

# Medical diagnostic systems

(Orvosbiológiai képalkotó rendszerek)

# Fundamental concepts in acoustics

(Alapfogalmak az akusztikában)

**Miklós Gyöngy**

## Aims

- Consider 3 methods of acoustic localisation
- Through these, learn about concepts in acoustics
  - propagation of sound
  - diffraction
  - reflection
  - scattering
  - attenuation
- Link back to diagnostic ultrasound throughout

## Methods of sound localisation

### 1. Lightning localisation

passive

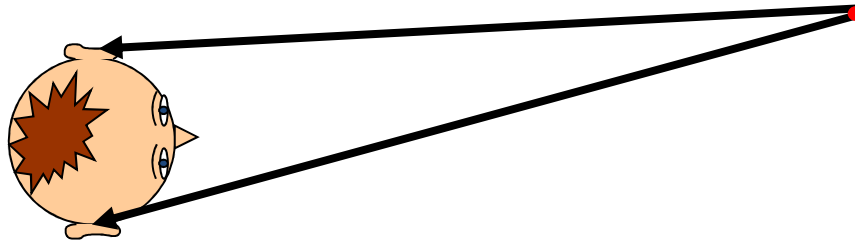
(light as reference)



### 2. Binaural hearing

passive

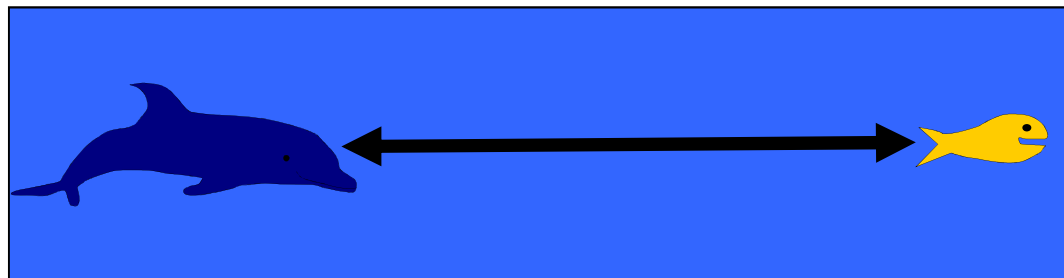
(difference in arrival times)



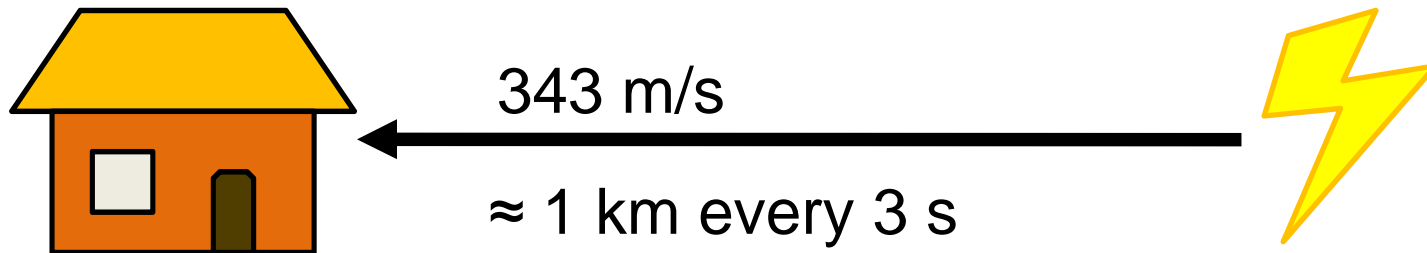
### 3. Echolocation

active

(pulse-echo)



## 1. Lightning localisation



- Passive method (with light as reference)
- Time of arrival (ToA), speed of sound (SoS) → localisation
- *Analogy with diagnostic ultrasound?*
- Where does speed of sound come from?
- What about propagation in tissue?

*Analogy with diagnostic ultrasound:*

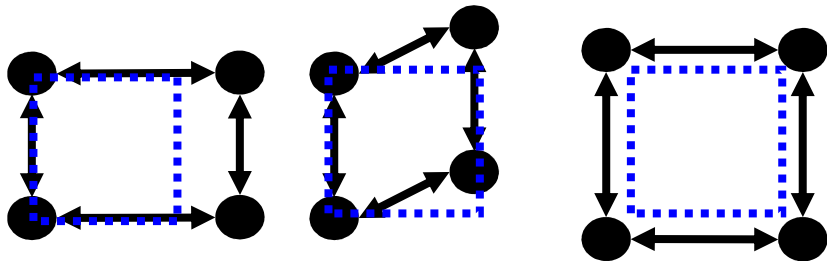
*localising “flashes of lightning” – photoacoustics*

- Transmit laser pulse at known time
- Optically “dark” tissue absorbs laser preferentially
- Localised heating due to laser pulse creates shock wave
- Time of arrival depends on location of emission site

<http://www.ucl.ac.uk/cabi/Photoacoustics/Photoacoustics.html>

## Propagation of sound

- Mechanical vibrations cause travelling waves
- Wave can be sustained by normal stress, shear stress, and volumetric compressions
- $E \rightarrow \infty$  or  $\rho \rightarrow 0$ :  $c \rightarrow \infty$  (block moves as one)



