## THE ROLE OF 2D ULTRASOUND IN DETECTION OF CNS ANOMALIES

## Mohamed Hassan M. Abdel Ghafar<sup>1</sup>; Mohamed Hany Mosabh<sup>1</sup>; Mohamed Ehab Ali Salet<sup>2</sup>; Mohamed Tawfik Gad El-Rab<sup>1</sup>; Eissa Mahmoud Khalifa<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Obstetrics & Gynaecology; Faculty of Medicine - Minia University

<sup>2</sup>Obstetrics & Gynaecology; Faculty of Medicine – Cairo University

## INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of prenatal diagnosis is to gather genetic, anatomical, biochemical and physiological information about the fetus to detect potential abnormalities that may have impacts both during the fetal period and after birth. Thus, we can provide families with information, genetic counseling, and/or therapeutic alternatives for any anomalies detected. <sup>(1)</sup>

Detection rate of congenital anomalies is about 28% in private practice and hospitals, 60 to 80% in Ob/Gyn's ultrasound labs.<sup>(2-4)</sup> While congenital defects constitute 3% of all births, monogenic disorders and chromosomal syndromes constitute 1.4% and 0.6% of all births respectively.<sup>(5)</sup>

During the last 25 years, the development of increasingly sophisticated equipments (digital techniques, grey scales, color Doppler and 3D and 4D sonography) enabled the diagnosis of a growing number of malformations so that it is now possible to diagnose about 80% of congenital abnormalities with reliable structural images.<sup>(6-9)</sup>

No doubt that ultrasound provides many clinical advantages. The Cochrane database confirms that ultrasound enables the earlier detection of fetal malformations.<sup>(7,10)</sup> Parents seek reassurance about the absence of fetal congenital anomalies and overall fetal health. Therefore, people view routine ultrasound as a part of obstetrical care, capable of filling important gaps by delivering much key information for improving obstetrical practice. <sup>(11)</sup>Fetal anomalies screening (FAS) requires higher education and qualifications than obstetrical ultrasound.<sup>(12)</sup>In most European countries approximately 98% of pregnant women are examined by ultrasound, frequently two to three times (usually once per trimester).

Progressive improvements in ultrasound equipment within the field of prenatal diagnosis of structural fetal anomalies have permitted to obtain a sensitivity range of 90 to 95 percent and specificity range of 95 to 100 percent, with utilization of high definition equipment and an expert sonographer in fetal dysmorphology.<sup>(13-15)</sup>Although some brain anomalies are only visible late in gestation, there is a strong tendency towards a more detailed neurosonogram in the second or even first trimester of pregnancy. 3D ultrasound is a valuable tool in detailed structural analysis of the brain.

Three-dimensional ultrasound has been proposed as a potentially valuable tool for the examination of the fetal brain and for the prenatal diagnosis of intracranial anomalies. Benefits would include: (1) the ability to define the severity, location, and extent of central nervous system anomalies <sup>(16-18)</sup>;(2) the possibility of reconstructing and visualizing the corpus callosum in the sagittal plane from volume data sets acquired with transverse sweeps through the fetal head<sup>(19)</sup>;(3) the use of rendering and rotation techniques in volume data sets acquired with color or power Doppler imaging to improve visualization of cerebral blood flow <sup>(18,20-23)</sup>; (4)the possibility of increasing the speed of fetal neurosonography performed by 2D transvaginal ultrasonography and, at the same time, obtaining tomographic planes of section comparable with those that can be obtained by CT or MRI<sup>(18)</sup>; and (5) the possibility of visualizing the 3 horns of the ventricular system in a single plane (3-horn view).<sup>(24)</sup>

Also 3DUS is a valuable tool for examining the fetal spine, for it uses multiplanar display, volume rendering with the maximum-intensity projection mode (also known as skeletal mode), or a combination of both methods.<sup>(25,26,27-29)</sup>.Volume rendering with maximum-intensity projection allows clear depiction of bony structures and, depending on the gestational age of the fetus, visualization of the entire spine in a single image<sup>(25,28)</sup>. Additional features that improve the characterization of spinal anomalies include the possibility of rotating the volume data set and visualizing the spine from multiple perspectives.<sup>(28)</sup> Several investigators have reported on the prenatal diagnosis of anomalies affecting the fetal spine by 3DUS, including scoliosis, hemivertebrae, and neural tube defects.<sup>(3,25,28)</sup> Other applications have included the measurement of the size and volume of the vertebral bodies, spinal canal, and spinal length.<sup>(30-34)</sup> .Three-dimensional ultrasound has also been shown to be useful as an adjunctive modality to determine the level of the defect in cases of spina

