超音波による大動脈・末梢動脈病変の標準的評価法(案)

日本超音波医学会用語·診断基準委員会 委員長 貴田岡正史

大動脈・末梢動脈超音波診断ガイドライン小委員会(50音順)

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【はじめに】

「脈管」とは動脈・静脈及びリンパ管の総称であり、動脈と静脈を「血管」と称している. 血管疾患には動脈疾患(脳・頸動脈, 大動脈, 腹部・腎・末梢などの疾患)と静脈疾患(深部静脈血栓症など)がある. 近年では動脈硬化性疾患の増加に伴い,無(低)侵襲的に動脈疾患を診断する方法などが注目され関心も高まってきた. 動脈は全身に分布するため, 全身の臓器と共に, 動脈疾患の診断では動脈の特性やその特異性に注目する必要がある.

【目的】

高齢化や生活習慣病(糖尿病,脂質異常症,高血 圧症,喫煙,肥満など)と関連し増加傾向にある動 脈硬化疾患である「大動脈・末梢動脈病変」の超音 波検査による標準的な評価方法を提示する.

【適応】

動脈疾患の病態には、閉塞(縮窄,狭窄,解離など)と拡張(瘤形成)及び瘻形成がある.

大動脈 (aorta) では、大動脈疾患・病態が疑われる場合で、大動脈解離 (偽腔閉塞型大動脈解離を含む診断、部位と範囲の評価)、胸部大動脈瘤、大動脈破裂、マルファン症候群その他結合織疾患における大動脈弁輪拡大、塞栓症を伴う大動脈硬化性疾患、大動脈の手術治療前後及び経過観察などが含まれる。次いで大動脈解離の経過観察、特に合併症や進行があると考えられる場合、マルファン症候群などの結合織疾患患者の近親者のスクリーニング (経

胸壁アプローチ), そして大動脈解離の治療後経過 観察も適応とする.

さらに腹部大動脈では、腹部拍動性腫瘤、腰痛、腹痛、下血、検診、動脈硬化性疾患または大動脈瘤の家族歴を有する例における大動脈瘤のスクリーニング、ステントグラフト(stent graft: SG)留置術後のリーク評価に用いられる.

その他に,慢性腸間膜動脈閉塞症,腹腔動脈起始 部圧迫症候群,急性腸間膜動脈閉塞症なども適応と なる

末梢動脈疾患(peripheral arterial diseases: PAD)の病態では、①末梢循環障害を疑わせる症状や所見がある場合(冷感、レイノー現象、運動痛、潰瘍、脈拍減弱、血圧低下など)、及び PAD の治療前後での観察、②動脈瘤の観察、③動静脈瘻の検出と評価などで適応がある.

【検査】

1)被検者の体位

被検者の体位は、仰臥位を基本とし、観察領域が 広く得られるように工夫する.経食道法では、左側 臥位が多い.

経胸壁アプローチ(Trans-thoracic echography)では、①大動脈基部~上行大動脈近位部:左傍胸骨アプローチ(左側臥位)、②上行大動脈中部~遠位部:右傍胸骨アプローチ(右側臥位)、③弓部~下行大動脈上部:胸骨上窩アプローチ(仰臥位)、④下行大動脈中下部:心窩部アプローチにて観察する.胸骨左縁から心臓をウインドウに観察する.腹部部からのアプローチで観察できる場合もある.腹部

¹松尾クリニック, ²埼玉医科大学国際医療センター心臓内科, ³九州大学医学研究院病態修復内科, ⁴国立循環器病センター生理機能検査部, ⁵関西電力病院臨床検査部, ⁶済生会熊本病院集中治療室, ⁷奈良県立医科大学中央内視鏡・超音波部, ⁸山口大学医学部附属病院検査部

は上腹部アプローチ,四肢は各部位での観察が可能 である。

経食道アプローチ(経食道エコー法: Transesophageal echography)では、上行、弓部、胸部下行大動脈の観察が可能である.

- a)被検者への説明:本来,エコー検査は無侵襲だが,必ず検査前にその目的(狭窄部位の評価など)や実施内容(プローブを検査部位へ当てるなど)について説明しておく.特に下肢では,下肢全体のみならず,腹部から「鼠径部」も含めて検索することを予め説明しておく.前処置などは不要であるが,プローブが当てられない部位(傷や手術創など)は検査できない.
- b) 検査時の注意:検査時は、下肢では腹部から 足部に渡って、特に疼痛や発赤・腫脹、圧痛の有無、 さらに脈拍や腫瘤などの有無を確認して開始する. また、骨盤部や鼠径部の検査時は、露出部位をバス タオル・検査着などで覆い、プライバシー保護と体 温保持に努める.

前処置は,経食道法では絶食,咽頭部麻酔,また, 症例により鎮静薬,降圧薬の投与を考慮する.

2) 探触子の選択

動脈超音波検査では、血管形態や走行深度から、 胸部ではセクタ型プローブを用いるが、胸骨上窩からの弓部、下行大動脈の観察には、マイクロコンベックス型プローブも有用である.

経食道アプローチ (**Fig. 1**) ではマルチプレーン 探触子を使用する.

腹部ではコンベックス型プローブを用いる.

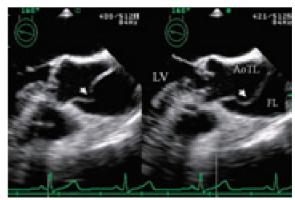
表在動脈(大腿~足背動脈)では高周波(5-10 MHz)リニア型プローブを用いる. しかし, 深部 (腹部大動脈・腸骨動脈の観察) では低周波(3-5 MHz)コンベックス型を用いると便利である.

(b) 検査機器の設定条件:血管内腔が明瞭に描出できる様に断層法をダイナミックレンジは55,フレームレートは推奨30以上に設定し、カラー流速レンジは50 cm/sec 程度に設定する.狭窄部位や仮性瘤の入孔部などで流速の速い部分(1.5 m/sec 以上となる)では、セクタ型(連続波ドプラ法併用)を用いる.

3) 画像の表示方法

(1) 超音波断層像

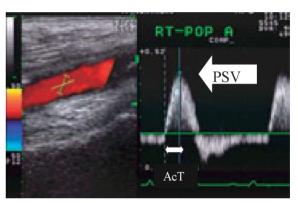
断層像は、被検者の右側、及び尾側(足側)から 眺めた像で表示する。



拡張期 収縮期 可動性フラップ(矢印)を認め,径も拡大し瘤を形成している。

(LV:左室, AoTL:真腔, FL:偽腔)

Fig. 1 解離性上行大動脈瘤の観察(経食道法)



RT: 右, POP A: 膝窩動脈, PSV: peak systolic velocity, AcT: acceleration time

Fig. 2 ドプラ法による表示 (左:カラードプラ法. 右:パルスドプラ法)

ただし表示画面にその方向を表示すれば、その限 りではない.

(2) カラードプラ法

カラードプラ法の表示色相は、原則的には探触子に向かう血流を赤色(暖色系)、遠ざかる血流を青色(寒色系)とする(Fig. 2). ただし、画面にカラーバーを表示すれば、その限りではない.

(3) パルスドプラ法

ドプラ血流波形の基線に対する血流方向の表示は, 探触子に向かう血流を基線より上方(正の方向), 遠ざかる血流(Fig. 2)を基線より下方(負の方向) に表示する. ただし, 血流方向を記載すればその限 りではない.

また,動脈と静脈との鑑別や,血流波形の評価を必要とする場合は,心電図の同時記録が有用である.

4) アプローチ方法

(1) 観察断面の設定

断層像による動脈超音波検査の観察は、血管短軸 断面(横断像)と血管長軸断面(縦断像)の2方向 で行うが、病変の評価には短軸断面によるアプロー チが有効である.ただし、短軸走査は前方と側方(斜 め方向)の2方向以上からアプローチし、互いに描 出不良な領域を補うように観察するよう努める.

(2) 観察領域

超音波検査の観察領域は、大動脈で胸部(上行、 弓部,下行)及び腹部とし、末梢動脈は左右共に総 腸骨動脈 (common iliac artery: CIA), 外腸骨動脈 (external iliac artery: EIA) (Fig. 3), 大腿動脈 (femoral artery: FA), 膝窩動脈 (popleteal artery: PoA) 及び下腿三分枝 (前脛骨 anterior tibial artery: ATA, 後脛骨 posterior tibial artery: PTA, 腓骨動脈 peroneal artery: PeA) などの観察可能な領域 (PTA 及び足背動脈 dorsalis pedis artery: DPA) とする. 必要に応じて内腸骨動脈 (internal iliac artery: IIA), 大腿深動脈(deep femoral artery: DFA)の動脈も観 察する. 尚, 臨床的な観点から, 大腿動脈の名称を, 総大腿 (common femoral artery: CFA), 浅大腿 (superficial femoral artrery: SFA), 深大腿 (deep femoral artery: DFA) と称することができる. また, 通常の末梢循環障害スクリーニングには FA、PA 及 び PTA, DPA を必須, IA は選択観察領域とする.

