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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PULSE-SCATTER IMAGING
TECHNIQUE FOR MEDICAL ULTRASONIC IMAGING AND
TISSUE CHARACTERIZATION.

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, PH.D., 1978

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**AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PULSE-SCATTER
IMAGING TECHNIQUE FOR MEDICAL ULTRASONIC
IMAGING AND TISSUE CHARACTERIZATION**

DISSERTATION

**Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of the Ohio State University**

by

Lawrence Dennis Nadel, B.S.E.E., M.Sc.

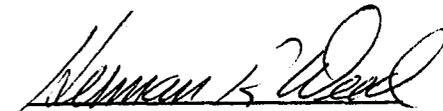
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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

A. INVESTIGATION PERSPECTIVE

The most widely used ultrasonic imaging technique in medical diagnosis today is the pulse-echo B-scan. This method results in the production of cross-sectional images of the body, utilizing ultrasonic energy incident upon and reflected from tissue structures in a normal direction. Biological tissue is generally (i.e. depending upon the frequency and lateral dimensions of the sound beam used) specular with respect to diagnostic ultrasound and so unless normal incidence and reception of the ultrasonic beam using the pulse-echo mode is achieved, essentially none of the acoustic energy impinging upon a particular tissue surface will be received. Since most of the tissue structures being insonified by a given pulse of acoustic energy will, by sheer probability considerations, lie non-normally to the incident beam, only a small portion of the transmitted energy will contribute to the B-scan image. In order to increase signal reception and, thus, the information contained in the B-scan image, the concept of Pulse-Scatter Imaging (PSI) [1] is hereby being investigated. As will be described in detail in Chapter IV of this dissertation, the PSI technique, rather than use a single transmit/receive transducer as in B-scan, utilizes a circular array of ultrasonic transducers in which each transducer is pulsed once in succession around the array while, following each pulsed transmission, all

transducers are utilized as receivers. Therefore, in addition to receiving the standard pulse-echo signals, the pulse-scattered signals are received and incorporated into the image as well.

In conducting this investigation of PSI, a previous computer simulation and report on the proposed concept was available for review, however, no prior work had been done with real data [1]. Thus, after establishment of a general protocol, it was necessary to conduct a preliminary computer simulation of the reconstruction method, itself, followed by development of both a facility and capability for PSI data collection, processing and display. Hardware development centered around design and fabrication of the physical apparatus for calibrated transducer and specimen manipulation. A minimal amount of electronic circuitry had to be designed as well. In addition to the main PSI reconstruction algorithm, general software routines were written to enable automatic control of acoustic data acquisition via a digitizing transient recorder, pre-reconstruction data processing, and post-reconstruction image analysis and processing. As will be shown by the photographs in Chapters V and VI (please note that unless the printed reproduction of these photos maintains a high quality gray scale, many of the images may appear washed out and not show the details discussed in the text), both biological and non-biological objects (e.g. metal rods, Plexiglas triangle, transistor heat sink, natural sponge, home-made polyurethane gel/polyethylene tubing tissue phantom, chicken heart) were imaged with reasonable success, especially when taking into account the fact that the overall PSI system as investigated was a "non-tuned" version, in only its initial stage of development.

Briefly, several hypothesized advantages of the PSI technique in medical imaging may be itemized as follows:

(i) Rapid scan time/minimal patient exposure -- each transducer in array need be excited on the order of a microsecond, only once. All scattered signals are received simultaneously, for a given transducer excitation.

(ii) More image information due to the incorporation of scattered data in addition to the standard pulse-echo data.

(iii) Transducer beam dimensions are less crucial since a fan beam rather than a pencil beam is required; resolution depends upon the reconstruction process and the ability to measure signal time differences of arrival.

(iv) The use of a three-dimensional annular transducer array along with digital storage of the original data will enable display and magnification of an arbitrary oblique cross-section.

(v) Electronic scanning of the transducer array eliminates the operator variability experienced in manual procedures.

(vi) Incorporation of a rapid electronic switching and data processing capability could enable real-time display; a pseudo-real-time display could be reconstructed from the stored scans via synchronization with a signal such as EKG.

B. HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

Scientific interest in the principles of ultrasonic waves (i.e. sound waves of greater frequency than the human audible limit of approximately 20 kHz) had its firmest roots in the 1800's when researchers such as Savart and Despretz

developed ultrasonic generators, and others such as Dr. Francis Galton became curious as to the limits of hearing in humans and animals. [2] During the latter 1800's and early 1900's, Lord Rayleigh carried out investigations culminating in his renowned Theory of Sound [3], which still stands as the fundamental description of acoustic behavior. It was also in the 19th century when the basic ideas behind electro-mechanical ultrasonic transduction were developed -- Joule with his work on magnetostriction around 1842 and the Curie brothers, Jacques and Pierre, with their investigations of piezoelectricity around 1880 [2] .

The first attempts at any sort of ultrasonic imaging were made by researchers such as the Frenchman, Langevin, the Russian, Chilowsky, and the Englishmen, Rutherford and Boyle, who worked on sonar systems for the detection of submarines in World War I. It was not until World War II that the newly developed electronic sophistication and better quality ultrasonic transducers enabled the development of a reliable sonar detection system. Sokolov, during the 1930's, is recognized for the first major attempt at ultrasonic non-destructive testing (NDT) of materials for flaws, with the introduction of his "shadow method" [2] . Dussik is considered the "father of medical ultrasound" for his work in the 1940's dealing with medical ultrasonic transmission imaging [57] .

Firestone, while at the University of Michigan, is credited with the first American attempt at ultrasonic NDT, with the development of the "supersonic reflectoscope" [4], [5], which produced an A-mode display. With the announcement of this device, Smith recognized the potential for visualization of soft biological tissues (not visible with X-rays) using reflected ultrasound [6] . Although unable to secure funds to support research, Smith's observation was one of the first of many, which between 1950 and the present, spurred by the rapid advances in electronic technology, have led to the development of ultrasonic

diagnostic imaging systems capable of A, B, C and M scans in both real and non-real time. In fact, the tremendous interest in medical ultrasonic imaging generated by the preliminary work in NDT has resulted in such rapid advances in the medical systems, particularly in the last decade, that equipment and techniques developed in the medical arena are now being re-applied to NDT procedures.

C. MOTIVATION FOR MEDICAL ULTRASONIC IMAGING

The past decade has seen a rapidly increasing utilization of clinical ultrasonic imaging procedures. The two primary motivating factors, in conjunction with the higher quality of commercially available equipment, have been (i) the (presumed) biological safety of ultrasound at currently used diagnostic power levels, as compared with the hazards of long-existing imaging techniques using ionizing radiation such as X-ray, and (ii) the highly effective ability of ultrasound to visualize soft-tissues.

In the case of fetal examination, for example, the potential damaging effects of X-rays have been generally accepted. Although various studies around the country are currently in progress to rigorously demonstrate the safety of diagnostic ultrasound [7], the limited studies to date have failed to demonstrate any harmful effects of ultrasound when administered at current diagnostic power levels [8]. As a result, ultrasound is now routinely used to monitor fetal development periodically during gestation (as well as to monitor fetal heart sounds via doppler techniques).

Up until the introduction of computerized X-ray tomography (CT) several years ago [9], ultrasound provided essentially the only means for discrimination of soft tissues. Even now, however, ultrasound still possesses a greater

capability for soft tissue visualization and characterization than does CT (which strictly relies on a tissue's ability to absorb X-rays) due to the fact that ultrasonic interaction with body tissues relies on numerous parameters, some of which will be discussed in Chapters II and III.

D. CHRONOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF DISSERTATION

The work on this dissertation can essentially be divided into three phases. The first phase extended from January, 1977 - June, 1977, when full-time was spent on the O.S.U. campus. During this time, clinical exposure and experience as well as an education on the aspects of medical ultrasound were obtained under the guidance of Dr. Atis Freimanis, Professor and Chairman of the Ohio State University Department of Radiology, and the ultrasound staff. Concurrently, a state-of-the-art review of ultrasonic imaging techniques (medical and industrial) along with a survey and examination, where possible, of ultrasonic imaging equipment, was undertaken.

July, 1977 through June, 1978 encompassed the second phase of this work, where full time was spent conducting the bulk of this investigation at the General Electric Company's Electronics Laboratory, under the leadership of Dr. Stephen Tehon, Consulting Engineer in Solid State Acoustics.

Finally, this dissertation was written and final data gathered during July, 1978-December, 1978 when full-time periods were spent both on the Ohio State campus and at General Electric.

E. PURPOSE OF INVESTIGATION

The concept of Pulse-Scatter Imaging (PSI) was conceived during the summer of 1976 at the General Electric Company's Electronics Laboratory in Syracuse, New York in an academic/industrial cooperative effort under the leadership of Dr. Stephen Tehon [1]. A generalized mathematical approach

for the implementation of the PSI concept was suggested and a preliminary computer simulation examining the geometry involved was developed [10] . A six-transducer ring was constructed and preliminary data taken; however, attempts at image reconstruction were limited and unsuccessful. Essentially, no further work was carried out on this project until June, 1977, when another student, Mr. Larry Browning, PhD candidate in Physics at Purdue University, and the author were given the responsibility of starting an investigation of the PSI technique, as part of a summer employment program. Prior to returning to school at the beginning of August, Mr. Browning had written a preliminary program for reconstructing an image using the PSI technique on a Varian minicomputer. The author's efforts were spent developing a manual PSI data acquisition and data processing capability using the limited laboratory equipment available.

Around the end of the summer, a minimal amount of funds became available to support the construction of some rather crude experimental hardware. With the Electronics Laboratory's purchase of a high speed digital transient recorder, the potential for a complete data acquisition and processing system, utilizing a PDP-11 minicomputer, became available, and it was suggested by academic advisers at Ohio State and GE staff that the author carry out his dissertation in medical ultrasonic imaging at General Electric, to investigate the validity and feasibility of the PSI technique for ultrasonic imaging and in particular, as applied to medical imaging, as well as to derive a theoretical description of the technique. These tasks, which comprise the bulk of this dissertation, are described in detail throughout Chapters IV-VIII, in addition to the following brief categorization -

- i) review PSI concept, previously untested, as well as applicable acoustic theory

- ii) design experimental protocol and associated hardware/software to test the PSI concept
- iii) develop a theoretical basis for PSI
- iv) modify PSI concept as necessary and repeat experiment
- v) evaluate PSI technique as to its potential usefulness and feasibility as a clinical imaging procedure.

The next two chapters (II and III) will provide a summary of the theoretical acoustic considerations for ultrasonic imaging, as well as a review of existing techniques used both in clinical and research environments for ultrasonic imaging. Since PSI results in a reconstructed image, Chapter IV will reference several somewhat related techniques, such as computerized X-ray tomography (CT) and military radar detection systems using a reconstruction-like approach.

CHAPTER II. BACKGROUND ACOUSTIC THEORY

A. INTRODUCTION

In the non-destructive evaluation of materials, flaw or structural detection by ultrasonic means may be accomplished by both transmission and reflection techniques, since any material discontinuity will tend to intercept and scatter the ultrasonic beam, which can produce any or a combination of reflection, refraction, diffraction, and traveling wave mode conversion. Such effects will vary with changes in sample properties. Thus, transmission techniques indicate flaws by a smaller received signal than would otherwise be expected, taking standard transmission properties of the material into account, whereas reflection systems will exhibit an echo or reflected wave. For simple non-destructive testing, transmission techniques have the drawback of requiring access to more than one surface of the given object.

In general, reflective techniques predominate in the United States, whereas transmission techniques have found more widespread use abroad. The remainder of this chapter is devoted to a review and edited compilation of both general ultrasonic theory and acoustic scattering phenomena.

B. WAVE AND TRANSMISSION THEORY OF ULTRASONIC SIGNALS

In utilizing ultrasonics for materials inspection three general assumptions are made, namely,

- (i) the ultrasonic beam consists of plane wave fronts

(ii) elastic moduli are independent of stress amplitude, frequency and direction

(iii) when frequency is a parameter, particle motion is continuous and sinusoidal.

These assumptions are reasonably valid unless very short or very large amplitude pulses are utilized [11] .

Depending upon a material's state of matter, various modes of ultrasonic vibration may be supported, with individualized material/mode specific velocities. Acoustic velocity, frequency and wavelength are governed by the following relation (CGS units shown)

$$v = f\lambda \quad (2-1)$$

where v = velocity (cm/sec)

f = frequency (Hz)

λ = wavelength (cm)

Velocity is frequency dependent except in cases where one or more material dimensions approach a wavelength and phasing effects can occur [11] .

The two primary acoustic wave modes, which we are concerned with in materials evaluation, are longitudinal and transverse propagation. Longitudinal waves exhibit particle motion in the direction of the applied force (compression) while transverse waves produce motion perpendicular to the direction of wave travel (shear) (see Figure 2-1). No net particle movement is exhibited except for such phenomena as liquid streaming. Longitudinal waves are readily supported in gases, liquids and solids, whereas shear waves are generally restricted to solids (and fluids with appreciable viscosity). The longitudinal and transverse modes may exist either individually or in combination depending upon the material properties and geometry.

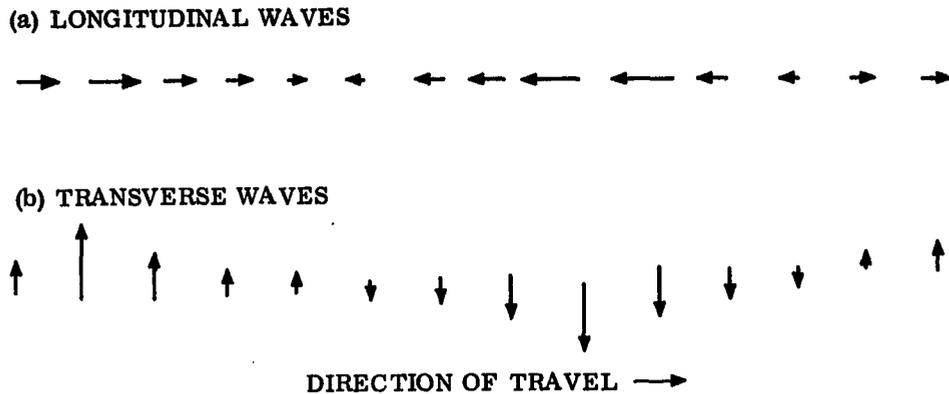


Figure 2-1. Particle motion in longitudinal and transverse (shear) waves. Arrows represent velocity vector of the particles in the medium at a given instant of time. (Adapted from Hussey [14], p. 20).

Before proceeding any further, it would be worthwhile to define the differences between acoustic amplitude, energy, intensity and power. The acoustic amplitude is essentially the degree of instantaneous excursion about their resting points undergone by the particles of the insonified medium. For example, when receiving an emitted acoustic signal with another piezoelectric transducer, one would measure acoustic amplitude in terms of the electrical voltage of the received signal.

The particles in an insonified medium (assumed lossless) normally undergo simple harmonic motion, and as a result, do not experience any net movement (unless, for example, acoustic streaming occurs). Thus, the total energy of the system, comprised of the sum of the potential and kinetic components, is constant over time, and is equal to

$$e = \frac{1}{2} m v_0^2 \quad (2-2)$$

where m = mass of particle

v_0 = velocity of particle at reference displacement

(i.e. maximum velocity of particle)

The energy density, E , equal to the total energy of all particles in a given volume is calculated by replacing the mass of a single particle, m , in Equation (2-2), by the mass per unit volume, otherwise defined as density, ρ .

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \rho v_0^2 \quad (2-3)$$

Now, the ultrasonic intensity, I , is defined as the energy traveling through a unit area (perpendicular to beam direction) in unit time (i.e. rate of flow of energy through unit area). Given the wave velocity, c (measured in distance per unit time), a unit volume then equals area $\times c$. Thus, intensity is computed as

$$I = c E \quad (2-4)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \rho c v_0^2 \quad (2-5)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} Z v_0^2 \quad (2-6)$$

where " Z " is the acoustic impedance, to be defined in Equation (2-8).

Finally, the power of an acoustic signal is the rate of energy flow through the entire ultrasonic beam cross-section. Therefore,

$$P = I \times A \quad (2-7)$$

where P = ultrasonic power (watts)

I = ultrasonic intensity (watts - cm²)

A = beam cross-sectional area (cm²)

One must specify whether a given power measurement is peak or time-averaged.

For diagnostic ultrasound signals, peak power is typically 5-50 watts whereas average power is generally in the neighborhood of 5 mW [12].

The characteristic acoustic impedance, Z , of a substance, (referred to in Equation (2-6)), defined by the relation

$$Z = \rho v \quad (2-8)$$

where $\rho = \text{density (g/cm}^3\text{)}$

$v = \text{velocity (cm/sec)}$,

is useful in describing ultrasonic behavior at material boundaries. The quantity and direction of energy reflected/transmitted at a plane boundary depends both on the respective acoustic impedances and the beam angle of incidence.

No sudden discontinuities can exist in either particle velocity or particle pressure in a traveling wave, thus establishing a set of boundary conditions for a wave impinging upon an interface between two media. Such conditions ensure that physical contact between the media is maintained. Formation of both an equation relating the vector sum of the normal components of the incident, transmitted and reflected waves, and a pressure equality sum, meets the above continuity requirements. Thus,

$$v_i \cos \theta_i - v_r \cos \theta_r = v_t \cos \theta_t \quad (2-9)$$

$$\text{and} \quad p_i + p_r = p_t \quad (2-10)$$

where $v = \text{velocity}$

$p = \text{pressure}$

$\theta = \text{angle with respect to normal}$

$i = \text{incident wave}$

$r = \text{reflected wave}$

$t = \text{transmitted wave}$

(see Figure 2-2).

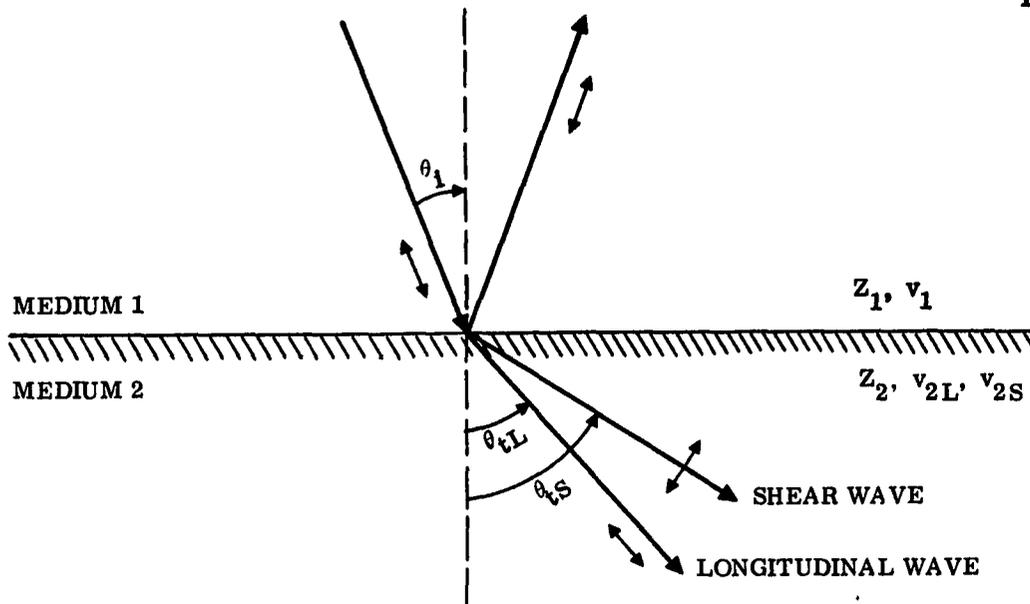


Figure 2-2. Some possible waves generated from oblique incidence at a plane interface - reflection, refraction and mode conversion.

Now, the Ohm's Law analogy in acoustics is

$$p = Z v \quad (2-11)$$

Incorporating Equation (2-8) into the above, results in

$$p = \rho c v \quad (2-12)$$

Thus, Equation (2-9) can be written as

$$\left(\frac{p_i}{Z_1}\right) \cos \theta_i - \left(\frac{p_r}{Z_1}\right) \cos \theta_r = \left(\frac{p_t}{Z_2}\right) \cos \theta_t \quad (2-13)$$

where the wave is traveling from a medium with impedance, Z_1 to one with impedance Z_2 .

Solving Equations (2-10) and (2-13) simultaneously results in

$$\frac{p_r}{p_i} = \frac{Z_2 \cos \theta_i - Z_1 \cos \theta_t}{Z_2 \cos \theta_i + Z_1 \cos \theta_t} \quad (2-14)$$

and

$$\frac{p_t}{p_i} = \frac{2 Z_2 \cos \theta_i}{Z_2 \cos \theta_i + Z_1 \cos \theta_t} \quad (2-15)$$

Under circumstances of normal incidence, $\theta_i = \theta_t = 0$, resulting in

$$\frac{p_r}{p_i} = \frac{(Z_2 - Z_1)}{(Z_2 + Z_1)} \quad (2-16)$$

and

$$\frac{p_t}{p_i} = \left(\frac{2 Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_1} \right) \quad (2-17)$$

Therefore, for perfect impedance matching, $Z_1 = Z_2$ and $p_r/p_i = 0$, specifying no reflected wave. When $Z_2 > Z_1$, $p_r/p_i = (+)$ and so the incident and reflected waves are in phase; for $Z_2 < Z_1$, $p_r/p_i = (-)$, resulting in a 180° out-of-phase relationship.

Next, in order to ascertain the relationship for acoustic intensity,

$$v_o^2 = \frac{p_o^2}{\rho^2 c^2} \quad (2-18)$$

from Equation (2-12). Substitution into Equation (2-5) results in

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \frac{p_o^2}{\rho c} \quad (2-19)$$

Thus, intensity is proportional to (pressure)² and so Equations (2-13) and (2-14) may be rewritten as

$$\frac{I_r}{I_t} = \left(\frac{Z_2 \cos \theta_i - Z_1 \cos \theta_t}{Z_2 \cos \theta_i + Z_1 \cos \theta_t} \right)^2 \quad (2-20)$$

and

$$\frac{I_t}{I_i} = \frac{4 Z_2 Z_1 \cos \theta_i \cos \theta_t}{(Z_2 \cos \theta_i + Z_1 \cos \theta_t)^2} \quad (2-21)$$

The ratio I_r/I_t is termed the reflection coefficient, R, and I_t/I_i , the transmission coefficient, T. For the case of normal incidence

$$R = \frac{I_r}{I_t} = \left(\frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\frac{Z_2}{Z_1} - 1}{\frac{Z_2}{Z_1} + 1} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{r - 1}{r + 1} \right)^2 \quad (2-22)$$

where $r =$ impedance mismatch factor, Z_2/Z_1 . Likewise, for normal incidence

$$T = \frac{I_t}{I_i} = 1 - R = \frac{4Z_2 Z_1}{(Z_2 + Z_1)^2} = \frac{4r}{(r+1)^2} \quad (2-23)$$

Thus, the better the impedance match, the less the reflection and greater the transmission, and vice versa. Furthermore, for an impedance mismatch with identical velocities, all angles from the normal are equal, i.e. the angles of incidence, reflection and refraction are the same.

Refraction of the ultrasonic beam occurs under conditions of non-normal incidence and unequal sound velocities; additional beams may simultaneously be generated via mode conversion, as shown in Figure 2-2. So, what has thus far been referred to as the "transmitted wave" may, in fact, be several waves.

As in optics, the angle of refraction is governed by Snell's Law

$$\frac{\sin \theta_1}{v_1} = \frac{\sin \theta_2}{v_2} \quad (2-24)$$

where each variable is defined as depicted in the figure. For total reflection, $\theta_2 = 90^\circ \rightarrow \sin \theta_2 = 1$. Therefore, for $v_2 > v_1$, the critical incident angle, $\theta_c = \sin^{-1}(v_1/v_2)$, beyond which total reflection is achieved. Beyond the intended detail of the present discussion, amplitude calculations for multimode situations can be calculated using the set of continuity relations known as Knott's equations [11]. One other consideration worthy of note is that, upon refraction, a circular beam, for example, tends to become elliptical and narrower, thus producing a more intense beam [11].

The overall reduction in energy of an ultrasonic beam as it travels through a given material is termed attenuation. This term generally lumps together all factors such as absorption, grain boundary scattering, beam non-uniformity, couplant mismatch, and instrumentation variables, to name a few, which result in a reduced signal reception, for transmission through a material. For plane wave propagation, the attenuation factor, α , is constant and related as in Equation (2-25).

$$A_x = A_0 e^{-\alpha x} \quad (2-25)$$

$$\alpha = -\frac{1}{x} \ln \left(\frac{A_x}{A_0} \right) \text{ nepers/cm} \quad (2-26)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{-8.686}{x} \ln \left(\frac{A_x}{A_0} \right) \text{ dB/cm} \quad (2-27)$$

where A_0 = wave peak amplitude at $x = 0$

A_x = wave peak amplitude at a specific value of 'x'

An alternative representation for Equation (2-25) is

$$I_1 = I_0 e^{-2\alpha x} \quad (2-28)$$

$$\alpha = -\frac{1}{2x} \ln \frac{I_1}{I_0} \quad (2-29)$$

$$= \frac{0.5}{x} \ln \left(\frac{I_0}{I_1} \right) \text{ nepers/cm} \quad (2-30)$$

where: I_0 = reference intensity at $x = 0$

I_1 = intensity at $x = x_1$ ($I_0 > I_1$)

Absorption, as mentioned earlier, is only one of many factors contributing to a signal's attenuation. The delay occurring between the instantaneous pressure in the acoustic-wave and the resultant change in density of the propagating medium is related to a material's absorption. Depending on the specific material, various amounts of energy are absorbed, increasing the energy level of the component molecules. In addition, energy is expended in overcoming the

frictional or viscous forces which oppose the periodic particle motion of ultrasonic vibration. This energy exchange arrangement is based on the mechanism termed relaxation. Energy in the ultrasonic system can exist in various forms, e.g. lattice vibrational, molecular vibrational, translational, etc. If the energy present were to be reversibly transformed from one energy type to another, so that at the end of the vibrational cycle all energy would be in initial form, no energy losses would occur. However, since return of energy to original states is not complete or instantaneous, energy returns out of phase, cancelling part of the travelling wave, and results in a net loss of energy from the system, primarily in the form of heat [13].

The time required for energy to transfer from one state to another and back again is termed relaxation time. Since the relaxation process involves a characteristic time, the process has maximum effectiveness at a particular frequency, known as the relaxation frequency.

Energy loss also occurs during relative motion between various structures and the surrounding medium. This effect is primarily due to the influence of radiation pressure acting on an interface at which there is a change in characteristic impedance. Finally, hysteresis loss is the mechanism whereby energy is lost due to the fact that the given medium is not perfectly elastic. Both of the above mechanisms involve loss of energy primarily in the form of heat.

Absorption, aside from being temperature dependent [14], is a dispersive process owing to such factors as relaxation frequency. In water, absorption is approximately proportional to (frequency)², primarily due to frictional and viscous losses. In soft tissues, the attenuation is generally proportional to frequency, but is greater and somewhat anisotropic in muscle tissue depending on fiber orientation [15].

Due to the multitude of factors involved, with respect to NDT of materials (for example, as opposed to medical tissue characterization) standard test blocks and materials have been used for equipment calibration, rather than initiate exhaustive efforts at isolating, in detail, each of the parameters involved. For ultrasonic tissue characterization, however, researchers have been attempting to identify the individual factors contributing to attenuation. Only limited results have been obtained thus far.

C. SCATTERING OF THE ULTRASONIC SIGNAL

When an obstacle is placed in the midst of an ultrasonic beam, the object will interact with the undisturbed sound pattern via such processes as reflection, diffraction and shadow formation, to form a new sonic pattern termed the scattered wave field.

In the classical analysis of an ultrasonic field, so long as one is dealing with an interface that is large compared with the ultrasonic wavelength, one considers the ultrasonic source to be composed of an array of Huygen's point sources. The sonic field may then be calculated from the diffraction pattern produced by the coincident spatial and temporal distributions of the equivalent Huygen's sources. For example, such a procedure is applicable for determining the beam pattern of an ultrasonic transducer, as mentioned in the next section.

Converse to the preceding situation, the scattered wave field may be determined by placing an obstacle in an infinite plane wave field. In this case, the resultant field is formed by the diffraction pattern of the incident wave field and the obstacle field, formed by distributing a set of Huygen's wave sources over the object's surface. The scattering object is said to possess a scattering cross-section, S , as defined in Equation (2-31).

$$S = \frac{P_S}{I_i} \quad (2-31)$$

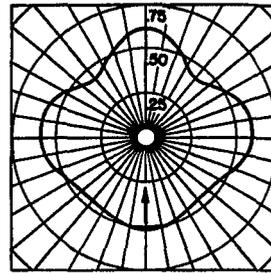
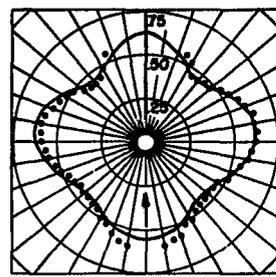
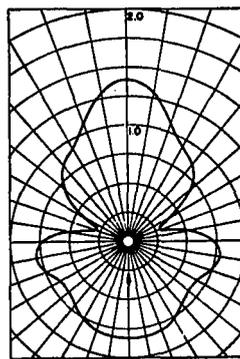
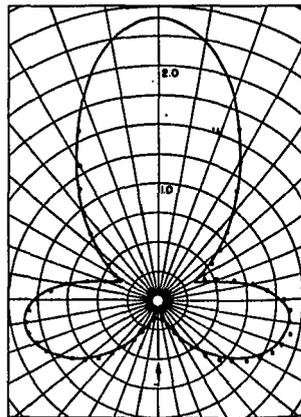
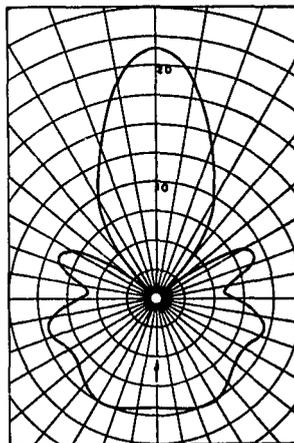
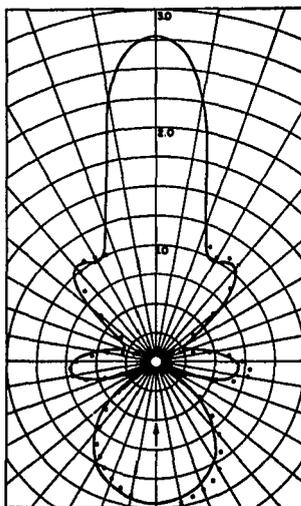
where P_S = total power scattered by obstacle
 I_i = incident wave intensity.

When the obstacle dimensions (D, cross-sectional diameter) are much greater than the sonic wavelength (λ), specular reflection and shadow formation result. For a perfect reflector, $S = 1$. When $D \ll \lambda$ (the Rayleigh scattering condition), uniform omnidirectional scattering occurs. Now, in the case of a spherical reflector, for example, $S \propto k^4 a^6$, where $k = 2\pi f$, f = frequency and a = radius of sphere [15]. In the situation where $D \approx \lambda$, the resultant field pattern has a critical dependence on both the dimensions and characteristic impedance of the obstacle. Sonic energy, for example, may be absorbed by the obstacle and then re-radiated, depending upon object characteristics. Development of a detailed mathematical model of the scattering process under various conditions is beyond the scope of this current dissertation. A summary of results from works strictly devoted to investigation of the scattering process will be presented in the following paragraphs. For the corresponding mathematical treatments, the references cited should be consulted.

Scattering is an involved process comprised of various factors as mentioned above, and is further complicated by such behavior as absorption, especially if one is attempting to obtain quantitative results. Although relatively minimal work has been done in determining a quantified scattering behavior, researchers have used both inanimate objects and tissue samples in investigating scattering phenomena.

Faran has investigated, both mathematically and experimentally, sound scattering by isotropic, metallic circular cylinders and spheres in water, using a frequency of approximately 1 MHz, for the case where $D \approx \lambda$ [16]. In general it cannot be assumed that a solid scatterer in a liquid medium is rigid and immovable (i.e. a perfect reflector) and thus, sound wave penetration and subsequent partial mode conversion to shear waves is taken into account. In order to depict behavior typical of what might be expected, some of Faran's results have been reproduced in Figure 2-3. Particularly note in part (c) of the figure, the deviations in scattering pattern with slight changes in frequency (wavelength). Similar work has been conducted by Davis et al using silicone rubber cylinders and spheres, demonstrating a negligible effect of shear in silicone [17]. Alkier, using a stiffened aluminum plate, demonstrates the generation of scattered waves from internally guided longitudinal stress waves [18]. Finally, Tittmann, using the technique of metallic diffusion bonding was able to create controllable voids without evidence of a bond line in metals and examine their interaction with ultrasonic waves [19]. The separate angular dependence of scattering and mode conversion was demonstrated.

Recent interest in ultrasonic materials characterization has resulted in some attempts at isolating individual scattering and absorption parameters. Inhomogeneous gels of ethanol-glycerine and plastic spheres of approximately 0.5 mm diameter have been used as a human tissue phantom, in conjunction with a technique of transmitting and receiving bi-directionally from water through the sample in order to separate out the scattering and absorption coefficients with respect to scatterer location within the sample [20]. Whereas

(a) $D = 0.5453 \lambda$ (b) $D = 1.058 \lambda$ (c) $D = 1.575 \lambda$

BRASS CYLINDER
 $Z = 3.8 \times 10^7 \text{ Kg m}^2 - \text{s}$

RIGID IMMOVABLE CYLINDER
 $Z = \infty$ (i.e. PERFECT REFLECTOR)

Figure 2-3. Scattering dependence on object diameter (D) and acoustic wavelength (λ) for brass and rigid cylinders. (From data of Faran [16].)

this approach uses a single interrogating frequency (1 MHz), on-going research at the University of Rochester has been involved with the use of a swept frequency signal (1-8 MHz sinusoidal burst, wideband transducer centered at 5 MHz) to insonify scatterers of monofilament nylon, fine metal wire and various sized Sephadex (cross-linked dextran particles which absorb water and scatter weakly) particles [21], [22]. The ultrasonic data acquisition system, which collects angle-scanned data, is similar to that used for the PSI investigation, to be described in Chapter V. The Rochester system, however, also examines the scatterers optically, followed by digitization and subsequent Fourier analysis for comparison with the ultrasonic data. As can be observed in Figure 2-4, reduced scatterer sizes for a fixed frequency tend to produce a lesser focused, omnidirectional scattering, consistent with classical theory. Each of the Fourier spectra of Figure 2-5 contains a ring whose diameter gives average particle spacing and whose width indicates variation in particle size. After examining the wires and arrays of such, it was determined that slight beam misalignment was inconsequential for the disc transducers used, as were near-field beam non-uniformities when using the far-field model to determine scatterer spacing. As a result, it is believed that diffraction (i.e. scattering) based ultrasonic techniques will prove useful for determining structure on a scale corresponding to the wavelength employed [22].

Until recently, the inadvertent scattering (i.e. other than backscatter) of ultrasound when trying to image the body was looked upon as a process which only served to deteriorate the B-scan image and conflict with the single ray assumptions utilized. Current interest in ultrasonic tissue characterization, however, has motivated scientists to better understand the scattering process in the hope of determining tissue-specific behavior for both normal and diseased

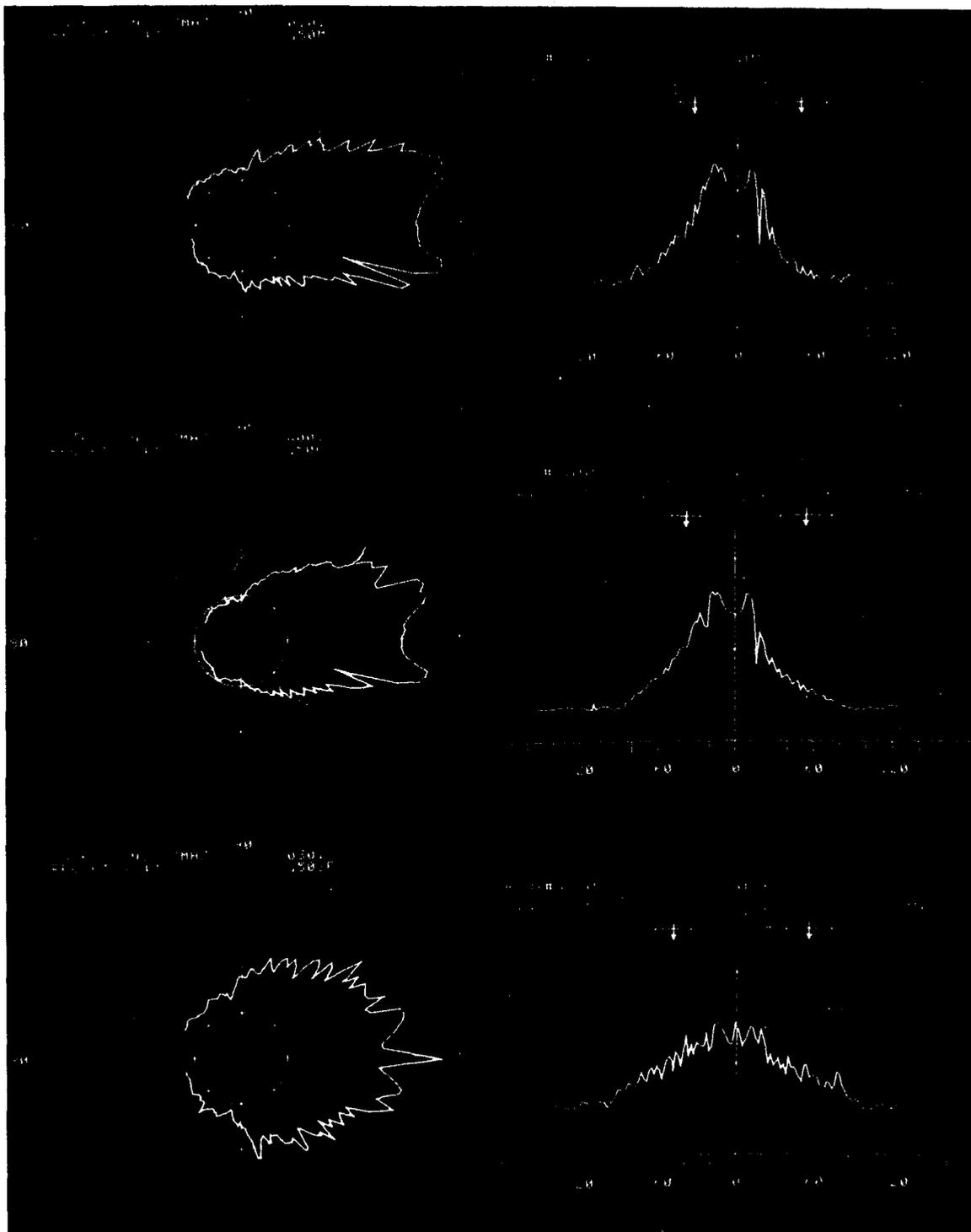


Figure 2-4. Polar and Cartesian plots of average scattered acoustic intensity as a function of scattering angle for distributions of Sephadex medium (G50M, 86-257 μm), fine (G50F, 34-137 μm) and super-fine (G50SF, 17-68 μm) sized particles. Arrows on Cartesian plots denote mean scattering angles while the bars represent standard deviation from the mean. (Data plots courtesy of Dr. R.C. Waag, University of Rochester (NY), [31].)

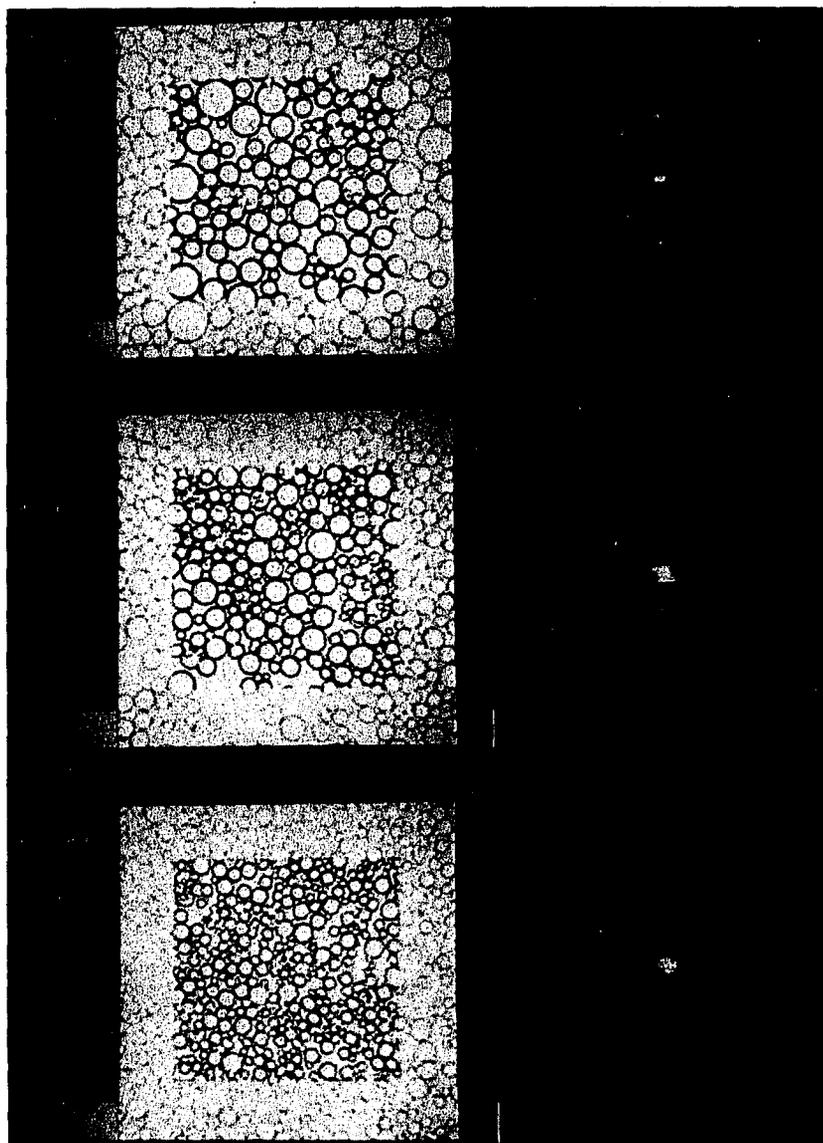


Figure 2-5. Typical digitized cross-sectional optical images (central region enhanced by histogram equalization) and corresponding Fourier log magnitude spectra for scattering by Sephadex particles as described in Figure 2-4. (Photos courtesy of Dr. R.C. Waag, University of Rochester (NY), [31].)

states. The relatively sparse data presently available do indicate that different tissues exhibit different angular scattering patterns and spectra [23], [24].

Mathematical models of varying degrees of detail have been developed to describe the phenomena of ultrasonic scattering in tissues [25]-[33]. In general, most of the models utilize plane wave and far field conditions, generally reasonable assumptions when comparing the resultant analytical and experimental results [31]. Unlike the models previously mentioned for scattering by cylinders and arrays, tissue models have assumed shear components to be negligible. To date, little attention has been paid to shear waves in tissues and further studies will be necessary to better determine the role of this mechanism. Similarly, most models address the situation of volume scattering and thus neglect the presence of large specular echoes. Here, the assumption is made that the use of compression amplifiers, to achieve a large dynamic range, along with the use of a narrow enough transmitted pulse width, will enable reception of both specular and volume-scattered echoes.

The following paragraphs are intended to serve as a cross-section of experimental results that have been obtained by various researchers concerning scattering from biological tissues. As touched upon earlier, one of the most comprehensive studies of ultrasonic scattering is being conducted in the United States at the University of Rochester, by Waag et al. [21], [22], [24], [28], [29], [30], [31], [34]. This work was originally motivated by techniques in X-ray crystallography and atmospheric probing by radar, in order to determine structure in tissue on the order of a wavelength. At the outset it is noted that absorption, an approximately linearly increasing function of frequency, will reduce the high frequency components of the scattered waves and thus give more weight to scattering from closely spaced centers. Ultrasonic interrogation of excised human liver, a) cirrhotic, b) normal and c) infiltrated

by myelogenous leukemia, by 1-8 MHz swept frequency sinusoidal bursts measured at a 96° scattering angle resulted in the data portrayed in Figure 2-6. (It should be noted that swept-frequency scanning is identical to angle scanning at a fixed frequency so long as the sample insonified is isotropic, since path length differences are varied by changing orientation between the beam and scatterers. By definition, Bragg diffraction depends on the constructive or destructive phase interference resulting from path length differences between the transmitted and received waveforms [32].) The scattered power from

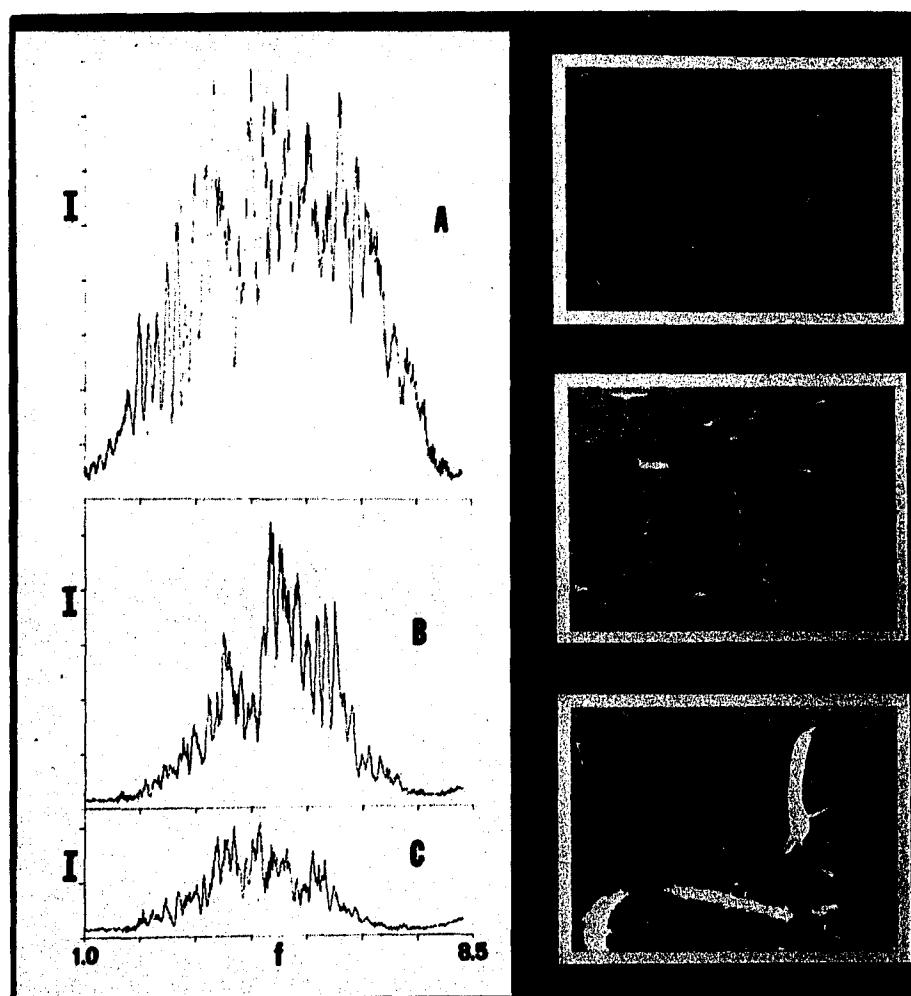


Figure 2-6. Swept-frequency (1.0-8.5 MHz) averaged scattering spectra from liver - (a) cirrhotic, (b) normal, (c) infiltrated by myelogenous leukemia cells, and corresponding optical photomicrographs. All three intensity scales are identical. (Courtesy of Dr. R.C. Waag, University of Rochester (NY), [31].)

cirrhotic liver was significantly greater than that from normal, probably due to the higher cirrhotic collagen content and resultant increase in local elasticity. The cirrhotic data periodicities also imply a mean scatterer spacing considerably greater than in normal liver, consistent with the associated histology of small nodules surrounded by fibrous septae. Similar analysis holds for liver infiltrated with myelogenous leukemia cells where less power was scattered and increased reflector spacing indicated, probably due to alteration of structure by the invading disease processes. Performing swept frequency scanning of normal liver samples using various sample orientations, demonstrated normal liver isotropy by the almost identical spectral patterns obtained at each specimen orientation. Finally, Figure 2-7 illustrates an angle scan performed at 3 MHz by the Rochester team. Comparison of this plot with that shown in Figure 2-4 implies that the liver tissue is composed of scatters similar in size to the Dextran particles (10-300 μm). Note that significantly more energy is scattered at small angles than in the backscattered mode. Swept frequency scans in the 1-8 MHz range of normal and infarcted cardiac tissue demonstrated

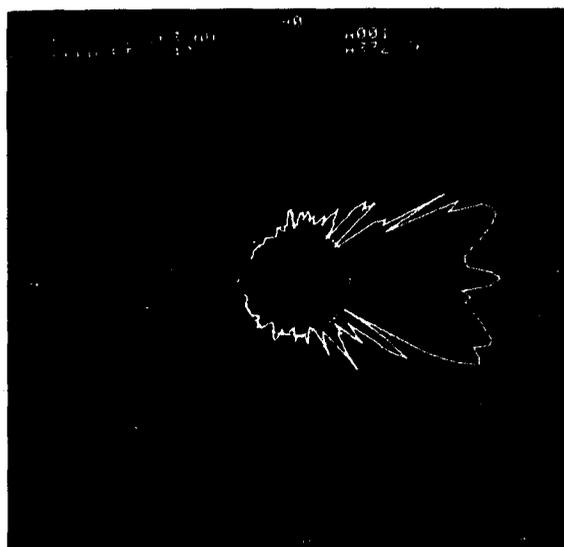


Figure 2-7. Log amplitude polar plot of angle-scan scattering data obtained from liver insonified at 3 MHz. (Courtesy of Dr. R.C. Waag, University of Rochester (NY), [31].)

greater high-frequency scattering possibly due to structural disruption in the infarcted tissue.

Shung and Reid have been investigating backscattering coefficients (i.e. the power scattered by a unit volume scatterer in the backward direction, 180° , per solid angle per unit incident intensity) in excised calf myocardium and liver [23]. They determined that while the backscattering coefficient increases with frequency, the myocardium exhibits a much steeper dependence (proportional to f^3 , where f = frequency) than liver, in the 3-10 MHz frequency range. At the lower end of the frequency range observed, liver exhibits a much stronger backscattering coefficient as compared with myocardium. The liver dependence was not a simple function of frequency, suggesting the contribution of various specialized intrahepatic tissue contribution to the backscattering. The myocardial frequency dependence suggests that scatterer size is less than $20 \mu\text{m}$. Since the cardiac muscle fibers are of the order of $10 \mu\text{m}$, it is suggested that the basic myocardial scattering unit is the muscle fiber. Investigation of myocardial and liver aging properties showed ultrasonic velocity to decrease after the third day post-excision probably due to diffusion of body fluids out of the tissue samples; however, backscattering properties remained constant (between measurements, tissues were stored in normal saline at 4° - 6°C). Tissues fixed in 10% formaldehyde exhibited an increase in backscattering due to the fact that fixation hardens the tissue structure. Lele et al report similar changes in backscattering with fixation, i.e., increased backscattering, but no change in frequency dependence [32].

Additional work by Lele et al, in agreement with the previously discussed studies, demonstrated increased scattered intensities with increased insonifying frequency, for as the scatterer dimension becomes much less than the insonifying wavelength, there is a greater tendency for omnidirectional scattering and thus, on the average, any one receiver position will pick up a greater amount of

ultrasonic energy than for the case of a lower frequency [25],[32]. Scattering profiles correlated well with surface roughness. The Bragg scattering condition, discussed earlier, was used to predict scatterer spacing. Discrepancies were explained by the fact that scatterers are probably not spaced in perfectly orderly arrays for dimensions corresponding to the ultrasonic wavelength (submillimeter to millimeter range). Furthermore examination of various orientations of skeletal muscle fibers with respect to the ultrasonic signal demonstrated skeletal muscle anisotropy, a situation which was not seen in cardiac muscle, since there is no predominant fiber orientation in heart muscle.

Hill has been studying the relationships, both by modeling and clinical investigation, of acoustic frequency and axial orientation on volume backscattering, with the final goal of clinical implementation [35]. His findings thus far appear to be in agreement with the authors already discussed.

Finally, Shung, Sigelmann and Reid [26],[33] have been studying ultrasonic angular scattering by blood utilizing pulse-burst insonification of an Arenberg generator, as discussed in Chapter V, as being used for investigation of PSI. It has been determined that the primary scatterer in blood is the red blood cell. With an average radius of $2.75 \mu\text{m}$, the red blood cell may be treated as a Rayleigh scatterer. The backscattering coefficient varied as the fourth power of frequency. By way of comparison, scattering from a unit volume of erythrocytes is approximately 70 dB below reflection off a flat stainless steel plate. Angular scattering varied significantly depending on blood compressibility and density. It has, therefore, been suggested that measurements of angular scattering might provide a means for determining an abnormal blood condition such

as sickle cell anemia, where the presence of hemoglobin of increased viscosity results in reduced erythrocyte elasticity and greater blood viscosity. Finally, scattering was not found to be a linear function of hematocrit (percent packed red blood cell volume in a sample of blood). The scattering coefficient exhibits approximately a linear increase with hematocrits up to about 8%, then increases non-linearly to a maximum at a hematocrit of about 26%, and then decreases with greater values of hematocrit.

D. TRANSDUCERS AND ULTRASOUND GENERATION

The following qualitative review is intended to be an overview of the general factors one considers in selecting a transducer for ultrasonic imaging. For a more in depth and mathematical description of the characterization of transducer materials and their incorporation into a practical transducer, the reader is particularly referred to references [36]-[39], among others in the bibliography, as well as the commercial manufacturers (e.g. K.B. Aerotech, Panametrics, Dapco). Many factors were considered when "home-made" transducers were going to be attempted. However, since only commercial transducers were used in the results reported in this dissertation, details such as the wave physics behind transducer construction are beyond the scope of the present discussion.

The ultrasonic transducer transforms high frequency electrical energy into high frequency mechanical energy and vice versa. The two most common methods of generating ultrasonic vibrations are via magnetostrictive (expansion and contraction of magnetic materials under the influence of varying magnetic fields) and piezoelectric (expansion and contraction of crystalline and ceramic substances under the influence of electric fields) means. Magnetostrictive transducers are suitable for generating ultrasonic signals less than approximately

100 kHz and so are generally not considered for the purposes of materials testing. These transducers find wider use in sonar and underwater signaling applications.

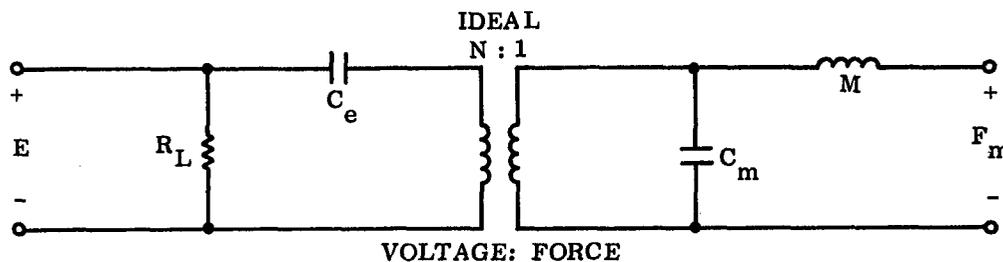
Piezoelectric transducers, on the other hand, capable of oscillating at tens of MHz, are rather easily fabricated. Prior to World War II, only naturally-occurring quartz and Rochelle salt crystals were used as piezoelectric elements. Since that time, the development of synthetic crystalline and ceramic materials such as lithium sulfate monohydrate, barium titanate and lead metaniobate has enabled greater transducer variety. Selection of the best piezoelectric element depends upon the specific application, including such factors as input signal drive, output frequency, signal bandwidth, transducer sensitivity, transducer efficiency and input and output coupling impedance.

Being anisotropic, a piezoelectric material allows for the interaction of bound electric charge with an applied electric field to produce a mechanical stress. Simply stated, for a piezoelectric material, mechanical deformation results in a generated voltage, while an applied voltage results in mechanical deformation. A piezoelectric element may be designed to vibrate in various directional modes depending on either the particular crystalline cut (for crystalline elements) or the direction in which the element has been poled (for synthetic materials, i.e. ferroelectrics). Poling is the process used for aligning the molecular dipoles of a ceramic element in a direction such that the application of an electric-field across the element will result in the desired orientation and degree of expansion or contraction. This polarization process involves heating the ceramic above its Curie Point (the temperature above which the ceramic material suffers complete loss of its electromechanical coupling or piezoelectric

activity) and then subjecting the given element to an intense DC electric field (e.g. 2 kV/mm), applied in the direction of desired dipole alignment, as the element cools to room temperature. Internal alignment is maintained, except for the consideration of aging, which is generally logarithmic with time [9], as long as the ceramic is operated at a temperature well below the Curie Point.

Most presently used piezoelectric transducers used for pulse echo analysis are made of lead zirconate titanate (PZT-4 or PZT-5) or lead metaniobate. Referring to some of the parameters listed in Appendix A, Table A-1, a comparison of lead metaniobate and PZT indicate a better water coupling (lower acoustic-impedance) and wider bandwidth (lower Q) for lead metaniobate, however, PZT excels in efficiency and sensitivity. As already mentioned, one must weigh the importance of each of the particular parameters for the given application, in deciding upon the appropriate transducer material to be used. At this point, it should be noted that two other transducer materials of great potential use particularly in the medical area are polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) and to a lesser extent, cadmium sulfide. PVDF exhibits the properties, among others, of low Q ($Q = 3$), desirable for broadband operation, and a characteristic impedance only several times that of water, to provide excellent matching capabilities [13], [40], [41]. Monocrystalline cadmium sulfide, although only suitable as a receiver, essentially responds to the energy in an acoustic signal and not the phase [42]. Such a phase-insensitive receiver would be useful both for power measurements as well as in imaging, so that the particular gray scale assignment might correspond to the absolute energy in a scattered signal rather than to the complex sum of signals impinging upon a given cross-sectional area, namely, that of the transducer element.

The piezoelectric ultrasonic transducer is essentially an electromechanical transformer and as represented by the equivalent circuit of Figure 2-8, can be used both as a transmitter and receiver. The analogous electrical and mechanical units are shown in Table 2-1 [36], [43], [44]. Equivalent circuits such as shown, when utilized at an appropriate degree of complexity, are useful design tools for both electrical and mechanical impedance matching to enable maximum transfer of energy to or from the transducer. With respect to com-



- E = APPLIED ELECTRICAL VOLTAGE
 R_L = TRANSDUCER ELECTRICAL INPUT RESISTANCE
 C_e = TRANSDUCER ELECTRICAL INPUT CAPACITANCE
 M = VIBRATING MASS OF PIEZOELECTRIC ELEMENT
 C_m = MECHANICAL COMPLIANCE
 F_m = OUTPUT MECHANICAL FORCE

Figure 2-8. Simplified piezoelectric transducer equivalent circuit

TABLE 2-1. TRANSDUCER EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT ELECTROMECHANICAL ANALOGIES

| Electrical Unit | Mechanical Unit |
|-----------------|----------------------|
| voltage | force |
| current | velocity |
| charge | displacement |
| capacitance | compliance |
| inductance | mass |
| impedance | mechanical impedance |

mercially available transducers, as are being used in this project, electrical input impedance is specified at a nominal 50Ω , at the transducer's center or resonant frequency. Many times, a small coil is included within the transducer casing and is electrically connected at the input, in order to cancel out any capacitance associated with the piezoelectric element and electrical connections, and thus create as nearly an input impedance of $50 + j0$ ohms as possible. In this way, maximum electrical power will be transferred to the transducer when driven by a standard generator with a 50Ω (matching) output impedance. As the generator frequency is varied about the center frequency, poorer matching results. Improvement at a particular frequency may be obtained by connecting an appropriately valued coil, externally, in series or parallel with the transducer input in order to null out the input capacitance. (Input capacitance, in particular, degrades high frequency performance.) Similarly, in order to maximize electrical reception, the receiving or pulse-echo transducer should be electrically matched to the impedance of the receiving amplifier or recording device. The goal is to null out any stray capacitance (at the operating frequency) while feeding into a 50 ohm input receiver. Obviously, for broadband applications as in pulse-echo work, impedance matching is of a more limited value than for single frequency or tuned narrowband operation.

Analogous to the electrical situation, mechanical impedance matching should be done between the transducer and medium into which it is transmitting. Again, this matching is frequency-specific; the usual technique is to place a quarter-wave thickness layer, generally of an epoxy material of high 'Q', of acoustic impedance equal to the geometric mean of the acoustic impedance of the transducer element and loading medium [43]. This layer also serves as a protective coating on the transducer element itself.

It is generally desired that ultrasonic transducers radiate energy from only a single face (i.e. the front face). An acoustic insulator is inserted around the sides of the piezoelectric element to reduce the effects of radial radiation (and vibration of transducer casing), whereas a backing layer is used on the rear face. For transducers which operate in a resonant, narrowband mode, the back face may simply be air backed, causing total reflection of the backwards traveling energy back into the transducer so that it can combine in-phase (due to the half-wave thickness of the piezoelectric element) with the forward traveling wave and contribute to the resonant mode of operation. The output signal will be of relatively large amplitude when driven by a continuous wave (C.W.) signal with frequency that of transducer resonance. For broadband operation, as is desired for pulse-echo work, for example, rather than back the transducer element with a perfect reflector, one wishes to use an acoustically absorbing (damping) backing. When operated via pulsed excitation, the output signal will be of a damped sinusoidal-like form, the number of cycles ('ringing') in the signal inversely proportional to the degree of damping (see Figure 2-9).

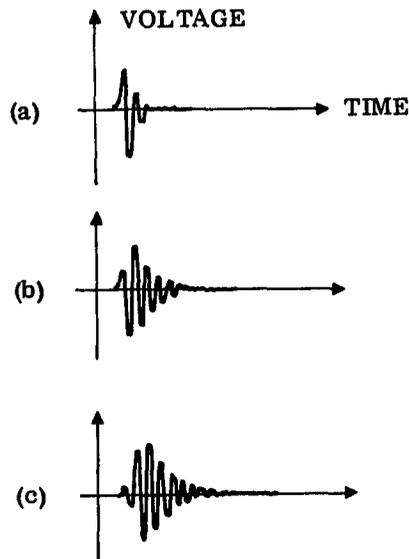


Figure 2-9. Output voltages obtained from typical piezoelectric transducers with shock pulse excitation and (a) heavy, (b) medium, (c) light internal damping

The damping layer is generally an epoxy resin loaded with metallic particles (e.g. tungsten) of low acoustic impedance. Figure 2-10 shows a cutaway view of a typical diagnostic probe. With respect to broadband transducers, the greatest bandwidth currently achievable in commercially prepared transducers is approximately 60% (i.e. ± 30 percent of center frequency). The price one pays for broadband operation is decreased sensitivity at any one particular frequency [45].

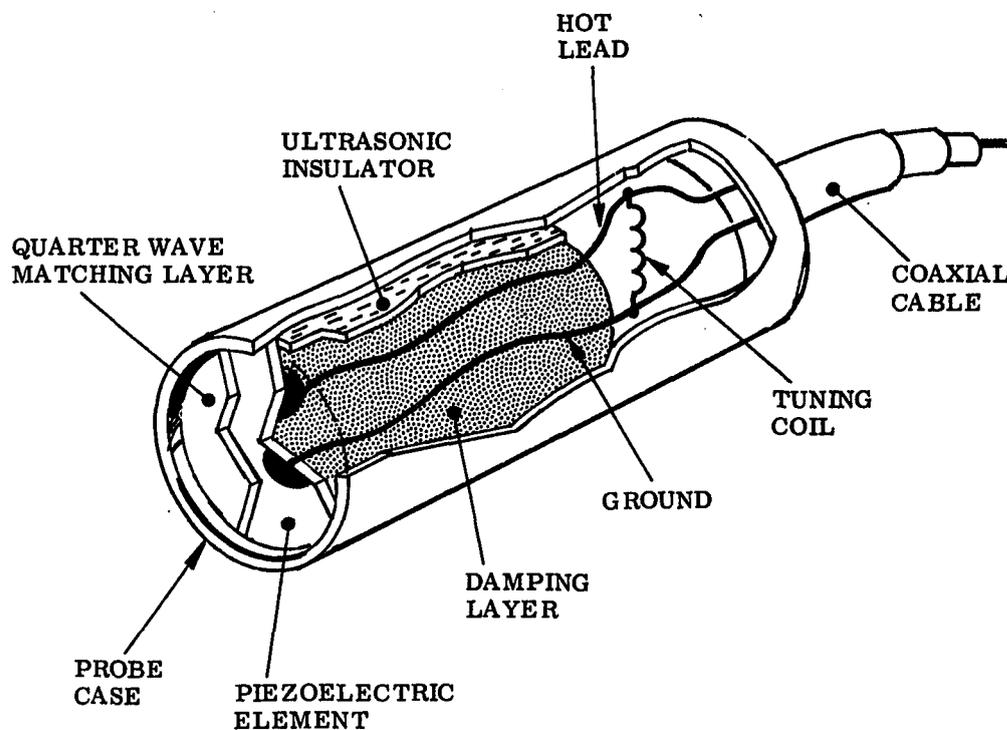


Figure 2-10. Cutaway view of a typical diagnostic piezoelectric transducer probe. (Adapted from Wells [13], p. 69).

In order to obtain reliable and quantitative results from ultrasonic imaging, one must be aware of the acoustic field produced by the particular transducer used. Ideally, the beam pattern should be uniform, i.e. the acoustic intensity at all points a given distance from the transducer is constant. In general, no two transducers will have exactly the same field characteristics and thus, the fabrication goal when more than one transducer is needed for a given procedure

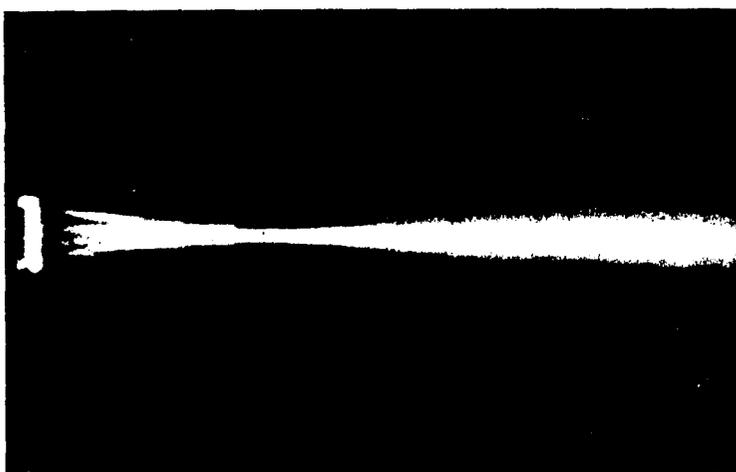
is to achieve transducers which have as nearly "similar" characteristics as possible.

The acoustic pattern produced by an ultrasonic transducer can be described in terms of its near or Fresnel field and its far or Fraunhofer field. As for light beam analysis, Huygen's principle, stating that energy is radiated in all directions from a point source, applies to the ultrasonic transducer, where the transducer face is assumed to be comprised of a large number of point sources in tandem. For continuous wave operation, the near field effects predominate throughout the acoustic field, whereas in the pulsed system, both near and far fields exist. The near field is a complex acoustic pattern formed by the phase interference of wavelets emitted by the transducer. In the pulsed system, proceeding further away from the transducer, these interference effects attenuate, resulting in a more regular beam pattern (see Figure 2-11). Furthermore, in the far field region, the acoustic environment can be assumed to consist of plane waves over distances greater than or comparable to wavelength.

Figure 2-12 illustrates Huygen construction of an ultrasonic field from a two-point source model of a radiating transducer. As depicted in Figure 2-13, for a typical field pattern, if one were to move towards the transducer along its central axis from infinity, a gradual increase in intensity would be perceived until a maximum would be reached, known as the " Y_{+0} " point. Similarly, moving closer to the transducer, the first minimum will be reached, known as the " Y_{-1} " point. Proceeding further towards the transducer, other maxima (Y_{+1} , Y_{+2} , ..., Y_{+n}) and minima (Y_{-2} , Y_{-3} , ..., Y_{-n}) will be perceived. Moving away from the transducer, the field beyond Y_{-1} and Y_{+0} demarks the beginning of the far field.



(a)



(b)

Figure 2-11. (a) Schlieren pattern of sound beam from a non-focused transducer with $D/\lambda = 6.7$ (Photo from Krautkramer and Krautkramer [46], p. 63.)
(b) Beam pattern of a transducer with focusing lens on front face. (Photo from King [47], p. 30.)

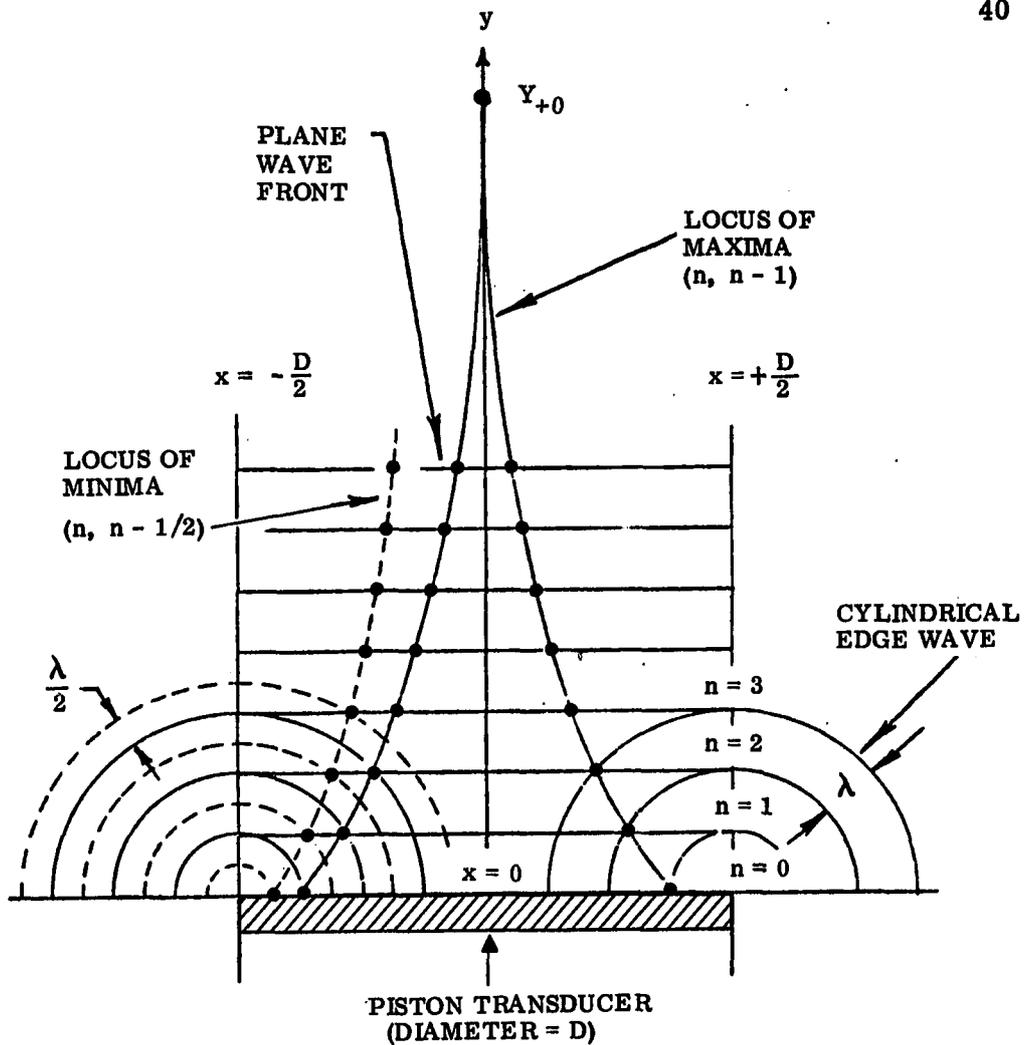


Figure 2-12. Huygen's reconstruction of ultrasonic field from a piston radiator utilizing a two point source model ($D \gg \lambda$). Assume plane waves over transducer face and cylindrical waves at edges. (Adapted from McMaster [11].)

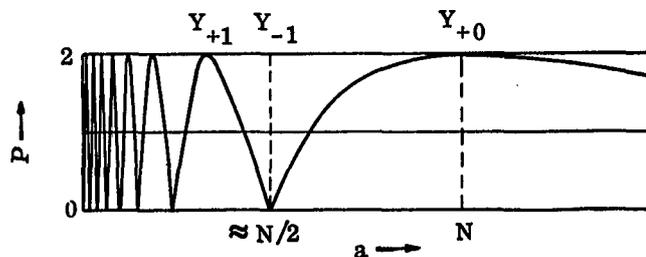


Figure 2-13. Axial beam pattern for a typical ultrasonic transducer - acoustic pressure (P) vs. distance from transducer (a). See corresponding three dimensional beam cross-sections in Figure 2-14. (Adapted from Krautkramer and Krautkramer [46], p. 65.)

The distance of the Y_{+0} point from the face of the unfocused, circular transducer depends on the transducer diameter to wavelength relationship, namely [46]

$$N = \frac{d^2 - \lambda^2}{4\lambda} \quad (2-32)$$

where: d = transducer element diameter

N = length of near field for a circular piston

λ = wavelength

For the case of $d \gg \lambda$ (which is generally true for diagnostic transducers) λ^2 can be neglected in the numerator to give

$$N = \frac{d^2}{4\lambda} \quad (2-33)$$

Since $d = 2r$, where r = radius

$$N = \frac{4r^2}{4\lambda} = \frac{r^2}{\lambda} \quad (2-34)$$

It should be emphasized that the near field to far field transition is not instantaneous and so Equation (2-34) really implies a transition region, not a single coordinate. Figure 2-14(a), depicts the theoretical near field along the central axis of an ideal piston oscillator, along with a simulated gray scale cross-section of the beam to emphasize the circular symmetry of the field. In this case $d/\lambda = 16$ and so Equation (2-33) applies.

Figure 2-14(b) shows a similar plot, but for the case where $d/\lambda = 4$ (therefore, Equation (2-32) holds). Note the more rapid beam divergence in this case than in the former. It is then obvious why commercially available diagnostic transducers are used in wider diameters at low frequencies (i.e. long wavelengths) and narrower diameters at higher frequencies. For maximum pulse-echo lateral resolution in conventional diagnostic procedures one desires as small an element diameter as possible. However, d/λ must be kept

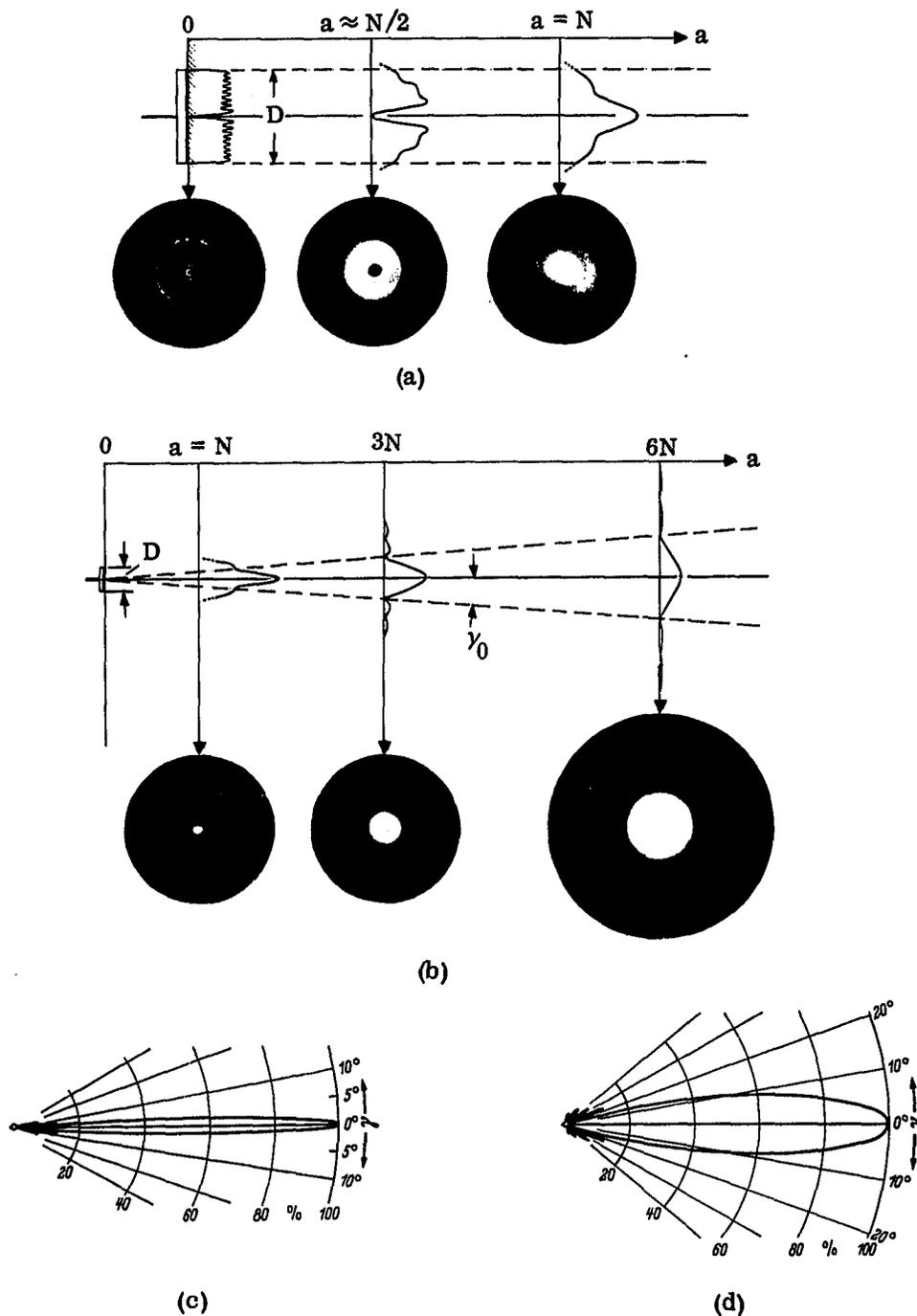


Figure 2-14. (a) Three dimensional cross-sectional beam pattern in front of typical ultrasonic transducer with $D/\lambda = 16$. Near field. High brightness regions correspond to areas of high acoustic pressure.
 (b) Same as (a) except with $D/\lambda = 4$. Near field to far field transition.
 (c) Polar plot of directional characteristic for (a).
 (d) Polar plot of directional characteristic for (b).
 (Reproduced from Krautkramer and Krautkramer [46], pp. 64-65, 68.)

sufficiently large in order not to achieve too rapid a beam divergence in the region of interest. As illustrated in Figure 2-14(b), even in the far field, although greatly reduced in amplitude, sidelobe energy is still present and can provide misleading results if one is not aware of its presence. As depicted in the same figure, γ_0 , the half angle beam divergence, may be calculated as

$$\sin \gamma_0 = 1.2 \frac{\lambda}{d} \quad (2-35) [46]$$

where: $d \gg \lambda$

Figure 2-14(c-d) shows the corresponding polar plots of directional characteristic corresponding to the two d/λ cases already discussed.

Figure 2-15 illustrates the effect of intensity, for a given d/λ , on beam width. Part (i) of the figure was determined such that an omni-directional point target could be detected when placed at the most sensitive point in the field, for a reference gain of 10 dB. Data sets (ii) and (iii) are calculated for successive increases in gain of 10 dB and 20 dB, respectively.

The final beam characteristic appropriate to mention at this time is the beam focus. As shown in Figure 2-16, although focusing results in increased field divergence beyond the focal region, within the focal zone a concentrated beamwidth much narrower than transducer diameter may be achieved, an advantageous situation to improve lateral resolution, in the pulse-echo B-scan, for example, or in the case where a high intensity spot of ultrasound is desired as in various types of ultrasonic surgery. Focusing, which moves the point of maximum intensity towards the transducer, is achieved with a plano-concave lens whereas de-focusing (as in producing a fan beam) requires a lens which is plano-convex. The ultrasonic lens may either be affixed to the front of the transducer

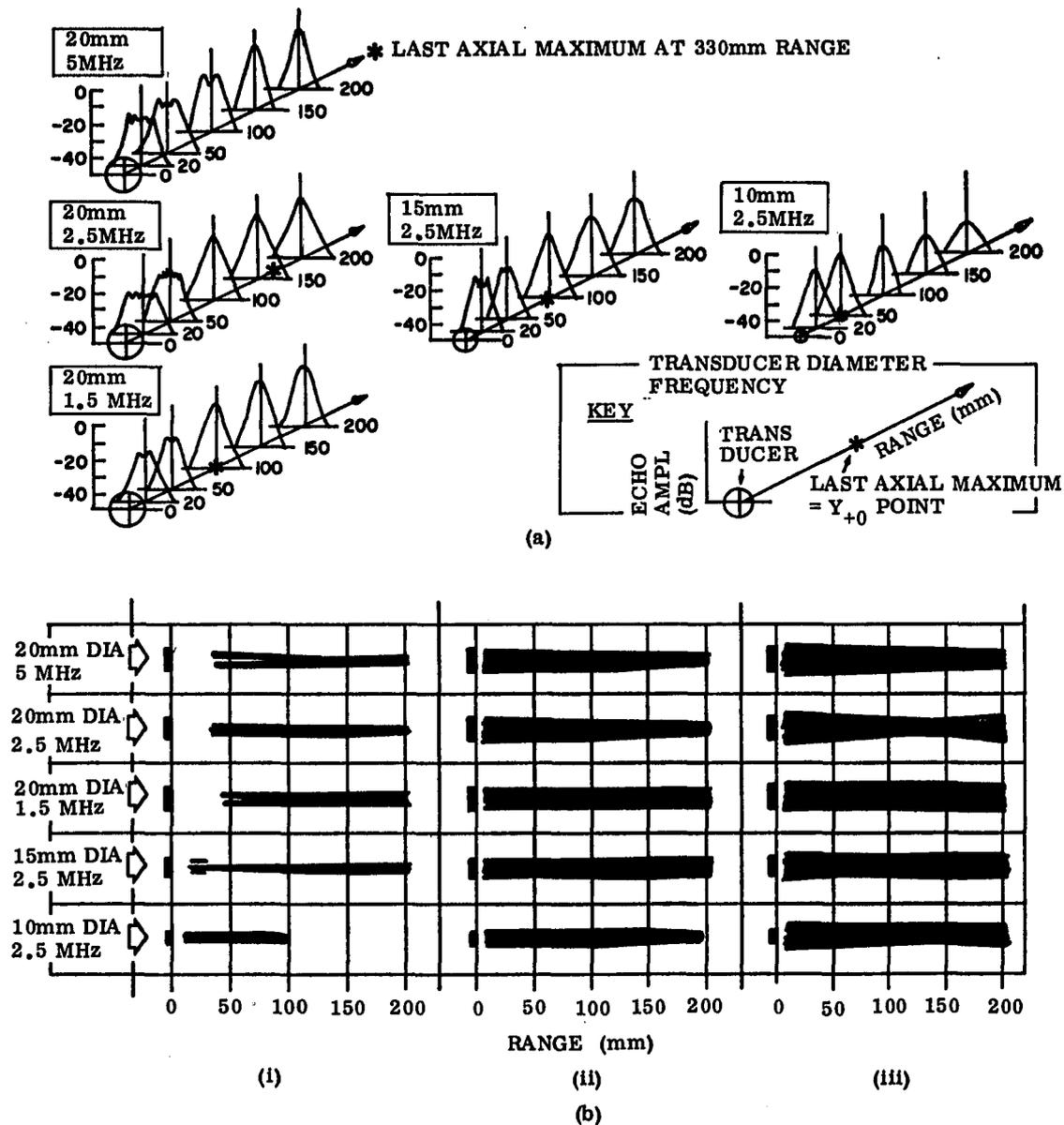


Figure 2-15. (a) Axial beam profiles for some transducers determined by reflection off a 6.3 mm steel sphere in water
 (b) Effective beamwidths of transducers with various dynamic ranges (i) 10 dB (ii) 20 dB (iii) 30 dB

(Adapted from Wells [13], pp. 151, 153.)

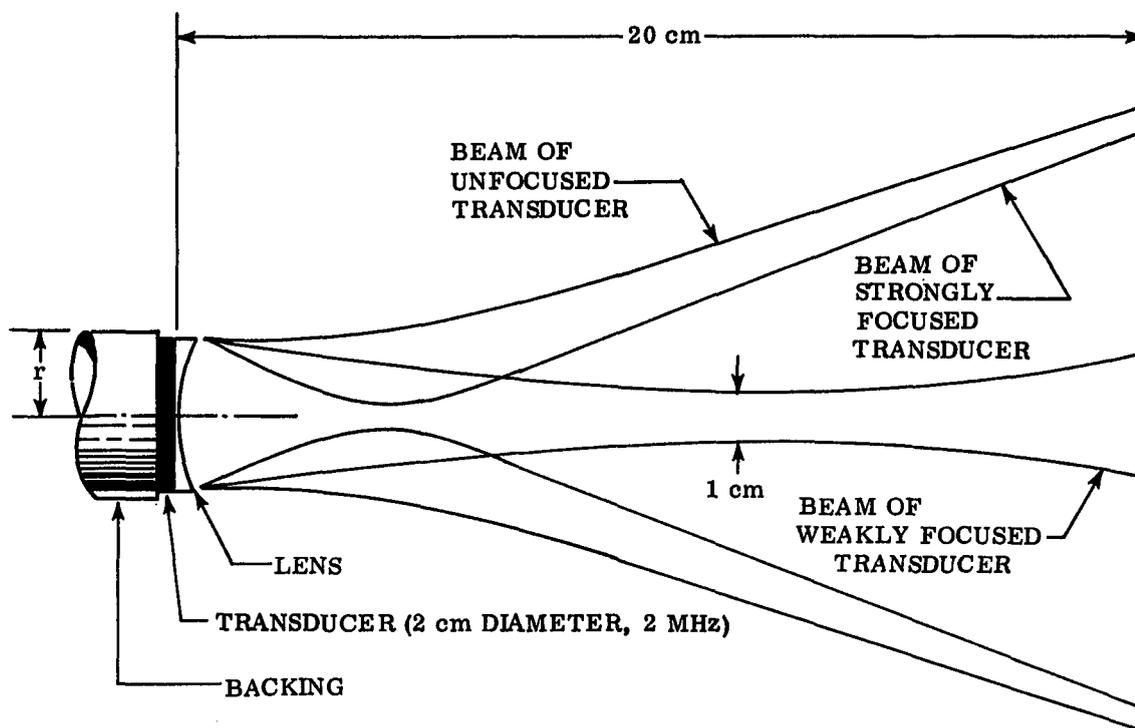


Figure 2-16. Beam shapes for various degrees of ultrasonic transducer focusing. (After Hubelbank [48], p. 29.)

or be in the form of a shaped transducer element. As touched upon earlier, for maximum coupling to the object being examined, the lens material should have a matched acoustic impedance and be of quarter wavelength thickness.