ISSN: 0975-3583, 0976-2833 VOL 12, ISSUE 03, 2021

bifida. (25,26,29,35,36)

MRI is a complementary method to ultrasound (US), useful for fetal assessment, which is helpful in formulating prognosis and perinatal management and can detect occult abnormalities in up to 50% of cases for certain indications.<sup>(37)</sup>Fetal MRI offers several advantages over prenatal US. It has higher contrast resolution, is not affected by the shadowing from the calvarium or by low amniotic fluid volume, and can be easily performed using commercially available ultrafast T2-W sequences. In addition, fetal MRI is particularly helpful in the detection of gyration and neurulation anomalies and disorders of the gray and white matter. However, fetal MRI is limited by fetal motion, the small size of the structure being imaged, and the marked distance between the receiver coil and the structure being imaged. Therefore, fetal MRI is typically not performed before 22 gestational weeks. Because the fetal brain is a dynamic structure, it is important for radiologists to familiarize themselves with the normal appearance of the fetal brain at different gestational ages in order to be better able to identify and characterize abnormalities with fetal MRI. <sup>(38-41)</sup>

Cerebral malformations are encountered in about 1% of all births <sup>(42)</sup>. about 0.61% of children admitted to a pediatric clinic present with solitary or multiple central nervous system (CNS) malformations <sup>(43)</sup>. Nearly 10% of all congenital malformations in perinatal autopsy series are CNS anomalies, among which neural tube defects (45.5%), hydrocephaly (12.4%) and neuronal proliferation disorders (8.8%) are among the most frequently encountered <sup>(42,44)</sup>. Frequently additional cerebral, extra-cerebral, syndromic and chromosomal malformations are associated <sup>(45)</sup>. Still in about 60% of cases the etiology of cerebral malformation remains unknown.

Accurate prenatal diagnosis of central nervous system (CNS) abnormalities is essential in counselling parents, as they are the most common developmental abnormalities causing considerable mortality<sup>(46)</sup>. Advanced sonography combined with methodology of approaching the fetal brain and fetal MRI has improved the assessment of fetal intracranial structure and diagnosis of the prenatal brain abnormalities.<sup>(47,48)</sup>Prenatal assessment of the fetal central nervous system is very important as anomalies in this region often determine survival, physical appearance and function in society<sup>(7,48)</sup>.

Sonographic guidelines for screening the fetal brain in a systematic way may increase the detection rate <sup>(49)</sup>. Many malformations of the CNS and fetal neural axis can be detected easily and reliably: <sup>(48,50-53)</sup> agenesis of corpus callosum, anencephaly, arachnoid cyst, cranial tumors, craniosynostosis, Dandy-Walker malformations, ventriculomegaly, hydrocephalus, diastematomyelia, encephalocele, vein of Galen malformation, holoprosencephaly, hydrancephaly, iniencephaly, intracranial hemorrhage, microcephaly, spina bifida, meningomyelocele, Arnold-Chiari malformation and teratomas. <sup>(46,48,50-55)</sup>

## **REFERENCES**

- 1) Smith FW, Adam AH, Phillips WD. NMR imaging in pregnancy Lancet1983; 1:61–2.
- 2) Zimmer EZ, Avraham Z, Sujoy P, Goldstein I, Bronshtein M. The influence of prenatal ultrasound on the prevalence of congenital anomalies at birth. Prenat Diagn 1997;17:623–8
- 3) Grandjean H, Larroque D, Levi S. Sensitivity of routine ultrasound screening of pregnancies in the Eurofetus database. The Eurofetus Team. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1998;18;847:118–24..
- 4) Levi S. Ultrasound in prenatal diagnosis: polemics around routine ultrasound screening for second trimester fetal malformations. 2002;22:285–95.
- 5) Grandjean H, Larroque D, Levi S. Detection of chromosomal abnormalities, an outcome of ultrasound screening. The Eurofetus Team. 1998;18;847:136–40.
- 6) Kurjak A, Kirkinen P, Latin V, Rajhvajn B. Diagnosis and assessment of fetal malformation and abnormalities by ultrasound. J Perinat Med. 1980;8:219–35.
- Carrera JM, Torrents M, Munog A, et al. Prenatal diagnosis of congenital defects. In Kurjak A, Carrera JM (eds): Donald School Atlas of Clinical Application of Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology. New Delhi: Jaypee Brothers 2006;166–239.
- 8) Kurjak A. 3D ultrasound and perinatal medicine. J Perinat Med 2002;30:5–7.
- 9) Leung KY, Ngai CS, Chan BC, Leung WC, Lee CP, Tang MH. Three-dimensional extended imaging: a new display modality for three-dimensional ultrasound examination. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 2005;26(3):244–51.
- 10) Kurjak A, Chervenak FA. Ultrasound in Perinatal Medicine: Editorial. Ultr Rev Obst Gynecol 2001;1:193–4.

