

Ultrasound in assessing disease severity and therapeutic response in rheumatoid arthritis

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The management of rheumatoid arthritis has become increasingly aggressive in recent years, resulting in improved disease control and better outcomes for patients. Outcome-directed management has driven the development of novel tools to aid in understanding disease severity and therapeutic response. Ultrasonography (US) is an ideal tool for assessing rheumatoid arthritis. It is relatively inexpensive, portable and does not involve radiation, making it ideal to use repeatedly in the outpatient clinic. There is a growing body of evidence to demonstrate the validity of US in determining pathological changes of rheumatoid arthritis, including synovitis, bone erosions and tenosynovitis. In addition, there is increasing evidence to demonstrate that the ability of US to determine true inflammatory disease activity is better than conventional clinical assessments. The current focus of research into US remains on understanding its clinical utility, particularly with regard to determining disease severity, prognostic evaluation and monitoring response to therapy.

Recent years have seen a dramatic improvement in the management of rheumatoid arthritis (RA). While this is partly due to improved drug therapies, it is also due to the recognition that early aggressive therapy and outcome-directed management decisions result in qualitatively and quantitatively better outcomes for RA patients [1–3]. These advances have driven the development of novel tools to aid in the assessment of disease severity and therapeutic response in this disease.

Ultrasonography (US) is an ideal tool to be utilized in the management of a primarily synovial disease such as RA. It is relatively quick to perform and portable, so it can be used in the clinic to produce real-time, dynamic images. It is relatively inexpensive compared with other imaging techniques, such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and does not involve ionizing radiation, in contrast to conventional radiographs (CR) and computed tomography (CT), and thus it can be used in a temporal fashion to monitor disease progression. Therefore US is a clinical tool likely to be in widespread use in the future to assess disease severity and monitor response to therapy in rheumatology clinics.

How does US work?

US utilizes properties of sound such as absorption and reflection to image tissue. Sound is emitted from a probe and travels through tissue, being reflected when it meets a surface interface. The interface of tissues with very different compositions is most reflective; for example, the interface between soft tissue and bone is highly

reflective. The reflected soundwaves (echoes) are recognized by the probe, and the intensity of the reflected echo is displayed in shades of gray (gray scale [GS] US). The addition of the Doppler technique to GS enables the identification of movement, and thus the flow in blood vessels can be studied and the vascularity of tissues assessed. This relies on the principle that sound hitting a moving object is reflected as an echo with an altered frequency. Power Doppler (PD) is the most common technique applied to musculoskeletal US. The amplitude of the flow is displayed as a color spectrum, allowing very small amounts of flow to be detected (e.g., small vessels in inflamed synovium). Colour Doppler (CD) displays information about velocity and direction as a color spectrum. Flow velocity and direction are generally of lesser importance in musculoskeletal imaging than detecting the presence of flow in small synovial vessels. Recently, there has been some investigation of the role of contrast agents, which may aid the detection of vascular flow in inflamed tissues [4].

Detecting pathology in RA

While the traditional metric properties of this tool in rheumatology remain under investigation, there is currently increasing information in RA about its validity, reliability, sensitivity to change and clinical utility. International interest groups have been formed under the auspices of the Outcome Measures in Rheumatoid Arthritis Clinical Trials (OMERACT) and the European League Against Rheumatism (EULAR) in order to address some of these issues. Recently, the

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**future
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Table 1. Outcome Measures in Rheumatoid Arthritis Clinical Trials group definitions of pathology in inflammatory arthritis.

Feature	Definition
Synovial fluid	Abnormal hypoechoic or anechoic intra-articular material that is displaceable and compressible, but does not exhibit power Doppler signal
Synovial hypertrophy	Abnormal hypoechoic or anechoic intra-articular material that is nondisplaceable and poorly compressible and may exhibit power Doppler signal
Tenosynovitis	Hypoechoic or anechoic thickened tissue with or without fluid within the tendon sheath, which is seen in two perpendicular planes and that may exhibit Doppler signal
Erosion	An intra-articular discontinuity of the bone surface that is visible in two perpendicular planes

OMERACT group published preliminary definitions of pathologies in inflammatory arthritis, including bone erosion, synovial fluid, synovial hypertrophy, tenosynovitis and enthesopathy (Table 1) [5].