Given the foregoing factors with which an instrument designer is concerned about for ultrasound generation and reception, the factors of interest to the clinical user of a conventional pulse-echo B-scan device include:

- (i) impedance matching to water or tissue
- (ii) focal region, beamwidth -- lateral resolution
- (ii) resonant or center frequency -- depth or axial resolution
- (iv) frequency bandwidth

The first two factors have already been discussed in detail and so the remainder of the chapter will be devoted to the last two items above. The resonant or center frequency is that frequency(s), for a given input level, where

maximum transducer output is obtained. This value also corresponds to the frequency of minimum electrical impedance. The transducer bandwidth (BW) corresponds to the frequency range about the resonant frequency (f_0) where the sound amplitude has declined by 3 dB of the output at resonance (i.e. equals 0.707 times output at resonance). The quality factor or selectivity, Q , equals f_0/BW . Therefore, high "Q" devices are highly selective and exhibit sharply peaked amplitude versus frequency characteristics. Low "Q" devices, on the other hand are broadband and consequently possess a relatively "flat" amplitude characteristic (see Figure 2-17). Since piezoelectric elements by themselves are generally high "Q" (e.g. 20,000) devices resulting in "ringing" and consequently pulse broadening after excitation, utilization of a backing layer, as discussed earlier, will result in damping out of this lengthy tail. In the process, the overall transducer characteristic will become broader band, thus enabling shorter output pulses (although at reduced amplitude), enabling greater depth resolution.

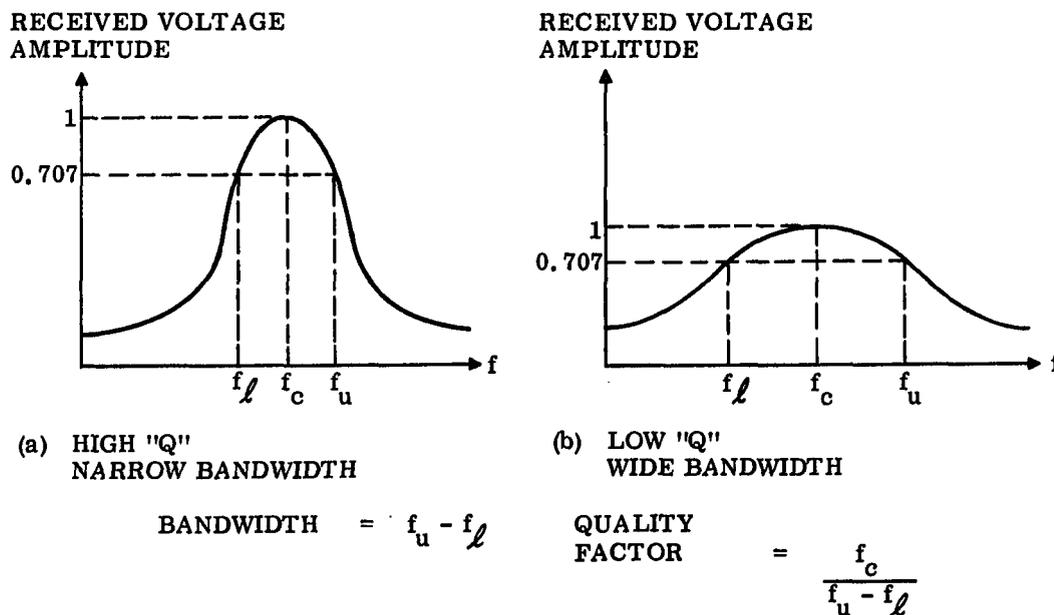


Figure 2-17. Frequency characteristics for (a) narrowband and (b) wideband transducers. Voltages normalized for 0-1 volt range

CHAPTER III. ULTRASOUND AS A MODALITY FOR MEDICAL-IMAGING

A. PHYSICAL ASPECTS

In order to ultrasonically interrogate the body tissues to determine their medical condition, one must efficiently couple the sonic energy between the body and transducer in order to minimize boundary energy losses. As discussed in Chapter II(D), a good transducer is designed so as to provide as close an impedance match to the tissues as possible, and thus minimize boundary losses. In order to take advantage of such characteristics, during use, the transducer must make intimate contact with the body, since if air, for example, were to get between the transducer and tissue, the transducer would then see the characteristic impedance of air rather than that of the tissue. The comparatively low acoustic impedance of air will result in almost total reflection of the ultrasonic signal, whether it be travelling from transducer to tissue or vice versa. As a result, in order to guarantee effective coupling, in the case of abdominal scanning, for example, a gel or oil is placed between the transducer and body to serve as coupling medium. Although common mineral oil is inexpensive and serves as an excellent couplant it tends to run quite easily, making it rather messy and require replacement often throughout an exam. Various companies manufacture a coupling gel which is comparable to mineral oil in performance, quite a bit more costly, but somewhat more convenient to work with depending

on the particular procedure being performed. These gels are generally water soluble and easily wash out of clothing. The simplest of all couplants is water and although not conveniently used for conventional abdominal scanning (i.e. the water runs all over) it is commonly used in the form of a water bath placed over the eye with the patient in a supine position, for ophthalmic exams.

One aspect of ultrasound which has received only little attention until recently is the aspect of biological safety. The policy adopted by the American Institute of Ultrasound in Medicine (AIUM) and commonly accepted by the medical community is that diagnostic ultrasound (as opposed to ultrasound used for surgery or therapy) at currently used power levels is biologically safe [8]. This conclusion is based on only the limited research conducted to date, with such data being predominantly from non-human subjects. Various studies, such as one being conducted by the Ohio State University Bio-Medical Engineering Center on the safety of ultrasound on pigs and their offspring, are in progress to determine both the short and long term (i.e. genetic) damaging effects on the body, if any, resulting from ultrasonic imaging. When evaluating the results of any such study, one must ascertain whether peak or average power (i.e. temporal distribution) is being specified. Furthermore, one should also be aware of the beam pattern as it exists in the tissue being examined in order to determine whether the measurement given is spatially peak or average.

Since biological damage has not been reported at current diagnostic levels ($< 100 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ average and $1-30 \text{ W/cm}^2$ peak power) it would be instructive to touch upon the mechanisms of damage which have been recorded at higher power levels. The reader should be reminded that various types of surgery or therapy utilize high power ultrasound and rely on these mechanisms to achieve

desired results. Six basic effects have been reported and may be summarized as [49]:

(i) heating - related to the absolute spatial and temporal distribution of insonification. The higher the acoustic intensity, the greater the motion imparted to the tissues, atoms and molecules, resulting in increased heat production due to frictional losses. Furthermore, ultrasonic absorption mechanisms such as relaxation result in the transformation of acoustic energy to heat energy at micromolecular levels. Thus, as is absorption, heat production is an increasing function of frequency. Heating may impart such effects as the actual burning of tissue, enzyme denaturation and variations in nervous conduction velocity, to name a few.

(ii) cavitation - results in bubble formation in liquids. Two mechanisms have been described, namely, vaporous or transient cavitation where vapor-filled cavities are formed during the rarefactive part of the ultrasonic wave and then collapse during compression phase, and gaseous or stable cavitation whereby dissolved gases come out of solution. Increasing either the acoustic frequency, liquid viscosity or external pressure decreases the chances for cavitation to occur as a finite amount of time is needed for cavitation to develop. Depending on the circumstances, a cavitation threshold may be described below which cavitation will not occur. Finally, cavitation may also cause temperature increases of several hundred degrees with adiabatic compression of the gas bubbles during positive pressure peaks [50].

(iii) chemical changes - chemical reactions which do not generally occur, result presumably due to such effects as increased molecular agitation and local temperature. For example, enzyme activity has been found to be enhanced at low intensities (e.g. better mixing) and discouraged at higher energy levels (e.g. enzyme breakdown).

(iv) mechanical agitation - the oscillating acoustic energy sets tissue particles in motion. Aside from heat generation, various structures may be torn apart by the forces generated.

(v) streaming - results in the movement of liquid or particles in liquid since not all particles displaced during liquid deformation are returned to their original positions during the following quarter-cycle.

(vi) other effects - effects such as sonoluminescence, whereby some ultrasonically insonified liquids under transient cavitation emit light once each acoustic cycle, presumably due to electron excitation in water, have also been reported.

The specific acoustic parameters such as velocity, attenuation, etc., discussed in Chapter II with respect to materials in general, equally apply to biological tissues, and so another discussion tailored to biological materials is unnecessary at this time. One point worthy of re-emphasis, however, since it is such an important consideration in medical imaging, is the fact that ultrasound attenuation is an increasing function of frequency and generally follows the relationship

$$\alpha = a f^n \quad (3-1)$$

where: α = attenuation in dB/cm

a = constant

f = frequency in Hz

n = generally a value between 1.0-2.0 for biological structures.

Figure 3-1 illustrates the frequency dependence of attenuation for several biological substances. Since this plot is log-log, the frequency dependence parameter, "n" above, for each specific substance may be determined

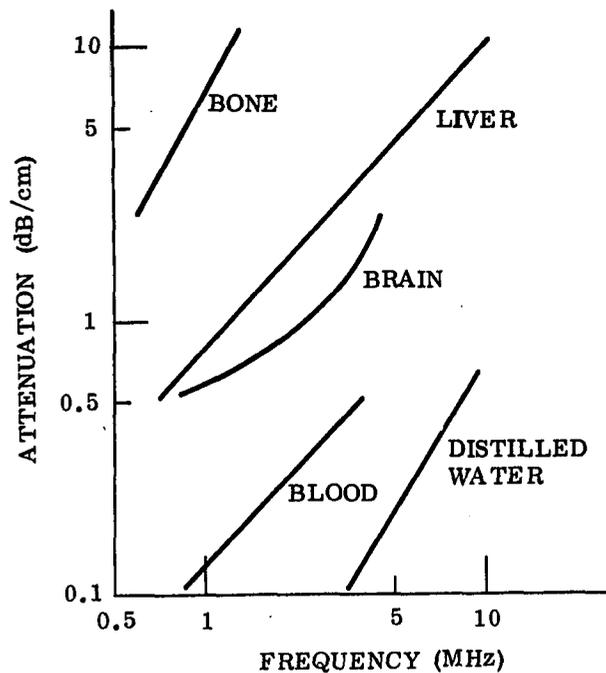


Figure 3-1. Frequency dependence of attenuation for several biological substances. (After Hubelbank [48], p. 21.)

directly from the slope of the particular curve. It will be noted that the liver and blood tissue exhibit a linear dependence on "f", brain tissue on approximately linear "f" dependence, and water and bone approximately an "f²" dependence characteristic of classical viscous absorption in liquids. Even though the clinician wants to image with as high a frequency as possible in order to maximize axial resolution, an upper frequency limit will exist corresponding to the desired depth of penetration.

Another ramification of frequency dependent attenuation is that for broadband (i.e. shock excitation) pulse-echo techniques, the transmitted pulse will contain a wide range of frequency components. Since the higher frequency components attenuate most rapidly, essentially the tissues nearest the transducer will receive broadband insonification, while the deeper regions receive only the lower frequency components. The deeper structures will thus exhibit poorer resolution. In order to compensate for such effects, ideally a frequency

selection time-gain compensation (TGC) is required rather than the broadband TGC used in conventional B-scanners.

B. CONVENTIONAL MEDICAL ULTRASONIC IMAGING PRINCIPLES AND TECHNIQUES

An ultrasonic image of some portion of the body may be obtained via transmission or scattering (e.g. reflection) techniques. However, conventional clinical imaging relies almost solely on backscattering. These techniques will be discussed in the present and following section, whereas experimental and research techniques will be briefly summarized in sections D and E of this chapter.

Data collection for backscattering or so-called pulse-echo techniques relies simply on the fact that knowledge of the acoustic signal velocity and total time of flight enables one to calculate the distance from the face of the transducer to where the given echo originated (see Equation (3-1)).

$$d = v \times \frac{t}{2} \quad (3-1)$$

where: d = distance of echo producer from acoustic-source

v = velocity of sound propagation

t = round-trip signal time-of-flight

This calculation relies on the fact that the echo resulted from straight-line travel between transducer and reflector (i.e. no multipath). Furthermore, precise knowledge of velocity is required. Although the velocity of sonic propagation has been fairly well determined for many of the body's tissues, velocity is, nevertheless, tissue-specific. Thus, since the sound beam generally passes through numerous tissues before returning to the transducer as an echo, the best that has been done to date is the assumption of an average tissue velocity of 1540 m/sec [12]. Figure 3-2 illustrates the velocity variation in soft tissues. Worst case positional errors in soft tissue may be calculated assuming representative high and low velocities.

Average velocity in soft tissue = 1540 meters/second

Representative low velocity (adipose tissue) = 1476 meters/second [14]

Representative high velocity (across muscle fibers) = 1592 meters/second

For medical imaging, interested in maximum path of 30 cm or a 60 cm round-trip.

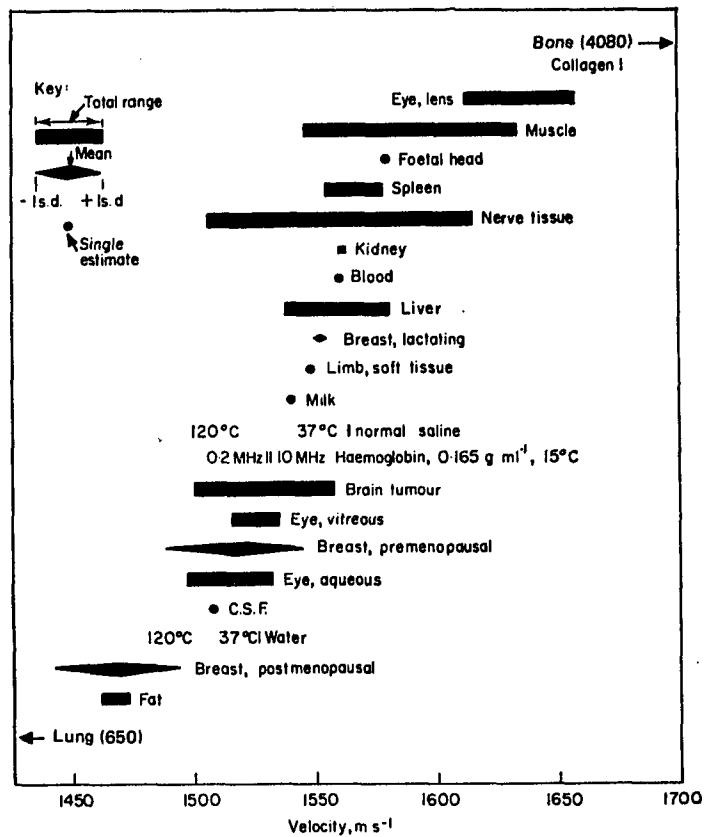


Figure 3-2. Velocity of sound in some biological substances. (Adapted from Wells [13], p. 125.)

Average: 60 cm = 0.6 m

$$0.6 \text{ m} \times 1 \text{ sec}/1540 \text{ m} = 389.6 \text{ } \mu\text{sec to travel 60 cm} = t_{\text{avg}}$$

Low:

$$0.6 \text{ m} \times 1 \text{ sec}/1476 \text{ m} = 406.5 \text{ } \mu\text{sec to travel 60 cm} = t_{\text{low}}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } t_{\text{avg}} - t_{\text{low}} = 406.5 - 389.6 = 16.9 \text{ } \mu\text{sec}$$

Using the assumed average velocity of sound (1540 m/sec),
this time discrepancy results in a position (distance)
error of $1540 \text{ m}/10^6 \text{ } \mu\text{sec} \times 16.9 \text{ } \mu\text{sec} = 26 \text{ mm shorter}$

High:

$$0.6 \text{ m} \times 1 \text{ sec}/1592 \text{ m} = 376.9 \text{ } \mu\text{sec to travel 60 cm} = t_{\text{high}}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } t_{\text{avg}} - t_{\text{high}} = 389.6 - 376.9 = 12.7 \text{ } \mu\text{sec}$$

Using the assumed average velocity of sound (1540 m/sec)
this time discrepancy results in a positional (distance)
error of $1540 \text{ m}/10^6 \text{ } \mu\text{sec} \times 12.7 \text{ } \mu\text{sec} = 19.6 \text{ mm farther}$

Therefore, the worst case positioned error for a maximum distance of 30 cm is (-13 mm, + 9.8 mm). Over shorter path lengths (which will be the general case) this error would be proportionately reduced. Furthermore, since the typical pulse-echo signal passes through numerous tissues, velocity will tend to average out, resulting in positional errors much less than worst-case.

For the pulse-echo technique, although it is possible to receive multipath data, the transducers used are generally highly directional and narrow beam. As a result, an echo will only be received if it deviates by approximately $\leq 2^\circ$ to either side of the original beam direction (see Figure 3-3). In this case, then, reception of a multipath signal is generally unlikely. Multipath reception, when it does occur, will of course be interpreted as a straight line path, thus indicating that the reflector is further from the transducer than it really is.

Acoustic reverberation will produce similar errors. Reverberation occurs when the acoustic-pulse bounces back and forth between the transducer and reflector, resulting in several pulses, equally spaced in time and successively

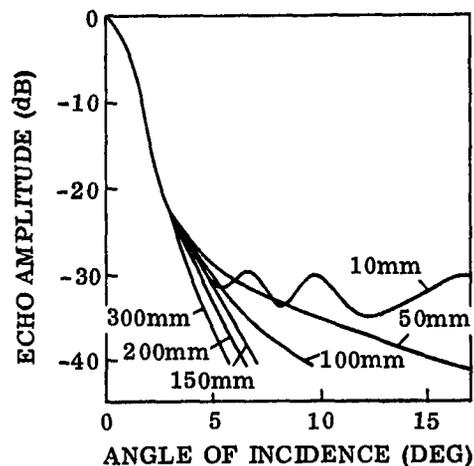


Figure 3-3. Relationship between echo amplitude and angle of incidence, for a flat target in water at various ranges. Each curve is relative to 0 dB at normal incidence. Zero-crossing frequency, 1.7 MHz; transducer diameter, 20 mm. (Reproduced from Wells [13], p. 159.)

more highly attenuated. Such a result would be interpreted as there being one reflector corresponding to each pulse received.

Various display modes have been used to aid in interpretation of the ultrasonic echo. The simplest display, termed (amplitude) A-mode, is a plot of echo envelope voltage amplitude versus time. As shown in the block diagram of Figure 3-4 of a generalized A-mode pulse-echo system, the original echo is an RF signal which is then envelope-detected to produce the signal characteristic of the A-mode display. Most systems today possess a variable or fixed time-gain compensation (TGC) or swept-gain capability in an attempt to null out the effects of ultrasonic absorption. As discussed earlier, the display indicates that two objects any closer than a single pulse-width cannot be resolved.

Proceeding one step further is the (brightness) B-mode display, presenting reflector location in an X-Y Cartesian plane, and echo amplitude in terms of Z-axis intensity modulation (i.e. brightness of the point in the X-Y plane corresponds to the amplitude of the received echoes). Knowing the exact location of

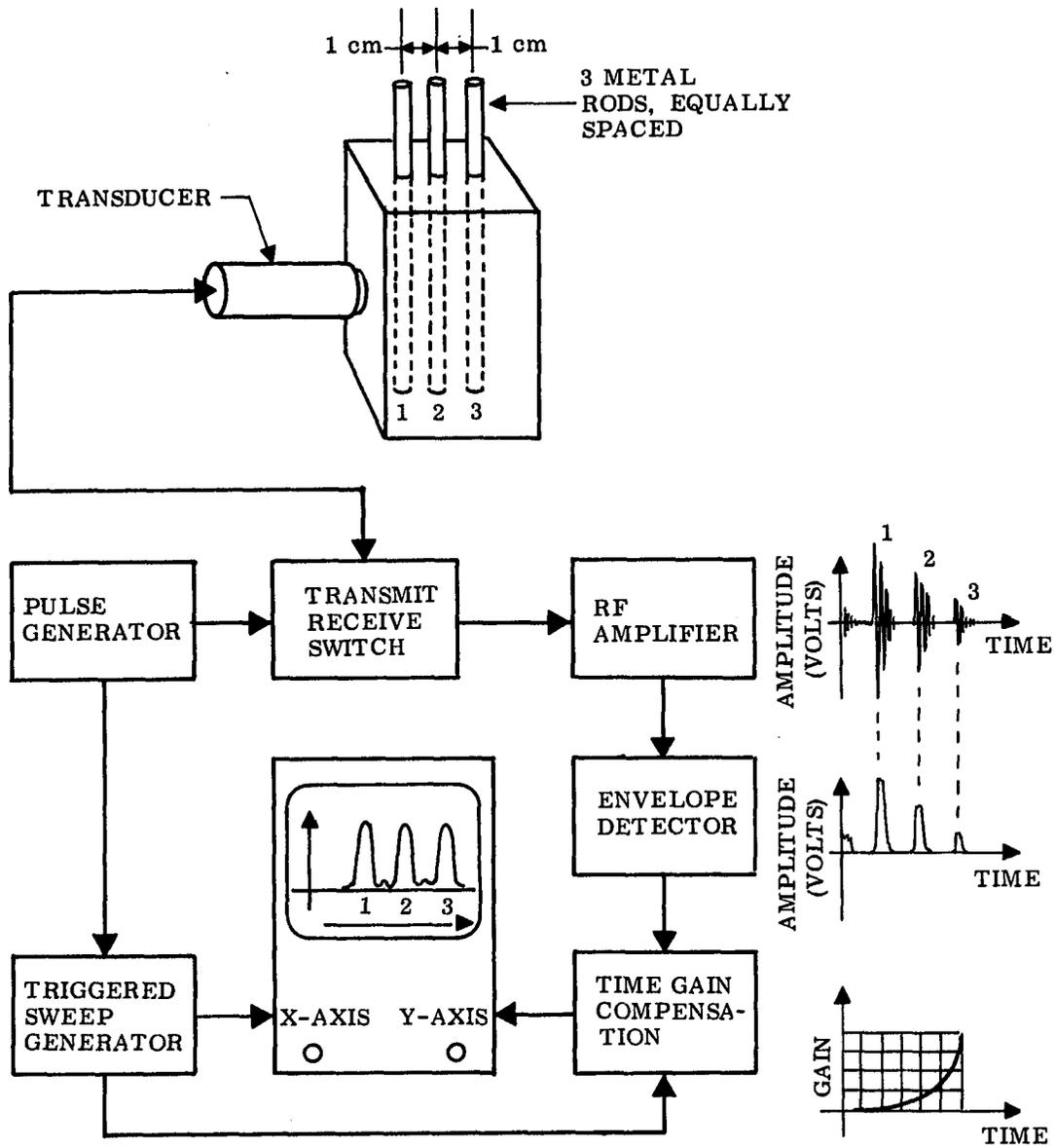


Figure 3-4. Generalized A-mode pulse-echo system

the sound beam as it cuts through the X-Y plane represented (determined from the outputs of three sine-cosine potentiometers), the A-mode waveform is simply "written" down by assigning the proper shade of gray to each display resolution element (pixel) covered by the beam. Scanning the transducer over a particular circumferential plane of the body in an attempt at covering each resolution element with an A-mode will result in an image of a particular body cross-section, as depicted in Figure 3-5. As discussed earlier and illustrated in Figure 3-3, in order to examine each resolution element of tissue, the sound beam must impinge normally. In scanning a transducer across the body to form a B-scan, it is evident that echoes from many of the tissue elements will not be received due to off normal scattering. Such is one of the prime motivations behind the pulse-scattering technique investigated in this dissertation.

Early B-scanners utilized storage oscilloscopes for display, which operated in a bistable mode; echo presence was indicated by a bright spot and lack of echoes by darkness. Development of analog and most recently, digital scan converter systems has allowed gray scale display of generally sixteen levels on a cathode ray screen. Figure 3-6 illustrates various schemes for associating grade shade with signal amplitude. Although the recent trend has been towards digital storage and processing of the ultrasonic data, more conveniently enabling gray scale assignment (gamma function) and additional signal analysis and image processing, most systems in clinical use utilize only a linear gamma. The "best" gamma to choose depends on the particular range and distribution of the signals acquired. Such considerations will be mentioned in Section IV(B) with regard to computerized X-ray tomography.

Now, let an A-mode signal (transducer position is fixed) be displayed as an intensity modulated line (as in B-scan) and oriented on an X-Y display at $X = 0$ and parallel with the Y-axis. Let the X-axis represent time and locate

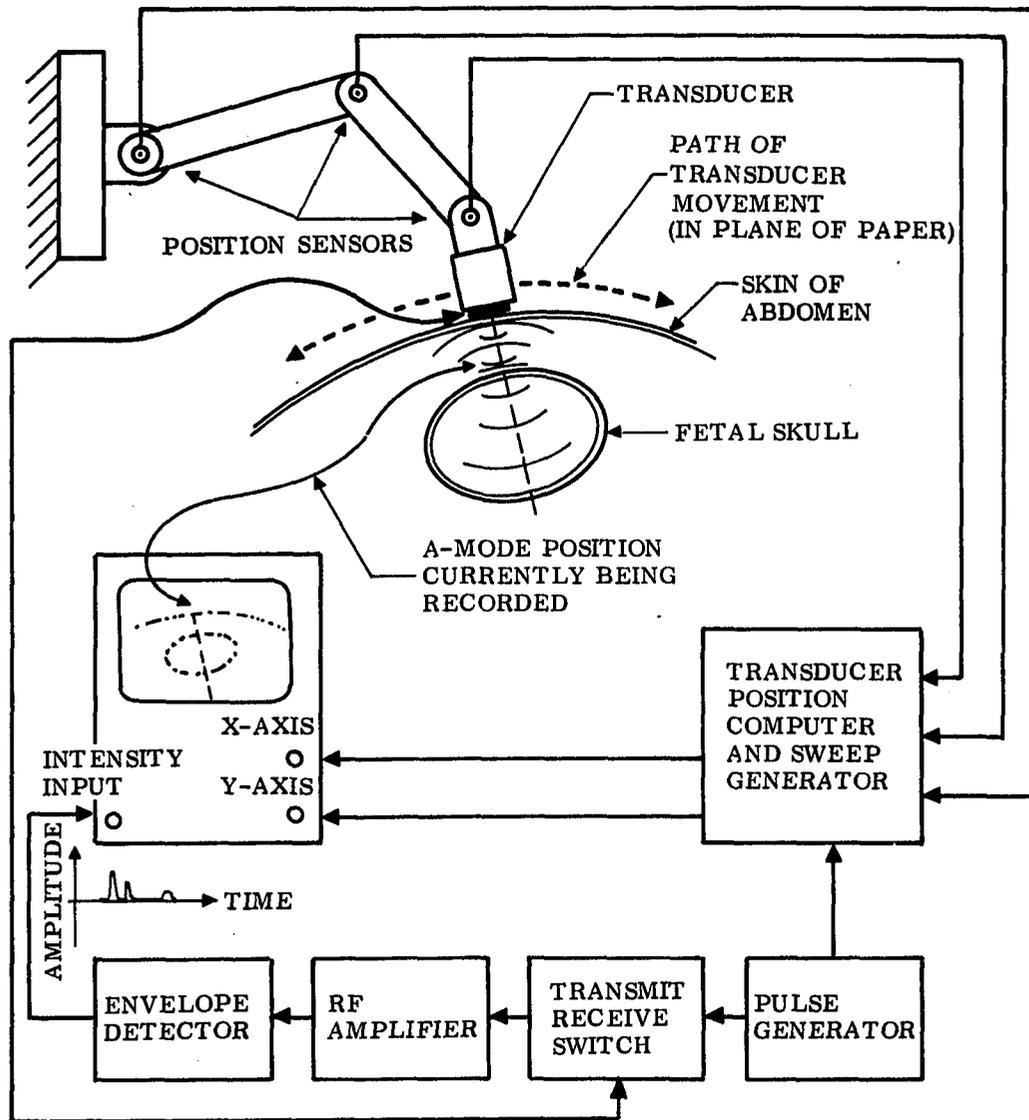


Figure 3-5. Generalized B-scan system (bistable display)
(After Hubelbank [48], p. 13.)

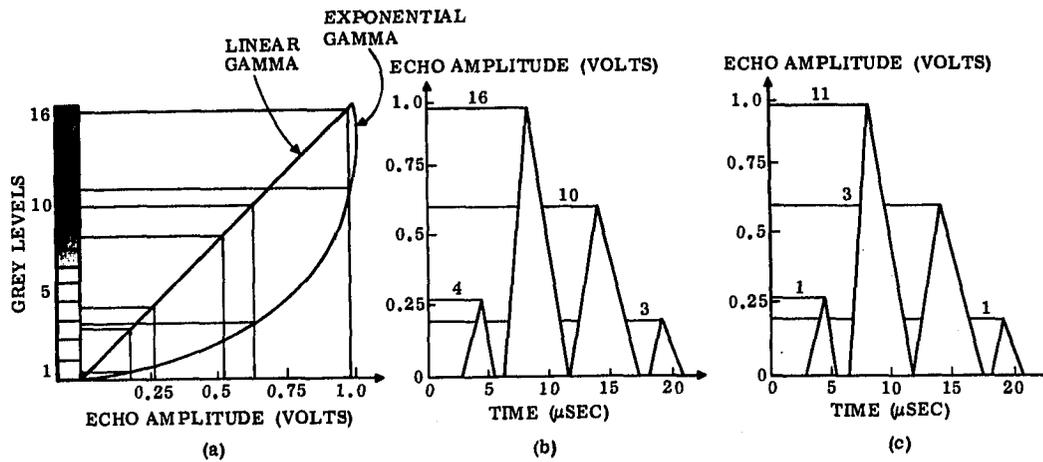


Figure 3-6. Various schemes for gray scale assignment
 (a) Gamma assignment curves
 (b) Linear gamma
 (c) Exponential gamma

each succeeding intensity-modulated A-mode signal at the corresponding abscissa. In this manner, a (motion) M-mode scan is formed, whereby the motion of the structure being insonified by the "pencil beam" can be seen with advancing time (see Figure 3-7).

Although not conventional, two other display modes have been used routinely in certain clinics, which essentially present B-scan in slightly different formats. Color coding, pioneered in ultrasound by Baum [51], involves assigning colors, rather than gray shades to represent echo amplitude on a B-scan plot. Depending on the pattern displayed, the eye generally cannot differentiate sixteen shades of gray. Sixteen bright colors, however, can easily be viewed. Color coding has generally been rejected for two reasons, namely, (i) there is no obvious relationship between color and amplitude and (ii) the visual amplitude averaging which can be done for gray shades cannot readily be done for colors. Although various coloring schemes have been suggested to enable more obvious association of color and shade of gray, color coding has thus far failed to gain wide acceptance.

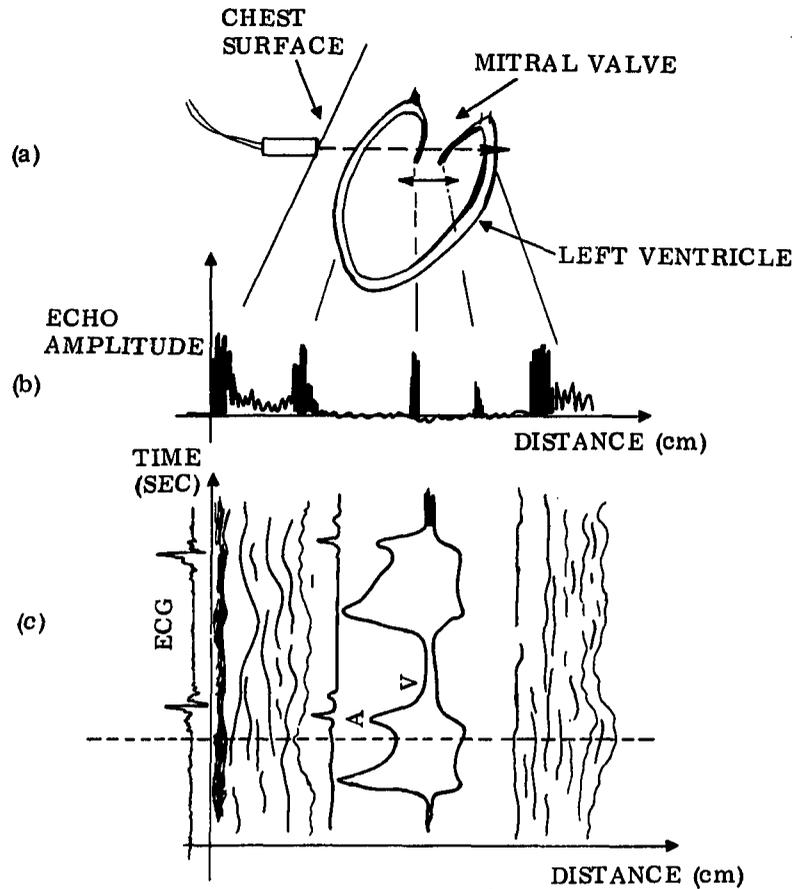


Figure 3-7. Illustration of M-mode display.

- (a) Transducer placed on chest in alignment with valve leaflets
- (b) A-mode display
- (c) M-mode display; position of A-mode waveform on M-scan represented by horizontal dotted line. Valve leaflets open at atrial systole (A) and close at ventricular systole (V).

(Adapted from King [47], p. 42)

Finally, an isometric or perspective plot may be presented in which two spatial dimensions are presented in what appears to be the plane of the image, while a third dimension, echo amplitude, is plotted so as to appear to be extending out of the display plane [52]. Such a display does not exhibit the relatively coarse amplitude quantization necessary for gray-scale assignment.

The goal of each of the abovementioned modes is to display ultrasonic data so that obvious correlations can be made between the display appearance and the

physiological state of the tissue being imaged. The best display to use depends on the specific parameters of interest (e.g. do they vary with time?) as well as the ultrasonographer's preference.

During the present decade, techniques have been developed to enable so-called "real-time" ultrasonic imaging. In short, these techniques display B-scans which are constantly updated with time. As long as the display updates faster than any motion occurs in the subject, then all motion will be observed in the image. When subject motion occurs faster than image update, the resultant display will appear more as a sequence of stop-action shots. Data acquisition for real time display is attained either via the earlier method of rapid mechanical scanning ("wobbling") of an individual transducer or, more recently, by sequential high speed switching of the individual transducers comprising a linear array which spans the tissue region of interest. Exciting the component transducers in a properly phased sequence, either individually or in multi-combination, dynamic focusing and beam steering can effectively be obtained [53]-[56]. Together with digital storage and image processing of traditional B-scan data, imaging with linear and phased arrays comprise the state-of-the-art in commercially available ultrasonic imagers. Thus far, real time techniques have been most successfully used for cardiac imaging.

C. CLINICAL ULTRASONIC IMAGING - SOME ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES

Thus far, the general physical concepts behind ultrasonic imaging have been reviewed, in addition to the conventional medical ultrasonic imaging techniques, in particular. While ultrasonic techniques have been utilized to image or characterize a major portion of the body's tissues, current ultrasonic imaging, in particular, B-scan, finds most widespread use in the areas of

abdominal, pelvic and ophthalmic scanning. In order to place the discussions and results of this dissertation in better perspective, several illustrative examples in these areas will now be presented.

Figure 3-8 illustrates a series of longitudinal (i.e. saggital) sections imaged with a Picker 80L B-scan unit and a 2.25 MHz focused transducer at various distances from the mid-line (ML), e.g. "R9" means 9 cm to the right of ML. As indicated in the figure, vascular or fluid-filled structures are clearly echo-free. Normal liver, being a relatively homogeneous tissue, exhibits a regular speckled pattern. As for the kidney, the medullary calices appear as strong echo producers whereas the outer cortical region is much less echogenic.

Figure 3-9 illustrates several saggital, abdominal scans of a 21 year old human male, taken at approximately 6 cm to the right of midline for 2.25, 5.0 and 10.0 MHz on a Picker digital B-scanner to demonstrate image dependence on transducer frequency. While indicating many of the structures observed in the previous figure, it is seen that ultrasonic penetration is reduced with increased frequency, while resolution is clearly improved.

Figure 3-10 illustrates B-scan sections similar to those already presented, except for a pregnant woman. As indicated by the two sections shown, the fetus is situated laterally with its head at the mother's right (left side of photo) and feet at the mother's left. These two scans show exceedingly good fetal detail. Particularly note the "wiggly line" (in the region of the "H" in the lower photo) indicating cardiac motion. This line is most likely the interventricular septum.

Ultrasonic B-scan is also widely used for ophthalmic diagnosis. This technique is especially useful for cases such as cataracts where the physician cannot see into the eye due to its resultant opacity to light. The fact that the

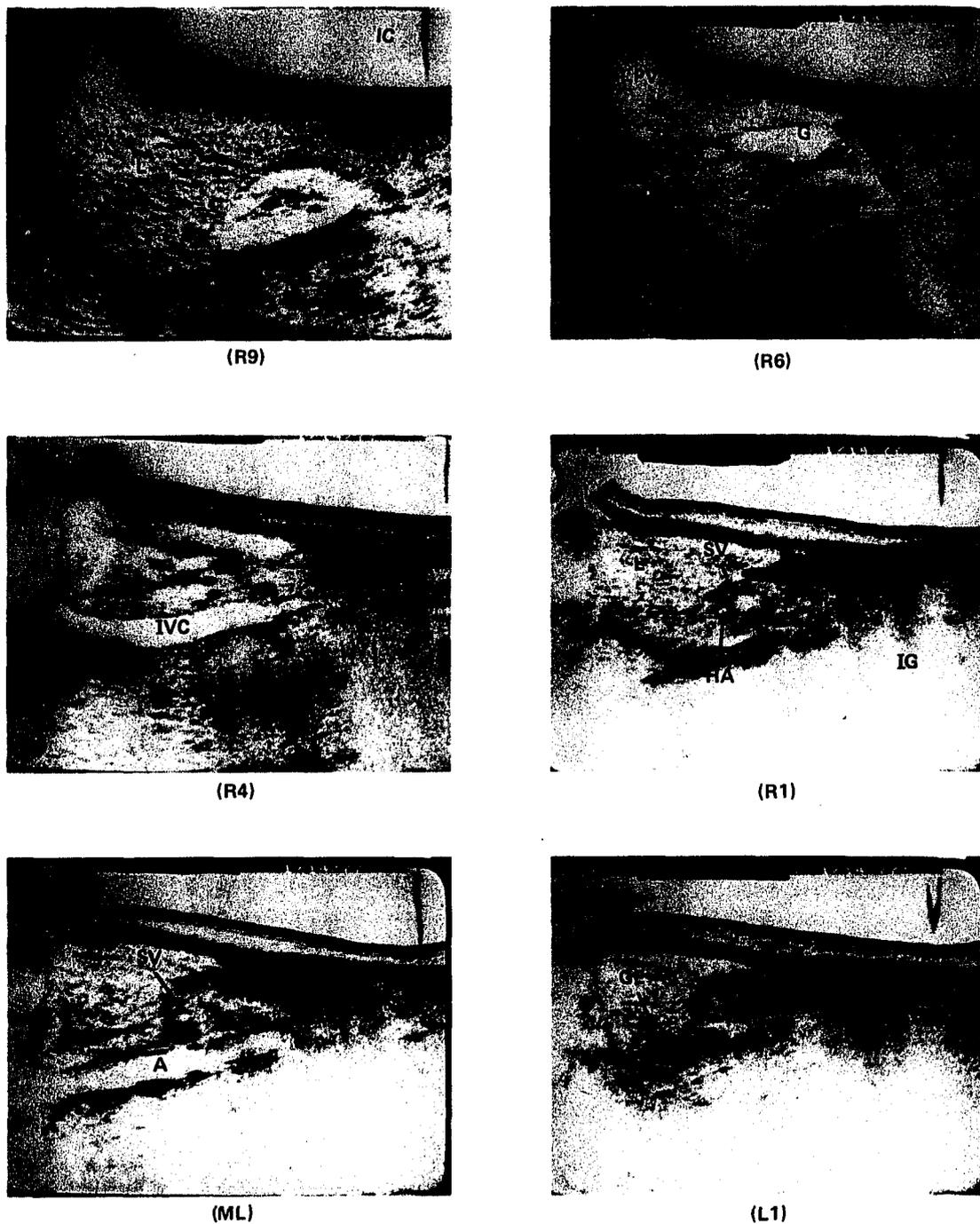
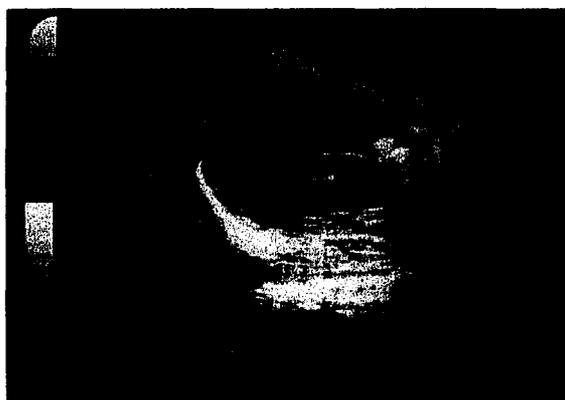


Figure 3-8. Normal longitudinal abdominal B-scan taken with a Picker 80-L scanner and 2.25 MHz transducer for the various sections indicated. Some of the structures clearly seen are the diaphragm (D), liver (L), kidney (K), portal vein (PV), hepatic-vein (HV), cystic duct (CD), gallbladder (G), inferior vena cava (IVC), aorta (A), splenic vein (SV), hepatic-artery (HA), pancreas (P) and gastroesophageal junction (GE). The iliac-crest (IC) is denoted for geographical reference. Intestinal gas (IG) is indicated by the streaked patterns and characteristic reverberation. (Photos courtesy of Atis Freimanis, MD, Chairman, Ohio State University Department of Radiology.)

2.25 MHz



5.0 MHz



10.0 MHz

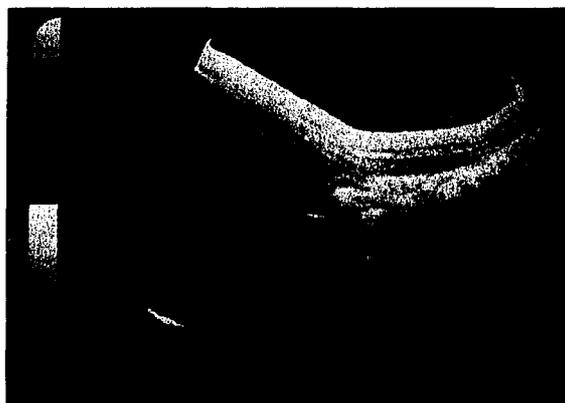
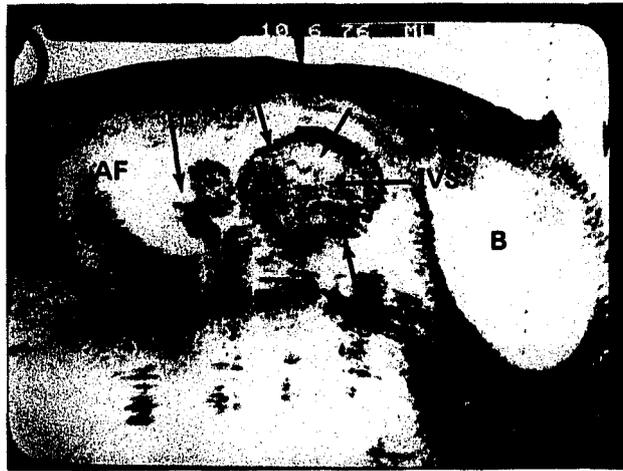


Figure 3-9. Saggital abdominal B-scan (human male, 21 years old) taken at approximately 6 cm to the right of mid-line at 2.25, 5.0 and 10 MHz. The diaphragm (D), liver (L), kidney (K) and some hepatic vessels (HV) can clearly be seen. Increased resolution and decreased penetration can be seen with increasing frequency.



LONGITUDINAL SECTION (ML)



TRANSVERSE SECTION (IC)

Figure 3-10. Longitudinal (mid-line, ML) and transverse (iliac crest, IC) sections of a pregnant woman illustrating fetal detail and associated anatomy - placenta (P), amniotic fluid (AF), small parts (SP), trunk cross-section (T), heart (H), inter-ventricular septum (IVS), fetal head (HE) and Mother's bladder (B)

eye offers such relatively little attenuation to ultrasound, scanning with a 10 MHz signal produces excellent results. Ultrasonic examination is of particular value for isolating a detached retina, vitreous hemorrhage and various melanomas. As a final clinical illustration, Figure 3-11 shows a fundus photograph (where the retinal blood vessels are visualized by fluorescein injection) and associated A- and B-scans demonstrating a small choroidal melanoma. In Figure 3-12, the melanoma has enlarged and resulted in the complication of retinal detachment. In the fundus photograph of Figure 3-12, the extremely raised characteristic of the melanoma (easily visualized by the B-scan cross-section) is indicated by the large degree with which the mass is out of focus with the rest of the choroid in view.

D. EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUES AND RESEARCH ACTIVITIES IN ULTRASONIC IMAGING AND TISSUE CHARACTERIZATION

Within the past decade, efforts devoted to research in medical ultrasound have increased at a phenomenal rate. Ultrasound has seen a wide range of applications, including surgical procedures, various treatment and therapy techniques, blood flow profiles and non-invasive imaging. The tremendous advances being made in electronics technology resulting in high speed, low cost and compact digital processing and memory components, and in particular, microcomputer processing and control systems, has resulted in the development of real time ultrasonic imaging systems based on linear and phased arrays [58]. Additional systems have been using spectral analysis and multiple frequency techniques, computerized X-ray technology principles (see Chapter IV(B), ultrasonic transmission tomography), as well as techniques such as Bragg diffraction and acoustical holography. Rapid advances in digital imaging processing, originally an outgrowth of the space program, has opened up a wide range of analytical

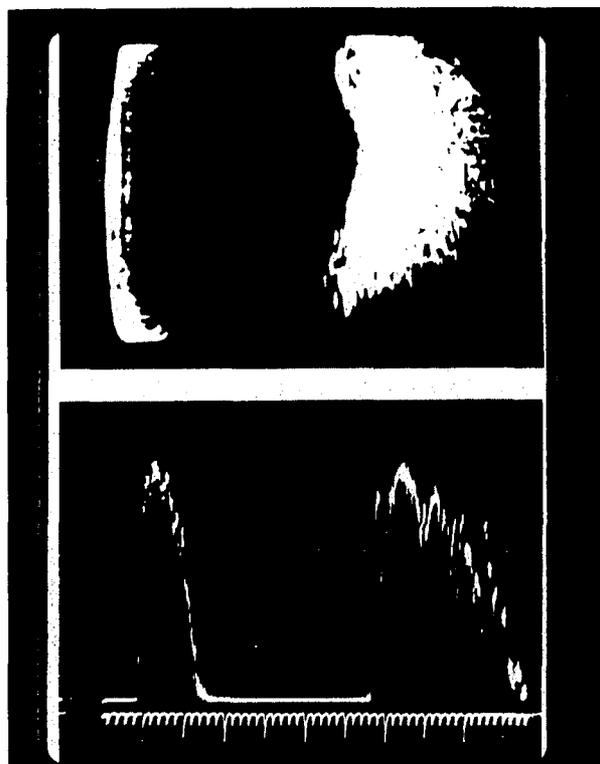


Figure 3-11. (Top) Fundus photograph illustrating optic disc (bright spot in upper, right corner), retinal blood vessels (made visible with fluorescein injection), and a relatively small choroidal melanoma. (Bottom) Ultrasonic B- and A-scans indicative of the melanoma shown. The ultrasound enters the eye through the lens at the right of the B-scan photo. (Photos courtesy of Mick Clark and Holly Taylor, O.S.U. Dept. of Ophthalmology.)



Figure 3-12. (Top) Fundus photograph illustrating a large choroidal melanoma and detached retina. Note the raised state of the tumor, as indicated by its blurred appearance compared with the rest of the figure.
(Bottom) B- and A-scan indicative of the above situation. Note the large mass and detached retina in the B-scan presented.
(Photos courtesy of Mick Clark and Holly Taylor, O.S.U. Dept. of Ophthalmology.)

possibilities for not only improving image quality, but more importantly, to provide an additional tool for ultrasonic tissue characterization. While most of these techniques are still in laboratory development, many of these methods have undergone successful but limited clinical testing. No doubt many of these systems will come into more widespread use in the very near future.

A written summary of the literature which has been reviewed related to the material encompassed in the above paragraph would require that literally an additional volume be added to this dissertation. As a result, the interested reader is recommended to several excellent review references which have been found to be quite up to date [13], [59], [60], [61], [62], [63]. More detailed descriptions may be found in some of the citations in the List of References and related papers and texts.

CHAPTER IV. THE PULSE-SCATTER IMAGING TECHNIQUE

A. INTRODUCTION

As mentioned in the introductory chapter of this dissertation, I(E), the concept of Pulse-Scatter Imaging (PSI) was proposed during the summer of 1976 as part of a joint industrial/academic National Science Foundation Facility Participation Program at the General Electric Company's Electronics Laboratory in Syracuse, N.Y. The prime participants in the program were

Dr. Stephen Tehon, GE Consulting Engineer for Solid State Acoustics

Mr. Robert Glusick, GE Senior Engineer for Display Systems

Dr. Abraham Liboff, Chairman, Department of Medical Physics,
Oakland University, Rochester, Michigan

Dr. Frederick Terry, Chairman, Department of Electrical Engineering,
Christian Brothers College, Memphis, Tennessee.

The hypothesis was made that although ultrasonic imaging, B-mode presentation in particular, had revolutionized the field of non-invasive medical imaging, the pulse-echo data utilized represented only a small amount of the information generated with this procedure. Most of the acoustic energy, rather than be backscattered to the pulse-echo transducer, was scattered away in various other directions depending upon the exact specimen imaged. Scattering theory, as reviewed in Section II(C), completely supports this hypothesis. It

was thus suggested that in order to capture this lost information, additional ultrasonic transducers be equally spaced in a circular array about the object to be imaged [1]. In this way, both the usual pulse-echo as well as non-backscattered signals could be recovered and incorporated into an image. Recovery of all scattered data in this fashion would require an extremely large number (the exact number depending on the desired resolution) of omnidirectional receivers. Furthermore, as previously discussed, depending upon the particular tissue being imaged, scattering behavior may vary with direction of insonification, requiring omnidirectional insonification for complete scatterer imaging. Taking these physical criteria into account, the compromise of using a circular array of equally spaced fan beam transducers was suggested in order to obtain a reasonable amount of omnidirectional insonification and reception, with a minimum number of transducers and data handling. Each transducer is successively pulsed, allowing the subject to be viewed at varying incident angles. Immediately following each excitation pulse, all transducers become ultrasonic receivers, in order to monitor the scattered signals (including pulse-echo). Each receiver outputs an A-mode signal specifying an amplitude and time-of-flight for each echo received. Assuming a constant acoustic-velocity, the measured time defines the path length traveled by the received echo. Also, knowing the coordinates of the specific transmitter/receiver pair, the loci of all points which could have possibly caused a given single scatter based solely on time-of-flight considerations (assuming no multipath transmission), is an ellipse with foci at the transducer locations. Therefore, the A-mode signal corresponding to each transmit/receive pair will produce a family of confocal ellipses, one ellipse per scattering event (echo), with each ellipse being assigned a gray-scale intensity corresponding

to the amplitude of the received signal. Linear superposition (i.e. intensity summation) of all ellipses will result in an image where true scattering events will intersect and reinforce each other, while artifactual data and noise will lack such reinforcement and fade into the background.

Having presumed the above hypothesis, some minimal analysis was performed and data taken using an 8" diameter aluminum ring supporting six transducers built at General Electric. Although a reconstruction algorithm had not yet been designed, image data was taken of a plastic bottle filled with water, having an o.d. of 6.07 cm and i.d. of 5.91 cm. Simple data analysis suggested reasonable system performance. In a separate effort, a computer program was designed to simulate PSI image reconstruction of some simple objects, using the ellipse superposition technique on a 320×320 pixel, 10-bit internal resolution, 16 shade gray scale GE computerized X-ray tomography CRT display. Successful results demonstrated the validity of the PSI approach suggested, but also illustrated the image smearing effects prevalent in image reconstruction via computerized X-ray tomography (CT).

Essentially no other work was performed on this project until June, 1977, when another student, Mr. Larry Browning, PhD candidate in Physics at Purdue University, and the author were given the responsibility of starting an investigation of the PSI technique, as part of a summer employment program at the General Electric Electronics Laboratory. Prior to returning to school at the beginning of August, Mr. Browning had written a preliminary computer program for reconstructing an image using the PSI technique on a Varian mini-computer. The author's efforts were spent developing a manual PSI data acquisition and pre-processing capability using the limited equipment available. In all, such efforts failed to demonstrate the physical validity and feasibility of the

PSI technique, beyond the results obtained, during the previous summer's computer simulation carried out by Mr. Glusick.

At the suggestion of General Electric personnel in conjunction with the author's academic advisers at Ohio State University, the author decided to concentrate his PhD dissertation effort on investigating the validity and feasibility of PSI for medical ultrasonic imaging, as well as to derive a theoretical description of the technique. These tasks comprise the bulk of this dissertation and are presented in the following sections. As listed in Chapter I, the following is a brief categorization of this effort -

- i) review PSI concept, previously untested, as well as applicable acoustic theory
- ii) design experimental protocol and associated hardware/software to test the PSI concept
- iii) develop a theoretical basis for PSI
- iv) modify PSI concept as necessary and repeat experiments
- v) evaluate PSI as to its potential usefulness and feasibility as a clinical imaging procedure.

B. PSI - RELATED IMAGING TECHNIQUES

For completeness, prior to discussing the PSI investigation itself, a summary of techniques found in the literature that bear some, although minimal, similarities to PSI will be presented. Four references have been found, two in the area of radar and one each in geophysics and acoustic imaging.

The radar system, "Loran" (Long Range Navigation), was originally developed during World War II as a navigational aid to both sea and air forces [64],[65]. Various "Loran-C" ground stations, currently located around the world, are utilized as an aid to marine navigation. Loran-C is an updated version of Loran, utilizing a lower frequency carrier signal to obtain

greater range and accuracy due to more stable LF propagation characteristics. Utilizing at least three reference stations, generally a master transmitter and two slave transmitters (triggered by the master after a known time delay) variously coded pulse bursts (to minimize multipath ambiguities) are transmitted to and received by the traveling vessel. At the receiver, distance "differences" are calculated between the vessel and transmitter pairs. A hyperbola with foci located at the transmitter locations (modified appropriately for the slave transmitter, to take into account trigger delay) defines the locus of all vessel locations from which the particular distance difference could have been measured (see Figure 4-1). Measuring such distances from two pairs of transmitters (hence the need for at least three transmitters in all) will result in an intersection of two hyperbolas, thus defining a position-fix.

The second system, termed "multilateration radar" is an airborne-based radar system which bears quite a bit more resemblance to PSI [66]. As depicted in Figure 4-2, an aircraft possessing a wide antenna pattern (analogous to the PSI fan beam) flies at a constant velocity in a straight line path past the region to be imaged. Either narrow or pulse-compressed pulses (to maximize range resolution) are transmitted, with corresponding echoes being reflected off any targets in the field of view, prior to reception back at the plane. Assuming that the plane's velocity is such that receiving the resultant echoes at positions slightly beyond the original transmitter location results in a negligible change in the echo times of arrival, the received echo times can be translated into circular bands, centered at the transmitter location, possessing radii equal to the distance corresponding to the particular echo time of flight. The width of the band corresponds to the range resolution dictated by the transmitted pulse width. Superimposing these annular rings on a suitable storage medium, intersections of these rings at reflector locations will result in an image build-up at

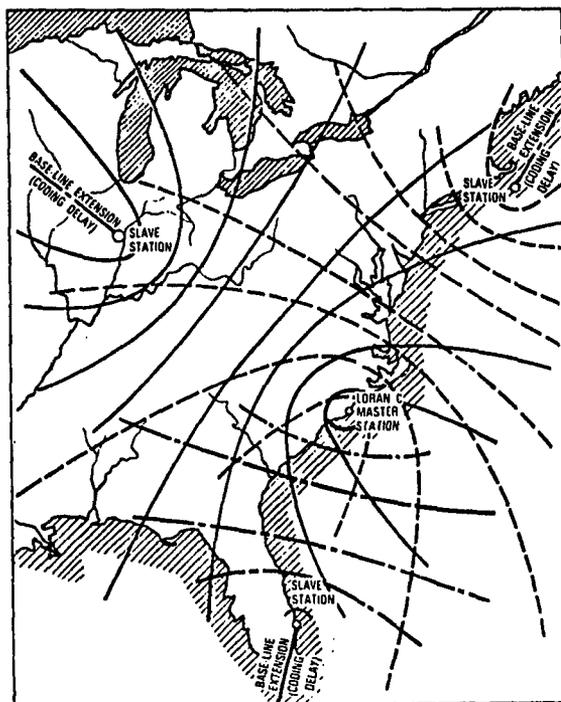


Figure 4-1. Generalized Loran-C navigation system (shown for half of U.S.) utilizing hyperbola intersection to determine position-fix. (Reproduced from Van Etten, p. 100 [64].)

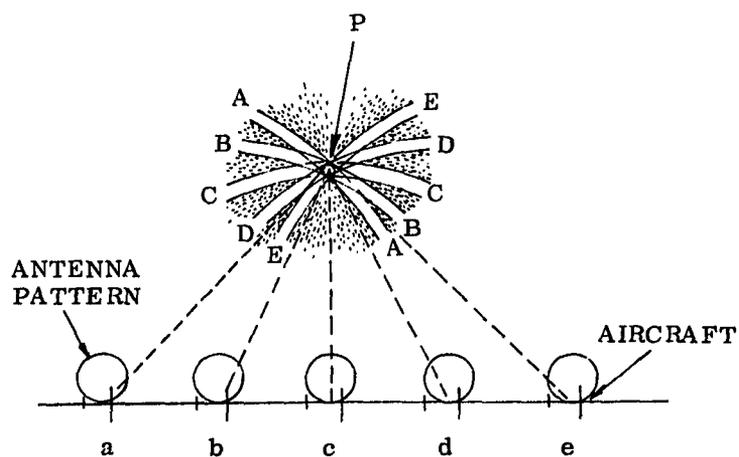
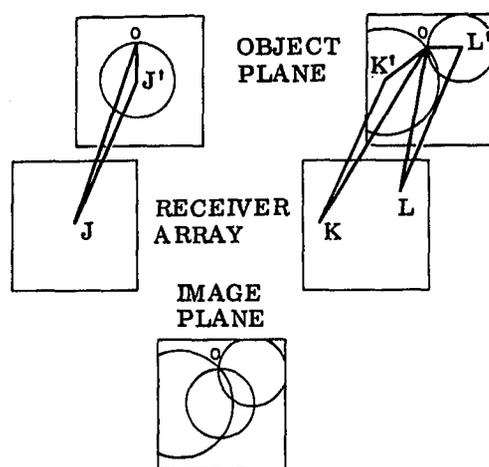


Figure 4-2. Multilateration radar image reconstruction of point "P"; plane flies by the target emitting wide aperture pulses at locations a-e. (Adapted from Kazel, p. 1239 [66].)

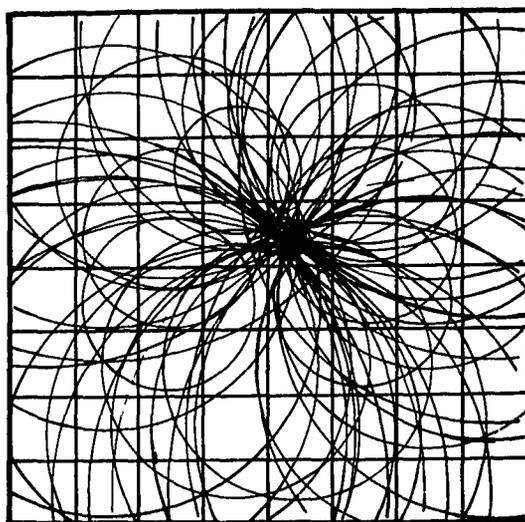
such points, with extraneous portions of the circular rings becoming background noise. It was reported that computer simulation produced the theoretical range resolution (15m for a pulse width of $0.1 \mu s$ on a carrier of 600 MHz) and an image dynamic range of 10 dB. It was suggested that echo signal processing and appropriate narrowing of the antenna pattern used could greatly enhance dynamic range. (Apparently only a simple binary echo detection scheme was used, thus eliminating any amplitude information from the image.) As a side note, it appeared that the processing schemes utilized (if any) to reduce artificial effects such as "false intersections", might be applicable for incorporation into the PSI algorithm. However, upon investigating further, it appears that any such work beyond the basic concept presented in the reference cited is currently classified information.

The area of geophysics utilizes the technique of reflection seismology to map out underground terrain [67] . An explosive source is placed into the ground for the purpose of emitting compressional sound waves. Receivers, termed geophones, are symmetrically spaced in a linear array, away from the source in order to pick up the reflected shock waves. A hyperbolic relationship exists between time of flight and receiver location (multipath propagation and Snell's Law diffraction are neglected), thus allowing calculation of reflector locations. Furthermore, in order to obtain quantitative amplitude data, noise filtering and time-gain compensation are utilized.

The final process to be described is acoustic and is termed isochrone convergence imaging [68] . This method utilizes a single transmitter and multiple point-receivers located in one plane, to image an object in a parallel plane via the generation and superposition of circular loci, one per received echo, as illustrated in Figure 4-3(a). Utilizing a single transmitter, the object plane is insonified with a wide aperture acoustic pulse. Corresponding to the



(a)



(b)

Figure 4-3. Isochrone convergence imaging.

- (a) Reconstruction of point "o" utilizing three receivers.
- (b) Reconstruction of a 7.5 mm ball bearing in water at 105 mm from transducer array. Reconstruction is based on echo peak amplitude timings. Spatial scale is 6 mm per division. (Reproduced from Dow and Brown, pp. 130, 134 [68] .)

time of each echo arrival, a circle may be drawn, centered about the given receiver location (e.g. point J', corresponding to receiver J in Figure 4-3(a)) describing the locus of all points which could have echoed a signal at the given time of arrival. Corresponding to each receiver location (J, K and L in the illustration) circles are formed, which subsequently intersect and reinforce at the reflector location (point O). As each receiver's output is examined, a spiraling timebase is generated about the receiver location, starting at time "2T", where "T" is the time required for the acoustic pulse to travel from receiver location in transducer array to corresponding receiver coordinate in the object focal plane, with the CRT beam intensity being modulated at times of subsequent echo arrival, thus generating approximately circular loci. Figure 4-3 illustrates image reconstruction of a 7.5 mm ball bearing. Methods of eliminating false intersections and other artifacts (e.g. "smearing") in the reconstruction have not been reported. System resolution was cited as being related to both the number of reflecting objects and number of receivers.

Before proceeding with the PSI theory, since PSI is in effect a type of tomography system, a brief reference should be made to computerized X-ray tomography (CT) [9], [69], [70], [71]. Although the CT technique can be quite closely compared with several ultrasonic imaging systems which have been developed, namely, time-of-flight [72], [73] and thru-transmission reconstruction-based systems [74], [75] (see Section III(B)), PSI, as the concept has now been modified, ignores thru-transmission signals, since they do not contain any information with regard to scatterer location. In fact, such signals, when processed by the PSI algorithm, actually obscure the image produced with only scattered signals. CT involves X-raying a plane of tissue from many

angles via either rotating or rotating-and-translating a fan or rectangular X-ray beam. Since the X-rays travel essentially a non-deviated straight line path through the tissue, highly collimated receivers located directly opposite each transmitter location are used to detect straight line path attenuation through the tissue sample. The reconstruction algorithm, via a number of possible methods [76], [77], determines the attenuation attributable to each tissue image resolution element. The result is displayed as a gray-scale image, with a direct correspondence established between gray shade and attenuation coefficient. Useful with respect to PSI, are the gray scale image processing and windowing techniques, used to enhance or extract information from the reconstructed CT images. Some of these techniques may be applied to PSI either directly or after suitable modifications. Several of these techniques were applied to PSI and will be discussed in Chapter V.

C. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS, ANALYSES AND HYPOTHESES

In the previous sections, some of the fundamental ideas of Pulse-Scatter Imaging have been mentioned. This section will present a formal description of PSI and discuss theoretical system limitations and considerations, as proposed by the author.

The investigation of PSI was pursued, intent on achieving the feasibility of an ultrasonic imaging system with six primary features --

- (i) better image resolution than obtainable with B-scan
- (ii) uniform scan procedure, independent of ultrasonographer variability
- (iii) rapid scan time to minimize motion artifacts
- (iv) minimal ultrasound dosage to patient
- (v) system flexibility, such that once a complete set of data has been taken, arbitrary cross-sectional views may be observed in either standard or magnified perspective

- (vi) ability to quantitatively analyze received data and provide a reliable means of ultrasonic tissue characterization .

Three main assumptions regarding ultrasound interaction with biological tissues were made at the outset and are consistent with current ultrasonic research [78] -

- (i) velocity of sound is constant; an average velocity of 1540 m/sec is assumed.
- (ii) most of the acoustic energy, upon reaching an interface is scattered at other than 180° (i.e. backscatter) and will not be captured in the pulse echo process.
- (iii) multipath and multimode (i.e. non-longitudinal) signals may be treated as system noise, e.g. after encountering more than one interface the acoustic signal will be highly attenuated. (Although this assumption is generally made, separate investigations should be conducted to determine its validity in a more quantitative fashion.)

The basic PSI system is designed to be suitable for producing transverse images of the body, such as are presently obtained for abdominal, pelvic and breast examination. The acoustic portion of the system consists of a circular array of " N_T " transducers, which is placed around the patient, as illustrated in Figure 4-4. (For purposes of simplifying the illustrative figures, $N_T = 8$ will be assumed.) Acoustic coupling between the transducers and patient may be obtained in various ways, one of which would involve utilization of a water-filled plastic bag. Proper sequencing of the transmission and reception functions of this array will allow multidirectional modes of both insonification and scatter reception. Assuming that " N_T " ideal, standard pulse-echo transducers were

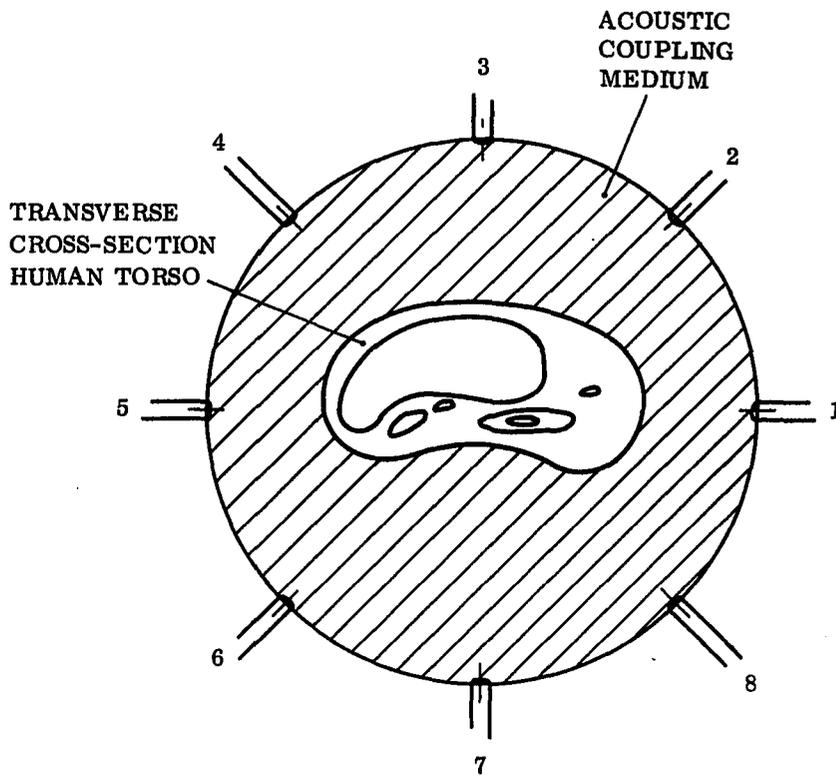


Figure 4-4. Orientation of PSI transducer array about patient

used in the specified array and directed at the center of the ring, although insonification and reception would be from " N_T " directions, as a result of the transducers' directional properties, illustrated in Figure 3-3, scattered echoes will be received only if propagating radially with respect to the ring. In order to overcome this problem, fan beam transducers, possessing an idealized beam characteristic as shown in Figure 4-5(a), are utilized in place of the pulse-echo probes. Assuming a given transducer has identical transmission and reception characteristics, then a composite beam pattern, as illustrated in Figure 4-5(b), will result, where there is a polygonal central area which is symmetrically and equally insonified by each beam. Outside of this area, a given scatterer

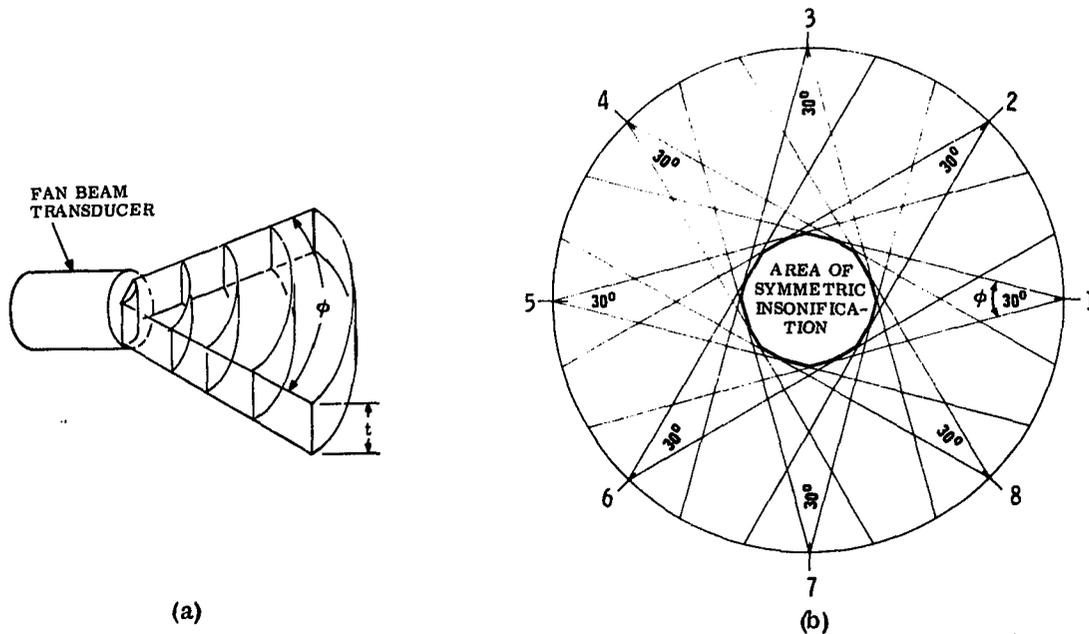


Figure 4-5. (a) Idealized fan beam pattern with beam angle, ϕ , and beam thickness, t .
 (b) Composite coverage of symmetric fan beam array. Illustration is for eight transducers, each having a beam angle of $\phi = 30^\circ$.

will be insonified by fewer than the total number of beams (N_T). Unless all points are symmetrically insonified, scattering cannot be quantitatively characterized. Thus, the object to be imaged must be placed within this area of symmetric insonification.

Figure 4-6 illustrates how to specify array diameter and beam angle in order to achieve a desired imaging region. (Only four transducers are shown in order to simplify the drawing.) Let " R " = radius of transducer array, " ϕ " = beam angle and " r " = the radius of the largest circle that may be inscribed within the $2N_T$ -sided regular polygonal region which will result from a symmetric-array of " N_T " transducers. Since the sides of a regular polygon are tangent to the inscribed circle, such a circle represents a minimum area approximation for

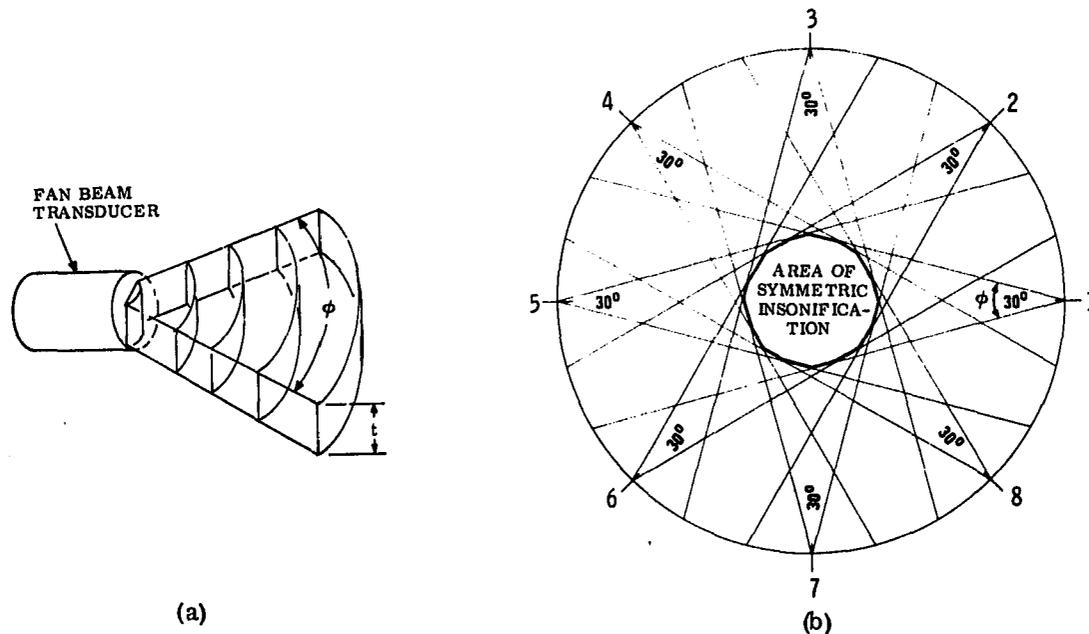
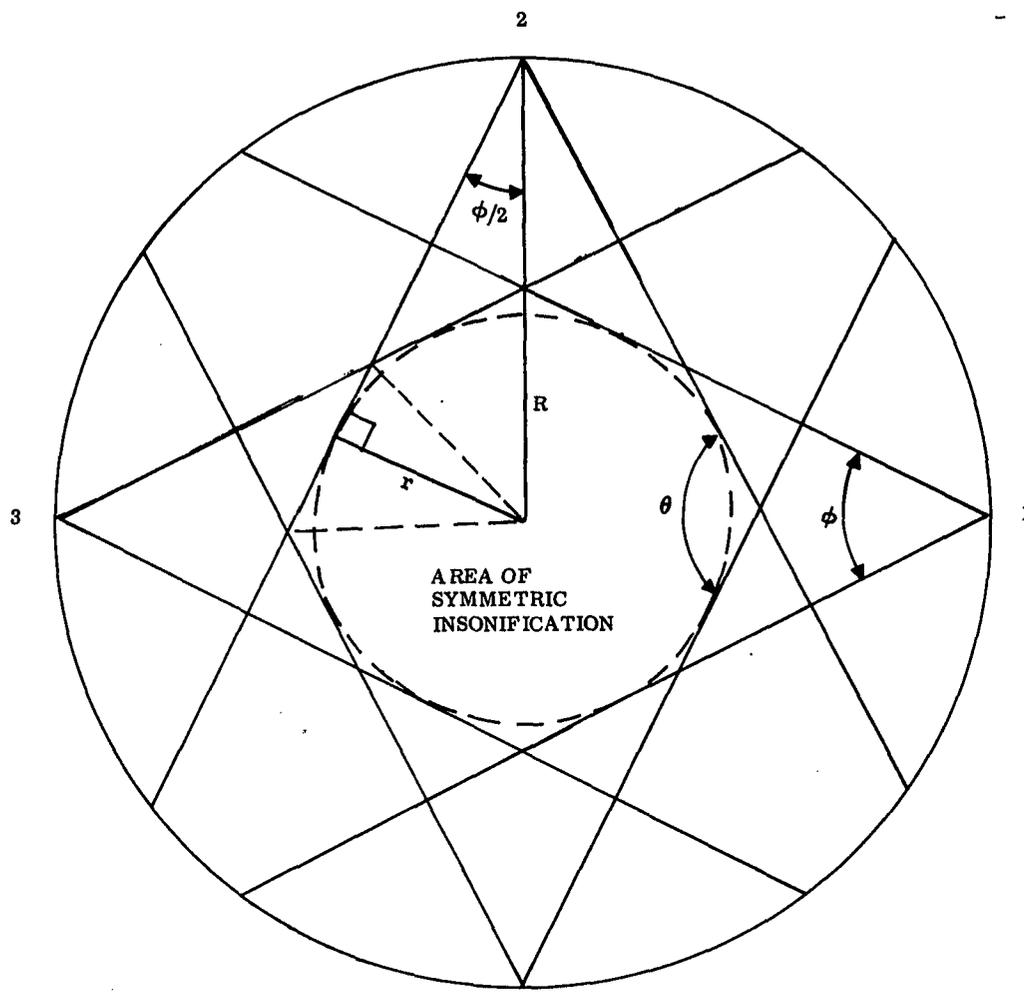


Figure 4-5. (a) Idealized fan beam pattern with beam angle, ϕ , and beam thickness, t .
 (b) Composite coverage of symmetric fan beam array. Illustration is for eight transducers, each having a beam angle of $\phi = 30^\circ$.

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R = RADIUS OF TRANSDUCER ARRAY

ϕ = FAN BEAM ANGLE

r = MINIMUM RADIUS OF
SYMMETRIC INSONIFICATION
($N_T = \infty$)

$$r = R \sin \phi/2$$

Figure 4-6. Geometric layout for determining region of symmetric insonification from beam angle and array radius

the imaging region for $N_T < \infty$ and the limiting case for $N_T \rightarrow \infty$. As illustrated

$$r = R \sin \frac{\phi}{2} \quad (4-1)$$

For completeness, the polygon, itself, is regular, contains " $2N_T$ " sides and thus has interior angles

$$\theta = \frac{2\pi}{2N_T} = \frac{\pi}{N_T} \text{ radians} \quad (4-2)$$

" N_T " determines " θ " while " ϕ " determines the size of the polygon (and radius, r , of inscribed circle). As a result, a given diameter imaging region may be obtained by varying either or both " N_T " and " ϕ ". A compromise must be reached, however, since increasing " N_T " beyond the point where desired resolution has been obtained greatly increases hardware costs, data collection time, data storage requirements and image reconstruction time. Increasing " ϕ " to a very large value, aside from the possibility of fabrication difficulties, produces a beam whose energy density falls off very rapidly. Acoustic-intensity is inversely proportional to cross-sectional area. Therefore, using a plane wave approximation for Figure 4-5(a), as shown in Figure 4-7,

$$\frac{I}{I_0} = \frac{E_0/2 (d \tan \phi/2) t}{E_0/a_T} \quad (4-3)$$

$$I = I_0 \left(\frac{a_T}{2 t d \tan \frac{\phi}{2}} \right) \quad (4-4)$$

where

I_0 = acoustic-intensity at transducer face

I = acoustic intensity at approximately a distance " d " from
transducer face, $d \gg d_T$

E_0 = total acoustic energy output by transducer

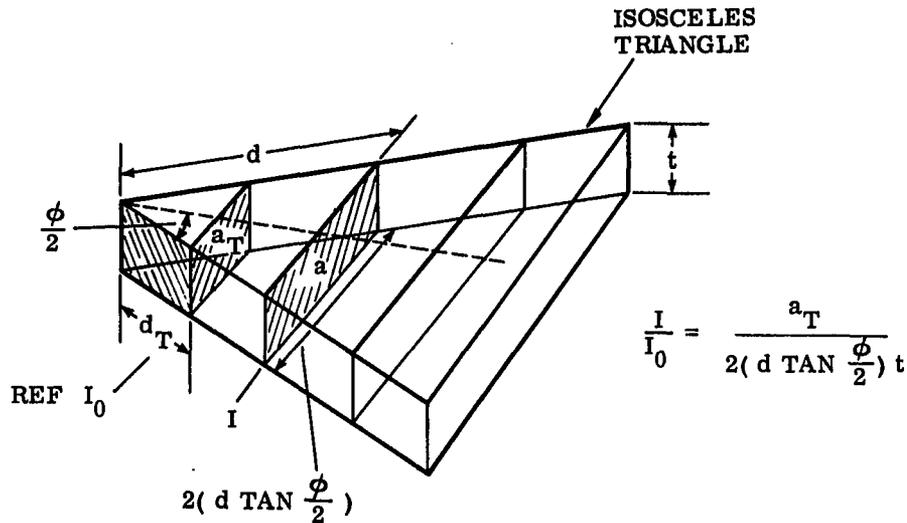


Figure 4-7. Plane wave approximation to Figure 4-5(a) for calculating decrease in fan beam intensity with increase in distance from transducer assuming a lossless medium

a_T = radiating area of transducer

ϕ = fan beam angle

t = fan beam thickness.

The above relationship has two implications. The first is that acoustic power will be greater in the outer portions of the imaging area. Power level must, therefore, be measured along the outer circumference of this region when considering safe dosage level. Secondly, quantitative interpretation of PSI data necessitates that the entire region be uniformly insonified. Both mathematical and physical proof of these requirements have been set aside for a separate study (this preliminary PSI investigation has concentrated on image detection rather than on quantitative aspects by necessity of limited funds (minimally calibrated hardware) and time requirements). The following hypothesis will be set forth, however, for proof at a later date. Assuming the plane wave approximation to the fan beam of Figure 4-7, a composite transmitted intensity may be calculated as shown in Figure 4-8, for a four transducer array and an imaging space of 8×8 elements (chosen for ease of calculation). The intensity

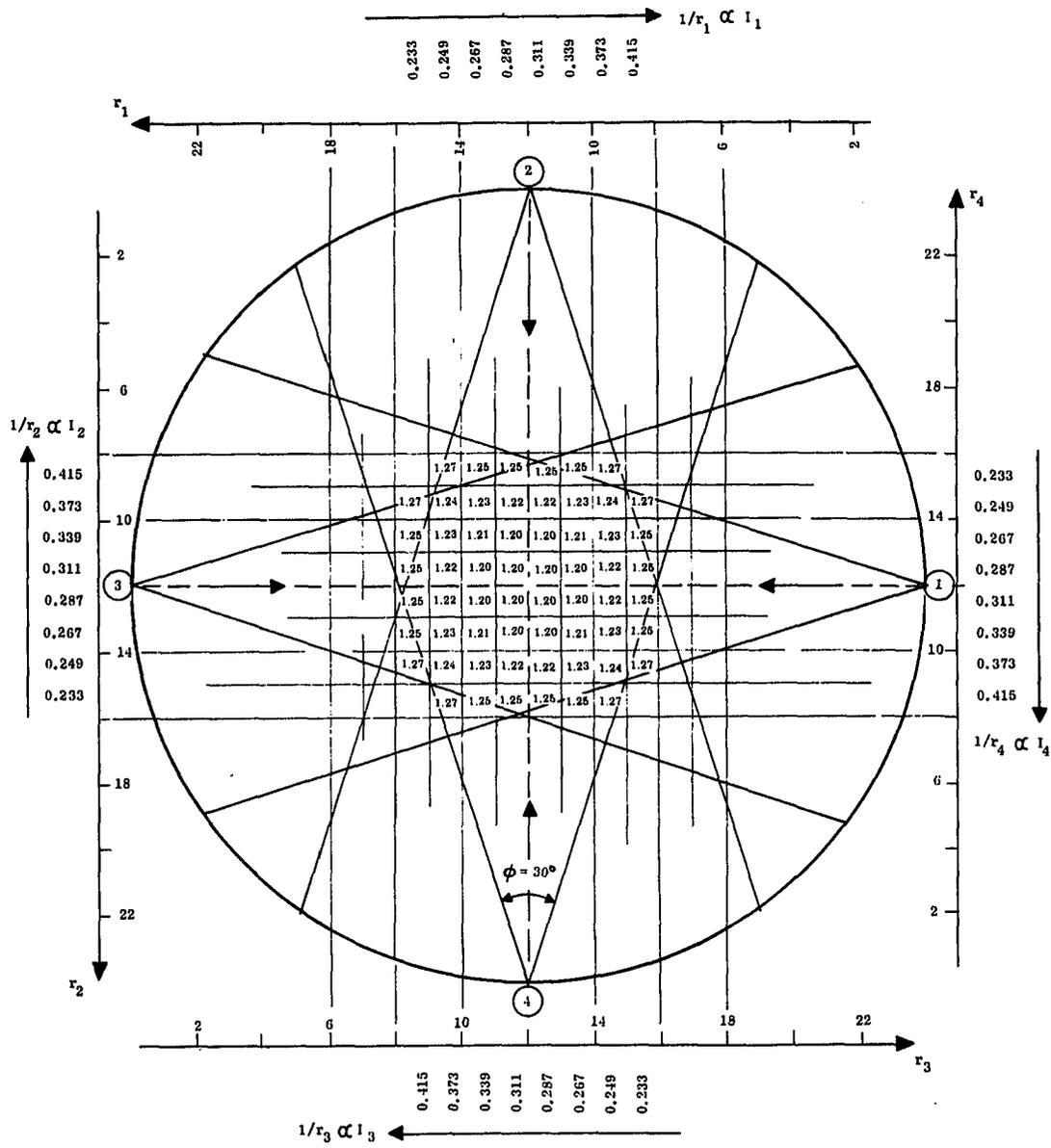


Figure 4-8. Relative acoustic intensities ($I_0=1$ at $r=0$) for composite fan beam profile (illustration for $N_T=4$)

values calculated along each transducer axis ($N_T = 4$ chosen to simplify the analysis) were normalized with respect to $I_0 = 1$ at $r = 0$, and were assumed to diminish as $1/r$, where r = distance from transducer face. Each of the relative intensities shown within the symmetric region of insonification were determined by simultaneously summing the contributions due to each of the individual transducers, at the given location. Due to symmetric insonification, the composite intensity pattern increases radially outward, the radial uniformity improving with increasing " N_T ". Thus, in addition to the standard time-gain compensation, appropriate position-dependent weighting factors could be added to the PSI system to account for this spatially-dependent insonification.

