

NETTER'S Correlative Imaging *Abdominal & Pelvic Anatomy*



DREW A. TORIGIAN
MARY KITAZONO HAMMELL

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NETTER'S

*Correlative Imaging:
Abdominal and Pelvic
Anatomy*

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NETTER'S CORRELATIVE IMAGING: ABDOMINAL AND
PELVIC ANATOMY

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About the Artists

To my parents, Andrew and Rose Torigian, who have always supported and encouraged me and whom I love and respect beyond words, to my sisters, Christine and Cathy, whom I love and am very proud of, and to their beautiful children, Sammy, Sierra, and Elizabeth who are just full of wonder and curiosity, and to God who in His infinite grace and mercy has shown me unconditional love through His Son, Jesus Christ.

DAT

To my parents, Lloyd and Jody Kitazono, who are both my foundation and my inspiration, and to my husband, Darren Hammell, who is my heart, my reason, and my balance.

MKH

About the Artists

FRANK H. NETTER, MD

Frank H. Netter was born in 1906 in New York City. He studied art at the Art Student's League and the National Academy of Design before entering medical school at New York University, where he received his medical degree in 1931. During his student years, Dr. Netter's notebook sketches attracted the attention of the medical faculty and other physicians, allowing him to augment his income by illustrating articles and textbooks. He continued illustrating as a sideline after establishing a surgical practice in 1933, but he ultimately opted to give up his practice in favor of a full-time commitment to art. After service in the United States Army during World War II, Dr. Netter began his long collaboration with the CIBA Pharmaceutical Company (now Novartis Pharmaceuticals). This 45-year partnership resulted in the production of the extraordinary collection of medical art so familiar to physicians and other medical professionals worldwide.

In 2005 Elsevier, Inc., purchased the Netter Collection and all publications from Icon Learning Systems. Over 50 publications featuring the art of Dr. Netter are now available through Elsevier, Inc. (in the US: www.us.elsevierhealth.com/Netter and outside the US: www.elsevierhealth.com).

Dr. Netter's works are among the finest examples of the use of illustration in the teaching of medical concepts. The 13-book *Netter Collection of Medical Illustrations*, which includes the greater part of the more than 20,000 paintings created by Dr. Netter, became and remains one of the most famous medical works ever published. *The Netter Atlas of Human Anatomy*, first published in 1989, presents the anatomical paintings from the Netter Collection. Now translated into 16 languages, it is the anatomy atlas of choice among medical and health professions students the world over.

The Netter illustrations are appreciated not only for their aesthetic qualities, but also, more important, for their intellectual content. As Dr. Netter wrote in 1949, ". . . clarification of a subject is the aim and goal of illustration. No matter how beautifully painted, how delicately and subtly rendered a subject may be, it is of little value as a *medical illustration* if it does not serve to make clear some medical point." Dr. Netter's planning, conception, point of view, and approach are what inform his paintings and what makes them so intellectually valuable.

Frank H. Netter, MD, physician and artist, died in 1991.

Learn more about the physician-artist whose work has inspired the Netter Reference collection: <http://www.netterimages.com/artist/netter.htm>

CARLOS MACHADO, MD

Carlos Machado was chosen by Novartis to be Dr. Netter's successor. He continues to be the main artist contributing to the Netter collection of medical illustrations.

Self-taught in medical illustration, cardiologist Carlos Machado has contributed meticulous updates to some of Dr. Netter's original plates and has created many paintings of his own in the style of Netter as an extension of the Netter collection. Dr. Machado's photorealistic expertise and his keen insight into the physician-patient relationship informs his vivid and unforgettable visual style. His dedication to researching each topic and subject he paints places him among the premier medical illustrators at work today.

Learn more about his background and see more of his art at: <http://www.netterimages.com/artist/machado.htm>

KRISTEN WIENANDT MARZEJON, MAMS

Kristen Wienandt Marzejon is a certified medical illustrator with a master's degree from the University of Illinois at Chicago's Biomedical Visualization graduate program. Her passion for both art and science from an early age makes her perfectly suited to this gratifying profession. She started her career as a staff illustrator at Rush University Medical Center in Chicago and then committed to self-employed status in 2001. She offers medical illustration and graphic design services to a variety of clients in the medical arena.

The work of Frank Netter has been a valuable part of Kristen's medical library throughout her 20-year career. That said, she is honored to continue the Netter tradition by producing work authentic to his distinctive style.

About the Editors

Drew A. Torigian, MD, MA, began his career in radiology as a resident in training at the Hospital of the University of Pennsylvania. After completing a 2 year body and musculoskeletal research MRI fellowship at Penn, he subsequently remained on faculty for 8 years. His interest in human anatomy first began in elementary school, as he used to check out and read the few illustrated human anatomy books that were available at the library. This interest was reinforced when he was a medical student at the NYU School of Medicine, as well as during his residency and fellowship training in radiology, ultimately leading to his desire to put together this volume of the Netter anatomy series.

Dr. Torigian is a coauthor of 18 book chapters, 35 non-peer reviewed manuscripts, and 92 peer-reviewed manuscripts in the imaging literature, has been a guest editor for several issues of the journals *PET Clinics* and *Seminars in Nuclear Medicine*, and has provided multiple invited lectures on a wide variety of imaging related topics at the local and national level.

Currently, Dr. Torigian is an Associate Professor of Radiology at the University of Pennsylvania and is a member of the thoracic imaging, body CT, and body MRI sections. He has particular expertise in CT, MRI, and PET imaging, with clinical emphasis on disease conditions that affect the thorax, abdomen, and pelvis, and is involved in the education of undergraduate students, medical students, residents, fellows, and faculty locally and nationally on a wide variety of imaging-related subjects of interest. Furthermore, he is enthusiastically involved in the design and conduct of translational and clinical research involving the use of novel combined structural-functional imaging approaches for the quantitative evaluation of various disease conditions in order to advance scientific discovery and to help patients not to suffer or to suffer less.

Mary Kitazono Hammell, MD, first became interested in the field of radiology while working with Dr. Jonathan Cohen's neuroimaging lab at Princeton University, an interest that was fostered by Dr. Bill Green of Princeton Radiology. After graduating from Princeton in 2001, Mary attended the University of Southern California's Keck School of Medicine, where she worked with Dr. Patrick Colletti on various projects including an award-winning MRI Atlas of Renal Pathology, which was presented at the RSNA in 2004. After graduating from USC in 2006, Mary completed her residency in radiology at the Hospital of the University in Pennsylvania, serving as a chief resident during her final year. Mary became board-certified in diagnostic radiology in 2011, and completed a fellowship in pediatric radiology at The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia. In 2012, she joined Princeton Radiology and currently lives in Princeton, NJ, with her husband, Darren Hammell.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge my friend and colleague Dr. Evan Siegelman for teaching me clinical MRI during my radiology residency and MRI fellowship training at the University of Pennsylvania; Drs. Warren Gefter and Abass Alavi in the Department of Radiology at the University of Pennsylvania, two visionary and highly creative individuals who have been my mentors and friends over the years; and Dr. Bruce Bogart and the late Dr. Lawrence Prutkin for teaching me human anatomy during my first year in medical school at the NYU School of Medicine.

I also would like to thank Mary Kitazono for her dedication and hard work in preparing this atlas, as well as to our artist, Kristen Marzejon, whose medical illustrations would, in my opinion, make the late Dr. Frank Netter very proud.

Drew A. Torigian

I would like to sincerely thank all of the attending physicians who have tirelessly taught and encouraged me throughout my training. To name only a few: Drs. Susan Hilton, Diego Jaramillo, Jill Langer, Mary Scanlon, and Evan Siegelman, who will always be my role models for their dedication to resident education and their passion for the field of radiology.

I would also like to thank Drew Torigian for giving me the opportunity to participate in creating this atlas, and our artist, Kristen Marzejon, who worked with meticulous care on every drawing through multiple revisions.

Mary Kitazono Hammell

Preface

Thorough knowledge of human anatomy is of fundamental importance for practicing radiologists and nuclear medicine physicians, for other clinical specialists such as radiation oncologists and surgeons, amongst others, for other healthcare specialists, as well as for students of radiology and anatomy. As magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) becomes more widely utilized around the world for the detection and characterization of a wide variety of disease conditions, accurate recognition and differentiation of normal anatomical structures from those that are affected by pathology will be of paramount importance for early diagnosis and optimal individualized patient treatment planning. In particular, MRI has been shown to be very useful for the structural-based detection, characterization, and treatment response assessment of abdominopelvic pathology. It provides gross functional information through use of various imaging techniques such as diffusion-weighted imaging and magnetic resonance spectroscopy, is useful in the pediatric setting given the lack of ionizing radiation, and is complementary with molecular imaging techniques such as positron emission tomography (PET).

In this book we have provided delineation of the visible anatomical structures relevant to abdominopelvic anatomy seen on the most commonly utilized pulse sequences of MR imaging, namely T1-weighted, T2-weighted, and post-contrast fat-suppressed T1-weighted images. The imaging planes and particular pulse sequences provided in each chapter are those that are typically used in body MR imaging examinations tailored for evaluation of the abdomen, peritoneal cavity, biliary system, male pelvis, prostate gland and seminal tract, scrotum and testes, penis and male urethra, and female pelvis.

The layout generally includes one or more MR images on one page with an accompanying artist illustration on the opposite page. Wherever appropriate, normal anatomy, normal variants, diagnostic considerations, and pathologic process pearls are included with information relevant to that particular tomographic section.

The labeling of structures is the most commonly accepted language for radiologists. Occasionally, the reader will encounter a phrase in parentheses. This indicates anatomical structures/terms that are used interchangeably in the radiological and/or anatomical literature.

There are two major goals of the text design of this volume of *Netter's Correlative Imaging: Abdominal and Pelvic Anatomy*. One is to demonstrate high-quality MR imaging, allowing for clear identification of important anatomical structures on relevant pulse sequences in multiple planes that would be useful in clinical practice, along with high-quality anatomical illustrations that are reminiscent of Netter quality. The other is to provide user-friendly anatomical references and, when appropriate, to provide succinct insights about commonly encountered diagnoses and imaging challenges. Please note that the text is not meant to be inclusive of all possible pathology, but rather the focus is on presenting the anatomy in a way that has not been presented in previous anatomy and cross-sectional atlases.

It is our hope that you will find this book of human abdominal and pelvic anatomy useful and interesting for didactic and clinical purposes so that you can provide excellent care for your patients.

Drew A. Torigian, MD, MA
Mary Kitazono Hammell, MD

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PART

1

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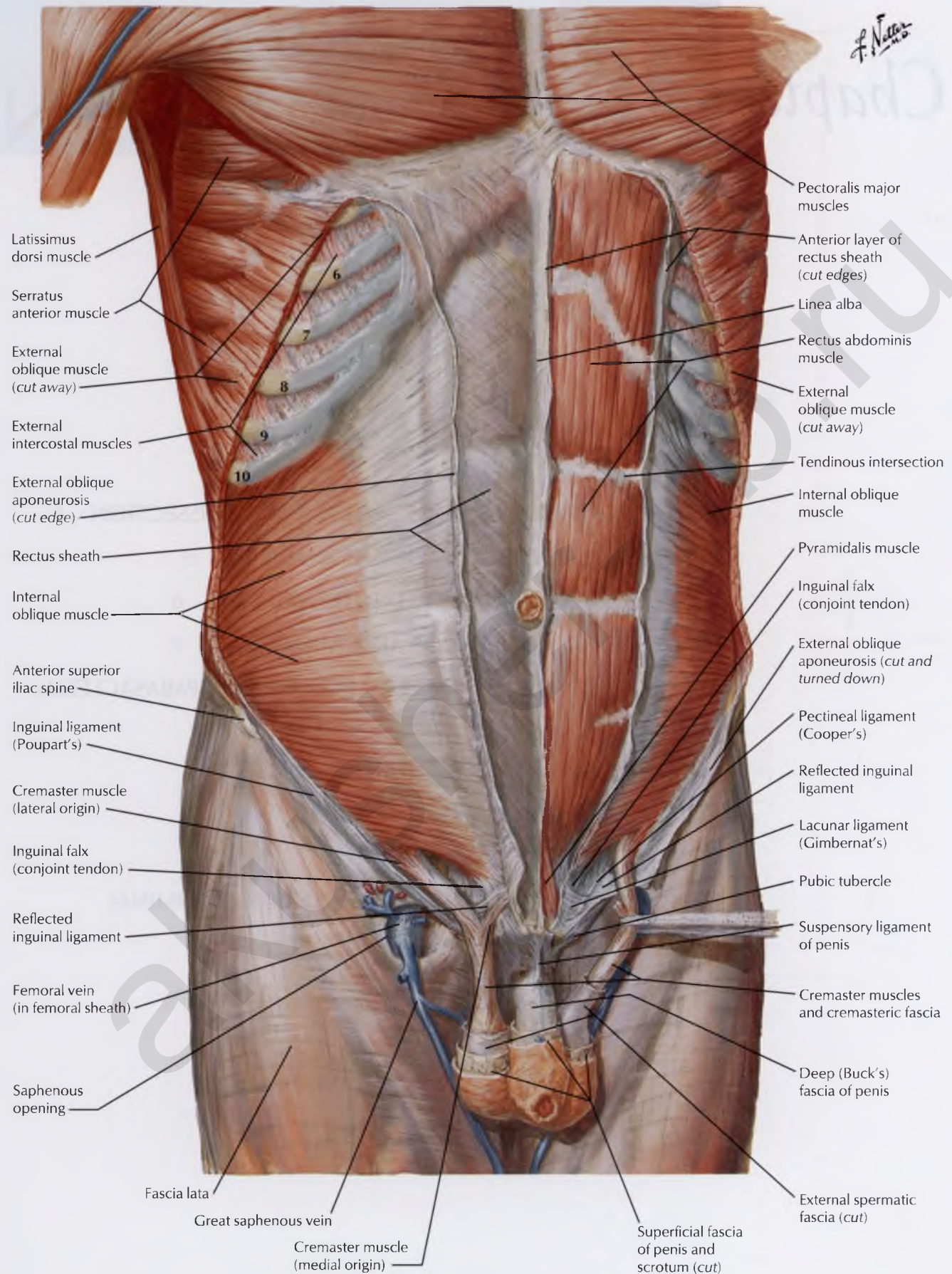
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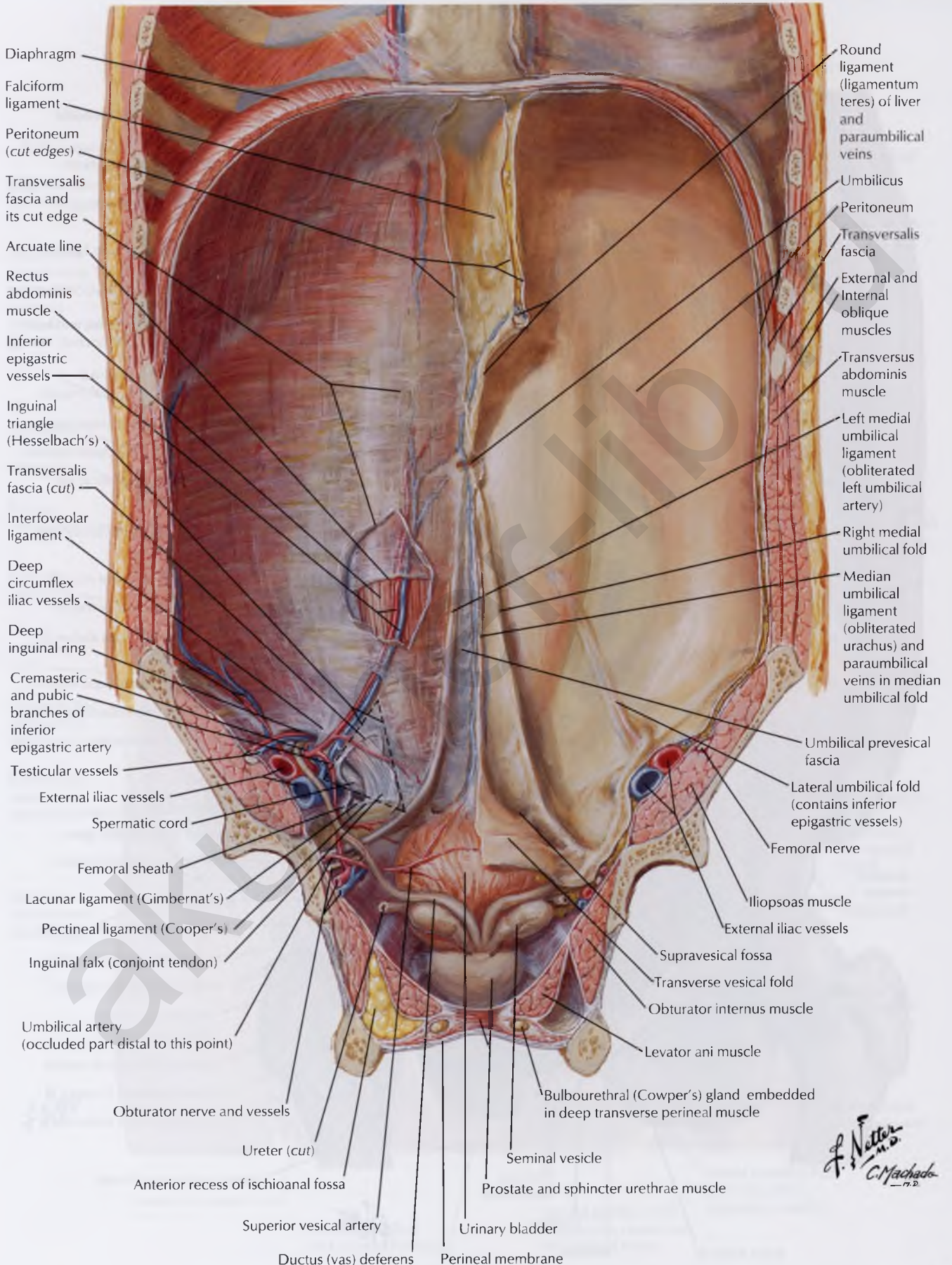
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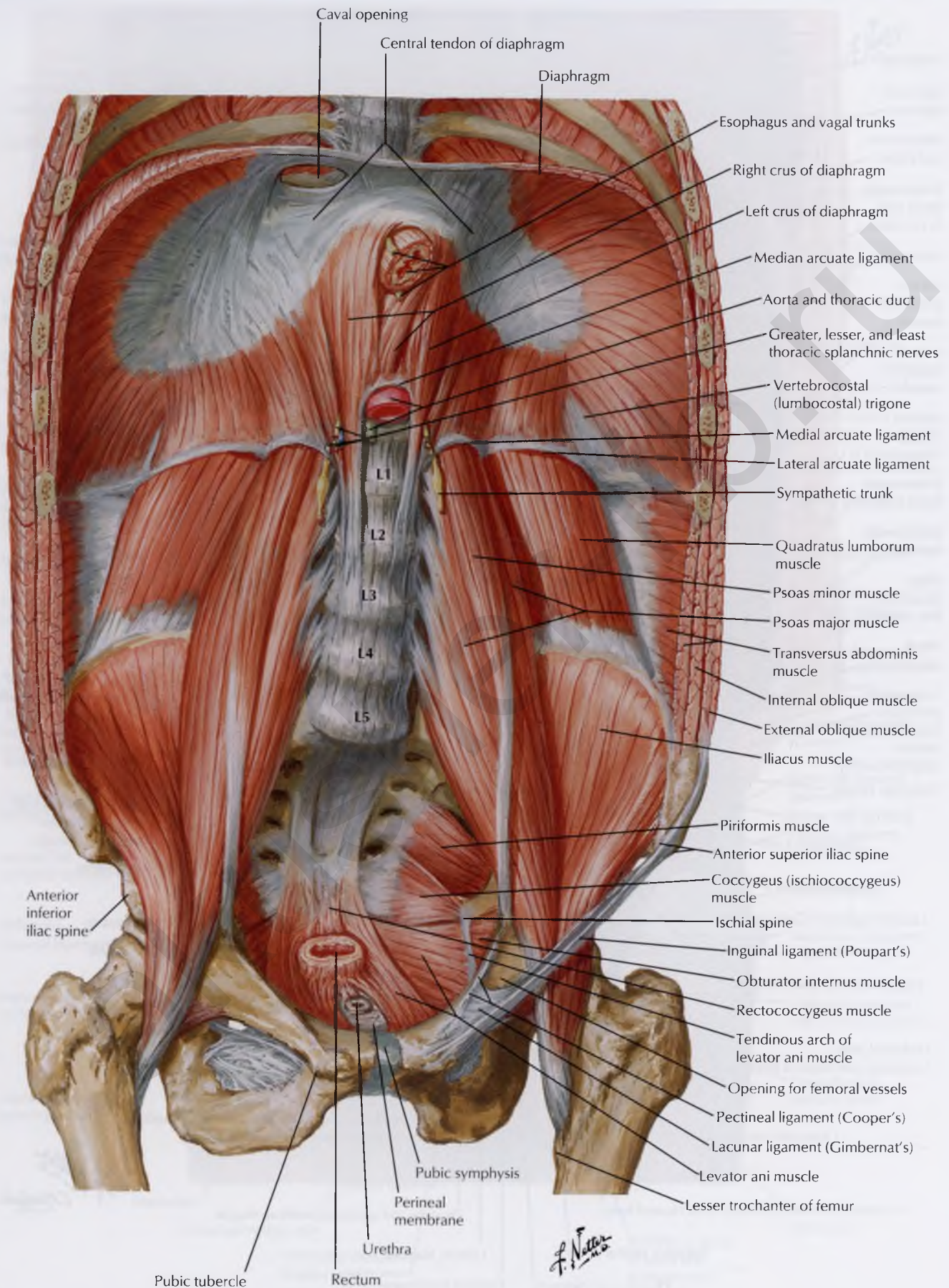
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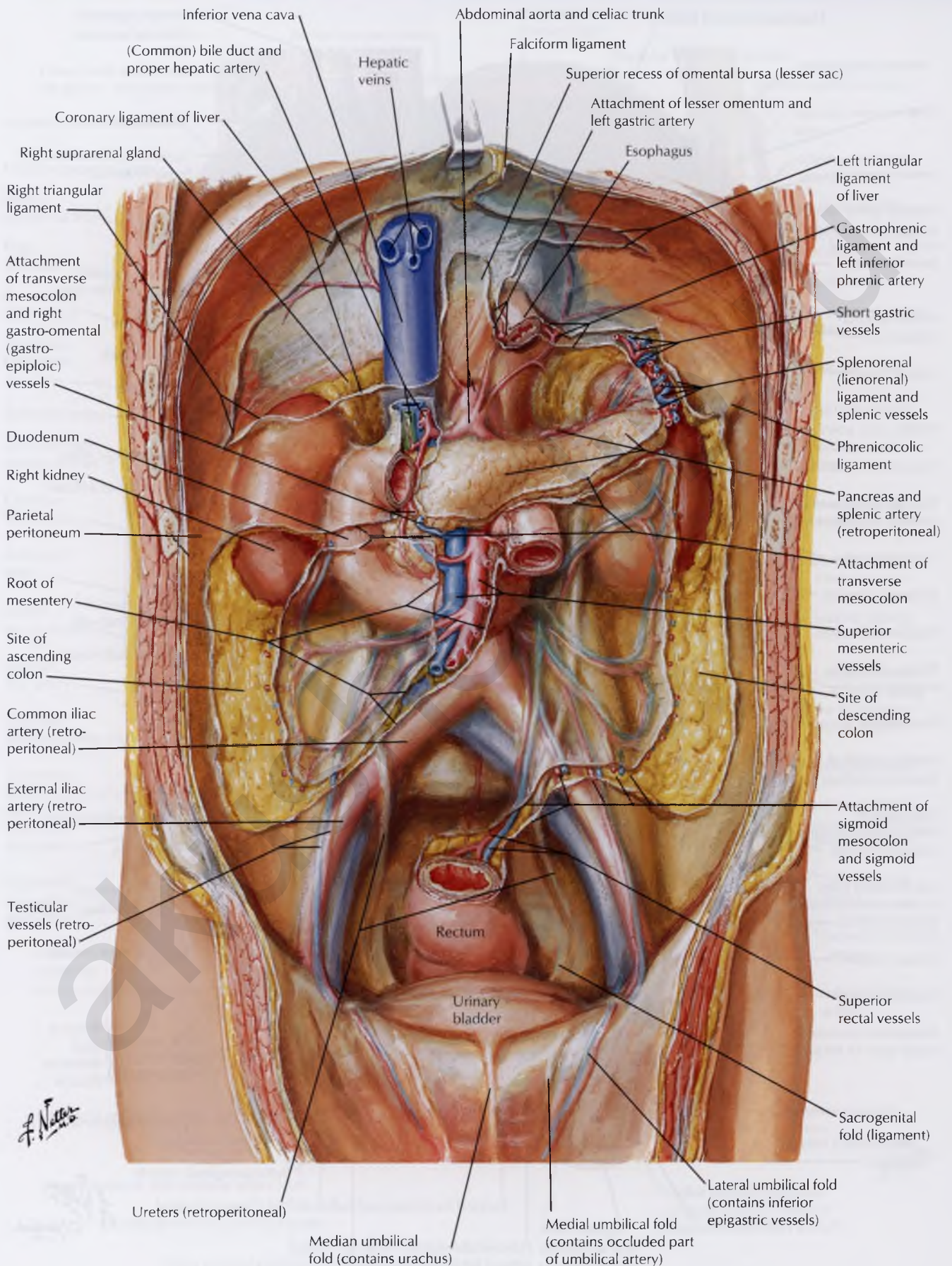
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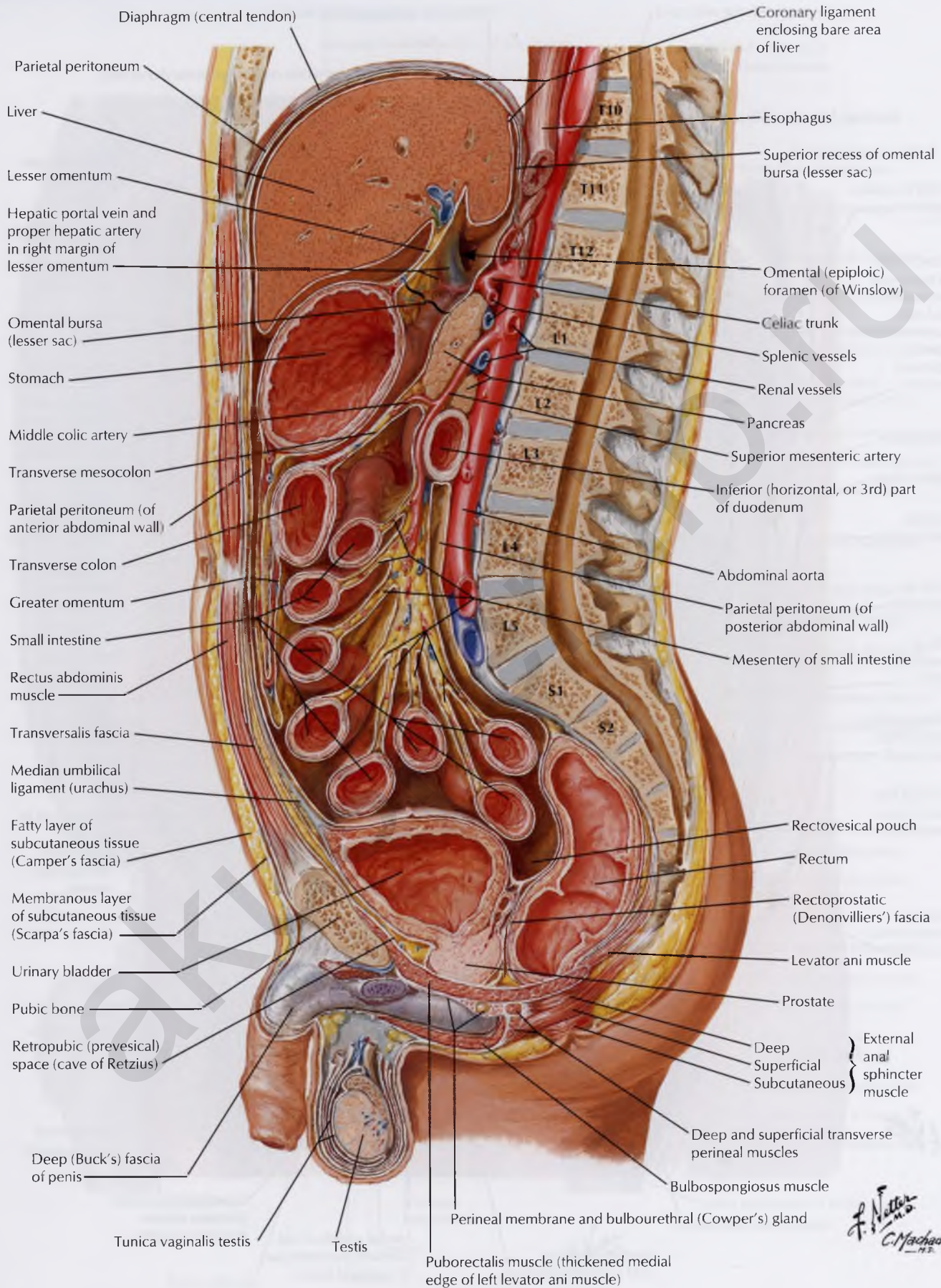
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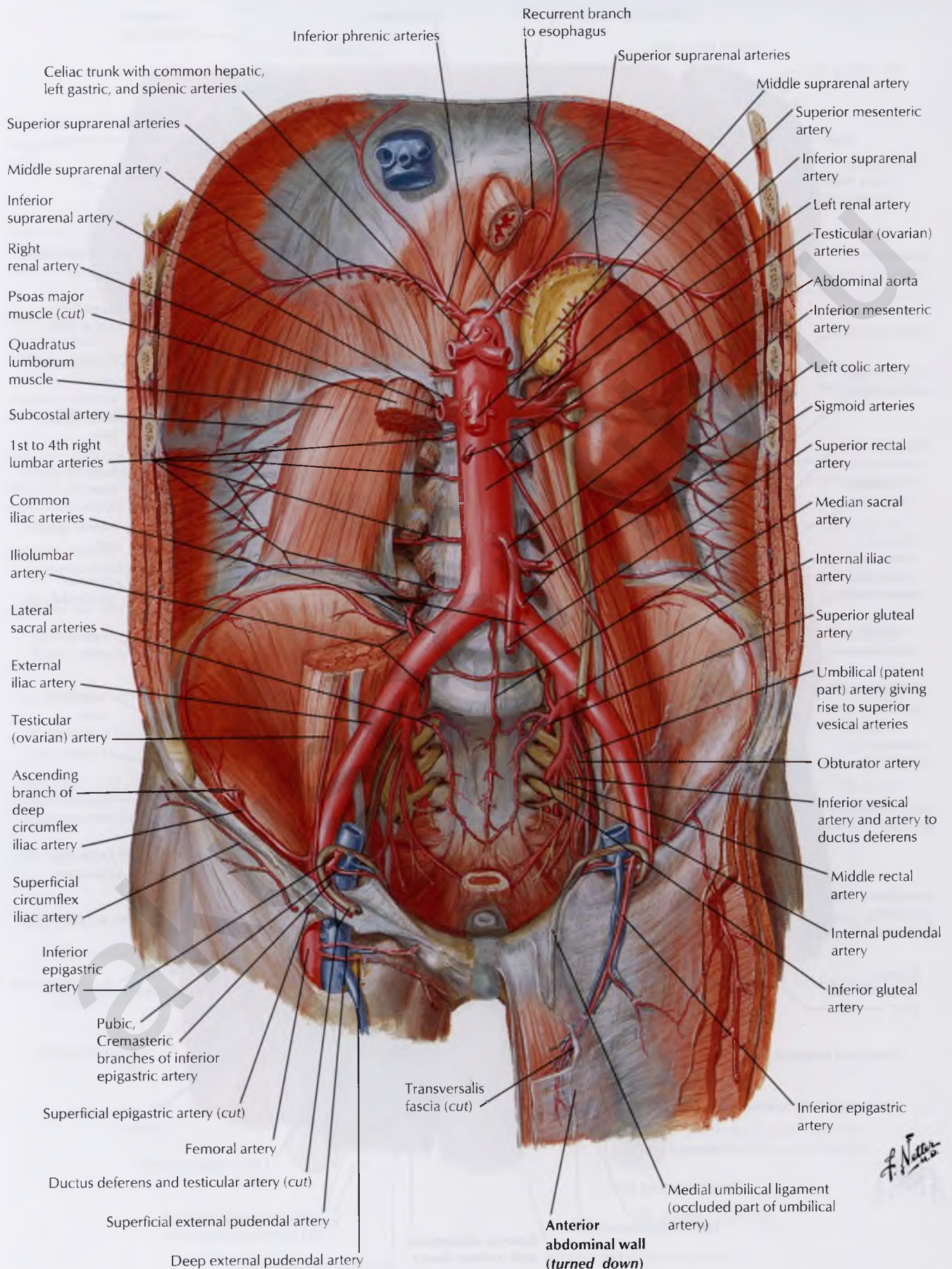
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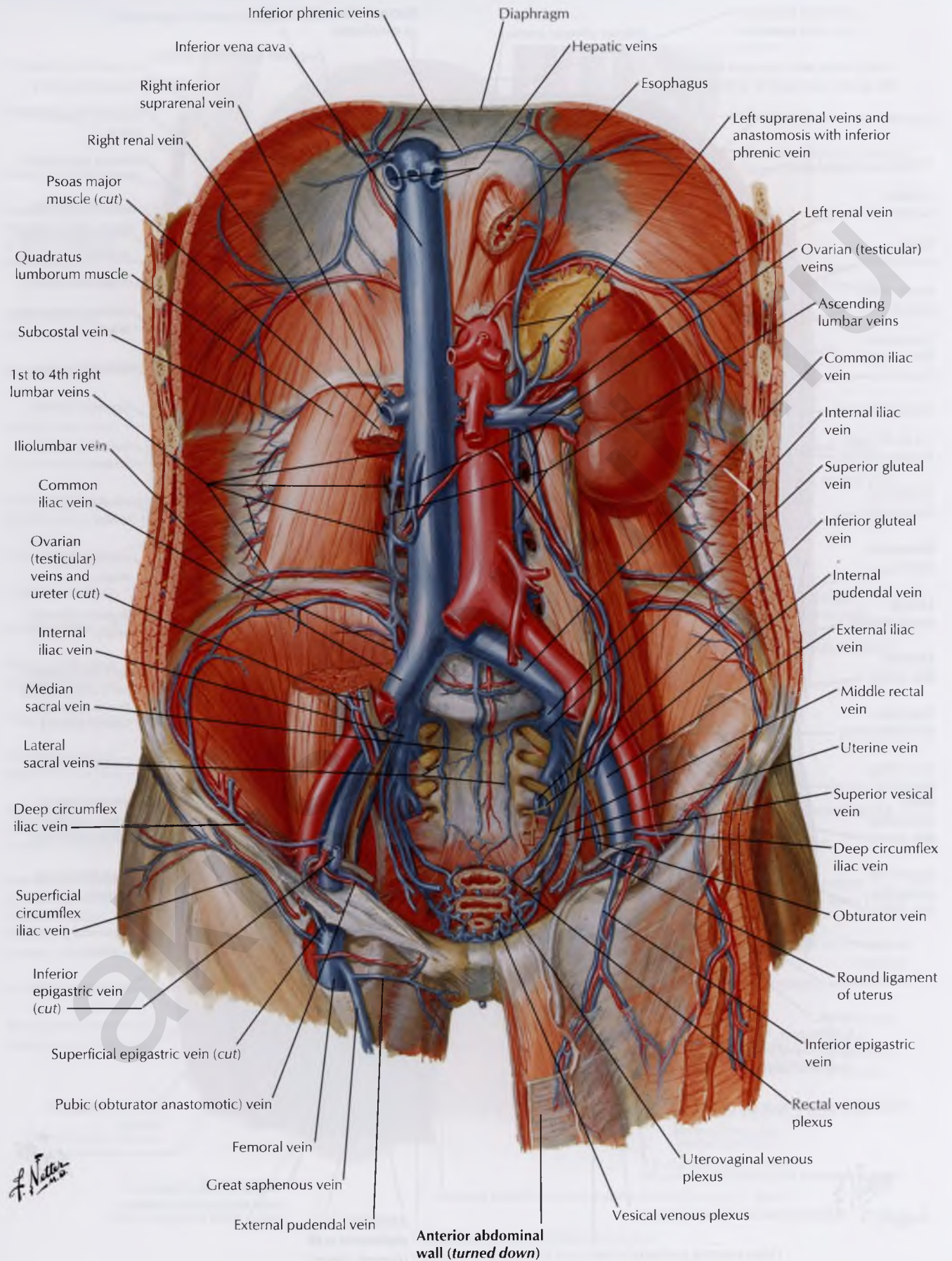
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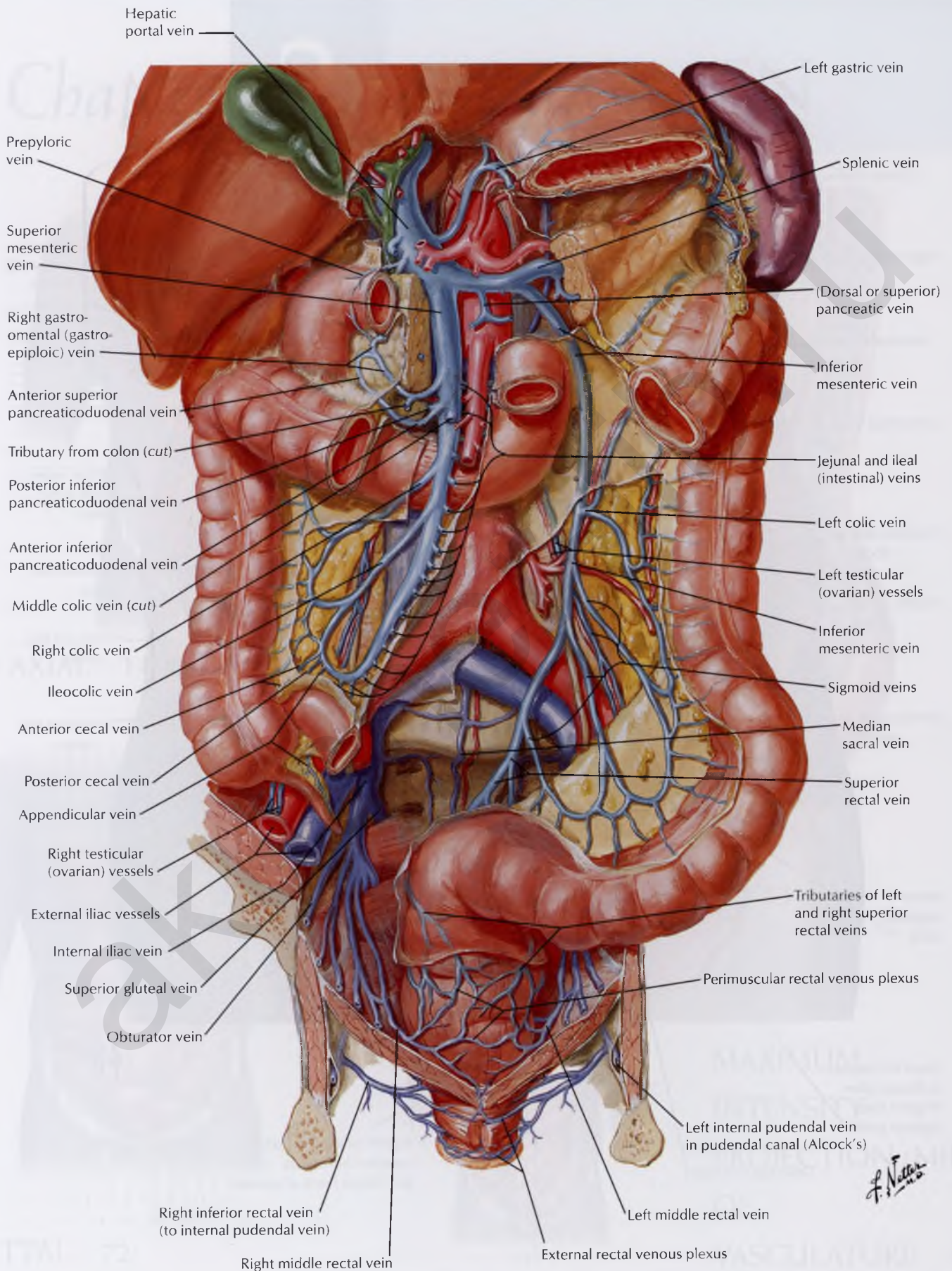


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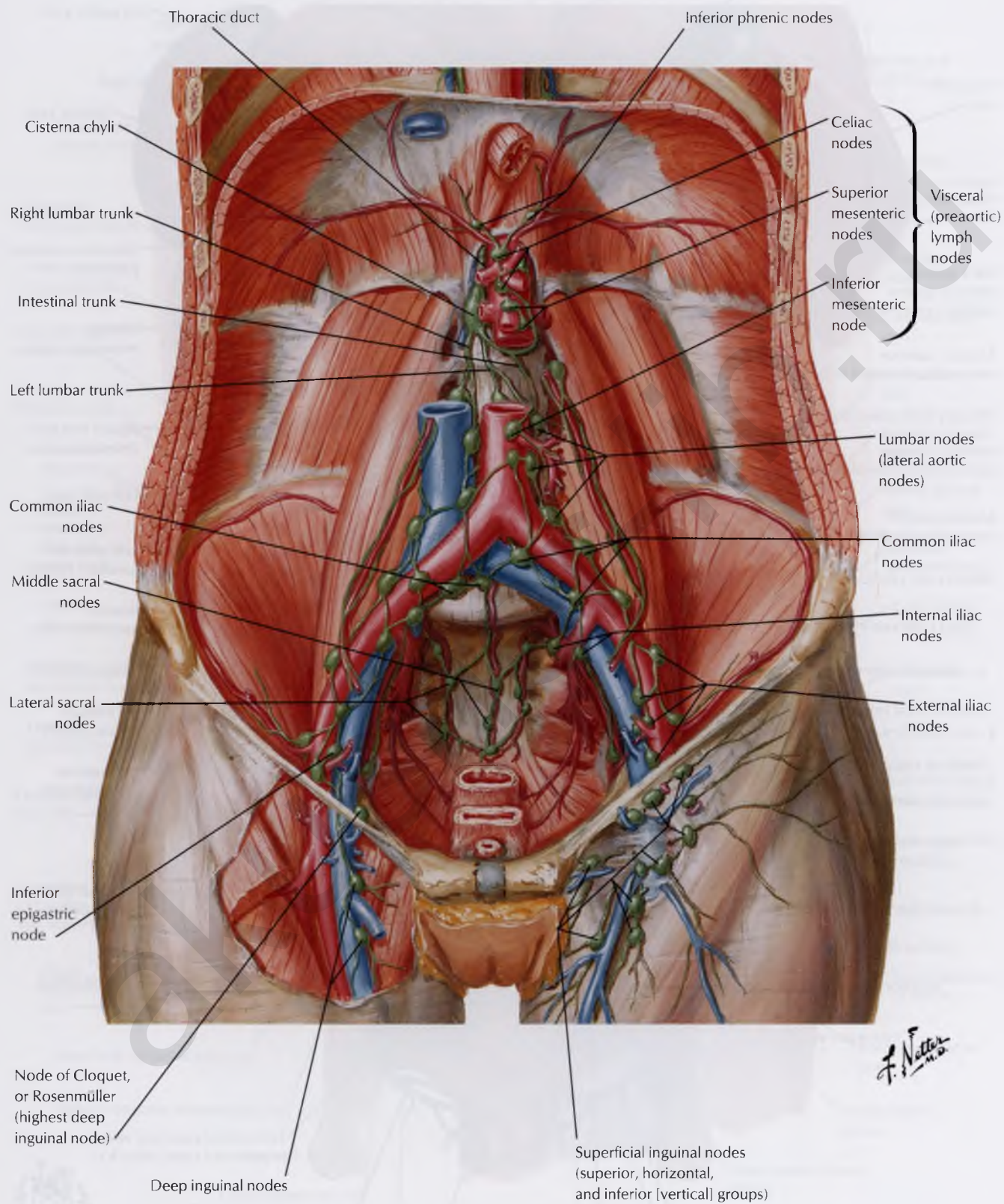


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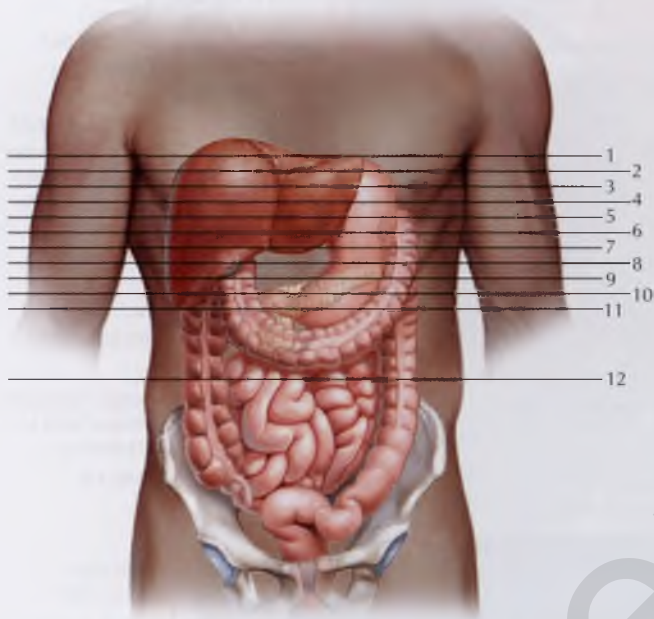
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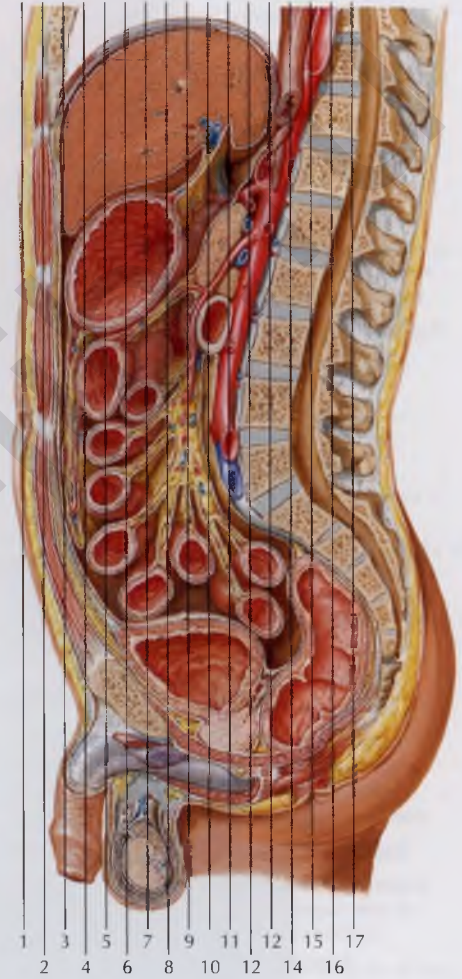
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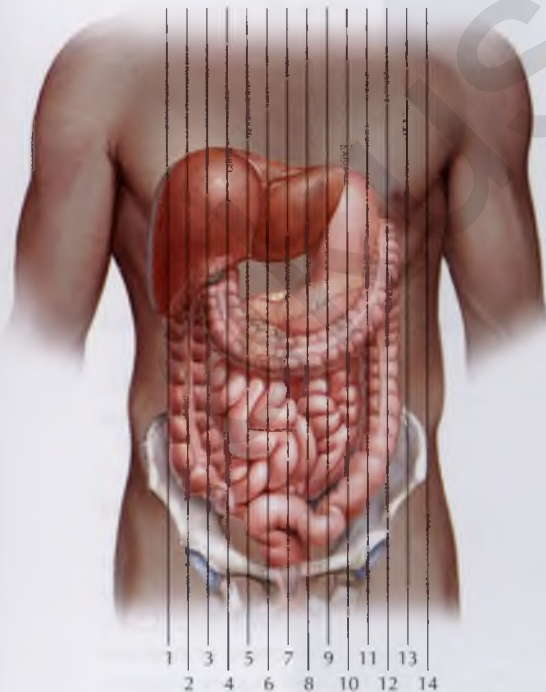
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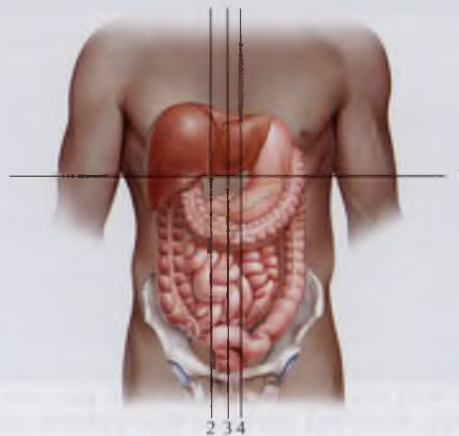
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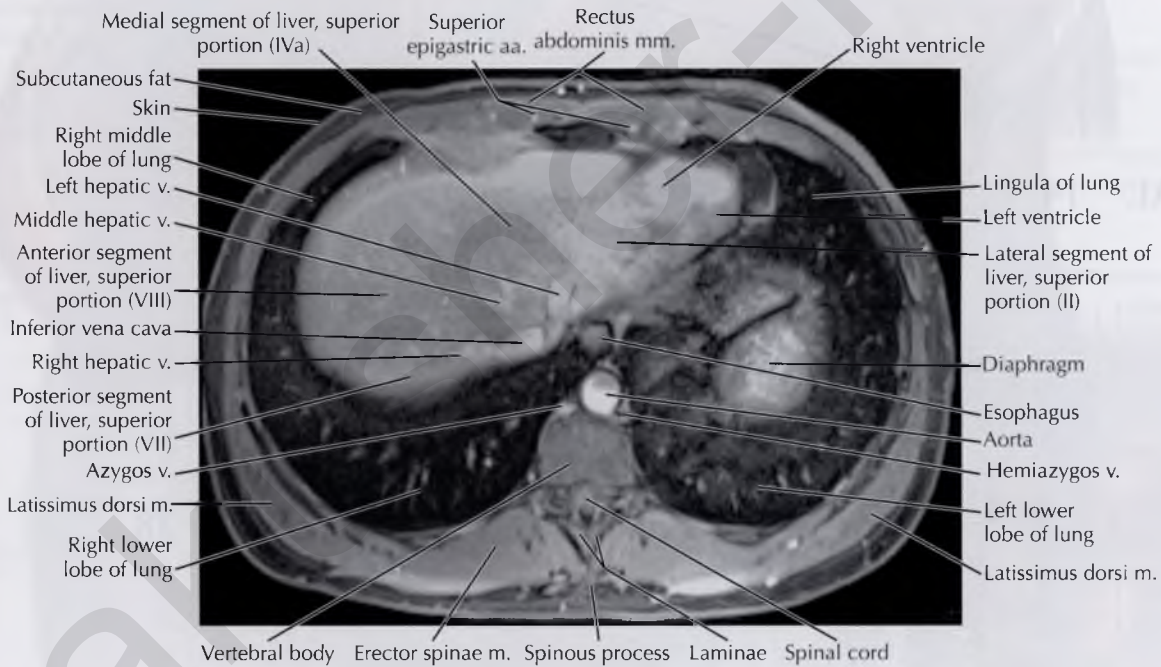
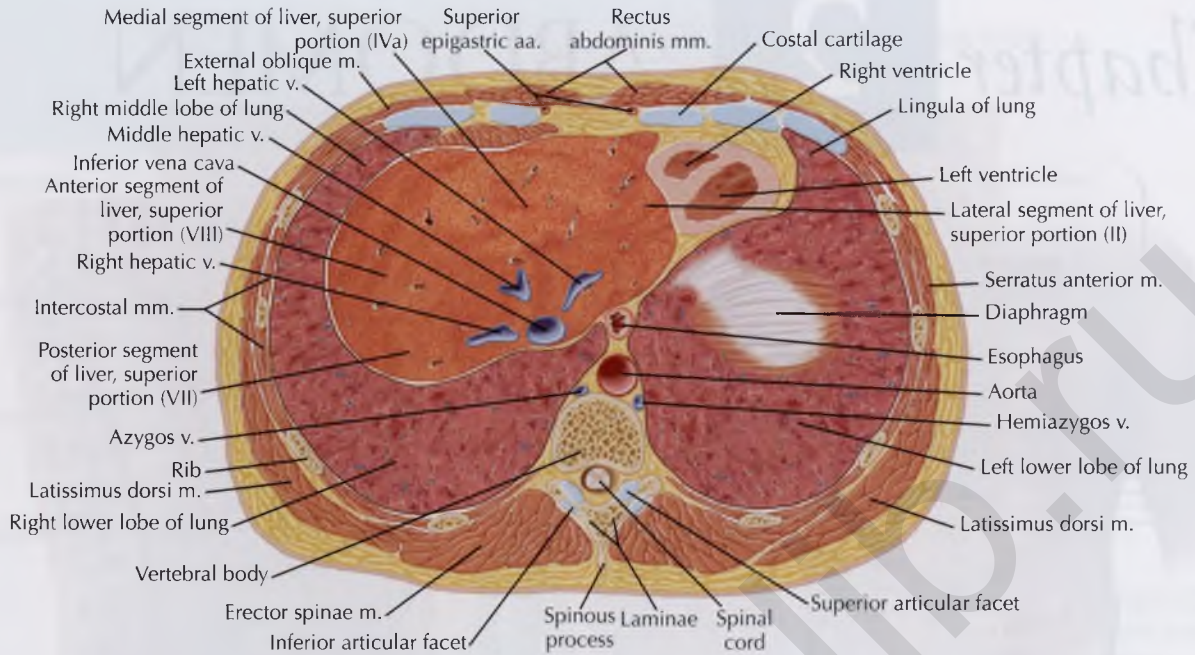


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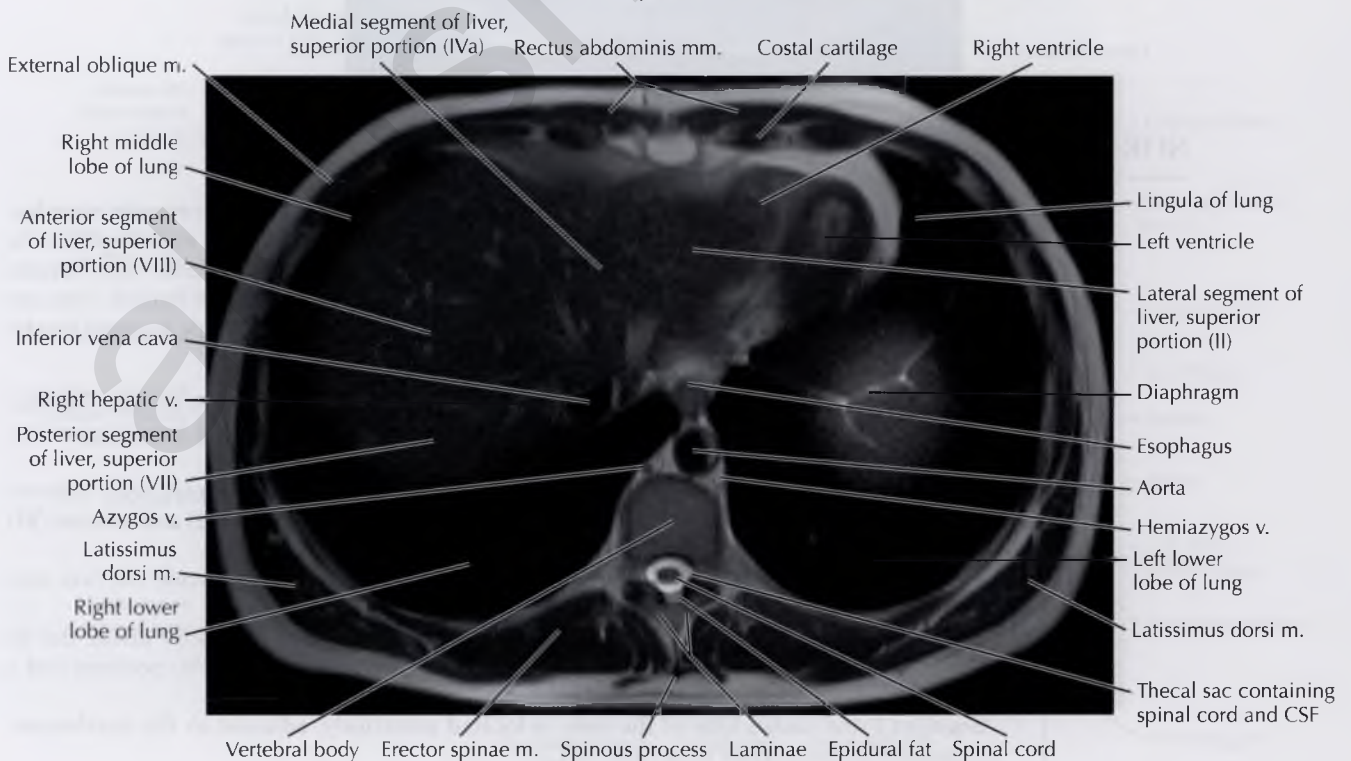
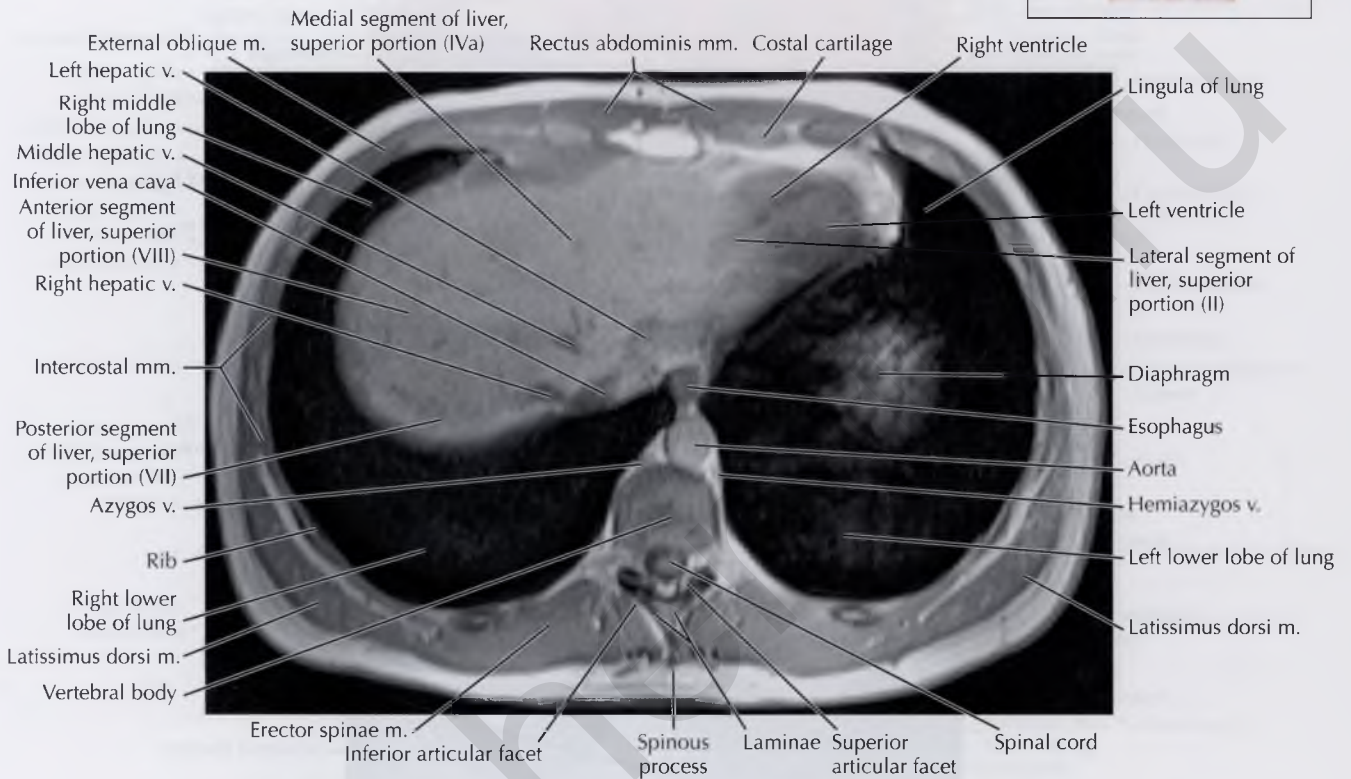
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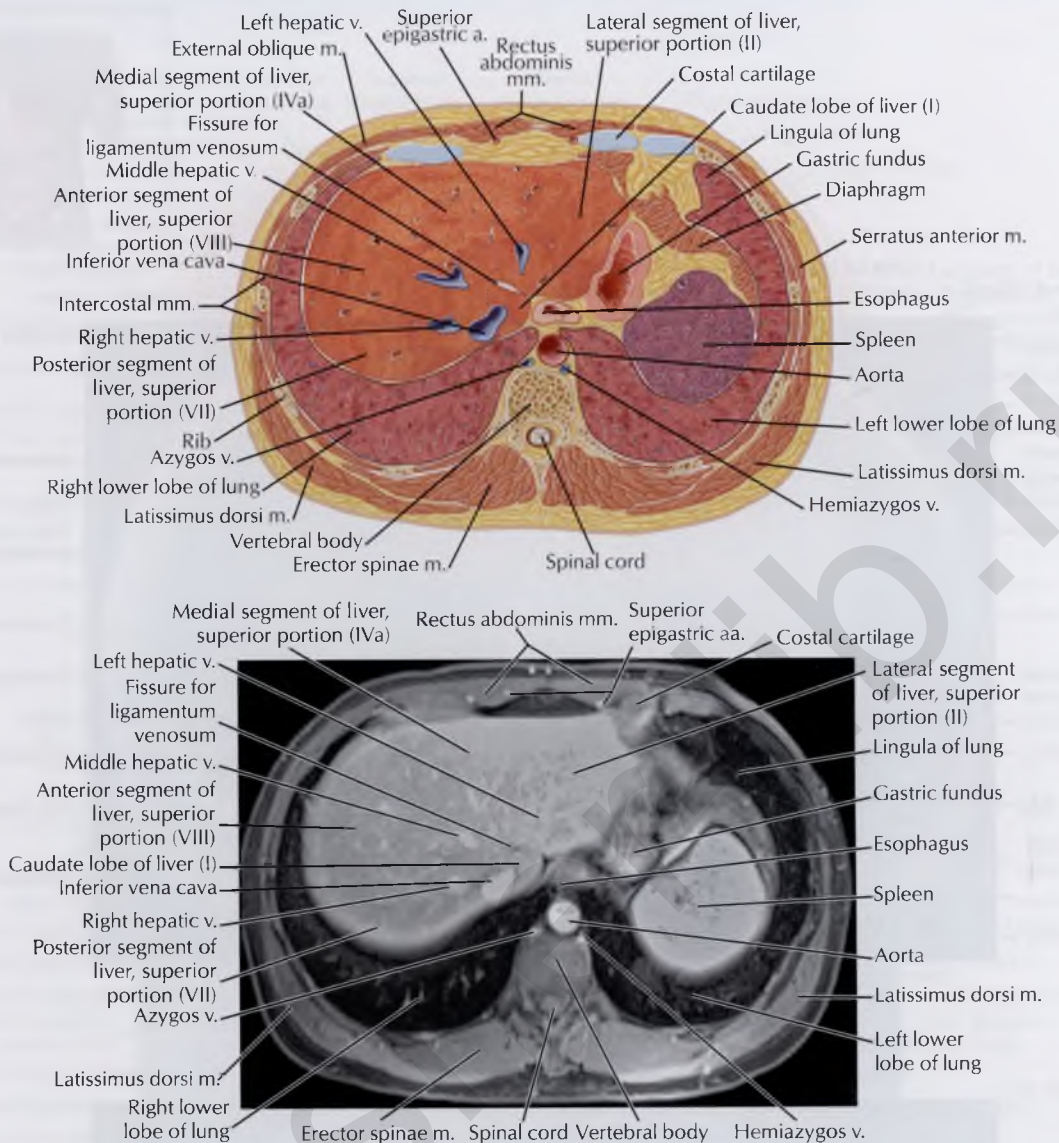
MAXIMUM
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OF
VASCULATURE 100



DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

In magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), all signal intensity is relative; signal intensity varies depending on the type of MR sequence. High signal intensity on T1-weighted images is typically associated with fat, proteinaceous content, subacute hemorrhage, paramagnetic substances (e.g., melanin, gadolinium), and slow blood flow within vessels. High signal intensity on T2-weighted images is typically associated with fluid, including cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), urine, bile, gastric fluid, and enteric fluid, as well as fluid-filled lesions (cyst, cystic or necrotic tumor), hemangiomas, and fat. Low signal intensity on T1- and T2-weighted images is associated with susceptibility artifact from gas, iron, and metallic objects, as well as fibrous tissue, cortical bone, and fast blood flow within vessels.





NORMAL ANATOMY

Many systems have been proposed for liver segmentation anatomy. The approach most frequently used, however, is the *Couinaud system*, which subdivides the liver into eight functionally independent segments (I-VIII). *Portal triads*, composed of branches of the portal vein, hepatic artery, and biliary ducts, are seen within the center of each segment, whereas hepatic veins are seen in the periphery. Because each hepatic segment is self-contained, a single segment can be surgically resected without injury to the remaining segments.

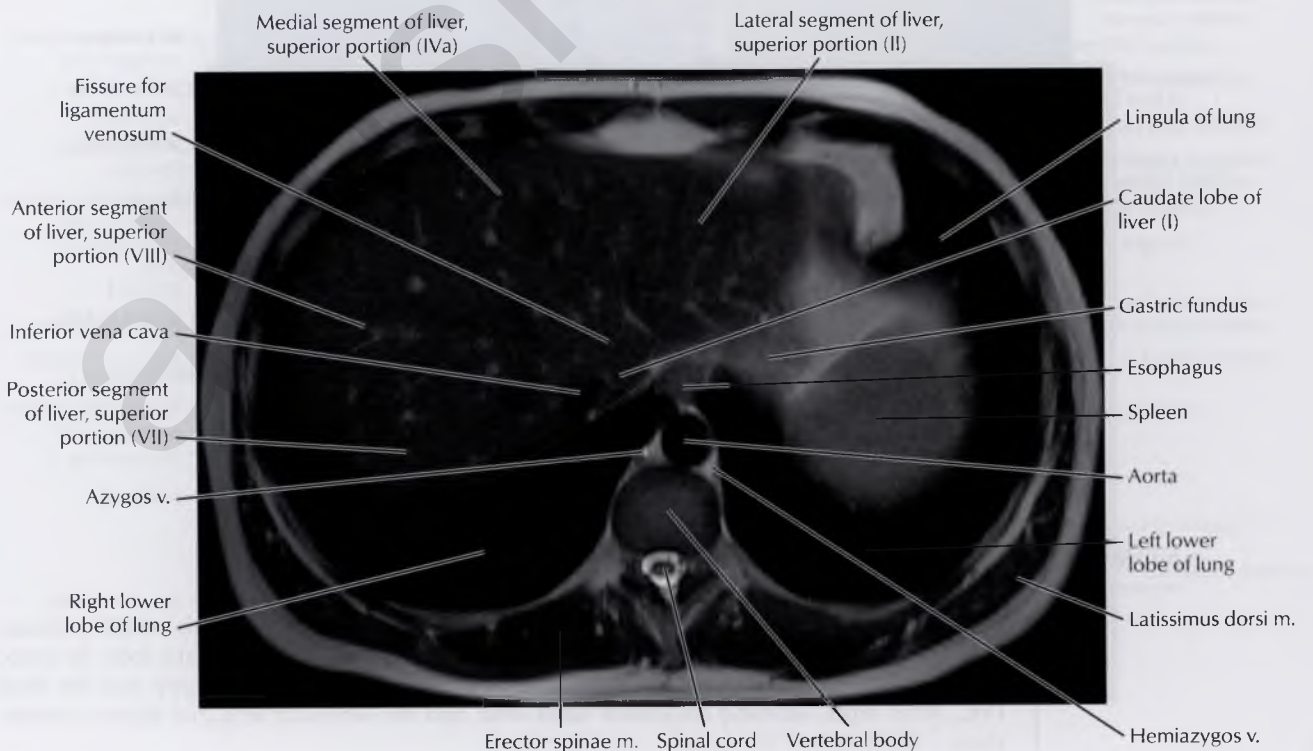
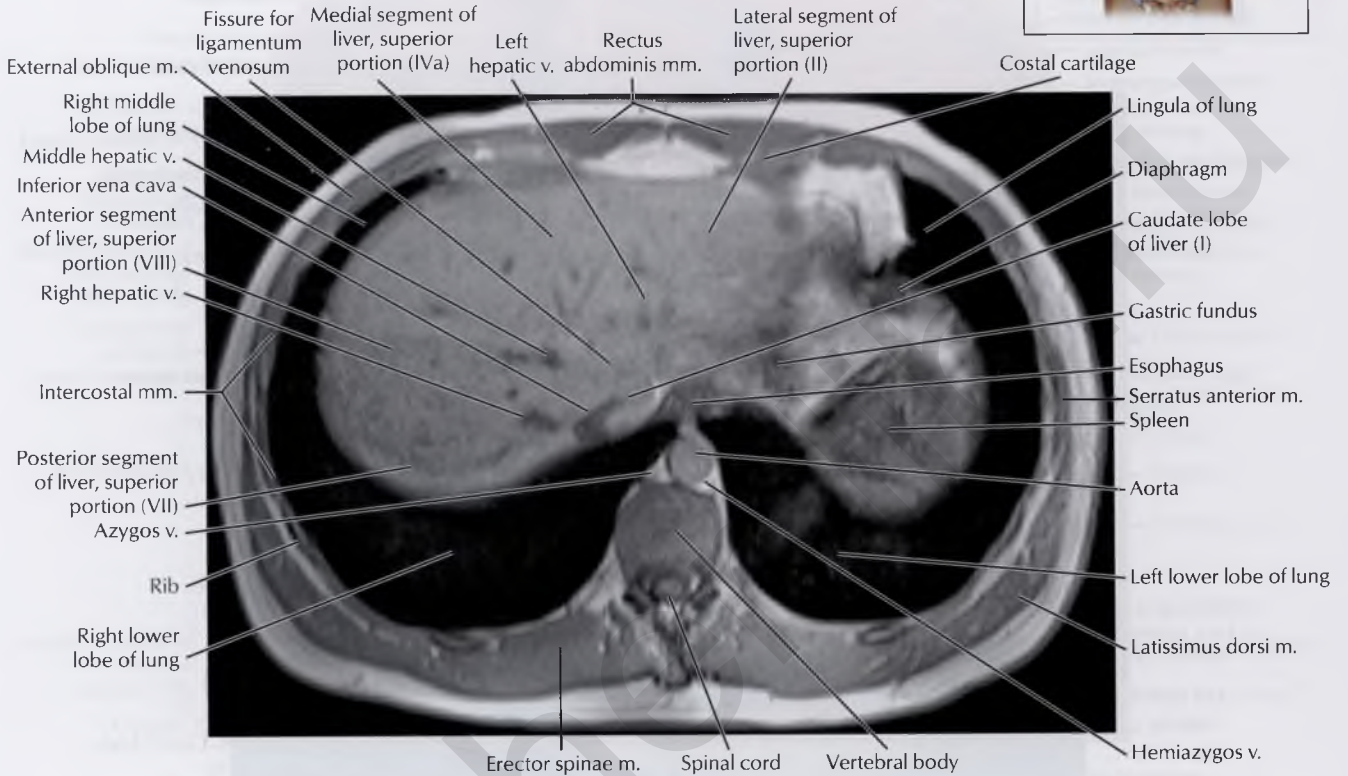
In this system, a transverse plane through the level of the main portal vein divides the liver into lateral, medial, anterior, and posterior segments, each with superior and inferior portions, as follows:

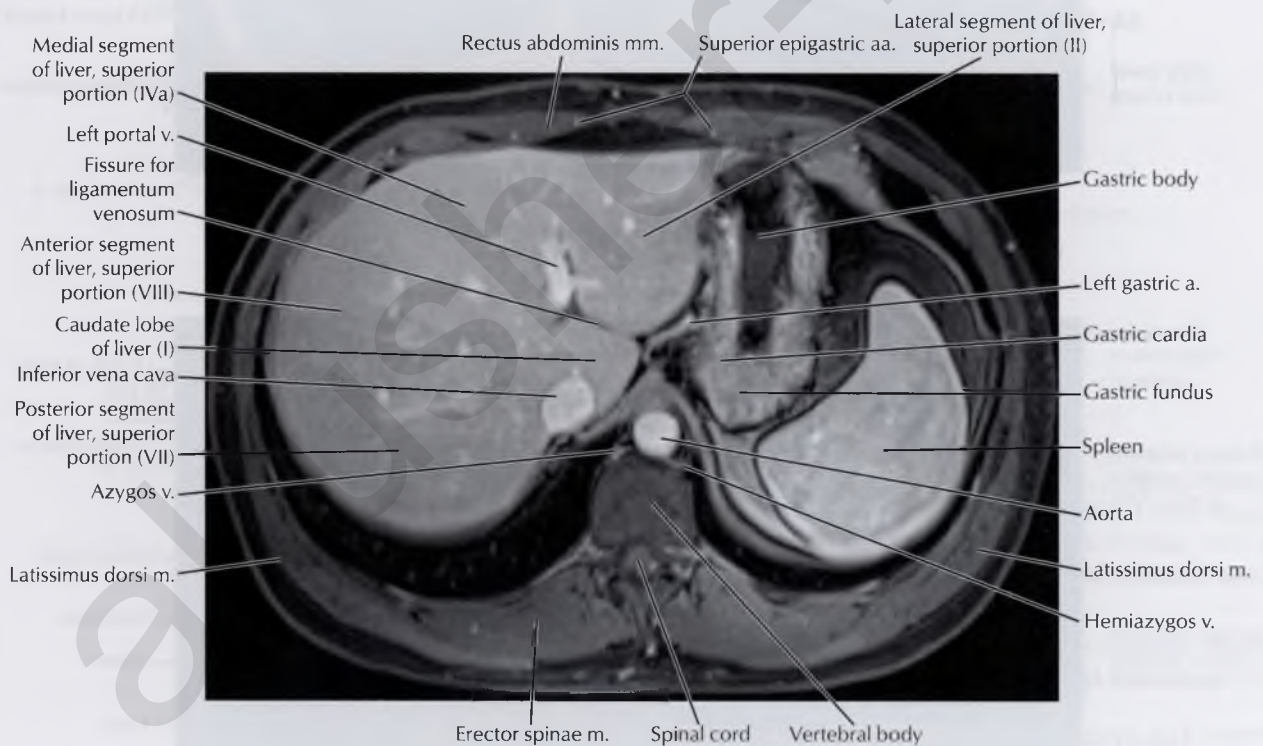
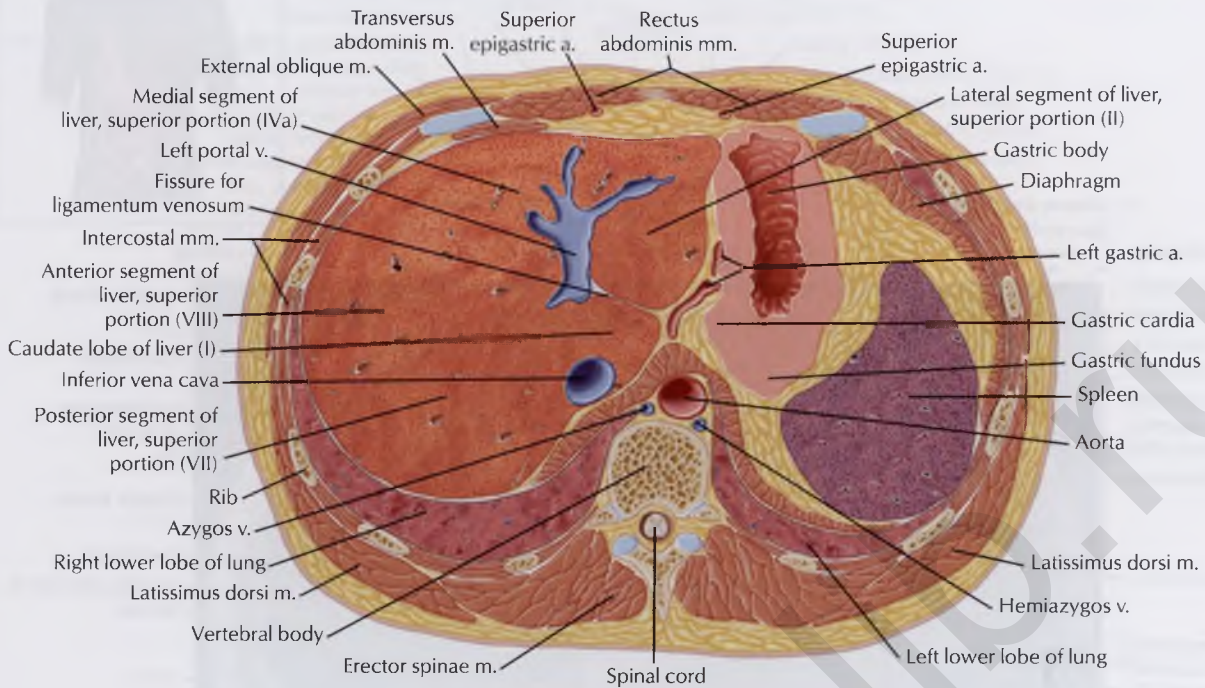
The right hepatic vein divides the *right* hepatic lobe into an *anterior* segment with superior (VIII) and inferior (V) portions and a *posterior* segment with superior (VII) and inferior (VI) portions.

The middle hepatic vein (superiorly) and gallbladder fossa (inferiorly) divide the liver into right and left hepatic lobes.

The left hepatic vein (superiorly) and left intersegmental fissure (inferiorly) divide the *left* hepatic lobe into a *medial* segment with superior (IVa) and inferior (IVb) portions and a *lateral* segment with superior (II) and inferior (III) portions.

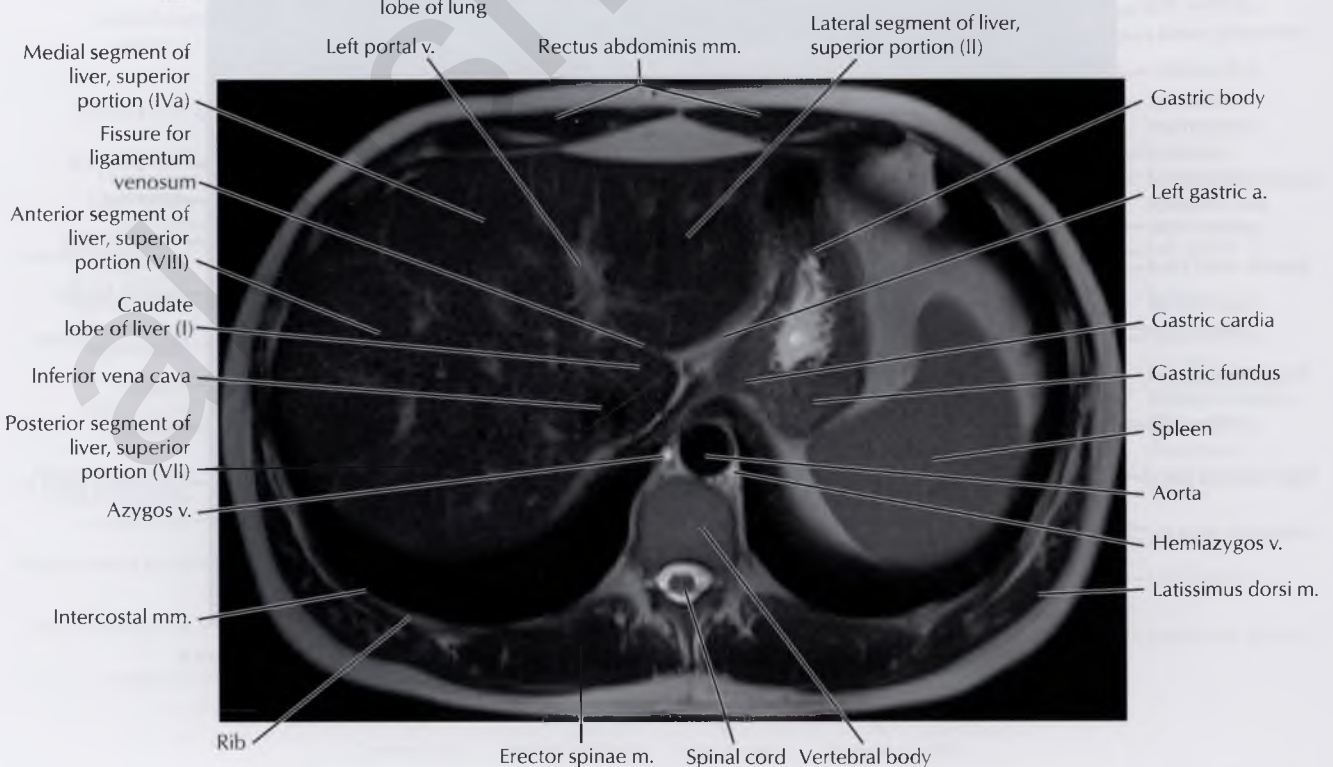
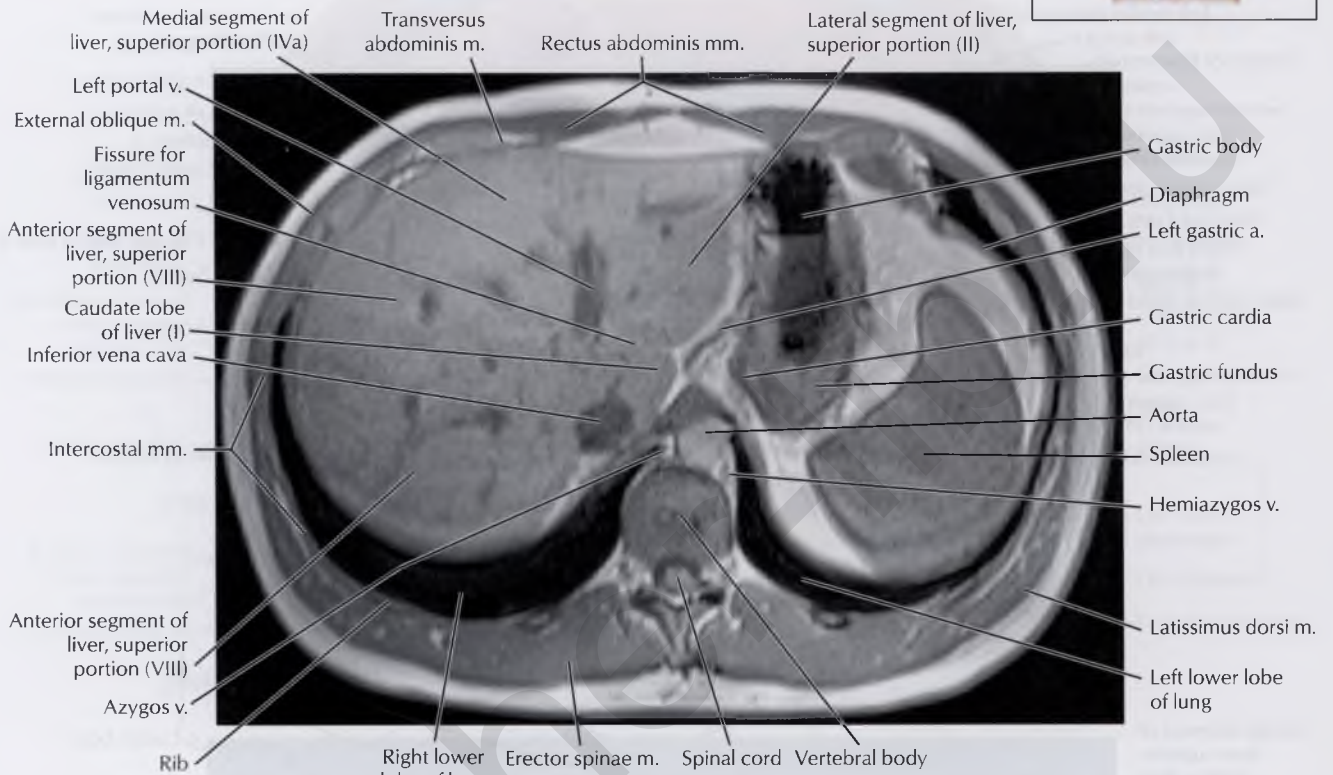
Segment I, the *caudate* lobe of the liver, is located posteriorly, adjacent to the intrahepatic portion of the inferior vena cava (IVC).

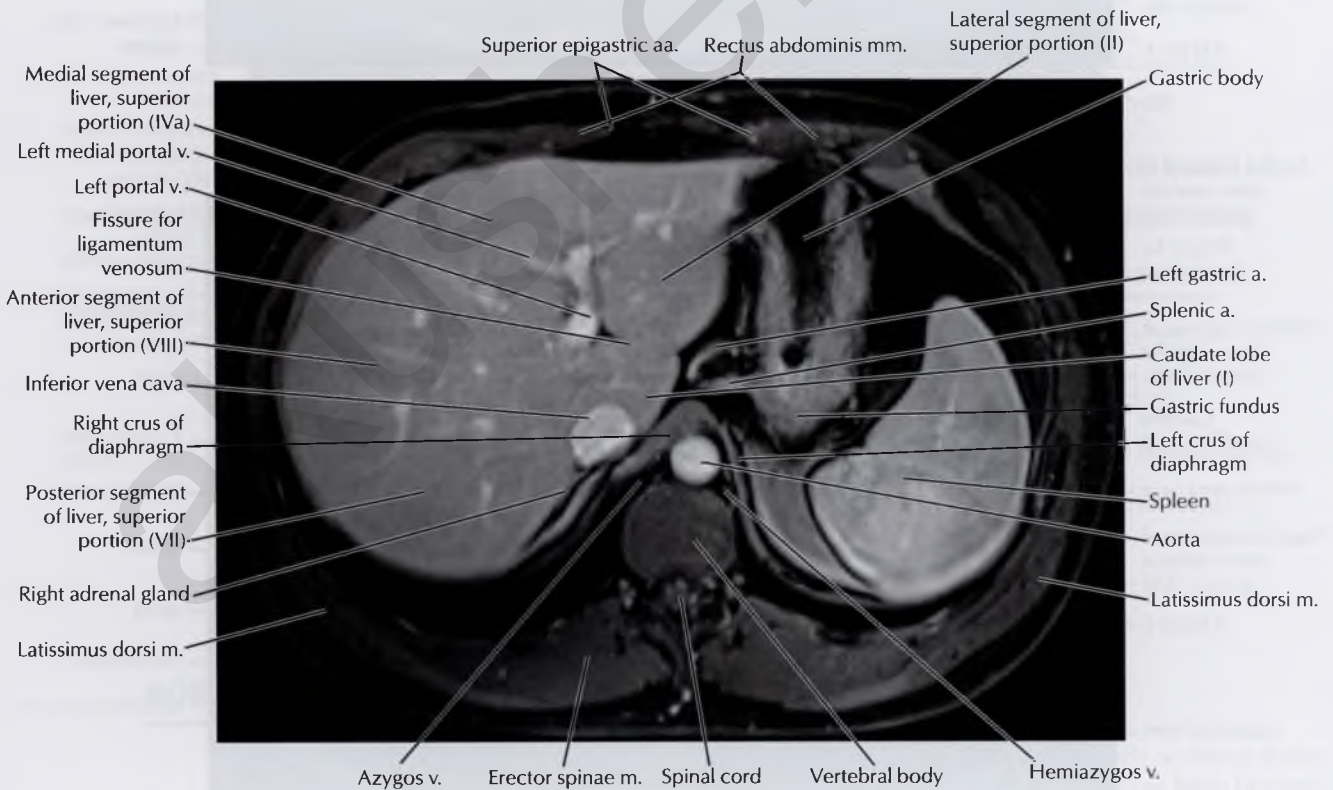
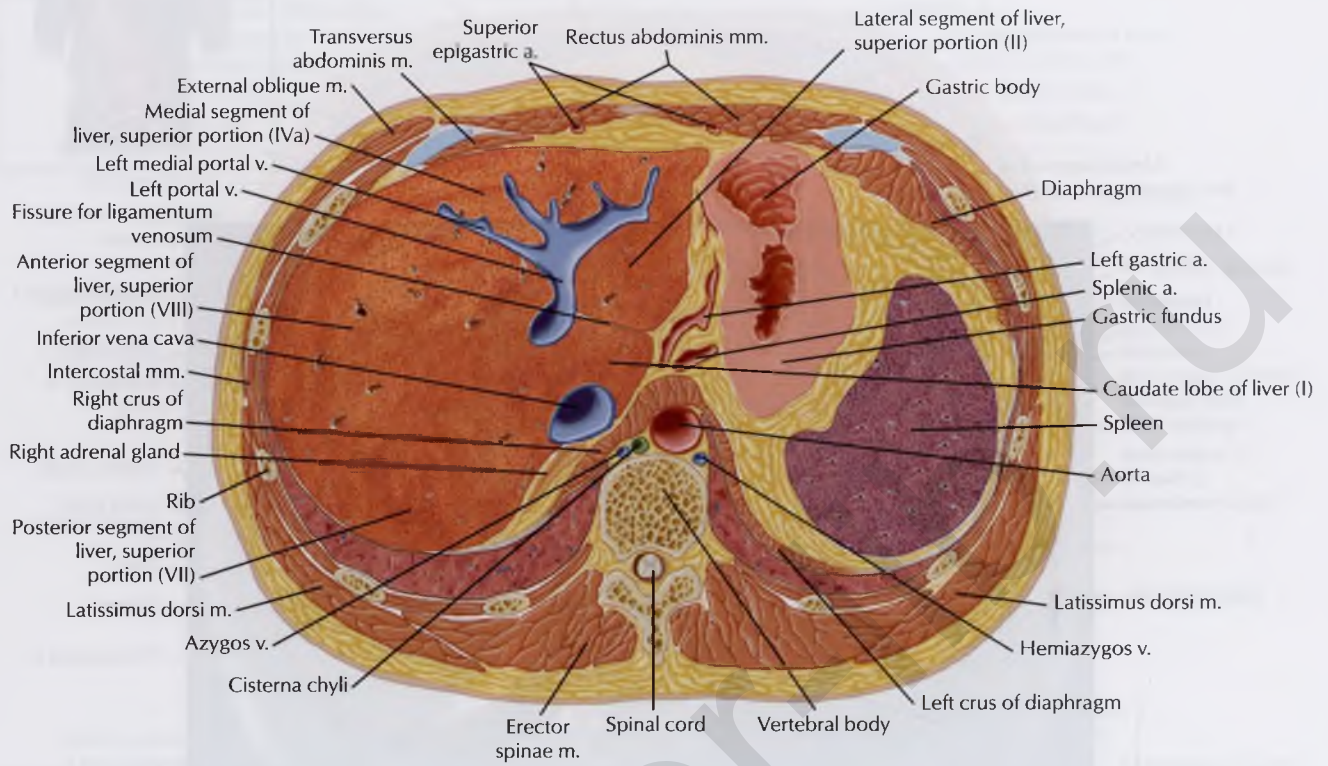


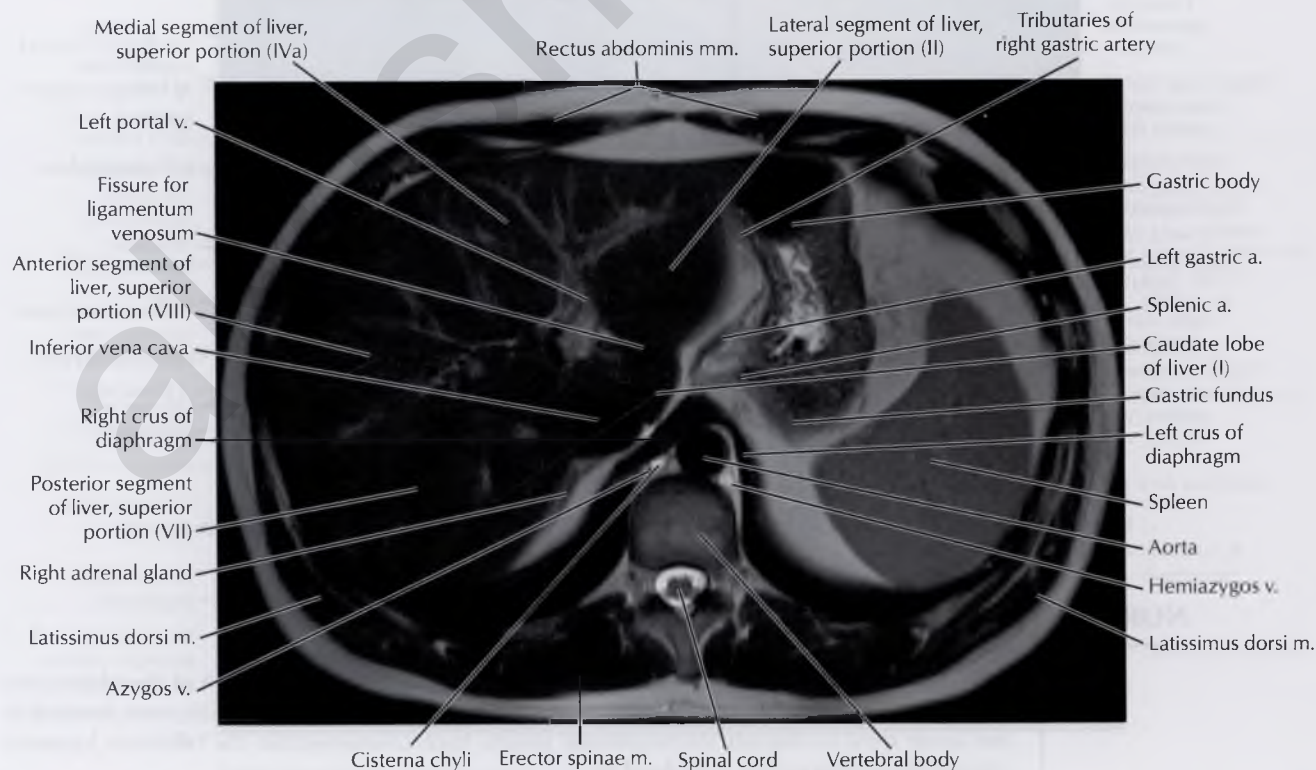
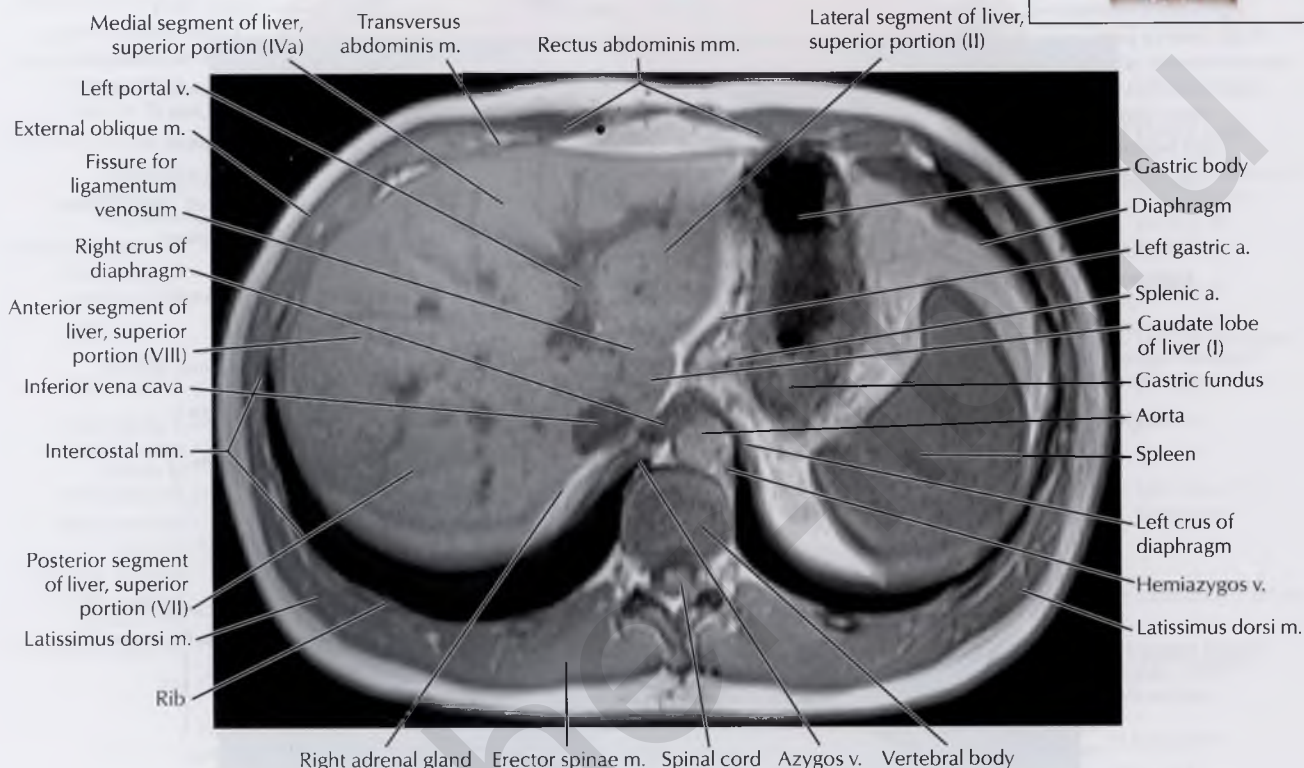
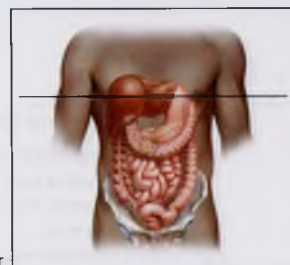


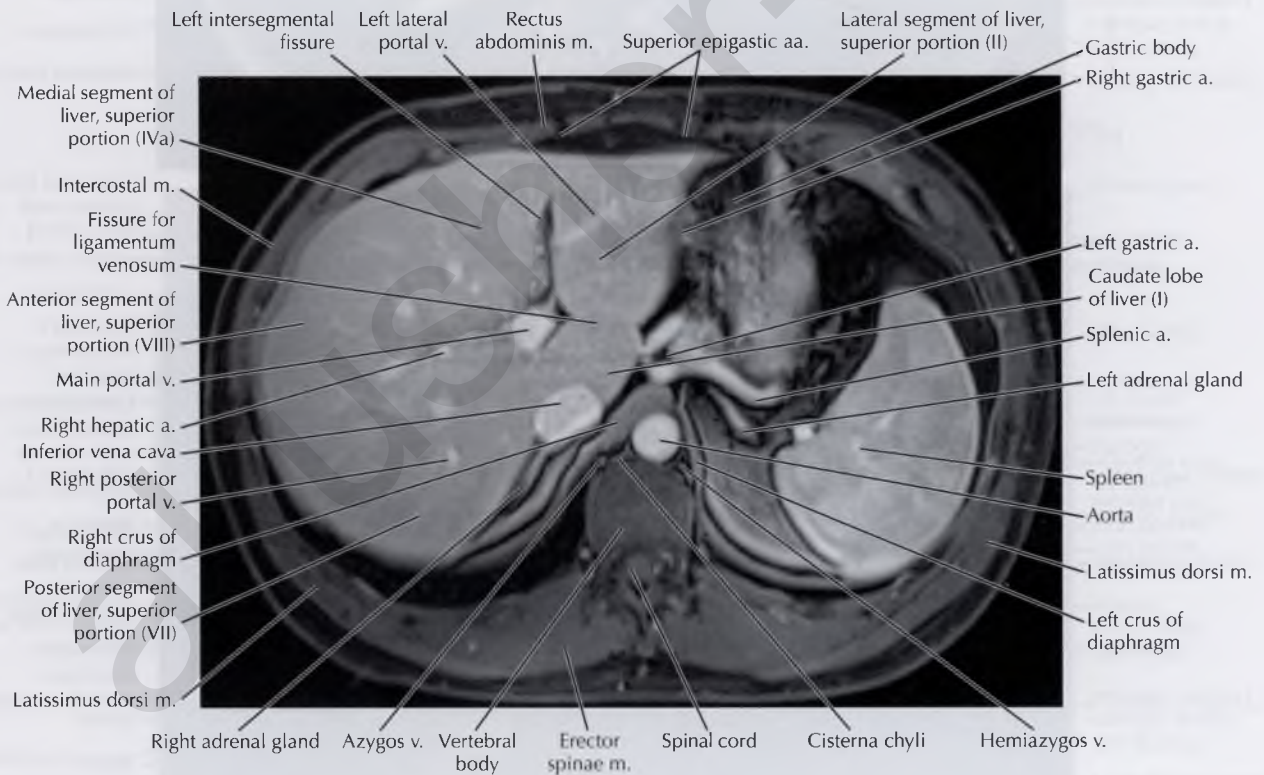
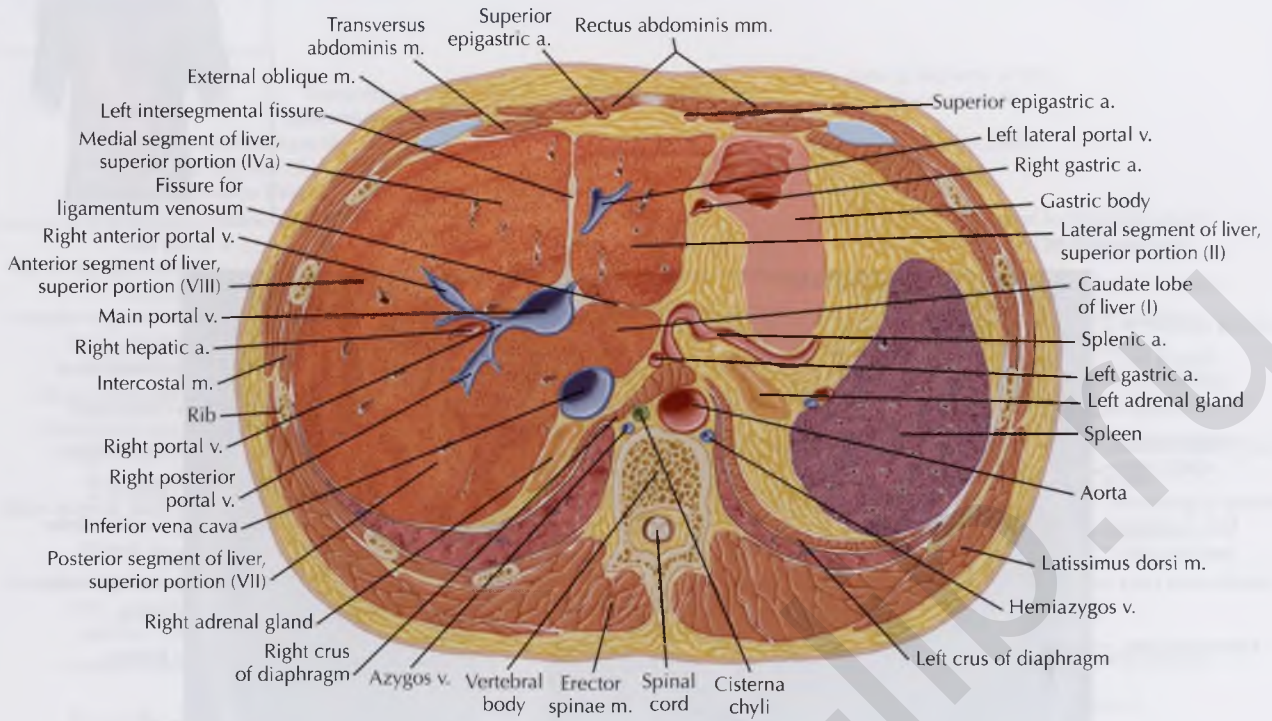
NORMAL ANATOMY

The *ligamentum venosum*, a remnant of the obliterated ductus venosus, travels within a fissure along the inferior surface of the liver between the caudate lobe and left hepatic lobe. In utero, the ductus venosus shunts oxygenated blood from the umbilical vein directly into the fetal IVC. After birth, neonatal circulation takes over, and the umbilical vein and ductus venosus close.



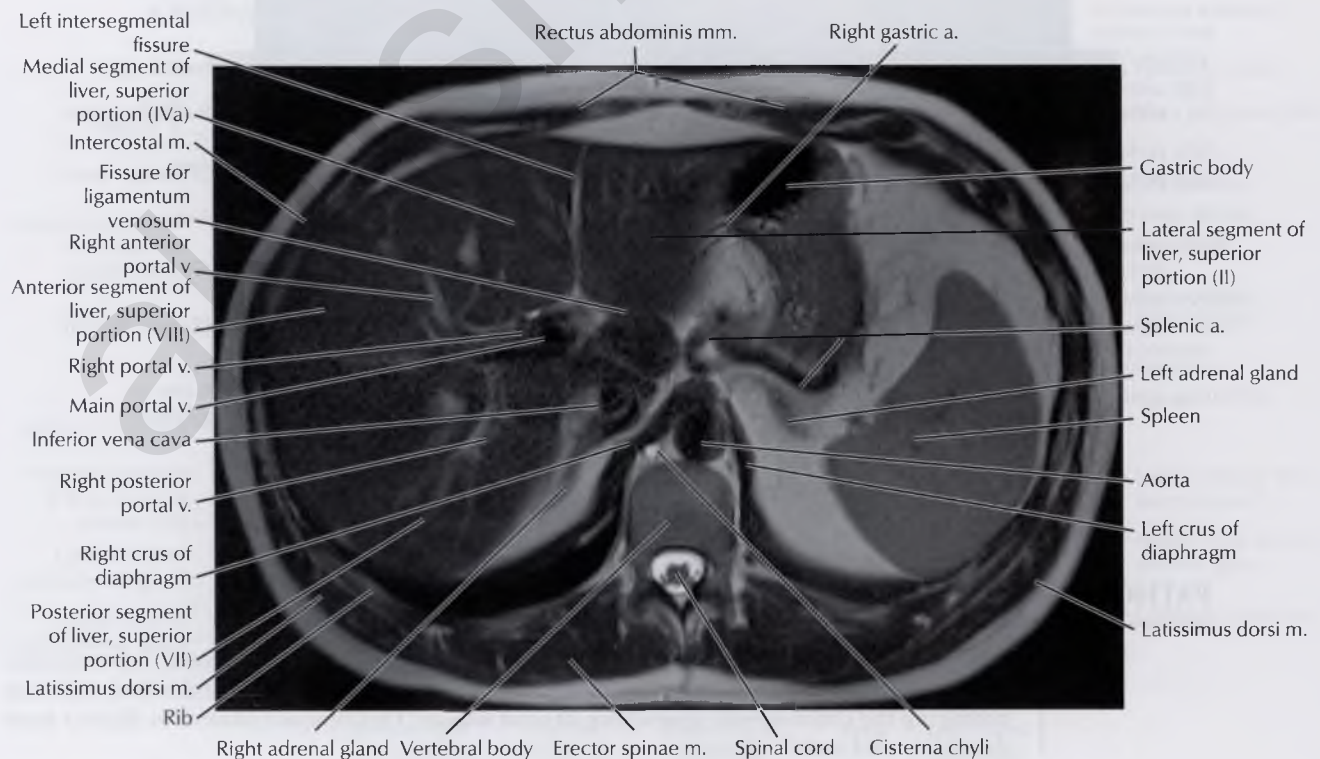
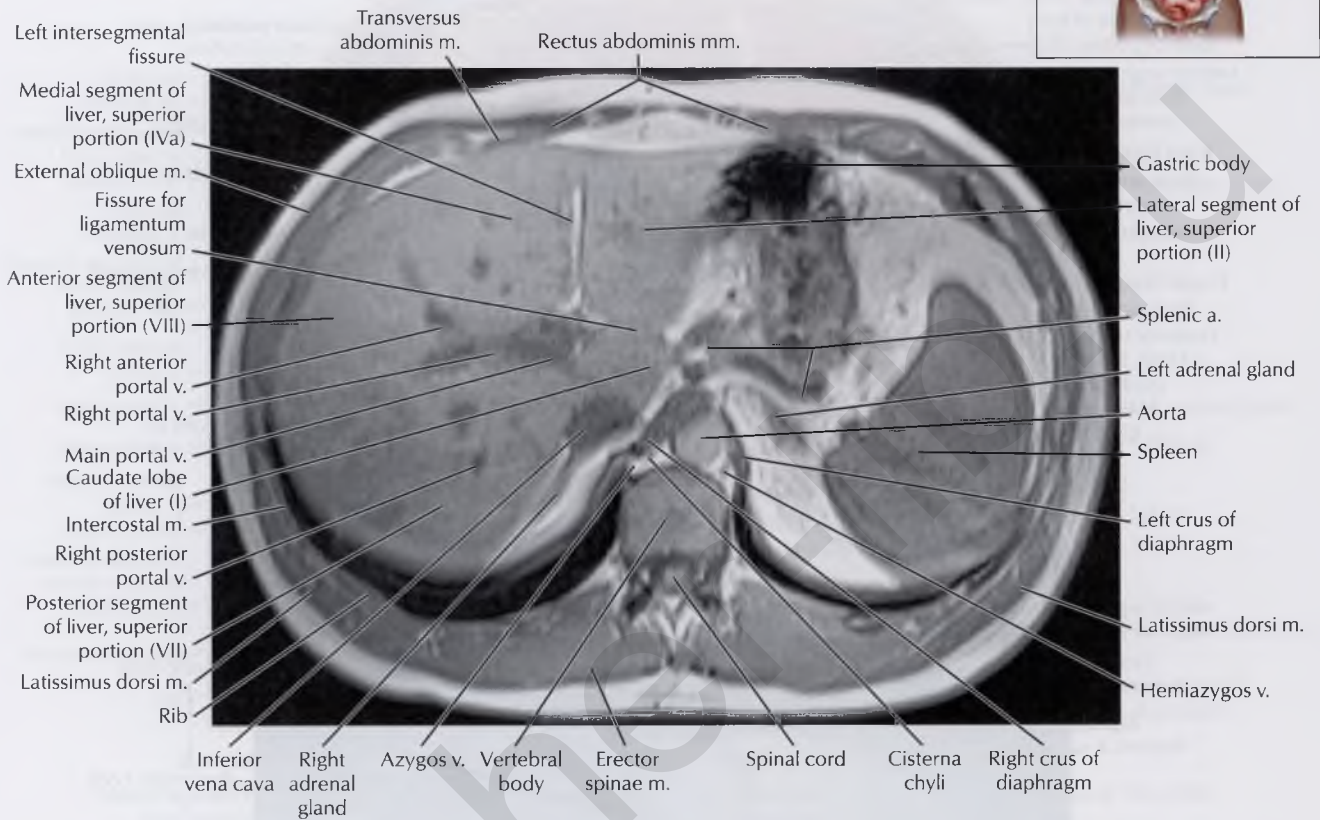


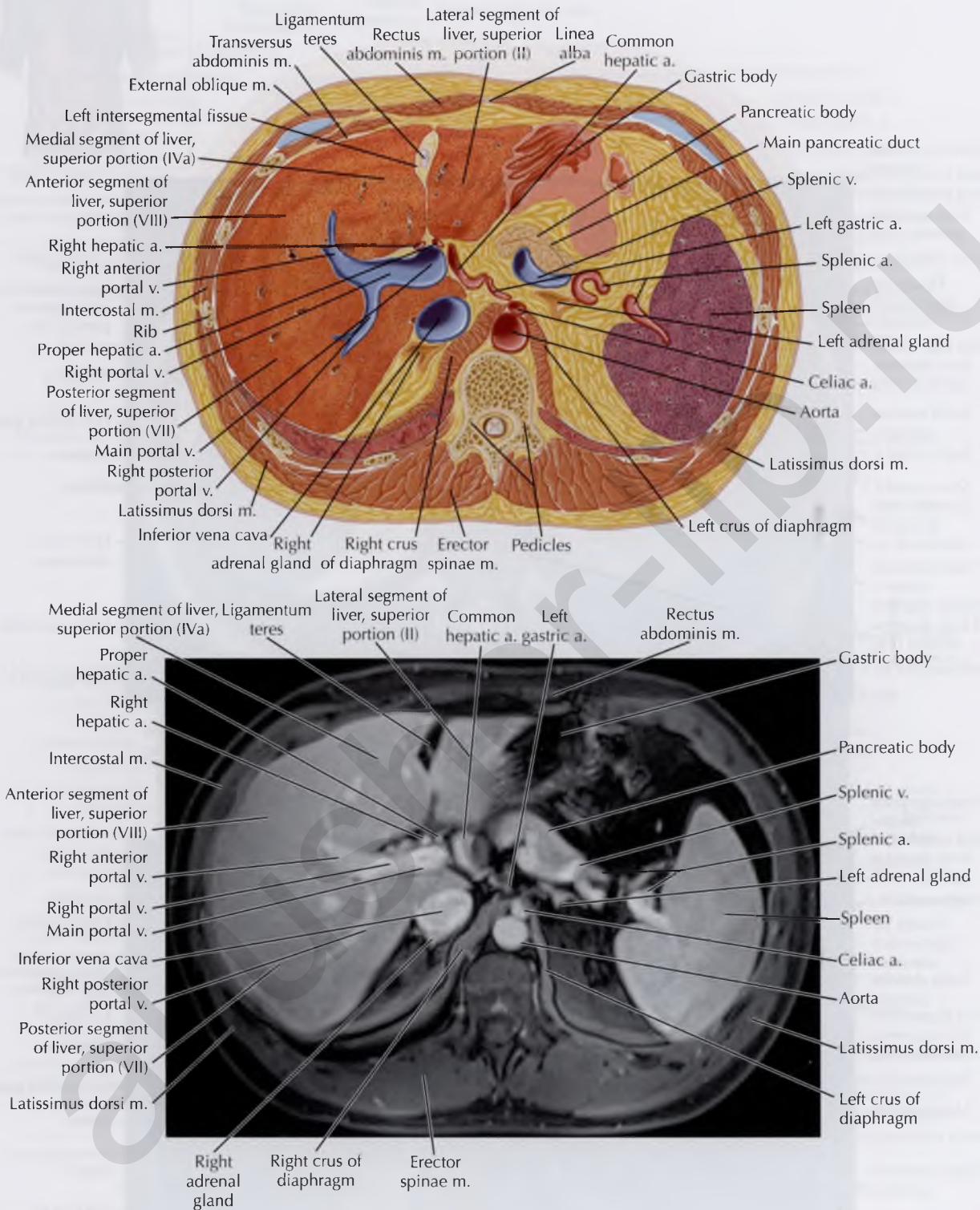




NORMAL ANATOMY

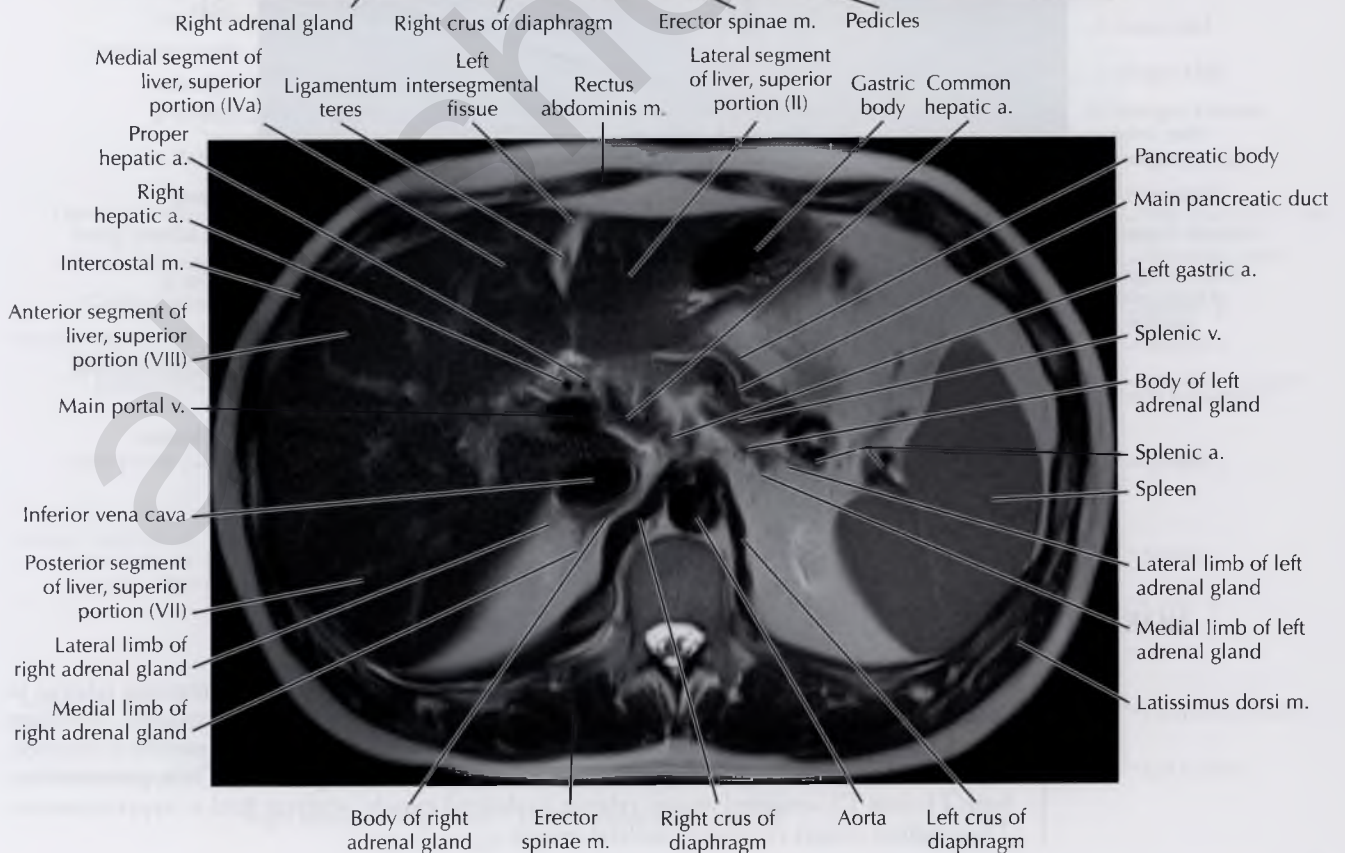
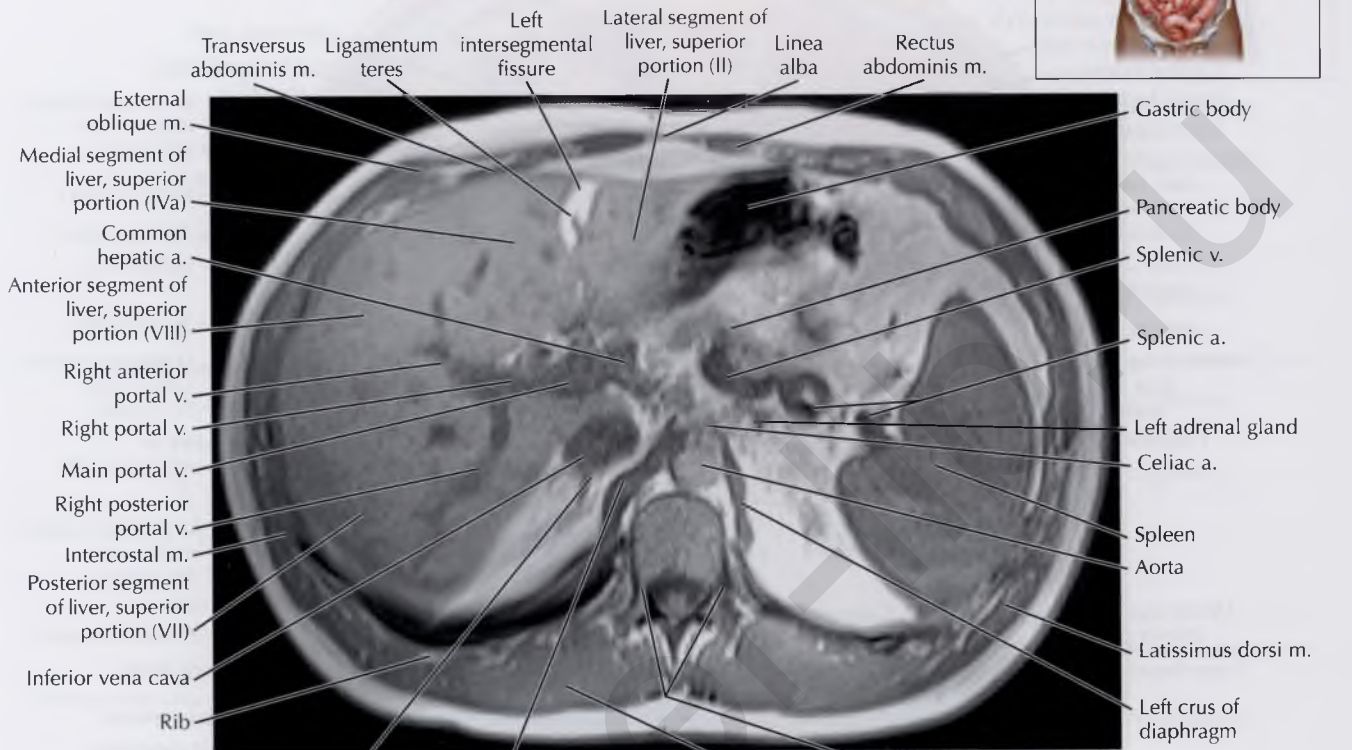
The ligamentum venosum is in continuity with the *ligamentum teres*, a remnant of the obliterated umbilical vein. The ligamentum teres travels in the fissure for the ligamentum teres, located in the lower third of the left intersegmental fissure, then courses within the falciform ligament toward the umbilicus (see also Axial 6).

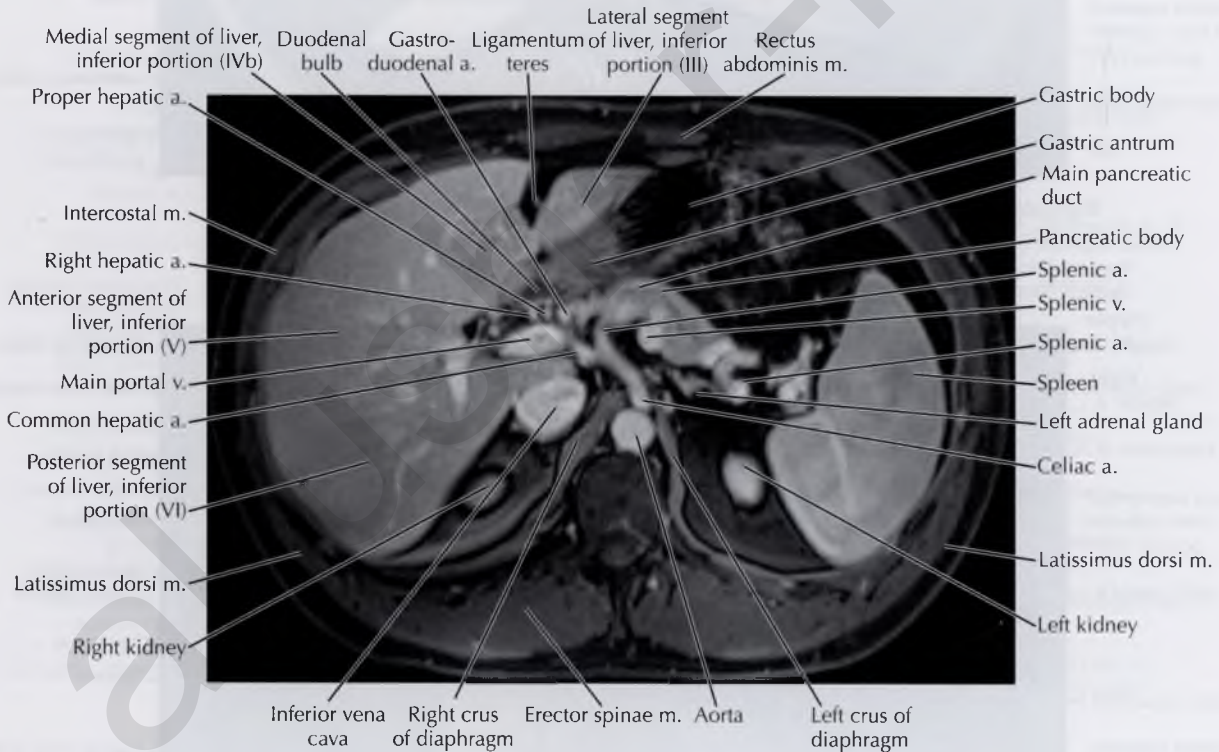
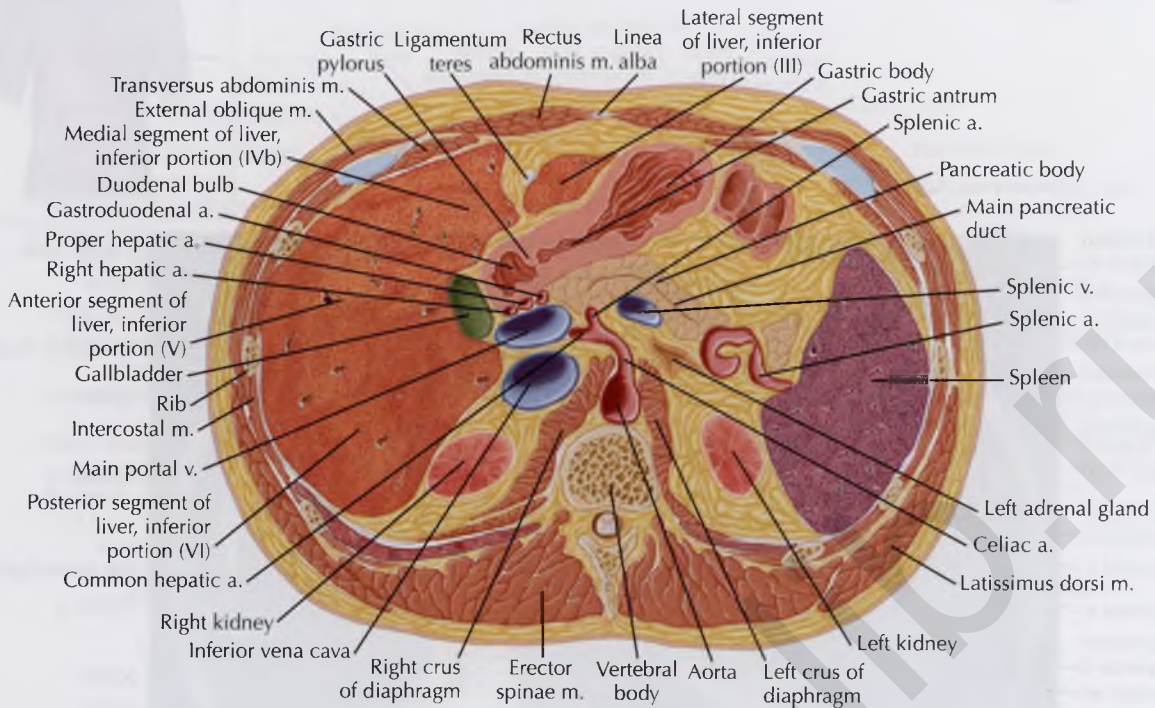




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

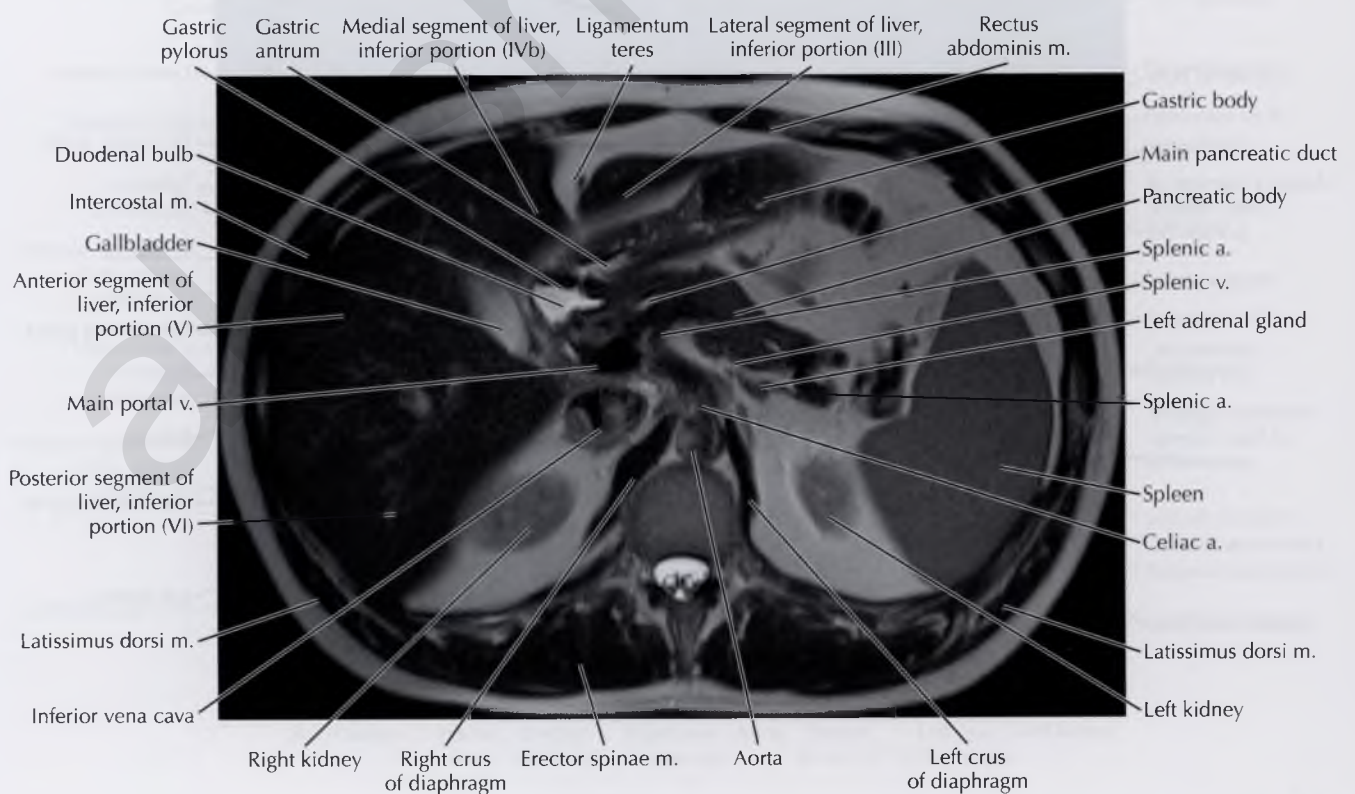
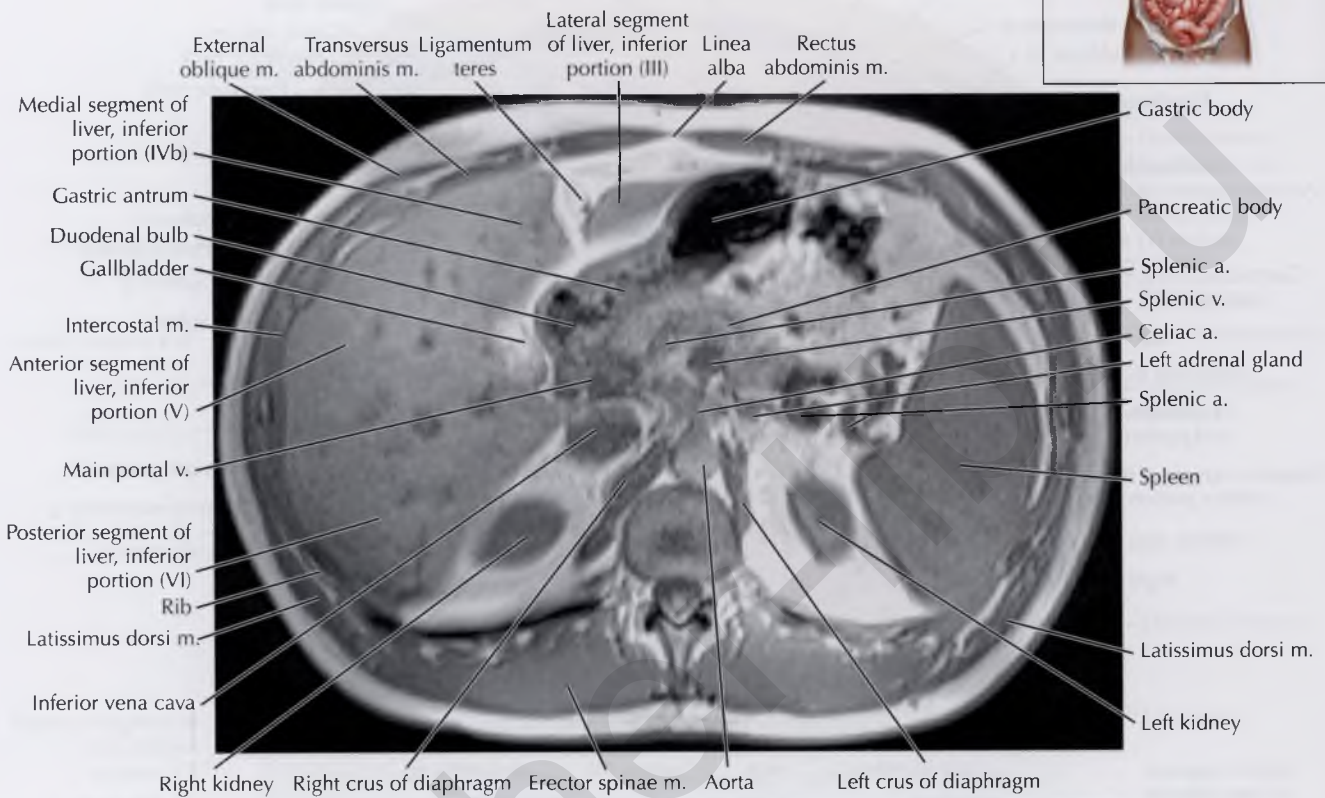
An enlarged paraumbilical vein may become visible in the patient with portal hypertension, allowing for portosystemic venous collateralization within the anterior abdominal wall and producing the characteristic appearance of *caput medusae*. This venous collateral is distinct from the obliterated umbilical vein.

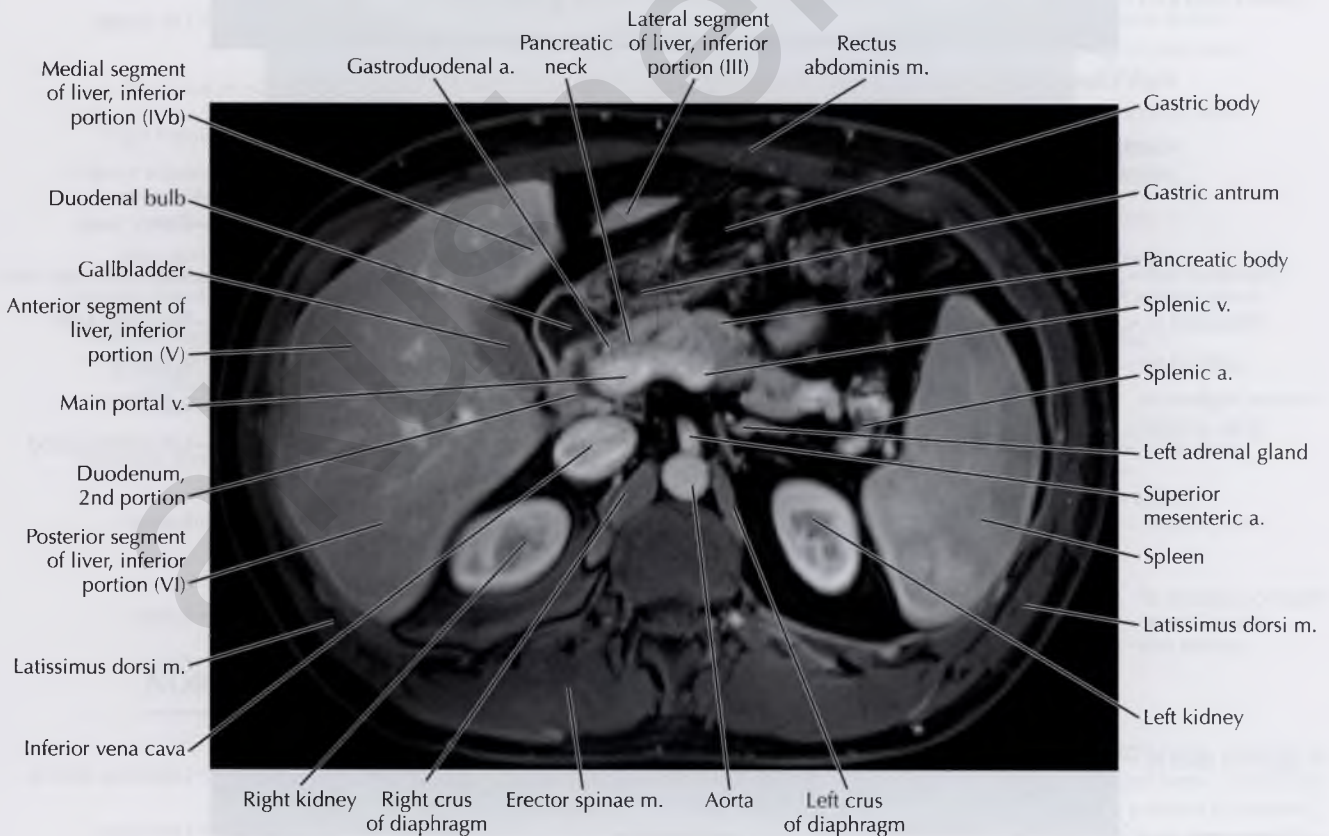
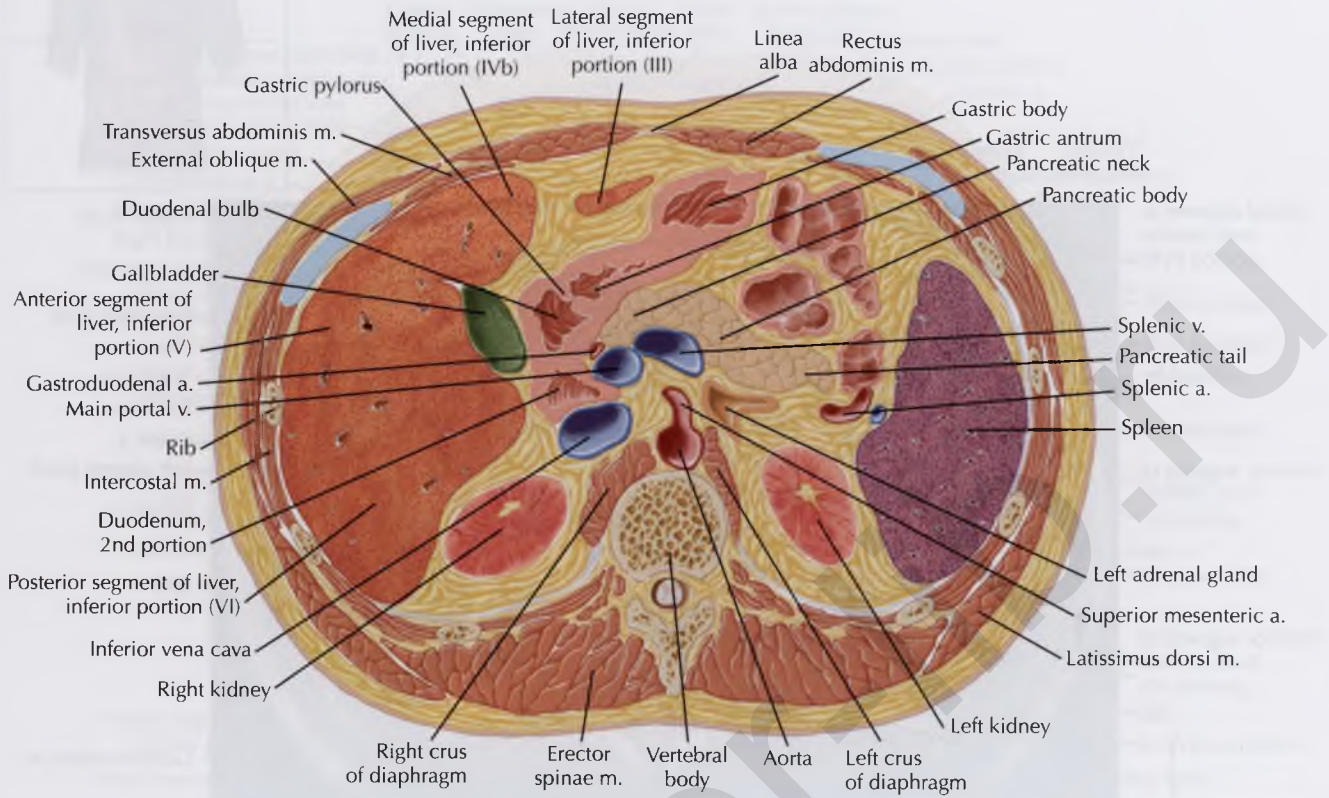


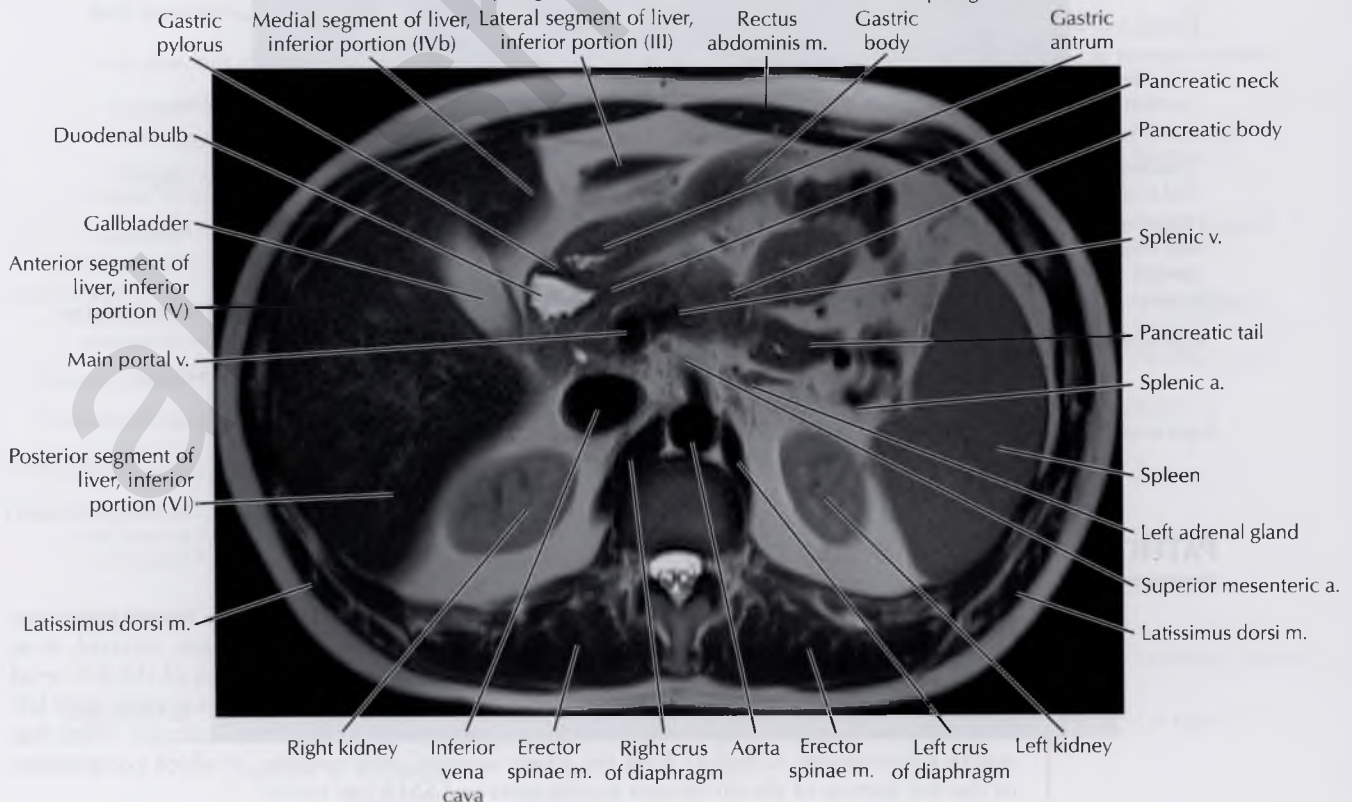
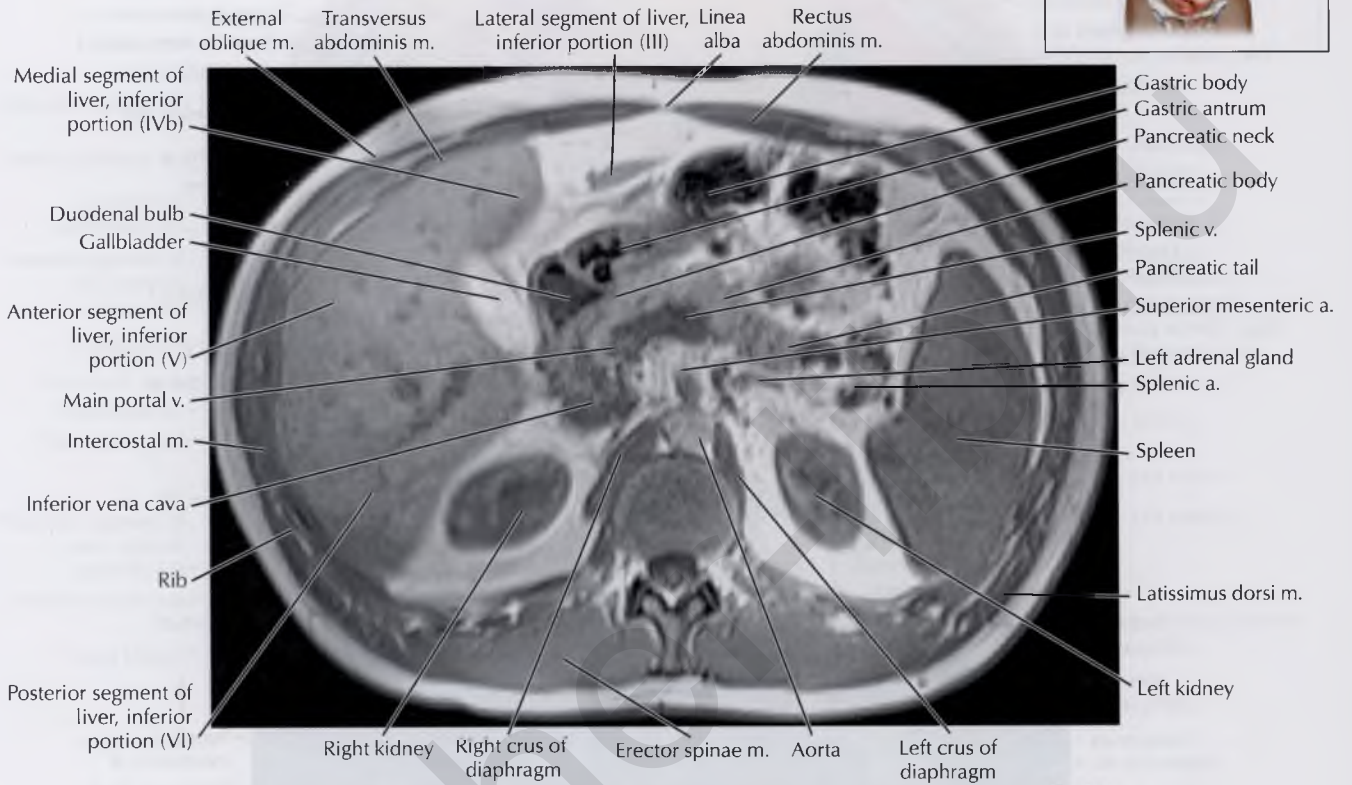
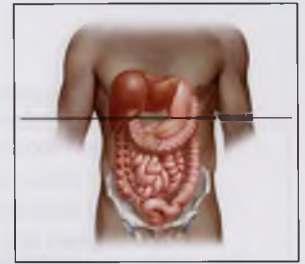


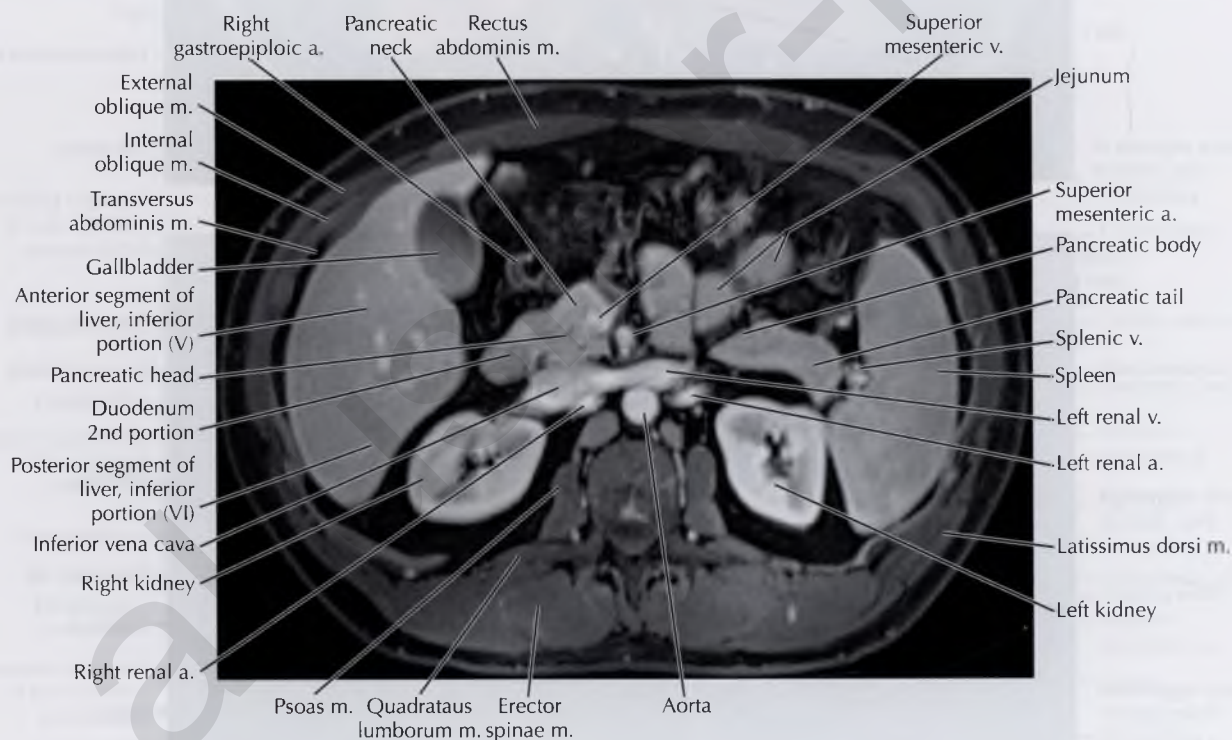
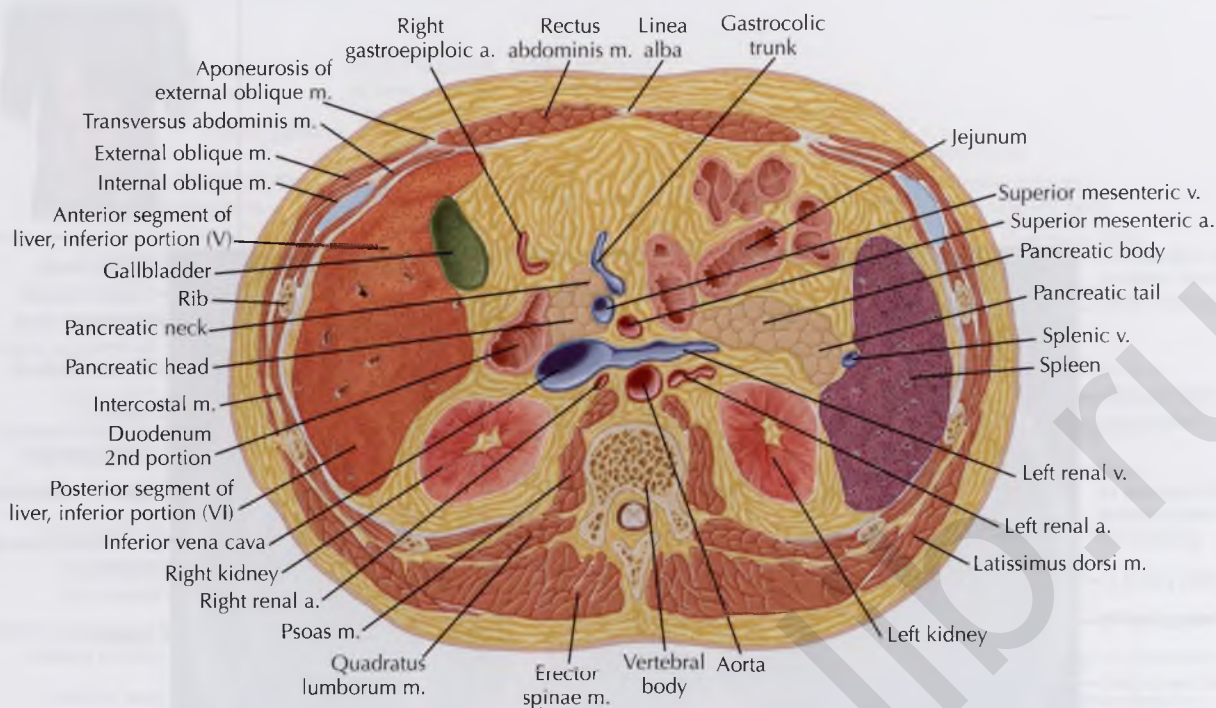
NORMAL ANATOMY

On T1-weighted MR images, the normal pancreas has the highest signal intensity relative to other parenchymal organs, because of its high protein and rough endoplasmic reticulum content, followed by the liver, then the spleen. On T2-weighted images, the pattern is reversed; the normal spleen has higher signal intensity than the liver or pancreas. Fat is hyperintense on both T1- and T2-weighted images relative to skeletal muscle, whereas fluid is hyperintense on T2-weighted images relative to skeletal muscle.



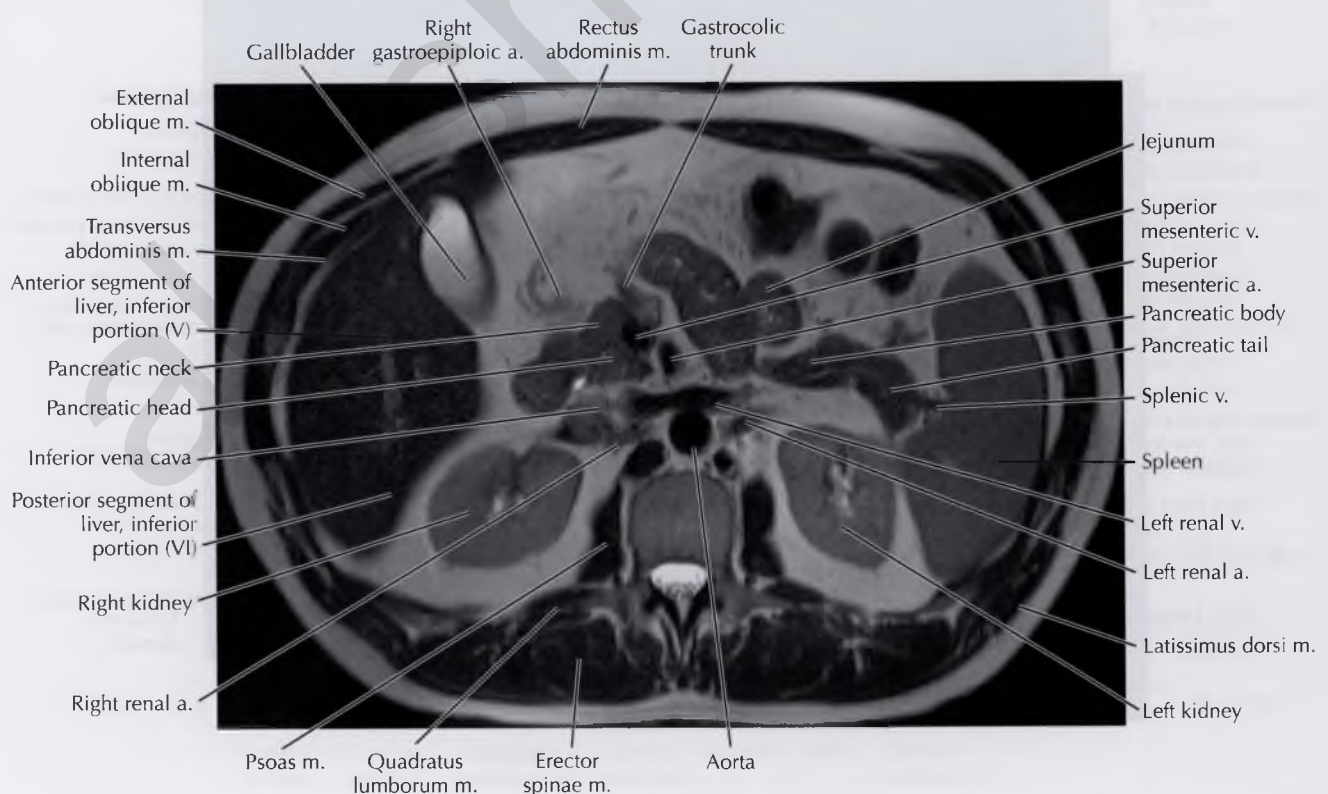
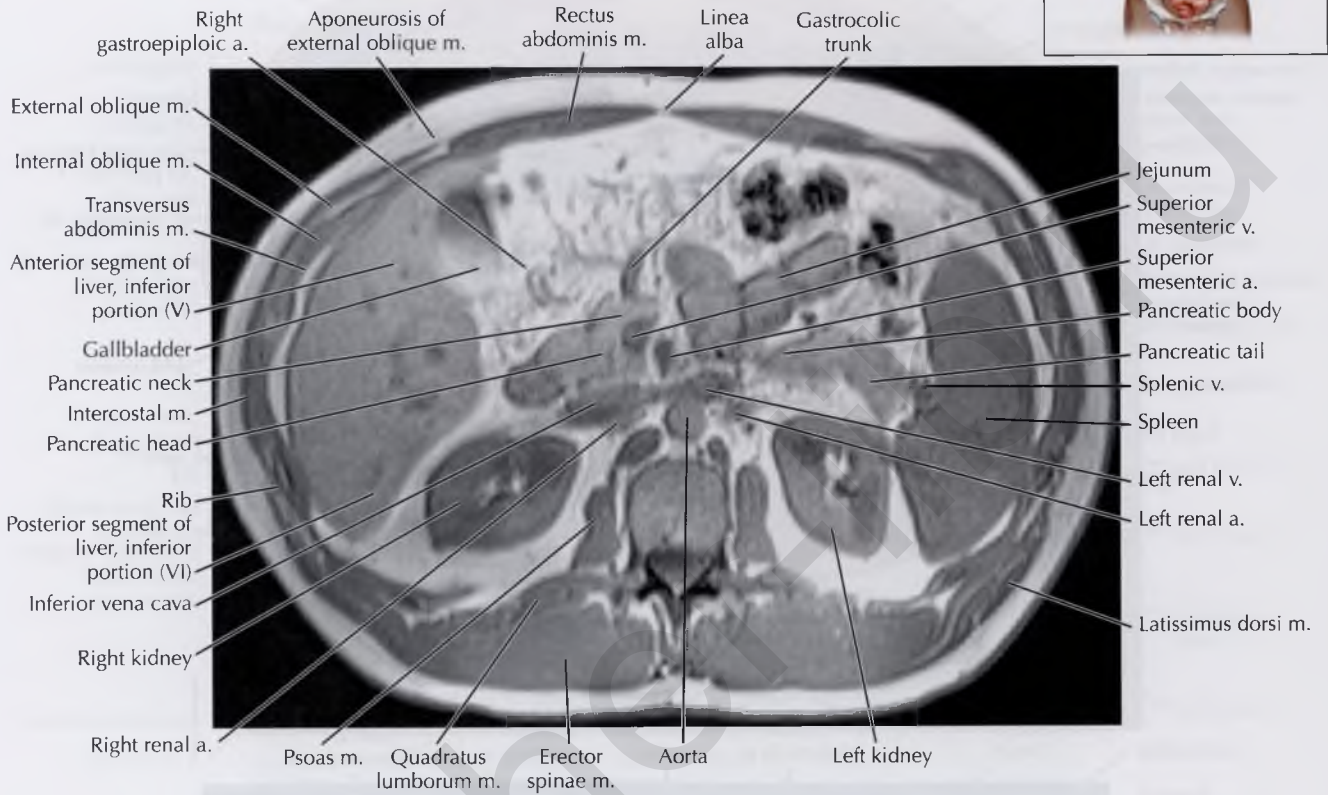


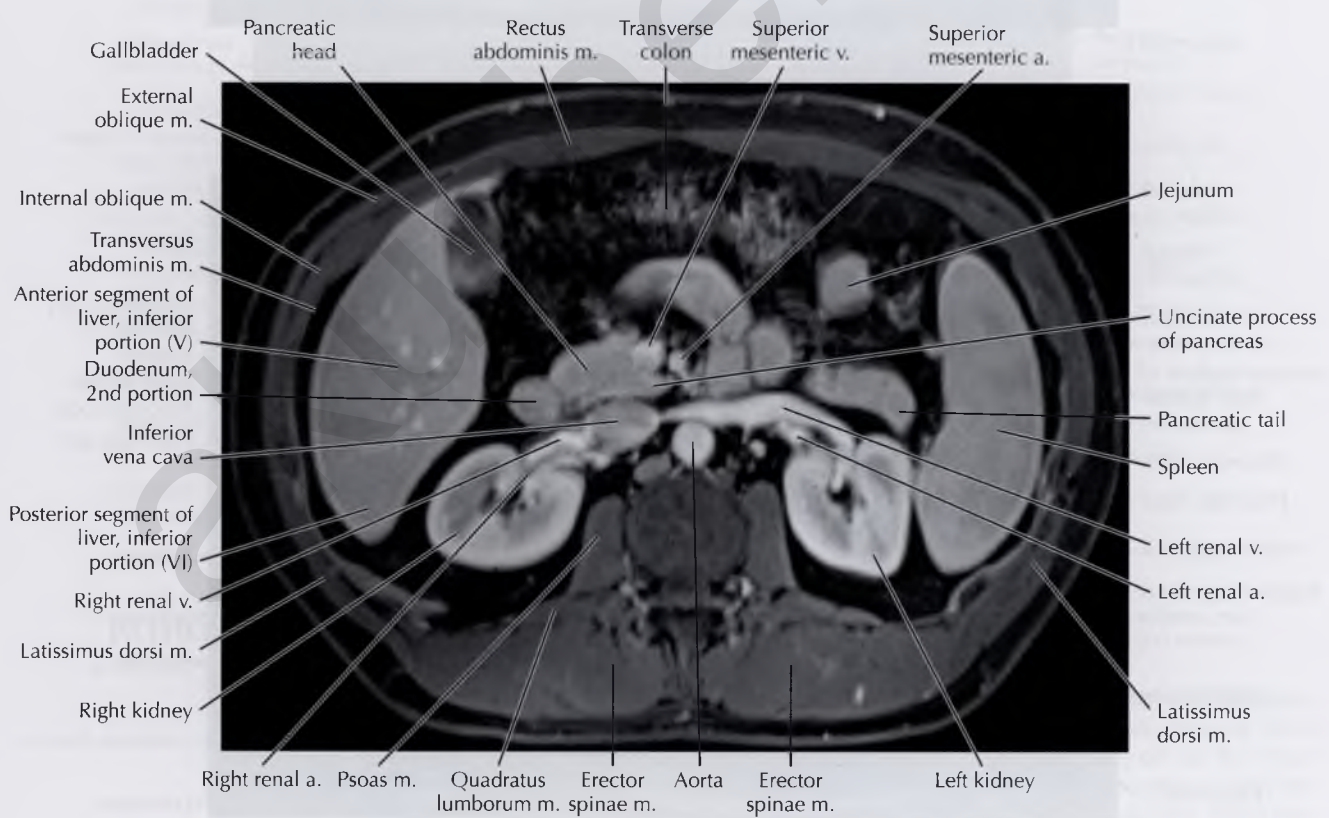
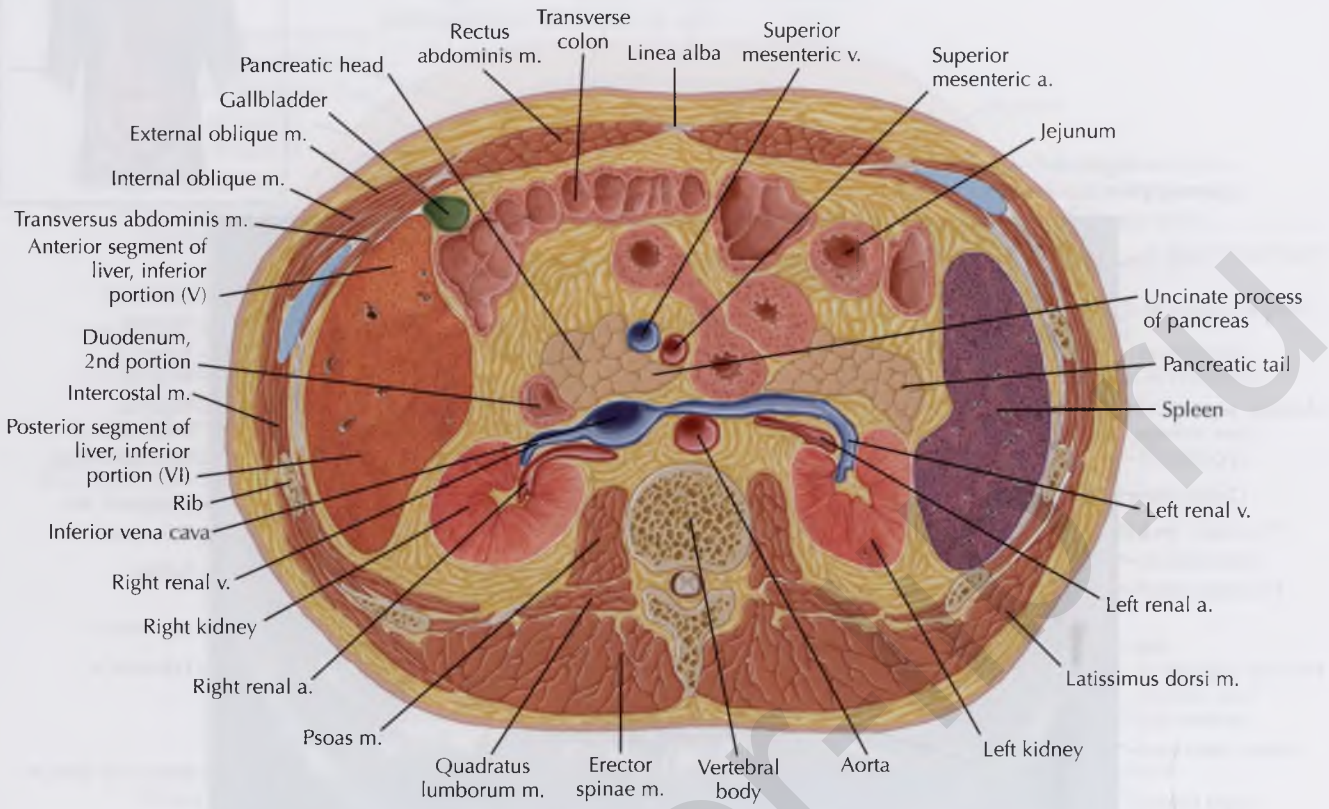


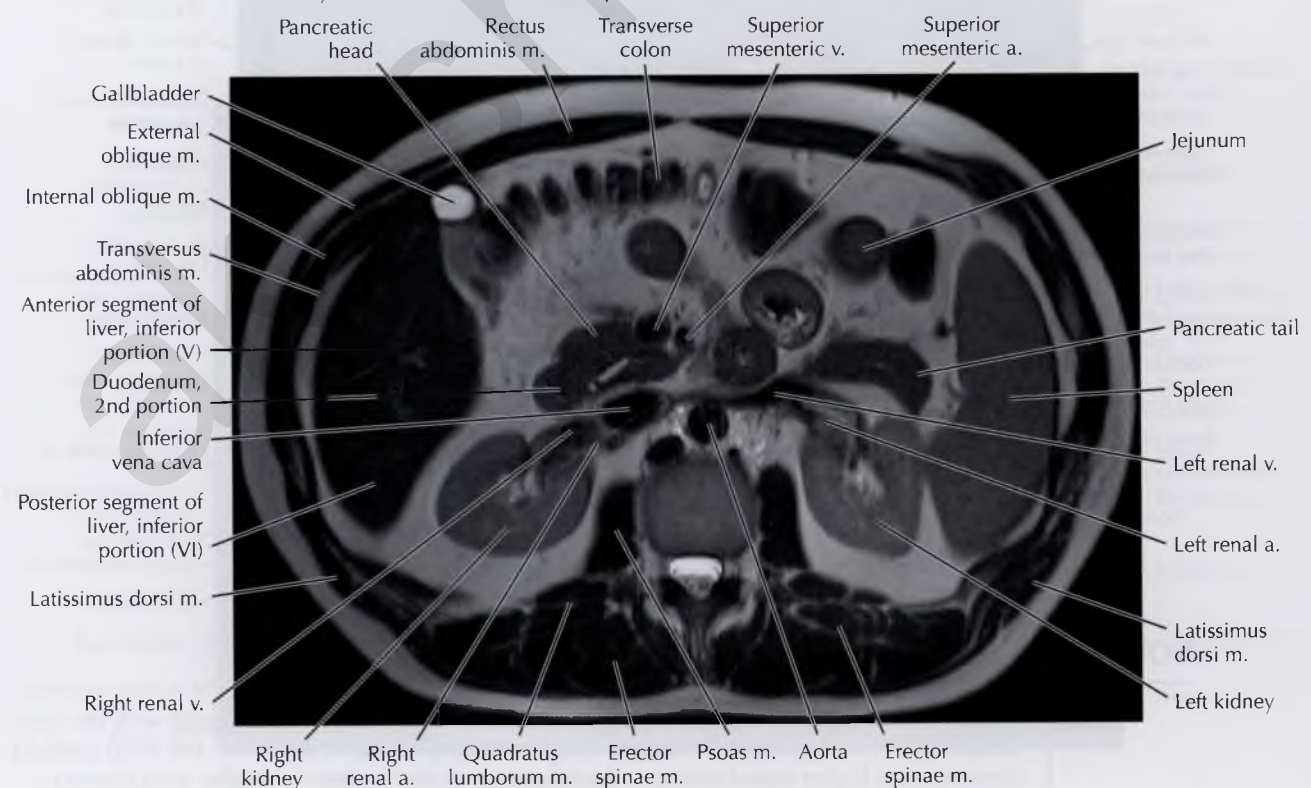
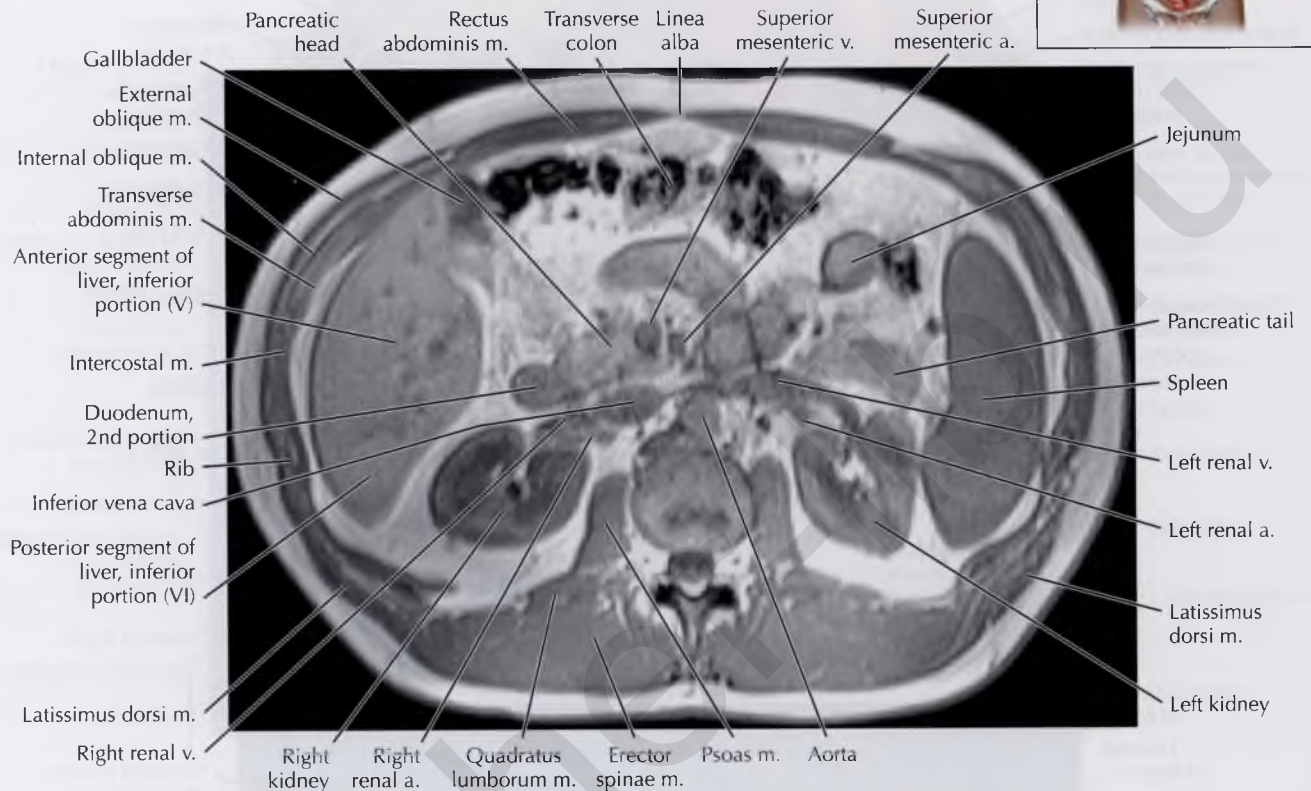
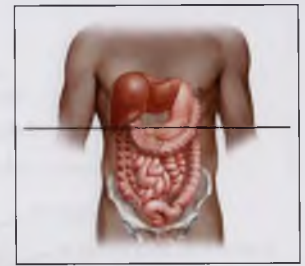


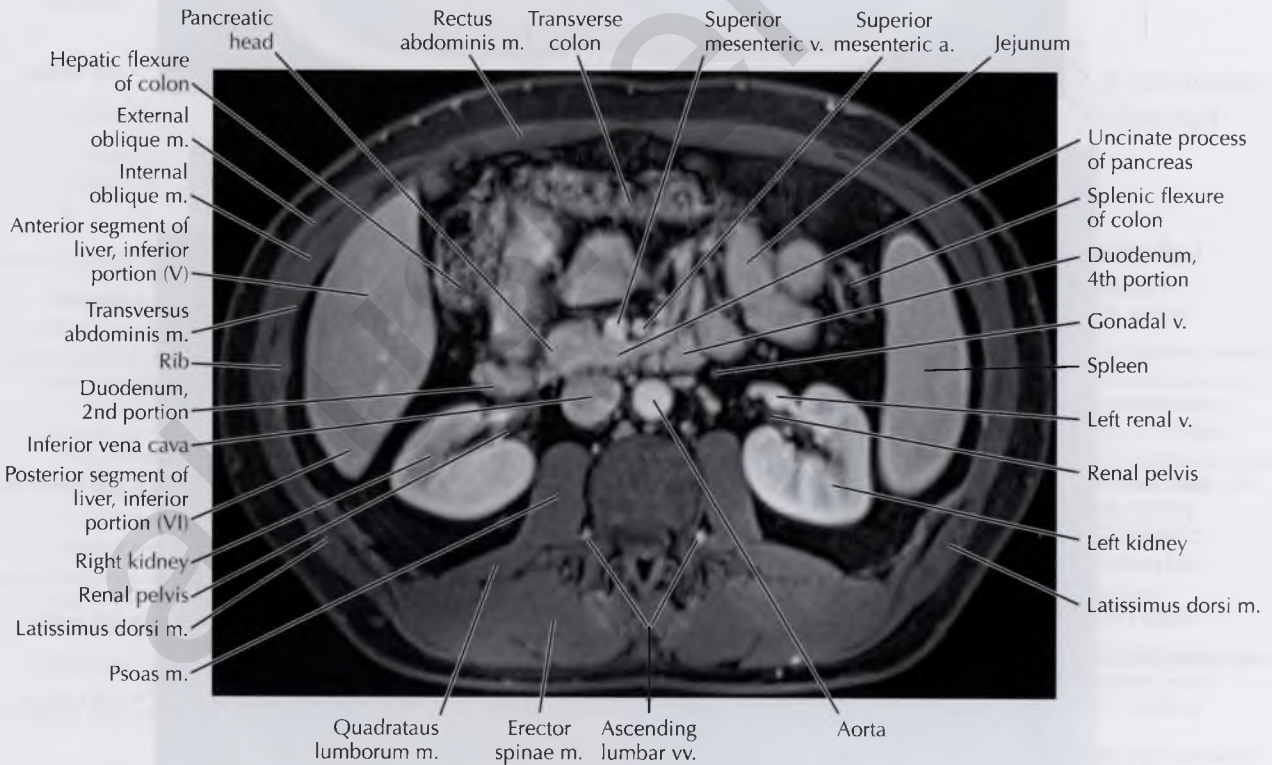
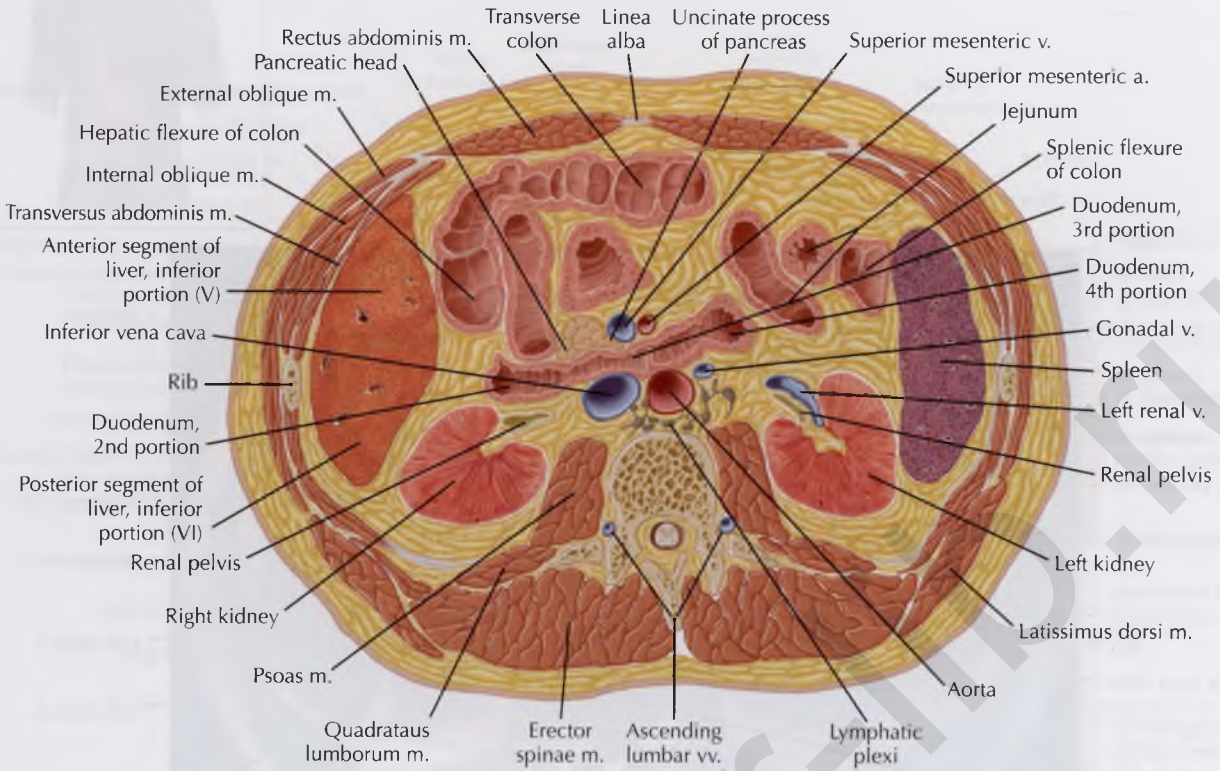
PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

Compression of the left renal vein as it passes between the aorta and superior mesenteric artery (SMA) can result in an outflow obstruction and left renal vein hypertension, referred to as *nutcracker syndrome* (or *nutcracker phenomenon*). In addition to compression of the left renal vein, look for perirenal varices and a unilateral left varicocele. Patients can present with left flank pain and hematuria, clinically mimicking symptoms of a left ureteral calculus. Note that nutcracker syndrome is distinct from the *superior mesenteric artery syndrome*, in which compression of the 3rd portion of the duodenum by the aorta and SMA can occur.



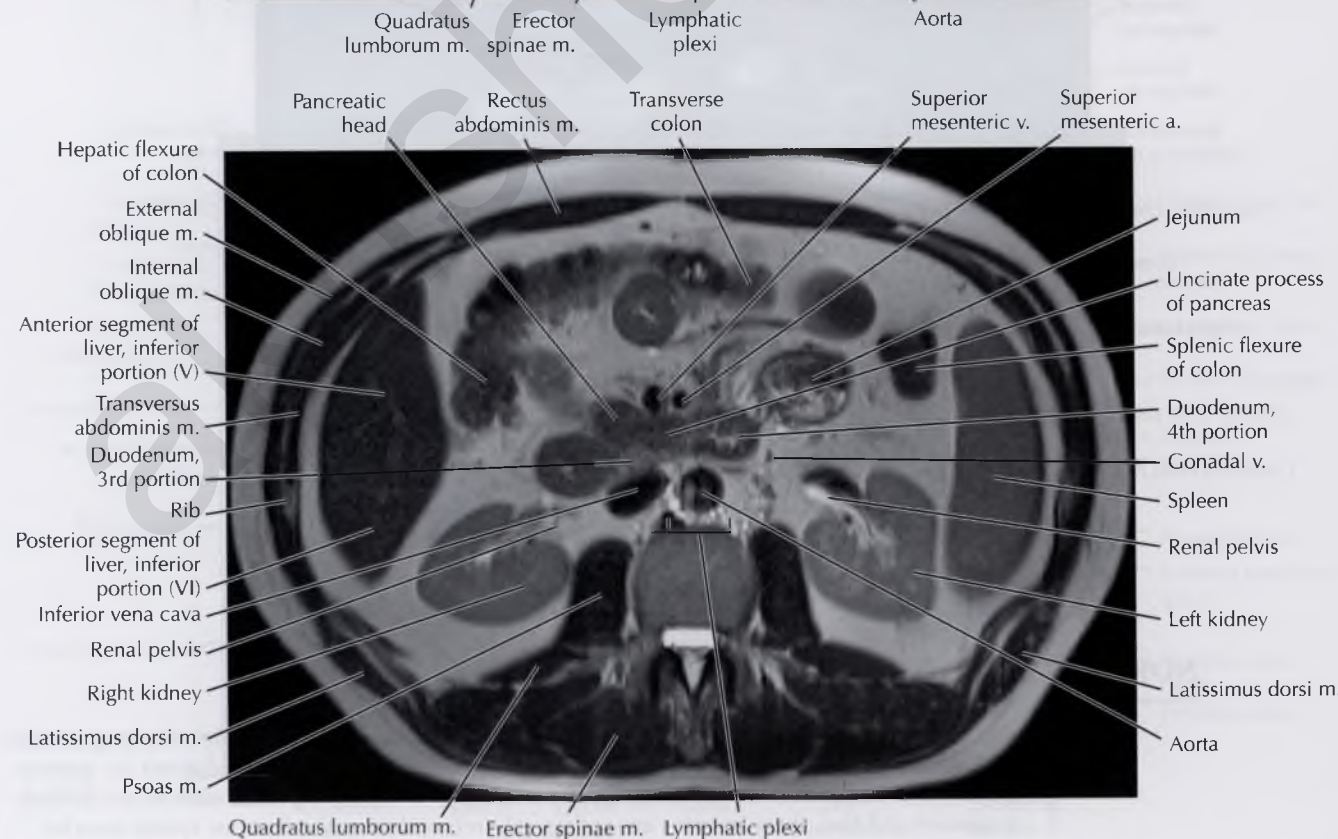
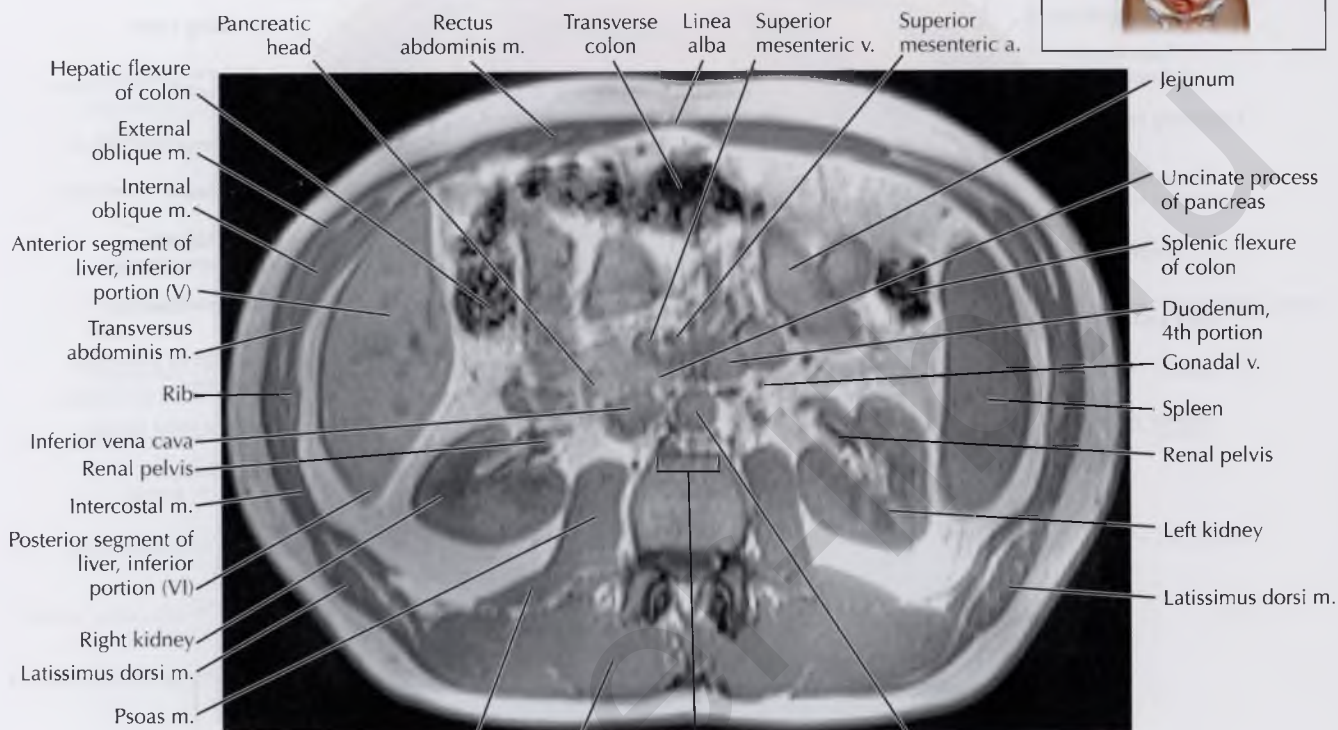


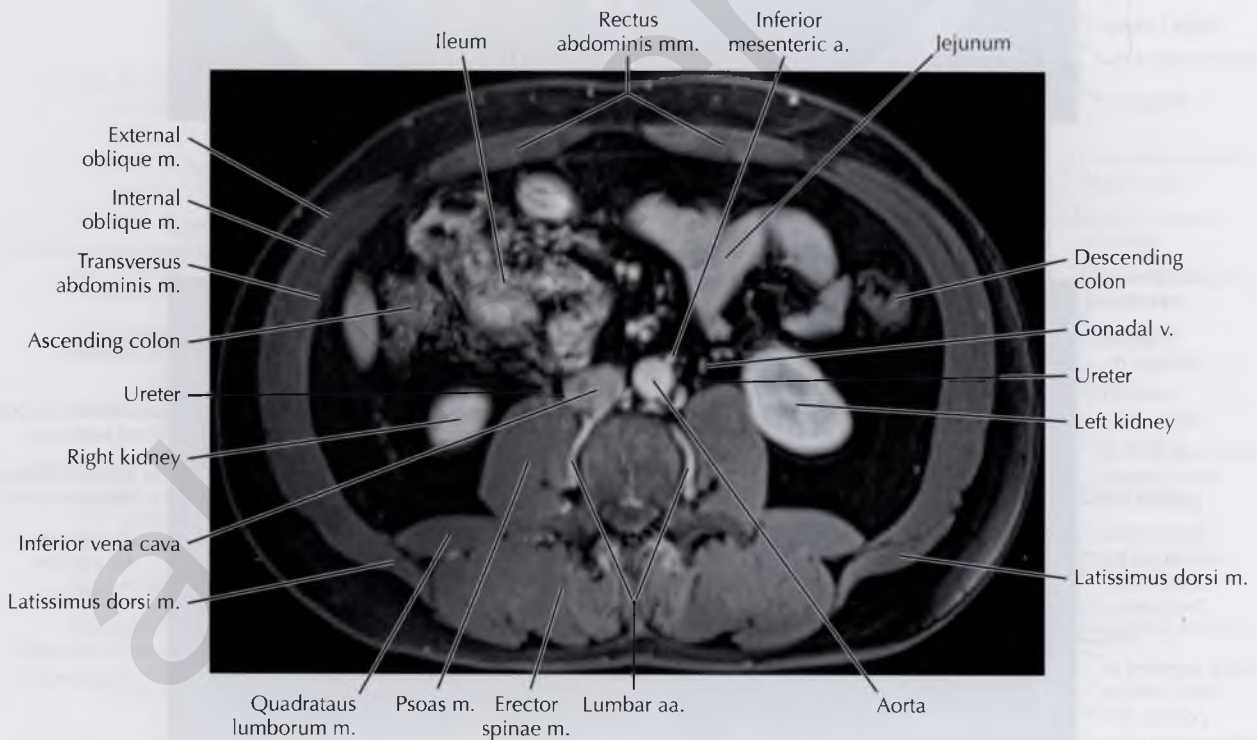
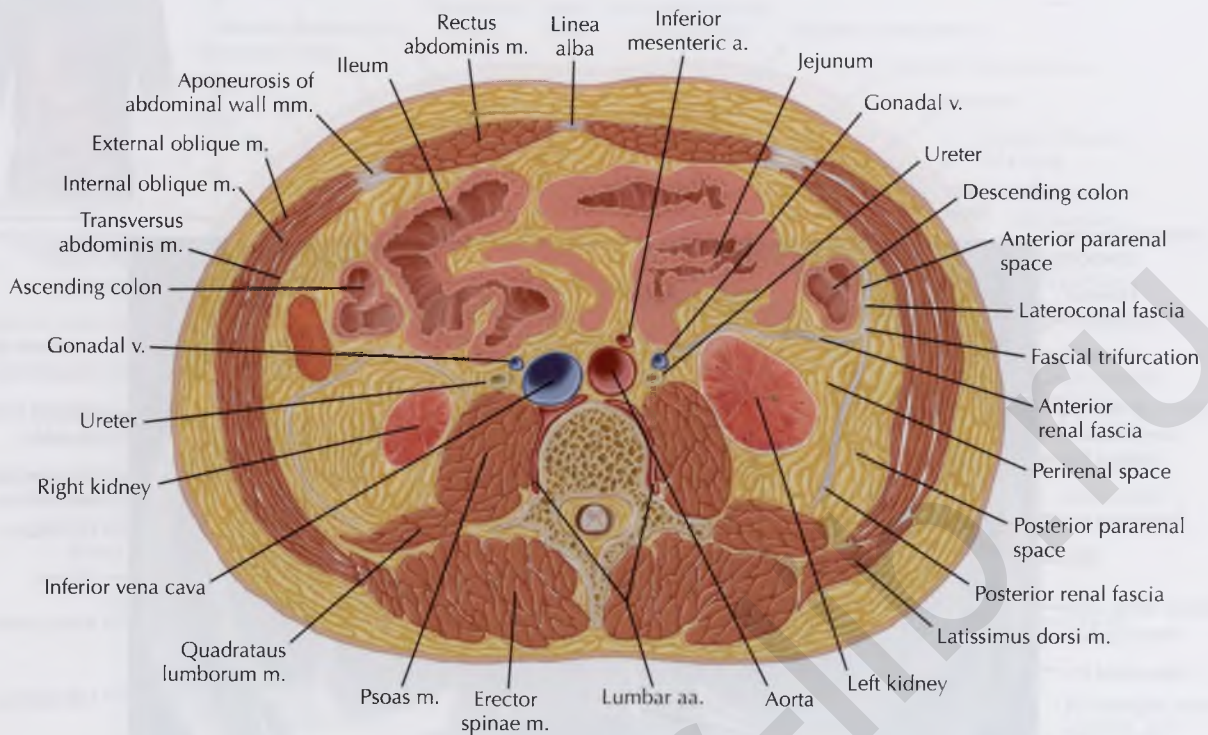




NORMAL ANATOMY

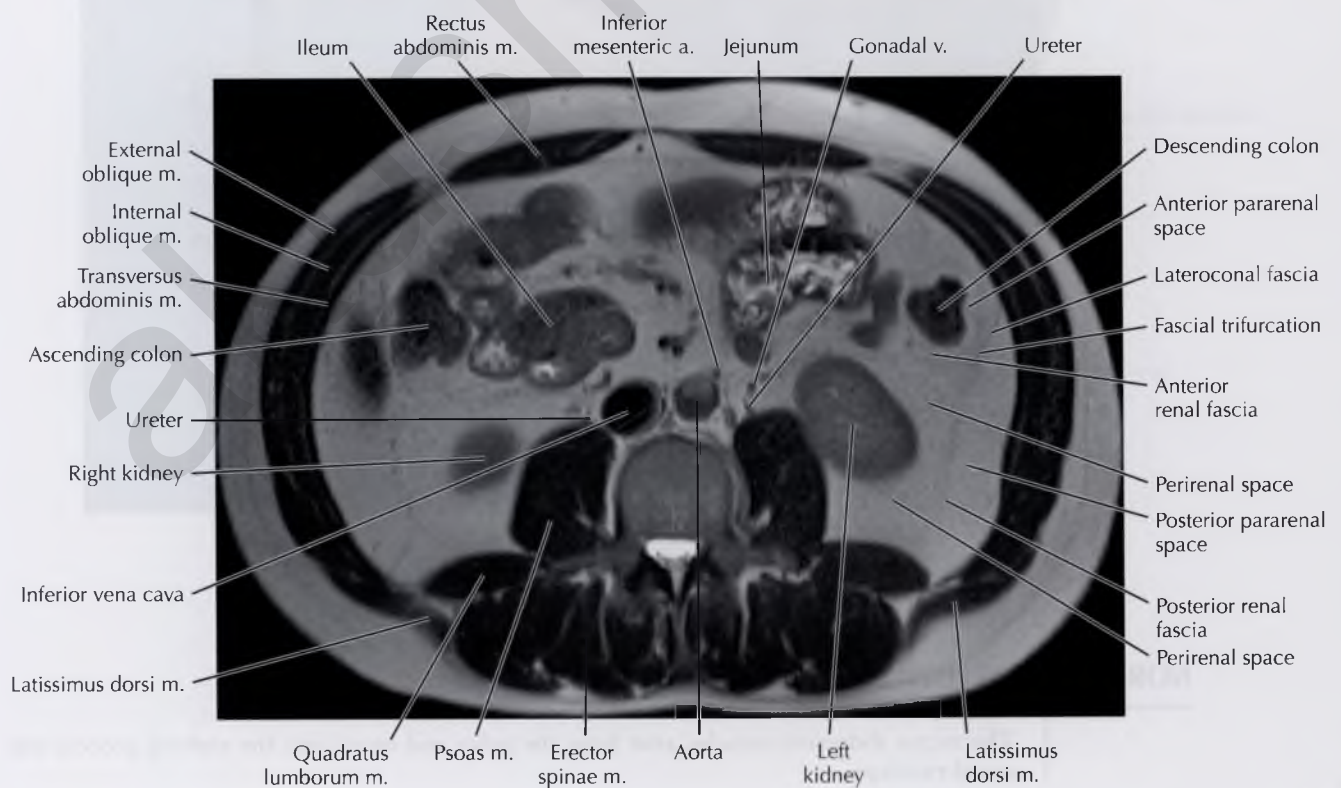
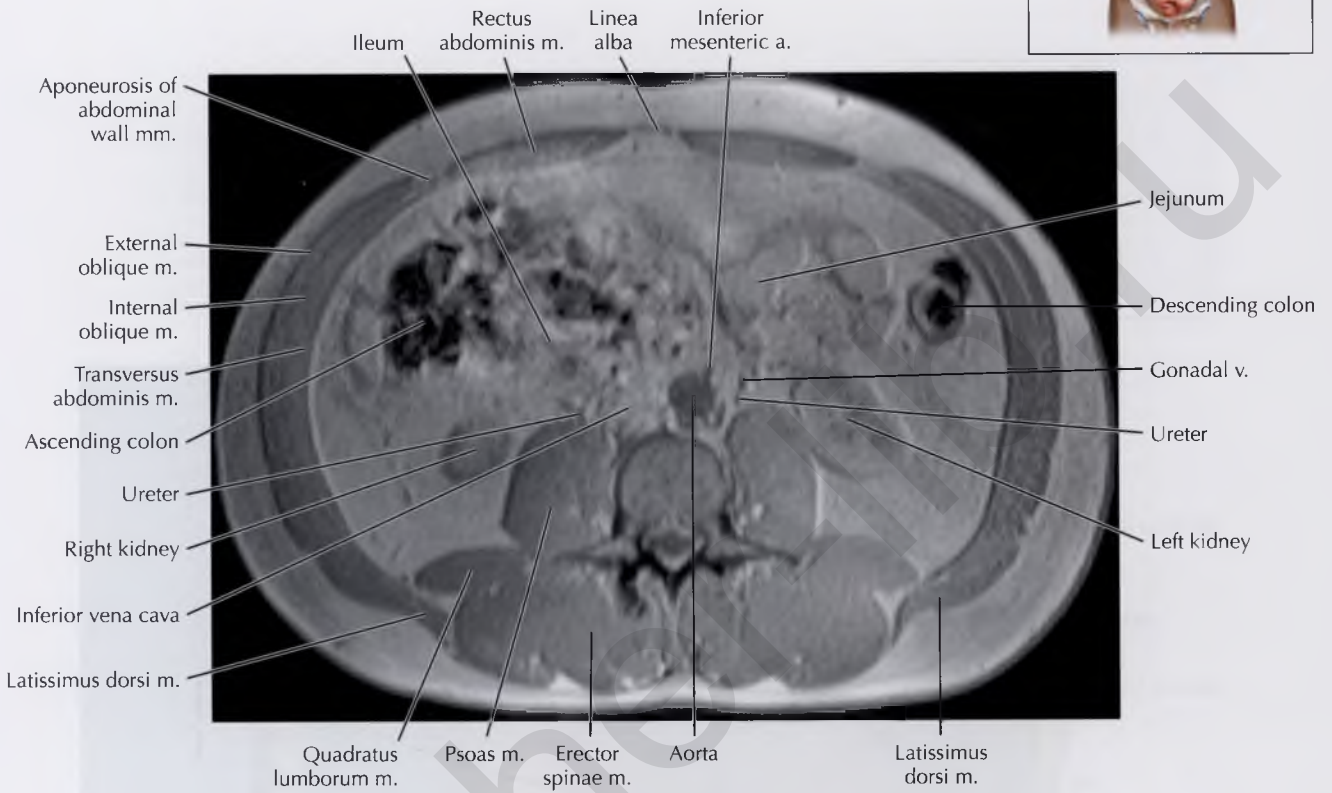
In the kidneys, the renal cortex demonstrates higher signal intensity compared with the renal medulla on T1-weighted MR images. On T2-weighted images, however, the renal medulla demonstrates higher signal intensity than the renal cortex because of higher fluid content.

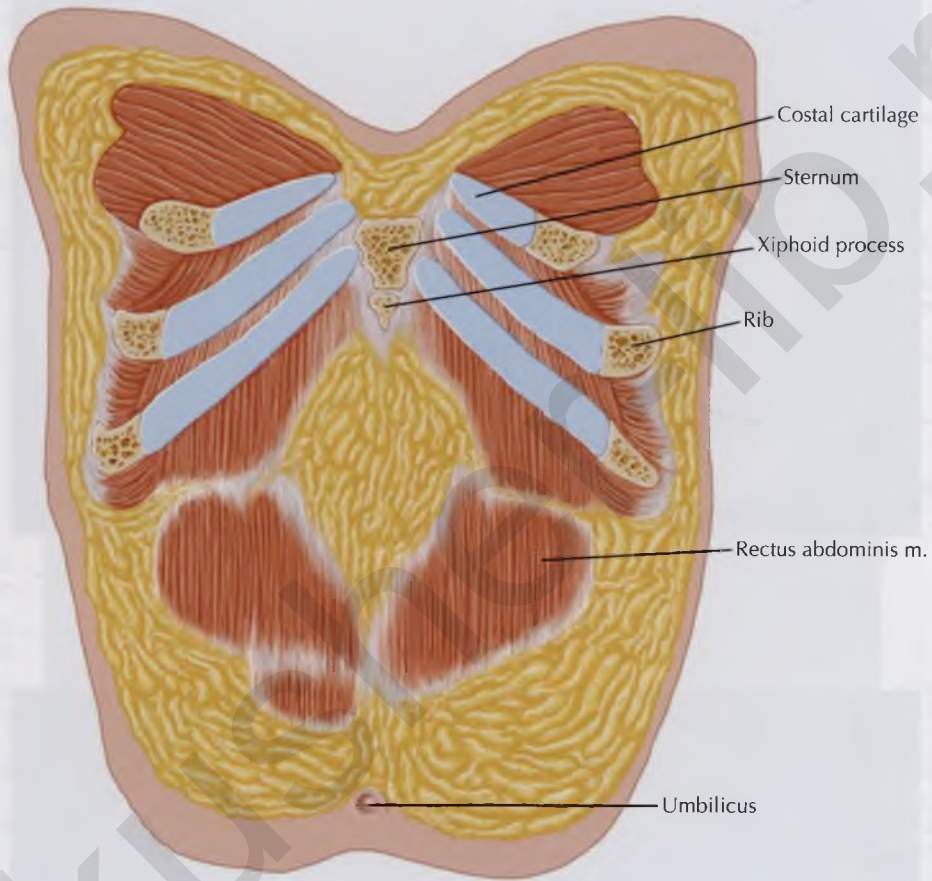




NORMAL ANATOMY

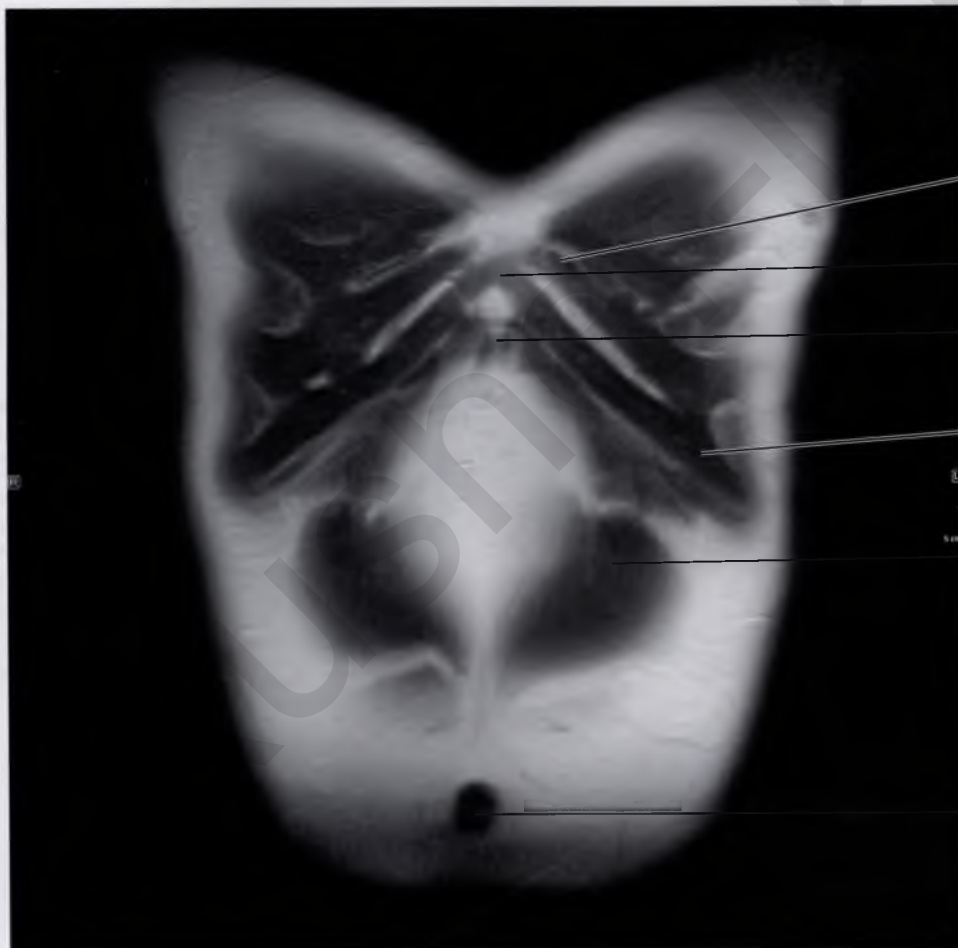
The erector spinae muscles are composed of the iliocostalis muscles (laterally), the longissimus muscles (intermediate in location), and the spinalis muscles (medially, adjacent to spinous processes of vertebrae). On MR imaging, the fascial planes separating these muscles are difficult to discern and thus these muscles are collectively referred to as the "erector spinae muscles."



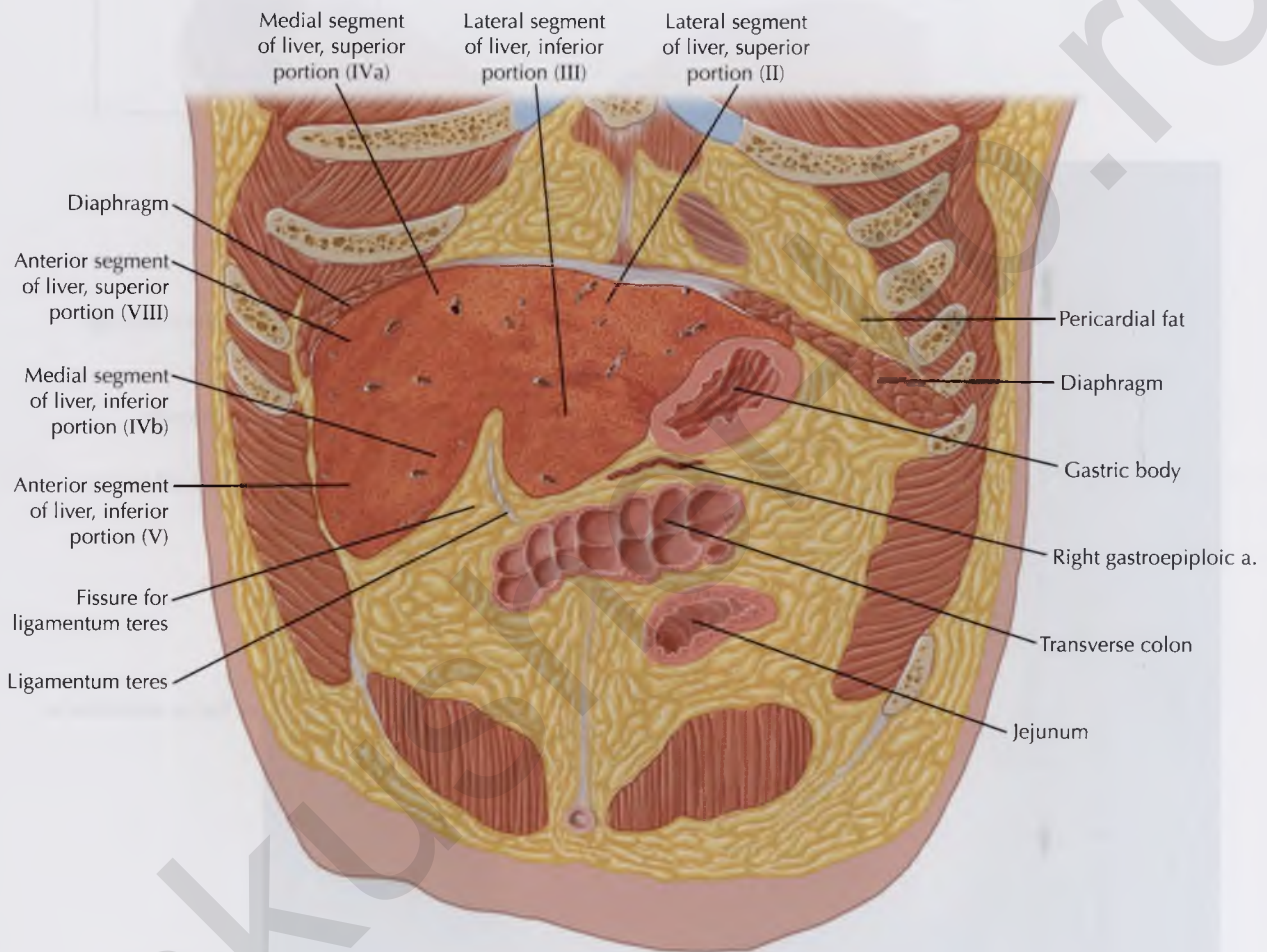


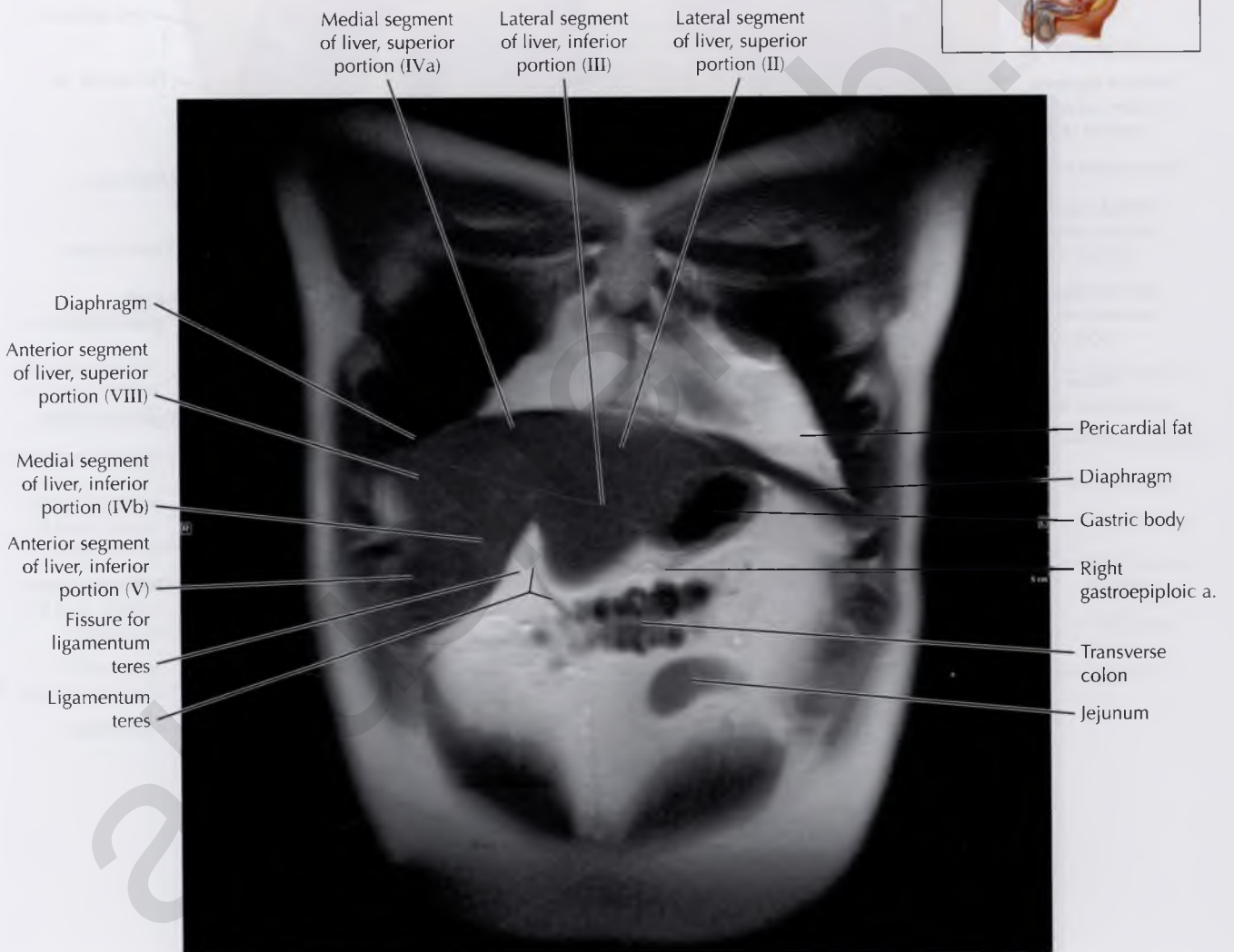
NORMAL ANATOMY

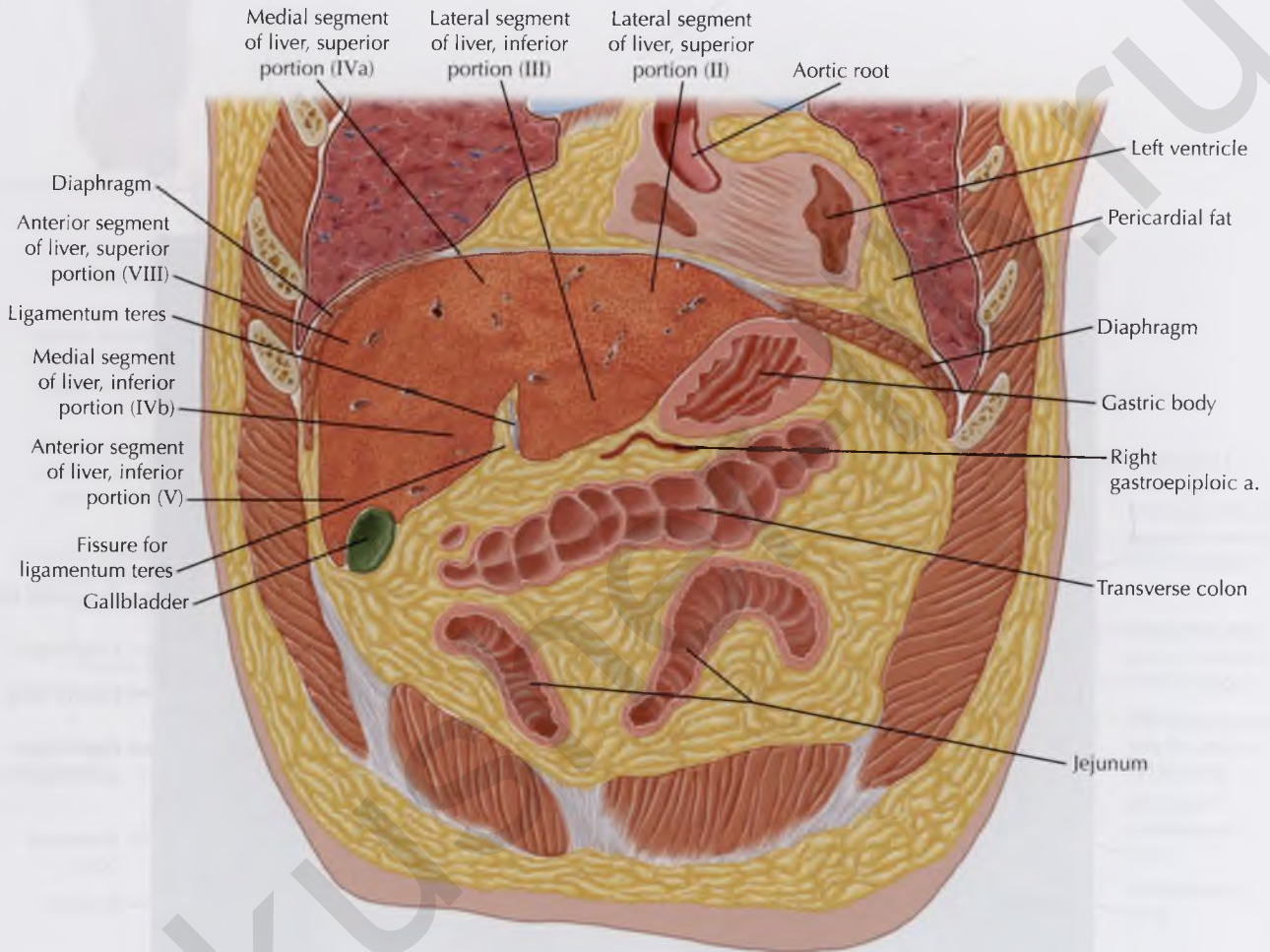
The rectus abdominis muscles arise from the pubis and insert into the xiphoid process and costal cartilages.



- Costal cartilage
- Sternum
- Xiphoid process
- Rib
- Rectus abdominis m.
- Umbilicus

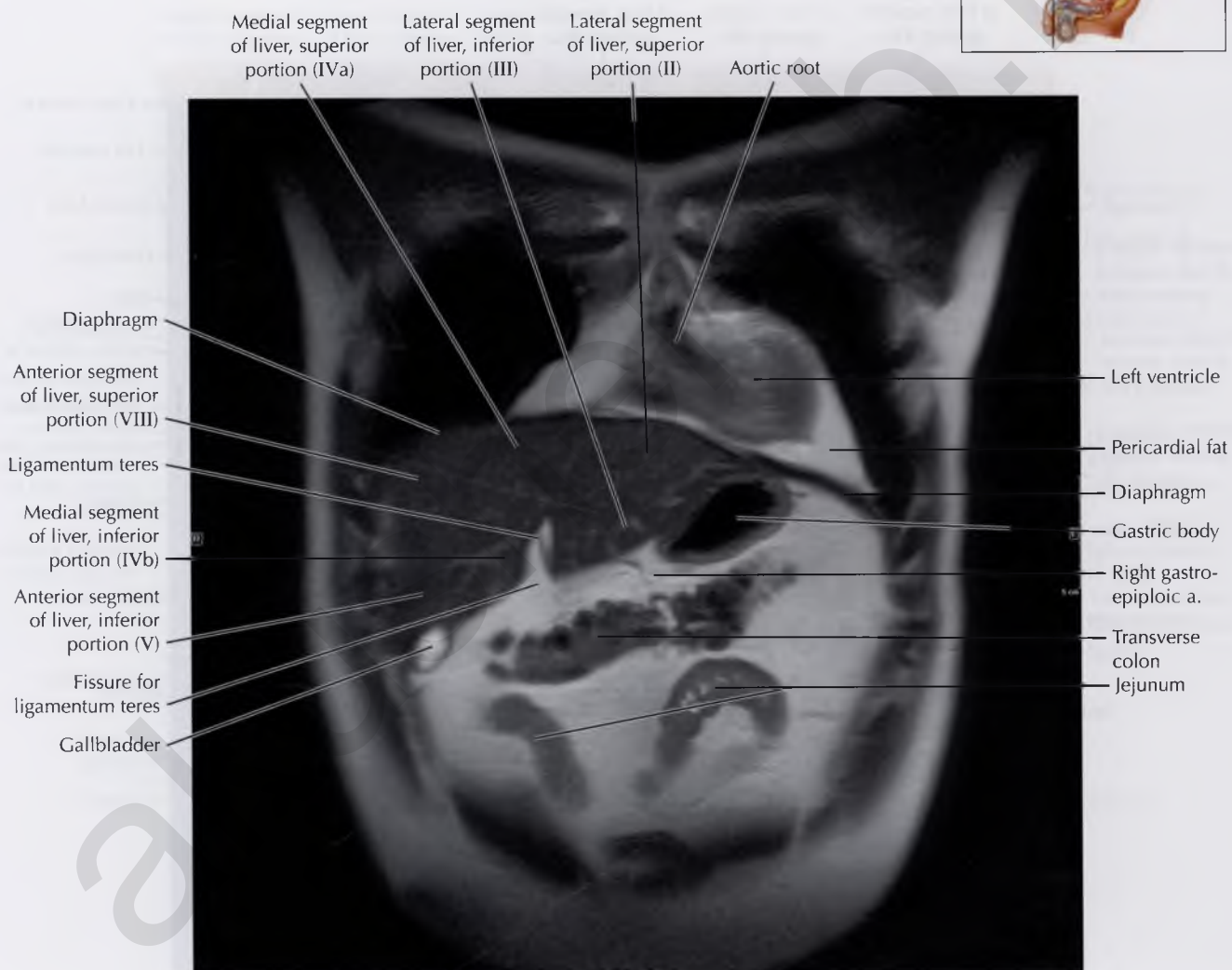


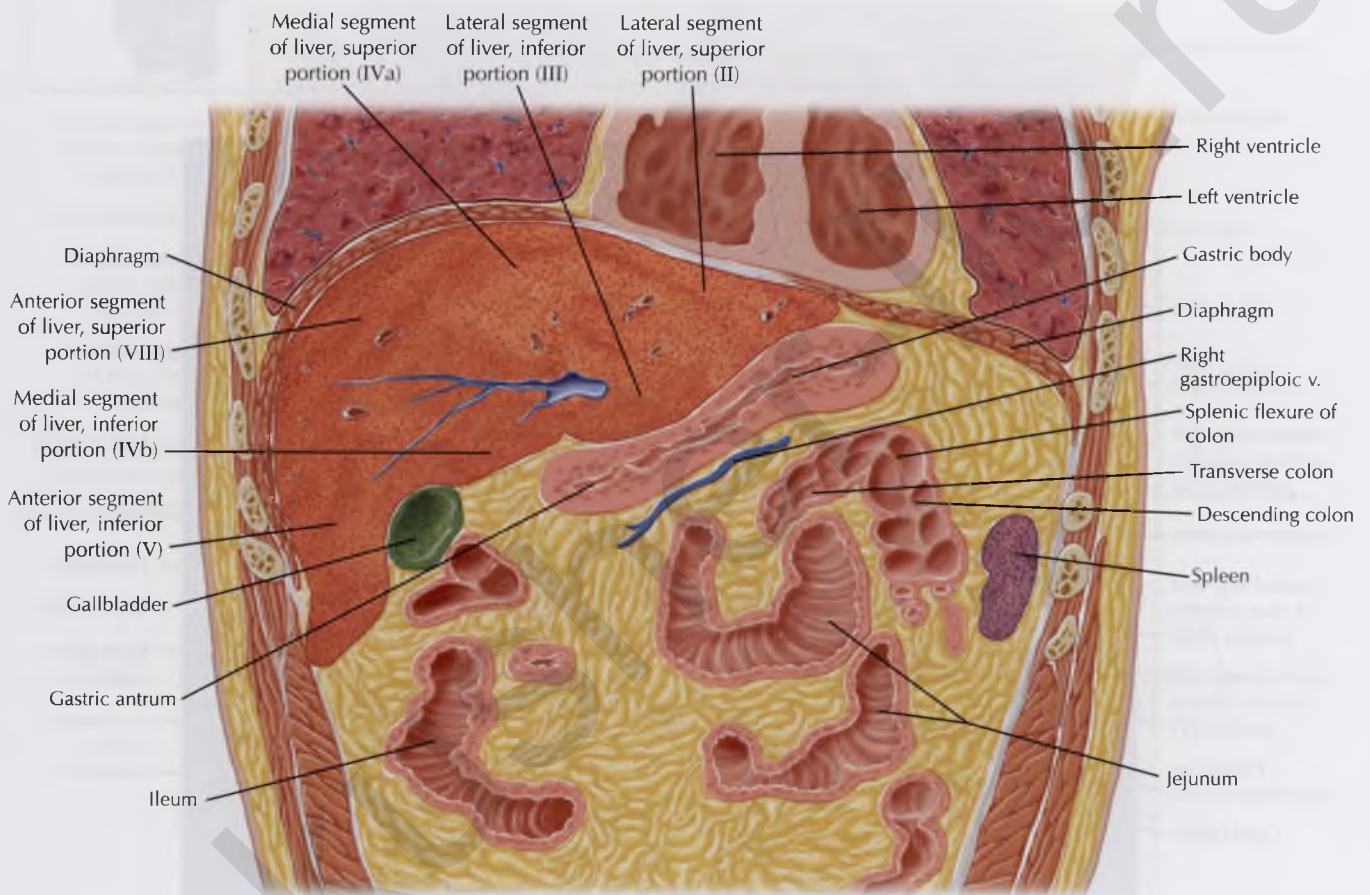




NORMAL ANATOMY

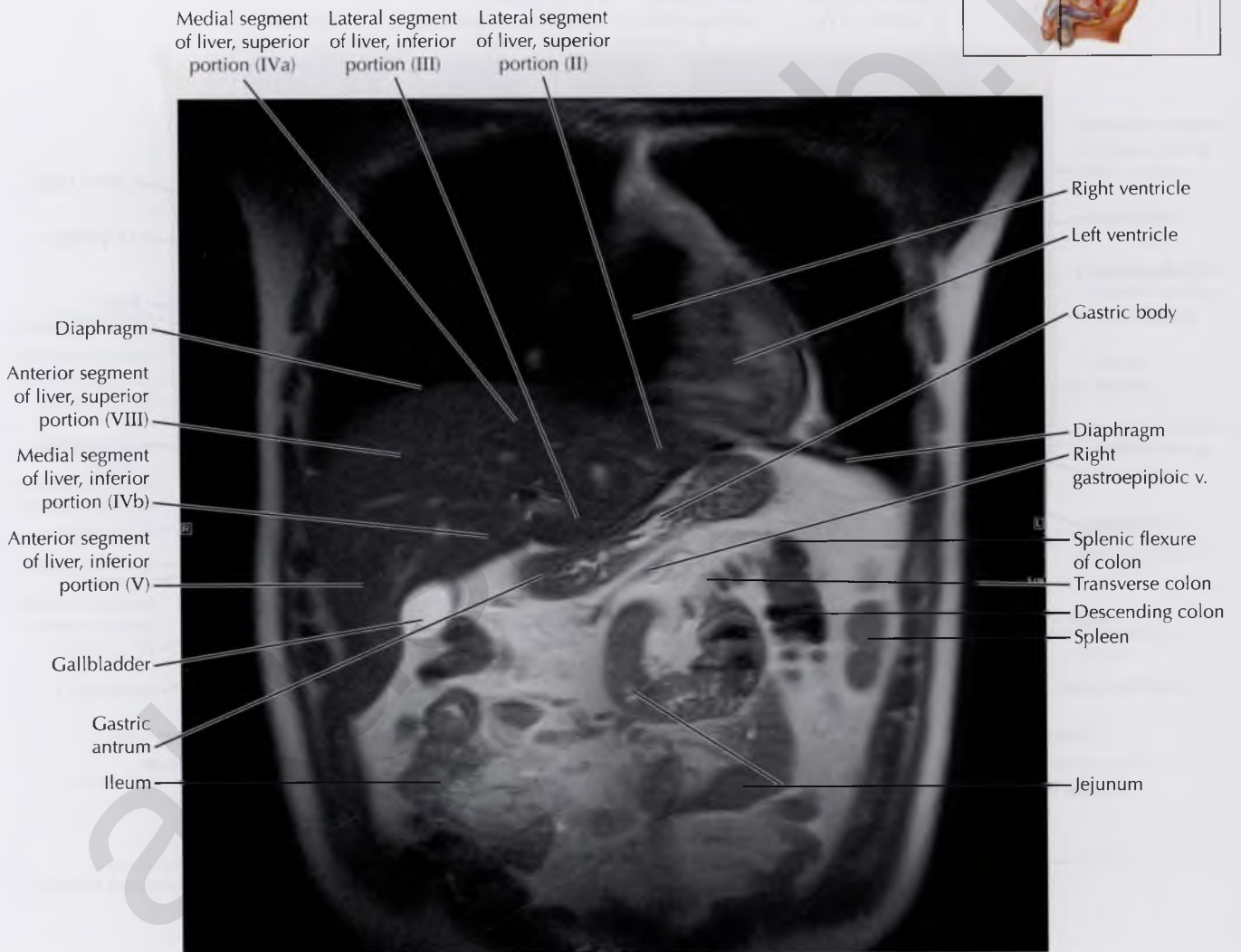
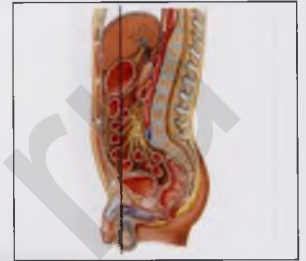
The normal thickness of the gastric wall varies greatly with distention. The gastric wall appears paper thin with effacement of the rugal folds when well distended, and up to several centimeters in thickness when collapsed.