5) 評価項目の計測と記録

(1) 評価項目

動脈では、超音波検査を、虚血の評価や動脈瘤の評価に用いている.

検査項目は,血管径(狭窄,拡張,瘤径),血管 壁の状態(プラーク,血栓,潰瘍形成など)などで, 狭窄病変がある場合は狭窄率を評価する(Fig. 4). 狭窄病変を評価する際には,必須項目として面積狭 窄率を基本とし,必要に応じて径狭窄率を求める.

さらに狭窄部位での血流計測も同時に行うこととする.

また、血流ではカラードプラ法で、血流部位の評価、パルスドプラまたは連続波ドプラで血流波形、最高血流速度、立ち上がり時間を計測する(各論).

また,動脈瘤は部位,形態,瘤径を計測し,壁在 血栓の有無や周辺部位も併せて評価する.特に嚢状 瘤の場合は,仮性瘤との鑑別も要する.

なお、超音波による動脈の評価結果を報告する際

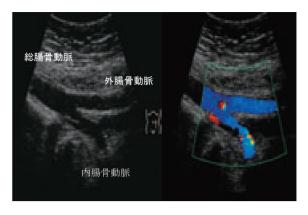
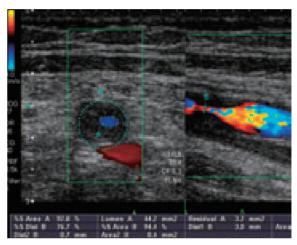


Fig. 3 腸骨動脈の観察 (コンベックス型, 断層法, カラードプラ法)



面積狭窄率 径狭窄率 (大腿動脈·左:横断像,右:縦断像)

Fig. 4 狭窄率の評価 (リニア型, 断層像)

には、正確に分かりやすく指示医・主治医に伝える ため、病変の有無や性状を図示して提示することを 推奨する.

(2) 動脈径の計測

狭窄や瘤形成の判定に用いる血管径の計測は、病変部を計測する。また、スクリーニング検査における動脈径の計測は、拍動する動脈の最小径時相または最大径時相のどちらかの断層像で行い、計測ポイントは内膜間距離または外膜間距離とし、報告書には計測部位と計測値を記載する。

また、Mモード又は心電図と同時記録ができる場合の動脈径計測の時相は、動脈の最小径、すなわち心拡張後期:心電図 QRS 波相とする (Fig. 5).

大動脈瘤の瘤径計測は、長軸像では瘤が最大と推測される断面の長軸直交最大径を計測する(Fig. 6a). 短軸像(推奨)では瘤が最大と推測される部位における長軸直交断面の直径(円形)あるいは短径(楕

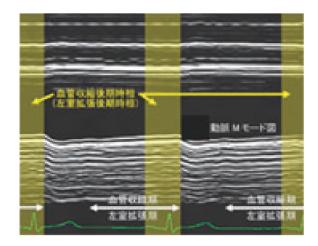


Fig. 5 血管径計測時の時相(QRS 波相:黄色帯部 位で計測)

円形)を計測する (大動脈は外膜間で計測). ただし, 限局拡張例では長径を計測する (Fig. 6 b).

(3) 可動性など

特殊な形態として、有茎性の可動性プラーク (mobile plaque) が描出される場合がある. このプラークは血栓性プラークが疑われ、血流に伴う可動性を示し、塞栓症に注意が必要とされている.

6) パルスドプラ法による血流検査

(1) サンプルポイントの設定 (Fig. 7)

血流のサンプルポイントは、狭窄部位では当該部 位に設定する.

狭窄のない場合は、良好な画像が得られる部位 (AA, EIA, CFA, SFA, DFA, PoA, PTA, DPA) に自由に設定してよい. しかし, 血管径が変化する部位, 血管分岐部付近, さらに血管の蛇行部は流速が一定せず, 血流の乱れが生じることがあり, 計測部位としては適切ではない.

サンプルサイズは、通常は血管径の1/2以上で血管内腔に収まるサイズとし、血管中央部に設定するが、狭窄部位では狭窄径を考慮したサンプルサイズに設定する。

ドプラ入射角は、計測誤差を考慮して 60°以内での記録を条件とするが、可能な範囲で入射角を小さくするように設定する (Fig. 7).

(2) 血流波形の計測

動脈の血流評価は、狭窄がない場合には両側の FA、PoA及びDPAとPTAで、良好な画像と入射 角が得られる部位で計測する.

また狭窄がある場合にはその狭窄部と狭窄の前後 部位で評価する.

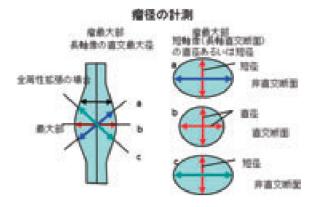


Fig. 6 a 紡錘状瘤の径計測(赤矢印が瘤径)

限局拡張の場合 瘤最大部(太い赤矢印が瘤径) 瘤最大部 長軸像の直交最大径 短軸像(長軸直交断面)の**長径** a 非直交断面 c 非直交断面

Fig.6b 嚢状瘤径の計測

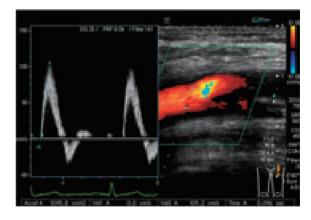
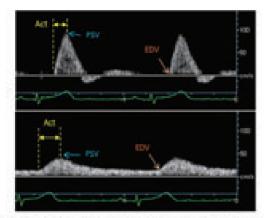


Fig. 7 パルスドプラ法での血流速度計測

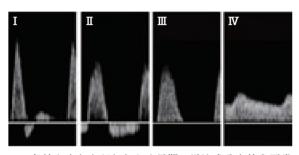
計測項目は収縮期最高血流速度 (peak systolic velocity: PSV), 拡張末期血流速度 (endo-diastolic velocity: EDV) などである (Fig. 2, 7, 8 a).

収縮期加速時間 (acceleration time: AcT, 100-120 msec 未満で正常), 収縮期最大流速/拡張末期



Act : Acceleration time , EDV: end disstolic velocity, PSI: peak systolic velocity

Fig. 8 a 血流速度波形の評価



- I 急峻な立ち上がりとかく長期に逆流成分を伴う正常 波形
- Ⅱ 拡張期の逆流成分が減弱,または連続的に続く
- Ⅲ 拡張期成分の消失と、収縮期波形がなだらかになる
- Ⅳ 収縮期,拡張期に連続する波形

Fig. 8b 動脈血流速度波形

流速比 (SD ratio), 抵抗係数 (resistance index: RI 値), 及び平均血流速度 (mean velocity) を用いて 拍動係数 (pulsatility index: PI 値) などを求める.

流速波形を半定量的に4から5段階に分け (Fig. 8b), 波形や乱流の有無, 狭窄前と狭窄部位 直後の PSV の比率 (peak systolic velocity ratio: PSVR = 狭窄部位直後 PSV/狭窄前 PSV) 等から狭窄度を推定できる (Table 1).

血流速の評価は狭窄部位の判定(流速 1.5 m/sec 以上は有意狭窄有り)に有用である。有意狭窄部位では、血流速が速くなっているので、カラードプラ法を用いながら、折り返し現象(aliasing:血流方向は同じだが、設定された血流速度以上に速くなると色や向き表示が逆の色や向きになる現象)のある部分を探す。

Table 1 末梢動脈狭窄の判断基準

狭 窄	径狭窄率	血流波形	乱流	PSVR
正常	0	三相性	無し	変化なし
軽 度	1 ~ 19%		有り	< 2:1
中等度	20 ~ 49%	二相性		< 2:1
高 度	50 ~ 74%	単相性		> 2:1
	75 ~ 89%			> 4:1
	90 ~ 99%			> 7:1

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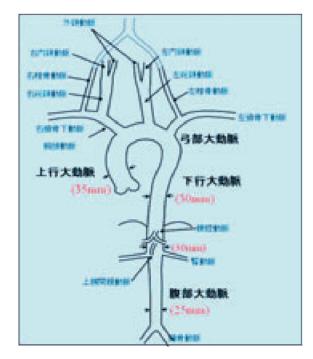


Fig. 9 標準的な大動脈径 (例)

7) 拡張性病変の評価

(1) 動脈の拡張性病変

a) 正常径: 部位別に観た血管径を Fig. 9 に示す. また末梢動脈の目安としては、腸骨動脈は 13-7 mm, 大腿動脈径約 10-7 mm・流速約 80 cm/sec, 膝窩動脈径約 7-5 mm・流速約 60 cm/sec, 足背及び後脛骨動脈径約 3-2 mm・流速約 30 cm/sec とされている.

b) 瘤の定義:動脈の局所が生理的限界を超えて 拡張した状態とし,広範囲に拡張した拡張症 (arteriomegaly) とは区別する. 拡張の程度は通常の同部 位動脈径の1.5倍を目安とする.

