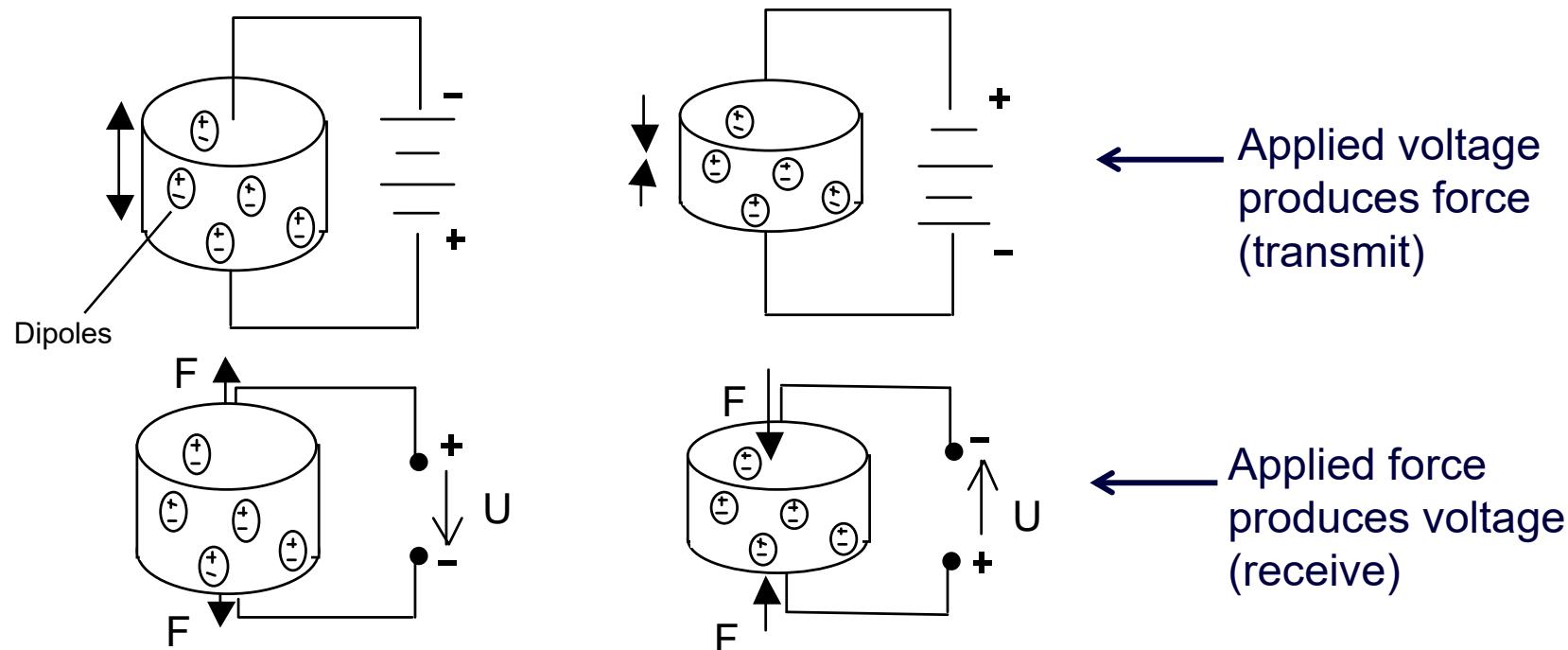


from Smith/Webb

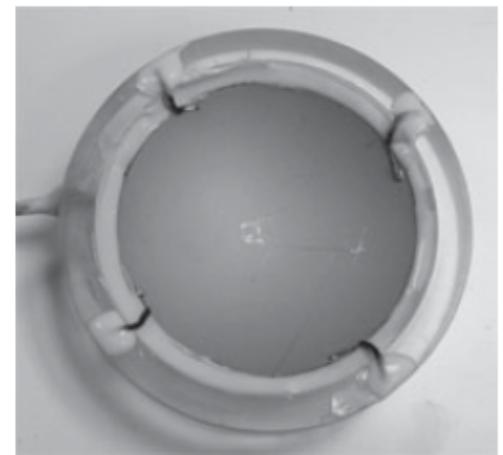
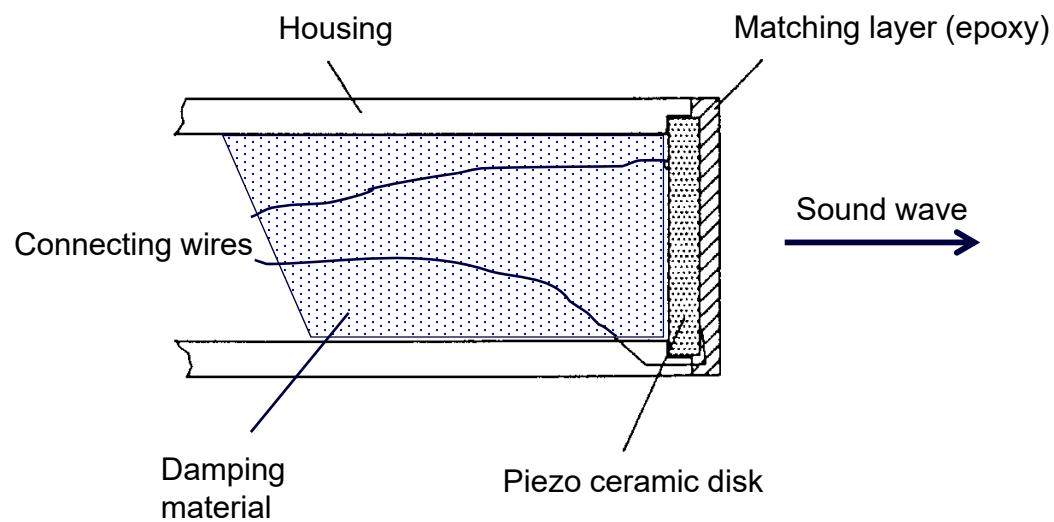
Ultrasound Converter (Transducer)

Chapter
4.6

Piezoelectric effect:



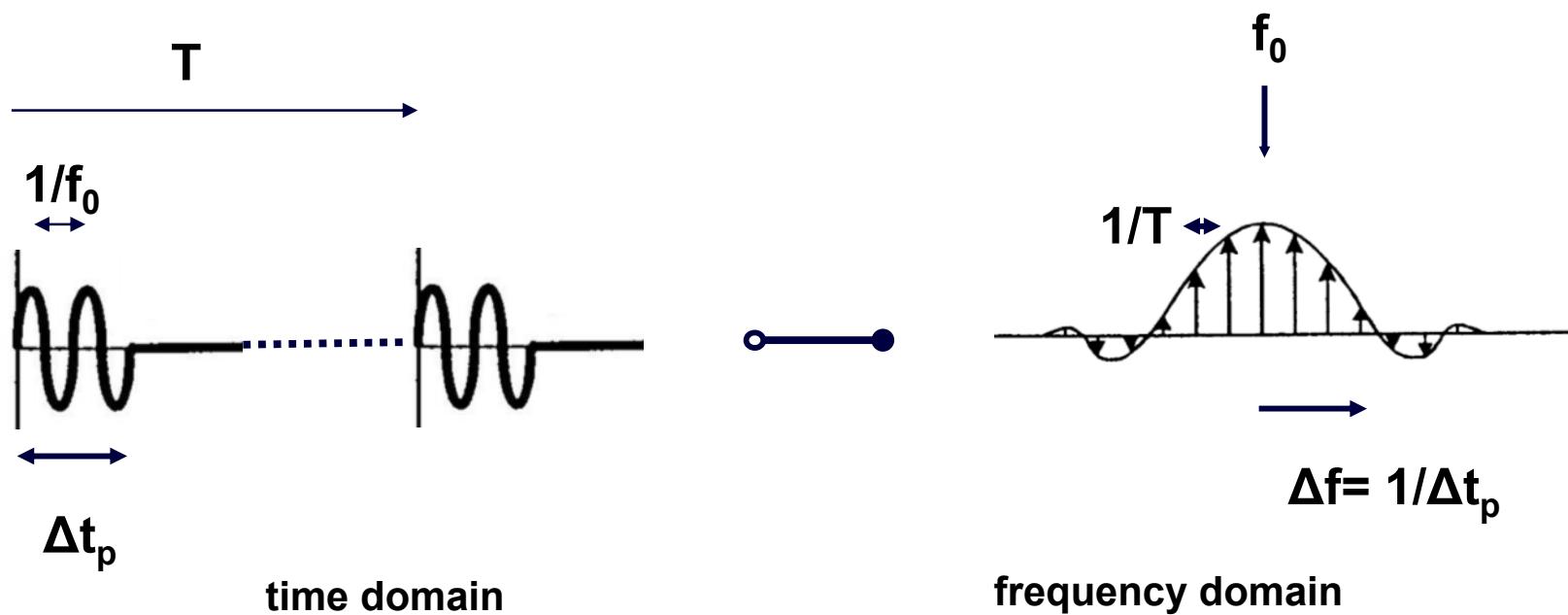
Single Element Transducer



from Smith/Webb

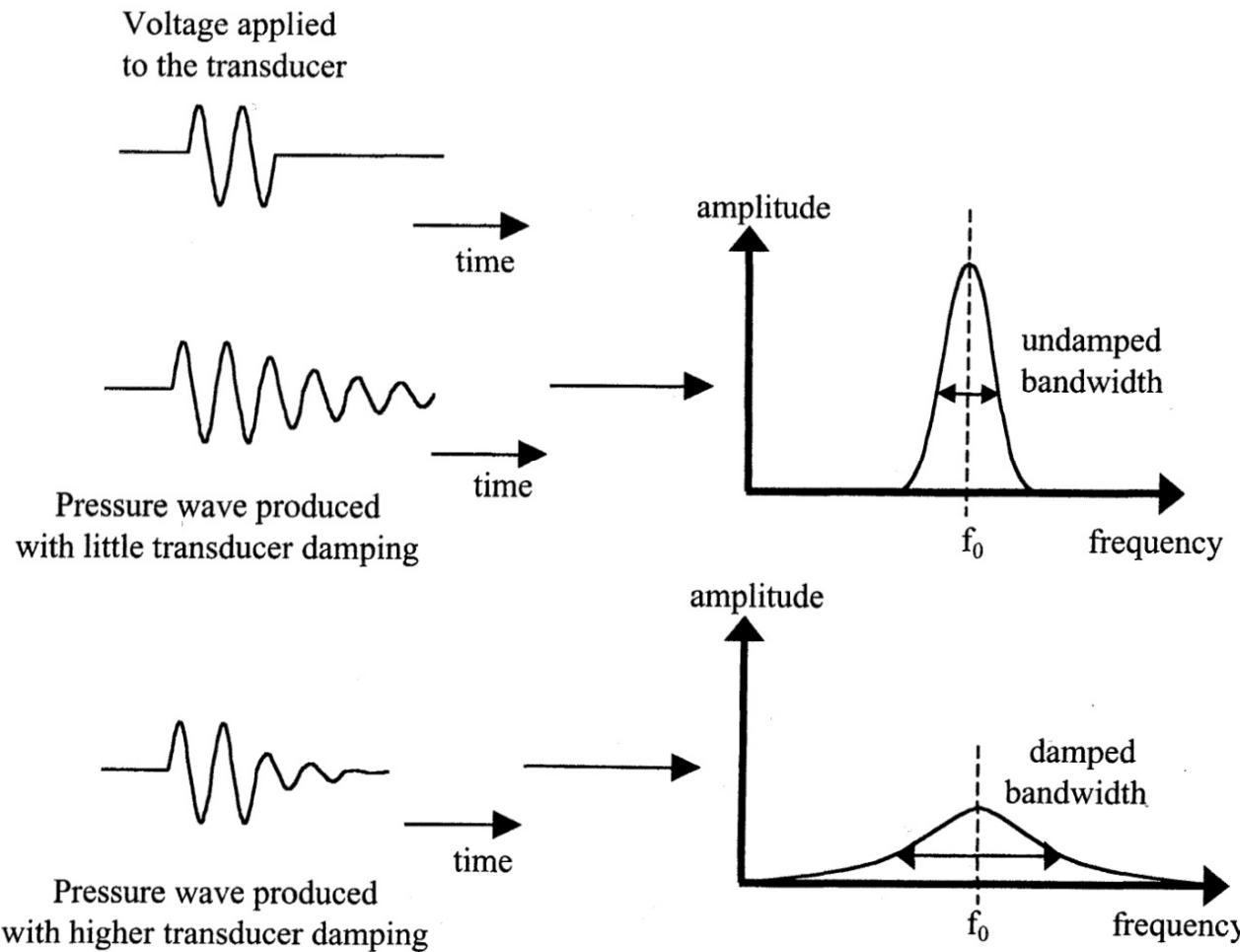
Pulsed Excitation

- A pulse contains not a single frequency, but a spectrum of width $\Delta f \sim 1/\Delta t_p$
- Pulsed excitation is what enables resolution in axial direction



