



RIVERSIDE

Pulmonary Ultrasound in Emergency Medicine and Critical Care

www.rmgultrasound.com



Author:

Virginia M Stewart, MD RDMS RDCS RDMSK
Dr Stewart is a practicing Emergency Physician in Eastern Virginia, USA. She is the Emergency Ultrasound Director and Emergency Ultrasound Fellowship Director for Riverside Medical Group.

Preface:

This educational resource is designed to provide clinicians with practical knowledge of pulmonary ultrasound that translates to rapid bedside evaluation of patients. Ultrasound has become an integral part of Emergency Medicine and Critical Care in the United States and across the world.

This e-book has 3 sections; the first section focuses on practical physics and technical instrumentation. The second section focuses on the pulmonary ultrasound examination and some pathology visualised by ultrasound. The third section briefly addresses the BRIPPED scanning protocol.

Health care providers are challenged daily to rapidly diagnose and treat life threatening respiratory illness. Ultrasound is a non-invasive, rapid bedside tool that enables providers to quickly identify and treat undifferentiated shortness of breath. The BRIPPED project is a rapid, accurate approach to using ultrasound in the evaluation of shortness of breath in the Emergency Department. The development and evaluation of the BRIPPED protocol would not exist without the work and dedication of my colleagues: Hjalti Bjornsson, MD, Michelle Clinton, MD, Don Byars, MD RDMS RDCS RDMS RVT, David P Evans, MD RDMS RDCS, and Brian Campbell, MD.

- Virginia M Stewart, MD RDMS RDCS RDMSK

Pulmonary Ultrasound in Emergency Medicine and Critical Care

Principles of Pulmonary Ultrasound

Ultrasound deals with waves traveling through a medium at frequencies above the threshold of human hearing. More accurately, these waves are pressure waves produced by the ultrasound transducer that travel through a tissue medium. Typically, bedside ultrasound machines used for emergency department and critical care applications utilize frequencies between 2 to 14 megaHertz. Several probes are often available for selection, depending on the application or procedure performed. Two important properties of the ultrasound wave important to probe selection are frequency and wavelength. Wavelength is the distance between successive crests of the sound wave. Frequency is the number of occurrences of a repeating event (for ultrasound purposes, the sound wave crest) over a unit of time. Frequency and wavelength are inversely related. The longer the wavelength, or greater the distance between the wave crests, the less frequent the crests occur

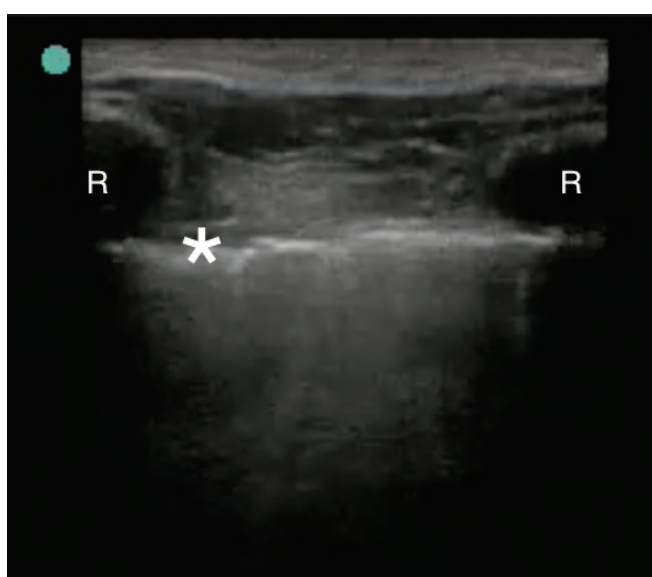


Figure 1: B mode imaging of normal lung. Acoustic shadowing of ribs (R) marks the pleural line () in this longitudinal view*