拡張した動脈を,超音波検査で判定することは容易である.動脈周囲にみられる低エコー腫瘤の鑑別に有用で,動脈との交通の有無で血腫と仮性瘤の鑑

Table 2 瘤の鑑別診断

· 部位別: 胸部 (thoracic; TAA: 上行, 弓部, 下行) 胸腹部 (thoracoabdminal; TAAA) 腹部 (abdominal; AAA)

・形態別:真性瘤;動脈壁構造を持ち瘤形成 (胸部 4.5 cm, 腹部 3 cm) 解離性;動脈壁内に新たな腔(偽腔)

仮性瘤;動脈壁外に新たな腔

形状:紡錘瘤, 嚢状

・原因別:動脈硬化性,炎症性,外傷性など

別が可能である.

動脈瘤(Table 2)の診断では、部位診断として、胸部(thoracic aortic aneurysm: TAA, 上行 ascending、弓部 arch、下行 descending)、腹部(abdominal aortic aneurysm: AAA)、腸骨、大腿、膝窩、鎖骨下、上腕、さらに内臓(肝、脾、腎、・・)で診断できる。瘤の形態は真性(内膜・中膜・外膜の三層構造あり:true)、解離性(中膜のレベルで二層に剥離して、新たな腔・偽腔を形成し拡張した場合:dissecting)、仮性(動脈内腔と交通した動脈外の腔:paeudo)に分かれる。形状は大きく紡錘状と嚢状に分ける。瘤ではサイズ(瘤径の計測法)を最大径(最大短径)で計測(Fig. 6)し、その分布範囲も記録する。更に、壁在血栓(mural thrombus)の有無やその性状(ACサイン:anechoic crescent sign:Fig. 10))や、随伴 所見のマントルサインなども観察する。

①大動脈瘤

大動脈の長軸, 短軸像を描出し, 大動脈経, 瘤の形状, 分枝血管との位置関係, 内腔や, 壁の性状を観察する. 胸部大動脈, 腹部大動脈の基準値はそれぞれ30-35 mm, 20 mmであり, 胸部では, 嚢状, 紡錘状で45 mm以上, 腹部では30 mm以上あれば瘤である.

胸部大動脈瘤では 60 mm 以上,腹部では 50 mm 以上,総腸骨動脈では 30 mm 以上で手術の考慮が必要である.バルサルバ洞動脈瘤・大動脈弁輪拡張 (AAE)・近位上行大動脈瘤・弓部 (Fig. 11) は経胸壁エコー法による観察が可能であり,さらに経食道エコー法を用いることにより,さらに詳細な観察が可能である.

バルサルバ洞動脈瘤では瘤化部の同定や短絡先の心腔を診断する. AAE は, バルサルバ洞の拡大とともに Sino-tubular junction のくびれの消失から始



層状の壁在血栓の部分的な液状化現象で,血流はない.

Fig. 10 a AC サイン伴う真性腹部大動脈瘤 (横断像)



解離との鑑別を要する真性腹部大動脈瘤・壁在血栓内の 「AC サイン」。

真性瘤の壁在血栓内 AC サインは血流が無く, 経過は慢性である. 解離では tear と flap があり, 偽腔内に血流を認める. (偽腔血栓閉塞型は急性期にのみ診断される)

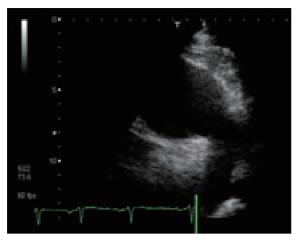
Fig. 10 b AC サインを伴う真性腹部大動脈瘤 (縦 断像)

まるため、大動脈基部~上行大動脈を観察するとともに、弁尖の形態、大動脈弁逆流の程度を観察する。 マルファン症候群では AAE の合併が多いため、特に注意が必要である.

②大動脈解離 (解離性大動脈瘤)

大動脈解離は生命を脅かす重篤な疾患であり、迅速かつ正確な診断が必要である.

大動脈解離の確定診断は解離したフラップ(内膜と中膜の一部から成る隔壁: Fig. 12)の描出により可能である。大動脈壁が剥離し、二腔になった病態(真腔: true lumen、偽腔: false lumen)が「大動



セクタ型プローブ. 弓部に嚢状瘤を認める. (Nishigami K. Journal of Echocardiography 2010 8:150-151より引用)

Fig. 11 真性弓部大動脈瘤



Circulation Journal, 2006. 70(Supplement IV) より引用. フラップは内膜と中膜の一部から成る隔壁. 内膜のみが剥離した病態とは異なる.

Fig. 12 大動脈解離の形態

脈解離」であり、径が拡大して瘤を形成した場合に 「解離性大動脈瘤」と称される。両者は、「瘤の有無」 で明確に区別される。

経胸壁エコー法にて、解離に伴う合併症の評価が必要であり、特に Stanford A型解離では心タンポナーデ、大動脈弁逆流の有無やその重症度、解離の冠動脈への波及に伴う左室壁運動異常の出現、胸水貯留の評価を行う。 経胸壁エコー法による大動脈解離の診断感度は 59~83%、 特異度 63~83%である (Fig. 13). 経食道エコー法での診断感度は 97~



セクタ型プローブ. 腹部大動脈にフラップを認めるが, 径の拡大は無いので,解離性大動脈瘤ではなく,大動脈解 離と診断する.

(Nishigami K. Journal of Echocardiography 2009 7(4):85 より引用)

Fig. 13 大動脈解離の超音波像 (腹部大動脈)

100%といわれるが、覚醒患者で経食道エコー検査を行う場合には、破裂予防のために血圧上昇がないように留意し十分な咽頭麻酔と鎮静下に行う.

経食道エコー法ではフラップは下行大動脈で最もよく観察できる. 偽腔閉塞型解離では偽腔が血栓で満たされた場合や血栓形成がほとんど進んでない場合もあるが, 経食道エコー法で血流状態を描出することにより鑑別が可能である.

③胸部大動脈粥状硬化病変の診断

a) 大動脈粥状病変

経食道アプローチにより胸部大動脈はほぼ全範囲で観察可能である。 粥状病変は大動脈弓部に高率に認められ、その程度も最も強い。 健常者では内膜は平滑であり、輝度の上昇もみられないが、粥状病変が進行すると内膜の肥厚、隆起性病変、石灰化病変、潰瘍性病変、嚢状病変が見られるようになる。

b) 大動脈硬化性病変

硬化性変化は大動脈 M モードを用い、大動脈の 心周期における径変化により評価する。動脈硬化度 を表わす指標 β (stiffness parameter) = \ln (SBP / DBP) / {(Dmax-Dmin) / Dmin} が定量に用いられる。 (Dmax:収縮期最大大動脈径、Dmin:最小大動脈径、 SBP:収縮期血圧、DBP:拡張期血圧)

④腹部大動脈瘤の診断

腹部瘤の存在(部位・腎動脈や上腸間膜動脈との 関連), 瘤型(解離, 真性, 仮性), 真性の場合は形 状(紡垂状・嚢状瘤),血栓の有無と性状(壁在血栓, AC サインの有無)及び炎症性瘤(マントルサイン の存在: Fig. 14)の鑑別を行う. 両者共に, 特に





Fig. 14 炎症性腹部大動脈瘤(矢印:外膜部が低エコー域)

解離との鑑別が必要である.

真性瘤ではその他の病態として arteriomegaly, Leriche 症候群, shaggy aorta, 人工血管やステントグラフト (SG) 挿入後の評価 (瘤径, 瘤内血流, ステント内血流, リークなどの評価) 及び動静脈瘻での評価にも用いられる.

瘤径の計測は前述の通り、部位は類円形で描出できる部位(Fig. 6)で計測し、計測距離は「外膜間距離」で計測するとCTによる計測部位と近似する.

