CIGNA MEDICAL COVERAGE POLICIES – RADIOLOGY Chest Imaging Guidelines

Effective Date: February 28, 2025





Instructions for use

The following coverage policy applies to health benefit plans administered by Cigna. Coverage policies are intended to provide guidance in interpreting certain standard Cigna benefit plans and are used by medical directors and other health care professionals in making medical necessity and other coverage determinations. Please note the terms of a customer's particular benefit plan document may differ significantly from the standard benefit plans upon which these coverage policies are based. For example, a customer's benefit plan document may contain a specific exclusion related to a topic addressed in a coverage policy.

In the event of a conflict, a customer's benefit plan document always supersedes the information in the coverage policy. In the absence of federal or state coverage mandates, benefits are ultimately determined by the terms of the applicable benefit plan document. Coverage determinations in each specific instance require consideration of:

- 1. The terms of the applicable benefit plan document in effect on the date of service
- 2. Any applicable laws and regulations
- 3. Any relevant collateral source materials including coverage policies
- 4. The specific facts of the particular situation

Coverage policies relate exclusively to the administration of health benefit plans. Coverage policies are not recommendations for treatment and should never be used as treatment guidelines.

This evidence-based medical coverage policy has been developed by EviCore, Inc. Some information in this coverage policy may not apply to all benefit plans administered by Cigna.

These guidelines include procedures EviCore does not review for Cigna. Please refer to the <u>Cigna CPT</u> <u>code list</u> for the current list of high-tech imaging procedures that EviCore reviews for Cigna.

CPT[®] (Current Procedural Terminology) is a registered trademark of the American Medical Association (AMA). CPT[®] five-digit codes, nomenclature and other data are copyright 2025 American Medical Association. All Rights Reserved. No fee schedules, basic units, relative values or related listings are included in the CPT book. AMA does not directly or indirectly practice medicine or dispense medical services. AMA assumes no liability for the data contained herein or not contained herein.

Table of Contents

Guideline	Page
General Guidelines (CH-1)	3
Lymphadenopathy (CH-2)	14
Cough (CH-3)	21
Non-Cardiac Chest Pain (CH-4)	25
Dyspnea/Shortness of Breath (CH-5)	33
Hemoptysis (CH-6)	
Bronchiectasis (CH-7)	42
Bronchitis (CH-8)	48
Asbestos Exposure (CH-9)	
Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) (CH-10)	54
Interstitial Disease (CH-11)	58
Pneumonia and Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) (CH-13)	65
Other Chest Infections (CH-14)	73
Sarcoid (CH-15)	
Solitary Pulmonary Nodule (SPN) (CH-16)	85
Pleural-Based Nodules and Other Abnormalities (CH-17)	102
Pleural Effusion (CH-18)	106
Pneumothorax/Hemothorax (CH-19)	110
Mediastinal Mass (CH-20)	117
Chest Trauma (CH-21)	
Chest Wall Mass (CH-22)	125
Pectus Excavatum and Pectus Carinatum (CH-23)	129
Pulmonary Arteriovenous Fistula (AVM) (CH-24)	133
Pulmonary Embolism (PE) (CH-25)	137
Pulmonary Hypertension (CH-26)	
Subclavian Steal Syndrome (CH-27)	
Superior Vena Cava (SVC) Syndrome (CH-28)	150
Elevated Hemidiaphragm (CH-30)	152
Thoracic Outlet Syndrome (TOS) (CH-31)	156
Lung Transplantation (CH-32)	158
Lung Cancer Screening (CH-33)	163

General Guidelines (CH-1)

Guideline

Page

Abbreviations for Chest Guidelines	4
General Guidelines (CH-1.0)	6
General Guidelines – Chest X-Ray (CH-1.1)	7
General Guidelines – Chest Ultrasound (CH-1.2)	8
General Guidelines – CT Chest (CH-1.3)	9
General Guidelines – CTA Chest (CPT® 71275) (CH-1.4)	10
General Guidelines – MRI Chest without and with Contrast (CPT® 71552)	
(CH-1.5)	11
Navigational Bronchoscopy (CH-1.7)	12
References (CH-1)	

Chest Imaging Guidelines

Abbreviations for Chest Guidelines

CH.GG.Abbreviations.A

v1.2.2025

	Abbreviations for Chest Guidelines
AAA	abdominal aortic aneurysm
ACE	angiotensin-converting enzyme
AVM	arteriovenous malformation
BP	blood pressure
CAD	computer-aided detection
СВС	complete blood count
COPD	chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
СТ	computed tomography
СТА	computed tomography angiography
СТV	computed tomography venography
DVT	deep venous thrombosis
ECG	electrocardiogram
EM	electromagnetic
EMG	electromyogram
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
FDG	fluorodeoxyglucose
FNA	fine needle aspiration
GERD	gastroesophageal reflux disease

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

	Abbreviations for Chest Guidelines
GI	gastrointestinal
HRCT	high resolution computed tomography
IPF	idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis
LFTP	localized fibrous tumor of the pleura
MRA	magnetic resonance angiography
MRI	magnetic resonance imaging
MRV	magnetic resonance venography
NCV	nerve conduction velocity
PE	pulmonary embolus
PET	positron emission tomography
PFT	pulmonary function tests
PPD	purified protein derivative of tuberculin
RODEO	Rotating Delivery of Excitation Off-resonance MRI
SPN	solitary pulmonary nodule
SVC	superior vena cava

General Guidelines (CH-1.0)

CH.GG.0001.0.A

- A pertinent clinical evaluation since the onset or change in symptoms is required prior to considering advanced imaging.
 - A pertinent clinical evaluation should include the following:
 - a detailed history and physical examination
 - appropriate laboratory studies and basic imaging, such as plain radiography or ultrasound
 - A recent chest x-ray since the onset or change in symptoms that has been over read by a radiologist would be performed in many of these cases prior to considering advanced imaging.^{1,2}
 - Identify and compare with previous chest films to determine presence and stability.
 - For an established individual a meaningful technological contact (telehealth visit, telephone call, electronic mail or messaging) since the onset or change in symptoms can serve as a pertinent clinical evaluation.

General Guidelines – Chest X-Ray (CH-1.1)

CH.GG.0001.1.A

v1.2.2025

- Chest x-ray can help identify previously unidentified disease and direct proper advanced imaging for such conditions as:
 - pneumothorax (See <u>Pneumothorax/Hemothorax (CH-19.1)</u>)
 - pneumomediastinum (See <u>Pneumothorax/Hemothorax (CH-19.1)</u>
 - fractured ribs (See <u>Chest Trauma (CH-21.1)</u>)
 - chest wall mass (See Chest Wall Mass (CH-22.1))
 - acute and chronic infections (See <u>Pneumonia and Coronavirus Disease 2019</u> (COVID-19) (CH-13) and <u>Other Chest Infections (CH-14)</u>)
 - malignancies
- Exceptions to preliminary chest x-ray include such conditions as:
 - supraclavicular lymphadenopathy (See Supraclavicular Region (CH-2.1))
 - known bronchiectasis (See Bronchiectasis (CH-7.1))
 - suspected interstitial lung disease (See <u>Interstitial Lung Disease (ILD)/Diffuse</u> <u>Lung Disease (DLD) (CH-11.1)</u>)
 - positive PPD or tuberculosis (See Other Chest Infections (CH-14))
 - suspected pulmonary AVM (See <u>Pulmonary Hypertension (CH-26.1)</u>)

Chest Imaging Guidelines

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

General Guidelines – Chest Ultrasound (CH-1.2)

CH.GG.0001.2.A

- Chest ultrasound (CPT[®] 76604) includes transverse, longitudinal, and oblique images of the chest wall with measurements of chest wall thickness, and also includes imaging of the mediastinum.
 - Chest ultrasound:
 - CPT[®] 76604
 - Breast ultrasound:
 - CPT® 76641: unilateral, complete
 - CPT® 76642: unilateral, limited
 - CPT® 76641 and CPT® 76642 be reported only once per breast, per imaging session
 - Axillary ultrasound:
 - CPT® 76882 (unilateral); if bilateral, can be reported as CPT® 76882 x 2

General Guidelines – CT Chest (CH-1.3)

CH.GG.0001.3.A

v1.2.2025

- Intrathoracic abnormalities found on chest x-ray, fluoroscopy, CT Abdomen, or other imaging modalities can be further evaluated with CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260).
- CT Chest without contrast (CPT® 71250) can be used for the following:
 - individual has contraindication to contrast
 - follow-up of pulmonary nodule(s)
 - High Resolution CT (HRCT)
- Low-dose CT Chest (CPT[®] 71271) See <u>Lung Cancer Screening (CH-33</u>)
- CT Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71270) does not add significant diagnostic information above and beyond that provided by CT Chest with contrast, unless a question regarding calcification, most often within a lung nodule, needs to be resolved.¹

CT Chest Coding Notes:

- High resolution CT Chest should be reported only with an appropriate code from the set CPT® 71250-CPT® 71270.
 - No additional CPT[®] codes should be reported for the "high resolution" portion of the scan. The "high resolution" involves additional slices which are not separately billable.

General Guidelines – CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275) (CH-1.4)

CH.GG.0001.4.A

- CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275) can be considered for suspected Pulmonary Embolism and Thoracic Aortic disease.
 - CTA prior to minimally invasive or robotic surgery (See <u>Transcatheter Aortic</u> <u>Valve Replacement (TAVR) (CD-4.8)</u> in the Cardiac Imaging Guidelines).

General Guidelines – MRI Chest without and with Contrast (CPT[®] 71552) (CH-1.5)

CH.GG.0001.5.A

- Indications for MRI Chest are infrequent and may relate to concerns about CT contrast such as renal insufficiency or contrast allergy. MRI may be indicated:
 - Clarification of some equivocal findings on previous imaging studies, which are often in the thymic mediastinal region or determining margin (vascular/soft tissue) involvement with tumor and determined on a case-by-case basis.
 - Certain conditions include:
 - chest wall mass (See Chest Wall Mass (CH-22.1)
 - chest muscle tendon injuries (See <u>Muscle/Tendon Unit Injuries/Diseases</u> (<u>MS-11.1</u>) in the Musculoskeletal Imaging Guidelines)
 - pectoralis tendon rupture (See Shoulder (MS-19))
 - brachial plexopathy (See <u>Brachial Plexus (PN-4.1)</u> in the Peripheral Nerve Disorders Imaging Guidelines)
 - thymoma (See <u>Thymoma and Thymic Carcinoma Suspected/Diagnosis</u> (<u>ONC-10.5</u>) in the Oncology Imaging Guidelines)

Navigational Bronchoscopy (CH-1.7)

CH.GG.0001.7.A v1.2.2025

- CPT[®] 76497 (Unlisted CT procedure) if:
 - A CT Chest has been performed within the last 6 weeks and study is needed for navigational bronchoscopy.
- CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) if:
 - Previous diagnostic scan was ≥6 weeks ago and study is needed for navigational bronchoscopy
- Bronchoscopy with computer-assisted, image-guided navigation, includes threedimensional reconstruction. Do not report in conjunction with 3-D rendering CPT codes (CPT[®] 76376) or (CPT[®] 76377).

Background and Supporting Information

- Navigational bronchoscopy: This is a form of guided bronchoscopy. A special sensor inside a bronchoscopy is used to navigate to the desired location within the lung. Computer software generates a virtual bronchial tree which provides a road map to the target lesion. A thin-cut CT Chest with optimized reconstruction parameters is required to generate the virtual map of the lungs. A previous CT Chest may not be usable for navigation if it was not formatted correctly, even if done just a few days prior.
- Names for navigational bronchoscopy systems can include:
 - superDimension or super-D
 - Spin Thoracic Navigation System
 - Archimedes
 - Monarch Platform robotic
 - Ion endoluminal robotic bronchoscopy platform
- Cone-Beam CT, (CBCT) is a newer technique that helps locate the nodule in real time. Recent studies have shown comparable results and diagnostic yields to other guided bronchoscopy strategies. CBCT, however, can expose the patient to additional radiation. Another study concluded that, "Additional studies are warranted to confirm the safety and efficacy of this technique". Efforts are required to improve diagnostic accuracy and standardized practices before CBCT can be considered mainstream.

Chest Imaging Guidelines

References (CH-1)

- 1. Raoof S, Feigin D, Sung A, Raoof S, Irugulpati L, Rosenow EC 3rd. Interpretation of plain chest roentgenogram. *Chest*. 2012;141(2):545-558. doi:10.1378/chest.10-1302
- 2. Eisen LA, Berger JS, Hegde A, Schneider RF. Competency in chest radiography. A comparison of medical students, residents, and fellows. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2006;21(5):460-465. doi:10.1111/j.1525-1497.2006.00427.x
- 3. Rawson JV, Pelletier AL. When to Order a Contrast-Enhanced CT. Am Fam Physician. 2013;88(5):312-316.
- RECOMMENDED CT SCAN and RECONSTRUCTION PARAMETERS SUPPLEMENT. https:// www.medtronic.com/content/dam/covidien/library/us/en/product/interventional-lung-solutions/illumisite-platformscan-parameters-information-sheet.pdf
- Gildea TR, Mazzone PJ, Karnak D, Meziane M, Mehta AC. Electromagnetic navigation diagnostic bronchoscopy: a prospective study. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2006;174(9):982-989. doi:10.1164/ rccm.200603-344OC
- 6. Mehta AC, Hood KL, Schwarz Y, Solomon SB. The Evolutional History of Electromagnetic Navigation Bronchoscopy: State of the Art. *Chest*. 2018;154(4):935-947. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2018.04.029
- 7. Piro R, Fontana M, Casalini E, et al. Cone beam CT augmented fluoroscopy allows safe and efficient diagnosis of a difficult lung nodule. *BMC Pulm Med*. 2021;21(1):327. doi:10.1186/s12890-021-01697-y
- 8. Podder S, Chaudry S, Singh H, Jondall EM, Kurman JS, Benn BS. Efficacy and safety of cone-beam CT augmented electromagnetic navigation guided bronchoscopic biopsies of indeterminate pulmonary nodules. *Tomography*. 2022;8(4):2049-2058.doi:10.3390/tomography8040172.

Lymphadenopathy (CH-2)

Supraclavicular Region (CH-2.1)	.15
Axillary Lymphadenopathy (and Mass) (CH-2.2)	. 16
Mediastinal Lymphadenopathy (CH-2.3)	. 18
References (CH-2)	.20

Supraclavicular Region (CH-2.1)

CH.LA.0002.1.A v1.2.2025

- Ultrasound (CPT[®] 76536) is the initial study for palpable or suspected lymphadenopathy.
 - Allows simultaneous ultrasound-guided core needle biopsy (CPT[®] 76942)
 - CT Neck with contrast (CPT[®] 70491) or CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) if ultrasound is indeterminate
 - See <u>General Guidelines (Neck-1.0)</u> in the Neck Imaging Guidelines

Evidence Discussion

For suspected or palpable supraclavicular lymphadenopathy, ultrasound (US) has an excellent sensitivity rate, up to 100% for the detection of metastases. CT Neck had a lower sensitivity rate of 83% for the same lesion. (van Overhagen,2004) Ultrasound avoids the ionizing radiation exposure of CT, is readily available and allows for the use of US-guided fine-needle aspiration cytologyfor diagnosis.

Axillary Lymphadenopathy (and Mass) (CH-2.2)

CH.LA.0002.2.A

- There is no evidence-based support for advanced imaging of clinically evidenced axillary lymphadenopathy prior to a biopsy.^{2,3} If axillary node biopsy reveals benign findings, advanced imaging is not indicated. If axillary node biopsy reveals findings concerning for malignancy, pathology results will determine the need for further advanced imaging. See <u>Carcinoma of Unknown Primary Site (ONC-31.7)</u> in the Oncology imaging Guidelines for imaging recommendations for carcinoma found in an axillary lymph node.
- Localized axillary lymphadenopathy:
 - Axillary US (CPT[®] 76882)
 - Initial evaluation of any axillary mass or enlarged node
 - · Search for adjacent hand or arm injury or infection, and
 - 3-4 week observation if benign clinical picture (for ipsilateral COVID vaccination-related adenopathy, observation for 12 or more weeks is recommended)⁴.
 Follow-up imaging with ultrasound can be obtained if there is a significant risk of metastatic adenopathy (e.g., breast, head and neck, upper extremity/trunk melanoma or lymphoma⁵)
 - If axillary adenopathy is unchanged, then consider additional follow up 6 months after initial presentation⁴
 - Ultrasound directed core needle biopsy or surgical excisional biopsy of the most abnormal lymph node if condition persists, or malignancy is suspected, or surgical excisional biopsy if core needle biopsy results are non-diagnostic.
 - No advanced imaging indicated.
- Generalized axillary lymphadenopathy:
 - Axillary US (CPT[®] 76882)
 - Initial evaluation of any axillary mass or enlarged node
 - Ultrasound directed core needle biopsy or surgical excisional biopsy of the most abnormal lymph node if condition persists, if malignancy is suspected, or surgical excisional biopsy if core needle biopsy results are non-diagnostic.
 - Diagnostic work-up, including serological tests, for systemic diseases
 - See **Non-Hodgkin Lymphomas (ONC-27)** in the Oncology Imaging Guidelines.
- Occult primary cancer in axillary lymph node(s):
 - See <u>Metastatic Cancer, Carcinoma of Unknown Primary Site, and Other Types</u> of Cancer (ONC-31) in the Oncology Imaging Guidelines.

Evidence Discussion

Initial evaluation of an axillary mass or axillary lymphadenopathy (LAN) should be ultrasound (US). US allows for real-time evaluation and immediate image-directed biopsy.(Sun,2020) CT Chest is usually not appropriate in the evaluation of axillary LAN, especially in the female population with concern for breast cancer.(Expert Panel on Breast Imaging,2022)

Ultrasound is a very important initial imaging modality which is easy to obtain, universally available and portable, exposes patients to no radiation, and is cost effective. It is also excellent in helping to determine next best advanced imaging study including appropriate protocol and contrast level. US not only provides excellent soft tissue resolution, but also provides characterization of cystic lesions (Bosniak classification) whether complex or simple to help guide follow up imaging interval or biopsy.

Background and Supporting Information

- Adenocarcinoma is the most common histology, with breast cancer seen most often; non-palpable breast cancer and axillary metastases accounts for less than 0.5% of all breast cancers. Carcinomas of the lung, thyroid, stomach, colon, rectum, and pancreas have the potential to spread to axillary lymph nodes, but these metastases are rarely the first manifestations of disease.
- COVID-19 vaccine-related unilateral axillary adenopathy has been well documented to occur in 12% of recipients after the first dose and up to 16% after the second dose.¹ In some series the incidence has been as high as 53%.² Adenopathy usually develops within the first few days after vaccination and lasts a mean of 10 days. However, 29% had lymphadenopathy which persisted >6 weeks.³ PET-CT can provide false positive results of unilateral axillary adenopathy up to 7-10 weeks post vaccination. Due to these concerns, in individuals with cancer history it is recommended that the vaccination be provided in the contralateral arm, especially in case of unilateral breast cancer.
- The Society for Breast Imaging (SBI) recommends that for unilateral axillary adenopathy on screening exams who received a recent COVID-19 vaccination in the ipsilateral upper extremity, a follow up interval of 12 or more weeks is recommended. If axillary adenopathy persists after short term follow up, then consider lymph node sampling to exclude breast and non-breast malignancy.⁴ Imaging for urgent cancer related clinical indication should not be delayed in relationship to COVID vaccine timing. For routine surveillance, screening and similar non-urgent indications, postponement of imaging for at least 6 weeks after vaccinations should be considered.⁵ However, the SBI no longer recommends delaying screening mammograms around COVID-19 vaccinations.^{4,5}

Mediastinal Lymphadenopathy (CH-2.3)

CH.LA.0002.3.A

v1.2.2025

V1.2.2025

- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) if mediastinal abnormalities are detected on a chest x-ray (over read by a radiologist), other non-dedicated advanced chest imaging, or clarification of mediastinal abnormalities on a non-contrast CT Chest.
 - Follow-up CT Chest (CPT[®] 71260) after 3-6 months if:
 - enlarged lymph nodes, ≥15 mm, are in the mediastinum with no other thoracic abnormalities; and
 - thereafter, stability or decreasing size, does not require further advanced imaging.
 - Further evaluations:
 - Lymph node biopsy (see methods below) should be considered for:
 - persistent or increasing lymphadenopathy on follow-up CT Chest; or
 - suspected malignancy.
 - See Non-Hodgkin Lymphomas (ONC-27) and/or Hodgkin Lymphoma (ONC-28) in the Oncology Imaging Guidelines for suspicion of Lymphoma.
- PET/CT (CPT[®] 78815) can be considered for enlarged lymph nodes, ≥15 mm with no explainable disease or increasing lymph node size on follow-up CT Chest

Evidence Discussion

- CT Chest indicated for mediastinal abnormalities detected on chest x-ray or other non-dedicated advanced imaging. CT allows for further tissue characterization and can distinguish between calcium, macroscopic fat and water attenuation fluid ⁽¹⁾. CT has higher contrast resolution than plain chest radiography. CT does carry with it the risk of both iodinated contrast exposure and ionizing radiation exposure.
- Asymptomatic, incidental mediastinal lymph nodes less than 15 mm (in the short axis) do not require follow up. Evison et al found that size was the greatest predictor of lymph node etiology with those less than 15 mm always found to be reactive (Munden, 2018).
- For mediastinal lymph nodes greater than or equal to 15 mm follow-up should be directed by suspected etiology. For those with low or no clinical suspicion for malignancy and no other thoracic abnormalities, follow up CT chest in 3-6 months is reasonable (Munden, 2018). If the lymph nodes have increased in size on follow-up imaging, PET/CT or tissue biopsy should be considered (Munden, 2018).
- For those with no explainable disease and mediastinal lymph nodes greater than or equal to 15 mm, PET/CT may be considered. However, PET/CT has welldocumented false positive results in this setting given the overlap of increased FDG

uptake in both oncologic and infection or inflammatory disease processes (Munden, 2018).

Background and Supporting Information

- Incidentally detected lymph nodes <15 mm (in short axis) in individuals with no other findings do not require further evaluation.
- Most benign nodes have smooth and well-defined borders, show uniform and homogeneous attenuation, and demonstrate a central fatty hilum
- Explainable disease such as emphysema, interstitial lung disease, sarcoidosis, cardiac disease.
- Unexplained causes, consider lymphoma, undiagnosed metastatic disease, including testicular carcinoma in young male, and infection.
- Lymphadenopathy from neoplasms as well as from benign sources of inflammation can result in a positive PET scan. Therefore, the use of PET may not be helpful prior to histologic diagnosis.
- Less invasive methods of mediastinal biopsies are CT or ultrasound directed percutaneous biopsy, transbronchial biopsy, transbronchial biopsy using endobronchial ultrasound, and endoscopic ultrasound-guided FNA.
- More invasive and traditional methods are mediastinoscopy or thoracoscopy/ thoracotomy.

References (CH-2)

- 1. Mehta N, Sales RM, Babagbemi K, et al. Unilateral axillary Adenopathy in the setting of COVID-19 vaccine. *Clin Imaging*. 2021;75:12-15. doi:10.1016/j.clinimag.2021.01.016.
- 2. Eifer M, Tau N, Alhoubani Y, et al. COVID-19 mRNA Vaccination: Age and Immune Status and Its Association with Axillary Lymph Node PET/CT Uptake. *J Nucl Med*. 2022;63(1):134-139. doi:10.2967/jnumed.121.262194.
- Garreffa E, Hamad A, O'Sullivan CC, et al. Regional lymphadenopathy following COVID-19 vaccination: Literature review and considerations for patient management in breast cancer care. *Eur J Cancer*. 2021;159:38-51. doi:10.1016/j.ejca.2021.09.033.
- 4. Grimm L, Destounis S, Dogan B, et al. Revised SBI Recommendations for the Management of Axillary Adenopathy in Patients with Recent COVID-19 Vaccination Society of Breast Imaging Patient Care and Delivery Committee. https://assets-002.noviams.com/novi-file-uploads/sbi/pdfs-and-documents/policyand-position-statements/2022/SBI-recommendations-for-managing-axillary-adenopathy-post-COVIDvaccination_updatedFeb2022.pdf.
- Becker AS, Perez-Johnston R, Chikarmane SA, et al. Multidisciplinary Recommendations Regarding Post-Vaccine Adenopathy and Radiologic Imaging: *Radiology* Scientific Expert Panel. *Radiology*. 2021;300(2):E323-E327. doi:10.1148/radiol.2021210436.
- 6. van Overhagen H, Brakel K, Heijenbrok MW, et al. Metastases in supraclavicular lymph nodes in lung cancer: assessment with palpation, US, and CT. *Radiology*. 2004;232(1):75-80. doi:10.1148/radiol.2321030663
- 7. Lehman CD, DeMartini W, Anderson BO, Edge SB. Indications for breast MRI in the patient with newly diagnosed breast cancer. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw.* 2009;7(2):193-201. doi:10.6004/jnccn.2009.0013.
- 8. Yamaguchi H, Ishikawa M, Hatanaka K, Uekusa T, Ishimaru M, Nagawa H. Occult breast cancer presenting as axillary metastases. *Breast.* 2006;15(2):259-262. doi:10.1016/j.breast.2005.04.018.
- 9. Stigt JA, Boers JE, Oostdijk AH, van den Berg JW, Groen HJ. Mediastinal incidentalomas. *J Thorac Oncol.* 2011;6(8):1345-1349. doi:10.1097/JTO.0b013e31821d41c8.
- 10. English BS, Ray CE, Chang JY, et al. Expert Panel on Interventional Radiology. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Radiologic Management of Thoracic Nodules and Masses. Am Coll Radiol (ACR); Date of Origin: 1996. Revised: 2015. https://acsearch.acr.org/docs/69343/Narrative/.
- Munden RF, Carter BW, Chiles C, et al. Managing Incidental Findings on Thoracic CT: Mediastinal and Cardiovascular Findings. A White Paper of the ACR Incidental Findings Committee. J Am Coll Radiol. 2018;15(8):1087-1096. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2018.04.029.
- 12. Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Ackman JB, Chung JH, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Imaging of Mediastinal Masses. J Am Coll Radiol. 2021;18(5S):S37-S51. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2021.01.007.
- 13. Expert Panel on Breast Imaging, Le-Petross HT, Slanetz PJ, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Imaging of the Axilla. J Am Coll Radiol. 2022;19(5S):S87-S113. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2022.02.010.
- 14. Sun SX, Moseley TW, Kuerer HM, Yang WT. Imaging-Based Approach to Axillary Lymph Node Staging and Sentinel Lymph Node Biopsy in Patients With Breast Cancer. AJR Am J Roentgenol. 2020;214(2):249-258. doi:10.2214/AJR.19.22022.

