

Prenatal Diagnosis by Fetal Echocardiography

Prapat Wanitpongpan, M.D.

Department of Obstetrics & Gynecology, Faculty of Medicine Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University, Bangkok 10700, Thailand.

Siriraj Med J 2011;63:132-138

E-journal: <http://www.sirirajmedj.com>

Congenital heart disease (CHD) is one of the most common congenital anomalies found at the rate of 4.3-8:1,000 live births and is a leading cause of neonatal and infant mortality.¹⁻³ Prenatal diagnosis of CHD has benefits on parental counseling, decision making during pregnancy, prenatal interventions, site and mode of delivery and postnatal management. Previous studies showed improvement of neonatal morbidity and mortality with prenatal diagnosis of certain CHD e.g. transposition of great arteries, hypoplastic left heart syndrome and coarctation of aorta.⁴⁻⁶ Recent reports have shown successful outcomes of intrauterine therapy e.g. balloon dilation of severe aortic stenosis which can restore the left ventricular growth and biventricular circulation and prevent hypoplastic left heart syndrome.^{7,8}

Despite the clear benefits of prenatal diagnosis, CHD is still the most commonly overlooked lesion during antenatal ultrasound evaluation with the detection rate of 4.5%-75% depending on the method and experience of examiners.^{3,9-17} Combination of 4-chamber view (4CV) and outflow tracts examination has increased the detection rate substantially. The American Institute of Ultrasound in Medicine (AIUM) and International Society of Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology (ISUOG) recommend this practice in routine fetal cardiac examination.^{18,19} Some conditions, e.g. maternal diabetes, infections during pregnancy, maternal CHD, some medications, predispose the fetuses for CHD but fetal cardiac screening should be performed in a universal fashion because the majority of CHDs occur in low risk population.²⁰⁻²³

Currently, 2-dimensional (2D) ultrasound has been the gold standard for fetal cardiac examination. Viewing different planes of fetal cardiac structures in cross section and sagittal section can help the obstetricians to diagnose normalcy of fetal cardiac structures and various CHD. Those planes are demonstrated in Fig 1 (normal) and Fig 2 (common CHD).

Doppler ultrasound offers further informations about the direction, amount and velocity of fetal blood in the cardiovascular system and fetal cardiac rhythm by showing the relation of atrial and ventricular contraction. Many

CHD can be confirmed using this technique at 3 planes i.e. 4CV, 5-chamber view (5CV) and 3-vessel trachea view (3VT) views. For example, tricuspid regurgitation which is one of the soft markers of Down syndrome can be demonstrated by observing Doppler gate volume overlap tricuspid valves at 4CV and 1:1 relationship of atrio-ventricular (A-V) contraction can be demonstrated by observing Doppler gate volume overlap mitral valves at 4CV or 5CV. (Fig 3, 4)

M-mode ultrasound has been used mainly for the diagnosis of fetal cardiac arrhythmias and fetal cardiac function assessment. Placing the M-mode line over the atrial and ventricular chambers, the signal of wall motion will be demonstrated and the relation of atrial and ventricular contraction can be evaluated. To assess the fetal cardiac function, the M-mode line should be placed perpendicular to the interventricular septum and both ventricular walls and diameters of each ventricular chamber during systole and diastole can be measured (Fig 5). Shortening fraction, a percentage difference between diastolic and systolic ventricular dimension, is a useful parameter for monitoring of fetal cardiac condition and obstetricians can provide proper managements accordingly.

3-Dimensional (3D) and 4-dimensional (4D) ultrasound are novel modalities that have gained more attention lately. Spatio-Temporal Image Correlation (STIC) is a new function in 3D/4D ultrasound which helps to collect volume data of a beating heart and analyze and render the pictures of fetal cardiac structures in various different planes. Using some special modes, e.g. surface mode, inversion mode, tomographic ultrasound imaging (TUI) mode, and so on, fetal cardiac examination is easy and clearer than ever before (Fig 6). Many reports showed comparable efficacy when compared to 2D ultrasound and obstetricians, with or without fetal echocardiography skills, can diagnose normalcy of fetal cardiac structures and various CHDs.²⁴⁻²⁶ Fetal cardiac function assessment using inversion mode and specialized software so called VOCAL (Virtual Organ Computer-aided Analysis) is claimed to be more superior to 2D ultrasound owing to the ability to calculate virtual cardiac volume that is not a geometric form instead of using mathematical calculations used in 2D technique (Fig 7).²⁷ Virtual view of some structures can only be achieved by 3D/4D technique, e.g. viewing of interventricular septum or A-V valves (Fig 8).