⑤大動脈瘤治療後の観察

瘤人工血管置換・移植術やステントグラフト留置 術後のリーク評価に有用である.

⑥末梢動脈瘤

末梢動脈瘤でも動脈径・瘤径,瘤型,feeding arteryを同定して,治療方針の決定に寄与する.特に,末梢動脈瘤では医原性,感染性などに伴う仮性瘤に注意し,その鑑別には,to and fro pattern血流(Fig. 15)の有無が決め手となるため,入孔部の同定が重要である.

8) 腹部分枝への応用

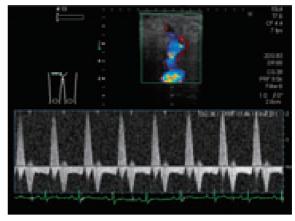
Class I 疾患として、慢性腸間膜動脈閉塞症と腹腔動脈起始部圧迫症候群があり、Class Ⅲとして急性腸間膜動脈閉塞症がある(日本循環器学会末梢閉塞性動脈疾患の治療ガイドライン).

ステントグラフト(SG)留置例でのSG外側の 血流シグナルの検出に有用である.

9) 末梢動脈の狭窄病変の評価

(1) 狭窄の評価

病変部位の確認 (輝度,石灰化,拡がり共),側 副路の有無をチェックし,各観測点での流速波形の 評価 (三相波,二相波,一相波)を行う.狭窄部で の血流速を測定し PSV 高流速の確認を行う.狭窄 病変の存在は、PSVR > 2 でも推定できる.



瘤孔部に to and fro pattern の血流を認める.

Fig. 15 仮性末梢動脈瘤(大腿動脈)



Fig. 16 カラードプラ法での径狭窄率の評価

①狭窄率の算定法

狭窄病変の評価は、血管造影と同様に「狭窄率」 を求めて定量診断する.

従来,超音波検査は血管造影と異なり血管腔と血管壁の性状が同時に観察できるので,狭窄率の計測方法は径狭窄率及び面積狭窄率が用いられる(Fig. 4).

この様に,算定方法で狭窄率の値が異なる為,報告書には必ず狭窄率の算定方法を記載する.

狭窄率を求める際の血管内径の計測には、可能な範囲でBモード断層像を用いる(Fig. 4). ただし、Bモード断層像が得がたく、カラードプラ法による血流表示をガイドにして計測した場合は、参考値であることを明記する(Fig. 16).

②不整形な狭窄断面での狭窄率の計測方法

末梢血管の狭窄断面は楕円形や半月状などの不整 形を呈することも多く、長軸断面では適切な評価が

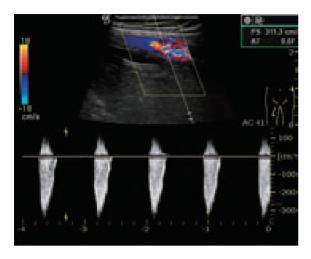
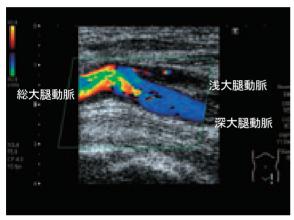


Fig. 17 狭窄部位の評価:ドプラ法



浅大腿動脈の閉塞

Fig. 18 閉塞部位の観察 (断層 + カラードプラ)

できないことがある. そこで,狭窄部の超音波断層像は,可能な限り血管短軸断面を用いた面積狭窄率も求める.

③ドプラ法による狭窄率の推定

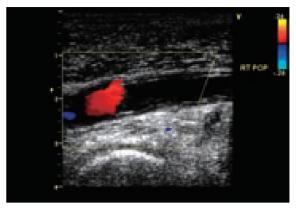
石灰化などにより狭窄部の超音波断層像が得がたい場合は、パルス及び連続波ドプラ法で狭窄部及び狭窄後の血流を記録し、収縮期最高血流速度(PSV)や拡張末期血流速度(EDV)などを参考に、狭窄率を推定することができる.

狭窄部の PSV が 1.5 m/sec を超える場合に有意 とされている (**Fig. 17**).

また、重症の狭窄病変では、狭窄部位の末梢側の血流はAcTの延長や乱流が認められる.

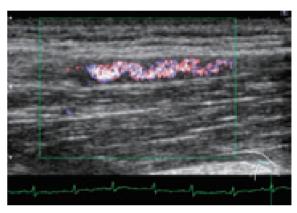
(2) 閉塞の評価

狭窄病変が進行して閉塞を来した場合の評価は、 断層とドプラ法で行う(Fig. 18).



(Nishigami K et al. Journal of Echocardiography 2009 7 (4):70-73 より引用)

Fig. 19 急性動脈閉塞(膝窩動脈閉塞)



閉塞後の再疎通所見と思われる. 血管炎でみられることが多い.

Fig. 20 コルクスクリューサイン (上腕動脈)

(3) 病態の評価

末梢動脈の狭窄病変の病因には種々の病態がある. 下肢では、腸骨動脈病変である場合は ASO, 高安病, 動静脈瘻, 外腸骨内膜線維症, 大腿では ASO, バー ジャー病(thromboangiitis obliterans: TAO), 遺残 坐骨動脈, 大腿動脈瘤に伴う病変, 膝窩動脈では ASO, 膝窩動脈捕捉症候群, 外膜嚢腫, TAO, 急 性動脈閉塞(Fig. 19), 線維筋性異形性(FMD), 膝窩動脈瘤に伴う病変, 膝下では ASO と TAO な どを考慮する. 上肢では, ASO, 高安病, TAO: Fig. 20, 動脈瘤に伴う病変, 動静脈瘻, 胸郭出口 症候群等を評価する.

(4) 治療後経過の観察

エコーでは、カラードプラ法も併用すると、血管 内治療部位やステント内腔の形態も観察できる (Fig. 21). ステント内部での血流速度の測定は、 基部、中央部及び末梢部の各部位で計測し、ステン

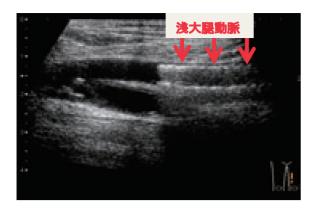


Fig. 21 大腿動脈ステント治療後の観察



Fig. 22 大腿動静脈瘻の超音波所見、カラードプラ 法では、動脈と静脈の交通部にモザイク血 流を認める。高流速の動脈拍動を伴う連続 性血流も認める

ト内の「血流増加」所見から再狭窄を判定する.

10) 瘻形成

解剖学的に動脈と静脈の間に異常な交通路がある 状態で、動脈血が静脈内に混入して酸素飽和度の上 昇と静脈圧上昇を来す、小さな瘻は血行動態に影響 しないが、大きくなると影響する、先天性(血管形 成不全)と続発性(外傷, 医原性)がある.

断層法とカラードプラ, さらに連続波ドプラ法も 用いて, シャント血流の存在や程度により瘻孔部, 血流方向などを判定できる (**Fig. 22**).

付記

今回の標準的評価法作成に当たり,2011年現在 での報告や施行状況から指標や実施法を作成したが, 今後の研究や報告により改訂が必要となる内容もあ ることを付記する.

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Standard method for ultrasound evaluation of aortic and peripheral arterial lesions (draft)

Terminology and Diagnostic Criteria Committee, Japan Society of Ultrasonic in Medicine

Chairman Masafumi KITAOKA

Ultrasonic diagnostic criteria committee of aortic and peripheral arterial lesions

Chairman Hiroshi MATSUO¹ Vice Chairman Makoto MATSUMURA²

Members Keita ODASHIRO³, Yoshinori KUBOTA⁴, Hiroshi SATO⁵, Kazuhiro NISHIGAMI⁶,

Toshiko HIRAI⁷, Kazuya MURATA⁸

Introduction

"Vessel" is a generic term for arteries, veins, and lymphatic vessels, and arteries and veins are called "blood vessels." Vascular disease is comprised of arterial disease (diseases of cerebral/carotid arteries, aorta, and arteries in the abdomen/kidney/periphery, etc.) and venous disease (e.g., deep venous thrombosis). With an increase in arteriosclerotic disease in recent years, methods for diagnosing arterial disease that are noninvasive and minimally invasive have been attracting more and more attention. Because arteries are located throughout the body, attention must be paid to all organs in the body as well as to the characteristics and specificity of arteries when diagnosing arterial disease.

Objectives

This report is aimed at providing a standard method for ultrasound assessment of "aortic and peripheral arterial lesions," which are forms of arteriosclerosis that are on the rise in association with aging and lifestyle-related diseases (e.g., diabetes mellitus, dyslipidemia, hypertension, smoking, obesity).

