

Robotic Ultrasound Scanning with Real-Time Image-based Force Adjustment: Quick Response for Enabling Physical Distancing During the COVID-19 Pandemic

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2 ABSTRACT

3 During an ultrasound (US) scan, the sonographer is in close contact with the patient, which
4 puts them at risk of COVID-19 transmission. In this paper, we propose a robot-assisted system
5 that automatically scans tissue, increasing sonographer/patient distance and decreasing contact
6 duration between them. This method is developed as a quick response to the COVID-19 pandemic.
7 It considers the preferences of the sonographers in terms of how US scanning is done and can
8 be trained quickly for different applications. Our proposed system automatically scans the tissue
9 using a dexterous robot arm that holds US probe. The system assesses the quality of the acquired
10 US images in real-time. This US image feedback will be used to automatically adjust the US
11 probe contact force based on the quality of the image frame. The quality assessment algorithm is
12 based on three US image features: correlation, compression and noise characteristics. These
13 US image features are input to the SVM classifier, and the robot arm will adjust the US scanning
14 force based on the SVM output. The proposed system enables the sonographer to maintain a
15 distance from the patient because the sonographer does not have to be holding the probe and
16 pressing against the patient's body for any prolonged time. The SVM was trained using bovine
17 and porcine biological tissue, the system was then tested experimentally on plastisol phantom
18 tissue. The result of the experiments shows us that our proposed quality assessment algorithm
19 successfully maintains US image quality and is fast enough for use in a robotic control loop.

20 **Keywords:** Medical Image Quality Assessment, Medical Robotic, Ultrasound Scanning, Artificial Intelligence, Robotics for COVID-19

1 INTRODUCTION

21 Ultrasound (US) image acquisition is a popular medical imaging method because it does not involve
22 radiation (like x-ray or CT do), is generally regarded as safe, has a low cost compared to other medical

23 imaging methods and is widely available. For a healthcare system that is struggling with COVID-19, US
24 scanning is a way for COVID-19 diagnosis (McDermott et al., 2020; Buda et al., 2020), especially in
25 developing countries where access to the lab kit is very limited. But there are some factors regarding the
26 US scanning procedure during COVID-19 pandemic that need to be addressed. The first factor is the close
27 contact between sonographers and patients; it is very important to minimize contact between sonographers
28 and patients during the COVID-19 pandemic. It has been proven that close person/person contact is the
29 main way for the transmission of the virus (Zu et al., 2020; Jarvis et al., 2020; Jin et al., 2020; Morawska
30 and Milton, 2020). The second factor is related to COVID-19 patients with underlying conditions such as
31 heart conditions. These patients are at heightened risk, and some of these underlying conditions need US
32 imaging, like echocardiography. The third factor is that US imaging can also be quite time-consuming.
33 Most US scans last between 15 to 45 minutes (NHL, 2018). For example, echocardiography takes almost
34 20 minutes (Ebadollahi et al., 2001). Because of this, we need a system that helps a sonographer to scan
35 tissue and decreases the contact duration (i.e, allows for greater distancing) between sonographers and
36 patients. This paper proposes a quick, low-cost, and deployable solution for the problem mentioned above
37 as a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic. Robots can be very useful for solving this problem. The
38 part of the scanning that requires experience and knowledge of the sonographer can be done the normal
39 way, and the parts that put the sonographer at an increased risk of contacting the virus can be delegated to
40 the robotic system just like the way x-ray systems work. Using robots during the COVID-19 pandemic
41 can significantly decrease the risk of virus transmission (Tavakoli et al., 2020) particularly because the
42 proposed robotic system can be sanitized between each US scanning procedure.

43 The assessment of image quality is essential in developing robotic US scanning. Image quality assessment
44 has been a challenging topic in medical image processing, and different methods have been proposed
45 in the literature. There are three different categories of image quality assessment algorithm based on
46 the availability of reference images or other supplementary information. The first category is called full-
47 reference image quality assessment. A reference image (high-quality image) is available in this category,
48 and the quality assessment metric is implemented by comparing a given image to the reference image.
49 The second category is called semi-reference image quality assessment, in which the algorithm has access
50 only to some information about the reference image, such as important features in the image. For instance,
51 (Chen et al., 2020) uses the visual features (statistical features from contourlet transform) that are critical
52 for both human perception and object recognition for sonar image quality assessment, but the reference
53 image is not available. Semi-reference methods are more challenging than full-reference algorithms, and
54 how to utilize the additional information is an important question for these algorithms. The final category is
55 called no-reference image quality assessment, in which the algorithm does not have access to the reference
56 image or any additional information related to it. This category is the most challenging but is very important
57 and useful for medical image quality assessment (Chow and Paramesran, 2016). Being as typically we
58 do not have access to quality reference images, the crucial part of no-reference image quality assessment
59 is developing the quality metrics. Quality metrics should be based on features that are present in either
60 high-quality or low-quality images. The extracted features need to be combined to build a quality metric
61 that creates an image quality score.

62 The problem with US images processing is the inherent noise in the images, making it difficult for a
63 physician to interpret them. This makes US image quality assessment a very complicated task. In this
64 paper, we propose a method for assessing the US image's quality when a robotic arm is holding the US
65 probe. We will incorporate the algorithm in the robot control loop for automatic scanning of tissue. An
66 admittance-based controller will be used for the robot and automatically control the probe's scanning
67 force applied to the tissue. The admittance controller produces a desired position using a predefined

68 relationship between the position and measured force (Fong and Tavakoli, 2018; Zeng and Hemami, 1997).
 69 The US scanning assistant is shown in Figure 1. The sonographer uses a handle to position the robot by
 70 incorporating a robot's built-in admittance control, and the robot adjusts the US scanning force applied to
 71 the tissue by analyzing the quality of the acquired image. This system reduces contact time and mitigates
 72 the risk of virus transmission between the sonographer and the patient. Being as the system scans the tissue
 73 based on image quality assessment feedback, the sonographer does not need to be next to the patient for
 74 the whole duration of the scanning.

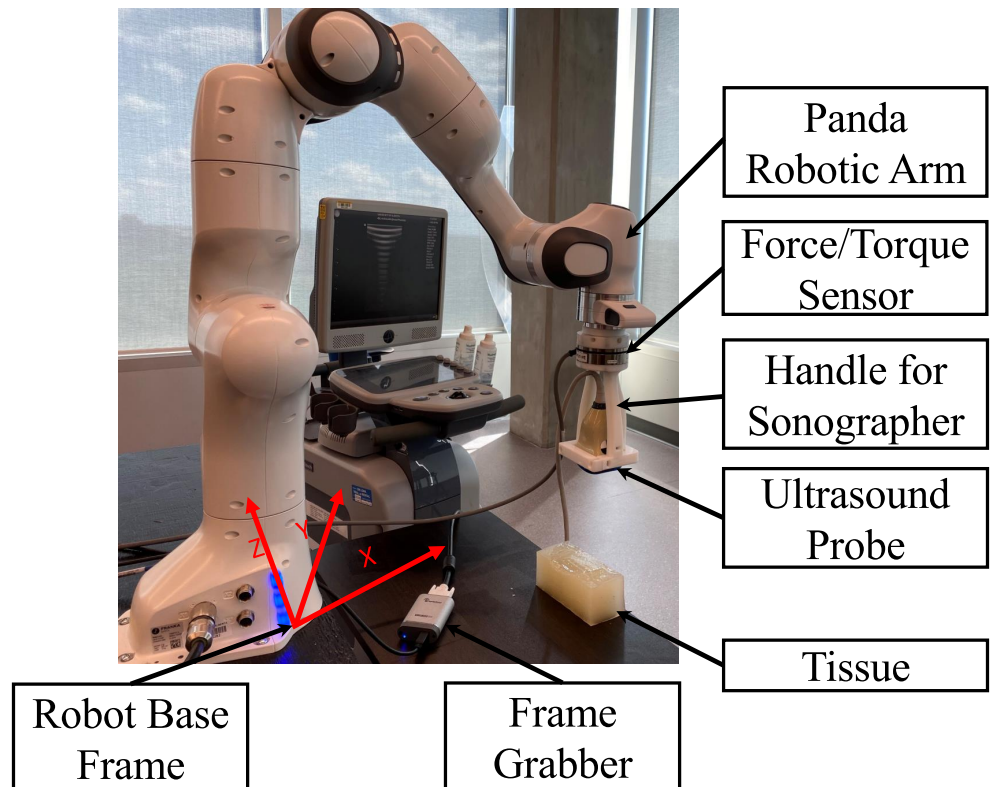


Figure 1. US scanning assistant including Panda robot arm, US probe, handle for sonographer, tissue phantom, frame grabber, and robot base frame

