



**European Practice in
Gynaecology and Obstetrics**

Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynaecology

Edited by
**Juriy W
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Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynaecology

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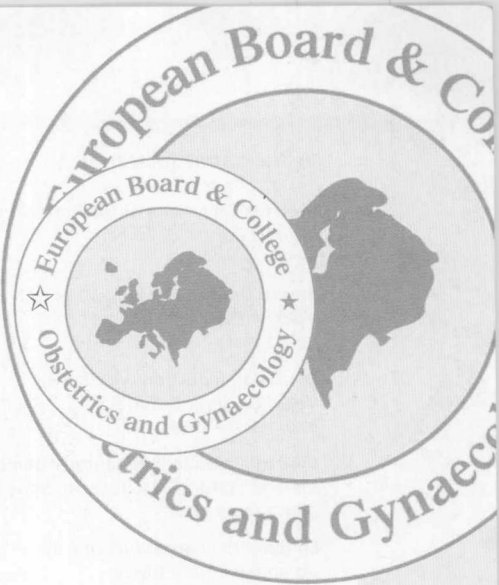
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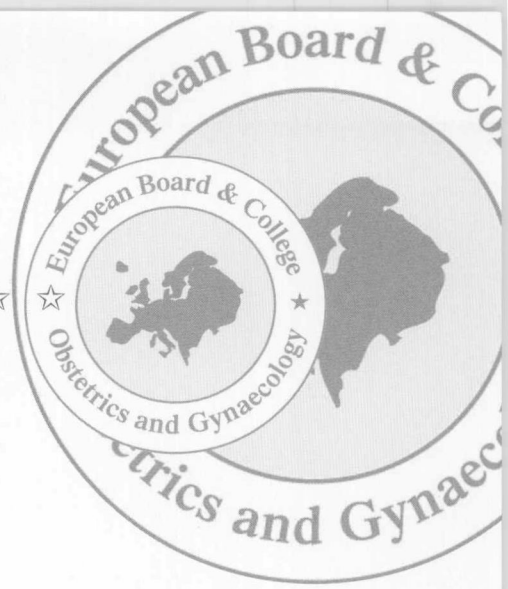
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Amniotic fluid and placental localization



Preface

This textbook is the result of a joint venture between the International Society for Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynaecology (ISUOG) and the European Board and College of Obstetrics and Gynaecology (EBCOG). Both organizations play an important role in training.

The book aims to provide the reader with the information necessary for everyday ultrasonography in obstetrics and gynaecology, rather than a summary of the latest developments in the field.

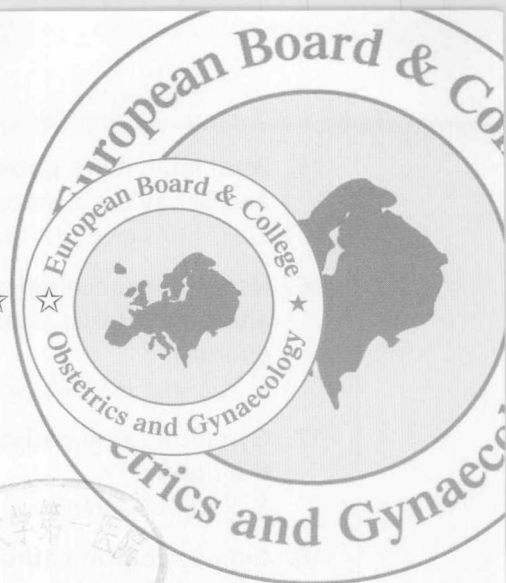
The book follows the traditional pattern of starting with the physical and biological aspects of diagnostic ultrasound, followed by a wide range of clinical applications in obstetrics and gynaecology. Each chapter has been written by one or more experts actively involved in ultrasound teaching. Ultrasound images are presented either in the text or separately on a CD at the end of the book. Multiple choice questions are presented at the end to allow the reader to test his or her knowledge.

We hope that this textbook will serve all those who are active in day-to-day ultrasound scanning.

Juriy W. Wladimiroff, Sturla H. Eik-Nes



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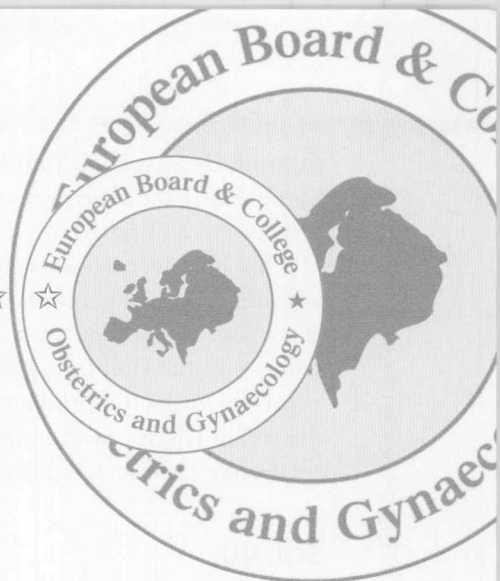
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Physics and instrumentation

