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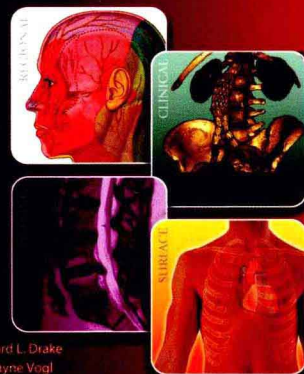
Gray's Basic Anatomy

格氏解剖学基础教程

《格氏解剖学基础教程》英文影印版

主编 Richard L. Drake
A. Wayne Vogl
Adam W. M. Mitchell

GRAY'S BASIC ANATOMY



北京大学医学出版社

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Index of Clinical App, Imaging App, and Surface Anatomy Boxes

1

The Body

Clinical app

Bone marrow transplants 9
Bone fractures 10
Avascular necrosis 10
Osteoporosis 10
Epiphyseal fractures 10
Joint replacement 13
Degenerative joint disease 13
Arthroscopy 13
The importance of fascias 14
Muscle paralysis 14
Muscle atrophy 14
Muscle injuries and strains 15
Atherosclerosis 15
Varicose veins 15
Anastomoses and collateral circulation 16
Lymph nodes 17
Dermatomes and myotomes 21
Referred pain 29

Imaging app

Determination of skeletal age 9

2

Back

Clinical app

Spina bifida 38
Vertebroplasty 39
Scoliosis 39
Kyphosis 39
Lordosis 39
Variation in vertebral numbers 39
The vertebrae and cancer 39
Osteoporosis 39
Back pain 41
Herniation of intervertebral discs 41
Joint diseases 41

Ligamenta flava 42
Vertebral fractures 43
Pars interarticularis fractures 43
Surgical procedures on the back 43
Nerve injuries affecting superficial back muscles 45
Lumbar cerebrospinal fluid tap 54
Anesthesia within the vertebral canal 54
Herpes zoster 55

Imaging app

Typical cervical vertebrae 32
Typical thoracic vertebrae 33
Typical lumbar vertebrae 33
Articulation between atlas and axis 35

Surface anatomy

How to identify specific vertebral spinous processes 36
Primary and secondary curvatures in the sagittal plane 38
Visualizing the inferior ends of the spinal cord and subarachnoid space 52

3

Thorax

Clinical app

Axillary process of breast 59
Breast cancer 60
Thoracic outlet syndrome 62
Cervical ribs 65
Rib fractures 65
Collection of sternal bone marrow 67
The manubriosternal joint as reference 68
Surgical access to the chest 74
Thoracostomy (chest) tube insertion 75
Intercostal nerve block 75
The arrangement of pleural cavities is clinically significant 78
Innervation of parietal and visceral pleura 79
Pleural recesses 80
Pleural effusion 81

- Pneumothorax 81
- Inhaled objects 86
- Lung cancer 93
- Pneumonia 93
- Pericardial innervation 96
- Pericarditis 96
- Pericardial effusion 96
- Constrictive pericarditis 96
- Valve disease 106
- Common congenital heart defects 107
- Cardiac auscultation 107
- Clinical terminology for coronary arteries 110
- Cardiac conduction system 110
- Heart attack 114
- Classic symptoms of heart attack 114
- Referred pain 114
- Are heart attack symptoms the same in men and women? 115
- Ectopic parathyroid glands in the thymus 116
- Left brachiocephalic vein 118
- Venous access for central and dialysis lines 118
- Using the superior vena cava to access the inferior vena cava 119
- Coarctation of the aorta 120
- Traumatic injury to the aorta 120
- Aortic dissection 121
- Aortic arch and its anomalies 121
- Abnormal origin of great vessels 121
- The vagus nerves, recurrent laryngeal nerves, and hoarseness 123
- Esophagus constrictions 124
- Esophageal cancer 125
- Esophageal rupture 125

Imaging app

- Visualizing the pulmonary trunk by computed tomography 88
- Visualizing the lungs 90
- Plain chest radiograph 92
- Visualizing the heart 99
- Visualizing the chambers of the heart 100
- Visualizing the right atrium and pulmonary veins 103
- Visualizing structures in the superior mediastinum 117
- Visualizing structures at the TIV vertebral level 120
- Visualizing the mediastinum in the axial plane 130

Surface anatomy

- The breast in women 60
- How to count ribs 69

- Visualizing structures at the TIV/V vertebral level 69
- Visualizing the pleural cavities and lungs, pleural recesses, and lung lobes and fissures 84
- Where to listen for lung sounds 85
- Visualizing the margins of the heart 100
- Where to listen for heart sounds 106
- Visualizing structures in the superior mediastinum 123

4 Abdomen

Clinical app

- Preperitoneal vs. retroperitoneal 140
- Surgical incisions 147
- Cremasteric reflex 147
- Masses around the groin 148
- Inguinal hernias 148
- Indirect inguinal hernias 148
- Direct inguinal hernias 148
- Femoral hernias 149
- Umbilical hernias 149
- Incisional hernias 149
- Sportsmen's groin/sportsmen's hernia 149
- Other hernias 149
- Potential problem of hernias 149
- The peritoneum 150
- Innervation of peritoneum 150
- Ventriculoperitoneal shunts 150
- Dialysis and peritoneal dialysis 151
- Peritoneal spread of disease 151
- Perforated bowel 151
- The greater omentum 152
- Epithelial transition between the abdominal esophagus and stomach 157
- Surgery for obesity 157
- Duodenal ulceration 157
- Examination of the bowel lumen 159
- Meckel's diverticulum 159
- Carcinoma of the stomach 159
- Appendicitis 161
- Congenital disorders of the gastrointestinal tract 164
- Bowel obstruction 164
- Diverticular disease 164
- Ostomies 167
- Segmental anatomy of the liver 167
- Annular pancreas 168
- Pancreatic cancer 170
- Gallstones 170
- Jaundice 171
- Spleen disorders 172

