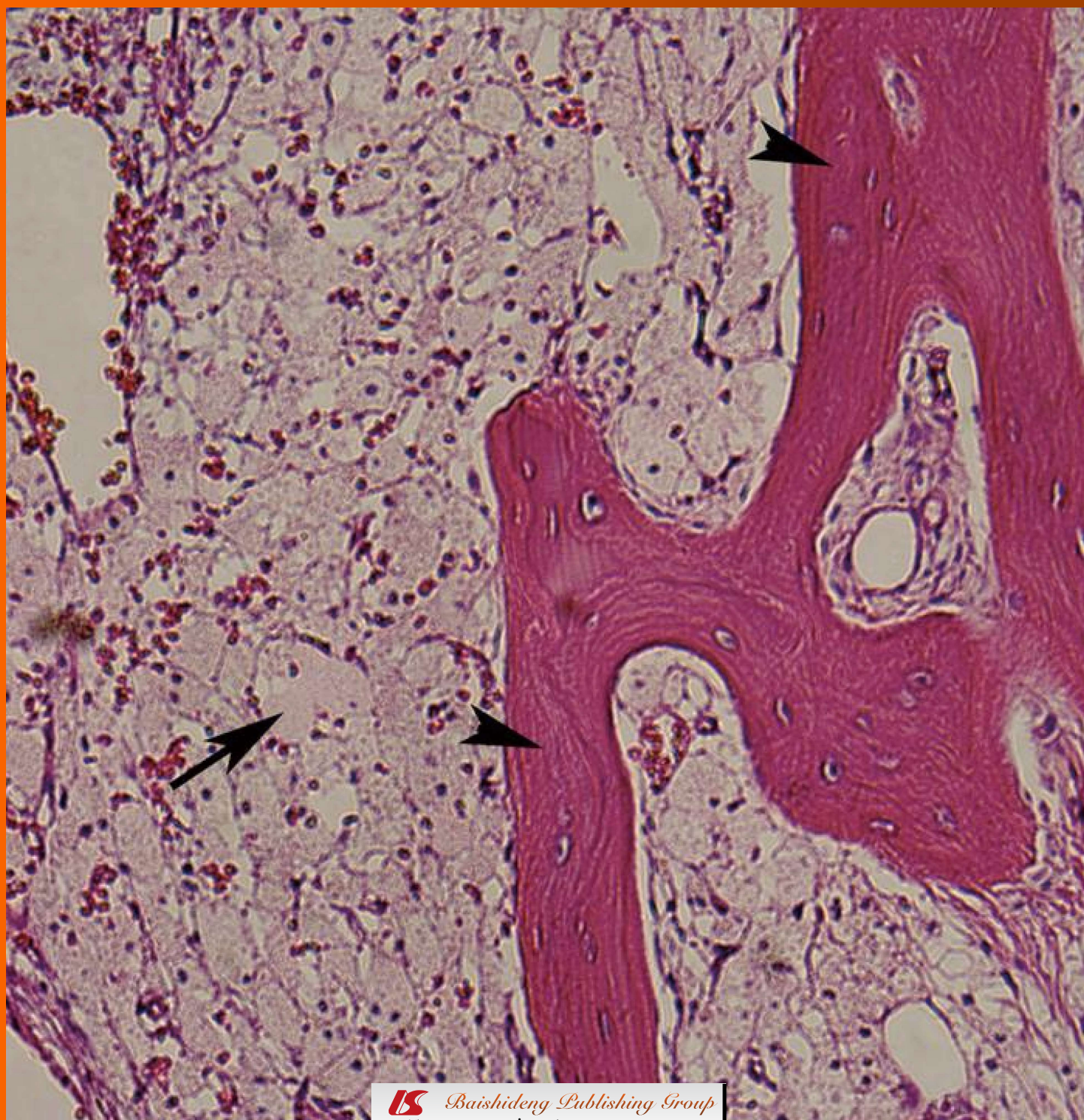


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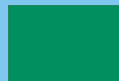
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Impact of field strength and RF excitation on abdominal diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging

Philipp Riffel, Raghuram K Rao, Stefan Haneder, Mathias Meyer, Stefan O Schoenberg, Henrik J Michaely

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diagnostic value. Statistical significance was calculated using χ^2 tests (categorical variables) and independent two-sided t tests or Mann-Whitney U tests (continuous variables).

RESULTS: The 3.0T using dual-source parallel transmit (dpTX 3.0T) provided the significantly highest SNRs in nearly all regions. In regions susceptible to artifacts at higher field strengths (left lobe of liver, head of pancreas), the SNR was better or similar to the 1.5T system. Subjectively, both dpTX 3.0T and 1.5T systems provided higher image quality, diagnostic value, and less ghosting artifact ($P < 0.01$, most values) compared to the 3.0T system without dual-source parallel transmit (non-dpTX 3.0T).

CONCLUSION: The dpTX 3.0T scanner provided the highest SNR. Its image quality, lack of ghosting, and diagnostic value were equal to or outperformed most currently used systems.

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Key words: Abdominal imaging; Diffusion weighted; 3.0T; Radiofrequency excitation; Signal-to-noise ratio

Abstract

AIM: To retrospectively and prospectively compare diffusion-weighted (DW) images in the abdomen in a 1.5T system and 3.0T systems with and without two-channel functionality for B_1 shimming.

METHODS: DW images of the abdomen were obtained on 1.5T and 3.0T (with and without two-channel functionality for B_1 shimming) scanners on 150 patients (retrospective study population) and 10 volunteers (prospective study population). Eight regions were selected for clinical significance or artifact susceptibility (at higher field strengths). Objective grading quantified signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), and subjective evaluation qualified image quality, ghosting artifacts, and

Core tip: With the popularity of 3.0T imaging systems, radiologists have commonly found limitations in abdominal imaging with diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) secondary to B_1 inhomogeneity artifacts at these higher magnet strengths. Because artifacts disturb diagnostic value of abdominal DWI, 1.5T systems have been mainly used for this particular purpose. However, newer techniques involving 3.0T using dual-source parallel radiofrequency (RF) excitation with parallel transmission and independent RF shimming have recently been developed which may succeed in addressing such limitations. Our study illustrates both the objective and subjective utility in the abdominal distribution while imaging under a 3.0T system which incorporates dual-source RF excitation.

Riffel P, Rao RK, Haneder S, Meyer M, Schoenberg SO, Michaely HJ. Impact of field strength and RF excitation on abdominal diffusion-weighted MR imaging. *World J Radiol* 2013; 5(9): 334-344 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjnet.com/1949-8470/full/v5/i9/334.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4329/wjr.v5.i9.334>

INTRODUCTION

Diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) is rapidly gaining popularity for assessment of intra-abdominal oncologic and non-oncologic pathologies. Once a technique primarily used in neuroradiology, it is now gaining acceptance as a tool to further characterize alterations of random (Brownian) movement (*i.e.*, diffusion) of water molecules within various lesions in the abdomen^[1]. In current clinical settings, this evaluation is mainly performed with 1.5T magnetic resonance (MR) systems; and data from most of the recent investigative studies in the literature have defined lesions within the abdomen using this field strength.

To date, diffusion-weighted imaging has been advocated to have numerous utilities in further evaluating several abdominal and pelvic organs. The technique may be useful in determining pathology in the liver (degree of cirrhosis/fibrosis), kidneys (lesion characterization, renal failure, pyelonephritis), pancreas (pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer), bowel (Crohn's disease), and uterus (endometriosis)^[2-18]. In a recent meta-analysis, Li *et al*^[19] has shown a potential future role for this type of sequence to assess for cancers within the liver. Numerous lesions within the genitourinary organs (kidneys, ureters, bladder, adrenal glands, uterus, ovaries, and prostate), as well as the adrenal glands, may also eventually be evaluated for malignant potential using similar techniques^[12,20-23]. Recently, Padhani *et al*^[24] and Koh *et al*^[25] have alluded to the promising future of DWI as a cancer biomarker in monitoring response to chemotherapeutic agents, in tumor staging, and possibly to aid in antineoplastic clinical drug development.

Although most of these projections have been forecasted from studies using 1.5T MR imaging systems, in the past few years, more hospitals and practices have begun acquiring 3.0T magnets, due to their ability to acquire images faster, with more detail and with a higher signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)^[26-29]. While the image quality is improved broadly across most sequences, DWI in 3.0T systems has been limited by artifacts. These deficiencies are caused by abdominal B₁ field inhomogeneities inherent at 3.0T^[30]. B₁ field inhomogeneities can be seen on DWI as a standing wave artifact, mainly as decreased signal intensity^[31]. When there is imperfect radiofrequency (RF)-excitation in echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequences such as DWI, poor fat-suppression often results in increased ghosting as well as difficulty in delineating true-positive diffusion restriction (from non-suppressed fat). Because of these limitations, clinical care and clinical

studies which require DW images of the abdomen have used 3.0T imaging mainly only in the peripheral structures^[32], and data regarding the deeper anatomy have mainly been limited to the 1.5T systems.

Newer techniques involving 3.0T using dual-source parallel RF excitation with parallel transmission and independent RF shimming (dpTX 3.0T), have recently been developed by some vendors, with examples of commercially available products including Siemens TrueForm and Phillips TX. The parallel RF excitation aims to reduce the effects of B₁ inhomogeneity seen in early generation 3.0T scanners (non-dpTX 3.0T). Initial studies by Kukuk *et al*^[33] and Willinek *et al*^[34] have suggested reduced dielectric effects and an improved homogeneity of the B₁ induction field, particularly over the liver, when comparing these dpTX 3.0T scanners with their non-dpTX counterparts.