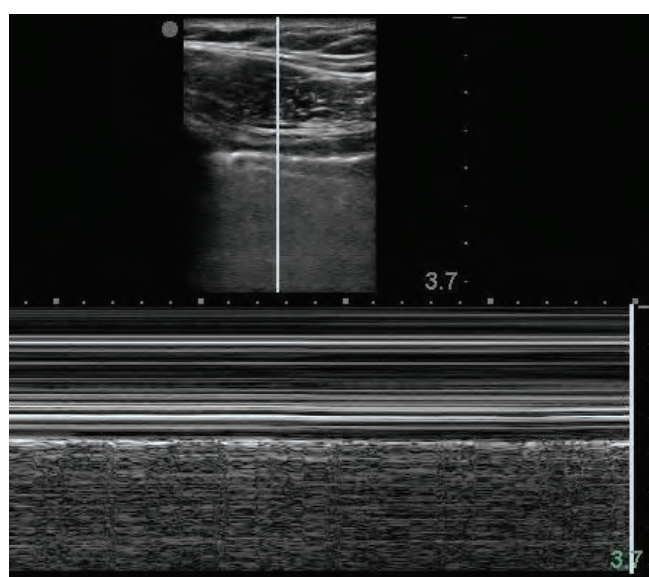


Figure 2: M mode imaging of normal lung

over a unit of time. In other words, long wavelengths have low frequencies. Lungs are relatively superficial compared to intracavitary organs, so less distance is required to visualize the pleura. A higher frequency probe (5-14 MHz), with a shorter wavelength is required. In addition to ultrasound wave properties, the ultrasound transducer surface is also considered in probe selection for pulmonary ultrasound. Flat footprints of varying length and square or rectangular shape are available.

Various modes are utilized to visualize intrathoracic structures, including B mode, M mode, and Doppler assessment. B-mode stands for “brightness” mode and presents a 2 dimensional display in varying shades of gray (Figure 1). M-mode stands for “motion” mode, and selects an “ice pick” single dimension sample from pixels of the B mode image (Figure 2). The horizontal axis represents

time and the vertical axis represents the motion of reflecting echoes. Many machines simultaneously display B and M mode imaging. Doppler assessment is obtained either through continuous, pulse wave, or color flow mapping. Pulse wave Doppler uses a single crystal that transmits the ultrasound wave, then “listens” to receive the returning Doppler information. The returning pulse is a snapshot of the position of the reflecting surface position within the sample. A B mode image is displayed along with information about pleural movement in relation to the transducer surface. Pulse wave Doppler information is displayed acoustically or is converted into color. A color map indicates flow direction with a red and blue scale, or simply the presence of movement, which is depicted as an orange scale. Figure 3 demonstrates power Doppler as it detects pleural movement (orange) relative to the transducer surface.

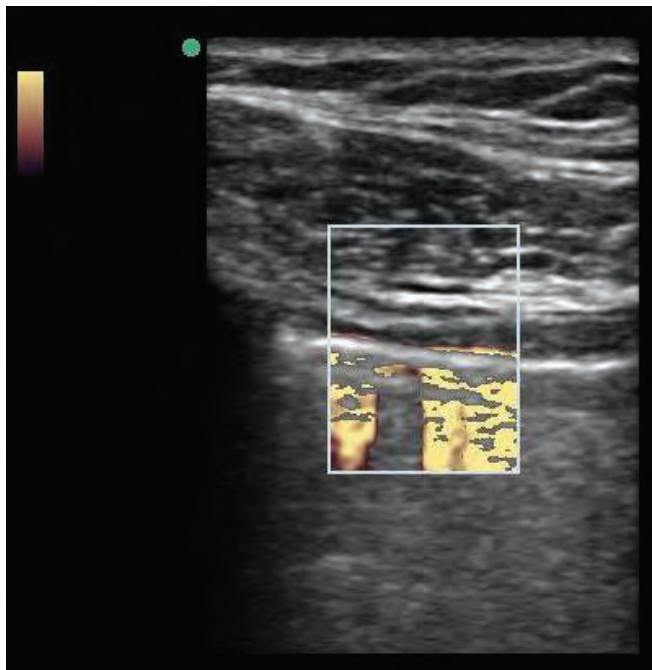


Figure 3: Power Doppler visualisation of normal lung

Pulmonary Ultrasound Examination and Pathology

Air is a poor medium for ultrasound waves due to its low density and slow propagation velocity. Healthy lungs contain air, and are surrounded by the highly reflective bones of the ribs. Rather than visualizing lungs directly, pulmonary ultrasound identifies various artifacts or detection of movement.