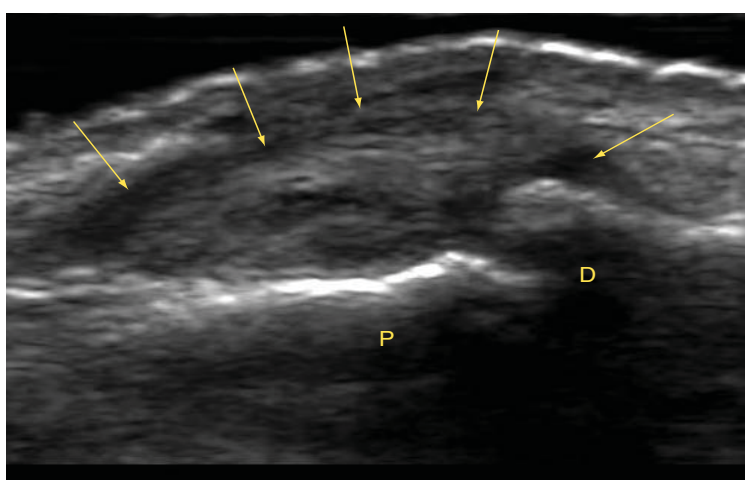
Clinical synovitis may be considered to be a composite measure of synovial fluid and synovial hypertrophy. US has repeatedly been demonstrated to be more sensitive, in both large and small joints, to the presence of synovitis than clinical examination in RA (Figure 1) [6–12]. The ability of US to detect synovitis has been compared against arthroscopy and MRI, with good correlation [10–13]. The addition of PD to GS US can enhance the detection of synovitis by allowing assessment of vascularity of the synovium (Figure 2). In the hip and knee joints, PD signal has been shown to correlate with histological evidence of synovial vascularity [14,15]. Studies

comparing PD or CD flow with post-contrast synovial enhancement on MRI have also shown good sensitivity and excellent specificity [7,16].

Quantifying GS synovitis and PD signal is usually performed in order to provide outcomes for clinical trials and remains a tedious and problematic task that is not currently amenable to clinical practice. Current methods of scoring include semiquantitative scores on a dichotomous (normal/abnormal) or 0–3 scale, which have been applied to both GS synovitis and PD signal. Scoring can be done at the time of scanning as a global joint score, or delayed scoring on saved images; delayed scoring is reliant on the technical skills of the image acquirer. Some recent work has been undertaken to address the interobserver reliability of US scanning and scoring, with encouraging results in terms of both interpretation of images acquired by the scorer and scoring of preacquired dynamic images [17]. Other scoring systems include computer-derived programs that analyze, including pixel counting, regions of interest. These programs are generally considered to be more objective than semiquantitative scoring systems, but are still dependent on the image acquired, and delineation of the region of interest by the technician/physician.

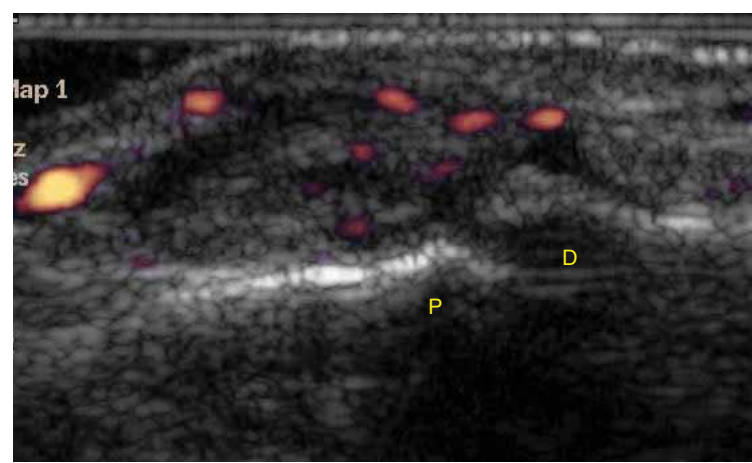
Some caution should be used when assessing studies comparing tenosynovitis detected by US and MRI [11,18], as US and MRI may differ in their planes and sites of image acquisition. Commonly used MRI sequences focus on the joint, whereas US can be used dynamically to image the tendon in multiple planes and during motion. In addition, studies have used different definitions of tenosynovitis. In general, US has been shown to detect tenosynovitis in hands with reasonable sensitivity compared with MRI in RA [11,18]; however, for example, a study which subcategorized tenosynovitis found that

Figure 1. Gray-scale synovitis in a proximal interphalangeal joint synovitis (longitudinal dorsal image).



Arrows indicate areas of synovitis.
D: Distal phalanx; P: Proximal phalanx.

Figure 2. Power Doppler signal in the same proximal interphalangeal joint synovitis (longitudinal dorsal image).



D: Distal phalanx; P: Proximal phalanx.

US detected more tendon sheath effusions, but MRI detected more tendon sheath thickening [18]. In the hand, there are difficulties in the ability of both MRI and US to adequately visualize the extensor tendons due to their size and lack of distinct sheath; hence a study comparing imaging findings by US and MRI to direct visualization of extensor tendons at surgery found that neither imaging technique was reliable at detecting extensor tendon tears [19].

