Basic Ultrasound Physics

![Diagram of ultrasound physics showing phase, amplitude, frequency, and an A/D converter with binary data 0101101011010110]
Waves

- There are two types of waves:
  - Transverse waves: these waves are perpendicular to the direction of energy transfer, e.g., violin string.
  - Longitudinal waves: these waves are parallel to the direction of energy transfer, e.g., a pulse from a piston in a cylinder, sound waves.
What is Ultrasound?

- Ultrasound is a wave with a frequency exceeding the upper limit of human hearing
  - greater than 20,000 Hz (hertz)
Waves

- We can measure longitudinal waves in two ways:
  - Distance: the wave length
  - Frequency: how many times per second the compression peak occurs at a point in space.
Waves

• Frequency (f) and wavelength (λ) are related by the speed of sound in the medium:

\[ v = f \lambda \]

• Generally speaking, V is related to the compressibility of the medium, slower in gasses, faster in liquids, and fastest in solids.
What is Sound?

• Sound is a mechanical wave that travels in a straight line
• Requires a medium through which to travel
What is Sound?

• Sound has:
  – Energy: or work, in Joules (1 J = 1 kgm2/s2)
  – Power: is rate of energy, in Watts (1 W = 1 J/s)
  – Intensity: is pressure, force per unit area, in Pascals (1 P = 1 N/m2)

• Sound intensity/energy/power changes over many orders of magnitude.

• We use logarithmic measures, called decibels (dB). A dB is a dimensionless measure. It is a ratio.

• We pick some standard to measure, call it S0, and measure signal strength (intensity) w.r.t. S0.

\[ X \text{ (dB)} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{S}{S_0} \right) \]
What is Sound?

• For example:
  – S0=1:
    • S=10, X=10 dB
    • S=2, X=3 dB
    • S=0.5, X=-3 dB
    • S=0.1, X=-10 dB
What is Sound?

- Speed of sound in biological media:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nonbiologic Material</th>
<th>Velocity (m/sec)</th>
<th>Biologic Material</th>
<th>Velocity (m/sec)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acetone</td>
<td>1174</td>
<td>Fat</td>
<td>1475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>Brain</td>
<td>1560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aluminum (rolled)</td>
<td>6420</td>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>1570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brass</td>
<td>4700</td>
<td>Kidney</td>
<td>1560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethanol</td>
<td>1207</td>
<td>Spleen</td>
<td>1570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass (Pyrex)</td>
<td>5640</td>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>1570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acrylic plastic</td>
<td>2680</td>
<td>Muscle</td>
<td>1580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercury</td>
<td>1450</td>
<td>Lens of eye</td>
<td>1620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nylon (6-6)</td>
<td>2620</td>
<td>Skull bone</td>
<td>3360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polyethylene</td>
<td>1950</td>
<td>Soft tissue (mean value)</td>
<td>1540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water (distilled), 25°C</td>
<td>1498</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water (distilled), 50°C</td>
<td>1540</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Velocity (propagation speed)

- The speed with which a sound wave travels through a medium
- Units of measure are distance/time
  - cm/sec
- The speed of sound is determined by the **density** and **stiffness** of the media in which it travels
  - slowest in air/gasses
  - fastest in solids
- Average speed of ultrasound in the body is **1540 m/sec**
What is Sound?

• Energy loss is called attenuation. There are many mechanisms that cause that. The main ones we care about are:
  – Absorption: conversion to heat
  – Reflection: organized change in direction of the wave (specular: mirror like)
  – Scatter: disorganized change in direction

• Attenuation is denoted by $\alpha$, a coefficient that describes how energy is dissipated.
What is Sound?

- For biological tissues, $\alpha$ is poorly estimated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>$\alpha$ (dB/cm)</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>$\alpha$ (dB/cm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>Lung</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fat</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscle (across fibers)</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Brain</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscle (along fibers)</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Kidney</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aqueous and vitreous humor of eye</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>Spinal cord</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Water</td>
<td>0.0022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lens of eye</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Caster oil</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skull bone</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Lucite</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interactions of Ultrasound with Tissue
Interactions of Ultrasound with Tissue

- Reflection
- Scattering
- Transmission
- Attenuation
Interactions of Ultrasound with Tissue

