

RADIOLOGICAL INTERVENTION IN ANESTHESIA

Essay

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of Master Degree in Anesthesia*

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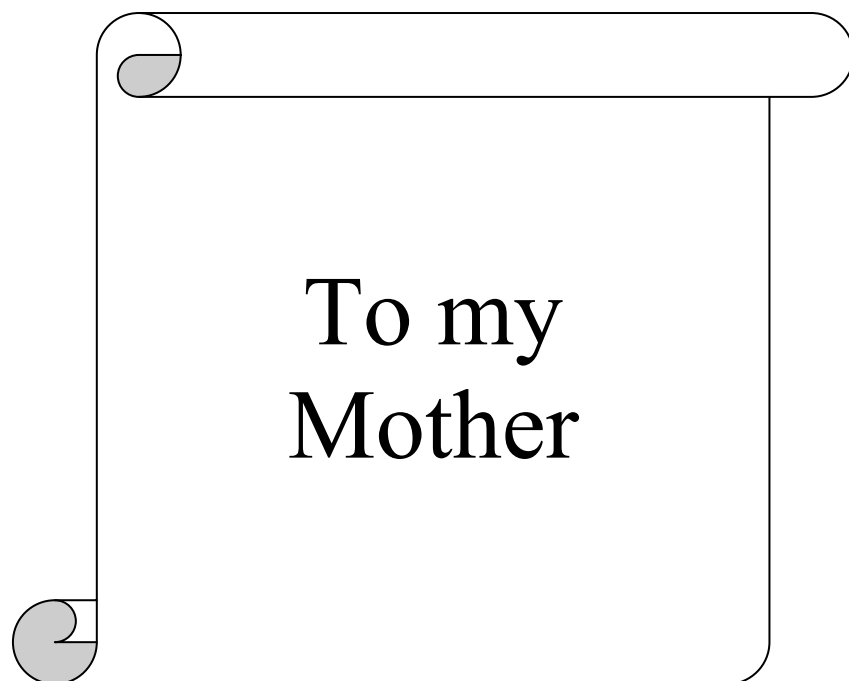
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To my
Mother

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AVM	: Arterio-venous malformation
CBF	: Cerebral blood flow
CBFV	: Cerebral blood flow velocity
CI	: Cardiac index
CPB	: Celiac plexus block
CPP	: Cerebral perfusion pressure
CT	: Computed tomography
CTF	: Computed tomography fluoroscopy
CW Doppler	: Continuous wave Doppler
EBCT	: Electron beam tomography
Hz	: Hertz
ICP	: Intracranial pressure
IGCT	: Inverse geometry tomography
IJV	: Internal jugular vein
IR	: Intensity of reflection
JVP	: Jugular venous pressure
LVEDA	: Left ventricle end diastolic area
LVEDV	: Left ventricle end diastolic volume

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

LVOT	: Left ventricle outflow tract
MABP	: Mean arterial blood pressure
MCAFV	: Mean cerebral artery flow velocity
MRI	: Magnetic resonance imaging
MRSI	: Magnetic resonance spectroscopic imaging
MVA	: Mitral valve area
NMR	: Nuclear magnetic imaging
PW Doppler	: Pulsed wave Doppler
RF	: Radio frequency
SAH	: Subarachinoid heamorrhage
TCD	: Transcranial Doppler
TEE	: Transesophagel echo
THR	: Transient hyperemia response test
US	: Ultrasound
VBM	: Voxel – based morphology



INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Common interventional imaging methods include X-ray fluoroscopy, computed tomography (CT), ultrasound (US), and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Fluoroscopy and computed tomography use ionizing radiation that may be potentially harmful to the patient and. However, both methods have the advantages of being fast and geometrically accurate. Ultrasound suffers from image quality and tissue contrast problems, but is also fast and inexpensive. Magnetic resonance imaging provides superior tissue contrast, at the cost of being expensive and requiring specialized instruments that will not interact with the magnetic fields present in the imaging volume (*Ashton et al., 1999*).

As time goes by radiological intervention becomes increasingly useful to the anesthesiologist for patient monitoring, intra operative diagnosis and research. Advances in this technology brings increasing number of of indications for the usage. However, this technology is complex and anesthesiologists wishing to make full use of it will likely have to study a lot of information concerning its basic principles and methods of application (*Bashein, 1993*).

One of the best of those radiological means is Ultrasound, which creates its image by emitting high frequency acoustic pulses from a piezoelectric crystal

transducer and allowing the sonic pulses to travel through soft tissues. Because tissues of various types possess different acoustic properties, each interface causes a small portion of pulse energy to be reflected as an echo. The return of these echos to the transducer generates a small voltage signal (*Arnold et al.*, 1988).

The Second radiological modality that will be discussed is Computerized tomography (CT scan) which has become the most widely used procedure by providing a series of tomographic axial slices of the head and body. The CT has provided lots of help to the anesthesiologist by both featuring the anatomy of the area of interest and mapping out the way by which can apply the different techniques to reach the desired space in human body. Example for that would be CT guided epidural anaesthesia.

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is a new imaging modality that depends on magnetic fields and radio-frequency pulses for the production of the its images. Due to its special characteristics MRI is excellent for imaging of soft tissues and differentiate them from the surroundings. However, certain precautions must be taken to allow anesthesia equipment to work in that magnetic field without being affected by the surrounding magnetic energy. (*Ashton et al.*, 1999).

