

Title page

The Artifacts of Death. CT Post Mortem Findings.

Running title

Post Mortem CT

Authors

Tom Sutherland MBBS(hons) MMed Grad Dip Clin Ed FRANZCR 1,2

Chris O'Donnell 3,4 MBBS, MMed, Grad Dip For Med FRANZCR

1. St Vincent's Hospital, Medical Imaging Department, 41 Victoria Pde Fitzroy 3065
2. University of Melbourne, Faculty of Medicine, Dentistry and Health Science, Parkville
3. Victorian Institute of Forensic Medicine, 65 Kavanagh St Southbank 3006
4. Monash University, Department of Forensic Medicine

Corresponding Author

Tom.sutherland@svha.org.au

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2 A/PROF. TOM SUTHERLAND (Orcid ID : 0000-0001-9668-1995)

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8 Post-mortem CT plays an increasing role in the evaluation of deceased patients (1)
9 working as an ally with established pathology frameworks (2-4). There are a number of
10 post-mortem specific artefacts that are not normally encountered by clinical radiologists
11 and these have the potential to mimic or obscure underlying pathologies, or result in
12 distraction for the radiologist. An adequate comprehension and appreciation of the
13 'normal' imaging appearances or so-called artefacts of death is vital to maximise the
14 accuracy and utility of post-mortem CT. The intellectual approach to post-mortem CT is
15 also different to clinical studies. Clinically much of the focus is forward looking, based
16 upon determining what is wrong with the patient now and what can be done i.e. the
17 effect of disease or trauma. Post-mortem imaging is more concerned with looking back
18 to determine how and why did the patient reach this point i.e. the cause. The following
19 review describes the post-mortem imaging process and introduces the common post-
20 mortem imaging artefacts illustrated with representative examples.

21 **CT Technique**

22 At the Victorian Institute of Forensic Medicine (VIFM) the CT protocol is to perform the
23 examination as rapidly as possible to minimise the degree of decompositional changes.
24 The decedent is initially scanned within the body bag in the supine position (where
25 possible) without any attempt to reposition the limbs or head, and has usually been
26 undressed by mortuary technicians unless the case is a suspected homicide. Non-
27 contrast CT is obtained from skull vertex to sternal notch with 1mm reconstructions in
28 both soft tissue and bone kernels. A second scan is then performed from skull vertex to
29 beyond the feet with 1.5mm soft tissue window reconstructions. The studies are then
30 reviewed on a commercially available 3-D workstation. Due to these positioning factors,
31 beam-hardening artefact occurs because of the limbs and interference may be present

32 due to metal both within and outside the patient (Figure 1). Post processing is therefore
33 important to maximise image quality, especially as the vast majority of scans are
34 performed without any exogenous contrast agents. Following the preliminary CT, the
35 scan may be repeated to reduce these artefacts.

36 **Rotatory subluxation cervical spine**

37 The cervical spine and in particular the craniocervical junction has a highly varied
38 appearance at PMCT based upon patient positioning. Due to the loss of muscle tone
39 coupled with head rotation and variable degrees of extension, subluxation at the
40 craniocervical and atlantoaxial articulations are common(5) (figure 2). This is
41 frequently encountered in non-traumatic cases when it can be dismissed, while in the
42 setting of trauma, a repeat scan with improved radiographic positioning may be
43 necessary. The absence of blood or focal gas around the thecal sac and skull base is also
44 a useful finding that the subluxation is more likely artifactual rather than pathologic.

45 **Livor mortis**

46 Livor mortis, also known as lividity and post-mortem hypostasis, relates to body fluids
47 settling in dependent positions following cessation of cardiovascular circulation. This is
48 evident on inspection of the body by reddish discolouration in the dependent aspect,
49 while on CT is encountered as increased density in the lungs, dependent skin thickening
50 and haematocrit formation in vessels. Haematocrit formation is most easily seen in large
51 chambers, especially the right atrium (figure 3a). The pulmonary shifts of fluid are
52 relatively constrained by the interlobular fissures (figure 3b) and appears as ground
53 glass opacities with a relatively straight margin although early cases will be appreciable
54 as a gradient of increasing density towards dependent aspects (6). It is important to
55 remember that the pattern of lividity is dictated by the positioning of the body at the
56 time of death (figure 3c) and many decedents are found in positions other than supine.

