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► **To cite this version:**

Jean-Marc Girault, Denis Kouamé, Sébastien Ménigot, Francesco Guidi, Grégory Souchon, et al.. Analysis of index modulation of doppler microembolic signals part II: in vitro discrimination. *Ultrasound in Medicine & Biology*, 2011, 37 (1), pp.102-111. 10.1016/j.ultrasmedbio.2010.10.014 . hal-00658791

**HAL Id: hal-00658791**

**<https://hal.science/hal-00658791>**

Submitted on 11 Jan 2012

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# Analysis of Index Modulation of Doppler microembolic signals Part II: in vitro discrimination

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Elsevier

Ultrasound in Medicine & Biology, Volume 37, Issue 1, January 2011, Pages 102-111

DOI : 10.1016/j.ultrasmedbio.2010.10.014

<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0301562910005466>

## Abstract

The purpose of this study was to validate through experiments that frequency modulation (FM) of microembolic signatures was principally due to the radiation force. Several experiments were required to prove that such a frequency modulation originates from micro-displacements induced by the radiation force acting on microbubbles. The first experiment was performed to verify that the diffraction effects due to the presence of a skull did not disturb the acoustic field appreciably and to validate that a radiation force in the brain was sufficient to create a detectable micro-displacement. A second *in vitro* experiment using a single gate transcranial Doppler (TCD) system was conducted to show discrimination feasibility and to check that microembolic frequency modulation signatures (FMS) and frequency modulation index (FMI) were the same as those observed *in vivo* and those calculated by simulation. A final *in vitro* experiment was performed using a multi-gate multi-channel TCD system to confirm the second experiment by directly measuring the micro-displacement induced by the radiation force. A new parameter, to be known as the position modulation index (PMI), is proposed. We showed that the radiation force is sufficient to induce detectable micro-displacements despite the presence of the skull. We also showed that the diffraction effects due to the skull induced a decrease in the ultrasound beam of 7.6 dB. Finally, we showed by using FMI and PMI that it is possible to discriminate gaseous from formed elements ( $< 100$  microns ) despite the presence of the skull. The discrimination based on the FMI is an off-line technique allowing the analysis of standard TCD recordings. However, discrimination based on the PMI requires recordings obtained exclusively from a multi-gate system.

*Key words:* Discrimination, Microemboli, ultrasound radiation force.

## 1 Introduction

2 More than two-thirds of all ischemic strokes are caused by cerebral embolisms related  
3 to the intravascular migration of various particles. These particles can be of different  
4 types, such as blood clots, fat particles or gas bubbles originating from the vascular bed  
5 or trapped in the vasculature during a surgical procedure or intervention. In order to  
6 provide an accurate diagnosis and suitable treatment, it is essential to establish the pre-  
7 cise nature of emboli as quickly as possible. Embolus size is also an important criterion  
8 which must be taken into account. Transcranial Doppler (TCD) systems have been used  
9 *in vivo*, and various results have been reported in terms of detection rate and characteri-  
10 zation. Analysis of the Doppler signal in well-controlled *in vitro* experiments can provide  
11 valuable information concerning the characteristics and size of emboli. However, accurate  
12 characterization cannot yet be fully achieved in clinical practice using current technology.

13 Many reports in the medical literature have proposed methods of differentiating gaseous  
14 and particle microemboli. Many *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have been published in sci-  
15 entific and clinical journals (Rusell et al. (1992), Markus and Brown (1993), Georgiadis  
16 et al. (1994), Droste et al. (1994), Smith et al. (1997), Smith et al. (1998), Devuyst et al.  
17 (2000), Devuyst et al. (2001), to name but a few). They are mainly based on the measure-  
18 ment of duration (or conversely bandwidth) (Smith et al. (1997), Devuyst et al. (2001)),  
19 position-velocity-acceleration (or Doppler frequency, frequency modulation index, posi-  
20 tion modulation index) (Smith et al. (1997), Girault et al. (2010)) or a combination (SVL)  
21 (Smith et al. (1998)), and intensity or intensity ratio (Smith et al. (1997), Devuyst et al.  
22 (2000)).

23 The present study focused on the experimental measurement of the frequency modula-  
24 tion index (FMI) (Smith et al. (1998)), i.e. the slope of the embolus velocity (frequency  
25 modulation signature) versus time, and the position modulation index (PMI) (Girault  
26 et al. (2010)), i.e. the slope intensity of the position modulation signature. Our study

27 complements and experimentally validates the simulation studies (Girault et al. (2010))  
28 in which we argued that the major contribution of the frequency modulation signature  
29 (FMS) originates from an external force: the radiation force. However, this hypothesis  
30 can be questioned for many reasons, the main reasons being firstly the beam distortion  
31 due to the presence of the skull between the probe and the middle cerebral artery (MCA)  
32 and secondly the attenuation due to the depth of the region being explored ( $> 50$  mm).  
33 Note that the middle cerebral artery is the vessel most typically monitored for microem-  
34 boli in current practice. Eighty percent of the flow to the brain goes through the left and  
35 right middle cerebral arteries, and thus most microemboli will be trapped here. When the  
36 middle cerebral artery is viewed from the temporal bone, the blood flow is mainly parallel  
37 to the ultrasound beam axis. A detailed discussion of the influence of the temporal bone  
38 on the US beam is presented in Deverson et al. (2000). However, we showed in this study  
39 that, although the US beam was attenuated and distorted, the radiation force induced  
40 was sufficient to move microbubbles.

41 The purpose of our study was to confirm experimentally that the radiation force is the  
42 main physical phenomenon which explains the frequency modulation observed in mi-  
43 croembolic signals (MES) *in vivo*. As an illustration, Fig.1 shows temporal and time  
44 frequency representations of a gaseous microembolic Doppler signal from which FMI can  
45 be evaluated manually:  $FMI = \Delta_f / \Delta_t = 300 / 0.013 = 20\text{kHz/s}$ . According to Smith  
46 et al. (1997), the FMS reported in Fig.1 belongs to the third type of FM, i.e. with a  
47 rapid change. This confirms that the microembolus is of a gaseous nature. The question  
48 which remains is whether the radiation force is sufficient to create a micro-displacement  
49 detectable by a TCD system ? If the answer is positive, then differentiation between  
50 gaseous and formed elements is possible.

51 In this study, the issue was approached in two ways. First, the acoustic field was measured  
52 with and without a skull between the probe and area being explored. It was then shown  
53 that it is possible to discriminate a gaseous from a formed element (piece of pork) by  
54 using FMI and PMI. Finally, the most important parameters influencing the radiation

55 force were examined.

## 56 **Materials and Methods**

57 Three series of measurements were performed.

58 The first and the second were carried out in our laboratory. The first experimental setup  
59 focused on mapping the ultrasound field refracted in water with and without a skull.  
60 The skull sample used was an adult skull fixed in formalin *ex vivo* (skull donated by the  
61 Anatomy Department of Bretonneau Hospital, Tours, France). The *post mortem ex vivo*  
62 human skull consisted of the right half of the skull. The gender and exact age of the  
63 cadaver were unknown. No visible damage or malformation was observed.

