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## Caractérisation ultrasonore de la distribution de globules rouges : étude par simulation numérique

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Les méthodes ultrasonores microscopiques d'estimation de taille se présentent comme un outil prometteur pour caractériser l'agrégation des globules rouges de façon non invasive. Ces méthodes sont basées sur l'analyse des spectres de puissance des signaux ultrasonores rétrodiffusés par le sang. Ces signaux contiennent des informations sur l'arrangement spatial, la taille et les propriétés mécaniques des diffuseurs, informations permettant la caractérisation. Cependant la relation entre les paramètres décrivant l'état d'agrégation et le coefficient de rétrodiffusion nécessite d'être encore clariée. La propagation d'ondes ultrasonores a été simulée à travers des distributions 2D de globules rouges dans le domaine temporel. Notons que la simulation ne requiert aucune approximation physique (dans le domaine de l'acoustique linéaire). Dans le cas le plus simple de globules rouges désagrégés, la relation entre le coefficient de rétrodiffusion et la concentration des diffuseurs a été étudiée. Le coefficient de rétrodiffusion a été calculé pour des cylindres infinis faiblement diffusants (rayon 2.8  $\mu$ m) à des concentrations allant de 6 à 36%, et cela pour des fréquences comprises entre 10 et 40 MHz. Dans le cas de globules rouges agrégés, la relation entre la dépendance fréquentielle du coefficient de rétrodiffusion a été étudiée. Tous ces résultats ont été comparés avec un modèle de faible diffusion basé sur le calcul analytique du facteur de structure.

#### 1 Introduction

The aggregation of red blood cells (RBCs) is a physiological reversible process. When RBCs are under low shear rates ( $<10 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), they interact strongly with each other and form complex 3D rouleaux structures. When the shear rate increases, rouleaux structures desaggregate. This phenomenon is not pathological. However, RBC hyper-aggregation, an abnormal increase of RBCs aggregation, is a pathological state associated with several circulatory diseases such as deep venous thrombosis, atherosclerosis and diabetes mellitus. These pathologies inflict particular sites (inferior members for thrombosis, arterial bifurcations for atherosclerosis, the foot and eye for diabetes). Ultrasonic imaging holds the perspective of further elucidating the role of RBC aggregation on the etiology of these diseases *in vivo* and *in situ*.

Classical blood characterization techniques consist of measuring the magnitude and frequency dependence of the radio frequency backscatter spectrum. A large number of *in vitro* experiments on blood have been performed to study how these two indices vary with shear rate, flow turbulence, hematocrit (i.e. concentration of RBCs), and RBC aggregation level [1]-[3]. Theoretical efforts have been also made to develop ultrasound backscattering models for non-aggregating [4] and aggregating RBCs [5]. Twersky [4] proposed a packing factor to describe the backscattering coefficient of a distribution of hard particles. This model succeeds to explain the relationship between the backscatter amplitude and hematocrit for non-aggregating RBCs but fails to predict the frequency dependence observed in in vitro experiments when considering aggregating RBCs. Yu and Cloutier [5] recently parametrized the backscattering coefficient from blood : two indices describing RBC aggregation, the packing factor and mean aggregate diameter, were extracted from the Structure Factor Size Estimator. However this estimator still needs to be quantitavely evaluated.

The purpose of this paper is to perform numerical ultrasound wave simulations through 2D RBC distributions in order to validate a weak scattering theoretical model based on a particle approach [6]. This theoretical model is commonly employed for approximating the ultrasound backscattering from RBCs [7]-[11]. In order to simulate ultrasonic propagation through RBCs, we use a time-domain numerical method [12] [13] that has the advantages of requiring no physical approximation (within the framework of linear acoustics) and of limiting the numerical artefacts induced by the discretization of object interfaces. Our method therefore automatically accounts for multiple scattering, refraction, and reflection, and the accuracy of the numerical solution is independent of the cell number. In the simple case of disaggregated RBCs, the relationship between the backscatter amplitude and scatterer concentration is studied. In the aggregating case, the relationship between the backscatter frequency dependence and level of aggregation at a concentration of 24% is studied in the frequency range 10 to 50 MHz. All the results obtained from the direct numerical simulation are compared with those expected from theory.

## 2 Ultrasound backscattering theory

Ultrasonic scattering from blood is mainly caused by the RBCs. Indeed, blood can be mechanically described as a colloidal suspension of RBCs in plasma. RBCs constitute the vast majority (97%) of the cellular content of blood and occupy a large volume fraction (hematocrit) of 35-45% under normal conditions. In this 2D study, RBCs are modeled as parallel infinite cylinders of radius *a*, that have a small acoustical impedance contrast relatively to the host homogeneous medium (i.e. the plasma) :  $\gamma_z = (Z_{RBC} - Z_{plasma})/Z_{plasma}$ . RBCs and plasma are assumed to be fluid and nondissipative media. In the following, we recall the scattering model commonly used for a single RBC and then for many RBCs.