Currently no significant data exists to evaluate the differences in image quality of DWI sequences between 1.5T and dpTX 3.0T systems. Therefore, our investigation aimed to objectively compare images produced by the 1.5T, non-dpTX 3.0T, and novel 3.0T scanners which implement dual-source parallel RF excitation. Our aim was to make a comparative analysis of images produced by the three scanners in various abdominal regions across a set of *b*-values commonly used clinically. Besides subjectively grading the image quality, degree of artifact, and diagnostic value, we also objectively measured the SNR of DWI at these various MR-scanners.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

The study contained two separate populations-one comprised of patients and another consisting of a volunteers. The institutional review board waived the requirement of informed patient consent in the retrospective patient population. Information gathered on this subset was performed in compliance with Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) guidelines. For the prospective evaluation, the institutional board approved selection of the volunteers, who signed a written consent form prior to MR imaging.

The first population of 150 patients [mean age, 53.5 ± 18.3 years (SD); age range, 9-82 years; 83 men and 67 women] was retrospectively included as the most recent 50 patients scanned in one of three scanners (1.5T *vs* non-dpTX 3.0T *vs* dpTX 3.0T which implements a dual-source RF excitation technique) up to April 2011. All of the patients were randomly selected to each of the scanners based on availability of the systems, not based on body habitus, disease severity, or claustrophobic considerations; most of the patients selected were of middle-European descent, of which most do not tend to be overly obese. The number of patients with ascites overall selected into any of the three systems did not exceed 10%. The only inclusion criterion was limiting the population to studies of the upper abdomen performed with

Table 1 Imaging parameters in the three imaging systems used for the patient population

	1.5T MR	non-dpTX 3.0T MR	dpTX 3.0T MR
TR/TE, ms	5600/75	6000/76	6400/63
Sequence type	EPI-SE	EPI-SE	EPI-SE
FOV, mm × mm	380 × 308	380 × 308	380 × 308
Matrix	192 × 156	192 × 156	192 × 156
Slice thickness, mm	6	5	5
Interslice gap, mm	0	0	0
Spatial resolution, mm ³	2.0 × 2.0 × 6.0	2.0 × 2.0 × 5.0	2.0 × 2.0 × 5.0
Number slices	32	33	35
<i>b</i> -values	50, 400, 800	50, 400, 800	50, 400, 800
Parallel imaging	GRAPPA 2	GRAPPA 2	GRAPPA 2
Acquisition time, min	4:30	5:06	4:46
Respiratory control	Free breathing	Free breathing	Free breathing
Fat suppression	SPAIR	SPAIR	SPAIR
Averages	4	4	3
Bandwidth, Hz/px	1736	1736	1736

MR: Magnetic resonance.

Table 2 Imaging parameters in the three imaging systems used for the volunteer population

	1.5T MR	non-dpTX 3.0TMR	dpTX 3.0TMR
TR/TE, ms	6300/79	6600/80	6000/68
Sequence type		EPI-SE	
FOV, mm × mm		380 × 297	
Matrix		192 × 150	
Slice thickness, mm		6	
Interslice gap, mm		0	
Spatial resolution, mm ³		2.0 × 2.0 × 6.0	
Number slices		35	
<i>b</i> -values		0, 50, 100, 200, 400, 800	
Parallel imaging		GRAPPA 2	
Acquisition time, min	7:02	7:22	6:54
Respiratory control		Free breathing	
Fat suppression		SPAIR	
Averages		4	
Bandwidth, Hz/px		1628	

MR: Magnetic resonance.

routine protocol diffusion-weighted sequences as laid out below. No exclusion criteria were identified.

The second population of 10 volunteers (mean age, 36 ± 12.2 years; age range, 27-57 years; 6 men and 4 women) was prospectively included and assigned to undergo MR imaging in all three of the abovementioned scanners in a random manner at the same day. No inclusion criteria were identified. The only exclusion criteria were restricting the study from anyone less than 18 years of age and those who had contraindications to MR imaging (incompatible metal implants, cochlear implants, or pacemakers). After volunteering, no volunteers were precluded or excluded from the study.

MR imaging

Three MR scanners were used in this study: an 32-receiver channel 1.5T MR system (MAGNETOM Avanto 32 × 76 1.5T; Siemens Healthcare; Erlangen, Germany), a

non-dp TX 32-receiver channel 3.0T MR system (MAGNETOM Trio A Tim System 32 × 76 3.0T; Siemens), and dpTX 64-receiver channel 3.0T MR imaging system with TrueForm design (MAGNETOM Skyra; Siemens). TrueForm addresses the aspect of field homogeneity by using the functionality of a 2-channel transmit array for B₁ shimming by providing uniform radiofrequency distribution in all body regions for optimal B₁ field homogeneity. The two-channel functionality uses different amplitude and phase transmission settings optimized for different body regions. Feeding the two ports of the RF body coil with an optimized weighting (*e.g.*, with elliptical polarization), yielding a homogenous B₁ distribution. The functionality of a 2-channel transmit array works with anatomy-specific settings to reduce B₁ inhomogeneities. All MR scanners were equipped with the same gradient systems. All studies were performed with the systems' standard anterior body matrix coils-six coil elements were included on the 1.5T and non-dpTX 3.0T, while 18 were included on the dpTX 3.0T. In addition, all examinations included a posterior spine matrix coil-six elements on the 1.5T and non-dpTX 3.0T, and eight elements on the dpTX 3.0T. In the patient population, the images were obtained with routinely used *b*-values of 0/400/800 s/mm². In the volunteer population, *b*-values were 0/50/100/200/400/800 s/mm². All series were acquired during free breathing without respiratory triggering. Slice thickness, interslice gap, and spatial resolution remained similar across all three scanners in both the patient and volunteer population (Tables 1 and 2).

The volunteers underwent diffusion weighted imaging in all of the three scanners on the same day with not more than 10 min between each of the exams.

Image analysis

In each examination, the regions of interest (ROI) were selected manually over eight anatomical distributions, regions mostly chosen due to clinical significance: right lobe of the liver, left lobe of the liver, caudate lobe of the liver, head of the pancreas, right kidney, left kidney, spleen, and muscle (left erector spinae muscle). Care was taken to measure only the intended region without contacting structural borders or obvious vasculature within the anatomical segment. The average size of the sample of tissue obtained for measurement was approximately 1.5 cm². Using the ROI-enhancement tool of the OsiriX DICOM viewer (OsiriX 3.7.1; The OsiriX Foundation; Geneva, Switzerland), the mean signal intensity within the ROI was graphically and numerically visualized for each of the measured *b*-values (Figure 1). To calculate noise, an approximately 12 cm² elliptical area outside the patient's body, void of ghosting artifact was chosen. The standard deviation of the signal intensity within this region was determined to be the background noise within the image. Measurements from mean signal intensity and noise were then divided to determine the SNR. This process was repeated with all 150 of the hospital patients, and with all ten volunteers.

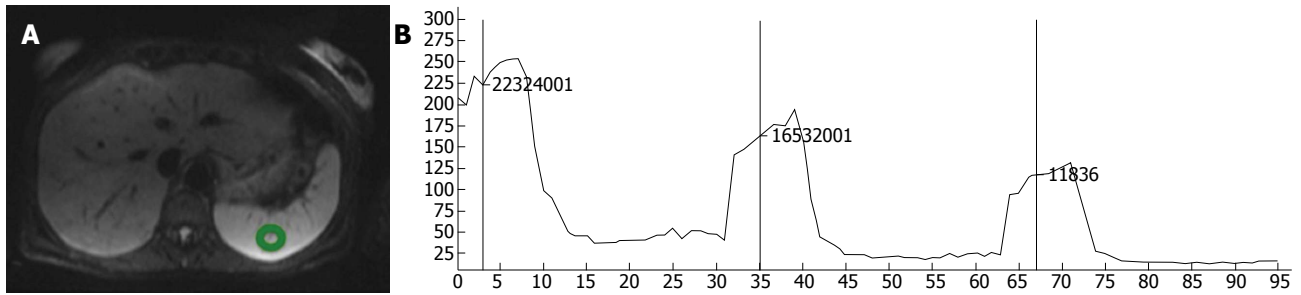


Figure 1 Using the regions of interest-enhancement tool of the OsiriX DICOM viewer for each of the measured *b*-values. A: Representative regions of interest positioned in the spleen; B: With the resultant signal intensities seen for each of the three *b*-values (50, 400, 800).