- 11) Levi S, Hyjazi Y, Schaapst JP, Defoort P, Coulon R, Buekens P. Sensitivity and specificity of routine antenatal screening for congenital anomalies by ultrasound: the Belgian Multicentric Study. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 1991;1:102–10.
- 12) Levi S. Routine ultrasound screening of congenital anomalies. An overview of the European experience. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1998;18;847:86–98.
- 13) Lys F, De Wals P, Borlee-Grimee I, Billiet A, Vincotte-Mols M, Levi S. Evaluation of routine ultrasound examinationfor the prenatal diagnosis of malformation. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol 1989;30:101–9.
- 14) Kurjak A, Bekavac I. Perinatal problems in developing countries: lessons learned and future challenges. J Perinat Med. 2001;29:179–87.
- 15) Bronshtein M, Zimmer EZ, Blumenfeld Z. Early sonographic detection of fetal anomalies. In: Kurjak A. (ed.). Textbook of Perinatal Medicine. London: Parthenon Publishing 1998;263–80
- 16) Lai TH, Chang CH, Yu CH, Kuo PL, Chang FM. Prenatal diagnosis of alobar holoprosencephaly by two-dimensional and three-dimensional ultrasound. Prenat Diagn 2000; 20:400–403.
- 17) Hata T, Yanagihara T, Matsumoto M, et al. Threedimensional sonographic features of fetal central nervous system anomaly. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand 2000; 79:635–639.
- 18) Monteagudo A, Timor-Tritsch IE, Mayberry P. Threedimensional transvaginal neurosonography of the fetal brain: "navigating" in the volume scan. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 2000; 16:307–313.
- 19) Wang PH, Ying TH, Wang PC, Shih IC, Lin LY, Chen GD. Obstetrical three-dimensional ultrasound in the visualization of the intracranial midline and corpus callosum of fetuses with cephalic position. Prenat Diagn 2000; 20:518–520.
- 20) Pooh RK, Pooh K, Nakagawa Y, Nishida S, Ohno Y. Clinical application of three-dimensional ultrasound in fetal brain assessment. Croat Med J 2000; 41: 245–251.
- 21) Pooh RK, Pooh K. Transvaginal 3D and Doppler ultrasonography of the fetal brain. Semin Perinatol 2001;25:38–43.
- 22) Pooh RK, Pooh KH. The assessment of fetal brain morphology and circulation by transvaginal 3D sonography and power Doppler. J Perinat Med 2002; 30:48–56.
- 23) Chang CH, Yu CH, Ko HC, Chen CL, Chang FM. Three-dimensional power Doppler ultrasound for the assessment of the fetal brain blood flow in normal gestation.Ultrasound Med Biol 2003; 29:1273–1279.
- 24) Timor-Tritsch IE, Monteagudo A, Mayberry P. Threedimensional ultrasound evaluation of the fetal brain: the three horn view. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 2000;16:302–306.
- 25) Johnson DD, Pretorius DH, Riccabona M, Budorick NE, Nelson TR. Three-dimensional ultrasound of the fetal spine. Obstet Gynecol 1997; 89:434–438.
- 26) Mueller GM, Weiner CP, Yankowitz J. Three-dimensional ultrasound in the valuation of fetal head and spine anomalies. Obstet Gynecol 1996; 88:372–378.
- 27) Budorick NE, Pretorius DH, Nelson TR. Sonography of the fetal spine: technique, imaging findings, and clinical implications. AJR Am J Roentgenol 1995; 164:421–428.
- 28) Riccabona M, Johnson D, Pretorius DH, Nelson TR . Three dimensional ultrasound: display modalities in the fetal spine and thorax. Eur J Radiol 1996; 22: 141–145.
- 29) Lee W, Chaiworapongsa T, Romero R, et al. A diagnostic approach for the evaluation of spina bifida by threedimensional ultrasonography. J Ultrasound Med. 2002; 21:619–626.
- 30) Wallny TA, Schild RL, Fimmers R, Wagner UA, Hansmann ME, Schmitt O. The fetal spinal canal: a three-dimensional study. Ultrasound Med Biol 1999; 25:1329–1333.
- 31) Schild RL, Wallny T, Fimmers R, Hansmann M. Fetal lumbar spine volumetry by three-dimensional ultrasound. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 1999; 13:335–339.
- 32) Ulm MR, Kratochwil A, Oberhuemer U, Ulm B, Blaicher W, Bernaschek G. Ultrasound evaluation of fetal spine length between 14 and 24 weeks' gestation. Prenat Diagn 1999; 19:637–641.
- 33) Schild RL, Wallny T, Fimmers R, Hansmann M. The size of the fetal thoracolumbar spine: a three-dimensional ultrasound study. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol 2000; 16:468–472.
- 34) Wallny T, Schild RL, Fimmers R, Hansmann ME. Threedimensional sonographic evaluation of the fetal lumbar spinal canal. J Anat 2002; 200:439–443.
- 35) Hamper UM, Trapanotto V, Sheth S, DeJong MR, Caskey CI. Three-dimensional US: preliminary clinical experience. Radiology 1994; 191:397–401.
- 36) Bonilla-Musoles F, Machado LE, Osborne NG, et al. Two- and three-dimensional ultrasound in malformations of the medullary canal: report of four cases .Prenat Diagn 2001; 21:622–626.