75 The outline of the paper is as follows. In Section 2, we will give a brief review of previous medical image
 76 quality assessment algorithms, robot-assisted sonography and robotic admittance control applications.
 77 We will address the contributions of this paper in Section 2.4. We develop our proposed image quality
 78 assessment algorithm in Section 3 by giving details of the algorithm and discussing the specific image
 79 features it uses. In Section 4, we will give the details of the robotic admittance controller used in the system
 80 to adjust the US scanning force applied to the tissue. The experimental setup and the experimental results
 81 are presented in Section 5. We will conclude our method and its advantages in Section 6.

2 PRIOR WORK

82 In this section, we will talk about previous work that has been done in medical image quality assessment,
 83 robot-assisted sonography, and robotic admittance control. We will talk about our contribution and novelty
 84 in the last paragraph of this section.

85 2.1 Medical Image Quality Assessment

86 Medical image quality assessment is a broad topic across multiple imaging modalities, with each imaging
87 modality having its features and characteristics that need to be considered. A review of different medical
88 image quality assessment algorithms and their corresponding imaging modalities can be found in (Chow
89 and Paramesran, 2016). The most crucial problem in medical image quality assessment is the unavailability
90 of reference data, and most methods are based on no-reference image quality assessment algorithms.
91 We can classify no-reference medical image quality assessment methods into model-based and image-
92 based methods. The algorithm is based on modelling both images and noise in a model-based image
93 quality assessment algorithm, such as the method proposed in (Zemp et al., 2003). On the other hand, in
94 image-based quality assessment algorithms, metrics are present to assess the image's quality.

95 In US image quality assessment, different methods have been proposed for modelling image and noise.
96 In (Zemp et al., 2003), the author uses Noise-Equivalent Quanta (NEQ) that models noise based on US
97 machine parameters and tissue physical property information; an improved version of the signal-to-noise
98 ratio. Structural Similarity Index Measure (SSIM) is a very famous image quality assessment metric and
99 has been used in many different applications. The method proposed in (Renieblas et al., 2017) uses SSIM
100 as the main quality assessment criteria and incorporates specific image features like preserved edges,
101 structural similarity, and textures in the image.

102 Image-based quality assessment methods propose criteria that formalize critical features for quality
103 assessment. The method proposed in (Hemmsen et al., 2010) uses data management and data acquisition
104 techniques to formalize the quality assessment metrics for US images. The authors of (Abdel-Hamid et al.,
105 2016) use five important features of transformed images for building a quality assessment metric. These
106 five features are sharpness, illumination, homogeneity, field definition, and content. The method proposed
107 in (Abdel-Hamid et al., 2016) uses the wavelet transform and extracts the five image features from the
108 transformed image, and combining them to create a formula for image quality assessment of human retina
109 images.

110 As one modality of medical imaging, US poses many challenges in terms of image quality assessment.
111 These challenges come primarily from the noisy nature of the US images. US image's quality is usually
112 defined as an ability to see some tissue features or organs in the image. The method proposed in (Zhang
113 et al., 2017) developed a method of segmenting the fetus in an US image, using a texton method on the
114 image. The texton method performs segmentation and feature extraction, and a random forest classifier
115 assesses the quality of the image based on the extracted features. (Schwaab et al., 2016) proposes the
116 extraction of three features from breast US images and uses a random forest for classification of those.
117 These features are the nipple position, the shadow caused by the nipple, and the breast contours' shape.
118 (Schinaia et al., 2017) used a method similar to (Schwaab et al., 2016), but incorporated 14 features and a
119 correlation matrix for quality assessment. Deep Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) have also proven
120 to perform well for complicated tasks like this. (Wu et al., 2017) uses two deep convolutional neural
121 networks called C-CNN and L-CNN for quality assessment. L-CNN finds an ROI (Region Of Interest)
122 in the image, and C-CNN evaluates the quality of the image based on the extracted ROI. The output of
123 C-CNN is the binary label segmentation of the US image. The method proposed in (Chatelain et al., 2015)
124 and (Welleweerd et al., 2020) use confidence map, which was proposed in (Karamalis et al., 2012) for
125 orienting and moving the US probe during scanning of the tissue. Confidence map methods are based on
126 US signal propagation model inside of the tissue and the outcome is a map that can be used for feature
127 extraction. The extracted features are the inputs to the controller and the output is the control signals for
128 controlling the probe's orientation and position.

129 **2.2 Robot-assisted Sonography**

130 Robots can be very helpful to a sonographer during US scanning. Many methods have been proposed to
131 facilitate the process of sonography using robots. (Najafi and Sepehri, 2011) developed a robotic wrist to
132 perform US imaging on a patient at remote sites. This system has four degrees of freedom and has been
133 used for US imaging of the liver and kidney. The device developed in (AbbasiMoshaii and Najafi, 2019)
134 is placed on the patient's body by an operator, and US expert controls the device's motion to obtain US
135 image. The paper focuses on the robotic mechanism that performs US imaging. The mechanism keeps
136 the US probe in contact with the patient's body and facilitates the sonographer's US scanning procedure.
137 (Fang et al., 2017) proposes a cooperatively robotic US system to reduce the force sonographers apply.
138 This system consists of a six-axis robotic arm that holds and actuates the US probe. A dual force sensor
139 setup enables cooperative control and adaptive force assistance using admittance force control. (Antico
140 et al., 2019) prepared a good review of different methods proposed in robot-assisted US intervention, and
141 (Moshaii and Najafi, 2014) is a good review of the mechanical details of robot-assisted US scanning.

142 tele-sonography is developed for scanning the tissue using remote robot. (Sharifi et al., 2017) developed
143 an impedance-controlled teleoperation system for robot-assisted tele-echography of moving organs such
144 as heart, chest, and breast compensating for their natural motions. This system proposes two impedance
145 models for master and slave robots. The slave robot follows the master robot's trajectory but complies with
146 the oscillatory interaction force of moving organs, and the sonographer receives feedback from the slave
147 robot. (Sartori et al., 2019) proposes a solution for energy consumption in tele-echography on the master
148 site based on properly scaling the energy exchanged between the master and the slave site. There are many
149 challenges in designing tele-sonography system. The most important one is the high cost of the system and
150 haptic feedback required in the master site. Using haptic feedback causes time delay in the system that may
151 result discrepancy between sonographer and US probe during scanning. Our proposed method can be used
152 as a local controller in the slave site to overcome this problem.

153 **2.3 Robot Admittance Control**

154 Admittance controller uses a predefined relationship between force and position. Authors in (Carriere
155 et al., 2019) use admittance control to ensure compliance in a co-manipulated US scanning system
156 controlling the force applied to the tissue and reducing exerted force from the sonographer. The method
157 proposed in (Piwowarczyk et al., 2020) uses an admittance controller to scale the force applied by the
158 user on the robot in relation to force applied to the environment. The stability of admittance-controlled
159 robots and their ability to cope with different environmental forces have been investigated in (Ferraguti
160 et al., 2019). Admittance control was used in (Li et al., 2018) for an exoskeleton robot to create a reference
161 trajectory based on measured force. (Dimeas and Aspragathos, 2016) analyzes the stability of admittance
162 control by detecting unstable behaviours and stabilizing the robot using an adaptive online method to
163 tune the admittance control gains. The stabilization of the robot is based on monitoring high-frequency
164 oscillations in the force signals. This idea was also used in (Landi et al., 2017) for stabilizing the admittance
165 control when interacting with humans. The idea of incorporating neural networks and admittance control for
166 robot trajectory tracking is developed in (Yang et al., 2018), in which the trajectory tracking is guaranteed
167 by using a neural network while admittance control regulates torques to follow the desired trajectory.
168 Authors in (Keemink et al., 2018) prepared a very good review of different applications of admittance
169 control in robotics.