Vascular supply to the gastrointestinal system 177
 Hepatic cirrhosis 179
 Portosystemic anastomosis 179
 Psoas muscle abscess 189
 Diaphragmatic hernias 189
 Hiatal hernia 189
 Urinary tract stones 193
 Urinary tract cancer 193
 Kidney transplant 193
 Abdominal aortic stent graft 196
 Inferior vena cava filter 198
 Retroperitoneal lymph node surgery 200

Imaging app

Visualizing the stomach 154
 Visualizing the jejunum and ileum 156
 Endoscopic examination of the abdominal gastrointestinal tract 158
 Visualizing the liver 166
 Visualizing the pancreas 169
 Visualizing the diaphragm 188
 Investigation of the urinary tract 194

Surface anatomy

Using abdominal quadrants to locate major viscera 135
 Defining surface regions to which pain from the gut is referred 135
 How to find the superficial inguinal ring 147
 Visualizing the position of major blood vessels 198

5 Pelvis and Perineum

Clinical app

Bone marrow biopsy 210
 Common problems with the sacro-iliac joints 212
 Pelvic fracture 213
 Pelvic measurements in obstetrics 216
 Defecation 217
 Episiotomy 219
 Digital rectal examination 221
 Carcinoma of the colon and rectum 221
 Bladder cancer 222
 Bladder stones 223
 Suprapubic catheterization 223
 Bladder infection 224
 Urethral catheterization 225
 Undescended testes 225
 Hydrocele of the testis 225

Testicular tumors 225
 Vasectomy 226
 Prostate problems 226
 Ovarian cancer 228
 Hysterectomy 228
 Tubal ligation 229
 Carcinoma of the cervix and uterus 229
 The recto-uterine pouch 232
 Pudendal block 236
 Prostatectomy and impotence 239
 Hemorrhoids 244
 Abscesses in the ischio-anal fossae 246
 Urethral rupture 252

Surface anatomy

Defining the margins of the perineum 245
 Superficial features of the external genitalia in women 248
 Superficial features of the external genitalia in men 250

6 Lower Limb

Clinical app

Pelvic fractures 269
 Femoral neck fractures 271
 Intertrochanteric fractures 272
 Femoral shaft fractures 272
 Varicose veins 277
 Deep vein thrombosis 277
 Harvesting veins for grafts 277
 Vascular access in the lower limb 281
 Trendelenburg's sign 282
 Intramuscular injection in the gluteal region: avoiding the sciatic nerve 285
 Shin splints 291
 Quadriceps injury 293
 Hamstring injuries 294
 Compartment syndrome 294
 Peripheral vascular disease 298
 Soft tissue injuries to the knee 305
 Clinical tests for tears in the cruciate ligaments: anterior drawer test, posterior drawer test 305
 Arthroscopy 305
 Foot drop 315
 Fracture of the talus 317
 Achilles tendon rupture 318
 Ankle injuries 323
 Bunions 325

Head injury 439
 Concussion 440
 Cranial nerve lesions 445
 Parotid gland—tumors and stones 452
 Trigeminal neuralgia 454
 Facial nerve [VII] palsy (Bell's palsy) 458
 Scalp laceration 461
 Orbital fracture 464
 Full and partial ptosis 466
 Horner's syndrome 466
 Ophthalmoscopy 480
 Glaucoma 481
 Cataracts 481
 Swimmer's ear 485
 Surfer's ear 485
 Examination of the ear 486
 Mastoiditis 488
 Temporomandibular joint disorders 499
 Lingual nerve injury 504
 Anesthesia of the inferior alveolar nerve 504
 Middle meningeal artery and extradural hematoma 509
 Spread of infection from the pterygoid plexus into the cranial cavity 509
 Dry eye 514
 Spread of neck infections 518
 Central venous access 519
 Tracheobronchial injury 527
 Thyroidectomy 529
 Goiter 529
 Hyperparathyroidism 530
 Ectopic parathyroid glands 530
 Recurrent laryngeal nerve palsy 537

Clinical lymphatic drainage of the head and neck 540
 Laryngoscopy 548
 Cricothyrotomy 552
 Tracheostomy 558
 Deviated nasal septum 561
 Surgical approach to the pituitary gland 564
 Epistaxis 568
 Oral cancer 571
 Test for cranial nerve XII 578
 Test for cranial nerve X 584

Imaging app

Visualizing the skull—anterior view 417
 Visualizing the skull—lateral view 419
 Visualizing the internal carotid and vertebral arteries 435
 Visualizing the muscles of the eyeball 473
 Visualizing the nasal cavities and paranasal sinuses 563

Surface anatomy

Anatomical position of the head and major landmarks 420
 Estimating the position of the middle meningeal artery 429
 Major features of the face 459
 The eye and lacrimal apparatus 468
 How to outline the anterior and posterior triangles of the neck 516
 How to find the thyroid gland 528
 How to locate the cricothyroid ligament 552
 Pulse points 592

