

Point-of-Care Ultrasonography for Primary Care Physicians and General Internists

Anjali Bhagra, MBBS; David M. Tierney, MD; Hiroshi Sekiguchi, MD;
and Nilam J. Soni, MD, MSc

Abstract

Point-of-care ultrasonography (POCUS) is a safe and rapidly evolving diagnostic modality that is now utilized by health care professionals from nearly all specialties. Technological advances have improved the portability of equipment, enabling ultrasound imaging to be executed at the bedside and thereby allowing internists to make timely diagnoses and perform ultrasound-guided procedures. We reviewed the literature on the POCUS applications most relevant to the practice of internal medicine. The use of POCUS can immediately narrow differential diagnoses by building on the clinical information revealed by the traditional physical examination and refining clinical decision making for further management. We describe 2 common patient scenarios (heart failure and sepsis) to highlight the impact of POCUS performed by internists on efficiency, diagnostic accuracy, resource utilization, and radiation exposure. Using POCUS to guide procedures has been found to reduce procedure-related complications, along with costs and lengths of stay associated with these complications. Despite several undisputed advantages of POCUS, barriers to implementation must be considered. Most importantly, the utility of POCUS depends on the experience and skills of the operator, which are affected by the availability of training and the cost of ultrasound devices. Additional system barriers include availability of templates for documentation, electronic storage for image archiving, and policies and procedures for quality assurance and billing. Integration of POCUS into the practice of internal medicine is an inevitable change that will empower internists to improve the care of their patients at the bedside.

© 2016 Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research ■ Mayo Clin Proc. 2016;91(12):1811-1827

Point-of-care ultrasonography (POCUS) is a safe and rapidly evolving diagnostic modality. Traditionally, ultrasonography has been used by imaging specialists, such as radiologists and cardiologists; however, it is now utilized by health care professionals from nearly all specialties. Technological advances have improved portability and miniaturization of equipment, allowing ultrasound imaging at the bedside to make timely diagnoses and guide procedures. Over the past several years, there has been emerging interest in the routine use of POCUS to potentially expedite and provide cost-efficient, high-value care.¹

This technology has been touted as the “visual stethoscope” of the 21st century.^{2,3} The stethoscope, developed 200 years ago, is the classic icon for the traditional diagnostic physical examination and is still the most widely used tool to examine patients at the bedside. It is interesting to note, however, that the stethoscope is truly a “stethophone” because

it allows only listening to the human body (steth = chest, phone = sound), rather than truly looking inside the body (scope = to look in). However, as true “scopes,” portable ultrasound devices can generate high-quality images revealing the structure and function of organs.⁴ The traditional bedside physical examination has been on the decline within internal medicine for several years for various reasons.⁵⁻⁹ This increase in ambiguity in diagnosis is potentially unsettling to internal medicine physicians who see a variety of complex presentations and want to “do no harm.” Globally, medical education still emphasizes teaching traditional physical examination; however, no patient outcomes data justify application of physical examination techniques learned for commonly encountered clinical conditions. As an example, little data exist regarding an evaluation of central venous pressure using jugular venous distention in a morbidly obese patient. Moreover, many



From the Division of General Internal Medicine (A.B.) and Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine (H.S.), Department of Medicine, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN; Abbott Northwestern Hospital, Medical Education Department, Minneapolis, MN (D.M.T.); and Section of Hospital Medicine, South Texas Veterans Health Care System and Division of Pulmonary Diseases and Critical Care Medicine, University of Texas Health Science Center, San Antonio, TX (N.J.S.).

important cardiopulmonary abnormalities that are easily and rapidly detected by POCUS, such as pericardial fluid, left ventricular (LV) systolic dysfunction, and pleural effusion, are often missed by traditional physical examination. It is conceivable that patients' increasingly complex medical conditions, physicians' declining physical examination skills, and society's expectation for higher standards of medical care are all leading to increased utilization of POCUS for more accurate bedside assessments of patients.

POCUS can immediately narrow the differential diagnosis by building on clinical information revealed by the history and physical examination^{10,11} and refine clinical decision making for further work-up and treatment.¹² Recent studies have found that clinical management involving the early use of POCUS accurately guides diagnosis, significantly reduces physicians' diagnostic uncertainty, and also changes management and resource utilization.¹³ From a patient perspective, "very low" discomfort was reported during POCUS of the heart, lungs, and deep veins, and most patients agreed to be evaluated with POCUS in an emergency department.¹⁴ Additionally, use of POCUS in the emergency department has been reported to improve patient satisfaction and short-term health care resource utilization.¹⁵⁻¹⁷

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CLINICAL APPLICATIONS

POCUS can be helpful in a variety of common clinical conditions by quickly identifying abnormalities that may not be revealed by a traditional physical examination.² For instance, consider the evaluation of a patient presenting with unexplained dyspnea. In these patients, POCUS of the lungs can rapidly detect pleural effusions, pulmonary edema (B lines, a type of comet tail artifact),¹⁸ pneumonia (consolidation with dynamic air bronchograms),¹⁹ or pneumothorax (absence of pleural sliding and presence of a lung point sign).²⁰

Other conditions readily detected with POCUS include abdominal aortic aneurysms,²¹ deep venous thromboses,²² and peritoneal free fluid.²³ Central venous pressure can be estimated by assessing the inferior vena cava (IVC) or internal jugular vein size and collapsibility.²⁴ Focused cardiac

ultrasonography can expeditiously assess global LV and right ventricular function and detect the presence of a pericardial effusion.²⁵ Other common POCUS applications include vascular, musculoskeletal, sinus, ocular, nerve, thyroid, gallbladder, liver, spleen, renal, testicular, and bladder imaging (Figure 1).

Several medical and surgical subspecialties have adopted POCUS protocols to rule in or rule out certain conditions using an algorithmic approach. Common protocols include BLUE (Bedside Lung Ultrasound in Emergency) for acute respiratory failure,²⁶ FAST (Focused Assessment with Sonography in Trauma) for peritoneal free fluid,²⁷ RUSH (Rapid Ultrasound for Shock and Hypotension) for shock,^{28,29} and CLUE (Cardiovascular Limited Ultrasound Examination) for heart failure.³⁰ These protocols offer a logical POCUS workflow for specific clinical scenarios and provide a foundation to integrate POCUS findings into clinical decision making.

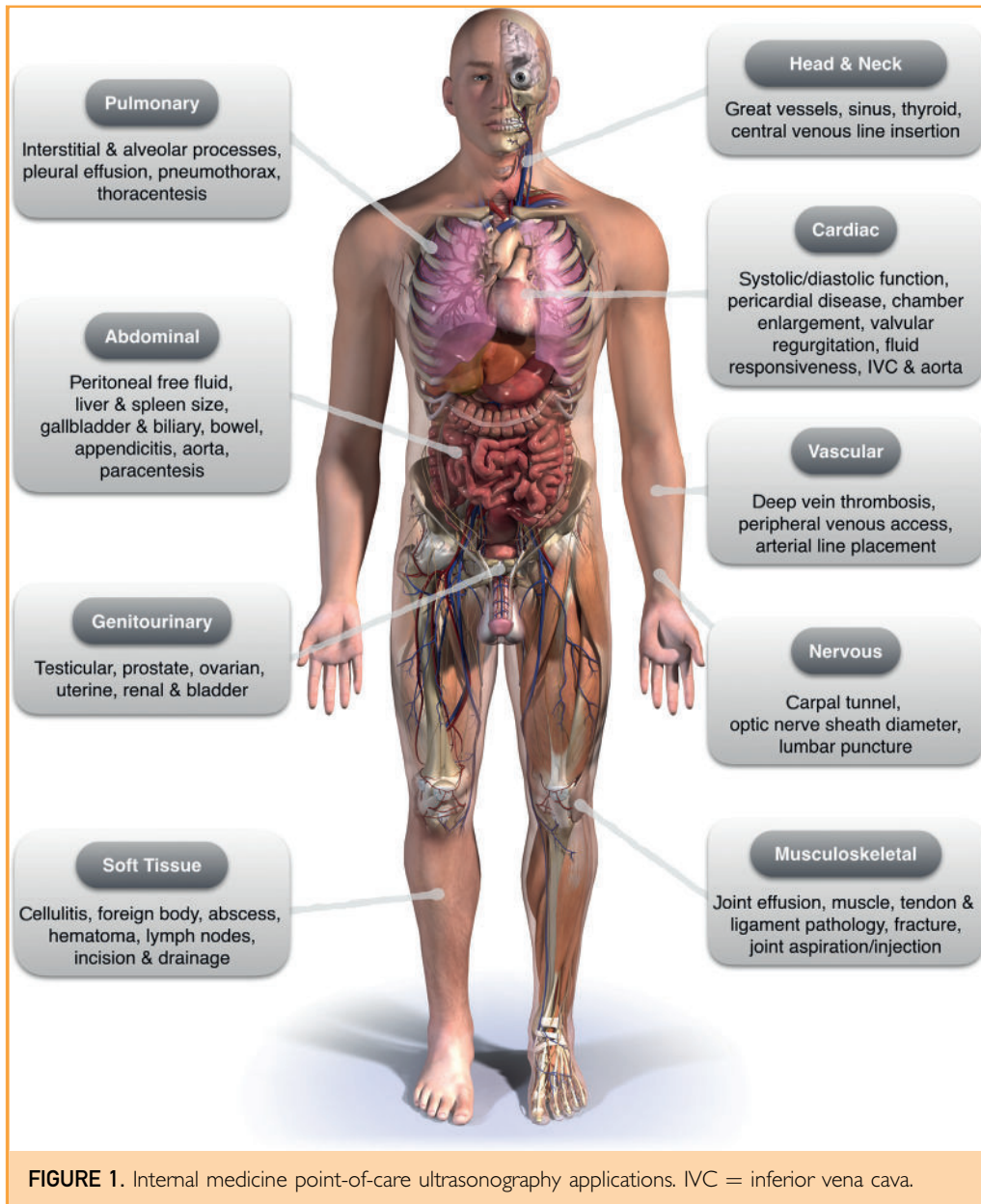
POCUS is not simply a diagnostic algorithm but rather a tool used by a skilled clinician at the bedside to guide clinical decision making in real time. Although almost any diagnostic evaluation can be aided by POCUS (Figure 1, Table), we will describe 2 common patient scenarios to highlight the impact of POCUS on efficiency, diagnostic accuracy, resource utilization, radiation exposure, and patient satisfaction.