Sturla H Eik-Nes



ABSTRACT

This chapter provides an overview of the fundamental physical principles that make it possible to produce images of human tissue using sound. The physical laws are explained without the use of complicated formulas. Sound is a mechanical vibration in a medium such as air or human tissue. The upper frequency limit for sound to be heard by humans is 20 kHz. Frequencies above 20 kHz are called ultrasound. Medical images are made with a frequency above 3 MHz. The basic principle for making images of human tissue is to send a pulse into the tissue with a transducer and detect the echoes emerging from structures in the tissue. Imaging may be done in real time by electronic scanning. A variety of sizes and shapes of transducers have been produced for the various applications of ultrasound in medical diagnosis. A proper transducer must be used for a specific task. The ultrasound beam is the essential tool to make images. It must be focused by the user and the image must be properly adjusted with respect to the gain. Measurements can be made and a basic understanding of the resolution in the three planes is necessary for measurements and interpretation of the images. The main artifacts such as edge shadows, attenuation shadows, enhancements and reverberation must be understood. Basic principles of ultrasound scanning must be followed to extract the maximum information from the scan.

KEYWORDS

A-mode, artifacts, B-mode, focus, M-mode, real-time scanning, technical principles of ultrasound in obstetrics and gynaecology, time gain compensation.

INTRODUCTION

In the practice of clinical ultrasound in obstetrics and gynaecology, it is essential that the examiner has a basic understanding of the physics that makes it possible

to produce images of human tissue using sound. In addition, the examiner must be able to handle artifacts properly, know about the basic performance of the instrument and be aware of artifacts, safety and risk factors.

This chapter provides an overview of the fundamental physical principles without the use of complicated formulas to explain the physical laws. The focus is to give the reader an overall understanding of how an ultrasound machine works and the skill to operate the machine and to manage the necessary adjustments in order to produce images of high quality for diagnostic use. For in-depth knowledge of the physics of ultrasound, the reader is referred to excellent textbooks. (See selected list at the end of this chapter.)

SOUND

Sound is mechanical vibrations travelling in a physical medium such as air, water, metal or even human tissue. Whether the airborne vibrations come directly from the source or are reflected, they produce impressions on the eardrums of our vestibular organs. We interpret these vibrations as sound.

Sound may be categorized according to various frequency levels:

- infrasound (0–20 Hz)
- audible sound (20–20 kHz)
- ultrasound (>20 kHz)
- diagnostic ultrasound (1–20 MHz).

Humans do not hear the infrasound but other species such as whales, dolphins, elephants, hippopotamuses and rhinoceros do; they use infrasound to communicate with other members of their species over long distances. The upper frequency limit for humans is 20 kHz. Frequencies above 20 kHz are called ultrasound. Some species may hear sound frequencies which for humans are categorized as ultrasound, for example mice (10–70 kHz), dogs (40–60 kHz) and bats (20–200 kHz). There is even some evidence that bats utilize the change in pitch of the echo to determine the relative movement of the object that reflects sound – the Doppler effect. Marine mammals may produce very complex signals ranging from low frequencies for long-range use to high frequencies for local chatting!

SHORT HISTORY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF ULTRASOUND IN MEDICINE

In 1912, the passenger ship *Titanic* hit an iceberg on its maiden trip crossing the Atlantic from Southampton to New York. In the time that followed, physicists took an interest in using sound to detect large objects submerged in water. Initially their research for that purpose was unsuccessful. During World War I, the French physicist Paul Langevin was responsible for developing the hydrophones needed to detect submarines; this underwater sonar technology resulted in the first sinking of a German submarine in 1916. In 1917, Langevin invented the quartz sandwich transducer which served as the basis for the modern ultrasonic era. Between

World War I and World War II, the development of sonar (Sound Navigation and Ranging System) and radar (Radio Detection and Ranging) took place. The latter technique used electromagnetic waves rather than ultrasound.

The next important step was the use of ultrasound to detect flaws in metal using high-frequency ultrasound. The metal flaw detectors became increasingly important as World War II was approaching, but were reported after the war.^{2,4} After World War II, Howry and Bliss, in Denver, started to experiment with sonar equipment and amplifiers from the navy.⁷ They developed a pulse-echo technique in 1948–49, and later produced cross-sectional images of a human partly submerged in water. At the same time, Wild in Minneapolis developed a breast scanner and actually made a diagnosis of breast lesions with his device.¹² The Swedish physician Inge Edler and physicist Helmut Hertz, at the University of Lund, borrowed a metal flaw detector from Kockum's Shipyard in Malmö, Sweden. In 1953, they managed to trace the movements of the human cardiac valves by means of the sound waves emitted and received by their modified instrument.⁵ This was the start of a new era in cardiology relying on sound technology.⁶

The next breakthrough was by the Scottish physician Ian Donald, in Glasgow, who conducted the basic research for the development of a machine for clinical use employing ultrasound to make two-dimensional images of human tissue. Donald had served in the Air Force during World War II and his past experience influenced his prototype machine, which consisted of two metal flaw detectors. His *Lancet* paper of 1958, 'Investigation of abdominal masses by pulsed ultrasound', is considered to be one of the most important for the development of clinical ultrasound.³

Since the late 1950s, the development of ultrasound in medicine in general and in the field of obstetrics and gynaecology in particular has continued in an exponential way. Breakthrough advances have been repeatedly made in spite of claims that the development of ultrasound in medicine has reached its physical limits.