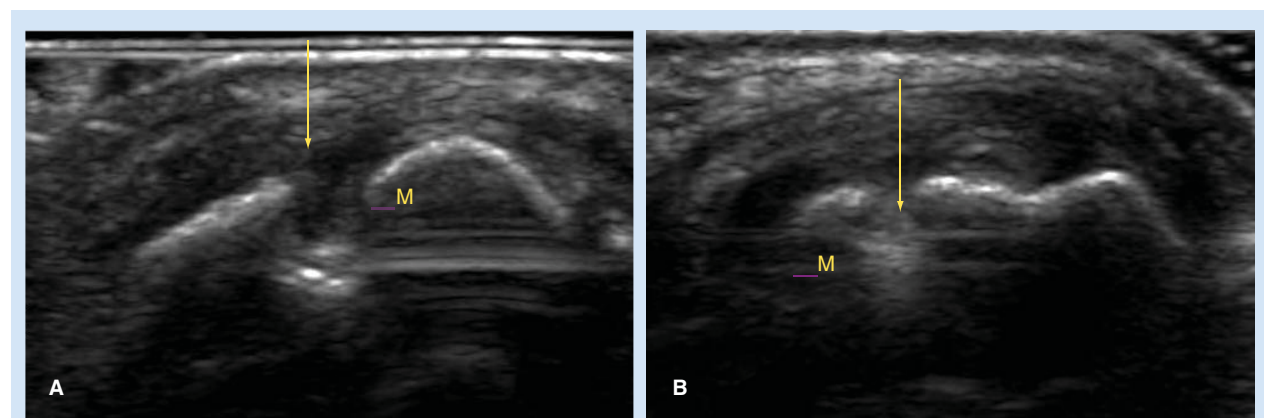
The ability of US to detect bony erosions has been compared with CR, MRI and CT (Figure 3) [11,20,21]. The ability of US to detect erosions (with greater sensitivity than CR) depends on the technology utilized and which joints are imaged. US

generally detects more erosions in RA fingers and toes than CR, and a similar number to MRI [20–22]. CR and MRI tend to be superior in regions where visualization is difficult with the ultrasound probe, such as between metacarpophalangeal joints or carpal bones [11,18]. In the regions easily accessible to the ultrasound probe, such as the second and fifth metacarpophalangeal joints and the ulna styloid, US performs well compared with both MRI and CR [21], due to its multiplanar nature and high resolution, enabling small lesions to be detected.

Assessing RA severity

Current assessment of disease severity in RA relies mainly on the use of composite tools such as the Disease Activity Score (DAS) and the American College of Rheumatology (ACR) response criteria. These are well-validated outcome measures derived largely from patient and physician subjective assessments and only a single objective, but nonspecific, laboratory measure (C-reactive protein [CRP] or erythrocyte sedimentation rate [ESR]) [23,24]. These outcome measures are at least partially subjective and it has been suggested that they are not specific for inflammation, limiting their value in assessing true inflammatory disease severity [24]. Radiographs are also used to assess prognosis and severity of disease, largely by identifying bone damage (erosions), rather than the primary site of disease pathology (the synovium). The role of US in assessing disease severity is under investigation and appears promising.

Figure 3. Erosion in metacarpophalangeal joint.



(A) Longitudinal view (B) Transverse view.
M: Metacarpal.
Arrow indicates area of erosion.

At the individual joint level, several studies have investigated the relationship between clinical synovitis and imaging-detected (US and MRI) synovitis [6–11]. In these studies, significant numbers of joints deemed to be actively inflamed by US and MRI were not detected clinically. In addition, joints felt to be inflamed clinically did not appear to be so when imaged. If MRI is to be considered the gold standard, the better correlation between US and MRI than either with clinical examination suggests that US may be more sensitive and specific to the presence of inflammation than clinical examination [7,14–16].

It is likely that PD determination of synovial vascularity will have implications for assessing disease severity. This is because GS synovial hypertrophy may be due to active hypervascular inflammatory synovitis or fibrosis or both [25]. The distinction is important, as it has been shown that the burden of active synovitis as detected by MRI correlates with future erosive disease [26], and that baseline US PD levels have been shown to correlate with progression of Sharpe scores in a RA cohort treated with methotrexate for 48 weeks [27].

A study examining CD US in the single joint (determined by the patient as the most inflamed joint in the hand) was found to correlate with ESR, but, again, not with the patient and physician global visual analog scale (which may not be specific for inflammation) [28]. This was a small number study, and other attempts to relate imaging of single joints to systemic disease activity have not been successful. It seems unlikely that imaging a single predetermined joint will reliably reflect systemic burden of inflammation.

