

Jarrah Ali Al-Tubaikh

# Internal Medicine

An Illustrated  
Radiological Guide

Second Edition

 Springer

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Second Edition

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All illustrations marked with  were drawn by the author.

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## Preface

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It is a privilege to write another introduction to this book. When I wrote this book in Munich in 2010, I knew I was writing a book with an uncommon combination, linking internal medicine to radiology. I can still remember the comment of my mentor Prof. Maximilian Reiser after he saw the manuscript's content. He told me: "Why did you choose this layout and these disorders in particular?" I replied: "They are the most commonly encountered diseases daily in any busy medical department."

Over the years, I have noticed how the chapter's download numbers are increasing in Springer's official website. This reflects, to me at least, the continuous demand for such topics worldwide, especially among newly coming radiologists. They are the ones facing the fire daily in duties and emergency calls from physicians and surgeons around the clock. Moreover, radiology board teachings concentrate more and more over emergency cases, trauma cases, postoperative complications, and cancer screening and monitoring. I can assure you that almost 90% of any radiologist's daily routine lies within one or more of the past four areas in radiology. Internal medicine disorders and complications are considered extracurriculum, and maybe special interest radiology.

Within the past 5 years since the publication of this book, I have noticed a skyrocketing increase in the radiological referrals through my work in two different hospitals. Sometimes, we get radiological referral for simple disorders that do not need radiological investigation, for example, more and more demands for ultrasound to exclude inguinal hernias, ultrasound for lipoma, CT for acute appendicitis suspicion, polytrauma PAN-CT, etc. As a radiologist, it is always nice to be needed; however, technology can be a double-edged sword, reducing the clinical experience of both the referring clinician and the radiologist. Many physicians, unfortunately, started to use radiology as a substitute for clinical examination and judgment. Although such a phenomenon is not necessarily widely found, it is there, no doubt about it.

I am pleased that the first edition of my book has helped many physicians I know to change their perspective toward radiological investigations. I have been contacted by many physicians here in Kuwait and outside of Kuwait who thank me for detailing what they should order and how to

investigate certain diseases. In the same fashion, many radiologists are pleased with the variety of images that detail the medical disorders and facilitate their detection.

Based on the past positive feedbacks, I aimed to expand the range of the book by including three more medical fields, which are not directly linked to internal medicine but however are important to know. The second edition of this book exposes the reader to occupational medicine and toxicology, which are uncommonly seen as cases of attempting suicide and accidental intoxications. The radiological literature is filled with different radiological signs reported by many researches detailing intoxications, which have become of great interest since the data are accumulating over the years.

Chiropractic and osteopathic medicine are two important fields that emerged more than a hundred years ago, and they are rarely, if ever, mentioned or taught in medical schools or board-certification programs, especially in specialties related to the orthopedics or the spine. Although they are not considered part of conventional medicine, both specialties have very solid neuroanatomical and neuropathophysiological basis. Chiropractic medicine in particular, founded by D. D. Palmer and perfected by B. J. Palmer, uses radiology as an essential part of its diagnostic techniques. Their radiographic imaging techniques are known as "spinography." Personally, I have been using their radiographic techniques in an extensive fashion to diagnose lower back pain and kinological disorders. Their radiological imaging techniques proved to be very valid and very accurate in diagnosing lower back pain, especially lumbar spine MRI with almost normal findings. Unfortunately, such radiological knowledge is very rarely encountered in commonly known radiological journals. I sincerely hope that the reader will find the chapter of chiropractic medicine imaging interesting and informative.

Lastly, a very new medical specialty is arising within the past 5 years: energy and quantum medicine. Although it started with the book *What Is Life?* (1944) by the Nobel Prize winner Austrian physicist Erwin Schrödinger, many new medical and biological researchers are now using quantum physics to define life, including Robert O. Becker, Jerry Tennant, Hans-Peter Dürr, Fritz-Albert Popp, Mae-Wan Ho, and so many others. Their

works have now evolved to so many applications, emerging as unconventional therapies that use waves and frequencies to heal, such as pulsed electromagnetic field (PEMF) therapy, microcurrent therapy, phototherapy, and ultrasonic therapy. I have been personally using these devices for myself and my relatives and for special cases in the hospital, with a high success rate of controlling diseases and complications. I documented my findings on radiological images, imaging patients before and after such unconventional, energetic therapy to find out what has been changed in the disease status radiographically. I took the opportunity of

publishing the second edition of this book to introduce the reader to a whole new world that uses therapies based on biophysics rather than biochemistry for conventional, pharmacological medicine uses.

In conclusion, I hope for the reader an interesting journey through the book, and I hope that this book can help someone somewhere in the world save a life.

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# Contents

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1	<b>Gastroenterology</b> .....	1
1.1	<b>Liver Cirrhosis</b> .....	2
	Types of Liver Cirrhosis .....	2
1.2	<b>Fatty Liver Disease (Liver Steatosis)</b> .....	15
	Types of Liver Steatosis.....	15
1.3	<b>Recurrent Epigastric Pain</b> .....	17
	Gastroesophageal Reflux Disease .....	17
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	18
	Peptic Ulcer Disease.....	24
	Superior Mesenteric Artery Syndrome (Wilkie's Syndrome).....	27
	Median Arcuate Ligament Syndrome (Celiac Trunk Compression Syndrome/Dunbar's Syndrome) .....	29
	Recurrent Abdominal Pain of Childhood .....	29
1.4	<b>Inflammatory Bowel Diseases</b> .....	30
	Crohn's Disease.....	31
	Extraintestinal Manifestations of CD .....	31
	Ulcerative Colitis .....	36
	Extraintestinal Manifestations of UC .....	36
	Differences Between Ulcerative Colitis and Crohn's Disease .....	39
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	39
1.5	<b>Gastrointestinal Hemorrhage</b> .....	40
1.6	<b>Pancreatitis</b> .....	41
	Acute Pancreatitis.....	41
	<i>Differential</i> Diagnoses and Related Diseases .....	41
	Chronic Pancreatitis .....	45
1.7	<b>Jaundice</b> .....	48
	Kernicterus.....	50
	Obstructive Jaundice.....	50
	Bile Plug Syndrome .....	52
	Infectious Ascending Cholangitis.....	52
	Choledochal Web.....	53
1.8	<b>Diarrhea and Malabsorption</b> .....	54
	Normal Anatomy.....	54
	Pathophysiology .....	54
	Common Causes of Diarrhea and Their Mechanism of Action.....	54
	Sprue.....	55
	Whipple's Disease (Intestinal Lipodystrophy).....	56
	VIPoma (Werner–Morris Syndrome/Pancreatic Cholera) .....	57
2	<b>Neurology</b> .....	59
2.1	<b>Stroke (Brain Infarction)</b> .....	62
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	62
2.2	<b>Stroke Diseases and Syndromes</b> .....	66
	Moyamoya Disease (Progressive Occlusive Arteritis).....	66
	Cerebral Amyloid Angiopathy .....	68
	CADASIL (Cerebral Autosomal Dominant Arteriopathy with Subcortical Infarcts and Leukodystrophy).....	69
	MELAS (Mitochondrial Myopathy, Encephalopathy, Lactic Acidosis, and Stroke-Like Episodes) .....	70
	Cortical Laminar Necrosis.....	71
	Man-in-the-Barrel Syndrome .....	72
	Locked-In Syndrome.....	73
	Brain Stem Infarction Syndromes.....	73
	Subclavian Steal Syndrome .....	75

2.3	<b>Intracranial Hemorrhage</b> .....	76
	Epidural Hematoma .....	77
	Subdural Hematoma.....	78
	Subarachnoid Hemorrhage.....	79
	Intracerebral/Intraparenchymal Hemorrhage.....	80
	Intraventricular Hemorrhage .....	81
	Hemorrhage into Malignancy.....	82
2.4	<b>Meningitis</b> .....	82
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	84
2.5	<b>Encephalitis</b> .....	85
	Limbic Encephalitis .....	85
	Acute Demyelinating Encephalomyelitis (ADEM) .....	87
	Hashimoto's Encephalitis.....	88
	Rasmussen Encephalitis (Rasmussen Syndrome).....	89
	Measles Encephalitis.....	89
	Subacute Sclerosing Panencephalitis (SSPE) .....	90
	Japanese Encephalitis .....	90
	West Nile Encephalitis .....	90
	Tick-Borne Encephalitis (Spring–Summer Encephalitis) .....	90
	Murray Valley Encephalitis .....	91
	St. Louis Encephalitis .....	91
	Encephalitis Lethargica.....	91
2.6	<b>Epilepsy</b> .....	92
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	93
2.7	<b>Headache</b> .....	96
	Migraine.....	96
	Spontaneous Intracranial Hypotension (Schaltenbrand Syndrome) .....	97
	Idiopathic Intracranial Hypertension (Pseudotumor Cerebri).....	97
	Temporal (Giant) Cell Arteritis .....	98
2.8	<b>Multiple Sclerosis and Other Demyelinating Diseases</b> .....	99
	Multiple Sclerosis.....	99
	Neuromyelitis Optica (Devic's Syndrome) .....	101
	Marburg's Type MS .....	102
	Baló Concentric Sclerosis .....	103
	Schilder's Disease (Diffuse Myelinoclastic Sclerosis) .....	103
	Susac's Syndrome .....	103
	Guillain–Barré Syndrome .....	104
2.9	<b>Parkinsonism</b> .....	106
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	107
2.10	<b>Dementia</b> .....	108
	Alzheimer's Disease.....	108
	Vascular Dementia.....	109
	Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration (Pick's Disease).....	109
	Dementia with Lewy Bodies.....	111
	Progressive Supranuclear Palsy (Steele–Richardson–Olszewski Syndrome) .....	111
	Multiple System Atrophy (Shy–Drager Syndrome) .....	112
	Subcortical Arteriosclerotic Encephalopathy (Binswanger's Disease).....	113
	Prion Disease.....	114
2.11	<b>Huntington's Disease</b> .....	116
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	117
2.12	<b>Heat Stroke (Pancerebellar Syndrome)</b> .....	117
2.13	<b>Aphasia</b> .....	117
	Neural Control of Speech .....	118
	Aphasia Pathophysiology and Subtypes.....	118
2.14	<b>Squint (Strabismus)</b> .....	122
	Neural Control of Ocular Muscles.....	122
	Pathophysiology .....	122
	Related Disorders.....	122



2.15	<b>Nystagmus</b> .....	124
	Neural Control of Eye Movement .....	124
	Nystagmus Subtypes .....	125
2.16	<b>Erectile Dysfunction</b> .....	126
	Neural Control Human Sexual Behavior .....	126
	Pathophysiology .....	127
	Erectile Dysfunction Differential Diagnoses.....	127
3	<b>Endocrinology and Metabolism</b> .....	131
3.1	<b>Graves' Disease (Hyperthyroidism)</b> .....	132
3.2	<b>Hyperparathyroidism</b> .....	133
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	134
3.3	<b>Growth Hormone Diseases</b> .....	138
	Growth Hormone Insufficiency (Hypopituitarism).....	139
	Acromegaly and Gigantism .....	140
	Growth Hormone Insensitivity (Laron Syndrome) .....	143
	Carney's Complex .....	143
3.4	<b>Osteoporosis</b> .....	145
	Primary Osteoporosis .....	145
	Secondary Osteoporosis.....	148
	Regional Migratory Osteoporosis of the Hip (Bone Marrow Edema Syndrome).....	148
3.5	<b>Rickets and Osteomalacia</b> .....	149
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	150
3.6	<b>Scurvy</b> .....	152
3.7	<b>Fluorosis</b> .....	154
3.8	<b>Lead Poisoning (Plumbism)</b> .....	156
3.9	<b>Adrenal Glands Abnormalities</b> .....	157
	Cushing's Syndrome.....	157
	Conn's Syndrome (Hyperaldosteronism).....	158
	Addison's Disease.....	159
	Pheochromocytoma .....	160
	Neuroblastoma.....	161
	X-Linked Adrenoleukodystrophy.....	161
	Testicular Adrenal Rest Tumors .....	162
3.10	<b>Sex Hormone Abnormalities</b> .....	162
	Polycystic Ovary Disease (Stein–Leventhal Syndrome).....	163
	Precocious Puberty .....	163
	Van Wyk and Grumbach Syndrome .....	164
	Gynecomastia .....	165
	Intersex Disorders.....	166
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	168
3.11	<b>Sheehan Syndrome (Postpartum Hypopituitarism)</b> .....	170
4	<b>Nephrology</b> .....	173
4.1	<b>Hypertension</b> .....	174
	Renal Artery Stenosis.....	174
	Coarctation of the Aorta.....	178
	Polyarteritis Nodosa.....	179
	Takayasu Arteritis.....	180
	Midaortic Syndrome .....	181
	Preeclampsia.....	181
	Reversible Posterior Leukoencephalopathy Syndrome (Hypertensive Encephalopathy).....	182
	Nephroptosis (Floating Kidney) .....	183
	Riley–Day Syndrome (Familial Dysautonomia) .....	183
	Stafne's Bone Defect of the Mandible .....	183
	Hypertensive Heart Disease .....	183