57 **Decomposition**

58 Decomposition refers to the breakdown of tissues and loss of cellular integrity that
59 occurs following death. The two main processes are autolysis and putrefaction. The
60 human body must be maintained within a narrow window of temperature, pH and
61 oxygenation, and once outside this range, putrefaction rapidly commences.

62

63 Autolysis is the breakdown of cells by intracellular enzymatic processes with the rate
64 being dictated by temperature (slows in cold conditions) and the concentration of the
65 enzymes (rapid in enzymatically rich tissues such as the pancreas)(7). The fat around
66 the pancreas is therefore frequently irregular which can pass towards the coeliac plexus,
67 rendering it challenging to diagnose acute pancreatitis. A specific example of autolysis is
68 so-called gastromalacia (figure 4a) whereby gastric acids cause the stomach (usually in
69 the fundus where such fluid pools) to perforate leading to free gas and fluid in the
70 peritoneal cavity often without other features of decomposition such as putrefaction.
71 This phenomenon also rarely occurs in the posterior mediastinum (known as
72 oesophagomalacia). To identify these cases it is important to note that free
73 intraperitoneal or mediastinal gas is prominent, and gas in the mesenteric and portal
74 venous systems is relatively minor.

75 Putrefaction is related to bacterial growth and fermentation (7) being an anaerobic
76 process and first evident in bacteria rich sites, most typically the gut. Upon inspection of
77 the body, putrefaction is first noted by greenish discolouration of the skin in the right
78 iliac fossa, with this related to the close anatomical relationship of the bacteria rich
79 caecum. As an anaerobic process, gas is produced, which with breakdown of mucosal
80 integrity results in pneumatosis, followed by gas within the mesenteric/portal venous
81 system (figure 4b), right heart, body wall (figure 4c) and eventually free peritoneal gas.
82 The rate of putrefaction is highly variable and the gaseous by-products makes it
83 challenging to detect gut ischemia and even pre-mortem hollow viscus perforation.
84 Unusual distributions/locations of gas can raise the suggestion of pre-mortem pathology
85 at that site, but unfortunately unlike in pre-mortem imaging, this is neither sensitive nor
86 specific. The rate of putrefaction may be modified by the body's location, for example
87 being quicker in areas exposed to heat or areas that are well insulated.

88 More advanced cases of decomposition can develop generalized liquefaction and
89 saponification especially in the thoracic and abdominal cavities. Saponification is
90 secondary to hydrolysis and hydrogenation of fat and typically occurs in damp
91 environments with enough heat for microorganisms to flourish. This process results in
92 fluid-fluid levels, typically within the peritoneal cavity, that may be missed or be
93 mistaken for blood using standard viewing windows. It is important to measure the
94 Hounsfield density of the components as the dependent aspect will be close to water (0-
95 10) and the anti-dependent aspect having a negative number (figure 4d) in the range of -
96 20 to -100 which with incorrect window settings may be mistaken for air.

97 The final stage of decomposition is skeletalisation, at which point the soft tissues have
98 decayed, been consumed by animals or insects, or dried to the point that the skeleton is
99 exposed. At this point, medical devices and implants may move or fall out of the body
100 cavity (figure 4e).

