Ultrasonographical diagnosis of acute gynaecological pain
Tan B P, Ong C L

ABSTRACT
Acute pelvic pain is a common presentation in women. There are a myriad of causes, both gynaecological and non-gynaecological in origin. Ultrasonography is well-established as the primary initial investigation of choice. Familiarity with the imaging features of the commonly-associated conditions aids in the rapid diagnosis, and immediate management of the patient. This article provides a pictorial review of the common gynaecological causes of pelvic pain.

Keywords: acute pelvic pain, adnexal torsion, ectopic pregnancy, pelvic inflammatory disease, ultrasonography

INTRODUCTION
Acute pelvic pain accounts for 10%–40% of all gynaecological visits in the USA. Most studies define acute pain as having a duration of ≤ 3–6 months. Pain lasting six months or more is classified as chronic in nature. Transvaginal ultrasonography (TVUS) is the mainstay of imaging evaluation at initial presentation. Its strengths include absence of radiation, rapid availability of machines in hospitals, and excellent visualisation of the pelvic organs. Improvements made in image quality have facilitated the rapid and accurate diagnosis of the majority of gynaecological causes of acute pelvic pain. The ability to confirm the presence of a gynaecological lesion is a valuable one, since it allows for definitive management, which may include surgical intervention. Should there not be a cause evident on TVUS, efforts could be directed towards looking for a non-gynaecological cause. Occasionally, surgical pathologies, such as acute appendicitis or diverticulitis, may manifest themselves on the scan.

PELVIC INFLAMMATORY DISEASE
Pelvic inflammatory disease involves a wide spectrum of diseases which include endometritis, salpingitis, perioophoritis and tubo-ovarian abscess. The clinical presentation frequently includes pain, fever and purulent vaginal discharge. The main imaging feature is a thickened tubular adnexal structure representing an inflammed fallopian tube (Fig. 1). The appearance of the oedematous walls and endosalpingeal folds has been described as the “cogwheel sign”. If its ends are blocked, the fallopian tube dilates and fills up with fluid (hydrosalpinx), and may contain blood (haematosalpinx) or pus (pyosalpinx) (Fig. 2b). Other features include increased adnexal volume, peri-ovarian inflammation in the form of indistinct ovarian margins, increased echogenicity of adnexal fat and increased vascularity. Disease progression leads to development of a tubo-ovarian complex or abscess (Fig. 2).
characterised by multiple thick-walled, dilated fluid-filled structures. The presence of fluid-debris and air-fluid levels are also recognised features. Drainage of the pelvic abscess via ultrasonographic guidance then becomes a useful option.

Fig. 3 TVUS image of a haemorrhagic corpus luteum shows (a) "spidery" internal reticular strands, low-level internal echoes on grey-scale ultrasonography (US), and (b) a vascular rim on colour Doppler US. (c) Following rupture, the cyst is seen together with varying amounts of adnexal fluid (arrow).

Fig. 4 TVUS image of endometrioma. (a) Endometroma mimics a haemorrhagic cyst with typical features of homogeneous internal echoes (ground glass appearance). Note the fluid-fluid level (arrows) within. (b) When bilateral, they may be in close contact and are termed “kissing ovaries”.

OVARIAN CYST ACCIDENT
An ovarian cyst is a common occurrence, and in premenopausal patients, they are often the result of failure of involution of a follicle or corpus luteum. Pressure on the cyst by the probe eliciting tenderness could indicate it as a cause of the pain. A haemorrhagic ovarian cyst is common and it can appear diffuse, contain a fluid-debris level, or present with a reticular “spider web” appearance (Fig. 3). This frequently resolves spontaneously and may be followed-up in 6–8 weeks to confirm resolution.

Occasionally, cyst rupture occurs with an acute onset of pain. A collapsed cyst and echogenic blood in the pelvis may then be readily detected on TVUS. An endometrioma (Fig. 4) is more often associated with chronic pain. However, haemorrhage into an endometrioma can lead to severe acute pain. Endometriomas are less likely to undergo torsion as they are often fixed and hence less mobile.

ADNEXAL TORSION
Adnexal torsion can involve the ovaries or fallopian tubes or both. It is a surgical emergency that requires prompt diagnosis and definitive surgical treatment. Ovarian torsion arises from partial or complete rotation of the ovarian pedicle about its axis. This impairs lymphatic and venous drainage and subsequently, arterial supply to the ovary. Ovarian torsion is known to occur more often on the right side. Predisposing factors include ovarian enlargement due to ovarian cysts, which could occur from hyperstimulation or the presence of a benign ovarian
neoplasm. Complex cystic masses are present more often in the prepubertal than pubertal population with adnexal torsion, with the latter having enlarged ovaries that predispose to torsion.

Ultrasonographic grey-scale features of torsion vary depending on the degree of ischaemia, infarction and duration. A commonly-described finding is heterogeneous echogenicity of the enlarged ovarian stroma with peripheral follicles (Fig. 5). Hyperechoic foci within the stroma may result from haemorrhage, and cystic areas could develop soon after infarction. Free fluid within the pelvis and surrounding the ovaries may also be observed (Fig. 5). In cases of subtorsion, where the twisting is less than 360°, dilatation of the periovarian vessels may be the only clue, as the ovary may demonstrate normal features.