CASE 1

A 41-year-old man with hypertension, type 2 diabetes mellitus, and asthma presented to the outpatient clinic with worsening shortness of breath. The shortness of breath had begun abruptly while the patient was at work in a cabinet woodworking shop. He had been evaluated in an urgent care clinic 1 week before presentation and treated with a short course of corticosteroids and inhaled albuterol. His symptoms improved initially but subsequently worsened. He reported frequent ankle swelling that had recently increased. A review of systems revealed loud snoring at night but no angina, orthopnea, paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnea, recent travel/immobilization, or infectious symptoms.

Traditional Physical Examination

Traditional physical examination revealed the following:



- **Vital signs:** Temperature, 36.2°C; pulse rate, 90 beats/min; blood pressure, 128/85 mm Hg; respiratory rate, 15 breaths/min; oxygen saturation, 95%; body mass index (calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared), 31 kg/m²
 - **Head, ears, eyes, nose, and throat:** Mild bilateral tenderness on percussion over maxillary sinuses
 - **Pulmonary:** Distant lung sounds, occasional expiratory wheezing bilaterally
 - **Cardiovascular:** Distant heart sounds, no murmur, neck veins not visible, mild bilateral edema of the ankles
 - **Abdomen:** Protuberant, no palpable hepatosplenomegaly, no shifting dullness or fluid wave
 - **Skin:** No abnormalities
- Differential Diagnosis.** On physical examination, the differential diagnosis includes asthma exacerbation, congestive heart failure, allergic

TABLE. Test Characteristics of Physical Examination vs Point-of-Care Ultrasonography

Test characteristics	Physical examination ³¹					Point-of-care ultrasonography				
	Finding	Sensitivity	Specificity	LR+	LR-	Finding	Sensitivity	Specificity	LR+	LR-
Pulmonary										
Pleural effusion	Percussion dullness	89%	81%	4.8	0.1	Pleural fluid visualization ³²	93%	96%	23	0.07
	Decreased breath sounds	88%	83%	5.2	0.1					
Pulmonary edema	Crackles	19%-64%	82%-94%	3.4	NS	B lines (bilateral) ³³	94%	92%	10.4	0.06
Pneumonia	Bronchial breath sounds	14%	96%	3.3	NS	Consolidation pattern ^{34,35}	94%-95%	90%-96%	13.5	0.06
	Egophony	4%-16%	96%-99%	4.1	NS					
	Crackles	19%-67%	36%-94%	1.8	0.8					
Cardiac										
Elevated LV filling pressures	4th Heart sound	37%-71%	50%-70%	NS	NS	PCWP ≥ 17 if IVC >2.0 ³⁶	75%	83%	4.4	0.3
						IVCCI $<45\%$ ³⁶	83%	71%	2.9	0.24
Elevated CVP >8 cm H ₂ O	Neck vein inspection	47%-92%	93%-96%	9.7	0.3	For CVP >10 mm Hg: IVC size >2 cm ³⁷	73%	85%	4.9	0.32
						with IVCCI $<50\%$ ³⁸	87%	82%	4.8	0.16
						For CVP <10 mm Hg: IVC <2 cm ³⁹	85%	81%	4.4	0.2
						with IVCCI $>50\%$ ³⁹	47%	77%	2.1	0.7
						IJV aspect ratio for CVP <8 ⁴⁰	78%	77%	3.5	0.3
Reduced ejection fraction $<50\%$	3rd Heart sound	11%-51%	85%-98%	3.4	0.7	LV systolic dysfunction ⁴¹⁻⁴³	84%-91%	85%-88%	6.5	0.14
Congestive heart failure	Crackles	12%-23%	88%-96%	NS	NS	B lines, bilateral ²⁶	97%	95%	19.4	0.03
	Elevated JVP	10%-58%	96%-97%	3.9	NS	For CVP >10 mm Hg: IVC size >2 cm ³⁷	73%	85%	4.9	0.32
						with IVCCI $<50\%$ ³⁸	87%	82%	4.8	0.16
	Abdominojugular test	55%-84%	83%-98%	8.0	0.3					
	Edema	10%	93%-96%	NS	NS	CVP <10 mm Hg: IVC <2 cm ³⁹	85%	81%	4.4	0.2
						with IVCCI $>50\%$ ³⁹	47%	77%	2.1	0.7

Continued on next page

TABLE. Continued

Test characteristics	Physical examination ³¹					Point-of-care ultrasonography				
	Finding	Sensitivity	Specificity	LR+	LR–	Finding	Sensitivity	Specificity	LR+	LR–
Abdomen										
Hepatomegaly	Percussion	61%-92%	30%-43%	NS	NS	Hepatomegaly (≤13 or ≥15.5 cm) ⁴⁴	82%	90%	8.2	0.2
Splénomegaly	Palpation	39%-71%	56%-85%	1.9	0.6	Splénomegaly ⁴⁵	100%	74%	3.8	0
	Percussion	25%-85%	32%-94%	1.7	0.7					
Bladder volume >400 mL	Palpation	18%-78%	89%-99%	8.5	0.5	US bladder volume >600 mL (transverse diameter >9.7 cm) ⁴⁶	96%	75%	3.84	0.05
Ascites	Palpation	82%	56%	1.9	0.3	Ascites visualization ⁴⁷	96%	82%	32	0.04
	Bulging flanks	73%-93%	44%-70%	1.9	0.4					
	Flank dullness	80%-94%	29%-69%	NS	0.3					
	Shifting dullness	60%-87%	56%-90%	2.3	0.4					
	Fluid wave	50%-80%	82%-92%	5.0	0.5					
Vascular										
Lower extremity DVT	Calf swelling >2 cm	61%-67%	69%-71%	2.1	0.5	Compression venous ultrasonography ⁴⁸	96%	97%	32	0.04
	Homans sign	10%-54%	39%-89%	NS	NS					
	Wells score (high probability)	38%-87%	71%-99%	6.3	NA					

CVP = central venous pressure; DVT = deep vein thrombosis; IJV = internal jugular vein; IVC = inferior vena cava; IVCCI = IVC collapsibility index; JVP = jugular venous pressure; LR+ = positive likelihood ratio; LR– = negative likelihood ratio; LV = left ventricle; NA = not applicable; NS = not significant; PCWP = pulmonary capillary wedge pressure; US = ultrasound.

pneumonitis secondary to wood dust, pneumonia, and pulmonary hypertension due to obstructive sleep apnea.

Plan With Traditional Physical Examination Alone. For patients with the aforementioned findings on traditional physical examination, the following steps would be taken:

- Outpatient chest radiography
- Addition of inhaled glucocorticoid and continuation of albuterol for asthma
- Follow-up in 3 to 5 days if no improvement noted

POCUS-Assisted Physical Examination

POCUS-assisted physical examination revealed the following:

- **Head, ears, eyes, nose, and throat:** No fluid level present in either maxillary sinus (Figure 2, A)

- **Pulmonary:** Lung sliding bilaterally throughout (Supplemental Video 1, available online at <http://www.mayoclinicproceedings.org>), multiple bilateral B lines (≥ 3 per inter-space) in upper and lower lung fields (Figure 2, B; Supplemental Video 1), small bilateral pleural effusions with associated atelectasis (Figure 2, C; Supplemental Video 2, available online at <http://www.mayoclinicproceedings.org>)
- **Cardiovascular:** Measurement of IVC was 2.8 cm with less than 50% collapse on inspiration (Figure 2, C; Supplemental Video 2), no pericardial effusion, LV wall thickness of 2 cm septal and 1.9 cm posterior, LV systolic function severely reduced (Figure 2, D; Supplemental Video 3, available online at <http://www.mayoclinicproceedings.org>), no major mitral or tricuspid regurgitation, right ventricle difficult to view but does not appear substantially enlarged