• Reflection
• Scattering
• Transmission
• Attenuation
Reflection

- Reflection occurs at a boundary/interface between two adjacent tissues.
- The difference in *acoustic impedance* \((z)\) between the two tissues causes reflection of the sound wave.

\[
z = \text{density x velocity}
\]

\[
z = 1.1 \times 10^6 \quad z = 1.7 \times 10^6
\]
Reflection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Acoustic Impedance $(\text{kg-m}^{-2} \cdot \text{sec}^{-1}) \times 10^{-4}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Air at standard temperature and pressure</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polyethylene</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plexiglas</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aluminum</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercury</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brass</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fat</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aqueous and vitreous humor of eye</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brain</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidney</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human soft tissue, mean value</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spleen</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liver</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscle</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lens of eye</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skull bone</td>
<td>6.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reflection

- The greater the difference in acoustic impedance between two adjacent tissues, the greater the reflection.
- If there is no difference in acoustic impedance, there is no reflection.

\[ \alpha_R = \frac{(Z_2 - Z_1)^2}{(Z_2 + Z_1)^2} \]

Scanhead

\[ z = 1.1 \times 10^6 \quad z = 1.7 \times 10^6 \]
Reflection

- The greater the difference in acoustic impedance between two adjacent tissues, the greater the reflection
- If there is no difference in acoustic impedance, there is no reflection

\[ \alpha_T = 1 - \alpha_R = \frac{4Z_1Z_2}{(Z_2 + Z_1)^2} \]

Scanhead

\[ z = 1.1 \times 10^6 \quad z = 1.7 \times 10^6 \]
Reflection

• Example 1:
At a “liver-air” interface, $Z_1 = 1.65$ and $Z_2 = 0.0004$ (both multiplied by $10^{-4}$ with units kg/(m$^2$sec)).

$$\alpha_R = \frac{(1.65 - 0.0004)^2}{(1.65 + 0.0004)^2} = 0.9995$$

$$\alpha_T = \frac{4(1.65)(0.0004)}{(1.65 + 0.0004)^2} = 0.0005$$
• Example 2:
At a “muscle-liver” interface, $Z_1 = 1.70$ and $Z_2 = 1.65$ (both multiplied by $10^{-4}$ with units kg/(m$^2$sec)).

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha_R &= \frac{(1.70 - 1.65)^2}{(1.70 + 1.65)^2} = 0.015 \\
\alpha_T &= \frac{4(1.70)(1.65)}{(1.70 + 1.65)^2} = 0.985
\end{align*}
\]
Reflection

- Reflection from a smooth tissue interface (specular) causes the sound wave to return to the scanhead
- The ultrasound image is formed from reflected echoes
Interactions of Ultrasound with Tissue

- Reflection
- Scattering
- Transmission
- Attenuation
Scattering

- Redirection of the sound-wave in several directions
- Caused by interaction with a very small reflector or a very rough interface
- Only a portion of the sound-wave returns to the scanhead
FIGURE 2.26 A sound pulse may be scattered by a rough boundary between tissues (A) or within tissues due to their heterogeneous character (B). The differences between a specular surface (smooth pond) (C), a scattering surface (garage door) (D), and a scattering medium (fog) (E) are illustrated.
Interactions of Ultrasound with Tissue

- Reflection
- Scattering
- Transmission
- Attenuation
Transmission

- Not all of the sound-wave is reflected, therefore some of the wave continues deeper into the body
- These waves will reflect from deeper tissue structures
Interactions of Ultrasound with Tissue

- Reflection
- Scattering
- Transmission
- Attenuation
Attenuation

- The deeper the wave travels in the body, the weaker it becomes.
- The amplitude/strength of the wave decreases with increasing depth.
Ultrasound Image Formation: Pulsed Ultrasound

• Pulse-Echo Method
  – Ultrasound scanhead produces “pulses” of ultrasound waves
  – These waves travel within the body and interact with various organs
  – The reflected waves return to the scanhead and are processed by the ultrasound machine
  – An image which represents these reflections is formed on the monitor
Pulsed Ultrasound

MARGIN FIGURE 21-1
A-mode (amplitude mode) of ultrasound display. An oscilloscope display records the amplitude of echoes as a function of time or depth. Points A, B, and C in the patient appear as peaks A, B, and C in the A-mode display.
Pulsed Ultrasound