Indications

The pathology of arterial disease is comprised of occlusion (e.g., coarctation, stenosis, dissection) and dilatation (aneurysm formation) and fistulization.

In the case of the aorta, if an aortic disorder/pathologic condition is suspected, this method is indicated before and after surgical treatment and monitoring of aortic dissection (diagnosis including thrombosed type aortic dissection, assessment of site and scope), thoracic aneurysm, aortic rupture, annulo-aortic ectasia in Marfan's syndrome and other connective tissue diseases, and aortosclerotic disease with embolism. Next, it is indicated for monitoring of aortic dissection, especially screening of close relatives of patients with connective tissue disease such as Marfan's syndrome (transthoracic approach) if complications or progression are suspected, and follow-up after treatment of aortic dissection.

In the case of the abdominal aorta, it is used for abdominal pulsatile masses, low back pain, abdominal pain, melena, medical examinations, screening for aortic aneurysms in patients with a family history of arteriosclerotic disease or aortic aneurysm, and leak assessment after stent graft replacement.

It is also indicated for chronic superior mesenteric

¹Matsuo Clinic, ²Saitama Medical University International Medical Center, Division of Cardiology, ³Department of Medicine and Biosystemic Science, Kyushu University, ⁴National Cerebral and Cardiovascular Center, The Laboratory of Clinical Physiology, ⁵Kansai electric power Hospital, division of Laboratory, ⁶Department of Critical Care and Cardiology, Saiseikai Kumamoto Hospital, ⁷Department of Endoscopy and Ultrasound, Nara Medical University, ⁸Division of Laboratory, Yamaguchi University Hospital

arterial (SMA) occlusion, compression syndrome at the origin of the celiac artery, and acute SMA occlusion, etc.

In the case of peripheral arterial disease (PAD), it is indicated [1] when there are symptoms and findings suggestive of a peripheral circulatory disorder (e.g., numbness, Raynaud's phenomenon, pain on motion, ulcer, decreased pulse, hypotension) and observation before and after treatment of PAD, [2] for observation of aneurysms, and [3] for detection and assessment of arteriovenous fistulas.

Examination procedure

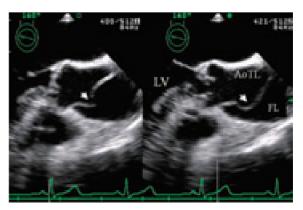
1) Posture of the patient

Usually, the patient is observed in a supine position, with adjustments made to achieve a wide observational area. In the case of the transesophageal approach, a left supine position is common.

In the case of the transthoracic approach (transthoracic echography: TTE), observe [1] the aortic root to the proximal ascending aorta using the left parasternal approach (left supine position), [2] the middle to distal ascending aorta using the right parasternal approach (right supine position), [3] the arch to the upper descending aorta using the suprasternal approach (supine position), and [4] the middle to lower descending aorta using the epigastric approach. Observe the heart in the window from the left sternal border. It can sometimes be observed by an approach from the back. The abdomen can be observed using the upper abdominal approach, and the extremities can be observed at each site.

The ascending aorta, aortic arch, and thoracic descending aorta can be observed with the transesophageal approach (transesophageal echography: TEE).

a) Explanation to the patient: Echography is essentially noninvasive, but the purpose (e.g., evaluation of stenotic lesions) and nature (e.g., the probe will be placed on the area to be examined) of the examination should always be explained to the patient prior to the examination. In the case of the lower extremities, in particular, it should be explained to the patient beforehand that the area from the abdomen to the groin will also be examined. No preparation is necessary, but



Diastole Systole
A movable flap (arrow) is observed. Ascending aorta is dilated and an aneurysm has formed. (LV: left ventricle,
AoTL: true lumen, FL: false lumen)

Fig. 1 Observation of a dissecting aneurysm of the ascending aorta (transesophageal approach)

sites where the probe cannot be applied cannot be examined (e.g., injury and surgical wounds).

b) Precautions during examination: In the case of the lower extremities, begin the examination by checking for pain and redness/swelling, the presence of tenderness, and the presence of a pulse and masses from the abdomen to the feet. When examining the pelvic region or groin area, cover the exposed region with a bath towel or examination gown and otherwise make an effort to protect the patient's privacy and keep the patient warm.

In terms of preparation, have the patient fast and anesthetize the pharyngeal region when using the transesophageal approach, and consider administering a sedative or an antihypertensive drug depending on the case.

2) Selection of a probe

In the case of arterial ultrasonography, a sector probe is used for the thoracic aorta given the vascular morphology and depth, but a micro-convex probe is also useful for observation of the arch and descending aorta from the suprasternal space.

A multi-plane probe is used for the transesophageal approach (**Fig. 1**).

A convex probe is used for the abdominal region.

A high-frequency (5 - 10 MHz) linear probe is used for superficial arteries (femoral artery to dorsal artery of foot). However, a low-frequency (3 - 5 MHz) con-

vex probe is convenient for deep arteries (observation of abdominal aorta/iliac artery).

(b) Equipment settings: For tomography, set the dynamic range to 55 and the frame rate to the recommended 30 or higher, and set the color flow rate range to about 50 cm/sec to clearly depict the intravascular lumen. For areas with a fast flow rate ($\geq 1.5 \text{ m/sec}$) such as a stenotic lesion or the opening to a pseudoaneurysm, use a sector probe (with continuous wave Doppler).

3) Method of imaging

(1) Two-dimensional ultrasonography

In the case of two-dimensional ultrasonography, an image of the view from the right side of the patient, and from the caudal side (the foot side), is displayed.

This decision does not apply if the direction is displayed on the display screen.

(2) Color Doppler method

In principle, color Doppler displays blood flow moving towards the probe as red (warm color), and blood flow moving away from the probe as blue (cold color) (**Fig. 2**). This decision does not apply if a color bar is shown on the image.

(3) Pulse Doppler method

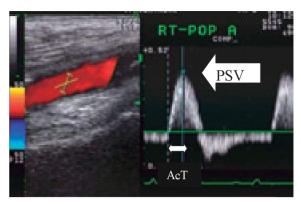
Pulse Doppler displays blood flow moving towards the probe as above (positive direction) the baseline Doppler blood flow pattern, and blood flow moving away from the probe (Fig. 2) as below baseline (negative direction). This decision does not apply if the orientation of blood flow is specified on the image.

Simultaneous ECG is useful if distinction of arteries from veins or evaluation of blood flow patterns is required.

4) Approach

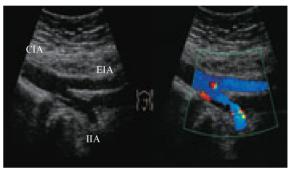
(1) Setting the cross-section to be observed

Two-dimensional arterial ultrasonography involves observation from two directions, i.e., the vascular short-axis view (transverse image) and the vascular long-axis view (longitudinal image), but a short-axis approach is effective for assessment of lesions. In the case of short-axis scanning, an effort should be made to observe the target by approaching from at least two directions, i.e., anterior and lateral (diagonal direction), so that inadequate depiction in one direction



RT: right, POP A: popliteal artery, PSV: peak systolic velocity, AcT: acceleration time

Fig. 2 Doppler display (left: color Doppler, right: pulse Doppler)



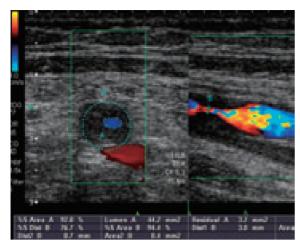
CIA: common iliac artery, EIA: external iliac artery, IIA: internal

Fig. 3 Observation of the iliac artery (convex probe, two-dimensional, color Doppler)

may be made up for by depiction in another direction.

(2) Scope of observation

The scope of ultrasound observation is the thoracic aorta (ascending, arch, descending) and abdominal aorta in the case of the aorta, and the bilateral common iliac artery (CIA), external iliac artery (EIA) (Fig. 3), femoral artery (FA), popliteal artery (PoA), lower leg trifurcation (anterior tibial artery (ATA), posterior tibial artery (PTA), peroneal artery (PeA)), and dorsalis pedis artery (DPA) in the case of peripheral arteries. If necessary, also observe the internal iliac artery (IIA) and deep femoral artery (DFA). From a clinical point of view, the femoral artery can be called the common femoral artery (CFA), superficial femoral artery (SFA), and deep femoral artery (DFA). In the case of screening for peripheral circulatory disorders, the FA, PA, PTA, and DPA are required, while the IA is an optional observational area.