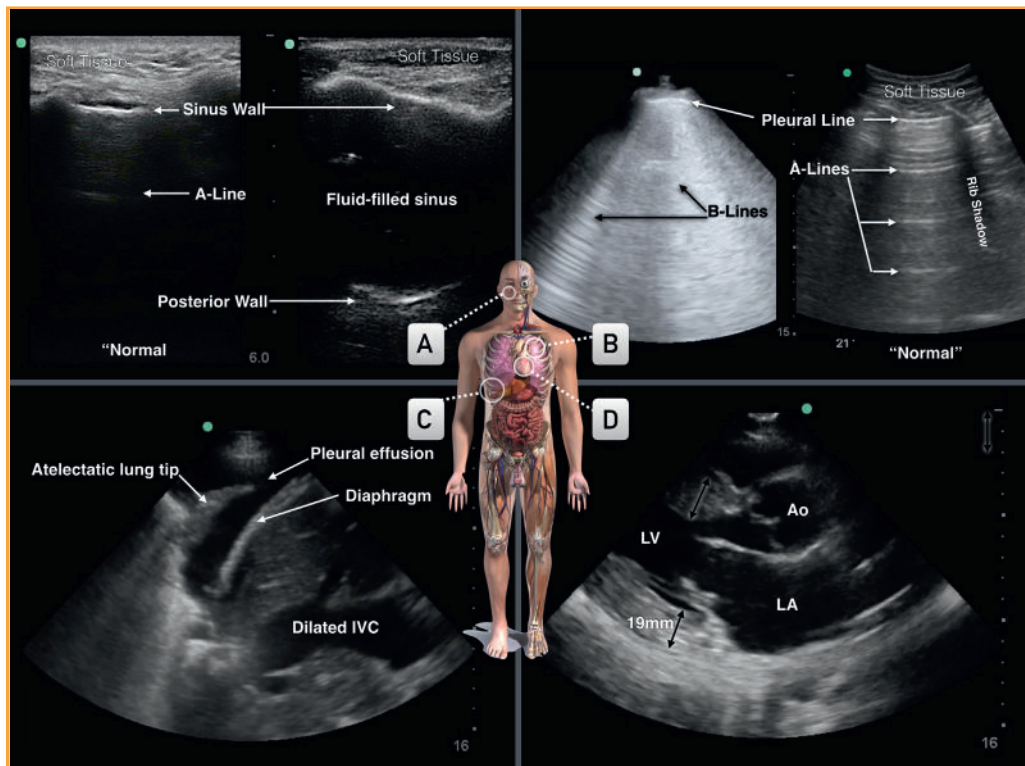


FIGURE 2. Case 1. Point-of-care ultrasonographic images. A, Normal maxillary sinus (left) compared with abnormal, fluid-filled maxillary sinus (right). B, Pulmonary images showing normal lung (right) and abnormal lung with pulmonary edema (left). C, View at the level of the right diaphragm with pleural effusion and dilated inferior vena cava (IVC). D, Parasternal long-axis view of the heart showing thickened left ventricular (LV) walls, left atrium (LA), and ascending aorta (Ao).

- **Abdomen:** Liver span and spleen size normal, no ascites visible

Differential Diagnosis. Based on POCUS examination findings of a plethoric IVC, bilateral B lines, pleural effusions, and severely reduced LV systolic function, the primary diagnosis in the differential is acute decompensated systolic heart failure with pulmonary edema and elevated central venous pressure. Asthma exacerbation, allergic pneumonitis, pneumonia, and pulmonary hypertension with obstructive sleep apnea are highly unlikely based on the POCUS examination findings.

Plan With POCUS-Assisted Physical Examination. For patients with the aforementioned findings on POCUS-assisted physical examination, the following steps would be taken:

- Admit to hospital from clinic
- Comprehensive transthoracic echocardiography to evaluate LV function and pericardial effusion the next morning
- Cardiac ischemic work-up
- Intravenous diuresis

Discussion

The identification of elevated central venous pressure (IVC dilation with minimal collapse),^{38,49-53} pulmonary edema (bilateral interstitial syndrome B lines),⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ and pleural effusions combined with an unanticipated reduction in LV systolic function^{25,41,57-64} dramatically changed this patient's evaluation and management. During his inpatient work-up, isolated LV noncompaction was diagnosed after cardiac magnetic resonance imaging and coronary angiography.

Shortness of breath entails a broad differential, and the addition of POCUS in real time at the bedside can tremendously help mitigate delay in appropriate testing and diagnosis.^{26,33,34,65-74} The presence of B lines on the initial pulmonary ultrasonography in this patient focuses the differential on heart failure, pneumonia, interstitial lung disease, and potentially pulmonary embolism.^{26,55,56,74-76} The distribution of B lines is helpful in further narrowing the differential diagnosis.²⁶ The presence of bilateral diffuse B lines makes cardiogenic pulmonary edema, viral pneumonia, and other

causes of diffuse interstitial lung abnormalities most likely. The differential diagnosis is further narrowed by focused cardiac ultrasonography to assess LV systolic function^{57,58,60,77} and an IVC examination to estimate the central venous pressure.⁷⁸ In the absence of cardiac findings suggestive of cardiogenic pulmonary edema, a focused work-up or empirical treatment of pneumonia would have ensued.

The following workflow may be employed. (1) The lack of B lines on pulmonary ultrasonography rules out dyspnea from hydrostatic cardiogenic pulmonary edema.^{26,54} (2) The lack of consolidation or B lines reduces the likelihood of pneumonia considerably; in a patient with a low pretest probability of pneumonia, the diagnosis can be ruled out (note that although the sensitivity of POCUS for pneumonia is high in critically ill patients, central pneumonia can be missed, especially in less severe cases frequently seen in outpatient presentations).^{19,26,34,66,70,71,74,79-81} (3) The differential diagnosis now includes obstructive lung disease and pulmonary vascular disease that can be difficult to distinguish with basic POCUS applications.^{19,26,34,66,70,71,74,79-81} (4) Auscultation at this point may be valuable if findings of obstructive lung disease, such as decreased breath sounds and wheezing, are present. (5) If findings of obstructive lung disease are not present, a combination of venous and focused cardiac ultrasonography can further narrow the differential diagnosis to improve efficiency of further work-up (Figure 3).

CASE 2

A 69-year-old man with cirrhosis secondary to alcohol abuse, benign prostatic hypertrophy, type 2 diabetes mellitus, and nephrolithiasis was admitted to the hospital with lethargy, confusion, increased abdominal distention, and a subjective fever over the preceding 24 hours. He reported minimal oral intake and a mild productive cough for the past 2 weeks. A syncopal episode while getting out of bed prompted transport to the emergency department. Initial laboratory tests in the emergency department revealed acute renal failure (ARF), leukocytosis, thrombocytopenia, and elevated troponin T level. Electrocardiography revealed sinus tachycardia with 1- to 2-mm lateral ST-segment depression.

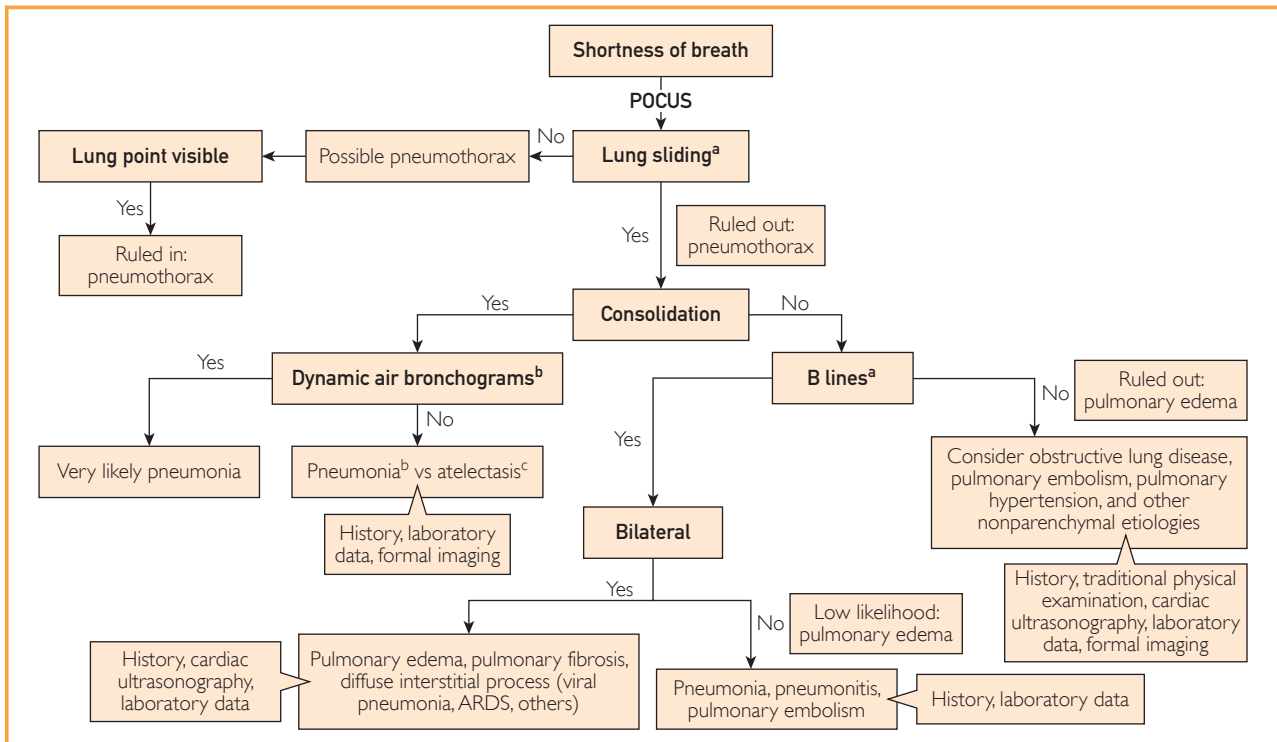


FIGURE 3. Typical point-of-care ultrasonography (POCUS)—integrated approach to a patient presenting with shortness of breath. ARDS = acute respiratory distress syndrome; a = Supplemental Video 1; b = Supplemental Video 6; c = Supplemental Video 2. Supplemental videos are available online at <http://www.mayoclinicproceedings.org>.

