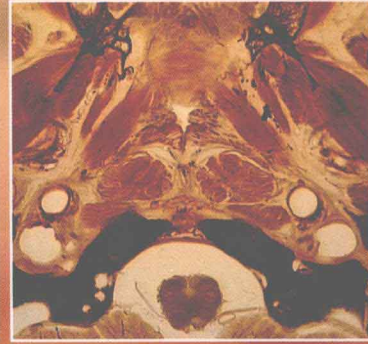
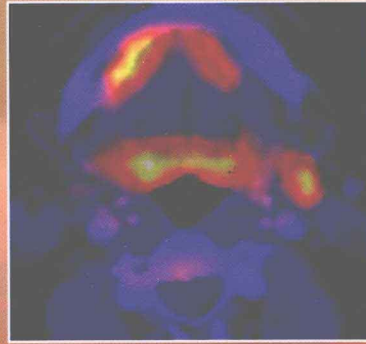
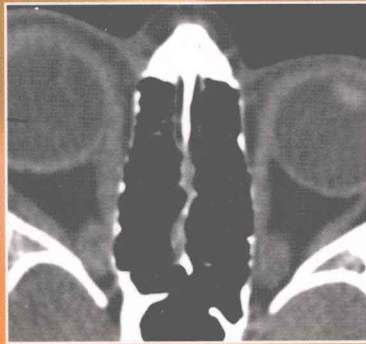
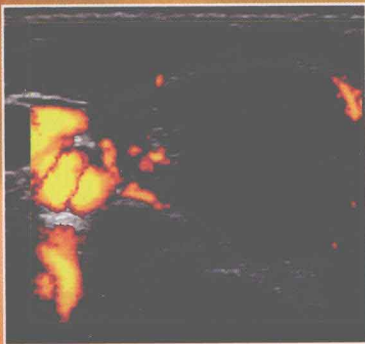


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HEAD AND NECK RADIOLOGY



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Head and Neck Radiology

VOLUME I

*To Bill Hanafee, for all of his wisdom, leadership, and kindness,
and Paul Ward . . . who together created a model of what can be accomplished for
interdisciplinary patient care with a spirit of
mutual respect and everlasting friendship*

AAM

*To our patients whose suffering is reflected in the images on these
pages . . . may we all learn from them and with the utmost
compassion improve daily our ability to find the best possible outcomes for those
afflicted with often devastating diseases*

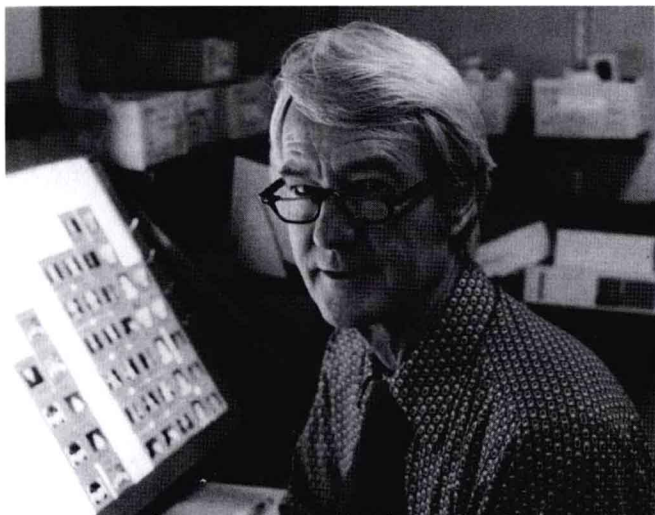
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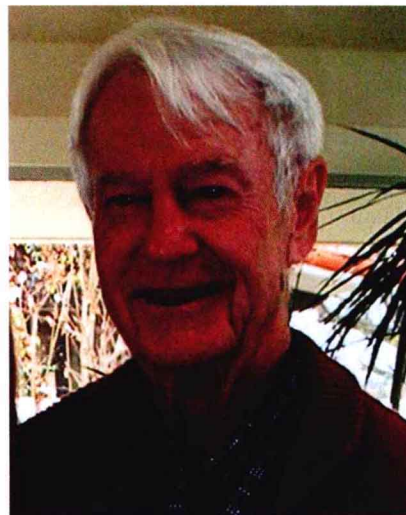
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Bruin flag at UCLA Pauley Pavillion at half mast in Honor of Bill's service—summer 2010.