Cough (CH-3)

Guideline Page

Cough (CH-3.1)	22
References (CH-3)	24

Chest Imaging Guidelines

Cough (CH-3.1)

CH.CH.0003.1.C

v1.2.2025

- Initial evaluation should include a recent chest x-ray after the current episode of cough started or changed.^{1,2}
 - In addition all medications known to cause coughing (e.g. ACE inhibitors, Sitagliptin) should be discontinued.^{1,2,3}
- CT Chest (either with contrast [CPT[®] 71260] or without contrast [CPT[®] 71250]), if the initial chest x-ray is without abnormalities and all medications known to cause coughing have been discontinued, for the following:
 - Non-smoker cough after the following sequence for a total 3-week trial and investigation after ALL of the following:⁴
 - Antihistamine and decongestant or intranasal glucocorticoid treatment.^{1,2,7}
 - Spirometry and/or pulmonary function tests (PFT's).^{1,4,8}
 - Empiric trial of corticosteroids (oral or inhaled) and/or leukotriene receptor antagonist (e.g. Montelukast).^{1,2,4,8,9}
 - Treatment of gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD).^{1,2,4,8,9}
 - See Sinus and Facial Imaging (HD-29.1) in the Head Imaging Guidelines.
 - Current or past cigarette smokers with either:⁴
 - new cough lasting greater than 2 weeks.
 - changed chronic cough in worsening frequency or character
 - See Hemoptysis (CH-6.1)
 - For any abnormalities present on the initial chest x-ray, advanced chest imaging can be performed according to the relevant Chest Imaging Guidelines section.¹
- CT Maxillofacial without contrast (CPT[®] 70486) or CT Sinus, limited without contrast (CPT[®] 76380) is indicated in those with suspicion of Upper Airway Cough Syndrome (UACS) in the following:^{4,5,6}
 - Clinical criteria for chronic rhinosinusitis (CRS) or acute/recurrent rhinosinusitis are met, as per <u>Sinus and Facial Imaging (HD 29.1)</u>; OR ALL of the following:
 - at least a one week trial of daily antihistamine/decongestant
 - initial evaluation with a chest x-ray and/or CT Chest after the current episode of cough started or changed
 - all medications known to cause cough have been discontinued

Evidence Discussion

CT chest is not recommended routinely in people with a chronic cough, normal chest xray, and normal physical exam. There is concern regarding potential cancer risk from CT radiation exposure, especially in women and children.(Morice,2020) For patients

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924 with cough of unknown etiology or a chronic cough refractory to therapy, a CT chest may identify changes not seen on chest x-ray, such as interstitial lung disease or bronchiectasis.(Morice,2020;Kuzniewski,2021)

Current or former smokers with a new cough or change in chronic cough do not need a trial of therapy for UACS, asthma or GERD prior to a chest CT if an initial chest x-ray is abnormal or non-diagnostic. (Irwin,2018)

CT maxillofacial may be considered for suspected chronic rhinosinusitis (CRS) as the cause of chronic cough after clinical examination and chest x-ray if there is no response to empiric therapy or if the history and nasal endoscopy findings are concerning for CRS.(Irwin,2018;Kuzniewski,2021;Donaldson,2023)

Background and Supporting Information

- The resolution of cough usually will occur at a median time of 26 days of stopping use of the angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitor drug.² Smoking cessation is "almost always effective" in resolving cough in smoker.²
- Cough after URI (Upper Respiratory Infection) can typically last beyond 2-3 weeks.³
- Objective evidence of classic asthmatic cough conventionally requires some evidence of variable airflow obstruction such as peak flow variability, or reversibility to bronchodilator of >12%-15%.⁸
- In adult patients with chronic cough suspected to be due to reflux-cough syndrome, it is recommended that treatment include (1) diet modification to promote weight loss in overweight or obese patients; (2) head of bed elevation and avoiding meals within 3 hours of bedtime; and (3) in patients who report heartburn or regurgitation, PPI's, H-2 receptor antagonists, alginate or antacid therapy sufficient to control these symptoms.⁹

References (CH-3)

- 1. Gibson P, Wang G, McGarvey L, et al. Treatment of Unexplained Chronic Cough: CHEST Guideline and Expert Panel Report. *Chest*. 2016;149(1):27-44.doi:10.1378/chest.15-1496.
- Pratter MR, Brightling CE, Boulet LP, Irwin RS. An empiric integrative approach to the management of cough: ACCP evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest*. 2006;129(1 Suppl):222S-231S. doi:10.1378/ chest.129.1_suppl.222S.
- 3. Ebell MH, Lundgren J, Youngpairoj S. How long does a cough last? Comparing patients' expectations with data from a systematic review of the literature. *Ann Fam Med*. 2013;11(1):5-13. doi:10.1370/afm.1430.
- Irwin RS, French CL, Chang AB, Altman KW; CHEST Expert Cough Panel*. Classification of Cough as a Symptom in Adults and Management Algorithms: CHEST Guideline and Expert Panel Report. *Chest*. 2018;153(1):196-209. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2017.10.016.
- Pratter MR. Chronic upper airway cough syndrome secondary to rhinosinus diseases (previously referred to as postnasal drip syndrome): ACCP evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest.* 2006;129(1 Suppl):63S-71S. doi:10.1378/chest.129.1_suppl.63S.
- 6. Donaldson AM. Upper Airway Cough Syndrome. *Otolaryngol Clin North Am*. 2023;56(1):147-155. doi:10.1016/j.otc.2022.09.011.
- 7. Dykewicz MS, Wallace DV, Amrol DJ, et al. Rhinitis 2020: A practice parameter update. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2020;146(4):721-767. doi:10.1016/j.jaci.2020.07.007.
- Morice AH, Millqvist E, Bieksiene K, et al. ERS guidelines on the diagnosis and treatment of chronic cough in adults and children [published correction appears in Eur Respir J. 2020 Nov 19;56(5):]. *Eur Respir J.* 2020;55(1):1901136. Published 2020 Jan 2. doi:10.1183/13993003.01136-2019.
- 9. Kahrilas PJ, Altman KW, Chang AB, et al. Chronic Cough Due to Gastroesophageal Reflux in Adults: CHEST Guideline and Expert Panel Report. *Chest.* 2016;150(6):1341-1360. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2016.08.1458.
- 10. Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Kuzniewski CT, Kizhner O, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Chronic Cough. J Am Coll Radiol. 2021;18(11S):S305-S319. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2021.08.007.

Non-Cardiac Chest Pain (CH-4)

Guideline

Page

Non-Cardiac Chest Pain (CH-4.0)	26
Non-Cardiac Chest Pain – Imaging (CH-4.1)	
Costochondritis/Other Musculoskeletal Chest Wall Syndrome (CH-4.2)	
References (CH-4)	

Non-Cardiac Chest Pain (CH-4.0)

CH.CP.0004.0.A v1.2.2025

- See the following guidelines:
 - Pulmonary Embolism (PE) (CH-25.1)
 - General Guidelines (CD-1)
- Evidence is not conclusive whether Triple-rule-out CT (CAD, PE, and AD) will improve efficiency of patient management with acute chest pain.¹

Non-Cardiac Chest Pain – Imaging (CH-4.1)

CH.CP.0004.1.A v1.2.2025

- Initial evaluation should include a chest x-ray.
 - CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275) if x-ray is abnormal. See <u>Pneumonia (CH-13.1)</u>
- Sub-Sternal Non-Cardiac Chest Pain:
 - If x-ray is normal and the chest pain is substernal, the individual should undergo evaluation of other possible causes of pain prior to advanced imaging (CT Chest with contrast or CTA Chest) including:^{1,2,3}
 - Cardiac evaluation^{1,2} (See General Guidelines (CD-1) in the Cardiac Imaging Guidelines)
 - GI treatment with any ONE of the following:
 - Trial of anti-reflux medication, or pH probe, or esophageal manometry¹ or
 - Barium swallow or endoscopy
 - Pulmonary Function Test (PFT's) in those with known or suspected respiratory disease
 - CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) if persistent:
 - The initial chest x-ray reveals no abnormalities with known Sickle cell disease²
- Non-Cardiac Chest Pain, other than Sub-Sternal:
 - If x-ray is normal and the chest pain is in a location other than substernal:
 - CT Chest with (CPT[®] 71260) or without (CPT[®] 71250) contrast and/or bone scan for:
 - known or suspected malignancy, including individuals with chest pain associated with cough and weight loss
 - CT Chest with (CPT[®] 71260) or without (CPT[®] 71250) contrast for:
 - suspected infectious or inflammatory condition
 - history of prior chest intervention (surgery, Radiation Therapy)
 - MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552) for:
 - necrotizing fasciitis
 - surgical planning prior to debridement procedure
 - For suspected migration of implantable contraceptive devices, see Implantable Contraceptive Devices (PV-10.3)

Evidence Discussion

It is important to rule out potentially life-threatening causes of acute chest pain, such as an acute coronary syndrome, aortic dissection, and pulmonary embolus. These topics are discussed in other guideline summaries (CD 1.0, CD 1.4, PVD 6.2 and PVD 6.3, CH 25.1). A specialized imaging protocol called the "triple rule-out" is sometimes used to evaluate the pulmonary arteries, aorta and coronary arteries. However, it is associated with higher non-diagnostic imaging quality, radiation and contrast doses. (Burris 2015). The population for which it may be useful is unknown. It is yet to be proven useful in large clinical trials, and its appropriate use needs to be further defined. (Burris, 2015;Hollander,2015;Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging,2022).

An evaluation for the cause of non-cardiac "angina-like" chest pain should be done if it persists or recurs despite a negative stress test or anatomic cardiac evaluation, or a low risk designation by a clinical decision pathway.(Gulati,2021) The differential diagnosis of non-cardiac chest pain is broad. The most common causes in a primary care setting are chest wall pain, reflux esophagitis and costochondritis. (McConaghy, 2020) Respiratory causes include pneumonia, pleuritis and pneumothorax. People with COPD or acute asthma exacerbations may experience chest pain. (Edmonsdstone, 2000; Lee, 2015) A thorough history and physical exam are important to help narrow the differential diagnosis and direct imaging. Musculoskeletal causes are usually diagnosed based on history and physical exam (point tenderness, reproducibility with palpation) without the need for diagnostic imaging. Most patients should have an ECG and chest x-ray (CR).(Gulati,2021;Cayley,2005) CR is rapid, non-invasive and is usually appropriate in the initial evaluation of acute non-specific chest pain with a low probability of coronary artery disease (CAD).(Gulati,2021;Beache,2020) In patients without evidence of cardiac or pulmonary disease, evaluation for a GI cause is reasonable. An empiric trial of acid suppression may be merited. If this is ineffective or there are alarm symptoms, an EGD, pH probe and/or motility study should be considered.(Gulati, 2021;Frieling,2018;Yamaski,2017)

Patients with sickle cell disease and acute chest pain should have a CR initially. (Gulati,2021) Acute chest syndrome is defined by a new infiltrate on CR with fever and/or respiratory symptoms. In the presence of unexplained hypoxemia and an unremarkable CR, CT chest may be obtained to evaluate the pulmonary vasculature and lung parenchyma.(Jain,2017)

CR is usually appropriate for non-traumatic chest wall pain and no history of malignancy to evaluate for a specific etiology, such as rib fracture, pneumonia, or pneumothorax. (Stowell,2021) Following a normal CR, CT chest is usually appropriate to evaluate chest pain in the setting of known or suspected malignancy, suspected infectious or inflammatory condition, or a history of prior chest intervention.(Stowell,2021) CT is more sensitive than CR for characterizing chest wall neoplasms, chest wall infections, and

subtle osseous and soft tissue lesions. Chest MRI is useful if there is a high suspicion for necrotizing fasciitis and for surgical planning prior to debridement.(Stowell,2021)

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

Costochondritis/Other Musculoskeletal Chest Wall Syndrome (CH-4.2)

CH.CP.0004.2.C

v1.2.2025

 Costochondritis or other suggested musculoskeletal chest wall syndrome does not require advanced imaging (CT or MRI) unless it meets other criteria in these guidelines.

Evidence Discussion

Costochondritis is a common cause of chest wall pain in adult patients presenting to the emergency department and physician's office.(Proulx,2009;Mott,2021)It is defined as inflammation of costochondral junctions of ribs or costosternal joints, usually at multiple levels and without any swelling or induration.(Proulx,2009) It is a self-limited condition. The diagnosis is largely based on history and physical examination, which reproduces pain on palpation of the chest wall. Upper body movement, deep breathing, and exertional activities often exacerbate the pain. (Proulx,2009; Mott,2021) Tietze syndrome presents similarly to costochondritis but includes visible edema at the involved joint(s), typically is unilateral involving the second rib, and is often incited by infection or trauma. (Mott,2021)

There are no laboratory tests or imaging tests findings specifically for the diagnosis of costochondritis. If a patient relates a history of dyspnea or chest wall trauma, a chest radiograph or rib series may be indicated.(Mott,2021) Chest radiographs can help identify potential sources of previously undifferentiated chest pain such as pneumothorax, pneumomediastinum, fractured ribs, acute and chronic infections, and malignancies.¹

Most treatment recommendations are conservative in nature and have been traditionally accepted, perhaps because of the self-limited nature of the condition. (Proulx,2009;Mott,2021)

A large observational study found that 91% of patients with new-onset costochondritis had resolution of pain after three weeks of treatment with rest and nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs. Recalcitrant cases may respond to corticosteroid injections. (Mott,2021)

Background and Supporting Information

• Chest x-ray could identify pneumothorax, pneumomediastinum, fractured ribs, acute and chronic infections, and malignancies.

 Costochondritis can be readily diagnosed with palpation tenderness and/or hooking maneuver and imaging is non-specific.³

V1.2.2025

References (CH-4)

- 1. Hoffmann U, Akers SR, Brown RK, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Acute Nonspecific Chest Pain-Low Probability of Coronary Artery Disease [published correction appears in J Am Coll Radiol. 2016 Feb;13(2):231]. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2015;12(12 Pt A):1266-1271. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2015.09.004.
- Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging: Shah AB, Kirsch J, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Chronic Chest Pain-Noncardiac Etiology Unlikely-Low to Intermediate Probability of Coronary Artery Disease. J Am Coll Radiol. 2018;15(11S):S283-S290. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2018.09.021.
- 3. Proulx A, Zryd TW. Costochondritis: diagnosis and treatment. Am Fam Physician. 2009;80(6):617-620.
- 4. Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Stowell JT, Walker CM, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Nontraumatic Chest Wall Pain. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2021;18(11S):S394-S405. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2021.08.004.
- 5. Edmondstone WM. Chest pain and non-respiratory symptoms in acute asthma.
 - Postgrad Med J. 2000;76(897):413-414. doi:10.1136/pmj.76.897.413.
- 6. McConaghy JR, Sharma M, Patel H. Acute chest pain in adults: Outpatient Evaluation.
- Am Fam Physician. 2020;102(12):721-727.
- 7. Haasenritter J, Biroga T, Keunecke C, et al. Causes of chest pain in primary care--a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Croat Med J*. 2015;56(5):422-430. doi:10.3325/cmj.2015.56.422.
- Burris AC 2nd, Boura JA, Raff GL, Chinnaiyan KM. Triple Rule Out Versus Coronary CT Angiography in Patients With Acute Chest Pain: Results From the ACIC Consortium. JACC Cardiovasc Imaging. 2015;8(7):817-825. doi:10.1016/j.jcmg.2015.02.023.
- 9. Hollander JE, Chang AM. Triple Rule Out CTA Scans or the Right Test for the Right Patient. JACC Cardiovasc Imaging. 2015;8(7):826-827. doi:10.1016/j.jcmg.2015.02.022.
- 10. Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging, Kirsch J, Wu CC, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Suspected Pulmonary Embolism: 2022 Update. J Am Coll Radiol. 2022;19(11S):S488-S501. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2022.09.014.
- Gulati M, Levy PD, Mukherjee D, et al. 2021 AHA/ACC/ASE/CHEST/SAEM/SCCT/SCMR Guideline for the Evaluation and Diagnosis of Chest Pain: A Report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Joint Committee on Clinical Practice Guidelines [published correction appears in Circulation. 2021 Nov 30;144(22):e455. doi: 10.1161/CIR.000000000001047] [published correction appears in Circulation. 2023 Dec 12;148(24):e281. doi: 10.1161/CIR.0000000000001198]. Circulation. 2021;144(22):e368-e454. doi:10.1161/CIR.000000000001029.
- 12. Lee AL, Harrison SL, Goldstein RS, Brooks D. Pain and its clinical associations in individuals with COPD: a systematic review. Chest. 2015;147(5):1246-1258. doi:10.1378/chest.14-2690.
- 13. Cayley WE Jr. Diagnosing the cause of chest pain. Am Fam Physician. 2005;72(10):2012-2021.
- 14. Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging, Beache GM, Mohammed TH, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Acute Nonspecific Chest Pain-Low Probability of Coronary Artery Disease. J Am Coll Radiol. 2020;17(11S):S346-S354. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2020.09.006.
- 15. Frieling T. Non-Cardiac Chest Pain. Visc Med. 2018;34(2):92-96. doi:10.1159/000486440.
- 16. Yamasaki T, Fass R. Noncardiac chest pain: diagnosis and management. Curr Opin Gastroenterol. 2017;33(4):293-300. doi:10.1097/MOG.0000000000374.
- 17. Jain S, Bakshi N, Krishnamurti L. Acute Chest Syndrome in Children with Sickle Cell Disease. Pediatr Allergy Immunol Pulmonol. 2017;30(4):191-201. doi:10.1089/ped.2017.0814.
- 18. Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Stowell JT, Walker CM, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Nontraumatic Chest Wall Pain. J Am Coll Radiol. 2021;18(11S):S394-S405. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2021.08.004.
- 19. Mott T, Jones G, Roman K. Costochondritis: Rapid Evidence Review. Am Fam Physician. 2021;104(1):73-78.

Dyspnea/Shortness of Breath (CH-5)

Guideline

Page

Dyspnea/Shortness of Breath (CH-5.1)	. 34
Pre-Operative Assessment (CH-5.2).	
Post Endobronchial Valve (EBV) Placement (CH-5.3)	
References (CH-5)	.38

Dyspnea/Shortness of Breath (CH-5.1)

CH.SB.0005.1.A v1.2.2025

- Initial evaluation should include a recent chest x-ray.^{1,2} •
 - CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) if x-ray is abnormal.^{1,2}
 - CT Chest without contrast (CPT® 71250, including HRCT), or CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) if the initial chest x-ray is indeterminate and the following evaluations have been conducted and are indeterminate:²
 - ECG, echocardiogram or stress testing,² and
 - Pulse oximetry and pulmonary function studies (PFT's)²
- If pulmonary embolus (PE) is suspected, See Pulmonary Embolism (PE) (CH-25).

Evidence Discussion

There is no standard approach for the evaluation of chronic dyspnea, and data that test diagnostic algorithms against standard clinical care are limited; however, clinical practice algorithms have been proposed and found to be effective. (Hudler, 2022; Budhwar, 2020; Sunjaya, 2022; Oelsner, 2015) If the diagnosis is not evident after a history and physical exam, initial diagnostic testing with pulse oximetry, spirometry, chest radiography (CR), ECG, and labs is recommended. (Ferry 2019, Sunjaya 2022, Budhwar 2020) While the individual utility of these tests varies for a specific diagnosis, they are commonly available and easy to perform. (Ferry, 2019)

Spirometry can identify obstructive lung disease or suggest restrictive lung disease. The flow-volume loop may suggest intra- or extra-thoracic airway obstruction. Some authors recommend full pulmonary function tests as part of the initial investigation, while others consider spirometry an appropriate initial test.(Hudler, 2022; Sunjaya, 2022) Diagnostic accuracy is improved when spirometry is done in addition to a clinical assessment. (Ferry, 2019)

ECG has a high negative predictive value for cardiac disease but low specificity. Thus, further testing such as echo is often necessary. (Ferry, 2019) The recommended timing of echocardiography differs between algorithms but echo is an important test for cardiac causes of dyspnea. (Budhwar. 2020; Ferry. 2019) The American College of Radiology (ACR) states that for dyspnea of suspected cardiac origin, the initial diagnostic imaging should usually be CR followed by transthoracic echo. (Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging, 2017)

CR remains a valuable first line investigation of dyspnea. (Budhwar, 2020) The ACR states that CR should generally be the first imaging study. (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, 2018) It may reveal abnormalities or guide further imaging decisions. Data on the diagnostic utility of chest CT for chronic dyspnea are limited. It is often used

following an abnormal CR or if other initial testing is negative. The ACR states that CT may be useful when CR abnormalities require further characterization or clinical findings necessitate additional imaging despite a normal CR.(Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2018) CT without intravenous contrast is usually sufficient unless there is a suspicion for vascular abnormalities. The disadvantage is exposure to ionizing radiation; therefore, CT "requires careful patient selection with consideration given to patient age, risk of diagnostic radiation exposure and estimated diagnostic yield."(Ferry,2019)

Background and Supporting Information

• Dyspnea is the subjective experience of breathing discomfort.

V1.2.2025

Pre-Operative Assessment (CH-5.2)

CH.SB.0005.2.A

v1.2.2025

- For pre-operative assessment prior to a planned segmental, lobar or lung removal,^{3,4} as well as for pre-interventional assessment prior to a planned endobronchial valve (e.g. Zephyr valve) placement, the following can be considered:
 - "Split Function Studies" (CPT[®] 78597-Quantitative Differential Pulmonary Perfusion, Including Imaging When Performed or CPT[®] 78598-Quantitative Differential Pulmonary Perfusion and Ventilation (e.g., Aerosol or Gas), Including Imaging When Performed) or SPECT/CT (CPT[®] 78830)

AND/OR

CT Chest (CPT[®] 71250, CPT[®] 71260 or CPT[®] 71270) for pre-interventional procedure assessment prior to a planned endobronchial valve (e.g. Zephyr Valve) placement.

Post Endobronchial Valve (EBV) Placement (CH-5.3)

CH.SB.0005.3.A v1.2.2025

- Suspected Post EBV Complication:
 - Initial evaluation should include a recent chest x-ray
 - CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) is appropriate for:
 - acute loss of benefit, lack of initial benefit, increased dyspnea, sudden chest pain, increased cough, suspected valve malposition/migration, or to evaluate target lobe volume reduction

Evidence Discussion

The most common acute complications following EBV placement are pneumothorax, pneumonia, COPD exacerbation and valve migration.(Slebos,2017) Pneumothorax occurs in 20-30% of patients, the majority within the first 48 hours after the procedure. Patients who have an acute increase in dyspnea, cough or chest pain, or an acute perceived loss of benefit, should have a chest X-ray (CR) to rule out pneumothorax. If the CR is non-diagnostic, a CT chest should be done to evaluate the valve position, the target lobe and volume reduction more precisely.(Koster,2020)

Following EBV placement, it may take several days to one month for significant volume reduction and atelectasis of the target lobe to occur. If no significant lung volume reduction is seen on CR at one month, a CT should be done to evaluate valve position. (Slebos,2017) A CT chest is performed routinely at some centers 6-8 weeks after EBV placement.(Koster,2020) If there has been no clinical benefit and no lobar atelectasis is evident on CT at 6 weeks, a revision bronchoscopy may be necessary.(Klooster,2021) The two most common causes of lack of benefit are the presence of interlobar collateral ventilation or valve misplacement/migration.