Traditional Physical Examination

Traditional physical examination revealed the following:

- **Vital signs:** Temperature, 37.7°C; pulse rate, 110 beats/min; blood pressure, 72/32 mm Hg; respiratory rate, 28 breaths/min; oxygen saturation, 91%; body mass index, 18 kg/m²
- **Pulmonary:** Decreased lung sounds bilaterally at the bases, intermittent bibasilar crackles
- **Cardiovascular:** Tachycardia, regular rhythm, no murmur, neck veins not visible, warm bilateral lower extremities with mild edema to the shin (right greater than left)
- **Abdomen:** Protuberant abdomen with bulging flanks and dullness to percussion, moderate diffuse tenderness on palpation without acute peritoneal signs, liver and spleen examination limited due to abdominal distention and pain, no costovertebral angle tenderness
- **Skin:** No jaundice, dilated venous pattern on abdomen, palmar erythema, no rash

Differential Diagnosis. (1) Hypotension and tachycardia secondary to (a) sepsis due to spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (SBP), pneumonia, or biliary process, (b) cardiogenic shock due to alcoholic cardiomyopathy or ischemia, (c) obstructive shock from cardiac tamponade or pulmonary embolism, or (d) hypovolemic shock from diuretics and reduced intake; and (2) ARF secondary to (a) prerenal etiologies, including hypotension vs hepatorenal physiology, or (b) postrenal etiologies, such as benign prostatic hypertrophy or nephrolithiasis.

Plan With Traditional Physical Examination Alone. For patients with the aforementioned findings on traditional physical examination, the following steps would be taken:

- Chest radiography to evaluate for possible pulmonary infiltrate
- Blood and urine cultures, urinalysis, and liver biochemical tests
- Abdominal ultrasonography to evaluate for possible obstructive biliary process and

ascites, followed by diagnostic paracentesis performed in the radiology department

- Central venous catheter (CVC) placement for central venous pressure monitoring, fluid resuscitation, and possible vasopressor support
- Initiation of empirical broad-spectrum antibiotics to cover potential pulmonary and abdominal sources of sepsis
- Comprehensive transthoracic echocardiography to evaluate LV function and pericardial effusion the next morning
- Renal ultrasonography in the radiology department to evaluate for hydronephrosis
- Bladder scan or empirical urinary catheter placement to measure postvoid residual urine volume
- Serial laboratory measurements of lactate and troponin levels with fluid resuscitation

POCUS-Assisted Physical Examination

POCUS-assisted physical examination revealed the following:

- **Pulmonary:** Bilateral lung sliding noted throughout, bilateral elevated hemidiaphragm to tip of scapula with small bilateral pleural effusions and few B lines in both dependent lung fields associated with mild bilateral atelectasis
- **Cardiovascular:** Focused cardiac ultrasonography revealed trace pericardial effusion, normal right ventricle size with increased contractility, hyperdynamic LV with “kissing” endocardium (Supplemental Video 3, available online at <http://www.mayoclinicproceedings.org>), IVC less than 1 cm in diameter with 100% collapse except during expiration (Supplemental Video 4, available online at <http://www.mayoclinicproceedings.org>). Lower extremity vascular assessment revealed complete compression of saphenous veins, common/deep/superficial femoral veins, and popliteal veins bilaterally
- **Abdomen:** Moderate ascites throughout (Figure 4, A; Supplemental Video 5, available online at <http://www.mayoclinicproceedings.org>), small liver (8-cm midclavicular span) with scalloped cortex, enlarged spleen (19 cm in long axis and 8 cm in short axis) (Figure 4, B), minimally distended bladder (Figure 4, C), and no hydronephrosis (Figure 4, D). Gallbladder was noted to

be normal with no sonographic Murphy sign

Differential Diagnosis. Based on the POCUS findings of a collapsed IVC, hyperdynamic LV, ascites, splenomegaly, and cirrhotic liver, the differential diagnosis was narrowed to hypovolemia secondary to sepsis syndrome due to SBP or possible biliary process and ARF due to a prerenal/renal etiology.

Plan With POCUS-Assisted Physical Examination. For patients with the aforementioned findings on POCUS-assisted physical examination, the following steps would be taken:

- Bedside paracentesis with ultrasound guidance to evaluate for SBP (Supplemental Video 5)
- Immediate volume resuscitation
- Serial bedside POCUS of LV, IVC, and lungs during fluid resuscitation to monitor for early signs of pulmonary edema with low threshold for transfer to critical care unit for vasopressor and fluid support
- Empirical broad-spectrum antibiotics to cover possible SBP and biliary source of sepsis
- Blood and urine cultures, urinalysis, and liver biochemical tests
- Consider right upper quadrant ultrasonography for possible obstructive biliary process
- Serial laboratory testing including lactate and troponin levels with fluid resuscitation
- Comprehensive transthoracic echocardiography to evaluate LV function and pericardial effusion the next morning

Discussion

Bedside ultrasound-guided paracentesis has been reported to be safe and effective when performed by nonradiologists⁸²⁻⁸⁴ and can quickly identify the source of sepsis. Volume resuscitation guided by POCUS includes discontinuation of intravenous fluids when the POCUS examination reveals early signs of pulmonary edema^{74,85} or when minimal change in stroke volume occurs with a passive leg raise.⁸⁶⁻⁹¹ This patient was transitioned to the intensive care unit for initiation of early vasopressor support. The ARF normalized

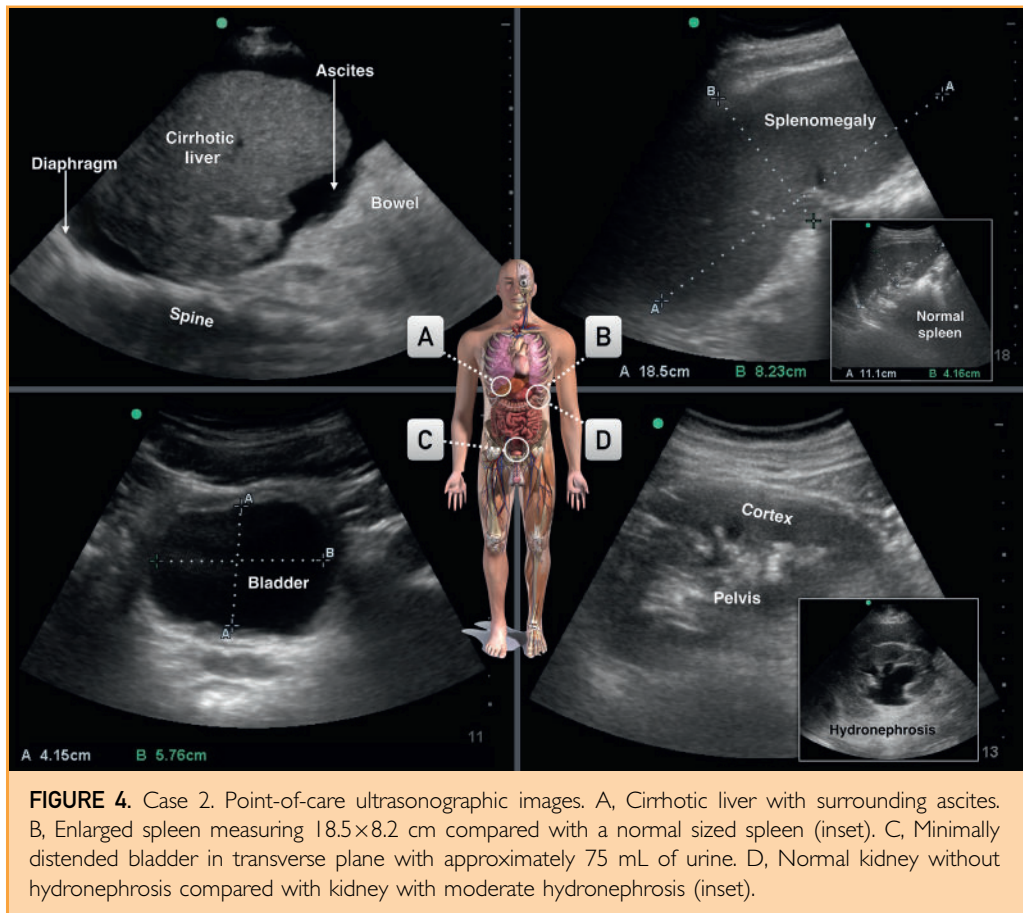


FIGURE 4. Case 2. Point-of-care ultrasonographic images. A, Cirrhotic liver with surrounding ascites. B, Enlarged spleen measuring 18.5×8.2 cm compared with a normal sized spleen (inset). C, Minimally distended bladder in transverse plane with approximately 75 mL of urine. D, Normal kidney without hydronephrosis compared with kidney with moderate hydronephrosis (inset).

over the next 48 hours with fluid resuscitation and vasopressor support.

Hypotension has a broad differential diagnosis, as in this case, and poses a diagnostic and therapeutic challenge to internists. POCUS of the heart, lungs, abdomen, and peripheral vascular system can expedite evaluation for potential etiologies of hypovolemic, distributive, cardiogenic, or obstructive shock.^{29,66,92-97} Serial POCUS can be used to monitor ongoing fluid resuscitation and help determine the need for vasopressor support.^{85,98}

Acute renal failure is common in the inpatient setting and often creates a diagnostic dilemma. A POCUS examination of the kidneys has been found to rapidly and effectively rule out hydronephrosis and guide the need for urinary catheterization.⁹⁹ POCUS of the lungs and cardiovascular system supplements the renal examination by providing

information on hemodynamics to assess renal perfusion.¹⁰⁰⁻¹⁰³

CHALLENGES AND PITFALLS

Despite the several undisputed advantages of utilizing POCUS, there are several barriers and pitfalls to consider. First, there are challenges relating to equipment and technology. POCUS can be performed with a variety of available equipment: full-sized traditional machines, laptop-sized devices, and pocket-sized devices. Even ultrasound transducers that can be plugged directly into handheld computers are now available. Although many physicians generally prefer compact ultrasonography devices for portability, these devices have limited ability to adjust image quality. Concerns have been raised about small handheld systems with regard to their narrow sector, smaller field of view, lower resolution, and simplified transducer technology.^{25,104,105} Although

studies have documented that small ultrasonography devices can be used to answer focused questions,^{18,61,106-115} operators must be aware of their limitations.