64 Using a commercial TCD system, the second study focused on measuring the frequency  
65 modulation index (FMI) by means of a time-frequency representation of the Doppler  
66 MES. Frequency and pressure levels (or voltage applied to the transducer) were constant.

67 The third series of measurements was carried out at the University of Florence with a  
68 customized multichannel multigate system (MCMG) allowing two representations (time-  
69 frequency and time-depth) of the microembolic Doppler signal.

### 70 *Mapping of the Pressure field*

71 The purpose of this experiment was to map the acoustic field in order to evaluate the  
72 influence of the skull on the refracted ultrasonic beam and to quantify the corresponding  
73 losses due to the presence of a human skull.

74 The US field refraction induced by bone has been the subject of many studies (for some  
75 examples see: M.A. Moehring (1996), Deverson et al. (2000), Evans (2006)), and our work  
76 complementing these previous studies. This research has been crucial because it has been

77 shown by Girault et al. (2010) that microembolus trajectories depend on both the shape  
78 of the US beam and the spatial velocity distribution.

79 The experimental setup consisted of a waveform generator (HP 3314 A) connected to an  
80 amplifier. The signal was sent to a transducer (Imasonic, 13 mm, 2 MHz) in contact with  
81 the skull. The ultrasonic wave transmitted through the skull was received by a hydrophone  
82 (Precision Acoustics Ltd) coupled to an amplifier (Gain 25 dB). The transducer and  
83 the hydrophone were submerged in a water tank. The pressure levels were obtained at  
84 different positions using a displacement system (NTR system, resolution 0.5 mm). The  
85 signal was digitized with an oscilloscope (Lecroy LT374M) and then sent to a computer  
86 through a GPIB link. A photograph of the experimental setup is presented in Fig.2. In  
87 the first experiments the pressure levels were obtained in water without the skull and  
88 with a degassed skull inserted between the transducer and the hydrophone.

89 To confirm the impact of the skull on the ultrasound beam (diffraction effect), we per-  
90 formed simulations based on a finite differences technique (details reported in references  
91 Calle et al. (2005); Souchon et al. (2006); Bastard et al. (2009)).

#### 92 *In vitro measurement with TCD system*

93 The purpose of this experiment was to measure the presence of microembolic "additional  
94 acceleration" due to the radiation force acting on a microbubble through measurement  
95 of the frequency modulation index.

96 A diagram of the experimental setup is presented in Fig.3. A gear pump (4) circulates  
97 degassed water in a tygon tube (2) of 5 mm internal diameter, 5 mm being slightly  
98 larger than the mean diameter of 3.2 mm of the MCA, probably involving a lower beam  
99 refraction compared to that observed *in vivo*. This tube crosses a water tank (1) in  
100 which a transcranial Doppler transducer (3) is immersed. Circulating emboli are then  
101 detected by the pulsed wave (PW) Doppler system (5). In order to approximate the

102 clinical context, we used two types of configuration: one without and one with a degassed  
 103 skull inserted between the tube and the probe. The transcranial Doppler transducer used  
 104 was an unfocused Vermon probe of 2 MHz central frequency. The PW Doppler system  
 105 (DOP248 Ultrasons Technologies, Tours, France) operates at 2 MHz with pulses of  $N = 20$   
 106 cycles (for example), a pulse repetition frequency (PRF) of 8 kHz and an acoustic intensity  
 107 of  $I_{spta} = 450 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ . The corresponding pressure level at this intensity is:

$$108 \quad P = \sqrt{2Z \frac{I_{spta}}{N} \frac{f}{PRF}} = 400kPa, \quad (1)$$

109 where  $PRF = 8\text{kHz}$ ,  $f = 2 \text{ MHz}$  and  $N = 20$ , and where the acoustic impedance in water  
 110 is  $Z = 1.48 \text{ MRay}$  and in the brain is  $Z = 1.6 \text{ MRay}$ . Note that  $I_{spta} = 720 \text{ mW/cm}^2$  is  
 111 the upper-end value under the FDA guidelines.

112 Bubbles were produced naturally by cavitation in the gear pump used to circulate water  
 113 and they were all less than  $300\mu\text{m}$  in size. Note that the size of the microbubbles was  
 114 measured on the basis of photographs where both microbubbles and reference objects of  
 115 known size were present (micropipette, US probe). The solid emboli were pieces of pork  
 116 (bought from a butcher) and they were all less than  $300\mu\text{m}$ . Note that the size of the  
 117 fat particle was measured with a binocular magnifying glass. We believe that  $300\mu\text{m}$  is a  
 118 value close to clinical situations. The velocity of the fluid in the tube was set at a constant  
 119 value to ensure no acceleration. Solid microemboli were injected into a second water tank  
 120 (6) and sucked into the tube. Gaseous and solid microemboli were detected when they  
 121 crossed the ultrasound beam, and each microembolus signal was computed.

122 In order to quantify the frequency modulation, we introduced the Frequency Modulation  
 123 Index (FMI), initially proposed by Smith et al. (1997). The FMI is defined as follows:

$$124 \quad FMI = \frac{dF_D(t)}{dt} = \frac{2f \cos\theta}{c} \left( \frac{dV_b(t)}{dt} + \frac{dV_{RF}(t)}{dt} \right). \quad (2)$$

125 where  $F_D(t)$  is the instantaneous Doppler frequency,  $V_b(t)$  the embolus velocity and  $V_{RF}(t)$   
 126 the additional velocity due to the radiation force ( $\theta$  is assumed to be constant). In practice,



127  $\widehat{FMI}$  was obtained manually (by means of a marker cursor) by measuring:

$$\widehat{FMI} = \frac{\Delta_f(t)}{\Delta_t} = \frac{F_D(t - \Delta_t/2) - F_D(t + \Delta_t/2)}{\Delta_t},$$

128 where  $\Delta_t$  is the temporal interval in which the modulation is significant. Note that this  
129 approach is equivalent to applying a linear regression to the instantaneous frequency: the  
130 greater the pressure on the bubble, the higher the FMI.

### 131 *In vitro measurement with MCMG system*

132 This experiment had two aims, the first being to verify that it was still possible to  
133 detect micro-displacements induced by the radiation force using another TCD system.  
134 The second aim was to measure the micro-displacement directly by means of a new  
135 parameter, the position modulation index (PMI). It should be noted that the FMI does  
136 not directly provide the value of the micro-displacement but yields an indirect value  
137 through the Doppler frequency.

138 A diagram of the experimental setup is presented in Fig.4. A micropipette (2) connected  
139 to a gas flow (3) (*Eppendorf* air generator) was immersed in a water tank. Microbubbles  
140 were produced at the extremity of the micropipette and rose to the surface of the water  
141 within the tank. An ultrasound beam (1) crossed the trajectory of the microbubbles.  
142 Acoustic emission (2 MHz) and reception were performed with the MCMG board (4)  
143 connected to a computer. Bursts of 25 cycles were emitted with a PRF of 1 kHz. As the  
144 speed of the microbubbles was very slow in this *in vitro* experiment, we chose to reduce  
145 the commonly used PRF of 8kHz to 1kHz. The direct consequence of this reduction was  
146 a lower total displacement of the microembolus. The value of the radiation force was not  
147 affected since the radiation force is independent of the PRF.