from Smith/Webb

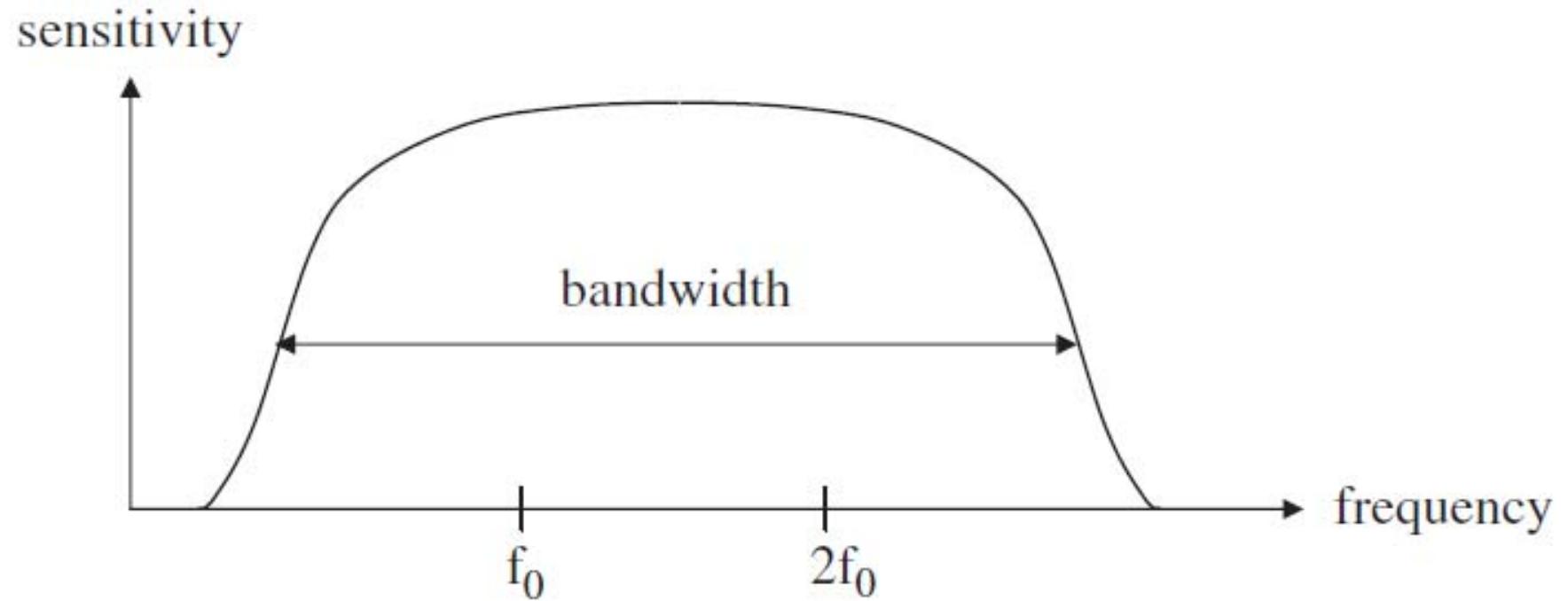
Damping



High transducer bandwidth required for short pulses

from Smith/Webb

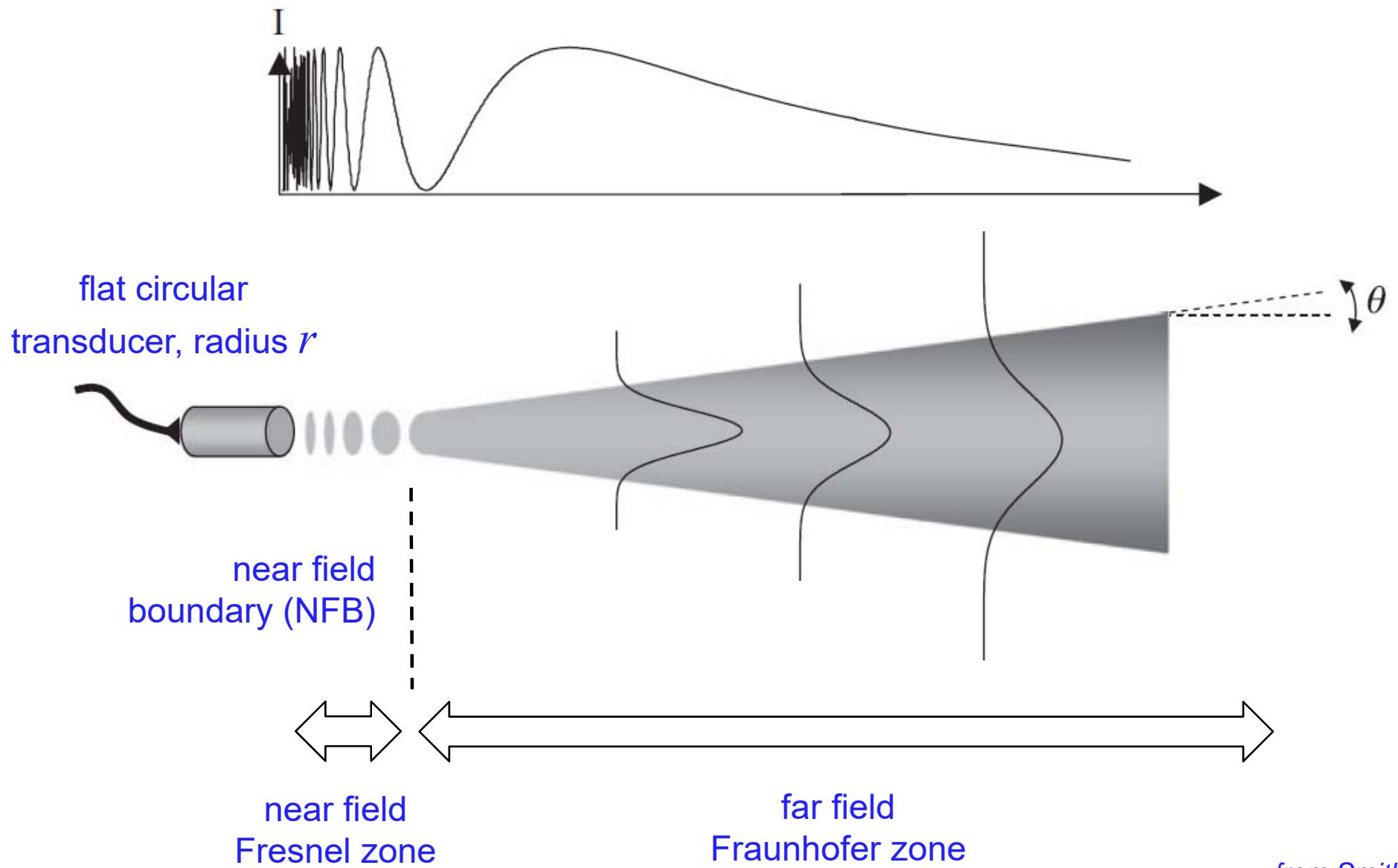
Broadband Transducer



Bandwidth can be larger than f_0 !