In a longitudinal view, the acoustic shadowing of the ribs marks the space where the pleural line may be identified. In Figure 1, the acoustic shadow of the ribs (R) is created by the strongly reflective bony cortex, and marks the pleural line (asterix). Since bone reflects ultrasound waves, no signal is detected behind the bony cortex, creating shadowing.

Normal pleural movement demonstrates a “shimmer sign” with B mode imaging. Poor respiratory effort, operator experience or fatigue, and other factors may complicate the identification of a “shimmer sign”. M mode imaging uses a high frequency probe to depict lung movement. Using M mode, normal lung that is moving has a

homogenous granular appearance under the brightly visualized pleura. Figure 2 depicts this “seashore sign”, with the normal lung reminiscent of sand and approaching waves. The loss of granular appearing “sand” on the bottom half of the screen is indicative of pneumothorax. Bedside ultrasound is more accurate than supine chest x-ray for detecting pneumothorax, with diagnostic ability approaching that of CT. [1-6]

Lung sliding is also detected by Doppler. Power Doppler (Figure 3) utilizes an orange scale to detect movement relative to the transducer surface, which is more sensitive for movement as compared to the red blue Color Doppler. A patient with a pneumothorax will not have lung sliding relative to the transducer surface, and no color will be detected in the sample selected (Figure 4).

B lines, also known as “comet tail” artifacts, represent the common border between the interlobular septa and the alveolar wall. [7] B line artifacts start from the pleural line, and are hyperechoic, or brighter than the surrounding field. Figure 5 demonstrates the vertical B lines and horizontal A lines parallel to and below the pleural line. A lines are the reverberation artifact of the pleural line. B lines move with lung sliding during respiration. In normal lung the B lines appear to “wipe” side to side over the stationary appearing A lines. The lack of B line movement also indicates pneumothorax.

B lines are key to identification of interstitial lung disease due to pulmonary fibrosis, pulmonary edema (cardiogenic and noncardiogenic), adult and neonatal respiratory distress syndrome, and other pathologies. [8] Several authors have identified different anatomic and causal mechanisms for the sonographic appearance of B lines. In 2009, Soldati et al conducted a 3 part study that included a retrospective analysis of pulmonary ultrasound images in patients with interstitial syndrome, a literature analysis, and an experimental model of artificially made lung tissue. This study concluded that reverberation artifact creating “ring-down” phenomenon is responsible for the appearance of B lines and this acoustic phenomenon is likely created by proximity of air bubbles with a critical radius. [9]

Due to the pleural traction created from underlying fibrotic lung and thickening of the interlobular septa, B lines

appear at least 7mm apart in interstitial lung disease. [10] Ground glass appearing lung on chest tomography appear on ultrasound as B lines that are at least 3mm apart. [11]

Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS) demonstrates rib spaces with multiple B lines, few B lines or no B lines. ARDS, while a diffuse lung disease, on CT imaging demonstrates areas of normal appearing lung interspaced with focal areas of edema. These “skip lesions” create the presence of varying numbers of B lines per rib space in a patient with ARDS.