Area stenosis rate Diameter stenosis rate (femoral artery, left: transverse image, right: longitudinal image)

Fig. 4 Evaluation of percent stenosis (linear probe, two-dimensional)

5) Measurement and recording of parameters

(1) Parameters

In the case of arteries, ultrasonography is used for evaluation of ischemia and evaluation of aneurysms.

Parameters include vascular diameter (stenosis, dilatation, aneurysm diameter) and the status of the vascular wall (e.g., plaque, blood clot, ulceration), and percent stenosis is evaluated when there is a stenotic lesion (**Fig. 4**). When evaluating a stenotic lesion, area stenosis rate is measured as an indispensable parameter, and diameter stenosis rate is additionally measured as needed.

In addition, blood flow through the stenotic lesion is also measured.

For blood flow, measure the blood flow site using color Doppler, and measure blood flow pattern, maximum velocity, and rise time using pulse Doppler or continuous wave Doppler (detailed discussion).

For aneurysms, measure the site, morphology, and diameter, and also evaluate the presence of mural thrombus and the peripheral sites. A saccular type aneurysm, in particular, requires differentiation from a pseudoaneurysm.

When reporting the results of an arterial ultrasound evaluation, we recommend presenting an illustration of the presence and characteristics of any lesions in order to accurately and plainly convey the findings to the doctor who ordered the examination or attending doc-

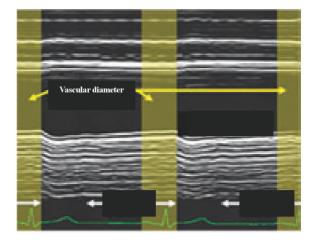


Fig. 5 Phase of vascular diameter measurement (QRS phase on ECG: measure at site of yellow band)

tor.

(2) Measurement of arterial diameter

Vascular diameters used for evaluation of stenosis and aneurysm formation are measured at the involved area. In screening tests, arterial diameter is measured on two-dimensional ultrasound images taken either during the minimal size phase or the maximal size phase. The diameter measured is the distance between the intimal layer and the opposite intimal layer or between the adventitial layer and the opposite adventitial layer. Include the measurement sites and measurement values in the report.

In M-mode ultrasonography or ECG-gated ultrasonography, arterial diameter is measured during the arterial minimal size phase, i.e., end-diastolic phase (QRS phase on ECG) (**Fig. 5**).

For measurement of aortic aneurysm diameter, measure the long-axis orthogonal maximum diameter of the section where the aneurysm is estimated to be the maximum size in the case of the long-axis view (Fig. 6 a). In the case of the short-axis view (recommended), measure the diameter (circle) or minor axis (oval) of the long-axis orthogonal section at the site where the aneurysm is estimated to be the maximum size (measure larger arteries between the adventitial layer and the opposite adventitial layer). However, measure the maximum diameter in patients with localized dilatation (Fig. 6 b).

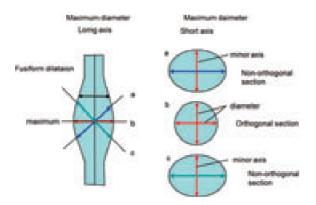


Fig. 6 a Measurement of diameter of fusiform aneurysm (The red arrow is aneurysm diameter.)

In cases of localized dilatation

Maximum dimension of aneurysm (solid red arrow is aneurysm diameter)

Orthogonal maximum diameter in long-axis view

Maximum diameter in short-axis view

Non-orthogonal section

Thogonal section

Non-orthogonal section

Non-orthogonal section

Fig. 6 b Measurement of saccular type aneurysm diameter

(3) Mobility, etc.

In terms of special morphology, pedunculated mobile plaque is sometimes found. This feature of plaque suggests that the plaque is thrombotic in nature. It is mobile with blood flow and requires particular care of the risk for embolism.

6) Pulse Doppler examination of blood flow

(1) Sampling points (Fig. 7)

In cases of stenosis, sampling points are set at the stenotic points.

In cases free of stenosis, sampling points may be set freely at points which will allow good depiction (AA, EIA, CFA, SFA, DFA, PoA, PTA, DPA). However, points showing a change in diameter, points near bifurcation, and tortuous points are not suitable as sampling points because of unstable flow rate and possible blood flow turbulence.

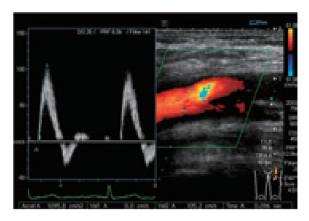


Fig. 7 Blood velocity measurement using the pulse Doppler method

Each sampling point usually should have a size equivalent to 1/2 or more of the vascular diameter and within the size of the vascular lumen. It is set at the center of the blood vessel, but in cases of stenosis the extent of stenosis is taken into account when setting the size of the sampling point.

The Doppler incident angle should be within 60 degrees out of consideration for measurement errors, but this angle should be set as small as possible (**Fig. 7**).

(2) Measurement of blood flow patterns

In cases free of stenosis, arterial blood flow is measured at points of bilateral FA and PoA, and DPA and PTA, where good depiction and incident angle are expected.

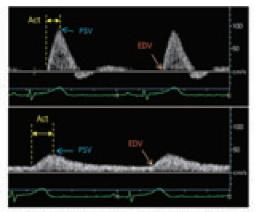
In cases of stenosis, this measurement should be done at and around the stenotic point.

Parameters measured include peak systolic velocity (PSV) and end-diastolic velocity (EDV) (**Fig. 2, 7, 8 a**).

Acceleration time (AcT, <100 - 120 msec is normal), peak systolic velocity/end-diastolic velocity (SD ratio), resistance index (RI), pulsatility index (PI, based on mean velocity), and so on are also calculated.

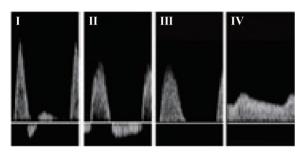
The degree of stenosis can be estimated by semiquantitatively dividing the flow rate pattern into four to five stages (**Fig. 8 b**) and estimating it based on the presence or absence of undulation or turbulence, the peak systolic velocity ratio (PSVR), and so forth (**Table 1**).

Evaluation of blood flow rate is useful in the assess-



Act : Acceleration time , EDV: end diastolic velocity, PSV: peak systolic velocity

Fig. 8 a Evaluation of blood velocity patterns



- I A normal waveform with precipitous rise and backflow component in the diastolic phase.
- II The backflow component in the diastolic phase attenuates, or continues in a continuous manner.
- III The diastolic component subsides, and the systolic waveform becomes gentle.
- IV A waveform that continues from systole to diastole.

Fig. 8 b Arterial blood velocity patterns

Table 1 Criteria for peripheral arterial stenosis

Stenosis	Diameter stenosis rate	Blood flow pattern	Turbulence	PSVR
Normal	0	Triphasic	Absent	No change
Mild	1% - 19%		Present	< 2:1
Moderate	20 - 49%	Biphasic		< 2:1
Severe	50 - 74%	Monophasic		> 2:1
	75 - 80%			>4:1
	90 - 99%			> 7:1

Partial modification of table in Guidelines for Noninvasive Vascular Laboratory Testing: A Report from The American Society of Echocardiography and the Society of Vascular Medicine and Biology. 2006

ment of stenotic sites (a flow rate ≥ 1.5 m/sec indicates the presence of significant stenosis). The blood flow rate is fast at sites with significant stenosis. Therefore, search for areas with aliasing (a phenomenon in which the direction of blood flow is the same

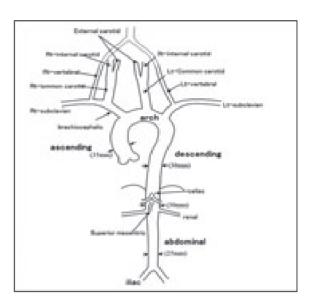


Fig. 9 Standard aortic diameters (example)

but the color or direction displayed becomes the opposite color or direction when the set blood flow velocity becomes fast; for example, blue becomes red or up becomes down) using color Doppler.

- 7) Evaluation of expanding lesions
 - (1) Expanding lesions of the arteries
- a) Normal diameter: Aortic diameters are shown in Fig. 9 by site.

In terms of general diameters and flow rates for the peripheral arteries, the iliac artery is 13 - 7 mm, the femoral artery has a diameter of about 10 - 7 mm and a flow rate of about 80 cm/sec, the popliteal artery has a diameter of about 7 - 5 mm and a flow rate of about 60 cm/sec, and the dorsalis pedis artery and posterior tibial artery have a diameter of about 3 - 2 mm and a flow rate of about 30 - 50 cm/sec.

b) Definition of aneurysm: A state in which part of an artery expands beyond its physiological limit. It is distinct from more widespread arteriomegaly. The extent of the dilatation is about 1 . 5 times the usual arterial diameter at the same site.