4.2	<b>Polycystic Kidney Disease</b> .....	185
	Autosomal Dominant Polycystic Kidney Disease .....	185
	Autosomal Recessive Polycystic Kidney Disease .....	186
	Acquired Polycystic Kidney Disease.....	187
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	188
4.3	<b>Renal Failure</b> .....	188
	Examples of Renal Parenchymal Disorders According to Their Anatomical Involvement.....	188
5	<b>Cardiology</b> .....	193
5.1	<b>Acute Chest Pain</b> .....	194
	Acute Coronary Syndrome.....	194
	Acute Pulmonary Embolism.....	197
	Aortic Dissection.....	199
	Aortic Intramural Hematoma .....	201
	Penetrating Atherosclerotic Ulcer .....	202
5.2	<b>Diseases of the Great Vessels</b> .....	202
	Thoracic Aortic Aneurysm.....	202
	Pulmonary Hypertension .....	203
	Coral Reef Aorta .....	205
	Superior Vena Cava Syndrome .....	205
5.3	<b>Myocardial Diseases (Cardiomyopathies)</b> .....	206
	Hypertrophic Cardiomyopathy .....	206
	Dilated Cardiomyopathy .....	208
	Restrictive Cardiomyopathy .....	208
	Arrhythmogenic Right Ventricular Dysplasia.....	208
	Noncompaction Cardiomyopathy (Spongy Myocardium) .....	209
	Peripartum Cardiomyopathy (Cardiomyopathy of Pregnancy) .....	210
5.4	<b>Endocarditis</b> .....	210
	Infective Endocarditis.....	211
	Löffler's Endocarditis (Eosinophilic Endomyocardial Disease) .....	213
	Marantic Endocarditis (Nonbacterial Thrombotic Endocarditis) .....	214
5.5	<b>Pericardial Diseases</b> .....	215
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	215
6	<b>Rheumatology</b> .....	219
6.1	<b>Rheumatoid Arthritis</b> .....	220
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	220
6.2	<b>Ankylosing Spondylitis (Marie–Strümpell Disease)</b> .....	228
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	231
6.3	<b>Gout Arthritis</b> .....	232
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	233
6.4	<b>CPPD and HADD</b> .....	234
	Calcium Pyrophosphate Dihydrate Crystal Deposition Disease .....	234
	Hydroxyapatite Crystal Deposition Disease .....	235
6.5	<b>Osteoarthritis</b> .....	237
6.6	<b>Psoriasis and Psoriatic Arthritis</b> .....	241
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	241
6.7	<b>Baastrup's Disease (Spinout Process Impingement Syndrome)</b> .....	244
6.8	<b>Scheuermann's Disease (Juvenile Kyphosis Dorsalis)</b> .....	246
	Criteria for Scheuermann's Disease Diagnosis.....	247
6.9	<b>Sjögren Syndrome (Myoepithelial Sialadenitis)</b> .....	249
	Criteria to Diagnose SS Include .....	249
6.10	<b>Behçet Disease</b> .....	252
	Clinical Criteria to Diagnose BD Require a Combination of Three or More of the Following Findings.....	252

6.11	<b>Sharp Syndrome (Mixed Connective Tissue Disease)</b> .....	253
6.12	<b>Relapsing Polychondritis</b> .....	254
	Diagnostic Criteria for Relapsing Polychondritis .....	255
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	255
6.13	<b>Reflex Sympathetic Dystrophy</b> .....	260
6.14	<b>Polymyalgia Rheumatica</b> .....	264
6.15	<b>Systemic Lupus Erythematosus</b> .....	266
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	267
7	<b>Pulmonology</b> .....	273
7.1	<b>Pleural Diseases</b> .....	275
	Pleural Effusion.....	275
	Pneumothorax.....	278
	Pleural Calcification.....	280
7.2	<b>Alveolar Lung Diseases</b> .....	282
	Types of Alveolar Lung Diseases.....	282
	How to Differentiate Between Cardiogenic Edema from ARDS on Plain Chest Radiographs? .....	284
	Types of Pneumonias.....	284
7.3	<b>Atelectasis (Lung Collapse)</b> .....	287
	Types of Pulmonary Atelectases .....	287
7.4	<b>Sarcoidosis</b> .....	290
	Pulmonary Sarcoidosis.....	291
	Hepatic, Splenic, and Gastric Sarcoidosis.....	292
	Dermatological Sarcoidosis.....	292
	Cardiac Sarcoidosis.....	293
	Neurosarcoid.....	293
	Musculoskeletal Sarcoidosis.....	295
	Head and Neck Sarcoidosis.....	295
	Genitourinary Sarcoidosis.....	296
7.5	<b>Emphysema</b> .....	297
7.6	<b>Idiopathic Interstitial Pneumonias</b> .....	300
	Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis.....	300
	Nonspecific Interstitial Pneumonia.....	302
	Cryptogenic Organizing Pneumonia.....	302
	Respiratory Bronchiolitis-Associated Interstitial Lung Disease.....	303
	Desquamative Interstitial Pneumonia.....	303
	Lymphoid Interstitial Pneumonia.....	303
	Acute Interstitial Pneumonia (Hamman–Rich Syndrome).....	304
7.7	<b>Histiocytoses</b> .....	304
	Langerhans Cell Histiocytosis .....	305
	Infection-Associated Hemophagocytic Syndrome .....	307
	Omenn Syndrome .....	307
	Chédiak–Higashi Disease .....	307
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	307
	Rosai–Dorfman’s Disease (Sinus Histiocytosis).....	308
	Xanthoma Disseminatum (Montgomery Syndrome).....	308
	Erdheim–Chester Disease (Lipogranulomatosis).....	309
7.8	<b>Hemoptysis</b> .....	310
	Bronchopulmonary Sequestration.....	311
	Anomalous Systemic Artery Supplying Normal Lung Parenchyma .....	312
	Pulmonary Vasculitis.....	312
	Cardiac Bronchus .....	314
	Dieulafoy Disease.....	314
7.9	<b>Cystic Fibrosis (Mucoviscidosis)</b> .....	315
	Pulmonary Manifestations of Cystic Fibrosis .....	315
	Nasal and Sinus Manifestations of Cystic Fibrosis .....	316

	Gastrointestinal (GI) Manifestations of Cystic Fibrosis.....	317
	Genitourinary Manifestations of Cystic Fibrosis.....	319
	Musculoskeletal Manifestations of Cystic Fibrosis .....	319
7.10	<b>Sleep Apnea Syndromes</b> .....	321
	Obstructive Sleep Apnea Syndrome.....	321
	Upper Airway Resistance Syndrome.....	324
	Central Alveolar Apnea Syndrome (Ondine's Curse) .....	324
	Cheyne–Stokes Respiration.....	325
	Uncommon and Rare Causes of Sleep Apnea .....	325
8	<b>Dermatology</b> .....	327
8.1	<b>Scleroderma (Systemic Sclerosis)</b> .....	328
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	328
8.2	<b>Lipoid Proteinosis (Urbach–Wiethe Disease)</b> .....	332
8.3	<b>Dermatomyositis</b> .....	335
8.4	<b>Ochronosis (Alkaptonuria)</b> .....	337
8.5	<b>Lymphedema</b> .....	338
	Causes of Primary Lymphedemas .....	339
	Causes of Secondary Lymphedemas.....	339
	Differential Diagnoses of Lymphedema .....	339
8.6	<b>Neuropathic Itch (Pruritus)</b> .....	343
	Neural Control Pruritus .....	344
	Differential Diagnoses of Neuropathic Itch .....	344
9	<b>Hematology</b> .....	347
9.1	<b>Hemosiderosis and Hemochromatosis</b> .....	348
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	349
9.2	<b>β-Thalassemia Major (Cooley's Anemia)</b> .....	350
9.3	<b>Sickle Cell Disease</b> .....	353
	The Lungs in SCD .....	354
	The Skeletal System in SCD .....	354
	The Brain in SCD.....	354
	The Spleen in SCD.....	354
9.4	<b>Pernicious Anemia</b> .....	357
9.5	<b>Hemophilia</b> .....	358
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	359
9.6	<b>Lymphomas</b> .....	362
	Cotswold Staging of Lymphoma .....	363
	Criteria for Therapy Response Assessment.....	363
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	363
9.7	<b>Leukemia</b> .....	368
	Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia .....	368
	Acute Myeloblastic Leukemia .....	368
	Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia.....	369
	Chronic Myelogenous Leukemia .....	369
9.8	<b>Multiple Myeloma (Kahler's Disease)</b> .....	374
9.9	<b>Amyloidosis</b> .....	378
	Classification of Amyloidosis (Clinical-Based Classification).....	378
9.10	<b>Evans' Syndrome</b> .....	382
9.11	<b>Other Lymphatic Disorders</b> .....	383
	Castleman's Disease (Angiofollicular Lymph Node Hyperplasia) .....	383
	Kikuchi–Fujimoto Disease (Histiocytic Necrotizing Lymphadenitis).....	384
	Kimura's Disease.....	384
9.12	<b>Mastocytosis</b> .....	385
9.13	<b>Myelofibrosis and Myeloid Metaplasia</b> .....	387

10	<b>Diabetology</b> .....	391
10.1	<b>Diabetic Hand and Diabetic Foot</b> .....	393
	Diabetic Angiopathy.....	393
	Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy, Osteopathy, and Infections.....	394
	Diabetic Myonecrosis.....	397
	Diabetic Skin Changes and Infections.....	397
	The Role of Doppler Sonography in DM.....	400
	The Role of MRI in DM.....	401
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	406
10.2	<b>Diabetic Brain and Nervous System</b> .....	407
10.3	<b>Diabetic Syndromes</b> .....	408
	Alström Syndrome.....	408
	Bardet–Biedl Syndrome.....	409
	Leprechaunism (Donohue Syndrome).....	409
	Prader–Willi Syndrome.....	410
	Wolcott–Rallison Syndrome.....	410
	Wolfram Syndrome (DIDMOAD).....	411
	Rabson–Mendenhall Syndrome.....	411
10.4	<b>Diabetes Insipidus</b> .....	412
10.5	<b>Obesity, Gastric Banding, and Liposuction</b> .....	415
	Hormonal Obesity.....	415
	Syndromic/Pathologic Obesity.....	416
	Drug-Induced Obesity.....	419
	Gastric Banding.....	419
	Liposuction.....	422
10.6	<b>Lipoatrophic–Lipodystrophic Syndromes</b> .....	423
	Congenital Generalized Lipodystrophy (Seip–Berardinelli Syndrome).....	424
	Familial Partial Lipodystrophy (Dunnigan–Kobberling Syndrome).....	425
	Mandibuloacral Dysplasia.....	425
	Acquired Generalized Lipoatrophy (Lawrence–Seip Syndrome).....	425
	Acquired Partial Lipoatrophy (Barraquer–Simons Syndrome).....	426
	Parry–Romberg Syndrome (Progressive Facial Hemiatrophy).....	426
10.7	<b>Diabetic Nephropathy</b> .....	427
	Diabetic Nephropathy.....	427
	Renal Papillary Necrosis.....	428
	Diabetic Cystopathy (Neurogenic Bladder).....	430
	Calcification of the Vas Deferens.....	430
	Emphysematous Cystitis.....	430
	Emphysematous Pyelonephritis.....	431
	Xanthogranulomatous Pyelonephritis.....	432
10.8	<b>Lipomatosis</b> .....	432
	Intestinal Lipomatosis.....	432
	Pelvic Lipomatosis.....	434
	Epidural Lipomatosis.....	434
	Encephalocraniocutaneous Lipomatosis Syndrome (Haberland Syndrome).....	434
	Lipomatous Hypertrophy of the Interatrial Septum.....	435
10.9	<b>Hypoglycemia</b> .....	436
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases.....	437
11	<b>Infectious Diseases and Tropical Medicine</b> .....	441
11.1	<b>Fever</b> .....	443
11.2	<b>Giardiasis</b> .....	444
	<i>Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases</i> .....	444
11.3	<b>Amebiasis</b> .....	444
	Intestinal Amebiasis.....	445
	Hepatic Amebiasis.....	446

	Thoracic Amebiasis .....	447
	Brain Amebiasis .....	447
11.4	<b>Leprosy (Hansen Disease)</b> .....	448
	Skin Involvement .....	448
	Nerve Involvement .....	448
	Eye Involvement .....	448
	Mucosal Involvement .....	449
	Bone Involvement .....	449
	Post-therapy Leprosy .....	449
11.5	<b>Toxoplasmosis</b> .....	451
11.6	<b>Brucellosis (Malta Fever)</b> .....	454
11.7	<b>Neurocysticercosis</b> .....	455
11.8	<b>Ascariasis</b> .....	458
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases .....	458
11.9	<b>Guinea Worm Disease (Dracunculiasis)</b> .....	459
11.10	<b>Hydatid Cyst (Echinococcosis)</b> .....	461
	<i>Echinococcus granulosus</i> Disease .....	461
	Grading of the Liver Lesions by <i>E. granulosus</i> .....	461
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases .....	465
	<i>Echinococcus alveolaris</i> Disease .....	465
11.11	<b>Chagas' Disease (American Trypanosoma)</b> .....	466
	Acute Chagas' Disease .....	467
	Subacute Chagas' Disease .....	467
	Latent Chagas' Disease .....	467
	Chronic Chagas' Disease .....	468
11.12	<b>Schistosomiasis (Bilharziasis)</b> .....	468
	<i>Schistosoma</i> Life Cycle .....	468
	Schistosomiasis by <i>S. japonicum</i> .....	469
	Schistosomiasis by <i>S. mansoni</i> .....	469
	Schistosomiasis by <i>S. haematobium</i> .....	471
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases .....	472
11.13	<b>Tuberculosis</b> .....	473
	Pulmonary TB .....	473
	Pleural TB .....	475
	Miliary TB .....	476
	Abdominal TB .....	477
	Hepatic TB .....	477
	Genitourinary TB .....	478
	Musculoskeletal TB .....	479
	Tuberculous Lymphadenitis .....	481
	Dermatological TB .....	482
11.14	<b>Typhoid Fever (Salmonellosis)</b> .....	483
11.15	<b>Malaria</b> .....	485
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases .....	485
11.16	<b>Animal Bites and Stings</b> .....	486
	Rabies .....	487
	Viper Bite .....	488
	Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases .....	488
	Hymenoptera Stings .....	488
11.17	<b>Filariasis</b> .....	490
11.18	<b>Most Common Infections Causing Human Filariasis</b> .....	490
11.19	<b>Fever of Unknown Origin</b> .....	492
12	<b>Occupational Medicine and Toxicology</b> .....	495
12.1	<b>Medications Toxicity</b> .....	496
	Antibiotics .....	496
	Metformin (Glucophage, Oral Hypoglycemics) .....	497
	Methotrexate .....	497