148 The MCMG board proposed by Guidi et al. (2003) provided acquisition of signals at 128  
149 depths, the total depth covered being  $128c/2f_s$  where  $c$  was the acoustic wave velocity and

150  $f_s$  the fast time sampling rate programable in the range of 2–10 MHz. The signal detected  
 151 at each depth was analyzed with the Wigner-Ville transform of blocks of 256 points  
 152 obtained at 1 kHz PRF. The frequency resolution of our representation was therefore  
 153  $f = 1.953$  Hz. With these parameters and an insonification angle of 45 degrees, the  
 154 minimum velocity which could be measured was  $v = 1$  mm/s. The temporal resolution  
 155 was  $1/PRF = 1$  ms ( $PRF = 1$  kHz).

156 The MCMG board allowed direct display of the trajectory of an embolus crossing the  
 157 ultrasound beam. It could also be used to compute the time-frequency representation  
 158 from which the FMI could be evaluated. The magnitude of the displacement induced by  
 159 the radiation force could be evaluated directly by measuring of the Position Modulation  
 160 Index (PMI). In the case of a gaseous embolus, the Position Modulation Index (PMI)  
 161 defined by:

$$PMI(t) = \frac{dD(t)}{dt},$$

162 where  $D(t)$  is the instantaneous embolus position, could be determined from the time-  
 163 depth representation by applying a linear regression to the trajectory of the embolus.  
 164 Finally, in practice the evaluated  $\widehat{PMI}$  was obtained manually by means of a marker  
 165 cursor by measuring:

$$\widehat{PMI}(t) = \frac{\Delta_D(t)}{\Delta_t} = \frac{D(t - \Delta_t/2) - D(t + \Delta_t/2)}{\Delta_t}.$$

## 166 Results

167 In this section we present the results obtained from *in vitro* measurements (see Figs.8-  
 168 10). Three kinds of experiment were performed. The first involved measurements of the  
 169 pressure level in water with or without a human skull. The second involved measurements  
 170 of the frequency modulation index (FMI) with a classical TCD system, and the third  
 171 involved measurements of FMI and PMI with a MCMG system.

173 Figs.5 and 6 illustrate the refracted acoustic field in water with and without the skull.  
174 The experimental mapping of the pressure level was obtained by measuring the maximum  
175 pressure at each position. The maximum pressure level measured in water without the  
176 skull was about 110 kPa, while with the skull the level measured was about 46 kPa. The  
177 presence of the skull induced a decrease of 7.6 *dB* and a lateral deviation (perpendicular  
178 to beam axis) of the ultrasound beam since the maximum pressure level was not at 0 mm  
179 (obtained without skull) but at 1.5 mm. Note that this loss of 7.6 dB included diffraction  
180 effects, reflections and attenuation in water. Note also, as reported by Fry and Barger  
181 (1978), that slight defocusing and small reductions in beam occurred.

182 For example, for a fixed depth of 5.0 cm the spatial distribution of the pressure level at  
183 a fixed depth looked like a gaussian function (see Fig.2 in Deverson et al. (2000)). The  
184 5.0 *cm* axial distance was chosen on the basis that most TCD recordings for the MCA  
185 are acquired at approximately this depth.

186 In two previous studies (Souchon et al. (2005) and Biard (2005)) we measured the pressure  
187 levels with a classical TCD system and with a hydrophone near the temporal bone, with  
188 and without a skull. The presence of the skull immersed in water caused a decrease in  
189 pressure of about 10 dB at 5 cm away from the skull compared to the 7.6 dB reported  
190 above.

191 Even when the pressure level fell drastically (7.6 dB), it was still possible to detect bubble  
192 displacement visually, as shown in Fig.7. Fig.7 shows a bubble flow when the trajectory  
193 deviated in the presence or absence of a skull between the bubbles and the transducer.  
194 In both cases the bubble flow deviated sufficiently to be observed by the human eye.

196 Figs.1 and 8 show temporal and time-frequency representations of *in vivo* and *in vitro*  
 197 experiments, respectively. In these figures FMI were similar and of about 20 kHz/s.

198 Fig.1 shows a time frequency representation of a gaseous MES obtained from the middle  
 199 cerebral artery (depth 5 cm). The setting parameters of the TCD system were  $PRF = 8$   
 200 kHz,  $N = 20$  (number of cycles),  $f = 2$  MHz, and  $I_{spta} = 450$  mW/cm<sup>2</sup>. Fig.1 shows  
 201 temporal and time-frequency representations of an MES. Four phases can be seen in Fig.1  
 202 (bottom): i) constant speed of the bubble for a time position around 0.02 s, ii) increasing  
 203 speed between 0.02 s and 0.04 s, iii) decreasing speed between 0.04 s and 0.06 s, and iv)  
 204 constant speed beyond 0.06 s. The time-frequency embolic signature resembles a reversed  
 205 "V" shape. Note that valid explanations of the "V" or reversed "V" shape are reported in  
 206 Girault et al. (2010). The highest FMI was obtained in the decreasing phase where  $\widehat{FMI} =$   
 207 20 kHz/s. The reversed "V" shape, which seemed to be representative of a gaseous MES,  
 208 was similar to that reported by Smith et al. (1997) (for similar acquisition parameters)  
 209 for which the FMI evaluated in the decelerating phase was  $\Delta_f/\Delta_t = 800/0.020 = 40$   
 210 kHz/s. Finally, when the time-frequency signature was monotonic, the FMI was simply  
 211 evaluated by measuring the slope. When the time-frequency was no longer monotonic,  
 212 the signature was split into two monotonic regions for which only the maximum slope was  
 213 retained. Note also that for greater time-frequency resolution we used the Wigner-Ville  
 214 representation, as suggested in Smith et al. (1997). Note that the scalloping effect present  
 215 in Fig.8b is due to the inner interference of the Wigner-Ville transform.

216 Fig.8 shows a time frequency representation for two types of embolus (gaseous and fat par-  
 217 ticle). Two time-frequency representations and two temporal representations of Doppler  
 218 MES obtained from the experimental setup depicted in Fig.3 are presented in Fig.8 as  
 219 examples. The bottom image, obtained for a solid embolus, did not show any frequency  
 220 modulation (type I FM) whereas the top image, obtained for a gaseous embolus, demon-

221 strated detectable frequency modulation (type III FM). Note that the temporal Doppler  
222 signature presented in Fig.8, obtained for emboli circulating in water, was very similar  
223 to that reported by Smith et al. (1997) obtained for emboli circulating in blood.