From an operator and training perspective, studies have found that the utility of a POCUS examination depends on the experience and skills of the operator.^{42,48,116-120} Operator training is crucial for POCUS to be utilized correctly in patient care, and studies have revealed that barriers to POCUS adoption include insufficient faculty training, high cost of ultrasonography machines, and time required to train physicians.^{45,121} The relatively high level of operator dependency compared with other diagnostic testing is reasonably expected, given the multiple skills required to perform a POCUS examination. First, a POCUS examination begins with formulation of a specific clinical question and a decision to utilize POCUS to answer this question.¹²² Next, acquisition of images requires knowledge of sonographic windows, ultrasound physics, and hand-eye-brain coordination to manipulate the transducer to optimize image quality.¹²² Interpretation of POCUS images requires skills that are independent from physical examination skills, and operators must recognize artifacts that are encountered during image acquisition and interpretation.¹²² Most importantly, POCUS findings must be interpreted and integrated with other clinical data to effectively guide clinical decision making.¹²² Failure during any step of this multistep process may undermine the true value of using POCUS.

The skills needed to perform POCUS examinations have not been uniformly taught in undergraduate or graduate medical education. Although a movement to integrate POCUS education into medical schools or internal medicine residency programs has been gaining momentum over the past decade,^{43,121,123-129} there is no consensus on the training required to reach adequate POCUS competency levels in general internal medicine.^{25,104,110,111,130-133} It is generally agreed that training must include basic knowledge of ultrasound physics and supervised image acquisition and interpretation practice.^{25,104,110,111,130-133}

Other potential challenges include the availability of templates for documentation, electronic storage for image archiving, and

policies and procedures for quality assurance and billing. Emergency medicine societies have addressed these issues and assisted physicians in understanding correct and compliant coding for the past 2 decades.^{37,39,40} In terms of billing, POCUS can potentially influence the evaluation and management code by affecting the complexity of medical decision making (*Current Procedural Terminology*).¹¹²⁻¹¹⁵ Some believe that reimbursement is essential to cover the substantial cost of POCUS education and equipment purchasing and maintenance.¹¹²⁻¹¹⁵ Conversely, others view POCUS as an extension of the physical examination, which raises concerns that a heavy focus on billing may block the routine use of POCUS.¹¹⁶⁻¹¹⁸ Future reimbursement systems that capture an “episode of care,” also known as “bundling,” will likely change the perspectives on POCUS billing, documentation, and image archiving.^{112,117} As the workflow for POCUS in internal medicine matures, medical practices will be required to provide the administrative infrastructure needed to meet these evolving standards of care for use of POCUS.^{25,104,116}

For effective integration of POCUS into clinical care, quality assurance is an important consideration. Although quality assurance has been emphasized to avoid misinterpretation of images, most malpractice cases related to POCUS in emergency medicine have been due to failure to perform a POCUS examination in a timely manner, rather than misinterpretation or misdiagnosis with the use of POCUS.⁷⁶ The extent to which quality assurance will be needed in internal medicine and other specialties is yet to be determined because increased legal risks may occur with either failure to use POCUS or misinterpretation of POCUS images.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Early POCUS research focused on diagnostic accuracy to establish that health care professionals with focused training in ultrasonography can acquire and interpret images accurately. The diagnostic accuracy of front-line physicians performing POCUS examinations has been compared with imaging acquired by full-time sonographers and interpreted by imaging specialists, primarily radiologists or cardiologists. Several published studies have proven that POCUS has

diagnostic accuracy similar to that of criterion standard imaging studies for specific findings, such as pneumothorax,^{67,119} pericardial effusion,^{42,120} or lower extremity deep venous thrombosis.⁴⁸ However, few studies have compared the diagnostic accuracy of POCUS vs the traditional diagnostic approach using history and physical examination. Interestingly, these studies have clearly confirmed the superiority of POCUS. For instance, half as many major cardiac findings were missed when a cardiac physical examination performed by experienced cardiologists was supplemented with a focused cardiac ultrasonographic examination.¹²¹ Although a fairer comparison may be to compare the diagnostic accuracy of POCUS to that of physical examination, rather than criterion standard imaging studies, few comparative studies of internist-performed physical examinations, with or without the addition of POCUS, have been published.⁴⁵

During the past 15 years, POCUS research has shifted focus from diagnostic accuracy to demonstration of improved health outcomes. Use of POCUS to guide bedside procedures has been reported to reduce procedure-related complications, including arterial punctures during central venous catheterization,¹³⁴ postthoracostomy pneumothorax, and postparacentesis bleeding complications, along with the costs and lengths of stay associated with these complications.^{123,124} However, few randomized trials have been published, and a paucity of data exists supporting the routine use of POCUS for diagnostic evaluations.^{15,69,77,125-127} Only one randomized trial with internal medicine-trained physicians has been published comparing routine focused cardiac ultrasonography vs standard care in hospitalized general medicine patients. This study found a potential reduction in length of stay with the use of POCUS in the cohort of patients with heart failure.⁴³ Thus, comparative studies evaluating the clinical and health services outcomes of usual care with and without the routine use of POCUS by internists for different conditions are needed.

Another interesting facet of POCUS research is whether the higher-priority focus is physician training or clinical outcomes. A fundamental question has yet to be answered: How do we effectively train health care

professionals, ranging from medical students to senior attending physicians, to utilize POCUS? Experts generally agree that the use of POCUS requires basic knowledge of ultrasonography, image acquisition and interpretation skills, and an understanding of integration of POCUS findings into clinical decision making. If we believe that the focus should be outcomes research rather than training, then we are relegated to performing studies with a few experts performing all POCUS examinations, which may be biased toward benefit because the experts' skill level is beyond what may be achievable by a physician with average POCUS skills. On the contrary, if we believe training should be the focus, then medical institutions, including medical schools, hospitals, and health care systems, will have to invest in training physicians in basic POCUS applications before large effectiveness trials can be undertaken to evaluate the impact of POCUS on clinical outcomes. As this debate has continued, medical schools have begun to invest heavily in integrating POCUS training into clinical skills education, and positive student reviews and publicity continue to drive this integration in medical school curricula. Meanwhile, practicing internists are feeling growing pressures to acquire basic POCUS skills because their trainees may have more advanced POCUS skills than they do.

From a health care system perspective, the field of POCUS is ripe for health services research because an increasing number of POCUS applications are recommended by evidence-based guidelines. For example, consider the use of ultrasound guidance to place CVCs. Since the early 2000s, ultrasound guidance for placement of CVCs has been recommended by national patient safety and quality organizations on the basis of several randomized trials and meta-analyses^{128,129,135}; however, the use of ultrasound guidance to insert CVCs has not been universally adopted in clinical practice. Investigations using methods from implementation science may reveal barriers to adoption of POCUS use for CVC insertion. Lessons learned from studying this implementation gap may guide future implementation of POCUS use within the practice of internal medicine.

Certain POCUS applications with well-proven benefits, such as use of ultrasound

guidance for insertion of CVCs, are primed for system-wide implementation. However, a diversified approach to POCUS research is needed in view of the varying levels of evidence supporting different POCUS applications. For known POCUS applications that are not yet the standard of care, such as evaluation of acute dyspnea with POCUS, additional clinical outcomes and health services research will likely be needed to confirm benefit and assess the effect on health care costs, length of stay, and patient experience. For other newer, novel POCUS applications, such as elastography and 3-dimensional ultrasound imaging, diagnostic accuracy studies are needed to establish their role in clinical medicine. Underlying this broad spectrum of clinical research needs is the need for educational research to help us understand how to effectively train physicians to use POCUS. Educational research will help us define the scope of training, identify resources needed (equipment, faculty/staff time), and set realistic goals for training programs.

CONCLUSION

Empowering internists to assess patients using POCUS is an inevitable change in the practice of internal medicine that has already begun to disseminate. The ability to visualize pathophysiologic features in real time using POCUS can provide expedited, high-quality, safe, and cost-conscious patient care. As new clinical and educational research emerges, our understanding of how to integrate POCUS into clinical practice will improve, and routine use of POCUS in clinical practice will establish new standards of care.

SUPPLEMENTAL ONLINE MATERIAL

Supplemental material can be found online at <http://www.mayoclinicproceedings.org>. Supplemental material attached to journal articles has not been edited, and the authors take responsibility for the accuracy of all data.

Abbreviations and Acronyms: ARF = acute renal failure; CVC = central venous catheter; IVC = inferior vena cava; LV = left ventricular; POCUS = point-of-care ultrasonography; SBP = spontaneous bacterial peritonitis

Correspondence: Address to Anjali Bhagra, MBBS, Division of General Internal Medicine, Mayo Clinic, 200 First St SW, Rochester, MN 55905 (bhagra.anjali@mayo.edu).