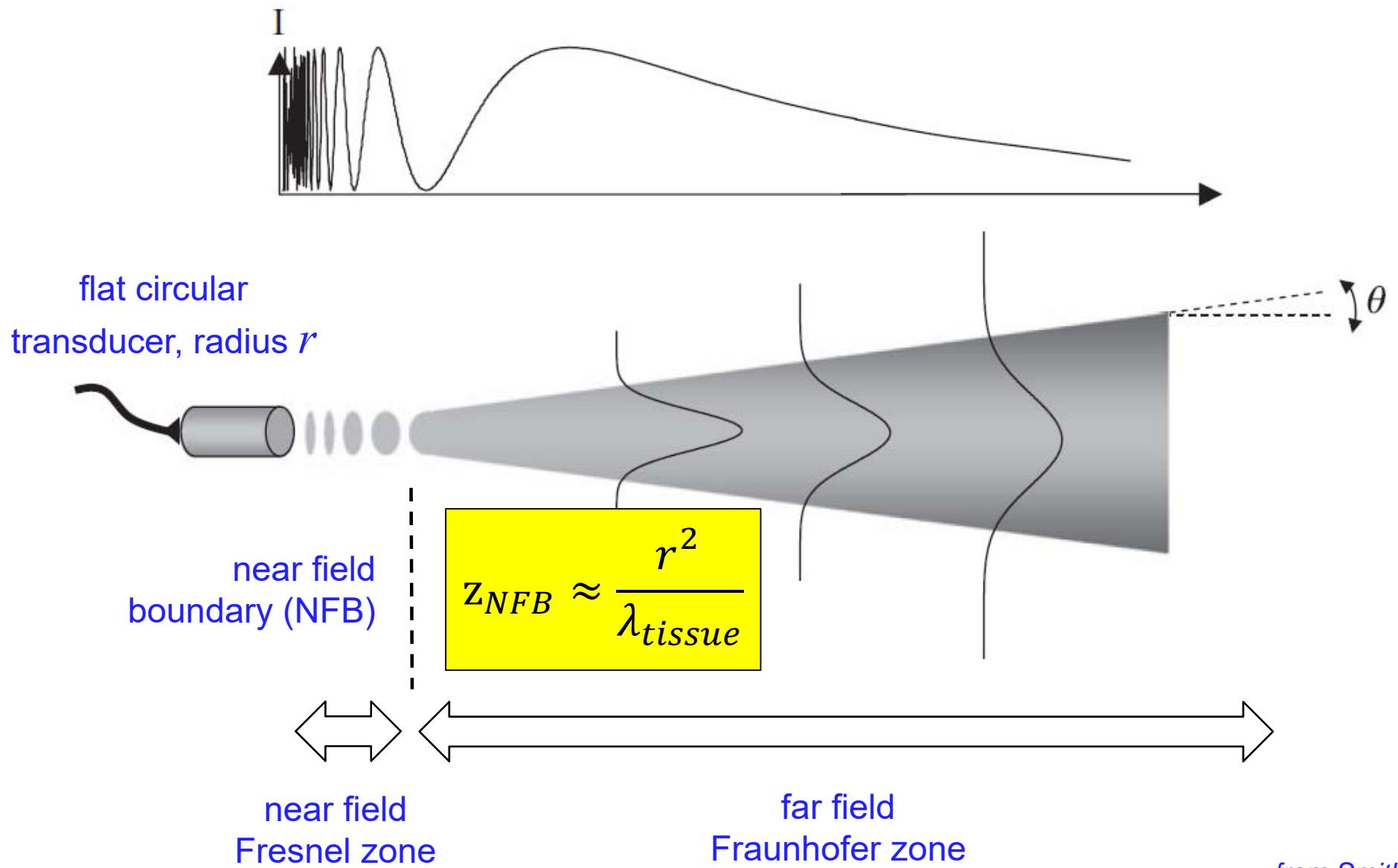
from Smith/Webb

Beam Geometry



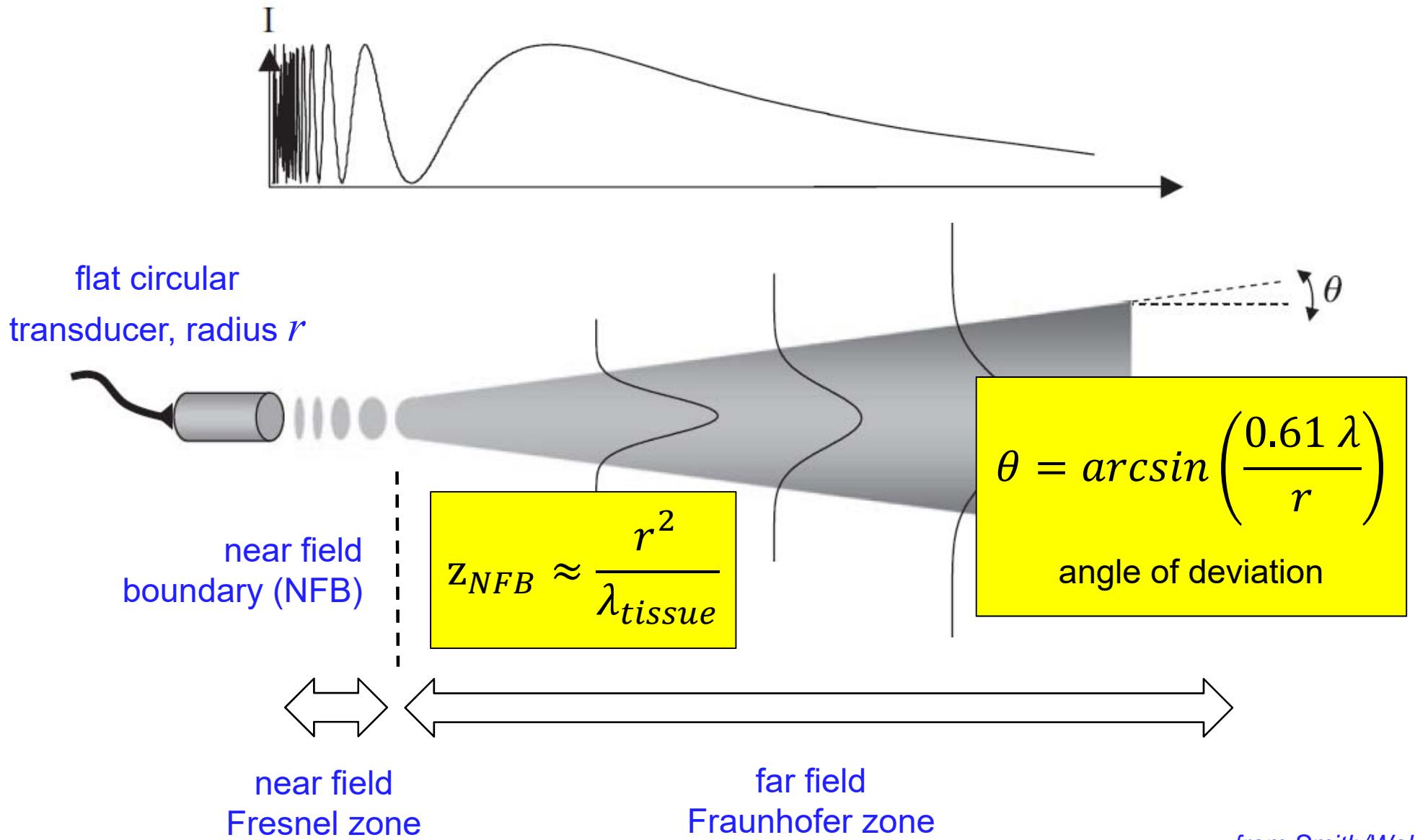
from Smith/Webb

Beam Geometry