Contents

1

The Body

What is anatomy? 2

How can gross anatomy be studied? 2

Important anatomical terms 2

Imaging 3

Diagnostic imaging techniques 3

Image interpretation 6

Plain radiography 6

Computed tomography 7

Magnetic resonance imaging 7

Nuclear medicine imaging 7

Safety in imaging 8

Body systems 8

Skeletal system 8

Cartilage 8

Bone 8

Joints 10

Skin and fascias 13

Skin 13

Fascia 14

Muscular system 14

Cardiovascular system 15

Lymphatic system 16

Lymphatic vessels 16

Lymph nodes 16

Lymphatic trunks and ducts 17

Nervous system 18

Central nervous system 18

Functional subdivisions of the CNS 19

Other systems 30

Joints 40

Joints between vertebrae in the back 40

Ligaments 41

Anterior and posterior longitudinal ligaments 41

Ligamenta flava 42

Supraspinous ligament and ligamentum
nuchae 42

Interspinous ligaments 42

Back musculature 43

Superficial group of back muscles 43

Intermediate group of back muscles 45

Deep group of back muscles 46

Thoracolumbar fascia 48

Spinal cord 49

Vasculature 50

Meninges 52

Arrangement of structures in the vertebral
canal 53

Spinal nerves 53

3

Thorax

Regional anatomy 58

Pectoral region 58

Breast 58

Muscles of the pectoral region 60

Thoracic wall 60

Superior thoracic aperture 61

Inferior thoracic aperture 62

Skeletal framework 62

Intercostal spaces 71

Diaphragm 75

Venous drainage 77

Innervation 77

*Movements of the thoracic wall and diaphragm
during breathing 77*

Pleural cavities 78

Pleura 78

Lungs 81

Mediastinum 93

Middle mediastinum 94

Superior mediastinum 116

Posterior mediastinum 123

Anterior mediastinum 129

2

Back

Regional anatomy 32

Skeletal framework 32

Vertebrae 32

Intervertebral foramina 37

Posterior spaces between vertebral arches 38

Curvatures of vertebral column 38

4 Abdomen

Regional anatomy 134

Surface topography 134

- Four-quadrant pattern 134
- Nine-region pattern 134

Abdominal wall 135

- Superficial fascia 136
- Anterolateral muscles 136
- Extraperitoneal fascia 140
- Peritoneum 141
- Innervation 141
- Arterial supply and venous drainage 142
- Lymphatic drainage 143

Groin 143

- Inguinal canal 144

Abdominal viscera 149

- Peritoneum 149
- Peritoneal cavity 150
- Organs 153
- Arterial supply to the gastrointestinal tract 172
- Venous drainage 177
- Lymphatics 180
- Innervation 180

Posterior abdominal region 185

- Posterior abdominal wall 185
- Viscera 189
- Vasculature 195
- Lymphatic system 199
- Nervous system in the posterior abdominal region 200
- Sympathetic trunks and splanchnic nerves 201

5 Pelvis and Perineum

Regional anatomy 208

Pelvis 208

- Bones 208
- Joints 211
- Orientation 212
- Gender differences 212
- True pelvis 212
- Viscera 220
- Fascia 230
- Peritoneum 230
- Nerves 232
- Blood vessels 239
- Lymphatics 243

Perineum 244

- Borders and ceiling 244

- Ischio-anal fossae and their anterior recesses 245
- Anal triangle 246
- Urogenital triangle 246
- Somatic nerves 252
- Visceral nerves 253
- Blood vessels 253
- Veins 255
- Lymphatics 255

6 Lower Limb

Regional anatomy 266

The Hip 267

- Bony pelvis 267
- Proximal femur 270
- Hip joint 272
- Gateways to the lower limb 274
- Nerves 276
- Arteries 276
- Veins 276
- Lymphatics 278
- Deep fascia and the saphenous opening 279
- Femoral triangle 280

Gluteal region 281

- Muscles 282
- Nerves 283
- Arteries 286
- Veins 287
- Lymphatics 287

Thigh 287

- Bones 288
- Muscles 291
- Arteries 294
- Veins 298
- Nerves 298
- Knee joint 300
- Tibiofibular joint 305
- Popliteal fossa 306

Leg 307

- Bones 308
- Joints 309
- Posterior compartment of leg 309
- Lateral compartment of leg 313

Foot 315

- Bones 316
- Joints 319
- Tarsal tunnel, retinacula, and arrangement of major structures at the ankle 326
- Arches of the foot 327
- Plantar aponeurosis 328
- Fibrous sheaths of toes 328

Extensor hoods 328
Intrinsic muscles 329
Arteries 332
Veins 334
Nerves 334

Fibrous digital sheaths 400
Extensor hoods 401
Muscles 402
Arteries and veins 403
Nerves 407

7 Upper Limb

Regional anatomy 342

Shoulder 343

Bones 344
Joints 346
Muscles 351

Posterior scapular region 351

Gateways to the posterior scapular region 351
Nerves 354
Arteries and veins 354

Axilla 355

Axillary inlet 355
Anterior wall 356
Medial wall 357
Lateral wall 358
Posterior wall 358
Gateways in the posterior wall 359
Floor 359
Contents of the axilla 360

Arm 370

Bones 370
Muscles 373
Nerves 374
Arteries and veins 375

Elbow joint 377

Cubital fossa 380

Forearm 382

Bones 383
Joints 384

Anterior compartment of the forearm 385

Muscles 385
Arteries and veins 387
Nerves 388

Posterior compartment of forearm 390

Muscles 390
Arteries and veins 392
Nerves 392

Hand 394

Bones 394
Joints 397
Carpal tunnel and structures at the wrist 398
Palmar aponeurosis 399
Anatomical snuffbox 400

8 Head and Neck

Regional anatomy 415

Head 416

Neck 416

Skull 416

Anterior view 416
Lateral view 418
Posterior view 420
Superior view 421
Inferior view 421