**MARGIN FIGURE 21-4**
A B-mode image consists of scan lines. The length of the scan lines determines the depth within the patient that is imaged [the field of view (FOV)].
Scanhead Construction
Scanhead Construction
Scanhead Construction

Connector

Matching Layer

Elements/Crystals

Damping Material
Scanhead Construction

• Matching Layer
  – has acoustic impedance between that of tissue and the piezoelectric elements
  – reduces the reflection of ultrasound at the scanhead surface

• Piezoelectric Elements
  – produce a voltage when deformed by an applied pressure
  – quartz, ceramics, man-made material

• Damping Material
  – reduces “ringing” of the element
  – helps to produce very short pulses
Piezoelectric Elements/Crystals

• Some crystals change shape (in at least one direction) with applied voltage. This is reversible: a change in dimension produces a change in voltage.

• The piezoelectric element/crystal produces the ultrasound pulses
  – Electrical pulses applied to the crystal cause it to expand and contract
  – This produces the transmitted ultrasound pulses
Piezoelectric Elements/Crystals
Piezoelectric Elements/Crystals

A
Voltage Pulse
Ultrasound Pulse

B
Voltage Pulse

Echo
Piezoelectric Crystals and Frequency

- The **frequency** of the scanhead is determined by the **thickness** of the crystals.
- Thinner elements produce **HIGHER** frequencies.
- Thicker elements produce **LOWER** frequencies.

Low Frequency  
3 MHz

High Frequency  
10 MHz
Piezoelectric Crystals and Frequency
# Piezoelectric Crystals and Frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency (MHz)</th>
<th>Thickness (mm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Assuming an element propagation speed of 4 mm/μs.*
Human Hair

Single Crystal

Microscopic view of scanhead
Frequency vs. Resolution

• The frequency also affects the quality of the image
  – the higher the frequency, the shorter the wavelength
  – the shorter the wavelength, the better the axial resolution

• Therefore, higher frequency scanheads produce better image resolution
However-

- The HIGHER the frequency, the LESS it can penetrate into the body
- The LOWER the frequency, the DEEPER the penetration

This is the challenge of ultrasound imaging!!
Frequency vs. Depth of Penetration
Therefore-

High frequency scanheads have the best resolution, but the least amount of penetration (e.g. L10-5)

Lower frequency scanheads provide more penetration, but poorer resolution (e.g. C4-2)
Damping

A

Transducer Element

Long Ultrasound Pulse

B

Damping Material

Transducer Element

Short Ultrasound Pulse
Damping

No damping

With damping
Bandwidth

- Bandwidth is the range of frequencies emitted by the scanhead
- Each crystal emits a spectrum of frequencies

5MHz 7.5 MHz 10 MHz
Bandwidth

- A **broadband** scanhead is one which uses the entire frequency bandwidth to form the image.
- A **narrowband** scanhead uses only a portion of the frequency range to form the image.
The Returning Echo

- Reflected echoes return to the scanhead where the piezoelectric elements convert the ultrasound wave back into an electrical signal.
- The electrical signal is then processed by the ultrasound system.
The ultimate goal of any ultrasound system is to make like tissues look alike and unlike tissues look different.
Accomplishing this goal depends upon...

- **Resolving capability of the system**
  - axial/lateral resolution
  - spatial resolution
  - contrast resolution
  - temporal resolution
- **Beamformation**
  - send and receive
- **Processing Power**
  - ability to capture, preserve and display the information
Types of Resolution

- Axial Resolution
  - specifies how close together two objects can be along the axis of the beam, yet still be detected as two separate objects
  - wavelength affects axial resolution
Types of Resolution

- Axial Resolution

*Figure 3.30* Axial resolution improves as frequency increases. (A) 3.5 MHz, with a resolution of 2.0 mm. (B) 5.0 MHz, with a resolution of 1.0 mm. (C) 7.0 MHz, with a resolution of 0.5 mm.
Types of Resolution

- **Lateral Resolution**
  - the ability to resolve two adjacent objects that are **perpendicular** to the beam axis as separate objects
  - Beam width affects lateral resolution
Types of Resolution

- Spatial Resolution
  - also called *Detail Resolution*
  - the combination of AXIAL and LATERAL resolution
  - some companies may use this term
Types of Resolution

• Contrast Resolution
  – the ability to resolve two adjacent objects of different intensity/reflective properties as separate objects
Types of Resolution