SOUND, WAVES AND PROPAGATION

Sound is a mechanical vibration in a medium. The medium may be, for example, air, water or human soft tissue. The sound wave propagates through the medium as a longitudinal compression wave. When we think of waves we may picture a stone being thrown into a quiet lake and observe the concentric rings that propagate from the centre, or we may think of the waves in the ocean as seen from the shore or from a boat. These waves are *transversal* waves. Sound waves, however, are *longitudinal* waves and the medium that they travel through is subject to cyclic variations in pressure as the medium is being compressed or rarefied (Fig. 1.1).

Make a small experiment by putting your index finger on the top of your larynx, then make the sound of a z-z-z. With your finger you will feel the vibrations caused by your vocal cords that are your own sound system, that cause the z-z-z to be heard in the room. You have now produced longitudinal sound waves that travel

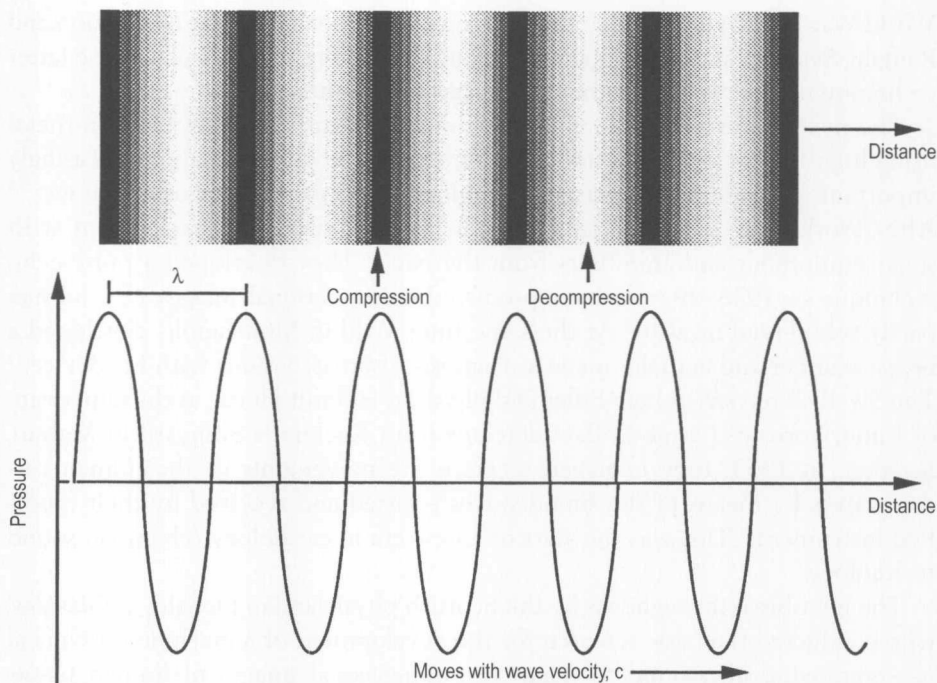


Fig. 1.1 (Upper panel) A schematic illustration of a sound wave as it travels in a medium causing periodic compressions and rarefaction of the medium. (Lower panel) The dislocation of the particles.

through the room and cause compression and rarefaction of the air in their path. When the sound waves hit the eardrums of someone in the room, the process is reversed and causes the eardrums to vibrate and the person will hear your z-z-z.

The sound wave is a longitudinal wave caused by compression and rarefaction of a physical medium in the direction of the movement of the wave.

This sound wave may further be described by *intensity* and *frequency*.

If you have a piano, you can carry out a small experiment in your living room by hitting A above middle C. You will hear a chamber tone with a frequency of 440 Hz. If you move up one octave on your piano and hit A, you will hear it at a frequency of 880 Hz. If you move up one more octave to the next A, you will hear an A note with the frequency of 1760 Hz.

The frequency tells us about the degree of highness or lowness of a tone. The frequency is the number of vibrations per second that produce the sound.

Hit the A on your piano very lightly and you will barely hear the chamber tone of 440 Hz; hit the key with force and you will hear the same chamber tone with the frequency of 440 Hz, but much louder. This tells us that the same tone may differ in *intensity* or *loudness*.

The intensity tells us something about the loudness or strength of the sound signal.

A sound wave travelling in a medium produces compression and rarefaction of the medium as shown in Figure 1.1. The velocity of propagation of the sound wave is dependent on the medium and is 330 m/s in air, 1480 m/s in water, 1589 m/s in