Chest Imaging Guidelines

References (CH-5)

v1.2.2025

- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging:, McComb BL, Ravenel JG, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Chronic Dyspnea-Noncardiovascular Origin. J Am Coll Radiol. 2018;15(11S):S291-S301. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2018.09.015.
- Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging:, Vogel-Claussen J, Elshafee ASM, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Dyspnea-Suspected Cardiac Origin. *J Am Coll Radiol.* 2017;14(5S):S127-S137. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2017.01.032.
- 3. Morton K. Chapter 4. In: Morton K, eds. Diagnostic Imaging: Nuclear Medicine. Amirsys;2007:2-15.
- 4. Thrall JH, Ziessman HA. Nuclear Medicine: The Requisites. 2nd ed. Mosby; 2001:145-165.
- 5. Sciurba FC, Ernst A, Herth FJ, et al. A randomized study of endobronchial valves for advanced emphysema. *N Engl J Med.* 2010;363(13):1233-1244. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa0900928.
- 6. Davey C, Zoumot Z, Jordan S, et al. Bronchoscopic lung volume reduction with endobronchial valves for patients with heterogeneous emphysema and intact interlobar fissures (the BeLieVeR-HIFi study): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2015;386(9998):1066-1073. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60001-0.
- Klooster K, ten Hacken NH, Hartman JE, Kerstjens HA, van Rikxoort EM, Slebos DJ. Endobronchial Valves for Emphysema without Interlobar Collateral Ventilation. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;373(24):2325-2335. doi:10.1056/ NEJMoa1507807.
- Kristiansen JF, Perch M, Iversen M, Krakauer M, Mortensen J. Lobar Quantification by Ventilation/Perfusion SPECT/CT in Patients with Severe Emphysema Undergoing Lung Volume Reduction with Endobronchial Valves. *Respiration*. 2019;98(3):230-238. doi:10.1159/000500407.
- 9. Koster TD, Klooster K, Ten Hacken NHT, van Dijk M, Slebos DJ. Endobronchial valve therapy for severe emphysema: an overview of valve-related complications and its management. *Expert Rev Respir Med*. 2020;14(12):1235-1247. doi:10.1080/17476348.2020.1813571.
- Slebos DJ, Shah PL, Herth FJ, Valipour A. Endobronchial Valves for Endoscopic Lung Volume Reduction: Best Practice Recommendations from Expert Panel on Endoscopic Lung Volume Reduction. *Respiration*. 2017;93(2):138-150. doi:10.1159/000453588.
- 11. Klooster K, Slebos DJ. Endobronchial Valves for the Treatment of Advanced Emphysema. Chest. 2021;159(5):1833-1842. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2020.12.007.
- 12. Parshall MB, Schwartzstein RM, Adams L, et al. An official American Thoracic Society statement: update on the mechanisms, assessment, and management of dyspnea. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2012;185(4):435-452. doi:10.1164/rccm.201111-2042ST.
- Hudler A, Holguin F, Althoff M, Fuhlbrigge A, Sharma S. Pathophysiology and clinical evaluation of the patient with unexplained persistent dyspnea. Expert Rev Respir Med. 2022;16(5):511-518. doi:10.1080/17476348.2022.2030222.
- 14. Budhwar N, Syed Z. Chronic Dyspnea: Diagnosis and Evaluation. Am Fam Physician. 2020;101(9):542-548.
- Sunjaya AP, Homaira N, Corcoran K, Martin A, Berend N, Jenkins C. Assessment and diagnosis of chronic dyspnoea: a literature review. NPJ Prim Care Respir Med. 2022;32(1):10. Published 2022 Mar 8. doi:10.1038/ s41533-022-00271-1.
- Oelsner EC, Lima JA, Kawut SM, et al. Noninvasive tests for the diagnostic evaluation of dyspnea among outpatients: the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis lung study. Am J Med. 2015;128(2):171-180.e5. doi:10.1016/j.amjmed.2014.09.023.
- 17. Ferry OR, Huang YC, Masel PJ, Hamilton M, Fong KM, Bowman RV, McKenzie SC, Yang IA. Diagnostic approach to chronic dyspnoea in adults. J Thorac Dis. 2019 Oct;11(Suppl 17):S2117-S2128. doi: 10.21037/jtd.2019.10.53. PMID: 31737340; PMCID: PMC6831921.

Hemoptysis (CH-6)

Guideline Page

Hemoptysis (CH-6.1)	40
Reference (CH-6)	. 41

Hemoptysis (CH-6.1)

CH.HS.0006.1.A

- v1.2.2025
- Following a chest x-ray performed after hemoptysis started or worsened the following is indicated:
 - CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275)
- For recurrent hemoptysis, (hemoptysis occurring after medical therapy or embolization), the following is indicated:
 - CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275)

NOTE:

- CT Chest without contrast, (CPT[®] 71250), is only warranted in individuals with poor renal function or life-threatening contrast allergy.
- There is no data to support the use of CT Chest without and with contrast, (CPT[®] 71270), in the diagnosis of hemoptysis.

Background and Supporting Information

 Chest x-ray has been shown to predict the side and cause of bleeding in up to 82% of individuals and can be abnormal in up to 90% of cases. The most common cause of hemoptysis was acute bronchitis with the second most common cause as respiratory tract neoplasm. Bronchiectasis and tuberculosis were additional common causes

Chest	Imaging	Guidelines
-------	---------	------------

Reference (CH-6)

v1.2.2025

 Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Olsen KM, Manouchehr-Pour S, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Hemoptysis. J Am Coll Radiol. 2020;17(5S):S148-S159. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2020.01.043

Bronchiectasis (CH-7)

Guideline Page

Bronchiectasis (CH-7.1)	43
Adult Cystic Fibrosis (CH-7.2)	
References (CH-7)	47

Chest Imaging Guidelines

Bronchiectasis (CH-7.1)

CH.BR.0007.1.A

- v1.2.2025
- High resolution CT Chest (HRCT) without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) for ANY of the following:^{4,5}
 - To confirm suspected diagnosis of bronchiectasis after an initial x-ray.^{1,2}
 - For known bronchiectasis with worsening symptoms or worsening PFT's.²
 - For hemoptysis with known or suspected bronchiectasis.³

Evidence Discussion

The British Thoracic Society (BTS) recommends performing a baseline chest x ray (CR) in people with suspected bronchiectasis followed by a thin section (< or equal to 1 mm slice thickness) CT scan to confirm the diagnosis.(Hill,2019) According to the American College of Radiology (ACR), CR is relatively insensitive but is usually appropriate and often performed as initial imaging for evaluation of associated conditions and exclusion of diseases that cause similar symptoms.(Little,2024) High resolution CT chest (HRCT) is considered the most accurate imaging modality for the diagnosis of bronchiectasis. (Ledda,2021) The ACR states that CT chest WO is usually appropriate for suspected bronchiectasis to identify and characterize the severity and distribution of bronchiectasis and to evaluate any associated parenchymal lung diseases.(Little,2024) CT chest can help identify an etiology, such as allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis, Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia, tracheobronchomegaly, or a foreign body.(Hill,2019;Ledda,2021)

MRI chest for suspected bronchiectasis is not recommended because. It is inferior to CT for evaluating lung parenchyma, and its use is mainly limited to research settings. (Little,2024)

CR is often the initial chest imaging exam to evaluate acute conditions in people with bronchiectasis, such as pneumonia or hemoptysis. CT chest WO is usually appropriate for the evaluation of complications and assessing changes in clinical status.(Little,2024) CT chest with contrast may be appropriate in the setting of a suspected acute infection and associated complication, such as abscess.(Little,2024) The BTS recommends a CT chest for people with a deteriorating clinical status, such as worsening symptoms, increased frequency or severity of acute exacerbations, or decreasing lung function.(Hill,2019) They recommend a CT chest with contrast if PE is suspected. CTA chest with contrast may be appropriate in the setting of hemoptysis to identify dilated bronchial arteries or systemic collateral vessels and for pre-procedure planning.(Little,2024;Ledda,2021)

High quality evidence in favor of repeated imaging is lacking.(Ledda,2021)CR may not show structural changes. Repeat HRCT carries the risk of increased radiation. Patients

with diseases associated with bronchiectasis may be evaluated with CT to help guide therapy and provide prognostic information.(Little,2024)The current indication for repeat HRCT is clinical deterioration.(Hill,2019)

V1.2.2025

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

Adult Cystic Fibrosis (CH-7.2)

CH.BR.0007.2.A

v1.2.2025

- CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) is indicated for the following (without initial chest x-ray):
 - Suspected or initial diagnosis of Cystic Fibrosis
 - Biennially, (every 2 years), for routine surveillance
 - · Persistent respiratory symptoms with reduced lung function despite therapy
 - Exacerbations when chest x-ray is indeterminate
 - Hemoptysis
 - Suspected fungal pneumonia
 - Pre and post-lung transplant evaluation
- See Bronchiectasis (CH-7.1)

Evidence Discussion

Imaging is an important method of evaluating the lungs in people with cystic fibrosis (CF). It has a stronger correlation with disease severity than pulmonary function tests and facilitates prompt therapy which may help limit irreversible lung damage. (Crowley, 2021) Chest x- ray (CR) is less sensitive than CT chest at detecting early structural changes and disease progression. (Ciet, 2022) However, CR is still most commonly used as the first line imaging examination for the assessment of acute complications due to its low cost, availability, low radiation and speed of acquisition. (Murphy, 2016) CT is increasingly being used to monitor disease progression and make treatment decisions, but the routine use of CT for short term follow up during pulmonary exacerbations is not recommended due to the risk of a high cumulative radiation dose. Low dose chest CT (LDCT) is useful in patients with persistent respiratory symptoms and decreased lung function despite appropriate therapy.(Ciet, 2022) There is little evidence regarding the optimal timing of CT monitoring. The current best clinical practice in several European CF centers is a CT every two years with a radiation dose as low as reasonably achievable (ALARA). Follow up imaging is determined by individual patient-dependent clinical factors (Ciet, 2022) The CF Foundation guidelines for adult CF clinical care recommend CR every 2-4 years in those with a stable clinical status and state that imaging should be considered if there are symptoms or signs of an acute pulmonary exacerbation, pneumothorax, lobar atelectasis or hemoptysis. (Yankaskas,2004;Flume,2010)

Several emerging techniques offer promising means of pulmonary imaging using less ionizing radiation, including ultra-low dose CT (ULDCT) and MRI. (Crowley,2021;Goralski,2021) The radiation dose with CR is 0.02mSv, 5.4 mSv for standard dose CT, 1 to 2 mSv for LDCT, and 0.05-0.08mSv for ULDCT. While pulmonary

MRI has promise as a means of routinely monitoring CF lung disease, it is currently limited by a lack of availability, high cost, lack of validation and standardized protocols, and the need for sedation or anesthesia in some patients.(Crowley,2021;Ciet,2022)

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

References (CH-7)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Schneebaum N, Blau H, Soferman R, et al. Use and yield of chest computed tomography in the diagnostic evaluation of pediatric lung disease. *Pediatrics*. 2009;124(2):472-479. doi:10.1542/peds.2008-2694.
- Rosen MJ. Chronic cough due to bronchiectasis: ACCP evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest.* 2006;129(1 Suppl):122S-131S. doi:10.1378/chest.129.1_suppl.122s.
- 3. Pasteur MC, Bilton D, Hill AT; British Thoracic Society Bronchiectasis non-CF Guideline Group. British Thoracic Society guideline for non-CF bronchiectasis. *Thorax*. 2010;65 Suppl 1:i1-i58. doi:10.1136/thx.2010.136119.
- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Olsen KM, Manouchehr-Pour S, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Hemoptysis. J Am Coll Radiol. 2020;17(5S):S148-S159. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2020.01.043.
- 5. Hansell DM. Bronchiectasis. Radiol Clin North Am. 1998;36(1):107-128. doi:10.1016/s0033-8389(05)70009-9.
- Ciet P, Bertolo S, Ros M, et al. State-of-the-art review of lung imaging in cystic fibrosis with recommendations for pulmonologists and radiologists from the "iMAging managEment of cySTic fibROsis" (MAESTRO) consortium. *Eur Respir Rev.* 2022;31(163):210173. Published 2022 Mar 23. doi: 10.1183/16000617.0173-2021.
- 7. Averill S, Lubner MG, Menias CO, et al. Multisystem Imaging Findings of Cystic Fibrosis in Adults: Recognizing Typical and Atypical Patterns of Disease. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2017;209(1):3-18. doi:10.2214/AJR.16.17462.
- Flume PA, Basavaraj A, Garcia B, et al. Towards development of evidence to inform recommendations for the evaluation and management of bronchiectasis. Respir Med. 2023;211:107217. doi:10.1016/ j.rmed.2023.107217.
- 9. Hill AT, Sullivan AL, Chalmers JD, et al. British Thoracic Society Guideline for bronchiectasis in adults. Thorax. 2019;74(Suppl 1):1-69. doi:10.1136/thoraxjnl-2018-212463.
- 10. Ledda RE, Balbi M, Milone F, et al. Imaging in non-cystic fibrosis bronchiectasis and current limitations. BJR Open. 2021;3(1):20210026. Published 2021 Jul 29. doi:10.1259/bjro.20210026.
- 11. Little BP, Walker CM, Bang TJ, et al. ACR appropriateness criteria: tracheobronchial disease. 2024.
- 12. Crowley C, Connor OJO, Ciet P, Tiddens HAWM, Maher MM. The evolving role of radiological imaging in cystic fibrosis. Curr Opin Pulm Med. 2021;27(6):575-585. doi:10.1097/MCP.0000000000828.
- 13. Ciet P, Bertolo S, Ros M, et al. State-of-the-art review of lung imaging in cystic fibrosis with recommendations for pulmonologists and radiologists from the "iMAging managEment of cySTic fibROsis" (MAESTRO) consortium. Eur Respir Rev. 2022;31(163):210173. Published 2022 Mar 23. doi:10.1183/16000617.0173-2021.
- 14. Murphy KP, Maher MM, O'Connor OJ. Imaging of Cystic Fibrosis and Pediatric Bronchiectasis. AJR Am J Roentgenol. 2016;206(3):448-454. doi:10.2214/AJR.15.14437.
- 15. Yankaskas J, Marshall B, Sufian B, et al. Cystic Fibrosis Adult Care: Consensus Conference Report. Chest 2004 1; 125 (1Suppl):1S-39S.
- 16. Flume P, Mogayzel P, Robinson K, et al. Cystic Fibrosis Pulmonary Guidelines; pulmonary complications: hemoptysis and pneumothorax. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2010. Vol 182: 298-306.
- 17. Goralski JL, Stewart NJ, Woods JC. Novel imaging techniques for cystic fibrosis lung disease. Pediatr Pulmonol. 2021;56 Suppl 1(Suppl 1):S40-S54. doi:10.1002/ppul.24931.

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

Bronchitis (CH-8)

Guideline Page

Bronchitis (CH-8.1)	. 49
References (CH-8)	50

Bronchitis (CH-8.1)

CH.BH.0008.1.A

- v1.2.2025
- Chest x-ray is indicated as initial imaging. Advanced imaging is not needed for bronchitis unless directed by condition specific guideline.
- See the following guidelines for additional information- For Pneumonia, see: **Pneumonia (CH-13.1).**
- See the following guidelines for additional information- For Cough, see: <u>Cough</u> (<u>CH-3.1</u>).
- See the following guidelines for additional information- For Pleural Effusion, see: Pleural Effusion (CH-18.1).
- See the following guidelines for additional information- For pulmonary mass, see: **Pulmonary Nodule (CH-16.1).**

Evidence Discussion

Acute bronchitis is a self-limited respiratory infection characterized by cough due to acute inflammation of the trachea and large airways without evidence of pneumonia.^{1, 2.} This syndrome should be distinguished from the common cold, an acute exacerbation of chronic bronchitis and acute asthma.¹

Cough associated with acute bronchitis typically lasts about two to three weeks. Other diagnoses must be considered when cough persists for more than three weeks.¹ Acute bronchitis is mainly caused by viruses, and antibiotics are not typically indicated in patients without chronic lung disease^{1, 2}. Imaging is primarily used to rule out pneumonia. Evidence-based guidelines from the American College of Chest Physicians state that imaging is not needed in patients with acute bronchitis symptoms who have normal vital signs and normal lung examination findings.²

Chest radiographs are indicated in patients with symptoms of dyspnea, tachycardia, tachypnea and fever more than 100⁰F or lung findings suggestive of pneumonia.²

Chest Imaging Guidelines

References (CH-8)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Braman SS. Chronic cough due to acute bronchitis: ACCP evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest.* 2006;129(1 Suppl):95S-103S. doi:10.1378/chest.129.1_suppl.95s.
- 2. Kinkade S, Long NA. Acute bronchitis. Am Fam Physician. 2016;94(7):560-565.

Chest	Imaging	Guidelines
-------	---------	------------

Asbestos Exposure (CH-9)

Guideline

Page

Asbestos Exposure (CH-9.1)	52
References (CH-9)	53

- Chest x-ray as radiographic screening for asbestos exposure.^{1,2}
 - Stable calcified pleural plaques on chest x-ray do not require advanced imaging of the chest.²
- CT Chest should not be used to screen populations at risk for asbestos-related diseases.²
- High resolution CT Chest (HRCT) (CPT[®] 71250) for ANY of the following:²
 - Any change seen on chest x-ray
 - Progressive respiratory symptoms that may indicate the development or progression of asbestos related interstitial fibrosis

Evidence Discussion

Several well-conducted epidemiologic studies of occupationally exposed workers, family contacts of workers, and persons living near asbestos mines have demonstrated that exposure to asbestos is associated with an increased incidence of asbestosis, lung cancer, mesothelioma, as well as other neoplasms. Asbestosis is a fibrotic lung disease caused by accumulation of asbestos fibers in the lungs. The diagnosis of asbestosis is most commonly made based on a history of exposure to asbestos, the presence of characteristic radiologic abnormalities, end-inspiratory rales, and other clinical features.

A chest x-ray of an individual exposed to asbestos may show pleural plaques, pleural calcifications, pleural fibrosis, or small irregular parenchymal opacities. Lung cancer risk is not elevated among individuals with asbestos-related pleural plaques in the absence of asbestosis.

Chest x-ray is currently indicated to screen for lung changes resulting from asbestos exposure and is recommended for those who have had relatively heavy exposure to asbestos. However, chest x-rays lack specificity. When a chest x-ray abnormality is indeterminate, High Resolution CT Chest (HRCT) is useful in revealing characteristic parenchymal abnormalities. There is a lack of consensus among experts regarding the value of HRCT for screening of asbestos-related pulmonary disease.

Background and Supporting Information

 Asbestosis and asbestos-related diseases include: pleural effusion, pleural plaques, lung cancer, and malignant mesothelioma. The risk of developing mesothelioma increases with increasing intensity and duration of exposure.

References (CH-9)

v1.2.2025

- 1. OSHA, Occupational Safety and Health Standards, Medical surveillance guidelines for asbestos, 1910.1001 App H. https://www.osha.gov/pls/oshaweb/owadisp.show_document?p_table=standards&p_id=9995.
- Banks DE, Shi R, McLarty J, et al. American College of Chest Physicians consensus statement on the respiratory health effects of asbestos. Results of a Delphi study. *Chest*. 2009;135(6):1619-1627. doi:10.1378/ chest.08-1345
- 3. Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry. Asbestos. Updated 2011. https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/ substances/toxsubstance.asp?toxid=4.

Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) (CH-10)

Guideline	Page
COPD (CH-10.1)	55
References (CH-10)	

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924 Page 54 of 169 www.EviCore.com

COPD (CH-10.1)

CH.PD.0010.1.A v1.2.2025

- Chest x-ray should be performed initially.
 - CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260)^{1,2} can be performed if:
 - Emphysema is known or suspected and a pre-operative study for Lung Volume Reduction Surgery (LVRS) is being requested.¹ OR
 - Definitive diagnosis is not yet determined by PFT's, appropriate laboratory studies and chest x-ray and ONE of the following is suspected:
 - Bronchiectasis
 - Sarcoidosis
 - Emphysema
 - Pneumoconiosis
 - Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis
 - Langerhans cell histiocytosis
 - Hypersensitivity pneumonitis
 - Bronchiolitis obliterans
 - Lipoid pneumonia
 - Drug toxicity
 - Lymphangitic cancer²
 - Alpha-1-Antitrypsin Deficiency
- Lung cancer screening is discussed in the following guideline:
 - See "Screening Indications" in Lung Cancer Screening (CH-33)
- Pre-interventional lung procedure assessment prior to a planned endobronchial valve (e.g. Zephyr valve) placement
 - See <u>Pre-Operative Assessment (CH-5.2)</u>

Evidence Discussion

Chest x-ray (CR) is usually the appropriate initial imaging study for suspected COPD to exclude alternative diagnoses and evaluate for comorbidities and complications. (2023 Gold Report,2023;Raoof,2023;Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2018) CR, pulmonary function tests (PFT's) and selected blood tests lead to a specific diagnosis in a significant proportion of people with chronic dyspnea.(Raoof,2023) CT has increased sensitivity and specificity for determining the type, severity, and distribution of emphysema and bronchial abnormalities.(Raoof,2023;Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2018) It is an important part of the pre-procedure evaluation process for lung volume reduction surgery, endobronchial valve placement, and lung transplantation.

(Raoof,2023) The GOLD 2023 report recommends that CT be considered for COPD patients with persistent exacerbations and concern for another diagnosis, such as bronchiectasis or an atypical infection, or symptoms out of proportion to the disease severity suggested by PFT's.(2023 Gold Report,2023) Some authors have proposed broadening the definition of COPD to include CT-detected emphysema, air trapping or airway wall thickening, even in the absence of airflow obstruction on spirometry. (Lowe,2019;Ferrara,2021)

CT is helpful if a smoking-related interstitial lung disease, such as pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis or Combined Pulmonary Fibrosis and Emphysema, is suspected.(Cottin,2022;Guiot,2022) It is recommended following a diagnosis of alpha-1 antitrypsin deficiency.(Stoller,2006) CT is also used in the evaluation of central airway abnormalities associated with COPD, such as tracheobronchomalacia and excessive dynamic airways collapse.(Raoof,2023) Annual lung cancer screening CT's should be performed in current or former smokers who meet the USPSTF criteria, but screening CT's are not recommended for those with COPD not due to smoking because there is insufficient evidence to establish benefit over harm.(2023 Gold Report,2023)

COPD exacerbations are characterized by dyspnea, cough and/or sputum which worsen over a period of less than two weeks.(2023 Gold Report,2023) They are mainly caused by respiratory viral infections. CR is often performed to rule out alternative diagnoses, such as pneumonia, pneumothorax or pulmonary edema.

Background and Supporting Information

 COPD includes asthmatic bronchitis, chronic bronchitis, and emphysema. COPD is airflow reduction (FEV1/FVC ratio <0.7 or FEV1 <80% predicted) in the presence of respiratory symptoms, such as dyspnea. Advanced chest imaging is not typically indicated in COPD exacerbation, which is an acute change in baseline dyspnea, cough, and/or sputum beyond normal day-to-day variations.²

References (CH-10)

v1.2.2025

- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging:, McComb BL, Ravenel JG, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Chronic Dyspnea-Noncardiovascular Origin. J Am Coll Radiol. 2018;15(11S):S291-S301. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2018.09.015.
- 2. Austin JH. Pulmonary emphysema: imaging assessment of lung volume reduction surgery [published correction appears in Radiology 1999 Sep;212(3):912]. *Radiology*. 1999;212(1):1-3. doi:10.1148/radiology.212.1.r99jl521.
- 3. 2023 GOLD Report Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease GOLD. Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease GOLD. Published November 12, 2023. https://goldcopd.org/2023-gold-report-2/.
- Raoof S, Shah M, Braman S, et al. Lung Imaging in COPD Part 2: Emerging Concepts. Chest. 2023;164(2):339-354. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2023.02.049.
- 5. Raoof S, Shah M, Make B, et al. Lung Imaging in COPD Part 1: Clinical Usefulness. Chest. 2023;164(1):69-84. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2023.03.007.
- 6. Lowe KE, Regan EA, Anzueto A, et al. COPDGene[®] 2019: Redefining the Diagnosis of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. Chronic Obstr Pulm Dis. 2019;6(5):384-399. doi:10.15326/jcopdf.6.5.2019.0149.
- 7. Ferrera MC, Labaki WW, Han MK. Advances in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. Annu Rev Med. 2021;72:119-134. doi:10.1146/annurev-med-080919-112707.
- Cottin V, Selman M, Inoue Y, et al. Syndrome of Combined Pulmonary Fibrosis and Emphysema: An Official ATS/ERS/JRS/ALAT Research Statement. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2022;206(4):e7-e41. doi:10.1164/ rccm.202206-1041ST.
- Guiot J, Henket M, Frix AN, et al. Combined obstructive airflow limitation associated with interstitial lung diseases (O-ILD): the bad phenotype ?. Respir Res. 2022;23(1):89. Published 2022 Apr 11. doi:10.1186/ s12931-022-02006-9.
- 10. Stoller JK, Hupertz V, Aboussouan LS. Alpha-1 Antitrypsin Deficiency. In: Adam MP, Feldman J, Mirzaa GM, et al., eds. GeneReviews®. Seattle (WA): University of Washington, Seattle; October 27, 2006.