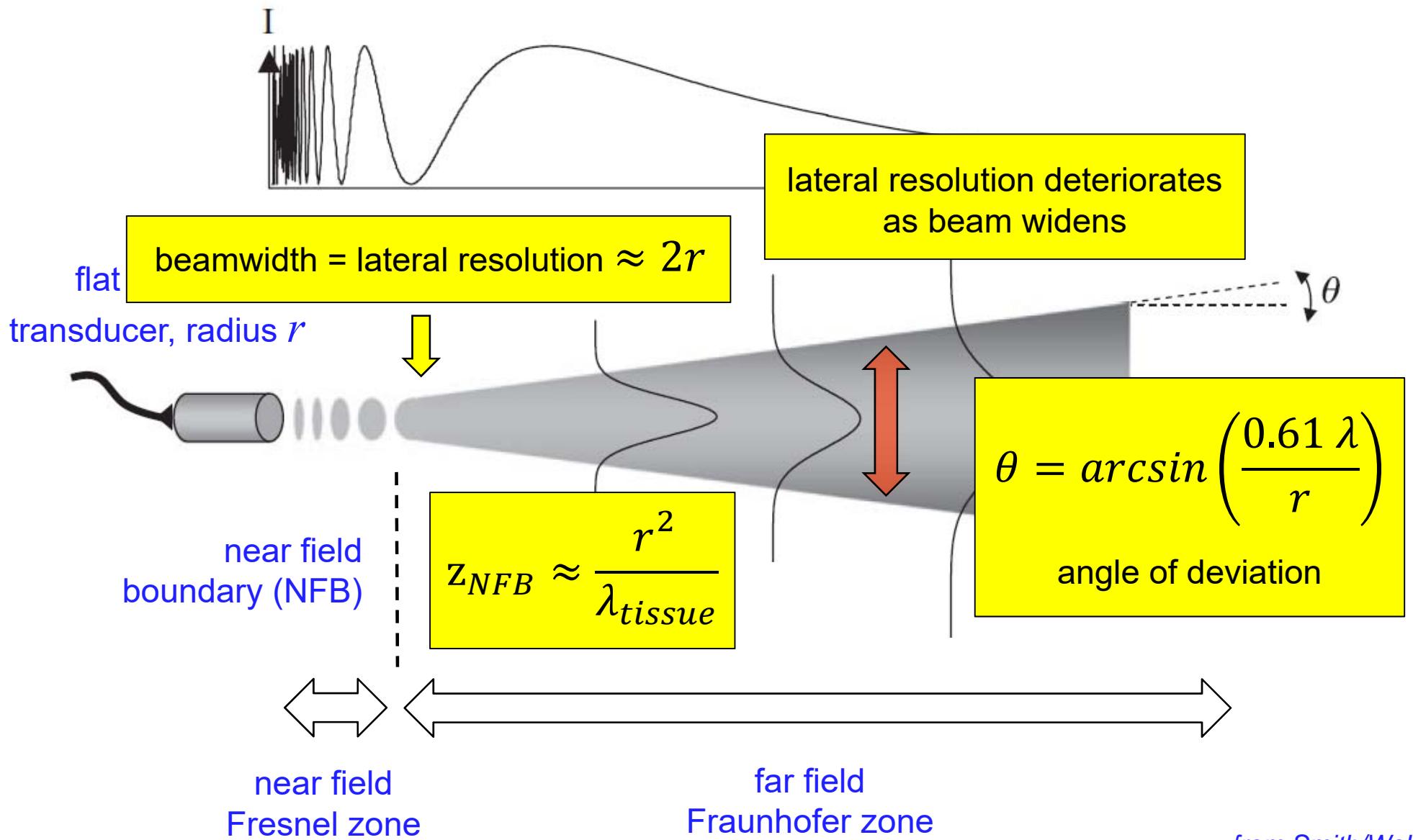
from Smith/Webb

Beam Geometry



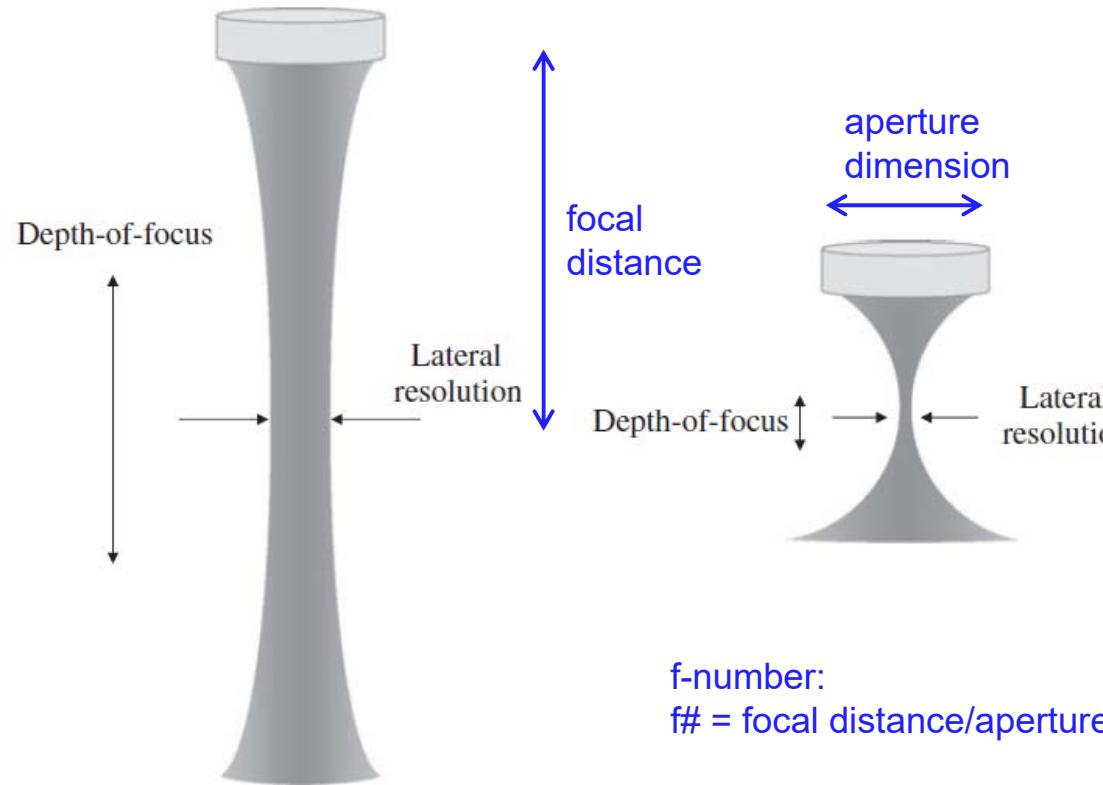
from Smith/Webb

Beam Geometry