In contrast to ARDS, respiratory distress syndrome (RDS) of the neonate lacks areas of normal lung. RDS is identified by a high density of B lines, also described as “white lung”, pleural line abnormalities, and the absence of “spared areas”. [12]

The lack of B lines is seen in pulmonary consolidation due to the replacement of the alveolar air with fluid or blood. Consolidated lung may appear homogenous or heterogenous. Doppler evaluation of lung assists with evaluation of a vascular blood supply indicating lung cancer rather than an infectious etiology of consolidation. [13]

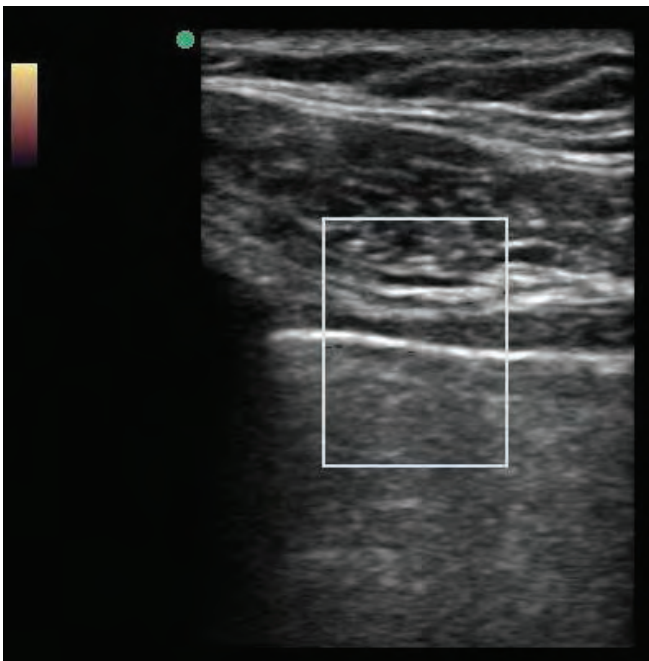


Figure 4: Power Doppler visualisation of pneumothorax

Lung that is compressed from pleural effusion, tumor, bronchial obstruction, or other atelectasis appears wedge shaped and brighter, or more echogenic. Pleural effusions and hemothorax are typically anechoic, or black, on ultrasound. Dynamic evaluation of the compressed lung demonstrates lung floating in an anechoic effusion. An inter-pleural distance of greater than 50mm at the lung base represents a pleural effusion of at least 800mL. [14] Figure 6 demonstrates a pleural effusion with compressed floating lung.

Several scanning protocols exist for pulmonary ultrasound. As a general rule of thumb, it is recommended to visualize more than one lung field, and over any area where there is clinical suspicion for pathology. The BRIPPED protocol is a screening tool for undifferentiated shortness of breath that may be performed with the patient in any position, and utilizes high and lower frequency probes using a portable bedside ultrasound machine.

BRIPPED Protocol:

The BRIPPED scan is an effective screening tool for undifferentiated shortness of breath that evaluates pulmonary B-lines, Right ventricle size and strain, Inferior Vena Cava (IVC) collapsibility, Pleural and Pericardial Effusion, Pneumothorax, Ejection Fraction of the left ventricle, and lower extremity Deep Venous Thrombosis.

B-lines: Sonographic pulmonary B-lines have been shown to correlate with congestive heart failure. [8-11, 15, 16] A high frequency linear probe is used to evaluate at minimum 2 mid clavicular apical lung windows.

RV strain: Right ventricular (RV) enlargement can be caused by a Pulmonary Embolus (PE), acute RV infarct, Congestive Heart Failure (CHF), pulmonary valve stenosis or pulmonary hypertension, and is a risk factor for early mortality in PE. [17] A low frequency phased array probe is used to evaluate RV strain in an apical 4 chamber view.

IVC-size and collapsibility: Using an IVC size cutoff of 2.0 cm has been shown to have a sensitivity of 73% and specificity of 85% for a Right Atrial Pressure (RAP) above or below 10 mmHg. The collapsibility during forced inspiration of less

than 40% has even greater accuracy for elevated RAP (sensitivity 91%, specificity 94%, NPV 97%).^[18] A low frequency phased array or curvilinear probe is used to visualize the IVC long axis, and dynamic imaging is used to assess collapsibility as either complete or less than 40%.