170 **2.4 Contributions of this Paper**

171 As we mentioned in Section 2.3, different methods and applications have been proposed for medical
172 image quality assessment and robotic admittance control but all of them do not consider image feedback in

173 admittance controllers. The idea of combining image feedback and admittance controller in the US scanning
174 procedure is the first novelty of this paper. We also allow for collaboration between humans and the robot to
175 keep the sonographer in the loop during the US scanning procedure. The proposed method uses a real-time
176 image quality assessment algorithm to inform the robotic system. The real-time nature of the proposed
177 image quality assessment algorithm makes it suitable for the clinician in the loop robot-assisted medical
178 applications. The combination of admittance control and online image quality assessment algorithm in the
179 robotic arm ensures social distancing during the COVID-19 pandemic and has not been explored before in
180 the literature.

181 The second novelty of this paper is to propose a very quick, low-cost, and deployable solution for the
182 COVID-19 pandemic that can be trained based on the preferences of the sonographers in terms of how US
183 scanning is done in different applications. The training phase requires nothing more than the commodity
184 hardware (e.g. a personal computer). This is a very important advantage of the proposed system over the
185 method mentioned in Section 2.1. The proposed method has the ability to consider the preferences of
186 the sonographers for different applications by incorporating it in the training phase. The sonographer can
187 manually classify the training set and the system will tune the parameters for the sonographer's preferences.
188 To the best of our knowledge, this ability has not been investigated in the previous methods.

189 The third novelty of the proposed method is the ability to be used in unilateral tele-sonography as a
190 controller on the patient side. In a tele-sonography modality, the sonographer moves the robot to the desired
191 position using a master robot. The sonographer needs to feel the contact force between the tissue and the
192 probe during scanning. The system should have a haptic interface on the master site to enable this feature
193 for the sonographer. Using a haptic interface could cause a time delay in the system during scanning as
194 discussed in (Najafi and Sepehri, 2011; Sharifi et al., 2017; Moshaii and Najafi, 2014; AbbasiMoshaii and
195 Najafi, 2019). The low-cost and better solution is using a unilateral tele-sonography system with a local
196 controller on the patient site that adjusts the force applied to the tissue during scanning based on acquired
197 image's quality. Our proposed method can be incorporated as a local controller in the slave site to adjust
198 the force applied to the tissue based on the preferences of the sonographers. This feature will remove the
199 essence of having haptic feedback in the tele-sonography system and will decrease the cost of the system.

3 IMAGE QUALITY ASSESSMENT ALGORITHM

200 As previously mentioned, US images are usually very noisy, and therefore, the tissue is not very clear
201 in the images. This problem makes the automated assessment of US images complicated. A US image
202 quality assessment algorithm should distinguish between different features in an image and decide on
203 image quality based on the acquired features. For our proposed image quality assessment method, we
204 will use a Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier, which is compatible with small training sets and has
205 proven to have a good ability to solve complicated problems, especially in medical applications.

206 3.1 Image Quality Assessment Metrics

207 We propose three distinct features for estimating the quality of the image. The first feature is based on the
208 contact between the probe and the tissue. The second feature computes the level of compression caused
209 by the US scanning force applied to the tissue. The third feature is an estimation of the noise level in the
210 image. The noise level is estimated based on the statistical features of the noise in the US image. We will
211 discuss each of the features in-depth in the following sub-sections.

212 3.1.1 Correlation

213 We use image correlation for modelling the contact between the tissue and probe. When there is no
214 contact (or proper contact) between the probe and tissue, the US image will only consist of patterns of

215 arcs; see Figure 2a. When we have sufficient contact, however, actual tissue will be visible in the image.
 216 In Figure 2a, the image captured by the US machine was defined as no-contact image I_{nc} in the sense
 217 that probe is not contacting the tissue when the image is captured. We define the contact feature as the
 218 correlation of no-contact image I_{nc} with an image captured by the US machine I_k in every time step k
 219 of the experiment. The contact feature c_k gives us a good estimation of the sufficiency of contact and
 220 $c_k \in [0, 1]$. The mathematical details of how the correlation between the images is calculated and how
 221 contact between the probe and the tissue is defined are as follows:

$$\text{corr}(I_k, I_{nc}) = \frac{\sum_{p_x=1}^M \sum_{p_y=1}^N (I_k(p_x, p_y) - \bar{I}_k)(I_{nc}(p_x, p_y) - \bar{I}_{nc})}{\sqrt{(\sum_{p_x=1}^M \sum_{p_y=1}^N (I_k(p_x, p_y) - \bar{I}_k)^2)(\sum_{p_x=1}^M \sum_{p_y=1}^N (I_{nc}(p_x, p_y) - \bar{I}_{nc})^2)}} \quad (1)$$

$$c_k = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \text{corr}(I_k, I_{nc}) \geq t_{corr} \\ 0, & \text{if } \text{corr}(I_k, I_{nc}) < t_{corr} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

222 Here, the contact feature c_k is the value of the correlation between the two images. (p_x, p_y) is the location
 223 of pixels in the image frame, and M and N are the height and width of input images, respectively. \bar{I}_k and
 224 \bar{I}_{nc} are the average of the pixels' intensities in the acquired image and the image with no contact with the
 225 tissue, respectively, and t_{corr} is the threshold for determining the contact level. Figure 2 shows two images,
 226 in which Figure 2a was captured when there is not enough contact between the tissue and the probe, and
 227 Figure 2b was conducted with sufficient contact. The x-y axis in the image frame is shown in Figure 2a and
 228 it is the same for all images in this paper.

229 3.1.2 Compression

230 The level of compression is a very important feature in US image acquisition. When the robot applies
 231 force to the tissue, it causes deformation. More force causes greater distortion/deformation. This causes
 232 pain for the patient, and may lead to wrong clinical diagnosis (Fang et al., 2017). The proposed compression
 233 feature is the difference between the maximum and minimum index of the pixels brighter than the threshold
 234 t_{comp} , relative to the image's size in the vertical direction. The mathematical expression for calculating the
 235 image compression feature is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \max(p_y), \text{ where } I_k(p_y, \forall p_x \in I_k) \geq t_{comp} \\ L &= \min(p_y), \text{ where } I_k(p_y, \forall p_x \in I_k) \geq t_{comp} \\ f_c &= \frac{U - L}{M} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

236 In (3), U and L are the maximum and minimum location of the pixels having intensity higher than t_{comp} .
 237 We define f_c as the compression feature in (3). M is the height of the image along the y direction. Figure
 238 3 shows two images with different levels of compression. Figure 3a is the US image with a high level
 239 of compression, and Figure 3b is the US image with a low level of compression. We have also shown a
 240 variation of f_c with respect to measured force in the z direction of the force sensor frame $F_{Z|k}$ (this is
 241 aligned with the y direction in image frame) in Figure 4.