#### 2.1 Single-RBC scattering model

Consider a backscattering configuration that consists of the insonification of one fluid RBC by a monochromatic plane wave  $p_i(\mathbf{r}) = p_0 e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}}$ , where  $\mathbf{r}$  is the spatial vector,  $p_0$  is the incident pressure amplitude, and  $\mathbf{k}$  represents the wave vector ( $|\mathbf{k}| = k = 2\pi/\lambda$ ,  $\lambda$  being the wavelength). In the far field of the particle, the field backscattered by the particle has the asymptotic form :

$$p_s(\mathbf{r}) = p_0 \frac{e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}}}{\sqrt{r}} \left[\sigma_b(k)\right]^{1/2},\tag{1}$$

where  $\sigma_b$  is the backscattering cross section per unit area of one particle that can be calculated using the theory of Faran [14]. For the simplest case where the particle size is small compared to wavelength ( $ka \ll 1$ ), we use Rayleigh scatterer form [15]

$$\sigma_b(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} k^3 A_p^2 \gamma_z^2 \left(\frac{J_1(2ka)}{ka}\right)^2,$$
 (2)

where  $A_p = \pi a^2$  is the particle area and  $J_1$  is the first order Bessel function of the first kind.

#### 2.2 Many-RBC scattering model

The theoretical model of ultrasound backscattering by blood is based on a particle approach[5] [6], which consists of summing contributions from individual RBCs and modeling the RBC interaction by a structure factor. By using the Born approximation (weak scattering) and considering a collection of n identical and cylindrical RBCs in the backscattering configuration described in the previous section, the differential backscattering cross section per unit area (also called the backscattering coefficient BSC) can be written as [4] :

$$BSC_{theo}(k) = m\sigma_b(k)S(k), \tag{3}$$

where m is the number density of RBCs in blood that is related with the hematocrit H as  $m = H/A_p$ . The function S is the structure factor representing the spatial positioning of particles and defined by :

$$S(\mathbf{k}) = E\left[\frac{1}{n} \left|\sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{-i2\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}_{i}}\right|^{2}\right]$$
(4)

where E represents the expected value of a random variable and  $\mathbf{r}_i$  the position vectors defining the center of the *i*th scatterer in space. Since the medium is isotropic,  $S(\mathbf{k})$  depends only on k; for the clarity of the notation, we confused  $S(\mathbf{k})$  and S(k) as done in Eq. (3). The aggregation phenomenon is thus supposed to only affect the structure factor since RBCs properties and hematocrit remain constant in the region of interest.

In the low frequency limit, the structure factor tends towards a constant value  $S(k) \rightarrow S(0) = W$  called the packing factor that has been extensively studied for non-aggregating particles. The most often used packing factor expression is based on the Percus-Yevick pair-correlation function for identical, hard and radially symmetric particles. The Perkus-Yevick packing factor  $W_{PY}$  was first applied to blood by Shung [16] and is related in the 2D space with the hematocrit as [4] [16] [6]

$$W_{PY} = \frac{(1-H)^3}{1+H}.$$
 (5)

At very low H,  $W_{PY}$  is equal to unity. As H increases,  $W_{PY}$  decays to zero so that the BSC also approaches zero at very high H because in a densely packed medium one can always find an RBC that will destructively interfere with the contribution from another RBC.

#### 3 Methods

#### 3.1 Computation of a RBCs distribution

We describe here how random distributions for nonaggregating and aggregating RBCs were computed. These distributions were employed in the direct numerical simulation and in the computation of the theoretical BSC.

Computation of a random distribution for nonaggregating RBCs. First, we specify the RBC radius  $a = 2.75 \mu m$  and the surface size S to be investigated. For each studied hematocrit H, the number of RBCs nis given by  $n = HS/A_p$  and then a simple method allows the determination of the RBC spatial positions as described in the following. The center position of each cylinder is determined by a pair of random variables  $(x_i, y_i)$ . Each time a new cylinder is placed, a procedure is applied to check the distance between the newly generated cylinder and the cylinders generated before. If a newly generated scatterer overlaps with any other scatterers, the scatterer will be discarded, otherwise the scatterer's position is saved. This procedure is repeated until the required hematocrit is reached. Note that, for each hematocrit, two types of distribution were performed:

- one with an exclusion length  $l_e=0.9\mu$ m between scatterer (i.e. a non-zero minimal length between scatterer interfaces) for computational purpose in the direct numerical simulation (see section 3.2),
- one without an exclusion length, i.e. scatterers could be in contact.