Interstitial Disease (CH-11)

Guideline

Page

Interstitial Lung Disease (ILD)/Diffuse Lung Disease (DLD) (CH-11.1)	.59
E-cigarette, or Vaping, Product Use-Associated Lung Injury (EVALI) (CH-11.2)	. 62
References (CH-11)	.63

Interstitial Lung Disease (ILD)/Diffuse Lung Disease (DLD) (CH-11.1)

CH.ID.0011.1.A

v1.2.2025

- High resolution CT Chest (HRCT) (*see below) without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) is the diagnostic modality of choice to evaluate or CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260)¹⁰ (See <u>Background and Supporting Information</u>) for:
 - Interstitial changes or diffuse parenchymal changes identified on other imaging (including chest x-ray) (See <u>Dyspnea/Shortness of Breath (CH-5.1)</u>¹⁻⁶
 - In individuals with pulmonary symptoms and abnormal pulmonary function studies (PFT's) and normal chest x-ray with high clinical suspicion for ILD or DLD, including but not limited to entities such as Hypersensitivity Pneumonitis, Cryptogenic Organizing Pneumonia (COP, formally known as BOOP), and Eosinophilic Pneumonia, as chest x-ray can be normal in up to 10% of ILD^{8,9}
 - Initial imaging to identify interstitial disease with a connective tissue disease diagnosis, or significant exposures including (chest x-ray not required):
 - rheumatoid arthritis
 - scleroderma
 - idiopathic inflammatory myopathies (polymyositis, dermatomyositis, inclusion body myositis)
 - systemic lupus erythematosus
 - Sjögren's syndrome
 - mixed connective tissue disease
 - significant exposure and concern for:
 - asbestosis
 - silicosis
 - Coal miner's lung disease^{1-6,11}
 - At any time for detection of Progressive Pulmonary Fibrosis (PPF), in individuals with ILD of known or unknown etiology, defined by at least one of the following:¹²
 - New or worsening respiratory symptoms
 - Worsening PFT's, defined as decline of either:
 - FVC of 5% or greater within the past year
 - DLCO of 10% or greater within the past year
 - Once a year in individuals with known pulmonary fibrosis if needed for:¹⁰
 - serial examination for improvements in diagnostic accuracy, or
 - evaluation of disease reversibility, stability, or progression.

- Concern for interstitial lung disease post-COVID See <u>Coronavirus Disease 2019</u> (COVID-19) (CH-13.2)
- HRCT can be done even if a regular CT Chest has been done recently. HRCT is done with a thinner-slice protocol that can provide additional details to help determine ILD subtype.
- HRCT can also be done with inspiratory/expiratory and supine/prone views.

Evidence Discussion

ILD is often suspected in those with chronic dyspnea or non-productive cough, especially in the setting of an inhalational exposure or systemic disease known to be associated with lung involvement. (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2020;Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2021;Castelino,2010;Joy,2023) Chest x-ray (CR) and CT chest without contrast are usually appropriate for suspected ILD and provide complementary information. (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2020;Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2021) A normal CR does not rule out ILD. Its primary function is to evaluate for an alternative diagnosis. CR remains an important imaging modality to screen for occupational lung disease. (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2020) High resolution CT (HRCT) has higher sensitivity and specificity for ILD. HRCT may help guide a biopsy site or provide a definitive diagnosis, making a biopsy unnecessary. (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2021) CT can provide prognostic information: patients with honeycombing or a usual interstitial pneumonia (UIP) pattern on CT have increased mortality.(Montesi,2020)

CR and CT chest without contrast are usually appropriate for evaluation of an acute exacerbation of ILD.(Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2021) They can help exclude alternative causes for worsening clinical symptoms and confirm abnormalities consistent with progression of ILD. There are no data to support routine surveillance imaging of ILD, but serial CT's can improve diagnostic accuracy and evaluate disease stability, reversibility or progression.(Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2021) The optimal interval for follow up HRCT to determine disease progression in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is unknown. Raghu et al recommend consideration of an annual HRCT in people with IPF if there is clinical suspicion of worsening fibrosis or to screen for complications such as lung cancer.(6) In people with an ILD other than IPF and radiologic evidence of fibrosis, disease progression on HRCT is one of three criteria used to define progressive pulmonary fibrosis.(Raghu,2022;Wong,2020)

Interstitial lung abnormalities (ILA) are abnormalities on CT suggestive of ILD in people without a prior clinical diagnosis.(Hatabu,2020;Hunninghake,2022) They are common incidental findings, especially in older people. ILA are a radiologic observation. Differentiation between ILA and clinical or subclinical ILD must be on the basis of a clinical evaluation. When respiratory signs/symptoms or functional impairment is present, ILA likely represent mild ILD. The morphology and distribution of ILA are important: subpleural fibrotic ILA are most likely to progress. There is minimal evidence

Page 60 of 169

www.EviCore.com

to support a specific management plan for ILA. Hatabu et al recommend that when ILA are detected, a dedicated HRCT chest can help confirm and characterize the abnormalities, especially if the initial scan was incomplete (ie a CT abdomen) or not performed with thin sections.(Hatabu,2020) Hunninghake et al recommend that a HRCT should be done in those with ILA.(Hunninghake,2022) If clinically significant ILD is ruled out, Hatabu et al recommend a repeat CT at 12-24 months for those with subpleural fibrotic ILA or other risk factors for progression to ILD. However, participants in a recent consensus survey disagreed about repeating a HRCT at the follow up evaluation. (Hunninghake,2022) People with nonfibrotic nonsubpleural ILA and no symptoms or physiologic impairment do not need reimaging.(Hatabu,2020; Tomassetti,2022)

Background and Supporting Information

- DLD refers to diffuse parenchymal lung diseases or interstitial lung diseases. There
 are a multitude of pathologies that demonstrate involvement of the alveola, airways,
 or both, in addition to the pulmonary interstitium. A single term of ILD would not
 fully address the entities that are mostly parenchymal in nature, hence the term
 Diffuse Lung Disease is more technically correct. Both terms are included here for
 convenience and recognition.
- There is no relevant literature to support the use of CT with IV contrast for initial or follow-up imaging of ILD; however, IV contrast may be of use in evaluation of alternative diagnoses with overlapping clinical features or conditions that also involve the pleura, mediastinum, and pulmonary vessels.
- Progression of fibrosis is typically assessed visually, relying on the percentage of lung volume containing fibrotic features in the upper, mid, and lower lung zones. An increased extent of fibrotic features denotes progression. These may include increased traction bronchiectasis and bronchiolectasis, new ground-glass opacity with traction bronchiectasis, new fine reticulation, increased coarseness of reticular abnormality, new or increased honeycombing, and increased lobar volume loss.¹²

E-cigarette, or Vaping, Product Use– Associated Lung Injury (EVALI) (CH-11.2)

CH.ID.0011.2.A

v1.2.2025

 CT Chest with or without contrast (CPT[®] 71250 or CPT[®] 71260) if EVALI is suspected.⁷

Evidence Discussion

EVALI is a toxic inhalational acute lung injury with imaging and histopathologic patterns of organizing pneumonia and/or diffuse alveolar damage.(Kligerman,2020;Friedman, 2022) Chest x-ray (CR) can exclude other diagnoses and is often the first imaging study. CR is not abnormal at initial assessment in all patients with EVALI. When pulmonary abnormalities are not identified on CR or when further characterization of CR findings are needed to evaluate for another potential cause of symptoms, CT chest can be obtained.(Kligerman, 2020;Friedman, 2022)

Chest Imaging Guidelines

References (CH-11)

v1.2.2025

- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Cox CW, Chung JH, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Occupational Lung Diseases. J Am Coll Radiol. 2020;17(5S):S188-S197. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2020.01.022.
- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging:, McComb BL, Ravenel JG, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Chronic Dyspnea-Noncardiovascular Origin. J Am Coll Radiol. 2018;15(11S):S291-S301. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2018.09.015.
- 3. Misumi S, Lynch DA. Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis/usual interstitial pneumonia: imaging diagnosis, spectrum of abnormalities, and temporal progression. *Proc Am Thorac Soc*. 2006;3(4):307-314.doi:10.1513/ pats.200602-018TK.
- Bradley B, Branley HM, Egan JJ, et al. Interstitial lung disease guideline: the British Thoracic Society in collaboration with the Thoracic Society of Australia and New Zealand and the Irish Thoracic Society [published correction appears in Thorax. 2008 Nov;63(11):1029. multiple author names added]. *Thorax.* 2008;63 Suppl 5:v1-v58. doi:10.1136/thx.2008.101691.
- 5. Dempsey OJ, Kerr KM, Remmen H, Denison AR. How to investigate a patient with suspected interstitial lung disease. *BMJ*. 2010;340:c2843. Published 2010 Jun 9. doi:10.1136/bmj.c2843.
- 6. Castelino FV, Varga J. Interstitial lung disease in connective tissue diseases: evolving concepts of pathogenesis and management. *Arthritis Res Ther*. 2010;12(4):213. doi:10.1186/ar3097.
- 7. https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/68/wr/mm6846e2.htm?s_cid=mm6846e2_w.
- 8. Epler GR, McLoud TC, Gaensler EA, Mikus JP, Carrington CB. Normal chest roentgenograms in chronic diffuse infiltrative lung disease. *N Engl J Med.* 1978;298(17):934-939. doi: 10.1056/NEJM197804272981703.
- Raghu G, Remy-Jardin M, Ryerson CJ, et al. Diagnosis of Hypersensitivity Pneumonitis in Adults. An Official ATS/JRS/ALAT Clinical Practice Guideline [published correction appears in Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2021 Jan 1;203(1):150-151] [published correction appears in Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2022 Aug 15;206(4):518]. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2020;202(3):e36-e69. doi:10.1164/rccm.202005-2032ST.
- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging:, Hobbs SB, Chung JH, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Diffuse Lung Disease. J Am Coll Radiol. 2021;18(11S):S320-S329. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2021.08.008.
- 11. Mathai SC, Danoff SK. Management of interstitial lung disease associated with connective tissue disease. *BMJ*. 2016;352:h6819. Published 2016 Feb 24. doi:10.1136/bmj.h6819.
- Raghu G, Remy-Jardin M, Richeldi L, et al. Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis (an Update) and Progressive Pulmonary Fibrosis in Adults: An Official ATS/ERS/JRS/ALAT Clinical Practice Guideline. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2022;205(9):e18-e47. doi:10.1164/rccm.202202-0399ST.
- 13. Hunninghake GM, Goldin JG, Kadoch MA, et al. Detection and early referral of patients with interstitial lung abnormalities: an expert survey initiative.

Chest. 2022;161(2):470-482. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2021.06.035.

- 14. Joy GM, Arbiv OA, Wong CK, et al. Prevalence, imaging patterns and risk factors of interstitial lung disease in connective tissue disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Eur Respir Rev. 2023;32(167):220210. Published 2023 Mar 8. doi:10.1183/16000617.0210-2022.
- 15. Montesi SB, Fisher JH, Martinez FJ, Selman M, Pardo A, Johannson KA. Update in Interstitial Lung Disease 2019. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2020;202(4):500-507. doi:10.1164/rccm.202002-0360UP.
- 16. Wong AW, Ryerson CJ, Guler SA. Progression of fibrosing interstitial lung disease. Respir Res. 2020;21(1):32. Published 2020 Jan 29. doi:10.1186/s12931-020-1296-3.
- Hatabu H, Hunninghake GM, Richeldi L, et al. Interstitial lung abnormalities detected incidentally on CT: a Position Paper from the Fleischner Society. Lancet Respir Med. 2020;8(7):726-737. doi:10.1016/ S2213-2600(20)30168-5.
- Tomassetti S, Poletti V, Ravaglia C, et al. Incidental discovery of interstitial lung disease: diagnostic approach, surveillance and perspectives [published correction appears in Eur Respir Rev. 2022 May 25;31(164):215206. doi: 10.1183/16000617.5206-2021]. Eur Respir Rev. 2022;31(164):210206. Published 2022 Apr 13. doi:10.1183/16000617.0206-2021.

- Kligerman S, Raptis C, Larsen B, et al. Radiologic, Pathologic, Clinical, and Physiologic Findings of Electronic Cigarette or Vaping Product Use-associated Lung Injury (EVALI): Evolving Knowledge and Remaining Questions. Radiology. 2020;294(3):491-505. doi:10.1148/radiol.2020192585.
- 20. Friedman J, Schooler GR, Kwon JK, Artunduaga M. Pediatric electronic cigarette or vaping product useassociated lung injury (EVALI): updates in the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic era. Pediatr Radiol. 2022;52(10):2009-2016. doi:10.1007/s00247-022-05454-z.

Pneumonia and Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) (CH-13)

Guideline	Page
Pneumonia (CH-13.1)	
Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) (CH-13.2)	
References (CH-13)	71

Pneumonia (CH-13.1)

CH.PN.0013.1.A

- v1.2.2025
- Chest x-ray should be performed initially in all individuals with suspected pneumonia, prior to considering advanced imaging.^{1, 2}
 - CT Chest without or with contrast (CPT[®] 71250 or CPT[®] 71260) if initial or repeat chest x-ray findings reveal:
 - complication of pneumonia (e.g. abscess, effusion, necrotizing pneumonia, pneumothorax)^{1,2}
 - possible lung mass associated with the infiltrate.2
 - CT Chest without or with contrast (CPT® 71250 or CPT® 71260) for hypoxia and/ or respiratory distress
 - CT Chest without or with contrast (CPT® 71250 or CPT®71260) after initial chest radiograph is negative or equivocal and one of the following:
 - Abnormal vital signs (including hypoxemia, pulse > 100, respiratory rate > 24, fever > 100)
 - Abnormal exam (including respiratory distress, dyspnea and or abnormal lung auscultation)
 - Advanced age (age>75), or other significant comorbidities
- If pulmonary emboli suspected, see Pulmonary Embolism (CH-25.1).
- CT Chest without or with contrast (CPT[®] 71250 or CPT[®] 71260) for immunocompromised individuals with any of the following:¹⁵
 - · High suspicion for pneumonia despite equivocal or negative chest x-ray
 - Persistent radiographic abnormalities
 - Multiple or diffuse opacities or nodules

Evidence Discussion

Chest radiography (CR) is the appropriate first imaging modality in the evaluation of suspected pneumonia.(Dueck,2021) The American Thoracic Society (ATS) and the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) define a clinical diagnosis of pneumonia as symptoms and signs of pneumonia with radiographic confirmation. (Metlay,2019)

CT is more accurate/sensitive than CR and may be warranted when there is a high clinical suspicion for pneumonia (typical or atypical) and a delay in diagnosis could be life threatening.

CT chest without contrast is usually appropriate and CT chest with contrast may be appropriate in immunocompromised people with an acute respiratory illness and a normal/equivocal/nonspecific CR or a CR that demonstrates multiple, diffuse or confluent opacities.(Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019) MRI is usually not appropriate for the imaging of pneumonia.(Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2018;Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019) MRI has a potential role for follow up imaging of parenchymal (Chest wall/mediastinal) disease, but CT is more sensitive and is preferred.(Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019)

Routine use of follow up chest imaging in adults who are improving and whose symptoms have resolved within 5-7 days is not recommended by the ATS/IDSA. (Metlay,2019) Repeat CR or CT after the completion of therapy is generally reserved for high risk patients, suspected complications, disease progression or when the clinical course differs from CR interpretation.(Dueck,2021,Lampichler,2017)

V1.2.2025

Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) (CH-13.2)

CH.PN.0013.2.A

- v1.2.2025
- CT Chest without contrast (CPT®71250), or with contrast (CPT®71260) in the following clinical situations:
 - Imaging for initial diagnosis:
 - Symptomatic COVID-19 positive individuals with underlying comorbidities (including but not limited to age >65 years, chronic lung disease, current or former smoker, chronic kidney disease, chronic liver disease, dementia, diabetes, Down's syndrome, HIV or other primary, secondary or acquired immunodeficiency, mood disorders, BMI ≥30, pregnancy, solid organ or blood stem cell transplant, cerebrovascular disease, substance use disorder, tuberculosis, cardiovascular disease, malignancy, bronchopulmonary dysplasia, chronic infections, or immunocompromised state). See CDC's list of higher risk for severe COVID for additional information: <u>https://www.cdc.gov/</u> <u>coronavirus/2019-ncov/need-extra-precautions/people-with-medicalconditions.html</u>
 - Moderate to severe symptomatic individuals with evidence of significant pulmonary dysfunction or damage (e.g., hypoxemia, moderate-to-severe dyspnea), suspected of having COVID-19, regardless of COVID-19 test results or when viral testing is not available.
 - Thromboembolic complications including pulmonary embolism, stroke and mesenteric ischemia are recognized complications of COVID-19. See <u>Pulmonary Embolism (CH-25.1), Mesenteric Ischemia (AB-6.1)</u> in the Abdomen Imaging Guidelines, and <u>Stroke/TIA (HD-21.1)</u> in the Head Imaging Guidelines for appropriate imaging guidance.
 - Other systemic complications are being recognized as medical knowledge about this condition evolves. Imaging for possible COVID-19 complications should be managed by the appropriate condition based guidelines.
 - Imaging after initial diagnosis:
 - Imaging in the following clinical circumstances:
 - If there is significant worsening of symptoms in a COVID-19 positive individual and imaging will be used to modify individual management.
 - A recovered COVID-19 positive individual with significant residual functional impairment and/or persistence hypoxemia.

 Symptomatic post-COVID individuals with concern for interstitial lung disease including organizing pneumonia imaging can be considered pre and post treatment.¹¹

Evidence Discussion

Chest imaging is not routinely indicated as a screening test for COVID-19 in asymptomatic people or in people with suspected COVID-19 and mild clinical features unless they are at risk for disease progression.(Rubin,2020)

The American College of Radiology (ACR) states that CT chest should not be used as a screen or first-line test to diagnose COVID-19.(American College of Radiology,2020) Viral testing is the only specific method of diagnosis and confirmation with a viral test is required even if radiologic findings on chest radiography (CR) or CT are suggestive of COVID-19.

Imaging is indicated in people with COVID-19 and a worsening respiratory status or in people who have suspected COVID-19, a high pretest probability of disease, and moderate to severe clinical features.(Rubin,2020) Although less sensitive than CT, chest radiography (CR) is typically the first line imaging modality. (Rubin,2020;Long,2022;Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2018)

Johnston et al have proposed a management algorithm for patients with COVID-19 pneumonia which recommends a clinical assessment with CR and PFT's 3-6 months after discharge.(Johnston,2023) Performance of a high resolution CT chest (HRCT) is based on risk factors (ICU admission, noninvasive or mechanical ventilation; male sex; age>60) and serial assessment of lung function and symptoms.

There is an increased risk of pulmonary embolus (PE) in people with COVID-19, including both microvascular/ in situ thrombosis and macrothrombotic events.(Ortega-Paz,2023) It is currently recommended that the same diagnostic strategy and the same D-dimer threshold be used for people with COVID-19 and suspected PE as in those without COVID-19.(Ortega-Paz,2023;Suh,2021)

Background and Supporting Information

- The role of advanced imaging in the diagnosis and management of COVID-19 is very dynamic in this rapidly evolving condition.
- Comorbidities may include: chronic heart, lung, liver, or renal disease; diabetes mellitus; alcoholism; malignancy; asplenia; organic brain disease (dementia, CVA, delirium).
- Findings on both Chest x-ray and CT Chest are non-specific. Chest x-rays may show patchy opacities with lower lung predominance. CT may show peripheral multifocal ground glass opacities with lower lung predominance. However, a significant portion of cases have opacities without a clear or specific distribution.^{3,4,6} A reverse halo

sign or other findings of organizing pneumonia may be seen later during the course of illness. Atypical findings include isolated lobar or segmental consolidation without ground glass opacities, discrete small centrilobular ("tree-in-bud") nodules, pleural effusion.⁸

- Pediatric individuals may have less pronounced imaging findings than adults.
- CT Chest abnormalities are common 3 months after discharge in adults who have been hospitalized for COVID-19 and are associated with more severe acute disease. Fibrosis was seen in a minority of people.^{13,14} Most people re-imaged at one year showed radiologic improvement.¹³
- Major professional society guidelines to date:
 - The American College of Radiology (ACR) recommends that CT Chest should not be used for screening or as a first-line test to diagnose COVID-19.³
 - The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) recommends viral testing as the only specific method of diagnosis.⁴
 - The CDC has stated that symptoms may appear 2-14 days after exposure to the virus. These symptoms may include:⁵
 - fever or chills
 - cough
 - shortness of breath or difficulty breathing
 - fatigue
 - muscle or body aches
 - headache
 - new loss of taste or smell
 - sore throat
 - congestion or runny nose
 - nausea or vomiting
 - diarrhea
 - The Fleischner Society consensus statement published on April 7, 2020, recommends against the use of imaging in individuals with suspected COVID-19 who are either asymptomatic or have only mild symptoms without evidence of significant pulmonary dysfunction or damage (e.g., absence of hypoxemia, no or mild dyspnea).⁶
 - According to The American Society of Transplantation, screening donors is based on methods below. Screening donors encompasses three different methods.⁷
 - Epidemiologic screening for travel and potential exposures
 - Screening for symptoms suggestive of COVID-19
 - Viral testing (nucleic acid testing of specimens)
 - There is no current indication for screening asymptomatic donors with advanced imaging.

References (CH-13)

v1.2.2025

- Metlay JP, Waterer GW, Long AC, et al. Diagnosis and treatment of adults with community-acquired pneumonia. An official clinical practice guideline of the American Thoracic Society and Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2019;200(7):e45-e67. doi:10.1164/rccm.201908-1581ST.
- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging:, Jokerst C, Chung JH, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Acute Respiratory Illness in Immunocompetent Patients. *J Am Coll Radiol.* 2018;15(11S):S240-S251. doi:10.1016/ j.jacr.2018.09.012.
- American College of Radiology. ACR Recommendations for the use of Chest Radiography and Computed Tomography (CT) for Suspected COVID-19 Infection. acr.org. Available at https://www.acr.org/Advocacy-and-Economics/ACR-Position-Statements/Recommendations-for-Chest-Radiography-and-CT-for-Suspected-COVID19-Infection. 3/22/2020.
- 4. Evaluating and Testing Persons for Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19). Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Center for Immunization and Respiratory Diseases (NCIRD), Division of Viral Diseases. https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/symptoms-testing/testing.html.
- Symptoms of Coronavirus. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Center for Immunization and Respiratory Diseases (NCIRD), Division of Viral Diseases. Page last reviewed: May 13, 2020. https:// www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/symptoms-testing/symptoms.html.
- Foust AM, Phillips GS, Chu WC, et al. International Expert Consensus Statement on Chest Imaging in Pediatric COVID-19 Patient Management: Imaging Findings, Imaging Study Reporting and Imaging Study Recommendations. *Radiol Cardiothorac Imaging*. 2020;2(2):e200214. Published 2020 Apr 23. doi:10.1148/ ryct.2020200214.
- Rubin GD, Ryerson CJ, Haramati LB, et al. The Role of Chest Imaging in Patient Management During the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Multinational Consensus Statement from the Fleischner Society. *Radiology*. 2020;296(1):172-180. doi:10.1148/radiol.2020201365
- Scott Simpson, Fernando U. Kay, Suhny Abbara, Sanjeev Bhalla, Jonathan H. Chung, Michael Chung, Travis S. Henry, Jeffrey P. Kanne, Seth Kligerman, Jane P. Ko, and Harold Litt. Radiological Society of North America Expert Consensus Statement on Reporting Chest CT Findings Related to COVID-19. Endorsed by the Society of Thoracic Radiology, the American College of Radiology, and RSNA. Published online: March 25 2020 https:// pubs.rsna.org/doi/10.1148/ryct.2020200152
- American Society of Transplantation: SARS-CoV-2: Recommendations and Guidance for Organ Donor Testing and Evaluation. Updated: January 18, 2023. https://www.myast.org/sites/default/files/Donor%20Testing %20Document1.18.23.pdf
- Grillet F, Behr J, Calame P, Aubry S, Delabrousse E. Acute Pulmonary Embolism Associated with COVID-19 Pneumonia Detected by Pulmonary CT Angiography. *Radiology*. 2020;296(3):E186-E188. doi:10.1148/ radiol.2020201544.
- 11. Myall KJ, Mukherjee B, Castanheira AM, et al. Persistent Post-COVID-19 Interstitial Lung Disease. An Observational Study of Corticosteroid Treatment. *Ann Am Thorac Soc.* 2021;18(5):799-806. doi:10.1513/ AnnalsATS.202008-1002OC.
- 12. Ambardar SR, Hightower SL, Huprikar NA, Chung KK, Singhal A, Collen JF. Post-COVID-19 Pulmonary Fibrosis: Novel Sequelae of the Current Pandemic. *J Clin Med*. 2021;10(11):2452. Published 2021 Jun 1. doi:10.3390/jcm10112452.
- 13. Vijayakumar B, Tonkin J, Devaraj A, et al. CT Lung Abnormalities after COVID-19 at 3 Months and 1 Year after Hospital Discharge. *Radiology*. 2022;303(2):444-454. doi:10.1148/radiol.2021211746.
- 14. van den Borst B, Peters JB, Brink M, et al. Comprehensive Health Assessment 3 Months After Recovery From Acute Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19). *Clin Infect Dis*. 2021;73(5):e1089-1098. doi:10.1093/cid/ ciaa1750.
- 15. Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Lee C, Colletti PM, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Acute Respiratory Illness in Immunocompromised Patients. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2019;16(11S):S331-S339. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2019.05.019.