propagation speed

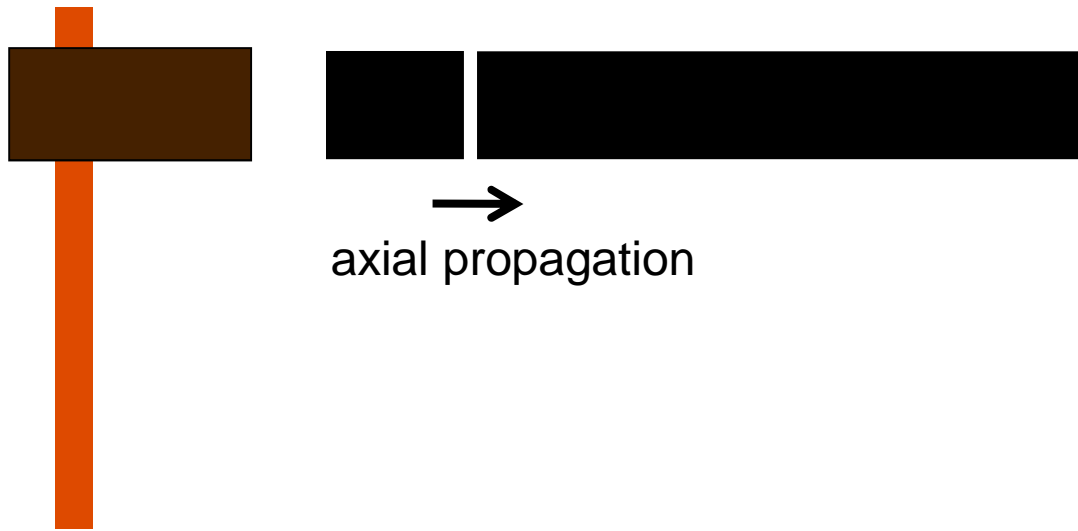
$$c = \sqrt{\frac{C}{\rho_0}}$$

elastic modulus

undisturbed density

## Types of elastic moduli

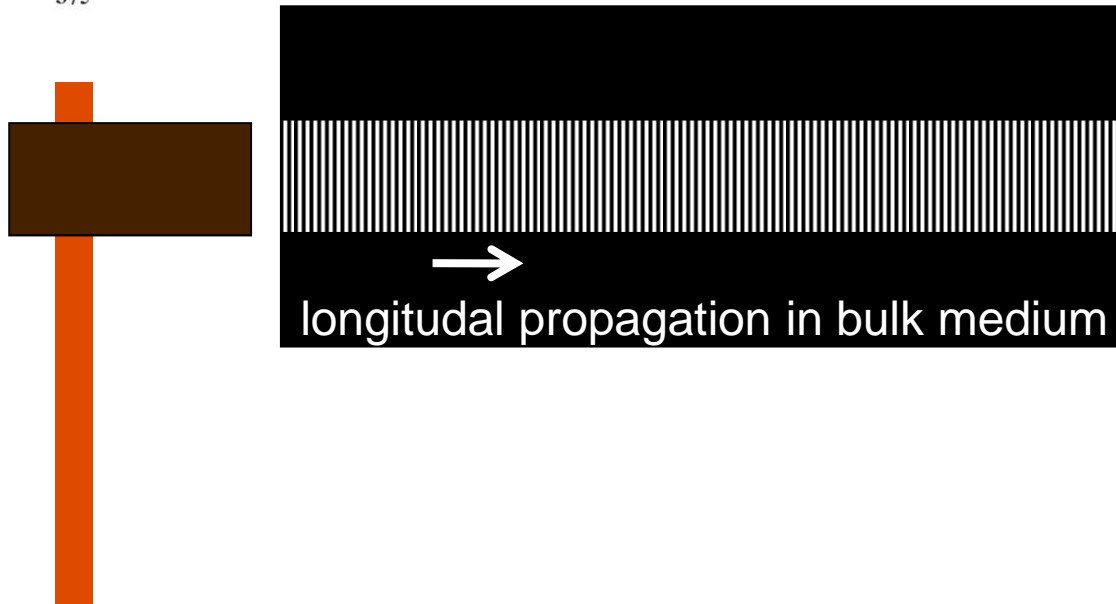
- Young's ( $E$ ): axial propagation along laterally unconstrained rod
- P-wave ( $M$ ): longitudinal propagation, no lateral motion
- shear ( $G$ ): motion transverse to direction of propagation
- bulk ( $K$ ): volumetric propagation (pressure waves)
- $K=M-4G/3$ : without shear, equivalent to P-wave
- $K = -V \partial p / \partial V$  : *inverse of compressibility  $\kappa$*



$$c = \sqrt{\frac{C}{\rho}}$$

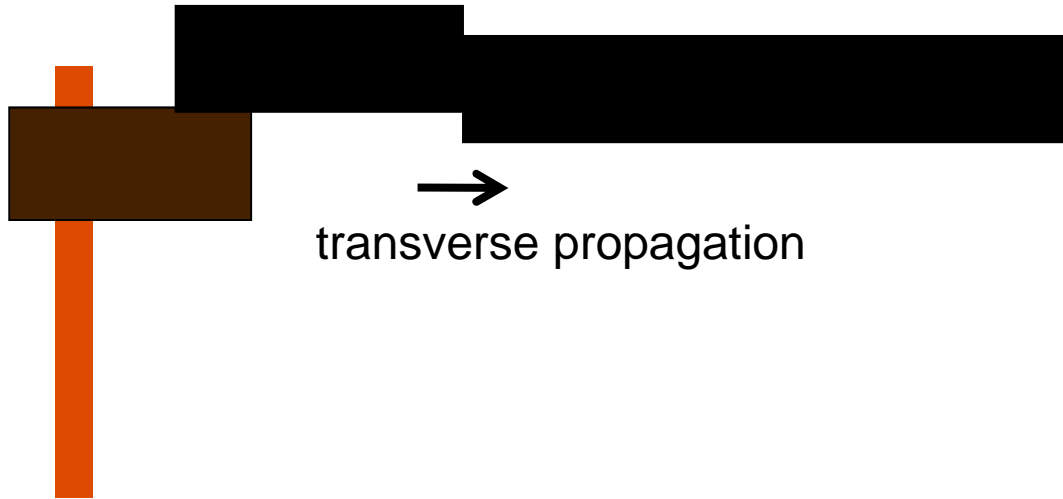
- $C = E$  (Young's Modulus)
- $E = \sigma/\varepsilon$  (stress/strain)
- $c_{st.steel} = \sqrt{(216 \times 10^9 / 7800)} \approx 5300 \text{ m/s}$
- $E \rightarrow \infty$  or  $\rho \rightarrow 0$ :  $c \rightarrow \infty$  (block moves as one)





$$c = \sqrt{\frac{C}{\rho}}$$

- $\varepsilon_{xx} = \varepsilon_{xx} = 0$
- no diffraction (high frequency)
- $C = M$  (P-wave modulus)
- $M = \sigma_{zz}/\varepsilon_{zz}$  (stress/strain)
- $c_{st.steel} = 5980 \text{ m/s}$



$$c = \sqrt{\frac{C}{\rho}}$$

- $C = G$  (shear modulus)
- $G = \tau/\gamma$  (shear stress/shear strain)
- $c_{st.steel} = \sqrt{(84 \times 10^9 / 7800)} \approx 3300 \text{ m/s}$



volumetric propagation

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{C}{\rho}}$$

- $C = K = 1/\kappa$  (bulk modulus=1/compressibility)
- $K = -V \partial p / \partial V$
- $K = M - 4G/3$
- $K_{water}$ : 2.05 GPa at 1 atm  $\rightarrow$  3.88 GPa at 300 atm
- $c_{water} = \sqrt{(K/\rho)} \approx \sqrt{(2e6)} \approx 1400$  m/s

## Propagation of pressure waves

Assuming small pressure and density fluctuations

$$P = p_0 + p \text{ where } p \ll p_0$$

$$R = \rho_0 + \rho \text{ where } \rho \ll \rho_0$$

- a waveform retains its shape as it travels (linear propagation)
- propagation can be described by the linear wave equation

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

Solutions of linear wave equation:

- planar wave propagating in z-direction:  $p=A g(z-t/c)$
- spherical wave:  $p=A/|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}_0| g(z-t/c)$

# Energetics of pressure waves [Coussios 2005]

- A wave causes flow of energy without net flow of mass
- Flow of power  $P$  through area  $A$  is the acoustic intensity  $I=P/A$  ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ )
- Pressure  $p$  and particle velocity  $v$  are related by impedance  $Z$ , and intensity  $I$  is given by product of two:

$$p(\mathbf{r},t) = Z(\mathbf{r}) v(\mathbf{r},t)$$

$$\text{instantaneous intensity } I_{\text{inst}}(\mathbf{r},t) = p(\mathbf{r},t) v(\mathbf{r},t)$$

$$\text{acoustic intensity } I(\mathbf{r}) = p_{\text{rms}}(\mathbf{r}) v_{\text{rms}}(\mathbf{r}) = p(\mathbf{r})_{\text{max}}^2 / 2Z(\mathbf{r}) = \&c.$$

(*cf.* voltage and current in electronics!)

- Using phasors to represent  $p$ ,  $v$ ,  $Z$  may be complex (again, *cf.* electronics)!
- **For planar waves only:**
  - acoustic impedance  $Z =$  characteristic impedance of medium  $\rho c$
- Intensity  $I=P/A$  flows at speed  $c$ . Hence energy density  $E = I/c$  ( $\text{J m}^{-3}$ )

## Propagation in tissue

- Is tissue a solid or a liquid?
- Can it support shear waves?
- What is propagation speed  $c$  in tissue?

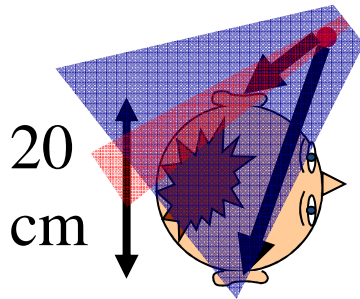
## Longitudinal speeds of sound [Wells 1999]

- Hard tissue (bones, teeth);  $c \approx 4000$  m/s
- Soft tissue (muscle, fat);  $c \approx 1540$  m/s
- Liquid tissue (blood, lymph);  $c \approx 1570$  m/s
- Gas pockets (lungs, oesophagus);  $c \approx 330$  m/s
- compare with steel, water and air – at 37°C!