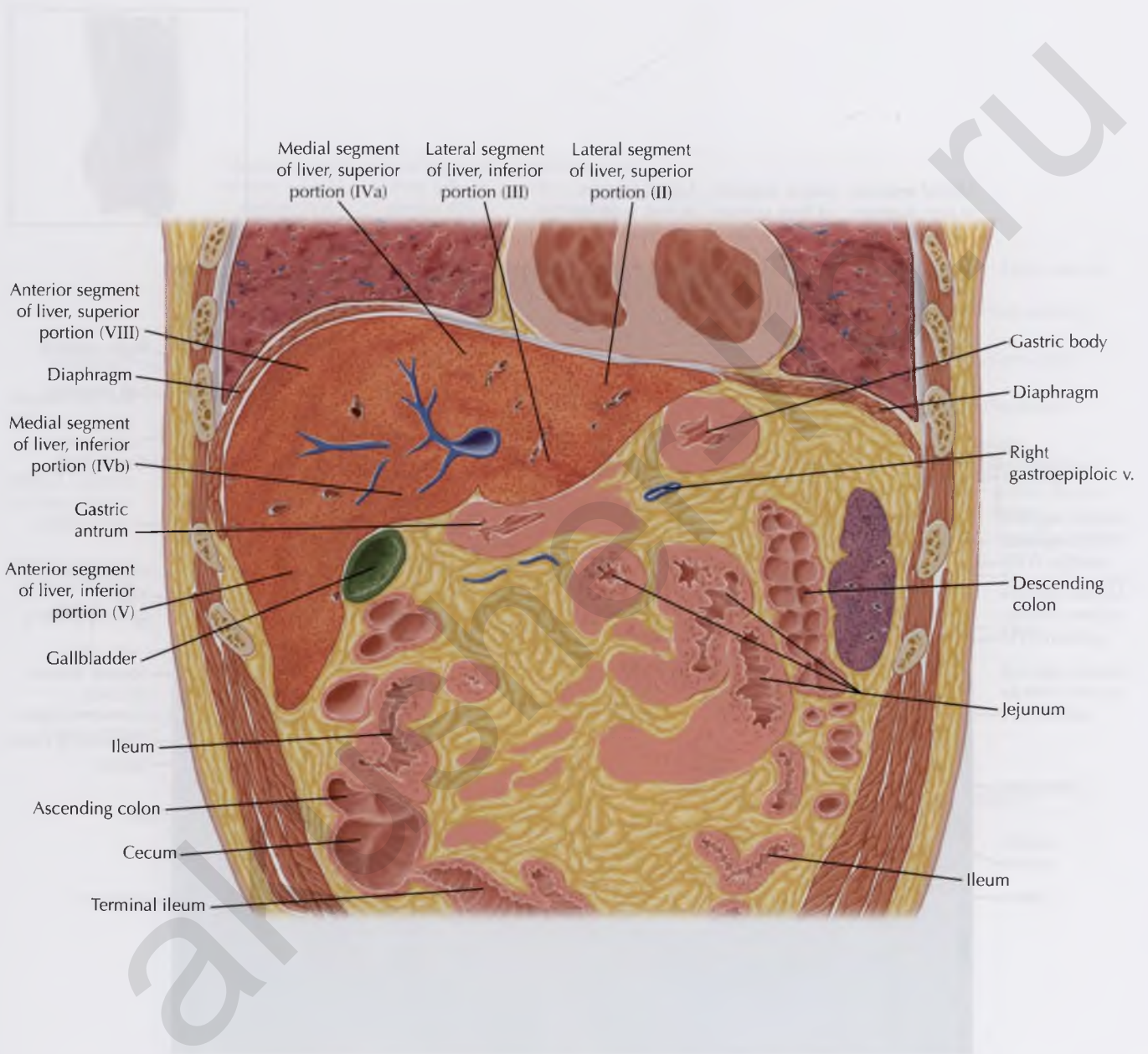


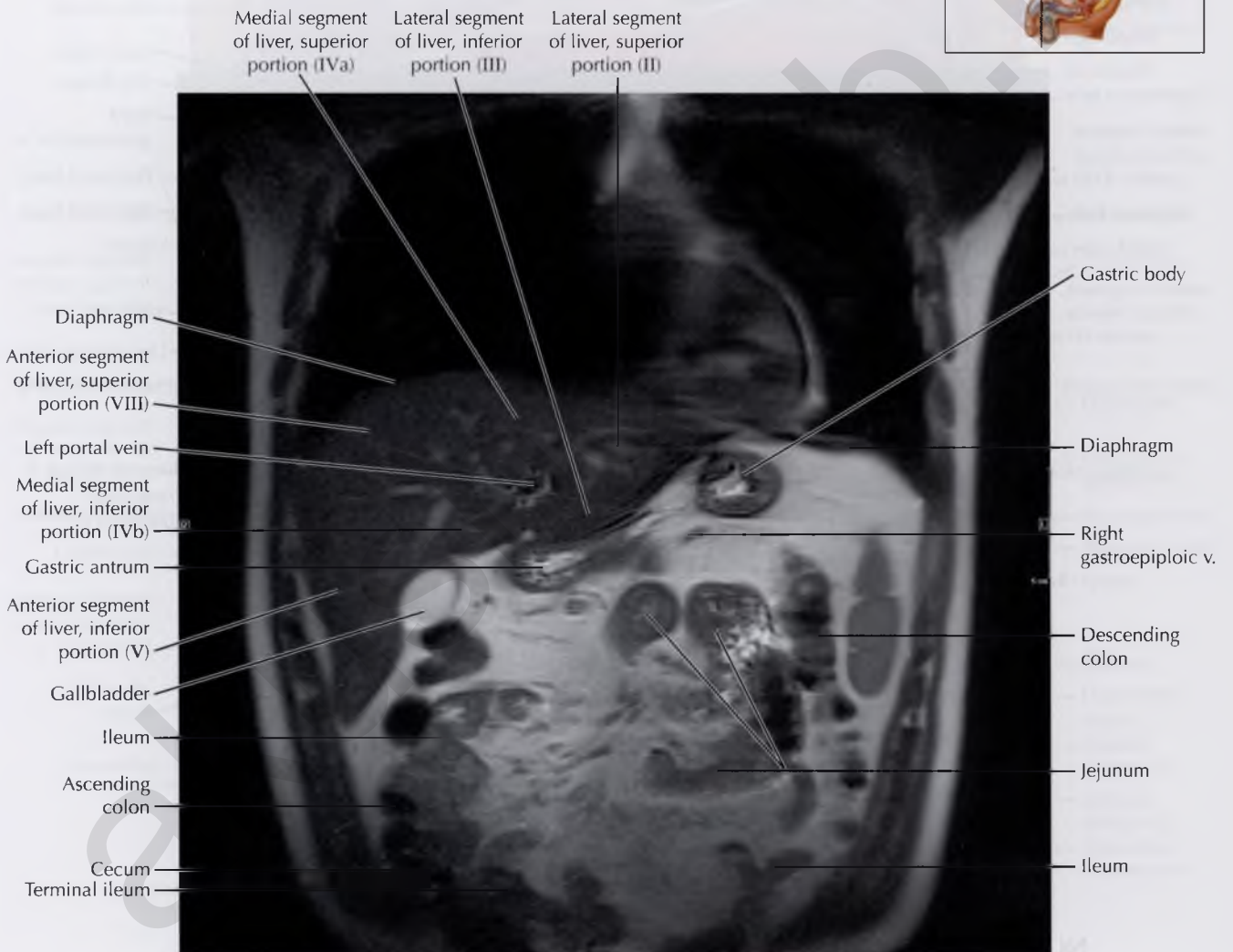


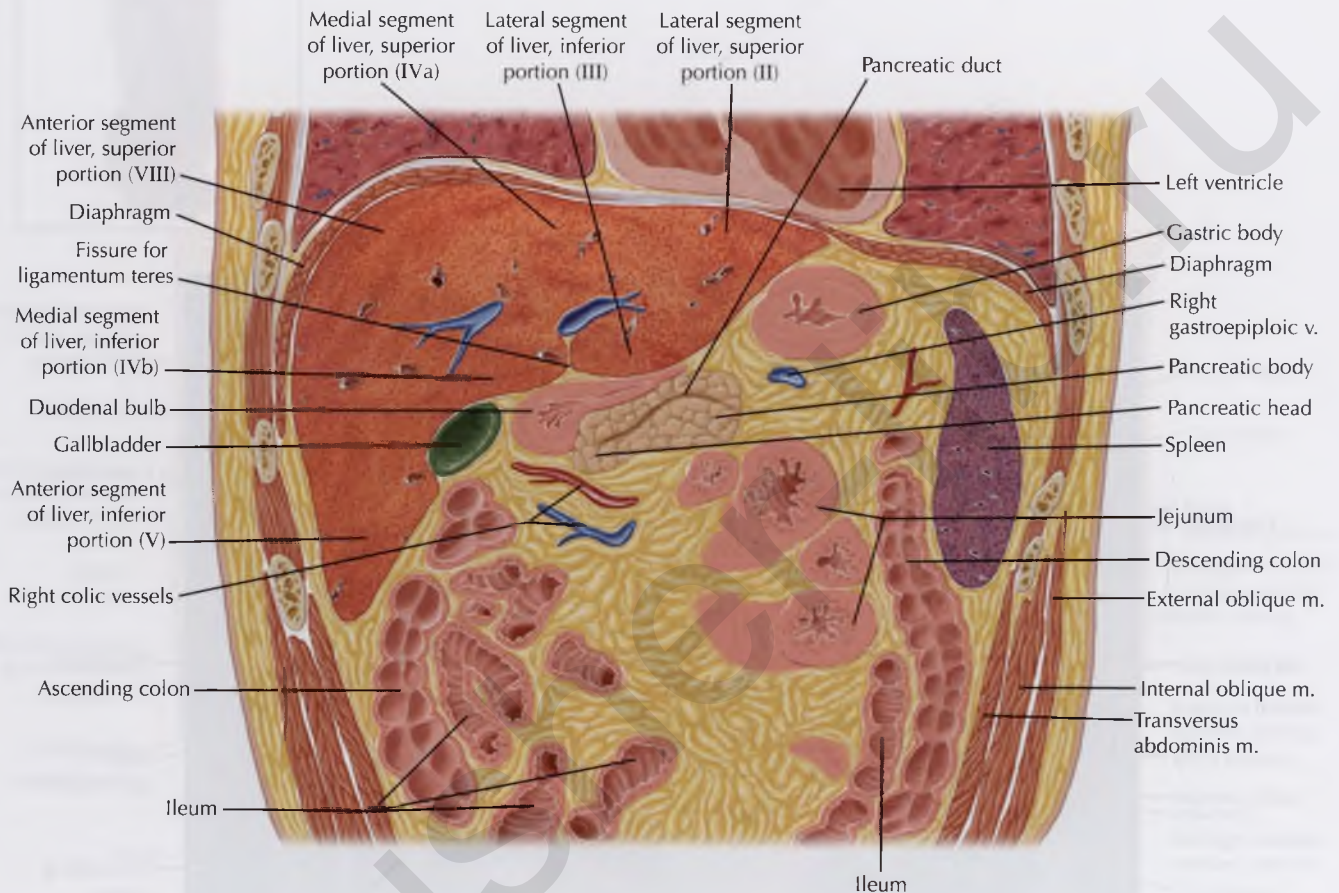
ABDOMINAL ANATOMY

The abdominal cavity is divided into the upper and lower regions by the diaphragm. The upper region contains the stomach, liver, and spleen, while the lower region contains the small and large intestines.



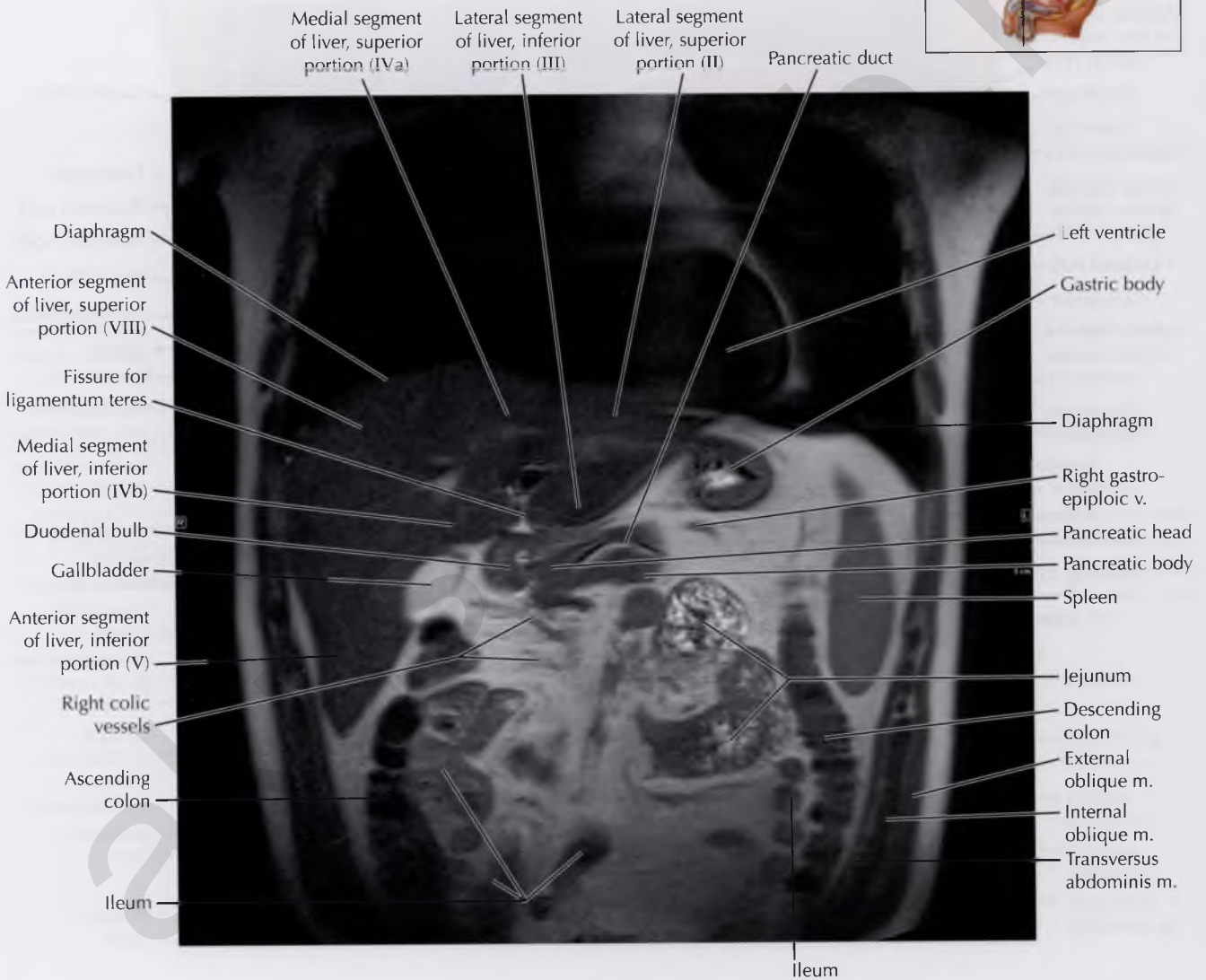


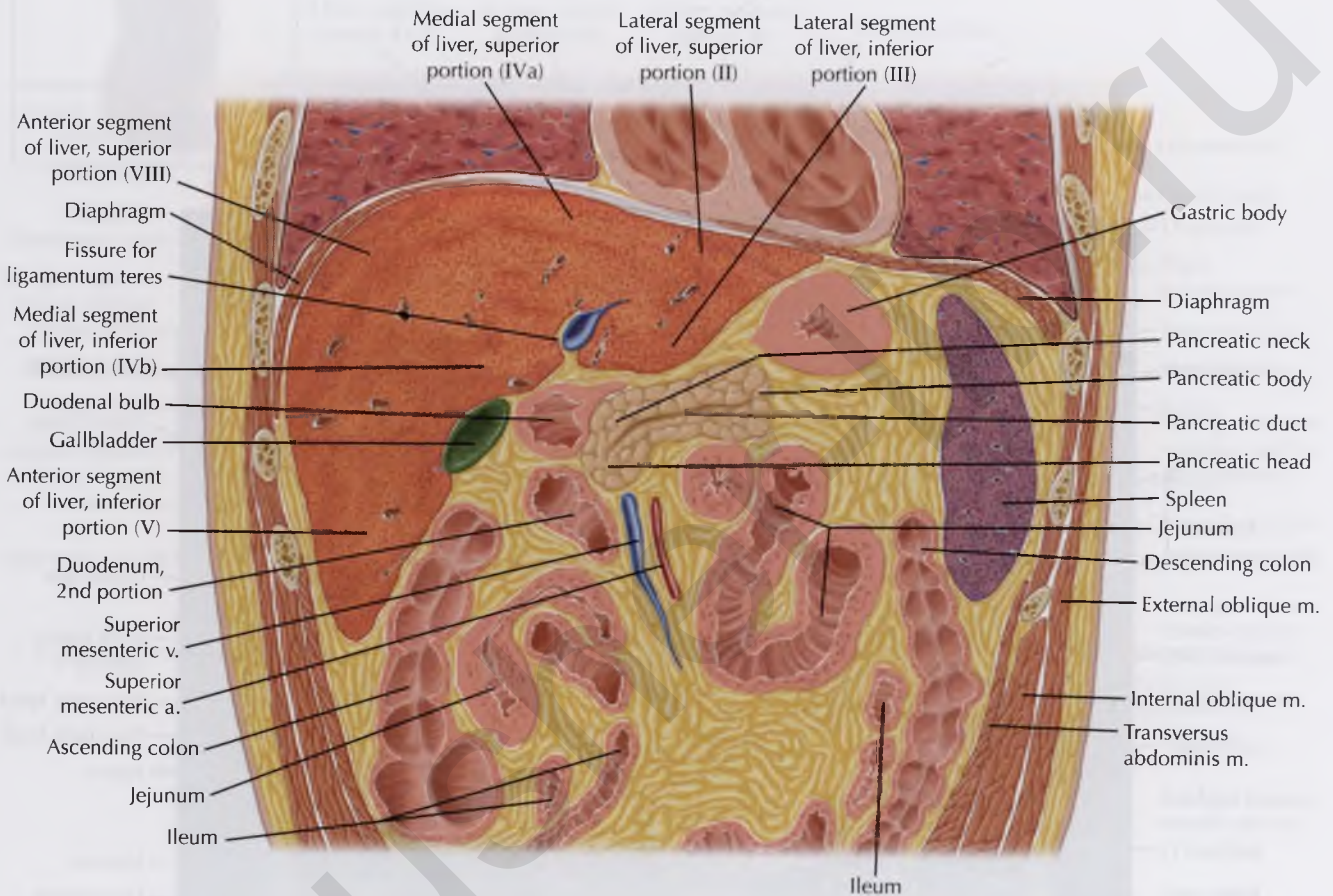




NORMAL ANATOMY

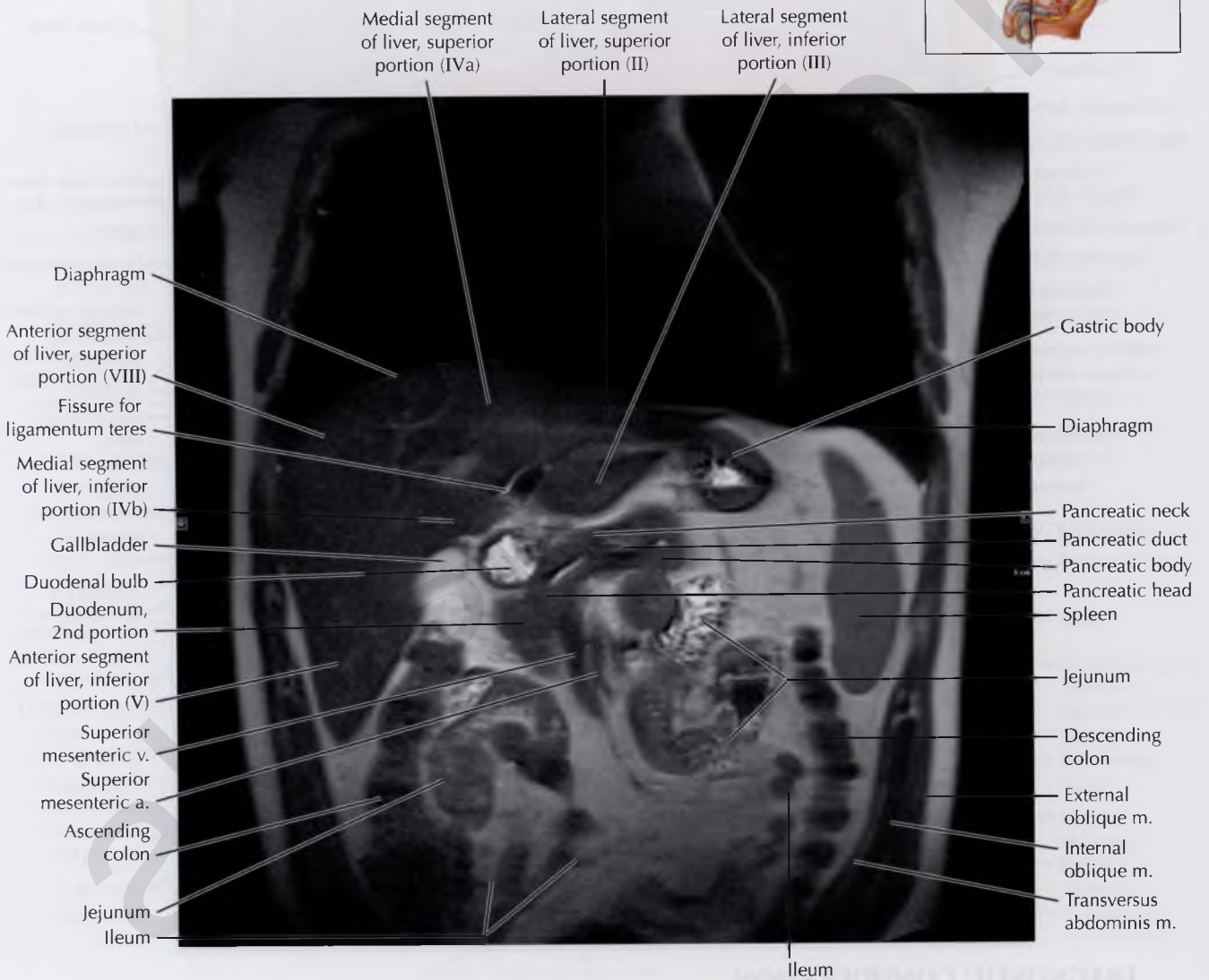
The gradual change in morphology between the jejunum and the ileum makes a precise demarcation arbitrary, although each small-bowel segment has general characteristic features. The *jejunum* is predominantly located in the left upper quadrant of the abdomen, measures up to 3.5 cm in caliber and 2 mm in wall thickness, and has four to seven folds per inch, with the height of the folds measuring 3 to 7 mm, resulting in a feathery appearance. The *ileum* is predominantly located in the right lower quadrant of the abdomen, measures up to 2.5 cm in caliber and 1 mm in wall thickness, and has less pronounced folds, with two to five folds per inch at 1.5 to 3.5 mm high.

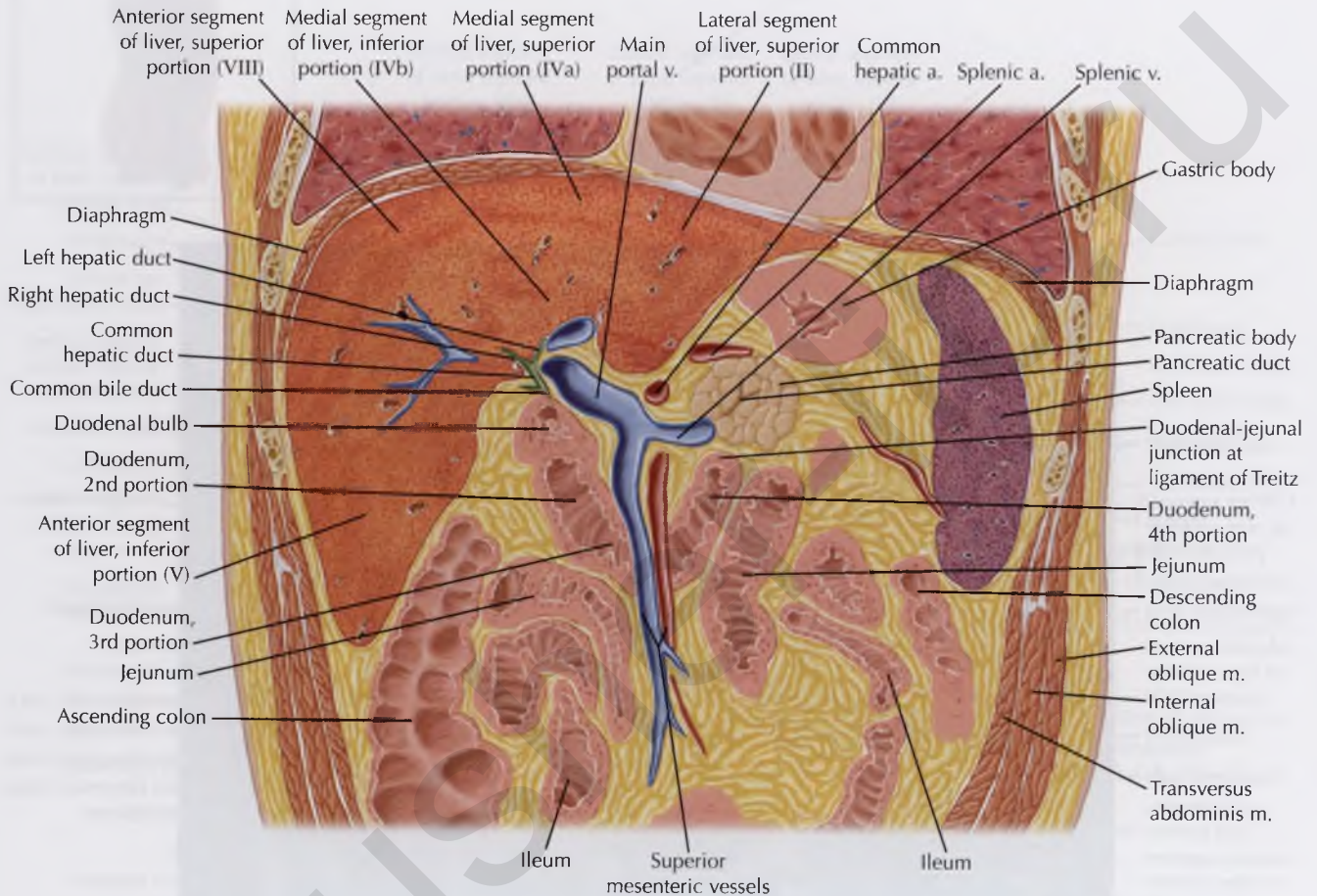




NORMAL VARIANTS

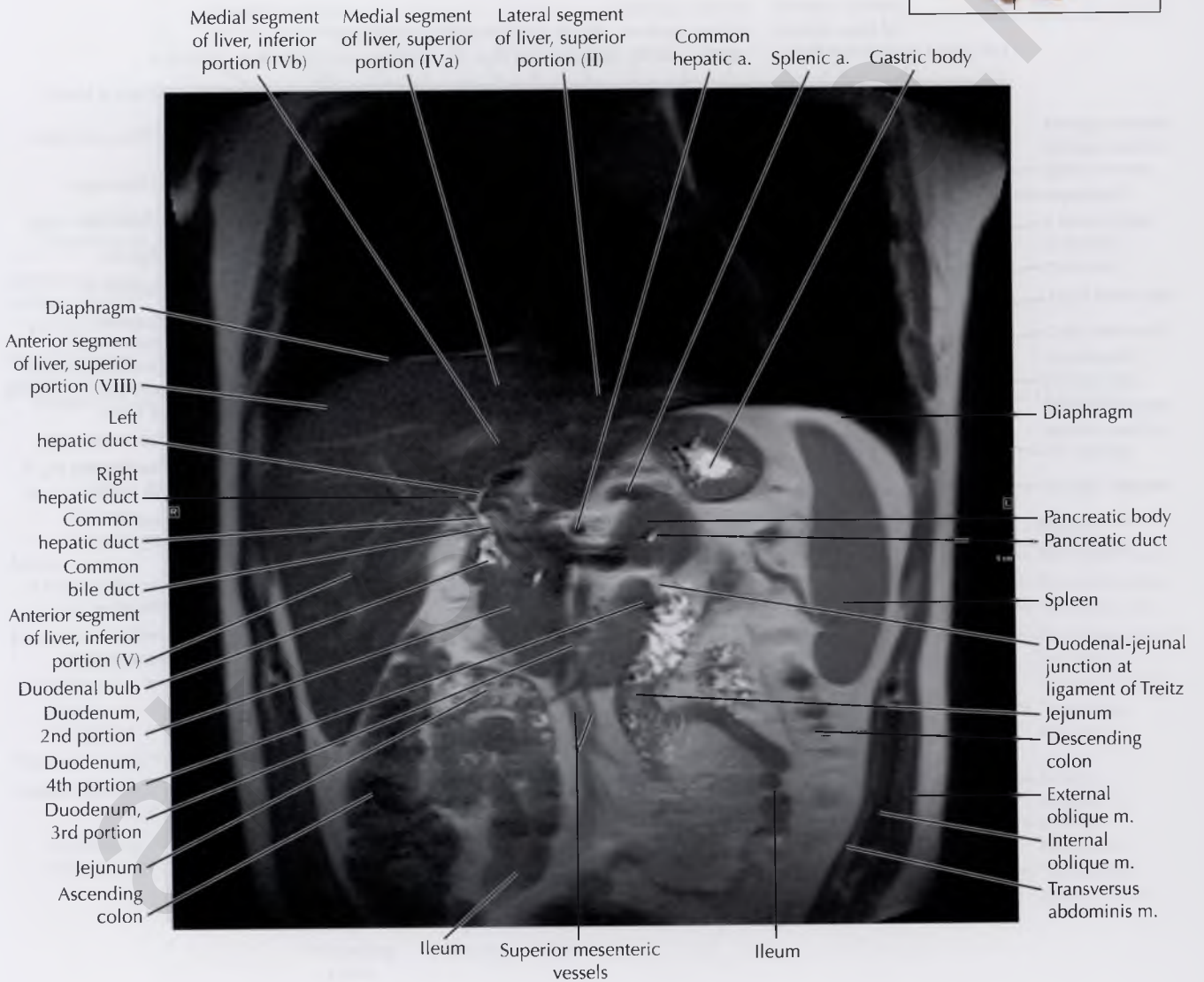
Splenic clefts are common anatomic variants that represent remnants of the grooves that originally separated the fetal lobules. Clefts are typically seen on the superior border of the spleen, are often partial, and can be as deep as 2 to 3 cm (about 1 inch). The characteristic location, a smooth contour, and the lack of associated perisplenic fluid or hemorrhage should help to distinguish a splenic cleft from a splenic laceration in the patient with abdominal trauma.

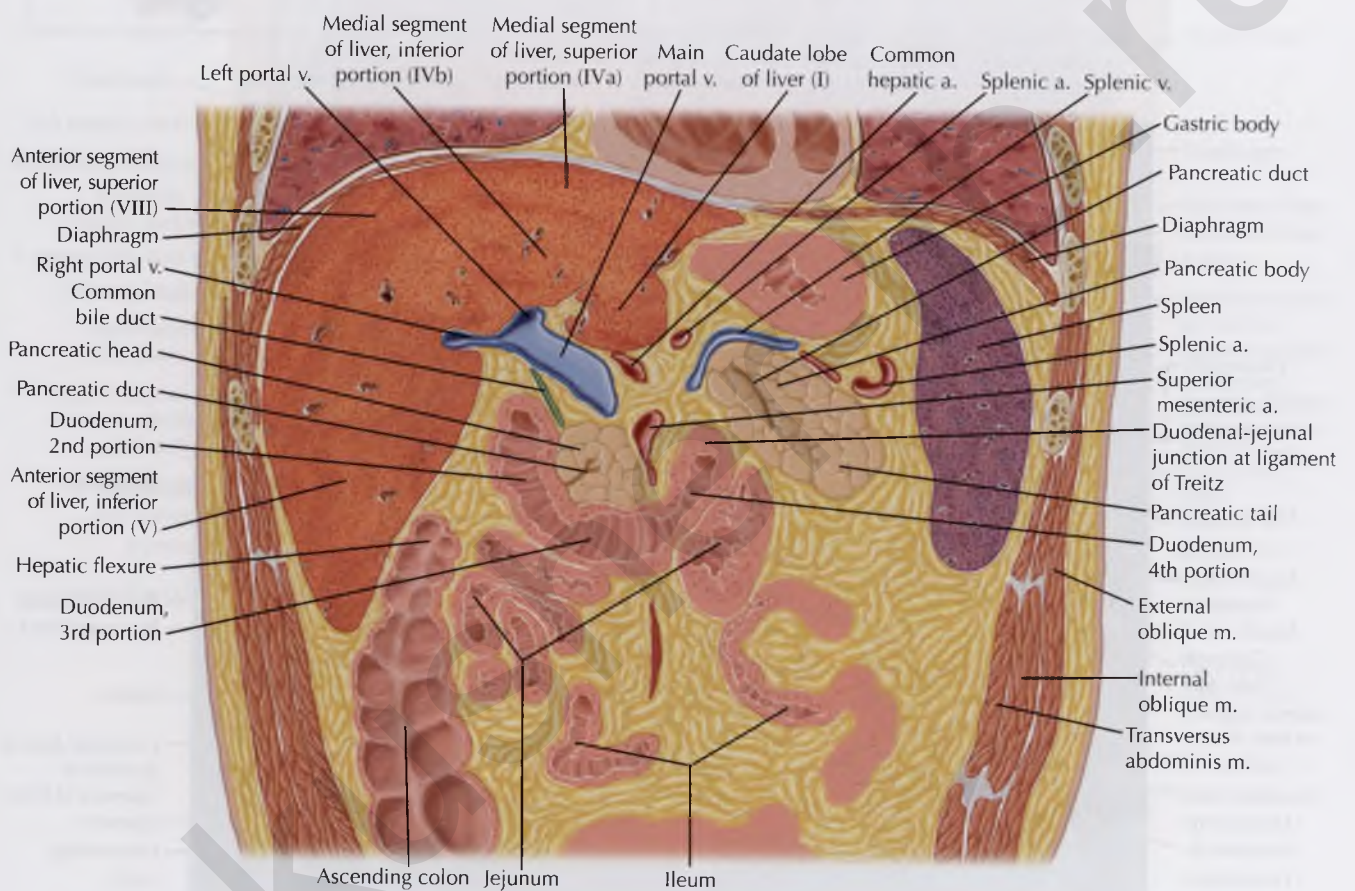


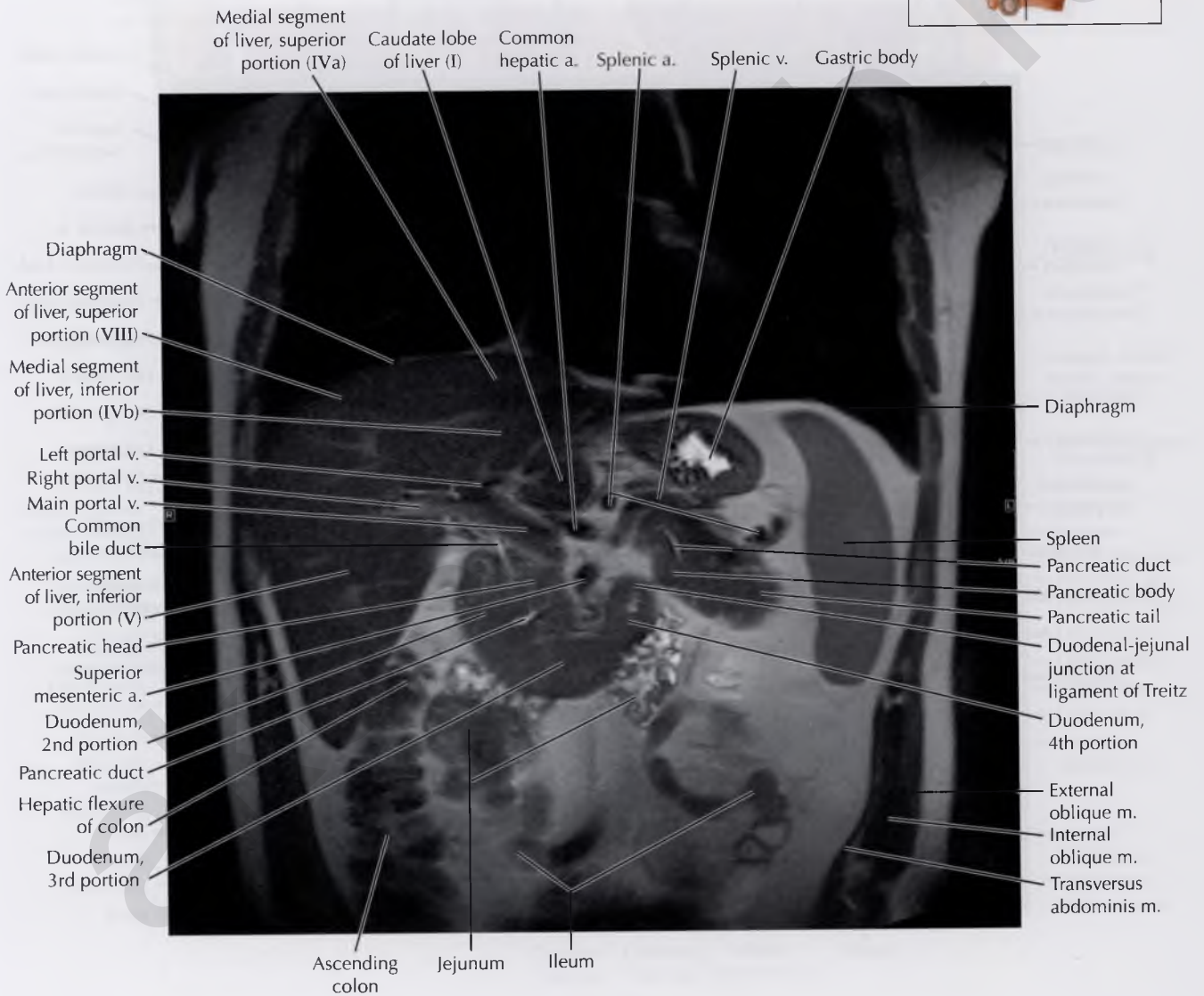


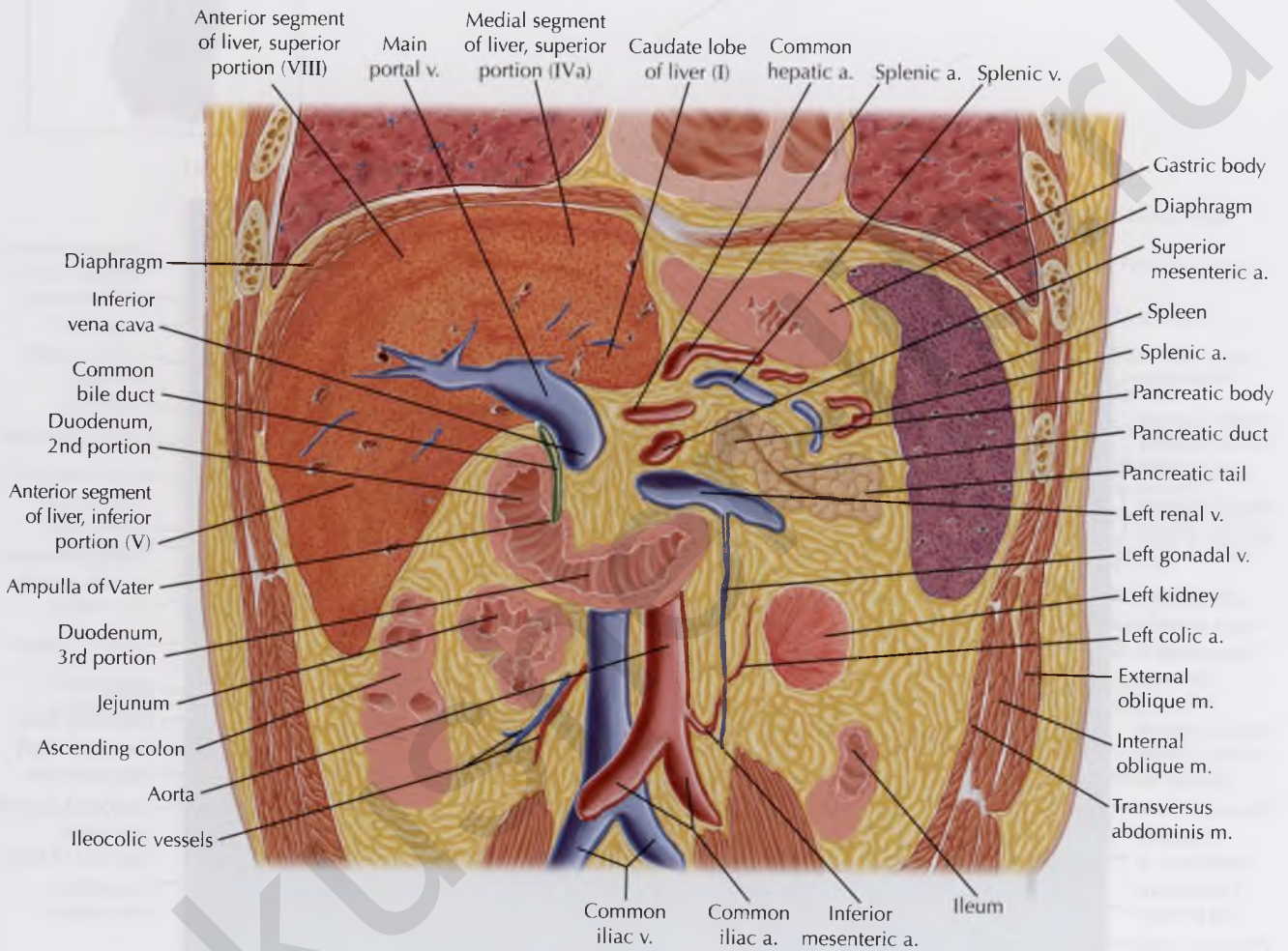
DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

Always assess the position of the duodenal-jejunal junction (at the ligament of Treitz) to make sure it is in the correct anatomic position in the left upper quadrant of the abdomen. Findings of right-sided small bowel, left-sided colon, abnormal relationship of the superior mesenteric vessels, and aplasia of the uncinata process of the pancreas are typically seen with malrotation or nonrotation of the bowel. Failure of the bowel to undergo normal embryologic rotation and fixation results in malpositioning of the bowel and a narrow base of mesenteric fixation, which is prone to *midgut volvulus*, a life-threatening disorder.



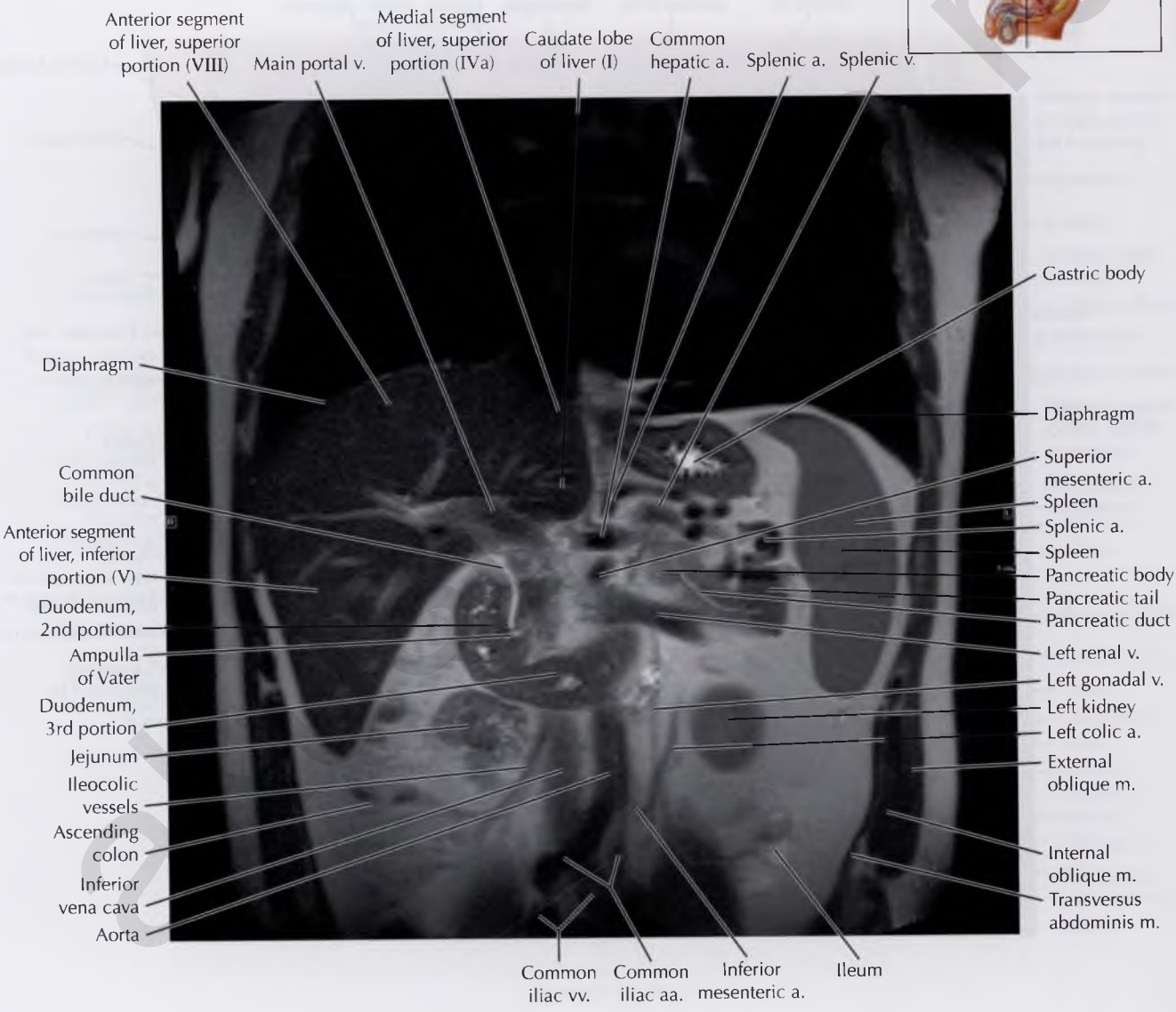


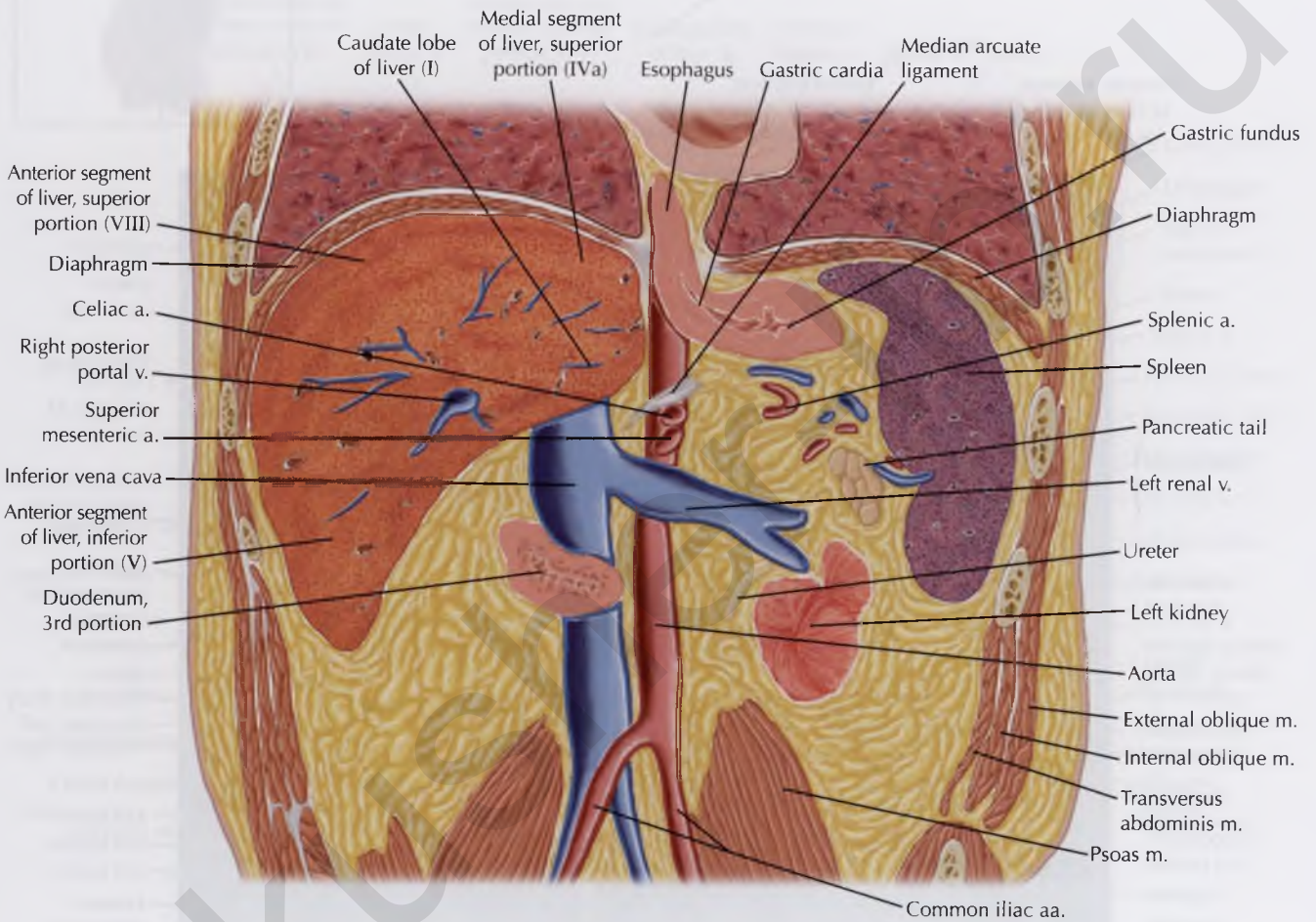




NORMAL ANATOMY

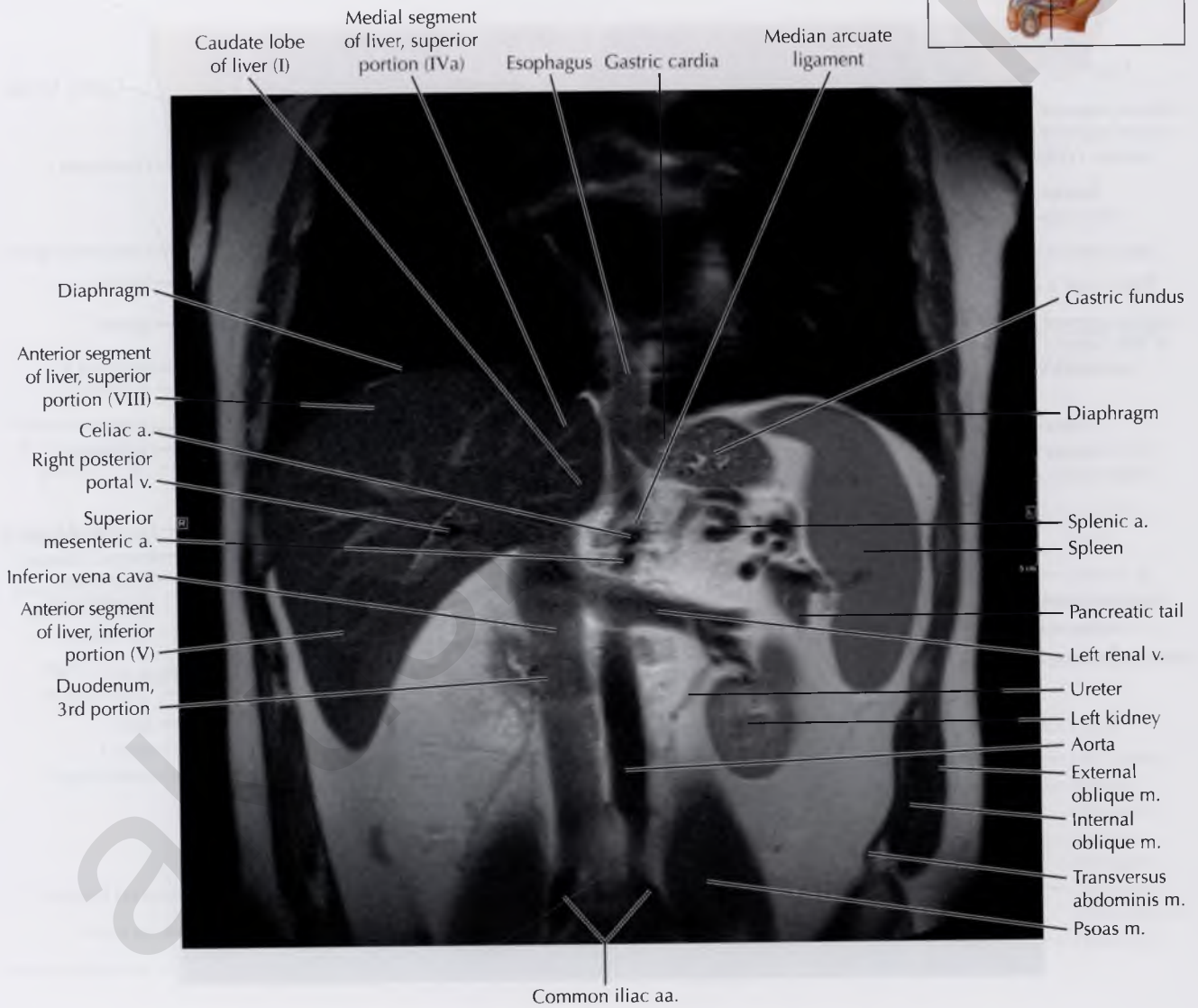
The spleen typically measures 9 to 12 cm (~4 inches) in cranial-caudal dimension in normal adults, with normal splenic size varying positively with an individual's height.

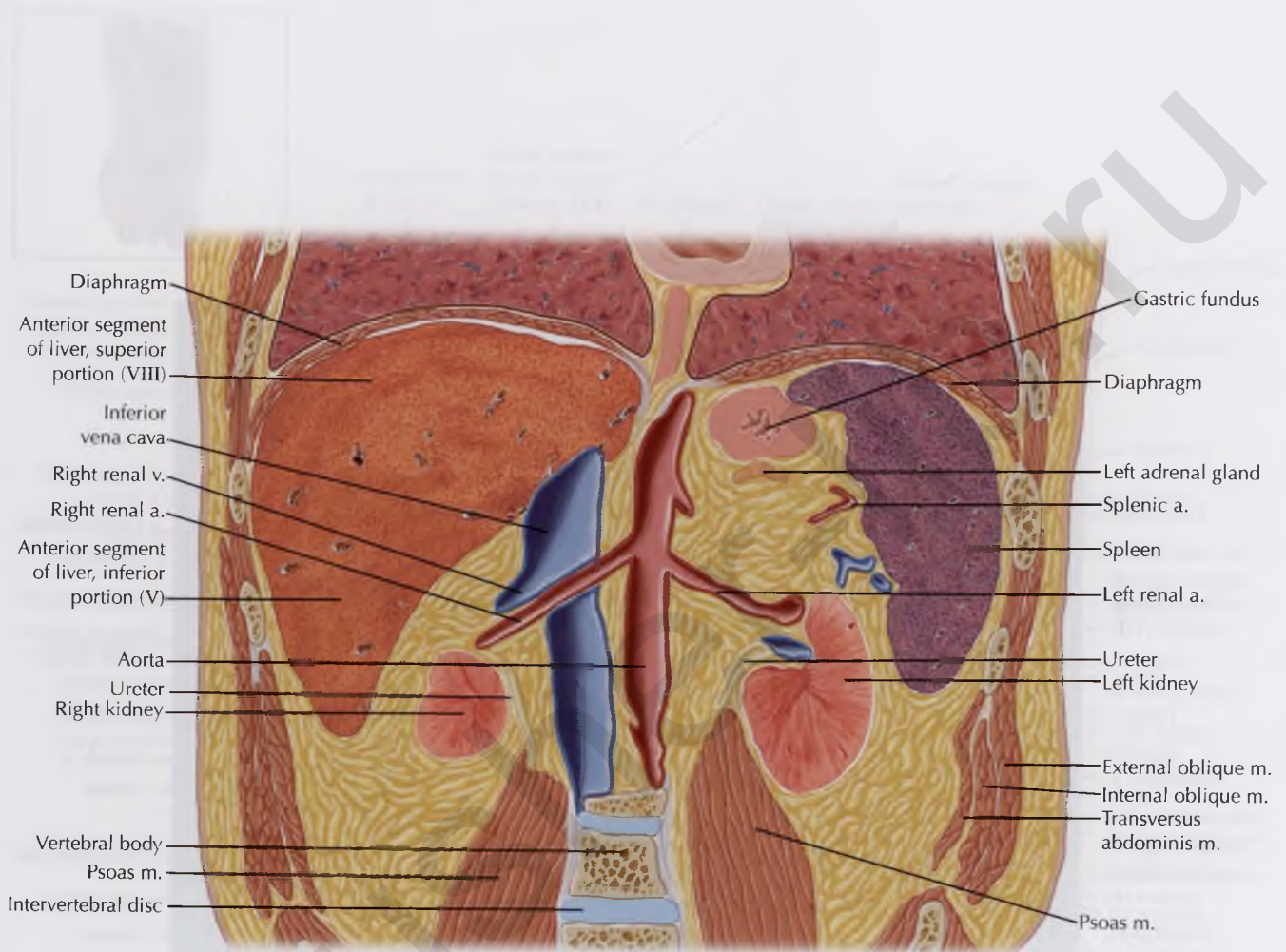




NORMAL ANATOMY

The median arcuate ligament, at the junction of the diaphragmatic crura, is best seen just above the celiac axis on coronal MR images.

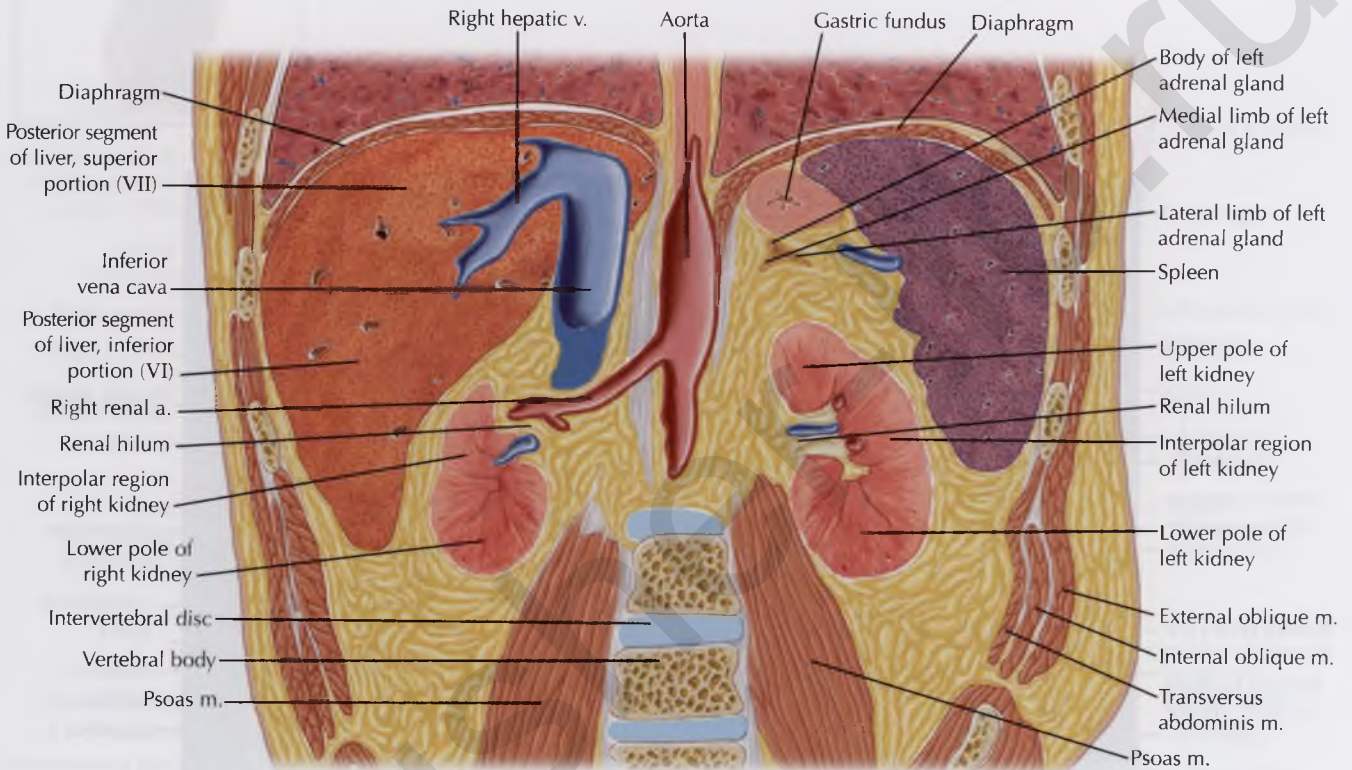




NORMAL VARIANTS

Fetal lobation of the spleen typically disappears before birth, but may persist to some degree along the medial aspect of the spleen.





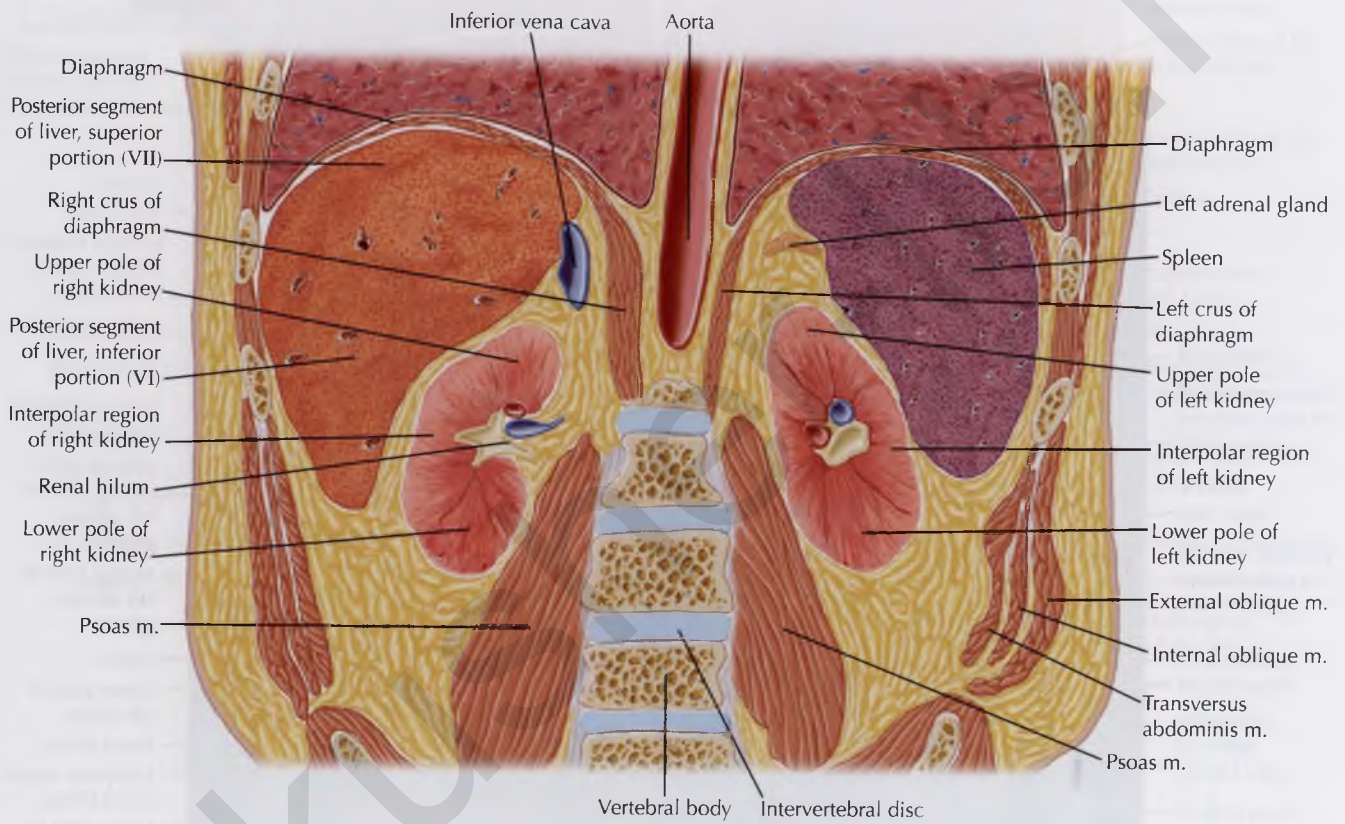
NORMAL ANATOMY

Intrahepatic veins classically coalesce into three hepatic veins that drain into the IVC superiorly. The *right hepatic vein* is typically the largest and drains directly into the IVC. The left and middle hepatic veins most often form a short common trunk before draining into the IVC, but may also drain directly into the IVC. Almost 50% of the population has an *inferior accessory right hepatic vein* that drains directly into the IVC most often from the posterior hepatic segment.



Right hepatic v. Aorta Gastric fundus Diaphragm

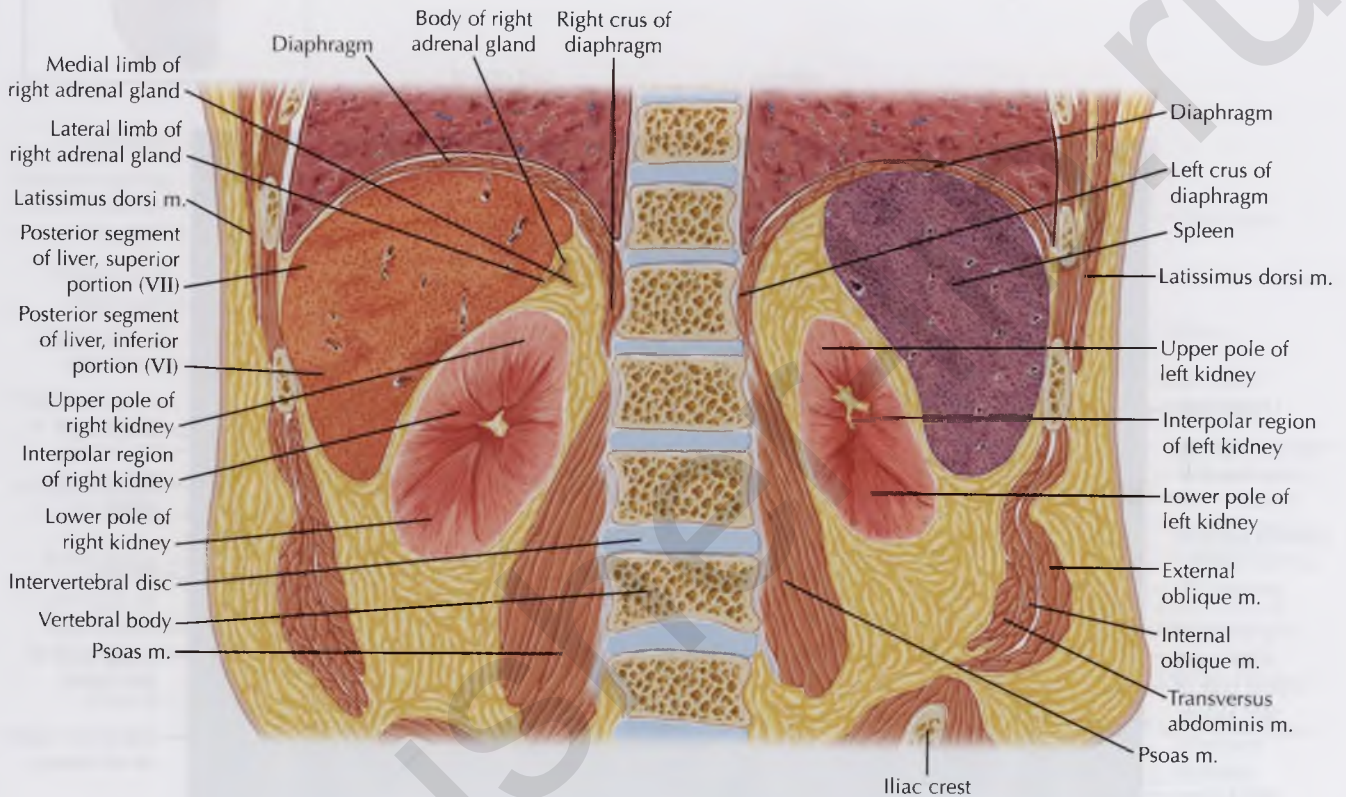




akur

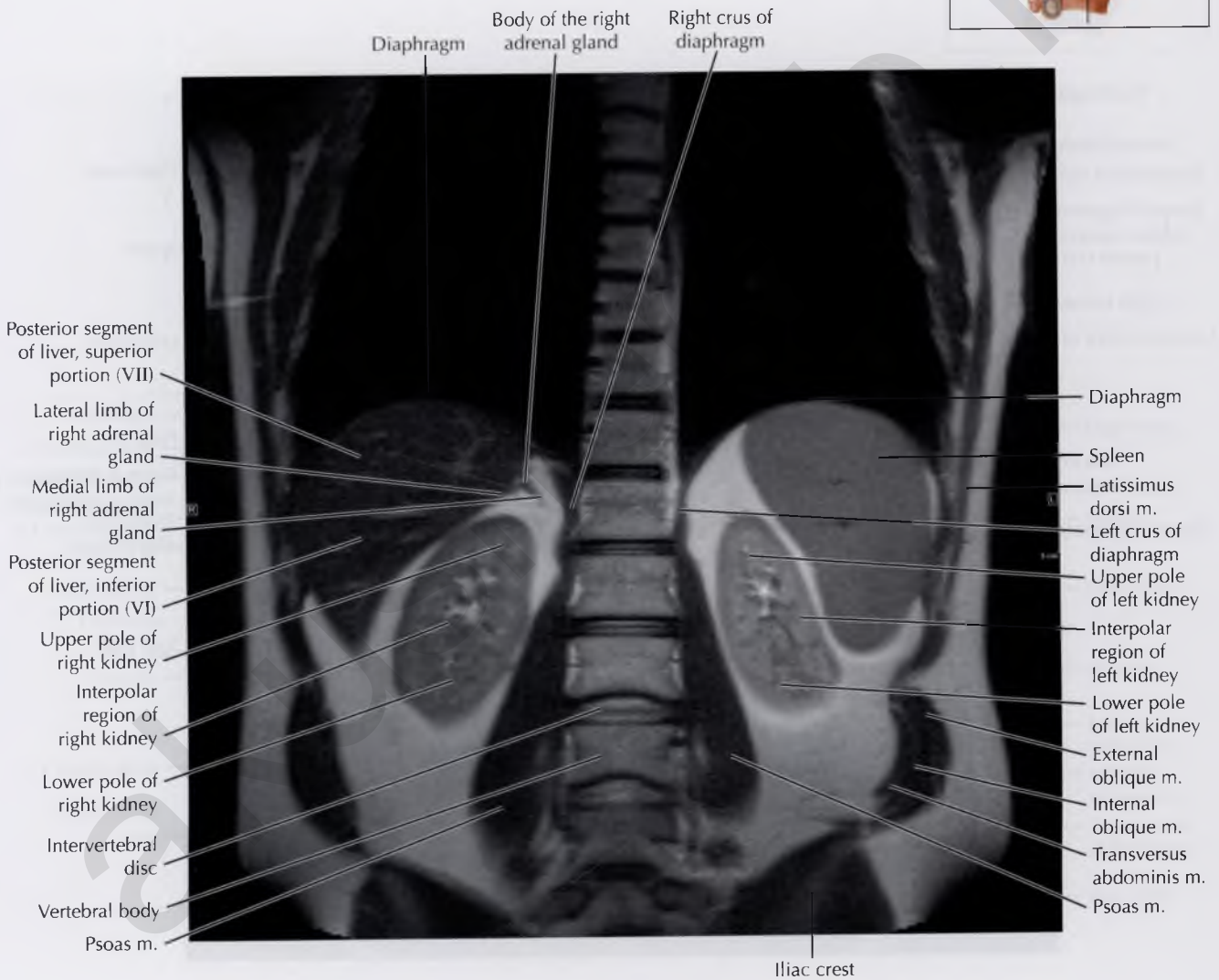
ANATOMY





DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

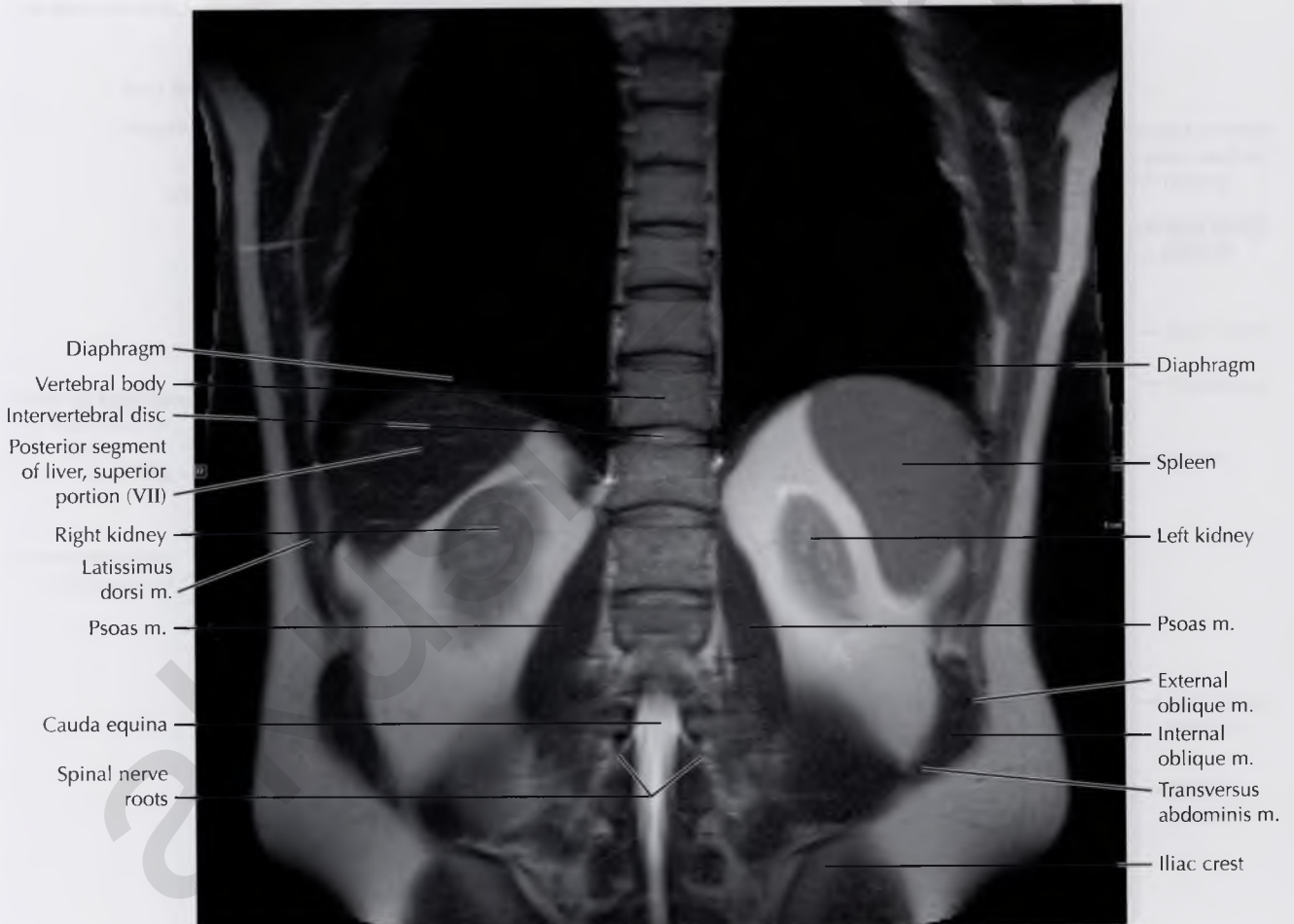
Each *adrenal gland* is shaped like an inverted Y or V, with the medial and lateral limbs joining at the body of the adrenal gland. Unlike other organs in the abdomen, the adrenal glands continue to increase in volume with increasing age in both children and adults. The left adrenal gland is typically larger in volume than the right adrenal gland.

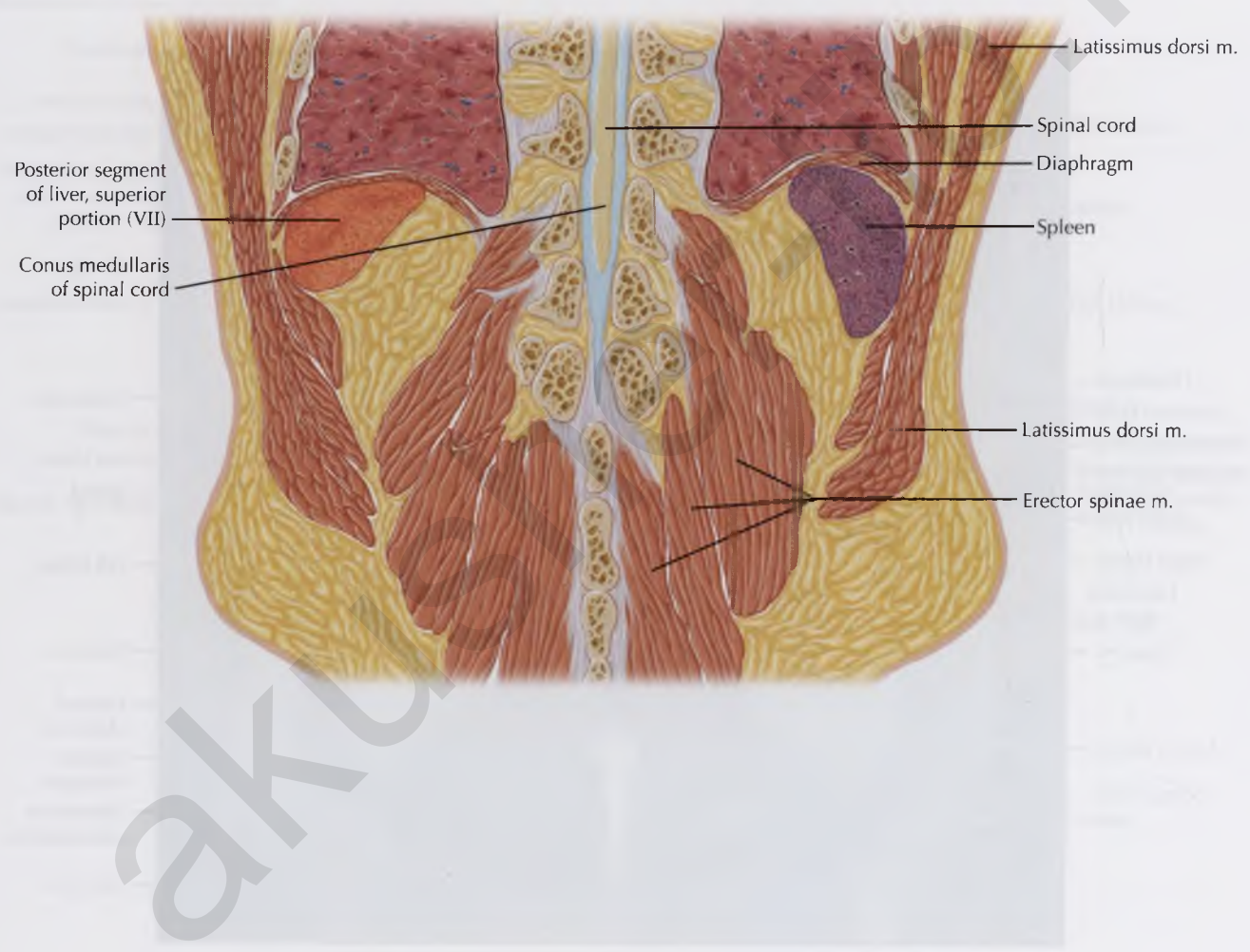


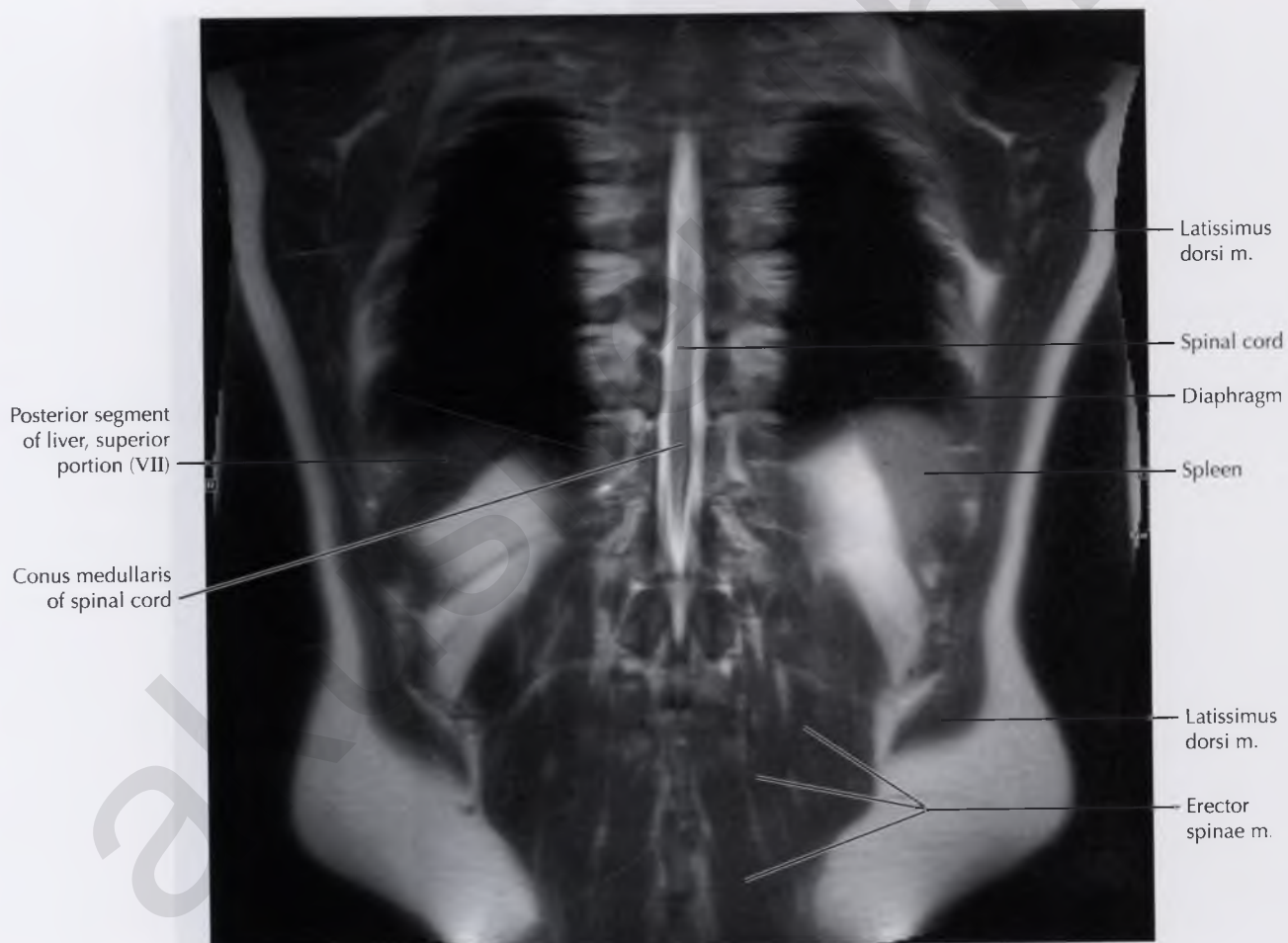


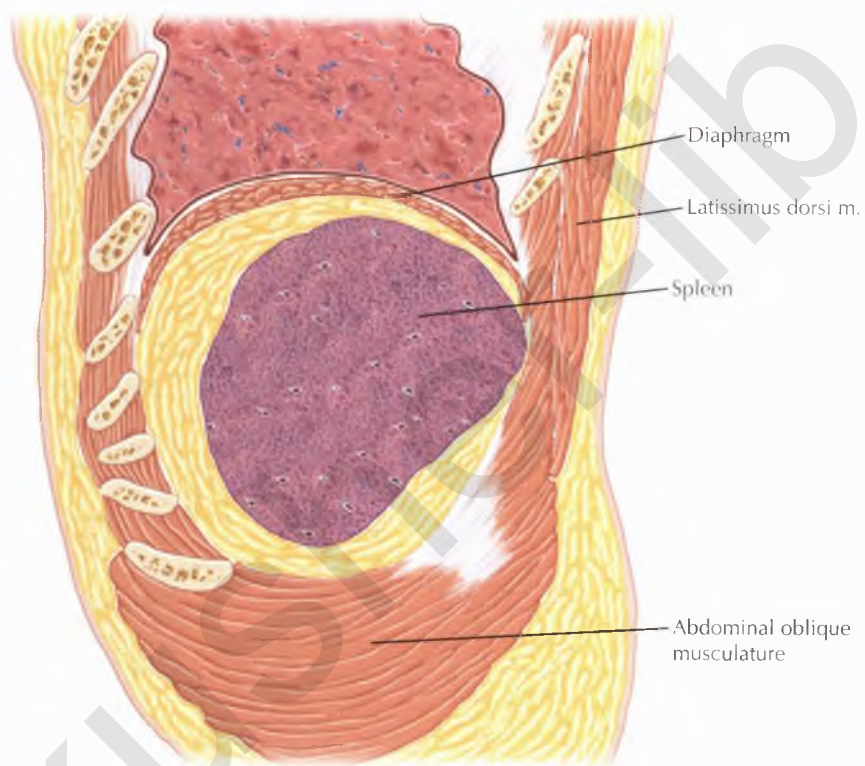
Diaphragm
 Vertebral body
 Intervertebral disc
 Posterior segment of liver, superior portion (VII)
 Right kidney
 Latissimus dorsi m.
 Psoas m.
 Cauda equina
 Spinal nerve roots

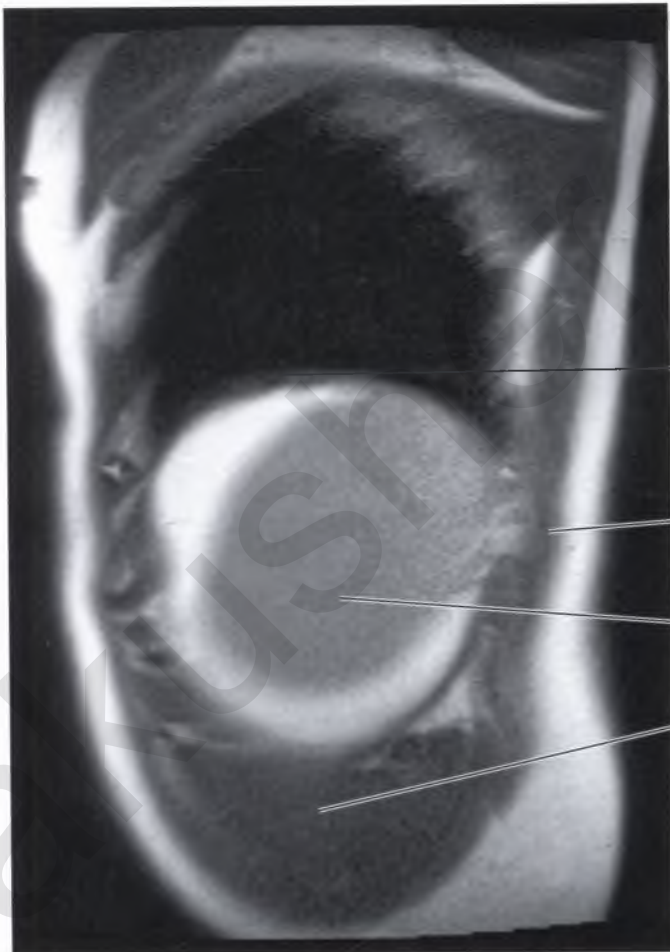
Diaphragm
 Spleen
 Left kidney
 Psoas m.
 External oblique m.
 Internal oblique m.
 Transversus abdominis m.
 Iliac crest









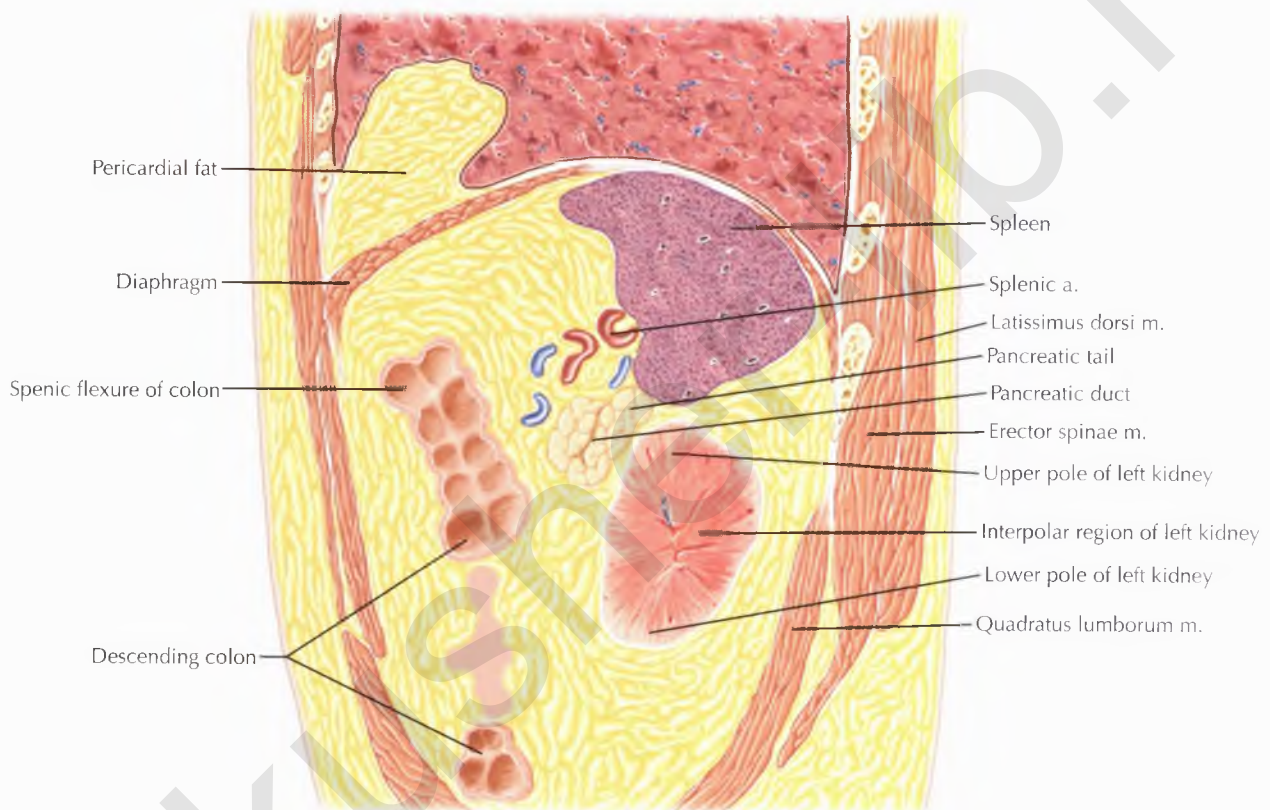


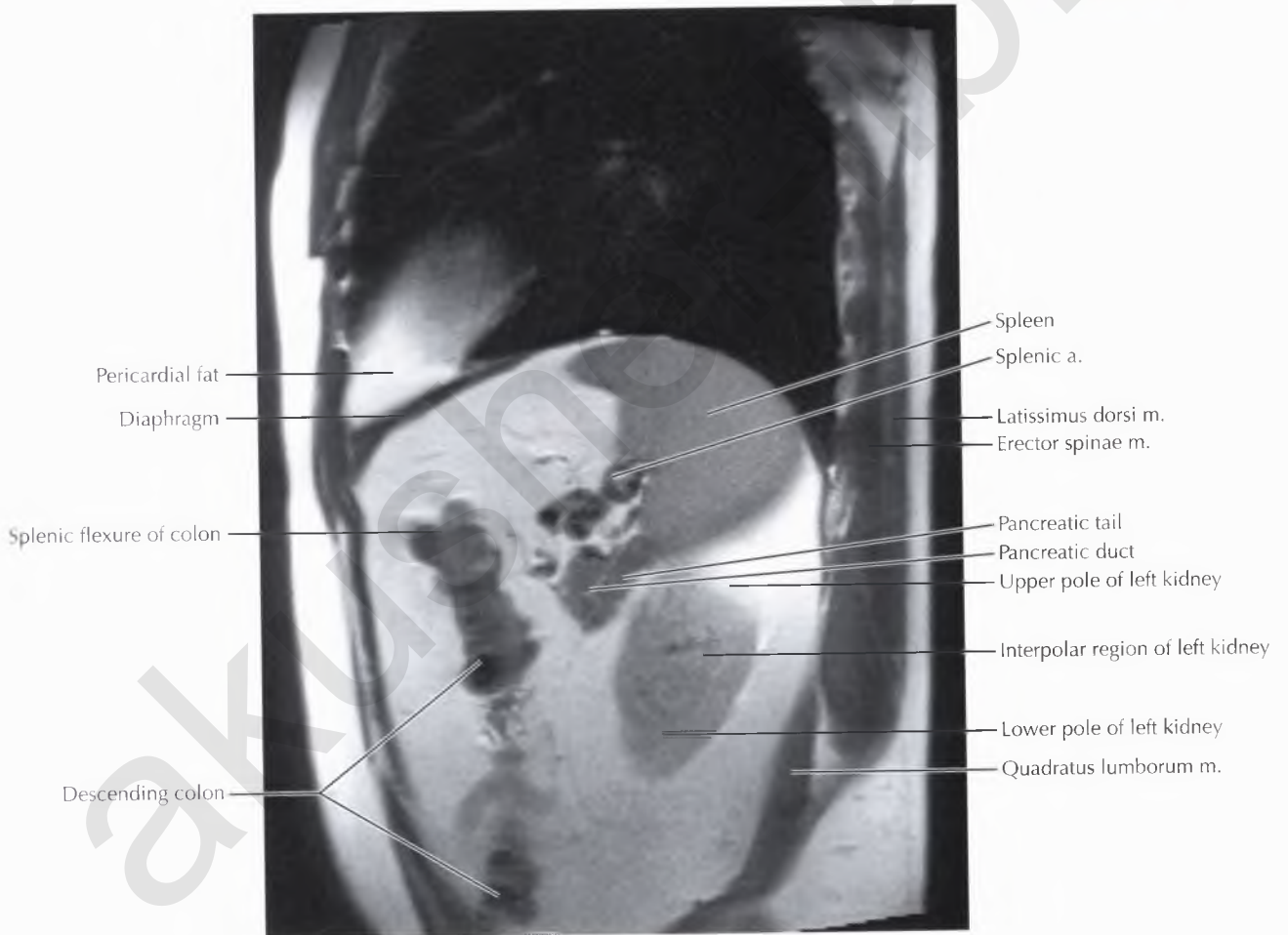
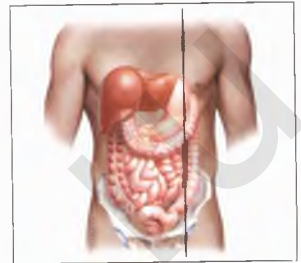
Diaphragm

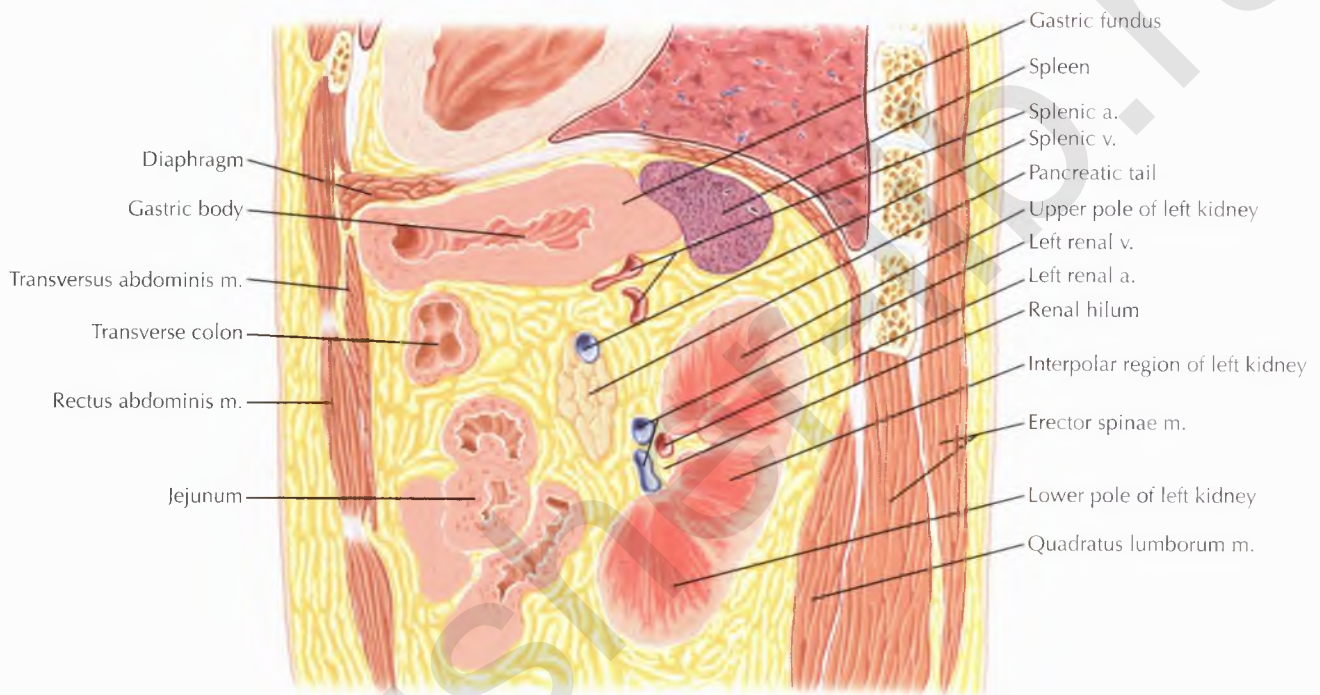
Latissimus dorsi m.

Spleen

Abdominal
oblique
musculature

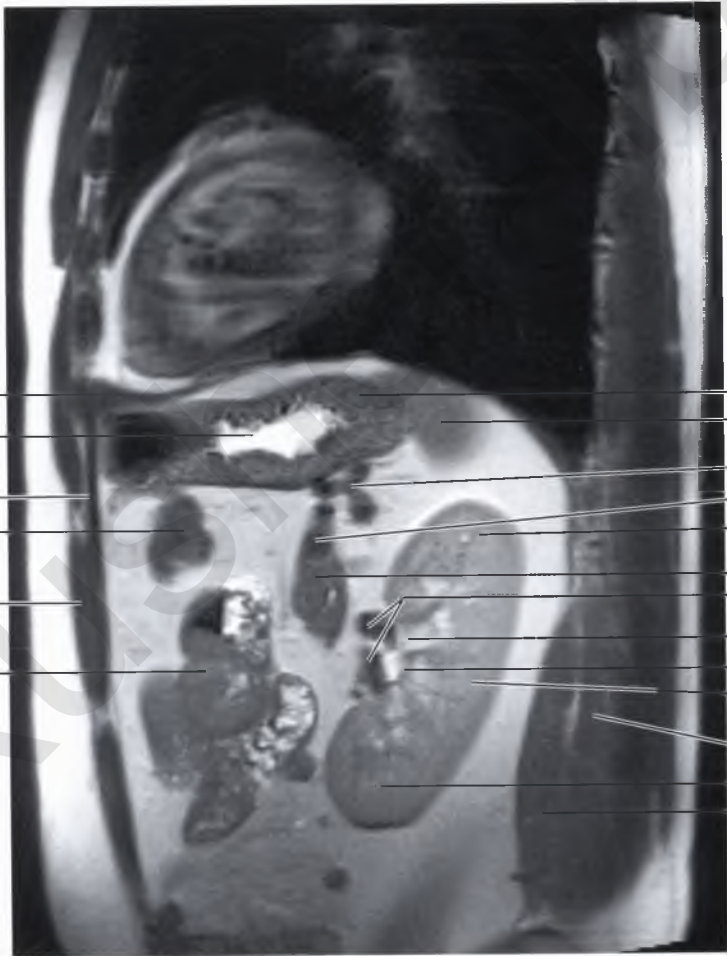
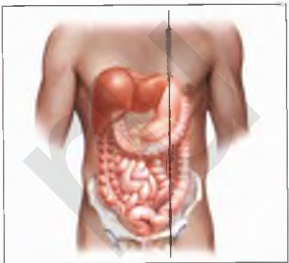




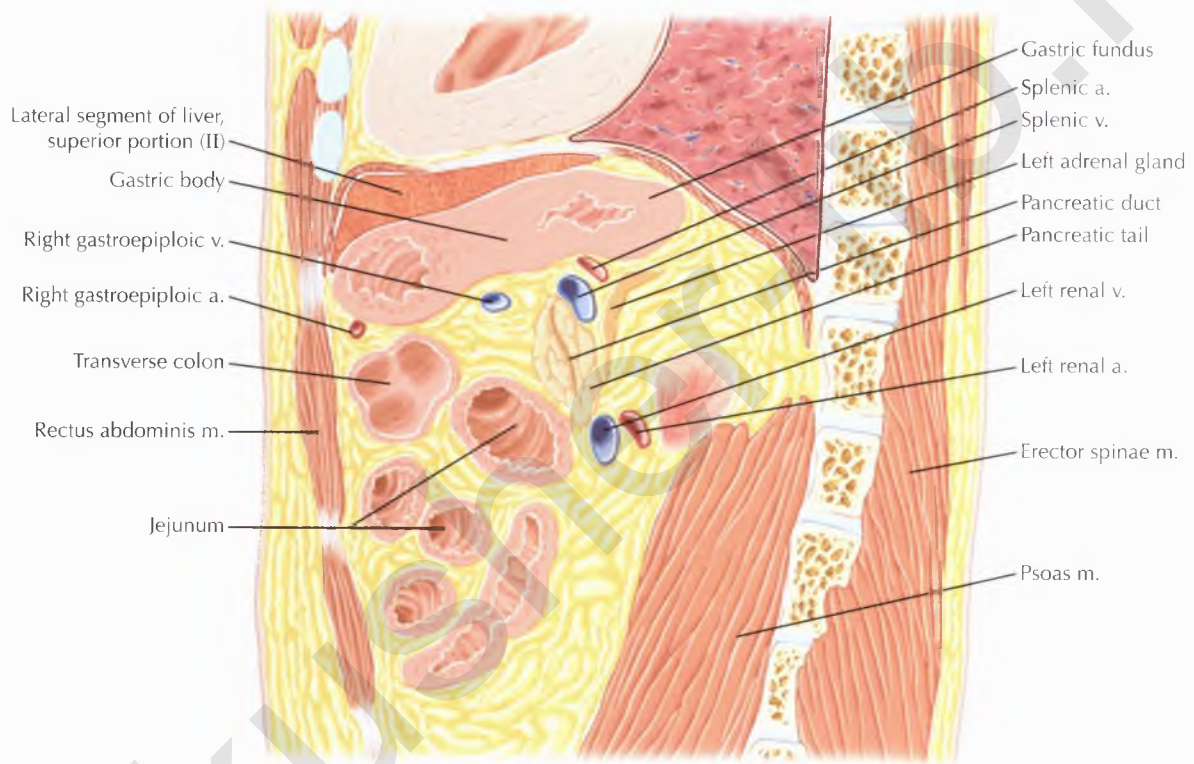


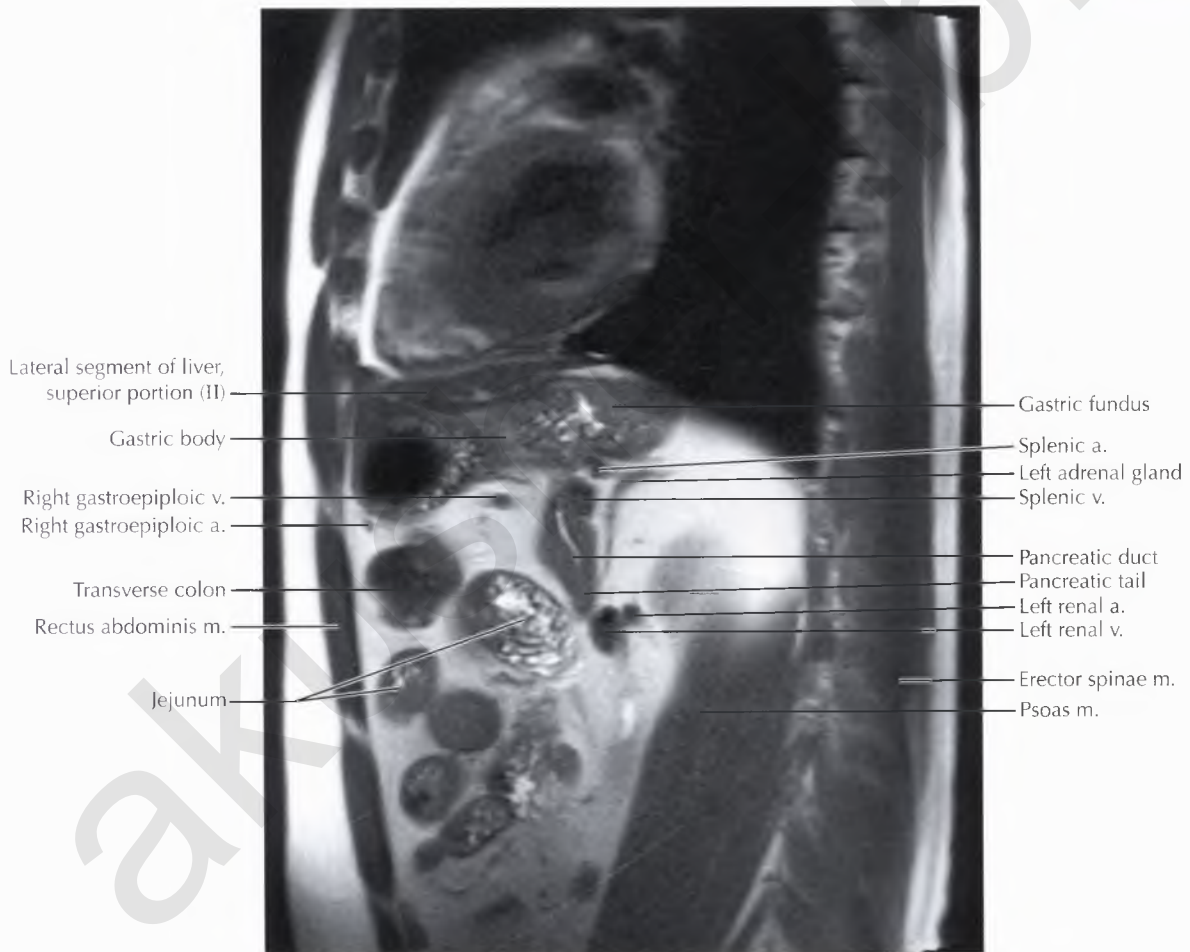
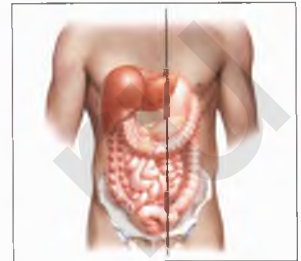
NORMAL ANATOMY

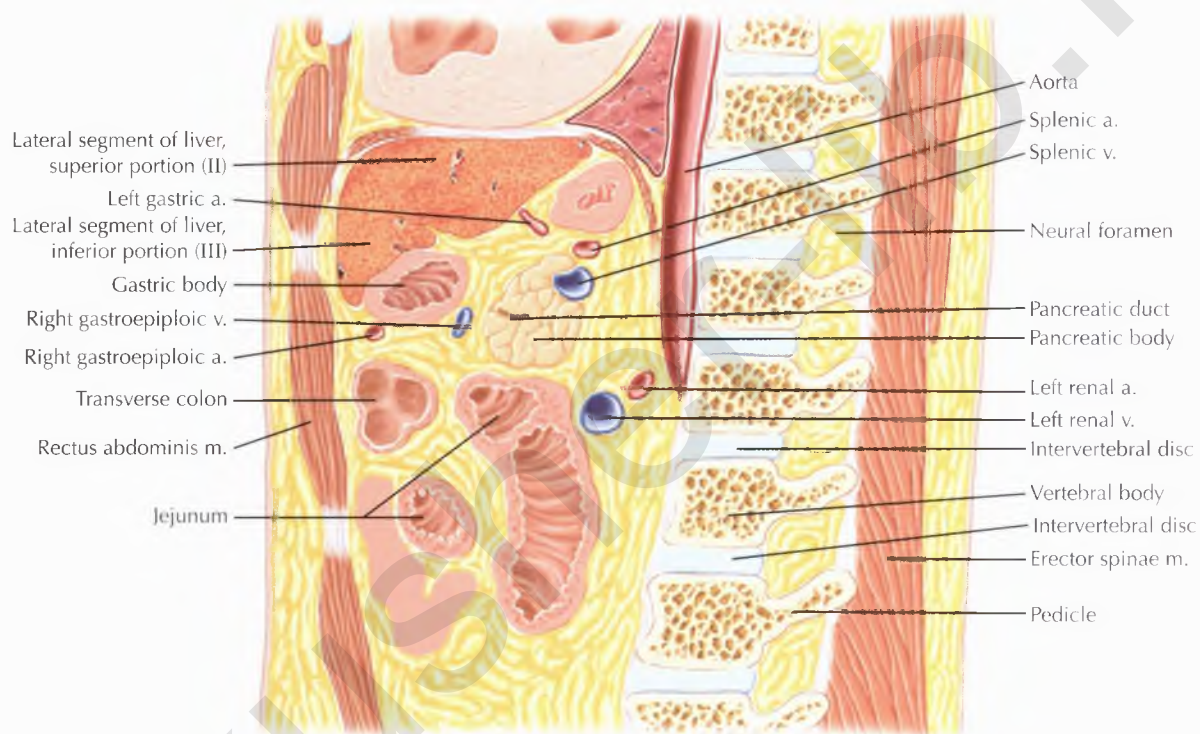
The kidneys are paired retroperitoneal organs found within the perirenal spaces, surrounded by the renal fascia. The kidneys vary in length; on MR images the average length in a male adult is 11.5 to 13.3 cm, and in a female adult, 10.5 to 12.7 cm.

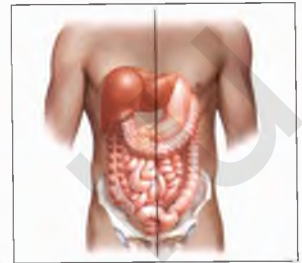


- Diaphragm
- Gastric body
- Transversus abdominis m.
- Transverse colon
- Rectus abdominis m.
- Jejunum
- Gastric fundus
- Spleen
- Splenic a.
- Splenic v.
- Upper pole of left kidney
- Pancreatic tail
- Left renal v.
- Left renal a.
- Renal hilum
- Interpolar region of left kidney
- Erector spinae m.
- Lower pole of left kidney
- Quadratus lumborum m.

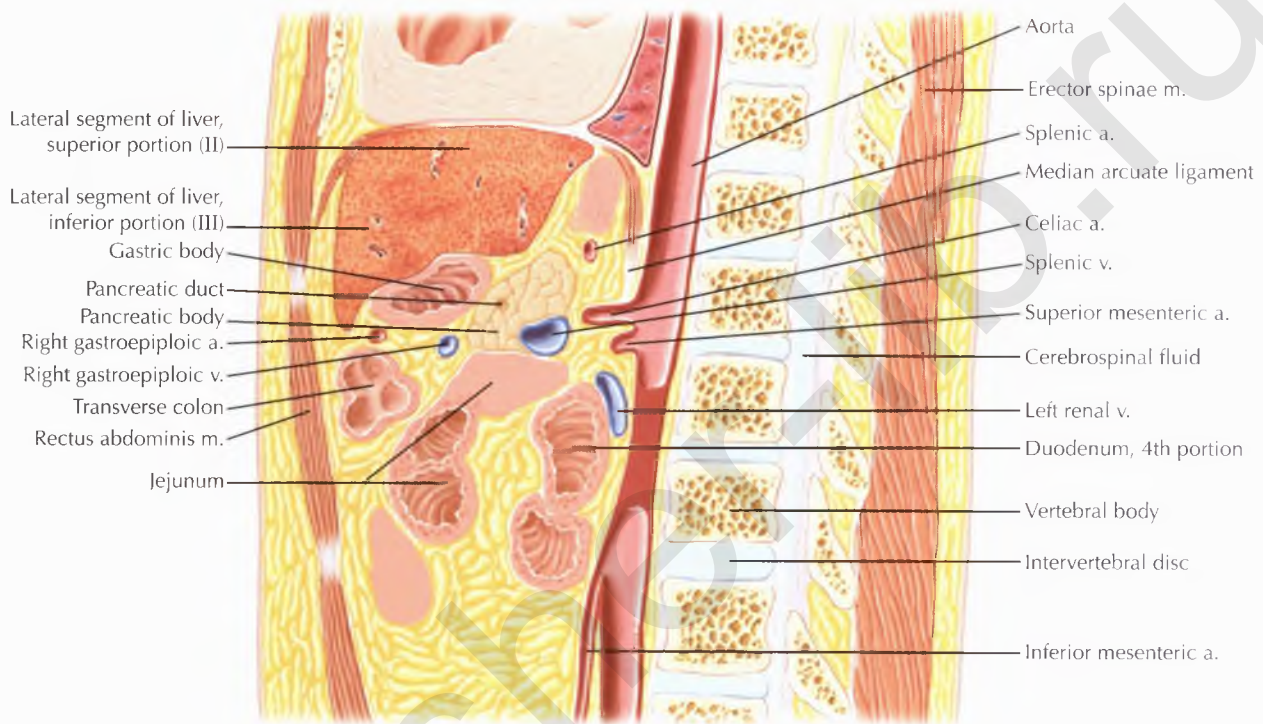








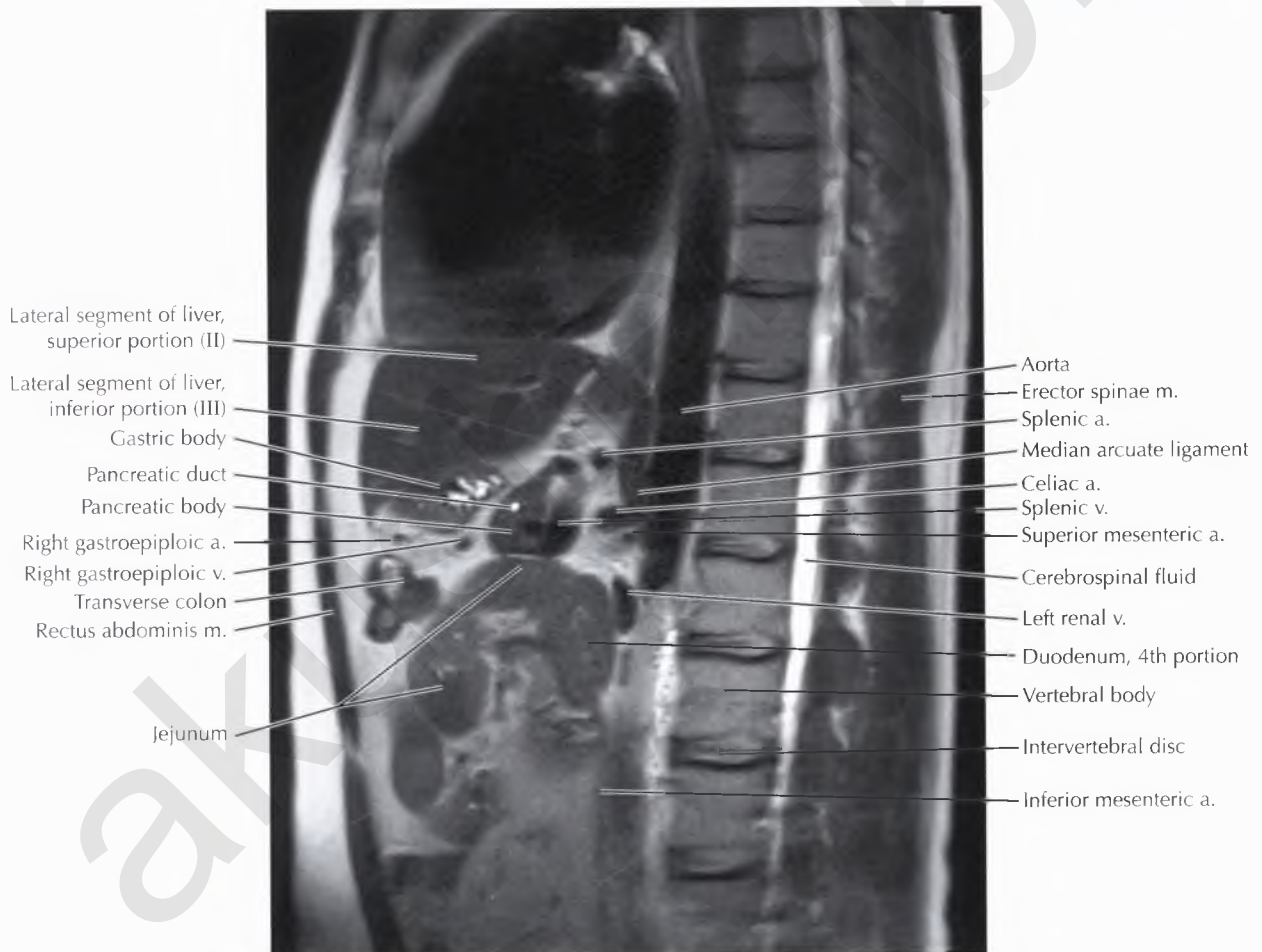
- Lateral segment of liver, superior portion (II)
- Left gastric a.
- Lateral segment of liver, inferior portion (III)
- Gastric body
- Right gastroepiploic v.
- Right gastroepiploic a.
- Transverse colon
- Rectus abdominis m.
- Jejunum
- Aorta
- Splenic a.
- Splenic v.
- Neural foramen
- Pancreatic duct
- Pancreatic body
- Left renal a.
- Left renal v.
- Vertebral body
- Intervertebral disc
- Erector spinae m.
- Pedicle

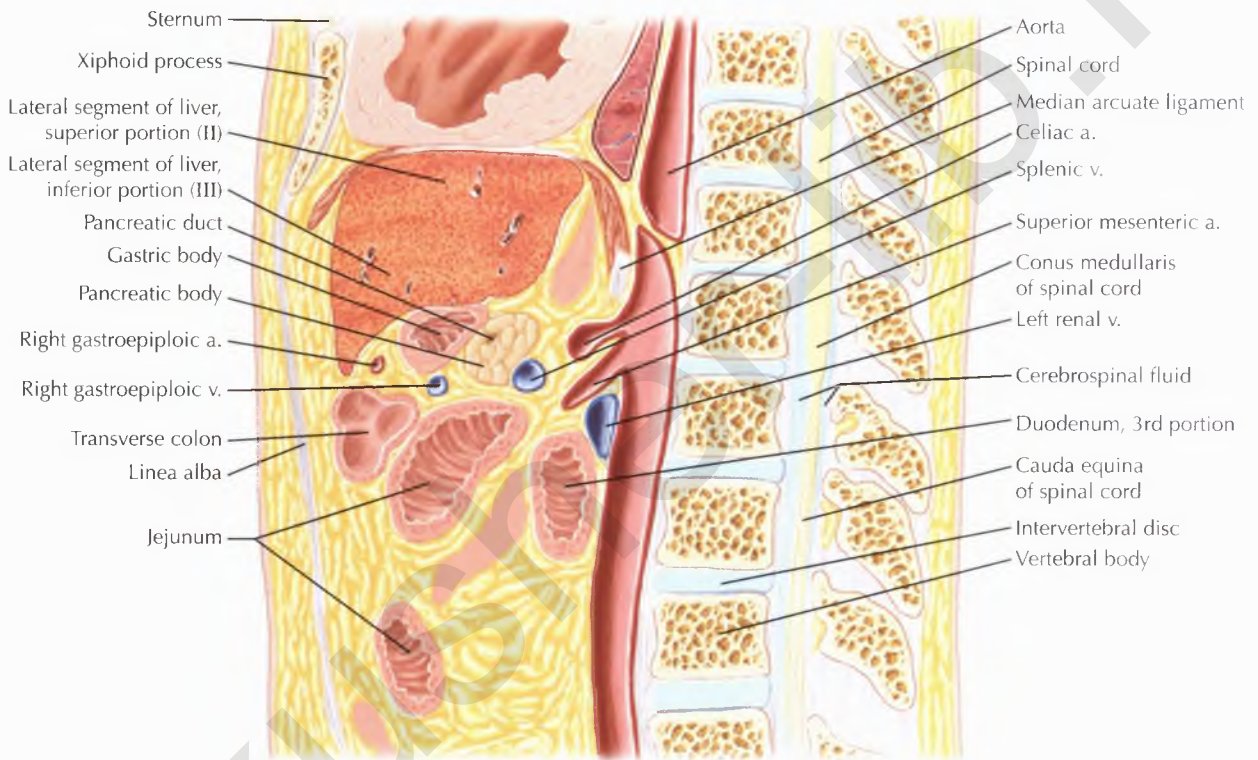


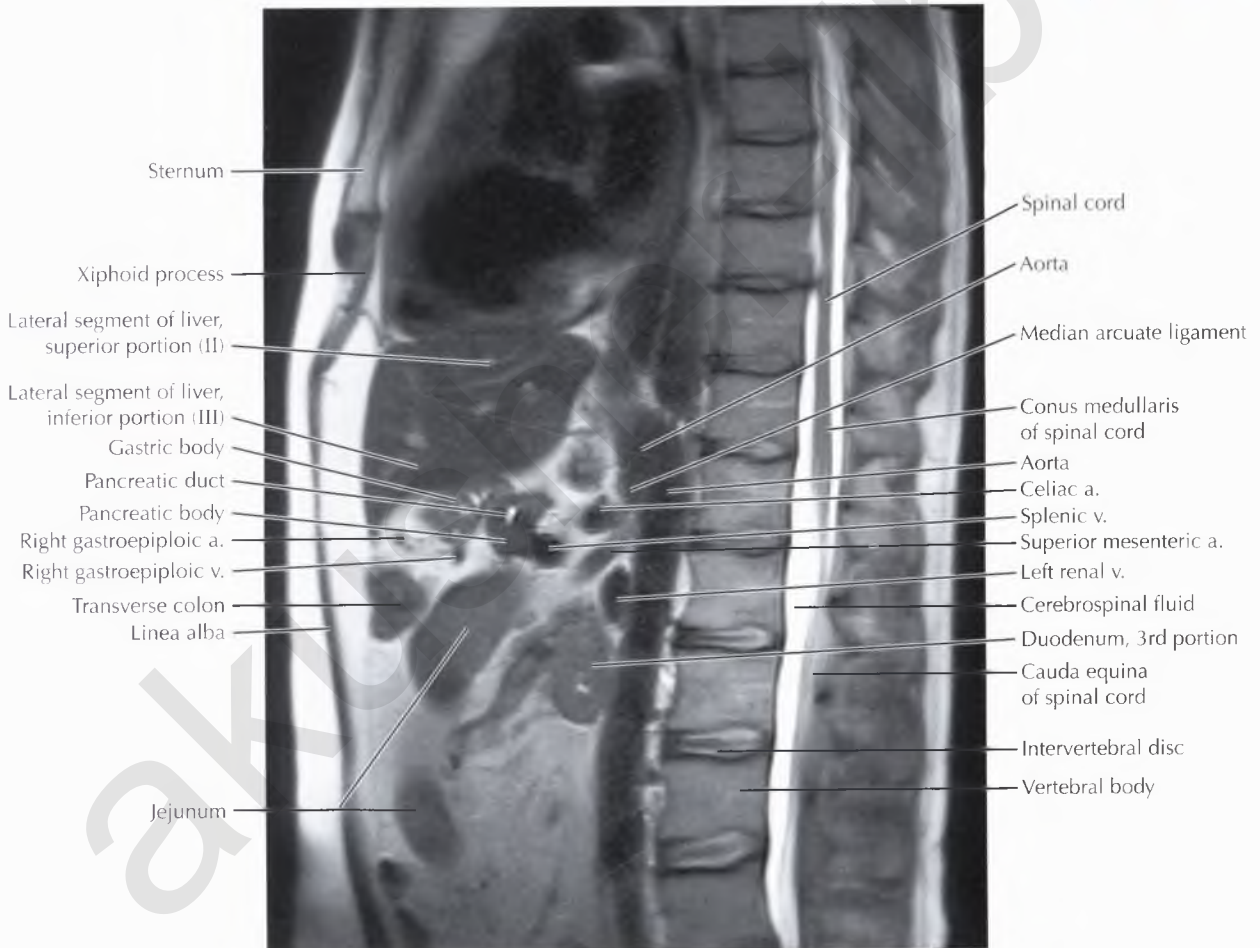
PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

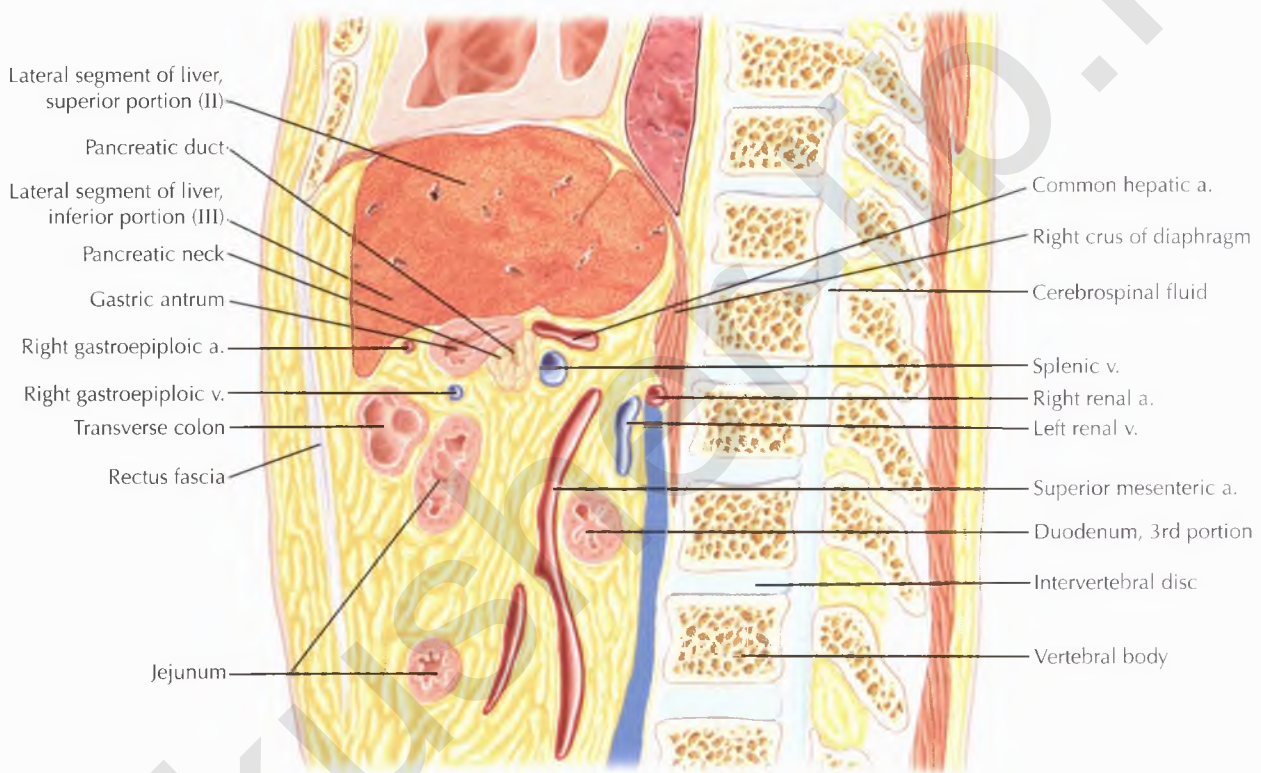
In *median arcuate ligament syndrome* (also known as celiac artery compression syndrome) the median arcuate ligament compresses and narrows the celiac artery near its origin typically during end inspiration as well as during end expiration; this is best seen in the sagittal plane. This syndrome is classically seen in thin female patients presenting with postprandial epigastric pain. Characteristic findings include narrowing of the celiac axis with post-stenotic dilation, upward hooking of the celiac artery, and a prominent pancreaticoduodenal arcade.

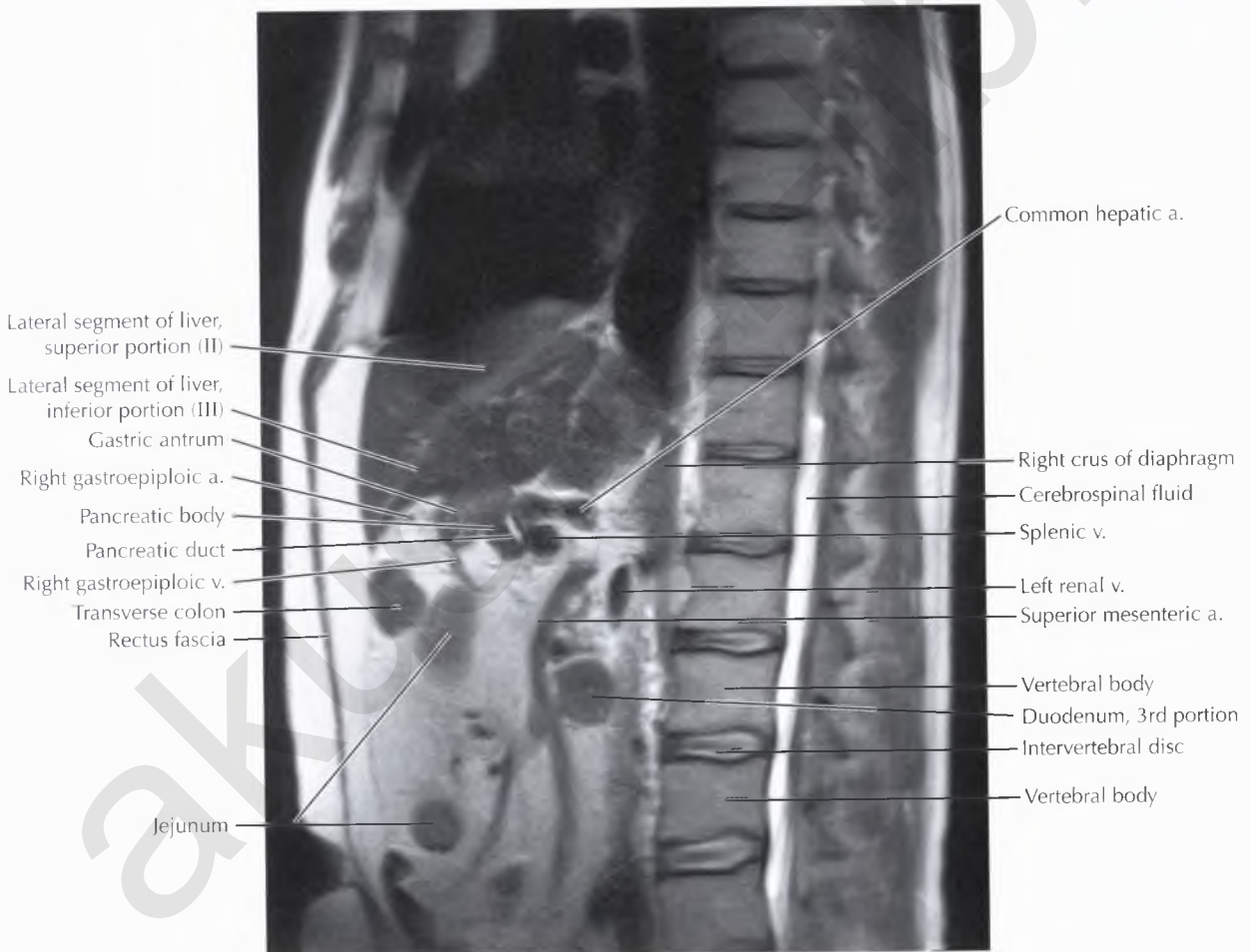
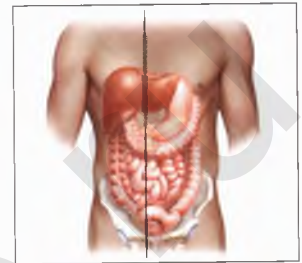
Note that mild compression of the celiac axis seen during expiration only can be seen as a normal variant.

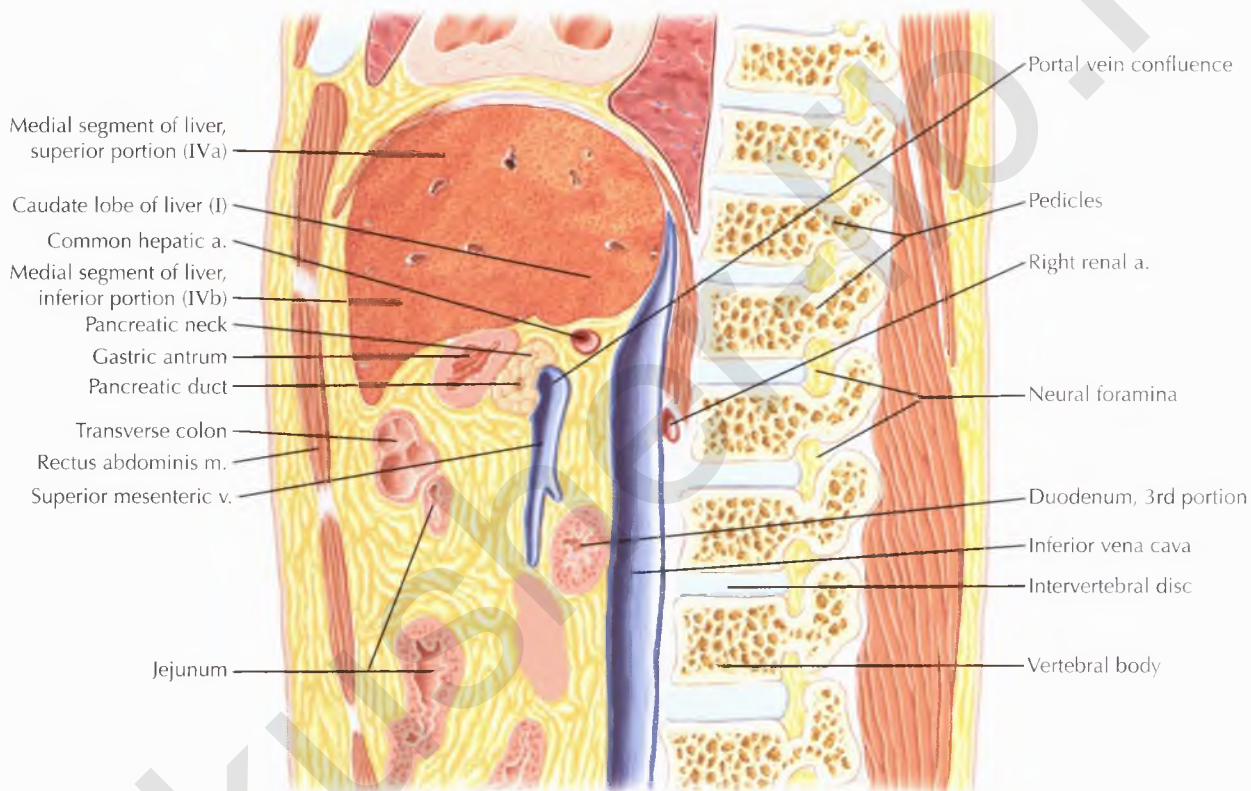


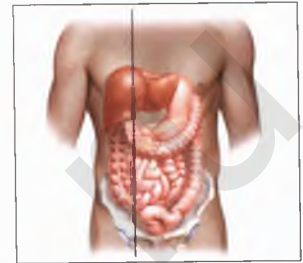






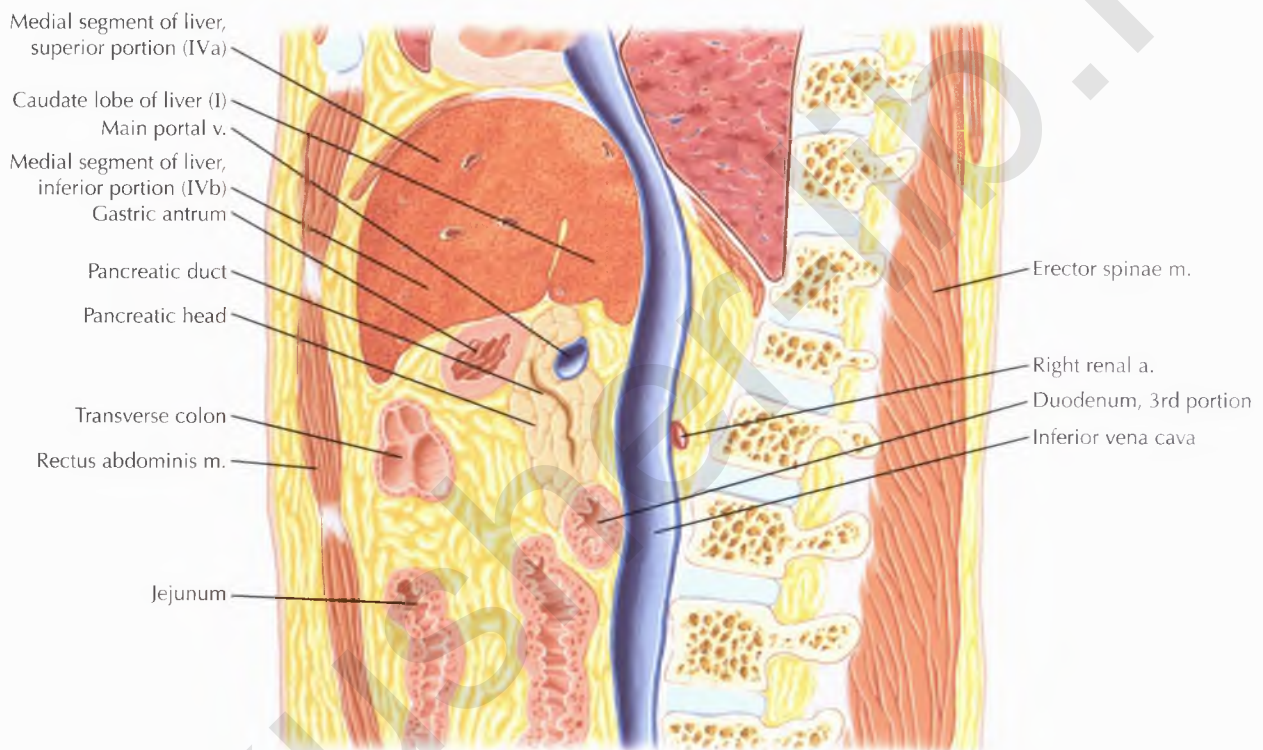


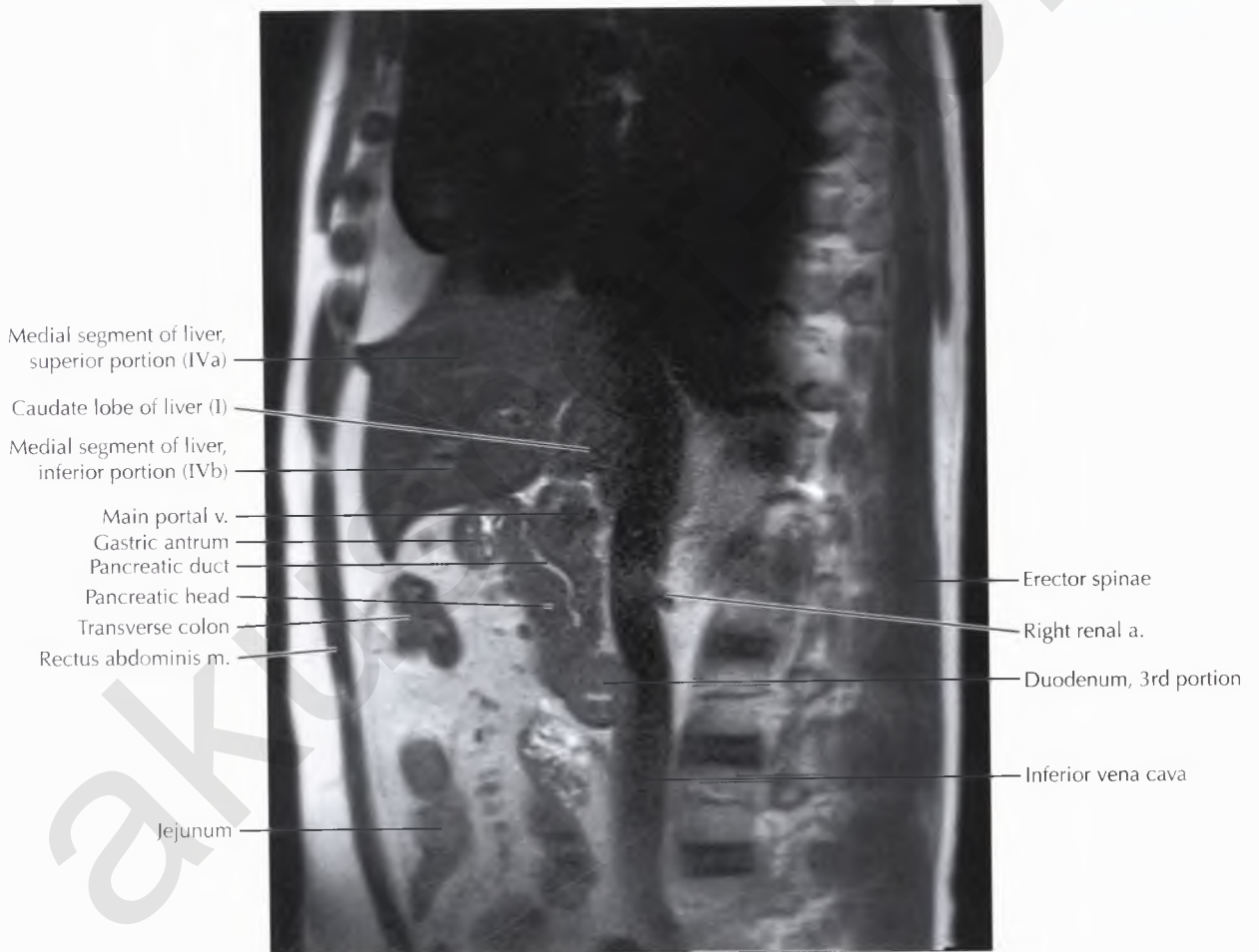


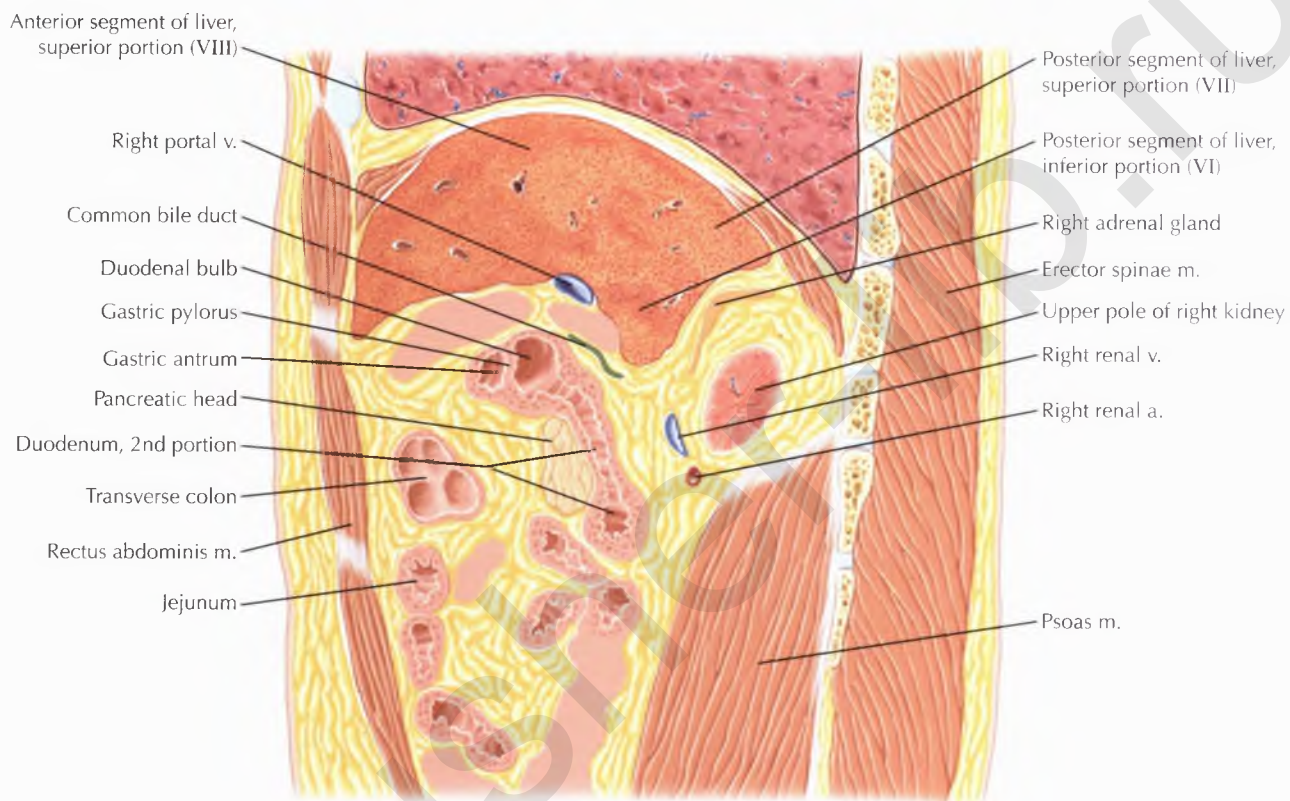


Medial segment of liver, superior portion (IVa)
 Caudate lobe of liver (I)
 Medial segment of liver, inferior portion (IVb)
 Common hepatic a.
 Pancreatic neck
 Gastric antrum
 Pancreatic duct
 Transverse colon
 Rectus abdominis m.
 Superior mesenteric v.
 Jejunum

Portal vein confluence
 Neural foramina
 Inferior vena cava
 Right renal a.
 Pedicles
 Duodenum, 3rd portion
 Inferior vena cava
 Intervertebral disc
 Vertebral body

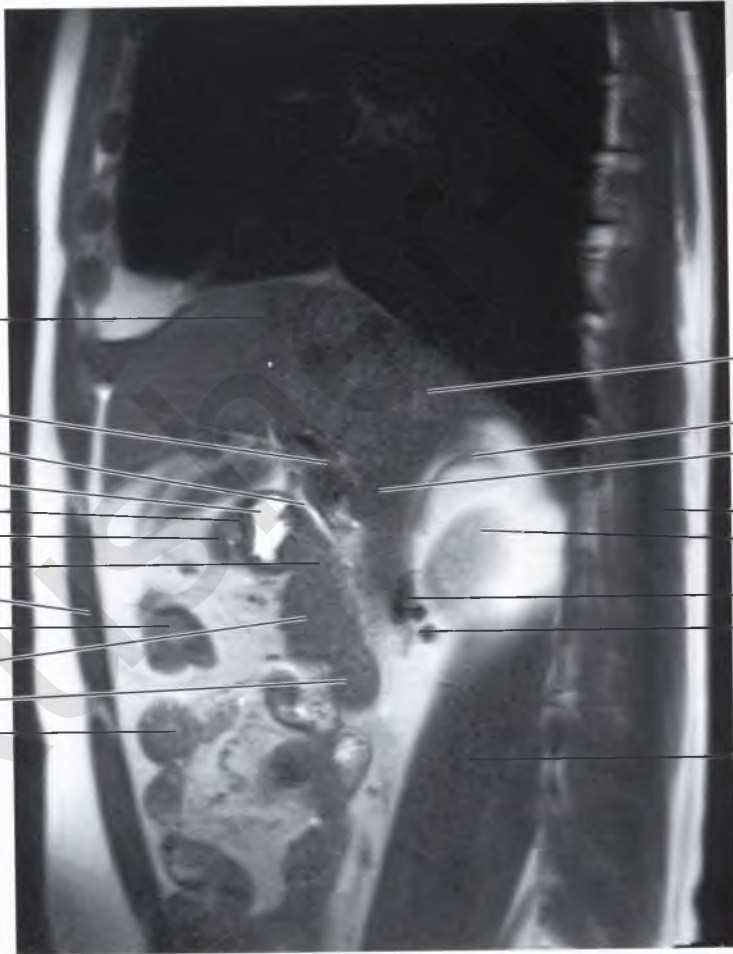
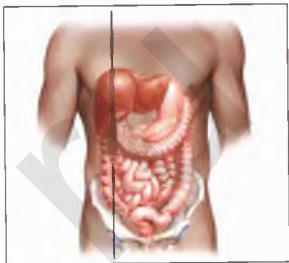






DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

Magnetic resonance imaging of the liver is usually performed in potential liver donors to assess the arterial, venous, and biliary ductal anatomy, as well as the volume of the potential graft and residual donor liver. In general, the remnant liver volume should be at least 30% of the standard liver volume to ensure sufficient liver function in the donor after transplantation.



Anterior segment of liver,
superior portion (VIII)

Right portal v.

Common bile duct

Duodenal bulb

Gastric pylorus

Gastric antrum

Duodenum, 2nd portion

Rectus abdominis m.

Transverse colon

Pancreatic head

Duodenum, 2nd portion

Jejunum

Posterior segment of liver,
superior portion (VII)

Right adrenal gland

Posterior segment of liver,
inferior portion (VI)

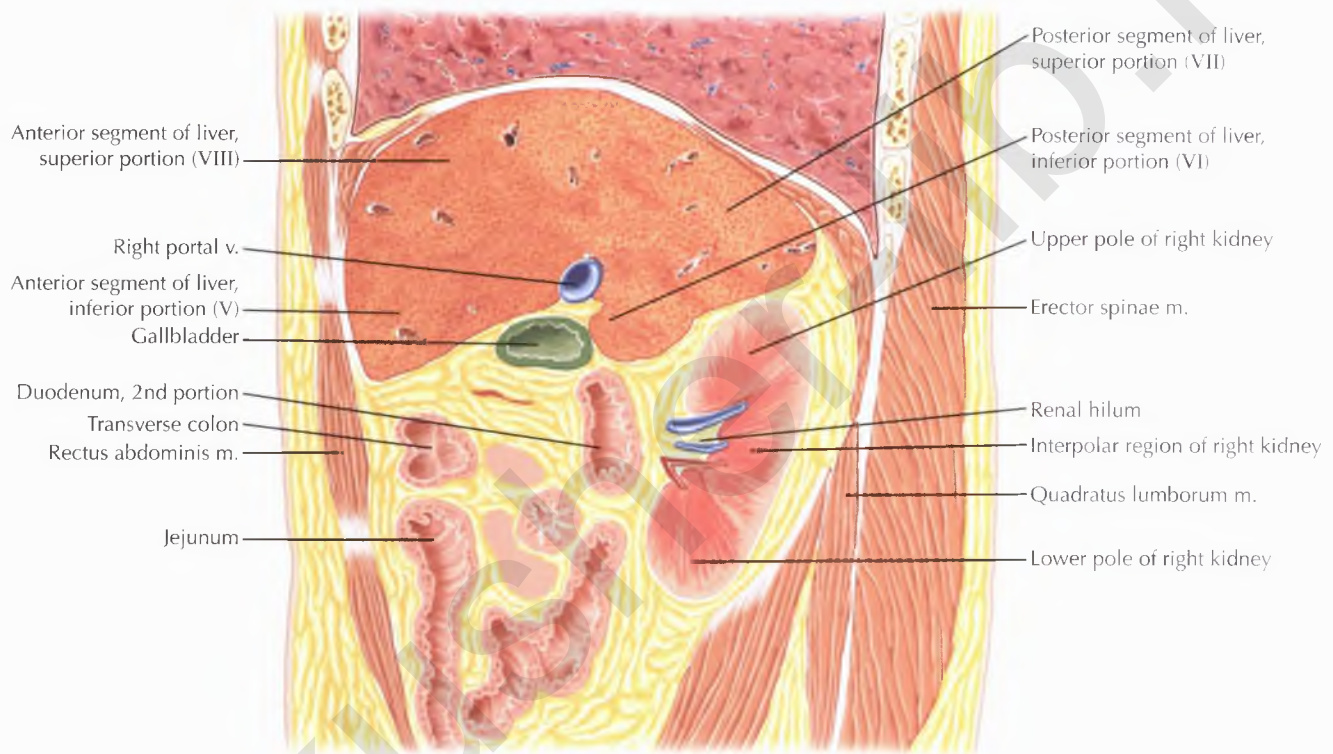
Erector spinae m.

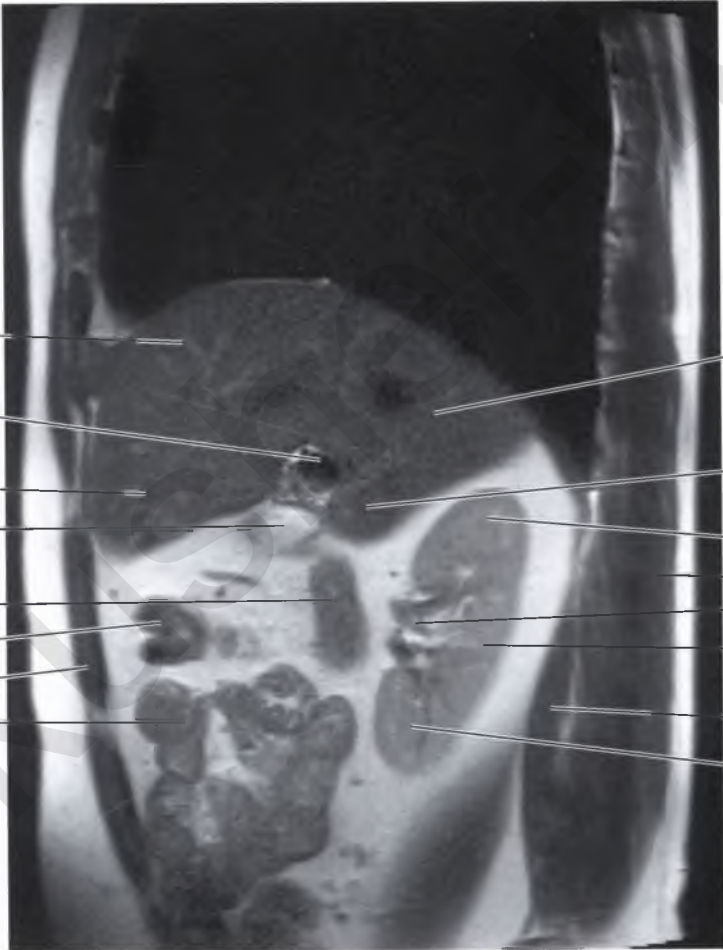
Upper pole of right kidney

Right renal v.

Right renal a.

Psoas m.





Anterior segment of liver, superior portion (VIII)

Right portal v.

Anterior segment of liver, inferior portion (V)

Gallbladder

Duodenum, 2nd portion

Transverse colon

Rectus abdominis m.

Jejunum

Posterior segment of liver, superior portion (VII)

Posterior segment of liver, inferior portion (VI)

Upper pole of right kidney

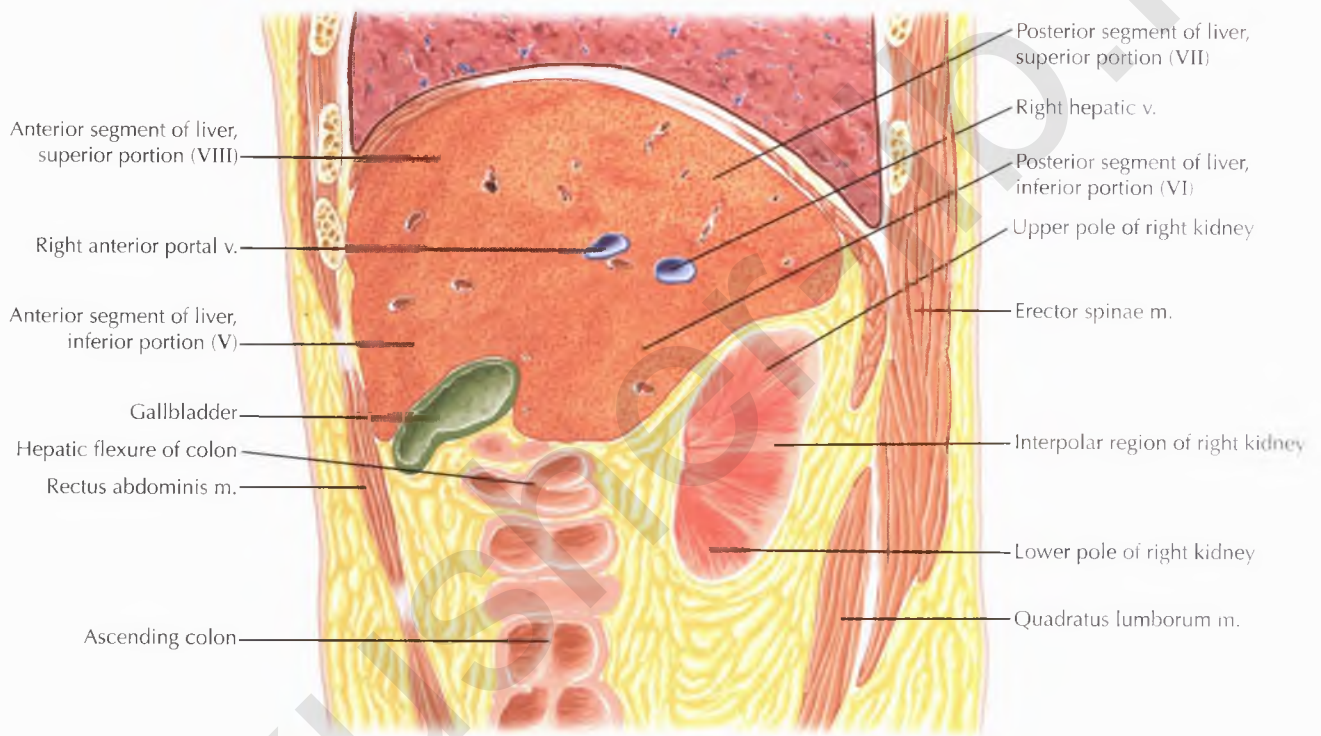
Erector spinae m.

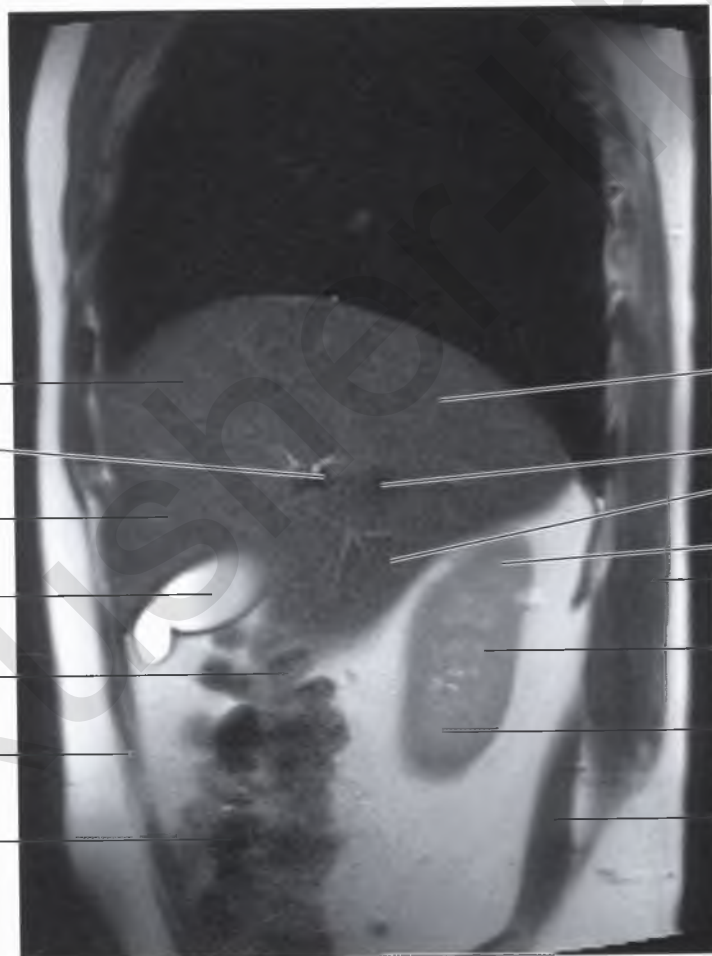
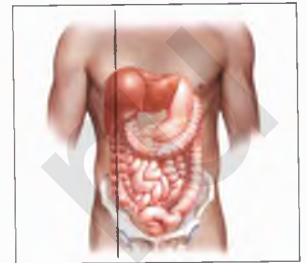
Renal hilum

Interpolar region of right kidney

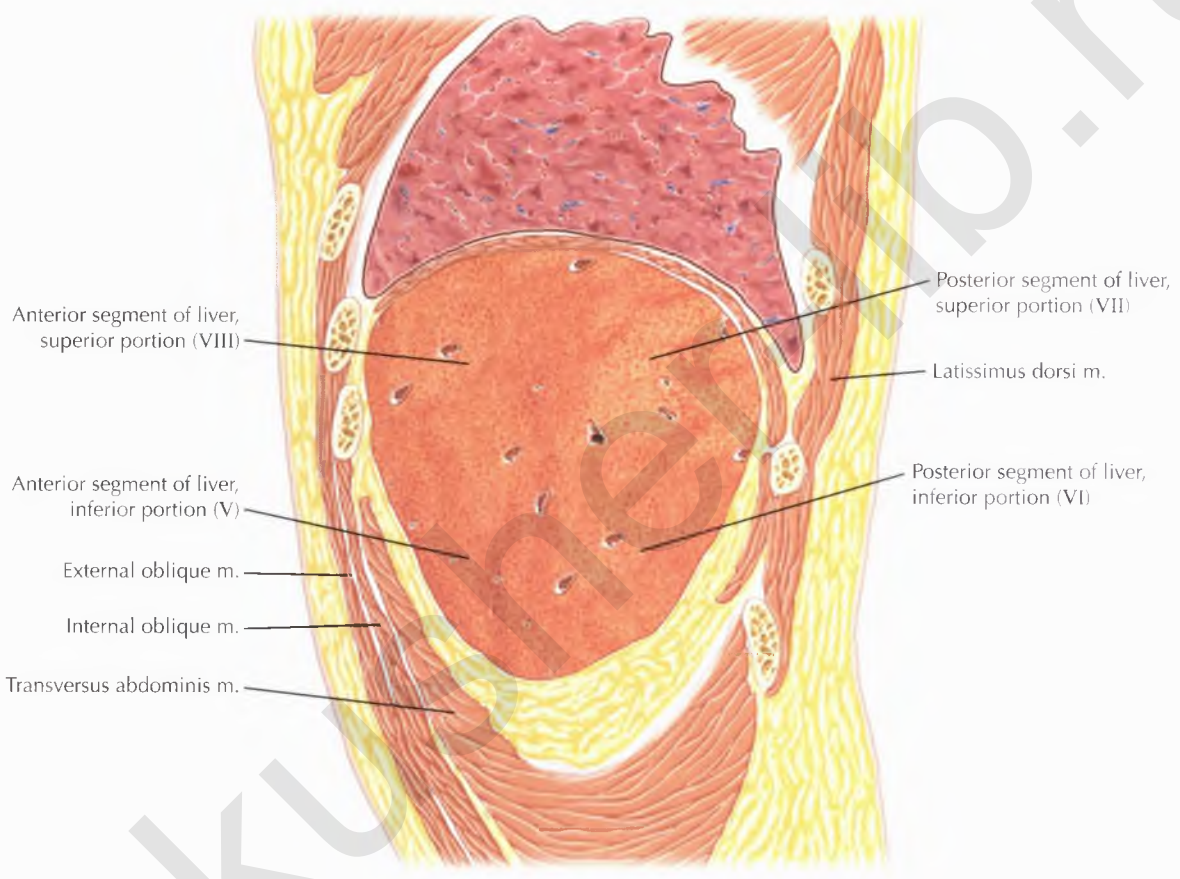
Quadratus lumborum m.

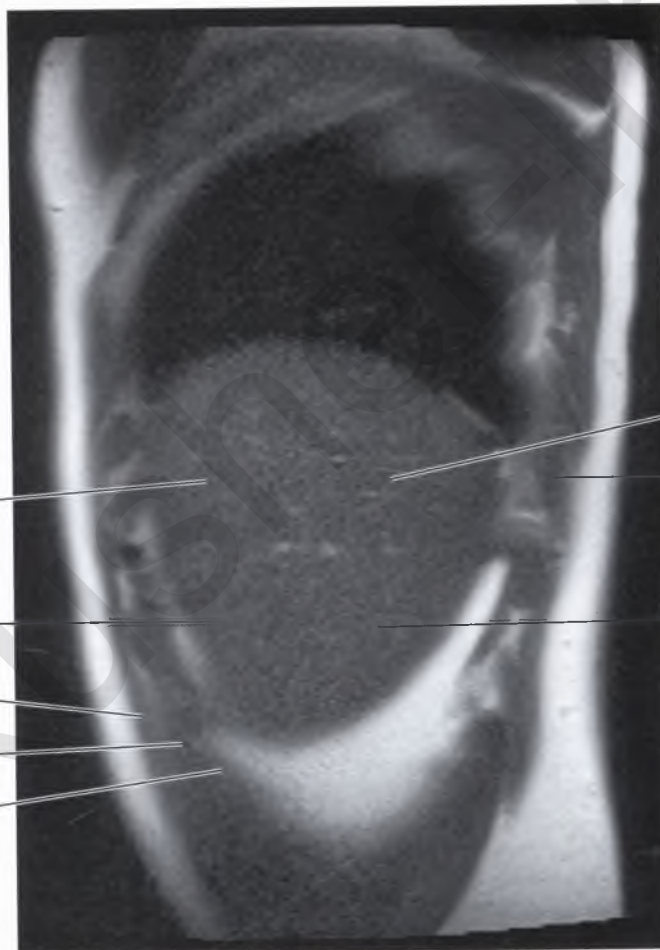
Lower pole of right kidney





- | | |
|--|--|
| Anterior segment of liver, superior portion (VIII) | Posterior segment of liver, superior portion (VII) |
| Right anterior portal v. | Right hepatic v. |
| Anterior segment of liver, inferior portion (V) | Posterior segment of liver, inferior portion (VI) |
| Gallbladder | Upper pole of right kidney |
| Hepatic flexure of colon | Erector spinae |
| Rectus abdominis m. | Interpolar region of right kidney |
| Ascending colon | Lower pole of right kidney |
| | Quadratus lumborum m. |





Anterior segment of liver,
superior portion (VIII)

Anterior segment of liver,
inferior portion (V)

External oblique m.

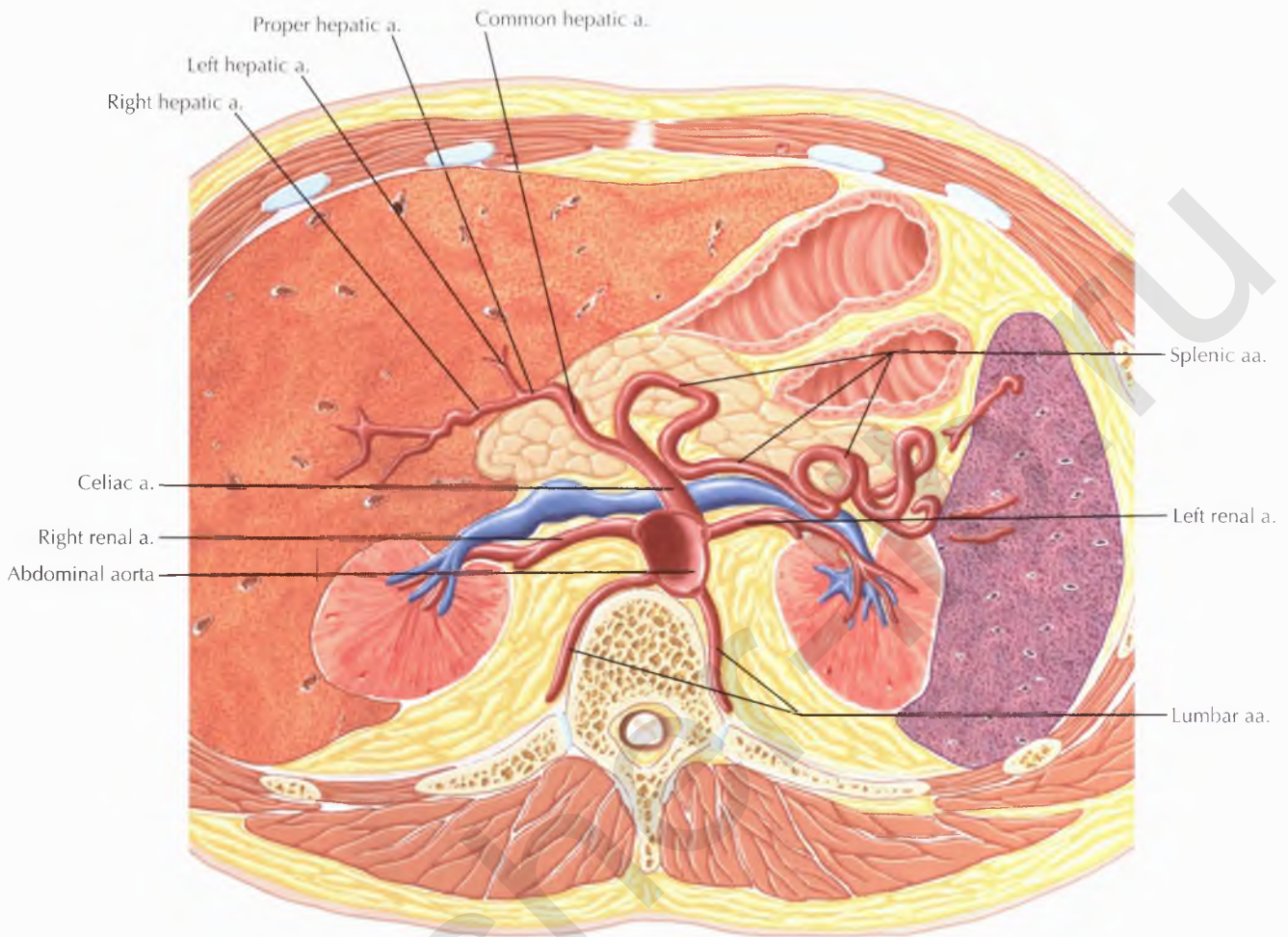
Internal oblique m.

Transversus abdominis m.

Posterior segment of liver,
superior portion (VII)

Latissimus dorsi m.

Posterior segment of liver,
inferior portion (VI)

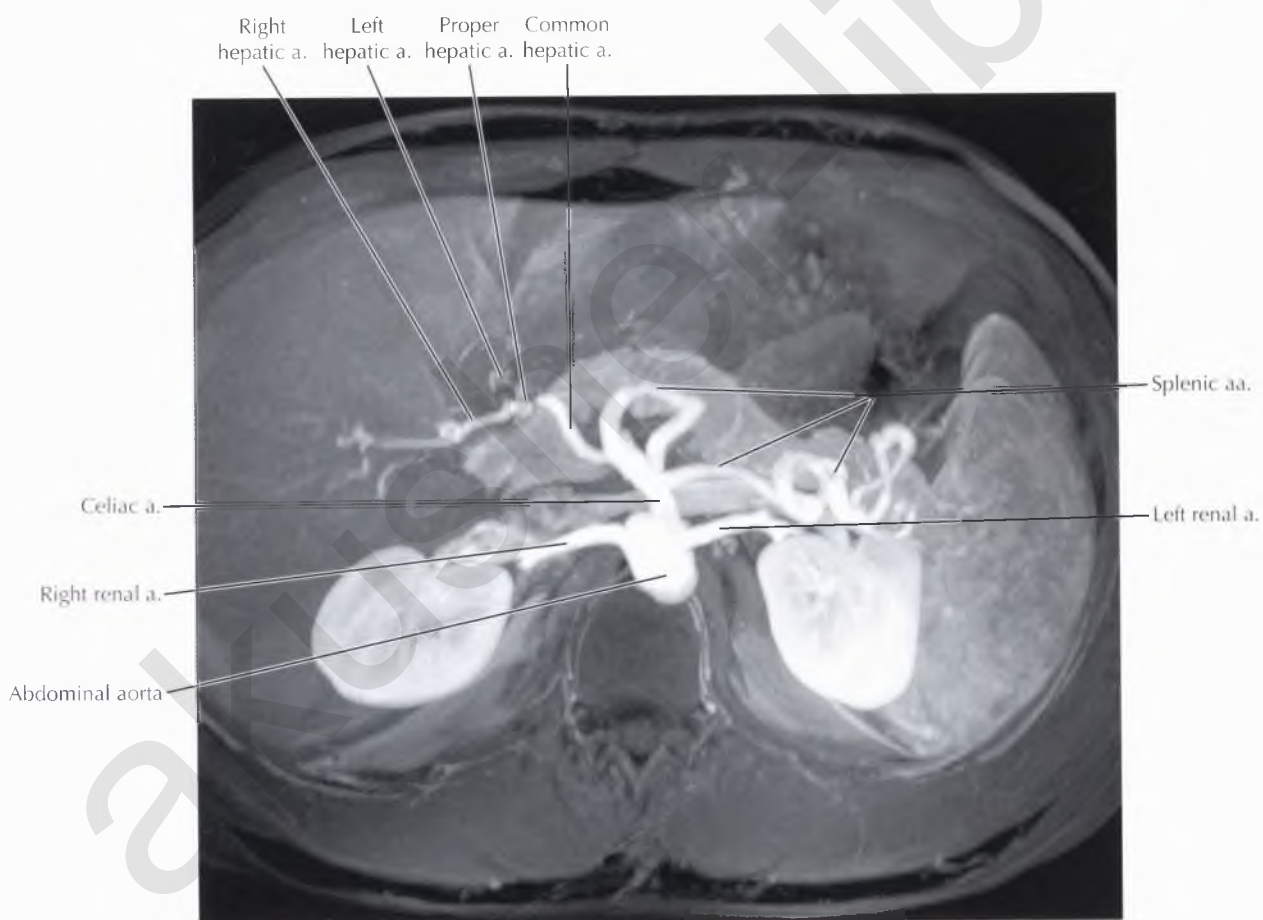
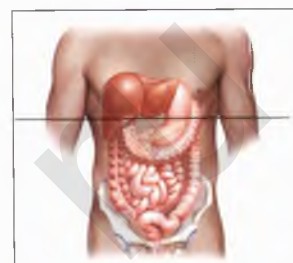


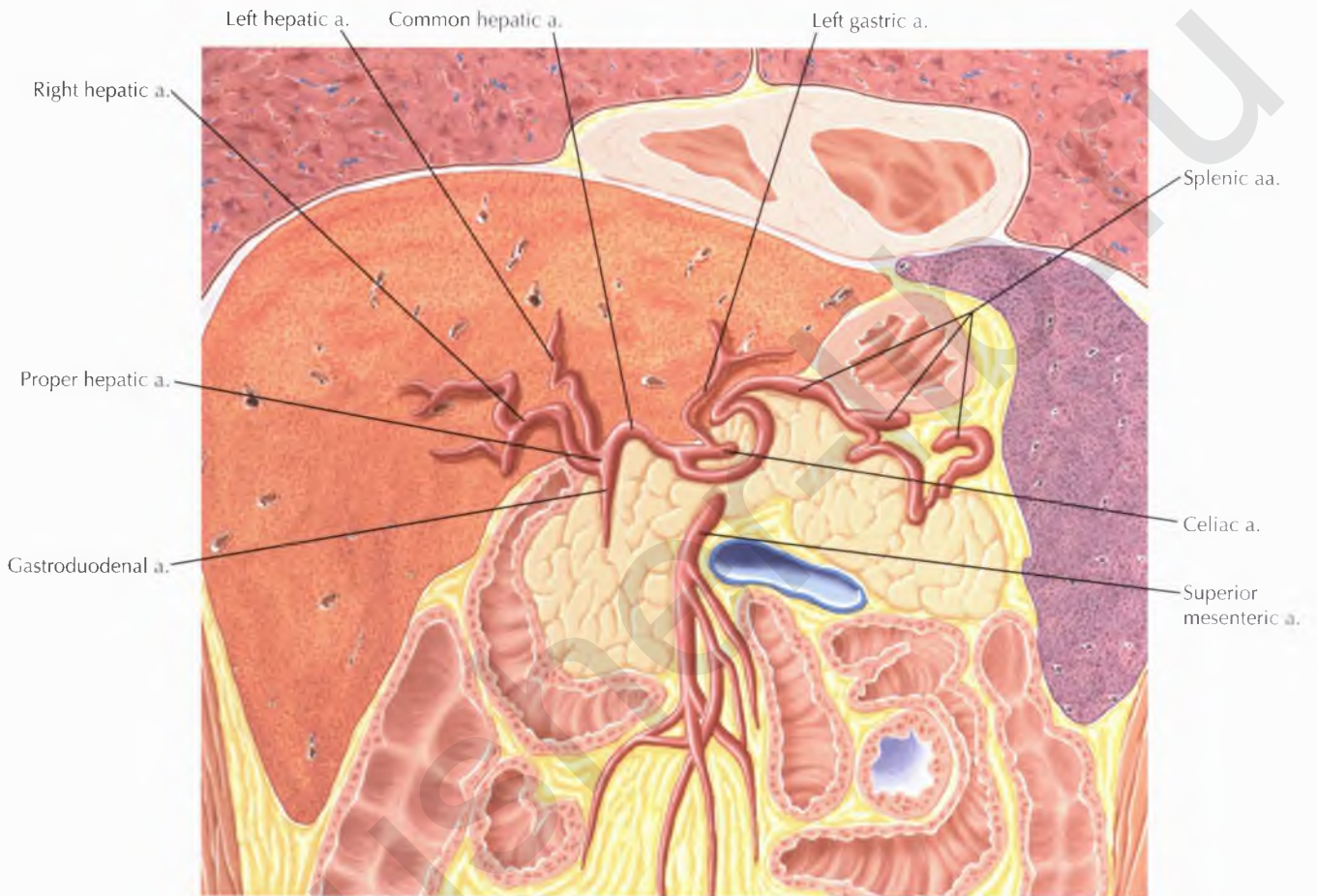
NORMAL ANATOMY

In classic celiac arterial anatomy, the common hepatic artery, left gastric artery, and splenic artery each arise from the celiac axis. The *common hepatic artery* proceeds laterally to the right and becomes the proper hepatic artery after the takeoff of the gastroduodenal artery. The *gastroduodenal artery* proceeds caudally to supply the gastric pylorus, proximal duodenum, and portions of the pancreas. The *proper hepatic artery* classically branches into the left and right hepatic arteries. The right gastric artery has a variable origin from the hepatic artery. The cystic artery to the gallbladder usually arises from the right hepatic artery.

NORMAL VARIANTS

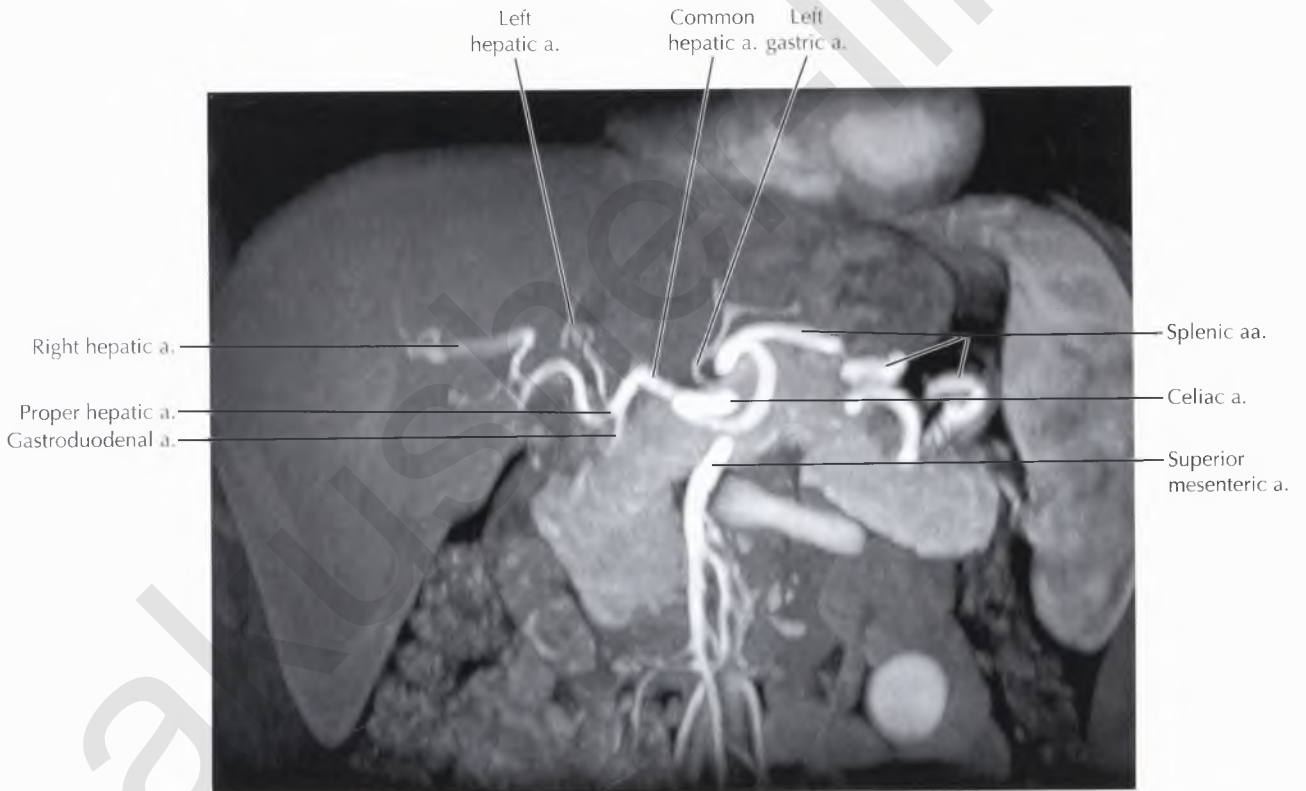
The many hepatic arterial variants include *replaced* right and left hepatic arteries, which arise from arteries other than the proper hepatic artery, and *accessory* right and left hepatic arteries, which also arise from arteries other than the proper hepatic artery, in addition to the presence of the usual right and left hepatic arteries arising from the proper hepatic artery. The most common variants include a *replaced right hepatic artery* arising from the SMA, seen in about 20% of patients, and a *replaced left hepatic artery* arising from the left gastric artery, seen in approximately 15% of patients.

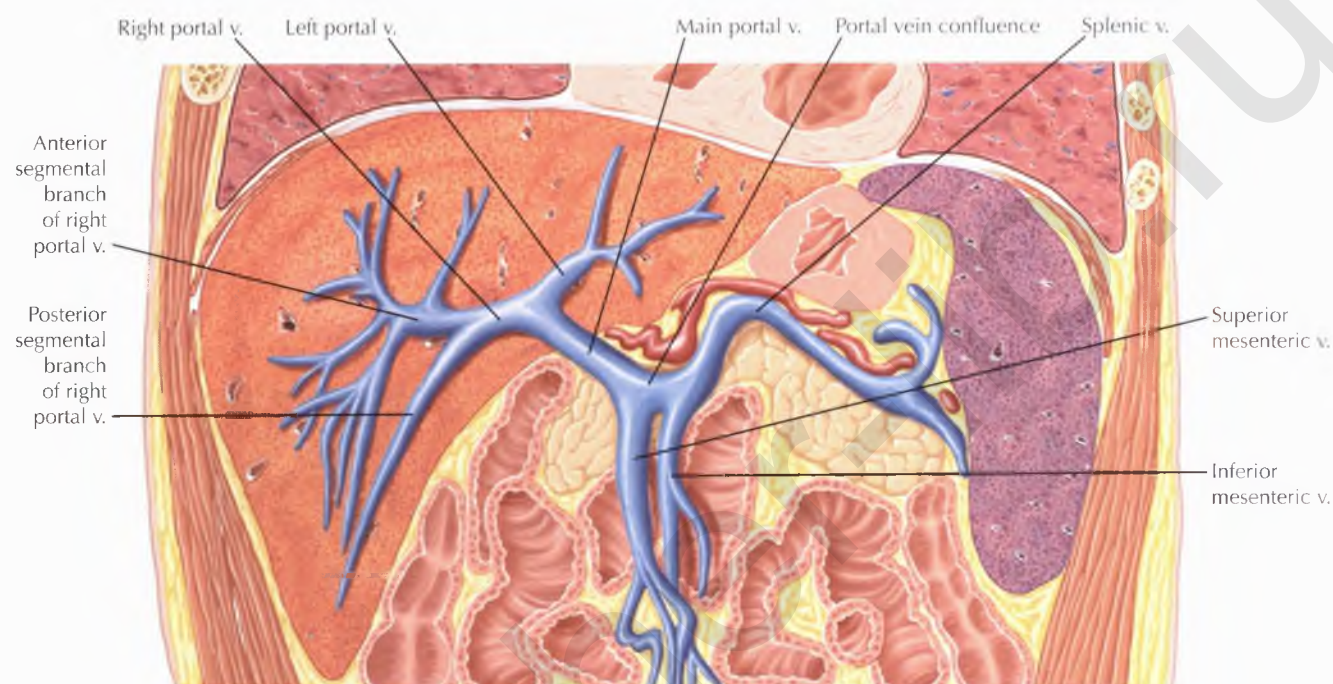




DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

Contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance angiography (MRA) of the abdomen is often performed to characterize mesenteric artery stenosis in the setting of chronic mesenteric ischemia. MRI findings include stenosis or occlusion of at least two of the three visceral arteries—celiac artery, superior mesenteric artery (SMA), and inferior mesenteric artery (IMA)—along with visualization of collateral circulation through the pancreaticoduodenal arcade (celiac artery to SMA), arc of Riolan (SMA to IMA), or marginal artery of Drummond (SMA to IMA).

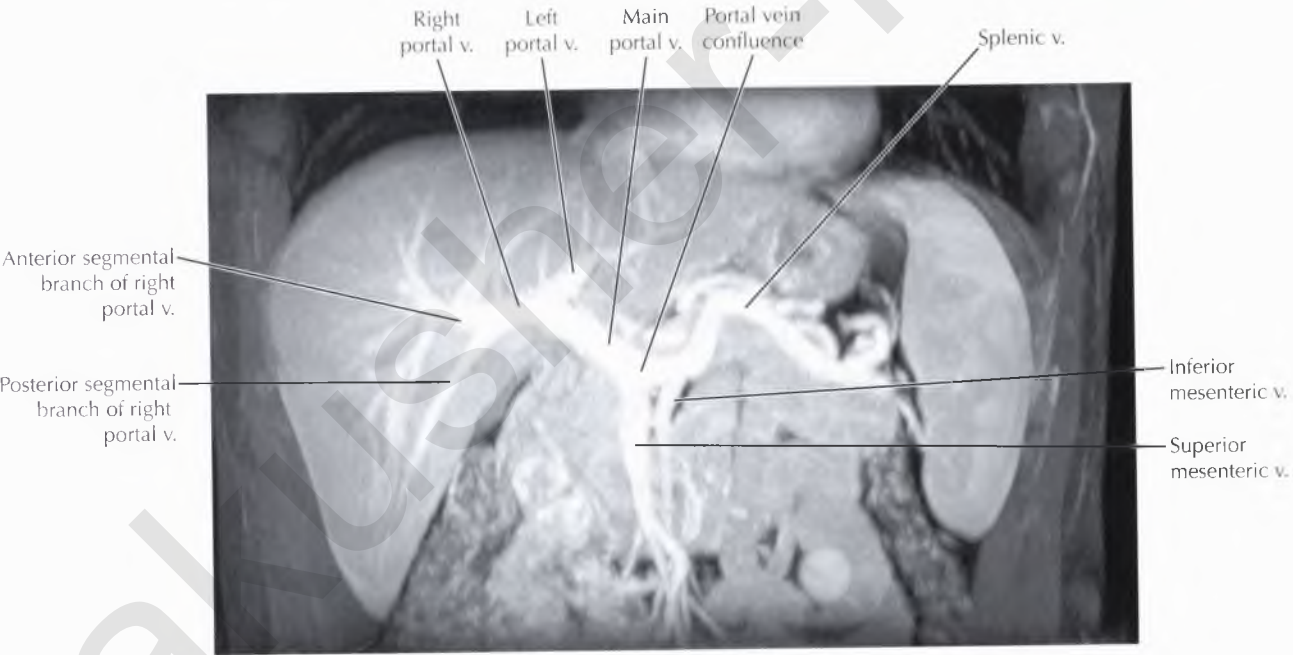
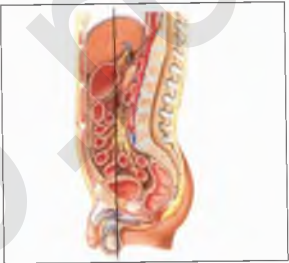


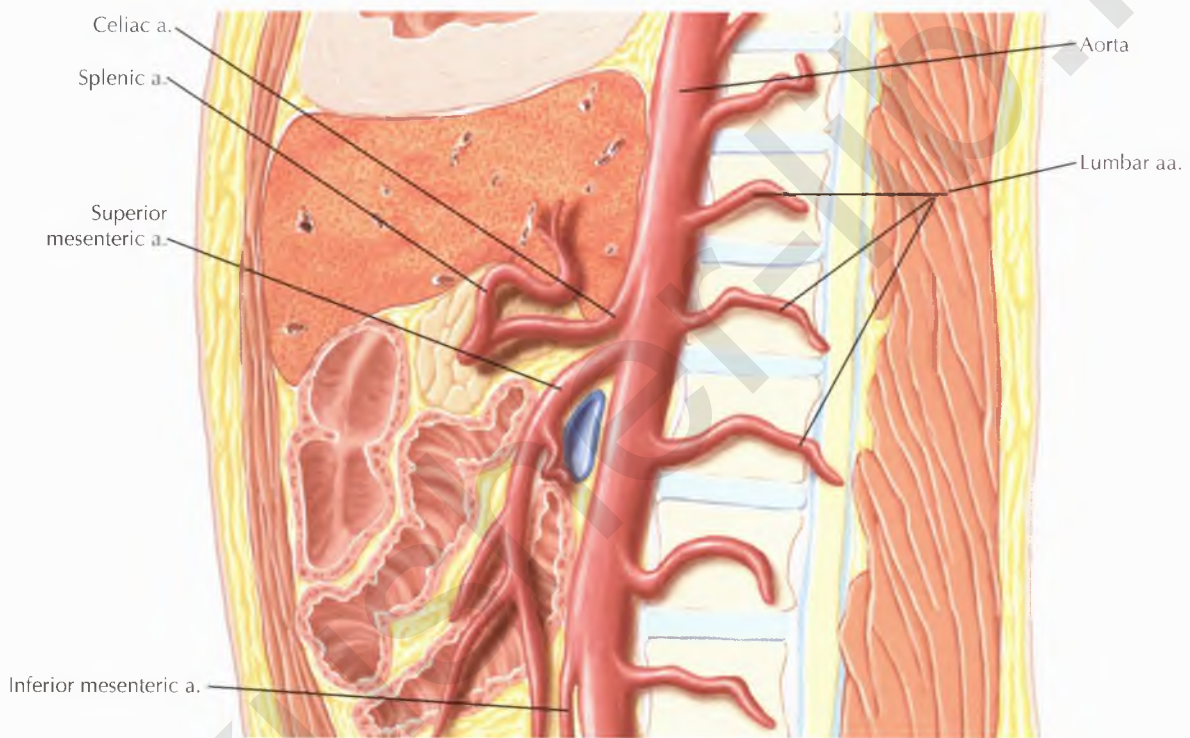


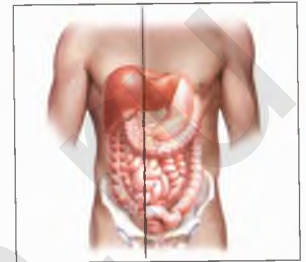
NORMAL ANATOMY

The main portal vein forms from the confluence of the superior mesenteric vein (SMV) and the splenic vein, posterior to the pancreatic neck. The inferior mesenteric vein (IMV) joins the splenic vein along its inferior aspect just before the portal vein confluence.

The main portal vein courses toward the liver within the hepatoduodenal ligament and divides into left and right portal veins near the liver hilum. The left portal vein divides into segmental branches supplying segments II, III, IVa, and IVb of the left hepatic lobe. The right portal vein divides into anterior and posterior segmental branches, then subdivides into branches supplying segments V and VIII anteriorly and segments VI and VII posteriorly. Portal vein inflow to the caudate lobe of the liver (segment I) usually arises from the left portal vein, but inflow is highly variable and may arise from the main portal vein directly or from the right portal vein.



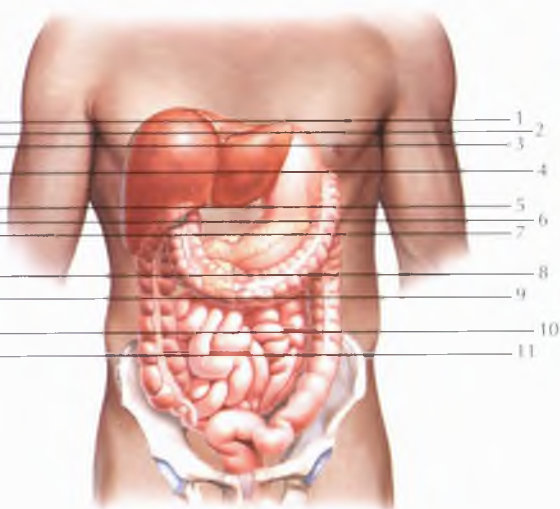




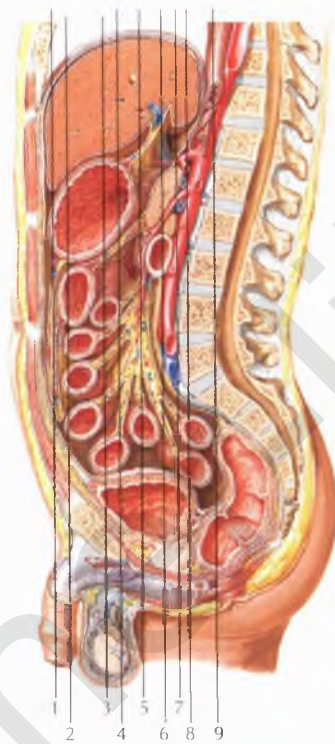
Chapter

3

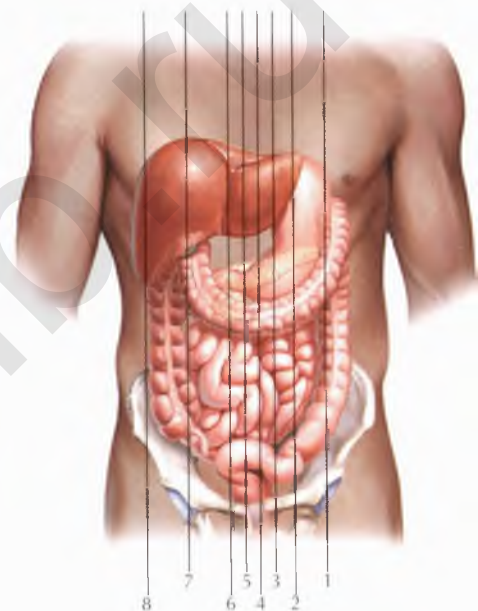
PERITONEAL CAVITY



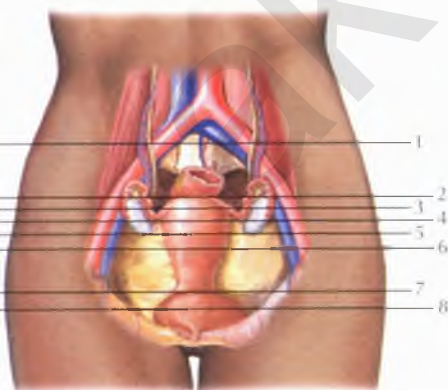
ABDOMEN AXIAL 110



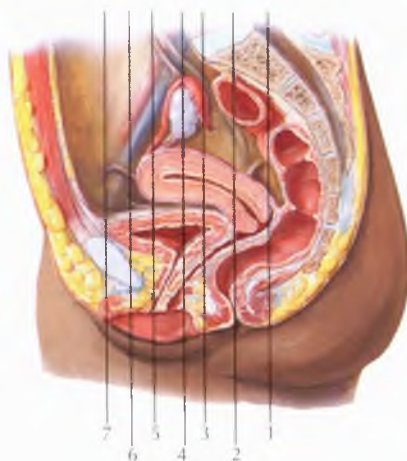
ABDOMEN CORONAL 132



ABDOMEN SAGITTAL 150



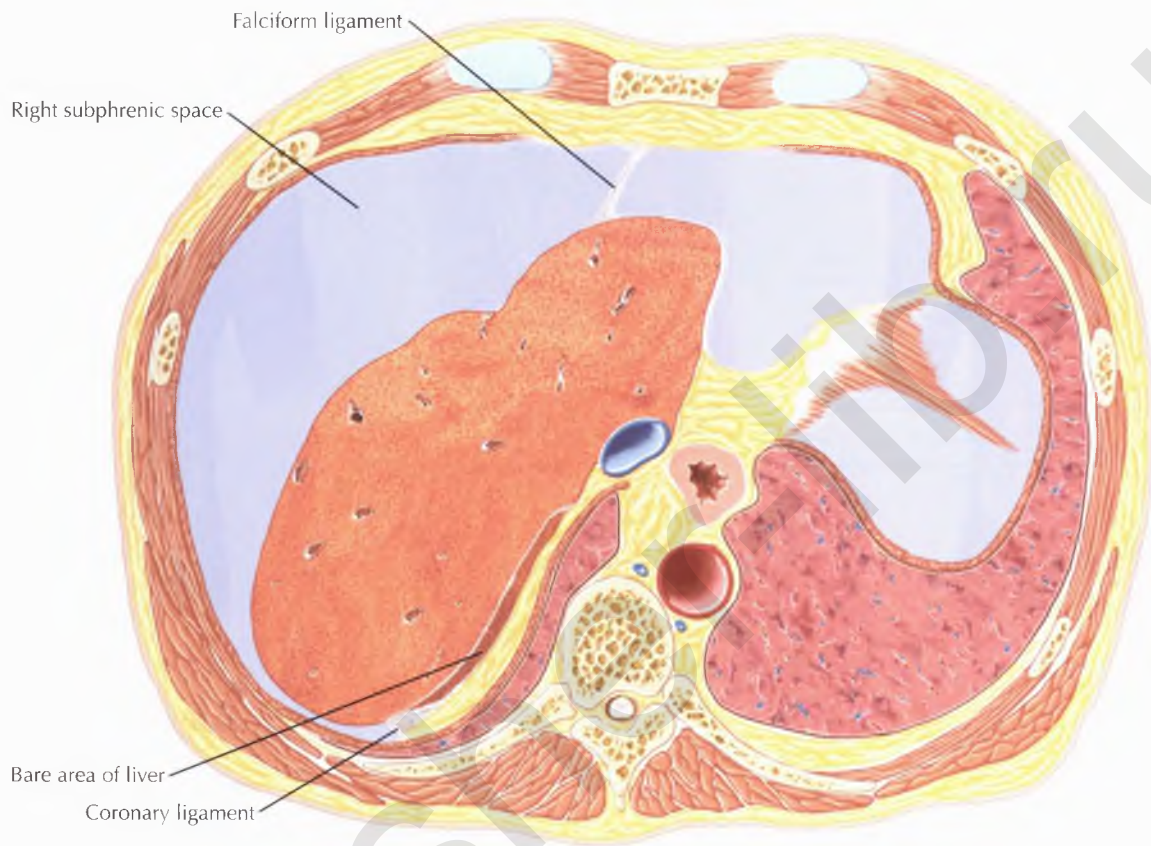
PELVIS AXIAL 166



PELVIS CORONAL 182



PELVIS SAGITTAL 190

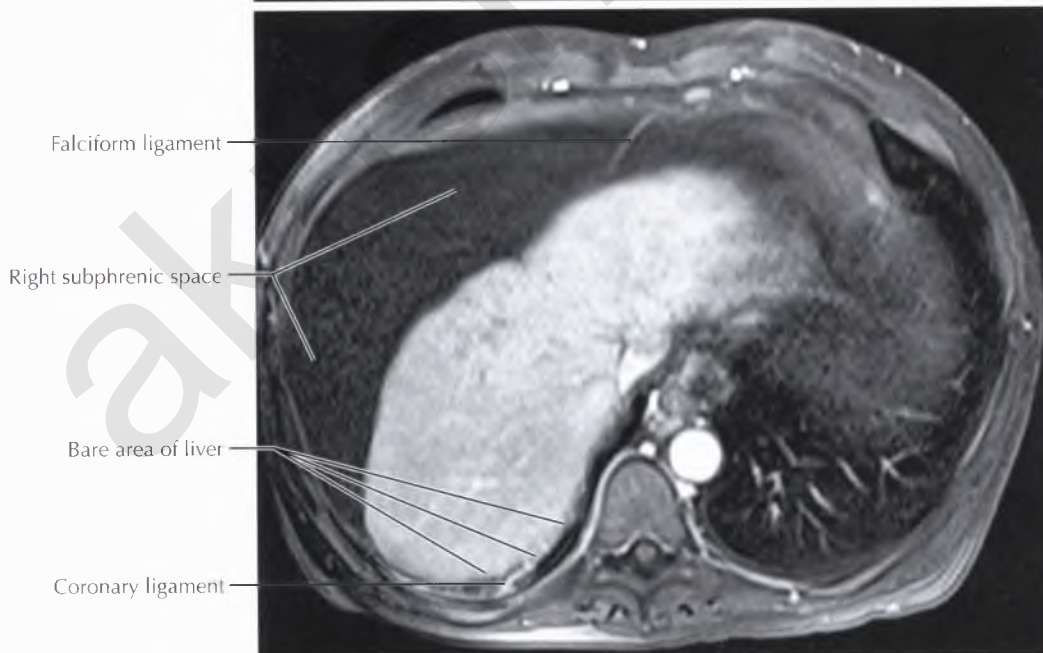
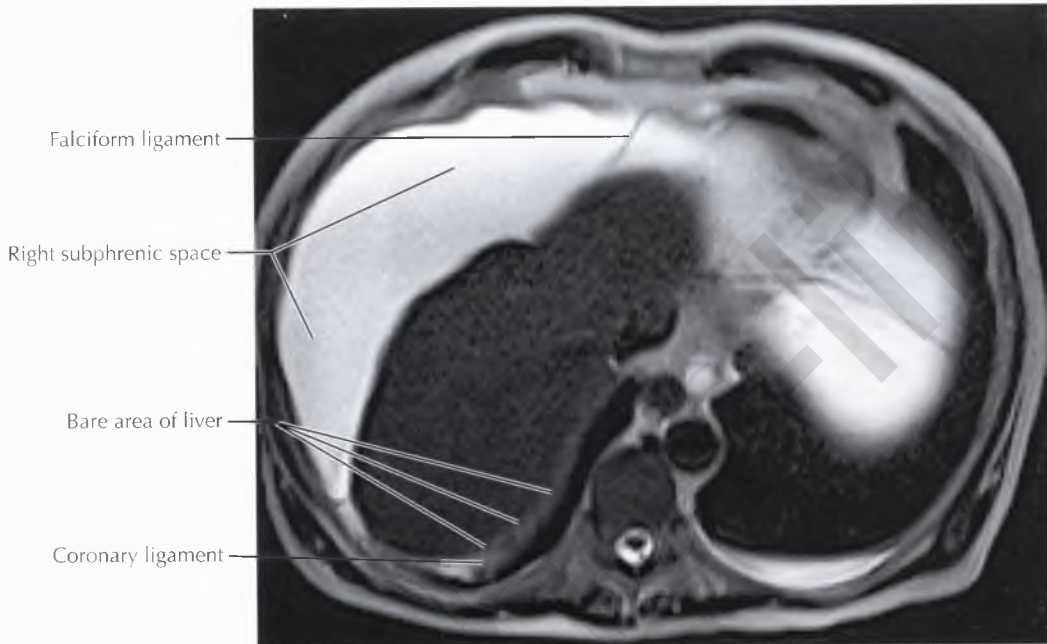
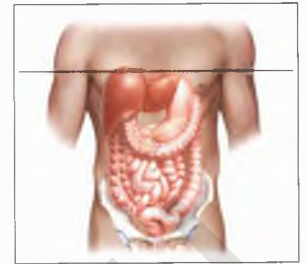


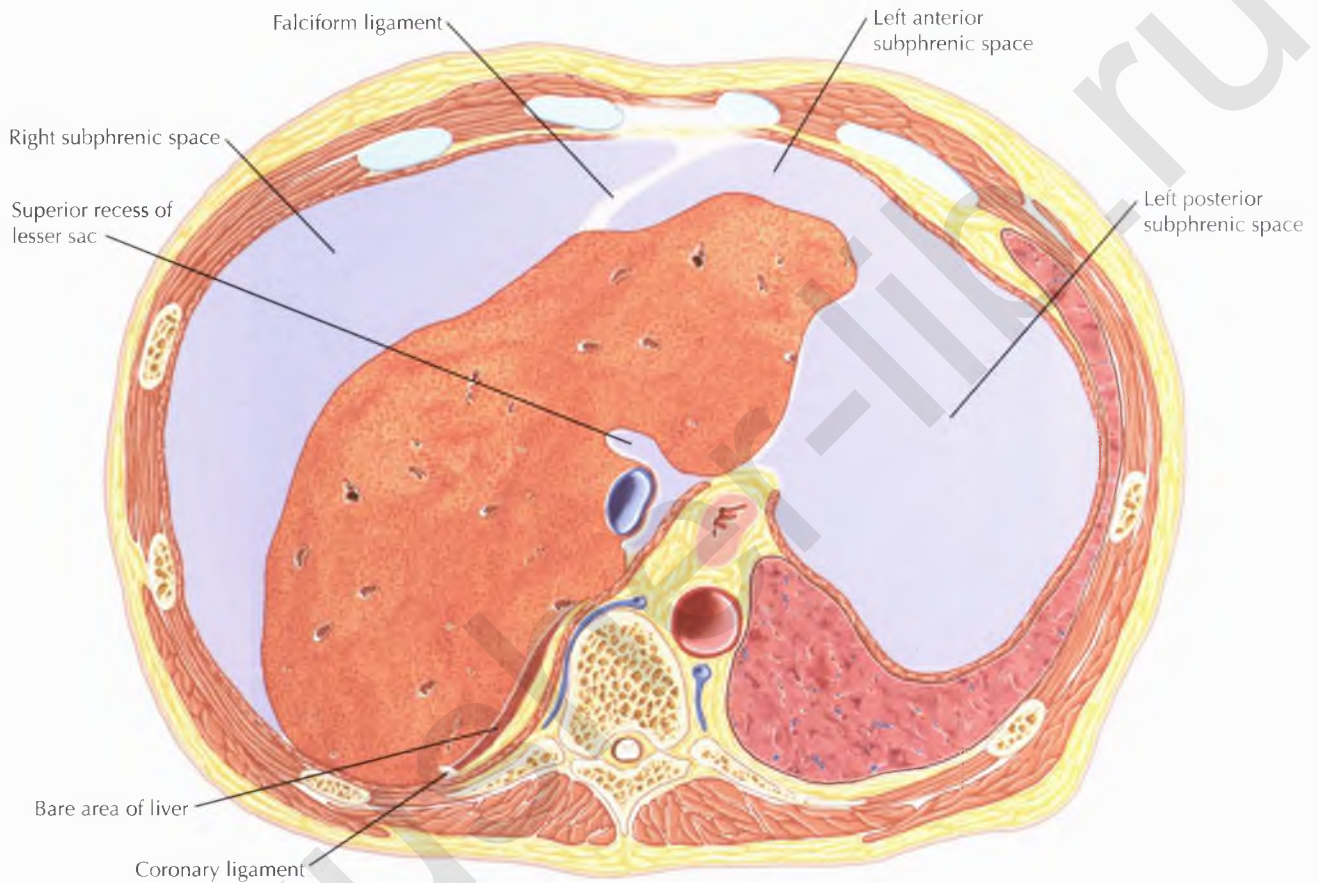
NORMAL ANATOMY

The abdominal peritoneal cavity can be divided by the transverse mesocolon into the supra-mesocolic and inframesocolic compartments. The *supramesocolic* compartment can be subdivided into the subphrenic spaces, subhepatic spaces, and lesser sac; the *inframesocolic* compartment can be subdivided into the intracolic and paracolic spaces. The *greater sac* of the abdominal peritoneal cavity comprises the subphrenic, subhepatic, intracolic, and paracolic spaces.

PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

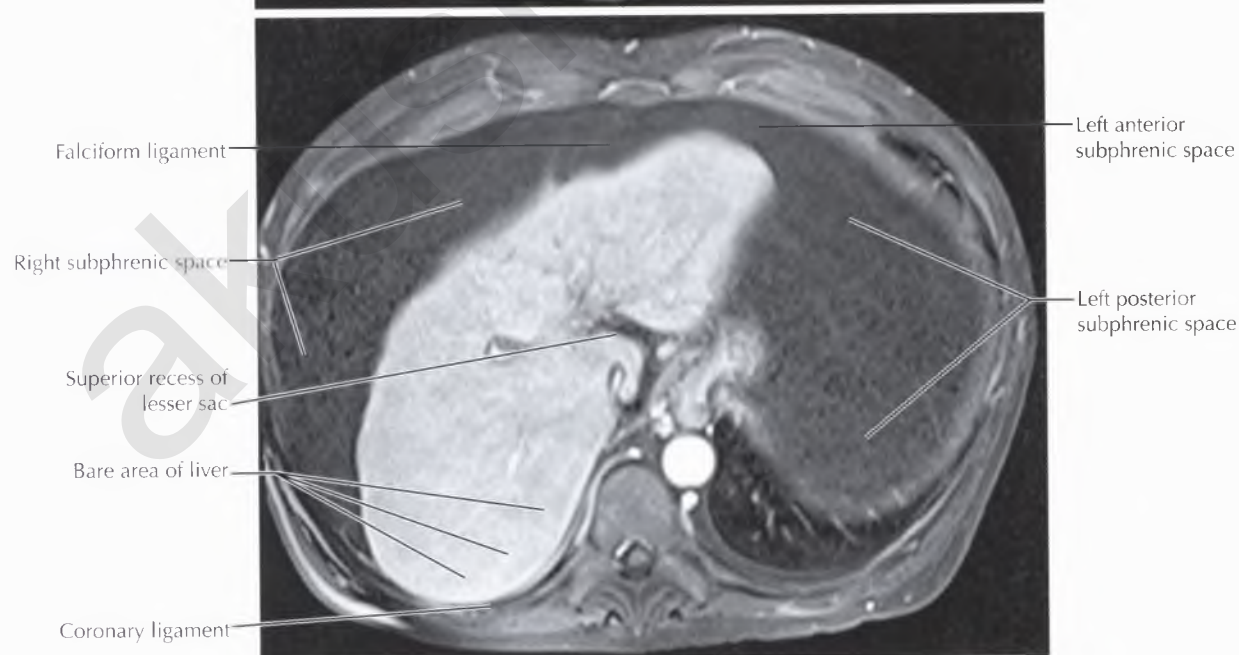
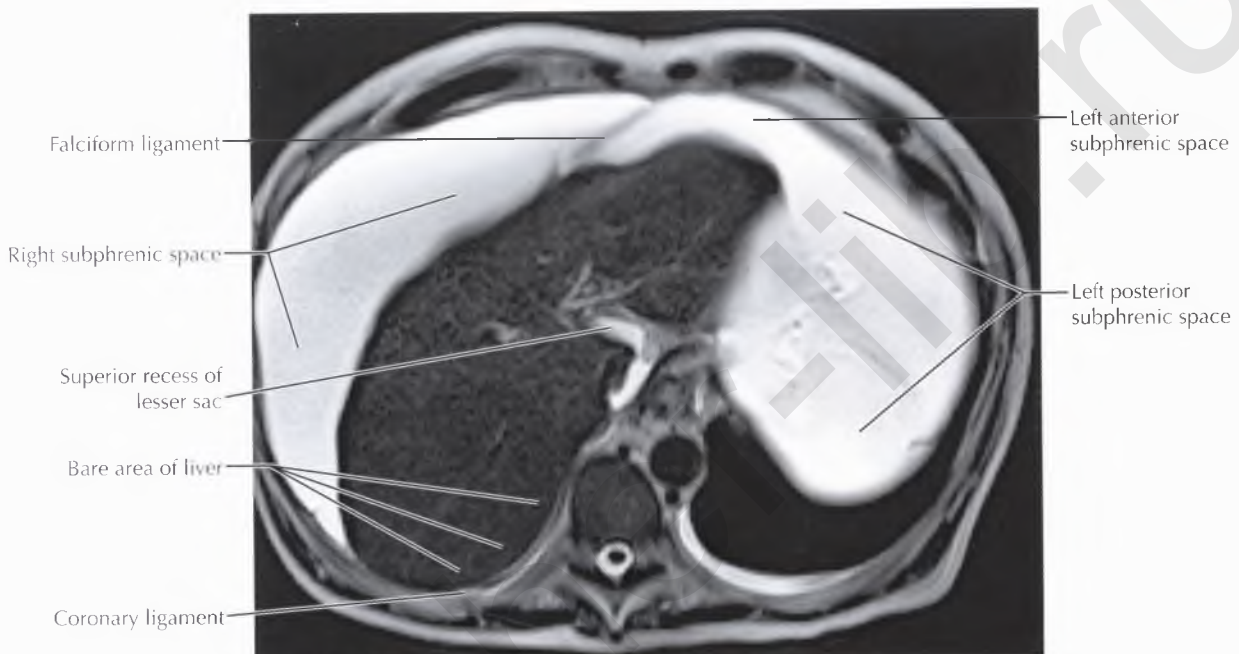
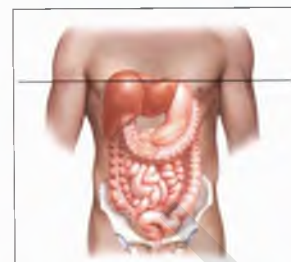
The spaces in the peritoneal cavity are best demonstrated in patients with *ascites*, which distends the potential space of the peritoneal cavity and outlines the peritoneal reflections, peritoneal ligaments, mesenteries, and omenta, as demonstrated in this example.

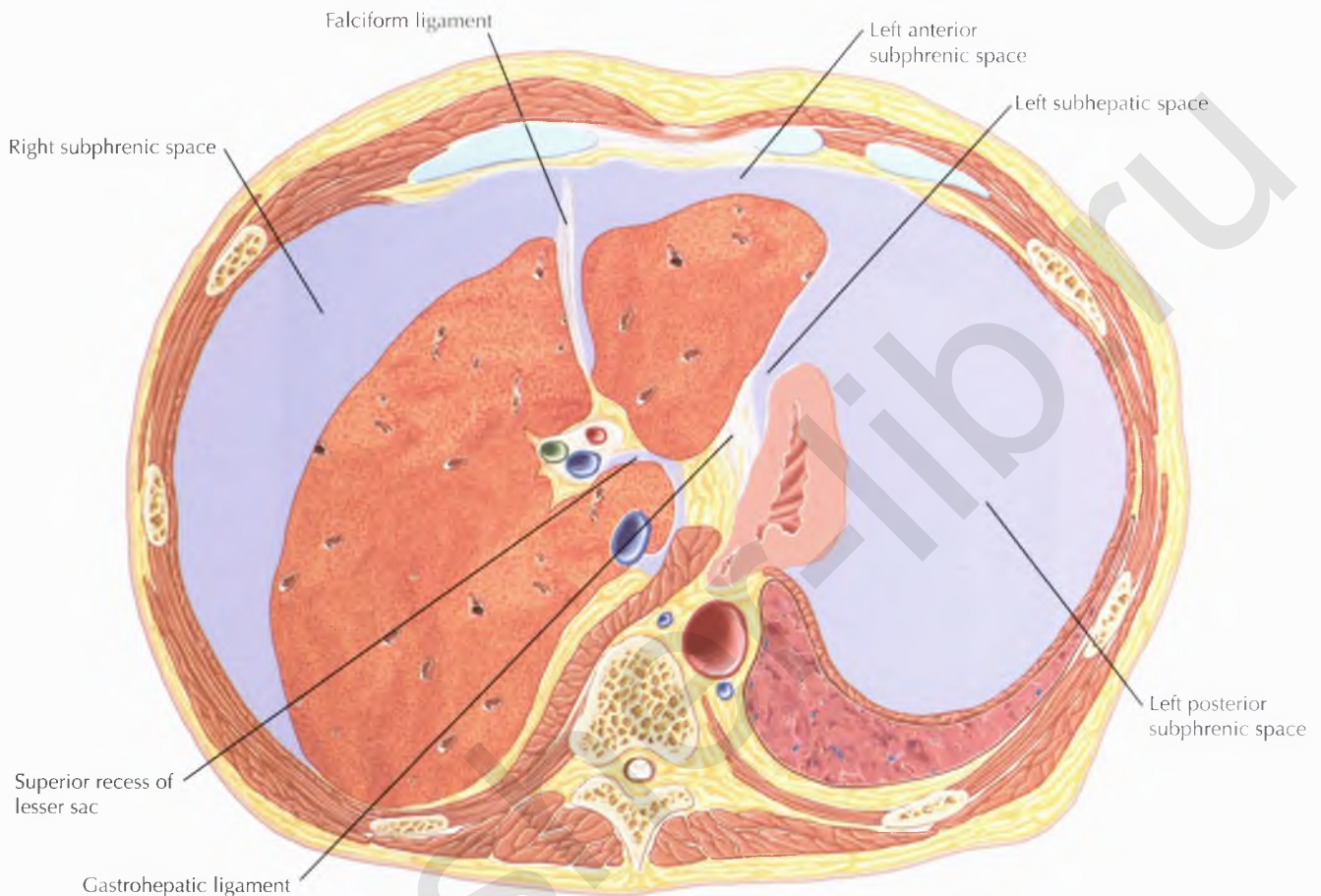




NORMAL ANATOMY

The *right subphrenic space* is bounded by the falciform ligament anteromedially and the right coronary ligament posteriorly. Posteromedial to the right coronary ligament is the *bare area of the liver*, the nonperitonealized attachment of the liver to the diaphragm, where peritoneal ascites is excluded. The bare area of the liver is continuous with the retroperitoneum.