Pneumothorax: Bedside ultrasound is more accurate than supine chest x-ray with diagnostic ability approaching that of CT.^[19,20] The same windows for B-lines are utilized for pneumothorax screening. Additionally any area of decreased breath sounds, or crepitus palpated along the chest wall is evaluated for pneumothorax with a high frequency linear probe.

Pleural effusion: EUS has been shown to have an accuracy similar to a CXR for evaluation of pleural effusion.^[13,14] A low frequency phased array or curvilinear probe is used to evaluate each mid axillary line at the costophrenic angle in the sitting patient.

Pericardial effusion: EUS has a sensitivity of 96% and specificity of 98% compared to formal echocardiography.^[21] A low frequency phased array probe is used to evaluate pericardial effusion from an apical 4 chamber view and a parasternal long axis view of the heart.

EF: The qualitative assessment of left ventricular ejection fraction by emergency physicians has been shown to correlate well with an assessment by a cardiologist.^[22-24] The same low frequency probe and parasternal long axis used to evaluate pericardial effusion is used to evaluate ejection fraction. Dynamic qualitative assessment of ejection fraction is classified as normal, depressed, or severely depressed.

DVT in lower extremities: Ultrasound was performed by emergency physicians using a two point compression venous ultrasound on patients with suspected lower extremity DVT. This approach had a 100% sensitivity and 99% specificity in diagnosing DVT, compared to a reference venous ultrasound in radiology.^[25] A high frequency linear probe evaluates compressibility of the common femoral

and popliteal veins with dynamic scanning. If pretest probability is higher for DVT, then additional fields are included, starting below the inguinal ligament at the common femoral vein, and each segment of vessel is compressed every 2 cm to the trifurcation of the popliteal artery distally.

The BRIPPED protocol can be performed in its entirety from a head to toe approach, switching between transducers, or completing the exam with one transducer then switching to the next. An example of the latter would be to first use the low frequency probe to evaluate the parasternal long axis and apical 4 chamber, noting the presence or absence of pericardial effusion, ejection fraction, and RV strain. Then the long axis of the IVC is evaluated for dynamic collapsibility. Moving laterally, the costophrenic angles are evaluated bilaterally for pleural effusion. The probe is switched to the high frequency probe to evaluate each lung apex is evaluated in the mid clavicular line for the presence of pneumothorax and B lines. Lastly, the dynamic 2 point DVT screening is performed with compression ultrasound. The BRIPPED protocol and other bedside ultrasound resources can be viewed here:

<http://www.anatomyguy.com/b-ripped-scan-for-evaluation-of-emergency-department-patients-with-shortness-of-breath/>