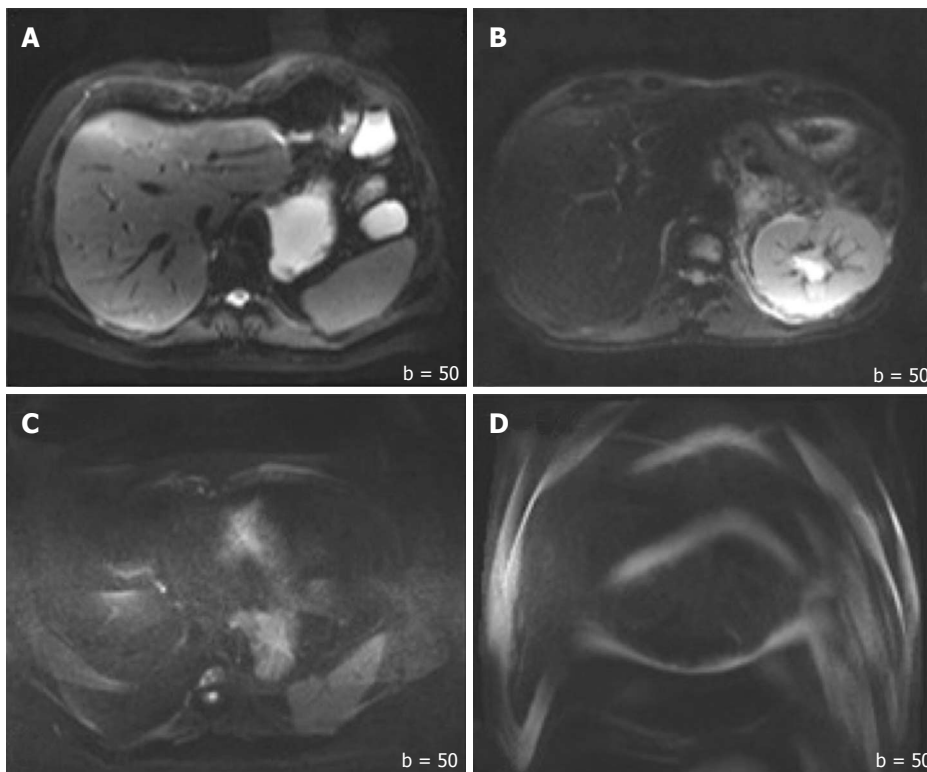


Figure 2 Sample images of quality graded by two radiologists. A: 3 = good for interpretation without noticeable limitations [Image obtained on 2nd gen. 3.0T]; B: 2 = adequate for basic interpretation with minor limitations [Image obtained on 1.5T]; C: 1 = poor for basic interpretation [Image obtained on 1st gen. 3.0T]; and D: 0 = non-diagnostic and not adequate for basic interpretation [Image obtained on 1st gen. 3.0T]. All images were acquired at the same *b*-value (*b* = 50).

In addition to the SNR, both overall image quality and ghosting artifact were subjectively and independently measured by two radiologists (one with more than 10 years, and another with 1 year of experience in abdominal MR imaging). The overall image quality was scored using an ordinal 4-point rating scale: 3 = good for interpretation without noticeable limitations, 2 = adequate for basic interpretation with minor limitations, 1 = poor for basic interpretation, 0 = non-diagnostic and not adequate for basic interpretation (Figure 2). Ghosting artifacts were scored using a 3-point rating scale: 3 = no ghosting, 2 = ghosting not interfering with diagnostic image interpretation, 1 = severe ghosting artifact interfering with diagnostic interpretation (Figure 3).

The subjective reading results of image quality and

ghosting artifacts were used to scale studies for their diagnostic value. This was done by using the more senior radiologist's (Reader 1) ratings (on studies where scoring differed between the two readers). For image quality, images receiving a score of "0" and "1" were combined into a single group called "Non-diagnostic/Low Diagnostic Value," while studies scoring a "2" and "3" were grouped into a single subset identified as "No Loss in Diagnostic Value." This was used to calculate the percentage of studies considered to be diagnostic across each scanner in both populations. Similarly, for ghosting artifacts, a score of "1" was categorized as "Non-diagnostic/Low Diagnostic Value" and scores of "2" and "3" were collectively referred to as "No Loss in Diagnostic Value"; percentages were calculated from each scanner

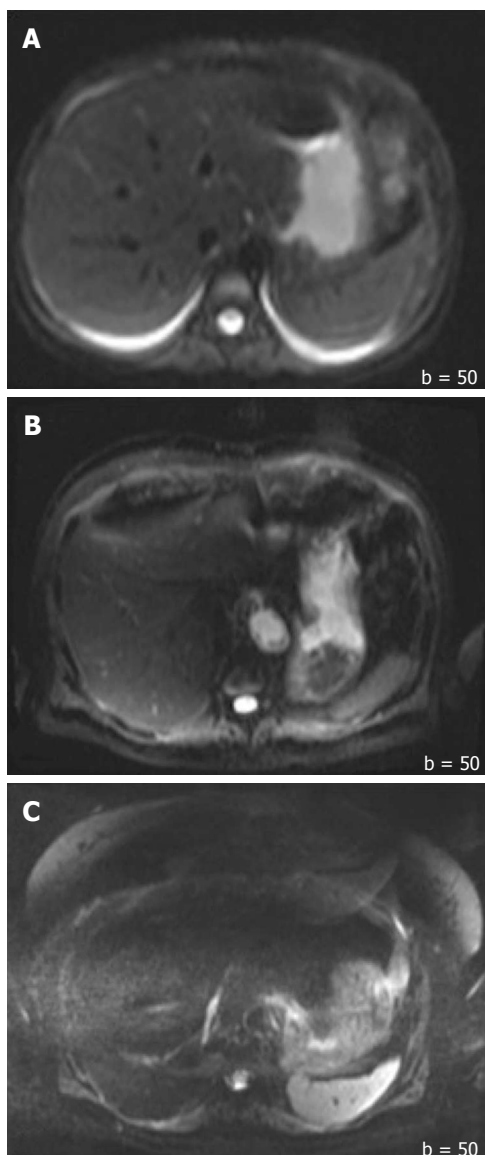


Figure 3 Sample images of ghosting artifact graded by two radiologists. A: 3 = no ghosting; B: Ghosting not interfering with diagnostic image interpretation; and C: 1 = severe ghosting artifact interfering with diagnostic interpretation.

in both populations.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using dedicated statistical software (JMP 9.0, SAS Institute, Cary, North Carolina, United States). The Shapiro-Wilk *W* test was applied to identify normally distributed data. Statistical significance was investigated with a χ^2 test for categorical variables. Differences between groups on continuous variables were assessed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post-hoc Scheffé tests to determine group differences. For nonparametric data and for the volunteer population, Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA was used, followed by a post-hoc Mann-Whitney *U* test. Ordinal variables (image quality and ghosting artifacts) were presented as median and were compared using the Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA. Inter-reader agreement was determined by cal-

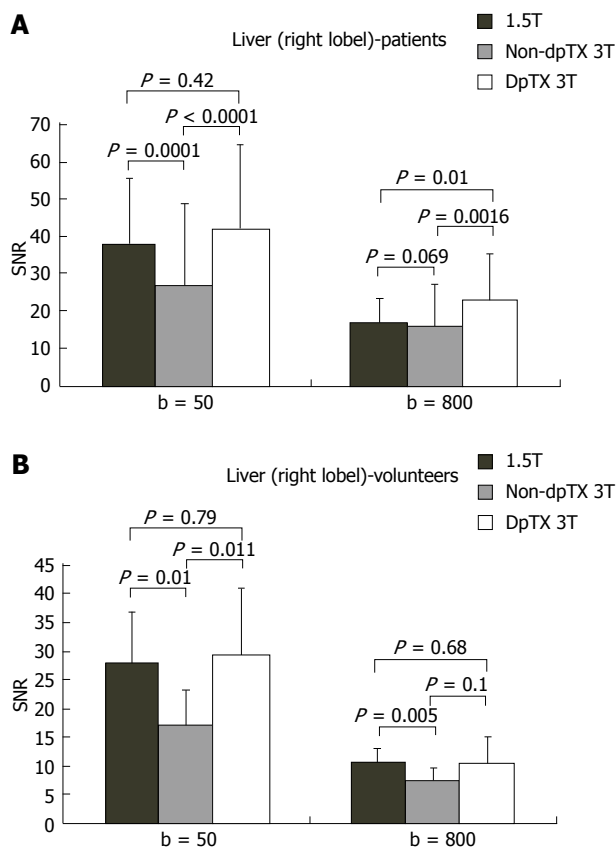


Figure 4 Bar charts of the distribution of signal-to-noise ratio values in the right lobe of the liver at *b* = 50/800 in the (A) patient and (B) volunteer population. SNR: Single-to noise ratio.

culating a kappa score. A *P* value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Objective measurements

MR imaging was successfully completed once in all 150 patients and thrice in all 10 volunteer studies. SNR values were calculated in each of the eight anatomical distributions at all the *b*-values for both populations; the collected data is depicted in Table 3.

A total of 14 studies (28%) from the patient population obtained with the non-dpTX 3.0T scanner had such poor image quality and/or artifact (Figures 2D and 3D), that anatomical boundaries (*i.e.*, between lobes of the liver) could not be delineated. These studies were accounted for during the subjective analysis of our investigation. On non-dpTX 3.0T systems, the more peripheral regions (unshaded in Table 3: right lobe of the liver, kidneys, spleen, and muscle) are less susceptible to artifacts. In the patient population, SNR measurements made on the dpTX 3.0T system were higher at the peripheral regions in comparison to the 1.5T and the non-dpTX 3.0T scanners. In the right lobe of the liver (Figure 4A), the dpTX 3.0T captured images of significantly higher SNR when compared to the 1.5T ($P \leq 0.01$ at *b* = 400/800) and the non-dpTX 3.0T ($P < 0.01$ at all *b*-values). In

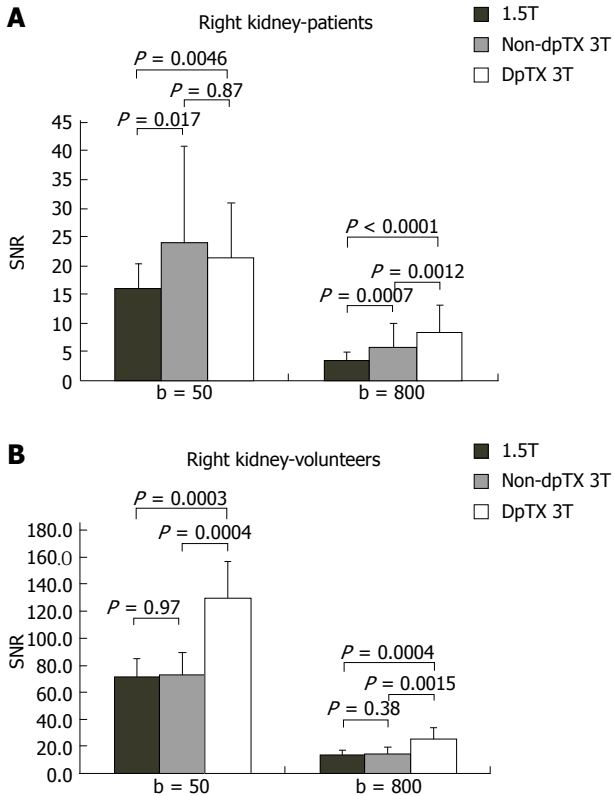


Figure 5 Bar charts of the distribution of signal-to-noise ratio values in the right kidney at b = 50/800 in the (A) patient and (B) volunteer population. SNR: Single-to noise ratio.