## Soft tissue

- Aqueous solution with suspension of cells and matrix of extracellular scaffolding (collagen, elastin)
- Modelled as a *viscoelastic gel*
- Solid-like elasticity and liquid-like viscosity both contribute to presence of shear waves ( $\sim 3$  m/s [McLaughlin and Renzi 2006])

## 2. Binaural hearing [\[Sekuler and Blake 1994\]](#)



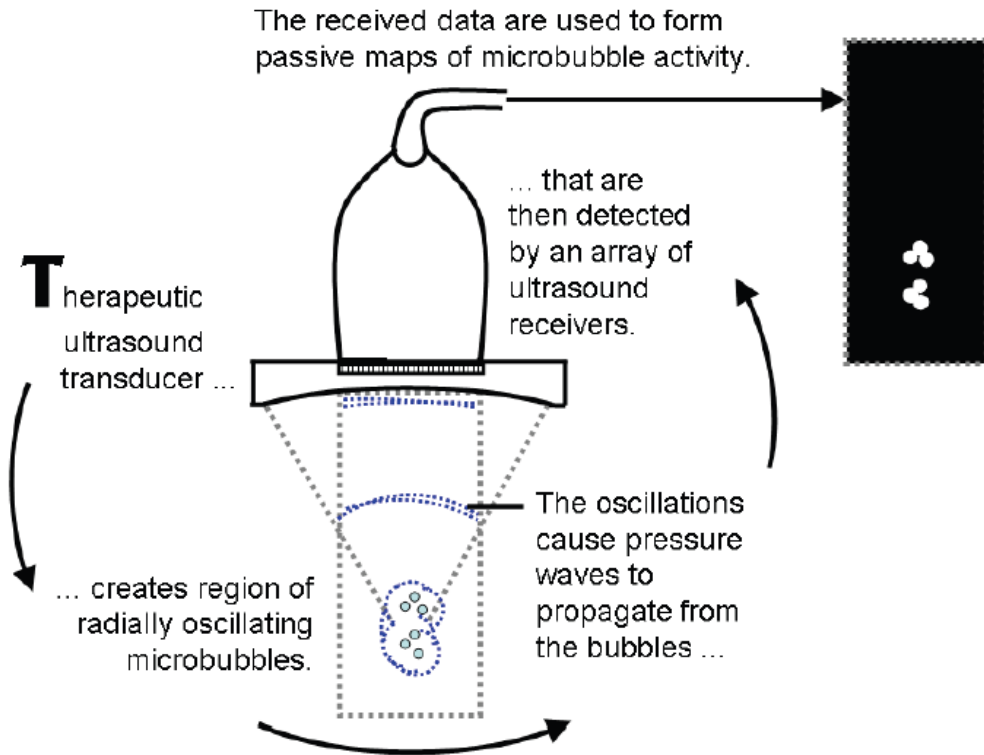
1000 Hz  $\Leftrightarrow$  1 ms  $\Leftrightarrow$  ~34 cm  
frequency  $f$ , attenuation coefficient  $\alpha$

- $f < 2000$  Hz: low  $\alpha$ , high diffraction: interaural time difference
- $f > 4000$  Hz: high  $\alpha$ , low diffraction: interaural level difference
- Passive method without temporal reference
- *Time differences of arrival (TDoA) in diagnostic ultrasound?*
- What are diffraction and attenuation?
- Role of attenuation and diffraction in diagnostic ultrasound?

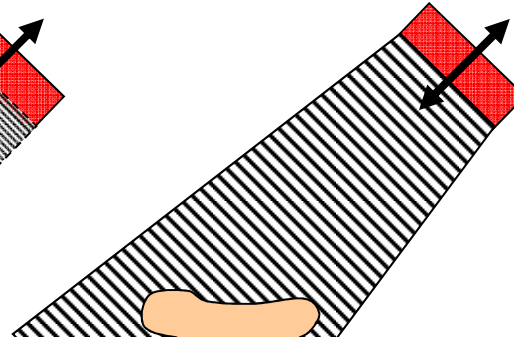
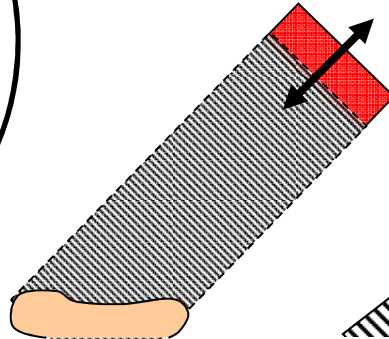
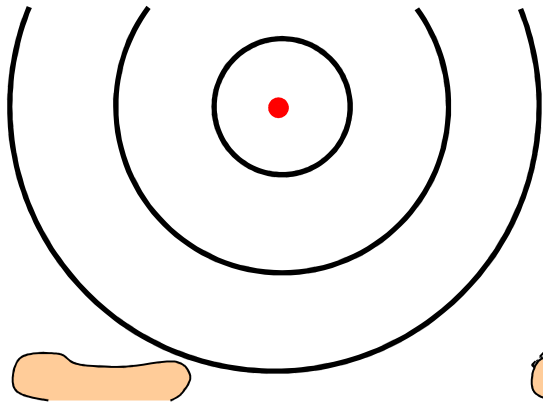


## *TDoA in medical ultrasound: Tracking popping bubbles – passive cavitation mapping*

- Cavitation (bubble activity) often involved in ultrasound therapies
- Cavitation may occur at any time (no temporal reference)
- Time differences of arrival of shockwaves allows localisation of bubbles

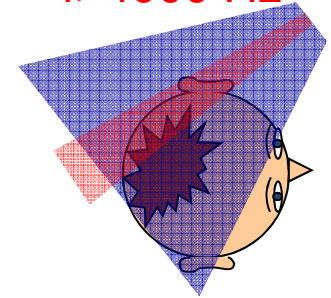


[Gyöngy 2010]



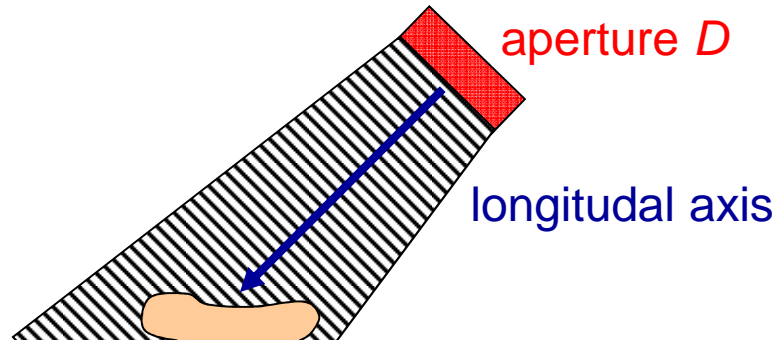
$f < 2000$  Hz

$f > 4000$  Hz



## Diffraction

- Point source spreads spherically
- Set of point sources *interfere* with each other
- Continuous source region *diffracts*
  - analogous to interference of infinite point sources
- Level of diffraction decreases with frequency

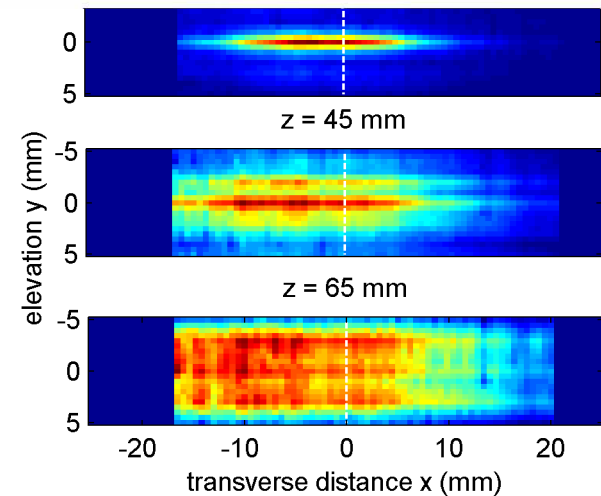
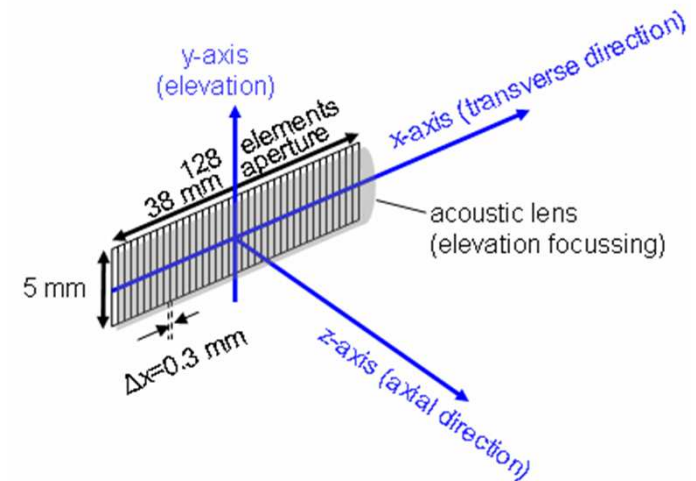


## Diffraction

- Consider single frequency  $f$
- Pressure field  $p(\mathbf{r})$  expressed as complex scalar field of phasors
- Small distances  $|\mathbf{r}|$  (*near-field*):  $p(\mathbf{r}) =$  complex interference pattern
- Large distances  $|\mathbf{r}|$  (*far-field*):  $|p| = H(\theta)/|\mathbf{r}|$
- Transition on longitudinal axis at  $|\mathbf{r}| = D^2 f / 4c$  [Olympus 2006]
- Transition depends on aperture  $D$  as well as frequency!