Inferior limit of the simulation grid

FIGURE 1 – Sketch of the computational domain. The area of interest A is the zone containing the RBCs distribution and located between the two arcs of circles. The center of these circles corresponds to the receiver position and the circle radii are 0.7 mm and 1.6 mm.

Computation of a random distribution for aggregating RBCs. First, discs of radius 6.60  $\mu$ m (and respectively 9.08  $\mu$ m) are randomly generated, these discs correspond to aggregates containing 3 RBCs (and respectively 6 RBCs). An exclusion length  $l_e$  is ensured between aggregates. For a specific hematocrit, the locations of the scatterers inside each aggregate are generated randomly with an exclusion length  $l_e$ between scatterers.

#### 3.2 Direct numerical simulation

The numerical method used to compute the solution of the wave equation was previously described [12] [13]. The time-domain numerical integration of acoustic equations is done by a second-order Lax-Wendroff scheme. The discretization of interfaces is done by an immersed interface method, ensuring accurate description of geometrical features and of the jump conditions. The computations involve grids of 2 mm×3 mm with mesh sizes  $\Delta x = \Delta y = 0.195 \ \mu m$  (i.e. grids of  $10240 \times 15360$  nodes) requiring the parallelization of algorithms on a cluster of PCs. The RBCs are distributed on a 2 mm × 1.4 mm rectangular subdomain. As required by the immersed interface method, an exclusion length  $l_e$  between each scatterer is taken equal to  $4\Delta x=0.9 \ \mu m$ .

The computational grid is excited by a plane wave whose support is originally outside the region of interest. The x axis of the computational domain are periodized in order to simulate the wave propagation in a semi-infinite medium (see Fig. 1). At each time step, the simulated acoustic pressure is recorded on 256 receivers. These receivers are placed at every 8  $\mu$ m and in parallel to the incident wave front in order to simulate a transducer moved laterally. Signals were selected with a rectangular window of length 0.9 mm centered at a distance d = 1.15 mm from the receivers. The power spectra of the 256 backscattered signals were then averaged to provide the mean backscattered power spectrum  $\overline{P}$ . The BSC obtained from the simulated data was



FIGURE 2 – Backscattering cross sections per unit area  $\sigma_b$  of a single RBC. The solid and dashed lines give  $\sigma_b$  given by, respectively, the Faran and Rayleigh models. Simulations results are shown by the symbols.

computed as

$$BSC_{sim}(k) = \frac{d}{A} \frac{\overline{P}}{P_{inc}},\tag{6}$$

where  $P_{inc}$  is the power spectrum of the incident signal and A is the area of interest determined by acoustic ray theory. Indeed, since signals are selected with a rectangular window corresponding to depths between 0.7 mm and 1.6 mm from the receivers, the RBCs contributing to the selected signals are localized between two circles of radii 0.7 mm and 1.6 mm and of center the receiver positions. The area of interest A is thus the zone containing the RBCs distribution and located between these two circles as shown in Fig. 1.

#### **3.3** Computation of the theoretical BSC

The computation of the theoretical BSC requires the knowledge of the structure factor as described in Eq. (3). Since S is by definition a statistical quantity, an average of all structure factors obtained from several random particle distributions can give an estimated value of S. For each particle distribution, a matrix D was computed by dividing the square simulation plane  $L^2$  in  $N_p^2$  pixels and by counting the number of particles falling into each pixel,  $N_p$  being sufficiently high in order that there is a maximum of one particle by pixel. We chose to take  $L{=}300~\mu{\rm m}$  and  $N_p{=}256$  pixels as a tradeoff between the computational domain size and the computational time. This matrix D represents the microscopic density function defined by  $D(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_i)$ , where  $\delta$  is the Dirac distribution. According to Eq.(4), the structure factor can thus be described by :

$$S(\mathbf{k}) = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\left|\int D(\mathbf{r})e^{-i2\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}}d\mathbf{r}\right|^2\right].$$
 (7)

The structure factor was thus computed by averaging 2-D fast Fourier transforms (2D FFT) of 200 density matrix D. This FFT gave the structure factor values  $S(\mathbf{k})$ on a centered grid of wavevectors between  $\pm \pi N_p/2L$  with a step of  $\Delta k = \pi/L$ . The theoretical BSC is then obtained using Eq. (3).