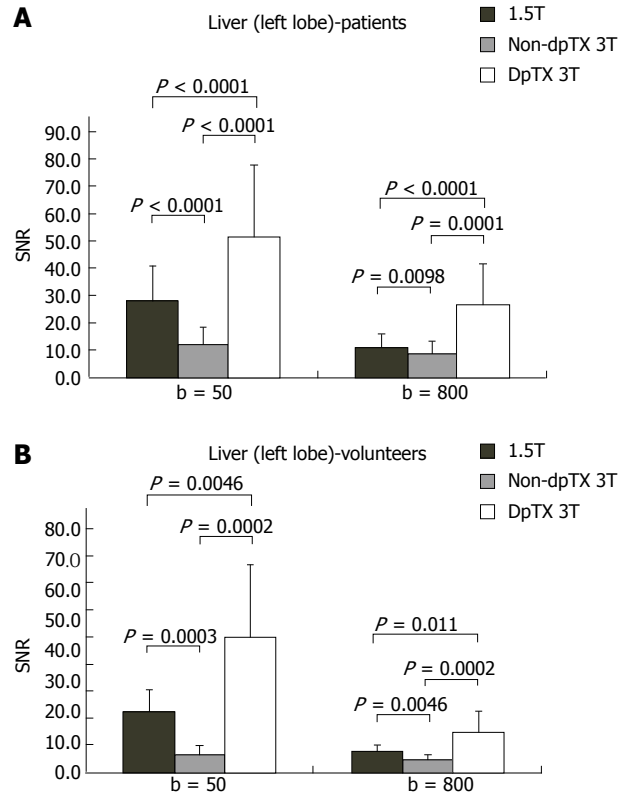


Figure 6 Bar charts of the distribution of signal-to-noise ratio values in the left lobe of the liver at b = 50/800 in the (A) patient and (B) volunteer population. SNR: Single-to noise ratio.

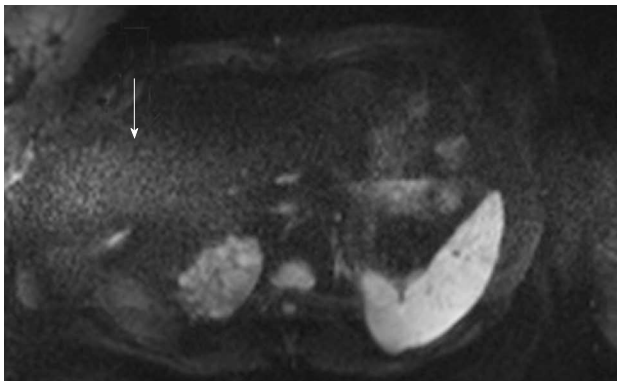


Figure 7 A band of high intensity artifact (arrow) across the middle of the abdomen in diffusion-weighted images obtained on non-dpTX 3.0T (*i.e.*, noise band reconstruction artifact), which contributed to high signal intensity measurements in the caudate lobe and head of the pancreas, as seen on several studies.

this region, the 1.5T scanner displayed a higher SNR than the non-dpTX 3.0T ($P < 0.01$ at $b = 50/400$). With respect to the kidneys, the 1.5T system produced lower SNR values than both of the 3.0T systems across all the b -values ($P < 0.02$ for the right kidney, shown in Figure 5A). Comparing the 3.0T systems, nearly all values from the dpTX scanners were higher than those from the non-dpTX ($P < 0.01$ except at $b = 50$ in the right kidney). The more central anatomical structures (shaded in Table 3: left lobe of the liver, caudate lobe of the liver,

head of the pancreas) are more susceptible to artifacts caused by B_1 inhomogeneity and standing wave artifacts. In the left lobe of the liver, across all b -values, the SNR of the dpTX 3.0T systems was highest, followed by SNR values from 1.5T (Figure 6A); all the findings were statistically significant ($P < 0.01$ for all values). In the remaining central regions, the findings were more variable, likely secondary to signal contributions from noise bands due to reconstruction artifacts, which created a band of high signal intensity (Figure 7) and caused a high signal in the non-dpTX 3.0T scanner. The artifact allowed for mean SNR measurements in the caudate lobe to be highest for the non-dpTX 3.0T system at $b = 800$ ($P \leq 0.04$), and although nonsignificant, higher than the 1.5T scanner at $b = 400$. The dpTX 3.0T scanner showed the highest SNR in the head of the pancreas ($P < 0.01$ compared with the other two scanners at all b -values); the non-dpTX 3.0T system produced at least one significantly higher SNR measurement than the 1.5T in this region (at $b = 800$, $P < 0.01$).

In the volunteer leg of the study, except for similar mean SNR measurements with the 1.5T system in two distributions (the right and caudate lobes of the liver), the mean SNR values from the dpTX 3.0T scanner were significantly higher ($P \leq 0.03$ at all values) than the SNR from the other two systems (with two exceptions of non-significant differences: left kidney at $b = 400$ and spleen at $b = 50$). As in the patient population, differences of the mean SNR values between the 1.5T and

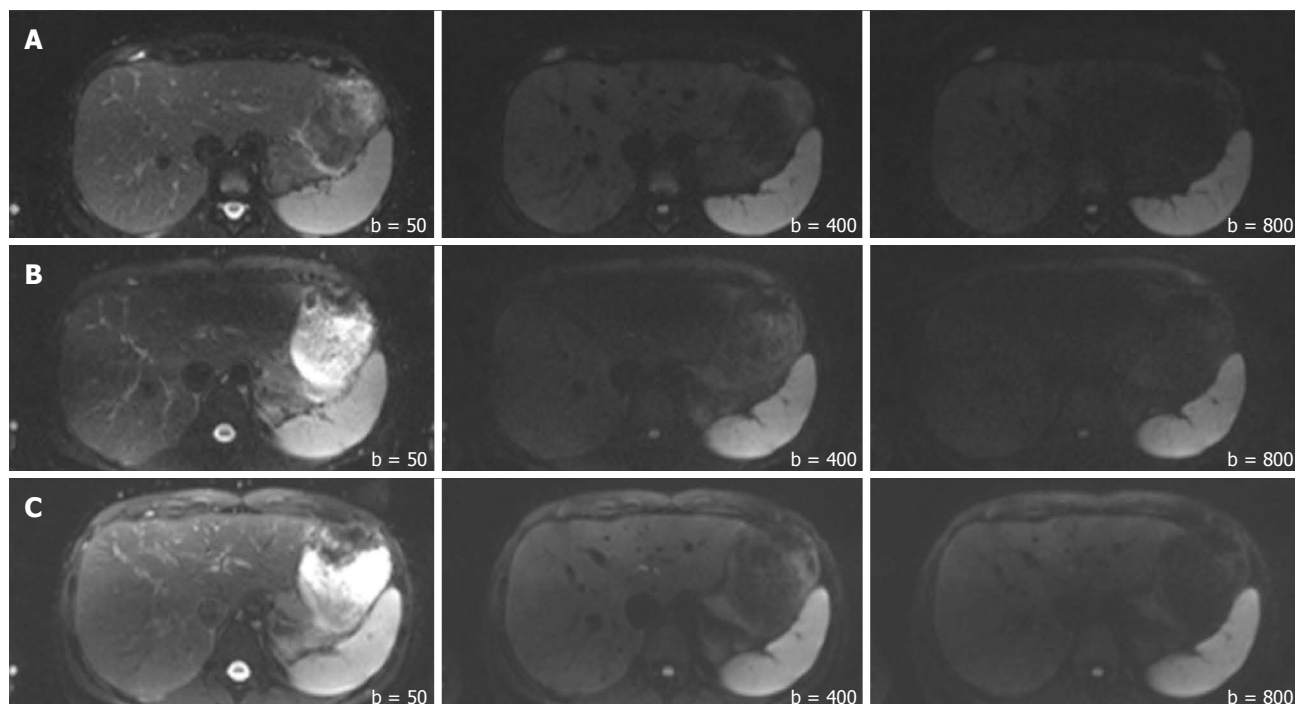


Figure 8 Representative images from the volunteers in the 1.5T (Row A), non-dpTX 3.0T (Row B), and dpTX 3.0T (Row C) scanners. From left to right within each row, *b*-values increase from 50, 400, to 800 s/mm².

non-dpTX 3.0T varied by anatomical region. In the caudate lobe and head of the pancreas, higher signal contributions from band reconstruction artifacts were again responsible for the higher SNR values in the non-dpTX 3.0T system. In the right lobe of the liver, the mean SNR of the 1.5T and dpTX 3.0T systems were similar, with nonsignificant differences at all *b*-values (Figure 4B). Both systems had higher mean SNR measurements than the non-dpTX 3.0T system ($P \leq 0.03$ at $b = 50/400$). The dpTX 3.0T system displayed significantly superior SNR values in nearly all the remaining peripherally-based organs (*e.g.*, right kidney, Figure 5B). The non-dpTX 3.0T system had higher SNR values than the 1.5T scanner in the left kidney ($P \leq 0.03$ at $b = 400/800$), although the differences in the right kidney were not significant. The dpTX 3.0T scanner had significantly higher mean SNR values in centrally-located regions, including the head of the pancreas ($P < 0.01$) and the left lobe of the liver ($P \leq 0.01$). In the left lobe of the liver (Figure 6B), the 1.5T system had higher SNR values than the non-dpTX 3.0T ($P < 0.01$).