CHD can be associated with other malformations or chromosomal abnormalities. Approximately 20% of

Correspondence to: Prapat Wanitpongpan

E-mail: prapatw@hotmail.com

Received 17 June 2011

Revised 7 July 2011

Accepted 7 July 2011



Fig 1. Different planes of normal fetal heart.

a = abdominal plane shows descending aorta on the left side of abdomen, inferior vena cava on the right side and slightly anterior to the aorta.

b = 4-chamber view (4CV) shows 2 equal atrial chambers and 2 equal ventricular chambers with intact interventricular septum. Two AV valves, 2 pulmonary veins and only one vessel behind the heart are seen.

c = 5-chamber view (5CV) shows aortic root, membranous interventricular septum (arrow) which is well aligned to the anterior wall of the aorta.

d = 3-vessel view (3VV) shows main pulmonary artery on the left side bifurcating into right and left pulmonary artery, the cross section of ascending aorta and superior vena cava on the far right. The size of MPA is slightly bigger than that of Ao.

e = 3-vessel and trachea view (3VT) shows ductus arteriosus and transverse aortic arch of comparable size joining together at descending aorta. Trachea is seen to the right of aortic arch.

f = caval view shows inferior vena cava and superior vena cava drain into the right atrium.

g = aortic arch view shows candy cane appearance of aortic arch with 3 neck vessels (arrow).

h = ductal arch view shows wider curve of ductal arch (hockey stick appearance) rising more anterior in the chest wall and without any branches.

(Des Ao=descending aorta, IVC=inferior vena cava, RV=right ventricle, LV=left ventricle, PV=pulmonary veins, RA=right atrium, LA=left atrium, MPA=main pulmonary artery, SVC=superior vena cava, DA=ductus arteriosus, AA=aortic arch, Tr=trachea)



Fig 2. Examples of common CHD.

a = Ventricular septal defect (VSD); the 4CV shows defect of muscular part of the interventricular septum (IVS).

b = Atrioventricular septal defect (AVSD); the 4CV shows absence of atrial septum primum, crux of the heart and upper part of interventricular septum (asterisk).

c = Overriding of the aorta diagnosed by 5-chamber view.

d = The 3VT view showed remarkable difference in the size of 2 vessel arches seen in hypoplastic left heart syndrome.