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

- 16. Dueck NP, Epstein S, Franquet T, Moore CC, Bueno J. Atypical pneumonia: definition, causes, and imaging features. *Radiographics*. 2021;41(3):720-741. doi:10.1148/rg.2021200131.
- 17. Rubin GD, Ryerson CJ, Haramati LB, et al. The Role of Chest Imaging in Patient Management during the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Multinational Consensus Statement from the Fleischner Society. Radiology. 2020;296(1):172-180. doi:10.1148/radiol.2020201365.
- 18. <u>https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/hcp/clinical-care/underlyingconditions.html</u>. Updated 4/12/24.
- 19. Long B, Carius BM, Chavez S, et al. Clinical update on COVID-19 for the emergency clinician: Presentation and evaluation. Am J Emerg Med. 2022;54:46-57. doi:10.1016/j.ajem.2022.01.028.
- Davis HE, McCorkell L, Vogel JM, Topol EJ. Long COVID: major findings, mechanisms and recommendations [published correction appears in Nat Rev Microbiol. 2023 Jun;21(6):408. doi: 10.1038/s41579-023-00896-0]. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2023;21(3):133-146. doi:10.1038/s41579-022-00846-2.
- 21. Cho JL, Villacreses R, Nagpal P, et al. Quantitative Chest CT Assessment of Small Airways Disease in Post-Acute SARS-CoV-2 Infection. Radiology. 2022;304(1):185-192. doi:10.1148/radiol.212170.
- 22. Singh SJ, Baldwin MM, Daynes E, et al. Respiratory sequelae of COVID-19: pulmonary and extrapulmonary origins, and approaches to clinical care and rehabilitation. Lancet Respir Med. 2023;11(8):709-725. doi:10.1016/S2213-2600(23)00159-5.
- 23. Guinto E, Gerayeli FV, Eddy RL, Lee H, Milne S, Sin DD. Post-COVID-19 dyspnoea and pulmonary imaging: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Eur Respir Rev. 2023;32(169):220253. Published 2023 Aug 9. doi:10.1183/16000617.0253-2022.
- 24. Johnston J, Dorrian D, Linden D, Stanel SC, Rivera-Ortega P, Chaudhuri N. Pulmonary Sequelae of COVID-19: Focus on Interstitial Lung Disease. Cells. 2023;12(18):2238. Published 2023 Sep 8. doi:10.3390/cells12182238.
- 25. Kramer D, Hilton R, Roman J. Pulmonary fibrosis and COVID-19. Am J Med Sci. 2023;366(4):245-253. doi:10.1016/j.amjms.2023.07.006.
- Ortega-Paz L, Talasaz AH, Sadeghipour P, et al. COVID-19-Associated Pulmonary Embolism: Review of the Pathophysiology, Epidemiology, Prevention, Diagnosis, and Treatment. Semin Thromb Hemost. 2023;49(8):816-832. doi:10.1055/s-0042-1757634.
- 27. Suh YJ, Hong H, Ohana M, et al. Pulmonary Embolism and Deep Vein Thrombosis in COVID-19: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Radiology. 2021;298(2):E70-E80. doi:10.1148/radiol.2020203557.
- Lampichler K. Rolle der bildgebenden Verfahren zur Abklärung von Pneumoniekomplikationen [Role of imaging procedures in clarification of complications of pneumonia]. Radiologe. 2017;57(1):29-34. doi:10.1007/ s00117-016-0195-6.

Other Chest Infections (CH-14)

Guideline

Page

PPD or TB (Mycobacterium tuberculosis and Nontuberculous Mycobacterial Pulmon	ary
Disease (NTM-PD)) (CH-14.1)	. 74
Fungal Infections (Suspected or Known) (CH-14.2)	. 76
Wegener's Granulomatosis/Granulomatosis with Polyangiitis and Related Entities	
(CH-14.3)	. 77
Suspected Sternal Dehiscence (CH-14.4)	. 78
References (CH-14)	79

PPD or TB (Mycobacterium tuberculosis and Nontuberculous Mycobacterial Pulmonary Disease (NTM-PD)) (CH-14.1)

- v1.2.2025
- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) with ANY of the following:
 - Normal or equivocal chest x-ray with ONE of the following:¹
 - Positive PPD skin test or other positive tuberculin skin tests OR
 - Positive QuantiFERON-TB Gold OR
 - Suspected active (or reactivated) tuberculosis
 - Suspected complications or progression of tuberculosis (e.g. pleural tuberculosis, empyema, and mediastinitis)²
 - Suspected NTM-PD
 - If CT Chest is unremarkable, there is insufficient data to support performing subsequent CT Chest unless symptoms develop or chest x-ray shows a new abnormality.
 - Follow-up CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) with frequency at the discretion of or in consultation with the pulmonary or infectious disease specialist (not to exceed 3 studies in 3 months).
 - Re-evaluate individuals undergoing active treatment who had abnormalities seen only on CT Chest.

Evidence Discussion

Chest radiography (CR) should be the initial for suspected active M. tuberculosis (MTB) infection based on clinical symptoms and demographics. a newly positive tuberculin skin test, (TST) or interferon-gamma release assay (IGRA). CT is appropriate if CR is equivocal and there is clinical suspicion of active MTB, especially in those with impaired cell-mediated immunity.(Wetscherek,2022) CT may be performed to evaluate suspected complications and monitor response to therapy.(Nel,2022;Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2018)

CR is usually appropriate to distinguish latent from active MTB in people with evidence of new exposure (a newly positive TST/IGRA or a positive TST/IGRA with unknown prior status) but no clinical symptoms.(Ravenel,2017) The yield of CR for active MTB in the absence of clinical symptoms is low. CT is more sensitive than CR for the detection of

latent TB.(Moore,2023). CT is recommended when CR is equivocal for active MTB or when a diagnosis of latent MTB may affect future care.(Ravenel,2017;Piccazzo,2014)

When a TST is not available for people who are going to live in a group home, correctional institution or nursing facility, CR is usually appropriate as a surrogate screening measure.

Imaging (CR and CT) is an important component in the diagnosis and follow up of nontuberculous mycobacterial pulmonary disease (NTM-PD).(Lipman,2020) The diagnosis and determination of response to therapy are based upon radiologic, clinical, and microbiologic criteria.(Daley,2020;Haworth,2017) Serial CT imaging is important for monitoring disease progression and response to therapy. Radiologic findings provide prognostic information and may affect treatment recommendations.(Haworth,2017)

Fungal Infections (Suspected or Known) (CH-14.2)

CH.CI.0014.2.A

- v1.2.2025
- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or High resolution CT Chest (HRCT) without contrast (CPT[®] 71250):^{3,4}
 - Initial diagnosis of any fungal pneumonia or chest infection^{3,4}
 - Suspected complications or progression of the fungal chest infection (e.g. worsening pneumonitis; pleural effusion, empyema, mediastinitis)
 - Suspected Allergic Bronchopulmonary Aspergillosis (ABPA) in asthmatics with atypical presentation or poor response to conventional therapy^{7,8,9}
- Follow-up CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or High Resolution CT Chest (HRCT) without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) with frequency at the discretion of or in consultation with the pulmonary or infectious disease specialist.

Evidence Discussion

CT chest is the imaging method of choice for suspected or known pulmonary fungal infections, especially in immunocompromised hosts.(Alexander,2021;Lewis,2023) Imaging findings are not specific but can lead to early detection of infection, help direct further diagnostic procedures and narrow the differential diagnosis. (Lewis,2023;Walker,2014) CT is also used to monitor response to therapy and identify complications.(Alexander,2021) The diagnosis of certain pulmonary fungal infections and determination of response to treatment require a combination of clinical, microbiologic and radiologic criteria.(Van Braeckel,2022; Setianingrum,2019;Denning,2016) Denning et al recommend follow up imaging 3-6 months after starting anti-fungal therapy for chronic pulmonary aspergillosis, then less frequently, or with any major change of clinical status based on the fact that radiologic change is slow and little change is visible on chest X-ray (CR) or CT in less than 3 months.(Denning,2016)

CT is not recommended in the routine evaluation of suspected asthma without a specific indication but may be of value to identify acute complications following a nondiagnostic CR, suspected alternative diagnoses or associated conditions, such as allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis.(Richards,2016;Ash,2017).

Wegener's Granulomatosis/ Granulomatosis with Polyangiitis and Related Entities (CH-14.3)

CH.CI.0014.3.A

v1.2.2025

 See <u>Small Vessel Vasculitis (PVD-6.11)</u> for concerns of Wegener's Granulomatosis and Related Entities in Peripheral Vascular Disease imaging guidelines.

Suspected Sternal Dehiscence (CH-14.4)

CH.CI.0014.4.A v1.2.2025

- Sternal wound dehiscence is primarily a clinical determination.
- Chest x-ray is performed prior to advanced imaging to identify abnormalities in the sternal wire integrity and/or a midsternal stripe. Other findings include rotated, shifted or ruptured wires.
- CT Chest without contrast (CPT® 71250) or CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) for:
 - differentiating sternal wire migration from sternal dehiscence¹⁰
 - planned debridement and/or repair

See Infection – General (MS-9.1) for concerns for osteomyelitis or soft tissue infection.

Evidence Discussion

Sternal dehiscence is defined as sternal separation with intact sternal wires migrating with a displaced sternal fragment.(Hota,2018) The diagnosis is often made clinically; however, early signs may be subtle, and it may be clinically occult. (Boiselle,1999). Early detection of sternal dehiscence on chest x-ray (CR) is important..(Hota,2018;Boiselle,1999;Hayward,1994; Boiselle,2002) CT may be used in equivocal cases to assess for sternal separation or for preoperative planning. (Hota,2018,Silverborn,2022)

CT provides the best evaluation of sternal non-union when suspected based on pain, clicking and clinical evidence of sternal instability for > 3 months in the absence of infection.(Hota,2018)

Chest Imaging Guidelines

Chest Imaging Guidelines

References (CH-14)

v1.2.2025

- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging:, Ravenel JG, Chung JH, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Imaging of Possible Tuberculosis. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2017;14(5S):S160-S165. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2017.02.022.
- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Lee C, Colletti PM, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Acute Respiratory Illness in Immunocompromised Patients. *J Am Coll Radiol.* 2019;16(11S):S331-S339. doi:10.1016/ j.jacr.2019.05.019.
- Walker CM, Abbott GF, Greene RE, Shepard JA, Vummidi D, Digumarthy SR. Imaging pulmonary infection: classic signs and patterns [published correction appears in AJR Am J Roentgenol. 2014 Jun;202(6):1396]. AJR Am J Roentgenol. 2014;202(3):479-492. doi:10.2214/AJR.13.11463.
- 4. Cordier JF, Valeyre D, Guillevin L, Loire R, Brechot JM. Pulmonary Wegener's granulomatosis. A clinical and imaging study of 77 cases. *Chest*. 1990;97(4):906-912. doi:10.1378/chest.97.4.906.
- 5. Peivandi AA, Vogel N, Opfermann UT, et al. Early detection of sternal dehiscence by conventional chest X-ray. *Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2006;54(2):108-111. doi:10.1055/s-2005-872864.
- Kumar K, Loebinger MR. Nontuberculous Mycobacterial Pulmonary Disease: Clinical Epidemiologic Features, Risk Factors, and Diagnosis: The Nontuberculous Mycobacterial Series. *Chest.* 2022;161(3):637-646. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2021.10.003.
- 7. Ash SY, Diaz AA. The role of imaging in the assessment of severe asthma. *Curr Opin Pulm Med*. 2017;23(1):97-102. doi:10.1097/MCP.0000000000341.
- Ward S, Heyneman L, Lee MJ, Leung AN, Hansell DM, Müller NL. Accuracy of CT in the diagnosis of allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis in asthmatic patients. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 1999;173(4):937-942. doi:10.2214/ajr.173.4.10511153.
- 9. Richards JC, Lynch D, Koelsch T, Dyer D. Imaging of Asthma. *Immunol Allergy Clin North Am.* 2016;36(3):529-545. doi:10.1016/j.iac.2016.03.005.
- Hota P, Dass C, Erkmen C, Donuru A, Kumaran M. Poststernotomy Complications: A Multimodal Review of Normal and Abnormal Postoperative Imaging Findings. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2018;211(6):1194-1205. doi:10.2214/AJR.18.19782.
- 11. Nel M, Franckling-Smith Z, Pillay T, Andronikou S, Zar HJ. Chest Imaging for Pulmonary TB-An Update. Pathogens. 2022;11(2):161. Published 2022 Jan 26. doi:10.3390/pathogens11020161.
- 12. Wetscherek MTA, Sadler TJ, Lee JYJ, Karia S, Babar JL. Active pulmonary tuberculosis: something old, something new, something borrowed, something blue. Insights Imaging. 2022;13(1):3. Published 2022 Jan 9. doi:10.1186/s13244-021-01138-8.
- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging:, Jokerst C, Chung JH, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Acute Respiratory Illness in Immunocompetent Patients. J Am Coll Radiol. 2018;15(11S):S240-S251. doi:10.1016/ j.jacr.2018.09.012.
- 14. Moore N, Maher M, Murphy G, O'Callaghan Maher M, O'Connor OJ, McEntee MF. CT in the detection of latent tuberculosis: a systematic review. Clin Radiol. 2023;78(8):568-575. doi:10.1016/j.crad.2023.04.014.
- Piccazzo R, Paparo F, Garlaschi G. Diagnostic accuracy of chest radiography for the diagnosis of tuberculosis (TB) and its role in the detection of latent TB infection: a systematic review. J Rheumatol Suppl. 2014;91:32-40. doi:10.3899/jrheum.140100.
- 16. WHO consolidated guidelines on tuberculosis: Module 2: screening systematic screening for tuberculosis disease. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2021.
- Lipman M, Cleverley J, Fardon T, et al. Current and future management of non-tuberculous mycobacterial pulmonary disease (NTM-PD) in the UK. BMJ Open Respir Res. 2020;7(1):e000591. doi:10.1136/ bmjresp-2020-000591.
- Daley CL, laccarino JM, Lange C, et al. Treatment of nontuberculous mycobacterial pulmonary disease: an official ATS/ERS/ESCMID/IDSA clinical practice guideline. Eur Respir J. 2020;56(1):2000535. Published 2020 Jul 7. doi:10.1183/13993003.00535-2020.
- Haworth CS, Banks J, Capstick T, et al. British Thoracic Society guidelines for the management of nontuberculous mycobacterial pulmonary disease (NTM-PD). Thorax. 2017;72(Suppl 2):ii1-ii64. doi:10.1136/ thoraxjnl-2017-210927.

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924 S

- Alexander BD, Lamoth F, Heussel CP, et al. Guidance on Imaging for Invasive Pulmonary Aspergillosis and Mucormycosis: From the Imaging Working Group for the Revision and Update of the Consensus Definitions of Fungal Disease from the EORTC/MSGERC. Clin Infect Dis. 2021;72(Suppl 2):S79-S88. doi:10.1093/cid/ ciaa1855.
- 21. Lewis RE, Stanzani M, Morana G, Sassi C. Radiology-based diagnosis of fungal pulmonary infections in highrisk hematology patients: are we making progress?. Curr Opin Infect Dis. 2023;36(4):250-256. doi:10.1097/ QCO.0000000000000937.
- 22. Van Braeckel E, Page I, Davidsen JR, et al. Treatment outcome definitions in chronic pulmonary aspergillosis: a CPAnet consensus statement. Eur Respir J. 2022;59(6):2102950. Published 2022 Jun 9. doi:10.1183/13993003.02950-2021.
- 23. Setianingrum F, Rautemaa-Richardson R, Denning DW. Pulmonary cryptococcosis: A review of pathobiology and clinical aspects. Med Mycol. 2019;57(2):133-150. doi:10.1093/mmy/myy086.
- 24. Denning DW, Cadranel J, Beigelman-Aubry C, et al. Chronic pulmonary aspergillosis: rationale and clinical guidelines for diagnosis and management. Eur Respir J. 2016;47(1):45-68. doi:10.1183/13993003.00583-2015.
- 25. Hota P, Dass C, Erkmen C, Donuru A, Kumaran M. Poststernotomy Complications: A Multimodal Review of Normal and Abnormal Postoperative Imaging Findings. AJR Am J Roentgenol. 2018;211(6):1194-1205. doi:10.2214/AJR.18.19782.
- 26. Boiselle PM, Mansilla AV, Fisher MS, McLoud TC. Wandering wires: frequency of sternal wire abnormalities in patients with sternal dehiscence. AJR Am J Roentgenol. 1999;173(3):777-780. doi:10.2214/ajr.173.3.10470922.
- Silverborn M, Heitmann LA, Sveinsdottir N, Rögnvaldsson S, Kristjansson TT, Gudbjartsson T. Non-infectious sternal dehiscence after coronary artery bypass surgery. J Cardiothorac Surg. 2022;17(1):249. Published 2022 Oct 3. doi:10.1186/s13019-022-02015-1.
- Hayward RH, Knight WL, Reiter CG. Sternal dehiscence. Early detection by radiography. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg. 1994;108(4):616-619.
- 29. Boiselle PM, Mansilla AV. A closer look at the midsternal stripe sign. AJR Am J Roentgenol. 2002;178(4):945-948. doi:10.2214/ajr.178.4.1780945.

Sarcoid (CH-15)

Guideline Page

Sarcoid (CH-15.1)	. 82
References (CH-15)	84

Sarcoid (CH-15.1)

CH.SA.0015.1.A

v1.2.2025

- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) for:
 Establish or rule out the diagnosis when suspected
- Subsequent CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or without contrast (CPT[®] 71250), in known sarcoidosis, for ANY of the following:¹
 - Development of worsening symptoms
 - New symptoms appear after a period of being asymptomatic
 - Treatment change is being considered
- If CT is equivocal, definitive diagnosis can only be made by biopsy.^{2,3,4}
- PET/CT should not be used in the standard work-up of all sarcoidosis individuals. There is currently no evidence to support the use of PET/CT for screening.
- PET/CT (CPT[®] 78815) can be considered under the following conditions:^{5,6,7}
 - Help guide biopsy location if:
 - known lesion on CT Chest is difficult to access, to help identify alternative biopsy location
 - no apparent lung involvement and to identify an extrapulmonary biopsy site
 - Differentiation of reversible granulomatous disease from irreversible pulmonary fibrosis and will affect treatment options
 - Help identify treatment failure where either current treatment will be modified or new treatment will be introduced

Evidence Discussion

Sarcoidosis is a multisystem disease of unknown etiology characterized by the formation of noncaseating granulomas in various organs.(Seve,2021) The diagnosis is based on three major criteria: a compatible clinical presentation, the finding of nonnecrotizing granulomatous inflammation in a tissue sample, and the exclusion of alternative causes of granulomatous disease.(Crouser,2020) Imaging plays an important role in the diagnosis. Although chest x-ray (CR) is often the first imaging test used, high resolution chest CT (HRCT) is more sensitive than CR for the detection of nodules and subtle fibrosis.(Seve,2021) Histologic examination of tissue remains the gold standard for reaching a definitive diagnosis.(Tana,2020) However, in the appropriate clinical context, certain patterns of mediastinal and parenchymal involvement on HRCT are virtually diagnostic of sarcoidosis.(Tana,2020) The American Thoracic Society (ATS) states that if asymptomatic bilateral hilar lymphadenopathy is found on chest imaging, histologic confirmation is not always required.(Crouser,2020)

The monitoring of patients with pulmonary sarcoidosis is not standardized. Changes in imaging along with clinical features have been used to assess changes in disease activity.(Keijsers,2020) If spirometry and pulmonary symptoms are worsening, additional chest imaging may be useful to detect progression of pulmonary disease or an alternative diagnosis.(Gupta,2022) HRCT can also provide prognostic information by differentiating reversible from irreversible (ie fibrotic) lesions and show complications, such as mycetomas or evidence of pulmonary hypertension.(Tana,2020)

There is interest in the use of FDG PET CT for the diagnosis and monitoring of sarcoidosis. PET CT may reveal a more easily accessible biopsy site which is not clinically evident. (Seve, 2021; Keijsers, 2020) It may detect multi-organ and/or extrathoracic involvement and demonstrate active inflammation not easily recognized by physical exam or other methods.(Keijsers,2020;Vender,2022) Studies have shown that FDG uptake in sarcoidosis represents active granulomatous inflammation. (Keijsers, 2020) The evaluation of disease activity is valuable when there is doubt regarding the activity of lesions and a change in therapy is being considered. (Tana, 2020). Positive scans should be interpreted with caution, however, because FDG uptake can be present in other inflammatory processes and malignancy. A significant correlation between decreased metabolic activity in the lungs, increased pulmonary function tests and improved symptoms in response to immunosuppressive medication has been demonstrated (Keijsers, 2020; Vender, 2026) Most of the data regarding PET CT and sarcoidosis come from retrospective studies. Prospective trials are needed to determine the role of PET CT in monitoring the efficacy of therapy and the importance of abnormal PET CT's in asymptomatic patients.(Vender, 2022) The threshold SUV that distinguishes active disease from fibrosis has not been determined. Few studies have compared the value of HRCT vs PET CT for diagnosis. Data on appropriate time intervals for follow up assessments and the role of PET-guided therapy are scarce. (Vender, 2022)

References (CH-15)

v1.2.2025

- Hantous-Zannad S, Charrada L, Zidi A, Mestiri I, Ben Miled-M'rad K. Apport de la TDM dans l'exploration de la sarcoïdose thoracique [Value of CT scanning in the investigation of thoracic sarcoidosis]. *Rev Mal Respir.* 2003;20(2 Pt 1):207-213.
- Okumura W, Iwasaki T, Toyama T, et al. Usefulness of fasting 18F-FDG PET in identification of cardiac sarcoidosis. J Nucl Med. 2004;45(12):1989-1998.
- 3. Sarcoidosis. foundation.chestnet.org. https://foundation.chestnet.org/lung-health-a-z/sarcoidosis/
- 4. Baughman RP, Culver DA, Judson MA. A concise review of pulmonary sarcoidosis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2011;183(5):573-581. doi:10.1164/rccm.201006-0865Cl
- 5. Akaike G, Itani M, Shah H, et al. PET/CT in the Diagnosis and Workup of Sarcoidosis: Focus on Atypical Manifestations. *Radiographics*. 2018;38(5):1536-1549. doi:10.1148/rg.2018180053
- 6. Keijsers RG, van den Heuvel DA, Grutters JC. Imaging the inflammatory activity of sarcoidosis. *Eur Respir J*. 2013;41(3):743-751. doi:10.1183/09031936.00088612
- Teirstein AS, Machac J, Almeida O, Lu P, Padilla ML, Iannuzzi MC. Results of 188 whole-body fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography scans in 137 patients with sarcoidosis. *Chest*. 2007;132(6):1949-1953. doi:10.1378/chest.07-1178.
- 8. Sève P, Pacheco Y, Durupt F, et al. Sarcoidosis: A Clinical Overview from Symptoms to Diagnosis. Cells. 2021;10(4):766. Published 2021 Mar 31. doi:10.3390/cells10040766.
- Crouser ED, Maier LA, Wilson KC, et al. Diagnosis and Detection of Sarcoidosis. An Official American Thoracic Society Clinical Practice Guideline. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2020;201(8):e26-e51. doi:10.1164/ rccm.202002-0251ST.
- 10. Tana C, Donatiello I, Coppola MG, et al. CT Findings in Pulmonary and Abdominal Sarcoidosis. Implications for Diagnosis and Classification. J Clin Med. 2020;9(9):3028. Published 2020 Sep 20. doi:10.3390/jcm9093028.
- 11. Keijsers RGM, Grutters JC. In Which Patients with Sarcoidosis Is FDG PET/CT Indicated?. J Clin Med. 2020;9(3):890. Published 2020 Mar 24. doi:10.3390/jcm9030890.
- 12. Gupta R, Judson MA, Baughman RP. Management of Advanced Pulmonary Sarcoidosis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2022;205(5):495-506. doi:10.1164/rccm.202106-1366Cl.
- 13. Vender RJ, Aldahham H, Gupta R. The role of PET in the management of sarcoidosis. Curr Opin Pulm Med. 2022;28(5):485-491. doi:10.1097/MCP.00000000000892.

Solitary Pulmonary Nodule (SPN) (CH-16)

Guideline

Page

Solitary Pulmonary Nodule (CH-16.0)	
Solitary Pulmonary Nodule - Imaging (CH-16.1)	
Incidental Pulmonary Nodules Detected on CT Images (CH-16.2)	
Interval Imaging Outcomes (CH-16.3)	96
PET (CH-16.4)	
References (CH-16)	

Solitary Pulmonary Nodule (CH-16.0)

CH.SN.0016.0.A

v1.2.2025

 For Lung Cancer Screening (LDCT) including incidental findings from LDCT, See Lung Cancer Screening (CH-33)

Solitary Pulmonary Nodule – Imaging (CH-16.1)

CH.SN.0016.1.A

v1.2.2025

V1.2.2025

- For these guidelines, manual nodule measurements should be based on the average of long- and short-axis diameters. The size threshold (<6 mm) corresponds to a rounded measurement of 5 mm or less in these guidelines. Measurements should be rounded to the nearest millimeter. Prediction models used to estimate malignancy yield better results with the average diameter than with the maximum transverse diameter. The dimension of small pulmonary nodules (<10mm) should be expressed as the average of the maximal long-axis and perpendicular maximal short-axis measurements in the same plane. For larger nodules and for masses larger than 10 mm, it is generally appropriate to record both long- and short-axis dimensions, with the long-axis dimension being used to determine the T factor in lung cancer staging and being a criterion for tumor response to treatment.^{1,13}
- A pulmonary nodule can be determined to have changed in size when its average diameter has increased or decreased by at least 2mm (rounded to the nearest millimeter). Smaller changes do not reliably indicate change.¹³
- Maximum intensity projection (MIP), and Minimum intensity projection (MinIP) are 2D projections of the volumetric (3D) acquisition data.^{11,12} These projections may be of use in evaluation pulmonary nodules, but these projections are included in the cross sectional imaging base codes, and is not separately reimbursable.
- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) initially for discrete nodule(s) in the following scenarios:^{1,2,3}
 - Lung nodule(s) seen on an imaging study other than a "dedicated" CT or MRI Chest. Examples of other studies:
 - Chest x-ray
 - CT abdomen
 - MRI spine
 - Coronary CTA¹
 - But NOT in the following which are considered initial dedicated advanced chest imaging:
 - CT Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71270)
 - CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275)
 - MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550)
 - MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552)
 - MRA Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71555)

- Comparisons should include the earliest available study and the more recent previous CT Chest scans to determine if nodule was present and stable.¹
 - Similar-sized pleural nodule(s) is treated as a pulmonary nodule(s)
- The size of the lung or pleural nodule(s) is crucial information for decisions making regarding follow-up. The largest of multiple lung and/or pleural nodules will guide the surveillance interval. (See <u>Incidental Pulmonary Nodules Detected on CT Images</u> <u>(CH-16.2)</u>, and <u>Pleural-Based Nodules and Other Abnormalities (CH-17.1)</u>
- A lung nodule is defined as an approximately rounded opacity (more or less welldefined) measuring up to 3 cm in diameter.
- Rounded lesions measuring more than 3 cm in diameter are termed lung masses and should be considered indicative of lung cancer until histologically proven otherwise. Approach to lung masses differ from that of nodules and these guideline are specifically for those abnormalities, occurring within the chest, that meet the definition of a pulmonary nodule(s).