In summary, when evaluating both the patient and volunteer population, the dpTX 3.0T scanner had the highest SNR at all regions across nearly all the *b*-values, and with a few exceptions, the measurements were statistically significant (Figure 8 and Table 3). The SNR values were usually second-highest in the 1.5T scanner, including central structures such as the caudate lobe and the pancreas (even though reconstruction band artifacts from the non-dpTX 3.0T system caused unnaturally high SNR measurements). The non-dpTX 3.0T generally produced higher values than the 1.5T in the kidneys.

Subjective assessment

When assessing for image quality, both Readers 1 and 2 scored images on the 1.5T and dpTX 3.0T scanners with a median score of “3” in the patient population (Table 4). In the volunteer population, although both readers’ median score for the dpTX 3.0T received a “3”, for the 1.5T system, Reader 1’s median score was 2.5 (*i.e.*, median fell between a “2” and “3”), while Reader 2’s score was “3.” The non-dpTX 3.0T system received the lowest median score by both readers in both populations, ranging from 1 to 1.5. Table 4 shows that above 94% of the patient and volunteer studies from the dpTX 3.0T and 1.5T scanners were thought to be diagnostic in both the patient and volunteer populations, compared to just 26% of patients and 40% of volunteers in the non-dpTX 3.0T system. Two-sided probability measurements indicates that the differences between the ratings made for the non-dpTX 3.0T scanners and the remaining two systems in both populations were statistically significant ($P \leq 0.01$).

As for the ghosting artifacts, in both the dpTX 3.0T and 1.5T scanners, the median scores by both readers was “2” in both the patients and volunteers (Table 5). The median level of ghosting in the patient population with the non-dpTX 3.0T was “1” by both readers, and ranged from 1.5 to 2 in the volunteer population. The measurements indicate that greater 98% of the studies performed on the 1.5T and dpTX 3.0T systems are not hampered by disturbing ghosting artifacts, while only 38% of patients and 80% of volunteers did not reveal disturbing ghosting artifacts with non-dpTX 3.0T systems. Although statistically significant at the patient

Table 3 Mean signal-to-noise ratio measurements for the patient and volunteer populations across all *b*-values in all eight anatomical distributions

<i>b</i> -values (s/mm ²)	Liver (right lobe)		Liver (left lobe)		Liver (caudate lobe)		Pancreas (head)		Left Kidney		Right Kidney		Spleen		Muscle										
	50	400	800	50	400	800	50	400	800	50	400	800	50	400	800	50	400								
Patients	non-dpTX 3.0T	26.6	19.6	16.3	12.5	9.9	9.1	24.1	18.1	16.1	16.1	83.2	(42.4)	168.7 ²	(77.1)	107.8	81.1	59.2	33.2	19.3	11.9				
	dpTX 3.0T	42.5 ²	33.7	23.3	52.1	42.6	27.1	27.3 ²	21.0 ²	12.5	70.4	58.0	33.1	169.0	138.2	65.1	150.5 ²	127.6	60.0	118.5	105.7	78.3	60.5	53.1	30.3
Volunteers	non-dpTX 3.0T	38.1 ²	(24.6)	17.3	(28.6)	(16.8)	(11.3)	24.2	15.2	11.2	40.8	22.6	(14.9)	118.9	55.7	28.8	113.3	52.4	26.9	101.9	72.7	52.3	32.1	20.3	(13.4)
	dpTX 3.0T	17.0	9.4	7.6	6.6	5.3	4.8	11.6	6.9	6.3	30.0	14.0	10.2	112.2	44.7 ²	(22.5)	74.0	29.6	16.1	74.7	48.3	33.6	(23.1)	12.3	8.4
1.5T	29.5 ²	14.9 ²	10.7	44.9	20.0	13.6	25.8	11.4 ²	7.9	76.1	30.5	18.8	155.1	59.7 ²	30.8	130.5	50.4	26.3	106.6 ²	75.3	55.5	47.4	23.9	13.2	8.3
1.5T	27.9 ²	13.7 ²	10.8 ²	(20.0)	(8.7)	(7.1)	19.0	9.5	7.9	30.1	13.1	9.8	83.4	31.5	16.4	72.2	27.8	14.6	76.3	48.9	34.5	16.6	10.3	8.3	8.3

¹Fields correspond to peripheral anatomical regions, while the ²fields categorize the central anatomical regions. The numbers which are bolded have statistically higher single-to noise ratio values than both of the other imaging systems at the given *b*-value and regions of interest. The numbers which have a symbol (̂) have higher Single-to noise ratio (SNR) values than only the lowest SNR measurement at the given *b*-value and region of interest (ROI). Items which are parenthesized are values that have the second-highest SNR, but are still significantly higher than the lowest at the given *b*-value and ROI.

population ($P < 0.01$), the differences were not significant in the volunteer population ($P = 0.47$), due to the low sample size.

For both measurements of image quality and ghosting, the inter-reader agreement revealed a kappa score of 0.8.

DISCUSSION

With the recent increase in popularity of 3.0T imaging systems coupled with the simultaneous boost in applications of abdominal DW imaging, there is a growing interest for data which investigates the validity of using the technologies in combination. Non-dpTX 3.0T scanners, although providing improved image quality/SNR across numerous types of imaging sequences, have had limited applications with DW sequences of the abdomen due to B₁ inhomogeneity artifacts including standing wave and ghosting artifacts experienced in higher field strengths. Improved imaging techniques which incorporate modified radial-like k-space sampling with fast spin echo DWI (BLADE DWI)^[53], have been shown to improve SNR and reduce the level of ghosting and bulk susceptibility artifacts at 3.0T, when compared to standard spin echo echo-planar imaging DWI^[53]. However, the findings have been limited to neuroradiological examinations. Because artifacts continue to disturb diagnostic value of abdominal DWI, 1.5T systems have been mainly used for this imaging parameter in both patient care and clinical research. Newer techniques involving 3.0T using dual-source parallel RF excitation with parallel transmission and independent RF shimming, have recently been developed. Feeding the two ports of the transmit array with different amplitudes and a phase shift not equivalent to 90 degrees can potentially result in a more homogeneous B₁ distribution and less signal shading. Recent studies revealed improved image quality in the liver with T2 and DWI sequences when comparing dpTX 3.0T scanners with their non-dpTX counterparts^[33,34]. The assessment in these studies was performed subjectively and no controls were used *ie*, without volunteers, different patients received examinations.

Our study not only creates controls from volunteers who obtained images from all three scanners, but also introduces a 1.5T imaging system for comparison of image quality. We believe this comparison is essential as 1.5T scanners are considered to have high image quality in DW imaging and are currently the most commonplace field strength utilized to image this sequence. We attempted to present findings in both an objective and subjective method. In our investigation, we could demonstrate that in both patient and volunteer populations, the dpTX 3.0T scanner was characterized by the highest SNR at all measured regions, and across nearly all the *b*-values. In peripherally-located regions, such as the right lobe of the liver and the kidneys, the dpTX 3.0T scanners provided images with significantly superior SNR than the 1.5T and non-dpTX 3.0T systems. The second-best SNR measurements of the right lobe of the liver were produced by the 1.5T scanner, and those of the kidneys, by the non-dpTX 3.0T. Regarding centrally-located regions, the dpTX 3.0T system produced significantly higher SNR values in images in the left lobe of the liver (followed by measurements from the 1.5T scanner) and the pancreas, which is consistent with published data on T2-weighted imaging^[54]. The non-dpTX 3.0T system suffered from severe artifacts in these central regions. Evaluation by two radiologists indicated no difference in diagnostic value of the dpTX 3.0T system when compared to 1.5T images. The superior SNR and high level of diagnostic value of the dpTX 3.0T systems are due a reduction of the degree of B₁ inhomogeneity, allowed by a two-way RF transmission, which improves the signal of deeper tissues

Table 4 Image quality: Median values and percent of diagnostic studies

Image quality	Median-Patients		Median-Volunteers		No loss in diagnostic value		Non-diagnostic/low diagnostic value	
	Reader 1	Reader 2	Reader 1	Reader 2	Patients	Volunteers	Patients	Volunteers
non-dpTX 3.0T	1	1	1	1.5	26%	40%	74%	60%
dpTX 3.0T	3	3	3	3	98%	100%	2%	0%
1.5T	3	3	2.5	3	94%	100%	6%	0%

The left half of the table depicts mean values as rated by the two radiologists based on the 4-point ordinal scale in which “3” = good for interpretation without noticeable limitations, “2” = adequate for basic interpretation with minor limitations, “1” = poor for basic interpretation, “0” = non-diagnostic and not adequate for basic interpretation. The right half of the table illustrates the percentage of images deemed to have “No loss in diagnostic value” (scored as ≥ 2) vs “Non-diagnostic/Low Diagnostic Value” (scored as ≤ 1). Numbers in bold are statistically different from the other two numbers within the column.

