SELF-GUIDED REVIEW OF KEY NORMAL ANATOMY

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Find the following structures on the annotated CT, checking the box next to each item as you find it.

You might find it helpful to review both the annotated and unannotated images and challenge yourself to find each structure without the annotations. <u>Both can be found here in the same case.</u>

Italicized teaching comments for expanding your knowledge are included under each section.

Solid orgar	ns:
☐ Liver	
	Left hepatic lobe
	Right hepatic lobe
	Caudate lobe
	Hepatic veins
	Portal veins
	Gallbladder
•	Common hepatic and common bile ducts
ablation, and makes describ makes describ right hepatic l	ortal veins. This information is helpful to guide biopsy, surgical resection, thermal follow-up. Getting comfortable with segmental anatomy is greatly beneficial and bing lesion location a breeze: "1 cm mass in the posterior/inferior aspect of the obe" versus "1 cm mass in hepatic segment 6". I highly recommend that all see segmental anatomy to describe lesions. Greater detail can be found here.
Pancre	
	Uncinate process
	Head
	Body Tail
٥	Duct
_	

The normal pancreas duct measures 1-3.5 mm and can be difficult to see. It can get dilated in the setting of pancreatitis or mass.

٥		Splenic artery Splenic vein
index (-	size is usually less than 12 cm in it's longest dimension, but measuring a splenic uses all three dimensions) is the most accurate way of determining the degree of
	Adrena	als
	0 0 0 0	Renal artery Renal vein Cortex Pyramids Calyces Pelvis Ureters ultimately filtered by the kidneys and excreted into the urine. Thus, the kidneys
can ha injectio	on the u	able appearance based on the delay after IV contrast. Around 3 minutes after rine in the calyces will begin to opacify with contrast. CT urography is generally a delay of 8 minutes to allow it to fill the ureters and begin to opacify the bladder.
	Urinary	/ Bladder
<u> </u>	Anal ca Rectur Sigmoi Descel Splenid Transv Hepati Ascend Ileoced Appen	n id colon inding colon c flexure erse colon c flexure ding colon cal valve

The large bowel can follow a redundant course and is often elongated as a patient ages. It is easiest to start at the anal canal and work your way retrograde through the large bowel until reaching the cecum, appendix, and terminal ileum. The ascending and descending colon are

retroperitoneal. It can be challenging to find the appendix (particularly in thin patients), and looking at the cecum in all three planes (axial, sagittal, and corona) is quite helpful. Please note that running the entire colon is very important for every case, even when large bowel pathology is not clinically suspected, as early cancers or important incidental findings can be detected.

Run t	he up	per GI tract antegrade
	Distal e	esophagus
	GE jun	ction
	Stoma	ch
		Fundus
		Body
		Antrum
		Pylorus
	Duode	num
	Jejunu	m
	lleum	
	Termin	al ileum

For the upper GI tract, it is easiest to start at the distal esophagus and work antegrade. Sequential anatomy can be followed through the proximal jejunum, which has a characteristic feathery fold pattern compared to the rather thin and featureless duodenum and ileum. After that, in the absence of an obstruction or mass, there is no reason to run the entire small bowel and instead I look at clusters of the small bowel in both axial and coronal planes, without trying to follow and lumen the whole way. Notice how much small bowel you can see in a single image on the coronal reformats - it covers a lot of anatomy!

Oral contrast is given for many studies and fills the small bowel with dense/bright material. This can help the radiologists differentiate structures when the patients is skinny (i.e. little abdominal fat surrounding organs, vessels, and bowel), provides functional information that helps in the assessment of small bowel obstruction (i.e. finding the transition point, high or low grade, follow-up radiograph to evaluate contrast transit), and helps to find the location of perforation.

Peritoneum

Omentum
Mesentery
Retroperitoneum

Normally the omentum blends in with the intraperitoneal fat and is not distinguishable. In general, I think it is challenging to understand these compartments without reviewing pathologic cases involving them. Keep a look out for cases of peritoneal carcinomatosis, peritonitis, and perforations into the retroperitoneum which help to understand the CT appearance of these anatomic planes.

Vasculature □ Portal circulation □ Portal vein □ Portosplenic confluence □ Splenic vein ■ Super mesenteric veins ■ Systemic veins □ IVC □ Renal veins Common iliac veins □ External iliac veins □ Arteries ☐ Abdominal aorta Celiac artery ■ Splenic artery □ Common hepatic artery ■ Renal arteries ■ Superior mesenteric artery ☐ Inferior mesenteric artery Common iliac arteries □ External iliac arteries

Generally radiologists do NOT attempt to review arteries in detail unless a dedicated angiography is performed. CT-angiography is scanned 25-30 seconds after contrast administration, which means that the majority of the contrast is still in the arteries and they are quite bright and easy to see. Routine/general exams are performed in the portal venous phase (PVP) which is around 70-80 seconds, and allows the abdominal organs to be better evaluated. For PVP imaging you can evaluate the portal, splenic, superior mesenteric veins and usually the IVC for patency, but small and medium sized arteries have begun to washout are more challenging to evaluate beyond their origins.

Lymph nodes

	Lower	thoracic/periesophageal
	Upper	abdominal
		Gastrohepatic ligament
		Celiac axis
		Portocaval/porta hepatis
	Retrop	eritoneal/periaortic
	Mesen	tery
	Pelvis	
		Iliac/pelvic sidewall
		Presacral/mesorectal

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Similar to the peritoneum, it is hard to understand these spaces when there are only small, normal-appearing lymph nodes in them. Keep a look out for cases of metastatic disease and lymphoma which will help you to understand these nodal territories and what pathologic lymph nodes look like. A generally accepted measurement for abdominal lymph nodes is < 1 cm short axis (that is, the narrowest dimension), but there are greater nuances to many cases (i.e. growth of a small lymph node would still be considered suspicious in a cancer follow-up scan).

Reproductive or	rgans
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-		5 5 5
	Male	
		Prostate
		Seminal Vesicles
		Spermatic cord
		Imaged penis, urethra, and scrotum
	Female	e
		Uterus/endometrium
		Cervix
		Fallopian tubes
		Ovaries
		Vagina

CT is limited for reproductive organ evaluation. For male anatomy, CT can helpful for identifying prostatic enlargement or abscess, and spermatic cord masses. MRI is superior for detecting prostate cancer, and ultrasound is superior for scrotal/testicular evaluation. For female anatomy, CT can identify many important findings such as tubo-ovarian abscess, adnexal masses, fibroids, etc, but generally characterization with ultrasound or MRI is superior.

Musculoskeletal

Lower ribs			
Vertebral bodies			
Spinal canal			
Pelvic bones			
□ Sacrum			
☐ Iliac bones			
□ Acetabula			
□ Pelvic rings			
Hips and proximal femora			
Musculature			
Abdominal wall (rectus abdominis, oblique/transverse abdominis)			
Paraspinal			
Pelvis (gluteal, obturator, proximal thigh)			

■ Subcutaneous fat

Musculoskeletal structures are often overlooked on CT. It is challenging to intuitively and accurately evaluate the spine on axial images, but much more straightforward on sagittal reformats which allows you to see the entire spinal column in a single image. Pelvic bones are well-evaluated on both axial and coronal reformats.

Evaluation of muscles is brief for routine images. For trauma or metastatic workup with higher likelihood of muscular involvement (such as melanoma, lymphoma, multiple myeloma), more careful evaluation is needed. Similar principles apply to evaluating the subcutaneous fat.