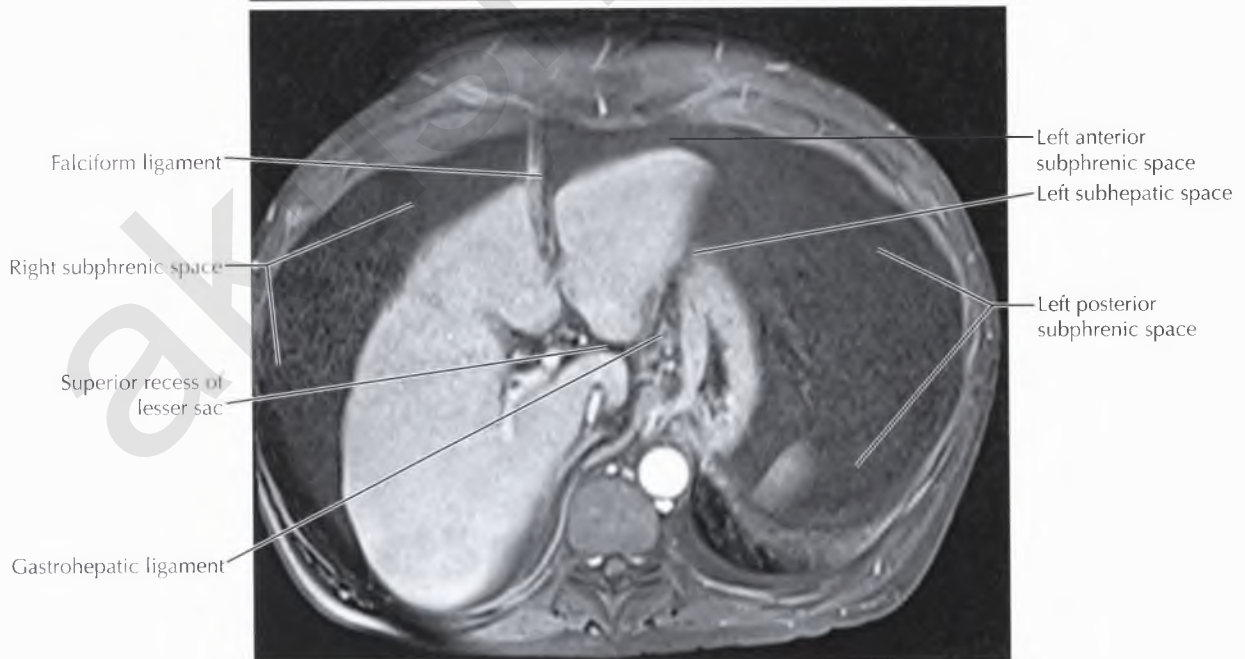
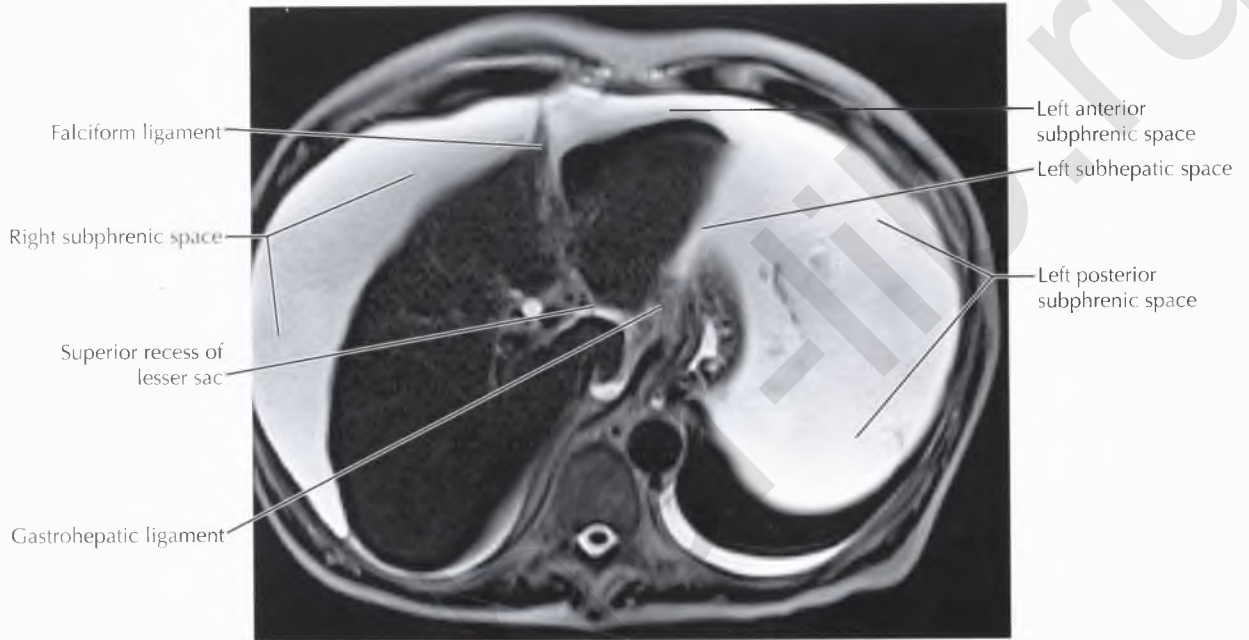


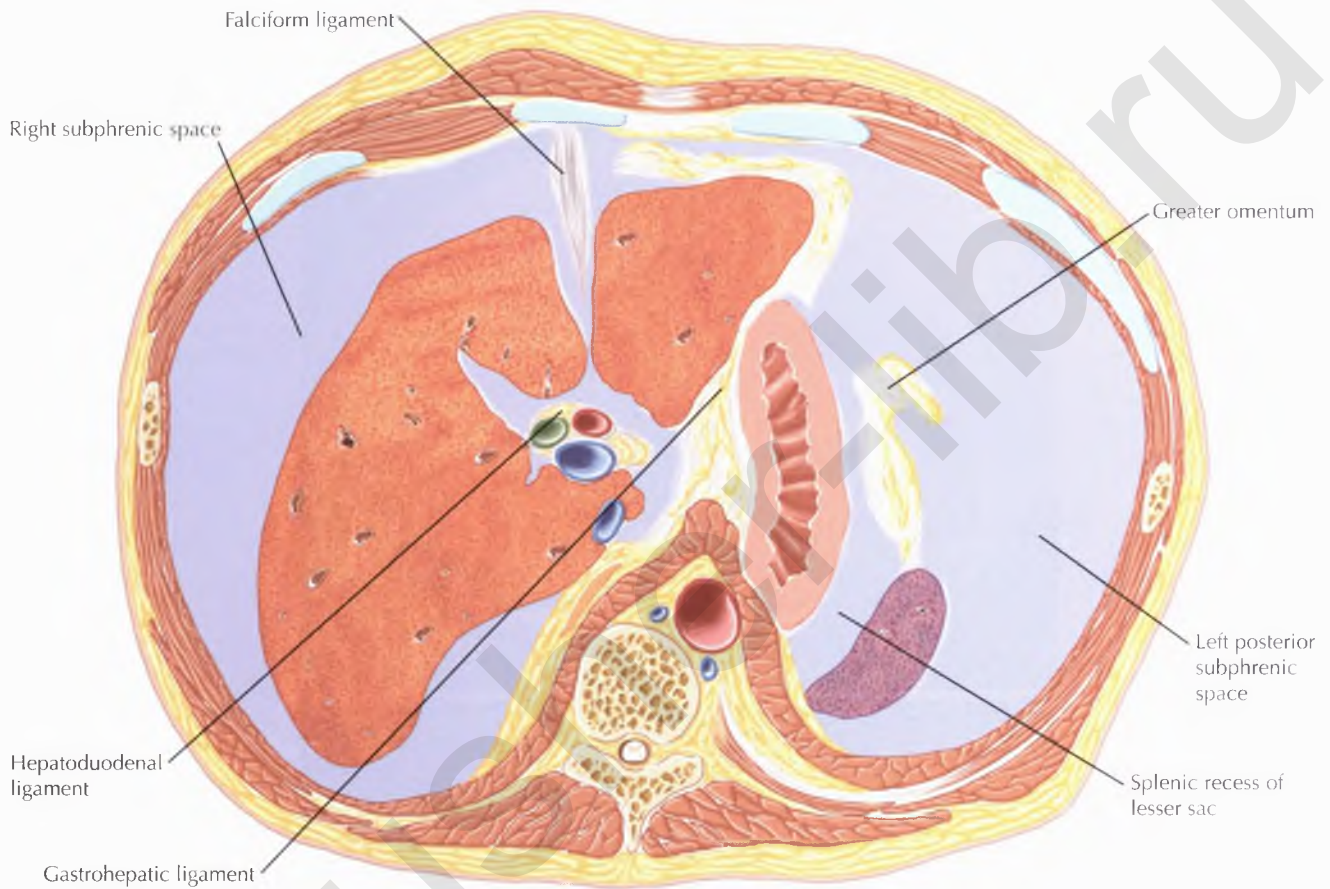
NORMAL ANATOMY

The *left anterior subphrenic space* extends from the falciform ligament anteromedially to surround the anterior left hepatic lobe and anterior gastric wall deep to the diaphragm. The inferior portion of this space, located between the left hepatic lobe posteriorly and the diaphragm anteriorly, may be considered a separate space, called the *left anterior perihepatic space*, which is bounded posteriorly by the left coronary ligament. The *left posterior subphrenic space* completely envelops the spleen and is also known as the “*perisplenic space*.”

The *left subhepatic space*, also known as the “*left posterior perihepatic space*” or “*gastrohepatic recess*,” is located between the lateral segment of the liver anteriorly and the stomach posteriorly, to the left of the gastrohepatic ligament.

The superior recess of the lesser sac is also seen at this level, adjacent to the caudate lobe of the liver (segment I).

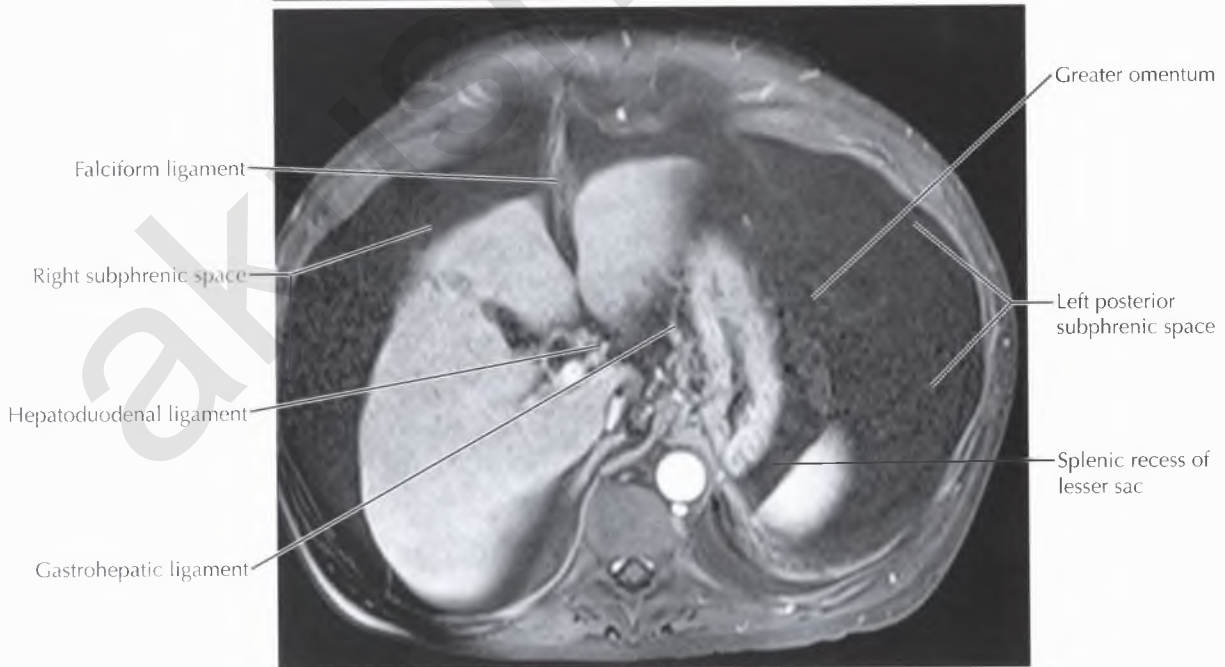
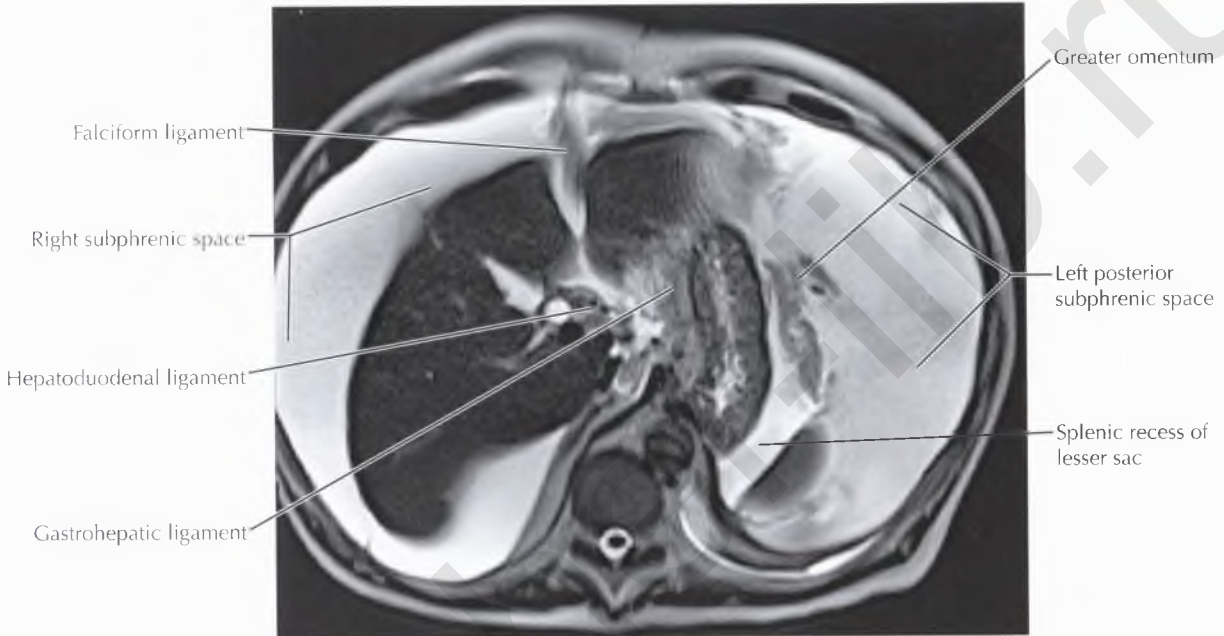
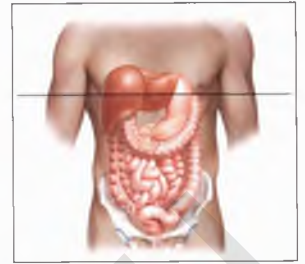


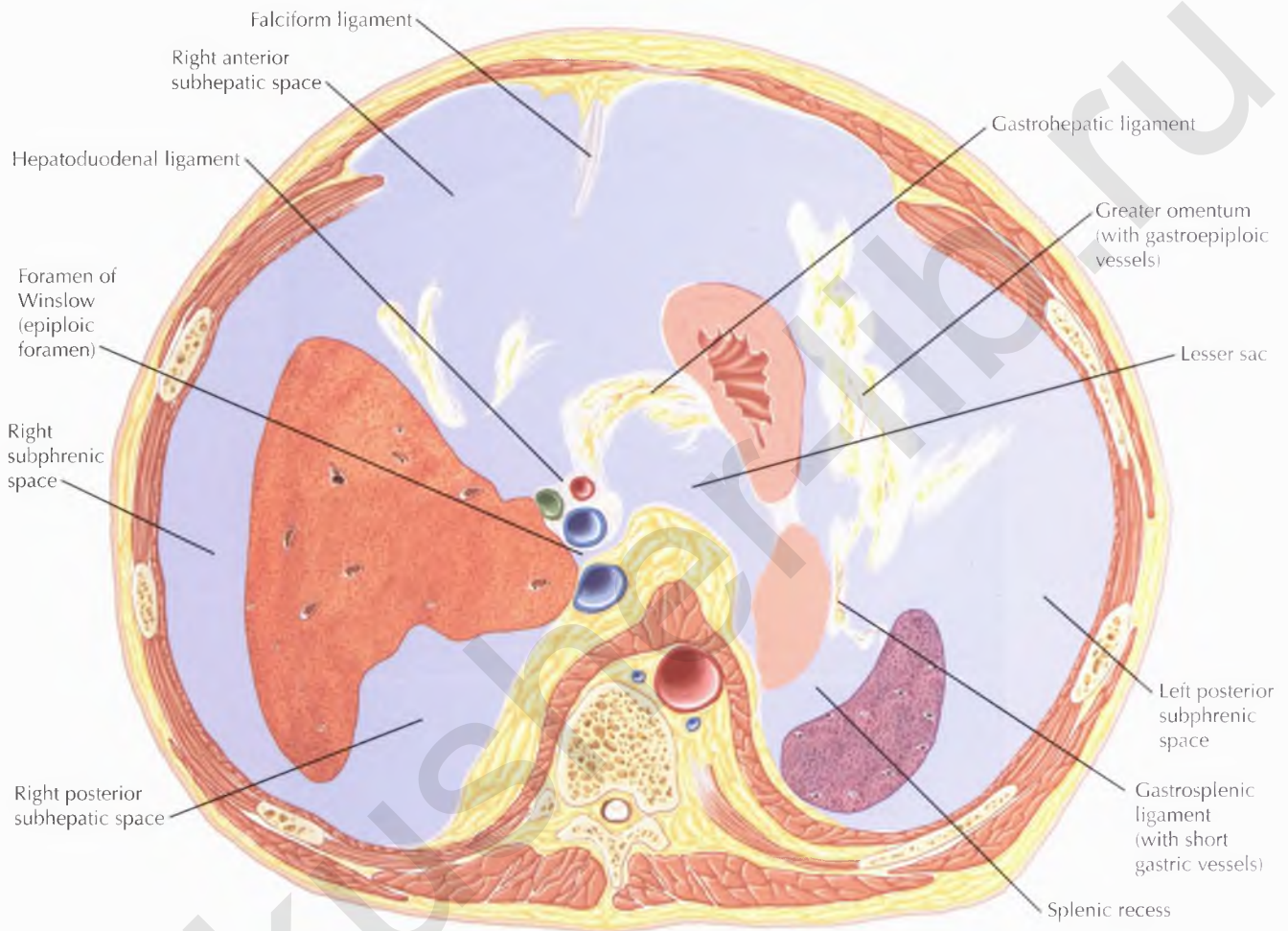


NORMAL ANATOMY

The hepatoduodenal and gastrohepatic ligaments form the lesser omentum (peritoneal fold) and can be seen at this level. The *gastrohepatic ligament* can be found by locating the left gastric artery, which runs within the ligament. The coronary vein also runs within the gastrohepatic ligament.

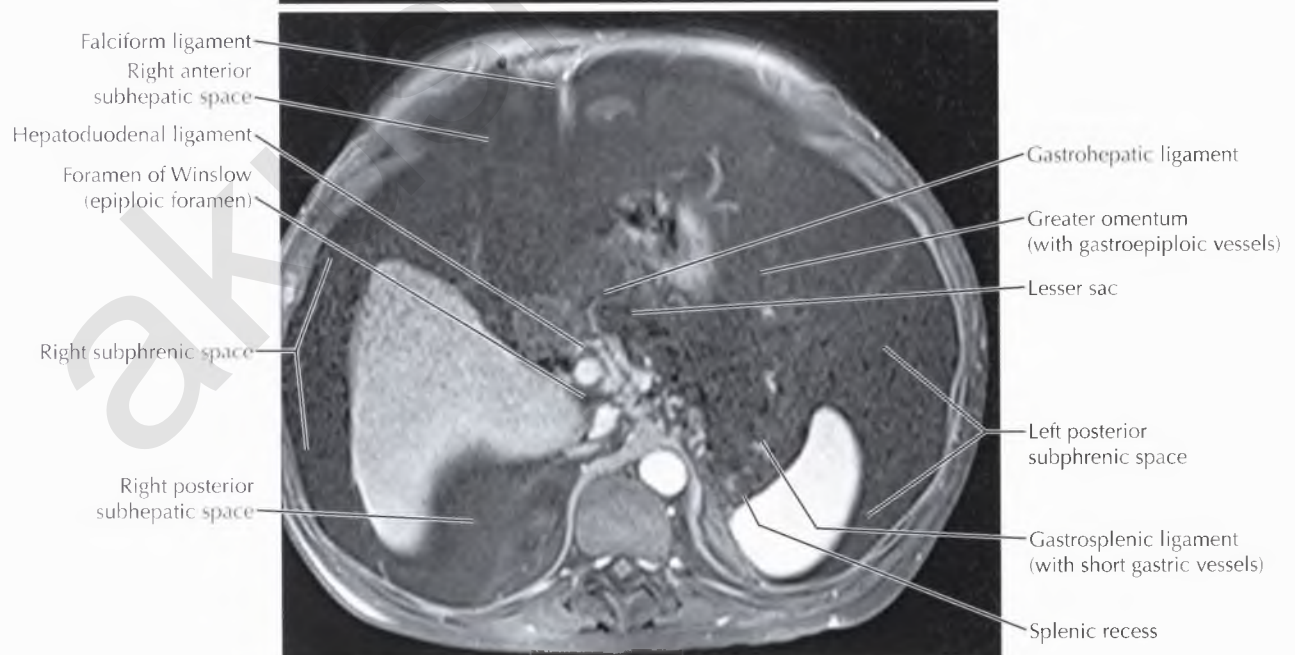
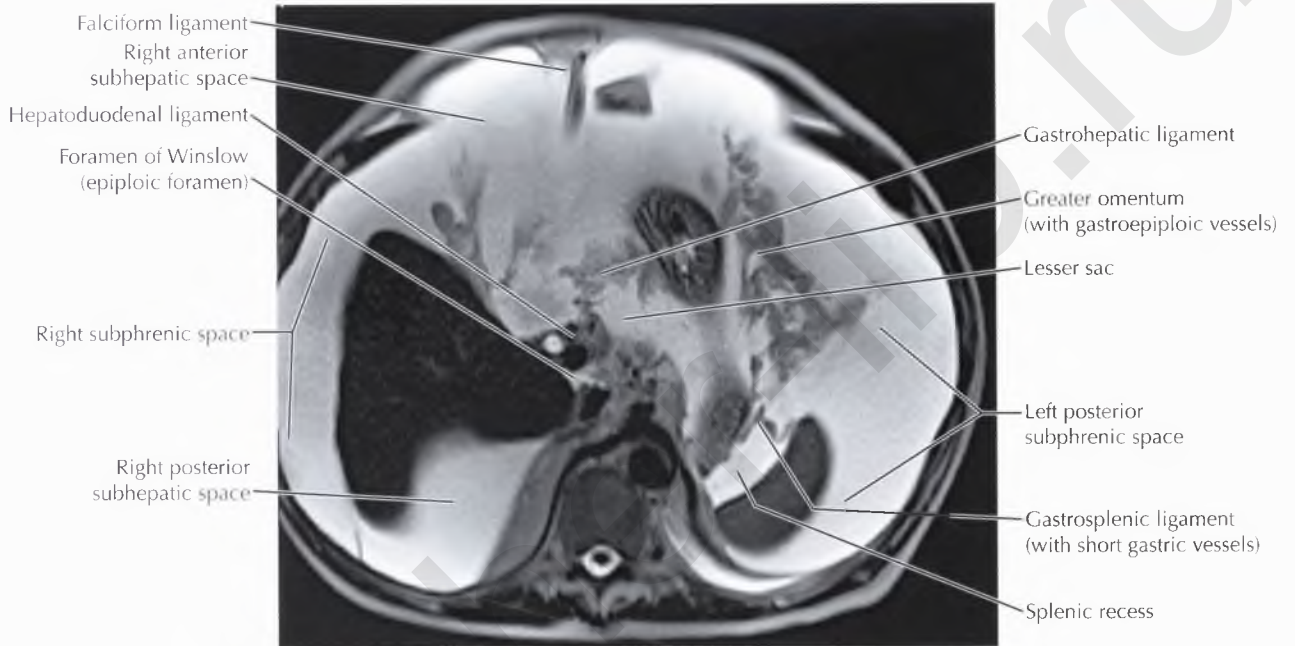
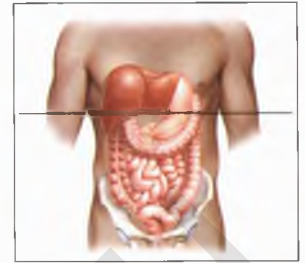
The *splenic recess* of the lesser sac is also seen at this level, between the gastric fundus and spleen.

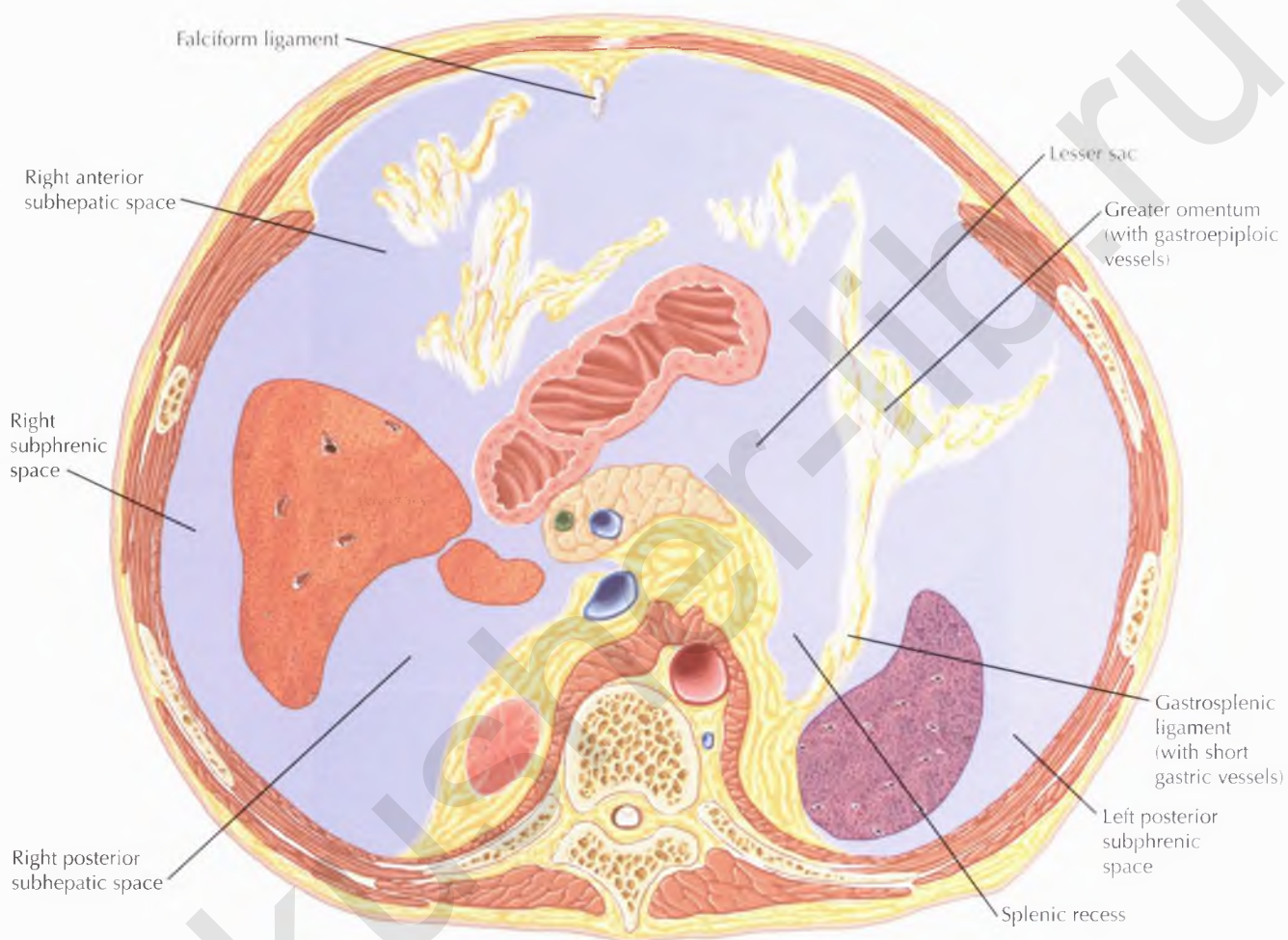




NORMAL ANATOMY

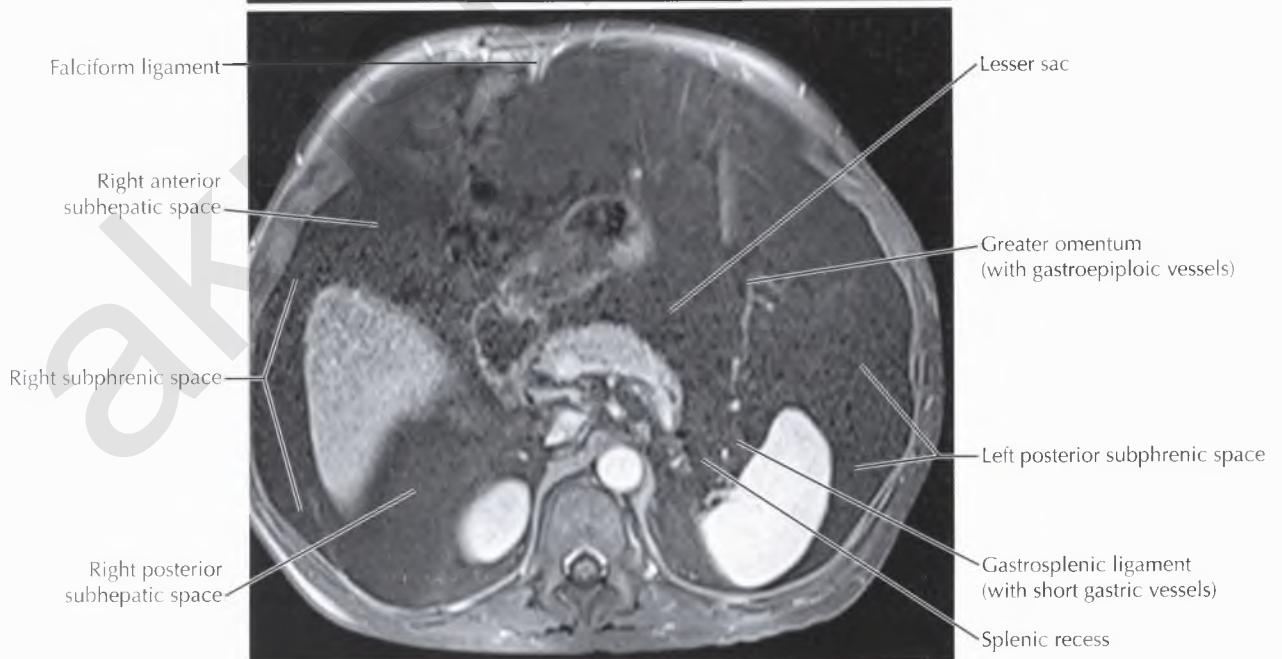
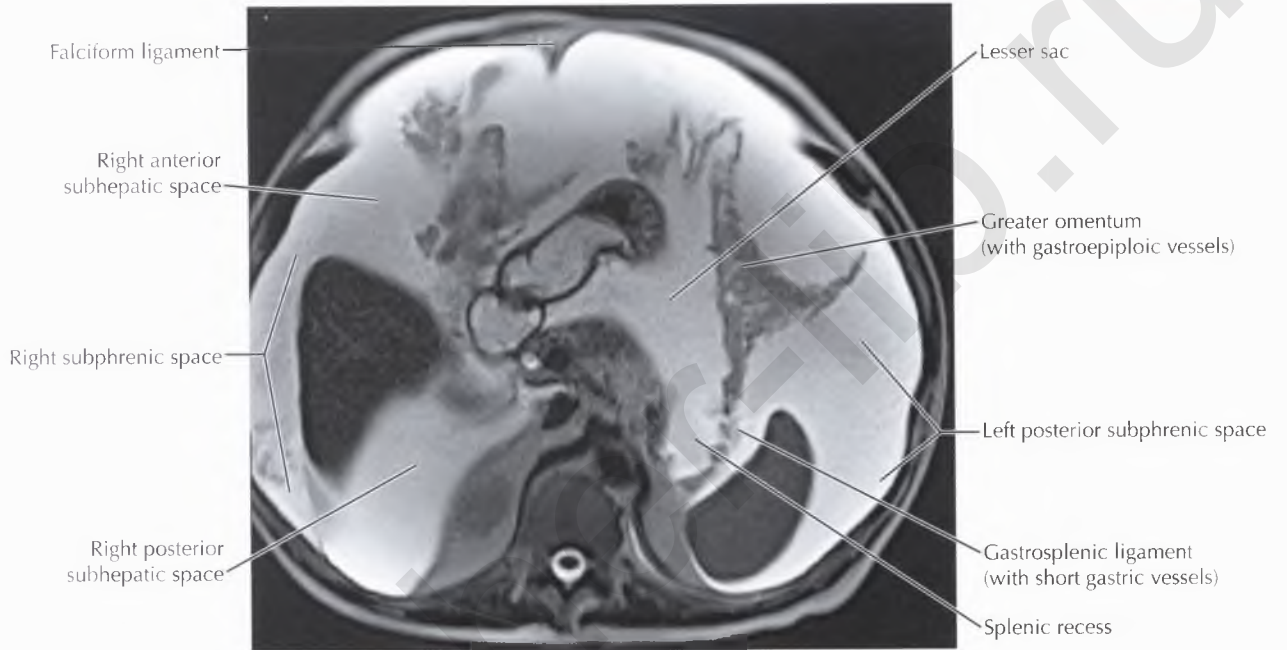
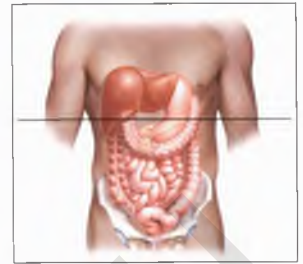
The *hepatoduodenal ligament* extends from the porta hepatis to the duodenum and contains the proper hepatic artery, main portal vein, and common bile duct. The hepatoduodenal ligament forms the anterior margin of the foramen of Winslow, also known as the *epiploic foramen*, which is the communication between the lesser and greater sacs.

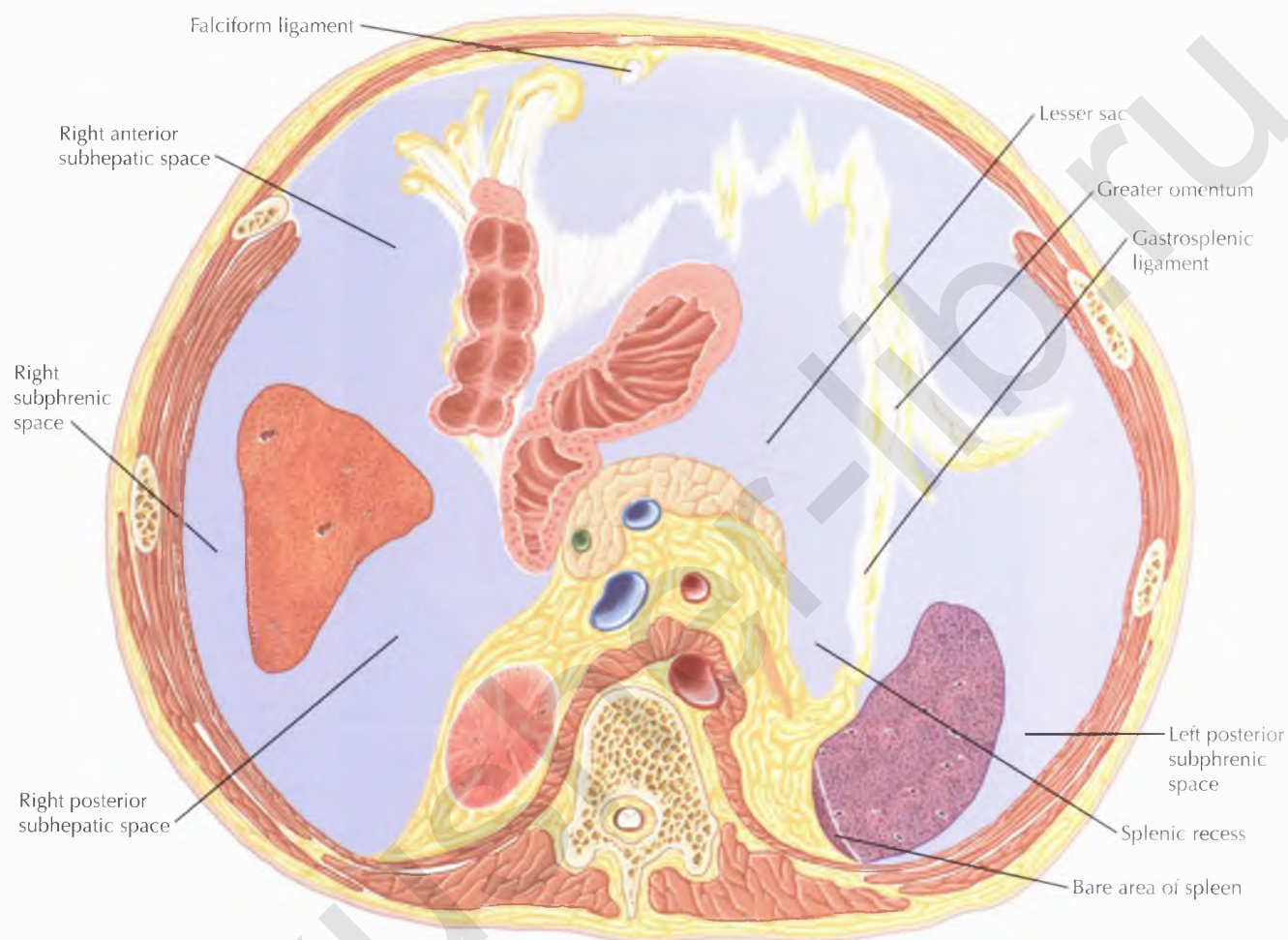




NORMAL ANATOMY

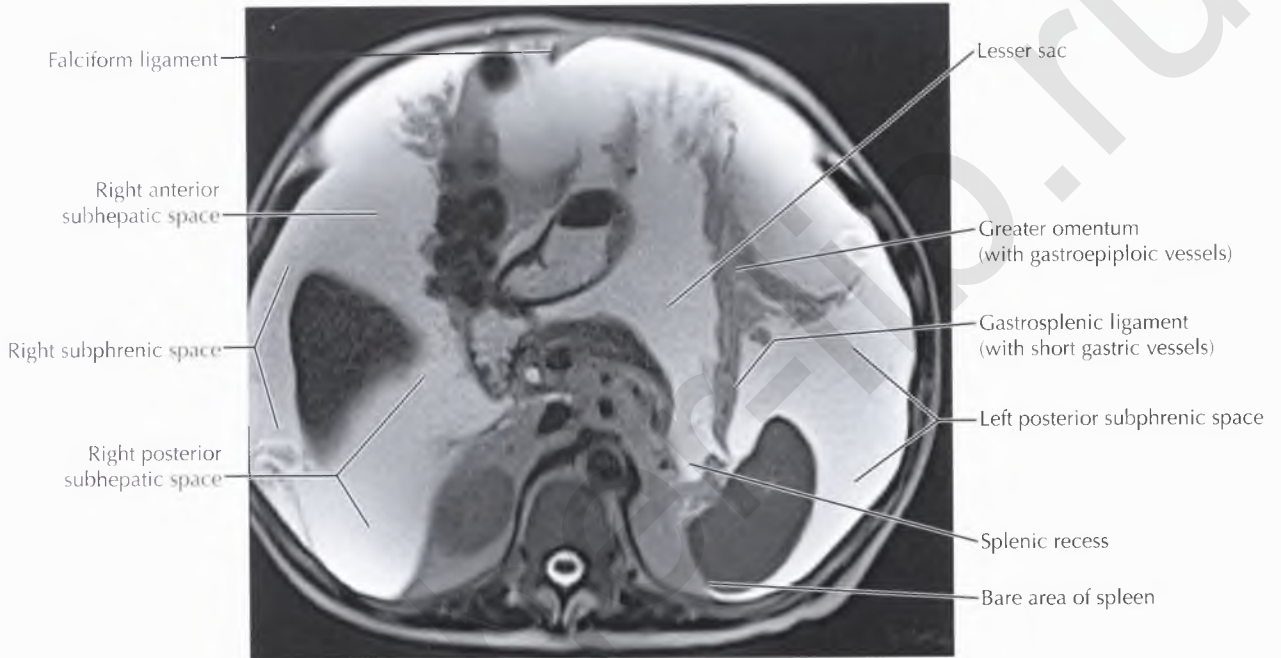
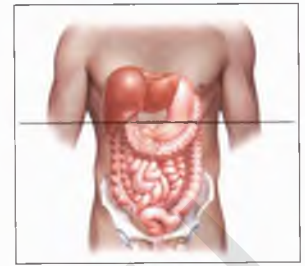
The *lesser sac* is bounded by the pancreas posteriorly, the stomach and gastrohepatic ligament anteriorly, and the gastrosplenic ligament and greater omentum laterally. Note that the gastrosplenic ligament is a part of the greater omentum.

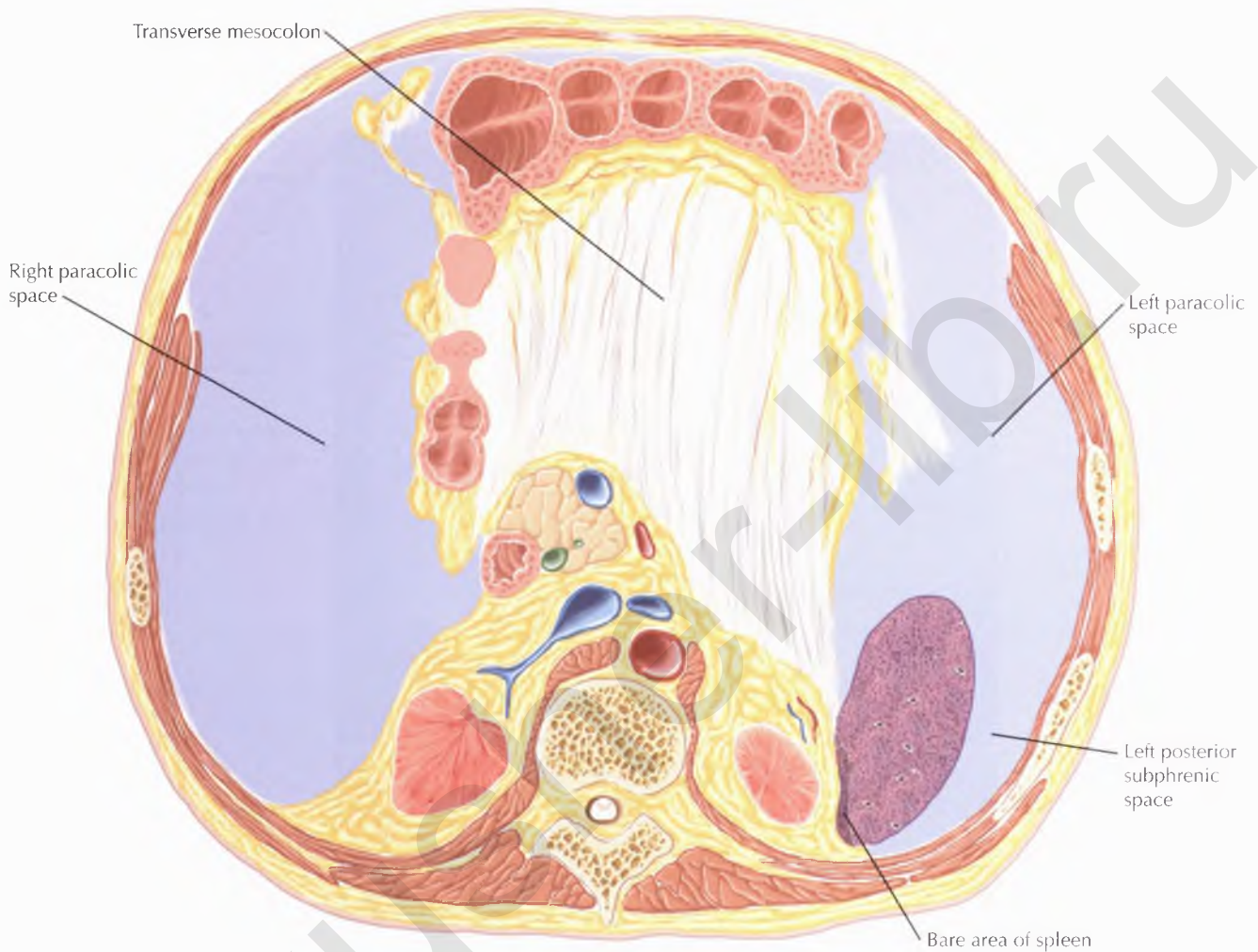




NORMAL ANATOMY

The *right subhepatic space* (with anterior and posterior portions) is bounded superiorly by the inferior right lobe of the liver and is continuous with the right subphrenic space and right paracolic space. The *right posterior subhepatic space*, also known as *Morison's pouch* or the *hepatorenal space*, is seen between the posterior right hepatic lobe and the right kidney, and is the most dependent portion of the abdominal peritoneal cavity in the supine position. As such, this space is a common location for peritoneal fluid to accumulate.

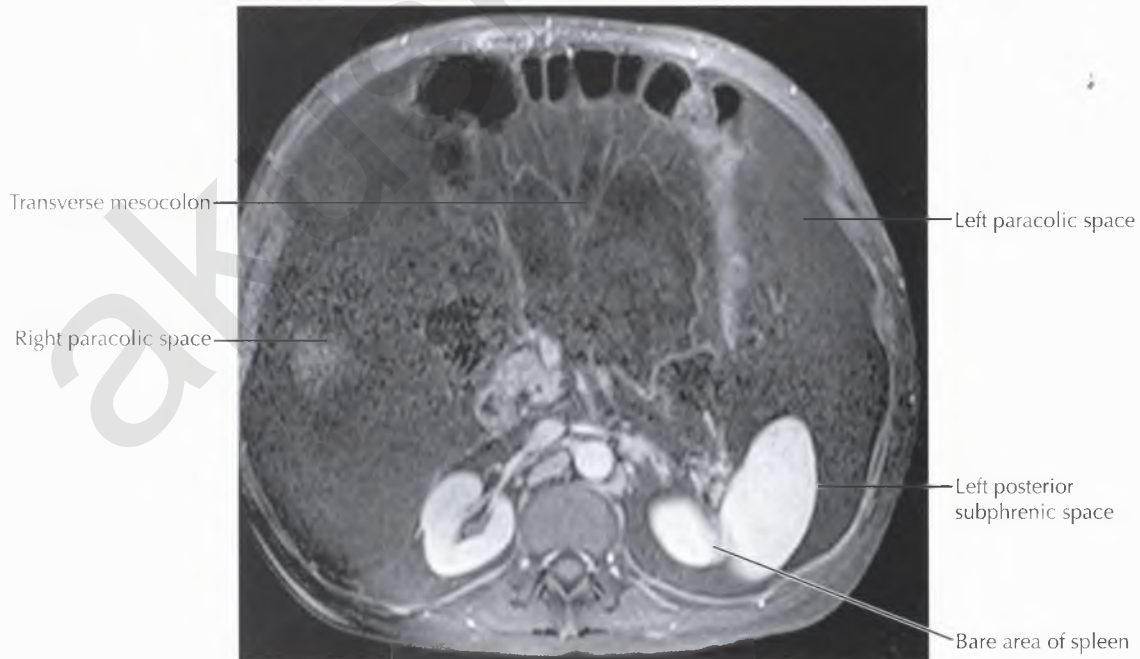
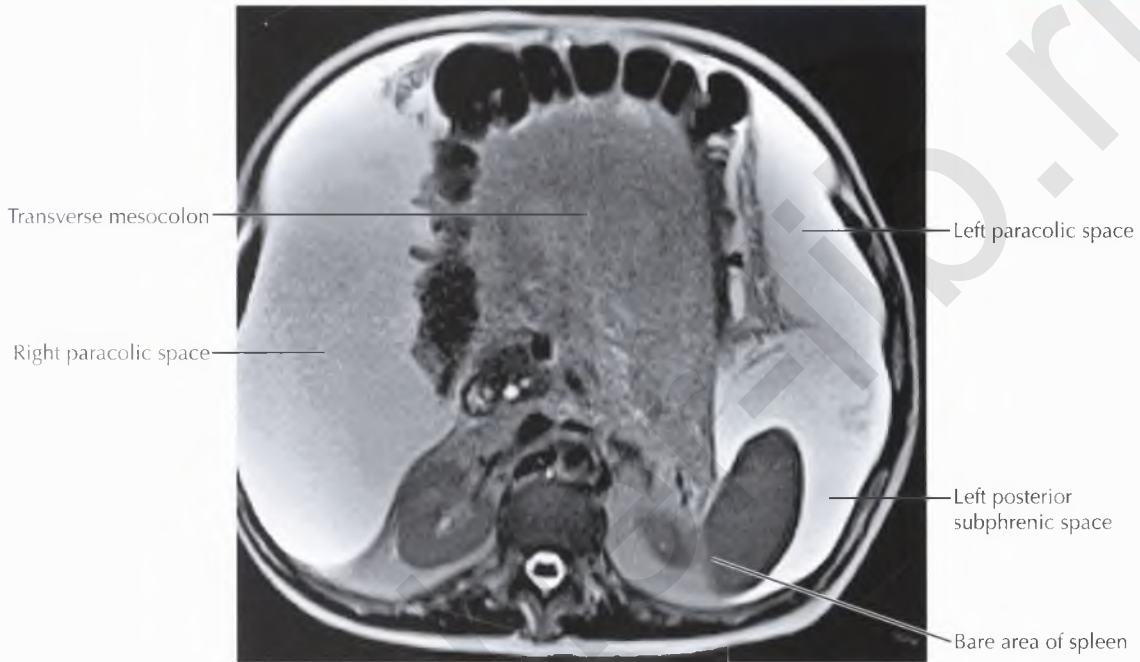
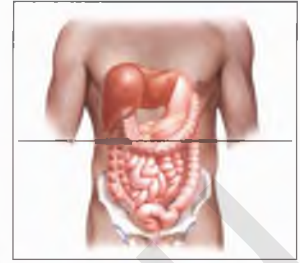


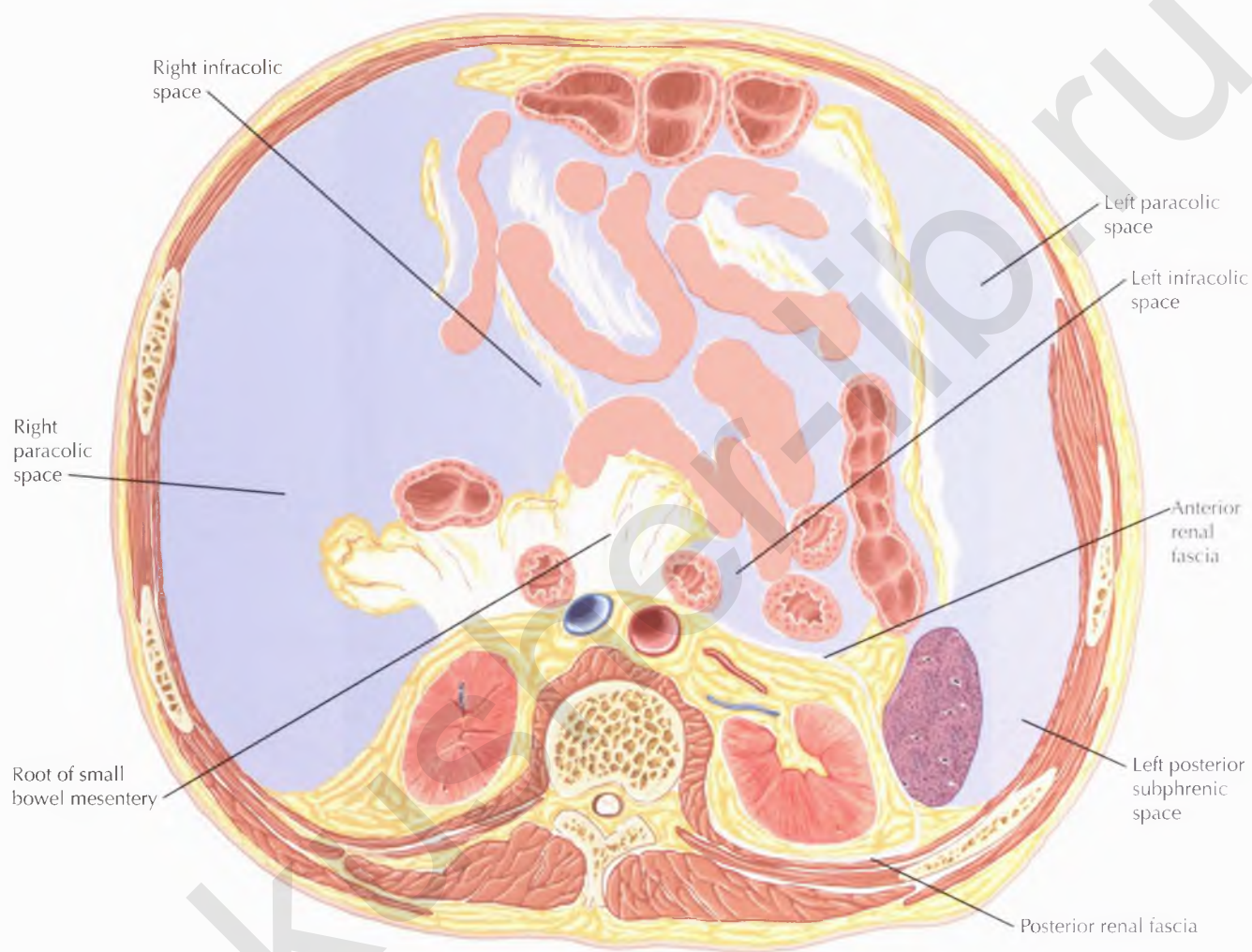


NORMAL ANATOMY

The spleen is attached posteriorly to the retroperitoneum by the splenorenal ligament, forming the bare area of the spleen. The splenic artery and vein travel within the splenorenal ligament at the splenic hilum.

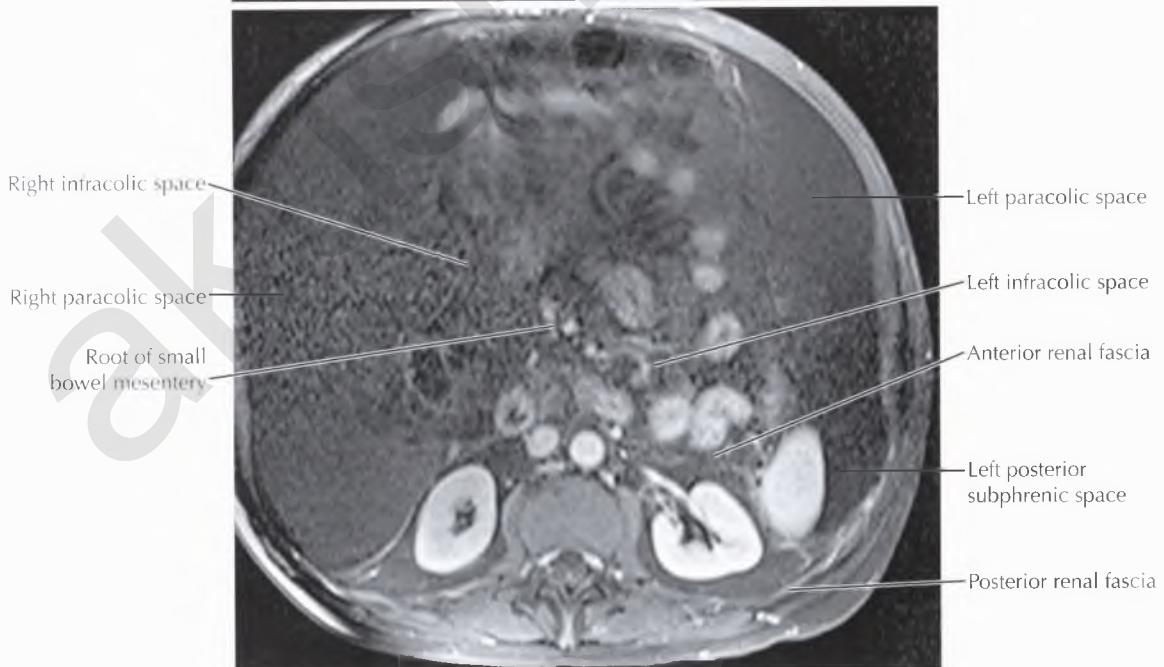
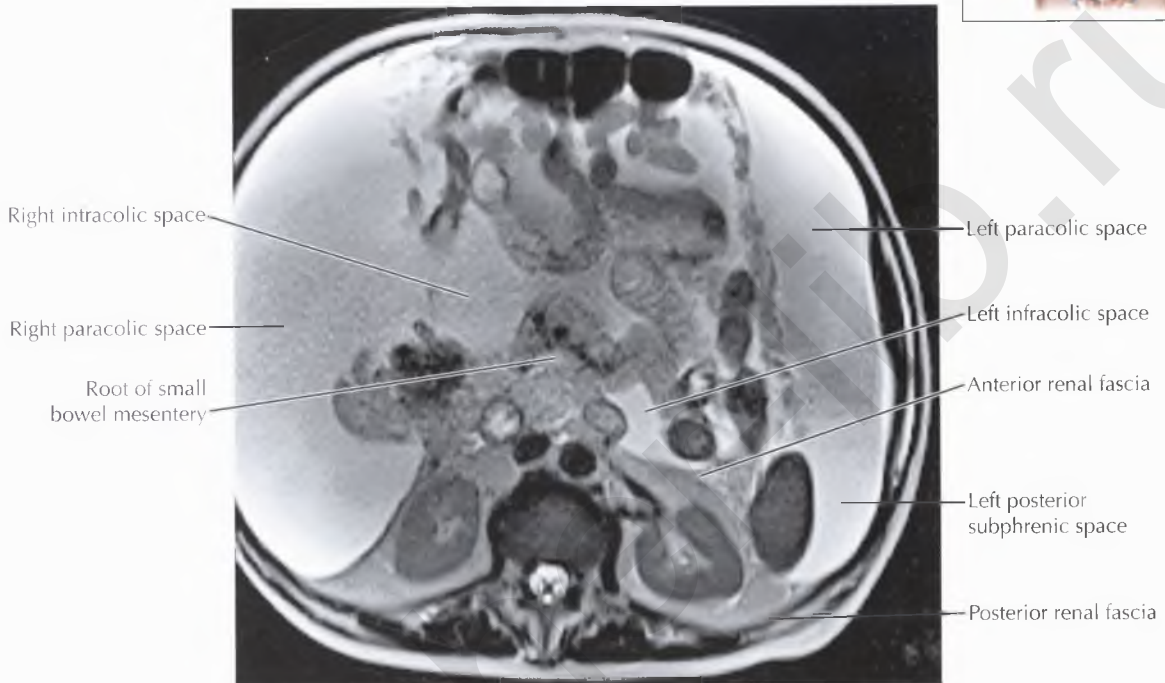
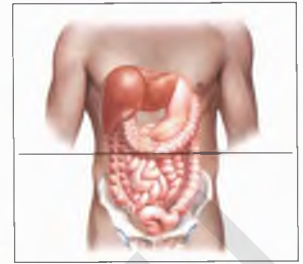
The transverse mesocolon is seen extending from the anterior aspect of the retroperitoneum at the level of the pancreas to the posterior superior wall of the transverse colon, dividing the abdominal peritoneal cavity into the supramesocolic and inframesocolic compartments described earlier. This may serve as a conduit for the spread of disease from the retroperitoneum to the transverse colon, as in the patient with acute pancreatitis.

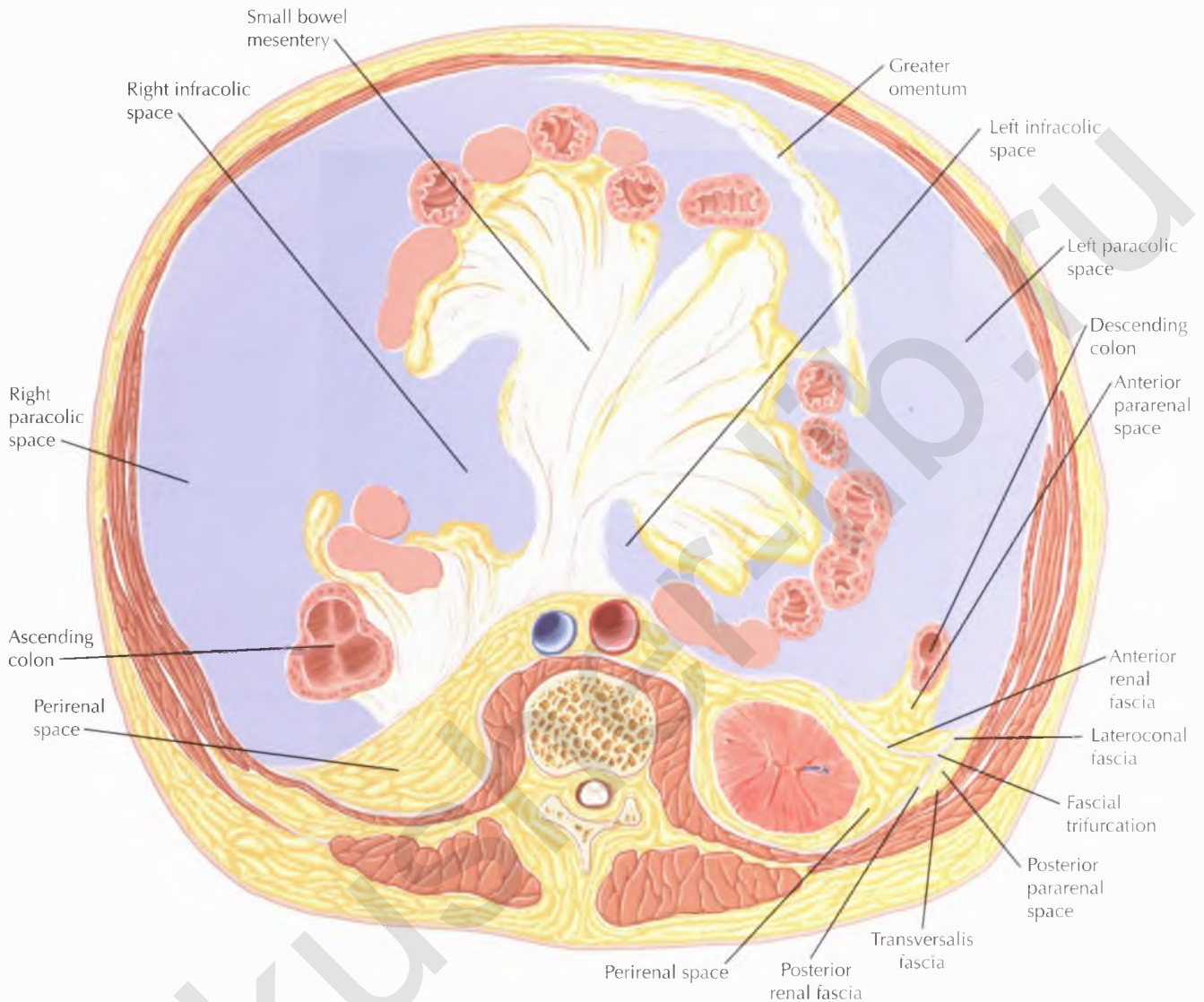




NORMAL ANATOMY

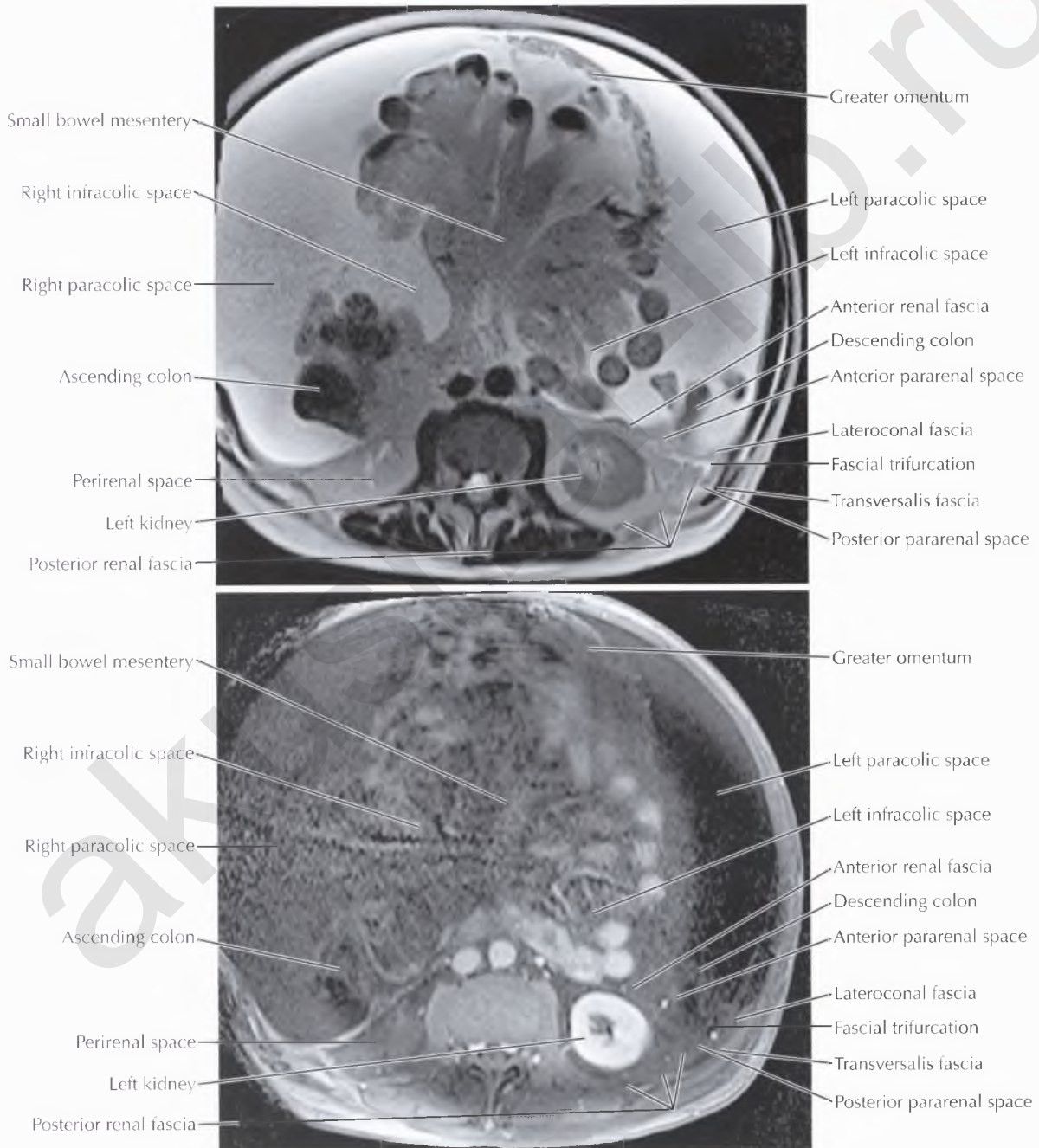
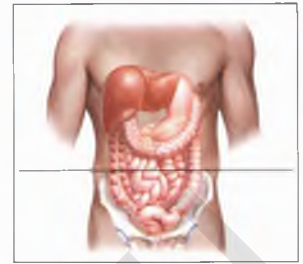
The root of the small bowel mesentery is seen at the duodenal-jejunal junction, suspended by the ligament of Treitz.

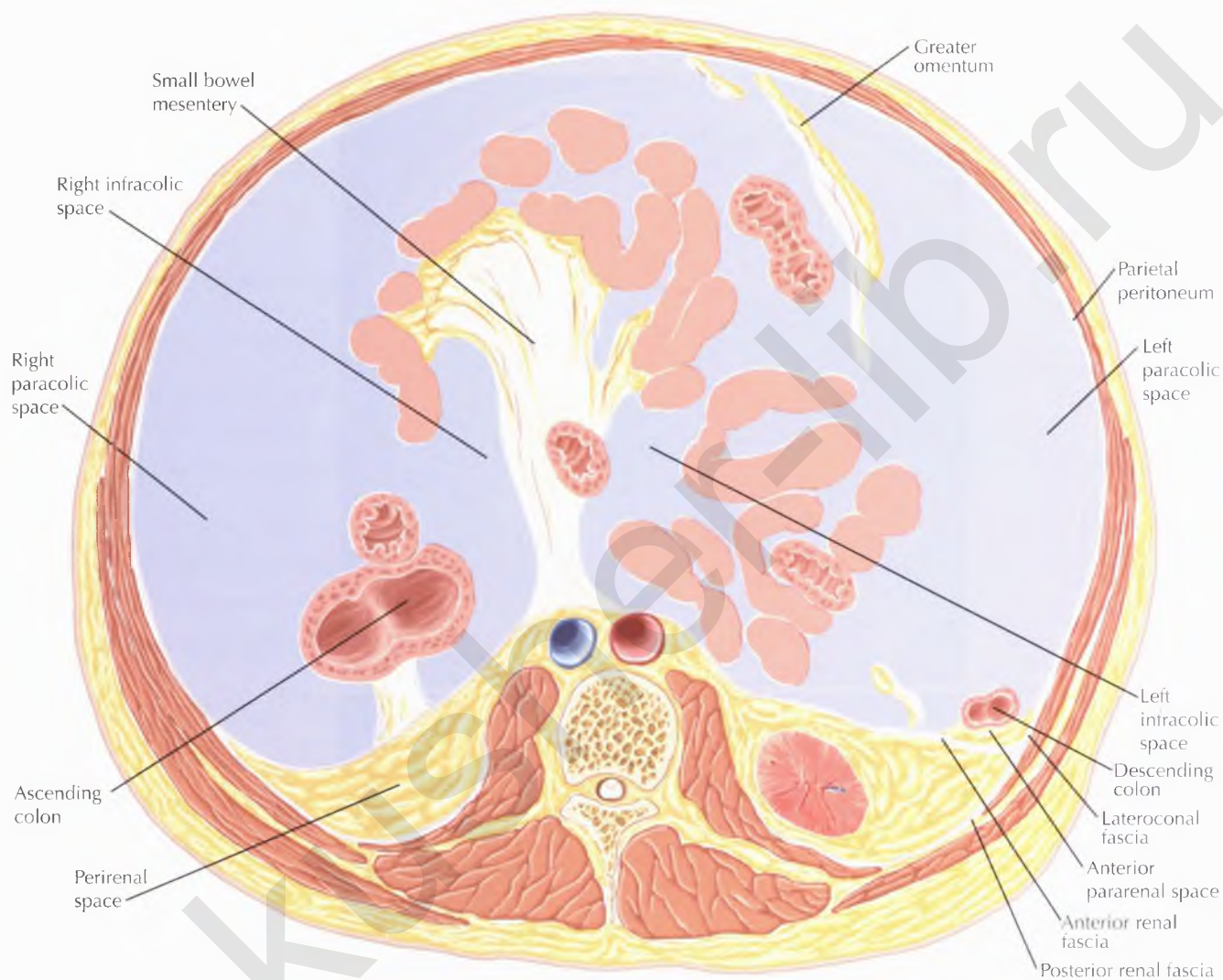




NORMAL ANATOMY

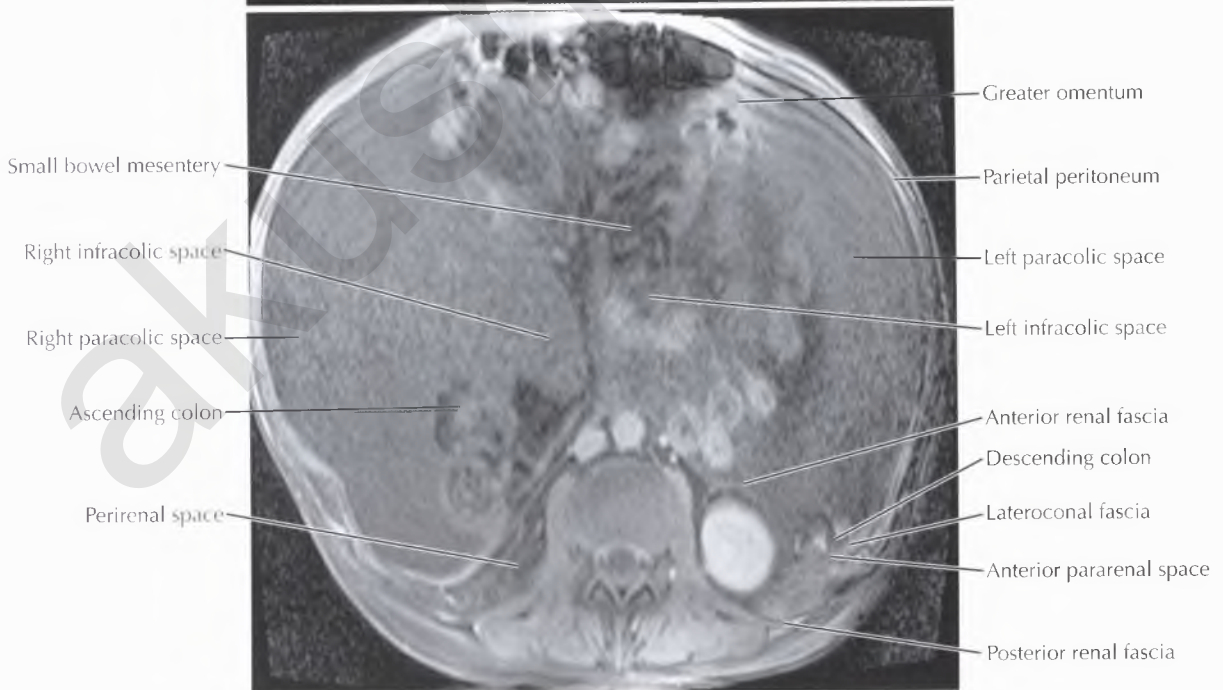
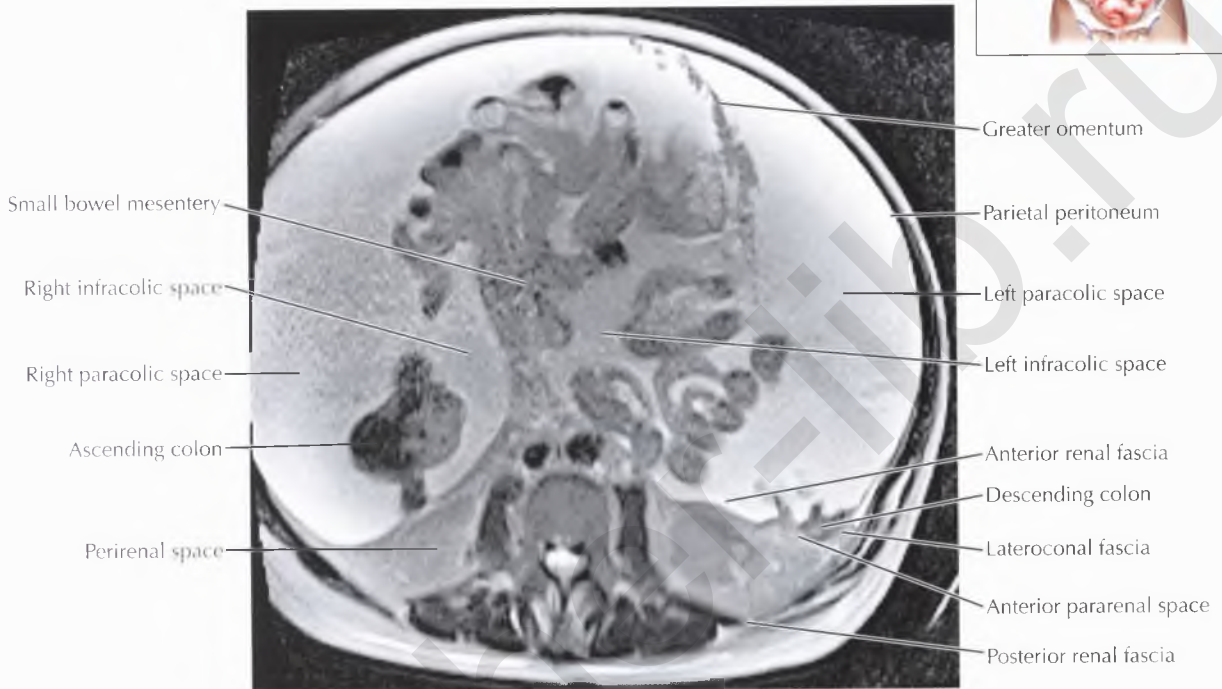
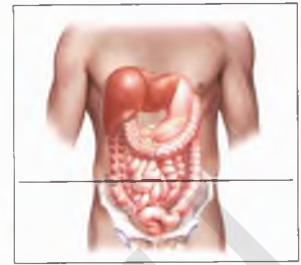
The retroperitoneum can be divided into three spaces. The *anterior pararenal space* is bounded anteriorly by the posterior parietal peritoneum and posteriorly by the *anterior renal fascia* (ARF), also called Gerota's fascia, and contains the ascending and descending colon, pancreas, and the 2nd to 4th portions of the duodenum. The *perirenal space* is formed by the ARF, the lateroconal fascia, and the *posterior renal fascia* (PRF), also known as Zuckerkindl's fascia, and contains the kidneys, adrenal glands, renal vasculature, and lymphatics, as well as the bridging renal septa of Kunin, which can serve as a conduit for disease spread through the perirenal space. The *posterior pararenal space* is bounded by the PRF and lateroconal fascia anteriorly and the transversalis fascia posteriorly, and is contiguous with the properitoneal fat anteriorly and laterally.

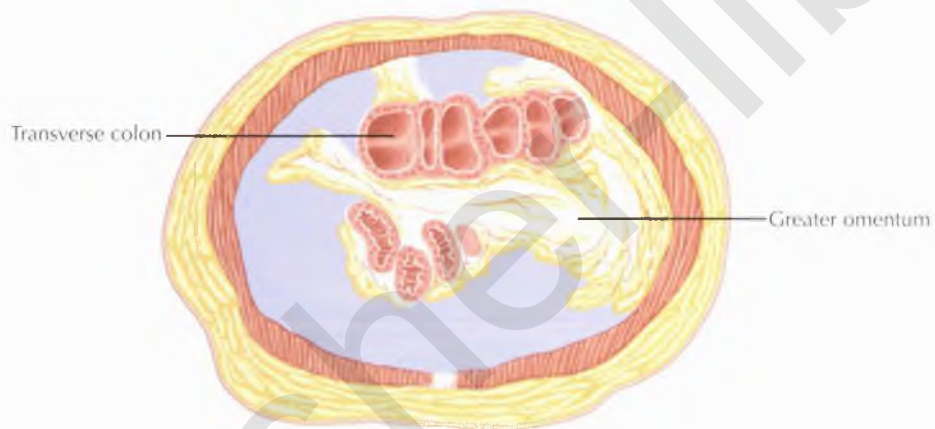


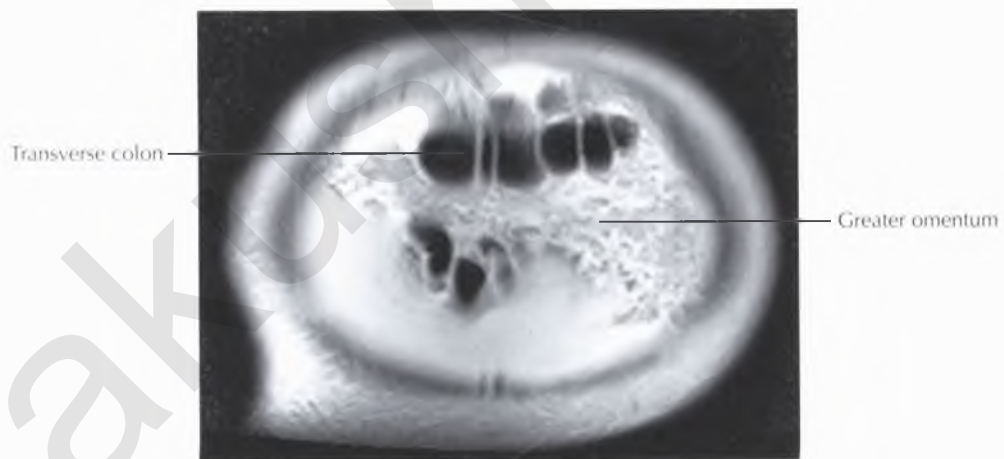
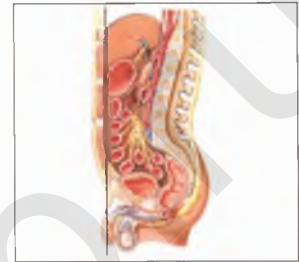


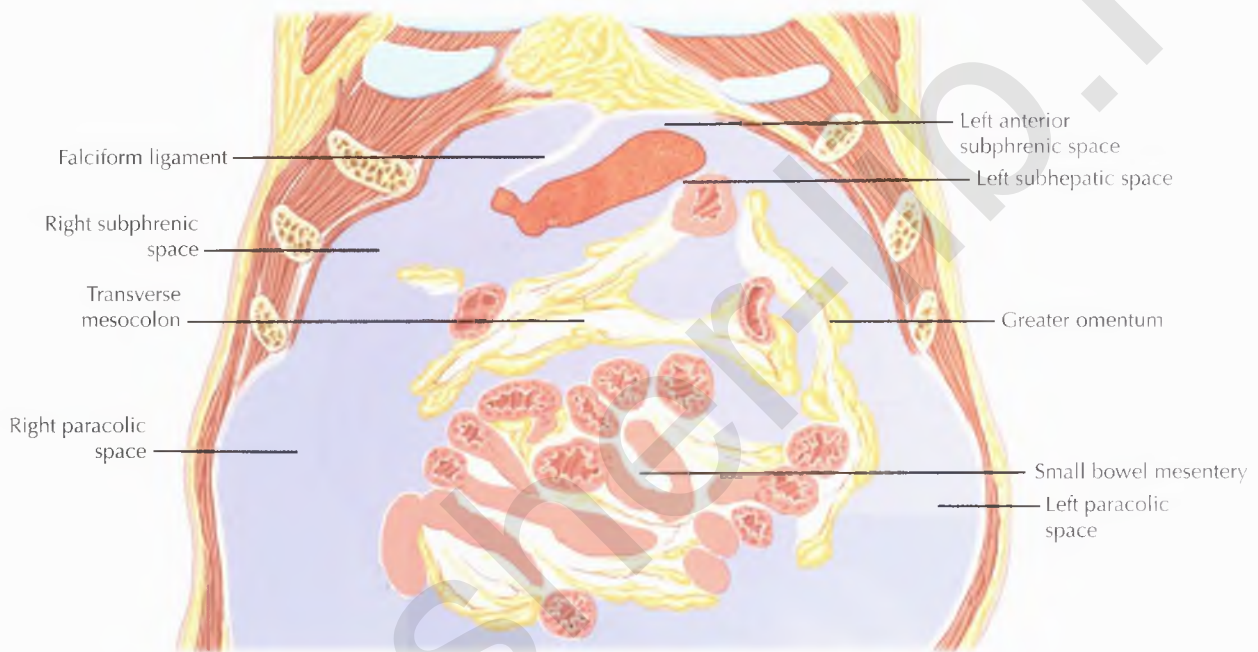
NORMAL ANATOMY

The *right infracolic space* is seen between the ascending colon and the small bowel mesentery. The *left infracolic space* is seen between the descending colon and the small bowel mesentery, and is in continuity with the pelvic peritoneal space.



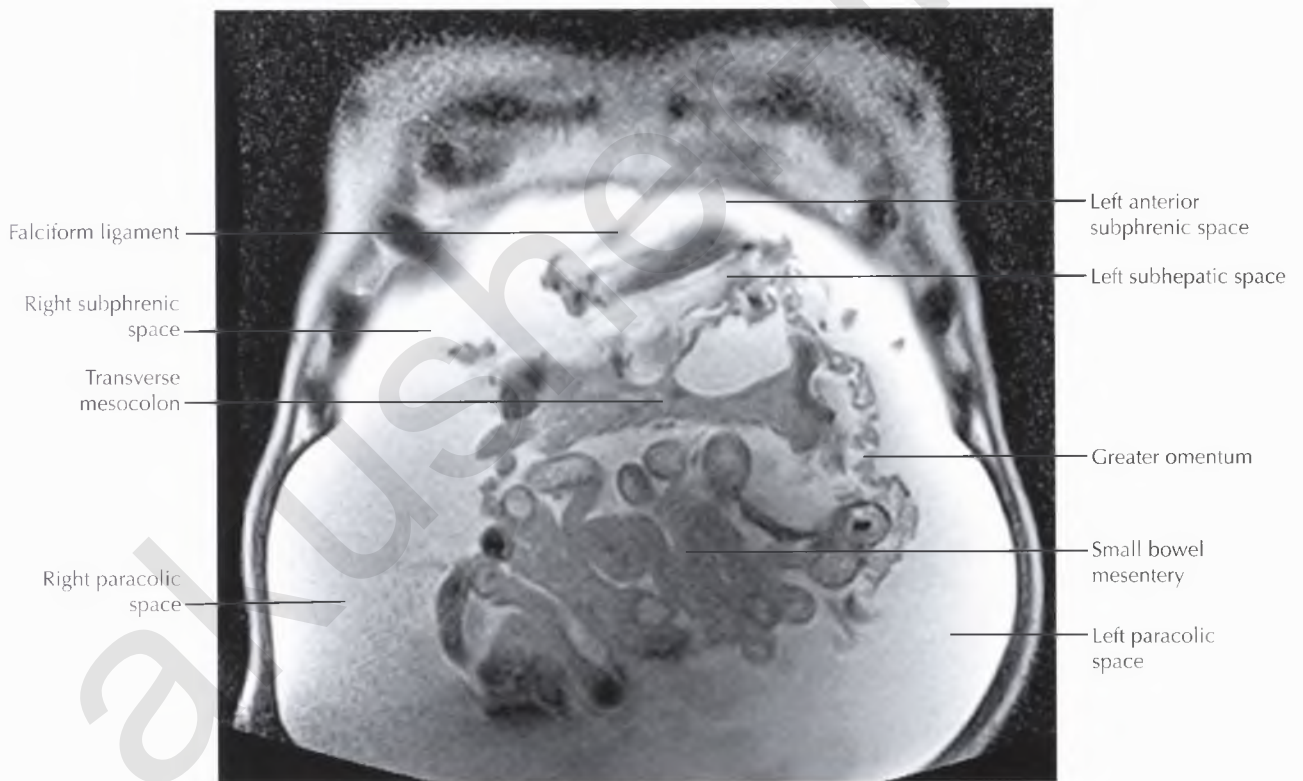
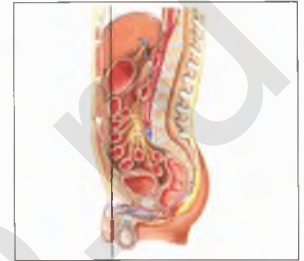


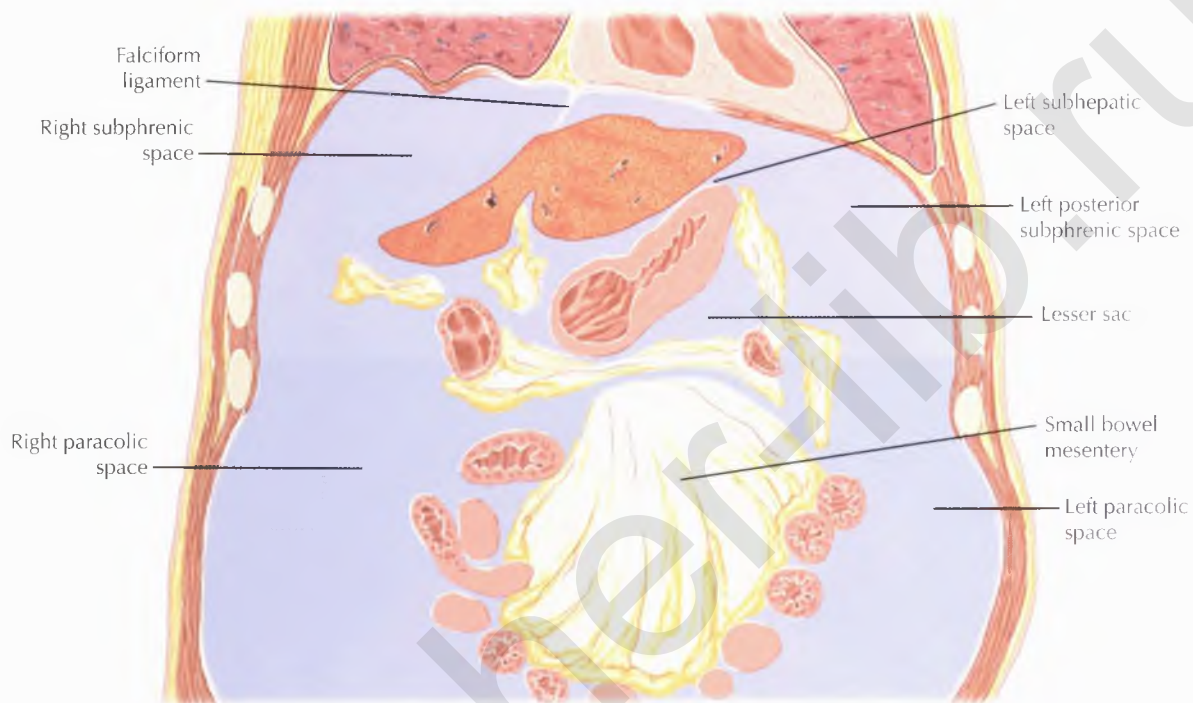




NORMAL ANATOMY

The superior and inferior portions of the peritoneal cavity communicate through the right and left paracolic spaces, also known as the "paracolic gutters," which are formed by peritoneal reflections covering the colon and the abdominal wall laterally.

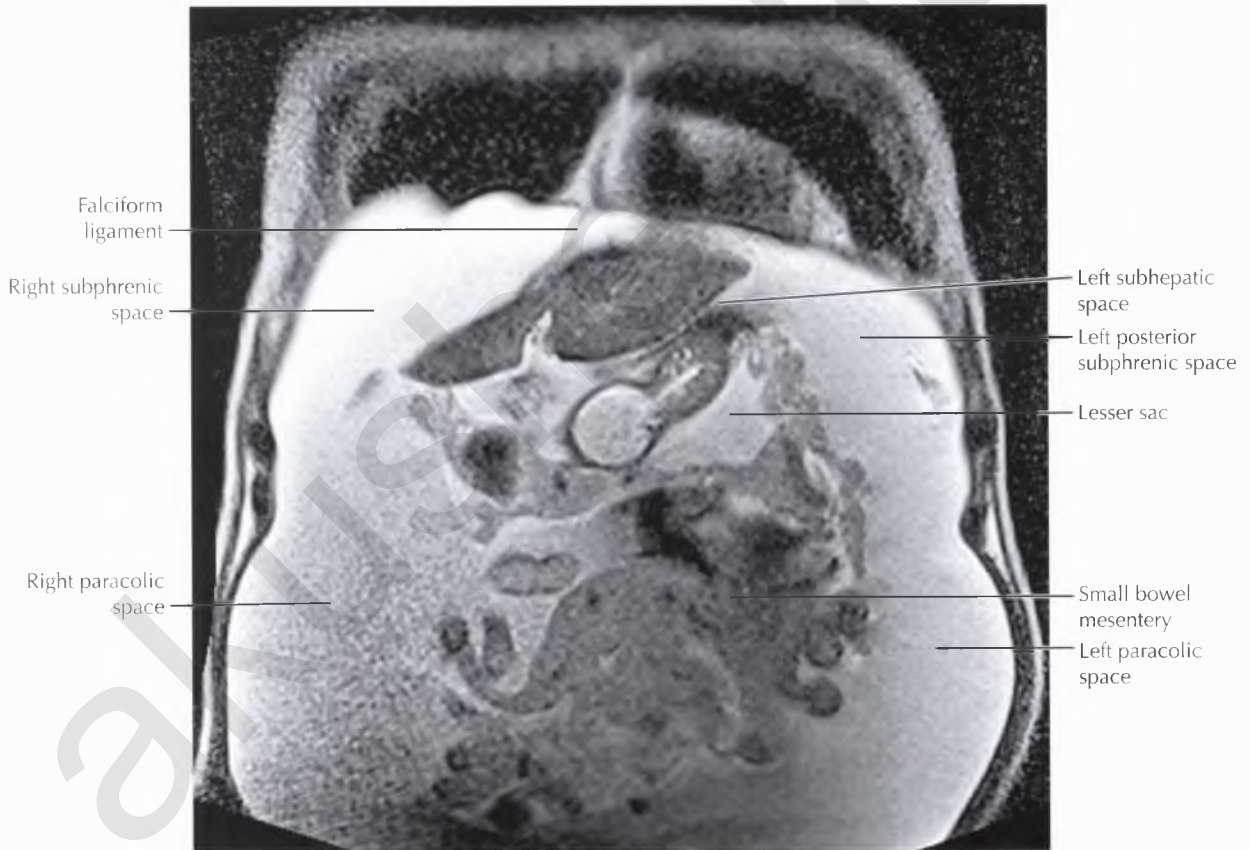
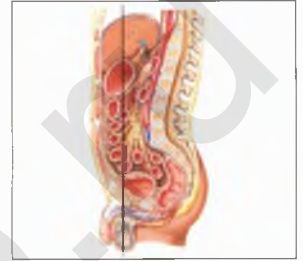


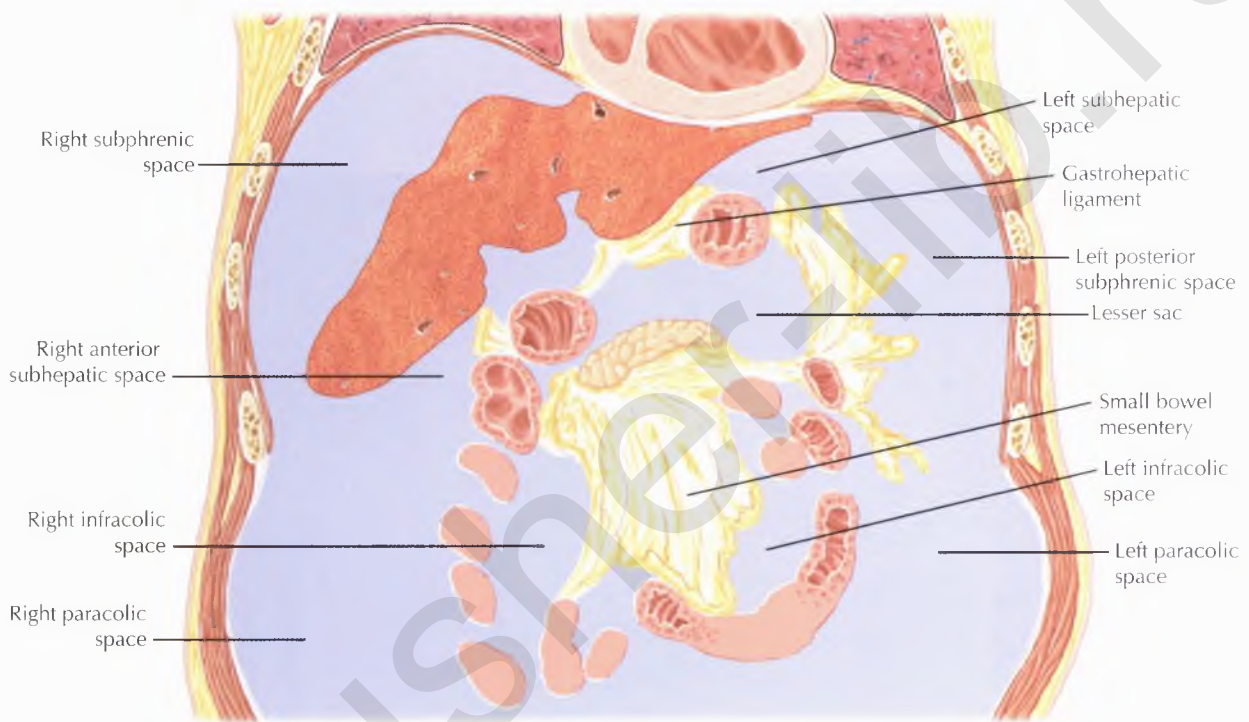


NORMAL ANATOMY

The *right subphrenic space* extends from the falciform ligament anteromedially to surround the diaphragmatic surface of the right lobe of the liver and is continuous with the right subhepatic space (seen on Abdomen Coronal 4) and the right paracolic space inferiorly. The right paracolic space communicates freely with the right pelvic peritoneal space.

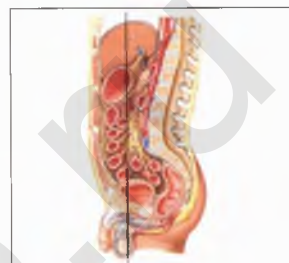
The *left subphrenic space* extends from the falciform ligament anteromedially to surround the diaphragmatic surface of the left lobe of the liver and spleen, and is continuous with the left subhepatic space. The left subphrenic space is limited posteriorly and inferiorly by the spleno-renal and phrenicocolic ligaments and more superiorly by the gastrosplenic ligament. Adjacent to the lateral segment of the liver, the left subhepatic space is continuous with the left subphrenic space.

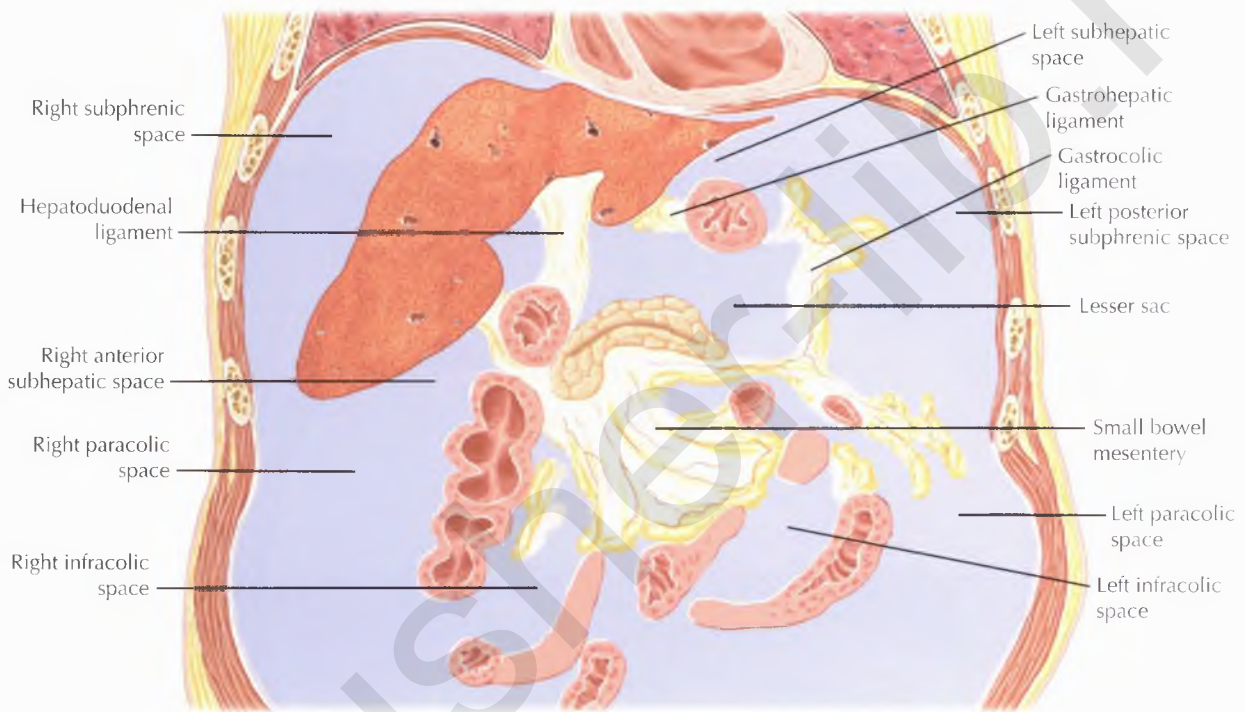




NORMAL ANATOMY

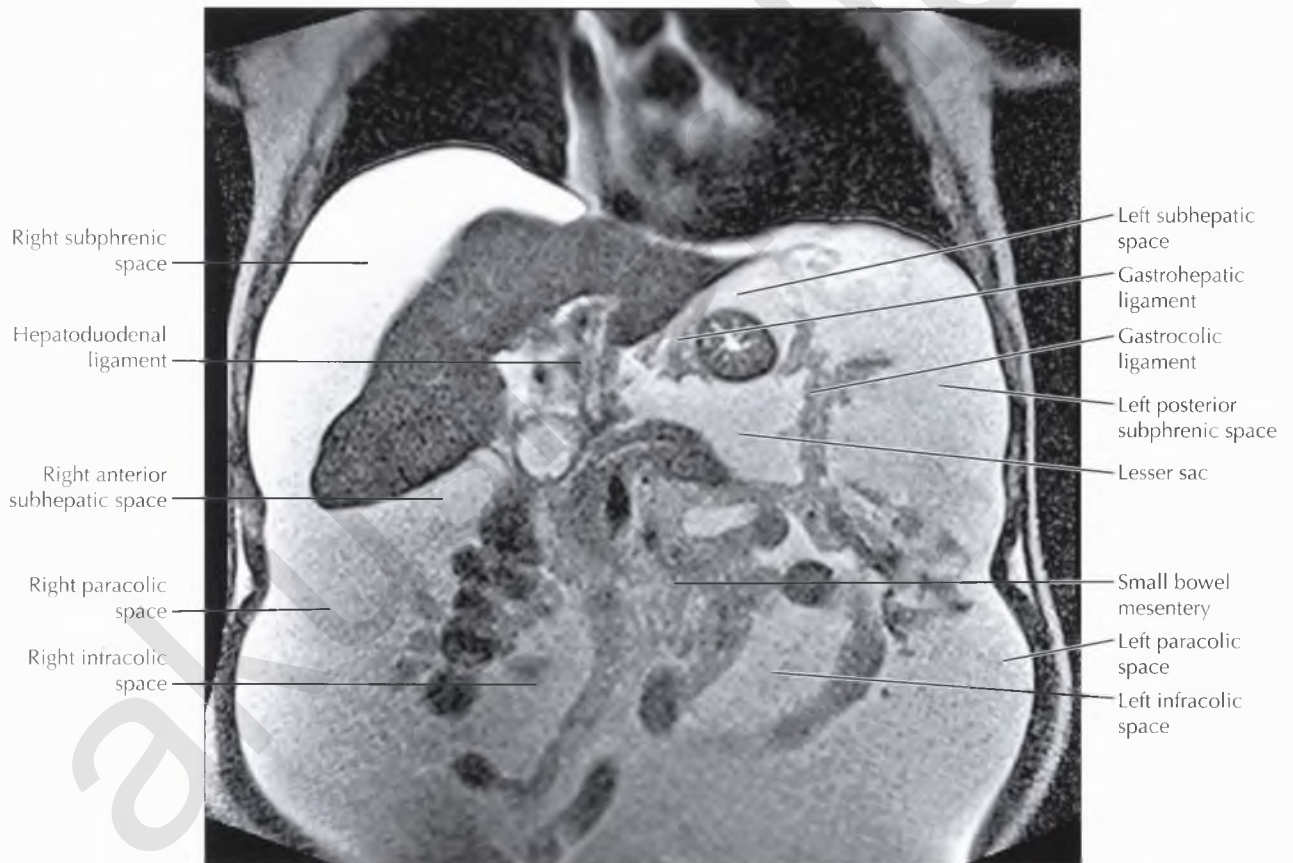
The small bowel mesentery extends from its attachment on the posterior abdominal wall at the ligament of Treitz to the right lower quadrant near the ileocecal junction.

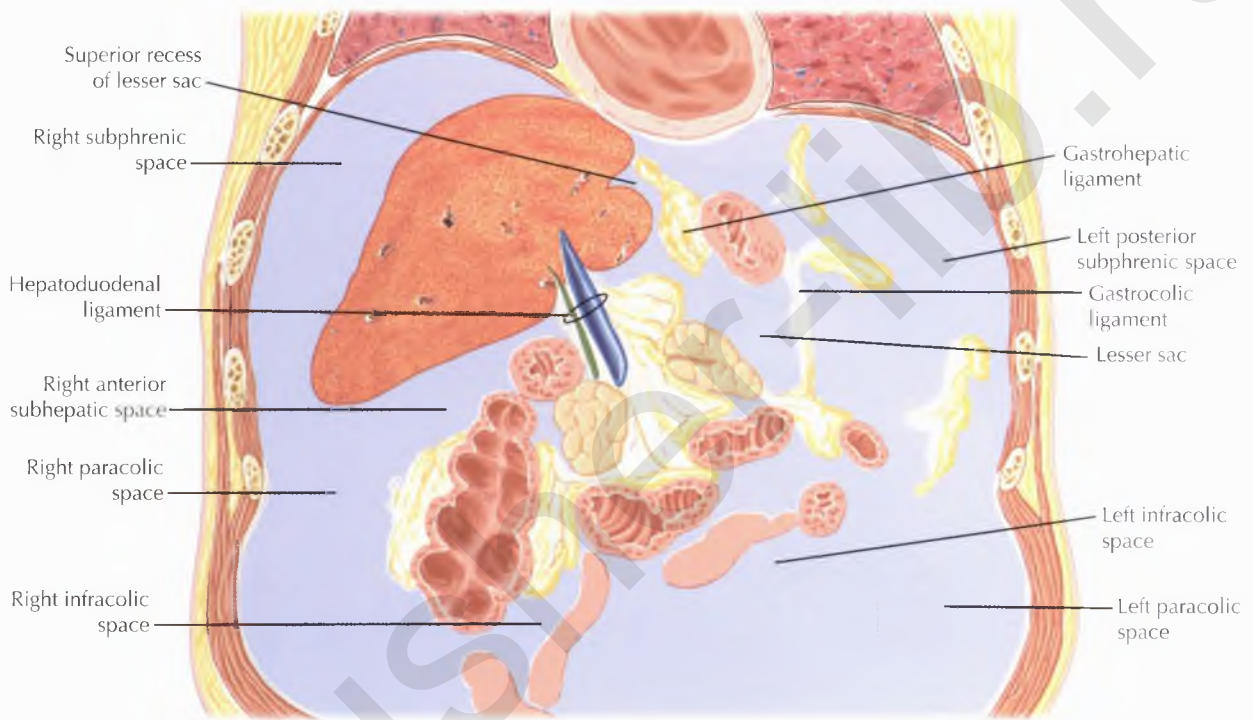




NORMAL ANATOMY

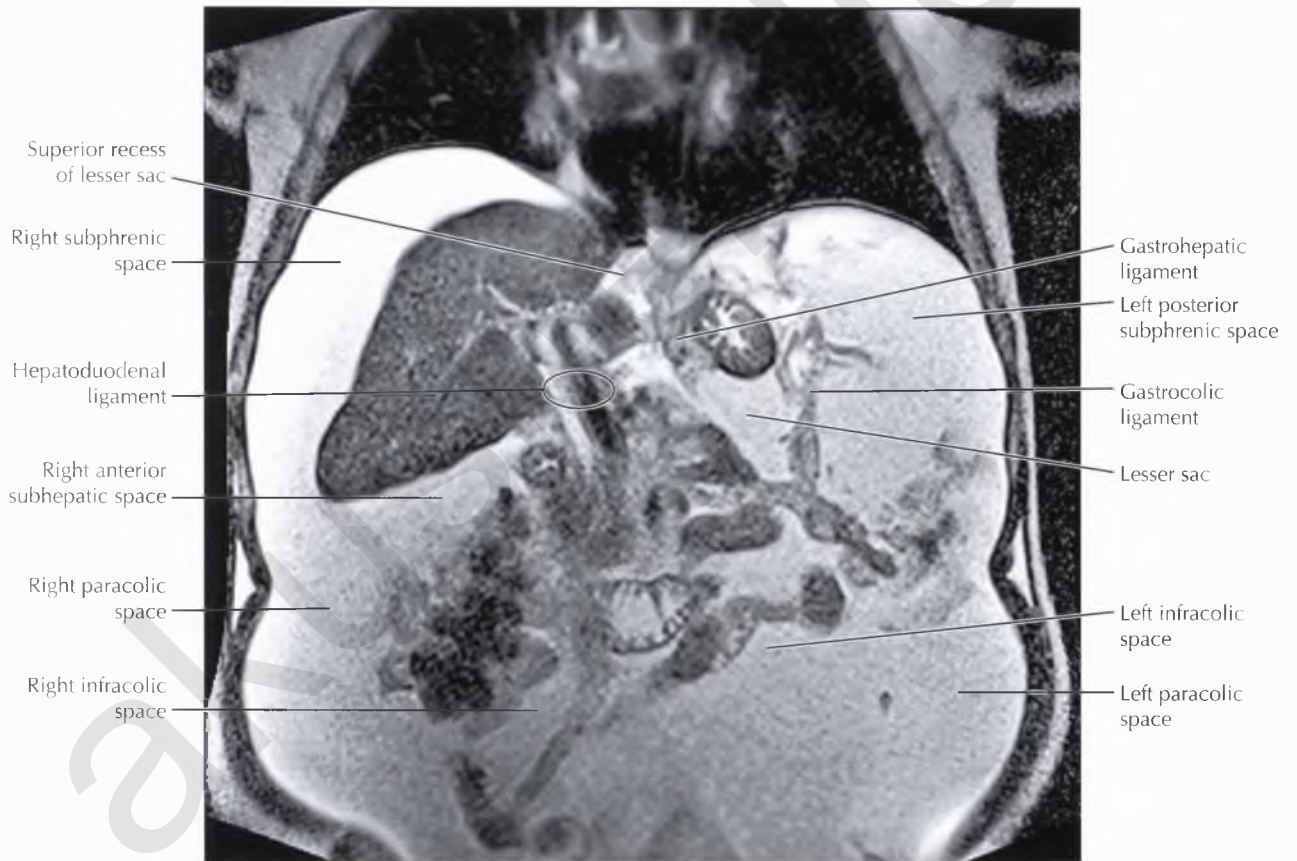
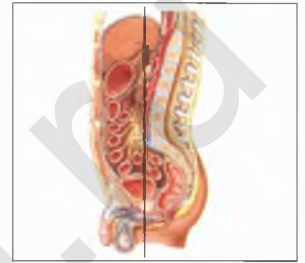
The gastrohepatic ligament is on the anterior superior margin of the lesser sac and contains the left gastric artery and coronary vein.

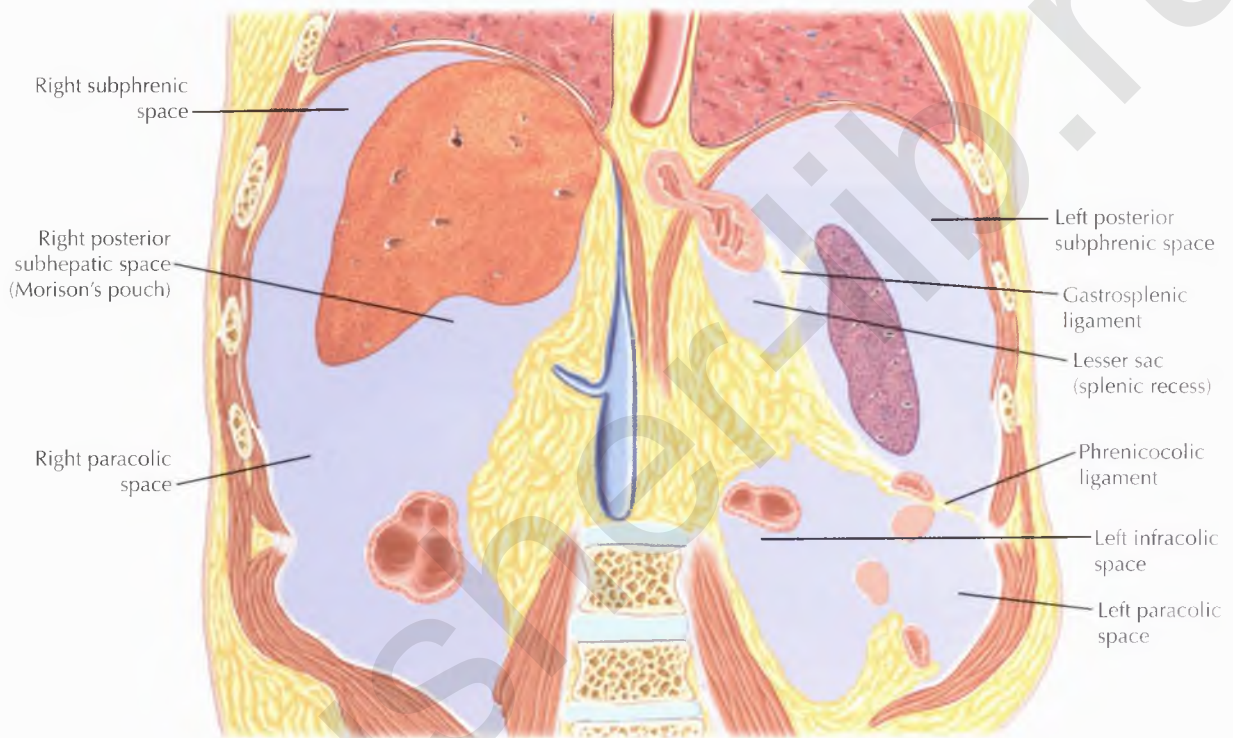




NORMAL ANATOMY

The hepatoduodenal ligament contains the main portal vein, proper hepatic artery, and common bile duct.





NORMAL ANATOMY

The *phrenicocolic ligament* separates the left subphrenic space from the left paracolic space, preventing direct communication. The left paracolic space is in continuity with the left infracolic space, and both communicate freely with the pelvic peritoneal space.



Right subphrenic space

Right posterior subhepatic space (Morison's pouch)

Right paracolic space

Left posterior subphrenic space

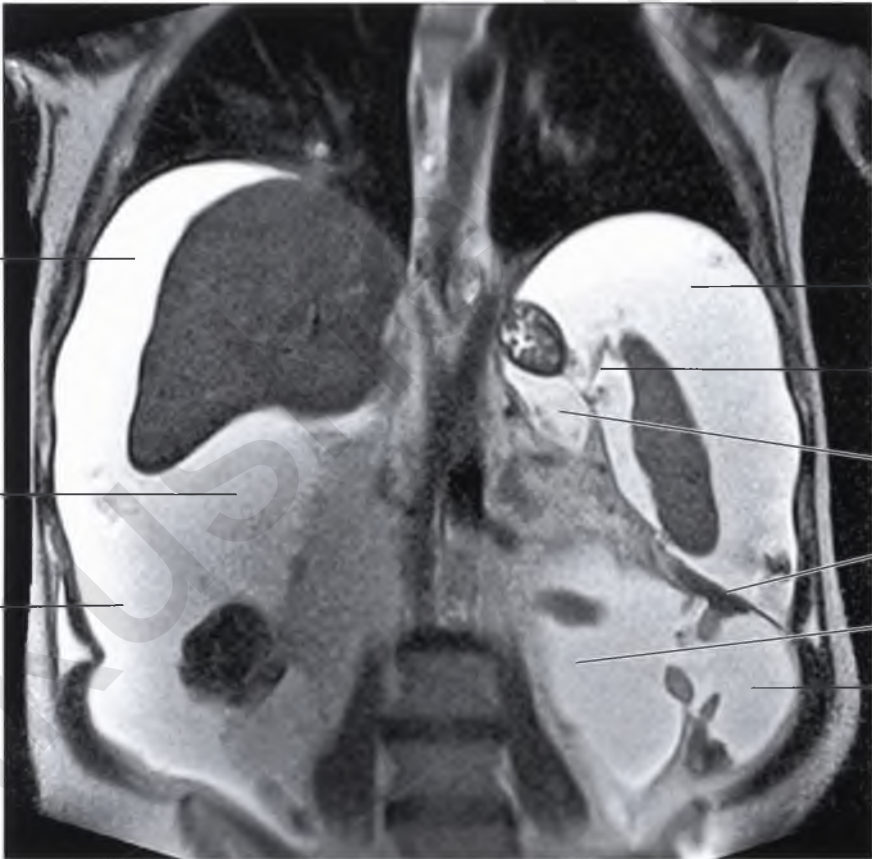
Gastrosplenic ligament

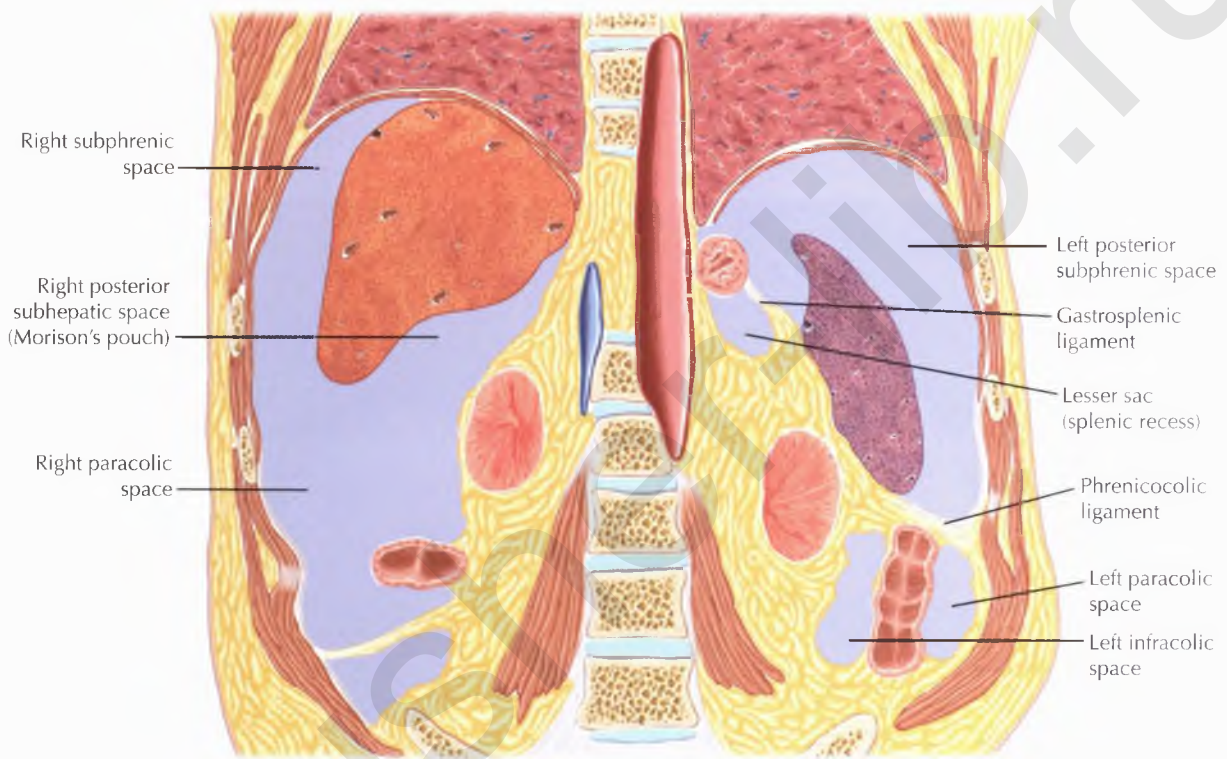
Lesser sac (splenic recess)

Phrenicocolic ligament

Left infracolic space

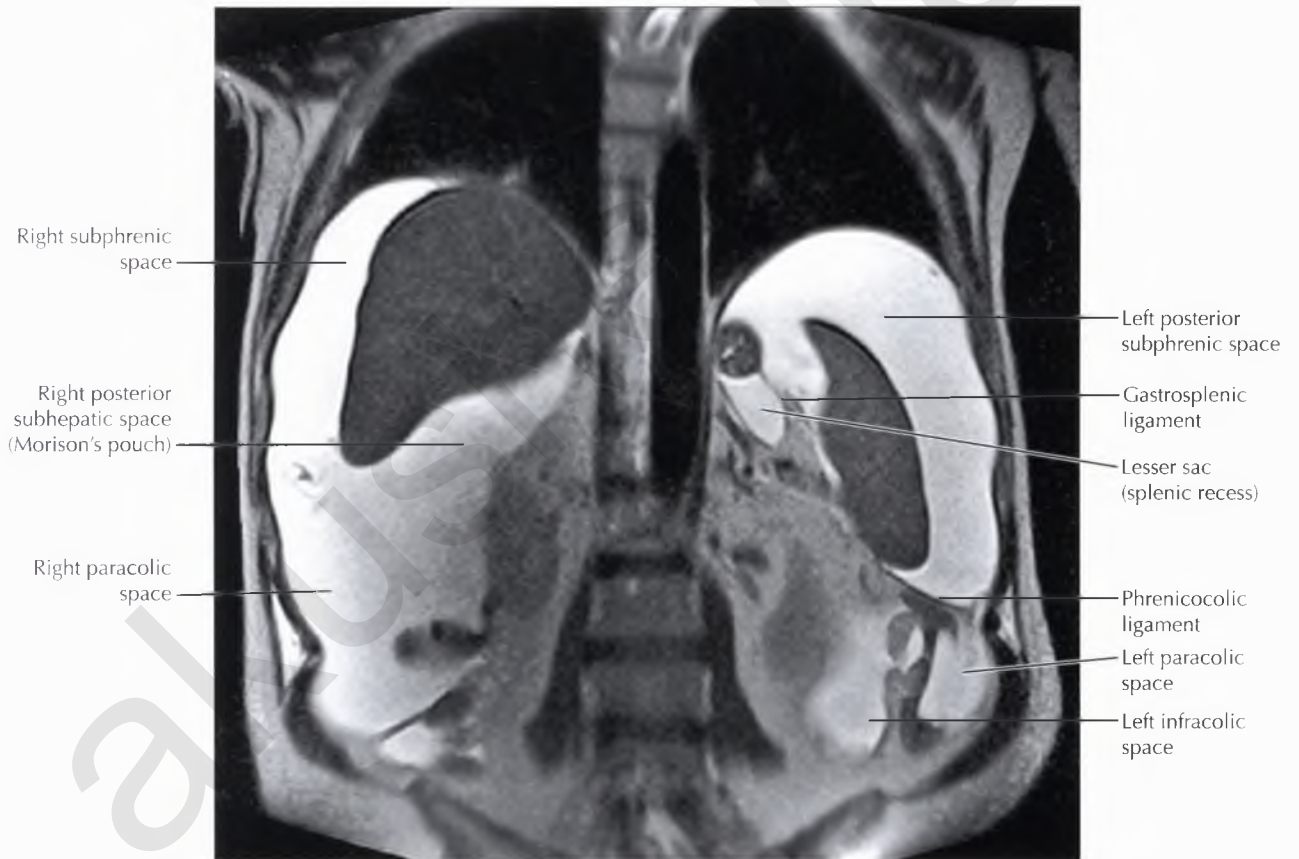
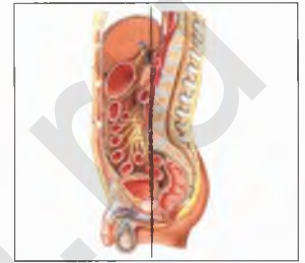
Left paracolic space

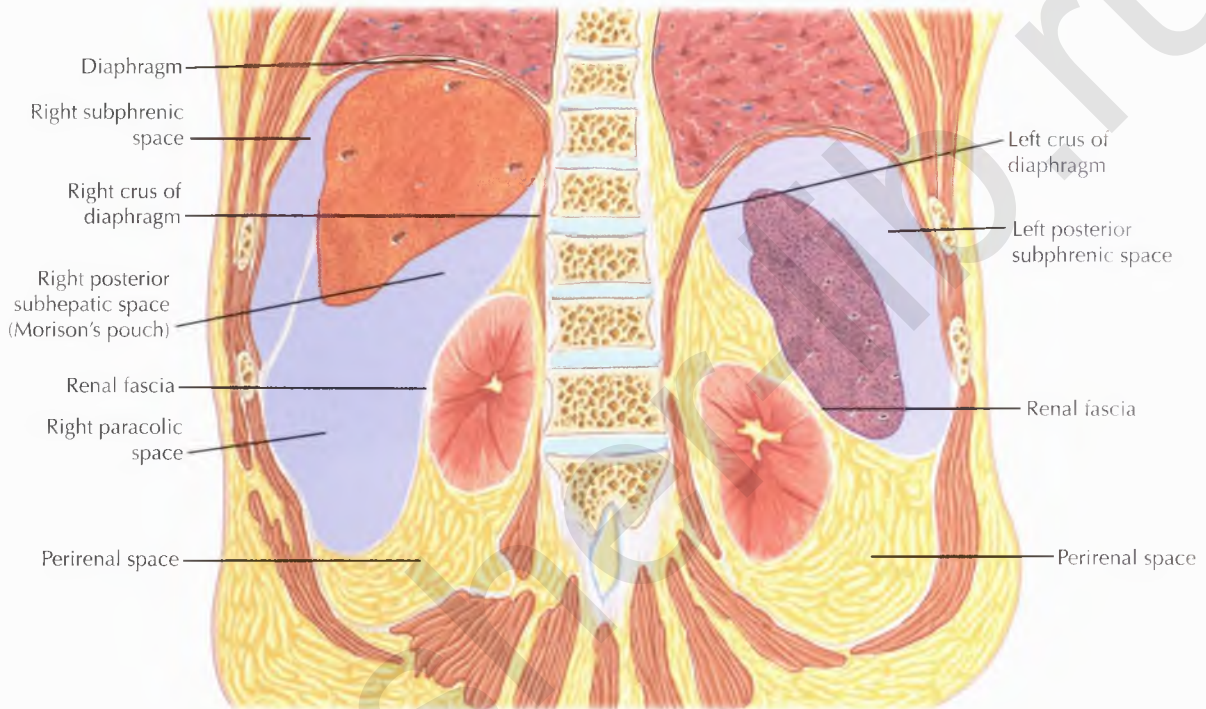




NORMAL ANATOMY

The *gastrosplenic ligament*, a part of the greater omentum, is seen extending from the gastric fundus to the splenic hilum and contains the left gastroepiploic vessels. The gastrosplenic ligament is also in continuity with the splenorenal ligament at the splenic hilum.



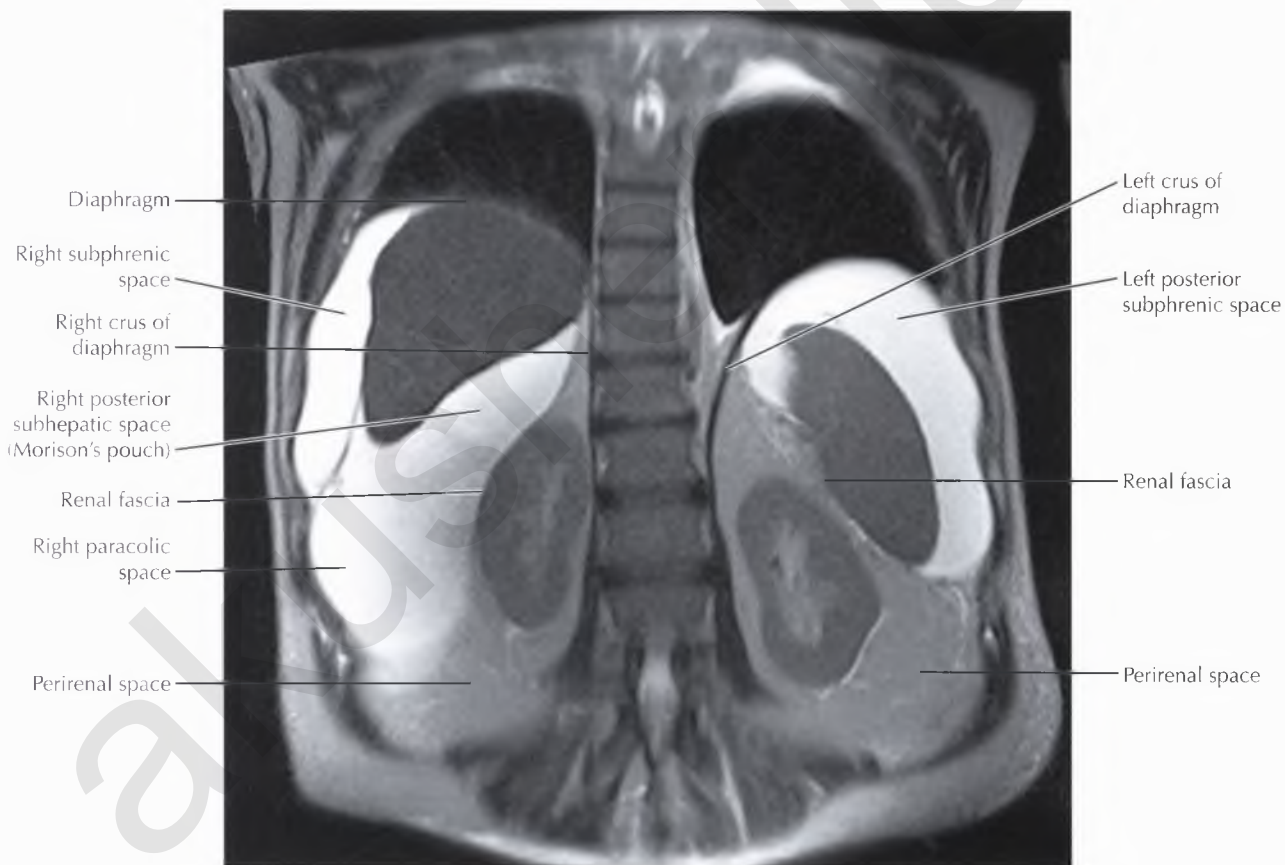
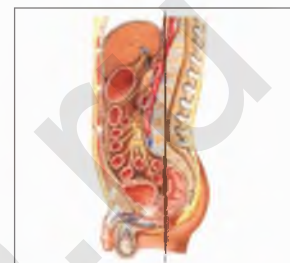


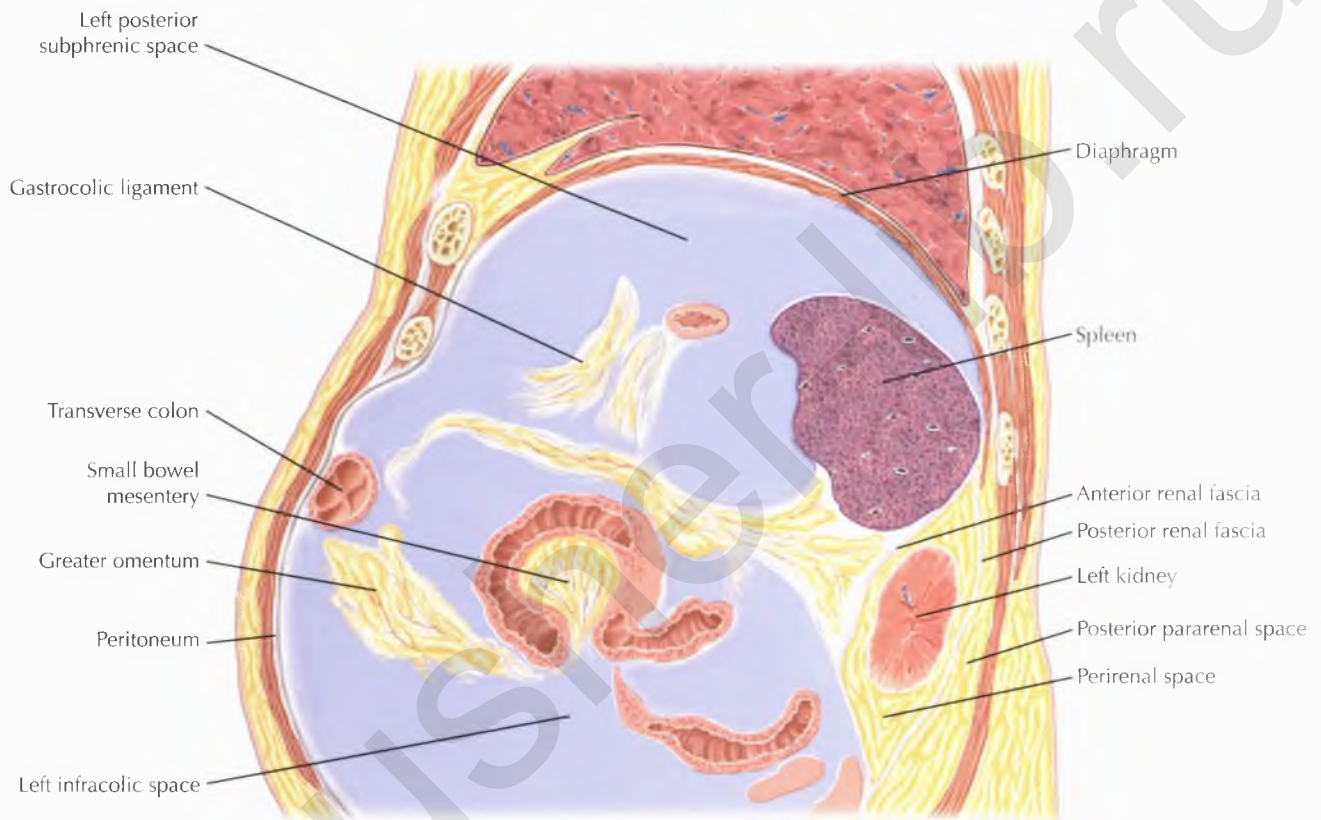
NORMAL ANATOMY

Renal fascia surrounding the cone-shaped retroperitoneal fat, kidneys, and adrenal glands within the perirenal space isolates these retroperitoneal structures from the peritoneal ascites.

DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

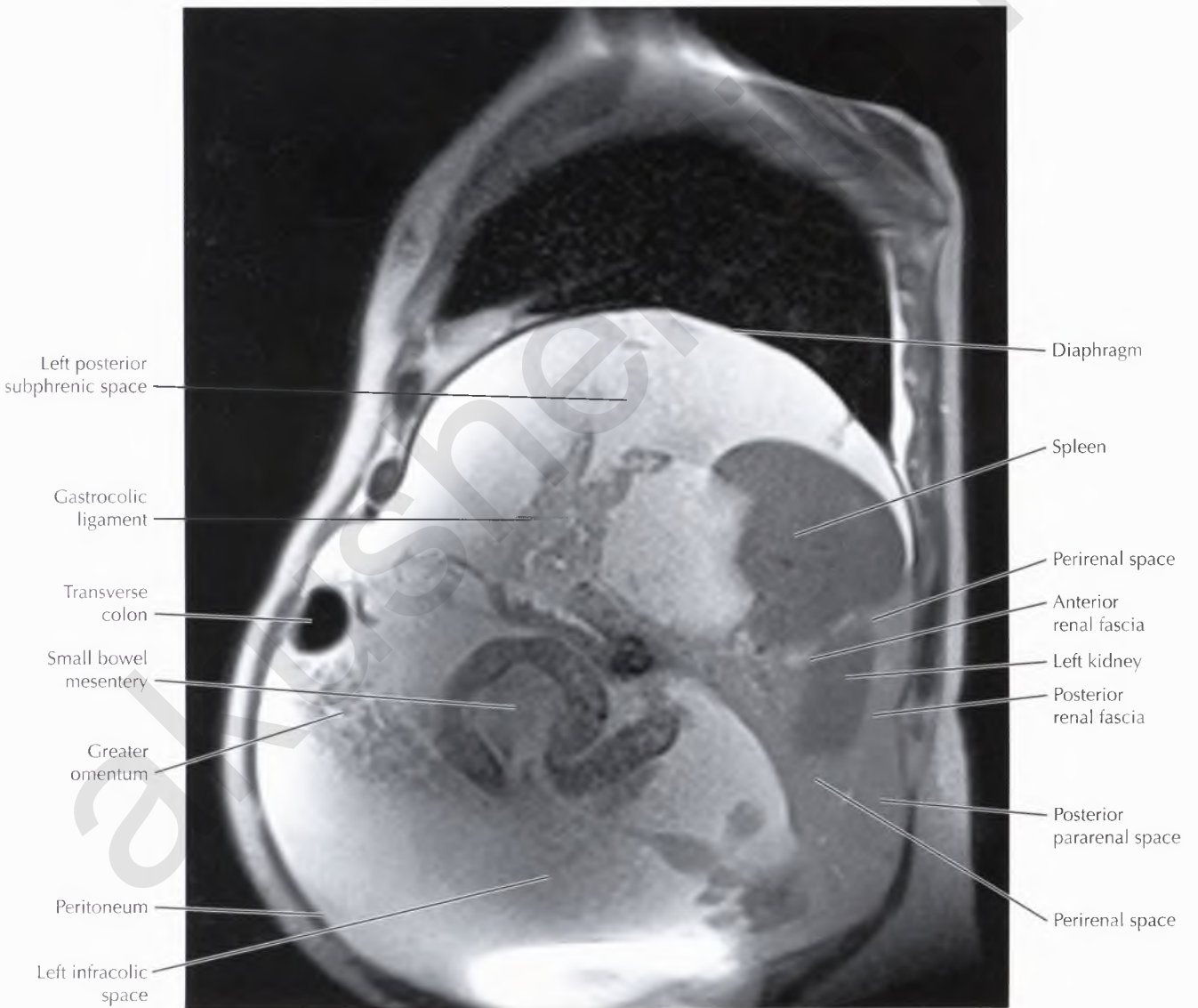
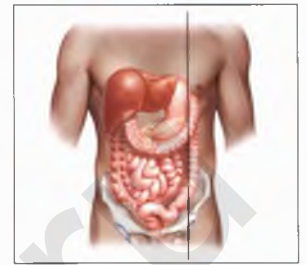
Masses originating in the retroperitoneum are usually malignant in etiology.

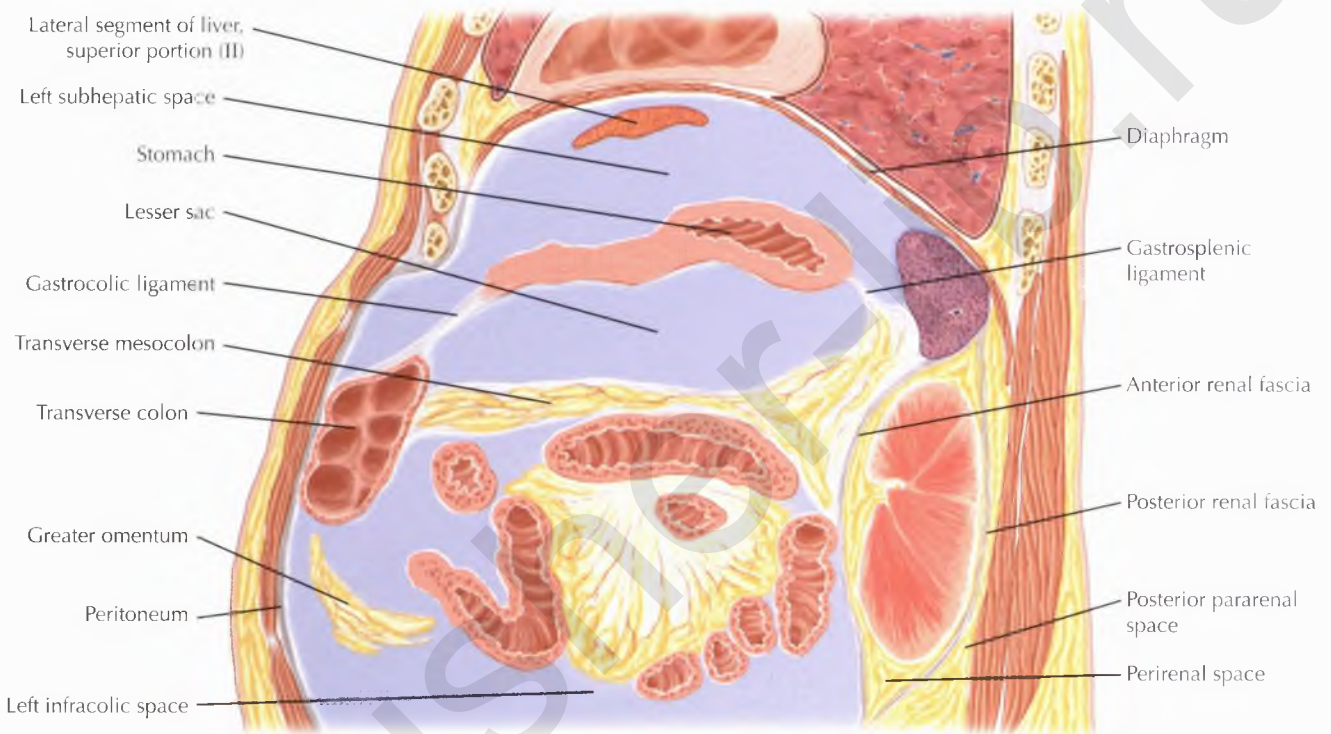




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

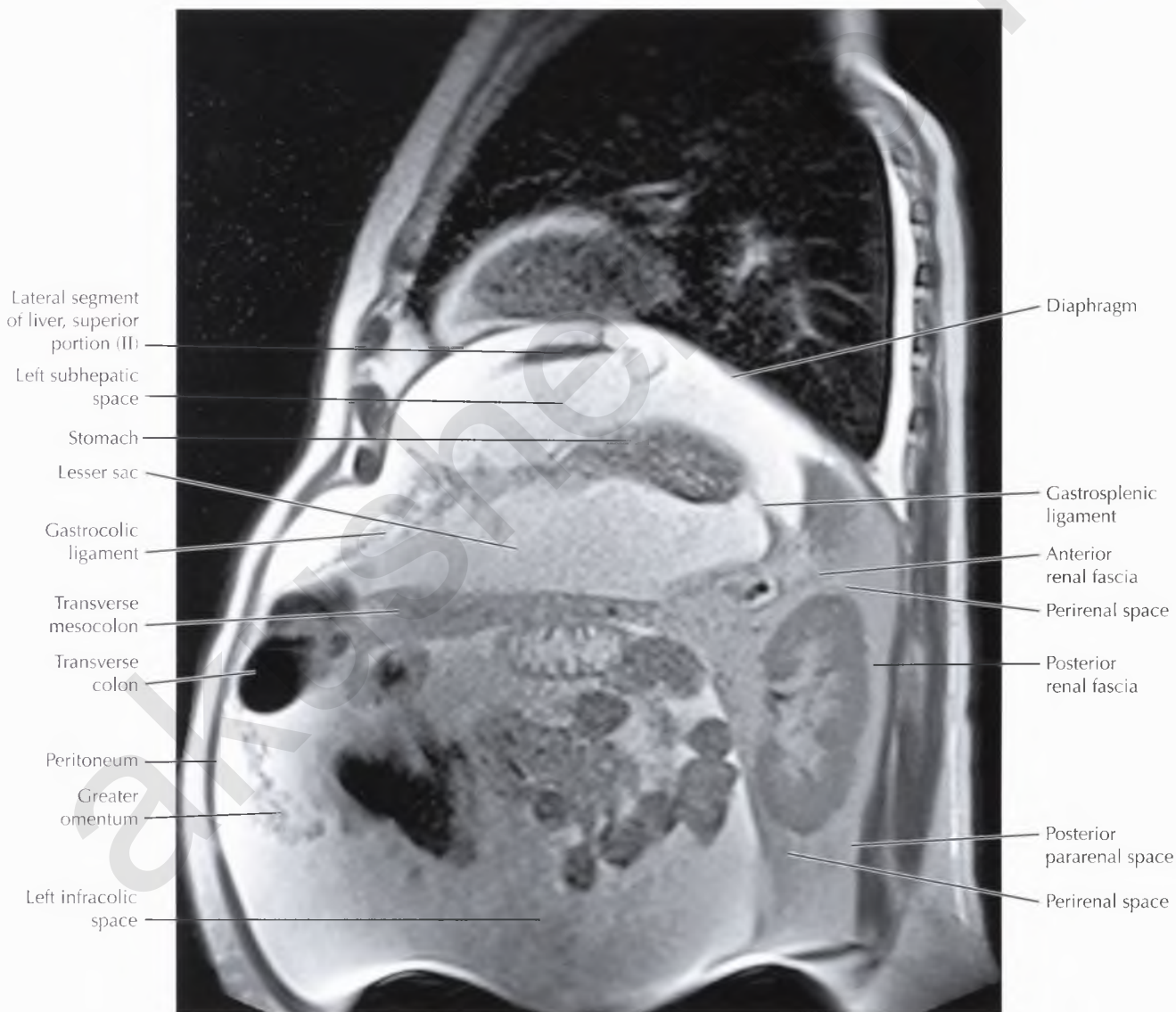
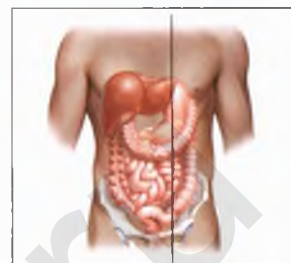
The normal peritoneum is thin. Thickening of the peritoneum can be caused by peritoneal infection, inflammation, or malignancy.

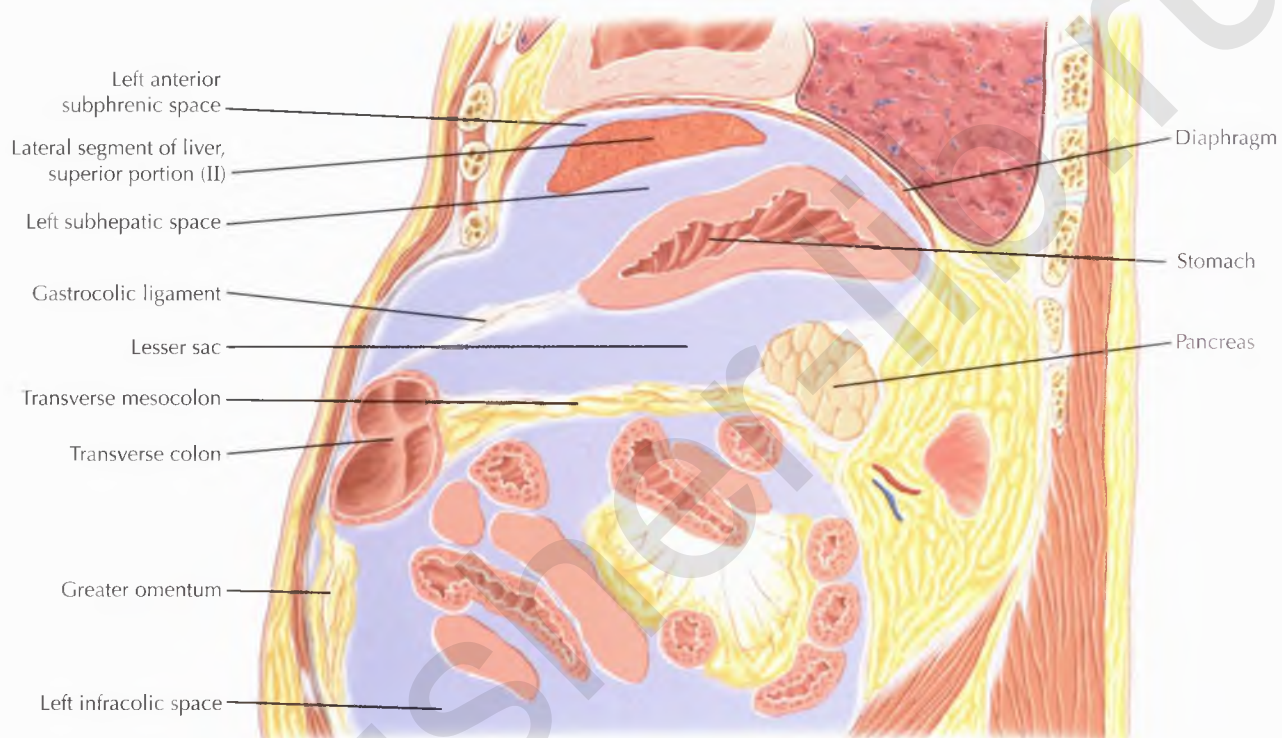




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

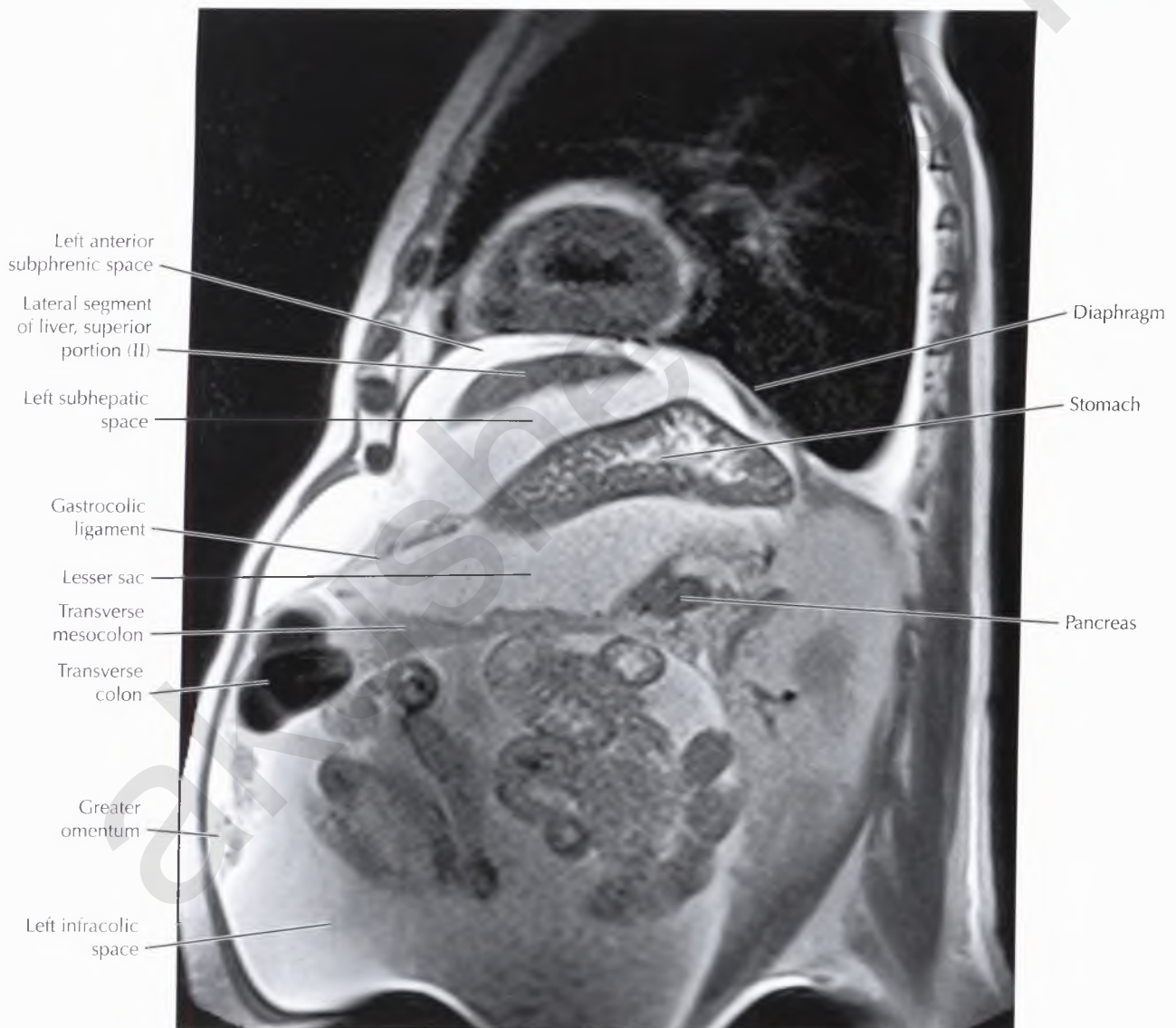
The boundaries of the lesser sac are well demonstrated in the sagittal plane. Isolated ascites in the lesser sac may be caused by benign etiologies such as acute pancreatitis or by malignant etiologies, however, isolated ascites in the greater sac is usually benign.

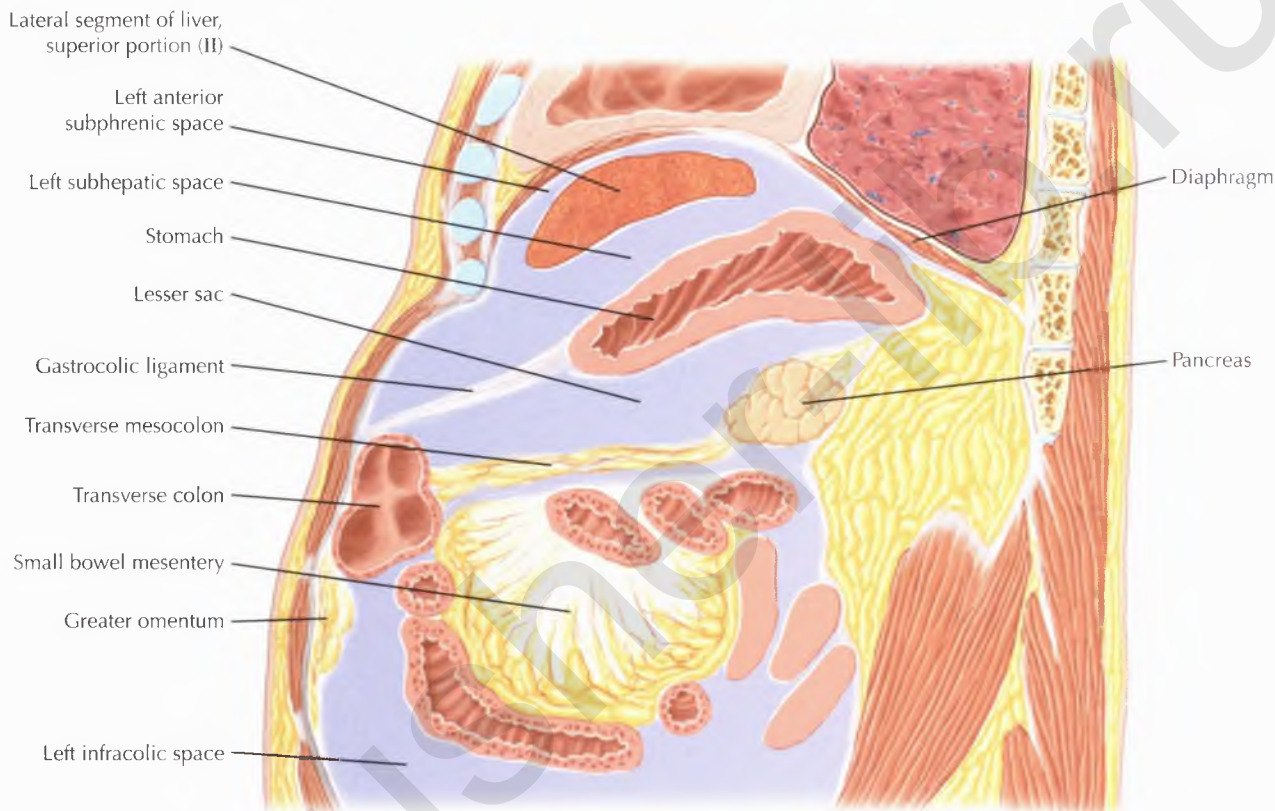




NORMAL ANATOMY

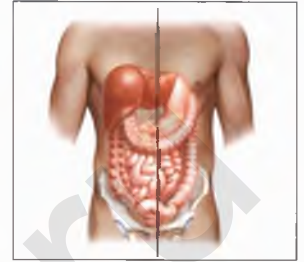
The greater omentum is composed of a double layer of peritoneum that hangs from the greater curvature of the stomach like an apron over the transverse colon and small bowel. The portion of the greater omentum extending from the stomach to the transverse colon is called the *gastrocolic ligament*.

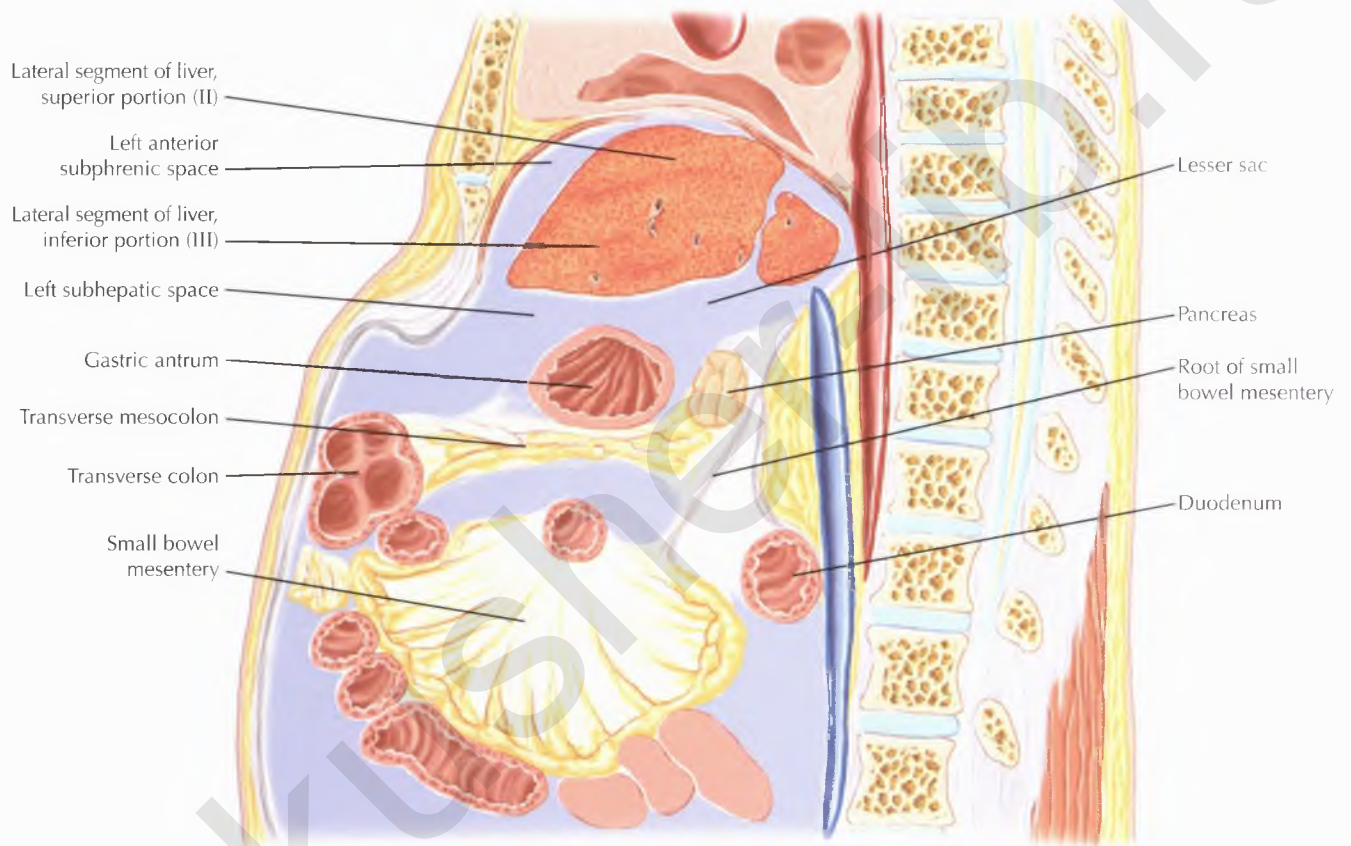


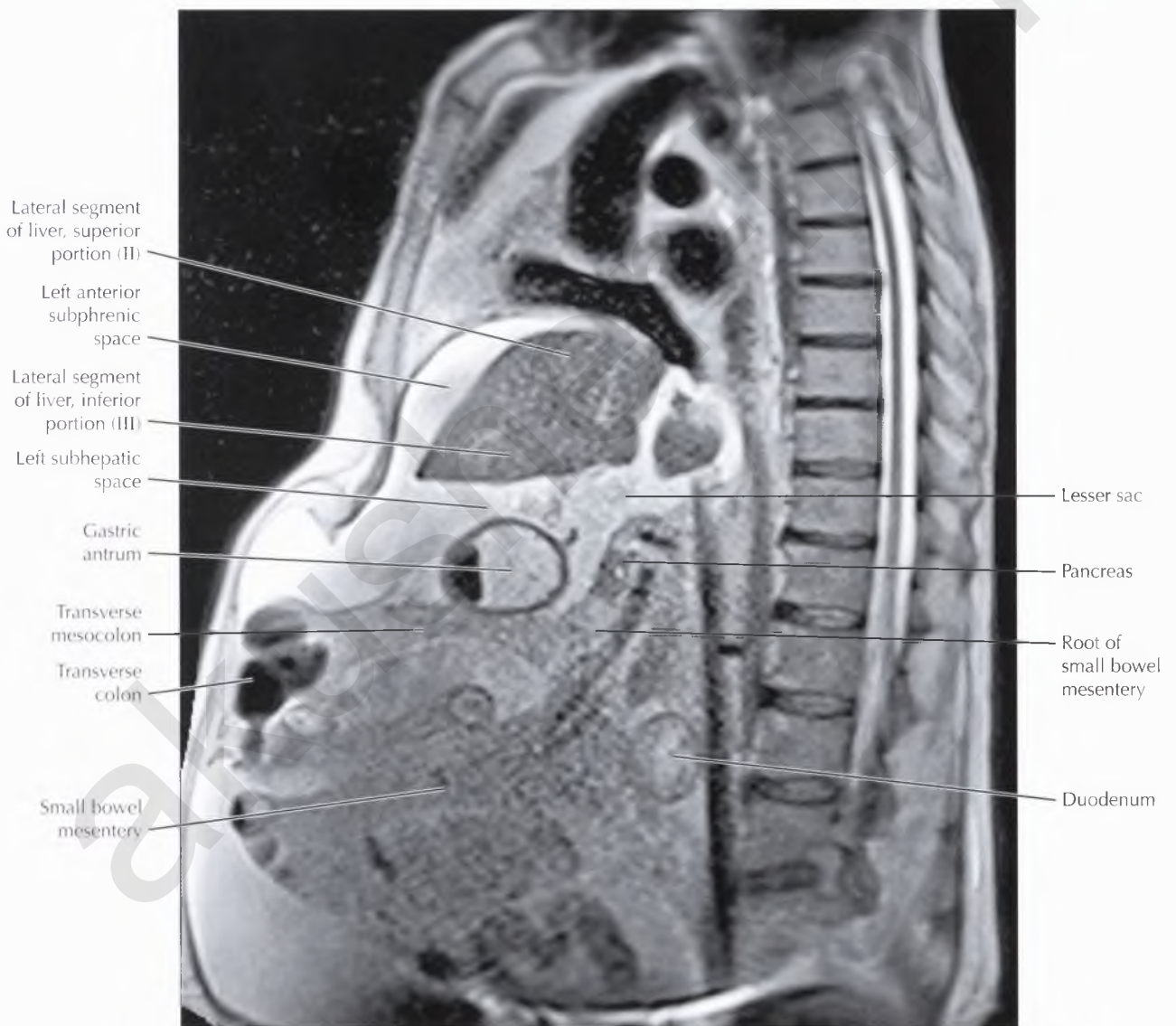
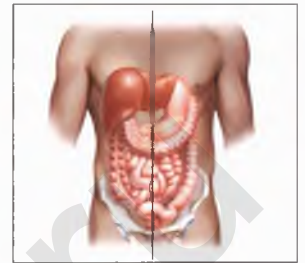


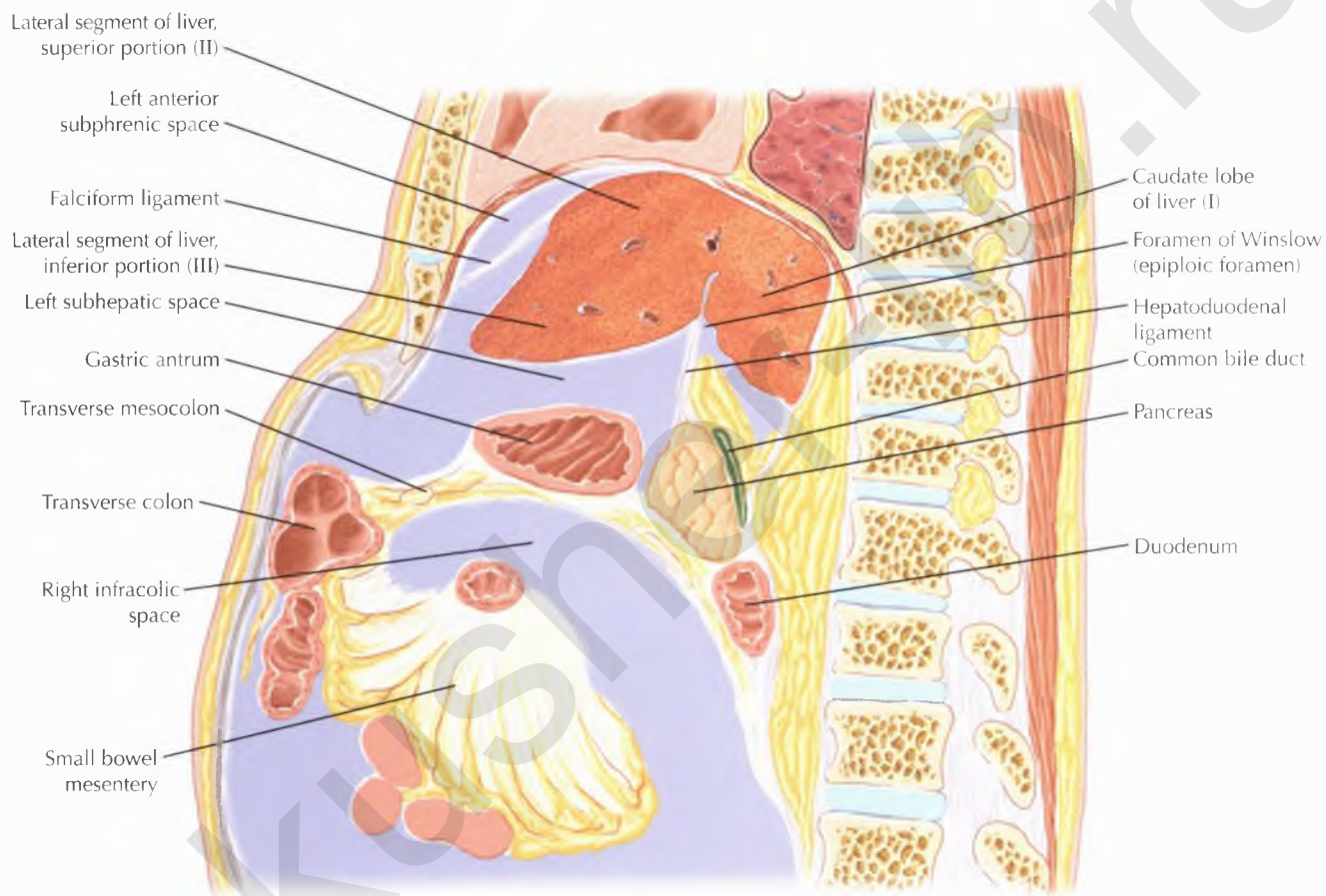
PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

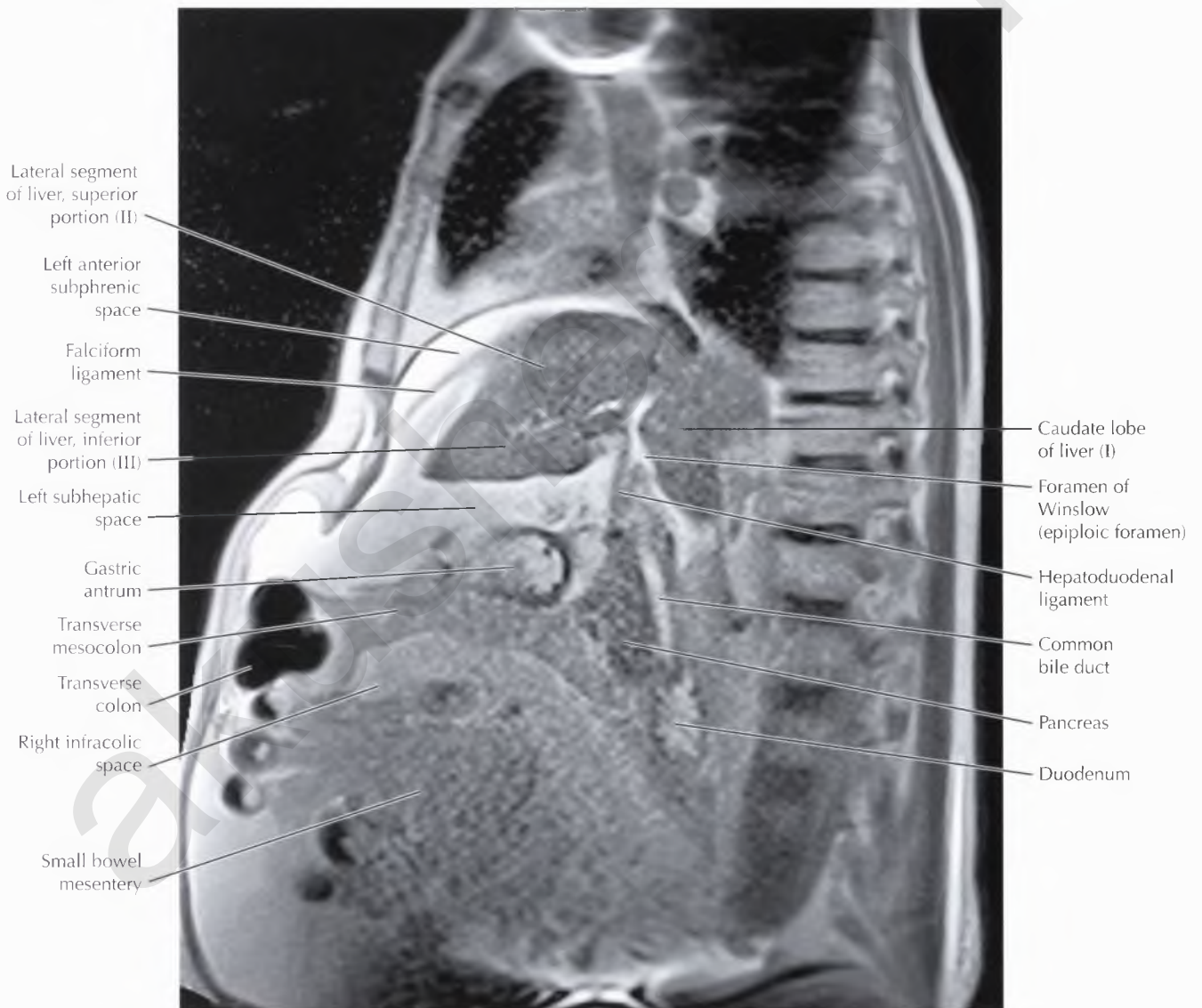
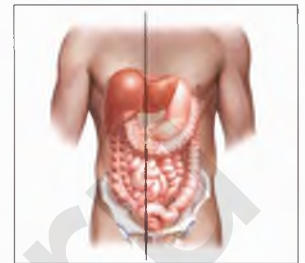
Omental caking is caused by the accumulation of abnormal tissue within the omentum, usually caused by peritoneal carcinomatosis. Subtle infiltration or nodularity of the omentum is often one of the earliest signs of peritoneal carcinomatosis.

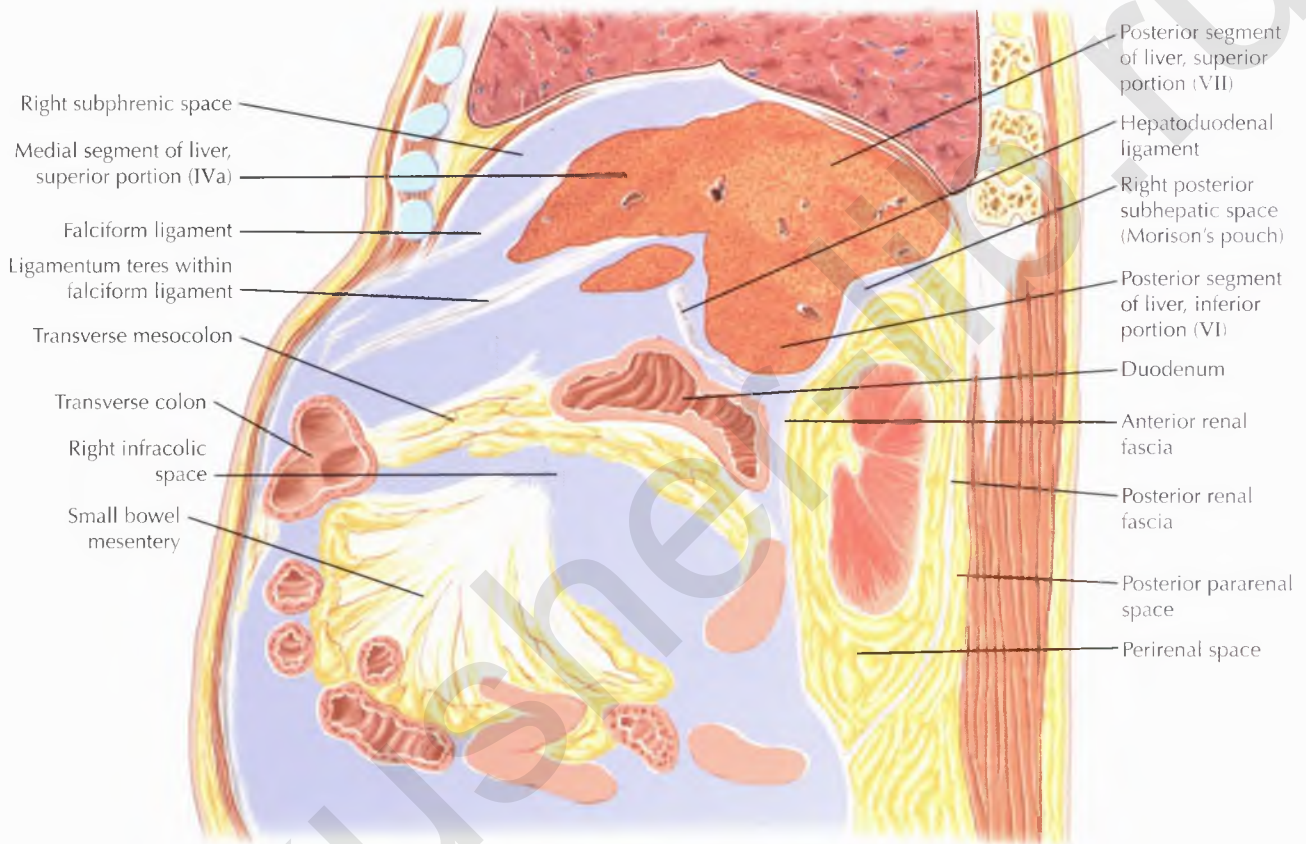






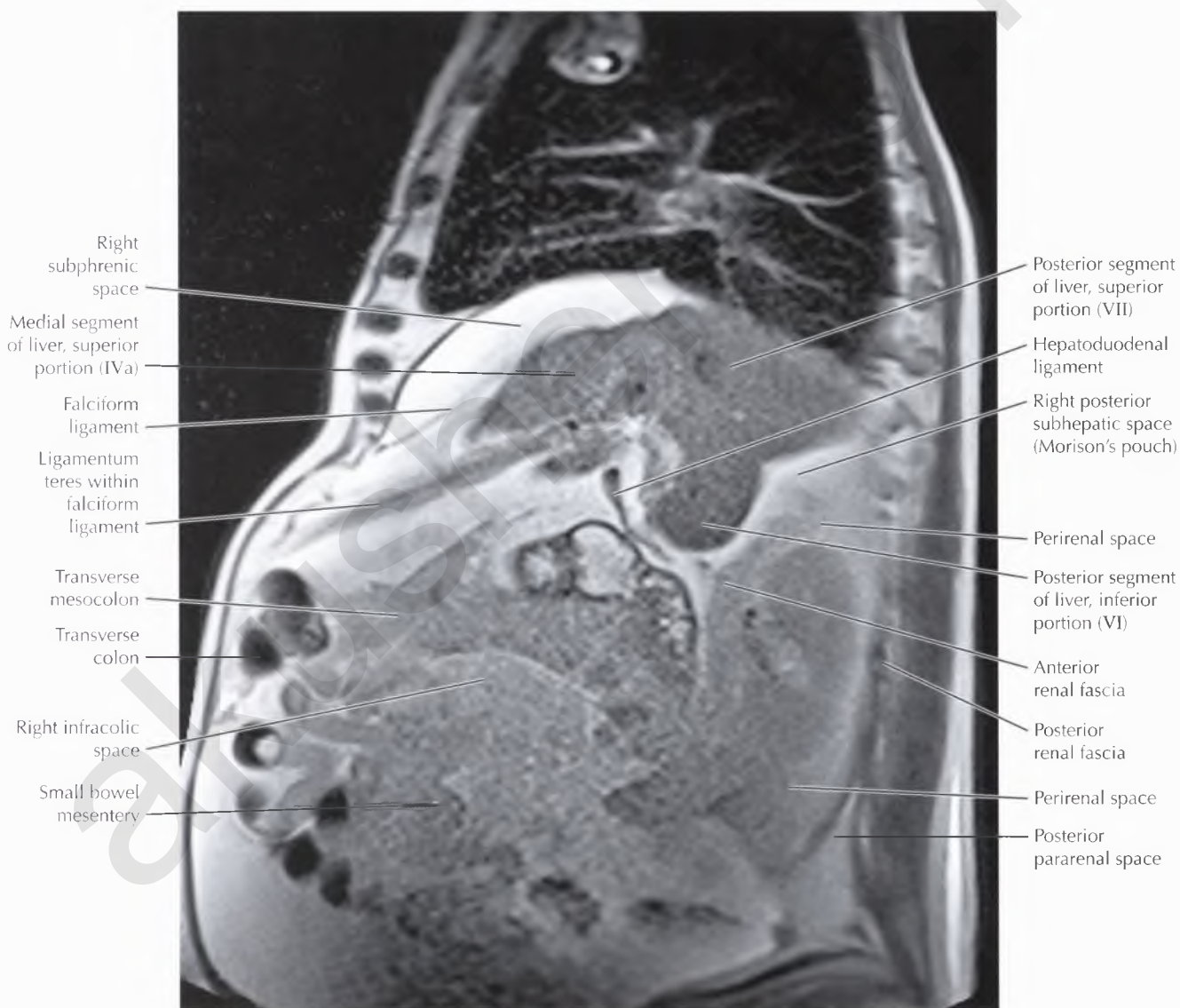


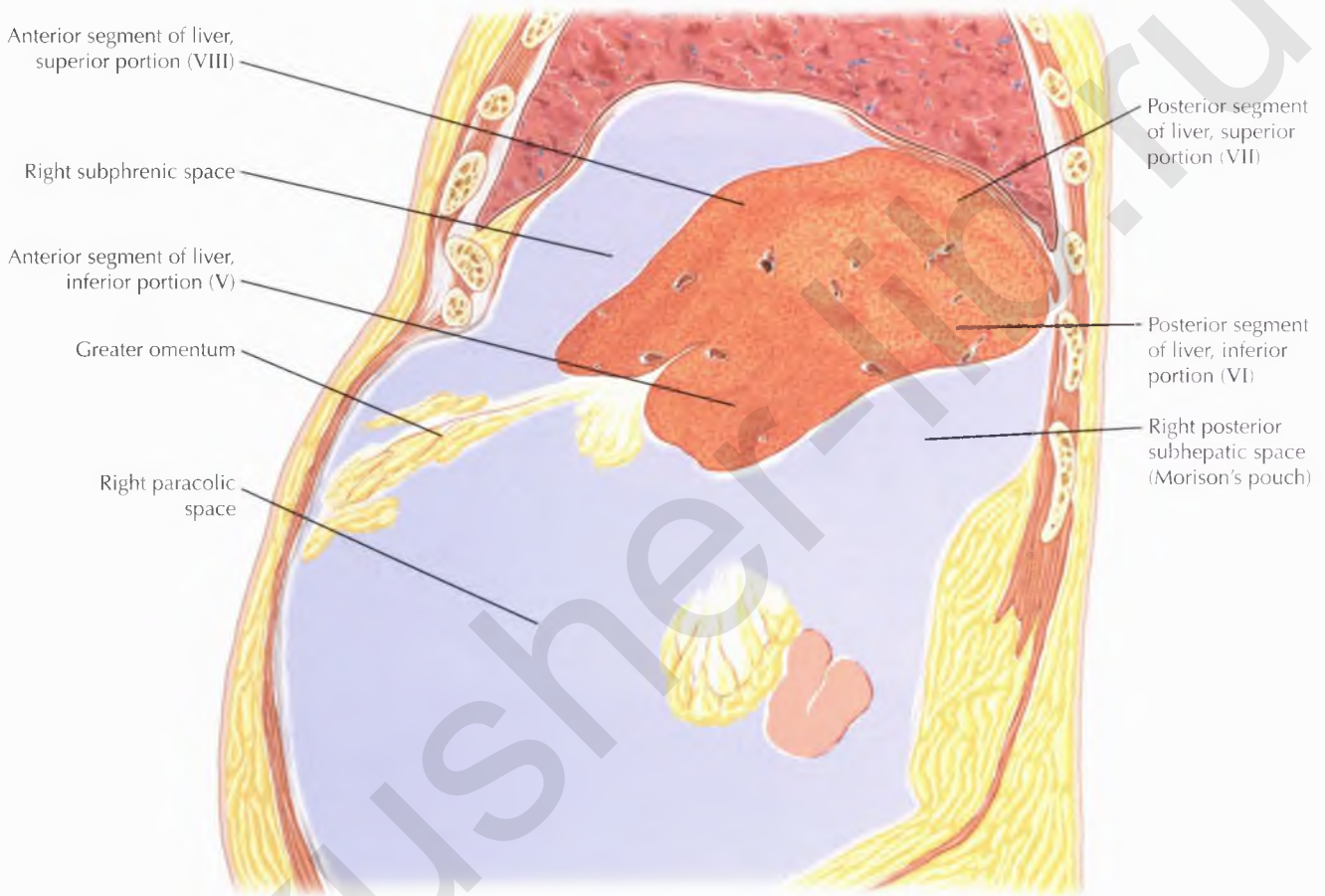




NORMAL ANATOMY

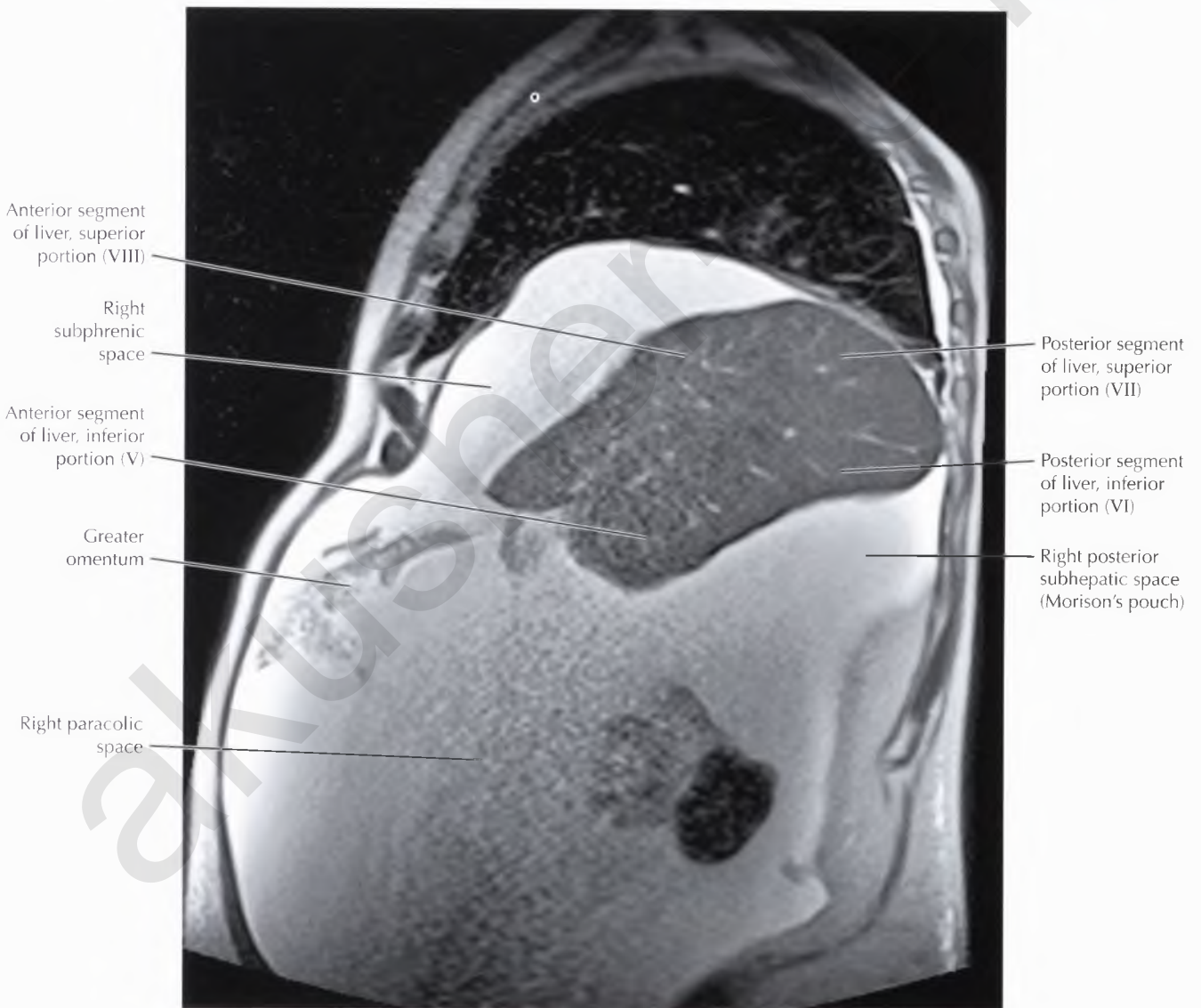
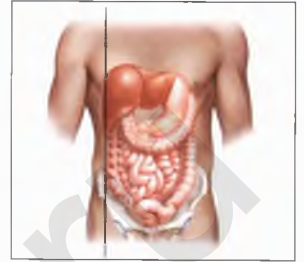
The falciform ligament is a peritoneal reflection enclosing the *ligamentum teres*, the obliterated remnant of the umbilical vein, as it travels from the umbilicus to the liver.

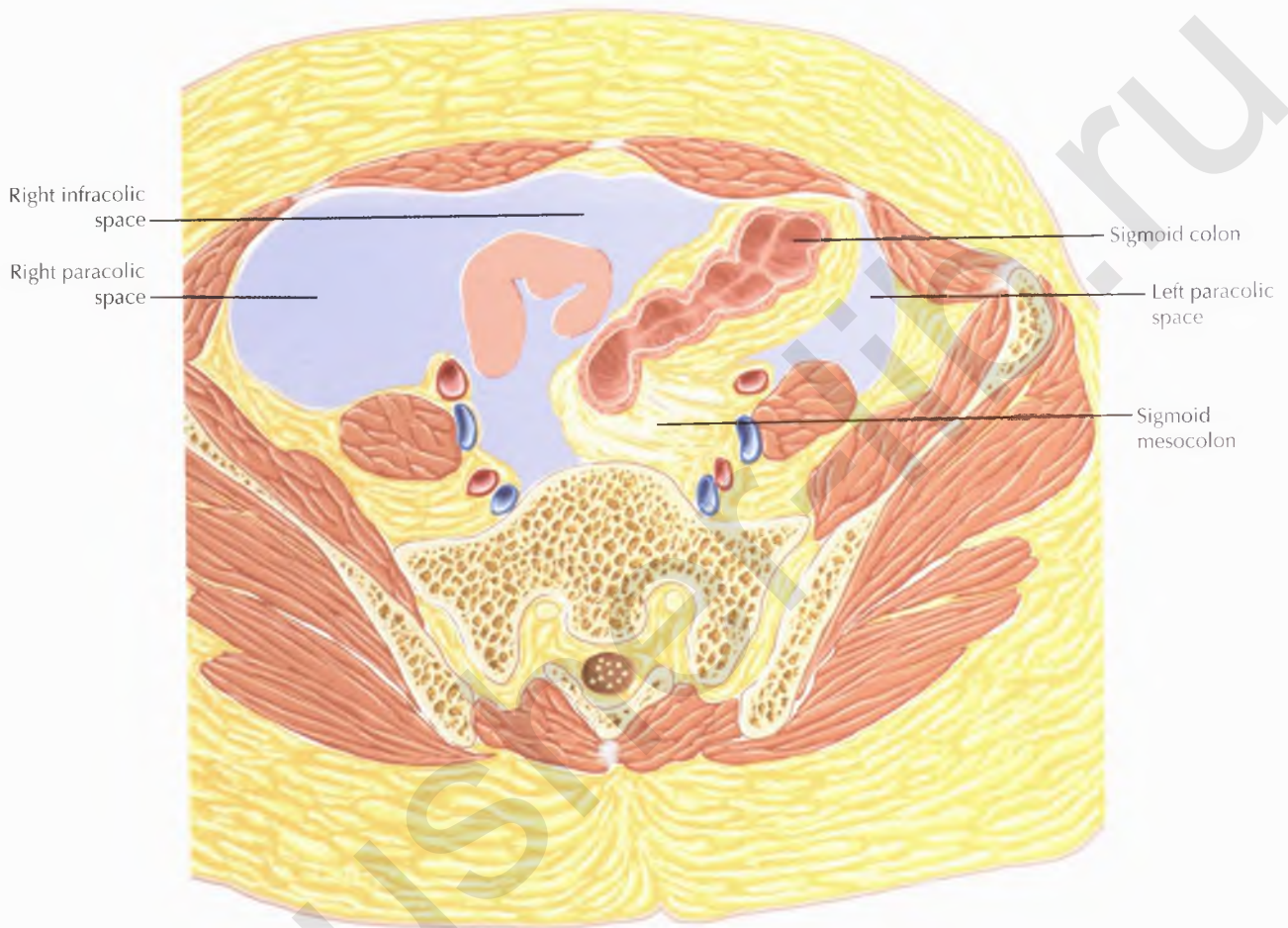




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

Inflammatory processes and malignancies in the pelvis can spread superiorly through the right paracolic space into the right subphrenic and subhepatic spaces. However, the left phrenico-colic ligament prevents superior extension of disease from the left paracolic space into the left subphrenic and subhepatic spaces.



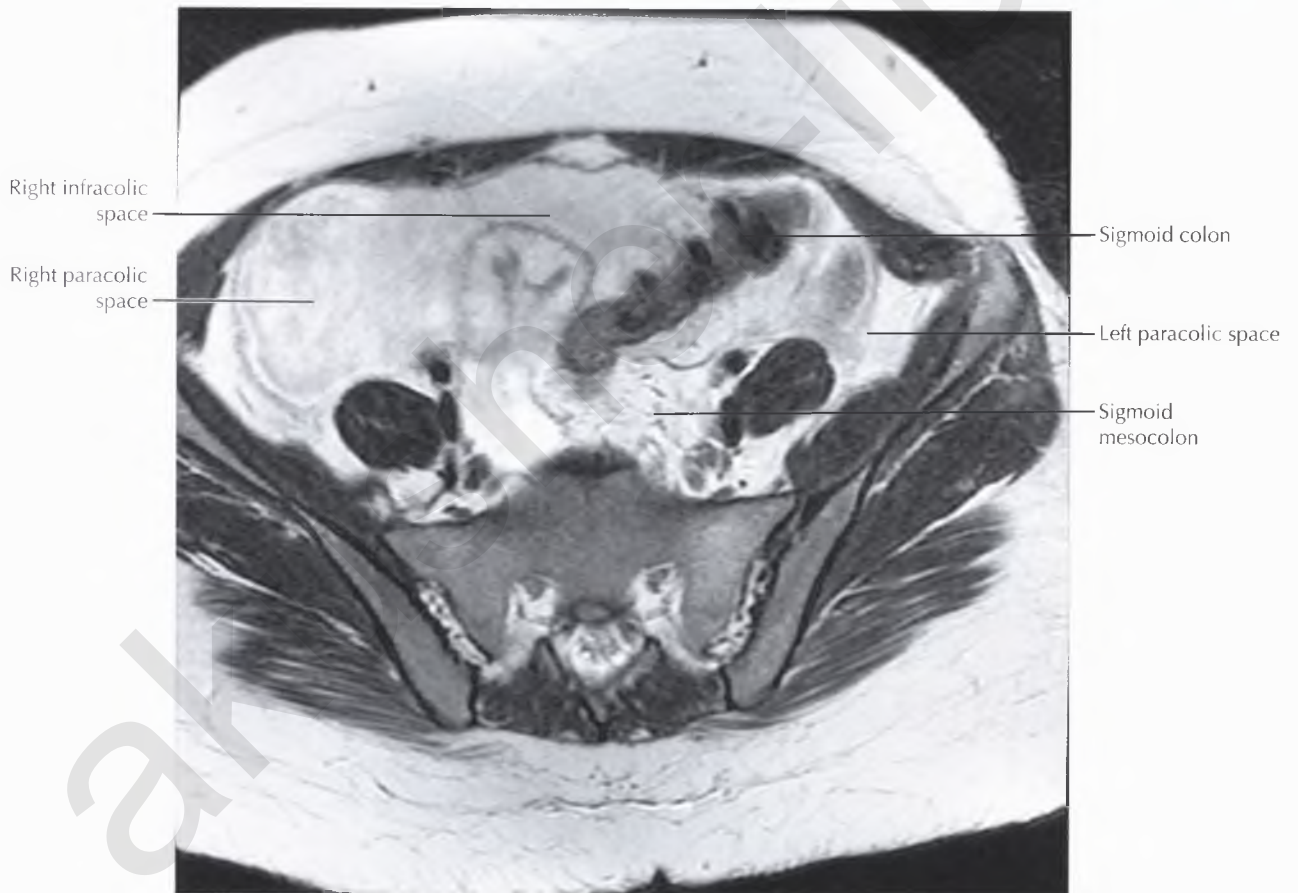
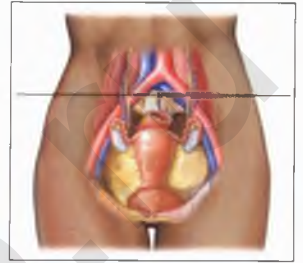


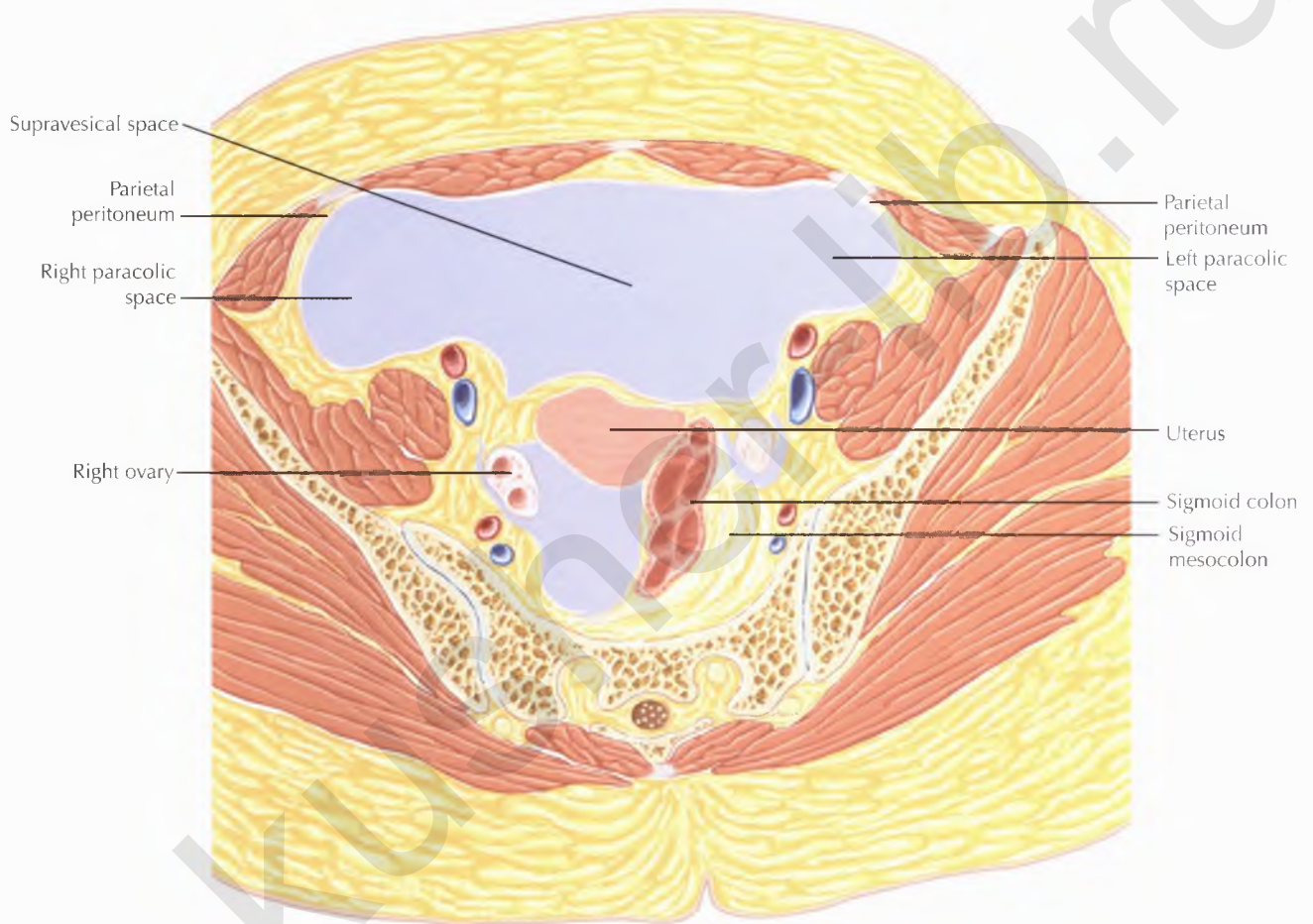
NORMAL ANATOMY

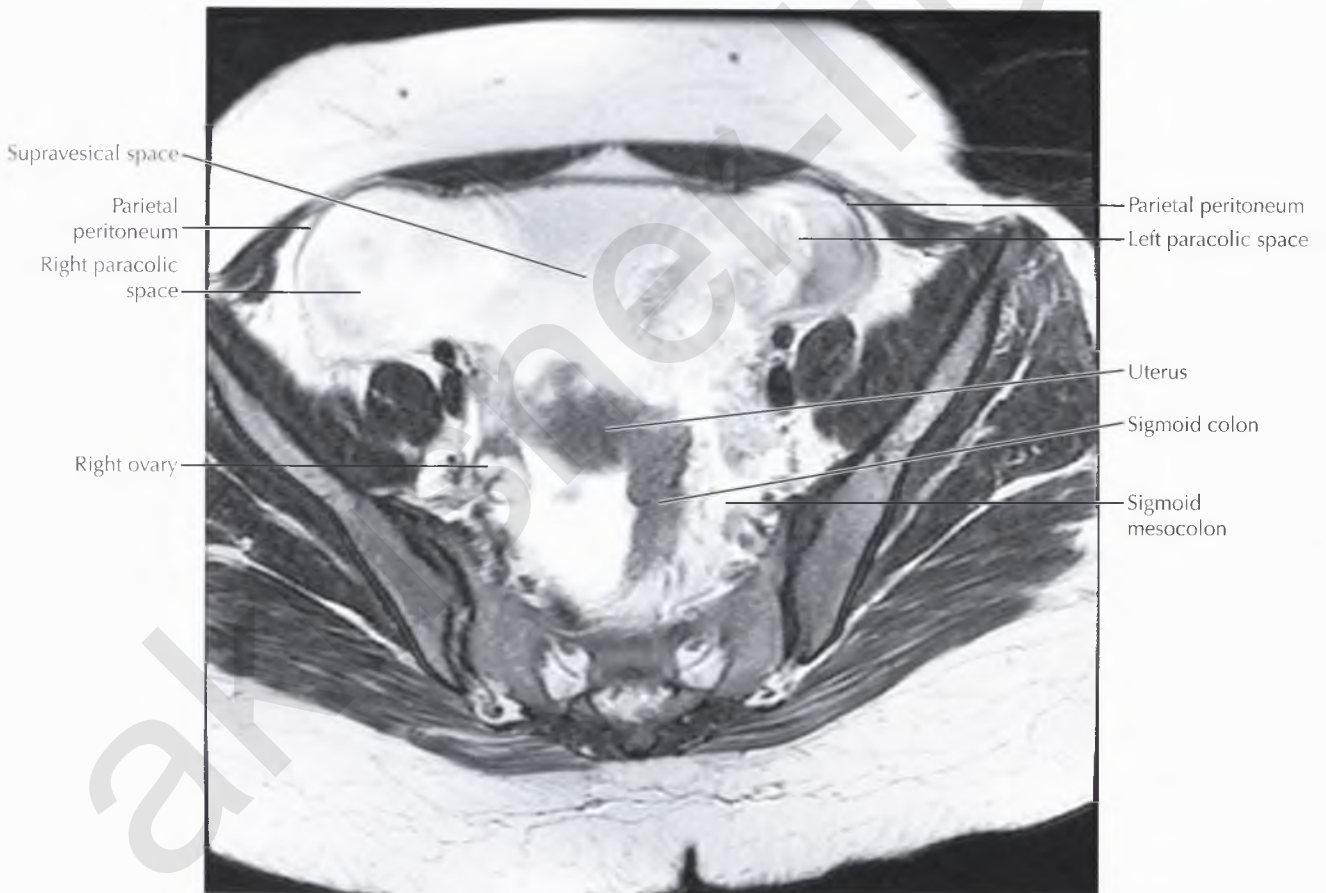
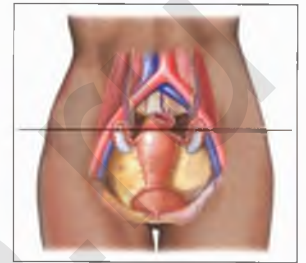
Branches from the inferior mesenteric artery and vein, including the sigmoid and superior rectal vessels, pass within the sigmoid mesocolon.

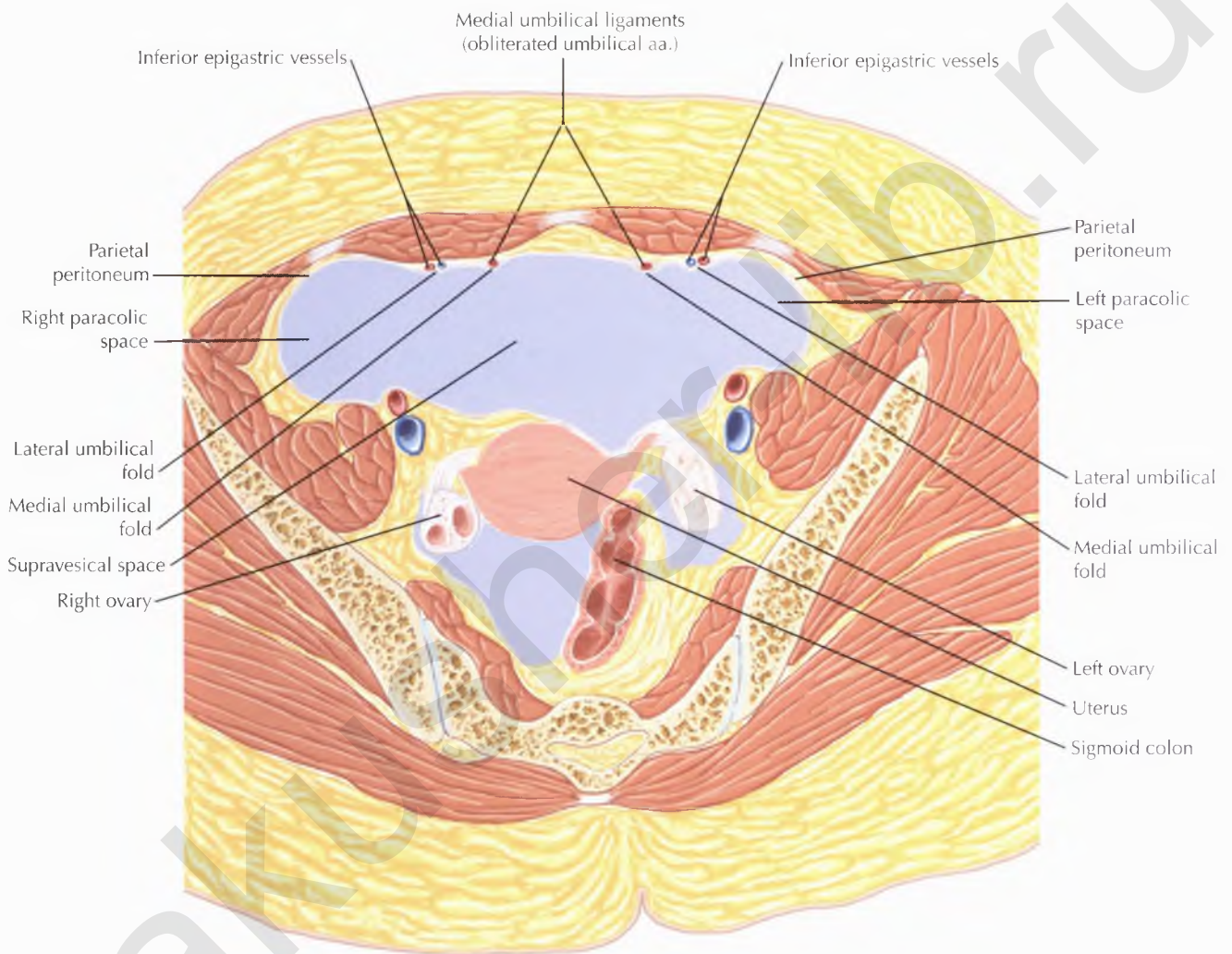
PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

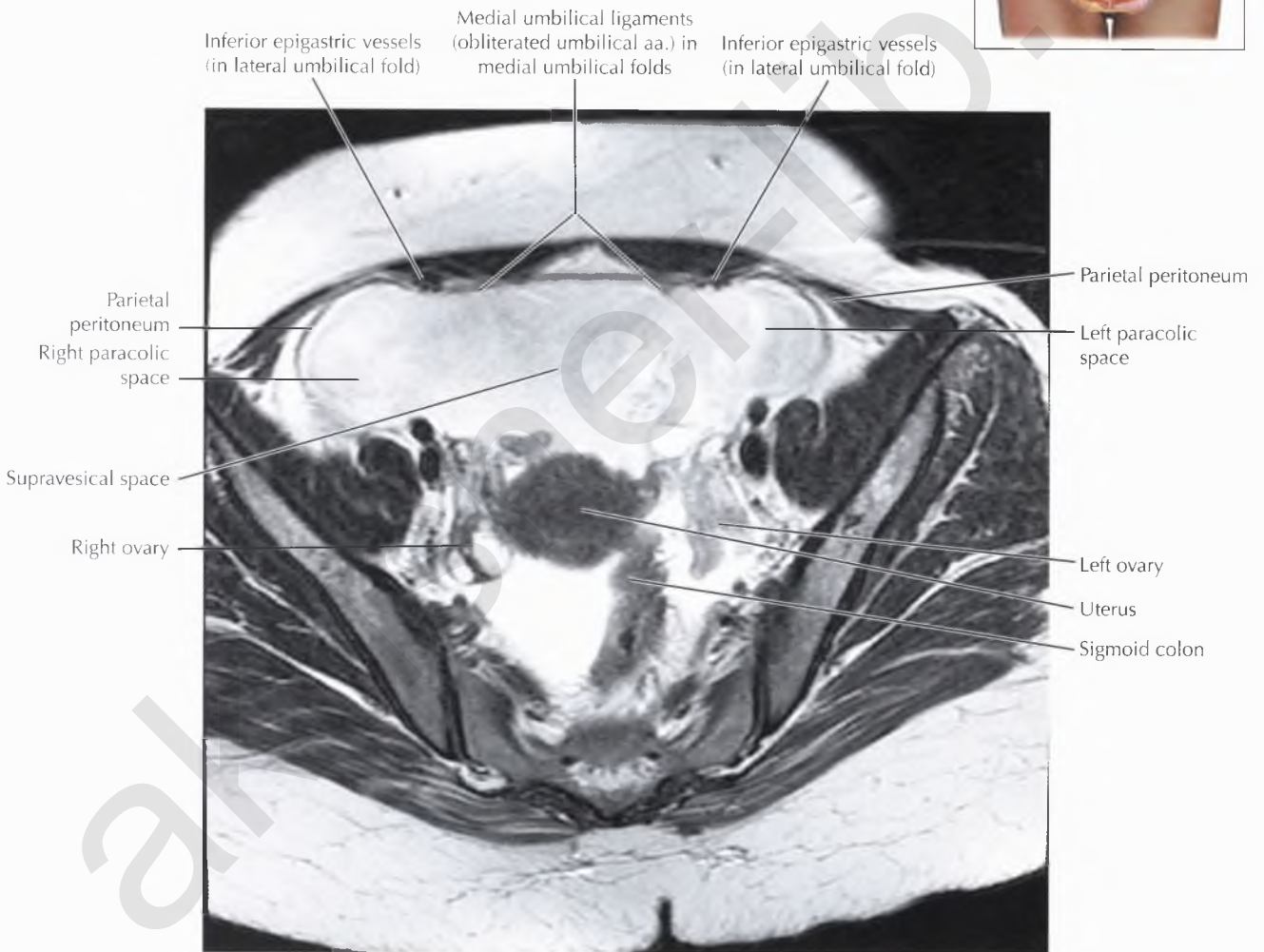
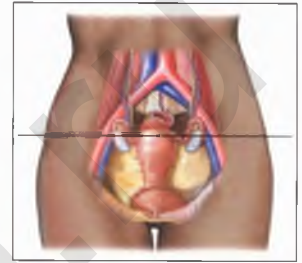
The pelvic ligaments and peritoneal spaces are best appreciated in the presence of ascites, as in this example.

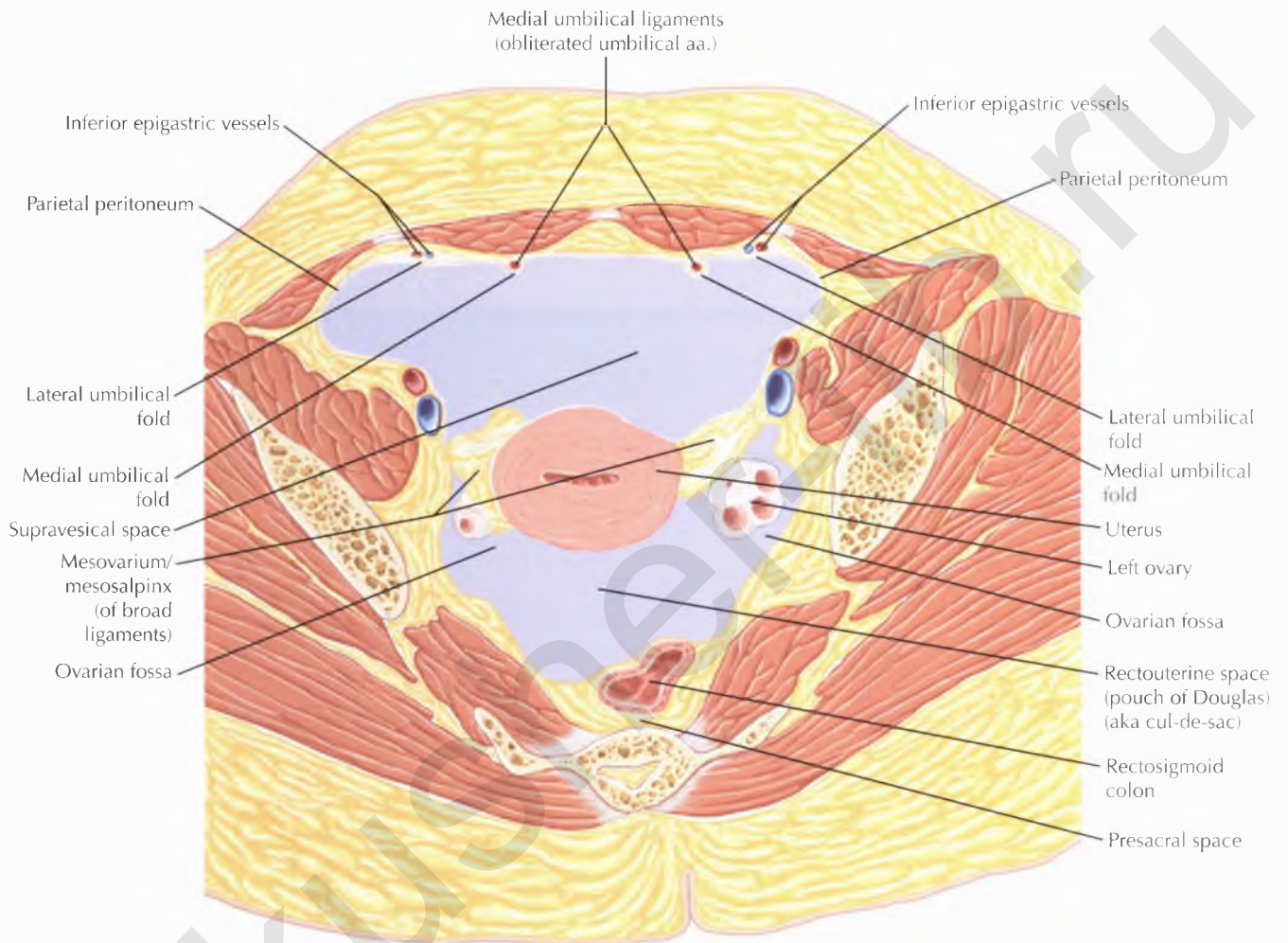






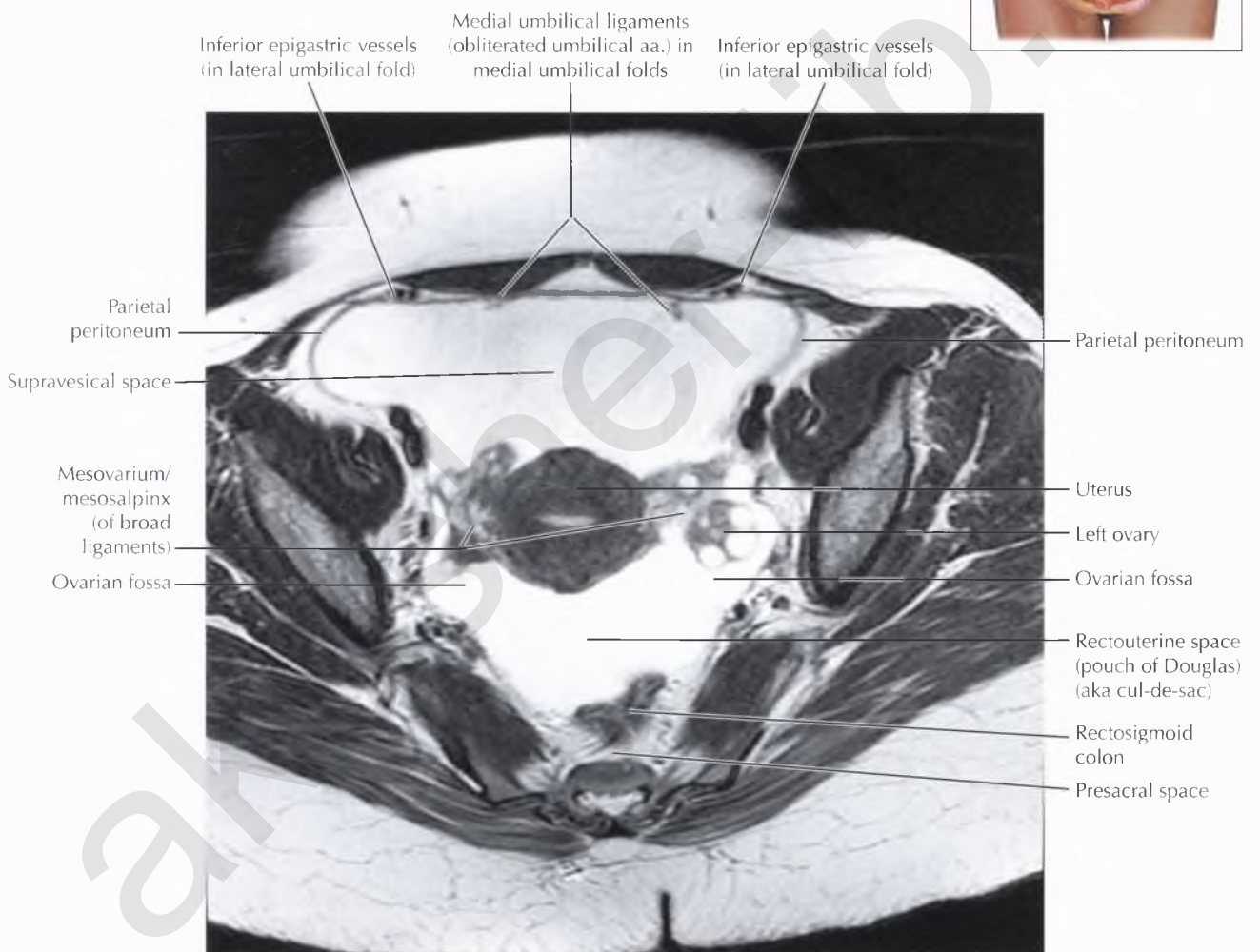
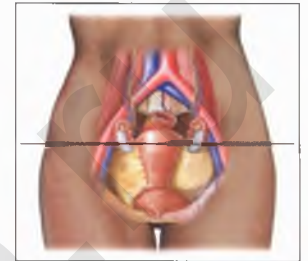


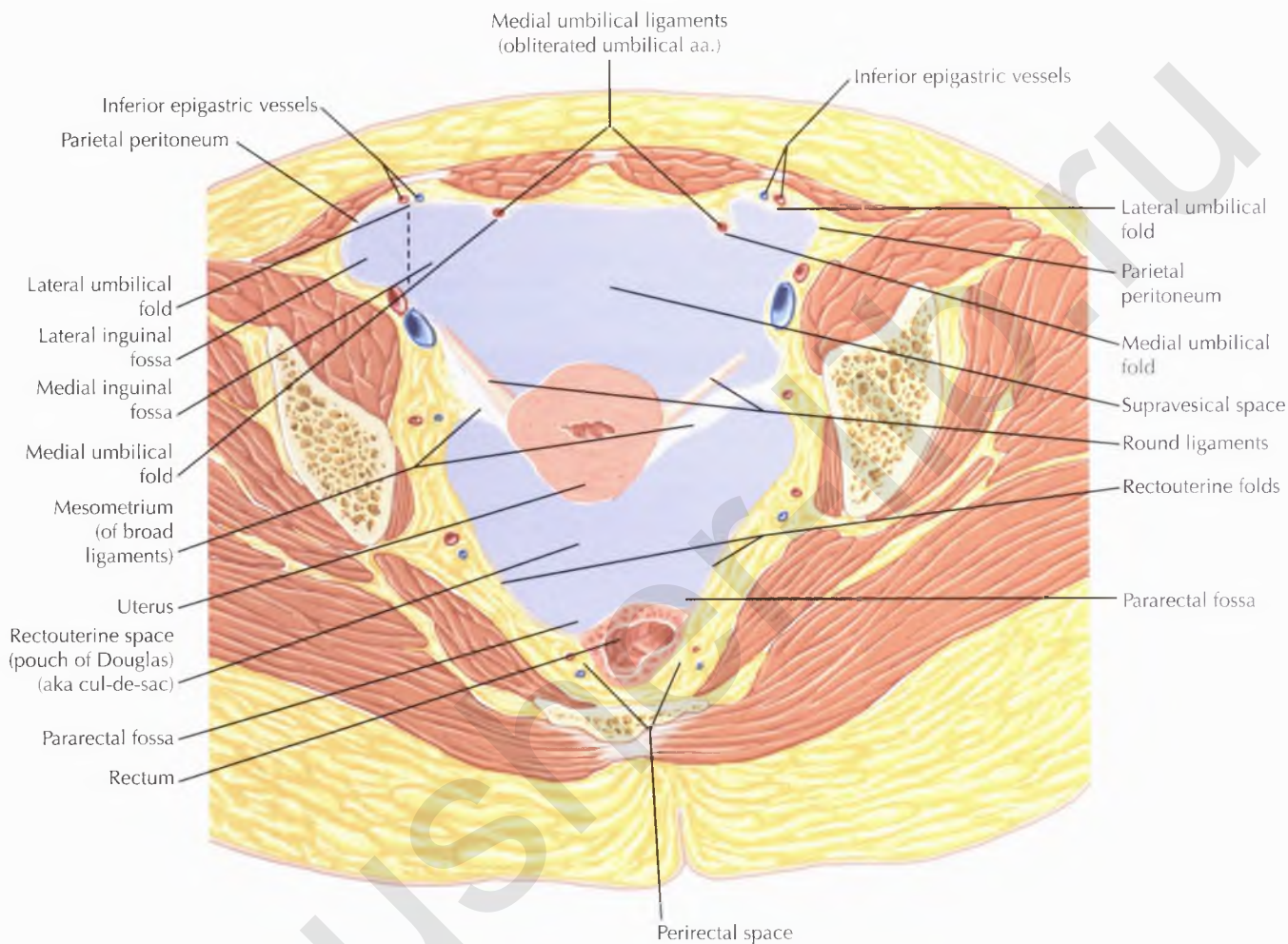




NORMAL ANATOMY

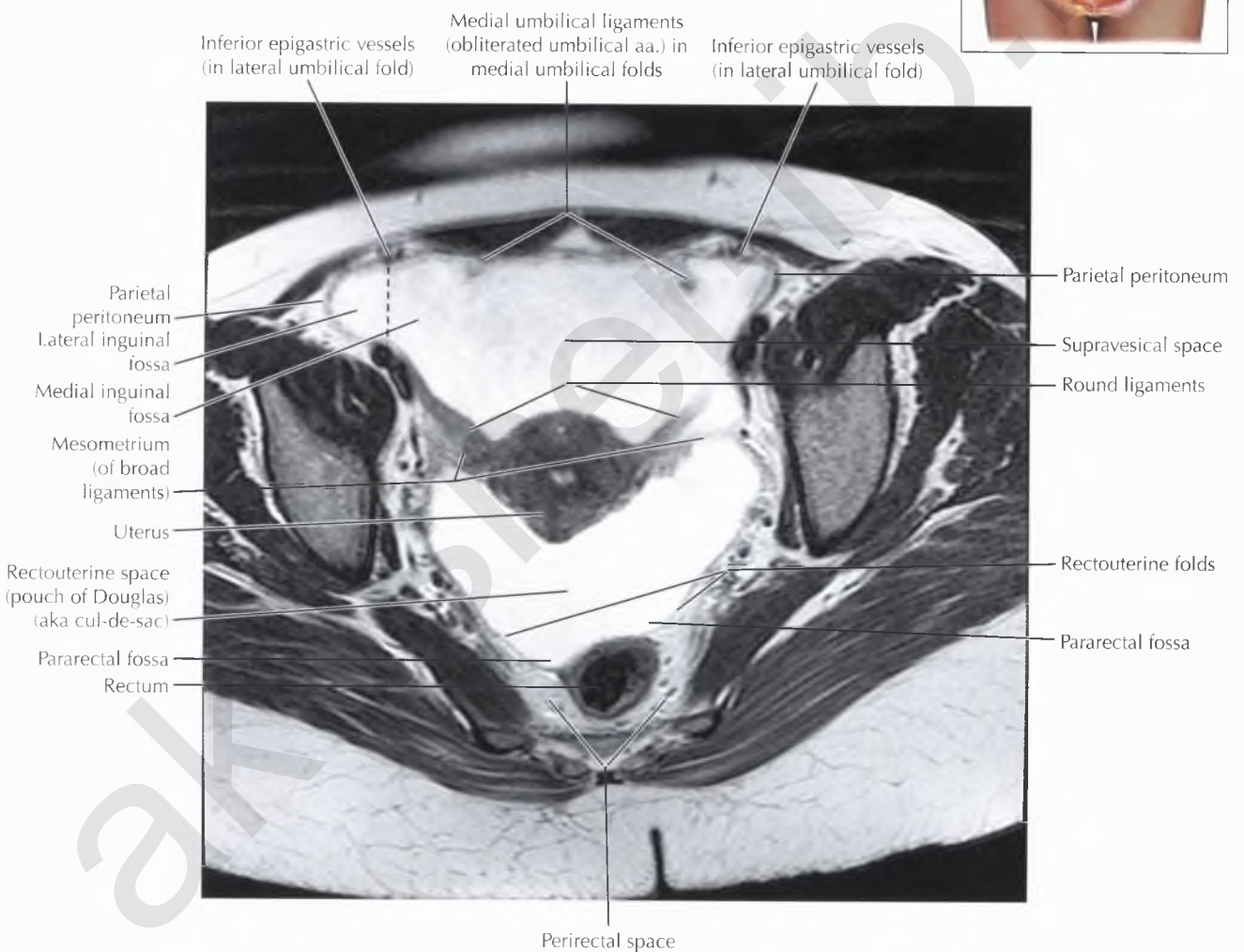
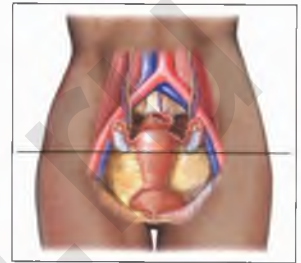
The *presacral* (or retrorectal) *space* is a fat-containing extraperitoneal space seen between the upper two thirds of the rectum and the sacrum. Presacral space tumors often arise from embryonic remnants, with *sacrococcygeal teratoma* the most common tumor arising in this region. MR imaging is useful for delineating soft tissue planes and evaluating the presence or extent of osseous invasion and nerve involvement, which is important for surgical planning.