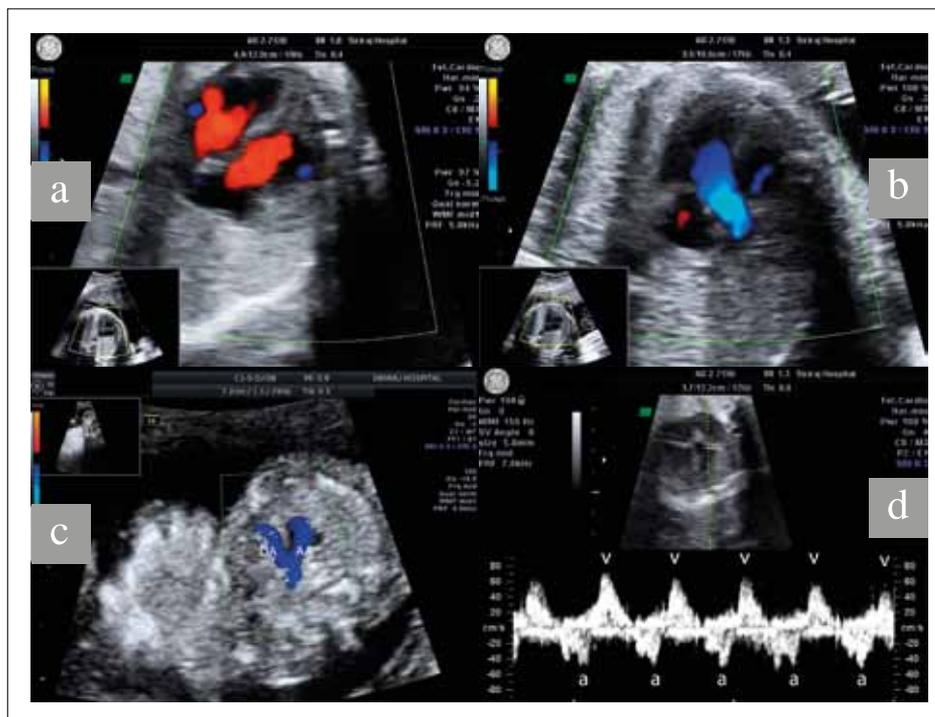


Fig 3. Normal Doppler ultrasound.

a = At 4CV, 2 strips of homogenous color flow of blood filling the ventricles from atria are demonstrated.

b = At 5CV, homogeneous color flow of aortic root is seen without aliasing appearance.

c = At 3VT view, the same color seen in both vessels reflects the same direction of blood flow in the 2 arches in normal condition.

d = Pulsed wave Doppler ultrasound at 5CV showed 1:1 relation of inflow waveform (below the baseline) and outflow waveform (above the baseline). (a=atrial contraction, v=ventricular contraction)

