

Deployment of Deep Learning Model in Real World Clinical Setting: A Case Study in Obstetric Ultrasound

Anonymous Full Paper
Submission 44

Abstract

Despite the rapid development of AI models in medical image analysis, their validation in real world clinical settings remains limited. Models are often developed without continuous feedback from clinicians, which can lead to a lack of alignment with the actual needs. To address this, we introduce a generic framework designed for deploying and testing image-based AI models early in such settings. Using this framework, we deployed a trained model for fetal ultrasound standard plane detection and evaluated it in real-time sessions with both novice and expert users. Feedback from these sessions revealed that while the model offers potential benefits to medical practitioners, the need for navigational guidance was identified as a key area for improvement. These findings underscore the importance of early testing of AI models in real-world settings, leading to insights that can guide the refinement of the model and system based on actual user feedback.

1 Introduction

The clinical community is eagerly anticipating the validation of AI in real-world clinical settings [1]. This is distinct from retrospective validation using previously recorded videos [2]. For many imaging modalities, dynamic decision-making is required not only for image recognition (i.e. “what am I looking at?”) but also for image acquisition (i.e. “where to look at in the first place?”). Furthermore, AI systems are anticipated to face more practical challenges in real-world clinical settings [3–5]. Lessons learned from case studies studying the deployment of AI tools for clinical applications highlight that well-performing AI models may fail for unexpected reasons in the real world. For instance, Beede et al. [6] studied the deployment of a diabetic retinopathy detection system with >90% sensitivity and specificity in the lab but faced severe ungradability issues in a real-world setting. Their system refused to grade 21% of the images citing quality issues, although the images were acceptable to human readers, introducing unnecessary delay in a busy clinic. This underscores that the actual utility and value of an AI model remain unclear until it is tested under real-world conditions.

Real-world clinical deployment is challenging.

First, the success of an AI tool in the clinic strongly depends on how well it integrates with the clinical workflow [7]. However, researchers are often not allowed to deploy developmental work directly into a medical device in the clinic for security reasons, effectively creating an upper bound on how well-integrated the deployment can be. Second, existing deployment tools focus on making the inferencing pipeline efficient and streamlined, while research code is often messy. These factors lead to overhead, discouraging AI researchers from deploying their models early in their development process. However, we advocate for testing deep learning models in the clinical setting as early as possible. If things should fail, they should fail early.

In this paper, we introduce a framework for the deployment of dynamical image-based AI systems from research in a clinical setting. As a case study, we illustrate our framework in the setting of fetal ultrasound standard plane detection, where despite active development of AI methods [8–11], actual deployment in the real world is rarely seen. We aim to be as integrated into the clinical workflow as possible, expecting only the HDMI output from the medical device. We discuss the constraints and present our design solution, aiming to lower the entry barrier of deploying and testing machine learning models directly from research, without the burden of making it efficient or optimized. We aim to speed up the development cycle, gain initial user feedback, refine development goals, and iterate. We describe how, using our designed solution, we deployed an explainable AI model for fetal ultrasound standard plane detection, and invited clinical practitioners to use the system as they scan their patients. Finally, we also report our findings from interviews with clinical practitioners using our deployed system. This study highlights a significant step towards bridging the gap between research and practice in the field of medical image analysis.

2 Method

2.1 Design challenges & requirements

Designing a generic framework for deploying image-based AI systems in a clinical setting presents several challenges and requirements. These include:

Device Output The system should not expect any

093 output from the medical device other than a video
094 feed via an HDMI cable. This is because any other
095 form of output may not generalize across different
096 medical devices.

097 **Prediction Latency** The system should aim to
098 generate predictions at minimal latency. This is
099 different from processing retrospective videos, which
100 favors processing large amount of data simultane-
101 ously by batch inferencing. In a live supporting
102 system, video frames from the past become irrele-
103 vant as time progresses, and therefore the system
104 should focus on responding to new video frames as
105 quickly as possible to provide real-time feedback.

106 **Local Processing** The system should be able to
107 run the entire processing pipeline locally, since data
108 security is crucial for many clinical applications.
109 Furthermore, this approach incurs a lower learning
110 overhead for researchers than a more complicated
111 workflow, such as a remote-server-edge-client archi-
112 tecture.