101 **Blood**

102 Upon cessation of the circulation, sedimentation occurs with cellular elements becoming
103 dependent relative to serum(8). The non-cellular elements can leak from the vascular
104 system, increasing the apparent haematocrit (6) as the dense iron containing
105 components cluster in the dependent vessel, leading to an increased Housfeld Unit.
106 Clotting and fibrinolysis processes may occur simultaneously (6) and post-mortem clot
107 is most frequently encountered in cardiac chambers and large vessels (figure 5a). These
108 post-mortem clots render it challenging to differentiate ante-mortem thrombosis and
109 emboli. In our experience if the clot conforms to the shape of the vessel it is likely post-
110 mortem, while if it is irregular or cord like then it is more likely, but not invariably, ante-
111 mortem. In cases of haemopericardium, the clot can form a shell around the heart with a
112 separate encasing serum layer (so-called hammer heart)(figure 5b) which is thought to
113 occur when the haemopericardium develops while cardiac pulsation persists as this
114 produces dynamic pressure variation that molds the clot. In contrast
115 haemopericardium producing sudden cardiac death tends to layer and form a
116 haematocrit, although unfortunately hammer heart is not a specific sign as pulsation
117 may be provided by well-administered chest compressions or the blood may not clot if
118 the patient is anticoagulated.

119 Blood beyond the vascular system has 2 distinct patterns. In the peritoneal cavity it
120 tends to remain liquid producing an haematocrit especially in the pelvis and paracolic
121 gutters (figure 5c). Otherwise clotted blood tends to retain its high radio-density
122 despite decomposition and can provide a clue to cause of death. A careful search for the
123 site of haemorrhage may reveal a sentinel clot or a pathologic appearing vessel. The
124 vessels themselves become collapsed after death as the patient no longer has blood
125 pressure. This alters the morphology of vessels, which can become concave while
126 aneurysms may have a lax margin similar to a collapsed rubber band (figure 5d). The
127 absence of intravascular pressure allows fluid and gas to easily track into potential
128 spaces and recesses. A classic example is in patients with haemopericardium who upon
129 collapse of the aorta have blood track into the peri-aortic peri-cardiac recesses. It is
130 important to recognise this as the blood in the recess, coupled with the collapsed wall of

131 the ascending aorta, can be mistaken as a type A dissection with rupture - the so-called
132 pseudo-dissection sign (figure 5e).

133 **Agonal period**

134 The time over which a patient dies, including the period of resuscitation is referred to as
135 the agonal period and it is vital to remember that changes from extrinsic factors
136 frequently occur during this phase. Examples include resuscitation and other medical
137 interventions, while further changes may occur within the mortuary itself. A classic
138 mortuary fracture is breaking an ankylosed spine during routine decedent handling.
139 The dynamic intervention around the time of dying needs to be remembered and
140 recognised. Rib fractures in the anterior ribs bilaterally, frequently with a buckle type
141 morphology are regularly encountered in patients who have received chest
142 compressions(9) (figure 6a). Likewise CPR can result in cardiac rupture, which in our
143 experience is typically right atrial or ventricular and usually in patients with massive
144 pulmonary embolism, where the obstructed outflow tract produces high right heart
145 pressure with CPR (figure 6b). Pneumothorax is also an often encountered complication
146 as are cases of pulmonary and upper abdominal visceral laceration/contusion (figure
147 6c), and a history, along with other patterns of injury can be useful to differentiate
148 resuscitation injuries, from preceding trauma including ventilation. At times though a
149 clear distinction cannot be made. PMCT is far more sensitive and specific for the
150 detection of ectopic gas such as pneumothorax and pneumopericardium compared with
151 autopsy.

152 Airway intervention may result in dislodged teeth that can be 'aspirated' (figure 6d) and
153 at times large objects such as entire dentures (figure 6e) can become wedged in the
154 aerodigestive tract. Various lines, tubes and catheters may be inserted and need to be
155 closely inspected to determine if they are in the correct position (figure 6f).

156 Gas is frequently encountered in the inguinal fossae and eyes secondary to post-mortem
157 blood and vitreous samples being taken for toxicology purposes. Prominent arterial
158 system gas is encountered in divers who die while submerged. Retrieving the body to
159 the surface reduces pressure and allows the dissolved systemic gases to leave the
160 solution. This can lead to difficulty in diagnosing gas embolism as a cause of death
161 (figure 7).