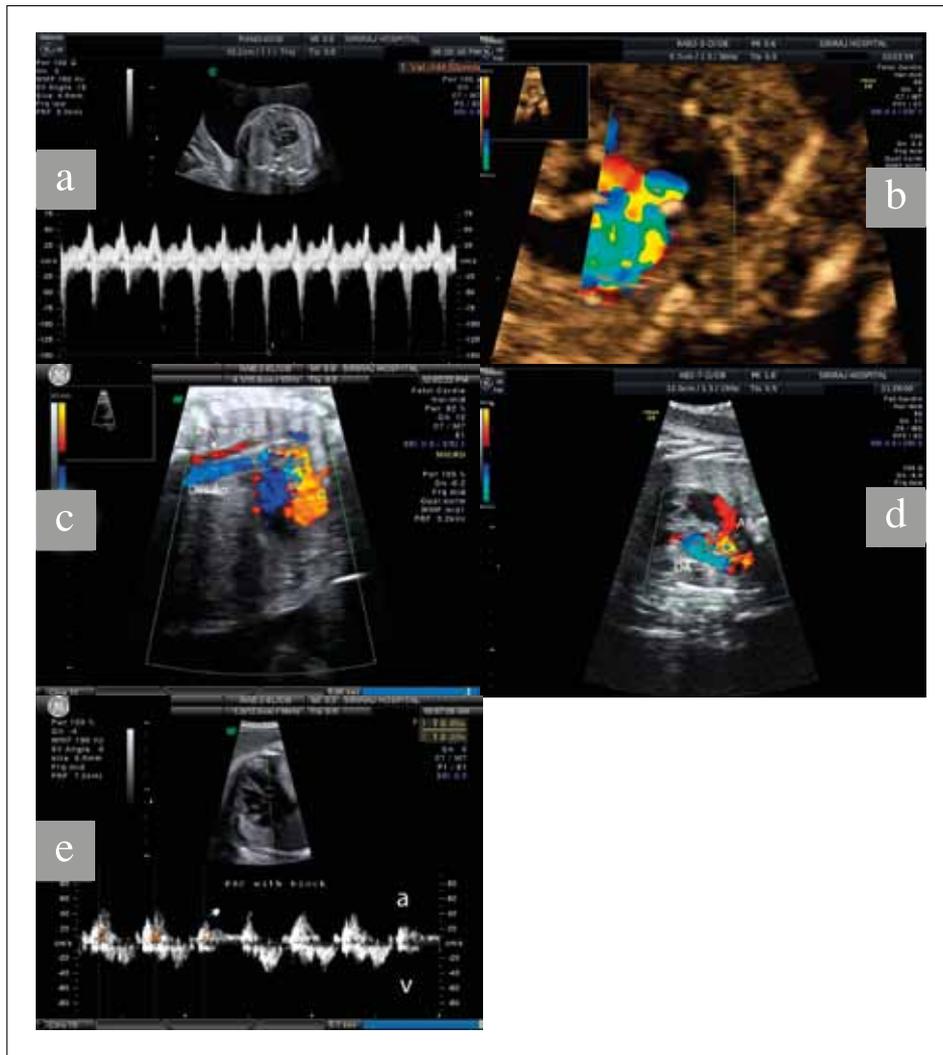


Fig 4. Examples of abnormal Doppler ultrasound findings.

a = Tricuspid regurgitation; pulsed wave Doppler ultrasound shows abnormally high velocity reversed flow (below the baseline) from the right ventricle back into the right atrium during systole.

b = Aliasing color flow in main pulmonary artery due to turbulent flow in pulmonary stenosis. Post-stenotic dilation is also seen.

c = Two vertical vessels in fetal thorax are seen by color Doppler ultrasound. The direction of blood flow in the descending aorta (blue color) was opposite to that of the other (azygos vein; red color). The diagnosis is left isomerism.

d = At 3VT view, the opposite direction of blood flow in 2 arches is seen resulting from hypoplastic left heart syndrome.

e = Pulsed wave Doppler ultrasound shows a premature atrial contraction without ventricular response.

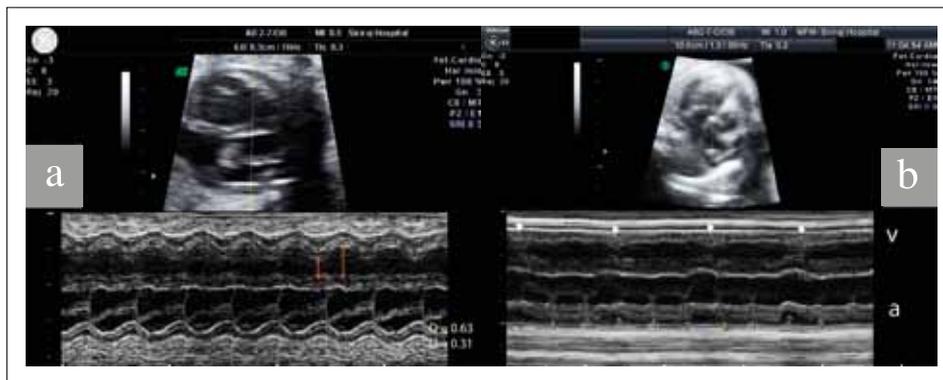


Fig 5. The use of M-mode ultrasound.

a = The maximal diameter of right ventricle at diastole (long orange line) and maximal diameter of right ventricle at systole (short orange line) are measured to calculate the shortening fraction of ventricles.

b = The M-mode line is placed over the right atrium and left ventricle and inconsistent relation between atrial and ventricular contraction is observed. The diagnosis is 3rd degree A-V block.

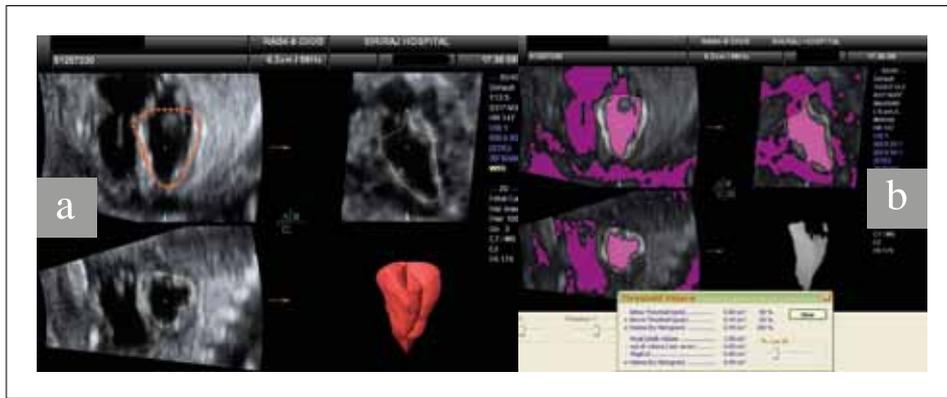


Fig 7. Assessment of fetal cardiac function by 3D ultrasound.