With the specified array of " N_T " transducers surrounding the object to be imaged, each transducer is pulsed once in succession around the array. Immediately following each pulse, all transducers (including the transmitter) function as receivers to monitor the scattered signals. The output of each transducer is a conventional A-mode signal. In all, each of the " N_T " pulses generates " N_T " A-mode waveforms, producing a total number of transmitter/receiver pairs, N_{TP} , as

$$N_{TP} = N_T \times N_T = N_T^2 \text{ pairs} \quad (4-5)$$

By reciprocity, for example, transmitting from transmitter one to receiver five is equivalent to transmitting from transmitter five to receiver one. Thus, the total number of "unique" transmitter/receiver pairs, N_{UP} , may be described as

$$N_{UP} = \frac{N_T \times (N_T + 1)}{2} \quad (4-6)$$

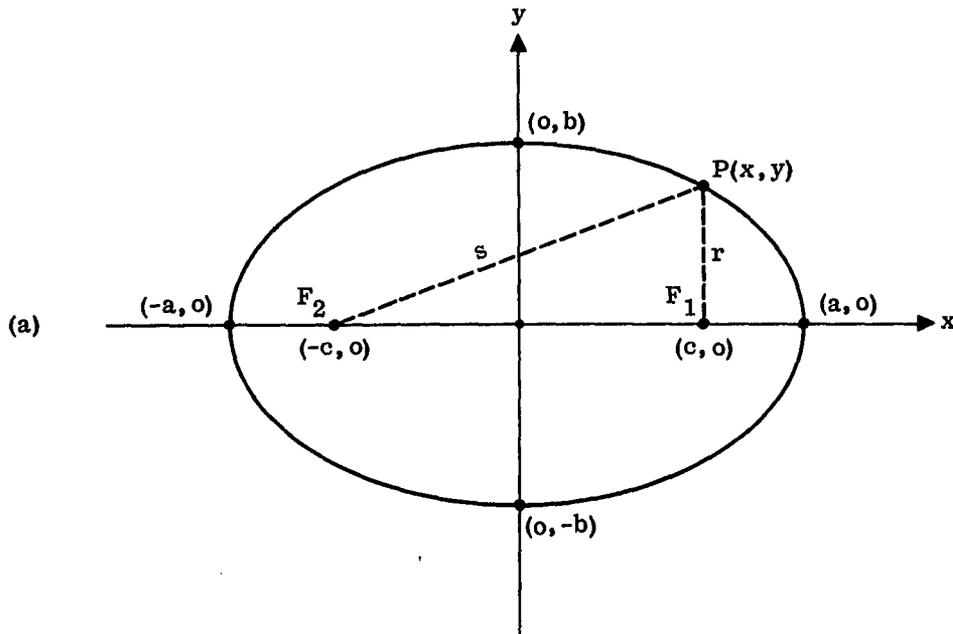
" N_{UP} " is generally a little more than half of " N_{TP} ". The use of a non-redundant data collection scheme, as illustrated in Figure 4-9, economizes on data storage space and processing time, as well as maintains proper data weighting. The cross-hatched designations represent the redundant data.

DATA COLLECTION FOR EIGHT TRANSDUCER RING

| TRANSMITTER (Transducer Number) | RECEIVER (Transducer Number) | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | / |
| 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | / | 1 |
| 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | / | 1 | / |
| 4 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | / | 1 | / | 2 |
| 5 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | / | 1 | / | 2 | / |
| 6 | 6 | 7 | 8 | / | 1 | / | 2 | / | 3 |
| 7 | 7 | 8 | / | 1 | / | 2 | / | 3 | / |
| 8 | 8 | / | 1 | / | 2 | / | 3 | / | 4 |

Figure 4-9. Data collection for simulation of an eight transducer ring

As mentioned earlier, knowing the transmitter (T) and receiver (R) coordinates as well as echo time of flight, an ellipse with foci at the T/R coordinates and chord sum ($r+s$), shown in Figure 4-10) corresponding to the total echo time-of-flight describes the locus of all points which could have been insonified by the transmitter prior to echoing a response to the given receiver in the measured amount of time. The echo amplitude is mapped into the particular ellipse's gray scale. Furthermore, the amplitude data undergoes time-gain compensation (TGC); echoes which have traveled a longer distance (longer time-of-flight) are multiplied by a value which is greater than for echoes which traveled shorter distances, in order to compensate for total signal attenuation, a factor which increases with time-of-flight. Additional gain weighting may be incorporated later in the processing route to overcome such situations as insonification non-uniformities due to fan beam divergence. Finally, geographic superposition and algebraic summation of the resultant ellipses will result in a



(b) $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1, a > b > 0$ FOR GEOMETRIC ORIENTATION SHOWN

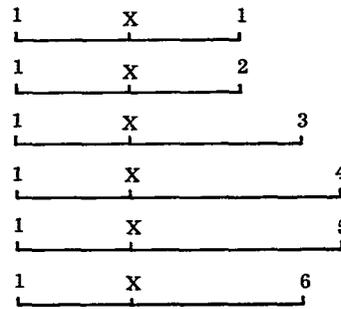
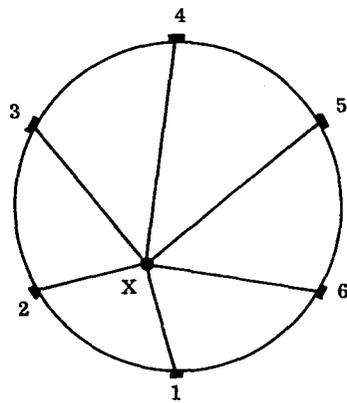
BASIC PROPERTY: $F_1P(x, y) + F_2P(x, y) = \text{CONSTANT}$

WHERE: F_1 AND F_2 ARE FOCI

$P(x, y)$ IS AN ARBITRARY POINT ON THE CIRCUMFERENCE

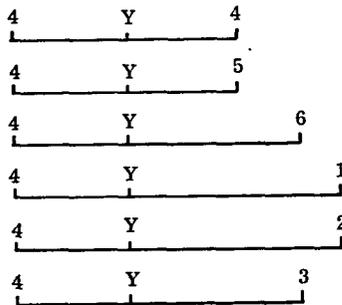
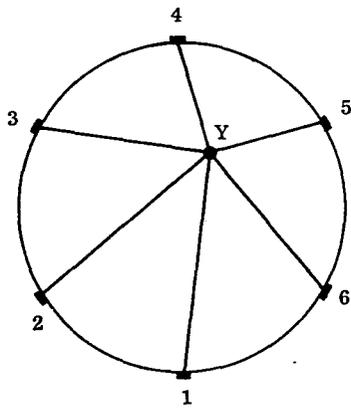
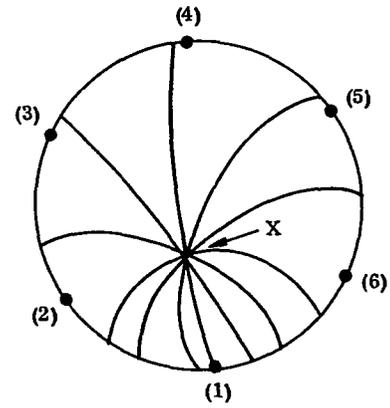
Figure 4-10. Basic (a) elliptical geometry and (b) associated mathematics

gray scale image, where scatterer locations are displayed as ellipse intersections and constructive reinforcement, while signals due to noise and artifact will exist as a relatively faint background construction. Figure 4-11(a) illustrates partial reconstruction of a point "x" by this process for a six transducer array, and the case where transducer number one has just been pulsed and utilized as a transmitter. Figure 4-11(b) illustrates reconstruction of a second point, "y", utilizing data from transmitter number four. Superposition of the reconstructions of "x" and "y" produces the composite image.



TRANSIT-TIME MEASUREMENTS
TO POINT "X" FOR
T/R PAIRS 1/1 - 1/6

(a)



TRANSIT-TIME MEASUREMENTS
TO POINT "Y" FOR
T/R PAIRS 4/1 - 4/6

(b)

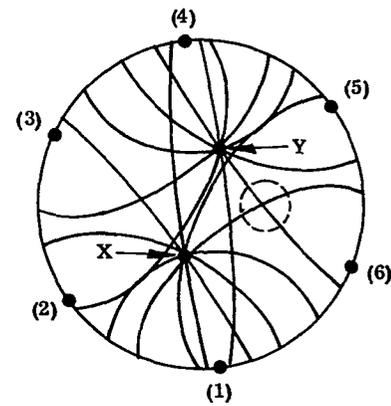


Figure 4-11. Demonstration of PSI reconstruction approach.
(a) Partial reconstruction of a single point, "X"
(b) Partial reconstruction of two points, "X" and "Y".
False intersection indicated in dotted circle.

Now, two problems become immediately evident. The first is that as subsequent data are gathered utilizing the remaining transducers as transmitters, ellipse superposition will generate some intersections where no scatterers are located. Such "false intersections" will be of low frequency and will simply fade into the background image. However, as more and more scatterers (i.e. echo producers) are placed in the field of view and more and more ellipses are superimposed, there is a greater chance, although still much less than for constructive reinforcement at true scatterer locations, of having more than one false intersection occurring at a given set of coordinates. As alluded to when reviewing several other reinforcement imaging techniques in IV(B), this problem of false intersections (see Figure 4-11(b)) is spatially variant, depending on the transducer array geometry. Furthermore, analysis and modeling of this problem is particularly hampered by the fact that the frequency and degree of reinforcement of false intersections given a fixed transducer array geometry, is highly dependent on the number and spatial orientation of scatterers being imaged.

Mathematical descriptions of this problem could not be found in the (non-classified) literature and attempts at devising a suitable mathematical model and criteria for isolating false intersections, during the present investigation were not fruitful. Additional mathematics will be necessary to better handle this situation. A further complicating factor is the unpredictability of echo amplitudes which will be distributed between false intersections and true ones (i.e. ellipses corresponding to both strong and weak echoes may participate in false intersection). This overall problem must be solved in order to produce a truly quantitative image. Deferring this problem to a future study, the approach to be taken will probably have to be a statistical one, where a complete range of various scattering patterns are analyzed for a given transducer array

geometry and an "average false intersection probability" will be determined. Such a factor should be spatially variant, although exhibiting a certain degree of symmetry, so that each pixel element will have a specific correction term. This factor will treat a portion of a given pixel's brightness as an unwanted dc signal which needs to be subtracted out.

During the PSI investigation, a combinatorial approach to this problem was attempted by assuming (for the case of all echoes being of unity amplitude) a maximum worst-case number of false intersections (m) occurring for reconstruction of a single scatterer (spatial variance must be kept in mind), of size equal to that of a single display pixel. Trying to image " T " targets will then result in a maximum false intersection amplitude of " mT ", assuming an exact overlay each time, of those pixels containing worst-case ambiguities. True scatterers will reinforce $\frac{N_T(N_T+1)}{2}$ times (equal to the number of T/R pairs). A stylized signal (true scatterer) to noise (false intersections) ratio (SNR) could then be formed as

$$\text{SNR} = \frac{N_T(N_T+1)/2}{mT} = \frac{N_T(N_T+1)}{2mT} \quad (4-7)$$

Substitution of possible values into Equation (4-7) would suggest unsatisfactory results. However, the probability of worst-case false intersections occurring in exactly the same locations of the 320×320 pixel display used is intuitively quite small and otherwise, is dependent on target locations. Thus, it would appear that " mT " in Equation (4-7), is actually a gross exaggeration and not representative of "likely" worst-case occurrences.

The second of the two problems suggested earlier involves thru-transmissions. A thru-transmission signal is defined as one which travels directly from transmitter to receiver without being scattered. Thus, such a straight line path will reconstruct as a straight line joining the transmitter and receiver; more

practically speaking, such a signal would be reconstructed as a "narrow ellipse" due to distance uncertainties resulting from time quantization of signal sampling. This "narrow ellipse" contains no scattering information whatsoever, and if included in the reconstructed image would tend to write-over and obliterate the image from the truly scattered data. As a result, " N_{UP} " defined in Equation (4-6) will be reduced somewhat in order to disregard thru-transmission data. The number of T/R combinations disregarded will depend on array size and fan beam angle.

In determining the resolution of the PSI system, electronic and acoustic performance must be considered as well as the factors of image reconstruction and display. As was discussed back in Section III (B), in B-scan, axial resolution is dependent on excitation pulse width, whereas lateral resolution is limited by transducer beamwidth. The pulse-scatter imaging technique relies strictly on time differences of arrival in determining the positional relationships of the reconstruction ellipses. As a result, the primary limiting factor in determining resolution will be the pulse width, τ_{pw} , of transducer excitation. For the pulse-burst transducer excitation being used, τ_{pw} is generally no less than two cycles of the sinusoidal carrier [79], [80], [81] (frequency = f_c ; period = $T_c = \frac{1}{f_c}$), for the highest quality, widest bandwidth transducers currently available. So, since two scatterers closer than a pulse width's spacing in time cannot be resolved, the maximum resolution attainable, \mathcal{R} , may be expressed as

$$\mathcal{R} = \frac{1}{c} \times \tau_{pw} \quad (4-8)$$

where: c = average acoustic velocity ($\mu\text{sec}/\text{mm}$)

τ_{pw} = transmitted pulse width (μsec)

Substituting some typical values into this equation, $f_c = 5$ MHz, $\tau_{pw} = 1$ μ sec and $c = 1540$ m/sec results in $R = 1.54$ mm. In general, pulse spreading will occur as the ultrasonic energy interacts with the propagating medium and object to be imaged. In order to minimize the degradation of such an effect, various detection and processing techniques may be used (e.g. leading-edge detection, correlation detection [82]). Due to the finite duration of each pulse, each ellipse drawn in the reconstruction process will really be an elliptical band whose spatial width corresponds to the originally transmitted pulse width. If leading-edge pulse detection were to be used, a thin-lined ellipse could be drawn, however, a region of uncertainty would still exist about the plotted ellipse, corresponding to the transmitted acoustic pulse width.

Since the data acquisition, processing and display approach to PSI has been digital, the initial A-mode-like signals obtained must be digitized. As a result, it must be certain that a high enough sampling frequency is used, otherwise, high frequency scattering may be missed. Additionally, sampling at too low a frequency (below at least $2 f_c$, the Nyquist sampling frequency, where $f_c =$ largest frequency component in signal) will cause loss of HF components, resulting in pulse-smearing and resolution degradation.

With respect to output display resolution, let the output display be "p" pixels square and "r" equal to the radius of the area of symmetric insonification. Thus, "p" pixels correspond to "2r" distance units or $(2 \times 2r/c)$ time units (round-trip echo travel). Display resolution, R_d , will then be

$$R_d = \frac{2r}{p} \text{ unit distance/pixel} \quad (4-9)$$

A display resolution, R_d , any greater than the acoustic resolution, R , is of little practical value. Utilizing representative values from the PSI investigation,

and allowing the full display area to be comprised of only the symmetrically insonified region (optimized situation), typical maximum display resolution may be calculated as follows (see Figure 4-12).

(i) Display Device

$$p = 320 \text{ pixels (10 bit amplitude storage per pixel)}$$

(ii) Array diameter, $D \approx 8'' \rightarrow R = 4''$

$$\text{Fan beam angle, } \phi \approx 30^\circ$$

$$\text{Radius of symmetric imaging region} = r = R \sin \frac{\phi}{2} = 1.04''$$

$$\therefore \text{Diameter of symmetric imaging region} = d = 2.08''$$

$$= 52.83 \text{ mm and so maximum round-trip distance}$$

$$= 2 \times 52.83 = 105.66 \text{ mm}$$

(iii) Average acoustic velocity in tissue, $c = 1540 \text{ m/sec}$

$$= 0.65 \mu\text{sec/mm}$$

$$320 \text{ pixels} \longleftrightarrow 68.69 \mu\text{sec time window (r/t)}$$

$$\therefore 1 \text{ pixel} = 0.21 \mu\text{sec}$$

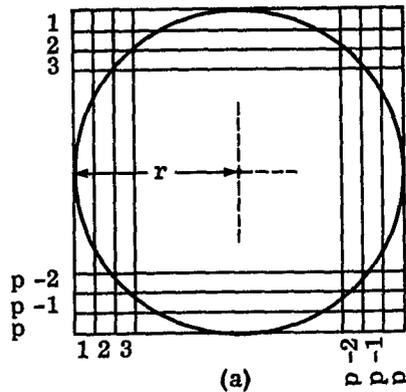
or

$$320 \text{ pixels} \longleftrightarrow 105.66 \text{ mm}$$

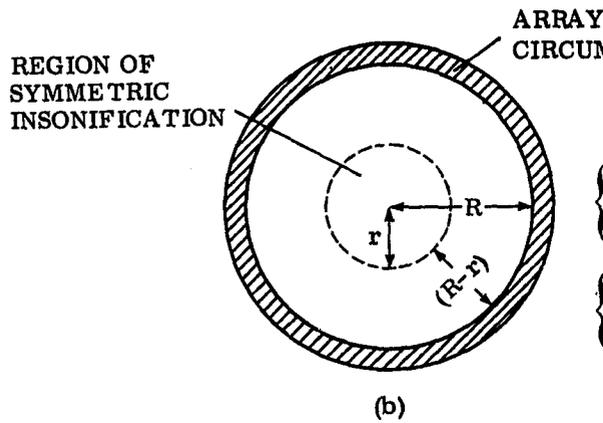
$$\therefore 1 \text{ pixel} = 0.165 \text{ mm (image scale)}$$

$$= 0.33 \text{ mm (r/t acoustic travel)}$$

Thus, based on the foregoing calculations, the transmitted pulse width is currently the determining factor for system resolution. (It should be noted that for the present PSI investigation, the full transducer array comprises the 320×320 pixel imaging region. Thus, the active imaging display is a centrally located circle of approximately two inches in diameter. For this situation, system resolution is that one pixel equals approximately 0.635 mm in distance or $0.826 \mu\text{sec}$ (r/t) in time. In this case as well, resolution is limited by the transmitted pulse width.)



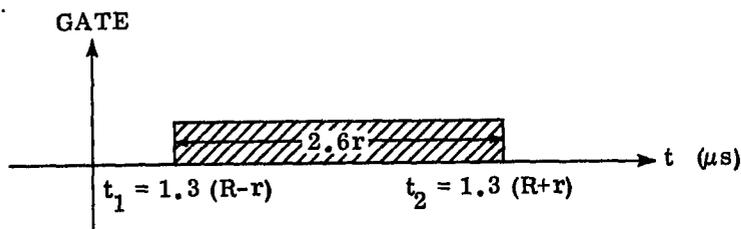
$r =$ RADIUS OF SYMMETRICALLY INSONIFIED REGION (mm)
 DISPLAY RESOLUTION, $R_d = \frac{2r}{p}$ (mm)



ACOUSTIC VELOCITY (SOFT TISSUE) = $0.65 \mu\text{s/mm}$

{ MAX. r/t DISTANCE = $2(R+r)$ mm
 MAX. r/t TIME $\rightarrow 0.65(2)(R+r) = 1.3(R+r) \mu\text{s}$

{ MIN. r/t DISTANCE = $2(R-r)$ mm
 MIN r/t TIME $\rightarrow 0.65(2)(R-r) = 1.3(R-r) \mu\text{s}$



(c)

Figure 4-12. Time gating and data display for optimal image resolution
 (a) Full field display
 (b) Physical acoustic layout
 (c) Gated data acquisition to enable display as in (a)

The final factor influencing image resolution relates directly to the reconstruction process itself. Just as in computerized X-ray tomography (CT), the reconstruction process introduces a smearing of the resultant images. Such smearing results from the intersection of straight lines possessing a finite thickness. As will be illustrated via simulated and real data in the next chapter, when many lines cross at a single point, due to the finite line thickness, the point of intersection tends to bloom out and appear larger, the greater the number of intersecting lines [83], [84]. Mathematically, for a time invariant system, this phenomenon may be described as a convolution (*) relationship in the spatial domain (see Figure 4-13) - - -

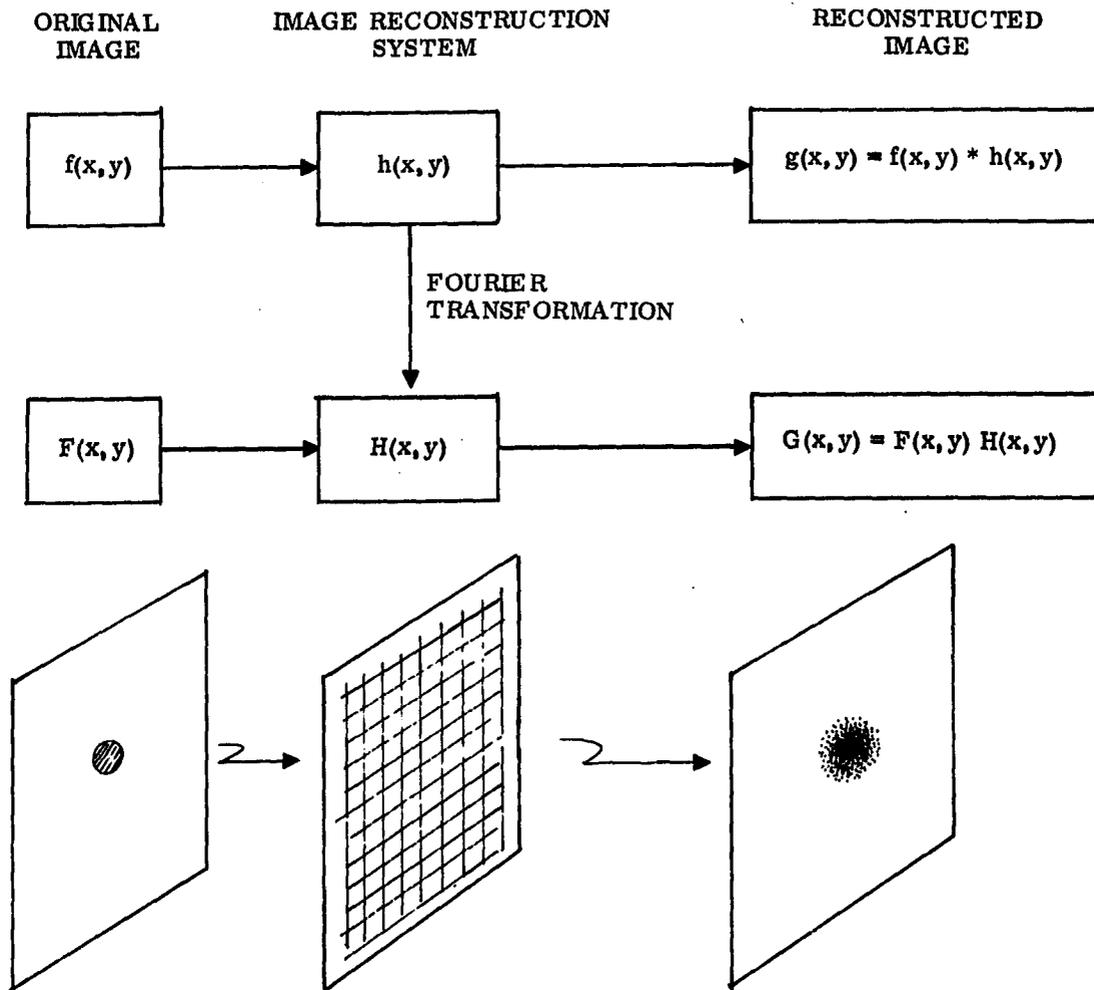
$$f(x, y) * h(x, y) = g(x, y) \quad (4-10)$$

where: $f(x, y)$ = original image in spatial domain

$h(x, y)$ = image transfer function

$g(x, y)$ = reconstructed image.

Ideally, $h(x, y)$ should be a representative unit impulse function, so that $f(x, y) = g(x, y)$. However, in particular for the straight line reconstruction techniques of CT, $h(x, y) \sim \frac{1}{r}$, where "r" equals distance away from the point being reconstructed [83], [84], [85], [86], [87]. This " $\frac{1}{r}$ " relationship is actually the limiting case for an infinite number of straight lines intersecting at a point from all directions. As illustrated in Figure 4-14(a), the so-called "point-spread function" in the frequency domain is a triangularly shaped characteristic. Thus, in order to remove this smear artifact (providing a large enough number of rays have been used), either the function, $f_2(r)$, the reciprocal convolution function of " $\frac{1}{r}$ ", may be deconvolved with the image in the spatial domain, or $F_2(R) = 1/F_1(R)$, may be multiplied with the image in the spatial frequency domain (also see Figure 4-13).



$$f(x, y) = g(x, y) * \frac{1}{h(x, y)}$$

$$F(x, y) = \frac{G(x, y)}{H(x, y)} \longrightarrow f(x, y) = F^{-1}(x, y)$$

Figure 4-13. Mathematical description of a generalized image reconstruction system

Unfortunately, the attempt that has been made thus far at applying CT deconvolution to PSI has indicated that the CT inverse functions are inappropriate for PSI, as discussed in the next chapter. Several possible reasons are that (i) the CT technique is based on straight line intersections, whereas PSI utilizes intersection of curves. Depending on the portions of the given ellipses involved in an intersection, the straight line approximation may or may not be valid. (ii) possibly not enough ellipses intersect at each pixel for the " $\frac{1}{r}$ " relation to be valid. (iii) both the physical acoustics and PSI reconstruction technique combine to produce characteristics of the reconstruction itself which vary spatially depending on scatterer orientation. Thus, extensive study is still necessary in order to determine a suitable deconvolution function for PSI. At this point, it appears reasonable to expect such a function to be similar to that of Figure 4-14.

Two final considerations, namely, number of transducers in array and fan beam angle, should be discussed before pursuing the details of the experimental procedure and results in the next two chapters. Thus far, it appears that substantially more testing of the PSI hardware and processing algorithm will be required before a complete theory as to the number of transducers and size of beam angle which produce an optimal system is developed. Although repeated analyses have been undertaken, an optimal transducer array size has yet to be determined. Factors which must be considered in this analysis include (i) transducer characteristics such as size, directional T/R performance and fan beam angle, (ii) array diameter, (iii) acoustical resolution of system (iv) display resolution, (v) scatterer characteristics and (vi) image reconstruction technique (e.g. amplitude of false intersections versus that of time scatterers for a given number of transducers). An ideal goal of PSI is to be

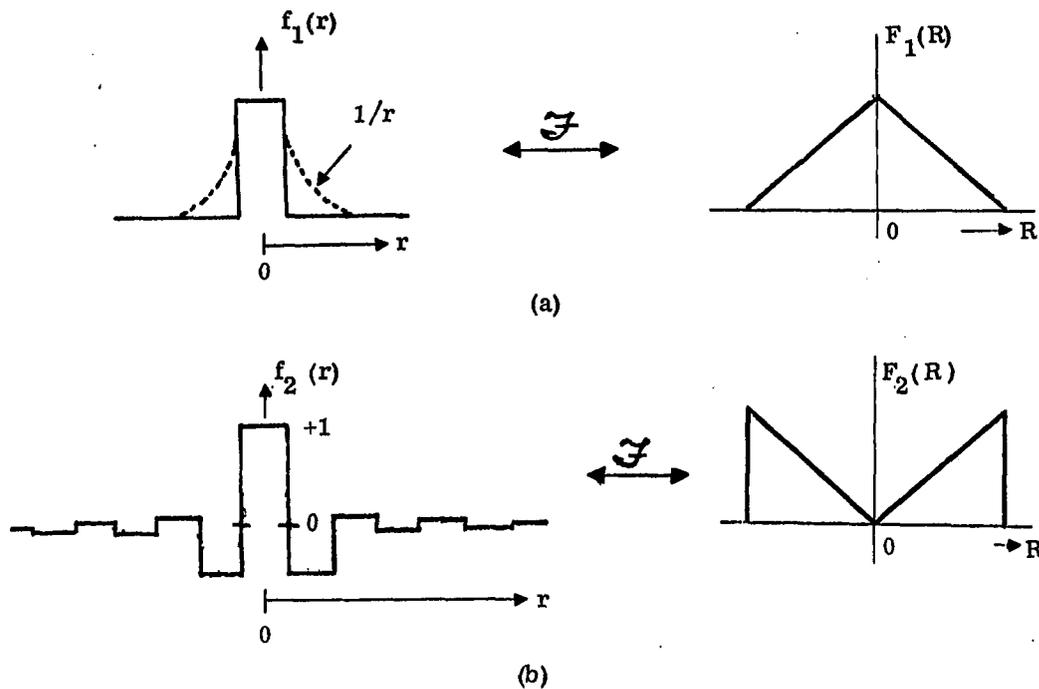


Figure 4-14. Reconstructed point-spread function, deconvolution and inverse filtering
 (a) Spatial and spatial frequency characteristics of reconstructed point-spread function
 (b) Reciprocal functions to either deconvolve (f_2) or inverse filter (F_2) the reconstructed image in order to regain the desired point impulse characteristic [87]

able to both insonify an object and detect its scatter omnidirectionally. However, neglecting the considerations of array construction, such omnidirectional performance would require an infinite number of point-transducers in a contiguous array, if every bit of scattered energy is to be received. Based on Equation (4-6), if the number of transducers gets too great, then data acquisition and image reconstruction tasks will get out of hand. A large number of tradeoffs are possible, of which no "best" one appears obvious thus far. In the final outcome, both monetary and physical hardware constraints will most likely prove to be the determining factors.

Since, as discussed earlier, generation of image artifacts will be dependent on scatterer distribution, studies on biological scattering reported in the literature would seem to suggest use of a random scattering model for use in PSI system design. Thus, two different approaches have been attempted in order to get a "ball park" estimate of the number of transducers to use. More precise analysis will have to await further experience with the PSI approach. The first method determines " N_T " by equating positional information content of the image display with positional information contributed by an array of " N_T " transducers. Thus, a display " p " pixels square will contain $I_D = \log_2 (p)^2 = 2 \log_2 p$ bits of information. Since each array T/R pair receives a signal of " n " time samples, the total array contributes $I_A = \log_2 (N_T \times (N_T + 1) / 2 \times n)$ bits of information. Referring to Table 4-1, for the case of $p = n = 320$, $I_A \approx I_D$ for $N_T = 30$, suggesting an array of thirty transducers.

TABLE 4-1. POSITIONAL INFORMATION CONTENT OF " N_T " TRANSDUCER ARRAY FOR $p = n = 320$

| N_T (Transducers) | $N_{UP} = \frac{N_T \times (N_T + 1)}{2}$ (Pairs) | $I_P = \log_2 \frac{320 \times N_T \times (N_T + 1)}{2}$ (Bits) |
|------------------------|--|--|
| 10 | 55 | 14.10 |
| 20 | 210 | 16.04 |
| 30 | 465 | 16.18 |
| 32 | 528 | 16.37 |
| 40 | 820 | 18.00 |
| 50 | 1275 | 18.64 |
| 60 | 1830 | 19.16 |

The second approach to this problem involves trying to insonify an object and detect its scatter "omnidirectionality". As discussed in Chapter II(C), for an object whose dimensions are much less than the acoustic wavelength, scattering will be omnidirectional. In cases where object dimensions are much greater than wavelength, scattering will be specular. This case being the most directional of all, is, therefore, the one which must be considered when determining the number of transducers required. Essentially, the more transducers, the finer the PSI angular insonification and reception characteristic.

When discussing the directional receiving characteristics of pulse-echo transducers earlier, it was mentioned that a transducer could receive back-scatter in the range $\pm 2^\circ$ off axis. (Note that this value will vary somewhat for the fan beam transducer.) This statement is equivalent to saying that a scatterer positioned normal to a transducer's axis may be rotated $\pm 2^\circ$ about its own axis without significantly affecting the pulse-echo response. Practically speaking, then, in order to "omnidirectionally" scan a given scatterer, it must be insonified every four degrees, for a total of $360^\circ/4^\circ = 90$ directions about the scatterer axis. As shown in Figure 4-15(a), the directional characteristics of the fan beam used may be determined by choosing a point, p, on any arc of the beam pattern sector, within the active imaging region. Draw both a tangent to the arc at the chosen point, and the perpendicular to the tangent. Following the perpendicular back to the transducer determines one of the "normal incidence" directions of the particular fan beam. Now, based on the previous discussion, if the tangent and its associated perpendicular are rotated about the point of tangency by $\pm 2^\circ$, the perpendicular will still map out the directions of scatter from the given point capable of being received by the particular transducer. Thus, as illustrated in Figure 4-15(b), the minimum number of transducers,

N_T , required to cover any point in the region of symmetric insonification to within $\pm q^0$ of any direction will be

$$N_T = \frac{360}{2q} \text{ transducers} \quad (4-11)$$

Using the directionality assumption previously mentioned of $\pm 2^0$ ($q = 2$) for standard pulse-echo transducers, then $N_T = 90$. Based on Equation (4-6), $N_T = 90 \rightarrow 4095 \text{ T/R pairs}$. Present computer data storage capability allows for a maximum of $N_T = 24$ to be simulated. (i.e. 1.2M 16-bit words on a PPP-11 RK-05 disc pack); simulation of $N_T = 90$ would require a storage capability of at least 16.38M 16-bit words, using the current data collection scheme.

The two exemplary approaches to array size determination presented indicate substantial differences ($N_T \approx 30$ and $N_T \approx 90$) for the particular factors considered. Referring again to Table 4-1, until better quality experimental hardware is designed for further PSI development, $N_T = 32$ (for four quadrant symmetry) would appear to be a reasonable compromise.

The parameter of fan beam angle only serves to determine the size of the active imaging region for a given diameter transducer array, given the ideal transducer characteristics discussed earlier. However, two practical considerations must be taken into account. The first factor relates to the fact that a given transducer can only put out so much power. The larger the beam angle, the lower the power density, and consequently the lower the transducer's sensitivity. Secondly, the fan beam transducer presently being used derives its divergence from a piezoelectric ceramic in the form of a partial cylindrical shell. Whether or not a plane wave approximation is used for the

reflected wave, due to the receiver curvature, unless the pulse width is greater than the ceramic thickness, the receiver face will never experience complete excitation (see Figure 4-16). Unless compensated for in some fashion this effect will result in pulse-stretching and reduced sensitivity. For a given transducer size, the degree of transducer curvature will be directly proportional to beam angle. The remaining consideration with respect to beam angle simply relates to problems of physical construction. As will be discussed in the next chapter, the fan beam transducers used in this study were custom-made (K.B. Aerotech, Lewistown, Pa.) and, based on the literature reviewed, are the first of their kind for medical applications. Much work, therefore, needs to be done in the characterization and construction of fan beam transducers.

D. ADDITIONAL CAPABILITIES AND LIMITATIONS

The foregoing discussion describes the PSI system capable of imaging transverse cross-sections of the body. The transducers specified require a fan beam pattern. The next logical extension of the basic PSI geometry is to construct a cylindrical (3-D) rather than simply circular (2-D) transducer array. In this case, each transducer would require a cone beam characteristic in order for insonification and reception in three dimensions. Although image display would be cross-sectional (2-D), once a complete set of data has been collected, virtually any cross-sectional plane of data could be reconstructed and displayed. This 3-D concept is beyond the scope of the present investigation; future study, however, is recommended.

Aside from the consideration of image resolution already discussed, the remaining limitations of the basic PSI system are acoustic in nature and relate to the same factors plaguing B-scan systems. Two main points will be mentioned ---

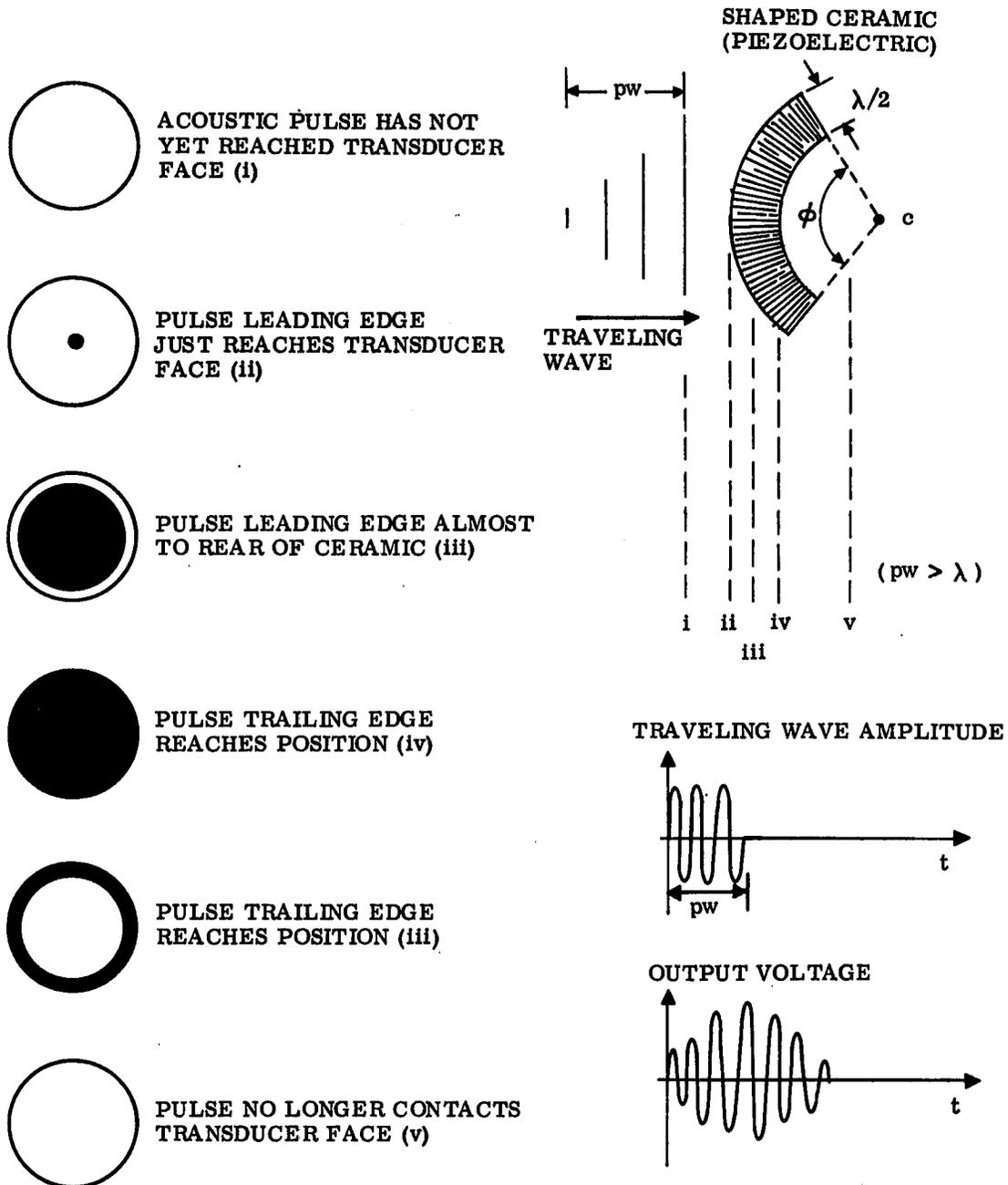


Figure 4-16. Insonification of a fan beam transducer (cylindrically-shaped piezoelectric ceramic) by a plane wave pulse

(i) Any sort of multipath propagation will produce erroneous results in a system based on time differences of arrival. B-scan systems, imaging with a single transducer assembly, tend to inherently "filter" out multipath reception by the single, highly directional receiving characteristic. When multipath is received, however, object placement error will exist in the B-scan displays. Although the PSI system will receive multipath propagation when such signals are at significant amplitudes, by nature of PSI's imaging by reinforcement, multipath will produce an insignificant contribution to the resultant image, since a particular multipath signal or even what has been termed a "creep" ray (i.e. an acoustic signal which travels into, around and back out of an object) will add to the image in a non-reinforcing mode.

(ii) When trying to perform a B-scan, gas and bone cause major difficulties. In the case of gas, reverberation of an acoustic pulse between the gas layer and transducer face will generally result in a streaked, obliterated image, since the B-scan interprets each succeeding (reverberated) pulse as a new reflector. For bone, the high acoustic attenuation (approximately 15 times that of soft tissue), limits sound penetration. Furthermore, if echoes could be received through bone, the difference in bone acoustic velocity would be great enough to cause misassignment of echo locations on the B-scan display, which assumes an average soft tissue velocity (velocity through bone is a little over 2.5 times that of soft tissue). Now, although the corresponding PSI signals would possess identical artifacts, PSI's multidirectional imaging would tend to make such an artifact less significant, due to its lesser degree of positional reinforcement. Finally, the digital image processing capability inherent of the PSI system further enables image enhancement or artifact removal.

CHAPTER V. EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUES UTILIZED IN INVESTIGATION OF THE P.S.I. CONCEPT

A. INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

As mentioned in Chapter I(E), this investigation was undertaken, with the intent of demonstrating the validity and feasibility of the Pulse-Scatter Imaging concept first via mathematical simulation and then through development of a physical data acquisition capability and subsequent "real data" image reconstruction. Given the equipment, money and time available, the initial protocol consisted of the following tasks ---

- (i) mathematical simulation
- (ii) develop reconstruction software suitable for real data insertion
- (iii) build hardware to enable moderately accurate transducer positioning (plus or minus a degree or so)
- (iv) incorporation of appropriate electronics to transmit to and receive data from the ultrasonic transducers
- (v) image several simple objects and collect data directly from oscilloscope trace by hand digitization.

Thus, primarily due to financial considerations, it was decided that no attempt in this investigation would be made at developing a "tuned" system. Rather than devote a concentrated effort on developing the required transducers, amplifiers and associated front-end electronics (e.g. 80 dB dynamic range log),

highly efficient reconstruction algorithm, optimized signal and image processing, and the like, a task which would require several people at the minimum, the three major areas of acoustics, signal processing and image reconstruction were to be tackled more at a system level. Furthermore, this student was faced with achieving two inter-related goals. From the industrial standpoint, the final results must conclude whether or not PSI shows enough promise to warrant investing upwards of \$100,000 and additional manpower for further research and prototype development. Along academic lines, a more complete analysis is required, delving into the student's understanding of the subject material as well as demonstration of a logical rationale for investigation. It is intended that the material presented thus far, in conjunction with the remaining description and discussion of the actual experimentation itself, will meet the abovementioned goals. It should be noted that the only major change in the protocol presented above, namely in part (v), was the acquisition by General Electric of a high speed digital transient recorder and PDP-11 computer interface, approximately mid-way through this study. As a result, data could be automatically acquired via direct electronic digitization.

B. IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM DEVELOPMENT AND COMPUTER SIMULATION

As discussed in Chapter IV, the essence of the PSI scheme is to construct and spatially sum gray-scaled ellipses, corresponding to amplitude-coded time-of-arrival data. Various approaches may be utilized to perform this task depending upon the equipment available. Parallel hardware processing methods may be used in order to minimize reconstruction time.

For this investigation, although a convenience, high speed was not a requirement. The gray scale display used, was developed by GE Electronics Laboratory engineers several years ago for use as an X-ray CT display. This 320×320 pixel display unit has a self-contained 320×320 dynamic (non-random access) memory, 10 bits deep. Thus, each picture element can have associated with it one of 1024 values ranging from -512 to +511. A real time arithmetic processor internal to the display unit allows for manual "windowing" of the sixteen shades of gray displayed. As will be discussed at greater length later in this chapter, windowing involves assigning the sixteen gray shades to various regions of the -512 to +511 data. So, all in all, the reconstructed image is stored in $320 \times 320 = 102.4K$ memory locations.

The PDP-11 used for data processing contains only 24K of internal core memory as well as dual disc drives, each supporting a 1.2M 16-bit word capacity disc. Since the PDP-11, therefore, cannot maintain all 102.4K image cells in core memory during reconstruction, the image array must be stored on disc. Furthermore, this result necessitates processing the reconstruction data in memory chunks compatible with core storage. Since disc accesses (reads and writes) are so time consuming (relative to calculations time) it is desirable to minimize the number of disc accesses. However, for simplicity, it was elected to store data on the disc as 320 records, each record containing 320 elements. One record is therefore equivalent to one line of displayed data.

The straightforward way to view ellipse construction and superposition would be to "draw" into image memory one gray-coded, co-focal ellipse (through a memory random access process) corresponding to each point in a given T/R pair's received waveform. When a point being "drawn" coincides with a previously determined point, both numerical values are added and the sum put back

into memory. Disc data storage, however, precludes this method which requires random access to any of the 102.4K memory locations. Processing disc data requires reading or writing an entire data record. As a result, data will be processed one line at a time per received waveform. This method is obviously quite time consuming due to the huge number of disc accesses (i.e. a "read" or "write"), D , required.

$$D \approx \frac{N_T \times (N_T + 1)}{2} \times 320 \times 2 = 320 N_T (N_T + 1) \quad (5-1)$$

(The value of "D" will be somewhat less than the value specified by Equation (5-1) as thru-transmission data is not utilized.) One PDP-11 RK-05 disc access takes an average of 70 msec. Thus, even an eight transducer reconstruction would require approximately $23,040 \times 70 \text{ ms} \approx 27$ minutes for disc accesses alone!

The methodology used in the PSI reconstruction algorithm will now be summarized. The actual Fortran program used is included under the name of "PSIV02.FOR" in Appendix B along with the rest of the software used in this study. (Note that the algorithm contains a number of options which are shown to be "commented out", to facilitate using these options under various test conditions without having to rewrite sections of source code each time. Thus, no attempt has been made to streamline the software at this point. Such streamlining and software optimization (particularly with respect to processing time) will begin the post-dissertation phase of this study.)

Now, let "N" equal T/R pair number, " N_{UP} " equal total number of data records recorded (including thru-transmissions) as defined in Equation (4-6), and "I" equal the image array record number. Figure 5-1 illustrates the matrix representation of the reconstructed image. As will be described, the

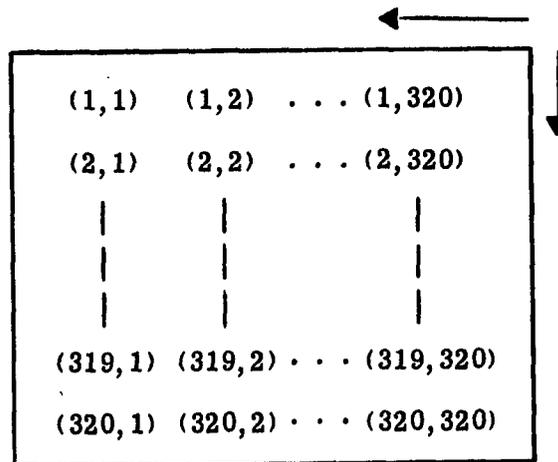


Figure 5-1. Representation of image matrix for PSI image reconstruction algorithm. As indicated by the two arrows shown, the PSI algorithm calculates the required ellipses by scanning the matrix from right to left in a row by row fashion beginning at element (1, 320).

PSI algorithm calculates the required ellipses by scanning the entire matrix in a row by row fashion, to the left and down, beginning at element (1, 320). The procedure goes as follows --

- (i) Initialize image array to all zeroes
- (ii) Read A-mode data record number one of N_{UP} (i.e. from T/R pair 1/1), which contains 320 integers indexed 1-320. The index value corresponds to distance (equals round-trip travel time divided by two) in pixels.
- (iii) Read first row of image array into core memory.
- (iv) Calculate distance, d , (in pixels) from transmitter one (T1) to image element (1, 320) to receiver one (R1). Determine corresponding echo amplitude by reading the value of the d^{th} element in (ii). Add this value to the value already stored in pixel (1, 320).
- (v) Calculate each of the distances from T1 to remaining pixel locations in first row [(1, J), $J = 320, 1, -1$] to R1 and add the corresponding data values to the current pixel values.

(vi) Return first row back to image array and read out the second row.

(vii) Steps (iv) - (vi) are repeated until the entire image array has been scanned and modified.

(viii) All co-focal ellipses have now been drawn for the data waveform corresponding to the T/R pair 1/1 (in this case a pulse-echo signal).

(ix) The above procedure is now repeated beginning with (ii) for all the remaining ($N_{UP}-1$) data waveforms.

(x) Thus, the remaining sequence of data waveforms read in corresponds to T/R pairs $1/2, 1/3, \dots 1/N_T, 2/2, \dots 2/N_T, \dots (N_{T-1})/(N_T-1), (N_T-1)/N_T, N_T/N_T$ as shown in Figure 4-9 for simulation of an eight transducer array.

As indicated, this algorithm (PSIV02.FOR) was programmed in Fortran on a PDP-11 computer. Data was then computer-generated to simulate three point scatterers, one located exactly in the center of the image array (5.15" diameter), and the other two, each spaced horizontally $5/8$ " from the center scatterer. Each simulated echo was assigned a unity amplitude. Figure 5-2 illustrates the resultant image displayed on the General Electric CT gray scale monitor, with various gray "window" settings. Windowing is a method of re-assigning (linearly, for the case of this particular gray scale monitor) the displayed shades of gray (see Figure 3-6, demonstrating linear and non-linear gray scale assignment) to the amplitude values (normalized by the reconstruction algorithm and stored in display memory) in the range -512 to +511 (10 bit resolution). Thus, the gray scale key displayed at the bottom of Figure 5-2(a), in particular, indicates that all data values ≤ -130 will be displayed as blackest black and all values $\geq +130$ as whitest white. The centrally located integer is the value assigned to the gray shade immediately to the left of that number. (The CT display has a pushbutton to enable identification of this gray shade, G, by flashing the brightest shade of gray possible wherever "G" exists in the image.)

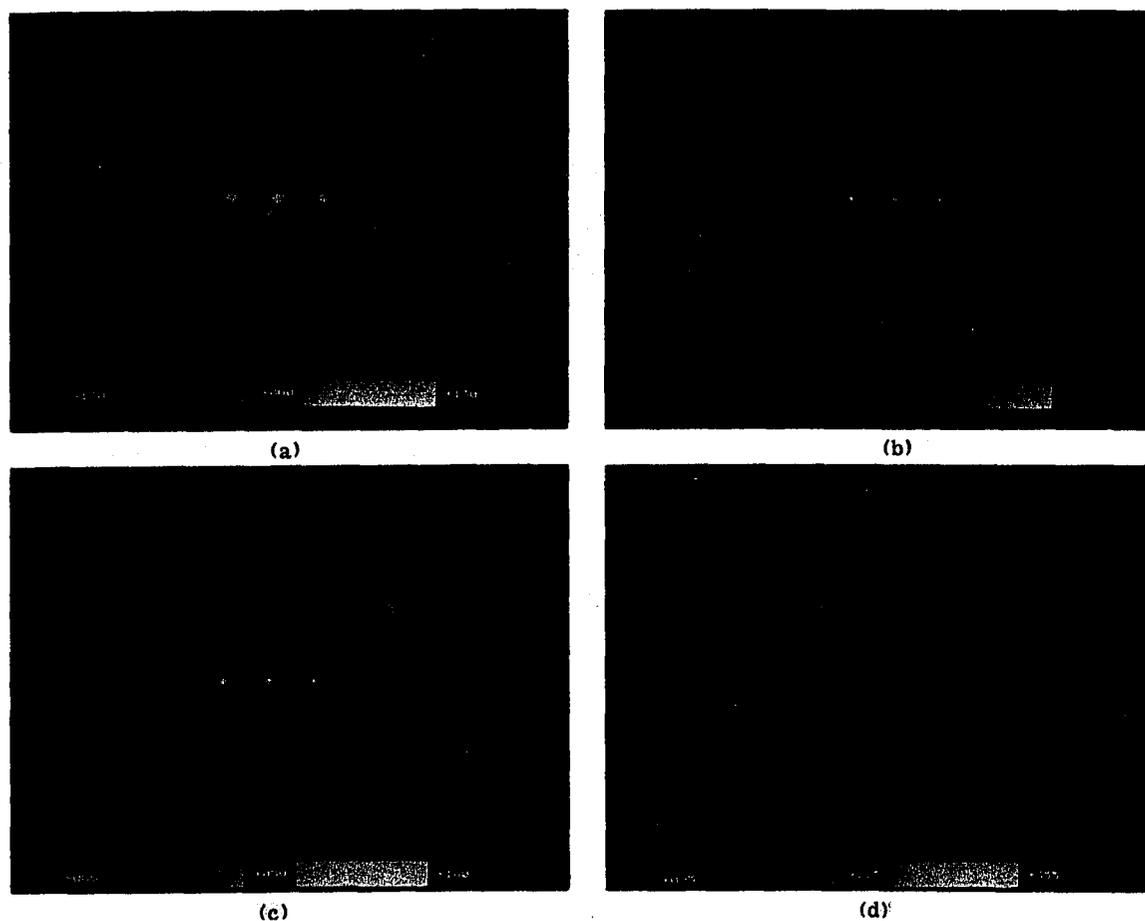


Figure 5-2. Eight transducer ring simulation of three point scatterers horizontally separated $5/8$ " about center of 5.15" diameter array. Bright dots in outer periphery represent transducer locations. Bright intersections in center of image depict simulated targets. Gray scale assignment within the -512 to +511 range shown at bottom of image.

- (a) Display illustrating background reconstructions
- (b) Same as (a) but with display brightness reduced
- (c) Same as (a) but with gray scale "windowed" so as to remove much of the background ellipse reconstruction
- (d) Gray scale windowed even farther than in (c) to show only the three point scatterers at center of image. (Note: any stray "specks" are printing artifact and were not present in the original image.)

Narrow windowing is particularly helpful for discriminating regions of similar intensity where wide windowing is beneficial for displaying widely separated image values.

As an aid to better understanding the geometry involved in PSI, a separate computer algorithm (TSTOK2.FOR in Appendix B) was written to compare this latter method of indirect ellipse generation, with the former one mentioned, of directly "drawing" each ellipse. A Tektronix graphics terminal was suitable for this task as the storage display was able to serve as the required 102.4K of "image memory". Being essentially an astable display, no gray scale could be truly depicted. Figure 5-3 illustrates the resultant Tektronix plot. Note how easily the ellipse geometry can be seen, for purposes of analysis (e.g. false intersections, etc.). In particular, straight lines corresponding to thru-transmission data can be seen passing through the center of display. Looking at plots such as the one in the figure made it apparent, after some thought, that such lines would have been present even had a scatter not been located at the center of the array, suggesting the concept of thru-transmission artifact.

A second simulation was performed to demonstrate the appearance of a uniform mass of scatterers. In a similar manner as for the three point scatterers, data was generated to simulate a square array of scatterers, uniformly encompassing an imaging region 40 pixels square, centered within the transducer array. Figure 5-4 shows the corresponding gray scale display, as expected. In the data generated, unity echo amplitudes were assigned.

As already mentioned, the PSI reconstruction algorithm, PSIV02.FOR, has been designed to facilitate various forms of data handling helpful in investigating PSI. In particular, program information such as data file names, data formats and reconstruction specifications may be entered at run-time by the

GENERAL  ELECTRIC

Simulated data: 3 point scatterers, 5/8" separation

Date: 1/8/78

Data file: MOD3PT.DAT

Plot routine: TSTOK2.FOR

Transducer ring radius 5.15" ; 8 transducer ring

36 ellipse families, 320 pts./ellipse, 3 ellipses per T/R pair, 108 ellipses total

Calibration: 175.58 μ sec equals 320 picture units; 1 picture unit = 0.0818 cm

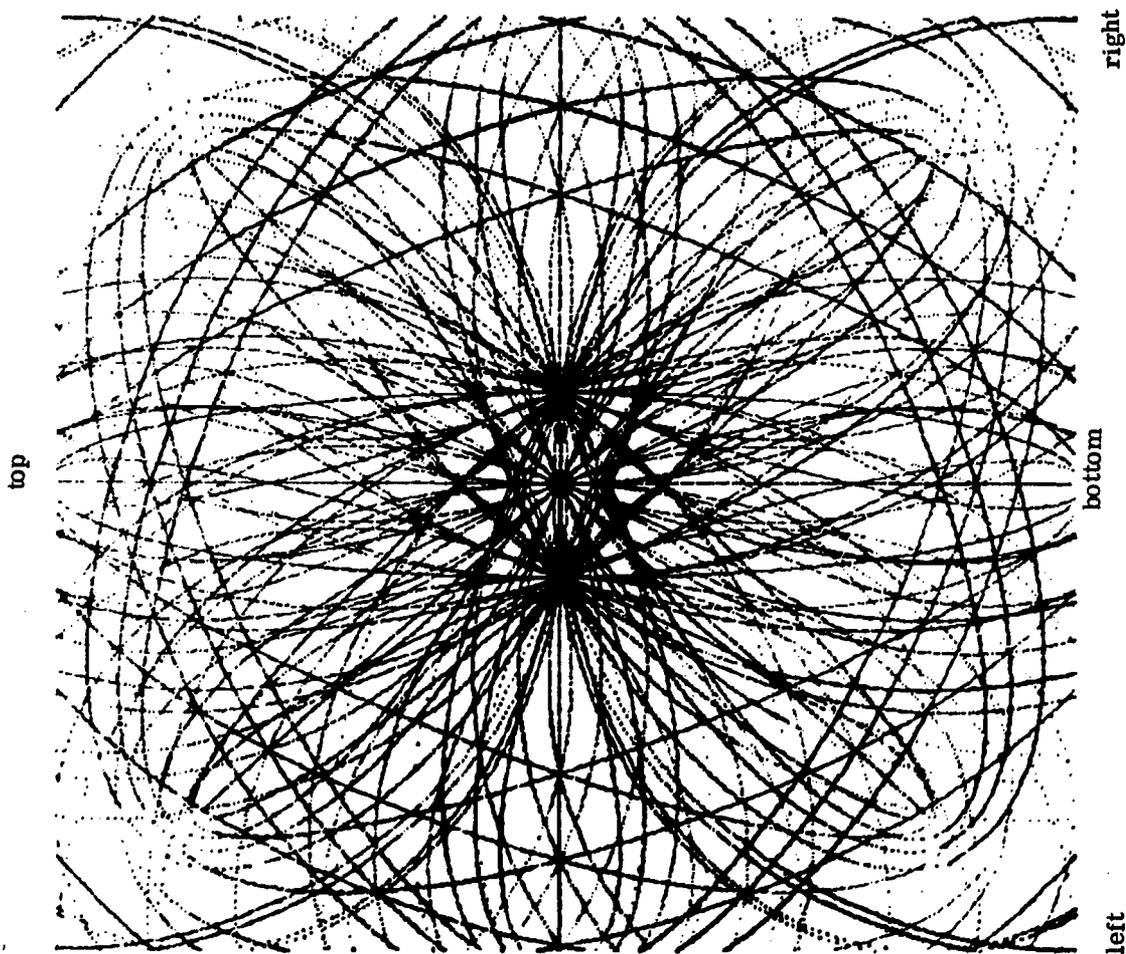
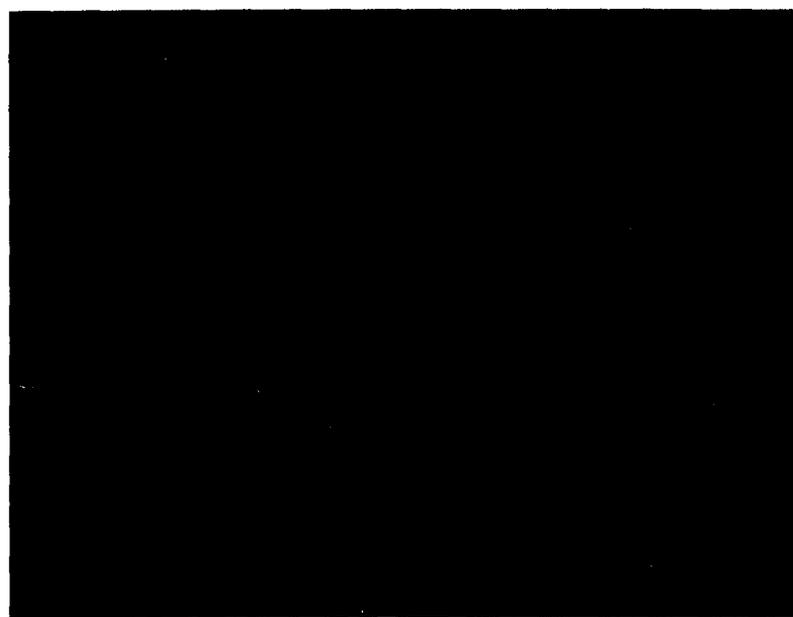


Figure 5-3. PSI reconstruction of three simulated point scatterers horizontally separated 5/8" about center of 5.15" diameter array, using "directly-drawn" ellipses on a Tektronix CRT display terminal. Data used is identical to that of Figure 5-2.



(a)



(b)

Figure 5-4. Simulation of a square uniform array of scatterers (40 pixels square) located at the center of transducer array
(a) Before gray-scale windowing
(b) After gray-scale windowing.

user via interactive questioning. Once the user has entered a given specification, this information is echoed back by the computer for user confirmation or modification. With respect to data formats presently used, in order to minimize disc storage, raw data is collected one byte (i.e. 8 bits) per data point, compatible with transient recorder output. After processing (e.g. peak detection, correlation detection, etc.), data is stored in integer format (16 bit word). In order to facilitate data scaling and interpolation, the calculations during reconstruction are performed in floating point format. Although the final reconstructed image is currently stored as floating point, it could just as easily be stored as integer data, since any floating point image data must be converted to integer format before being output to CT display. Floating point storage, however, lends slightly more accuracy for any post-reconstruction image processing that may be performed.

Two reconstruction program options which are presently "commented out" of PSIV02.FOR enable linear amplitude interpolation and input data deconvolution. It was mentioned that when assigning a gray value to an ellipse corresponding to a scatterer located a distance "d" from the T/R pair, the gray coding corresponds to the amplitude of the d^{th} element of the 320 point processed received data waveform. In general this value "d" will be a non-integral value. Therefore, when being used, the interpolation routine assigns a gray value to the " d^{th} element" by performing a linear interpolation between the amplitudes of the elements with indicies immediately above and below the value "d". For the present investigation, it was found that the benefits achieved from interpolation were not worth the additional processing time, so that the interpolation routine has been temporarily commented out. Particularly when discussing CT and other PSI-related imaging techniques, it was pointed out that the reconstruction process convolves a "smear factor" into the reconstructed

image. Thus, supplying the proper data function required to "deconvolve" the smear artifacts from the input data, will enable the convolution routine to deconvolve the input data of the reconstruction smear prior to image reconstruction. Also mentioned earlier, a suitable deconvolution function compatible with PSI's elliptical geometry has yet to be determined. Thus, in the meantime, the convolution/deconvolution algorithm is not being used. (Although the convolution routine may be kept active by using an impulse convolution function, processing time is minimized by temporarily disabling the routine.)

Two options currently being used involve automatic reconstruction data scaling compatible with the -512 to +511 CT display data range, and the ability to watch the image as it is being reconstructed. Since reconstructed data will consist of positive numbers, $0 \rightarrow \infty$, the amplitudes must be reduced (normalized) and negative shifted in order to cover the CT display range -512 to +511. The subroutine called "SSWTCH.MAC" in Appendix B allows one to watch the reconstruction process in progress on a line by line basis if, on the PDP-11 console, switch register bit zero is set to zero. If bit zero is set to a one, the reconstruction output is deferred until after the entire image has been reconstructed. Not watching the reconstruction in progress speeds up reconstruction time as the image data does not have to be repeatedly output to the display monitor. Any remaining details of the reconstruction algorithm should be self-explanatory from the copy of PSIV02.FOR included in Appendix B.

C. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN AND HARDWARE DEVELOPMENT

With the investigation of any new system, simulation is generally the cheapest and most flexible technique to use at the outset. As a result, the computer simulation discussed in the previous section was performed. Following the successful computer simulation, the next step in this investigation was hardware development for physical experimentation. Particularly in the

case of PSI, since the number and type of transducers in the array as well as the array diameter were unknown, the decision was made to design and utilize a technique which would allow for simulation of a circular array of "arbitrary diameter", containing a variable number of transducers.

In order to facilitate collection of data in the format of Figure 4-9, a scheme was developed which utilizes a fixed transmitter, rotating receiver and rotating platform on which the specimen to be imaged is fixed. The associated hardware to enable data collection via this scheme was designed and constructed with the assistance of Mr. Azad Minasian of the Electronics Laboratory's design group, and the GE Model Shop. Figure 5-5 depicts transmitter, receiver and specimen positioning for simulation of an eight-transducer ring. Simulation of " N_T " transducers requires that both the receiver and specimen be rotated in increments of $360/N_T$ degrees. Thus, as indicated in the figure, initially the transmitter, receiver and specimen are placed at 0° . (Note that transmitter and receiver at 0° is the pulse-echo condition requiring that the fixed transducer act as both the transmitter and receiver. In this investigation, since an electronic T/R switch was not available, to prevent saturation of the receiving amplifier by the high transmitted voltage, and thus obliterate the relatively minute signal received, the rotating receiver was placed as close to the transmitter as possible to simulate the pulse-echo mode.) Now, ideally the fixed transmitter (#1) would be pulsed and eight waveforms simultaneously received for T/R pairs 1/1 through 1/8. However, since available funds prevented use of simultaneous sample-and-hold multiplexing, the transmitter was pulsed once for each T/R pair, with the resultant A-mode waveform being recorded on magnetic disc via a digital transient recorder (to be discussed in greater detail in section D of this chapter). This procedure was permissible, since no movement existed between the transducers and specimen.

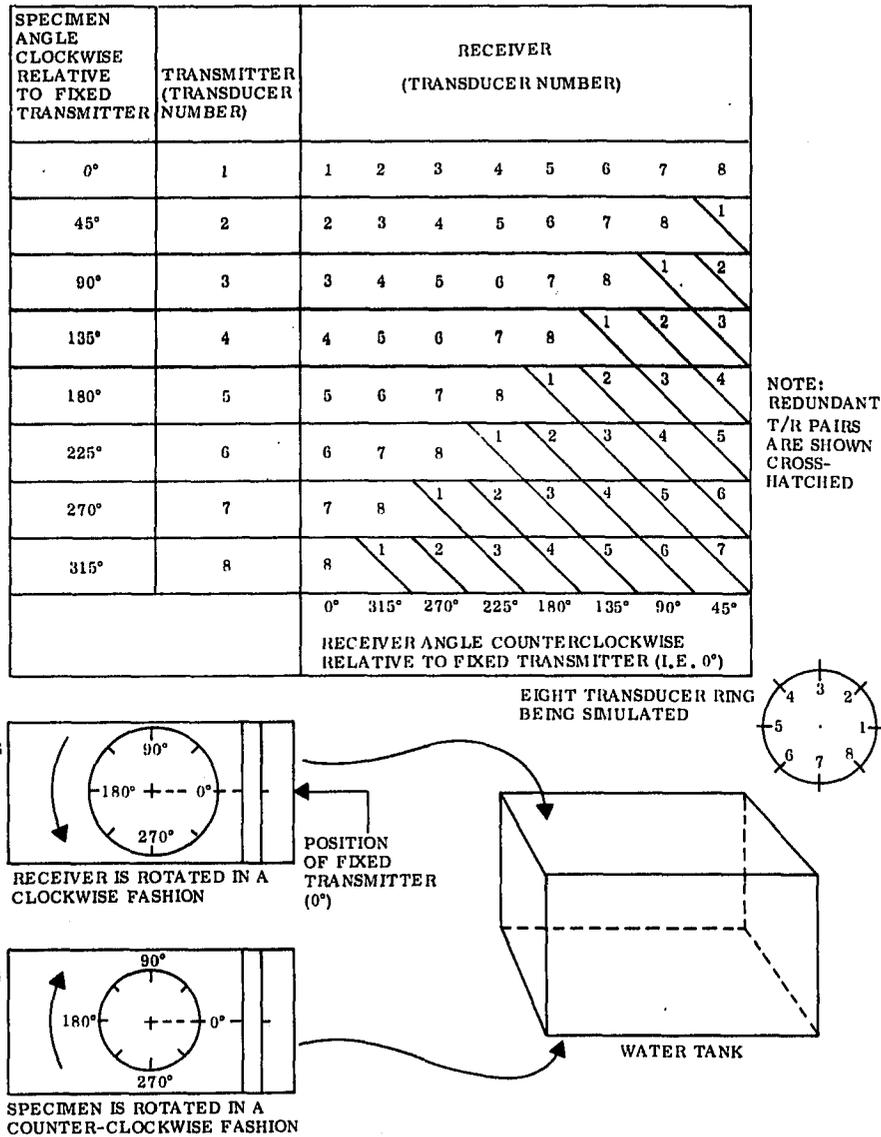


Figure 5-5. Transmitter, receiver and specimen positioning for simulation of an eight transducer PSI array

Thus, as indicated above, the data corresponding to T/R pair 1/1 is obtained by recording the signal obtained from a single pulse of the transmitter with the receiver at approximately 350° . Then, referring to Figure 5-5, the receiver is placed at 315° , the transmitter is pulsed once, and signal 1/2 is obtained. The same procedure is followed in a counter-clockwise fashion until the receiver reaches 45° and signal 1/8 is recorded. Now, in order to simulate moving on to the next transmitter, the specimen is rotated clockwise $360/N_T$ degrees (or 45° for an eight transducer array), with the abovementioned procedure being followed until signals 2/2-2/8 are recorded. The same procedure of specimen and receiver rotation is then continued until all data corresponding to Figure 5-5 is obtained, $N_T \times (N_T + 1)/2$ signals in all.

Figure 5-6 indicates the overall equipment setup for PSI data collection (to be discussed in Section D). At the extreme right side of the photo is the water tank and hardware already described for PSI data collection. Figure 5-7 illustrates a more close-up view of the apparatus for transducer and specimen positioning. (Styrofoam liners on tank walls are utilized to minimize spurious echoes.) The aluminum bar suspended across the width of the tank supports the fixed transmitter and holder, whereas the rotating aluminum plate supports the rotating receiver and holder. An angular scale (circular protractor) mounted on the rotating plate enables calibrated transducer rotation. A similar but larger diameter scale mounted on the rotating specimen platform (Figures 5-7 and 5-8) enables calibrated rotation of the specimen. Several points should be mentioned regarding this apparatus. In order to simulate a circular array, both the receiving transducer and specimen should be rotated on the identical, perfectly circular path. Errors in this requirement will lead to errors in recorded time of echo arrival and transducer location. Similarly, all axes of rotation (i.e. those of the receiver and specimen) must be in exact alignment,

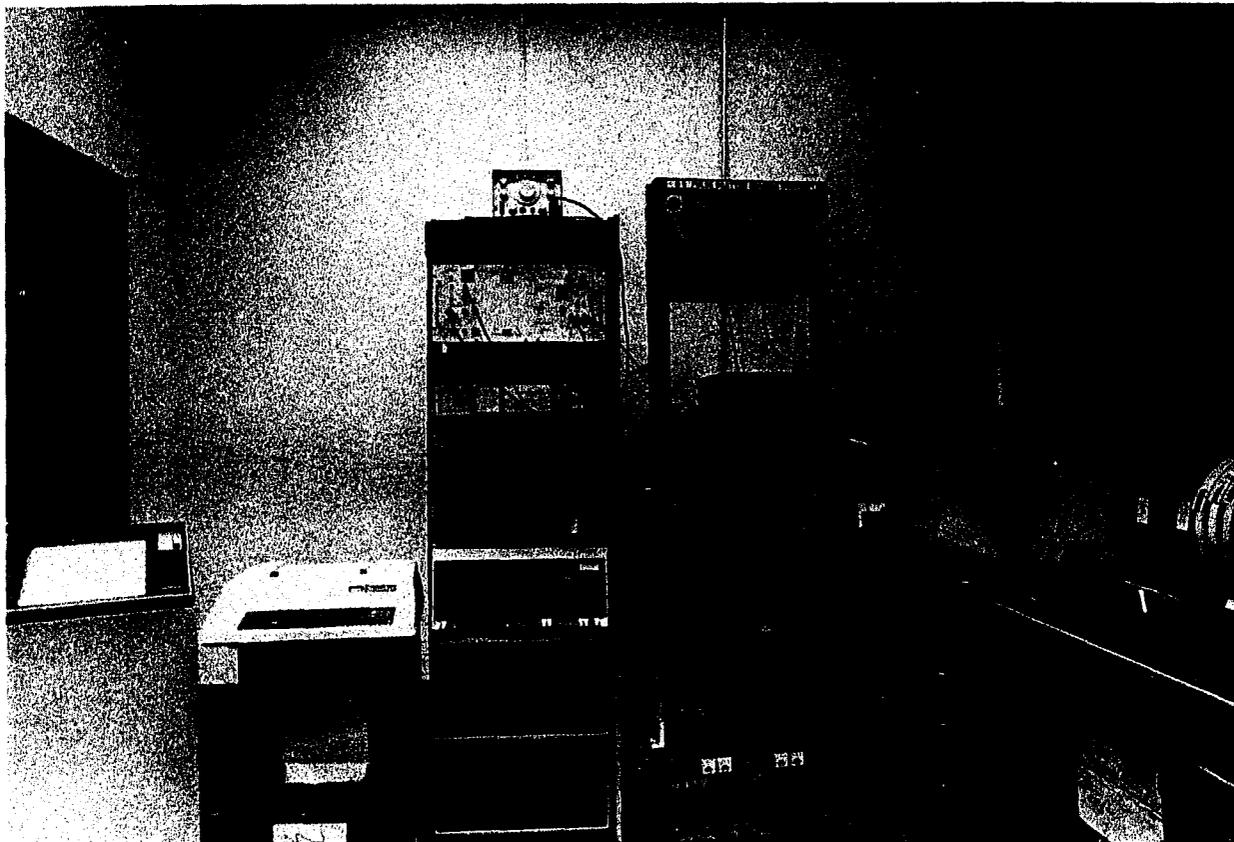


Figure 5-6. Equipment setup for collection of PSI data

otherwise positional and timing errors will result. Furthermore, the transducers should have their beam centers aimed at the exact center of the circular array. Finally, the beams, themselves, should all be identically aligned in the circular plane of the array.

Further examination of Figure 5-7 indicates a slit in the rotating aluminum disc to enable variation of the simulated array diameter by positioning the receiving transducer closer to or further from the center of rotation. As shown in close-up by Figure 5-8, each transducer is suspended in the water by a hollow brass rod. Electrical connection to the transducer is made via a UHF connector which, in turn is coupled to a right angle BNC connector combination, fixed to the brass rod. A 50 ohm coaxial cable running through the brass rod ties the

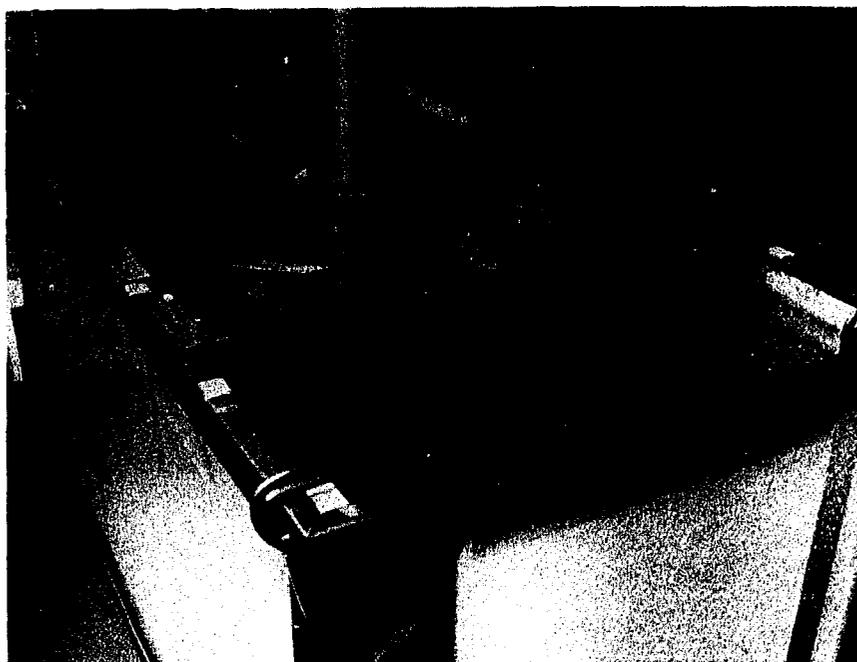


Figure 5-7. Close-up of PSI transducer positioning apparatus used in physical system simulation



Figure 5-8. Close-up of PSI specimen position platform and orientation of surrounding transducers for physical system simulation

connector assembly to the transmitting or receiving circuitry external to the water tank (in the equipment rack shown in Figure 5-6). For proper impedance matching and good electrical connection it is absolutely essential that all underwater electrical connections be waterproof. Water leakage into a connection will result in impedance variations and an improper matching between the 50 ohm transducer and 50 ohm coax assembly used. As was unfortunately demonstrated on several occasions, such an impedance mismatch sets up antenna-like behavior, resulting in all kinds of what appeared to be unpredictable electrical pick-up (e.g. from the PDP-11, a nearby copying machine, etc.) through the water into the receiving transducer. Such pick-up would obscure almost all of the received echoes. For waterproofing, a combination of epoxy potting and General Electric RTV TM compound were used. A waterproof seal between the transducers used (guaranteed waterproof by the manufacturer) and the UHF connector was made via a rubber O-ring. For the most part, once aligned, the transducer assemblies were kept submersed in the water tank 24 hours a day. Porosities in the epoxy potting developed periodically, as manifested by spurious electrical transducer pickup, requiring periodic waterproofing. Design of future apparatus of this type should provide a means for more efficient waterproofing.

(Two transducer holders will be noted in the rotating aluminum plate. Originally, it was felt that the use of two rotating transducers and one fixed transducer might enable data collection with half as many transducer positionings. However, after preliminary experimentation with a single rotating transducer, such a scheme was found to be satisfactory, requiring that only a single rotating fixture be used.) A close look at Figure 5-8 indicates a straight extender attaching the fixed transducer to its holder. This extender was made from

several UHF and BNC mating connectors surrounded by waterproof epoxy potting, and enables the fixed transducer to reach the same diameter as the rotating receiver.

The specimen positioning platform is simply an 8" diameter, 3/8" thick aluminum disc mounted on an 8-1/2" square, 3/8" thick brass plate with rubber feet, so as to enable free rotation of the disc. The brass base was used to provide enough weight so that the platform assembly would not be moved unintentionally. As already mentioned, a circular protractor mounted on the disc provides an angular scale to enable calibrated rotation of the specimen. Several 0.064" diameter holes have been drilled in the top side of the rotating disc to enable specimen attachment via 0.064" diameter stainless steel pins, in order to keep the immediate and nearby area being imaged free of any extraneous material.

Returning to the alignment requirements mentioned earlier, the PSI simulating hardware possesses no accurate means for ensuring overall alignment, other than "eye-balling" the components and running a reconstruction of a scatterer (e.g. a metal rod) in the center of the imaging area. Prior to running a reconstruction, the equipment is aligned by examining the main pulse-echo from the rod as seen by the rotating transducer being used in the pulse-echo mode. For perfect hardware alignment, rotating the transducer and specimen to various positions should not influence the time of echo arrival. Subsequent reconstruction should then demonstrate the rod in the center of the image region. It must be kept in mind that positional errors are inevitable using this method of alignment and will contribute to a smeared image. Higher quality hardware which will eliminate both alignment and positional accuracies will be required to eliminate this smear factor. Such a system might be modeled after that currently in use at the University of Rochester, which utilizes digital stepper motors to control positional coordinates [28], [29], [30], [31], [34].

Given the abovementioned hardware, the next factor which must be considered is transducer selection. As already discussed, two transducers with as identical characteristics as possible are required for a given simulation. In beginning the PSI investigation, since fan beam transducers were not commercially available, the decision was made to use readily available, non-focused transducers. In order to provide the future capability of frequency-sweeping, as wideband transducers as possible in the 1-10 MHz range were specified. A center frequency of 5 MHz was specified, compatible with the penetration and time resolution desired. Finally, the use of readily available half inch transducers would enable establishment of a relatively small although acceptable symmetric region of insonification one half inch in diameter. Given these considerations, two Panametrics, (Waltham, MA), 5 MHz, unfocused Videoscan Broadband Immersion transducers, Model #V309SU (\$165.00 each), were used (see Figure 5-9). Appendix C-1 contains both data provided by the

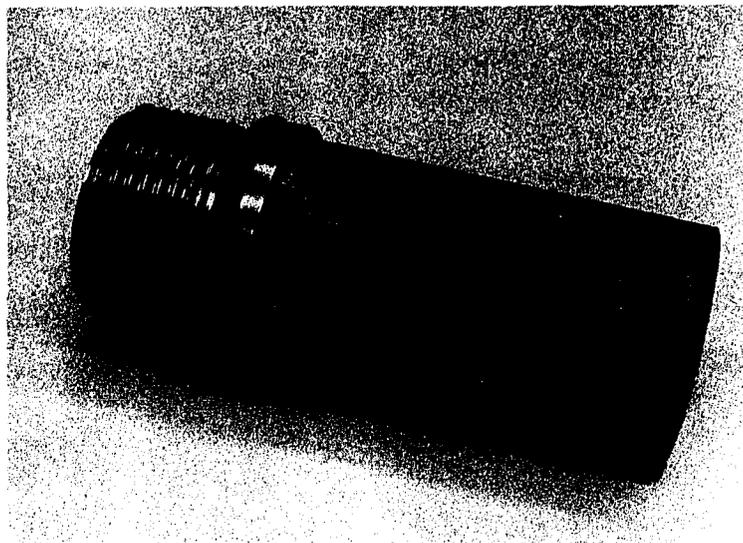


Figure 5-9. Photograph of one of the Panametrics 5 MHz, non-focused, 1/2" diameter ultrasonic transducers used

manufacturer as well as impedance profile data taken on a Hewlett-Packard #4815A RF vector impedance meter. The data presented indicate the variability that is common when trying to obtain two identical transducers. The impedance data show electrical resistances of 68 and 132 ohms for the two transducers. Thus, the 50 ohm impedance matching assumed throughout the PSI system is reasonably valid. Although position monitoring equipment was unavailable and so a beam pattern profile could not be accurately determined, a quarter-inch steel ball bearing was used to demonstrate an approximately half-inch beam width in the imaging area.

While preliminary data collection was begun with the Panametrics transducers, KB-Aerotech (Lewistown, PA) was contracted to manufacture a pair of prototype fan beam transducers, #83-114-000-150 (\$450.00 each). All specifications were identical to that of the Panametrics transducers with the additional requirement of a 30° fan beam via a cylindrically-shaped piezoelectric ceramic (see Figure 5-10). It should be noted that both the Panametrics and Aerotech transducers were constructed of lead metaniobate, in order to achieve wideband characteristics. Manufacturer's specifications for the fan beam are presented in Appendix C-2. Preliminary monitoring of beam characteristics using the quarter-inch ball bearing indicated a fan beam of approximately 42° .

Due to the uniqueness of the fan beam probes, the transducers were sent to the U.S. Bureau of Radiological Health (BRH) in Rockville, MD, for beam profiling on their ultrasonovision system [88], [89]. Mr. Michael Haran, Research Physicist for the BRH Acoustics Branch, conducted the profiling. As will be indicated in the data presented in Appendix C-2, one of the two fan beam transducers (S/N 47264H) was found to possess a "half-fan" beam pattern. Examination of this transducer by the manufacturer indicated a de-lamination

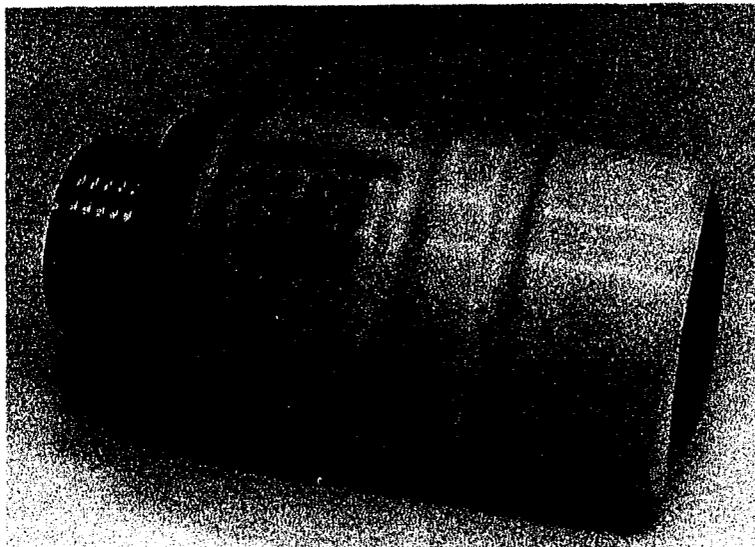


Figure 5-10. Photograph of 5 MHz KB-Aerotech fan beam ($\approx 42^\circ$ beam angle) transducer. Photo indicates the earliest version utilizing a $\lambda/4$ epoxy matching layer over the shaped ceramic (at right).

of the electrode plating on one half of the ceramic. Comparing this half-beam pattern with the complete pattern obtained for the other fan beam transducer (S/N 47265H) shown in Appendix C-2 is quite instructional. The half-beam pattern results from a transducer which has essentially half the diameter of the full-beam probe. As discussed in Chapter II, the smaller effective D/λ ratio of the half-beam probe results in a shorter near field than the full beam probe, a behavior which is illustrated quite nicely in the BRH profiles. On the full-beam profile, a beam angle of approximately 42° was also found, comparable with the ball-bearing profile performed earlier.

During preliminary testing of the fan beam probes, it was also found that the epoxy quarter-wave matching layer on the front of each transducer would, for a still unknown reason, blister and peel when immersed in the PSI water tank (the water was carefully analyzed and found to be identical to tap water).

As a result, the epoxy was finally removed (after repeated trials) and replaced by a silver-lacquer coating. (It was felt that the impedance mismatch produced by not having the quarter-wave layer would not be all that significant due to the broadband pulse-burst excitation used. Quarter-wave matching is only at a particular frequency and so is most significant in narrowband applications). Although schedules could not permit re-profiling of the fan beams by the BRH, the transducer manufacturer suggested that the original full-beam pattern (S/N 47265H) should be representative of the present transducer performance. One last fact concerning the fan beam probes is that each one has a small inductor in parallel with the transducer input to null out capacitance and provide a 50 ohm input impedance at 5 MHz.

D. DATA COLLECTION - HARDWARE AND SOFTWARE CONSIDERATIONS

The data scheme for collecting the " N_{UP} " A-mode waveforms required to simulate an array of " N_T " transducers has already been described. This section will predominantly concentrate on the hardware and software aspects of data collection, and discuss the acquisition of a single A-mode waveform, in particular.