162 **Lung changes**

163 The pulmonary parenchyma and airways are challenging to assess in the post-mortem
164 setting. Around 50% of patients will aspirate at the time of death (figure 8a), due to loss
165 of muscle tone within the lower oesophageal sphincter, and thus fluid and debris is
166 commonly encountered in both major and minor airways. At times, the absence of
167 aspiration can support a cause of death, for example in cases of choking (figure 8b). The
168 lungs are poorly distended and coupled with aspiration and lividity changes may
169 obscure nodules, consolidation and lymph nodes. When the pulmonary density changes
170 are asymmetric, central or in an anti-dependent position, it increases the likelihood of
171 them being pathologic, however it is vital to determine how the body was positioned
172 when it was found, as this may be significantly different to how it is positioned on the CT
173 scanner.

174

175 Several groups describe post-mortem ventilation lung CT using continuous positive
176 pressures delivered via multiple means including endotracheal tubes, laryngeal masks,
177 tracheostomies and continuous positive airway pressure masks (10, 11). These studies
178 have demonstrated reduced conspicuity of lividity and improved detection of nodules
179 and pneumonia. The ability to use supraglottic masks increases the practicality given
180 the challenge of intubating bodies with rigor mortis.

181 **Brain changes**

182 Many of the post-mortem brain changes will be familiar to radiologists as the findings
183 are similar to those encountered in brain death studies. Changes on PMCT after one to
184 two days include a loss of grey white matter differentiation with diffuse reduction in
185 parenchymal density. This can result in vessels appearing hyperdense (figure 9a) and
186 the cortical venous involvement can result in a pseudosubarachnoid haemorrhage
187 appearance (figure 9b). These signs are usually symmetric, often prominent over the
188 cerebral convexities and sylvian fissures and less evident in the posterior fossa and
189 around the craniocervical junction. It is important to ensure there is no intraaxial or
190 intraventricular element of haemorrhage and that no skull fractures are present. As the
191 brain softens it sags to the dependent portion of the skull with gas being located in the
192 anti-dependent portion and vessels(8).

193 **Conclusion**

194 An appreciation of the artefacts associated with dying and the post-mortem state is
195 important as these are limitations of post-mortem CT, and if not recognised can lead to
196 misdiagnosis.