Evidence Discussion

A pulmonary nodule is defined as a well or poorly defined rounded opacity < 3cm in diameter. Focal pulmonary lesions > 3 cm are considered masses. Nodule measurement is currently determined by standard linear measurement with electronic calipers. Measurements and averages should be expressed to the nearest whole millimeter. The dimension of small pulmonary nodules (<10mm) should be expressed as the average of the maximal long-axis and perpendicular maximal short-axis measurements in the same plane. For larger nodules and masses, both long- and short-axis dimensions should be recorded. (Bankier, 2017) Semiautomated nodule volumetry has superior sensitivity for detecting growth and is recommended as the preferred method by the British Thoracic Society (BTS), but it requires dedicated software and is currently not widely used in clinical practice. (Bankier,2017;Callister,2015) Nodule growth is defined as an increase of > 1.5 mm (> 2 cubic mm) by the Lung-RADS criteria, greater than or equal to 2 mm change in average diameter by the Fleischner criteria or an increase of at least 25% in volume by the BTS.(Callister, 2015; MacMahon, 2017; Christensen, 2024) A number of studies have established the advantage of post-processing 3D CT techniques, such as maximum intensity projection (MIP), minimum intensity projection (MinIP) and volume rendering (VR) in the detection and assessment of pulmonary nodules. (Callister, 2015; Naeem, 2021; Li, 2019)

If an indeterminate nodule is seen on a CR or CT, prior studies should be reviewed to determine possible growth or stability, including comparison with the earliest available study and more recent ones.(MacMahon,2017;Gould,2013;Martin,2023). If stability of a nodule seen on CR cannot be determined, CT chest is appropriate. (Gould,2013;Martin,2023) CT is the modality of choice to evaluate pulmonary nodules. (Martin,2023) Intravenous contrast is not required to identify or characterize nodules.

The size of the nodule is crucial for determining the appropriate timing of follow up surveillance imaging.(MacMahon,2017).

For nodules which are detected incidentally on incomplete thoracic CT scans (e.g. cardiac, neck, spine or abdominal CT), the Fleischner society recommends no follow up for most nodules< 6 mm based on the estimated low risk of malignancy. The ACR states that an optional follow up CT may be done at 12 months for nodules < 6 mm with a suspicious morphology and/or upper lobe location.(Martin,2023) For nodules 6-8 mm, Fleischner and ACR guidelines recommend a CT chest after the appropriate interval (3-12 months, depending on clinical risk). For a nodule> 8 mm or a very suspicious nodule, an immediate CT chest is recommended.(MacMahon,2017;Martin,2023)

Background and Supporting Information

Abnormality examples include: mass, opacity, lesion, density, nodule, and calcification.

Incidental Pulmonary Nodules Detected on CT Images (CH-16.2)

CH.SN.0016.2.A v1.2.2025

Solid Pulmonary Nodules

• These time intervals refer to the time from initial detection of the nodule(s).

Incidentally Detected Solid Pulmonary Nodules Follow-up Recommendations				
Nodule Type	<6 mm (<100 mm ³)	6–8 mm	>8 mm	Comments
Single Nodule	Follow-up (optional) CT at 12 months. No routine follow- up if stable at 12 months	CT at 6–12 months, then CT at 18–24 months if stable	CT at 3 months, then CT at 6-12 and then at 18-24 months if stable. Consider PET/ CT* or biopsy	Certain individuals at high-risk with suspicious nodule morphology, upper lobe location, or both may warrant 12- month follow-up
Multiple Nodules	Follow-up (optional) CT at 12 months. *No routine follow- up if stable at 12 months	CT at 3– 6 months, then at 18–24 months if stable	CT at 3– 6 months, then at 18–24 months if stable. Consider PET/ CT* or biopsy	Use most suspicious nodule as a guide to management. Follow-up intervals may vary according to size and risk.

- *PET/CT consider for ≥8 mm solid lung nodule or solid component of a sub-solid nodule, not for groundglass opacity.
- Follow-up indications after PET/CT:

- If a PET/CT was found to be negative, follow-up with CT at 3 months, 9 months, and 21–24 months, if stable.
- If a PET/CT was found to be positive, a biopsy was negative or non-diagnostic, follow-up with CT at 3 months, 9-12 months, and 24 months, if stable.
- These criteria are not intended for use in the following groups:
 - Individuals aged 35 years or younger
 - Considered to have an overall low risk for pulmonary malignancy
 - In this age group, nodules are most likely to be infectious rather than cancer
 - Management of incidentally-found pulmonary nodules in this group should be individualized
 - Known primary cancer with risks for metastases
 - Immunocompromised individuals at risk for infection

Sub-Solid Pulmonary Nodules

• These time intervals refer to the time from initial detection of the nodule(s).

Incidentally Detected Sub-Solid Pulmonary Nodules Follow-up Recommendations			
Nodule Type	<6mm (<100 mm ³)	≥6mm (≥100 mm ³)	Comments
Single Ground glass opacity (GGO)	Consider follow-up at 2 and 4 years. If solid component(s) or growth develops, consider resection.	CT at 6–12 months to confirm persistence, then follow-up with CT every 2 years until 5 years	In certain suspicious nodules, <6 mm, consider follow-up at 2 and 4 years. If solid component(s) or growth develops, consider resection.

Incidentally Detected Sub-Solid Pulmonary Nodules Follow-up Recommendations			
Single Sub-solid	Consider follow-up at 2 and 4 years. If growth develops, consider resection.	CT at 3–6 months to confirm persistence. If unchanged and solid component remains <6 mm, then annual CT should be performed for 5 years. If the solid component has suspicious morphology (i.e., lobulated margins or cystic components), is >8 mm or is growing: Consider PET/CT* or biopsy	In practice, part- solid nodules cannot be defined as such until ≥6 mm. Persistent part- solid nodules with solid components ≥6 mm should be considered highly suspicious.
Multiple Sub-Solid	CT at 3–6 months. If stable, consider CT at 2 and 4 years.	CT at 3–6 months. Subsequent management based on the most suspicious nodule(s).	Multiple <6 mm pure ground- glass nodules are usually benign.

• *PET/CT consider for ≥8 mm solid lung nodule or solid component of a sub-solid nodule, not for groundglass opacity.

- Follow-up indications after PET/CT:
 - If a PET/CT was found to be negative, follow-up with CT at 3 months, 9 months, and 21–24 months, if stable.
 - If a PET/CT was found to be positive, a biopsy was negative or non-diagnostic, follow-up with CT at 3 months, 9-12 months, and 24 months, if stable.
- These criteria are not intended for use in the following groups:
 - Individuals aged 35 years or younger
 - Considered to have an overall low risk for pulmonary malignancy
 - In this age group, nodules are most likely to be infectious rather than cancer
 - Management of incidentally-found pulmonary nodules in this group should be individualized
 - Known primary cancer with risks for metastases
 - Immunocompromised individuals at risk for infection

- Sub-solid nodules may either be a part-solid nodule, comprising of both solid and ground glass components or a pure ground glass nodule, the latter may also be referred to as "non-solid".
- For pulmonary nodule follow-up studies a CT Chest without IV contrast (CPT[®] 71250) is usually appropriate. IV contrast is not required to identify, characterize, or determine stability of pulmonary nodules in clinical practice)

Pulmonary Cyst(s) ¹⁰

- May represent a rare form of adenocarcinoma, squamous cell carcinoma, or small cell carcinoma.
- Short-term initial imaging to exclude rapid growth can be considered at 3-6 months.
- Further imaging can be managed according to the sub-solid pathway above.

Evidence Discussion

A pulmonary nodule is defined as a well or poorly defined rounded opacity < 3 cm in diameter. The Fleischner Society guidelines for the management of incidental pulmonary nodules detected on CT were last updated in 2017.(MacMahon,2017) The purpose of the guidelines is to minimize both the number of unnecessary follow up exams and the chance of a malignancy advancing in stage during CT follow up prior to diagnosis. Surveillance is most appropriate if there is a very low probability of cancer or a high risk of complications from surgery or biopsy.(Gould,2013) It is important to establish the clinical probability of malignancy before ordering imaging. (MacMahon,2017;Gould;Callister,2015) The Fleischner guidelines are not intended to apply to people younger than 35, people with known primary cancers at risk of metastases or to immunocompromised people at risk of infection. They do not apply to patients with unexplained fever or respiratory symptoms.(Martin,2023) For patients younger than 35, lung cancer is rare. Management should be on a case by case basis, and the use of serial CT's should be minimized.(MacMahon,2017)

Solid nodules < 6 mm do not require follow up in patients at low risk of lung cancer or in all patients at high risk. Nodules which have a suspicious morphology or an upper lobe location may be followed up with a CT in 12 months. Solid nodules 6-8 mm may be followed with a CT at 6-12 months in low risk patients with a further follow up at 18-24 months in high risk patients. Two follow up CT's should be sufficient to rule out growth in most patients.

For solid nodules> 8 mm, the options are CT surveillance, an FDG PET/CT, tissue sampling or a combination of these. Surveillance CT scans for solid nodules> 8 mm may be done at 3 months, 6-12 months and 18-24 months.(MacMahon,2017).The American College of Chest Physicians (ACCP) guidelines recommend a PET/CT or nonsurgical biopsy for solid nodules of at least 8 mm when the pretest probability of malignancy is low to moderate.(Gould,2013) The pretest probability affects the interpretation of PET/CT results: high risk patients are at risk of false negative results and low risk patients

are at risk of false positive results.(Callister,2015) If there is a high pretest probability of cancer, a negative PET/CT does not reliably rule out cancer and either continued surveillance for at least 2 years or tissue sampling is advised.(Gould,2013;Maiga,2018) The ACCP states that the optimal interval for surveillance CT's for solid nodules> 8 mm is not determined, but standard practice is 3-6 months, 9-12 months and 18-24 months. They suggest surveillance with CT if the clinical probability of cancer is very low, the clinical probability of malignancy is low and a PET CT is negative, a PET CT is negative and a needle biopsy is non-diagnostic, or an informed patient prefers a non-aggressive approach. If a solid nodule shows clear growth on serial CT's, a non-surgical biopsy or surgical resection is recommended unless there are specific contraindications. (Gould,2013) A surgical diagnosis is recommended if there is a high clinical probability of lung cancer, the nodule is intensely hypermetabolic on PET/CT, a non-surgical biopsy is suspicious for cancer or a patient prefers a definitive diagnosis.(Gould,2013)

Multiple solid nodules < 6 mm are usually benign, representing granulomas or intrapulmonary lymph nodes. A 12 month follow up CT may be considered in high risk patients. If there is clinical evidence of infection or the patient is immunocompromised, infection should be considered. A short term follow CT may be appropriate. Multiple solid nodules with at least one nodule greater than or equal to 6 mm can be followed with CT's at 3-6 months and 18-24 months. Management should be based on the largest/ most suspicious nodule. Most metastases will grow over 3 months. The risk of cancer increases as the number of nodules increases from 1 to 4 but decreases if the number is greater than 4.

Subsolid nodules (SSN) include pure ground glass nodules (GGN) and part-solid nodules (PSN). SSN are more likely to be malignant than solid nodules but have a better prognosis than lung cancers which present as solid nodules.(Callister,2015) Many have slow growth rates and may remain stable for years. Pure GGN < 6 mm do not require routine follow up. However, this should not preclude the option of follow up CT's at 2 and 4 years in high risk patients. GGN greater than or equal to 6 mm can be followed at 6-12 months and then every two years until 5 years. The Fleischner Society states that these guidelines are not intended to preclude either shorter or longer term follow up in individual patients when deemed clinically appropriate. The ACCP states there is controversy regarding how long to follow part solid or ground glass nodules and that follow up over several years may be appropriate.

Solitary PSN < 6 mm do not require routine follow up. A follow up CT may be done at 2 and 4 years. For PSN greater than or equal to 6 mm with a solid component < 6 mm, a follow up CT may be done at 3-6 months and then annually for a minimum of 5 years. The 5 year period is somewhat arbitrary but considered reasonable if the nodule is unequivocally stable during that time period. If the solid component is at least 6 mm, follow up at 3-6 months should be done. A persistent PSN with a solid component of at least 6 mm or a growing solid component is highly suspicious. If the nodule has suspicious morphology, if the solid component is growing or > 8 mm, PET/CT or biopsy should be considered.(MacMahon,2017;Callister,2015) Multiple PSN< 6 mm are often infectious. A repeat CT can be done at 3-6 months, then at 2 and 4 years. If at least one of the nodules is greater than or equal to 6 mm, a repeat CT can be done at 3-6 months, and management should be based on the most suspicious nodule.

Pulmonary cystic lesions may represent a cyst-related primary lung malignancy. There are no uniform surveillance criteria for these lesions, but some authors recommend a CT at 3-6 months to exclude rapid growth and then follow up CT's according to the SSN nodule guidelines.(Mets,2018)

NCCN guidelines for the management of incidental pulmonary nodules are consistent with the Fleischner guidelines.(NCCN,2023) For pulmonary nodules detected on lung cancer screening CT's, adherence to the American College of Radiology (ACR) Lung-RADS guidelines is recommended. (MacMahon,2017;Martin,2023;NCCN,2023;Christensen,2024) The British Thoracic Society and ACCP guidelines do not distinguish the management of screening-detected nodules from nodules detected incidentally.(Gould,2013;Callister,2015)

Interval Imaging Outcomes (CH-16.3)

CH.SN.0016.3.C v1.2.2025

- No further advanced imaging is necessary if nodule(s) ANY of the following:
 - Has remained stable as described in <u>CH-16.2: Incidental Pulmonary Nodules</u> <u>Detected on CT Images</u>
 - Has remained stable on chest x-ray for 5 years
 - Has classically benign characteristics by chest x-ray or previous CT (e.g. benign calcification pattern typical for a granuloma or hamartoma)
 - Is decreasing in size or disappearing.³
- Lung nodule(s) which increase in size or number should no longer be considered for CT screening or surveillance.^{1,2,3,7}
 - with an increase in nodule(s) size or number, tissue sampling or other further diagnostic investigations should be considered.
 - PET, for solid nodules ≥8mm, should be considered (See <u>PET (CH-16.4)</u>)

Evidence Discussion

If a chest x-ray (CR) or chest CT has demonstrated that a pulmonary nodule has benign characteristics, further imaging is not necessary. Benign characteristics include intranodular fat or a diffuse, central, laminated or popcorn pattern of calcification. (Gould,2013)

If an indeterminate nodule is seen on a CR or CT, prior studies should be reviewed to determine possible growth or stability, including comparison with the earliest available study and more recent ones.(Gould,2013;MacMahon,2017;Martin,2023). If stability of a nodule seen on CR cannot be determined, CT chest is appropriate. (Gould,2013;Martin,2023) If a solid nodule has been stable for at least 2 years, no additional evaluation is necessary.(Gould,2013) Two years of radiographic stability is considered strong presumptive evidence of a benign nodule. For solid nodules seen on CT, further follow up is not needed if nodules < 6 mm have been stable for two years (MacMahon,2017). Malignant nodules show a wide range of growth rates with some demonstrating regression at times. Solid nodules greater than or equal to 6 mm that decrease in size but do not completely resolve should be followed to resolution or lack of growth over 2 years.(Gould,2013;Callister,2015)

There is controversy regarding how long to follow part solid or ground glass nodules. Follow up over several years may be appropriate.(Gould,2013) The Fleischner guidelines state that subsolid nodules< 6 mm may be followed for up to 4 years but that the guidelines are not intended to preclude either shorter or longer term follow up in individual patients when deemed clinically appropriate(MacMahon,2017). Subsolid nodules greater than or equal to 6 mm may be followed for 5 years. The 5 year period is "somewhat arbitrary but considered reasonable if the nodule is unequivocally stable during that time period."(MacMahon,2017)

PET/CT should be considered for solid nodules greater than or equal to 8 mm. (Gould,2013;MacMahon,2017) If a solid nodule shows clear growth on serial CT's, a non-surgical biopsy or surgical resection is recommended unless there are specific contraindications.(Gould,2013) Non-solid nodules which grow or develop solid components are often malignant and further evaluation and/or resection should be considered. (Gould,2013;Christensen,2024)

If a CT demonstrates multiple solid nodules< 6 mm and there is clinical evidence of infection or the patient is immunocompromised, infection should be considered and a short term follow up CT may be appropriate.(MacMahon,2017) Certain findings on a lung cancer screening CT which suggest an infectious or inflammatory process (e.g. >6 new nodules or solid nodules which are greater than or equal to 8 mm appearing in a short interval) are reported as Lung-RADS 0 and may be followed up with a LDCT in 1-3 months.(Christensen,2024) Some findings indicative of an infectious/inflammatory process may not warrant short-term follow-up (e.g. tree-in-bud nodules or new <3 cm ground glass nodules).

Background and Supporting Information

• Approximately 20% of observed cancers have decreased in size at least at some point during their observation period. Therefore, a decreasing size of a nodule cannot be a reliable indicator of being benign.⁽¹⁾

• For nodules that increase in number, this is not meant for known stable or benign nodules to be counted.

 Example, known 4 mm nodule stable for 3 years, now presents with a new solid 8 mm pulmonary nodule, follow-up will be driven by new nodule size and type.

 Example #2, known granuloma 5 mm from prior CT Chest one year ago and now CT Chest reveals a new 6 mm sub-solid nodule, follow-up would be driven by the new nodule size and type. Chest Imaging Guidelines

PET (CH-16.4)

CH.SN.0016.4.C

v1.2.2025

- PET/CT (CPT[®] 78815) for a solid lung nodule ≥8 mm on dedicated advanced chest imaging, as described in <u>Solitary Pulmonary Nodule Imaging (CH-16.1)</u>. See <u>Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Suspected/Diagnosis (ONC-8.2)</u> in the Oncology Imaging Guidelines for lung mass ≥3.1 cm
 - If there is a history of malignancy, refer to the appropriate Oncology restaging/ recurrence guideline for indications for PET imaging
 - Pleural nodule, See Pleural-Based Nodules and Other Abnormalities (CH-17.1)
 - · Serial PET studies are not considered indicated
 - Not indicated for infiltrate, ground glass opacity, or hilar enlargement
 - Mediastinal lymphadenopathy See <u>Mediastinal Lymphadenopathy (CH-2.3)</u> or Sarcoid concerns – See <u>Sarcoid (CH-15.1)</u>
- If a CT finding led to ordering a PET scan, and if that CT was >3 months ago, a repeat CT (CPT® 71250 or (CPT® 72160) is indicated prior to considering a PET scan.
 - A change in the status of the original finding may find that a PET scan is no longer appropriate.

Evidence Discussion

PET/CT may be performed for evaluation of a solid lung nodule greater than or equal to 8 mm on chest CT.(MacMahon,2017;Gould,2013;NCCN,2023) PET/CT has good sensitivity and moderate specificity for detecting malignancy in patients with a high risk of cancer and a nodule greater than or equal to 10 mm.(Callister,2015) Consensus opinion is that that nodules < 8 to 10 mm are not reliably characterized by PET/CT. (Gould, 2013;Callister,2015) The false negative rate of PET/CT is higher for nodules < 8 mm and for malignancies with low metabolic activity, such as adenocarcinoma in situ or well differentiated carcinoid tumor. PET/CT has a lower sensitivity and higher false negative rate for ground glass or part solid nodules.(Gould, 2013;Callister,2015) Infections and inflammatory disorders may cause false positive results.

Repeating a PET/CT is discouraged. If there is a high pretest probability of cancer, a negative PET/CT does not reliably rule out cancer and either continued surveillance for at least 2 years or tissue sampling is advised.(Gould, 2013;Maiga,2018). If a solid nodule shows clear growth on serial CT's, a non-surgical biopsy or surgical resection is recommended unless there are specific contraindications.⁽²⁾ A surgical diagnosis is recommended if the nodule is hypermetabolic on PET/CT.

PET/CT may be indicated for the pre-treatment staging of patients with confirmed or strongly suspected lung cancer, as detailed in the oncology guidelines. (Gould,2013;NCCN,2023)

Background and Supporting Information

- A **nodule** is any pulmonary or pleural lesion that is a discrete, spherical opacity 2-30 mm in diameter surrounded by normal lung tissue. A larger nodule is called a mass. Entities that are not nodules, and are considered benign, include non-spherical linear, sheet-like, two-dimensional or scarring opacities.³
- **Malignant** nodule features can include spiculation, abnormal calcification, size greater than 7-10 mm, interval growth, history of a cancer that tends to metastasize to the lung or mediastinum, and/or smoking history.^{1,3}
 - A nodule that grows at a rate consistent with cancer (doubling time 100 to 400 days) may be sampled for biopsy or resected.¹
 - Less than 1% of <6 mm lung nodules are malignant.¹
 - Three percent of all 8 mm lung nodules are malignant.¹
 - The larger the solid component of a sub-solid nodule, the greater the risk of invasiveness and metastases.¹
 - The risk of primary cancer increases with the total nodule count from 1 to 4.¹
 - There is decreased risk of primary cancer in individuals with 5 or more nodules, most of which likely resulted from prior granulomatous infection.¹
 - A nodule that does not grow in 6 months has a <10% risk of malignancy.
- **Benign** features in solid nodules can include benign calcification (80% granuloma, 10% hamartoma), multiple areas of calcification, small size, multiple nodules, negative PET, and stability of size over 2 years.³
- **Ground glass** or subsolid opacities, which can harbor indolent adenocarcinoma with average doubling times of 3–5 years.¹
- **Repeat PET** is discouraged. If the original PET is positive, biopsy may be performed. If the original PET is negative, but subsequent CT Chest shows an increase in nodule size, biopsy may be performed.
- **Positive PET** is defined as a standardized uptake value (SUV) in the lung nodule greater than the baseline mediastinal blood pool. A positive PET can occur with infection or inflammation, including absence of lung cancer with localized infection, presence of lung cancer with associated (post-obstructive) infection and/or related inflammation.
- False negative PET can be seen in individuals with adenocarcinoma in situ (formally known as bronchoalveolar carcinoma), carcinoid tumors, a small size nodule, non-solid or ground glass opacity.⁹ High pre-test likelihood of malignancy with negative findings on PET only reduces the likelihood of malignancy to 14%; while in an individual with a low pre-test likelihood (20%) of malignancy, a negative PET reduces the likelihood of malignancy to 1%.⁶

References (CH-16)

v1.2.2025

- MacMahon H, Naidich DP, Goo JM, et al. Guidelines for Management of Incidental Pulmonary Nodules Detected on CT Images: From the Fleischner Society 2017. *Radiology*. 2017;284(1):228-243. doi:10.1148/ radiol.2017161659.
- 2. Gould MK, Donington J, Lynch WR, et al. Evaluation of individuals with pulmonary nodules: when is it lung cancer? Diagnosis and management of lung cancer, 3rd ed: American College of Chest Physicians evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest* 2013;143(5 Suppl):e93S-e120S. doi:10.1378/chest.12-2351.
- 3. Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Martin MD, Henry TS, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Incidentally Detected Indeterminate Pulmonary Nodule.*J Am Coll Radiol.* 2023;20(11S):S455-S470. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2023.08.024.
- 4. Tan BB, Flaherty KR, Kazerooni EA, Iannettoni MD; American College of Chest Physicians. The solitary pulmonary nodule. *Chest. 2003*;123(1 Suppl):89S-96S. doi:10.1378/chest.123.1_suppl.89s
- 5. Khandani, AH, Fielding JR. PET in management of small pulmonary nodules. *Radiology*. 2007;242(3):948-949. doi:10.1148/radiol.2423060308
- 6. Truong MT, Ko JP, Rossi SE, et al. Update in the evaluation of the solitary pulmonary nodule. *Radiographics*. 2014;34(6):1658-1679. doi:10.1148/rg.346130092.
- 7. Lung CT Screening Reporting and Data System (Lung-RADS™), American College of Radiology, Quality & Safety. https://www.acr.org/Quality-Safety/Resources/LungRADS.
- 8. National Comprehensive Cancer Network[®] (NCCN[®]) Guidelines[®] Version 1.2024 July 19, 2023. Lung Cancer Screening. https://www.nccn.org/professionals/physician_gls/pdf/lung_screening.pdf. Referenced with permission from the NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology (NCCN Guidelines[®]) for Lung Cancer Screening Version 1.2024. © 2023 National Comprehensive Cancer Network[®] (NCCN[®]). All rights reserved. NCCN Guidelines[®] and illustrations herein may not be reproduced in any form for any purpose without the express written permission of the NCCN. To view the most recent and complete version of the NCCN Guidelines[®], go online to NCCN.org.
- 9. National Comprehensive Cancer Network[®] (NCCN[®]) Guidelines[®] Version 3.2023 April 13, 2023. Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer. https://www.nccn.org/professionals/physician_gls/pdf/nscl.pdf. Referenced with permission from the NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology (NCCN Guidelines[®]) for Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Version 3.2023. © 2023 National Comprehensive Cancer Network[®] (NCCN[®]). All rights reserved. NCCN Guidelines[®] and illustrations herein may not be reproduced in any form for any purpose without the express written permission of the NCCN. To view the most recent and complete version of the NCCN Guidelines[®], go online to NCCN.org.
- Mets OM, Schaefer-Prokop CM, de Jong PA. Cyst-related primary lung malignancies: an important and relatively unknown imaging appearance of (early) lung cancer. *Eur Respir Rev.* 2018;27(150):180079. Published 2018 Dec 19. doi:10.1183/16000617.0079-2018.
- 11. Fishman EK, Ney DR, Heath DG, Corl FM, Horton KM, Johnson PT. Volume rendering versus maximum intensity projection in CT angiography: what works best, when, and why. *Radiographics*. 2006;26(3):905-922. doi:10.1148/rg.263055186.
- Naeem MQ, Darira J, Ahmed MS, Hamid K, Ali M, Shazlee MK. Comparison of Maximum Intensity Projection and Volume Rendering in Detecting Pulmonary Nodules on Multidetector Computed Tomography. *Cureus*. 2021;13(3):e14025. Published 2021 Mar 21. doi:10.7759/cureus.14025.
- Bankier AA, MacMahon H, Goo JM, Rubin GD, Schaefer-Prokop CM, Naidich DP. Recommendations for Measuring Pulmonary Nodules at CT: A Statement from the Fleischner Society. *Radiology*. 2017;285(2):584-600. doi:10.1148/radiol.2017162894.
- 14. Mankidy BJ, Mohammad G, Trinh K, et al. High risk lung nodule: A multidisciplinary approach to diagnosis and management. *Respir Med.* 2023;214:107277. doi:10.1016/j.rmed.2023.107277.
- 15. Hansell DM, Bankier AA, MacMahon H, McLoud TC, Müller NL, Remy J. Fleischner Society: glossary of terms for thoracic imaging. *Radiology*. 2008;246(3):697-722. doi:10.1148/radiol.2462070712.