Figure 5-11 illustrates a block diagram of the current data acquisition and signal processing capability utilized in the PSI investigation. (As mentioned earlier, the only difference between the present and original system configuration was the acquisition of the transient recorder.) All analog signals are transmitted over 50 ohm coaxial cable. The transmitting transducer is excited by an Arenberg pulsed oscillator, #PG650-C, outputting an approximately $1.5 \mu s$, 5 MHz burst with an 80V peak-to-peak (loaded by the transducer) amplitude (see Figure 5-12). (Output amplitude, frequency and pulse-width are variable.) The output of the receiving transducer is generally in the one millivolt

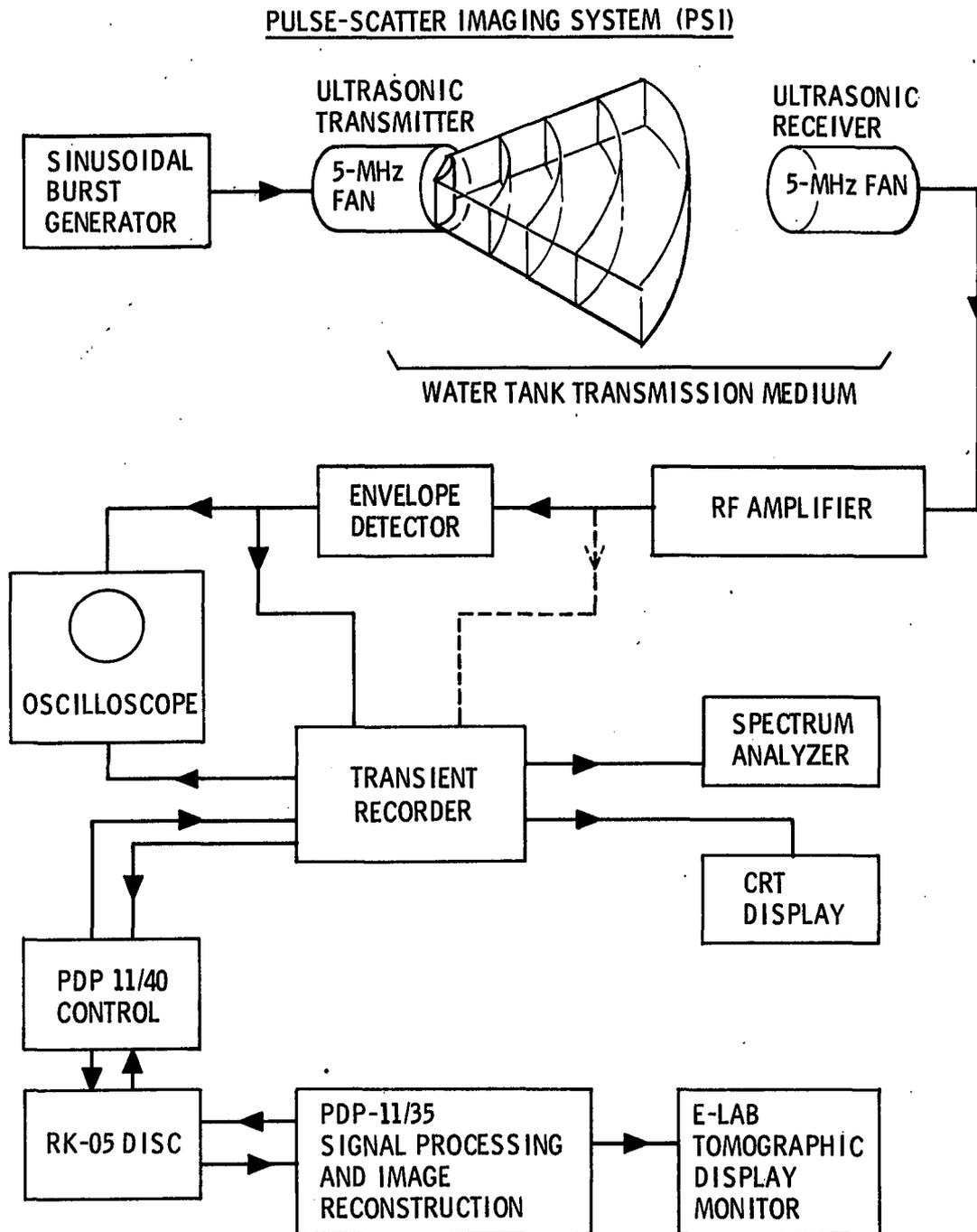
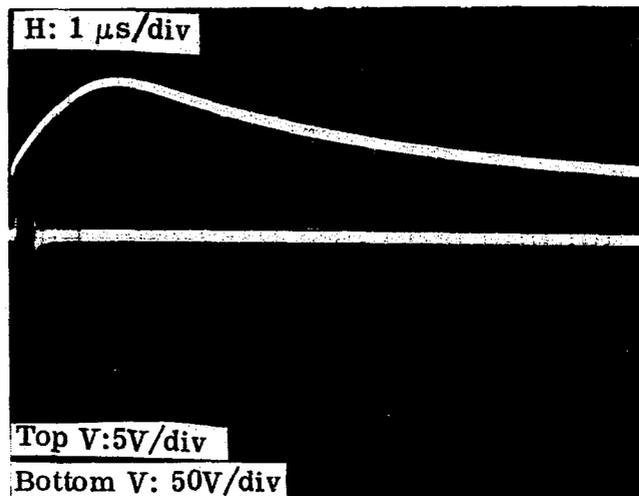
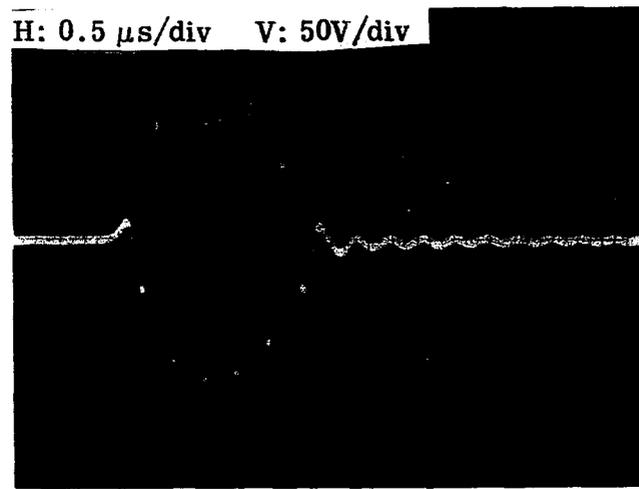


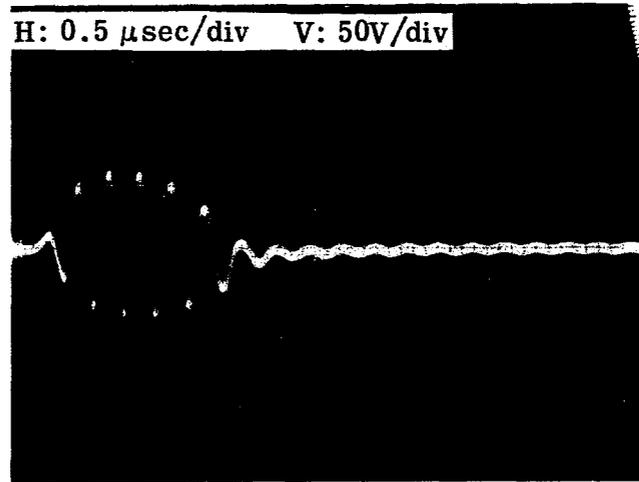
Figure 5-11. Pulse-Scatter Imaging System. Block diagram illustrating possible signal flow pathways



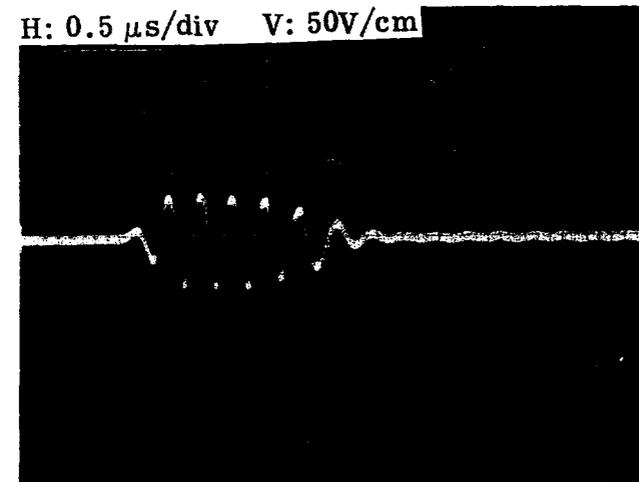
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 5-12. Outputs and timing from Arenberg pulsed oscillator (a) Trigger output (top) and pulse burst (~5 MHz), (b) Pulse burst shown with expanded sweep, (c) Output pulse burst when loaded by Panametrics transducer (#15289) and (d) Output pulse burst when loaded by KB Aerotech #4764 fan beam transducer

range (without inductive input tuning to increase input amplitude) and so is passed through an RF amplifier (RF Communications, Inc. #805) with 47 dB gain (0.1V rms max input) in series with a Hewlett Packard #461A RF amplifier, with gain settings of 20 dB and 40 dB for a 1V maximum input signal. Presently, the amplified output is passed through a simple diode-resistor-capacitor RF envelope detector (Telonic, #XD), which, in this case, passes the negative portion of the signal's envelope. The detector output is then input to an American Electronics Laboratories (AEL, Lansdale, PA) series 9000 pulse and transient recorder (PTR). The PTR, with the options ordered, has a wideband (4 Hz-50 MHz), variable gain (0-40 dB) front-end RF amplifier, followed by a high speed 8-bit A/D converter (100 MHz maximum sampling rate). Depending on how the trigger mechanism is adjusted (e.g. pre- or post-trigger delay), the input signal is sampled at the specified rate with the first 8192 samples being stored in memory. A PTR PDP-11 interface purchased from the manufacturer enables the digitized data to be output directly to the PDP-11 for storage and/or processing. Furthermore, the computer interface allows remote software control of all the PTR front panel controls from the PDP-11. When not outputting stored data to the computer, a captured waveform may be viewed on among other devices, an oscilloscope, as the stored data is constantly output to refresh the oscilloscope trace. Finally, the PTR may be operated in a dual timebase mode, enabling a given data waveform to be recorded using two different sampling frequencies, one rate for the first portion of the data and a different rate for the second portion.

Presently, the transient recorder is utilized in a predominantly manual fashion. The specified waveform is captured, after occurrence of the desired trigger signal, and observed in continuous refresh on an oscilloscope (the 8K of stored data is output once every 20 msec). Running the Fortran program

"READIN.FOR" (see Appendix B) on-line with the PTR, and transferring the PTR output from the scope mode to the digital mode, will enable automatic transfer of the stored PTR data to PDP-11 magnetic disc. Two factors must be kept in mind when choosing the PTR sampling frequency. First, the sampling frequency(s) chosen must be fast enough in accordance with the Shannon Sampling Theorem (i.e. sampling frequency must be at least twice the highest frequency in the signal to be recorded). The second point is that the time span of the stored waveform is inversely proportional to the sampling rate. Finally, proper adjustment of the sampling frequency (i.e. dual timebase), and pre- and post-trigger delays will enable efficient data storage by either recording at a very low sampling rate (thus storing fewer samples), or not recording at all, portions of a given waveform which are not of interest. As a result of these considerations, a 20 MHz sampling rate has been used, allowing 409.6 μ sec of data storage in an 8K memory. This sampling rate is over twenty times the upper frequency component of the envelope detected signal, and allows for data storage well in excess of the 264 μ sec required for simulation of an 8" diameter transducer array. Utilization of this high a sampling rate allows for excellent visualization of the sampled signal on an oscilloscope trace.

One slight variation in the present data collection process would be to have the PTR sample the raw RF signal, as indicated by the dotted line in Figure 5-11. Since the PSI reconstruction algorithm (as does the B-scan) requires magnitude data, rather than use the negative half wave analog envelope detector, digital envelope detection (e.g. full-wave) may be performed by software techniques. Furthermore other types of detection could be tried as well, such as correlation detection [90], [91]. Although not yet tried, correlation detection would proceed as follows. A single pulse-burst is thru-transmitted, received and stored in computer memory in order to register a "typical" pulse. This typical pulse then contains the characteristics imposed by the transmitting transducer, re-

ceiving transducer and transmission medium. Performing mathematical correlation between each A-mode waveform and this typical pulse should then result in a new waveform, with narrow "spikes" occurring at points of strong correlation, which could then be used to provide echo amplitude and time of arrival information. The ideal signal for image reconstruction would consist of a series of delta functions, each occurring at exactly the time when the beginning of an echo is just first received in the usual A-mode signal. Furthermore, the delta function should be weighted so as to correspond to the total scattered energy in the given echo.

Once having been stored on magnetic disc, as will be discussed in the next section (E), the data must be conditioned to be suitable for processing by the reconstruction algorithm "PSIV02.FOR". As already mentioned, the current system is an "untuned" version of that which would comprise a working prototype. Also mentioned earlier, is the fact that one generally speaks of recording at least an 80 dB dynamic range when trying to record standard pulse-echo signals. The required dynamic range is even greater when dealing with scattered signals as well. One solution to this difficulty would be to replace the standard RF amplifier used, with a logarithmic compression RF amplifier (presently unavailable at GE). Thus, the 48 dB (8 bits) dynamic range of the PTR could now be effectively used over a much wider echo amplitude range. At present, without the log amplifier, it is necessary to saturate the larger amplitude echoes in order to differentiate between those of lesser amplitude. At this point, the lack of a log amplifier is not all that critical since the present investigation is concentrating simply on image detection and not quantitation.

Recording of the acoustic signal so as to obtain maximum dynamic range from the PTR involves PTR and front-end reconstruction software adjustments as indicated in Figure 5-13. Applying a positive full-scale offset (i.e. +128) to the signal input to the PTR, followed by software inversion and addition of an

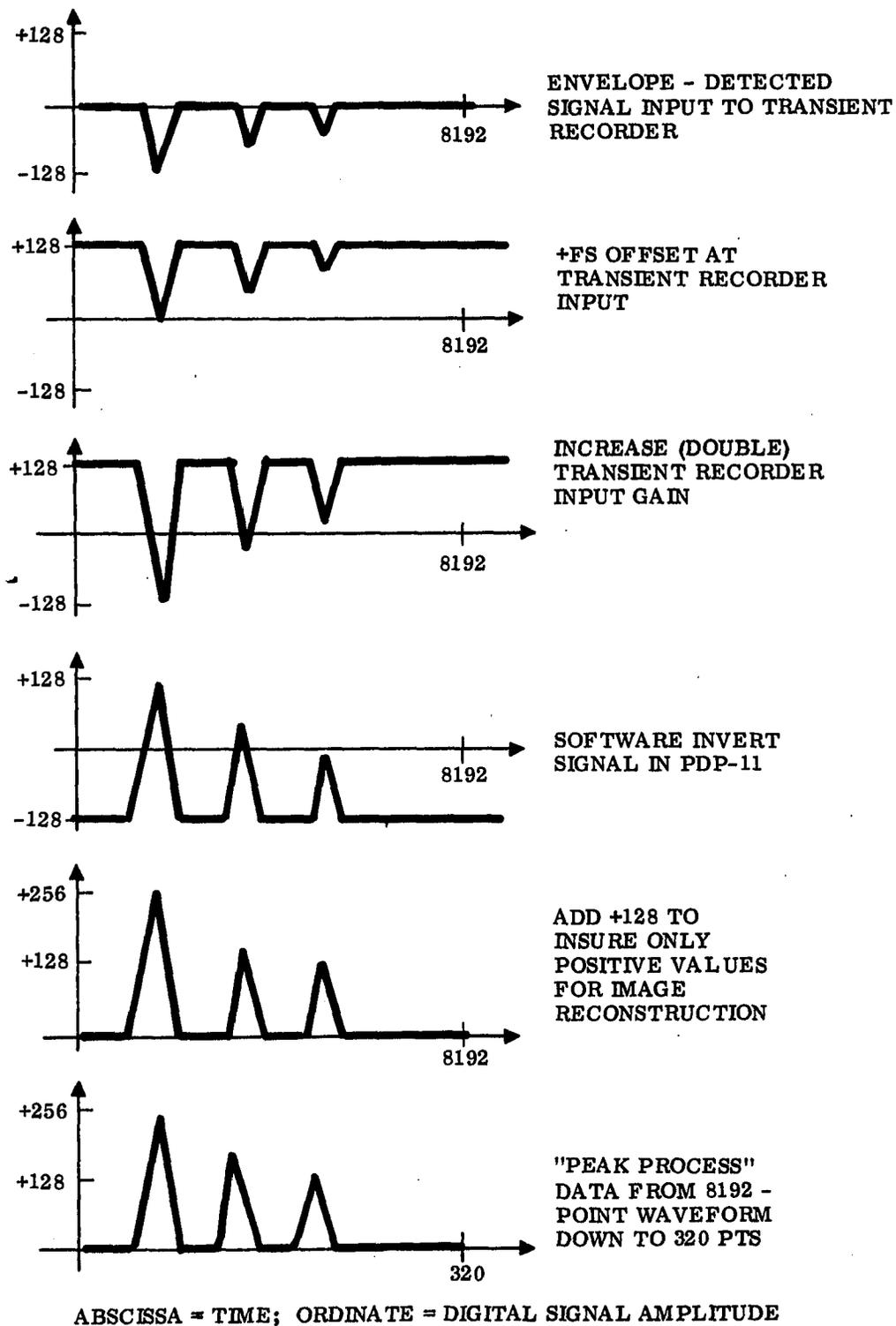


Figure 5-13. Basic conditioning of envelope detected signal prior to processing by PSI reconstruction algorithm

additional positive full-scale offset results in an acoustic signal which occupies a fully-positive 8-bit range, 1-256.

E. DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

At present, storage of the raw PSI data is in the form of 8K, 8-bit bytes (i.e. 4K 16-bit words) per T/R pair waveform. As mentioned in Chapter IV, although far from the most efficient method, the data format presently accepted by the PSI reconstruction algorithm is a 320 point waveform, where each succeeding point in a given T/R pair's waveform corresponds to the ellipse echo amplitude to be "drawn" a unit pixel distance further from the given T/R coordinates. Thus, this 320th point in this echo envelope waveform corresponds to an echo time-of-flight equivalent to a round-trip distance of two transducer array diameters (i.e. "4R" as depicted in Figure 4-6, and discussed in V(B).) (The most efficient data acquisition scheme would be that depicted in Figure 4-12(c) where the 8K data points stored would correspond to $2.6r \mu\text{sec}$, where "r" equals radius of uniform region of insonification in mm. The resultant 8K data points would then be further processed down to 320 points such that the 320th point would now correspond to an echo time-of-flight equal to "4r" as depicted in Figure 4-12.)

Although various techniques are possible for reducing the 8K point waveform down to 320 points, the method presently used will be illustrated by example. Let us assume that the "exact" transducer array diameter being simulated is unknown. Now, if a 180° thru-transmission measurement, t , were made in water (acoustic velocity, c , equals $0.154 \text{ cm}/\mu\text{sec}$) the array diameter, D , would be determined as

$$D = t \times c \quad (5-2)$$

Let's say $t = 146 \mu\text{sec}$. (This time would correspond to an array diameter of $D = 22.46 \text{ cm}$.) In this case, the required 320 point PSI data waveform would

correspond to a maximum time-of-flight of "2t" or 292 μ sec. Assuming that the PTR sampling period, T, was 50 ns (sampling frequency equals 20 MHz), then

$$S = \frac{2t}{T} \quad (5-3)$$

where "S" equals the initial number of the total of 8K recorded samples required to exactly represent a maximum echo time-of-flight corresponding to two array diameters. Here, $S = 292 \mu\text{sec}/50 \text{ nsec} = 5840$ samples. In order to convert these 5840 samples into a 320 point waveform, select the peak value from each of 320 uniform width data bins, each bin containing an integral number, "n", of original data points. For "n" to be an integer, "S" must be an integral multiple of 320. For our example, since 5840 is not an integral multiple of 320, select the next largest number, " S_I " which meets this criteria. In this case, $S_I = 6080$ ($6080/320 = 19 = n$). Therefore, only 6080 of the originally recorded 8192 data points are required to cover the time span of interest. Now, however, since we are working with 6080 rather than 5840 original points, reducing 6080 points down to 320 points by selecting the peak value for every 19 data points, results in a 320 point waveform corresponding to slightly more than a distance of one ring diameter. (This "peak processing" is performed by the program "PEAK.FOR", where the user must specify both " S_I " and "n"; see Appendix B.)

Thus, an additional calibration factor is required by which all distance calculations (equals round-trip travel time calculations divided by two) must be adjusted, since now, the 320 point waveform actually corresponds to S_I/S or $6080/5840 = 1.04$ array diameters. Therefore, as part of the "PSIV02.FOR" algorithm, each distance calculation, d, must be multiplied by the calibration factor, "C",

$$C = S/S_I \quad (5-4)$$

before looking up the amplitude of the "d" element in the 320 point waveform, as discussed in V(B).

The execution of "PEAK.FOR", therefore, produces "N_{UP}" 320 point, peak processed waveforms. "PEAK.FOR", is in effect, a crude form of digital filter. For looking at targets consisting of several individual points, this program is quite sufficient as the scattering frequency is relatively low. However, as was found when looking at some higher frequency scattering patterns as was obtained from the natural sponge (Chapter VI), several lower level high-frequency echoes were lost, thus demonstrating the need for more sophisticated digital filtering, preferably user interactive, in the "tuned" version of this system. In order to prevent the thru-transmission data (for example, for an eight transducer array of "straight beam", i.e. standard, transducers, T/R pairs 1/5, 2/6, 3/7, and 4/8) from appearing in the reconstruction, the program "ZERO.FOR" may be run to zero out all data records corresponding to thru-transmission. The most efficient way to achieve this goal, however, is to eliminate both recording and processing of thru-transmission data, thus reducing required data storage and processing time. It should be noted that, for example, an eight transducer array of fan beam probes will require omission of additional T/R pairs than listed above for a standard probe, with the number of thru-transmission pairs being directly proportional to fan beam angle.

Foregoing any additional acoustic data processing for the present investigation (logarithmic de-compression would have been required had a logarithmic amplifier been used in data recording), the data is processed by the image reconstruction algorithm "PSIV02.FOR" as described in V(B). The resultant gray-scale image of the patient or specimen may then either be examined directly or undergo further image processing. The fact that the reconstructed image is

stored on disc as a floating-point (could have been integer, instead) array 320 elements square, with a dynamic range in excess of 60 dB, facilitates image processing by any of the many techniques currently used in various fields (e.g. processing of moon pictures to remove noise and artifacts, establish structure patterns, etc.) [92], [93], [94], [95], [96], [97]. For ultra-high speed analysis, image processing techniques involving lasers and optics, surface acoustic wave (SAW) devices, etc. may be used. Such techniques may also find applicability for pre-reconstruction data processing.

The field of digital image processing is a highly technical field and for the most part is comprised of state of the art computer processing techniques. Although no major attempt has yet been made in this investigation to apply available digital processing techniques to enhance the reconstructed images, three simple schemes were tried quite briefly. The first technique tried was deconvolution, as discussed in Section IV(C).

Inverse filtering [92], [94] is a technique quite closely related to deconvolution, and may also be illustrated with the aid of Figure 4-13. To perform inverse filtering of an image, the two dimensional Fourier Transform must first be taken of the image (i.e. $G(x,y)$ as depicted in Figure 4-13). Now, taking the specific case discussed with respect to image de-smearing by deconvolution, as an example, a single image point is reconstructed in order to obtain the so-called point-spread function (PSF). Subsequent Fourier Transformation of the PSF results in $H(x,y)$ shown in Figure 4-13. Thus, dividing $G(x,y)$ by $H(x,y)$ in a pixel by pixel fashion will produce $F(x,y)$. Finally, taking the inverse two dimensional Fourier Transform of $F(x,y)$ should produce the desired image. As indicated in the discussion of deconvolution, except in the case where an exceedingly large number of ellipses intersect each and every point, each pixel will have its own, spatially-dependent PSF. Thus, for proper

inverse filtering, $H(x, y)$ must reflect this spatial dependence as well. As an important practical consideration when dividing by $H(x, y)$, special care must be taken to ensure that $H(x, y)$ has no "zero terms" as well as a minimum of "small-valued" terms. Rather than the idealized representation of Figure 4-13, let's assume that a noise term, $N(x, y)$, enters the reconstructed image. Thus,

$$G(x, y) = F(x, y) H(x, y) + N(x, y) \quad (5-5)$$

The result after inverse filtering (i.e. division by $H(x, y)$) is

$$G(x, y) = F(x, y) + \frac{N(x, y)}{H(x, y)} \quad (5-6)$$

Obviously, then, too many zeroes or small values present in the inverse filter function could produce a situation where the noise term is enhanced to the point where the desired image is obliterated. Much work and further experimentation needs to be done in order to determine the optimal inverse filter function for de-smearing, as no striking improvements were obtained using the PSF reconstructed at the center of a sixteen transducer array (see paragraph after next). Although discussed for the case of image de-smearing, inverse filtering finds widespread applicability in selectively enhancing or subduing various image characteristics. For example, low pass filtering will result in an image with rather non-discrete internal boundaries, whereas high-pass filtering emphasizes sharp lines and boundaries, somewhat of an alternative to edge detection via gray scale gradient thresholding [94] .

In so far as the de-smearing example is concerned, in general, deconvolution is preferred to inverse filtering due to the great computational savings. Deconvolution, in effect, is a one dimensional computation to bring about a two dimensional effect. Even though the two dimensional Fourier Transform is calculated via a 2-D FFT (see programs in Appendix B), inverse filtering is still quite time consuming.

Briefly, deconvolution for image de-smearing, using the CT deconvolution function produced a "washing out effect" (see Figure 6-8) when applied to a full 320×320 pixel image. When applied to the reconstruction of a single point scatterer located at the center of a sixteen transducer array, quite a reasonable improvement was obtained, as indicated in Figure 5-14 (central 20×20 pixel region is shown). Figure 5-15 shows the corresponding PSF perspective plot, but without the effect of gray scale windowing. This result is indicative of the fact that reconstruction at the center of the array is essentially by straight lines as in CT; secondly, although additional investigation is required by confirmation, PSI produces a spatially varying PSF.

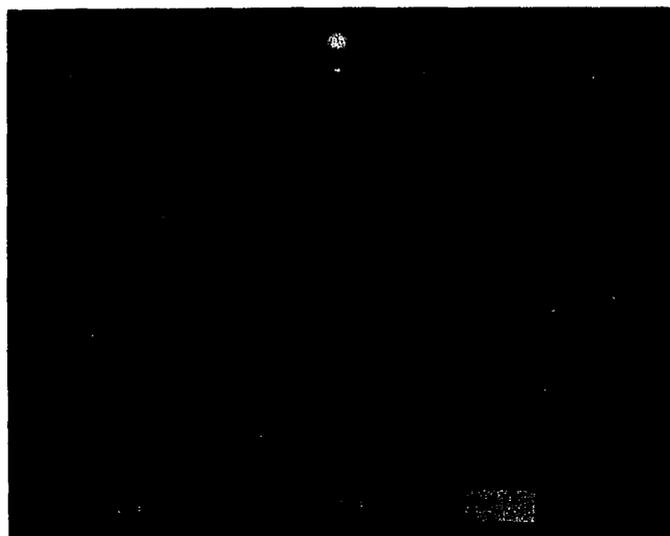


Figure 5-14. Reconstruction of a point scatterer (top of figure, central 20×20 pixel square portion of reconstruction shown) and result after deconvolution with CT function (lower spot)

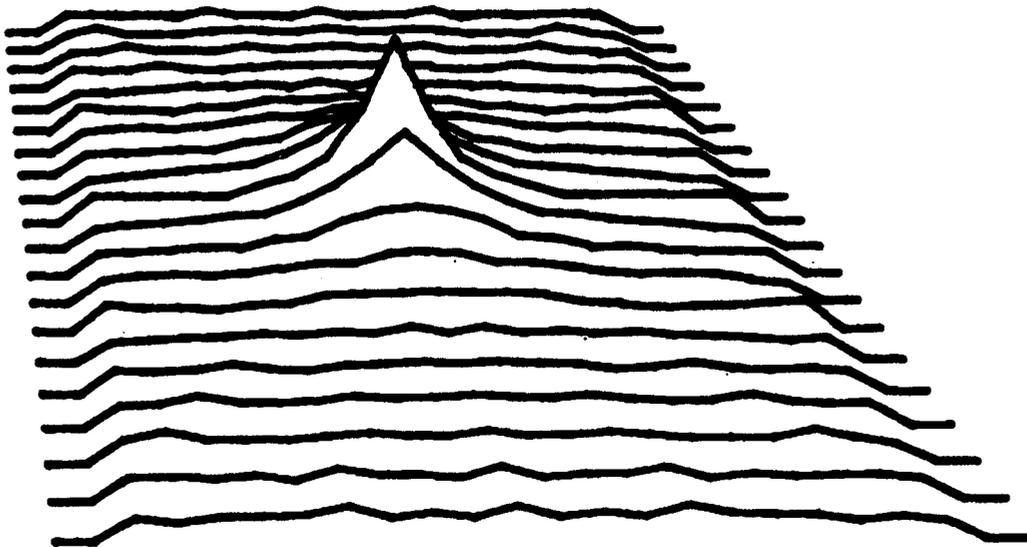


Figure 5-15. Perspective plot of point spread function (PSF). Reconstruction of centrally-located point scatterer within 16 transducer array. 20×20 pixel region shown.

Finally, the other image processing technique experimented with was histogram equalization [93],[94]. This technique involves creating a histogram of the gray scale values in the given image (e.g. see Figure 5-16). Such a histogram approximates the probability distribution for gray value occurrence in the given image. Integrating the histogram results in a cumulative distribution function (Figure 5-17) which is then used to reassign gray amplitudes by the transform relation where "new gray shades" are equally spaced along the ordinate of the CDF and "old gray amplitudes" maintain their original position on the abscissa. Since the CDF is a monotonically increasing function, a 1:1 mapping of original gray amplitude to new displayed gray shade results (Figure 5-18). In this way, each gray value in the transformed image will occur with approximately equal likelihood, as indicated by an equalized CDF with slope approximately equal to one (Figure 5-19). Histogram equalization is most

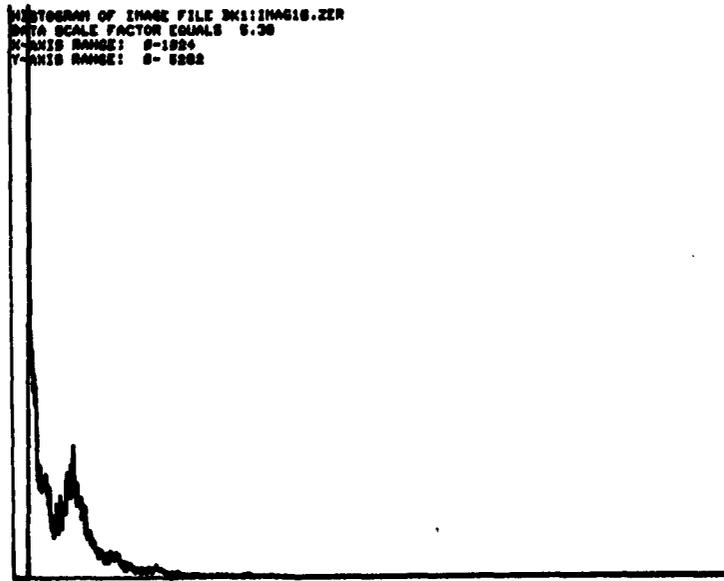


Figure 5-16. Histogram of gray scale values in a typical PSI reconstructed image

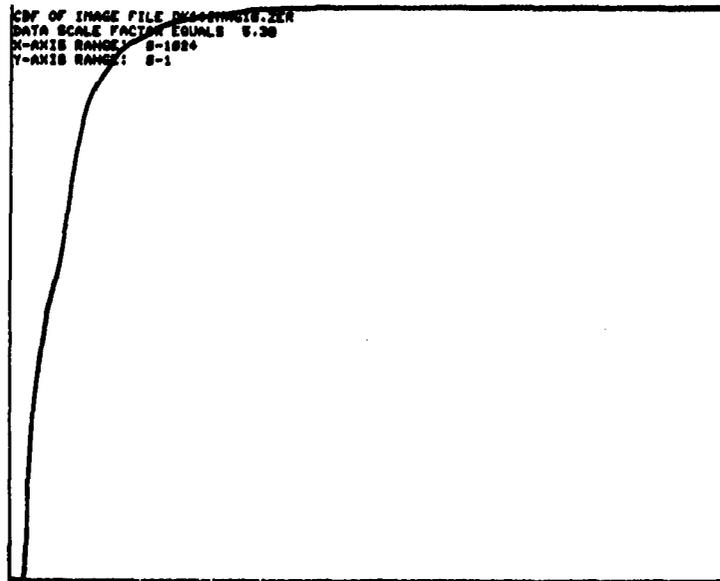


Figure 5-17. Integral of histogram in Figure 5-16 to produce a cumulative distribution function (CDF)

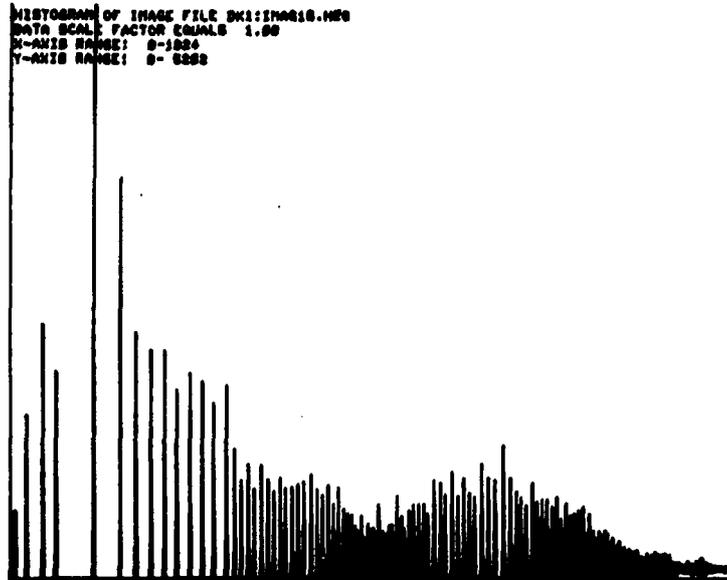


Figure 5-18. Histogram of gray values after reassignment of gray shades shown in Figure 5-16 via CDF of Figure 5-17 and histogram equalization technique

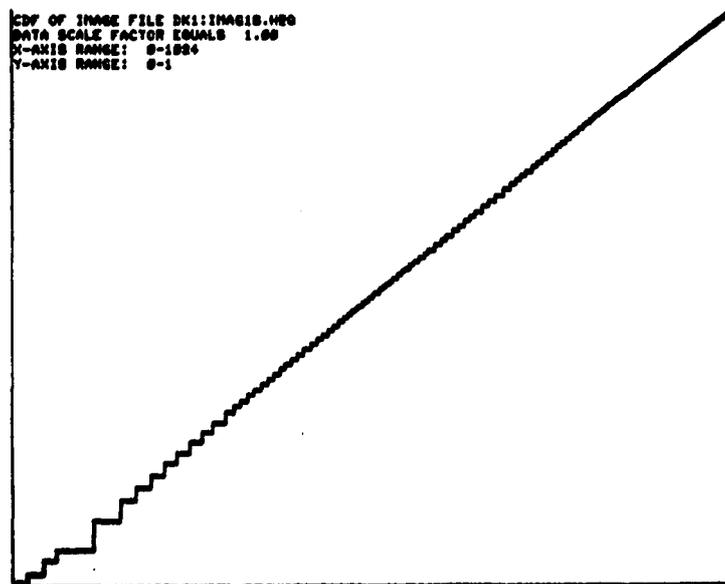


Figure 5-19. Integral of equalized histogram shown in Figure 5-18 to produce unity slope CDF indicative of uniform gray shade distribution

appropriately applied to images where one expects a uniform distribution of gray shades. However, since this was not the case for the images examined (which include background reconstruction), the net result was enhancement of the background reconstruction and washout of the image region of interest. Although it has not yet been attempted, application of the histogram equalization technique only to the region of symmetric insonification, rather than to the entire image, should produce desired enhancement. The software used for this test is included in Appendix B (see "HISTOG.FOR").

CHAPTER VI. PSI RESULTS AND ANALYSES

A. SIMULATED DATA

The basic ideas behind system simulation were presented in the last chapter. Simulated reconstructions utilizing the PSI technique were conducted for both solid plane and point scatterers. Two techniques were used to perform the reconstructions, namely one involving indirect ellipse generation on the PPP-11/35 and CT gray scale display (Figure 6-1) and the other involving direct ellipse generation and subsequent bi-level overlay on a Tektronix graphics terminal. As illustrated and discussed in the previous chapter, these simulated results, in conjunction with some of the early real data gathered suggested modification of the original PSI concept to exclude thru-transmission data. It should be noted that for convenience, the means of getting around the problem of thru-transmission data has been one of ignoring (i.e. zeroing out) all data records possessing a thru-transmission signal for a given transmitter. The proper technique to use, however, in future systems will be the use of time (or range) gating, to eliminate only the thru-transmission component and thus "zero out", in effect, only the thru-transmission component, and not the entire waveform.

A second major importance of simulation was to provide an appreciation for the problems associated with data calibration. It was readily observed



Figure 6-1. View of PSI reconstruction and processing hardware - PDP-11/35 and GE E-Lab CT display

through the use of a controlled (simulated) image that any miscalibration in the association of image distance (i.e. number of pixels in one array diameter) and travel time (i.e. thru-transmission time, or time for an acoustic pulse to travel a distance of one array diameter) resulted in erroneous reinforcement. Thus, even though the raw data collected would be of high quality, an erroneous calibration factor would result in an image looking like a "plate of spaghetti", since echo producing locations, as observed from various positions on the array circumference, would no longer coincide. Equation (5-4) discusses calculation of this calibration factor.

Finally, one other factor of importance determined from simulation is the existence of the "smear" factor already discussed. Although a suitable "de-smearing function" specifically tailored to the PSI technique has yet to be determined, the use of controlled images constructed with simulated data provides a tool for examining PSI smearing, particularly with respect to spatial variations.

B. PSI RECONSTRUCTION OF REAL DATA

Having derived the initial PSI theory (Chapter IV) and performed preliminary simulations, the next step in this investigation was to reconstruct real images, obtaining data by hand from scope tracings, prior to acquisition and implementation of the transient recorder. The acoustic source consisted of the Arenberg pulsed oscillator exciting the Panametrics 5 MHz non-focused transducer. In order to get data comparable to simulated data, a test target (similar to that shown in Figure 6-2) was constructed. This object consists of three 0.064" diameter stainless steel rods, arranged in a straight line, separated by 5/8", with the middle pin being located as close to the center of rotation of the specimen platform as possible. Figure 6-3 illustrates the

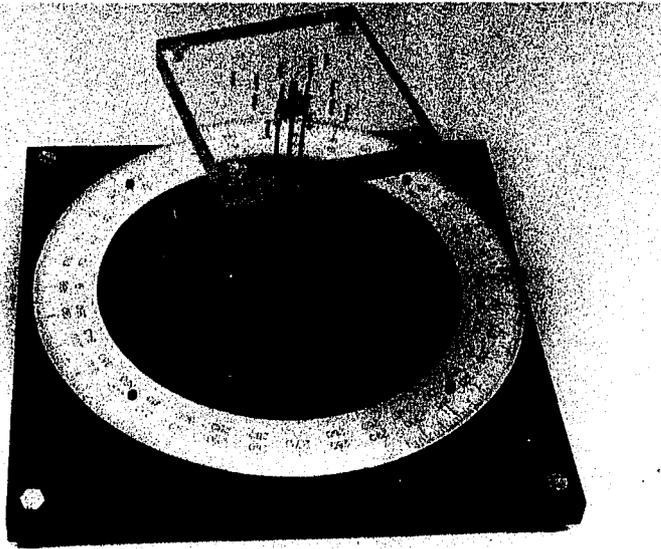
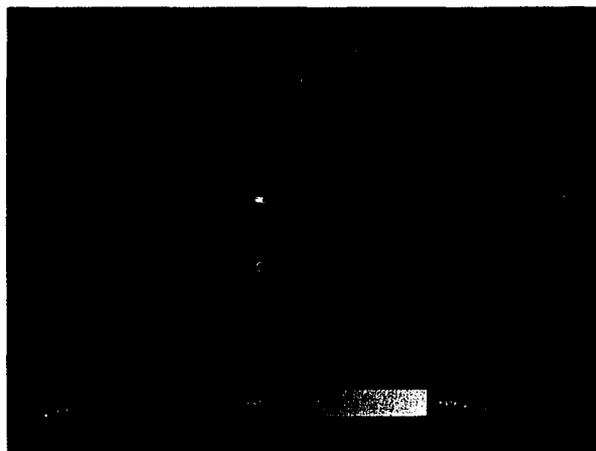
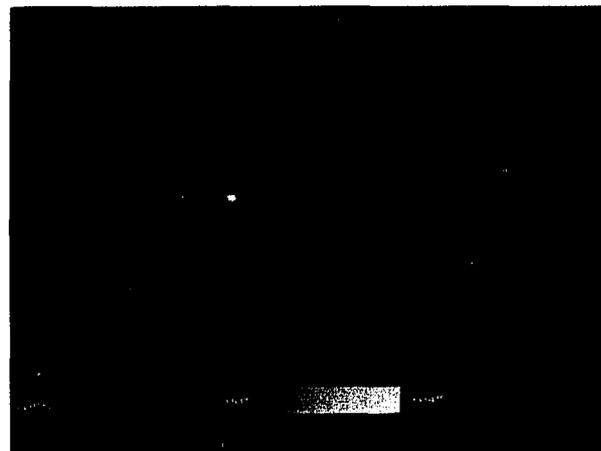


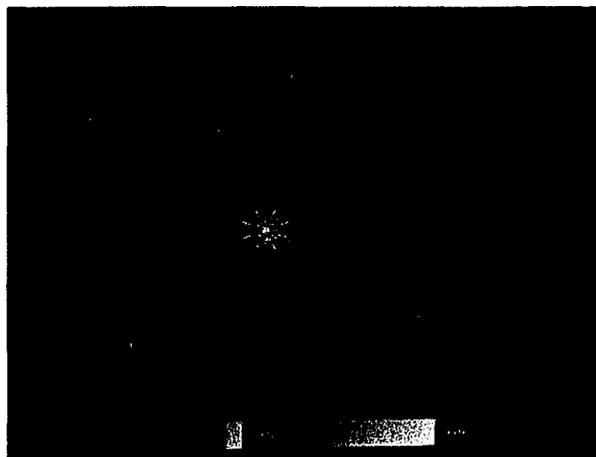
Figure 6-2. Test target comprised of three 0.064" diameter stainless steel rods shown on specimen platform



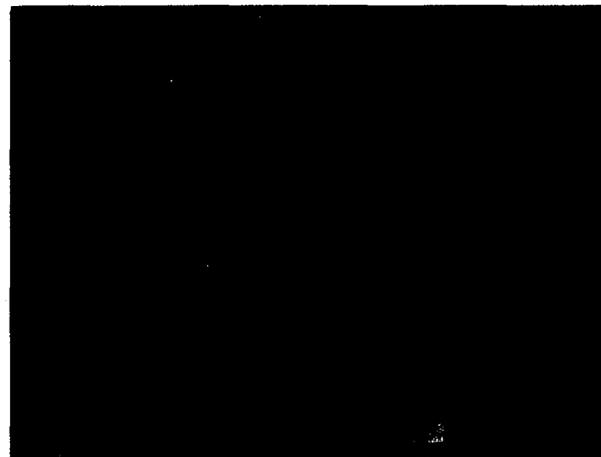
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 6-3. Image reconstructed from data recorded off oscilloscope traces, based on target similar to Figure 6-2. Rod separation is 5/8" each, about center

resultant image after PSI reconstruction on the CT display, whereas Figure 6-4 is the result of direct ellipse superposition on the Tektronix graphics terminal. Both images are comparable in that the locations of the three rods can be identified, as well as the fact that the center pin appears substantially brighter than both adjacent pins. Based on the Panametric characterization data of Appendix C, it is recalled that the output beam diameter is approximately one-half inch, resulting in an active imaging region of approximately the same diameter. Thus, with $5/8$ " spacings about the center pin, this rod target would require an active imaging diameter of no less than 1.25 inches. So, the fact that both outer pins are beyond the uniform region of insonification, results in their lesser acoustic coverage, as compared with that for the center pin (which is insonified once for every transmitted pulse). Based on this result, it was determined that the object to be imaged must lie with the region of uniform insonification of the "straight beam" transducer (or region of symmetric insonification for the fan beam probe) if quantitative results are to be obtained. It is reiterated that this investigation is not designed to develop a quantitative image, due to both hardware limitations (present inability to adequately cover the required dynamic range) and the fact that a more exact theory as to the phenomenon of false intersections must be developed. Figure 6-3 clearly illustrates the nature of the false intersection. It is noted that for the symmetric transducer array and target, the ambiguous reinforcement exhibits similar symmetry in addition to spatial variance. The imaging of the single, centrally-located rod used in this target has been found to be a useful object to image for purposes of equipment alignment and calibration. For such a case, if an image does reconstruct as a small bright point or ring located at the center of the imaged area, one immediately knows that a calibration or

GENERAL ELECTRIC

Real data: 3 stainless steel rods, 0.064" dia., 5/8" separation Date: 1/8/78

Transducer ring radius 5.15"; 8 transducer ring

36 ellipse families, 320 pts./ellipse, 3 ellipses per T/R pair, 108 ellipses total

Calibration: 176.0 μ sec equals 320 picture units; 1 picture unit = 0.0820 cm

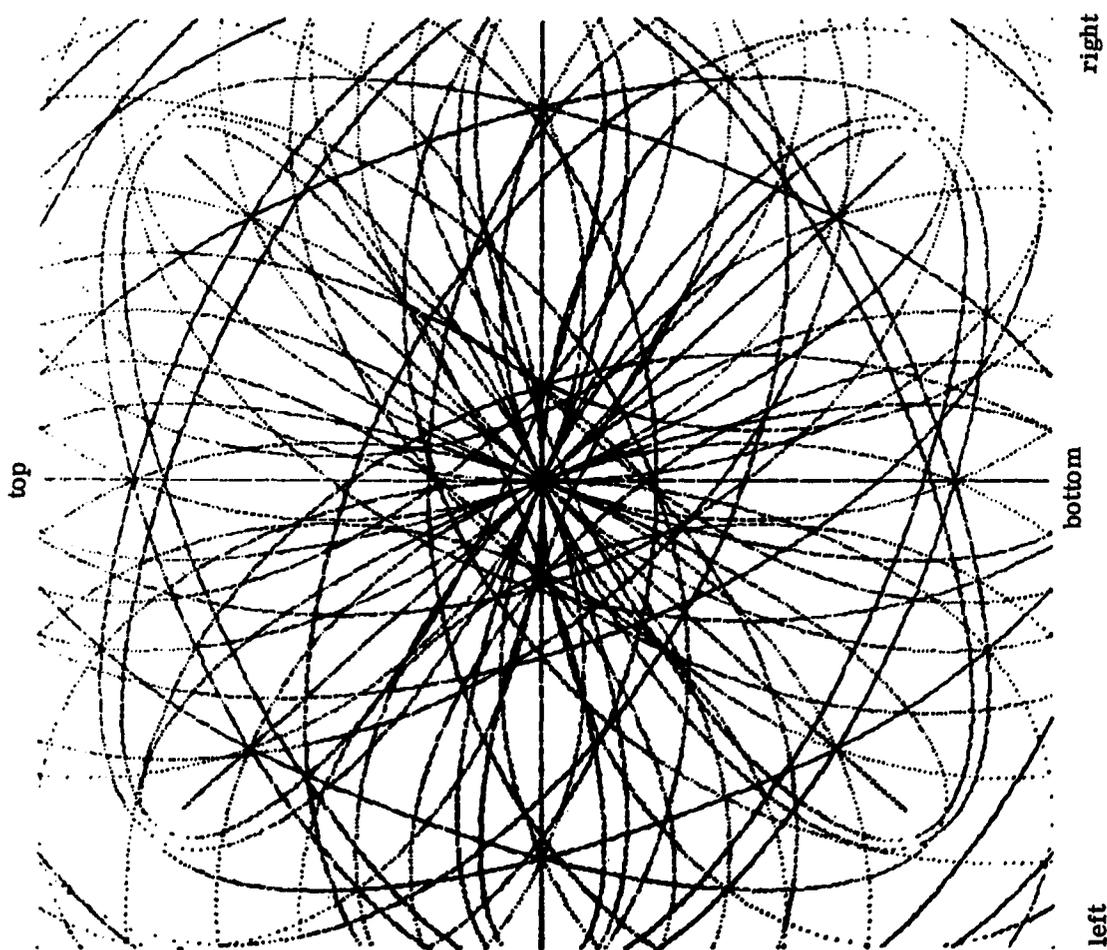


Figure 6-4. Image reconstructed on Tektronix graphics display using same data as Figure 6-3

alignment error exists. Relative target motion or an error in transducer placement will also result in a poorly reconstructed image.

In an attempt to image objects more like those encountered in medical systems, the Plexiglas triangle target shown in Figure 6-5 was constructed. Each leg of the triangular cross-section is approximately 1/2". Plexiglas was chosen as a preliminary target since its acoustic impedance ($3.1 \times 10^5 \text{ g/cm}^2\text{-sec}$) is such that the echoes obtained are of relatively limited dynamic range. Plexiglas, however, is rather specular with respect to ultrasound and so results in "hit and miss" data when only a few receiving transducers are used. Figure 6-6 illustrates this point via the reconstructed images of the plexiglass triangle based on both eight and sixteen straight beam (i.e. Panametrics, 5 MHz) transducer array simulations. Referring especially to the narrow gray scale windowed version of each photo pair, it can readily be seen how much better coverage is obtained with the sixteen transducer array, as opposed to the eight transducer situation. The sixteen transducer array has the potential for observing scattering behavior for almost four times as many positions as for the eight transducer case. In addition to better object coverage is the fact that the more transmit/receive (T/R) pairs incorporated into a given image, the less will be the influence of background ellipse construction and false intersections in particular, on the final image. As discussed in Chapter IV, presumably each T/R pair will contribute information causing ellipses to intersect in a highly structured, predictable manner at points of true echo origin. On the other hand, depending on array and/or specimen symmetry, false intersections will tend to reinforce each other in a comparatively random fashion, as in general, one false intersection will not exactly overlay another. Although a rigorous mathematical proof has yet to be achieved, an intuitive

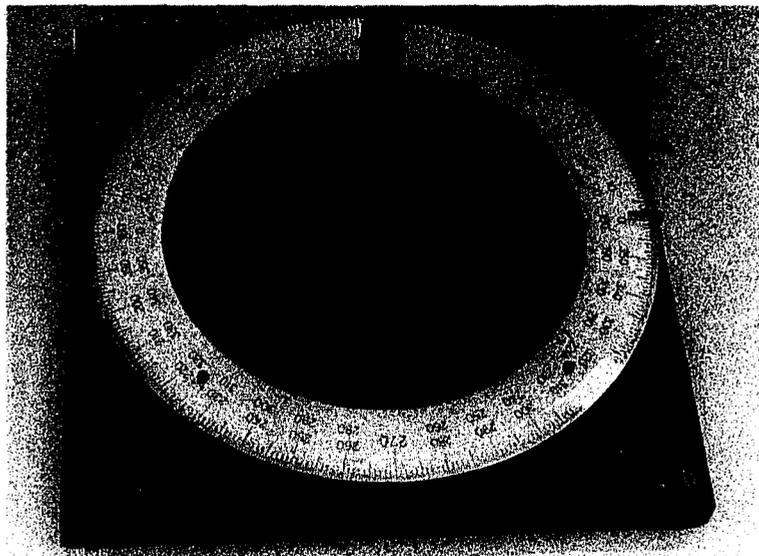


Figure 6-5. Plexiglass triangle target on specimen platform

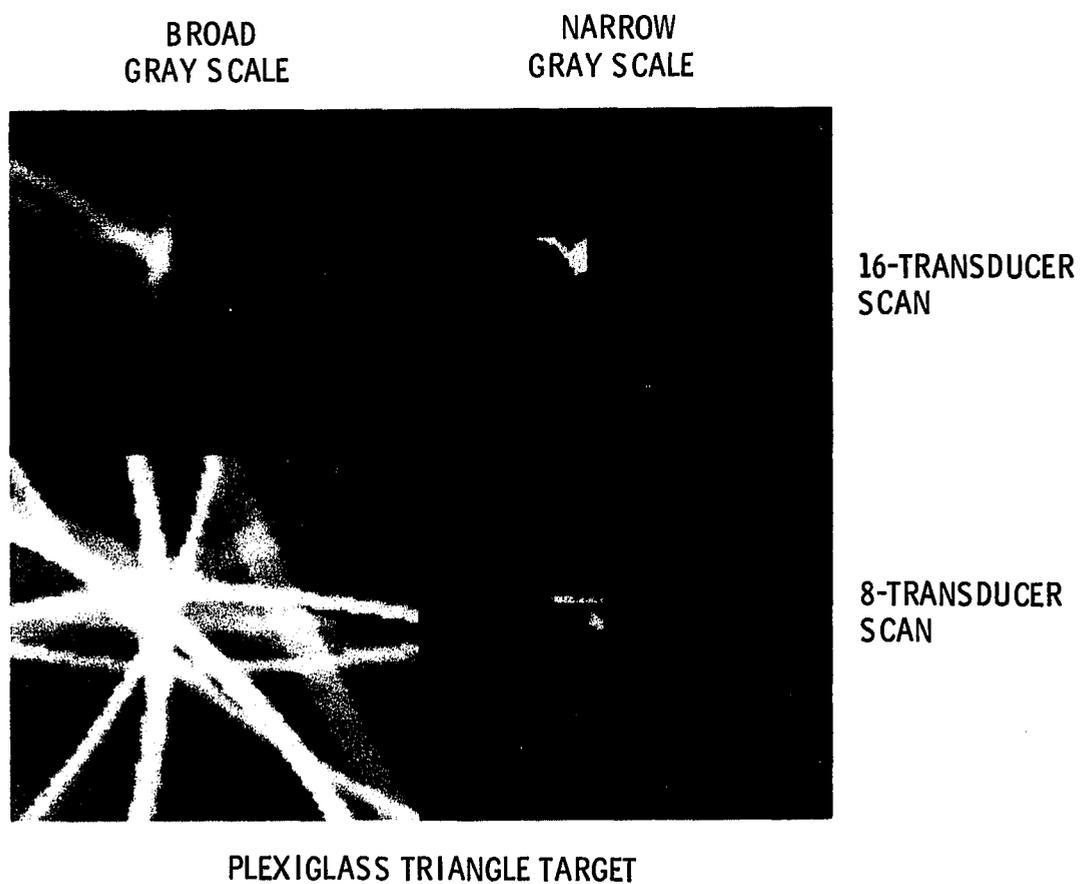


Figure 6-6. Plexiglass triangle image reconstruction for sixteen and eight transducer scans. Central 80×80 pixel region shown in each case

feel for this situation may be obtained from examination of the images reconstructed on the Tektronix graphics display (Figures 5-3 and 6-4).

In comparing the reconstructed image to the original object with respect to both Figures 6-5 and 6-6, as well as the remaining data to be presented in this paper, the geometric conventions of a standard Cartesian plane have been followed. Thus, the zero degree reference line in both the image and specimen is that line looking in from the right at the center of the array, and perpendicular to the vertical margin of the printed page. At this point it should be pointed out that most of the reconstructed images presented will only consist of the central eighty pixel square region of the full 320×320 pixel image. Since, as already mentioned, the 320×320 element image region corresponds to the entire array size and not just the symmetric imaging region (presently located within the 80 pixel square region), it has not been of value to perform any of the more recent reconstructions for much beyond the specified symmetric acoustic region. (Presently, reconstruction of the central eighty pixel square region takes one half hour and two hours for eight and sixteen transducer arrays, respectively. Disc storage required is 203 blocks (a full eighty lines of image are stored with those values outside of the central eighty pixels on a line being set equal to zero gray level). A full screen reconstruction, 320 pixels square, requires approximately four and fifteen hours to reconstruct images based on eight and sixteen transducer arrays, respectively. (Required disc storage for the image is 803 blocks.) For purposes of general illustration, Figure 6-7 shows one of the earlier full screen reconstructions (with broad gray scale windowing) of the plexiglass triangle target imaged with a sixteen transducer straight beam array. As described for the simulated images



Figure 6-7. Full 320×320 pixel reconstruction of plexiglass triangle illustrating background reconstruction and potential artifacts

presented earlier, the bright dots circularly disposed around the image periphery represent transducer locations. (The transducer at 0° normally shows up only very dimly due to raster timing as the electron beam jumps from the right to the left hand side of the screen. The transducers at 180° and 270° fall off the screen by one pixel. Both the "x" and "y" axes of the display are 320 elements long, while the reconstruction mathematics is based on axes ranging from -160 to +160 (with the zero value in the middle, making a total of 321 points). Since the image scan begins at the top right of the screen, the 321st point reached on both axes, falls off the display. As a result, only fourteen transducers should be visible for the full screen display of a sixteen transducer simulation. An eighty pixel square reconstruction should only indicate the transducer number one, located at 0° . Figure 6-7 is instructive in that two types of reconstruction artifact already discussed are clearly shown, namely thru-transmission and noise reconstruction. Thru-transmissions, if not

removed from the data, reconstruct as the shaded elliptical regions beginning and ending on transducer vertices and passing over (degrading) the desired image. Noise, in this case, a relatively long duration burst inadvertently picked up during acoustic data acquisition by the transient recorder, is illustrated by the wide, relatively dark gray ellipse constructed in the upper right portion of the image. As this ellipse does not pass through the active imaging region, it can automatically be characterized as noise (based on simple range gating considerations).

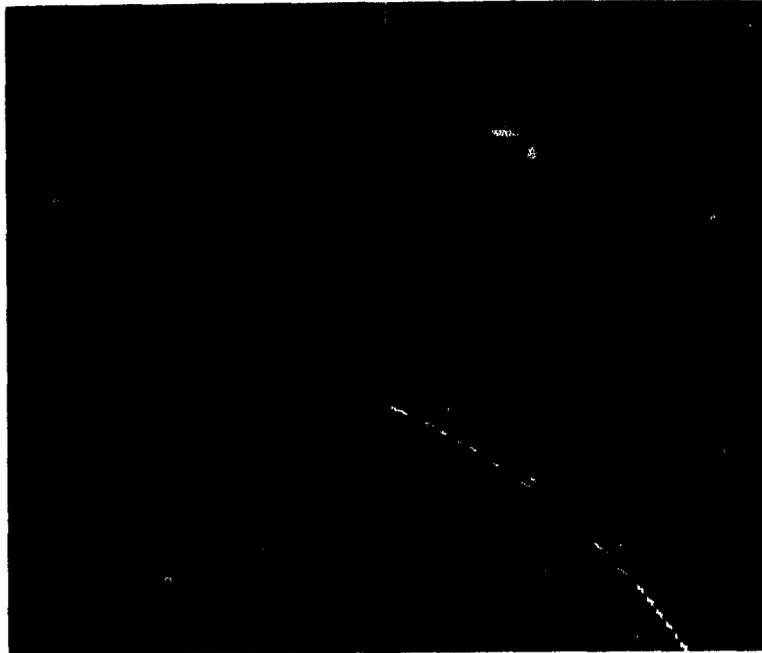
In the early going, attempts were made at adapting X-ray CT de-smearing techniques to the similar smearing encountered with PSI reconstruction. Figure 6-8 illustrates the results obtained for application to the eight transducer scan of Figure 6-6. The top image pair demonstrates the validity of the deconvolution algorithm used by reacquiring the original image, after impulse convolution. The lower image pair demonstrates the result of deconvolution using a typical function (the spatial domain waveform of Figure 4-14(b)) used in X-ray CT. As discussed in Chapter IV, and now illustrated in Figure 6-8, the X-ray de-smearing function tends to wash out the PSI image. This occurrence is probably due to the fact that X-ray deconvolution is based on smearing due to an infinite number of straight line intersections. Such an assumption would be somewhat reasonable for a PSI array of on the order of one hundred transducers or more.

While on the topic of image de-smearing, attempts were also made to use the technique of inverse filtering, already discussed, via the FFT algorithms listed in Appendix B. The procedure involved formation of the inverse filter (i.e. de-smearing) function by dividing the two dimensional (2D) FFT of a

BROAD
GRAY SCALE

NARROW
GRAY SCALE

158



IMPULSE
DECONVOLUTION

DECONVOLUTION WITH CT
DE-SMEARING FUNCTION

PLEXIGLASS TRIANGLE TARGET

Figure 6-8. Deconvolution of eight transducer plexiglass triangle reconstruction

reconstructed single point (located at center of transducer array) image by the 2D FFT of the original (i.e. non-reconstructed) image of the same point. Dividing the resultant filter function into the 2D FFT of a given reconstructed image, followed by taking the inverse transform, should produce the desired sharp image. Such was not the case, however, most probably due to a requirement for a spatially varying inverse filter or deconvolution function. Although a separate intensive study to determine the exact PSI de-smearing required is beyond the scope of this investigation, the basic groundwork has now been laid for such a study.

In order to image an object with presumably minimal dynamic range but with substantially more scattering than the plexiglass triangle, a target consisting of a transistor heat sink mounted on a 1/4" diameter nylon rod was used (Figure 6-9). Figure 6-10 is the reconstructed image using only an eight

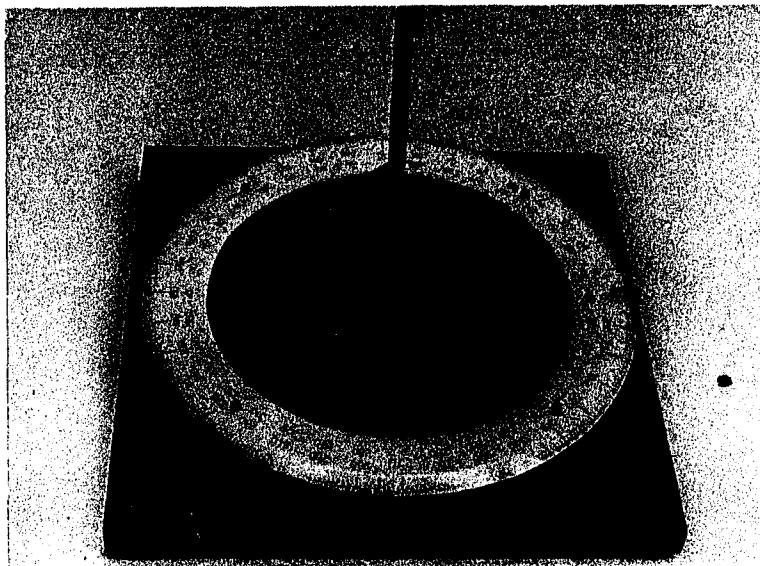


Figure 6-9. Target comprised of transistor heat sink mounted on 1/4" diameter nylon rod

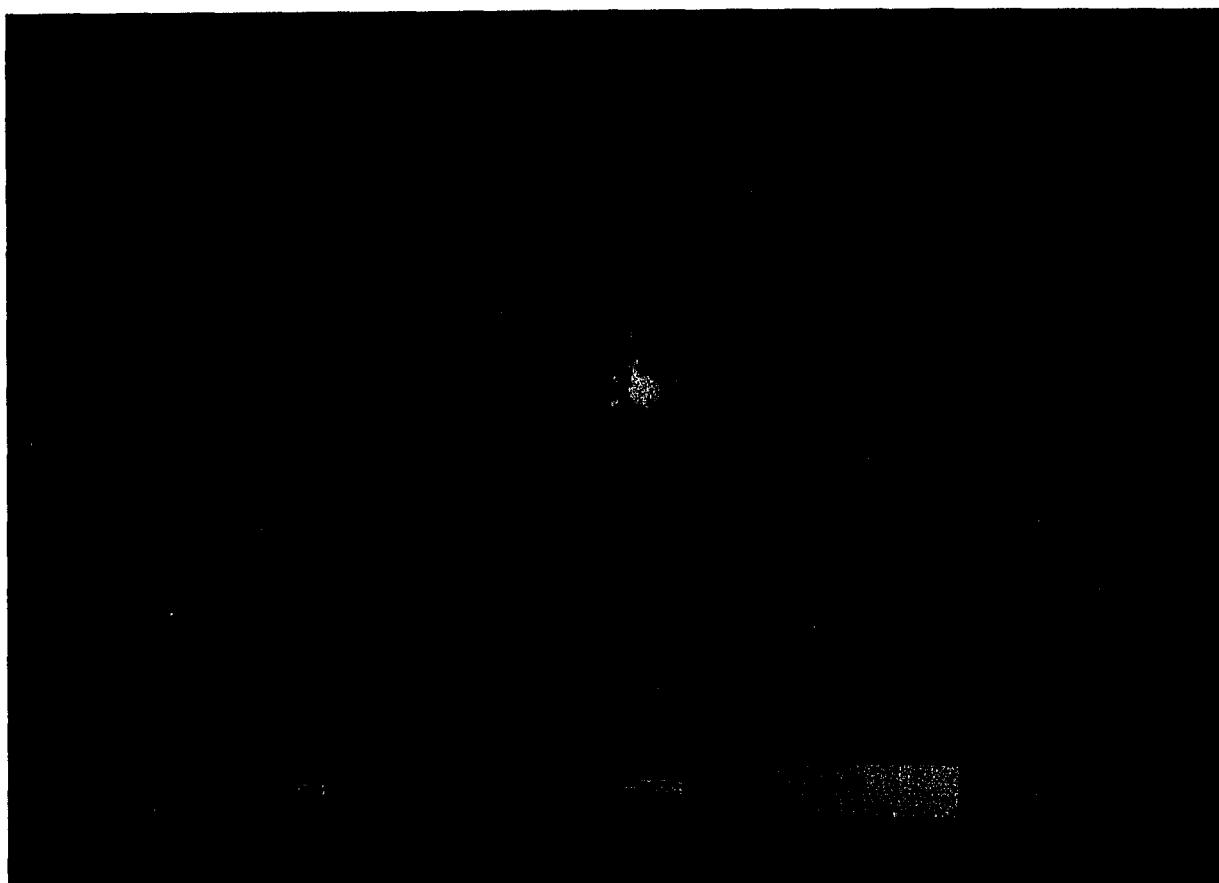


Figure 6-10. Reconstructed image of heat sink shown in Figure 6-9

transducer array simulation. All but three of the ten heat sink flanges are clearly visible (assuming good quality printed reproduction of the original image). As demonstrated with the plexiglass triangle target, an enlarged array is required to show the remaining flanges. However, it should be noted that in this case, the use of a sixteen transducer array produced an image quite comparable to that obtained with the eight transducer array. Apparently, the geometry of the heat sink in conjunction with other factors such as transducer radiation pattern, require that an even greater number of transducers is required to define the entire heat sink target.

The foregoing data provided strong encouragement (particularly since no attempt has been made to create a "tuned" system) as to the potential success of PSI as a general purpose imaging system. The two remaining tasks for this initial investigation were (i) the use of a fan beam probe and (ii) the demonstration of PSI on biological tissue. As discussed earlier, a pair of experimental 5 MHz, approximately 40° 3 dB fan beam transducers (fully waterproof) were built by KB Aerotech. Initial testing of the transducers demonstrated unsatisfactory acoustic performance, in addition to the fact that the front epoxy quarter-wave matching layer on each transducer softened, blistered and peeled on extended immersion in water. Furthermore, transducer characterization by the Bureau of Radiological Health (data presented in Appendix C) indicated electrode delamination from the ceramic on one of the transducers. After subsequent repair and replacement of the quarter-wave layer with a thin epoxy layer, blistering and peeling again resulted. Replacement of the epoxy with a silver lacquer coating also resulted in blistering and peeling. As all other transducers tested in a similar fashion failed to exhibit such deterioration, the present hypothesis is that some defect in the ceramic

material is preventing proper bonding and/or curing. In any case, an attempt was finally made to utilize the fan beam transducers, even with the blistered and peeled front silver lacquer coating, on both the objects previously imaged with the straight beam as well as some representative biological objects.

In short, some minimally recognizable results were obtained, as will be presented shortly. However, strong sidelobe interference was noted along with a somewhat irregular beam pattern. Although such performance might be directly a product of this new type of transducer design, the resultant irregularities on the transducer face are most likely highly contributory factors as well. As to be expected based on design considerations, the fan beam sensitivity and received output was quite a bit below the level of that achieved with standard transducers (e.g. the Panametrics pair first used). Furthermore, what mimicked as gross errors in hardware alignment was possibly due to range errors resulting from the potential problem of receiving a plane wavefront with a curved ceramic (see Figure 4-16 and associated discussion). As a result of the fan beam physical defects, an extended imaging program with them was not carried out. Rather, it was decided that some trial data be taken with the fan beams, followed by temporary use of the original straight beam transducers to complete the present investigation. A new fan beam design would then be attempted for future PSI investigation.

The following data were obtained using the fan beam transducers. Although some recognizable results were obtained, it appeared that, aside from the unpredictable influence of peeled and blistered silver lacquer on the face of the ceramic, the lower sensitivity, curved receiving face and strong sidelobes should all contribute to a degraded image. It should be mentioned that whenever possible, an eight transducer ring was simulated rather than, for example, a sixteen or more transducer ring, in order to accommodate the

amount of dedicated computer time available.

Figure 6-11 depicts the cross-sectional (transverse) reconstructed view of a single 0.064" diameter stainless steel rod as imaged by an eight fan beam array. It was noticed during data collection that the target exhibited a certain amount of play in its mounting hole and would exhibit slight positional shifting during specimen platform rotation. Also, it was noted that due to the thinness of the rod, it had a small degree of curvature, causing various echo times to be recorded throughout the beam's thickness. As a result, since this rod is being treated essentially as a point-scatterer located at the center of the array, rather than get a small point image as expected, the donut shape is obtained, shown in the lower portion of Figure 6-11. Due to the large acoustic impedance mismatch between the water ($\sim 1.5 \text{ g/cm}^2 \cdot \text{sec} \times 10^5$) and stainless steel ($45.4 \text{ g/cm}^2 \cdot \text{sec} \times 10^5$), one would not expect to see appreciable internal echoes from the rod. An additional factor which should be pointed out is that a similar image appearance as obtained in Figure 6-11 may also be expected if the transducer array center and specimen platform center are not the same. Similarly, their centers of rotation must be true, a factor which does not exactly hold for the specimen table (primarily) due to the unavailability of funds to support a precisely machined apparatus. Much more precise scanning hardware must be obtained before any reasonable resolution determination can be made. Imaging of this single rod, however, aside from a visual check, has been the only means of determining whether or not the PSI apparatus is in reasonable alignment.

Figure 6-12 is an eight fan beam reconstruction of a 1/4" steel rod located at the center of the array, shown for broad and narrow gray scale assignments as indicated. This target was held firmly in place, and so far as

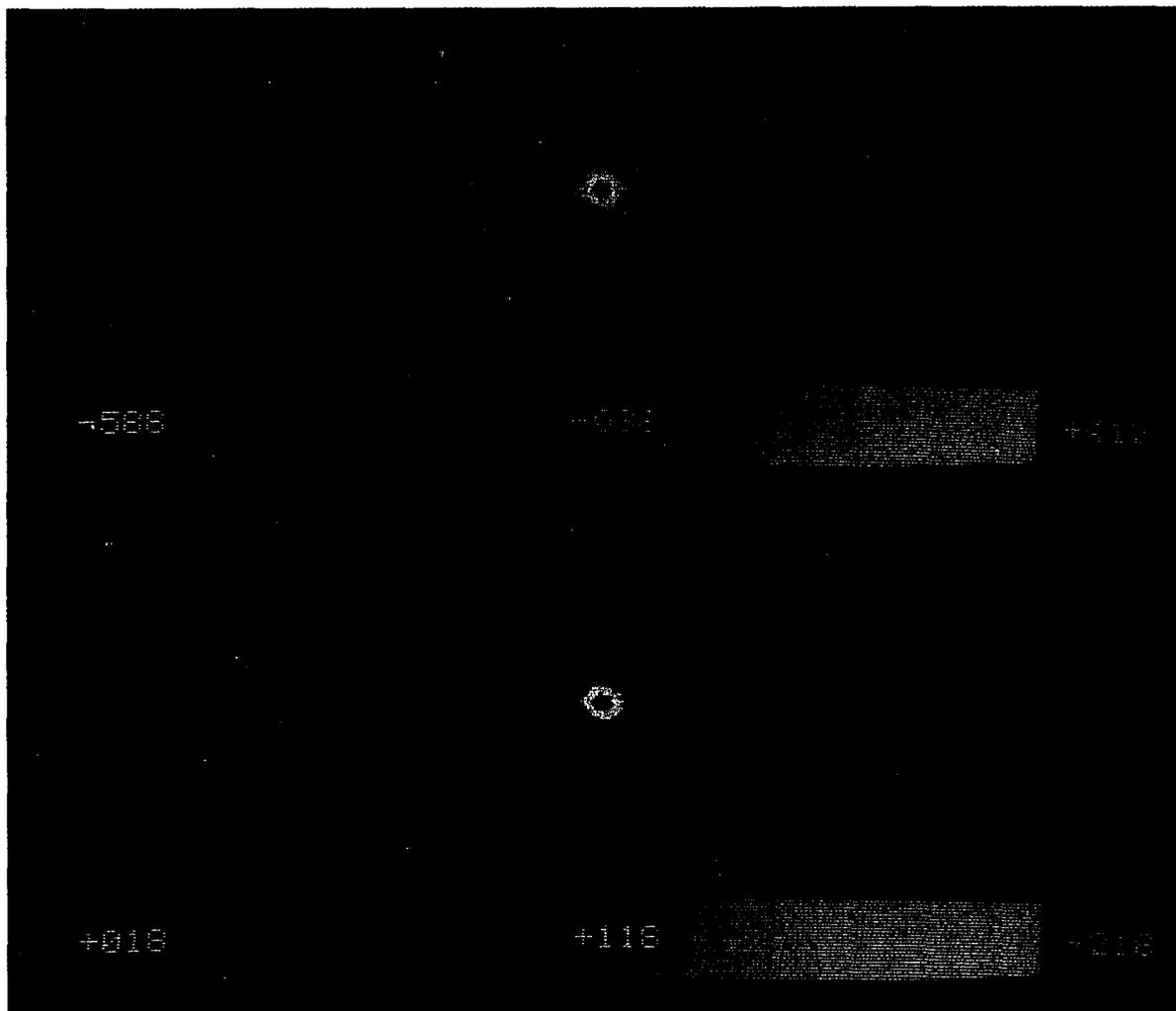


Figure 6-11. Eight fan beam reconstructed transverse image of a 0.064" diameter stainless steel rod located at center of array (top - broad gray scale, bottom - narrower gray scale)

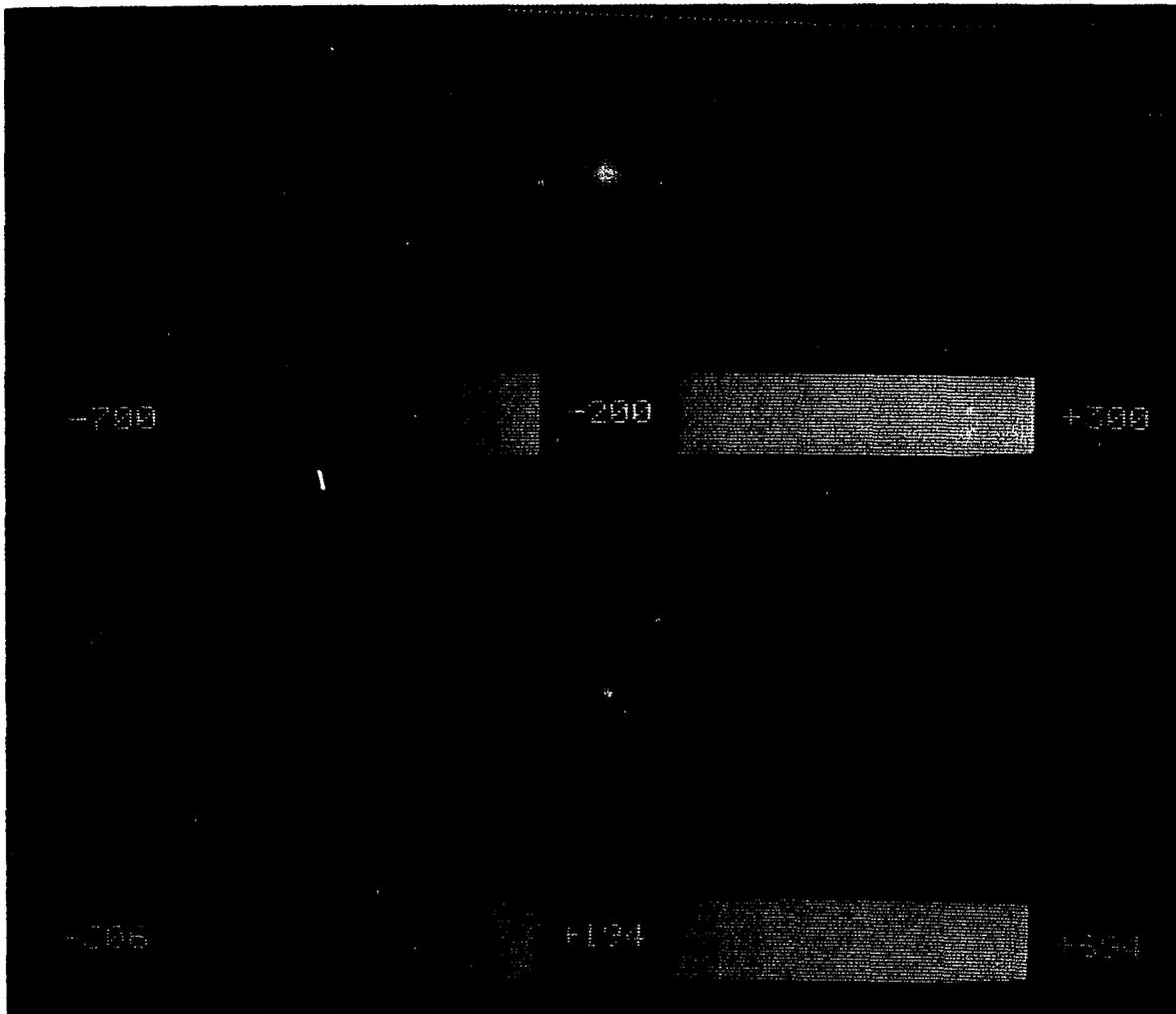


Figure 6-12. Eight fan beam reconstructed transverse image of a 1/4" diameter steel rod located at center of array

could be determined was perfectly straight. This more controlled situation resulted in an image more like that expected. Ideally, a 1/4" diameter infinitely thin ring would be expected. This situation presumes relatively little acoustic transmission into the rod due to the large water/steel impedance mismatch. However, the acoustic pulse width (and inadvertent pulse spreading) will tend to change the infinitely thin outer contour of the rod to a contour band extending towards the rod's center. This effect, in conjunction with the usual reconstructing smearing will tend to fill in the rod's transverse outline as shown in the figure. These "filling-in" effects are of greater significance for objects this small.

Next, a target consisting of three 0.064" diameter stainless steel rods, one rod at the center of the array and the other two rods 5/16" away from the center. The rods are situated on a line passing through the center of the array, making an angle of approximately twenty degrees with the horizontal. The resultant image is shown in Figure 6-13. The actual locations of the three rods compare with the three central dark areas of the image. Aside from the likely causes of error mentioned earlier, a satisfactory explanation has yet to be found for the oval appearance of each target location. However, whatever the exact effect, such occurrence is apparently making the system 'see' an effectively larger array diameter than was determined from direct thru-transmission measurements. Figure 6-14 suggests this situation as the upper portion of the figure was reconstructed with a PSIV02.FOR calibration factor (CAL) of 0.985294 (as determined from direct water tank measurements) while the lower reconstruction was performed with CAL=0.988971 (corresponding to a thru-transmission time which is 0.5 μ sec greater than that measured). Using this modified calibration factor results in a somewhat improved image. As for the foregoing images, an exact assessment of this

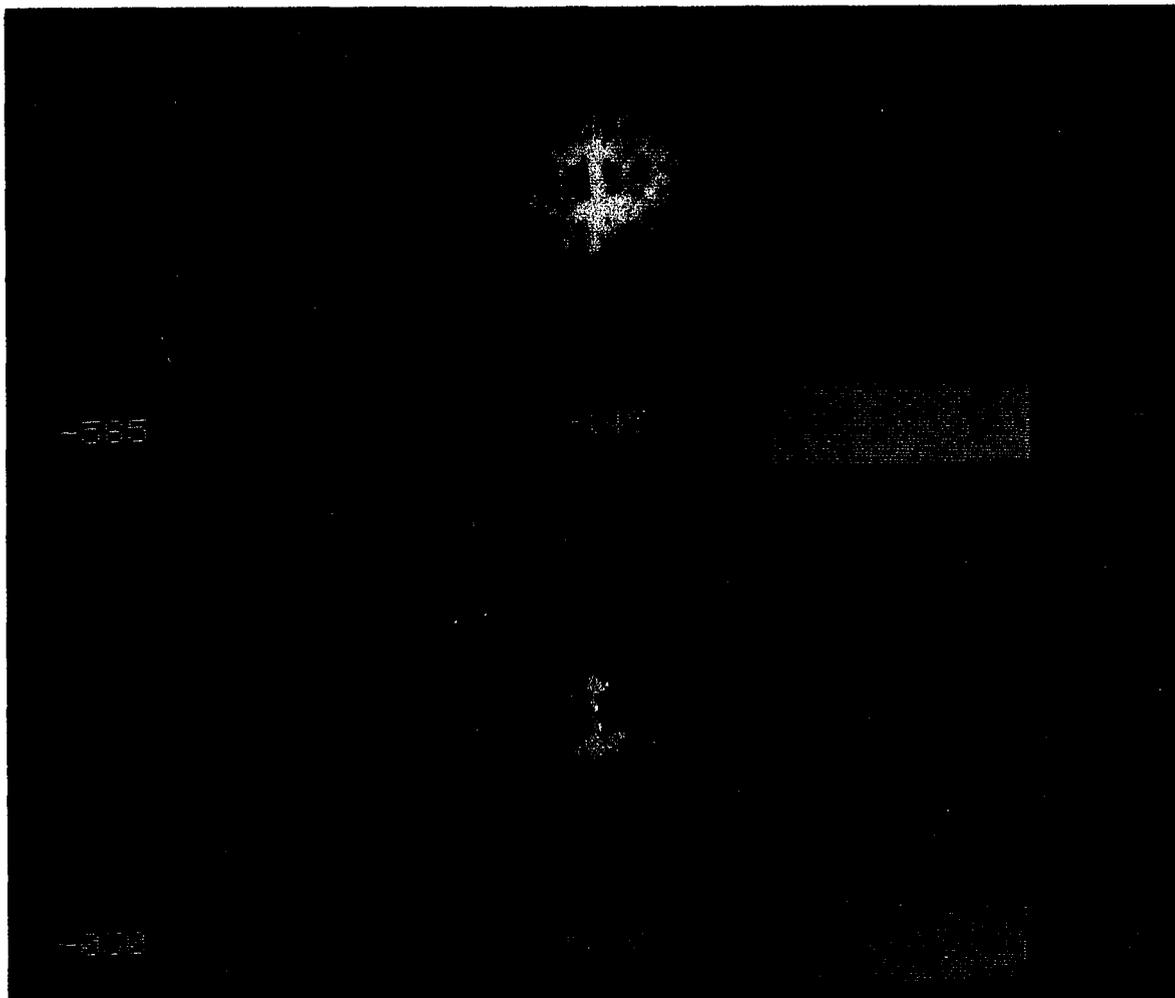


Figure 6-13. Eight fan beam scan of three co-linearly arranged 0.064" diameter stainless steel rods separated by 5/16" about middle pin located at center of transducer array

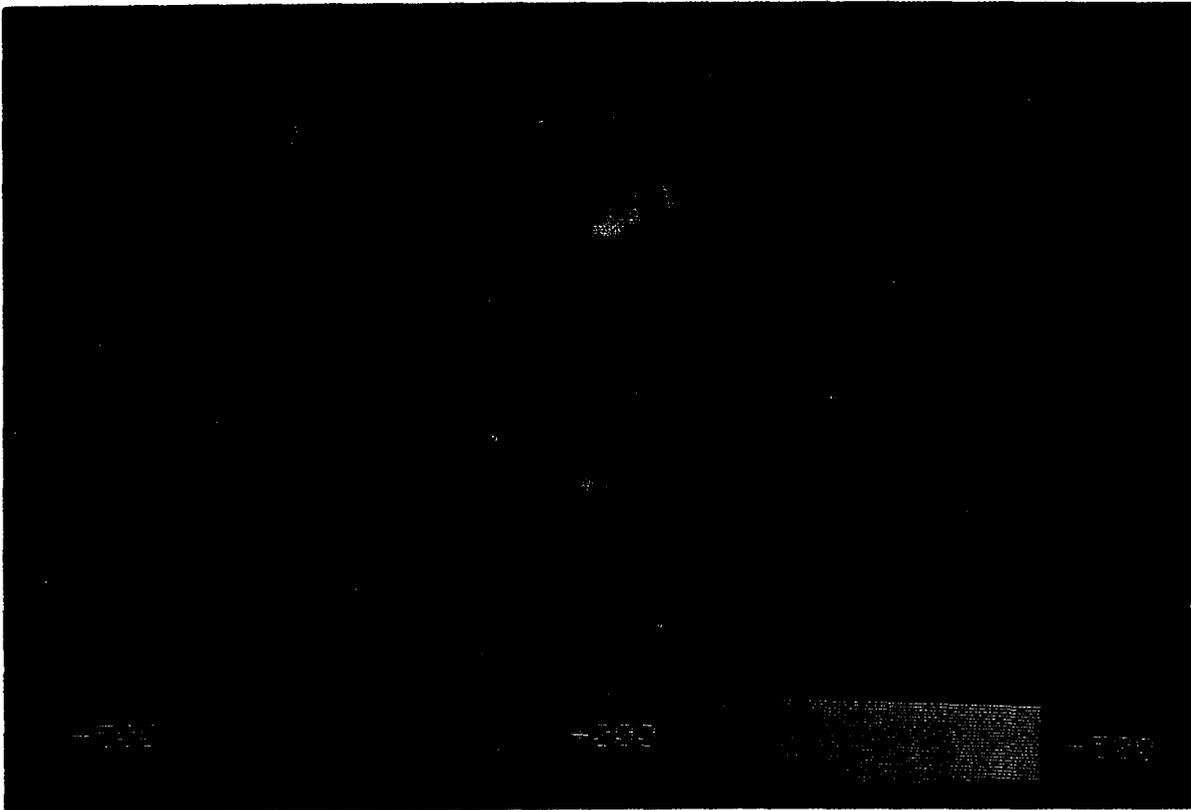


Figure 6-14. Reconstructed image obtained in Figure 6-13 (top - CAL = 0.985294) compared with image from an identical reconstruction except calibrated for a larger ring diameter (bottom - CAL = 0.987312)

problem must be deferred until a more physically sound fan beam and more precise scanning apparatus is obtained.

As a means of general illustration, Figure 6-15 shows the envelope detected transient recorder output obtained for sample scans with varying angles of reception for three stainless steel rods arranged as for Figure 6-14, except that rod spacings are now $3/16$ " (rod in upper right quadrant) and $9/16$ " (rod in lower left quadrant). When examining these waveforms, one must bear in mind that the transient recorder outputs all 8192 data samples stored in its memory (i.e. a single waveform) in twenty milliseconds. Knowing the sampling rate (in this case, 20 MHz) time intervals may be calculated accordingly. Note the quite extreme dependence of scattering angle seen by comparing the

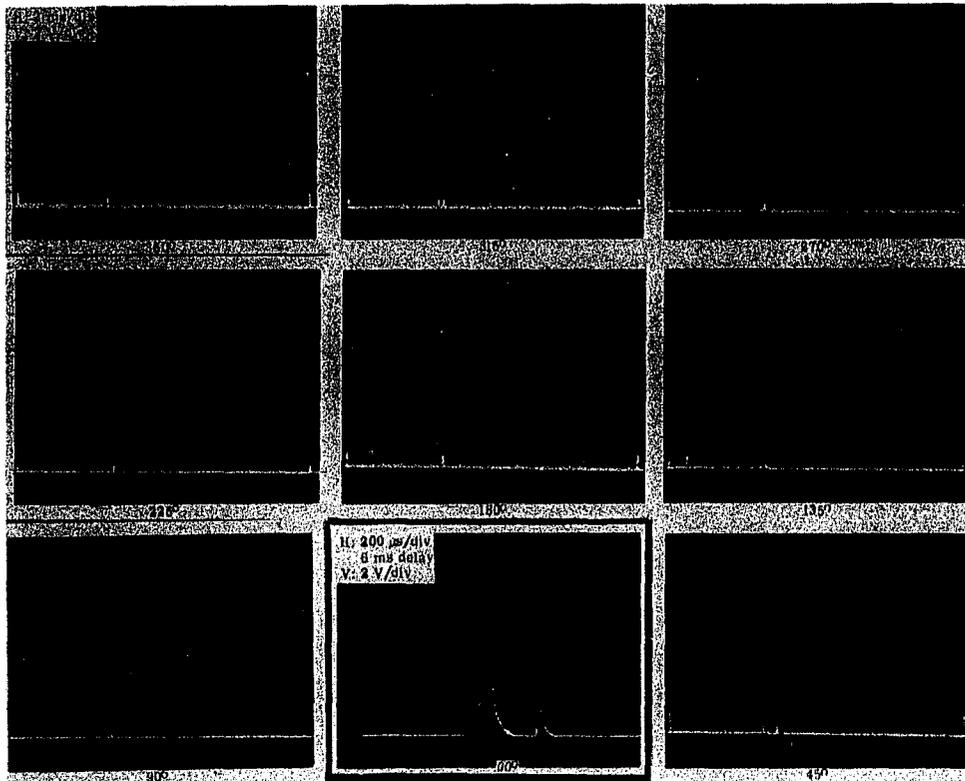


Figure 6-15. Sample envelope detected PTR output for various reception angles for fan beam scan of three 0.064" diameter rods with separations of 3/16" and 9/16"

waveforms with one another.