Cranial cavity 424

Roof 424
Floor 425

Meninges 429

Cranial dura mater 429
Arachnoid mater 432
Pia mater 432
Meningeal spaces 432

Brain and its blood supply 434

Brain 434
Blood supply 435
Venous drainage 437

Cranial nerves 440

Olfactory nerve [I] 440
Optic nerve [II] 441
Oculomotor nerve [III] 441
Trochlear nerve [IV] 442
Trigeminal nerve [V] 442
Ophthalmic nerve [V₁] 443
Maxillary nerve [V₂] 444
Mandibular nerve [V₃] 444
Abducent nerve [VI] 444
Facial nerve [VII] 444
Vestibulocochlear nerve [VIII] 445
Glossopharyngeal nerve [IX] 445
Vagus nerve [X] 446
Accessory nerve [XI] 446
Hypoglossal nerve [XII] 446

Face 446

Muscles 446
Parotid gland 451
Innervation 453
Vessels 456

Scalp 459

- Layers 459
- Innervation 460
- Vessels 461
- Lymphatic drainage 462

Orbit 463

- Bony orbit 463
- Eyelids 464
- Lacrimal apparatus 467
- Sensory innervation 469
- Fissures and foramina 469
- Fascial specializations 471
- Muscles 472
- Vessels 475
- Innervation 476
- Eyeball 479

Ear 482

- External ear 483
- Middle ear 487
- Internal ear 491

Temporal and infratemporal fossae 495

- Bony framework 495
- Temporomandibular joints 497
- Masseter muscle 499
- Temporal fossa 500
- Infratemporal fossa 501

Pterygopalatine fossa 509

- Skeletal framework 510
- Gateways 511
- Contents 511

Neck 515

- Fascia 516
- Superficial venous drainage 519
- Anterior triangle of the neck 519
- Posterior triangle of the neck 530
- Root of the neck 534

Pharynx 540

- Skeletal framework 541
- Pharyngeal wall 542

Fascia 543

- Gaps in the pharyngeal wall and structures passing through them 543
- Nasopharynx 544
- Oropharynx 545
- Laryngopharynx 546
- Tonsils 546
- Vessels 546
- Nerves 547

Larynx 548

- Laryngeal cartilages 549
- Extrinsic ligaments 550
- Intrinsic ligaments 551
- Laryngeal joints 553
- Cavity of the larynx 554
- Intrinsic muscles 555
- Function of the larynx 556
- Vessels 558
- Nerves 559

Nasal cavities 559

- Lateral wall 560
- Regions 560
- Skeletal framework 561
- External nose 562
- Paranasal sinuses 562
- Walls, floor, and roof 564
- Choanae 566
- Gateways 566
- Vessels 567
- Innervation 568

Oral cavity 571

- Skeletal framework 571
- Walls: the cheeks 574
- Floor 574
- Tongue 574
- Salivary glands 580
- Roof—palate 583
- Oral fissure and lips 586
- Oropharyngeal isthmus 586
- Teeth and gingivae 587

1

The Body

**ADDITIONAL LEARNING
RESOURCES FOR CHAPTER 1, *THE
BODY*, ON STUDENT CONSULT
(www.studentconsult.com):**

- Image Library—illustrations from Chapter 1

***What is anatomy?* 2**

How can gross anatomy be studied? 2

Important anatomical terms 2

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Diagnostic imaging techniques 3

Image interpretation 6

Plain radiography 6

Computed tomography 7

Magnetic resonance imaging 7

Nuclear medicine imaging 7

Safety in imaging 8

***Body systems* 8**

Skeletal system 8

Cartilage 8

Bone 8

Joints 10

Skin and fascias 13

Skin 13

Fascia 14

Muscular system 14

Cardiovascular system 15

Lymphatic system 16

Lymphatic vessels 16

Lymph nodes 16

Lymphatic trunks and ducts 17

Nervous system 18

Central nervous system 18

Functional subdivisions of the CNS 19

Other systems 30

What is anatomy?

Anatomy includes those structures that can be seen grossly (without the aid of magnification) and microscopically (with the aid of magnification). Typically, when used by itself, the term *anatomy* tends to mean gross or macroscopic anatomy—that is, the study of structures that can be seen without using a microscope. Microscopic anatomy, also called histology, is the study of cells and tissues using a microscope.

Observation and visualization are the primary techniques a student should use to learn anatomy. Anatomy is much more than just memorization of lists of names. Although the language of anatomy is important, the network of information needed to visualize the position of physical structures in a patient goes far beyond simple memorization. Knowing the names of the various branches of the external carotid artery is not the same as being able to visualize the course of the lingual artery from its origin in the neck to its termination in the tongue. An understanding of anatomy requires an understanding of the context in which the terminology can be remembered.

HOW CAN GROSS ANATOMY BE STUDIED?

The term *anatomy* is derived from the Greek word *temnein*, meaning “to cut.” Clearly, at its root, the study of anatomy is linked to dissection. Dissection of cadavers by students is now augmented, or even in some cases replaced, by viewing projected (previously dissected) material and plastic models, or using computer teaching modules and other learning aids.

Anatomy can be studied following either a regional or a systemic approach.

- With a **regional approach**, each *region* of the body is studied separately and all aspects of that region are studied at the same time. For example, if the thorax is to be studied, all of its structures are examined. This includes the vasculature, nerves, bones, muscles, and all other structures and organs located in the region of the body defined as the thorax. After studying this region, the other regions of the body (i.e., the abdomen, pelvis, lower limb, upper limb, back, head, and neck) are studied in a similar fashion.
- In contrast, in a **systemic approach**, each *system* of the body is studied and followed throughout the entire body. For example, a study of the cardiovascular system looks at the heart and all of the blood vessels in the body. This approach continues for the whole body until every system, including the nervous, skeletal, muscular, gastrointestinal, respiratory, lymphatic, and reproductive systems, has been studied.