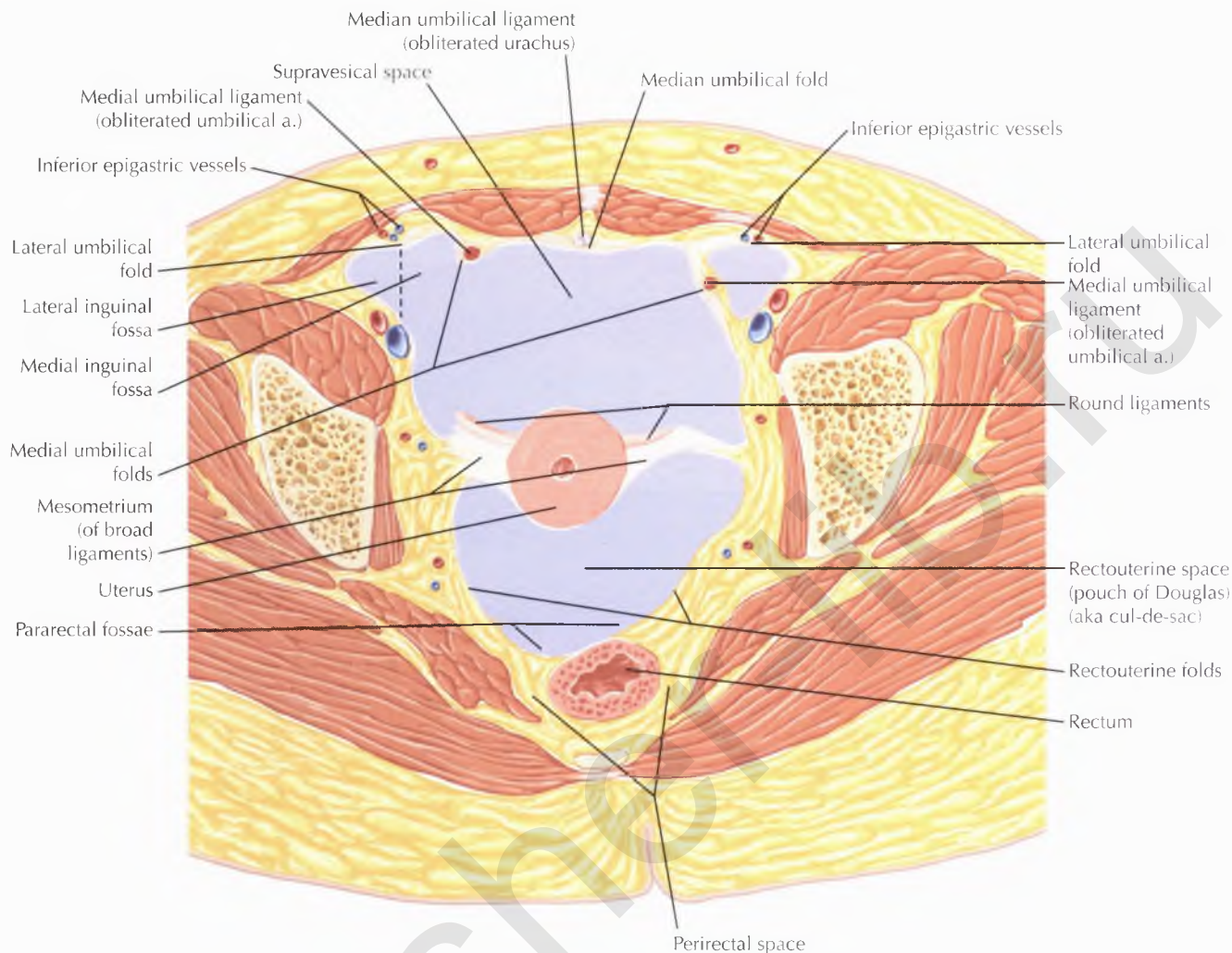




NORMAL ANATOMY

The paired *broad ligaments* are formed by two layers of peritoneum that drape over the uterus and extend laterally from the uterus to the pelvic side walls. The superior free edge of each broad ligament is formed by the fallopian tube medially and the suspensory ligament of the ovary laterally. The paired *round ligaments* are bands of fibromuscular tissue that also course within the broad ligament, attaching to the anterolateral uterine fundus and extending anteriorly through the deep inguinal ring and inguinal canal, terminating in the labia majora. Uterine and ovarian blood vessels, nerves, and lymphatics as well as a portion of the pelvic ureters also course within the broad ligaments.





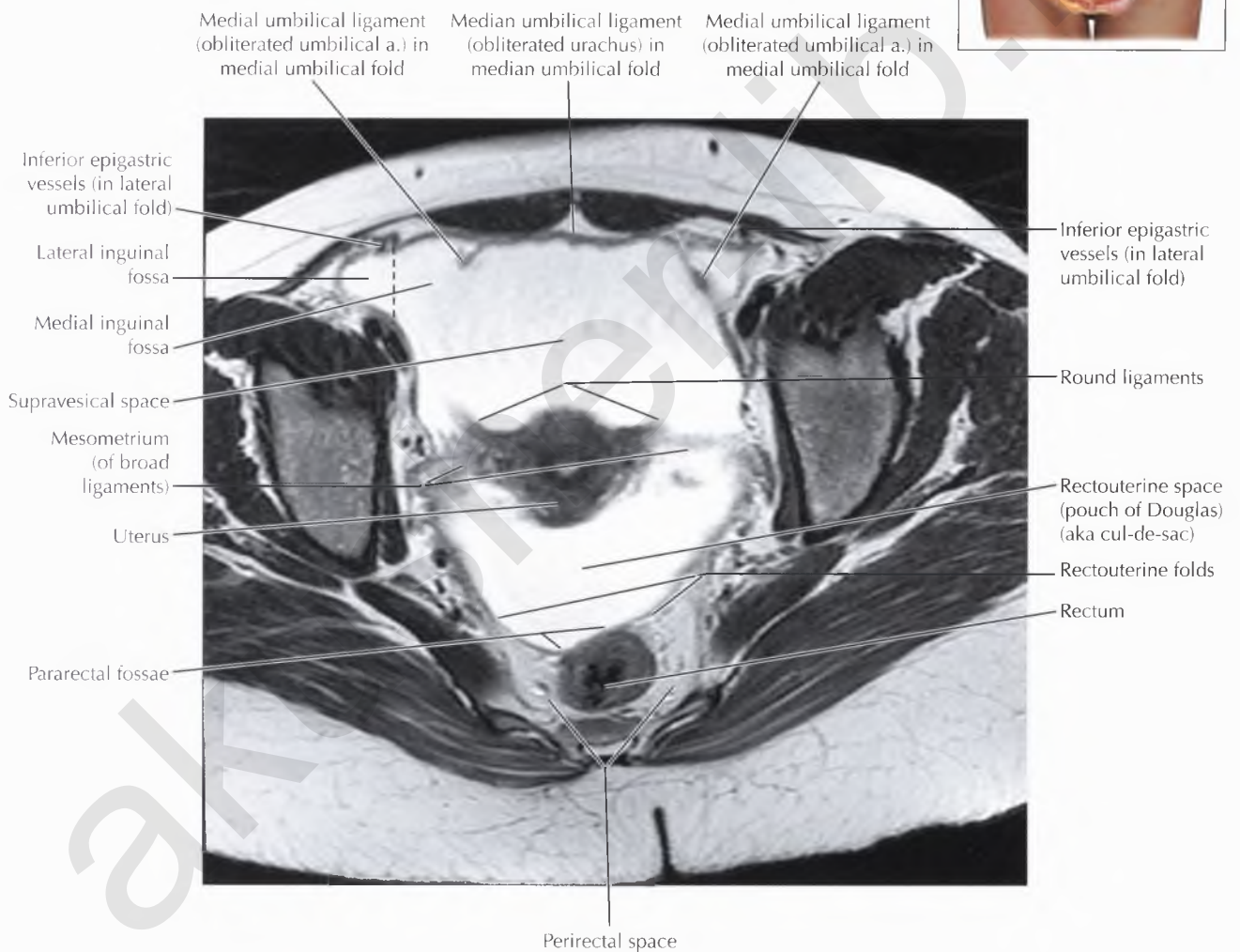
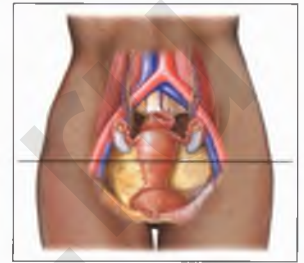
NORMAL ANATOMY

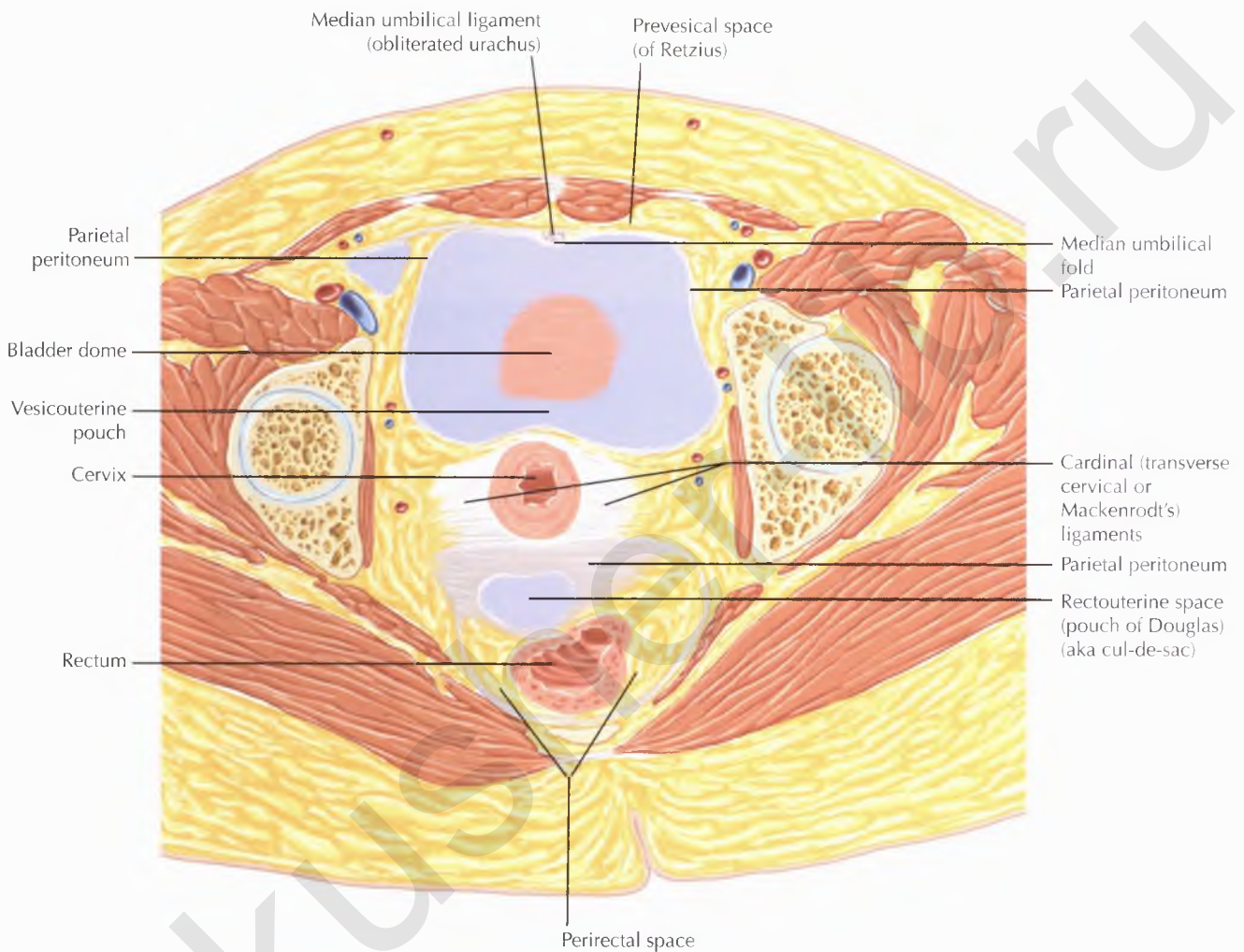
The *median umbilical ligament*, which represents the obliterated urachus, courses within the median umbilical fold, a single midline fold of peritoneum that extends from the anterosuperior bladder to the umbilicus. The paired *medial umbilical ligaments*, which represent the obliterated umbilical arteries, course within the medial umbilical folds of the peritoneum along the posterior aspect of the rectus abdominis muscles, between the median and lateral umbilical folds. Medial umbilical ligaments serve as landmarks for the superior aspect of the *umbilicovesical fascia*, a thin fascial plane triangular in configuration with apex at the umbilicus, seen anterior to the parietal peritoneum and posterior to the transversalis fascia.

The inferior epigastric vessels course within the paired lateral umbilical folds of the peritoneum, which separate the medial and lateral inguinal fossae.

DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

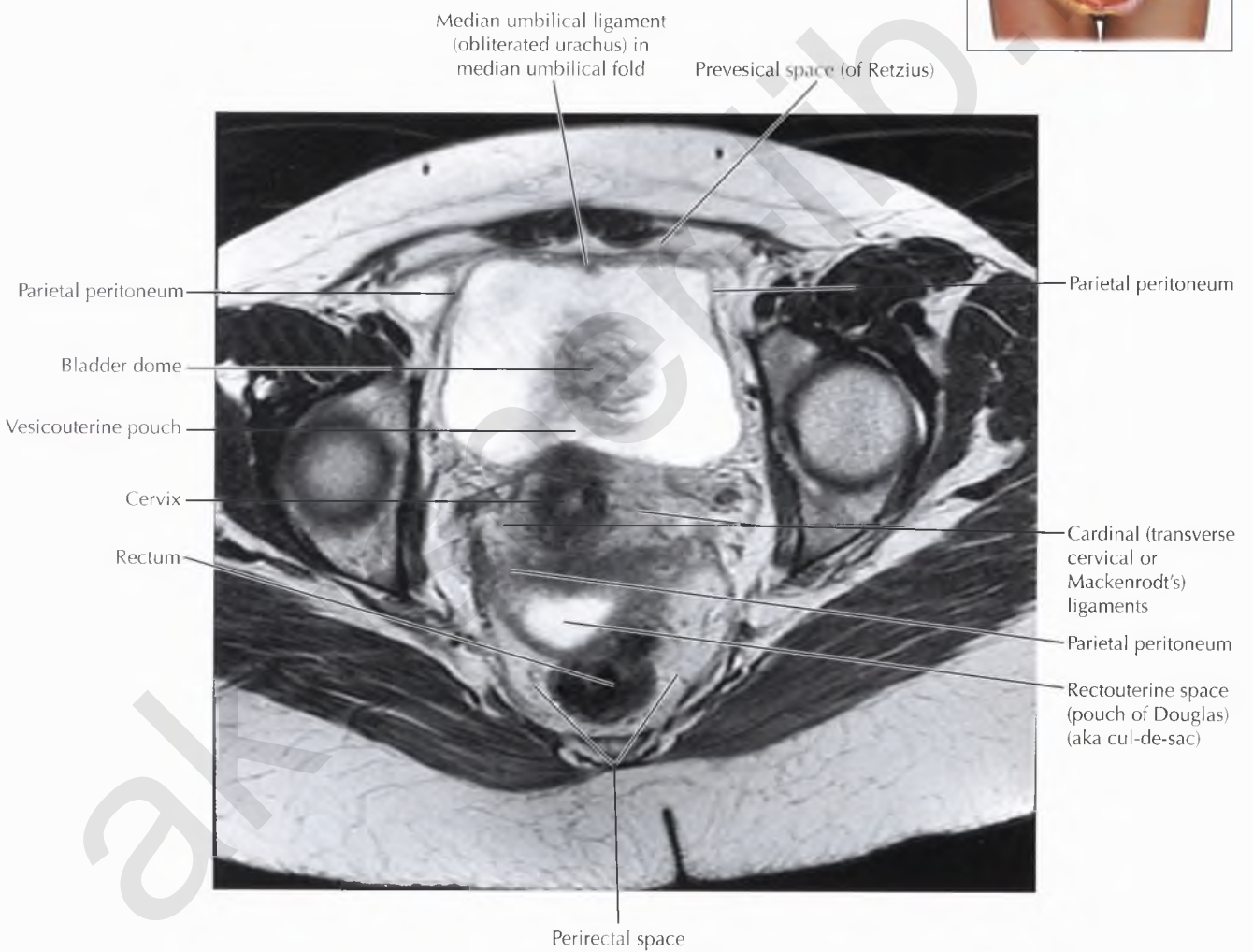
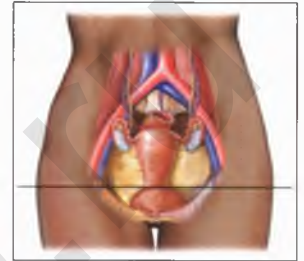
The deep inguinal ring lies lateral to the inferior epigastric vessels within the lateral inguinal fossa. In the patient with an indirect inguinal hernia, ascites may extend from the lateral inguinal fossa into the inguinal canal through a patent processus vaginalis (peritonei) in males or the "canal of Nuck" in females. In comparison, both femoral and direct inguinal hernias involve the medial inguinal fossa.

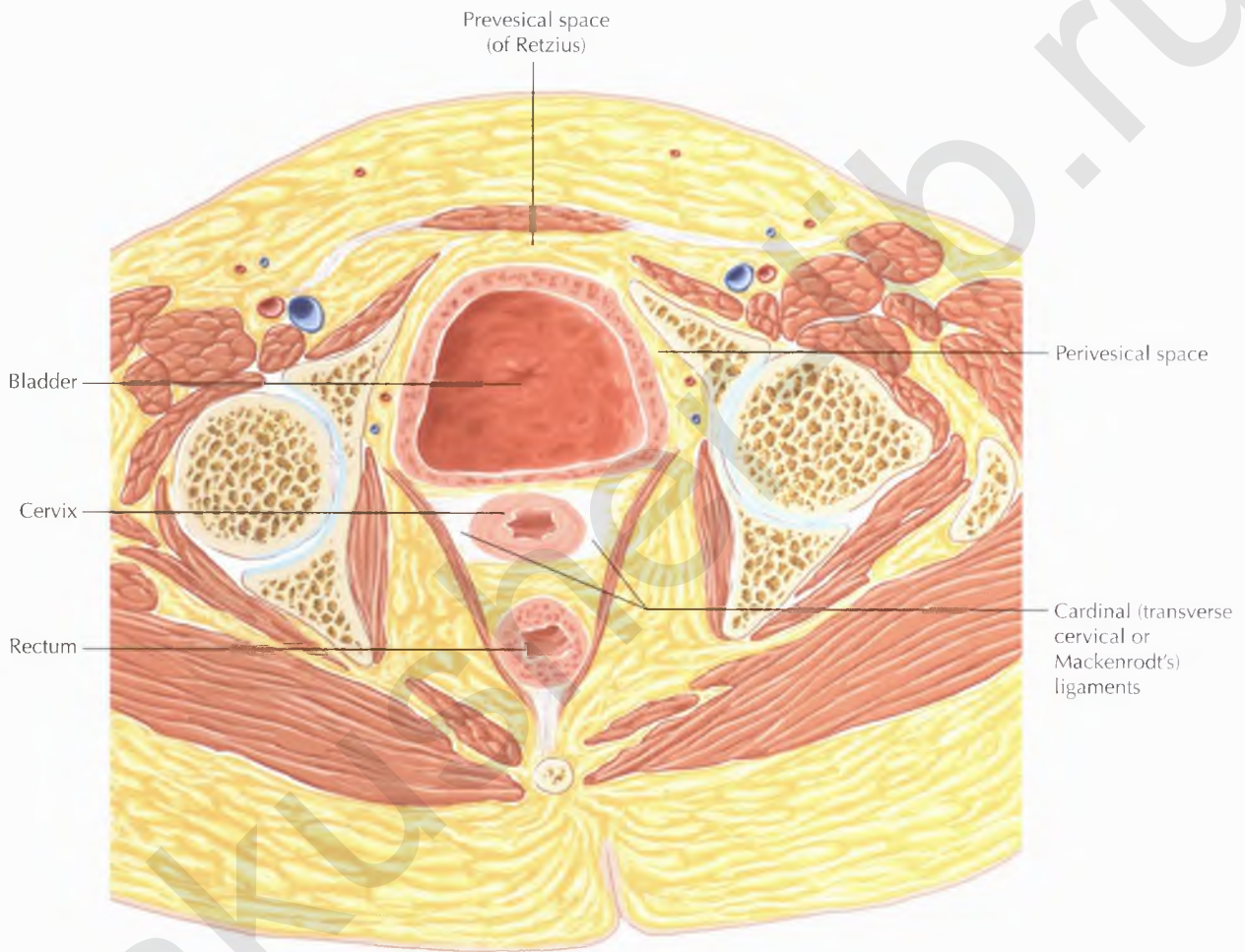


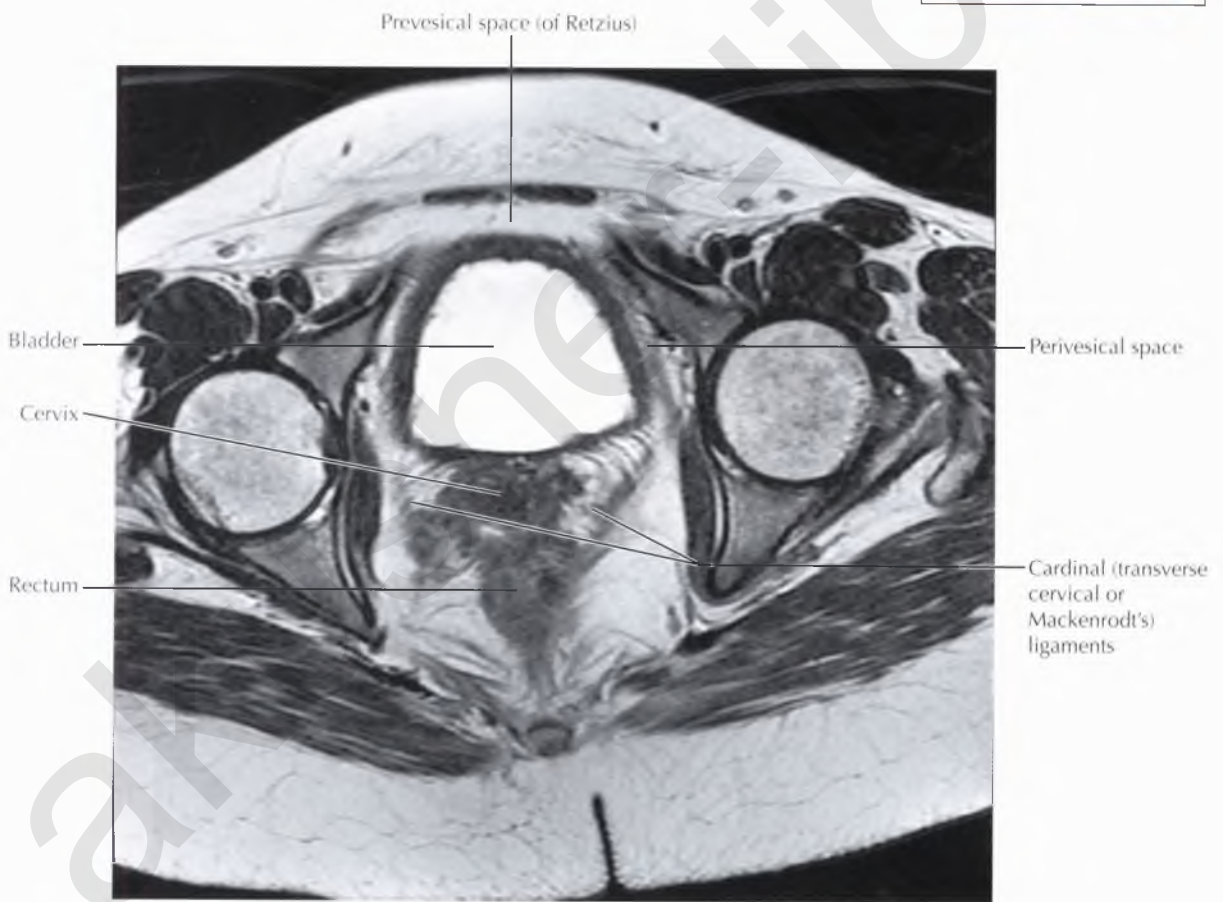
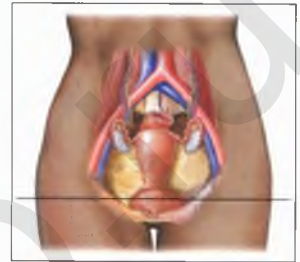


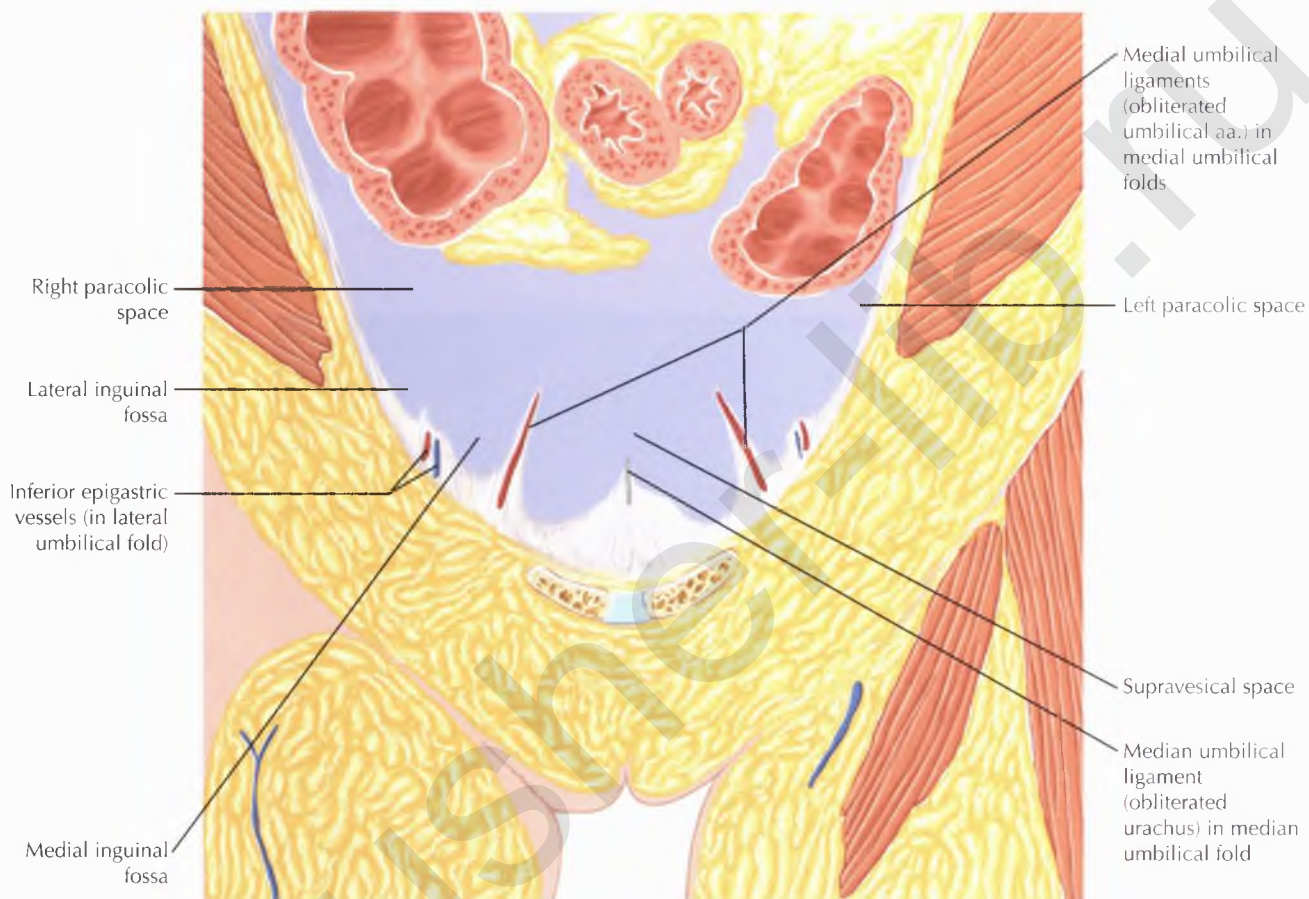
NORMAL ANATOMY

The perirectal space surrounds the rectum and is in continuity with the other major extraperitoneal spaces in the pelvis, including the prevesical space anteriorly and laterally as well as the presacral space. Denonvilliers' (rectoprostatic) fascia comprises the anterior perirectal fascia and the posterior prostatic fascia in males (see Chapter 1, Abdominal Wall and Viscera).





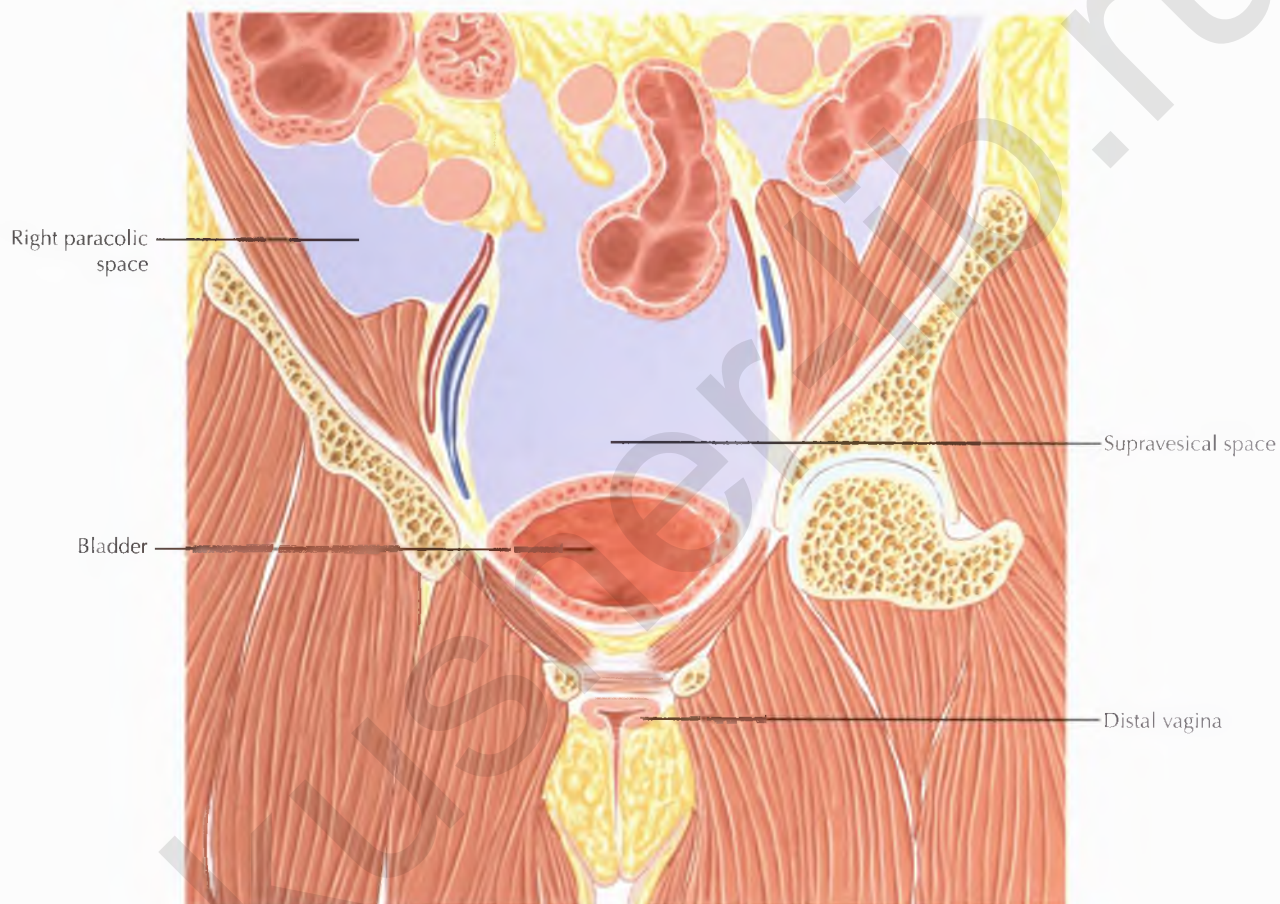


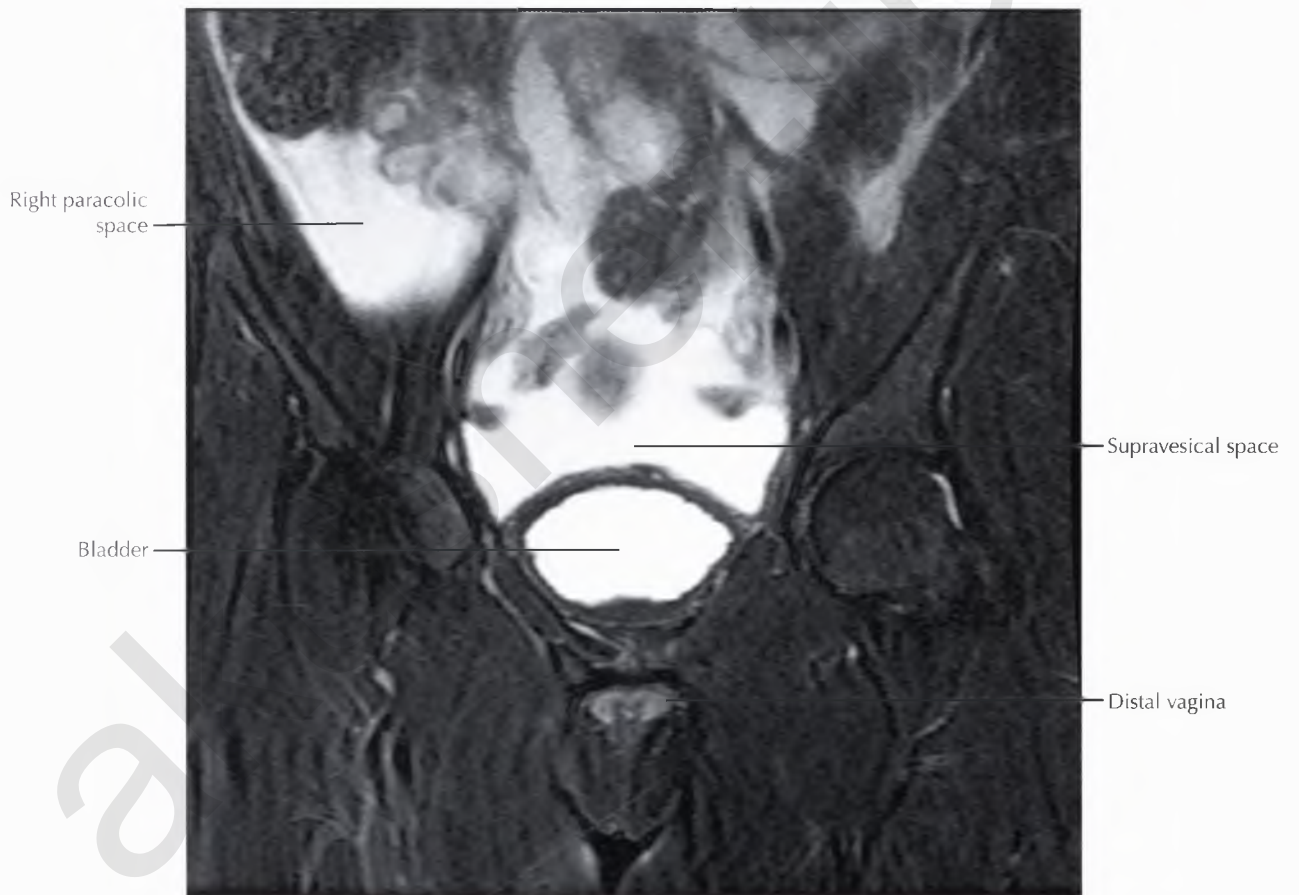


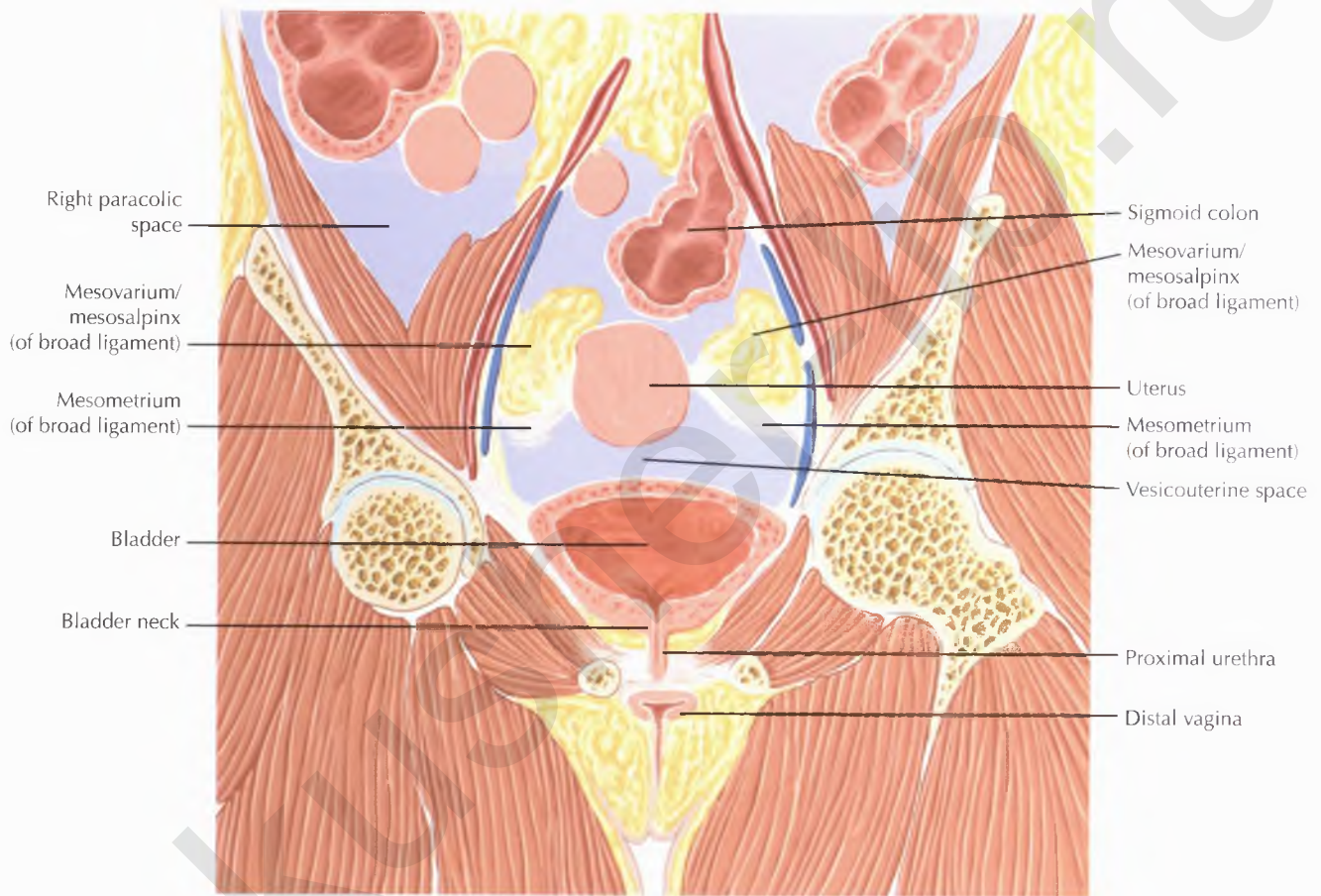
NORMAL ANATOMY

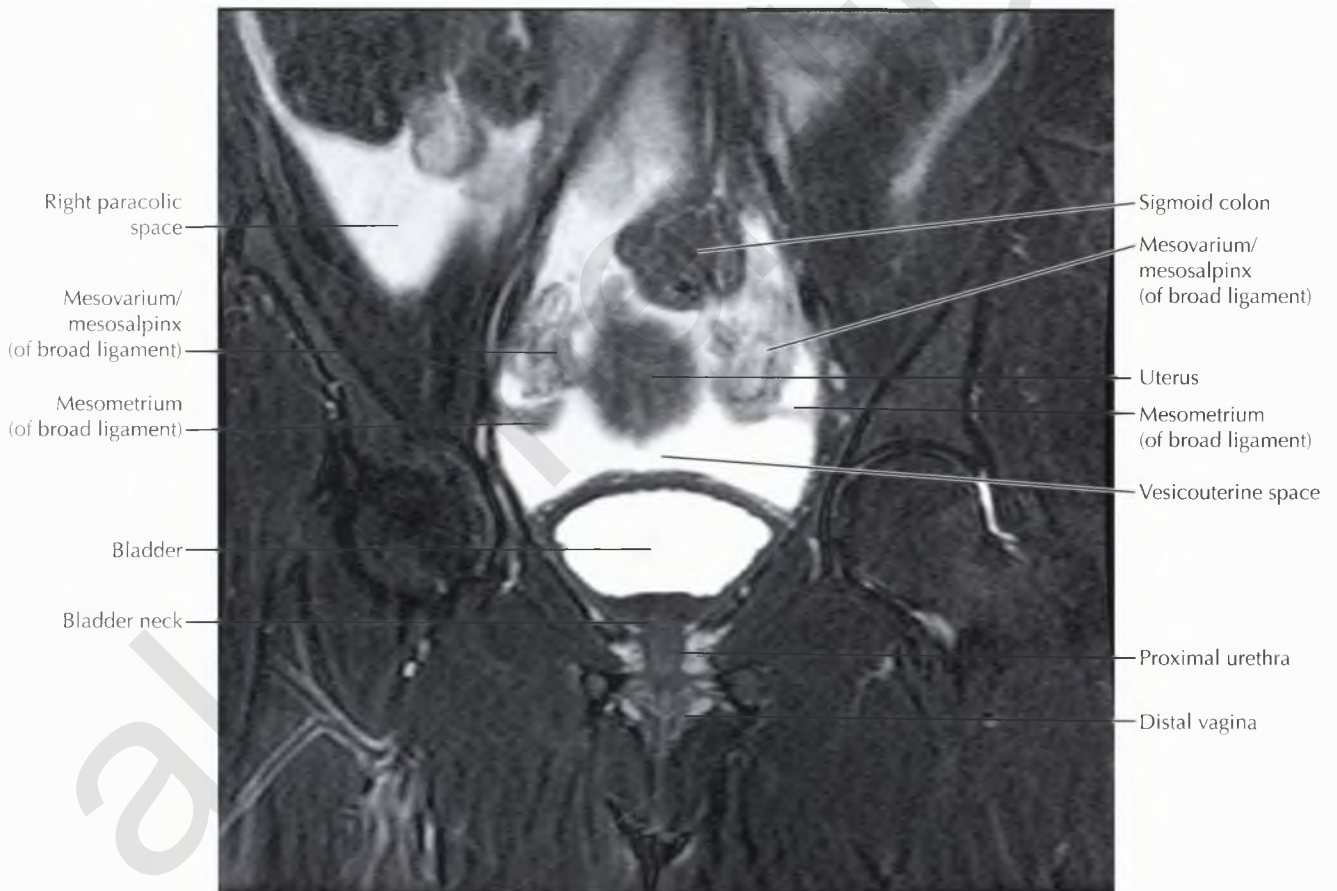
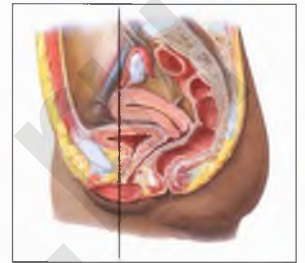
The medial and lateral umbilical folds separate the pelvic peritoneal paravesical spaces into the supravesical space, the medial inguinal fossa, and the lateral inguinal fossa (also seen on Pelvis Axials 5 and 6). The *supravesical space* is located superior to the urinary bladder and is bounded by the obliterated umbilical arteries running within the medial umbilical folds. The medial inguinal fossa is seen between the medial and lateral umbilical folds, and the lateral inguinal fossa between the lateral umbilical fold and the lateral parietal peritoneum.

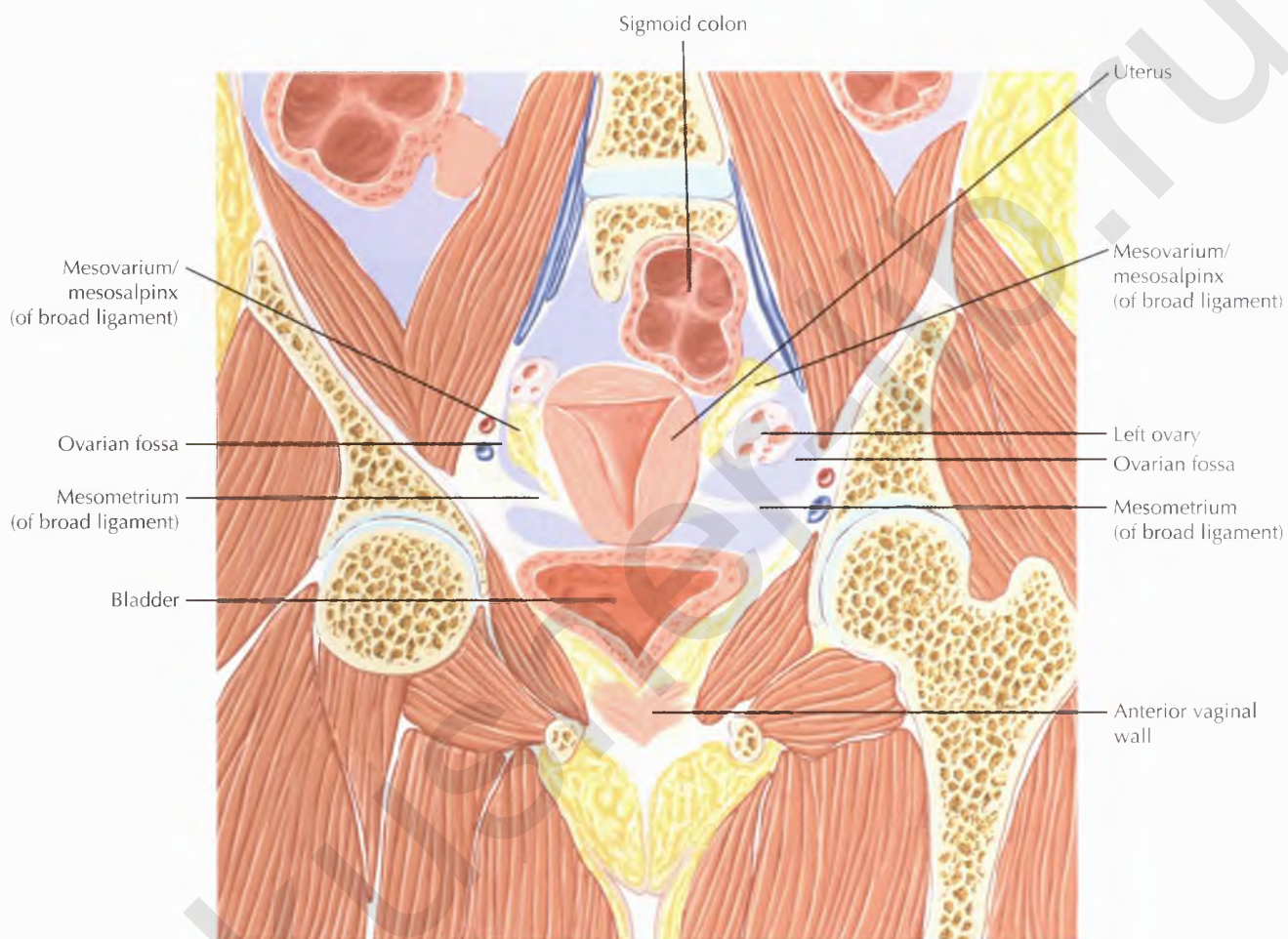






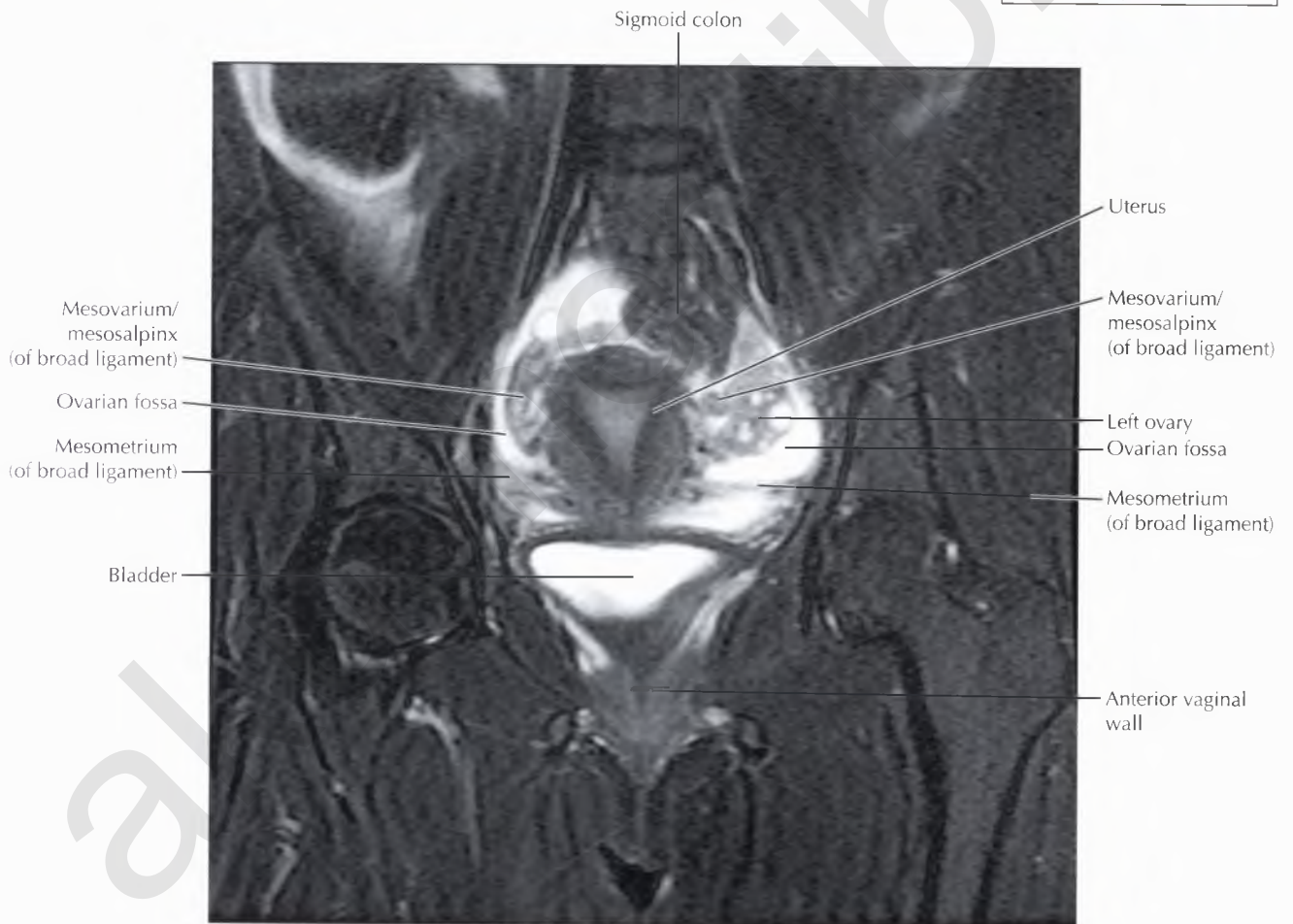
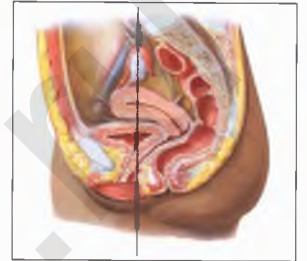


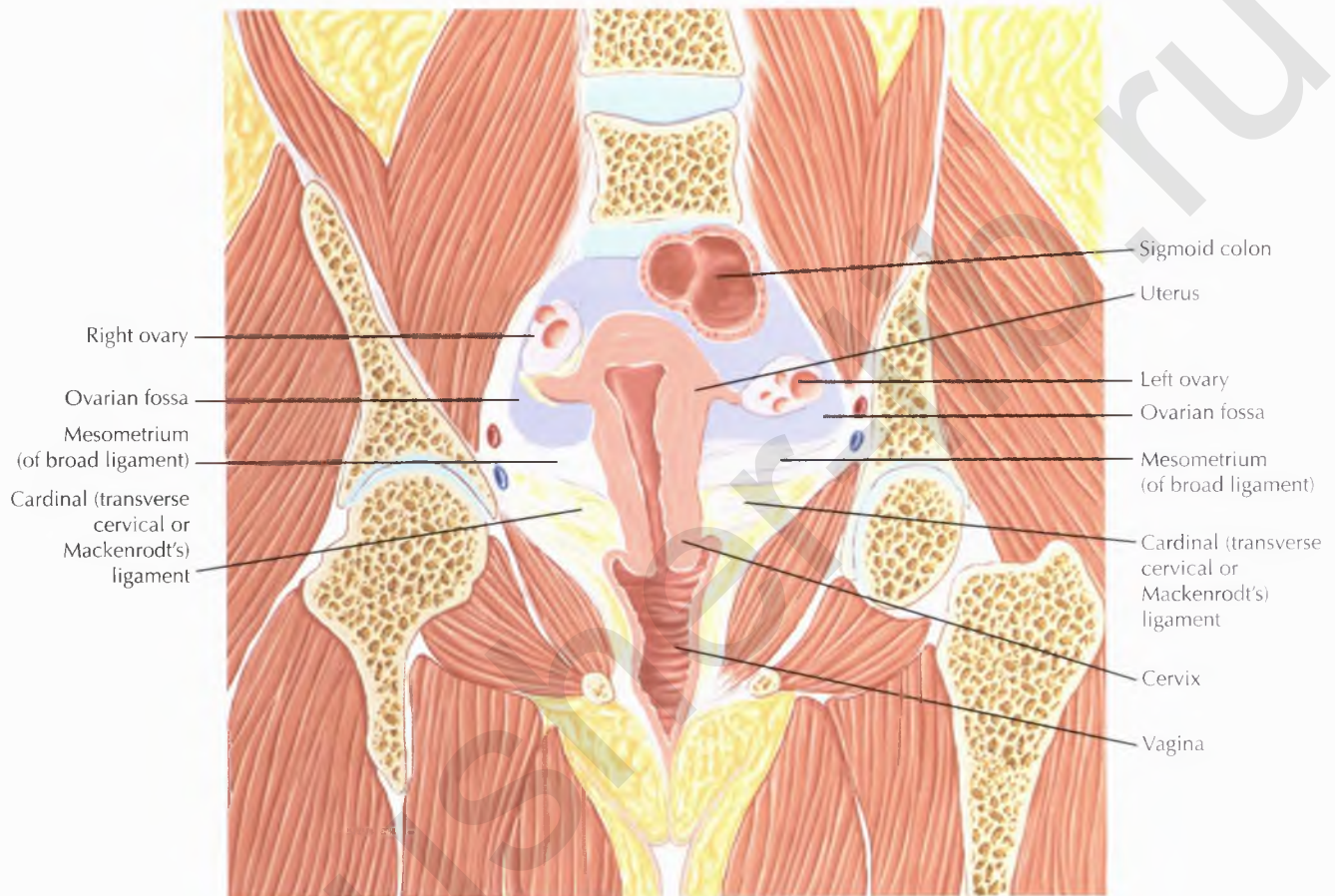




NORMAL ANATOMY

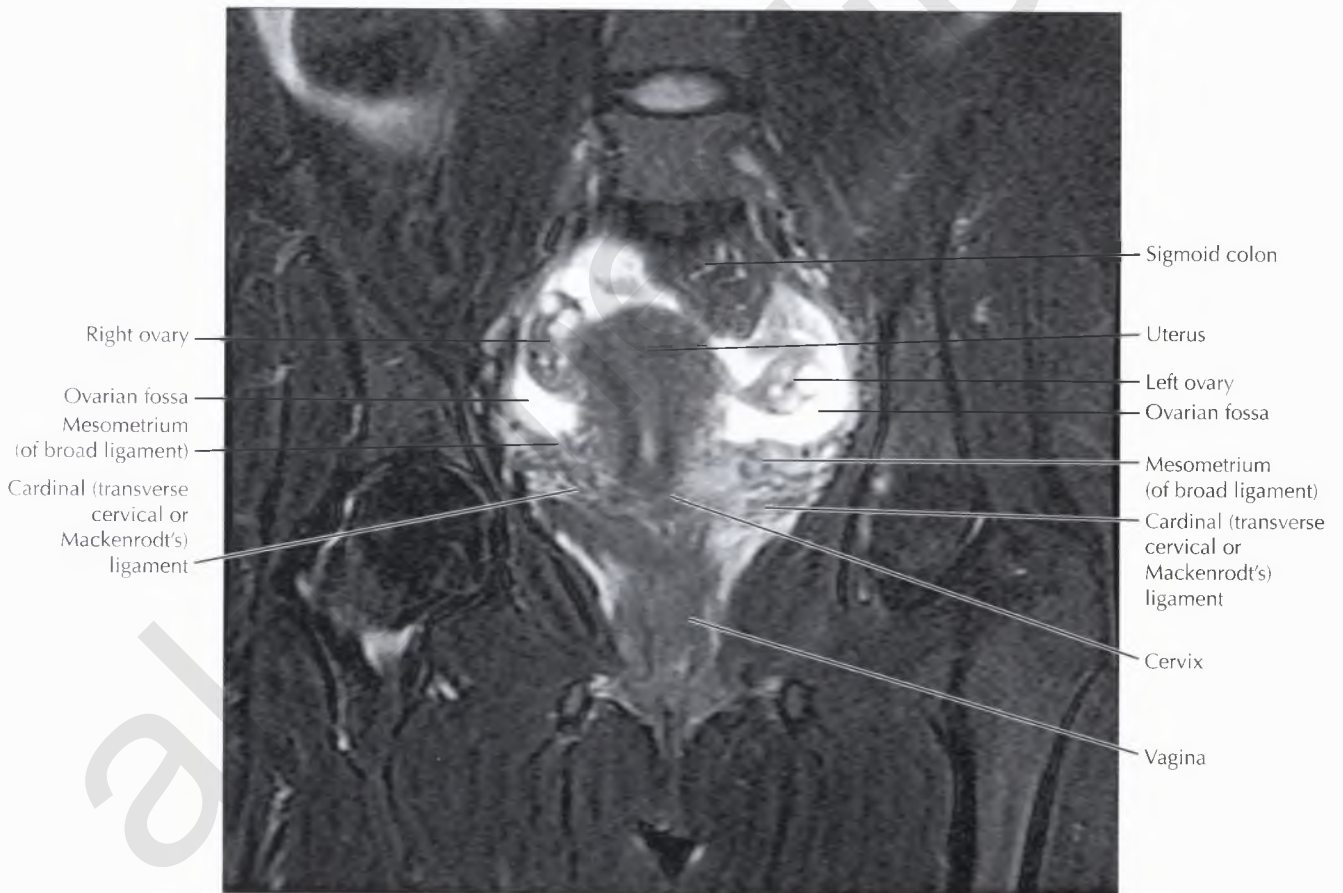
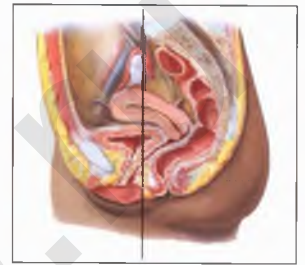
The broad ligament is subdivided into three components: the *mesometrium*, surrounding the uterus; the *mesosalpinx*, surrounding the fallopian tube; and the *mesovarium*, surrounding the ovary.





NORMAL ANATOMY

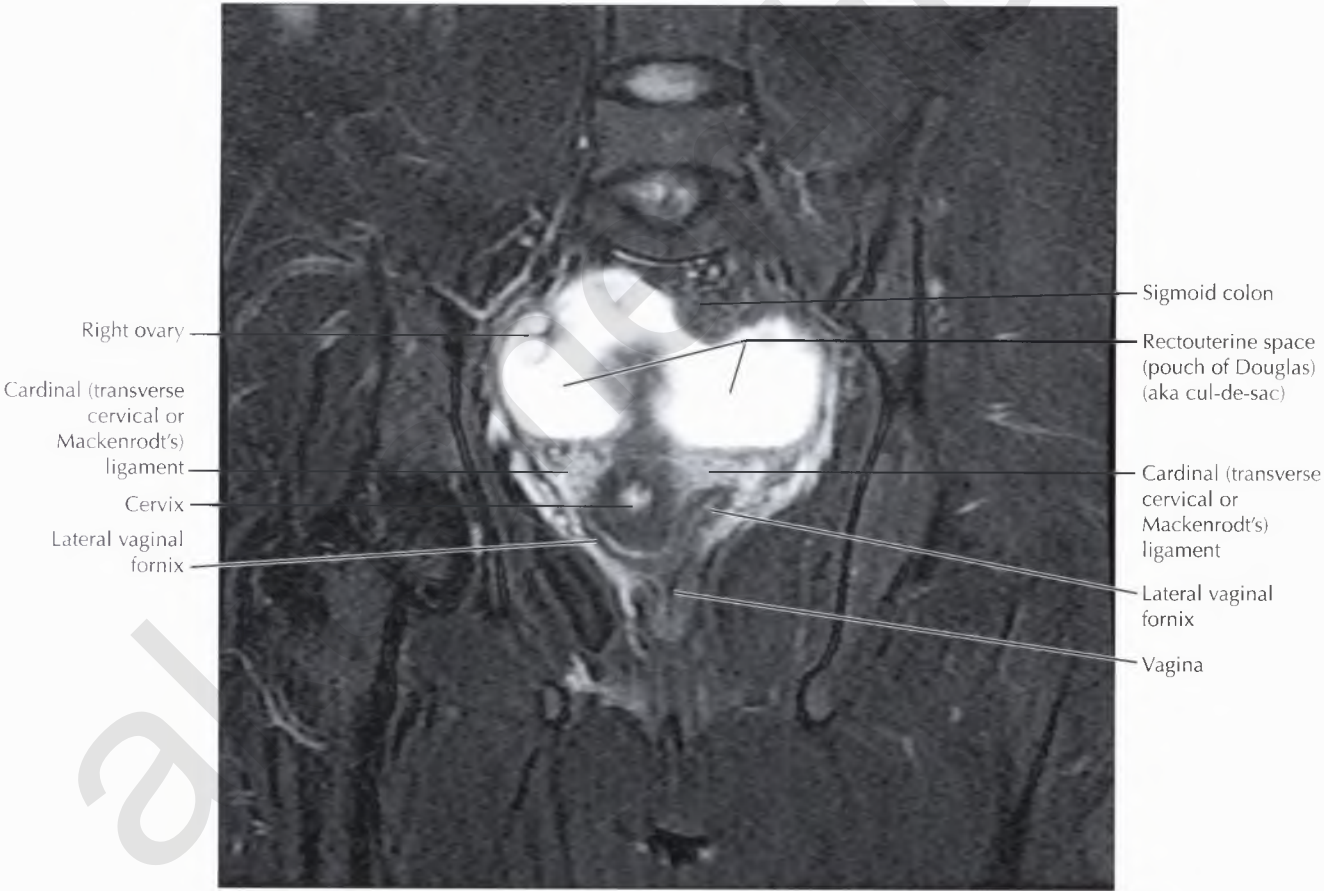
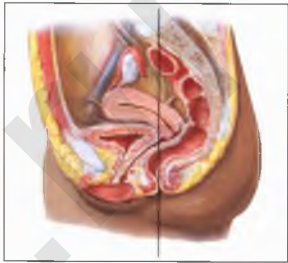
The *cardinal ligament*, also called the transverse cervical or Mackenrod't's ligament, is a triangular ligament that forms the base of the broad ligament and provides the primary support of the uterus and superior vagina. The cardinal ligament extends from the cervix to the pelvic side wall laterally, and the uterine artery runs along its superior aspect. The paired uterine arteries are branches from the anterior division of the internal iliac arteries and are the primary blood supply to the uterus.

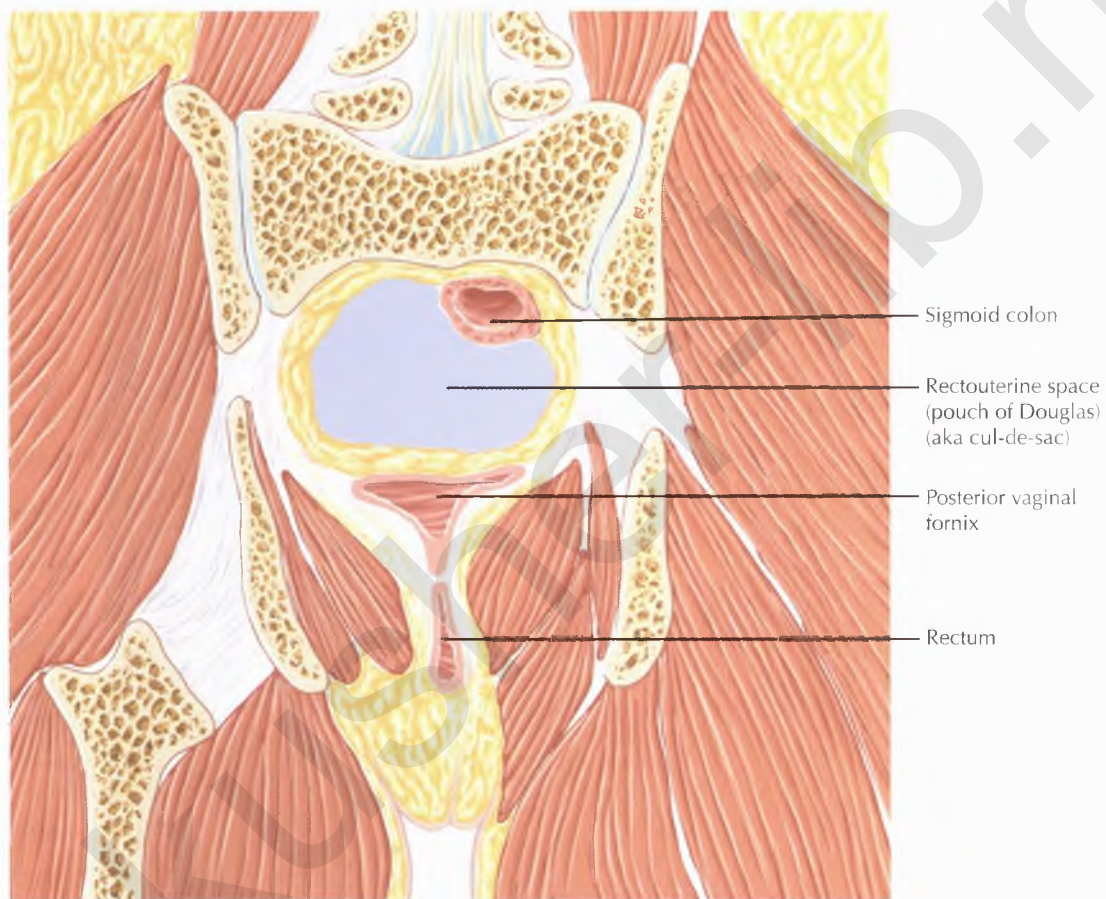


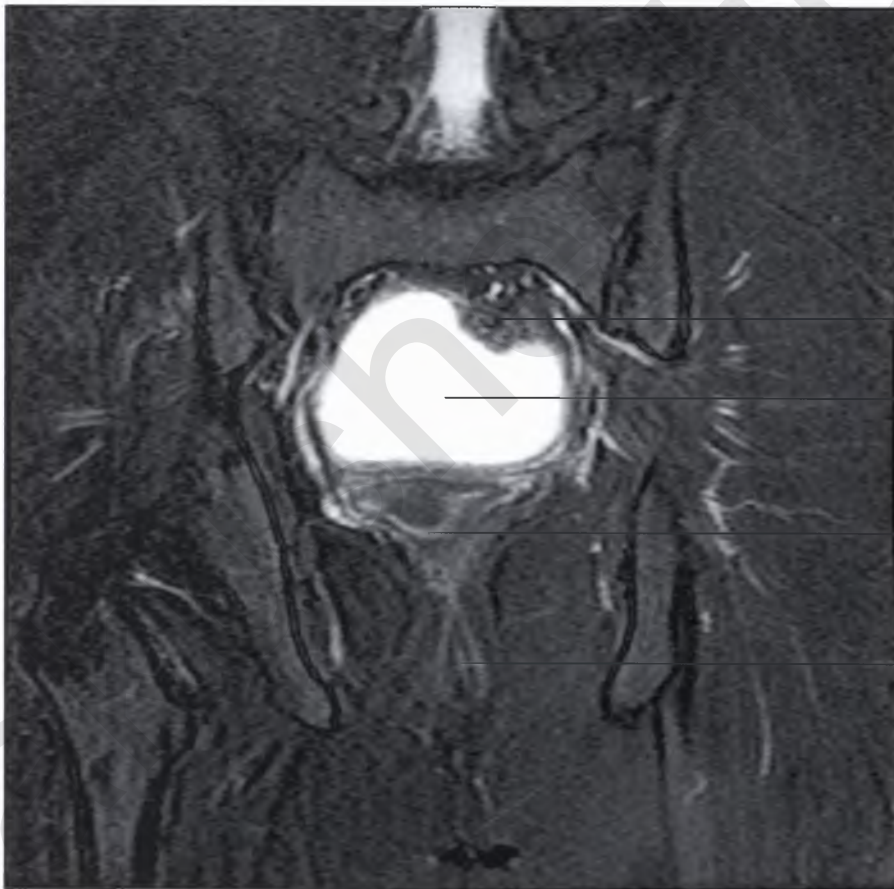
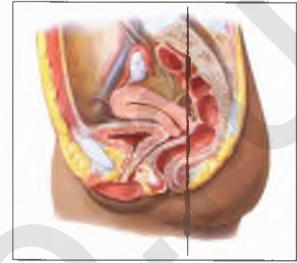


NORMAL ANATOMY

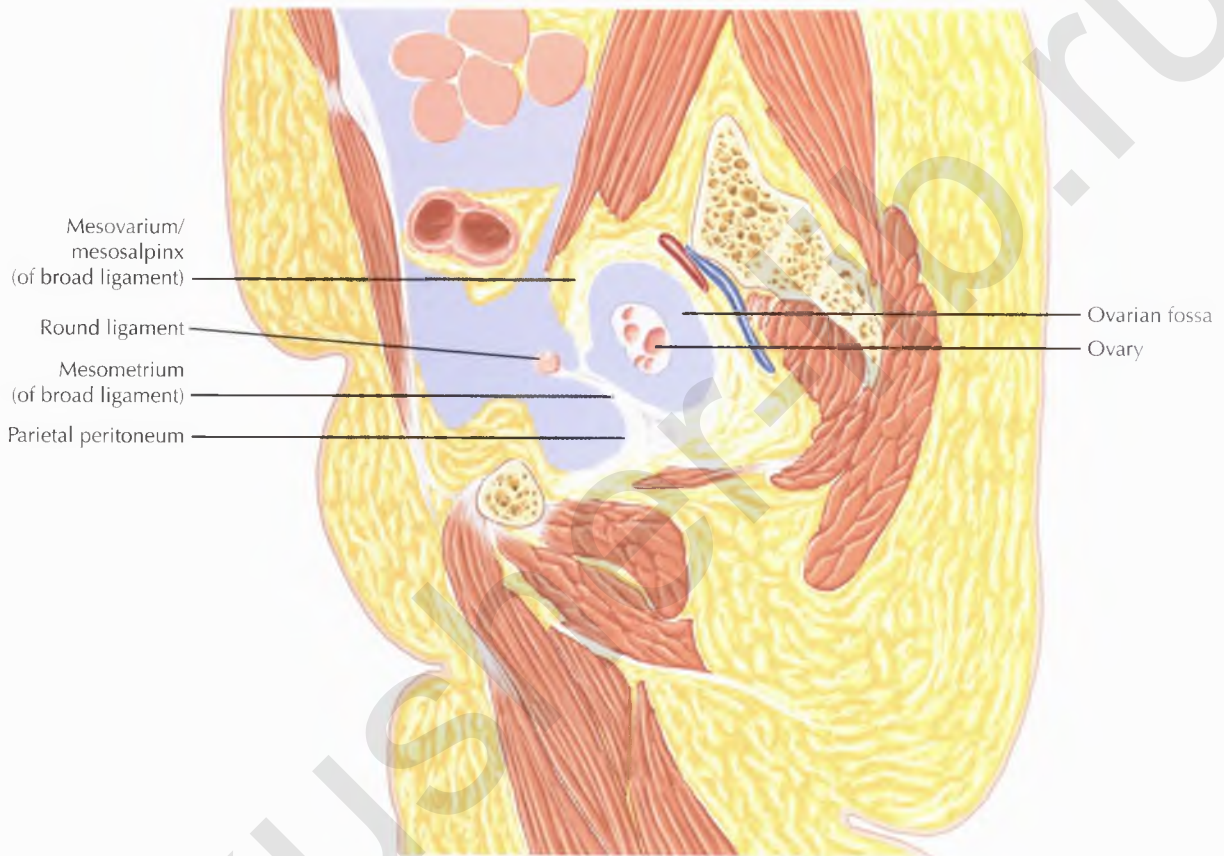
There are four recesses surrounding the vaginal portion of the cervix: a small anterior fornix, two small lateral fornices (shown here), and a deep posterior fornix (shown on Pelvis Coronal 7).





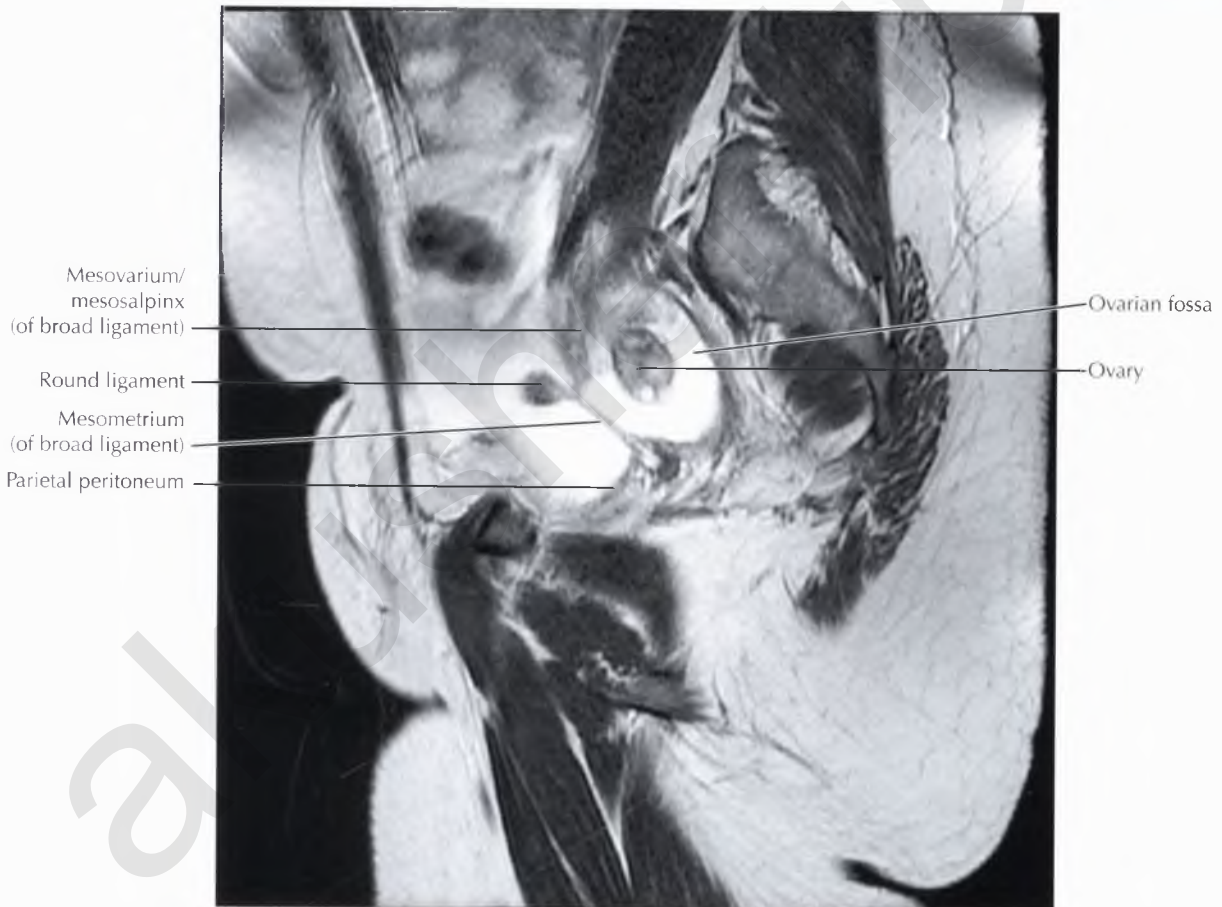
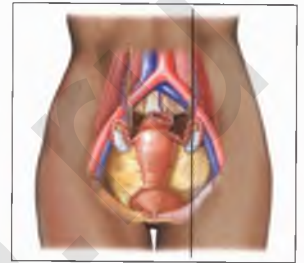


- Sigmoid colon
- Rectouterine space (pouch of Douglas) (aka cul-de-sac)
- Posterior vaginal fornix
- Rectum

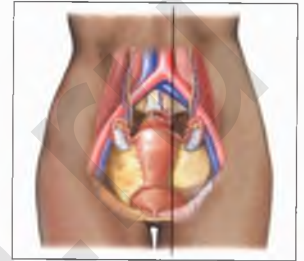


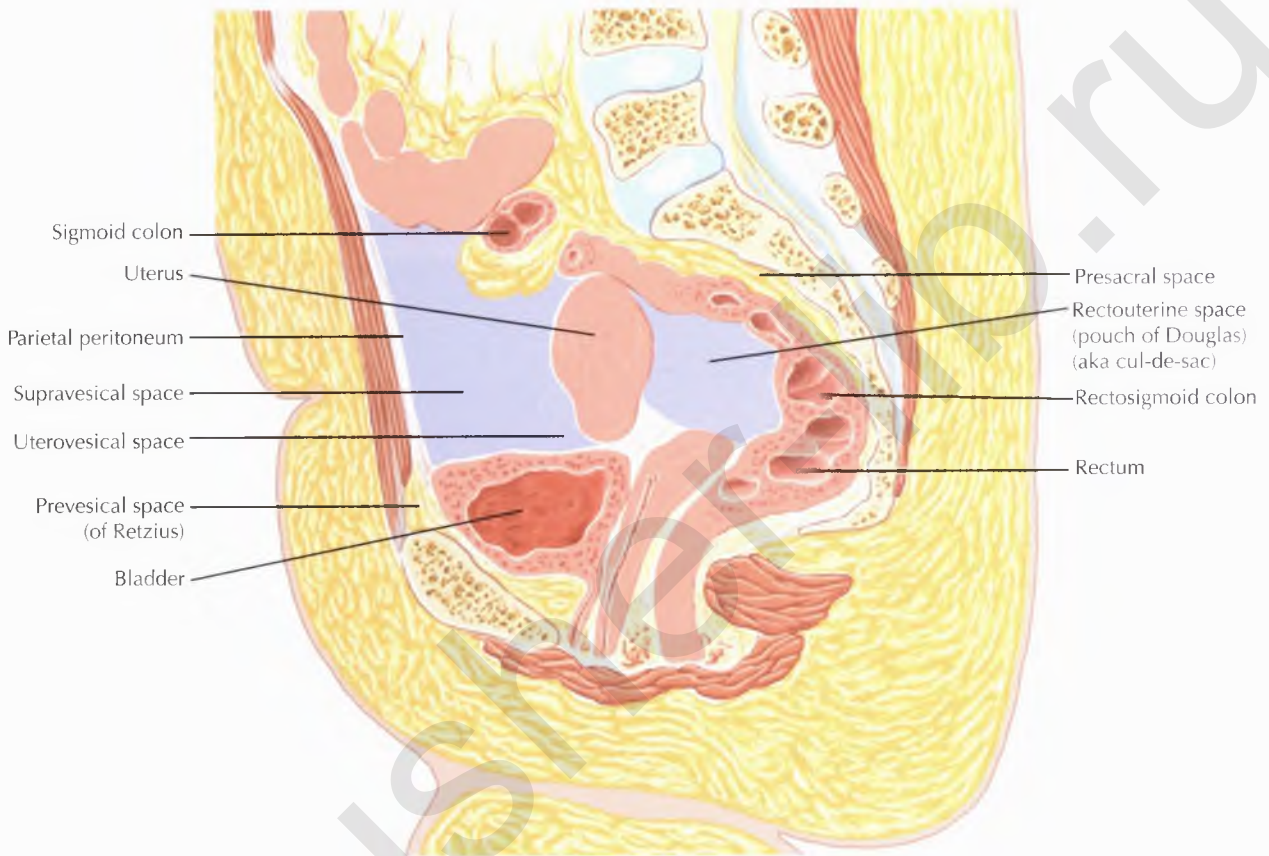
NORMAL ANATOMY

The ovarian fossa occupies the lateral aspect of the rectouterine space (pouch of Douglas or cul-de-sac), posterior to the broad ligament and anterior to the ureter and internal iliac vessels (see Pelvis Axial 4).



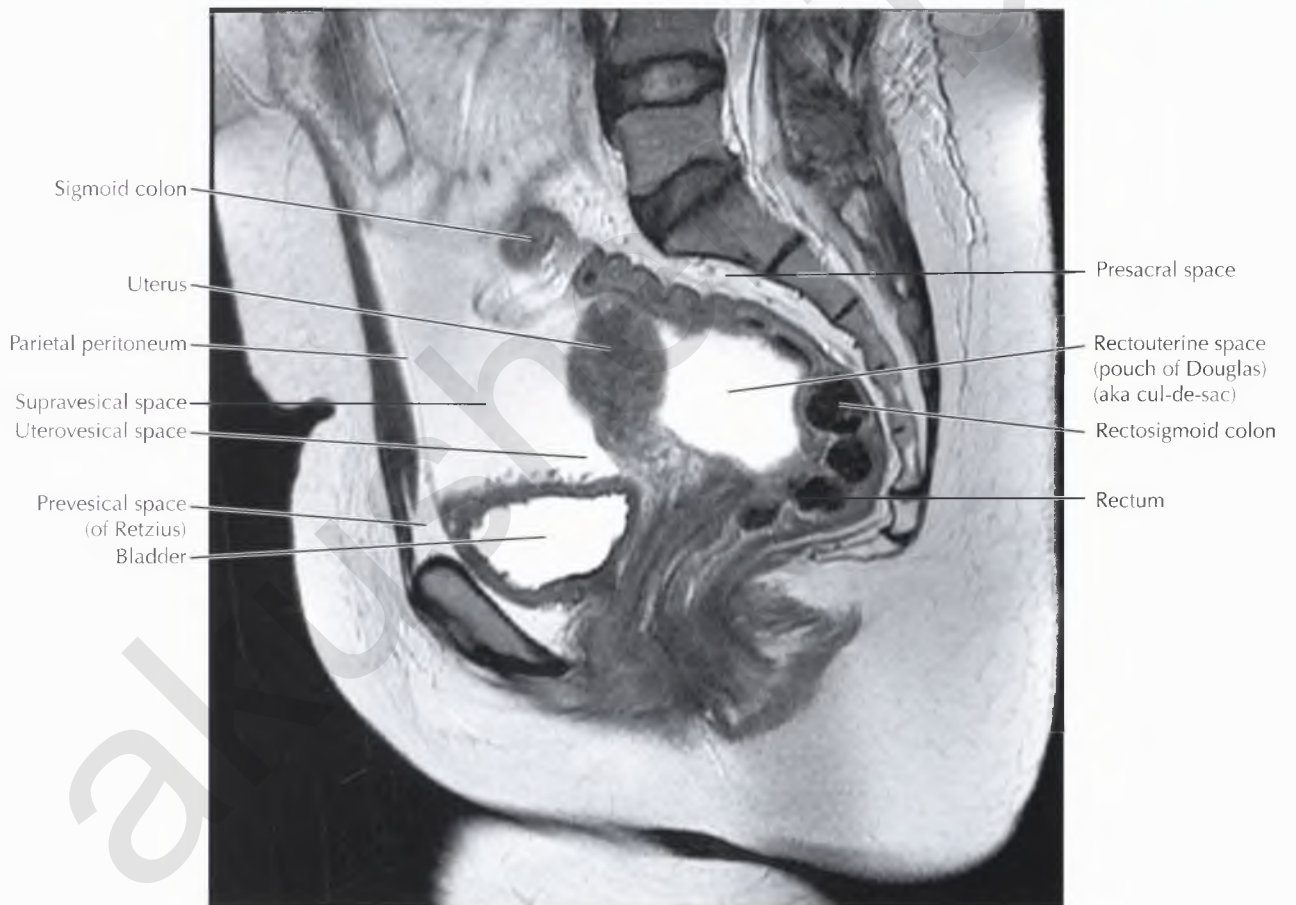
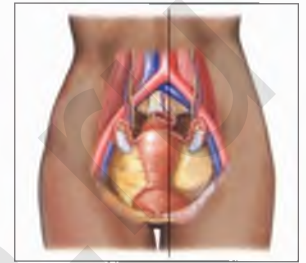


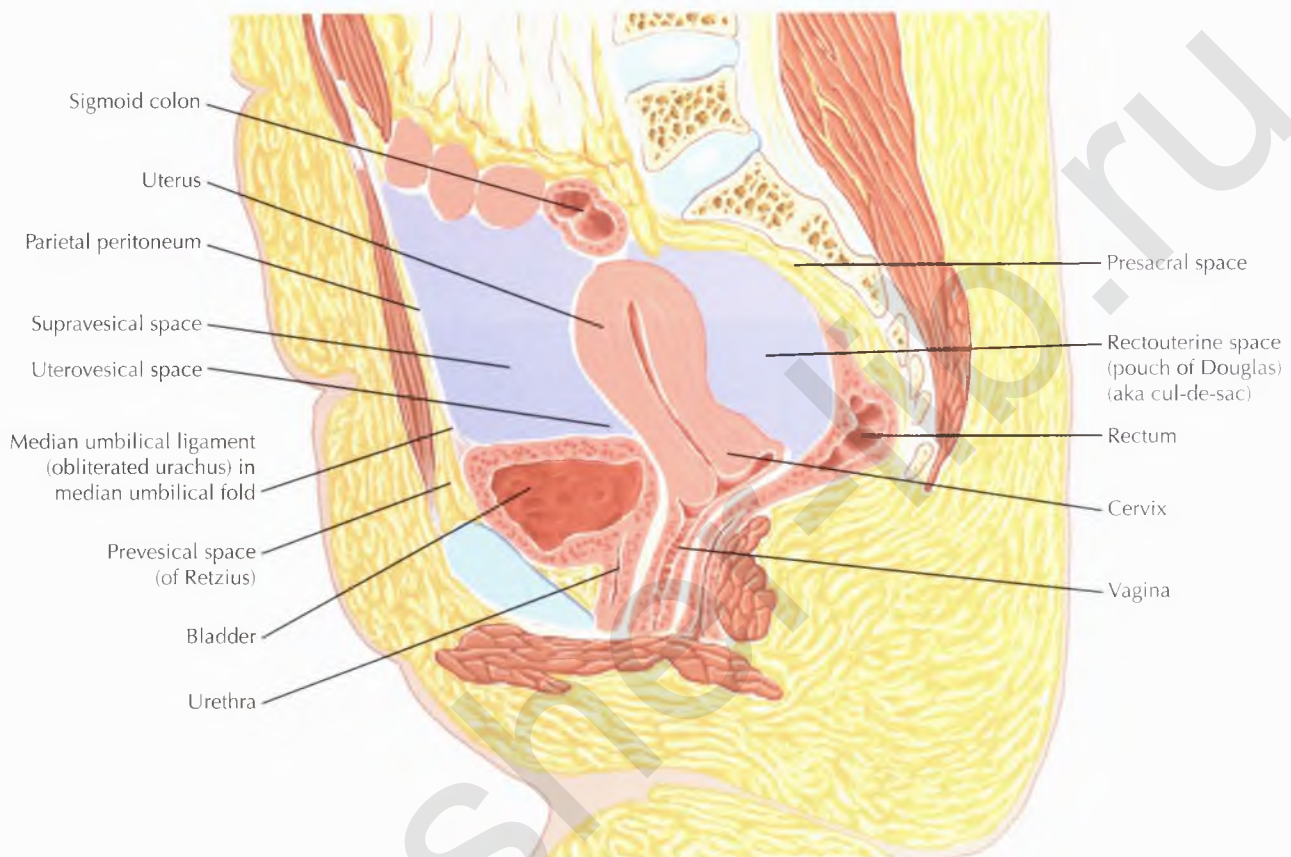




NORMAL ANATOMY

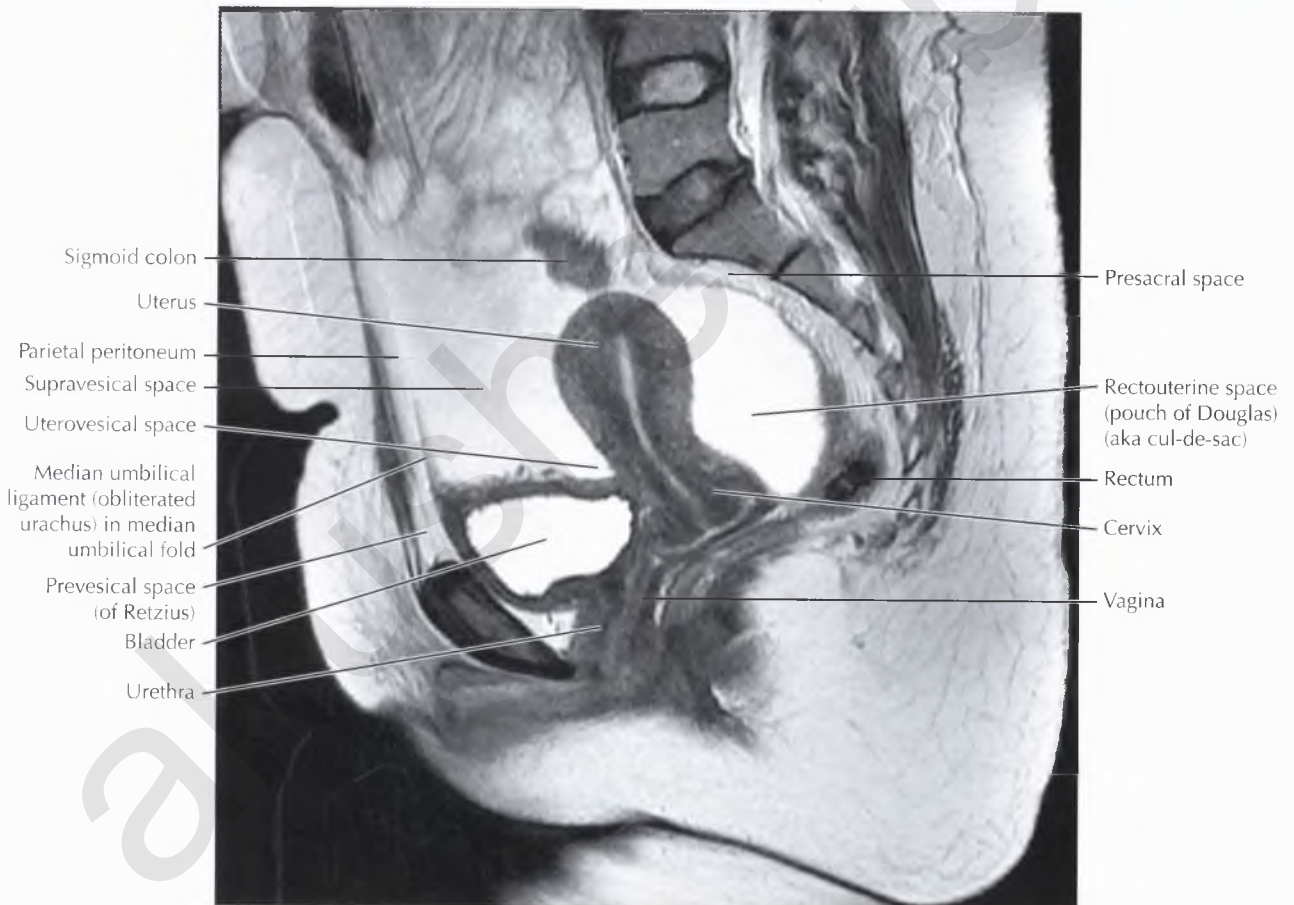
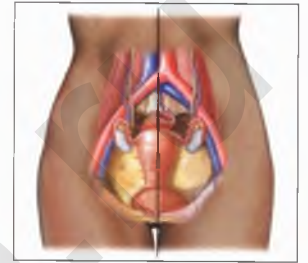
Extraperitoneal spaces in the pelvis include the *prevesical space* (of Retzius) anteriorly, a large-volume potential space located anterior and lateral to the umbilicovesical fascia and posterior to the pubic bones and rectus sheath, as well as the *presacral space* posteriorly (as shown). The other main extraperitoneal spaces of the pelvis include the *perivesical space*, a small-volume potential space bounded anteriorly by the umbilicovesical fascia, which contains the urachus, urinary bladder, and fat, as well as the *perirectal space*.

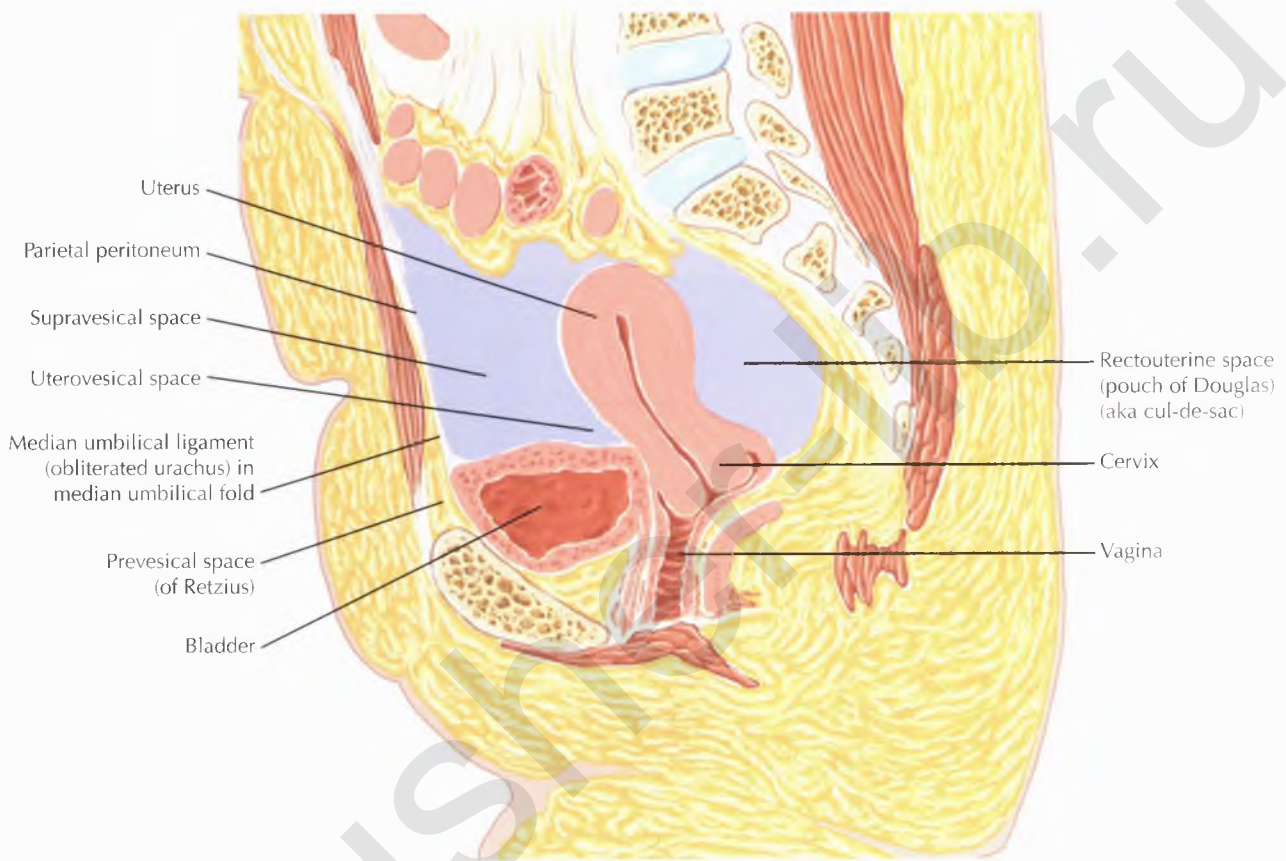




NORMAL ANATOMY

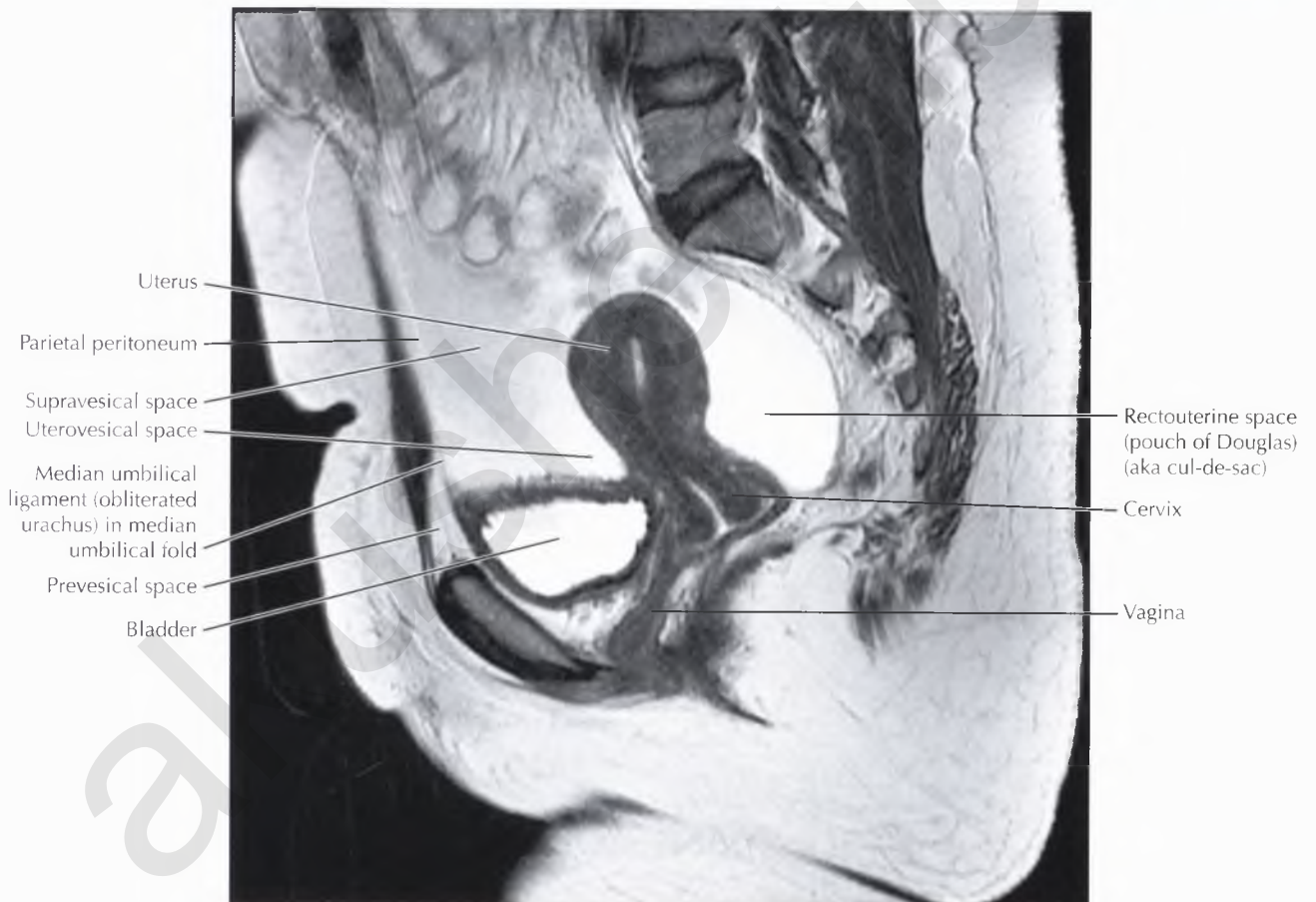
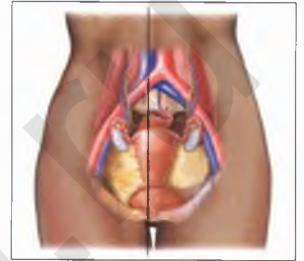
The anteriorly located pelvic peritoneal paravesical space is divided into the *supravesical space* and the medial and lateral *inguinal fossae* (best seen in Pelvis Axials 5 and 6 and Pelvis Coronal 1). More posteriorly, the peritoneum covering the bladder and rectum forms the *rectovesical space*, which in the female is subdivided into the *uterovesical space* anterior to the uterus and the *rectouterine space* (pouch of Douglas or cul-de-sac) posterior to the uterus. The rectouterine space is further subdivided into the *pararectal space* and the *ovarian fossae* by peritoneal reflections covering the vesical and uterine vessels, known as the *rectouterine folds*. The rectouterine folds extend posterolaterally from the uterine cervix to the sacrum, forming the lateral boundaries of the pararectal fossae (see Pelvis Axials 5 and 6). These folds are more prominent and easier to visualize in men and are called the *sacrogenital folds*.





DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

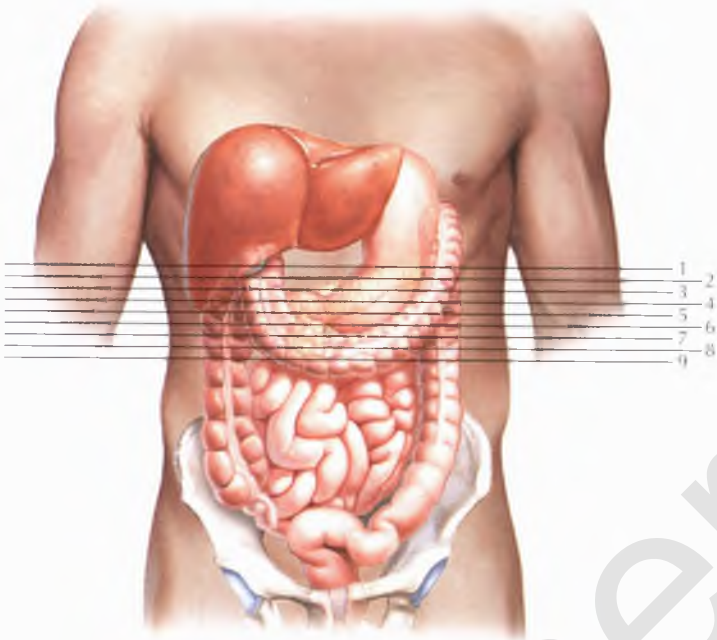
Fluid collections in the anterior pelvic peritoneal space may be differentiated from collections in the extraperitoneal prevesical space by inferior (rather than posterior) displacement of the urinary bladder, visualization of the umbilical folds surrounded by fluid, and preservation of the preperitoneal fat. Extraperitoneal prevesical fluid collections surround and displace the bladder posteriorly and are often described as having a “molar tooth” configuration in the axial plane. These extraperitoneal collections do not extend into the inguinal fossae, another distinguishing characteristic.



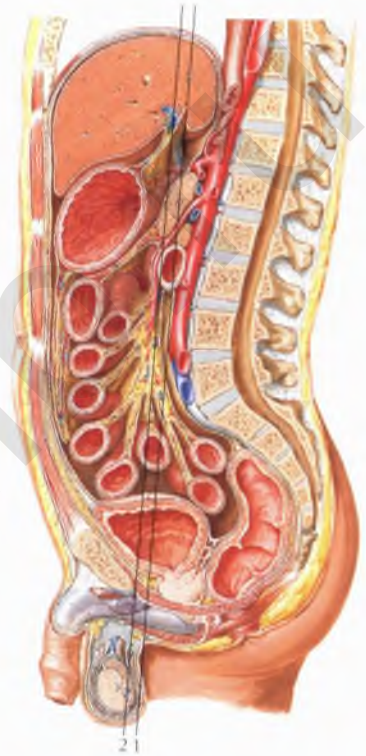
Chapter

4

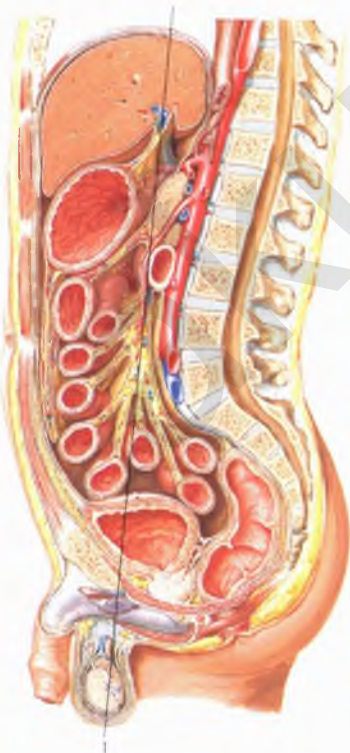
BILIARY SYSTEM



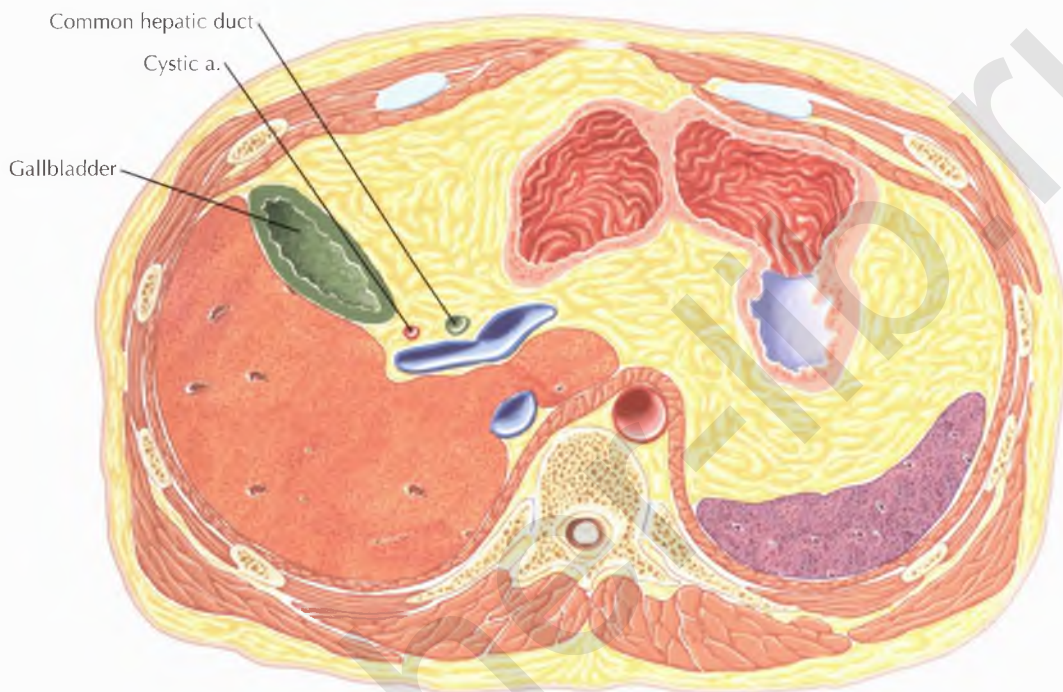
AXIAL 208



CORONAL 226



CORONAL MAXIMUM INTENSITY PROJECTION (MIP) 230

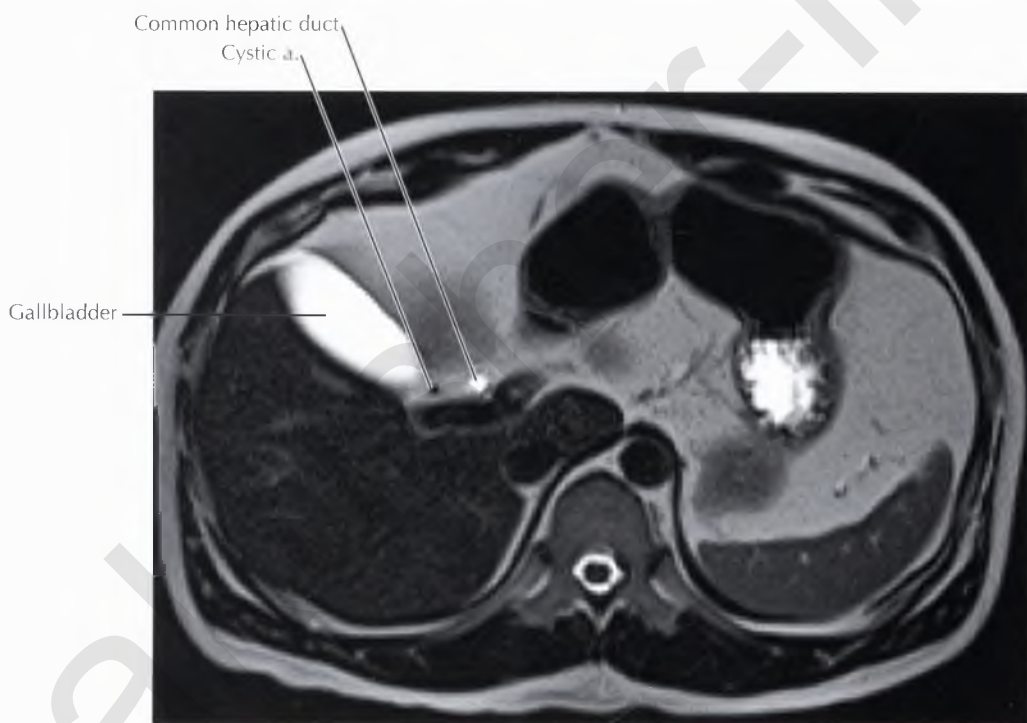
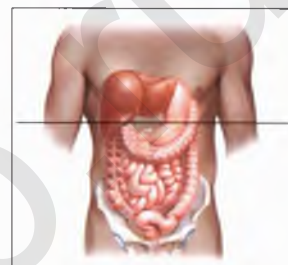


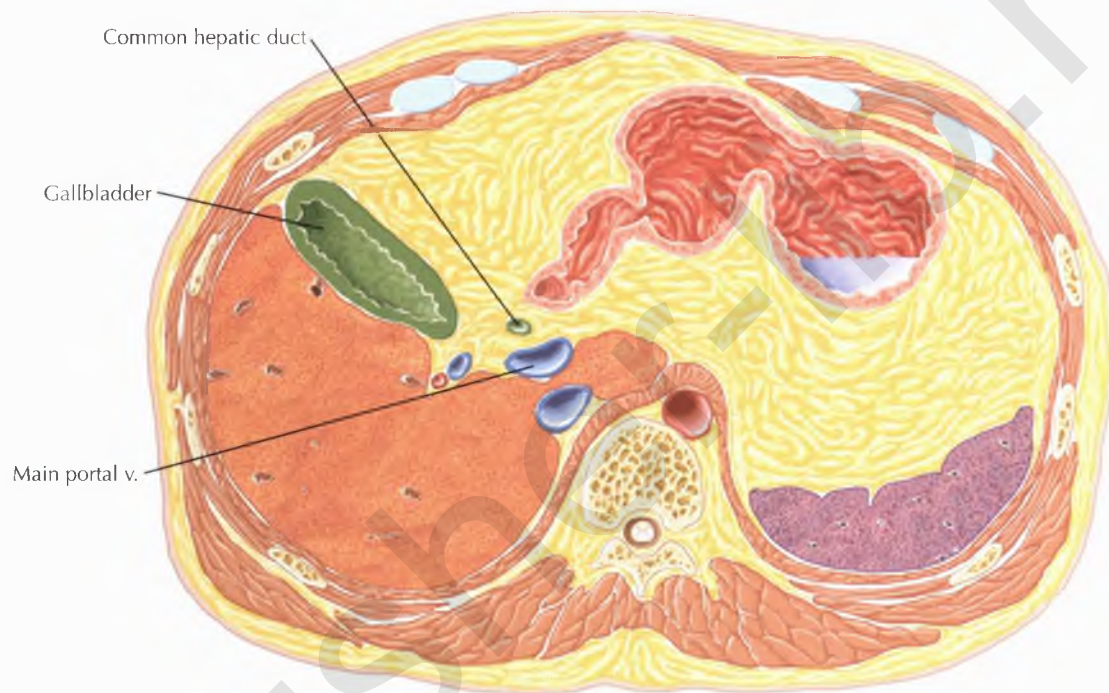
NORMAL ANATOMY

The normal gallbladder wall should be thin, measuring no more than 3 mm in thickness when well distended.

PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

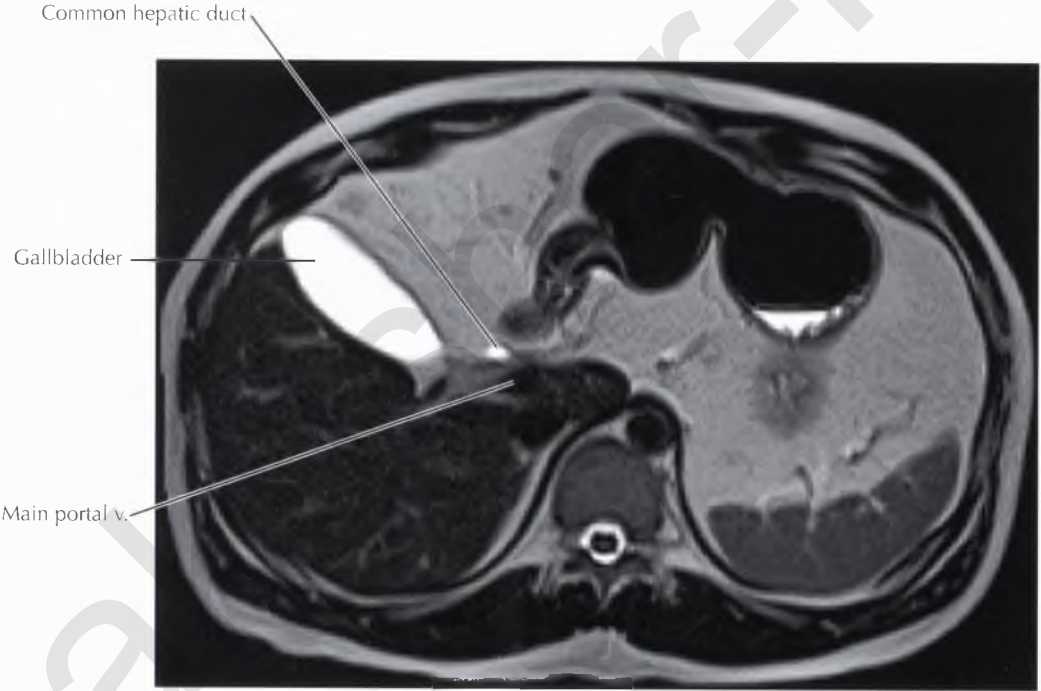
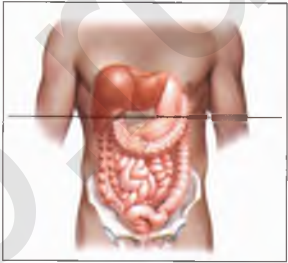
Thickening of the gallbladder wall is seen in many pathologic conditions, including primary gallbladder disorders (e.g., acute and chronic cholecystitis, carcinoma, adenomyomatosis), systemic conditions (e.g., hepatic, cardiac, or renal failure; hypoproteinemia), infections, such as infectious mononucleosis or opportunistic infections in the patient with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), and extracholecystic inflammation such as with acute hepatitis, pancreatitis, or pyelonephritis.

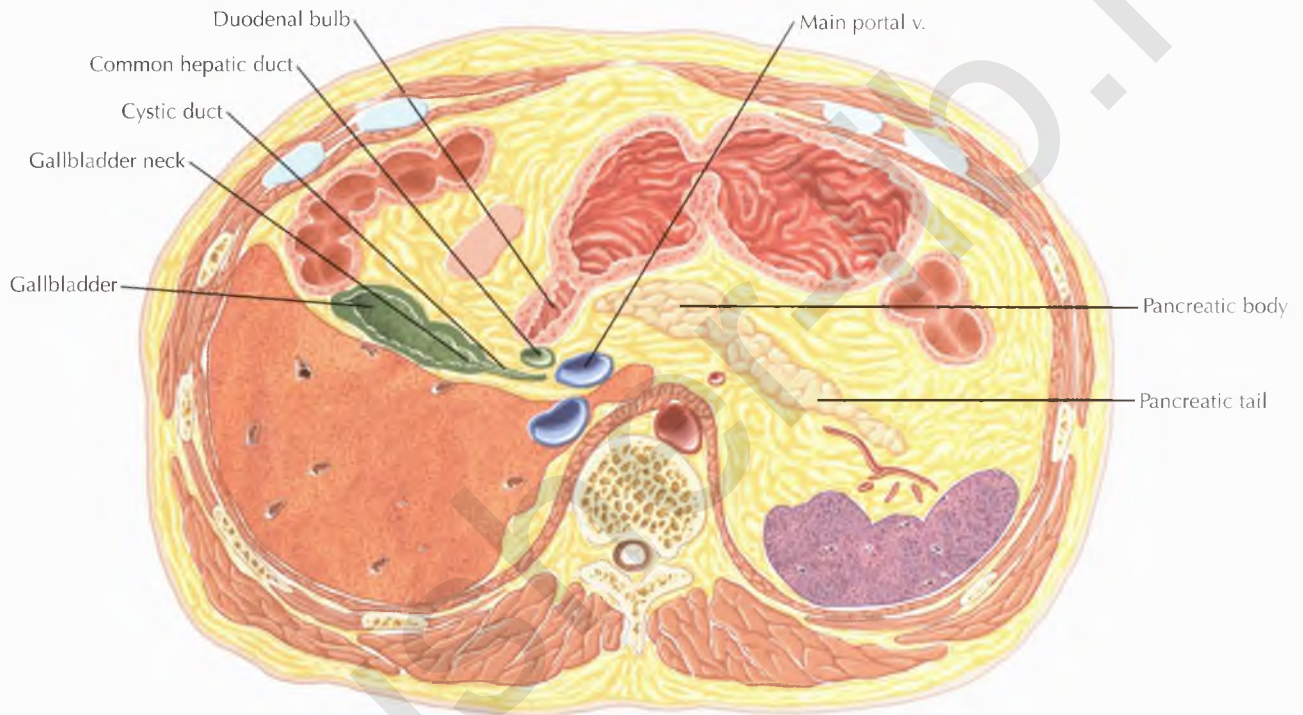




NORMAL ANATOMY

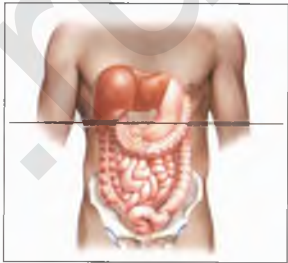
Classically, the left and right hepatic ducts merge to form the *common hepatic duct* just anterior to the extrahepatic portal vein within a sheath that is continuous with the hepatoduodenal ligament.

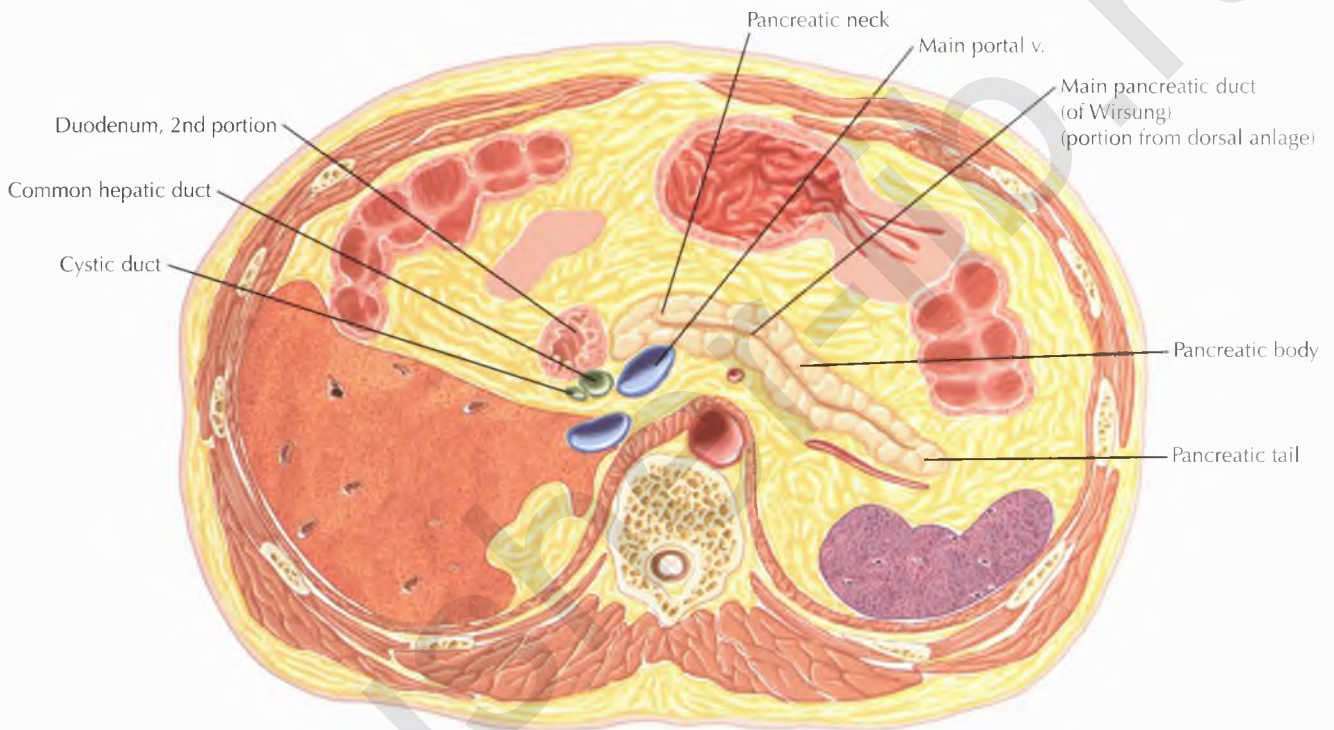




NORMAL ANATOMY

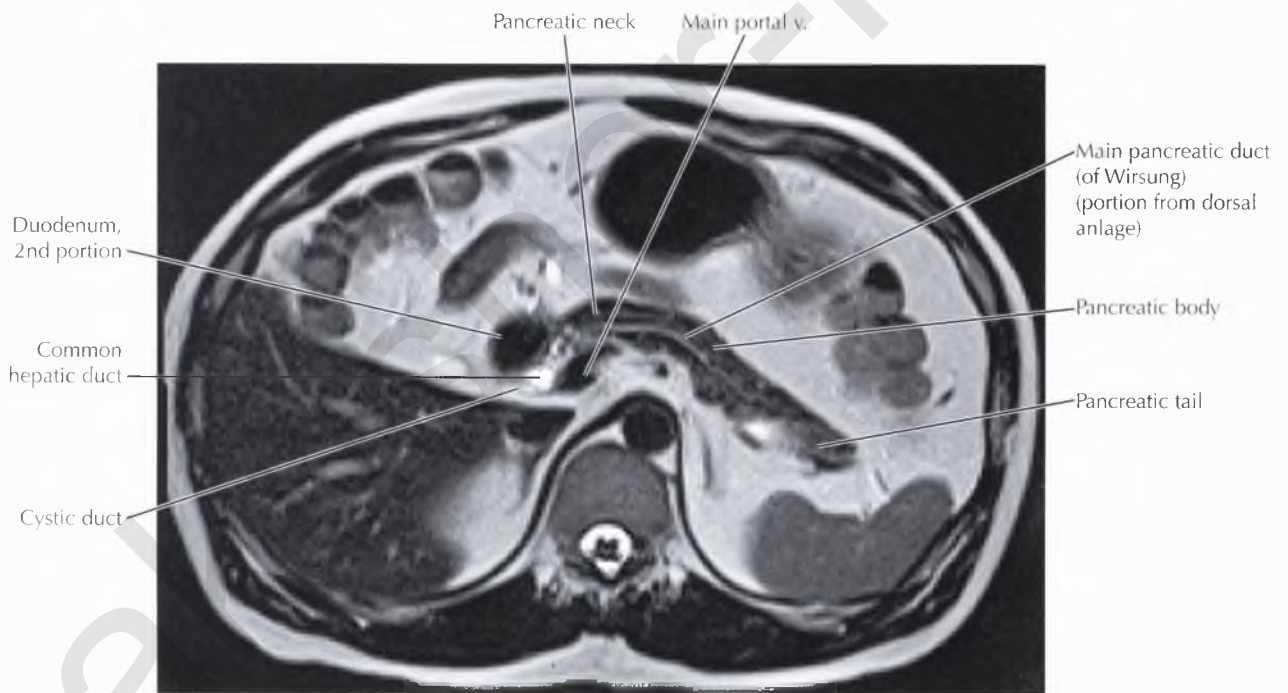
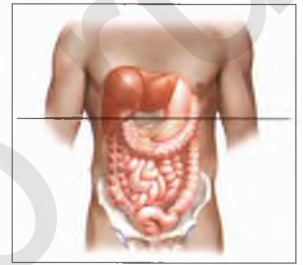
The cystic duct drains into the common hepatic duct to form the common bile duct.

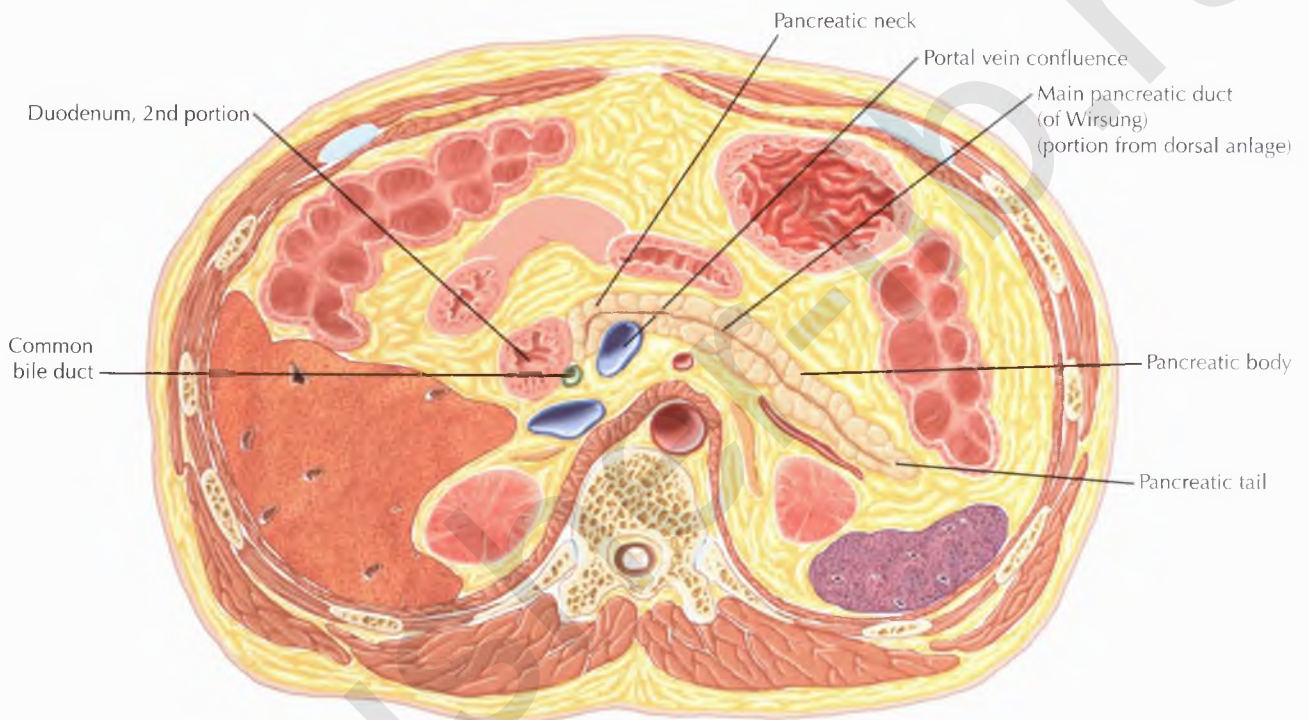




NORMAL ANATOMY

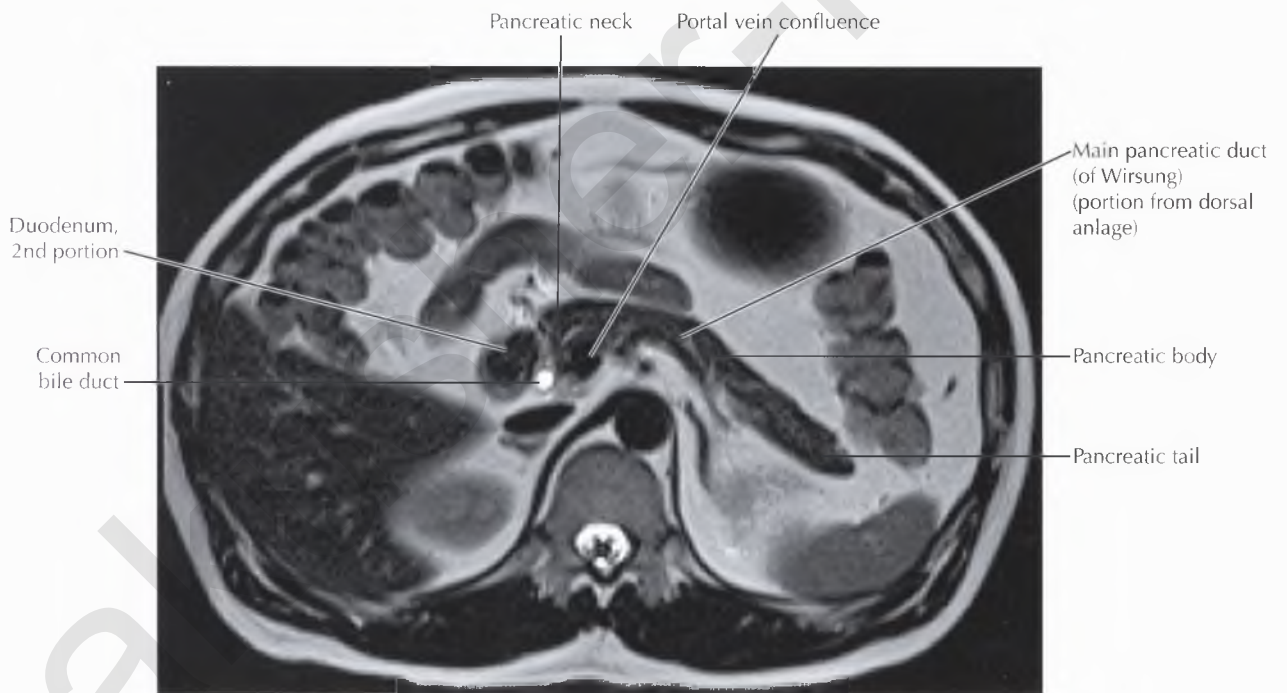
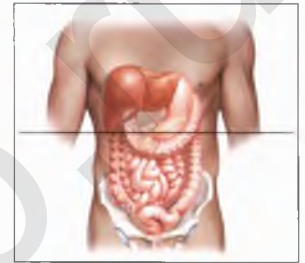
The main pancreatic duct normally measures 2 to 3 mm in diameter at ages 30 to 50, which may increase to an average 4.5 mm at 70 to 90 years.

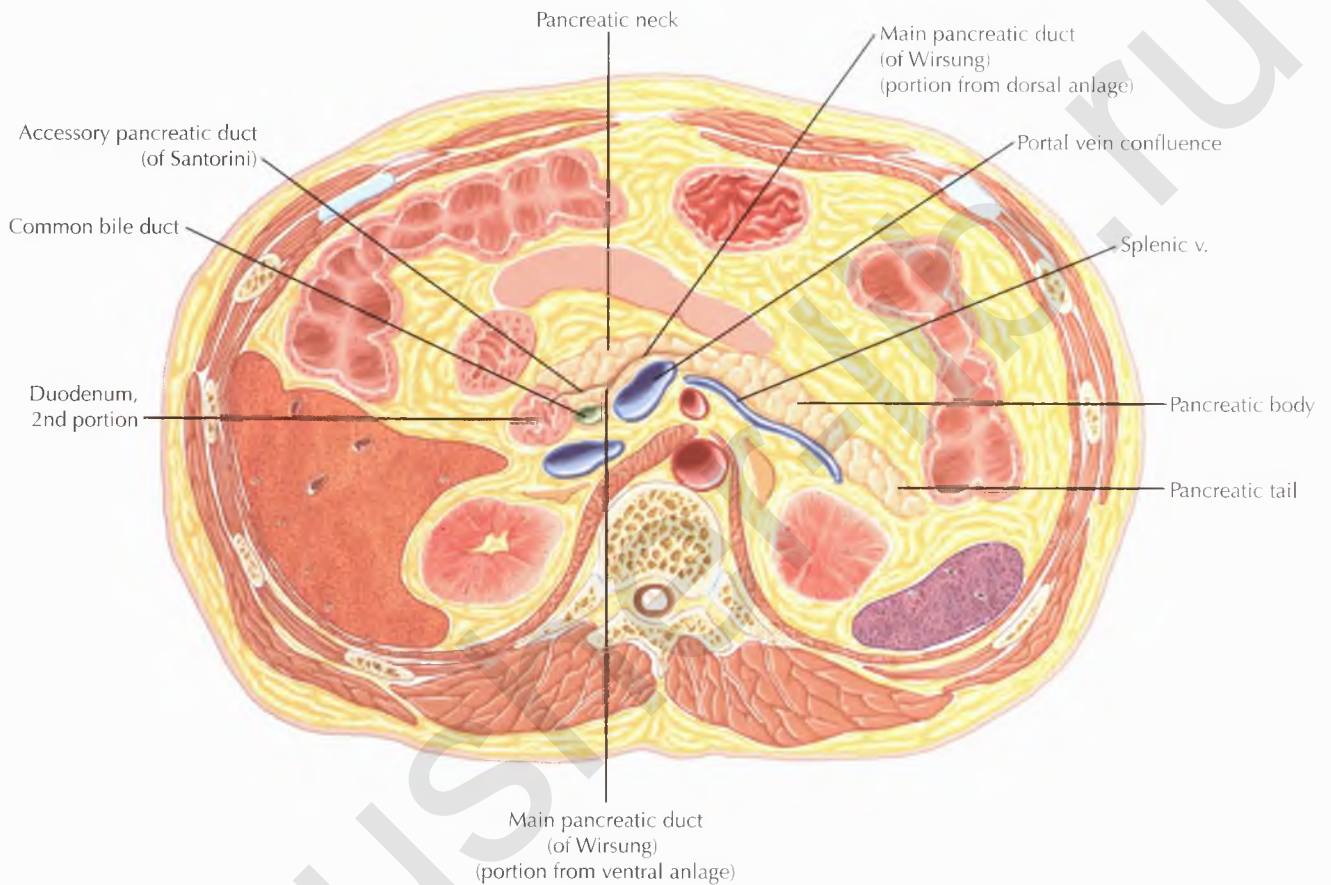




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

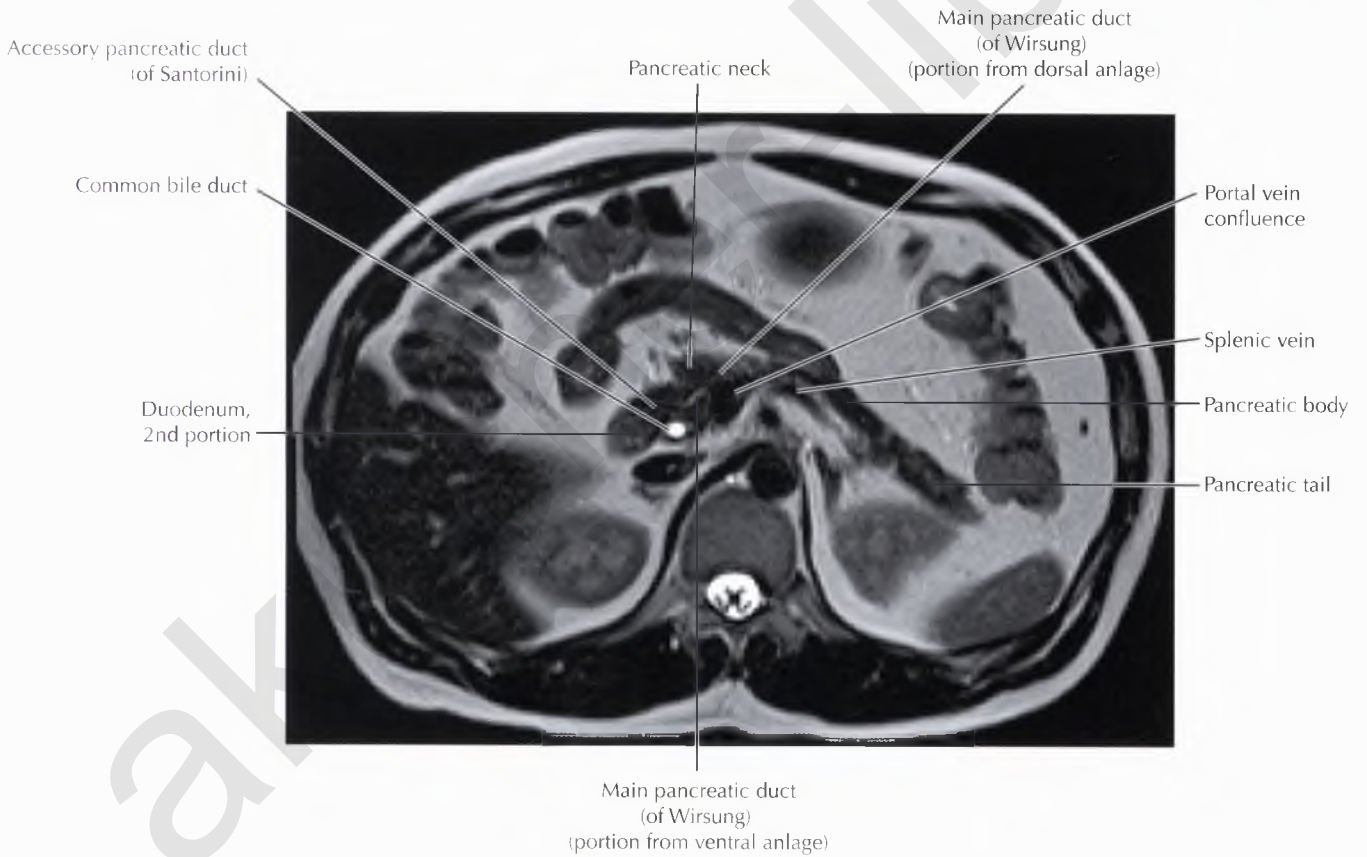
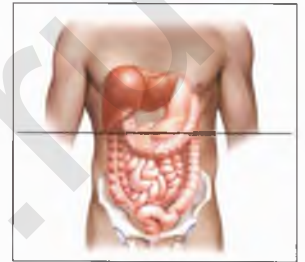
In patients with pancreatic carcinoma, the portion of the pancreatic duct obstructed by the tumor typically triples in size.

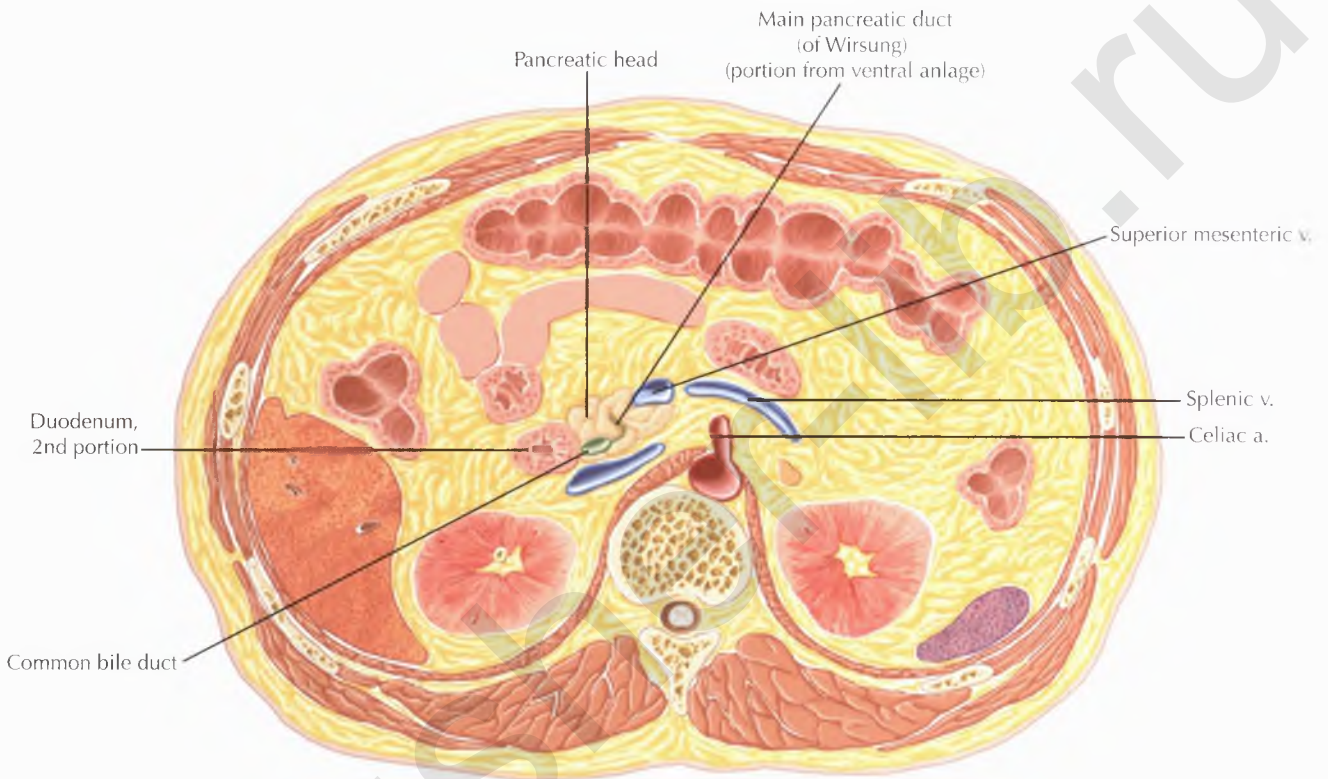




NORMAL ANATOMY AND NORMAL VARIANTS

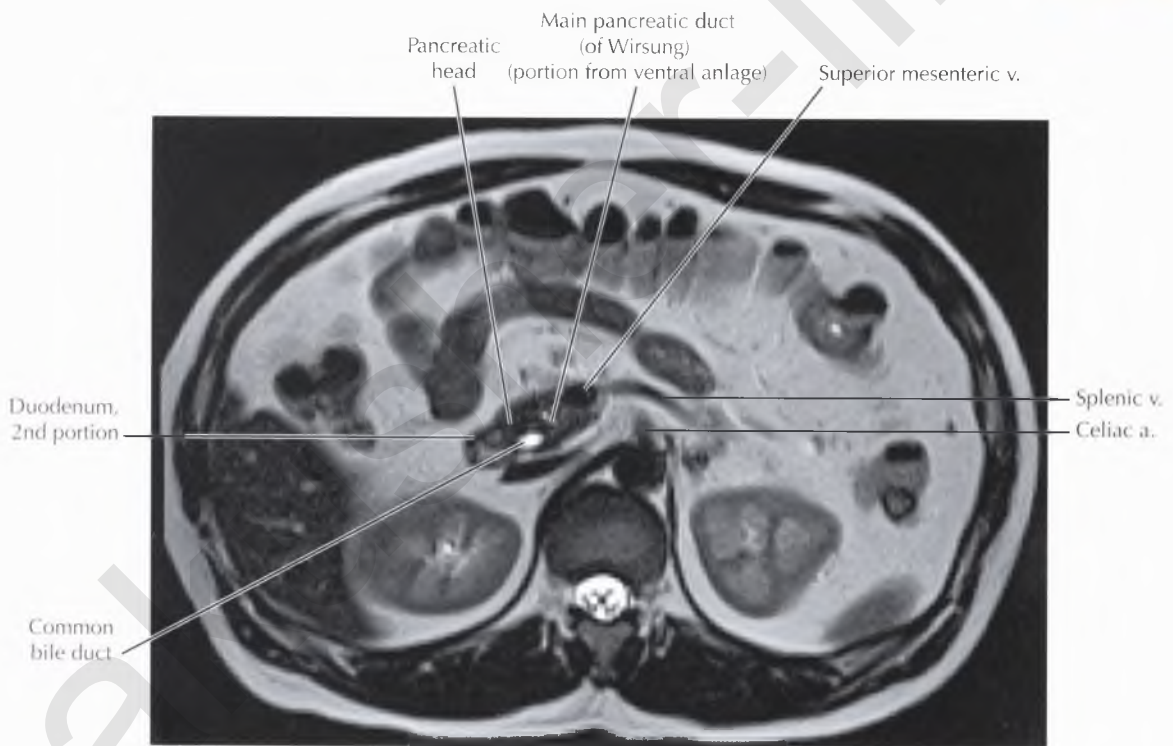
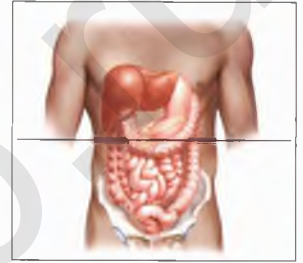
The *main pancreatic duct (of Wirsung)*, formed by fusion of the ventral and dorsal pancreatic anlagen of ductal systems during development, typically joins the common bile duct and drains into the duodenum through the major duodenal papilla (of Vater). An accessory pancreatic duct (of Santorini) can occasionally be seen more superiorly, draining more proximally into the duodenum through the minor duodenal papilla.

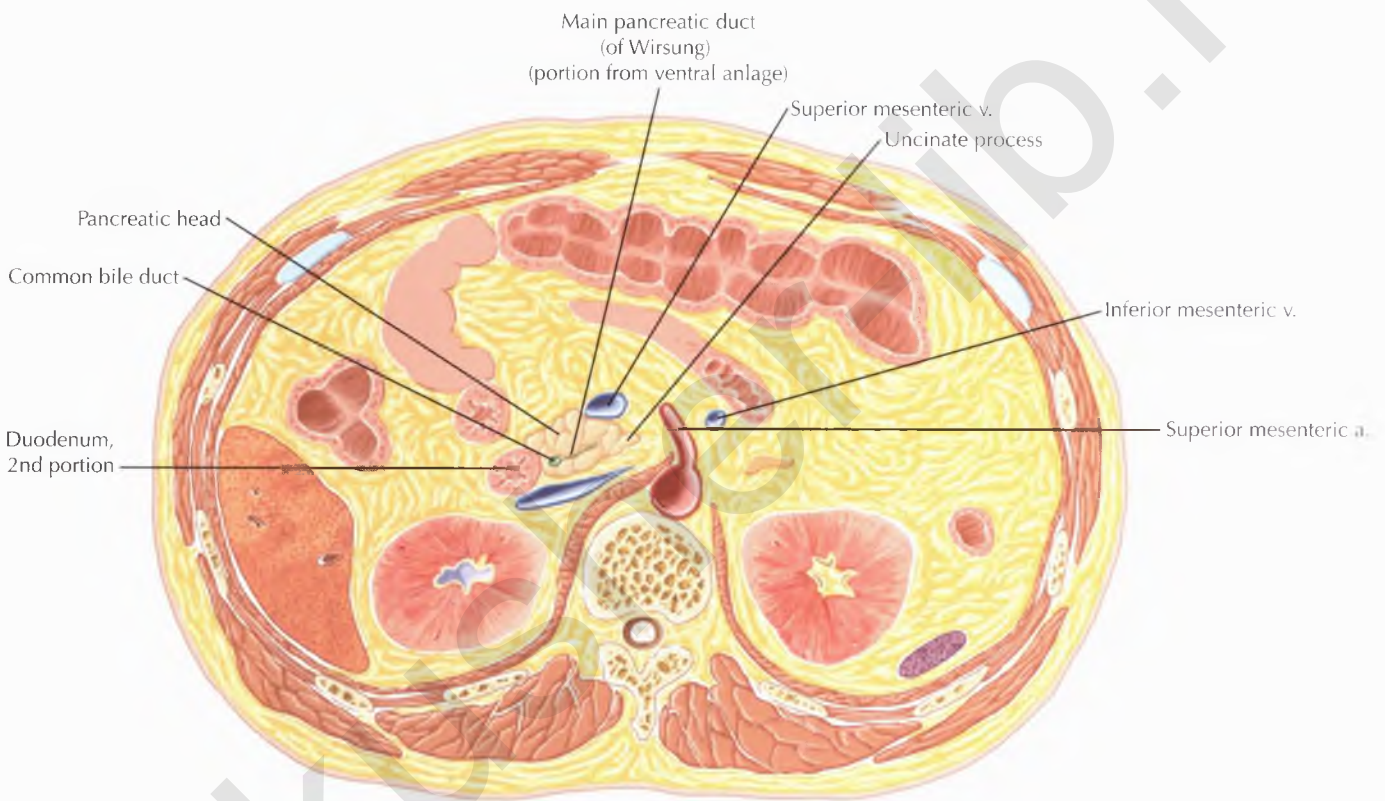


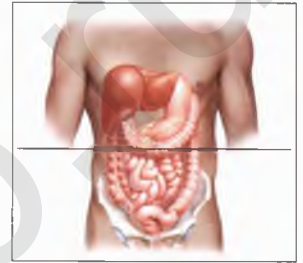


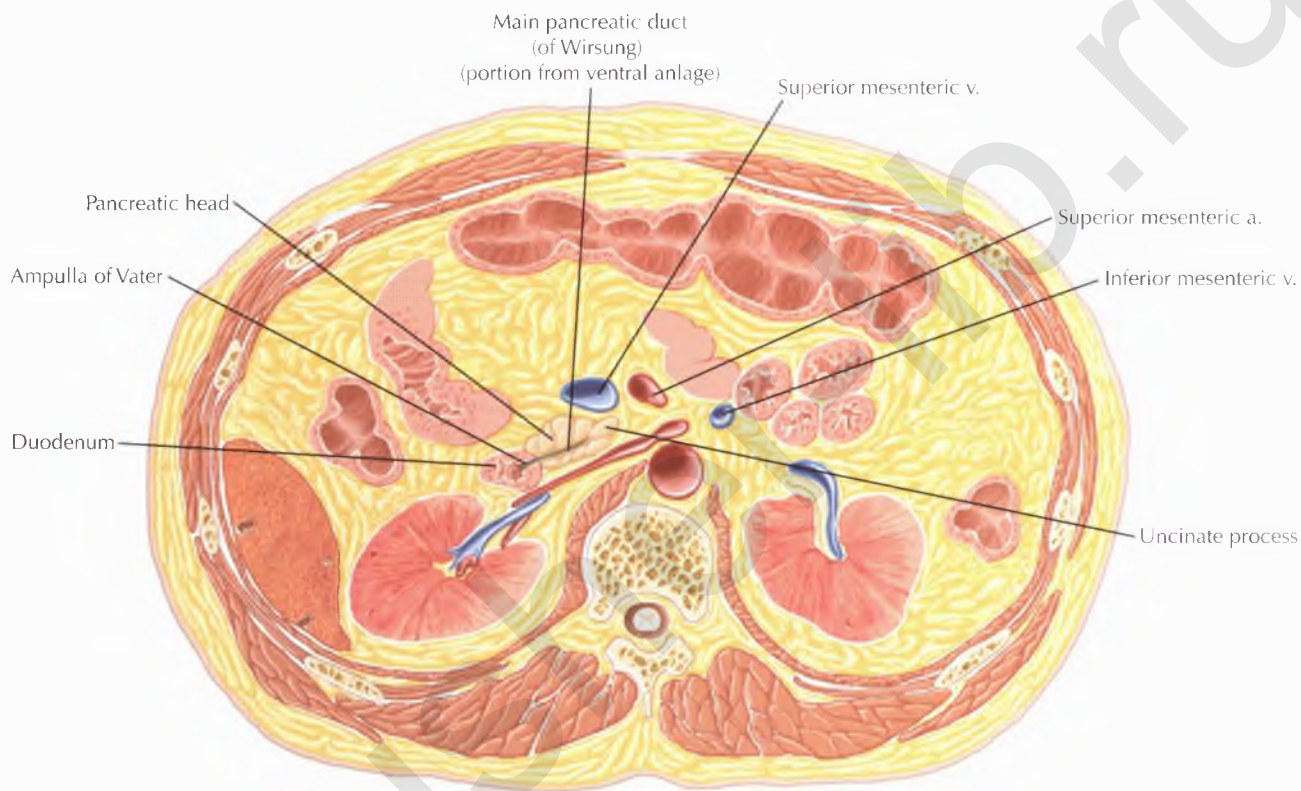
PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

Pancreas divisum, the most common congenital pancreatic variant, results from failure of the dorsal and ventral pancreatic anlagen of the ductal systems to fuse during the 6th to 8th weeks of gestation. The duct in the pancreatic body and tail, derived from the dorsal pancreatic anlage, drains into the duodenum through the accessory duct (of Santorini) and minor duodenal papilla, whereas the separate, more posteriorly and inferiorly located duct in the pancreatic head and uncinata process, derived from the ventral pancreatic anlage, joins the distal common bile duct to drain into the duodenum through the major duodenal papilla (of Vater).



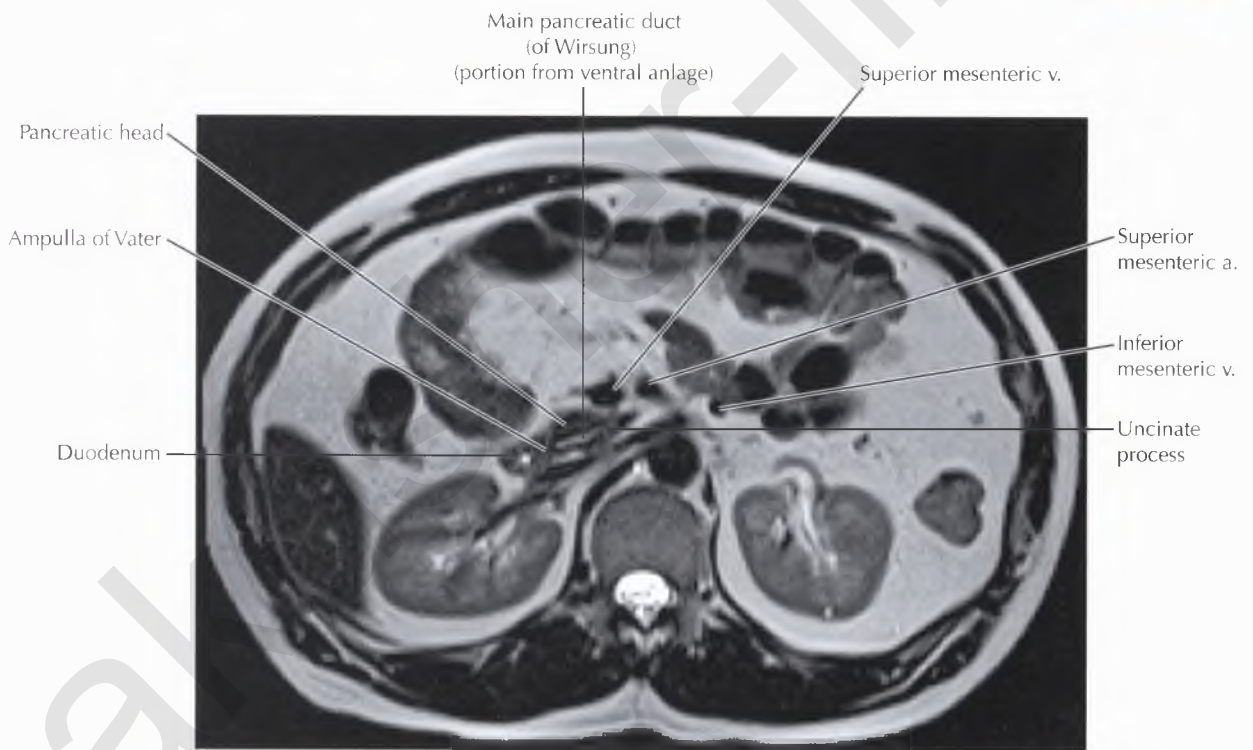
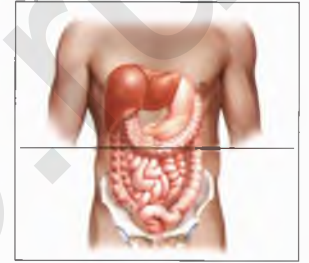


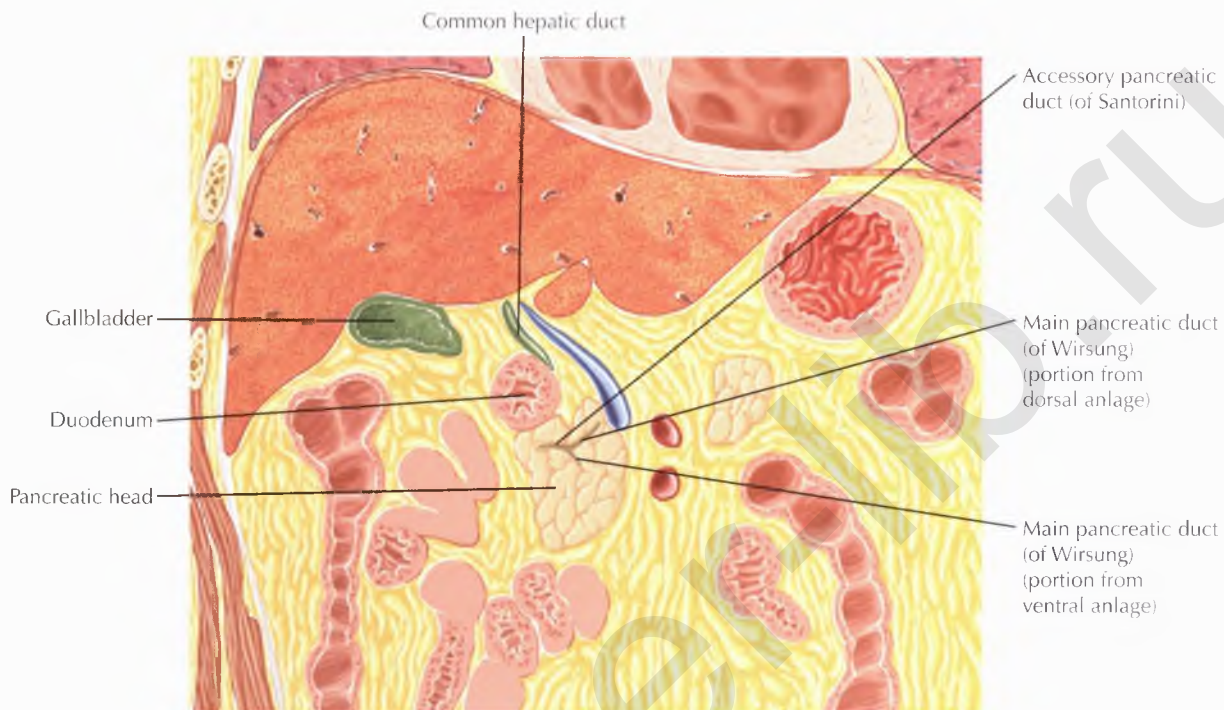




NORMAL ANATOMY

The common bile duct joins the main pancreatic duct (of Wirsung) to form the ampulla of Vater within the posteromedial wall of the 2nd portion of the duodenum. The sphincter of Oddi, a sheath of circular smooth muscle fibers, surrounds the ampulla of Vater and controls the flow of bile and pancreatic secretions into the duodenum.





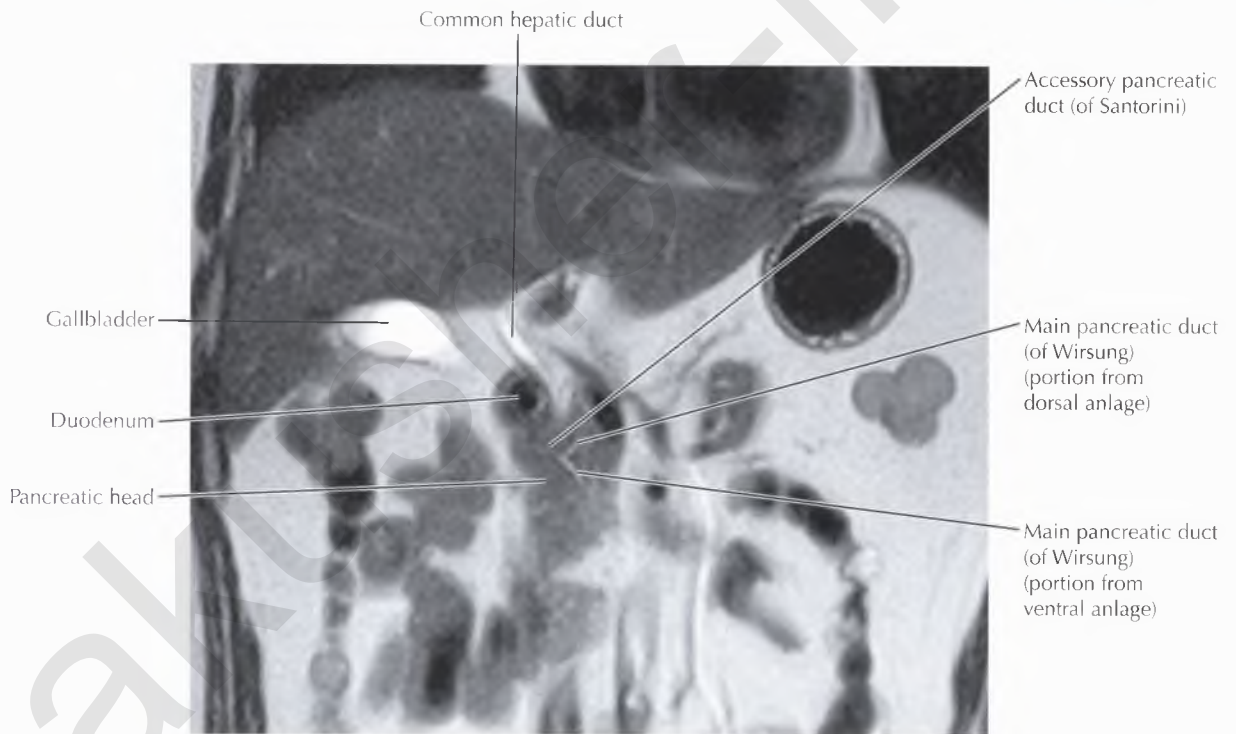
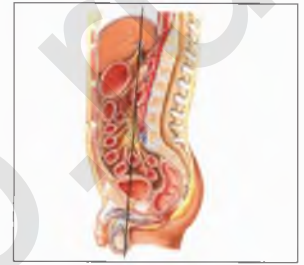
NORMAL ANATOMY

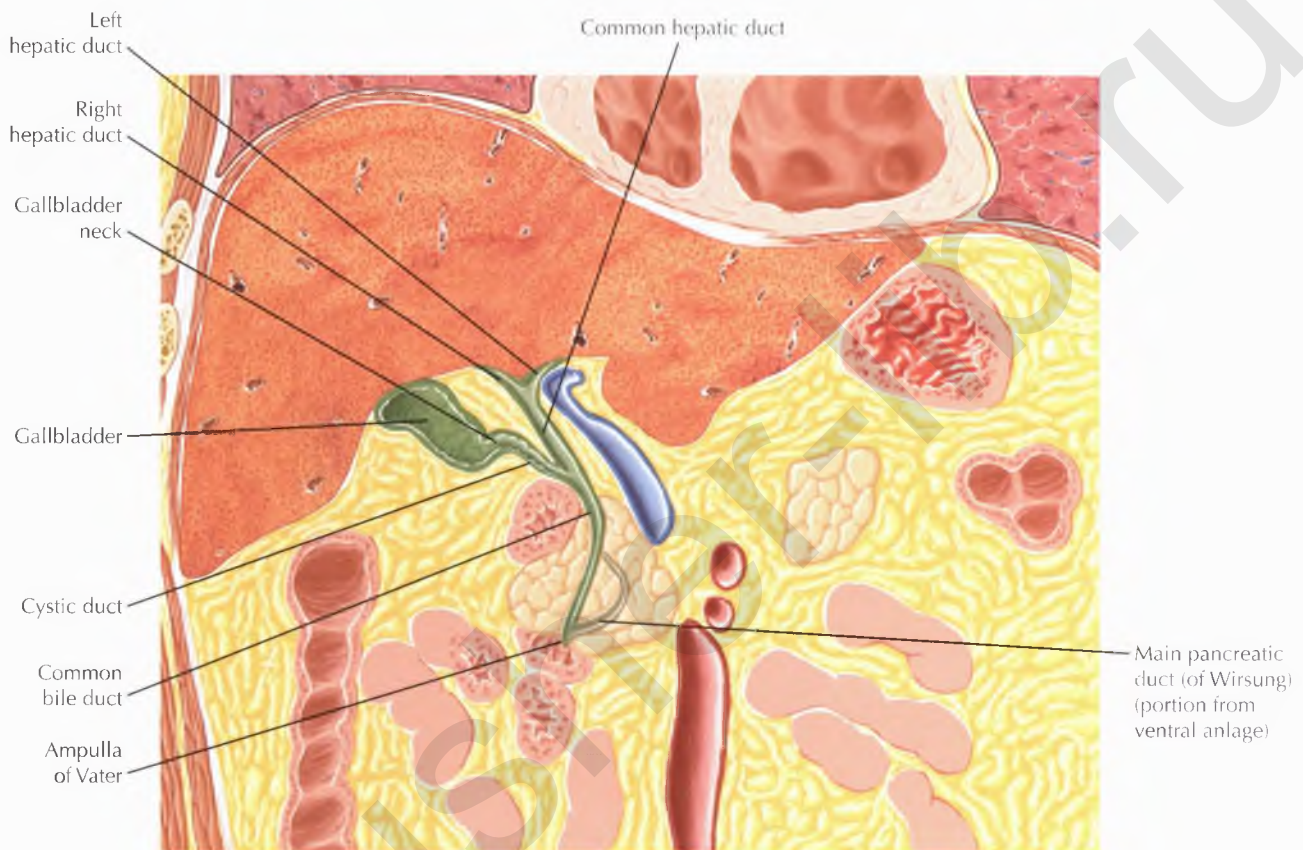
The common hepatic duct is formed by the union of the right and left (1st-order) hepatic ducts. Classically, the union of the 2nd-order biliary ducts from the posterior segments (VI and VII) and anterior segments (V and VIII) of the liver form the right hepatic duct, and biliary ducts from the lateral segments (II and III) and medial segments (IVa and IVb) of the liver join to form the left hepatic duct.

NORMAL VARIANTS

There is significant variation in normal biliary anatomy. In 15% to 20% of patients the posterior duct joins the left hepatic duct; in approximately 10% the anterior, posterior, and left hepatic ducts join to form a trifurcation, and in 5% the posterior duct joins the common hepatic duct after the anterior and left hepatic ducts have merged, which is an important anatomic variant that can result in significant morbidity after biliary surgery if not recognized preoperatively.

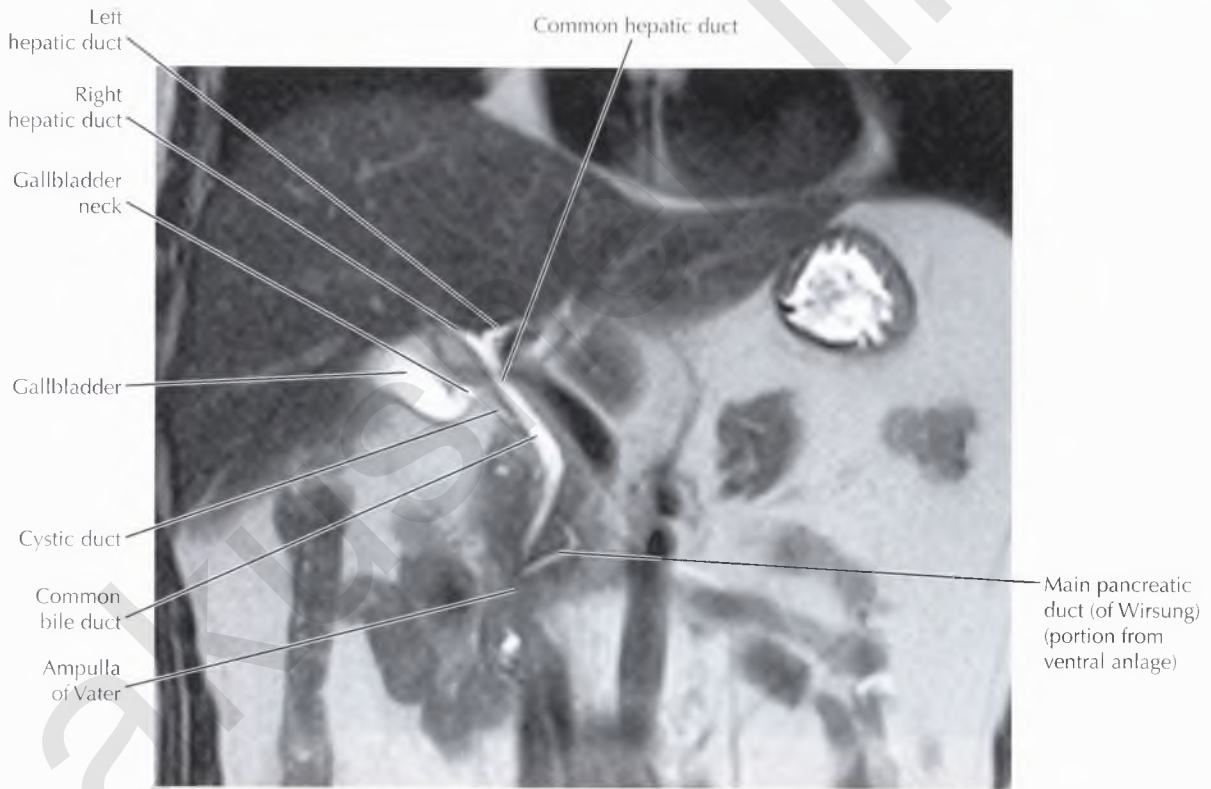
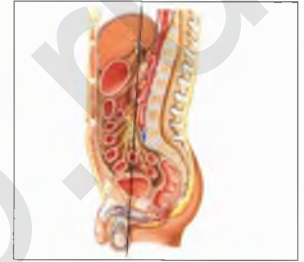
Biliary drainage from the caudate lobe of the liver (segment I) is also variable, although in most cases, the left part of the caudate lobe drains into the left hepatic duct. The right part of the caudate lobe drains into the left or the right hepatic duct, with approximately equal frequency.

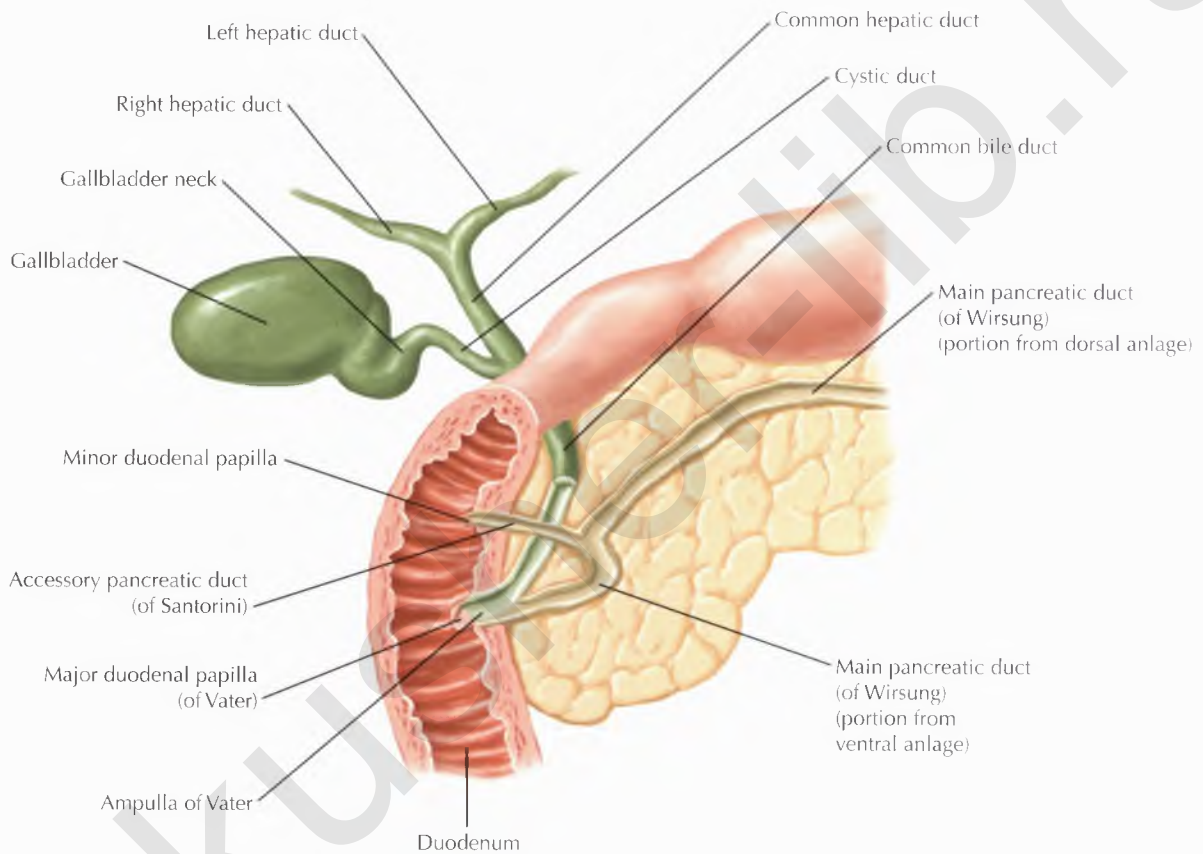


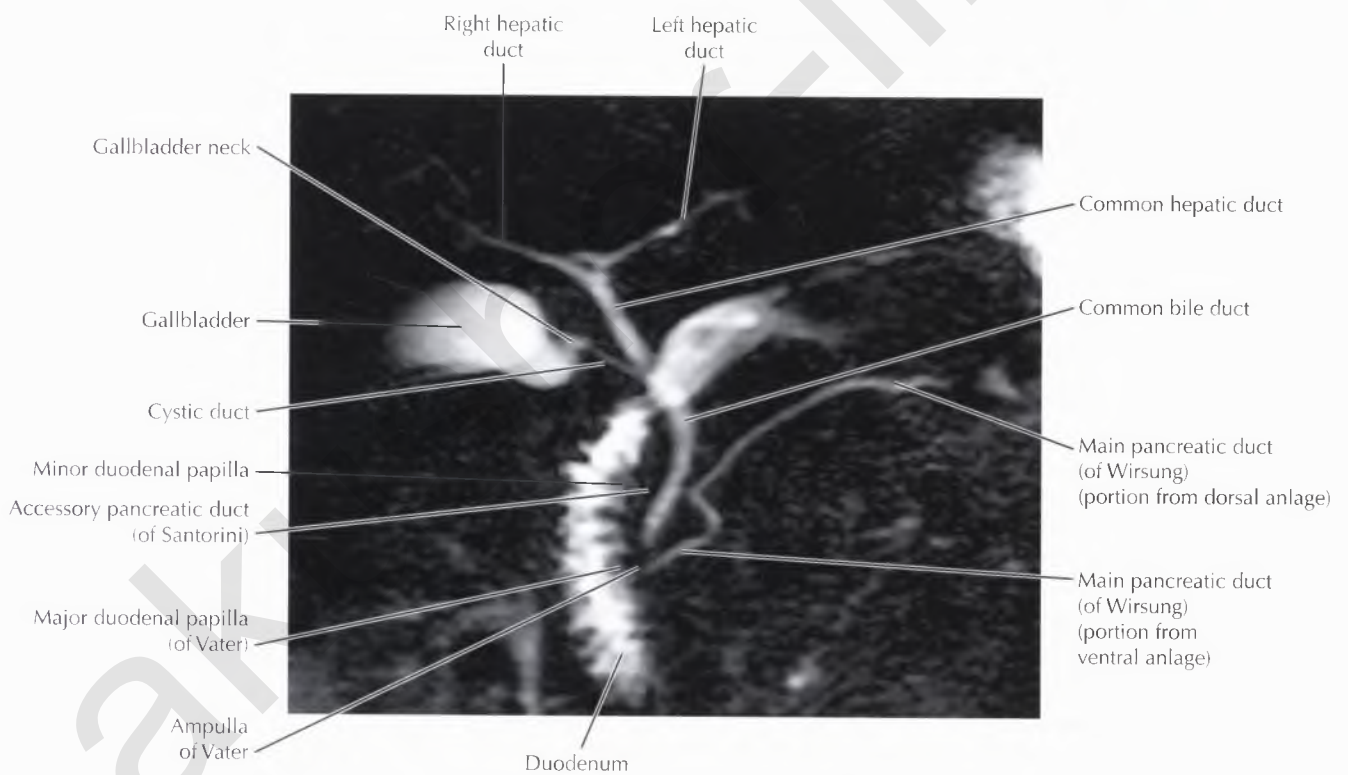
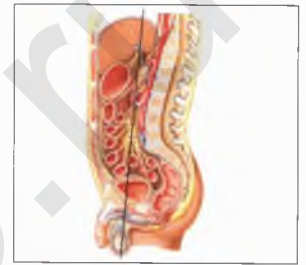


DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

Magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography (MRCP) uses a long echo time (TE) to increase T2 weighting and a long repetition time (TR) to decrease T1 weighting, resulting in a heavily T2-weighted sequence. The sequence is not specific for bile, since any fluid-containing structure (e.g., bowel, thecal sac, collecting system, ureter, cystic or necrotic portions of lesions) will appear hyperintense. Coronal maximum intensity projection (MIP) images are useful and typically used to evaluate the biliary system.







PART

2

PELVIC ANATOMY

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SCROTUM AND TESTES	351
PENIS AND MALE URETHRA	389
FEMALE PELVIS*	431

*For Peritoneal Cavity–Pelvis, see Chapter 3, pp. 166-205.

Chapter

5

OVERVIEW OF PELVIS

ARTERIES AND VEINS OF PELVIS: FEMALE 236

ARTERIES AND VEINS OF PELVIS: MALE 237

LYMPH VESSELS AND NODES OF PELVIS AND GENITALIA:
FEMALE 238

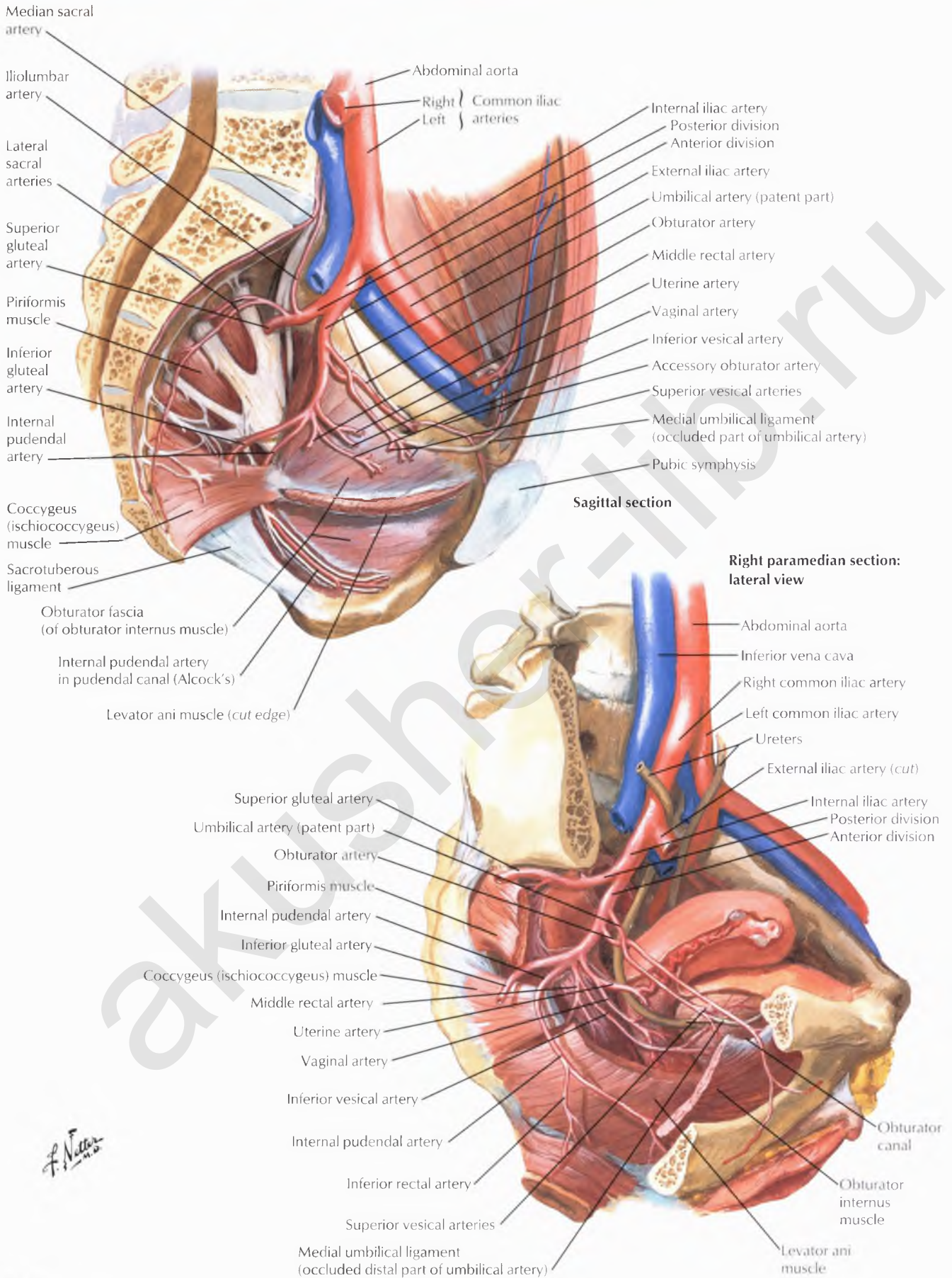
LYMPH VESSELS AND NODES OF PELVIS AND GENITALIA:
MALE 239

PELVIC DIAPHRAGM: FEMALE 240

UTERUS AND ADNEXA 241

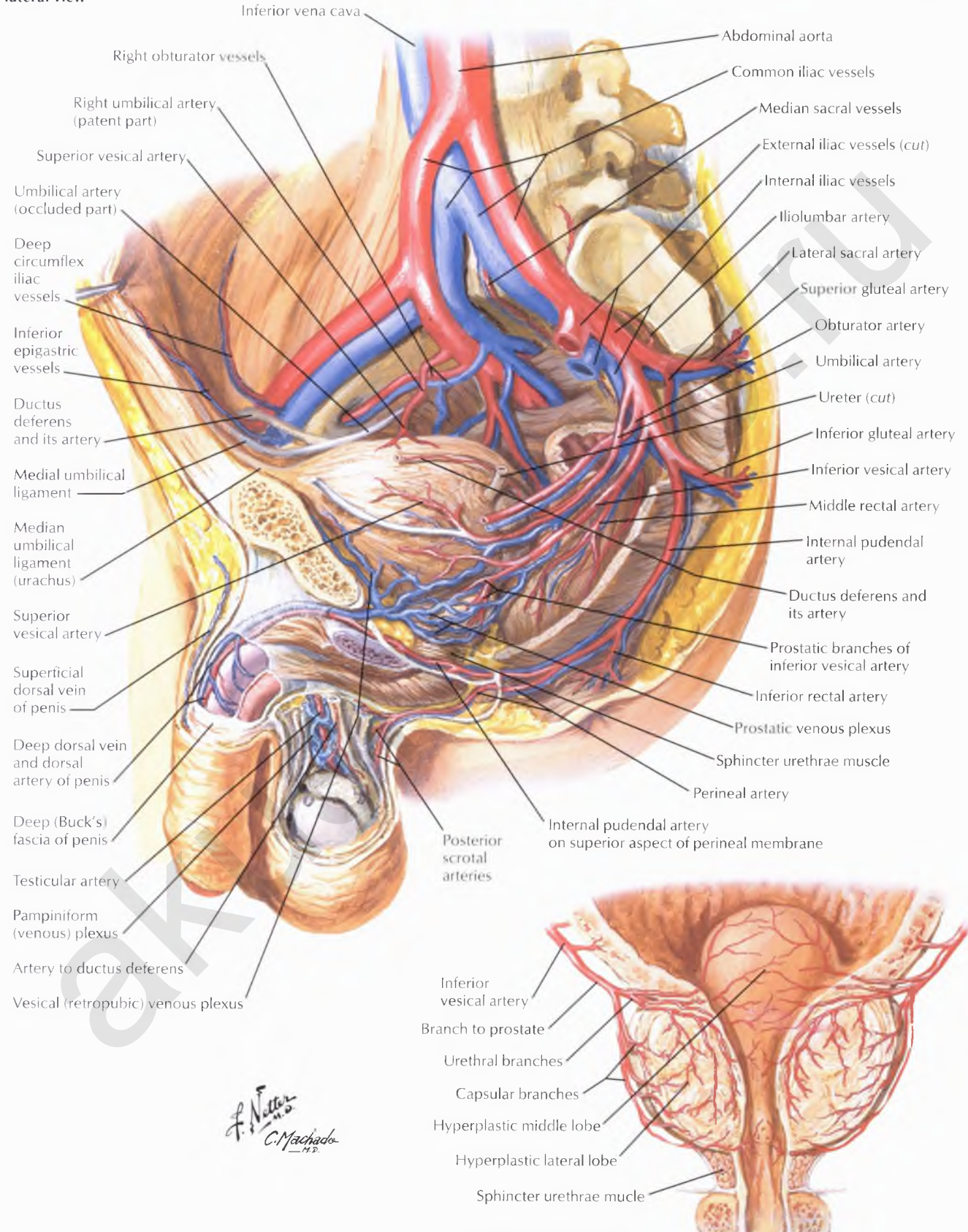
INGUINAL CANAL AND SPERMATIC CORD 242

ARTERIES AND VEINS OF PELVIS: FEMALE



ARTERIES AND VEINS OF PELVIS: MALE

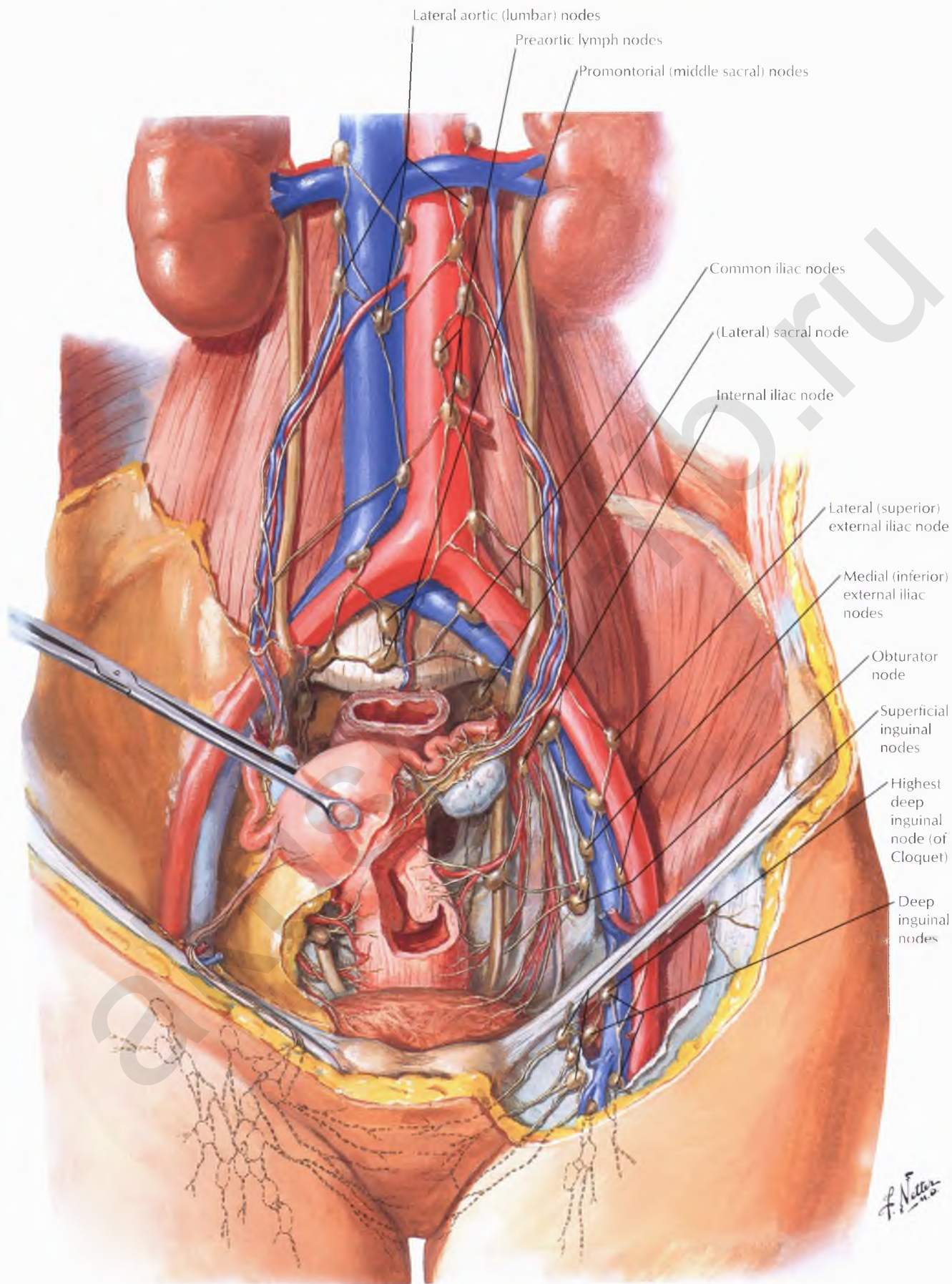
Left paramedian section:
lateral view



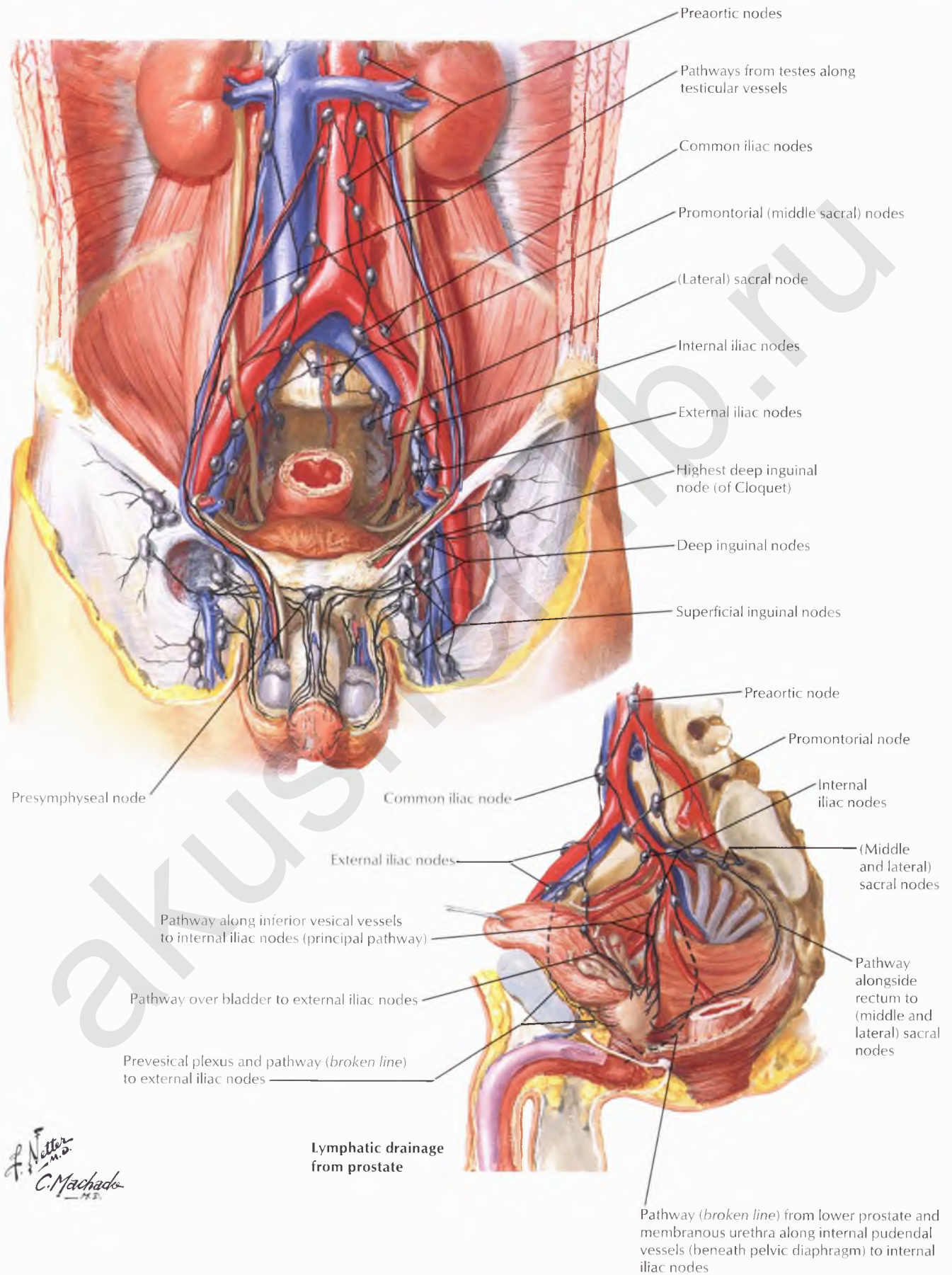
F. Netter M.D.
C. Machado M.D.

Arterial supply of prostate
(Frontal section, anterior view of specimen with benign hyperplasia)

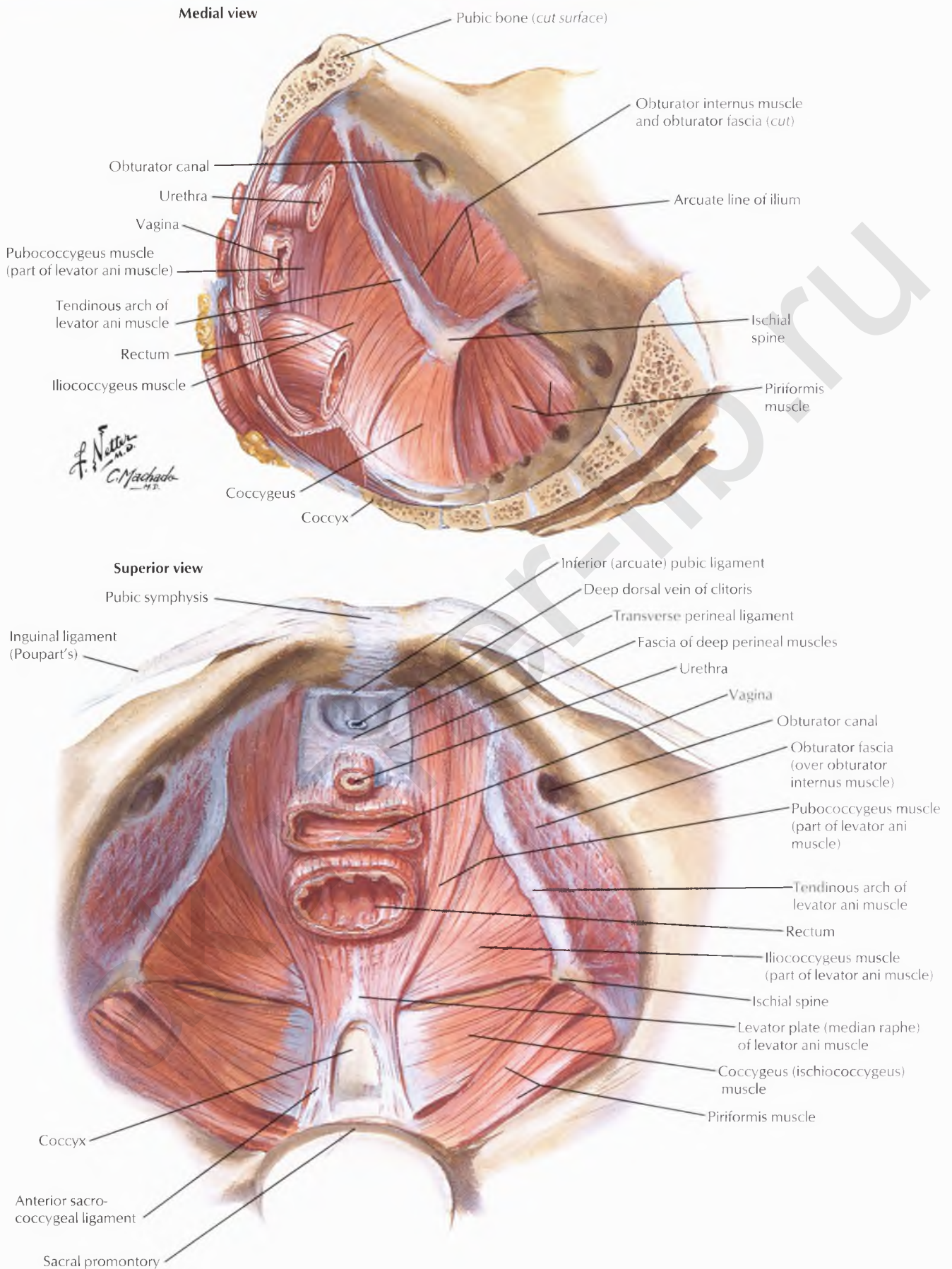
LYMPH VESSELS AND NODES OF PELVIS AND GENITALIA: FEMALE



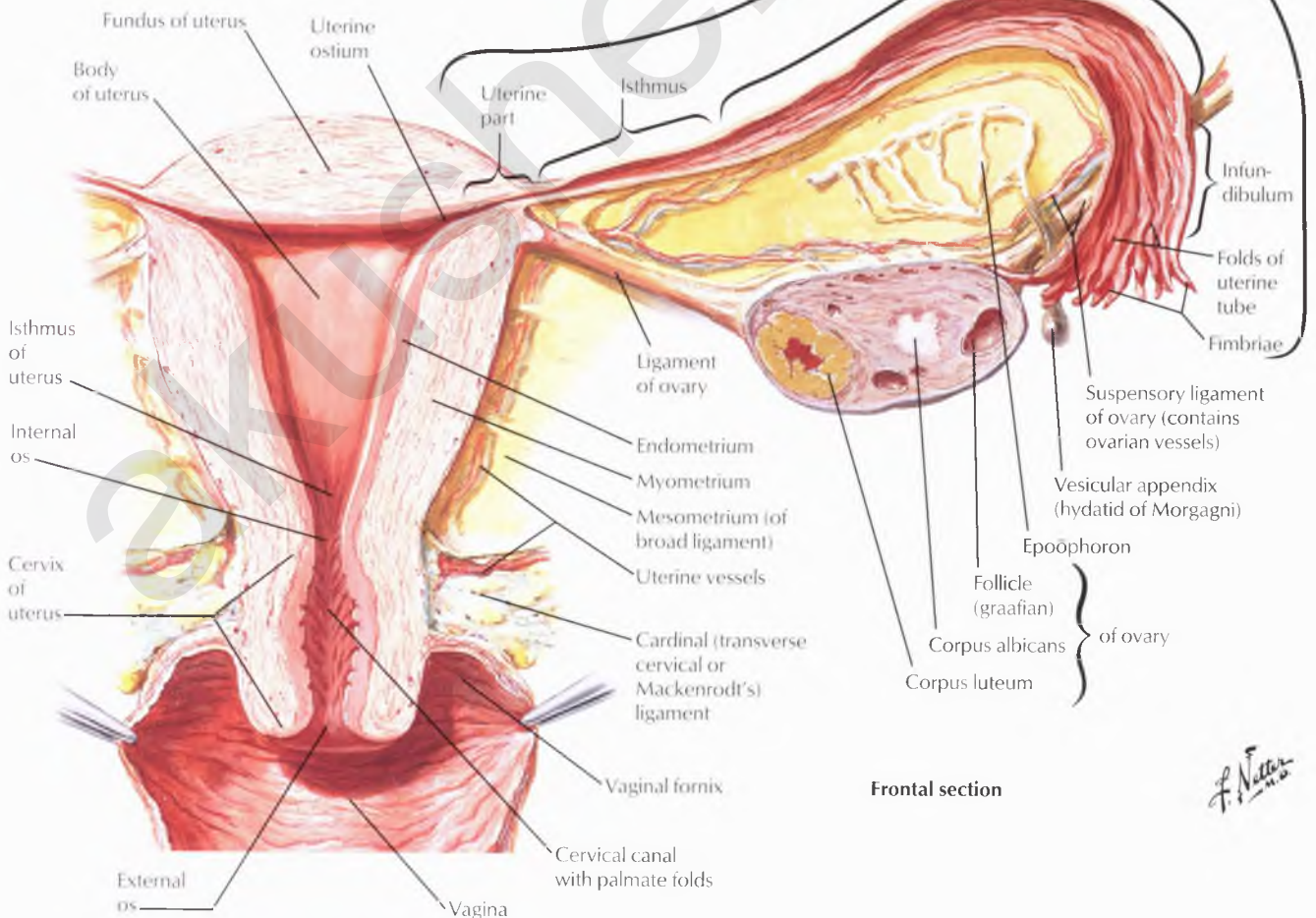
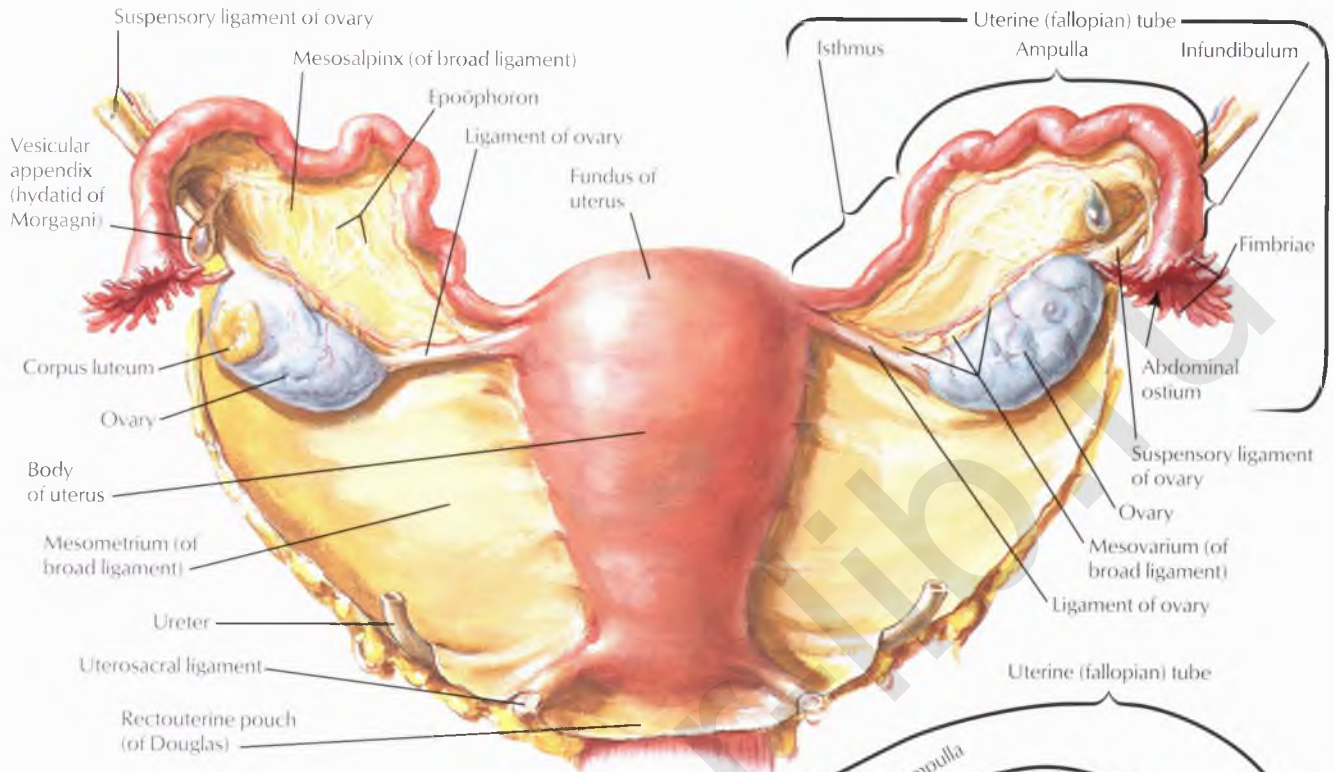
LYMPH VESSELS AND NODES OF PELVIS AND GENITALIA: MALE



PELVIC DIAPHRAGM: FEMALE

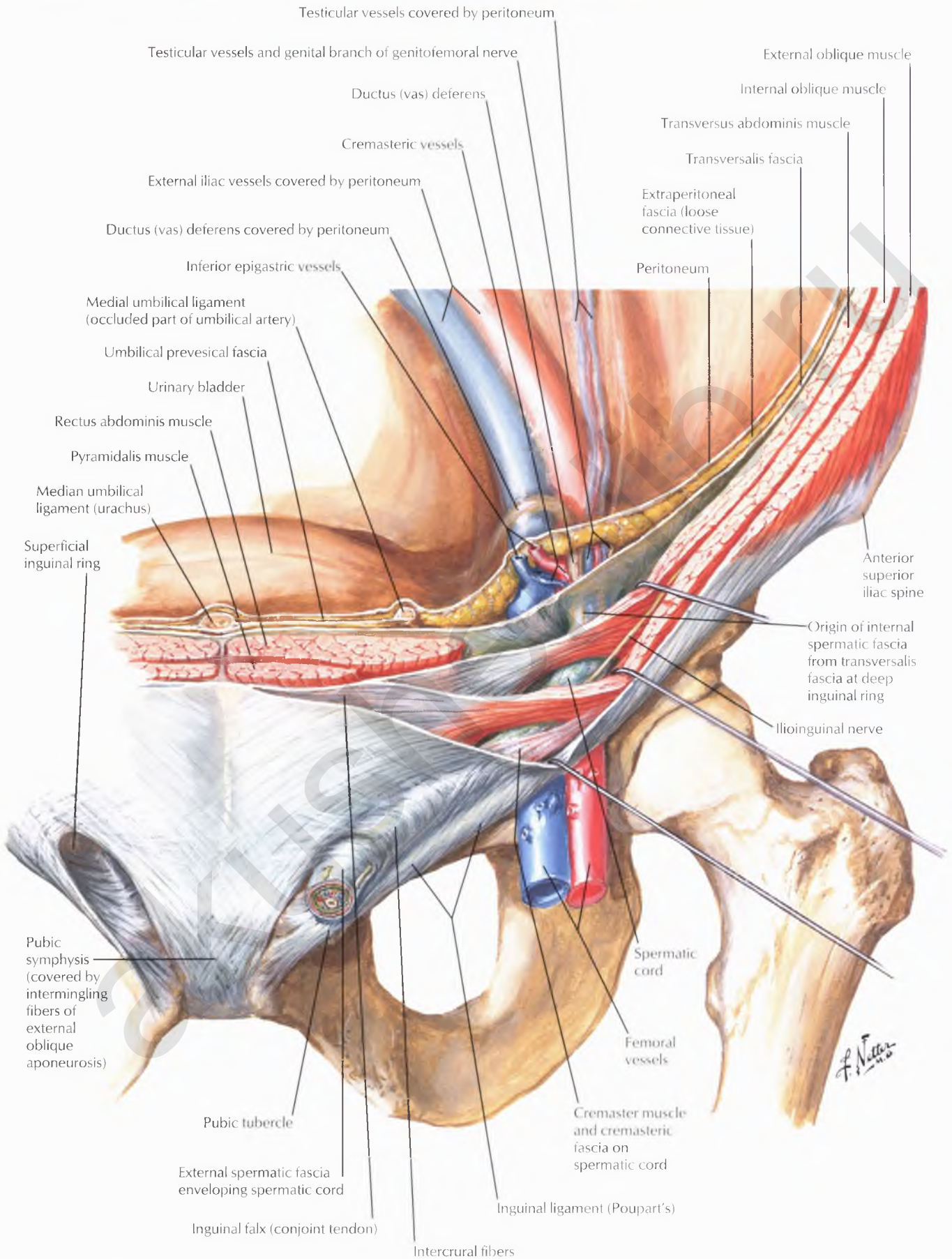


Posterior view



F. Netter M.D.

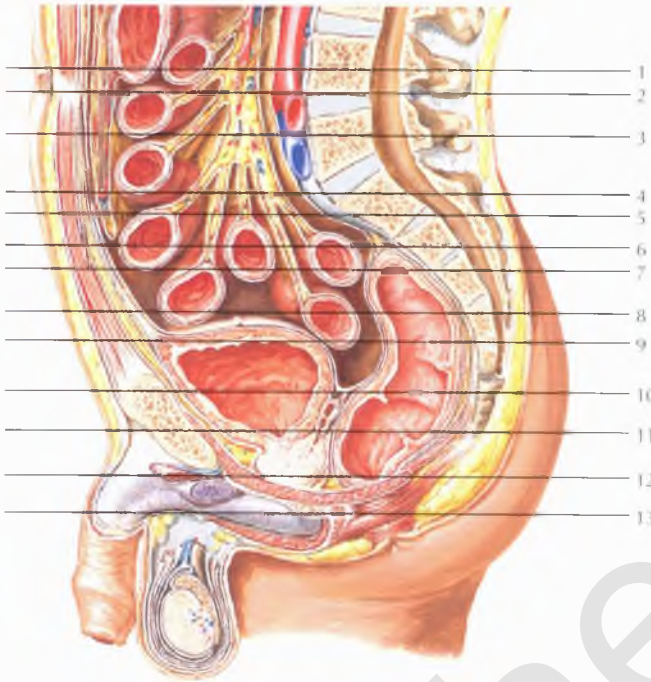
INGUINAL CANAL AND SPERMATIC CORD



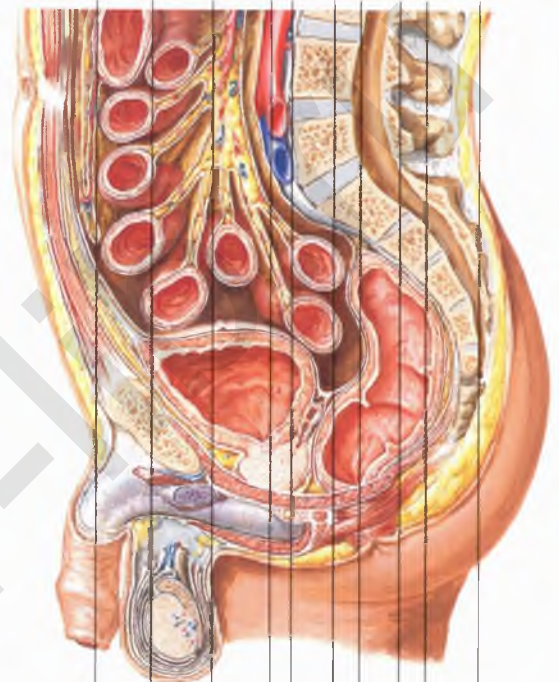
Chapter

6

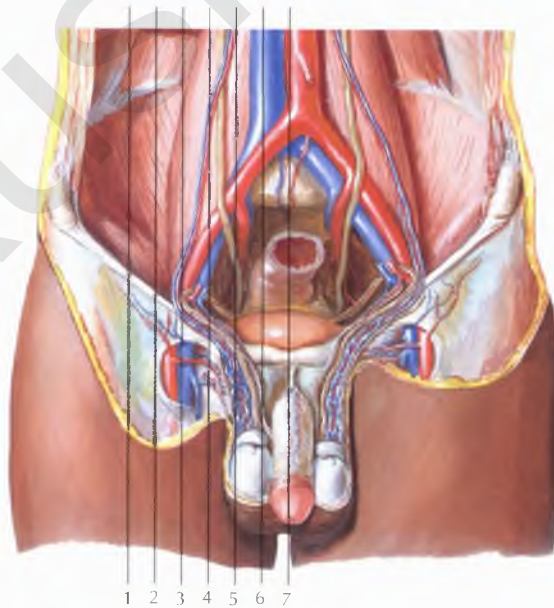
MALE PELVIS*



AXIAL 244

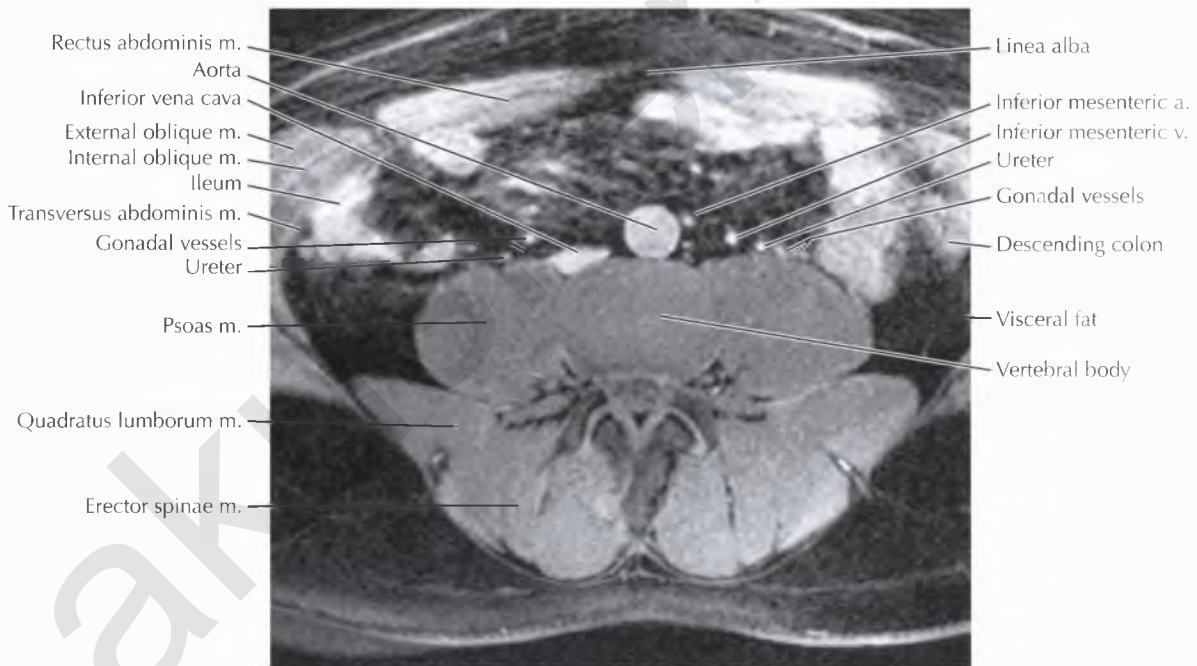
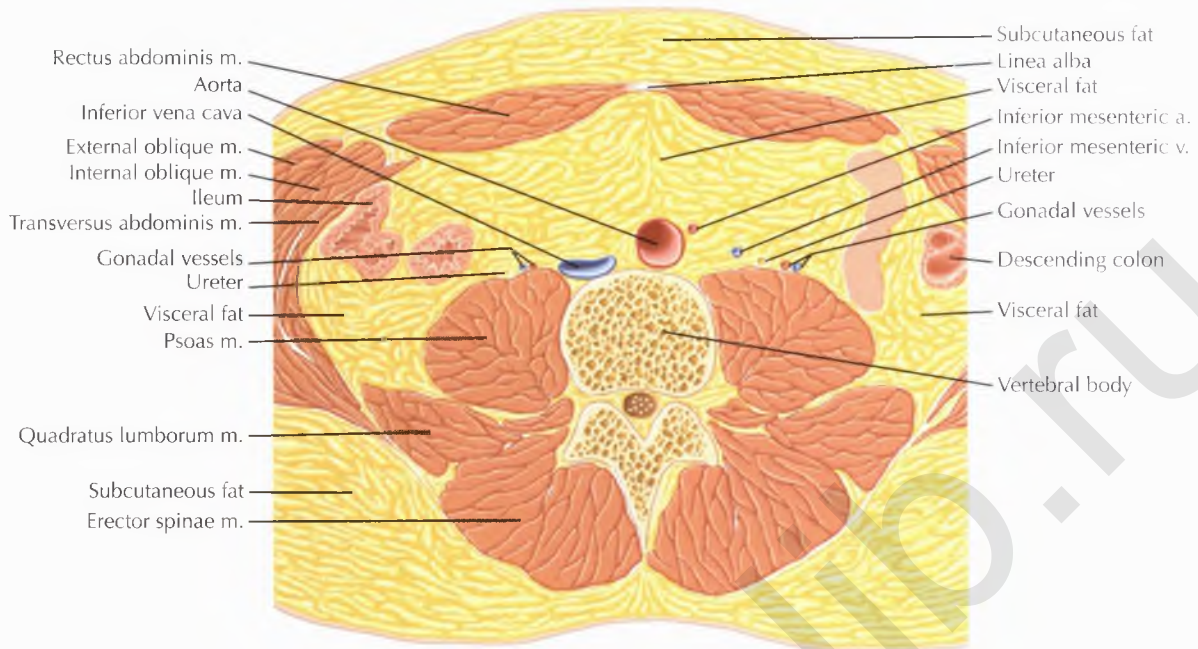


CORONAL 270



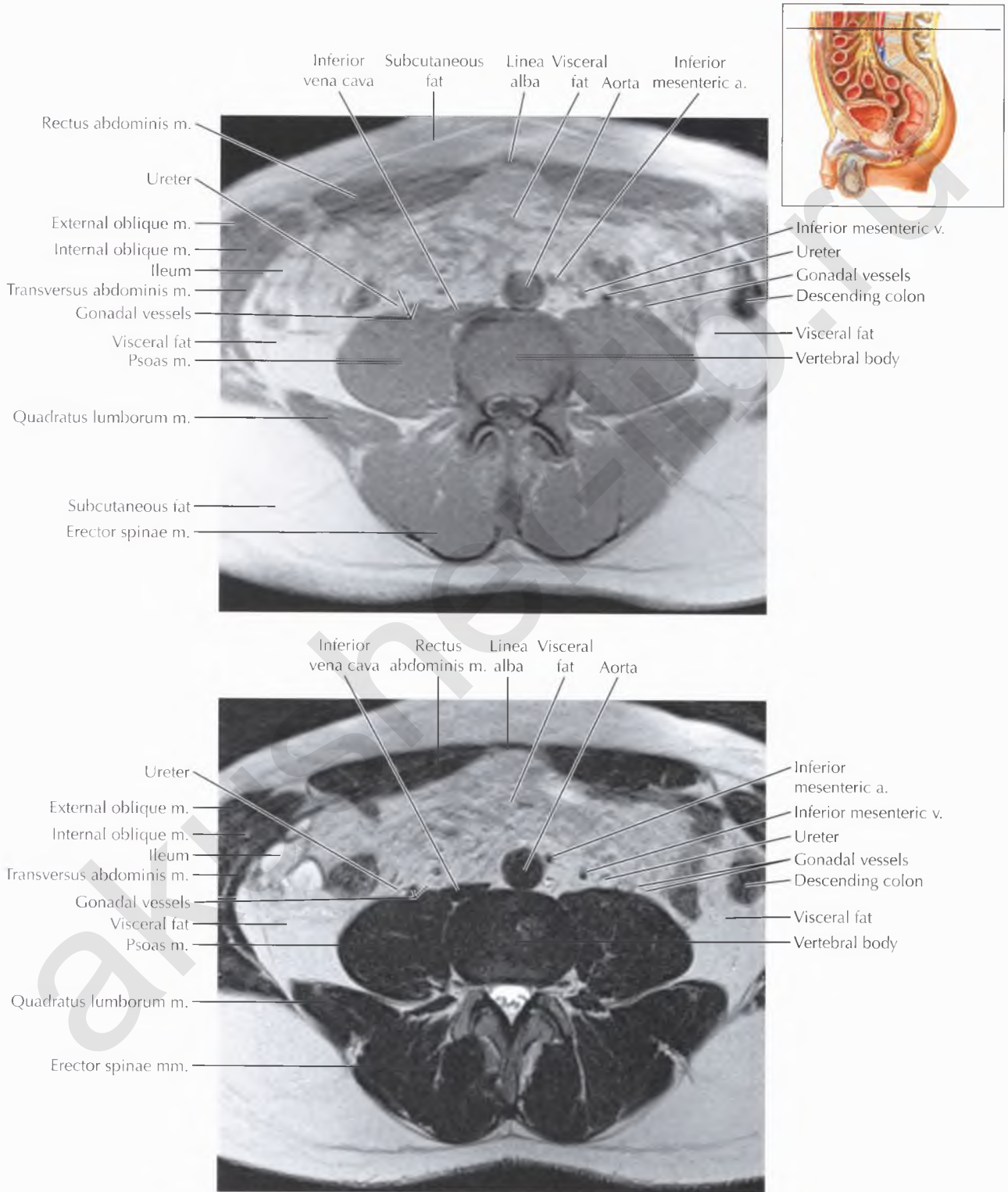
SAGITTAL 290

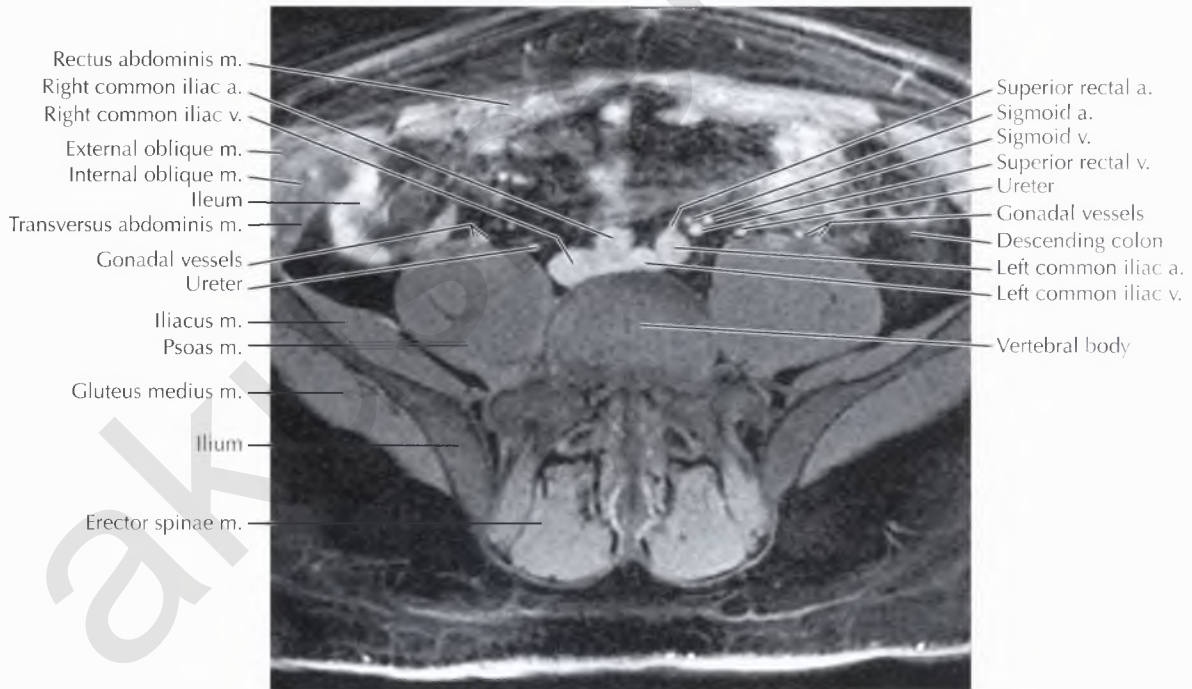
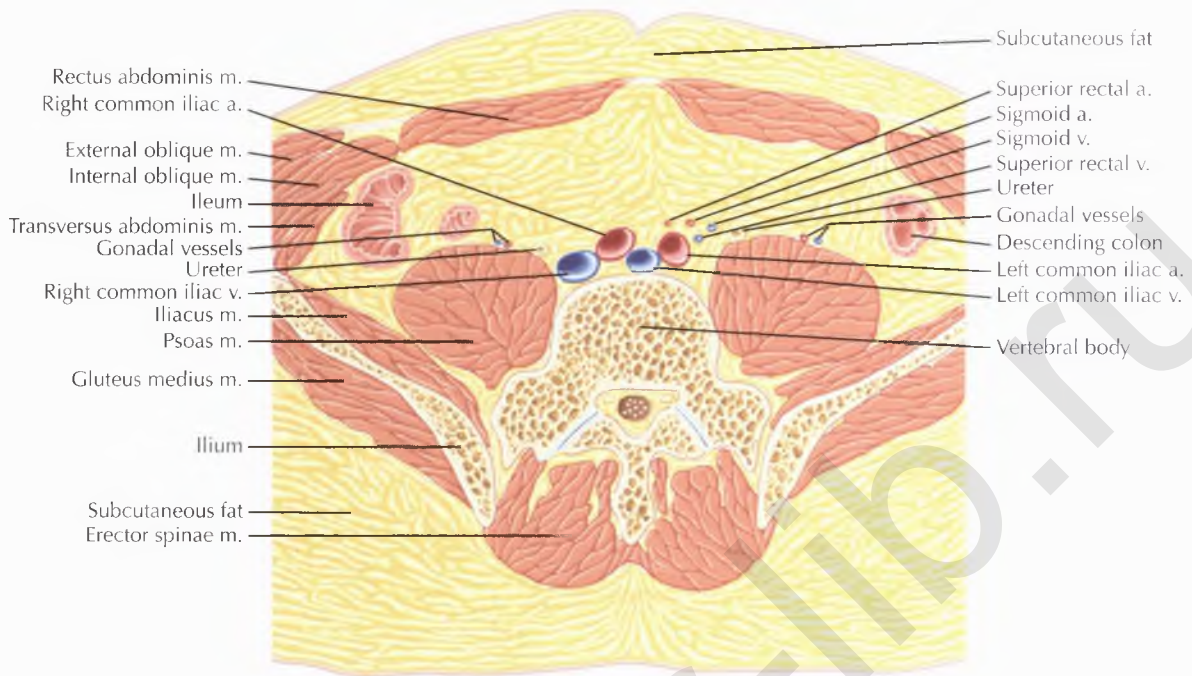
*For Peritoneal Cavity–Pelvis, see Chapter 3 (pp. 166–205).