224 Fig.9 shows the time-depth representation of four gaseous emboli (evaluated radius of  
225  $\approx 200\mu\text{m}$ ) circulating in water obtained with the MCMG system as described in the  
226 experimental setup in Fig.4. The setting parameters were  $f = 2$  MHz,  $PRF = 1$  kHz,  $N =$   
227 25, and  $Pa = 500\text{kPa}$ . The position modulation index was  $\Delta_D/\Delta_t = (180 - 80)/(3) \approx 30$   
228 mm/s. This implies that the mean elementary displacement between two consecutive  
229 emitting bursts is about  $30 \mu\text{m}$  ( $PMI = 30 \text{ mm/s} = 30 \mu\text{m/ms}$ ) for a  $PRF = 1$  kHz.  
230 With the depth resolution of  $(200 - 60)/128 \approx 1.1$  mm, microdisplacements of 30 microns  
231 were detected each  $30 \text{ ms}$ . In terms of the shape of the microbubble trajectory, it can be  
232 seen in Fig.9 that the microbubble deviates more and more as it crosses the US beam:  
233 the closer the bubble approaches to the focal point, the more the bubble accelerates,  
234 and the further the bubble moves away from the focal point the more it slows down. The  
235 inflection point of the microbubble trajectory corresponds to the point where the pressure  
236 is maximal. This is easily explained by supposing a unimodal US beam profile.

### 237 *Discrimination*

238 *FMI* assessed from the experimental setup of Fig.4 are shown in Fig.10 using a classical  
239 TCD system for all gaseous and solid emboli (with and without a skull). Each cross in  
240 Fig.10 represents one measurement. Several crosses are superimposed, and the mean value  
241 of these measurements is represented by a circle. Measurements were very close in each  
242 configuration, allowing easy discrimination of an embolus (bubble or fat).

- 243 • For a microbubble and a pressure level of 500 kPa (measured without skull), it can be  
244 seen that the FMI measured was around 10 kHz/s ( $4 < \widehat{FMI}(\text{kHz/s}) < 40$ ), whereas  
245 for a pressure level of 150 kPa (with skull), the FMI was around 0.8 kHz/s ( $0.2 <$

246  $\widehat{FMI}(\text{kHz/s}) < 2$ .

247 • Similarly, for a fat particle and a pressure level of 500 kPa (measured without skull),  
248 it can be seen that the FMI was around 0.2kHz/s ( $60 < \widehat{FMI}(\text{Hz/s}) < 600$ ), whereas  
249 for a pressure level of 150 kPa (with skull), the FMI measured was around 10 Hz/s.

250 *FMI* and *PMI* assessed from the experimental setup in Fig.3 using a MCMG TCD sys-  
251 tem for all gaseous and solid emboli are shown in Table 1. By using thresholds (12.5Hz/s  
252 for FMI and 7mm/s for PMI), it was possible to discriminate gaseous from fat particles  
253 on the basis of *FMI* and *PMI*.

## 254 Discussion and Summary

255 The discussion focused on three essential areas. The first related to examination of the  
256 impact of a skull on the modification of an US beam and discussion of the visible de-  
257 viation of microbubbles in the presence of a skull. The second area was the validation  
258 through *in vitro* experiments that the radiation force was the main physical phenomenon  
259 that explained the different type of FMS, focusing on qualitative findings concerning the  
260 similarities between our FMS results and those reported in the literature. The third area  
261 was the discrimination between gaseous and fat particles.

### 262 *Mapping of the US beam*

263 As reported by Fry and Barger (1978), and depicted here in Figs.5 and 6, the presence  
264 of the temporal bone distorted and attenuated the US beam.

265 In terms of beam distortion, the presence of a skull involves refraction of the ultrasonic  
266 beam, explained by the concave shape of the skull which induces mechanical focusing in  
267 some way. The maximum pressure was no longer  $x_1 = 0$  mm but  $x_1 = -1.5$  mm, proving  
268 that the beam was deflected (lateral deviation perpendicular to beam axis). Note that

269 the principal lobe was distorted in its lower part both in simulation and experimentally.  
270 We hypothesized that this was due to the presence of the extra thickness of the skull  
271 bone, this extra thickness inducing a higher propagation velocity of the acoustic waves.  
272 In clinical practice, it is not possible to know the exact beam modifications due to the  
273 temporal bone. However, to overcome this lack of information, experts naturally and  
274 spontaneously correct the beam deflection by modifying the beam-to-flow angle and the  
275 depth of the Doppler window. On the other hand, as it is not possible to correct the  
276 nonuniformity of the US beam, it is highly probable that the microbubble trajectory will  
277 remain nonuniform. However, the trajectory modification did not confirm such nonuni-  
278 formity in our study (see Fig.7) since the microbubble trajectory seemed monotonic, thus  
279 suggesting that the US beam was not appreciably distorted.

280 In terms of attenuation, the presence of a skull induced reductions of 7.6 dB and 10 dB in  
281 another study performed by Souchon et al. (2005). This variability of pressure reduction  
282 was evidently due to the intra variability of skulls. However, it should not be concluded  
283 that the presence of a skull would involve a decrease in the order of 10 dB each time.  
284 Indeed, clinicians are well aware that the temporal window is very patient-dependent:  
285 someone with a thin skull will have less pressure reduction whereas others with a thick  
286 temporal bone will have considerable pressure reduction.

287 Another point requiring discussion was the spectacular deviation of the microbubble flow  
288 by the US beam. This result was very interesting because the deviation of the microbubble  
289 was still visible even when there was a human skull between the probe and the insonified  
290 area. This shift of about 4 mm (with skull) led us to believe that it would still be  
291 detectable by the TCD system in the presence of both skull and brain, bearing in mind  
292 that microdisplacements in the order of a few hundred microns can be detected by a  
293 Doppler system (see Girault et al. (2010)).

295 The first finding to be discussed is the obvious resemblance between the FMS represented  
296 in Fig.1 and those reported by Smith et al. (1997), i.e. i) no modulation was present for  
297 type I FM, ii) gradual increase was observed over the whole duration of the microembolic  
298 Doppler signal for type II FM, and iii) rapid change was observed in a small percentage  
299 of the total durations of the Doppler microembolic signal for type III FM. Note that  
300 the acquisition parameters in our experiment were similar to those reported by Smith  
301 et al. (1997). The *in vivo* results obtained for gaseous microemboli were similar both  
302 qualitatively and quantitatively (i.e. in shape and in terms of FMI values) to those of  
303 "type III". The same applied for type I FM, i.e. for formed elements. This confirmed that  
304 type III FM found in the literature were also found in our *in vivo* study. Though the  
305 acquisition parameters were different in our *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies, the FMS were  
306 similar qualitatively, suggesting that the underlying physical phenomenon was probably  
307 the same.

308 We believe that it is possible to obtain type II FM for other experimental settings and  
309 for other microemboli (other materials) and that it is still possible to observe type II FM  
310 for larger microemboli. The microembolus must not be too large because there is a risk  
311 that it will be interpreted as a hazard to the patient.