IMPORTANT ANATOMICAL TERMS

The anatomical position

The anatomical position is the standard reference position of the body used to describe the location of structures (Fig. 1.1). The body is in the anatomical position when standing upright with feet together, hands by the side, and

face looking forward. The mouth is closed and the facial expression is neutral. The rim of bone under the eyes is in the same horizontal plane as the top of the opening to the ear, and the eyes are open and focused on something in the distance. The palms of the hands face forward with the fingers straight and together and with the pad of the thumb turned 90° to the pads of the fingers. The toes point forward.

Anatomical planes

Three major groups of planes pass through the body in the anatomical position (Fig. 1.1).

- **Coronal planes** are oriented vertically and divide the body into anterior and posterior parts.
- **Sagittal planes** also are oriented vertically, but are at right angles to the coronal planes and divide the body into right and left parts. The plane that passes through the center of the body dividing it into equal right and left halves is termed the **median sagittal plane**.
- **Transverse, horizontal, or axial planes** divide the body into superior and inferior parts.

Terms to describe location

Anterior (ventral) and posterior (dorsal), medial and lateral, superior and inferior

Three major pairs of terms are used to describe the location of structures relative to the body as a whole or to other structures (Fig. 1.1).

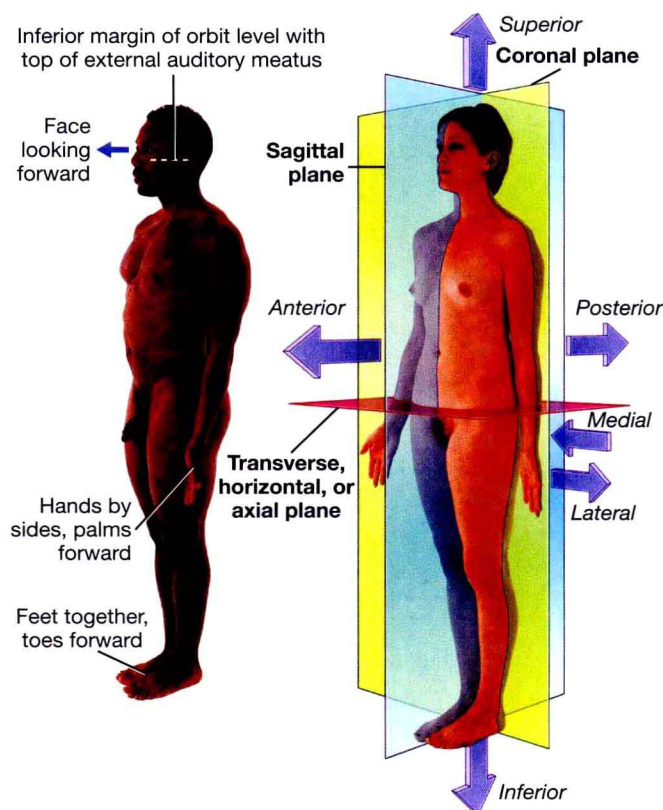


Fig. 1.1 The anatomical position, planes, and terms of location and orientation.

- **Anterior** (or **ventral**) and **posterior** (or **dorsal**) describe the position of structures relative to the “front” and “back” of the body. For example, the nose is an anterior (ventral) structure, whereas the vertebral column is a posterior (dorsal) structure.
- **Medial** and **lateral** describe the position of structures relative to the median sagittal plane and the sides of the body. For example, the thumb is lateral to the little finger.
- **Superior** and **inferior** describe structures in reference to the vertical axis of the body. For example, the head is superior to the shoulders.

Proximal and distal, cranial and caudal, and rostral

Other terms used to describe positions include proximal and distal, cranial and caudal, and rostral.

- **Proximal** and **distal** are used with reference to being closer to or farther from a structure’s origin, particularly in the limbs. For example, the hand is distal to the elbow joint. These terms are also used to describe the relative positions of branches along the course of linear structures, such as airways, vessels, and nerves. For example, distal branches occur farther away toward the ends, whereas proximal branches occur closer to and toward the origin.
- **Cranial** (toward the head) and **caudal** (toward the tail) are sometimes used instead of superior and inferior, respectively.
- **Rostral** is used, particularly in the head, to describe the position of a structure with reference to the nose. For example, the forebrain is rostral to the hindbrain.

Superficial and deep

Two other terms used to describe the position of structures in the body are **superficial** and **deep**. These terms are used to describe the relative positions of two structures with respect to the surface of the body. For example, the sternum is superficial to the heart.

Imaging

DIAGNOSTIC IMAGING TECHNIQUES

In 1895 Wilhelm Röntgen used the X-rays from a cathode ray tube to expose a photographic plate and produce the first radiographic exposure of his wife’s hand. Over the past 30 years there has been a revolution in medical imaging, which has been paralleled by developments in computer technology.

Plain radiography

The basic physics of X-ray generation has not changed.

X-rays are photons (a type of electromagnetic radiation) and are generated from a complex X-ray tube, which is a type of cathode ray tube (Fig. 1.2). The X-rays are then collimated (i.e., directed through lead-lined shutters to stop them from fanning out) to the appropriate area, as determined by the radiographic technician. As the X-rays pass through the body they are attenuated (reduced in energy)

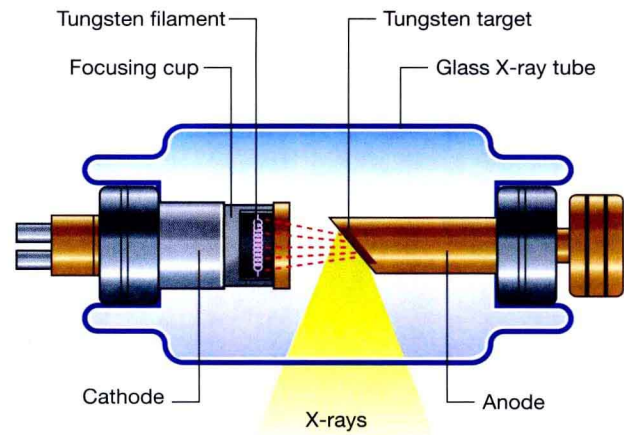


Fig. 1.2 Cathode ray tube for the production of X-rays.