As a means for comparing the fan beam performance with that of the straight beam used, the Plexiglas triangle (Figure 6-16) and transistor heat sink (Figure 6-17) were scanned and can be compared with Figures 6-6 and 6-10, respectively. As far as the Plexiglas triangle is concerned, although the underlying reconstruction patterns appear to resemble one another, it appears that fan beam sensitivity may be insufficient to register the signal levels obtained with the straight beam. Whereas reconstruction from eight or sixteen Panametrics transducers did not drastically change the image (although, the greater array produced better specimen coverage), it appears

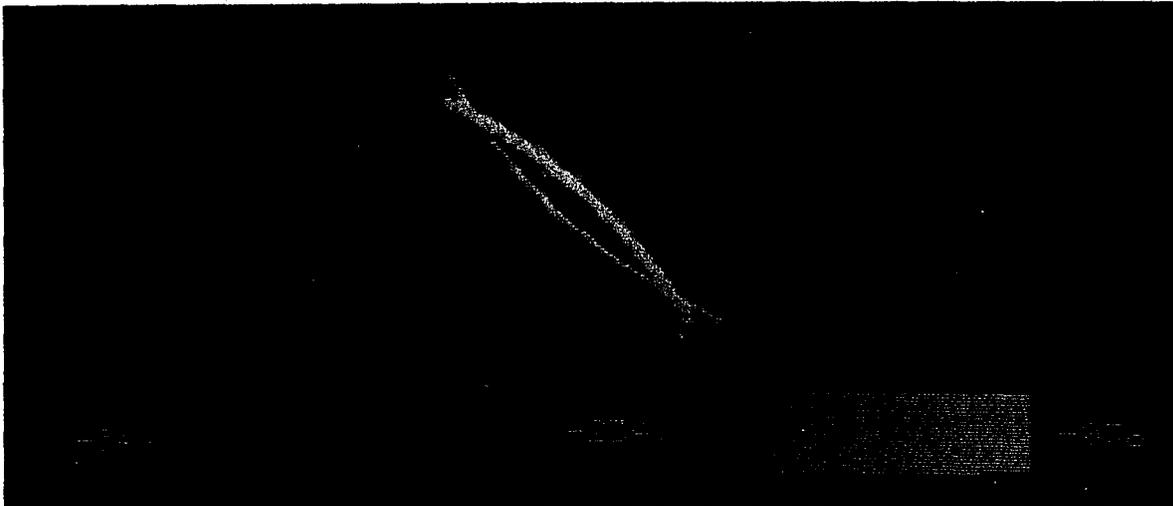


Figure 6-16. Reconstructed image of the Plexiglas triangle in Figure 6-5 using an eight fan beam array

that additional fan beam transducers might provide the additional image reinforcement necessary. It is also possible that due to the high specularity of the Plexiglas and different physical sizes of the fan beam and straight beam transducers, the few fan beams used may have been situated so as to just miss the generated echoes.

While still not as good as for the straight beam, the fan beam heat sink reconstruction (Figure 6-17) bears some resemblance to the target (Figure 6-9). The supporting 1/4" diameter nylon rod is brightly visible. The heat sink flanges appear quite subdued and blurred. Again, this result, while demonstrating a minimal performance of the fan beam suggests that the relatively poor image is due to degraded transducer performance. Figure 6-18 shows various views of the RF scatter obtained from fan beam insonification of the heat sink positioned at 0° , for a receiver position of 345° . Figure 6-19 depicts the PTR envelope detected signal from the heat sink for the same specimen position but with various receiver angles.

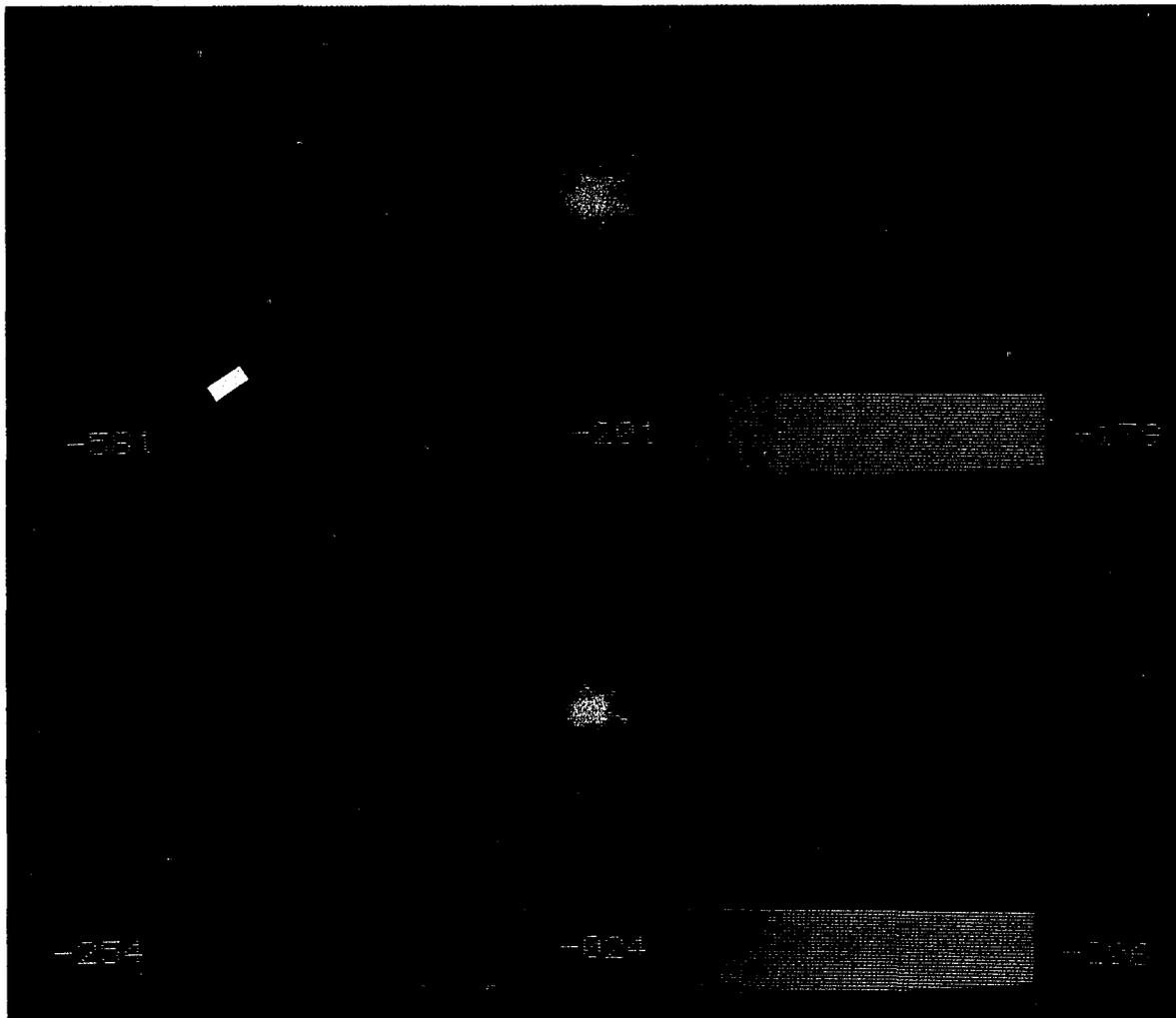


Figure 6-17. Eight fan beam transducer reconstruction of the transistor heat sink shown in Figure 6-9

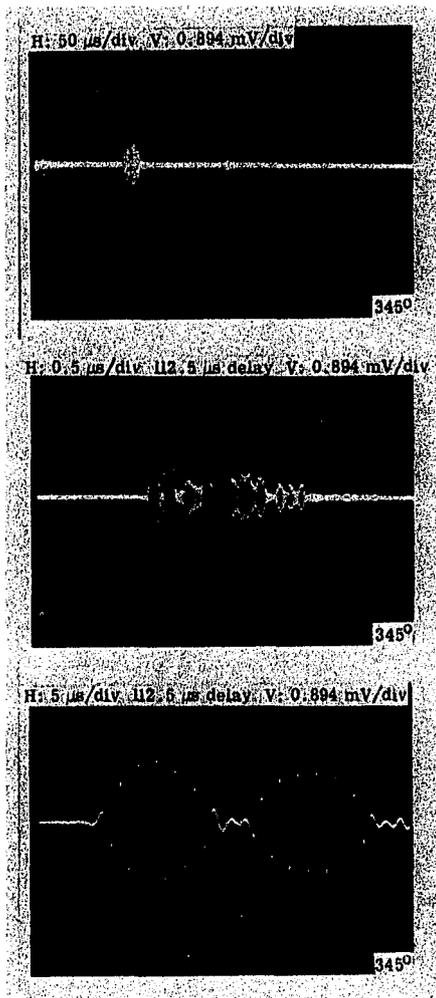


Figure 6-18. Expanded views of the RF acoustic scatter obtained from fan beam insonification of transistor heat sink positioned at 0° . Receiver angle is 345° .

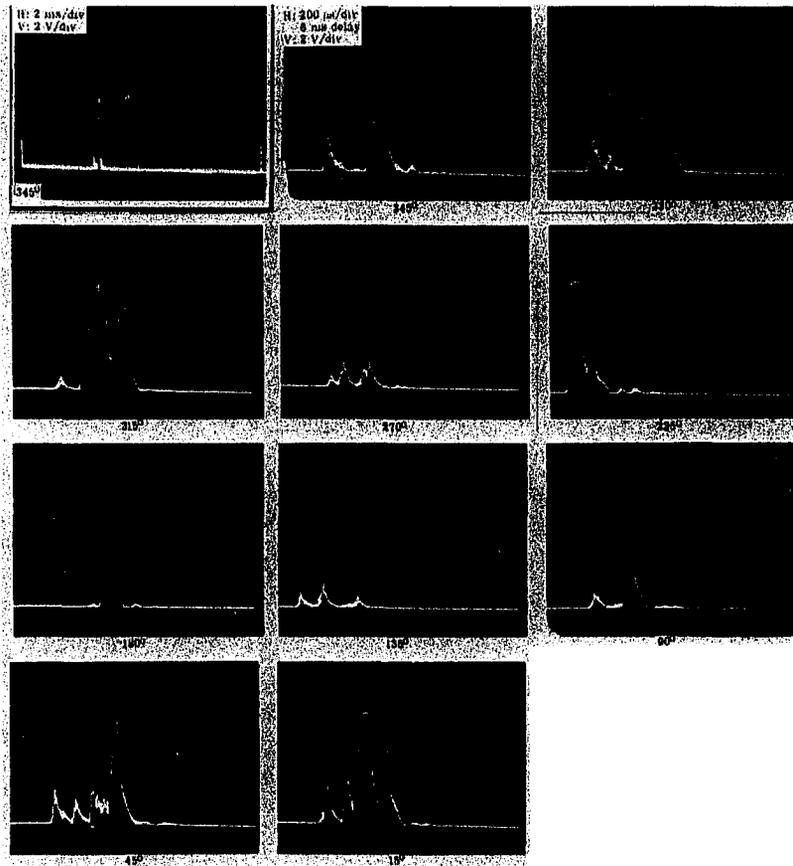


Figure 6-19. PTR envelope detected scatter obtained from fan beam insonification of transistor heat sink positioned at 0° . Data obtained at various receiver positions as indicated.

As a final test of the fan beam probes, two additional, more tissue-like targets were used. The first specimen, shown in Figure 6-20 is a slab of polyurethane gel (approximately $1.5" \times 1.75" \times 0.75"$) with six polyethylene tubes (diameters ranging from about 1.5 - 4 thirty-seconds of an inch) pushed into the polyurethane to create a cavity, such as a blood

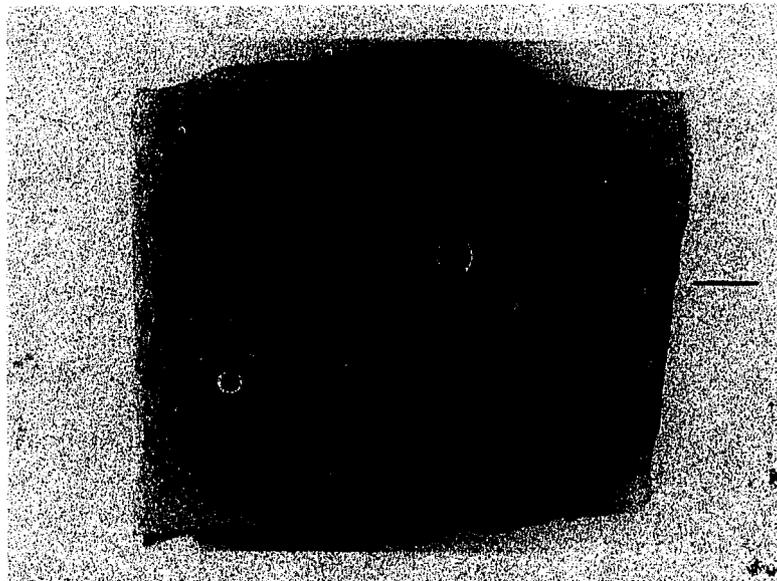


Figure 6-20. "Home-made" tissue phantom - polyurethane gel (1.5" × 1.75" × 0.75") with six polyethylene tubes mounted on stainless steel rod (0.064" diameter)

vessel. This target was held in place in the water tank by a 0.064" diameter stainless steel rod located approximately at the center of the target. First, an eight transducer scan was run, resulting in an apparently unrecognizable image. However, in manipulating the transducers during the scanning process, it appeared that echoes were originating off the tubes but falling between the positions of measurement. Figure 6-21 shows the resultant sixteen transducer image. As discussed earlier, polyurethane has an acoustic impedance similar to that of water. Looking at the image, however, it appears that the relatively low transmitted energy density and rather poor fan beam sensitivity combined to permit little penetration to and/or reception from the metal rod supporting the target at its center. Comparing the target's photograph and reconstructed image quite carefully, the polyurethane outline is quite readily discernible. Two of the polyethylene tubes (top left and bottom right) appear to be indicated by the dark, outlined spots. Using some imaginative pattern recognition,

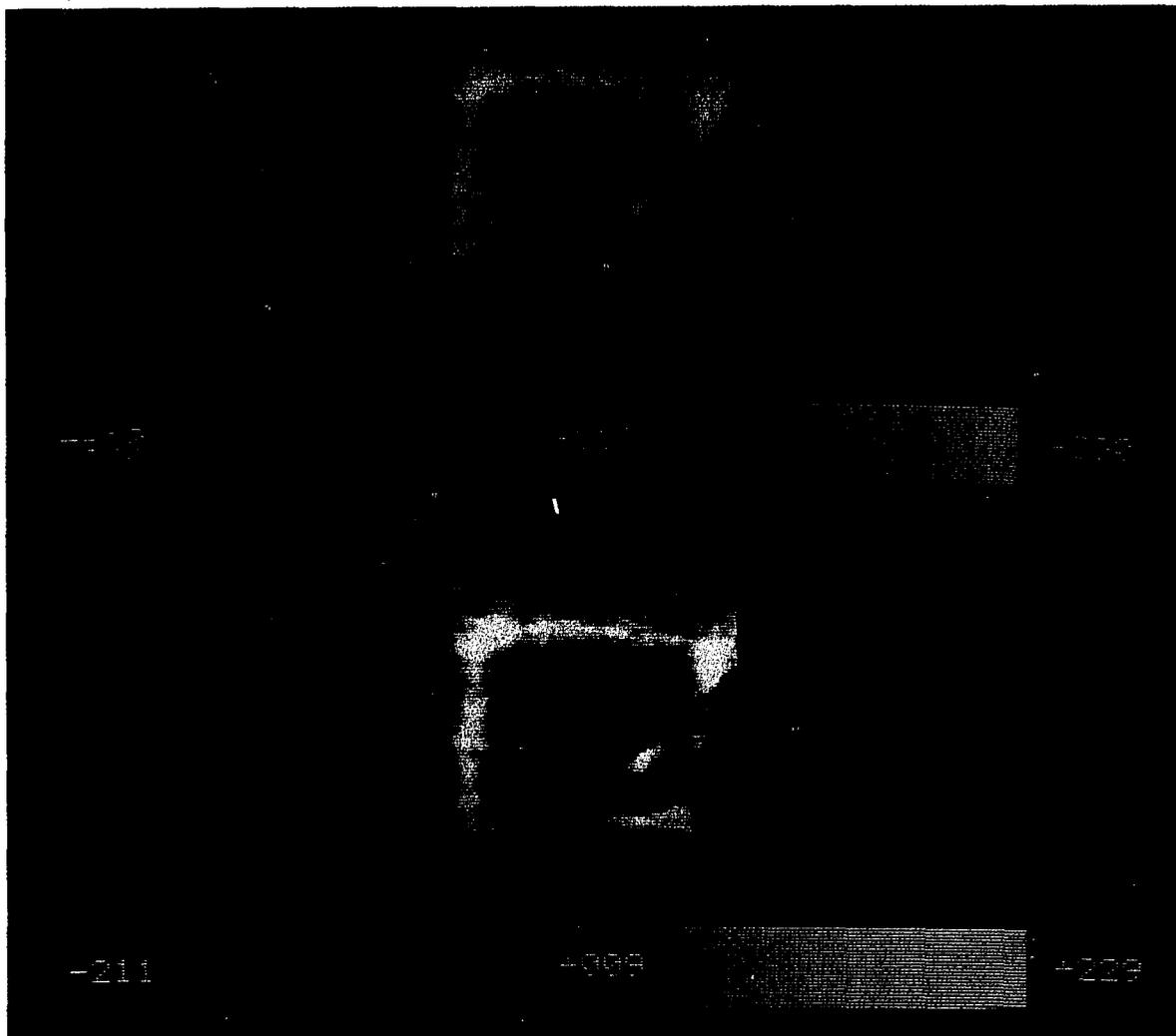


Figure 6-21. Sixteen fan beam reconstruction of target shown in Figure 6-20 (top - broad gray scale, bottom - narrow gray scale)

indications as to the other tubes' placement can be found. As discussed earlier, the fact that the beam possesses a finite thickness means that the image formed is the composite of all infinitely thin cross-sections encountered by the beam. As a result, unless, for this particular case, the tubes are perfectly vertical, the resultant image should indicate the tubular cross-sections as more of an elliptical region. Such appears to be the case here.

The final data attempted with the fan beam probe was an eight transducer scan of a chicken heart. The heart was oriented apex up, with a 0.064" diameter stainless steel rod passing through the heart's central vertical axis from base to apex. A full screen (320 × 320 pixel) image reconstruction was performed as shown in Figure 6-22. It appeared, however, that although echoes could be seen as originating from the outer surface of the heart, the echoes from the supporting rod were so large that they would, in general, saturate the receiving amplifier before enough gain could be obtained to view the small tissue echoes. The rod location is clearly seen in the image. An analagous circumstance exists in B-scan when one tries to image bone and tissue. As will be described towards the end of this chapter, when taking straight beam data of the chicken heart, a mounting fixture containing a horizontal pin was prepared so as to have only heart tissue in the imaging region.

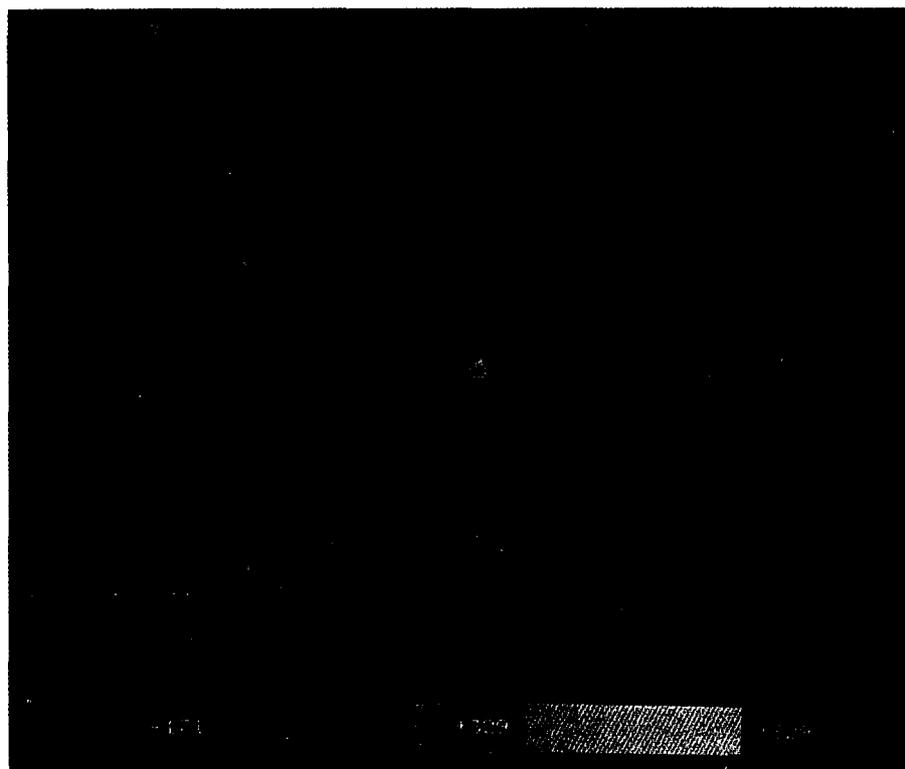
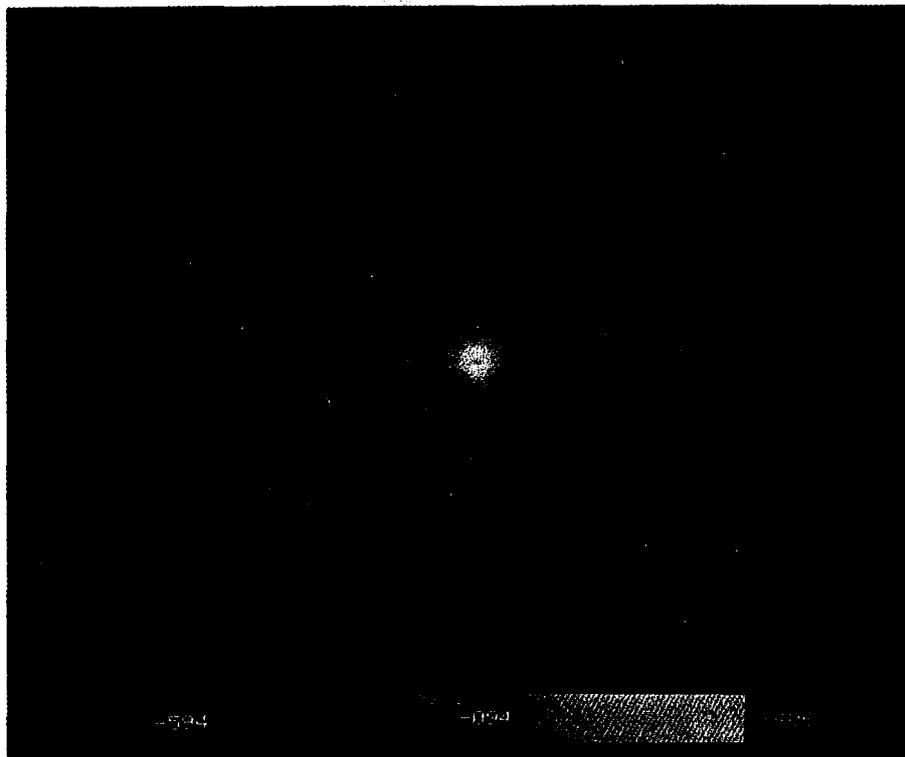


Figure 6-22. Reconstructed cross-sectional image of a chicken heart vertically mounted on a stainless steel rod from data collected with a simulated array of eight fan beams

As mentioned in the foregoing material, due to the difficulties experienced with the prototype fan beam transducer, only sample data was taken. The remaining data to be presented was taken using the pair of Panametrics 5 MHz, non-focused transducers described earlier. These transducers are sufficient for preliminary testing, as demonstrated at the beginning of this chapter. However, by not exhibiting a fan beam geometry, the two primary differences in imaging performance will be the resultant decreased area of uniform insonification as well as the more highly directional transducer receiving characteristic. Of course, the major advantage of the standard beam probe over the fan beam transducer, as already demonstrated, is increased sensitivity.

Thus, after placing the Panametrics transducers back into the PSI hardware, system alignment was checked by imaging the 0.064" stainless steel rod. Just as when using this target for checking fan beam alignment, the same problems of rod play and curvature, in addition to the non-true rotation of the specimen platform were present. The image of Figure 6-23 was obtained for an eight transducer scan, indicating reasonable system alignment. However, note how strong the left side of the image appears. This occurrence is probably due to asymmetric scatter from the specimen not being centered exactly in the beam.

As depicted in the upper left portion of Figure 6-24, the next object imaged was a segment of a natural sponge. The sponge, as shown, is approximately 2.25" long and 0.5" to 0.75" in diameter. The sponge was mounted on a base by a small segment of a 1/4" steel rod exposed to one end. A sixteen transducer scan was performed, insonifying the sponge approximately (as "eye-balled") through the transverse sections (1-5) indicated in the figure, with the resultant image as shown in Figures 6-25 and 6-26, for successive gray scale windowing and gray scale identification (lower portion of Figure 6-25). After imaging, the sponge was embedded in an epoxy resin (Norcast



Figure 6-23. Eight transducer Panametrics scan of 0.064" stainless steel rod located at center of simulated array used to check hardware alignment

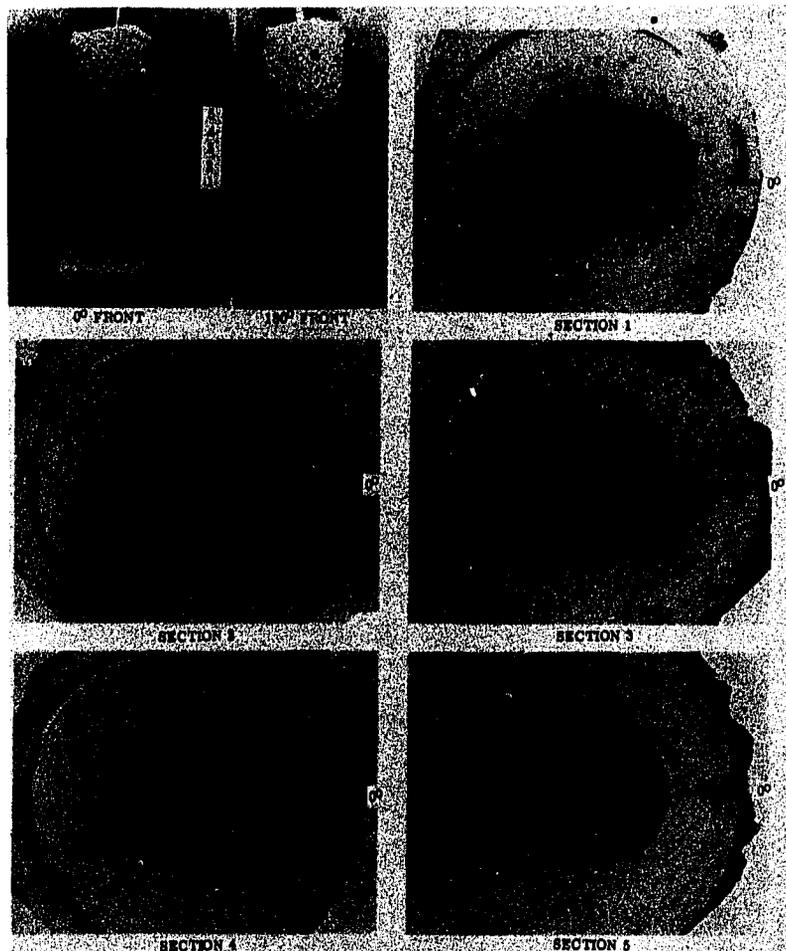


Figure 6-24. Natural sponge imaged by sixteen transducer Panametrics array. Sponge segment shown (upper left) is approximately 2.25" long and 0.5" to 0.75" in diameter. Approximately 4 mm thick cross-sectional views (looking from the bottom up) of the sponge embedded in epoxy are shown. Scan orientation is indicated.

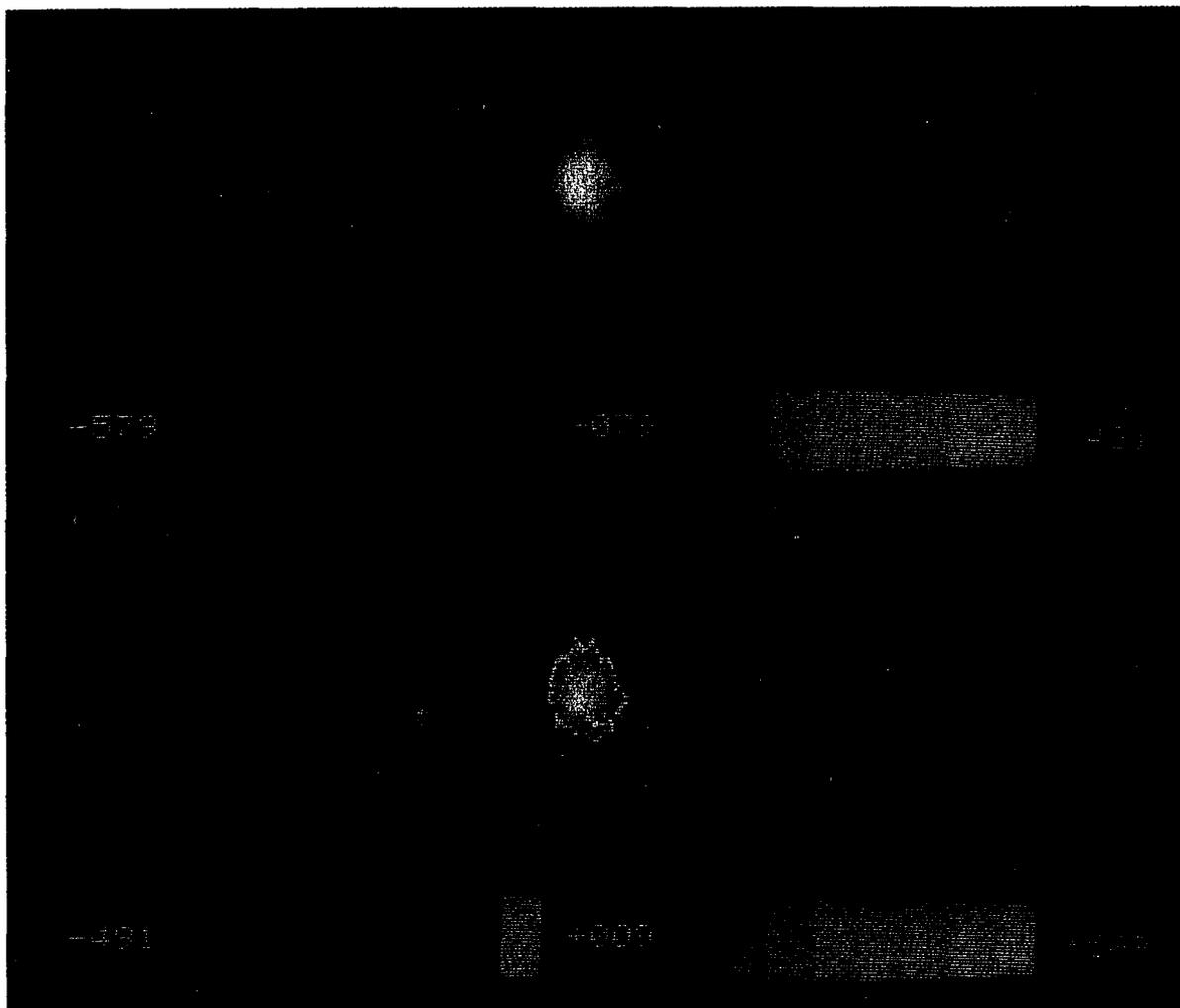


Figure 6-25. Sixteen transducer Panametrics scan of natural sponge shown in Figure 6-24. Central 80×80 pixel region of image is shown. Bottom image is gray scale identified to show external hole structure of sponge

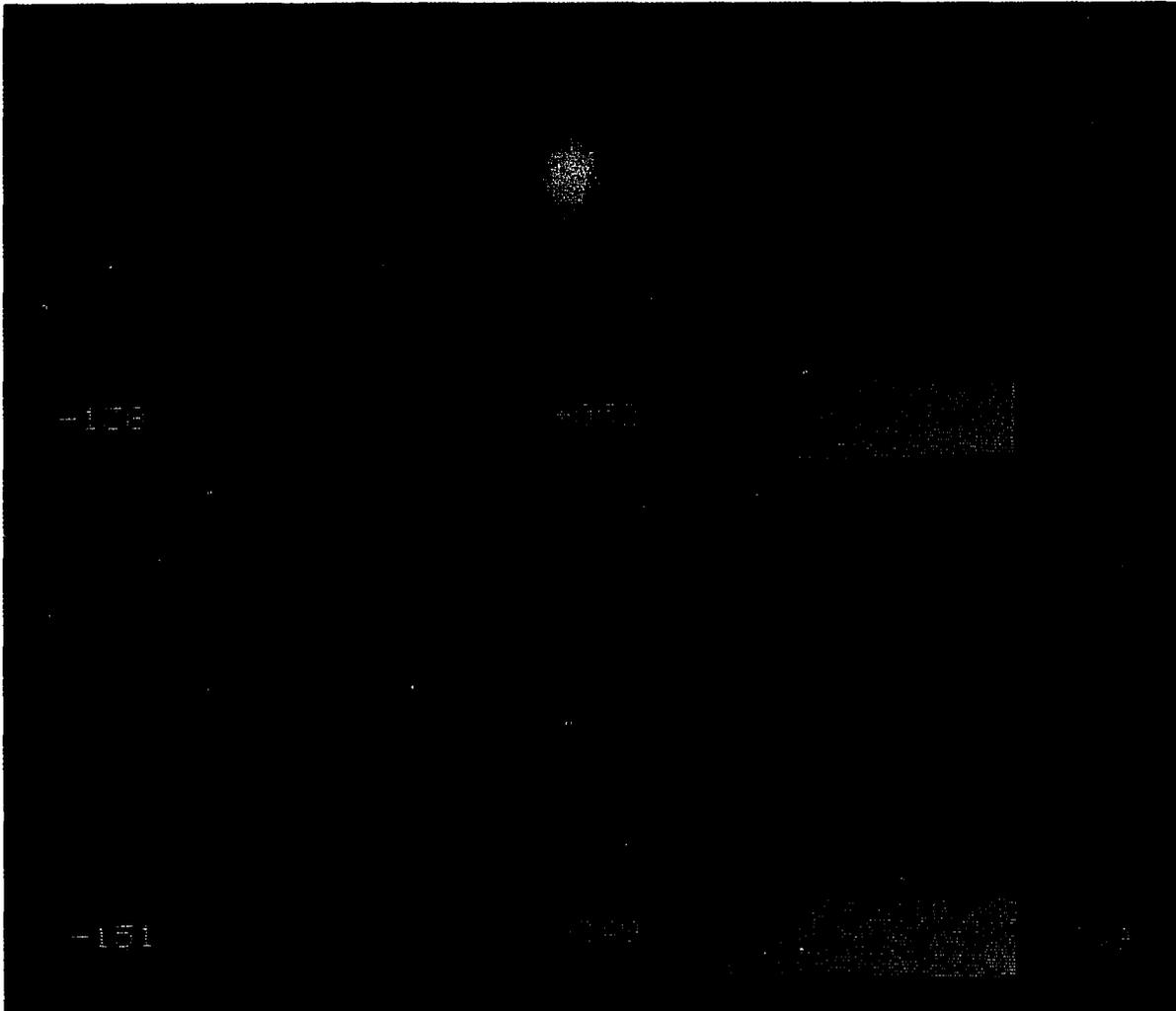


Figure 6-26. Sixteen transducer Panametrics scan of natural sponge shown in Figure 6-24. Central 80×80 pixel region of image is shown. Additional gray scale windowing from that of Figure 6-25

and Norcure) and then sectioned into approximately 4 mm thick segments as indicated in Figure 6-24. Now, in comparing the cross-sectional photos with the PSI scan, it must be emphasized that although it is tempting to compare the image with a single cross-section, the finite beam thickness (approximately 0.5") dictates that several of the sections shown will contribute to a composite image. Comparing the photographed cross-sections (view is looking up from bottom, 0° on right) with the resultant image (view is looking down from top, 0° on right), sections 2, 3 and 4 appear to be in view. In particular note the dark holes at the lower left and right corners (enhanced in the lower portion of Figure 6-25). They appear to correlate quite well, both in location and appearance, with the actual specimen. One particularly nice feature about the sponge is that its geometry and texture contribute to a rather uniform scattering pattern of reasonable amplitude. Figure 6-27 shows sample PTR output waveforms for the Panametrics sponge scan, with the specimen at 0° and receiver position as indicated. (The PTR voltage input range was set to $\pm 0.1V$. In conjunction with the PTR (+) full scale offset used, $0V-0.2V$ of envelope detected input maps into a $0-10V$ PTR output.) Note the much higher frequency scattering pattern as compared with that of the earlier objects scanned. Figure 6-28 shows the PTR envelope detected output for the same situation as in Figure 6-28, but over a narrow range of receiver angles, to demonstrate the wide scatter variability with only slight directional changes. Particularly from those results, one can readily see the large amount of additional information in off-normal scatter which is not monitored in B-scan.

As was done when imaging with the fan beam transducers, a "home-made" tissue phantom was constructed out of polyurethane gel and polyethylene tubing, as shown in Figure 6-29. Due to the smaller active imaging area of the straight

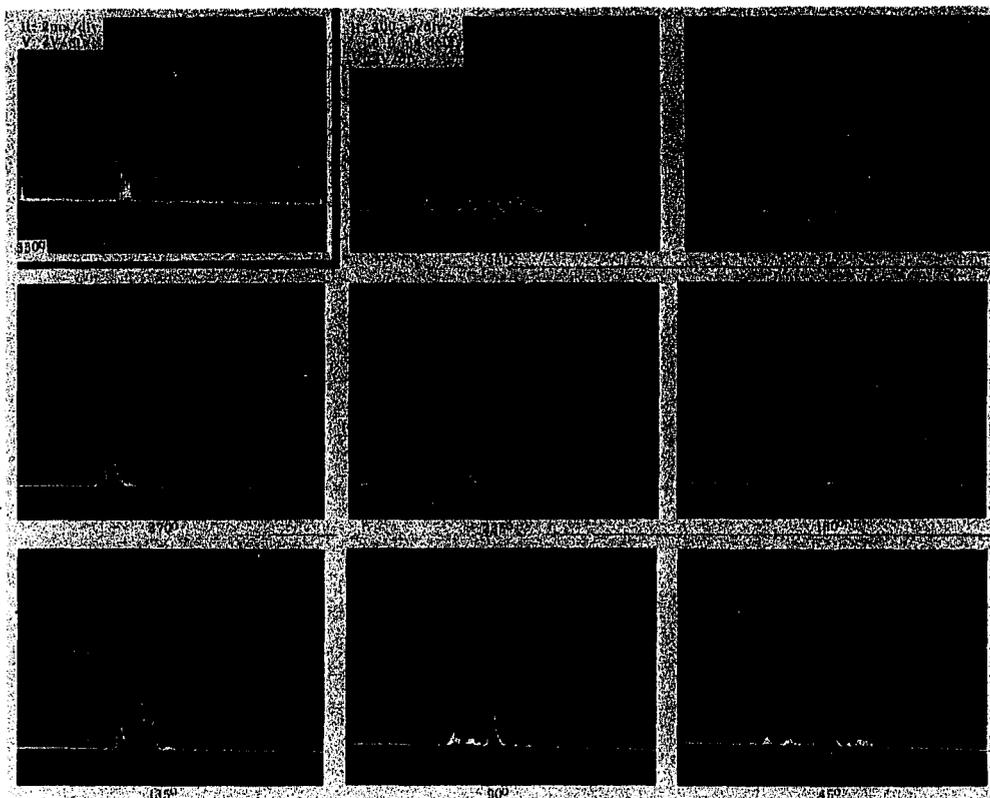


Figure 6-27. Panametrics scan of natural sponge. PTR envelope detected output signals for specimen at 0° and receiver position as indicated

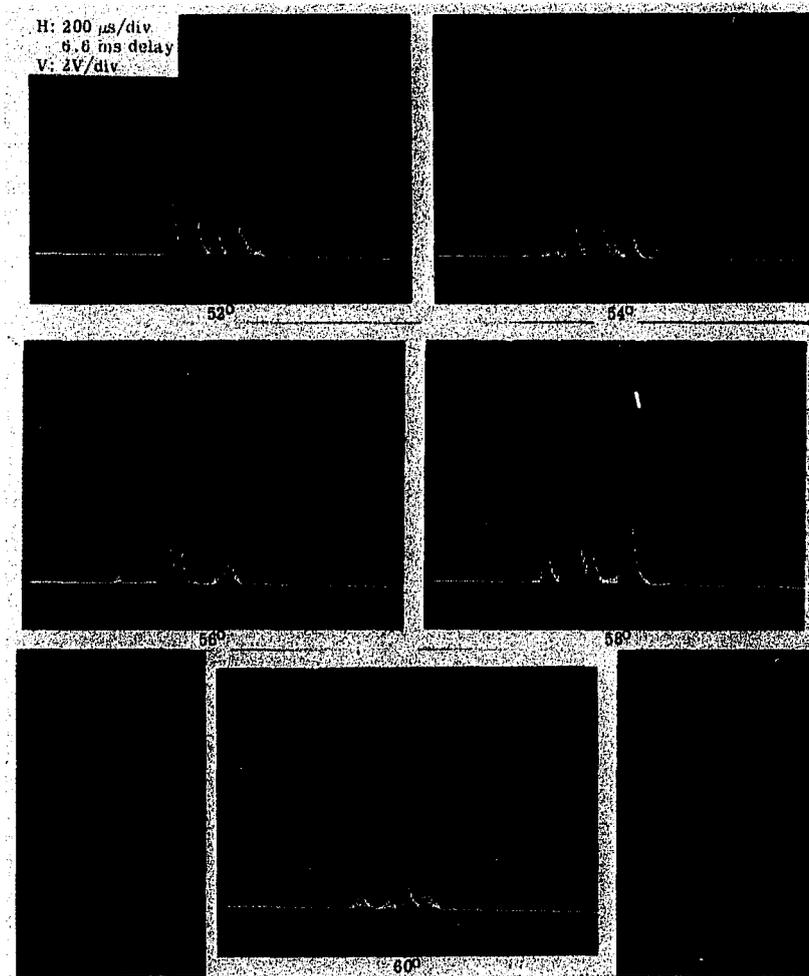


Figure 6-28. PTR envelope detected output for identical situation as in Figure 6-27 but for a narrow range of receiver angles to demonstrate the wide scattering variability with only slight changes in receiver position.

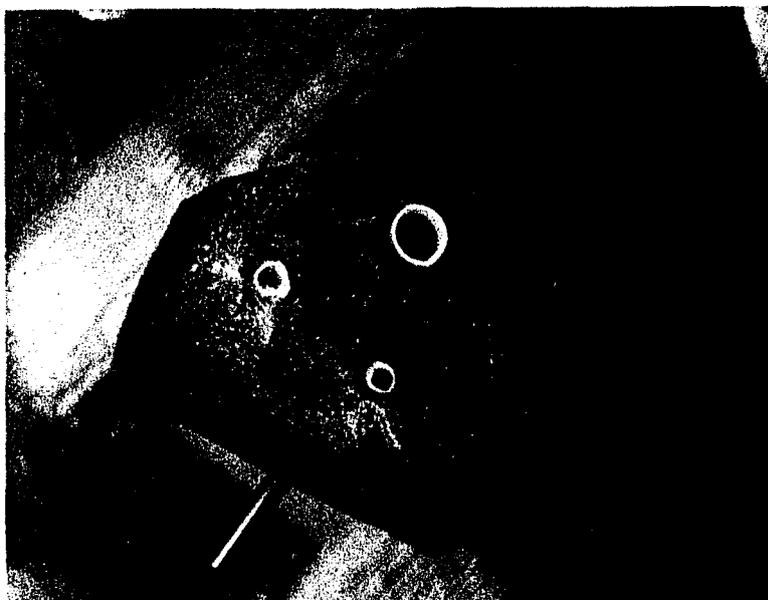


Figure 6-29. "Home-made" tissue phantom constructed from polyurethane gel and three polyethylene tubes (approximately 0.5" on a side by 0.75" thick) and mounted on a horizontal 0.064" diameter stainless steel rod (located outside the imaging region).

beam array as compared with that of the fan beam, a smaller target (approximately 0.5" on a side by 0.75" thick) had to be constructed. Furthermore, as indicated in the figure, the mounting hardware was kept outside the uniform imaging region by using a horizontally oriented pin, mounted on the usual plastic base. Figure 6-30 shows the corresponding image resulting from scanning with a simulated sixteen transducer (Panametrics) array. Particularly in the last level of windowing shown (bottom of figure), all three polyethylene tubes can be seen. Note the relative correspondence between actual tube diameter and corresponding "hole" diameter of image. However, based on the chopped up appearance of each image (upper portion) it appears that part of the target extended outside the region of uniform insonification during the scanning process. Again, it must be kept in mind that the finite beam thickness will determine the

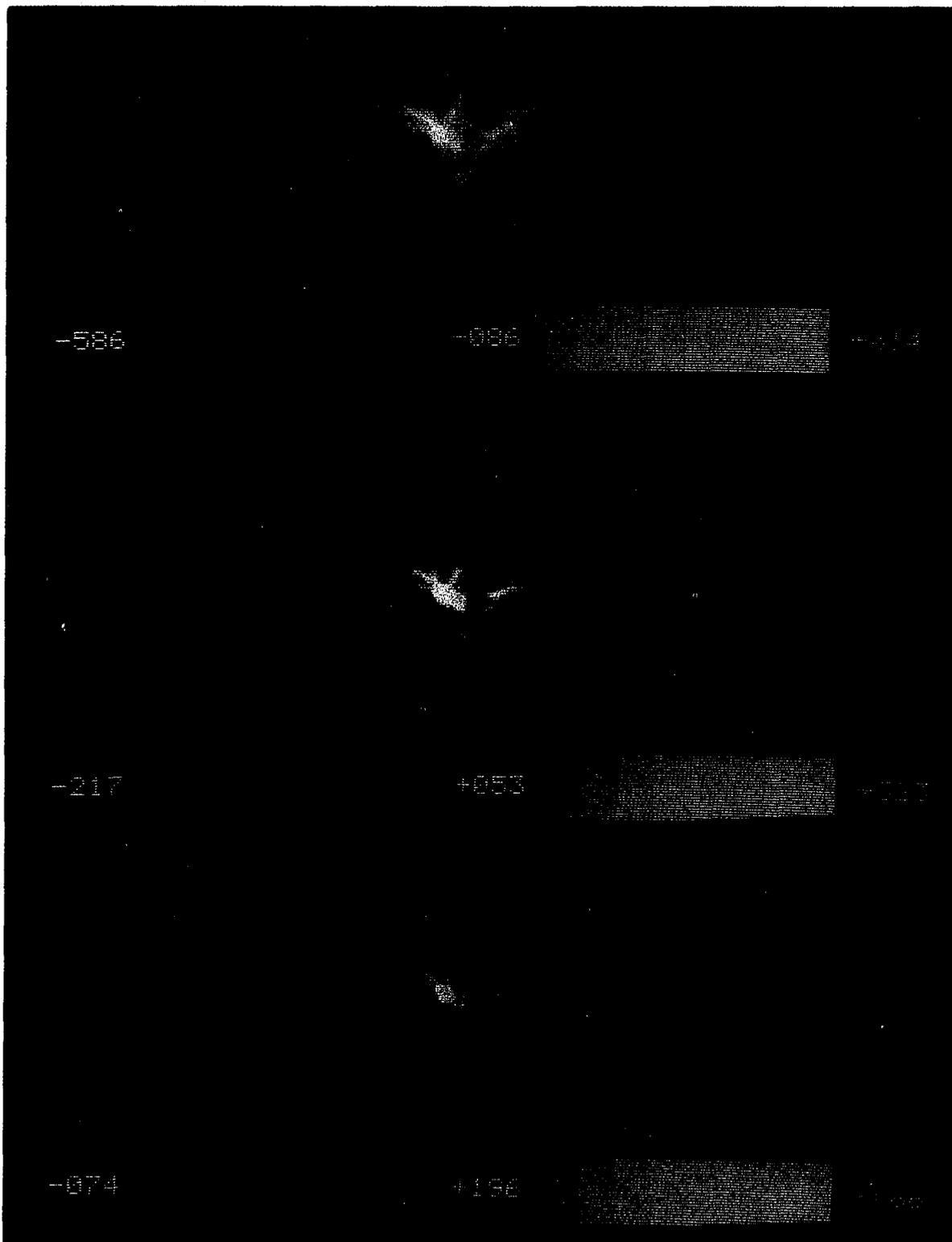


Figure 6-30. Reconstructed image from sixteen transducer (Panametrics - straight beam) scan of tissue phantom shown in Figure 6-29.

vertical resolution. The image shown is actually a vertical composite of many infinitely thin transverse planes throughout the specimen.

The final specimen was a chicken heart obtained from a local butcher and kept in saline solution for approximately one day under refrigeration. In all, it was estimated that the heart had been excised for approximately five days prior to imaging. The heart was mounted on the rotating specimen platform identically to the polyurethane target just discussed (Figure 6-31). Two sixteen transducer scans were performed. Following the scans, the heart was fixed in formalin solution for several days and then sectioned with a scalpel (Figure 6-32). Between the fixing and sectioning processes it appeared that the heart flattened in cross-section. Thus the exact outer shape should not correspond to that of the earlier formed image. As a further reference, Figure 6-33 shows, the base of the heart (section 1 of Figure 6-32), as viewed from base to apex.

For the first data set, the heart was oriented as pictured in the upper portion of Figure 6-31, with the zero degree scan reference indicated by the black line at the right of the figure. "Eye balling" the relative transducer and target positions, it appeared that the apex half of the heart was insonified. Figure 6-34 demonstrates the resultant image, for several levels of gray scale windowing and identification. The dark spot at the center of the image appears to be the left ventricle as in sections four through six (Figure 6-32).

The second data set was taken one day after the first (the heart refrigerated in saline in the interim). This time the heart was rotated 180° from its original position (as in the lower portion of Figure 6-31, zero degree reference being at the extreme right corner of the Plexiglas base). The heart was propped up slightly higher than for the first scan and so, again "eye-balling" the setup, it appeared that the base end of the heart was in the

main beam. Figure 6-35 contains the resultant image, which appears somewhat comparable to sections two through three (Figure 6-32). The dark spots at the middle right and lower left portions of the image seem comparable to parts of the right and left ventricle, respectively. The very bright section

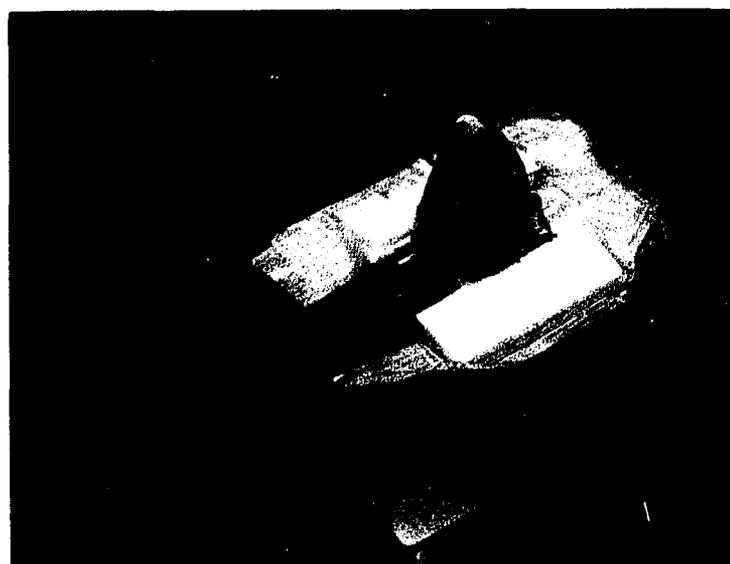
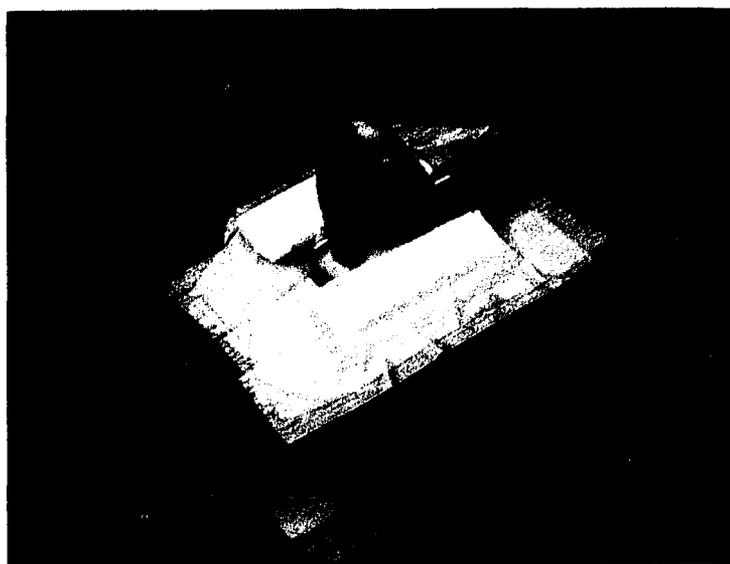


Figure 6-31. Front (upper photo) and rear (lower photo) of chicken heart scanned with simulated sixteen transducer Panametrics array. Black line at right of top photo indicates 0° scan reference

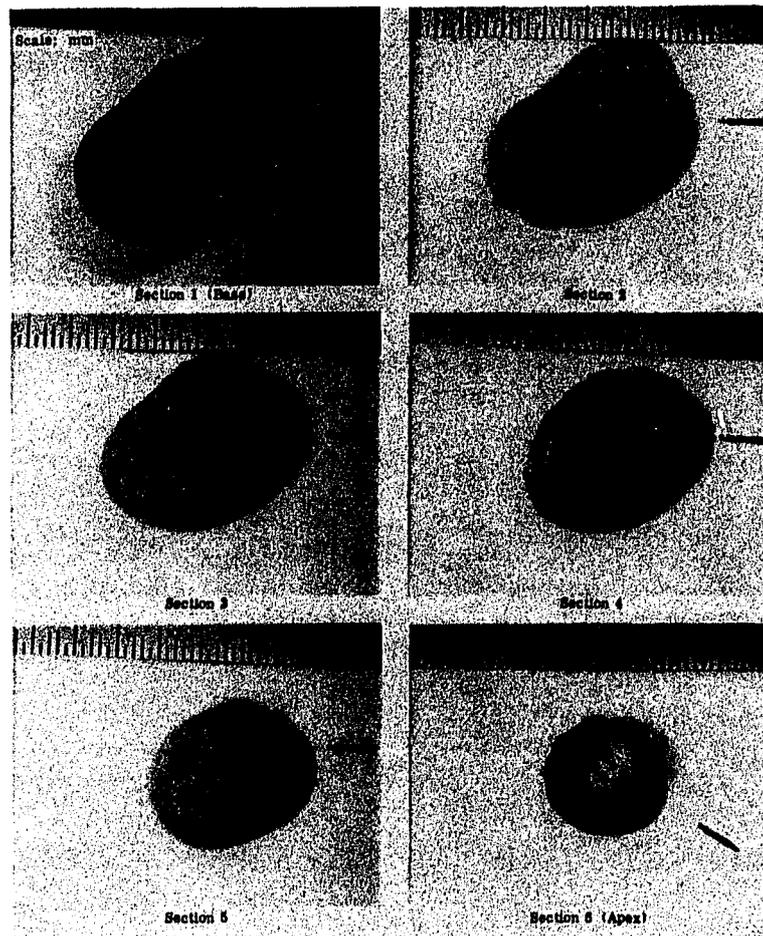


Figure 6-32. Cross-sectional views of heart shown in Figure 6-31 after fixing with formalin solution. Black line at right of each photo corresponds to the zero degree scan reference. Each section is approximately 5 mm thick. View is from apex to base (i.e. from the top down in Figure 6-31)

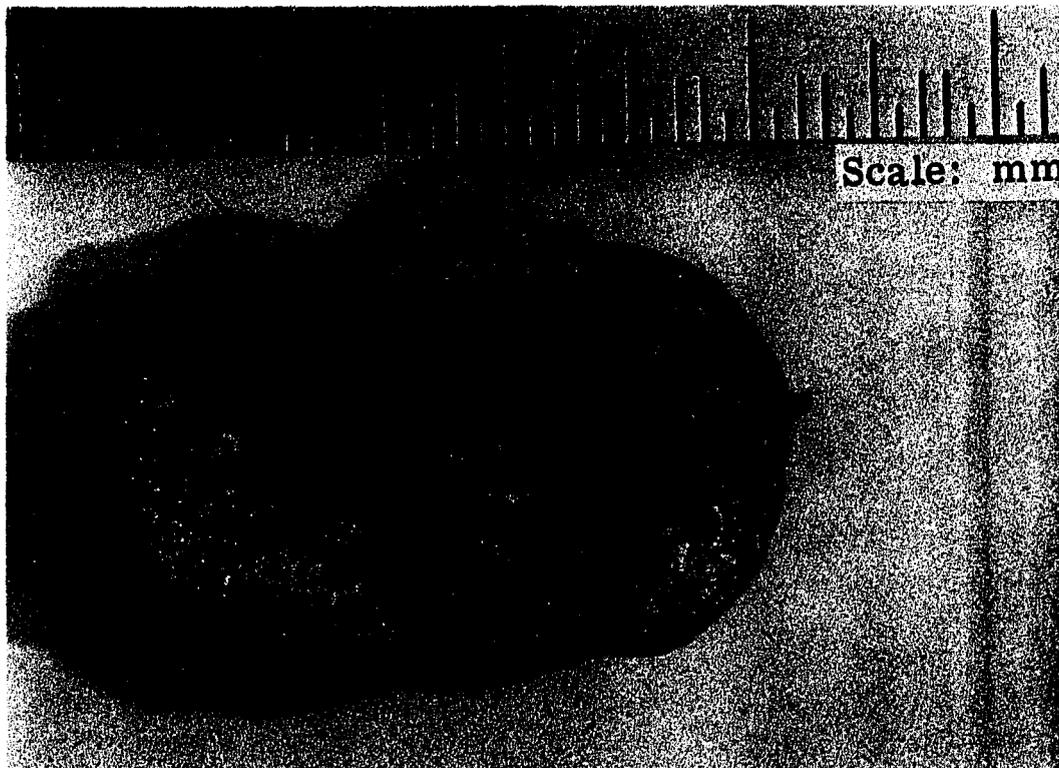


Figure 6-33. View of base of chicken heart cross-section (section 1 of Figure 6-32) looking from base towards apex. Black line indicates zero degree orientation.

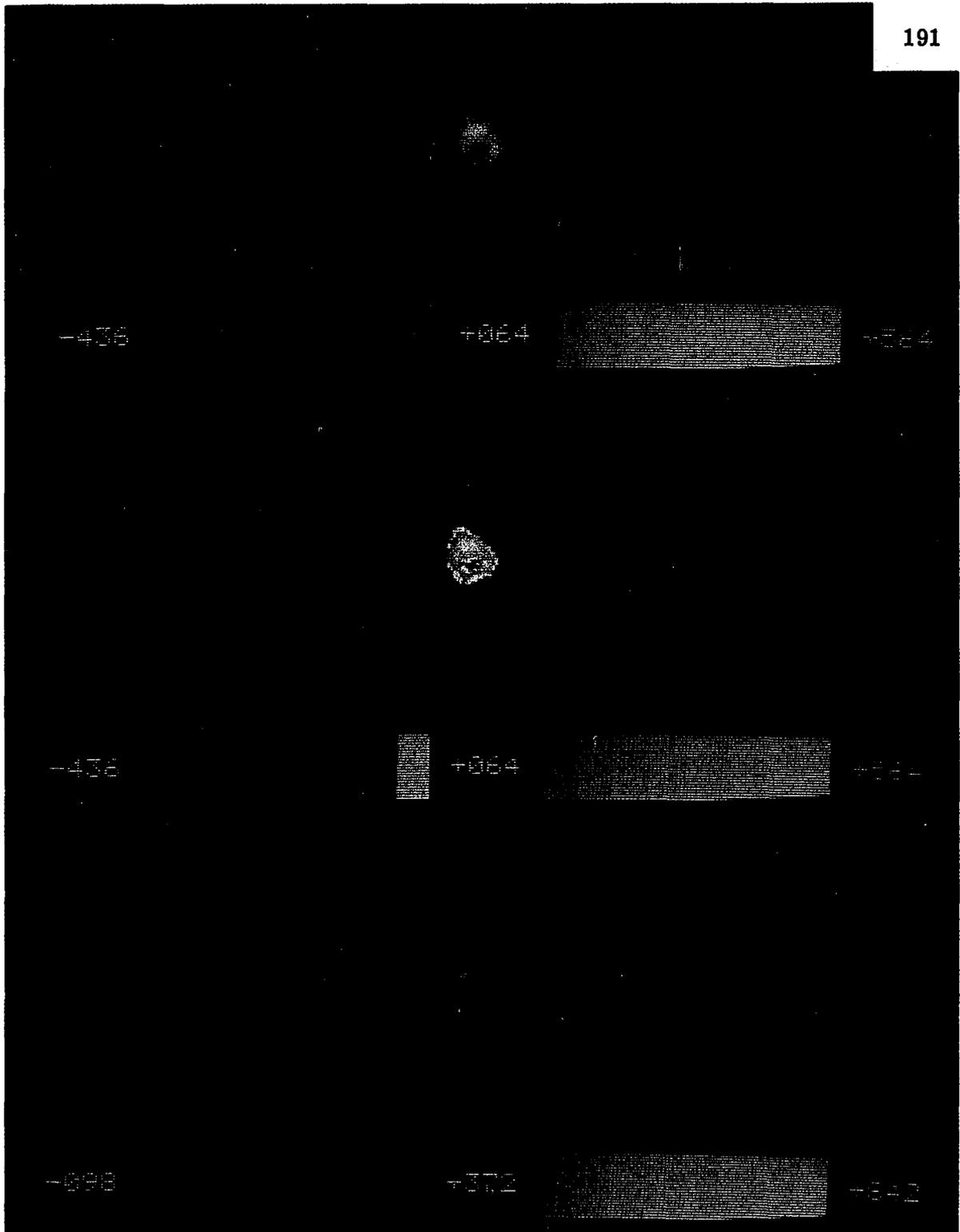


Figure 6-34. Sixteen transducer reconstruction of chicken heart shown in Figures 6-31 thru 6-33 with various degrees of gray scale windowing. Orientation is that shown in the upper portion of Figure 6-31 (0° on right). View is from apex to base (i.e. from the top down). Middle image is gray scale identified to better indicate outer tissue surface and what appears to be the left ventricle

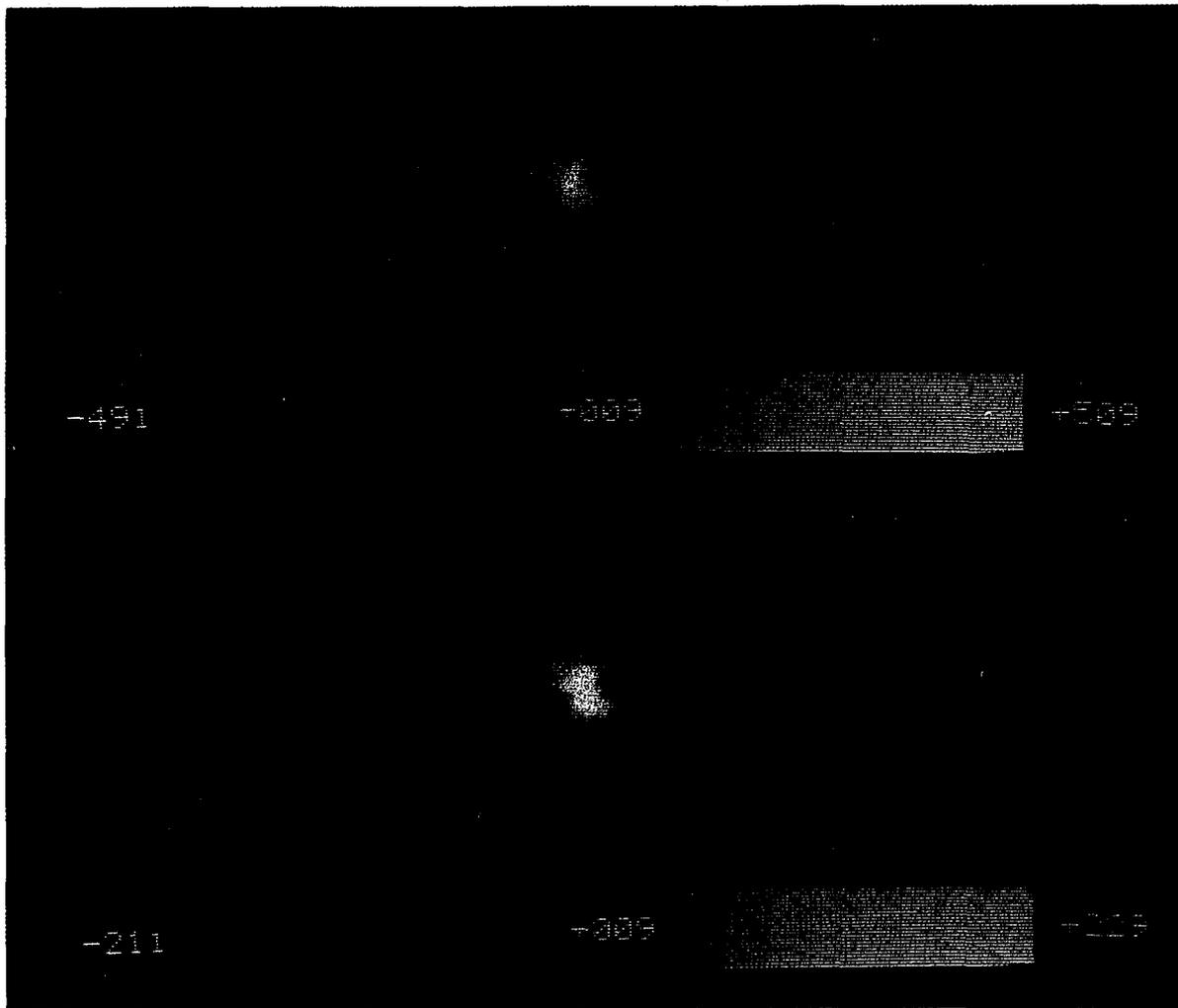


Figure 6-35. Similar scan to that of Figure 6-34 but with heart rotated 180° (0° reference is on right lower portion of Figure 6-31) and a slightly lower (towards base) portion of heart imaged. The two dark circles appear to be the left and right ventricles with the central bright region being the interventricular septum.

would then represent the interventricular septum. However, a real definitive comparison is difficult, particularly since the lower portion has the chopped off appearance of Figure 6-30. This result suggests that the base region of the heart, being of larger diameter than the apical region, fell outside the uniformly insonified region. It becomes apparent that in order to make any reliable correlation between the reconstructed image and tissue specimen, precise positioning hardware is required in order to determine exact specimen and transducer positions. Secondly, a more precise sectioning technique would be helpful so as not to distort the specimen's geometry. Figures 6-36 and 6-37 present some reference RF and envelope detected waveforms, respectively, corresponding to the chicken heart scan with the specimen positioned as in the upper portion of Figure 6-34.

C. ACHIEVEMENTS AND PROBLEMS

The data presented in this chapter pertaining to both biological and non-biological materials demonstrate the potential value of Pulse-Scatter Imaging as a technique for both high quality medical imaging and general materials imaging tasks. Compared with results obtained by current commercial techniques (e.g. B-scan), the images obtained in this investigation have been quite crude. However, it must be re-emphasized that no attempt was made at developing "tuned" hardware or software in this study, but rather the goal was to conduct an initial feasibility study by taking only a preliminary pencil-and-paper concept, analyzing and updating it and demonstrating its physical performance using real laboratory data. This latter task necessarily involved the design of an organized protocol in addition to the required hardware and software. In this respect, then, the results obtained may be termed "worst-case". Had encouraging data not been obtained, then the conclusion which might have been

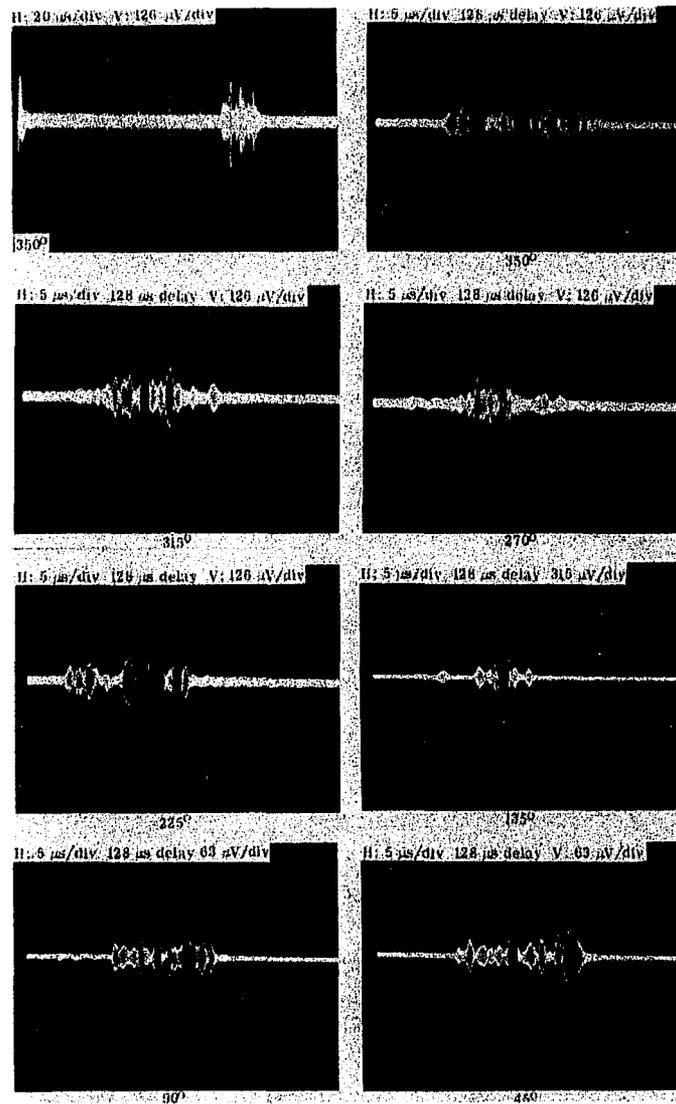


Figure 6-36. Sample RF waveforms for situation corresponding to Figure 6-34 with specimen at 0° and receiver positioning as indicated.

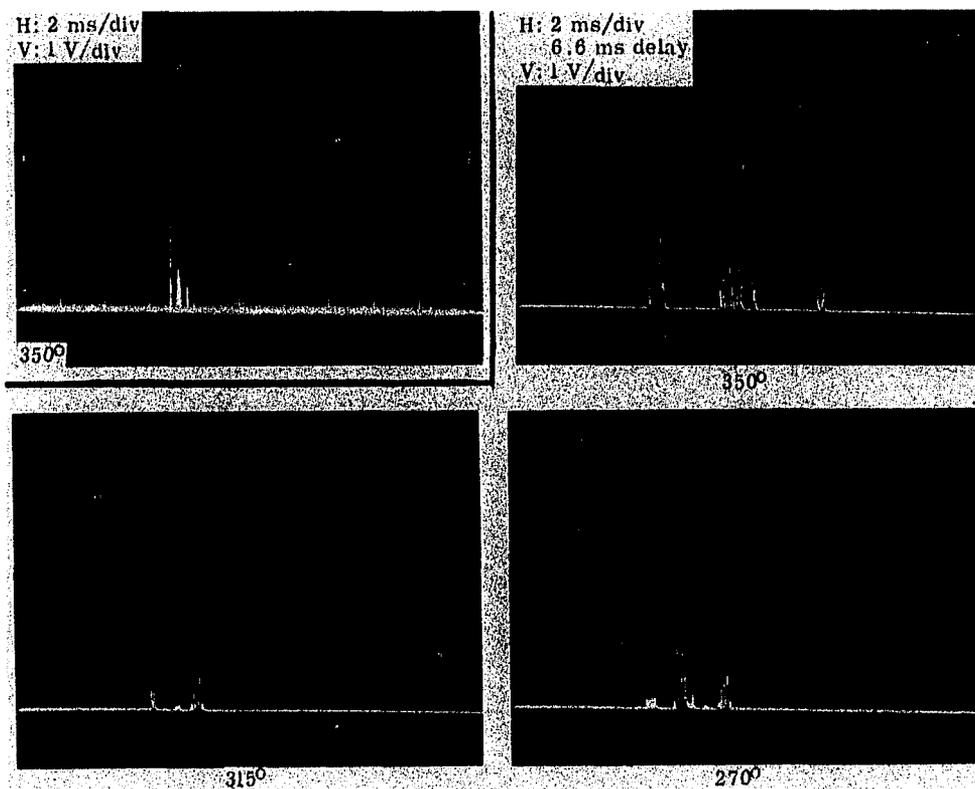


Figure 6-37. Sample PTR envelope detected output signals corresponding to RF waveforms of Figure 6-36

drawn was that further system "tuning" or sophistication would be required before the basic concept could be truly disproved. Thus, bearing the above in mind in conjunction with the potential advantages of PSI, summarized in Section I(A), a dedicated effort should be launched aimed at developing a prototype system suitable for clinical use. Of course, such a task would encompass high level work in the areas of transducer design, electronic signal acquisition and processing, mathematical aspects of image reconstruction and digital image processing. As a reliable quantitative capability has not yet been achieved, obviously, tissue characterization could not be attempted. However, there is no doubt that once such a goal is attained, it is expected that in conjunction with the use of various signal and image processing techniques, greater tissue characterization than currently possible with B-scan techniques will come to pass by use of the additional scattered data.

The following brief discussion of some of the fundamental problems encountered in this investigation is intended as an aid to future development of PSI. The most logical place to begin this discussion is with the transducers used. Although the standard "straight beam" performed quite well for the purpose of this investigation, in order to get the acoustic coverage necessary to image objects with as large a diameter as the human body, a fan beam is required. Aside from what appeared to be a materials defect in the manufacturing of the prototype fan beam transducers, causing delamination of electrode material from the ceramic as well as blistering and peeling of the quarter wave front matching layer, the additional anticipated problems of excessive beam thickness, reduced sensitivity and sidelobe generation also contributed to deteriorated fan beam performance. Dedicated research and development is now required to produce a wide-angle, uniform fan beam with increased

sensitivity. As alluded to back in Section II(D), the three basic methods which may be utilized for fan beam generation are use of a lens and standard ceramic, use of a shaped ceramic, and mechanical sweeping of a "pencil beam" probe over the desired region of coverage. Separate transmitting on receiving transducers are also a possibility. Additionally, reduced beam thickness is necessary if better planar resolution is to be obtained. Finally, it would be advantageous for the transducer developed to possess as broadband a characteristic as possible (while still maintaining high sensitivity). Such a design would facilitate the use of multiple frequency techniques to be recommended in Section VII(C).

In so far as basic acoustics is concerned, multipath signals have thus far been treated as noise. For reasons discussed earlier, multipath signals have a greater chance of being received with PSI than for standard B-scan systems, since B-scan only utilizes pulse echo signals. Although multipath signal reinforcement did not appear present for the limited number of cases examined thus far, one must always be aware of such a possible influence.

As mentioned earlier, the PSI reconstruction algorithm (PSIV02.FOR), being far from streamlined in its present form, requires quite a considerable amount of time (two to fifteen hours for a sixteen transducer array) for image reconstruction. A major reason for such lengthy times is the limited core memory available for image storage in the computer during the reconstruction process, requiring round-about calculations, data swapping, and intermediate disc storage. Having an available random access memory equal in size to that used for image storage and display (320×320 memory locations, in this case) would considerably reduce reconstruction time. Modifications in the current Fortran algorithm for greater efficiency would also speed things up. Ultimately, a hardware processor would be required in order to approach real

time processing. One other aspect of the reconstruction algorithm which needs modification is the fact that at present, each transducer location is assigned a single pixel location. In fact, each transducer extends over many pixels and thus the times of flight measured and corresponding distances must be viewed accordingly. The smaller the transducer the lesser the effect of this situation.

The blurring and decreased image signal-to-noise ratio associated with image smearing (as in CT) and false intersections must also be dealt with. Both of these problems will probably involve some sort of a statistical solution as preliminary analysis thus far indicates spatial variations which relate to the actual object being imaged. The problem of image smearing can probably be handled by standard deconvolution techniques once a suitable set of deconvolution functions has been determined. Mathematical techniques, it has been suggested, do exist in the classified radar systems literature, which might be applicable to processing out "false intersections" occurring in the PSI image. The incorporation of thru-transmission data into the reconstructed image, as was demonstrated, degrades the reconstructed image and should not be used. Presently any data record which contains thru-transmission information is entirely ignored. However, since such data records contain valuable scattering data outside the specific thru-transmission time-window, a scheme should be developed to utilize the valid data.

The remaining difficulties to be noted at this time relate to the transducer mounting and electronics hardware. As already emphasized, proper alignment of the transducer rotating platform and specimen table is essential for proper image registration. A means must be incorporated into the hardware to enable monitoring and precise adjustment of this alignment. Furthermore, this hardware must be machined such that all centers of rotation are true. Such was not precisely the case for the rotating specimen platform used in this study.

Finally, two difficulties were encountered with system electronics. In trying to capture a pulse-echo signal, it is necessary to have a transmit/receive (T/R) switch in order to prevent the large excitation voltage from saturating the receiving amplifier and obliterating the low amplitude received echoes. Since such a T/R switch was not available (and a simple one made from diodes was not satisfactory), the pulse-echo data had to be simulated by placing the movable receiving transducer as close to the transmitter as possible. Obviously, such a signal will contribute some error, and so a T/R switch should be incorporated into any future system.

The remaining problem to be discussed here relates to system dynamic range. The dynamic range one generally hopes to achieve in pulse-echo systems is 80 dB. Intuitively, it would seem that an even wider range would be quite useful when dealing with scattered signals as well. In order to view both high and low level signals on the transient recorder (8 bit digitization) a logarithmic compression amplifier will be required prior to transient recorder input. Thus, when transferring the compressed data to the computer, under software control, the amplitude levels can be expanded back to cover the original range (the expanded signal will still only contain 256 bits of amplitude information, however). It is at this point in the data processing where time gain compensation may be applied as well.

CHAPTER VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A. ACCOMPLISHMENTS

Some eighteen months ago, the concept of Pulse-Scatter imaging lay in the files of the General Electric Company's Electronics Laboratory, an untested concept, except for an initial preliminary computer simulation. With the present investigation now completed, the PSI concept has been worked up into a more complete theory and through both computer simulation and real data collected in the laboratory, has also been demonstrated to be an ultrasonic imaging technique of great potential value to the medical profession.

Prior to tackling the PSI concept itself, review of general ultrasonic theory and established ultrasonic imaging techniques, both medical and non-medical, were conducted. Time was spent both in the medical clinic and at case review sessions in order to get first line information as to ultrasonics as a modality for medical ultrasonic imaging as well as the associated difficulties. Hands-on clinical experience was also obtained.

Having gained a firm understanding as to the ultimate clinical application, this investigation was moved into the engineering laboratory, where the PSI concept was analyzed, a general protocol was established, and computer simulations were conducted. While these simulations pointed out many of the potential difficulties, including reconstruction smearing and ambiguous image

formation, nevertheless, the simulated targets were clearly reconstructed based on these results. Additions and corrections to the original theory were made.

Following the successful collection of some real data by hand with subsequent computer image reconstruction, a facility was designed to enable semi-automated data acquisition under computer control. Data could be acquired corresponding to a PSI array of up to and including twenty-four transducers, limited only by the disc memory capacity. Both inanimate (e.g. metal rods, Plexiglas triangle, transistor heat sink) and more biological-like (e.g. natural sponge, polyurethane/polyethylene tissue-phantom, excised chicken heart) structures were scanned, resulting in the reconstruction of rather crude but recognizable images. Although some data was collected using experimental prototype commercially obtained fan beam probes, most of the data was taken using standard non-focused transducers due to the fact that manufacturing defects in the fan probe produced unreliable results. In all, the general PSI feasibility has been demonstrated for medical ultrasonic imaging. Although widespread applications to tissue characterization were indicated, such a demonstration will have to wait until a more advanced (i.e. funded) PSI developmental effort is launched, whereby a more highly calibrated and quantitative (i.e. tuned) system can be built.

B. EVALUATION OF THE PSI TECHNIQUE

The data obtained in this investigation pertaining to both biological and non-biological materials demonstrate the potential value of pulse-scatter imaging as a technique for both high quality medical imaging and general materials imaging tasks. Although the images obtained in this investigation are quite crude compared with those obtained with commercially available apparatus, it must

be emphasized that no attempt in this study was made at developing optimized hardware or software. At the present time it appears that system resolution is comparable to B-scan, however, after final "tuning", the PSI image should possess more information than presently contained in a B-scan image. Digital image format allows for ready application of state-of-the-art image processing and feature extraction. PSI appears to be a feasible technique for medical imaging and should be pursued.

C. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER INVESTIGATION

This study being only the very beginning of much hard work which lies ahead before PSI can be truly realized as a medical imaging modality, numerous recommendations for further investigation and development may be enumerated at this time. A brief list of the major points (in no particular order) is as follows:

- (i) develop a reliable fan beam transducer possessing the somewhat mutually exclusive characteristics of wideband and high sensitivity
- (ii) obtain a T/R switch to enable acquisition of the required pulse-echo data
- (iii) design and implement a front-end logarithmic amplifier for capturing of the wide dynamic range required
- (iv) design and build better transducer and specimen mounting hardware, where alignment can be assured and fine movements may be accurately controlled
- (v) develop a more sophisticated mathematical theory (probably in conjunction with various simulations) to determine the required number and type of transducers in the PSI array

- (vi) determine the appropriate mathematics and modify the reconstruction algorithm to minimize the probability of a false intersection
- (vii) modify the PSI reconstruction algorithm to be able to magnify a reconstructed image or reconstruct it to a given display size
- (viii) develop the hardware (e.g. stepper motor control), and software to enable fully automated and monitored data acquisition by having computerized control of transducer position and data acquisition
- (ix) construct an actual array and image objects similar to those used in the present investigation
- (x) design a variable time-gain compensation (VTGC) scheme to correct for increased signal attenuation with increased time of travel
- (xi) improve image processing and signal processing software — think about hardware implementation
- (xii) design an aesthetic system to couple the imaging array to the patient. Probably some sort of water bag system will be required
- (xiii) apply radar techniques, such as chirping or pulse compression in order to minimize the effective transmitted pulse width and thus maximize resolution within the plane being imaged
- (xiv) incorporate techniques such as frequency sweeping and spectral analysis in an attempt to enhance tissue characterization capability through monitoring of frequency dependent scattering parameters
- (xv) perform preliminary prototype testing on anesthetized animals
- (xvi) in conjunction with the characteristics of the final array, design high speed switching, multiplexing and data acquisition circuitry to enable simultaneous data acquisition per transmitter from the PSI array

(xvii) Once the final two-dimensional system has been completed, construct a three dimensional array (i.e. a number of the two-dimensional arrays stacked one above the other). Such an array, with proper electronic synchronization would enable three-dimensional scatter detection, thus incorporating even more scattering information into a given image. Furthermore, given a single set of three-dimensional data, arbitrary two-dimensional cross-sections situated within the array could be reconstructed.