from Smith/Webb

Focusing with an Acoustic Lens



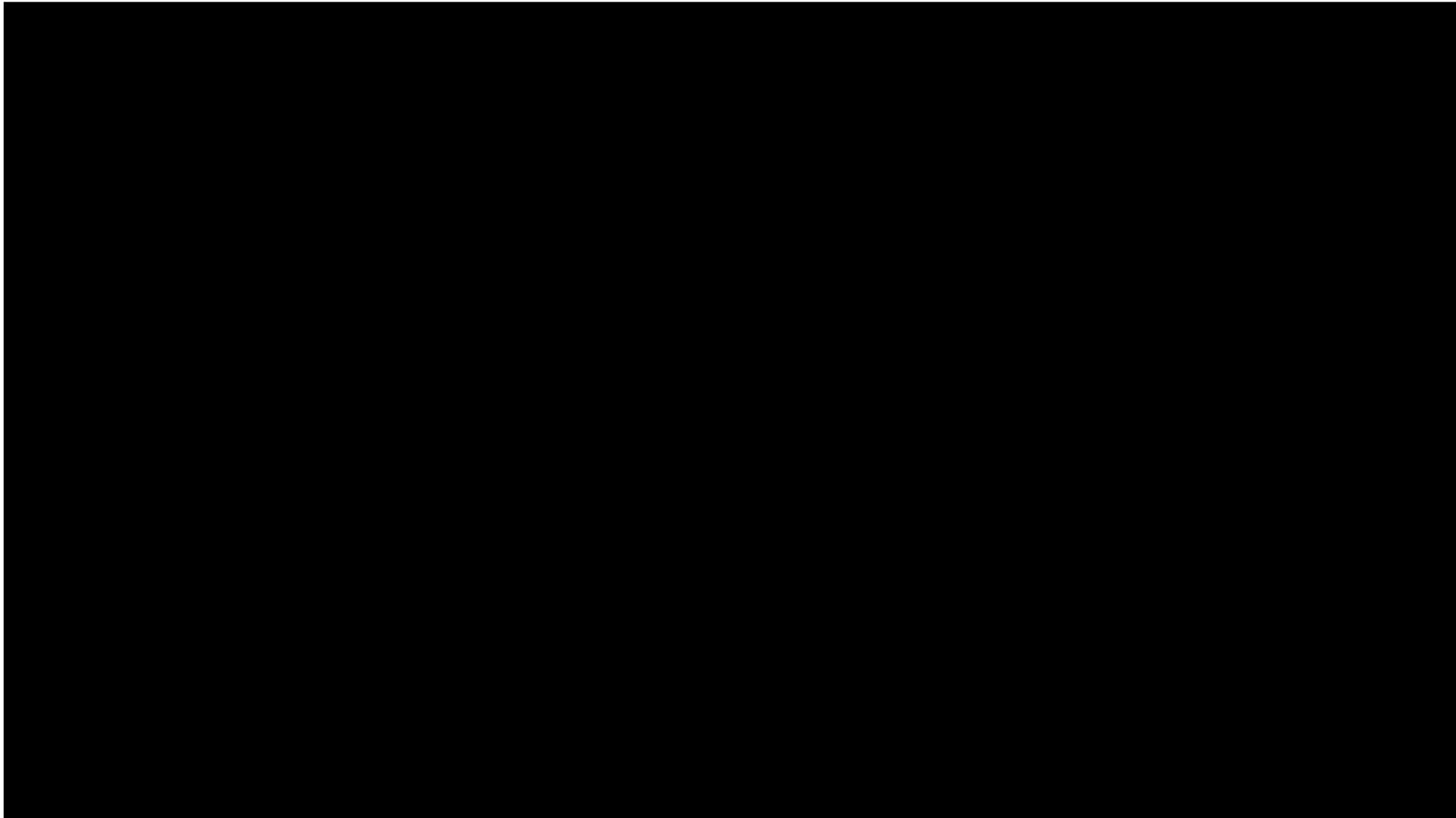
f-number:
 $f\# = \text{focal distance}/\text{aperture dimension}$