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

- Lindell RM, Hartman TE, Swensen SJ, Jett JR, Midthun DE, Mandrekar JN. 5-year lung cancer screening experience: growth curves of 18 lung cancers compared to histologic type, CT attenuation, stage, survival, and size. *Chest*. 2009;136(6):1586-1595. doi:10.1378/chest.09-0915.
- Callister ME, Baldwin DR, Akram AR, et al. British Thoracic Society guidelines for the investigation and management of pulmonary nodules [published correction appears in Thorax. 2015 Dec;70(12):1188. doi: 10.1136/thoraxjnl-2015-207168corr1]. Thorax. 2015;70 Suppl 2:ii1-ii54. doi:10.1136/thoraxjnl-2015-207168.
- Maiga AW, Deppen SA, Mercaldo SF, et al. Assessment of Fluorodeoxyglucose F18-Labeled Positron Emission Tomography for Diagnosis of High-Risk Lung Nodules. JAMA Surg. 2018;153(4):329-334. doi:10.1001/ jamasurg.2017.4495.
- 19. Christensen J, Prosper AE, Wu CC, et al. ACR Lung-RADS v2022: Assessment Categories and Management Recommendations. J Am Coll Radiol. 2024;21(3):473-488. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2023.09.009.
- Li WJ, Chu ZG, Zhang Y, Li Q, Zheng YN, Lv FJ. Effect of Slab Thickness on the Detection of Pulmonary Nodules by Use of CT Maximum and Minimum Intensity Projection. AJR Am J Roentgenol. 2019;213(3):562-567. doi:10.2214/AJR.19.21325.
- 21. Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Martin MD, Henry TS, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Incidentally Detected Indeterminate Pulmonary Nodule. J Am Coll Radiol. 2023;20(11S):S455-S470. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2023.08.024.

Pleural-Based Nodules and Other Abnormalities (CH-17)

Guideline	Page
Pleural-Based Nodules and Other Abnormalities (CH-17.1)	103
Reference (CH-17)	. 105

Chest Imaging Guidelines

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

Pleural-Based Nodules and Other Abnormalities (CH-17.1)

CH.PB.0017.1.A

v1.2.2025

- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) (with contrast is preferred for initial evaluation) for pleural nodule(s).¹
 - Pleural nodule(s) seen on an imaging study other than a "dedicated" CT or MRI Chest.¹
 - Pleural nodule(s) identified incidentally on any of the following dedicated chest studies can replace CT Chest as the initial dedicated study.¹
 - CT Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71270).
 - CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275).
 - MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550).
 - MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552).
 - MRA Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71555).
 - After preliminary comparison with any available previous chest films to determine presence and stability
 - Using largest measurement of multiple nodule(s). (See <u>Solitary Pulmonary</u> <u>Nodule – Imaging (CH-16.1)</u>)
 - Following the Fleischner Society Guidelines for high-risk. (See Incidental Pulmonary Nodules Detected on CT Images (CH-16.2))¹
- PET/CT (CPT[®] 78815) can be considered if dedicated CT or MRI Chest identifies a pleural nodule/mass or defined area of pleural thickening that is ≥8 mm when there is a likelihood of malignancy including current or previous malignancy, pleural effusion, bone erosion, chest pain.¹

Evidence Discussion

- CT Chest is indicated for the evaluation of pleural nodules^{1,2,3}. CT scan is widely available and allows for easy access to isotropic 3-D reformatting³. A study looking at the utility of CT in investigation for malignancy showed a sensitivity of 68%, a specificity of 78%, a positive predictive value of 80% and a negative predictive value of 65% when CT findings were reported as malignant³. CT also carries the risk of exposure to iodinated contrast and ionizing radiation.
- Follow up for previously detected pleural nodules follows guidelines addressed elsewhere in these guidelines (See Solitary Pulmonary Nodule – Imaging (CH-16.1) and Incidental Pulmonary Nodules Detected on CT Images (CH-16.2)¹.
 - Of note, a study looking at over 8,700 LDCT chest scans identified 943 noncalcified nodules attached to the costal pleura, of these 897 were < 10 mm in

www.EviCore.com

size. There were 603 that were either lentiform, oval, semicircular or triangular in shape and had smooth margins. All of these nodules, that met these qualifications of shape, size and smooth margins, were benign. Follow-up with annual screening, rather than more immediate work-up, was recommended.²

 PET/CT may be considered when the identified pleural nodule/mass or thickening is ≥ 8 mm and there is a likelihood of malignancy¹. PET/CT may be useful in differentiating between benign and malignant disease; however, studies have shown a broad range of sensitivities (88-100%) and specifies (35-100%)³. PET/CT may be complicated by false positives such as infections and prior pleurodesis with talc, or false negatives such as low grade/low metabolic activity epithelioid mesothelioma³.

Background and Supporting Information

- Pleural nodule/mass or thickening without suggestion of malignancy would undergo surveillance or biopsy.
- A study looking at over 8,700 LDCT chest scans identified 943 noncalcified nodules attached to the costal pleura, of these 897 were < 10 mm in size. There were 603 that were either lentiform, oval, semicircular or triangular in shape and had smooth margins. All of these nodules, that met these qualifications of shape, size and smooth margins, were benign. Follow-up with annual screening, rather than more immediate work-up, was recommended.²

Reference (CH-17)

v1.2.2025

- Rivera MP, Mehta AC, Wahidi MM. Establishing the diagnosis of lung cancer: Diagnosis and management of lung cancer, 3rd ed: American College of Chest Physicians evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest*. 2013;143(5 Suppl):e142S-e165S. doi:10.1378/chest.12-2353.
- 2. Zhu Y, Yip R, You N, Henschke CI, Yankelevitz DF. Management of Nodules Attached to the Costal Pleura at Low-Dose CT Screening for Lung Cancer. *Radiology*. 2020;297(3):710-718. doi:10.1148/radiol.2020202388.
- 3. Hallifax RJ, Talwar A, Wrightson JM, Edey A, Gleeson FV. State-of-the-art: Radiological investigation of pleural disease. Respir Med. 2017;124:88-99. doi:10.1016/j.rmed.2017.02.013.

Pleural Effusion (CH-18)

Guideline Page

Pleural Effusion (CH-18.1)	107
References (CH-18)	109

Pleural Effusion (CH-18.1)

CH.EF.0018.1.A v1.2.2025

- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) after:^{1,2}
- Chest x-ray, (upright posterior/anterior/lateral best), (lateral decubitus films can improve sensitivity); and

one of the following:

- Thoracentesis, (if possible)* to determine if fluid is exudative or transudative and remove as much as possible (this fluid can obscure the underlying lung parenchyma and possibly a mass)
- Concern for loculated effusion, empyema, paramediastinal location, subpleural lung abscess or cavitation³
- Check position of chest tube(s) or drainage catheters²
- Surgical planning²
- Chest ultrasound (CPT[®] 76604) can be used as an alternative to chest x-ray to evaluate for the presence of fluid within the pleural spaces and guide thoracentesis.

Evidence Discussion

The most common initial diagnostic test suggesting a pleural effusion is often chest radiography (CR).(Bashour,2022) CR remains the most accessible form of chest imaging and will often be the initial study for suspected pleural disease. (Sundaralingam,2020;Shen,2017; Heffner,2017) Lateral decubitus CR has higher sensitivity and specificity for pleural effusion than other positions.(Zaki,2024) However, complicated effusions are often loculated and may not layer dependently. Lower lobe consolidation may mask the presence of an effusion. The American Association for Thoracic Surgery (AATS) states that CR, although useful as a first step, should be combined with additional imaging if pleural space infection is suspected.(Shen,2017) The American College of Radiology (ACR) states that consensus recommendations endorse CR as the initial imaging modality for suspected parapneumonic or malignant effusion, but there are limited empiric data to support this.(Morris,2023)

Ultrasound (US) is at least as effective as lateral decubitus views for the detection of pleural fluid and provides a better estimation of fluid volume. (Sundaralingam,2020;Shen,2017;Zaki,2024) When standard CR cannot rule out a pleural effusion, US has largely replaced decubitus views due to its speed, portability and greater sensitivity.(Heffner,2017) Identification of a pleural effusion for possible US-guided thoracentesis is the primary reason for chest US.(Morris,2023) The AATS guidelines state that CR and US are class 1 recommendations (should be done) for suspected pleural space infection.(Shen,2017)

Although diagnostic imaging plays an important role in the evaluation of pleural effusions, thoracentesis with pleural fluid analysis remains the necessary first invasive step.(Bashour,2022) Pleural fluid analysis is considered mandatory unless the clinical presentation suggests a high pretest probability of a transudative effusion.(Sundaralingam,2020;Feller-Kopman,2018) Initial evaluation should include an ultrasound (US)-guided thoracentesis to categorize the effusion as a transudate or exudate and obtain specimens for microbiology and cytology.(Feller-Kopman,2018;Beaudoin,2018;Roberts,2023) If a parapneumonic effusion is suspected,

diagnostic aspiration must be performed to identify patients with a complicated effusion

CT is not used routinely as the initial imaging study for pleural effusion unless there is suspicion for loculated fluid in an interlobar fissure or paramediastinal location, or CR demonstrates parenchymal lesions suggestive of cancer, septic emboli or cavitation.(Heffner,2017) CT can better distinguish between a loculated empyema and subpleural lung abscess. CT with IV contrast optimizes imaging of the pleura. CT chest with contrast is a class 2a recommendation (reasonable) for suspected pleural space infection in the AATS guidelines. (Shen, 2017) If the etiology of an exudative effusion cannot be identified, or if it is not safe to perform a thoracentesis, a CT chest with contrast is appropriate.(Beaudoin,2018;Roberts,2023) The American College of Radiology (ACR) states that CR or CT chest with IV contrast is usually appropriate as initial imaging for people with recent pneumonia and suspected parapneumonic effusion or for people with dyspnea, cough or chest pain with a suspected malignant pleural effusion.(Morris, 2023) Thoracentesis and chest CT cannot rule out malignancy or tuberculosis. Pleural biopsy is indicated for a recurrent undiagnosed exudative effusion (Sundaralingam.2020;Beaudoin.2018;Roberts.2023) When a diagnosis cannot be made, monitoring with interval CT scans for up to 2 years is appropriate. (Roberts, 2023) CT is used in the diagnosis and management of late-stage empyema and malignant pleural effusion and can be used to check the position of drains and plan for surgical intervention (Sundaralingam, 2020)

Background and Supporting Information

that requires drainage. (Shen, 2017; Beaudoin, 2018)

- Bilateral effusions are more often systemic related transudates (congestive heart failure, renal failure, liver insufficiency, etc.), and advanced imaging is rarely needed. Large unilateral effusions can be malignant. Analysis of fluid may include: cytology, culture, cell count, and biochemical studies.
- PA chest x-ray can show a pleural effusion with approximately 200 ml of pleural fluid while a lateral view can reduce this to 50 ml. Ultrasound is even more sensitive with as little as 3-5 ml of fluid being detected. *Thoracentesis can only be safely performed with adequate fluid present. If only a trace effusion or inadequate amount of fluid is seen, a thoracentesis may not be possible.

Chest Imaging Guidelines

References (CH-18)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Light RW, Macgregor MI, Luchsinger PC, Ball WC Jr. Pleural effusions: the diagnostic separation of transudates and exudates. *Ann Intern Med* 1972;77(4):507-513. doi:10.7326/0003-4819-77-4-507.
- 2. Sundaralingam A, Bedawi EO, Rahman NM. Diagnostics in pleural disease. *Diagnostics (Basel)*. 2020; 10(12):1046.
- MacDuff A, Arnold A, Harvey J; BTS Pleural Disease Guideline Group. Management of spontaneous pneumothorax: British Thoracic Society Pleural Disease Guideline 2010. *Thorax*. 2010;65 Suppl 2:ii18-ii31. doi:10.1136/thx.2010.136986.
- 4. Heffner JE, Klein JS, Hampson C. Diagnostic utility and clinical application of imaging for pleural space infections. *Chest.* 2010;137(2):467-479. doi:10.1378/chest.08-3002.
- 5. Sundaralingam A, Bedawi EO, Rahman NM. Diagnostics in Pleural Disease. Diagnostics (Basel). 2020;10(12):1046. Published 2020 Dec 4. doi:10.3390/diagnostics10121046.
- Shen KR, Bribriesco A, Crabtree T, et al. The American Association for Thoracic Surgery consensus guidelines for the management of empyema. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg. 2017;153(6):e129-e146. doi:10.1016/ j.jtcvs.2017.01.030.
- Zaki HA, Albaroudi B, Shaban EE, et al. Advancement in pleura effusion diagnosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis of point-of-care ultrasound versus radiographic thoracic imaging. Ultrasound J. 2024;16(1):3. Published 2024 Jan 23. doi:10.1186/s13089-023-00356-z.
- Beaudoin S, Gonzalez AV. Evaluation of the patient with pleural effusion. CMAJ. 2018;190(10):E291-E295. doi:10.1503/cmaj.170420.
- 9. Roberts ME, Rahman NM, Maskell NA, et al. British Thoracic Society Guideline for pleural disease. Thorax. 2023;78(11):1143-1156. doi:10.1136/thorax-2023-220304.

Pneumothorax/ Hemothorax (CH-19)

Guideline

Page

Pneumothorax/Hemothorax (CH-19.1)	
Pneumomediastinum; Subcutaneous Emphysema (CH-19.2)	
References (CH-19)	

Pneumothorax/Hemothorax (CH-19.1)

CH.PT.0019.1.A v1.2.2025

Chest x-ray and CT Chest are the first line tests for detecting pneumothorax/hemothorax and ruling out other lung diseases.⁸

- Chest x-ray initially.
 - CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) if:
 - diagnosis of a small pneumothorax is in doubt, and the presence of a pneumothorax will affect individual treatment decisions¹
 - preoperative study for treatment of pneumothorax¹
 - pneumothorax associated with hemothorax²
 - suspected complications from hemothorax (e.g. empyema)²
 - suspected Alpha-1-Antitrypsin Deficiency (even without pneumothorax)³
 - suspected cystic lung disease, including lymphangioleiomyomatosis (LAM), tuberous sclerosis (TS), or Birt-Hogg-Dube (BHD) syndrome^{6,7}
 - to determine the etiology of persistent pneumothorax/air leak, such as chest tube malposition, bronchopleural fistula, loculated pneumothorax, lung parenchymal disease¹¹
 - suspected catamenial pneumothorax/thoracic endometriosis⁸
- MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552) or MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550) for:
 - detecting diaphragmatic endometriosis
 - pre-surgical planning for thoracic endometriosis^{8,9,10}

Evidence Discussion

The majority of pneumothorax cases can be confirmed by upright PA chest radiography (CR), which remains the standard initial exam (Tschopp,2015;Noppen,2010).

While CT is more sensitive than CR in detecting pneumothorax, it is generally not required for diagnosis and should be avoided due to excess radiation (Tschopp,2015). CT may be necessary for diagnosing a very small pneumothorax or differentiating between a pneumothorax and a giant bulla in bullous emphysema (Noppen,2010). Although CT is the best method to measure the size of a pneumothorax, current evidence does not support basing treatment decisions solely on size (Mendogni,2020).

The 2001 ACCP guidelines advise against routine CT use for a first-time primary spontaneous pneumothorax (PSP). However, CT may be indicated to evaluate suspected pulmonary disorders not apparent on CR. For secondary spontaneous

pneumothorax (SSP), CT is acceptable for managing recurrent pneumothorax, persistent air leak, and surgical planning.

In contrast, the 2023 British Thoracic Society recommends CT chest for individuals with symptoms and high-risk characteristics. These include hemodynamic compromise, significant hypoxia, bilateral pneumothorax, underlying lung disease, hemopneumothorax, or age over 49 with a significant smoking history. This recommendation applies if the pneumothorax size on CR is insufficient for safe needle aspiration or chest tube intervention. The European Respiratory Society suggests that CT may be useful in complicated cases, when chest tube misalignment is suspected, when underlying lung disease is suspected, and in patients requiring surgery (Tschopp,2015).

High-resolution CT (HRCT) has better sensitivity than routine CT in the pre-operative detection of blebs and bullae (Mendogni,2020). However, it is unclear whether HRCT can predict the risk of recurrence or identify which patients may benefit from surgical intervention. It may help to identify those at lower risk: the positive predictive value of CT bleb scores for ipsilateral recurrence is relatively low at 68%, while the negative predictive value is high at 94% (Barton,2023)

Some experts advise considering a CT scan after a first time PSP if there are factors such as a family history of pneumothorax, presence of blebs, cysts, or bullae; female sex; or a family or personal history and/or physical examination findings suggestive of a pneumothorax-associated syndrome.(Baryon,2023; Boone,2019)

Although they have low specificity, the most sensitive tests for detecting pneumothorax and hemothorax are CR and CT. For detecting diaphragmatic endometriosis, Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) of the chest is preferable.(Nezhat,2019)

Pneumomediastinum; Subcutaneous Emphysema (CH-19.2)

CH.PT.0019.2.A v1.2.2025

- Chest x-ray initially.
 - CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) if:
 - recent vomiting and/or suspected esophageal perforation^{4,5}
 - associated pneumopericardium^{4,5}
 - associated pneumothorax^{4,5}
 - preoperative study for treatment^{4,5}

Evidence Discussion

The diagnosis of Pneumomediastinum (PM) is usually established by a clinical exam and CR. The CR should include a lateral view. (Takada,2009; Dirweesh,2017) CR is the most common diagnostic imaging study.(Magouliotis,2023;Morgan,2021;Okada,2014;Alemu,2021) The reported sensitivity of CR ranges from 60-90%. (Magouliotis,2023;Caceres,2008;Kaneki,2000;Iyer,2009;Susai,2024) CT is more sensitive than CR, especially in cases of small amounts of air in the mediastinum.

(Takada,2009;Dirweesh,2017; Kaneki,2000)

There is no evidence defining when CT should be used to evaluate pneumomediastinum (PM).CT should be done if the suspicion for PM remains high despite a normal CR or if there is concern for secondary PM due to a specific pathologic event.(Takada,2009; Magouliotis,2023)

CT can be beneficial in detecting injury to the tracheobronchial system, pneumothorax, pneumopericardium or esophageal perforation.(Susai,2024) Despite the usually benign and self-limiting course of spontaneous PM, additional imaging is often undertaken to rule out esophageal perforation or other underlying disorder. A retrospective review of adolescents and young adults with spontaneous PM demonstrated that no clear criteria were used for obtaining a CT and that the CT's did not impact clinical decisions. (Wald,2024) The authors concluded that advanced imaging is over-utilized in patients with suspected spontaneous PM without clinical evidence of necessity.

Background and Supporting Information

• An expiration chest x-ray can enhance the evaluation of equivocal plain x-ray. There is no data supporting the use of serial CT Chest to follow individuals with a known pneumothorax, pneumomediastinum, or hemothorax who are asymptomatic or have

stable symptoms. With the exception of the indications above, advanced imaging of the chest is rarely indicated in the diagnosis or management of pneumothorax, or pneumomediastinum. Inspiratory/expiratory chest x-rays are helpful in defining whether a pneumothorax is present.

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

References (CH-19)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Manes N, Hernandez-Rodriguez H, Lopez-Martin S, Sanchez-Gascon F. Pneumothorax--guidelines of action. *Chest.* 2002;121(2):669. doi:10.1378/chest.121.2.66.
- Mowery NT, Gunter OL, Collier BR, et al. Practice management guidelines for management of hemothorax and occult pneumothorax. J Trauma. 2011;70(2):510-518. doi:10.1097/TA.0b013e31820b5c31.
- Sandhaus RA, Turino G, Brantly ML, et al. The Diagnosis and Management of Alpha-1 Antitrypsin Deficiency in the Adult. *Chronic Obst Pulm Dis.* 2016;3(3):668-682. Published 2016 Jun 6. doi:10.15326/ jcopdf.3.3.2015.0182.
- 4. Daccord C, Good JM, Morren MA, Bonny O, Hohl D, Lazor R. Birt-Hogg-Dubé syndrome. *Eur Respir Rev.* 2020;29(157):200042. Published 2020 Sep 17. doi:10.1183/16000617.0042-2020.
- 5. Iyer VN, Joshi AY, Ryu JH. Spontaneous pneumomediastinum: analysis of 62 consecutive adult patients. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2009;84(5):417-421. doi:10.1016/S0025-6196(11)60560-0.
- Ryu JH, Moss J, Beck GJ, et al. The NHLBI lymphangioleiomyomatosis registry: characteristics of 230 patients at enrollment. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2006;173(1):105-111. doi:10.1164/rccm.200409-1298OC.
- 7. Raoof S, Bondalapati P, Vydyula R, et al. Cystic Lung Diseases: Algorithmic Approach. *Chest.* 2016;150(4):945-965. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2016.04.026.
- 8. Rousset P, Rousset-Jablonski C, Alifano M, Mansuet-Lupo A, Buy JN, Revel MP. Thoracic endometriosis syndrome: CT and MRI features. *Clin Radiol*. 2014;69(3):323-330. doi:10.1016/j.crad.2013.10.014.
- 9. Nezhat C, Lindheim SR, Backhus L, et al. Thoracic Endometriosis Syndrome: A Review of Diagnosis and Management. *JSLS*. 2019;23(3):e2019.00029. doi:10.4293/JSLS.2019.00029.
- 10. McKee DC, Mansour T, Wasson MN. Thoracic and diaphragmatic endometriosis: an overview of diagnosis and surgical treatment. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol*. 2022;34(4):204-209. doi:10.1097/GCO.00000000000792.
- 11. Chaturvedi A, Lee S, Klionsky N, Chaturvedi A. Demystifying the persistent pneumothorax: role of imaging. *Insights Imaging*. 2016;7(3):411-429. doi:10.1007/s13244-016-0486-5.
- 12. Takada K, Matsumoto S, Hiramatsu T, et al. Spontaneous pneumomediastinum: an algorithm for diagnosis and management. Ther Adv Respir Dis. 2009;3(6):301-307. doi:10.1177/1753465809350888.
- 13. Dirweesh A, Alvarez C, Khan M, Christmas D. Spontaneous pneumomediastinum in a healthy young female: A case report and literature review. Respir Med Case Rep. 2017;20:129-132. Published 2017 Feb 6. doi:10.1016/j.rmcr.2017.01.014.
- 14. Magouliotis DE, Sgantzou I, Salemis NS, et al. Pneumomediastinum: Experience with 87 Patients. Acta Med Acad. 2023;52(2):88-94. doi:10.5644/ama2006-124.408.
- Morgan CT, Maloney JD, Decamp MM, McCarthy DP. A narrative review of primary spontaneous pneumomediastinum: a poorly understood and resource-intensive problem. J Thorac Dis. 2021;13(6):3721-3730. doi:10.21037/jtd-21-193.
- 16. Okada M, Adachi H, Shibuya Y, Ishikawa S, Hamabe Y. Diagnosis and treatment of patients with spontaneous pneumomediastinum. Respir Investig. 2014;52(1):36-40. doi:10.1016/j.resinv.2013.06.001.
- 17. Alemu BN, Yeheyis ET, Tiruneh AG. Spontaneous primary pneumomediastinum: is it always benign?. J Med Case Rep. 2021;15(1):157. Published 2021 Mar 25. doi:10.1186/s13256-021-02701-z.
- 18. Caceres M, Ali SZ, Braud R, Weiman D, Garrett HE Jr. Spontaneous pneumomediastinum: a comparative study and review of the literature. Ann Thorac Surg. 2008;86(3):962-966. doi:10.1016/j.athoracsur.2008.04.067.
- Kaneki T, Kubo K, Kawashima A, Koizumi T, Sekiguchi M, Sone S. Spontaneous pneumomediastinum in 33 patients: yield of chest computed tomography for the diagnosis of the mild type. Respiration. 2000;67(4):408-411. doi:10.1159/000029539.
- 20. Susai CJ, Banks KC, Alcasid NJ, Velotta JB. A clinical review of spontaneous pneumomediastinum. Mediastinum. 2023;8:4. Published 2023 Oct 27. doi:10.21037/med-23-25.
- 21. Wald L, Yergin C, Petroze R, Larson S, Islam S. The unnecessary workups and admissions of adolescents and young adults with spontaneous pneumomediastinum. Sci Rep. 2024;14(1):4501. Published 2024 Feb 24. doi:10.1038/s41598-024-55134-1.
- 22. Baumann MH, Strange C, Heffner JE, et al. Management of spontaneous pneumothorax: an American College of Chest Physicians Delphi consensus statement. Chest. 2001;119(2):590-602. doi:10.1378/chest.119.2.590.