APPENDIX A
PROPERTIES OF SOME PIEZOELECTRIC MATERIALS

TABLE A-1. TABLE OF CONSTANTS FOR SOME PIEZOELECTRIC MATERIALS [43]

| Physical Property | Quartz | Lithium | Barium | Lead Zirconate | | Lead | Units |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------------|-------------|------|---------------------------------|
| | 0° X-cut | Sulfate | Titanate | Titanate | Metaniobate | | |
| | | 0° Y-cut | Type B | PZT-4 | PZT-5 | | |
| Density, ρ | 2.65 | 2.06 | 5.6 | 7.6 | 7.7 | 5.8 | 10^3 Kg/m^3 |
| Acoustic impedance, ρ_c | 15.2 | 11.2 | 24 | 30.0 | 28.0 | 16 | $10^6 \text{ Kg/m}^2 \text{ s}$ |
| Max. operating temp. | 550 | 75 | 70-90 | 250 | 290 | 500 | $^{\circ}\text{C}$ |
| Dielectric Constant | 4.5 | 10.3 | 1,700 | 1,300 | 1,700 | 225 | - |
| Electromechanical coupling factor for thickness mode, k_{33} | 0.1 | 0.35 | 0.48 | 0.64 | 0.675 | 0.42 | - |
| Electromechanical coupling factor for radial mode, K_p | 0.1 | - | 0.33 | 0.58 | 0.60 | 0.07 | - |
| Elastic quality factor, Q | 10^6 | - | 400 | 500 | 75 | 11 | - |
| Piezoelectric modulus for thickness mode, d_{33} | 2.3 | 16 | 149 | 285 | 374 | 85 | 10^{-12} m/V |
| Curie temp. | 575 | - | 115 | 320 | 365 | 550 | $^{\circ}\text{C}$ |
| Young's modulus, E | 8.0 | - | 11.8 | 8.15 | 6.75 | 2.9 | 10^{10} N/m^2 |
| Rated dynamic tensile strength | - | - | - | 3,500 | 4,000 | - | p.s.i. |

APPENDIX B. PULSE-SCATTER IMAGING SYSTEM SOFTWARE

B-1. TITLE LISTINGS

SYSTEM SOFTWARE LISTING

| | | | | | | | | |
|------------|-----|-----------|------------|----|-----------|------------|-----|-----------|
| 1-NOV-78 | | | PSICOP | 17 | 12-JAN-78 | HOLD .FOR | 20 | 29-JAN-78 |
| MONITR.SYS | 46 | 5-DEC-77 | OUT1 .FOR | 2 | 13-JAN-78 | INTCN2.FOR | 1 | 1-FEB-78 |
| RK .SYS | 2 | 5-DEC-77 | OUT2 .MAC | 2 | 13-JAN-78 | PSITRY.FOR | 25 | 3-FEB-78 |
| LPNONE.OLD | 2 | 5-DEC-77 | FLIB2 .MAC | 8 | 13-JAN-78 | INTERP.BAK | 1 | 9-FEB-78 |
| PR .SYS | 2 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPS7.DAT | 2 | 4-JAN-78 | MOD3PT.DAT | 2 | 8-FEB-78 |
| PP .SYS | 2 | 5-DEC-77 | TSTOK2.SAV | 69 | 8-JAN-78 | NORMAL.FOR | 4 | 8-FEB-78 |
| FILL .SYS | 2 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPS2.DAT | 1 | 29-DEC-77 | SQUARE.FOR | 3 | 10-FEB-78 |
| BA .SYS | 7 | 5-DEC-77 | FLIB .LLD | 1 | 13-JAN-78 | IMAG01.DAT | 100 | 23-FEB-78 |
| CBUILD.SYS | 32 | 5-DEC-77 | FLIB1 .FOR | 5 | 13-JAN-78 | ERASER.FOR | 1 | 28-FEB-78 |
| SYSMAC.SML | 18 | 5-DEC-77 | PSICP1 | 17 | 13-JAN-78 | SWDPTR.MAC | 2 | 1-MAR-78 |
| CTNONE.SYS | 5 | 5-DEC-77 | OK1 .FOR | 9 | 4-JAN-78 | GTDAT0.FOR | 2 | 1-MAR-78 |
| BATCH .SAV | 25 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPS8.DAT | 1 | 9-JAN-78 | RDPTR .MAC | 3 | 1-MAR-78 |
| EDIT .SAV | 19 | 5-DEC-77 | TWRITE.MAC | 2 | 20-DEC-77 | PTRLST.MAC | 84 | 1-MAR-78 |
| MACRO .SAV | 31 | 5-DEC-77 | TCALL .FOR | 2 | 20-DEC-77 | DUALTB.MAC | 51 | 1-MAR-78 |
| ASEMBL.SAV | 21 | 5-DEC-77 | SIMSPT.DAT | 3 | 2-JAN-78 | GETDAT.SAV | 49 | 8-MAR-78 |
| EXPAND.SAV | 12 | 5-DEC-77 | GAUS .FOR | 1 | 2-JAN-78 | RDOU .SAV | 50 | 12-MAR-78 |
| CREF .SAV | 5 | 5-DEC-77 | CNVOLV.FOR | 2 | 2-JAN-78 | TEKPLT.SAV | 47 | 3-MAR-78 |
| LINK .SAV | 25 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPS .FOR | 7 | 28-DEC-77 | RDOU .BAK | 6 | 5-MAR-78 |
| PIP .SAV | 14 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPS6.DAT | 2 | 3-JAN-77 | TEKPLT.FOR | 2 | 3-MAR-78 |
| FILEX .SAV | 11 | 5-DEC-77 | | | | PTRPLT.BAK | 9 | 5-MAR-78 |
| SRCCOM.SAV | 11 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPS0.DAT | 1 | 28-DEC-77 | GETDAT.FOR | 2 | 8-MAR-78 |
| DUMP .SAV | 5 | 5-DEC-77 | GOOD .FOR | 9 | 28-DEC-77 | PEAK .BAK | 5 | 9-MAR-78 |
| PATCH .SAV | 5 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPS3.DAT | 1 | 29-DEC-77 | PTRPLT.SAV | 80 | 3-APR-78 |
| PATCHO.SAV | 33 | 5-DEC-77 | OK3 .FOR | 8 | 30-DEC-77 | PKPLOT.FOR | 9 | 21-MAR-78 |
| VTMAC .MAC | 7 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPS1.DAT | 1 | 29-DEC-77 | PSIGEN.OLD | 28 | 11-MAR-78 |
| SYSMAC.BK | 25 | 5-DEC-77 | ELIPSS.DAT | 3 | 10-JAN-78 | PSIGEN.INT | 29 | 12-MAR-78 |
| LIBR .SAV | 15 | 5-DEC-77 | DATGN3.FOR | 2 | 2-JAN-78 | PTRPLT.FOR | 9 | 3-APR-78 |
| FORTRA.HLP | 2 | 5-DEC-77 | DATGN5.FOR | 2 | 2-JAN-78 | RDOU .FOR | 6 | 12-MAR-78 |
| ODT .OBJ | 9 | 29-OCT-78 | OK2 .FOR | 9 | 3-JAN-77 | CONV00.DAT | 3 | 6-APR-78 |
| VTHDLR.OBJ | 8 | 29-OCT-78 | OK .FOR | 9 | 4-JAN-78 | B .FOR | 9 | 21-MAR-78 |
| OTSOM.OBJ | 66 | 29-OCT-78 | TSTOK2 | 10 | 8-JAN-78 | E .FOR | 7 | 21-MAR-78 |
| FORLIB.V2S | 132 | 5-DEC-77 | CONV .DAT | 6 | 2-JAN-78 | PEAK .FOR | 6 | 21-MAR-78 |
| FORTRA.SAV | 96 | 5-DEC-77 | TSTOK2.FOR | 10 | 8-JAN-78 | PEAK .SAV | 67 | 21-MAR-78 |
| SYSLIB.LLD | 4 | 5-DEC-77 | SIMUL3.DAT | 2 | 9-JAN-78 | IMAGRD.DAT | 203 | 23-MAR-78 |
| LSRPIP.SAV | 3 | 5-DEC-77 | GRAYF .FOR | 2 | 13-JAN-78 | READ .SAV | 19 | 24-MAY-78 |
| LSRPIP.MAC | 6 | 5-DEC-77 | PSI .FOR | 17 | 13-JAN-78 | SINXX .FOR | 2 | 23-MAR-78 |
| ODT .SAV | 8 | 5-DEC-77 | SSWTCH.MAC | 1 | 23-JAN-78 | SEQ .FOR | 8 | 27-MAR-78 |
| KB .SYS | 3 | 5-DEC-77 | GRAYU .FOR | 2 | 23-JAN-78 | HSPRFL.FOR | 3 | 26-APR-78 |
| KB .MAC | 34 | 5-DEC-77 | PSICOP.FOR | 17 | 23-JAN-78 | | | |
| OUTPUT.MAC | 2 | 7-DEC-77 | ERASE .SAV | 14 | 25-JAN-78 | HSPRFL.SAV | 47 | 26-APR-78 |
| PIXOUT.FOR | 2 | 7-DEC-77 | INTCON.BAK | 1 | 16-JAN-78 | A .FOR | 6 | 27-MAR-78 |
| LBROWN.FOR | 15 | 7-DEC-77 | SAVE .FOR | 19 | 27-JAN-78 | SIMU00.DAT | 90 | 27-MAR-78 |
| KB1 .SYS | 3 | 7-DEC-77 | GRAYIU.FOR | 2 | 27-JAN-78 | PIXGEN.FOR | 5 | 25-JAN-78 |
| LP .SYS | 2 | 7-DEC-77 | SQUARE.SAV | 20 | 10-FEB-78 | CNVPLT.FOR | 1 | 17-APR-78 |
| CR .SYS | 3 | 7-DEC-77 | NORMAL.BAK | 3 | 1-FEB-78 | CONVOL.SAV | 16 | 14-APR-78 |
| MT .SYS | 6 | 7-DEC-77 | PSIBAK.FOR | 18 | 25-JAN-78 | READIN.BAK | 6 | 5-APR-78 |
| TT .SYS | 2 | 7-DEC-77 | ERASE .FOR | 1 | 25-JAN-78 | READIN.FOR | 7 | 5-APR-78 |
| DATA3 .FOR | 3 | 9-JAN-78 | OUT5 .MAC | 2 | 25-JAN-78 | READIN.SAV | 53 | 5-APR-78 |
| SEQPLT.FOR | 8 | 23-MAR-78 | SAVE | 19 | 25-JAN-78 | ZERO .SAV | 65 | 6-APR-78 |
| SEQPLT.SAV | 79 | 23-MAR-78 | CONV2U.FOR | 1 | 1-FEB-78 | ZERO .FOR | 3 | 6-APR-78 |
| COPBRN.FOR | 16 | 15-DEC-77 | CONV2F.FOR | 1 | 1-FEB-78 | INTCON.FOR | 1 | 17-APR-78 |
| PROC01.DAT | 2 | 12-JAN-78 | PSITRY.BAK | 23 | 3-FEB-78 | INTCON.SAV | 19 | 17-APR-78 |
| CONVF .FOR | 1 | 12-JAN-78 | OUT3 .FOR | 1 | 17-JAN-78 | UNFCON.FOR | 1 | 17-APR-78 |
| CONVU .FOR | 1 | 12-JAN-78 | OUT4 .FOR | 1 | 25-JAN-78 | UNFCON.SAV | 19 | 17-APR-78 |

| | | | | | |
|------------|-----|-----------|------------------------|----|-----------|
| CONVOL.FOR | 2 | 14-APR-78 | FFTVAL.FOR | 2 | 22-MAY-78 |
| INTERP.FOR | 1 | 19-APR-78 | MAGNIT.FOR | 2 | 23-MAY-78 |
| TESTCN.FOR | 2 | 17-APR-78 | MAGNIT.SAV | 20 | 23-MAY-78 |
| TESTCN.SAV | 22 | 17-APR-78 | COMPAR.FOR | 30 | 23-MAY-78 |
| PSICON.SAV | 46 | 24-APR-78 | COMPAR.SAV | 46 | 23-MAY-78 |
| CONVUU.DAT | 3 | 24-APR-78 | READ.FOR | 1 | 24-MAY-78 |
| VSPRFL.FOR | 3 | 26-APR-78 | DIVIDE.FOR | 7 | 24-MAY-78 |
| HPROFL.FOR | 3 | 26-APR-78 | DIVIDE.SAV | 99 | 24-MAY-78 |
| VSPRFL.SAV | 48 | 26-APR-78 | TWODIM.SAV | 89 | 24-MAY-78 |
| FFT.FOR | 2 | 28-APR-78 | INVERT.SAV | 92 | 24-MAY-78 |
| VPRINT.FOR | 3 | 27-APR-78 | PULOUT.SAV | 14 | 24-MAY-78 |
| HPRINT.FOR | 3 | 27-APR-78 | PULOUT.FOR | 1 | 24-MAY-78 |
| HPRINT.SAV | 20 | 27-APR-78 | PSIGEN.PHD | 48 | 26-OCT-78 |
| VPRINT.SAV | 21 | 27-APR-78 | COMPAR.PHD | 46 | 26-OCT-78 |
| FORLIB.OBJ | 131 | 29-OCT-78 | TEST.SAV | 16 | 27-OCT-78 |
| SYSLIB.OBJ | 37 | 29-OCT-78 | TEST.FOR | 1 | 27-OCT-78 |
| OUT1.OBJ | 9 | 29-OCT-78 | NEWPSI.BAK | 33 | 28-OCT-78 |
| OUT2.OBJ | 1 | 29-OCT-78 | PSIV02.BAK | 35 | 28-OCT-78 |
| TCALL.OBJ | 9 | 29-OCT-78 | PSIV02.FOR | 37 | 29-OCT-78 |
| OUTPUT.OBJ | 1 | 29-OCT-78 | PSIV02.SAV | 49 | 29-OCT-78 |
| SSWTCB.OBJ | 1 | 29-OCT-78 | PULL64.SAV | 14 | 29-OCT-78 |
| OUT5.OBJ | 1 | 29-OCT-78 | RDIMAG.FOR | 1 | 29-OCT-78 |
| OUT3.OBJ | 6 | 29-OCT-78 | RDIMAG.SAV | 19 | 29-OCT-78 |
| OUT4.OBJ | 6 | 29-OCT-78 | PULL64.FOR | 1 | 29-OCT-78 |
| RDPTR.OBJ | 1 | 29-OCT-78 | HISTOG.FOR | 12 | 29-OCT-78 |
| GRAPH.OBJ | 198 | 29-OCT-78 | HISTOG.SAV | 63 | 29-OCT-78 |
| FLIB.OBJ | 18 | 29-OCT-78 | HISTOG.BAK | 10 | 29-OCT-78 |
| HPROFL.SAV | 45 | 30-APR-78 | TRY.FOR | 1 | 30-OCT-78 |
| PSPDGN.SAV | 13 | 12-MAY-78 | TRY.SAV | 19 | 30-OCT-78 |
| COMP2.SAV | 47 | 8-MAY-78 | SUBTR.SAV | 20 | 30-OCT-78 |
| PSIGEN.SAV | 48 | 14-MAY-78 | CAL.SAV | 15 | 31-OCT-78 |
| PTSPRD.FOR | 1 | 7-MAY-78 | SUBTR.FOR | 2 | 30-OCT-78 |
| PTSPRD.SAV | 68 | 7-MAY-78 | CAL.FOR | 1 | 31-OCT-78 |
| PLOT3D.FOR | 6 | 7-MAY-78 | 246 FILES, 4638 BLOCKS | | |
| PSPDGN.FOR | 1 | 12-MAY-78 | 136 FREE BLOCKS | | |
| COMP2.FOR | 33 | 8-MAY-78 | | | |
| INTERP.SAV | 61 | 8-MAY-78 | | | |
| PSIGEN.LDN | 33 | 8-MAY-78 | | | |
| PSIGEN.BAK | 33 | 8-MAY-78 | | | |
| FFT.OBJ | 10 | 29-OCT-78 | | | |
| FFT2D.FOR | 5 | 13-MAY-78 | | | |
| FFT2D.BAK | 5 | 12-MAY-78 | | | |
| FFRL32.FOR | 5 | 13-MAY-78 | | | |
| FF3232.FOR | 6 | 13-MAY-78 | | | |
| PSIGEN.FOR | 33 | 13-MAY-78 | | | |
| FFTDIV.FOR | 5 | 14-MAY-78 | | | |
| FFTDIV.SAV | 56 | 14-MAY-78 | | | |
| FFT2D.RAI | 6 | 15-MAY-78 | | | |
| RELIMA.FOR | 6 | 15-MAY-78 | | | |
| RELIMA.SAV | 62 | 15-MAY-78 | | | |
| INVERT.FOR | 7 | 24-MAY-78 | | | |
| TWODIM.FOR | 6 | 24-MAY-78 | | | |
| POINT.FOR | 1 | 17-MAY-78 | | | |
| LDN.FOR | 7 | 22-MAY-78 | | | |

FORTRAN SOURCE LISTINGS

1-NOV-78

| | | | | | |
|------------|----|-----------|------------|----|-----------|
| PIXOUT.FOR | 2 | 7-DEC-77 | CNVPLT.FOR | 1 | 17-APR-78 |
| LBROWN.FOR | 15 | 7-DEC-77 | READIN.FOR | 7 | 5-APR-78 |
| DATA3.FOR | 3 | 9-JAN-78 | ZERO.FOR | 3 | 6-APR-78 |
| SEQPLT.FOR | 8 | 23-MAR-78 | INTCON.FOR | 1 | 17-APR-78 |
| COPBRN.FOR | 16 | 15-DEC-77 | UNFCON.FOR | 1 | 17-APR-78 |
| CONVF.FOR | 1 | 12-JAN-78 | CONVOL.FOR | 2 | 14-APR-78 |
| CONVU.FOR | 1 | 12-JAN-78 | INTERP.FOR | 1 | 19-APR-78 |
| OUT1.FOR | 2 | 13-JAN-78 | TESTCN.FOR | 2 | 17-APR-78 |
| FLIB1.FOR | 5 | 13-JAN-78 | VSPRFL.FOR | 3 | 26-APR-78 |
| OK1.FOR | 9 | 4-JAN-78 | HPROFL.FOR | 3 | 26-APR-78 |
| TCALL.FOR | 2 | 20-DEC-77 | FFT.FOR | 2 | 28-APR-78 |
| GAUS.FOR | 1 | 2-JAN-78 | VPRINT.FOR | 3 | 27-APR-78 |
| CNVOLV.FOR | 2 | 2-JAN-78 | HPRINT.FOR | 3 | 27-APR-78 |
| ELIPS.FOR | 7 | 28-DEC-77 | PTSFRD.FOR | 1 | 7-MAY-78 |
| GOOD.FOR | 9 | 28-DEC-77 | PLOT3D.FOR | 6 | 7-MAY-78 |
| OK3.FOR | 8 | 30-DEC-77 | PSPDGN.FOR | 1 | 12-MAY-78 |
| DATGN3.FOR | 2 | 2-JAN-78 | COMP2.FOR | 33 | 8-MAY-78 |
| DATGN5.FOR | 2 | 2-JAN-78 | FFT2D.FOR | 5 | 13-MAY-78 |
| OK2.FOR | 9 | 3-JAN-77 | FFRL32.FOR | 5 | 13-MAY-78 |
| OK.FOR | 9 | 4-JAN-78 | FF3232.FOR | 6 | 13-MAY-78 |
| TSTOK2.FOR | 10 | 8-JAN-78 | PSIGEN.FOR | 33 | 13-MAY-78 |
| GRAYF.FOR | 2 | 13-JAN-78 | FFTDIV.FOR | 5 | 14-MAY-78 |
| PSI.FOR | 17 | 13-JAN-78 | RELIMA.FOR | 6 | 15-MAY-78 |
| GRAYU.FOR | 2 | 23-JAN-78 | INVERT.FOR | 7 | 24-MAY-78 |
| PSICOP.FOR | 17 | 23-JAN-78 | TWODIM.FOR | 6 | 24-MAY-78 |
| SAVE.FOR | 19 | 27-JAN-78 | POINT.FOR | 1 | 17-MAY-78 |
| GRAYIU.FOR | 2 | 27-JAN-78 | LDN.FOR | 7 | 22-MAY-78 |
| PSIBAK.FOR | 18 | 25-JAN-78 | FFTVAL.FOR | 2 | 22-MAY-78 |
| ERASE.FOR | 1 | 25-JAN-78 | MAGNIT.FOR | 2 | 23-MAY-78 |
| CONV2U.FOR | 1 | 1-FEB-78 | COMPAR.FOR | 30 | 23-MAY-78 |
| CONV2F.FOR | 1 | 1-FEB-78 | READ.FOR | 1 | 24-MAY-78 |
| OUT3.FOR | 1 | 17-JAN-78 | DIVIDE.FOR | 7 | 24-MAY-78 |
| OUT4.FOR | 1 | 25-JAN-78 | PULOUT.FOR | 1 | 24-MAY-78 |
| HOLD.FOR | 20 | 29-JAN-78 | TEST.FOR | 1 | 27-OCT-78 |
| INTCN2.FOR | 1 | 1-FEB-78 | PSIV02.FOR | 37 | 29-OCT-78 |
| PSITRY.FOR | 25 | 3-FEB-78 | RDIMAG.FOR | 1 | 29-OCT-78 |
| NORMAL.FOR | 4 | 8-FEB-78 | PULL64.FOR | 1 | 29-OCT-78 |
| SQUARE.FOR | 3 | 10-FEB-78 | HISTOG.FOR | 12 | 29-OCT-78 |
| ERASER.FOR | 1 | 28-FEB-78 | TRY.FOR | 1 | 30-OCT-78 |
| GTDATO.FOR | 2 | 1-MAR-78 | SUBTR.FOR | 2 | 30-OCT-78 |
| TEKPLT.FOR | 2 | 3-MAR-78 | CAL.FOR | 1 | 31-OCT-78 |
| GETDAT.FOR | 2 | 8-MAR-78 | | | |
| PKPLOT.FOR | 9 | 21-MAR-78 | | | |
| PTRPLT.FOR | 9 | 3-APR-78 | | | |
| RDOUT.FOR | 6 | 12-MAR-78 | | | |
| B.FOR | 9 | 21-MAR-78 | | | |
| E.FOR | 7 | 21-MAR-78 | | | |
| PEAK.FOR | 6 | 21-MAR-78 | | | |
| SINXX.FOR | 2 | 23-MAR-78 | | | |
| SEQ.FOR | 8 | 27-MAR-78 | | | |
| HSPRFL.FOR | 3 | 26-APR-78 | | | |
| A.FOR | 6 | 27-MAR-78 | | | |
| PIXGEN.FOR | 5 | 25-JAN-78 | | | |

94 FILES, 588 BLOCKS
136 FREE BLOCKS

MACRO SOURCE LISTINGS

1-NOV-78
 VTMAC .MAC 7 5-DEC-77
 LSRPIP.MAC 6 5-DEC-77
 KB .MAC 34 5-DEC-77
 OUTPUT.MAC 2 7-DEC-77
 OUT2 .MAC 2 13-JAN-78
 FLIB2 .MAC 8 13-JAN-78
 TWRITE.MAC 2 20-DEC-77
 SSWTCH.MAC 1 23-JAN-78
 OUT5 .MAC 2 25-JAN-78
 SWDPTR.MAC 2 1-MAR-78
 RDPTR .MAC 3 1-MAR-78
 PTRLST.MAC 84 1-MAR-78
 DUALTB.MAC 51 1-MAR-78
 13 FILES, 204 BLOCKS
 136 FREE BLOCKS

OBJECT CODE LISTINGS

1-NOV-78
 ODT .OBJ 9 29-OCT-78
 VTHDLR.OBJ 8 29-OCT-78
 OTSCOM.OBJ 66 29-OCT-78
 FORLIB.OBJ 131 29-OCT-78
 SYSLIB.OBJ 37 29-OCT-78
 OUT1 .OBJ 9 29-OCT-78
 OUT2 .OBJ 1 29-OCT-78
 TCALL .OBJ 9 29-OCT-78
 OUTPUT.OBJ 1 29-OCT-78
 SSWTCH.OBJ 1 29-OCT-78
 OUT5 .OBJ 1 29-OCT-78
 OUT3 .OBJ 6 29-OCT-78
 OUT4 .OBJ 6 29-OCT-78
 RDPTR .OBJ 1 29-OCT-78
 GRAPH .OBJ 198 29-OCT-78
 FLIB .OBJ 18 29-OCT-78
 FFT .OBJ 10 29-OCT-78
 17 FILES, 512 BLOCKS
 136 FREE BLOCKS

MACHINE CODE LISTINGS

1-NOV-78
 BATCH .SAV 25 5-DEC-77
 EDIT .SAV 19 5-DEC-77
 MACRO .SAV 31 5-DEC-77
 ASEMBL.SAV 21 5-DEC-77
 EXPAND.SAV 12 5-DEC-77
 CREF .SAV 5 5-DEC-77
 LINK .SAV 25 5-DEC-77
 PIP .SAV 14 5-DEC-77
 FILEX .SAV 11 5-DEC-77
 SRCCOM.SAV 11 5-DEC-77
 DUMP .SAV 5 5-DEC-77
 PATCH .SAV 5 5-DEC-77
 PATCHO.SAV 33 5-DEC-77
 LIBR .SAV 15 5-DEC-77
 FORTRA.SAV 96 5-DEC-77
 LSRPIP.SAV 3 5-DEC-77
 ODT .SAV 8 5-DEC-77
 SEQPLT.SAV 79 23-MAR-78
 TSTOK2.SAV 69 8-JAN-78
 ERASE .SAV 14 25-JAN-78
 SQUARE.SAV 20 10-FEB-78
 GETDAT.SAV 49 8-MAR-78
 RDOUT .SAV 50 12-MAR-78
 TEKPLT.SAV 47 3-MAR-78
 PTRPLT.SAV 80 3-APR-78
 PEAK .SAV 67 21-MAR-78
 READ .SAV 19 24-MAY-78
 HSPRFL.SAV 47 26-APR-78
 CONVOL.SAV 16 14-APR-78
 READIN.SAV 53 5-APR-78
 ZERO .SAV 65 6-APR-78
 INTCON.SAV 19 17-APR-78
 UNFCON.SAV 19 17-APR-78
 TESTCN.SAV 22 17-APR-78
 PSICON.SAV 46 24-APR-78
 VSPRFL.SAV 48 26-APR-78
 HPRINT.SAV 20 27-APR-78
 VPRINT.SAV 21 27-APR-78
 HPROFL.SAV 45 30-APR-78
 PSPDGN.SAV 13 12-MAY-78
 COMP2 .SAV 47 8-MAY-78
 PSIGEN.SAV 48 14-MAY-78
 PTSPRD.SAV 68 7-MAY-78
 INTERP.SAV 61 8-MAY-78
 FFTDIV.SAV 56 14-MAY-78
 RELIMA.SAV 62 15-MAY-78
 MAGNIT.SAV 20 23-MAY-78
 COMPAR.SAV 46 23-MAY-78
 DIVIDE.SAV 99 24-MAY-78
 TWODIM.SAV 89 24-MAY-78
 INVERT.SAV 92 24-MAY-78
 PULOUT.SAV 14 24-MAY-78
 TEST .SAV 16 27-OCT-78
 PSIV02.SAV 49 29-OCT-78
 PULL64.SAV 14 29-OCT-78
 RDIMAG.SAV 19 29-OCT-78
 HISTOG.SAV 63 29-OCT-78
 TRY .SAV 19 30-OCT-78
 SUBTR .SAV 20 30-OCT-78
 CAL .SAV 15 31-OCT-78
 60 FILES, 2184 BLOCKS
 136 FREE BLOCKS

B-2. RECONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM AND ASSOCIATED SOFTWARE

**PSIV02.FOR
SSWTCH.MAC
OUT5.MAC
ERASE.FOR
TSTOK2.FOR**

MAIN PSI RECONSTRUCTION PROGRAM. INTERPOLATION AND CONVOLUTION OPTIONS ARE COMMENTED OUT; HOWEVER, A DUMMY CONVOLUTION FUNCTION MUST EXIST FOR PROGRAM TO RUN (E.G. CONV00.DAT). USE THE FOLLOWING SEQUENCE TO 'LINK' THIS PROGRAMR LINK

*PSIV02=PSIV02,OUT5,SSWTCH,FLIB/F

THE COMPARISON MODE FOR THIS PROGRAM ALLOWS DISPLAYING OF SEVERAL IMAGES ON THE SAME GRAY SCALE DISPLAY. I.E. AFTER OUTPUT OF AN IMAGE, THE DISPLAY POINTER IS NOT AUTOMATICALLY RESET TO PIXEL (1,1). FOR EXAMPLE, FOUR IMAGES EACH 80 PIXELS SQUARE, MAY BE SHOWN ONE BENEATH THE OTHER, ON THE SAME DISPLAY FOR PURPOSES OF COMPARISON.

1-NOV-78

PSIV02.FOR 37 29-OCT-78

C*****P.S.I.RECONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM VERSION 2 (10-29-78)*****

C NO INTERPOLATION; NO CONVOLUTION; 'CAL' FACTOR ENTERED MANUALLY.

C*****GENERAL ELECTRIC CO.-----PULSE-SCATTER IMAGING*****

C*****IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION PROGRAM*****

C*****L. NADEL, L. BROWNING, R. GLUSICK*****

C*****FOR "TT" OUTPUT ON BASEMENT PDP-11 MUST <.ASS TT:LP>*****

C*****FOR "LP" OUTPUT ON FIRST FLOOR PDP-11 MUST <.ASS KB:LP>*****

C*****PROGRAM IS PRESENTLY INITIALIZED TO OUTPUT TO "LP" IN BASEMENT

C*****AND "TT" ON FIRST FLOOR.

C

C =====NOTE: IP IS NOW R (RADIUS OF RING) : F7.3 =====

C

C C() IS THE ARRAY CONTAINING THE CONVOLVED DATA.

DIMENSION C(320)

C F() IS THE ARRAY CONTAINING THE DATA TO BE CONVOLVED.

DIMENSION F(320)

C G() IS THE ARRAY CONTAINING THE CONVOLUTION FUNCTION.

DIMENSION G(320)

C THEREFORE, C=F*G (WHERE "*" MEANS "CONVOLVED WITH").

DIMENSION Z(320)

DIMENSION IZ(320)

DIMENSION IF(320)

BYTE IBYTF(320)

EQUIVALENCE (IBYTF(1),IF(1))

DIMENSION IDATA(?)

DIMENSION ICON(?)

DIMENSION ITEMP(?)

DIMENSION IDESCR(160)

DATA IDESCR/160*2H /

DATA NO/2HNO/

DATA IDATA/2HDK,2H1:,2HPR,2HOC,2H00,2H.D,2HAT/

DATA ICON/2HDK,2H1:,2HCO,2HNV,2H00,2H.D,2HAT/

DATA ITEMP/2HDK,2H1:,2HIM,2HAG,2H00,2H.D,2HAT/

C -----SIGN ON-----

WRITE (6,88)

88 FORMAT (' *****GENERAL ELECTRIC CO.-----PULSE-SCATTER IMAGING*****')

1',/, ' *****IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM*****')

CALL IDATE (MON, IDAY, IYR)

WRITE (6,89) MON, IDAY, IYR

89 FORMAT (/, ' DATE: ', I2, '- ', I2, '- ', I2)

CALL TIME (SEC)

DECHRS=SEC/3600.

WRITE (6,87) DECHRS

87 FORMAT (' TIME: ', F6.3, ' HOURS', ///)

C

R=160.

C <R> = TRANSDUCER CRCLE RADIUS IN # OF DATA BINS.

DATA IMODE/2HNO/

C IF IMODE='NO', THEN PROGRAM WILL NOT OPERATE IN MULTIPLE COMPARISON MODE.

IREC=5

ISEND=6

LS=320

C IFORM=0 FOR INTEGER WORD DATA INPUT .

C IFORM=1 FOR BYTE DATA INPUT.

```

C      *****IFORM=2 FOR INTEGER DATA INPUT FROM A FLOATING
C      POINT SIZED FILE (AS IN THE ORIGINAL SIMULATIONS).*****
      IFORM=0
      NT=8
      PI2=6.2831853072
      XS=160.
      YS=160.
      CAL=0.985294
      RSCALE=1.0
C***** TO PERMIT CHANGES *****
      WRITE (7,10)
10     FORMAT(' BELOW CERTAIN VALUES "?" WILL APPEAR.',/
&' TYPE "NO" FOLLOWED BY A <CR> IF YOU DO NOT LIKE THOSE ',
&' PARAMETERS---'/' THEN TYPE THE NEW VALUE ',
&' FOLLOWED BY A <CR>. OTHERWISE, JUST TYPE <CR>.'/)
C      ALLOW FOR PROGRAM TO OUTPUT IMAGE FROM AN ALREADY
C      RECONSTRUCTED DATA FILE.
13     WRITE(7,11)
11     FORMAT (' DO YOU WANT PROGRAM TO EXECUTE THE OUTPUT ',
1'MODE ONLY?','/' ?')
      READ (IREC,98) IFUNCT
C98    FORMAT (A2)
      IF (IFUNCT.NE.NO) GO TO 30
      DATA IZ/320*0/
      DATA Z/320*0./
14     WRITE(7,15) NT
15     FORMAT(' THE NUMBER OF TRANSDUCERS (NT) = ',I2/' ?')
      READ(IREC,98) IANS
98     FORMAT (A2)
      IF (IANS.NE.NO) GO TO 20
      READ(IREC,99) NT
99     FORMAT (I2)
      GO TO 14
20     WRITE(7,25) R
25     FORMAT(' THE RADIUS OF THE RING OF TRANSDUCERS',
&' (IN DATA BINS) =',F7.3/' ?')
      READ(IREC,98) IANS
C98    FORMAT (A2)
      IF (IANS.NE.NO) GO TO 30
      READ (IREC,59) R
59     FORMAT (F7.3)
      GO TO 20
30     WRITE(7,35) XS,YS,LS
35     FORMAT (' THE SCAN BEGINS (W.R.T. THE CENTER OF
& TRANSDUCERS) AT COORDINATES'/5X,' X=',F10.4,5X,' Y=',
&F10.4/' AND EXTENDS TO THE LEFT & DOWN FOR ',I5,' BINS ',
&' (CANNOT EXCEED 320).'/ ?')
      READ(IREC,98) IANS
C98    FORMAT (A2)
      IF ((IFUNCT.NE.NO).AND.(IANS.NE.NO)) GO TO 60
      IF (IANS.NE.NO) GO TO 40
      WRITE (7,58)
58     FORMAT (' INSERT CHANGES AS: XS<CR>YS<CR>LS<CR>.'/)
      READ (IREC,97) XS,YS,LS

```



```

C      WRITE IMAGE IDENTIFICATION ON IMAGE FILE AFTER IMAGE.
      WRITE (18'(1+LS)) (IDESC(I),I=1,160)
C-----PRINT TIME OF ALGORITHM COMPLETION-----
      CALL TIME(SEC)
      DECHRS=SEC/3600.
      WRITE (6,18) DECHRS
18     FORMAT (' FINISH TIME: ',F6.3,' HOURS',///)
C-----
      WRITE (7,111)
111   FORMAT(' WOULD YOU LIKE TO SEE THE TOTAL PICTURE? (YES OR NO)')
      READ (IREC,98) IANS
C98   FORMAT(A2)
      IF (IANS.EQ.NO) GO TO 120
C      PRINT IMAGE FILE IDENTIFICATION.
778   READ (18'LSP1) (IDESC(I),I=1,160)
      WRITE (6,260) (IDESC(I),I=1,160)
260   FORMAT (1X,40A2)
      IF (IMODE.NE.NO) GO TO 942
      CALL OUTPUT(1,18432)
C      RESET DISPLAY MONITOR POINTER.
C      *****
942   WRITE (7,920)
920   FORMAT (' DO YOU WANT TO ENTER OUTPUT SCALE FACTOR MANUALLY?',
1/. ' YES OR NO ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,925) IANS
925   FORMAT (A2)
      IF (IANS.EQ.NO) GO TO 930
      WRITE (7,1118)
1118  FORMAT (' ENTER SCALE FACTOR (F7.3 FORMAT)',/, ' >')
      READ (5,935) SCALE
935   FORMAT (F7.3)
      WRITE (7,940) SCALE
940   FORMAT (' MANUALLY ENTERED OUTPUT SCALE FACTOR IS ',F7.3,
1/. ' YES OR NO ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,941) IANS
941   FORMAT (A2)
      IF (IANS.EQ.NO) GO TO 942
      GO TO 1117
C      CALCULATION OF OUTPUT DISPLAY SCALE FACTOR.
C      'SCALE' WILL CONVERT UNSCALED STORED IMAGE DATA INTO
C      THE RANGE 0-1023.
C      THIS CALCULATION OF 'SCALE' IS FOR DIRECT OUTPUT OF ENTIRE
C      IMAGE EITHER DIRECTLY FROM DISC FILE OR FROM DISC FILE
C      IMMEDIATELY AFTER RECONSTRUCTION.
C      THE VALUE 'RSCALE' IS ENTERED MANUALLY AND IS USED TO
C      TEMPORARILY SCALE DATA FOR DISPLAY DURING RECONSTRUCTION.
930   RELMAX=0.
      DO 850 IMAX=1,LS
      READ (18'IMAX) (Z(J),J=1,320)
      DO 860 IMX=1,319.2
C      IN ORDER TO DISPLAY THE TRANSDUCER LOCATIONS AT THE BRIGHTEST GRAY SHADE.
C      THESE LOCATIONS ARE ASSIGNED A GRAY VALUE GREATER THAT THAT
C      EXPECTED FOR ANY POSSIBLE DATA POINT.  THUS, THE USE OF THIS VALUE
C      FOR SCALING PURPOSES WILL PRODUCE AN ERRONEOUS SCALE FACTOR.

```

```

C          THEREFORE, THE ASSUMPTION IS BEING MADE THAT ANY POINT ADJACENT TO
C          A GIVEN TRANSDUCER LOCATION WILL NOT BE THE MAXIMUM VALUE BEING
C          SOUGHT FOR PUSPOSES OF SCALING. SHOULD IT BE THAT POINT,
C          ALL THAT WILL HAPPEN IS THAT THE BRIGHT POINT REPRESENTING THE
C          TRANSDUCER LOCATION WILL BE TWO PIXELS WIDE RATHER THAN ONE.
C          FOR THE TIME BEING, THIS METHOD SHOULD BE SATISFACTORY. LDN
      IF ((Z(IMX)).GE.100000000000.) GO TO 860
      IF ((Z(IMX+1)).GE.100000000000.) GO TO 860
      RELMAX=AMAX1(Z(IMX),Z(IMX+1),RELMAX)
860     CONTINUE
850     CONTINUE
      SCALE=RELMAX/1023.
      WRITE (7,907) SCALE
907     FORMAT (' THE CALCULATED OUTPUT SCALE FACTOR IS ',F7.3,', ' ?')
      READ (5,1115) IANS
1115    FORMAT (A2)
      IF (IANS.EQ.NO) GO TO 942
1117    WRITE (6,1116) SCALE
1116    FORMAT (' THE FINAL OUTPUT SCALE FACTOR IS ',F7.3)
943    DO 114 I=1,LS
      READ (18'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
C      READ ONE LINE FROM RECONSTRUCTED DATA FILE PRIOR TO DISPLAY.
      DO 113 IJ=1,320
C      HARD LIMITER FOR DATA OUTPUT TO CT/T MONITOR.
C      SCALE DATA AMPLITUDE PRIOR TO DISPLAY.
      Z(IJ)=(SIGN(0.5,Z(IJ))+Z(IJ)/SCALE)-512.
C      IMAGE DISPLAY VALUES ARE NOW SCALED FROM -512. TO +511.
      IF (Z(IJ).GT.511.) Z(IJ)=511.
      IF (Z(IJ).LT.(-512.)) Z(IJ)=-512.
      IZ(IJ)=INT(Z(IJ))
113     CONTINUE
      CALL OUTPUT(320,IZ)
114     CONTINUE
      CALL CLOSE(18)
120     WRITE(7,121)
121     FORMAT(' WANT TO TRY IT AGAIN? (YES OR NO)')
      READ (IREC,98) IANS
C98     FORMAT (A2)
      IF (IANS.EQ.NO) GO TO 122
      WRITE (7,1120)
1120    FORMAT (' WANT IMAGE COMPARISON MODE? (YES OR NO)',/, ' >')
      READ (IREC,98) IMODE
      GO TO 13
122     WRITE(ISEND,125)
125     FORMAT(// ' DONE')
      STOP 'PULSE-SCATTER IMAGING---IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM'
      END
      SUBROUTINE CSCAN(XT,YT,XR,YR,XS,YS,LS,ITEMP,F,LENGTH,G,LG,C,ISEND,
11Z,Z,SCALE,CAL,RSCALE)
      DIMENSION G(LG)
      DIMENSION IZ(320),Z(320),C(LENGTH),F(LENGTH)
C*****CONVOLUTION*****
      DO 1 III=1,LENGTH
      C(III)=F(III)

```

```

1      CONTINUE
      GO TO 2001
      MAX=LG
      DO 2000 J=1,LENGTH
C      +++4X RAD. = LARGEST T/R PATH WITHIN RING AREA+++
C      WRITE(6,2300) J
C2300  FORMAT(' *',I5)
      C(J)=0
      J1=J+1
      IF (J.LE.LG) MIN=J
      DO 2100 I=1,MIN
2100   C(J)=C(J)+F((J1-I))*G(I)
      IF (J.EQ.LENGTH.OR.MAX.LT.2) GO TO 2000
      JM=LENGTH-J+1
      IF(JM.LT.LG) MAX=JM
      DO 2200 I=2,MAX
2200   C(J)=C(J)+F((J+I-1))*G(I)
2000   CONTINUE
C*****
2001   CONTINUE
C2001  WRITE (6,5) (C(MN),MN=1,LENGTH)
5      FORMAT (1X,10F6.1)
C.....          SCAN/BACKPROJECTION          .....
      M1=(320-LS)/2
      M3=M1+1
      M4=M1+LS
      M5=M1+LS+1
C      USE SSWTCH ROUTINE TO BYPASS CALL OF "OUTPUT" WHEN OPERATING
C      WITHOUT CT/T MONITOR.
      CALL SSWTCH(1,LSS1)
      IF (LSS1.EQ.2) GO TO 138
      CALL OUTPUT(1,18432)
C      SUBROUTINE TO RESET DISPLAY MONITOR POINTER.
138   DO 3000 J=1,LS
C      WRITE (ISEND,27) J
C27   FORMAT (' DISPLAY LINE ',I3,' IS BEING OUTPUT.')
C      CALL CLOSE(ISEND)
      Y=YS-J+1
      DTY=(YT-Y)*(YT-Y)
C      DTY = TRANSMIT DISTANCE (Y)
      DRY=(YR-Y)*(YR-Y)
C      DRY = RECEIVE DISTANCE (Y)
      READ (18,J) (Z(JJ),JJ=1,320)
      DO 3100 I=1,LS
      INDX=M1+LS-I+1
      X=XS-I+1
      DTX=(XT-X)*(XT-X)
C      DTX = TRANSMIT DISTANCE (X)
      DRX=(XR-X)*(XR-X)
C      DRX = RECEIVE DISTANCE (X)
C*****ONE UNIT DATA SAMPLE DISTANCE INDEX CORRESPONDS TO TWO
C      UNITS OF ACTUAL CALCULATED DISTANCE (DUE TO ROUND-
C      TRIP CALCULATION).*****
      TWOXD=SQRT(DTX+DTY)+SQRT(DRX+DRY)

```



```

C      STORE RECONSTRUCTED IMAGE VALUES AS UNSCALED QUANTITIES.
C      'RSCALE' IS SCALE FACTOR ON DISC OUTPUT TO DISPLAY.
C      THIS FACTOR SHOULD BE MANUALLY ENTERED AT BEGINNING OF PROGRAM
C      SO AS TO PRODUCE GRAY SHADES IN THE RANGE 0-1023, FOR
C      DISPLAY DURING IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION. THE SCALE FACTOR
C      'SCALE', COMPUTED EARLIER, AUTOMATICALLY SCALES FINAL
C      IMAGE PRIOR TO DISPLAY IN ORDER TO ACHIEVE A DATA
C      RANGE FROM 0-1023. SUBSEQUENT SUBTRACTION
C      OF 512 RESULTS IN A FINAL DISPLAYED DATA
C      RANGE OF -512 TO +511.
C      WRITE (18'J) (Z(JJ),JJ=1,320)
C***"SSWTCH" IS USED TO INHIBIT DISPLAY DURING IMAGE
C RECONSTRUCTION VIA BIT 0 (LSB) BEING EITHER A '0' OR '1'.
C THIS ROUTINE IS OF MOST VALUE WHEN USING THE LOW SPEED DATA LINK.
C LSB=0 DISPLAYS RECONSTRUCTION IN PROGRESS; LSB=1 INHIBITS DISPLAY.***
      CALL SSWTCH(1,LSS1)
      IF (LSS1.EQ.2) GO TO 3000
      DO 3300 I=1,320
        Z(I)=SIGN(0.5,Z(I))+(Z(I)/RSCALE)-512.
C      HARD LIMITER TO LIMIT RANGE OF VALUES OUTPUT TO CT/T DISPLAY.
        IF (Z(I).GT.511.) Z(I)=511.
        IF (Z(I).LT.(-512.)) Z(I)=-512.
        IZ(I)=INT(Z(I))
3300    CONTINUE
      CALL OUTPUT(320,IZ)
C      WRITE (ISEND,25)
C25    FORMAT(' RETURN FROM OUTPUT')
      CALL CLOSE(ISEND)
3000    CONTINUE
C.....
      RETURN
      END

```

SUBROUTINE CALLED BY PSIV02 TO ENABLE OPTIONAL VIEWING OF IMAGE DURING RECONSTRUCTION.

6-OCT-78
SSWTC.H.MAC 1 23-JAN-78

```
                ;P.S.I. SUBROUTINE
                ;FOR VIEWING RECONSTRUCTION IN PROGRESS
        .GLOBL SSWTC
        R3=%3    ;DEFINE R3
        R5=%5    ;DEFINE R5
        PC=%7    ;DEFINE PROGRAM COUNTER REGISTER
SSWTC: TST (R5)+ ;VALUE IN R5 PTS. TO NO. OF SUBROUTINE ARGUMENTS
        MOV @ (R5)+,R3 ;VALUE IN R5 PTS. TO THE VALUE (1)
        BIT R3,@#177570 ;SWITCH REGISTER ADDRESS = 177570
        BEQ 1$
        MOV #2,@ (R5) ;IF LSB=1, DO NOT DISPLAY RECONSTRUCTING IMAGE
        RTS PC
1$:      MOV #1,@ (R5) ;IF LSB=0, DISPLAY RECONSTRUCTING IMAGE
        RTS PC
        .END
```

USED TO OUTPUT DATA TO CT DISPLAY. THE EXPECTED FORTRAN CALLING SEQUENCE FOR THIS ROUTINE IS: CALL OUTPUT (N,I)
 WHERE: N= NO. OF DATA POINTS (LAST SIGNIFICANT 10 BITS OF 16 BIT DATA WORD IS ACCEPTED BY DISPLAY MEMORY) AND I= NAME OF ARRAY (INTEGER) IN WHICH DATA IS STORED. NOTE THAT 'CALL OUTPUT (1,18432) PLACES CT DISPLAY POINTER AT TOP LEFT CORNER OF SCREEN, I.E. PIXEL (1,1). EACH DATA VALUE ENTERED AFTER EXECUTION OF THIS STATEMENT WILL CAUSE THE DISPLAY POINTER TO MOVE ONE LOCATION TO THE RIGHT, UNTIL THE END OF A 320 POINT LINE HAS BEEN REACHED, AT WHICH TIME POINTER JUMPS TO NEXT LINE. DISPLAY MEMORY IS NOT RANDOM ACCESS.

2-NOV-78
 OUTS .MAC 2 27-OCT-78

```

      .TITLE  CT/T DISPLAY GENERATOR INTERFACE
;
;   EXPECTED FORTRAN CALLING SEQUENCE
;
;   CALL OUTPUT(ISIZE,IARRAY)
;
;   R.E.GLUSICK          17-FEB-76
;
      .GLOBL  OUTPUT
      OUT    =167772      ;AT DR11-C
      STATUS =167774      ;AT DR11-C
      SIZE   =%3
      ARRAY  =%4
      R5     =%5
OUTPUT: TST   (R5)+        ;NUMBER OF ARGS
      MOV   @ (R5)+,SIZE   ;SET UP LOOP COUNT
      MOV   (R5).ARRAY    ;GET ADDRESS OF ARRAY
1$:    BIT   STATUS,OK     ;CHECK DR11-C READY
      BNE  1$             ;GO BACK IF NOT READY
      MOV  (ARRAY)+,OUT   ;MOV DATA TO DR11-C
      DEC  SIZE           ;STEP LOOP COUNT
      BGT  1$            ;REPEAT IF NOT DONE
      RTS  %7             ;NORMAL RETURN
OK:    .WORD 1           ;INTERFACE READY MASK
      .END

```

PROGRAM TO COMPLETELY ERASE CT DISPLAY. TO ACTIVATE WHILE IN MONITOR.
TYPE: .R ERASE

6-OCT-78
ERASE .FOR 1 25-JAN-78

10 TYPE 10
FORMAT (' ERASE CT/T SCREEN')
CALL OUTPUT(1, "120000")
CALL OUTPUT(1, "060000")
STOP
END

THIS ROUTINE USED TO PERFORM PSI RECONSTRUCTION ON TEKTRONIX 4002A
GRAPHIC CRT STORAGE TERMINAL VIA DIRECT ELLIPSE DRAWING AND SUBSEQUENT
OVERLAY ON THE STORAGE SCREEN TO FORM ESSENTIALLY A BISTABLE IMAGE.

6-OCT-78
TSTOK2.FOR 10 8-JAN-78

```

      DIMENSION DATA(8,8,5),X(8),Y(8),YOLD(320,2)
      DIMENSION YNEW(320,2),XNEW(320,2)
      CALL INIT
      ICOUNT=0
      IXP=1
      IXM=2
      WRITE (7,15)
15     FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF MICROSECONDS IN ONE THRU-TRANSMISSION',
1' <F6.2 FORMAT>.',/)
      READ (5,16) CAL
16     FORMAT (F6.2)
      WRITE (7,202)
202    FORMAT (' *' ENTER DATA FILE NAME IN FORM "ELIPS#.DAT".',/)
      CALL ASSIGN (11,'ELIPS#.DAT',-1,'OLD','CC')
      WRITE (7,408)
408    FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF TRANSDUCERS IN RING.')
      READ (5,409) NT
409    FORMAT (I2)
      NPTS=320
      WRITE (7,410)
410    FORMAT (' ENTER NO. OF DATA POINTS PER RECEIVED SIGNAL.')
      READ (5,411) NUMDAT
411    FORMAT (I4)
      IPOUT=320
      PI2=6.2831853072
      WRITE (7,301)
301    FORMAT (' TYPE IN RADIUS OF TRANSDUCER RING
1' <F5.2 --- IN INCHES>.')
      READ (5,300) R
300    FORMAT (F5.2)
      CALL INIT
      WRITE (6,320) NT,R
320    FORMAT (' THERE ARE ',I2,' TRANSDUCERS IN THE RING.',
1/, ' TRANSDUCER RING RADIUS IS ',F5.2,' INCHES.')
      NELIPS=(NT*(NT+1))/2
      WRITE (6,406) NELIPS,NPTS
406    FORMAT (' THERE WILL BE ',I4,' ELLIPSE FAMILIES.',/
1' EACH ELLIPSE WILL CONTAIN ',I3,' POINTS.')
      WRITE (6,412) NUMDAT
412    FORMAT (' THERE WILL BE ',I4,' ELLIPSES PER T/R PAIR.')
      WRITE (6,17) CAL
17     FORMAT (' CALIBRATION IS ',F6.2,' MICROSECONDS EQUALS 320',
1' PICTURE UNITS (I.E. TRANSDUCER RING DIAMETER).')
      CALL CLOSE(6)
C      HAVE PRINTER OUTPUT CURRENT CONTENTS OF BUFFER
C      VELOCITY OF SOUND IN WATER IS 1490 METERS/SECOND.
      VELOC=1490.
      EQUIV=(VELOC*CAL)/(10000.*320.)
      WRITE (6,18) EQUIV
18     FORMAT (' ONE PICTURE UNIT CORRESPONDS TO ',F7.4,' CENTIMETERS.',
1/, ' THE IMAGE DIMENSIONS ARE 320 X 320 PICTURE UNITS.')
      CALL CLOSE(6)
      CONVER=320./CAL
      IYPASS=160

```

```

DO 778 IXPASS=1,321,160
IXPASS=IXPASS-1
REWIND 11
CALL AMODE
WRITE (6,666) IXPASS,IYPASS
666 FORMAT (' ELIPSE CONSTRUCTION PASS NUMBER ('.13,','.13,')')
CALL CLOSE(6)
C   HAVE PRINTER OUTPUT CURRENT CONTENTS OF BUFFER
DO 310 M=1,NT
X(M)=R*COS((PI2*(M-1))/NT)
Y(M)=R*SIN((PI2*(M-1))/NT)
X(M)=(X(M)*(160./R))+IXPASS
Y(M)=(Y(M)*(160./R))+IYPASS
C   TRANSUCER COORDINATES CENTERED AT (IXPASS,IYPASS) FOR CALCULATION
310 CONTINUE
DO 200 I=1,NT
DO 210 J=1,NT
READ (11,205,END=570) (DATA(I,J,K),K=1,NUMDAT)
205 FORMAT (F6.2)
DO 707 K=1,NUMDAT
DATA(I,J,K)=CONVER*DATA(I,J,K)
707 CONTINUE
XT=X(I)
YT=Y(I)
XR=X(J)
YR=Y(J)
XM=(XT+XR)/2
YM=(YT+YR)/2
THETA=ATAN2((YT-YR),(XT-XR))
ANGLE=THETA*360./PI2
DO 220 K=1,NUMDAT
INDEX=320/NPTS
DO 230 IXOLD=1,320,INDEX
D=DATA(I,J,K)
IF (DATA(I,J,K).EQ.0.) GO TO 229
A=(D/2.)**2.
B=(XT-XM)**2.
C=(YT-YM)**2.
E=(IXOLD-XM)**2.
IF ((1.-E/A).LT.-.01) GO TO 229
IF (((1.-E/A).GT.-.01).AND.((1-E/A).LT.0.)) E=A
F=A-B-C
IF (F.LT.-.01) GO TO 229
IF (((F).LT.0.).AND.((F).GE.-.01)) F=0
YOLD(IXOLD,IXP)=YM+SQRT((F)*(1.-E/A))
YOLD(IXOLD,IXM)=YM-SQRT((F)*(1.-E/A))
XOLD=FLOAT(IXOLD)
XOLD=XOLD-XM
YOLD(IXOLD,IXP)=YOLD(IXOLD,IXP)-YM
YOLD(IXOLD,IXM)=YOLD(IXOLD,IXM)-YM
YNEW(IXOLD,IXP)=XOLD*SIN(THETA)+YOLD(IXOLD,IXP)*COS(THETA)
YNEW(IXOLD,IXM)=XOLD*SIN(THETA)+YOLD(IXOLD,IXM)*COS(THETA)
XNEW(IXOLD,IXP)=XOLD*COS(THETA)-YOLD(IXOLD,IXP)*SIN(THETA)
XNEW(IXOLD,IXM)=XOLD*COS(THETA)-YOLD(IXOLD,IXM)*SIN(THETA)

```

```

YNEW(IXOLD,IXP)=YNEW(IXOLD,IXP)+YM
YNEW(IXOLD,IXM)=YNEW(IXOLD,IXM)+YM
XNEW(IXOLD,IXP)=XNEW(IXOLD,IXP)+XM
XNEW(IXOLD,IXM)=XNEW(IXOLD,IXM)+XM
YNEW(IXOLD,IXP)=YNEW(IXOLD,IXP)-(IXPASS-160.)
YNEW(IXOLD,IXM)=YNEW(IXOLD,IXM)-(IXPASS-160.)
XNEW(IXOLD,IXP)=XNEW(IXOLD,IXP)-(IXPASS-160.)
XNEW(IXOLD,IXM)=XNEW(IXOLD,IXM)-(IXPASS-160.)
GO TO 230
229  YOLD(IXOLD,IXP)=0.
      YOLD(IXOLD,IXM)=0.
      YNEW(IXOLD,IXP)=0.
      XNEW(IXOLD,IXP)=0.
      YNEW(IXOLD,IXM)=0.
      XNEW(IXOLD,IXM)=0.
230  CONTINUE
      CALL IWIND(20,720,20,720)
      CALL RWIND(0.,320.,0.,320.)
      CALL CWIND(20,720,20,720)
      CALL MOVE(XNEW(1,1),YNEW(1,1))
      YPREV=0.
      DO 500 IXD=2,320
        IF(ABS(YNEW(IXD,1)).GT.1.E-18.AND.ABS(YPREV).LE.1.E-18)
&CALL MOVE(XNEW(IXD,1),YNEW(IXD,1))
        IF(ABS(YPREV).GT.1.E-18.AND.ABS(YNEW(IXD,1)).GT.1.E-18)
&CALL DRAW(XNEW(IXD,1),YNEW(IXD,1))
        YPREV=YNEW(IXD,1)
500  CONTINUE
C    CALL MOVE(XNEW(1,1),YNEW(1,1))
C    CALL DRAW(XNEW(1,2),YNEW(1,2))
      YPREV=0.
      DO 510 IXD=1,320
        IF(ABS(YNEW(IXD,2)).GT.1.E-18.AND.ABS(YPREV).LE.1.E-18)
&CALL MOVE(XNEW(IXD,2),YNEW(IXD,2))
        IF(ABS(YPREV).GT.1.E-18.AND.ABS(YNEW(IXD,2)).GT.1.E-18)
&CALL DRAW(XNEW(IXD,2),YNEW(IXD,2))
        YPREV=YNEW(IXD,2)
510  CONTINUE
      CALL AMODE
      ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1
220  CONTINUE
210  CONTINUE
200  CONTINUE
      IXPASS=IXPASS+1
770  CONTINUE
      GO TO 520
570  CALL AMODE
      WRITE (6,571)
571  FORMAT (' *****ERROR---INSUFFICIENT DATA---*****')
520  CALL AMODE
      XCOUNT=ICOUNT/3.
      WRITE (6,7) XCOUNT
7    FORMAT (' THERE WERE A TOTAL OF ',F6.1,' ELLIPSES DRAWN.')
      STOP '---P.S.I. FOR MANUAL DATA ACQUISITION TRIALS-----'
      END

```

B-3. TRANSIENT RECORDER SOFTWARE AND ASSOCIATED ROUTINES

**READIN.FOR
RDPTR.MAC
SWDPTR.MAC
GETDAT.FOR
GTDATO.FOR
RDOUT.FOR**

USED TO READ PSI DATA FROM AEL PTR-9000 TRANSIENT RECORDER DIGITAL OUTPUT INTERFACE. ONE WAVEFORM AT A TIME. SUBROUTINE RDPTR.MAC IS CALLED, AN ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE ROUTINE TO DIRECT THE ACTUAL DATA TRANSFER. THIS PROGRAM IS THE ROUTINE USED FOR DATA COLLECTION. TO 'LINK' THIS PROGRAM USE THE FOLLOWING SEQUENCE . . .

```
.R LINK
*READIN=READIN, RDPTR/F
```

6-OCT-78
READIN.FOR 7 5-APR-78

```
C      READING OF DATA FROM TRANSIENT RECORDER.
      DIMENSION IDATA(7),IBUF(9000)
      BYTE LBUF(9000)
      EQUIVALENCE (LBUF(1),IBUF(1))
C      EQUIVALENCE STATEMENT TO ALLIGN FIRST VALUES OF EACH ARRAY.
      DATA N/1HN/
C      SET UP FILE FOR DATA STORAGE.
50     WRITE (7,10)
10     FORMAT (' ENTER NAME OF FILE FOR DATA STORAGE IN FORM',
1' DK1:DATA##.DAT',/,,' >')
      READ (5,20) IDATA
20     FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,30) IDATA
30     FORMAT (' THE RAW INPUT DATA WILL BE STORED IN THE FILE',
1' NAMED ',7A2,/,,' Y OR N ?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,40) IANS
40     FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 50
150    WRITE (7,110)
110    FORMAT (' ENTER DATA OUTPUT FORMAT --- WORD(0) OR BYTE(1)',
1/,,' >')
      READ (5,120) IFORM
120    FORMAT (I1)
      WRITE (7,130) IFORM
130    FORMAT (' DATA OUTPUT FORMAT WILL BE TYPE ',I1,/,
1' Y OR N ?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,140) IANS
140    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 150
      IF (IFORM.EQ.0) ISIZE=8192
      IF (IFORM.EQ.1) ISIZE=4096
100    WRITE (7,60)
60     FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF TRANSDUCERS IN RING',/,,' >')
      READ (5,70) NT
70     FORMAT (I2)
      WRITE (7,80) NT
80     FORMAT (' THERE ARE ',I2,' TRANSDUCERS IN THE RING',
1/,,' Y OR N ?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,90) IANS
90     FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 100
      NUMREC = NT*(NT+1)/2
      CALL ASSIGN (12, IDATA, 14)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (NUMREC, ISIZE, U, IVAR1)
C      "NPTS" EQUALS NUMBER OF POINTS TO BE READ FROM PTR.
      NPTS=9000
C      READ 9000 PTS. RATHER THAN 8192 PTS. TO ENSURE THAT PTR
C      MEMORY IS CLEARED (IE. DATA READY BIT IS NOT SET).
C      NOTE: FOR SOME REASON, THE PTR WILL OUTPUT DATA WORDS
C      CORRESPONDING TO INDICES 8193-8200. THESE ADDITIONAL
C      VALUES ARE EQUAL TO THE FIRST EIGHT VALUES OUTPUT FROM MEMORY.
C      THIS SHOULD NOT HAPPEN, BUT DOES ANYWAY.
      DO 500 I=1, NUMREC
      CALL RDPTR (IBUF, NPTS, IFORM)
```

```

C      "IBUF" IS DIMENSIONED FOR 9000.
C      FOR WORD FORMAT, 8K DATA POINTS WILL OCCUPY 1ST 8192 WORDS OF IBUF.
C      FOR BYTE FORMAT, 8K DATA POINTS WILL OCCUPY 1ST 4096 WORDS OF IBUF.
      WRITE (12,'I') (IBUF(J),J=1,ISIZE)
D      IF (IFORM.EQ.0) GO TO 999
D      WRITE (6,998) (LBUF(M),M=1,8200)
D998  FORMAT (1X,10I8,'*****BYTES*****')
D      GO TO 997
D999  WRITE (6,996) (IBUF(IN),IN=1,8200)
D996  FORMAT (1X,10I8,'*****WORDS*****')
997   WRITE (7,160) I,NUMREC
160   FORMAT (' RECORD NUMBER',I4,' OF ',I4,' WAS JUST',
1' ENTERED INTO DISC FILE.')
      IF (I.EQ.NUMREC) GO TO 500
      WRITE (7,190)
190   FORMAT (' COMPUTER IS AWAITING NEXT RECORD.')
500   CONTINUE
500   WRITE (7,170)
170   FORMAT (' *****',/, ' DATA ENTRY IS NOW',
1' COMPLETE.',/, ' *****',/,
1' WANT TO MAKE ANY CHANGES?',/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,180) IANS
180   FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 510
560   WRITE (7,520)
520   FORMAT (' ENTER RECORD NUMBER TO BE RE-RECORDED.',/, ' >')
      READ (5,530) IAGAIN
530   FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,540) IAGAIN
540   FORMAT (' RECORD NUMBER ',I4,' WILL BE RE-RECORDED OVER.',
1/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,550) IANS
550   FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 560
      CALL RDPTR (IBUF,NPTS,IFORM)
      WRITE (12,IAGAIN) (IBUF(J),J=1,ISIZE)
      WRITE (7,570) IAGAIN
570   FORMAT (' RECORD NUMBER ',I4,' WAS JUST RE-RECORDED.')
      GO TO 500
510   STOP 'COLLECTION OF P.S.I. DATA VIA TRANSIENT RECORDER'
      END

```

THIS FORTRAN CALLABLE SUBROUTINE IS USED TO TRANSFER A SPECIFIED NUMBER OF 8 BIT WORDS (NPTS) FROM AEL PTR-9000 TRANSIENT RECORDER MEMORY TO SPECIFIED INTEGER ARRAY (IARRAY) IN CALLING PROGRAM. PTR DATA (8 BITS=1 BYTE PER DATA POINT) MAY EITHER BE PACKED TWO POINTS PER STORED WORD (16 BITS) OR ONE POINT PER STORED WORD, IN WHICH CASE DATA VALUE WILL OCCUPY THE EIGHT LEAST SIGNIFICANT BITS OF THE STORED WORD.

6-OCT-78
RDPTR .MAC 3 1-MAR-78

```

;      R D P T R
;
;      READS DATA FROM PULSE AND TRANSIENT RECORDER
;
;      FORTRAN ENTRY:
;      CALL RDPTR(IARRAY,NPTS,IPK)
;      WHERE  IARRAY IS START ADDR OF ARRAY IN WHICH TO STORE DATA
;             NPTS IS NO. OF POINTS TO READ
;             IPK = 1 TO PACK DATA IN BYTE FORMAT (2 POINTS/WORD)
;                = 0 TO STORE 1 POINT PER WORD
;
;FOLLOWING ARE DEVICE ADDRESSES:
STATUS=164015
INPUT=164010
;
      .GLOBL RDPTR
      .MCALL ..V2....REGDEF
      ..V2..
      .REGDEF
RDPTR: MOV 2(R5),R0          ;PUT START ADDR INTO R0
      MOV @4(R5),R1       ;AND NO. OF POINTS TO READ INTO R1
      BLE RTN            ;SHOULD BE GREATER THAN 0
;
;      NOTE.  WILL ONLY WAIT FOR READY FLAG BEFORE STARTING TRANSFER.
;            ONCE TRANSFER STARTED, ASSUME DATA ALWAYS READY.
;
WAIT:  TSTB @*STATUS
      BEQ WAIT           ;IF BYTE = 0, DATA NOT READY
      TST @6(R5)        ;CHECK WHETHER TO PACK
      BNE BFMT
WFMT:  MOV @*INPUT,R2    ;STORING IN WORD FORMAT
      ADD #200,R2       ;CHANGING FROM OFFSET BINARY TO 2'S COMPL
      COM R2            ;DATA MUST BE INVERTED
      MOVB R2,R3        ;QUICK AND DIRTY SIGN EXTEND
      MOV R3,(R0)+
      SOB R1,WFMT
      BR RTN
BFMT:  MOV @*INPUT,R2    ;STORING IN BYTE FORMAT
      ADD #200,R2       ;CHANGING FROM OFFSET BINARY TO 2'S COMPL
      COM R2
      MOVB R2,(R0)+
      SOB R1,BFMT
RTN:   RTS PC
      .END

```

THE AEL PTR-9000 TRANSIENT RECORDER IS CAPABLE OF REMOTE SOFTWARE CONTROL VIA THE INTERFACE BOARD PROVIDED BY THE MANUFACTURER, WHICH IS CONNECTED VIA THE DEC DR-11B. THE CONTROL SIGNALS ARE CABLED VIA TWISTED PAIR, WHEREAS DIGITAL DATA TRANSFER BETWEEN THE PTR AND PDP-11 IS VIA 40 CONDUCTOR, SHIELDED FLAT RIBBON.

6-OCT-78
SWDPTR.MAC 2 1-MAR-78

```

;      S W D P T R
;
;      SETS WORDS IN PULSE AND TRANSIENT RECORDER
;
;      FORTRAN ENTRY:
;      CALL SWDPTR(CODE,IVAL)
;      WHERE   CODE IS 2 CHAR MNEUMONIC CODE FOR DEVICE ADDR
;            IVAL IS VALUE TO BE SENT
;
;      .GLOBL SWDPTR
;      .MCALL ..V2....REGDEF
;      ..V2..
;      .REGDEF
;
;ALLOWABLE MNEUMONICS ARE:
W1="W1
W2="W2
W3="W3
W4="W4
SR="SR
MR="MR
;
SWDPTR: MOV @2(R5),R0      ;PUT CODE FOR ADDR INTO R0
        MOV @4(R5),R1      ;STORE VALUE IN R1
;
;      NOW CHECK CODE AGAINST ALLOWABLE MNEUMONICS
;      IF MATCH, SET APPROPRIATE ADDRESS
;
        CMP R0,*W1
        BNE 1$
        MOV R1,@*164000
        RTS PC
1$:     CMP R0,*W2
        BNE 2$
        MOV R1,@*164002
        RTS PC
2$:     CMP R0,*W3
        BNE 3$
        MOV R1,@*164004
        RTS PC
3$:     CMP R0,*SR
        BNE 4$
        CLR @*164006
        RTS PC
4$:     CMP R0,*MR
        BNE 5$
        CLR @*164012
        RTS PC
5$:     CMP R0,*W4
        BNE RTN
        MOV R1,@*164016
RTN:    RTS PC
        .END

```

ROUTINE TO OUTPUT PSI DATA FROM DISC STORAGE; FILE, RECORD AND PORTION OF RECORD FOR OUTPUT TO PRINTER MUST BE SPECIFIED.

6-OCT-78
GETDAT.FOR 2 8-MAR-78

```

      DIMENSION IBUF(9000)
      BYTE LBUF(8192)
      EQUIVALENCE (LBUF(1),IBUF(1))
      DATA N/1HN/
      WRITE (7,10)
10    FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF WORDS TO BE READ INTO MEMORY',/,
1'   '>')
      READ (5,20) NWDS
20    FORMAT (14)
      WRITE (7,100)
100   FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF POINTS TO BE OUTPUT TO PRINTER',
1'   '>')
      READ (5,90) NUM
90    FORMAT (14)
      WRITE (7,30)
30    FORMAT (' ENTER DATA OUTPUT FORMAT <"0"=WORD,"1"=BYTE>'
1,/, '>')
      READ (5,40) IFORM
40    FORMAT (11)
80    CALL RDPTR (IBUF,NWDS,IFORM)
      IF (IFORM.EQ.1) GO TO 999
      WRITE (6,50) (IBUF(I),I=1,NUM)
50    FORMAT (1X,10I10)
      GO TO 998
999   WRITE (6,51) (LBUF(J),J=1,NUM)
51    FORMAT (1X,10I10)
998   WRITE (7,60)
60    FORMAT (' DONE? <YES OR NO>',/, '>')
      READ (5,70) IANS
70    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 80
      STOP 'READING OF DATA FROM PTR'
      END

```

OUTPUTS DATA FROM PTR ONTO PRINTER IN OCTAL FORMAT.

6-OCT-78
GTDATE.FOR 2 1-MAR-78

```

        DIMENSION IBUF(9000)
        DATA N/1HN/
        WRITE (7,10)
10      FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF WORDS TO BE READ INTO MEMORY',/,
1' >')
        READ (5,20) NWDS
20      FORMAT (I4)
        WRITE (7,100)
100     FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF POINTS TO BE OUTPUT TO PRINTER',
1' >')
        READ (5,90) NUM
90      FORMAT (I4)
        WRITE (7,30)
30      FORMAT (' ENTER DATA OUTPUT FORMAT <"0"=WORD,"1"=BYTE>'
1,/, ' >')
        READ (5,40) IFORM
40      FORMAT (I1)
80      CALL RDPTR (IBUF,NWDS,IFORM)
        WRITE (6,50) (IBUF(I),I=1,NUM)
50      FORMAT (1X,1008)
        WRITE (7,60)
60      FORMAT (' DONE? <YES OR NO>',/, ' >')
        READ (5,70) IANS
70      FORMAT (A1)
        IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 80
        STOP 'READING OF DATA FROM PTR'
        END

```

THIS ROUTINE IS A UTILITY PROGRAM TO EXAMINE DATA STORED IN PTR
VIA OUTPUT TO PRINTER.

6-OCT-78
RDOUT .FOR 6 12-MAR-78

```

C      OUTPUT OF PTR DATA FROM DISC FILE TO PRINTER.
      DIMENSION IDATA(7),IBUF(8192)
      BYTE LBUF(8192)
      EQUIVALENCE (LBUF(1),IBUF(1))
      DATA N/1HN/
50     WRITE (7,10)
10     FORMAT (' ENTER THE NAME OF DATA FILE TO BE READ IN FORM',
1* DK1:DATA** .DAT',/,,' >')
      READ (5,20) IDATA
20     FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,30) IDATA
30     FORMAT (' DATA WILL BE READ FROM THE FILE NAMED ',
17A2,/,,' Y OR N ?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,40) IANS
40     FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 50
150    WRITE (7,110)
110    FORMAT (' ENTER DATA STORAGE FORMAT - WORD(0) OR BYTE(1)',
1*-ORIGINAL DATA (8192 PTS.)',/,,' OR WORD(2) OR BYTE(3)-',
1*PROCESSED DATA (320 PTS.)',/,,' >')
      READ (5,120) IFORM
120    FORMAT (I1)
      WRITE (7,130) IFORM
130    FORMAT (' DATA STORAGE FORMAT IS TYPE ',I1,/,,' Y OR N ?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,140) IANS
140    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 150
      IF (IFORM.EQ.0) ISIZE=8192
      IF (IFORM.EQ.1) ISIZE=4096
      IF (IFORM.EQ.2) ISIZE=320
      IF (IFORM.EQ.3) ISIZE=160
440    WRITE (7,400)
400    FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF RECORDS IN FILE.',/,,' >')
      READ (5,410) NUMBER
410    FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,420) NUMBER
420    FORMAT (' THE DATA FILE CONTAINS ',I4,' RECORDS.',/,,' Y OR N ?',
1/,,' >')
      READ (5,430) IANS
430    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 440
300    WRITE (7,310)
310    FORMAT (' ENTER RECORD NUMBER TO BE OUTPUT.',/,,' >')
      READ (5,320) NUMREC
320    FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,330) NUMREC
330    FORMAT (' RECORD NUMBER ',I4,' WILL BE OUTPUT.',/,,' Y OR N ?',
1/,,' >')
      READ (5,340) IANS
340    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 300
350    WRITE (7,360)
360    FORMAT (' ENTER STARTING AND ENDING POINTS OF RECORD TO BE',
1* OUTPUT IN FORM',/,,'10X,' <STARTING,ENDING>',/,,' >')

```


B-4. ROUTINES FOR PROCESSING PTR DATA PRIOR TO IMAGE

RECONSTRUCTION

**PEAK.FOR
ZERO.FOR**

USED TO 'PEAK PROCESS' EACH 8K POINT WAVEFORM RECORDED FROM TRANSIENT RECORDER DOWN TO 320 POINTS PER WAVEFORM. THIS IS A TEMPORARY ROUTINE UNTIL A MORE SOPHISTICATED DIGITAL FILTERING ALGORITHM IS DESIGNED.

6-OCT-78
PEAK .FOR 6 21-MAR-78

```

C      PTR DATA PROCESSING.
C      SELECTION OF MAXIMUM VALUE FROM A GIVEN (BEGINNING) INTERVAL
C      OF THE 8192 PTR DATA POINTS SO AS TO FORM A 320 DATA POINT ARRAY.
C      DATA WILL BE OUTPUT IN INTEGER FORMAT.
      DIMENSION IDATA(7),IBUF(4096),JBUF(8192),IOUTP(7),MAX(320)
      BYTE LBUF(8192)
      EQUIVALENCE (LBUF(1),IBUF(1))
      DATA N/1HN/
50     WRITE (7,10)
10     FORMAT (' ENTER THE NAME OF DATA FILE TO BE READ IN FORM ',
1' DK1:DATA##.DAT',/,,' >')
      READ (5,20) IDATA
20     FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,30) IDATA
30     FORMAT (' DATA WILL BE READ FROM THE FILE NAMED ',
17A2,/,,' Y OR N?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,40) IANS
40     FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 50
60     WRITE (7,70)
70     FORMAT (' ENTER NAME OF FILE TO CONTAIN OUTPUT DATA IN FORM ',
1'DK1:PROC##.DAT',/,,' >')
      READ (5,80) IOUTP
80     FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,90) IOUTP
90     FORMAT (' DATA WILL BE OUTPUT TO THE FILE NAMED ',7A2,
1/,,' Y OR N?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,100) IANS
100    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 60
150    WRITE (7,110)
110    FORMAT (' ENTER RANGE OF INDICES OF INTEREST (SHOULD BE A ',
1'MULTIPLE OF 320)',/,,' >')
      READ (5,120) IRANGE
120    FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,130) IRANGE
130    FORMAT (' THE FIRST ',I4,' DATA POINTS WILL BE CONVERTED',
1' TO 320 DATA POINTS.',/,,' Y OR N?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,140) IANS
140    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 150
440    WRITE (7,400)
400    FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF TRANSDUCERS IN RING.',/,,' >')
      READ (5,410) NT
410    FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,420) NT
420    FORMAT (' THERE ARE ',I2,' TRANSDUCERS IN RING.',/,,' Y OR N?',
1/,,' >')
      READ (5,430) IANS
430    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 440
      NUMREC=NT*(NT+1)/2
      ISTART=1
      IEND=IRANGE

```

```

CALL ASSIGN (12, IDATA, 14)
DEFINE FILE 12 (NUMREC, 4096, U, IVAR1)
CALL ASSIGN (13, IOUTP, 14)
DEFINE FILE 13 (NUMREC, 320, U, IVAR2)
C   BREAK ORIGINAL DATA INTO EQUAL SEGMENTS OF IRANGE/320=NPEAK.
C   THEN RECORD MAXIMUM VALUE OF INTERVAL SEQUENTIALLY IN A
C   320 POINT ARRAY.
NPEAK=IRANGE/320
DO 200 K=1, NUMREC
READ (12'K) (IBUF(I), I=1, 4096)
C   ORIGINAL DATA IS INVERTED BY ENVELOPE DETECTOR. REINVERT DATA.
C   *****
C   BYTE TO INTEGER CONVERSION.
C   *****
DO 887 IJK=1, 8192
JBUF(IJK)=LBUF(IJK)
887  CONTINUE
DO 888 NEG=1, 8192
C   ADD +128 TO DATA VALUES SO THAT DATA WILL NOW RANGE
C   BETWEEN 0 AND 256. THUS, ADDING ONE VALUE TO ANOTHER
C   WILL RESULT IN REINFORCEMENT (I.E. INCREASED BRIGHTNESS).
C   IF (-) NUMBERS WERE ADDED TOGETHER, A VISUAL DE-EMPHASIS
C   WOULD RESULT RATHER THAN A REINFORCEMENT.
JBUF(NEG)=-JBUF(NEG)+128
888  CONTINUE
INDEX=0
IEND=IRANGE-NPEAK+1
DO 210 L=ISTART, IEND, NPEAK
INDEX=INDEX+1
MAX(INDEX)=JBUF(L)
DO 220 M=1, NPEAK
IF (JBUF(L-1+M).GT.MAX(INDEX)) MAX(INDEX)=JBUF(L-1+M)
220  CONTINUE
210  CONTINUE
WRITE (13'K) (MAX(N), N=1, 320)
200  CONTINUE
STOP 'PSI PEAK DATA PROCESSING DOWN TO 320 POINTS PER RECORD.'
END

```

USED TO ZERO OUT A GIVEN RECORD OR GROUP OF RECORDS ON DISC FILE (I.E. ONE RECORD CORRESPONDS TO ONE A-MODE WAVEFORM) IN A GIVEN PSI SCAN AND RESULTANT DATA SET. NOTE: ALL STATEMENTS (E.G. EQUIVALENCE) AND VARIABLES (E.G. IBUF, JBUF, IOUTP) CORRESPONDING TO READING DATA FROM DISC ARE REMNANTS OF AN EARLIER PROGRAM AND MAY BE REMOVED FROM THIS VERSION.

6-OCT-78
ZERO .FOR 3 6-APR-78.

```

C      PTR DATA PROCESSING.
C      *****
C      PROGRAM TO ZERO OUT GIVEN RECORDS IN THE PEAK-PROCESSED DATA.
C      *****
C      DATA WILL BE OUTPUT IN INTEGER FORMAT.
C      DIMENSION IDATA(7),IBUF(4096),JBUF(8192),IOUTP(7),MAX(320)
C      BYTE LBUF(8192)
C      EQUIVALENCE (LBUF(1),IBUF(1))
C      DATA N/1HN/
50     WRITE (7,10)
10     FORMAT (' ENTER THE NAME OF DATA FILE TO BE READ IN FORM',
1' DK1:DATA##.DAT',/, ' >')
     READ (5,20) IDATA
20     FORMAT (7A2)
     WRITE (7,30) IDATA
30     FORMAT (' DATA WILL BE READ FROM THE FILE NAMED ',
17A2,/, ' Y OR N?',/, ' >')
     READ (5,40) IANS
40     FORMAT (A1)
     IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 50
     NT=8
     NUMREC=NT*(NT+1)/2
     CALL ASSIGN (13, IDATA, 14, 'OLD')
     DEFINE FILE 13 (NUMREC, 320, U, IVAR2)
     WRITE (7,8)
8     FORMAT (' MAKE SURE A BACK-UP DATA ',
1' FILE',/, ' HAS BEEN CREATED',
1' | | | | | | | | | |',/)
7     WRITE (7,1)
1     FORMAT (' ENTER RECORD TO BE ZEROED',/, ' >')
     READ (5,2) IZERO
2     FORMAT (I4)
     DO 3 LZERO=1,320
     MAX(LZERO)=0
3     CONTINUE
     WRITE (13, IZERO) (MAX(IN), IN=1,320)
     WRITE (7,4) IZERO
4     FORMAT (' RECORD NUMBER ', I4, ' WAS JUST ZEROED.')
     WRITE (7,5)
5     FORMAT (' ARE YOU DONE?',/, ' Y OR N',/, ' >')
     READ (5,6) IANS
6     FORMAT (A1)
     IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 7
     STOP 'PSI PEAK DATA PROCESSING DOWN TO 320 POINTS PER RECORD.'
     END

```

B-5. GRAPHIC DISPLAY SOFTWARE

**PTRPLT.FOR
SEQPLT.FOR
PKPLOT.FOR
TEKPLT.FOR
PTSPRD.FOR
PLOT3D.FOR**

PROGRAM TO READ ORIGINAL PTR DATA FROM DISC AND PLOT ON TEKTRONIX 4002A GRAPHICS TERMINAL. NUMBER OF POINTS PLOTTED WILL BE EQUALLY SPACED ACROSS ENTIRE X-AXIS. Y-AXIS RANGE IS -128 TO +137. NOTE: ALL PSI GRAPHICS MUST LINK WITH GRAPH.OBJ (TEKTRONIX GRAPHICS PACKAGE FROM JIM FAWCETT).

6-OCT-78
PTRPLT.FOR 9 3-APR-78

```

C      PLOT OF PTR DATA FROM DISC FILE ON TEKTRONIX GRAPHICS TERMINAL.
C
C      THERE IS A BUG IN THIS PROGRAM, SUCH THAT THE ALPHANUMERIC
C      WHICH ARE PRINTED ON TOP OF THE PLOT WHEN THE STARTING
C      INDEX=1, DOES NOT ALWAYS APPEAR AT THE TOP OF THE SCREEN
C      WHEN THE STARTING INDEX DOES NOT =1.
C
      DIMENSION IDATA(7),IBUF(8192)
      BYTE LBUF(8192)
      EQUIVALENCE (LBUF(1),IBUF(1))
      DATA N/1HN/
      CALL INIT
      CALL WAIT(6)
50     WRITE (7,10)
10     FORMAT (' ENTER THE NAME OF DATA FILE TO BE READ IN FORM',
1 ' DK1:DATA##.DAT',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,20) IDATA
20     FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,30) IDATA
30     FORMAT (' DATA WILL BE READ FROM THE FILE NAMED ',
17A2,/,/, ' Y OR N?',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,40) IANS
40     FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 50
150    WRITE (7,110)
110    FORMAT (' ENTER DATA STORAGE FORMAT --- WORD(0) OR BYTE(1)',
1/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,120) IFORM
120    FORMAT (I1)
      WRITE (7,130) IFORM
130    FORMAT (' DATA STORAGE FORMAT IS TYPE ',I1,/,/, ' Y OR N?',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,140) IANS
140    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 150
      IF (IFORM.EQ.0) ISIZE=8192
      IF (IFORM.EQ.1) ISIZE=4096
440    WRITE (7,400)
400    FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF RECORDS IN FILE.',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,410) NUMBER
410    FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,420) NUMBER
420    FORMAT (' THE DATA FILE CONTAINS ',I4,' RECORDS.',/,/, ' Y OR N?',
1/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,430) IANS
430    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 440
300    WRITE (7,310)
310    FORMAT (' ENTER RECORD NUMBER TO BE OUTPUT.',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,320) NUMREC
320    FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,330) NUMREC
330    FORMAT (' RECORD NUMBER ',I4,' WILL BE OUTPUT.',/,/, ' Y OR N?',
1/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,340) IANS

```

```

340  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 300
350  WRITE (7,360)
360  FORMAT (' ENTER STARTING AND ENDING POINTS OF RECORD TO BE',
1' PLOTTED IN FORM',/,10X,' <STARTING,ENDING>',/, ' >')
      READ (5,370) ISTART,IEND
370  FORMAT (2I8)
      WRITE (7,380) ISTART,IEND
380  FORMAT (' THE DATA PLOTTED WILL EXTEND FROM THE INDICES ',
114.' TO ',I4,',',/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,390) IANS
390  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 350
      CALL ASSIGN (12,IDATA,14)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (NUMBER,ISIZE,U,IVAR1)
      READ (12*NUMREC) (IBUF(I),I=1,ISIZE)
      CALL INIT
      NUM=IEND-ISTART+1
      XNUM=FLOAT(NUM)
C      IWIND IS THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE IN INTEGERS.
C      MAXIMUM VALUES ARE (X1,X2,Y1,Y2) --- (0,1024,0,760).
      CALL IWIND(20,1004,20,740)
C      RWIND DEFINES THE REAL NUMBER RANGE (I.E. PROGRAM DATA)
C      WHICH IS MAPPED INTO THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE SPECIFIED
C      IN IWIND. THESE NUMBERS MUST BE FLOATING POINT.
      CALL RWIND(FLOAT(ISTART),FLOAT(IEND),-128.,137.)
C      CWIND DEFINES A CLIPPING WINDOW. THE VALUES SPECIFIED ARE IN
C      INTEGER FORMAT AND RELATE TO THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE
C      AS SPECIFIED IN THE IWIND DEFINITION.
C      TRANSFORMED DATA VALUES OUTSIDE THE CLIPPING WINDOW WILL
C      NOT BE PLOTTED ON THE SCREEN.
      CALL CWIND(20,1004,20,740)
      IF (IFORM.EQ.0) GO TO 999
C      PLOT ROUTINE FOR CASE WHERE DATA IS IN BYTE FORMAT.
      BUF=LBUF(ISTART)
      CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),BUF)
      DO 100 K=ISTART+1,IEND
      BUF=LBUF(K)
      CALL DRAW(FLOAT(K),BUF)
100  CONTINUE
      GO TO 995
C      PLOT ROUTINE FOR CASE WHERE DATA IS IN INTEGER FORMAT.
999  CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),FLOAT(IBUF(ISTART)))
      DO 101 L=ISTART+1,IEND
      CALL DRAW(FLOAT(L),FLOAT(IBUF(L)))
101  CONTINUE
C      PLOT HORIZONTAL SCALE MARKINGS AT 128,96,64,32,0,
C      -32,-64,-96, AND -128.
995  DO 800 I1=1,129,32
      A=FLOAT(I1-1)
      CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),A)
      DO 820 I3=1,2
      CALL DRAW(FLOAT(IEND),A)
      A=-A

```

```

C      IF VERTICAL COORDINATE = 0, DON'T BOTHER REPLOTTING.
      IF ((I1-1).EQ.0) I3=2
      CALL MOVE(0.,A)
820    CONTINUE
800    CONTINUE
      CALL CLOSE (12)
      CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),137.)
      CALL AMODE
C      BEFORE PRINTING PLOT I.D. ON SCREEN, TYPE <CR>.
      READ (5,760) ICHAR
760    FORMAT (A1)
      WRITE (7,160) IDATA,NUMREC,ISTART,IEND
160    FORMAT ('+DATA FILE ',7A2.5X,'RECORD NO. ',14.5X,'INDICES ',
114,' THRU ',I4)
C      IN ORDER NOT TO PRINT "STOP" ON SCREEN BEFORE COPY HAS BEEN MADE,
C      LET PROGRAM WAIT TO READ ONE CHARACTER FROM KEYBOARD BEFORE
C      PROCEEDING FURTHER.
      READ (5,761) ICHAR
761    FORMAT (A1)
      WRITE (7,888)
888    FDMAT (' WANT TO PLOT MORE DATA FROM THE SAME FILE? (Y OR N)',/,
114,')
      READ (5,889) IANS
889    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.NE.N) GO TO 300
      STOP
      END

```

THIS ROUTINE SEQUENTIALLY PLOTS EACH PEAK PROCESSED RECORD FROM A GIVEN DATA FILE, WITH THE PREVIOUS PLOT BEING ERASED BEFORE PROCEEDING TO THE NEXT PLOT. A <CR> MUST BE TYPED FOLLOWING A GIVEN PLOT IN ORDER TO DISPLAY I.D. INFORMATION TO BE PRINTED AT TOP OF PLOT. A SECOND <CR> MUST BE TYPED FOR ERASURE OF SCREEN PRIOR TO AUTOMATIC PLOTTING OF NEXT RECORD OF FILE. AS WITH ALL GRAPHICS ROUTINES USED IN THIS SYSTEM, THEY MUST BE LINKED WITH 'GRAPH.OBJ'. THIS ROUTINE IS THE PRIMARY METHOD OF EXAMINING THE DATA GOING INTO THE RECONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM POST-PTR DATA COLLECTION AND PROCESSING.