Table 5 Ghosting artifact: Median values and percent of diagnostic studies

Ghosting	Median-Patients		Median-Volunteers		No loss in diagnostic value		Non-diagnostic/low diagnostic value	
	Reader 1	Reader 2	Reader 1	Reader 2	Patients	Volunteers	Patients	Volunteers
non-dpTX 3.0T	1	1	2	1.5	44%	80%	56%	20%
dpTX 3.0T	2	2	2	2	98%	100%	2%	0%
1.5T	2	2	2	2	100%	100%	0%	0%

The left half of the table depicts mean values as rated by the two radiologists based on the 3-point ordinal scale in which “3” = no ghosting, “2” = ghosting not interfering with diagnostic image interpretation, “1” = severe ghosting interfering with diagnostic interpretation. The right half of the table illustrates the percentage of images deemed to have “No loss in diagnostic value” (scored as ≥ 2) vs “Non-diagnostic/Low Diagnostic Value” (scored as 1). Numbers in bold are statistically different from the other two numbers within the column.

and reduces artifacts in T2-weighted sequences, such as DWI. Higher SNR can also be accounted for by a multi-element coil ranging, such as the 18-channel body matrix coil in the dpTX 3.0T system, which allow for improved homogeneity of signal; the dpTX 3.0T gradient system is also designed to reduce eddy currents. This implies that with new RF excitation techniques, even artifact-prone sequences such as abdominal EPI sequences can now be acquired with a high success rate.

Non-dpTX 3.0T imaging systems continue to be useful for various other applications within the abdomen, particularly those not affected by B₁ inhomogeneity, such as T1-weighted sequences. T2-weighted imaging, although limited within the abdomen, can be obtained without too much disturbing artifact in certain anatomical distributions (*i.e.*, intracranially). However, only recently has DWI been shown to have sufficient image quality within the abdomen. Our study illustrates both objective and subjective utility of this sequence in the abdominal distribution while imaging under a 3.0T system which incorporates dual-source RF excitation. Because the sampled regions were targeted to investigate clinically-relevant areas and/or distributions where B₁ inhomogeneity is known to cause severe deficiencies with DW imaging in higher field strengths, we believe the findings in our study are important for decisions radiologists will make regarding patient management. To our knowledge, there has been no prior study to show improved SNR or equal diagnostic value of DWI of the abdomen, when comparing 1.5T imaging systems to those of higher field strengths.

Study limitations

The study had limitations. For one, 28% of the studies

in the non-dpTX 3.0T patient leg of the study had such significant artifacts, that the data could not be used in calculation of the SNR. The images were, however, used when subjectively rating image quality and diagnostic value. In addition, there are 3 averages used when creating DW images on a dpTX 3.0T, compared to 4 on the other two systems. This additional average would theoretically increase the SNR by $\sqrt{1.3}$, so additional averages by the latter two systems would theoretically cause a higher SNR than the dpTX 3.0T scanner; however despite this disadvantage, the dpTX 3.0T still produced the highest SNR. In the volunteer leg of the study, the number of averages was kept constant for all three scanners. Another limitation is the coils that were used-different body coils and different phased array receiver coils. This likely contributed to differences in SNR, but for the purpose of our investigation, the provided coils were considered part of the system. The patients were selected randomly for each of the scanners; although they were not assigned to scanners based on body habitus, disease type or severity, or claustrophobic conditions, it cannot be fully assured that the images scanned were identical. Therefore a control group was considered by scanning the same volunteers on all three systems. Finally, although the image interpreters were not informed of the types of scans they were evaluating, a true blinding could not be performed as the radiologists, from experience, might have been able to recognize the images as being from one of the three systems. This may have led to bias during subjective grading. The findings of improved SNR and reduced artifact are limited to only those regions imaged within the abdomen.

In conclusion, our findings indicate that dpTX 3.0T scanners which incorporate dual-source parallel RF

excitation with parallel transmission provide diffusion-weighted images of the abdomen with superior SNR, while preserving the image quality and robustness that make 1.5T imaging systems popular. As numerous investigations are currently being performed to assess for pathology/malignancy using diffusion-weighted sequences, it is possible that the improved SNR inherent in newer 3.0T scanners can lead to increased specificity and sensitivity of findings.

COMMENTS

Background

Diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) is rapidly gaining popularity for assessment of intra-abdominal oncologic and non-oncologic pathologies. In current clinical settings, this evaluation is mainly performed with 1.5T magnetic resonance (MR) systems; and data from most of the recent investigative studies in the literature have defined lesions within the abdomen using this field strength.

Research frontiers

To date, diffusion-weighted imaging has been advocated to have numerous utilities in further evaluating several abdominal and pelvic organs. The technique may be useful in determining pathology in the liver (degree of cirrhosis/fibrosis), kidneys (lesion characterization, renal failure, pyelonephritis), pancreas (pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer), bowel (Crohn's disease), and uterus (endometriosis).

Applications

The dpTX 3.0T scanner provided the highest signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). Its image quality, lack of ghosting, and diagnostic value were equal to or outperformed most currently used systems.

Peer review

The authors compared DW images in the abdomen in 1.5T and 3.0T systems (dpTX 3.0T and non-dpTX 3.0T) in two groups of 150 patients and 10 volunteers. Objective and subjective measures were used to evaluate the indexes of SNR, image quality, ghosting artifacts, and diagnostic value of DWI among three MR systems. The results showed that the dpTX 3.0T scanner provided the highest SNR with were similar or better performance. The results are interesting.

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Bilateral primary xanthoma of the humeri with pathologic fractures: A case report

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Key words: Xanthoma; Hyperlipidemia; Pathologic fracture

Core tip: Primary xanthoma of bone is very rare, and the clinical and radiological presentation of this case is distinctly uncommon. This condition can occur in patients with both normal and abnormal lipid profiles. The radiological features are protean and can appear both aggressive and nonaggressive, hence the diagnosis can usually only be made with a biopsy.

Ali S, Fedenko A, Syed AB, Matcuk G, Patel D, Gottsegen C, White E. Bilateral primary xanthoma of the humeri with pathologic fractures: A case report. *World J Radiol* 2013; 5(9): 345-348 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1949-8470/full/v5/i9/345.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4329/wjr.v5.i9.345>

Abstract

Xanthomas are rare bone tumors that occur more often in the appendicular skeleton and typically appear radiographically benign, with a narrow zone of transition and a sclerotic rim. We report the case of a 57-year-old woman with hyperlipidemia presenting with bilateral shoulder pain after minor trauma. Radiographic and histopathologic investigation demonstrated intraosseous xanthoma with atypical features, including multifocality, a wide zone of transition and pathologic fractures-characteristics more commonly associated with aggressive lesions such as multiple myeloma or metastasis. The diagnosis, imaging, and histological appearance of xanthoma of bone are reviewed.

INTRODUCTION

Xanthoma is a clinically “nodular” condition resulting from improper accumulation of cholesterol or triglycerides in histiocytes, and often results in soft-tissue and subcutaneous nodules. Xanthomas of bone, however, are very rare^[1]. These lesions usually occur in the appendicular skeleton, especially the long bones such as the tibia. No bone is spared, however, and lesions can occur anywhere in the appendicular or axial skeleton including the bony pelvis, spine and skull base. Most xanthomas of bone occur in patients with a hyperlipidemic state^[1,2] and may be associated enzyme deficiencies such as lipoprotein lipase^[3], although there have been documented cases of osseous xanthoma in patients with a normal lipid profile^[4]. We present an unusual case of a woman that presented with bilateral shoulder pain and

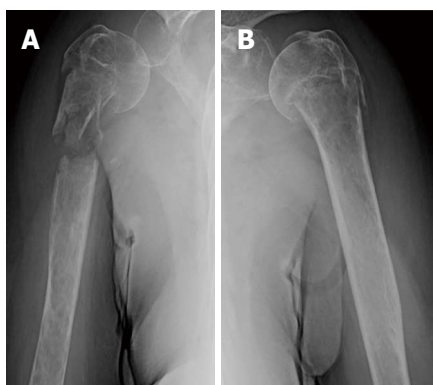


Figure 1 Anteroposterior radiographs of the humeri, showing bilateral proximal humeral pathologic fractures and underlying aggressive appearing ill-defined permeative lytic lesions, more pronounced in the right humerus.

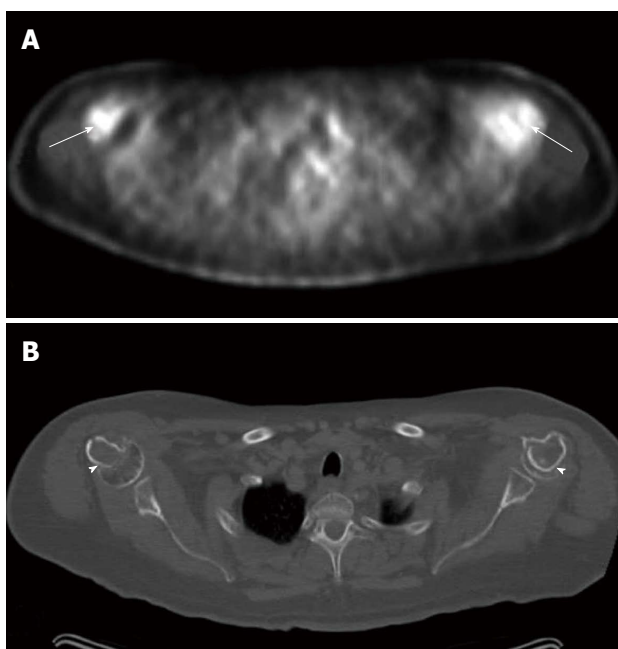


Figure 2 Positron emission tomography-computed tomography. A: Axial PET image of the bilateral proximal humeral bones, showing increased uptake of F-18 FDG (arrows) in and adjacent to the fractures; B: Demonstrated on the corresponding CT image (arrowheads). PET: Positron emission tomography; FDG: Fluorodeoxyglucose; CT: Computed tomography.

pathologic fractures after minor trauma, and was found to have bilateral primary xanthomas despite clinical and radiographic findings atypical for xanthoma of bone.