113 **Wireless Display** The system should have a mech-
114 anism for showing the live results on a wirelessly-
115 connected display device. Wired connections are not
116 always possible in the room setting of a clinic.

117 **Video Recording** The system should optionally
118 support video recording in parallel to the predic-
119 tion process. This means that while the AI model is
120 making predictions in real-time, the system should si-
121 multaneously be able to record the video feed, which
122 is helpful for further development of the prototype
123 model.

124 **Physical Setup** The physical setup should be as
125 small and stealthy as possible, so that it does not
126 introduce any obstructions in a busy clinic.

127 **Software Compatibility** On the software level,
128 the framework should be able to accommodate re-
129 search code, which is typically chaotic by nature.
130 Ease-of-use should be prioritized over computational
131 efficiency.

132 2.2 Design solution

133 Our design solution, as illustrated in Figure 1, is
134 a robust and flexible framework that leverages a
135 variety of technologies to capture and process real-
136 time video streams from medical devices. Code is
137 available at <http://ANON-REPO-URL/>

138 **HDMI-to-USB Converter Box** We use this de-
139 vice to capture the real-time video stream from the
140 medical device. The converter box feeds the video
141 stream to a small computation server and appears
142 as a USB webcam device on the server. This setup
143 allows us to use common software packages such as
144 OpenCV to capture and process the video stream.

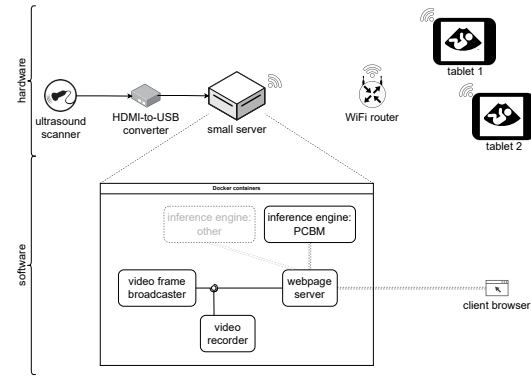


Figure 1. System architecture. Live video is streamed from the scanner to the server, where all processing steps are executed within respective containers. Results are subsequently rendered on a webpage, which is accessible wirelessly from tablets.

Computation Server The server is responsible for all computation needs of the deployment. This server can be CPU-only to satisfy economical considerations or security restrictions of the clinical authority, or equipped with a GPU to meet the computational needs of the researchers.

Docker Containers Within the server, we achieve our design requirements with the use of Docker containers [12]. These containers perform various tasks:

- **Video Frame Broadcaster** This container grabs video frames from the converter box via OpenCV and broadcasts them through a websocket.
- **Recorder** This container listens to the websocket and records the video, saving it into an mp4 file for retrospective AI development activity.
- **Webpage Server** This container also listens to the websocket, coordinates prediction on the live video stream, and hosts a webpage for displaying results. It acts as a prediction task manager/router, sending latest video frames to the inference engine for model predictions, and displaying results to the clinician (see Figure 2) upon receiving response from the inference engine.
- **Inference Engine** This container encapsulates all the code needed to runs the model prediction.

Docker Compose Manages the lifecycle (start, restart, etc.) of the containers.

Wireless Router Connects display devices and the server.

Tablets Display inference results accessible via a webpage hosted by the server.

180 Our design solution is underpinned by a number
181 of key principles and considerations, which we will
182 discuss next:

183 2.2.1 Containerization & System Stability

184 One of the primary benefits of our design is the use
185 of containerization. This approach ensures that a
186 failure at the component level, such as a runtime
187 error in the AI inference engine, does not shut down
188 the entire system. This means that even if one part
189 of the system encounters an issue, other components,
190 like video recording, continue to function normally.
191 Furthermore, the containerized environment allows
192 for the execution of research code in an isolated
193 setting, making the system much more tolerant to
194 the inherent messiness of research code. The use of
195 Docker Compose as an orchestration tool allows the
196 system to auto-restart failed inference engines.