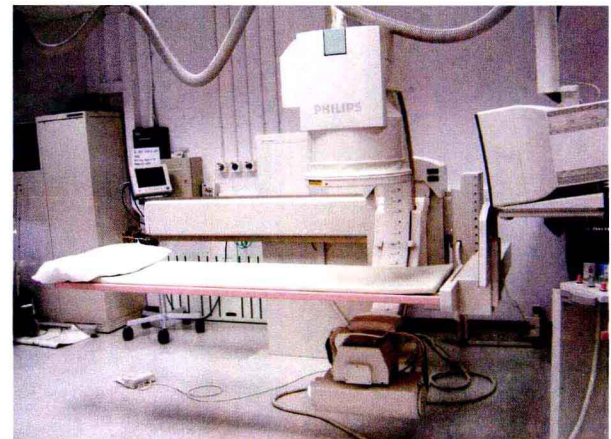


Fig. 1.3 Fluoroscopy unit.

by the tissues. Those X-rays that pass through the tissues interact with the photographic film.

In the body:

- Air attenuates X-rays a little.
- Fat attenuates X-rays more than air but less than water.
- Bone attenuates X-rays the most.

These differences in attenuation result in differences in the level of exposure of the film. When the photographic film is developed, bone appears white on the film because this region of the film has been exposed to the least amount of X-rays. Air appears dark on the film because these regions were exposed to the greatest number of X-rays. Modifications to this X-ray technique allow a continuous stream of X-rays to be produced from the X-ray tube and collected on an input screen to allow real-time visualization of moving anatomical structures, barium studies, angiography, and fluoroscopy (Fig. 1.3).

Contrast agents

To demonstrate specific structures, such as bowel loops or arteries, it may be necessary to fill these structures with a substance that attenuates X-rays more than bowel loops or

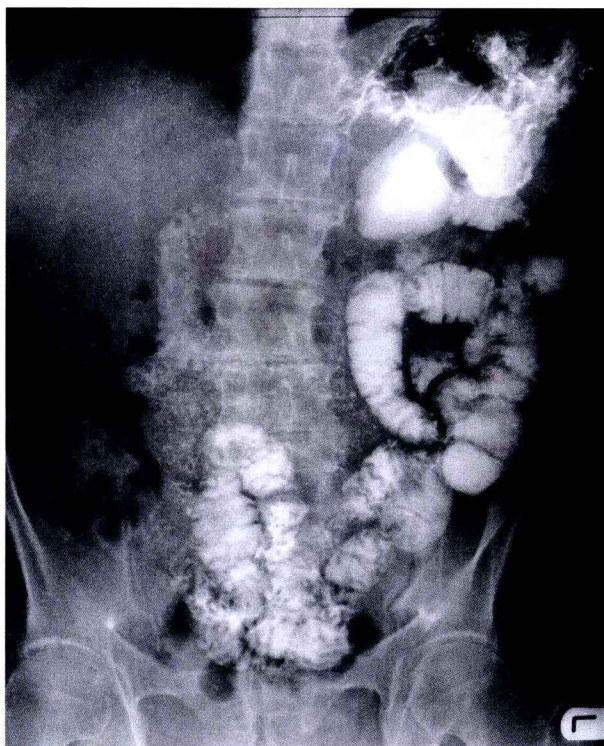


Fig. 1.4 Barium sulfate follow-through.

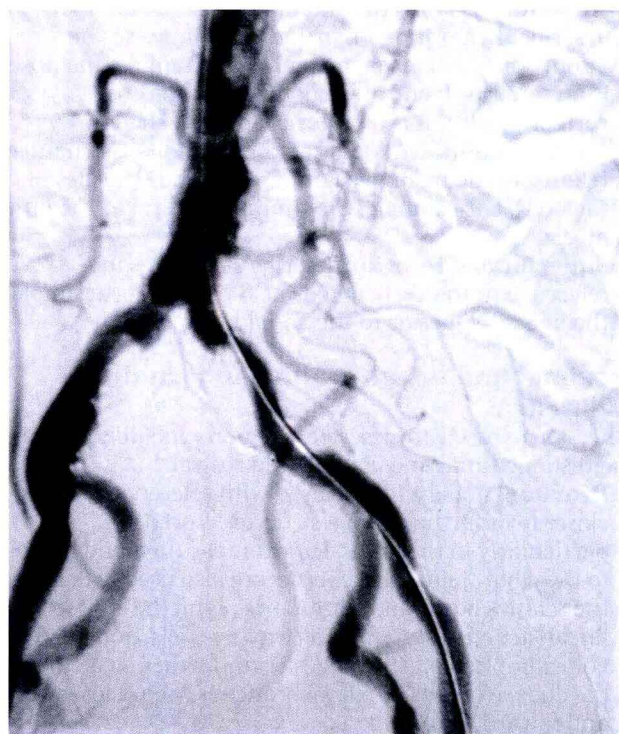


Fig. 1.5 Digital subtraction angiogram.