### 312 *Discrimination*

313 The comments below on discrimination first address differentiation of microbubbles and  
314 microparticles of fat. We then discuss the results demonstrated in Figure 10 and in Table  
315 1.

316 This experimental study showed that the temporal bone influences the US beam in a  
317 non-negligible manner. However, we also showed that the microdisplacements (few tens



318 of microns) induced by the radiation force were sufficient to be detected by a TCD system.  
319 Moreover this study confirmed experimentally that type I FMS are due to solid particles  
320 whereas type III FMS are exclusively due to gaseous microemboli. Finally, these *in vitro*  
321 studies confirmed that both *FMI* and *PMI* are suitable tools to differentiate gaseous  
322 from solid emboli, and we suggest that the discrimination techniques based on FMI and  
323 PMI measurement remain off-line techniques.

324 However, this research is the first step towards a clinical application, and complementary  
325 studies must be performed to explore and understand what really happens for large  
326 microemboli.

### 327 **Acknowledgements**

328 This study was supported by the European Union (UMEDS Project) and by the French  
329 Government (CASC Project). I wish to thank P. Tortoli for valuable discussions.

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Table 1

Embolus differentiation based on FMI and PMI (MCMG system and experimental setup illustrated in Fig.3) for bubbles  $R_0 \approx 100\mu\text{m}$  and fat particles  $100 < R_0(\mu\text{m}) < 300$  immersed in water.  $I_{spta} = 450 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ ,  $PRF = 1 \text{ kHz}$ ,  $N = 25$ ,  $f = 2 \text{ MHz}$ .

type/parameter	FMI (Hz/s)	PMI (mm/s)
fat	20	6
gas	5	8

435 9 Time-depth representation of four gaseous emboli (evaluated radius of  
436  $\approx 200 \mu \text{ m}$ ) circulating in water obtained with the MCMG system as  
437 described in the experimental setup in Fig. 4).  $f = 2\text{MHz}$ ,  $PRF = 1\text{kHz}$ ,  
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445 measurements.  $I_{spta} = 450 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ ,  $N = 20$ ,  $PRF = 8 \text{ kHz}$ . 31

446

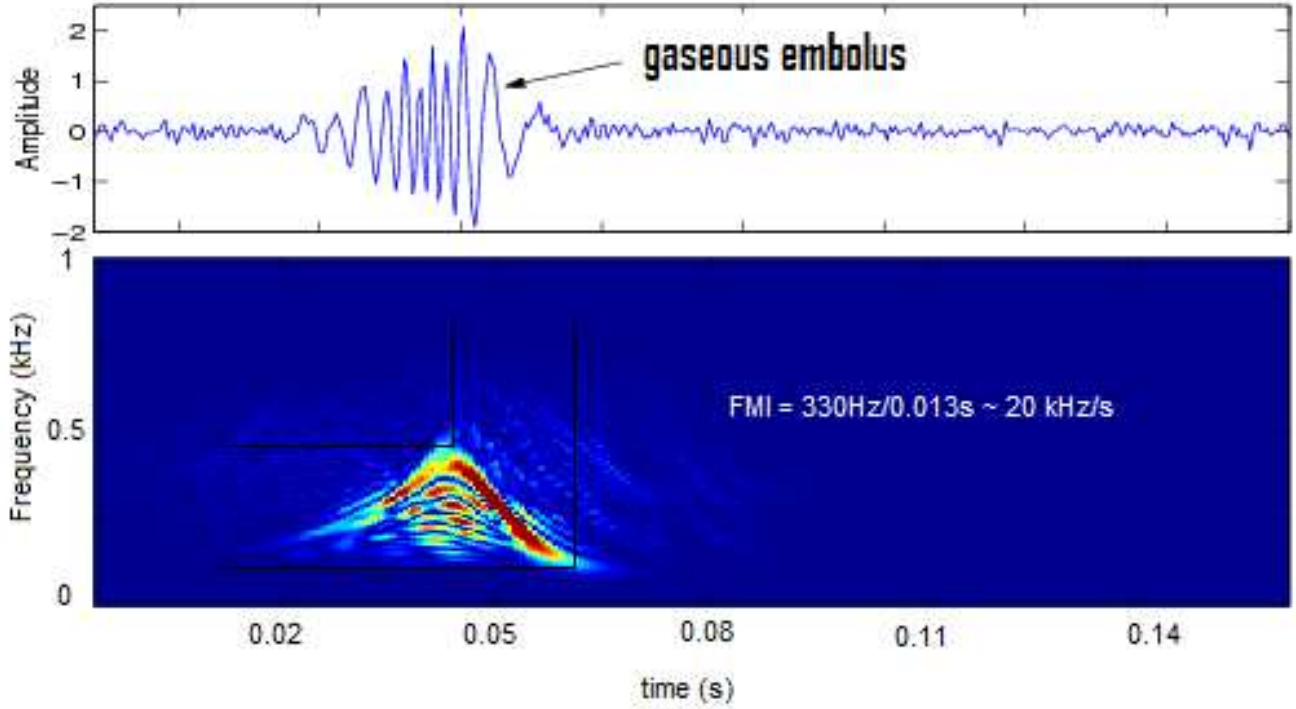


Fig. 1. *In vivo* experiment (embedding medium: blood). Gaseous microembolic signature obtained from the middle cerebral artery (depth 50mm). Setting parameters:  $PRF = 2.7$  kHz,  $N = 20$  (number of cycles),  $f_0 = 2MHz$ ,  $I_{spta} = 450$  mW/cm<sup>2</sup>. a) Temporal representation of a microembolic signal. b) Time frequency representation of the Doppler signal from which the FMI evaluated in the decelerating phase is  $\Delta_f/\Delta_t = 330/0.013 = 25kHz/s$ . The reversed "V" shape, which seems to be representative of a gaseous embolic signature, is similar to that reported by Smith et al. (1997) for which the FMI evaluated in the decelerating phase was  $\Delta_f/\Delta_t = 800/0.020 = 40kHz/s$ .