- Temporal Resolution
  - the ability to distinguish very rapid events in sequence
  - also known as frame rate
Near and Far Zones
Near and Far Zones

• Near Zone: is also called Fresnel Zone…

Length of Fresnel Zone = (Radius of the transducer)^2/wavelength

• Far Zone: is also called Fraunhofer Zone…
Near and Far Zones

(10 MHz)  (5 MHz)
Near and Far Zones
Near and Far Zones

\[ \sin(\theta) = 0.6 \text{(wavelength)/(Radius of the transducer)} \]

**MARGIN FIGURE 20-4**
Divergence of the ultrasound beam in the Fraunhofer region. Angle \( \theta \) is the Fraunhofer divergence angle.
Near and Far Zones

- Rules for Transducer Design:
  - The near-field length increases with increasing frequency
  - Beam divergence in the far field decreases with increasing frequency
- For a given transducer frequency:
  - The near-field length increases with increasing transducer diameter.
  - Beam divergence in the far field decreases with increasing transducer diameter.
Focusing

Curved Element

Lens

Phasing

A

B

C
Linear/Curved Arrays
Linear Phased Arrays

Fact #1: If an echo comes from a point source, it propagates as a spherical wave. Cross-section hit different time.

Fact #2: By introducing a delay in firing & receiving signals, a plane wave can be “steered”.
Linear Phased Arrays

By introducing a delay in firing & receiving signals, a plane wave can be “steered”.

Diagram A and B show the delay generator setup, with arrows indicating the direction of the signals. Diagram C illustrates the resulting wave pattern, with arrows showing the direction of propagation.
Electronic Focusing

A

Delay Generator

Focus

B

Delay Generator

Focus
Multiple Focusing

Frame rate is reduced
Variable Aperture

A

B

C
Components of an Ultrasound System

- Digital Broadband Beamformer
- RF Sig. Proc. Module
- Echo Detect. Module
- Doppler Module
- Color Flow Module
- Scan Convert Module
- M-mode Module
- Video Output Module
- Cineloop Memory

Acquisition - Signal Proc. - Display - Control

Scanhead - Video Bus - Display

System CPU - Control Bus
Components of an Ultrasound System

• The BEAMFORMER is the ultrasound “engine”
• It coordinates and processes all the signals to and from the scanhead elements
• It is the main component responsible for image formation
Components of an Ultrasound System

As the US passes through tissue, it attenuates and loses strength. There are many unpredictable parameters that affect this attenuation, such as the patient, tissues, coupling, and the pathology. The simplest way is to use Time-Gain Compensation (TGC). This is also called depth-gain compensation (DGC). Assuming that US propagates at 1540 m/s, machines allow the operator to compensate (amplify) the signal by varying a weight (gain).
Components of an Ultrasound System

How is this done?
Simple machines have 3 circular dials (knobs):
- Initial gain
- Final gain
- Slope

Additional controls may be used to set the time which the gains switch.
How is the image formed on the monitor?

- The **strength** or **amplitude** of each reflected wave is represented by a dot.
- The **position** of the dot represents the depth from which the returning echo was received.
- The **brightness** of the dot represents the strength of the returning echo.
- These dots are combined to form a complete image.
Image Display
Position of Reflected Echoes

• Display screen divided into a matrix of PIXELS (picture elements)
Image Display
Position of Reflected Echoes

- How does the system know the depth of the reflection?
- TIMING
  - The system calculates how long it takes for the echo to return to the scanhead
  - The velocity in tissue is assumed constant at 1540m/sec

\[
\text{Velocity} = \frac{\text{Distance} \times \text{Time}}{2}
\]
Strength of Reflected Echoes

- **Strong Reflections = White dots**
  - Diaphragm, gallstones, bone
- **Weaker Reflections = Grey dots**
  - Most solid organs, thick fluid
- **No Reflections = Black dots**
  - Fluid within a cyst, urine, blood
Other modes used with 2D Imaging

- DOPPLER is used to **hear** and **measure** blood flow
- COLOR or CPA (Color Power Angio) is added to **visualize** blood flow
Doppler

Doppler Shift
Doppler

\[ F_d = \frac{2f_c}{c} V \cos \theta \]
Doppler
Doppler

Pulsed Wave

Time X
Doppler
40 MHz Continuous-Wave Doppler Ultrasound of the Human Ciliary Body
Color Doppler