- 37) Levine D, Barnes PD, Madsen JR, Abbott J, Mehta T,Edelman RR. Central nervous system abnormalities assessed with prenatal magnetic resonance imaging. Obstet Gynecol 1999; 94:1011–9.
- 38) Garel C (2004) MRI of the fetal brain: normal development and cerebral pathologies. Springer, Berlin
- 39) Glenn OA, Barkovich AJ (2006) Magnetic resonance imaging of the fetal brain and spine: an increasingly important tool in prenatal diagnosis, part 1. AJNR 27:1604–1611
- 40) Prayer D, Kasprian G, Krampl E et al (2006) MRI of normal fetal brain development. Eur J Radiol 57:199–216
- 41) Glenn OA (2009) Normal development of the fetal brain by MRI. Semin Perinatol 33:208–219
- 42) Pinar H, Tatevosyants n, Singer Db. central nervous system malformations in a perinatal/neonatal autopsy series. Pediatr Dev Pathol. 1998;1:42-8
- 43) Hadzagić-catibusić F, Maksić H, uzicanin S et al. congenital malformations of the central nervous system: clinical approach . bosn J basic Med Sci. 2088;8:356-60.
- 44) lancaster P, Pedisich e. congenital Malformations Australia 1981-1992, ISSn1321-8352 Sydney: aIHW national Perinatal Statistics unit.
- 45) Weichtert J, Hartge D, Krapp M et al. Prevalence, characteristics and perinatal outcome of fetal ventriculomegaly in 29.000 pregnancies followed at a single institution. Fetal Diagn Ther. 2010;27:142-8.
- 46) Patel TR, Bannister CM, Thorne J. A study of prenatal ultrasound and postnatal magnetic imaging in the diagnosis of central nervous system abnormalities. Eur J Pediatr Surg 2003;13:18–22.
- 47) Kurjak A, Vecek N, Hafner T, Bozek T, Funduk-Kurjak B, Ujevic B. Prenatal diagnosis: what does four-dimensional ultrasound add? J Perinat Med 2002;30:57–62.
- 48) Johnson ML, Dunne MG, Mack LA, Rashbaum CL. Evaluation of fetal intracranial anatomy by static and real-time ultrasound.J Clin Ultrasound 1980;8:311–8
- 49) Salomon IJ, alfirevic Z, berghella V et al. Practice guidelines for performance of the routine mid-trimester fetal ultrasound scan. ultrasound Obstet Gynecol. 2011;37:116-26.
- 50) Chervenak FA, Berkowitz RL, Romero R, et al. The diagnosis of fetal hydrocephalus. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1983;147:703–16.
- 51) Chervenak FA, Isaacson G, Mahoney MJ, Berkowitz RL, Tortora M, Hobbins JC. Diagnosis and management of fetal cephalocele.Obstet Gynecol 1984;64:86–91.
- 52) Chervenak FA, Duncan C, Ment LR, Tortora M, McClure M, Hobbins JC. Perinatal management of meningomyelocele.Obstet Gynecol 1984;63:376–80.
- 53) Chervenak FA, Isaacson G, Mahoney MJ, Tortora M, Mesologites T, Hobbins JC. The obstetric significance of holoprosencephaly.Obstet Gynecol 1984;63:115–21.
- 54) Chervenak FA, Isaacson G, Blakemore KJ et al. Fetal cystic hygroma. Cause and natural history 1983;309:822–5.
- 55) Malinger G, Lev D, Lerman-Sagie T. Normal and abnormal fetal brain development during the third trimester as demonstrated by neurosonography. Eur J Radiol 2006;57:226–32.