FIGURE 3 – (a) Plots of backscatter coefficients versus the hematocrit for non-aggregated RBCs. The solid curve represents the  $BSC_{theo}$  calculated with the Percus-Yevick packing factor, the dashed lines the particle theory approach  $BSC_{theo}$  obtained by computing the structure factor with and without the exclusion length. The diamond markers express simulation results  $BSC_{sim}$ . (b) Frequency-dependent backscattering coefficients for an hematocrit of 6, 18, 24 and 36% in the case of non-aggregated RBCs. The solid line represents the curve for the particle theory approach. Simulations results are shown by the symbols.

#### 4 Results and discussion

#### 4.1 Non-aggregating case

Figure 2 shows the simulated  $\sigma_b$  as a function of frequency in a linear scale. Also represented are two theoretical  $\sigma_b$  obtained from the Rayleigh and Faran models. One can notice that the Faran model matches well the  $\sigma_b$  obtained with the direct numerical simulation at all frequencies, whereas the Rayleigh model is only valid within 5% accuracy until a frequency of 22 MHz. Note that this result was expected since the



FIGURE 4 – Frequency-dependent backscattering coefficients for a constant hematocrit of 24 % in the case of non-aggregated and aggregated RBCs. The solid line represents the curve for the particle theory approach. Simulations results are shown by the symbols.

Rayleigh model is accurate within 5% for ka < 0.25. In the following, all the theoretical BSCs presented will be calculated using the Faran model.

For non-aggregating RBCs at low frequencies, the relationship between the BSC amplitude and hematocrit was investigated. Figure 3a presents four averaged BSCs obtained by averaging BSCs between frequencies in the validity domain of Rayleigh behavior (i.e. between 10 and 22 MHz). The diamond markers represent the simulation results. The solid line shows the prediction by the hard sphere Percus-Yevick packing factor. The dashed lines indicate the particle theory approach by considering RBC distributions with and without an exclusion length.

This figure demonstrates that both simulation results and particle theory approach with the same exclusion length are in good agreement at low frequencies. For the results without an exclusion length, the peak of the BSC obtained by the particle theory approach is seen at about 19%, in close agreement with the Percus-Yevick packing theory at about 22% as observed by Zhang and co-workers [7] with a Gaussian pulse incident wave (see Fig. 10 in Ref. 19). However, from a quantitative point of view, the Percus-Yevick packing theory does not match the particle theory approach for hematocrits superior to 14 %.

Typical results of the frequency-dependent  $BSC_{sim}$ and  $BSC_{theo}$  for an hematocrit of 6, 18, 24 and 36% are given in Fig. 3b in a log compressed scale. For both BSCs, the distributions were realized with the exclusion length  $l_e$ . Standard deviations are not shown for clarity. The weak scattering model based on the structure factor matches quite well the simulation results. For all hematocrits, the BSCs are Rayleigh at low frequencies (up to 22 MHz) i.e. the BSCs have third-power frequency dependence.

To conclude the non-aggregation case study, for the RBC distributions having an exclusion length, the direct numerical simulation validates the structure factor theory for frequencies between 10 and 22 MHz. We can

reasonably extrapolate this result to RBC distributions without an exclusion length. As shown in Fig. 3a, it will be thus more accurate to calculate the theoretical BSC via the particle theory approach rather than the Percus-Yevick packing theory for dense medium.

#### 4.2 Aggregating case

Figure 4 shows the simulated and theoretical BSCs as a function of frequency in a log compressed scale in the case of aggregating RBCs. A constant hematocrit H=24% and two aggregate sizes (i.e. 3 and 6 RBCs by aggregate) were used for these computations. The markers represent the simulation results and the solid line shows the prediction by the particle theory approach. As observed in the case of the non-aggregating case in Fig. 3b, the particle theory approach matches quite well the simulation results. However, for the largest level of aggregation and for high frequencies (>40 MHz), the structure factory model fails to simulate the backscattered field.

Also represented in Fig. 4 are the results in the case of non-aggregated RBCs at an hematocrit of H=24%in order to compare non-aggregating and aggregating cases. For non-aggregated RBCs, the slope of the BSC as a function of frequency is linear in our log-log scale. When considering aggregated RBCs, the BSC becomes non-Rayleigh : the slope becomes not linear in our loglog scale and the BSC amplitude increases as the level of aggregation becomes larger. Note that the behaviors (frequency-dependence and amplitude) of the BSC in both non-aggregated and aggregated RBCs were the same in *in vitro* experiments performed by Yu and Cloutier [5] in a controlled Couette flow.

#### 5 Conclusion

This study shows that the particle theory approach approximates accurately the backscattering field of ultrasonic waves when the wavelength of the incident field is much greater than the scatterer size, for hematocrits inferior to 36% and for frequencies between 10 and 40 MHz. Future works will incorporate elastic waves in the direct numerical simulation.

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