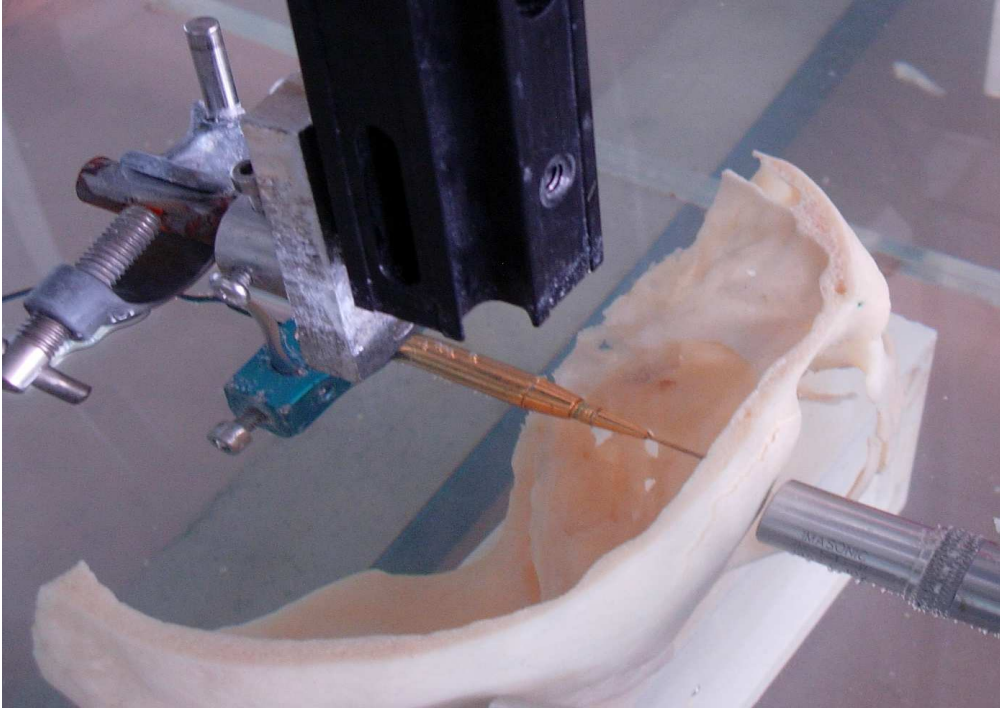


Fig. 2. Photograph of the experimental setup required to map the acoustic field.

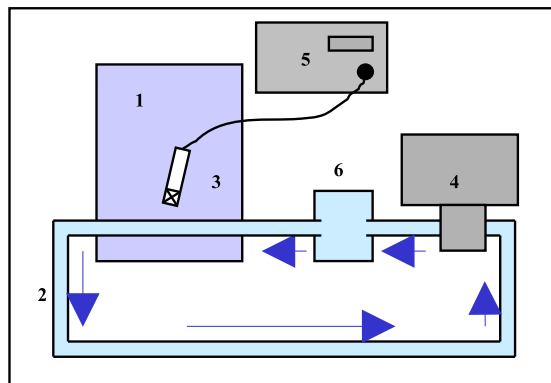


Fig. 3. Diagram of experimental setup. A gear pump (4) circulates degassed water in a tygon tube (2). This tube crosses a water tank (1) in which a transcranial Doppler transducer (3) is immersed. Circulating emboli are thus detected by the pulsed wave (PW) Doppler system (5)(usual TCD and MCMG systems).

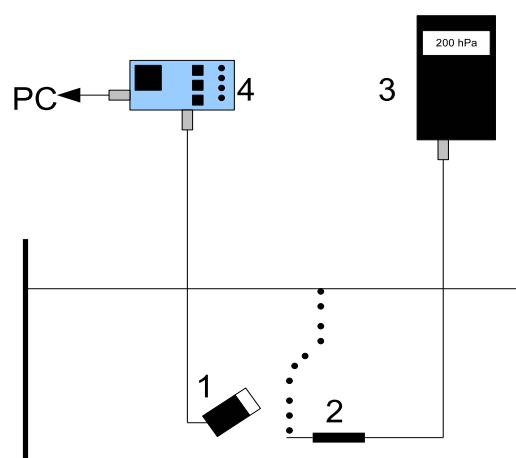


Fig. 4. Diagram of experimental setup. A micropipette (2) connected to a gas flow (3) (*Eppendorf* air generator) was immersed in a water tank. Bubbles were produced at the extremity of the micropipette and rose to the water surface within the tank. An ultrasound beam (1) crossed the trajectory of the bubbles. Acoustic emission and reception were performed by the MCMG system (4) connected to a computer.