	Hypervitaminosis A .....	498
	Anticonvulsants.....	499
	Amiodarone Toxicity .....	500
	Cyclosporine A.....	501
	Glucocorticoids .....	501
	Gadolinium-Based Contrast Media .....	502
12.2	<b>Drugs of Abuse</b> .....	503
	Cocaine and Heroin (Opioids).....	503
	Alcohol .....	504
	Toluene Toxicity.....	505
	Methanol Toxicity.....	505
	Amphetamines Abuse.....	506
	Marijuana.....	506
	Butane Poisoning.....	506
12.3	<b>Gases, Inorganic, and Chemical Poisoning</b> .....	507
	Arsenic Poisoning .....	507
	Mercury Poisoning .....	508
	Chronic Beryllium Disease (Berylliosis).....	509
	Pneumoconiosis.....	509
	Insecticides and Rodenticides Poisoning.....	509
	Carbon Monoxide Poisoning.....	510
	Manganese Poisoning .....	511
	Thallium Poisoning (Thallositoxosis).....	511
	Methyl Bromide Poisoning .....	511
	Tattoos.....	512
12.4	<b>Botanical, Environmental, and Organic Poisoning</b> .....	512
	Hypersensitivity Lung Diseases (Hypersensitivity Pneumonitis).....	512
	Cyanide Poisoning.....	513
	Botulism.....	513
12.5	<b>Drug-Induced Radiological Changes</b> .....	514
13	<b>Chiropractic Medicine</b> .....	517
13.1	<b>The Human Fascia</b> .....	519
13.2	<b>Vertebral Malalignment (Subluxation) Syndromes</b> .....	520
	Anatomy .....	522
	Somatovisceral Malalignment Symptoms .....	522
13.3	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	523
13.4	<b>Facet Joint Syndrome</b> .....	523
	Basic Anatomy .....	523
	Pathophysiology .....	525
13.5	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	525
13.6	<b>Myofascial Pain Syndrome</b> .....	526
	Anatomy .....	526
	Pathophysiology .....	527
	Some Known Symptomatology of Myofascial Trigger Points Origin .....	527
13.7	<b>Imaging of a Case Study</b> .....	528
13.8	<b>Spinal Transitional Zone Syndromes</b> .....	528
	Basic Anatomy .....	529
	Pathophysiology .....	529
13.9	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	531
	Lumbosacral Transitional Zone Syndrome .....	531
13.10	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	532
13.11	<b>The Dentate Ligament–Cord Distortion Phenomenon</b> .....	533
13.12	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	536
13.13	<b>Cervicogenic Headache</b> .....	538
	Anatomy .....	538
	Pathophysiology .....	538

13.14	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	541
13.15	<b>Cervicogenic Vertigo and Tinnitus</b> .....	542
	Anatomy .....	542
	Pathophysiology .....	543
13.16	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	543
13.17	<b>Whiplash-Associated Disorder</b> .....	546
	Basic Anatomy .....	546
	Pathophysiology .....	546
13.18	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	547
13.19	<b>Thoracic Outlet Syndrome</b> .....	549
	Basic Anatomy .....	549
	Pathophysiology .....	549
13.20	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	550
13.21	<b>Upper and Lower Crossed Syndromes</b> .....	551
13.22	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	552
13.23	<b>Lumbago</b> .....	553
13.24	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	554
13.25	<b>Shin Splint Syndrome</b> .....	554
13.26	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	556
13.27	<b>Cuboid Syndrome</b> .....	558
13.28	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	558
13.29	<b>Scoliosis, Kyphosis, and Lordosis</b> .....	559
13.30	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	560
13.31	<b>Sacroiliac Joint Dysfunction</b> .....	561
	Basic Anatomy .....	561
	Pathophysiology .....	562
13.32	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	562
13.33	<b>Psoas Syndrome</b> .....	565
	Basic Anatomy .....	565
	Pathophysiology .....	565
13.34	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	566
13.35	<b>Piriformis Muscle Syndrome</b> .....	566
	Basic Anatomy .....	567
	Pathophysiology .....	567
13.36	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	567
13.37	<b>Coccydynia</b> .....	567
	Anatomy .....	567
	Pathophysiology .....	568
13.38	<b>Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases</b> .....	569
13.39	<b>Imaging Signs</b> .....	569
14	<b>Energy Medicine</b> .....	573
14.1	<b>Microcurrent Therapy</b> .....	574
	Basic Electrical Healing Physiology .....	574
	Microcurrent Therapy Benefits .....	575
	Microcurrent Therapy Healing Mechanisms .....	575
	Microcurrent Healing Cases.....	577
14.2	<b>Pulsed Electromagnetic Field Therapy</b> .....	577
	Pulsed Electromagnetic Fields (PEMFs) .....	578
	Pulsed Electromagnetic Fields (PEMFs) and Body Metabolism .....	578
	PEMF Therapy Healing Cases .....	583
	<b>Further Reading</b> .....	588
	<b>Index</b> .....	591



# Gastroenterology

## 1.1 Liver Cirrhosis – 2

Types of Liver Cirrhosis – 2

## 1.2 Fatty Liver Disease (Liver Steatosis) – 15

Types of Liver Steatosis – 15

## 1.3 Recurrent Epigastric Pain – 17

Gastroesophageal Reflux Disease – 17

Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases – 18

Peptic Ulcer Disease – 24

Superior Mesenteric Artery Syndrome (Wilkie's Syndrome) – 27

Median Arcuate Ligament Syndrome (Celiac Trunk Compression Syndrome/Dunbar's Syndrome) – 29

Recurrent Abdominal Pain of Childhood – 29

## 1.4 Inflammatory Bowel Diseases – 30

Crohn's Disease – 31

Extraintestinal Manifestations of CD – 31

Ulcerative Colitis – 36

Extraintestinal Manifestations of UC – 36

Differences Between Ulcerative Colitis and Crohn's Disease – 39

Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases – 39

## 1.5 Gastrointestinal Hemorrhage – 40

## 1.6 Pancreatitis – 41

Acute Pancreatitis – 41

*Differential* Diagnoses and Related Diseases – 41

Chronic Pancreatitis – 45

## 1.7 Jaundice – 48

Kernicterus – 50

Obstructive Jaundice – 50

Bile Plug Syndrome – 52

Infectious Ascending Cholangitis – 52

Choledochal Web – 53

## 1.8 Diarrhea and Malabsorption – 54

Normal Anatomy – 54

Pathophysiology – 54

Common Causes of Diarrhea and Their Mechanism of Action – 54

Sprue – 55

Whipple's Disease (Intestinal Lipodystrophy) – 56

VIPoma (Werner–Morris Syndrome/Pancreatic Cholera) – 57

## 1.1 Liver Cirrhosis

Liver cirrhosis is a term used to describe the histological development of regenerative hepatic nodules surrounded by fibrous bands in response to chronic liver injury.

Cirrhosis is an advanced, diffuse stage of liver injury, which is characterized by replacement of the normal liver parenchyma by collagenous scar (fibrosis). Cirrhosis is accompanied by diffuse distortion of the hepatic vasculature and architecture, resulting in vascular disturbance between the portal veins and the hepatic veins, plus porta hepatic fibrosis. The major cirrhosis consequences are hepatic function impairment, increased intrahepatic resistance (portal hypertension), and the development of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC).

### Types of Liver Cirrhosis

- *Laennec's cirrhosis* is a type of micronodular liver cirrhosis that is seen in patients with malnutrition, alcoholism, or chronic liver steatosis.
- *Posthepatitic cirrhosis* is a micro- and/or macronodular liver cirrhosis commonly seen in patients with hepatitis C virus or uncommonly B virus.
- *Postnecrotic cirrhosis* is macronodular liver cirrhosis that can arise due to fulminating hepatitis infection or due to toxic liver injury.
- *Primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC) (vanishing bile duct syndrome)* is an autoimmune disease of unknown origin characterized by progressive intrahepatic bile duct, nonsuppurative inflammation, and destruction by T-cell lymphocytes, which leads later on to micronodular liver cirrhosis, hepatomegaly, with greenish-stain liver on gross examination due to bile retention. PBC occurs in middle-aged women in up to 90% of cases. In symptomatic PBC, patients may complain of jaundice in the first 2–3 years, which develops later into portal hypertension and hepatosplenomegaly. In the asymptomatic PBC, the only symptom is abnormal serum hepatobiliary enzyme levels. PBC is classified pathologically into four main stages. *Florid duct stage (stage I PBC)* is characterized by vanishing intrahepatic duct and ductopenia due to destruction of the intrahepatic bile duct basement membrane and cellular bodies by lymphocytes. *Ductular proliferation stage (stage II)* is characterized by small bile ducts proliferation in an attempt to compensate the obstruction of the large bile ducts. The liver characteristically contains few large ducts and many small bile ducts. *Scarring (stage III)* is characterized by fibrosis and intrahepatic collagen deposition. *Hepatic cirrhosis (stage IV)* is characterized by architectural hepatic disruption and accumulation of the bile within the hepatocytes. The disease is diagnosed by liver biopsy, plus detecting antimitochondrial antibodies (AMA) in the serum.
- *Secondary biliary cirrhosis* arises due to extrahepatic obstruction of the biliary tree, causing bile stagnation within the liver. This type can be seen in cases of congenital bile duct atresia, chronic biliary stone obstruction, or pancreatic head carcinoma. The inflammation in the secondary biliary cirrhosis arises due to secondary infection of the bile, leading to neutrophilic acute inflammatory reaction. In contrast, PBC is a chronic, autoimmune disease with lymphatic and plasma cell inflammatory reaction.
- *Cirrhosis due to metabolic disease* is seen in glycogen storage diseases,  $\alpha$ 1-antitrypsin deficiency disease, hemochromatosis, and Wilson's disease. All the metabolic cirrhotoses are micronodular except Wilson's disease (macronodular).
- *Cirrhosis due to circulatory disorders* is observed in patients with venous congestion due to right-sided heart failure, veno-occlusive disease due to herbal medicine, and Budd–Chiari syndrome. In congestive heart failure, chronic hepatic venous congestion may lead to intrahepatic hypertension, which results in sinusoidal congestion, pressure atrophy, and necrosis of pericentral parenchymal cells. Later, there is a collapse of the necrotic cells with perisinusoidal and periportal collagen deposition (fibrosis) extending to the central veins. These changes are known as “nutmeg liver” on postmortem liver examination.
 

Cirrhotic nodules are parenchymal nodules found in cirrhotic liver (seen in 25% of imaging scans only), and they are divided into three main types:

  - *Regenerative nodules* represent normal proliferation of liver parenchyma. The development of regenerative nodules can be explained pathologically by cellular repair mechanism known as “cell-to-cell and cell-to-matrix interaction.” Cell-to-cell interaction describes the process of cellular inhibition when two cells touch each other (e.g., skin wound healing). Cell-to-matrix interaction describes the process of cellular proliferation inhibition when the regenerated cells touch the tissue matrix (connective tissue frame). In acute hepatitis, if the connective tissue matrix is preserved, then damage to the liver can be completely repaired without architectural distortion or residuals. In contrast, in chronic hepatitis, both the liver parenchyma and the connective tissue frame are damaged. This matrix damage results in random liver cell regeneration without cell-to-matrix cellular inhibition, which will result in regenerative liver nodule formation with fibrosis in between (liver cirrhosis). These nodules do not function normally because the relationship with the portal vein, hepatic artery, and bile ducts (porta hepatis) is lost.
  - *Dysplastic nodules* are regenerative premalignant nodules.
  - *HCC nodules* are nodules composed of neoplastic cells and are seen commonly in patients with cirrhosis due to hepatitis C virus.



■ Fig. 1.1.1 An illustration shows the clinical pathological picture of Dupuytren's contracture with illustrated thickening of the palmar aponeurosis (a) and bilateral plantar nodules representing the clinical manifestation of Ledderhose disease (b)

Patients with cirrhosis are asymptomatic, unless they develop signs of liver failure. Signs of liver failure include yellowish discoloration of the skin (jaundice), development of central arteriole dilatation with radiating vessels on the face (spider nevi), white nail bed due to hypoalbuminemia, painful proliferative arthropathy of long bones, gynecomastia and palmar erythema due to reduced estradiol degradation by the liver, hypogonadism (mainly in cirrhosis due to alcoholism and hemochromatosis), anorexia and wasting (>50 % of patients), and diabetes mellitus type 2 (up to 30 % of patients). Some patients with liver cirrhosis may develop palmar fibromatosis.

*Fibromatosis* is a pathological condition characterized by local proliferation of fibroblasts which manifests clinically as soft-tissue thickening. Fibromatosis can affect the palmar aponeurosis (*Dupuytren's contracture*), causing limited hand extension and possibly bony erosions (■ Fig. 1.1.1). Palmar fibromatosis that occurs in a bilateral fashion and is associated with bilateral plantar fibromatosis is called *Ledderhose disease* (■ Fig. 1.1.1). Other forms of fibromatosis in the body include the male genital fibromatosis (*Peyronie's disease*) and fibromatosis of the dorsum of the interphalangeal joint (*Garrod's nodes*).