NORMAL ANATOMY

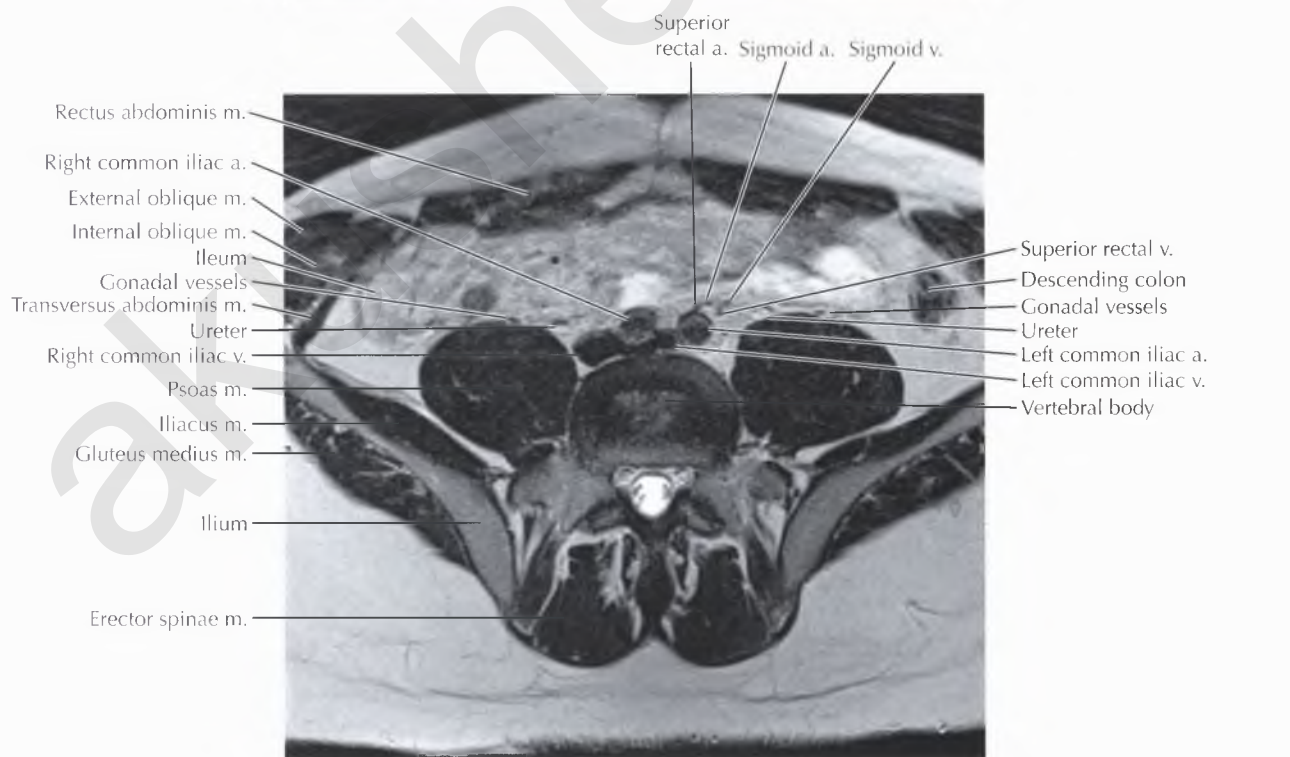
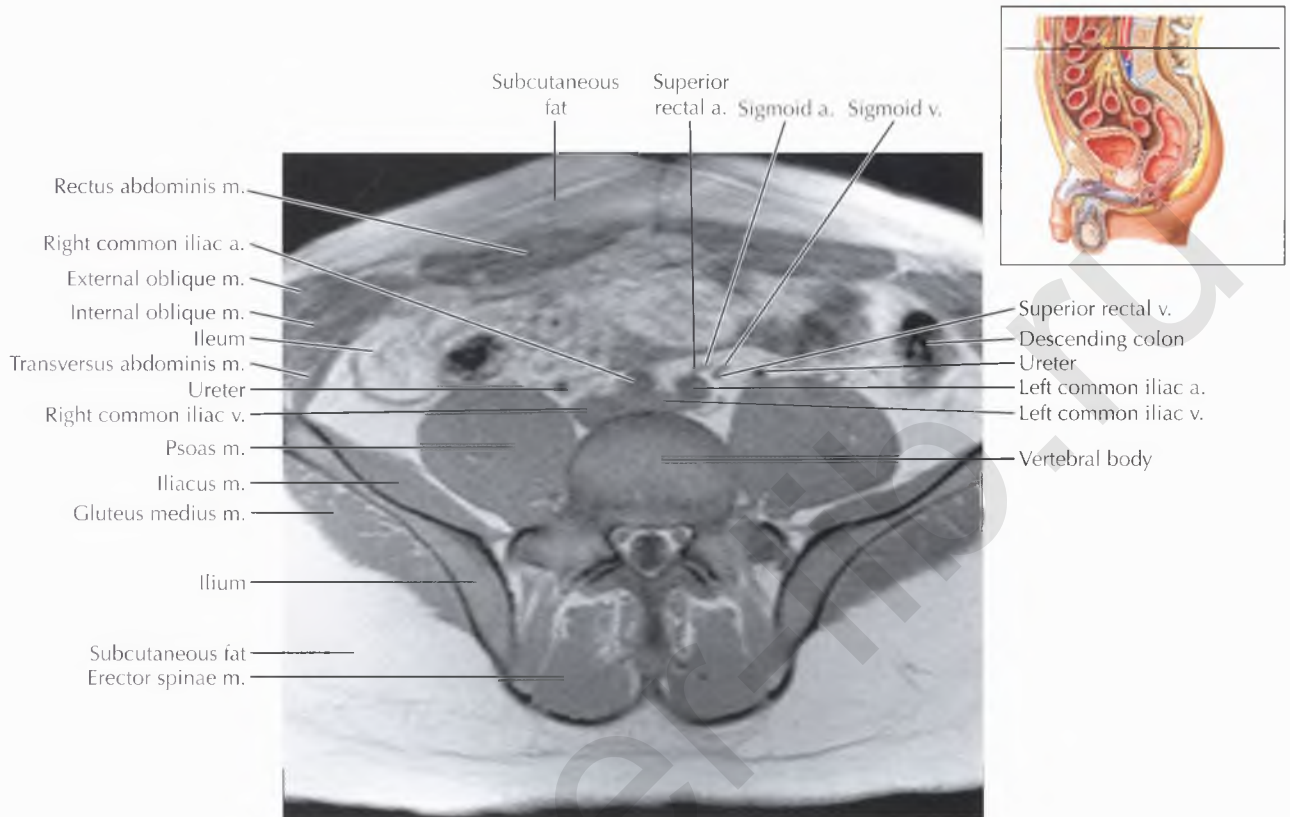
The *gonadal vessels* refer to the testicular artery and testicular vein in males and the ovarian artery and ovarian vein in females. The gonadal arteries arise directly from the aorta and carry blood to the gonads (testicles or ovaries). The right gonadal vein drains into the inferior vena cava (IVC), and the left gonadal vein drains into the left renal vein. On this image in the lower abdomen, the gonadal vessels are seen coursing anterior to the psoas muscles, adjacent to the ureters.

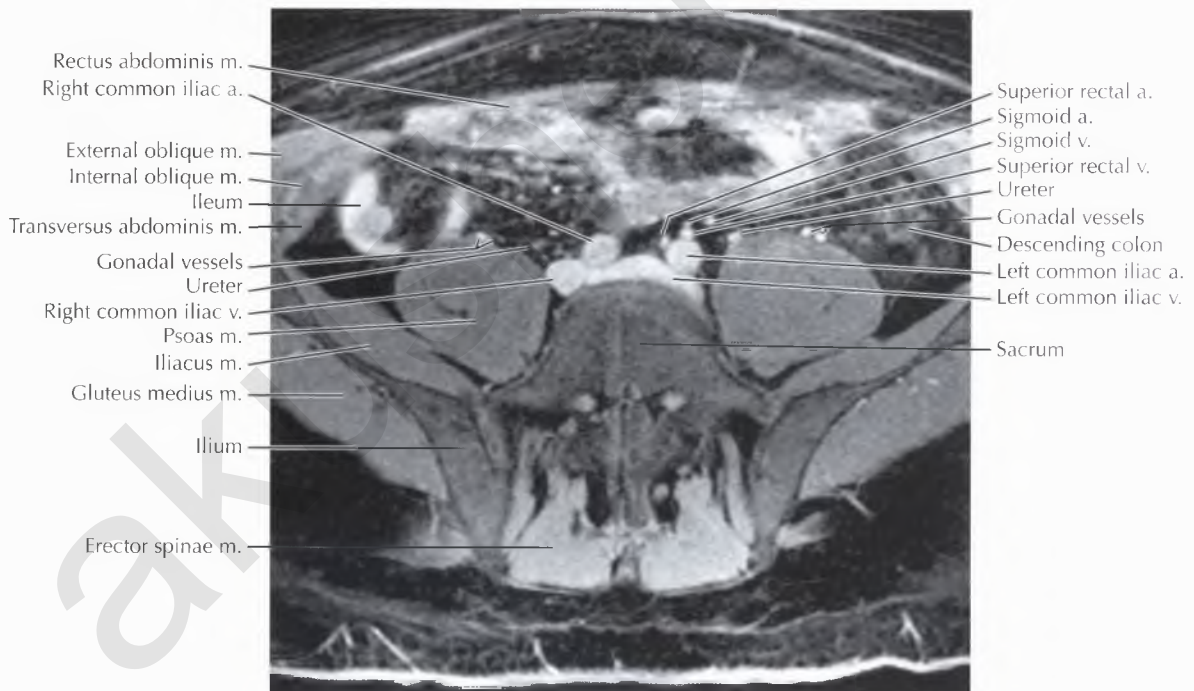
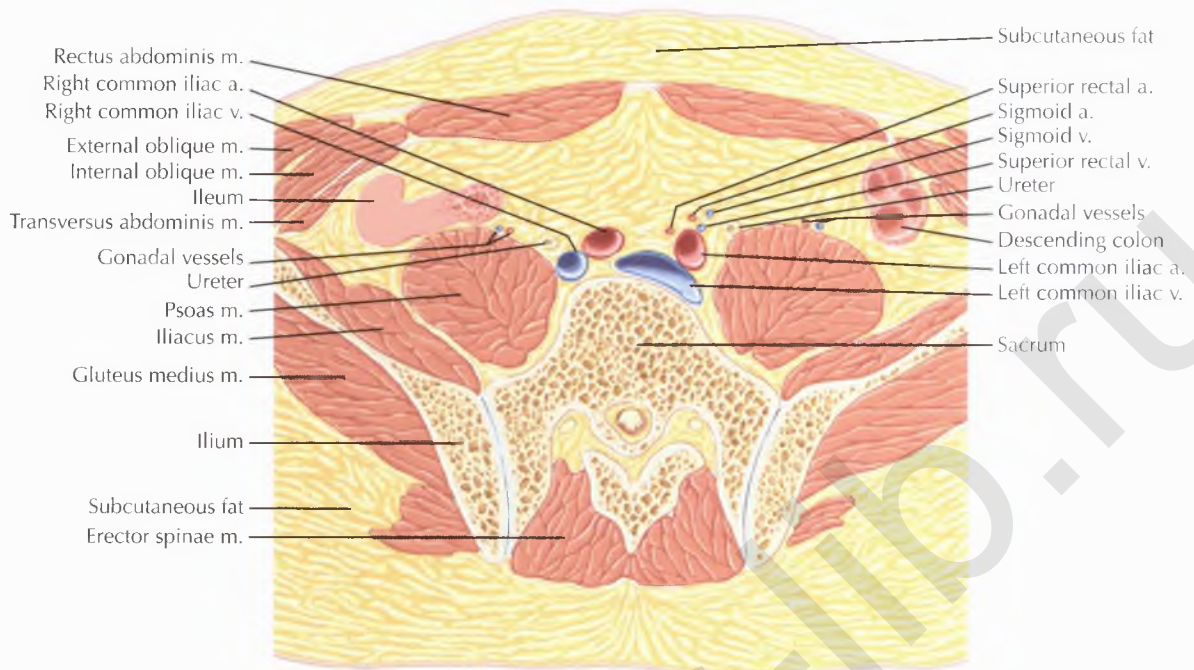




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

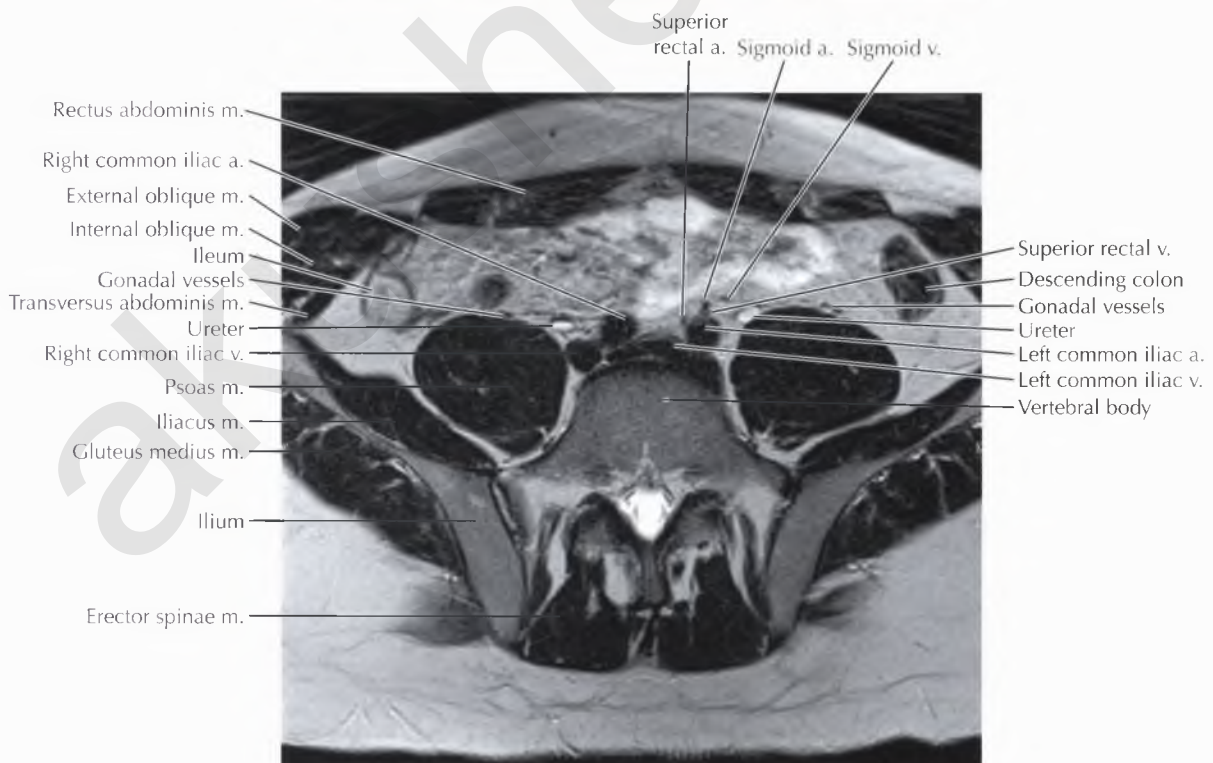
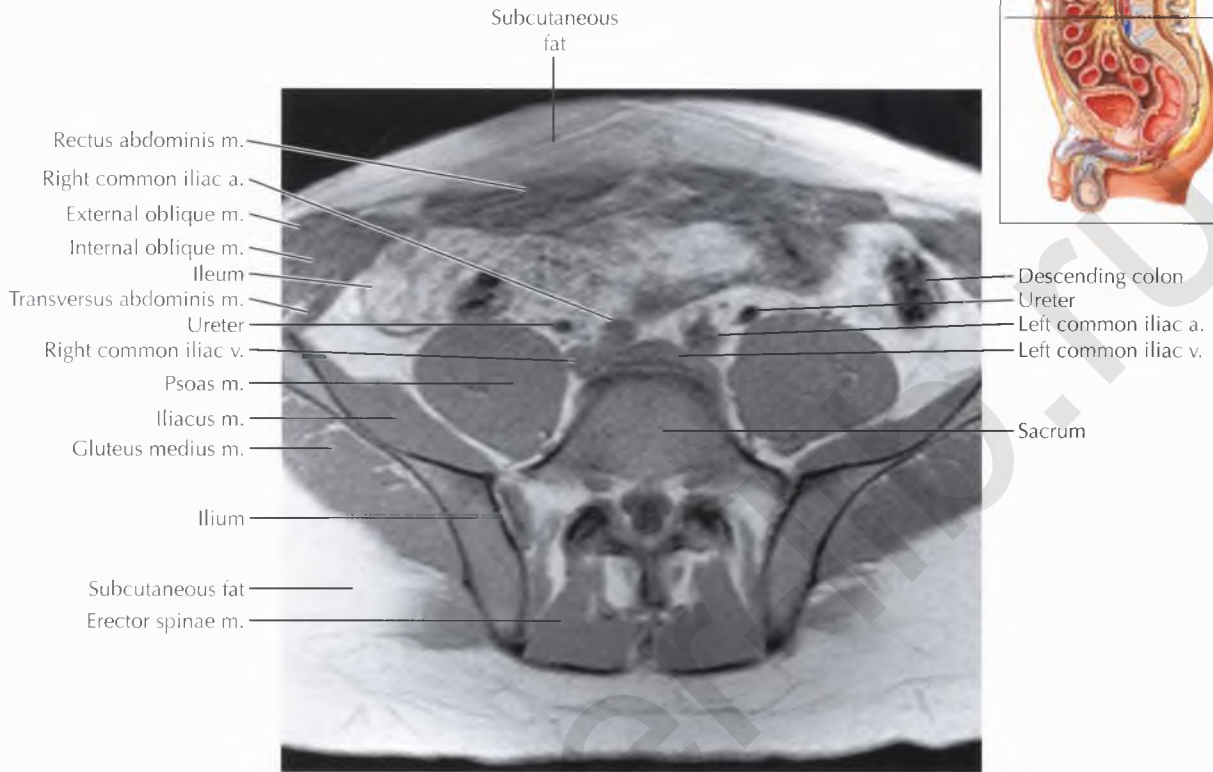
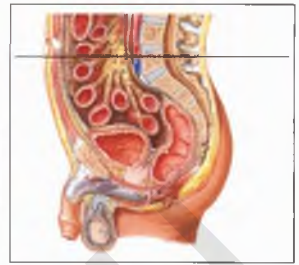
May-Thurner syndrome is caused by extrinsic compression of the left common iliac vein as it passes between the right common iliac artery and spine, resulting in thrombosis and occlusion.

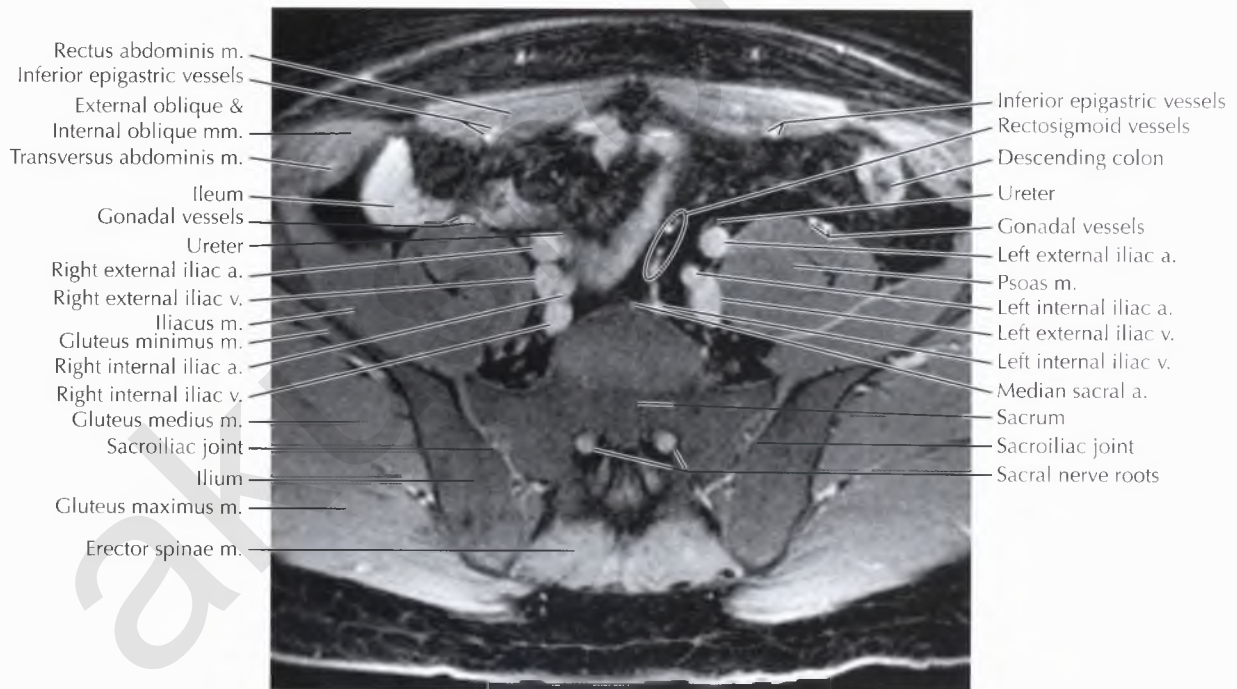
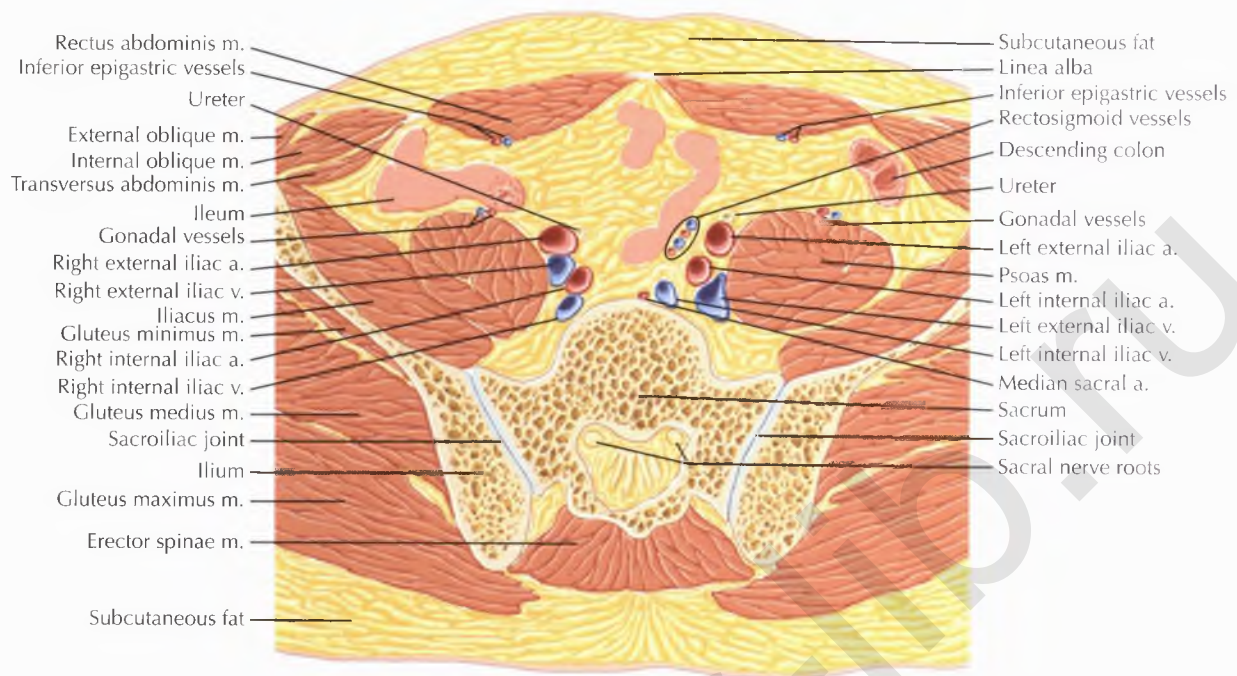




NORMAL ANATOMY

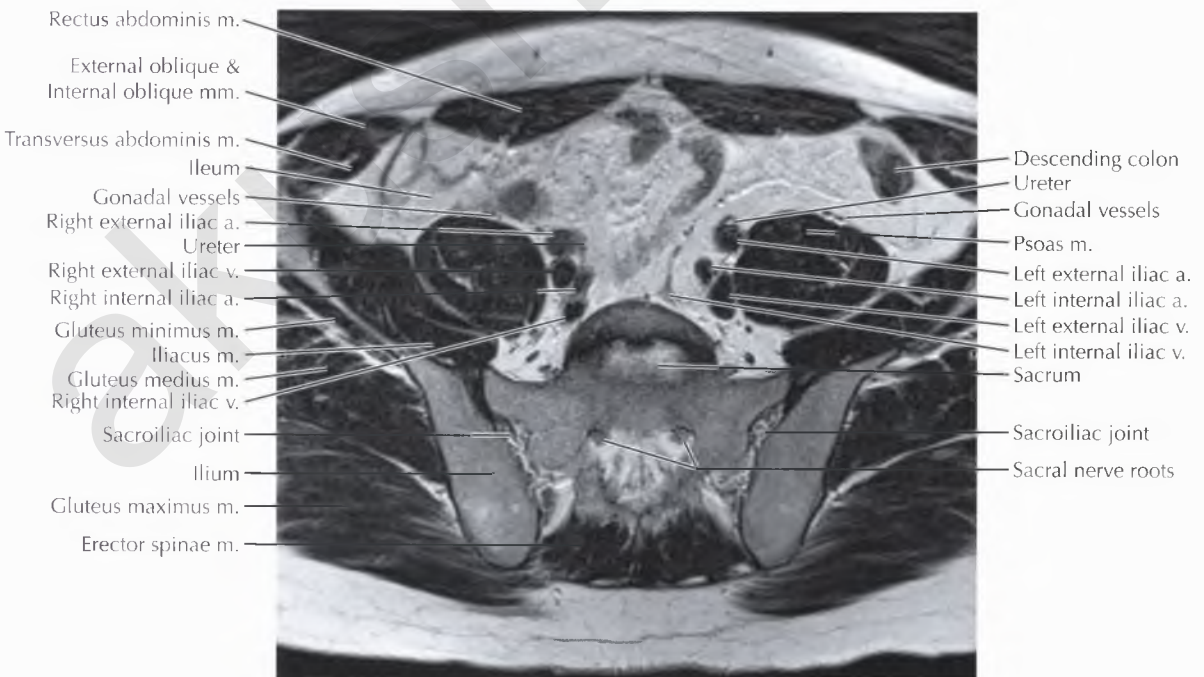
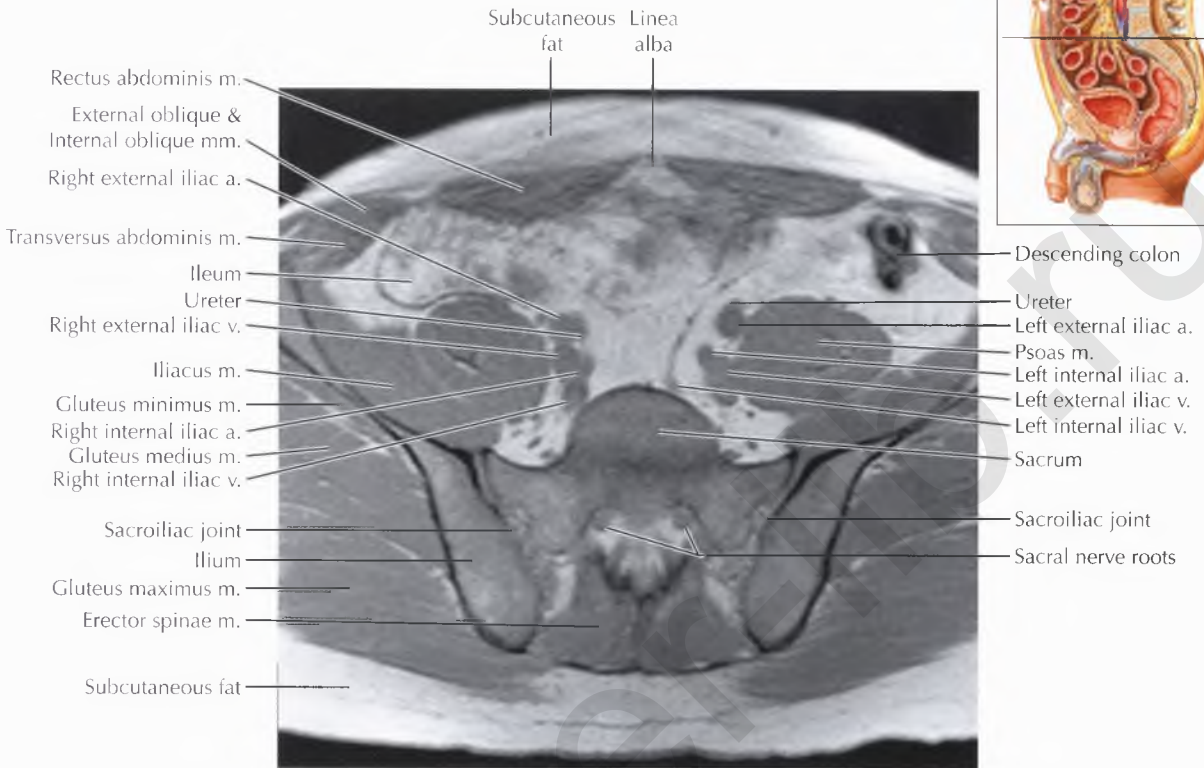
The inferior mesenteric artery gives off two or three sigmoid artery branches, then continues as the *superior rectal artery*, which descends into the pelvis between the layers of the sigmoid mesentery.



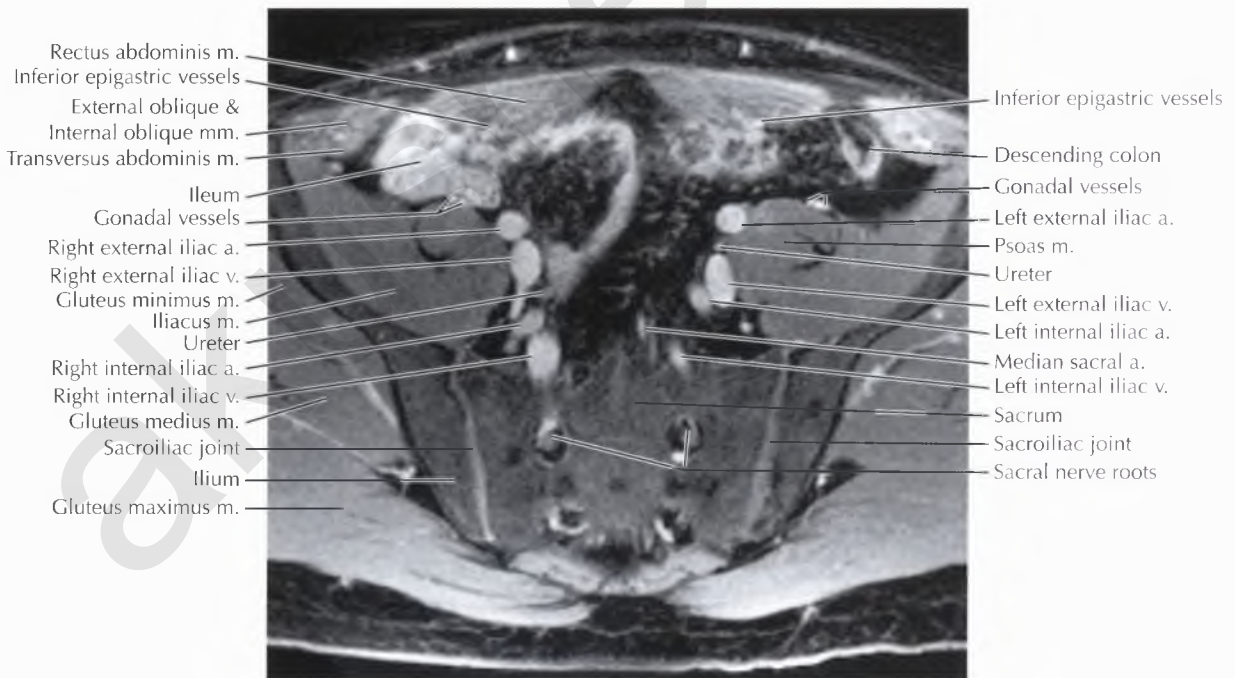
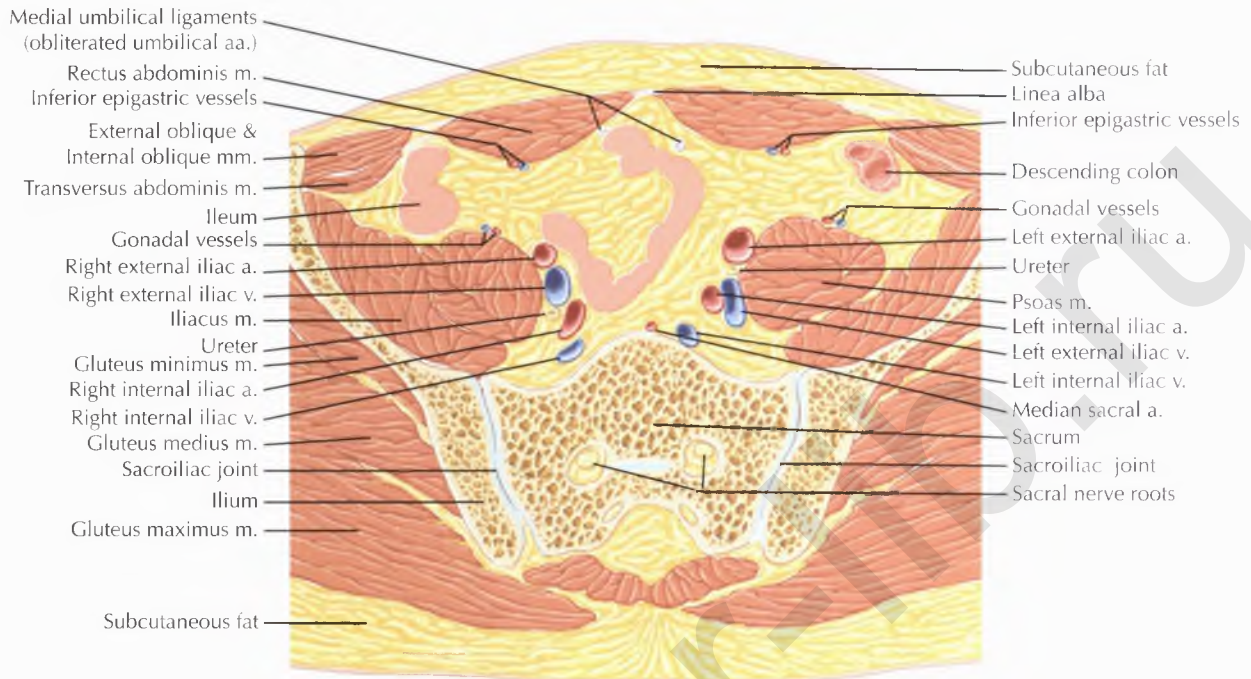


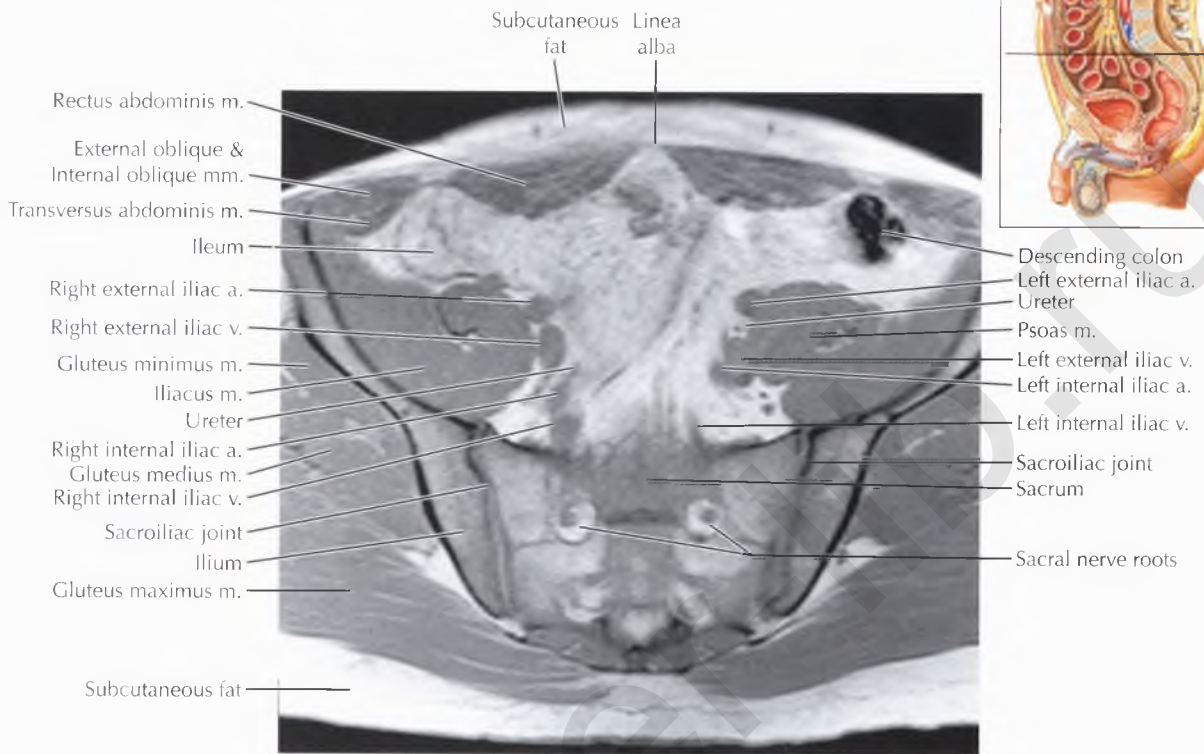
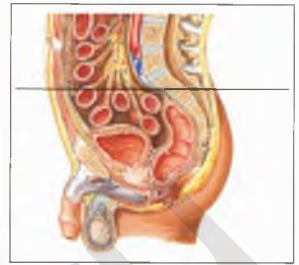
NORMAL ANATOMY

The common iliac arteries and veins divide into the external iliac arteries and veins and the internal iliac (or hypogastric) arteries and veins, respectively, in the pelvis. Note that the arteries are located anterior to the veins.

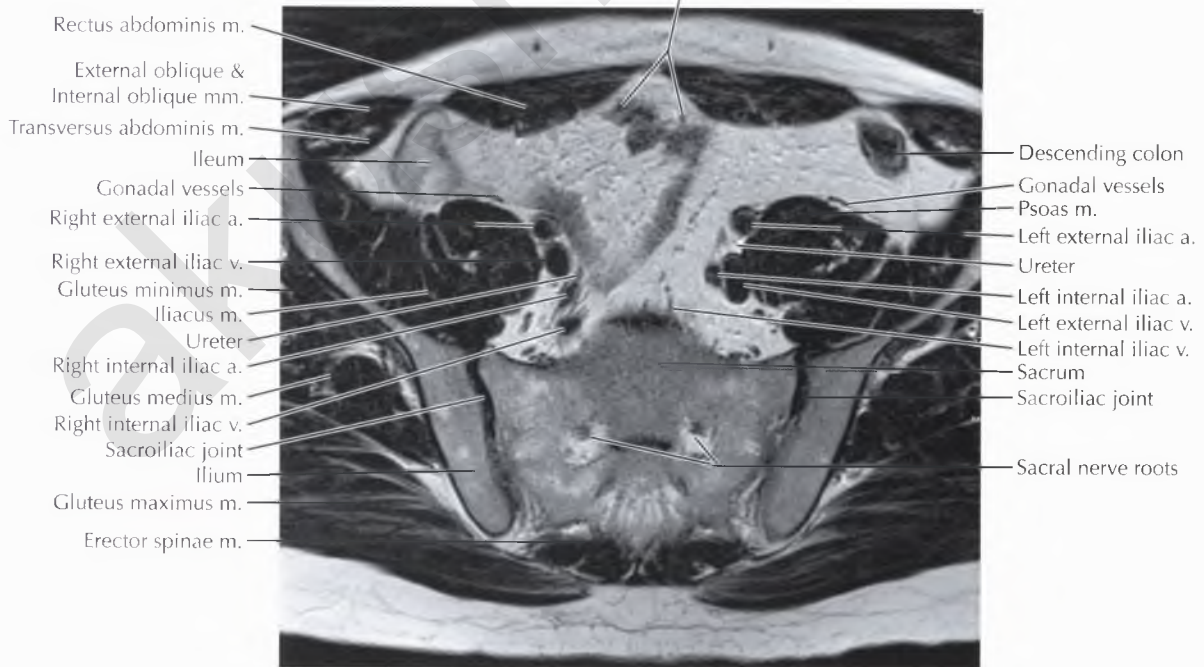


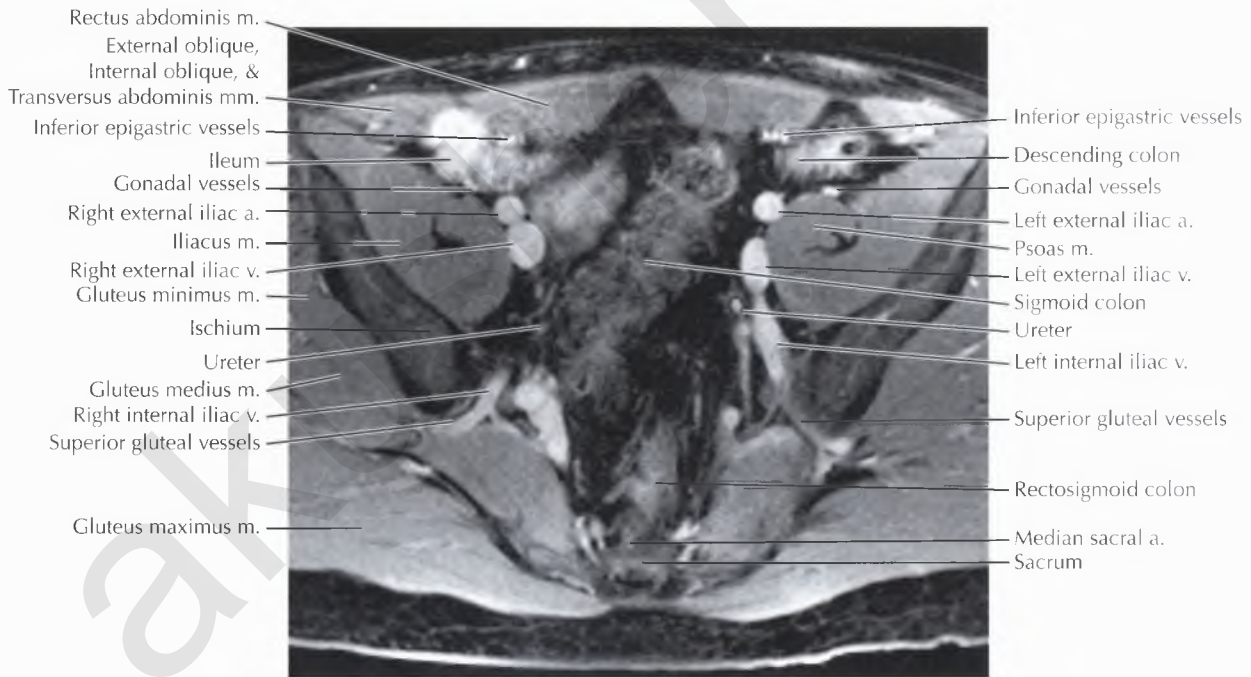
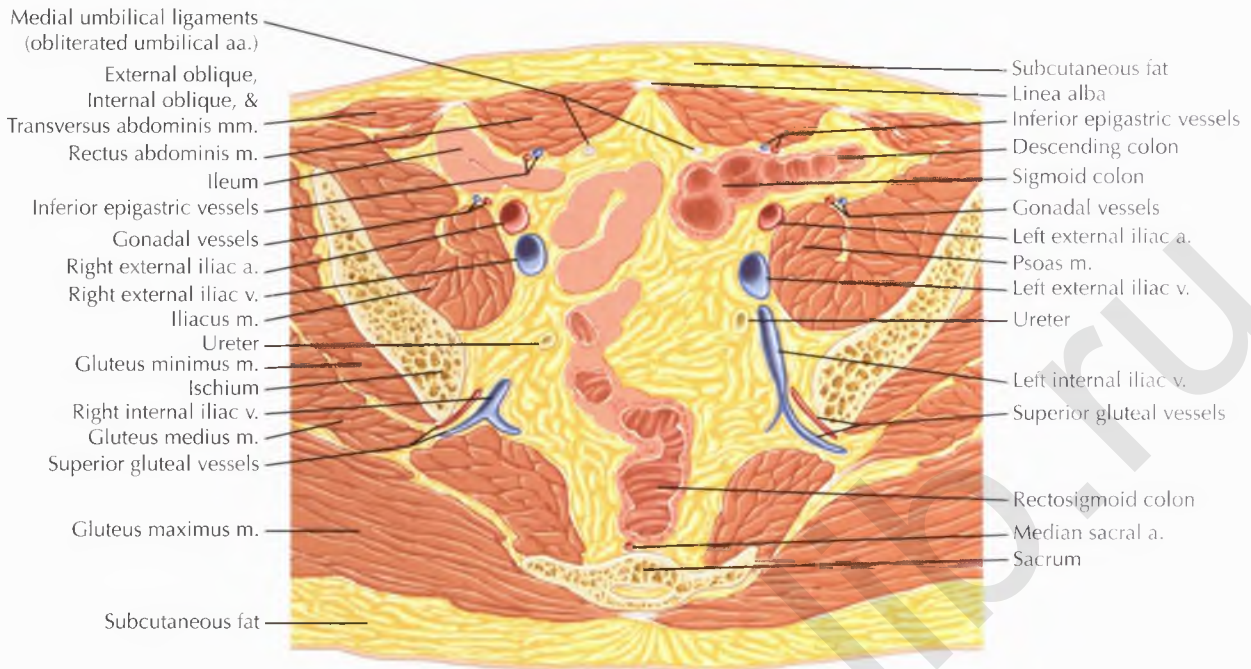
MALE PELVIS AXIAL 5





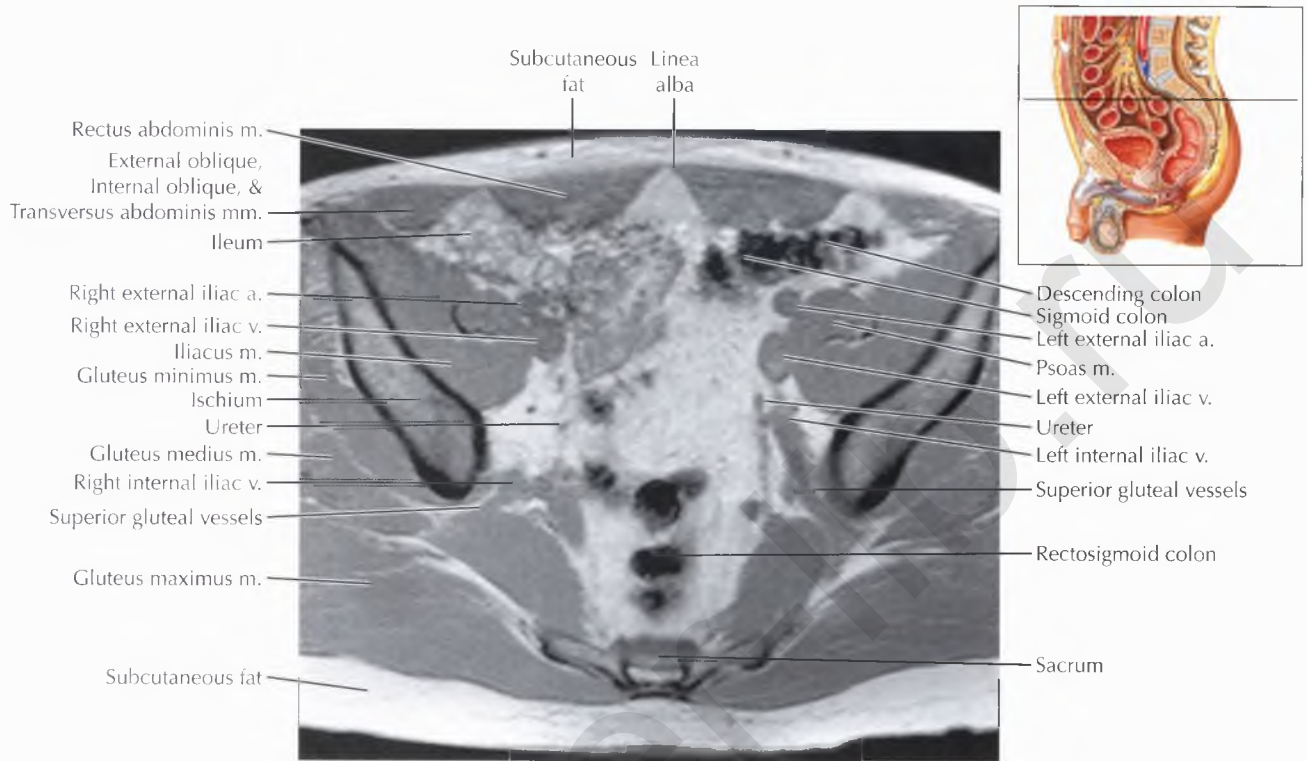
Medial umbilical ligaments (obliterated umbilical aa.)

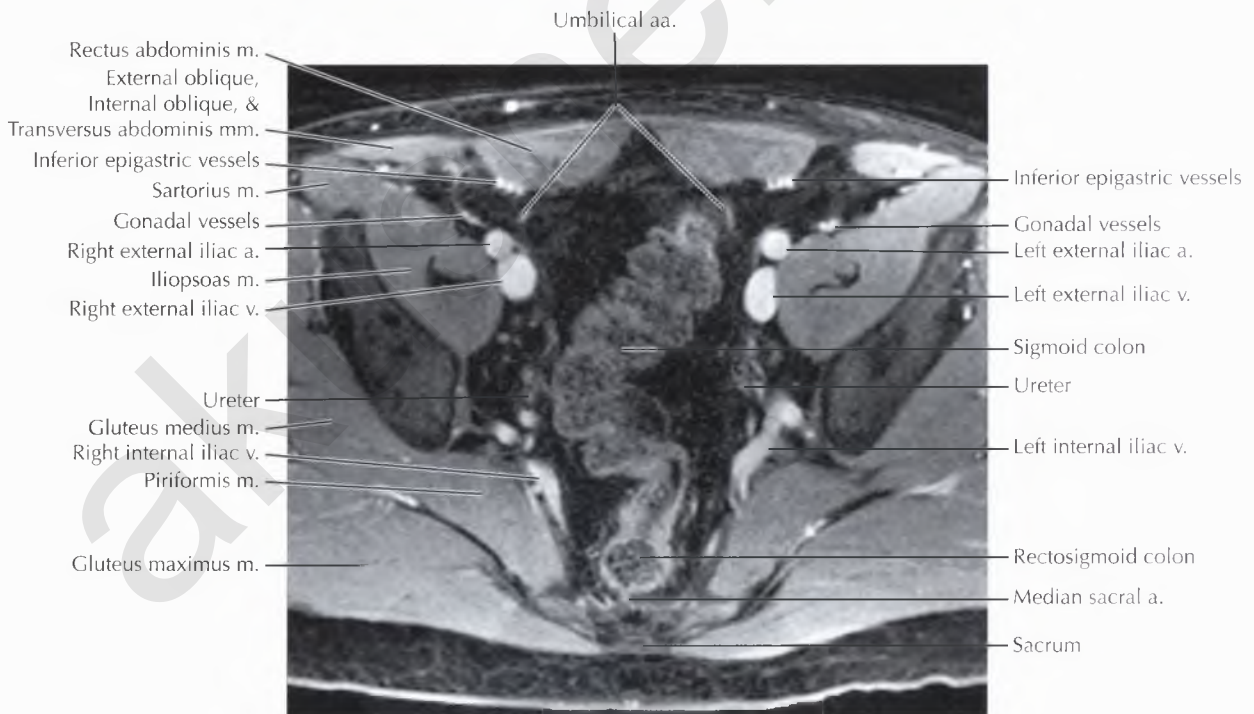
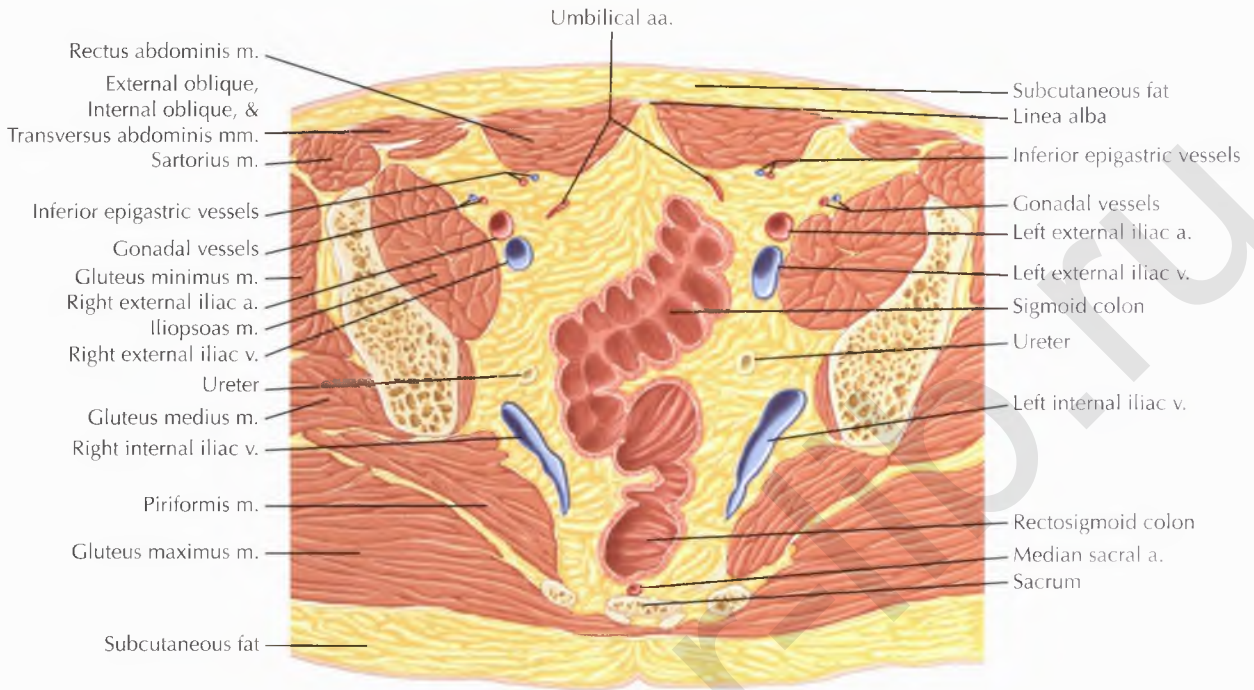


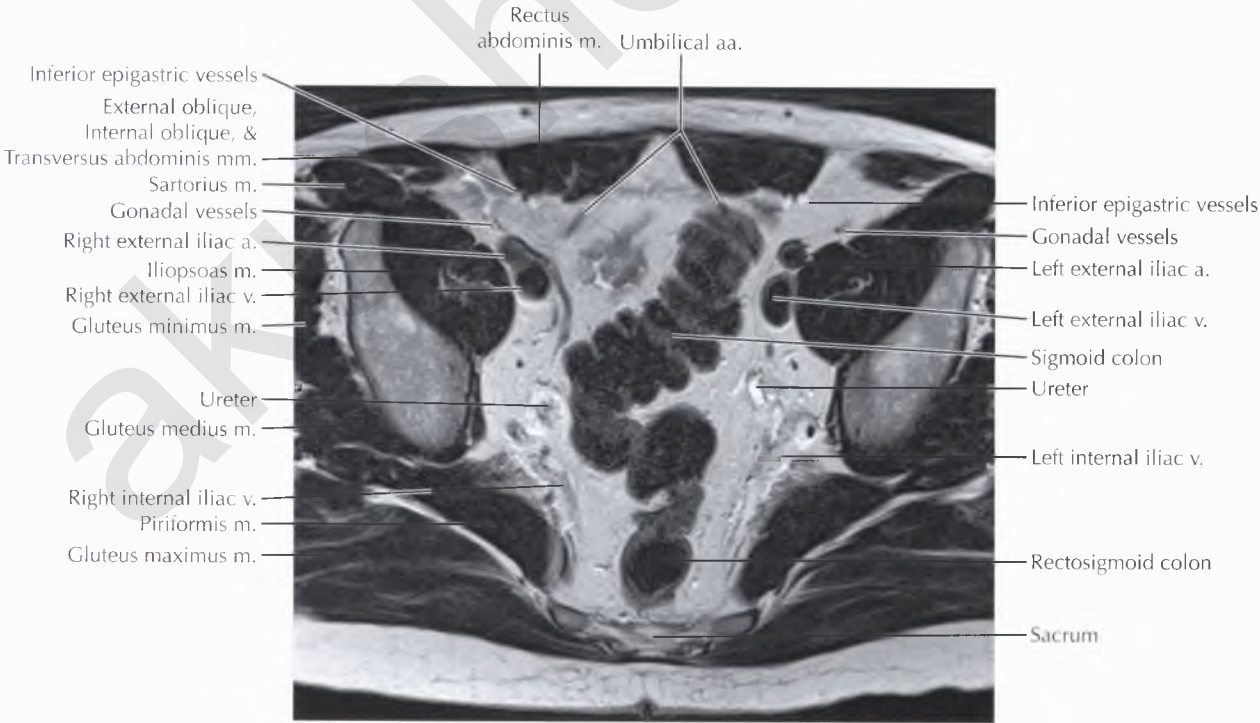
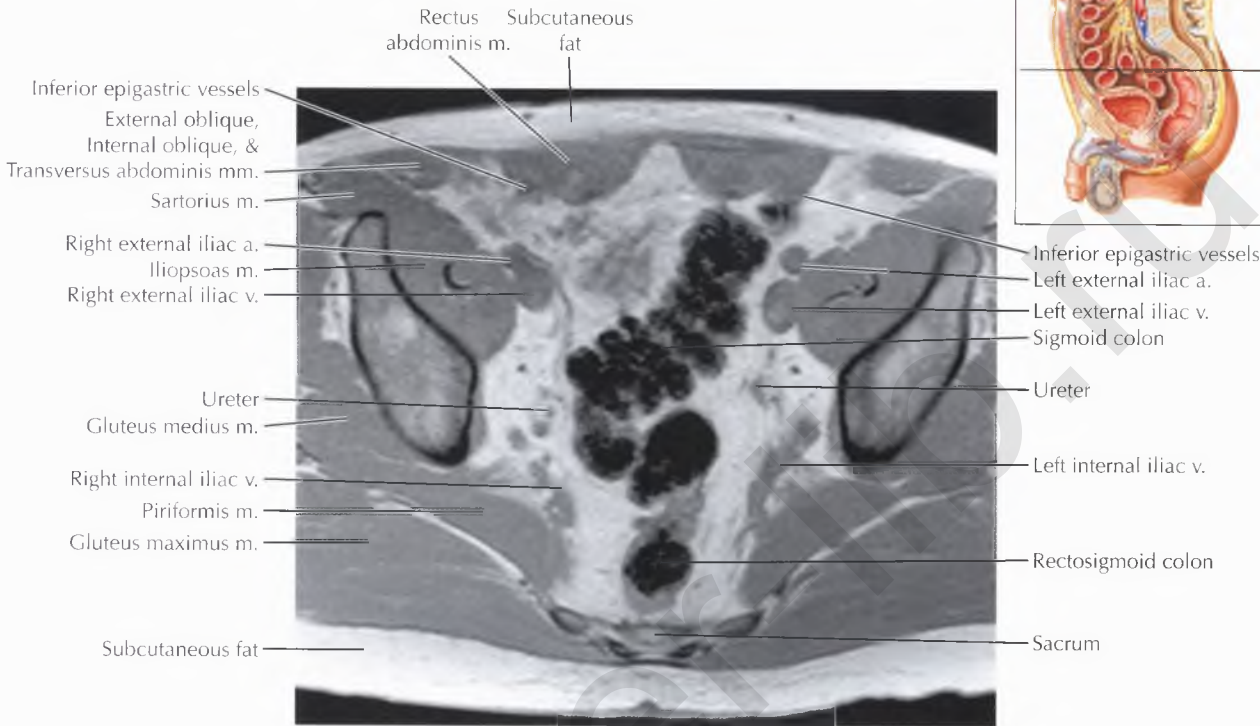


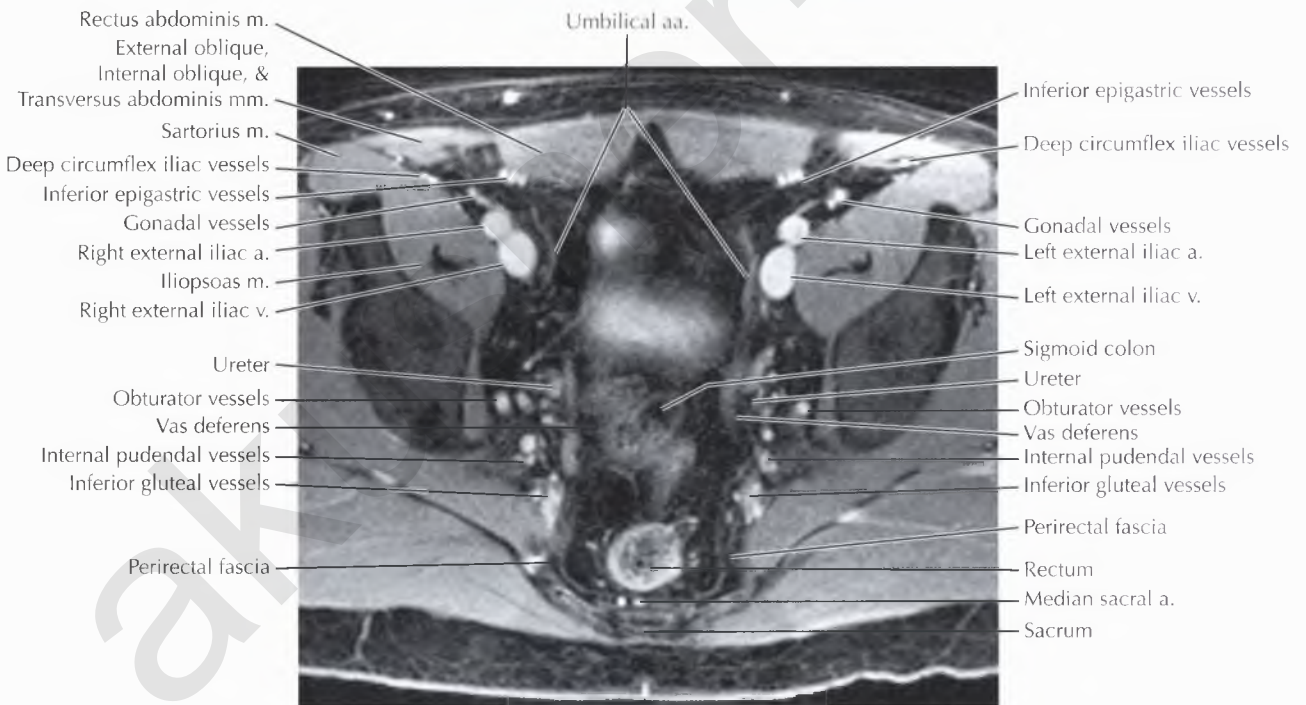
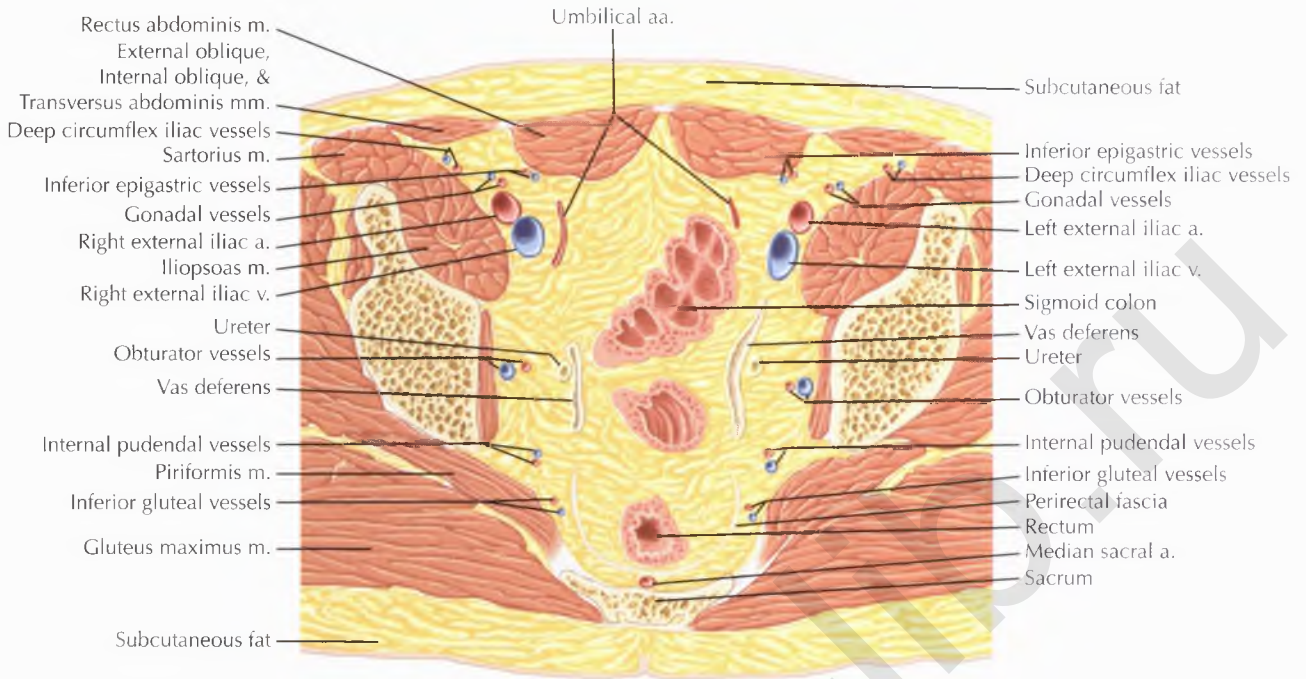
NORMAL ANATOMY

The superior gluteal artery is the largest branch of the internal iliac artery and appears as the continuation of the posterior division of the internal iliac artery. On this image, the *superior gluteal vessels* are seen traveling through the greater sciatic foramen just above the piriformis muscle. Other branches of the posterior division of the internal iliac artery include the ilio-lumbar and lateral sacral arteries.



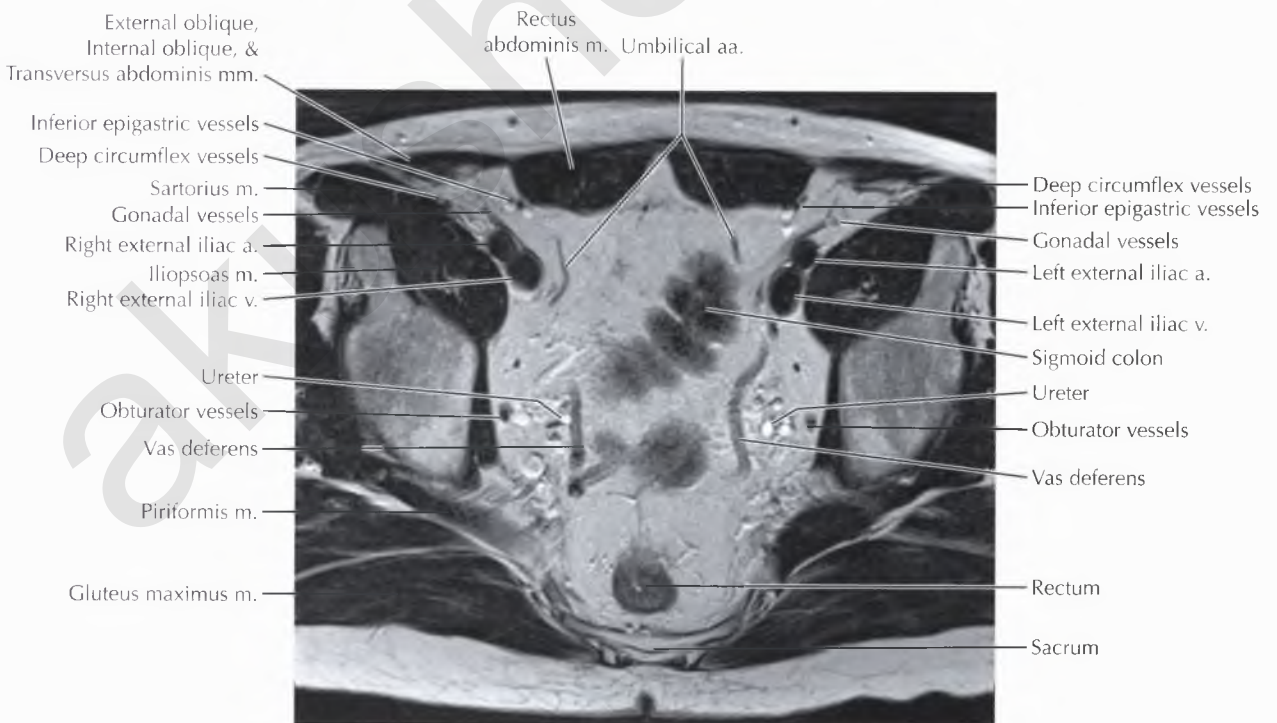


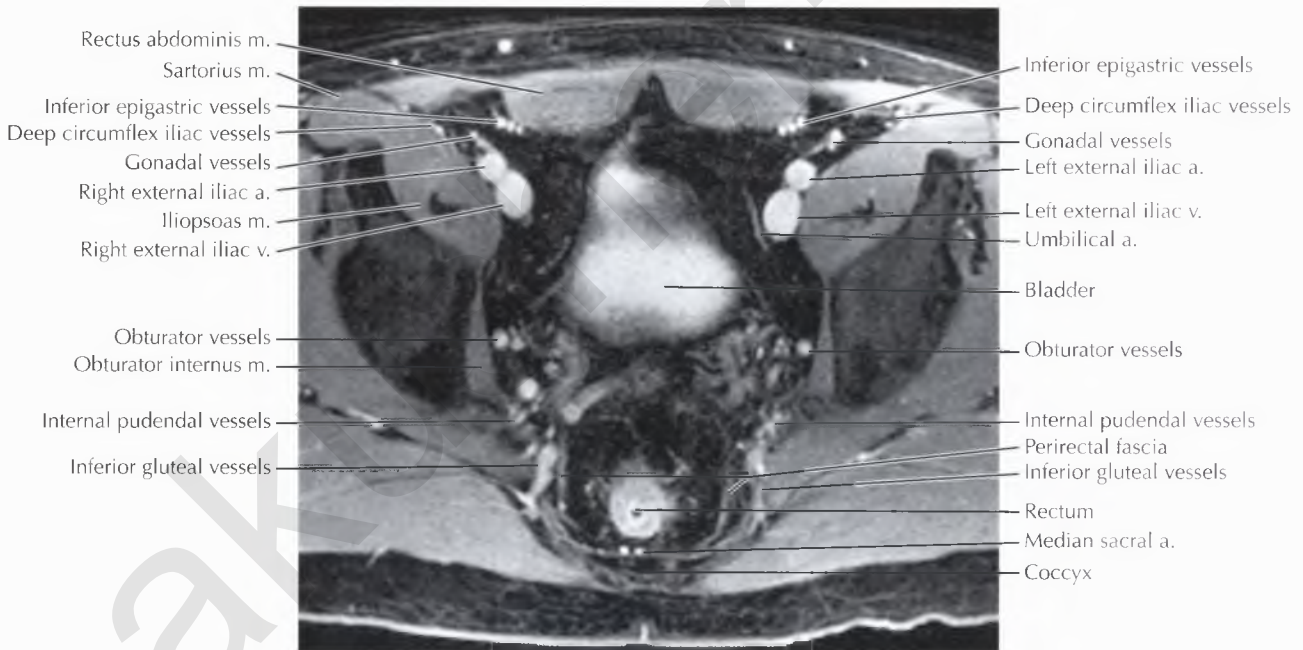
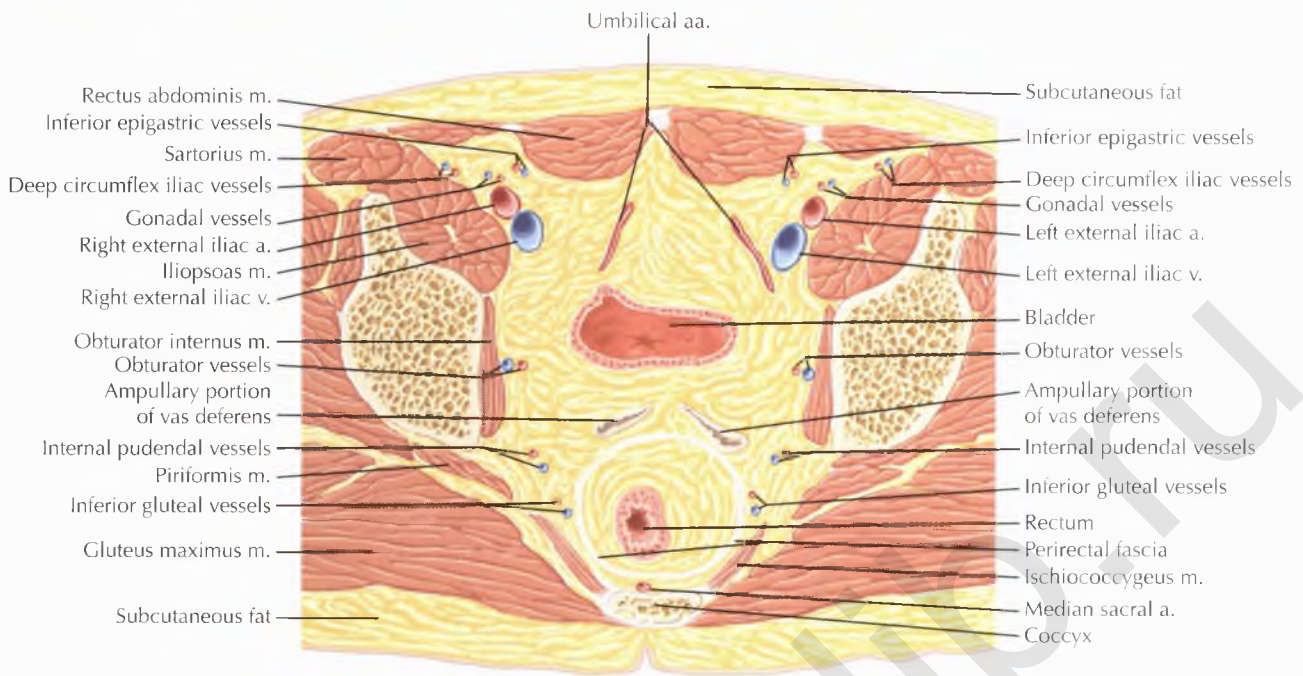




NORMAL ANATOMY

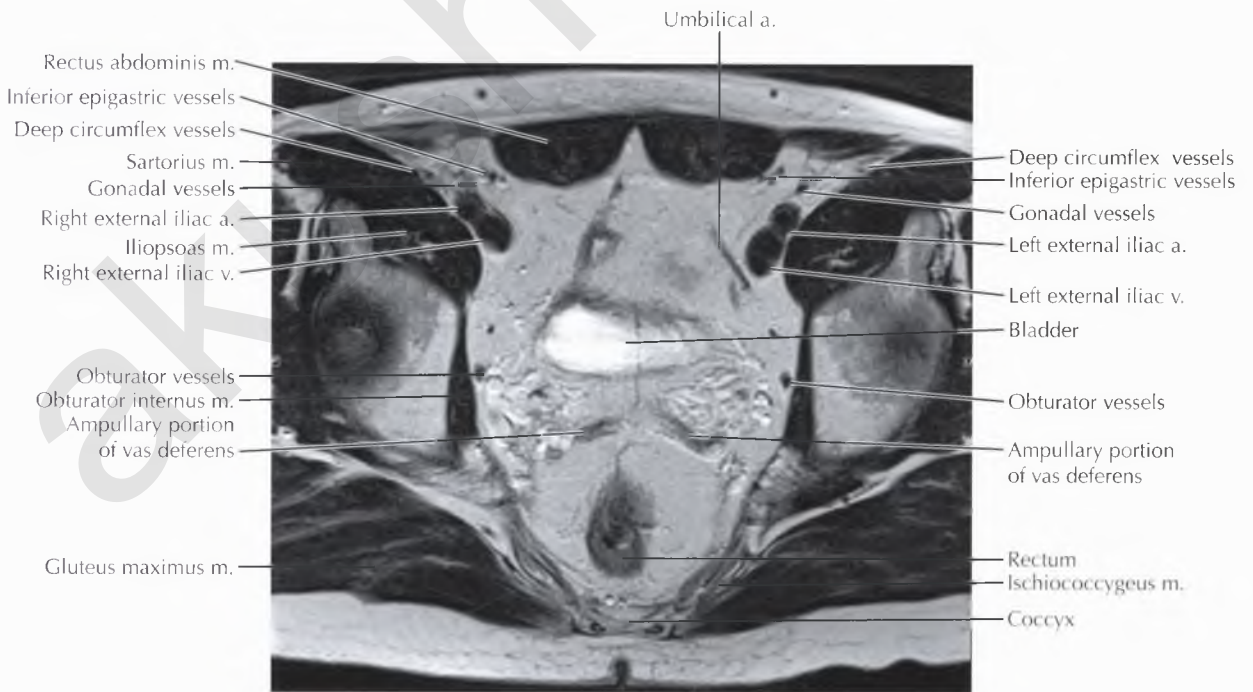
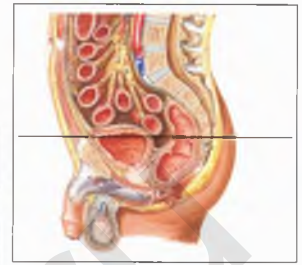
The paired vasa deferentia are continuations of the *epididymal tails* (cauda epididymidis), which ascend from the scrotum into the pelvis through the inguinal canals, course along the lateral pelvic walls, cross over (anterior and superior to) the ureters, and then curve along the superomedial surface of the seminal vesicles, where they dilate to form the ampullary portions of the vasa deferentia.

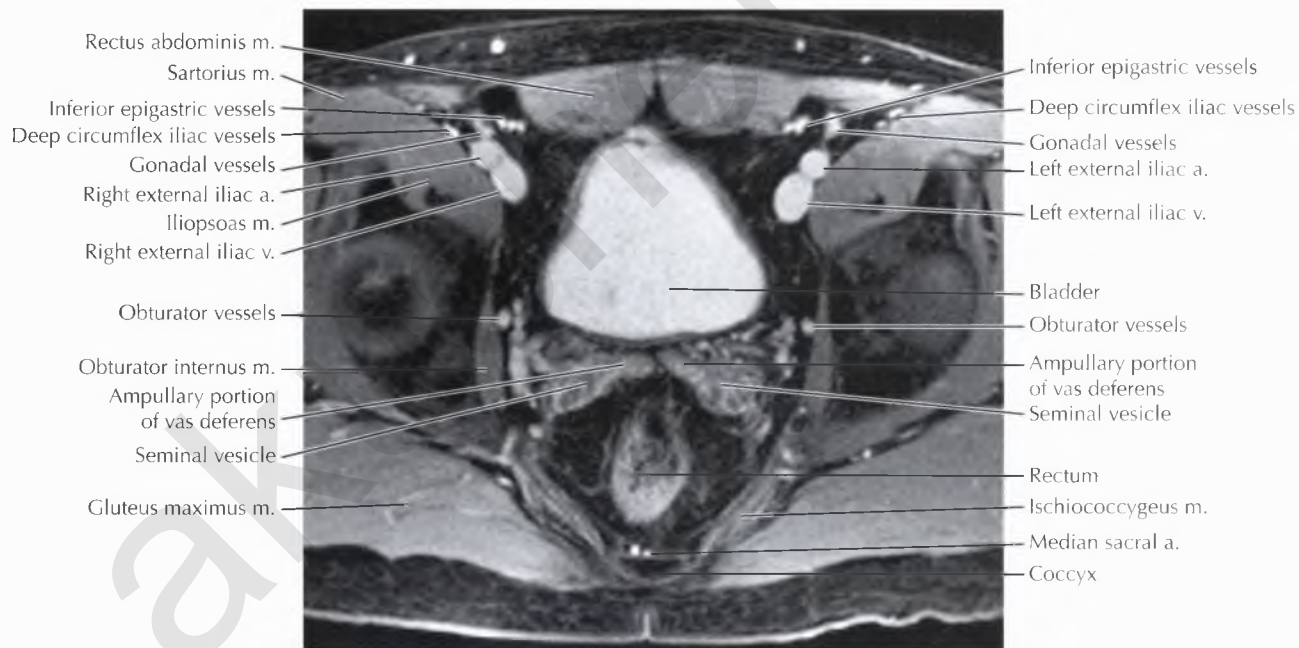
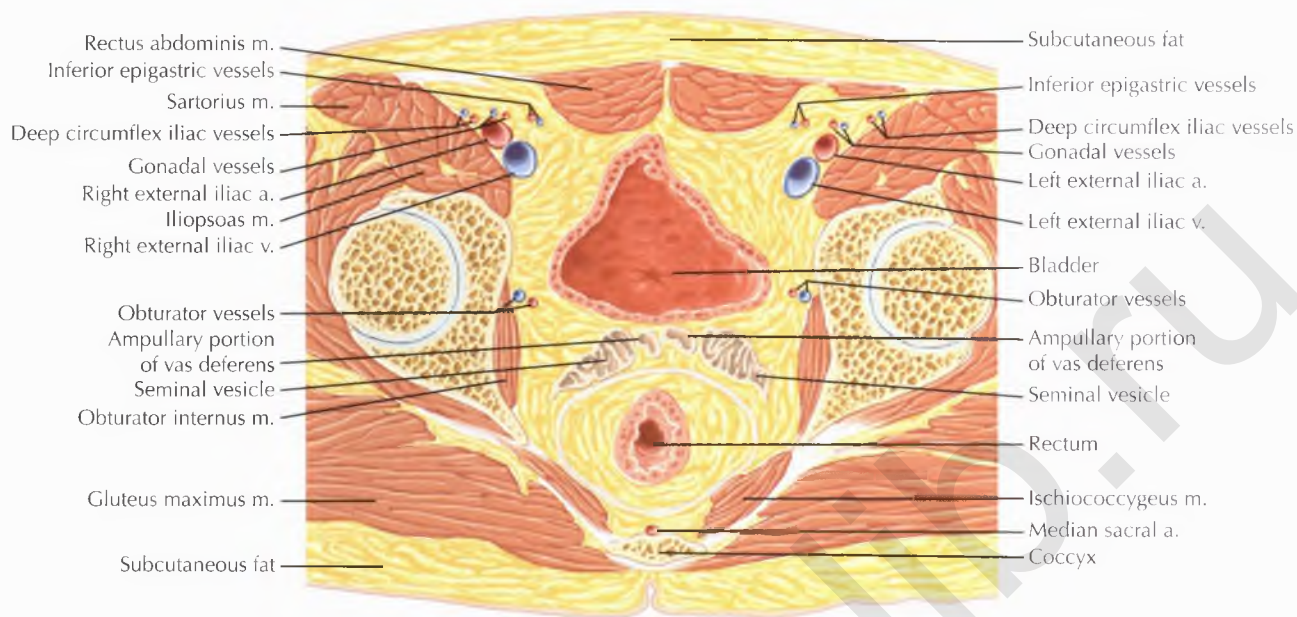




NORMAL ANATOMY

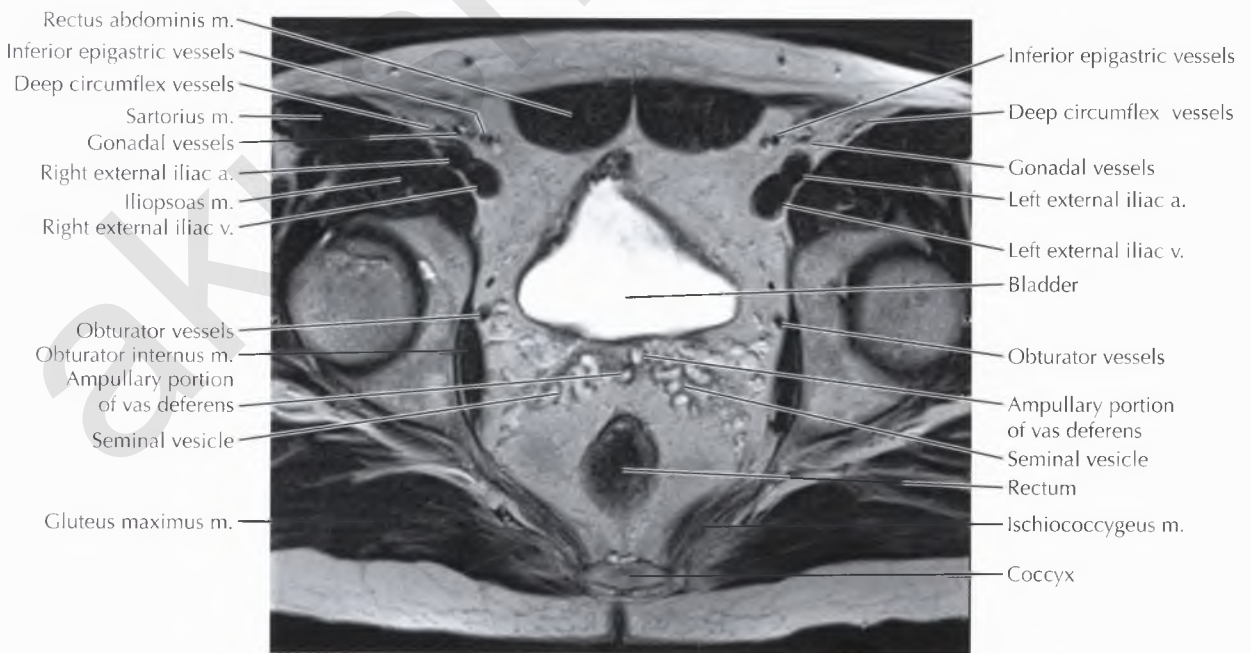
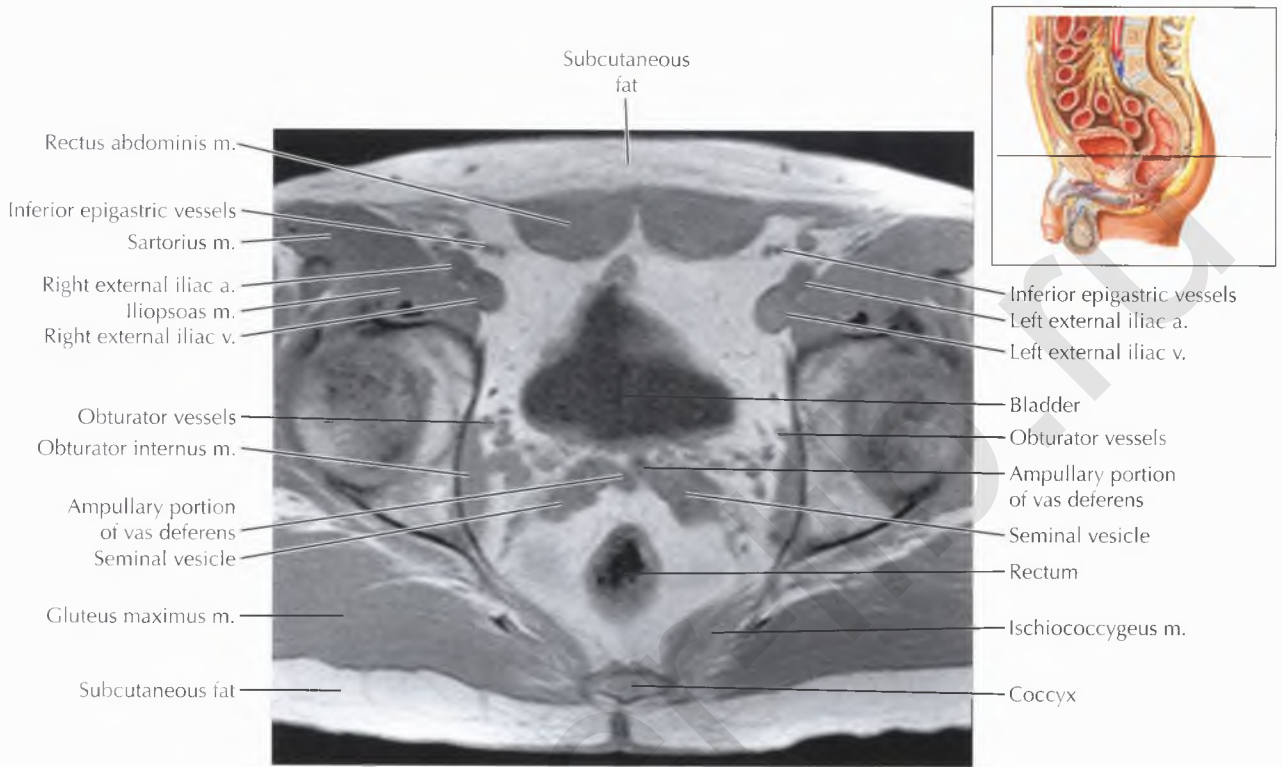
Several of the main branches of the anterior division of the internal iliac artery can be seen on this image, including the *umbilical artery*, which usually gives off the superior vesical artery; the *obturator artery*, which exits the pelvis through the obturator canal; and the *inferior gluteal* and *internal pudendal* arteries, which exit through the greater sciatic foramen, with the internal pudendal giving off the inferior rectal artery. Other branches from the anterior division of the internal iliac artery include the inferior vesical artery (whereas the middle vesical artery usually arises from the superior vesical artery), the middle rectal artery, the deferential artery in men (which more often arises from the superior vesical artery), and the uterine and vaginal arteries in women.

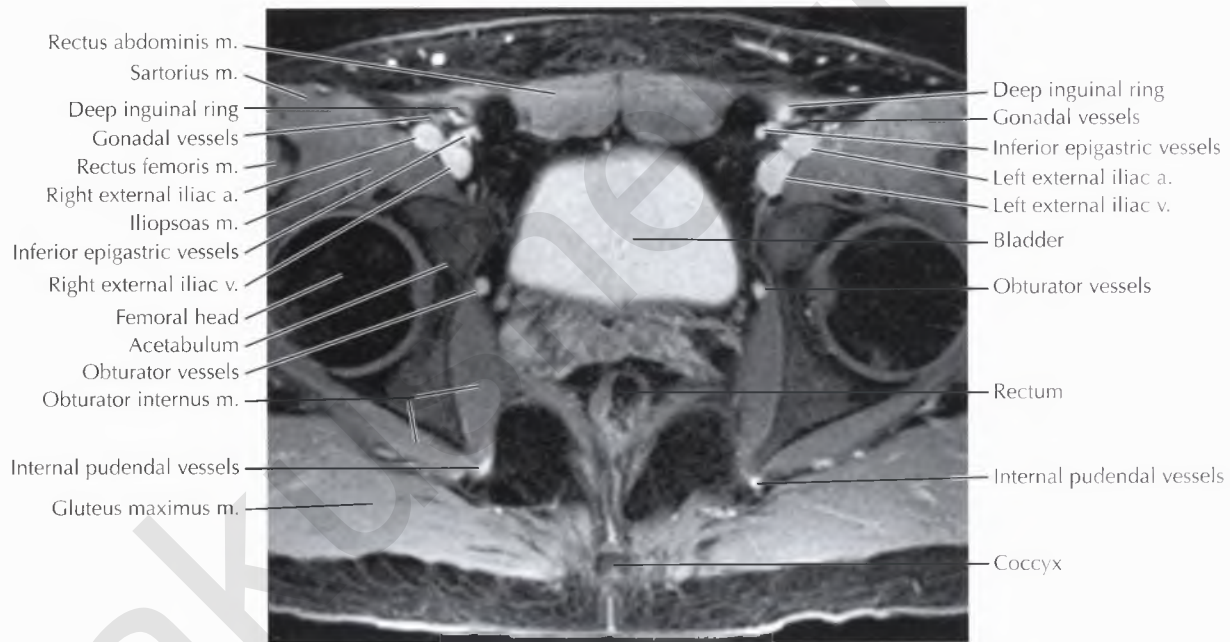
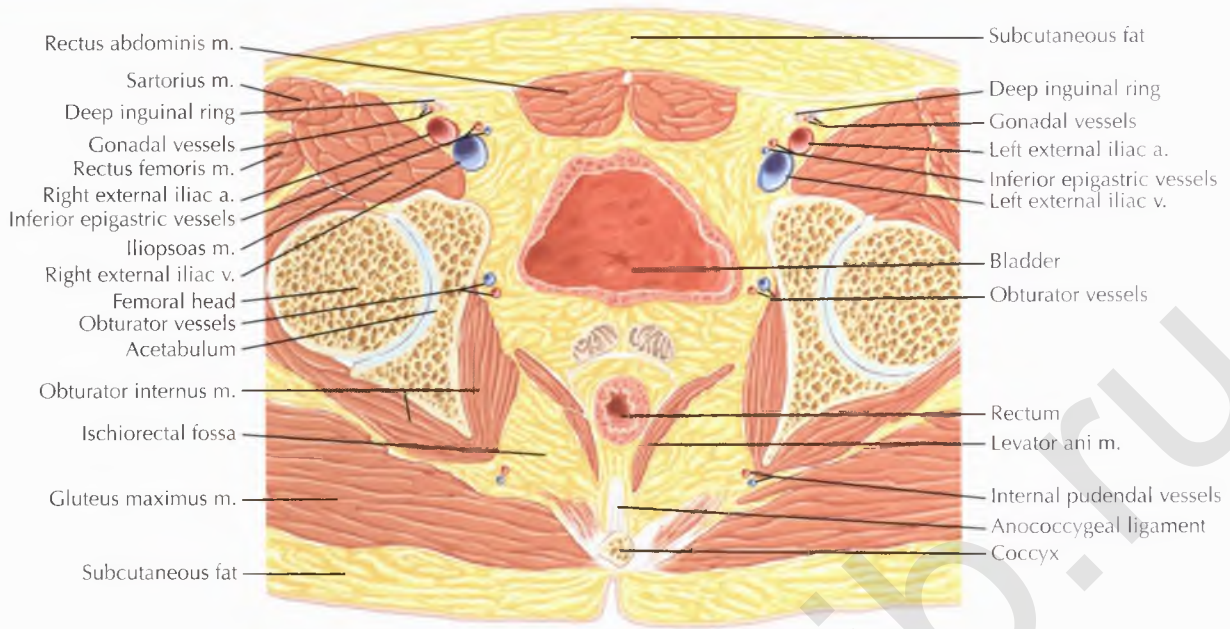




NORMAL ANATOMY

The origin of the inferior epigastric artery defines the transition from the external iliac artery to the common femoral artery. On this image, the inferior epigastric artery can be seen extending medially from the external iliac artery, whereas the deep circumflex iliac artery is seen extending laterally.



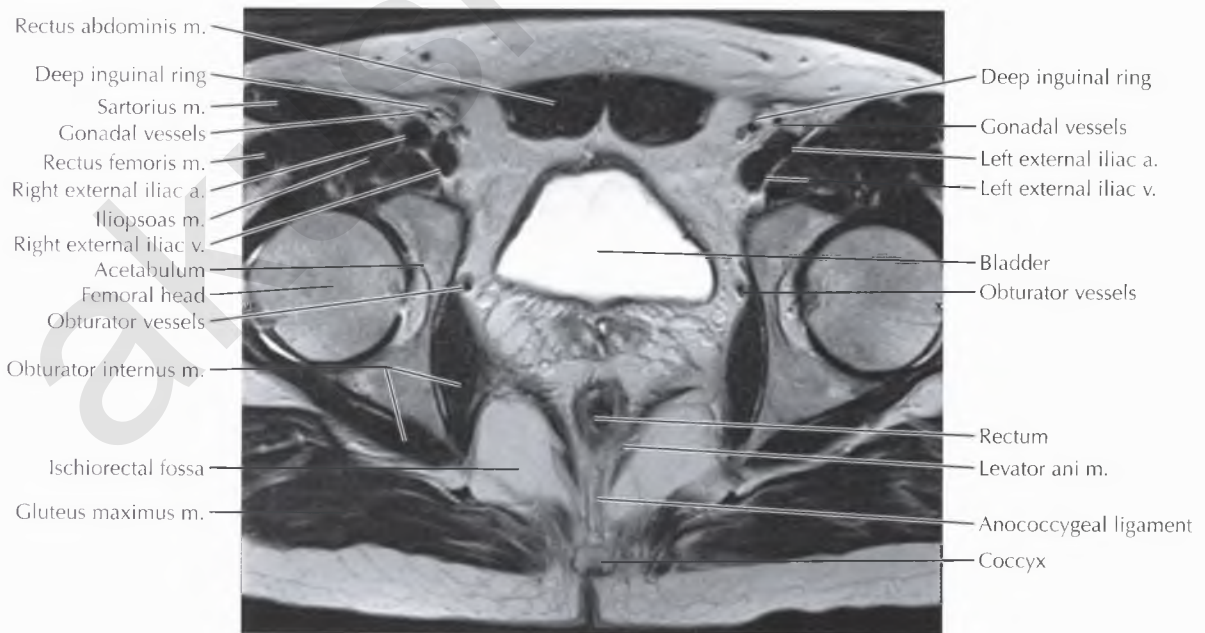
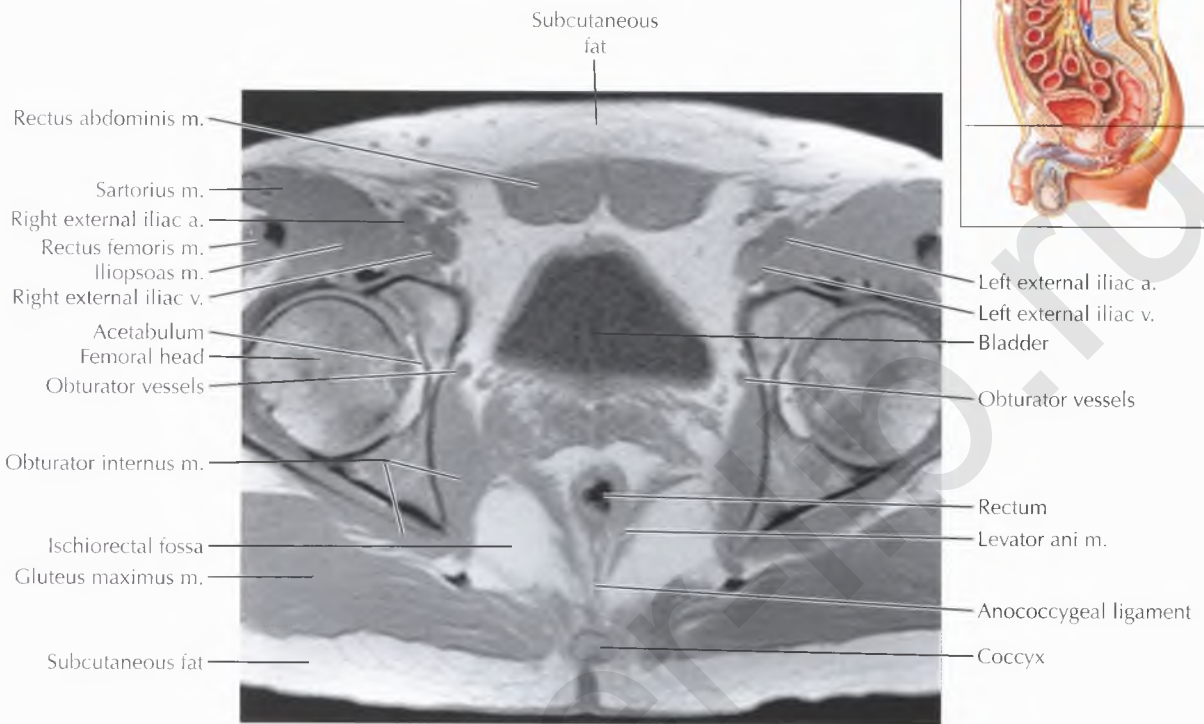


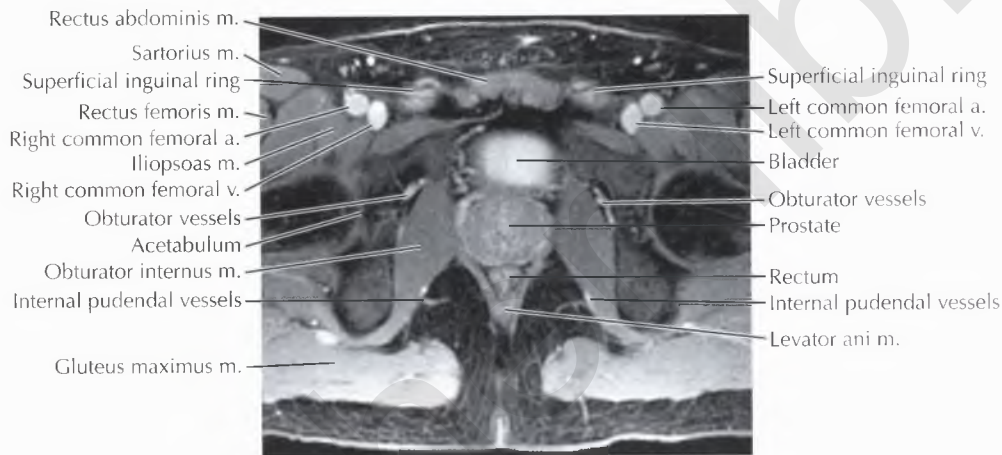
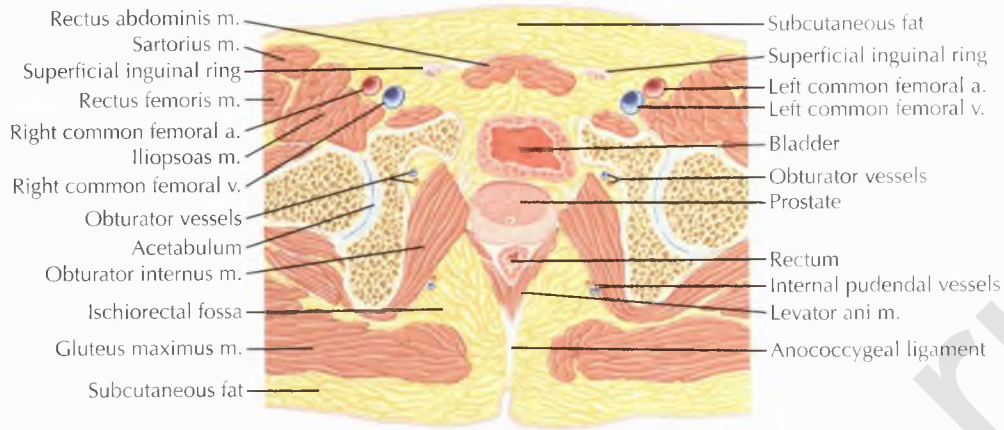
NORMAL ANATOMY

The spermatic cord begins at the deep (internal) inguinal ring (seen on this image) and exits through the superficial (external) inguinal ring into the scrotum (seen on Pelvis Axial 12). The main contents of the spermatic cord include the vas deferens, testicular artery, and pampiniform plexus of veins.

DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

Note the bilateral ureteral jets, seen as low-signal-intensity linear streams crisscrossing each other in the partially distended urinary bladder on the T2-weighted MR image, indicating bilateral ureteral patency.



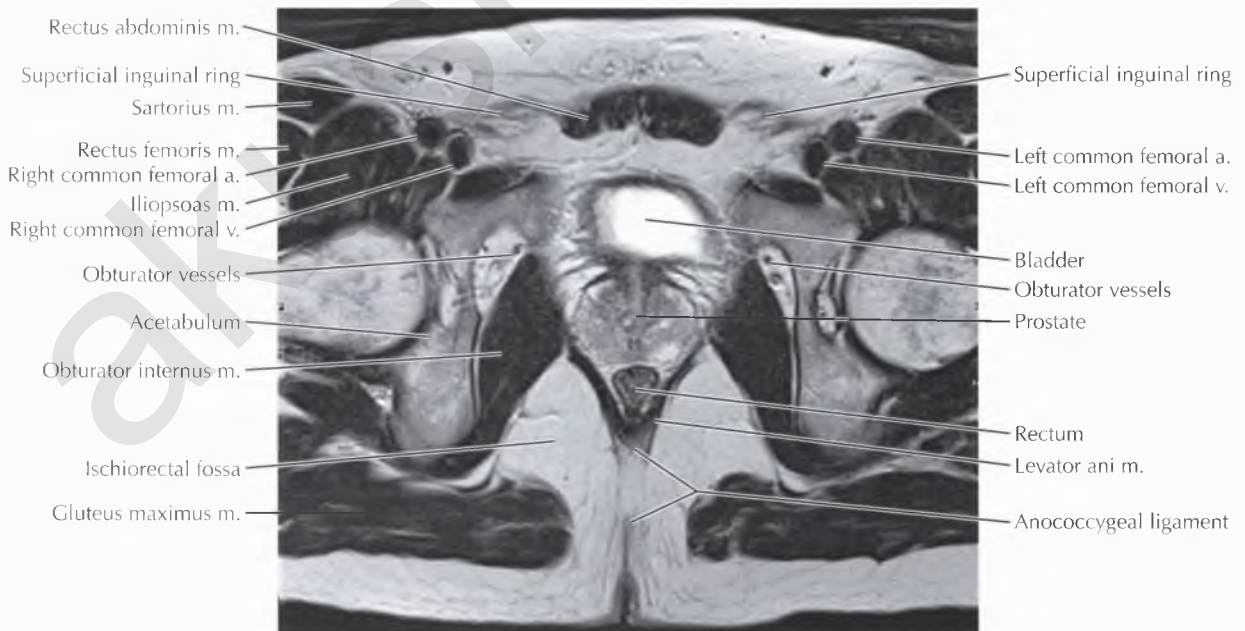
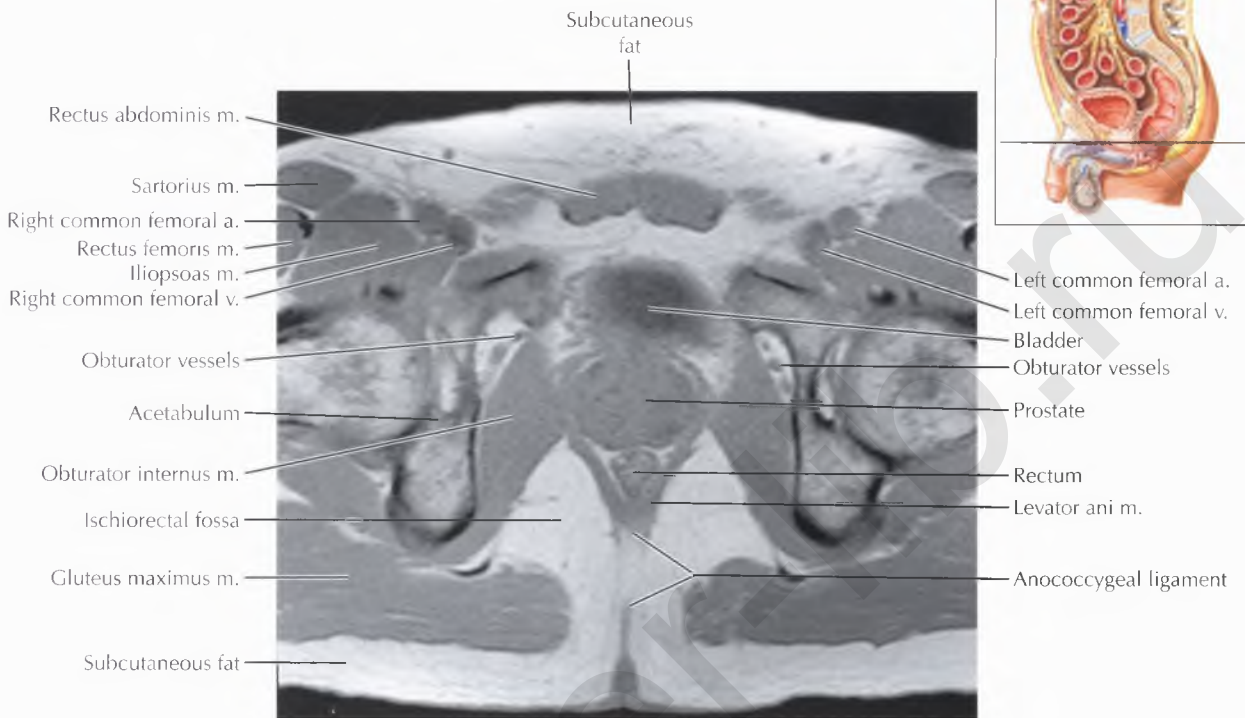


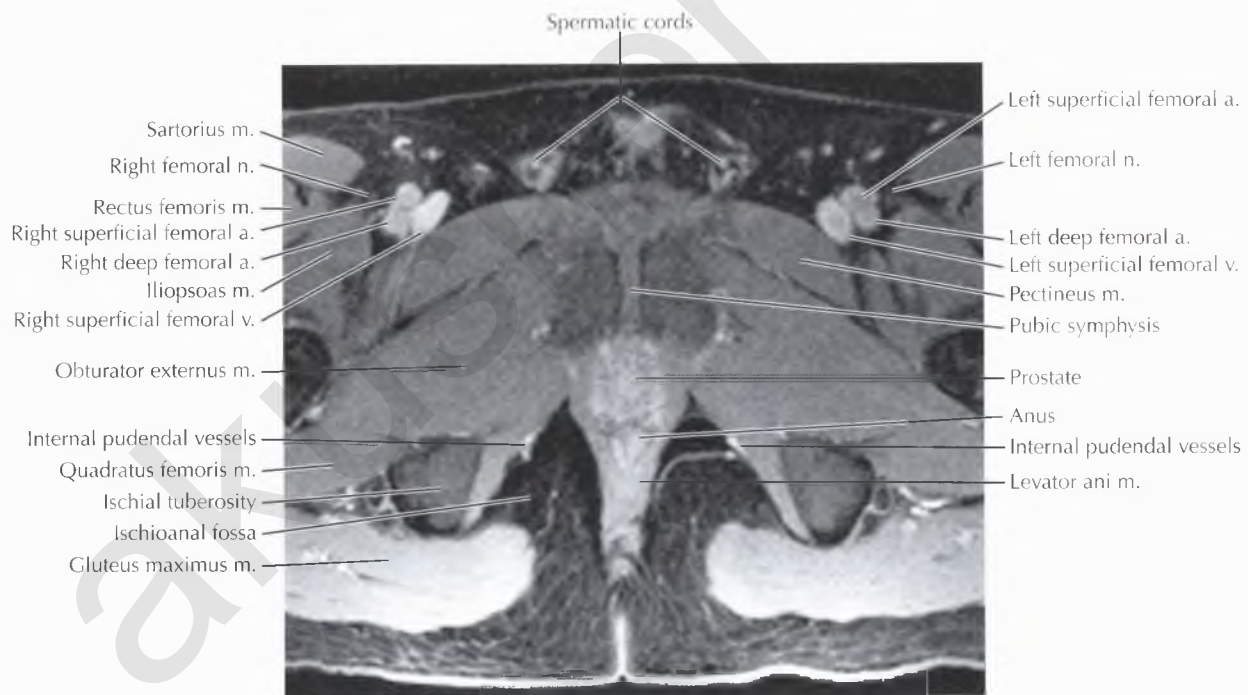
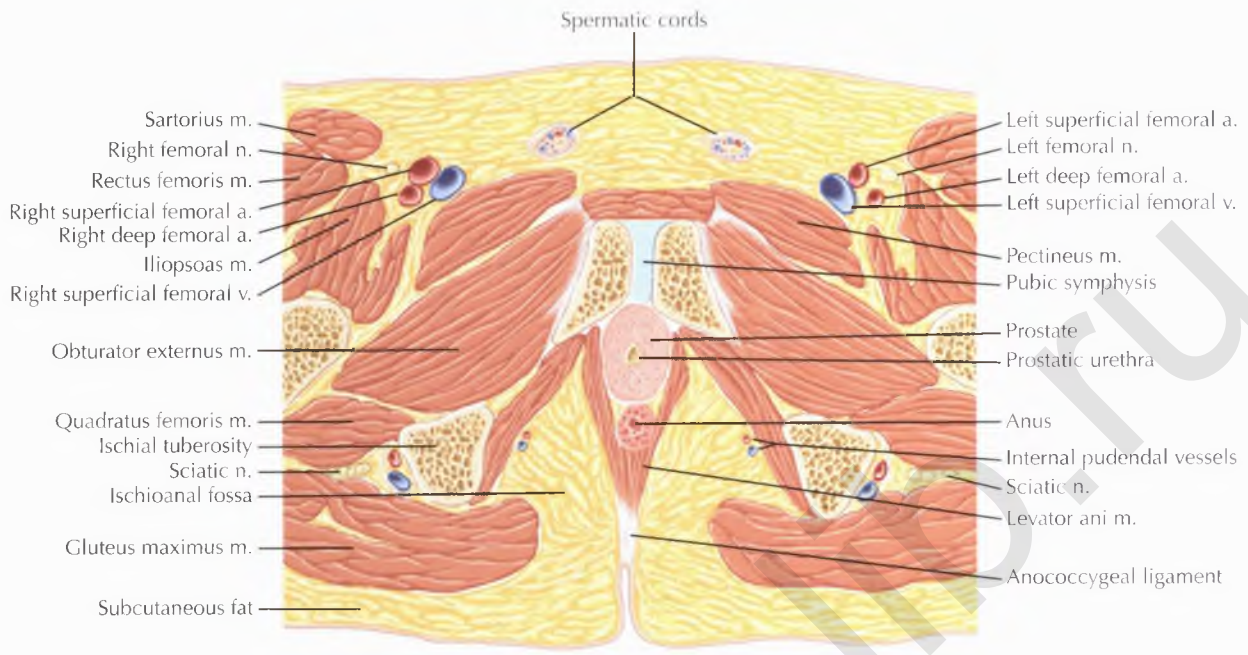
PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

Inguinal hernias are common, especially in men, and consist of two types: direct and indirect. Five times more common than direct hernias, *indirect inguinal hernias* occur when abdominal contents protrude through the deep inguinal ring, into the inguinal canal, and out through the superficial inguinal ring into the scrotum or labia majora. In contrast, *direct inguinal hernias* do not travel through the deep inguinal ring, but instead protrude into the inguinal canal directly through an area of weakness in the abdominal wall at *Hesselbach's triangle*, bordered by the rectus abdominis muscle medially, the inferior epigastric vessels superolaterally, and the inguinal ligament inferiorly. On cross-sectional imaging in the axial plane, direct inguinal hernias are seen medial to the inferior epigastric vessels, whereas indirect inguinal hernias are seen lateral to the inferior epigastric vessels.

DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

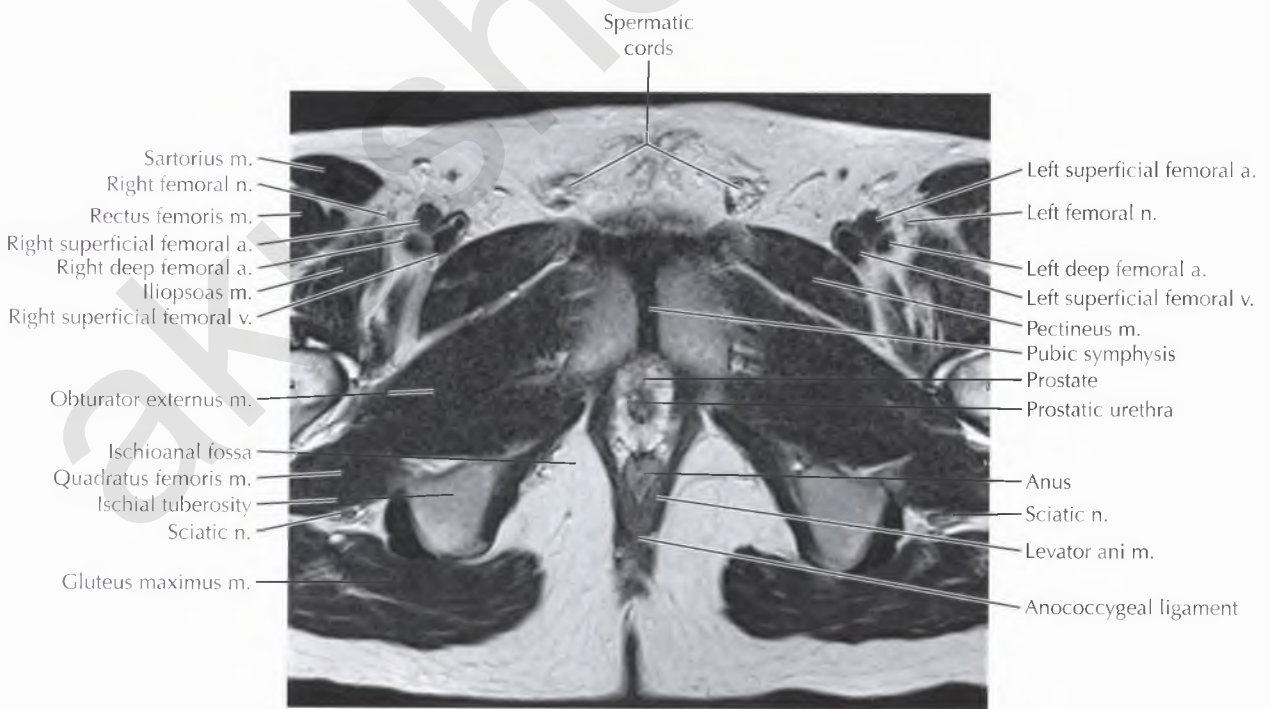
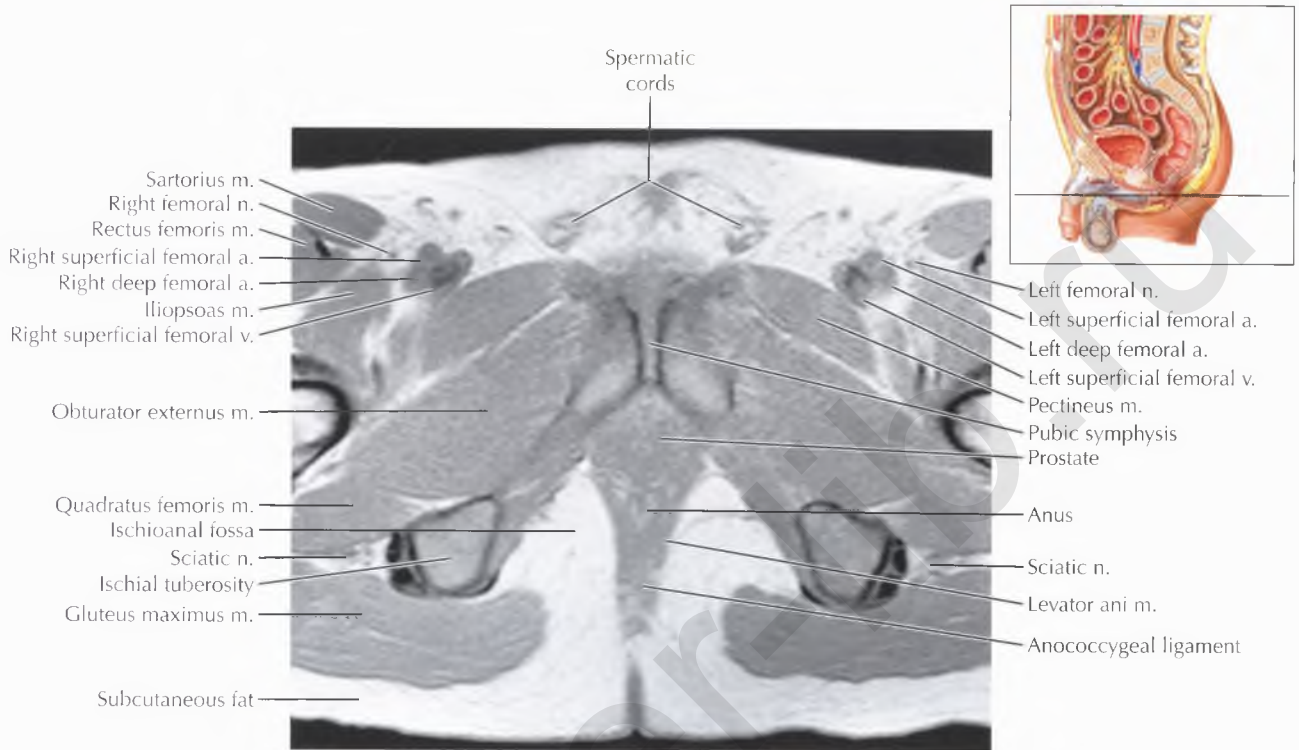
The ischiorectal fossa is a common location for anorectal fistulae and sinus tracts in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Pelvic magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is becoming increasingly popular as a preoperative diagnostic study in patients with suspected perianal fistulae. MRI can clearly define the relationship of a fistula to the ischioanal and ischioanal fossae, as well as to the levator ani musculature, which may have important surgical and prognostic implications. Involvement of the ischioanal or ischiorectal fossa may require more complex surgery, including possible colostomy, to allow time for healing.

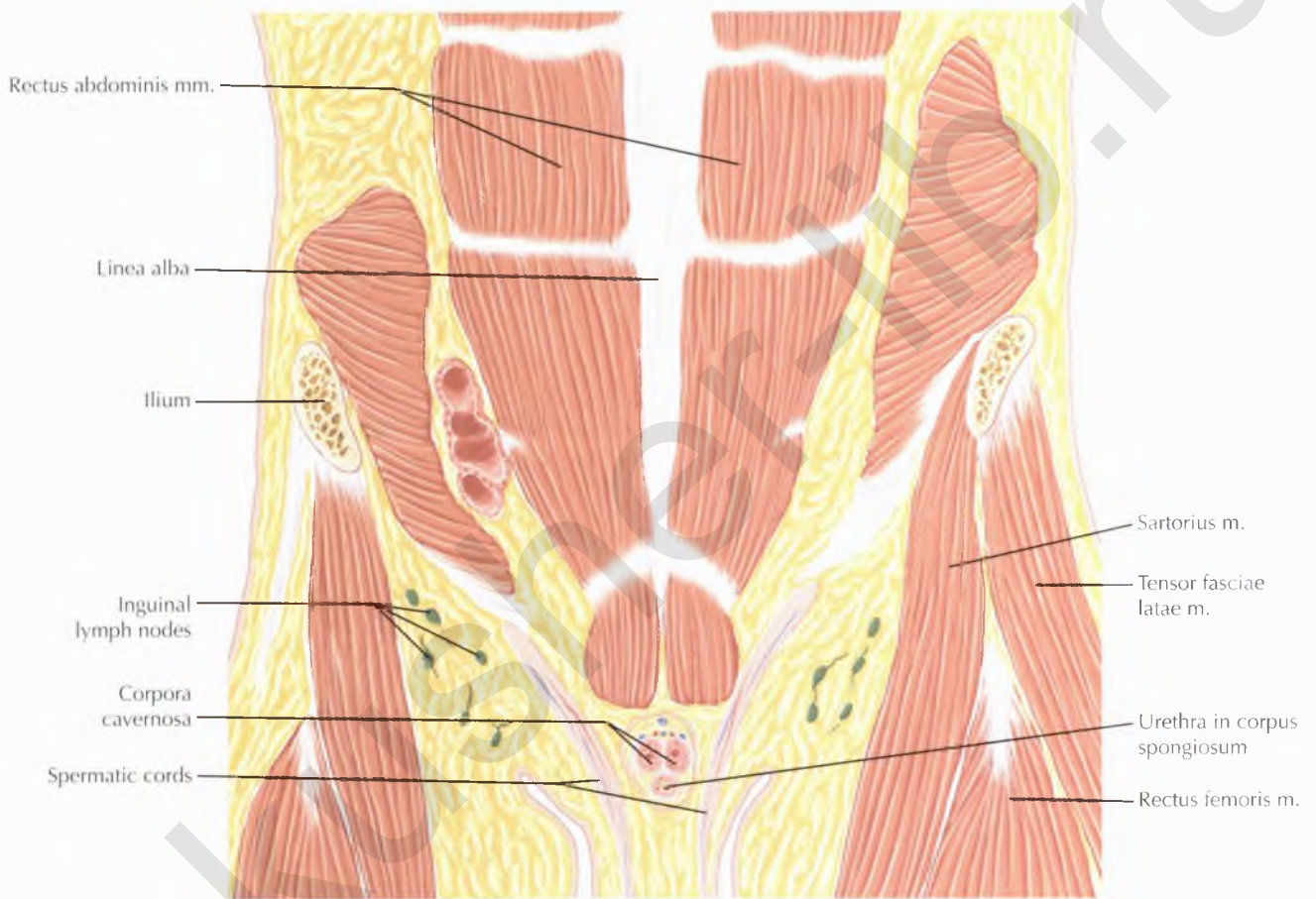


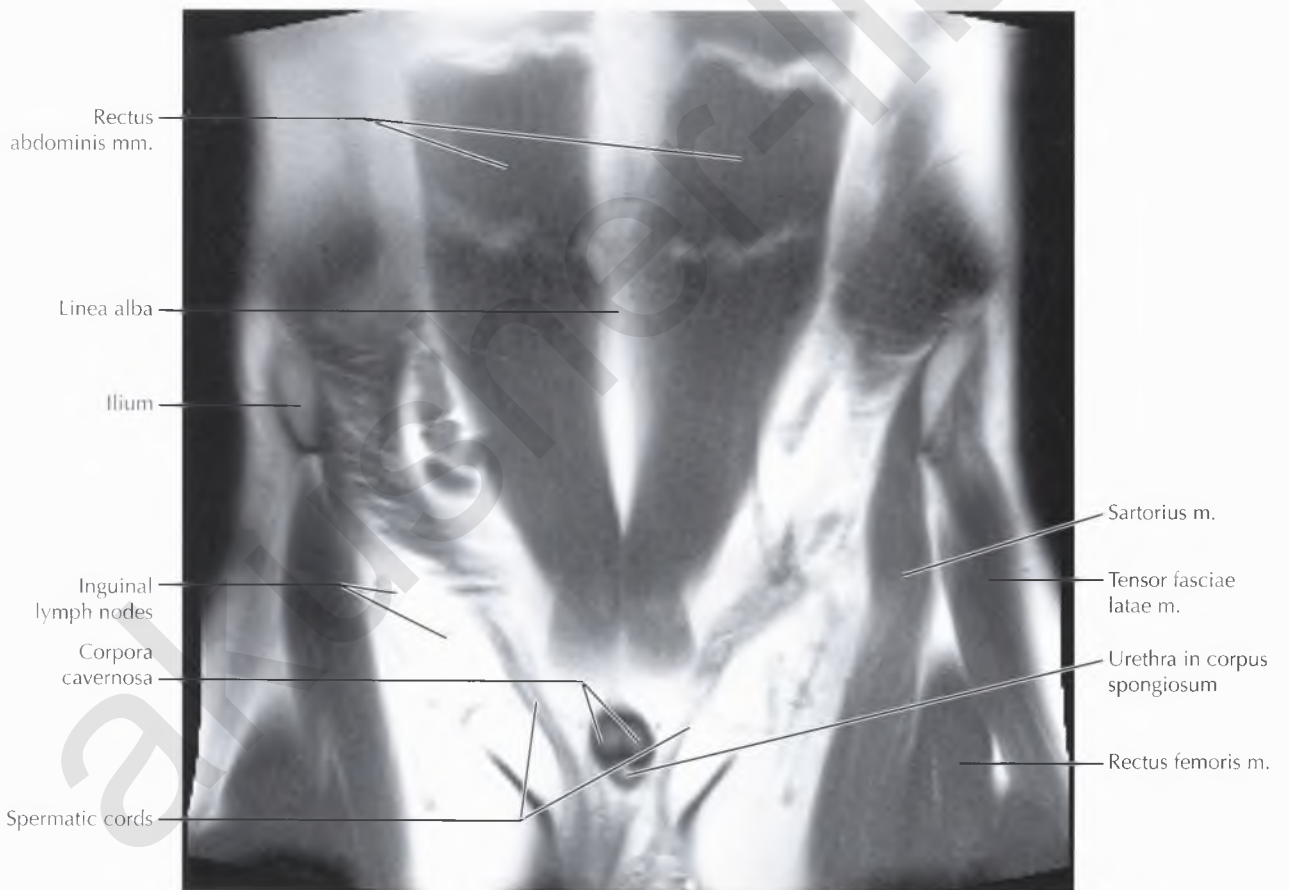


NORMAL ANATOMY

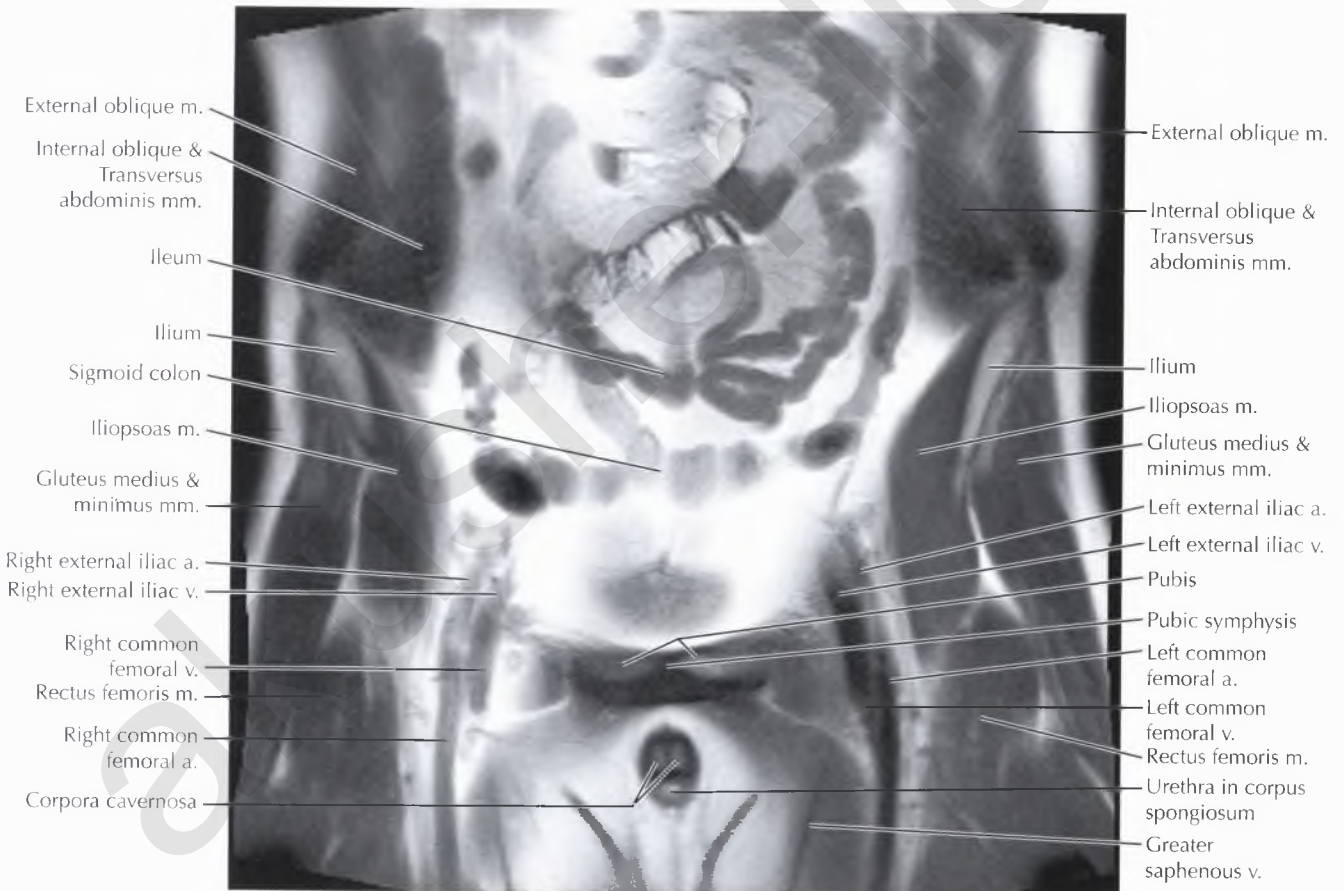
The *levator ani* musculature and fascia form the pelvic diaphragm, providing the primary support for the pelvic organs, which is critical for maintaining continence. The levator ani musculature is composed of the iliococcygeus, pubococcygeus, and puborectalis muscles. Note that the ischiococcygeus muscle is not considered as part of the levator ani musculature.



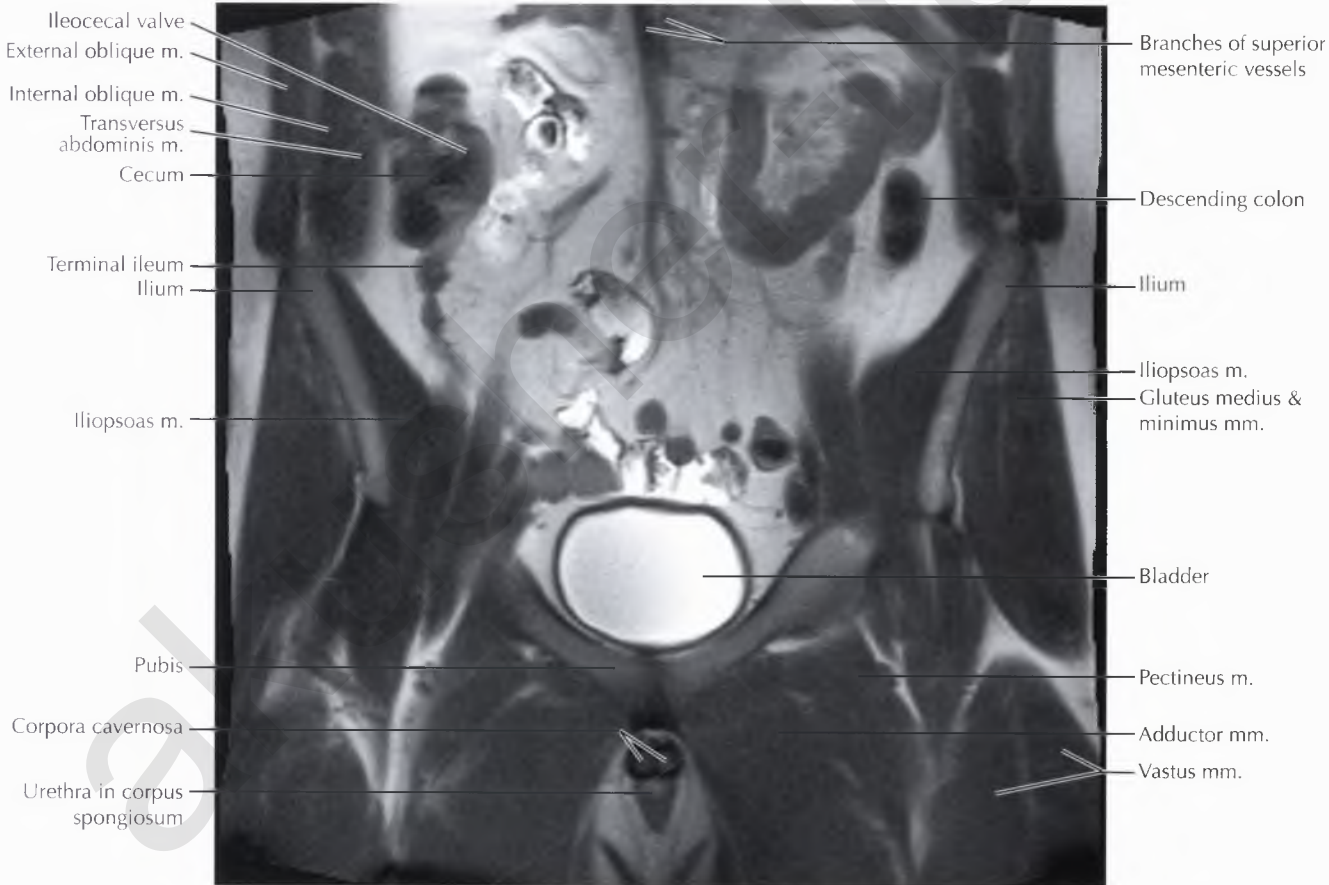




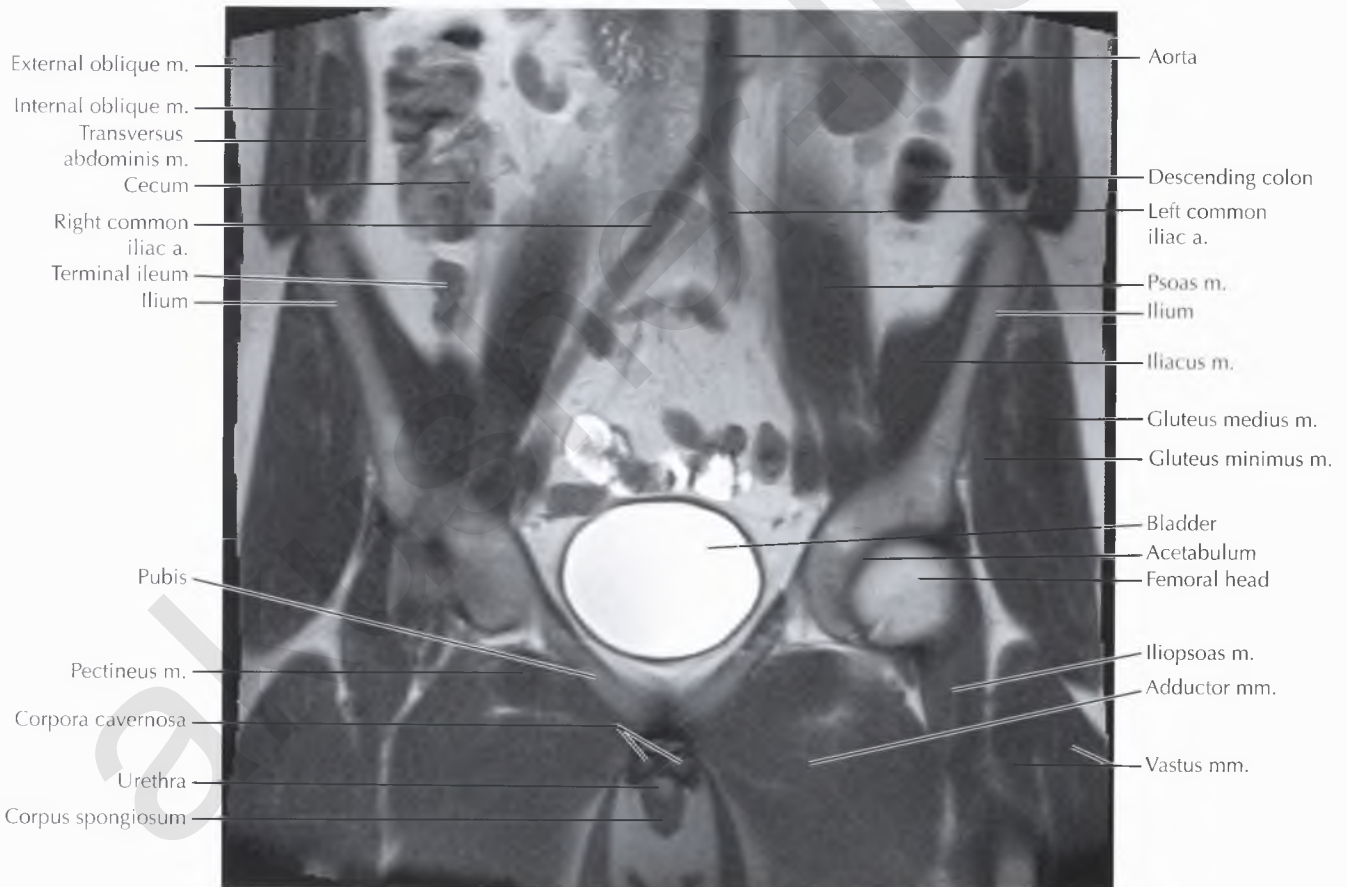




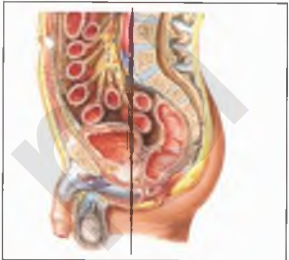


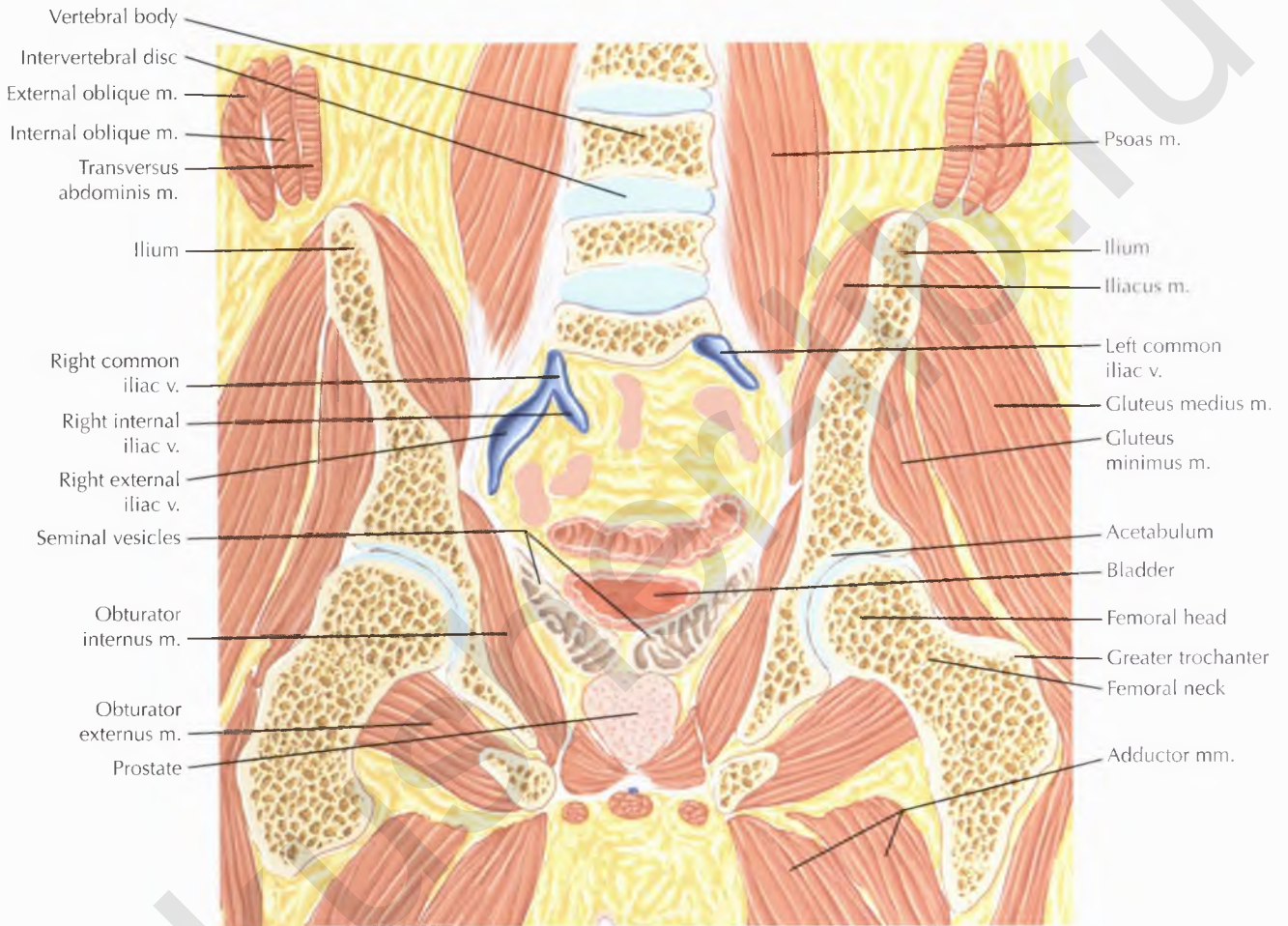








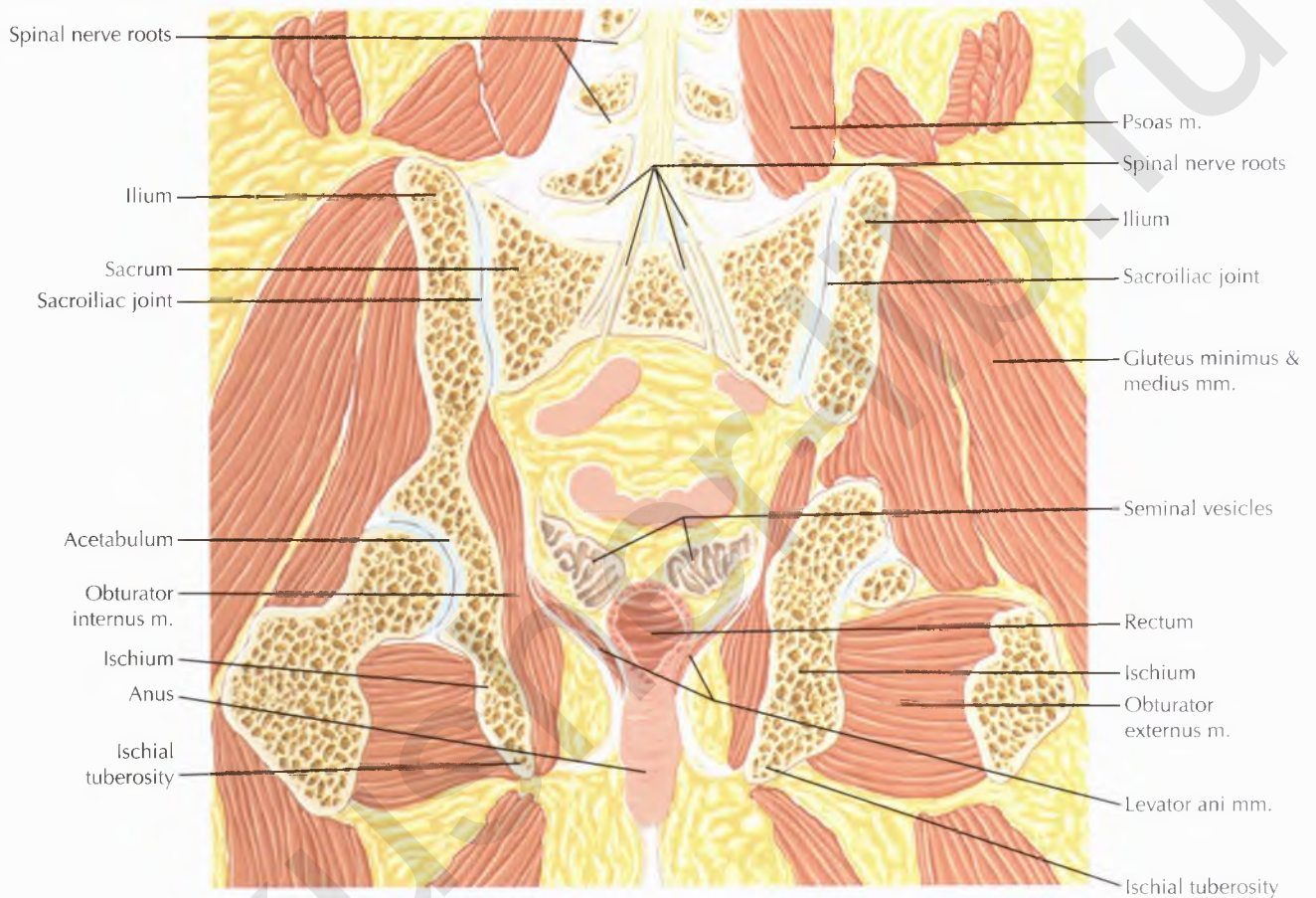




NORMAL ANATOMY

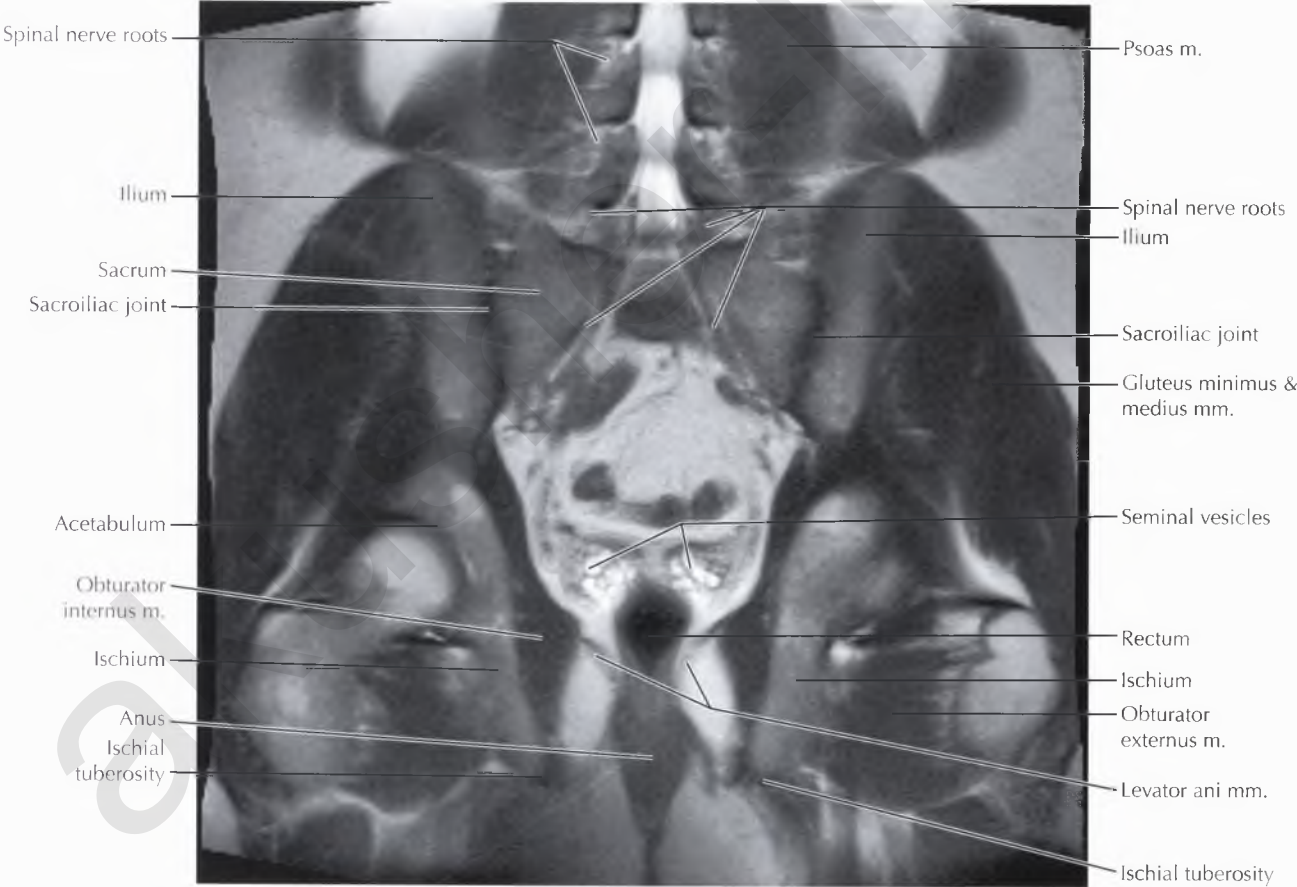
The prostate gland is an extraperitoneal fibromuscular gland surrounding the prostatic urethra at the bladder base. The seminal vesicles are paired extraperitoneal structures located superior and posterior to the prostate gland and are partially covered by the parietal peritoneum.



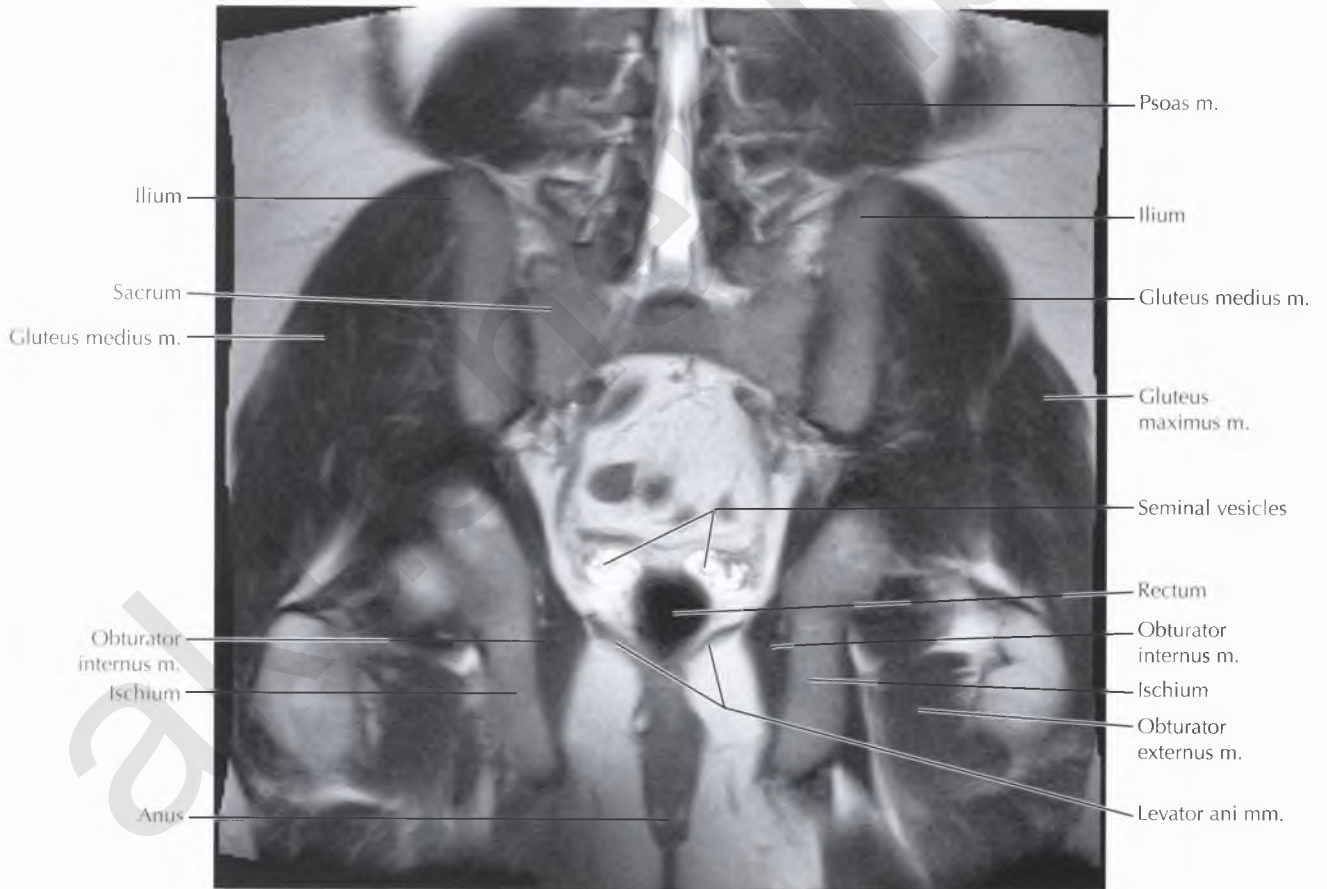


PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

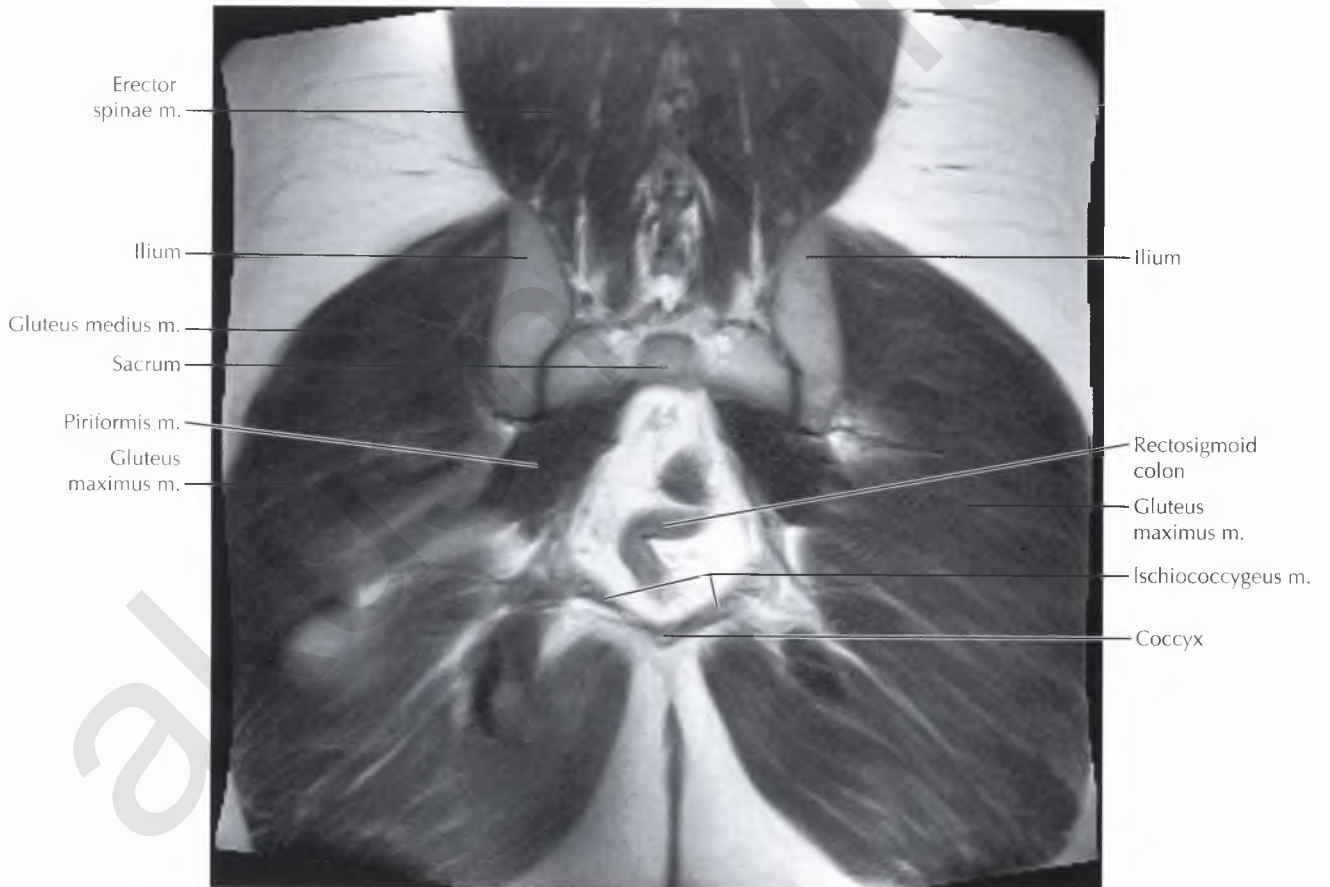
Seminal vesicle cysts are usually seen laterally within the seminal vesicles. Frequent associations include autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease (ADPKD) and ipsilateral genitourinary anomalies, including renal agenesis, congenital absence of the vas deferens, and ectopic ureteral insertion into mesonephric duct derivatives (e.g., seminal vesicle, ejaculatory duct).

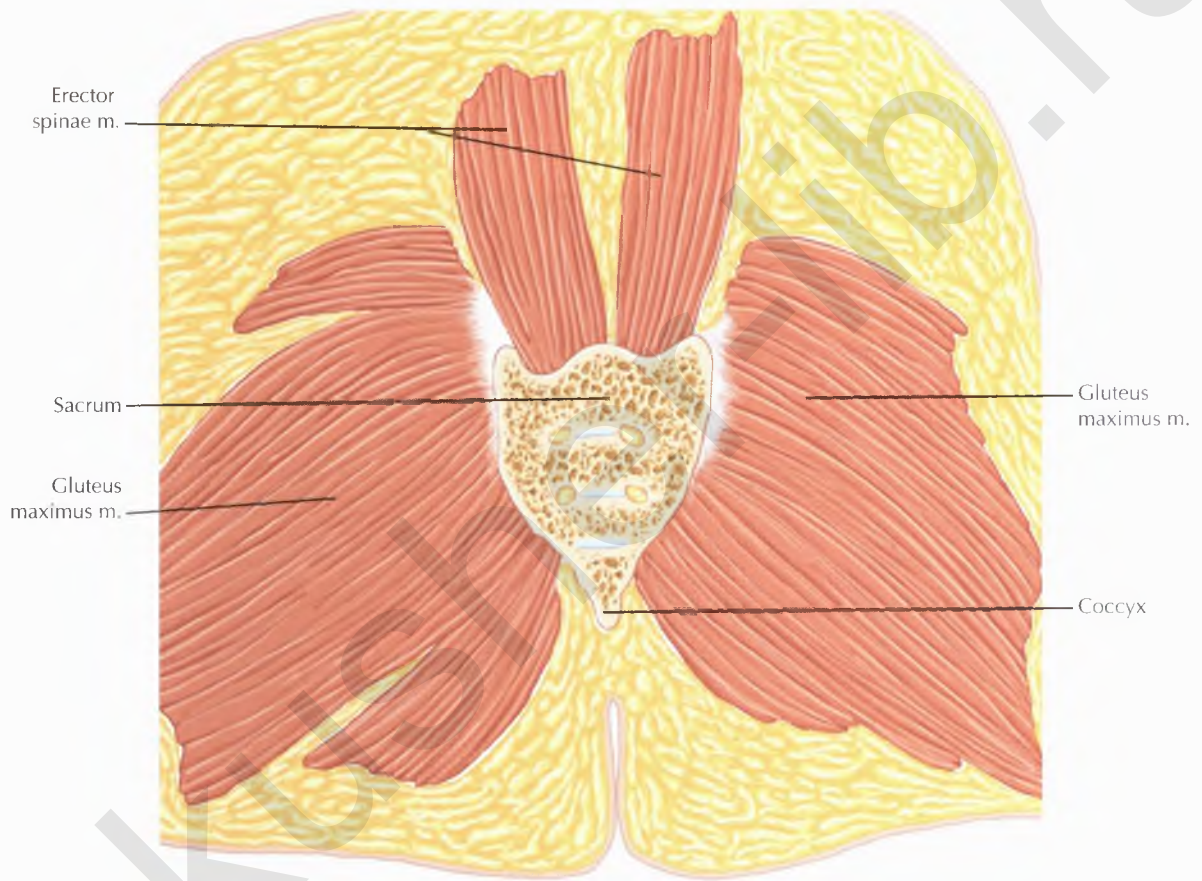




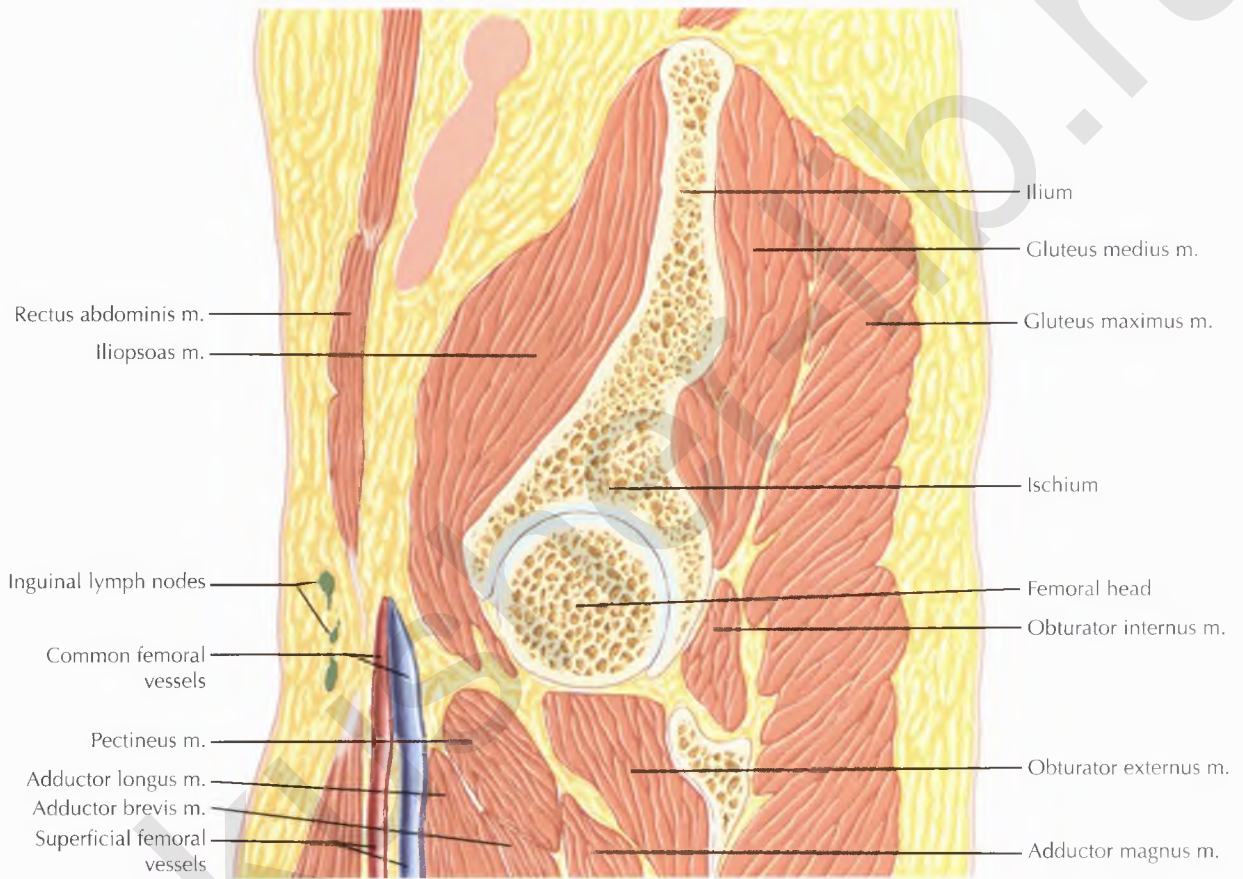


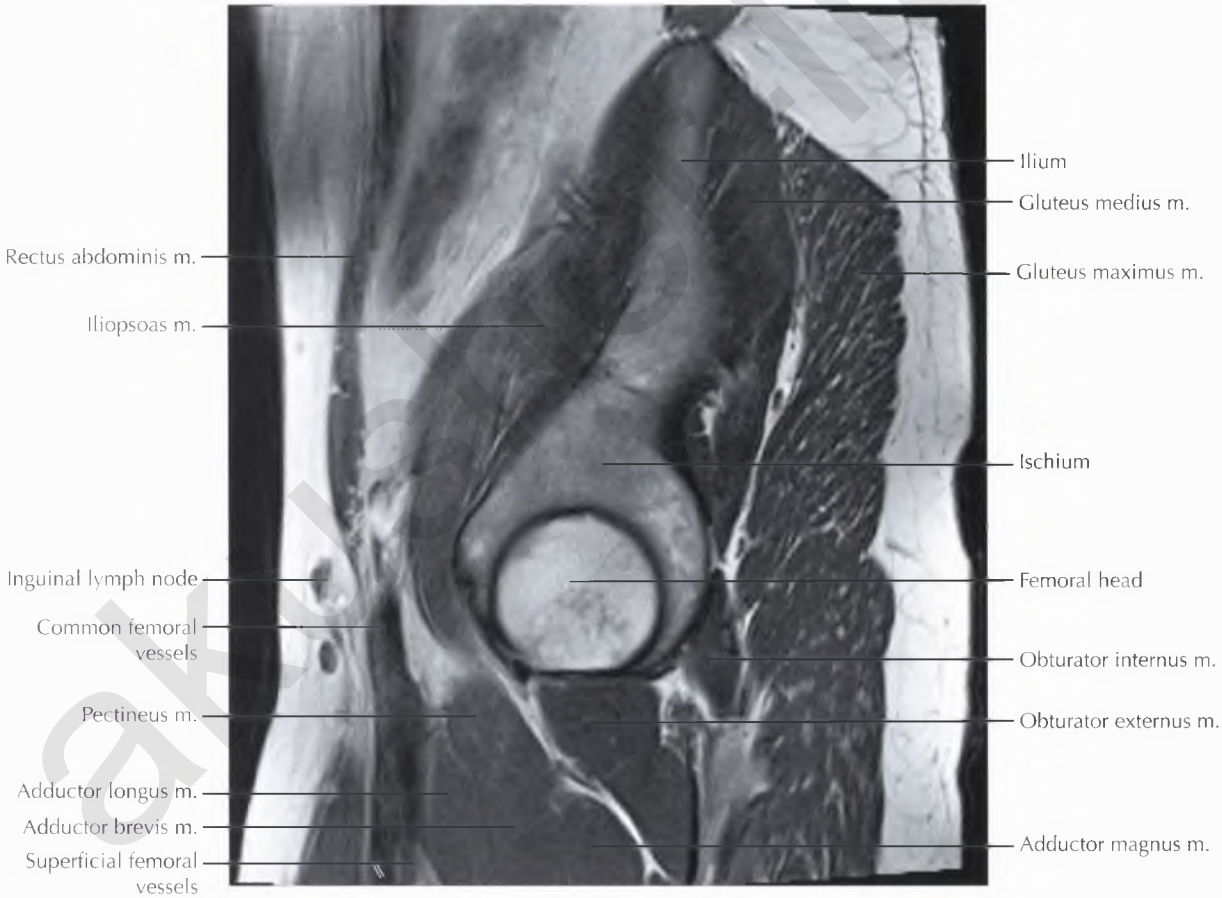
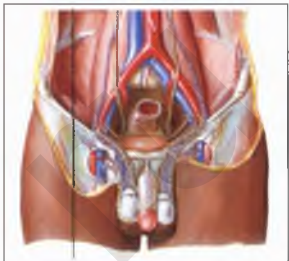


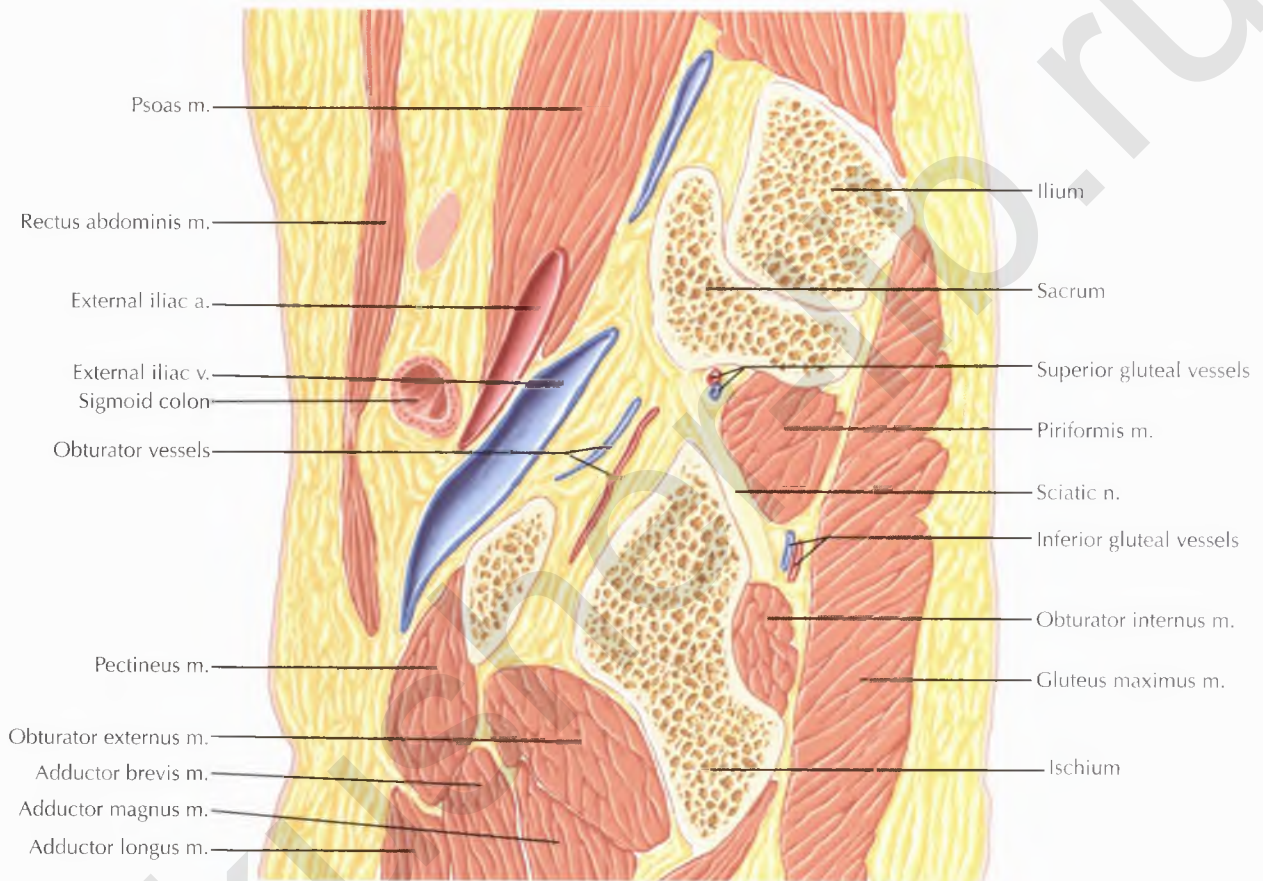






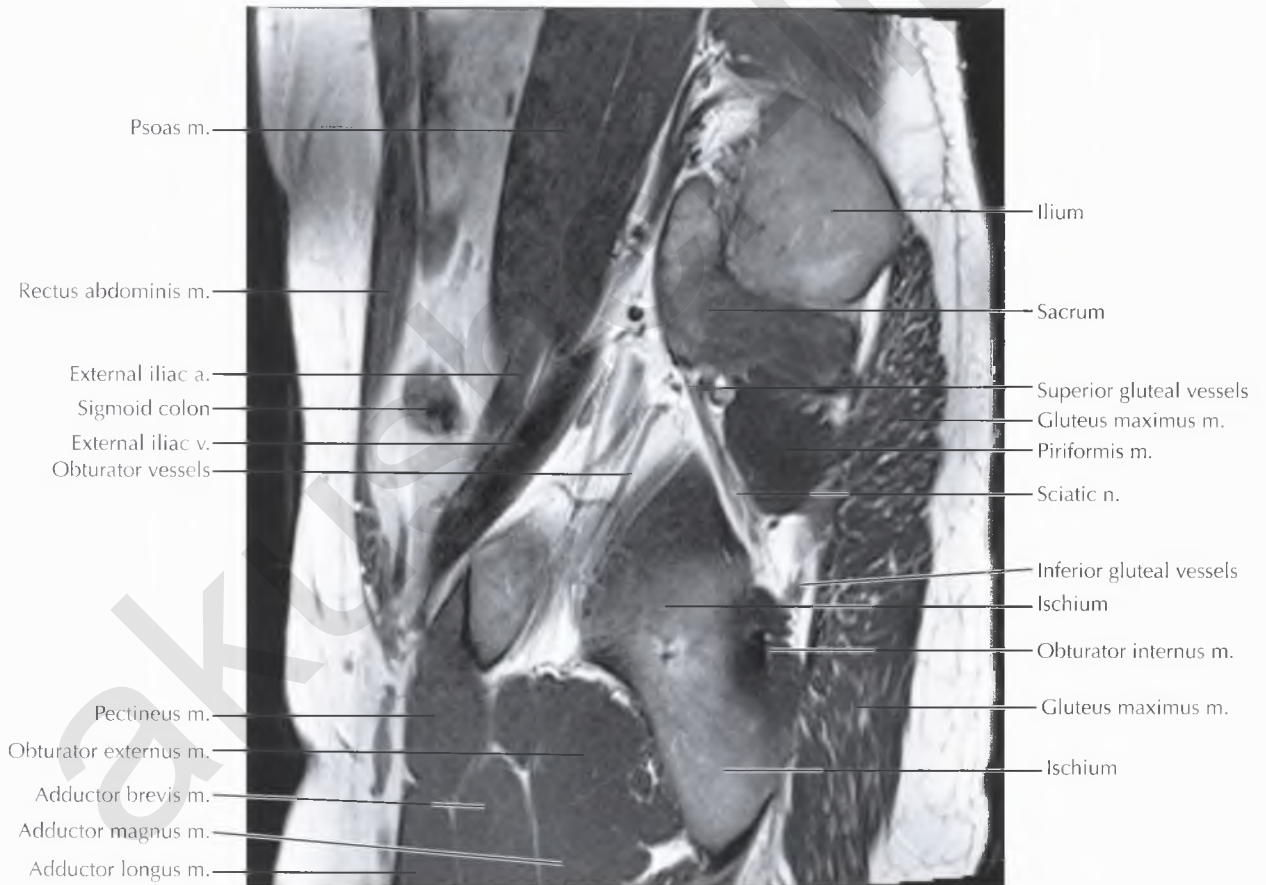
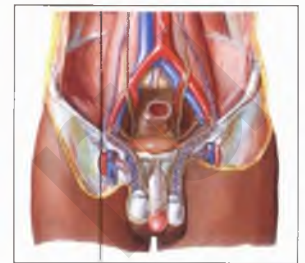


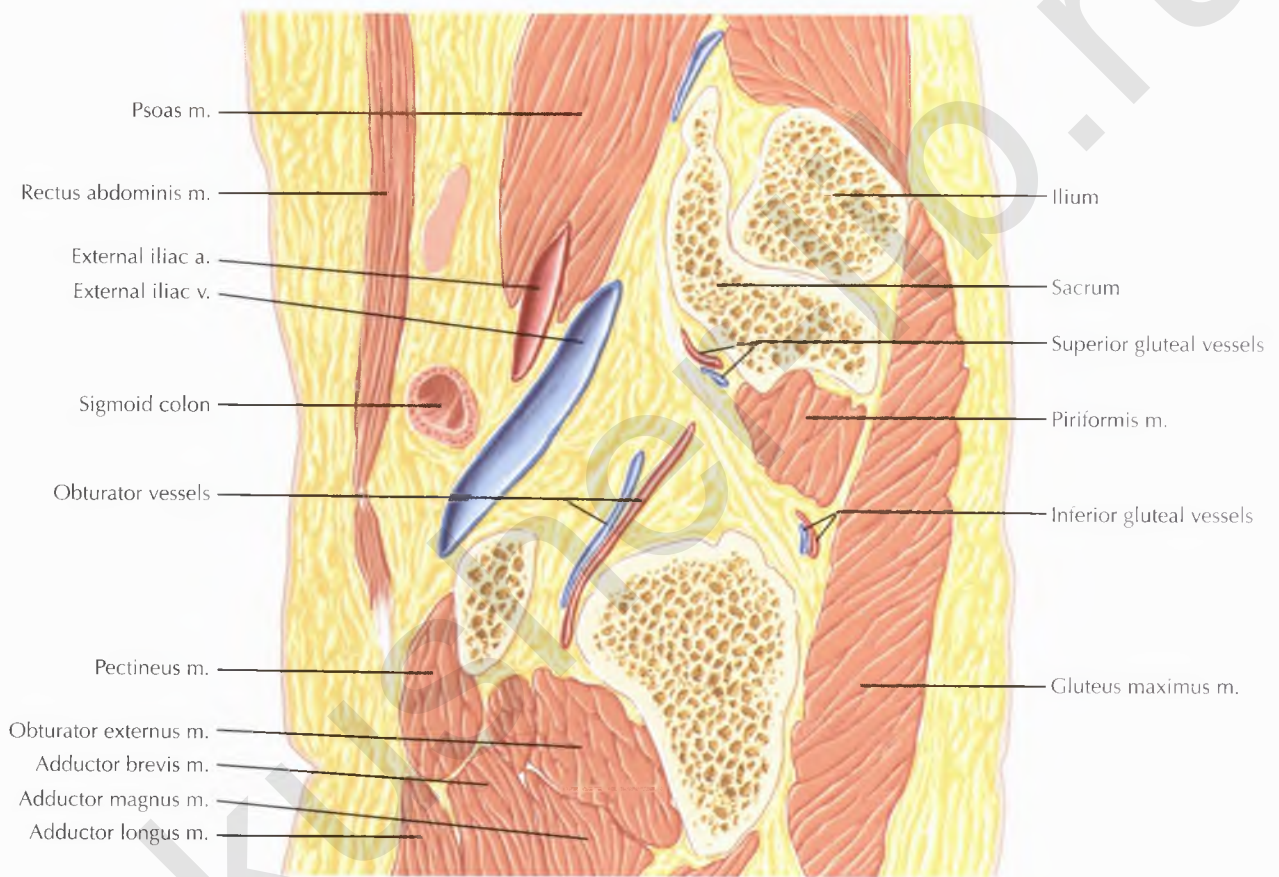


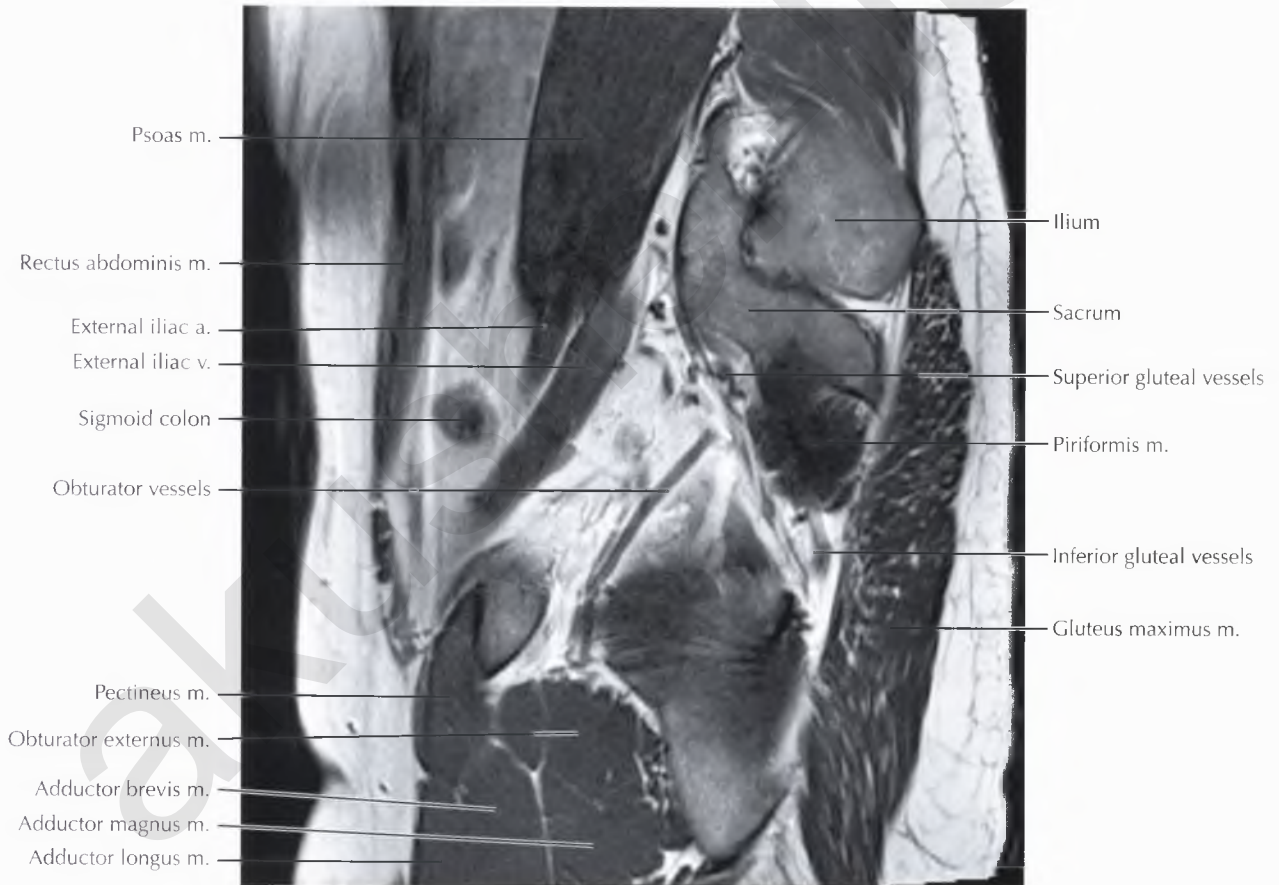
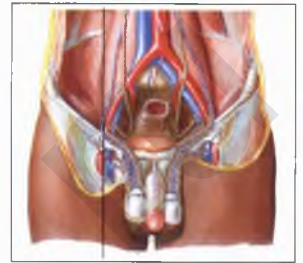


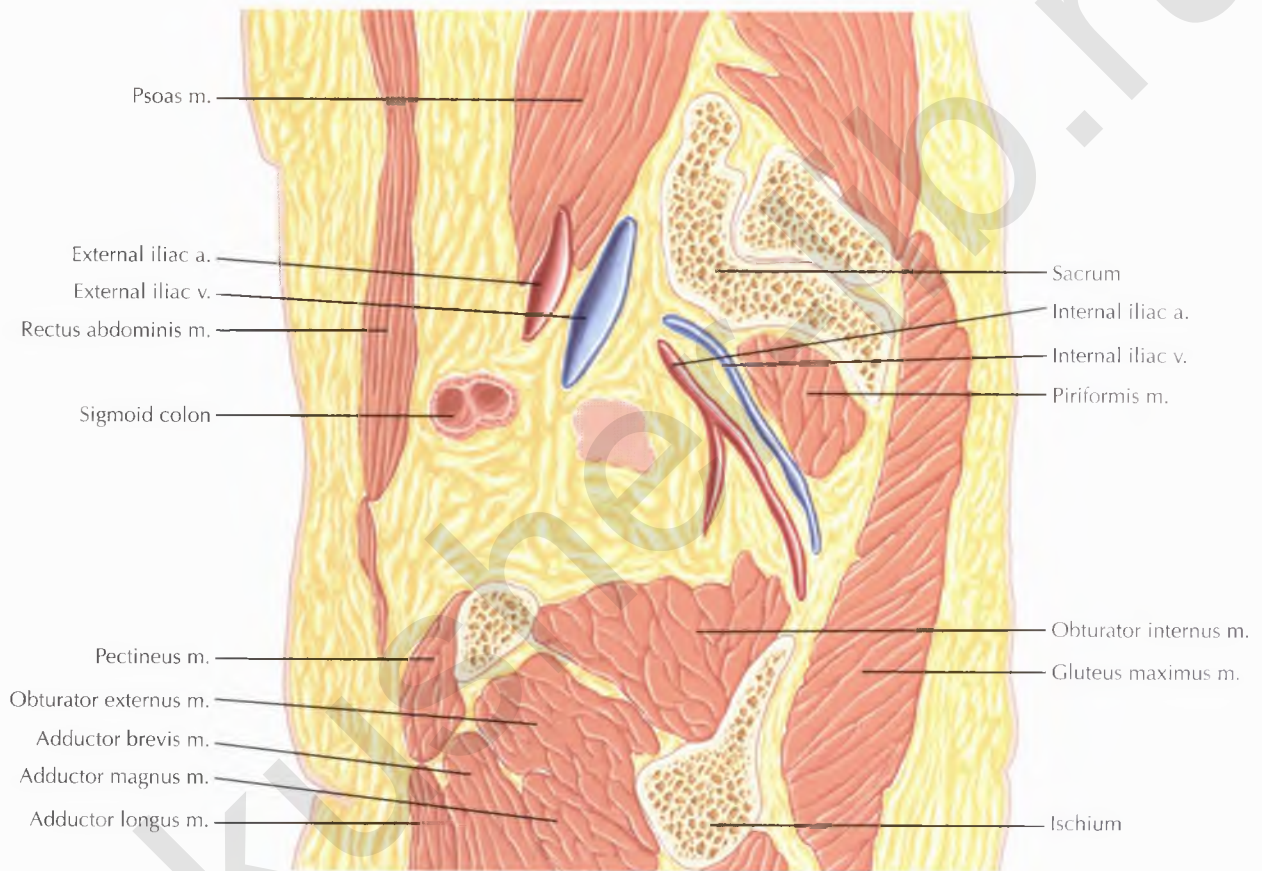
NORMAL ANATOMY

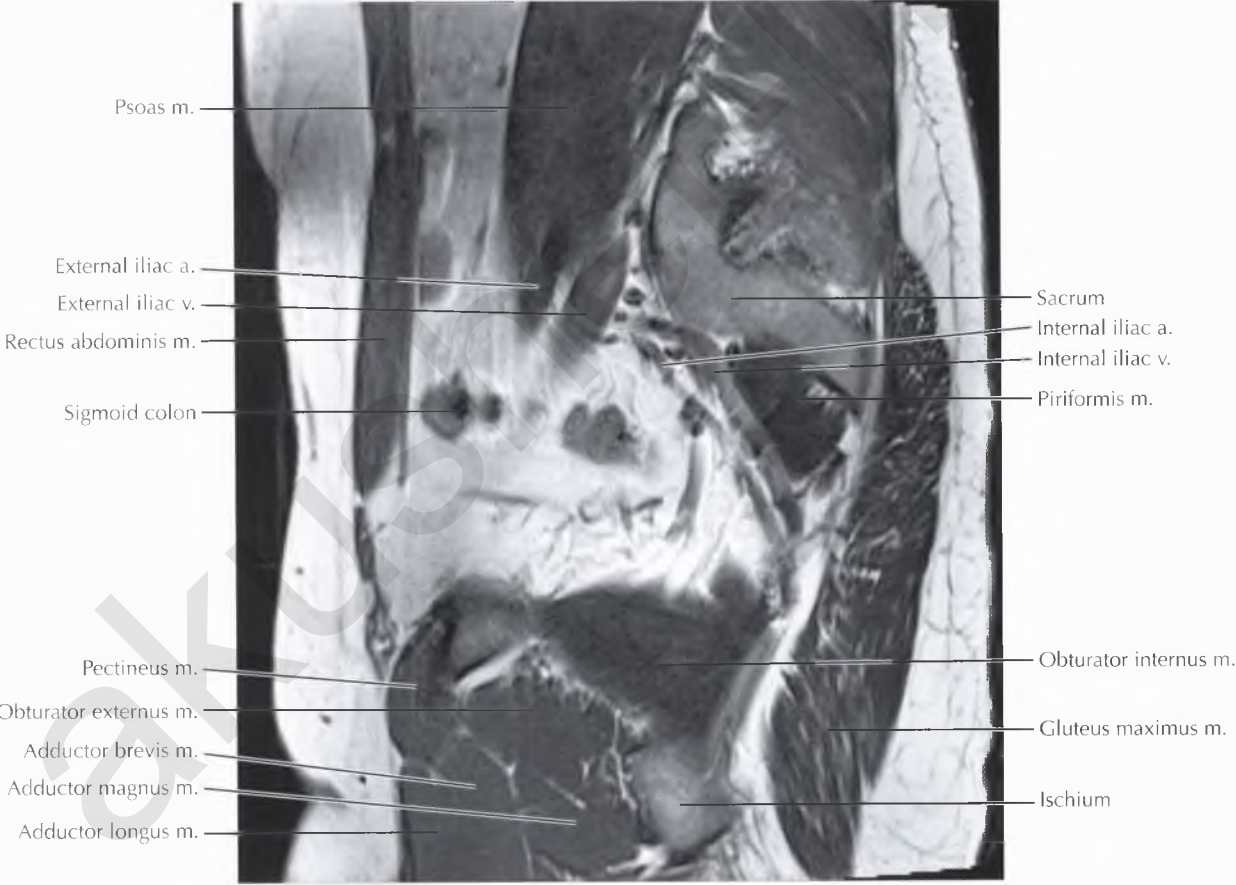
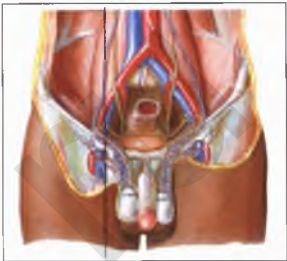
The superior gluteal vessels, piriformis muscle, inferior gluteal vessels, and sciatic nerve are seen in their course traversing the greater sciatic foramen.

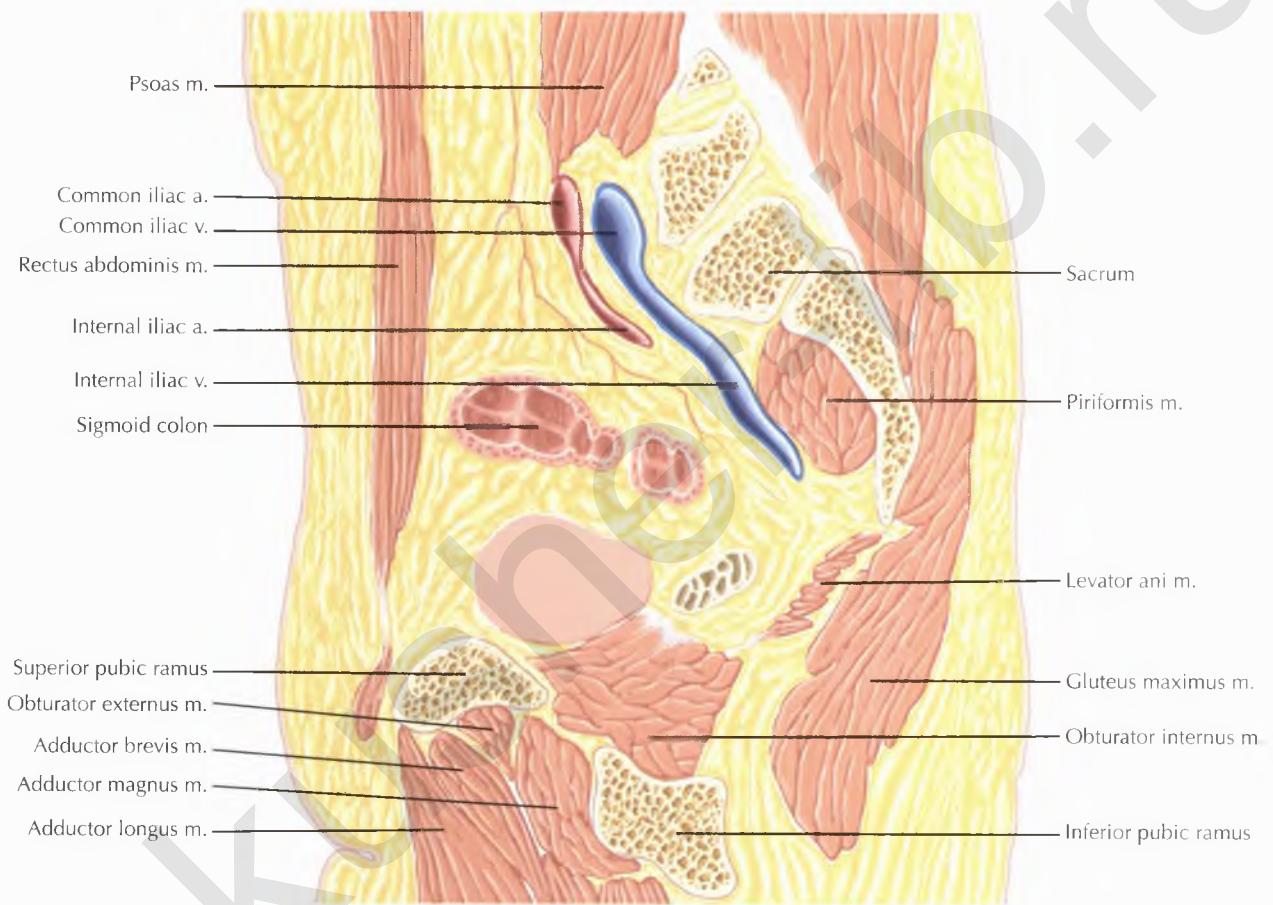


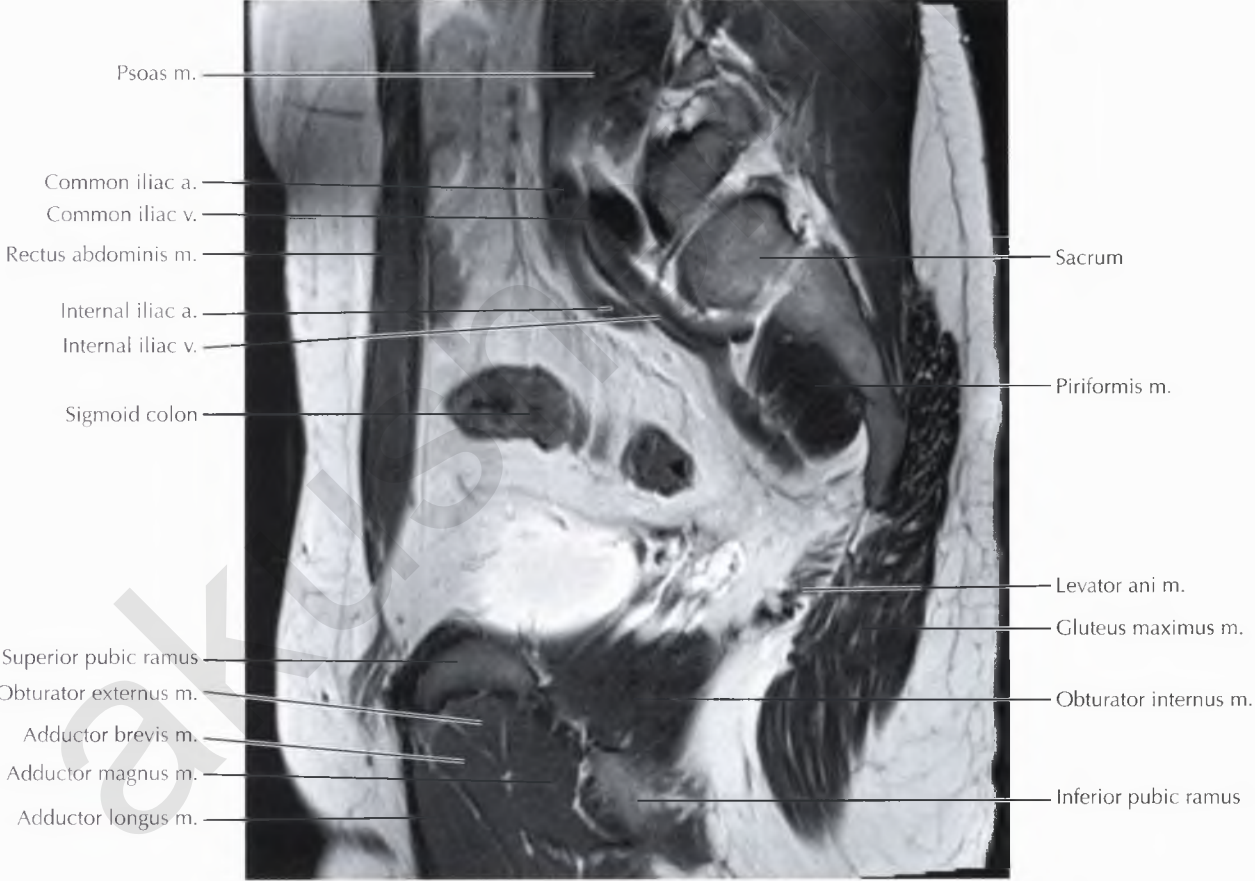
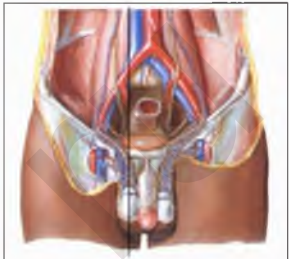


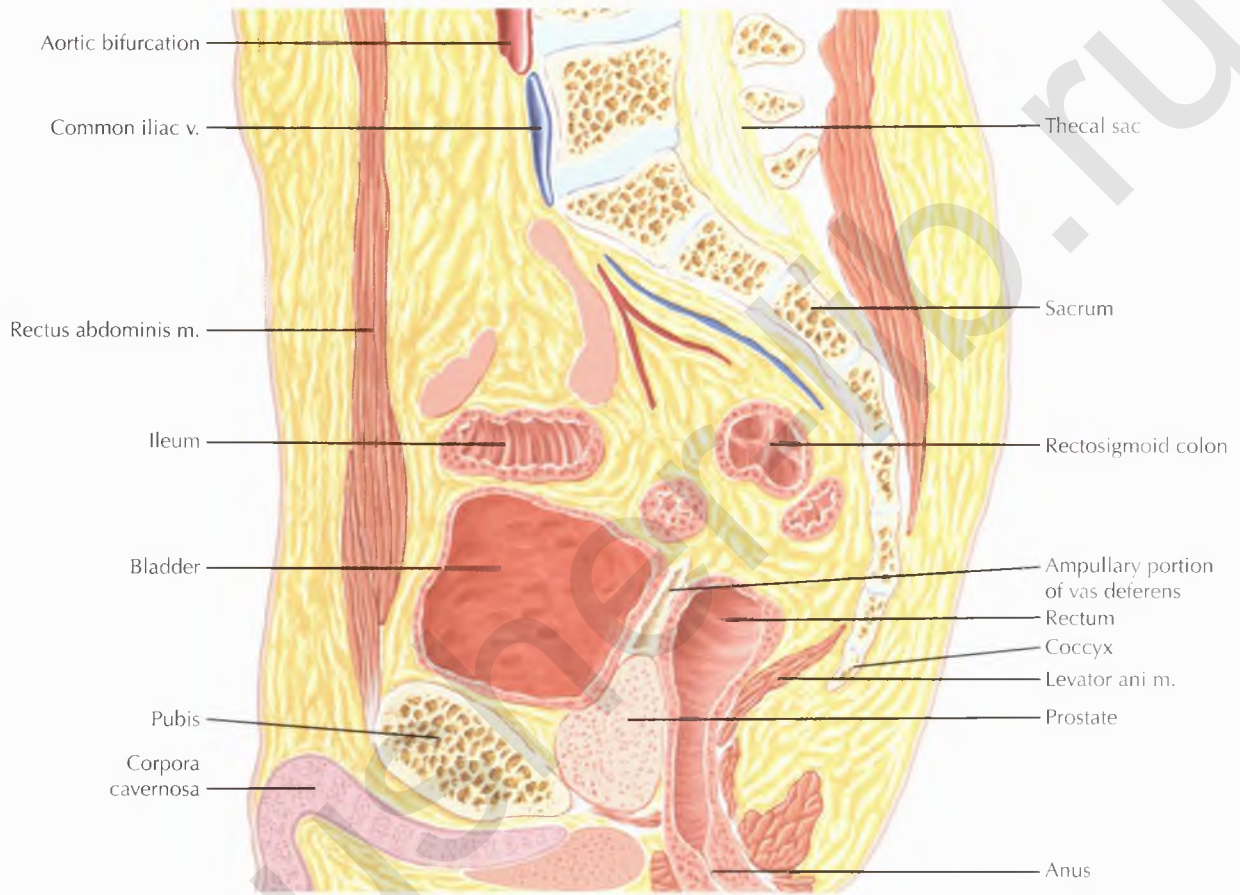






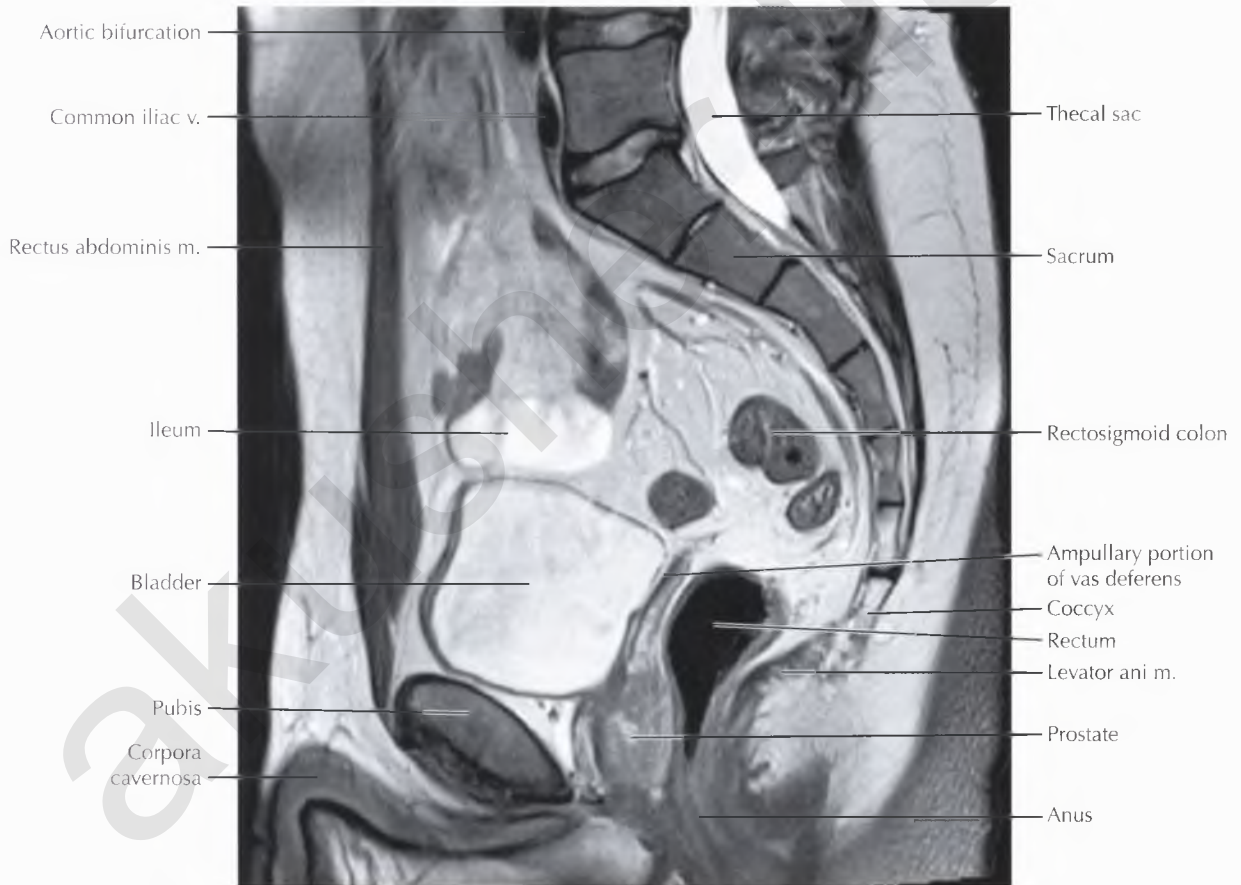
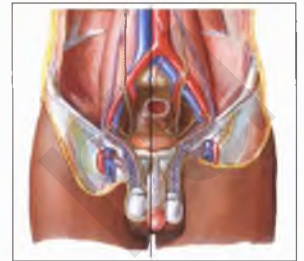


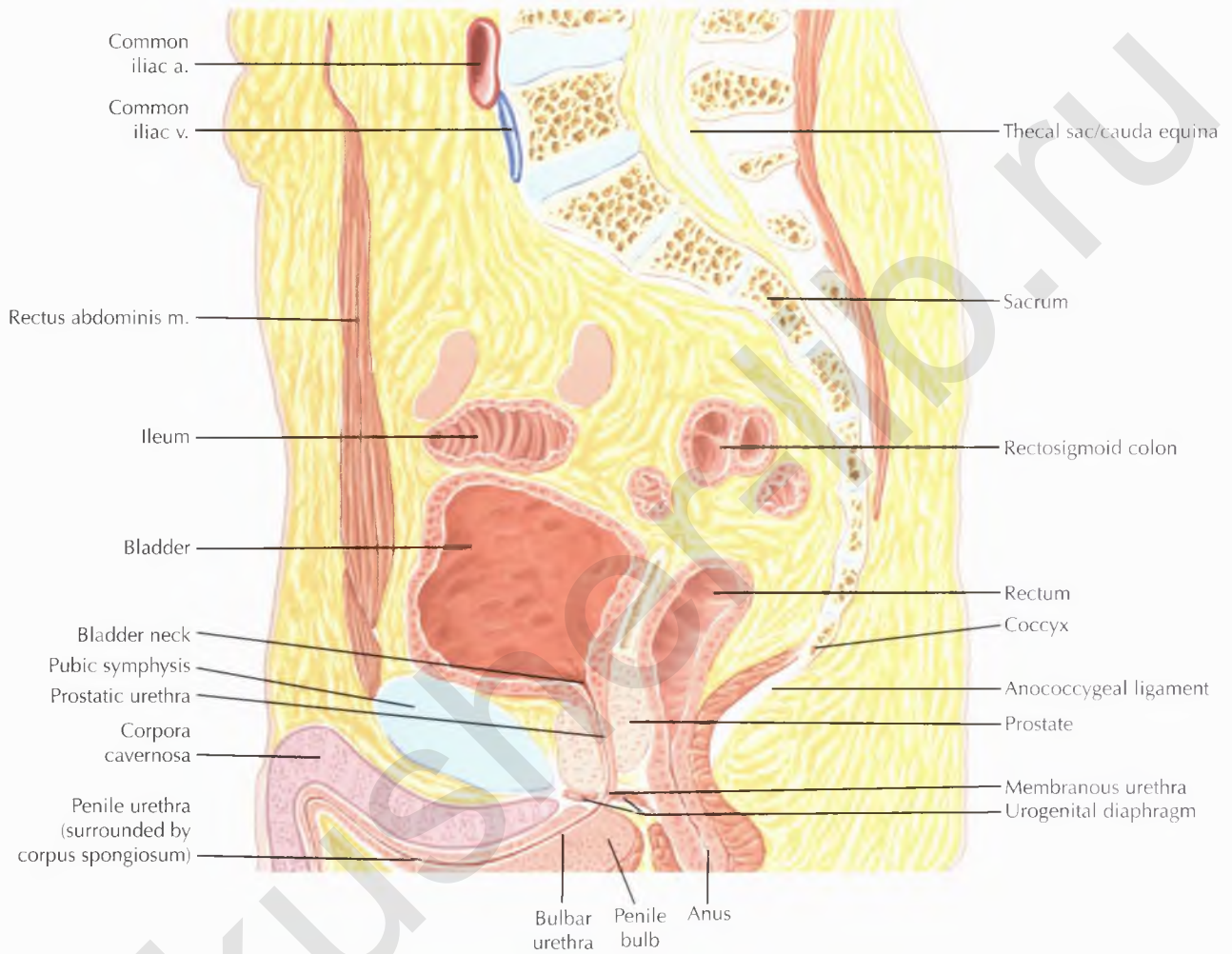




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

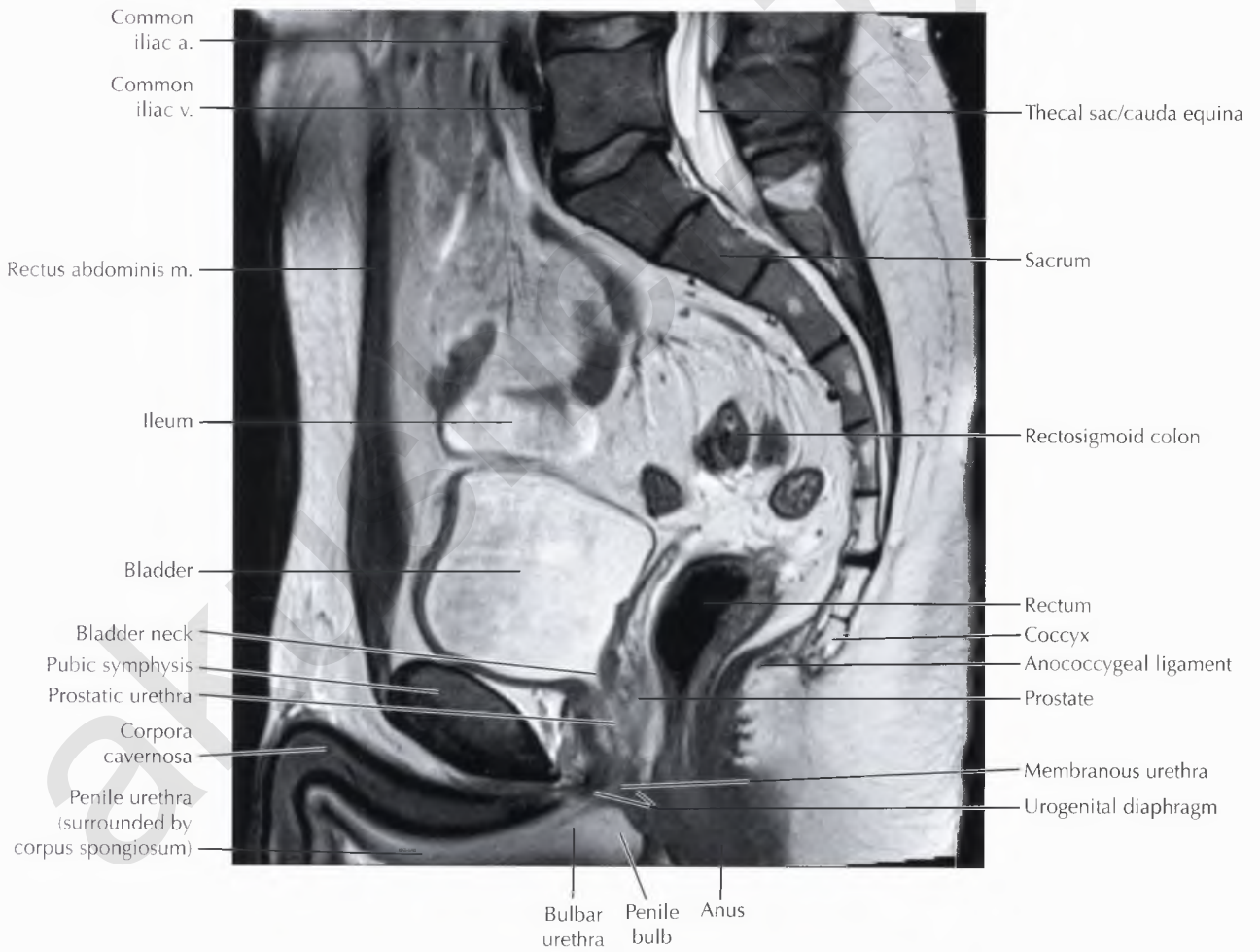
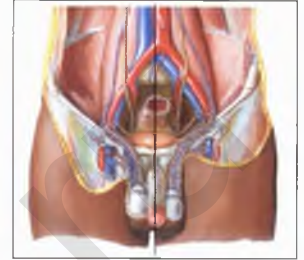
The bladder is normally a distensible viscus with a strong muscular wall. Bladder outpouchings, or *diverticula*, may occur through areas of weakness in the bladder wall and often result from bladder outlet obstruction. *Hutch diverticula* are an unusual congenital type and occur near the ureterovesical junction. Urinary stasis caused by the diverticulum results in a higher incidence of infection, calculus formation, and tumor occurrence within the diverticulum.





NORMAL ANATOMY

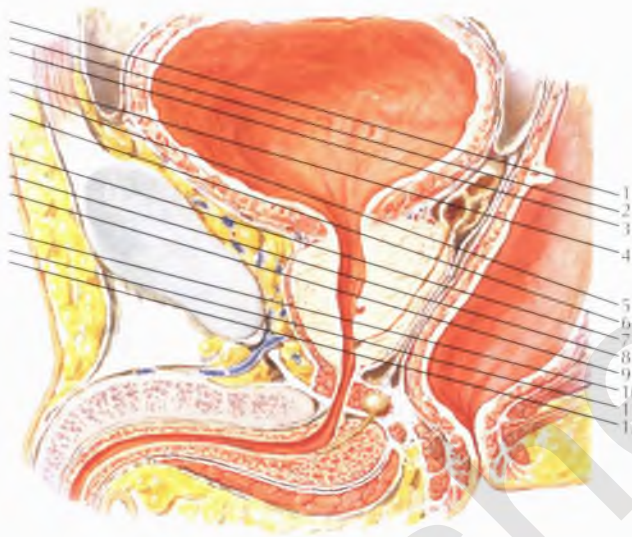
The *urachus*, which forms a conduit between the umbilicus and the urinary bladder in utero, is normally obliterated before birth, forming the median umbilical ligament. Patency of any part of the urachal remnant is abnormal, leading to a urachal sinus, cyst, or diverticulum, depending on whether the patent portion involves the umbilicus, midportion, or bladder, respectively. Patent urachal remnants may become infected and are at a higher risk for malignancy, most often with adenocarcinoma.