However, at the systemic level, US is likely to be a more objective tool than traditional swollen and tender joint counts in assessing the extent of disease. In a study using US to define the extent of joint involvement in 80 patients presenting with early (<3 months of symptoms) oligoarthritis, subclinical synovitis was found in 64% of patients, with 23% actually meeting criteria for polyarthritis (more than five joints) based on US findings [29]. Synovitis was demonstrated on US in 33% of joints reported as painful by the patient, but felt to be normal by the two examining rheumatologists [29]. This clearly has implications in assessing the extent of joint involvement in inflammatory arthritides. Furthermore, not all joints felt to be swollen clinically were demonstrated to have synovitis by US, and in approximately a third of these joints, the clinical findings were actually attributable to overlying tenosynovitis.

Studies in RA are in keeping with these findings. A recent publication compared a 60 joint count performed clinically with that done by US in 90 RA patients [30]. US identified a significantly greater number of inflamed joints than clinical examination. In addition, US correlated with ESR and CRP better than clinical examination did. US did not correlate well with patient-reported measures, such as tender joint count or health assessment questionnaire. Whilst extensive US examination may be more sensitive and specific to the presence of joint inflammation, imaging 60 joints is not feasible in clinical practice. A reduced US assessment of 12 joints in this cohort correlated well with the extended US joint count (60 joints), and demonstrated similar relationships with clinical and laboratory parameters as the extended US joint count [31].

When considering disease severity, bone damage/erosions may be considered a measure of cumulative rather than current disease activity, but the presence of erosions has prognostic importance. The ability of US to detect erosions has previously been addressed; however, a major advantage of US over CR is that US is more sensitive than CR to erosions in early disease [21], which has implications for the timely identification of those with a poorer prognosis or perhaps those with more severe disease in the current climate of treating disease early.

Assessing response to therapy in RA

Several studies have demonstrated short-term reductions in both GS synovitis and Doppler flow after intra-articular steroid therapy to the inflamed joint [32–36]. Studies examining response to therapy with TNF inhibitors in RA have demonstrated a decrease in Doppler flow as early as 2 weeks and sustained to 12 weeks with continued therapy [37–39]. In these studies, there was some correlation between reduction in US synovitis and a fall in clinical assessment of disease activity. The strongest correlation between a decrease in clinical disease activity and US disease activity was seen in the study that imaged the greatest number of joints. These studies were small and not controlled.

To date, perhaps the best indicator of the ability of US to assess response to therapy was a trial of 24 patients with RA randomized to either methotrexate and placebo or methotrexate and infliximab [27]. At 18 weeks, US assessment of metacarpophalangeal joint synovitis by both GS and PD was more sensitive to differences between therapeutic groups than clinical assessment with the DAS 28.

Conclusion

US is increasingly being utilized in rheumatology outpatient clinics. US may provide improved predictive and prognostic utility, by virtue of its increased sensitivity and reliability when compared with clinical examination. Given the current focus on aggressive, expensive therapies with the increasingly achievable aim of achieving true, imaging-diagnosed remission, sensitive yet feasible techniques are needed to assess disease activity and response to therapy. The ability of US to perform this role requires further investigation.

Future perspective

The use of US in rheumatology is continually increasing on a worldwide scale. The role of GS and Doppler must be further validated, particularly focusing on algorithms of joint counts to make routine use in clinics more feasible. As technology improves, sensitivity and resolution will also improve. Contrast agents are likely to

undergo further validation, although the net benefits over improved GS and Doppler technology may not outweigh the risks and added cost.

Current scoring techniques have largely been designed with clinical trials in mind, and more clinician-friendly assessment systems are required; software to devise more objective measures of synovitis may help this. More machines now have 3D capability, which should further reduce acquisition error and enable the possibility of examining a block of tissue rather than a single slice. This will be increasingly supplemented by the capability for 4D imaging (3D with real-time video).

On a more practical note, the ability of US to guide management decisions and improve outcomes for patients has still be to fully established, and increasing work is expected on useful clinical algorithms. In addition, the cost-effectiveness of using US must be established using such algorithms before widespread use is adopted.

Executive summary

- Ultrasonography (US) is increasingly being utilized in rheumatology.
- Outcome measures in rheumatoid arthritis (RA) clinical trials have recently published definitions for US pathology in RA that should improve interstudy comparisons.
- US is more sensitive to the presence of synovitis than clinical examination.
- Doppler flow can provide information above synovial vascularity, which is thought to suggest active inflammation.
- Gray scale and power Doppler US have been validated against magnetic resonance imaging and histopathology.
- US can demonstrate erosions in early RA better than conventional radiography.
- Since US can detect subclinical synovitis, it should provide a better estimate of disease burden than clinical examination.
- US can demonstrate reductions in synovitis in response to therapy.
- Further work is needed to determine optimal clinical utility in RA.

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