The development of portal hypertension can result in splenomegaly, ascites, and prominent paraumbilical veins (caput medusae). Multiple intra- and extrahepatic portosystemic collaterals develop to compensate the loss of the large portal venous flow that cannot be maintained longer due to increased intrahepatic venous pressure in portal hypertension. Intrahepatic portosystemic shunts occur when the portal vein communicates with the hepatic vein in or on the surface of the liver through a dilated venous system. In contrast, extrahepatic portosystemic shunts occur when the intrahepatic portal vein runs toward the outside of the liver communicating with the systemic veins. *Cruveilhier–Baumgarten syndrome* is a condition characterized by patent paraumbilical vein as a consequence of portal hypertension, which occurs as a part of portosystemic shunts. Paraesophageal and paragastric varices develop in patients with advanced liver cirrhosis and can cause life-threatening upper gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding.

*Hepatic encephalopathy* is a potentially reversible complication seen in advanced liver failure and cirrhosis characterized by motor, cognitive, and psychiatric central nervous system (CNS) dysfunction. Manifestations of hepatic encephalopathy include daytime deterioration (grade 1), disorientation in space (grade 2), or coma (grade 3).

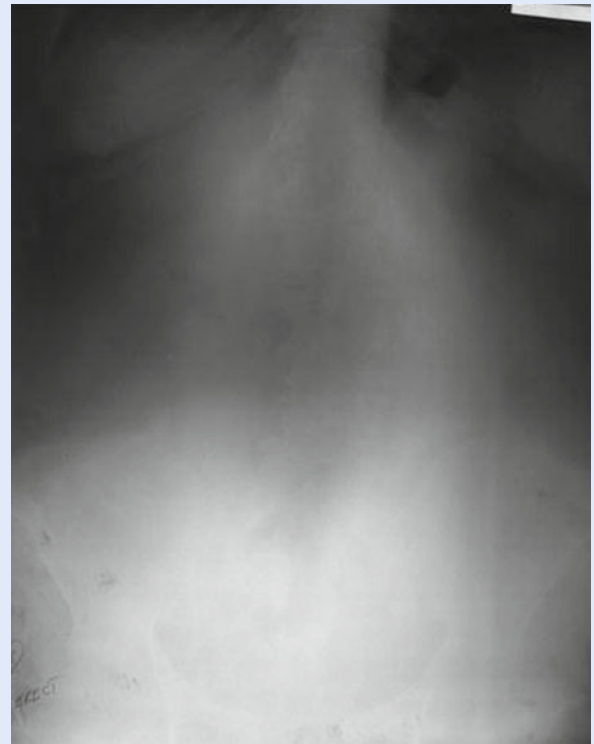
Flapping tremor (asterixis) may be seen in patients with hepatic encephalopathy. The neurological manifestations of hepatic encephalopathy are due to inability of the liver to detoxify neurotoxins such as ammonia, phenols, short-chained fatty acids, and other toxic metabolites within the blood. These toxic metabolites cross the blood–brain barrier and deposits within the basal ganglia causing encephalopathy. Hepatic encephalopathy can be induced or exaggerated by sedation, high-protein diet, GI hemorrhage, and the use of diuretics.

*Hepatopulmonary syndrome* is an end-stage liver disease characterized by pulmonary failure, and it is seen in 15–20% of cirrhosis patients. The diagnosis of hepatopulmonary syndrome requires the following three criteria: chronic liver disease, increased alveolar–arterial gradient on room air, and evidence of intrapulmonary vascular dilatation. Patients with hepatopulmonary syndrome present with liver cirrhosis with hypoxia (30% of decompensated liver patients). This hypoxemia occurs due to pulmonary vascular dilatation and subsequent ventilation–perfusion mismatch due to decreased hepatic clearance or increased hepatic productions of circulating cytokines and chemical mediators (e.g., nitric oxide). Hypoxic respiratory failure can occur with cases of massive liver necrosis or fulminant hepatic failure.

*Hepatitis C virus-related arthritis (HCVrA)* may be seen in patients with liver cirrhosis due to hepatitis C virus. HCVrA affects 4% of patients with HCV liver cirrhosis, and it has two forms: a frequent symmetrical polyarthritis affecting small joints similar to rheumatoid arthritis in a lesser form and an intermittent mono-/oligoarthritis that involves medium- and large-sized joints.

### Signs on Plain Radiographs

- *Hepatic hydrothorax* is defined as large pleural effusion in a cirrhotic liver disease patient in the absence of cardiac or pulmonary disease. Hepatic hydrothorax is seen in 10% of patients. The pleural effusion can be right sided (67%), left sided (17%), or bilateral (17%).
- Hepatopulmonary syndrome is visualized on plain chest radiographs as reticulonodular interstitial pattern located mainly at the lung bases (46–100% of cases).
- Noncardiogenic pulmonary edema can be seen in 37% in patients with fulminant hepatic failure.
- Esophageal varices may manifest on chest radiographs as focal lateral displacement of the mediastinum.
- On abdominal radiographs, ascites is detected as loss of the abdominal gases and the normal psoas shadows visualization. The abdomen structures are blurry due to the overlying fluid shadow (■ Fig. 1.1.2).

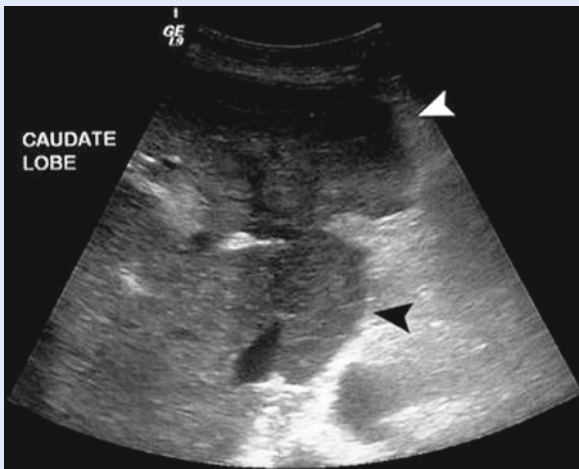


■ Fig. 1.1.2 Plain abdominal radiograph in a patient with massive ascites shows complete blurry abdomen

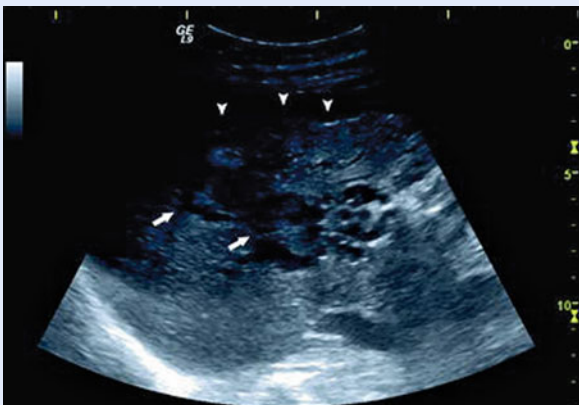


### Signs on US

- Cirrhosis is detected as irregular nodular liver contour with inhomogeneous echo-texture. Liver right lobe atrophy with enlarged caudate lobe is a typical finding (caudate lobe/right lobe ratio  $>0.65$ ) (■ Figs. 1.1.3 and 1.1.4).
- Mixed hypoechoic and hyperechoic texture of the liver parenchyma is detected when regenerative nodules are found.
- Signs of portal hypertension include splenomegaly ( $>12$  cm), ascites, and dilated venous collaterals.



■ Fig. 1.1.3 Transverse ultrasound image of a patient with liver cirrhosis shows atrophied left lobe (white arrowhead), with hypertrophied caudate lobe (black arrowhead)



■ Fig. 1.1.4 Transverse ultrasound image of a patient with liver cirrhosis due to hepatitis C virus shows irregular liver contour (arrowheads), with two intrahepatic liver hypoechoic masses, which were diagnosed on liver triphasic CT scan later as hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) masses (arrows)

### Signs on Doppler Sonography

- **Hepatic veins:** hepatic veins join immediately the inferior vena cava, which is in direct communication with the left atrium. Due to the previous anatomical fact, the normal hepatic veins waveform is “triphasic,” because it is affected by left atrial cardiac motion and Valsalva maneuver (■ Fig. 1.1.5). In patients with cirrhosis, the triphasic flow pattern is converted into biphasic and monophasic depending on the severity of cirrhosis.
- **Portal vein:** it supplies 70–80% of the incoming blood to the liver, and the hepatic artery supplies only 20–30%. The normal portal venous flow is always toward the liver (hepatopetal). The fasting mean velocity of normal portal vein is approximately 18 cm/s (range, 13–23 cm/s<sup>3</sup>), and the flow pattern is normally flat or monophasic (■ Fig. 1.1.6). Mildly pulsatile portal venous flow pattern can be seen normally in tall, thin patients (■ Fig. 1.1.7). Portal hypertension is detected as hepatic blood flow away from the liver (hepatofugal) due to increased intrahepatic venous flow resistance. Portal vein diameter ( $>13$  mm) and splenic vein diameter ( $>10$  mm) are other signs of portal hypertension. Hepatic vein thrombosis can be seen in patients with HCC, and it is visualized as partial or complete loss of flow signal within the portal vein.
- **Hepatic artery:** the normal hepatic artery in a fasting patient has a systolic velocity of approximately 30–40 cm/s and a diastolic velocity of 10–15 cm/s. The flow pattern normally is monophasic and has low resistance, with high diastolic flow (■ Fig. 1.1.8). The resistance index (RI), which is defined as the maximal systolic velocity minus the end-diastolic velocity divided by the maximal velocity, varies normally in a fasting patient from 0.55 to 0.81. There is increase in hepatic artery RI after meal or with age in a healthy person. The hepatic artery diastolic velocity is less than the peak portal vein velocity, and if the hepatic diastolic velocity is greater than the portal vein, one should suspect hepatic parenchymal disease. Also, the RI increases in patients with cirrhosis, and the after meal variation is absent (■ Fig. 1.1.9).
- **Cruveilhier–Baumgarten syndrome** is detected as a patent vein located at the umbilicus with typical monophasic venous flow (■ Fig. 1.1.10). The vein can be followed by the probe until identifying its relation to the intrahepatic portal veins passing through the ligamentum teres (■ Fig. 1.1.11).

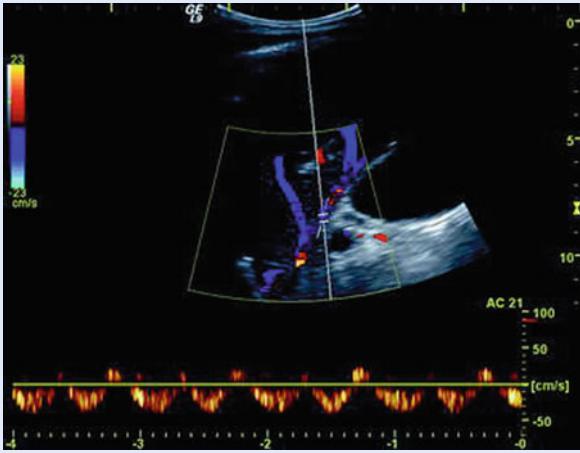


Fig. 1.1.5 Color Doppler waveform spectrum of the hepatic veins shows the normal venous triphasic pattern

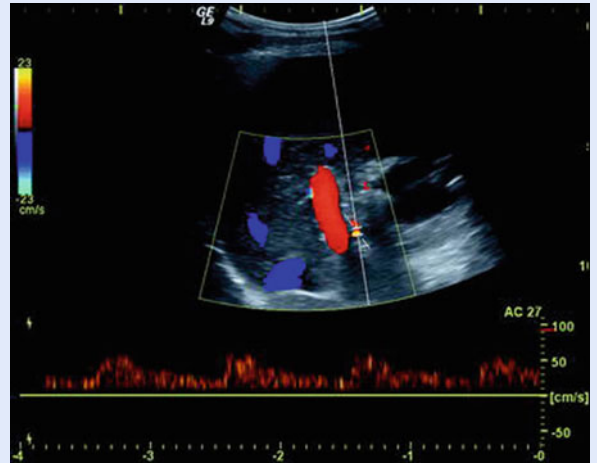


Fig. 1.1.8 Color Doppler waveform spectrum of the hepatic artery shows the normal monophasic, low-resistance with high diastolic flow arterial pattern

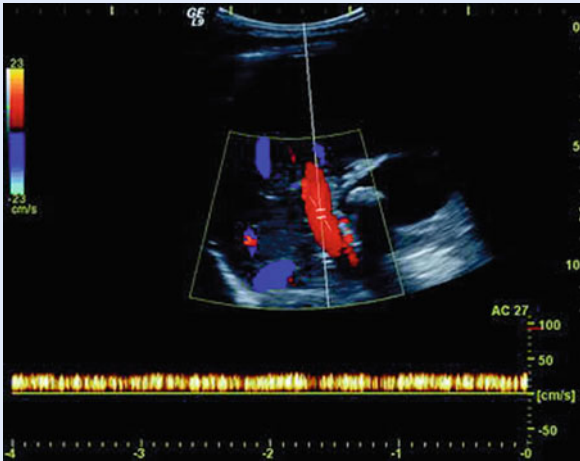


Fig. 1.1.6 Color Doppler waveform spectrum of the portal vein shows the normal monophasic pattern