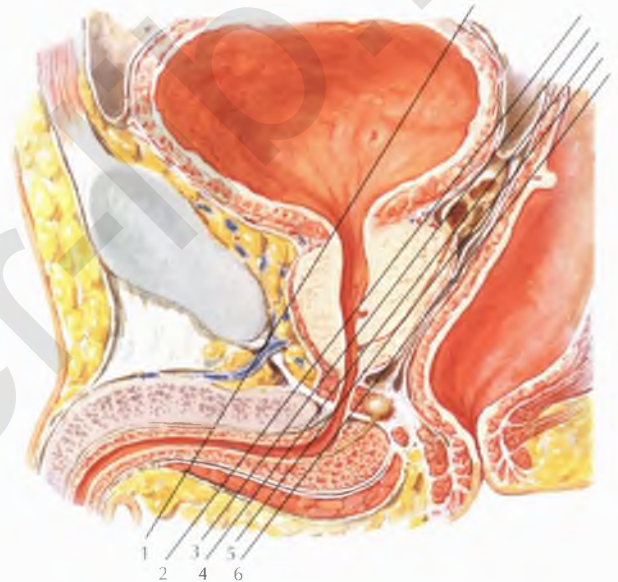
Chapter

7

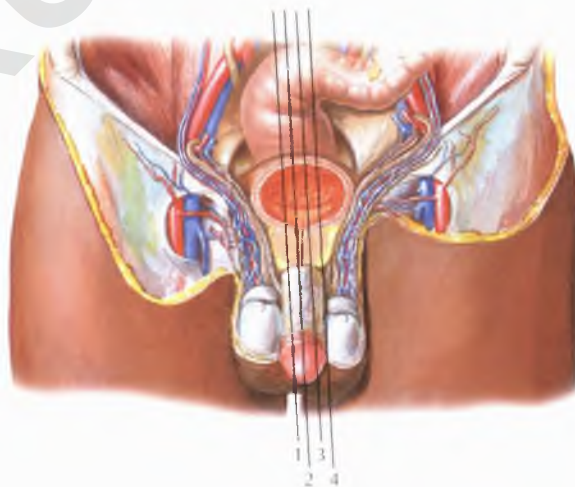
PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT



AXIAL 306

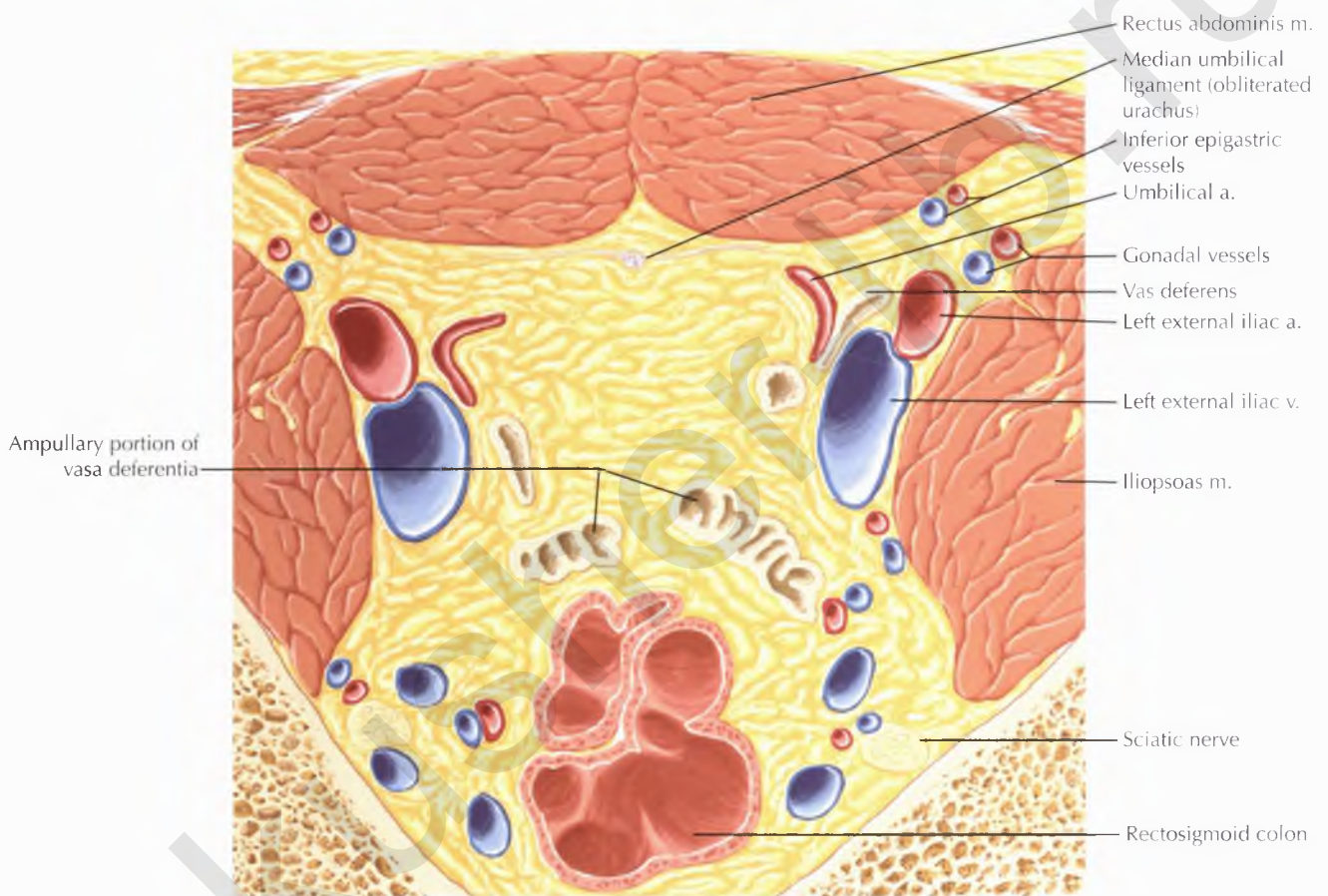


CORONAL 330



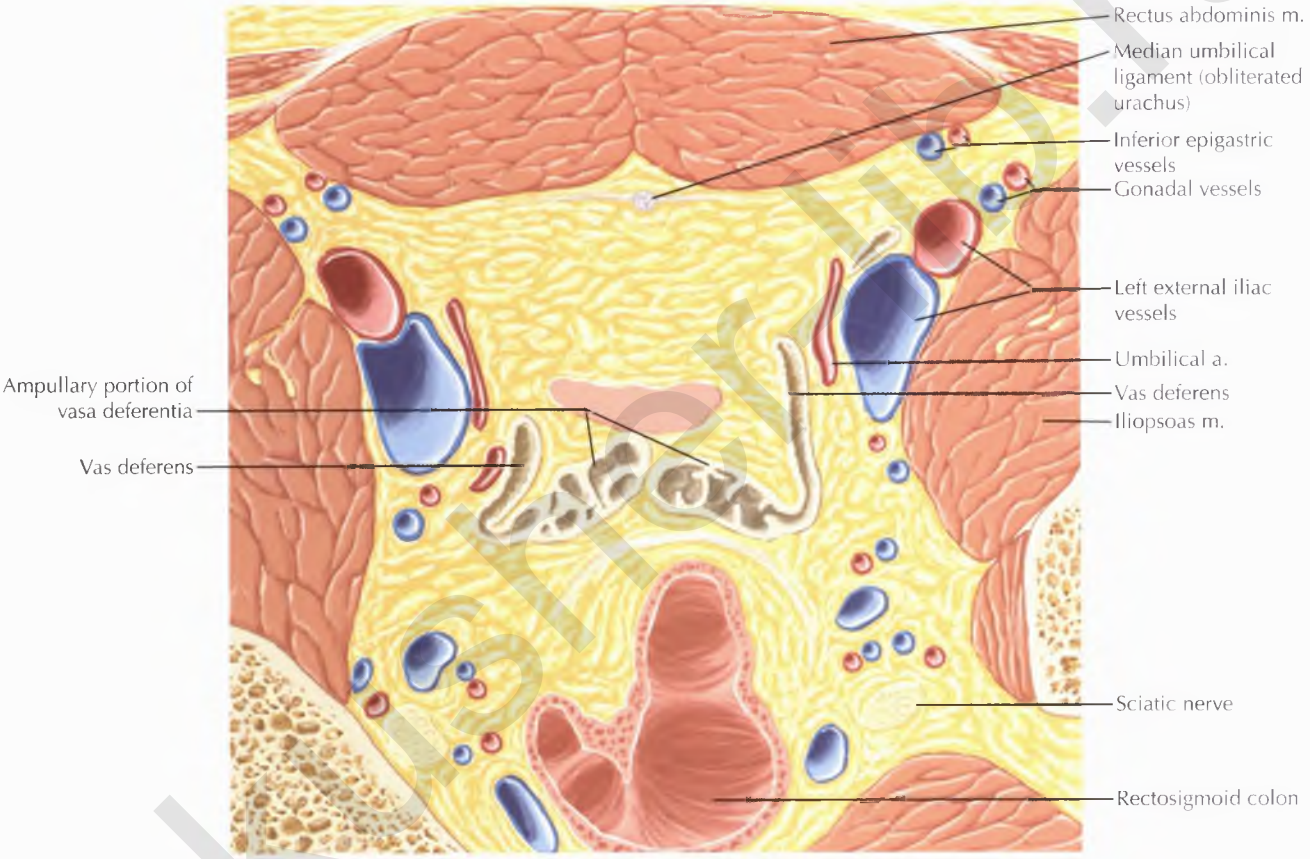
SAGITTAL 342

PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT AXIAL 1

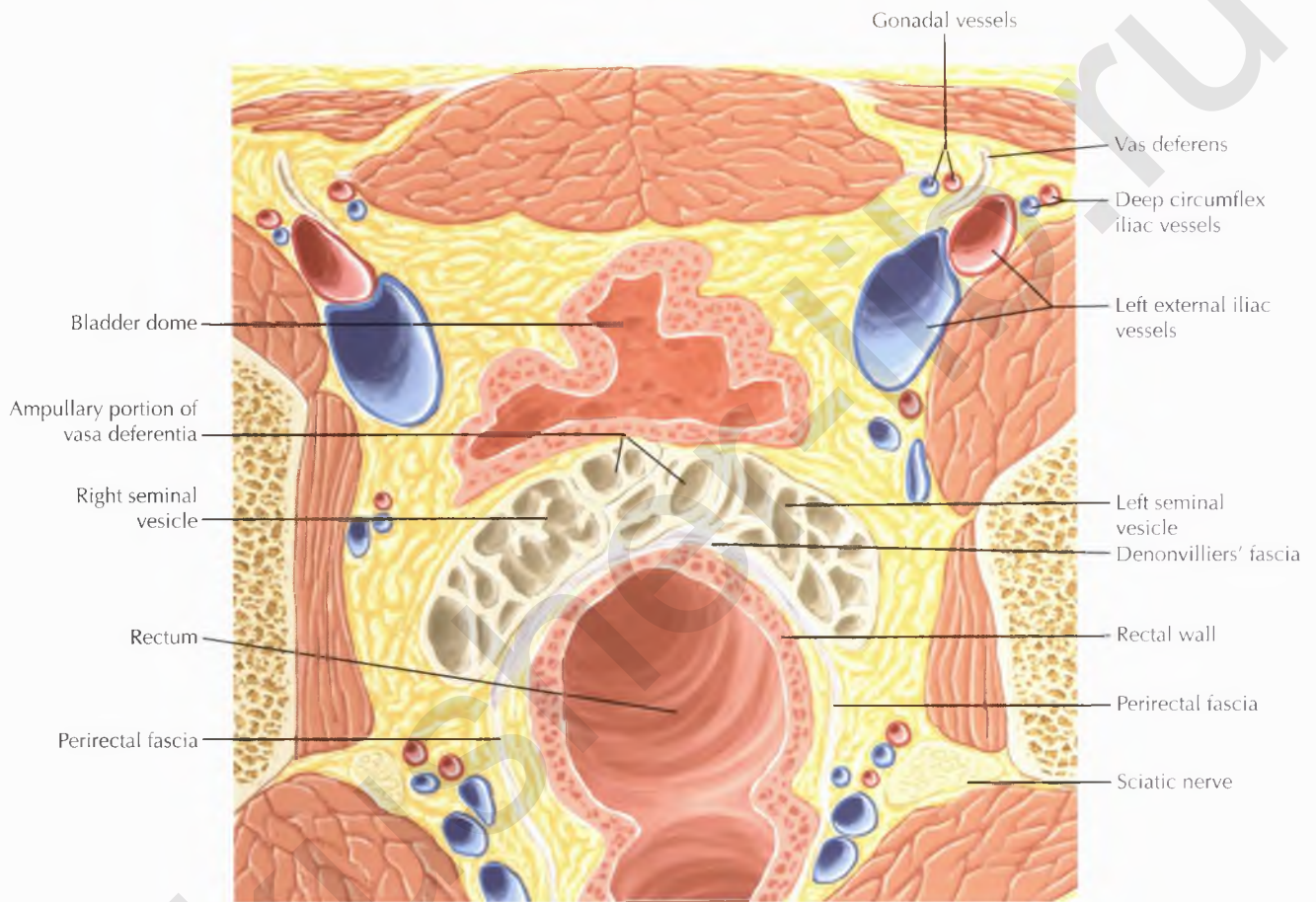




PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT AXIAL 2



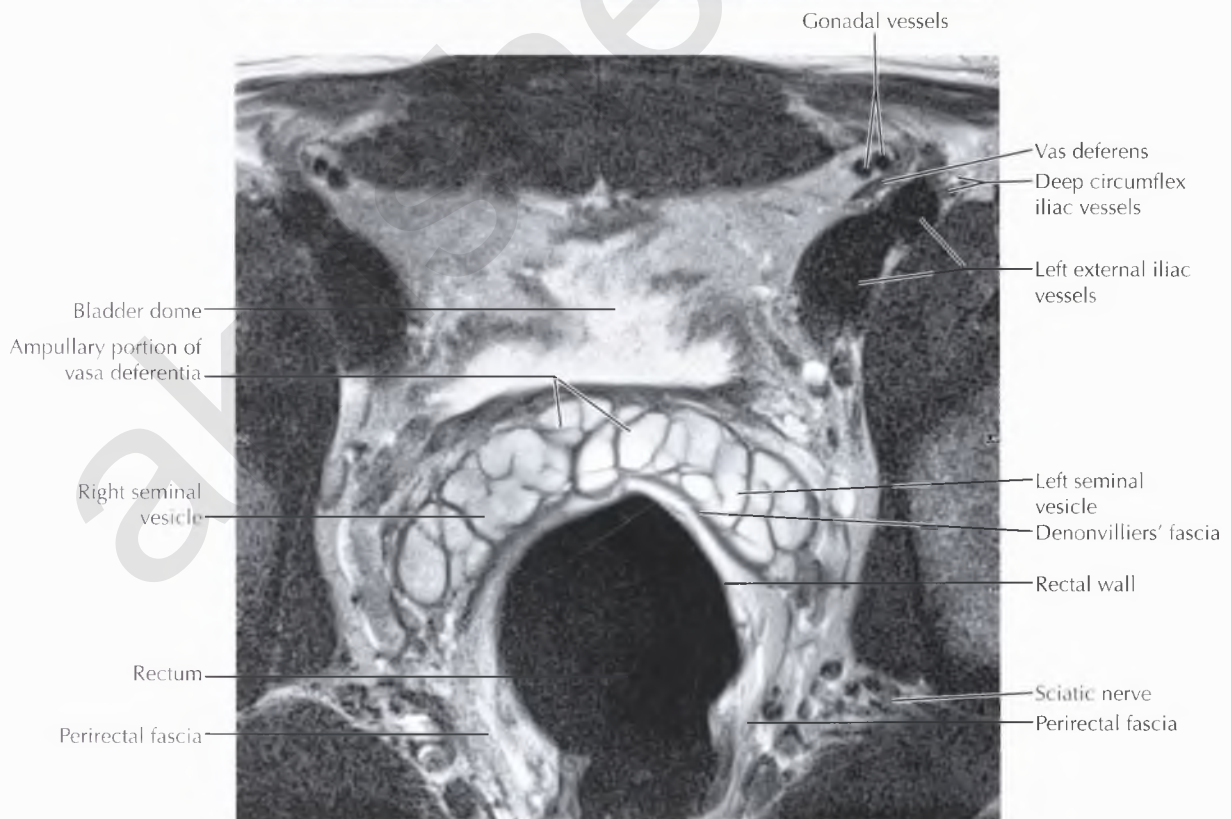
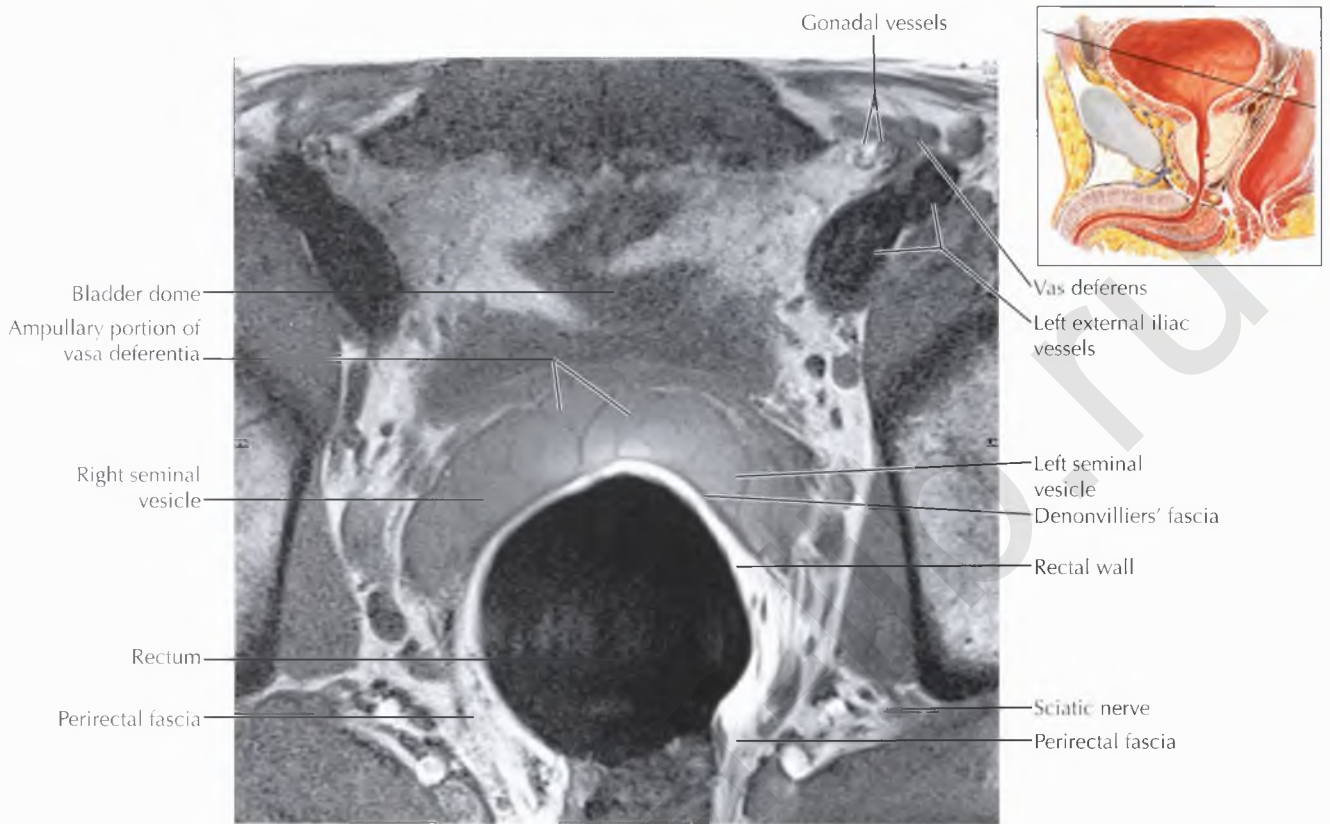


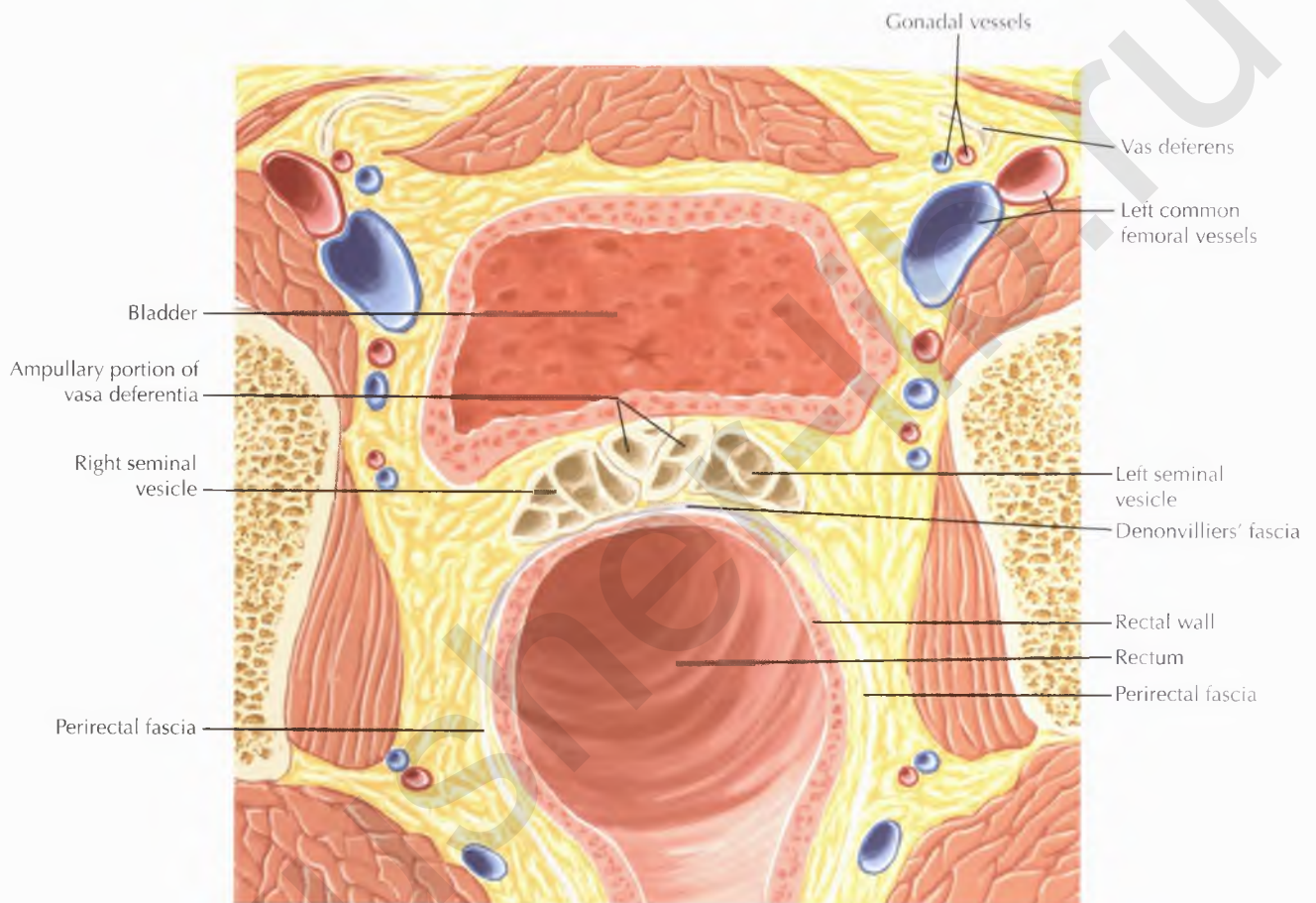


NORMAL ANATOMY

The seminal vesicles are paired accessory sex glands that produce and secrete fructose-rich seminal fluid, which is the major component of ejaculate volume. The detail of the convoluted, fluid-filled tubules that form the seminal vesicles is best depicted on T2-weighted MR images.

PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT AXIAL 3

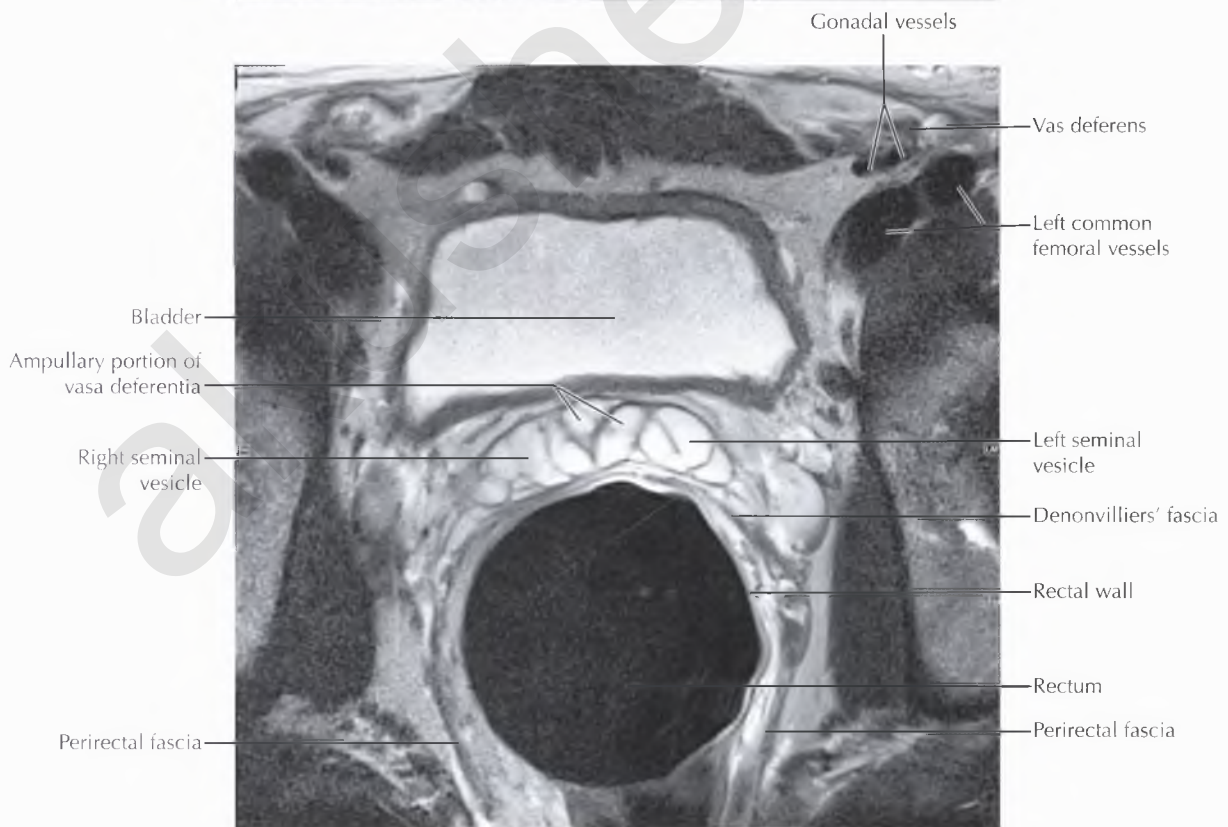
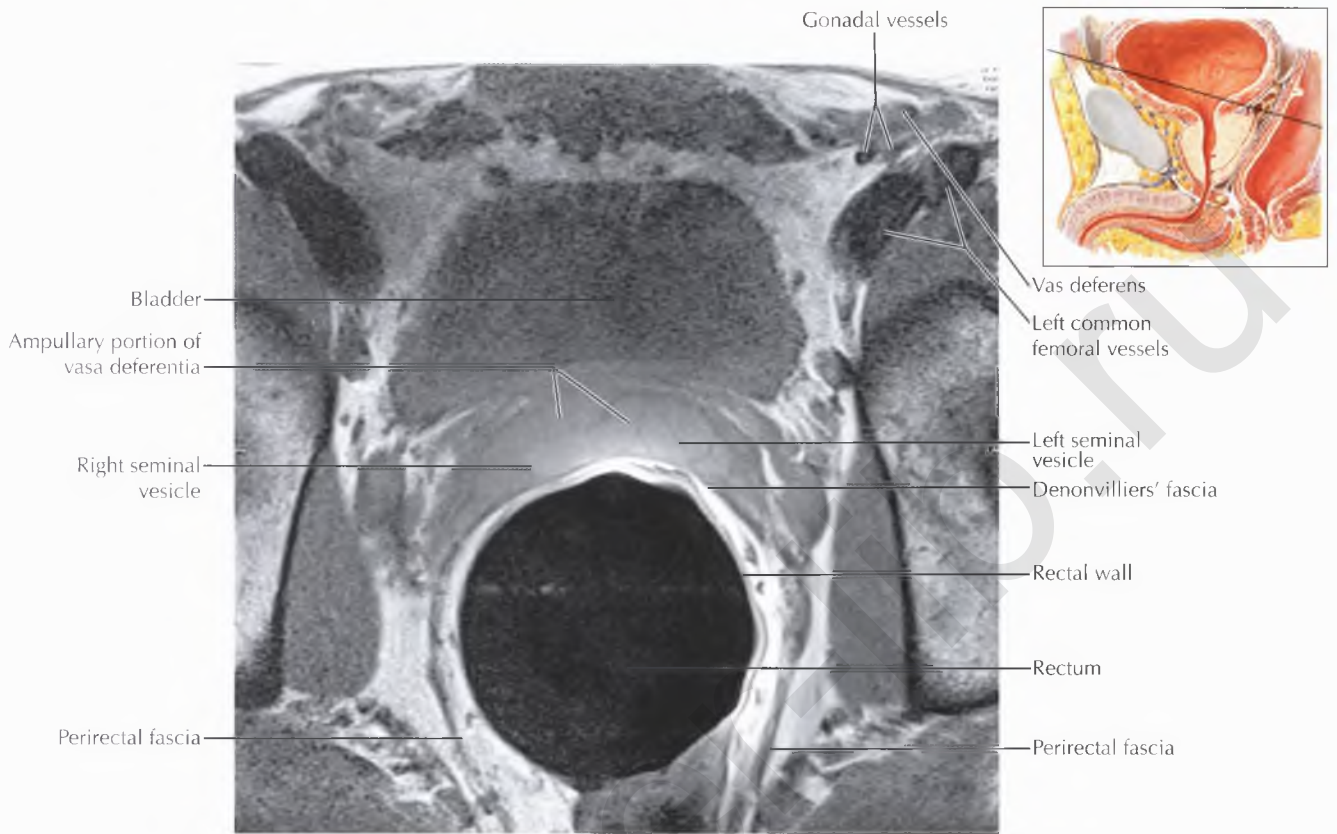


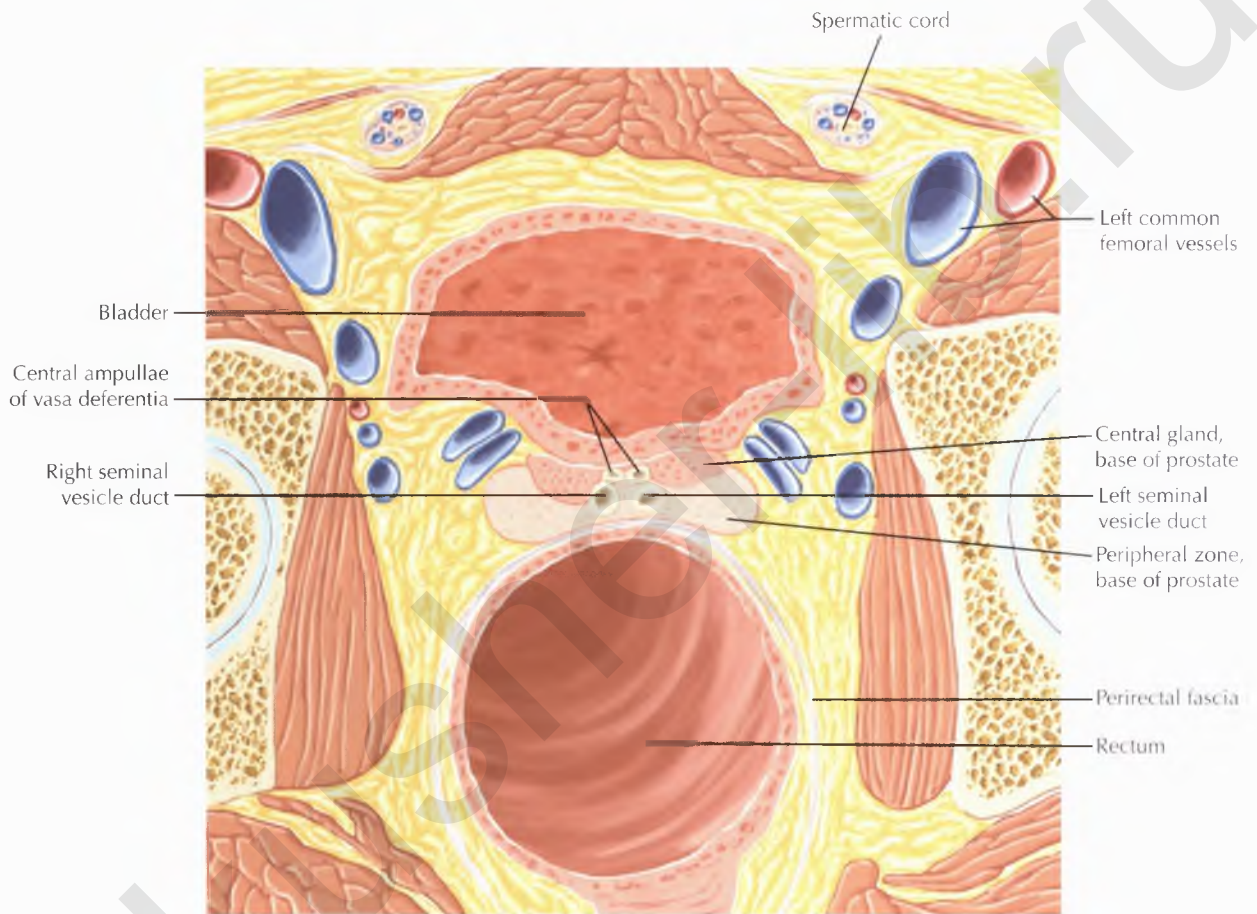


DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

Denonvilliers' fascia, also known as the *rectoprostatic fascia*, covers the seminal vesicles and the posterior aspect of the prostate gland, separating these structures from the rectum. Denonvilliers' fascia helps limit the posterior spread of prostate cancer, making direct invasion of the rectum unusual.

PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT AXIAL 4

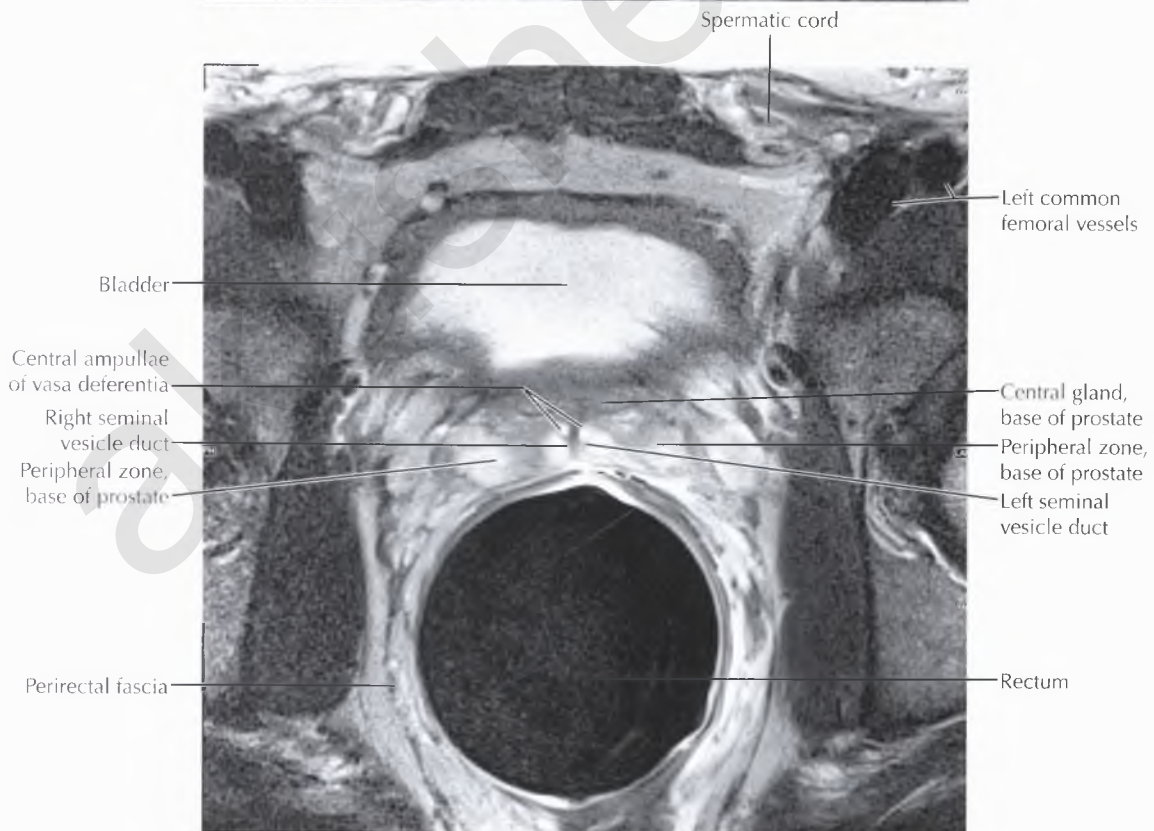
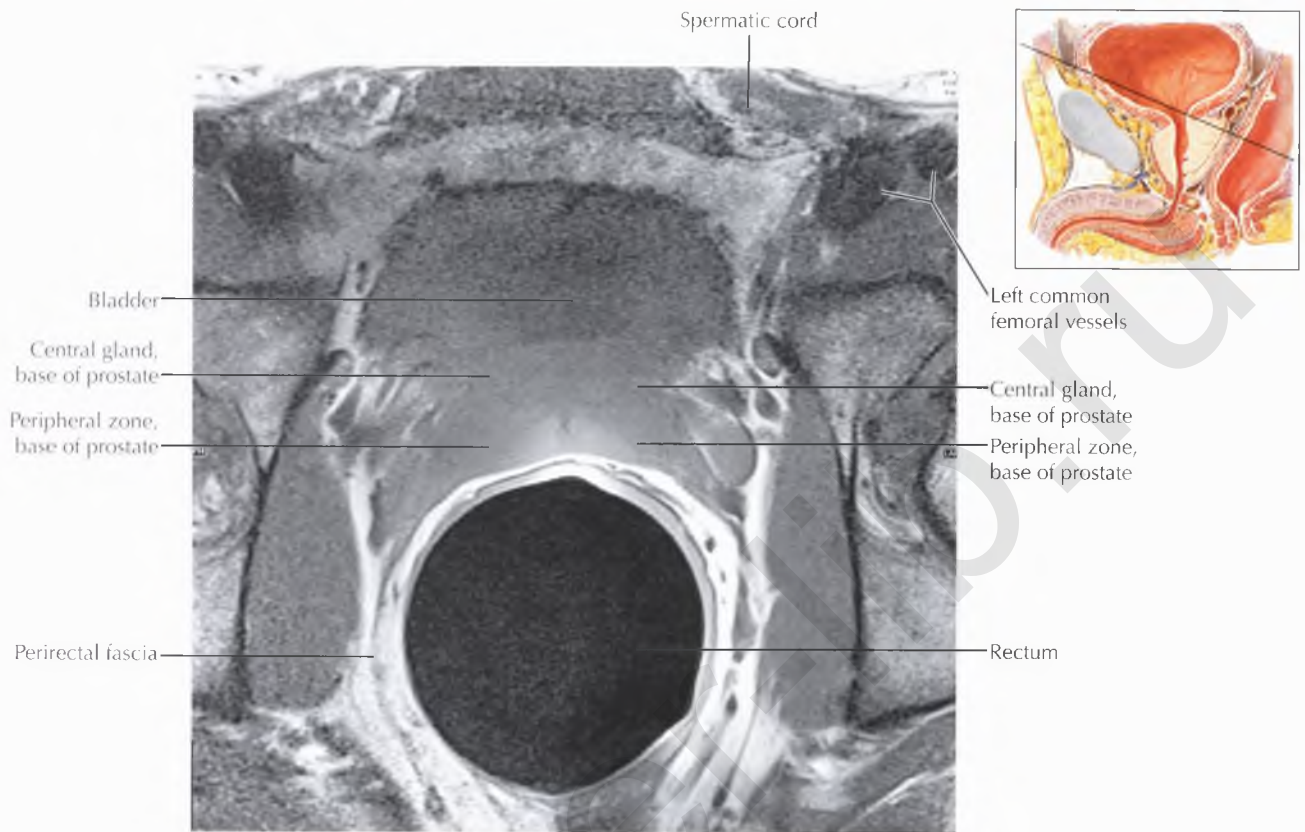


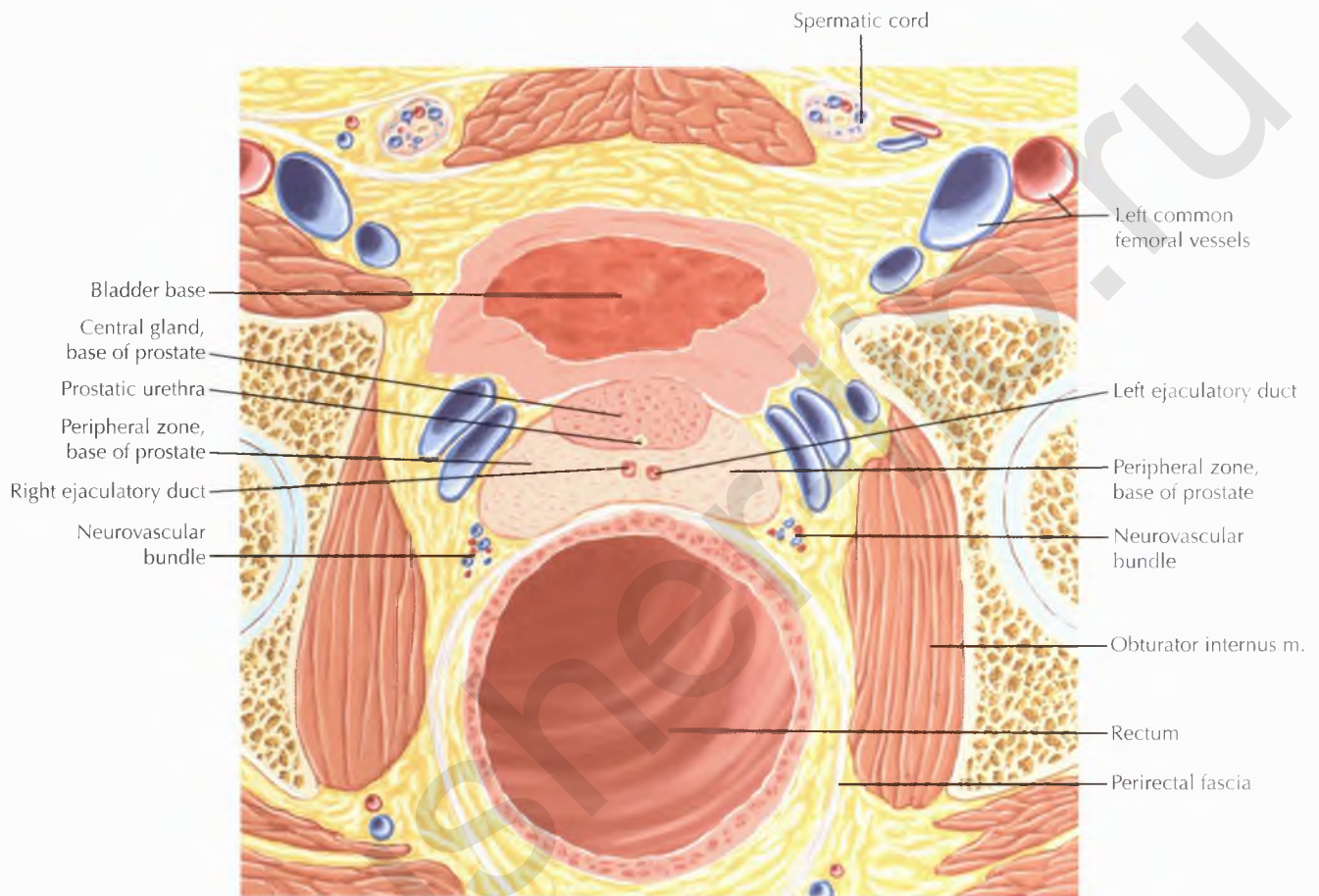


NORMAL ANATOMY

On this image, the paired ampullae of the vasa deferentia are seen just superior to their union with the paired seminal vesicle ducts, which, in combination, will form the ejaculatory ducts.

PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT AXIAL 5

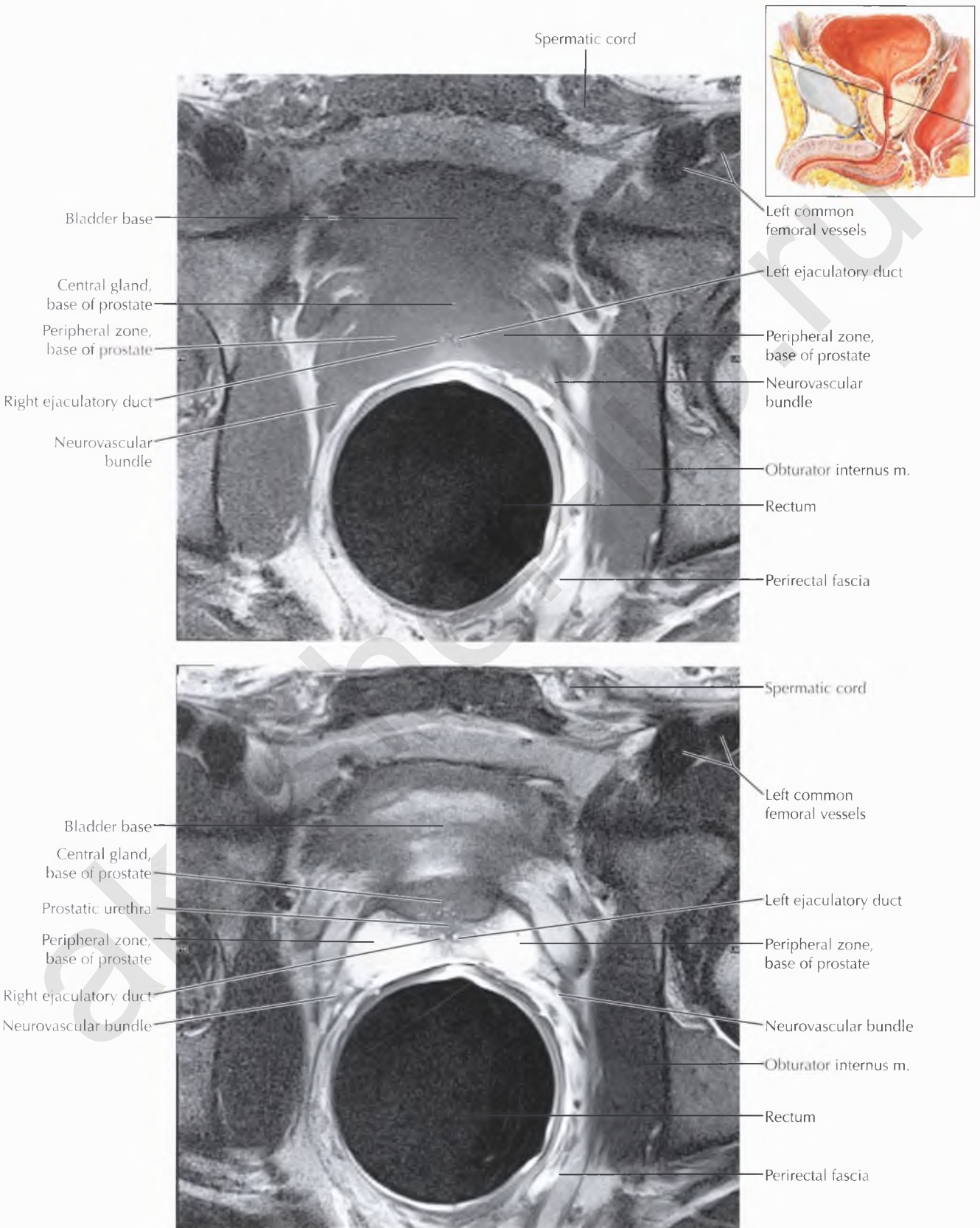


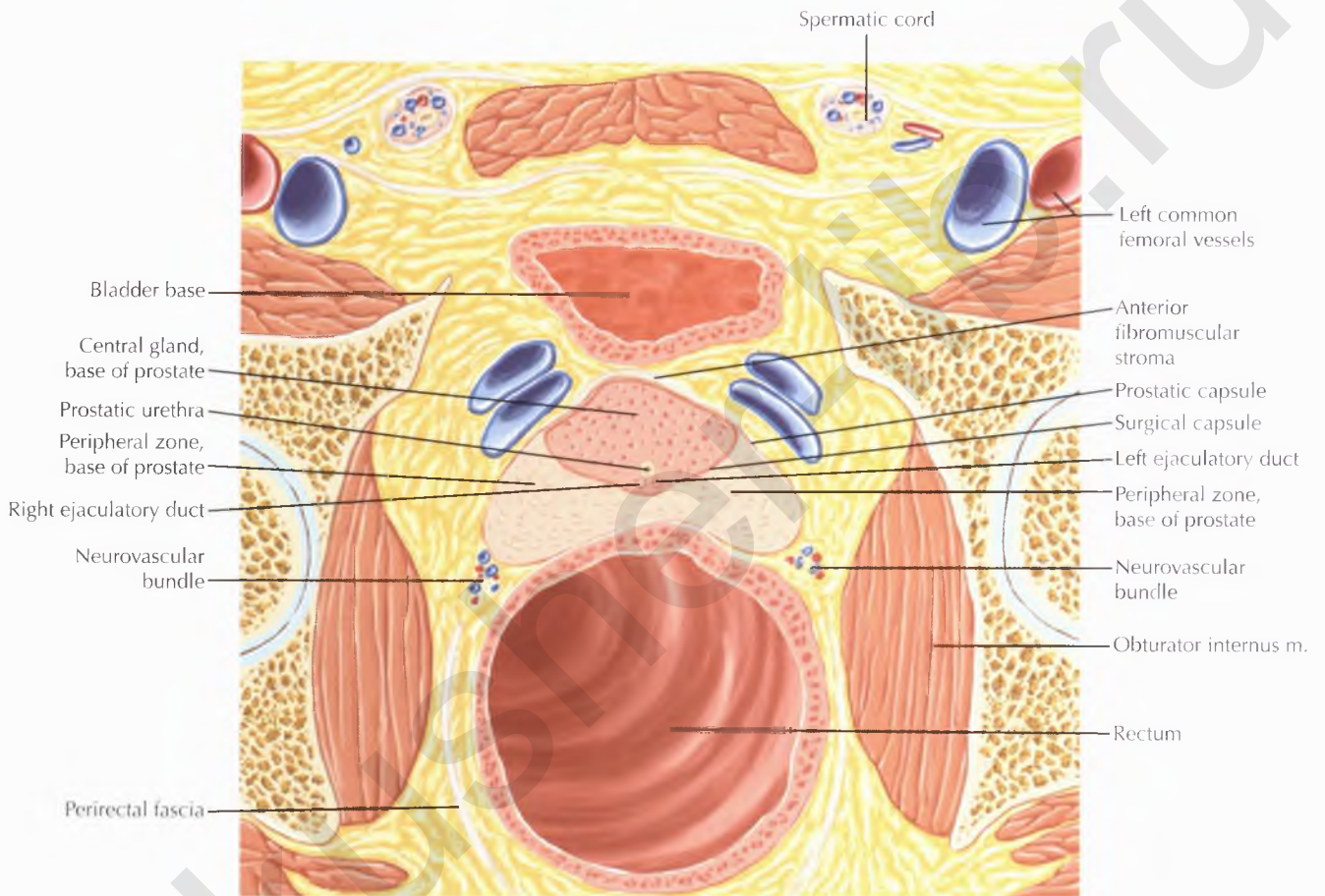


NORMAL ANATOMY

The prostate gland is separated into a peripheral zone, central zone, and transitional zone, which constitute approximately 70%, 25%, and 5% of the prostate gland, respectively. The central and transitional zones are not well delineated on MRI and are collectively referred to as the *central gland*. Differentiation between the central gland and peripheral zone of the prostate is best appreciated on T2-weighted images, which reveal the posteriorly located, homogeneous, high signal intensity peripheral zone containing thin, linear, low signal intensity fibrous septa, in contrast to the anteriorly located, more heterogeneous, low intermediate signal intensity central gland.

PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT AXIAL 6

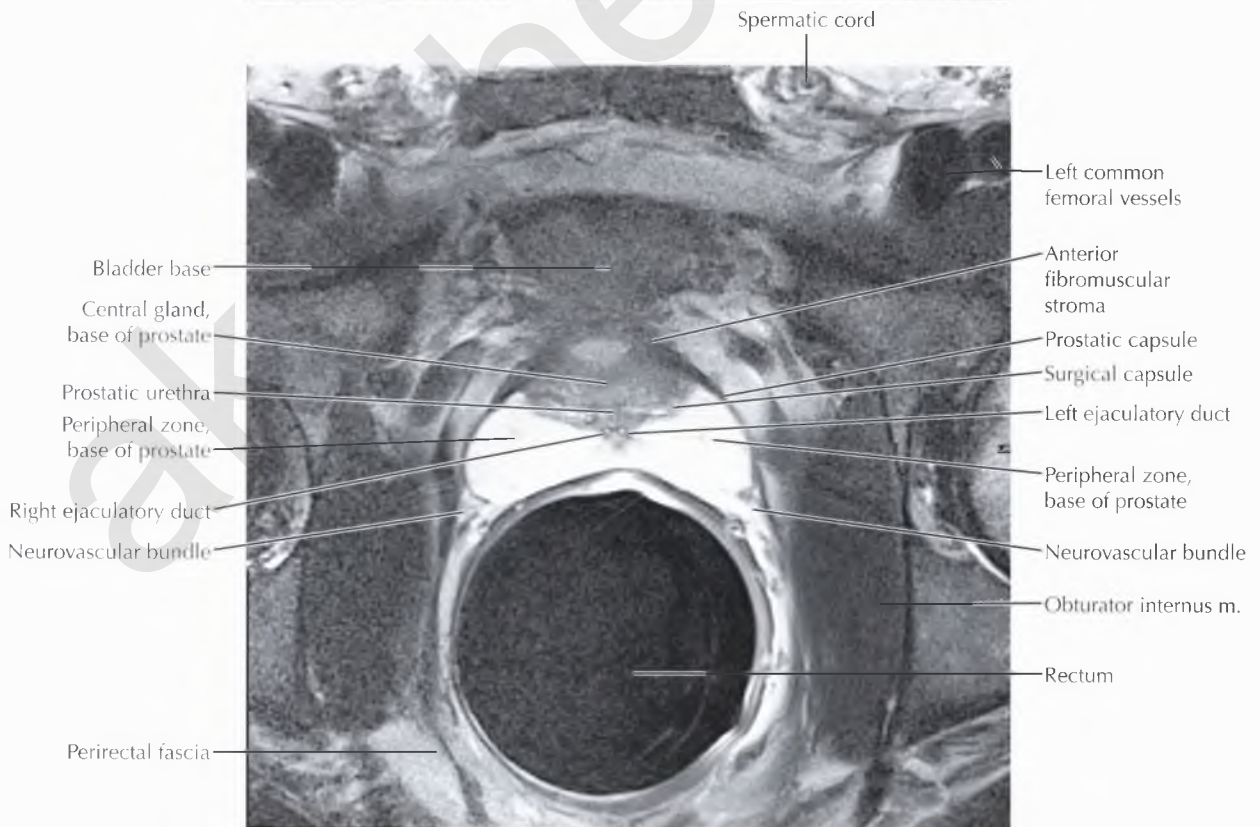
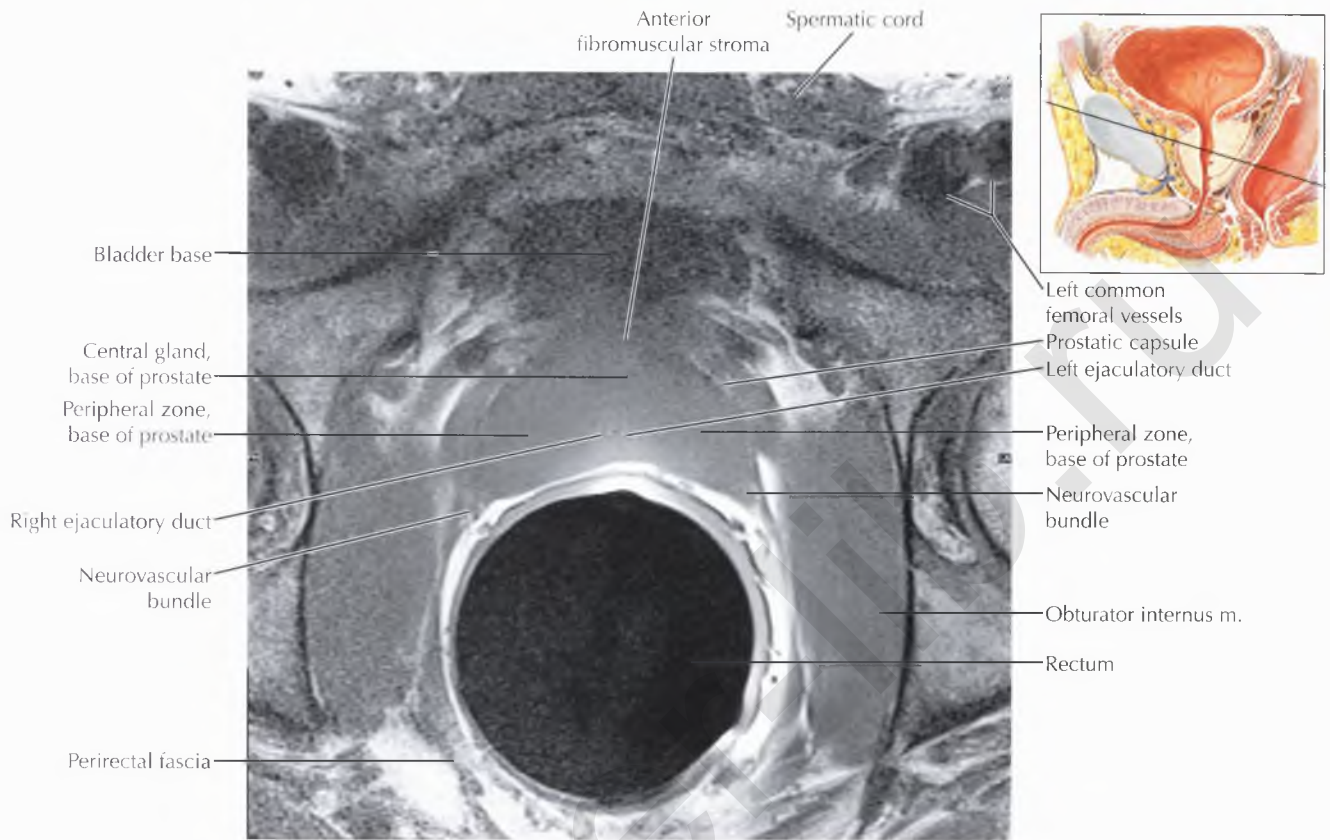


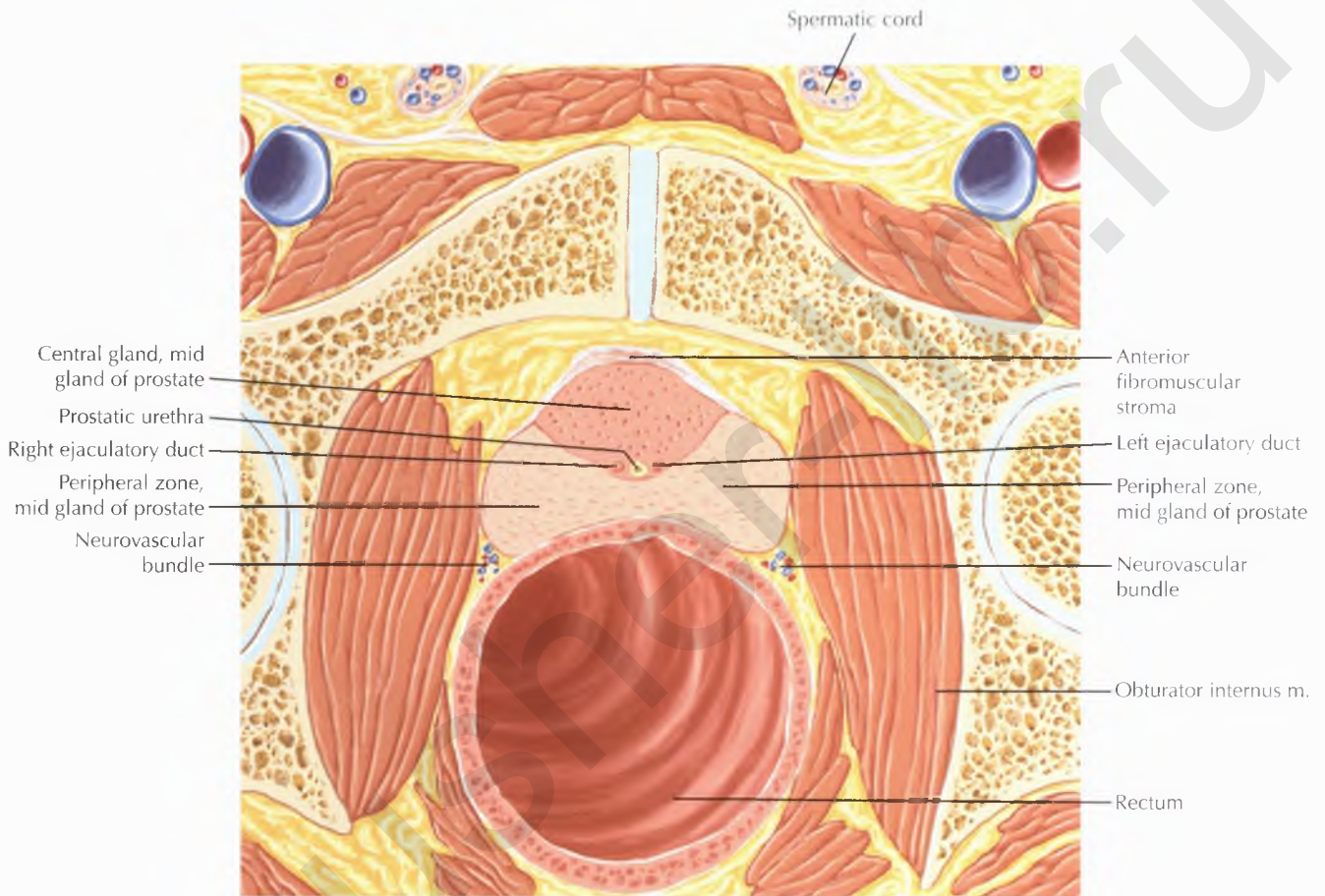


NORMAL ANATOMY

The anterior fibromuscular stroma is a thick layer of nonglandular, low signal intensity tissue that forms the anterior surface of the prostate gland.

PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT AXIAL 7

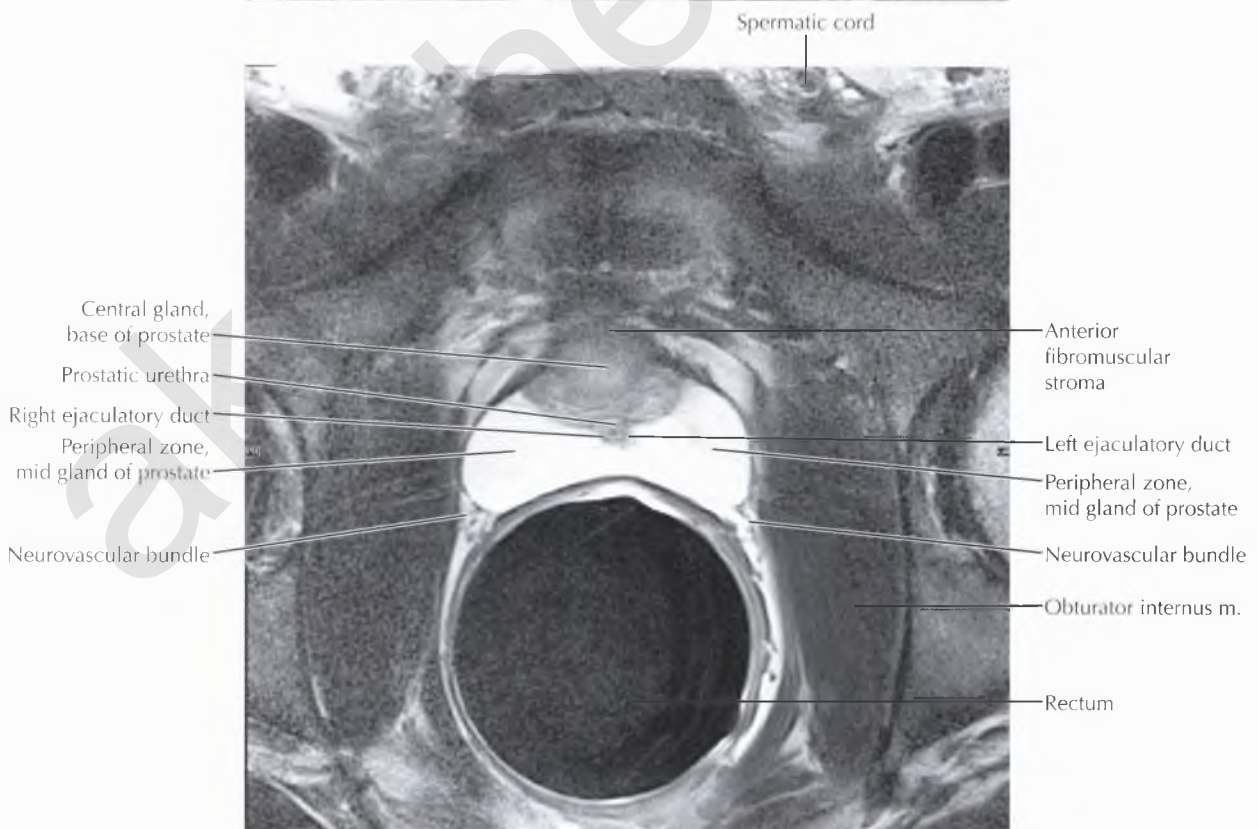
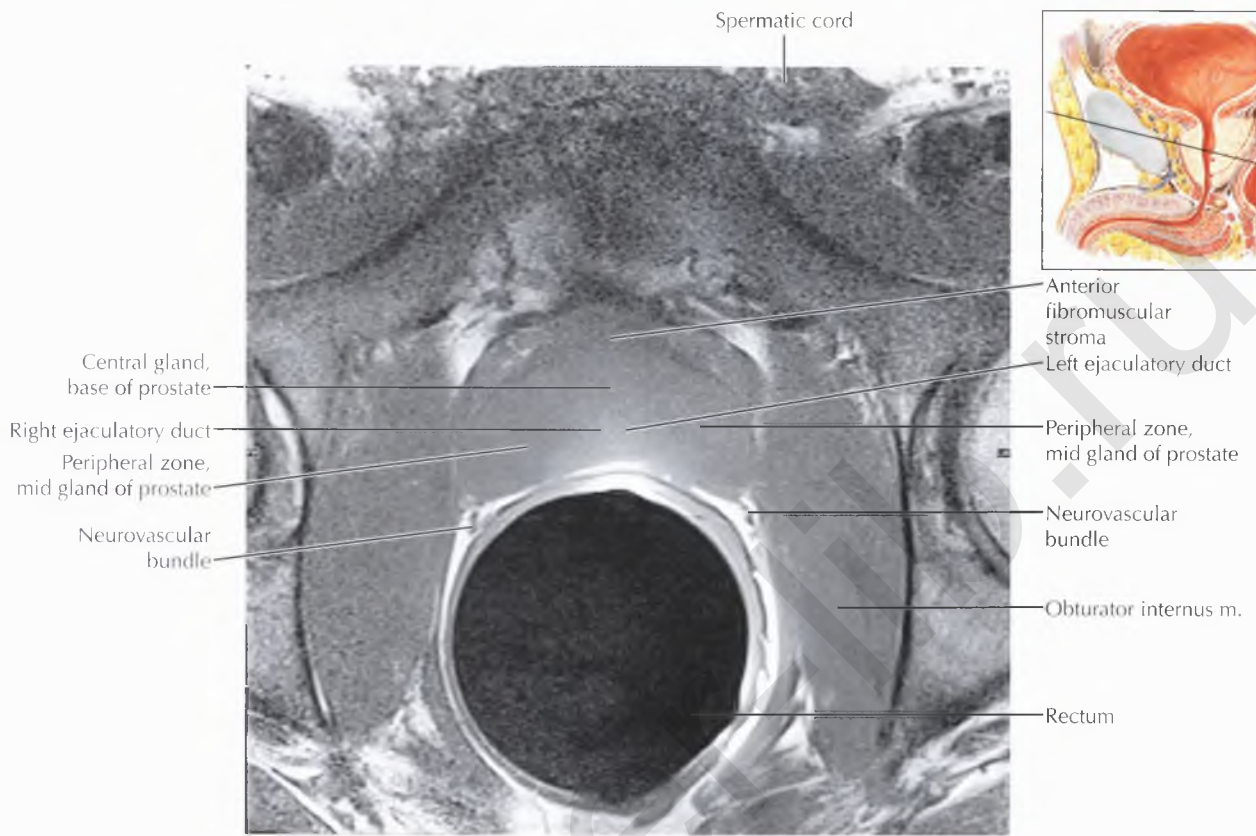


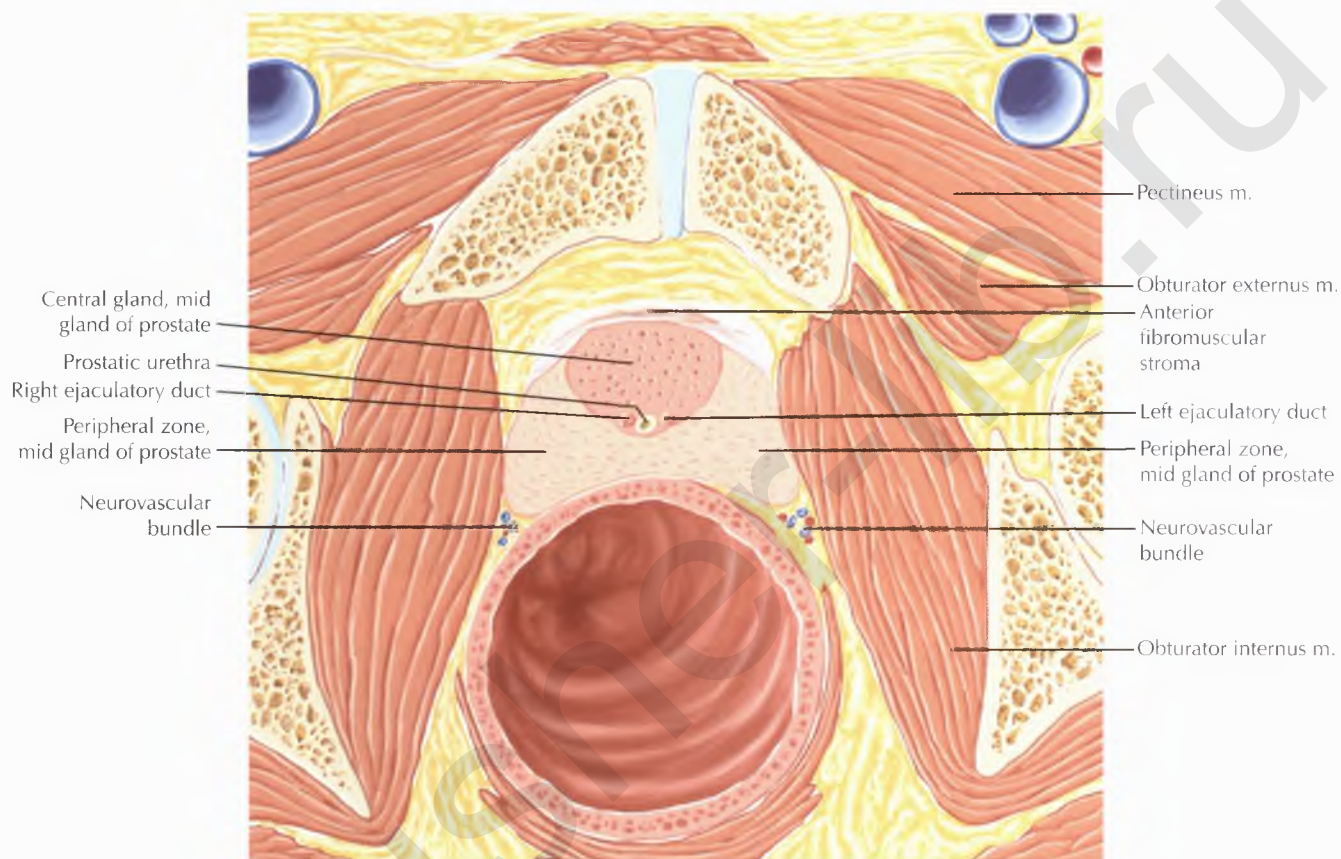


NORMAL ANATOMY

The paired neurovascular bundles are tubular structures located within the peri-prostatic fat posterolateral to the prostate gland at the 5-o'clock and 7-o'clock positions. These bundles carry *nerves*, which are low in signal intensity on T1- and T2-weighted MR images, and *vessels*, which are typically high in signal intensity because of the slow flow in veins. These nerves and vessels supply the corpora cavernosa and are critical for maintaining erectile function.

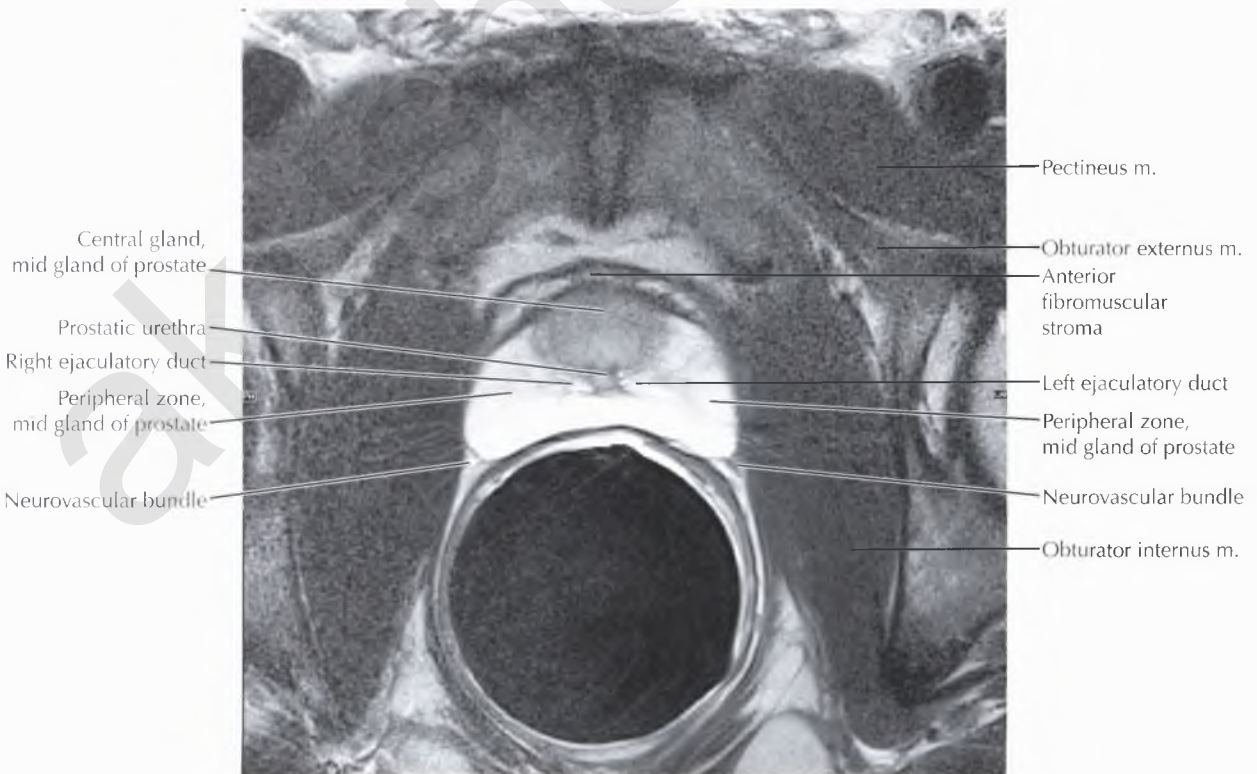
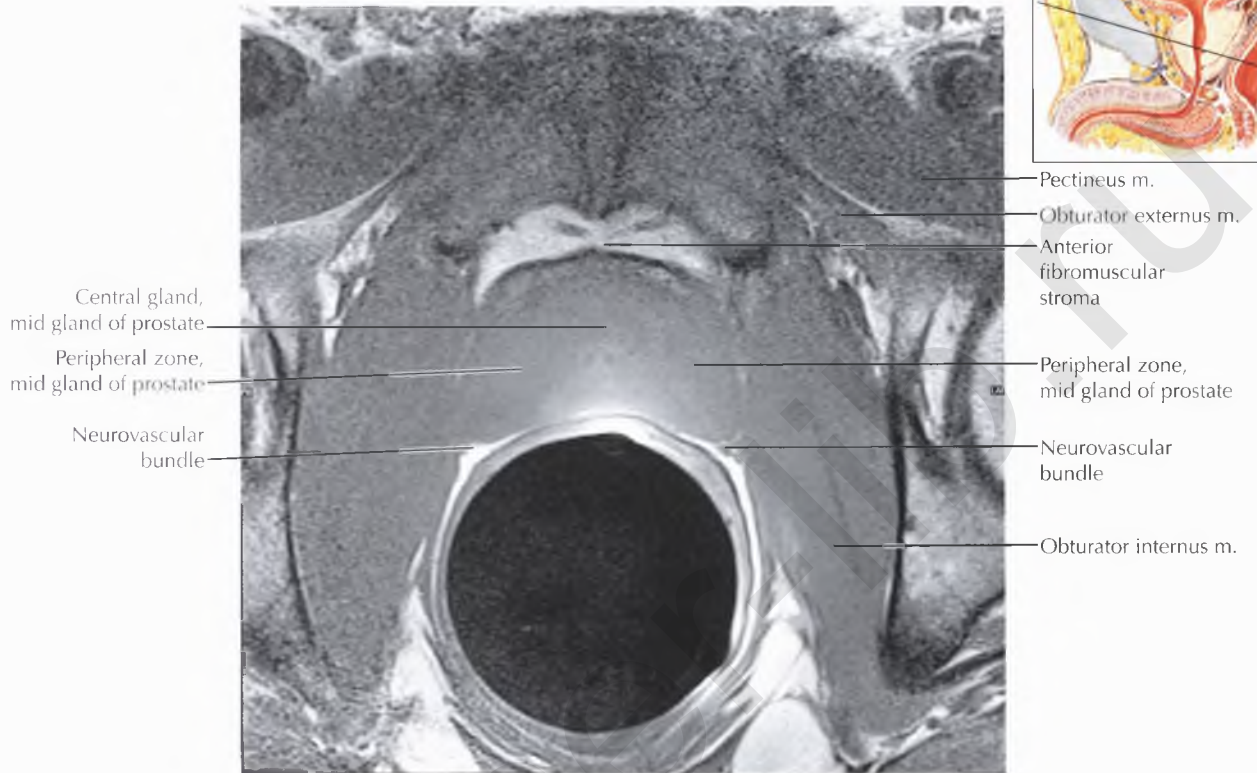
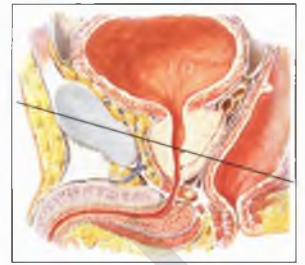
PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT AXIAL 8

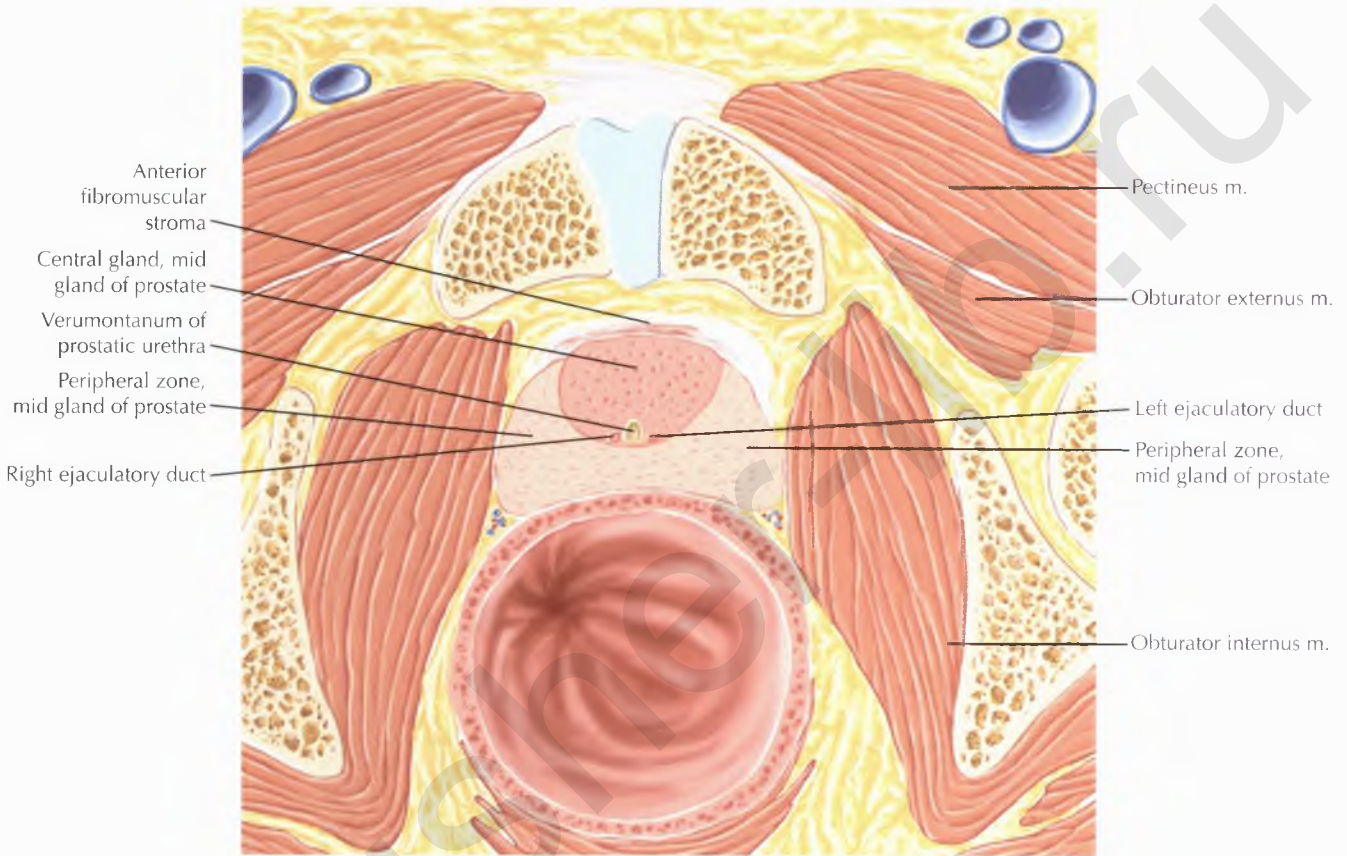




DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

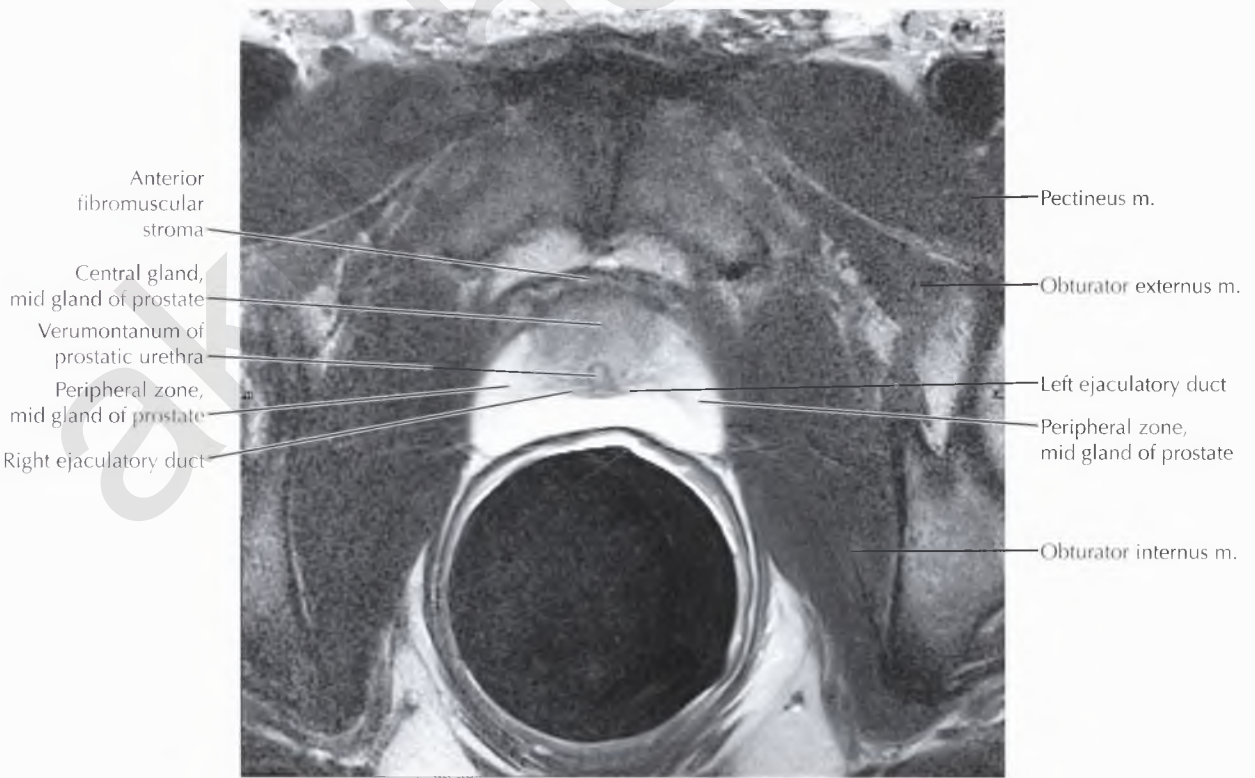
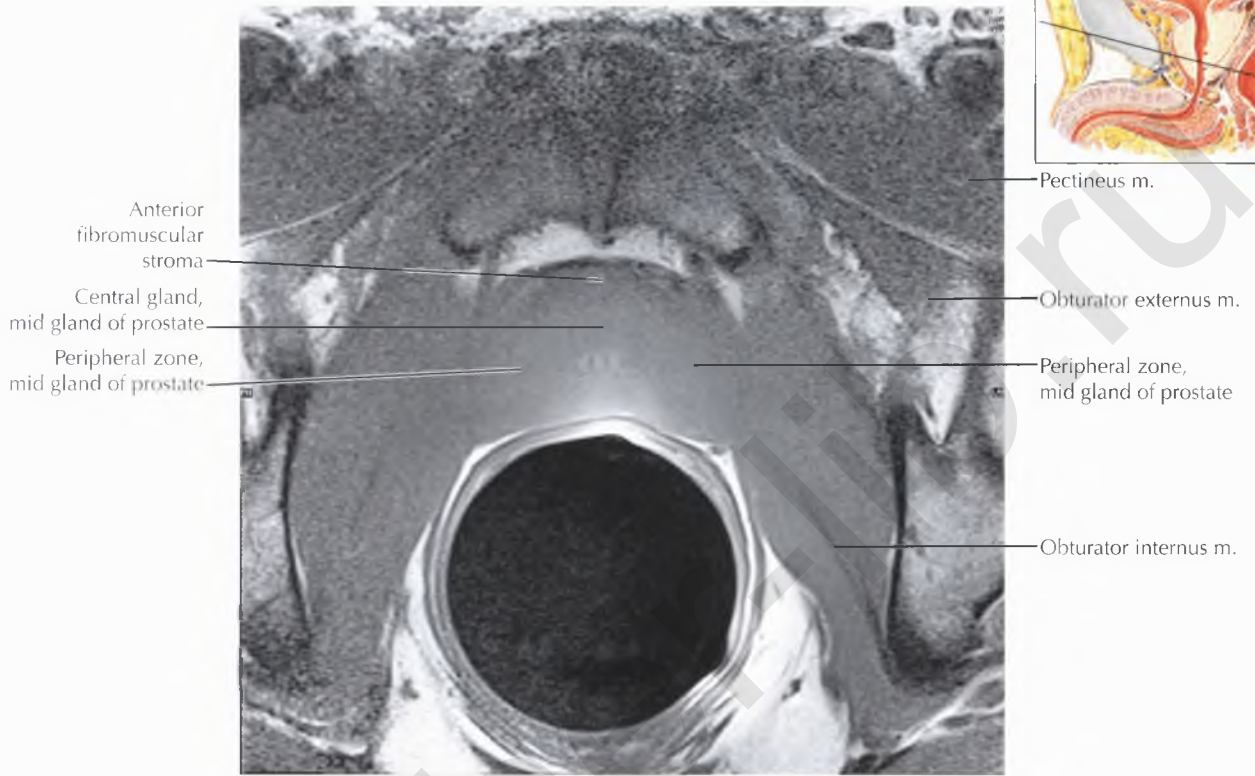
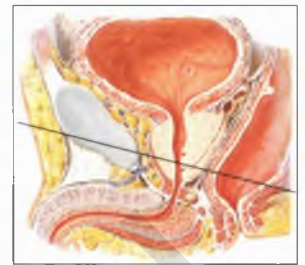
The most common indication for endorectal coil MRI of the prostate gland is to evaluate for extracapsular extension of known prostate cancer. Findings of extraprostatic spread of tumor include obliteration of the rectoprostatic angle, bulging or irregularity of the true prostatic capsule, asymmetry of a neurovascular bundle, soft tissue within the peri-prostatic fat contiguous with the prostate gland, infiltration of Denonvilliers' fascia, and direct invasion of the adjacent organs (seminal vesicles, bladder, and rectum). In addition, a set of MR images with a large field of view through the pelvis is also typically acquired to evaluate for pelvic lymphadenopathy and osseous metastases.

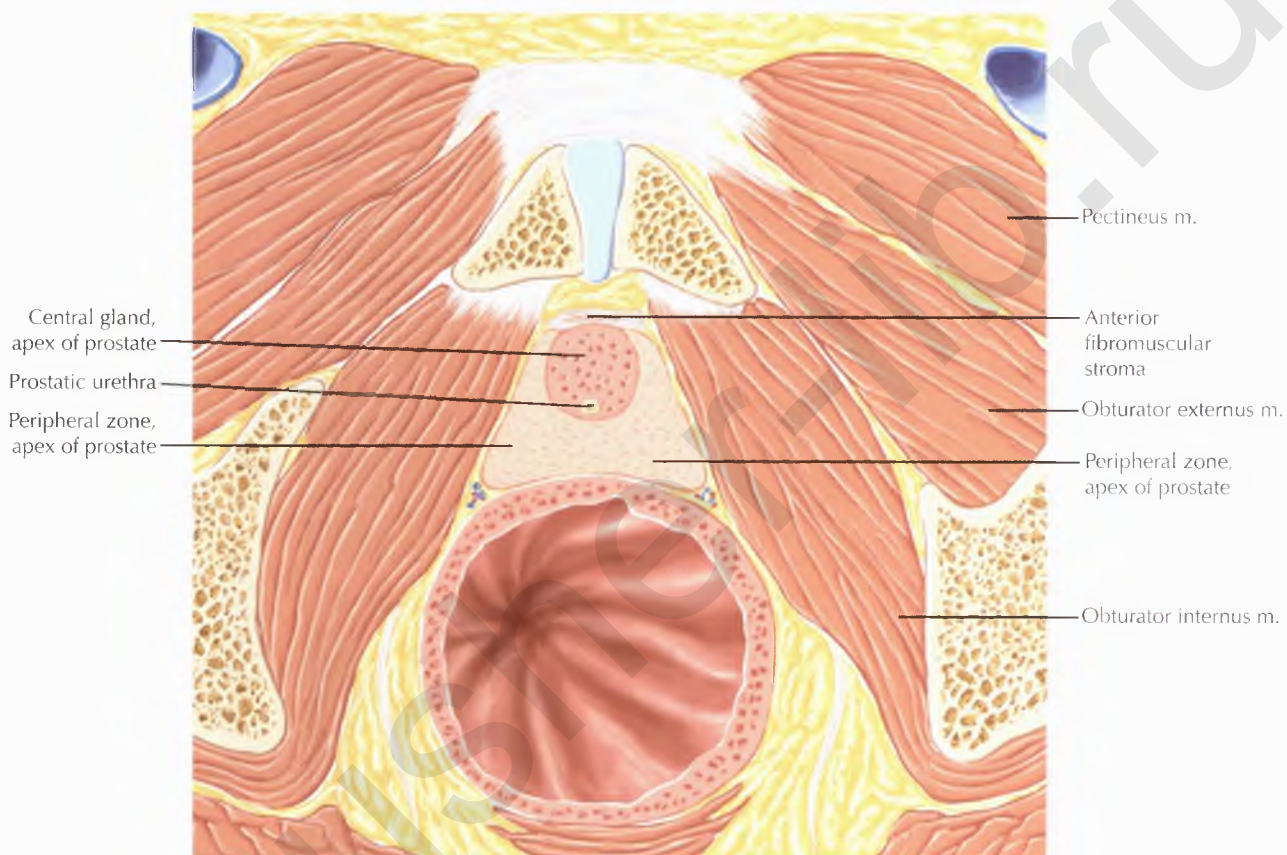




DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

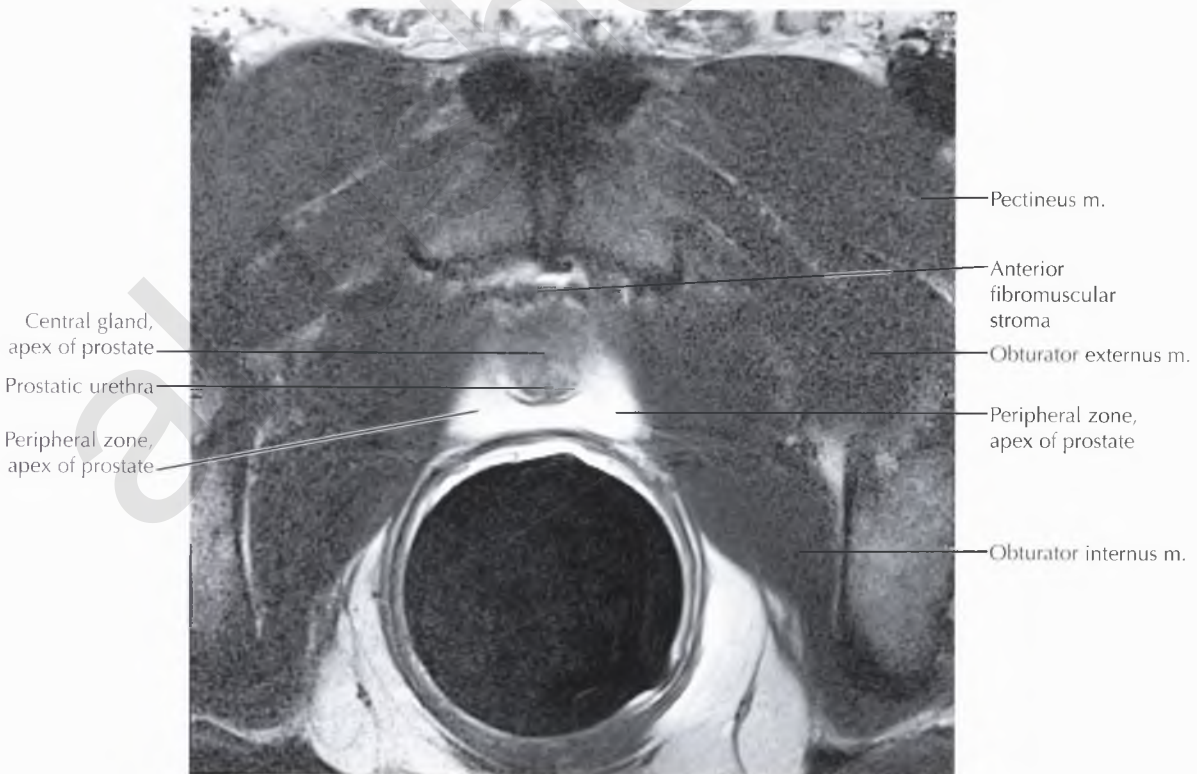
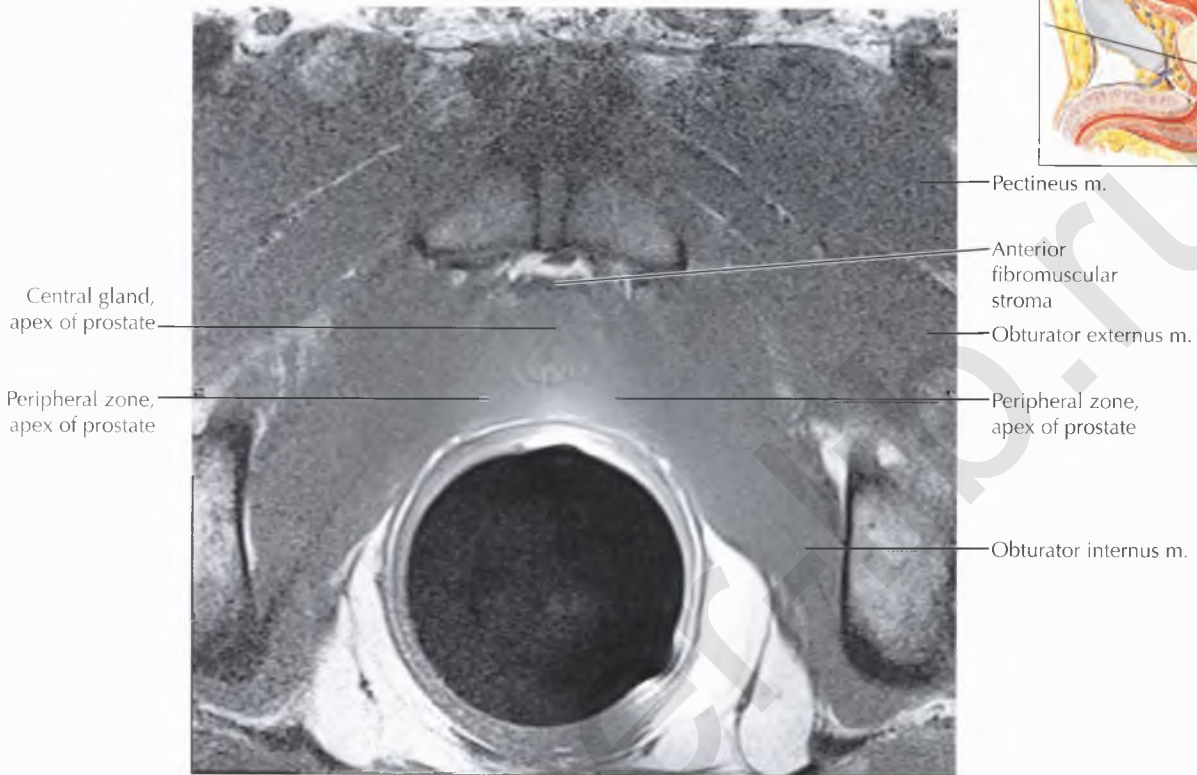
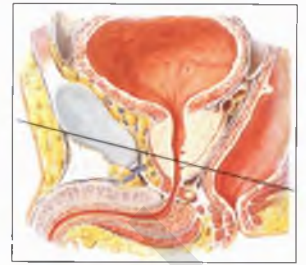
Prostate adenocarcinoma most often arises from the peripheral zone of the prostate (70%), with 20% from the transitional zone and 10% from the central zone. On MRI, prostate carcinoma is typically intermediate in signal intensity on T1-weighted images and low in signal intensity on T2-weighted images, relative to the peripheral zone. Because MR studies of the prostate are often performed within a few weeks after a prostate biopsy, the presence of postbiopsy hemorrhage in the prostate parenchyma can make the tumor more apparent on T1-weighted images. Look for a T1-hypointense (and T2-hypointense) tumor nodule within a background of T1-hyperintense subacute hemorrhage. Normal peripheral-zone tissue is low in signal intensity on T1-weighted images and high in signal intensity on T2-weighted images.

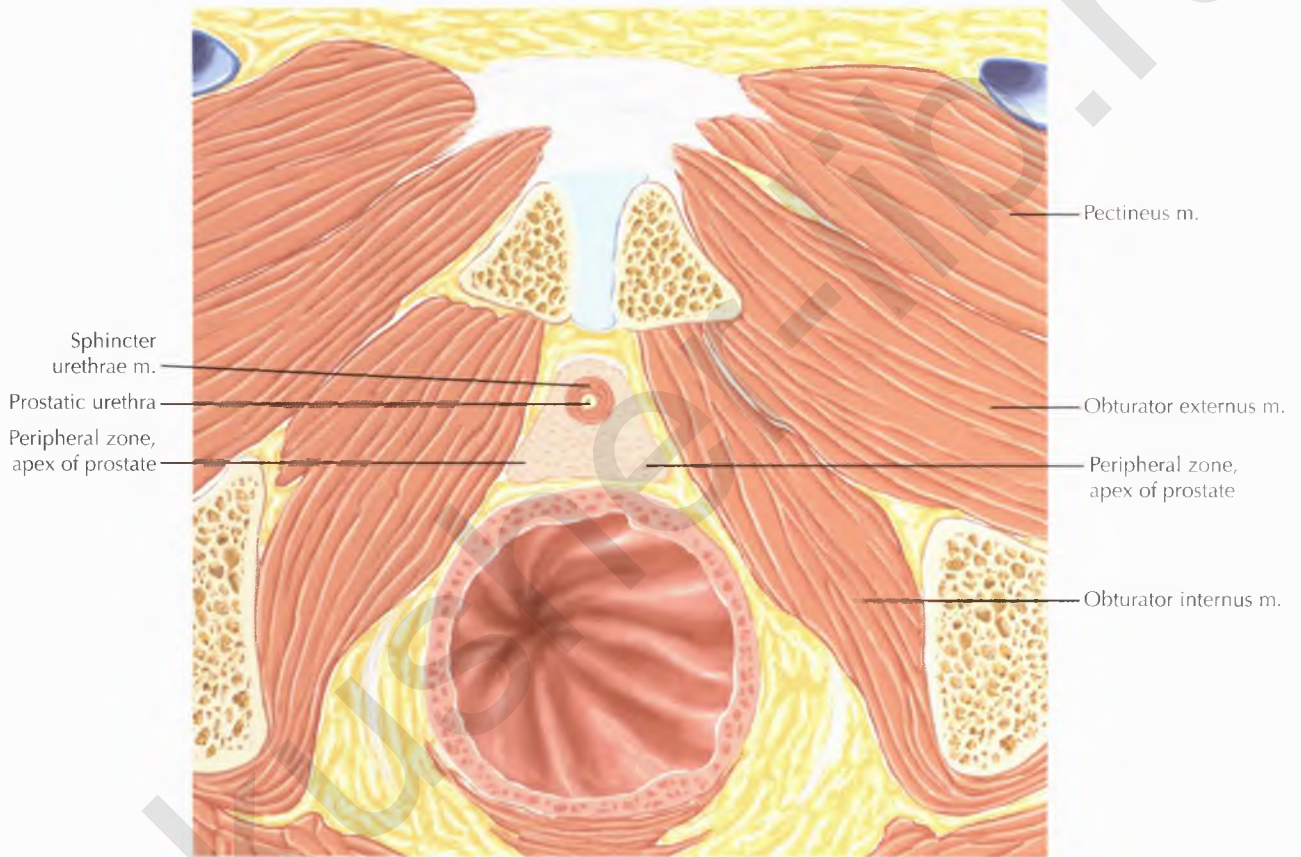


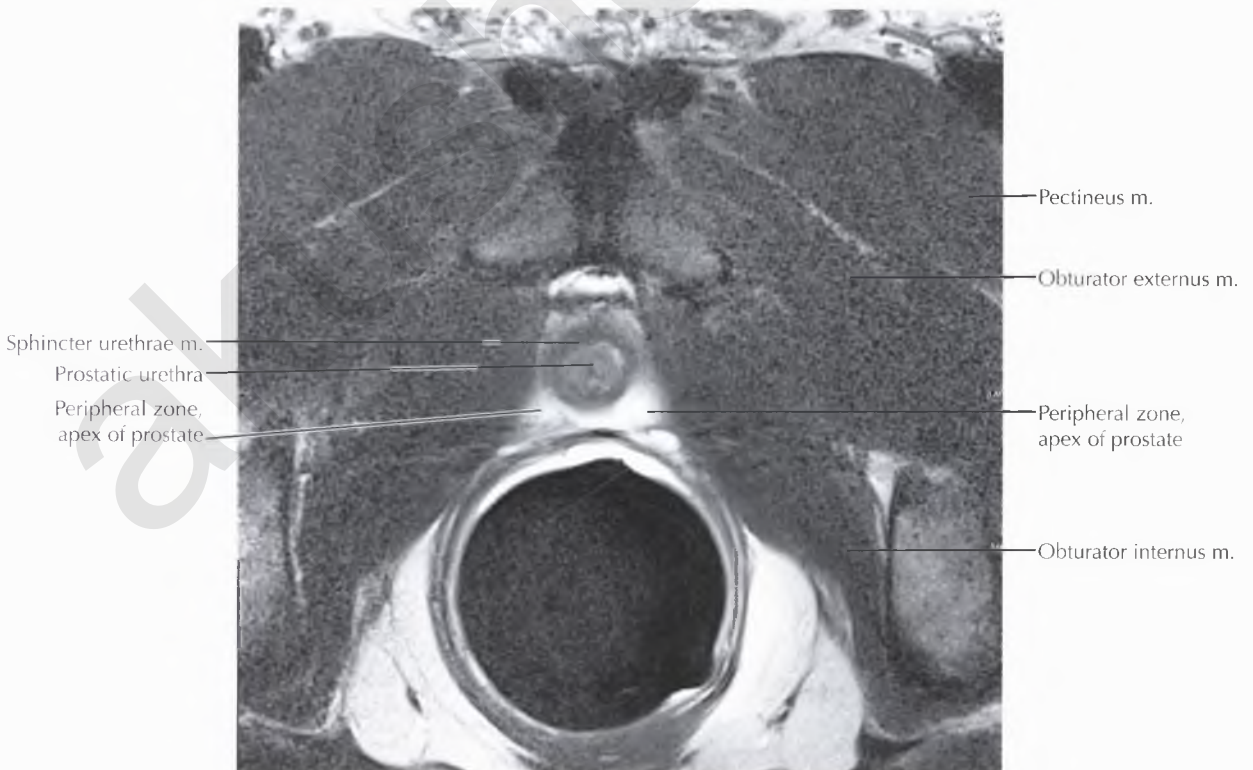
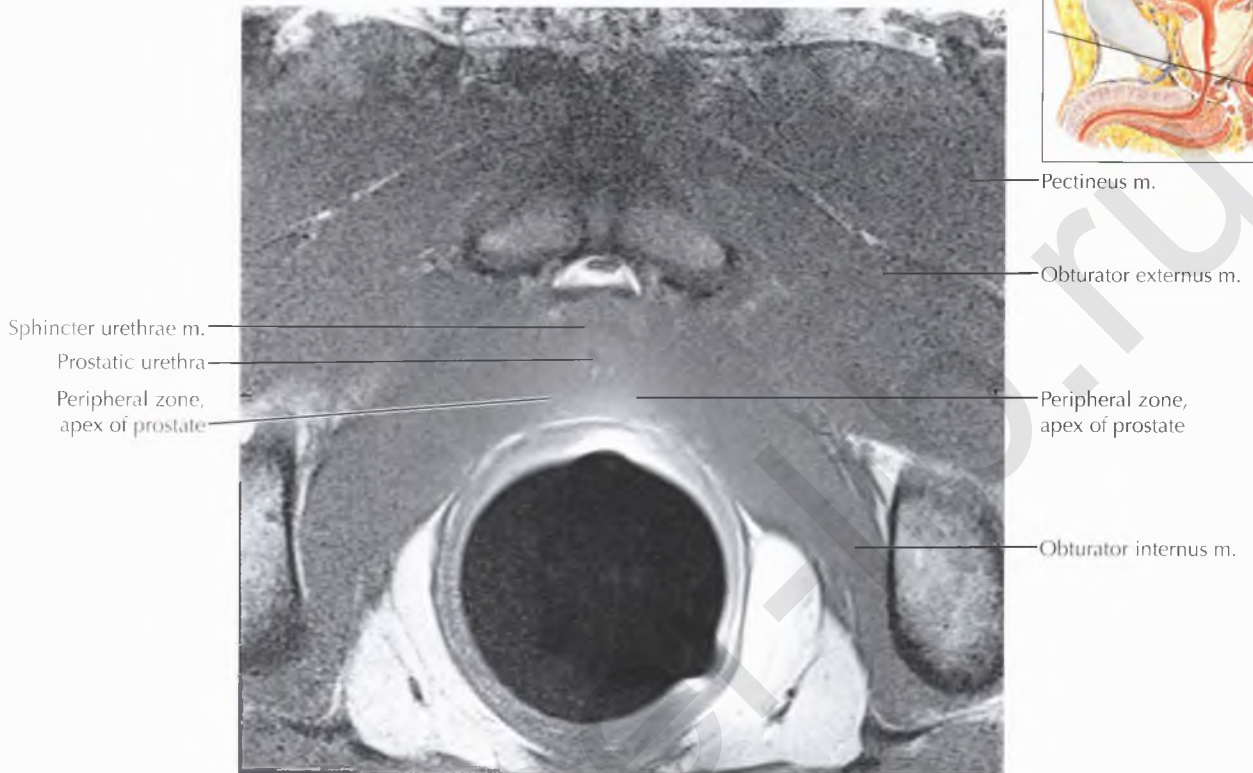
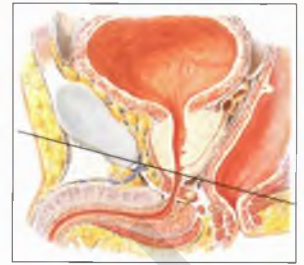


PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

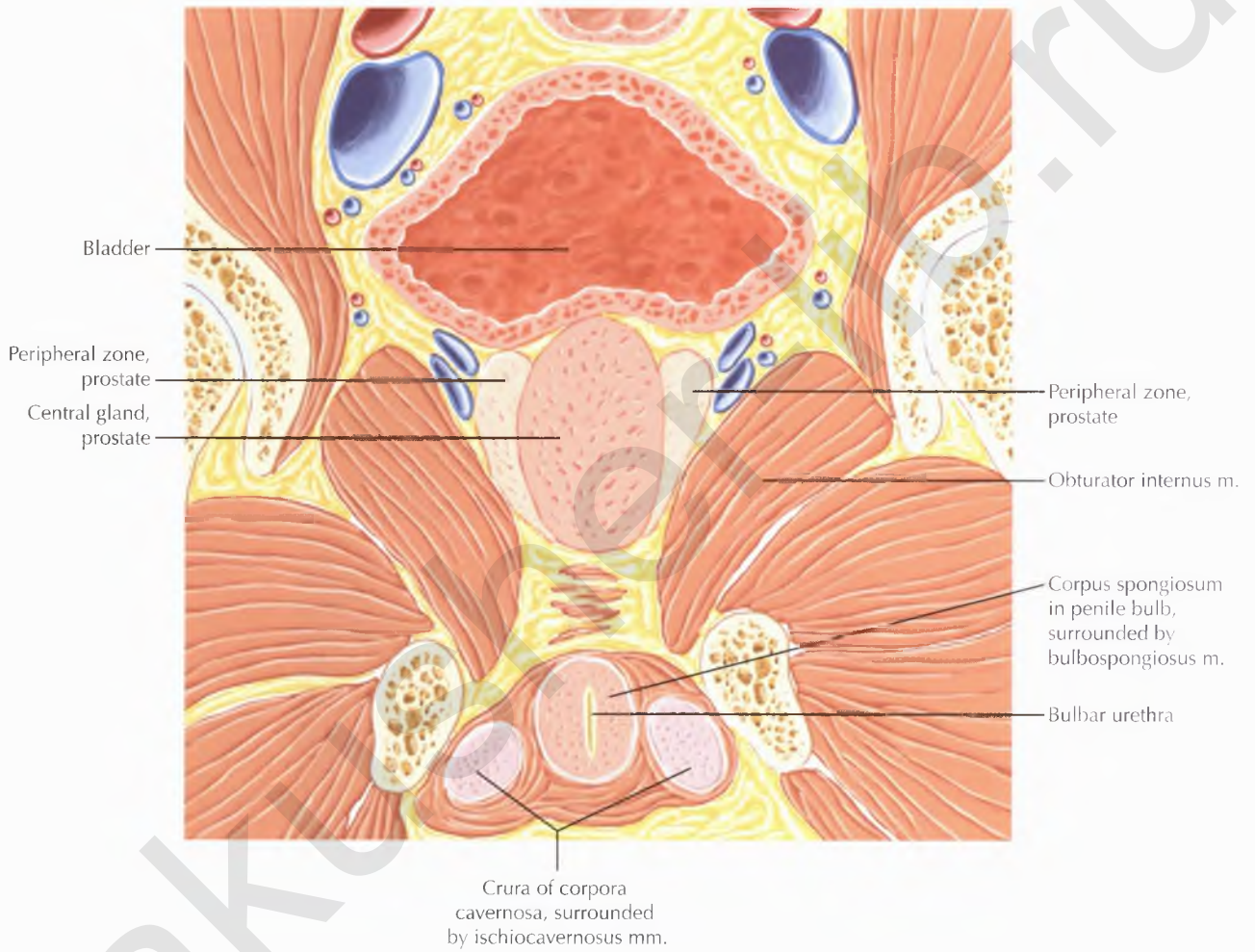
Benign prostatic hypertrophy (BPH), caused by enlargement of the transitional zone, is a common finding that increases with age. On MRI, hypertrophy of T2-hyperintense glandular-rich foci and T2-hypointense stromal-dominant foci within the central gland create a heterogeneous nodular appearance on T2-weighted images.

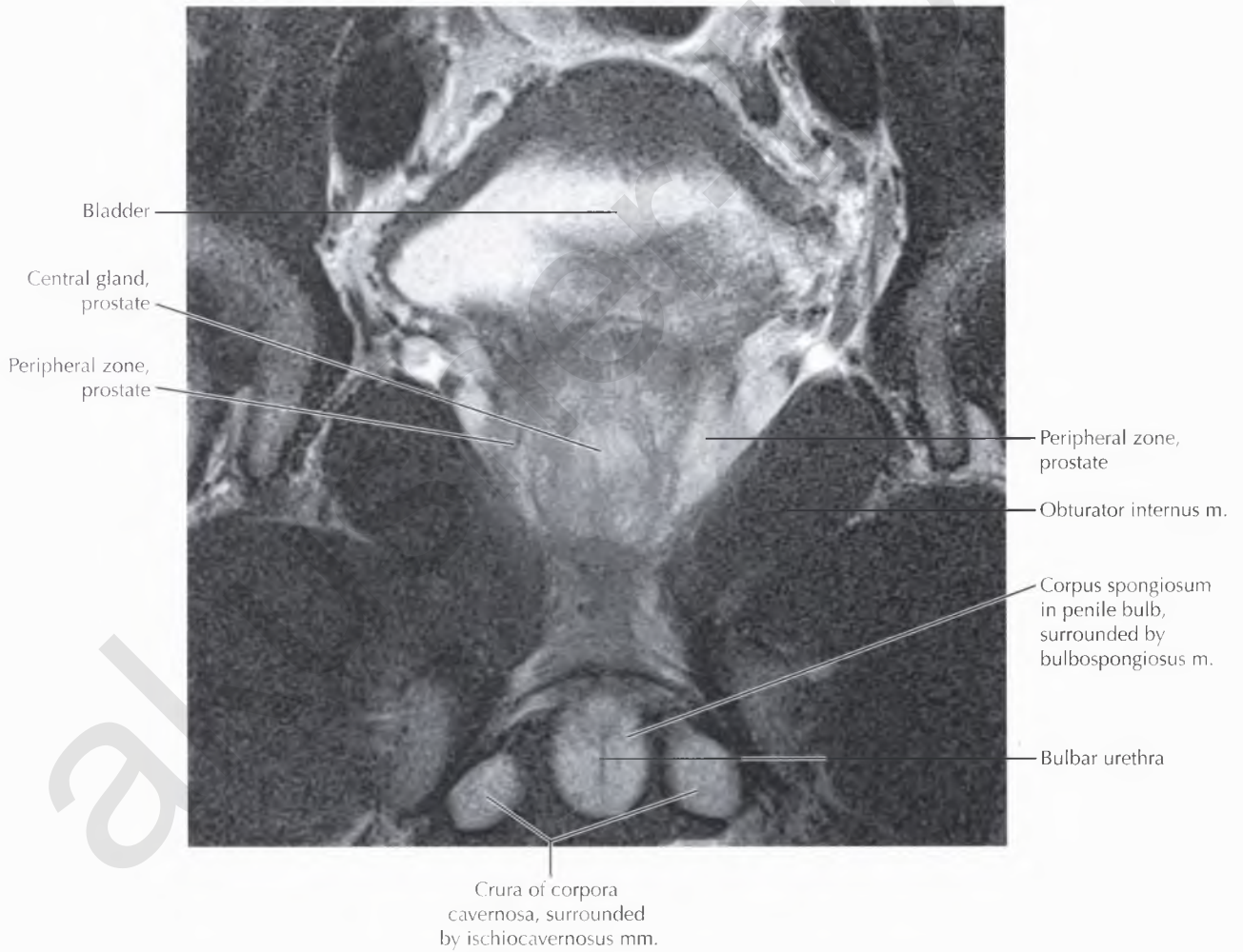


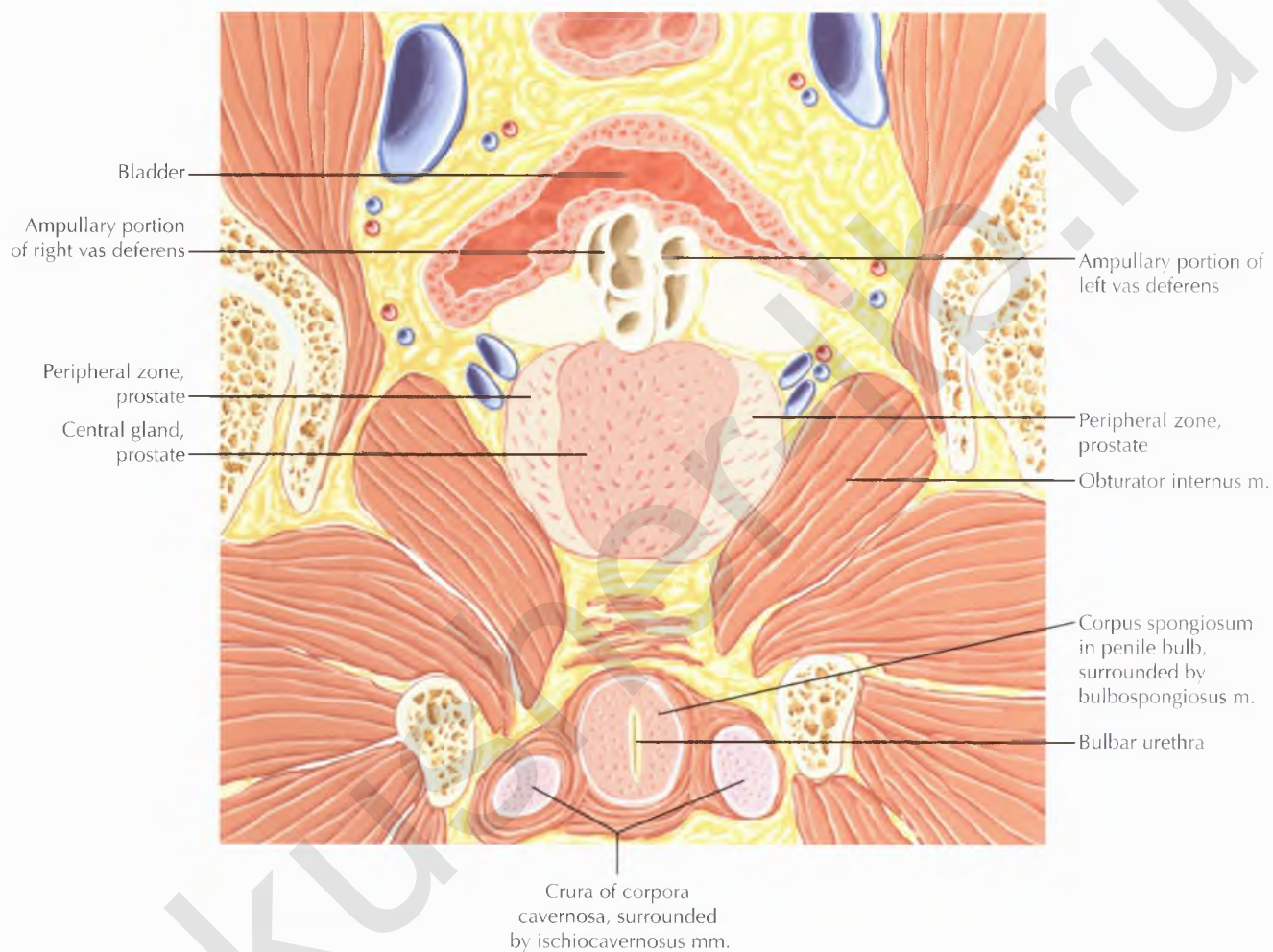




PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT CORONAL 1

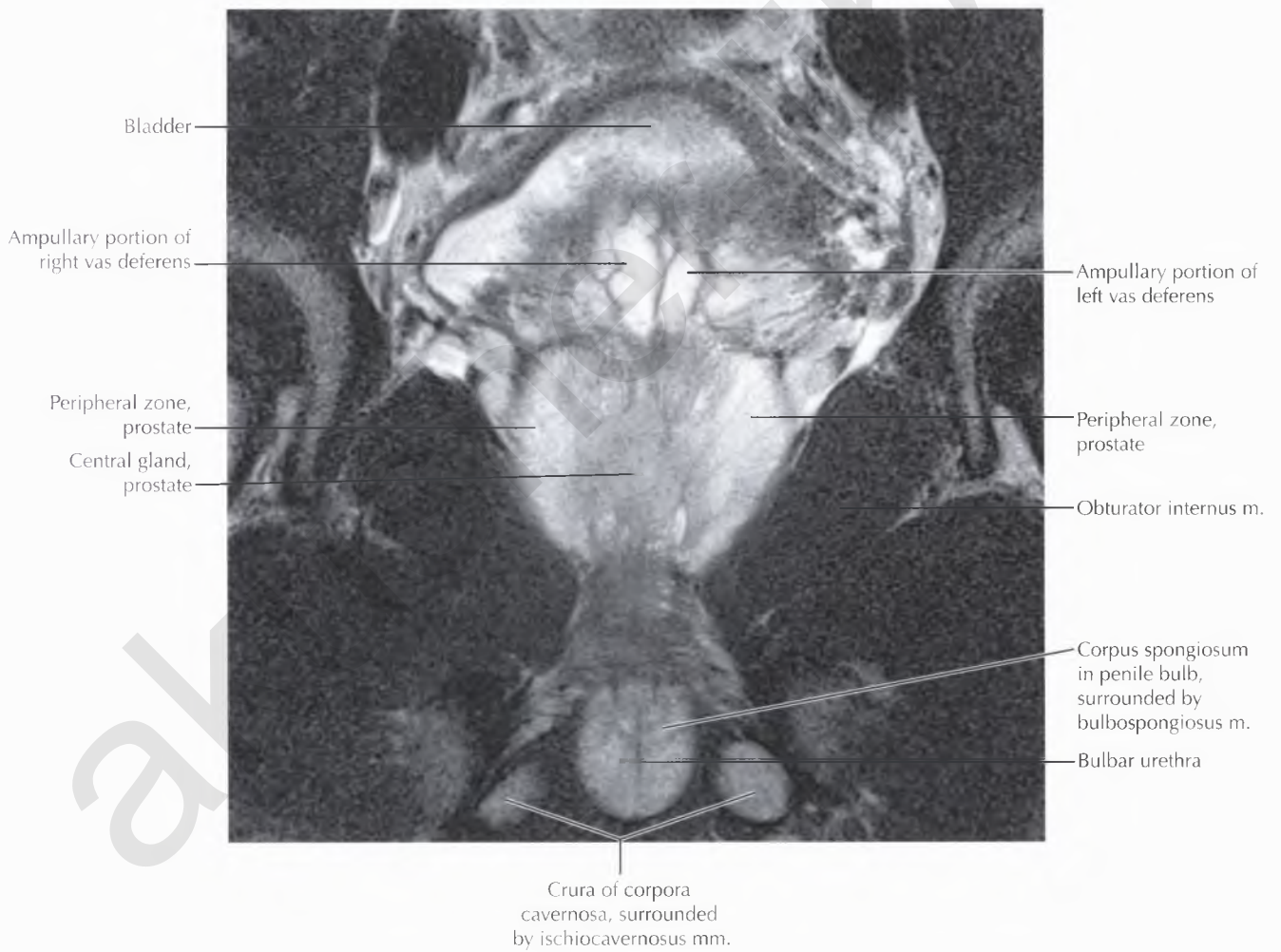
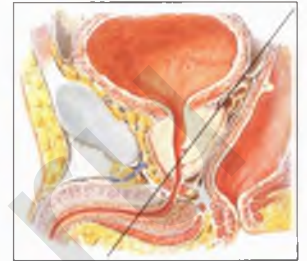


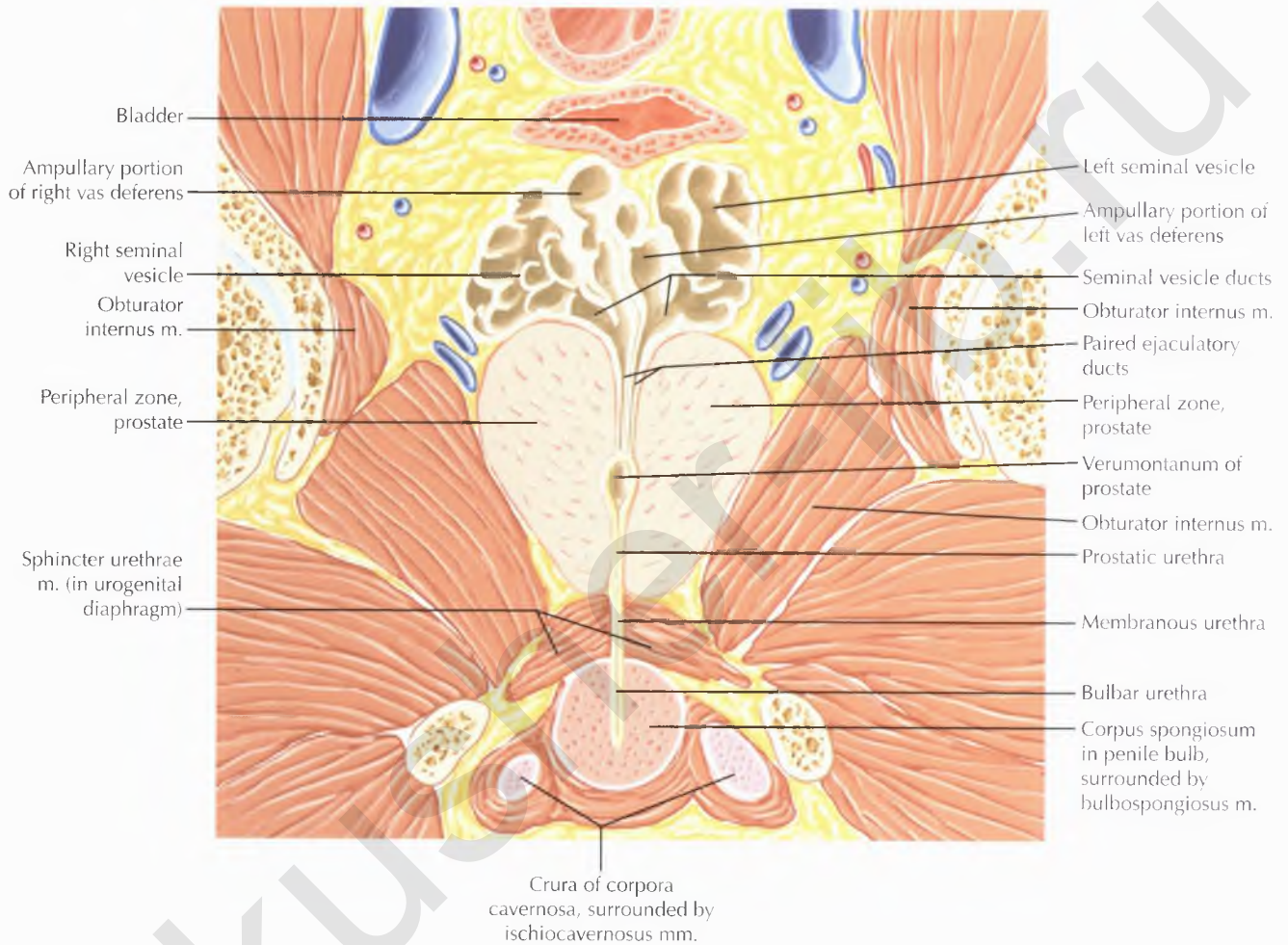




NORMAL ANATOMY

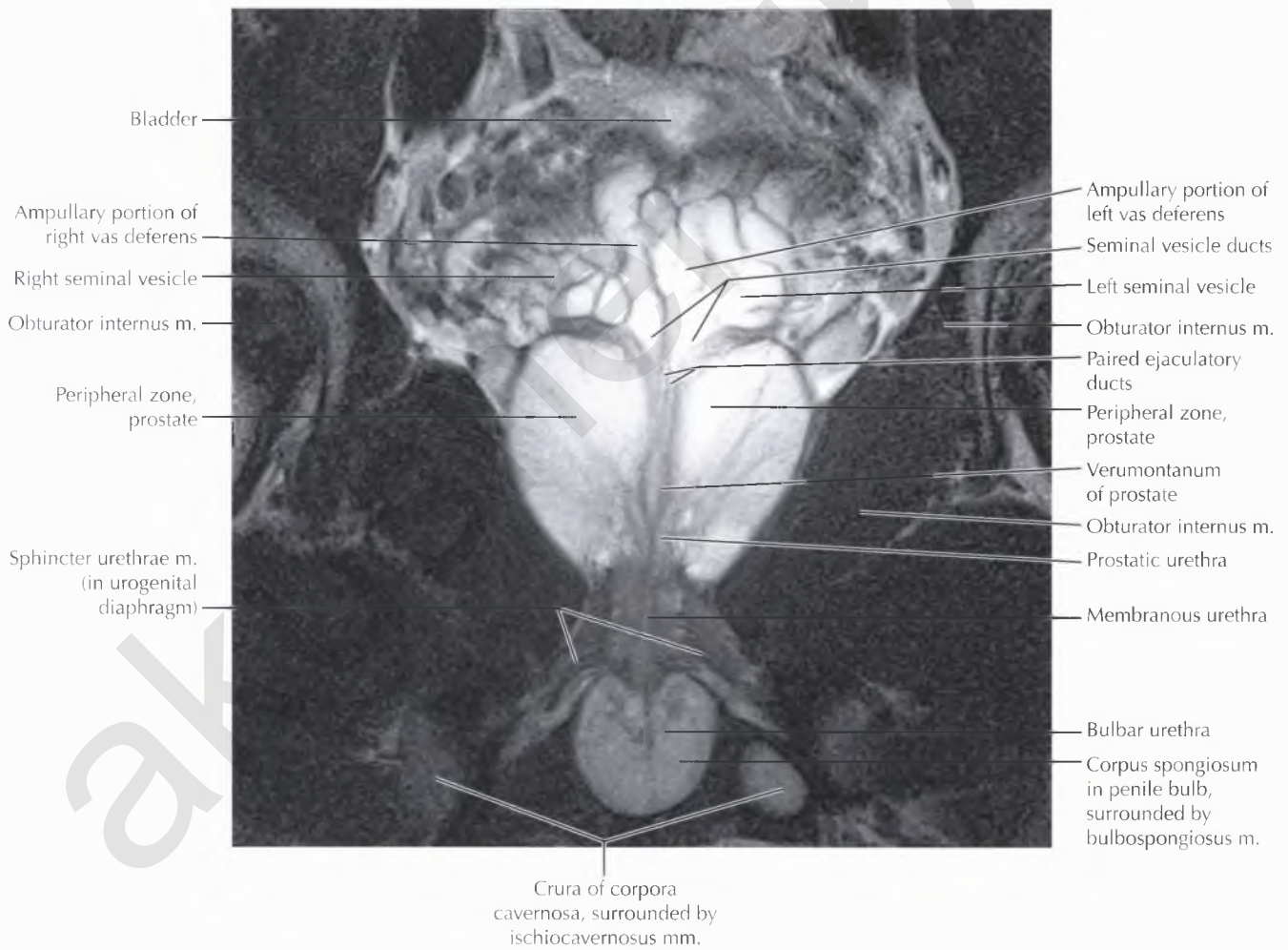
The thick-walled ampullary portion of each vas deferens is located medial and superior to the associated ipsilateral seminal vesicle.

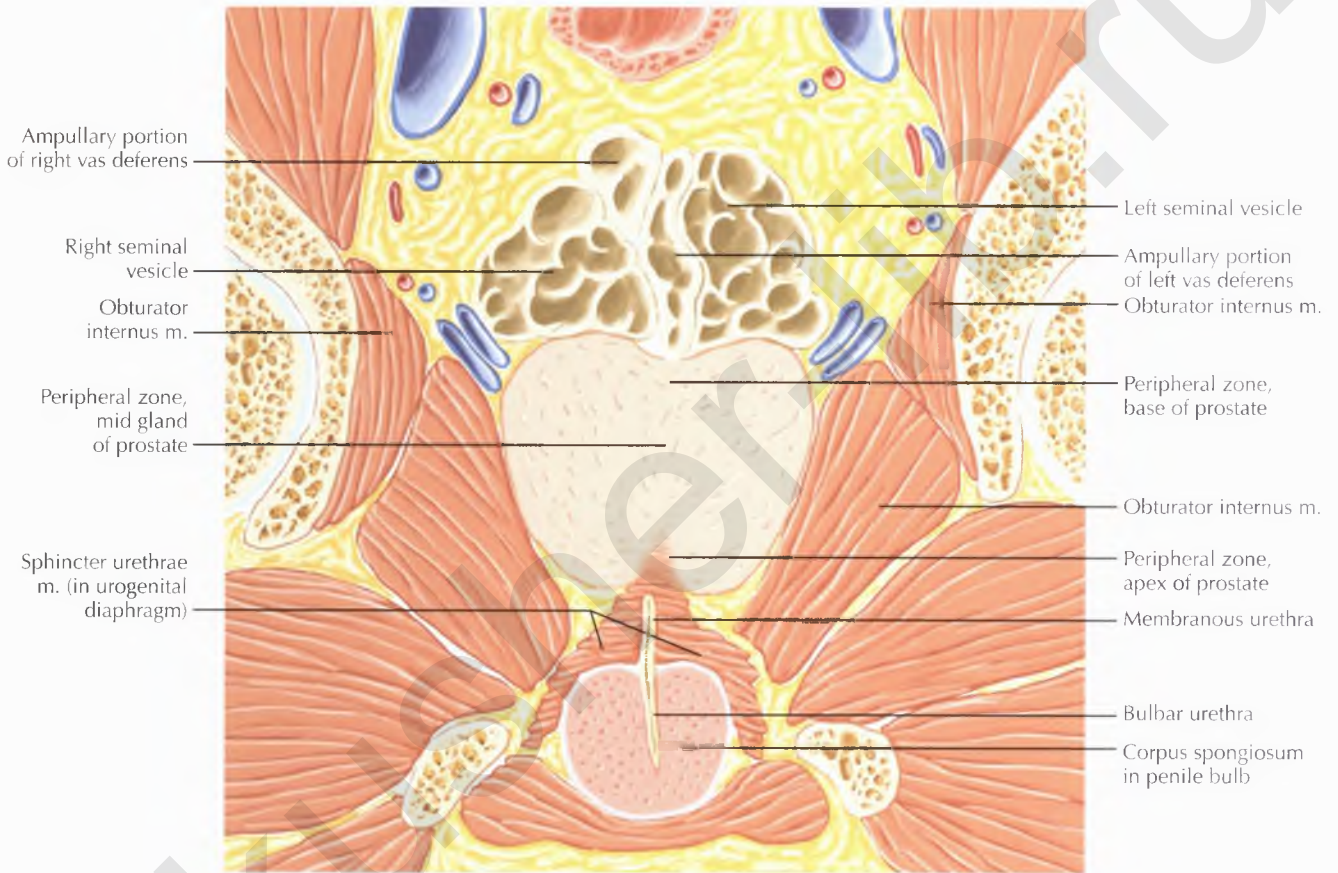




NORMAL ANATOMY

The prostatic, membranous, and bulbar segments of the male urethra are shown at this level. The paired ejaculatory ducts are also seen to traverse the prostate gland and drain into the prostatic urethra on either side of the verumontanum. The membranous urethra is surrounded by the sphincter urethrae muscle in the urogenital diaphragm.

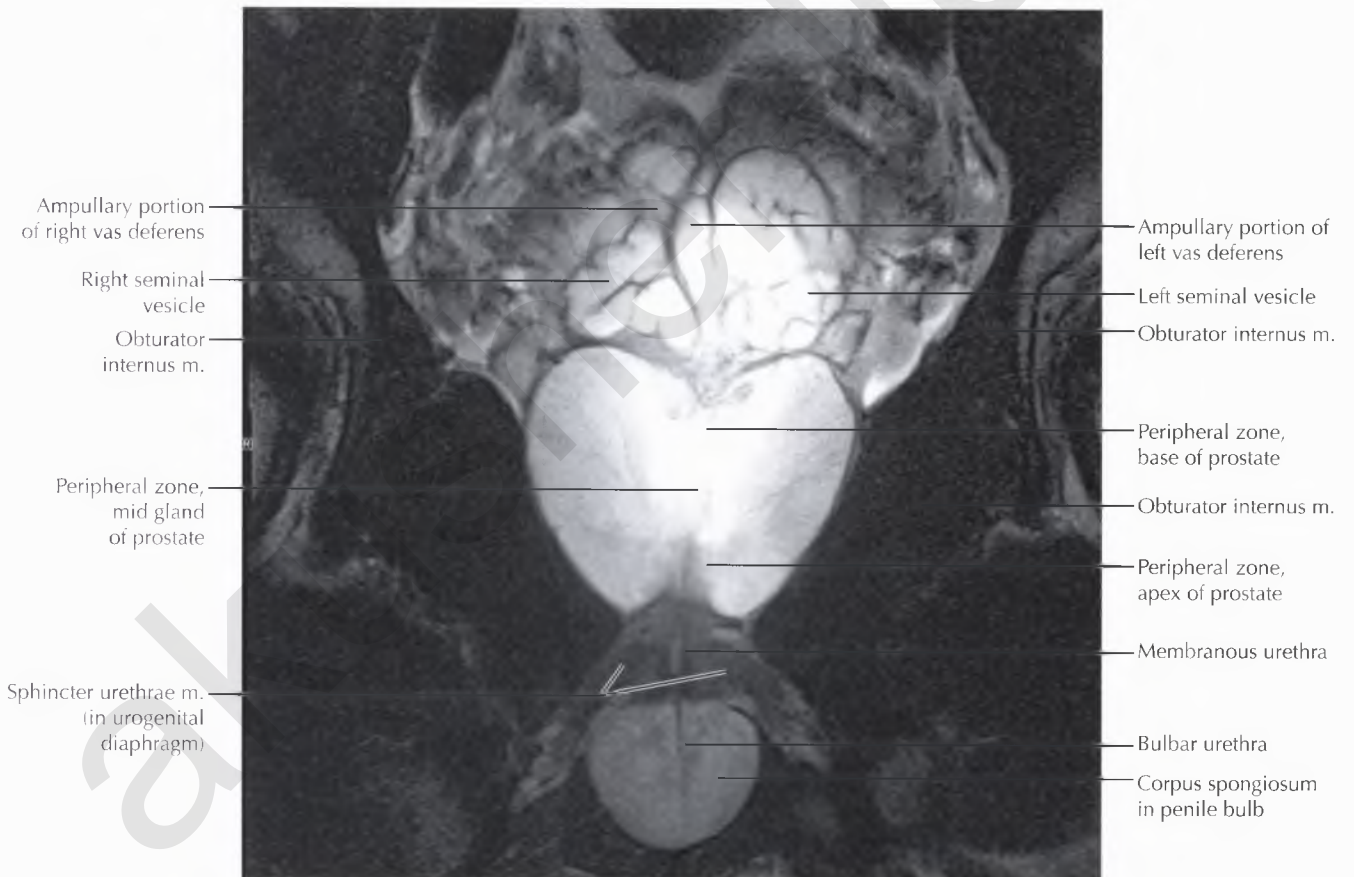
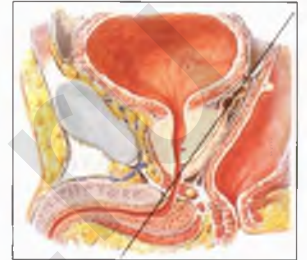




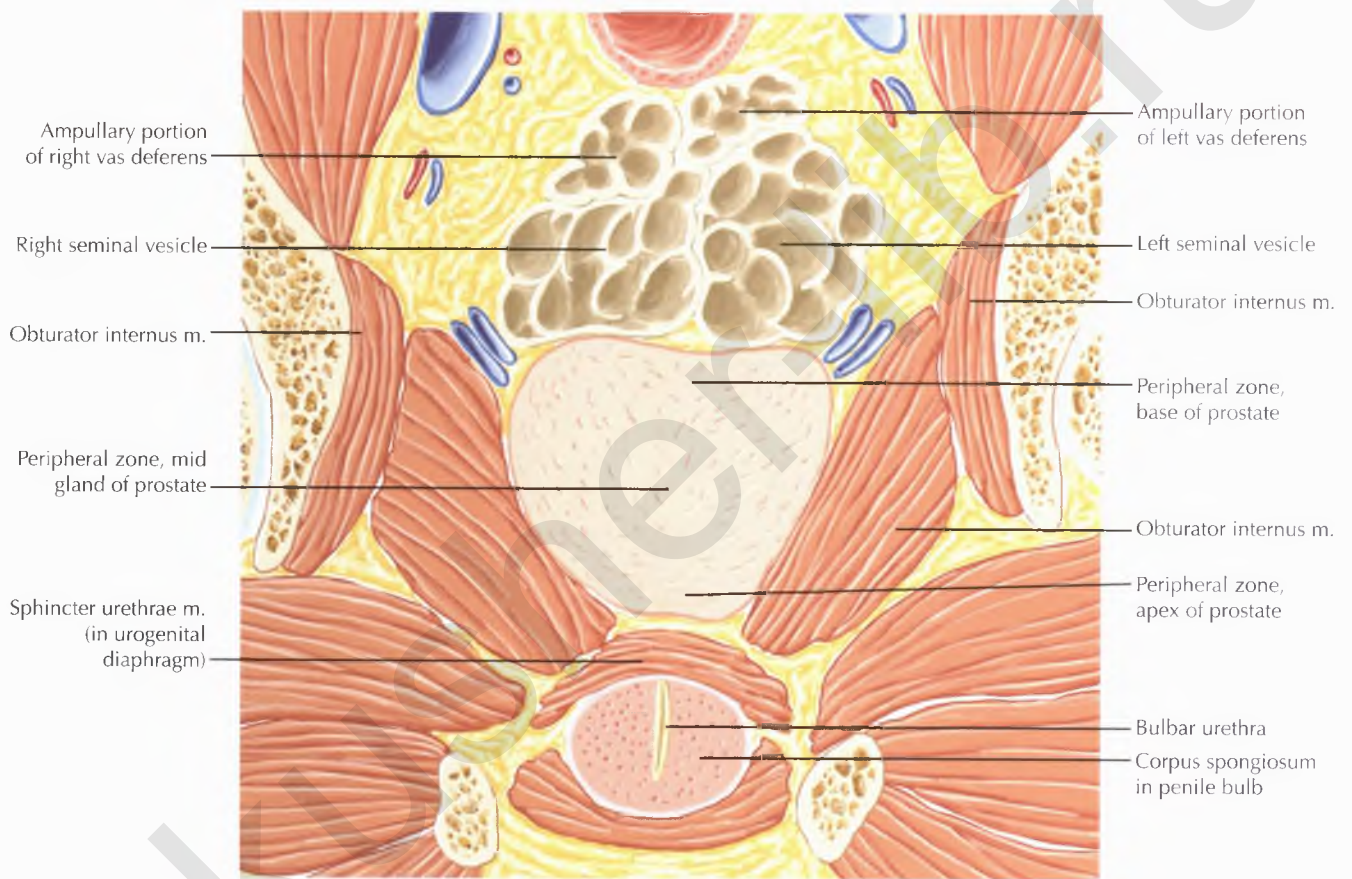
NORMAL ANATOMY

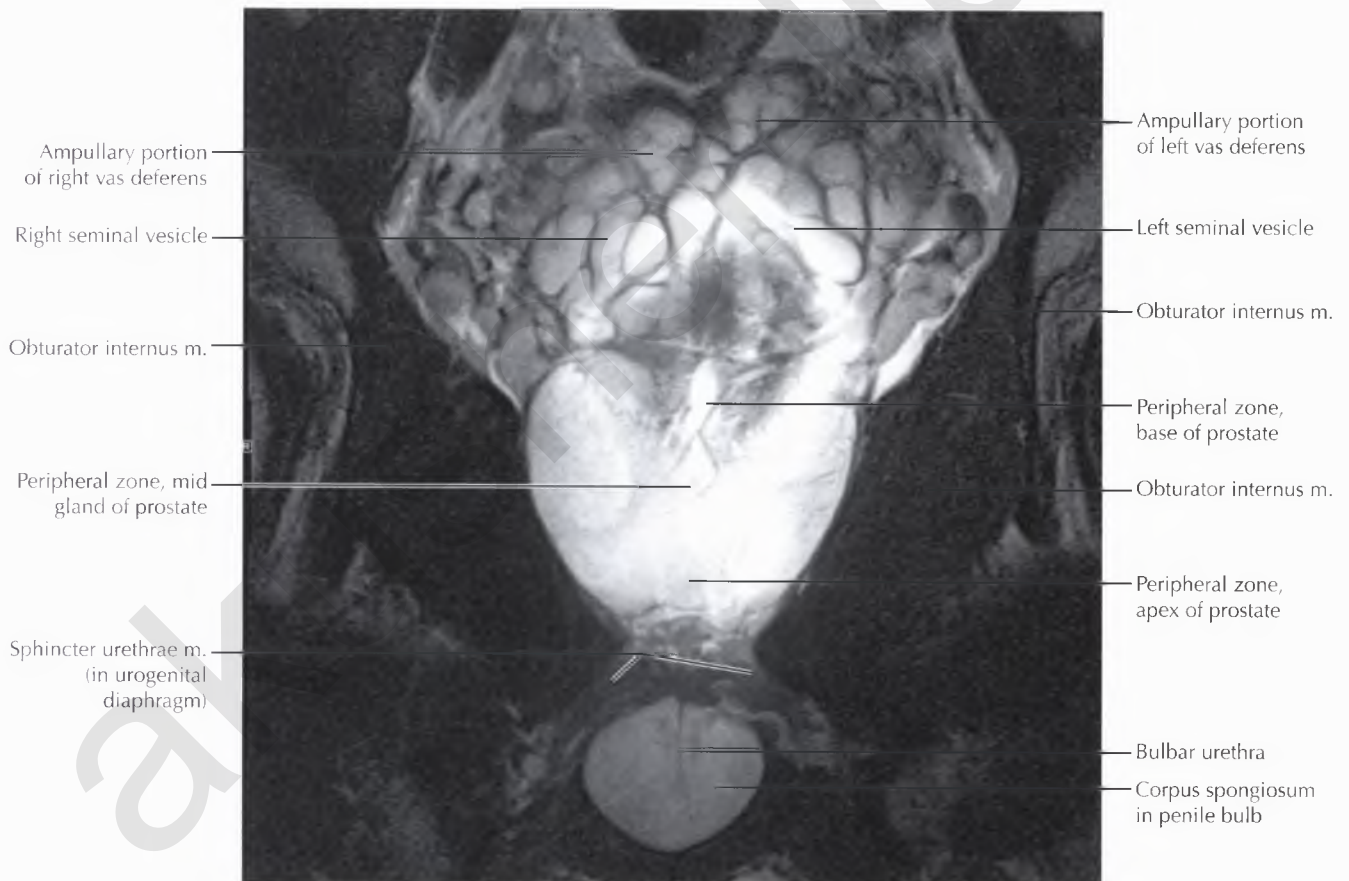
The prostate gland is divided into the base (superiorly), mid gland, and apex (inferiorly).

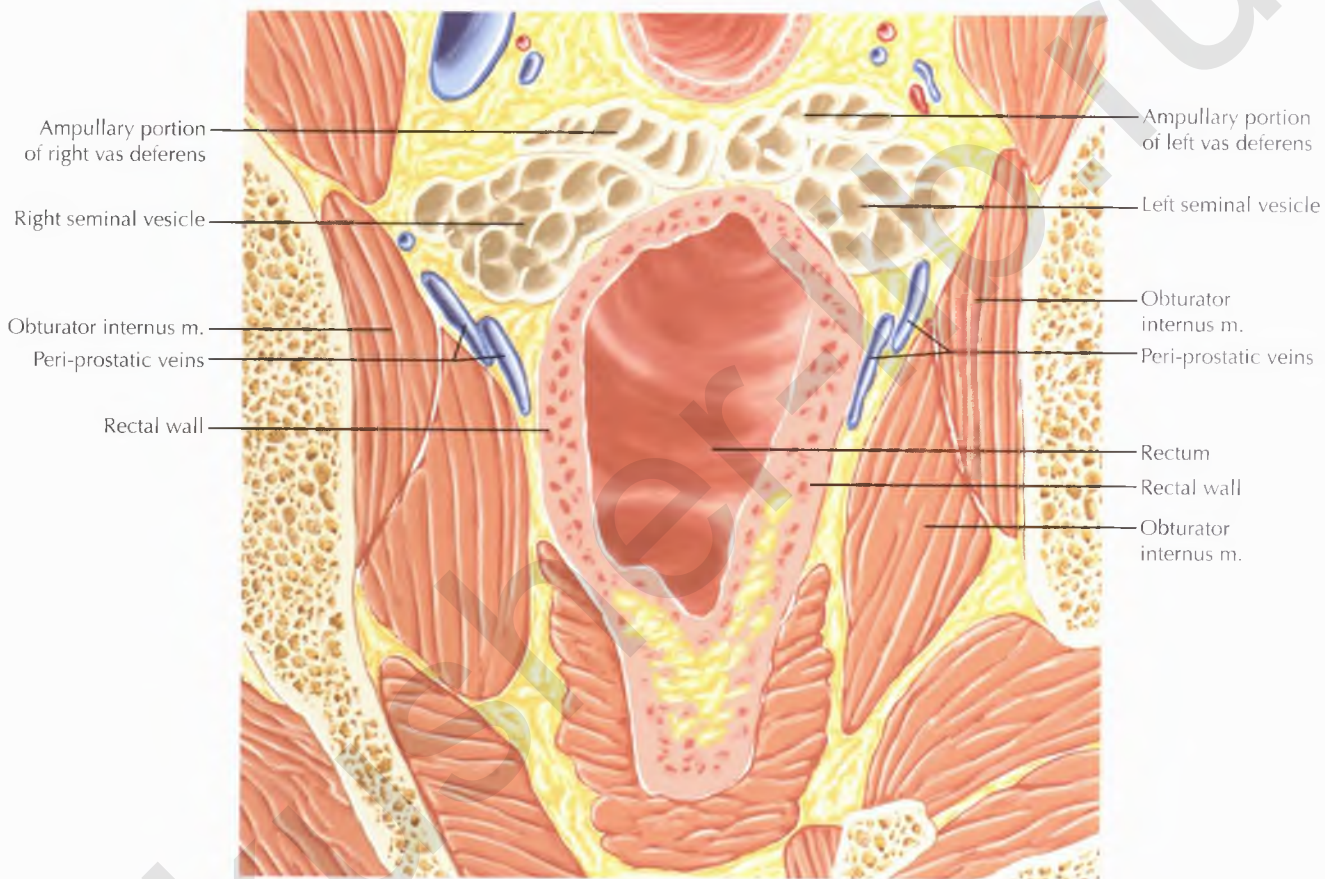
PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT CORONAL 4



PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT CORONAL 5







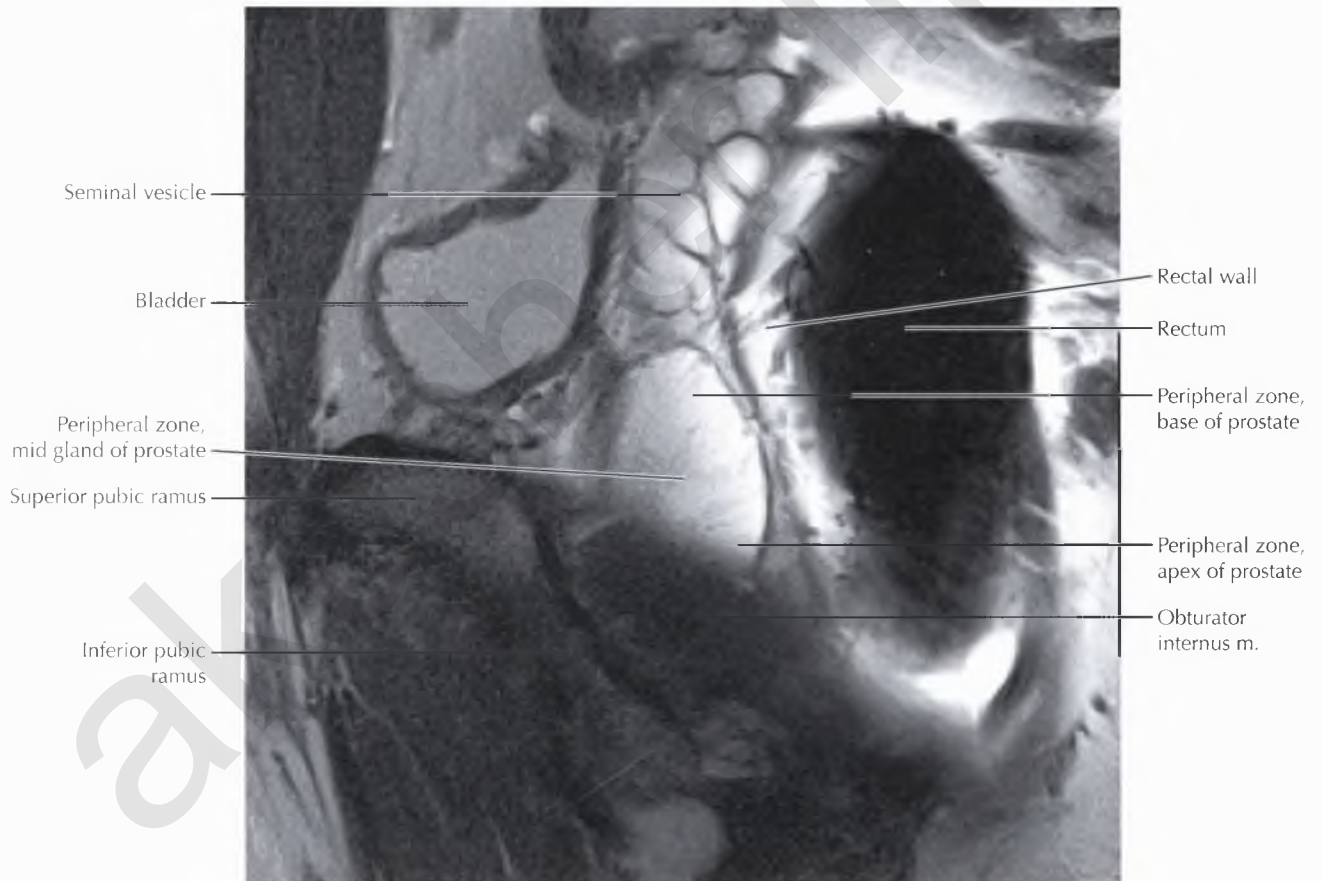
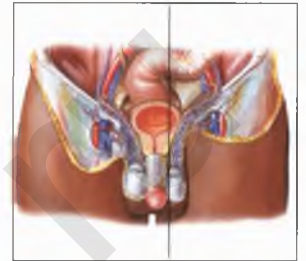
NORMAL ANATOMY

The peri-prostatic veins are usually hyperintense as a result of slow blood flow.



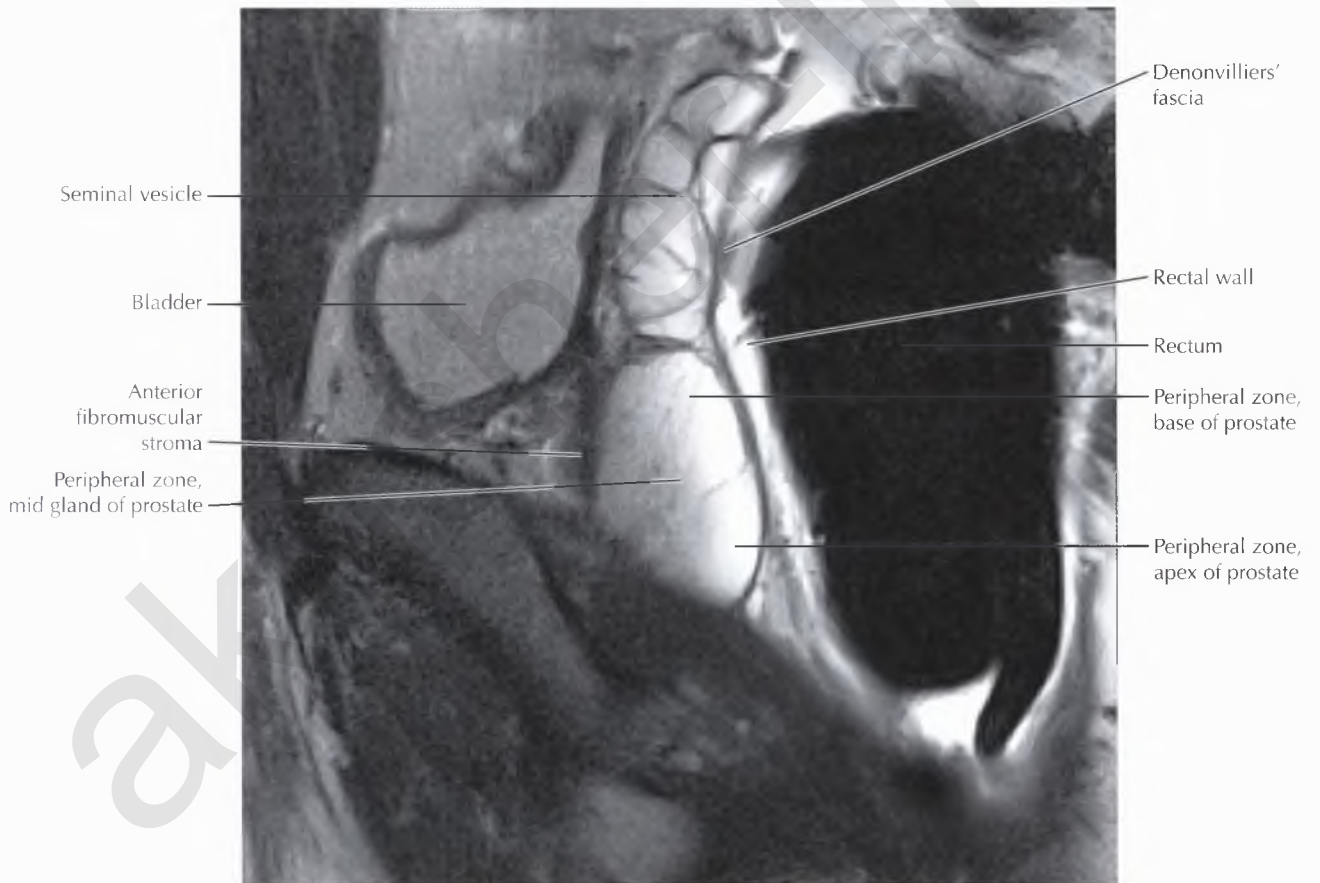
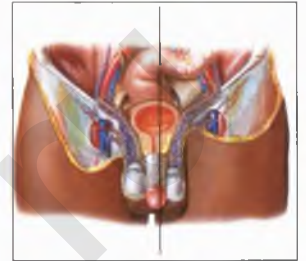
PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT SAGITTAL 1

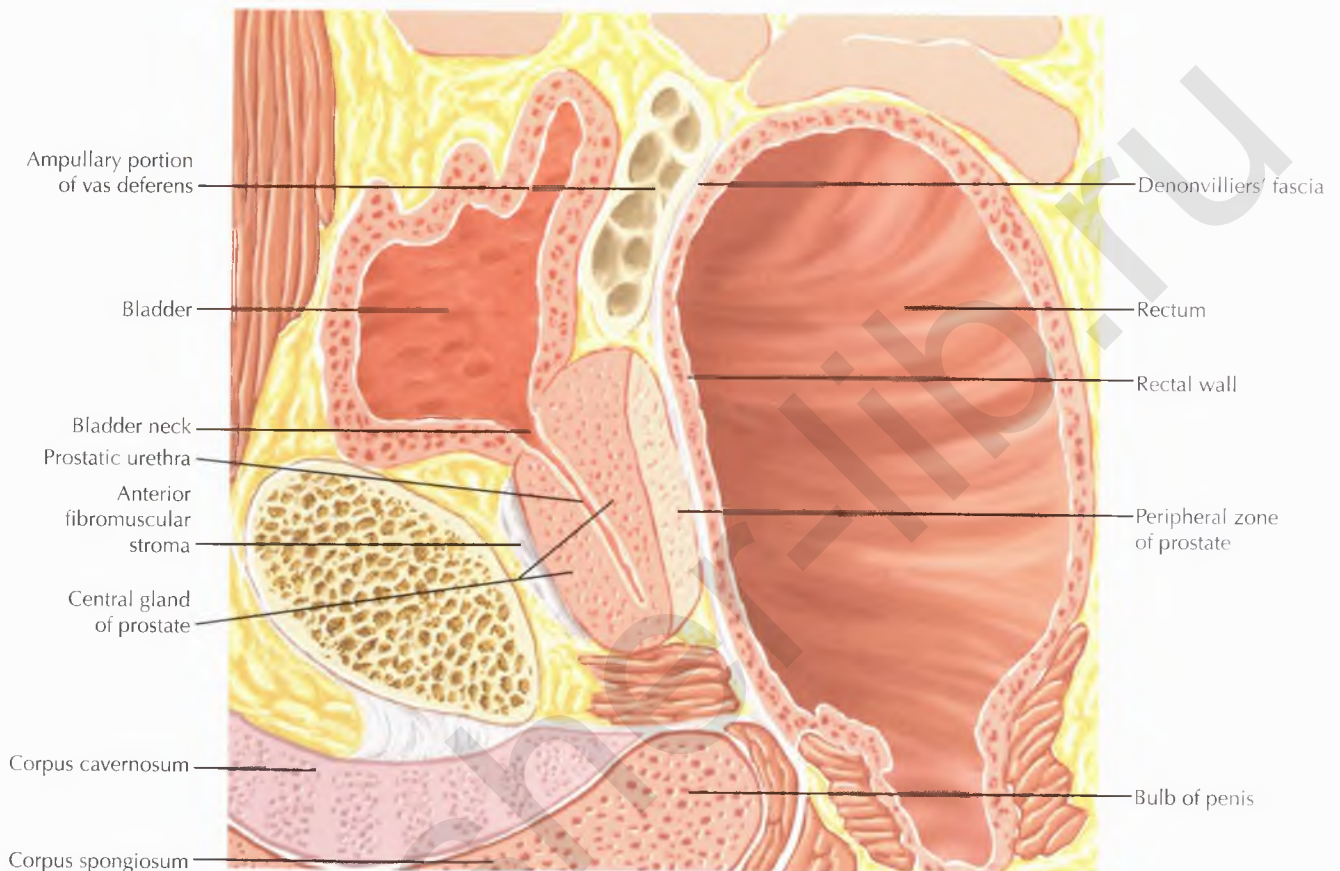




PROSTATE AND SEMINAL TRACT SAGITTAL 2



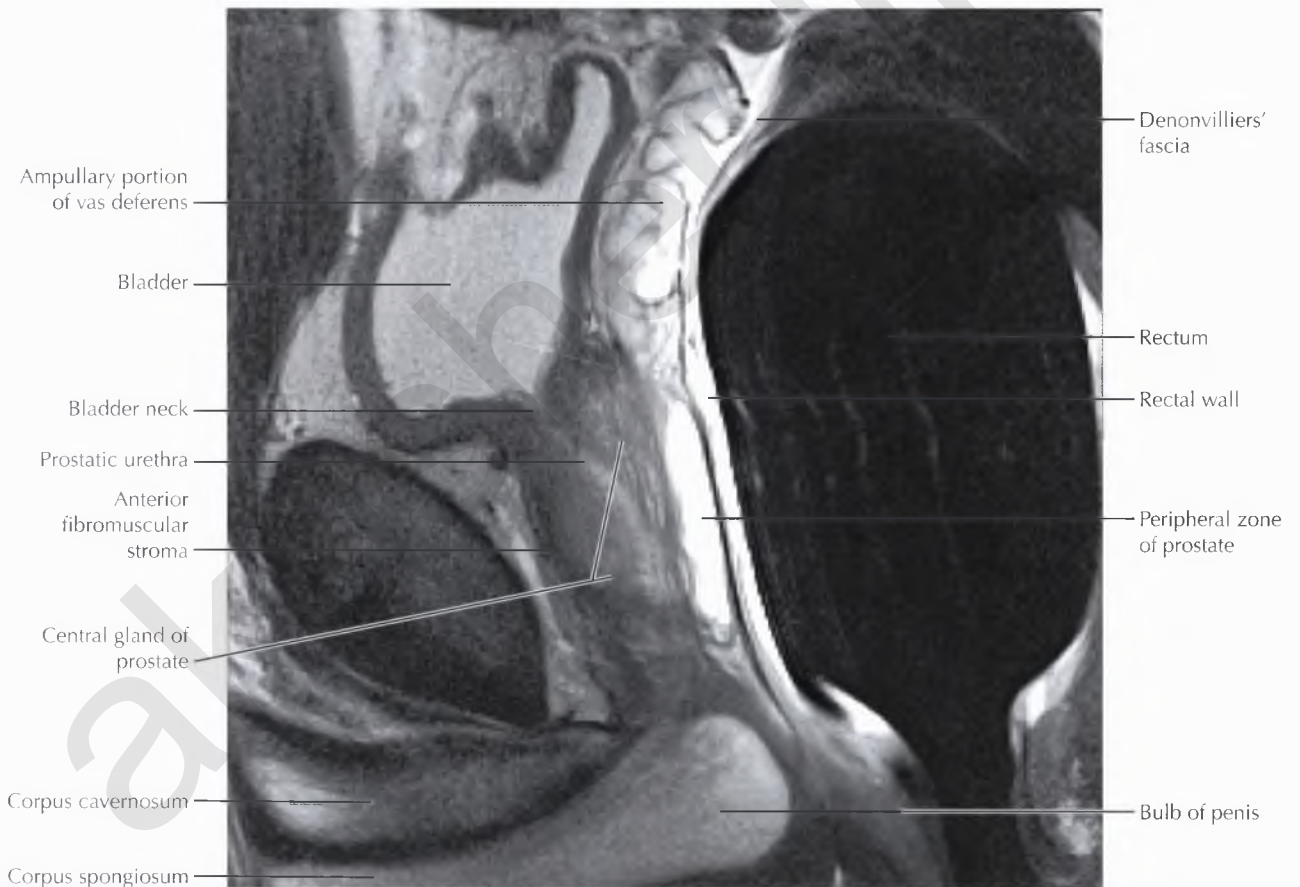
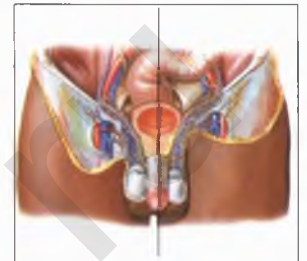


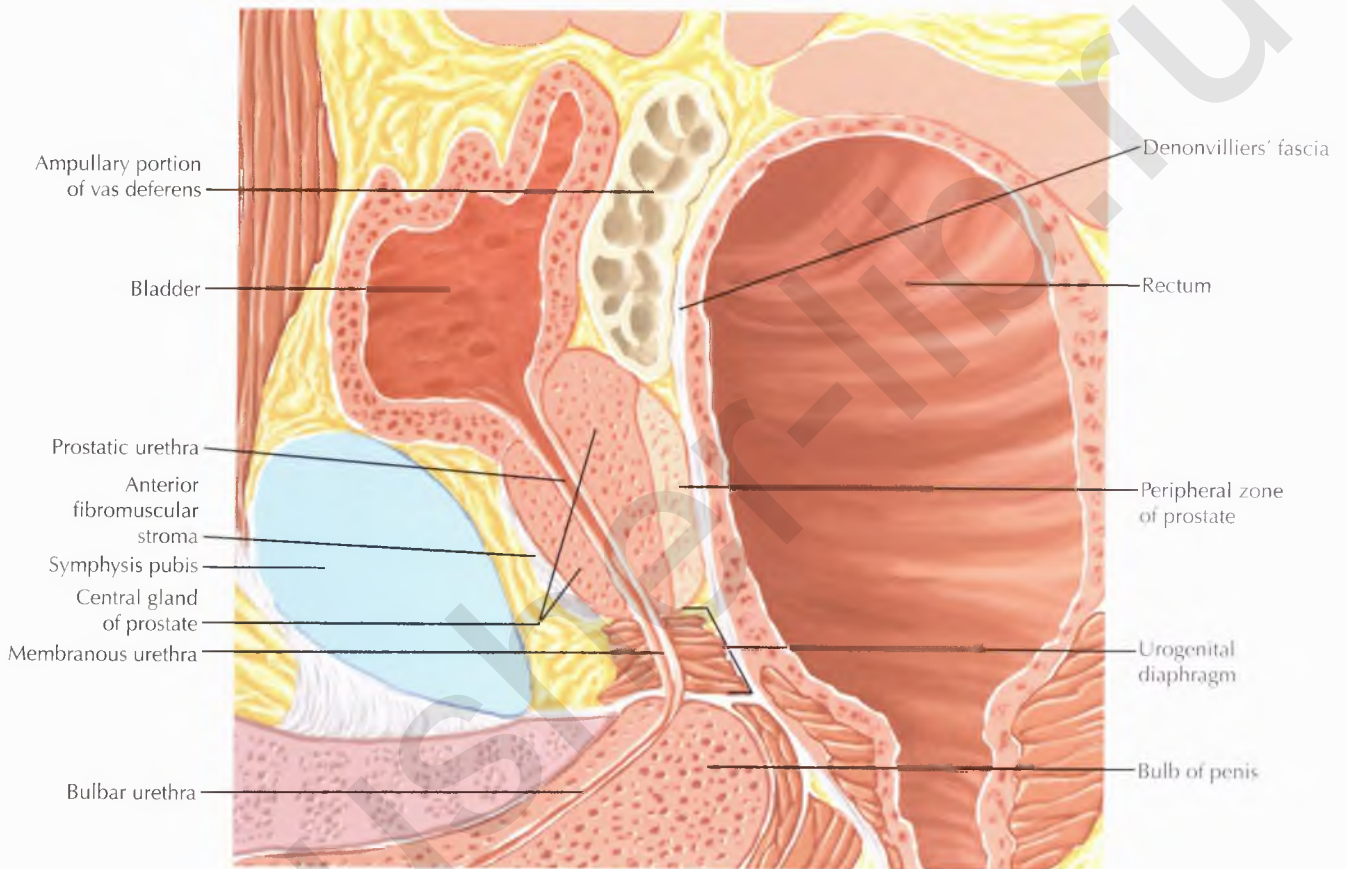


PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

Utricular and müllerian duct cysts are midline cystic structures that are often incidentally detected in the prostate gland. If symptomatic, these cysts may cause irritative or obstructive lower urinary tract symptoms as a result of compression of the prostatic urethra or ejaculatory ducts. On MRI, *müllerian duct cysts* often have a teardrop shape and may extend above the superior aspect of the prostate gland, but do not communicate with the urethra or ejaculatory duct. In contrast, *utricular cysts* do not extend above the superior aspect of the prostate gland, but may communicate with the posterior urethra or ejaculatory duct. Therefore, utricular cysts may opacify during retrograde urethrography, voiding cystourethrography, or seminal vesiculography.

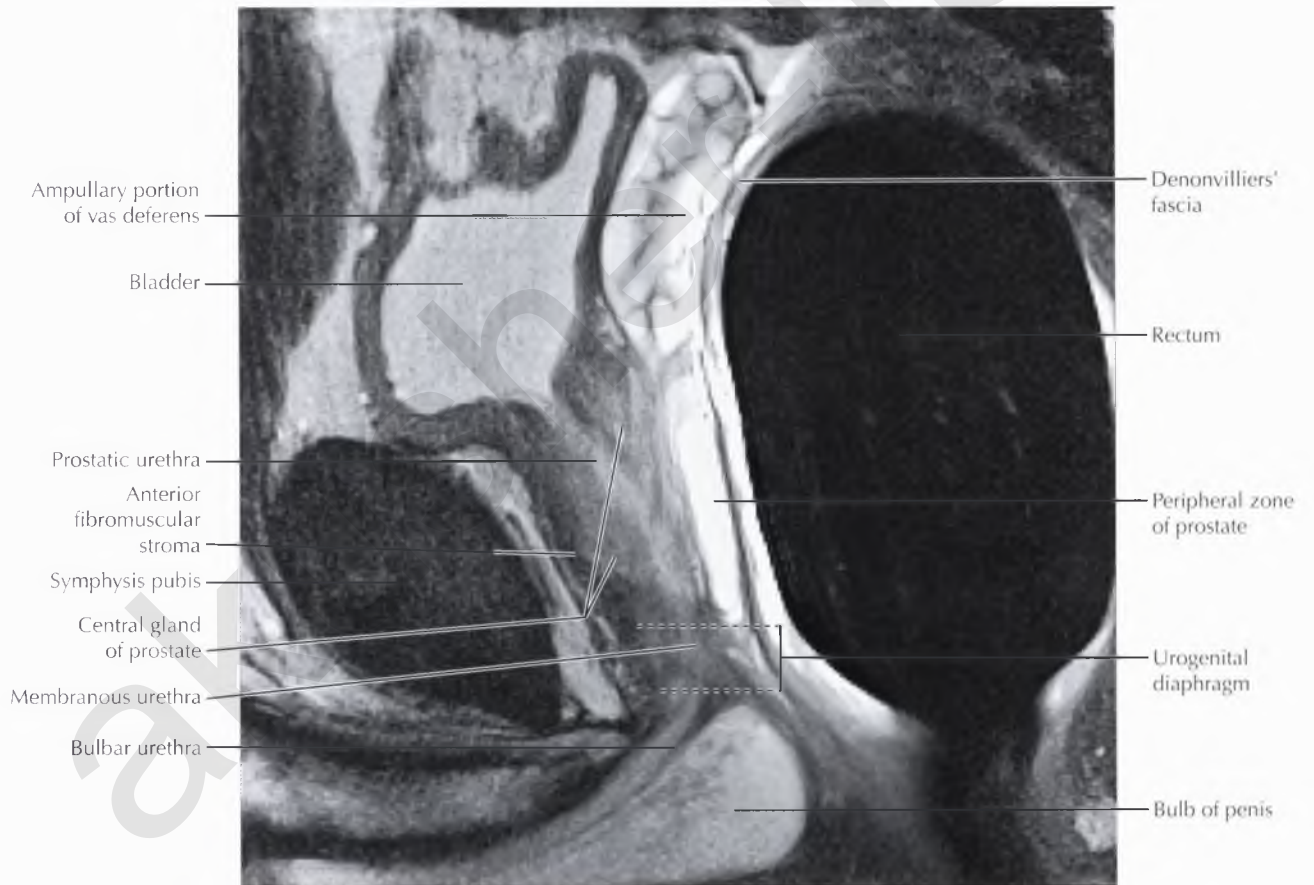
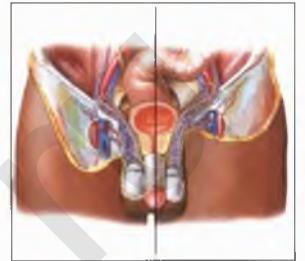
Ejaculatory duct cysts are usually found in a paramedian location along the course of the ejaculatory duct and are thought to result from partial obstruction of the ejaculatory duct.





DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

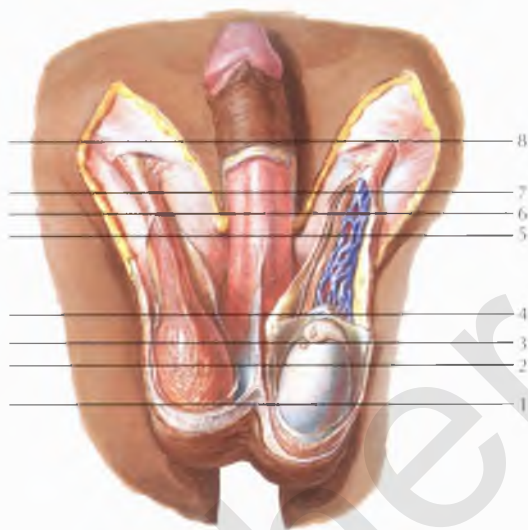
Sagittal localizer sequences are initially obtained during endorectal coil MRI of the prostate gland to confirm optimal placement of the endorectal coil before acquisition of additional images. The use of an endorectal coil improves image quality and accuracy in the evaluation of prostate cancer.



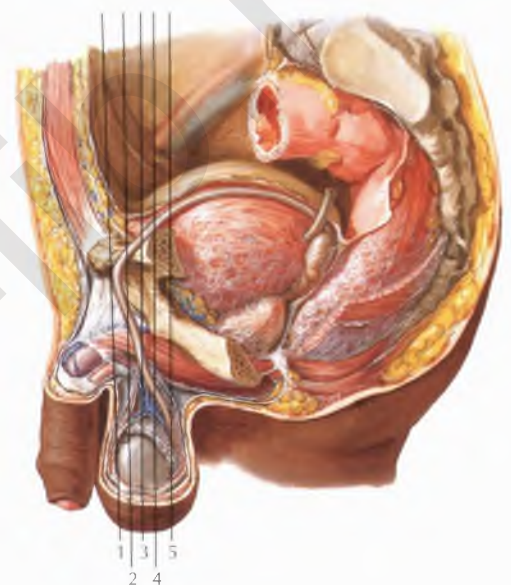
Chapter

8

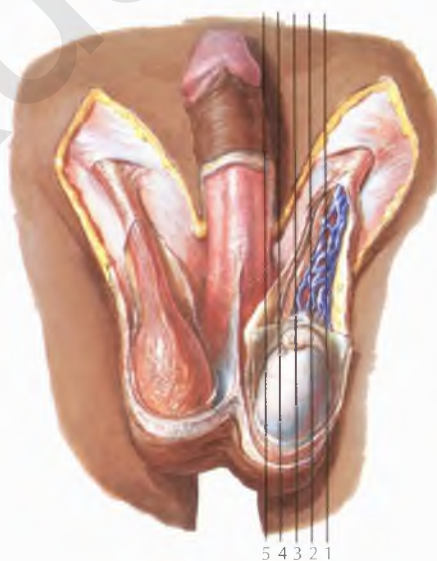
SCROTUM AND TESTES



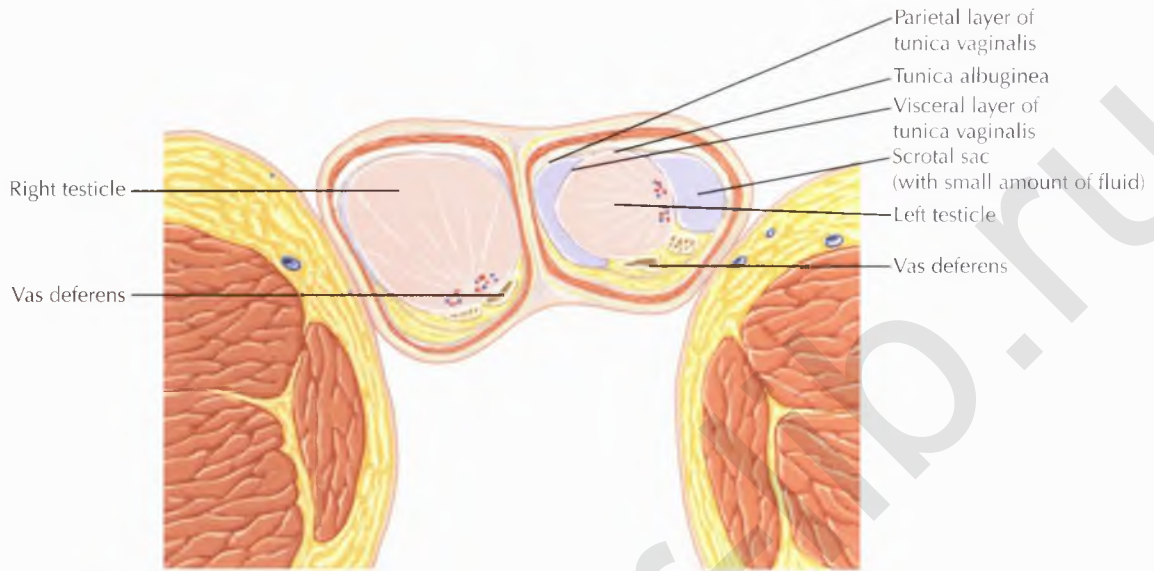
AXIAL 352



CORONAL 368

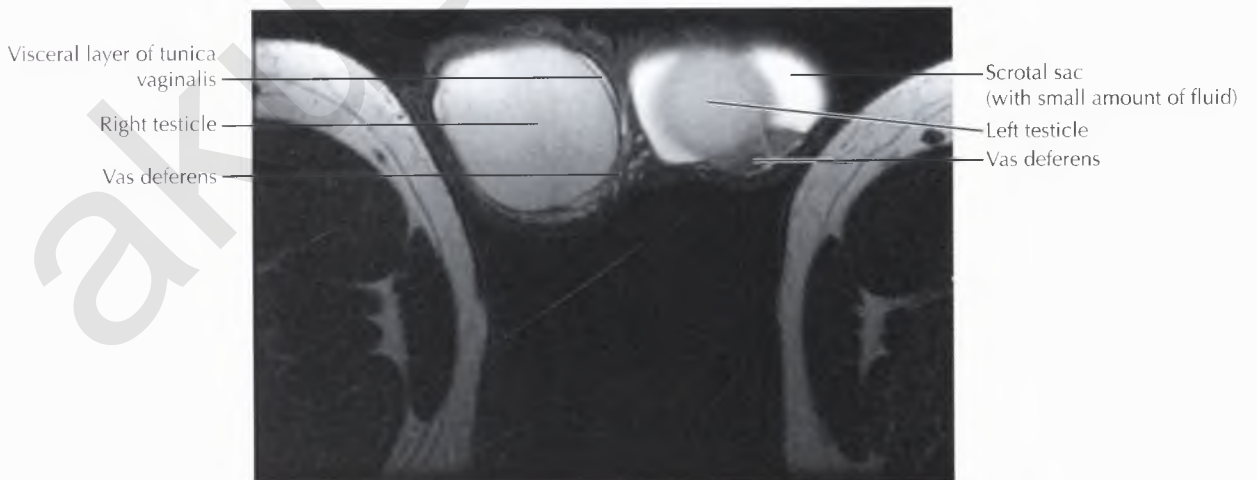
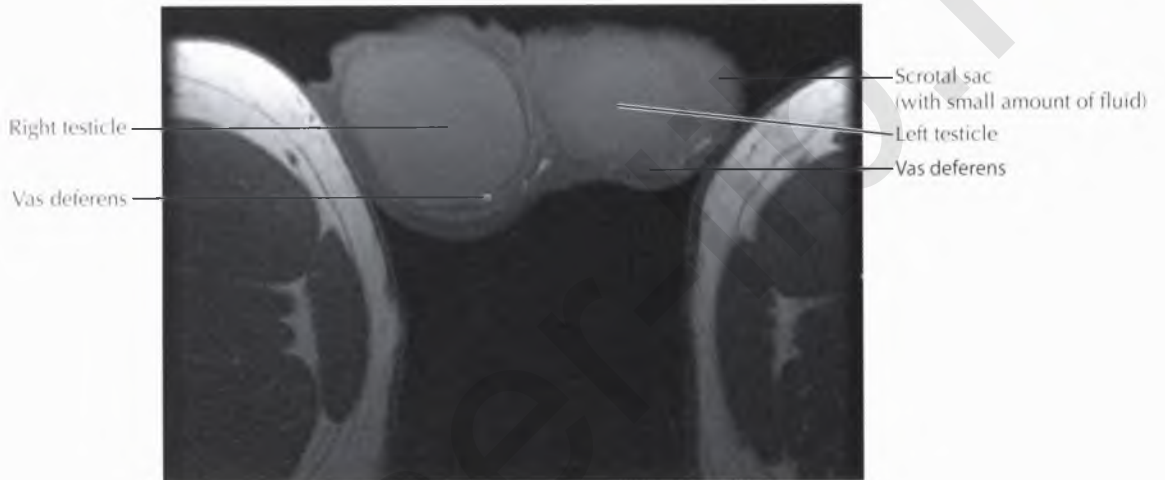
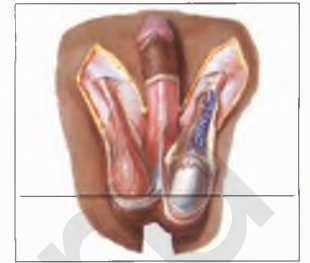


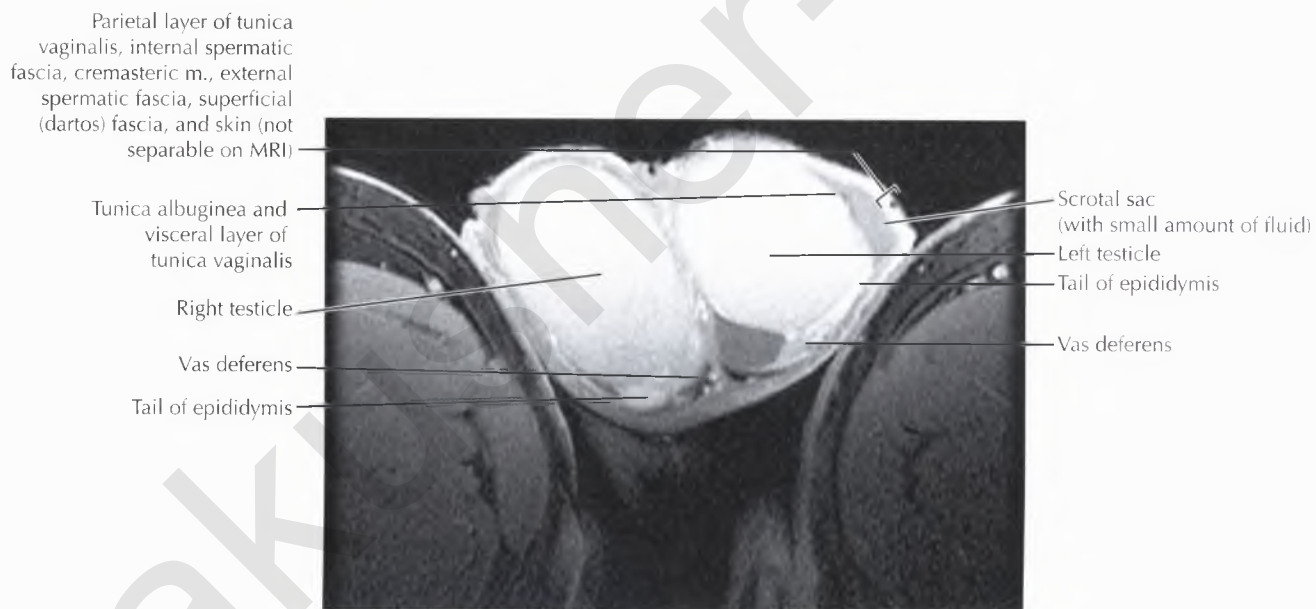
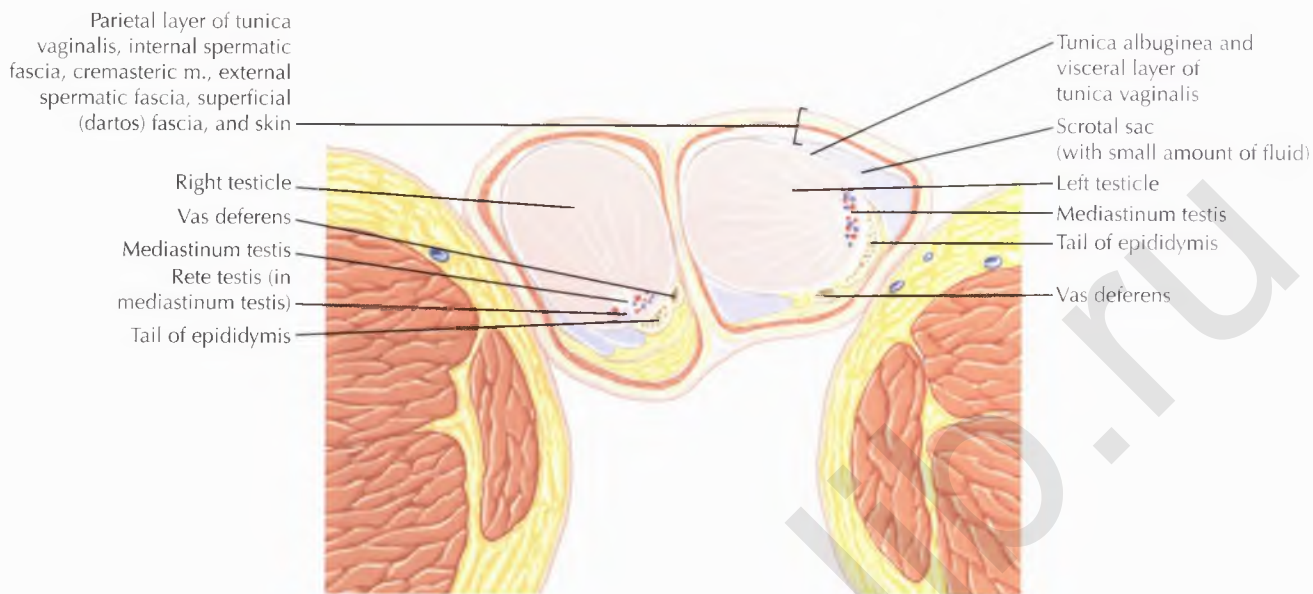
SAGITTAL 378



NORMAL ANATOMY

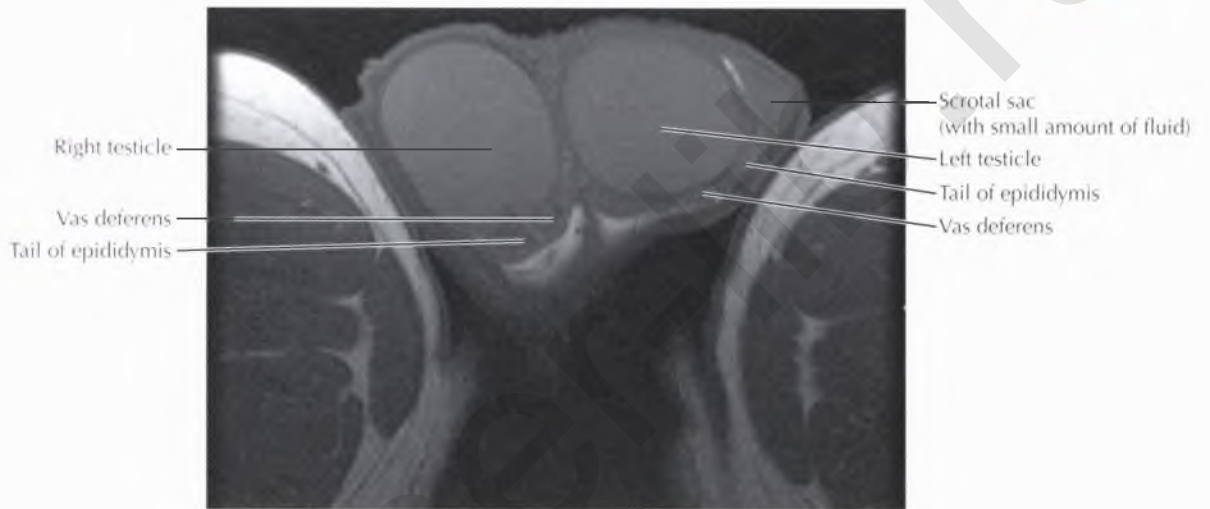
On magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), the testicles (testes) are of uniform intermediate signal intensity on T1-weighted images, moderately high signal intensity on T2-weighted images, and enhance homogeneously after intravenous contrast administration.



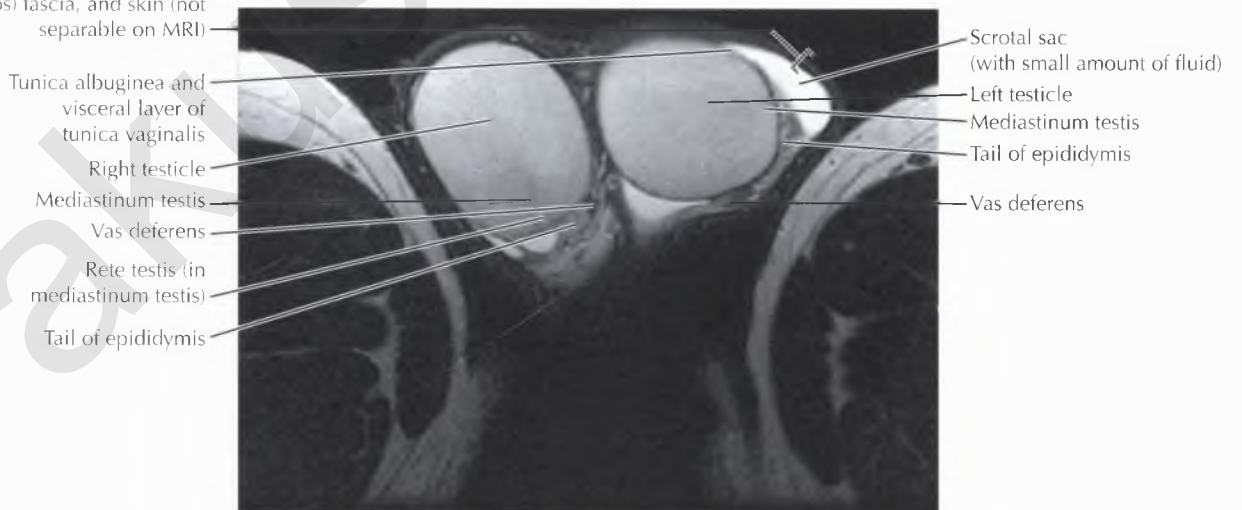


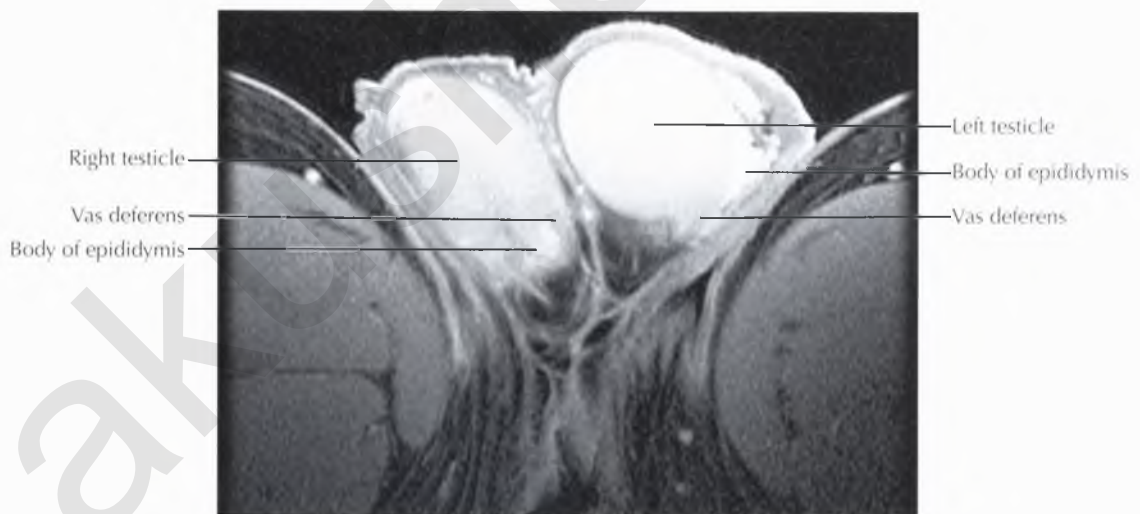
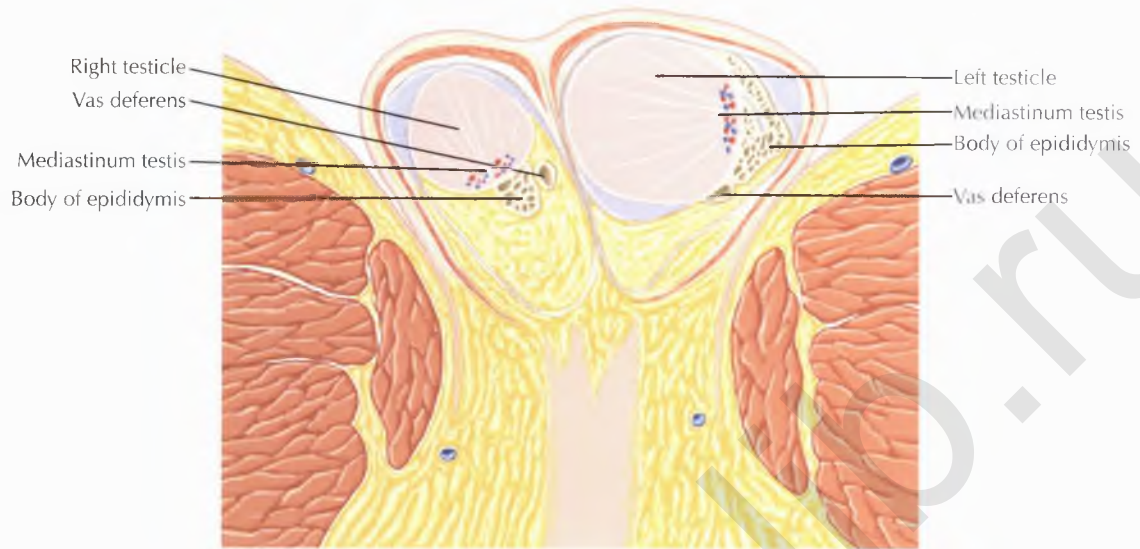
NORMAL ANATOMY

The testicles are composed of densely packed seminiferous tubules that converge posteriorly into larger ducts and drain into the rete testis at the testicular hilum. The *mediastinum testis* appears as a linear band of low signal intensity at the testicular hilum, where the ducts, nerves, and vessels enter and exit the testicle, while the *rete testis* has high signal intensity on T2-weighted MR images. It is important to be aware of the normal appearance and location of the mediastinum testis and rete testis so that these structures are not mistaken for pathology.



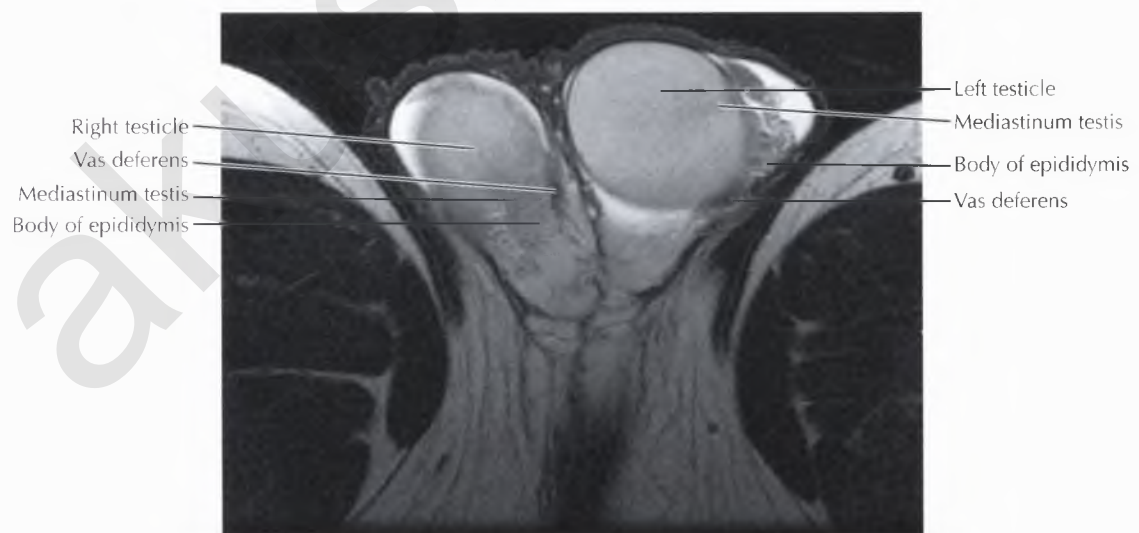
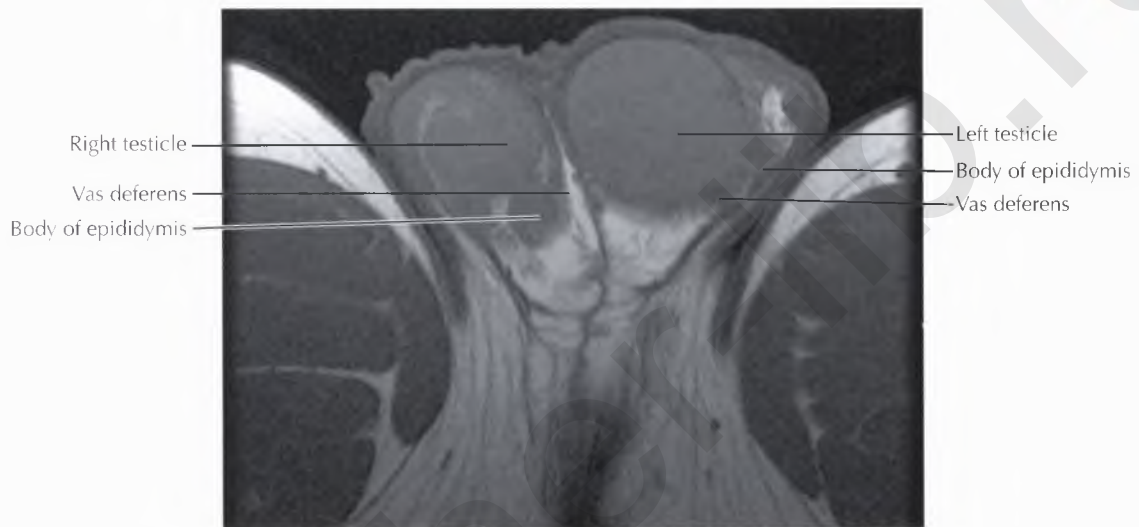
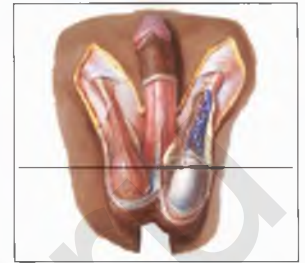
Parietal layer of tunica vaginalis, internal spermatic fascia, cremasteric m., external spermatic fascia, superficial (dartos) fascia, and skin (not separable on MRI)

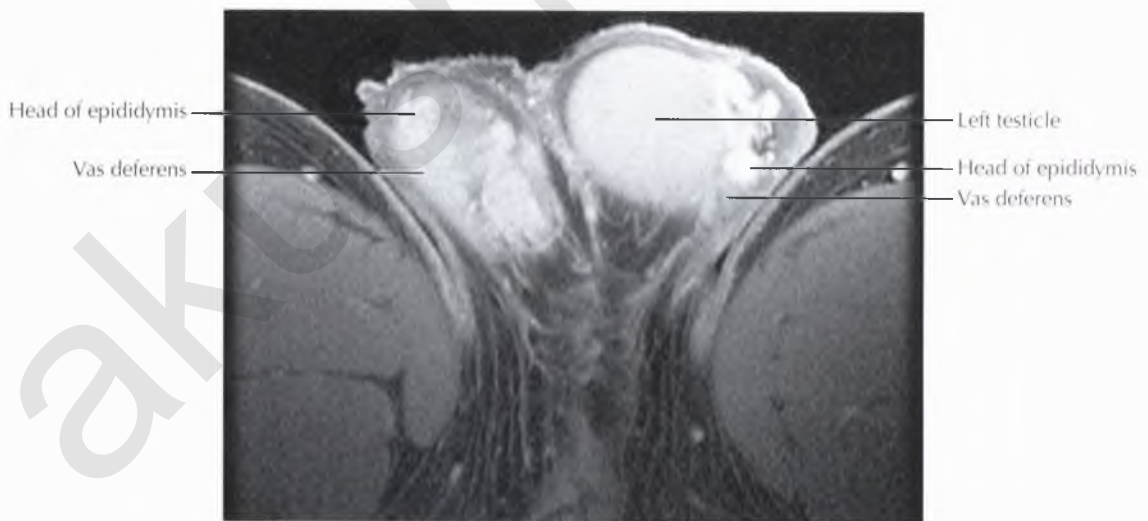
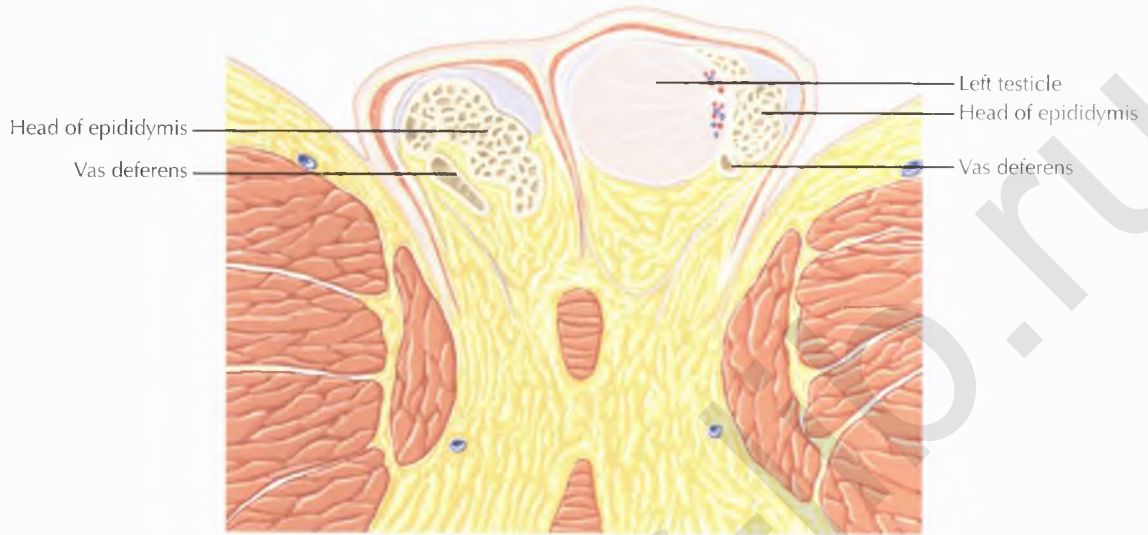


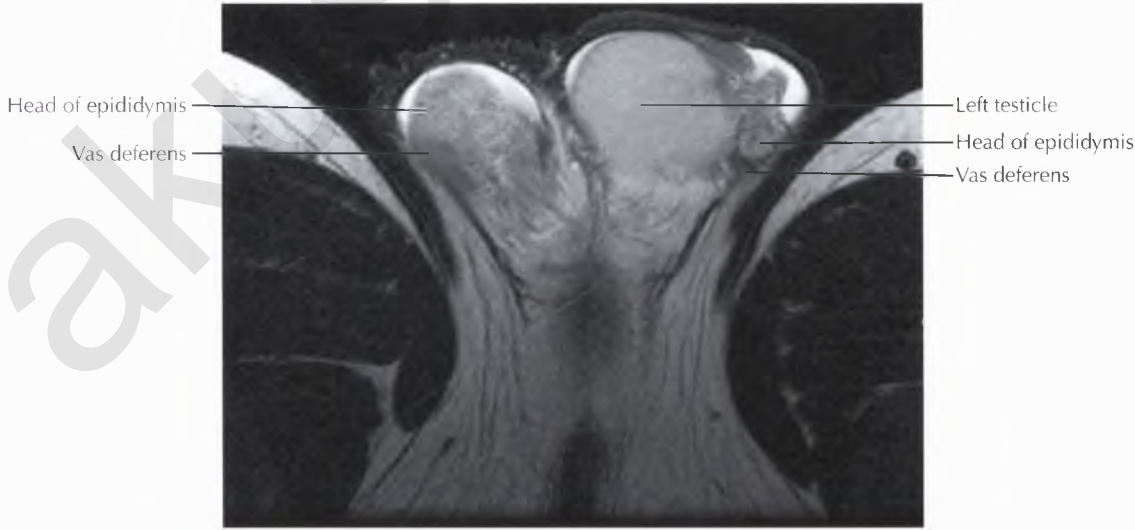
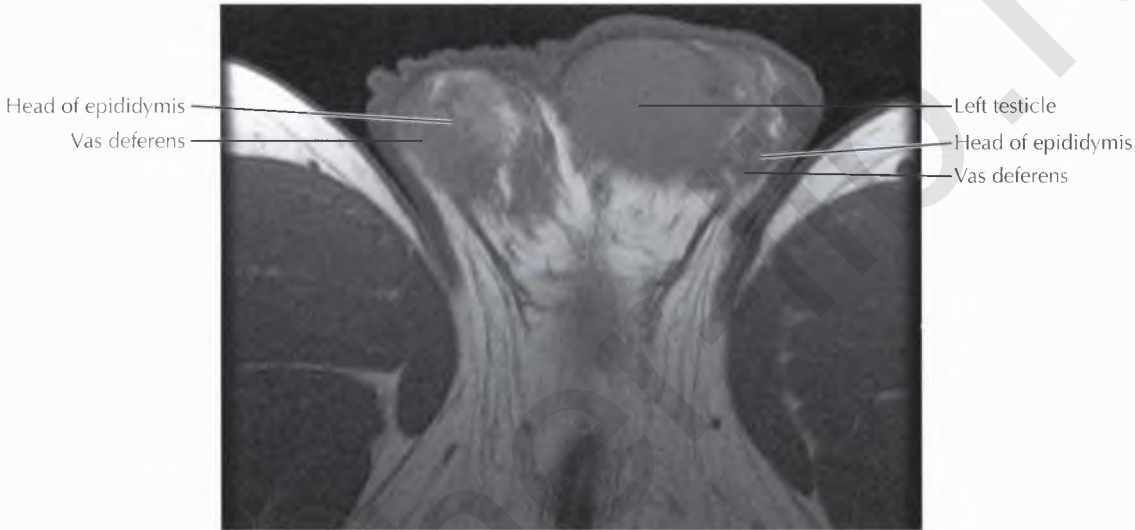
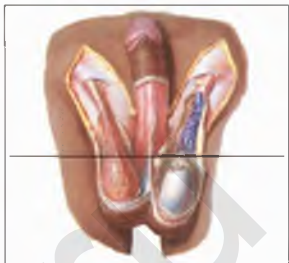


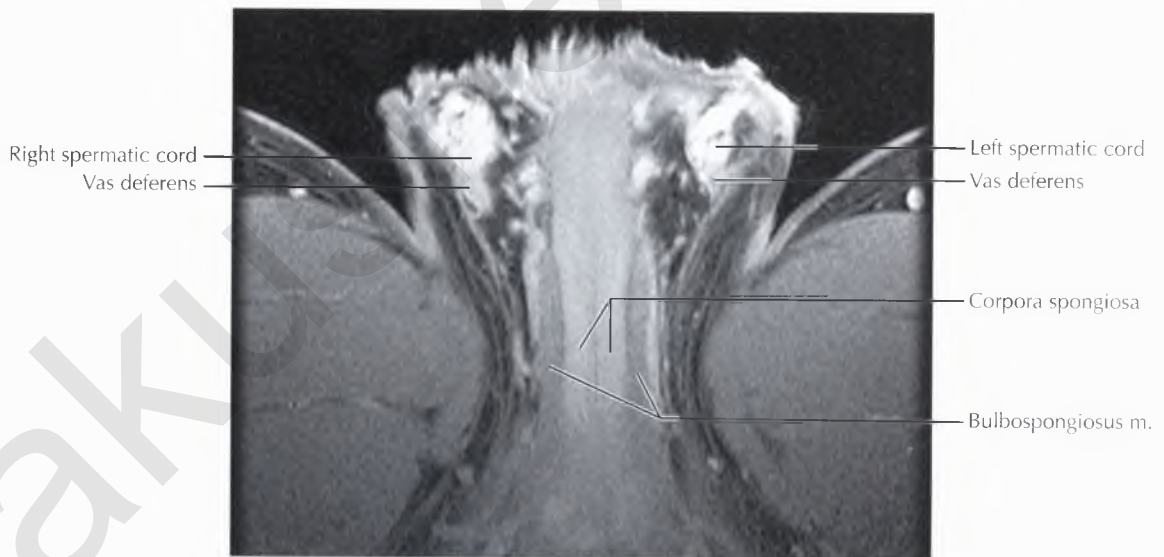
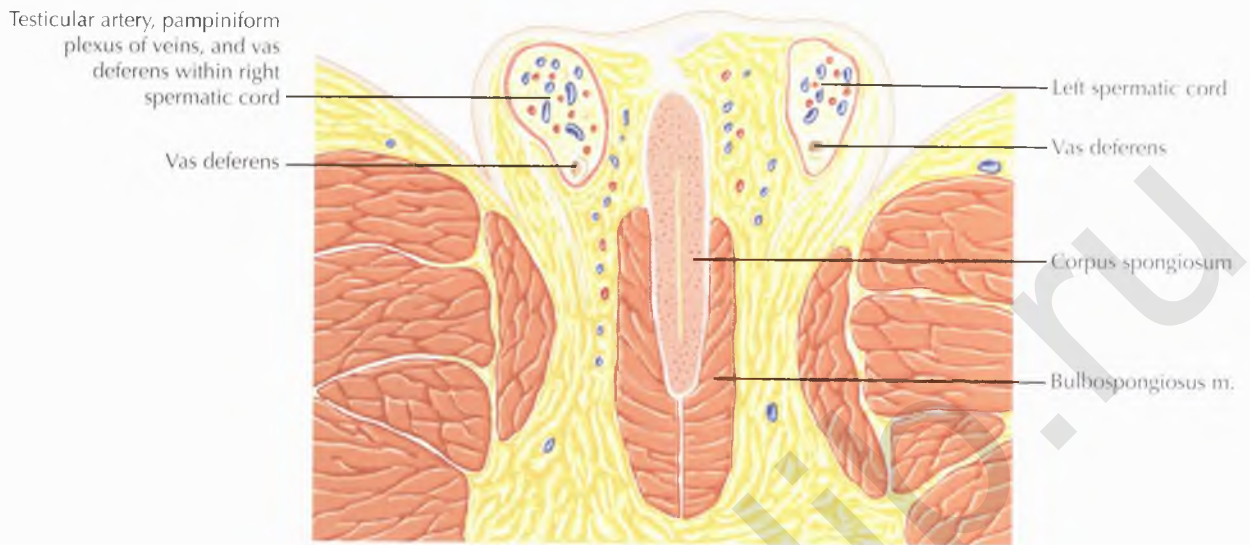
NORMAL ANATOMY

The epididymides are isointense to slightly hypointense in signal intensity relative to the testicles on T1-weighted images, and hypointense to the testicles on T2-weighted MR images.









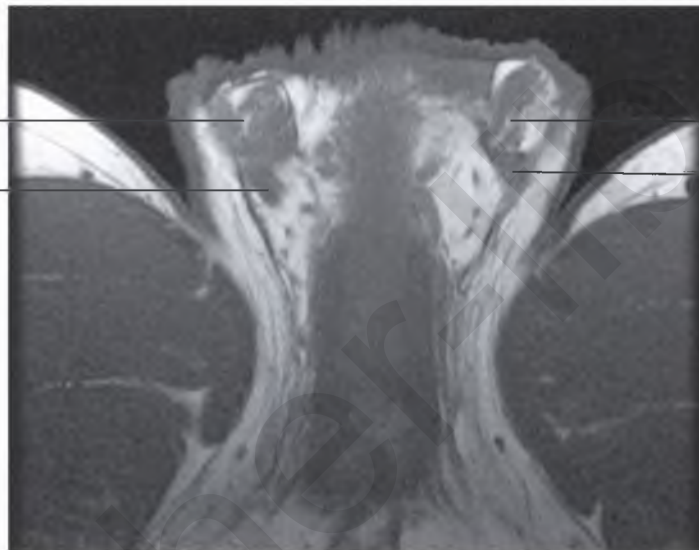
NORMAL ANATOMY

In men, the inguinal canal transfers the *spermatic cord*, which includes the vas deferens, testicular artery, pampiniform plexus of veins, and genital branch of the genitofemoral nerve, from the pelvic cavity to the scrotum.