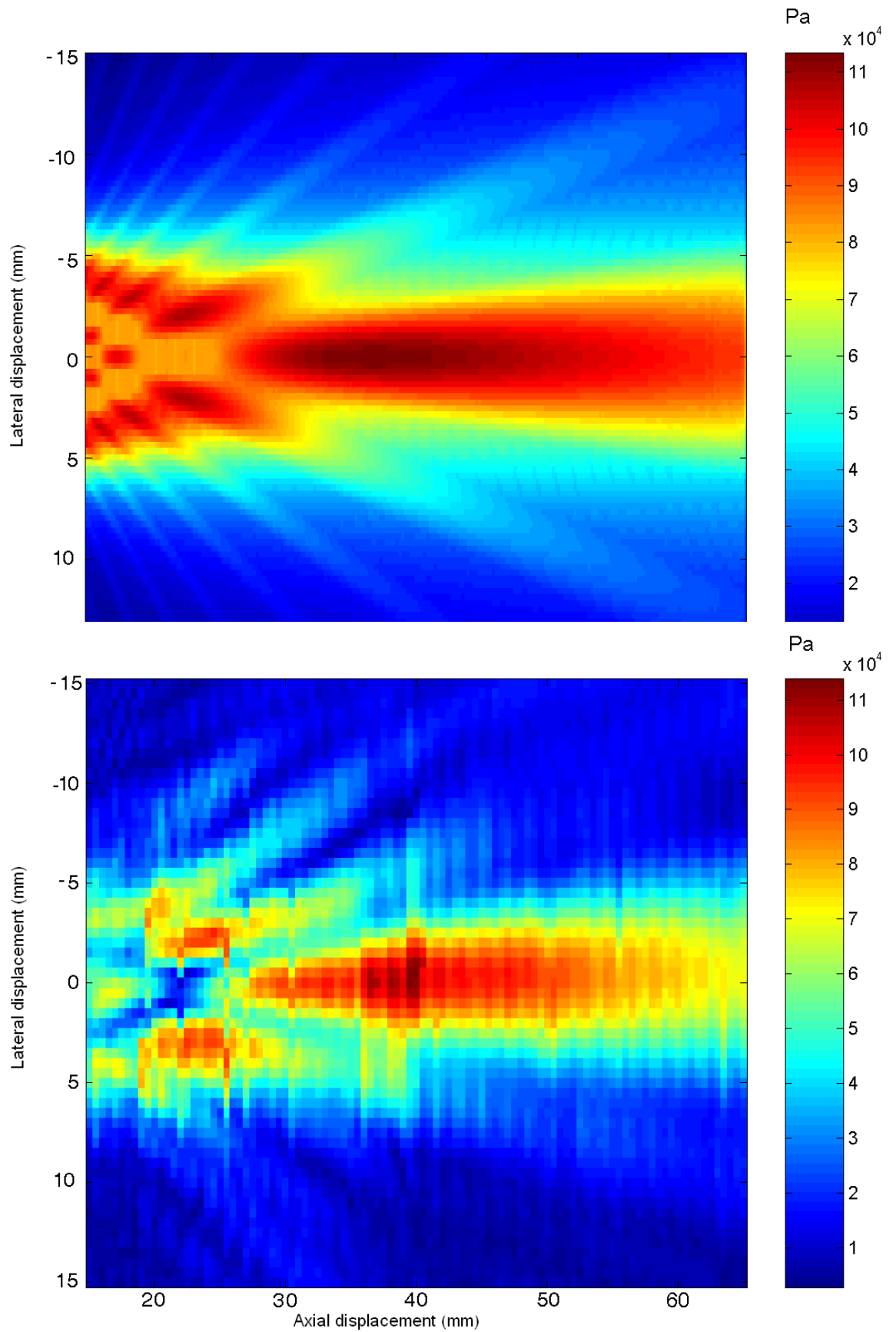


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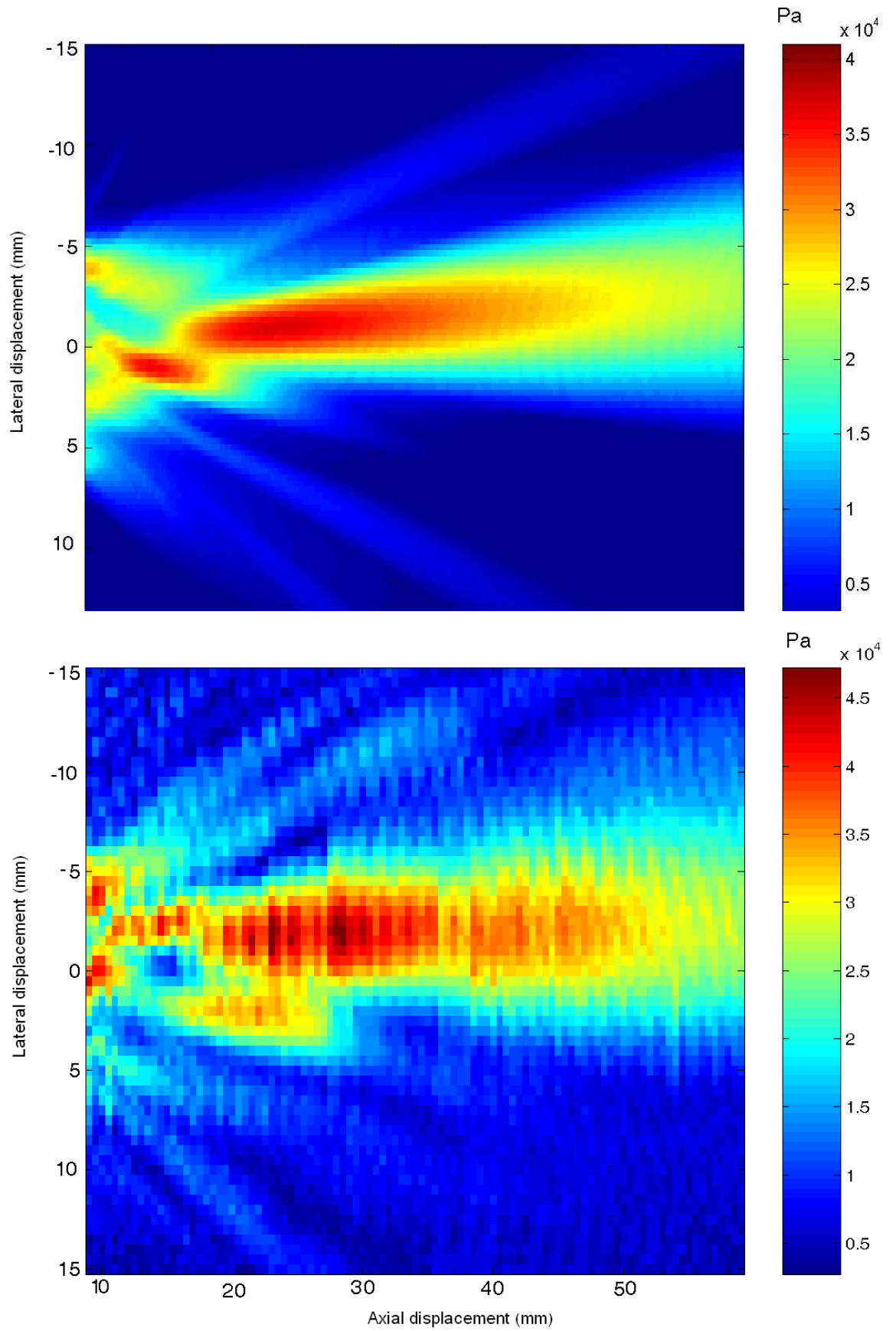


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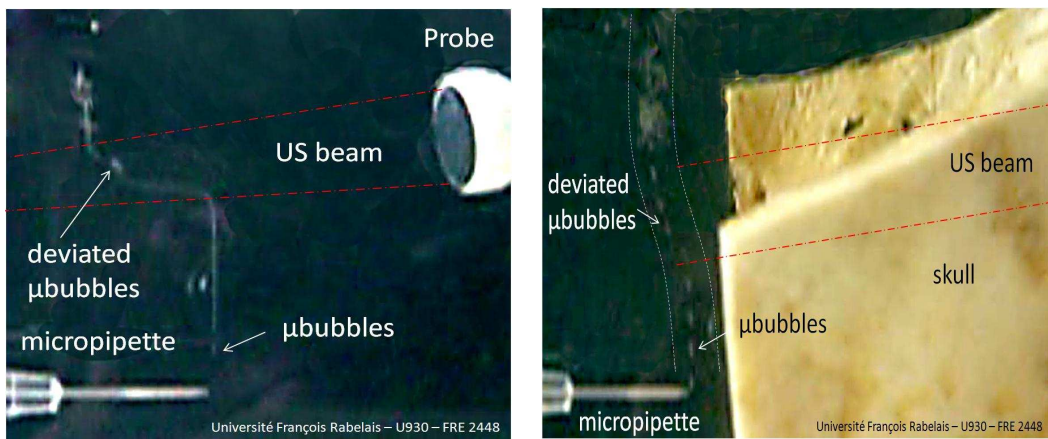