a = The use of VOCAL function illustrates the volume of the left ventricle in diastole.

b = The inversion mode shows the virtual volume of blood contained in the ventricular chamber (in pink) separated from the total volume which included surrounding soft tissues. Stroke volume and cardiac output can be calculated by repeating the technique in systole.

the fetuses with CHD will have extra-cardiac anomalies while 10-20% of nonimmune hydropic fetuses will have CHD.²⁸ The frequency of chromosomal abnormalities in liveborns with CHD varies from 5-15% and is as high as 30-40% during the fetal period. This discrepancy is possibly a result of intrauterine fetal death of some fetuses with chromosomal abnormalities especially trisomy 18 and Turner syndrome.²⁹ Some forms of CHD are highly associated with chromosomal abnormalities, e.g. AVSD (68%), ASD (27%), VSD (18.2%), while some CHDs, e.g. conotruncal anomaly, do not increase the incidence. The incidence of CHD in fetuses with Down syndrome has

been reported to be 44-56% with AVSD being the most common (19.8%) followed by VSD (15.4%) and tetralogy of Fallot (1.8%).^{30,31} With this association, many studies have suggested that ultrasound findings of the fetal heart could be used to increase sensitivity of detection and to adjust the risk of Down syndrome e.g. right-to-left disproportion of the atrial and/or ventricular chambers (LR = 88.3), VSD (LR = 12.5), tricuspid regurgitation (LR = 5.9), and pericardial effusion (LR=10).³² The risk of Down syndrome following a normal ultrasound study is decreased with LR of 0.11 when all the ultrasound markers including fetal cardiovascular markers are examined while the LR of

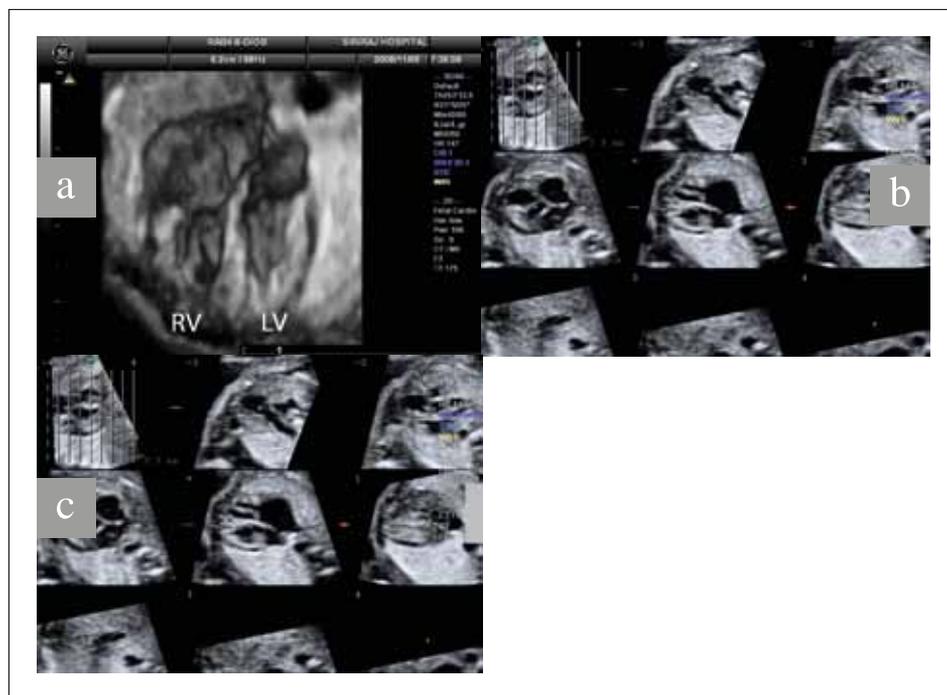


Fig 6. Examples of special modes of STIC.

a = The surface mode shows a 4-chamber view in 3D with different depth of intracardiac structures.

b = Nine different transverse planes of fetal cardiac structures are displayed by TUI. The distance between sections can be adjusted to display clear pictures of each plane of cardiac structures.

c = The outflow tracts are seen in criss-cross pattern by inversion mode which reverses the hypoechogenic appearance of fluid containing structures into hyperechogenic structures.