REFERENCES

1. Greaves K, Jeetley P, Hickman M, et al. The use of hand-carried ultrasound in the hospital setting—a cost-effective analysis. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr*. 2005;18(6):620-625.
2. Sekiguchi H. Tools of the trade: point-of-care ultrasonography as a stethoscope. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med*. 2016;37(1):68-87.
3. Mulvagh SL, Bhagra A, Nelson BP, Narula J. Handheld ultrasound devices and the training conundrum: how to get to “seeing is believing” [editorial]. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr*. 2014;27(3):310-313.
4. Liebo MJ, Israel RL, Lillie EO, Smith MR, Rubenson DS, Topol EJ. Is pocket mobile echocardiography the next-generation stethoscope? a cross-sectional comparison of rapidly acquired images with standard transthoracic echocardiography. *Ann Intern Med*. 2011;155(1):33-38.
5. Mangione S, Nieman LZ. Cardiac auscultatory skills of internal medicine and family practice trainees: a comparison of diagnostic proficiency [published correction appears in *JAMA*. 1998;279(18):1444]. *JAMA*. 1997;278(9):717-722.
6. Conn RD, O’Keefe JH. Cardiac physical diagnosis in the digital age: an important but increasingly neglected skill (from stethoscopes to microchips). *Am J Cardiol*. 2009;104(4):590-595.
7. Jauhar S. The demise of the physical exam. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;354(6):548-551.
8. Kugler J, Verghese A. The physical exam and other forms of fiction [editorial]. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2010;25(8):756-757.
9. Verghese A, Brady E, Kapur CC, Horwitz RI. The bedside evaluation: ritual and reason. *Ann Intern Med*. 2011;155(8):550-553.
10. Cardim N, Fernandez Golfin C, Ferreira D, et al. Usefulness of a new miniaturized echocardiographic system in outpatient cardiology consultations as an extension of physical examination. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr*. 2011;24(2):117-124.
11. Beaton A, Aliku T, Okello E, et al. The utility of handheld echocardiography for early diagnosis of rheumatic heart disease. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr*. 2014;27(1):42-49.
12. Gorcsan J III, Pandey P, Sade LE. Influence of hand-carried ultrasound on bedside patient treatment decisions for consultative cardiology. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr*. 2004;17(1):50-55.
13. Shokoohi H, Boniface KS, Pourmand A, et al. Bedside ultrasound reduces diagnostic uncertainty and guides resuscitation in patients with undifferentiated hypotension. *Crit Care Med*. 2015;43(12):2562-2569.
14. Laursen CB, Sloth E, Lassen AT, et al. Does point-of-care ultrasonography cause discomfort in patients admitted with respiratory symptoms? *Scand J Trauma Resusc Emerg Med*. 2015;23:46.
15. Lindelius A, Tömgren S, Nilsson L, Pettersson H, Adami J. Randomized clinical trial of bedside ultrasound among patients with abdominal pain in the emergency department: impact on patient satisfaction and health care consumption. *Scand J Trauma Resusc Emerg Med*. 2009;17:60.
16. Howard ZD, Noble VE, Marill KA, et al. Bedside ultrasound maximizes patient satisfaction. *J Emerg Med*. 2014;46(1):46-53.
17. Durston W, Carl ML, Guerra W. Patient satisfaction and diagnostic accuracy with ultrasound by emergency physicians. *Am J Emerg Med*. 1999;17(7):642-646.
18. Bedetti G, Gargani L, Corbisiero A, Frassi F, Poggianti E, Mottola G. Evaluation of ultrasound lung comets by handheld echocardiography. *Cardiovasc Ultrasound*. 2006;4:34.
19. Lichtenstein D, Mezière G, Seitz J. The dynamic air bronchogram: a lung ultrasound sign of alveolar consolidation ruling out atelectasis. *Chest*. 2009;135(6):1421-1425.
20. Lichtenstein DA, Menu Y. A bedside ultrasound sign ruling out pneumothorax in the critically ill: lung sliding. *Chest*. 1995;108(5):1345-1348.
21. Lin PH, Bush RL, McCoy SA, et al. A prospective study of a hand-held ultrasound device in abdominal aortic aneurysm evaluation. *Am J Surg*. 2003;186(5):455-459.

22. Frazee BW, Snoey ER, Levitt A. Emergency Department compression ultrasound to diagnose proximal deep vein thrombosis. *J Emerg Med.* 2001;20(2):107-112.
23. Kirkpatrick AW, Simons RK, Brown R, Nicolaou S, Dulchavsky S. The hand-held FAST: experience with hand-held trauma sonography in a level-I urban trauma center. *Injury.* 2002;33(4):303-308.
24. Zengin S, Al B, Genc S, et al. Role of inferior vena cava and right ventricular diameter in assessment of volume status: a comparative study; ultrasound and hypovolemia. *Am J Emerg Med.* 2013;31(5):763-767.
25. Spencer KT, Kimura BJ, Korcarz CE, Pellikka PA, Rahko PS, Siegel RJ. Focused cardiac ultrasound: recommendations from the American Society of Echocardiography. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr.* 2013;26(6):567-581.
26. Lichtenstein DA, Mezière GA. Relevance of lung ultrasound in the diagnosis of acute respiratory failure: the BLUE protocol [published correction appears in *Chest.* 2013;144(2):721]. *Chest.* 2008;134(1):117-125.
27. Scalea TM, Rodriguez A, Chiu WC, et al. Focused Assessment with Sonography for Trauma (FAST): results from an international consensus conference. *J Trauma.* 1999;46(3):466-472.
28. Perera P, Mailhot T, Riley D, Mandavia D. The RUSH exam: Rapid Ultrasound in SHock in the evaluation of the critically ill. *Emerg Med Clin North Am.* 2010;28(1):29-56, vii.
29. Weingart SD, Duque D, Nelson B. The RUSH exam: Rapid Ultrasound for Shock and Hypotension. EMCrit website. <http://emcrit.org/rush-exam/original-rush-article/>. Accessed June 2, 2016.
30. Kimura BJ, Shaw DJ, Agan DL, Amundson SA, Ping AC, DeMaria AN. Value of a cardiovascular limited ultrasound examination using a hand-carried ultrasound device on clinical management in an outpatient medical clinic. *Am J Cardiol.* 2007;100(2):321-325.
31. McGee S. *Evidence-Based Physical Diagnosis.* 3rd ed. Philadelphia, PA: Elsevier Health Sciences; 2012.
32. Grimberg A, Shigueoka DC, Atallah AN, Ajzen S, Iared W. Diagnostic accuracy of sonography for pleural effusion: systematic review. *Sao Paulo Med J.* 2010;128(2):90-95.
33. Al Deeb M, Barbic S, Featherstone R, Dankoff J, Barbic D. Point-of-care ultrasonography for the diagnosis of acute cardiogenic pulmonary edema in patients presenting with acute dyspnea: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Acad Emerg Med.* 2014;21(8):843-852.
34. Chavez MA, Shams N, Ellington LE, et al. Lung ultrasound for the diagnosis of pneumonia in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Respir Res.* 2014;15:50.
35. Ye X, Xiao H, Chen B, Zhang S. Accuracy of lung ultrasonography versus chest radiography for the diagnosis of adult community-acquired pneumonia: review of the literature and meta-analysis. *PLoS One.* 2015;10(6):e0130066.
36. Blair JE, Brennan JM, Goonewardena SN, Shah D, Vasaiwala S, Spencer KT. Usefulness of hand-carried ultrasound to predict elevated left ventricular filling pressure. *Am J Cardiol.* 2009;103(2):246-247.
37. Brennan JM, Blair JE, Goonewardena S, et al. Reappraisal of the use of inferior vena cava for estimating right atrial pressure. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr.* 2007;20(7):857-861.
38. Kircher BJ, Himelman RB, Schiller NB. Noninvasive estimation of right atrial pressure from the inspiratory collapse of the inferior vena cava. *Am J Cardiol.* 1990;66(4):493-496.
39. Prekker ME, Scott NL, Hart D, Sprengle MD, Leatherman JW. Point-of-care ultrasound to estimate central venous pressure: a comparison of three techniques. *Crit Care Med.* 2013;41(3):833-841.
40. Keller AS, Melamed R, Malinchoc M, John R, Tierney DM, Gajic O. Diagnostic accuracy of a simple ultrasound measurement to estimate central venous pressure in spontaneously breathing, critically ill patients. *J Hosp Med.* 2009;4(6):350-355.
41. Johnson BK, Tierney DM, Rosborough TK, Harris KM, Newell MC. Internal medicine point-of-care ultrasound assessment of left ventricular function correlates with formal echocardiography. *J Clin Ultrasound.* 2016;44(2):92-99.
42. Lucas BP, Candotti C, Margeta B, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of hospitalist-performed hand-carried ultrasound echocardiography after a brief training program. *J Hosp Med.* 2009;4(6):340-349.
43. Lucas BP, Candotti C, Margeta B, et al. Hand-carried echocardiography by hospitalists: a randomized trial. *Am J Med.* 2011;124(8):766-774.
44. Gosink BB, Leymaster CE. Ultrasonic determination of hepatomegaly. *J Clin Ultrasound.* 1981;9(1):37-44.
45. Olson AP, Trappey B, Wagner M, Newman M, Nixon LJ, Schnobrich D. Point-of-care ultrasonography improves the diagnosis of splenomegaly in hospitalized patients. *Crit Ultrasound J.* 2015;7(1):13.
46. Daurat A, Choquet O, Bringuiet S, Charbit J, Egan M, Capdevila X. Diagnosis of postoperative urinary retention using a simplified ultrasound bladder measurement. *Anesth Analg.* 2015;120(5):1033-1038.
47. Keil-Ríos D, Terrazas-Solís H, González-Garay A, Sánchez-Ávila JF, García-Juárez I. Pocket ultrasound device as a complement to physical examination for ascites evaluation and guided paracentesis. *Intern Emerg Med.* 2016;11(3):461-466.
48. Pomeroy F, Dentali F, Borretta V, et al. Accuracy of emergency physician-performed ultrasonography in the diagnosis of deep-vein thrombosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Thromb Haemost.* 2013;109(1):137-145.
49. Nagueh SF, Kopelen HA, Zoghbi WA. Relation of mean right atrial pressure to echocardiographic and Doppler parameters of right atrial and right ventricular function. *Circulation.* 1996;93(6):1160-1169.
50. Rudski LG, Lai WW, Afilalo J, et al. Guidelines for the echocardiographic assessment of the right heart in adults: a report from the American Society of Echocardiography; endorsed by the European Association of Echocardiography, a registered branch of the European Society of Cardiology, and the Canadian Society of Echocardiography. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr.* 2010;23(7):685-713.
51. Simonson JS, Schiller NB. Sonospirometry: a new method for noninvasive estimation of mean right atrial pressure based on two-dimensional echographic measurements of the inferior vena cava during measured inspiration. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1988;11(3):557-564.
52. Yildirimturk O, Tayyareci Y, Erdim R, et al. Assessment of right atrial pressure using echocardiography and correlation with catheterization. *J Clin Ultrasound.* 2011;39(6):337-343.
53. Brennan JM, Blair JE, Goonewardena S, et al. A comparison by medicine residents of physical examination versus hand-carried ultrasound for estimation of right atrial pressure. *Am J Cardiol.* 2007;99(11):1614-1616.
54. Lichtenstein D, Mezière G. A lung ultrasound sign allowing bedside distinction between pulmonary edema and COPD: the comet-tail artifact. *Intensive Care Med.* 1998;24(12):1331-1334.
55. Lichtenstein DA, Mezière GA, Lagoueyte JF, Bideman P, Goldstein I, Gepner A. A-lines and B-lines: lung ultrasound as a bedside tool for predicting pulmonary artery occlusion pressure in the critically ill. *Chest.* 2009;136(4):1014-1020.
56. Volpicelli G, Melniker LA, Cardinale L, Lamorte A, Frascisco MF. Lung ultrasound in diagnosing and monitoring pulmonary interstitial fluid. *Radiol Med.* 2013;118(2):196-205.
57. Alexander JH, Peterson ED, Chen AY, Harding TM, Adams DB, Kisslo JA Jr. Feasibility of point-of-care echocardiography by internal medicine house staff. *Am Heart J.* 2004;147(3):476-481.