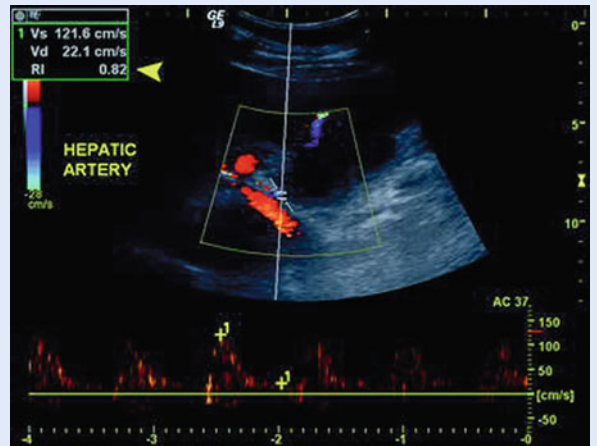


Fig. 1.1.9 Hepatic artery color Doppler waveform spectrum in a patient with alcoholic liver cirrhosis shows high RI (arrowhead)

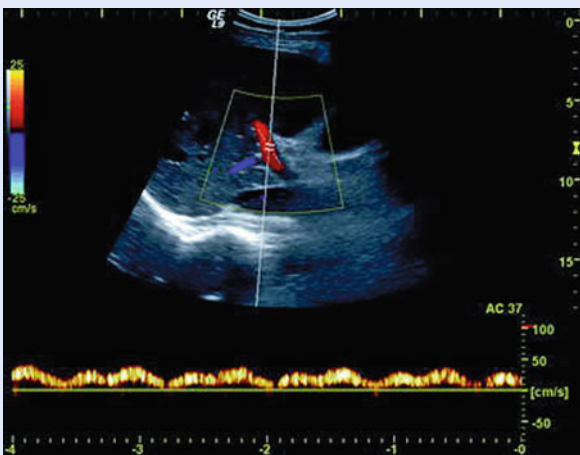
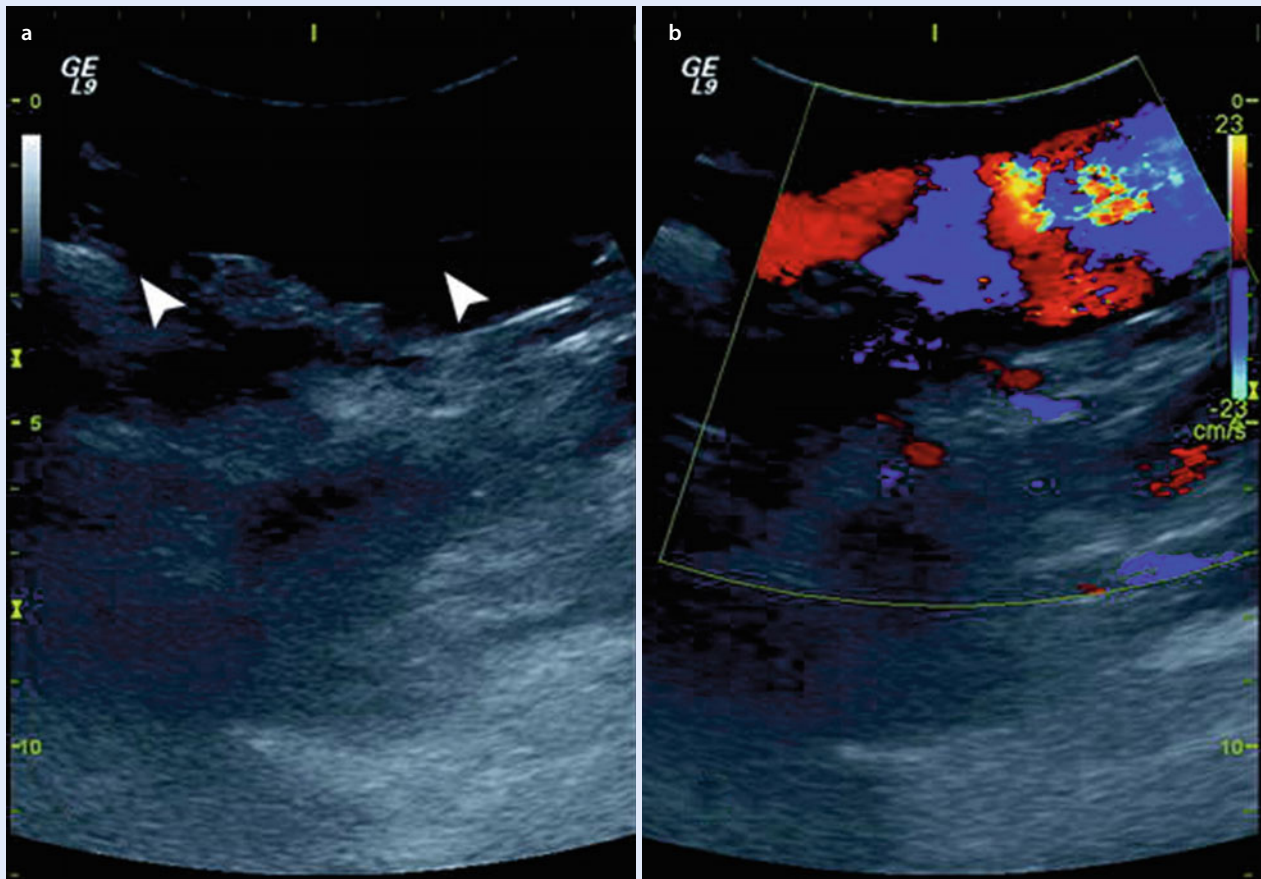
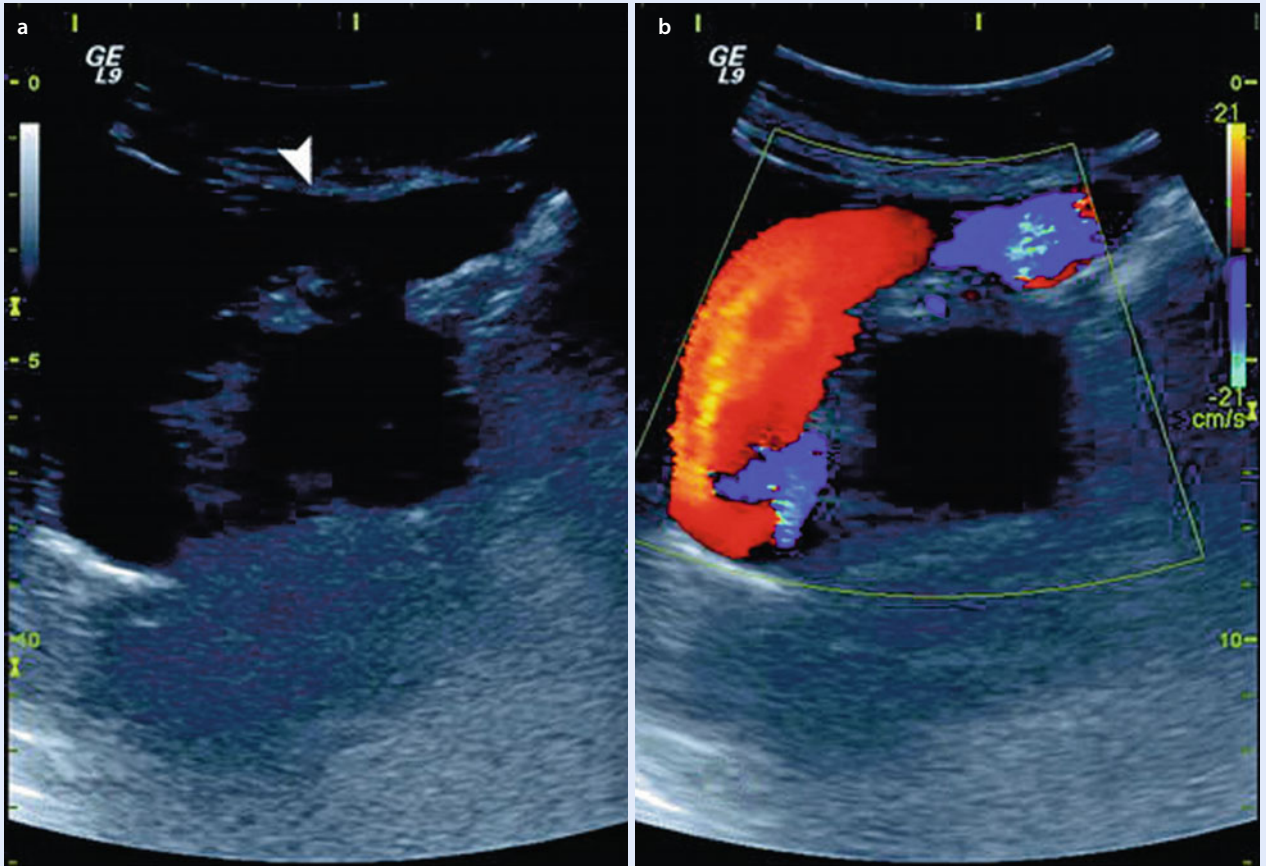


Fig. 1.1.7 Color Doppler waveform spectrum of the portal vein shows the physiologic portal vein pulsation in athletic tall patient who came for a routine abdominal ultrasound checkup



■ Fig. 1.1.10 Color Doppler sonography image shows patent umbilical vein at the level of the umbilicus (*arrowheads*) in a patient with chronic liver cirrhosis and Cruveilhier–Baumgarten syndrome

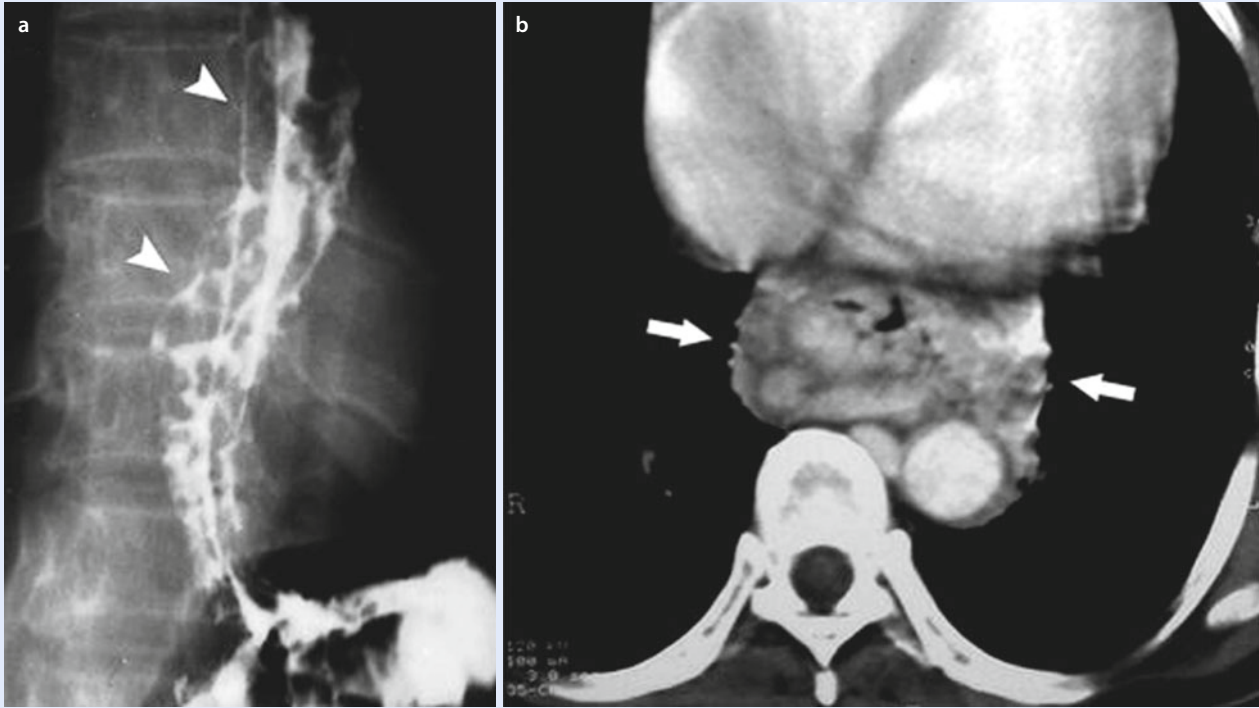


■ Fig. 1.1.11 The same patient shows the connection of the patent umbilical vein to the dilated portal vein through the ligamentum teres (*arrowhead*)



### Signs on Barium Swallow

- Esophageal varices are visualized as serpiginous filling defects in the esophagus, usually located in the lower third (■ Fig. 1.1.12).