Fig 8. Virtual view of intracardiac structures.
 a = Virtual view of A-V valves
 b = Virtual view of intact interventricular septum
 c = Virtual view of ventricular septal defects
 (MV=mitral valve, TV=tricuspid valve)

0.42 is used to adjust the risk when only non-cardiovascular markers are evaluated.³² This benefits in counselling the high risk women who refuse to have the invasive prenatal diagnosis.

In conclusion, prenatal diagnosis of CHDs enables better prenatal care and improves pregnancy outcomes. The important challenges are low detection rate and insufficient skills of examiners. The continuous training and distribution of properly-equipped instruments along with universal screening in both high risk and low risk populations might yield a better future of pregnancy and child health.

REFERENCES

- Allan L. Antenatal diagnosis of heart disease. *Heart*. 2000;83(3):367-70.
- Hoffman JI. Incidence of congenital heart disease: I. Postnatal incidence. *Pediatr Cardiol*. 1995 May-Jun;16(3):103-13.
- Carvalho JS, Mavrides E, Shinebourne EA, Campbell S, Thilaganathan B. Improving the effectiveness of routine prenatal screening for major congenital heart defects. *Heart*. 2002 Oct;88(4):387-91.
- Bonnet D, Coltri A, Butera G, Fermont L, Le Bidois J, Kachaner J, et al. Detection of transposition of the great arteries in fetuses reduces neonatal morbidity and mortality. *Circulation*. 1999 Feb 23;99(7):916-8.
- Tworetzky W, McElhinney DB, Reddy VM, Brook MM, Hanley FL, Silverman NH. Improved surgical outcome after fetal diagnosis of hypoplastic left heart syndrome. *Circulation*. 2001 Mar 6;103(9):1269-73.
- Franklin O, Burch M, Manning N, Sleeman K, Gould S, Archer N. Prenatal diagnosis of coarctation of the aorta improves survival and reduces morbidity. *Heart*. 2002 Jan;87(1):67-9.
- Tworetzky W, Wilkins-Haug L, Jennings RW, van der Velde ME, Marshall AC, Marx GR, et al. Balloon dilation of severe aortic stenosis in the fetuses: potential for prevention of hypoplastic left heart syndrome: candidate selection, technique, and results of successful intervention. *Circulation*. 2004 Oct 12;110(15):2125-31.
- Selamet Tierney ES, Wald RM, McElhinney DB, Marshall AC, Benson CB, Colan SD, et al. Changes in left heart hemodynamics after technically successful in-utero aortic valvuloplasty. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2007 Oct;30(5):715-20.
- Tegnander E, Eik-Nes SH, Johansen OJ, Linker DT. Prenatal detection of heart defects at the routine fetal examination at 18 weeks in a non-selected population. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 1995 Jun;5(6):372-80.
- Ott WJ. The accuracy of antenatal fetal echocardiography screening in high and low-risk patients. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1995 Jun;172(6):1741-7.
- Rustico MA, Benettoni A, D'Ottavio G, Maieron A, Fischer-Tamaro I, Conoscenti G, et al. Fetal heart screening in low-risk pregnancies. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 1995 Nov;6(5):313-9.
- Buskens E, Stewart PA, Hess J, Grobbee DE, Wladimiroff JW. Efficacy of fetal echocardiography and yield by risk category. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1996 Mar;87(3):423-8.
- Buskens E, Grobbee DE, Frohn-Mulder IM, Stewart PA, Juttman RE, Wladimiroff JW. Efficacy of routine fetal ultrasound screening for congenital heart disease in normal pregnancy. *Circulation*. 1996 Jul 1;94(1):67-72.
- Grandjean H, Larroque D, Levi S. The performance of routine ultrasonographic screening of pregnancies in the Eurofetus Study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1999 Aug;181(2):446-54.
- Bull C. Current and potential impact of fetal diagnosis on prevalence and spectrum of serious congenital heart disease at term in the UK. *British Paediatric Cardiac Association. Lancet*. 1999 Oct 9;354(9186):1242-7.
- Westin M, Saltvedt S, Bergman G, Kublickas K, Almström H, Grunewald C, et al. Routine ultrasound examination at 12 or 18 gestational weeks for prenatal detection of major congenital heart malformations? A randomized controlled trial comprising 36,229 fetuses. *BJOG*. 2006 Jun;113(6):675-82.
- Garne E, Stoll C, Clementi M, Euroscan Group. Evaluation of prenatal diagnosis of congenital heart diseases by ultrasound: experience from 20 European registries. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2001 May;17(5):386-91.
- Lee W. Performance of the basic fetal cardiac ultrasound examination. *AIUM Technical Bulletin. J Ultrasound Med*. 1998 Sep;17(9):601-7.
- International Society of Ultrasound in Obstetrics & Gynecology. Cardiac screening examination of the fetus: guidelines for performing the 'basic' and 'extended basic' cardiac scan. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2006 Jan; 27(1):107-13.
- DeVore GR. The prenatal diagnosis of congenital heart disease--a practical approach for the fetal sonographer. *J Clin Ultrasound*. 1985 May;13(4):229-45.
- Allan LD, Crawford DC, Chita SK, Tynan MJ. Prenatal screening for congenital heart disease. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed)*. 1986 Jun 28;292(6537): 1717-9.
- Davis GK, Farquhar CM, Allan LD, Crawford DC, Chapman MG. Structural cardiac abnormalities in the fetus: reliability of prenatal diagnosis and outcome. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol*. 1990 Jan;97(1):27-31.
- Callan NA, Maggio M, Steger S, Kan JS. Fetal echocardiography: indications for referral, prenatal diagnoses and outcomes. *Am J Perinatol*. 1991 Nov;8(6):390-4.