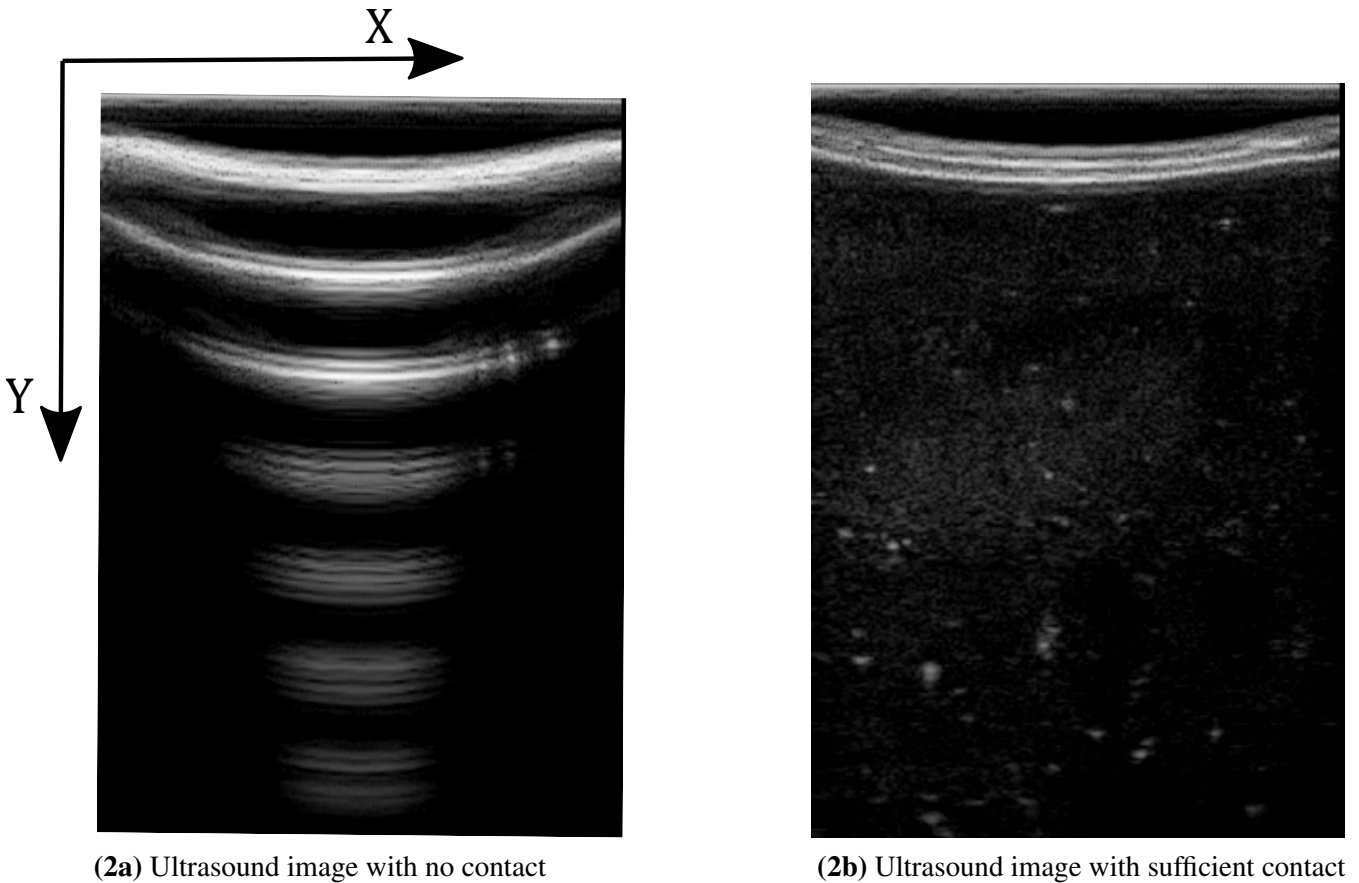


Figure 2. Ultrasound images with and without contact between tissue and probe

242 3.1.3 Noise

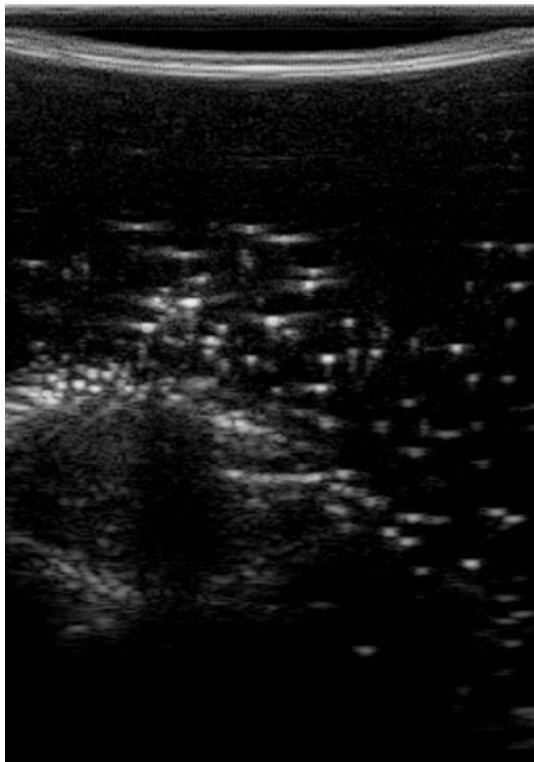
243 As we mentioned earlier, the US image is very noisy. The noise comes from the manner in which US
 244 captures an image. This noise feature is also very important for the quality assessment of US images. As
 245 a first step, we use a Wiener filter for removing speckle noise from the US image. The calculation of
 246 the Wiener filter is based on (Lim, 1990). The US image's noise level can be estimated by the mean and
 247 standard deviation of the difference image between the original image I_k and the filtered image $I_{k,f}$. (4) to
 248 (8) show the mathematical explanation of using a Wiener filter to remove noise from the US image and
 249 calculate the noise feature.

$$\mu = \frac{\sum_{p_x \in \eta} \sum_{p_y \in \eta} I_k(p_x, p_y)}{P \times Q} \quad (4)$$

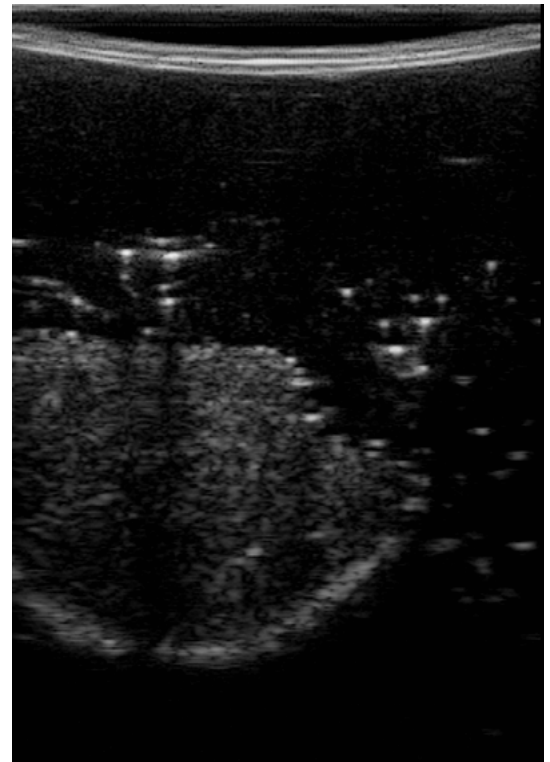
$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum_{p_x \in \eta} \sum_{p_y \in \eta} I_k(p_x, p_y)^2}{P \times Q} - \mu^2 \quad (5)$$

$$I_{k,f}(p_x, p_y) = \mu + \frac{\sigma^2 - \nu^2}{\sigma^2} (I_k(p_x, p_y) - \mu) \quad (6)$$

$$I_n = I_k - I_{k,f} \quad (7)$$



(3a) Ultrasound image with high tissue compression



(3b) Ultrasound image with low tissue compression

Figure 3. Ultrasound images with high and low level of compression

$$f_n = \bar{I}_n + \sigma_n \quad (8)$$

250 Here, η is the neighbourhood with the size of $P \times Q$ around each pixel of the noisy image and $I_k(p_x, p_y)$
 251 is the intensity of each pixel in the noisy US image. μ is the average of pixel intensity in the original US
 252 image, and σ^2 is the corresponding variance value in (5). $I_{k,f}(p_x, p_y)$ is the intensity of the US image
 253 after removing the noise using Wiener filter and ν^2 is the noise variance in the image in (6). (7) finds the
 254 difference between US image I_k and filtered image $I_{k,f}$ to find the US image's noise. In (8), \bar{I}_n is the
 255 average of noise in the image and σ_n is the corresponding standard deviation value. Figure 5 shows two
 256 images with high level (Figure 5a) and low level (Figure 5b) of noise. We have also shown in Figure 6, the
 257 variation of the noise feature f_n in the US image with respect to measured force $F_{Z|k}$.