■ Fig. 1.1.12 Barium swallow (a) and axial thoracic-enhanced CT (b) images in two patients with esophageal varices. In (a), the varices are visualized as serpiginous filling defects in the lower esophagus (arrowheads). In (b), esophageal varices are visualized as multiple paraesophageal enhanced tubular densities adjacent to the esophageal wall (arrows)

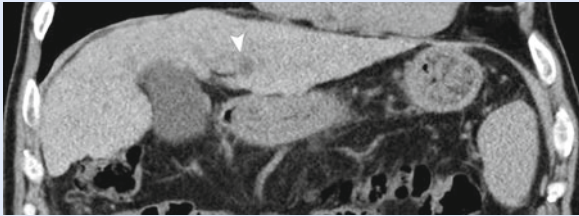
### Signs on CT

- Cirrhotic liver appears small (<15 cm), with atrophied right lobe and enlarged caudate and left lobes. The liver contour is nodular and irregular due to parenchymal atrophy and nodular regeneration (■ Fig. 1.1.13).
- *Regenerative nodules* are divided into micronodules (<3 mm in diameter) and macronodules (>3 mm in diameter). They do not enhance in arterial phase because they are supplied mainly by portal vein and enhance like a normal liver parenchyma. Occasionally, they may accumulate iron within them, which will make them seen in noncontrast scans as hyperdense nodules (*siderotic nodules*), which are typically seen in alcoholic liver cirrhosis.
- *Dysplastic nodules* are siderotic nodules larger than 1 cm. They enhance homogeneously in both arterial and portal phases and are usually not seen in scans. Few nodules may show enhancement in

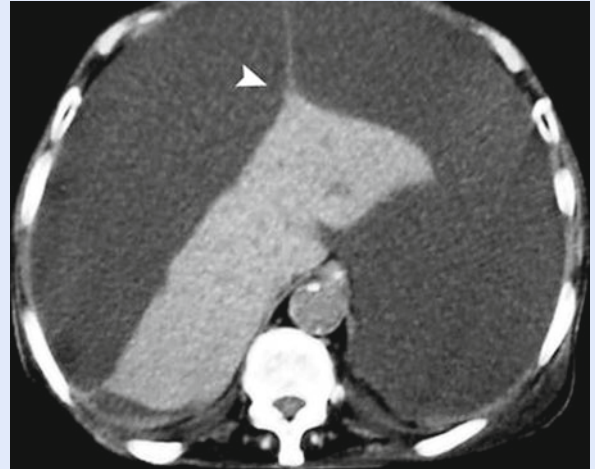
the arterial phase and only differentiated from HCC by biopsy.

- *Hepatocellular nodule* is seen as a hypodense area in nonenhanced CT scan and shows enhancement in the arterial phase, which is the key to HCC diagnosis. Up to 50% of nodules are not detected in the arterial phase because they behave as a normal liver parenchyma in the triphasic hepatic scan. The nodules become hypodense again in the portal venous phase of the scan (■ Fig. 1.1.13).
- *Portal hypertension* can be detected if the portal vein diameter increases (>13 mm). Also, splenomegaly, dilated perisplenic collateral venous channels, and ascites may be found as signs of portal hypertension (■ Fig. 1.1.14).
- *Esophageal varices* are seen as multiple, enhanced nodular or tubular densities inside the esophageal lumen (intraluminal varices) or adjacent to the esophageal wall (paraesophageal varices) (■ Fig. 1.1.12).

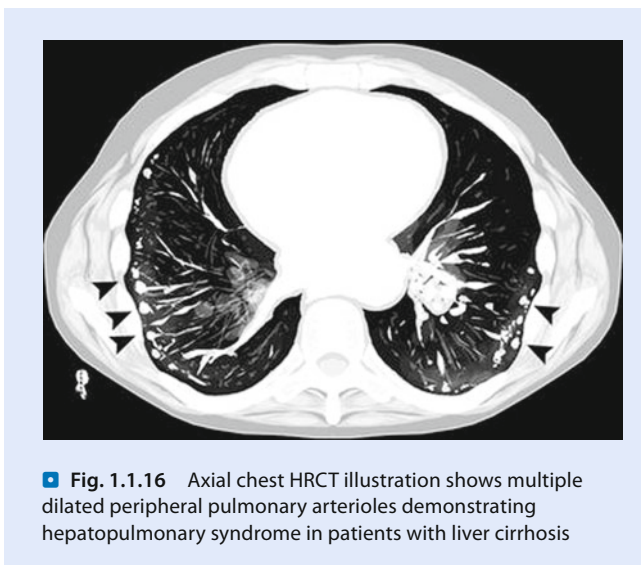
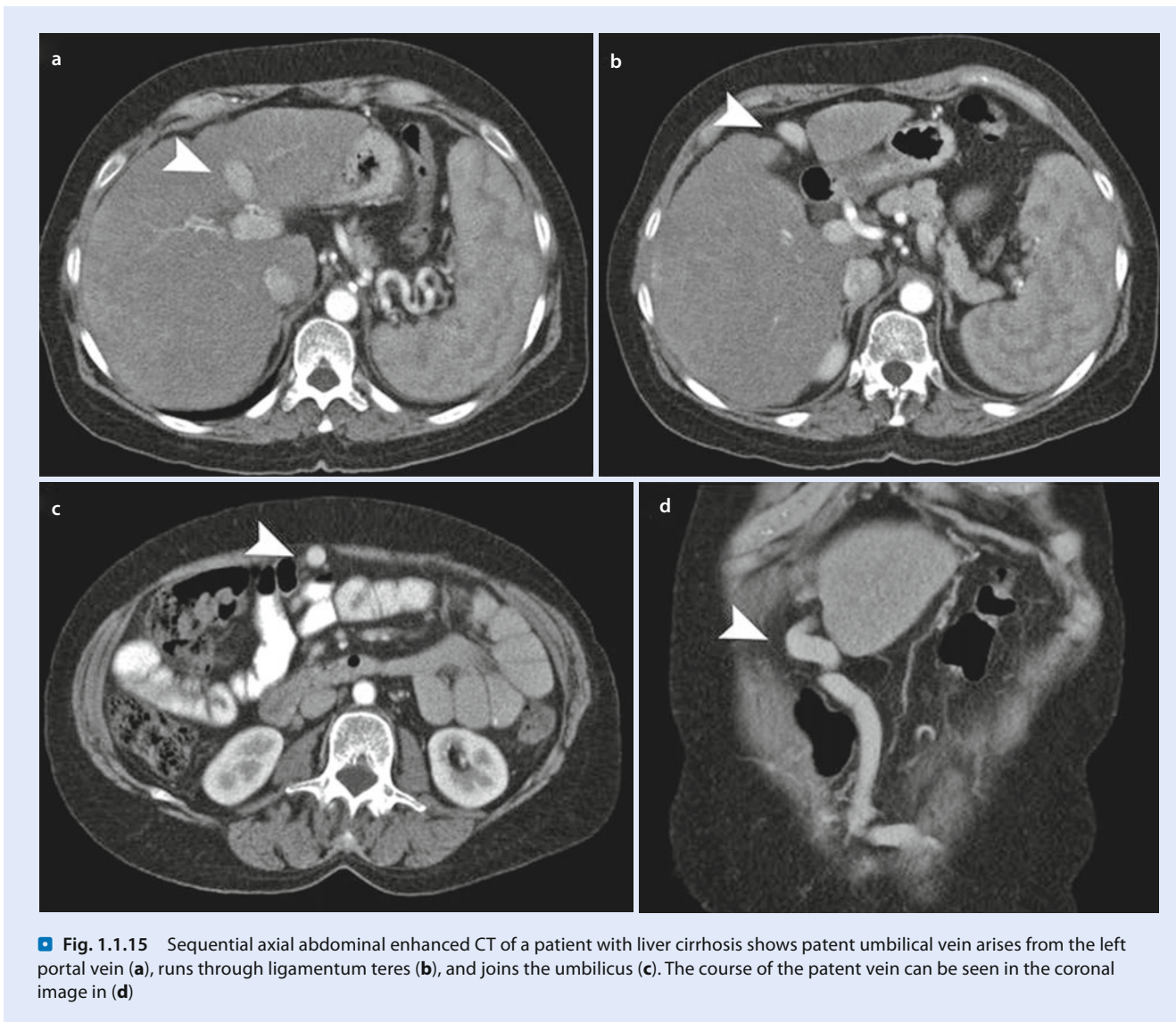
- Enlarged porta hepatic lymph nodes might be seen in end-stage cirrhotic liver.
- *Cruveilhier–Baumgarten syndrome* is visualized as an abnormal vein that arises from the right or left intrahepatic portal vein and leaves the liver via ligamentum teres to attach itself to the umbilicus on the portal phase of contrast-enhanced liver CT (▣ Fig. 1.1.15).
- On chest HRCT, *hepatopulmonary syndrome* is visualized as peripheral pulmonary arteriole dilatation with increased numbers of terminal branches extending to the pleura (▣ Fig. 1.1.16).
- Liver venous hypertension due to congestive heart failure (nutmeg liver) may show characteristic reticulo-mosaic pattern of enhancement on postcontrast examinations (▣ Fig. 1.1.17).



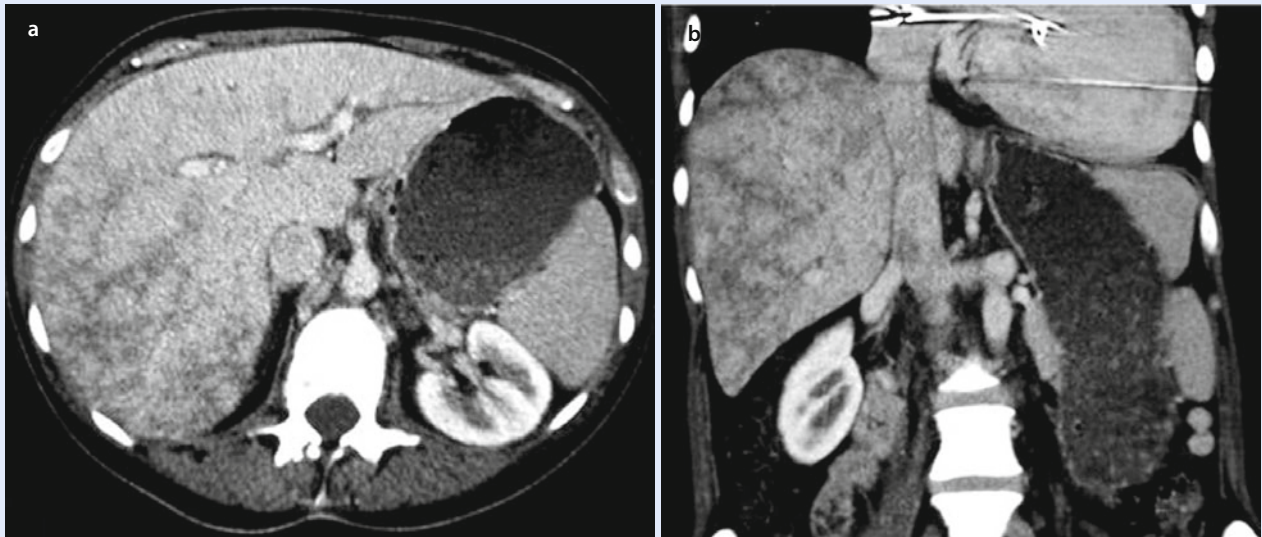
▣ Fig. 1.1.13 Coronal nonenhanced CT image shows mildly shrunken liver due to cirrhosis with mild irregular contour and hypodense nodule in segment IVb (*arrowhead*), which was proven later to be HCC



▣ Fig. 1.1.14 Axial CT scan in a patient with liver cirrhosis shows massive ascites that nicely demonstrates ligamentum teres (*arrowhead*)







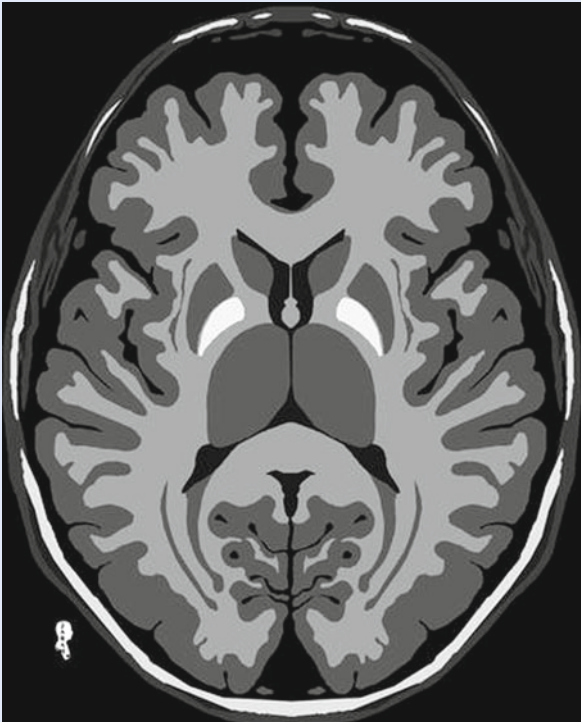
■ Fig. 1.1.17 Axial (a) and coronal (b) contrast-enhanced CT in a patient with right-sided heart failure due to tricuspid regurgitation shows the characteristic reticulo-mosaic pattern of enhancement of hepatic venous congestion

### Signs on MRI

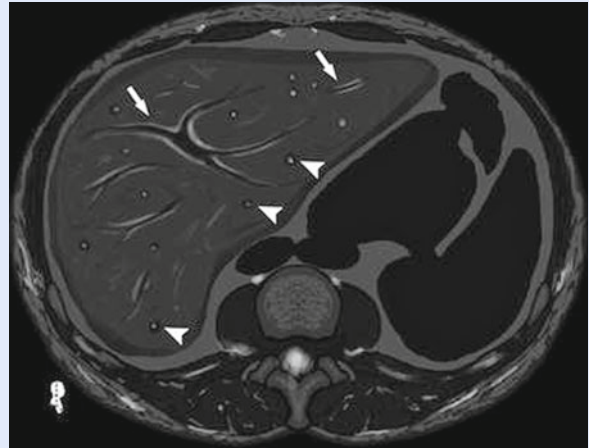
- *Hepatic encephalopathy* has bilateral and symmetrical high-intensity signal on T1W images in the basal ganglia, especially in the globus pallidus (■ Fig. 1.1.18). The extent of the basal ganglia disease is related to the plasma level of ammonia. Cerebellar atrophy may be seen in advanced stages.
- Regenerated nodules with or without hemosiderin have low T2 signal intensity. In contrast, a hepatic carcinoma nodule appears hyperintense on T2W images and shows early arterial-phase contrast enhancement.
- In *PBC*, periportal hyperintensity signal on T2W images is observed in the initial stages of the disease (stages I and II), reflecting active periportal inflammation (■ Fig. 1.1.19). A *periorbital halo sign* may be seen as low-intensity signal centered around the portal venous branches on T2W images

(■ Fig. 1.1.19). This sign is specific for the diagnosis of PBC. Lastly, a peripheral small wedge-shaped area may be seen in the early phases of liver contrast study, which represents arterial–portal shunting.