It is easy to assess a dilated artery by ultrasonography. It is useful for differentiation of a hypoechoic mass seen around an artery, and it is possible to differentiate a hematoma from a pseudoaneurysm by the presence or absence of communication with the artery.

In terms of regional diagnosis of aneurysms (**Table 2**), they can be diagnosed in the thoracic region (thoracic

Table 2 Differential diagnosis of aneurysms

- · By site: thoracic (TAA: ascending, arch, descending) thoracoabdominal (TAAA) abdominal (AAA)
- · By morphology

true aneurysm; aneurysm formation with arterial wall structure (thoracic: 4.5 cm, abdominal: 3 cm)

dissecting; a new lumen (false lumen) in the arterial wall

pseudoaneurysm; a new lumen outside the arterial wall

Shape: fusiform, saccular type

· By cause: arteriosclerotic, inflammatory, traumatic, etc.

aortic aneurysm: TAA, ascending, arch, descending), abdominal region (abdominal aortic aneurysm: AAA), ilium, thigh, popliteal fossa, subclavian, upper arm, and organs (e.g., liver, spleen, kidney). The morphology of aneurysms is categorized as true (having a trilaminar structure consisting of intima/tunica media/tunica adventitia), dissecting (detachment of a double layer at the level of the tunica media, and formation of a new lumen/false lumen with dilatation), or pseudo (lumen outside an artery communicating with the arterial lumen). The shape can be roughly divided into fusiform and saccular type. Measure aneurysm size (aneurysm diameter measurement) by maximum diameter (maximum short axis) (Fig. 6), and record the distribution range. In addition, monitor the presence of mural thrombus or its characteristics (anechoic crescent (AC) sign: Fig. 10), and findings such as the mantle sign.

[1] Aortic aneurysm

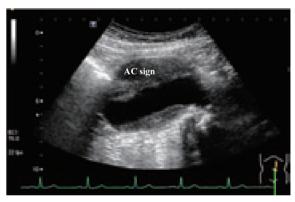
Depict the long-axis and short axis views of the aorta, and observe aorta diameter, aneurysm shape, positional relationship with branching blood vessels, lumen, and wall properties. The reference diameter of the thoracic aorta and abdominal aorta is 30 - 35 mm and 20 mm, respectively. An aneurysm is present if the thoracic aorta is saccular, or fusiform and ≥ 45 mm and the abdominal aorta is ≥ 30 mm.

Surgical intervention needs to be considered when a thoracic aneurysm is \geq 60 mm, an abdominal aneurysm is \geq 50 mm, and a common iliac artery aneurysm is \geq 30 mm. Sinus of Valsalva aneurysms, annulo-aortic ectasia (AAE), and proximal aneurysms of the as-



Partial liquefaction of a stratified mural thrombus with no blood flow.

Fig. 10 a True abdominal aortic aneurysm with AC sign (transverse image)

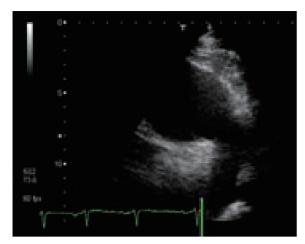


AC sign in true abdominal aortic aneurysm/mural thrombus requiring differentiation from dissection. The AC sign in a mural thrombus of a true aneurysm lacks blood flow, and the course is chronic. Dissection involves a tear and flap, and blood flow is observed in the false lumen. (Thrombosed type aortic dissection is diagnosed only in the acute phase.)

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} Fig.~10~b & True~abdominal~aortic~aneurysm~with~AC\\ & sign~(longitudinal~image) \end{tabular}$

cending aorta and arch (Fig. 11) can be observed by TTE. More detailed observation is possible by using TEE.

In cases of sinus of Valsalva aneurysm, identify the aneurysm sac and diagnose the cardiac chamber to which is it being shunted. AAE begins with sinus of Valsalva enlargement and disappearance of the constriction of the sinotubular junction. Therefore, ob-



Sector probe. A saccular type aneurysm is seen in the arch. (Source: Nishigami K. Journal of Echocardiography 2010 8:150-151)

Fig. 11 True aneurysm of aortic arch

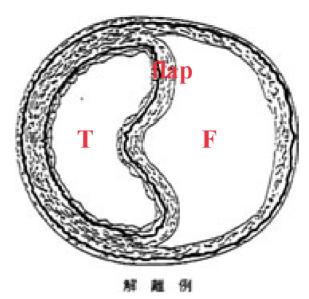
serve the aortic root to the ascending aorta, as well as leaflet morphology and the extent of aortic regurgitation. Particular care is required in Marfan's syndrome due to frequent involvement of AAE.

[2] Aortic dissection (dissecting aortic aneurysm)

Aortic dissection is a serious, life-threatening disorder that requires quick and accurate diagnosis.

Definitive diagnosis of aortic dissection can be made by depicting the dissecting flap (a partition consisting of part of the tunica intima and tunica media: Fig. 12). Aortic dissection is a pathologic condition in which the aortic wall tears and forms two lumens (true lumen and false lumen). When the diameter of the aorta expands and an aneurysm forms, it is called a dissecting aortic aneurysm. The two are clearly distinguished by the presence or absence of an aneurysm.

Complications associated with dissection need to be evaluated by TTE. In cases of Stanford type A dissection, in particular, evaluate cardiac tamponade, aortic regurgitation and its severity, occurrence of left ventricular wall motion abnormalities associated with involvement of dissection in the coronary arteries, and pleural effusion. The diagnostic sensitivity of TTE in cases of aortic dissection is 59 - 83%, and the specificity is 63 - 83% (**Fig. 13**). The diagnostic sensitivity of TEE is estimated to be 97 - 100%, but when performing TEE in awake patients, do so under adequate pharyngeal anesthesia and sedation, making sure that



Source: Circulation Journal, 2006. 70 (Supplement IV). The flap is a partition consisting of part of the tunica intima and tunica media. It differs from a condition in which only the tunica intima has detached. (T: true lumen, F: false lumen)

Fig. 12 Morphology of aortic dissection



Sector probe. A flap is observed in the abdominal aorta, but there is no diameter enlargement, so it is diagnosed as aortic dissection, not a dissecting aortic aneurysm. (Source: Nishigami K. Journal of Echocardiography 2009 7(4):85)

Fig. 13 Ultrasound image of aortic dissection (abdominal aorta)

blood pressure does not rise to prevent rupture.

The flap can best be observed at the descending aorta in the case of TEE. In cases of thrombosed aortic dissection, the false lumen may be filled with a thrombus or thrombus formation may have hardly progressed at all, but it can be differentiated by depicting blood flow status using TEE.

- [3] Diagnosis of atherosclerotic lesions of the thoracic aorta
 - a) Aortic atheromatous lesions

Almost the full range of the thoracic aorta can be observed by the transesophageal approach. Atheromatous lesions are frequently observed in the aortic arch, and their extent is most pronounced. In healthy individuals, the tunica intima is smooth and an increase in intensity is not seen, but intimal thickening, protruded lesion, calcified lesion, and saccular type lesion appear as an atheromatous lesion progresses.

b) Aortic sclerotic lesions

Evaluate sclerotic change by observing change in aorta diameter during the cardiac cycle using aortic M-mode. The index β (stiffness parameter) = ln (SBP/DBP)/{(Dmax-Dmin)/Dmin}, which expresses the degree of arteriosclerosis, is used for quantitation. (Dmax: maximum aorta diameter during systole, Dmin: minimum aorta diameter, SBP: systolic blood pressure, DBP: diastolic blood pressure)

[4] Diagnosis of abdominal aortic aneurysm

Diagnose the presence of abdominal aneurysm (site/association with renal artery or superior mesenteric artery), aneurysm type (dissecting, true, pseudo), shape (fusiform/saccular type aneurysm) in the case of true aneurysm, presence or absence of thrombus and properties (mural thrombus, presence or absence of AC sign), and inflammatory aneurysm (presence of the mantle sign: **Fig. 14**). In both cases, differentiation with dissection, in particular, is required.

In cases of true aneurysms, it is also used for evaluation of other conditions such as arteriomegaly, Leriche syndrome, and shaggy aorta, evaluation after insertion if an artificial vessel or stent graft (SG) (evaluation of aneurysm diameter, blood flow in aneurysm, blood flow in stent, and leaks, etc.), and evaluation of arteriovenous fistulas.