Testicular artery, pampiniform plexus of veins, genital branch of genitofemoral nerve, and vas deferens within right spermatic cord

Vas deferens

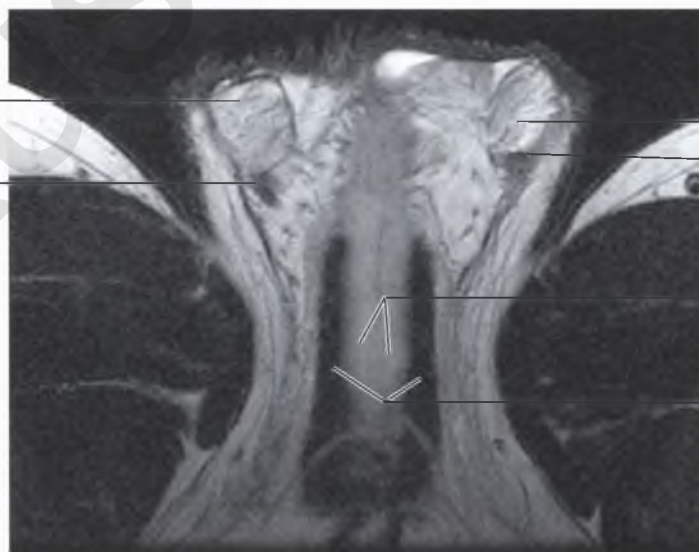


Left spermatic cord

Vas deferens

Right spermatic cord

Vas deferens

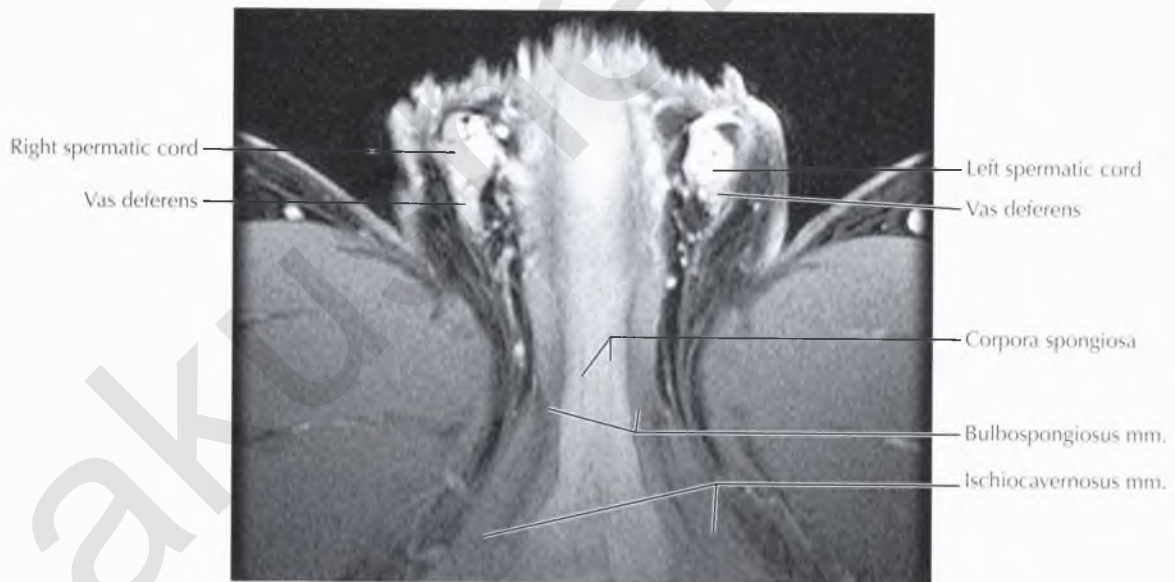
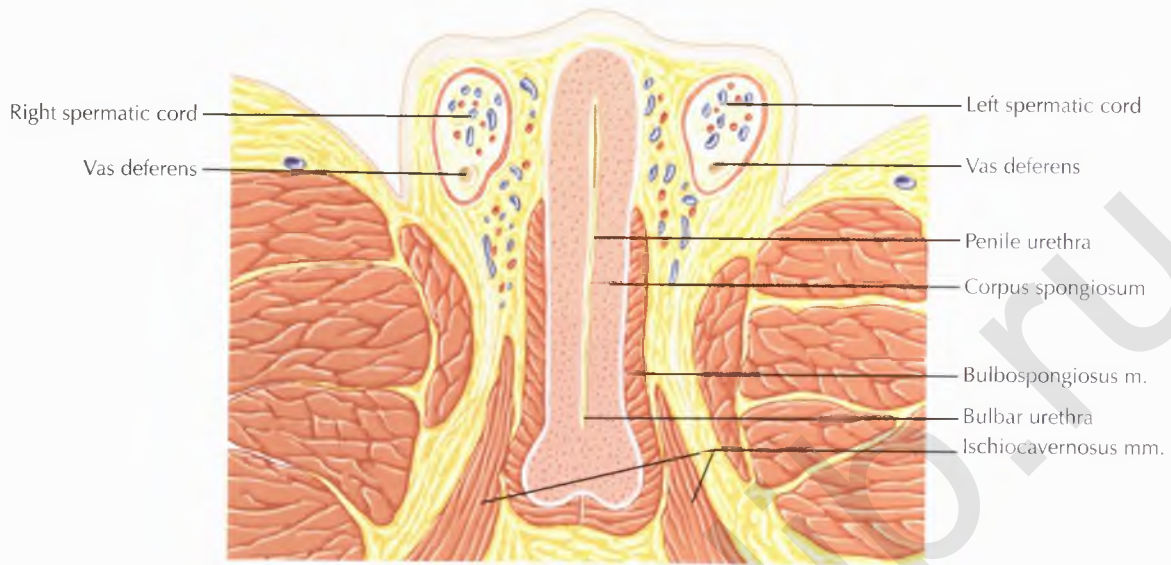


Left spermatic cord

Vas deferens

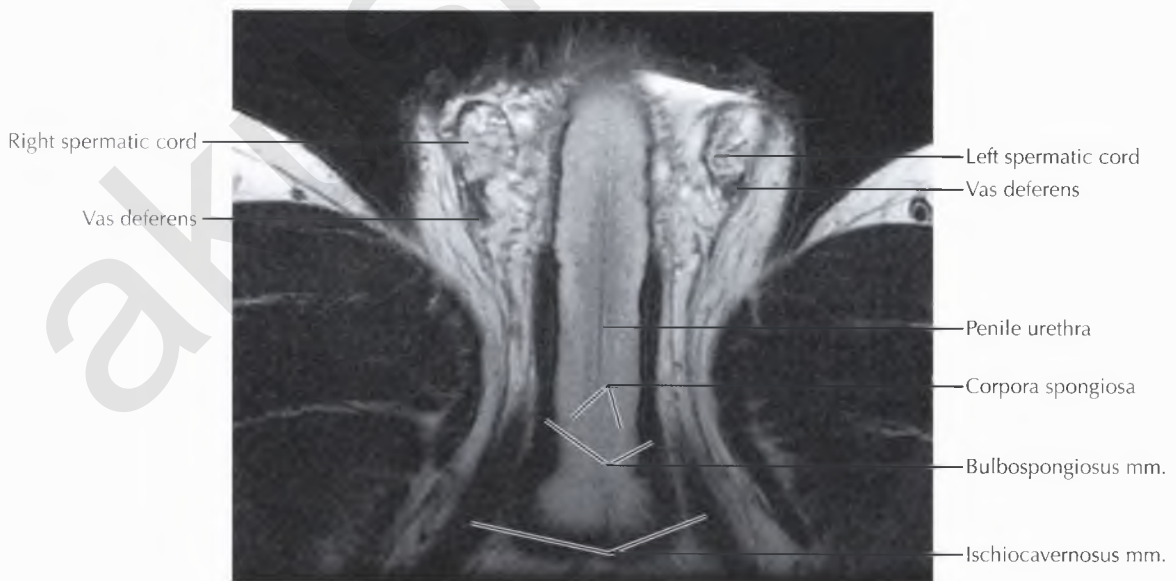
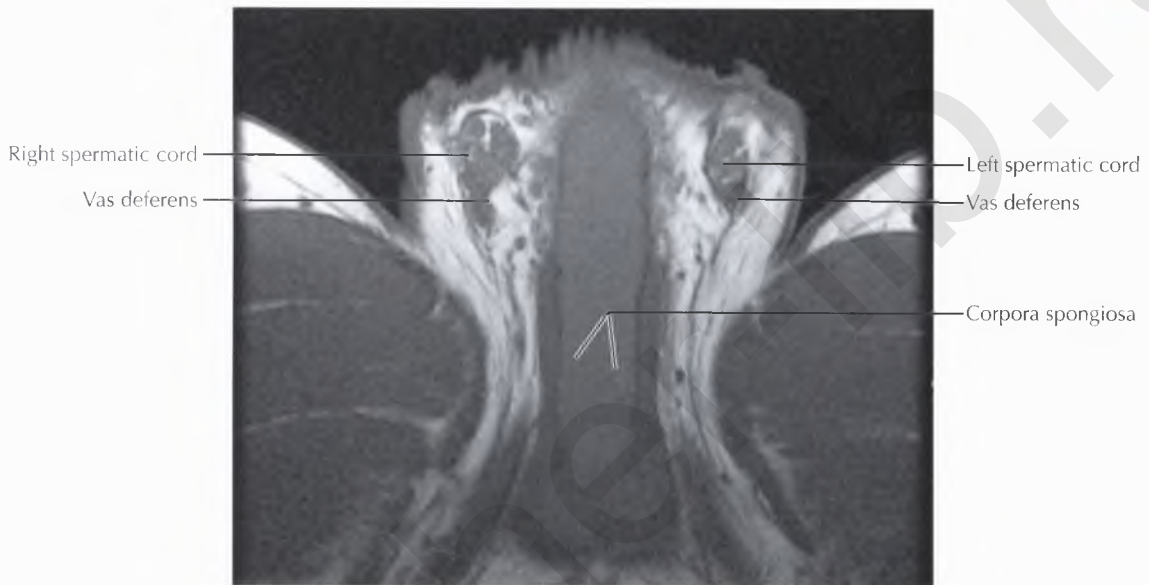
Corpora spongiosa

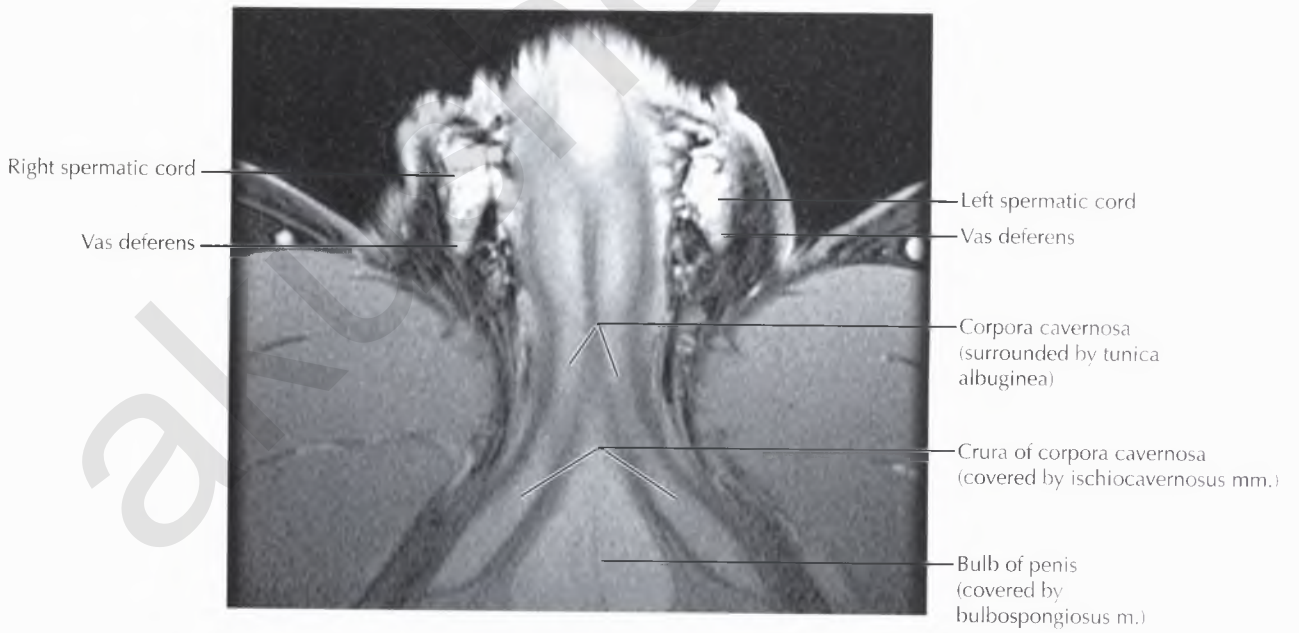
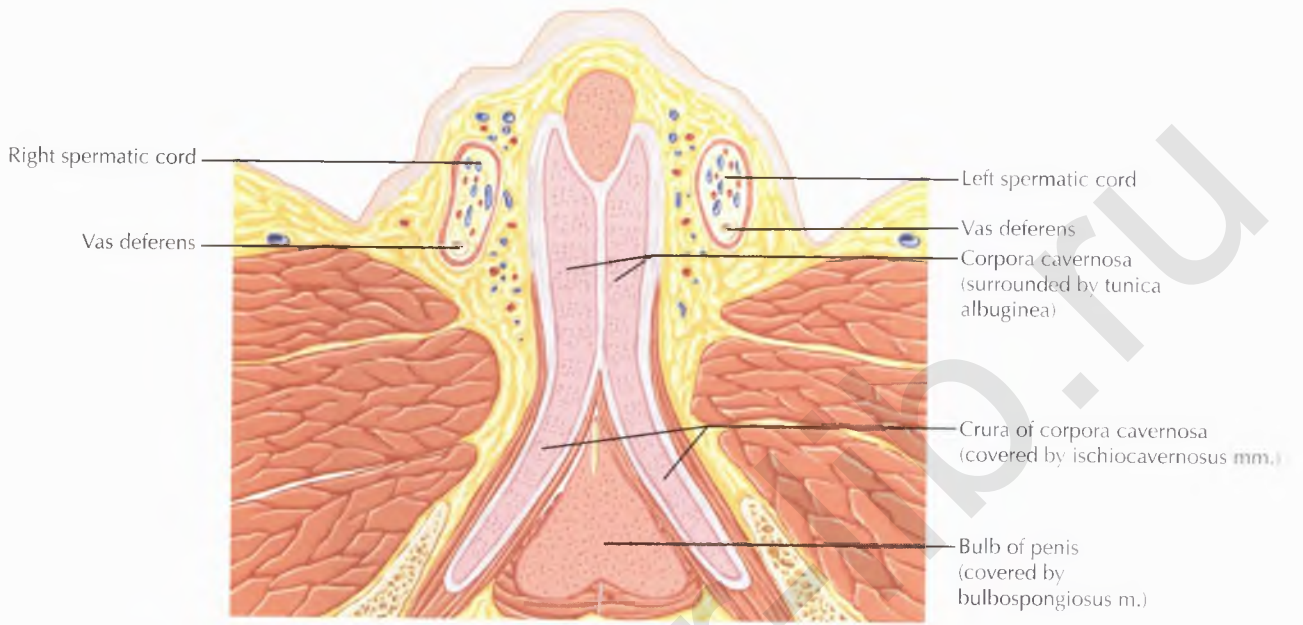
Bulbospongiosus m.

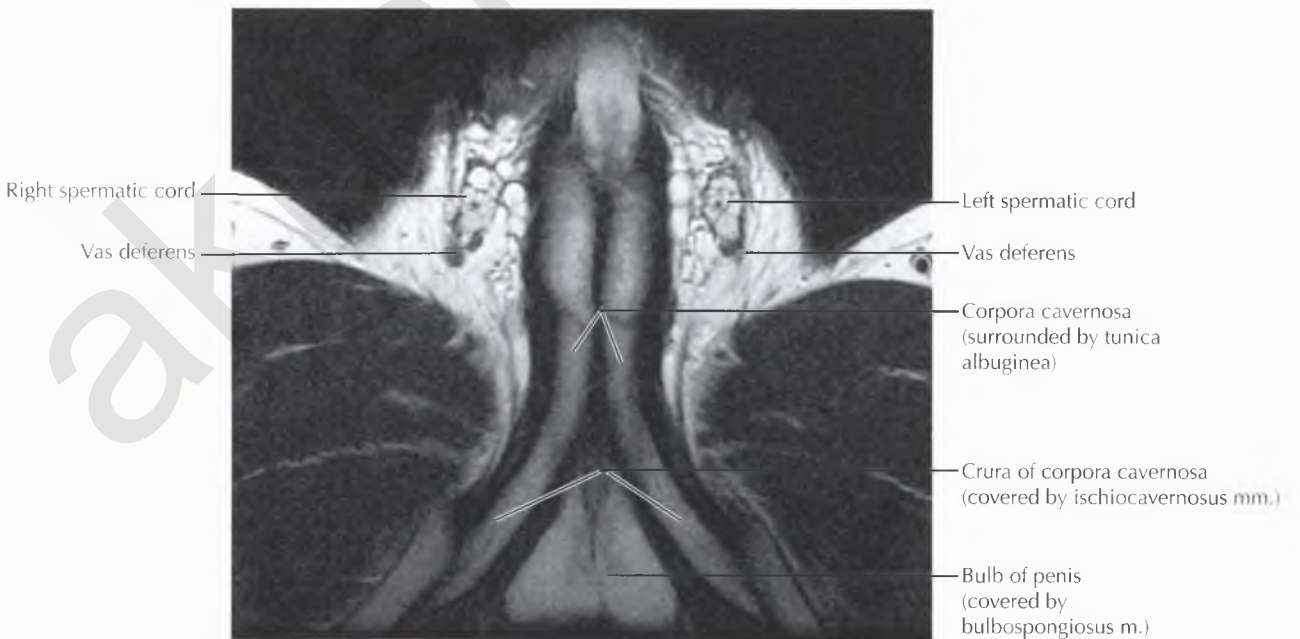
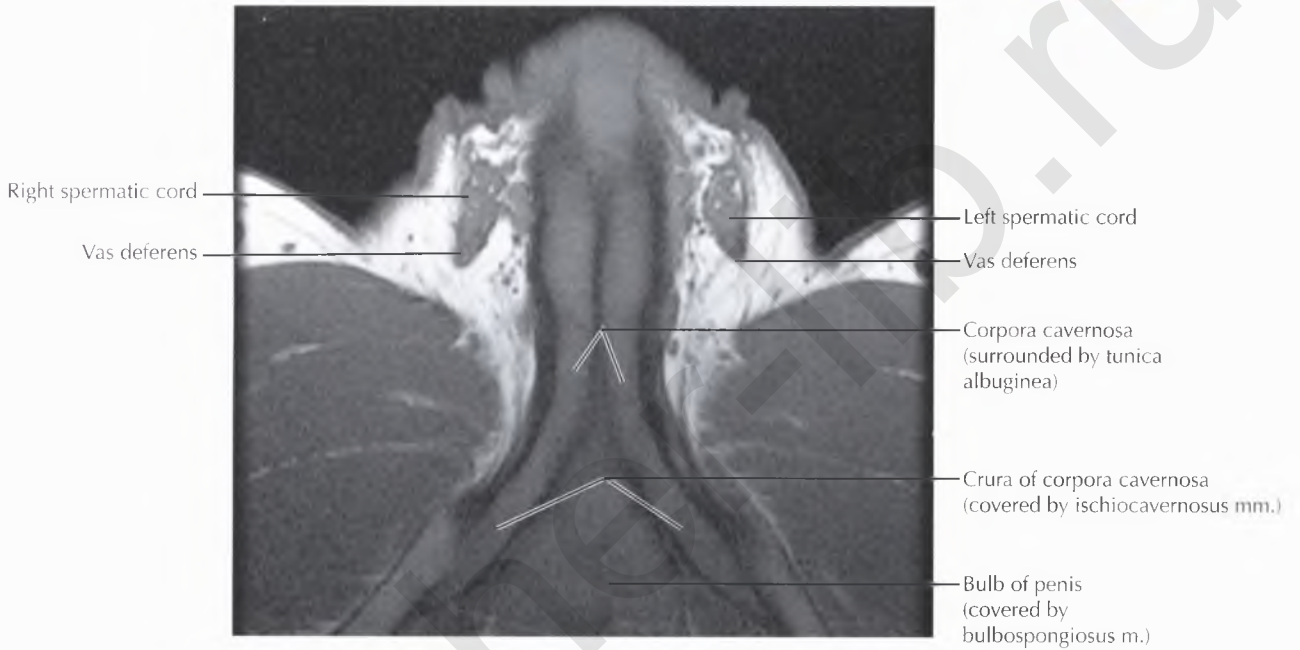
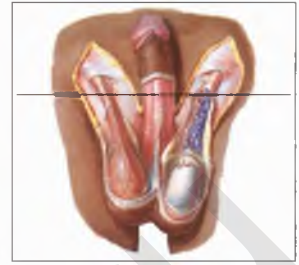


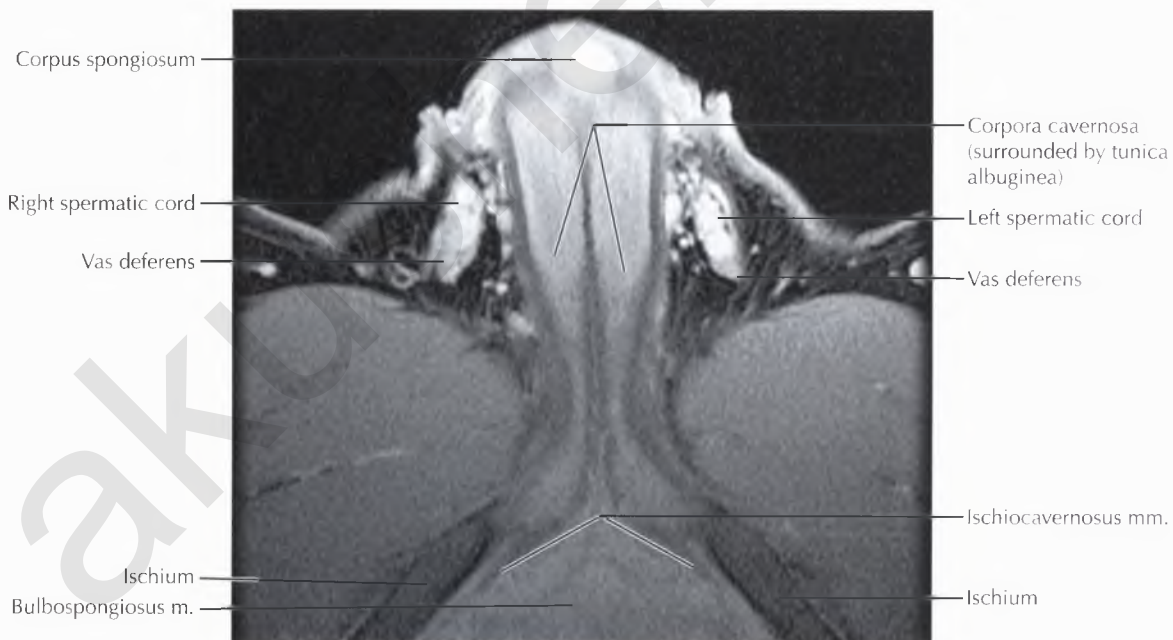
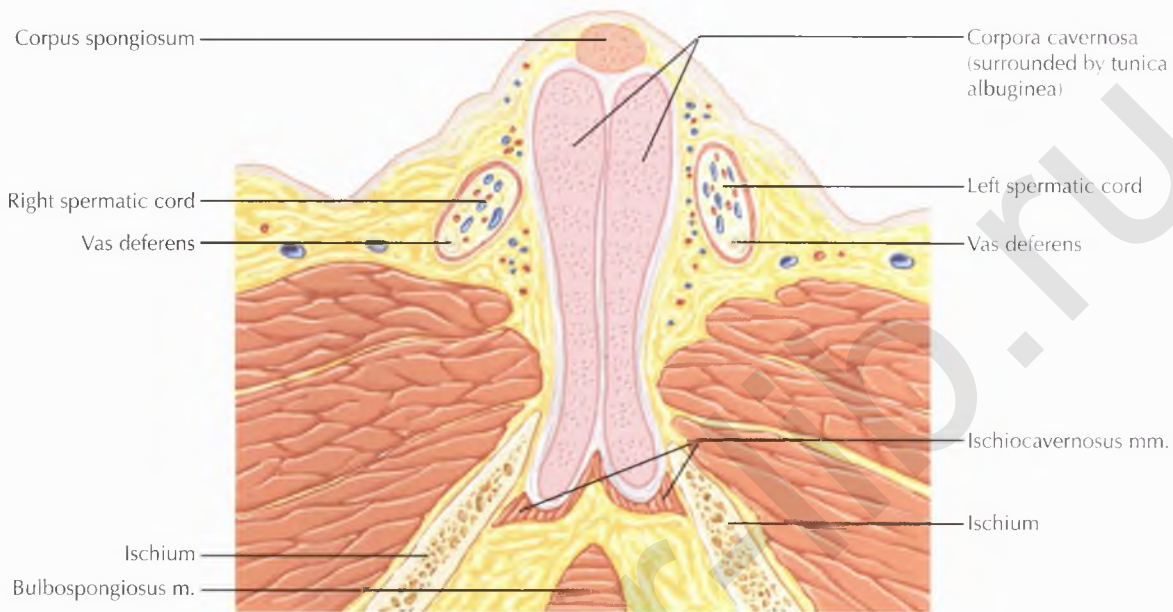
DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

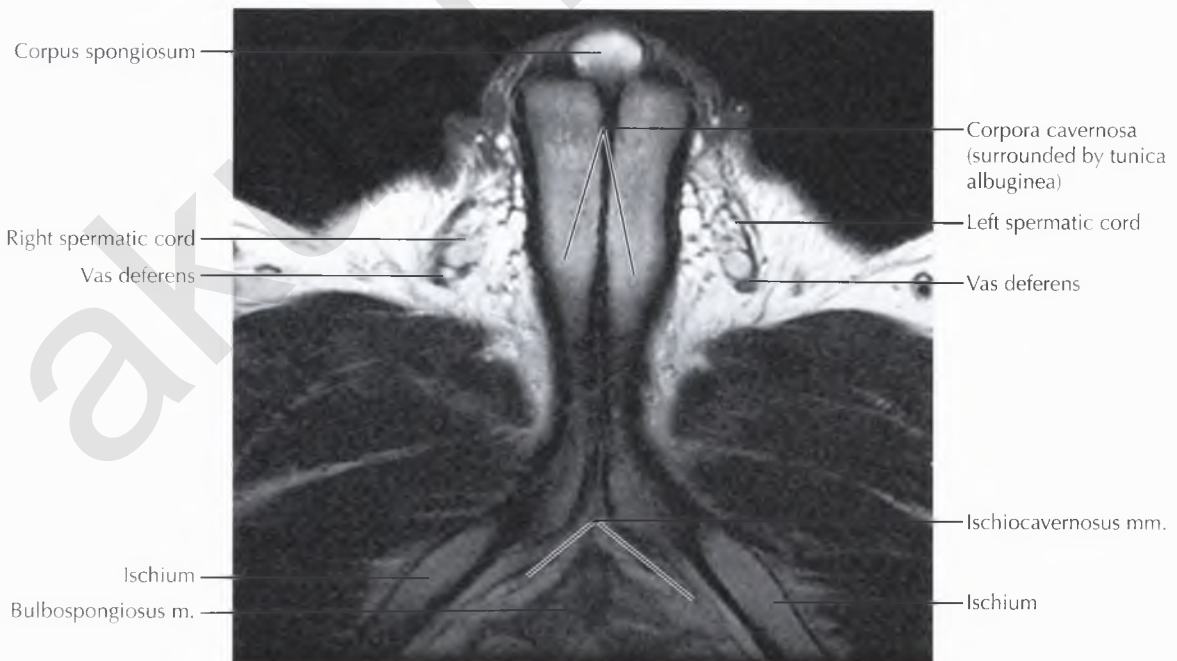
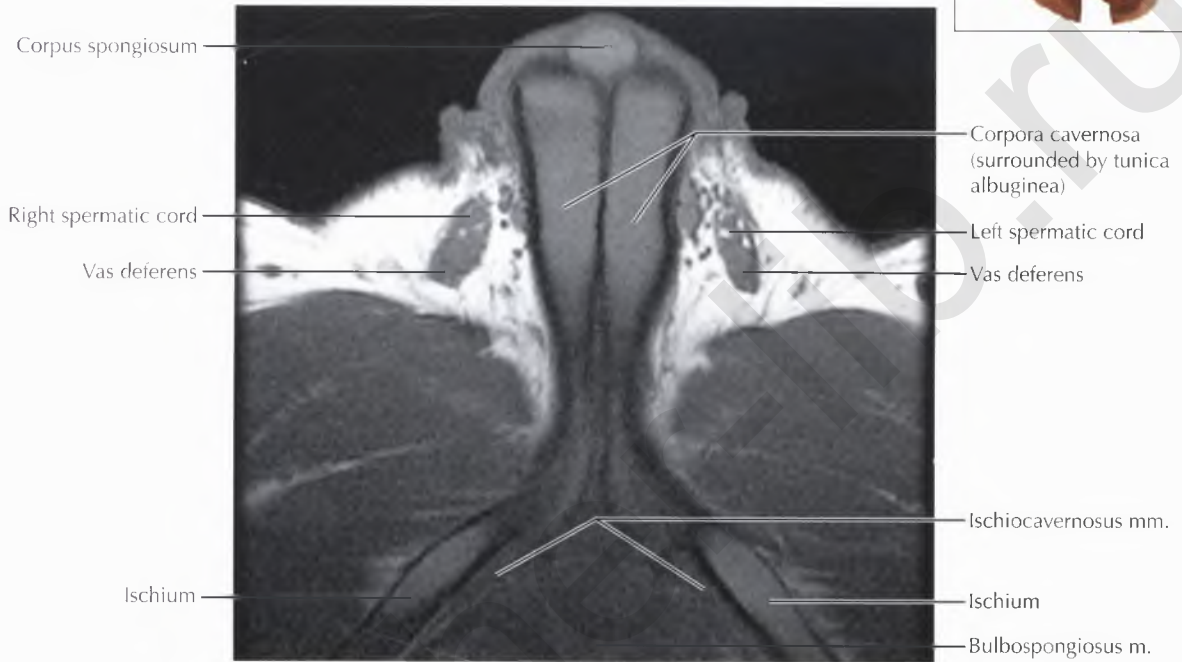
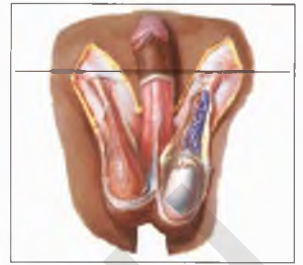
Lymphatic drainage of the testicles and epididymides follows venous drainage, with the left side draining to the left para-aortic nodes near the renal hilum and the right side draining to the aortocaval nodes. Epididymal drainage may also go to the external iliac nodes. Lymphatic drainage from the skin of the scrotum is typically to the inguinal nodes.



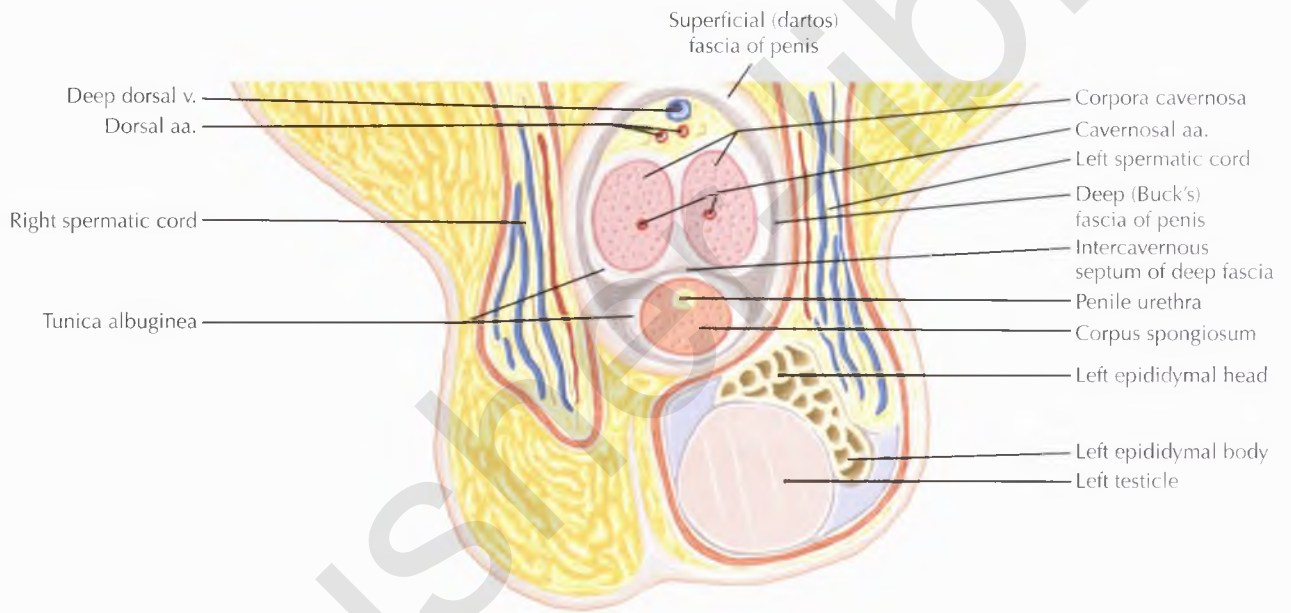


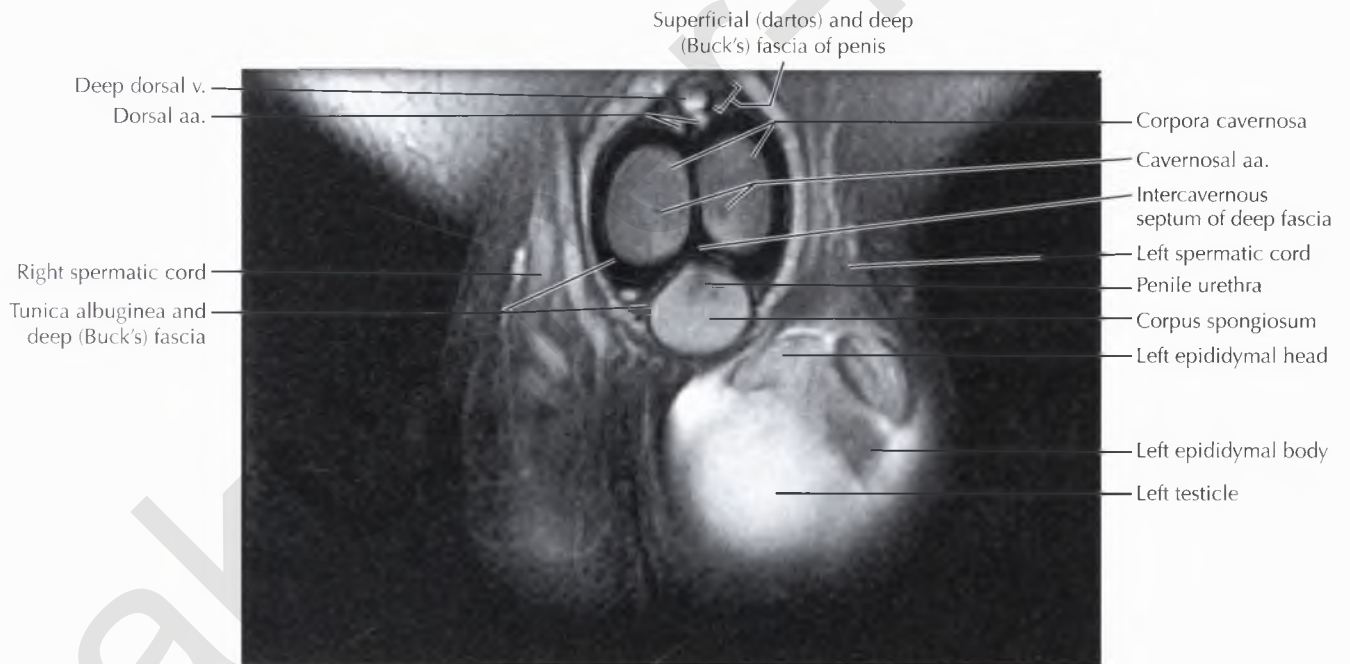
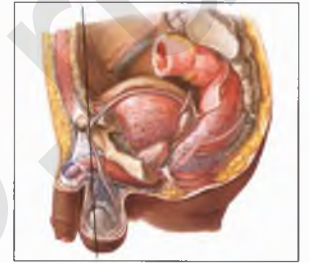


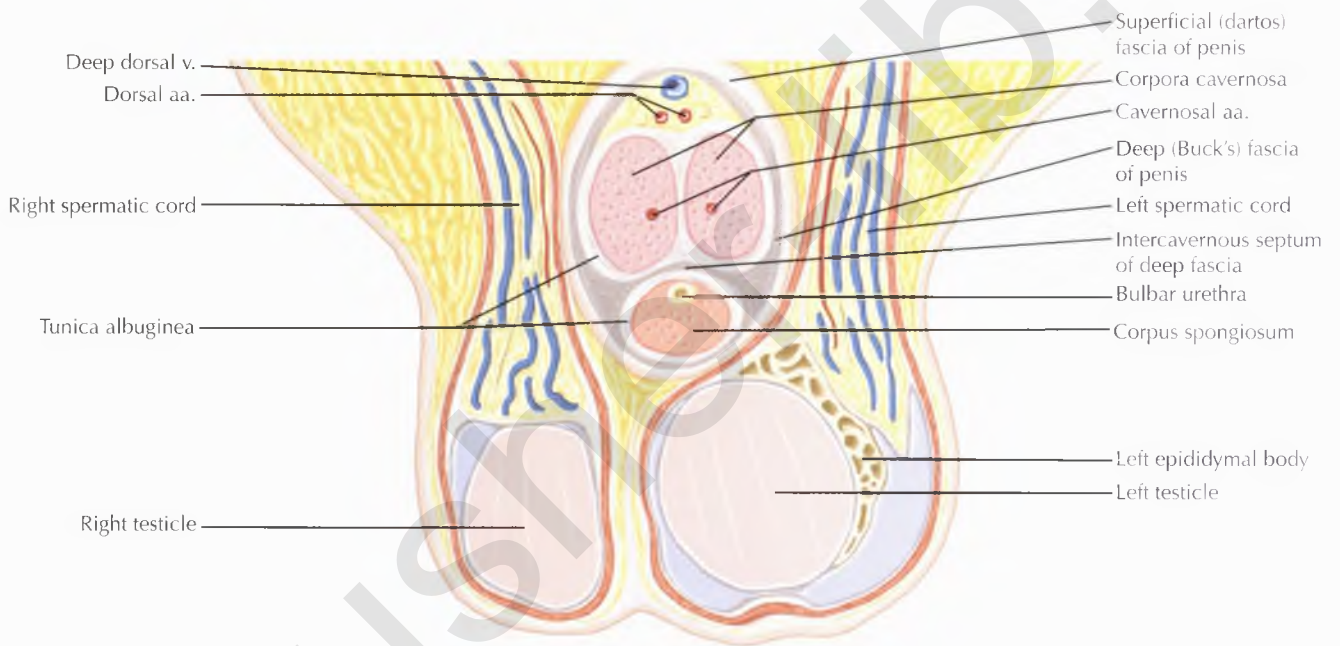


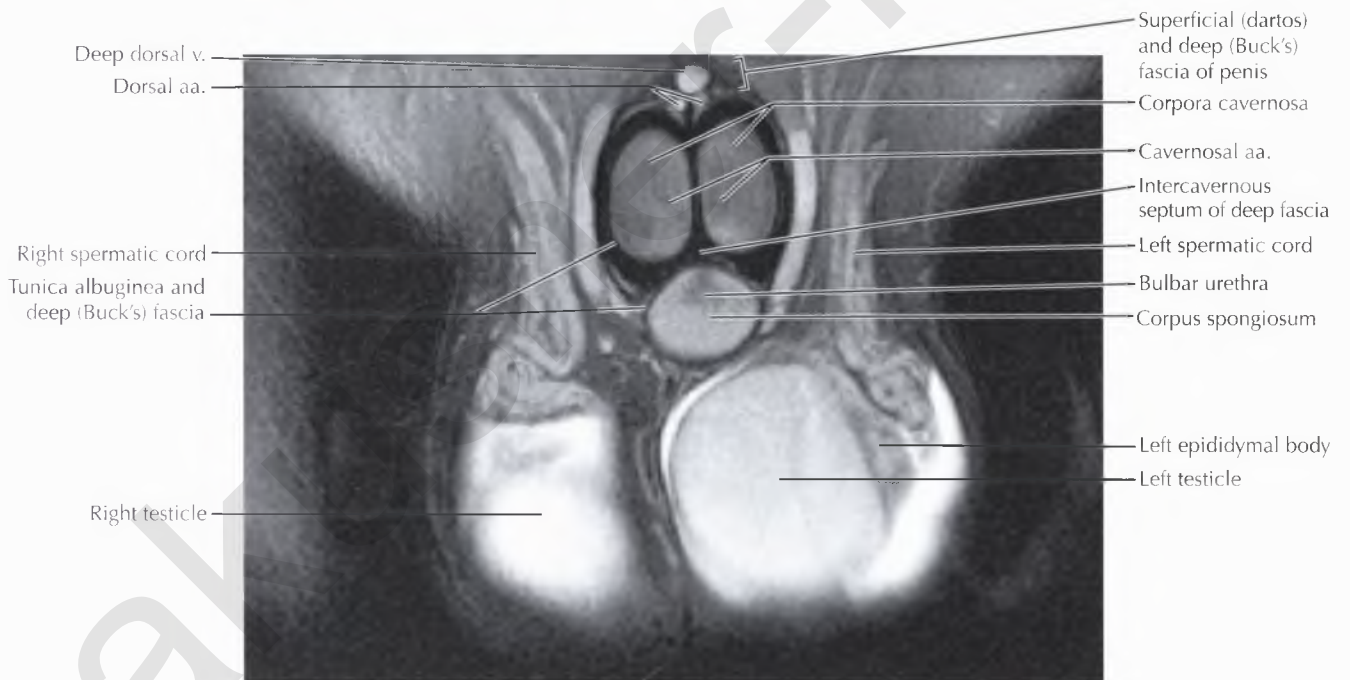
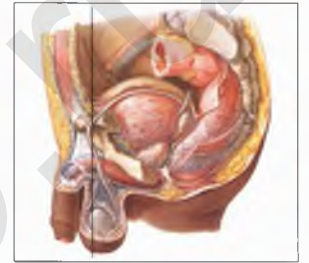


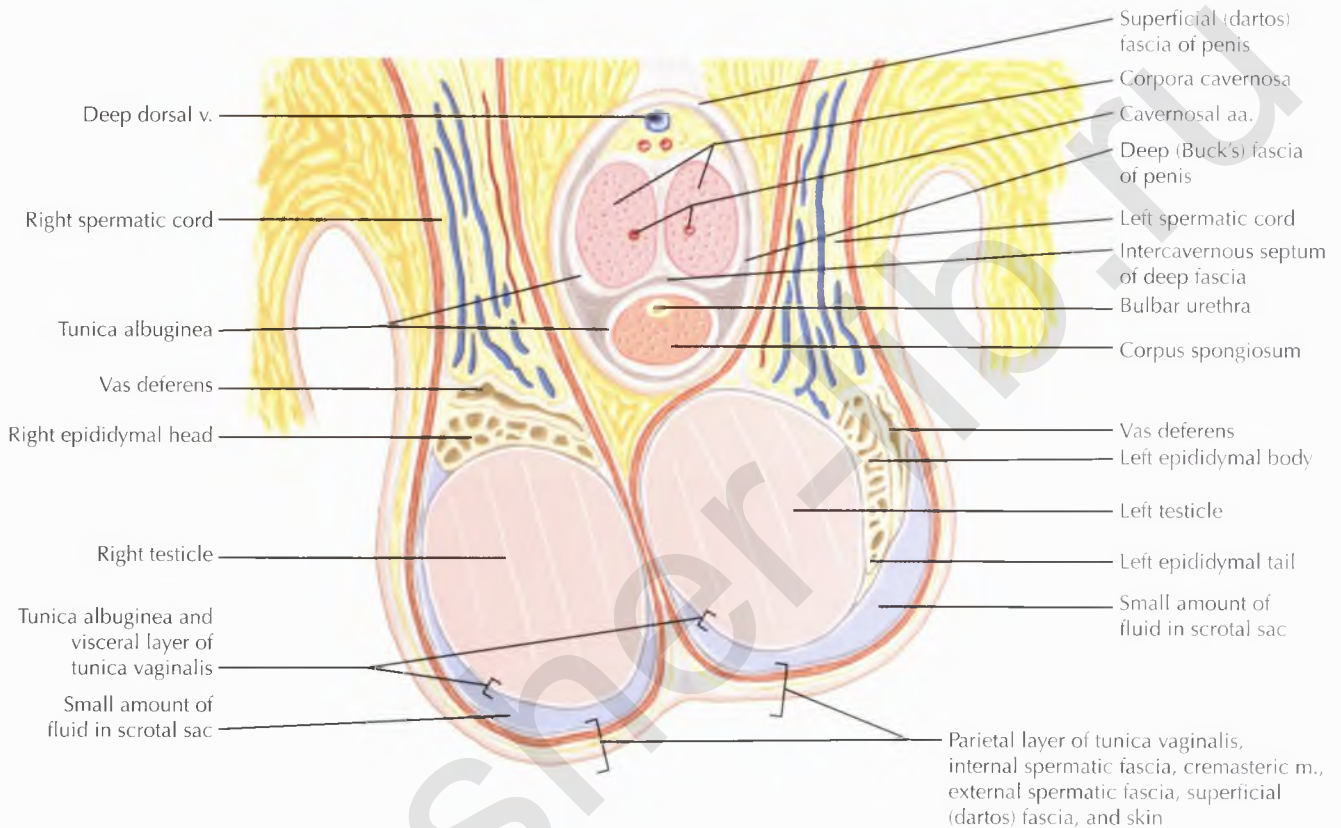
SCROTUM AND TESTES CORONAL 1





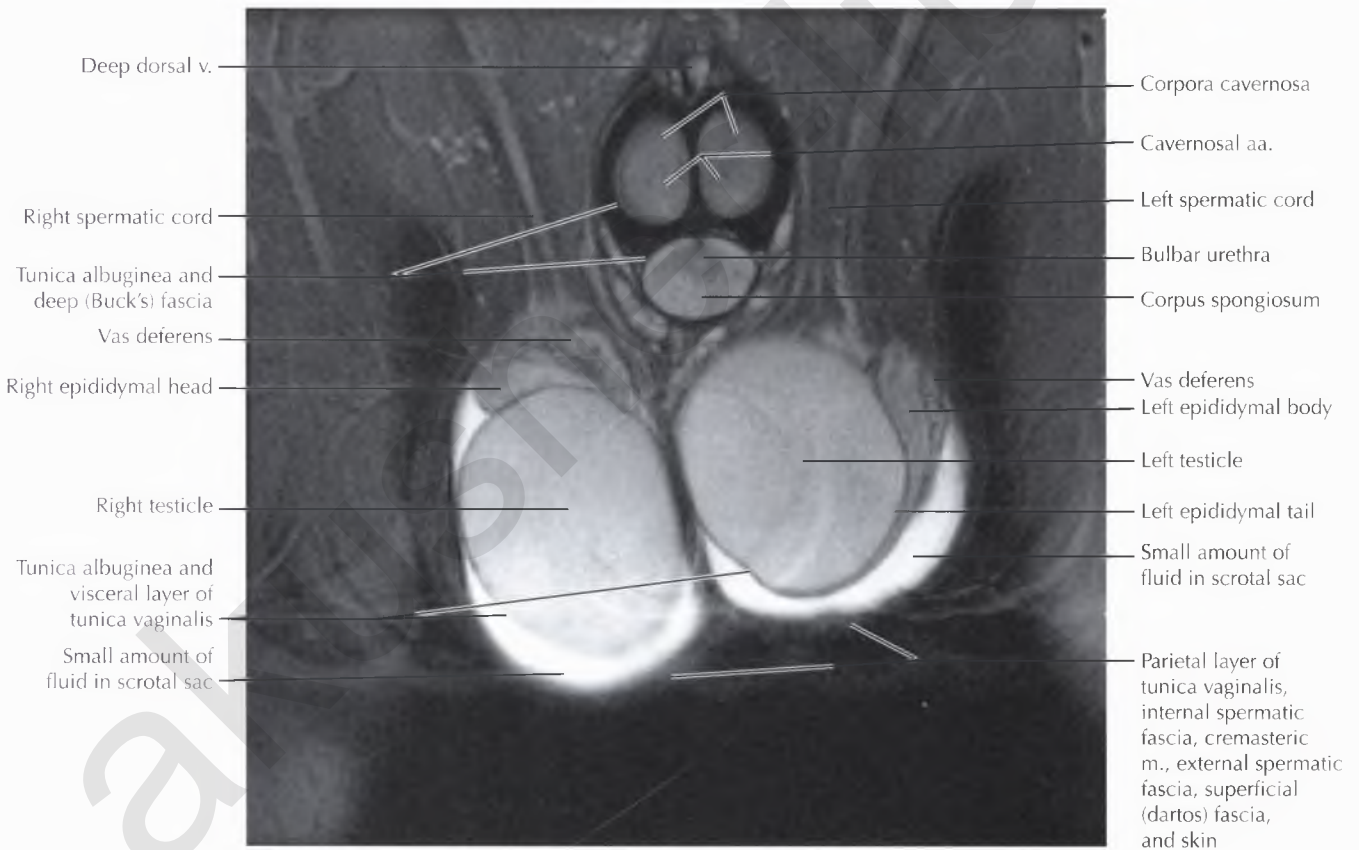
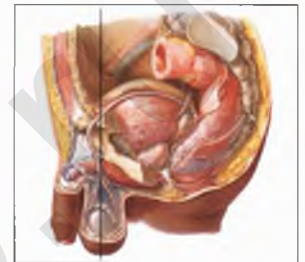


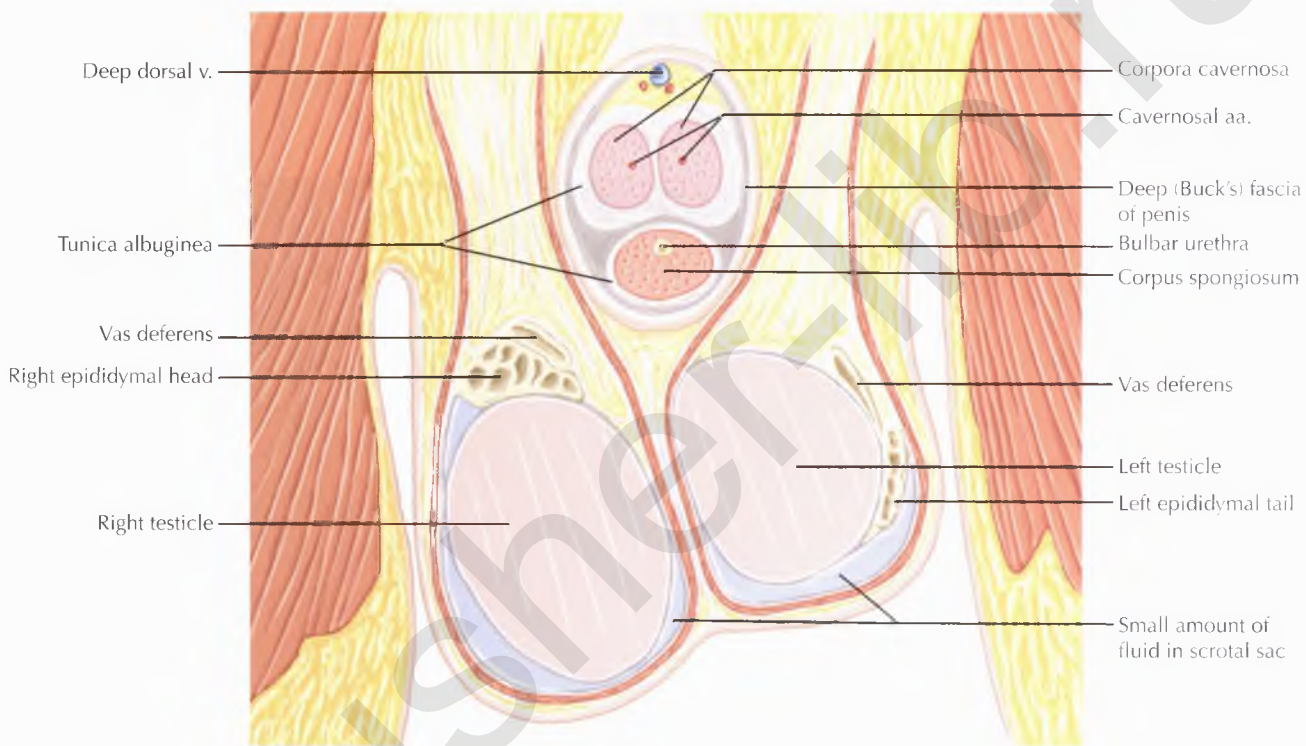




NORMAL ANATOMY

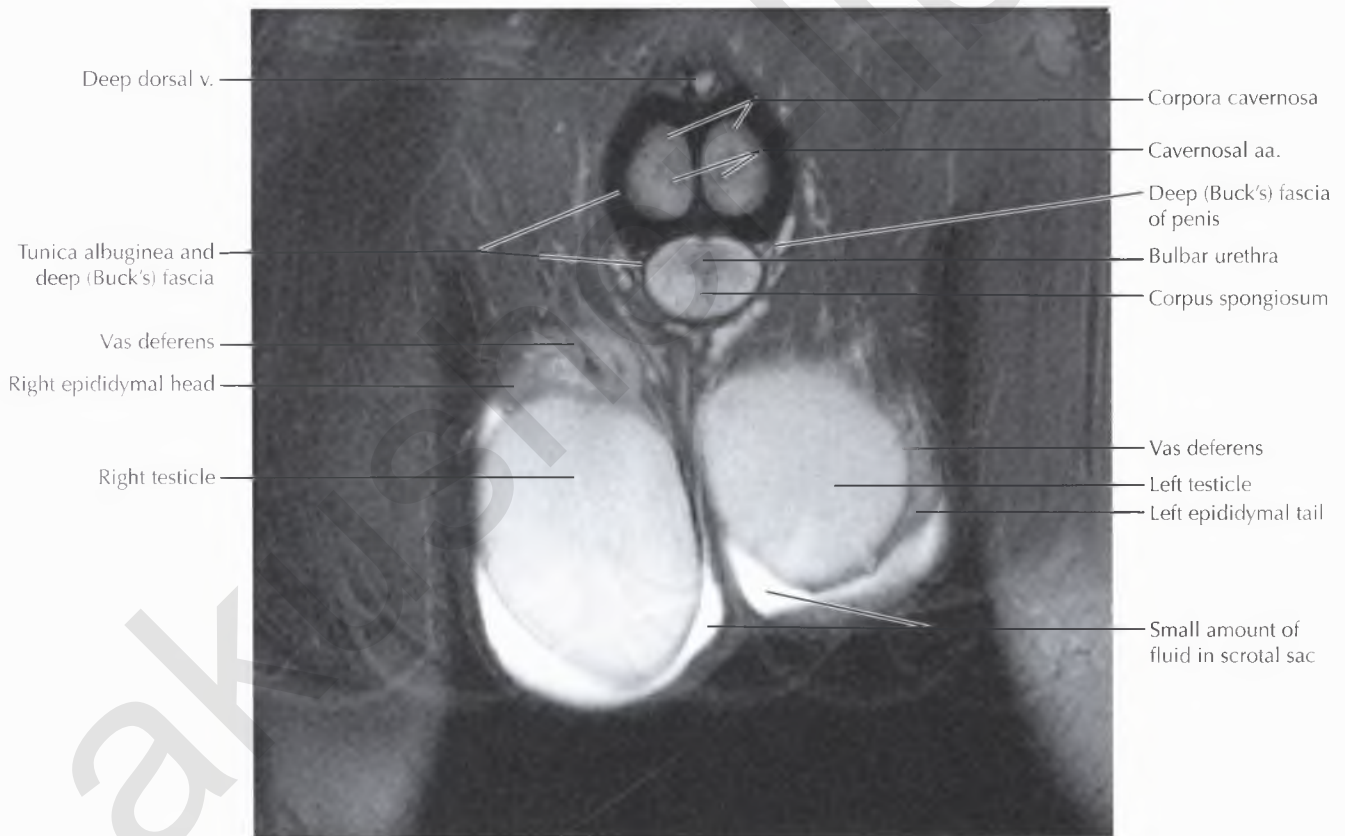
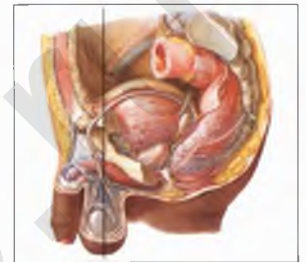
The abdominal wall layers are continuous with the layers of the spermatic cord and scrotum, with the transversalis fascia continuing into the scrotum as the internal spermatic fascia, the internal oblique muscle continuing as the cremasteric muscle and fascia, and the external oblique muscle continuing as the external spermatic fascia. The parietal layer of the tunica vaginalis, internal spermatic fascia, cremasteric muscle, external spermatic fascia, superficial (dartos) fascia, and skin (from internal to external direction) are not separable on MRI and appear as a single, hypointense scrotal lining. The visceral layer of the tunica vaginalis also blends imperceptibly with the tunica albuginea of the testicle, forming a single, hypointense layer around the testicle. It is normal to see a small amount of scrotal fluid between the visceral and parietal layers of the tunica vaginalis, which acts as a lubricant.

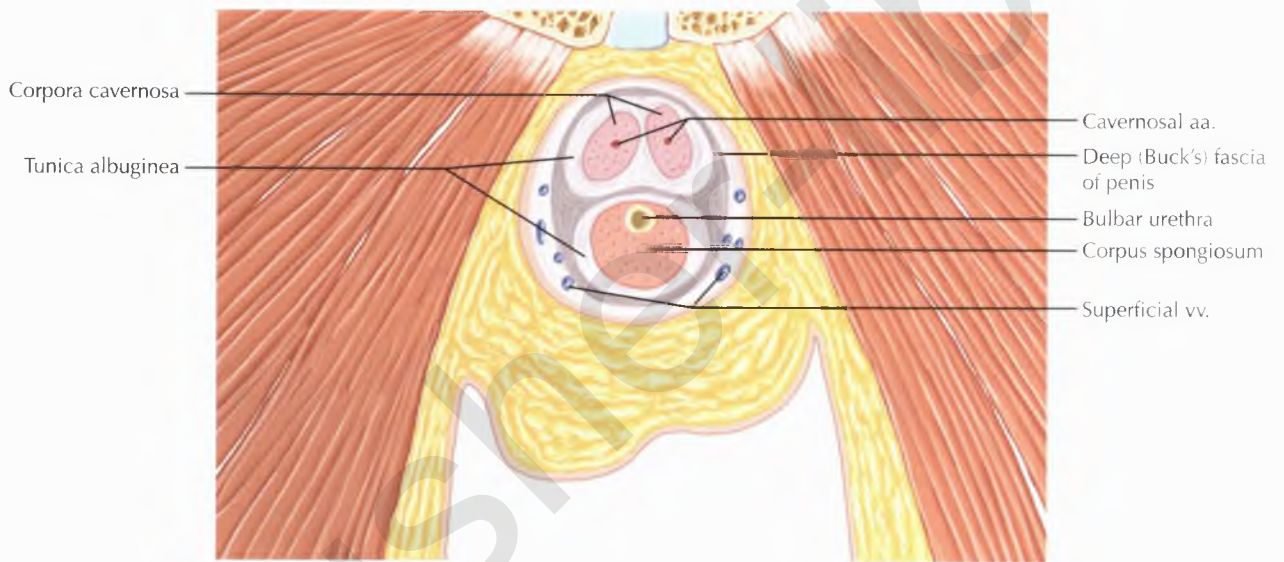




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

A pathologic collection of fluid between the visceral and parietal layers of the tunica vaginalis is called a *hydrocele*, which may be congenital (caused by patent processus vaginalis peritonei) or acquired.







Corpora cavernosa

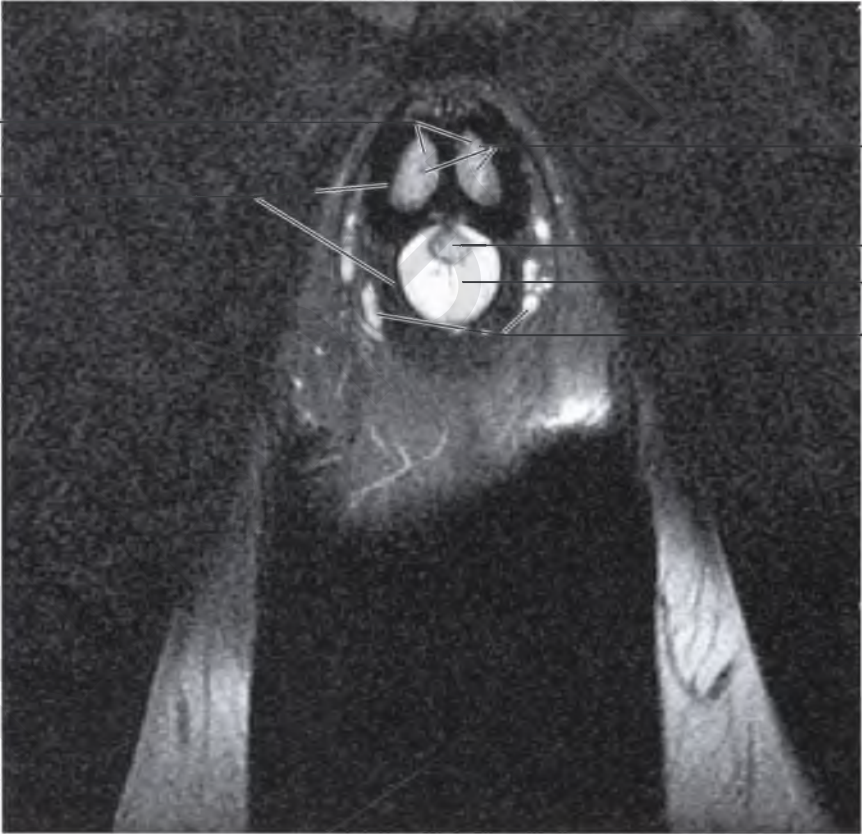
Tunica albuginea
and deep (Buck's)
fascia of penis

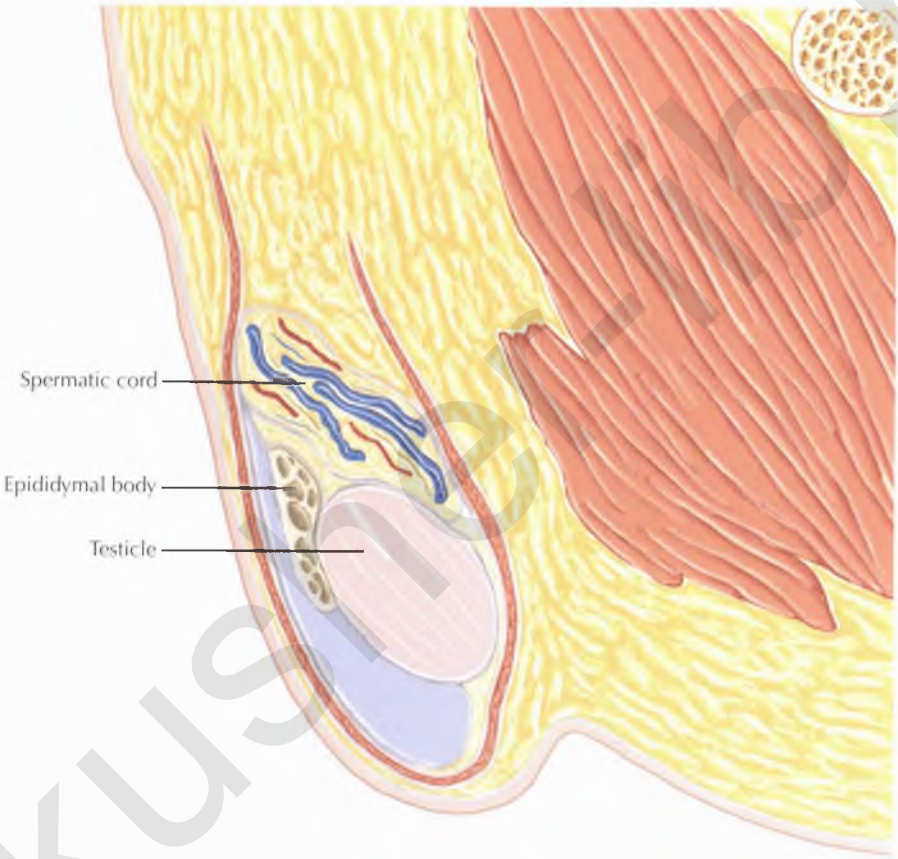
Cavernosal aa.

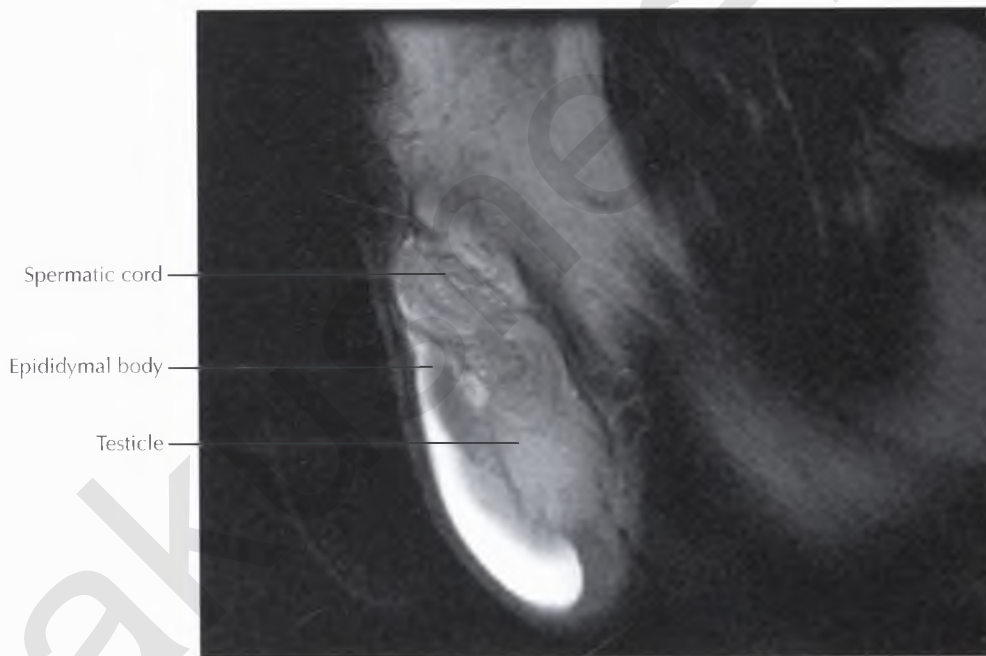
Bulbar urethra

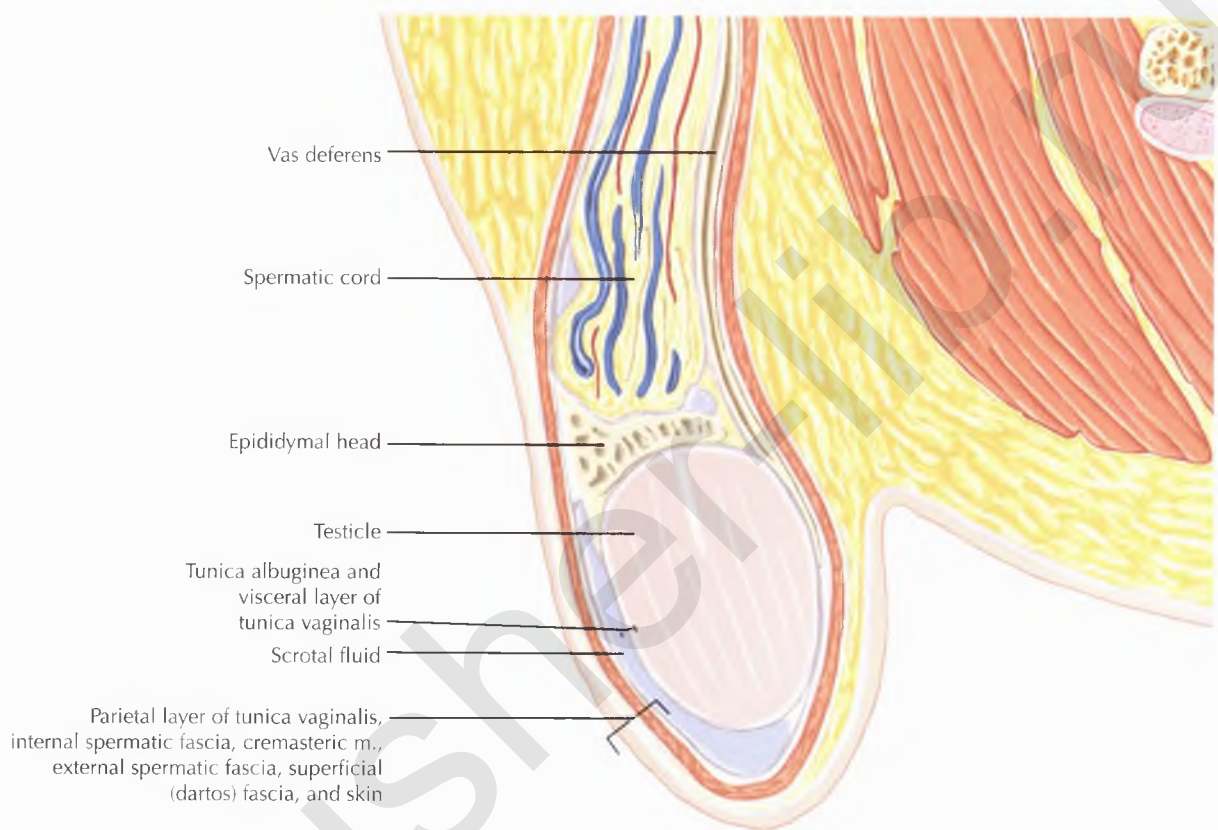
Corpus spongiosum

Superficial vv.



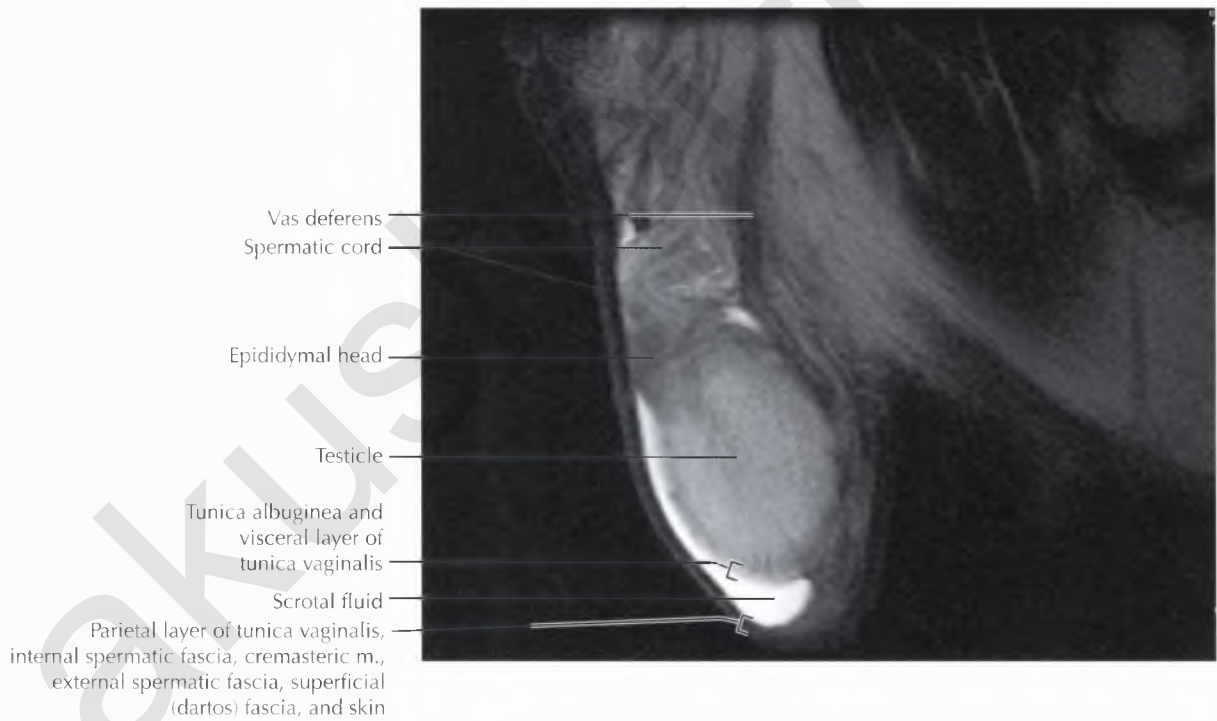


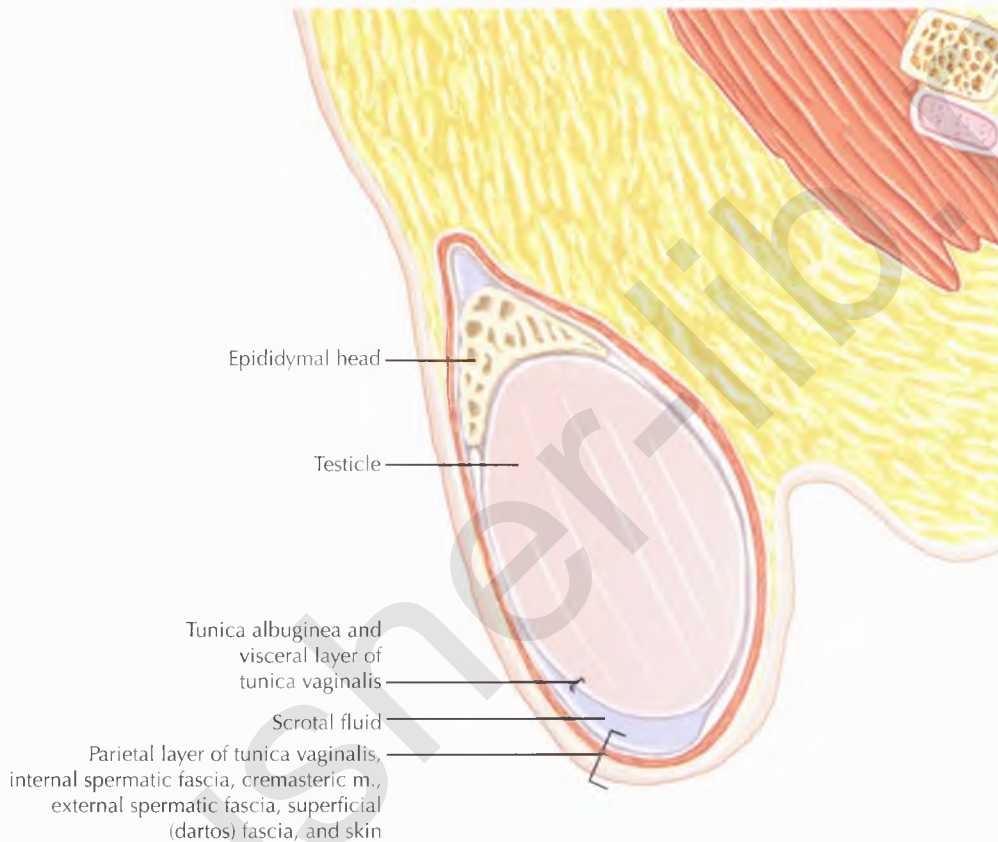




NORMAL ANATOMY

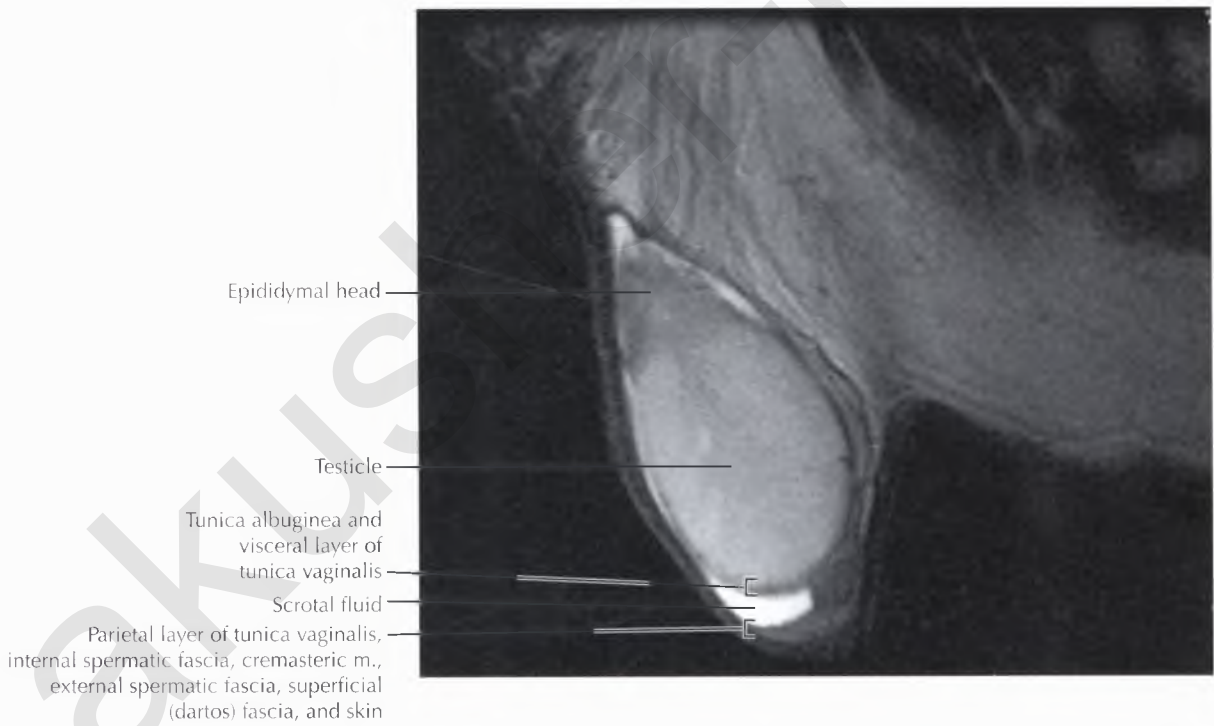
The *epididymis* is a crescent-shaped structure draped over the posterior testicle. The rete testis converges to form 15 to 20 efferent ductules, which form the head of the epididymis superiorly and then converge into a single, convoluted tubule in the body and tail of the epididymis inferiorly. The tubules emerge at an acute angle from the tail of the epididymis, forming the *vas deferens*, which continues cephalad in the spermatic cord, eventually merging with the seminal vesicle duct to form the ejaculatory duct.

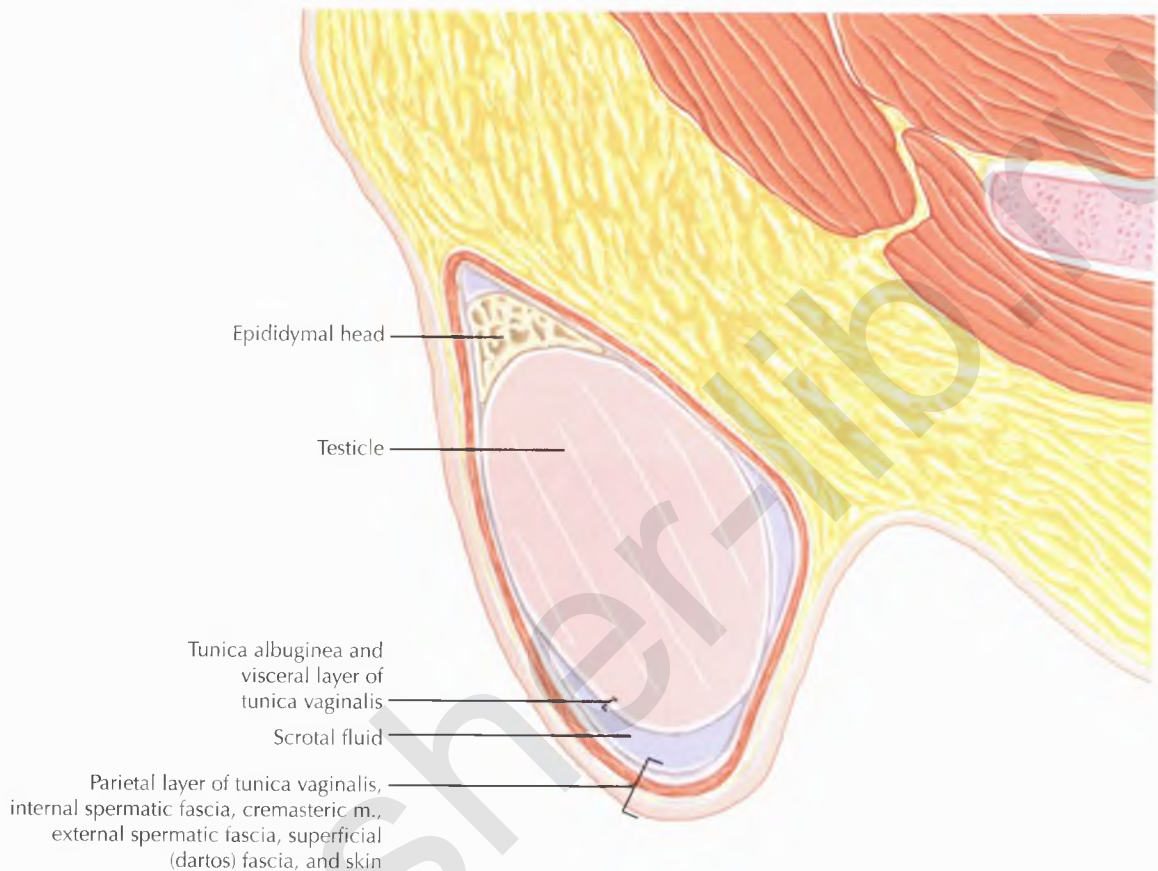




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

Embryologically, the *processus vaginalis peritonei* is a socklike evagination of the peritoneum that descends through the inguinal canal into the scrotal sac at about the 28th week of gestation. It gradually closes around the anterior and lateral sides of the testicle, allowing the testicle to remain fixed to the scrotal wall posteriorly. If the tunica vaginalis completely surrounds the testicle and epididymis ("bell clapper" deformity), the testicle is not anchored posteriorly and is at risk for testicular torsion.

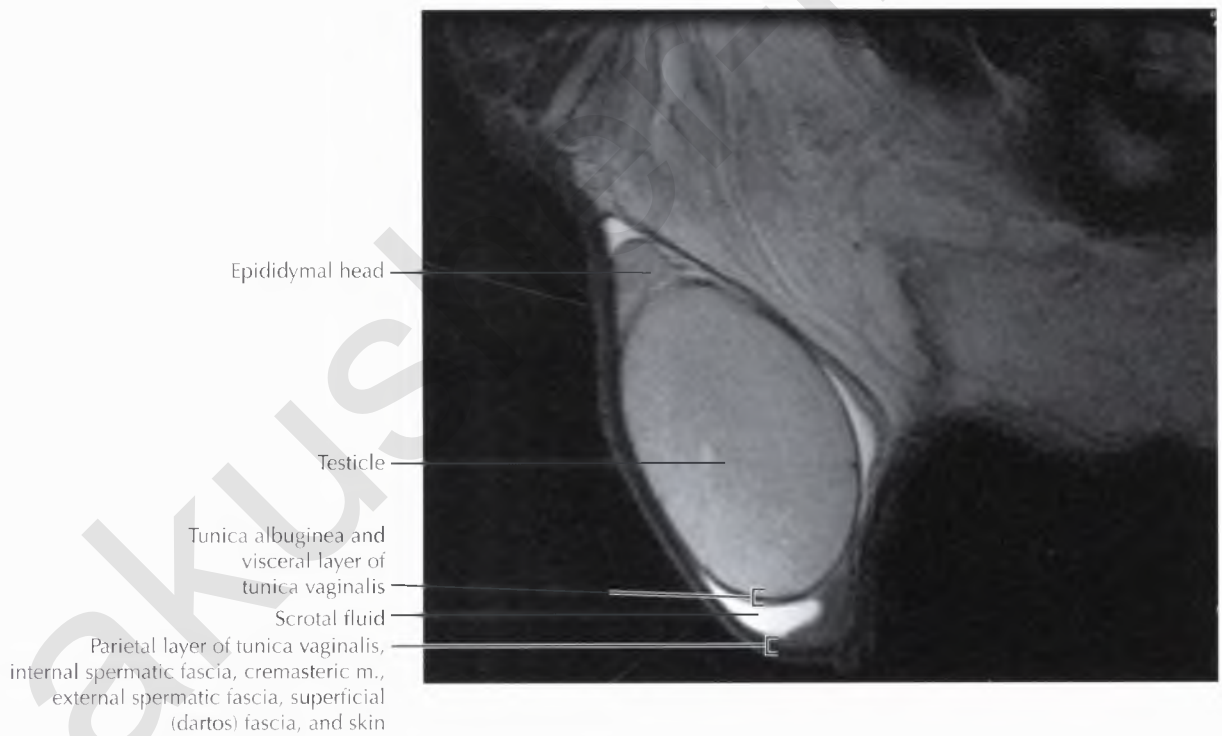


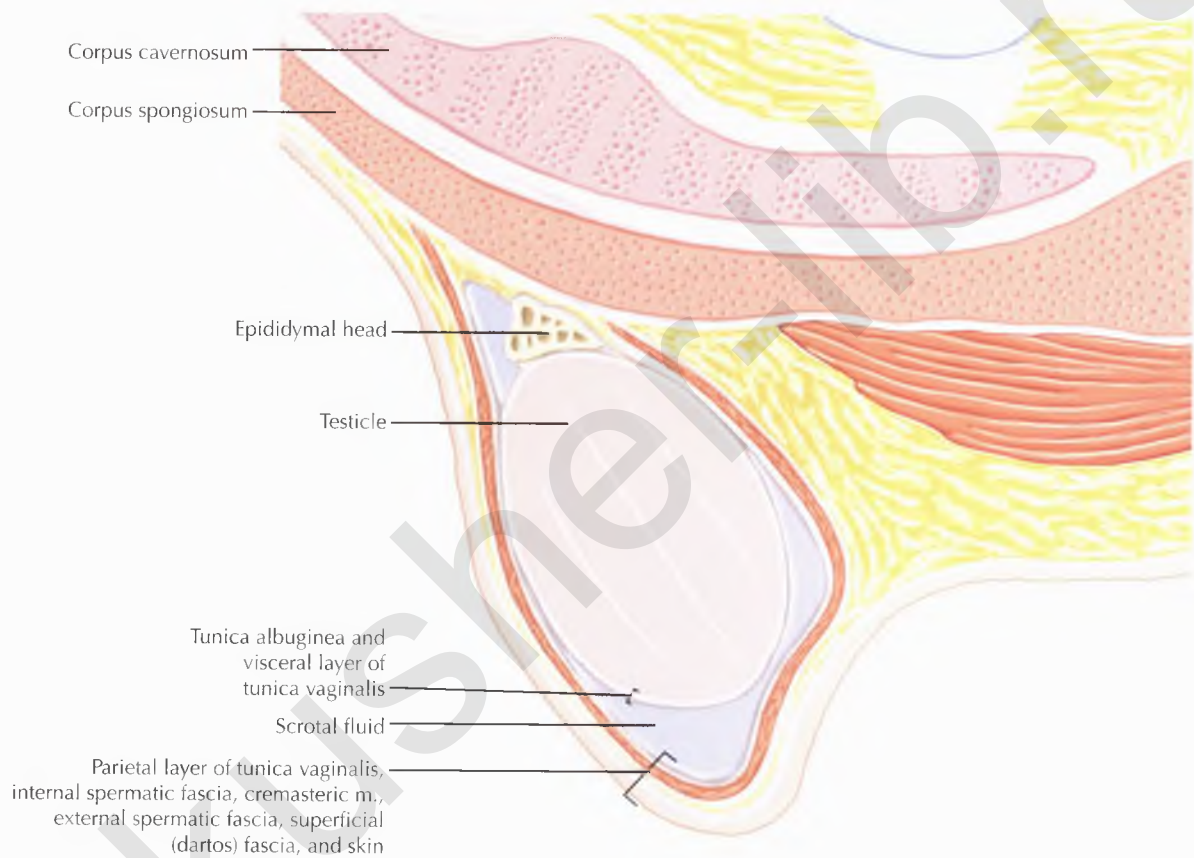


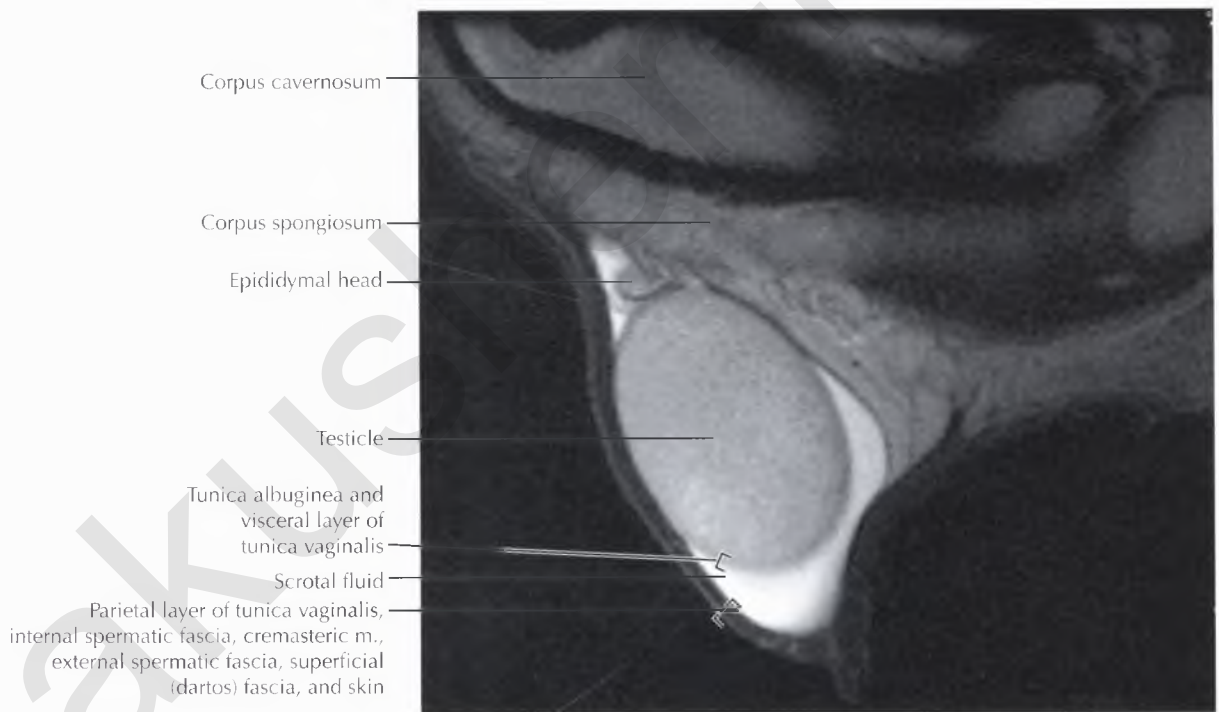
DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

The differentiation between an intratesticular and an extratesticular location of a scrotal mass is important because most extratesticular masses are benign and most intratesticular masses are malignant. *Germ cell tumors* account for 95% of the testicular malignancies in young men. Mixed germ cell tumors are the most common type overall, followed by pure seminomas. Embryonal carcinoma, yolk sac tumor, choriocarcinoma, and teratoma are less common. Sex cord (Sertoli cell) tumors and stromal (Leydig cell) tumors are much less common. In older men, lymphoma, leukemia, and metastasis should also be considered in the differential diagnosis of an intratesticular mass.

The most common extratesticular neoplasms are *lipomas*, usually arising from the spermatic cord, and adenomatoid tumors, usually arising from the epididymis.



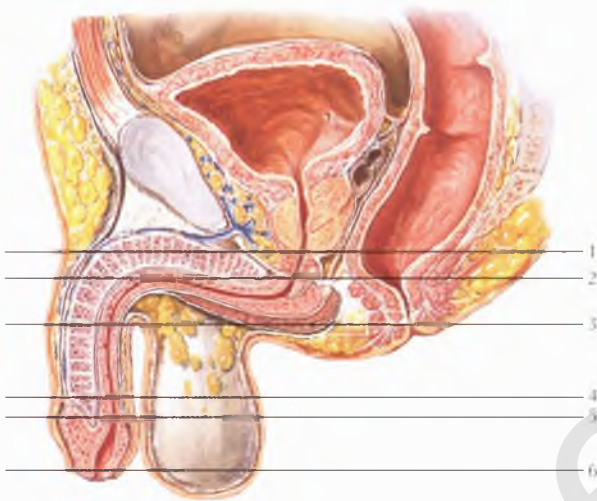




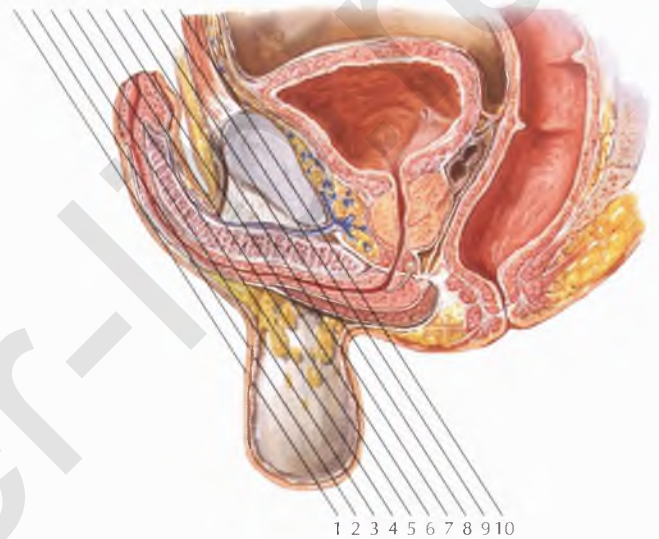
Chapter

9

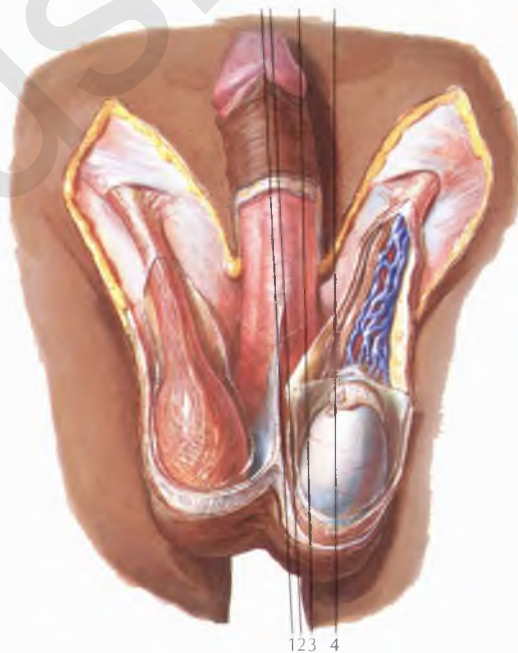
PENIS AND MALE URETHRA



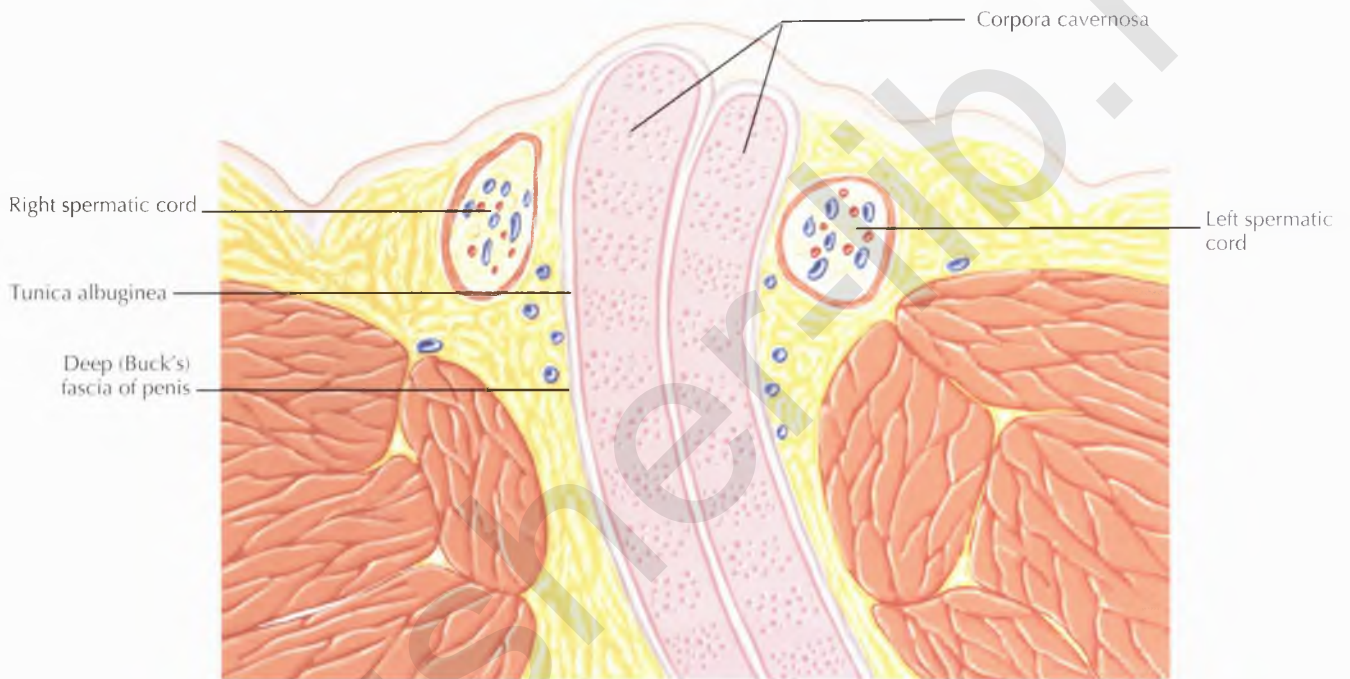
AXIAL 390



CORONAL 402

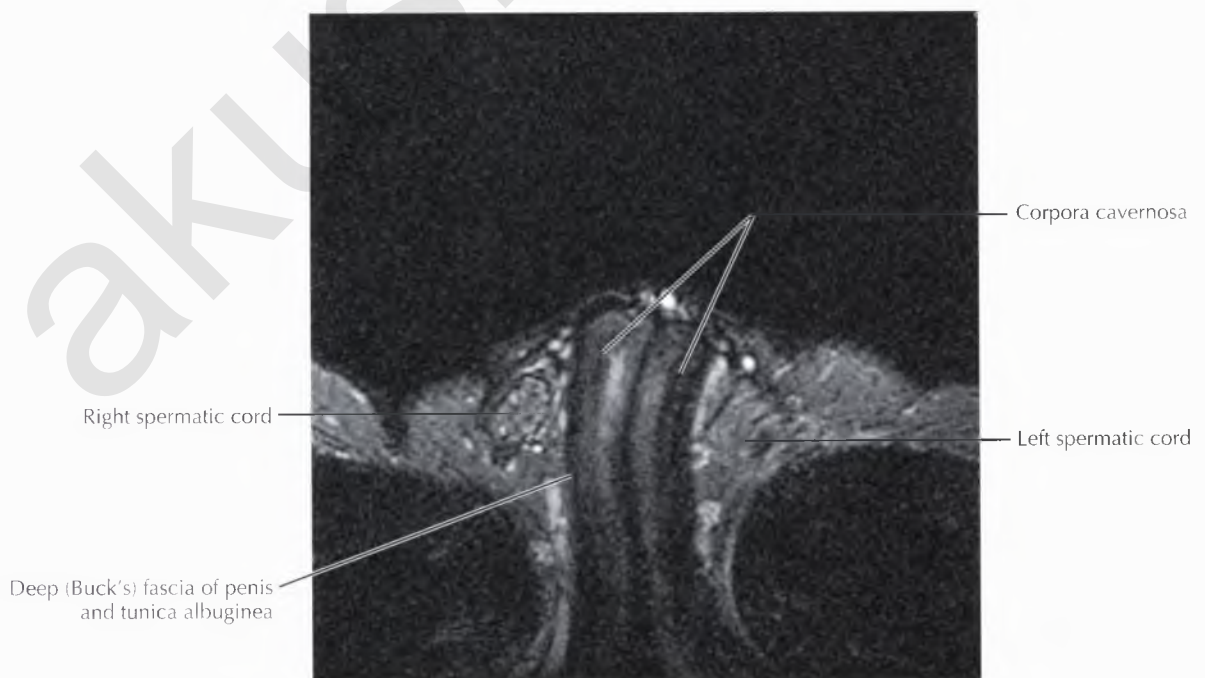
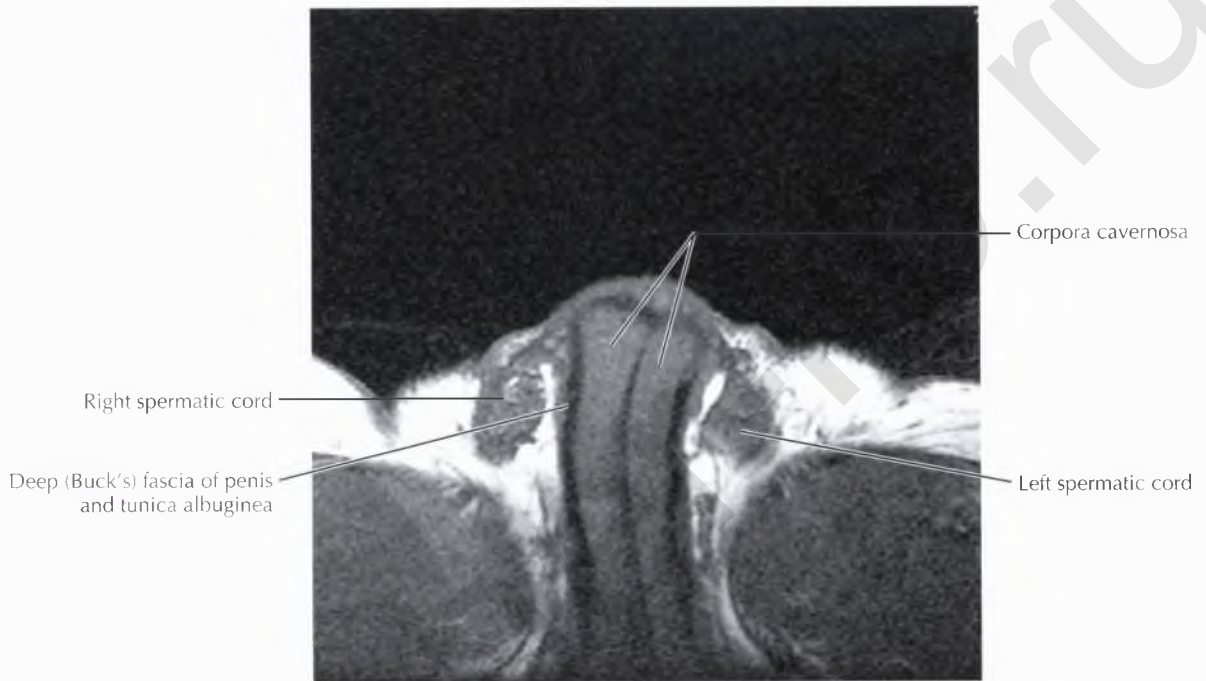
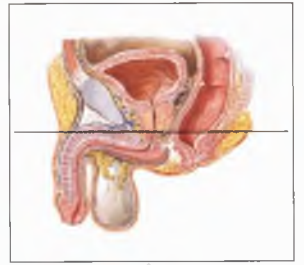


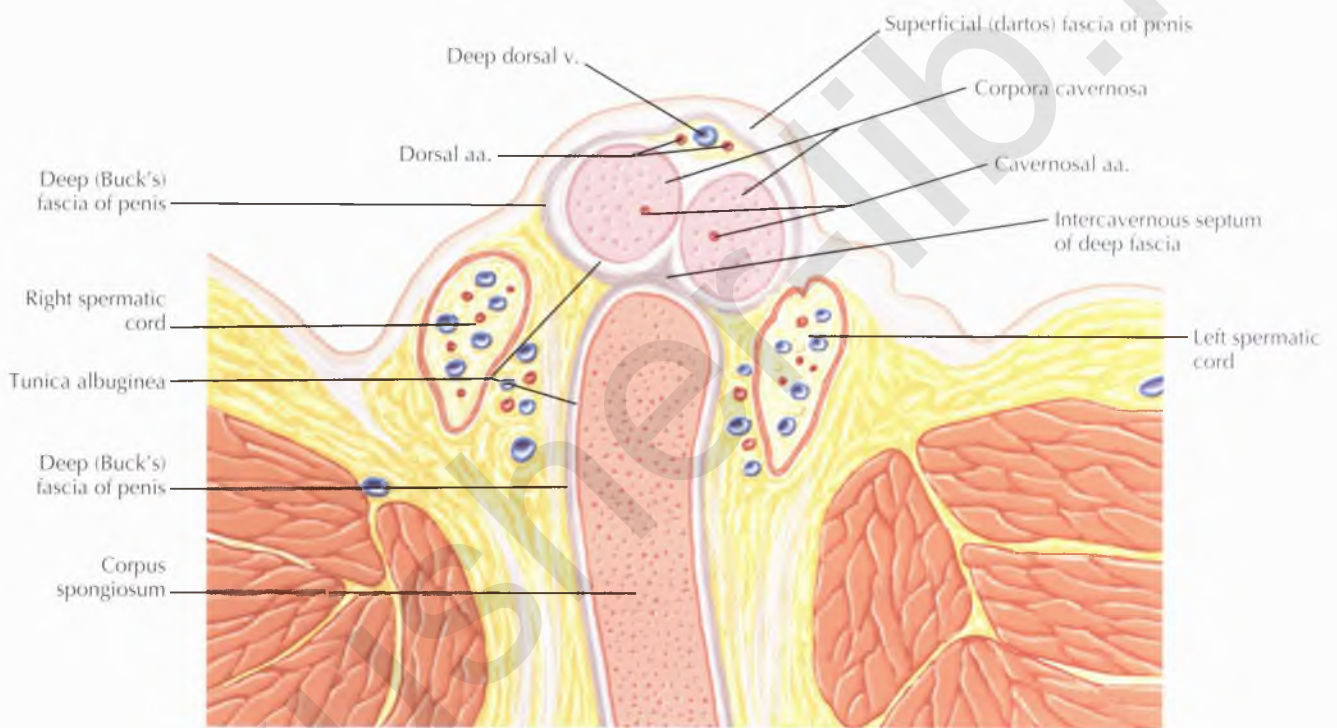
SAGITTAL 422

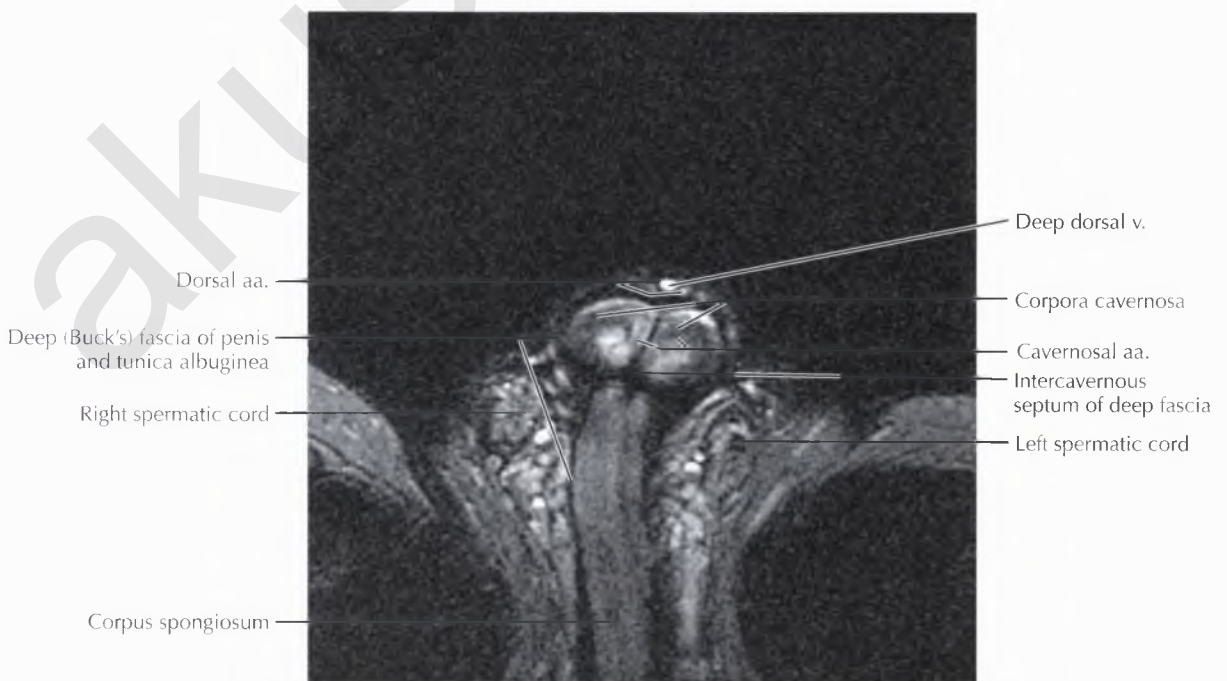
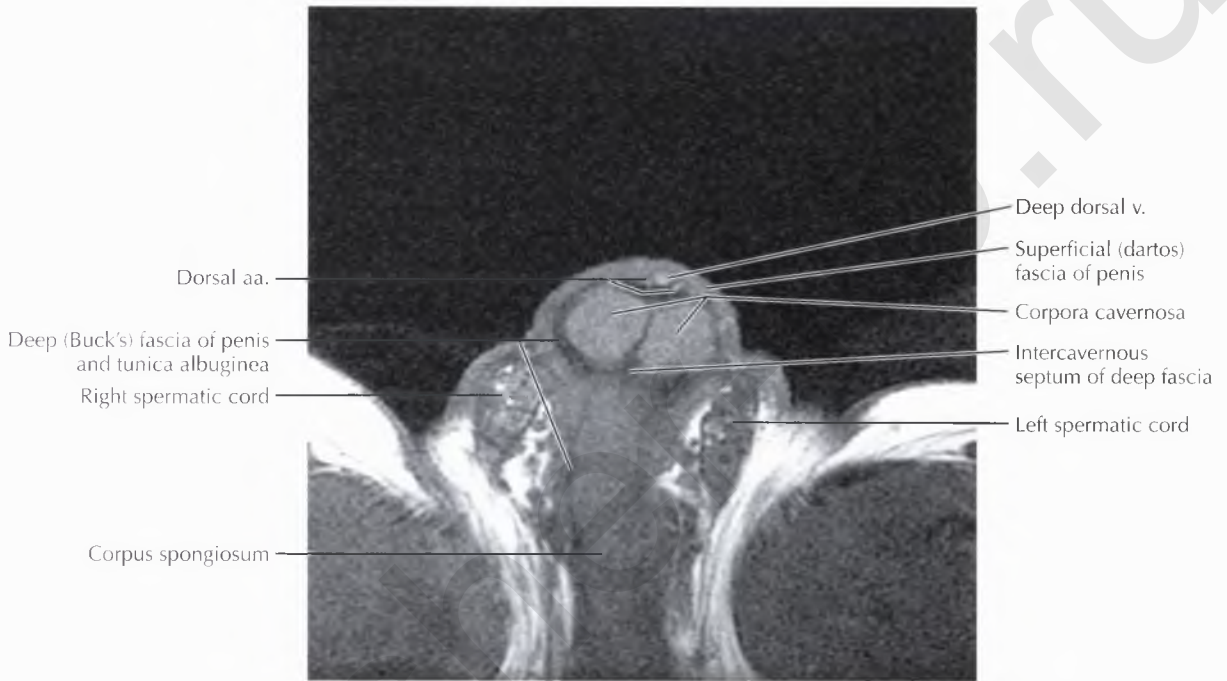
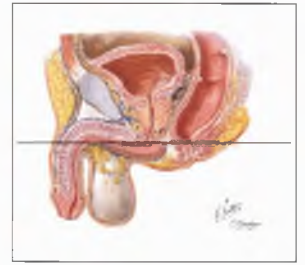


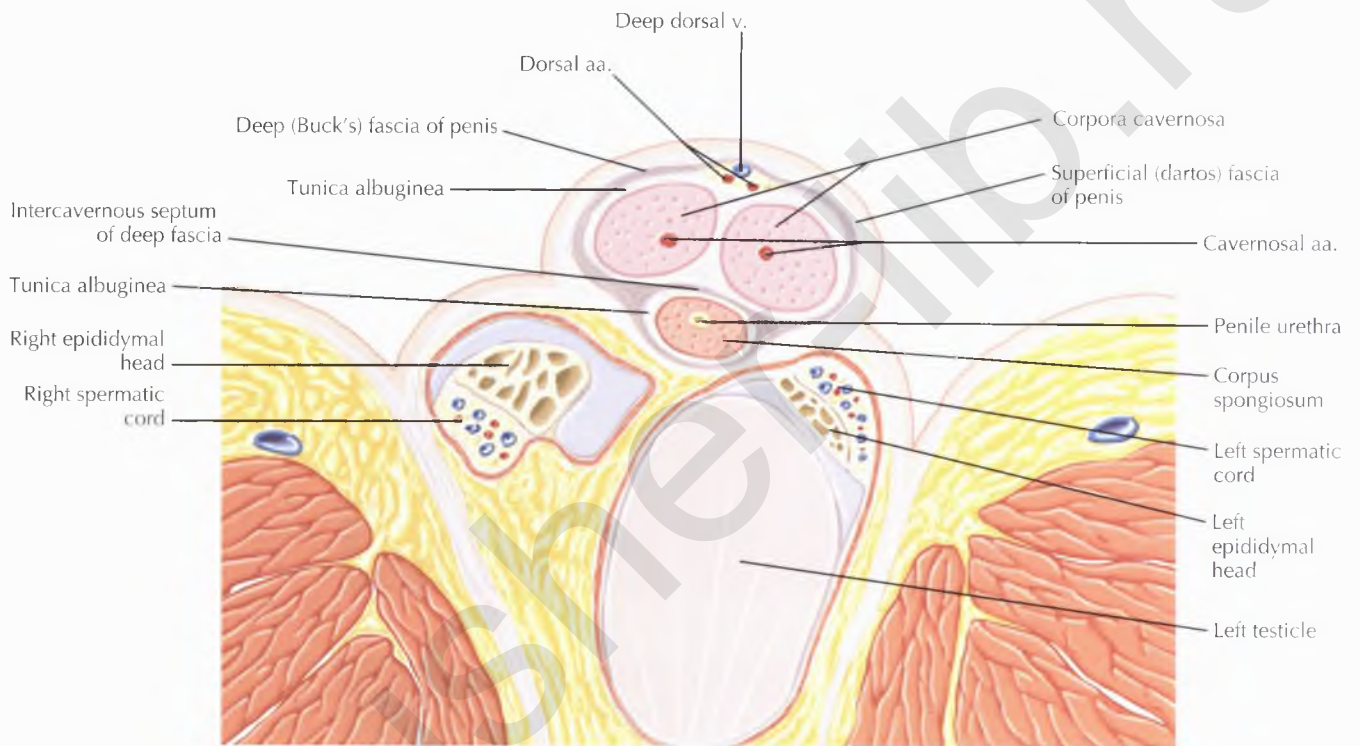
DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

Common indications for magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the penis include detection and staging of penile and urethral malignancies, evaluation of penile prostheses, and detection of penile fractures, Peyronie's disease, and periurethral abscesses.



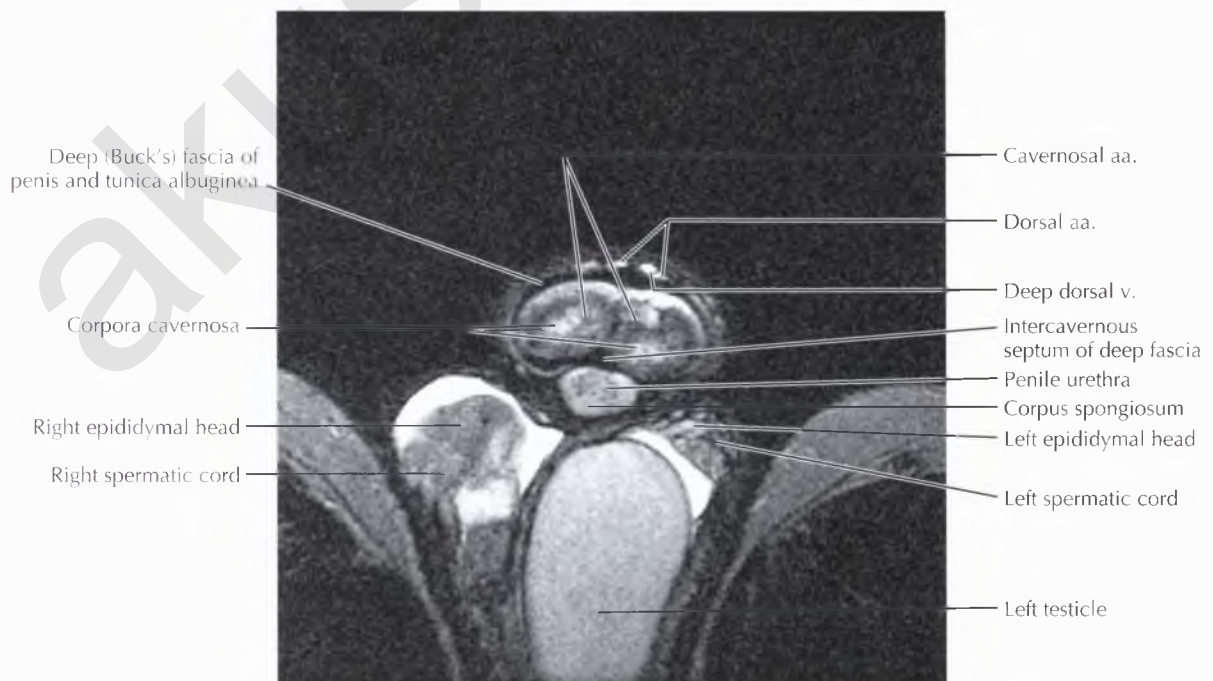
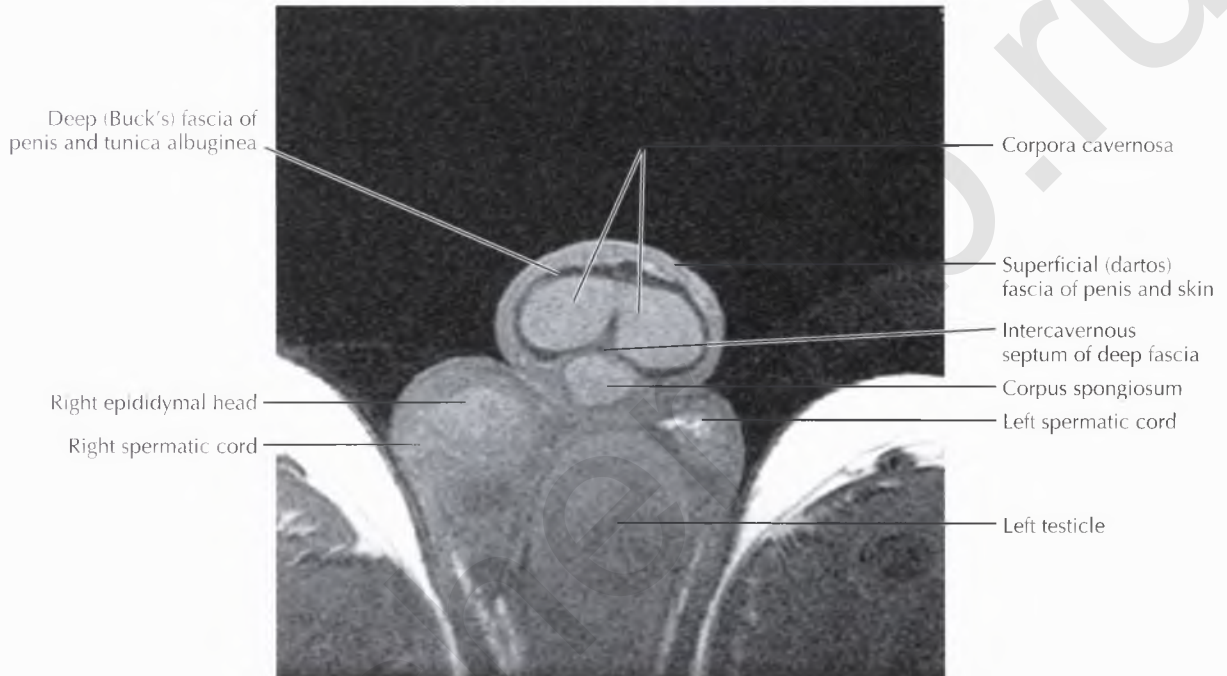
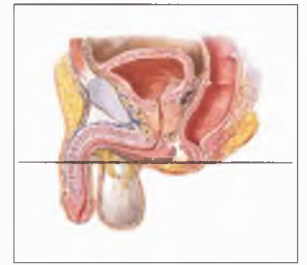


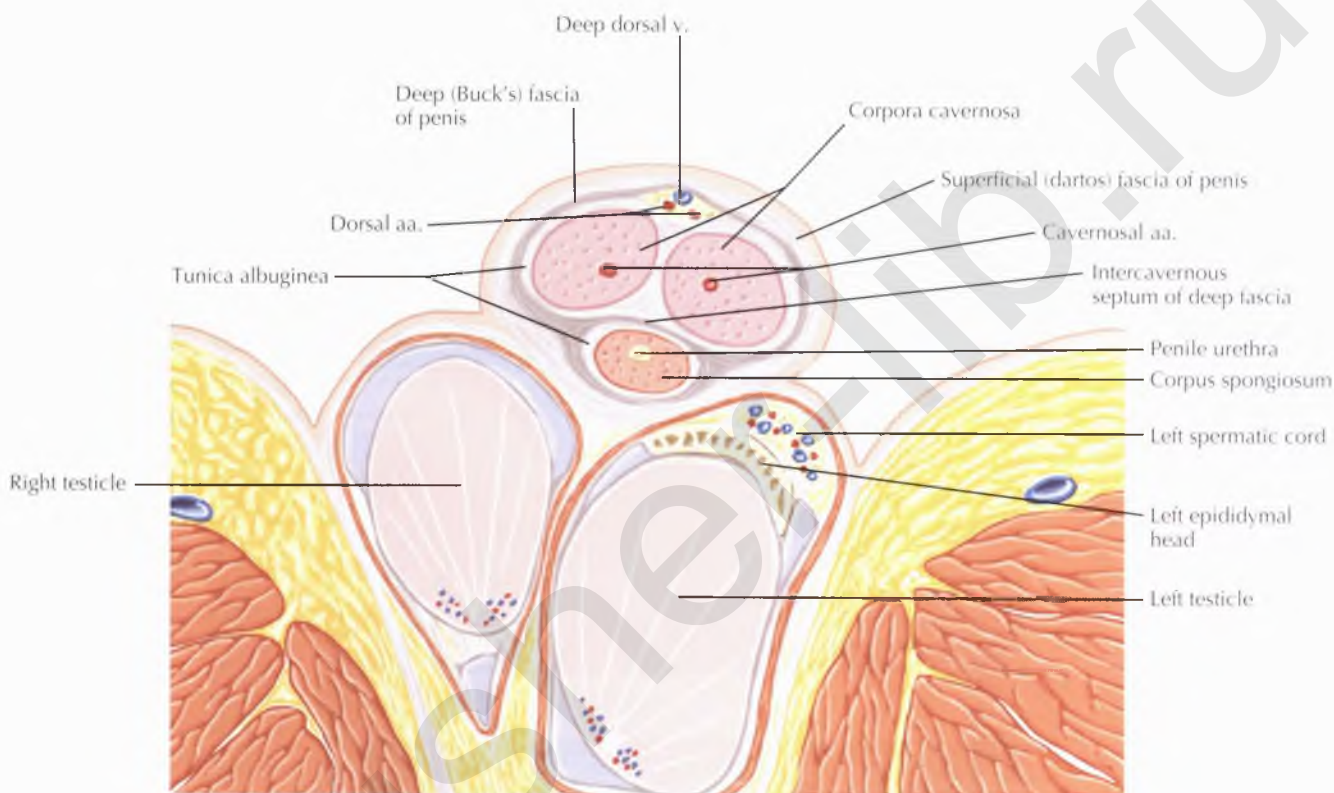




NORMAL ANATOMY

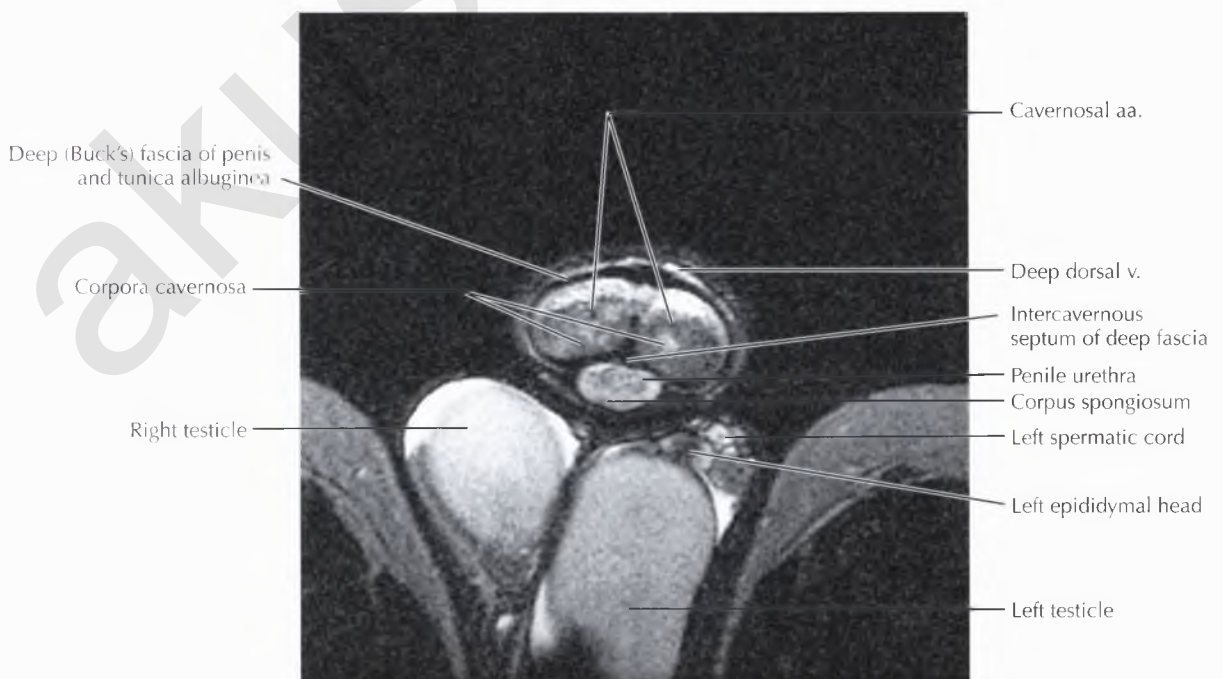
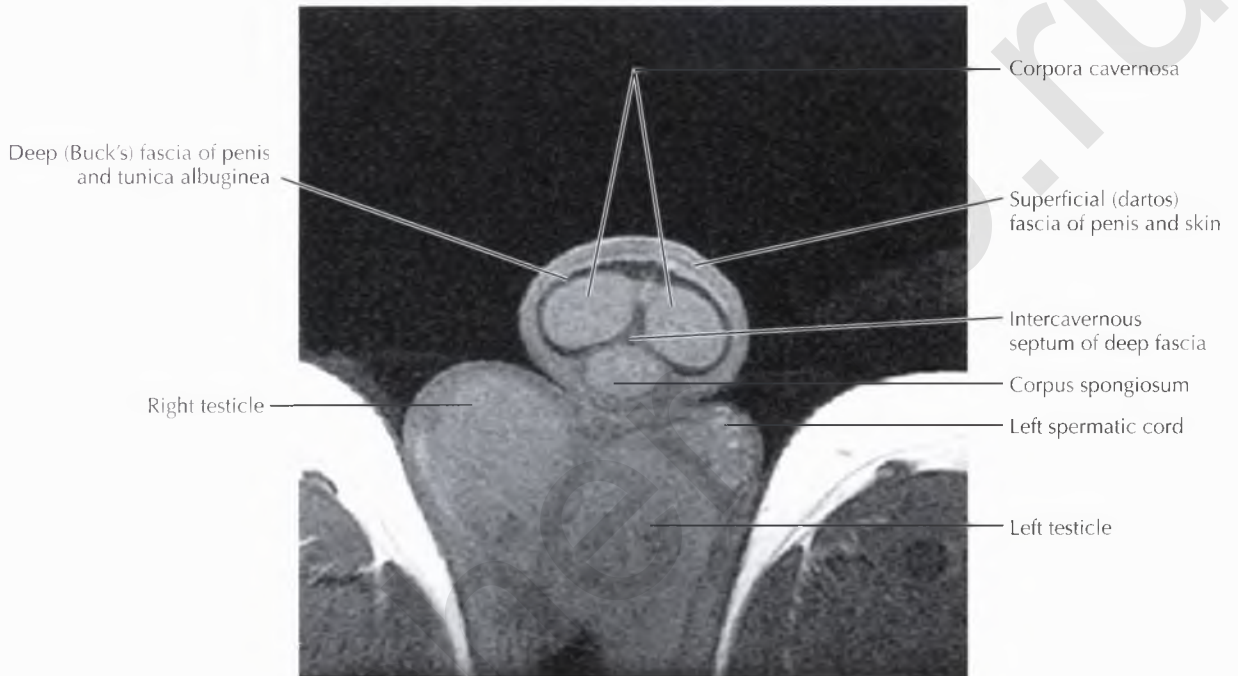
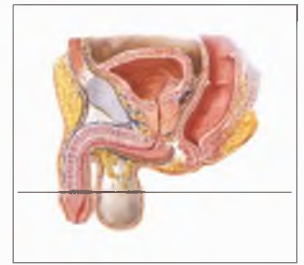
The penis is composed of three cylindrical cavernous spaces: the paired dorsal corpora cavernosa and the single ventral corpus spongiosum.

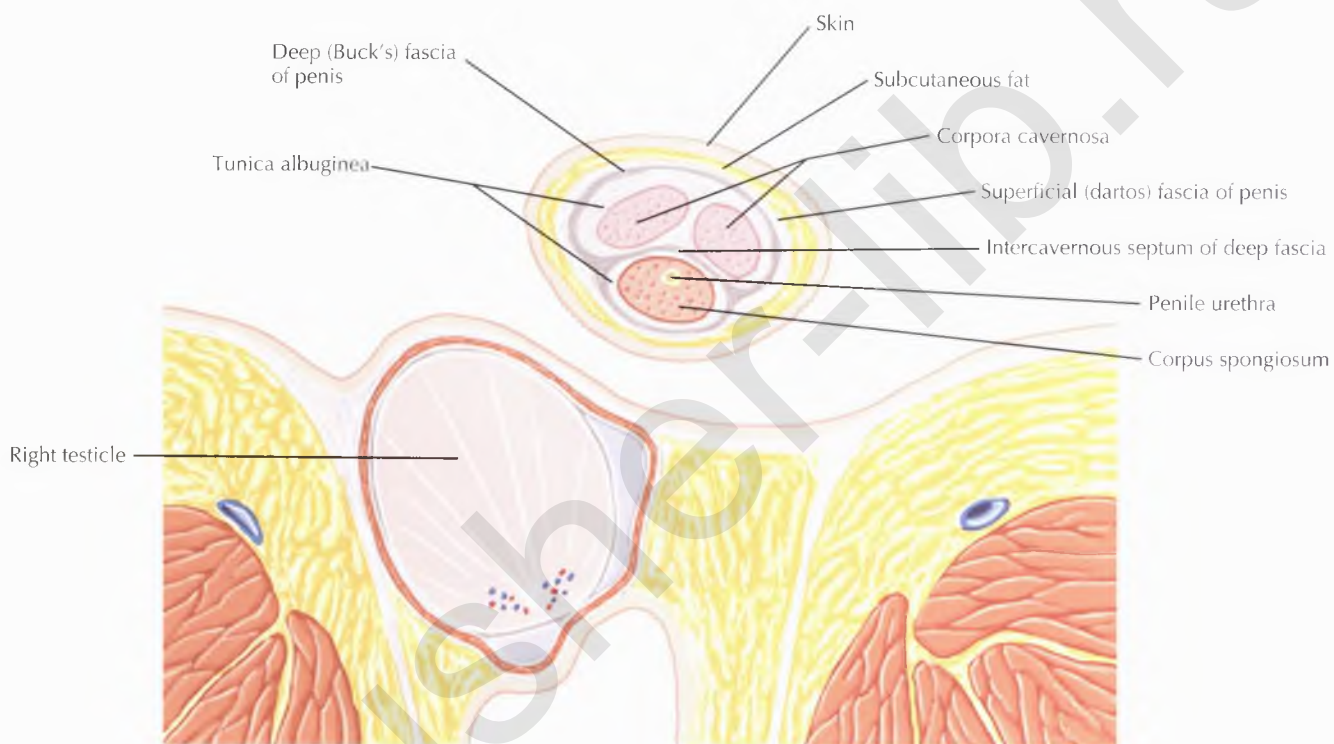




NORMAL ANATOMY

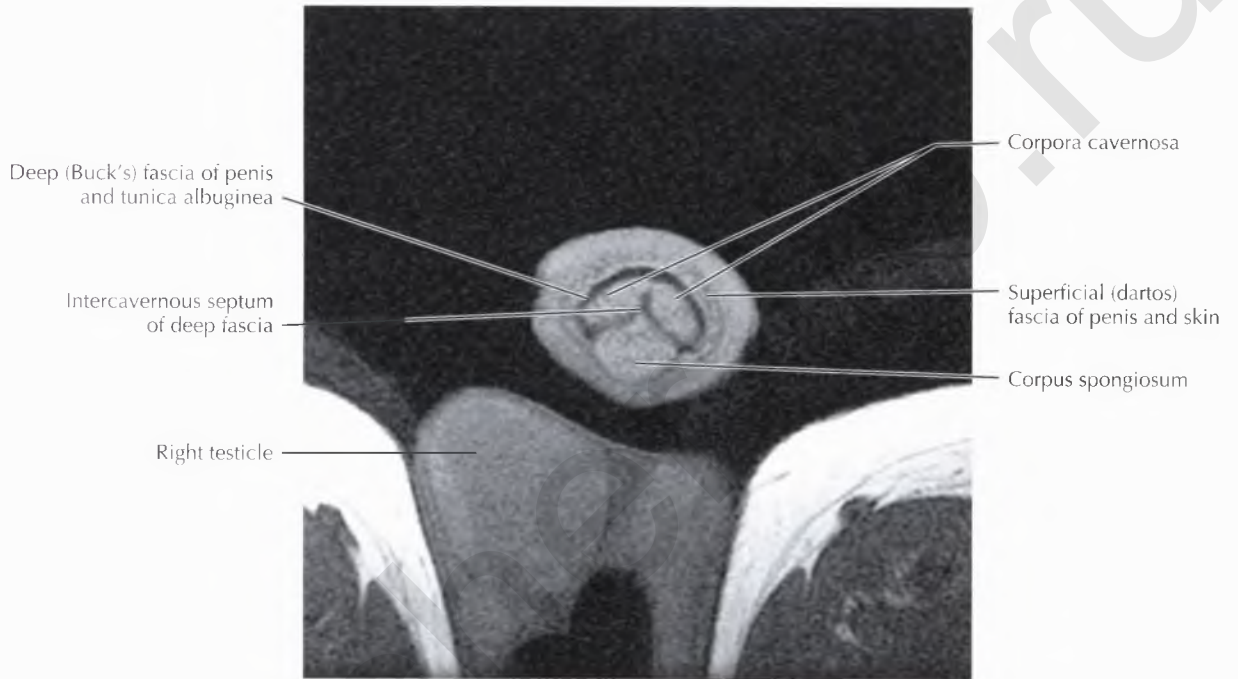
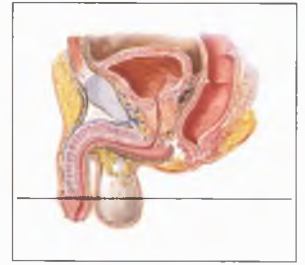
The *tunica albuginea* is a thin layer of fibrous tissue that surrounds each of the corpora cavernosa and the corpus spongiosum. The deep (Buck's) fascia is just superficial to the tunica albuginea and surrounds the corpora cavernosa in a dorsal compartment and the corpus spongiosum in a separate, ventral compartment. The tunica albuginea and deep (Buck's) fascia are inseparable on MRI and appear as a single, hypointense border surrounding the corpora. The superficial (dartos) fascia is seen more superficially, just beneath the skin and subcutaneous fat.

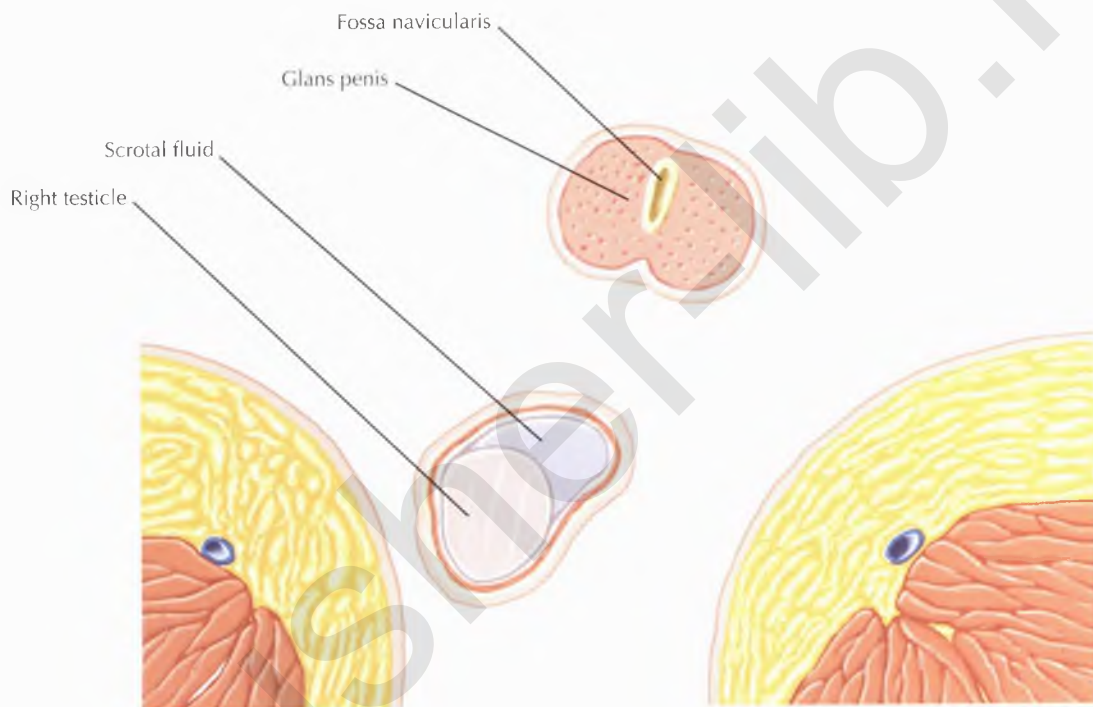




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

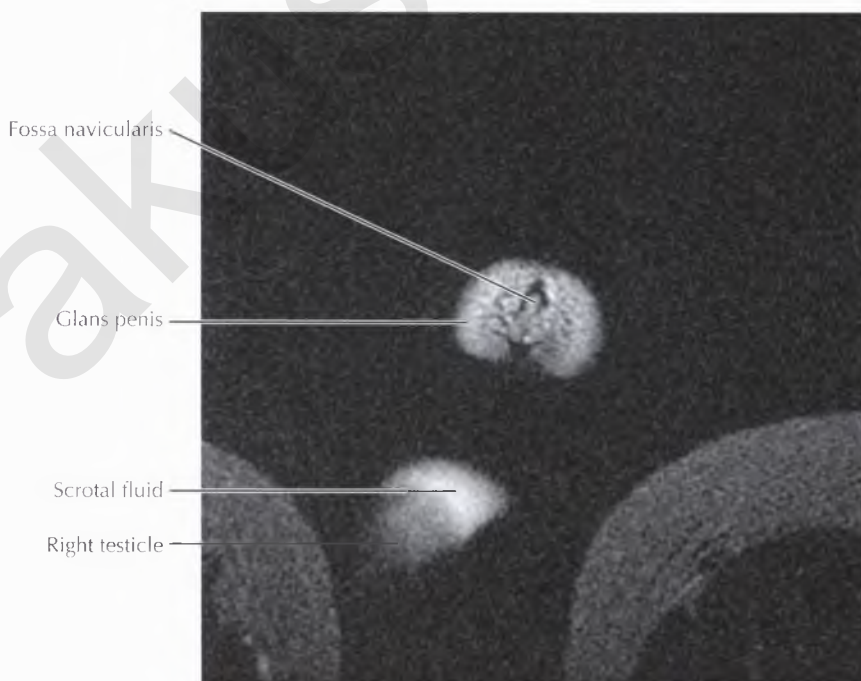
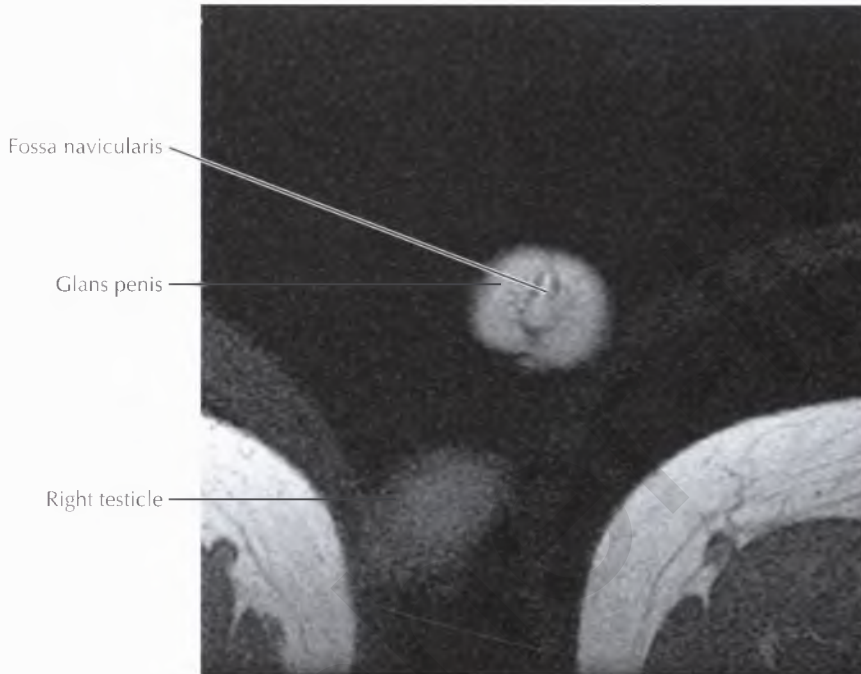
Peyronie's disease results from plaque formation on the tunica albuginea, causing painful erections with shortening and curvature of the penis.

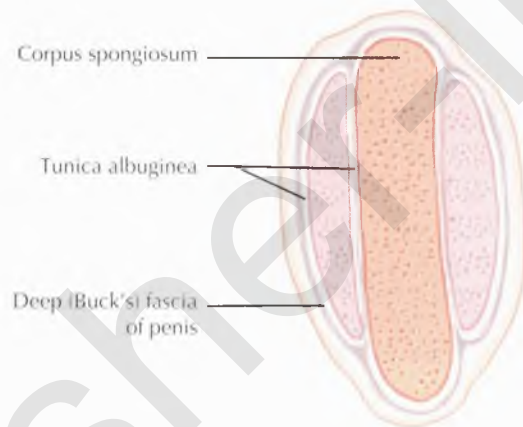


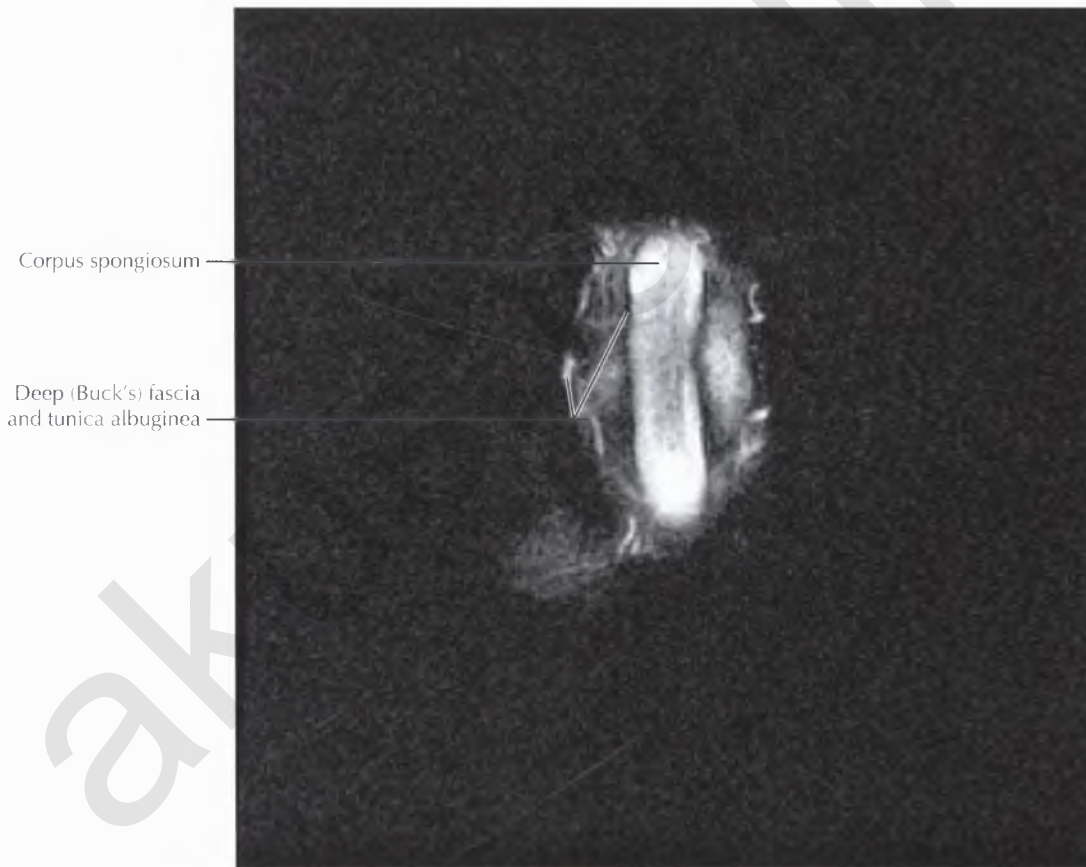
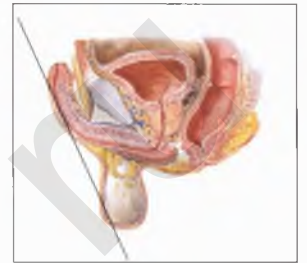


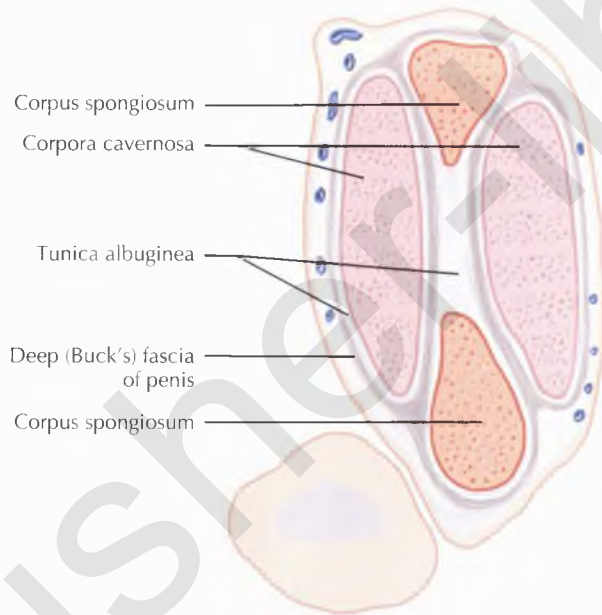
NORMAL ANATOMY

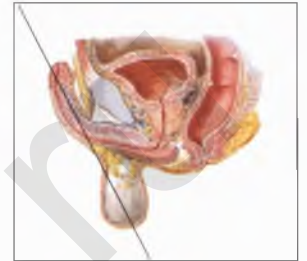
The corpus spongiosum extends and enlarges distally to form the glans penis.



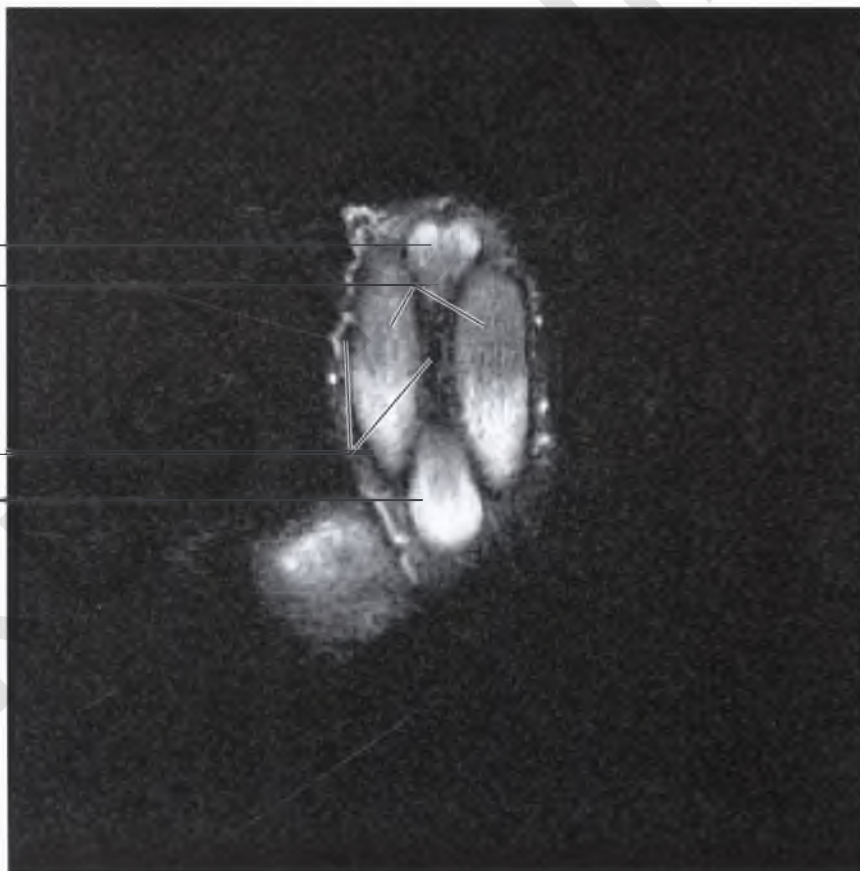


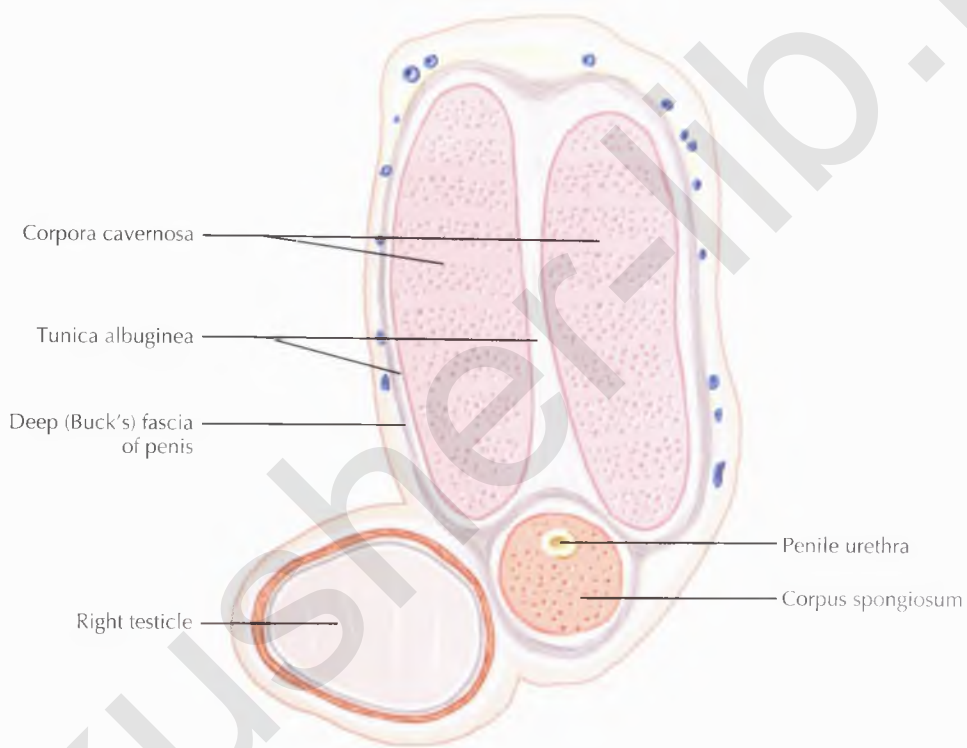


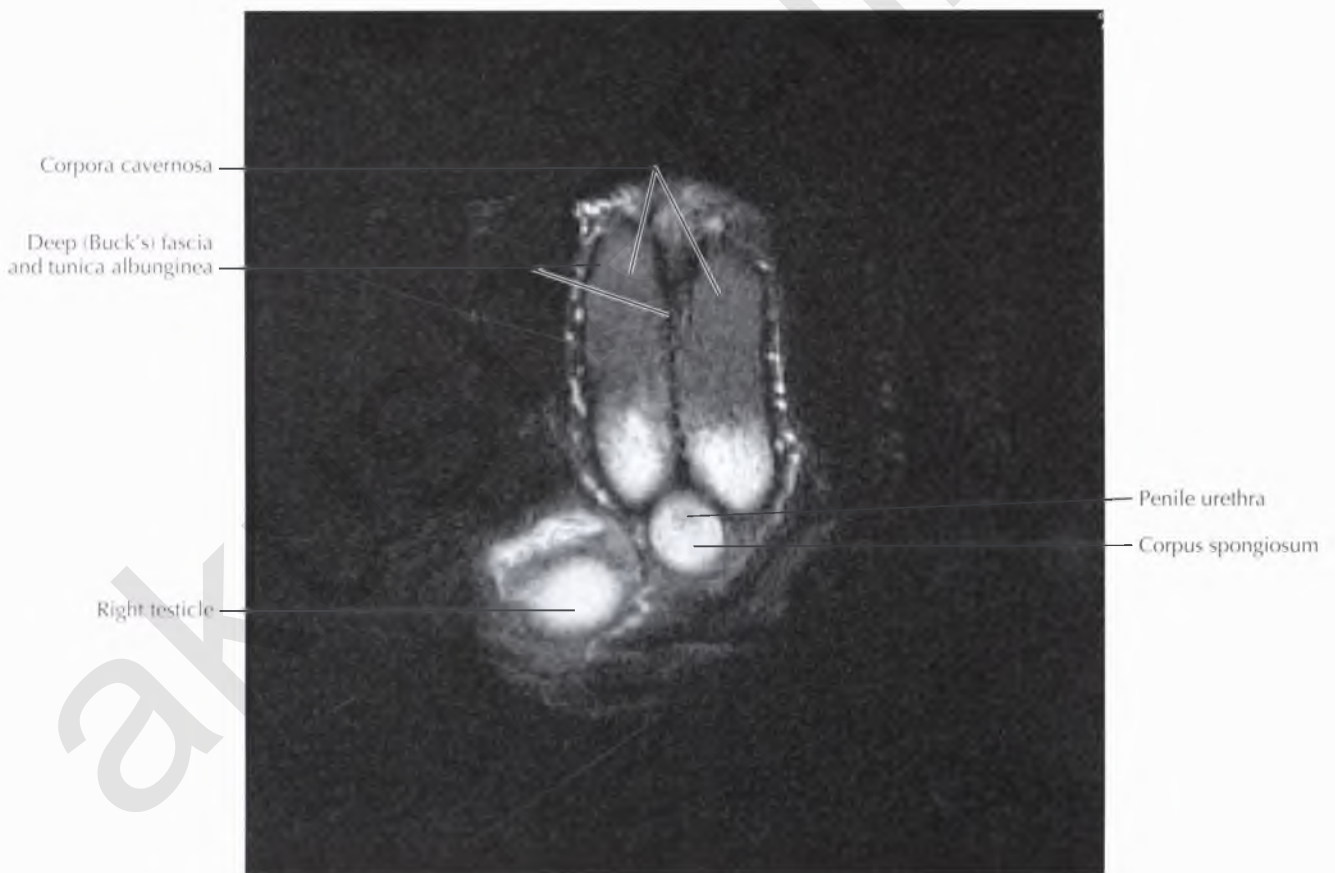
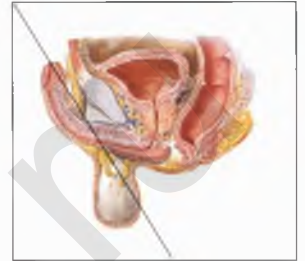


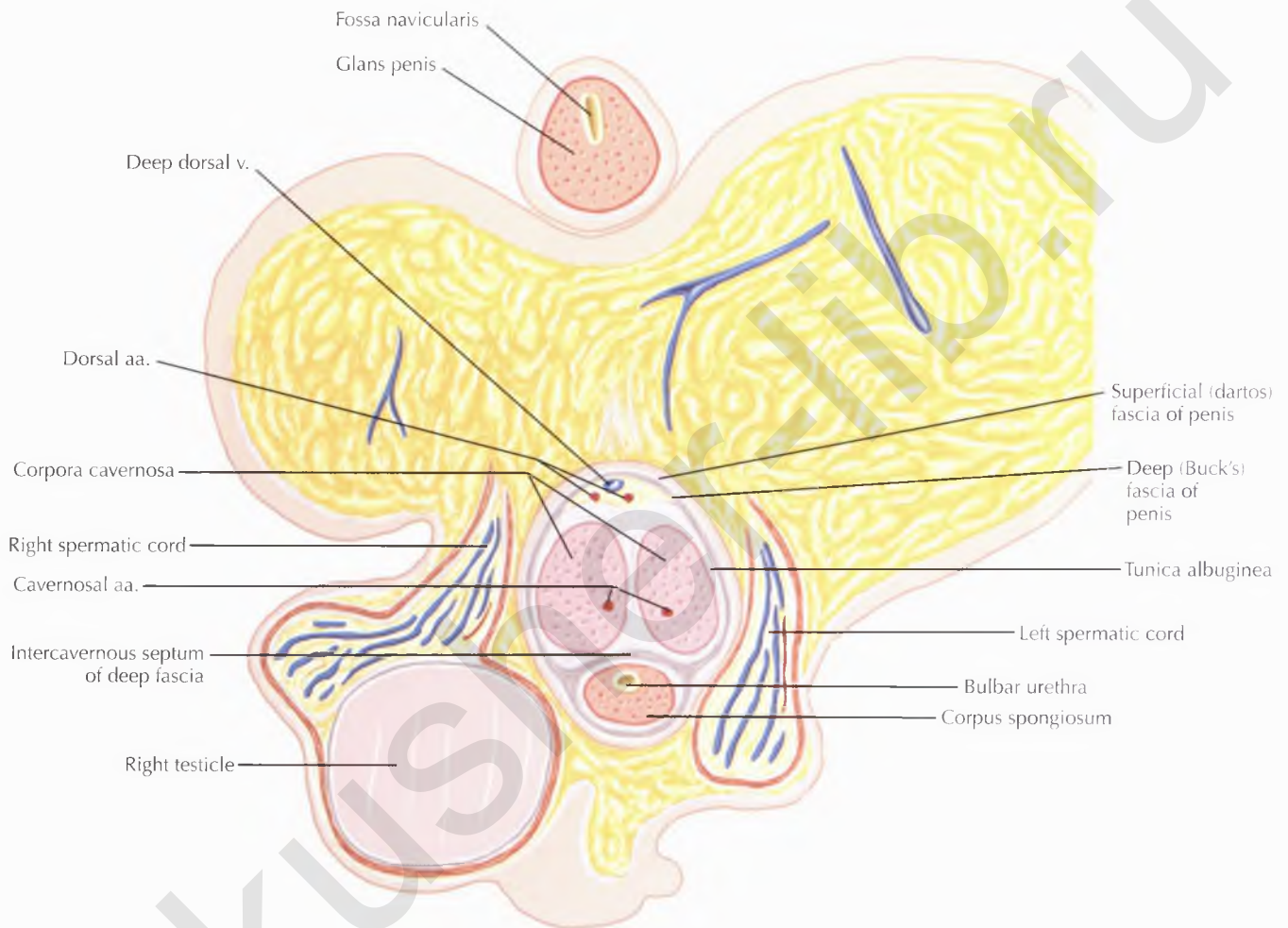


Corpus spongiosum
Corpora cavernosa
Deep (Buck's) fascia
and tunica albuginea
Corpus spongiosum



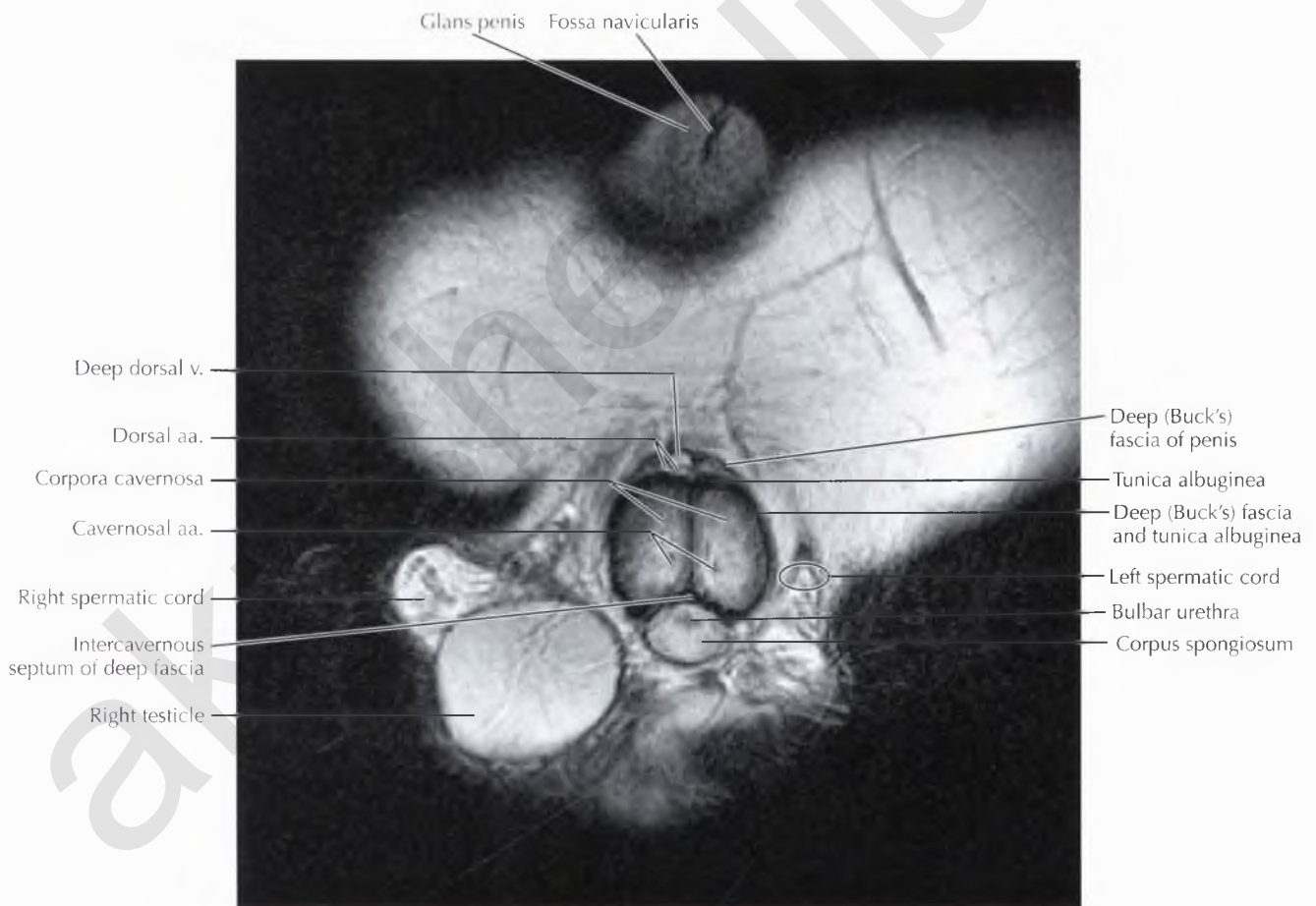
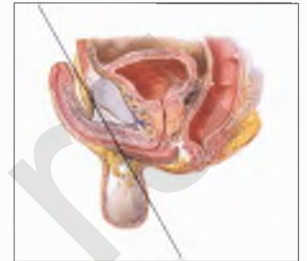


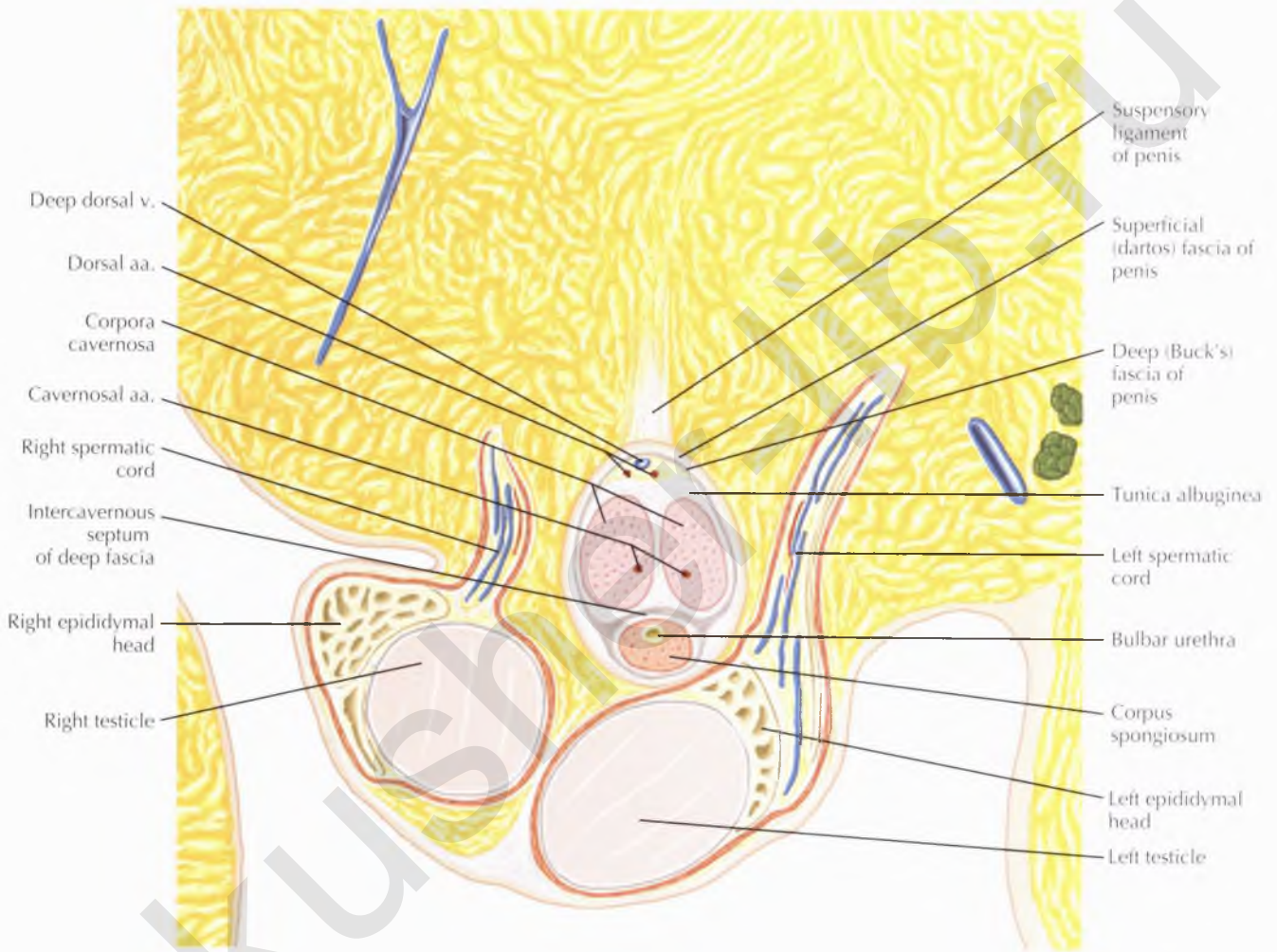




NORMAL ANATOMY

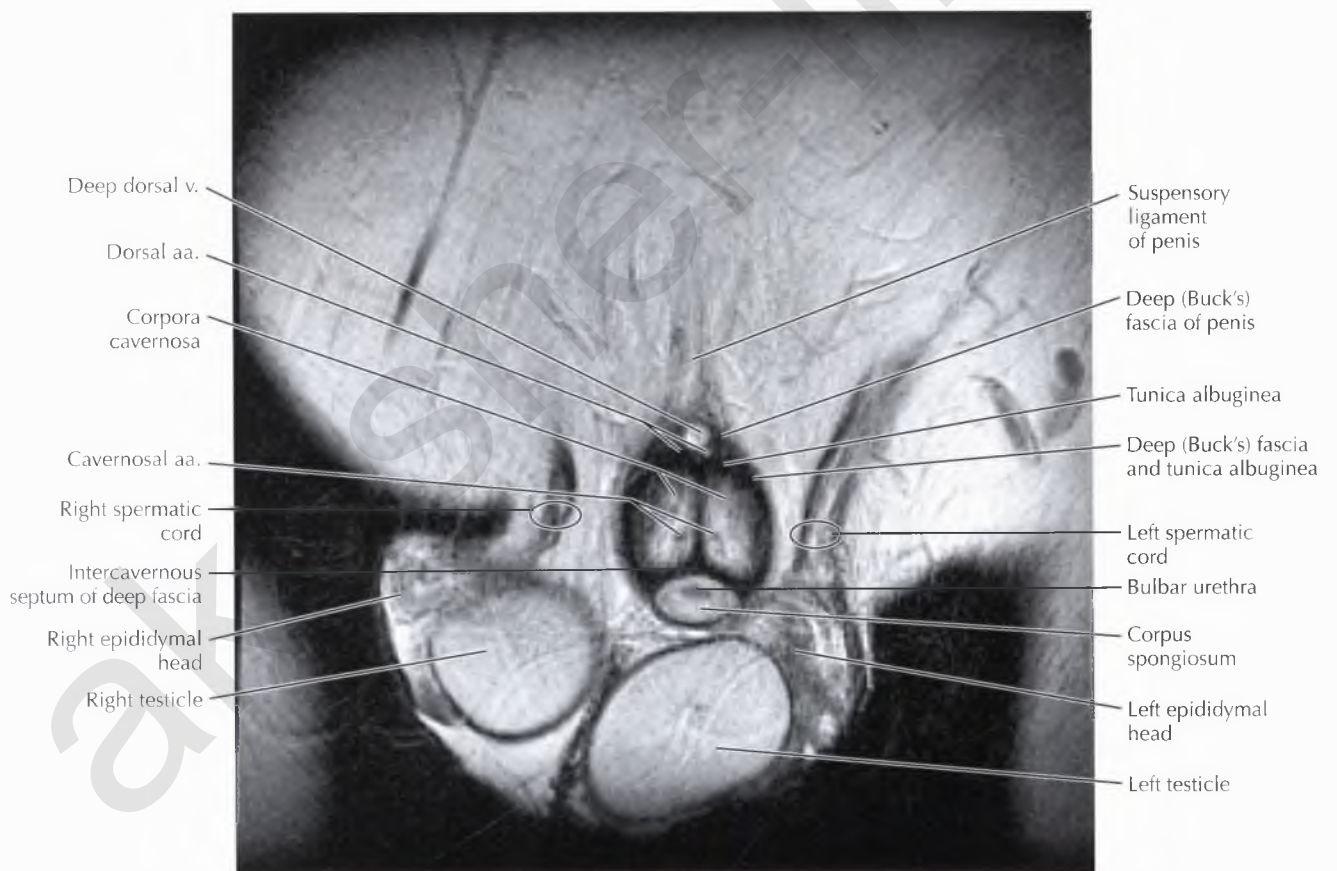
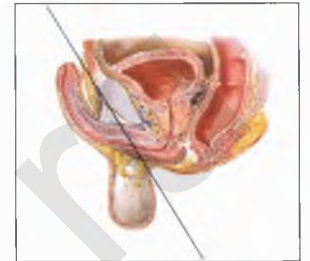
The cavernosal arteries are seen as small, round flow voids in cross section within the paired corpora cavernosa. These arteries give off the *helicine arteries*, which provide the primary source of blood for erectile function.

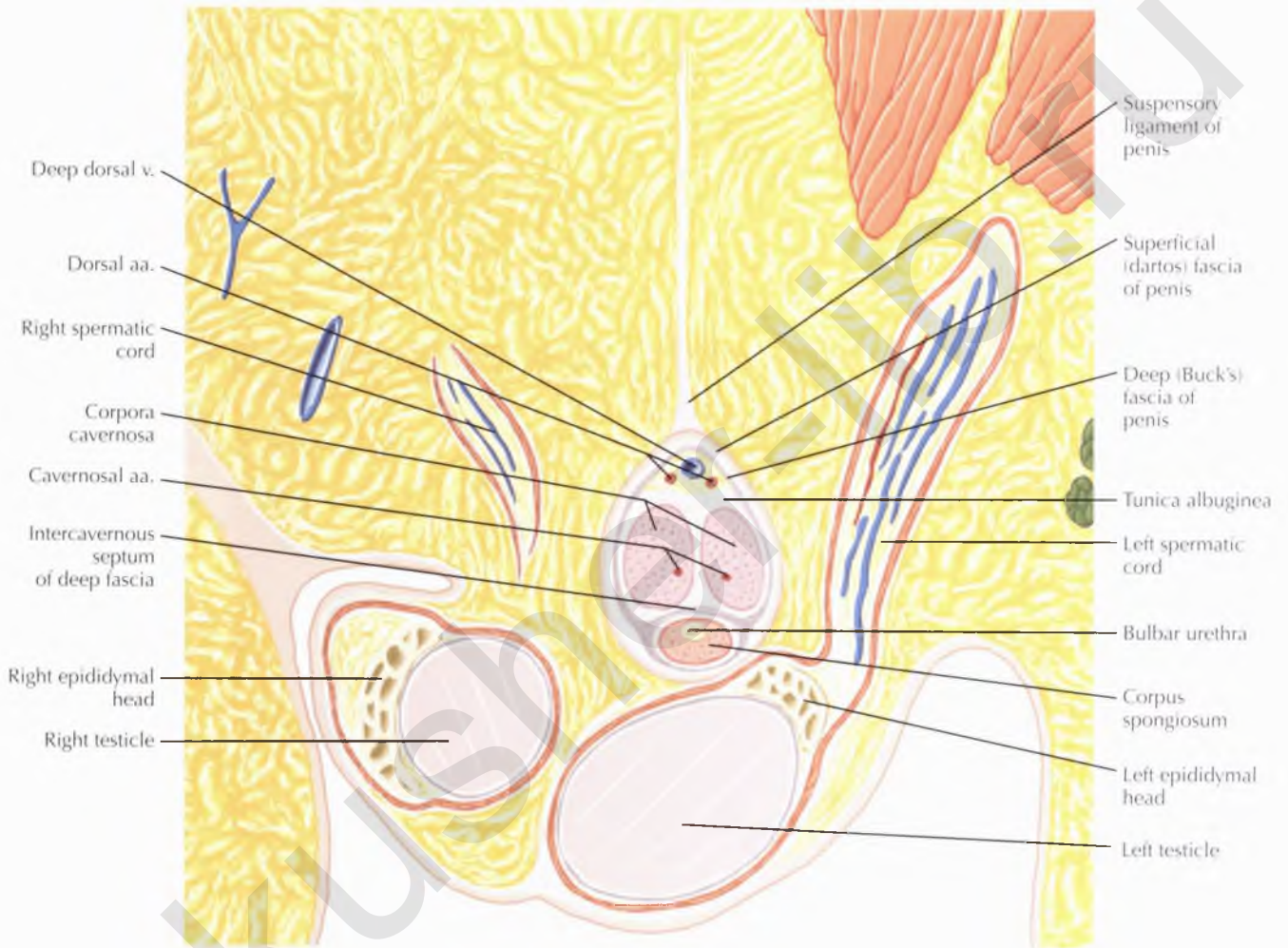




NORMAL ANATOMY

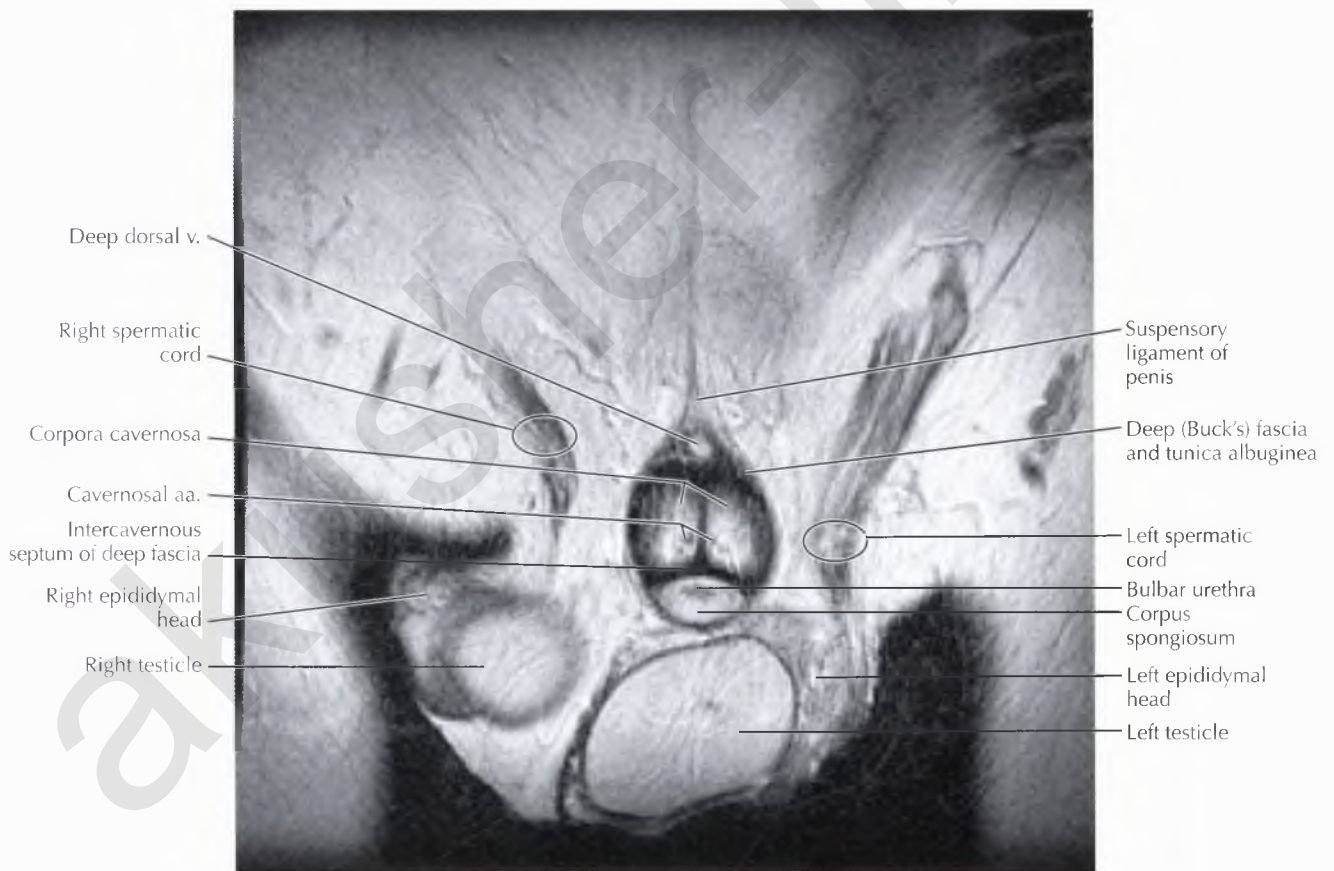
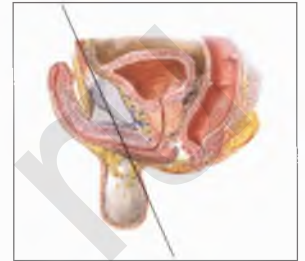
The deep dorsal vein and paired dorsal arteries lie deep to the deep (Buck's) fascia and superficial to the tunica albuginea. The paired dorsal arteries supply blood flow to the glans penis and skin. The deep dorsal vein provides the primary venous drainage for the corpora cavernosa.

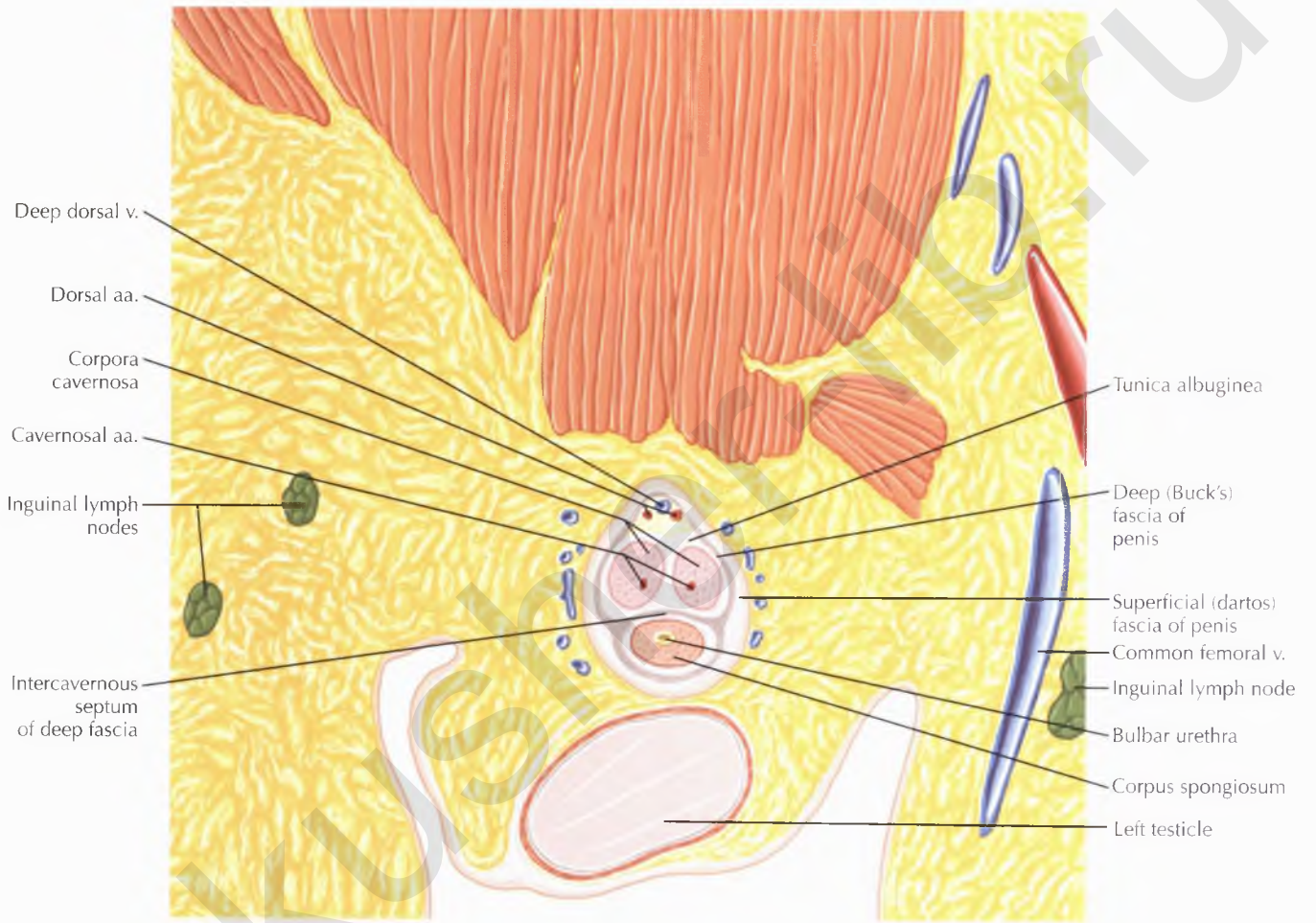




NORMAL ANATOMY

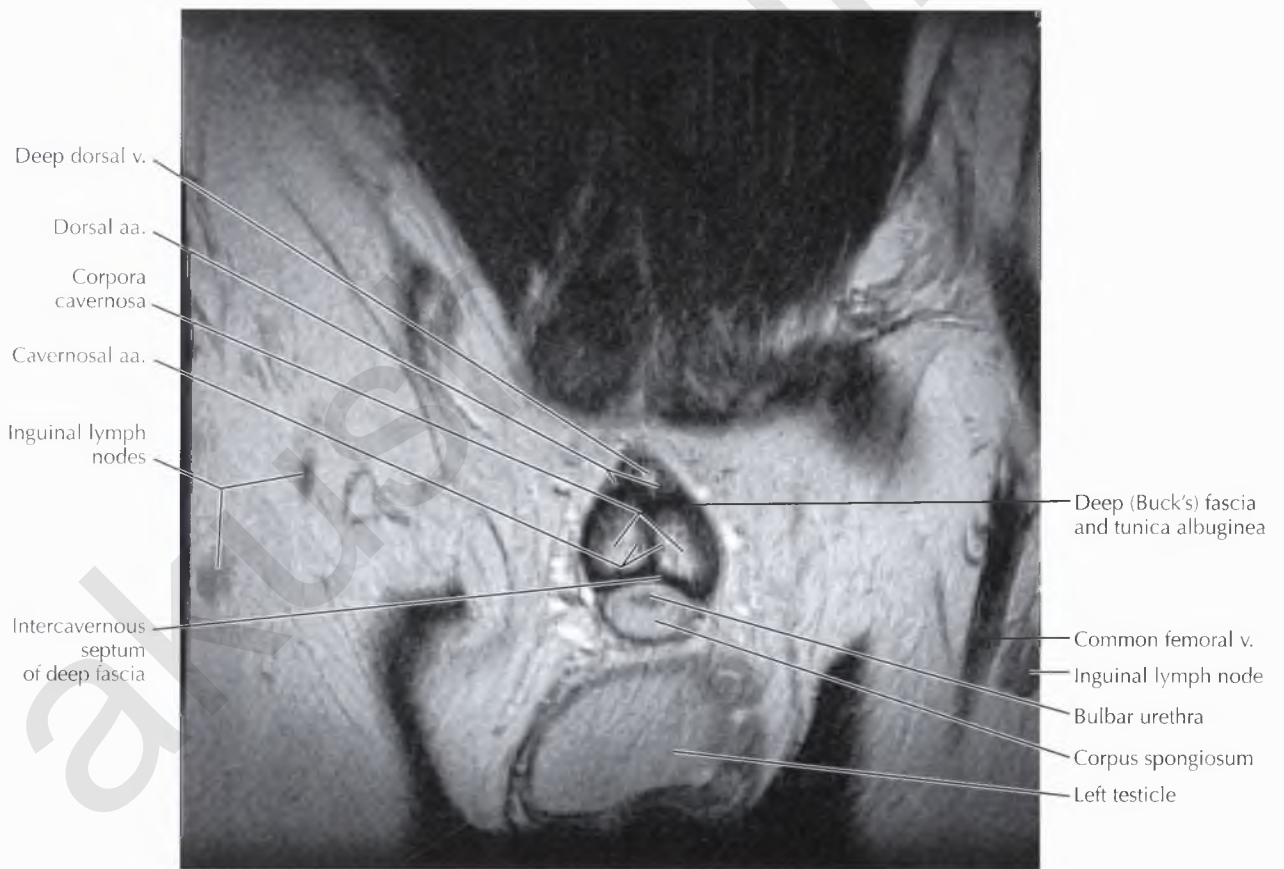
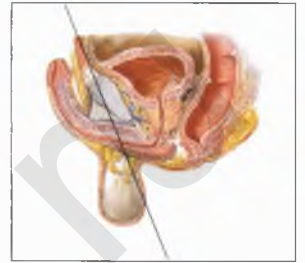
The suspensory ligament of the penis is an inferior extension of the abdominal rectus sheath that is attached to the pubic bone and supports the penis when erect. Surgical release of this ligament is performed in penile-lengthening procedures.



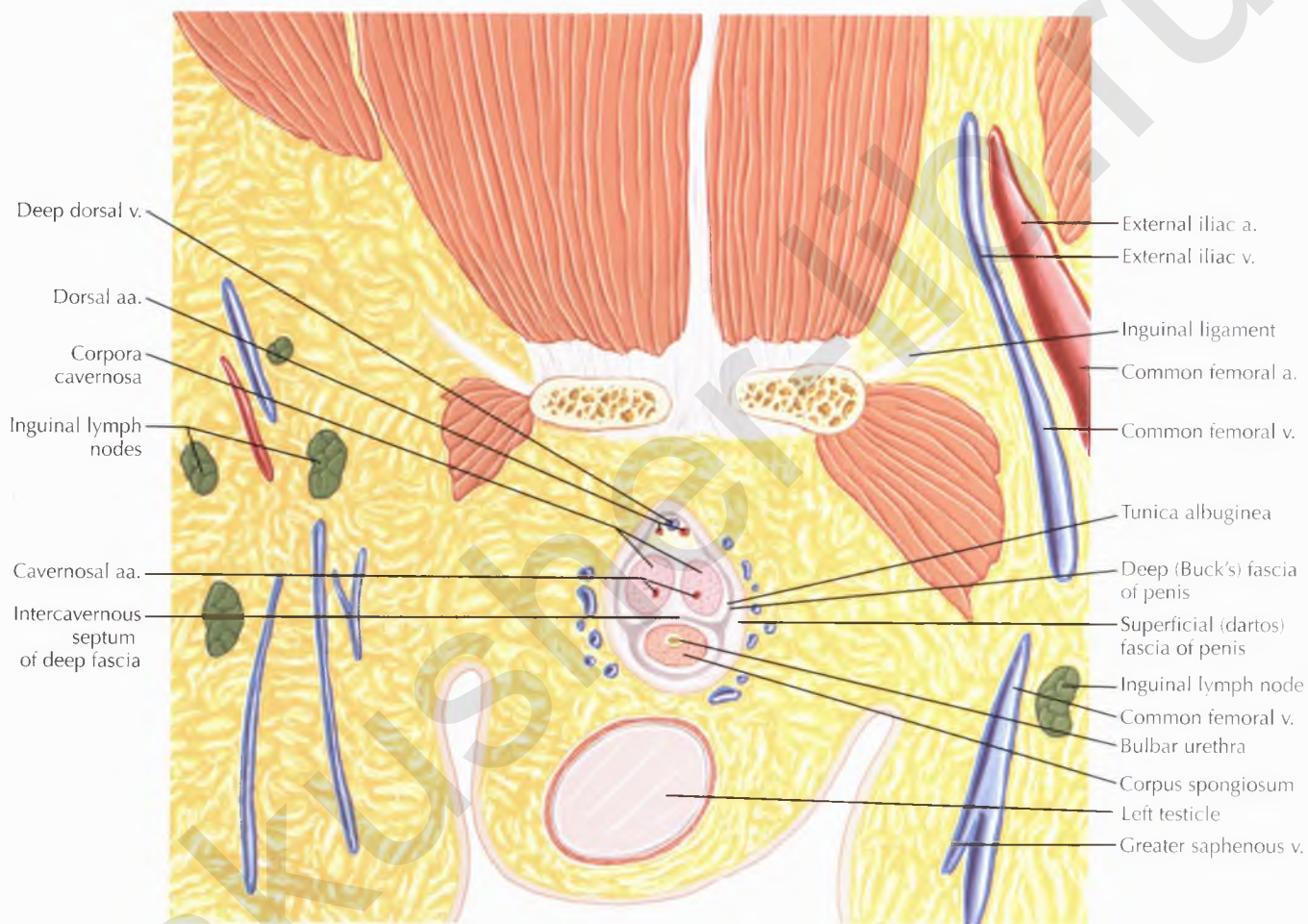


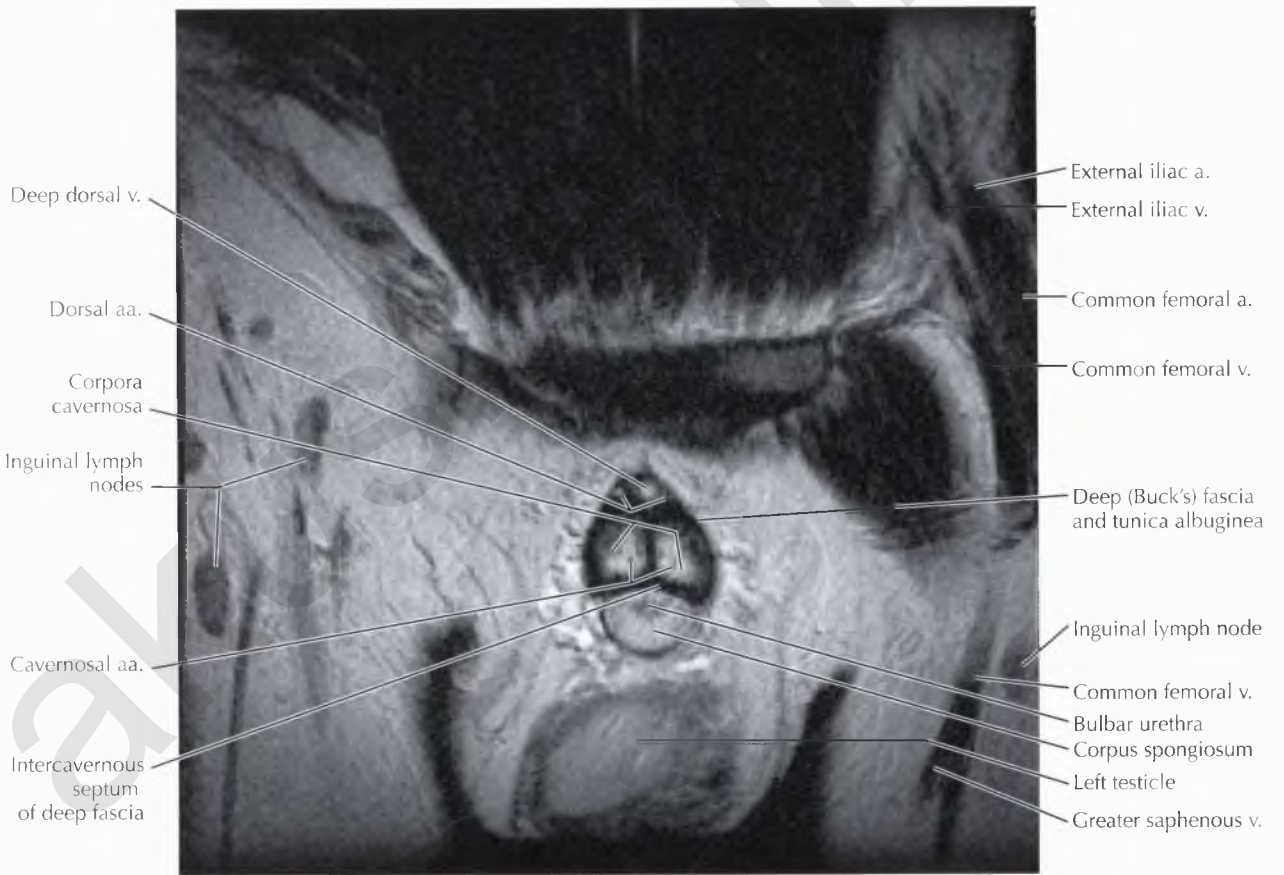
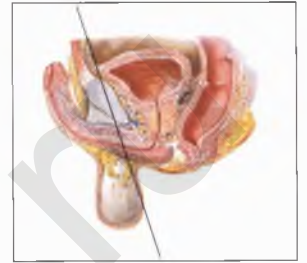
NORMAL ANATOMY

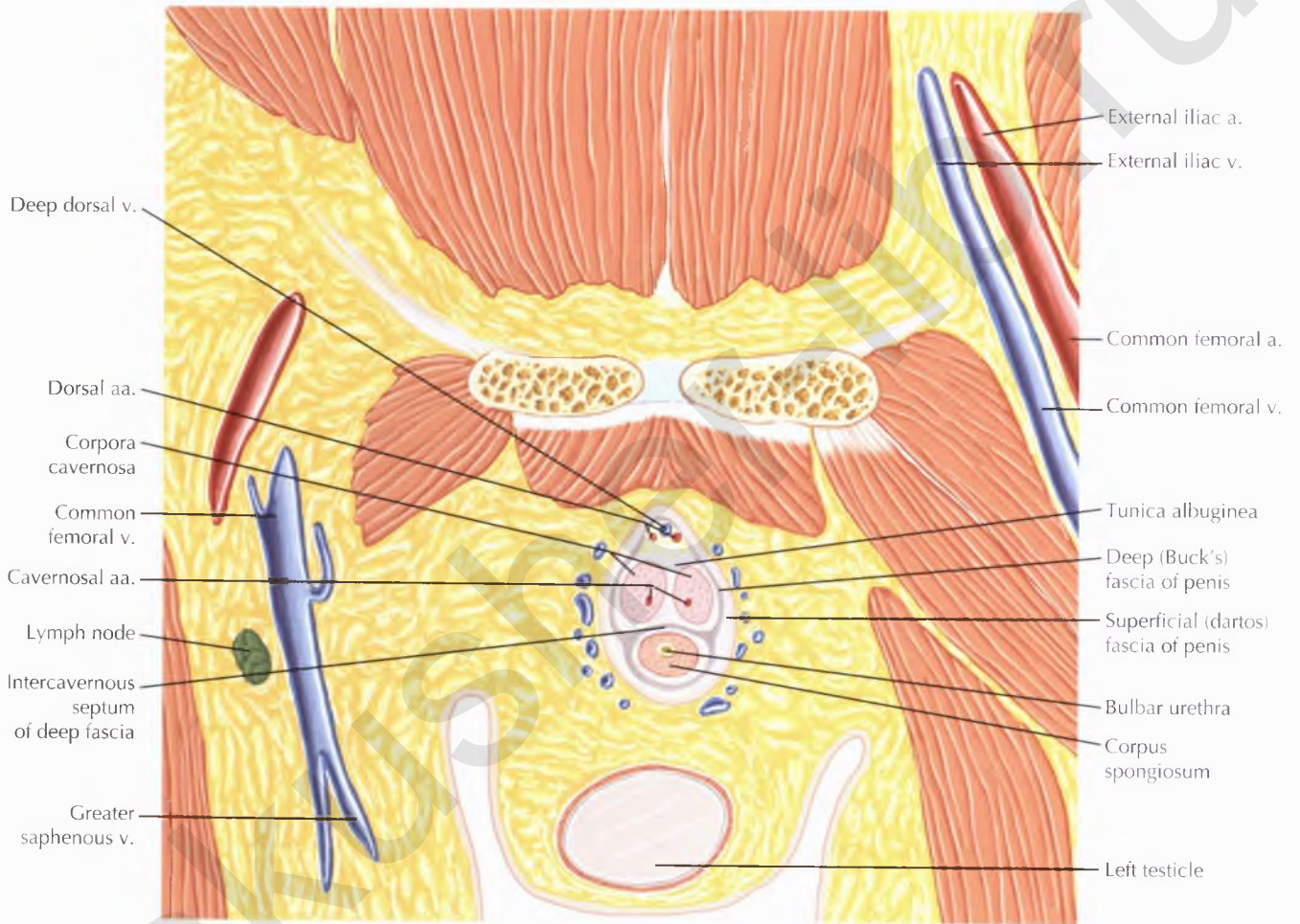
The flat, nondistended penile urethra is seen within the corpus spongiosum.

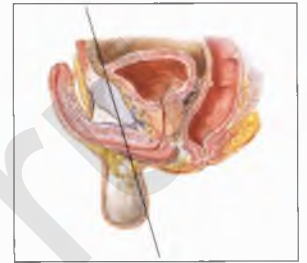


PENIS AND MALE URETHRA CORONAL 8

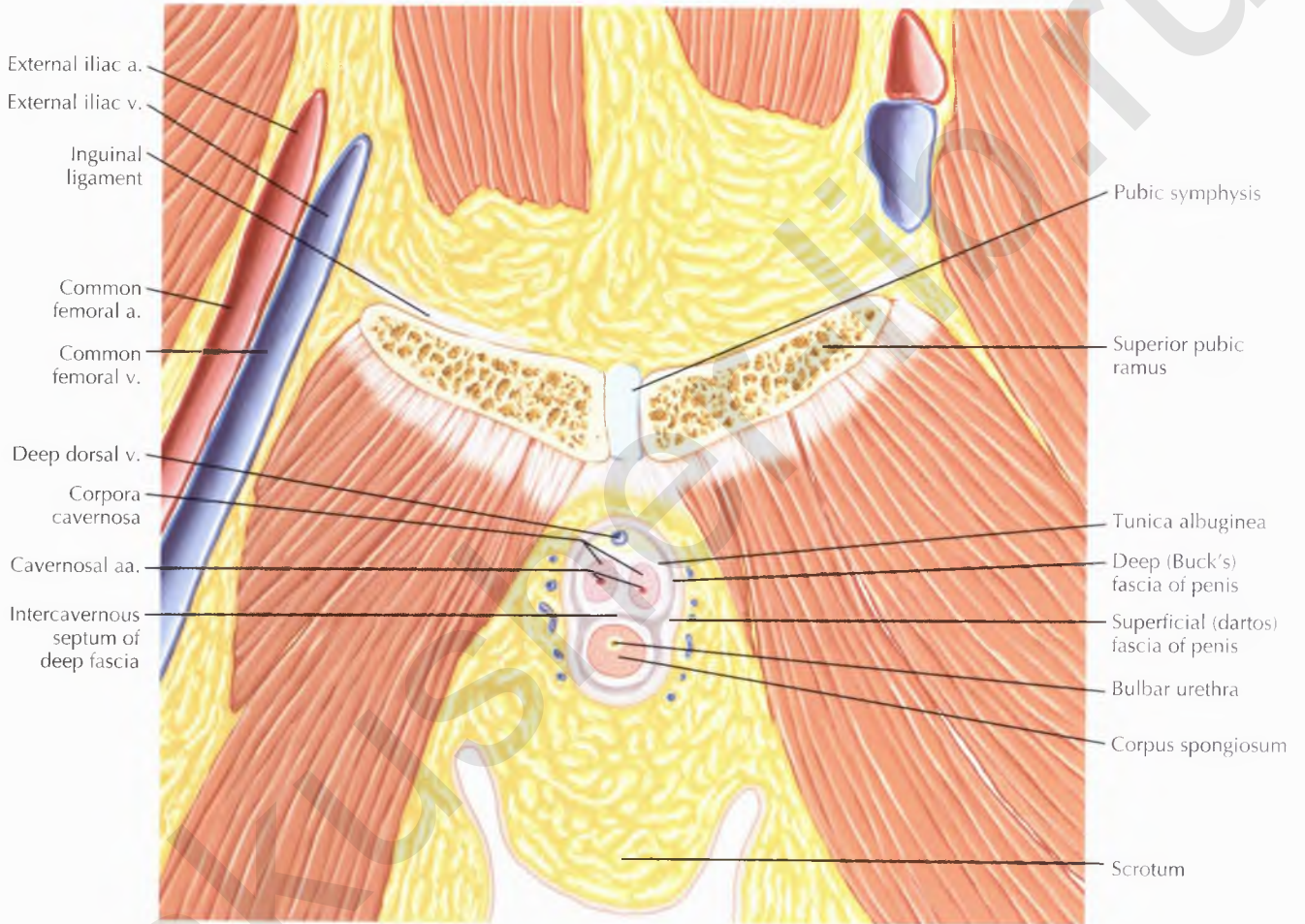


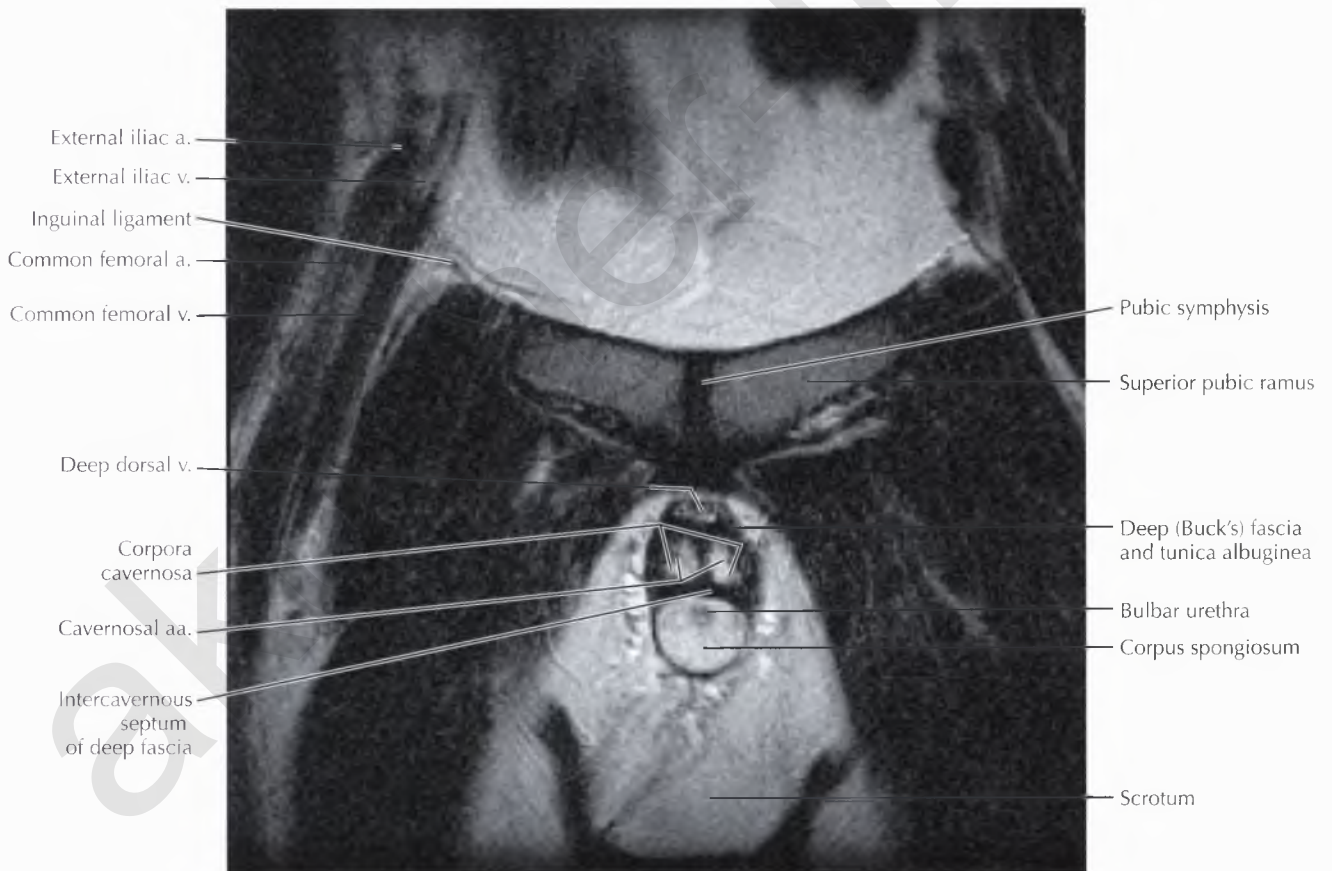
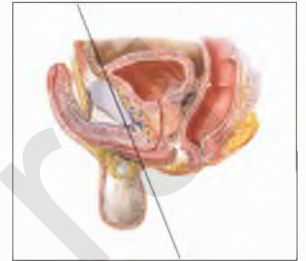


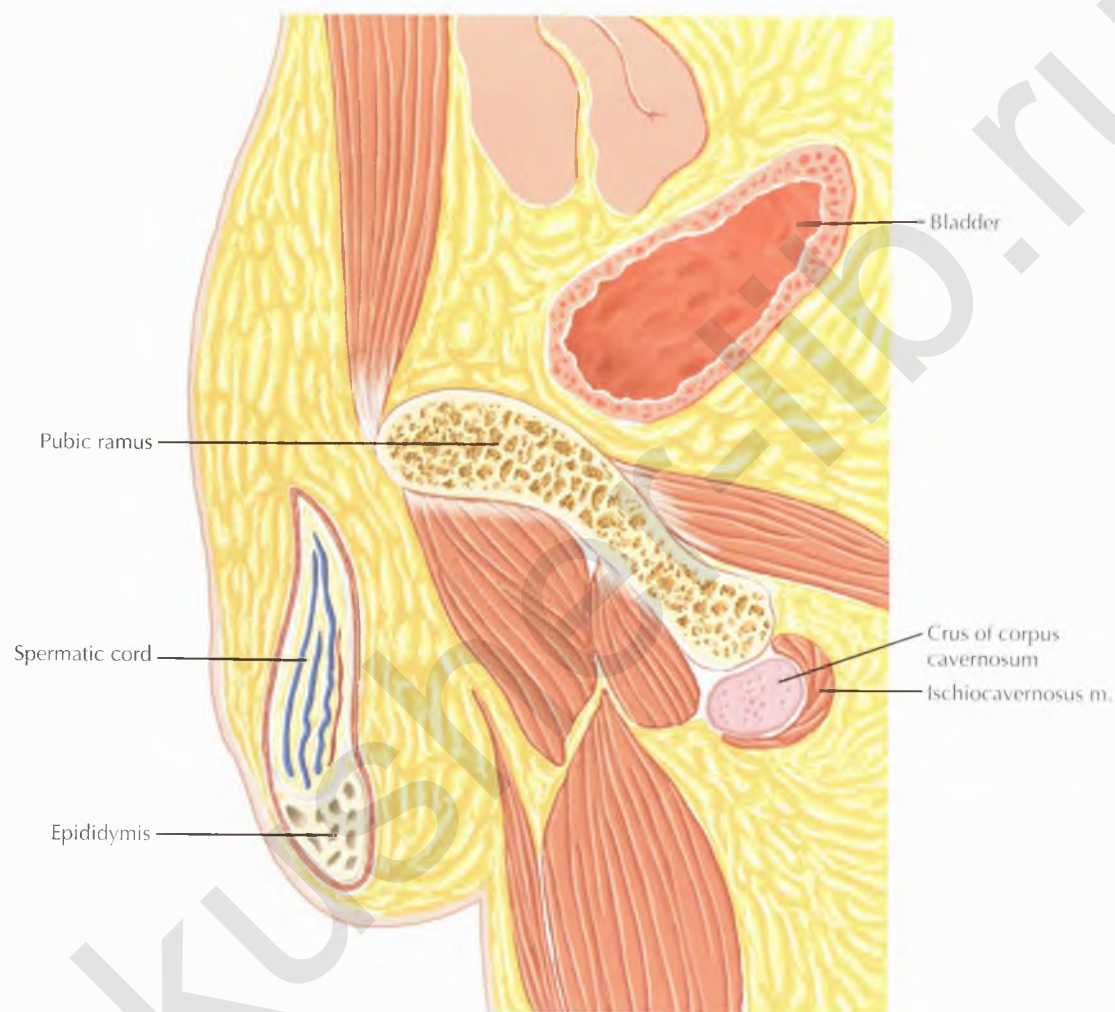




PENIS AND MALE URETHRA CORONAL 10

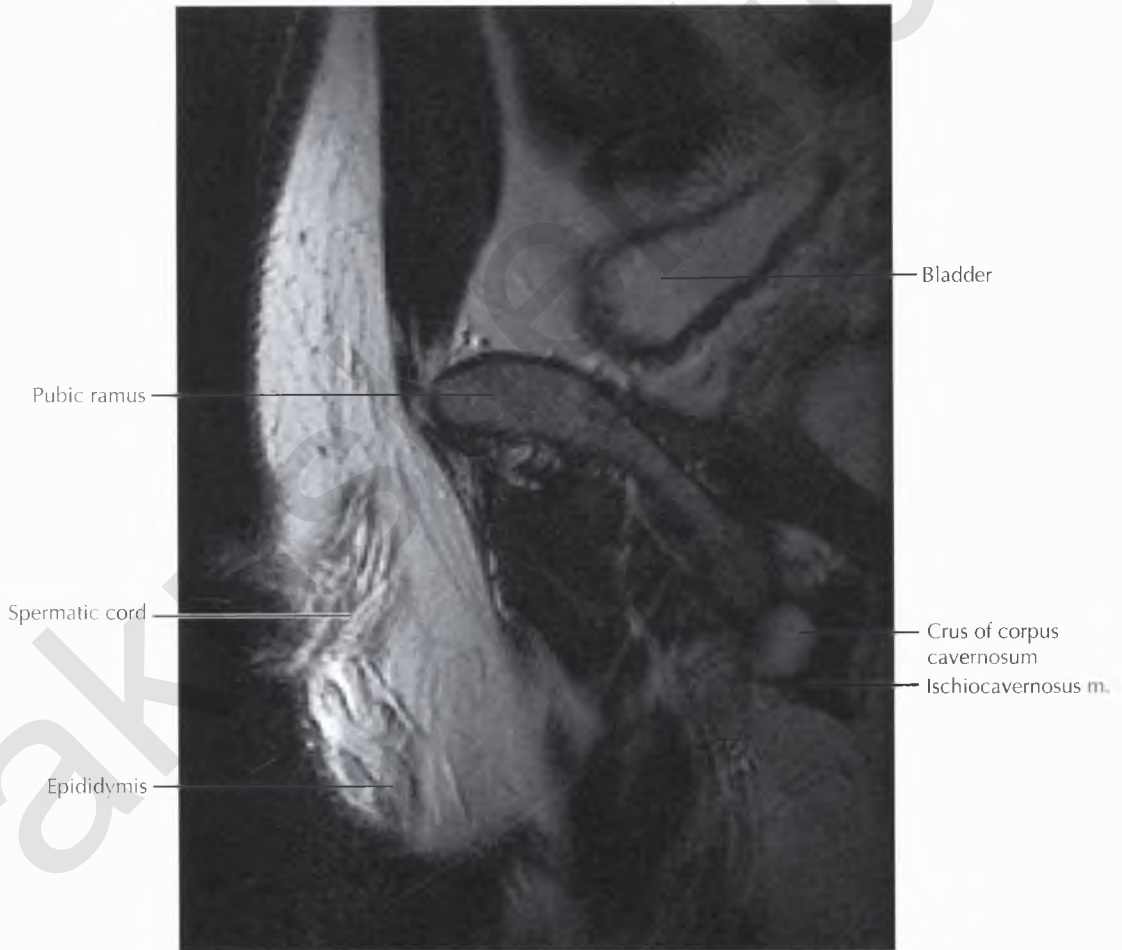


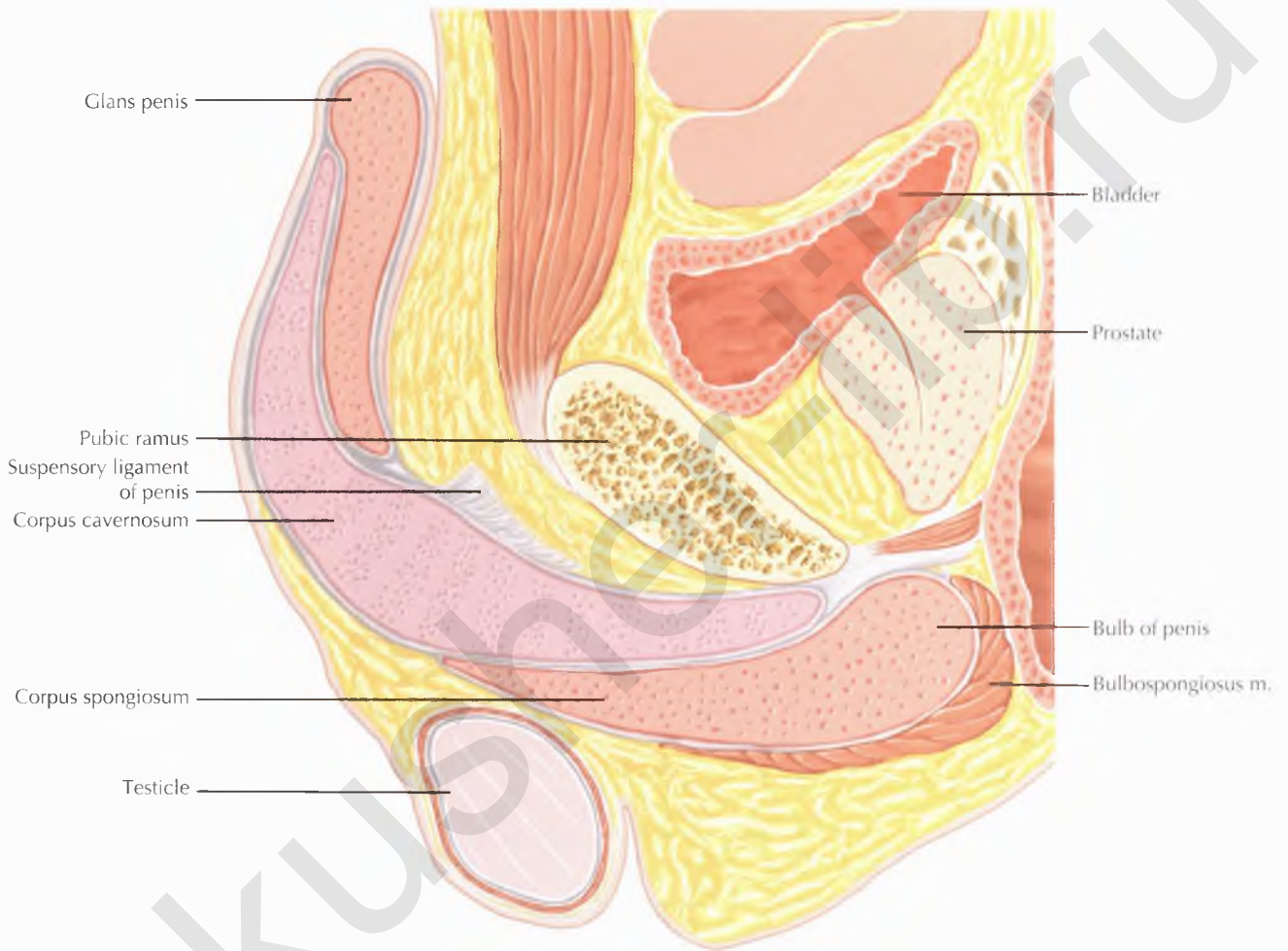




NORMAL ANATOMY

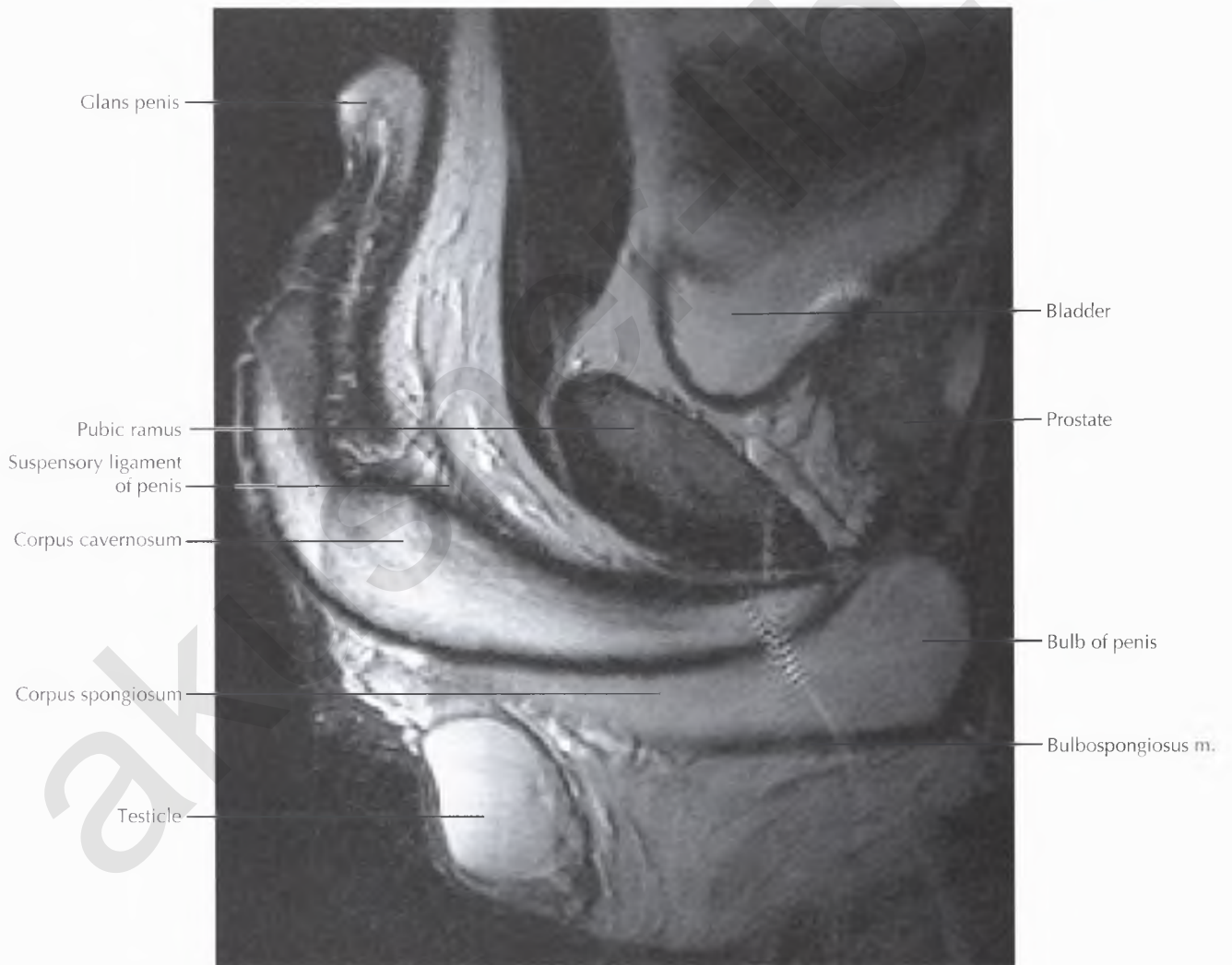
The crura of the corpora cavernosa are the most posterior portions, which flare laterally to attach to the ischiopubic rami, and are invested by the ischiocavernosus muscles.

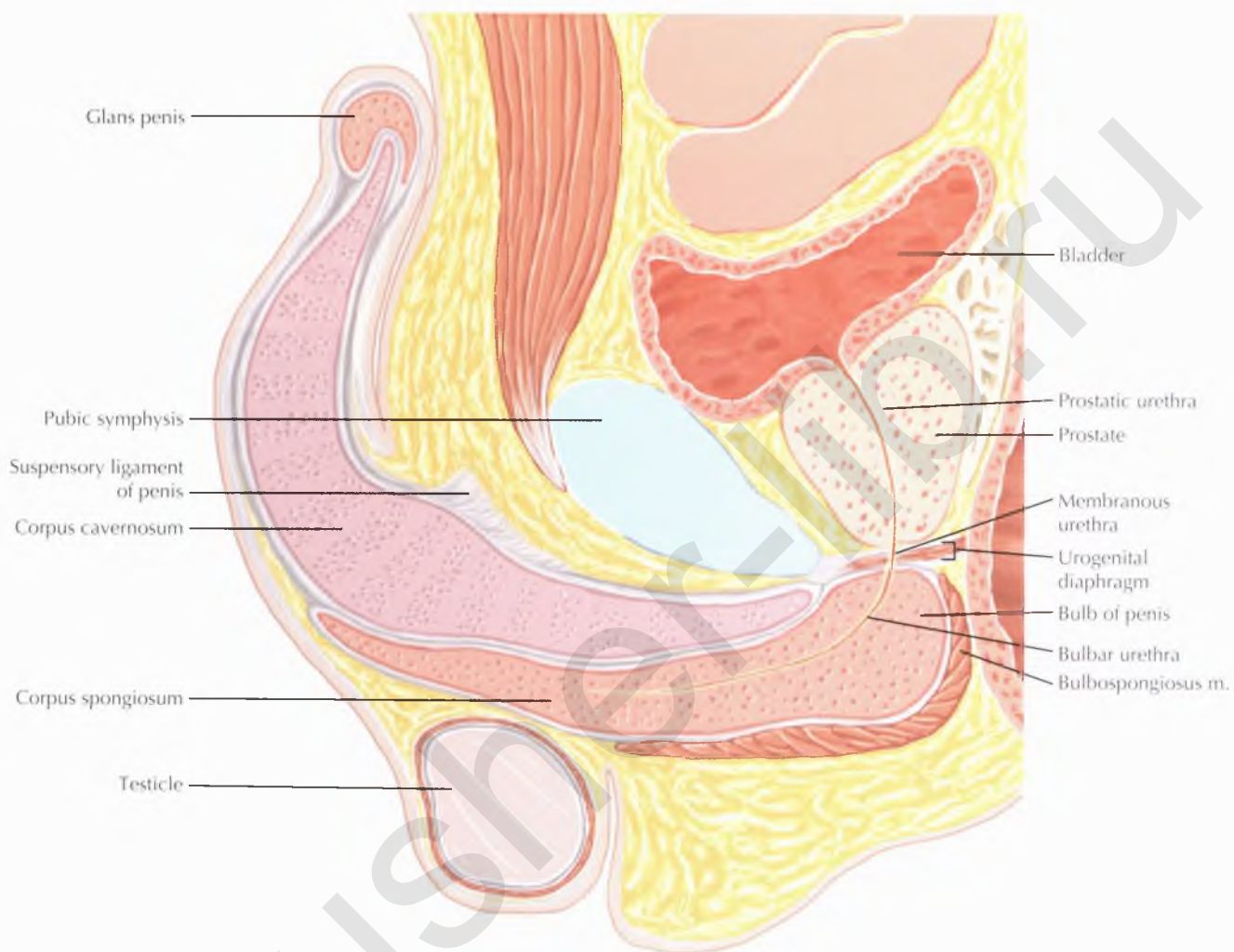




NORMAL ANATOMY

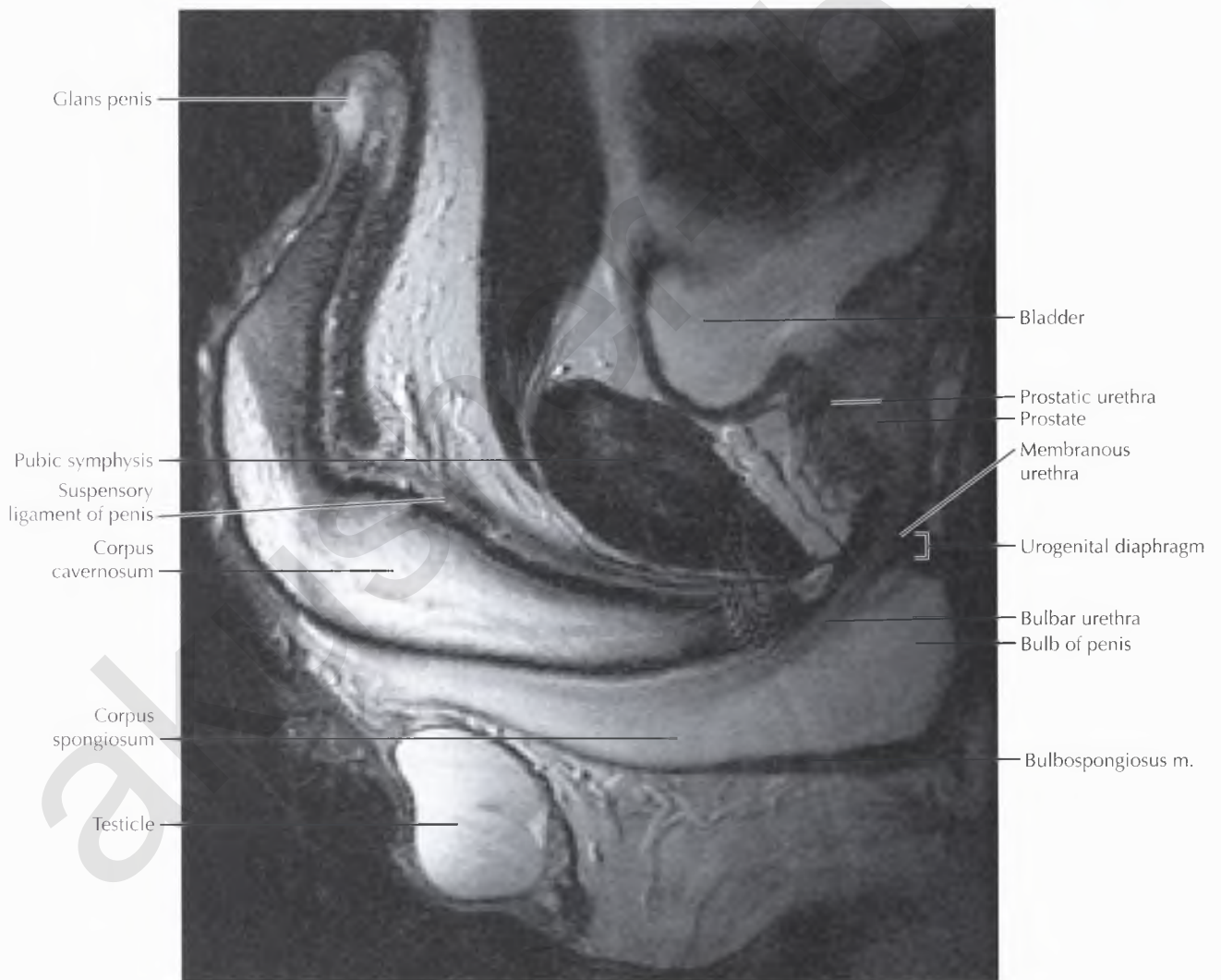
The corpus spongiosum becomes the bulb of the penis at its root and is invested by the bulbospongiosus muscle.