## Diffraction in diagnostic ultrasound

- Typical abdominal 1D array: the L10-5 from Zonare medical systems
- Focusing in imaging plane using acoustic lens
- $z=17.5$  mm elevational focus
- $z=60-100$ mm: roughly constant,  $\sim 10$  mm sensitivity in elevational direction
- scattering object 5 mm out of imaging plane may be seen!



[Gyöngy 2010]

### Attenuation

- Consider a planar wave travelling in the z-direction
- Without any attenuation, the wave will maintain its amplitude:

$$p=A g(t-z/c)$$

- In reality, some of wave redirected in other direction (scattering) and some is converted to microscopic random motion – heat (absorption)
- If attenuation is uniform over distance:

$$p=A \exp(-\alpha z) g(t-z/c)$$

where  $\alpha$  is attenuation coefficient in Nepers

- What if attenuation is caused by a single object?

### Attenuation in diagnostic ultrasound

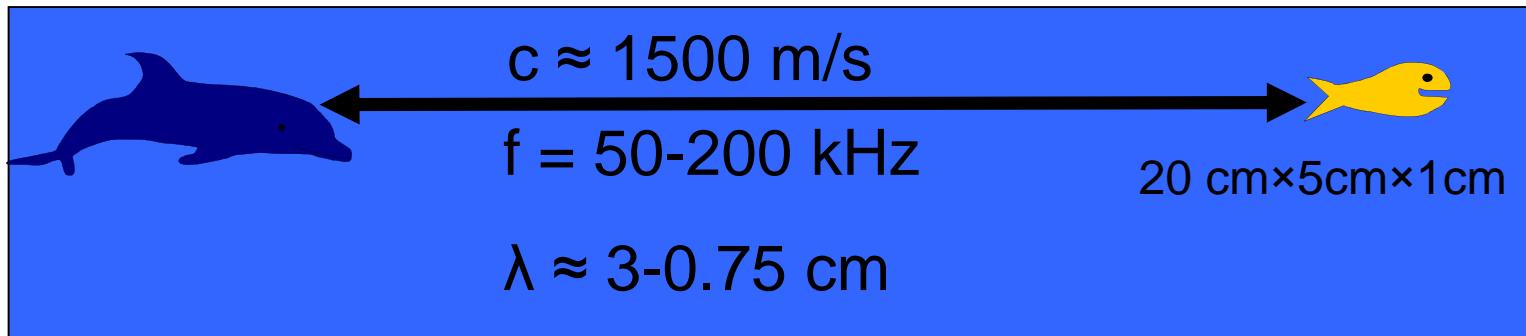
- For plane wave travelling in  $z$ -direction, attenuation coefficient  $\alpha$  describes “weakening” of pressure with distance:

$$p = A \exp\{j(kz - \omega t)\} \exp(-\alpha z)$$
$$|p| = A \exp(-\alpha z)$$

where  $\alpha$  is in Nepers (Np for short).

- For tissue,  $\alpha_{\text{dB}} \approx 1 \text{ dB/cm/MHz}$  [Brunner 2002]
- Therefore, at 6 MHz
  - pressure amplitude halves for every cm travelled
  - pressure received from perfectly reflecting target 10 cm deep (consider two-way propagation)?
- Exercise: show that  $1 \text{ dB} \approx 0.115 \text{ Np}$
- What is origin of attenuation?

## 3. Echolocation [\[Au et al. 2007\]](#)



- Active method: time of transmission acts as reference
- Two-way travel time, speed of sound (SoS) → localization
- *Analogy with diagnostic ultrasound?*
- How accurate is the localization?
- How do echoes form from the fish (scattering)?

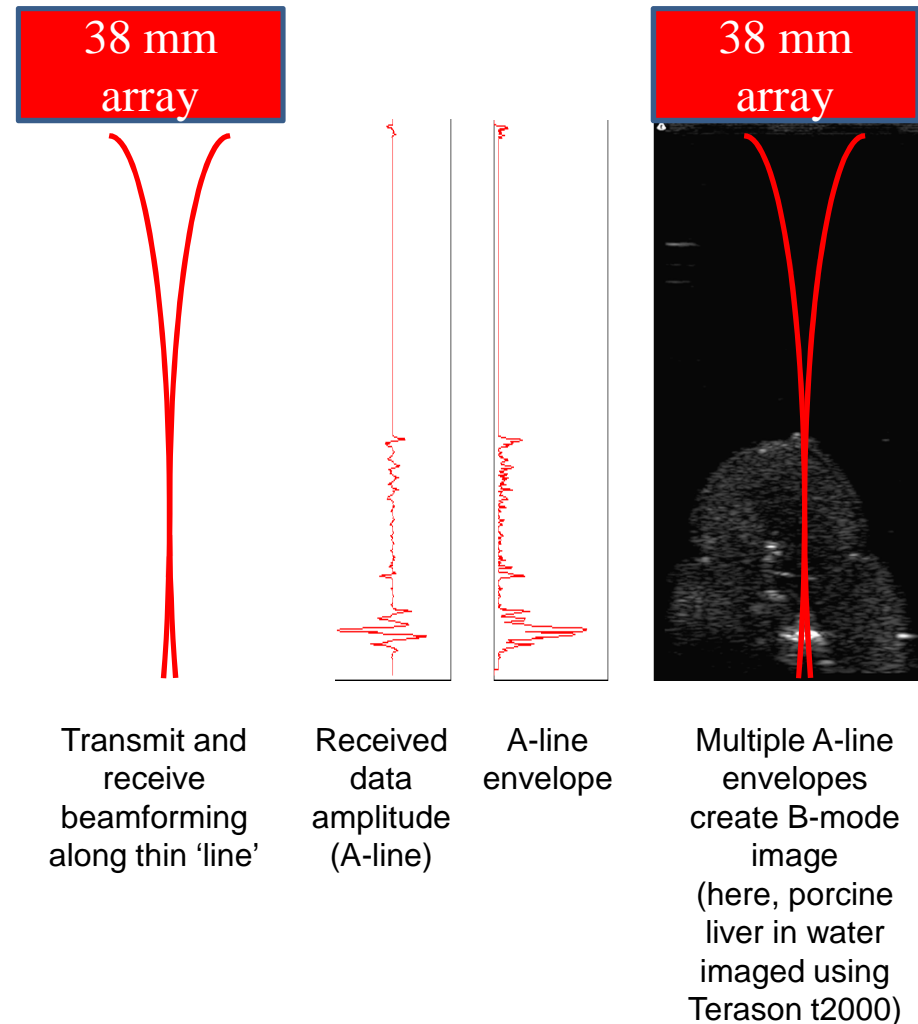
## *Diagnostic echolocation:*

### *pulse-echo B-mode imaging*

- Most widespread form of diagnostic ultrasound imaging

- Very simple conceptually:

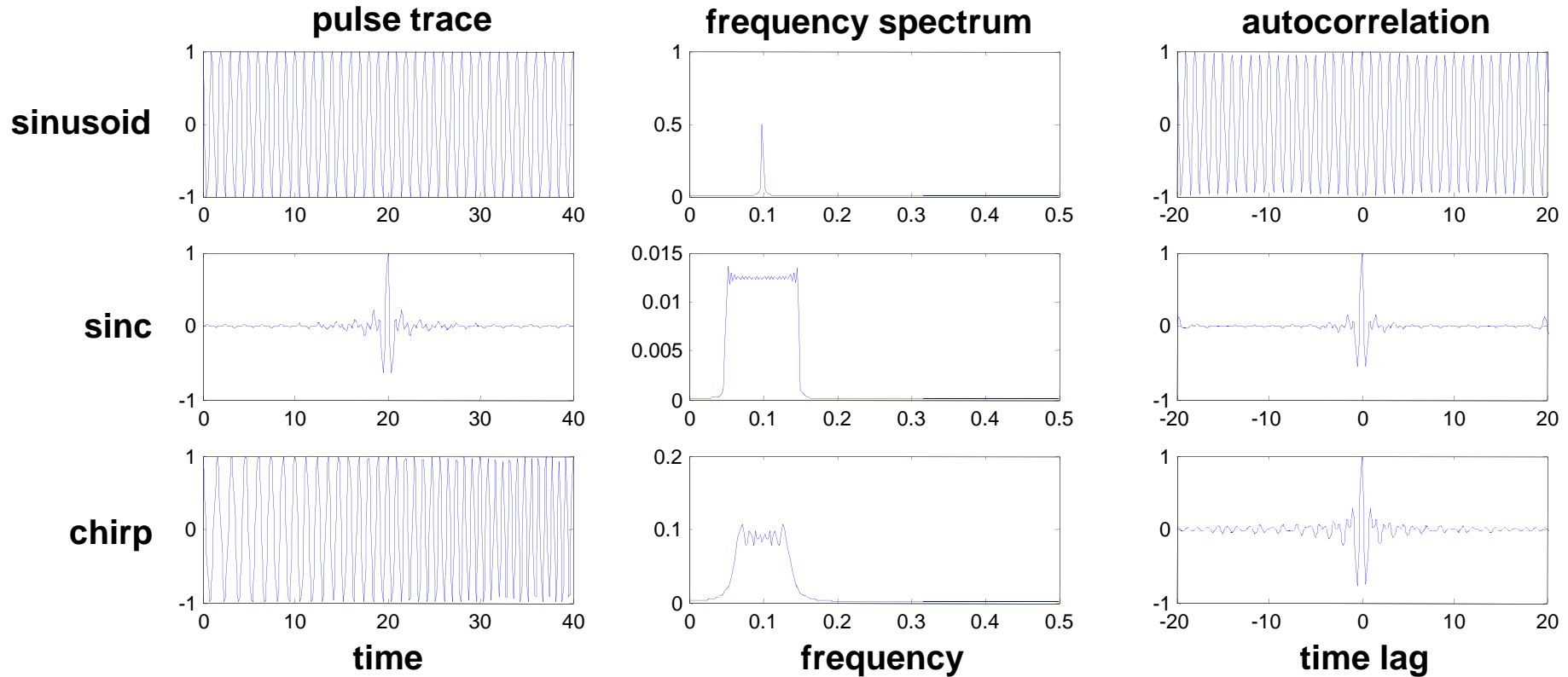
1. transmit pulse along different lines
2. convert timeline of recorded echoes to distance ( $d=t/2c$ )
3. convert amplitude of echoes to brightness on a screen





## Localisation accuracy

Determined by width of transmit pulse autocorrelation

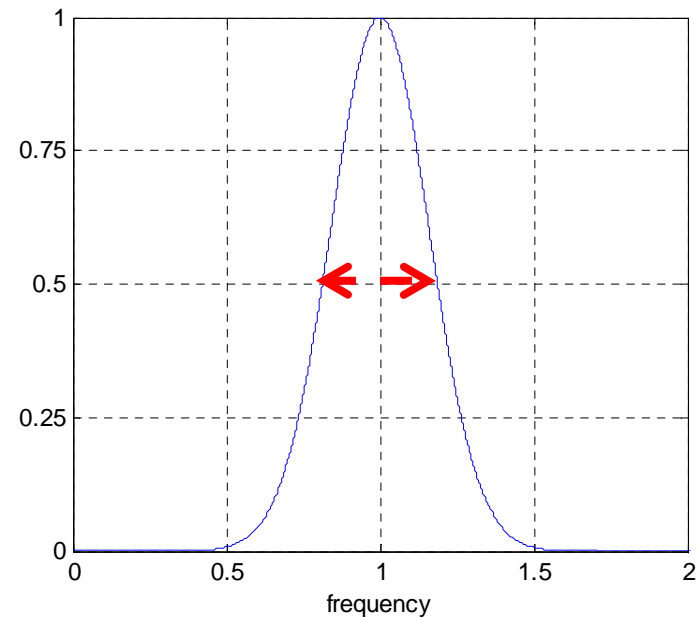
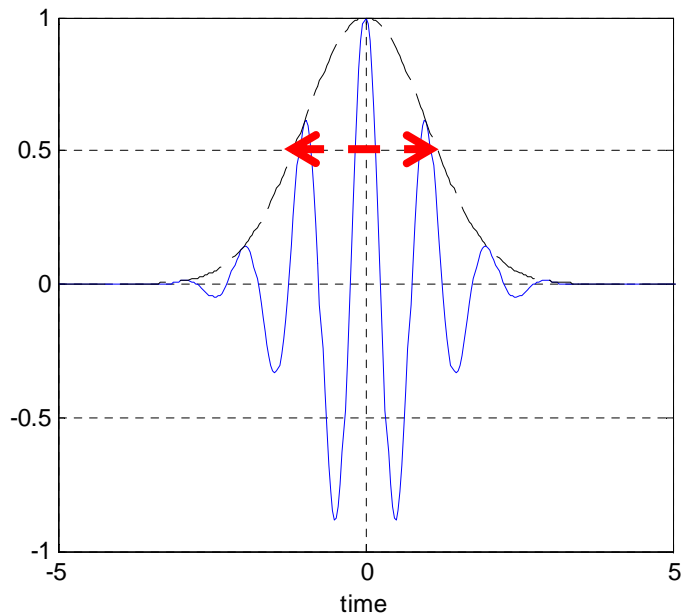


## Localisation accuracy

$$\Delta t \Delta f \approx 1; 2.355 \times 0.375 = 0.883$$

$$\# \text{oscillations} \approx f_0 \Delta t \approx f_0 / \Delta f = Q (= 1 / 0.375 = 2.667)$$

Approximation better for  $Q \gg 1$  (underdamping)

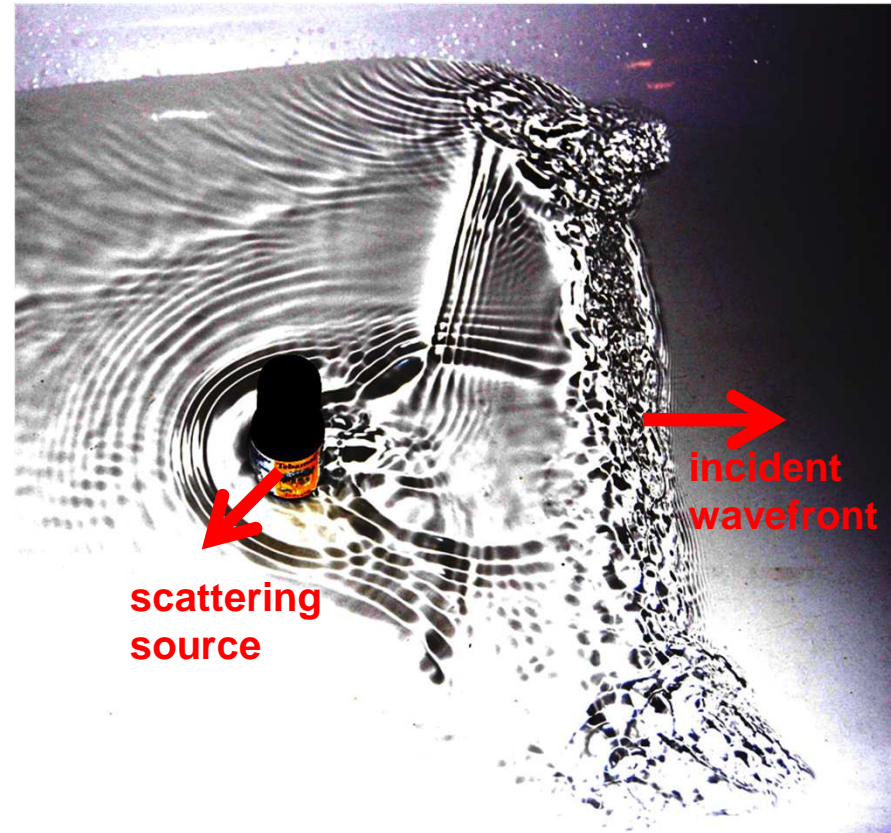


## Scattering

- Caused by inhomogeneities of the medium (variations in compressibility  $\kappa$  and density  $\rho$ )
- Total pressure field modelled as sum of incident and scattered field:

$$p(\mathbf{r}, t) = p_i(\mathbf{r}, t) + p_s(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

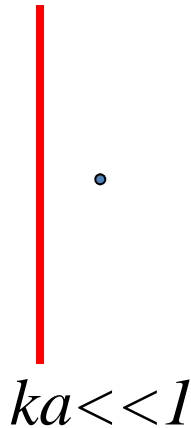
- Hence, scattering creates “virtual sources”