258 3.2 Support Vector Machine (SVM)

259 The compression and noise features mentioned above will be used as an input to the SVM classifier (e.g,
 260 taking the output of the image feature calculation, (3) and (8), for I_k we then calculate the SVM score) and
 261 the correlation feature works as a gate. SVM classifier tries to find a line that separates two classes based
 262 on the features in feature space. SVM finds this line by optimizing a cost function based on the margin
 263 between two classes in feature space. There may be a need to increase the features' dimension to find this
 264 line in a higher dimensional space.

265 We tested the SVM using cross-validation. We used two different tissue phantoms to train and test the
 266 SVM, meaning we trained the SVM using one of the phantoms and tested it on the other phantom. The
 267 phantoms were biological porcine and bovine tissue. We trained the SVM using bovine phantom, and the

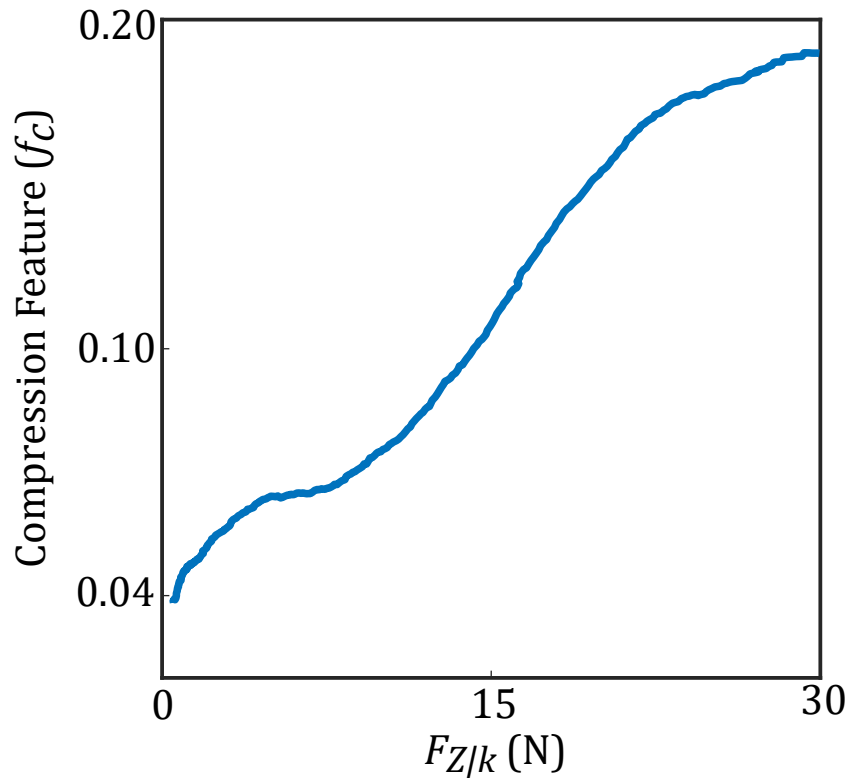
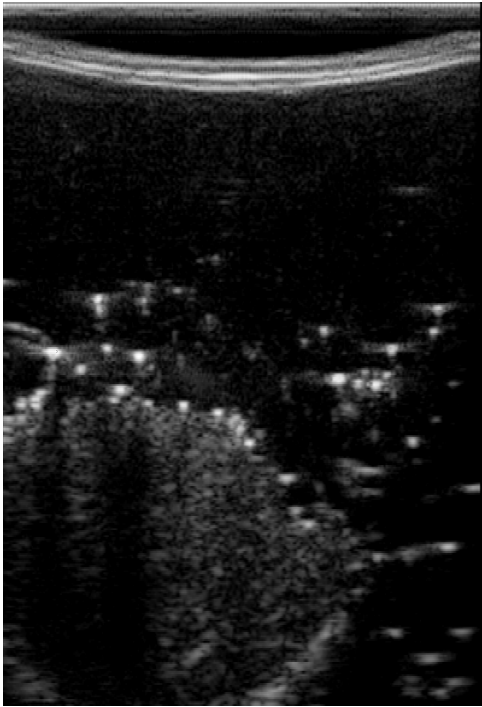


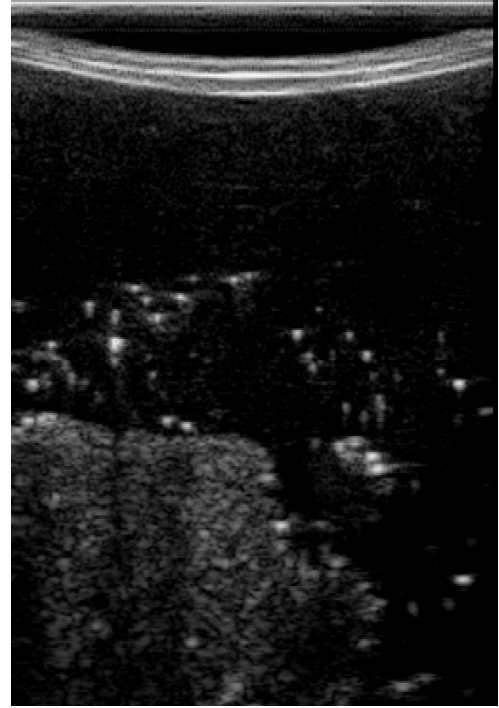
Figure 4. Compression feature with respect to measured force

268 trained SVM was tested on porcine tissue and vice versa. We will use the output of the SVM for robotic
 269 control.

270 We created an image database for training and testing the SVM. To create a database, we used a robot
 271 arm to scan bovine and porcine tissue phantoms by scanning multiple points on these tissues automatically
 272 by increasing force values at each point. The scanning procedure started from one side of the tissue and
 273 continued by dividing them to many points and increasing the US scanning force applied to the tissue
 274 from 1 N to 20 N with an increment of 0.25 N. The force increment was based on force control feedback
 275 in the robotic arm by increasing the tissue indentation until the force value reached the desired force.
 276 This procedure was just used for creating a bovine and porcine image database. The images captured at
 277 each point on the tissue and the forces' value were saved using a computer. A trained non-medical user
 278 then manually classified all images and a subset of 1000 images selected with 500 high-quality images
 279 and 500 low-quality images from the tissue phantoms' US images for different force values. The images
 280 were classified subjectively by the user, and the images were determined to be high quality if there is
 281 sufficient contact between tissue and the probe and tissue is visible without significant deformation within
 282 the US image. The variation of the pixel intensity in the frame with respect the background was also
 283 been considered for image classification. The SVM was trained using 800 images with equal probability
 284 weighting in each of the two classes. The trained SVM was tested on the remaining 200 images. After
 285 training, the SVM has reached an accuracy (a ratio of the number of correct labels to all labels) of 96%
 286 on our test database. Figure 7 shows the procedure of training SVM using biological porcine and bovine
 287 tissue.



(5a) Ultrasound image with a high levels of noise



(5b) Ultrasound image with a low levels of noise

Figure 5. Ultrasound images with high and low levels of noise

288 The rule for updating the force's value based on the output of the image quality assessment algorithm is
 289 shown in (9) and (10). We have also shown a block diagram of the quality assessment algorithm in Figure
 290 8.

$$V_{svm} = SVM(f_c, f_n); V_{svm} \in \{0, 1\} \quad (9)$$

$$F_{Z|k+1} = F_{Z|k} + \delta F(1 - V_{svm}) \quad (10)$$

4 ROBOT ADMITTANCE CONTROL

291 Our admittance controller in the x-y-z direction keeps the robot in the original x-y position and updates
 292 the z position based on the image quality assessment algorithm, as mentioned earlier. We transform the
 293 force sensor data into the base frame of the robot. Figure 1 shows the robot coordinate system during the
 294 experiments.