Bill in his office at UCLA circa 1970s, preparing teaching material



Bill in retirement in north San Diego County, likely getting ready to shoot a round of golf with his longtime friend and colleague Paul Ward

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The Concept and Suggested Use of this Hybrid Text

General Concepts

This book is a hybrid print/electronic product. The goal of the entire resource is to transfer not only information but also wisdom and judgment based on over 30 years of the practice of modern head and neck diagnostic imaging initiated with the arrival of computed tomography and gray-scale ultrasound in the early to mid 1970s. The seminal knowledge base for those 30 years, however, was created by work done over many previous decades and, in the case of anatomy, centuries. That work established the anatomic basis as well as foundational experience in the pathoanatomic and clinical behavior of the often devastating diseases that afflict the head and neck region. The intended result of applying this continuum of knowledge and wisdom would be to produce the best possible diagnostic imaging process from acquisition to consulting and reporting. This would include assuring optimal resource utilization, which in turn leads to uniformly high-quality images—with those images eventually facilitating the best possible timely consultations and written reports.

Realizing these goals requires access to the entire scope of core knowledge needed to plan, perform, and interpret an imaging examination. This includes applied physics, anatomy, and pathophysiology. Such core knowledge must then be expanded within the known specific clinical context. Core knowledge might also be applied to a clinical situation never before encountered and, with good reasoning skills, result in the correct decision making in what might otherwise be a confounding situation.

Presenting the core and applied knowledge and illustrations in print would require about three volumes; this is impractical and unnecessary in this period of the publishing industry's transition. Therefore, the book is partly electronic and partially print in the following manner.

For the Electronic-Only Portion

The electronic portion of this text contains the following core material:

Part I: Applied Imaging Fundamentals—Chapters 1 through 6

This core material promotes an understanding of the physical principles used to design optimal image acquisition protocols (presented in Appendixes A and B and in searchable and continuously updated form at <http://xray.ufl.edu>), recognize the fundamental strengths and weaknesses of a given imaging modality relative to others, how to anticipate and correct artifacts, and the physical basis for what is seen on the image.

Part II: General Pathology, Pathophysiology, Patterns of Disease, and Natural History of Head and Neck Disorders Correlated with Imaging Appearance—Chapters 6 through 43

This core material establishes a knowledge base of how pathologic states develop and spread as well as how their microenvironment is expressed as pathologic alterations on imaging studies. These mechanisms and morphology of disease states such as cancer, inflammation, and tumor types typically occur in more than one anatomic site in the head and neck region. Once understood as core knowledge, this information does not have to be presented in a discussion of that pathologic process at each potential site of involvement. This leaves the user free to consider the unique clinical issues that these conditions have at each site.

For the Print Portion

The print portion of this text contains the core anatomic knowledge as a framework for clinically integrated material. This could stand alone as a text on the full range of head and neck problems.

Part III: Clinical Applications—Sections 3 through 16 (Chapters 44–223)

The clinical/diagnostic process, as presented in the 180 chapters in these sections is organized anatomically and then grouped by common pathologic and clinical conditions. The lead chapter in each section contains applicable core anatomy and techniques of examination. In subsequent chapters, disease extent and morphology are factored together with relevant clinical issues. Each chapter considers technical considerations and discreet applied anatomy based on core knowledge as needed. The user, depending on his or her knowledge base and goals, can search the electronic core for a more fundamental knowledge of the diagnostic process.

These chapters also consider the impact of the information on patient care and attempts to establish reasonable professional goals with regard to report content and communication appropriate for the acuity of the clinical situation. The intent of these chapters is to impart the wisdom and judgment based on the core knowledge and 33 years of practice in this challenging subspecialty.

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Web-only Chapters available at www.headneckradiology.com.

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CHAPTER 44 ■ EYE, ORBIT, VISUAL PATHWAYS, AND CRANIAL NERVES III, IV, AND VI: INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL PRINCIPLES

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TECHNICAL ASPECTS

Techniques and Relevant Aspects

Plain films should only be used infrequently for orbital problems. Standard film/screen, digital radiography, or computed radiology techniques are appropriate for the now very infrequent indications for plain radiography.

Ultrasound is generally performed with an 8- to 10-MHz transducer. Either A mode or B mode, color flow, and power Doppler techniques are used depending on specific indications. These examinations are usually performed by ophthalmologists. They are used to evaluate both intraocular and orbital pathology. Other imaging methods frequently used by ophthalmologists to evaluate ocular structures and pathology are autofluorescence, fluorescein angiography, and optical coherence tomography (OCT). Autofluorescence is based upon the naturally occurring fluorescent emission of ocular tissues and is used to evaluate retinal diseases and vascular abnormalities. To examine the circulation of the retina, fluorescein angiography is used: After injection of sodium fluorescein into the systemic circulation, the fluorescence emitted after illumination of the retina is recorded. By use of this method, diabetic retinopathy, vascular occlusions, edema of the optic disc, and tumors can be detected. OCT is a noninvasive imaging technique with millimeter penetration and submicron resolution producing high-resolution cross-sectional images of optical reflectivity. Topographic maps can be obtained. The images are displayed in a color scheme. OCT is particularly suitable to examine retinal thickness.