As mentioned above, measure aneurysm diameter at the site where it can be depicted as an oval (**Fig. 6**). The measurement distance will be similar to that at the measurement site for CT when it is measured between the adventitial layer and the opposite adventitial layer.

[5] Observation after aortic aneurysm treatment

It is useful for evaluation of leaks after graft replacement/ transplantation of aneurysm or stent graft placement.

[6] Peripheral aneurysms

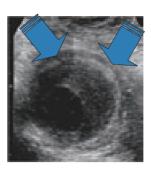
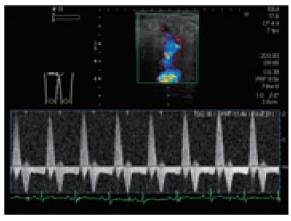




Fig. 14 Inflammatory abdominal aortic aneurysm (arrow: tunica adventitia is hypoechoic area)



Blood flow with a to-and-fro pattern is seen in the ostium.

Fig. 15 Pseudo peripheral aneurysm (femoral artery)

In cases of peripheral aneurysms, as well, identification of arterial diameter, aneurysm diameter, aneurysm type, and feeding artery contributes to determination of the treatment strategy. In cases of peripheral aneurysm, pay particular attention to pseudoaneurysms associated with iatrogenic or infectious disorders. Since the presence or absence of blood flow with a to-and-fro pattern (**Fig. 15**) will prove decisive for differentiation, identification of the opening is important.

8) Application to abdominal bifurcation

In terms of Class I disorders, it can be applied to chronic mesenteric vascular occlusion and celiac axis compression syndrome, and to acute mesenteric vascular occlusion in terms of Class III disorders (Guidelines for Management of Peripheral Arterial Occlusive Diseases, Japanese Circulation Society).

It is useful for the detection of blood flow signals outside the stent graft (SG) in patients who have undergone SG placement.

9) Evaluation of stenotic lesions of peripheral arteries

(1) Evaluation of stenosis

Confirm the site of involvement (intensity, calcification, broadening), check for the presence of collateral pathways, and evaluate the flow rate pattern (triphasic, biphasic, monophasic) at each observation point. Measure the blood flow rate at the stenosis and confirm peak systolic velocity. The presence of a stenotic lesion can be estimated with a peak systolic velocity ratio > 2.

[1] Method for calculation of percent stenosis

Like angiographic evaluation of stenosis, ultrasound evaluation of stenosis involves quantitative evaluation on the basis of calculation of percent stenosis.

Because ultrasonography allows simultaneous observation of vascular lumen and wall, unlike angiography, the method of measuring percent stenosis is based on the diameter stenosis rate and the area stenosis rate (**Fig. 4**).

Because different methods are available for calculation of percent stenosis, the method adopted needs to be specified in each report.

For measurement of the vascular internal diameter to calculate percent stenosis, B-mode ultrasound image is used, as far as possible (**Fig. 4**). In cases where B-mode image is difficult to obtain and the blood flow depicted by the color Doppler method is used as a guide for calculation of percent stenosis, the data should be labeled as reference data (**Fig. 16**).

[2] Method for calculation of percent stenosis on irregularly stenotic area

The stenotic lumen of peripheral blood vessels often assumes irregular forms (e.g., oval or crescentic forms), making it difficult to make appropriate evaluation of percent stenosis on long-axis view. For this reason, when evaluating a stenotic area on two-dimensional ultrasound images, calculate the area stenosis rate based on the short-axis view, whenever possible.

[3] Estimation of percent stenosis by Doppler method

In cases where two-dimensional ultrasound images of the stenotic area are difficult to take because of calcification or other reasons, percent stenosis may be es-



Fig. 16 Evaluation of diameter stenosis rate using color Doppler imaging

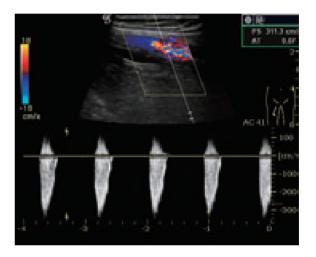


Fig. 17 Evaluation of stenotic site: Doppler method

timated on the basis of peak systolic velocity (PSV) or end-diastolic velocity (EVD), etc., by recording blood flow through the stenotic area and post-stenotic area with pulse Doppler or continuous wave Doppler method.

If PSV of the stenotic area exceeds 1. 5 m/sec, it is considered to be significant (**Fig. 17**).

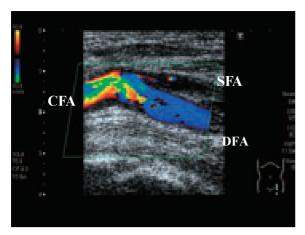
In cases of severe stenosis, the blood flow distal to the stenotic area may show acceleration time prolongation or turbulent flow.

(2) Evaluation of occlusion

In cases where progression of the stenotic lesion has caused occlusion, evaluate with two-dimensional and Doppler ultrasound (**Fig. 18**).

(3) Evaluation of pathogenesis

There are various pathologic conditions that cause



Occlusion of superficial femoral artery (CFA: common femoral artery, SFA: superficial FA,DFA: deep FA)

Fig. 18 Observation of occlusion (two-dimensional + color Doppler)

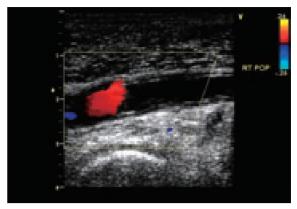
stenotic lesions of the peripheral arteries. In the lower extremities, consider arteriosclerosis obliterans (ASO), Takayasu disease, arteriovenous fistula, and external iliac endofibrosis in the case of iliac artery lesions; ASO, Buerger's disease (thromboangiitis obliterans (TAO)), and lesions associated with persistent sciatic artery aneurysm and femoral artery aneurysm in the case of femoral artery lesions; ASO, popliteal artery entrapment syndrome, adventitial cyst, TAO, acute arterial occlusion (Fig. 19), fibromuscular dysplasia (FMD), and lesions associated with popliteal aneurysm in the case of the popliteal artery; and ASO and TAO, etc., below the knee. In the upper extremities, evaluate ASO, Takayasu disease, TAO (Fig. 20), lesions associated with aneurysms, arteriovenous fistula, and thorax outlet syndrome, etc.

(4) Observation of post-treatment course

The morphology of the intravascular treatment site or stent lumen can be observed by combining color Doppler with echography (Fig. 21). For measurement of blood flow velocity in the stent, measure the velocity at the base, center, and peripheral parts, and assess restenosis based on "increased vascular flow" findings in the stent.

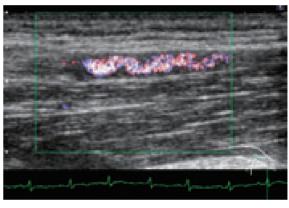
10) Fistula formation

This is a state in which an abnormal channel anatomically exists between an artery and a vein, whereby



(Source: Nishigami K. Journal of Echocardiography 2009 7 (4):70-73)

Fig. 19 Acute arterial occlusion (popliteal artery occlusion)



Thought to be recanalization after occlusion. It is often seen in cases of vasculitis.

Fig. 20 Corkscrew sign (brachial artery)

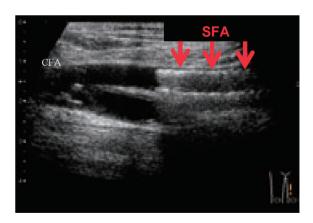


Fig. 21 Observation after femoral artery stent treatment (CFA:common femoral a., SFA: superficial femoral a.)

arterial blood enters the vein, causing elevated oxygen saturation and increased venous pressure. A small fistula will not affect hemodynamics, but a larger one

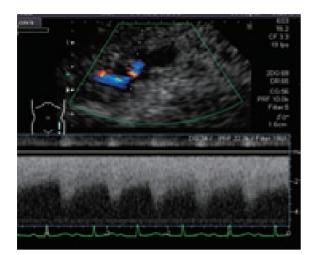


Fig. 22 Ultrasonographic observation of femoral arteriovenous fistula. On color Doppler, mosaic blood flow is observed at the communication between the artery and the vein. Continuous blood flow with a high-velocity arterial pulse is also observed

will. There are congenital (angiodysplasia) and secondary (traumatic, iatrogenic) fistulas.

The fistula opening and blood flow direction can be assessed by the presence or extent of shunt blood flow using two-dimensional and color Doppler ultrasound, as well as continuous wave Doppler (**Fig. 22**).

Remarks

This standard evaluation method is based on the reports and clinical practice as of 2011. The standard may require modification based on forthcoming research findings and reports in the future.

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