BASIC PRINCIPLES

I- Ultrasound

Nature of sound:

A sound wave is a mechanical disturbance that is propagated through a liquid, solid or gas medium. Sound waves do not propagate in vacuum. Sound waves are produced by vibrating sources. Vibrations of the source produce vibration of the adjacent molecules in the medium, which push against molecules that are more distal and so forth. The resulting mechanical disturbance travels away from the source at the speed of sound. Sound waves result in energy that is being transmitted through the medium but with no net displacement of the medium's particles. When the sound source is turned off, the particles remain in position they would have been without the wave present (*Sabbagha, 1994*).

Longitudinal and transverse sound waves:

When a sound wave travels through a medium, the particles in that medium are displaced in a direction that is parallel to the direction of travel of the sound wave. This is called a longitudinal wave. It is possible in some media such as quartz and direction of vibration of particles is perpendicular to the direction of travel of the wave. These are called transverse waves. In the body, they can propagate through bone. However, transverse

waves will not propagate through soft tissue (*Sabbagha, 1994*).

Diagnostic ultrasound transducers are designed to produce longitudinal sound waves, because only longitudinal waves can be transmitted through soft tissues.

What is Ultrasound?

The normal range of sound that human beings can perceive is 20-20,000 Hz. A sound wave of a frequency higher than 20,000 Hz is called ultrasound. For medical purposes, frequencies between 1 and 15 MHz (mega Hertz) are used (*Rolandi et al., 1993*).

Production of ultrasound:

When electrical current is applied to each side of a piece of quartz coated with silver, the quartz expands or contracts from its original thickness, depending on the polarity of the current applied. This phenomenon is called a piezoelectric effect, and a substance with this property is called a piezoelectric element. When a piezoelectric element returns to its original shape and the energy produced is propagated to the surrounding media as ultrasound. The frequency of ultrasound is a function of the physical characteristics of the crystal itself. When a piezoelectric element is physically compressed by externally applied ultrasound, it produces a current. Hence, the piezoelectric element

serves a dual function as both transmitter and receives (*Higashi et al., 1991*).

Attenuation and time gain compensation:

Because the sound is propagated by oscillations of the conduction medium part of its energy is lost in this process. The degree of this attenuation of ultrasound is directly proportional to its frequency. This tends to limit the maximum distance that the higher frequency ultrasound can penetrate before it is completely absorbed. Since the intensity of ultrasound decreases as it travels through the medium, the echo apparatus incorporates a mechanism to amplify echoes from greater depth. This mechanism is called time gain compensation (*Higashi et al., 1991*).

Reflection, refraction, and scattering of ultrasound:

The principle characteristic of ultrasound that forms the basis for its use in imaging is its reflection from surfaces encountered in its path. A surface can be defined as the interface between two media of different acoustic impedance (z), which is determined by density and velocity of sound conductance of individual materials. If the surface is large with respect to the wavelength of the sound, then the reflection is specular or mirror like and the angle of reflection is equal to the angle of incidence of the wave. The intensity of a secularly reflected wave (IR) is proportional to that of

the incident wave (I_i) and the difference in impedances (Z_1, Z_2) of the adjacent media (*Collins et al., 1997*).

If on the other hand, the reflection surface is small in comparison to the sound wavelength specular reflection is not observed, but the waveform is scattered, with only a small portion of its energy being reflected to the source. Also, irregularities in a large surface can act as individual small surfaces and cause significant scattering of ultrasound beam. Thus using higher frequency, shorter wavelength ultrasound, enhances desirable specular reflection. As noted, a reflected wave indicates that the surface exists between different media. Knowing the velocity of ultrasound (v) and the time (t) required for transmission and reflection determines the distance (d) of the surface from the transducer: $d = vt/2$ (*Michael, 1994*).

Resolution:

Resolution refers to the ability to separate two small objects that are placed close to each other (*Higashi et al., 1991*).

Choice of ultrasound frequency:

As mentioned before, the amount of attenuation of ultrasound is directly proportional to its frequency. This frequency ultrasound can penetrate before it is completely absorbed. On one hand, the higher

frequencies allow better resolution of the details of the internal organs of the human body. Echocardiography typically involves intermittent pulses of ultrasound waves with a frequency of 2.0 to 5.0 MHz. Frequencies greater than 5.0 MHz are not routinely used in echocardiography because penetration into tissues is too limited (penetration is inversely related to frequency). Frequencies less than 2.0 MHz are not routinely used because resolution of small objects is too limited (resolution is directly related to frequency). Ultrasound waves in the range of 2.0 to 5.0 MHz provide tissue penetration of 10 to 20 cm and resolve objects 1 mm or less in size (*Michael, 1994*).

Imaging Modes:

1- A (*Amplitude*) mode:

It provides display of the amplitude of the echo signals in relation to the distance from the probe along a single observation direction. The height of a peak is influenced not only by the difference in the media that define the particular surface, but also by the distance of the object from the transducer. This points to the importance of time gain compensation to correct for ultrasound attenuation.

2- B (*Brightness*) mode:

B mode display converts a mode peaks to dots of an intensity that is proportional to the amplitude of the signal (*Michael, 2000*).