6-OCT-78
SEQPLT.FOR 8 23-MAR-78

```

C   PLOT OF PTR DATA FROM DISC FILE ON TEKTRONIX GRAPHICS TERMINAL.
      DIMENSION IDATA(7),IBUF(8192)
      BYTE LBUF(8192)
      EQUIVALENCE (LBUF(1),IBUF(1))
      DATA N/1HN/
      CALL INIT
50   WRITE (7,10)
10   FORMAT (' ENTER THE NAME OF DATA FILE TO BE READ IN FORM',
1' DK1:DATA***.DAT',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,20) IDATA
20   FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,30) IDATA
30   FORMAT (' DATA WILL BE READ FROM THE FILE NAMED ',
17A2,/,/, ' Y OR N?',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,40) IANS
40   FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 50
150  WRITE (7,110)
110  FORMAT (' ENTER DATA STORAGE FORMAT --- WORD(0) OR BYTE(1)',
1/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,120) IFORM
120  FORMAT (I1)
      WRITE (7,130) IFORM
130  FORMAT (' DATA STORAGE FORMAT IS TYPE ',I1,/,/, ' Y OR N?',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,140) IANS
140  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 150
      IF (IFORM.EQ.0) ISIZE=320
      IF (IFORM.EQ.1) ISIZE=160
440  WRITE (7,400)
400  FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF RECORDS IN FILE.',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,410) NUMBER
410  FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,420) NUMBER
420  FORMAT (' THE DATA FILE CONTAINS ',I4,/,/, ' RECORDS.',/,/, ' Y OR N?',
1/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,430) IANS
430  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 440
350  WRITE (7,360)
360  FORMAT (' ENTER STARTING AND ENDING POINTS OF RECORD TO BE',
1' PLOTTED IN FORM',/,/,10X,/,/, '<STARTING,ENDING>',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,370) ISTART,IEND
370  FORMAT (2I8)
      WRITE (7,380) ISTART,IEND
380  FORMAT (' THE DATA PLOTTED WILL EXTEND FROM THE INDICES ',
1I4,/,/, ' TO ',I4,/,/, ' ',/,/, ' Y OR N?',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,390) IANS
390  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 350
      CALL ASSIGN (12, IDATA, 14)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (NUMBER, ISIZE, U, IVAR1)
C   *****FOR PLOTTING OF ALL RECORDS SEQUENTIALLY*****
      DO 8888 NUMREC=1,NUMBER

```

```

READ (12'NUMREC) (IBUF(I),I=1,ISIZE)
CALL INIT
NUM=IEND-ISTART+1
XNUM=FLOAT(NUM)
C   IWIND IS THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE IN INTEGERS.
C   MAXIMUM VALUES ARE (X1,X2,Y1,Y2) --- (0,1024,0,760).
CALL IWIND(20,1004,20,740)
C   RWIND DEFINES THE REAL NUMBER RANGE (I.E. PROGRAM DATA)
C   WHICH IS MAPPED INTO THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE SPECIFIED
C   IN IWIND. THESE NUMBERS MUST BE FLOATING POINT.
CALL RWIND(FLOAT(ISTART),FLOAT(IEND),0.,267.)
C   CWIND DEFINES A CLIPPING WINDOW. THE VALUES SPECIFIED ARE IN
C   INTEGER FORMAT AND RELATE TO THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE
C   AS SPECIFIED IN THE IWIND DEFINITION.
C   TRANSFORMED DATA VALUES OUTSIDE THE CLIPPING WINDOW WILL
C   NOT BE PLOTTED ON THE SCREEN.
CALL CWIND(20,1004,20,740)
IF (IFORM.EQ.0) GO TO 999
C   PLOT ROUTINE FOR CASE WHERE DATA IS IN BYTE FORMAT.
BUF=LBUF(ISTART)
CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),BUF)
DO 100 K=ISTART+1,IEND
  BUF=LBUF(K)
  CALL DRAW(FLOAT(K),BUF)
100  CONTINUE
  GO TO 995
C   PLOT ROUTINE FOR CASE WHERE DATA IS IN INTEGER FORMAT.
999  CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),FLOAT(IBUF(ISTART)))
  DO 101 L=ISTART+1,IEND
    CALL DRAW(FLOAT(L),FLOAT(IBUF(L)))
101  CONTINUE
C   PLOT HORIZONTAL SCALE MARKINGS AT 0,64,128,192,256
995  DO 800 I1=1,257,64
      A=FLOAT(I1-1)
      CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),A)
      CALL DRAW (FLOAT(IEND),A)
800  CONTINUE
      CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),267.)
      CALL AMODE
C   BEFORE PRINTING PLOT I.D. ON SCREEN, TYPE <CR>.
C   READ (5,760) ICHAR
C760  FORMAT (A1)
      WRITE (7,160) IDATA,NUMREC,ISTART,IEND
160  FORMAT ('+DATA FILE ',7A2.5X,'RECORD NO. ',I4.5X,'INDICES ',
114,' THRU ',I4)
C   IN ORDER NOT TO PRINT "STOP" ON SCREEN BEFORE COPY HAS BEEN MADE,
C   LET PROGRAM WAIT TO READ ONE CHARACTER FROM KEYBOARD BEFORE
C   PROCEEDING FURTHER. TYPE <CR> TO PLOT NEXT RECORD OF FILE.
      READ (5,761) ICHAR
761  FORMAT (A1)
8888  CONTINUE
      CALL CLOSE (12)
      WRITE (7,888)
888  FORMAT (' WANT TO PLOT MORE DATA FROM ANOTHER FILE? (Y OR N)',/,
1' >')
      READ (5,889) IANS
889  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.NE.N) GO TO 50
      STOP
      END

```

THIS ROUTINE PLOTS PEAK-PROCESSED DATA (FROM PEAK.FOR) ON THE TEKTRONIX 4002A GRAPHICS DISPLAY. USER SPECIFIES DATA WAVEFORM TO BE PLOTTED.

6-OCT-78
PKPLOT.FOR 9 21-MAR-78

```

C      PLOT OF PTR DATA FROM DISC FILE ON TEKTRONIX GRAPHICS TERMINAL.
C
C      THERE IS A BUG IN THIS PROGRAM, SUCH THAT THE ALPHANUMERIC
C      WHICH ARE PRINTED ON TOP OF THE PLOT WHEN THE STARTING
C      INDEX=1, DOES NOT ALWAYS APPEAR AT THE TOP OF THE SCREEN
C      WHEN THE STARTING INDEX DOES NOT =1.
C
      DIMENSION IDATA(7),IBUF(8192)
      BYTE LBUF(8192)
      EQUIVALENCE (LBUF(1),IBUF(1))
      DATA N/1HN/
      CALL INIT
50     WRITE (7,10)
10     FORMAT (' ENTER THE NAME OF DATA FILE TO BE READ IN FORM',
1' DK1:DATA##.DAT',/,,' >')
      READ (5,20) IDATA
20     FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,30) IDATA
30     FORMAT (' DATA WILL BE READ FROM THE FILE NAMED ',
17A2,/,,' Y OR N ?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,40) IANS
40     FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 50
150    WRITE (7,110)
110    FORMAT (' ENTER DATA STORAGE FORMAT --- WORD(0) OR BYTE(1)',
1/,,' >')
      READ (5,120) IFORM
120    FORMAT (I1)
      WRITE (7,130) IFORM
130    FORMAT (' DATA STORAGE FORMAT IS TYPE ',I1,/,,' Y OR N ?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,140) IANS
140    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 150
      IF (IFORM.EQ.0) ISIZE=320
      IF (IFORM.EQ.1) ISIZE=160
440    WRITE (7,400)
400    FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF RECORDS IN FILE.',/,,' >')
      READ (5,410) NUMBER
410    FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,420) NUMBER
420    FORMAT (' THE DATA FILE CONTAINS ',I4,' RECORDS.',/,,' Y OR N ?',
1/,,' >')
      READ (5,430) IANS
430    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 440
300    WRITE (7,310)
310    FORMAT (' ENTER RECORD NUMBER TO BE OUTPUT.',/,,' >')
      READ (5,320) NUMREC
320    FORMAT (I4)
      WRITE (7,330) NUMREC
330    FORMAT (' RECORD NUMBER ',I4,' WILL BE OUTPUT.',/,,' Y OR N ?',
1/,,' >')
      READ (5,340) IANS
340    FORMAT (A1)

```

```

      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 300
350  WRITE (7,360)
360  FORMAT (' ENTER STARTING AND ENDING POINTS OF RECORD TO BE',
1' PLOTTED IN FORM',/,10X,' <STARTING,ENDING>',/, ' >')
      READ (5,370) ISTART,IEND
370  FORMAT (2I8)
      WRITE (7,380) ISTART,IEND
380  FORMAT (' THE DATA PLOTTED WILL EXTEND FROM THE INDICES ',
114,' TO ',14,'.',/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,390) IANS
390  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 350
      CALL ASSIGN (12,1DATA,14)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (NUMBER,ISIZE,U,IVAR1)
      READ (12'NUMREC) (IBUF(I),I=1,ISIZE)
      CALL INIT
      NUM=IEND-ISTART+1
      XNUM=FLOAT(NUM)
C      IWIND IS THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE IN INTEGERS.
C      MAXIMUM VALUES ARE (X1,X2,Y1,Y2) --- (0,1024,0,760).
      CALL IWIND(20,1004,20,740)
C      RWIND DEFINES THE REAL NUMBER RANGE (I.E. PROGRAM DATA)
C      WHICH IS MAPPED INTO THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE SPECIFIED
C      IN IWIND. THESE NUMBERS MUST BE FLOATING POINT.
      CALL RWIND(FLOAT(ISTART),FLOAT(IEND),0.,267.)
C      CWIND DEFINES A CLIPPING WINDOW. THE VALUES SPECIFIED ARE IN
C      INTEGER FORMAT AND RELATE TO THE SCREEN COORDINATE RANGE
C      AS SPECIFIED IN THE IWIND DEFINITION.
C      TRANSFORMED DATA VALUES OUTSIDE THE CLIPPING WINDOW WILL
C      NOT BE PLOTTED ON THE SCREEN.
      CALL CWIND(20,1004,20,740)
      IF (IFORM.EQ.0) GO TO 999
C      PLOT ROUTINE FOR CASE WHERE DATA IS IN BYTE FORMAT.
      BUF=LBUF(ISTART)
      CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),BUF)
      DO 100 K=ISTART+1,IEND
      BUF=LBUF(K)
      CALL DRAW(FLOAT(K),BUF)
100  CONTINUE
      GO TO 995
C      PLOT ROUTINE FOR CASE WHERE DATA IS IN INTEGER FORMAT.
999  CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),FLOAT(IBUF(ISTART)))
      DO 101 L=ISTART+1,IEND
      CALL DRAW(FLOAT(L),FLOAT(IBUF(L)))
101  CONTINUE
C      PLOT HORIZONTAL SCALE MARKINGS AT 0,64,128,192,256
995  DO 800 I1=1,257,64
      A=FLOAT(I1-1)
      CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),A)
      CALL DRAW (FLOAT(IEND),A)
800  CONTINUE
      CALL CLOSE (12)
      CALL MOVE(FLOAT(ISTART),267.)
      CALL AMODE

```

```
C      BEFORE PRINTING PLOT I.D. ON SCREEN. TYPE <CR>.
C      READ (5,760) ICHAR
C760     FORMAT (A1)
        WRITE (7,160) IDATA,NUMREC,ISTART,IEND
160     FORMAT ('+DATA FILE ',7A2.5X,'RECORD NO. ',I4.5X,'INDICES ',
114.' THRU ',I4)
C      IN ORDER NOT TO PRINT "STOP" ON SCREEN BEFORE COPY HAS BEEN MADE,
C      LET PROGRAM WAIT TO READ ONE CHARACTER FROM KEYBOARD BEFORE
C      PROCEEDING FURTHER.
        READ (5,761) ICHAR
761     FORMAT (A1)
        WRITE (7,888)
888     FORMAT (' WANT TO PLOT MORE DATA FROM THE SAME FILE? (Y OR N)',/,
1' >')
        READ (5,889) IANS
889     FORMAT (A1)
        IF (IANS.NE.N) GO TO 300
        STOP
        END
```

PLOTS A VARIABLE NUMBER (NUM<=500) OF MANUALLY ENTERED 8 BIT VALUES
ON THE TEKTRONIX GRAPHICS TERMINAL.

6-OCT-78
TEKPLT.FOR 2 3-MAR-78

```
      DIMENSION VAL(500)
      CALL INIT
      WRITE (7,10)
10     FORMAT ('TYPE IN NUMBER OF VALUES TO BE PLOTTED.',/, ' >')
      READ (5,20) NUM
20     FORMAT (I4)
      XNUM=FLOAT(NUM)
      CALL IWIND (20,1004,20,740)
      CALL RWIND (1.,XNUM,-120.,120.)
      CALL CWIND (20,1004,20,740)
      WRITE (7,50)
50     FORMAT (' ENTER VALUES TO BE PLOTTED ONE PER LINE.',/, ' >')
      READ (5,60) (VAL(J),J=1,NUM)
60     FORMAT (F5.0)
C     INSERT WAIT COMMAND TO ALLOW 'PAGE' TO ERASE SCREEN.
      CALL WAIT(6)
      CALL PAGE
      I=1
      CALL MOVE (FLOAT(I),VAL(I))
      DO 100 I=2,NUM
      CALL DRAW (FLOAT(I),VAL(I))
100    CONTINUE
      CALL AMODE
      STOP 'PLOT OF PTR DATA - DATA ENTERED BY HAND.'
      END
```

6-OCT-78
PTSPRD.FOR 1 7-MAY-78

```
C      PROGRAM TO FORMAT POINT SPREAD DATA SO AS TO BE COMPATIBLE
C      WITH JIM FAWCETT'S PERSPECTIVE PLOT ROUTINE. (PLOT3D.FOR)
      DIMENSION A(20,320)
      CALL ASSIGN (11,'DK1:PTSPRD.DAT',14,'NEW','CC')
      CALL ASSIGN (10,'DK1:PTNC16.DAT',14)
      DEFINE FILE 10 (20,640,U,IVAR1)
      DO 500 I=1,20
      READ (10'I) (A(I,J),J=1,320)
500    CONTINUE
      I=10
      WRITE (11,100) I,I
100    FORMAT (1X,I3,1X,I3)
      DO 200 L=1,20
      WRITE (11,300) (A(L,N),N=151,170)
300    FORMAT (5G12.4)
200    CONTINUE
      STOP
      END
```

PLOT ROUTINE BORROWED FROM JIM FAWCETT (GE E-LAB) TO ISOMETRICALLY PLOT
PSI POINT-SPREAD FUNCTION ON TEKTRONIX GRAPHICS DISPLAY.

6-OCT-78
PLOT3D.FOR 6 7-MAY-78

```

COMMON/COMARE/T(50),K(50)
DIMENSION A(36,36),B(36,36),NAME(3)
REAL NAME
WRITE(7,40)
40 FORMAT(1H,'ENTER SOURCE FILENAME')
READ(5,50) NAME
50 FORMAT(3A4)
CALL ASSIGN(10,NAME,0,'OLD')
REWIND 10
CALL INITT(120,T,K)
READ(10,30) IA,JA
30 FORMAT(13,1X,13)
DO 10 I=1,IA
READ(10,20,END=60) (A(I,J),J=1,JA)
20 FORMAT(5G12.4)
10 CONTINUE
IB=IA+4
JB=JA+4
DO 70 I=1,IB
DO 70 J=1,JB
IF(1.LE.2.OR.IA+2.LT.I) GOTO 90
IF(J.GT.2.AND.J.LE.JA+2) GOTO 80
90 B(I,J)=0.
GOTO 70
80 B(I,J)=A(I-2,J-2)
70 CONTINUE
60 CALL PLOT3D(B,IB,JB,T,K)
CALL FINITT(20,20,T,K)
STOP
END
SUBROUTINE PLOT3D(AR,IA,JA)
COMMON/COMARE/T(50),K(50)
DIMENSION AR(36,36)
DATA XH,X0,XF,ZH,Z0,ZF/1.5,.2,.7,.1,.2,.7/
DATA ASAT,AS/1.E+10,.2/
CALL AMAX(AR,IA,JA,ASAT,AMX)
XD=FLOAT(IA-1)*(XH-XF)/(XF-X0)
ZD=ZF*XD/FLOAT(JA-1)
A=(ZH-Z0)/(XH-X0)
B=Z0-A*X0
CALL HIDLIN(A*X0+B,X0,1,T,K)
DO 10 I=1,IA
X=X0+(XH-X0)*FLOAT(I-1)/(XD+FLOAT(I-1))
CALL MOVER(A*X+B,X)
DO 10 J=2,JA
Z=A*X+B+ZD*FLOAT(J-1)/(XD+FLOAT(I-1))
Y=AS*XD*AR(I,J)/(AMX*(XD+FLOAT(I))) + X
CALL HIDLIN(Z,Y,0,T,K)
10 CONTINUE
RETURN
END
SUBROUTINE AMAX(A,IA,JA,ASAT,AMX)
DIMENSION A(36,36)
AMX=-1.E+18

```

```

AMN=1.E+18
DO 10 I=1,IA
DO 10 J=1,JA
IF(A(I,J).GT.AMX) AMX=A(I,J)
IF(A(I,J).LT.AMN) AMN=A(I,J)
10 CONTINUE
DO 20 I=1,IA
DO 20 J=1,JA
IF(A(I,J).GT.ASAT) A(I,J)=ASAT
20 CONTINUE
RETURN
END
SUBROUTINE HIDLIN(X,Y,IFLG)
DIMENSION S(1024)
COMMON/COMARE/T(50),K(50)
DATA FN/1024./
DATA FTEST/1.E-10/
IF(IFLG.EQ.0) GOTO 40
A=(FN-1.)/(T(2)-T(1))
B=1.-A*T(1)
DO 30 I=1,1024
30 S(I)=0.
RETURN
40 IF(ABS(X-T(5)).LT.FTEST) GOTO 10
C=(Y-T(6))/(X-T(5))
D=Y-C*X
XMIN=AMIN1(X,T(5))
XMAX=AMAX1(X,T(5))
FIMIN=A*XMIN+B
FIMAX=A*XMAX+B+1
DX=ABS(X-T(5))/(FIMAX-FIMIN)
IMIN=IFIX(FIMIN)
IMAX=IFIX(FIMAX)-1
XT=XMIN-DX
DO 50 I=IMIN,IMAX
XT=XT+DX
YT=C*XT+D
IF(YT.LT.S(I)) CALL MOVER(XT,YT)
XTP=XT+DX
YTP=C*XTP+D
IF(YT.GE.S(I).AND.YTP.LT.S(I+1)) CALL DRAWR(XT,YT)
IF(YT.GT.S(I)) S(I)=YT
50 CONTINUE
IF(YT.GE.S(IMAX)) CALL DRAWR(X,Y)
IF(YT.LT.S(IMAX)) CALL MOVER(X,Y)
RETURN
10 I=IFIX(A*X+B)
YMAX=AMAX1(Y,T(6))
IF(S(I).GE.YMAX) RETURN
YMIN=AMIN1(Y,T(6))
YMIN=AMAX1(YMIN,S(I))
CALL MOVER(X,YMIN)
CALL DRAWR(X,YMAX)
RETURN
END

```

B-6. POINT SPREAD FUNCTION PROFILING

**RDIMAG.FOR
HPROFL.FOR
HSPRFL.FOR
VSPRFL.FOR**

ROUTINE (NON-GENERAL AS WRITTEN) TO OUTPUT THE VALUES STORED IN AN IMAGE
DATA FILE TO PRINTER FOR EXAMINATION.

2-NOV-78
RDIMAG.FOR 1 29-OCT-78

```
C      PROGRAM TO PRINTOUT UNFORMATTED DATA IN FORMATTED FORM.  
      CALL ASSIGN (13,'DK1:FILE01.IMA',0,'OLD')  
      DEFINE FILE 13 (64,640,U,IVAR3)  
      DIMENSION VALUE(320)  
      DO 500 I=1,64  
      READ (13,I) (VALUE(J),J=1,320)  
500    WRITE (6,100) (VALUE(J),J=1,320)  
100    FORMAT (1X,10F8.2,1X)  
      STOP 'UNFORMATTED TO FORMATTED CONVERSION.'  
      END
```

PLOTS HORIZONTAL BRIGHTNESS PROFILE FOR A SINGLE LINE.

6-OCT-78
HPROFL.FOR 3 26-APR-78

```

C      PROGRAM TO PLOT HORIZONTAL BRIGHTNESS PROFILE FOR DETERMINATION
C      OF DECONVOLUTION FUNCTION.
      DIMENSION IMAGE(7), VAL(320)
      DATA N/1HN/
      CALL INIT
140    WRITE (7,100)
100    FORMAT (' ENTER IMAGE FILE NAME',/,/,' >')
      READ (5,110) IMAGE
110    FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) IMAGE
120    FORMAT (' IMAGE DATA IS FROM FILE ',7A2,/,/,' Y OR N ?',/,/,' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
      CALL ASSIGN (20,IMAGE,14)
      DEFINE FILE 20 (321,640,U,IVAR1)
340    WRITE (7,300)
300    FORMAT (' ENTER SCALE FACTOR [XX.XX]',/,/,' >')
      READ (5,310) SCALE
310    FORMAT (F5.2)
      WRITE (7,320) SCALE
320    FORMAT (' THE SCALE FACTOR IS ',F5.2,/,/,' Y OR N ?',/,/,' >')
      READ (5,330) IANS
330    FORMAT (I1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 340
190    WRITE (7,150)
150    FORMAT (' ENTER HORIZONTAL LINE NUMBER TO BE PROFILED',/,/,' >')
      READ (5,160) LINE
160    FORMAT (I3)
      WRITE (7,170) LINE
170    FORMAT (' LINE NUMBER ',I3,' WILL BE PROFILED.'
1,/,/,' Y OR N ?',/,/,' >')
      READ (5,180) IANS
180    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 190
      READ (20*LINE) (VAL(J),J=1,320)
C      *****GRAPHICS*****
      CALL IWIND (20,1004,20,740)
      CALL RWIND (150.,171.,0.,512.)
      CALL CWIND (20,1004,20,740)
      CALL WAIT(6)
      CALL PAGE
      CALL MOVE (1.,(VAL(1))/SCALE)
      DO 500 K=2,320
      CALL DRAW (FLOAT(K), (VAL(K))/SCALE)
500    CONTINUE
      CALL AMODE
700    CONTINUE
      STOP
      END

```

PLOTS HORIZONTAL BRIGHTNESS PROFILES IN A CONTOUR FASHHION, BUT
WITHOUT A HIDDEN LINE ALGORITHM.

6-OCT-78
HSPRFL.FOR 3 26-APR-78

```

C      PROGRAM TO PLOT HORIZONTAL BRIGHTNESS PROFILE FOR DETERMINATION
C      OF DECONVOLUTION FUNCTION.
      DIMENSION IMAGE(7), VAL(320)
      DATA N/1HN/
140    WRITE (7,100)
100    FORMAT (' ENTER IMAGE FILE NAME',/, ' >')
      READ (5,110) IMAGE
110    FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) IMAGE
120    FORMAT (' IMAGE DATA IS FROM FILE ',7A2,/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
      CALL ASSIGN (20,IMAGE,14)
      DEFINE FILE 20 (321,640,U,IVAR1)
340    WRITE (7,300)
300    FORMAT (' ENTER SCALE FACTOR [XX.XX]',/, ' >')
      READ (5,310) SCALE
310    FORMAT (F5.2)
      WRITE (7,320) SCALE
320    FORMAT (' THE SCALE FACTOR IS ',F5.2,/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,330) IANS
330    FORMAT (I1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 340
      CALL INIT
C      *****GRAPHICS*****
      DO 700 N=15,300,15
      LINE=N/15
      READ (20,LINE) (VAL(J),J=1,320)
      CALL IWIND (10+N,704+N,10+N,440+N)
      CALL RWIND (151,170,0,512)
      CALL CWIND (20,1004,20,740)
      CALL MOVE (1, (VAL(1))/SCALE)
      DO 500 K=2,320
      CALL DRAW (FLOAT(K), (VAL(K))/SCALE)
      CONTINUE
      CALL AMODE
700    CONTINUE
      STOP
      END

```

PLOTS VERTICAL BRIGHTNESS PROFILE WITHIN THE CENTRAL (20X20) PIXEL REGION
OF THE (320X320) DISPLAYED IMAGE USED TO EXAMINE THE POINT-SPREAD FUNCTION.

6-OCT-78
VSPRFL.FOR 3 26-APR-78

```

C      PROGRAM TO PLOT VERTICAL BRIGHTNESS PROFILE FOR DETERMINATION
C      OF DECONVOLUTION FUNCTION.
      DIMENSION IMAGE(7), VAL(20),XVAL(320)
      DATA N/1HN/
140    WRITE (7,100)
100    FORMAT (' ENTER IMAGE FILE NAME',/, ' >')
      READ (5,110) IMAGE
110    FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) IMAGE
120    FORMAT (' IMAGE DATA IS FROM FILE ',7A2,/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
      CALL ASSIGN (20,IMAGE,14)
      DEFINE FILE 20 (31,640,U,IVAR1)
340    WRITE (7,300)
300    FORMAT (' ENTER SCALE FACTOR [XX.XX]',/, ' >')
      READ (5,310) SCALE
310    FORMAT (F5.2)
      WRITE (7,320) SCALE
320    FORMAT (' THE SCALE FACTOR IS ',F5.2,/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,330) IANS
330    FORMAT (I1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 340
      CALL INIT
C      *****GRAPHICS*****
      DO 700 N=15,300,15
      LINE=(N/15)+149
      DO 888 MN=1,20
      READ (20,MN) (XVAL(J),J=1,320)
      VAL(MN)=XVAL(LINE)
888    CONTINUE
      CALL IWIND (10+N,704+N,10+N,440+N)
      CALL RWIND (1.,20.,0.,512.)
      CALL CWIND (20,1004,20,740)
      CALL MOVE (1.,(VAL(1))/SCALE)
      DO 500 K=2,20
      CALL DRAW (FLOAT(K),(VAL(K))/SCALE)
500    CONTINUE
      CALL AMODE
700    CONTINUE
      STOP
      END

```

B-7. IMAGE PROCESSING

**FFT.FOR
FFT2D.FOR
FFTDIV.FOR
TWODIM.FOR
RELIMA.FOR
DIVIDE.FOR
INVERT.FOR
MAGNIT.FOR
PULL64.FOR
HISTOG.FOR**

SUBROUTINE TO CALCULATE ≤ 1024 POINT FFT (ONE DIMENSIONAL)
OF A GIVEN SIGNAL. NUMBER OF POINTS IN FFT MUST BE A POWER OF TWO.

6-OCT-78
FFT .FOR 2 28-APR-78

```
SUBROUTINE FFT(A,M)
COMPLEX A(1024),U,W,T
PI=3.14159265
N=2**M
NV2=N/2
NM1=N-1
J=1
DO 10 I=1,NM1
  IF(I,GE,J) GOTO 20
  T=A(J)
  A(J)=A(I)
  A(I)=T
20 K=NV2
30 IF(K,GE,J) GOTO 10
  J=J-K
  K=K/2
  GOTO 30
10 J=J+K
  DO 40 L=1,M
    LE=2**L
    LE1=LE/2
    U=CMPLX(1.,0.)
    W=CMPLX(COS(PI/LE1),-SIN(PI/LE1))
    DO 40 J=1,LE1
      DO 50 I=J,N,LE
        IP=I+LE1
        T=A(IP)*U
        A(IP)=A(I)-T
50 A(I)=A(I)+T
40 U=U*W
  RETURN
END
```

ROUTINE TO CALCULATE TWO DIMENSIONAL FFT OF THE 64X64 ARRAY LOCATED AT THE CENTER OF THE PSI IMAGING ARRAY. INTERMEDIATE CALCULATIONS STORED IN CORE MEMORY.

6-OCT-78
FFT2D .FOR 5 13-MAY-78

```

C      PROGRAM TO COMPUTE 2-D FFT OF POINT-SPREAD FUNCTION.
C      INITIAL APPLICATION TO A 64X64 POINT SPREAD FUNCTION R(64,64)
C      DIMENSION IPTSPD(7),IOUT(7),R(64,64),Z(320),IDESCR(24),XIM(64,64)

      COMPLEX A(64)
      DATA N/1HN/
      DATA IDESCR/2HFF,2HT ,2HOF,2H P,2HOI,2HNT,2H S,2HPR,2HEA,2HD ,
12HFU,2HNC,2HCT,2HIO,2HN ,2H--,2H 1,2H6 ,2HTR,2HAN,
12HSD,2HUC,2HER,2HS./
140    WRITE (7,100)
100    FORMAT (' ENTER NAMES OF POINT-SPREAD ARRAY AND OUTPUT ',
1'FFT FILES ',/,/, ' IN FORM: <DK1:IPTSPD.DAT,
1DK1:OUTPUT.DAT>',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,110) IPTSPD,IOUT
110    FORMAT (7A2,1X,7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) IPTSPD,IOUT
120    FORMAT (' THE POINT-SPREAD FUNCTION IS IN THE FILE ',
1'NAMED ',7A2,/,/, ' THE FFT OF THE POINT-SPREAD FUNCTION WILL BE ',
1'STORED IN THE FILE ',/,/, ' NAMED ',7A2,/,/, ' Y OR N ?',/,/, ' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
      CALL ASSIGN (11,IPTSPD,14)
      CALL ASSIGN (12,IOUT,14)
      DEFINE FILE 11 (64,640,U,IVAR1)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (65,640,U,IVAR2)
C      READ IN POINT-SPREAD IMAGE ARRAY.
      DO 150 I=1,64
      READ (11'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
C      STRIP OFF FIRST AND LAST 128 POINTS PER LINE OF IMAGE ARRAY.
      DO 700 J=1,64
      R(I,J)=Z(J+128)
700    CONTINUE
150    CONTINUE
C      *****
C      COMPUTE FFT AND STORE ON DISC FILE.
C      *****
C      FORM COMPLEX ARRAY FOR FFT.
C      *****ROW CALCULATIONS*****
      DO 200 K=1,64
      DO 210 L=1,64
      A(L)=CMPLX(R(K,L),0.)
210    CONTINUE
      CALL FFT(A,6)
C      FFT OF ROW REPLACED INTO ARRAY 'A'.
C      PLACE FFT OF ROW BACK INTO POINT-SPREAD ARRAY.
      DO 220 M=1,64
      R(K,M)=REAL(A(M))
      XIM(K,M)=AIMAG(A(M))
220    CONTINUE
200    CONTINUE
C      *****COLUMN CALCULATIONS*****
      DO 300 KK=1,64
      DO 310 LL=1,64
      A(LL)=CMPLX(R(LL,KK),XIM(LL,KK))

```

```
310 CONTINUE
    CALL FFT(A,6)
C     FFT OF COLUMN REPLACED INTO ARRAY 'A'.
C     PLACE FFT OF COLUMN BACK INTO POINT-SPREAD ARRAY.
    DO 320 MM=1,64
      R(MM,MM)=REAL(A(MM))
320 CONTINUE
300 CONTINUE
C     WRITE TRANSFORMED ARRAY, R(64,64), ONTO DISC FILE.
    DO 710 I=1,320
710 Z(I)=0.
    DO 400 I=1,64
C     RESTORE LEADING AND TRAILING 128 PIXELS FOR COMPATIBILITY
C     WITH PSIGEN DISPLAY ALGORITHM.
    DO 720 JJ=1,64
720 Z(JJ+128)=R(I,JJ)
    WRITE (12'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
400 CONTINUE
    WRITE (12'65) (IDESC(I),I=1,24)
    STOP 'TWO DIMENSIONAL FFT OF PSI POINT SPREAD FUNCTION.'
    END
```

PROGRAM TO DIVIDE ONE REAL (64X64) FFT ARRAY BY ANOTHER.

6-OCT-78
FFTDIV.FOR

5 14-MAY-78

```

C      TWO-DIMENSIONAL 64 POINT FFT.
C      PROGRAM TO DIVIDE TWO-DIMENSIONAL FFT OF IMAGE ARRAY BY
C      TWO-DIMENSIONAL FFT OF POINT-SPREAD FUNCTION.
      DIMENSION AFFT(64,64),BFFT(64),TEMP(320),IMAGE(7),ISPRED(7),
      1IQUOT(7),IDESCR(13)
      DATA IDESCR/2H64,2H X,2H 6,2H4 ,2HFF,2HT ,2HQU,2HOT,2HIE,2HNT,
      12H A,2HRR,2HAY/
      DATA N/1HN/
140     WRITE (7,100)
100     FORMAT (' ENTER NAMES OF IMAGE FFT ARRAY, POINT-SPREAD ',
1' FFT ARRAY, AND',/, ' QUOTIENT FFT ARRAY FILES IN FORM: ',
1/, ' <DK1:FIMAGE.DAT,DK1:FSPRED.DAT,DK1:FFQUOT.DAT>',/, ' >')
      READ (5,110) IMAGE,ISPRED,IQUOT
110     FORMAT (7A2,1X,7A2,1X,7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) IMAGE,ISPRED,IQUOT
120     FORMAT (' THE IMAGE FFT IS FROM THE FILE NAMED: ',7A2,/,
1' THE POINT-SPREAD FFT IS FROM THE FILE NAMED: ',7A2,/,
1' THE QUOTIENT FFT WILL BE STORED IN THE FILE NAMED: ',7A2,/,
1' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130     FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
      CALL ASSIGN (11,IMAGE,14)
      CALL ASSIGN (12,ISPRED,14)
      CALL ASSIGN (13,IQUOT,14)
      DEFINE FILE 11 (65,640,U,IVAR1)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (65,640,U,IVAR2)
      DEFINE FILE 13 (65,640,U,IVAR3)
C      FFT FILES ARE COMPATIBLE WITH PSIGEN.FOR DISPLAY,
C      MUST STRIP OFF FIRST AND LAST 128 WORDS OF EACH LINE.
      DO 200 I=1,64
      READ (11,I) (TEMP(J),J=1,320)
      DO 210 K=1,64
210     AFFT(I,K)=TEMP(K+128)
200     CONTINUE
      DO 600 M=1,64
      READ (12,M) (TEMP(J),J=1,320)
C      DUE TO LIMITED MEMORY, READ OUT BFFT() ONE LINE AT A TIME.
C      MUST STRIP OFF FIRST AND LAST 128 WORDS OF LINE.
      DO 610 K=1,64
610     BFFT(K)=TEMP(K+128)
C      DIVIDE AFFT() BY BFFT() AND PLACE RESULT IN AFFT().
      DO 310 N=1,64
C      IN ORDER TO GUARD AGAINST DIVISION BY ZERO, SHOULD BFFT(N)=0.,
C      THEN SET AUTOMATICALLY SET QUOTIENT TO ZERO.
      IF (BFFT(N).NE.0.) GO TO 310
      AFFT(M,N)=0.
      GO TO 600
310     AFFT(M,N)=AFFT(M,N)/BFFT(N)
600     CONTINUE
C      RESTORE LEADING AND TRAILING 128 PIXELS FOR COMPATIBILITY
C      WITH PSIGEN DISPLAY ALGORITHM.
      DO 400 I=1,320
400     TEMP(I)=0.

```

```
DO 500 I=1.64
DO 510 J=1.64
510 TEMP(I,128)=AFFT(I,J)
WRITE (13,I) (TEMP(K),K=1,320)
500 CONTINUE
WRITE (13,65) (IDESC(I),I=1,13)
STOP 'QUOTIENT OF FFTC IMAGE J/FFTC POINT-SPREADJ.'
END
```

ROUTINE TO TAKE 2-D FFT OF THE CENTRAL PORTION OF A 64X320 DATA ARRAY.
INTERMEDIATE CALCULATIONS ARE STORED IN CORE MEMORY.

6-OCT-78
TJODIM.FOR 6 24-MAY-78

```

C      PROGRAM TO COMPUTE 2-D FFT OF A 64X64 REAL DATA ARRAY.
C      DUE TO MEMORY LIMITATIONS OF THE PDP-11/35, THIS PROGRAM
C      WILL ONLY RUN ON THE PDP 11/40 IN BASEMENT.
C      REAL AND IMAGINARY PARTS WILL BE KEPT IN SEPARATE FILES
C      TO FACILITATE ANALYSIS.
      DIMENSION INPUT(7),R(64,64),Z(320),IDREAL(9),IDIMAG(11)
      DIMENSION XIM(64,64),IOUTR(7),IOUTI(7)
      COMPLEX A(64)
      DATA N/1HN/
      DATA IDREAL/2HRE,2HAL,2H F,2HFT,2H O,2HF ,2HF1,2HLE,2H /
      DATA IDIMAG/2HIM,2HAG,2HIN,2HAR,2HY ,2HFF,2HT ,2HOF,2H F,
12HIL,2HE /
140    WRITE (7,100)
100    FORMAT (' ENTER NAMES OF INPUT ARRAY AND [RE] AND [IM] OUTPUT ',
1'FFT FILES ',/,,' IN FORM: <DK1:INPUTX.DAT,
      IDK1:REALXX.DAT,DK1:IMAGXX.DAT>',/,,' >')
      READ (5,110) INPUT,IOUTR,IOUTI
110    FORMAT (7A2,1X,7A2,1X,7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) INPUT,IOUTR,IOUTI
120    FORMAT (' THE INPUT ARRAY IS IN FILE ',7A2,/,,' THE REAL ',
1'FFT PART OF THE INPUT ARRAY WILL BE STORED IN FILE ',
17A2,/,,' THE IMAGINARY FFT PART OF THE INPUT ARRAY WILL ',
1'BE STORED IN FILE ',7A2,/,,' Y OR N ?',/,,' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130    FORMAT (A1)          THIS VERSION OF 2-D FFT STORES
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140 ALL INTERMEDIATE CALCULATIONS
      CALL ASSIGN (11,INPUT,14) IN CORE MEMORY. (MAY BE USED ON
      CALL ASSIGN (12,IOUTR,14) PDP 11/40 IN BASEMENT.)
      CALL ASSIGN (13,IOUTI,14)
      DEFINE FILE 11 (64,640,U,IVAR1)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (65,640,U,IVAR2)
      DEFINE FILE 13 (65,640,U,IVAR3)
C      READ IN INPUT IMAGE ARRAY.
      DO 150 I=1,64
      READ (11,I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
C      STRIP OFF FIRST AND LAST 128 POINTS PER LINE OF IMAGE ARRAY.
      DO 700 J=1,64
700    R(I,J)=Z(J+128)
150    CONTINUE
C      *****
C      COMPUTE FFT AND STORE ON DISC FILE.
C      *****
C      FORM COMPLEX ARRAY FOR FFT.
C      ***ROW CALCULATIONS***
      DO 200 K=1,64
      DO 210 L=1,64
C      FORM ROW ARRAY.
      A(L)=CMPLX(R(K,L),0.)
210    CONTINUE
      CALL FFT(A,6)
C      FFT OF ROW REPLACED INTO ARRAY 'A'.
C      PLACE FFT OF ROW BACK INTO POINT-SPREAD ARRAY.
      DO 220 M=1,64
      R(K,M)=REAL(A(M))

```

```

XIM(K,M)=AIMAG(A(M))
220 CONTINUE
200 CONTINUE
C ***COLUMN CALCULATIONS***
DO 300 KK=1,64
DO 310 LL=1,64
A(LL)=CMPLX(R(LL, KK), XIM(LL, KK))
310 CONTINUE
CALL FFT(A, 6)
C FFT OF COLUMN REPLACED INTO ARRAY 'A'.
C PLACE FFT OF COLUMN BACK INTO POINT-SPREAD ARRAY.
DO 320 MM=1,64
R(MM, KK)=REAL(A(MM))
XIM(MM, KK)=AIMAG(A(MM))
320 CONTINUE
300 CONTINUE
C WRITE TRANSFORMED ARRAY [RE], R(64,64), ONTO DISC FILE.
C WRITE TRANSFORMED ARRAY [IM], XIM(64,64), ONTO DISC FILE.
DO 710 I=1,320
710 Z(I)=0.
DO 400 I=1,64
C RESTORE LEADING AND TRAILING 128 PIXELS FOR COMPATIBILITY
C WITH PSIGEN DISPLAY ALGORITHM.
DO 720 JJ=1,64
720 Z(JJ+128)=R(I, JJ)
WRITE (12'I) (Z(J), J=1,320)
DO 730 JJ=1,64
730 Z(JJ+128)=XIM(I, JJ)
WRITE (13'I) (Z(J), J=1,320)
400 CONTINUE
WRITE (12'65) (IDREAL(I), I=1,9), (INPUT(J), J=1,7)
WRITE (13'65) (IDIMAG(I), I=1,11), (INPUT(J), J=1,7)
STOP 'TWO DIMENSIONAL FFT OF A (64 X 64) DATA ARRAY.'
END

```

SAME AS 'TWO DIM.FOR' EXCEPT THAT INTERMEDIATE VALUES ARE STORED ON DISC DUE TO LIMITED CORE MEMORY.

6-OCT-78
RELIMA.FOR 6 15-MAY-78

```

C      PROGRAM TO COMPUTE 2-D FFT OF INPUT FUNCTION.
C      INITIAL APPLICATION TO A 64X64 INPUT FUNCTION R(64,64)
      DIMENSION INPUT(7), IOUTR(7), IOUTI(7), R(64,64), Z(320),
11DREAL(14), IDIMAG(16), XIM(320), ZERO(320)
      COMPLEX A(64)
      DATA N/1HN/
      DATA ZERO/320*0./
      DATA IDREAL/2HRE,2HAL,2H F,2HFT,2H O,2HF ,2HIN,2HPU,2HT ,2HFU,
12HNC,2HTI,2HON,2H--/
      DATA IDIMAG/2HIM,2HAG,2HIN,2HAR,2HY ,2HFF,2HT ,2HOF,2H I,2HNP,
12HUT,2H F,2HUN,2HCT,2HIO,2HN-/
140     WRITE (7,100)
100     FORMAT (' ENTER NAMES OF INPUT ARRAY, OUTPUT REAL FFT, AND ',
1' OUTPUT IMAGINARY FFT FILES ',/, ' IN FORM: <DK1:INPUTX.DAT,',
1' DK1:OUREAL.DAT,DK1:OUTIMAG.DAT>',/, ' >')
      READ (5,110) INPUT, IOUTR, IOUTI
110     FORMAT (7A2, 1X, 7A2, 1X, 7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) INPUT, IOUTR, IOUTI
120     FORMAT (' THE INPUT FUNCTION IS IN THE FILE ',7A2,/,
1' THE REAL FFT OF INPUT FUNCTION WILL BE IN FILE ',7A2,/,
1' THE IMAGINARY FFT OF INPUT FUNCTION WILL BE IN FILE ',7A2,/,
1' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130     FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
      CALL ASSIGN (11, INPUT, 14)
      CALL ASSIGN (12, IOUTR, 14)
      CALL ASSIGN (13, IOUTI, 14)
      DEFINE FILE 11 (64,640,U, IVAR1)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (65,640,U, IVAR2)
      DEFINE FILE 13 (65,640,U, IVAR3)
C      READ IN POINT-SPREAD IMAGE ARRAY.
      DO 150 I=1,64
      READ (11,I) (Z(J), J=1,320)
C      STRIP OFF FIRST AND LAST 128 POINTS PER LINE OF IMAGE ARRAY.
      DO 700 J=1,64
700     R(I,J)=Z(J+128)
150     CONTINUE
C      *****
C      COMPUTE FFT AND STORE ON DISC FILE.
C      *****
C      FORM COMPLEX ARRAY FOR FFT.
C      ***ROW CALCULATIONS***
      DO 200 K=1,64
      DO 210 L=1,64
      A(L)=CMPLX(R(K,L),0.)
210     CONTINUE
      CALL FFT(A,6)
C      FFT OF ROW REPLACED INTO ARRAY 'A'.
C      PLACE FFT OF ROW BACK INTO POINT-SPREAD ARRAY.
      DO 220 M=1,64
      R(K,M)=REAL(A(M))
      XIM(M)=AIMAG(A(M))
220     CONTINUE

```

THIS VERSION FOR 2-D FFT USES
INTERMEDIATE DISC DATA STORAGE
DUE TO LIMITED CORE MEMORY.
(FOR USE ON 1st FLOOR PDP 11/355)

```

C      PLACE IMAGINARY PART OF ROW FFT IN DISC FILE.
      WRITE (13'K) (XIM(M),M=1,64)
200    CONTINUE
      DO 510 I=1,65
510    WRITE (13'I) (ZERO(J),J=1,320)
C      ***COLUMN CALCULATIONS***
      DO 300 KK=1,64
      DO 310 LL=1,64
C      READ ENTIRE IMAGINARY PART ROW FROM DISC FILE AND PULL OUT
C      ELEMENT (KK).
      READ (13'LL) (XIM(III),III=1,64)
      A(LL)=CMPLX(R(LL,KK),XIM(KK))
310    CONTINUE
C      COLUMN (KK) MATRIX IS NOW COMPLETE.
      CALL FFT(A,6)
C      FFT OF COLUMN REPLACED INTO ARRAY 'A'.
C      PLACE FFT OF COLUMN BACK INTO POINT-SPREAD ARRAY.
      DO 320 MM=1,64
      R(MM,KK)=REAL(A(MM))
      READ (13'MM) (XIM(N),N=1,320)
      XIM(KK+128)=AIMAG(A(MM))
      WRITE (13'MM) (XIM(N),N=1,320)
320    CONTINUE
300    CONTINUE
C      WRITE TRANSFORMED ARRAY, R(64,64), ONTO DISC FILE.
      DO 710 I=1,320
710    Z(I)=0.
      DO 400 I=1,64
C      RESTORE LEADING AND TRAILING 128 PIXELS FOR COMPATIBILITY
C      WITH PSIGEN DISPLAY ALGORITHM.
      DO 720 JJ=1,64
720    Z(JJ+128)=R(I,JJ)
      WRITE (12'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
400    CONTINUE
      WRITE (12'65) IDESCR,IOUTR
      WRITE (13'65) IDESCR,IOUTI
      STOP 'TWO DIMENSIONAL FFT OF PSI POINT SPREAD FUNCTION.'
      END

```

THIS ROUTINE WILL DIVIDE ONE (64X64) FFT ARRAY BY ANOTHER, GIVEN THE REAL AND IMAGINARY PARTS OF EACH FROM SEPARATE FILES.

6-OCT-78
DIVIDE.FOR 7 24-MAY-78

```

C      PROGRAM TO DIVIDE TWO (64X64) FFT ARRAYS.
        DIMENSION AAREAL(64),AAIMAG(64),BREAL(64),BIMAG(64),
        1Y(320),Z(320),FFTRL(64,64),FFTIM(64,64),IDREAL(14),IDIMAG(17),
        1IAREAL(7),IAIMAG(7),IBREAL(7),IBIMAG(7),IQREAL(7),IQIMAG(7)
        COMPLEX A(64),B(64),C
        DATA IDREAL/2HRE,2HAL,2H Q,2HUD,2HTI,2HEN,2HT ,2HOF,2H F,2HFT,
        12H A,2HRR,2HAY,2HS /
        DATA IDIMAG/2HIM,2HAG,2HIN,2HAR,2HY ,2HQU,2HOT,2HIE,2HNT,2H O,
        12HF ,2HFF,2HT ,2HAR,2HRA,2HYS,2H /
        DATA N/1HN/
140     WRITE (7,100)
100     FORMAT (' ENTER NAMES OF [RE] DIVIDEND, [IM] DIVIDEND,',
        1'[RE] DIVISOR, [IM] DIVISOR.',/, ' [RE] QUOTIENT, AND',
        1'[IM] QUOTIENT FILES IN FORM:',/, ' <DK1:DIVIDR.DAT,',
        1'DK1:DIVIDI.DAT<CR>DK1:DIVISR.DAT,DK1:DIVISI.DAT<CR>',/,
        1' DK1:QUOTR.DAT,DK1:QUOTI.DAT<CR>>')
        READ (5,110) IAREAL,IAIMAG,IBREAL,IBIMAG,IQREAL,IQIMAG
110     FORMAT (7A2,1X,7A2)
        WRITE (5,120) IAREAL,IAIMAG,IBREAL,IBIMAG,IQREAL,IQIMAG
120     FORMAT (' RE[A]= ',7A2.5X,' IM[A]= ',7A2,/,
        1' RE[B]= ',7A2.5X,' IM[B]= ',7A2,/, ' RE[QUOT]= ',7A2.5X,
        1' IM[QUOT]= ',7A2,/, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
        READ (5,130) IANS
130     FORMAT (A1)
        IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
200     WRITE (7,210)
210     FORMAT (' ENTER FFT DIVISOR THRESHOLD VALUE <F5.2>.',/, ' >')
        READ (5,220) THRESH
220     FORMAT (F5.2)
        WRITE (7,230) THRESH
230     FORMAT (' FFT DIVISOR THRESHOLD VALUE = ',F5.2,/,
        1' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
        READ (5,240) IANS
240     FORMAT (A1)
        IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 200
        CALL ASSIGN (11,IAREAL,14)
        CALL ASSIGN (12,IAIMAG,14)
        CALL ASSIGN (13,IBREAL,14)
        CALL ASSIGN (14,IBIMAG,14)
        CALL ASSIGN (15,IQREAL,14)
        CALL ASSIGN (16,IQIMAG,14)
        DEFINE FILE 11 (65,640,U,IVAR1)
        DEFINE FILE 12 (65,640,U,IVAR2)
        DEFINE FILE 13 (65,640,U,IVAR3)
        DEFINE FILE 14 (65,640,U,IVAR4)
        DEFINE FILE 15 (65,640,U,IVAR5)
        DEFINE FILE 16 (65,640,U,IVAR6)
C      FFT FILES ARE COMPATIBLE WITH PSIGEN DISPLAY.
C      MUST STRIP OFF FIRST AND LAST 128 WORDS OF EACH LINE.
C      COMPLEX DIVIDE POINT BY POINT, ROW BY ROW.
        DO 500 I=1,64
        READ (11'I) (Y(J),J=1,320)
        READ (12'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
C      STRIP OFF LEADING AND TRAILING 128 WORDS.

```

```

DO 510 K=1,64
AAREAL(K)=Y(K+128)
510 AAIMAG(K)=Z(K+128)
READ (13'I) (Y(J),J=1,320)
READ (14'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
C STRIP OFF LEADING AND TRAILING 128 WORDS.
DO 520 K=1,64
BREAL(K)=Y(K+128)
520 BIMAG(K)=Z(K+128)
C FORM COMPLEX ROWS FOR DIVIDEND AND DIVISOR.
C DIVIDE OUT POINT BY POINT ACROSS ROW.
DO 530 K=1,64
A(K)=CMPLX(AAREAL(K),AAIMAG(K))
B(K)=CMPLX(BREAL(K),BIMAG(K))
C CHECK FOR AN ARBITRARILY VANISHING DIVISOR.
C IF MAGNITUDE OF DIVISOR IS NOT GREATER THAN THRESHOLD VALUE
C ENTERED AT BEGINNING OF PROGRAM, THEN LEAVE DIVIDEND
C UNCHANGED.
IF (SQRT((BREAL(K))**2.+(BIMAG(K))**2.).GT.THRESH) GO TO 700
C=A(K)
GO TO 710
700 C=A(K)/B(K)
710 FFTRL(I,K)=REAL(C)
530 FFTIM(I,K)=AIMAG(C)
500 CONTINUE
C ADD BACK LEADING AND TRAILING 128 WORDS FOR PSIGEN COMPATIBILITY.
C INITIALIZE TEMPORARY OUTPUT ARRAY.
DO 800 N=1,320
Y(N)=0.
800 Z(N)=0.
C WRITE OUTPUT TO DISC FILE.
DO 600 I=1,64
DO 610 J=1,64
Y(128+J)=FFTRL(I,J)
610 Z(128+J)=FFTIM(I,J)
WRITE (15'I) (Y(K),K=1,320)
WRITE (16'I) (Z(K),K=1,320)
600 CONTINUE
WRITE (15'65) (IDREAL(I),I=1,14),(IQREAL(J),J=1,7)
WRITE (16'65) (IDIMAG(I),I=1,17),(IQIMAG(J),J=1,7)
STOP 'COMPLEX DIVISION OF TWO (64X64) FFT ARRAYS.'
END

```

PROGRAM TO COMPUTE INVERSE FFT OF A 64X64 IMAGE TRANSFORM SPECIFIED BY ITS REAL AND IMAGINARY PARTS. REAL AND IMAGINARY PARTS OF OUTPUT ARE STORED IN SEPARATE FILES. THE INVERTED IMAGE WILL BE EQUIVALENT TO THE FFT INVERSE EXCEPT FOR THE FACT THAT DIAGONALLY OPPOSITE QUADRANTS OF THE RESULTANT IMAGE MUST BE INTERCHANGED.

6-OCT-78
INVERT.FOR 7 24-MAY-78

```

C      PROGRAM TO COMPUTE 2-D FFT OF A 64X64 REAL DATA ARRAY.
C      DUE TO MEMORY LIMITATIONS OF THE PDP-11/35, THIS PROGRAM
C      WILL ONLY RUN ON THE PDP 11/40 IN BASEMENT.
C      REAL AND IMAGINARY PARTS WILL BE KEPT IN SEPARATE FILES
C      TO FACILITATE ANALYSIS.
      DIMENSION INPUTR(7),R(64,64),Z(320),IDREAL(9),IDIMAG(11)
      DIMENSION XIM(64,64),IOUTR(7),IOUTI(7),Y(320),INPUTI(7)

      COMPLEX A(64)
      DATA N/1HN/
      DATA IDREAL/2HRE,2HAL,2H F,2HFT,2H O,2HF ,2HFI,2HLE,2H /
      DATA IDIMAG/2HIM,2HAG,2HIN,2HAR,2HY ,2HFF,2HT ,2HOF,2H F,
12HIL,2HE /
140    WRITE (7,100)
100    FORMAT (' ENTER NAMES OF [RE] AND [IM] INPUT ARRAY AND ',
1' [RE] AND [IM] OUTPUT FFT FILES ',/, ' IN FORM: ',
1' <DK1: INPUTR.DAT,DK1: INPUTI.DAT,DK1: REALXX.DAT,',
1' DK1: IMAGXX.DAT>',/, ' >')
      READ (5,110) INPUTR,INPUTI,IOUTR,IOUTI
110    FORMAT (7A2,1X,7A2,1X,7A2,1X,7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) INPUTR,INPUTI,IOUTR,IOUTI
120    FORMAT (' THE REAL PART OF THE INPUT ARRAY IS IN FILE ',7A2,/,
1' THE IMAGINARY PART OF THE INPUT ARRAY IS IN FILE ',7A2,/,
1' THE REAL FFT PART OF THE INPUT ARRAY WILL BE STORED IN FILE ',
17A2,/, ' THE IMAGINARY FFT PART OF THE INPUT ARRAY WILL BE ',
1'STORED IN FILE ',7A2, ' Y OR N ?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130    FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
      CALL ASSIGN (10,INPUTR,14)
      CALL ASSIGN (11,INPUTI,14)
      CALL ASSIGN (12,IOUTR,14)
      CALL ASSIGN (13,IOUTI,14)
      DEFINE FILE 10 (64,640,U,IVAR4)
      DEFINE FILE 11 (64,640,U,IVAR1)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (65,640,U,IVAR2)
      DEFINE FILE 13 (65,640,U,IVAR3)
C      READ IN INPUT IMAGE ARRAY.
      DO 150 I=1,64
      READ (10,I) (Y(J),J=1,320)
      READ (11,I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
C      STRIP OFF FIRST AND LAST 128 POINTS PER LINE OF IMAGE ARRAY.
      DO 700 J=1,64
      XIM(I,J)=Z(J+128)
      R(I,J)=Y(J+128)
700
150    CONTINUE
C      *****
C      COMPUTE FFT AND STORE ON DISC FILE.
C      *****
C      FORM COMPLEX ARRAY FOR FFT.
C      ***ROW CALCULATIONS***
      DO 200 K=1,64
      DO 210 L=1,64
C      FORM ROW ARRAY.

```

```

A(L)=CPLX(R(K,L),XIM(K,L))
210 CONTINUE
CALL FFT(A,6)
C FFT OF ROW REPLACED INTO ARRAY 'A'.
C PLACE FFT OF ROW BACK INTO POINT-SPREAD ARRAY.
DO 220 M=1,64
R(K,M)=REAL(A(M))
XIM(K,M)=AIMAG(A(M))
220 CONTINUE
200 CONTINUE
C ***COLUMN CALCULATIONS***
DO 300 KK=1,64
DO 310 LL=1,64
A(LL)=CPLX(R(LL,KK),XIM(LL,KK))
310 CONTINUE
CALL FFT(A,6)
C FFT OF COLUMN REPLACED INTO ARRAY 'A'.
C PLACE FFT OF COLUMN BACK INTO POINT-SPREAD ARRAY.
DO 320 MM=1,64
R(MM,KK)=REAL(A(MM))
XIM(MM,KK)=AIMAG(A(MM))
320 CONTINUE
300 CONTINUE
C WRITE TRANSFORMED ARRAY [RE], R(64,64), ONTO DISC FILE.
C WRITE TRANSFORMED ARRAY [IM], XIM(64,64), ONTO DISC FILE.
DO 710 I=1,320
Z(I)=0.
710 DO 400 I=1,64
C RESTORE LEADING AND TRAILING 128 PIXELS FOR COMPATIBILITY
C WITH PSIGEN DISPLAY ALGORITHM.
DO 720 JJ=1,64
720 Z(JJ+128)=R(I,JJ)
WRITE (12'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
DO 730 JJ=1,64
730 Z(JJ+128)=XIM(I,JJ)
WRITE (13'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
400 CONTINUE
WRITE (12'65) (IDREAL(I),I=1,9),(INPUTR(I),I=1,7)
WRITE (13'65) (IDIMAG(I),I=1,11),(INPUTI(I),I=1,7)
STOP 'TWO DIMENSIONAL FFT OF A (64 X 64) DATA ARRAY.'
END

```

CALCULATED THE MAGNITUDE ARRAY OF A GIVEN (64X64) FFT ARRAY.

6-OCT-78
MAGNIT.FOR 2 23-MAY-78

```
C      PROGRAM TO FORM MAGNITUDE ARRAY (64X64) FROM REAL AND
C      IMAGINARY PARTS OF INVERTED FFT ARRAY.
      DIMENSION A(320),B(320),C(320),IDESCR(5)
      DATA IDESCR/2HMA,2HGN,2HIT,2HUD,2HE /
      DATA C/320*0./
      CALL ASSIGN (11,'DK1:TROUTR.INV',14)
      CALL ASSIGN (12,'DK1:TROUTI.INV',14)
      CALL ASSIGN (13,'DK1:MAGNIT.INV',14)
      DEFINE FILE 11 (65,640,U,IVAR1)
      DEFINE FILE 12 (65,640,U,IVAR2)
      DEFINE FILE 13 (65,640,U,IVAR3)
      DO 500 I=1,64
      READ (11'I) (A(J),J=1,320)
      READ (12'I) (B(J),J=1,320)
      DO 600 M=129,192
600    C(M)=SQRT((A(M))*2.+(B(M))*2.)
500    WRITE (13'I) (C(M),M=1,320)
      WRITE (13'65) (IDESCR(I),I=1,5)
      STOP 'FORMATION OF MAGNITUDE ARRAY FROM INVERTED RE & IM FFT.'
      END
```

Z-NOV-78
PULL64.FOR 1 29-OCT-78

```
C PROGRAM TO PULL OUT MIDDLE 64 LINES FROM 800 BLOCK IMAGE FILE.  
C VALUES TO EITHER SIDE OF THE 64X64 SQUARE WILL BE ZEROED.  
  DIMENSION Z(320)  
  CALL ASSIGN (11,'DK1:FILE01.IMA',14)  
  DEFINE FILE 11 (320,640,U,IVAR1)  
  CALL ASSIGN (12,'DK1:FILE02.IMA',14)  
  DEFINE FILE 12 (64,640,U,IVAR2)  
  DO 500 I=129,192  
  READ (11'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)  
  DO 600 IZERO=1,128  
  Z(IZERO)=0.  
600 Z(IZERO+192)=0.  
  K=1-128  
500 WRITE (12'K) (Z(J),J=1,320)  
  STOP 'PULL OUT OF MIDDLE 64 IMAGE LINES.'  
  END
```

PROGRAM TO TAKE A GIVEN DATA FILE, AND REASSIGN ALL GRAY SHADES FOR
EQUAL PROBABILITY OF OCCURRENCE IN THE IMAGE (HISTOGRAM EQUALIZATION)
AND FORM A NEW FILE WITH THE TRANSFORMED IMAGE.

1-NOV-78
HISTOG.FOR 12 29-OCT-78
136 FREE BLOCKS

```

      DIMENSION IMAGE(7), IHIST(1024), Z(320), CDF(1024), IOUT(7),
11DESCR(160)
      DATA N/IHN/
      DATA IHIST/1024*0/
      DATA CDF/1024*0./
      RELMAX=0.
      CALL INIT
      CALL WAIT (6)
140  WRITE (7,100)
100  FORMAT (' ENTER IMAGE FILE NAME',/, ' >')
      READ (5,110) IMAGE
110  FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,120) IMAGE
120  FORMAT (' IMAGE DATA IS FROM FILE ',7A2,/, ' Y OR N?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,130) IANS
130  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 140
800  WRITE (7,810)
810  FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF LINES IN IMAGE FILE',/, ' >')
      READ (5,820) NLINE
820  FORMAT (I3)
      WRITE (7,830) NLINE
830  FORMAT (' THE IMAGE FILE CONTAINS ',I3,' LINES.',/,
1' Y OR N?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,840) IANS
840  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 800
2299 WRITE (7,2255)
2255 FORMAT (' ENTER NUMBER OF CENTRALLY-LOCATED POINTS ',
1' PER IMAGE LINE.',/, ' >')
      READ (5,2266) NPTS
2266 FORMAT (I3)
      WRITE (7,2277) NPTS
2277 FORMAT (' THERE ARE ',I3,' CENTRALLY-LOCATED POINTS ',
1' PER IMAGE LINE.',/, ' Y OR N?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,2288) IANS
2288 FORMAT (A2)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 2299
145  WRITE (7,105)
105  FORMAT (' ENTER OUTPUT FILE NAME',/, ' >')
      READ (5,115) IOUT
115  FORMAT (7A2)
      WRITE (7,125) IOUT
125  FORMAT (' OUTPUT DATA IS FROM FILE ',7A2,/, ' Y OR N?',/, ' >')
      READ (5,135) IANS
135  FORMAT (A1)
      IF (IANS.EQ.N) GO TO 145
      WRITE (7,905)
905  FORMAT (' ENTER UP TO FOUR LINES (80 CHAR. EACH) OF FILE ',
1' I.D. DATA.',/, ' >')
      READ (5,906) (IDESCRI(CHAR), ICHAR=1,160)
906  FORMAT (40A2)
      CALL ASSIGN (20,IMAGE,14)
      LINEP1=NLINE+1

```

```

DEFINE FILE 20 (LINEP1,640,U,IVAR1)
CALL ASSIGN (21,IOUT,14)
DEFINE FILE 21 (LINEP1,640,U,IVAR2)
C   NOTE: EXTRA RECORD IN THIS FILE MAY BE USED FOR COMMENTS ENTRY.
C   *****
C   COMPUTE DATA SCALE FACTOR TO ALLOW A MAXIMUM DATA VALUE OF 1024.
C   *****
DO 10 I=1,NLINE
READ (20'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
DO 12 IZ=1,319,2
IF (Z(IZ).GE.100000000000.) GO TO 12
IF (Z(IZ+1).GE.100000000000.) GO TO 12
C   THE TWO PRECEDING STATEMENTS ARE USED TO
C   REMOVE THE VALUES STORED FOR TRANSDUCER DESIGNATION FROM CONTENTION
C   FROM RECONSTRUCTED IMAGE MAXIMUM VALUES.
RELMAX=AMAX1(Z(IZ),Z(IZ+1),RELMAX)
12  CONTINUE
10  CONTINUE
SCALE=RELMAX/1024.
300  WRITE (7,320) SCALE
320  FORMAT (' THE SCALE FACTOR IS ',F5.2)
WRITE (7,330)
330  FORMAT (' IS THIS VALUE ACCEPTABLE?',' Y OR N ?',' >')
READ (7,340) IANS
340  FORMAT (A1)
IF (IANS.NE.N) GO TO 350
WRITE (7,360)
360  FORMAT (' ENTER DESIRED SCALE FACTOR **F5.2 FORMAT**',' >')
READ (5,370) SCALE
370  FORMAT (F5.2)
GO TO 300
C   DEFINE IMAGE LINE NUMBER.
350  WRITE (7,2300)
2300  FORMAT (' PROCESSING HAS BEGUN . . .')
K1=161-NPTS/2
K2=160+NPTS/2
DO 11 I=1,NLINE
READ (20'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)
C   DEFINE NUMBER OF ELEMENT WITHIN LINE.
DO 20 K=K1,K2
IF ((Z(K)/SCALE).GE.1024.) GO TO 2256
NUM=IFIX((Z(K)/SCALE)+0.5)
GO TO 2257
2256  NUM=1024
2257  IHIST(NUM)=IHIST(NUM)+1
20  CONTINUE
11  CONTINUE
MAXHST=0
DO 510 I1=1,1024,2
MAXHST=MAX0(IHIST(I1),IHIST(I1+1),MAXHST)
510  CONTINUE
C   *****GRAPHICS*****
CALL IWIND (20,1004,20,740)
CALL RWIND (0.,1024.,0.,FLOAT(MAXHST))

```

```

CALL CWIND (20,1004,20,740)
CALL WAIT(6)
CALL PAGE
CALL MOVE (1.,FLOAT(IHIST(1)))
DO 500 M=1,1024
CALL DRAW (FLOAT(M),FLOAT(IHIST(M)))
500 CONTINUE
CALL MOVE (0.0)
CALL DRAW (0.,FLOAT(MAXHST))
CALL MOVE (0.,0.)
CALL DRAW (1024.,0.)
CALL MOVE (5.,FLOAT(MAXHST))
CALL AMODE
WRITE (6,400) IMAGE,SCALE,MAXHST
400 FORMAT (' HISTOGRAM OF IMAGE FILE ',7A2,/, ' DATA SCALE ',
1'FACTOR EQUALS ',F5.2,/,3X,'X-AXIS RANGE: 0-1024',/,
13X,'Y-AXIS RANGE: 0-',I5)
READ (5,410) ICHAR
410 FORMAT (A1)
C *****
C CUMULATIVE DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION.
C *****
C FORMATION OF CDF (FOR 320 X 'NLINE' PIXEL DISPLAY).
C CDF(1)=(FLOAT(IHIST(1)))/(320.*FLOAT(NLINE))
C .....
C FORMATION OF CDF (FOR 'NPTS' X 'NLINE' PIXEL DISPLAY).
C CDF(1)=(FLOAT(IHIST(1)))/(NPTS*FLOAT(NLINE))
C .....
DO 420 L=2,1024
CDF(L)=CDF(L-1)+(FLOAT(IHIST(L)))/(NPTS*FLOAT(NLINE))
420 CONTINUE
C *****GRAPHICS*****
CALL WAIT(6)
CALL INIT
CALL WAIT(6)
CALL IWIND (20,1004,20,740)
CALL RWIND (0.,1024.,0.,1.)
CALL CWIND (20,1004,20,740)
CALL MOVE (1.,CDF(1))
DO 430 MN=2,1024
CALL DRAW (FLOAT(MN),CDF(MN))
430 CONTINUE
CALL MOVE (0.,0.)
CALL DRAW (0.,1024.)
CALL MOVE (0.,0.)
CALL DRAW (1024.,0.)
CALL MOVE (5.,1.)
CALL AMODE
WRITE (6,440) IMAGE,SCALE
440 FORMAT (' CDF OF IMAGE FILE ',7A2,/, ' DATA SCALE ',
1'FACTOR EQUALS ',F5.2,/,3X,'X-AXIS RANGE: 0-1024',/,
13X,'Y-AXIS RANGE: 0-1')
READ (5,411) ICHAR
411 FORMAT (A1)

```

```
WRITE (7,450)
450  FORMAT (' ENTERING DATA HISTOGRAM EQUALIZATION MODE')
      DO 900 LINE=1,NLINE
C     READ IN ONE FULL LINE OF IMAGE DATA.
      READ (20*LINE) (Z(K),K=1,320)
C     *****
C     TABLE LOOK-UP FOR REASSIGNMENT OF GRAY VALUES.
C     *****
      DO 910 K=K1,K2
      IF ((Z(K)/SCALE).GE.1024.) GO TO 2259
      Z(K)=CDF(IFIX((Z(K)/SCALE)+0.5))
      GO TO 2258
2259  Z(K)=CDF(1024)
C     Z(K) NOW EQUALS A VALUE BETWEEN 0. AND 1.
2258  Z(K)=(Z(K)*1023.)
C     Z(K) NOW EQUALS A VALUE BETWEEN 0. AND 1023.
C     DATA IS NOW PROPERLY SCALED FOR DIRECT CT/T DISPLAY.
910   CONTINUE
C     WRITE TRANSFORMED VALUES INTO A NEW IMAGE FILE.
      WRITE (21*LINE) (Z(K),K=1,320)
900   CONTINUE
      WRITE (21*LINEP1) (IDESC(K),K=1,160)
      STOP 'HISTOGRAM EQUALIZATION OF F.S.I. IMAGE DATA FILE'
      END
```

B-8. SIMULATED DATA GENERATION

DATGN3.FOR
SQUARE.FOR
POINT.FOR

THIS ROUTINE GENERATES SIMULATED DATA FOR 3 POINT SCATTERERS AT
LOCATIONS (80,240), (160,160) AND (240,80).

6-OCT-78
DATGN3.FOR 2 2-JAN-78

```

      DIMENSION X(8),Y(8)
      R=1
      NT=8
      PI2=6.2831853072
      CALL ASSIGN (15,'SIM3PT.DAT',0,'NEW','CC')
      DO 310 M=1,NT
      X(M)=R*COS((PI2*(M-1))/NT)
      Y(M)=R*SIN((PI2*(M-1))/NT)
      X(M)=(X(M)*(160./R))+160.
      Y(M)=(Y(M)*(160./R))+160.
310  X(M)=INT(X(M)+0.5)
      Y(M)=INT(Y(M)+0.5)
      DO 200 I=1,NT
      DO 210 J=I,NT
      XT=X(I)
      YT=Y(I)
      XR=X(J)
      YR=Y(J)
      IIY=320
      DO 203 IIX=80,240,80
      IIY=IIY-80
      DST=SQRT((XT-IIX)**2.+(YT-IIY)**2.)+
1SQRT((XR-IIX)**2.+(YR-IIY)**2.)
      WRITE (15,111) DST
111  FORMAT (1X,F6.2)
D    WRITE (6,112) I,J,IIX,IIY,DST
112  FORMAT (1X,I3,3X,I3,5X,I3,3X,I3,5X,F6.2)
203  CONTINUE
210  CONTINUE
200  CONTINUE
      STOP '---3 PT. PER SIGNAL DATA GENERATION FOR PSI SIMULATION-----'
      END

```

THIS PROGRAM GENERATES DATA FOR RECONSTRUCTION OF A SIMULATED SQUARE
ARRAY OF SCATTERERS BEING SCANNED BY AN 8 TRANSDUCER ARRAY.

6-OCT-78
SQUARE.FOR 3 10-FEB-78

```

C      PSI ARTIFICIAL DATA GENERATION FOR SOLID SQUARE
C      8 TRANSDUCERS
C      IMAGE OBJECT - SQUARE
      DIMENSION X(8),Y(8),IZ(320),NAME(7)
      R=1.
      NT=8
      PI2=6.2831853072
      IREC=0
      WRITE (7,500)
500    FORMAT (' ENTER NAME OF DATA FILE IN FORM',
1' DK1:SIMU***.DAT',/,,' >')
      READ (5,510) NAME
510    FORMAT (7A2)
      NUMREC=NT*(NT+1)/2
      CALL ASSIGN (15,NAME,14)
      DEFINE FILE 15 (NUMREC,640,U,IVAR1)
      WRITE (7,520)
520    FORMAT (' ENTER COORDINATES OF "Y" BOUNDS AND "X" BOUNDS',
1' AS <IY1,IY2,IX1,IX2>.')
      READ (5,530) IY1,IY2,IX1,IX2
530    FORMAT (4(I3,1X))
      WRITE (6,540) IY1,IY2,IX1,IX2
540    FORMAT (' IY1=',I3,3X,' IY2=',I3,6X,' IX1=',I3,3X,' IX2=',I3)
      DO 300 M=1,NT
      X(M)=R*COS((PI2*(M-1))/NT)
      Y(M)=R*SIN((PI2*(M-1))/NT)
      X(M)=(X(M)*(160./R))+160.
      Y(M)=(Y(M)*(160./R))+160.
300    CONTINUE
      DO 200 I=1,NT
      DO 210 J=1,NT
      IREC=IREC+1
      XT=X(I)
      YT=Y(I)
      XR=X(J)
      YR=Y(J)
      DO 100 K=1,320
      IZ(K)=0
100    CONTINUE
C      CAN ENTER SCATTER COORDINATES EITHER BY DO LOOP OR FROM A FILE.
      DO 310 IY=IY1,IY2
      DO 320 IX=IX1,IX2
      DST=SQRT((XT-IX)**2.+(YT-IY)**2.)+SQRT((XR-IX)**2.+(YR-IY)**2.)
      IDIST=INT((DST/2.)+0.5)
      IZ(IDIST)=64
320    CONTINUE
310    CONTINUE
      WRITE (15,IREC) (IZ(IJK),IJK=1,320)
210    CONTINUE
200    CONTINUE
      STOP 'PSI DATA GENERATION FOR SQUARE ARRAY OF SCATTERERS.'
      END

```

PROGRAM TO GENERATE DATA AN IDEAL SINGLE POINT IMAGE (64X64) FOR USE
WITH RECONSTRUCTED IMAGE IN PERFORMING POINT-SPREAD
FUNCTION ANALYSIS AND DETERMINATION OF A PSI DECONVOLUTION FUNCTION.

6-OCT-78
POINT .FOR 1 17-MAY-78

```
C      PROGRAM TO CREATE A 320X320 UNFORMATTED IDEAL PT. IMAGE.  
      DIMENSION Z(320),IDESCR(10)  
      DATA Z/320*0./  
      DATA IDESCR/2HSI,2HNG,2HLE,2H P,2HOI,2HNT,2H I,2HMA,2HGE,2H. /  
      CALL ASSIGN (10,'DK1:SPOINT.DAT',14)  
      DEFINE FILE 10 (65,640,U,IVAR1)  
      DO 500 I=1,64  
      WRITE (10'I) (Z(J),J=1,320)  
500  CONTINUE  
      Z(160)=1000.  
      WRITE (10'32) (Z(J),J=1,160)  
      WRITE (10'65) (IDESCR(I),I=1,10)  
      STOP 'GENERATION OF A SINGLE POINT IMAGE'  
      END
```

APPENDIX C. TRANSDUCER CHARACTERIZATION DATA

C-1. PANAMETRICS NON-FOCUSED TRANSDUCERS

The Panametrics transducers used were originally specified as 5 MHz center frequency, half inch element diameter, and as broadband as possible. The following material is the resultant characterization data for the pair of transducers purchased. Some portions of this data were supplied by Panametrics, Inc., with the remaining portions obtained at GE. The transducer element material is lead metaniobate.



PANAMETRICS

221 CRESCENT STREET, WALTHAM, MASSACHUSETTS 02154 / 617 899-2719 TELEX: 923406

IMMERSION TRANSDUCER ANALYSIS FORM

Part No. 1309 . Serial No. 15289 . Frequency 5.0 MHz.

Size: 0.5 " diameter; — " by — ". Cable: RG- 58, length 4 ft.

Water path 1.0 ". Focussed at — ". Design focal length — ".

Echo from front surface of — " thick fused silica.
— " diameter steel ball.

TEST INSTRUMENTATION

Panametrics 5052PR Pulsar Receiver
 Panametrics 5052G Stepless Gate
 Tektronix 7704A Oscilloscope System
 with 7A26 Dual Trace Amplifier
 7B53A Dual Time Base
 7L12 Spectrum Analyzer

Waveform

Pulsar Receiver Settings:

Energy Setting 1.

Receiver Attenuation — dB.

Receiver Damping 100 ohms.

Oscilloscope Settings:

1-Vertical Sensitivity/div.

2-Horizontal Sweep Rate/div.

3-Scale Format.

Spectrum Analysis

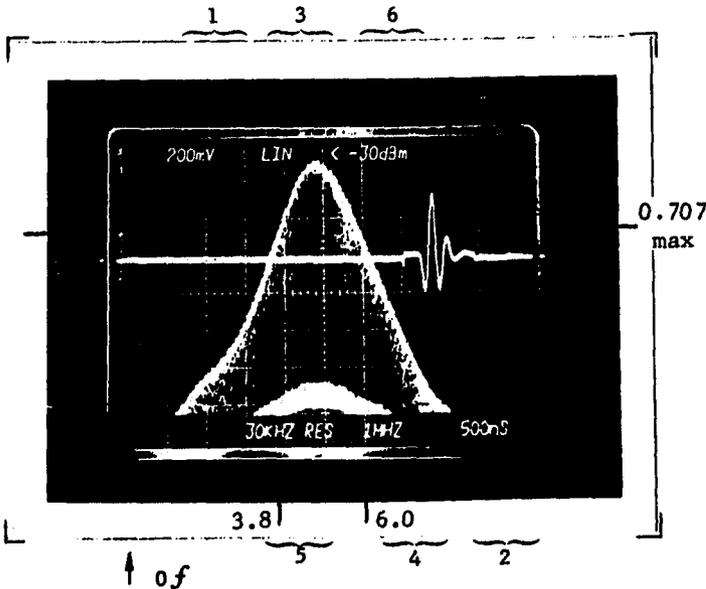
Oscilloscope Settings:

4-Horizontal Scan Width/div.

5-Resolution.

6-Input Attenuation.

Center frequency is determined by multiplying the horizontal scan width (4) by the number of divisions to the spectrum peak.



Technician G. M. K...

Date 3/7/77

Figure C-1. Data supplied by Panametrics, Inc. for transducer #15289



221 CRESCENT STREET, WALTHAM, MASSACHUSETTS 02154 / 617 890-2719 TELEX: 923408

IMMERSION TRANSDUCER ANALYSIS FORM

Part No. 1309. Serial No. 15291. Frequency 5.0 MHz.
 Size: 0.5 " diameter; - " by - ". Cable: RG- 59/2, length 4 ft.
 Water path 1.0 ". Focussed at - ". Design focal length - ".
 Echo from front surface of 1.0 " thick fused silica.
- " diameter steel ball.

TEST INSTRUMENTATION

Panametrics 5052PR Pulsar Receiver
 Panametrics 5052G Stepless Gate
 Tektronix 7704A Oscilloscope System
 with 7A26 Dual Trace Amplifier
 7B53A Dual Time Base
 7L12 Spectrum Analyzer

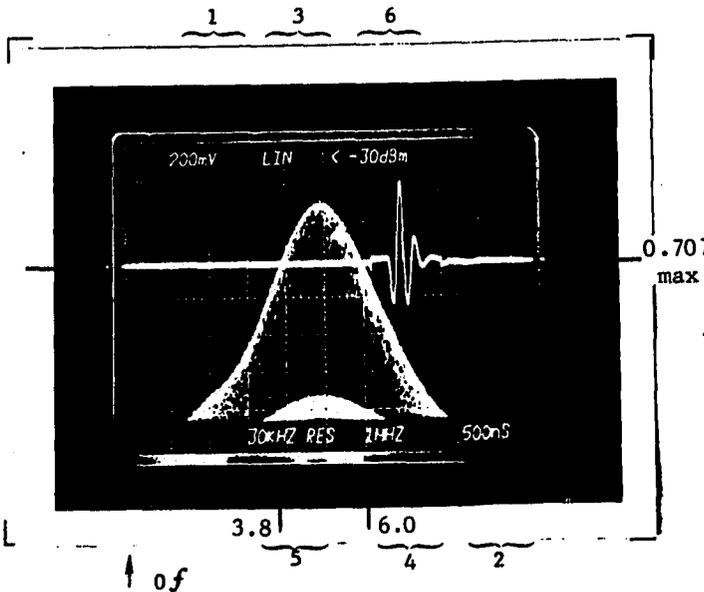
Waveform

Pulsar Receiver Settings:
 Energy Setting 1.
 Receiver Attenuation - dB.
 Receiver Damping 120 ohms.
 Oscilloscope Settings:
 1-Vertical Sensitivity/div.
 2-Horizontal Sweep Rate/div.
 3-Scale Format.

Center frequency is determined by multiplying the horizontal scan width (4) by the number of divisions to the spectrum peak.

Spectrum Analysis

Oscilloscope Settings:
 4-Horizontal Scan Width/div.
 5-Resolution.
 6-Input Attenuation.