197 2.2.2 Environment Isolation & Model De- 198 ployment

199 Containerization also inherently provides the benefit
200 of environment isolation. This means models devel-
201 oped with different dependencies can be deployed
202 on the same machine without conflicting with each
203 other. It is not necessary for the model to be ex-
204 ported in a deploy-specialized format (e.g., ONNX,
205 TorchScript), since the original research code can
206 be executed within the isolated environment. This
207 flexibility simplifies the deployment process and ac-
208 celerates the transition from research to clinic.

209 2.2.3 Advanced Inferencing Pipeline & 210 Workflow Management

211 For advanced inferencing pipelines that involve pre-
212 dictions with multiple models, more inference engine
213 containers can be added. The pipeline can be manu-
214 ally programmed into the webpage server applica-
215 tion. We chose not to orchestrate such workflows
216 with existing workflow management software (e.g.,
217 Apache Airflow), which, while optimized for produc-
218 tion environments, introduces unnecessary overhead
219 for researchers wanting to test their prototype mod-
220 els in the clinic.

221 2.2.4 Distributed Execution & Performance 222 Optimization

223 For advanced use cases, containerization also allows
224 execution of components among distributed compu-
225 tational units. For example, latency-insensitive,
226 computationally heavy workloads can be executed on
227 a remote GPU server. For slow, compute-intensive
228 models, it is possible to modify the web server appli-
229 cation to only perform inference when the ultrasound

operator has frozen the screen. This approach opti- 230
mizes system performance and ensures efficient use 231
of computational resources. 232

233 2.2.5 User Feedback & Result Display

234 By displaying the result via a simple web applica-
235 tion, we can easily stream results to multiple clients
236 simultaneously. This allows researchers to collect
237 user feedback from multiple target users, such as
238 clinical operators and patients, providing insights
239 for system improvement.

240 3 Experiment

241 Using our framework, we deploy an AI model for
242 fetal ultrasound standard plane detection. We first
243 examine the additional latency introduced by this
244 setup compared to running the model directly with-
245 out containerization (see [subsection 3.2](#)). Then,
246 we conduct a pilot study with clinicians using our
247 system in a real-world clinical setting (see [subsec-
248 tion 3.3](#)). This helps in guiding both downstream
249 technical development and future full-blown random-
250 ized control trails.

251 3.1 Fetal Ultrasound Standard Plane 252 Detection

253 Standard obstetric trimester scans involve capturing
254 ultrasound images of the fetal head, stomach, and
255 femur [13]. The accuracy of this task is crucial as
256 it impacts the downstream task of fetal weight esti-
257 mation [14], which directly influences the accurate
258 monitoring of fetal growth.

259 We chose to approach the standard plane detec-
260 tion problem with PCBM, a hierarchical variant
261 of the concept bottleneck model [15] developed by
262 Lin et al. [16] for fetal ultrasound scan quality as-
263 sessment. It approaches the problem by emulating
264 the step-by-step decision-making process of experts,
265 starting with visual concepts from image segmenta-
266 tion and then applying property concepts directly
267 tied to the task.

268 Compared to standard black-box approaches, this
269 method is explainable, providing transparency in
270 its decision-making process, which arguably allows
271 for a better understanding and trust in the model's
272 predictions. Instead of predicting whether or not
273 an image is of a standard plane, PCBM offers ad-
274 ditional explanation to what anatomical landmarks
275 are present or missing (see [Figure 2](#)).

276 To determine the validity of these claims, we de-
277 cided to deploy a trained PCBM model in the clinic.
278 We aim to determine whether the model's explain-
279 ability provides any additional value as a computer-
280 aided detection (CAD) tool. More importantly, we
281 want to establish whether such a tool fits well in the