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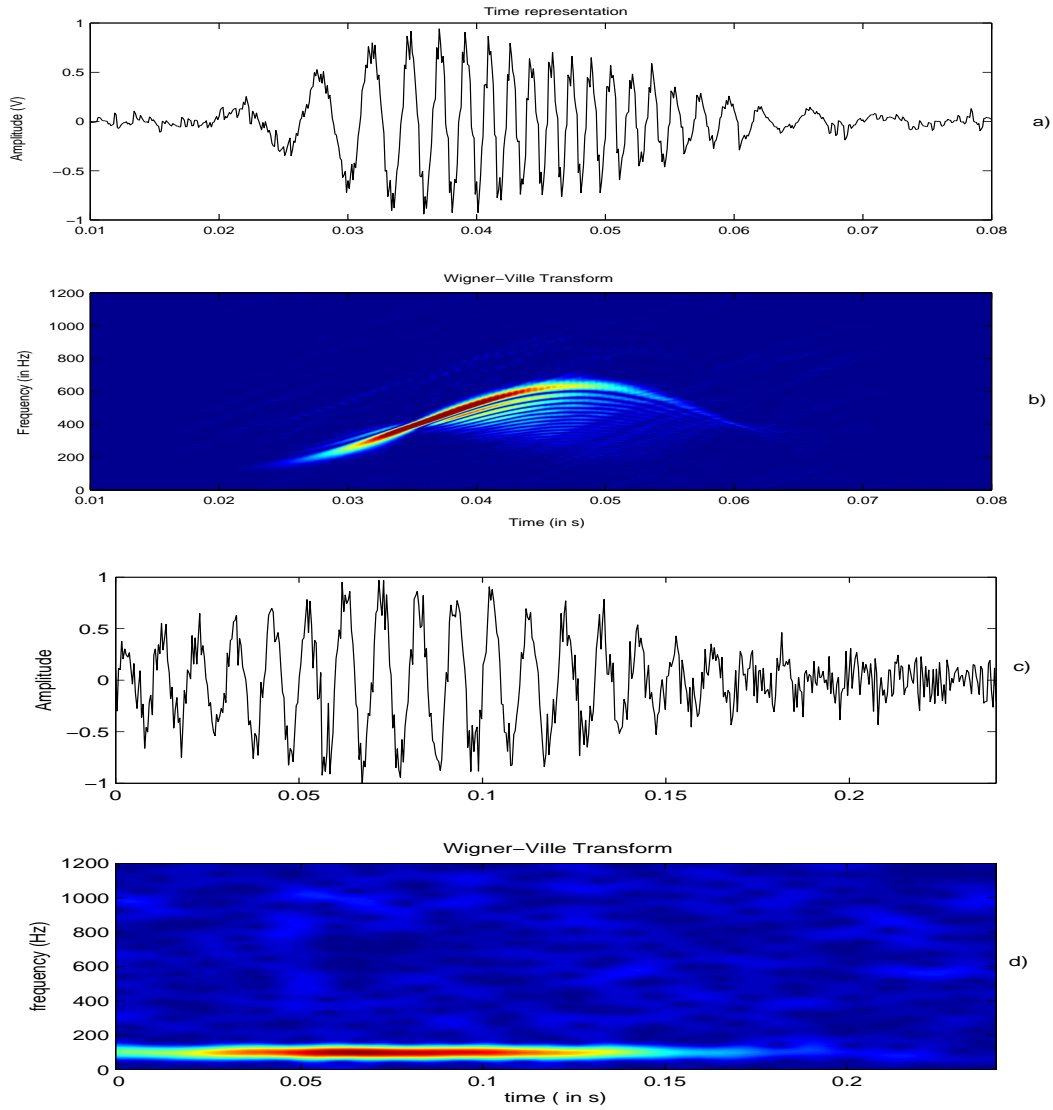


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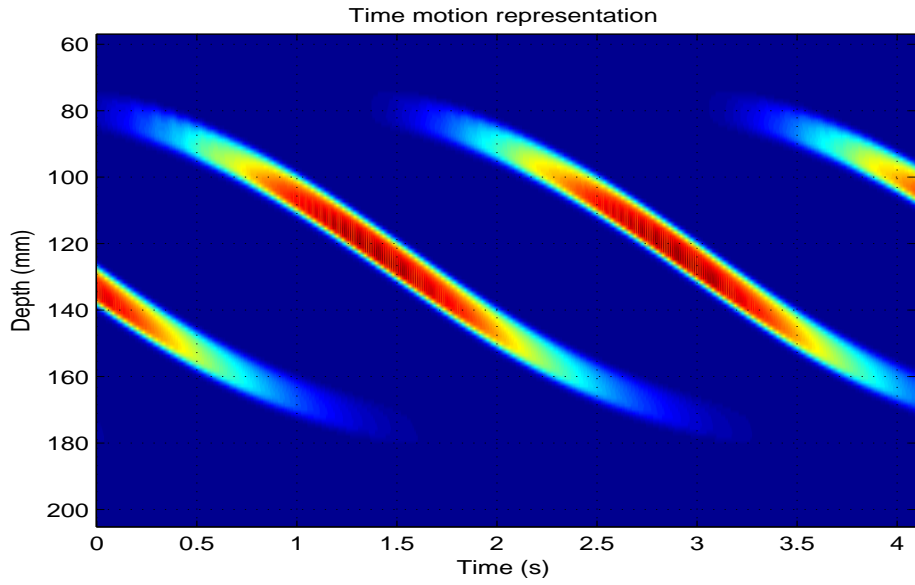


Fig. 9. Time-depth representation of four gaseous emboli (evaluated radius of  $\approx 200 \mu\text{ m}$ ) circulating in water obtained with the MCMG system as described in the experimental setup in Fig. 4).  $f = 2\text{MHz}$ ,  $PRF = 1\text{kHz}$ ,  $N = 25$ ,  $Pa = 500\text{kPa}$ .  $\Delta_D/\Delta_t = (180 - 80)/(3) \approx 30$  mm/s. Note that the thickness of the vertical signature corresponds to  $ct/2 = cN/f/2 = 1540\text{m/s} \times 25 / 2\text{MHz} / 2 \approx 10$  mm.

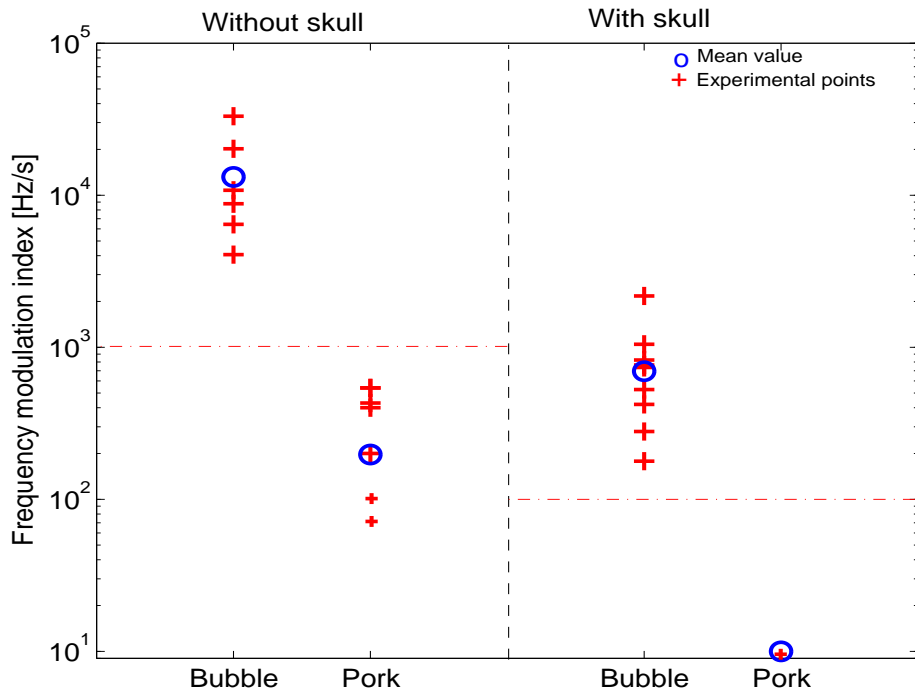


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