295 We use the output of the quality assessment algorithm in the loop controlling the force applied by the US
 296 probe to tissue. Figure 9 shows the control loop for the z-axis used during the experiments. The admittance
 297 model calculates desired position of the robot based on the input force. K_θ is the gain for calculating how
 298 much torque should be applied at joints. The control loop works on two different frequencies. Dash lines in
 299 Figure 9 represent image-quality feedback working on 30 Hz, and the solid lines represent robotic control
 300 working on 1 kHz. We reduced the sampling time of robotic control to 30 Hz to avoid discrepancies
 301 during our experiment.

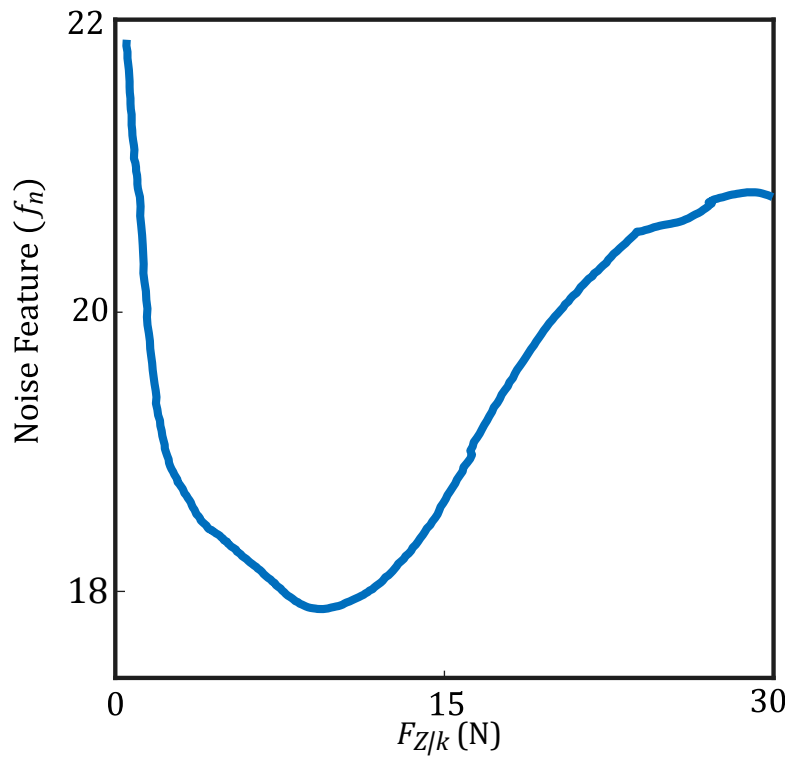


Figure 6. Noise feature with respect to measured force

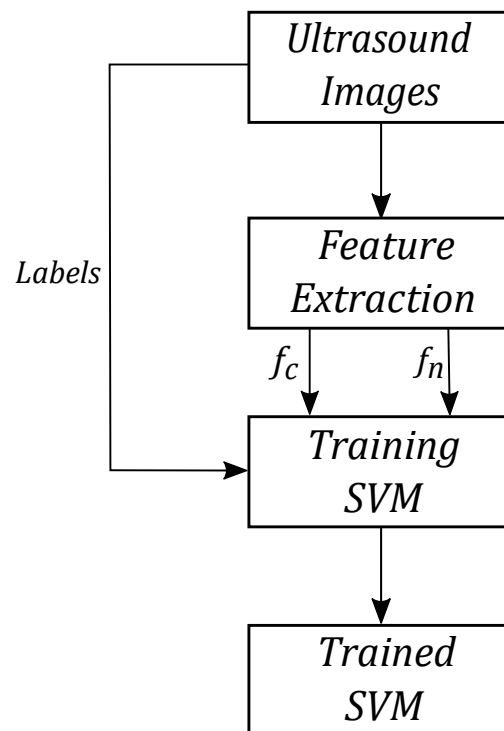


Figure 7. SVM training procedure

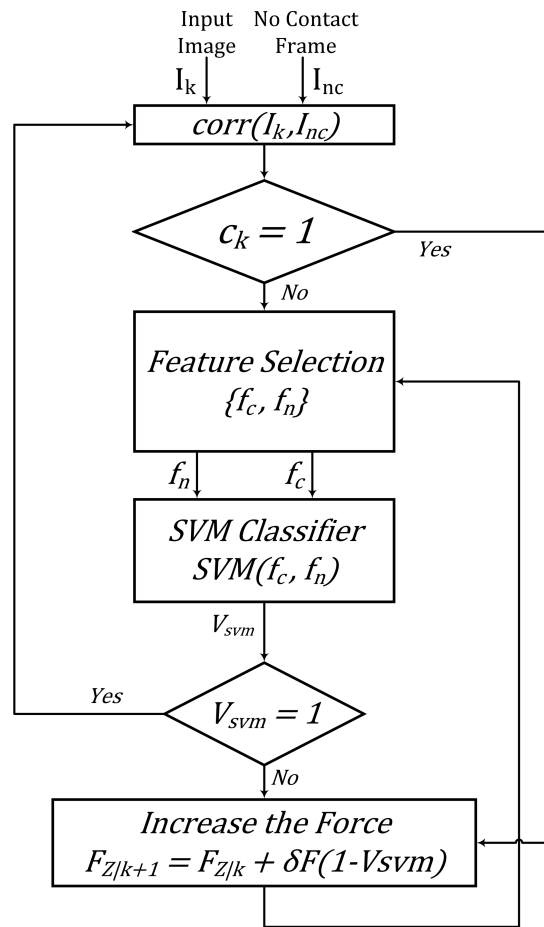


Figure 8. Quality assessment algorithm

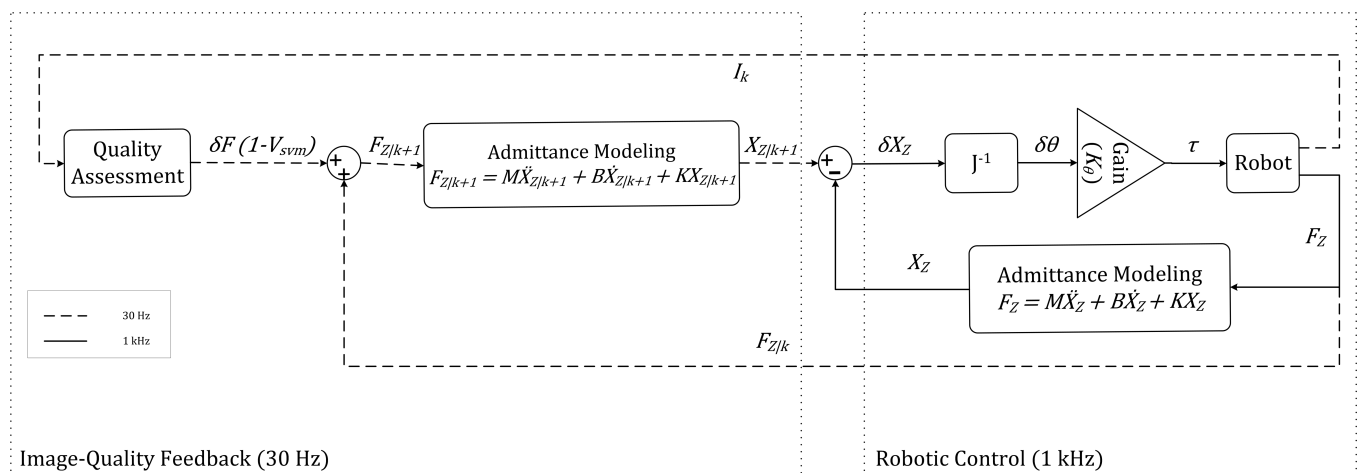


Figure 9. Robot control for the z axis

302 The value of the force applied to the tissue in the z-direction is fed to the admittance controller. The
 303 transfer function describes the admittance model in (11). Where $X_k(s)$ is the desired Cartesian position
 304 in the robot base frame, and $F_k(s)$ is the force applied to the end effector in the robot base frame in the
 305 z-direction. \mathbf{M} is the virtual mass matrix specified for the system. \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{K} represent specified damping and
 306 spring matrices, respectively. The matrices \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{K} are shown in Section 5. The admittance model in
 307 the feedforward finds the desired position for the system, while the feedback impedance model calculates
 308 the robot's current position. We multiply the error by inverse jacobian J^{-1} and K_θ to find the error in joint
 309 space, and torque should be applied at joints.