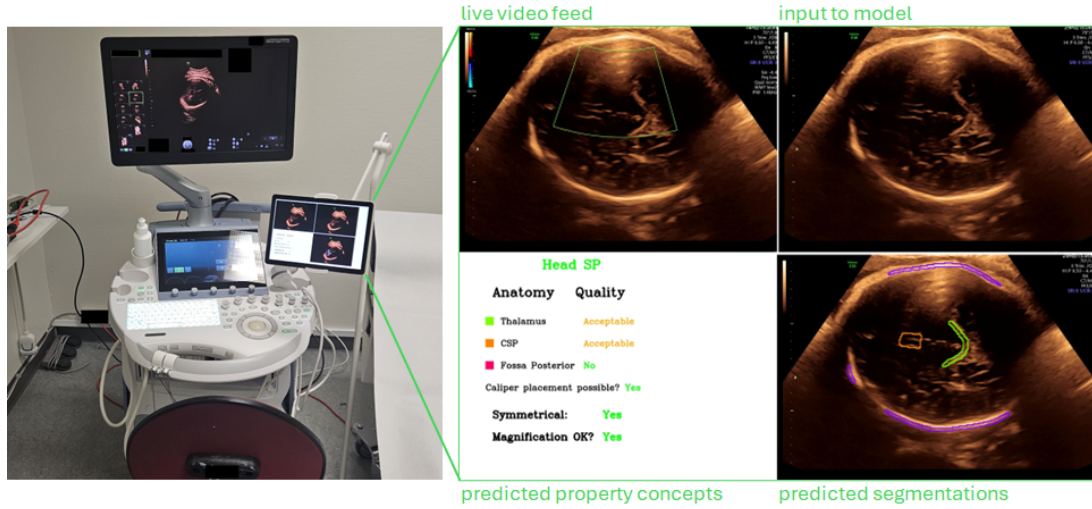


Figure 2. (Left) Setup at the clinic. The tablet was placed next to the scanner, while the remaining equipment was placed on a table. (Right) Screenshot of displayed prediction. A video recording is provided in the supplementary material.

282 clinical workflow, bringing benefits that are actually
283 appreciated by medical workers.

284 3.2 Equipment

285 Following our framework as illustrated in Figure 1,
286 we selected Magewell USB Capture Plus HDMI
287 box as our **HDMI-to-USB converter**, TP-Link
288 802.11ac router (model number: TL-WR902AC)
289 as our **WiFi router**, and two Microsoft Surface
290 tablets as our **display devices**. We first measured
291 the duration required to process one video frame,
292 using three different computational devices as the
293 **server**: a workstation (i7-7800X, Quadro P5000,
294 TITAN V, 128GB RAM), a laptop (i7-10750H, RTX
295 2070 Super, 16GB RAM), and a mini PC (Intel
296 NUC12WSKi7, i7-1260P, 32GB RAM). We also de-
297 termined the extra latency introduced by our frame-
298 work as compared to running the native research
299 code directly (see Table 1). This was to understand
300 the trade-off between the deployment ease offered
301 by containerization and the potential increase in
302 latency.

303 For our deployment, we selected the mini PC as
304 our server to remain compliant with safety stan-
305 dards [17]. This was a requirement set by our de-
306 ployment hospital to ensure the safety of both the
307 patients and the medical practitioners. A photo of
308 the setup in the clinic is shown in Figure 2.

309 3.3 Clinical sessions

310 We deployed the system at ANON HOSPITAL and
311 recruited two volunteer patients in their mid-third
312 trimester with ANON IRB’s approval. We invited
313 six novice participants (P1-P6), all senior under-
314 graduate students enrolled in a medical program,
315 to use our system while scanning the patients. P1

& P2 were given all explanations as predicted by
PCBM. P3 & P4 were only told whether a cur-
rent image is a standard plane, close to a stan-
dard plane, or at a completely unknown plane. P5 & P6
were control users without any guidance from our
system. We observed the participants during the
scan and interviewed them afterward to gather their
feedback about our system. In separate sessions,
we also invited an obstetrician (P7) and an expe-
rienced sonographer (P8) to use our tool, allowing
us to gain valuable insights from a professional per-
spective about our system. These sessions provide
an early evaluation of PCBM’s performance in real
clinical settings before committing to a large-scale
randomized control trial study.

331 4 Results

332 4.0.1 Level of Integration into Clinical 333 Workflow

334 Almost all participants expressed a desire for the
335 prediction results to be displayed directly on the
336 ultrasound machine. However, most participants were
337 able to accept the current setup as a viable solu-
338 tion for testing purposes without being disruptive to
339 their workflow. Meanwhile, the novice participants
340 (P1-P4) specifically requested a higher frame rate.
341 They expressed that a higher frame rate would allow
342 them to move the ultrasound probe faster without
343 the system lagging behind.