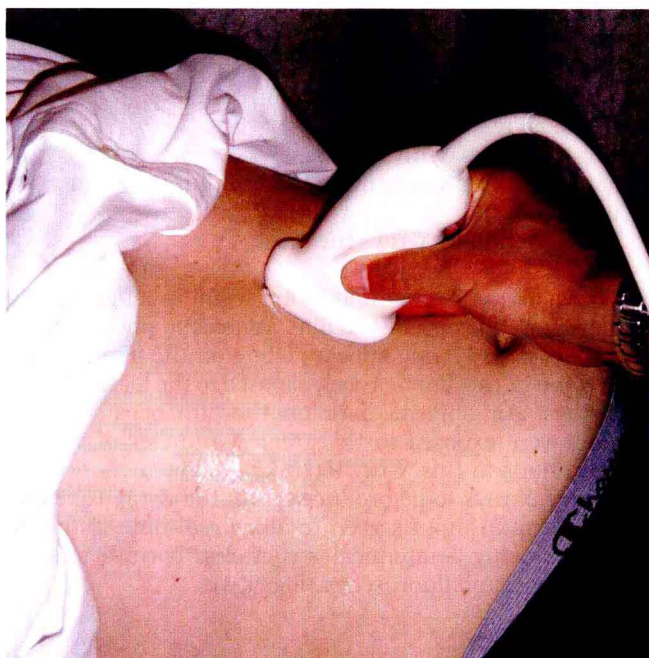


Fig. 1.6 Ultrasound examination of the abdomen.

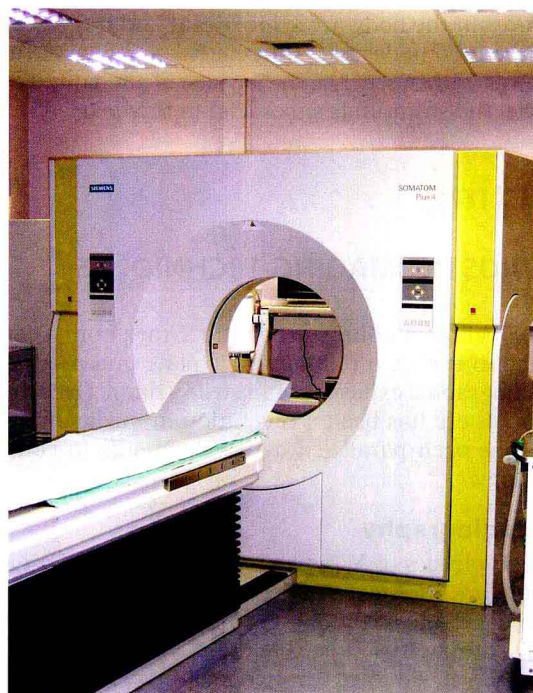


Fig. 1.7 Computed tomography scanner.

arteries do normally. It is, however, extremely important that these substances are nontoxic. Barium sulfate, an insoluble salt, is a nontoxic, relatively high-density agent that is extremely useful in the examination of the gastrointestinal tract. When **barium sulfate suspension** is ingested it attenuates X-rays and can therefore be used to demonstrate the bowel lumen (Fig. 1.4).

For some patients it is necessary to inject contrast agents directly into arteries or veins. In this case, iodine-based molecules are suitable contrast agents. **Iodine** is chosen because it has a relatively high atomic mass and so markedly attenuates X-rays, but also, importantly, it is naturally excreted via the urinary system. Intra-arterial and intravenous contrast agents are extremely safe and are well tolerated by most patients. These agents not only help in visualizing the arteries and veins, but because they are excreted by the urinary system, can also be used to visualize the kidneys, ureter, and bladder in a process known as **intravenous urography**.

Subtraction angiography

During angiography it is often difficult to appreciate the contrast agent in the vessels through the overlying bony structures. To circumvent this, the technique of subtraction angiography has been developed. Simply, one or two images are obtained before the injection of contrast media. These images are inverted (such that a negative is created from the positive image). After injection of the contrast media into the vessels, a further series of images are obtained, demonstrating the passage of the contrast through the arteries and into the veins. By adding the “negative precontrast image” to the positive postcontrast images, the bones and soft tissues are subtracted to produce a solitary image of contrast only (Fig. 1.5).

Ultrasound

Ultrasonography of the body is widely used for all aspects of medicine (Fig. 1.6).

Ultrasound is a very high frequency sound wave (not electromagnetic radiation) generated by piezoelectric materials, such that a series of sound waves is produced. Importantly, the piezoelectric material can also receive the sound waves that bounce back from the internal organs. The sound waves are then interpreted by a powerful computer, and a real-time image is produced on the display panel.

Doppler ultrasound

Developments in ultrasound technology, including the size of the probes and the frequency range, mean that a broad range of areas can now be scanned.

Traditionally ultrasound is used for assessing the abdomen (Fig. 1.6) and the fetus in pregnant women. Ultrasound is also widely used to assess the eyes, neck, soft tissues, and peripheral musculoskeletal system. Probes have been placed on endoscopes, and endoluminal ultrasound of the esophagus, stomach, and duodenum is now routine. Endocavity ultrasound is carried out most commonly to assess the genital tract in women using a transvaginal or transrectal route. In men, transrectal ultrasound is the imaging method of choice to assess the

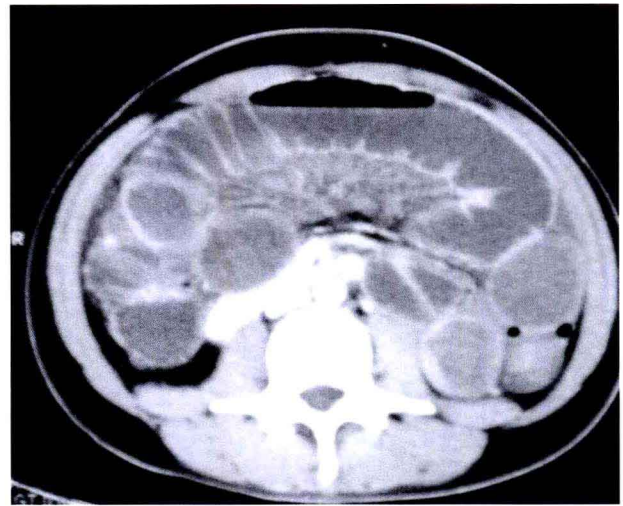


Fig. 1.8 Computed tomography scan of the abdomen at vertebral level L2.

prostate in those with suspected prostate hypertrophy or malignancy.