24. Shih JC, Chen CP. Spatio-temporal image correlation (STIC): Innovative 3D/4D technique for illustrating unique and independent information and diagnosing complex congenital heart diseases. *Croat Med J*. 2005 Oct;46(5):812-20.
25. Goncalves LF, Lee W, Espinoza J, Romero R. Examination of the fetal heart by four-dimensional(4D) ultrasound with spatio-temporal image correlation (STIC). *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2006 Mar;27(3):336-48.
26. Yagel S, Cohen SM, Shapiro I, Valsky DV. 3D and 4D ultrasound in fetal cardiac scanning: new look at the fetal heart. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2007 Jan;29(1):81-95.
27. Messing B, Cohen SM, Valsky DV, Rosenak D, Hochner-Celnikier D, Savchev S, et al. Fetal cardiac ventricles volumetry in the second half of gestation assessed by 4D ultrasound using STIC combined with inversion mode. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2007 Aug;30(2):142-51.
28. Abuhamad A, Chaoui R. Congenital heart disease: incidence, risk factors, and prevention. In: Abuhamad A, Chaoui R. *A Practical guide to fetal echocardiography, normal and abnormal hearts*. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins, 2010. p. 1-10.
29. Abuhamad A, Chaoui R. Genetic aspects of congenital heart defects. in Abuhamad A, Chaoui R. *A practical guide to fetal echocardiography, normal and abnormal hearts*, 2nd ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins, 2010. p. 11-22.
30. Freeman SB, Taft LF, Dooley KJ, Allran K, Sherman SL, Hassold TJ, et al. Population-based study of congenital heart defects in Down syndrome. *Am J Med Genet*. 1998 Nov 16;80(3):213-7.
31. Paladini D, Tartaglione A, Agangi A, Teodoro A, Forleo F, Borghese A, et al. The association between congenital heart disease and Down syndrome in prenatal life. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol*. 2000 Feb;15(2):104-8.
32. DeVore GR. The role of fetal echocardiography in genetic sonography. *Semin Perinatol*. 2003 Apr;27(2):160-72.