Specific computed tomography (CT) techniques by indications are detailed in Appendix A. In the past, gantry angulation may have been changed from the usual zero degrees to the infraorbital meatal line (IOML) to -10 degrees for emphasis on the course of the optic nerve toward and then through the optic canal. Such angling is really not necessary with ≥ 16 slice multidetector computed tomography (MDCT) and workstation viewing since slightly off-axial axis reformations done at the workstation from the axial data set are not significantly degraded. Acquisition slice thickness (SLT) should be ≤ 0.5 to 1.0 mm. Reformations will be of excellent quality with such data acquisition.

Intravenous contrast is used frequently. If calcifications are important to the detection of pathology and/or differential

diagnosis, a noncontrast acquisition should be done. That decision should be made on a case-by-case basis to avoid a radiation dose to the lens. This is typically only done in practice for the initial evaluation of a child with possible retinoblastoma. Non-contrast enhanced CT is also done initially to rule out an intraorbital foreign body. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) can also be useful for foreign bodies if they are composed of plant or similar organic material.

Scanning with and without a Valsalva maneuver, with the orbit in different dependent positions, or with venous compression may be very useful in the rare cases of suspected orbital varices.¹

Specific magnetic resonance (MR) protocols are outlined in Appendix B. MR examinations of the orbit are routinely done with a localized volume receiver coil that allows for visualization of both orbits and surrounding structures of interest such as the paranasal sinuses. A localized surface coil may be useful for higher-resolution studies of ocular or single orbit pathology that does not require visualization of more posterior structures. A standard volume head coil is used for studies of the visual pathways.

SLT should be ≤ 3 mm. A field of view of 8 to 10 cm with a localized receiver coil if only the eye is studied and 12 to 16 cm if the entire orbital area on both sides must be included as a region of interest.

All eye makeup, especially mascara and shadow, should be removed for MR studies. The head should be positioned so that the IOML is perpendicular to the tabletop; the head may be tilted back in a "chin up" position 10 degrees if the optic nerve and canal are of primary interest. Alternatively, a quick view can be done to choose the optimal plane. Oblique sagittal acquisitions in the plane of the optic nerve are occasionally useful for studying the optic nerve. Standard two-dimensional Fourier transform (2DFT), spin echo (SE) techniques are usually used; fast spin echo (FSE) sequences are used for T2-weighted images. Fat-nulling short TI inversion recovery (STIR) or true fat suppression pulse sequences are included to evaluate the orbit. Currently, frequency selective fat suppression is the most common fat suppression method employed. This suffers from sometimes critical susceptibility artifacts at the margins of the orbits and surrounding air-filled sinuses as well as along the course of the second through sixth cranial nerves as they lie along a well-aerated sphenoid sinus. This significant problem is discussed in Chapters 1 and 3 (Fig. 1.4).

This problem is magnified at 3 Tesla (T). Fat suppression is, however, uniformly superb in the midportion of the muscle cone for evaluation of pathologic changes involving the optic nerve and sheath and surrounding intraconal fat.

Another artifact encountered frequently in orbital MRI is chemical shift or water-fat shift (WFS). The artifact increases the higher the field strength. The WFS decreases with higher receiver bandwidth; however, this occurs at the expense of signal-to-noise ratio (Figs. 3.2 and 44.1). Although WFS will still be present, fat suppression techniques will render the WFS artifact invisible.

Imaging of the eye and orbit is also susceptible to motion artifacts, causing blurring and signal throughout the object and the background, most pronounced in the phase-encoding direction. Whereas a frequency-encoding step is acquired in the time of a single echo, this taking a few milliseconds, a phase-encoding step requires collection of all lines of k-space, each separated by repetition time that takes minutes. This explains why motion artifacts along the frequency-encoding direction are usually insignificant.

Intravenous paramagnetic contrast is used frequently. Magnetic resonance angiography (MRA) is used most fre-

quently for lesions of the cavernous sinus region or suspected cases of intracranial aneurysms and those of the ophthalmic artery or posterior communicating artery aneurysms in particular. MRA is usually done with a time of flight technique optimized for spatial resolution and background suppression; the technical aspects of this were detailed in Chapters 1 and 3.

Much diagnostic angiography in this anatomic region area is done by computed tomographic angiography (CTA) or MRA. Such studies should be done with as high a resolution technique as possible. In general, CTA should be done with 0.5- to 1.0-mm-thick sections. Bone subtraction CTA for this area, which is so intimately related to the central skull base, may prove more definitive than standard postprocessing techniques segmenting out bone from vessels. MRA of definitive quality is usually not possible on units operating under 1 T, but lower field units may produce studies sufficient for gross screening in selected circumstances.