Strong focusing: good lateral resolution but short focal depth

Weak focusing: medium lateral resolution, longer focal depth

from Smith/Webb

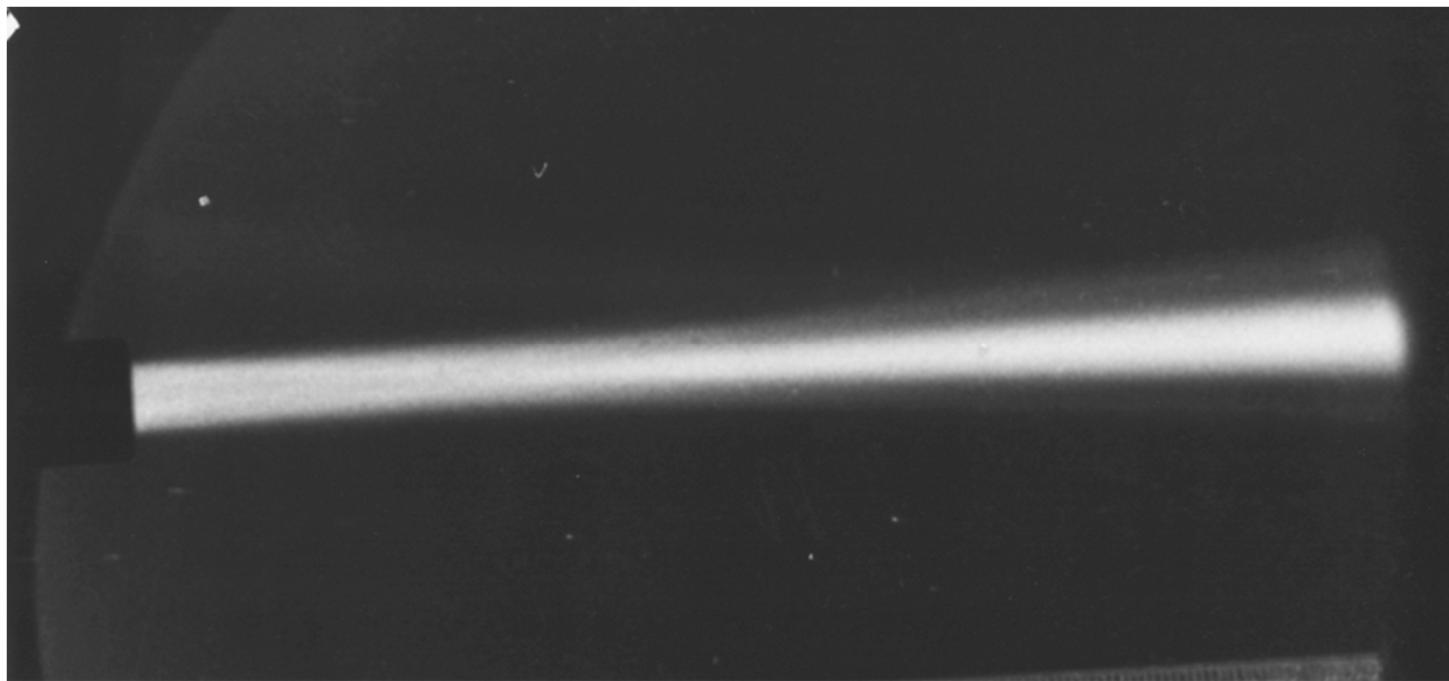
Schlieren Imaging



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mLp_rSBztel

Harvard Natural Sciences Lecture Demonstrations

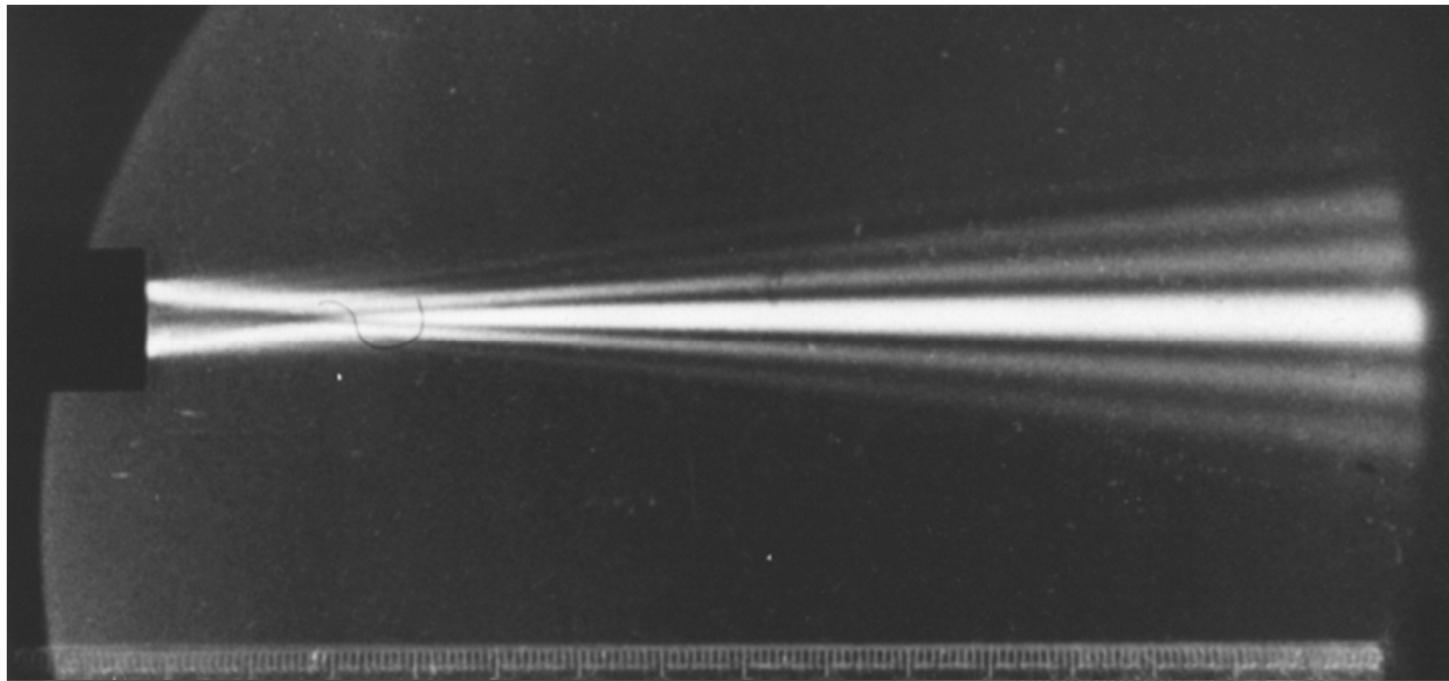
Beam Geometry



Ultrasound beam in water tank

Schlieren picture

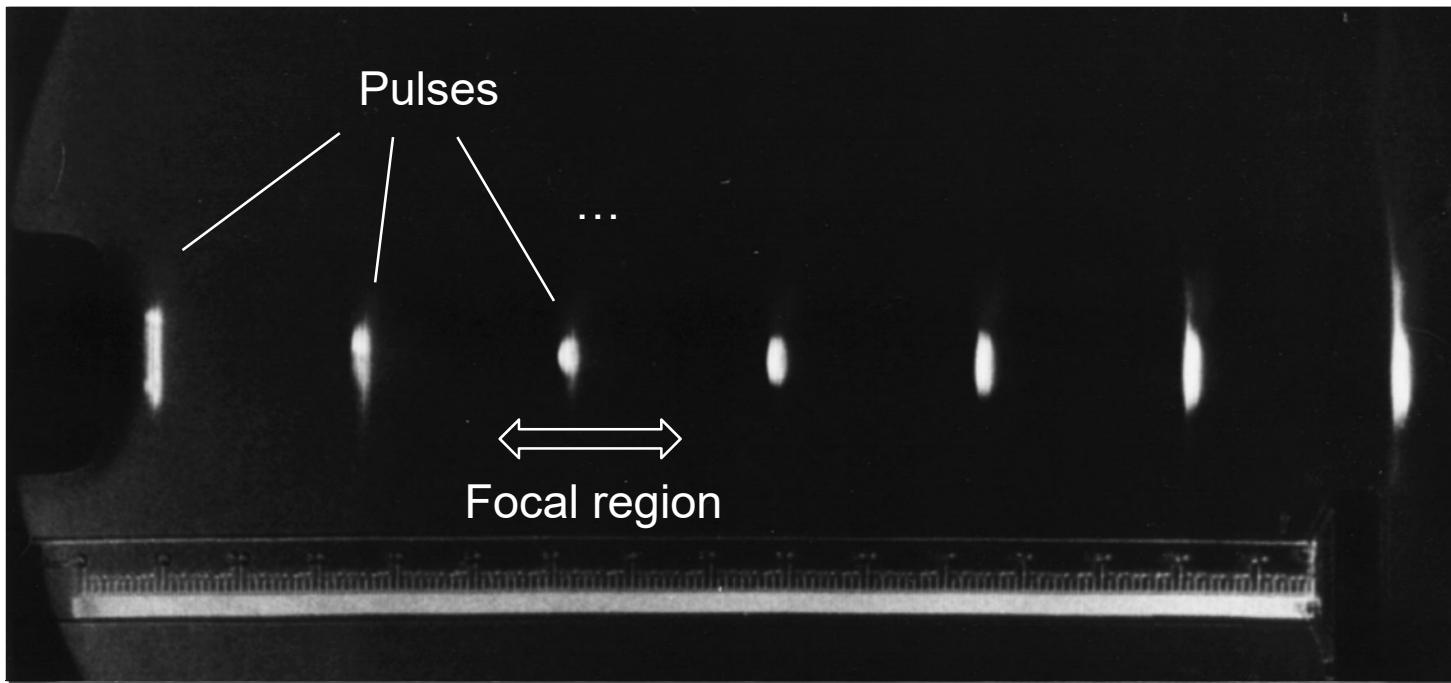
Beam Geometry



Focused ultrasound beam in water tank

Schlieren picture

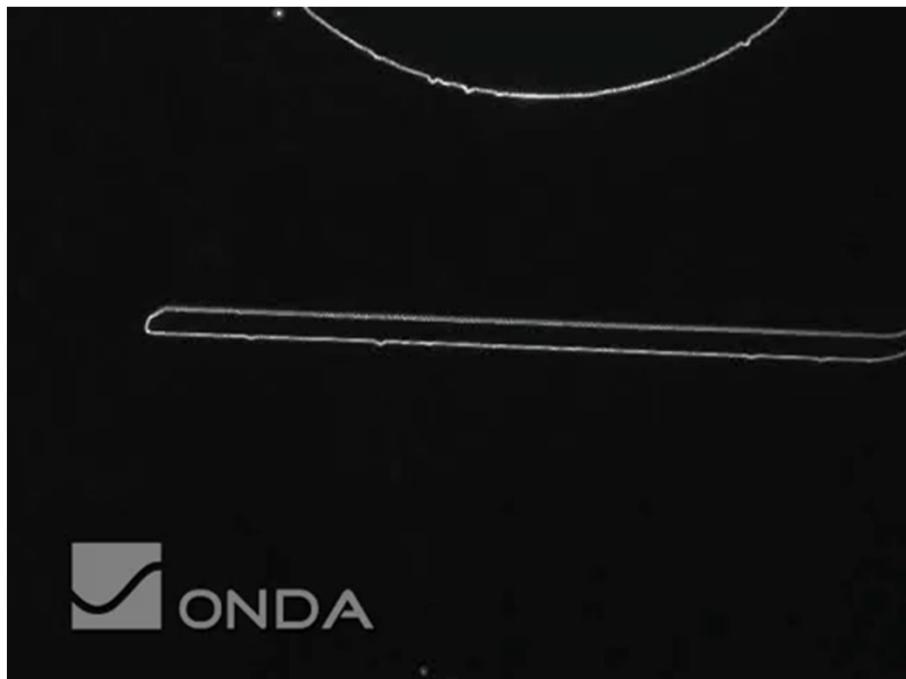
Beam Geometry



Focused and pulsed ultrasound beam in water tank

Schlieren picture

Propagation, Reflection, Focusing, Attenuation



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PPBKjSRTwqs>

ONDA Corporation



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jBEV3lRPNJY>

ONDA Corporation

Axial Resolution

Features must be at least half the pulse width apart:

$$\Delta z = \frac{p_d c}{2}$$

p_d = pulse duration

c = wave speed

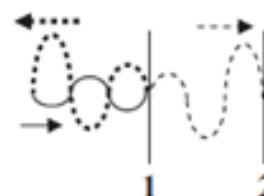