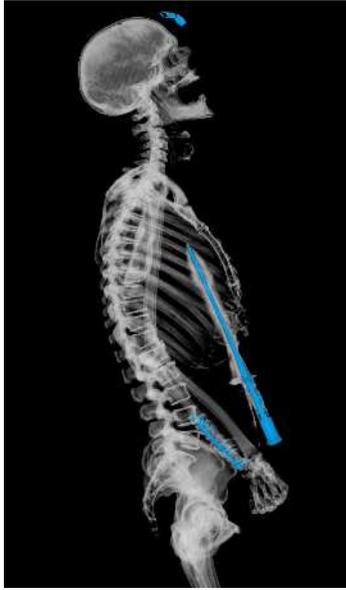
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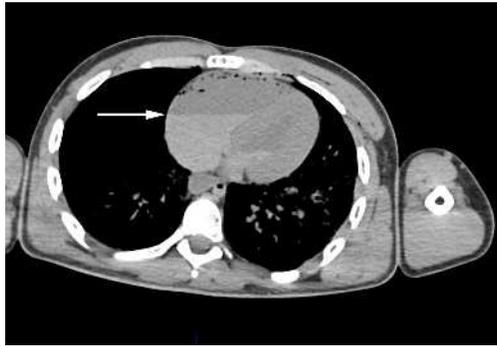
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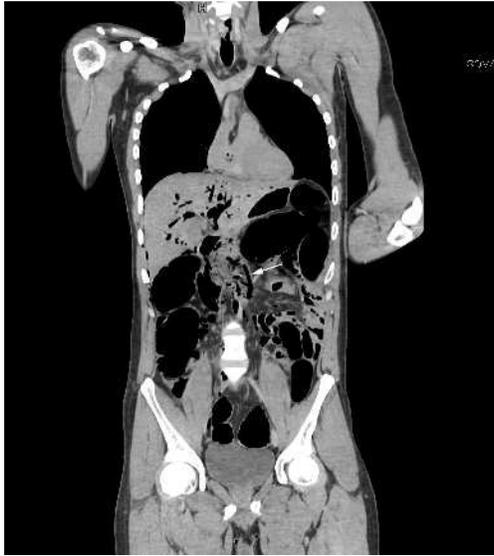
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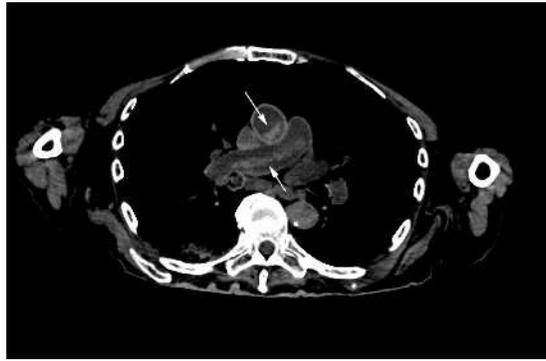
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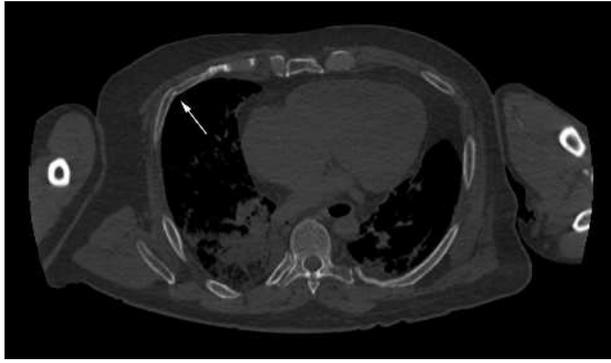
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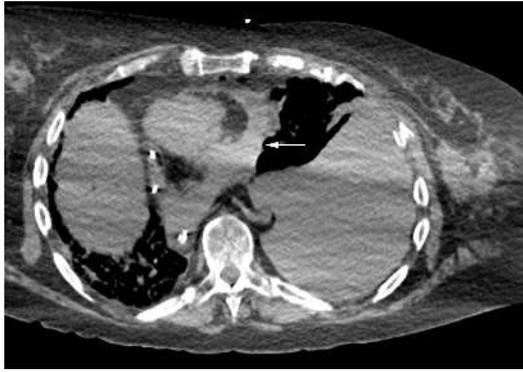
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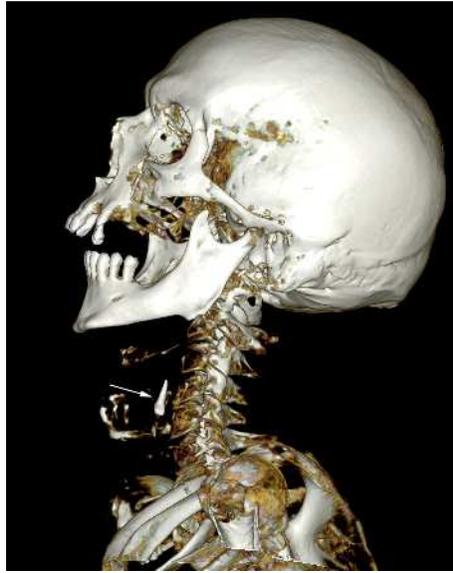
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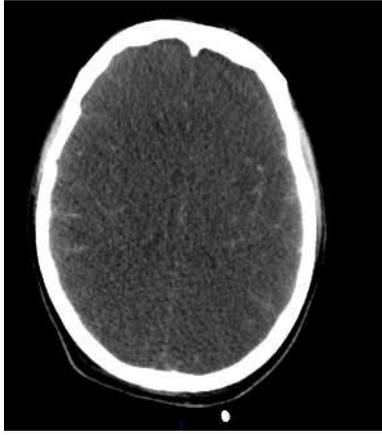
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