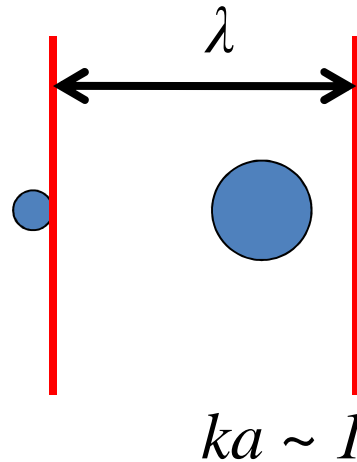
Surface wave scattered in bath tub by 27 mm object

## Regimes of echo formation (scattering):

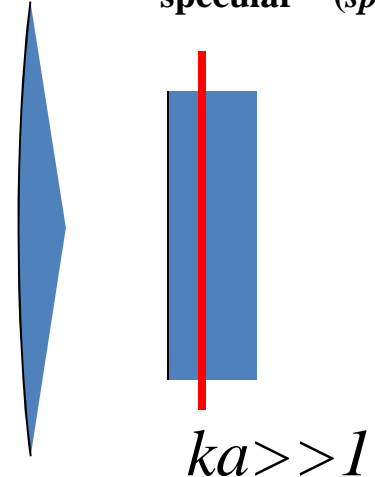
sub-wavelength scattering  
“diffusive”



resonant scattering  
“diffractive”



reflective scattering  
“specular” (*speculum, mirror*)



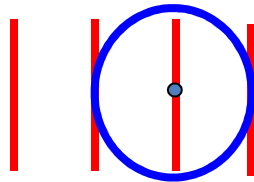
- $k = 2\pi/\lambda$ : angular wavenumber
- $a$ : characteristic size of scatterer (for sphere, equals radius)
- $ka$ : number (dimensionless): characterises scattering behaviour
- reflection a limiting case of scattering

## Sub-wavelength scattering ( $ka \ll 1$ ) [Lighthill 2001]

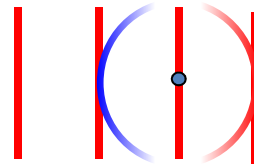
- Changes in compressibility  $\kappa$  and density  $\rho$  has different effects:
  - $\Delta\kappa$  causes angle-independent (monopolar) scattering
  - $\Delta\rho$  causes dipolar scattering equivalent to two opposing monopoles

$$p_s(\mathbf{r}, t) \propto \frac{\kappa_s - \kappa_0}{\kappa_0} + \frac{3(\rho_s - \rho_0)}{\rho_0 + 2\rho_s} \cos \theta = \{\text{fixed, incompressible}\} - 1 + \frac{3}{2} \cos \theta$$

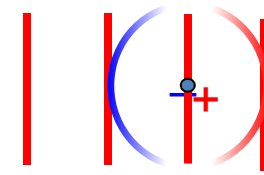
- $\theta$ : direction relative to direction of propagation



**monopolar scattering**  
 $\Delta$  volumetric changes



**dipolar scattering**  
 $\Delta$  momentum changes



**dipole ~**  
**2 anti-phase monopoles**

- Amplitude of scattered pressure increases with  $k$  and  $a$ 
  - how to quantify “scattering ability” of object?

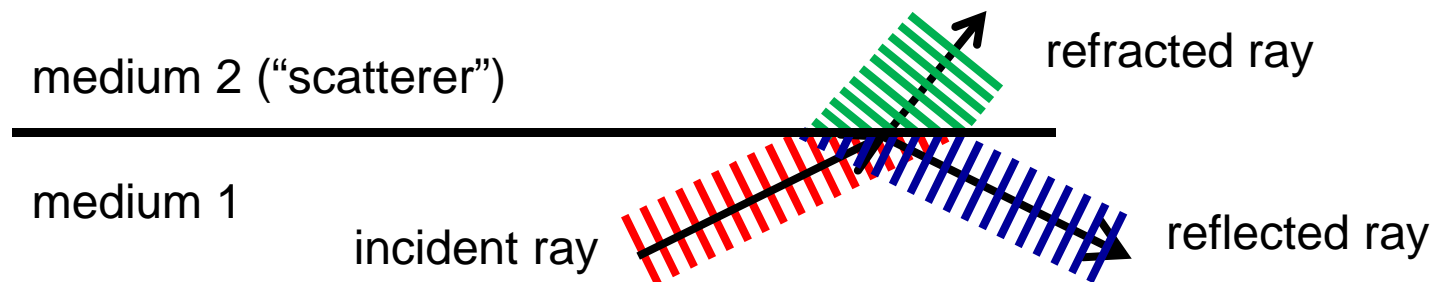
### Resonant scattering ( $ka \sim 1$ ) [Lighthill 2001]

- Incident pressure varies over object
- Interference between scattering wavefronts at different locations causes complicated scattered field
  - backscattered wavefronts from front and back of scatterer in phase  
→ resonance
- Mode conversion at boundary (pressure wave  $\leftrightarrow$  shear wave) also causes resonance peaks
- By definition, in far-field of scatterer, pressure amplitude varies reciprocally with distance for constant angle:

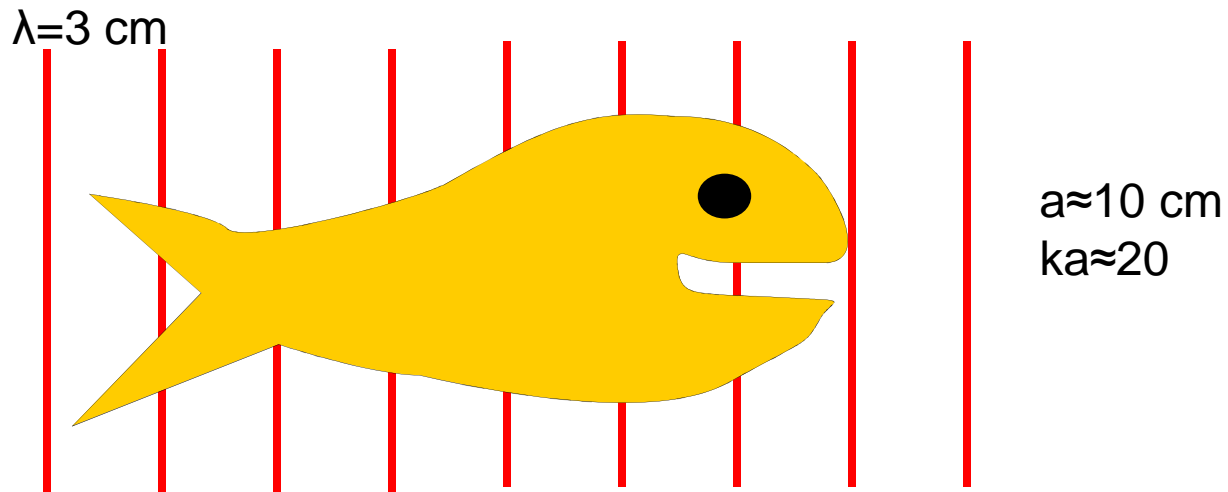
$$p_s(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{H(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{|\mathbf{r}|}$$

### Reflective scattering ( $ka \gg 1$ ) [Lighthill 2001]

- Scatterer very large: meetings of pressure wave with object boundary *independent* of each other (no phase information). (*In reality, if transmitted pulse is long enough and attenuation does not extinguish a wave before it hits a new boundary, standing waves will be set up*)
- At each boundary, mismatch in *characteristic acoustic impedance* ( $=\rho c$ ) creates reflection (as well as refraction)
- Laws of geometric acoustics used for *ray tracing* (cf. optics)
- Rays describe direction of high-frequency acoustic beams that undergo negligible diffraction or interference