Doppler ultrasound enables determination of flow, its direction, and its velocity within a vessel using simple ultrasound techniques. Sound waves bounce off moving structures and are returned. The degree of frequency shift determines whether the object is moving away from or toward the probe and the speed at which it is traveling.

Computed tomography

Computed tomography (CT) was invented in the 1970s by Sir Godfrey Hounsfield, who was awarded the Nobel Prize in Medicine in 1979. Since this inspired invention, there have been many generations of CT scanners.

A CT scanner obtains a series of images of the body (slices) in the axial plane. The patient lies on a bed, an X-ray tube passes around the body (Fig. 1.7), and a series of images are obtained. A computer carries out a complex mathematical transformation on the multitude of images to produce the final image (Fig. 1.8).

Magnetic resonance imaging

The process of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is dependent on the free protons in the hydrogen nuclei in molecules of water (H_2O). Because water is present in almost all biological tissues, the hydrogen proton is ideal. The protons within a patient's hydrogen nuclei should be regarded as small bar magnets, which are randomly oriented in space. The patient is placed in a strong magnetic field, which aligns the bar magnets. When a pulse of radio waves is passed through the patient the magnets are deflected, and as they return to their aligned position they emit small radio pulses. The strength and frequency of the emitted pulses and the time it takes for the protons to return to their pre-excited state produces a signal. These signals are analyzed by a powerful computer, and an image is created (Fig. 1.9).



Fig. 1.9 A T2-weighted image in the sagittal plane of the pelvic viscera in a woman.

By altering the sequence of pulses to which the protons are subjected, different properties of the protons can be assessed. These properties are referred to as the “weighting” of the scan. By altering the pulse sequence and the scanning parameters, T1-weighted images (Fig. 1.10A) and T2-weighted images (Fig. 1.10B) can be obtained. These two types of imaging sequences provide differences in image contrast, which accentuate and optimize different tissue characteristics.

From the clinical point of view:

- Most T1-weighted images show dark fluid and bright fat—for example, within the brain the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is dark.
- T2-weighted images demonstrate a bright signal from fluid and an intermediate signal from fat—for example, in the brain the CSF appears white.

MRI can also be used to assess flow within vessels and to produce complex angiograms of the peripheral and cerebral circulation.

Nuclear medicine imaging

Nuclear medicine involves imaging using gamma rays, which are another type of electromagnetic radiation. The important difference between gamma rays and X-rays is that gamma rays are produced from within the nucleus of an atom when an unstable nucleus decays, whereas X-rays are produced by bombarding an atom with electrons.

For an area to be visualized, the patient must receive a gamma-ray emitter, which must have a number of properties to be useful, including a reasonable half-life (e.g., 6 to 24 hours); an easily measurable gamma ray; and an energy deposition in as low a dose as possible in the patient’s tissues.

The most commonly used radionuclide (radioisotope) is technetium-99m. This may be injected as a technetium

salt or combined with other complex molecules. For example, by combining technetium-99m with methylene diphosphonate (MDP), a radiopharmaceutical is produced. When injected into the body this radiopharmaceutical specifically binds to bone, allowing assessment of the skeleton. Similarly, combining technetium-99m with other compounds permits assessment of other parts of the body; for example, the urinary tract and cerebral blood flow.

Images obtained using a gamma camera are dependent on how the radiopharmaceutical is absorbed, distributed, metabolized, and excreted by the body after injection.

Positron emission tomography

Positron emission tomography (PET) is an imaging modality for detecting positron-emitting radionuclides. A positron is an antielectron, which is a positively charged particle of antimatter. Positrons are emitted from the decay of proton-rich radionuclides. Most of these radionuclides are made in a cyclotron and have extremely short half-lives.

The most commonly used PET radionuclide is fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG) labeled with fluorine-18 (a positron emitter). Tissues that are actively metabolizing glucose take up this compound, and the resulting localized high concentration of this molecule compared to background emission is detected as a “hot spot.”

PET has become an important imaging modality in the detection of cancer and the assessment of its treatment and recurrence.

IMAGE INTERPRETATION

Plain radiography

Plain radiographs are undoubtedly the most common form of image obtained in a hospital or local practice. Before interpretation, it is important to know about the imaging technique and the standard views obtained.

In most instances (apart from chest radiography), the X-ray tube is 1 m away from the X-ray film. The object in question, for example a hand or a foot, is placed upon the film. When describing subject placement for radiography, the part closest to the X-ray tube is referred to as “anterior” and that closest to the film is referred to as “posterior.”

When X-rays are viewed on a viewing box, the right side of the patient is placed to the observer’s left; therefore, the observer views the radiograph as though looking at a patient in the anatomical position.

Chest radiograph

The chest radiograph is one of the most commonly requested plain radiographs. An image is taken with the patient erect and placed posteroanteriorly (PA chest radiograph).

Occasionally, when patients are too unwell to stand erect, films are obtained on the bed in an anteroposterior (AP) position. These films are less standardized than PA films, and caution should always be taken when interpreting AP radiographs.

A good quality chest radiograph will demonstrate the lungs, cardiomedastinal contour, diaphragm, ribs, and peripheral soft tissues.