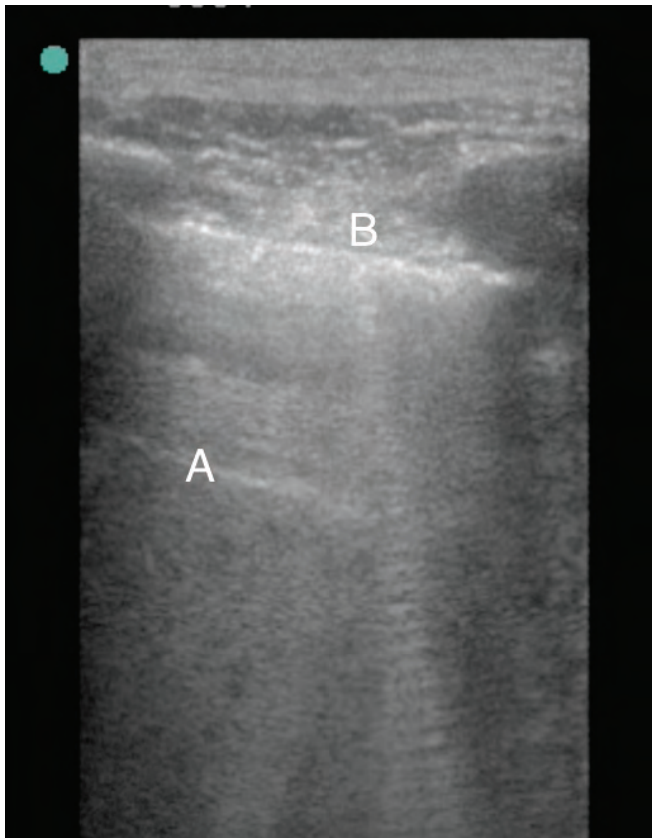


Figure 5: A line artifact (A) and B line or comet tail artifact (B)

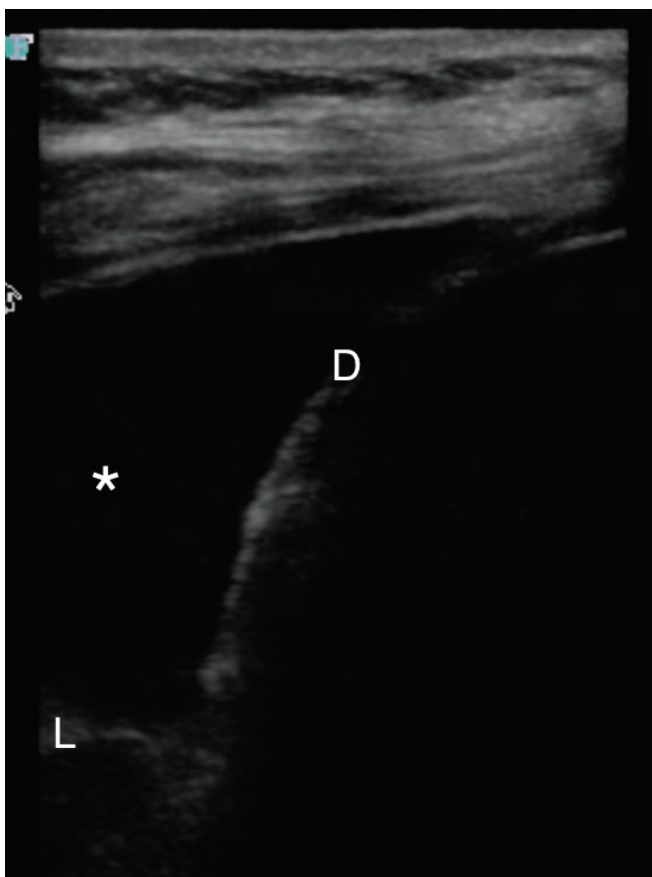


Figure 6: Large anechoic pleural effusion (*), diaphragm (D) and consolidated hyperechoic lung (L)

References:

1. Kirkpatrick, A.W., et al., *Hand-held thoracic sonography for detecting post-traumatic pneumothoraces: the Extended Focused Assessment with Sonography for Trauma (EFAST)*. J Trauma, 2004; 57(2): 288-95.
2. Jalli R, Sefidbakht S, Jafari SH. Value of ultrasound in diagnosis of pneumothorax: a prospective study. Emerg Radiol 2013; 20:131
3. Wilkerson RG, Stone MB. Sensitivity of bedside ultrasound and supine anteroposterior chest radiographs for the identification of pneumothorax after blunt trauma. Acad Emerg Med 2010; 17:11.
4. Raja AS, Jacobus CH. How accurate is ultrasonography for excluding pneumothorax? Ann Emerg Med 2013; 61:207.
5. Alrajhi K, Woo MY, Vaillancourt C. Test characteristics of ultrasonography for the detection of pneumothorax: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Chest 2012; 141:703.
6. Alrajab S, Yousset AM, Akkus NI, Caldito G. Pleural ultrasonography versus chest radiography for the diagnosis of pneumothorax: review of the literature and meta-analysis. Crit Care 2013; 17:R208.
7. O'Connor AR, Morgan WE. Radiological review of pneumothorax. BMJ 2005; 330:1493.
8. Lichtenstein D, Meziere G, Biderman P, Gepner A, Barre O. The comet-tail artifact. An ultrasound sign of alveolar-interstitial syndrome. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 1997; 156:1640-6.
9. Soldati G, Copetti R, Sher S. Sonographic Interstitial Syndrome The Sound of Lung Water. J Ultrasound Med 2009; 28:163-174.
10. Reibig A, Kroegel C. Transthoracic sonography of diffuse parenchymal lung disease: the role of comet tail artifacts. J Ultrasound Med. 2003;22:173-180.
11. Rumack CM, Wilson SR, Charboneau JW. *Diagnostic Ultrasound*. 3rd ed. St. Louis, MO: Mosby; 2004.
12. Copetti R, Cattarossi L, Macagno F, Violino M, Furlan R. Lung Ultrasound in respiratory distress syndrome: a useful tool for early diagnosis. Neonatology. 2008;94(1):52-9.
13. Wernecke K. Sonographic features of pleural disease. AJR AM J Roentgenol. 1997;168:1061-1066.
14. Vignon P, Chastagner C, Berkane V, et al. Quantitative assessment of pleural effusion in critically ill patients by means of ultrasonography. Crit Care Med. 2005;33:1757-1763.
15. Lichtenstein D, Meziere G. Relevance of lung ultrasound in the diagnosis of acute respiratory failure: the BLUE protocol. Chest. 2008;134:117-125.
16. Liteplo, A.S., et al., *Emergency thoracic ultrasound in the differentiation of the etiology of shortness of breath (ETUDES): sonographic B-lines and N-terminal pro-brain-type natriuretic peptide in diagnosing congestive heart failure*. Acad Emerg Med, 2009; 16(3):201-10.
17. Kucher, N., et al., *Prognostic role of echocardiography among patients with acute pulmonary embolism and a systolic arterial pressure of 90 mm Hg or higher*. Arch Intern Med, 2005; 165(15):1777-81.
18. Brennan, J.M., et al., *Reappraisal of the use of inferior vena cava for estimating right atrial pressure*. J Am Soc Echocardiogr, 2007; 20(7):857-61.
19. Kirkpatrick, A.W., et al., *Hand-held thoracic sonography for detecting post-traumatic pneumothoraces: the Extended Focused Assessment with Sonography for Trauma (EFAST)*. J Trauma, 2004; 57(2): 288-95.
20. Xirouchaki N, Magkanas E, Vaporiiid K, et al., *Lung ultrasound in critically ill patients: Comparison with bedside chest radiography*. Intensive Care Med, 2011; 37(9):1488-1493.
21. Mandavia, D.P., et al., *Bedside echocardiography by emergency physicians*. Ann Emerg Med, 2001; 38(4):377-82.
22. Alexander, J.H., et al., *Feasibility of point-of-care echocardiography by internal medicine house staff*. Am Heart J, 2004; 147(3): 476-81.
23. Moore, C.L., et al., *Determination of left ventricular function by emergency physician echocardiography of hypotensive patients*. Acad Emerg Med, 2002; 9(3):186-93.
24. Randazzo, M.R., et al., *Accuracy of emergency physician assessment of left ventricular ejection fraction and central venous pressure using echocardiography*. Acad Emerg Med, 2003; 10(9): 973-7.
25. Crisp, J.G., L.M. Lovato, and T.B. Jang, *Compression ultrasonography of the lower extremity with portable vascular ultrasonography can accurately detect deep venous thrombosis in the emergency department*. Ann Emerg Med, 2010; 56(6): 601-10.



RIVERSIDE

Mailing Address:

500 J Clyde Morris Blvd
Department of Emergency Medicine
Newport News, VA 23601

t: (757) 594 2000

w: www.rmgultrasound.com