Catheter angiography is reserved as a prelude to endovascular therapy and in high flow lesions and or when the smaller vessel angioarchitecture is important in medical decision making.

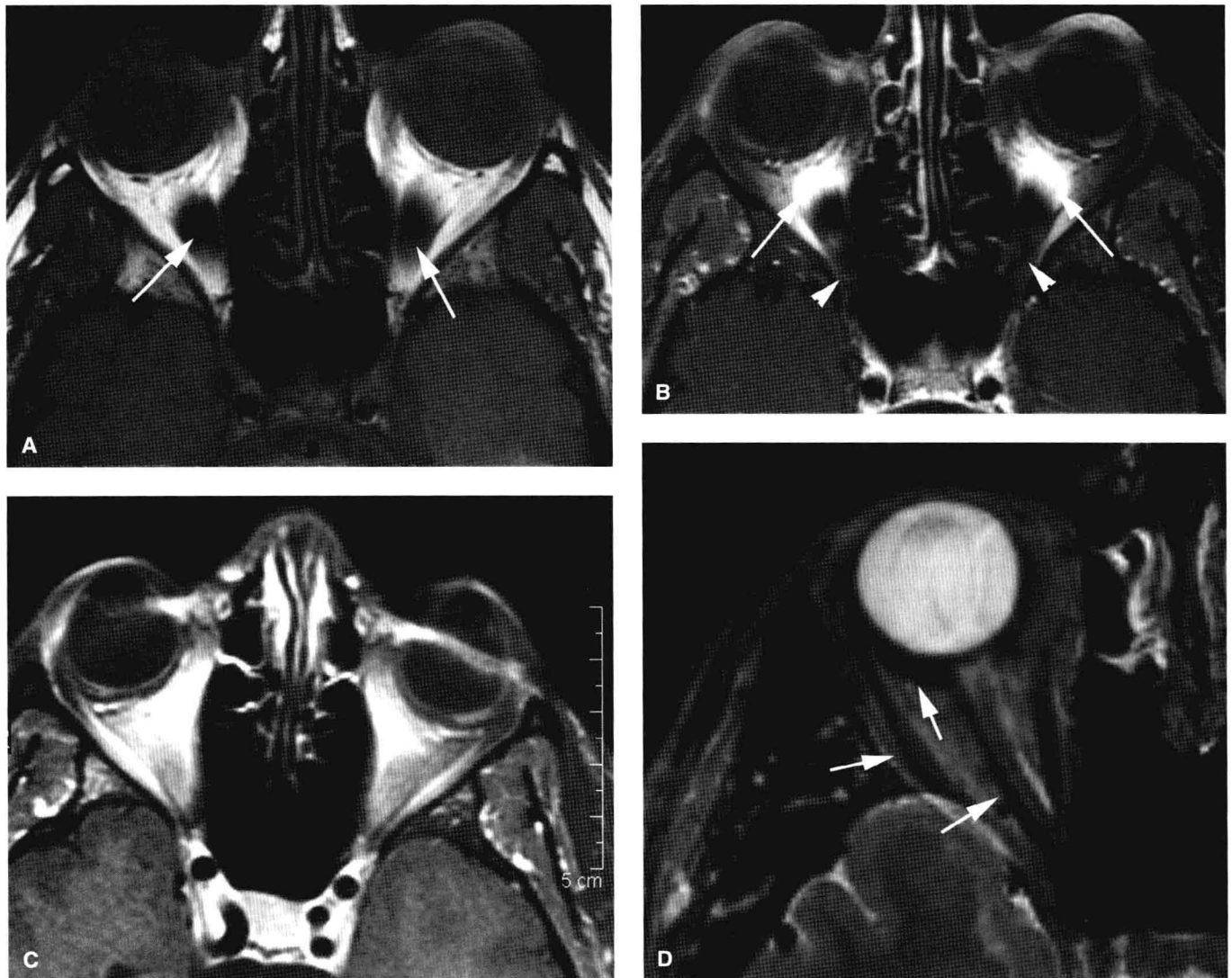


FIGURE 44.1. Artifacts as seen on magnetic resonance imaging of the orbit. A, B: The field distortion artifacts seen along the floor of the orbit (arrows in A) become much exaggerated in the fat suppression image (arrows in B). The field distortion artifacts that are much worse in (B) also obscure the anatomy at the orbital apex (arrowheads). C: Field distortion artifacts due to permanently placed eyeliner as a tattoo. D: Water-fat shift artifact (arrows).