$$H(s) = \frac{X_k(s)}{F_k(s)} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{M}s^2 + \mathbf{B}s + \mathbf{K}} \quad (11)$$

310 For the experimental setup and results, which will be covered in 5, We chose the values of \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{K}
 311 for the parameters of the admittance model, as shown in the following matrices. The matrix of \mathbf{K} has only
 312 one non-zero parameter (in the z direction) that controls the US force applied to the tissue. The values of \mathbf{M}
 313 and \mathbf{K} are based on (Piwowarczyk et al., 2020), and they were chosen empirically as a trade-off between
 314 sluggishness and control of the system. We calculated the value for \mathbf{B} to have a critically damped response
 315 in the z direction. The threshold values in our quality assessment algorithm were found empirically based
 316 on the SVM response in our US image database, these values are $t_{corr} = 0.7$ and $t_{comp} = 20$.

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 5.625 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5.625 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5.625 \end{bmatrix} kg$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 33.54 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 33.54 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 33.54 \end{bmatrix} \frac{N \cdot sec}{m}$$

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 50 \end{bmatrix} \frac{N}{m}$$

5 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP AND RESULTS

317 In this study, an Axia80-M20 force-torque sensor (ATI Industrial Automation, Apex, NC, USA) was
 318 mounted on a Panda robotic arm (Franka Emika GmbH, Munich, Germany), which holds US probe (see
 319 Figure 1). We have used US machine for capturing images with an Epiphan DVI2USB3.0 (Epiphan Systems
 320 Inc, California, USA) for sending the image to the computer. The US machine used for the experiment was
 321 an Ultrasonix Touch with a 4DL14-5/38 Linear 4D transducer (Ultrasonix Corp, Richmond, BC, Canada).
 322 For this experiment, we only use the 2D functionality of the US probe. We used a tissue phantom made of
 323 plastisol as an artificial tissue for our experiment. The setup is shown in Figure 1.

324 The admittance controller was programmed and implemented in MATLAB 2019a (The Mathworks Inc,
 325 Natwick, MA, USA) and ran using Simulink on a PC running Ubuntu 16.04 LTS. The PC has an Intel Core
 326 i5-8400 running at 4.00 GHz. The communication between robot and computer was done over UDP, and
 327 the Epiphan was connected to the computer using a USB port.

328 To evaluate the image quality controller algorithm, we selected six spots on the surface of the plastisol
 329 tissue and ran the proposed method on those six locations. We then manually classified the acquired images
 330 and found the values of Structural Similarity Index Metric (SSIM) and Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR)
 331 between the output of our quality assessment algorithm and our manual subjective results. The calculation
 332 of SSIM is based on (Wang et al., 2004). These values are reported in Table 1.

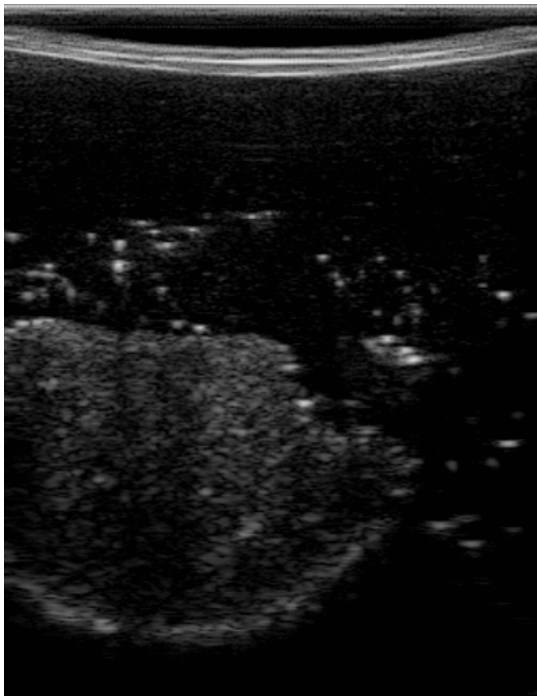
Location	SSIM	PSNR
<i>First Position</i>	0.87	26.85
<i>Second Position</i>	0.76	20.60
<i>Third Position</i>	0.84	24.30
<i>Fourth Position</i>	0.88	28.16
<i>Fifth Position</i>	0.86	24.53
<i>Sixth Position</i>	0.82	22.54

Table 1. Similarity metrics' value between quality assessment algorithm and subjective classification

333 The experiments are designed to test the feasibility of incorporating our quality assessment algorithm
 334 into the control loop. The robot increases the force applied to the tissue by going down in the z-axis using
 335 an admittance controller. Figure 10 shows the output of the quality assessment algorithm and the subjective
 336 result by the human operator. Figure 10a is the output of the quality assessment algorithm in one specific
 337 position and Figure 10b is the output of the manual classification of the image in that specific position.
 338 This will show that our proposed method provides US images of high quality similar to those taken by a
 339 sonographer.

340 The values reported in Table 1 show the US image captured using our proposed image quality assessment
 341 method is similar to the result of manual classification. The similarity between the values of SSIM and
 342 PSNR in all six positions proves the generality of the proposed quality assessment method. Being as PSNR
 343 only compare the values of intensities without analyzing general features of the image like the shape of the
 344 organ inside the tissue. The SSIM finds the similarities between two images based on structural analysis.
 345 The values of SSIM are high for our experiment, which proves our algorithm performs very close to a
 346 human operator.

347 We evaluated the performance of the proposed method experimentally by recording the values of each
 348 feature and the output of SVM by controlling the force applied to the tissue. Figure 11 shows the average
 349 value of compression value with respect to the force applied to the tissue during the test experiment. The
 350 values reported in this figure, are the average compression feature values in six different spots on the
 351 surface of the tissue. The bar in each force value represents the variation of the compression feature at
 352 the corresponding force value at all six locations on the tissue. We also reported the same variation for
 353 noise feature in Figure 12. Figure 13 shows the variation of SVM output during scanning of the tissue by
 354 increasing the force applied to it. The threshold value of t_{SVM} divides the graph to two separate classes
 355 in which the top part is associated with class of high-quality images and the bottom part is related to the



(10a) Quality assessment output



(10b) Subjective result

Figure 10. Output of quality assessment algorithm and human subjective classification

356 low-quality images. These graphs prove the generality of our proposed method in different situations as the
 357 variation of each feature across the different levels of force was within the limited range in all six locations
 358 on the tissue.