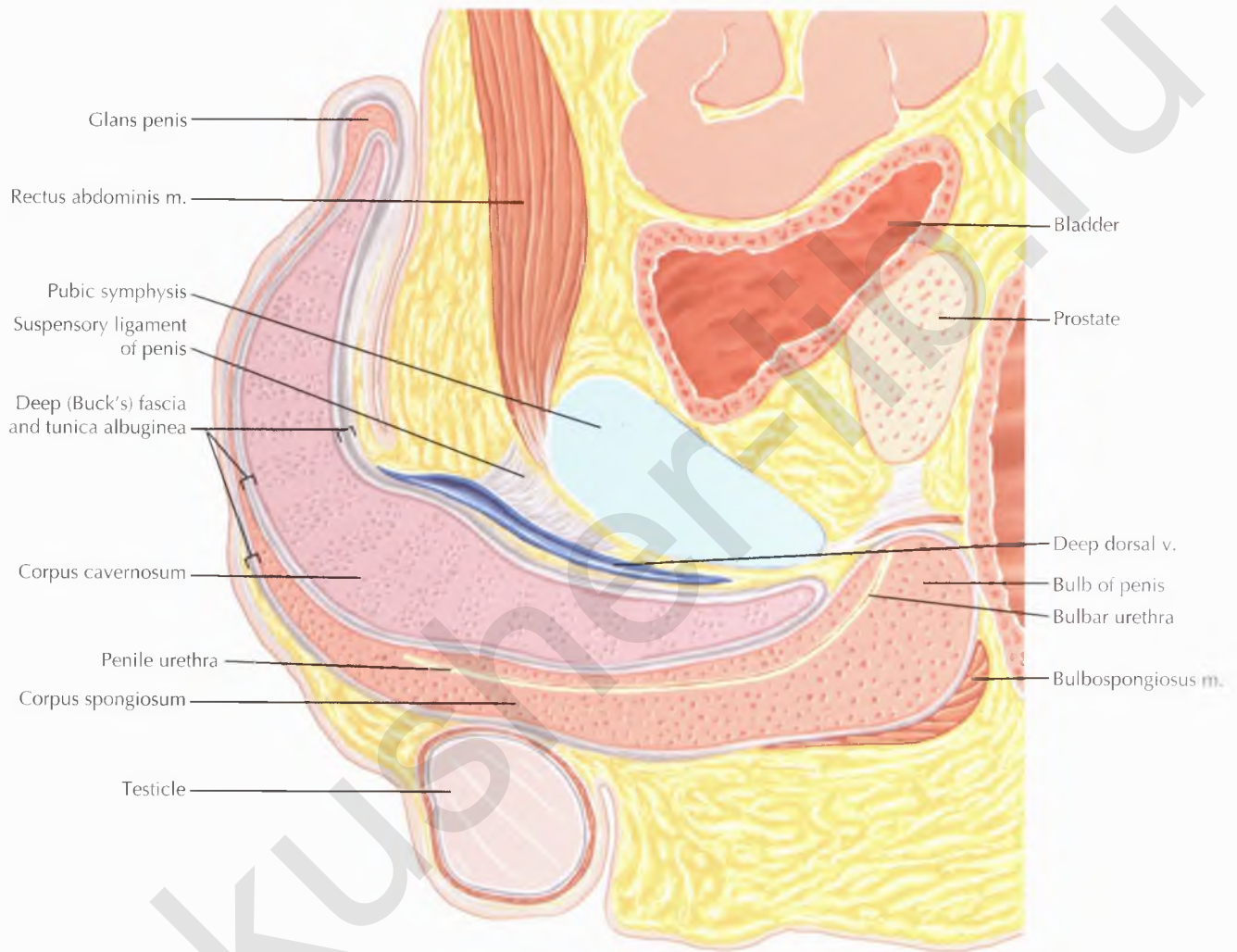




NORMAL ANATOMY

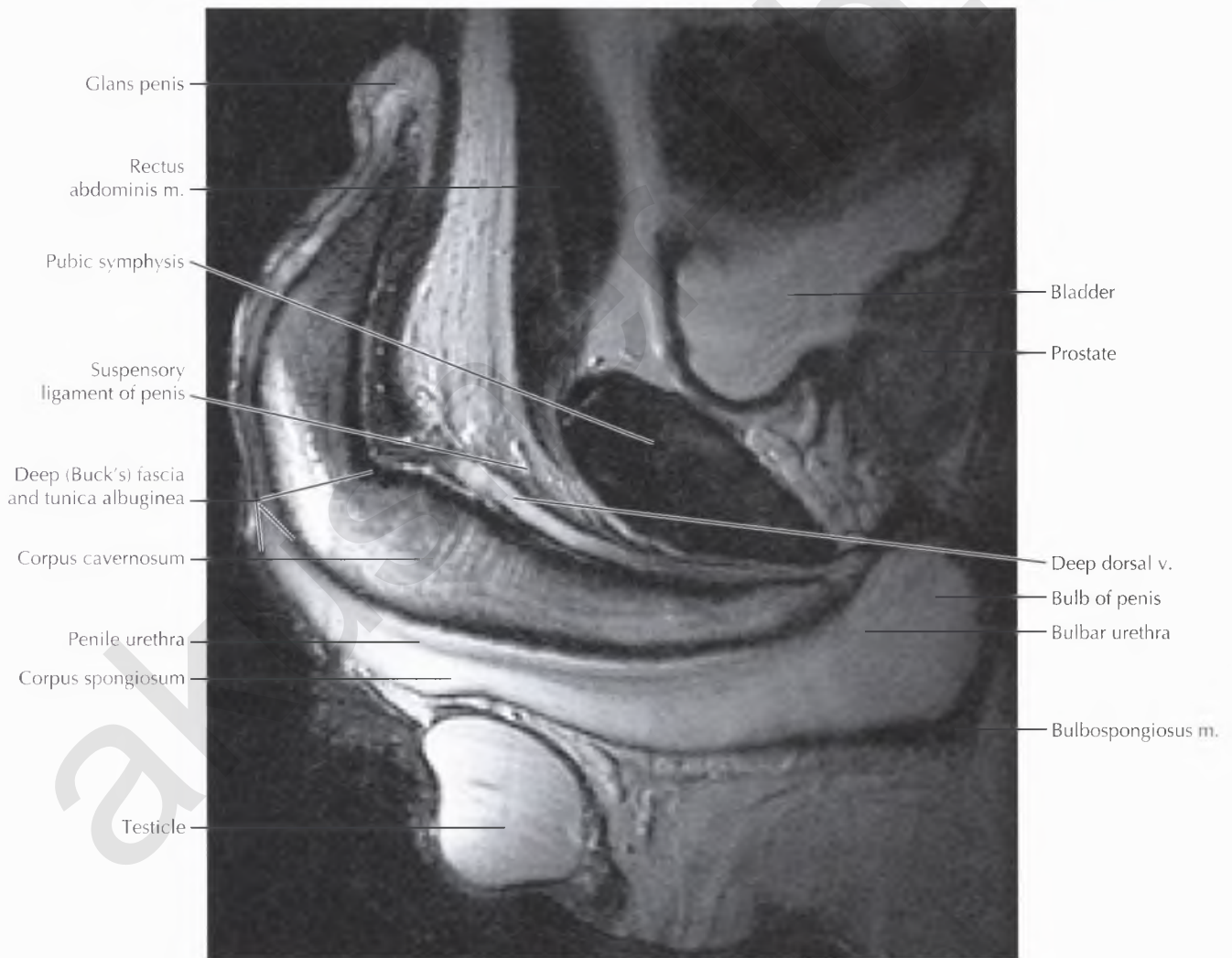
The male urethra is divided into four segments: the prostatic and membranous segments, which form the posterior urethra, and the bulbar and penile segments, which form the anterior urethra. The *prostatic* urethra traverses the prostate gland and contains openings for the prostatic utricle, prostatic ducts, and ejaculatory ducts. The *membranous* urethra courses through the urogenital diaphragm at the level of the external urethral sphincter and bulbourethral (Cowper's) glands. The bulbourethral gland ducts drain into the *bulbar* urethra, which begins inferior to the urogenital diaphragm and continues to the suspensory ligament of the penis at the penoscrotal junction. The *penile* urethra begins distal to the suspensory ligament, forming the main pendulous portion of the urethra and the *fossa navicularis*, a urethral widening at the glans penis. The nondistended anterior urethra is difficult to see on MR images, generally appearing as a flat band of hypointensity surrounded by the hyperintense tissue of the corpus spongiosum.





DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

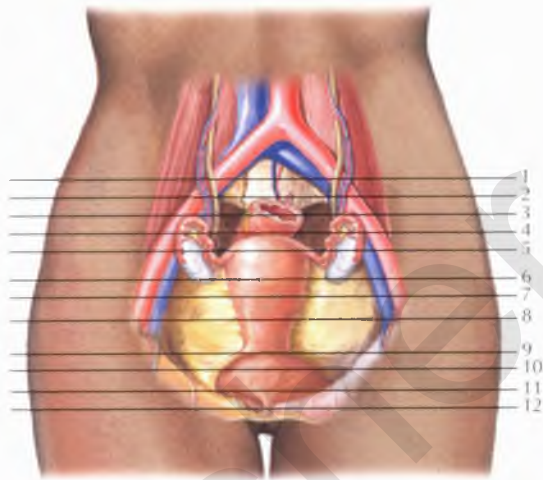
Urethral injury resulting from pelvic fractures most frequently involves the membranous urethra, whereas "straddle" injuries more often involve the bulbar urethra because of compression against the inferior pubic symphysis.



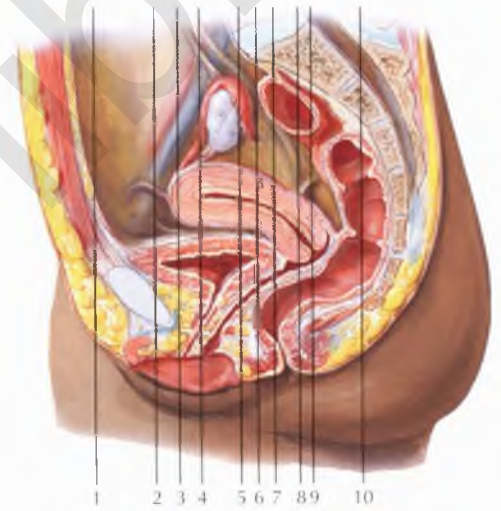
Chapter

10

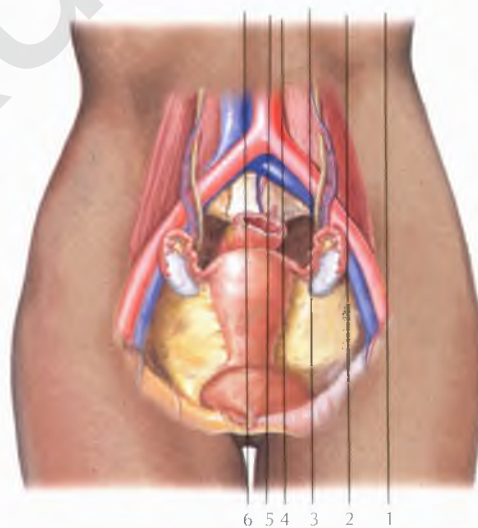
FEMALE
PELVIS



AXIAL 432

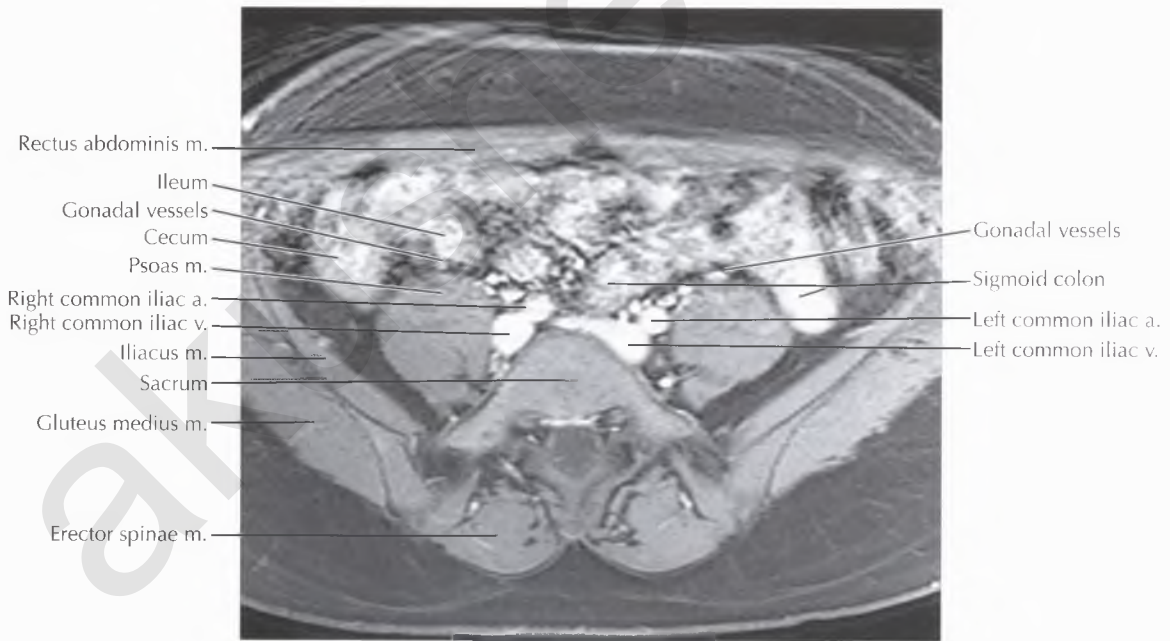
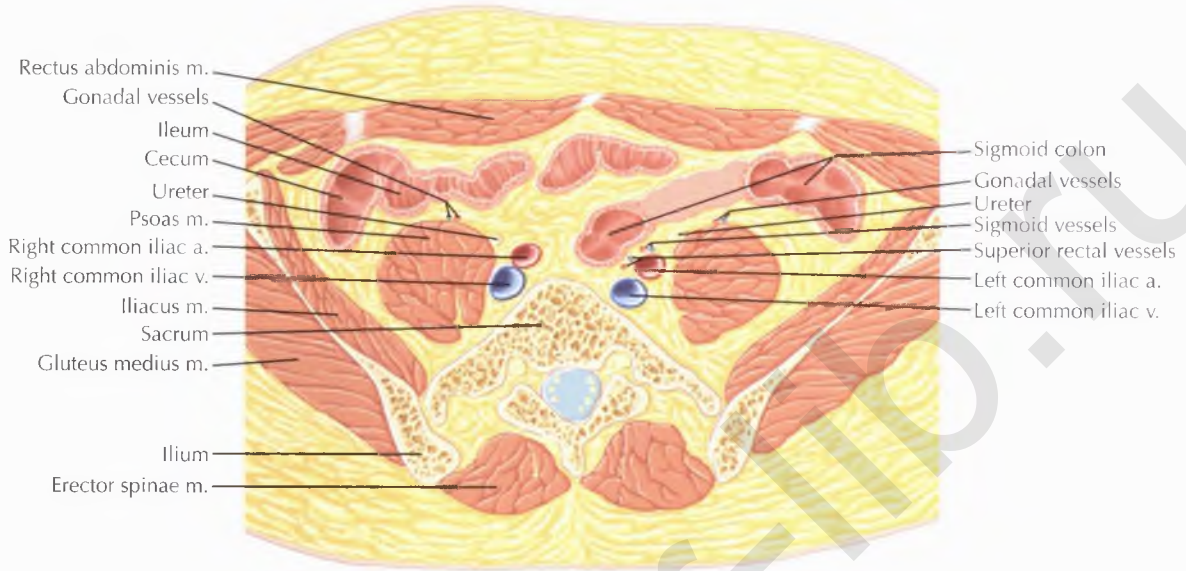


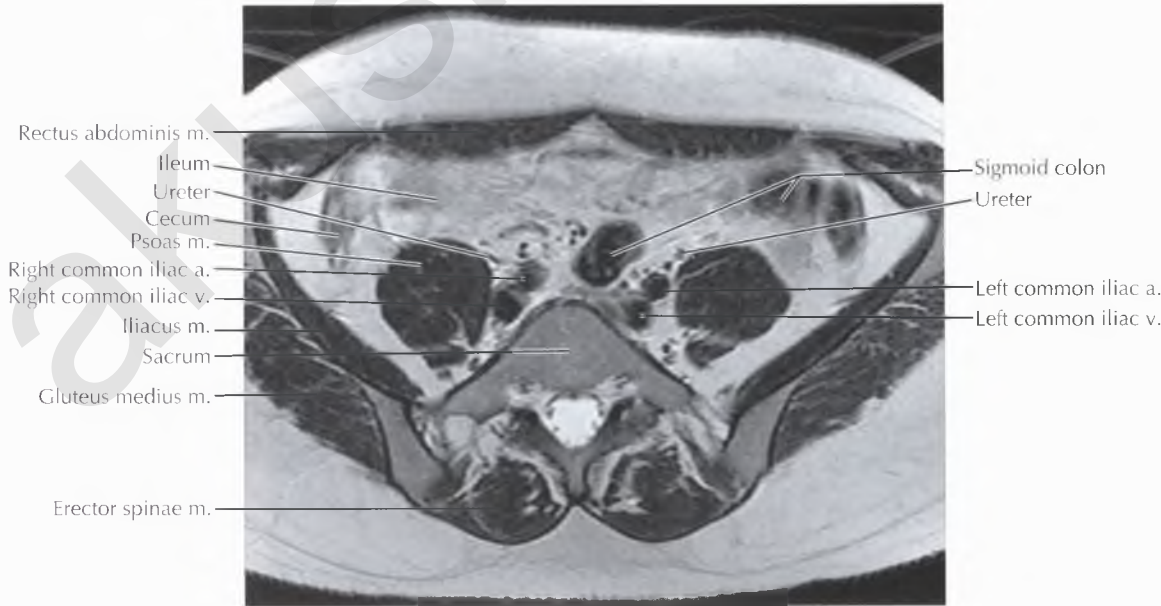
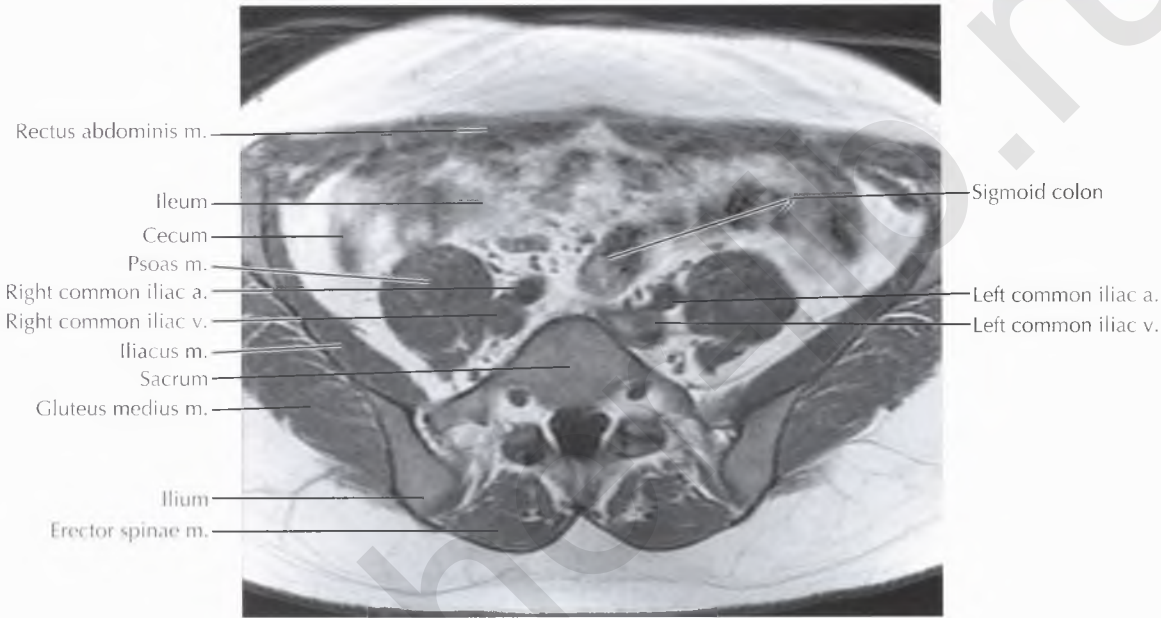
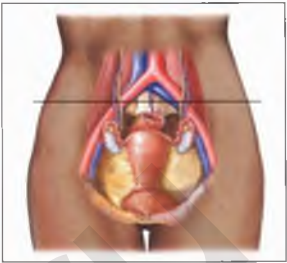
CORONAL 456



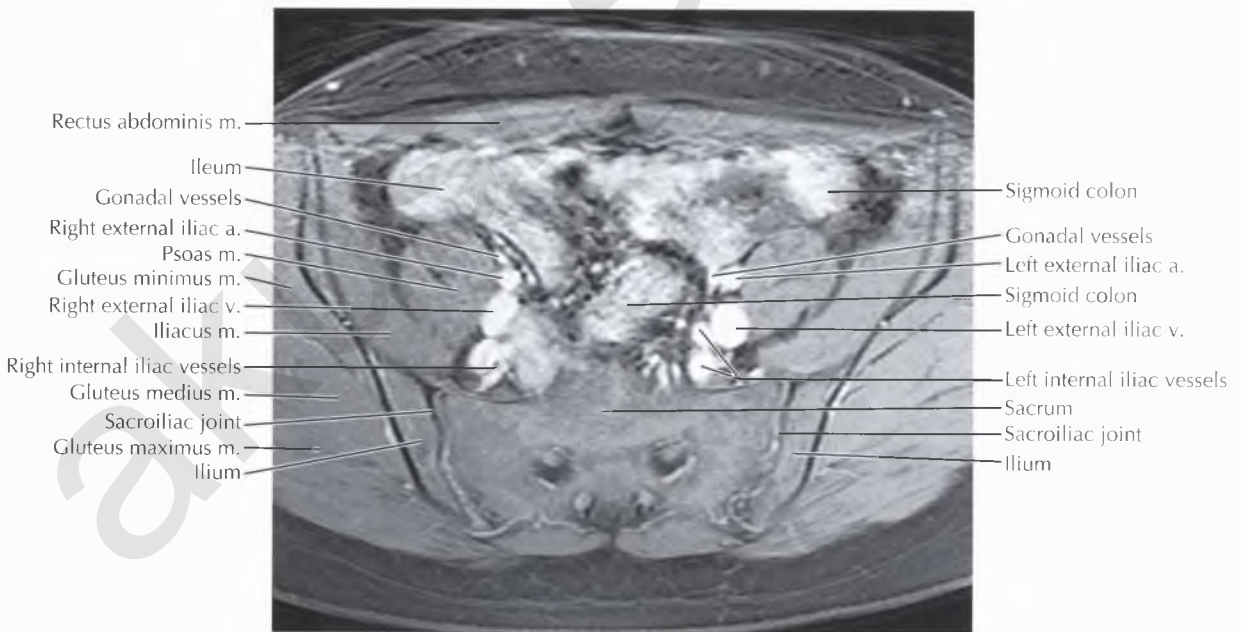
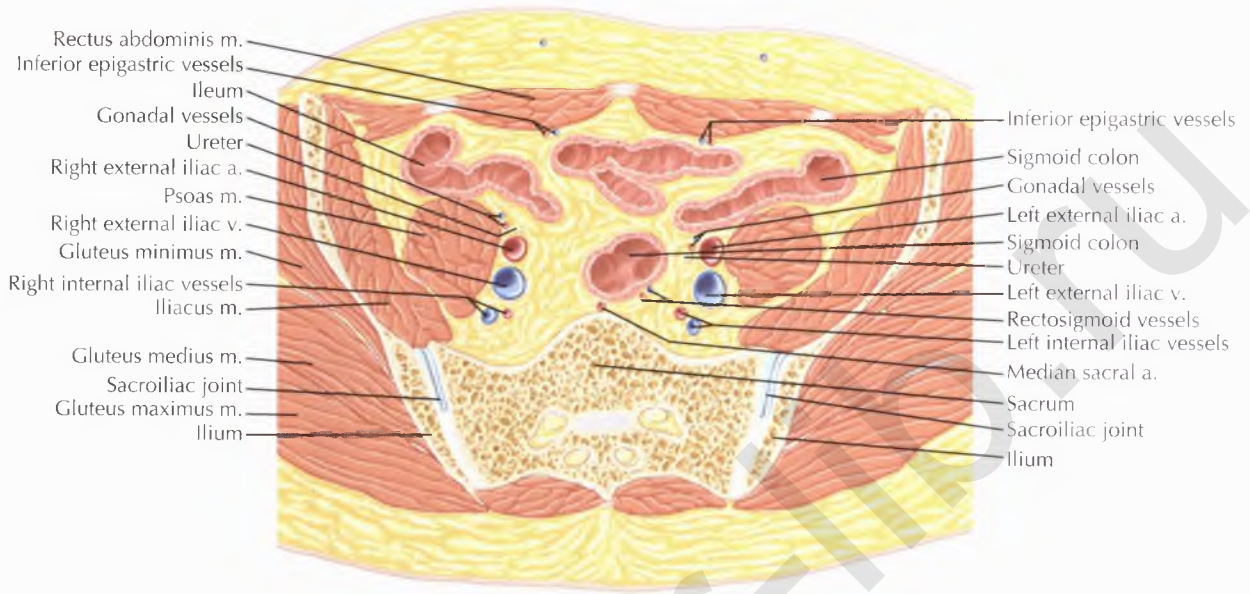
SAGITTAL 476

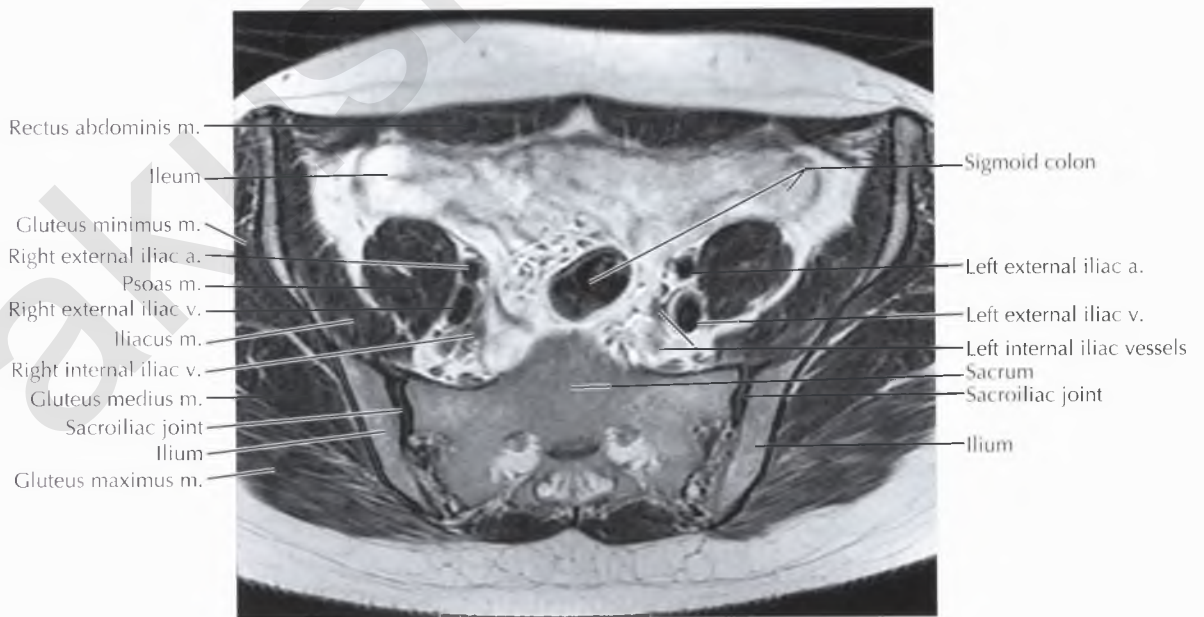
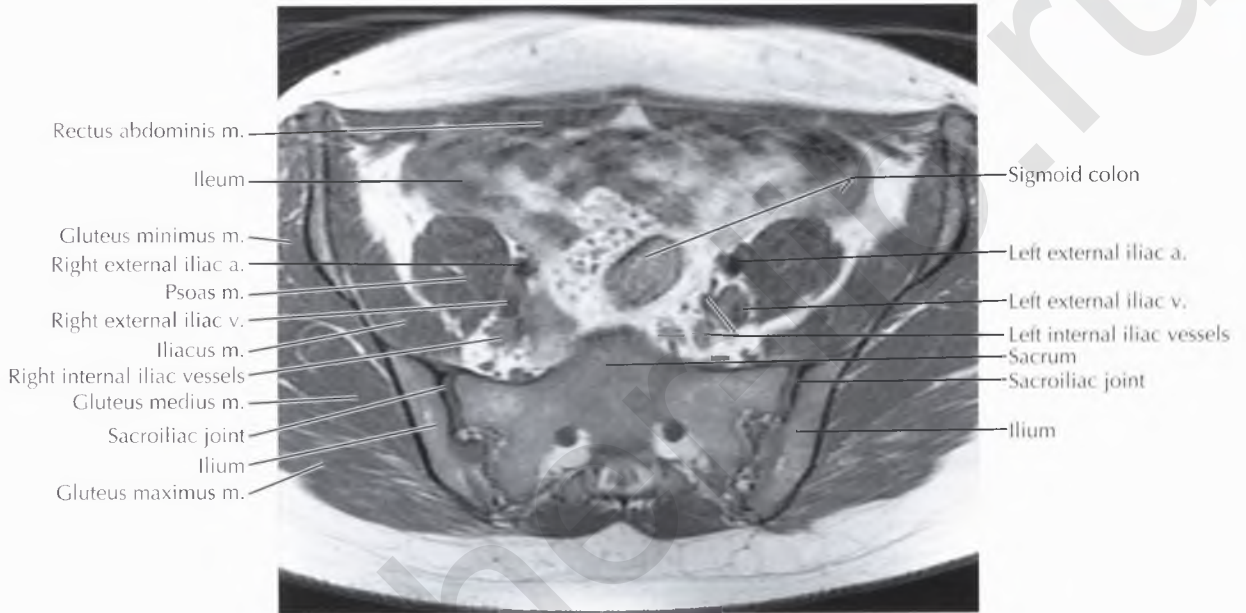
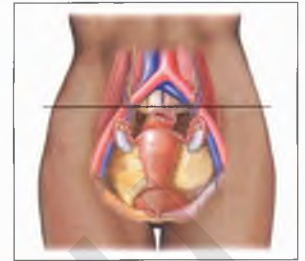
FEMALE PELVIS AXIAL 1

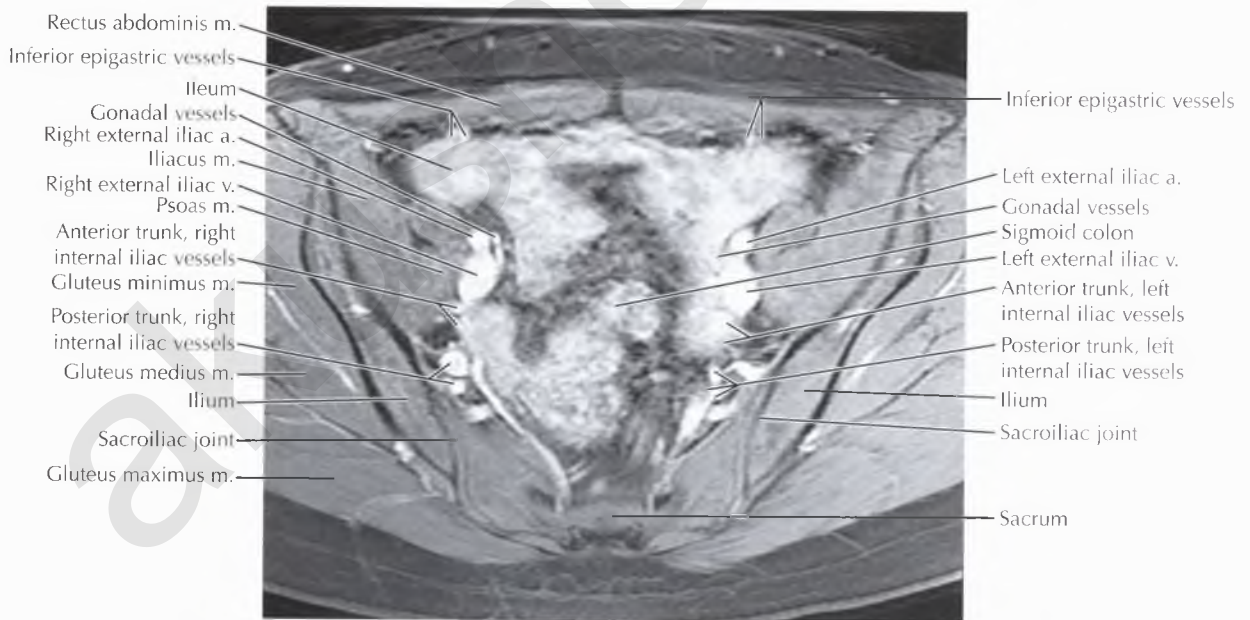
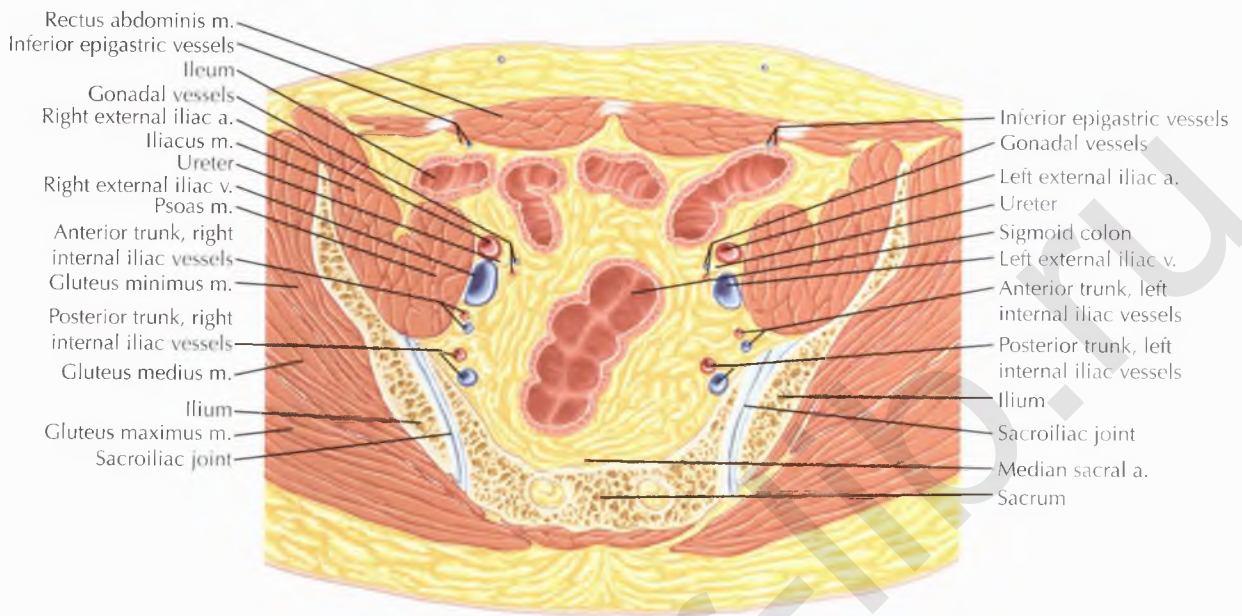


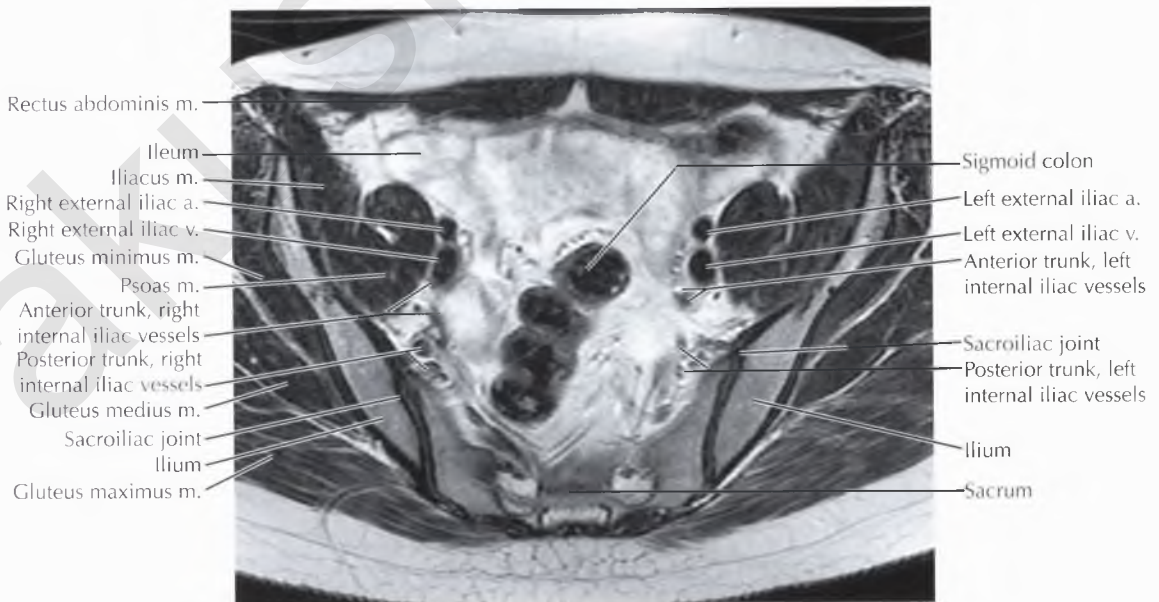
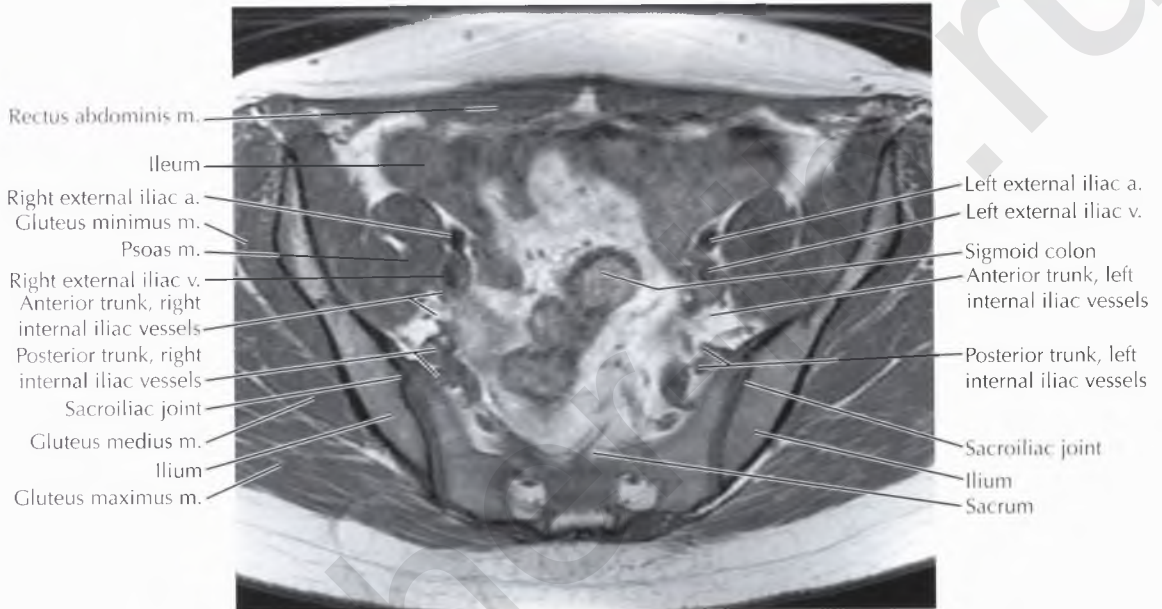
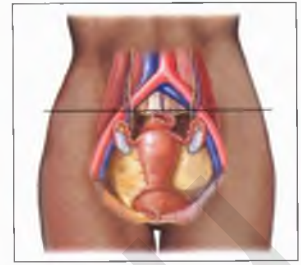


FEMALE PELVIS AXIAL 2

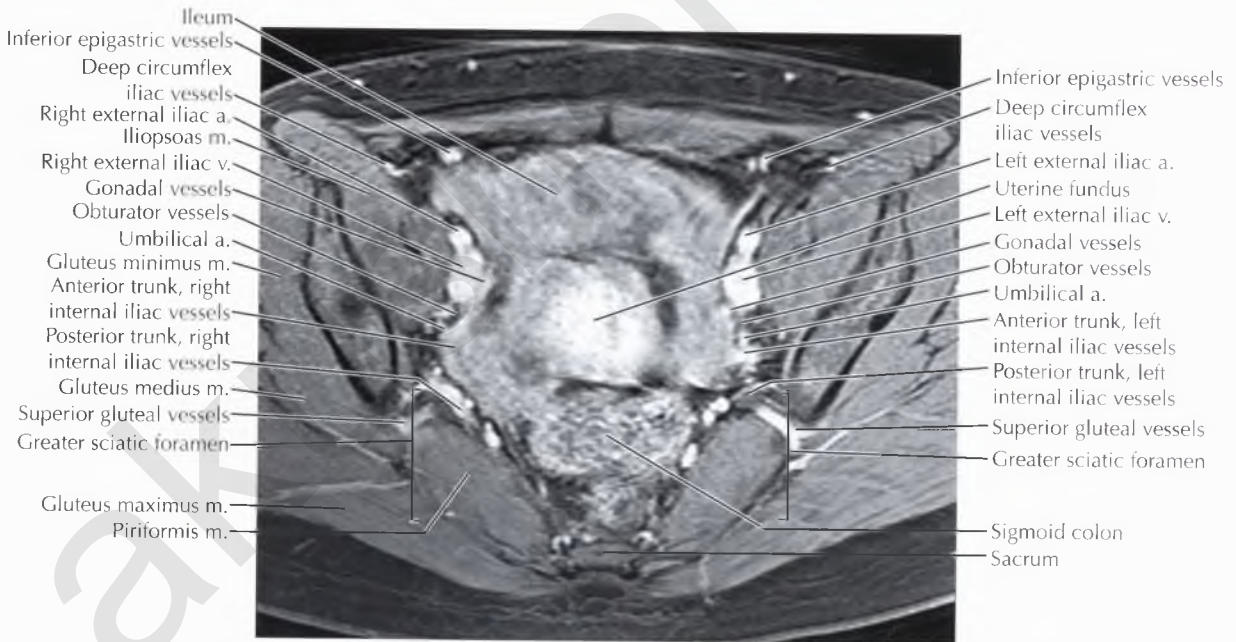
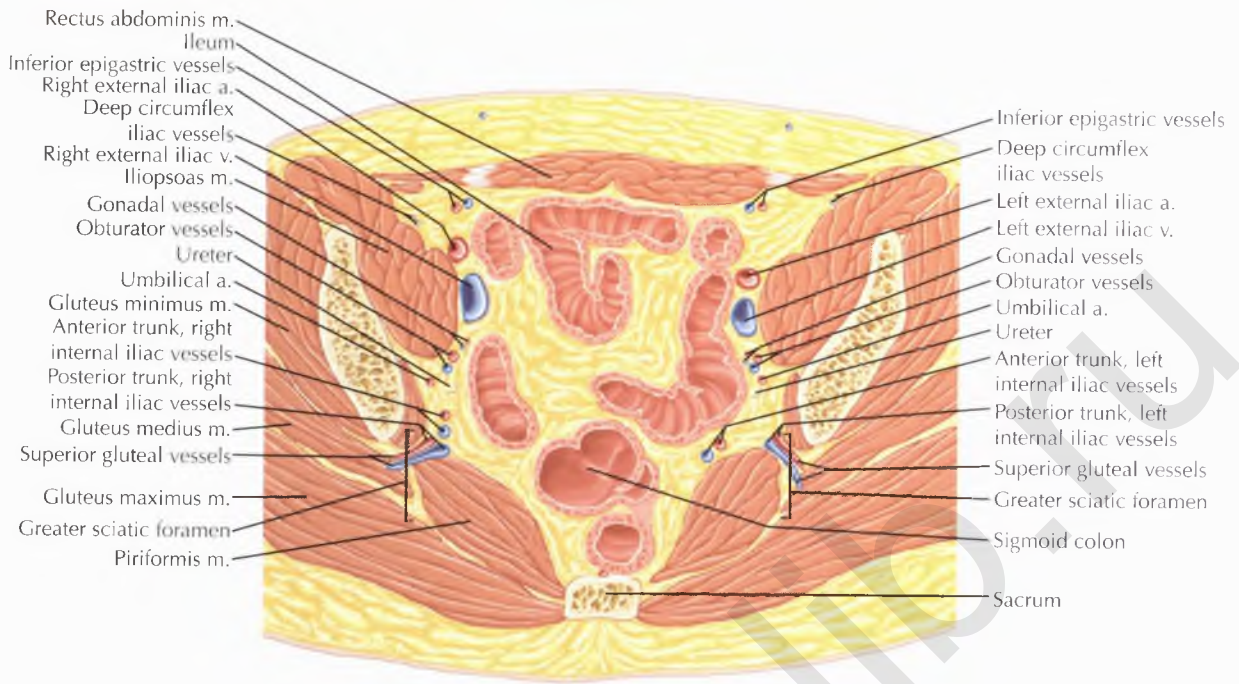






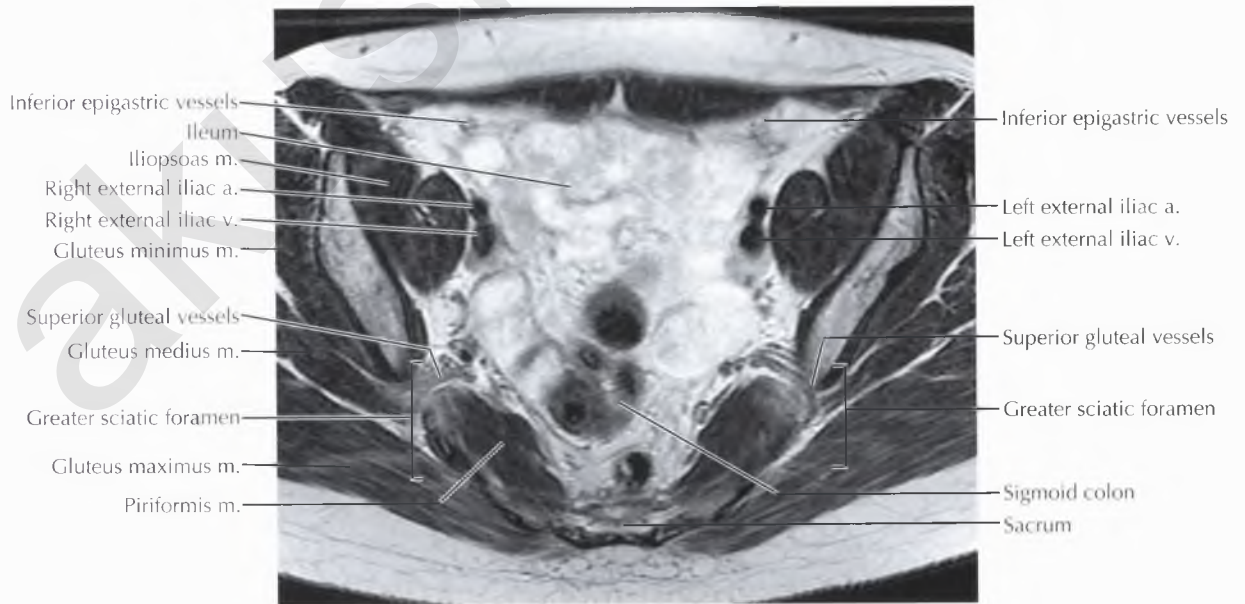
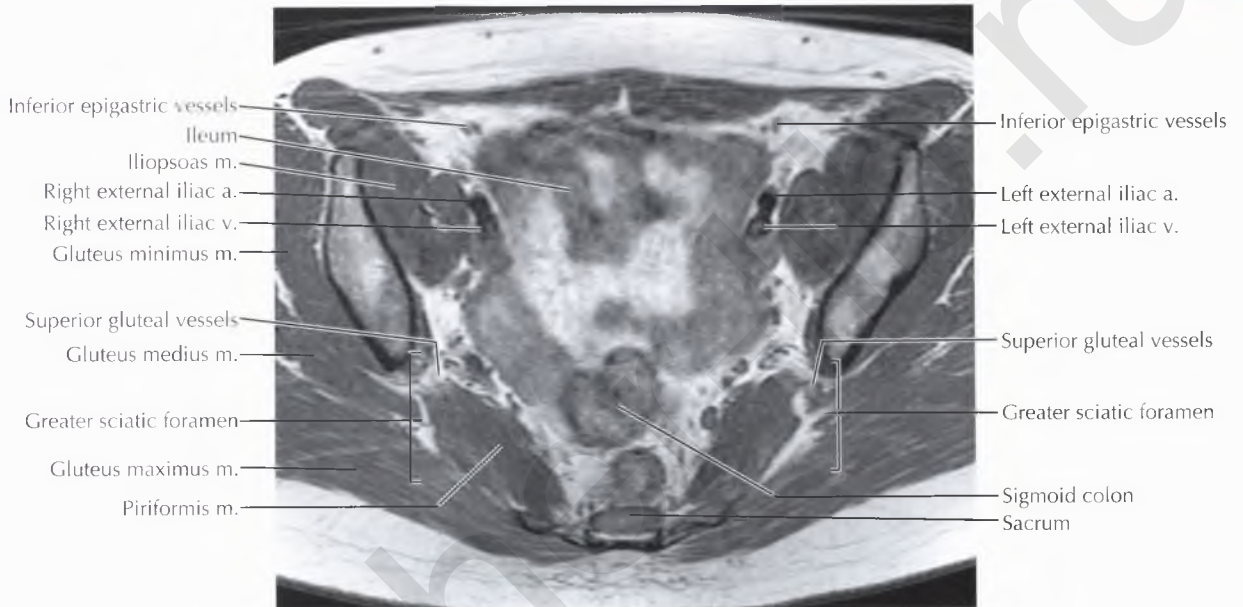
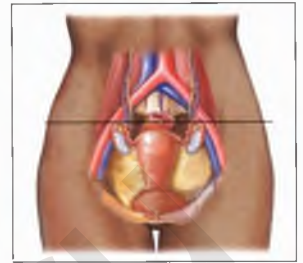


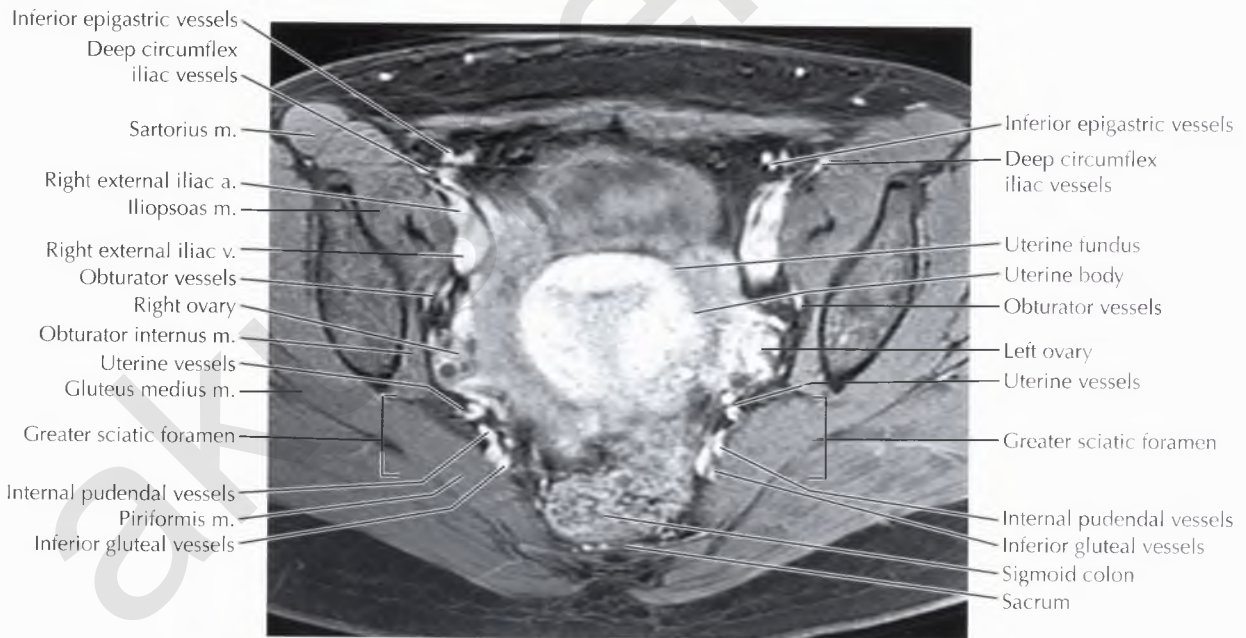
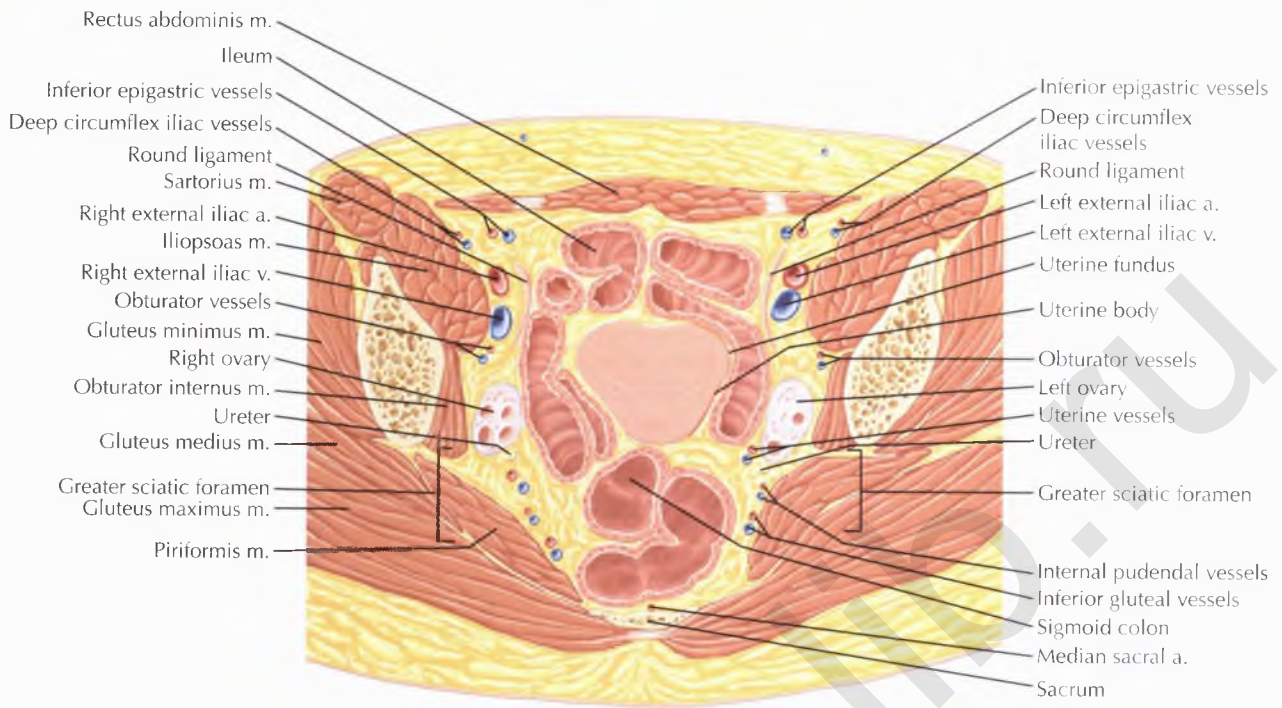
FEMALE PELVIS AXIAL 4



NORMAL ANATOMY

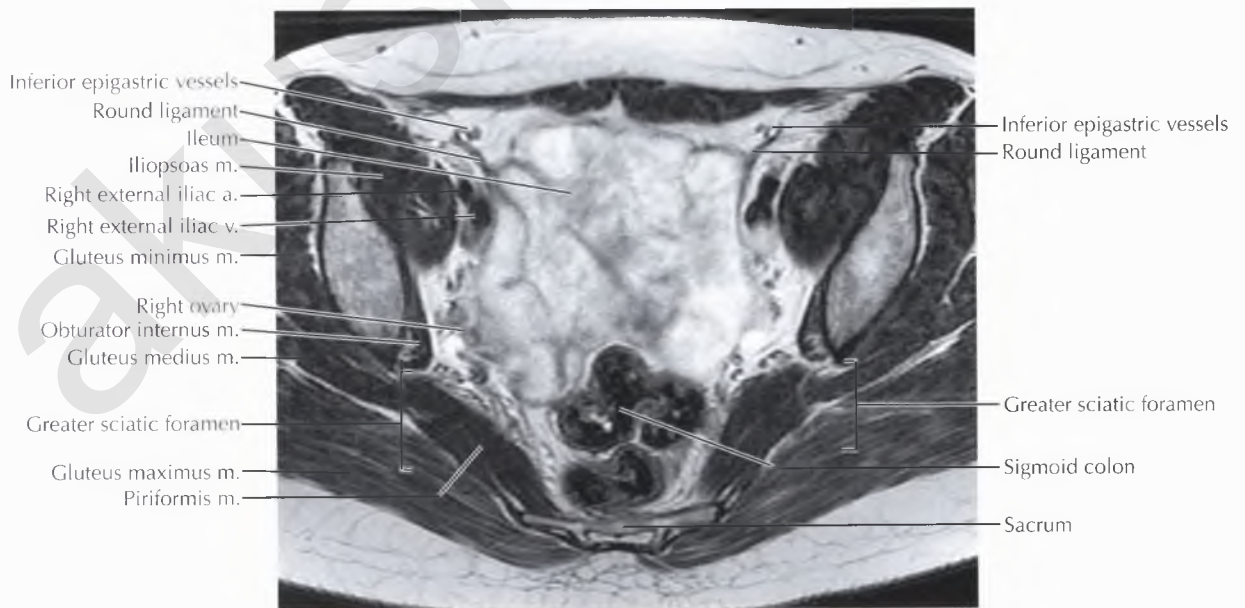
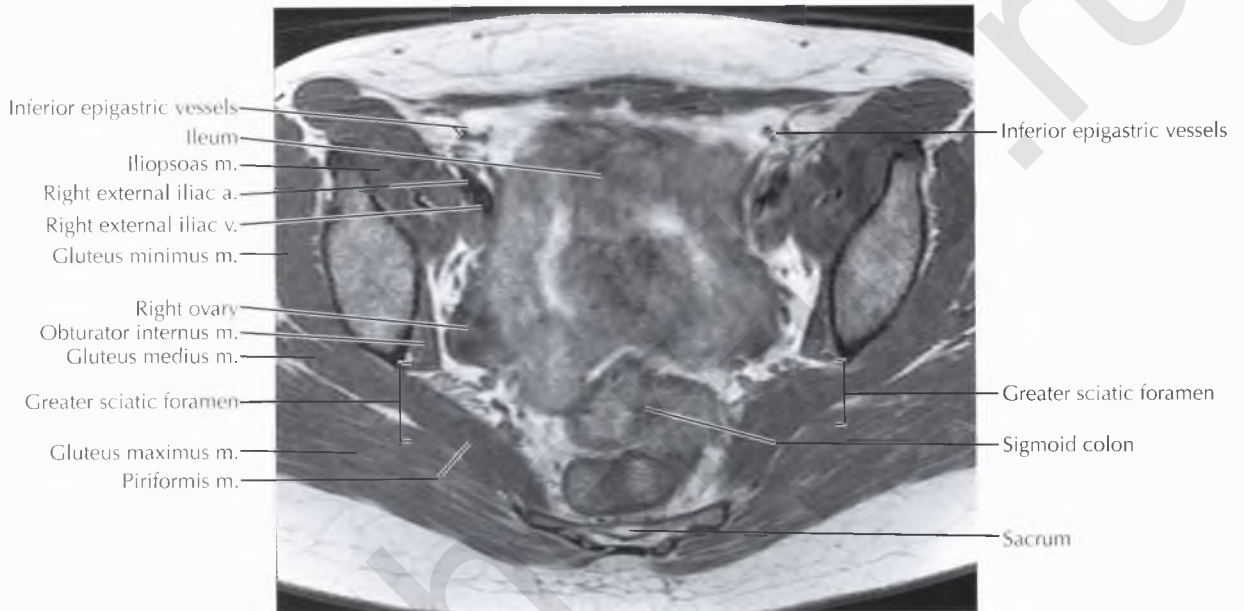
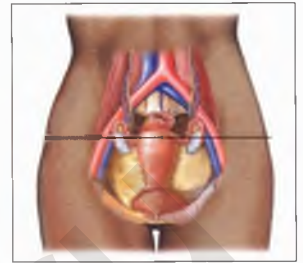
The *piriformis* muscle occupies most of the greater sciatic foramen. On this image, the superior gluteal vessels are seen exiting the pelvic through the greater sciatic foramen just superior to the piriformis muscle. The inferior gluteal vessels, internal pudendal vessels, and sciatic nerve also traverse the greater sciatic foramen just inferior to the piriformis muscle (see Female Pelvis Axials 6 and 7 and Sagittals 1 and 2).

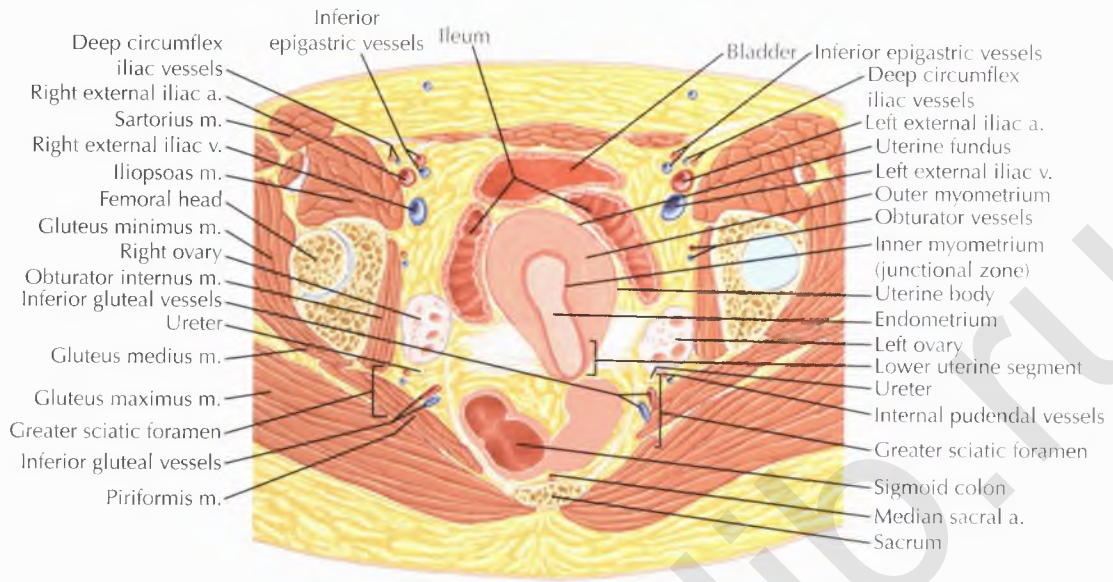




NORMAL ANATOMY

The paired *round ligaments* extend from the anterior uterine fundus, traverse the broad ligament, course anterolaterally along the pelvic wall, and travel through the inguinal canal to insert on the labia majora. The round ligament is the embryologic homologue to the gubernaculum in males.



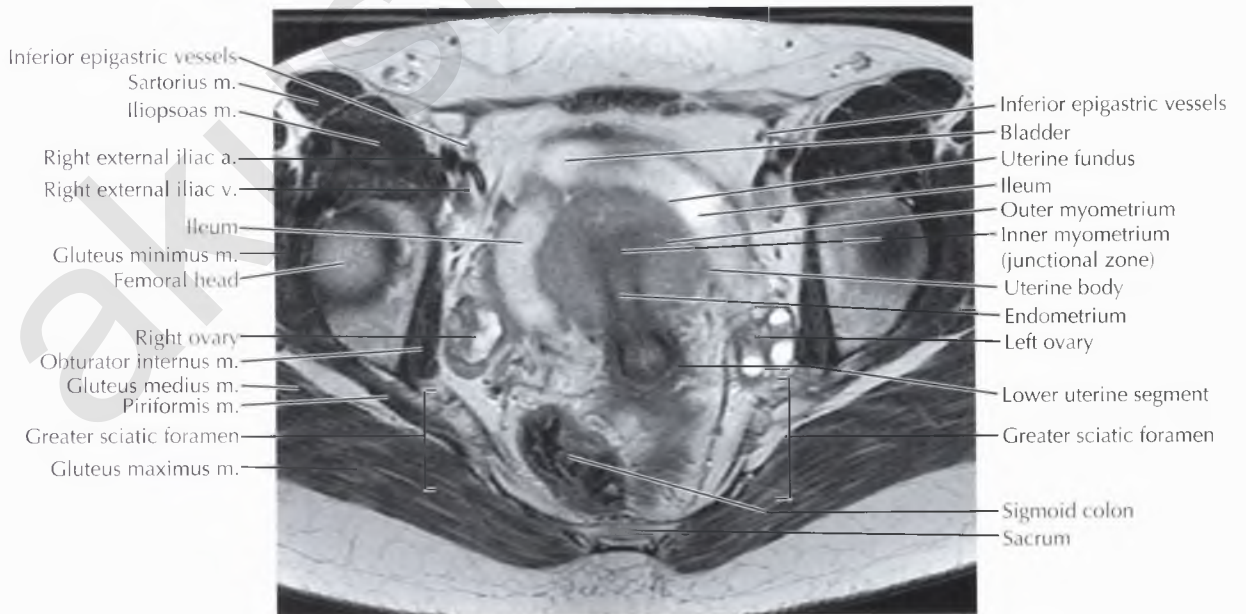
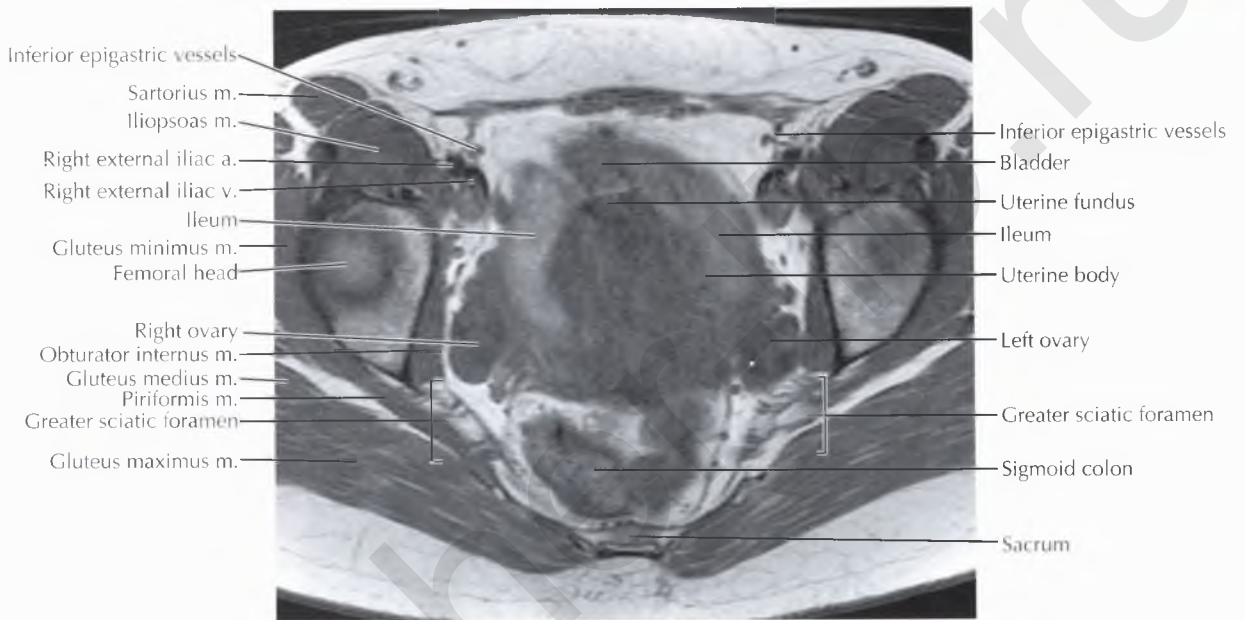


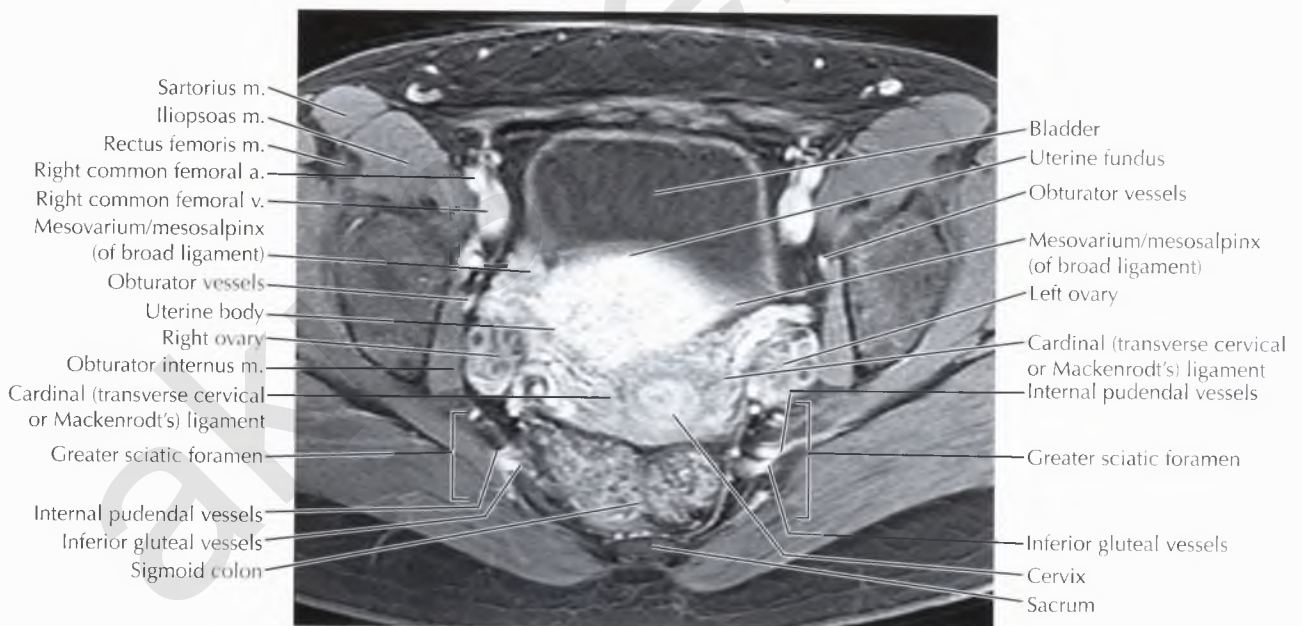
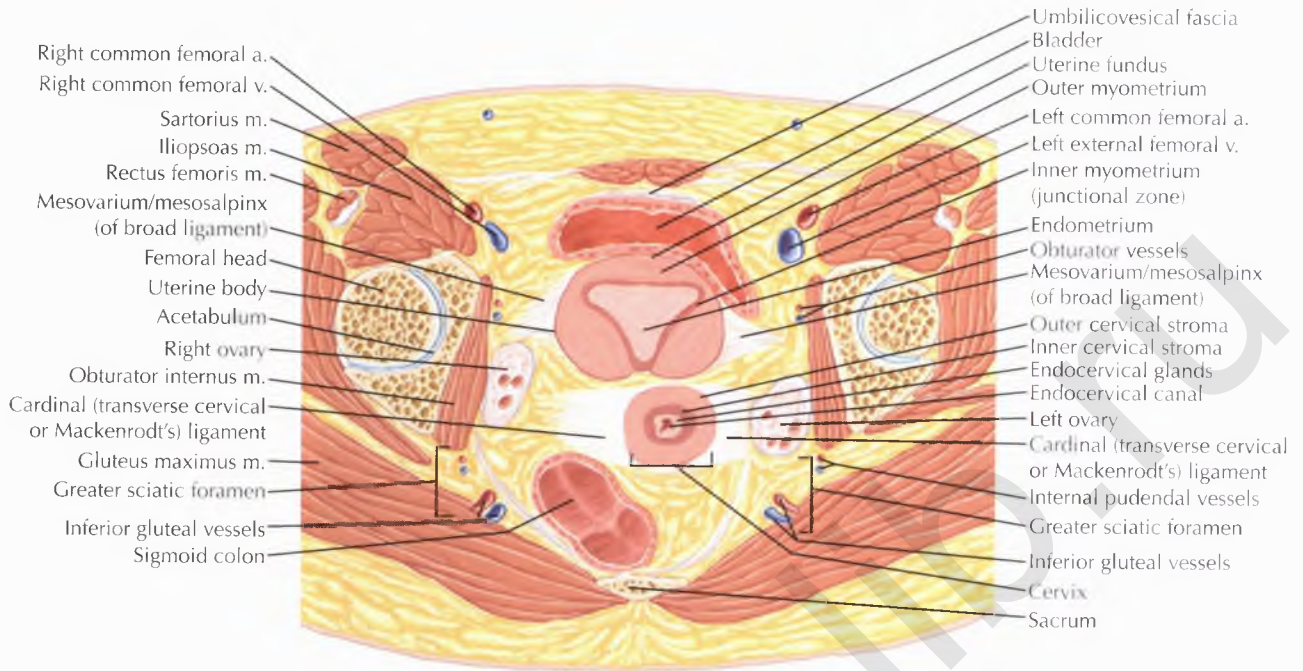
NORMAL ANATOMY

Magnetic resonance T2-weighted images clearly delineate the three uterine zones: a high signal intensity *endometrium*, a low signal intensity *inner myometrium* (also known as the junctional zone), and an intermediate–slightly high signal intensity *outer myometrium*. In some cases a very-high signal intensity endometrial canal can also be seen.

DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATION

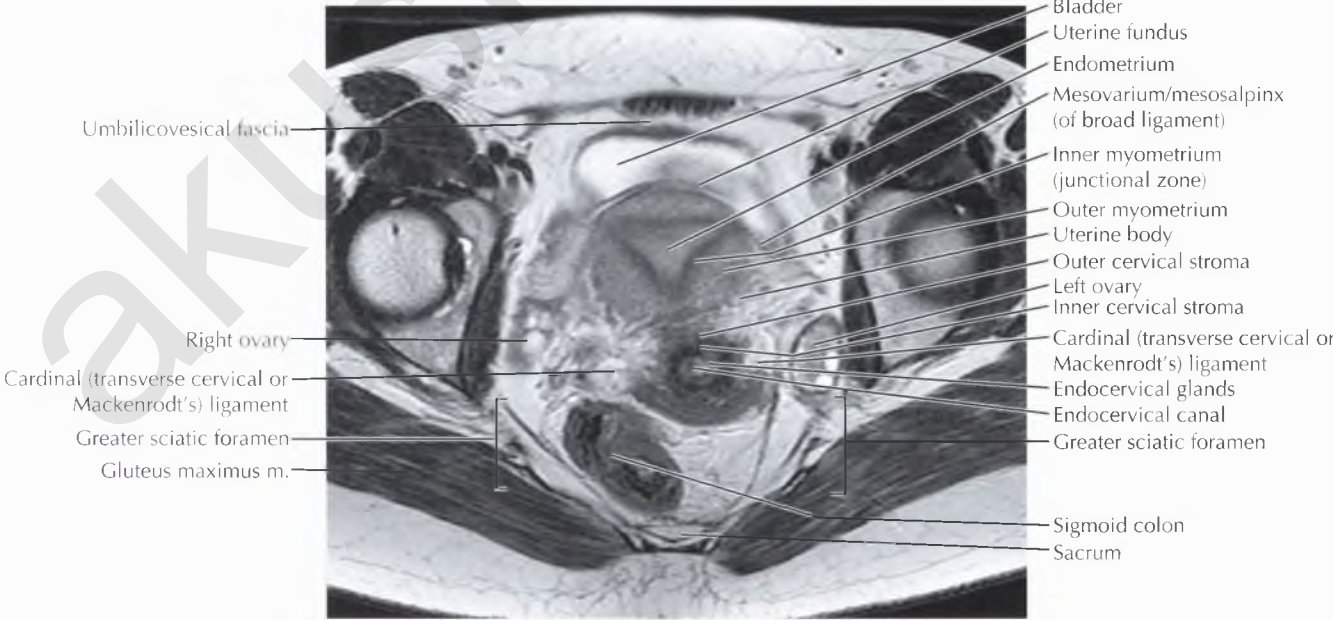
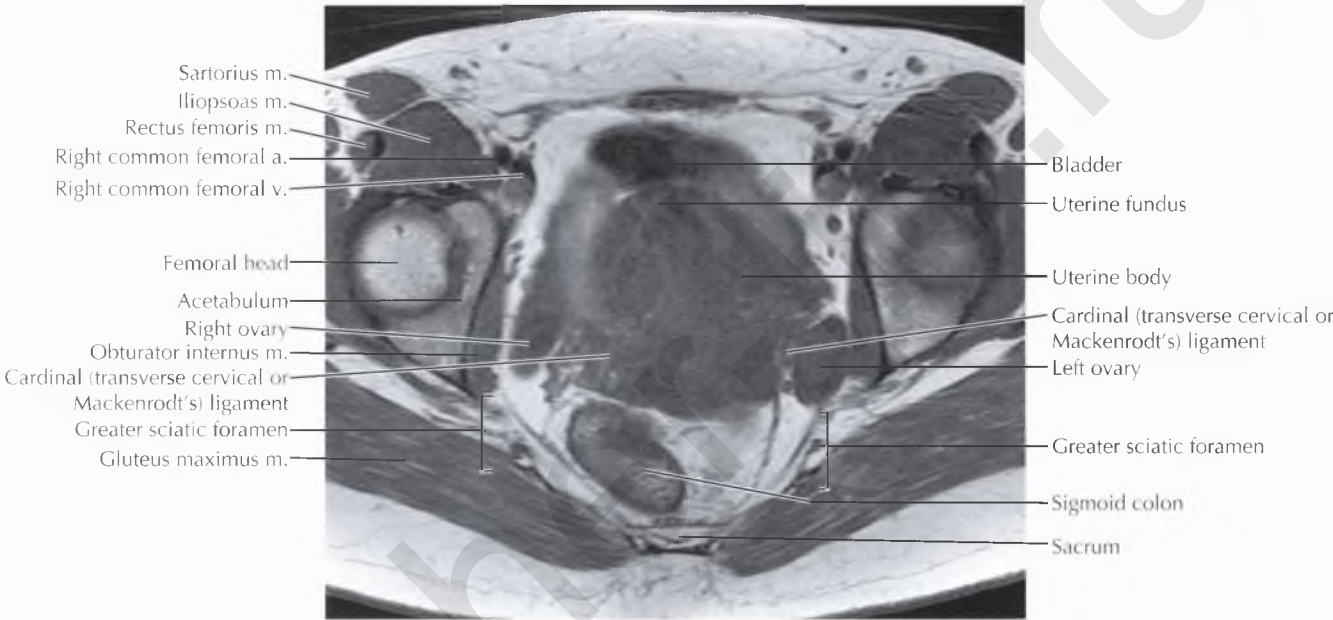
Note the change in positioning of the pelvic organs as the bladder fills with urine throughout the examination. The postcontrast axial sequence was the last obtained in this MR study, and thus the urinary bladder is most distended on this sequence.



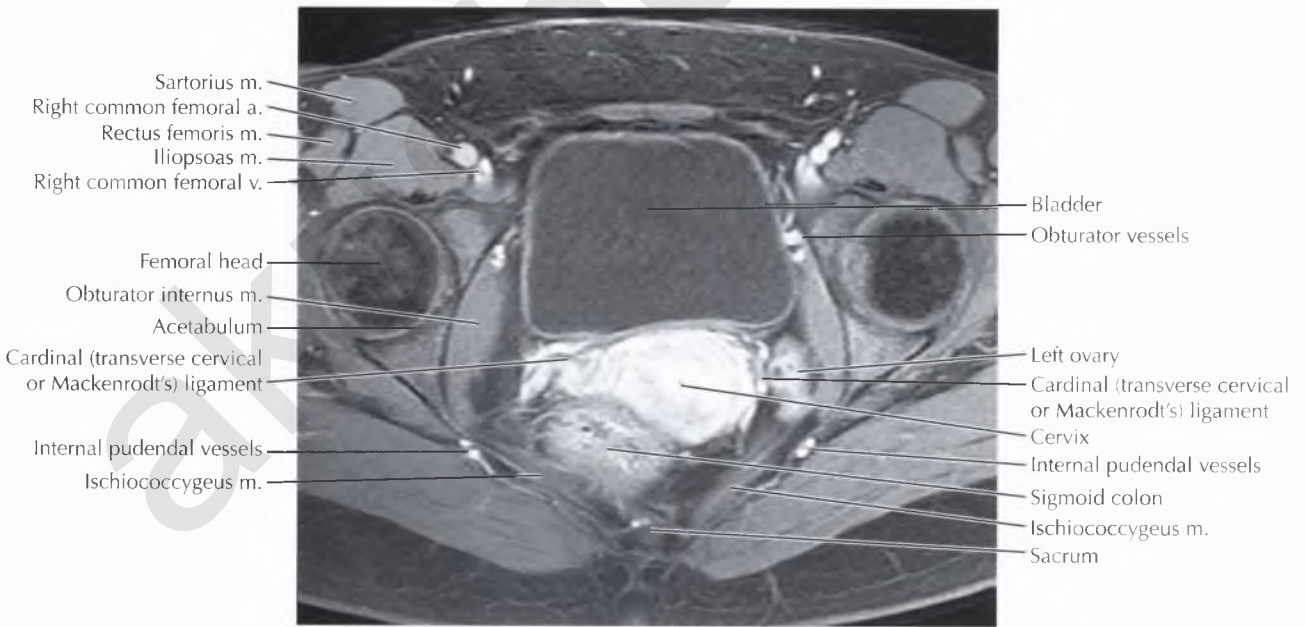
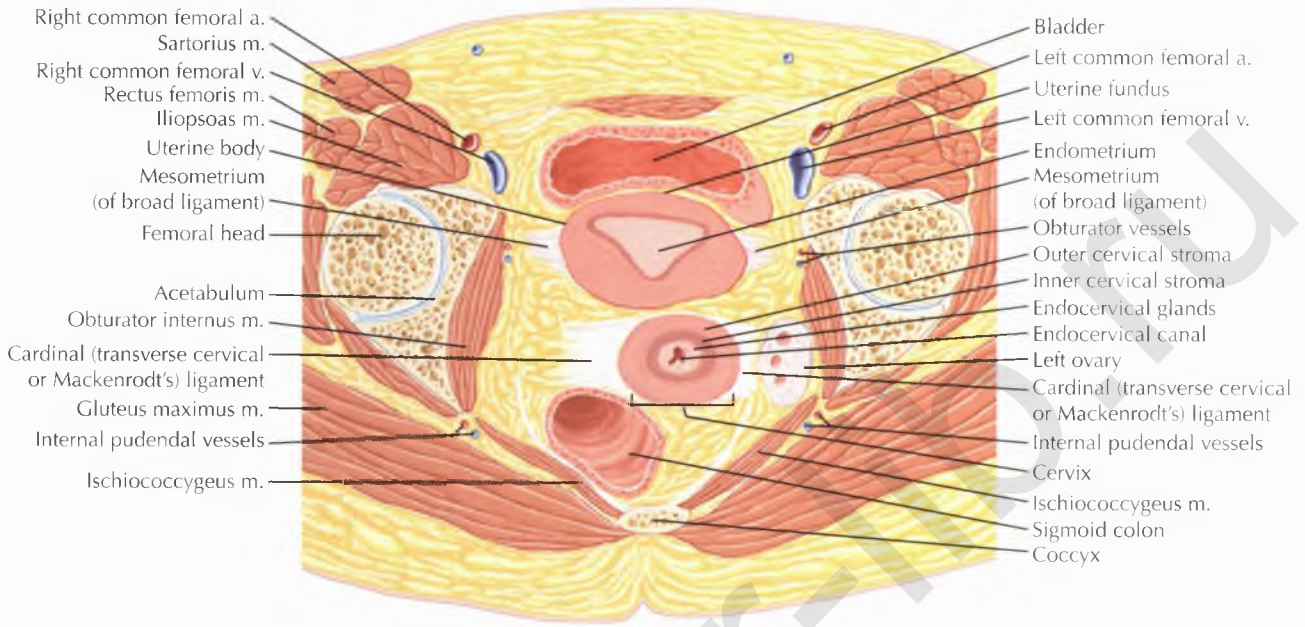


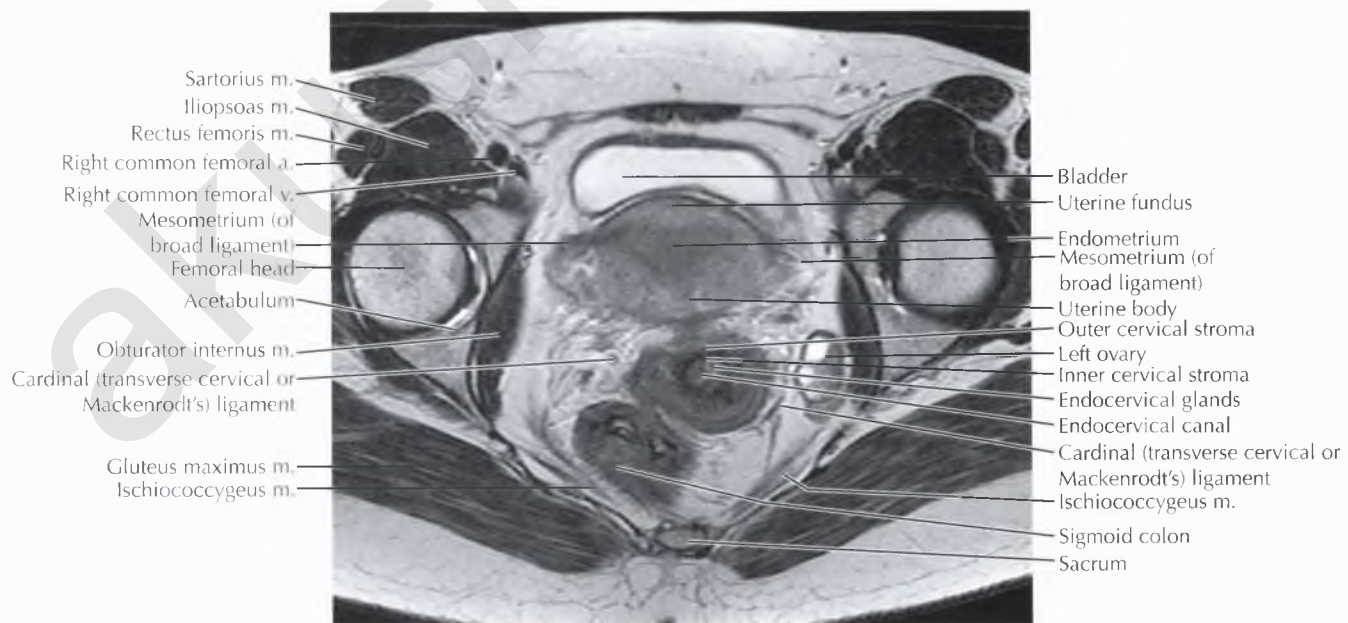
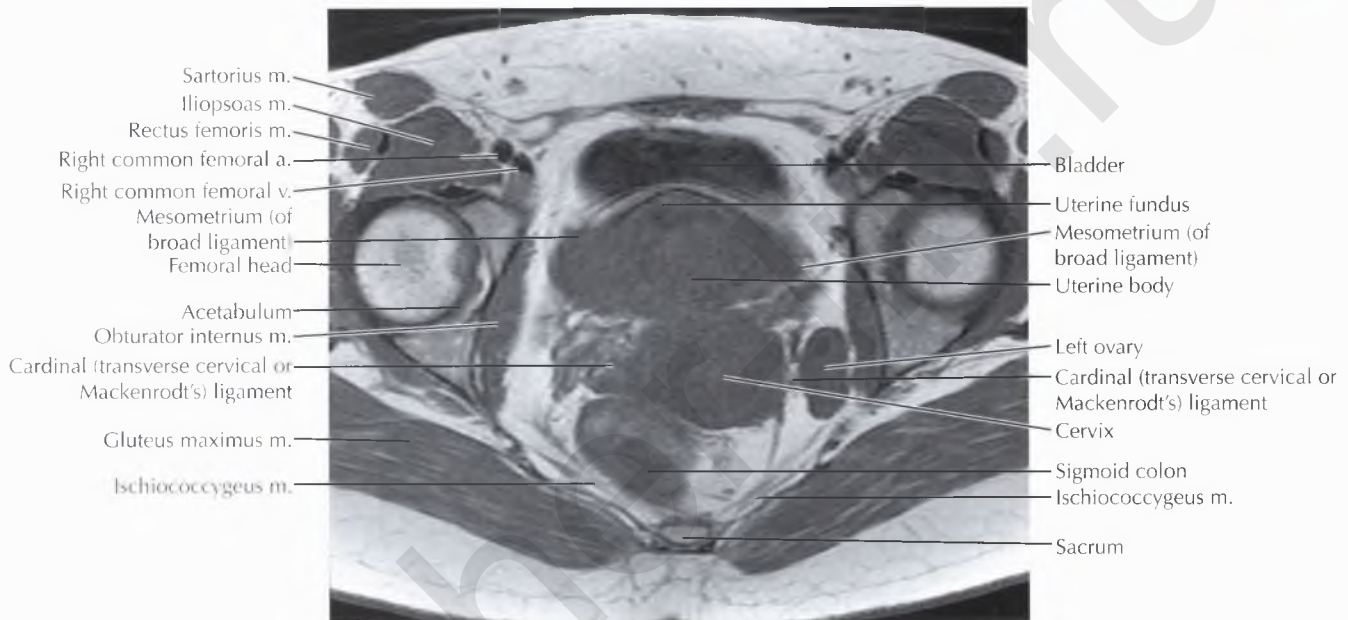
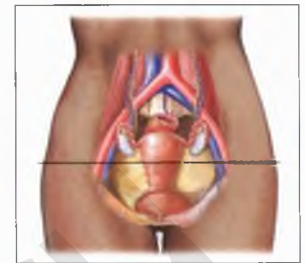
NORMAL ANATOMY

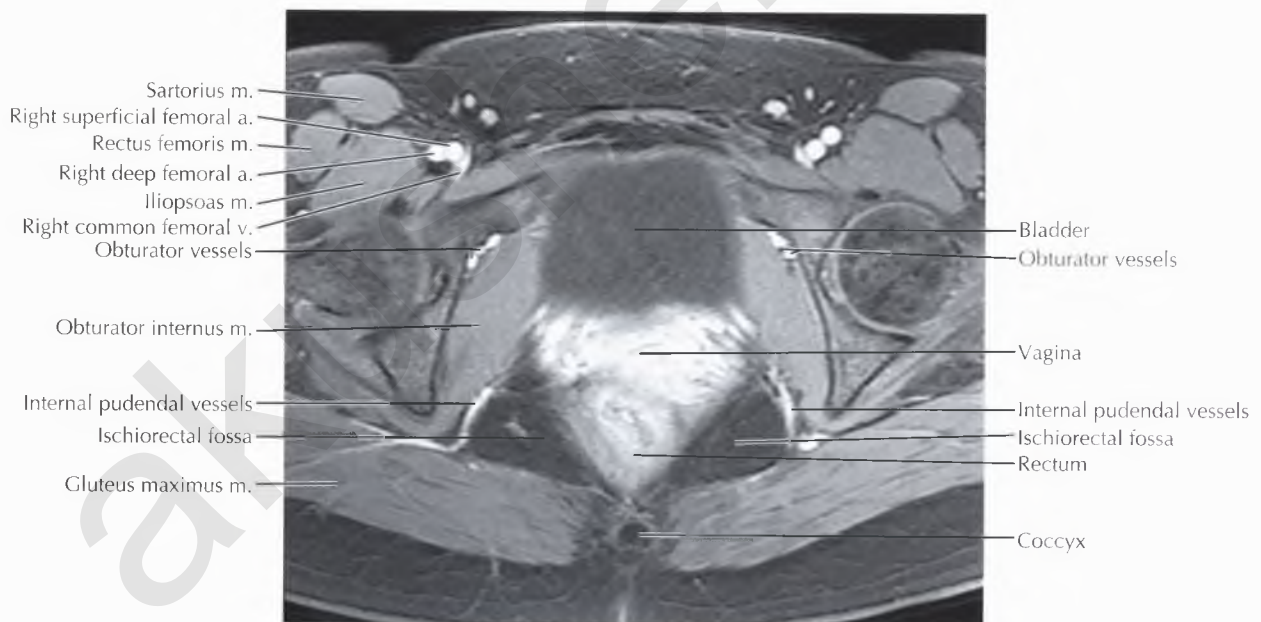
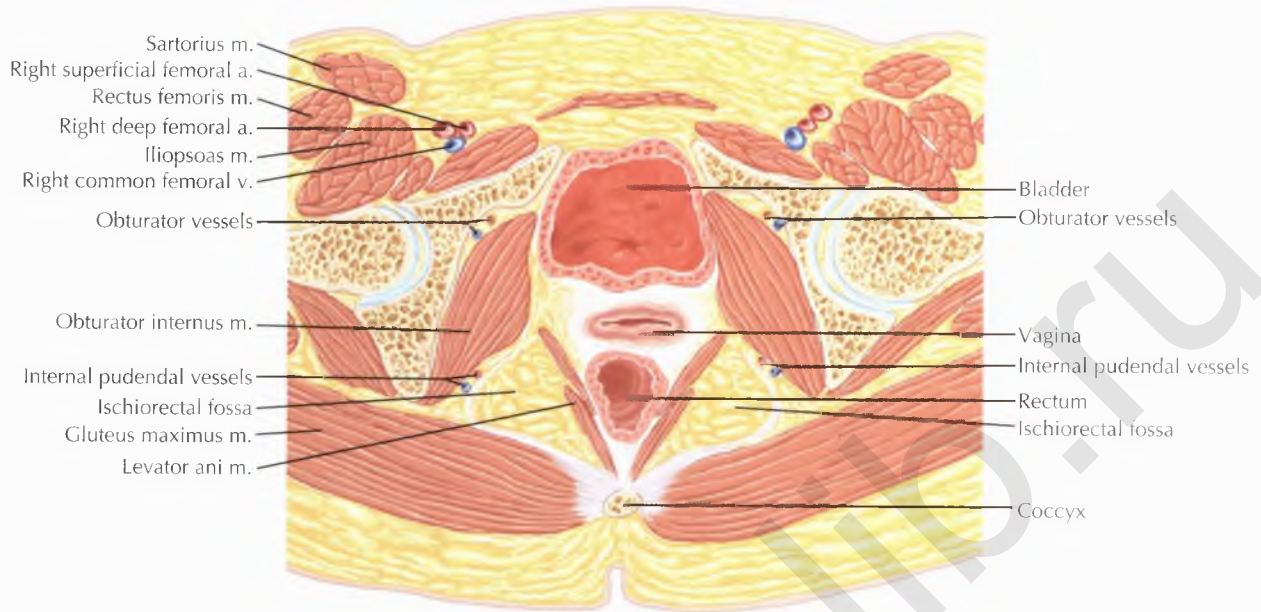
Cervical zonal anatomy is also well-demonstrated on T2-weighted MR images: the very high signal intensity fluid-filled endocervical canal is surrounded by the intermediate–slightly high signal intensity endocervical glands, followed by the low signal intensity inner cervical stroma, then the intermediate–slightly high signal intensity outer cervical stroma.



FEMALE PELVIS AXIAL 8

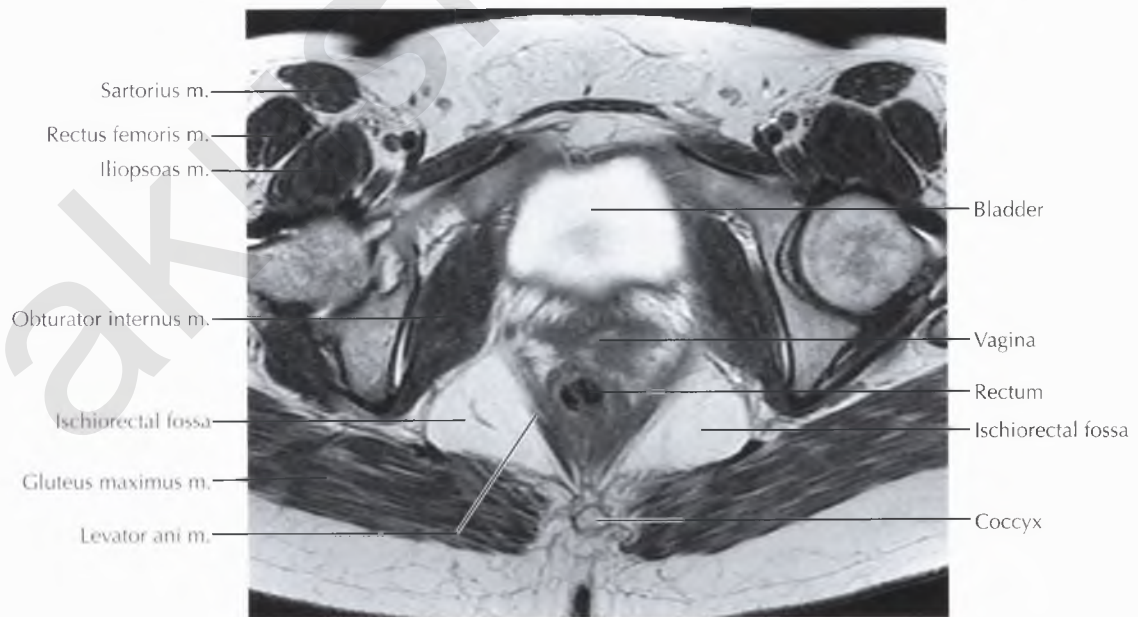
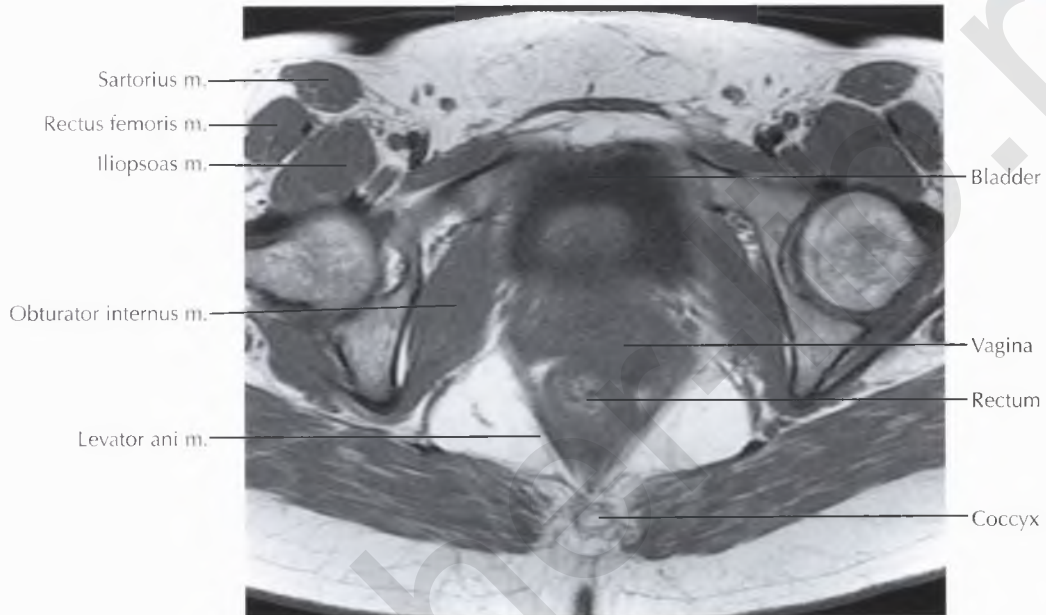
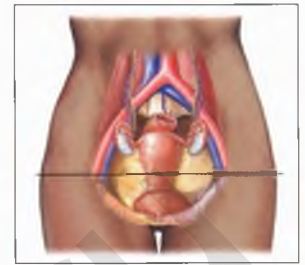


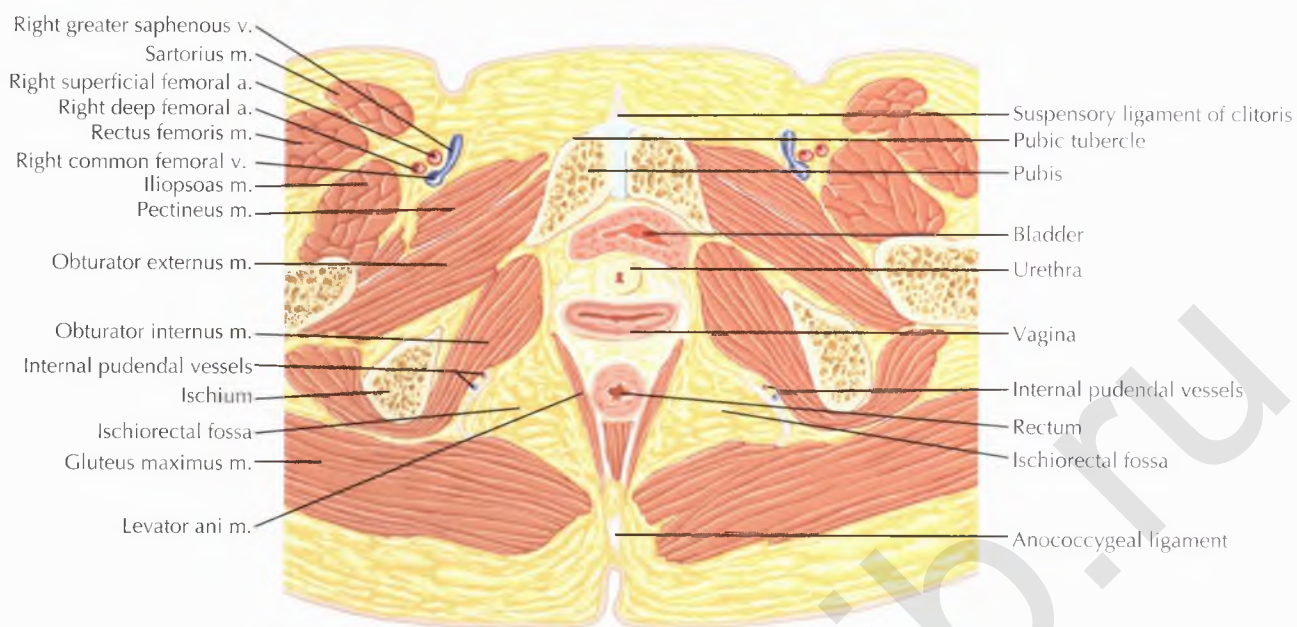




NORMAL ANATOMY

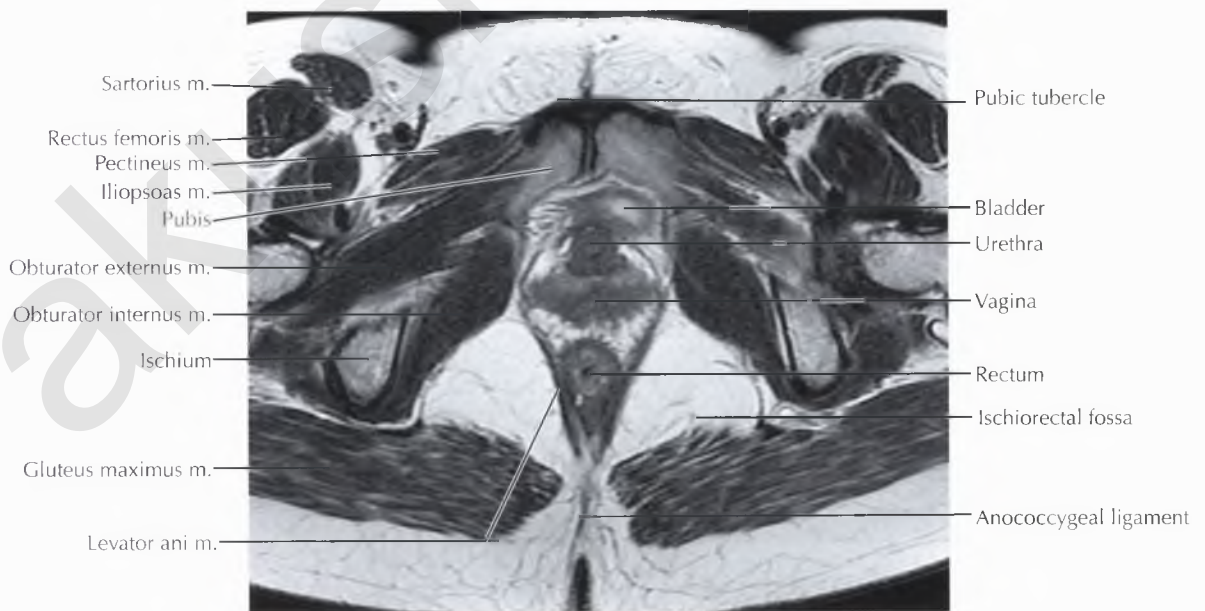
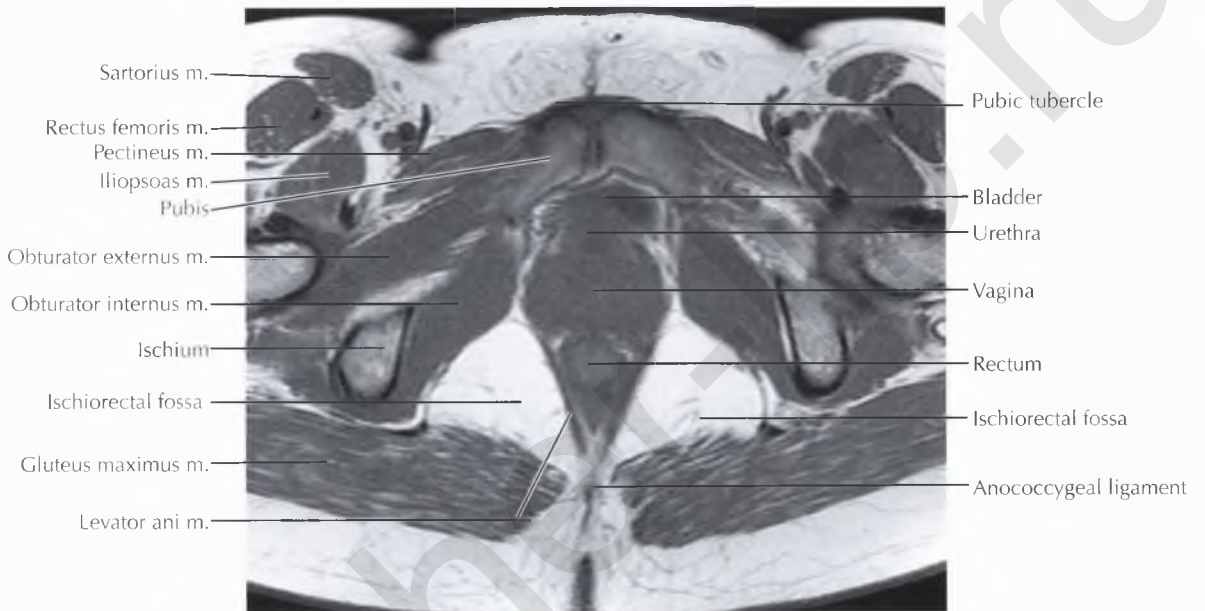
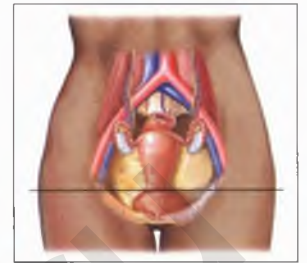
The iliococcygeus, puborectalis, and pubococcygeus muscles are components of the *levator ani* musculature. Note that the ishiococcygeus muscle is not considered a component of the levator ani musculature.

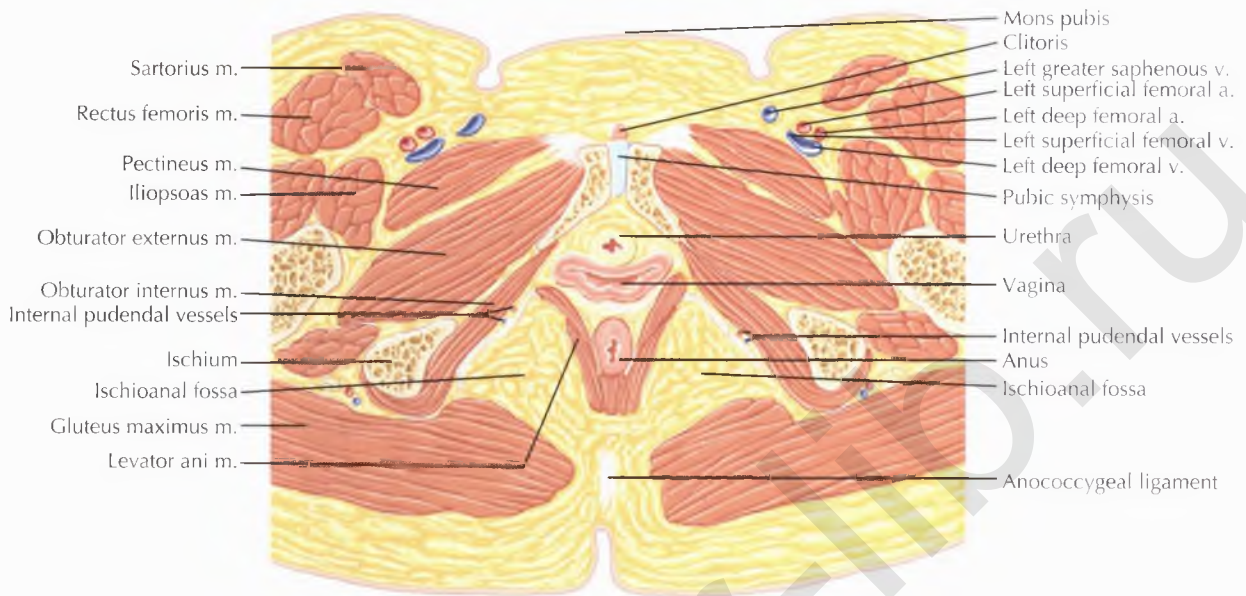


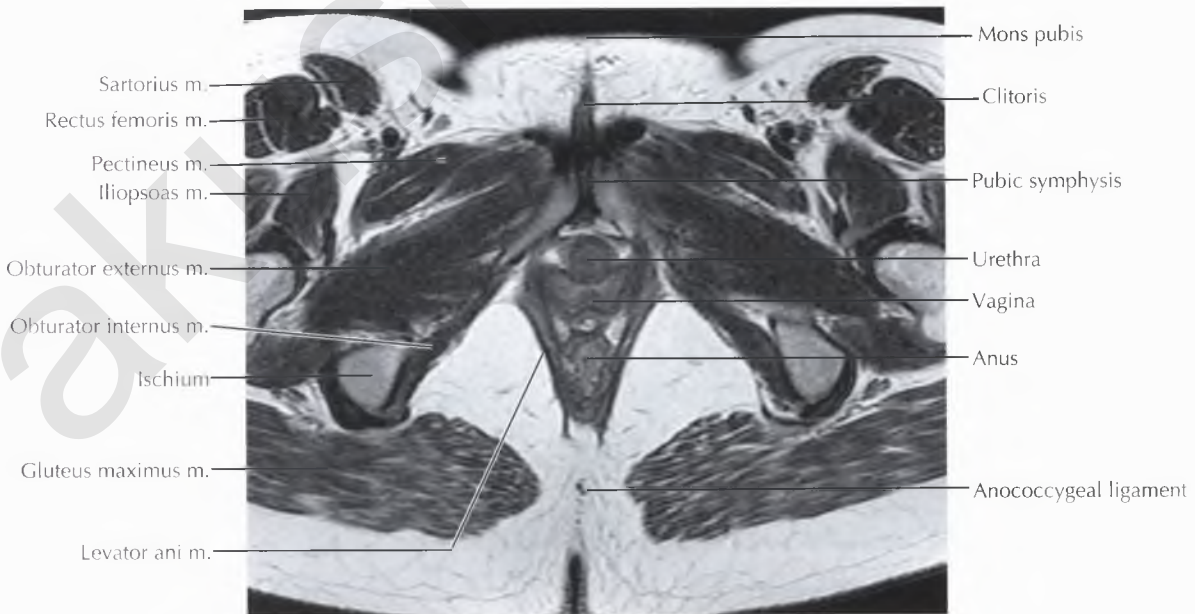
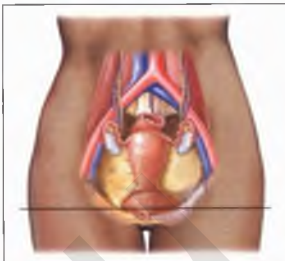


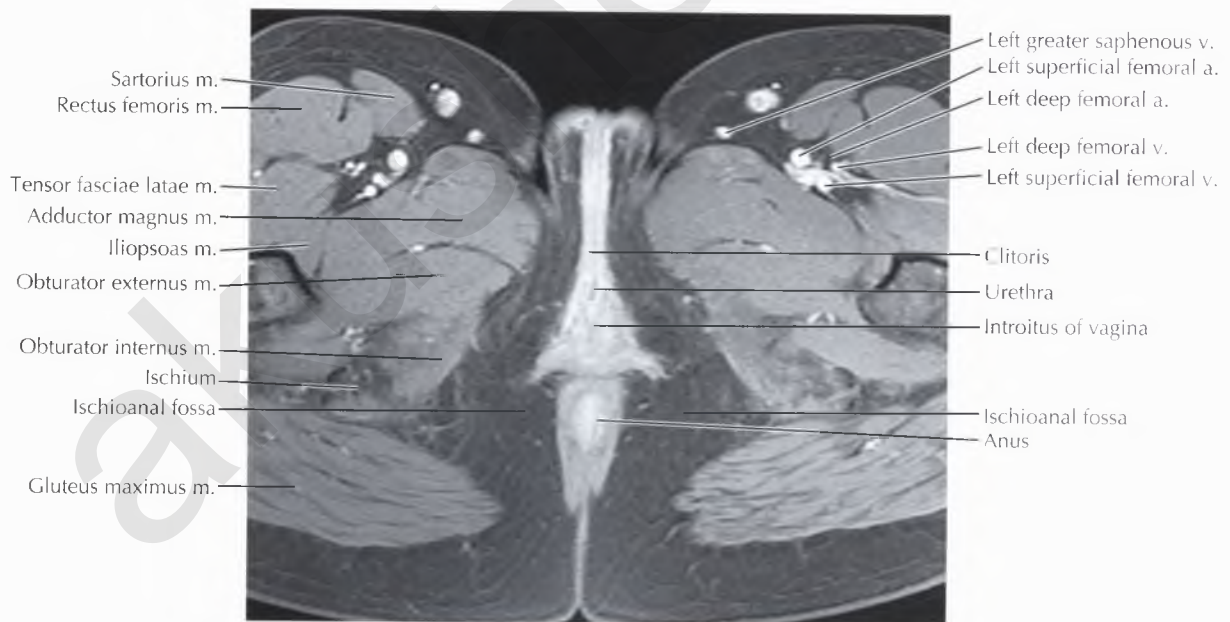
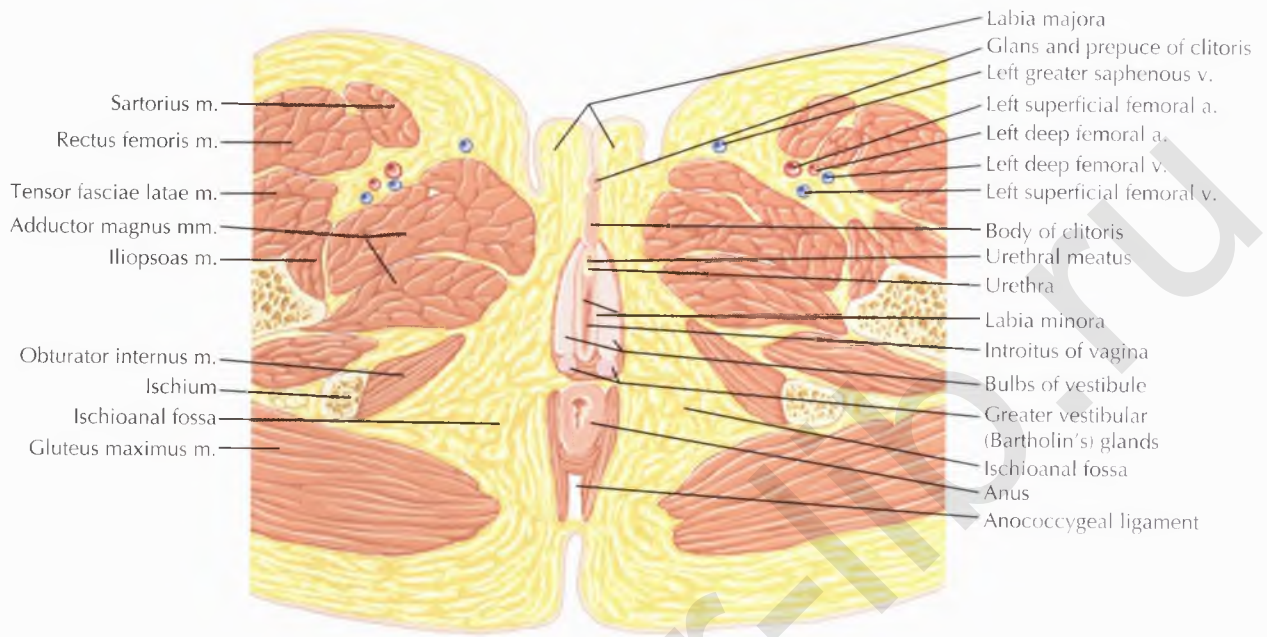
PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

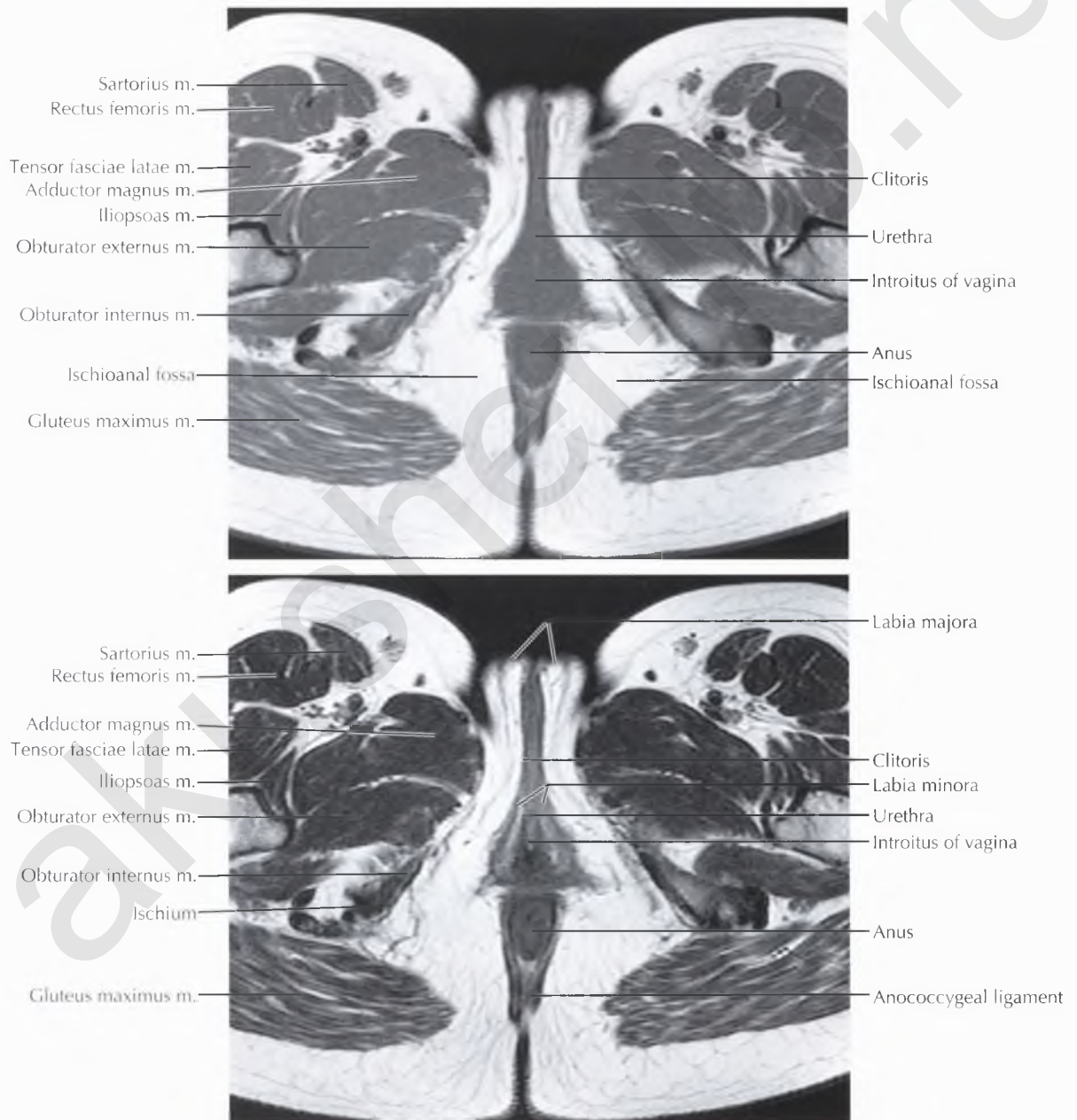
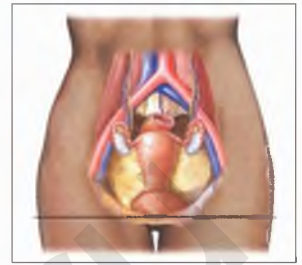
Femoral and obturator hernias are less common than inguinal hernias and are usually seen in adult women. *Femoral hernias* occur when abdominopelvic contents protrude through a natural defect in the pelvic wall fascia called the femoral canal. On cross-sectional MRI, herniated contents are seen lateral to the pubic tubercle and medial to the femoral vessels. Femoral hernias can be distinguished from inguinal hernias by drawing a transverse line through the pubic tubercle; femoral hernias classically occur posterior to this line, whereas inguinal hernias tend to be located anterior to this line. In *obturator hernias*, herniation occurs through the obturator canal to a location between the pectineus and obturator externus muscles.

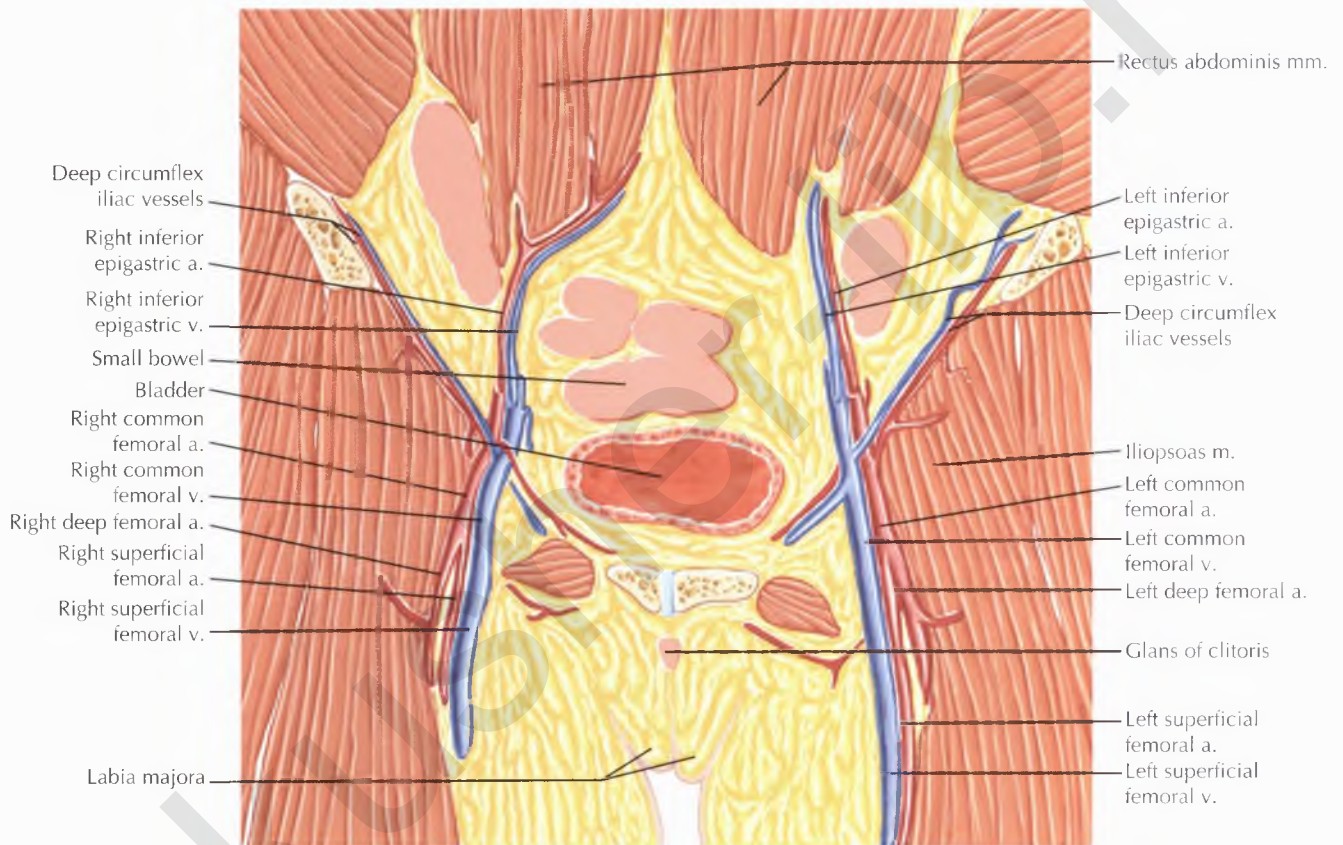




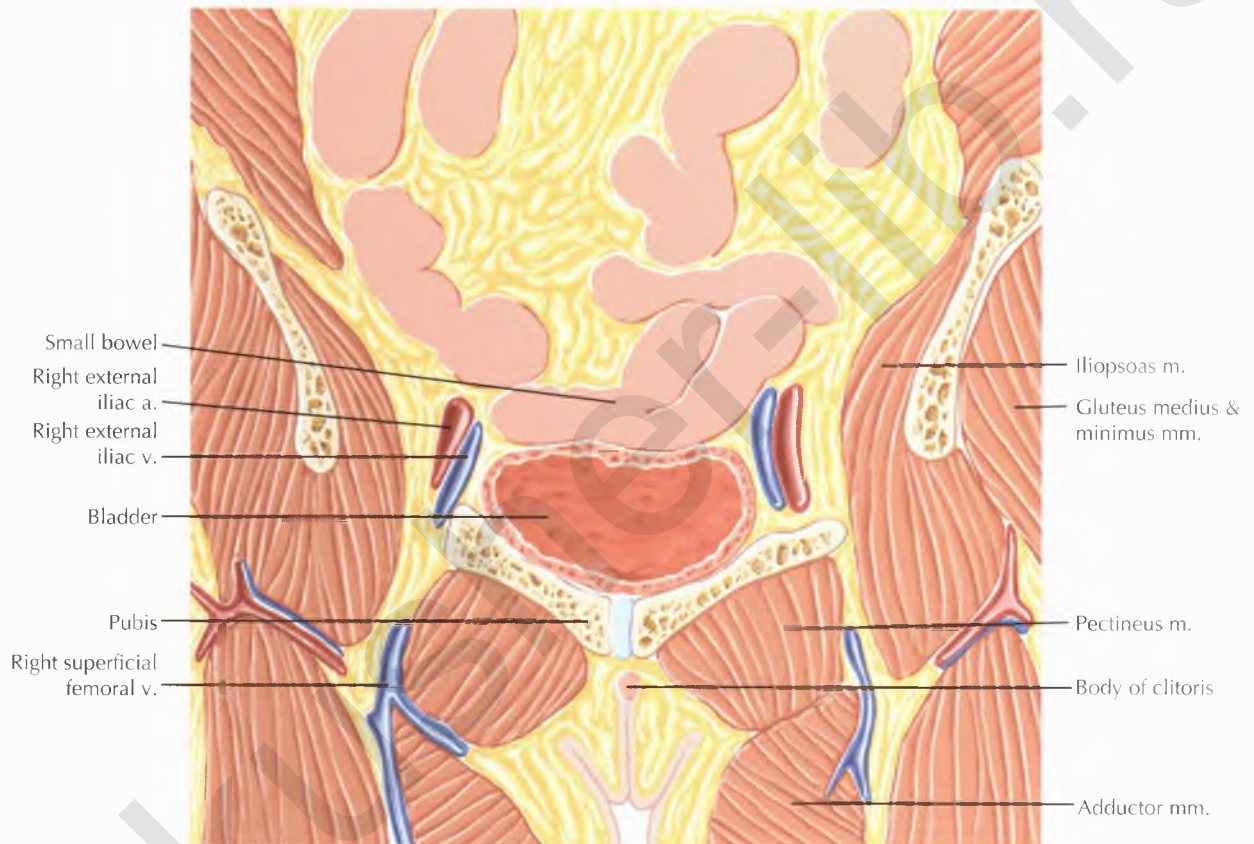


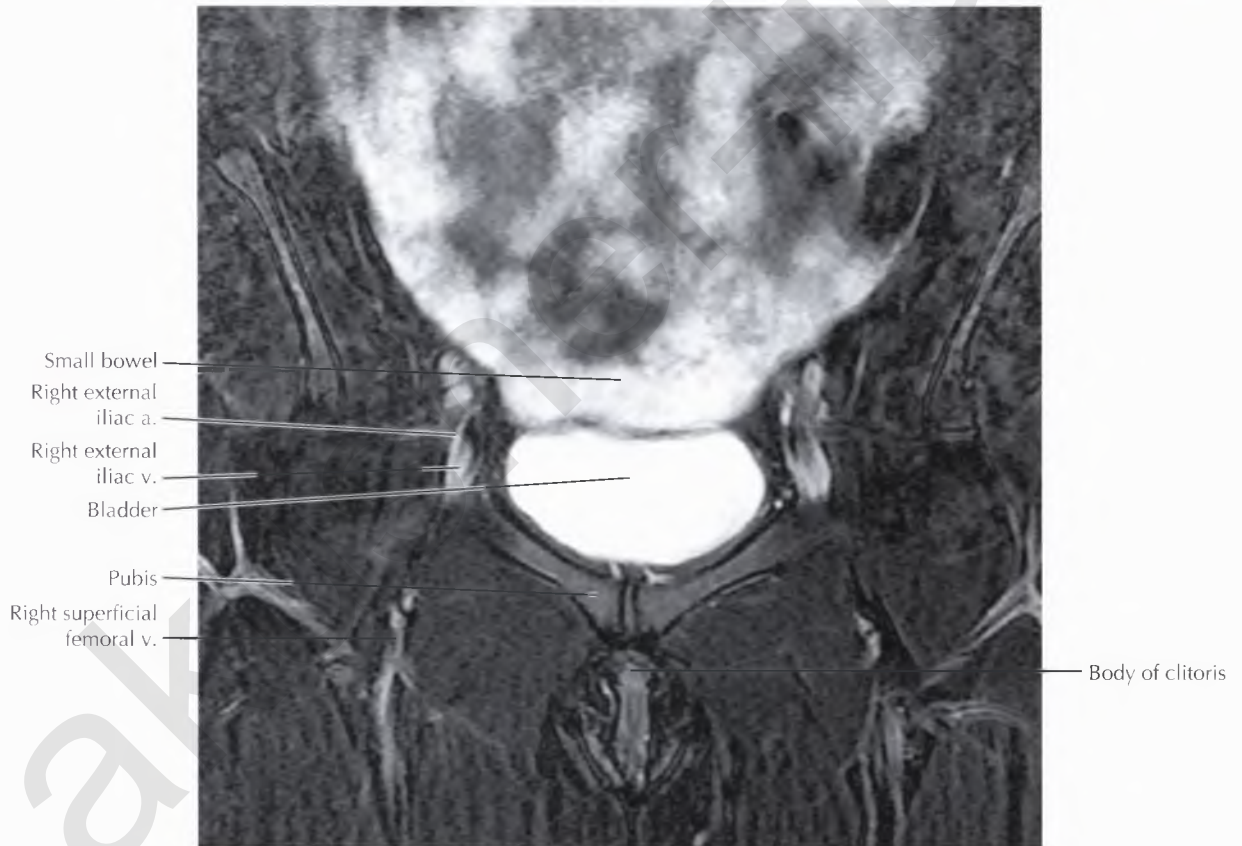
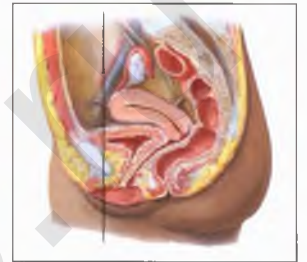


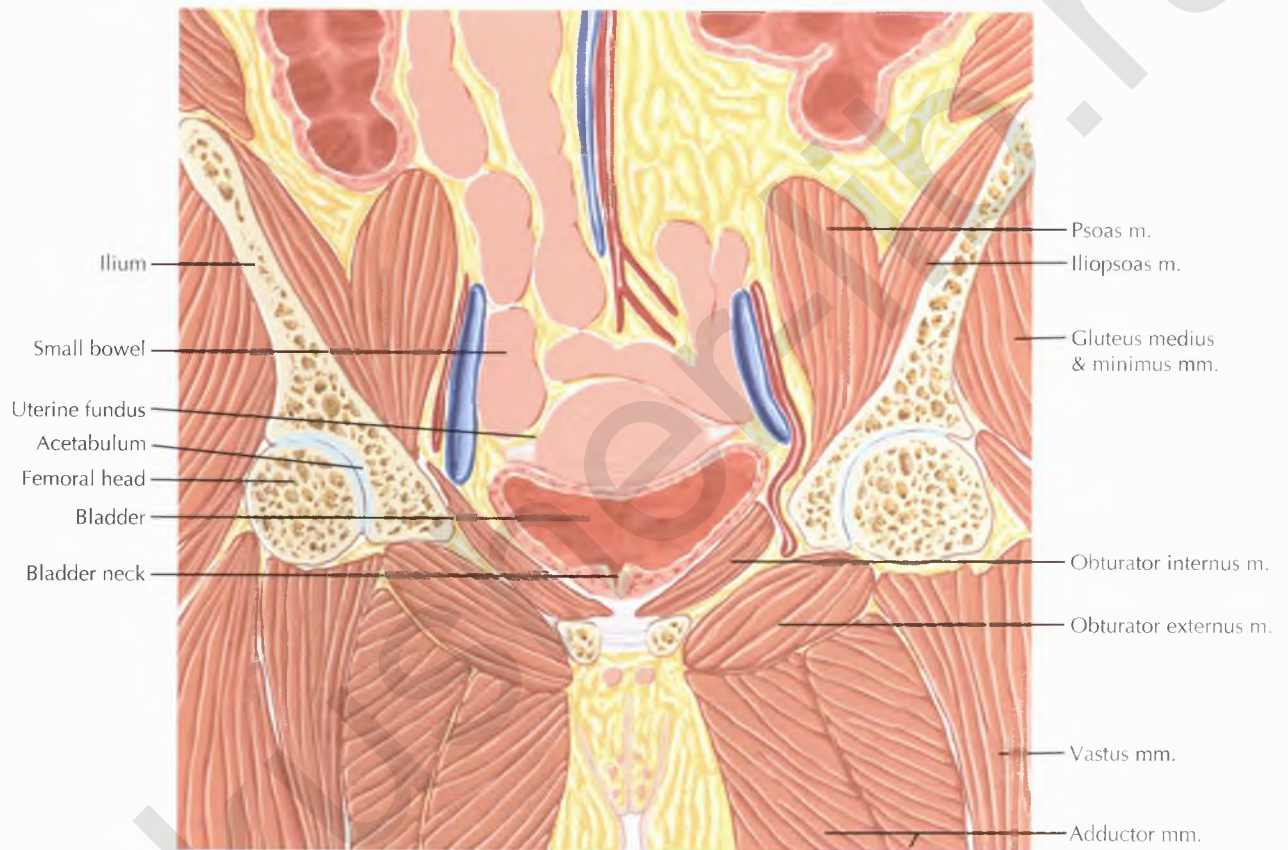


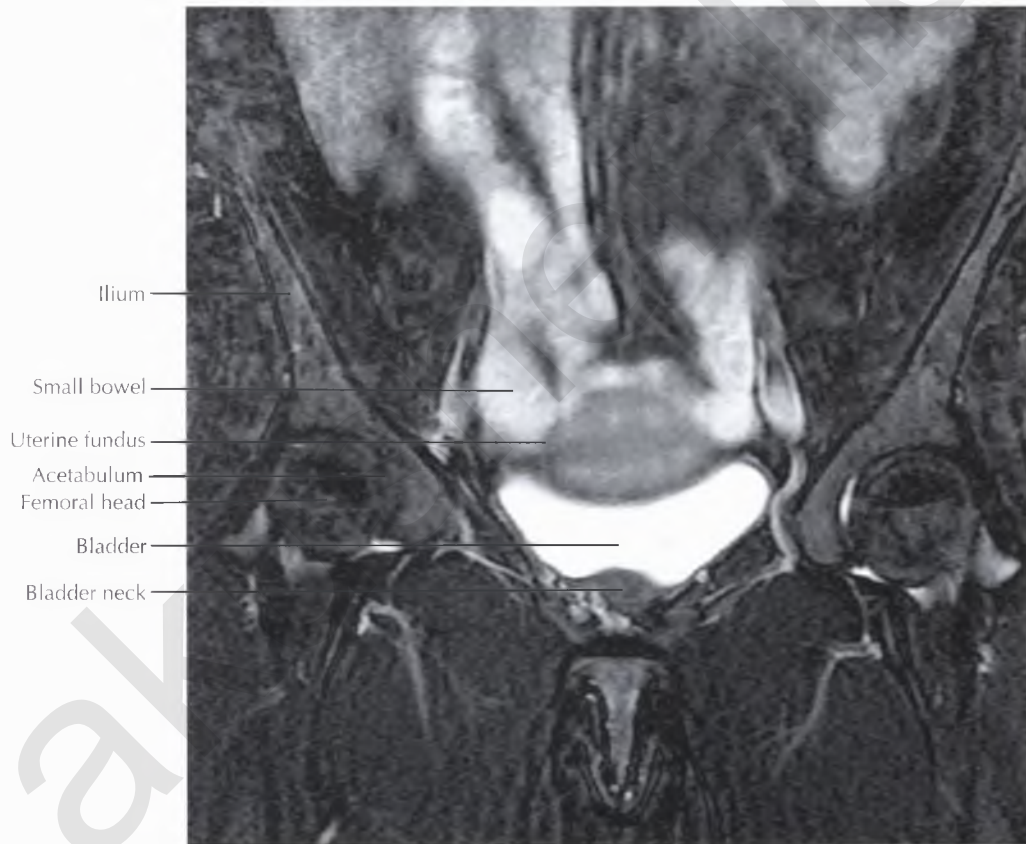
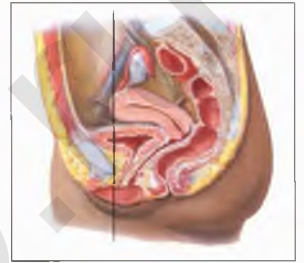


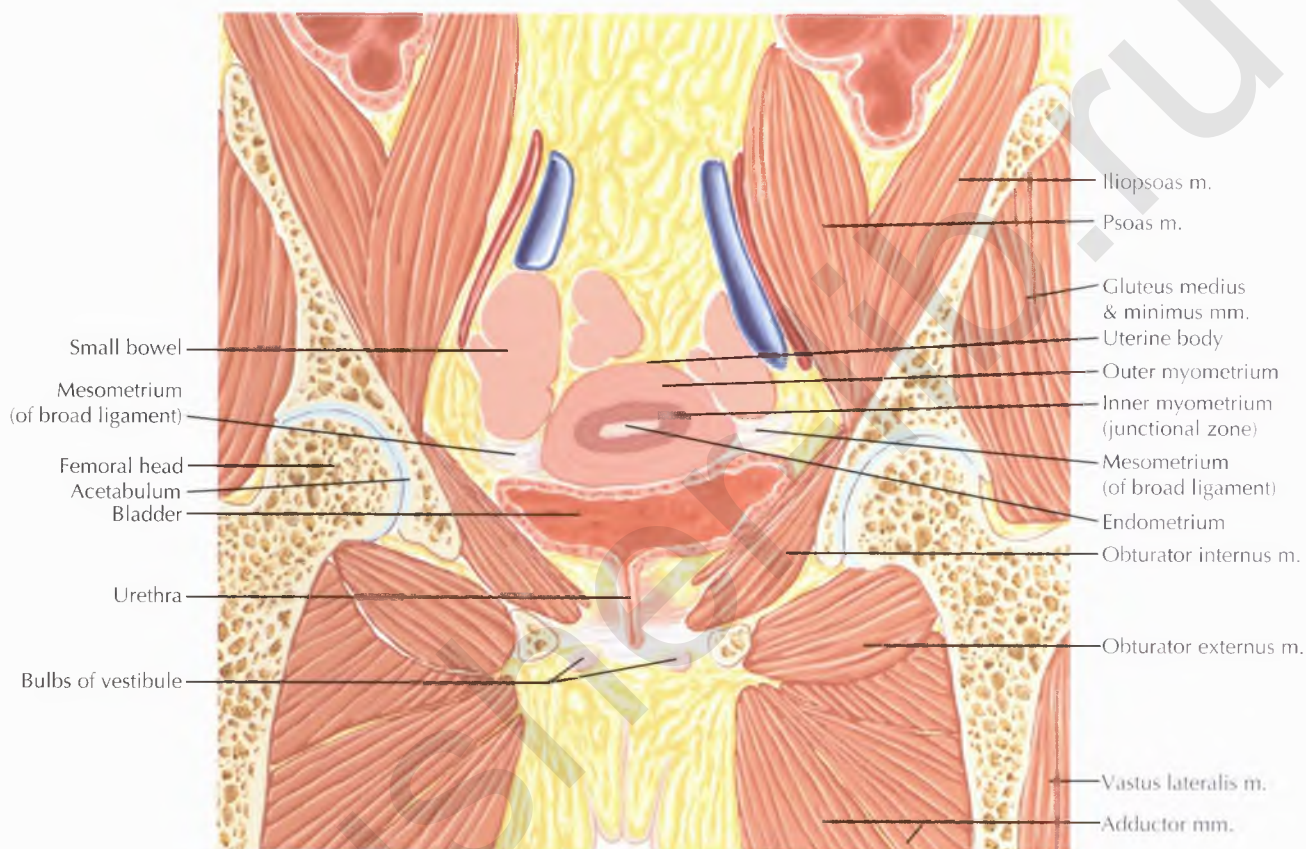






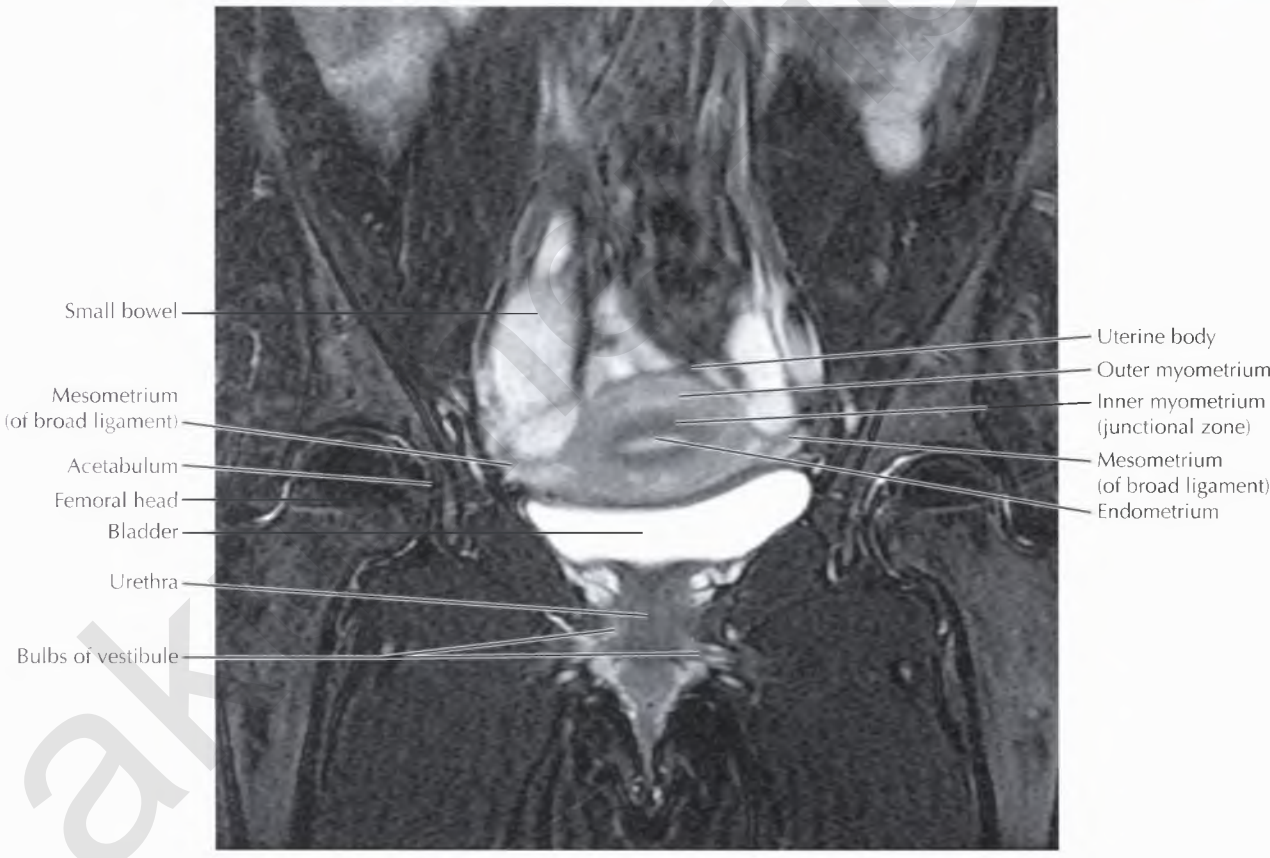






PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

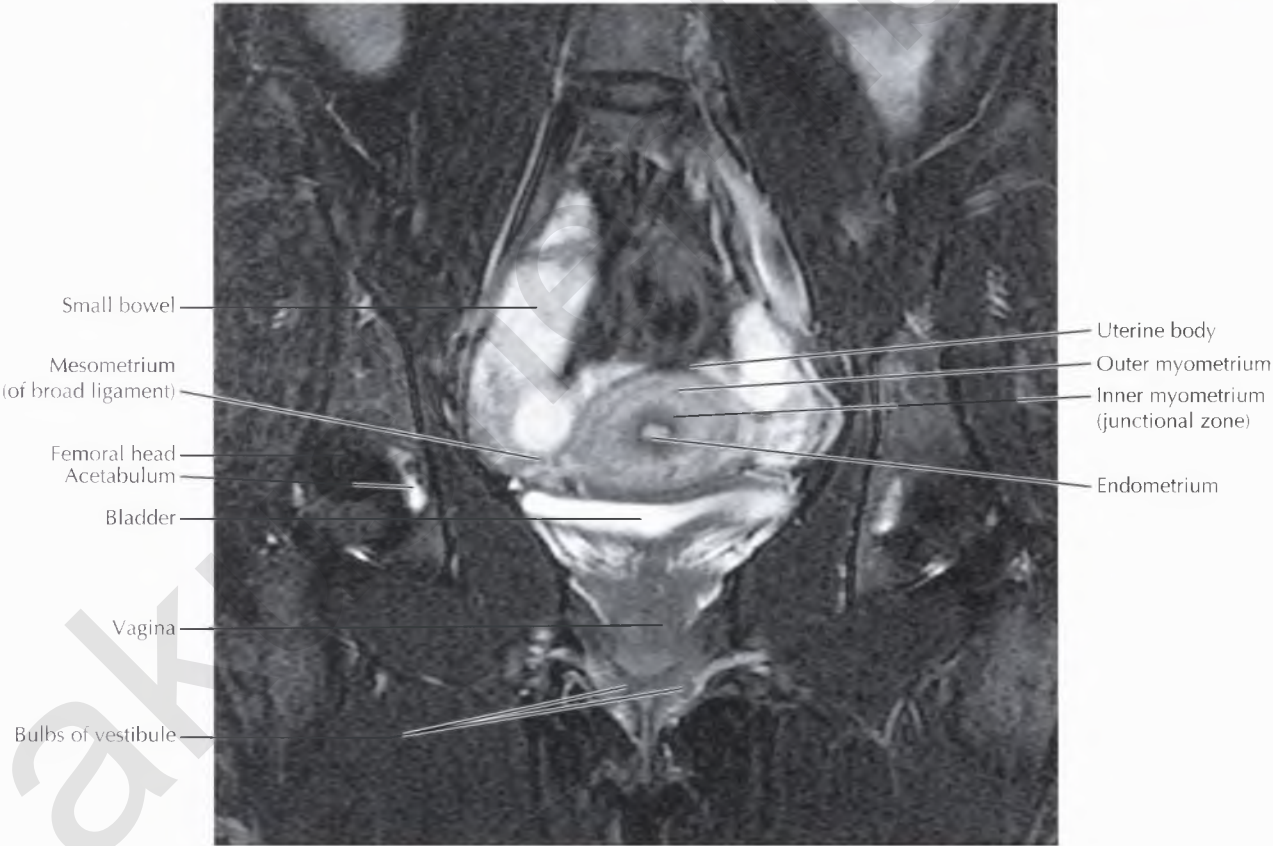
Uterine leiomyomas, benign tumors of smooth muscle, are exceedingly common findings on MRI. A *leiomyoma* typically appears as a well-circumscribed mass in the outer myometrium with low-intermediate T1-weighted and low T2-weighted signal intensity, although both the signal intensity and enhancement characteristics may vary because of the variable presence of hemorrhage, cystic change, or necrosis. MRI of the uterus is usually performed for assessment of the location and viability of uterine leiomyomas before uterine artery embolization or myomectomy.

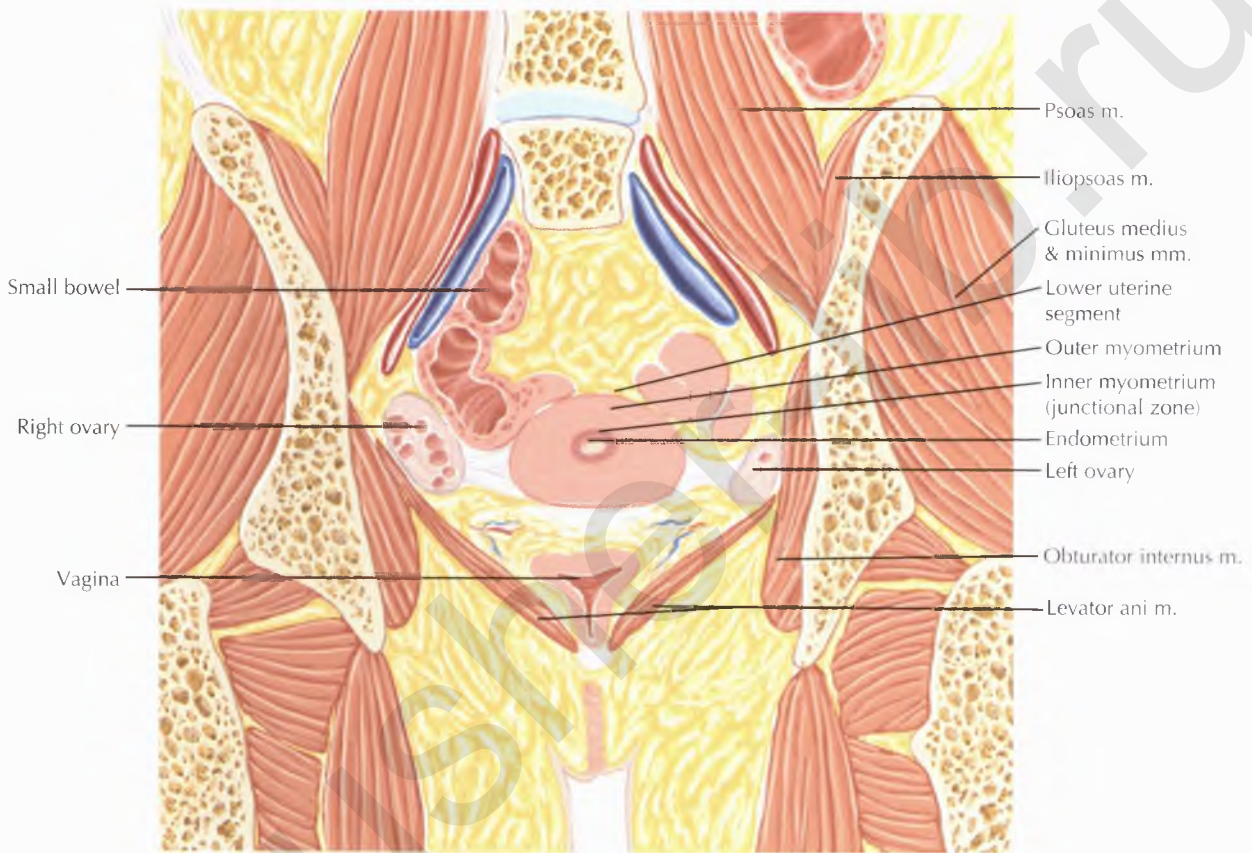




NORMAL VARIANT

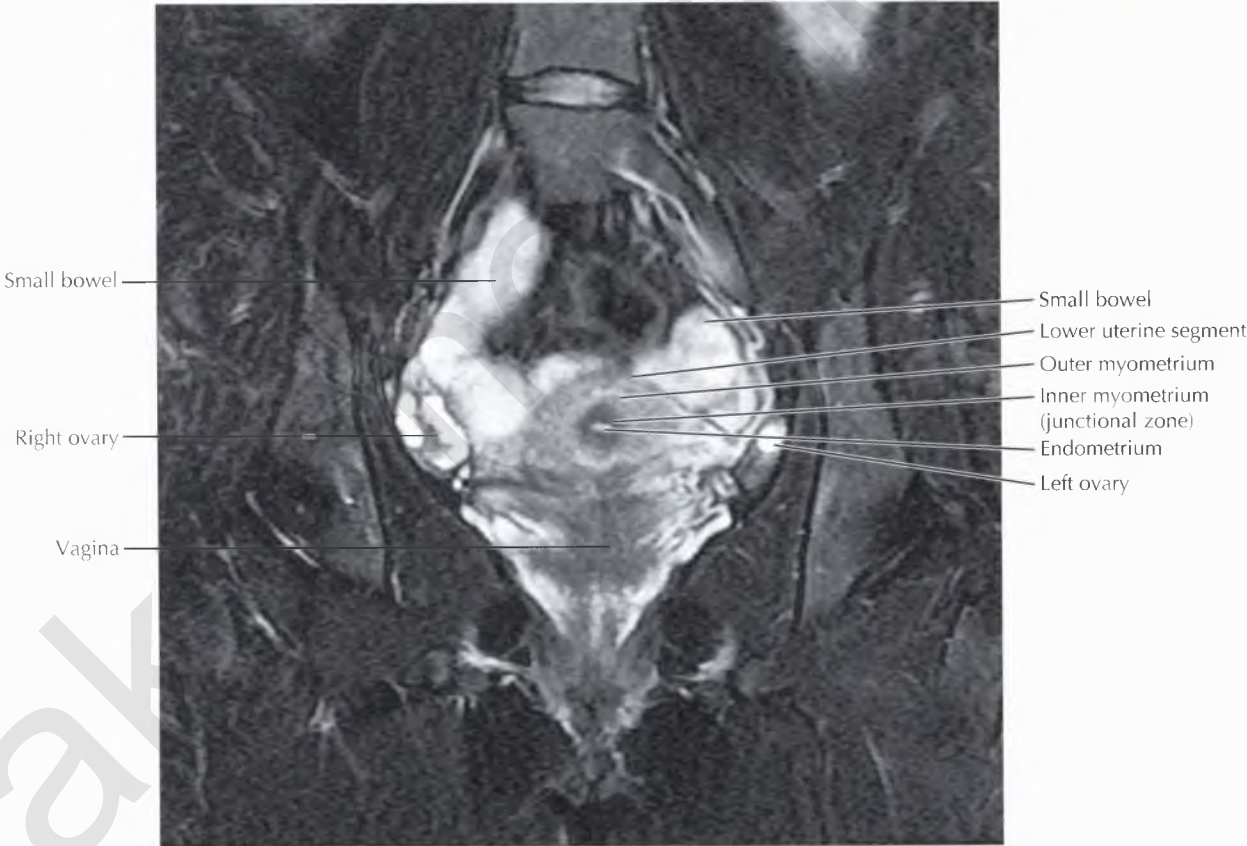
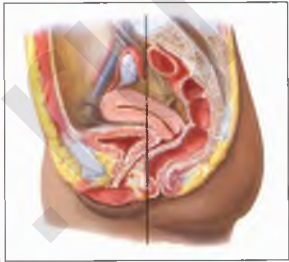
Uterine contractions, which cause low signal intensity bulges in the uterine contour, may occasionally be seen on MRI and can mimic uterine leiomyomas. However, uterine contractions may be distinguished by their transient appearance and subsequent change in appearance or resolution during the course of an MRI examination.





NORMAL ANATOMY

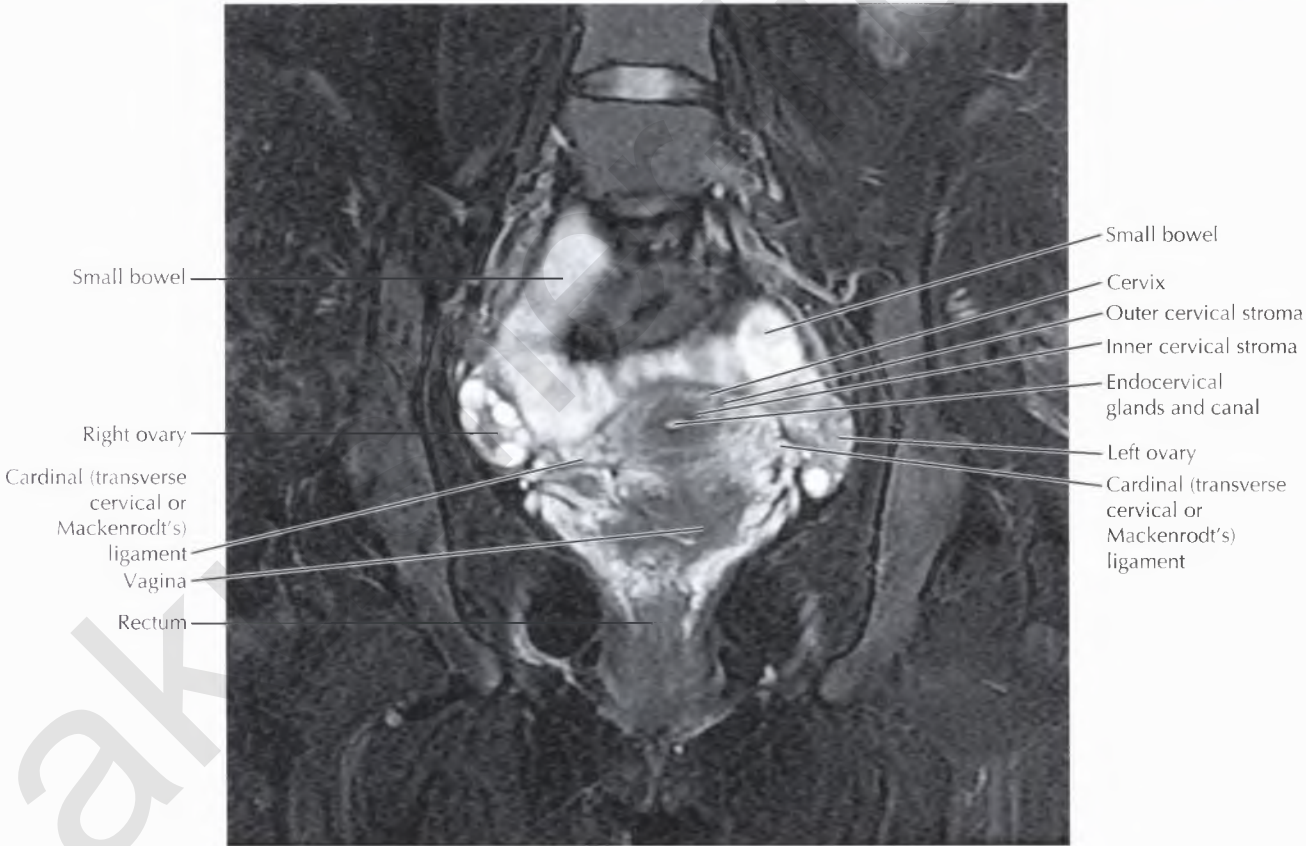
Multiple hyperintense follicles of varying sizes are typically seen within the ovaries in premenopausal women on T2-weighted MR images. Postmenopausal ovaries usually are of homogeneous, low signal intensity on T1-weighted and T2-weighted images and may not be well visualized because of their decreased size and volume in association with increasing age.

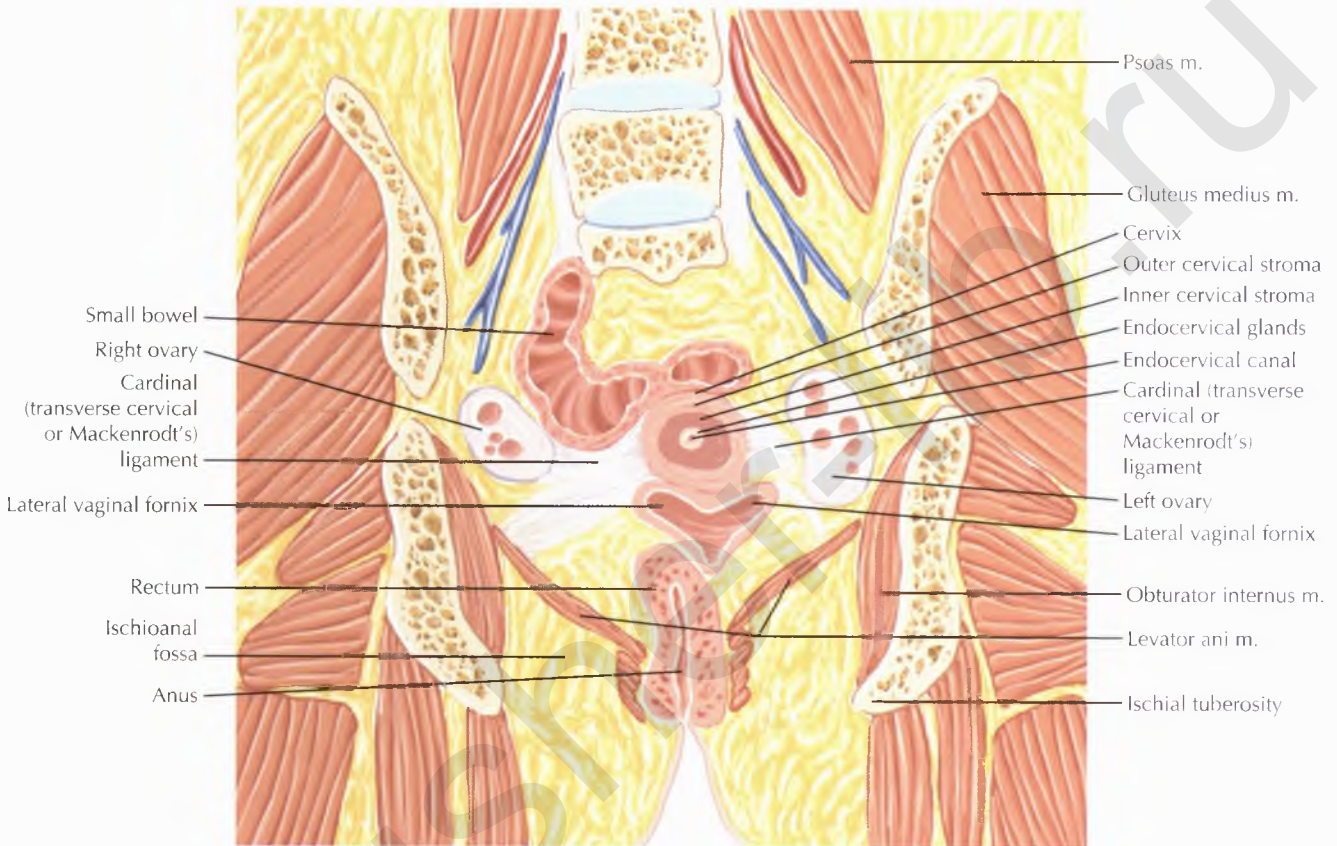




NORMAL ANATOMY

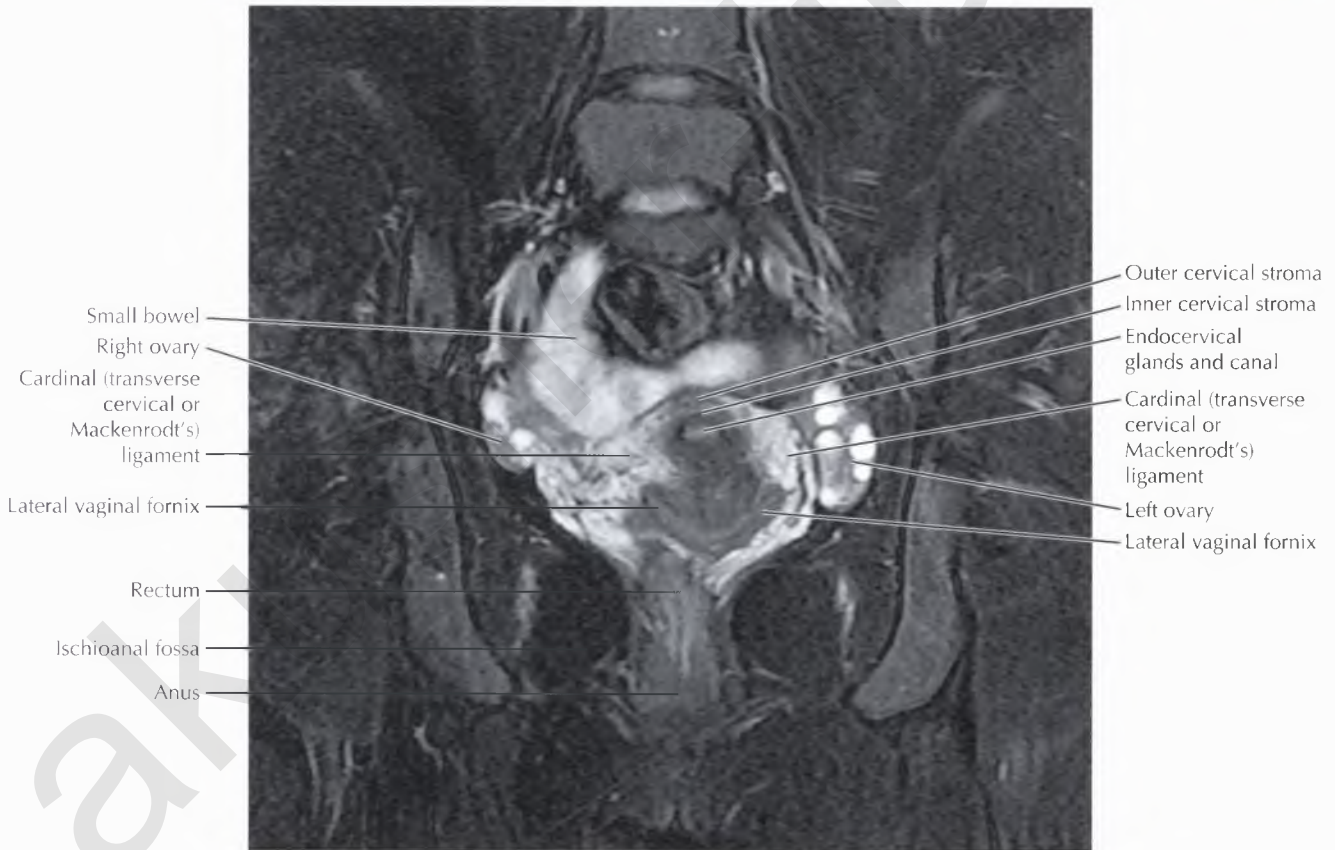
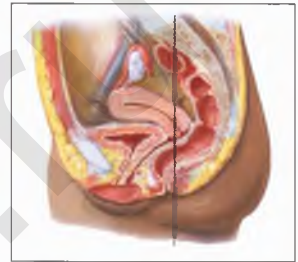
The *cardinal ligament*, also known as the transverse cervical ligament or Mackenrodt's ligament, extends laterally from the cervix and upper vagina, forming the base of the broad ligament and providing the primary ligamentous support for the uterus and upper vagina. The uterine artery runs along its superior aspect.

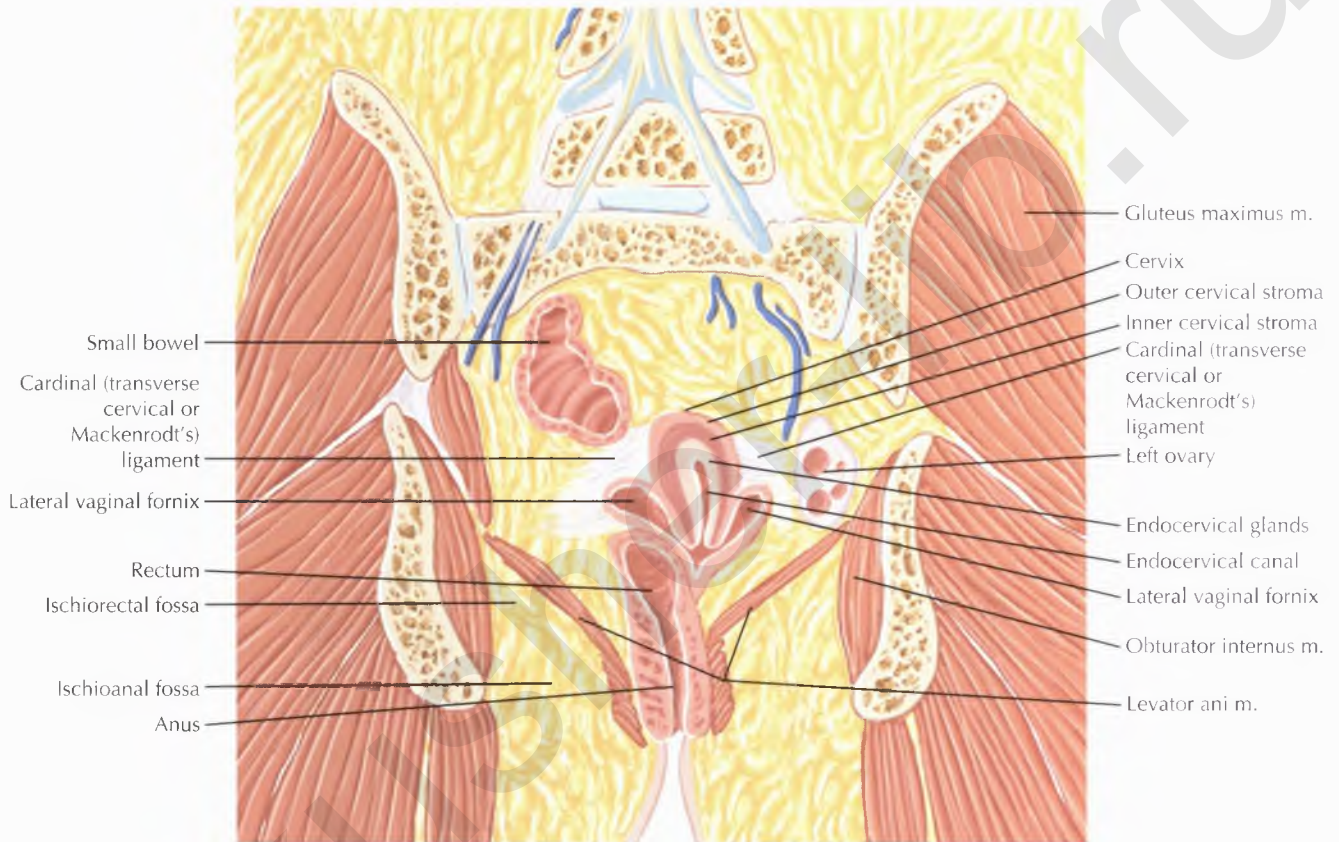




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

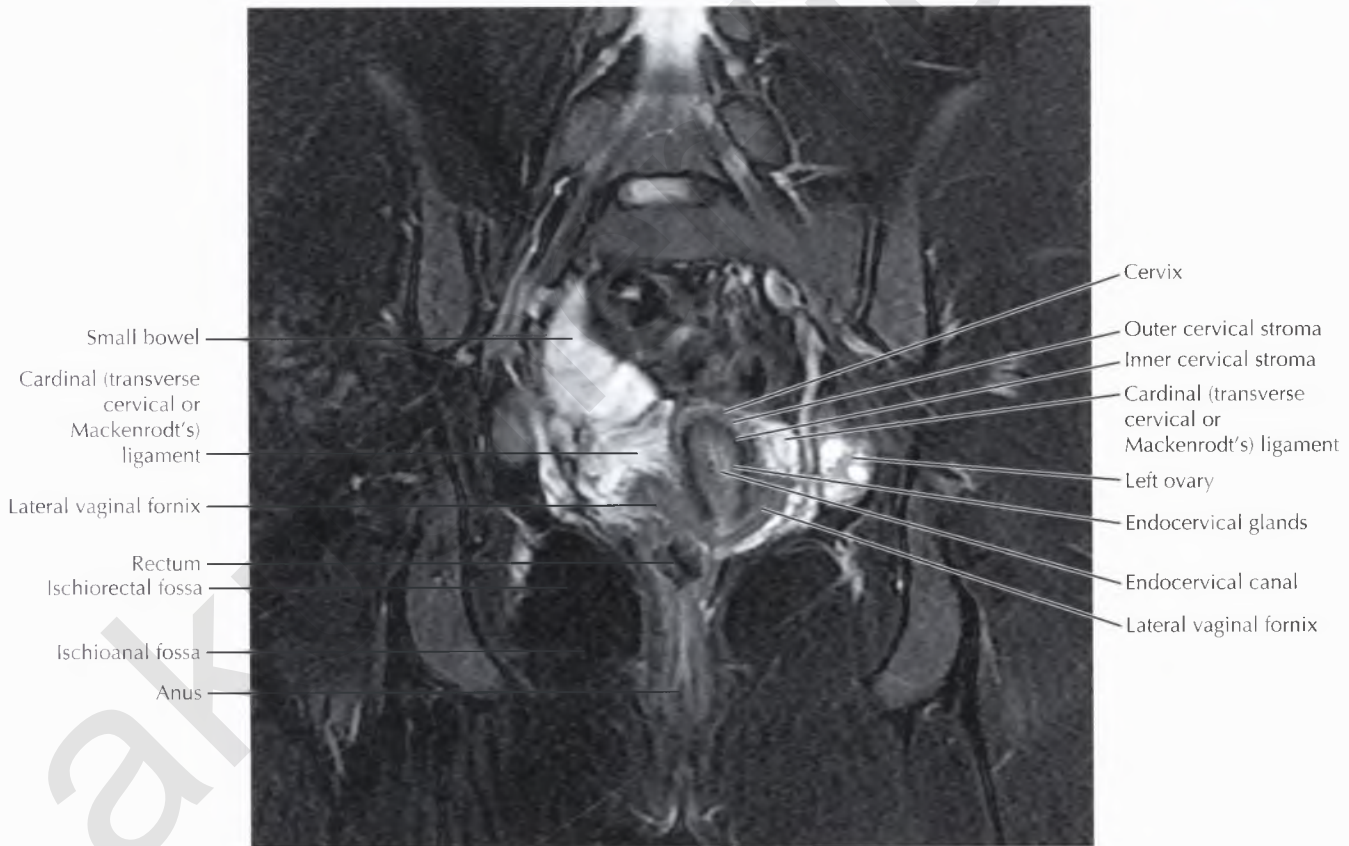
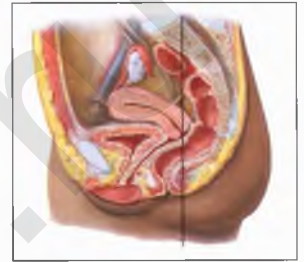
Cervical carcinoma typically appears as a lesion of intermediate-high signal intensity that can disrupt the normal low signal intensity inner cervical stroma on T2-weighted MR images, and that often demonstrates early enhancement on postcontrast images. Morphologically, the tumor may appear as an exophytic mass originating at the squamocolumnar junction (especially in younger women), an infiltrative lesion, or a barrel-shaped endocervical mass expanding the endocervical canal (especially in older women). Evaluation for the presence of parametrial invasion is particularly important, because parametrial invasion generally indicates unresectable disease.





PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

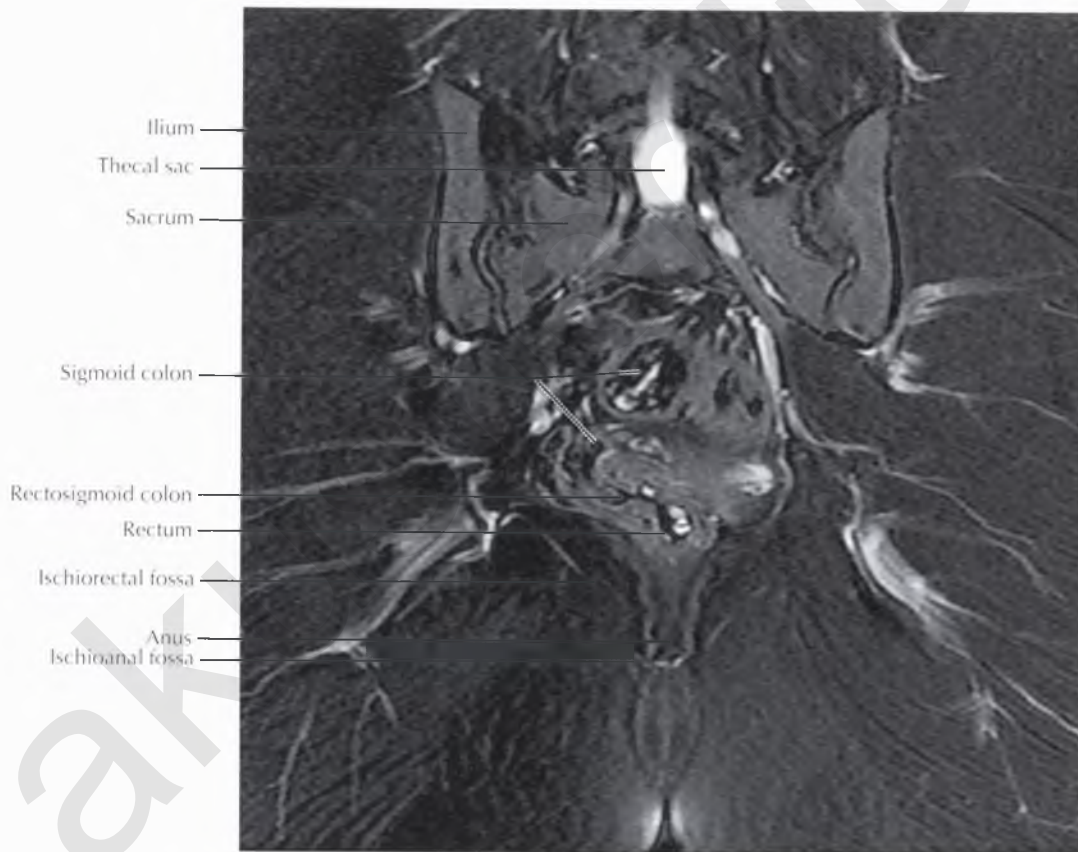
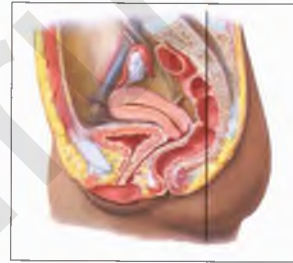
Nabothian cysts represent obstructed mucus-secreting glands and are exceedingly common incidental findings on pelvic MRI.

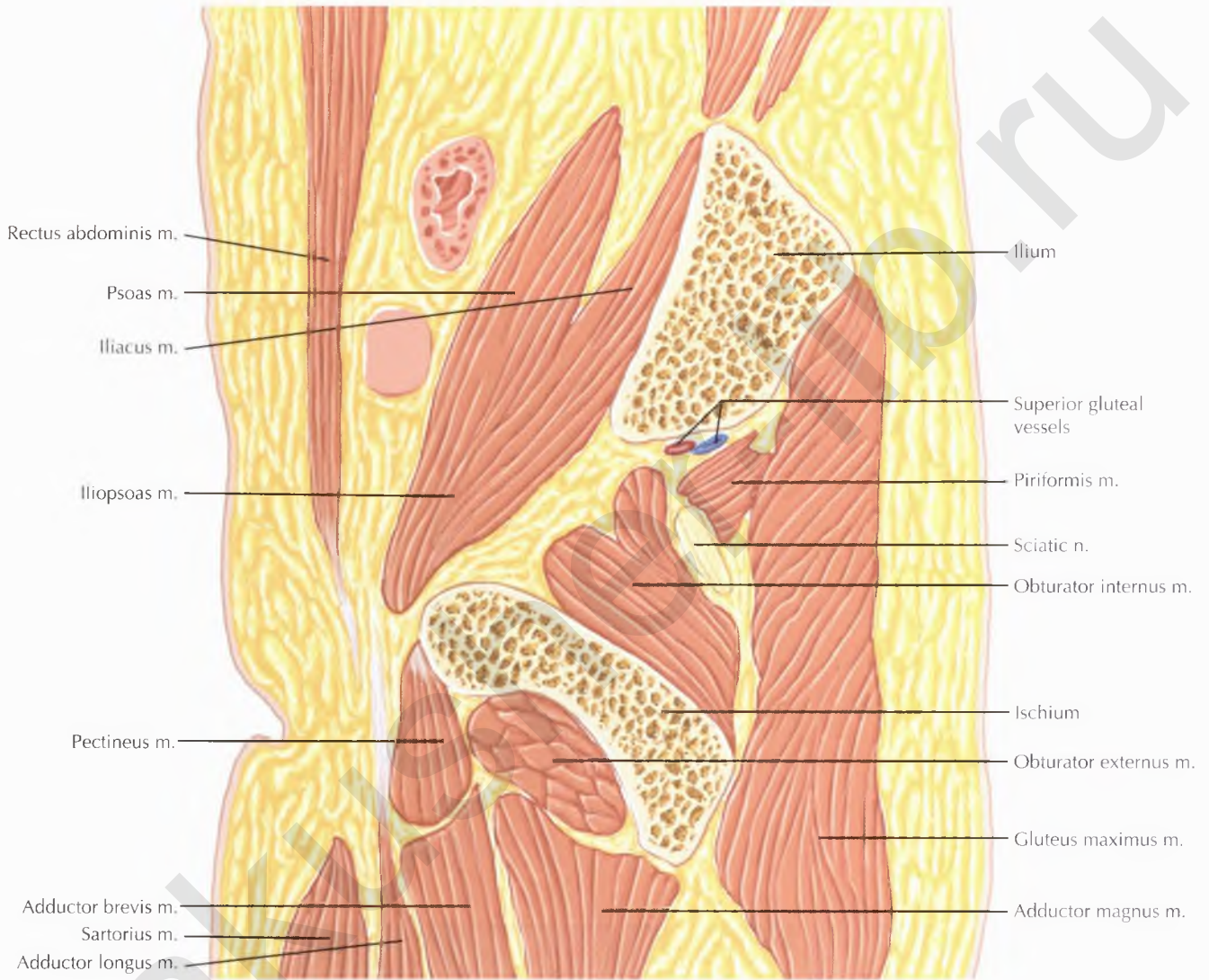




PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

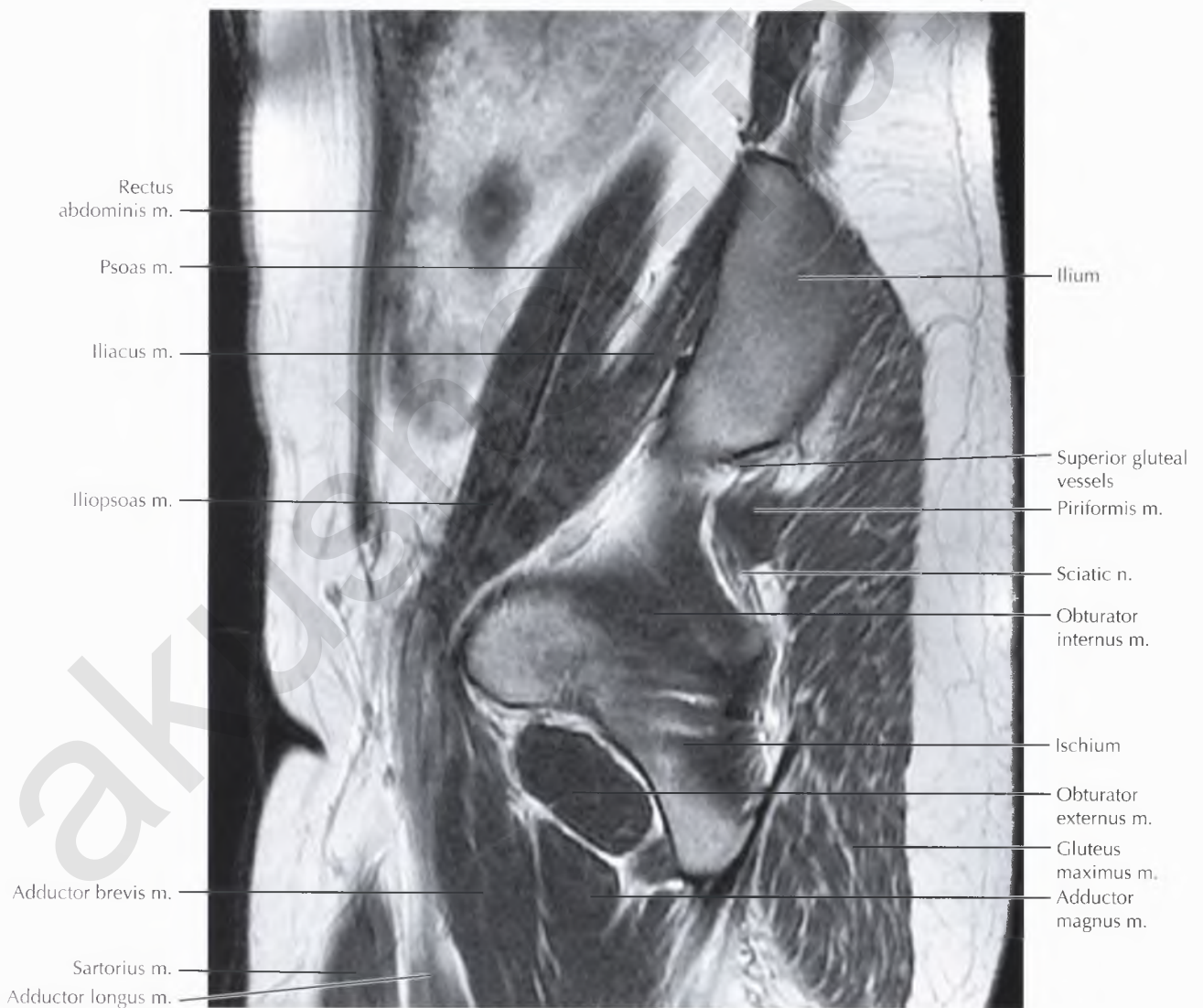
The general location of hematogenous metastases from rectal carcinoma depends on the location of the primary tumor. A tumor located in the upper third of the rectum tends to spread to the liver by way of the inferior mesenteric vein, through the *portal* venous system, whereas a tumor located in the lower two thirds of the rectum tends to spread to the lungs by way of the internal iliac veins, through the *systemic* venous system).



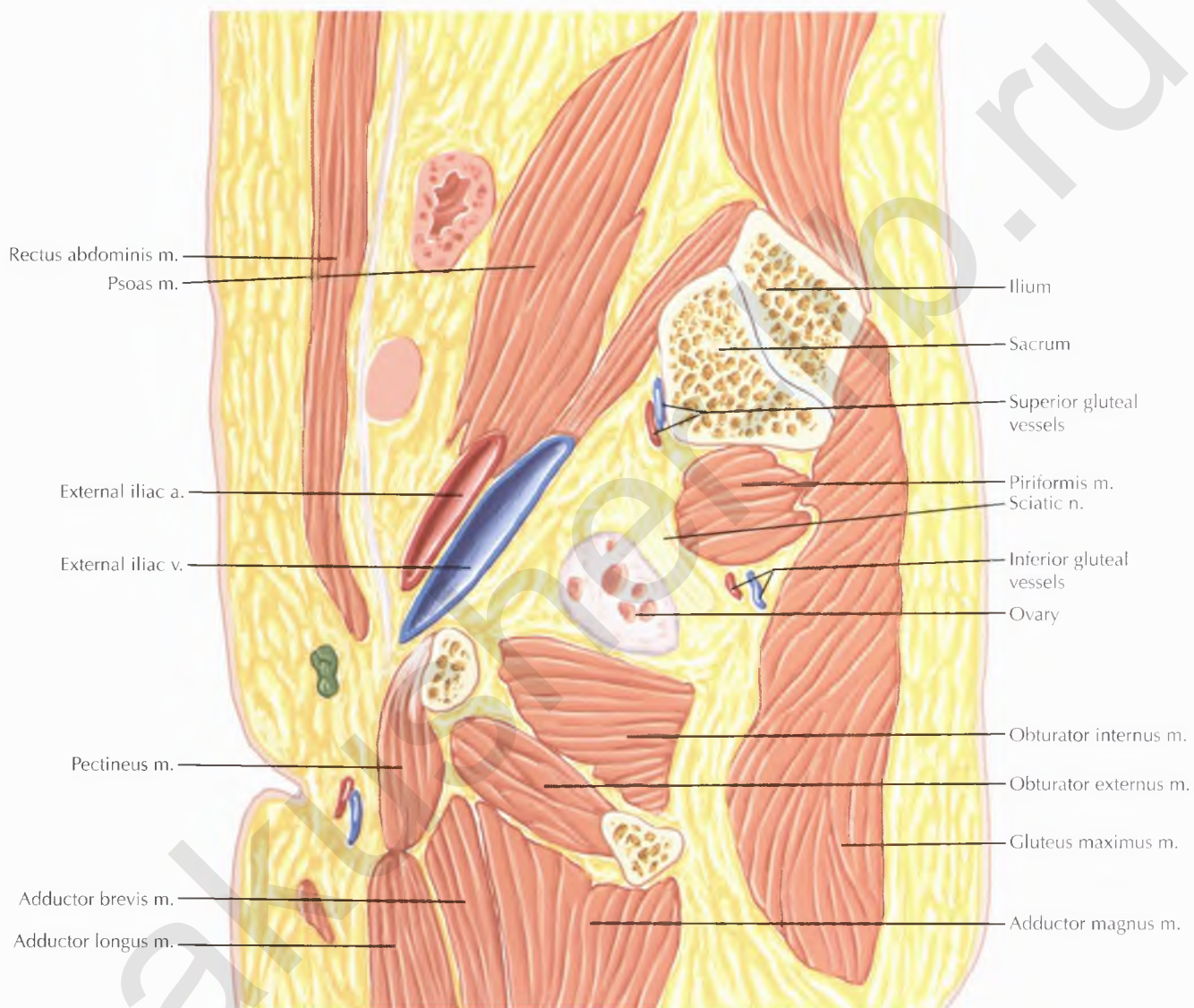


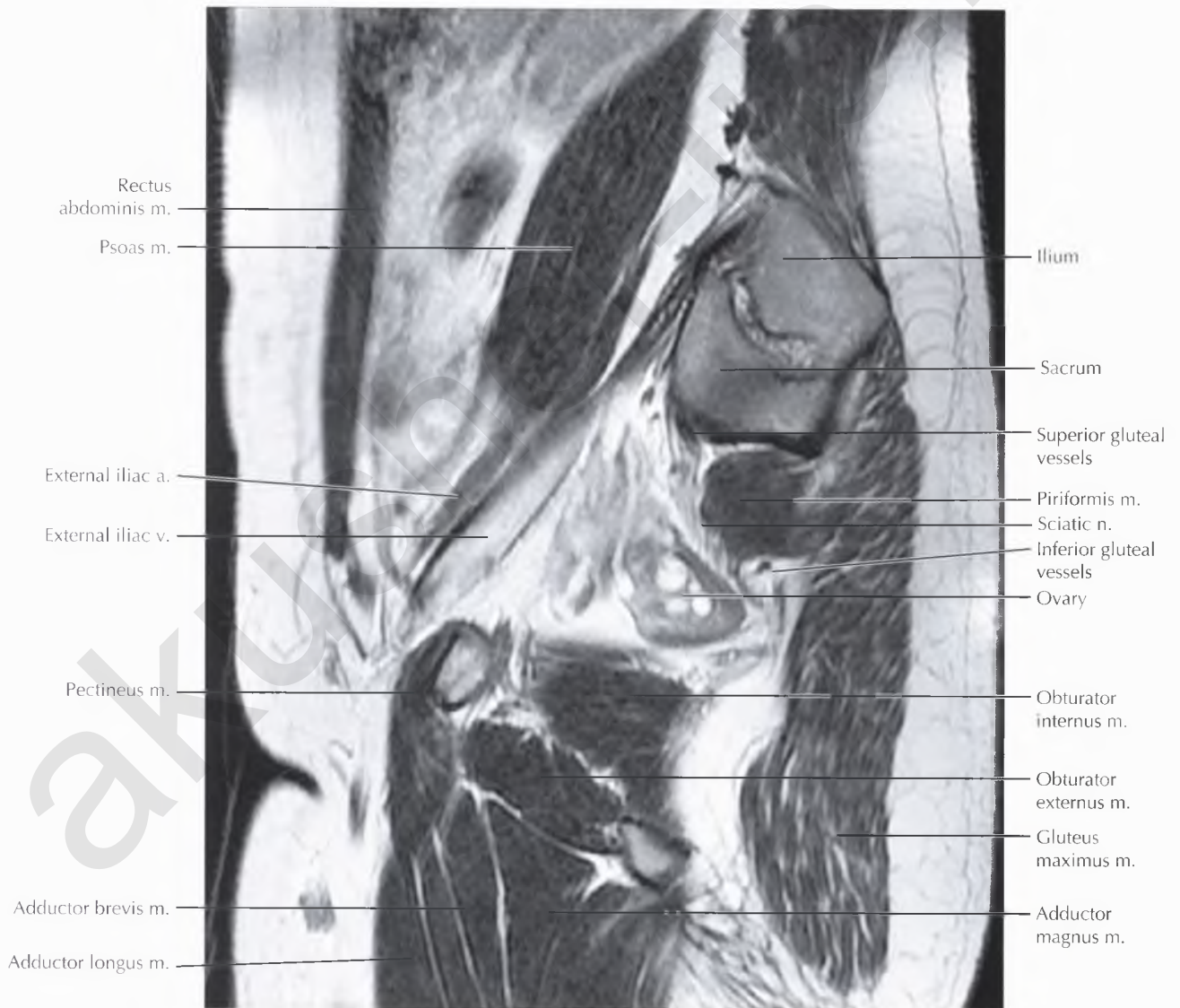
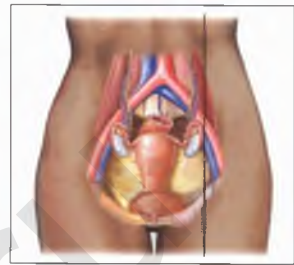
PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

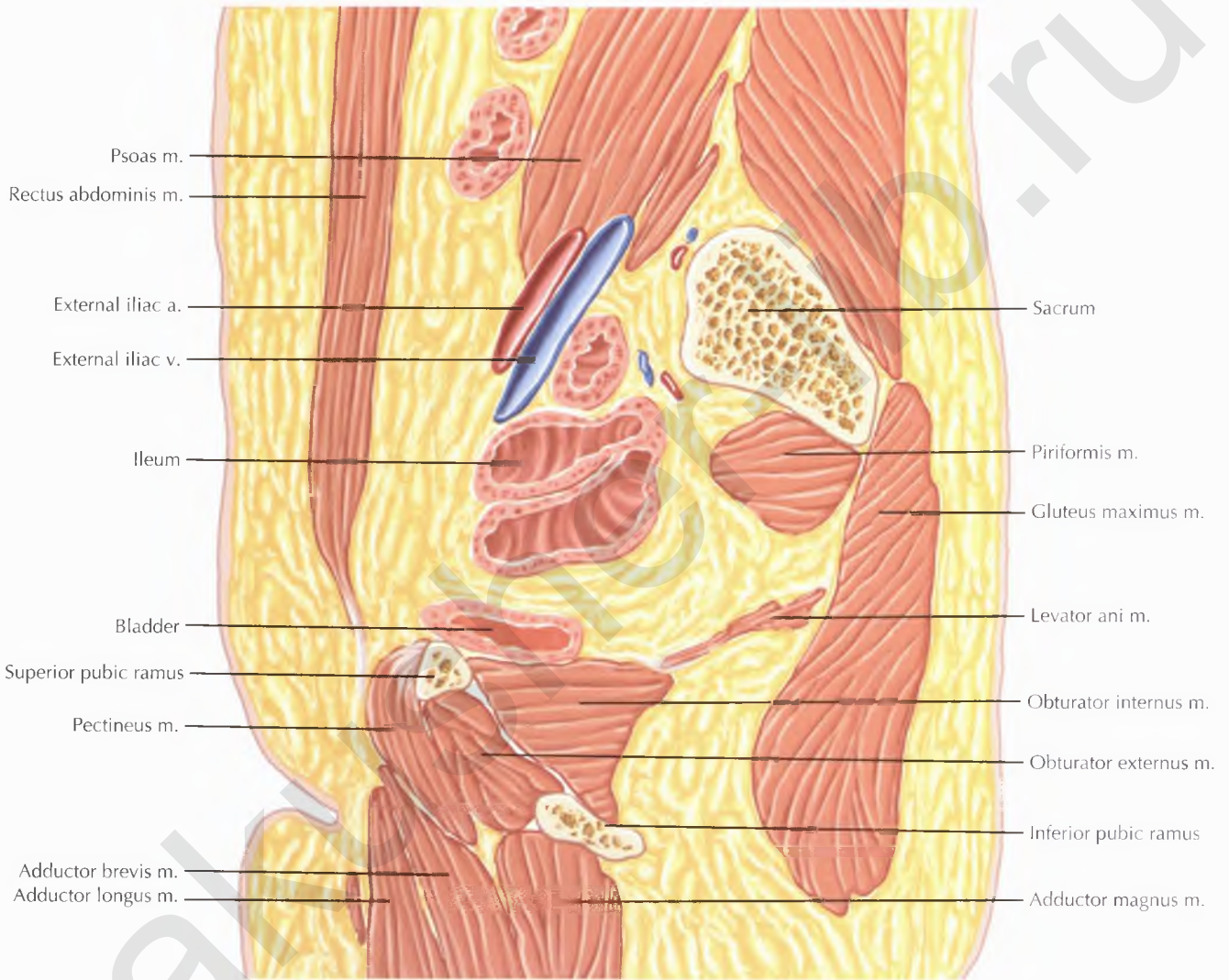
Piriformis syndrome is caused by irritation of the sciatic nerve by the adjacent piriformis muscle, causing buttock pain and referred pain along the sciatic nerve distribution.



FEMALE PELVIS SAGITTAL 2

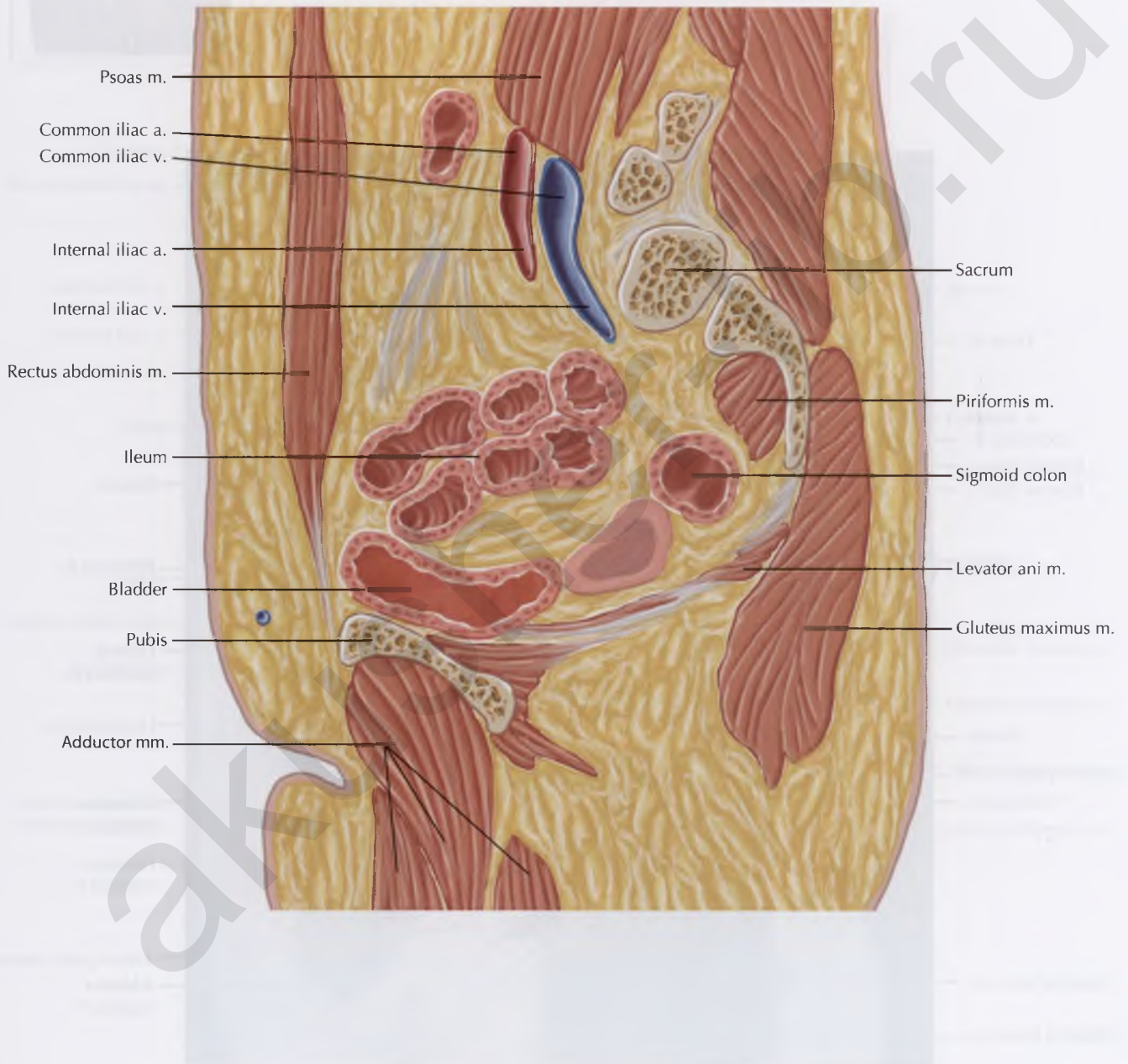


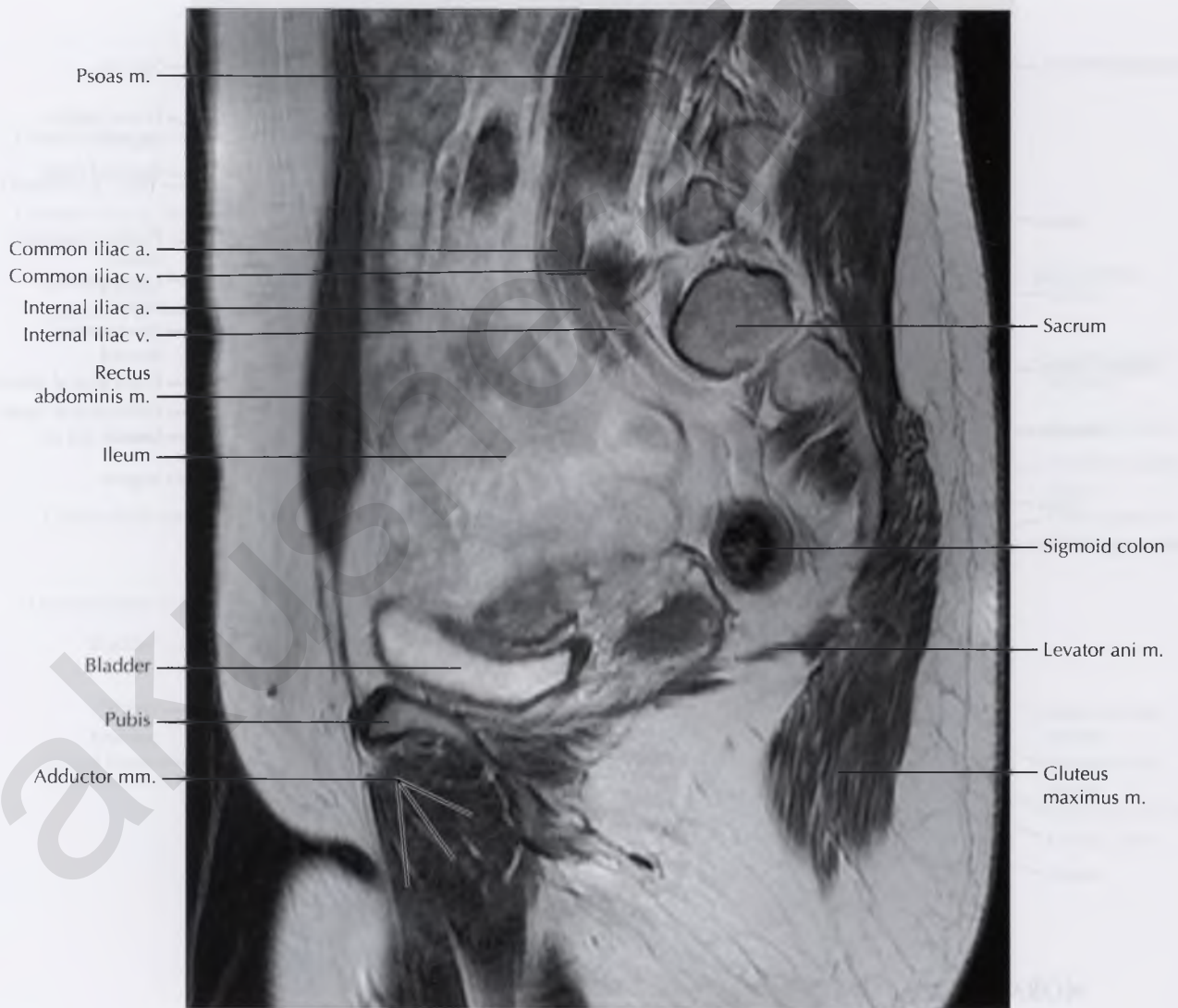


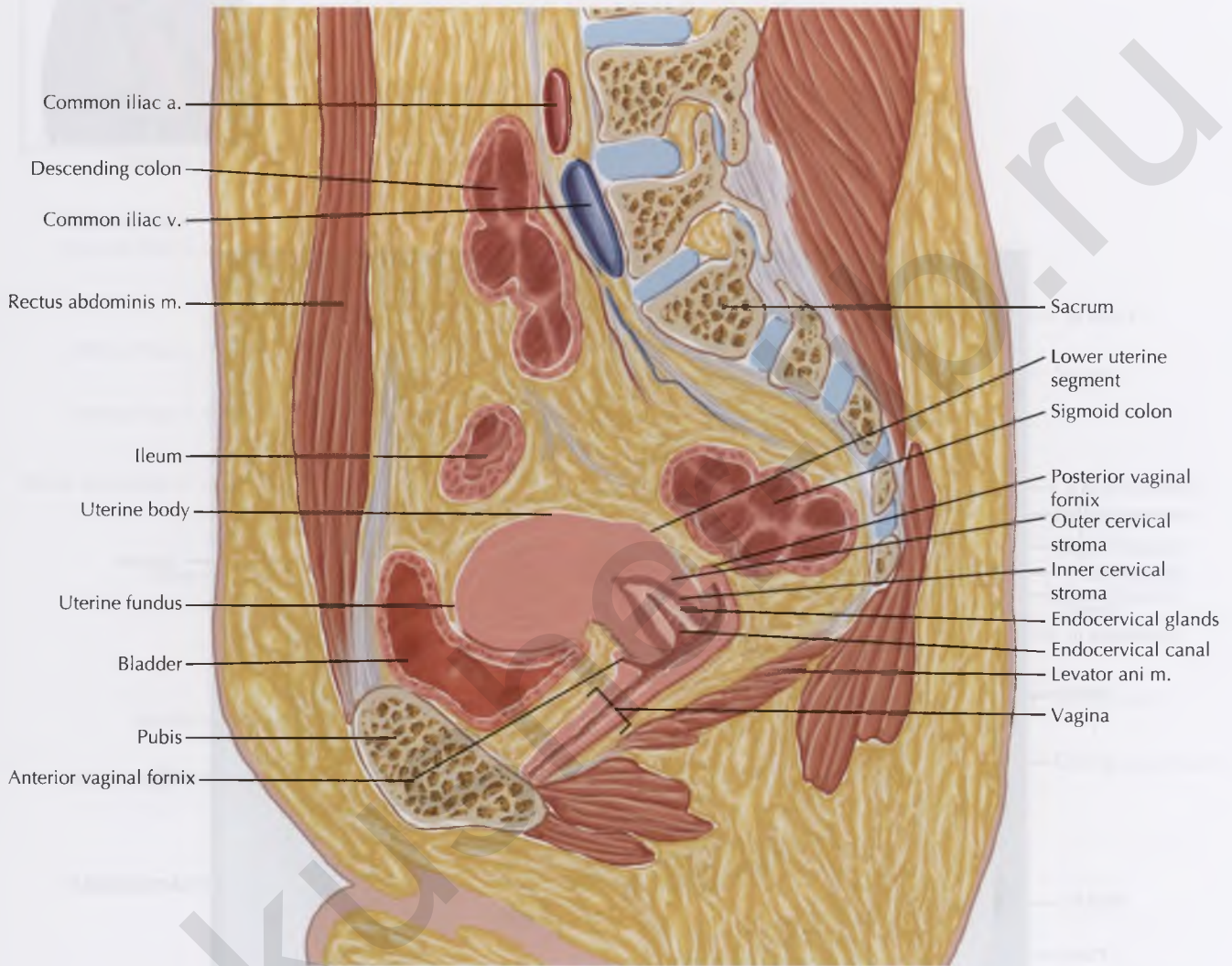




FEMALE PELVIS SAGITTAL 4

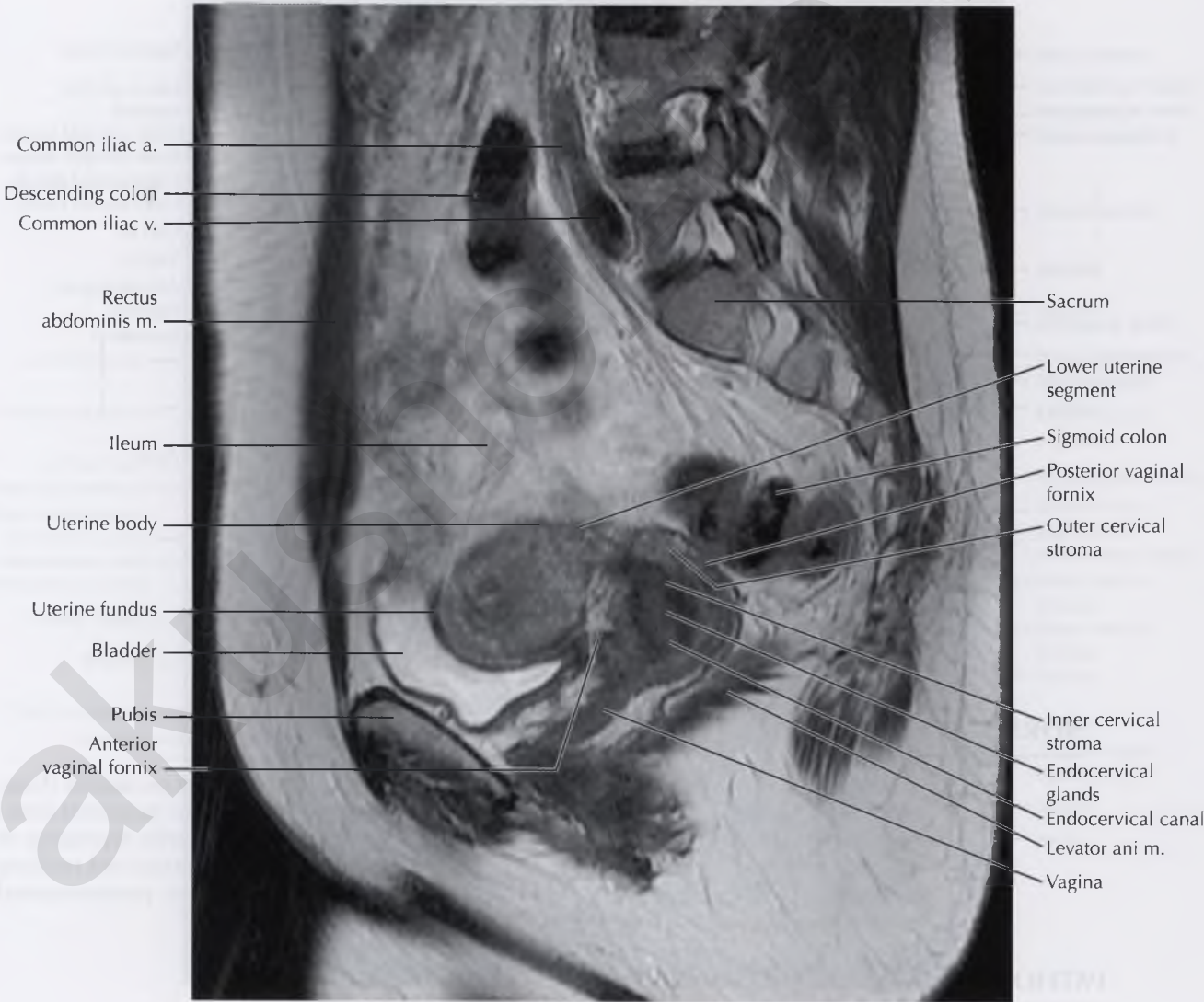


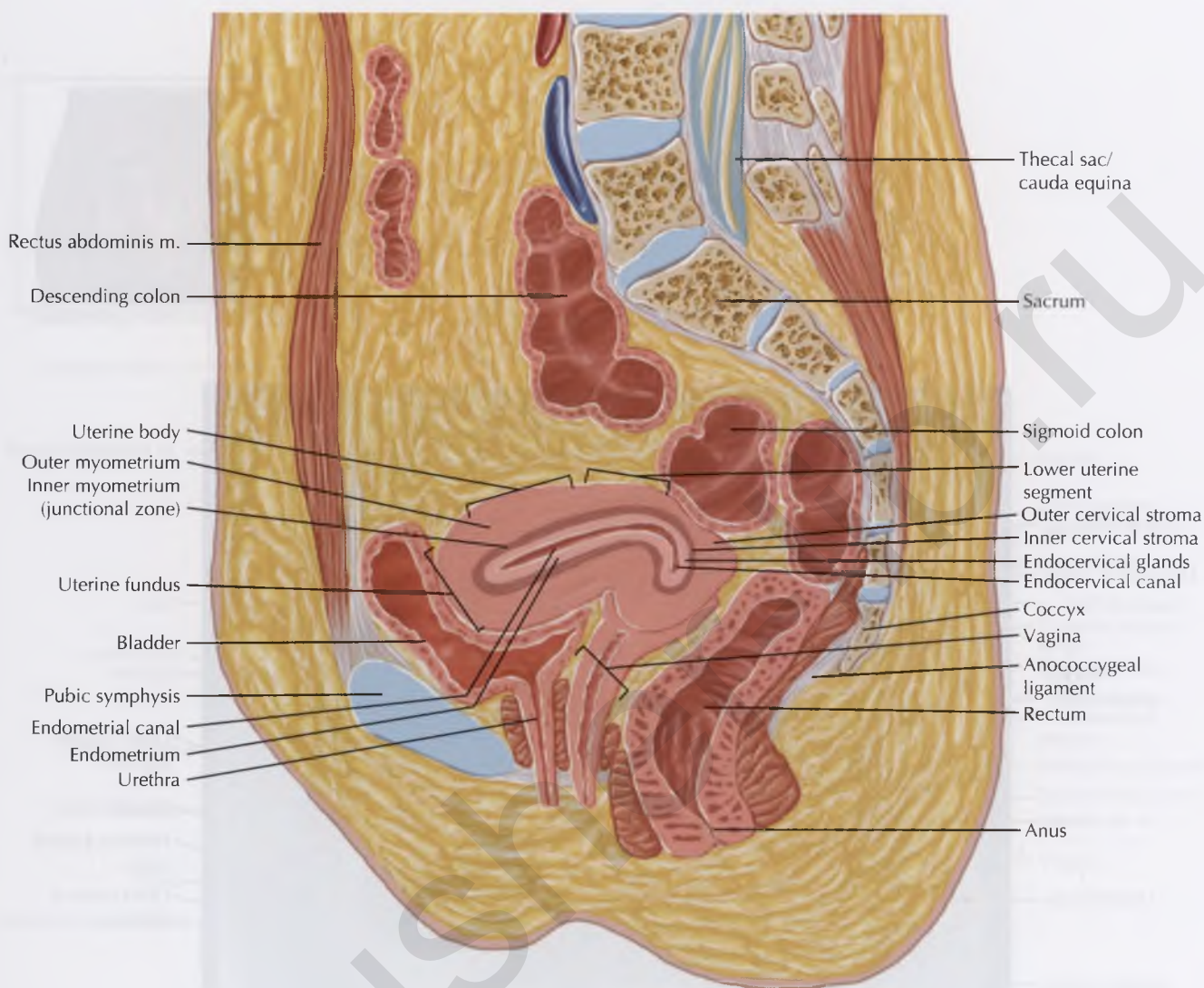




NORMAL ANATOMY

The uterus is divided into the uterine fundus, the uterine body, and the lower uterine segment. The position of the uterus is often described based on the flexion and version of the uterus, with *flexion* referring to the axis of the uterine body relative to the cervix, and *version* referring to the axis of the cervix relative to the vagina. In this case, the uterus is anteverted and ante-flexed, which is the most common position.





NORMAL ANATOMY

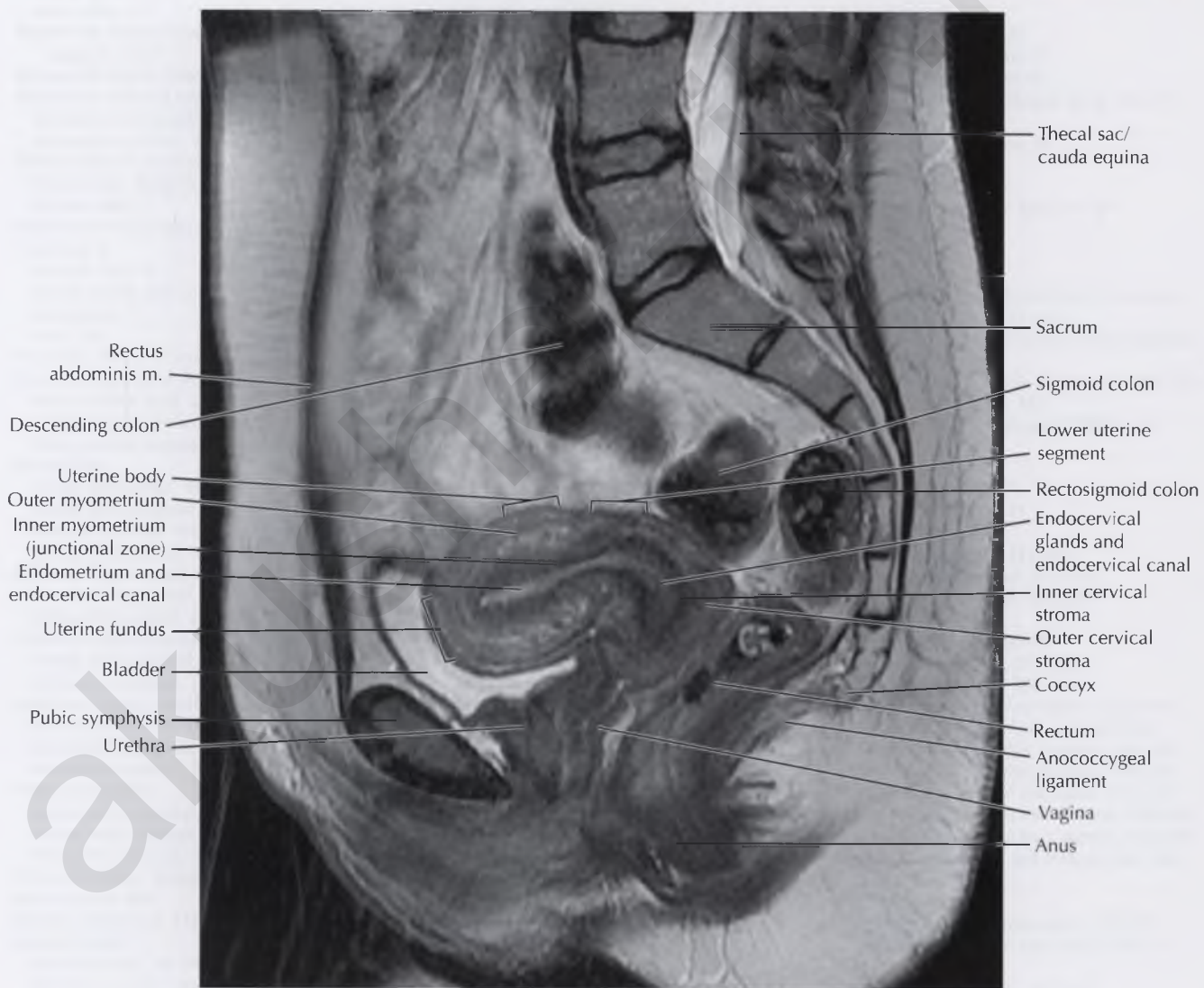
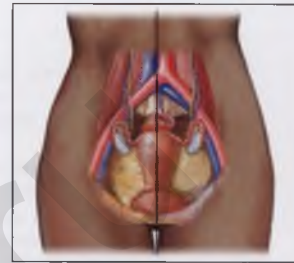
The thickness of the junctional zone and endometrium should be assessed on sagittal (long-axis) T2-weighted images through the uterus. The inner myometrium (or junctional zone) normally measures less than 12 mm in thickness. Endometrial thickness varies depending on the phase of the menstrual cycle, appearing thin (1-4 mm) during menstruation and reaching maximal thickness (up to about 20 mm) during the secretory phase. The postmenopausal endometrium should be thin and normally measures less than 5 mm.

PATHOLOGIC PROCESS

In *adenomyosis* the junctional zone is thickened, measuring 12 mm or greater, and often contains small, high-signal-intensity foci on T1-weighted and T2-weighted MR images, corresponding to ectopic hemorrhagic endometrial glands.

Focal endometrial thickening or signal abnormality raises suspicion for endometrial hyperplasia, endometrial carcinoma, or an endometrial polyp.

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