## Fish as (resonant) scatterers

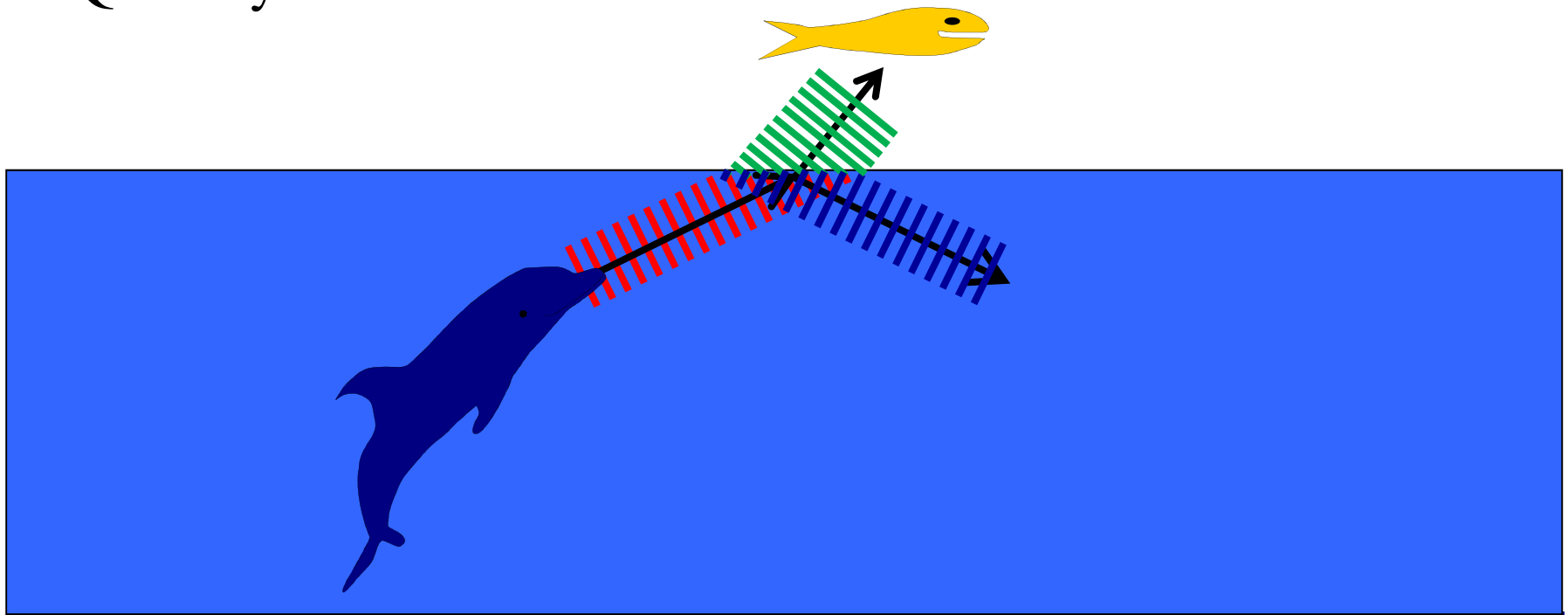


<u>[Ye and Farmer 1996]</u>	Water	Swimbladder	Fish
Mass density (kg m <sup>3</sup> )	1026	1.24	1560
Bulk modulus (MPa)	2200	0.15	2600



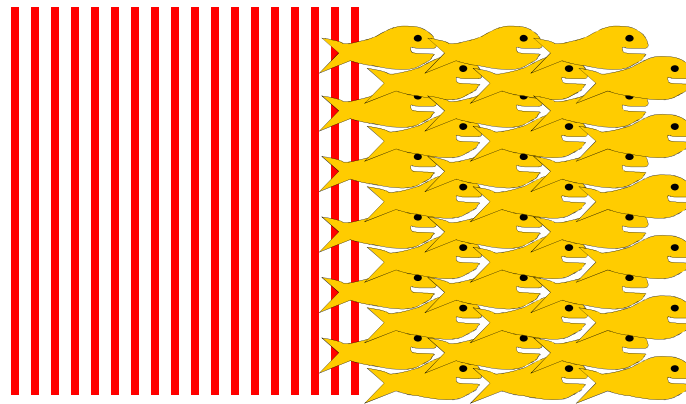
## Echolocation of airborne objects

- Air-water boundary creates great impedance mismatch
- Most sound is reflected from boundary
- Quantify this?



### How does a fish school scatter?

- Multiple scattering inside fish school: diffusion of sound
- School fish as bulk inhomogeneous material: reflection
- As fish (parts) made smaller
  - diffusion (causing attenuation) decreases (eventually)
  - fish school becomes homogeneous medium



## Acoustic concepts covered so far...

## and their relevance to diagnostic ultrasound

- propagation of sound:  $\approx 1540$  m/s in soft tissue
- diffraction: focussing of mm-thick beams
- reflection and refraction: organ boundaries
- scattering: cells, collagen, elastin
- attenuation:  $\approx 1$  dB/cm/MHz

Let us review these concepts again...

and provide some additional notes

## Propagation of pressure waves [Coussios 2005]

- Derivation of wave equation from the governing equations of acoustics:

**Eqn. of state** (pressure function of density):  $P(R)$

**Continuity eqn.:** (mass rate of change in  $dV = \text{flux in/out } dV$ ):  $\partial R/\partial t = -\nabla \cdot (R\mathbf{v})$

**Momentum eqn.** (Newton's second law of motion):  $-\nabla P = \rho \partial \mathbf{v}/\partial t$

- Assuming small pressure and density fluctuations

$$P = p_0 + p \text{ where } p \ll p_0; R = \rho_0 + \rho \text{ where } \rho \ll \rho_0$$

**Linearised eqn. of state:**  $p = (\kappa\rho_0)^{-1}\rho$  (compressibility  $\kappa = 1/(-V \partial p/\partial V)$ )

**Linearised continuity eqn.:**  $\partial \rho/\partial t = -\rho_0 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}$

**Linearised momentum eqn.:**  $-\nabla p = \rho_0 \partial \mathbf{v}/\partial t$

- Linear wave equation hence derived

$$\nabla^2 p = \nabla \cdot (\nabla p) = -\rho_0 \nabla \cdot (\partial \mathbf{v}/\partial t) = \partial (-\rho_0 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v})/\partial t = \partial^2 \rho/\partial t^2 = c^{-2} \partial^2 p/\partial t^2 \text{ where } c = (\kappa\rho_0)^{-1/2}$$

- Derivations in linear acoustics follow from these governing equations (e.g. formula on wave speed, acoustic impedance of a plane wave)

## Non-linear propagation [Cobbold, pp. 228-237; Hill *et al.* 2004, pp. 34-35,\*115]

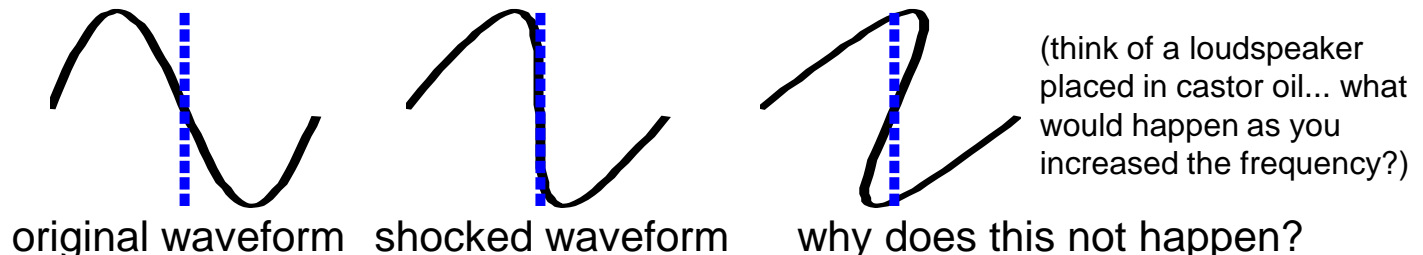
- Non-linearity arises from two effects
  1. Medium non-linearity:  $p = A(\rho/\rho_0) + B/2(\rho/\rho_0)^2 + \dots$  ( $p$  non-linear function of  $\rho$ )
  2. Convective non-linearity: wave transported by particle motion
- For typical materials ( $B/A > 1$ ), both effects cause an increase of  $c$  with  $p$ :

1. Medium non-linearity: medium less dense than expected
2. Convective non-linearity: particle with forward motion carries pressure quicker

$$c = c_0 + \beta v = c_0 + (1+B/2A)v$$

where  $\beta$  is the coefficient of non-linearity (water:5.0 blood:6.3 liver:7.8 pig fat:11.1\*)

- Pressure dependent wave speed causes distortion of waveform with distance
- As a result, waveform accumulates harmonics as it travels