Technician H. Williams
 Date 2/7/77

Figure C-2. Data supplied by Panametrics, Inc. for transducer #15291

TABLE C-1. ELECTRICAL IMPEDANCE DATA FOR PANAMETRICS TRANSDUCER #15289 TAKEN 7/28/77

| | FREQ. (f) (MHz) | H. P. IMPED. METER | | SERIES RESIST. (Rs) (Ω) | SERIES REACT. (-X _S) (Cs) | EQUIV. SERIES CAPAC. (C _S) (pF) | PARALLEL CONDUCT. (G) (× 10 ⁻³ Ω) | PARALLEL SUSCEPT. (B) (× 10 ⁻³ Ω) | PARALLEL RESIST. (R) (Ω) | PARALLEL CAPAC. (C) (pF) |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------|----------------------------------|--|---|---|---|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | | MAG. | PHASE | | | | | | | |
| <u>AIR</u> <u>LOADING</u> | 1 | 138.0 | -86 ⁰ | 9.63 | 137.66 | 1156 | 0.51 | 7.23 | 1978.3 | 1150 |
| | 2 | 71.0 | -76.5 | 16.58 | 69.04 | 1153 | 3.29 | 13.70 | 304.1 | 1090 |
| | 3 | 49.0 | -68 | 18.36 | 45.43 | 1168 | 7.65 | 18.92 | 130.8 | 1004 |
| | 4 | 40.5 | -60 | 20.25 | 35.07 | 1134 | 12.35 | 21.38 | 81.9 | 851 |
| | 5 | 34.2 | -60 | 17.10 | 29.62 | 1075 | 14.62 | 25.32 | 68.4 | 806 |
| | 6 | 30.2 | -50.2 | 19.33 | 23.20 | 1143 | 21.20 | 25.44 | 47.2 | 675 |
| | 7 | 29.5 | -48.3 | 19.62 | 22.03 | 1032 | 22.55 | 25.31 | 44.4 | 575 |
| | 8 | 26.8 | -48 | 17.93 | 19.91 | 999 | 24.97 | 27.73 | 40.05 | 552 |
| | 9 | 24.3 | -46 | 16.88 | 17.48 | 1012 | 28.59 | 29.60 | 34.98 | 523 |
| | 10 | 22.4 | -42.5 | 16.51 | 15.13 | 1052 | 32.91 | 30.16 | 30.38 | 480 |
| <u>WATER</u> <u>LOADING</u> | 1 | 139.0 | -85 | 12.11 | 138.47 | 1149 | 0.63 | 7.17 | 1595.00 | 1141 |
| | 2 | 71.0 | -76.5 | 16.57 | 69.04 | 1153 | 3.29 | 13.70 | 304.10 | 1090 |
| | 3 | 49.5 | -68.5 | 18.14 | 46.05 | 1152 | 7.40 | 18.80 | 135.10 | 997 |
| | 4 | 39.5 | -61 | 19.15 | 34.55 | 1152 | 12.27 | 22.14 | 81.50 | 881 |
| | 5 | 34.5 | -56 | 19.29 | 28.60 | 1112 | 16.21 | 24.03 | 61.70 | 765 |
| | 6 | 31.0 | -51 | 19.51 | 24.09 | 1101 | 20.30 | 25.07 | 49.26 | 664 |
| | 7 | 29.0 | -49 | 19.03 | 21.89 | 1039 | 22.62 | 26.02 | 44.20 | 592 |
| | 8 | 26.5 | -48 | 17.73 | 19.69 | 1010 | 25.25 | 28.04 | 39.60 | 558 |
| | 9 | 24.2 | -45.8 | 16.87 | 17.35 | 1019 | 28.81 | 29.62 | 34.71 | 524 |
| | 10 | 22.4 | -42.5 | 16.51 | 15.13 | 1052 | 32.91 | 30.16 | 30.38 | 480 |

TABLE C-2. ELECTRICAL IMPEDANCE DATA FOR PANAMETRICS TRANSDUCER #15291 TAKEN 7/28/77

| FREQ. (f) (MHz) | H.P. IMPED. METER | | SERIES RESIST. (R _s) (Ω) | SERIES REACT. (-X _s) (C _s) | EQUIV. SERIES CAPAC. (C _s) (pF) | PARALLEL CONDUCT. (G) (× 10 ⁻³ Ω) | PARALLEL SUSCEPT. (B) (× 10 ⁻³ Ω) | PARALLEL RESIST. (R) (Ω) | PARALLEL CAPAC. (C) (pF) | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|-------|---|---|---|---|---|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|------|
| | MAG. | PHASE | | | | | | | | |
| <u>AIR</u> <u>LOADING</u> | 1 | 135.0 | -90 ⁰ | 0.00 | 135.00 | 1179 | 0.00 | 7.41 | ∞ | 1179 |
| | 2 | 63.5 | -87.5 | 2.77 | 63.44 | 1254 | 0.69 | 15.73 | 1456 | 1252 |
| | 3 | 44.0 | -84.5 | 4.22 | 43.8 | 1211 | 2.18 | 22.62 | 459.1 | 1200 |
| | 4 | 33.0 | -80.5 | 5.45 | 32.55 | 1222 | 5.00 | 29.89 | 199.9 | 1189 |
| | 5 | 26.5 | -78.5 | 5.28 | 25.97 | 1226 | 7.52 | 36.98 | 132.9 | 1177 |
| | 6 | 22.5 | -76.0 | 5.44 | 21.83 | 1215 | 10.75 | 43.12 | 93.01 | 1144 |
| | 7 | 20.0 | -74.5 | 5.35 | 19.27 | 1180 | 13.36 | 48.18 | 74.84 | 1095 |
| | 8 | 17.0 | -76.5 | 4.02 | 16.72 | 1189 | 13.57 | 56.53 | 73.68 | 1124 |
| | 9 | 14.5 | -76.5 | 3.39 | 14.10 | 1254 | 16.10 | 67.06 | 62.11 | 1186 |
| | 10 | 12.2 | -75.8 | 2.99 | 11.83 | 1345 | 20.11 | 79.46 | 49.73 | 1265 |
| <u>WATER</u> <u>LOADING</u> | 1 | 136.0 | -90.0 | 0.00 | 136.00 | 1170 | 0.00 | 7.35 | ∞ | 1170 |
| | 2 | 67.5 | -89.5 | 0.59 | 67.50 | 1179 | 0.13 | 14.8 | 7735 | 1179 |
| | 3 | 43.8 | -85.0 | 3.82 | 43.63 | 1216 | 1.99 | 22.74 | 502.5 | 1207 |
| | 4 | 33.5 | -79.0 | 6.39 | 32.88 | 1210 | 5.70 | 29.30 | 242.9 | 1166 |
| | 5 | 27.5 | -83.5 | 3.11 | 27.32 | 1165 | 4.12 | 36.13 | 242.9 | 1150 |
| | 6 | 21.5 | -76.5 | 5.02 | 20.91 | 1269 | 10.86 | 45.20 | 92.10 | 1200 |
| | 7 | 20.0 | -74.3 | 5.41 | 19.25 | 1181 | 13.53 | 48.13 | 73.91 | 1094 |
| | 8 | 17.7 | -77.0 | 3.98 | 17.25 | 1154 | 12.71 | 55.05 | 78.68 | 1095 |
| | 9 | 14.8 | -77.5 | 3.20 | 14.45 | 1223 | 14.62 | 65.97 | 68.38 | 1167 |
| | 10 | 12.6 | -76.3 | 2.98 | 12.24 | 1300 | 18.80 | 77.11 | 53.20 | 1227 |

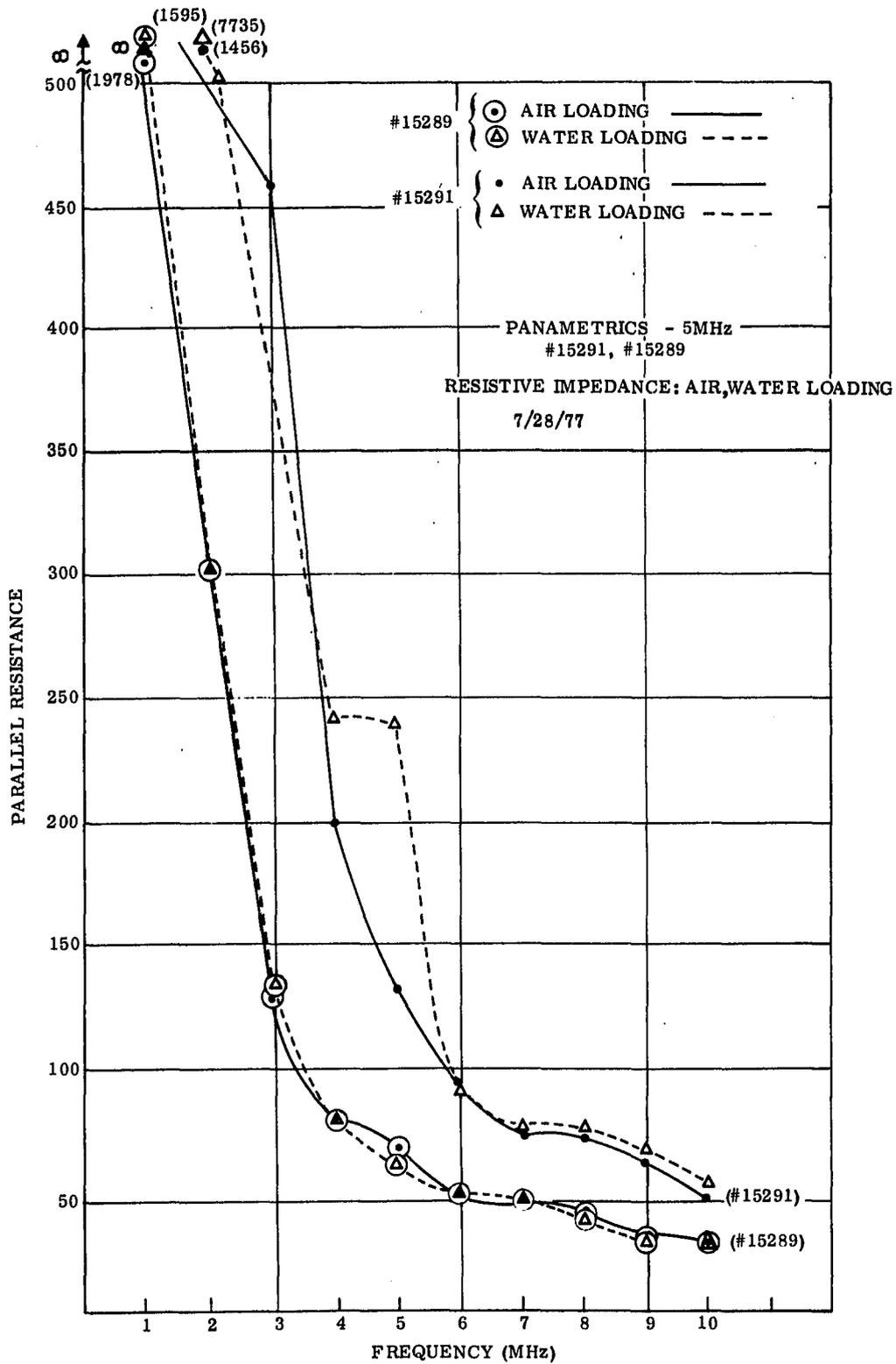


Figure C-3. Equivalent electrical parallel input resistance measured on Panametrics transducers #15289 and #15291 using H.P. vector impedance meter, for cases of air and water mechanical loading

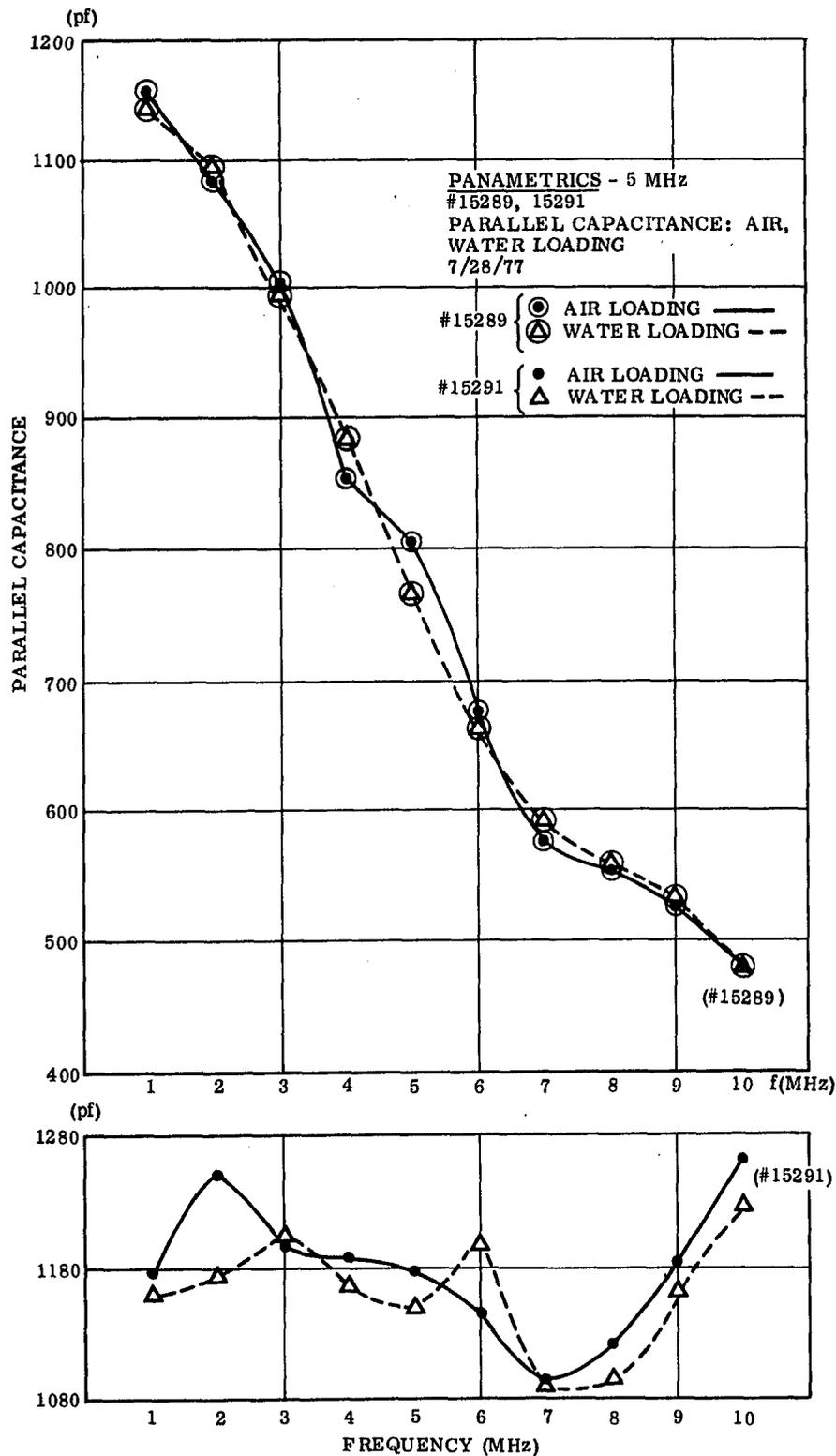


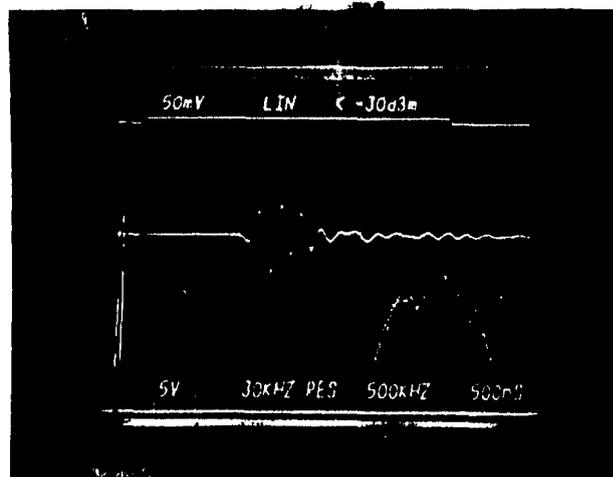
Figure C-4. Equivalent electrical parallel input capacitance measured on Panametrics transducers #15289 and #15291 using H.P. vector impedance meter, for cases of air and water mechanical loading

C-2. KB-AEROTECH FAN BEAM TRANSDUCERS

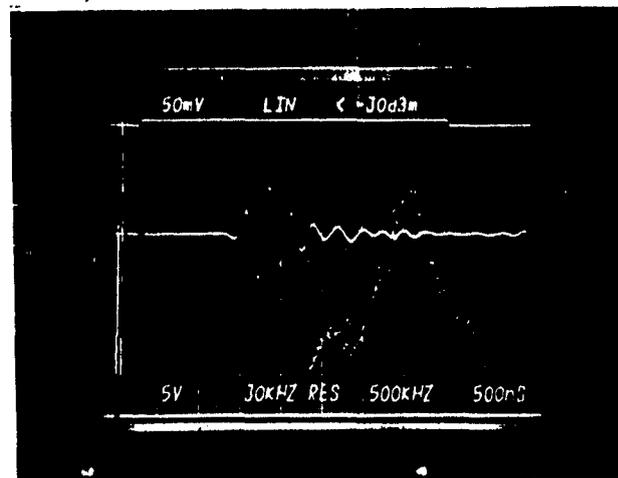
The fan beam transducers, purchased from KB-Aerotech were originally specified as:

- Special paintbrush transducer, 5.0 MHz
- 1/2" × 1/2", cylindrically convex ceramic
- Highly damped (maximum possible - 3 dB bandwidth on best effort basis)
- Delrin case per KB-Aerotech dimensions
- UHF connector centered in back of case
- Field (sound beam) characteristics to be attempted on a best effort basis
- 30 beam divergence at 3 dB level.

The remaining material in this section is comprised of characterization data for the two fan beam transducers received. This data was supplied by both KB-Aerotech and the U.S. Bureau of Radiological Health. The transducer element material is lead metaniobate.



(a)



(b)

Figure C-5. Fan beam pulse and bandwidth data for transducers (a) 47264H and (b) 47265H as supplied by KB-Aerotech

BEAM PROFILE

AM219C77

TRANSDUCER MODEL #: SPECIAL 1/2 x 1/2 PRINT. 5 MHZ _____ MM DIAMETER _____ FOCUS SCALE: | 1CM |
SERIAL #: 47264H
ATTENUATION SETTING: 0 dB TARGET: 6 mm steel ball 4" water path
PLOTTED BY: PLM INSTRUMENTATION: KB-AEROTECH UTA-3
DATE: 3-12-78 MFE x-y RECORDER

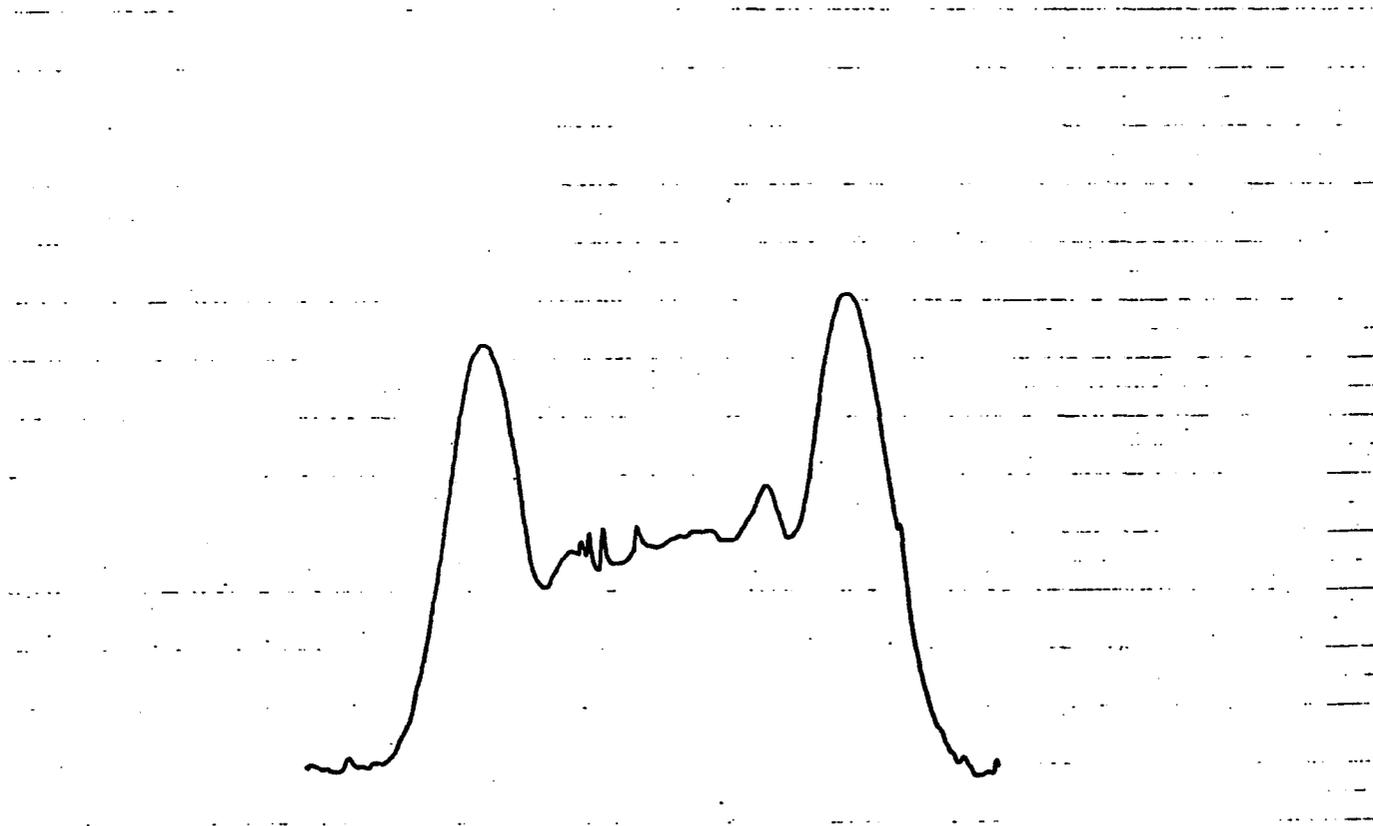


Figure C-6. Fan beam profile (#47264H) at 4" from 6 mm steel ball

AEROTECH

BEAM PROFILE

AM219C77

TRANSDUCER MODEL #: SPECIAL PAINTBRUSH 5 MHZ 1/2 x 1/2" MM DIAMETER _____ FOCUS SCALE: | 1cm |
SERIAL #: 47265H
ATTENUATION SETTING: 0 dB
PLOTTED BY: PRM
DATE: 3-12-78

TARGET: 6mm steel ball @ 4" water
INSTRUMENTATION: KB-AEROTECH UTA-3 puth
MFE x-y RECORDER

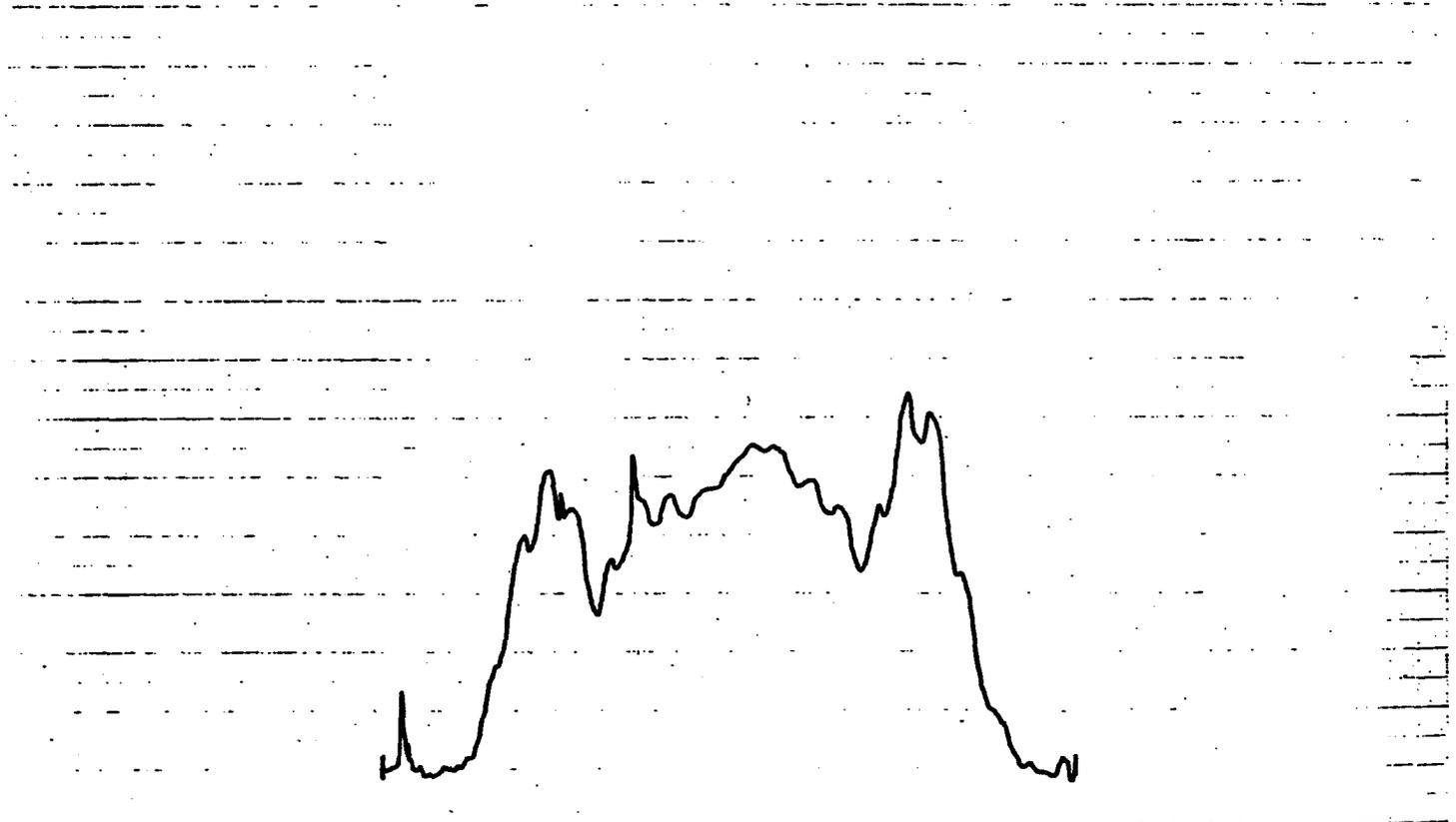


Figure C-7. Fan beam profile (#47265H) at 4" from 6 mm steel ball

BEAM PROFILE

AM219C77

TRANSDUCER MODEL #: _____ 50 MHz _____ MM DIAMETER _____ FOCUS SCALE: | 1cm |
SERIAL #: 47264 H
ATTENUATION SETTING: 0 dB
TARGET: 6 mm steel ball at 12" water path
PLOTTED BY: PM
INSTRUMENTATION: KB-AEROTECH UTA-3
DATE: 4-12-79
MFE x-y RECORDER

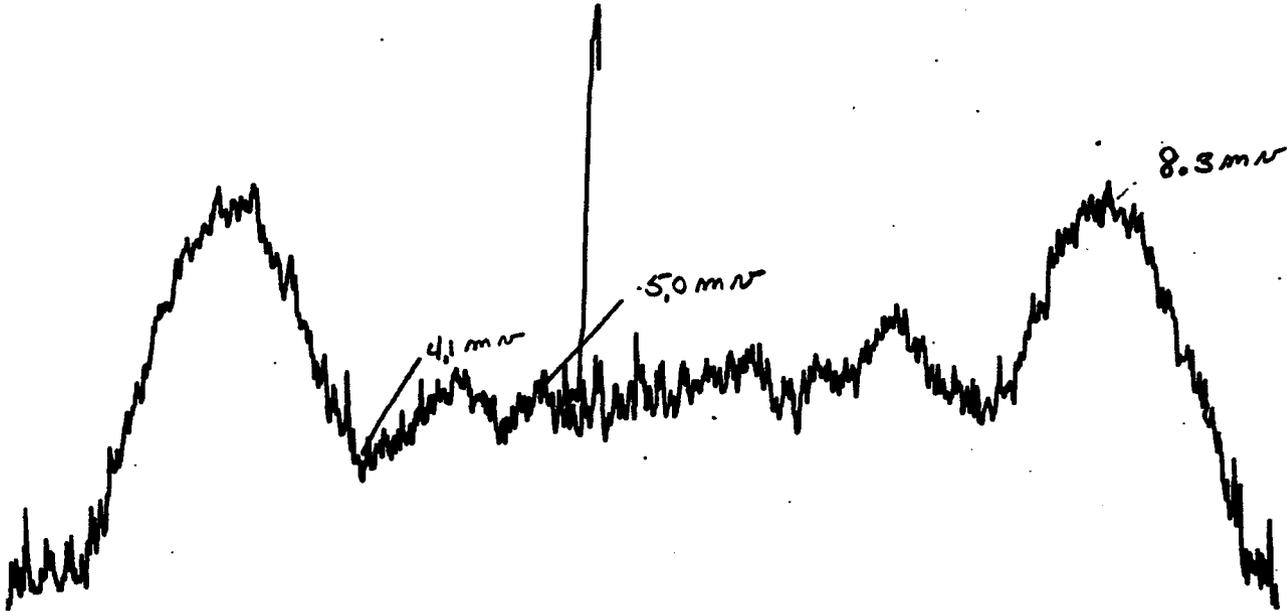


Figure C-8. Fan beam profile (#47264H) at 12" from 6 mm steel ball

 KB-AEROTECH

BEAM PROFILE

AM210C77

TRANSDUCER MODEL #: _____ 50 MHz _____ MM DIAMETER _____ FOCUS SCALE: | 1CM |
SERIAL #: 47265 H
ATTENUATION SETTING: 0 dB
PLOTTED BY: *PRM*
DATE: 4-12-78

TARGET: 6mm steel ball at 12" water path
INSTRUMENTATION: KB-AEROTECH UTA-3
MFE x-y RECORDER

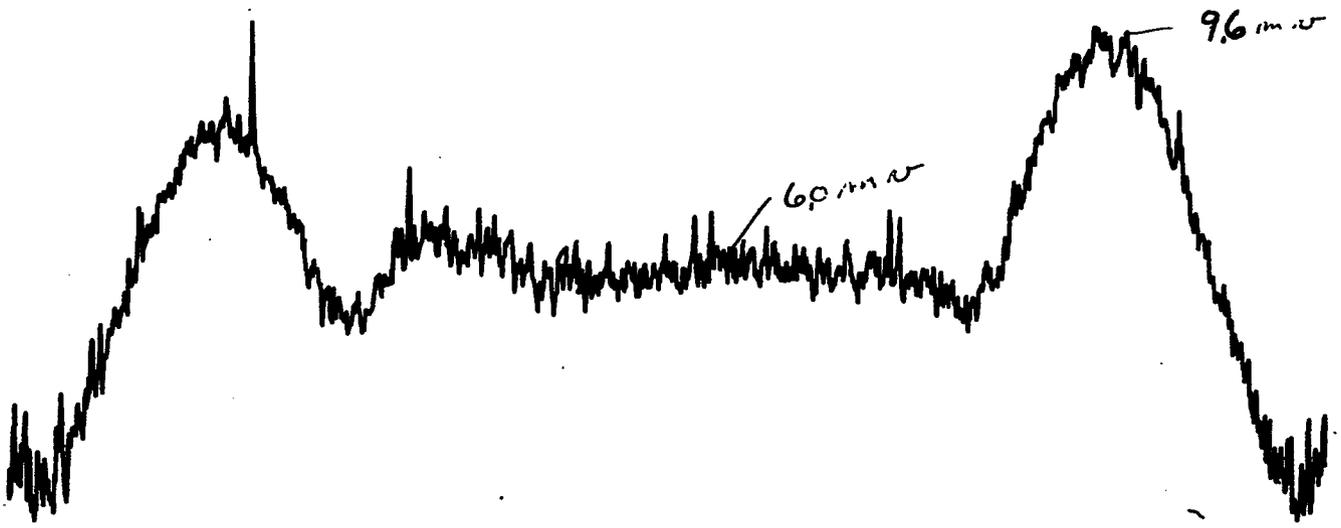


Figure C-9. Fan beam profile (#47265H) at 12" from 6 mm steel ball

KB-AEROTECH
TRANSDUCER TECHNOLOGY CENTER
Division of Krautkramer-Branson, Incorporated

BEAM PROFILE

TRANSDUCER MODEL # SPECIAL
SERIAL # 47265
ATTENUATION SETTING 0 db (35 db gain) dB
PLOTTED BY PHM
DATE 7-28-78

50 MHz _____ A.E.D. _____ -6 db FOCAL ZONE

BEAM WIDTH SCALE

| | | | |
|--------------------------|-----|--------------------------|-----|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | TCM | <input type="checkbox"/> | TCM |
|--------------------------|-----|--------------------------|-----|

TARGET 6mm steel ball @ 6" water path

INSTRUMENTATION: KB-AEROTECH UTA, MFE x-y RECORDER

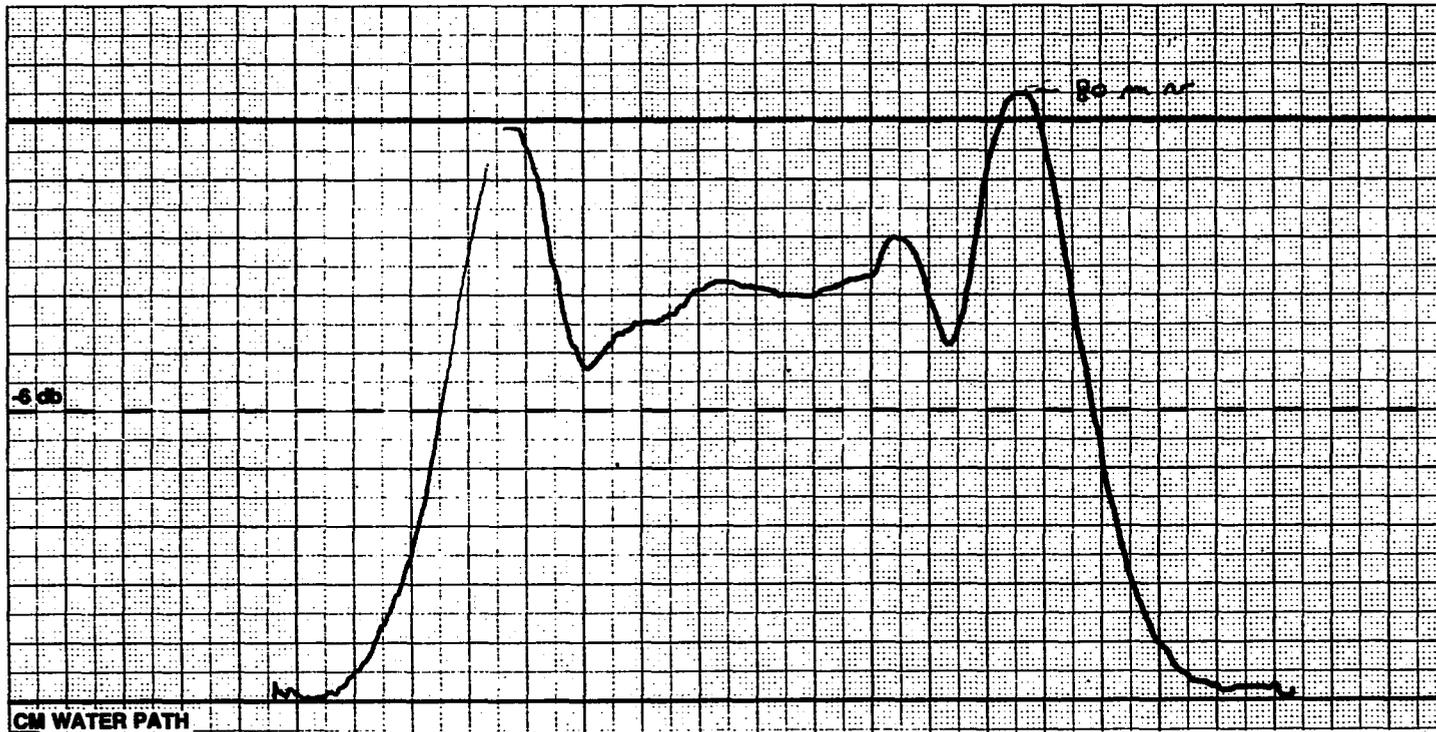


Figure C-11. Fan beam profile (#47265, with thin epoxy face) at 6" from 6 mm steel ball

The remaining material in this section is an exact reproduction of data collected by the U.S. Bureau of Radiological Health in Rockville, MD, and was obtained with the appreciated efforts of Mr. Michael Haran, Research Physicist.



DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE
ROCKVILLE, MARYLAND 20852

June 16, 1978

Lawrence D. Nadel
Electronics Laboratory
General Electric Company
Syracuse, N.Y. 13221

Dear Larry:

Enclosed is the data on the two transducers you asked my to evaluate. First let me explain how the data were taken and displayed.

The ultrasonovision system, briefly described in the enclosed reprint, measures the particle displacement amplitude normal to the plane of the pellicle. The orientation of the pellicle is normal to the ultrasonic beam axis so that a cross-sectional view of the field is recorded. Since the reprint was published, the ultrasonovision has been interfaced to a computer for data collection and display.

To evaluate your transducers, measurements of the field were taken at 32 evenly spaced locations down the beam axis. The spacing between the planes was 0.5 cm and each plane of data contains 32 X 32 picture elements (pixels). The plane dimensions are 7 X 7 cm. As can be seen in figure 1, a volume of data are collected on the displacement amplitude of the field.

To analyze the data, a specific line is selected from each frame (e.g. line 16). These lines are used to construct a new frame showing the behavior of the field as a function of distance from the source (see figure 2). Contour plots are then made of the data at selected levels of displacement amplitude.

A 90 degree view can be obtained by selecting vertical lines from each of the data frames and plotting the contours of this plane (figure 3).

For your transducers, the distance of the first plane to the transducer was 1.0 cm and the last (32nd) plane was 16.5 cm from the transducer. The data are stored in frames G1X01 through G1X32 and G2X01 through G2X32 for the transducers having serial numbers 47265H and 47264H, respectively. Contours were plotted every 5 db with respect to peak within the entire data volume. The voltage applied to the transducer was 24V peak to peak at 5.00 MHz for 30 μ s with a 2k repetition rate.

I have provided you with six plots of each transducer. The first two are isometric and contour plots of the beam cross-section at a distance of 1.0 cm from the transducer face. The next three are contour plots of lines 15, 16 and 17 showing the spreading of the beam as it leaves the source.

The last is a contour plot of the vertical view of the field as it leaves the source. It was impossible to assure the transducer axis would be normal to the plane of the pellicle and this may be reflected in the plots.

The transducer used for the G2X data series (s/n 47264H) clearly had problems. Much of the left side is not radiating and this is reflected in a "half-fan" shaped beam. The reduced aperture also results in a more smoothly varying field simply because the far-field transition has been brought closer to the source. It would appear that the loss of the outer laminar layer is indicative of poor bonding in the transducer. Dead areas in transducers frequently mean separation between the crystal and the front laminae.

The other transducer (s/n 47265H) radiates much more uniformly by comparison. The contour plot of the plane at 1.0 cm shows the diffraction effects of the edges of the crystal though they are not equal. The contour plots of lines 15, 16 and 17 show the jumbled amplitudes of a near-field and some side lobe structure.

If you have any questions about the way the data were taken or how to interpret these plots, please call me.

Sincerely yours,



Michael E. Haran
Research Physicist
Acoustics Branch
Division of Electronic Products
Bureau of Radiological Health

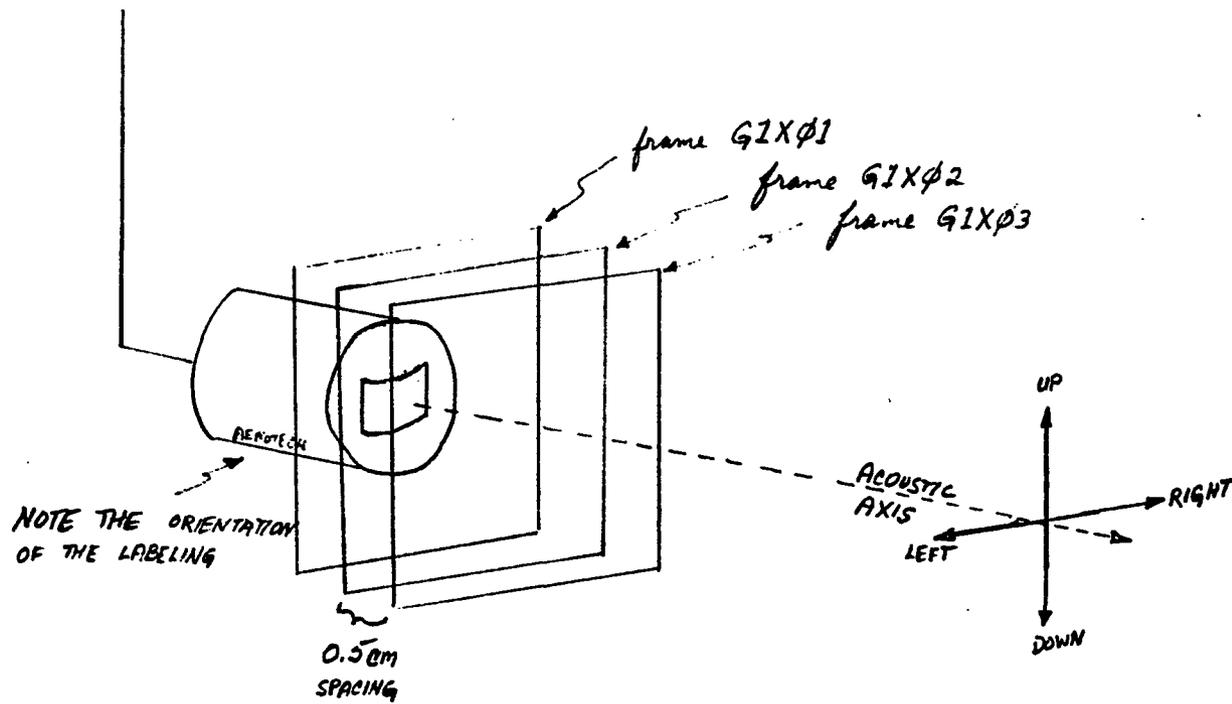


Figure 1

Figure C-12. Sample BRH ultrasonovision transverse imaging (i.e. frame) planes

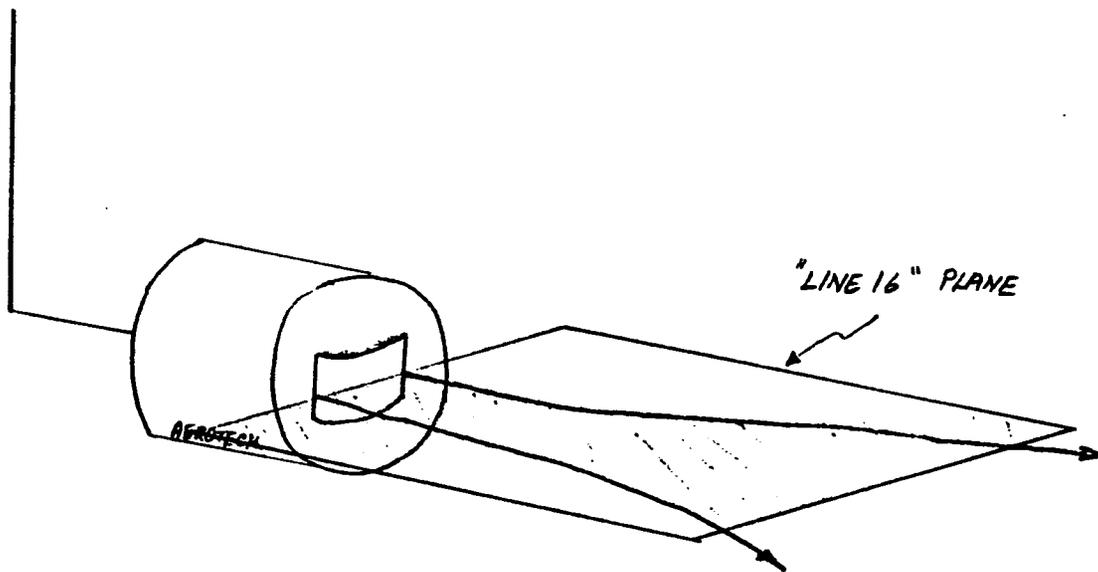


FIGURE 2

Figure C-13. Sample BRH ultrasonovision horizontal, longitudinal (i.e. line) imaging plane

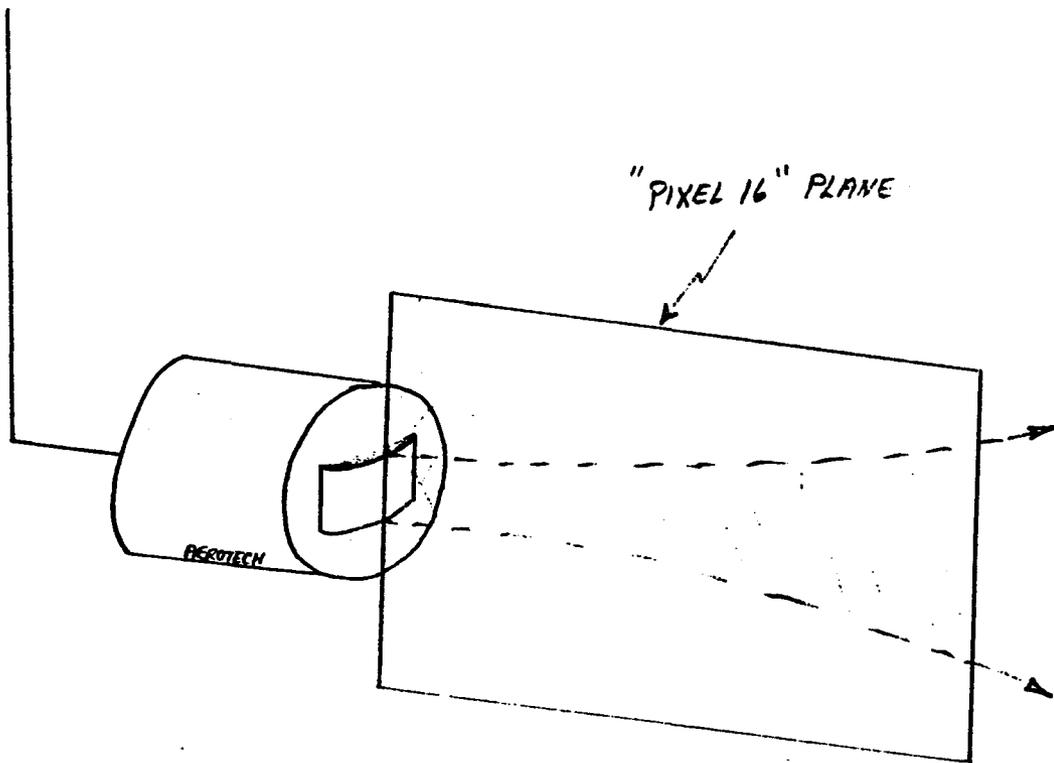


FIGURE 3

Figure C-14. Sample BRH ultrasonovision vertical, longitudinal (i.e. pixel) imaging plane

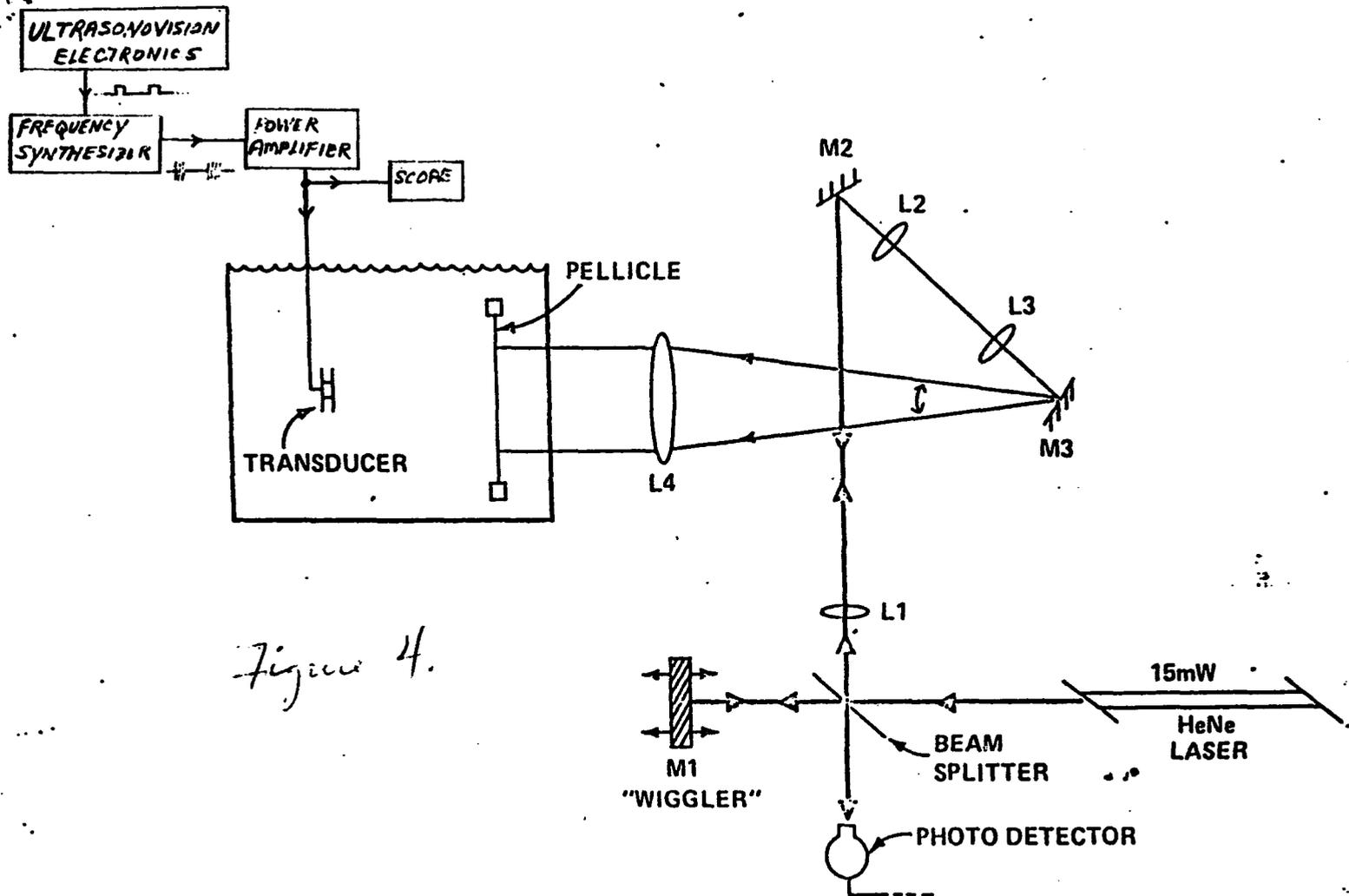


Figure 4.

Figure C-15. Block diagram of BRH ultrasonovision beam profiling system

COMMENT SECTOR - ULTRASONOGRAPHY DATA

FILE NAME:
G2X01

NUMBER OF PIXELS PER LINE:
32

NUMBER OF LINES PER FRAME:
32

X-DIMENSION IN CM:
7.0000

Y-DIMENSION IN CM:
7.0000

DATA TAKEN WITH THE WIGGLER SYSTEM.

DATE OF TEST:
6/15/78

MANUFACTURER:
AEROTECH (GE OWNED)

MODEL OR TYPE:
CYLINDRICAL SECTION; FAN BEAM FOR TOMOGRAPHY APPL.

SPECIFICATIONS:
5MHZ/0.5X0.5 IN. (S/N 47264H)

SOURCE USED:
ULTR+FR.SYN+50W AMPL

DISTANCE FROM SOURCE IN CM:
1.0000

PULSE DURATION IN MICROSECONDS:
30.0000

VOLTAGE APPLIED:
24.0000

REPETITION RATE IN KHZ:
2.0000

PEAK DISPLACEMENT IN CM :
.0000E+00

PERCENT OF PEAK INTENSITY:
0

SPATIAL AVERAGE INTENSITY IN WATTS/CM**2:
.0000E+00

BEAM AREA IN CM**2:
.0000E+00

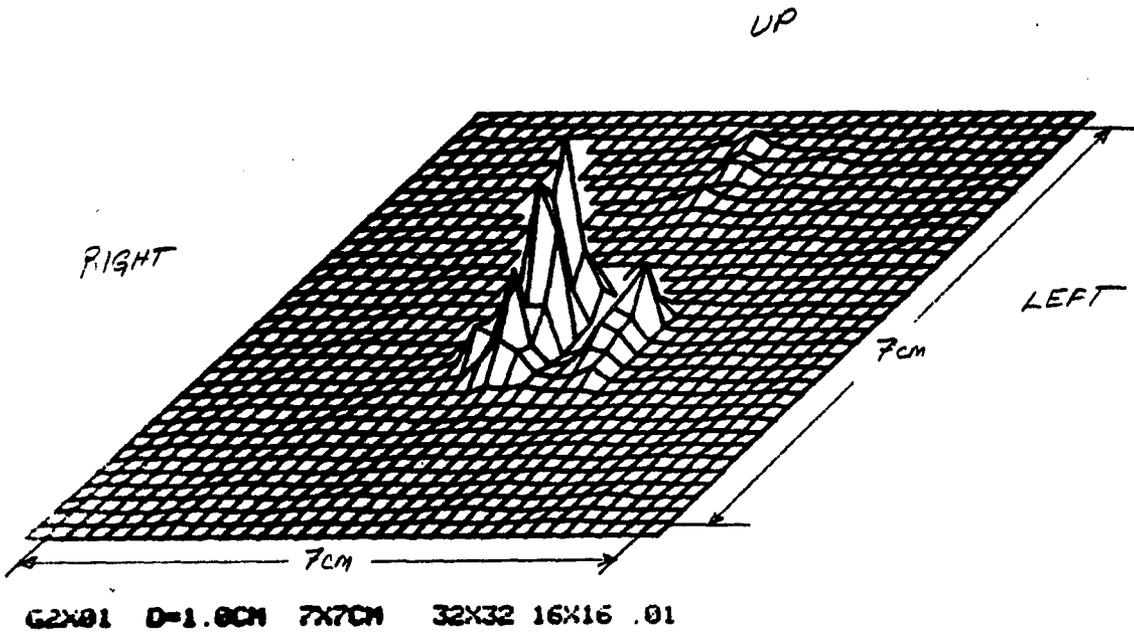
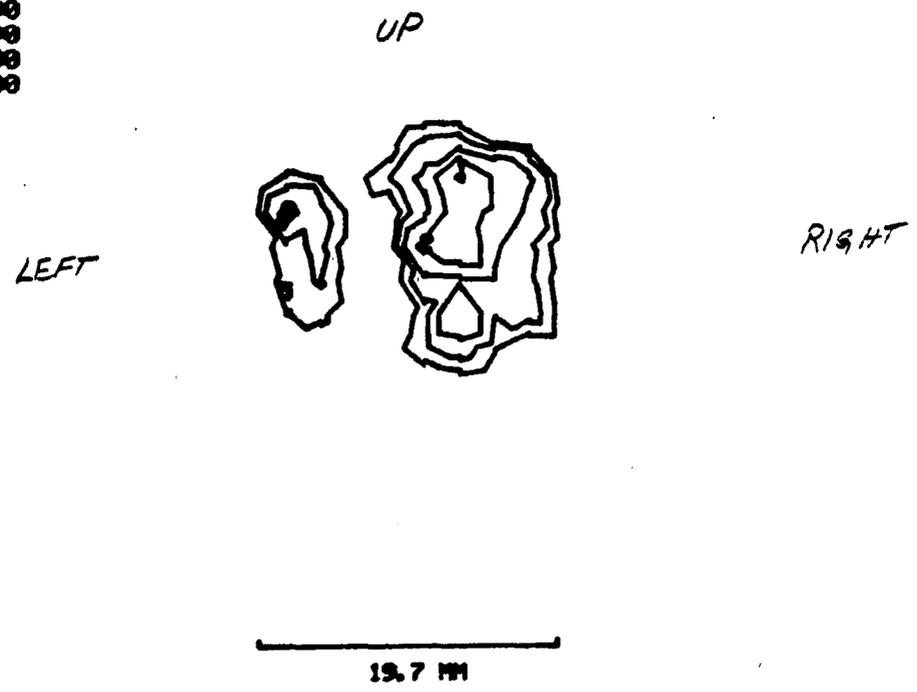


Figure C-16. Isometric plot of transverse acoustic field 1 cm from transducer (S/N 47264H). Note "half-fan" pattern as compared with Figure C-22.

1) 1.000 000
2) .562 000
3) .316 000
4) .178 000
5) .100 000



G2X01 D=1.0CM

Figure C-17. Contour plot of transverse acoustic field 1 cm from transducer (S/N 47264H)

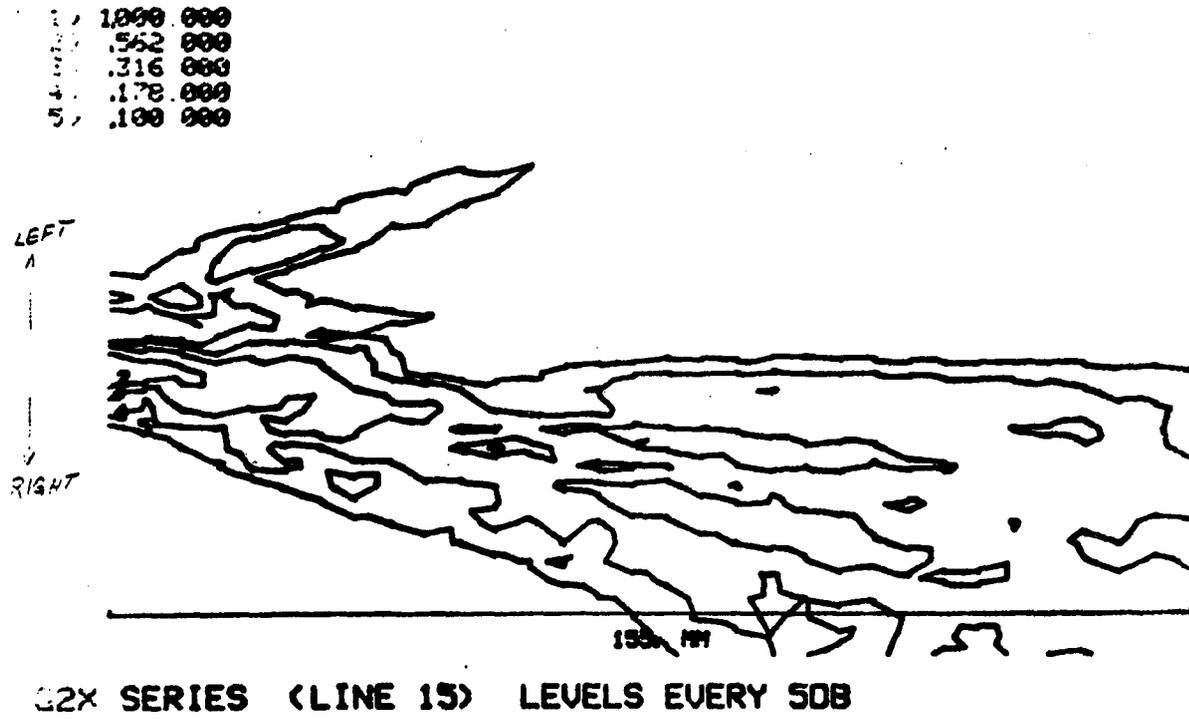
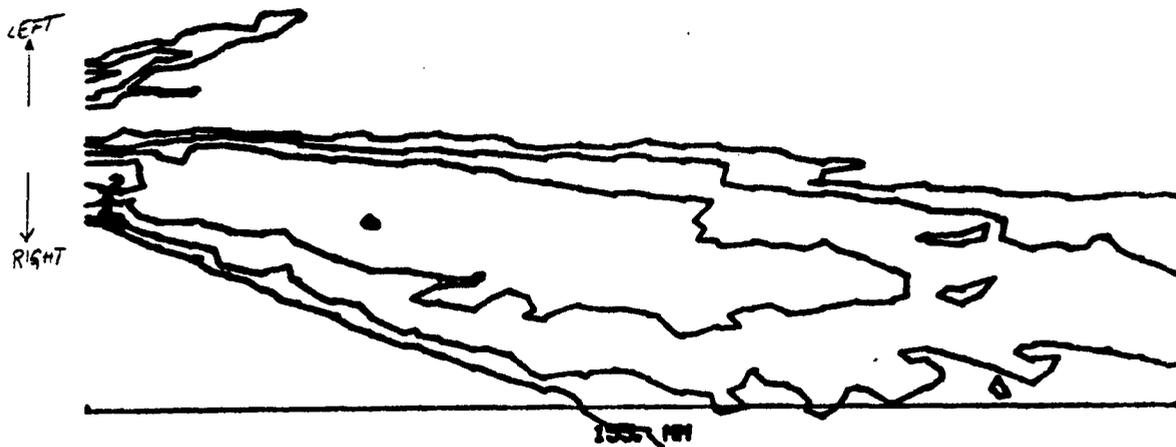


Figure C-18. Horizontal plane contour plot ("line 15") for S/N 47264H fan beam

| | | |
|---|------|-----|
| 1 | 1000 | 000 |
| 2 | 562 | 000 |
| 3 | 316 | 000 |
| 4 | 178 | 000 |
| 5 | 100 | 000 |

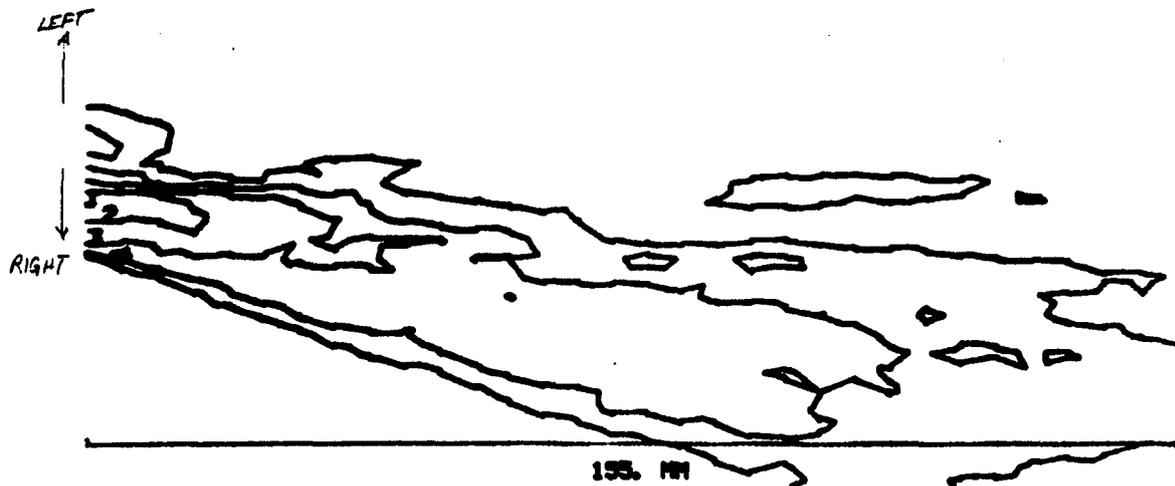


G2X SERIES (LINE 16) LEVELS EVERY 5DB

SMALLER RADIATING SOURCE BRINGS
FAR FIELD CLOSER TO TRANSDUCER.

Figure C-19. Horizontal plane contour plot ("line 16") for S/N 47264H fan beam

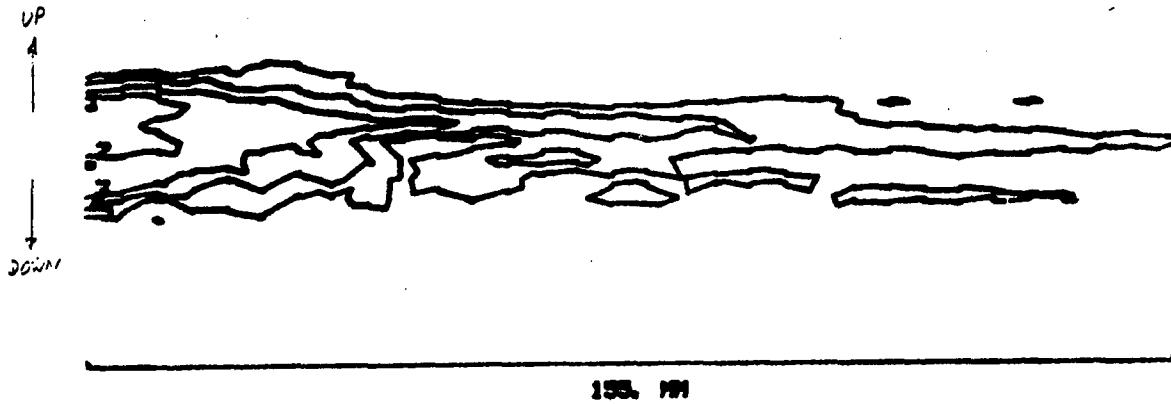
| | | |
|----|------|-----|
| 17 | 1000 | 000 |
| 16 | 562 | 000 |
| 15 | 316 | 000 |
| 14 | 178 | 000 |
| 13 | 100 | 000 |



G2X SERIES (LINE 17) LEVELS EVERY 5DB

Figure C-20. Horizontal plane contour plot ("line 17") for S/N 47264H fan beam

| | | |
|---|-------|-----|
| 1 | 1.000 | 000 |
| 2 | .562 | 000 |
| 3 | .316 | 000 |
| 4 | .178 | 000 |
| 5 | .100 | 000 |



G2X SERIES (PIXEL 16) LEVELS EVERY 5DB

Figure C-21. Vertical plane contour plot ("pixel 16") for S/N 47264H fan beam

COMMENT SECTOR - ULTRASONOGRAPHY DATA

FILE NAME:
G1X01

NUMBER OF PIXELS PER LINE:
32

NUMBER OF LINES PER FRAME:
32

X-DIMENSION IN CM:
7.0000

Y-DIMENSION IN CM:
7.0000

DATA TAKEN WITH THE WIGGLER SYSTEM.

DATE OF TEST:
5/14/78

MANUFACTURER:
AEROTECH(G.E. OWNED)

MODEL OR TYPE:
CYLINDRICAL SECTION; FAN BEAM FOR TOMOGRAPHY APPL.

SPECIFICATIONS:
5MHZ/0.5X0.5 IN. (S/N 47265H)

SOURCE USED:
ULTR+FR.SYN+50W AMPL

DISTANCE FROM SOURCE IN CM:
1.0000

PULSE DURATION IN MICROSECONDS:
30.0000

VOLTAGE APPLIED:
24.0000

REPETITION RATE IN KHZ:
2.0000

PEAK DISPLACEMENT IN CM :
.0000E+00

PERCENT OF PEAK INTENSITY:
0

SPATIAL AVERAGE INTENSITY IN WATTS/CM**2:
.0000E+00

BEAM AREA IN CM**2:
.0000E+00

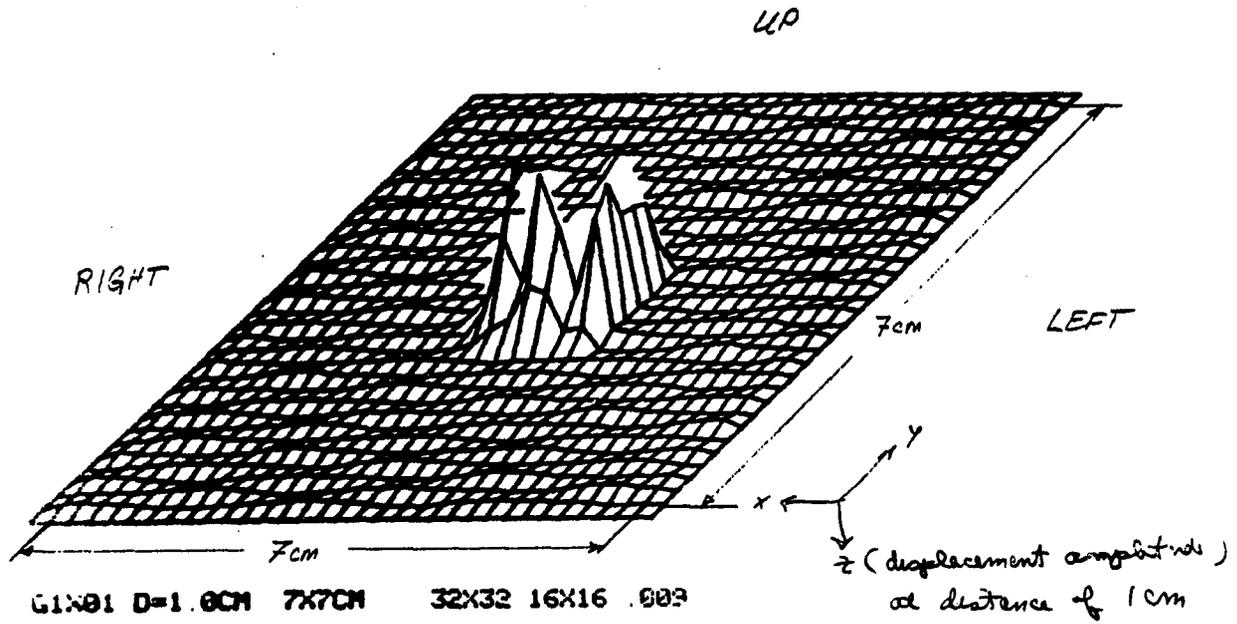
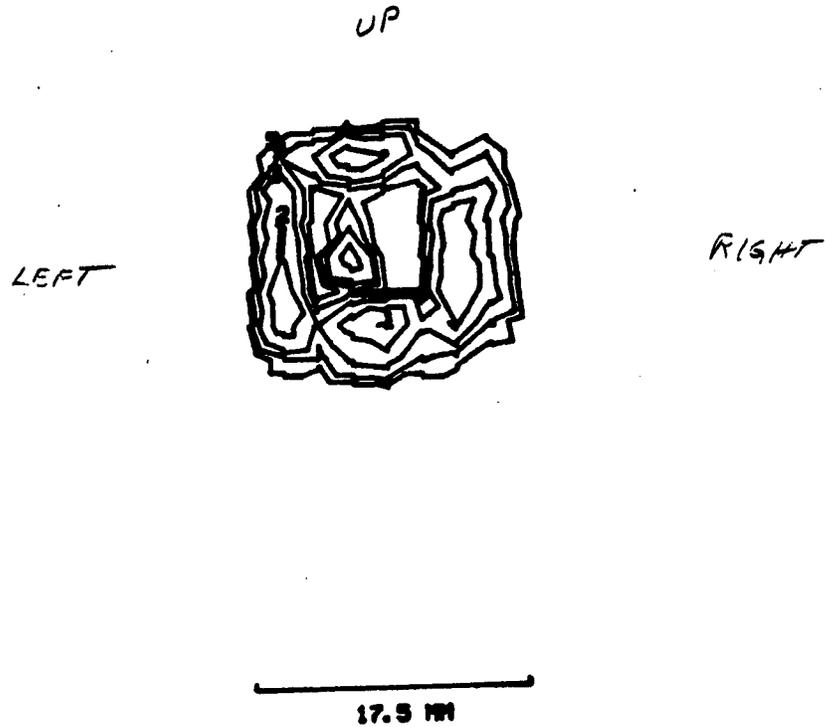


Figure C-22. Isometric plot of transverse acoustic field 1 cm from transducer (S/N 47265H)

1: 1.000 000
 2: .562 000
 3: .316 000
 4: .178 000
 5: .100 000



G1X01 D=1.0CM

CONTOUR OF DISPLACEMENT AMPLITUDE
 ... THAT COMPONENT NORMAL TO PELLICLE.

Figure C-23. Contour plot of transverse acoustic field 1 cm from transducer (S/N 47265H)

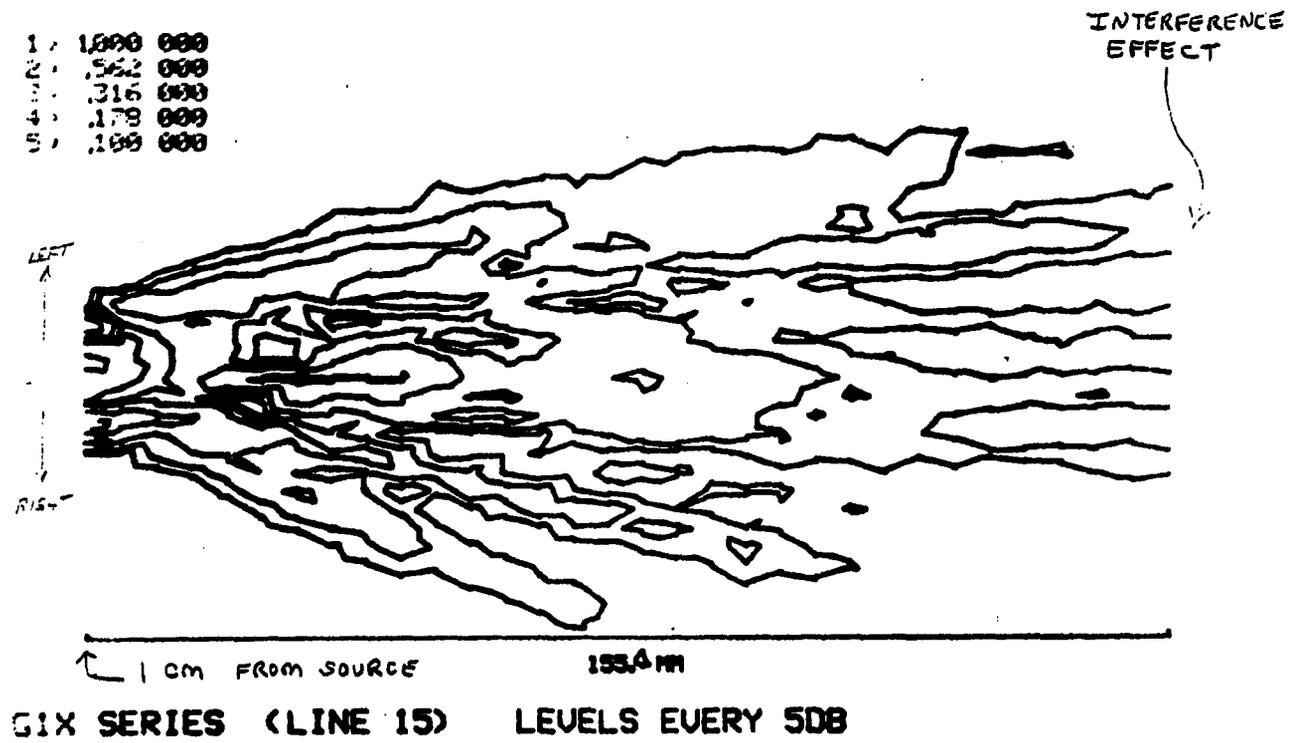
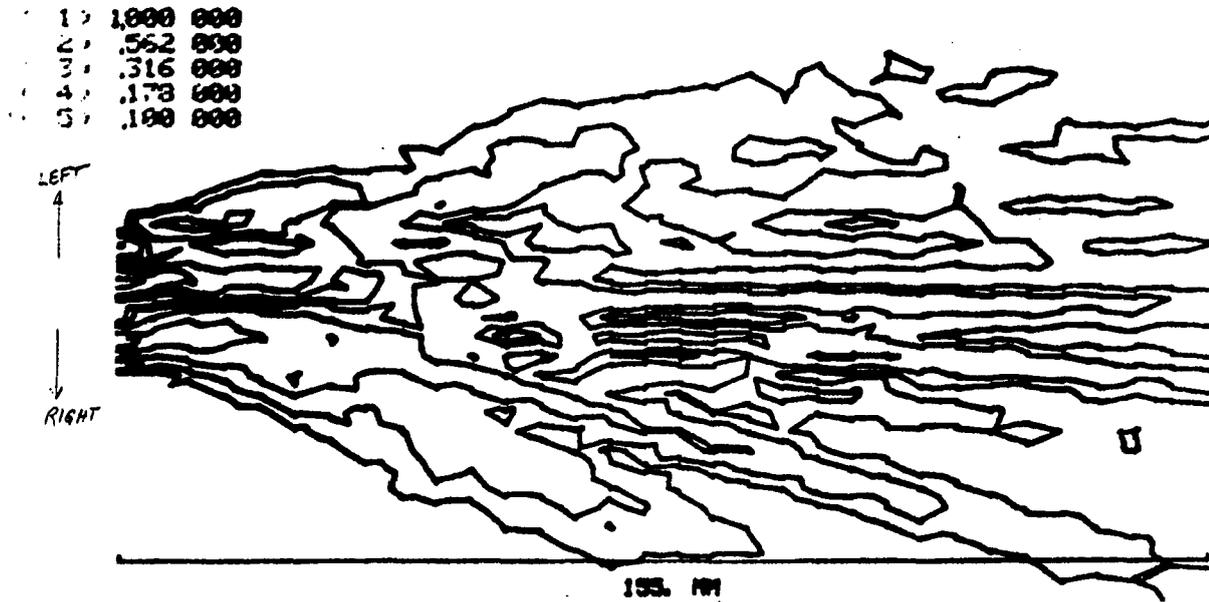


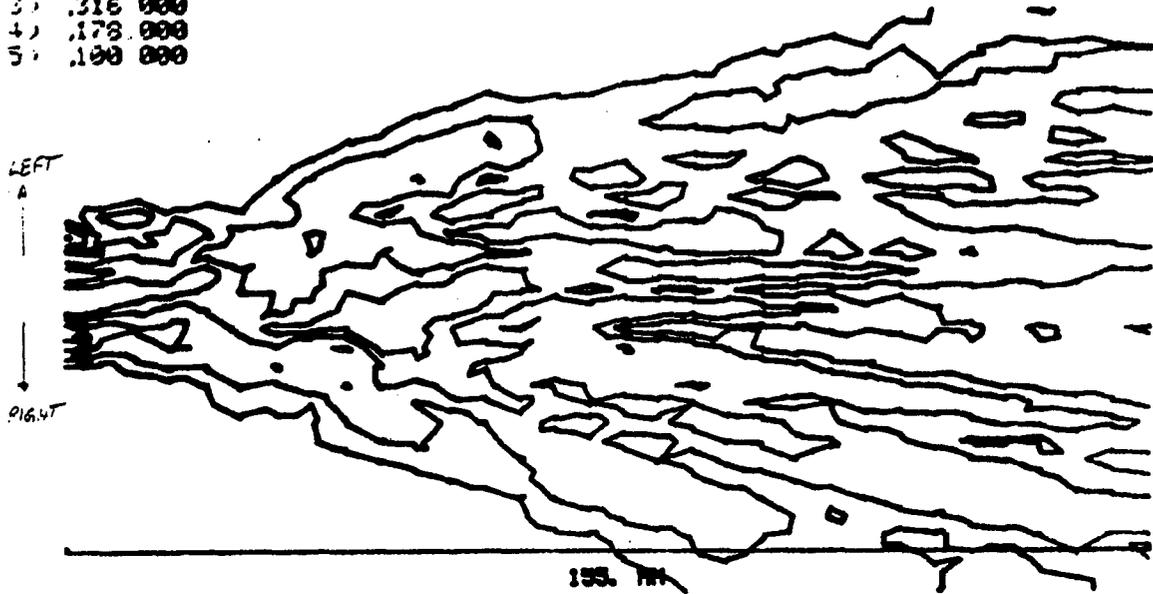
Figure C-24. Horizontal plane contour plot ("line 15") for S/N 47265H fan beam



G1X SERIES (LINE 16) LEVELS EVERY 5DB

Figure C-25. Horizontal plane contour plot ("line 16") for S/N 47265H fan beam

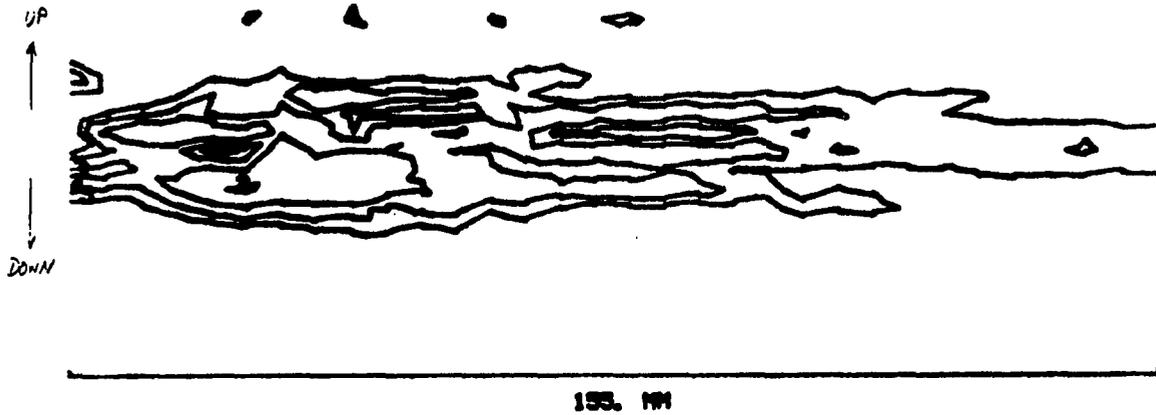
1. 1000.000
2. .562.000
3. .316.000
4. .178.000
5. .100.000



GIX SERIES (LINE 17) LEVELS EVERY 500

Figure C-26. Horizontal plane contour plot ("line 17") for S/N 47265H fan beam

1) 1000.000
2) .562.000
3) .316.000
4) .178.000
5) .100.000



GIX SERIES (PIXEL 16) LEVELS EVERY 50B

Figure C-27. Vertical plane contour plot ("pixel 16") for S/N 47265H fan beam

Figure C-28 shows a beam profile of a plane, circular source (2.25 MHz/13 mm diameter). The sound travels from left to right with the transducer face being 4 mm from the beginning of the pattern. Part (b) of the figure has a 1:1 scale while part (a) has an expanded vertical scale. This figure is included strictly for a basis of comparison with a conventional transducer.

TSC Series (Line 18) 5DB Contours

- (1) 1000
- (2) 562
- (3) 316
- (4) 178
- (5) 100

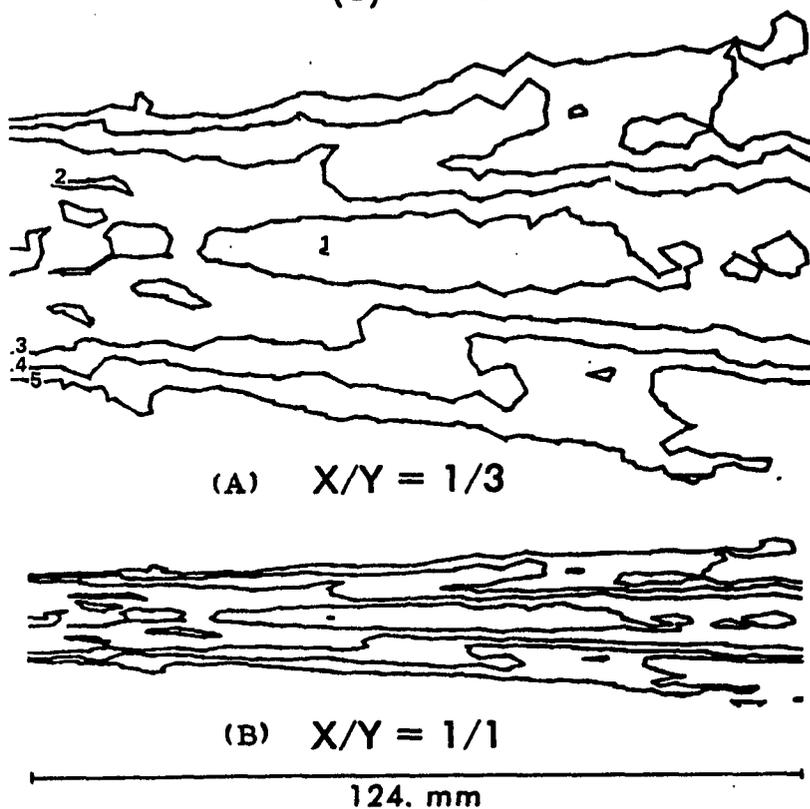


Figure C-28. Typical ultrasonovision beam profile (shown for general comparison) for a plane, circular source (2.25 MHz, 13 mm diameter)

The remaining data was collected by the BRH on the fan beam transducer which exhibited the "full-fan" pattern. This data gives an indication of the fan beam total power output.



DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE
ROCKVILLE, MARYLAND 20852

July 6, 1978

General Electric
Bldg 3-229
Electronics Park
Syracuse, N. Y. 13201
Attn: Lawrence Nadel

Dear Mr. Nadel:

Enclosed please find the data from a calibration of your transducer s/n 47265H. A gated RF signal was used with a 5 MHz cw source, and a gating pulse of 1 khz rep rate, and 100 μ sec pulse duration, for a duty cycle of 10%. The data is as follows:

| <u>Peak to Peak volts</u> | <u>RMS volts</u> | <u>Ultrasonic power</u> |
|---------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|
| 9.2V | 1.0V | 120 μ watts |
| 18.5V | 2.0V | 400 μ watts |
| 23.0V | 2.5V | 620 μ watts |
| 28.0V | 3.0V | 970 μ watts |
| 33.0V | 3.5V | 1.31 m watts |
| 38.0V | 4.0V | 1.72 m watts |

This data was taken using a Cahn electronic balance with a resolution of 30 μ watts. The distance from transducer to target was 3.2 cm and from Mike's data this indicates a beam diameter of 3.5 cm. The target has a diameter of 4.8 cm so the entire beam is intercepted by the target. The error due to non plane wave nature of the beam is less than 2%.

Sincerely,

Ronald A. Robinson
Ronald A. Robinson
Staff Engineer, Acoustics Br.
5600 Fishers Lane - Room 749
Rockville, Md. 20857
(301) 443-6113

P. S.

also enclosed is a linear regression graph of the data. I hope this data will be useful to you in your work. If I can be of further assistance please let me know

RA

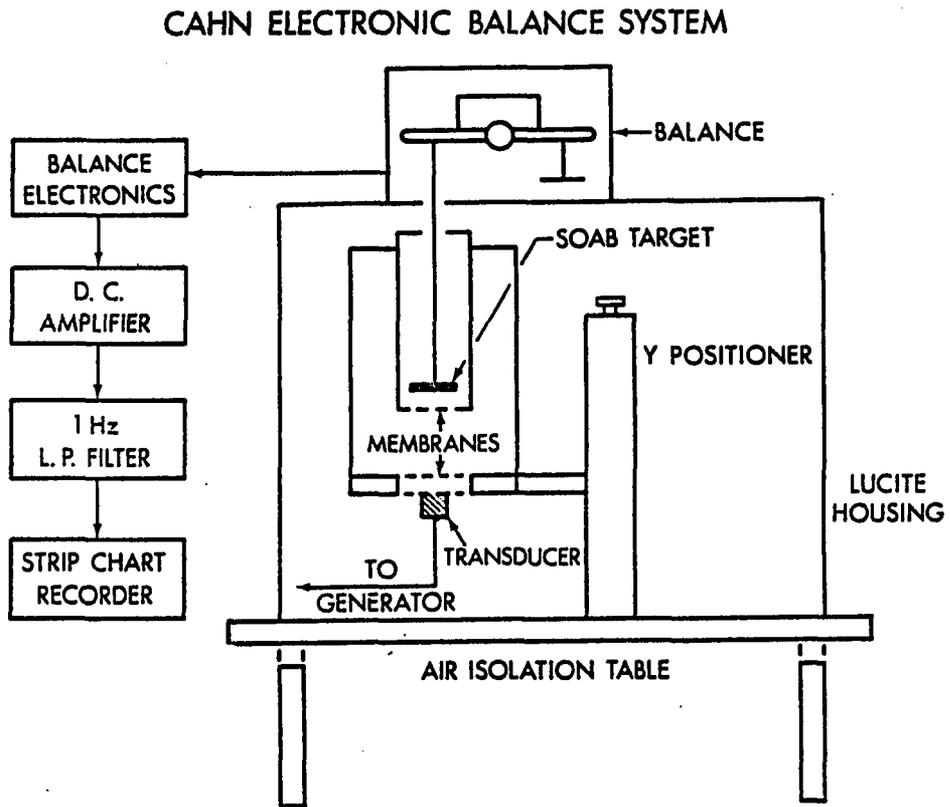


Figure C-29. Cahn electronic balance system used to measure ultrasonic output power

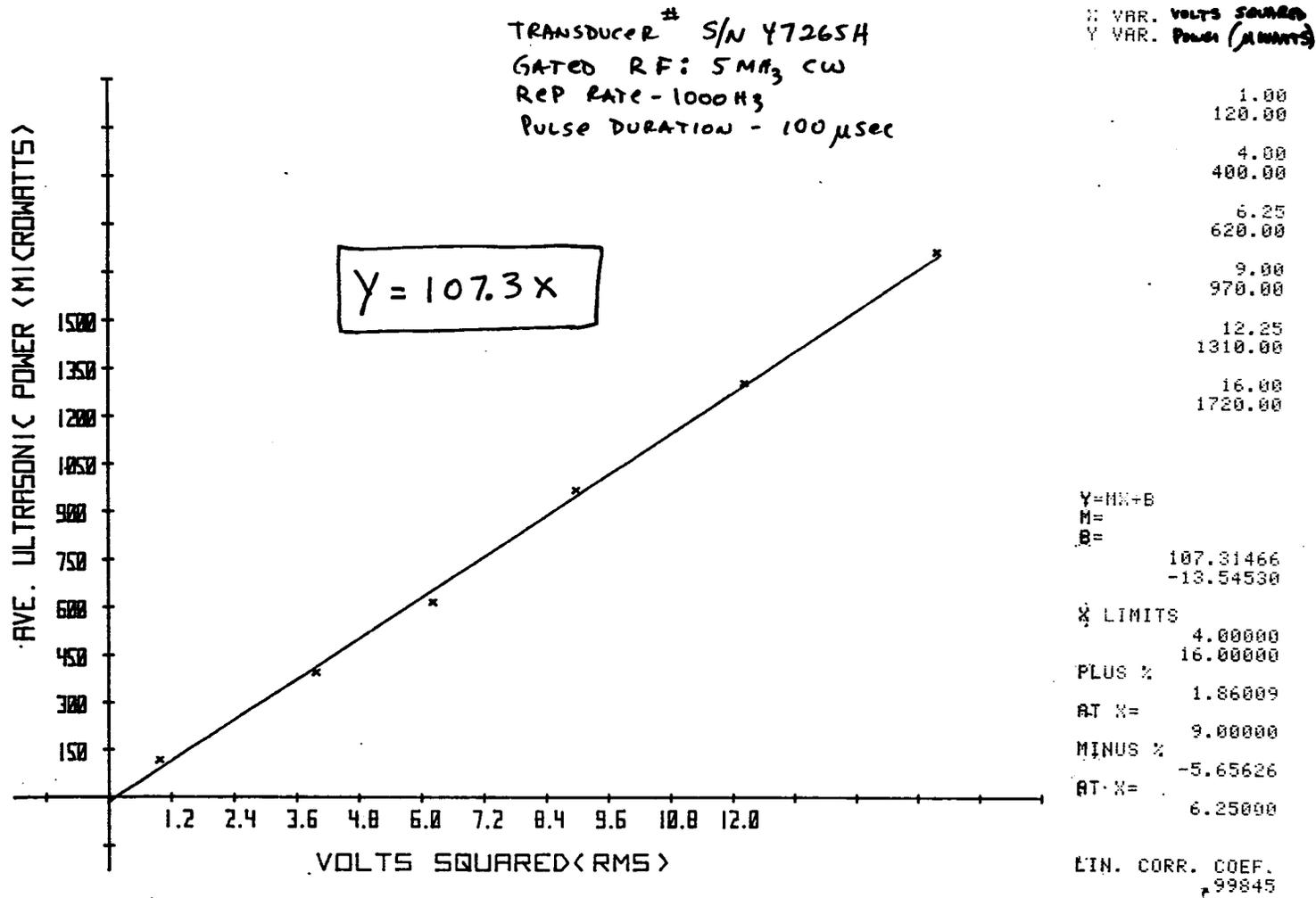


Figure C-30. Output power versus input voltage squared for S/N 47265H as determined by the BRH Cahn electronic balance

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