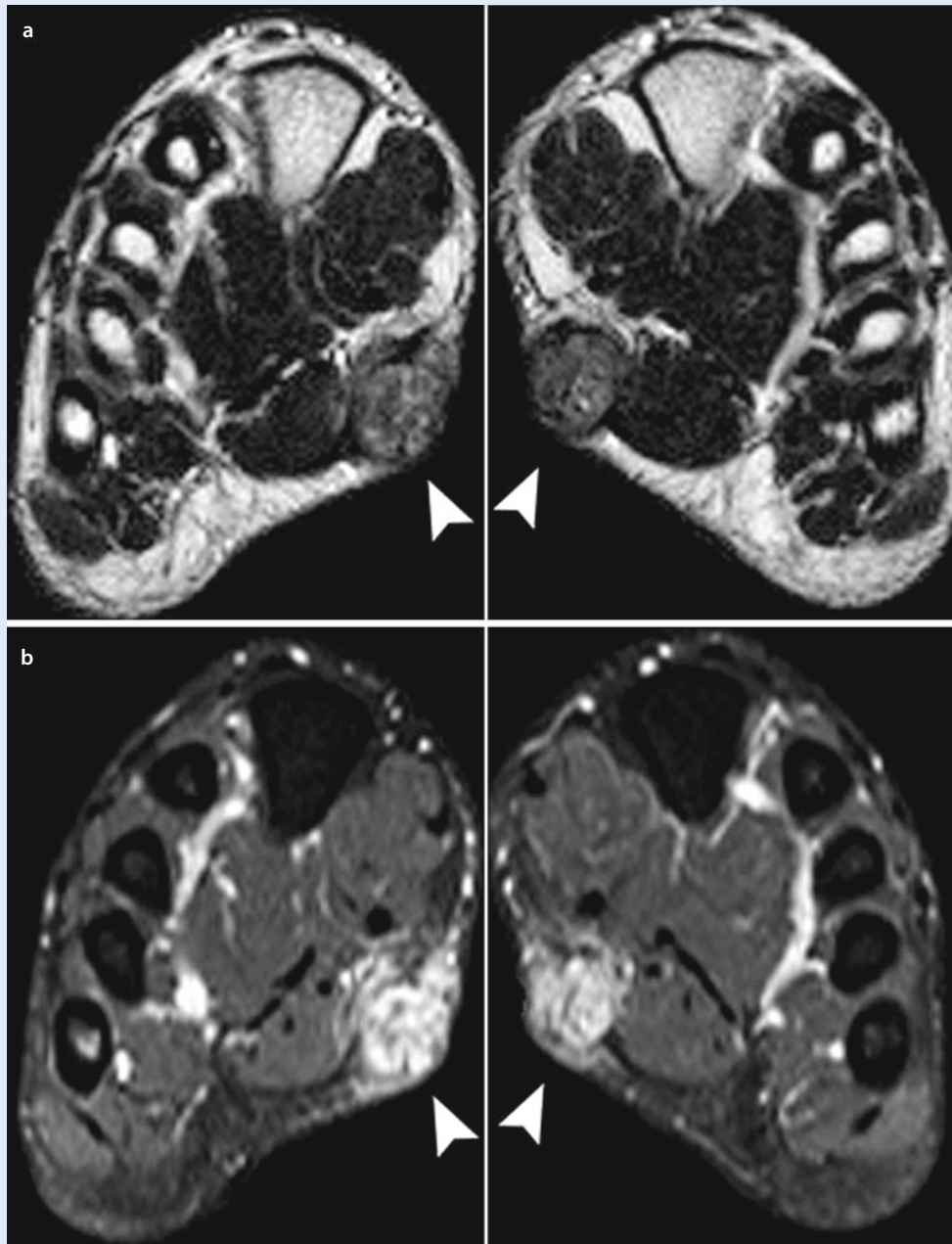
- Up to 50% of uncompensated cirrhotic patients show dilated cisterna chyli, which is seen as high T2 signal intensity structure adjacent to the aorta, with delayed enhancement several minutes after gadolinium injection. This sign is detected on CT in 1.7% of uncompensated cirrhotic patients.
- Plantar fibromatosis is visualized as bilateral infiltrative masses located at the deep aponeurosis adjacent to the plantar muscles in the medial aspect of the foot (■ Fig. 1.1.20). The masses typically show low T1 and T2 signal intensities due to the fibrous nature of the lesion. After contrast injection, enhancement of the masses can be seen in approximately 50% of cases.



■ Fig. 1.1.18 Axial T1W MR illustration shows bilateral symmetrical high density in the globus pallidus representing sign of hepatic encephalopathy



■ Fig. 1.1.19 Axial T2W MR illustration of the liver demonstrates the periportal hyperintensity (*arrows*) and the periorbital halo sign (*arrowheads*)



■ **Fig. 1.1.20** Axial-oblique T2W (a) and T1W postcontrast MRI of the feet shows bilateral hypointense plantar masses (arrowheads) on image (a) diagnostic of Ledderhose disease (plantar fibromatosis). The masses show marked contrast enhancement after gadolinium injection (b)

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## 1.2 Fatty Liver Disease (Liver Steatosis)

Accumulation of lipid within cells is a pathologic process. Any type of lipid can accumulate within cells, such as cholesterol, triglycerides, and phospholipids. Fatty liver disease (steatosis) is characterized by accumulation of triglycerides within hepatocytes.

Normally, free fatty acids are taken up by the hepatocytes and then converted into cholesterol esters, triglycerides, ketone bodies, or phospholipids. Some of the lipids combine with apoproteins to form a specific type of lipoprotein called very-low-density lipoprotein (VLDL), which is then secreted into the blood. Liver steatosis can result from either excess delivery of free fatty acids into the liver (e.g., diabetes mellitus), increased formation of lipids within the liver (e.g., alcohol ingestion), hepatocytes disease (e.g., hepatitis), or decreased formation of VLDL by the liver (e.g., protein malnutrition).

### Types of Liver Steatosis

- *Diffuse fatty infiltration*: the liver is usually enlarged with uniform decrease in density in the liver scan.
- *Focal fatty infiltration*: there is an area of the liver that shows fatty infiltration while the rest of the liver is normal. It usually occurs in the same areas that are supplied by the third inflow systemic veins (porta hepatic, around ligamentum teres, and adjacent to gallbladder). It is seen most commonly in the left lobe of the liver.
- *Multiple fatty infiltrations*: there are scattered low-density areas within a normal density liver. This type can be easily mistaken with metastases on noncontrast-enhanced liver CT scan.
- *Focal sparring*: there are areas of normal liver parenchyma surrounded by large areas of low-density diffuse fatty infiltration. This type also may simulate neoplasms on noncontrast-enhanced liver CT scan.

### Signs on US

- Fatty liver is visualized as highly echogenic liver. The high liver echogenicity can be compared to the echogenicity of the right renal cortex, which will show marked difference in echogenicity (■ Fig. 1.2.1).
- Focal fatty infiltration is seen as a focal, highly echogenic area within a relatively isoechoic (normal) liver parenchyma (■ Fig. 1.2.2).
- Focal sparring is seen as a focal area which is relatively hypoechoic (normal) within a highly echogenic liver.



■ Fig. 1.2.1 Transverse ultrasound image of the liver shows diffuse increase in liver echogenicity compared to the right renal cortex (liver steatosis)



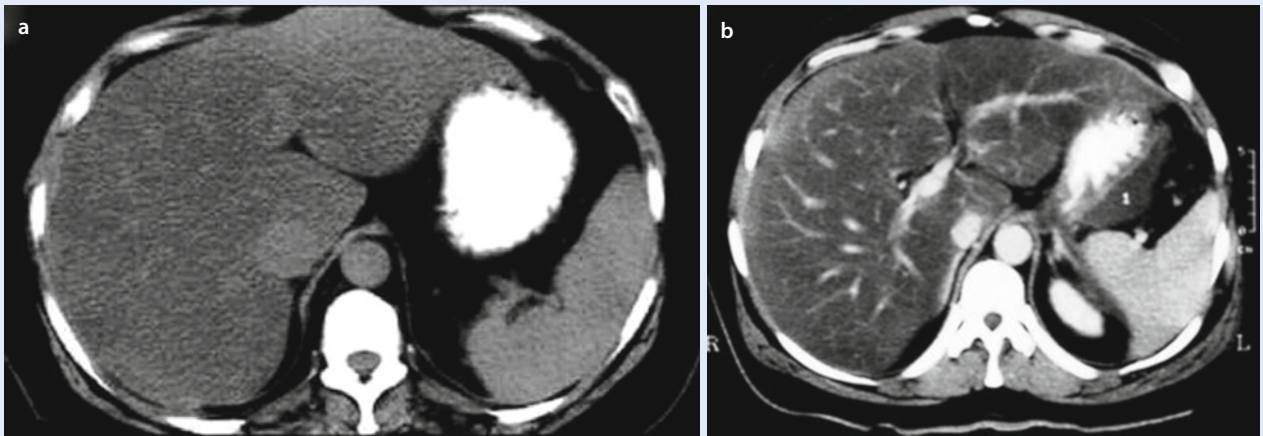
■ Fig. 1.2.2 Transverse ultrasound image of the liver shows focal fatty infiltration involving segment VI and segment VII

### Signs on CT

- Hepatic steatosis is detected as diffuse or focal reduction of the liver normal density on noncontrast-enhanced scan (■ Fig. 1.2.3). The normal liver density is 8 HU (Hounsfield unit) above that of the spleen (60 HU). Fatty liver density is 10 HU below spleen density on noncontrast-enhanced scan (if the normal spleen is 52 HU, then the fatty liver is <42 HU).
- Focal fatty infiltration is seen as a hypodense area with nonspherical margins (metastases usually have round edge). The hypodense area or the mass does

not show mass effect over the parenchyma around it and shows change over time (seen in films before the current scan or after few months' scan). The same criteria are applied to the focal sparing, but the mass will be isodense within a hypodense liver on noncontrast-enhanced scan.

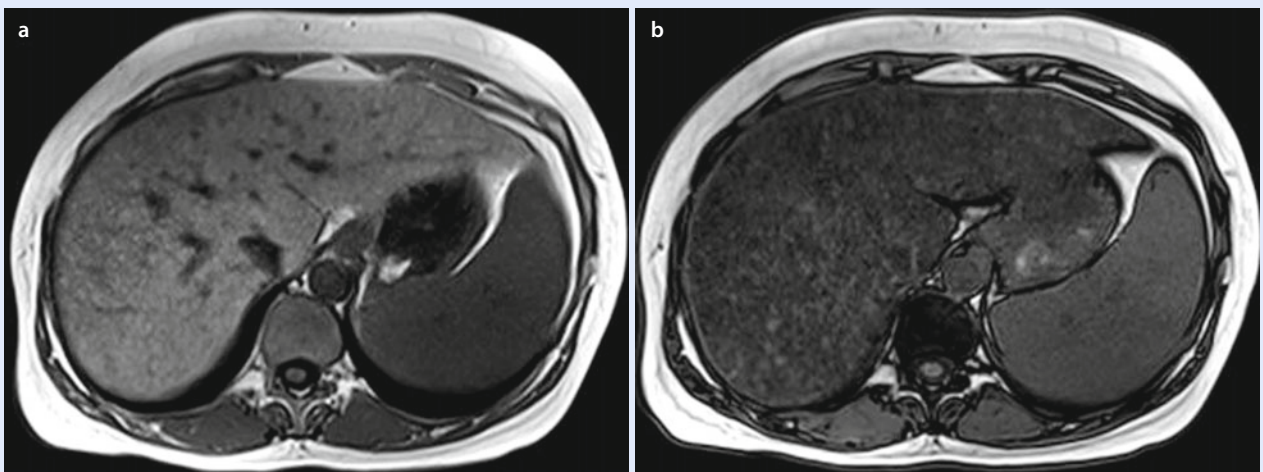
- In both focal sparing and focal fatty infiltration, hepatic vessels course within the fatty infiltration or focal sparing undisturbed. In contrast, metastases or other hepatic lesions will be cutting off the hepatic vessels when they reach them.



■ Fig. 1.2.3 Axial precontrast (a) and postcontrast (b) abdominal CT images show diffuse hepatic steatosis. Notice the density of the liver compared to the spleen in pre- and postcontrast images

### Signs on MRI

- Liver steatosis is diagnosed on MRI when the liver intensity drops to >30% difference on both T1W in-phase and T1W out-of-phase images (■ Fig. 1.2.4).



■ Fig. 1.2.4 Axial T1W in-phase (a) and T1W out-of-phase (b) MRI in a patient with liver steatosis shows drop in the liver signal intensity >44% in the T1W out-of-phase image (b), diagnostic of hepatic steatosis



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## 1.3 Recurrent Epigastric Pain

Epigastric pain is a term used to describe dull achy pain located at the area of the epigastrium beneath the xyphoid process. Epigastric pain is a very common complaint encountered in both medical and surgical casualty departments. Diagnosis often is established by proper history, examination, and laboratory investigations. This topic discusses some causes of recurrent epigastric pain, in which radiology can play an important role in establishing the underlying diagnosis.