58. Croft LB, Duval WL, Goldman ME. A pilot study of the clinical impact of hand-carried cardiac ultrasound in the medical clinic. *Echocardiography*. 2006;23(6):439-446.
59. Kimura BJ, Gilcrease GW III, Showalter BK, Phan JN, Wolfson T. Diagnostic performance of a pocket-sized ultrasound device for quick-look cardiac imaging. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2012;30(1):32-36.
60. Kobal SL, Trento L, Baharami S, et al. Comparison of effectiveness of hand-carried ultrasound to bedside cardiovascular physical examination. *Am J Cardiol*. 2005;96(7):1002-1006.
61. Melamed R, Sprengle MD, Ulstad VK, Herzog CA, Leatherman JW. Assessment of left ventricular function by intensivists using hand-held echocardiography. *Chest*. 2009;135(6):1416-1420.
62. Mjølstad OC, Andersen GN, Dalen H, et al. Feasibility and reliability of point-of-care pocket-size echocardiography performed by medical residents. *Eur Heart J Cardiovasc Imaging*. 2013;14(12):1195-1202.
63. Razi R, Estrada JR, Doll J, Spencer KT. Bedside hand-carried ultrasound by internal medicine residents versus traditional clinical assessment for the identification of systolic dysfunction in patients admitted with decompensated heart failure. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr*. 2011;24(12):1319-1324.
64. Vignon P, Dugard A, Abraham J, et al. Focused training for goal-oriented hand-held echocardiography performed by noncardiologist residents in the intensive care unit. *Intensive Care Med*. 2007;33(10):1795-1799.
65. Blaivas M, Lyon M, Duggal S. A prospective comparison of supine chest radiography and bedside ultrasound for the diagnosis of traumatic pneumothorax. *Acad Emerg Med*. 2005;12(9):844-849.
66. Cortellaro F, Colombo S, Coen D, Duca PG. Lung ultrasound is an accurate diagnostic tool for the diagnosis of pneumonia in the emergency department. *Emerg Med J*. 2012;29(1):19-23.
67. Ding W, Shen Y, Yang J, He X, Zhang M. Diagnosis of pneumothorax by radiography and ultrasonography: a meta-analysis. *Chest*. 2011;140(4):859-866.
68. Gallard E, Redonnet JP, Bourcier JE, et al. Diagnostic performance of cardiopulmonary ultrasound performed by the emergency physician in the management of acute dyspnea. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2015;33(3):352-358.
69. Laursen CB, Sloth E, Lassen AT, et al. Point-of-care ultrasonography in patients admitted with respiratory symptoms: a single-blind, randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Respir Med*. 2014;2(8):638-646.
70. Liu XL, Lian R, Tao YK, Gu CD, Zhang GQ. Lung ultrasonography: an effective way to diagnose community-acquired pneumonia. *Emerg Med J*. 2015;32(6):433-438.
71. Nazerian P, Volpicelli G, Vanni S, et al. Accuracy of lung ultrasound for the diagnosis of consolidations when compared to chest computed tomography. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2015;33(5):620-625.
72. Volpicelli G, Elbarbary M, Blaivas M, et al; International Liaison Committee on Lung Ultrasound (ILC-LUS) for International Consensus Conference on Lung Ultrasound (ICLUS). International evidence-based recommendations for point-of-care lung ultrasound. *Intensive Care Med*. 2012;38(4):577-591.
73. Özkan B, Ünlüer EE, Akyol PY, et al. Stethoscope versus point-of-care ultrasound in the differential diagnosis of dyspnea: a randomized trial. *Eur J Emerg Med*. 2015;22(6):440-443.
74. Lichtenstein D. Lung ultrasound in the critically ill. *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2014;20(3):315-322.
75. Lichtenstein D, Karakitsos D. Integrating lung ultrasound in the hemodynamic evaluation of acute circulatory failure (the fluid administration limited by lung sonography protocol). *J Crit Care*. 2012;27(5):533.e11-533.e19.
76. Volpicelli G, Mussa A, Garofalo G, et al. Bedside lung ultrasound in the assessment of alveolar-interstitial syndrome. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2006;24(6):689-696.
77. Andersen GN, Graven T, Skjetne K, et al. Diagnostic influence of routine point-of-care pocket-size ultrasound examinations performed by medical residents. *J Ultrasound Med*. 2015;34(4):627-636.
78. Sekiguchi H, Schenck LA, Horie R, et al. Critical care ultrasonography differentiates ARDS, pulmonary edema, and other causes in the early course of acute hypoxemic respiratory failure. *Chest*. 2015;148(4):912-918.
79. Blaivas M. Lung ultrasound in evaluation of pneumonia. *J Ultrasound Med*. 2012;31(6):823-826.
80. Mongodi S, Via G, Girard M, et al. Lung ultrasound for early diagnosis of ventilator-associated pneumonia. *Chest*. 2016;149(4):969-980.
81. Volpicelli G, Silva F, Radeos M. Real-time lung ultrasound for the diagnosis of alveolar consolidation and interstitial syndrome in the emergency department. *Eur J Emerg Med*. 2010;17(2):63-72.
82. Ennis J, Schultz G, Perera P, Williams S, Gharabaghian L, Mandavia D. Ultrasound for detection of ascites and for guidance of the paracentesis procedure: technique and review of the literature. *Int J Clin Med*. 2014;5(20):1277-1293.
83. Nazeer SR, Dewbre H, Miller AH. Ultrasound-assisted paracentesis performed by emergency physicians vs the traditional technique: a prospective, randomized study. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2005;23(3):363-367.
84. Sekiguchi H, Suzuki J, Daniels CE. Making paracentesis safer: a proposal for the use of bedside abdominal and vascular ultrasonography to prevent a fatal complication. *Chest*. 2013;143(4):1136-1139.
85. Lichtenstein D. Fluid administration limited by lung sonography: the place of lung ultrasound in assessment of acute circulatory failure (the FALLS-protocol). *Expert Rev Respir Med*. 2012;6(2):155-162.
86. Broch O, Renner J, Gruenewald M, et al. Variation of left ventricular outflow tract velocity and global end-diastolic volume index reliably predict fluid responsiveness in cardiac surgery patients. *J Crit Care*. 2012;27(3):325.e7-325.e13.
87. Charron C, Caille V, Jardin F, Vieillard-Baron A. Echocardiographic measurement of fluid responsiveness. *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2006;12(3):249-254.
88. Dinh VA, Ko HS, Rao R, et al. Measuring cardiac index with a focused cardiac ultrasound examination in the ED. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2012;30(9):1845-1851.
89. Marik PE, Levitov A, Young A, Andrews L. The use of bio-reactance and carotid Doppler to determine volume responsiveness and blood flow redistribution following passive leg raising in hemodynamically unstable patients. *Chest*. 2013;143(2):364-370.
90. Monnet X, Rienzo M, Osman D, et al. Passive leg raising predicts fluid responsiveness in the critically ill. *Crit Care Med*. 2006;34(5):1402-1407.
91. Préau S, Saulnier F, Dewavrin F, Durocher A, Chagnon JL. Passive leg raising is predictive of fluid responsiveness in spontaneously breathing patients with severe sepsis or acute pancreatitis. *Crit Care Med*. 2010;38(3):819-825.
92. Bahner DP. Trinity: a hypotensive ultrasound protocol. *J Diagn Med Sonogr*. 2002;18(4):193-198.
93. Breikreutz R, Walcher F, Seeger FH. Focused echocardiographic evaluation in resuscitation management: concept of an advanced life support-conformed algorithm. *Crit Care Med*. 2007;35(5, suppl):S150-S161.
94. Hernandez C, Shuler K, Hannan H, Sonyika C, Likourezos A, Marshall J. C.A.U.S.E.: Cardiac arrest ultra-sound exam—a better approach to managing patients in primary non-arhythmic cardiac arrest. *Resuscitation*. 2008;76(2):198-206.