CASE REPORT

A 57-year-old woman was in her usual state of good health until she fell and sustained fractures of the bilateral proximal humeri. At this time, it was felt that the fractures were likely pathologic as aggressive appearing osteolytic lesions were seen in the humeri on radiographs. The patient was evaluated by medical oncologists who performed a metastatic workup, which was negative. There was concern that the patient may have a primary

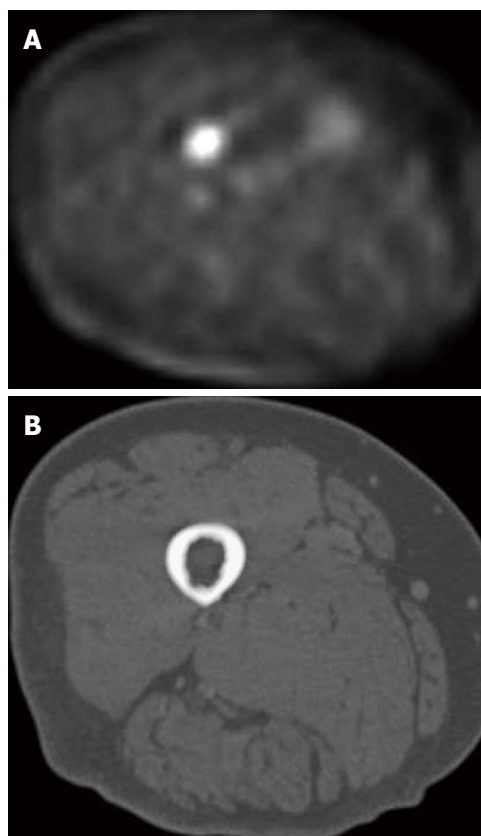


Figure 3 Positron emission tomography-computed tomography. A: Axial PET image of the proximal right femur, showing increased uptake of F-18 FDG; B: Corresponding CT with morphologically normal proximal right femur. PET-CT: Positron emission tomography-computed tomography.

tumor of bone despite the bilaterality of the lesions.

The radiographs demonstrated bilateral comminuted proximal humeral pathologic fractures, with underlying poorly defined permeative lytic lesions that extended into the diaphysis on the right, and remained confined to the proximal humerus on the left (Figure 1). There was no internal matrix, visible soft tissue mass or periosteal reaction. Whole body and axial positron emission tomography-computed tomography (PET-CT) imaging was subsequently performed to evaluate the possibility of bony metastasis, and showed increased uptake of F-18 FDG in the proximal humeri and in the proximal right femur (Figures 2A, B and 3A). Although the proximal humeral uptake could have been attributed to the fractures, the proximal femoral lesion could not be as it appeared morphologically normal on CT (Figure 3B). A decision was made not to pursue an MRI, but to proceed directly to biopsy of the humeral lesions.

The patient was taken to the operating room for biopsy and possible resection and reconstruction. A frozen section was obtained during surgery and revealed numerous histiocytes and macrophages, but no tumor cells were seen. The entire lesion was excised and the proximal humerus was resected. The gross pathologic sample showed multiple tan colored bone and soft tissue fragments. Histology showed foamy lipidic histiocytic cells infiltrating the bone marrow (Figure 4).

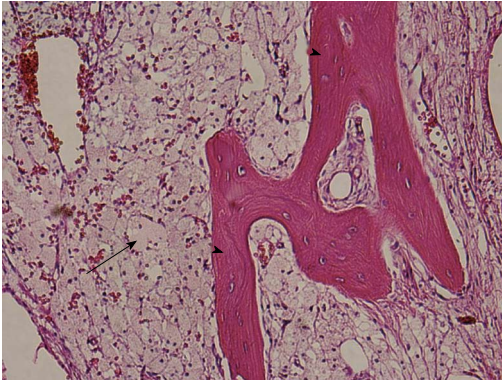


Figure 4 Hematoxylin and eosin stained image ($\times 125$ magnification). The biopsy specimen demonstrating foamy lipidic histiocytic infiltration (arrow) of marrow; Trabeculae are noted (arrowheads).



Figure 5 Lesion was excised, and a long stemmed proximal humerus modular endoprosthesis was inserted.

Table 1 Lipid profile showing significantly elevated total cholesterol and triglycerides, with comparably unremarkable high density lipoprotein and low density lipoprotein

Test name	Lipid panel result (mg/dL)	Reference range (mg/dL)
Total cholesterol	438 (H)	< 200
Triglyceride	1626 (H)	< 200
HDL	37	> 45
LDL	107	< 160

HDL: High density lipoprotein; LDL: Low density lipoprotein.

Immunoperoxidase staining of the histiocytic cells was positive for CD68, and negative for keratin and CD45. These findings indicated that the bone sample was histopathologically consistent with lipid granulomatosis or xanthomatosis of bone. Furthermore, the patient's lipid profile demonstrated a triglyceride level of 1626 mg/dL and a total cholesterol level of 438 mg/dL, both markedly elevated (Table 1). HDL and LDL levels were both relatively unremarkable with values of 37 mg/dL and 107 mg/dL respectively. The rest of the biochemical and hematological profiles were normal. The combination of radiologic features, foamy histiocytic cells on histology, and elevated lipid profile is consistent with a diagnosis of osseous xanthoma, most likely secondary to the patient's hyperlipidemic state.

This patient underwent proximal humeral resection and reconstruction with endoprosthesis (Figure 5). Histological evaluation of the proximal femoral lesion was not obtained, as follow up imaging was planned. If the size and metabolic activity of the femoral lesion decreased with control of her lipid profile, then the lesions would be assumed to be additional xanthomas. Lack of change with strict lipid control would warrant further biopsy.

Two weeks after the resection, the patient was seen in clinic and had no major complaints. Her wound was dry and intact. The skin staples were removed.

The final diagnosis was primary hyperlipidemia. Subsequent management of the patient was wound care and follow up of the humeral prosthesis. Aggressive

management of her triglyceride and cholesterol levels was commenced by her internist and endocrinologist, including the use of statins and diet, in order to prevent recurrence.

DISCUSSION

The variable nature of osseous xanthoma can represent a diagnostic challenge. Typically, osseous xanthoma appears lytic with a narrow zone of transition. A sclerotic rim is often completely or partly present^[5], making it difficult to differentiate from more common benign lesions such as nonossifying fibroma, fibrous dysplasia, simple bone cyst or brown tumor of hyperparathyroidism^[1,5]. Rarely, lesions can have an aggressive appearance with a wide zone of transition and may be multifocal resembling multiple myeloma or metastases^[6], as shown in the humeri in this case. Bone expansion can also be seen^[5]. Significant marrow accumulation of lipid results in a structurally weak bone, and pathologic fractures may occur especially in the weightbearing tibia, femur, and pelvis^[6], but is distinctly uncommon in a nonweightbearing bone such as the humerus. Radionuclide bone scans typically show uptake of Tc99m-MDP, and multifocal lesions that are not radiographically visible may be detected^[7]. PET or PET-CT scans show intense uptake of F-18 FDG. In the case presented, the maximum standardized uptake value (SUV max) of the right proximal femur lesion was 6.9, which is markedly elevated, even though the femur was morphologically normal on CT. MRI is nonspecific, with lesions showing low T1 signal, although there is often peripheral T1 hyperintensity due to lipid accumulation, and elevated T2 signal. An exophytic soft tissue component is not uncommon, and reactive bone sclerosis may result in peripheral low signal intensity on all sequences. Contrast enhancement is variable^[8].

The radiologic differential diagnosis depends on the age of the patient. In a patient above 40 years, the lesions can be indistinguishable from osseous metastasis or multiple myeloma. Combined with a positive bone or PET scan, as in this case, biopsy is usually warranted. In younger patients, Langerhans cell histiocytosis, Erdheim-Chester disease, and less likely primary bone tumor

should also be considered^[5].

Osseous xanthoma typically occurs in the setting of hyperlipidemia, especially primary or familial hyperlipidemia^[1]. It is more commonly reported in familial hyperlipidemia types II b and III^[2,9], and rarely in types I, IV, and V^[9,10]. Osseous xanthoma in the absence of hyperlipidemia has also been reported^[4,11].

Histologically, the typical appearance is a lesion consisting of sheets of foam cells and occasional mononuclear or multinucleated giant cells. Xanthoma lesions may stain positively with Factor 13-A, a marker characteristic of some histiocytic proliferations^[11].

Treatment is typically with curettage and bone grafting and is usually curative, however internal fixation may be indicated in some cases especially after a pathologic fracture^[11]. Adjuvant radiotherapy may be indicated when curettage is incomplete or difficult to achieve, as in the skull base or spine^[11-13].

In conclusion, we have described an uncommon clinical and radiological presentation of osseous xanthoma, a rare cause of bone tumor. Although classically described as lytic with well-defined borders, this patient demonstrated that the radiologic characteristics of osseous xanthoma may include multifocal lesions, poorly defined margins and pathologic fractures in nonweightbearing bones. The variability of appearance of osseous xanthoma reinforces the need for tissue biopsy in diagnosis.

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Ectopic insertion of the ureter into the seminal vesicle

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Core tip: We present the role of the traditional technique of computed tomography seminal vesiculography in the diagnosis of the rare anomaly of ectopic insertion of the ureter into the seminal vesicle in a male patient.

El-Ghar MA, El-Diasty T. Ectopic insertion of the ureter into the seminal vesicle. *World J Radiol* 2013; 5(9): 349-351 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1949-8470/full/v5/i9/349.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4329/wjr.v5.i9.349>

Abstract

We present a case of left ectopic ureter insertion into the left seminal vesicle which is a rare anomaly. The incidence of ectopic insertion of the ureter is more common in females and is usually associated with incontinence, leading to the diagnosis, while in males it is present with infection. Ectopic ureter is defined as abnormal insertion of the ureter, occurring in the posterior urethra in approximately 50% of cases in males. Other sites include the seminal vesicle (approximately one-third), vas deferens, bladder neck, prostate and epididymis, while the urethra and vagina are commonly affected in females. Management is usually addressed to the upper tract only; if there is incontinence it requires removal of the ureteric stump. Our case was initially diagnosed by magnetic resonance imaging and the diagnosis confirmed by computed tomography (CT) guided seminal vesiculography as transrectal guidance for seminal vesiculography was refused by the patient. CT guided seminal vesiculography is less painful and more tolerable than the transrectal route.