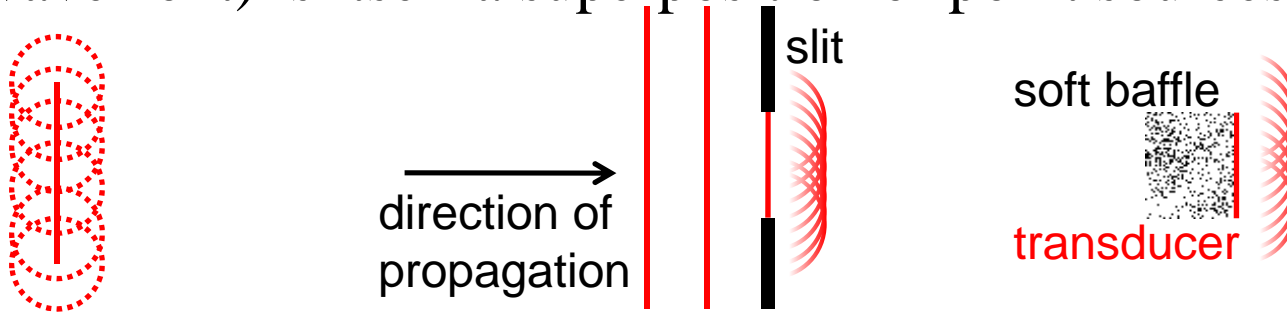


## Non-linear processes in diagnostic ultrasound

- Non-linear propagation of ultrasound introduces harmonics into the wave as it propagates towards reflector/scatterer and back towards array, the degree of non-linear propagation being highest at the highest amplitude (focus)
- Pulse-echo imaging of such harmonics is called tissue harmonic imaging
- Air bubbles are highly non-linear scatterers, scattering sound at harmonics of the incident wave (for high enough amplitudes, they will scatter sound at the subharmonics, ultraharmonics and even in the broadband frequency range [Neppiras 1980])
- By introducing stabilised bubbles (ultrasound contrast agents) into bloodstream, perfusion can be imaged (contrast agent imaging)
- Harmonics can be recovered in several ways:
  - send one pulse and extract harmonic component of echo
  - send two pulses, one inverse of other, and consider difference between two echoes (pulse inversion)

## Diffraction

- Huygen's principle: each point of non-zero pressure field (such as wavefront) is itself a superposition of point sources



- But: consider a single planar source. As it spreads in two directions, the source won't keep splitting in two!
- Modified Huygen's principle: point sources have directivity given by *obliquity factor* (maximum at propagation direction)
- Application to ultrasound transducers: pressure field result of sum of (directional) point sources across transducer surface

## Reflection and refraction

- Reflection and refraction governed by change in characteristic acoustic impedance  $Z = \rho c$  across boundary.
- Ratio of pressure reflected:  $(Z_2 - Z_1) / (Z_1 + Z_2)$
- $Z$  has units of Rayls
- For planar waves,  $p / |\mathbf{v}| = Z$ , where  $\mathbf{v}$  is velocity field

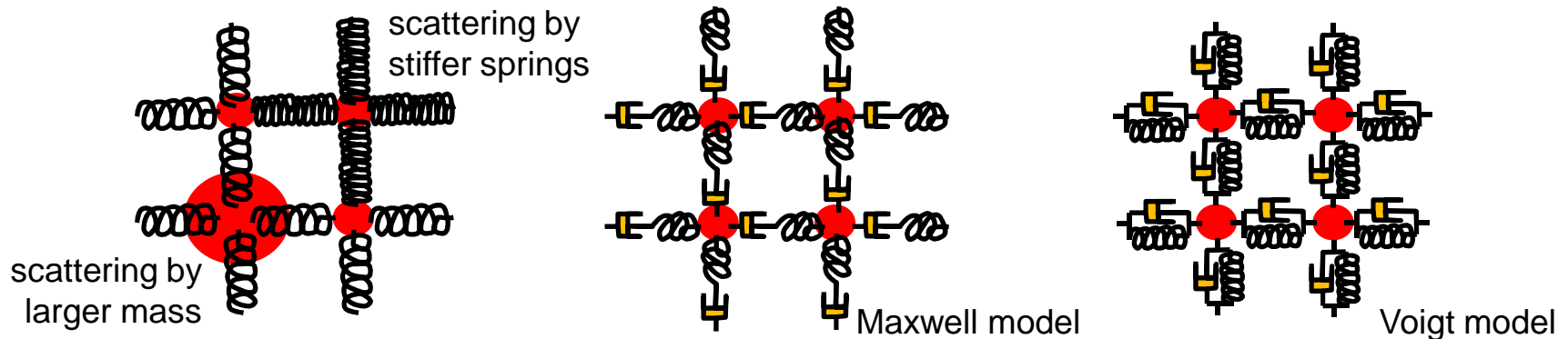
[Kaye&Laby]	Air	Water	Blood	Bone
Z (MRayl)	4e-4	1.5	1.1	3.5–4.6

- Over 99.9% of pressure is reflected at air-water boundary!
- Refraction governed by Snell's law:  $\sin\theta_1 / \sin\theta_2 = c_1 / c_2$



## Attenuation in simple conceptual terms

- Ordered vibrations of a wave gradually
  - re-transmitted in other directions (scattering)
  - turned into unordered, random mechanical (i.e. thermal) fluctuations (absorption)
- Simple model of wave propagation: particles held together by springs
- Wave propagation due to reaction force of springs and inertia of particles
- Scattering caused by variations in particle mass and spring stiffness
- Absorption: addition (series or parallel) of dashpots to springs [Gao *et al.* 1996]



## Attenuation in tissue [Sehgal and Greenleaf 1984]

- Scattering from density and compressibility changes (*cf.* mass-spring model)
- Classical thermoviscous model: absorption arises from phase difference between  $p, \rho$  [Lighthill 2001 pp. 78-79]

$$p = c^2 \rho + \delta \partial \rho / \partial t; \text{ leading to } \partial \rho / \partial t - c^{-2} \partial p / \partial t + \delta c^{-2} \partial^3 \rho / (\partial z^2 \partial t) = 0$$

- Such phase difference may arise from [Cobbold 2007, pp. 84-86]
  - heat conduction
  - viscosity
  - molecular (thermal and structural) relaxation
- Scattering: diffuse to diffractive single particules ( $ka \leq 1$ )  $\alpha_s \sim f^{2-4}$  predicted
- Absorption: thermoviscous model predicts  $\alpha_a \sim f^2$  (sim. to Kelvin-Voigt model)

**In contrast,  $\alpha_s, \alpha_a$  both  $\sim f^{1.1-1.2}$  in tissue! Modify models:**

- $\alpha_s$ : spatial auto-correlation for  $\Delta\rho, \Delta\kappa$  [Sehgal and Greenleaf 1984]
- $\alpha_a$ : [Szabo 2004, pp. 77-83]; large mass-spring-dashpot arrangements [Gao *et al.* 1996]

## Attenuation by single objects [Cobbold 2007, pp. 270-271]

- Consider intensity  $I$  plane wave impinging on object with cross-section (c.s.)  $A$
- If object removes all incident intensity (“full attenuator”),  $P_{removed} = IA$
- Object with c.s.  $A$  removes e.g. half of  $I$  acts like full attenuator of c.s.  $A/2$
- Define acoustic c.s. as equivalent c.s. of full attenuator
- Total acoustic c.s. (area) sum of attenuation c.s. and scattering c.s.

$$\sigma = \sigma_a + \sigma_s = P_{removed}/I$$

- Differential scattering c.s.(area/solid angle)

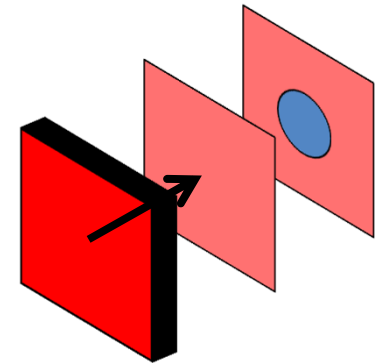
$$\sigma_{ds}(\theta) = P_s(\theta)/I \text{ (unlike attenuation, scattering } \theta\text{-dependent)}$$

- Differential backscattering c.s. (area /solid angle)

$$\sigma_{dbs} = \sigma_{ds}(\theta=[\pi \ 0]) \text{ (arises in pulse-echo ultrasonics)}$$

- Backscattering coefficient (area/solid angle/volume) [Cobbold 2007, p. 308]

$$\sigma_{BSC} = \sigma_{ds}(\theta=[\pi \ 0])/V \text{ (gives “density” of scattering)}$$



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