95. Kanji HD, McCallum J, Sirounis D, MacRedmond R, Moss R, Boyd JH. Limited echocardiography-guided therapy in subacute shock is associated with change in management and improved outcomes. *J Crit Care*. 2014; 29(5):700-705.
96. Niendorff DF, Rassias AJ, Palac R, Beach ML, Costa S, Greenberg M. Rapid cardiac ultrasound of inpatients suffering PEA arrest performed by nonexpert sonographers. *Resuscitation*. 2005;67(1):81-87.
97. Seif D, Perera P, Mailhot T, Riley D, Mandavia D. Bedside ultrasound in resuscitation and the rapid ultrasound in shock protocol. *Crit Care Res Pract*. 2012;2012:503254.
98. Lee CW, Kory PD, Amtfield RT. Development of a fluid resuscitation protocol using inferior vena cava and lung ultrasound. *J Crit Care*. 2016;31(1):96-100.
99. Noble VE, Brown DF. Renal ultrasound. *Emerg Med Clin North Am*. 2004;22(3):641-659.
100. Smith-Bindman R, Aubin C, Bailitz J, et al. Ultrasonography versus computed tomography for suspected nephrolithiasis. *N Engl J Med*. 2014;371(12):1100-1110.
101. Chao C-T. Bedside renal ultrasonography: other utilities than hydronephrosis [letter]. *Intern Emerg Med*. 2012;7(1):87-88.
102. Huang SW, Lee CT, Chen CH, Chuang CH, Chen JB. Role of renal sonography in the intensive care unit. *J Clin Ultrasound*. 2005;33(2):72-75.
103. Laing FC. Renal sonography in the intensive care unit. *J Ultrasound Med*. 2002;21(5):493-494.
104. Via G, Hussain A, Wells M, et al; International Liaison Committee on Focused Cardiac UltraSound (ILC-FoCUS); International Conference on Focused Cardiac UltraSound (IC-FoCUS). International evidence-based recommendations for focused cardiac ultrasound. *J Am Soc Echocardiogr*. 2014; 27(7):683.e1-683.e33.
105. Cullen MW, Blauwet LA, Vatury OM, et al. Diagnostic capability of comprehensive handheld vs transthoracic echocardiography. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2014;89(6):790-798.
106. Dalen H, Gundersen GH, Skjetne K, et al. Feasibility and reliability of pocket-size ultrasound examinations of the pleural cavities and vena cava inferior performed by nurses in an outpatient heart failure clinic. *Eur J Cardiovasc Nurs*. 2015; 14(4):286-293.
107. Testuz A, Müller H, Keller P-F, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of pocket-size handheld echocardiographs used by cardiologists in the acute care setting. *Eur Heart J Cardiovasc Imaging*. 2013;14(1):38-42.
108. Prinz C, Dohmann J, van Buuren F, et al. Diagnostic performance of handheld echocardiography for the assessment of basic cardiac morphology and function: a validation study in routine cardiac patients. *Echocardiography*. 2012;29(8): 887-894.
109. Trinquart L, Bruno O, Angeli ML, Belghiti J, Chatellier G, Vilgrain V. A hand-held ultrasound machine vs. conventional ultrasound machine in the bedside assessment of post-liver transplant patients. *Eur Radiol*. 2009;19(10): 2441-2447.
110. Neskovic AN, Edvardsen T, Galderisi M, et al. Focus cardiac ultrasound: the European Association of Cardiovascular Imaging viewpoint. *Eur Heart J Cardiovasc Imaging*. 2014;15(9): 956-960.
111. Ayuela Azcárate JM, Clau-Terré F, Vicho Pereira R, et al; Grupo de Trabajo de Cuidados Intensivos Cardiológicos y RCP de la SEMICYUC. Consensus document on ultrasound training in intensive care medicine: care process, use of the technique and acquisition of professional skills [in Spanish]. *Med Intensiva*. 2014;38(1):33-40.
112. Moore CL. Credentialing and reimbursement in point-of-care ultrasound. *Clin Pediatr Emerg Med*. 2011;12(1):73-77.
113. Platz E, Solomon SD. Point-of-care echocardiography in the accountable care organization era. *Circ Cardiovasc Imaging*. 2012;5(5):676-682.
114. Kaplan A, Mayo PH. Echocardiography performed by the pulmonary/critical care medicine physician. *Chest*. 2009;135(2): 529-535.
115. Koenig SJ, Narasimhan M, Mayo PH. Thoracic ultrasonography for the pulmonary specialist. *Chest*. 2011;140(5): 1332-1341.
116. Adrish M. Point-of-care ultrasonography: ready to take off? [letter]. *Chest*. 2015;147(1):e23.
117. Oks M, Narasimhan M. Point-of-care ultrasonography: ready to take off? [reply]. *Chest*. 2015;147(1):e23-e24.
118. Moore CL, Gregg S, Lambert M. Performance, training, quality assurance, and reimbursement of emergency physician-performed ultrasonography at academic medical centers. *J Ultrasound Med*. 2004;23(4):459-466.
119. Lichtenstein DA, Mezière G, Lascols N, et al. Ultrasound diagnosis of occult pneumothorax. *Crit Care Med*. 2005;33(6): 1231-1238.
120. Mandavia DP, Hoffner RJ, Mahaney K, Henderson SO. Bedside echocardiography by emergency physicians. *Ann Emerg Med*. 2001;38(4):377-382.
121. Spencer KT, Anderson AS, Bhargava A, et al. Physician-performed point-of-care echocardiography using a laptop platform compared with physical examination in the cardiovascular patient. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2001;37(8):2013-2018.
122. Geria RN, Raio CC, Tayal V. Point-of-care ultrasound: not a stethoscope—a separate clinical entity [letter]. *J Ultrasound Med*. 2015;34(1):172-173.
123. Mercaldi CJ, Lanes SF. Ultrasound guidance decreases complications and improves the cost of care among patients undergoing thoracentesis and paracentesis. *Chest*. 2013;143(2): 532-538.
124. Patel PA, Ernst FR, Gunnarsson CL. Ultrasonography guidance reduces complications and costs associated with thoracentesis procedures. *J Clin Ultrasound*. 2012;40(3):135-141.
125. Gundersen GH, Norekval TM, Haug HH, et al. Adding point of care ultrasound to assess volume status in heart failure patients in a nurse-led outpatient clinic: a randomised study. *Heart*. 2016;102(1):29-34.
126. Wang XT, Liu DW, Zhang HM, Chai WZ. Integrated cardiopulmonary sonography: a useful tool for assessment of acute pulmonary edema in the intensive care unit. *J Ultrasound Med*. 2014;33(7):1231-1239.
127. Melniker LA, Leibner E, McKenney MG, Lopez P, Briggs WM, Mancuso CA. Randomized controlled clinical trial of point-of-care, limited ultrasonography for trauma in the emergency department: the first sonography outcomes assessment program trial. *Ann Emerg Med*. 2006;48(3):227-235.
128. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE). Guidance on the use of ultrasound locating devices for placing central venous catheters: NICE Technology Appraisal Guidance [TA49]. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence website. <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ta49>. Published October 4, 2002. Accessed June 2, 2016.
129. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. *Making Health Care Safer: A Critical Analysis of Patient Safety Practices*. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2001. Evidence Report/Technology Assessment 43. AHRQ publication 01—E058.
130. Fagley RE, Haney MF, Beraud A-S, et al. Critical care basic ultrasound learning goals for American anesthesiology critical care trainees: recommendations from an expert group. *Anesth Analg*. 2015;120(5):1041-1053.
131. Frankel HL, Kirkpatrick AW, Elbarbary M, et al. Guidelines for the appropriate use of bedside general and cardiac ultrasonography in the evaluation of critically ill patients, Part I: General ultrasonography. *Crit Care Med*. 2015; 43(11):2479-2502.
132. Marin JR, Lewiss RE; American Academy of Pediatrics, Committee on Pediatric Emergency Medicine; Society for

Academic Emergency Medicine, Academy of Emergency Ultrasound; American College of Emergency Physicians, Pediatric Emergency Medicine Committee; World Interactive Network Focused on Critical Ultrasound. Point-of-care ultrasonography by pediatric emergency medicine physicians. *Pediatrics*. 2015;135(4):e1113-e1122.

133. American Institute of Ultrasound in Medicine; American College of Emergency Physicians. AIUM practice guideline for the performance of the focused assessment with sonography for trauma (FAST) examination. *J Ultrasound Med*. 2014;33(11):2047-2056.
134. Brass P, Hellmich M, Kolodziej L, Schick G, Smith AF. Ultrasound guidance versus anatomical landmarks for internal jugular vein catheterization. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015;1:CD006962.
135. O'Grady NP, Alexander M, Burns LA, et al. Guidelines for the prevention of intravascular catheter-related infections. *Am J Infect Control*. 2011;39(4 Suppl 1):S1-S34.