$$\text{implies } \Delta z \geq \frac{\lambda}{2}$$



1 2



wave strikes
boundary 1



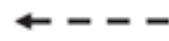
1 2



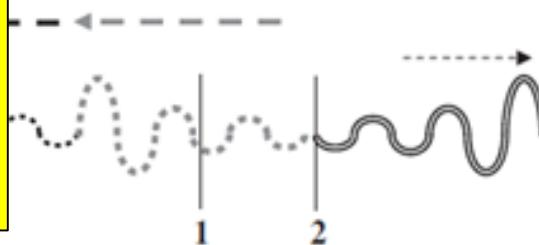
wave reflected
from boundary 1



1 2



wave reflected
from boundary 1



1 2



wave reflected
from boundary 1

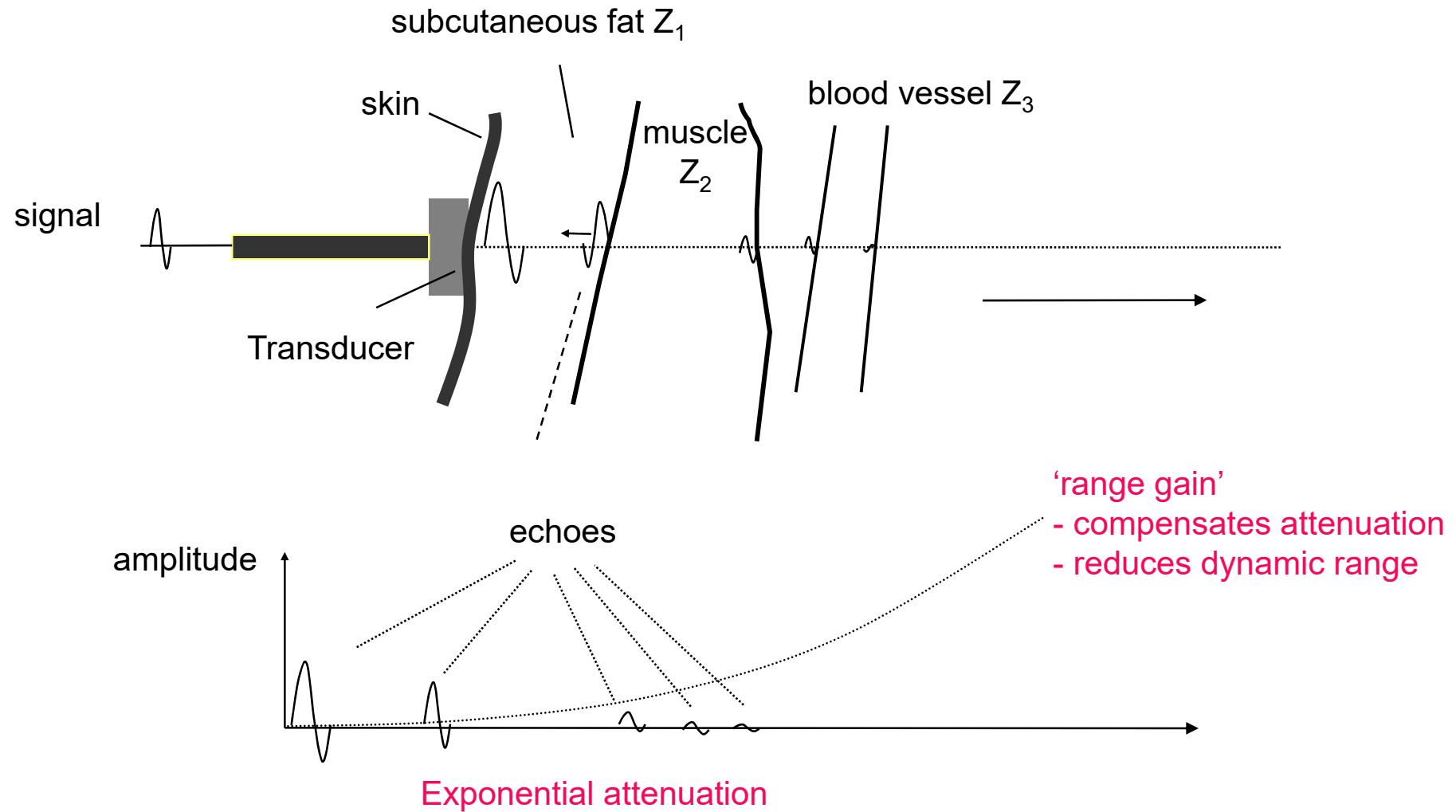


1 2



wave reflected
from boundary 2

Range Gain



SNR in Ultrasound Devices

Example.: frequency 3.5MHz, mean attenuation measure 1dB/cm/MHz, penetration: 15cm

--> Attenuation

$$2 \times 15\text{cm} \times 3.5\text{MHz} \times 1\text{dB}/(\text{cm MHz}) = 105 \text{ dB (!)}$$

Maximum dynamic range:

Transmitted peak pulse power 10W

Thermal noise of the transducer at bandwidth $B=1$ MHz and $T=310^\circ\text{K}$:

$$P_N = k T B = 4.3 \times 10^{-15} \text{ W} \quad k: \text{Boltzmann constant, } 1.38 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$$

--> dynamic range: 154 dB

S/N: dynamic range – attenuation in tissue – loss due to low reflection coefficient (e.g. 3%)

$$\text{S/N} = 154 - 105 - 30 = 19 \text{ dB}$$