### Gastroesophageal Reflux Disease

Gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD) is a disease characterized by reduction of the lower esophageal sphincter pressure resulting in leaking of the stomach acidity into the lower third of the esophagus, causing esophagitis and epigastric pain.

The most common cause of GERD is hiatus hernia. Four types of hiatus hernias are known: sliding, paraesophageal, sliding and paraesophageal, and complete stomach herniation into the thorax.

Patients with GERD typically present with long-standing mild to moderate epigastric pain with burning sensation, usually postprandial. Severe cases of GERD may manifest due to propagation of gastric acidity to the upper esophagus. Symptoms like aspiration pneumonia, laryngitis, and teeth decay may be seen uncommonly due to advanced GERD. Medical treatments include antacids, histamine (H<sub>2</sub>) blockers, and proton pump inhibitors. Surgical management with gastric fundoplication is usually advised in cases where the medical therapy fails to control the symptoms.

Barium swallow is the most sensitive method to detect GERD and esophagitis. Esophagitis is defined as defects in the esophageal mucosa due to exposure to the gastric reflux acid and pepsin. *Barrett's esophagus* (BS) is a condition

characterized by esophageal mucosal healing in a persistent acid environment. This healing process is characterized by metaplasia of the normal esophageal stratified squamous epithelium into columnar, gastric-like epithelium. Metaplasia is transformation of one cell type to another (e.g., cuboidal cell to columnar cell). BS has the potential for neoplastic transformation. Up to 50% of patients with GERD show esophageal dysmotility disorders (EDM).

On barium swallow, sliding hiatus hernia is detected by identifying Schatzki ring. An esophageal ring is a short annular narrowing of the esophagus <1 cm in diameter. *Esophageal A ring* is a ring made up of smooth muscles that is seen at the tubulovesicular junction (muscular ring). *Esophageal B ring (Schatzki ring)* is an esophageal ring that is only visible radiologically when there is sliding hiatus hernia and is caused by propagation of the gastroesophageal junction above the diaphragm. *Esophageal C ring* is the normal abdominal retroperitoneal esophageal part (3 cm long) which makes a groove on the liver. In contrast to esophageal ring, *esophageal stricture* is defined as an esophageal segment with fixed narrowing. *Esophageal web* is an abnormal thick 1–2 mm diaphragm-like membrane that extends partially or completely around the esophageal lumen and always indents the esophagus anteriorly. The lower esophageal sphincter line where mucosal change is observed between the esophagus and the stomach on barium examination is sometimes referred to as the *Z-line*.

*Esophageal dysmotility disorders* are a group of diseases characterized by abnormal esophageal peristalsis seen on barium swallow. Types of EDM are tertiary contractions, corkscrew esophagus, esophageal achalasia, esophageal chaliasia, and presbyesophagus.

*Tertiary esophageal contraction* is a nonpulsatile, uncoordinating contraction of the esophageal circular smooth muscles. The normal primary and secondary contractions of the esophagus help to push the food and fluids through the esophagus. This type of dysmotility is often seen with old age or GERD. *Corkscrew esophagus* is a term used to describe the same dysmotility as in tertiary contractions but arises posterior to the heart, causing pain in the retrocardiac region during swallowing. *Esophageal achalasia* is a disease characterized by contraction and narrowing of the esophagus due to a defect in the normal neuronal plexuses within the esophageal muscles, which results in failure of the smooth muscles to relax when the food arrives. Achalasia is commonly seen in the lower third of the esophagus. Achalasia can occur without prior cause (primary) or due to underlying pathology like Chagas' disease or malignancy (secondary). *Esophageal chaliasia* is characterized by dilatation and widening of the gastroesophageal junction. *Presbyesophagus* is an asymptomatic condition characterized by failure of the primary peristaltic wave to pass completely through the esophagus, resulting in a combination of tertiary contractions, aperistalsis, and failure of the lower esophageal sphincter to contract (curling phenomenon).

Hiatus hernia can be congenitally seen in neonates and children. The most common congenital hiatal hernias are

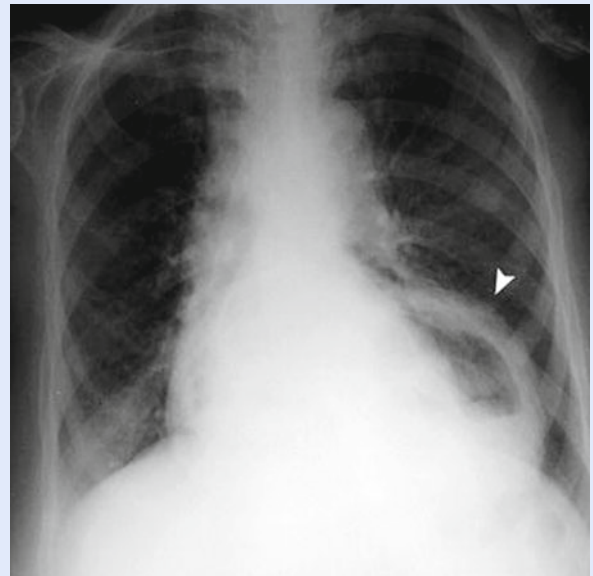
Morgagni and Bochdalek's hernias. *Morgagni hernia* is stomach or bowel herniation into the thorax due to diaphragmatic defects that occurs in the anterior/inferior mediastinum. *Bochdalek's hernia* is stomach or bowel hernia into the thorax due to diaphragmatic defects that occurs in the inferior/posterior mediastinum.

### Differential Diagnoses and Related Diseases

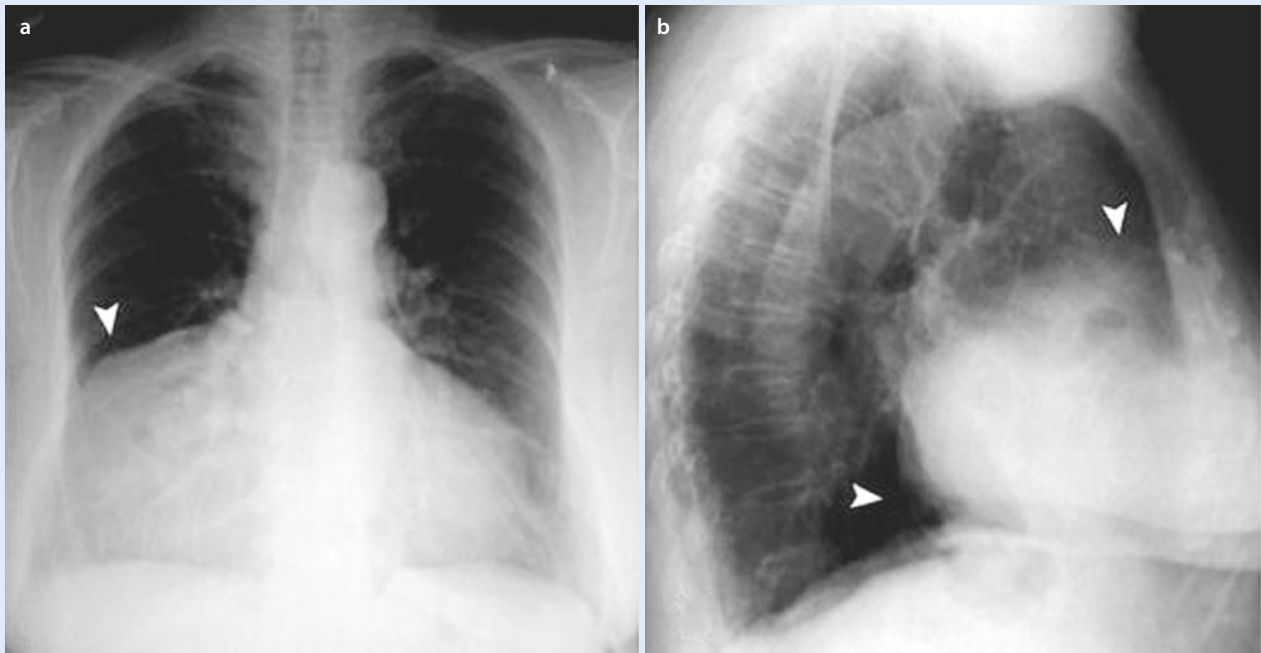
- *Steakhouse syndrome* is a term used to describe acute food impaction of the esophagus, usually at its distal third. The most common cause of food impaction is esophageal webs. Patients often present to the emergency ward with acute esophageal food impaction, especially after meat ingestion, where the name came from. Patients present with intense retrosternal pain, which may be cardiac in origin, especially if the impacted food presses over the posterior cardiac border. Plain chest radiographs should be performed to exclude bony material impaction or signs of pulmonary aspiration.
- *Plummer–Vinson syndrome (Paterson–Kelly syndrome)* is a disease characterized by dysphagia, iron-deficiency anemia, and esophageal webs. Patients are commonly women (85%), between 30 and 70 years of age. Upper aerodigestive tract carcinoma is seen in 4–16% of cases, with almost all cases occurring at the postcricoid location.

### Signs on Chest Radiographs

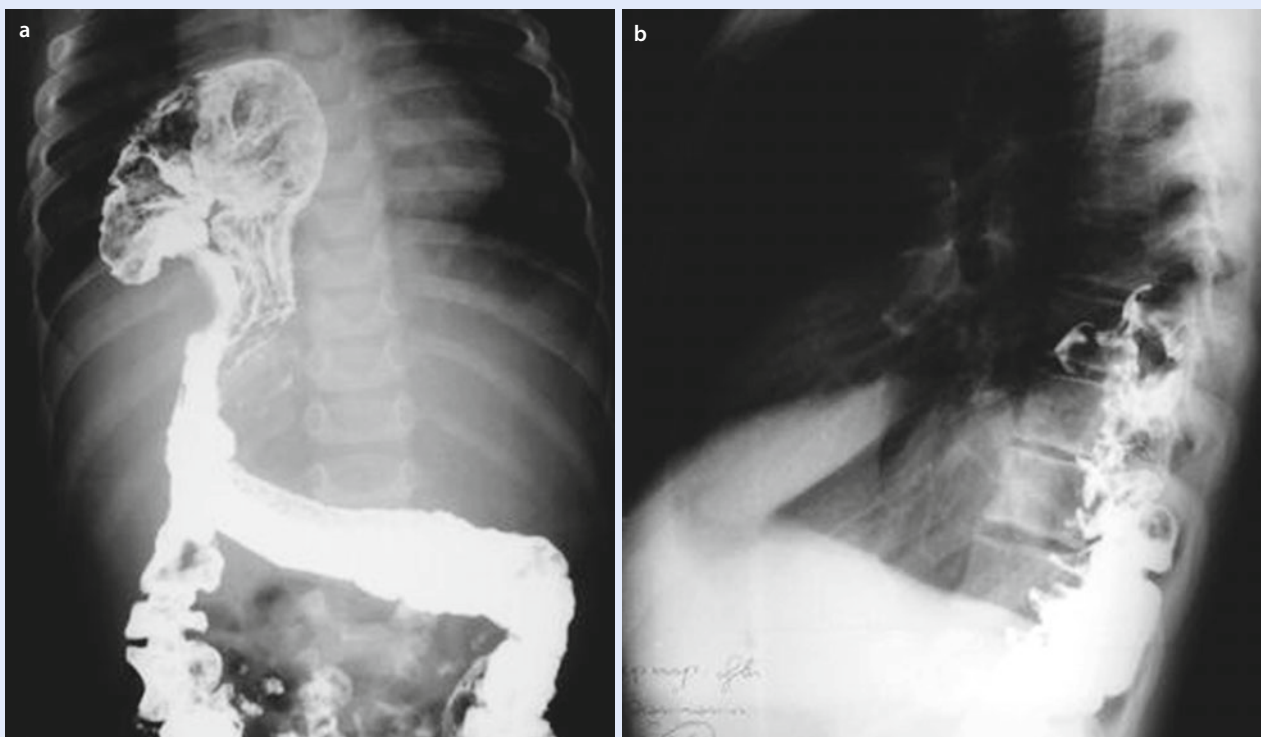
- Hiatal hernia is diagnosed by finding the stomach bubble within the thorax, rather than under the left hemidiaphragm (■ Fig. 1.3.1).
- Morgagni hernia is demonstrated as a mass, bowel loop, or stomach bubble lying in the inferior/anterior mediastinum on lateral radiographs (■ Fig. 1.3.2). In contrast, Bochdalek's hernia is demonstrated as mass, bowel loop, or stomach bubble lying in the inferior/posterior mediastinum on lateral radiographs (■ Fig. 1.3.3).
- In esophageal achalasia, there is paramediastinal shadow (widening of the mediastinum), with air–fluid level seen in the retrocardiac shadow (■ Fig. 1.3.4).



■ Fig. 1.3.1 Posteroanterior plain chest radiograph shows herniated stomach into the thorax with the gastric bubble observed in the thorax (arrowhead)



■ **Fig. 1.3.2** Posteroanterior (a) and lateral (b) plain chest radiographs show right mediastinal mass on (a), which is seen located within the anterior/inferior mediastinum on lateral radiographs (arrows). The patient is a child, and the mass was omental and bowel herniation due to an anterior congenital diaphragmatic defect (Morgagni hernia)



■ **Fig. 1.3.3** Posteroanterior (a) and lateral (b) barium enema radiographs in a baby with Bochdalek's hernia show herniation of part of the transverse colon through a posterior/inferior diaphragmatic defect (b)