Visualisation of a twisted vascular pedicle (Fig. 6) has been described as the definitive sign in the diagnosis of adnexal torsion. This twisted vascular pedicle corresponds to the broad ligament, fallopian tube, and adnexal and ovarian branches of the uterine artery and vein. On grey-scale imaging, this has a variable appearance, generally consisting of vessels wrapped around a central axis. This may appear hypoechoic or hyperechoic, and can mimic other conditions. As the ovary has dual arterial supply, some degree of torsion may occur even with arterial flow on Doppler interrogation, since only one vessel may be occluded in early torsion. Other studies show that viability of the ovary can be predicted based on the presence of both arterial and venous blood flow. Absence of arterial blood flow alone is a predictor of ovarian nonviability.

ECTOPIC PREGNANCY

Ectopic pregnancy is defined as any pregnancy occurring outside the uterine cavity. The vast majority of ectopic pregnancies (95%) occur within the fallopian tube, and the rest (5%) are found in ovarian, cervical, interstitial (cornual) and abdominal locations. Live embryos found outside the uterus are seen in only 8%–26% of ectopic pregnancies and remain the only pathognomonic finding. TVUS has a pivotal role and is usually performed in conjunction with serum beta-human chorionic gonadotrophin measurements. The visualisation of an intrauterine pregnancy virtually excludes the presence of an ectopic pregnancy, although a heterotopic pregnancy at 1/7,000 is by far an exceedingly rare occurrence.

The most common finding of ectopic pregnancy in the adnexa is a round or elongated extraovarian mass seen in 89%–100% of cases (Fig. 7). This is followed by a “tubal ring”, which is a sac-like structure with a thick rind formed by a gestational sac within a fallopian tube (40%–68% of cases) (Fig. 8). The occurrence of this sign with a positive urine pregnancy test has a reported specificity of 92.2%–
The presence of vascularity helps differentiate it from a blood clot or haematosalpinx, but not from a corpus luteum cyst, which shares the commonly-described “ring of fire” appearance on colour Doppler US. Differentiating an exophytic corpus luteum cyst from an ectopic pregnancy is thus difficult, given the former’s varied appearances depending on the presence and age of the haemorrhagic complication. It has been suggested that the relative hypoechoic appearance of the wall of the corpus luteum cyst helps in distinguishing it from a tubal ectopic pregnancy. Alternatively, if gently tapping on the ovary with the transducer elicits independent movement of the ovary, a tubal ectopic pregnancy is less likely, given the low incidence of ovarian pregnancies (0.15%–3% of all ectopic pregnancies). A study by Atri comparing resistive indices of the corpus luteum cyst and tubal ectopic pregnancies showed that values < 0.39 and

98.8%. The presence of vascularity helps differentiate it from a blood clot or haematosalpinx, but not from a corpus luteum cyst, which shares the commonly-described “ring of fire” appearance on colour Doppler US.

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> 0.7 have a specificity of 100% and a positive predictive value of 100% for ectopic pregnancy.\(^\text{(18)}\) Other findings indicative of ectopic pregnancy include the presence of free pelvic fluid or blood clots in the pelvis; these are important additional signs to look out for. Interstitial pregnancy may be diagnosed when the endometrial lining is seen extending to the margins of the interstitial gestational sac.\(^\text{(19)}\)

**MISCELLANEOUS CAUSES**

Other miscellaneous causes of acute gynaecological pelvic pain include pain from torsion of a pedunculated fibroid. A degenerating fibroid undergoing acute necrosis may also be responsible for acute pelvic pain. Hypoechogenic areas within the fibroid would be a feature to look out for.

**CONCLUSION**

With the many causes of acute pelvic pain, the use of US can be crucial in the initial assessment for rapid and accurate diagnosis; several of these causes require prompt surgical intervention. TVUS is a readily available tool in most institutions and is well-established as the imaging modality of choice.

**REFERENCES**

Multiple Choice Questions (Code SMJ 200806B)

**Question 1.** The following are ultrasonographical features of pelvic inflammatory disease:
(a) Thickened tubular adnexal structure representing an inflammed fallopian tube.  
(b) Dilated fallopian tube with oedematous endosalpingeal folds.  
(c) Decreased echogenicity of ovarian fat.  
(d) Decreased adnexal vascularity.

**Question 2.** Concerning ovarian cyst accidents:
(a) Pressure on the cyst with the ultrasound probe could elicit tenderness.  
(b) A comet tail artefact is frequently seen.  
(c) A reticular “spider web” appearance is commonly seen in haemorrhagic cysts.  
(d) They do not resolve spontaneously.

**Question 3.** In adnexal torsion:
(a) It involves only the ovaries.  
(b) It is predisposed by ovarian neoplasm.  
(c) Visualisation of a twisted vascular pedicle is a definitive sign.  
(d) Absence of venous blood flow alone is a predictor of ovarian nonviability.

**Question 4.** Regarding ectopic pregnancies:
(a) 95% occur in the fallopian tubes.  
(b) Live embryos outside of the uterus are seen in the majority of cases.  
(c) Visualisation of an intrauterine pregnancy excludes the diagnosis of an ectopic pregnancy.  
(d) It may be differentiated easily from a corpus luteum cyst.

**Question 5.** The following are ultrasonographical features of an ectopic pregnancy:
(a) “Ring of fire” appearance on colour Doppler ultrasonography.  
(b) Presence of free pelvic fluid.  
(c) Round or ovoid mass in the adnexa.  
(d) Sac-like structure with a thick rind, or “tubal ring”.

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