344 4.0.2 Usefulness of the Additional Explana- 345 tion Provided by PCBM

346 P1 found the explanation on whether a specific
347 anatomical landmark is visible helpful, while P2
348 took a neutral stance. Without the explanation, P3

Table 1. Time taken (in seconds) to process one video frame across different computational machines by running native code vs. using our framework.

machine	Workstation			Laptop		Mini PC
	CPU	P5000	TITAN_V	CPU	RTX_2070S	CPU
native	1.00 ± 0.04	0.25 ± 0.04	0.34 ± 0.04	2.69 ± 0.56	0.39 ± 0.20	1.19 ± 0.09
framework	1.06 ± 0.04	0.31 ± 0.04	0.40 ± 0.05	2.75 ± 0.56	0.45 ± 0.21	1.23 ± 0.10
difference	0.06 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.02	0.03 ± 0.01

349 and P5 found it challenging to identify what was
350 missing from an image before it could be considered
351 a standard plane image.

352 4.0.3 Usefulness of the Tool in Helping a 353 Novice User to Take High Quality Fet- 354 tal Ultrasound Standard Plane Images

355 P1-P4 commented that the tool has helped indicat-
356 ing whether they are looking at a standard plane,
357 while P5 wished for similar guidance. However, P1-
358 P4 had difficulty in identifying which plane they were
359 currently looking at. They adapted the strategy of
360 blindly scanning around until the tool indicated that
361 they were at one of the standard planes.

362 4.0.4 Additional Findings

363 P1, P3 & P4 expressed their wish for more naviga-
364 tional support. Following their strategy, the tool
365 showed signs that they were near a standard plane
366 every now and then, but without navigational guid-
367 ance, they did not know where they should move
368 the probe to get closer to the standard plane. They
369 acknowledged that a higher frame rate might be
370 helpful, but ultimately it would be ideal if the tool
371 could tell them the direction they should move the
372 probe if they wanted to reach a certain standard
373 plane. This was especially the case for the femur,
374 which had to be taken from a challenging sagittal
375 view.

376 On the other hand, our interview with P7 sug-
377 gested that users who are already familiar with the
378 task may have a different use case for our tool. In-
379 stead of relying on the tool for navigational guid-
380 ance, the expert used the tool for confirmation
381 of thoughts. During the session, P7 took multi-
382 ple screenshots whenever an image appeared like
383 a standard plane image. After the session, P7 ran
384 through the screenshots while looking at the model
385 predictions, checking through the explanations from
386 PCBM, and picked the best images for reporting.
387 Meanwhile, P8 tended to rely on self-judgement
388 rather than relying on feedback from PCBM. How-
389 ever, P8 commented that our predictions are gen-
390 erally accurate, and acknowledged that the system
391 could be valuable for inexperienced users.

392 This feedback was instrumental for us in under-
393 standing the different applicability of an AI tool in

a real-world setting with different types of clinical
users.

5 Discussion & Conclusion

394 We have introduced a generic framework designed to
395 deploy image-based AI models in real-world clinical
396 settings, which focuses on research code compati-
397 bility and clinical workflow integration. Using this
398 framework, we have successfully deployed a model
399 for fetal ultrasound standard plane detection in a
400 clinical environment, and evaluated its performance
401 in real-time sessions with both novice and expert
402 users. The feedback gathered from these sessions
403 has provided valuable insights into the model’s per-
404 formance, its integration into the clinical workflow,
405 and its potential benefits to medical practitioners.

406 Our findings from the interviews show that the
407 deployed PCBM model works well as a feedback tool.
408 However, if the intended purpose is to guide a novice
409 user in taking better standard plane images, the tool
410 would be an even better fit for the clinical workflow
411 if it could provide navigational guidance. Zooming
412 out to a bigger picture, this also emphasizes that in
413 ultrasound, image acquisition is the major part of
414 the challenge, which calls for different solutions than
415 what the medical image analysis community typi-
416 cally focuses on [18, 19]. These findings underscore
417 the importance of a framework that supports early
418 deployment and testing of research models in real-
419 world settings: Early deployment serves the crucial
420 purpose of guiding the refinement and development
421 of the continued technical research towards solving
422 actually relevant clinical problems.