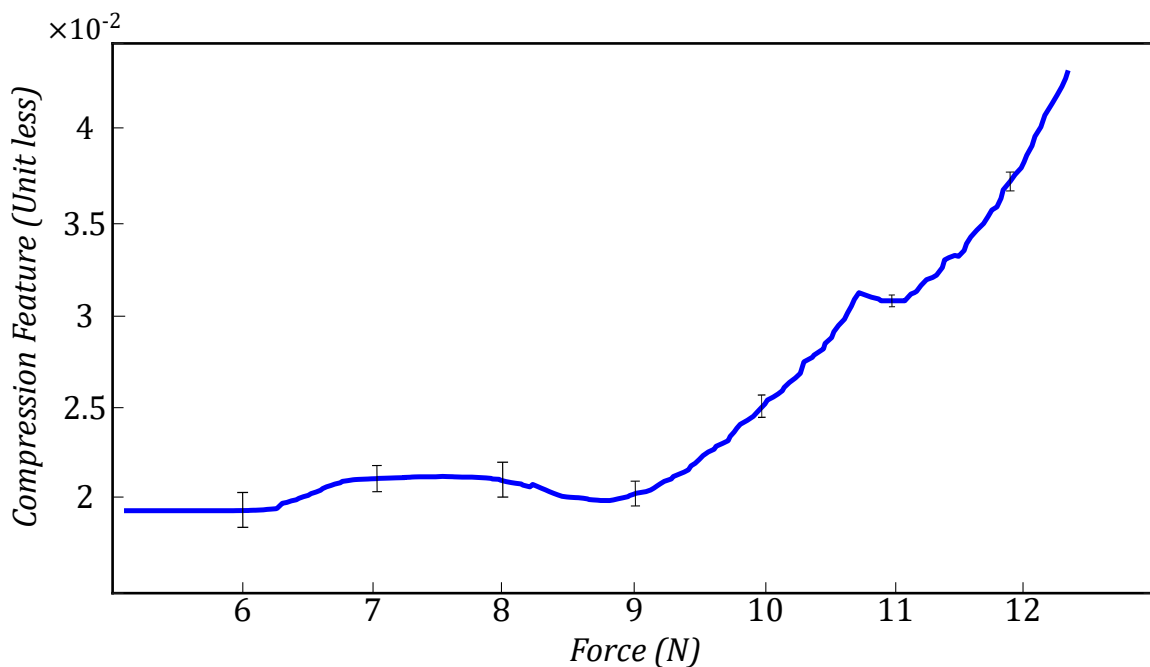


Figure 11. Variation of compression feature during the test experiment in all six spots on the surface of the tissue

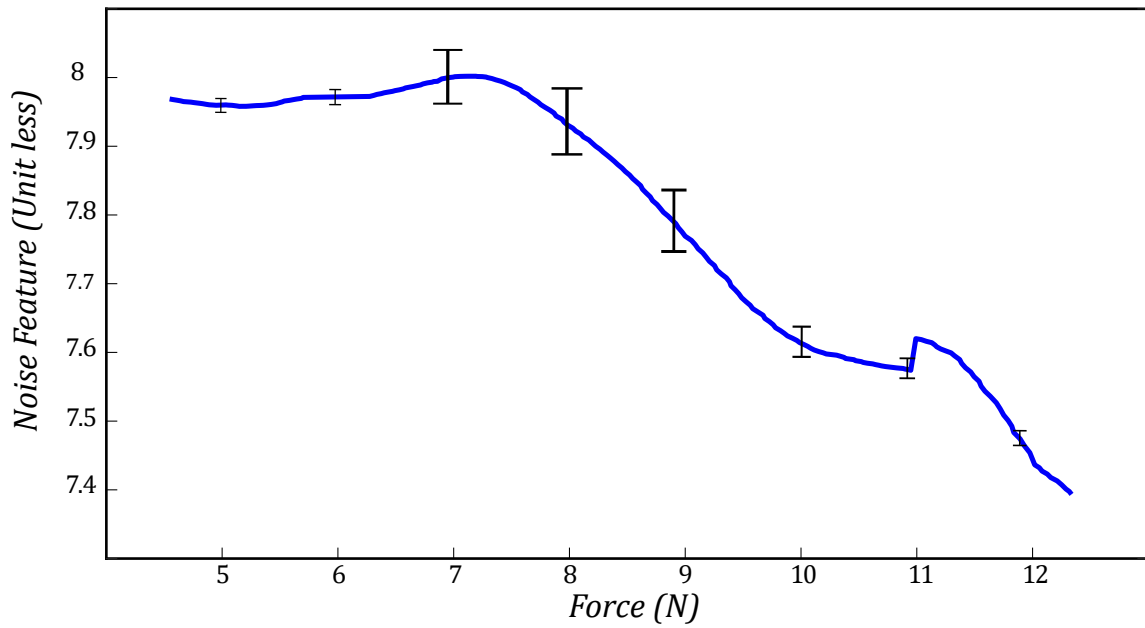


Figure 12. Variation of noise feature during the test experiment in all six spots on the surface of the tissue

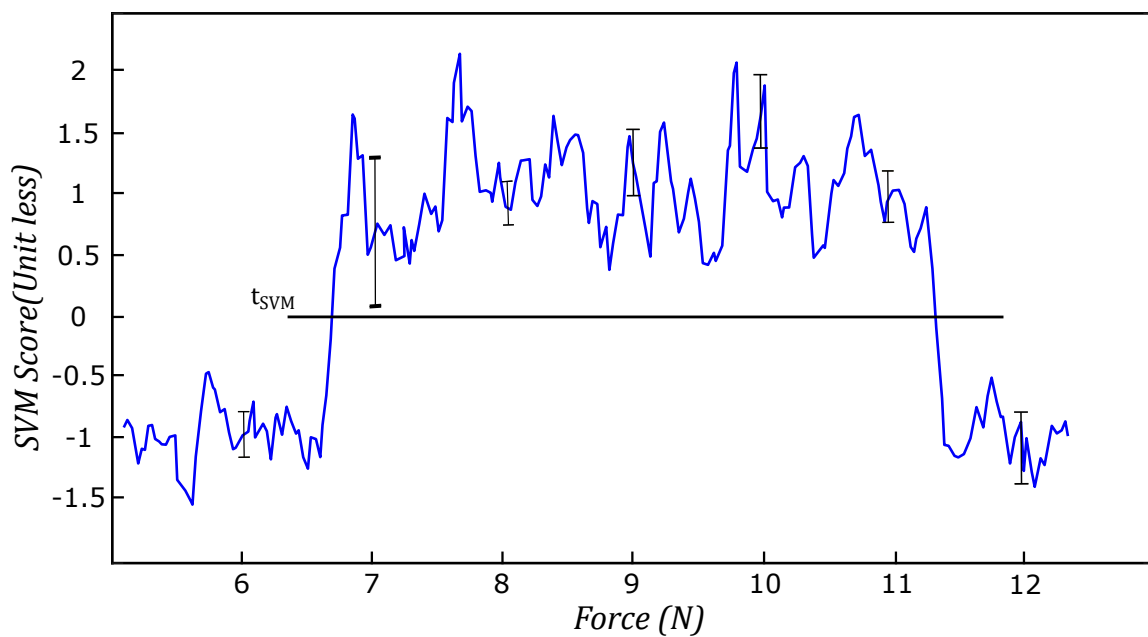


Figure 13. Variation of SVM during the test experiment in all six spots on the surface of the tissue

359 The experiments conducted in this section shows us that the level of force applied to the tissue using the
360 quality assessment algorithm is within a reasonable range, based on the results shown in Figures 11, 12
361 and 13. The general trend and variation of these features during scanning are consistent with respect to the
362 applied force, which proves the generality of the proposed method. Figure 10 and Table 1 show us that the
363 output of the quality assessment algorithm is very close to the desire of the sonographer that all the values
364 reported in Table 1 are within a reasonable range and the image acquired using image quality assessment
365 algorithm and the subjective result are very close to each other in Figure 10.

6 CONCLUSION

366 This paper has presented US image quality assessment algorithm used for robotic control of US scanning.
367 Our proposed quality assessment algorithm uses feature extraction and a SVM classifier to assess the
368 acquired images' quality. The algorithm estimates the US image's quality based on correlation, compression,
369 and noise features. These features are input into a SVM classifier to determine an image is of high quality
370 or low quality. The algorithm was used as a part of the real-time control loop in the robotic US image
371 scanning system. The user is able to put the US probe at a specific location on the tissue, and the algorithm
372 will modulate the US scanning force applied to the tissue. An admittance controller was used internally
373 to modulate the force. We evaluated the performance of the proposed system using different quality
374 assessment metrics, showing close agreement between manual subjective assessment of the captured US
375 image quality and the quality estimation from our algorithm.

376 This system is designed to enable isolation between patients and sonographers during the COVID-19
377 pandemic. In the future, we can control the US probe's orientation in an autonomous manner to enable
378 six degrees of freedom of the US probe during scanning. We can also incorporate the quality assessment
379 algorithm into a teleoperation system to enable remote control of a US scanning robot. Here, the user
380 can remotely move the robot to the desired location, with the algorithm appropriately adjusting the US
381 scanning force automatically.

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