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Key words: Seminal vesicle; Ectopic; Ureter; Magnetic resonance imaging; Computed tomography; Seminal vesiculography

INTRODUCTION

Ectopic insertion of the ureter is defined as abnormal insertion of the ureter, usually distal to the trigone into the urethra in male in approximately 50% of cases^[1]. Other sites include the seminal vesicle (approximately one-third), vas deferens, bladder neck, prostate and epididymis, while the urethra and vagina are commonly affected in females. Ectopic insertion of the ureter in the genital tract is a rare anomaly. Its incidence, as reported by Fraser, is about 1:130000. It is more common in females and is usually associated with incontinence, leading to the diagnosis, while in males, it is present with infection

CASE REPORT

We present a case of ectopic insertion of the left ureter into the seminal vesicle (SV). It was initially diagnosed by magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and confirmed by computed tomography (CT) seminal vesiculography.

A twenty eight year old male presented with terminal hematuria of 1 mo duration, with a history of left simple nephrectomy 25 years ago and open heart surgery for a ventricular septal defect 15 years ago. Clinical examination and laboratory investigations were free.

Pelvic ultrasound (US) showed a multilocular cystic lesion posterior to the bladder to the left (Figure 1).

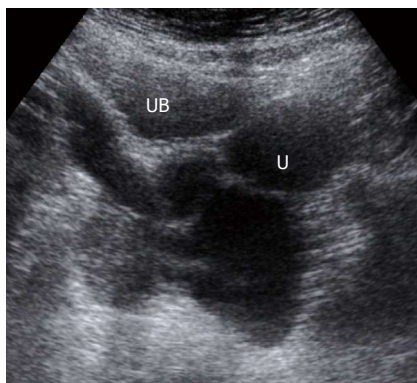


Figure 1 Ultrasound of the pelvis shows a multilocular cystic lesion posterior to the bladder to the left. U: Uterus; UB: Urinary bladder.

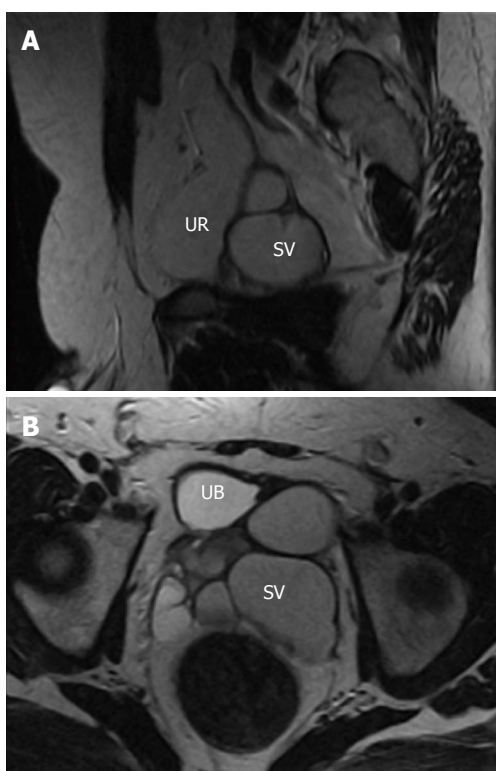


Figure 2 Sagittal T2-weighted magnetic resonance imaging. A: The left ureter stump with ectopic insertion into the dilated left seminal vesicle (SV); B: Altered fluid content at the dilated left seminal vesicle with relative low small intestine. UB: Urinary bladder; UR: Ureter.

Ascending cystogram was free. MRI showed a tubular structure at the left representing the ureteric stump of the nephrectomized left kidney inserted into the dilated left seminal vesicle (Figure 2A). The left seminal vesicle showed altered fluid content (Figure 2B). CT guided puncture of the dilated left SV was done with injection of contrast inside (Figure 3A). Imaging of the abdomen and pelvis after SV puncture showed opacification of the left SV, the left ureter stump and the left vas deferens (Figure 3B).

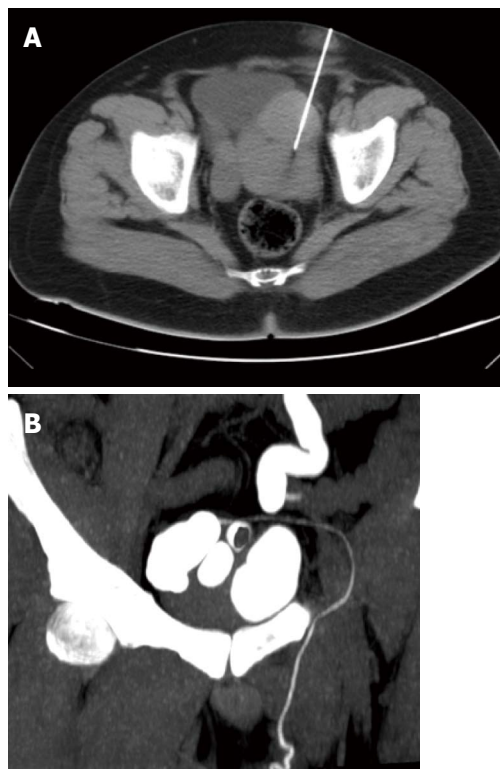


Figure 3 Axial computed tomography. A: The pelvis with needle punctures of the left seminal vesicle; B: Contrast opacification of the seminal vesicle, vas deferens and left ureter stump.

DISCUSSION

There is an association between congenital anomalies of the seminal vesicle and urinary tract anomalies due to their close embryological relationship^[2]. CT and MRI are used for accurate delineation of the ureteral insertion, while MRI is the modality of choice for seminal vesicle evaluation. The difficulty in the diagnosis of ectopic insertion of the ureter usually occurs when it is not dilated and its insertion cannot be identified; in this case, CT or MRI with contrast is required to confirm the diagnosis.

In a case of ectopic ureter, pelvic US can show the dilated SV as a cystic mass at the pelvis posterior to the bladder and also with dilated ipsilateral ureter if there is an associated kidney anomaly. Transrectal ultrasound (TRUS) allows better delineation of the cystic lesion wall and its relationship to the adjacent structures^[3,4]. TRUS can also be used in the puncture of the SV with contrast injection for further CT imaging.

Intravenous urography (IVU) may be of no value if the affected kidney is non-functioning. There may be smooth indentation of the bladder by the cystic lesion at IVU and ascending cystogram^[3,4]. In our case, the seminal vesicle was not enlarged enough to indent the bladder at the cystogram.

CT shows the cystic lesion with low fluid density posterior to the bladder with no post-contrast enhancement

and it can also diagnose associated renal anomalies^[3-5].

MRI has a superior soft tissue contrast that easily allows differentiation of the pelvic structures and associated pelvic anomalies. At MRI, the seminal vesicles appear as elongated cystic structures with thin septa. It displays low signal intensity (SI) at T1-weighted and high SI at T2-weighted MRI. The SI may be altered if the SV fluid contains high protein^[3,4]. MRI with gadolinium can delineate the ureteric course in the normal functioning kidney in the excretory phase and can also diagnose associated seminal vesicle abnormalities.

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Express *t* test as *t* (in italics), *F* test as *F* (in italics), chi square test as χ^2 (in Greek), related coefficient as *r* (in italics), degree of freedom as *v* (in Greek), sample number as *n* (in italics), and probability as *P* (in italics).

Units

Use SI units. For example: body mass, *m* (B) = 78 kg; blood pressure, *p* (B) = 16.2/12.3 kPa; incubation time, *t* (incubation) = 96 h, blood glucose concentration, *c* (glucose) 6.4 ± 2.1 mmol/L; blood CEA mass concentration, *p* (CEA) = 8.6 24.5 μ g/L; CO₂ volume fraction, 50 mL/L CO₂, not 5% CO₂; likewise for 40 g/L formaldehyde, not 10% formalin; and mass fraction, 8 ng/g, *etc.* Arabic numerals such as 23, 243, 641 should be read 23 243 641.

The format for how to accurately write common units and quantities can be found at: http://www.wjgnet.com/1948-5204/g_info_20100312183048.htm.

Abbreviations

Standard abbreviations should be defined in the abstract and on first mention in the text. In general, terms should not be abbreviated unless they are used repeatedly and the abbreviation is helpful to the reader. Permissible abbreviations are listed in Units, Symbols and Abbreviations: A Guide for Biological and Medical Editors and Authors (Ed. Baron DN, 1988) published by The Royal Society of Medicine, London. Certain commonly used abbreviations, such as DNA, RNA, HIV, LD50, PCR, HBV, ECG, WBC, RBC, CT, ESR, CSF, IgG, ELISA, PBS, ATP, EDTA, mAb, can be used directly without further explanation.

Italics

Quantities: *t* time or temperature, *c* concentration, *A* area, *l* length, *m* mass, *V* volume.

Genotypes: *gyrA*, *arg 1*, *c myc*, *c fos*, *etc.*

Restriction enzymes: *EcoRI*, *HindI*, *BamHI*, *Kbo I*, *Kpn I*, *etc.*

Biology: *H. pylori*, *E. coli*, *etc.*

Examples for paper writing

All types of articles' writing style and requirement will be found in the link: <http://www.wjgnet.com/esps/NavigationInfo.aspx?id=15>

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