423 Leveraging our experience in this deployment, we
424 hope to demonstrate the importance of early de-
425 ployment of AI models. Early deployment leads
426 to insights that are otherwise undiscovered, while
427 the developmental works proceed in an undesired
428 direction. This approach allows for the refinement of
429 the model and system based on real-world feedback,
430 ultimately leading to a tool that is more effective
431 and beneficial in a clinical setting.

References

- 432 [1] “DECIDE-AI: new reporting guidelines to
433 bridge the development-to-implementation

- gap in clinical artificial intelligence”. In: *Nature Medicine* 27.2 (2021), pp. 186–187. DOI: [10.1038/s41591-021-01229-5](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-021-01229-5).
- [2] A. Domalpally and R. Channa. “Real-world validation of artificial intelligence algorithms for ophthalmic imaging”. In: *The Lancet Digital Health* 3.8 (Aug. 2021), e463–e464. ISSN: 2589-7500. DOI: [10.1016/s2589-7500\(21\)00140-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s2589-7500(21)00140-0).
- [3] C. J. Kelly, A. Karthikesalingam, M. Suleyman, G. Corrado, and D. King. “Key challenges for delivering clinical impact with artificial intelligence”. In: *BMC medicine* 17 (2019), pp. 1–9. DOI: [10.1186/s12916-019-1426-2](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-019-1426-2).
- [4] S. G. Finlayson, A. Subbaswamy, K. Singh, J. Bowers, A. Kupke, J. Zittrain, I. S. Kohane, and S. Saria. “The Clinician and Dataset Shift in Artificial Intelligence”. In: *New England Journal of Medicine* 385.3 (2021). PMID: 34260843, pp. 283–286. DOI: [10.1056/NEJMc2104626](https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMc2104626). eprint: <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMc2104626>.
- [5] L. Petersson, I. Larsson, J. M. Nygren, P. Nilsen, M. Neher, J. E. Reed, D. Tyskbo, and P. Svedberg. “Challenges to implementing artificial intelligence in healthcare: a qualitative interview study with healthcare leaders in Sweden”. In: *BMC Health Services Research* 22.1 (July 2022). ISSN: 1472-6963. DOI: [10.1186/s12913-022-08215-8](https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-022-08215-8).
- [6] E. Beede, E. Baylor, F. Hersch, A. Iurchenko, L. Wilcox, P. Ruamviboonsuk, and L. M. Vardoulakis. “A human-centered evaluation of a deep learning system deployed in clinics for the detection of diabetic retinopathy”. In: *Proceedings of the 2020 CHI conference on human factors in computing systems*. 2020, pp. 1–12. DOI: [10.1145/3313831.3376718](https://doi.org/10.1145/3313831.3376718).
- [7] Q. Yang, A. Steinfeld, and J. Zimmerman. “Unremarkable AI: Fitting Intelligent Decision Support into Critical, Clinical Decision-Making Processes”. In: *Proceedings of the 2019 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*. CHI ’19. Glasgow, Scotland Uk: Association for Computing Machinery, 2019, pp. 1–11. ISBN: 9781450359702. DOI: [10.1145/3290605.3300468](https://doi.org/10.1145/3290605.3300468).
- [8] C. F. Baumgartner, K. Kamnitsas, J. Matthew, T. P. Fletcher, S. Smith, L. M. Koch, B. Kainz, and D. Rueckert. “SonoNet: Real-Time Detection and Localisation of Fetal Standard Scan Planes in Freehand Ultrasound”. In: *IEEE Transactions on Medical Imaging* 36.11 (Nov. 2017), pp. 2204–2215. ISSN: 1558-254X. DOI: [10.1109/tmi.2017.2712367](https://doi.org/10.1109/tmi.2017.2712367).
- [9] Z. Chen, Z. Liu, M. Du, and Z. Wang. “Artificial Intelligence in Obstetric Ultrasound: An Update and Future Applications”. In: *Frontiers in Medicine* 8 (2021). ISSN: 2296-858X. DOI: [10.3389/fmed.2021.733468](https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2021.733468).
- [10] J. Shanavas and G. Kanjana. “Standard Plane Classification of Fetal Brain Ultrasound Images”. In: *Proceedings of International Conference on Paradigms of Communication, Computing and Data Analytics*. Springer Nature Singapore, 2023, pp. 495–508. ISBN: 9789819946266. DOI: [10.1007/978-981-99-4626-6_41](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-4626-6_41).
- [11] S. Xiao, J. Zhang, Y. Zhu, Z. Zhang, H. Cao, M. Xie, and L. Zhang. “Application and Progress of Artificial Intelligence in Fetal Ultrasound”. In: *Journal of Clinical Medicine* 12.9 (2023). ISSN: 2077-0383. DOI: [10.3390/jcm12093298](https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm12093298).
- [12] D. Merkel. “Docker: lightweight Linux containers for consistent development and deployment”. In: *Linux J*. 2014.239 (Mar. 2014). ISSN: 1075-3583.
- [13] C. M. Bilardo, R. Chaoui, J. A. Hyett, K. O. Kagan, J. N. Karim, A. T. Papageorgiou, L. C. Poon, L. J. Salomon, A. Syngelaki, and K. H. Nicolaides. “ISUOG Practice Guidelines (updated): performance of 11–14-week ultrasound scan”. In: *Ultrasound in Obstetrics & Gynecology* 61.1 (Jan. 2023), pp. 127–143. ISSN: 1469-0705. DOI: [10.1002/uog.26106](https://doi.org/10.1002/uog.26106).
- [14] L. Salomon, Z. Alfirevic, F. Da Silva Costa, R. Deter, F. Figueras, T. Ghi, P. Glanc, A. Khalil, W. Lee, R. Napolitano, A. Papageorgiou, A. Sotiriadis, J. Stirnemann, A. Toi, and G. Yeo. “ISUOG Practice Guidelines: ultrasound assessment of fetal biometry and growth”. In: *Ultrasound in Obstetrics & Gynecology* 53.6 (June 2019), pp. 715–723. ISSN: 1469-0705. DOI: [10.1002/uog.20272](https://doi.org/10.1002/uog.20272).
- [15] P. W. Koh, T. Nguyen, Y. S. Tang, S. Mussmann, E. Pierson, B. Kim, and P. Liang. “Concept Bottleneck Models”. In: *Proceedings of the 37th International Conference on Machine Learning*. Ed. by H. D. III and A. Singh. Vol. 119. Proceedings of Machine Learning Research. PMLR, 13–18 Jul 2020, pp. 5338–5348. URL: <https://proceedings.mlr.press/v119/koh20a.html>.
- [16] M. Lin, A. Feragen, Z. Bashir, M. G. Tolsgaard, and A. N. Christensen. “I saw, I conceived, I concluded: Progressive Concepts as Bottlenecks”. In: *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.10630* (2022). DOI: [10.48550/arXiv.2211.10630](https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2211.10630).

- 547 [17] *Audio/video, information and communication*
548 *technology equipment - Part 1: Safety require-*
549 *ments*. Standard. International Electrotechni-
550 cal Commission, May 2023.
- 551 [18] S. Liu, Y. Wang, X. Yang, B. Lei, L. Liu,
552 S. X. Li, D. Ni, and T. Wang. “Deep Learning
553 in Medical Ultrasound Analysis: A Review”.
554 In: *Engineering* 5.2 (2019), pp. 261–275. ISSN:
555 2095-8099. DOI: [10.1016/j.eng.2018.11.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eng.2018.11.020)
556 [020](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eng.2018.11.020).
- 557 [19] Y. Wang, X. Ge, H. Ma, S. Qi, G. Zhang, and
558 Y. Yao. “Deep Learning in Medical Ultrasound
559 Image Analysis: A Review”. In: *IEEE Access*
560 9 (2021), pp. 54310–54324. DOI: [10.1109/](https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3071301)
561 [ACCESS.2021.3071301](https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3071301).