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

- 23. Mendogni P, Vannucci J, Ghisalberti M, et al. Epidemiology and management of primary spontaneous pneumothorax: a systematic review. Interact Cardiovasc Thorac Surg. 2020;30(3):337-345. doi:10.1093/icvts/ivz290.
- 24. Barton EC, Maskell NA, Walker SP. Expert Review on Spontaneous Pneumothorax: Advances, Controversies, and New Directions. Semin Respir Crit Care Med. 2023;44(4):426-436. doi:10.1055/s-0043-1769615.
- 25. Tschopp JM, Bintcliffe O, Astoul P, et al. ERS task force statement: diagnosis and treatment of primary spontaneous pneumothorax. Eur Respir J. 2015;46(2):321-335. doi:10.1183/09031936.00219214.
- 26. Noppen M. Spontaneous pneumothorax: epidemiology, pathophysiology and cause. Eur Respir Rev. 2010;19(117):217-219. doi:10.1183/09059180.00005310.
- 27. Roberts ME, Rahman NM, Maskell NA, et al. British Thoracic Society Guideline for pleural disease. Thorax. 2023;78(Suppl 3):s1-s42. doi:10.1136/thorax-2022-219784.
- 28. Boone PM, Scott RM, Marciniak SJ, Henske EP, Raby BA. The Genetics of Pneumothorax. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2019;199(11):1344-1357. doi:10.1164/rccm.201807-1212CI.

Mediastinal Mass (CH-20)

Guideline	Page

Mediastinal Mass (CH-20.1)	118
References (CH-20)	120

Mediastinal Mass (CH-20.1)

CH.MM.0020.1.A

v1.2.2025

- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552) or MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550), to evaluate mediastinal abnormalities, may include, but not limited to mediastinal cyst including bronchogenic, thymic, pericardial or esophageal, seen on chest x-ray or other non-dedicated chest imaging.
- MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552) or MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550) can be considered for indeterminate mediastinal mass on CT Chest.
 - Lesions that remain indeterminate on MRI, if biopsy is not performed, surveillance imaging could be performed at 3-12 month intervals over 2 years or more with MRI Chest, depending upon level of clinical concern.
- FDG PET/CT offers limited additional value beyond that of conventional CT in the initial assessment of mediastinal mass(es), with the exception of primary mediastinal lymphoma. See <u>Non-Hodgkin Lymphomas (ONC-27)</u> or <u>Hodgkin Lymphoma</u> (<u>ONC-28</u>) in the Oncology Imaging Guidelines. A positive FDG PET/CT has little value for discrimination between benign and malignant lesions. A negative FDG PET/ CT does not prevent serial CT/MRIs, due to appreciable false negative rate.
 - MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552) or MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550) can be considered for indeterminate mediastinal mass on FDG PET/ CT
- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260), or CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552), or MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550) for subsequent evaluations if:
 - new signs or symptoms, or
 - preoperative assessment
- For Adenopathy; See Lymphadenopathy (CH-2).
- For Goiter; See Thyroid Nodule (NECK-8.1) in the Neck Imaging Guidelines.
- For Myasthenia Gravis; See <u>Neuromuscular Junction Disorders (PN-6.1)</u> in the Peripheral Nerve Disorders Imaging Guidelines.

Evidence Discussion

Mediastinal nodules or masses may present as incidental findings on chest radiographs and cross-sectional imaging. Alternatively, they may be found during the evaluation of symptoms and signs that include chest pain, cough, dyspnea, dysphagia, cardiac tamponade, diaphragmatic paralysis, central venous thrombosis, superior vena cava syndrome, B-symptoms (in lymphoma), myasthenia gravis, and other paraneoplastic syndromes. The incidence rate is low with a reported prevalence of 0.73-4%. The most frequent lesions encountered in the mediastinum are thymoma, neurogenic tumours and benign cysts (English,2020;Juanpere,2013)

CT is superior to chest radiography for detection of invasion of the mass across tissue planes, secondary to its higher contrast resolution. Anterior mediastinal tumors account for 50% of all mediastinal masses. CT has the ability to show the precise location, morphology, and pattern of contrast enhancement of an anterior mediastinal mass as well as its relationship to other mediastinal components or borders. (English,2020;Juanpere,2013)

MRI remains superior to CT for detection of invasion of the mass across tissue planes, including the chest wall and diaphragm, and involvement of neurovascular structures secondary to its higher soft-tissue contrast. MRI allows further tissue characterization of mediastinal masses beyond that of CT and FDG-PET/CT. Chemical-shift MRI has been shown to be useful in distinguishing normal thymus and thymic hyperplasia from thymic neoplasms and lymphoma. It can also prove the cystic nature of an indeterminate, non-water attenuation thymic mass on CT, preventing unnecessary biopsy and thymectomy. (English,2020;Juanpere,2013)

(FDG)-PET/CT offers limited additional value beyond that of conventional CT in the initial assessment of mediastinal masses, with the exception of its use for primary mediastinal lymphoma staging and surveillance and detection of metastatic lymphadenopathy. A positive FDG-PET/CT has little value for discrimination between benign and malignant lesions.(English,2020)

It is reasonable to perform a chest radiograph as an initial imaging step. Chest radiography can help localize a mass to a specific mediastinal compartment and thereby narrow the differential diagnosis. Chest radiography offers limited assistance regarding tissue characterization of mediastinal masses, with the exception of its occasional demonstration of calcium within a lesion.(English,2020)

There is little relevant literature to support the use of ultrasound (US) in the initial evaluation of a clinically suspected mediastinal mass.(English,2020)

References (CH-20)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Kuhlman JE, Bouchardy L, Fishman EK, Zerhouni EA. CT and MR imaging evaluation of chest wall disorders. *Radiographics*. 1994;14(3):571-595. doi:10.1148/radiographics.14.3.8066273.
- Juanpere S, Cañete N, Ortuño P, Martínez S, Sanchez G, Bernado L. A diagnostic approach to the mediastinal masses. *Insights Imaging*. 2013;4(1):29-52. doi:10.1007/s13244-012-0201-0.
- 3. Komanapalli C, Schipper P, Sukumar M. Pericardial Cyst. October 2022. doi:10.25373/ctsnet.21280404.
- 4. Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging, Ackman JB, Chung JH, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Imaging of Mediastinal Masses. J Am Coll Radiol. 2021;18(5S):S37-S51. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2021.01.007.
- 5. Proli C, De Sousa P, Jordan S, et al. A diagnostic cohort study on the accuracy of 18-fluorodeoxyglucose (

¹⁸FDG) positron emission tomography (PET)-CT for evaluation of malignancy in anterior mediastinal lesions: the DECiMaL study. *BMJ Open*. 2018;8(2):e019471. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2017-019471.

Chest Trauma (CH-21)

Guideline	Page

Chest Trauma (CH-21.1)	122
References (CH-21)	124

Chest Trauma (CH-21.1)

CH.CT.0021.1.A v1.2.2025

- Chest x-ray initially.
 - CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) for the following situations:¹
 - Rib¹ or Sternal² Fracture:
 - With associated complications identified clinically or by other imaging, including pneumothorax, hemothorax, pulmonary contusion, atelectasis, flail chest, cardiovascular injury and/or injuries to solid or hollow abdominal organs.¹
 - Uncomplicated, single fractures, multiple fractures, non-acute fractures, or occult rib fractures are NOT an indication for CT Chest unless malignancy is suspected as the etiology.¹
 - Routine follow-up advanced imaging of rib or sternal fractures is not indicated.¹
- CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or Tc-99m bone scan whole body (CPT[®] 78306) for suspected pathological rib fractures, with or without a history of trauma.¹
- Clavicle Fractures:
 - CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) or CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552) or MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550) for proximal (medial) 1/3 fractures or sternoclavicular dislocations.³
 - X-ray is adequate for evaluation of middle and distal 1/3 fractures.³
- No advanced imaging of the abdomen or pelvis is indicated when there is chest trauma and no physical examination or laboratory evidence of abdominal and/or pelvic injury.

Evidence Discussion

Chest x-ray, in combination with physical exam, is the appropriate initial diagnostic modality in those with suspected rib or sternal fracture after chest trauma. Although chest x-ray has low sensitivity (approximately 50%) for detection of rib fracture (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019) it has the benefit of being widely and readily available and able to detect complications that may require additional imaging such as pneumo- or hemothorax and pulmonary contusions.(Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019; Lewis,2021) In addition, failure to detect rib fractures in uncomplicated cases does not significantly alter the patient management or outcomes. A study by Bansidhar et al. showed no difference in treatment in patient with minor chest trauma who did and did not have rib fractures diagnosed either clinically or radiographically.(Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019) Therefore in

uncomplicated cases additional advanced imaging is not indicated. Rodriguez et al. demonstrated that yield for CT of thoracic injury with major clinical significance after a normal chest x-ray is 1.5% (Rodriguez,2014) and would only detect one major injury for every 67 studies.(Rodriguez,2017)

- In cases where complications are identified clinically or by other imaging, additional imaging with CT chest is merited. CT does have higher sensitivity for detection of rib fractures (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019) and in the detection and extent of pulmonary injuries.(Lewis,2021) It also may be useful in differentiating blunt cardiac injury from acute myocardial infarction. (Clancy,2012) However, CT does carry with it the risk of contrast related renal injury and allergic reactions.(Rodriguez,2017) It also exposes the patient to a greater amount of ionizing radiation than a chest x-ray and subsequent increased risk of induced cancers.(Rodriguez,2017) It is estimated that undergoing chest CT will result in one radiation induced cancer per every 720 40year-old females and 1,538 40-year-old males. (Rodriguez,2017)
- If a pathological rib fracture is suspected imaging with either a CT chest or Tc-99m bone scan is warranted. CT may be helpful in differentiating primary tumor from metastasis and may aid in detection of the primary malignancy. (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019) Tc-99mm bone scan has low specificity but high sensitivity (>95%) for detection of pathologic rib fractures. (Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging,2019)
- Medial clavicular fractures are rare (<5% of cases) (Flores,2020)and may necessitate additional imaging with CT or MRI for evaluation. Midshaft and distal clavicular fractures are usually sufficiently evaluated by x-ray. (Flores,2020; Throckmorton,2007)
- Chest x-ray has poor sensitivity for identification of sternoclavicular dislocations. Given the risk for complications such as pneumothorax in posterior displacement advanced imaging may be required. CT is advantageous as it has superior image resolution. It also allows for 3D reconstruction to determine exact position of the sternoclavicular joint. MRI can also be utilized but it has poorer resolution than CT. However, it may be advantageous for evaluation of soft tissue conditions or ligamentous injury. (Morell,2016)
- Isolated chest injury without signs or symptoms of abdominal or pelvic injury does not support advanced imaging of the abdomen or pelvis. If abdominal or pelvic injury is suspected imaging is as dictated elsewhere in these guidelines.

References (CH-21)

v1.2.2025

- Expert Panel on Thoracic Imaging:, Henry TS, Donnelly EF, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Rib Fractures. *J Am Coll Radiol.* 2019;16(5S):S227-S234. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2019.02.019.
- Clancy K, Velopulos C, Bilaniuk JW, et al. Screening for blunt cardiac injury: an Eastern Association for the Surgery of Trauma practice management guideline. *J Trauma Acute Care Surg.* 2012;73(5 Suppl 4):S301-S306. doi:10.1097/TA.0b013e318270193a.
- 3. Throckmorton T, Kuhn JE. Fractures of the medial end of the clavicle. *J Shoulder Elbow Surg.* 2007;16(1):49-54. doi:10.1016/j.jse.2006.05.010.
- 4. Lewis BT, Herr KD, Hamlin SA, et al. Imaging Manifestations of Chest Trauma. Radiographics. 2021;41(5):1321-1334. doi:10.1148/rg.2021210042.
- 5. Rodriguez RM, Baumann BM, Raja AS, et al. Diagnostic yields, charges, and radiation dose of chest imaging in blunt trauma evaluations. Acad Emerg Med. 2014;21(6):644-650. doi:10.1111/acem.12396.
- Rodriguez RM, Hendey GW, Mower WR. Selective chest imaging for blunt trauma patients: The national emergency X-ray utilization studies (NEXUS-chest algorithm). Am J Emerg Med. 2017;35(1):164-170. doi:10.1016/j.ajem.2016.10.066.
- Flores DV, Goes PK, Gómez CM, Umpire DF, Pathria MN. Imaging of the Acromioclavicular Joint: Anatomy, Function, Pathologic Features, and Treatment. Radiographics. 2020;40(5):1355-1382. doi:10.1148/ rg.2020200039.
- Morell DJ, Thyagarajan DS. Sternoclavicular joint dislocation and its management: A review of the literature. World J Orthop. 2016;7(4):244-250. Published 2016 Apr 18. doi:10.5312/wjo.v7.i4.244.

Chest Wall Mass (CH-22)

Guideline	Page

Chest Wall Mass (CH-22.1)	126
References (CH-22)	128

Chest Wall Mass (CH-22.1)

CH.CM.0022.1.A

v1.2.2025

- Chest x-ray is useful in the workup of a soft-tissue mass and is almost always indicated as the initial imaging study.¹
 - Chest ultrasound (CPT[®] 76604) may be useful as an initial imaging study in the setting of a suspected superficial or subcutaneous lipoma. This modality may also be valuable in differentiating cystic from solid lesions and has also been used to assess the vascularity of lesions.¹
 - Following a non-diagnostic Chest x-ray that does not show an obvious lipoma(s) or clearly benign entity (see <u>Soft Tissue Mass or Lesion of Bone (MS-10)</u> in the Musculoskeletal Imaging Guidelines), the following may be appropriate:^{1,2}
 - MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552) or
 - MRI Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71550) or when MRI is contraindicated,
 - CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260)

Evidence Discussion

Radiography is usually the appropriate initial imaging study for both superficial and non-superficial soft tissue masses. Radiography can help identify calcifications, bone involvement, intrinsic fat and unsuspected skeletal abnormality or deformity. In general, radiographic findings related to a soft tissue mass can provide helpful insight in determining the next most appropriate imaging modality for further characterization.¹, ²Non-contrast enhanced ultrasound is also an excellent triage tool for evaluating superficial soft tissue masses like superficial lipomas.¹

MRI without and with IV contrast is usually appropriate as the next imaging study for a soft tissue mass following non-diagnostic radiographs or non-contrast enhanced ultrasound.^{1, 2}

MRI helps to define intrinsic tumor characterization, vascular structures, neurovascular involvement, hemorrhage, edema and tumor necrosis. MRI without IV contrast may be beneficial compared with CT but use of MR contrast improves the differentiation of benign from malignant soft tissue masses^{1, 2}. At least 20% to 25% of soft tissue masses can demonstrate features that allow for confident diagnosis based on MRI alone many of which are benign and thus would not warrant biopsy.¹

When MRI is contraindicated, CT with IV contrast is usually appropriate following nondiagnostic radiograph or ultrasound.

CT with IV contrast is useful in distinguishing vascularized from potentially necrotic regions of a tumor or calcification. CT without IV contrast is usually not beneficial.^{1, 2}

Background and Supporting Information

- Chest x-rays of chest wall masses can detect calcification, ossification, or bone destruction as well as location and size.^{1,2}
- CT Chest without contrast is usually not beneficial in the evaluation of a soft tissue mass. With modern CT technology, calcification can usually be distinguished from vascular enhancement on contrast enhanced scan. In the evaluation of suspected tumors, contrast imaging is especially useful in distinguishing vascularized from potentially necrotic regions of the tumor.¹

References (CH-22)

v1.2.2025

- Expert Panel on Musculoskeletal Imaging, Garner HW, Wessell DE, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Soft Tissue Masses: 2022 Update. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2023;20(5S):S234-S245. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2023.02.009
- Expert Panel on Musculoskeletal Imaging, Bestic JM, Wessell DE, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Primary Bone Tumors. J Am Coll Radiol. 2020;17(5S):S226-S238. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2020.01.038

Pectus Excavatum and Pectus Carinatum (CH-23)

Guideline	Page
Pectus Excavatum and Carinatum (CH-23.1)	130
References (CH-23)	

Pectus Excavatum and Carinatum (CH-23.1)

CH.EC.0023.1.C

v1.2.2025

- CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) or MRI Chest without and with contrast (CPT[®] 71552) and 3-D reconstruction (CPT[®] 76377) if:
 - candidates for surgical correction.^{1,2}
 - cardiac or pulmonary dysfunction has been identified^{1,2}
 - ECG and echocardiography if cardiac symptoms or evidence of cardiac function abnormalities.
 - Chest x-ray and PFT's if increasing shortness of breath.¹

Evidence Discussion

Measurements of the chest, such as the Haller Index, aid in the pre-operative assessment of pectus deformities. Chest CT is commonly used for preoperative planning.(Abid,2017;Scalise,2023;Janssen,2023) Chest CT can also be utilized to assess cardiac compression or the presence of concomitant thoracic anomalies (Abid,2017;Scalise,2023;Janssen,2023;Coorens,2024) and allows for 3D reconstruction of the chest wall. (Coorens, 2024) However, CT does carry with it the risk of ionizing radiation. (Abid,2017;Scalise,2023;Janssen,2023;Coorens,2024;Sun,2019) MRI can also be utilized for preoperative planning and does not carry the risk of ionizing radiation (Janssen, 2023; Coorens, 2024; Sun, 2019) and allows for possible real-time imaging.(Coorens, 2024) However, MRI has a longer acquisition time, (Sun, 2019) can be complicated by motion artifacts (Sun, 2019) and is incompatible with some implanted devices and metallic objects. Chest x-ray has also been used for the pre-operative calculation of pectus indices (Correns, 2024; Scalise, 2023) and has the benefit of reduced radiation exposure as compared to CT. Studies have shown, however, that it had decreased measurement accuracy in cases of unbalanced asymmetry as compared to CT.(Coorens, 2024)

For individuals with cardiac symptoms further workup with ECC and echocardiography is warranted. (Janssen, 2023)

For individuals with pulmonary dysfunction further work up with spirometry is warranted. (Janssen, 2023).

Background and Supporting Information

• Chest measurements derived from CT Chest, such as the Haller Index or the correction index, are helpful to the thoracic surgeon in pre-operative assessment of

chest wall deformities to assess for the appropriateness of operative repair prior to the development of symptomatic pectus deformities.

- The Haller index is calculated using the width of the chest divided by the distance between the posterior surface of the sternum and the anterior surface of the spine. A Haller index score is normal at 2.5 to 2.7 and severe at 3.25 or greater. The correction index uses an equation of (b−a)/b×100, in which a is the minimum distance between the anterior spine and the posterior surface of the sternum, and b is the maximum distance between the anterior spine and the anterior spine and most anterior internal rib. It yields a percentage that the chest would need to be corrected to achieve normal dimensions, with a normal level being 10% or less.³
- Some have suggested that a CXR can replace the CT Chest for Haller Index calculation with a strong correlation and high diagnostic accuracy.⁴
- Expert consensus from The Society of Thoracic Surgeons 2023, recommended that a comprehensive evaluation with spirometry, ECG, and echocardiography be done with any cardio-pulmonary complaint. The Haller index, correction index, pulmonary compression or failed previous repair, in and of itself, was not an indication for surgery. Corrective surgery indications for those with severe pectus excavatum included; progression of deformity, presence of cardio-pulmonary symptoms, mitral valve prolapse, arrhythmia, significant body image disturbances, abnormal PFTs, abnormal cardiac function test or the presence of cardiac compression on imaging, (echo or CT).⁵

References (CH-23)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Marcovici PA, LoSasso BE, Kruk P, Dwek JR. MRI for the evaluation of pectus excavatum. *Pediatr Radiol.* 2011;41(6):757-758. doi:10.1007/s00247-011-2031-5.
- Goretsky MJ, Kelly RE Jr, Croitoru D, Nuss D. Chest wall anomalies: pectus excavatum and pectus carinatum. Adolesc Med Clin. 2004;15(3):455-471. doi:10.1016/j.admecli.2004.06.002.
- 3. Abid I, Ewais MM, Marranca J, Jaroszewski DE. Pectus Excavatum: A Review of Diagnosis and Current Treatment Options. *J Am Osteopath Assoc*. 2017;117(2):106-113. doi:10.7556/jaoa.2017.021.
- 4. Scalise PN, Demehri FR. The management of pectus excavatum in pediatric patients: a narrative review. *Transl Pediatr*. 2023;12(2):208-220. doi:10.21037/tp-22-361.
- 5. Janssen N, Daemen JHT, van Polen EJ, et al. Pectus Excavatum: Consensus and Controversies in Clinical Practice. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2023;116(1):191-199. doi:10.1016/j.athoracsur.2023.02.059.
- 6. Coorens NA, Janssen N, Daemen JHT, et al. Advancements in preoperative imaging of pectus excavatum: a comprehensive review. J Thorac Dis. 2024;16(1):696-707. doi:10.21037/jtd-23-662.
- Sun J, Chen C, Peng Y, et al. Comparison of magnetic resonance imaging and computed tomography to measure preoperative parameters of children with pectus excavatum. Pediatr Investig. 2019;3(2):102-109. Published 2019 Jun 25. doi:10.1002/ped4.12132.

Pulmonary Arteriovenous Fistula (AVM) (CH-24)

Guideline

Page

Pulmonary AVM (CH-24.1)	. 134
References (CH-24)	136

Pulmonary AVM (CH-24.1)

CH.AV.0024.1.A

- v1.2.2025
- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260), CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250), CTA Chest (preferred modality for pre-intervention planning) (CPT[®] 71275), or MRA Chest (CPT[®] 71555) for evaluation of:^{1,2,3,5,6,7}
 - suspected pulmonary AVM, including individuals with HHT (Hereditary Hemorrhagic Telangiectasia) or who have a first degree relative with HHT^{4,5}
 - first degree relatives of an individual with a primary pulmonary AVM
 - evaluation of individuals with paradoxical embolus/stroke and no evidence of patent foramen ovale on echocardiogram
 - follow-up of treated AVM's at 6 months post embolization and then every 3-5 years⁴
 - follow-up of untreated AVM's to be determined by treating physician but no more than annually. Usually the interval is 3-5 years due to the slow-growth nature of PAVM's⁴
 - treated or untreated PAVM's with recurrent symptoms⁴

Evidence Discussion

Chest x-ray is the most appropriate initial imaging exam with presentation of hypoxemia or hemoptysis but it does have low sensitivity for pulmonary arteriovenous malformation (PAVM).(Hanley,2016)

CT chest is the test of choice for diagnosing a PAVM. Contrast may be considered for an atypical nodule/soft tissue lesion on CT chest without contrast and suspicion for a PAVM. CTA chest is the gold standard for defining the vascular anatomy of a previously identified PAVM. It is not routinely used for diagnosis except in the setting of concomitant embolization therapy, diagnostic uncertainty, or pre-intervention planning.(Hanley,2016) MRA chest avoids ionizing radiation but is not as sensitive or specific as CT for the diagnosis of PAVM and has limitations detecting PAVM < 5 mm.(Hanley,2016) It has a potential role in younger people with Hereditary Hemorrhagic Telangiectasia (HHT) who may require lifelong surveillance.(Hanley,2016)

CT chest without contrast may be done to screen for PAVM in people with possible or confirmed Hereditary Hemorrhagic Telangiectasia (HHT). (Faughnan,2020;Faughnan,2011) A negative CT chest with or without contrast helps to exclude a clinically significant PAVM.(Shovlin,2017)

Background and Supporting Information

Pulmonary AVMs are abnormal connections between pulmonary arteries and veins, usually found in the lower lobes, that can be either primary (such as in individuals with HHT) or acquired (such as trauma, bronchiectasis). They can be identified in up to 98% of chest x-rays by a peripheral, circumscribed, non-calcified lesion connected by blood vessels to the hilum of the lung. Treatment is often by surgery or embolization of the feeding artery using platinum coils or detachable balloons.

References (CH-24)

v1.2.2025

- De Cillis E, Burdi N, Bortone AS, et al. Endovascular treatment of pulmonary and cerebral arteriovenous malformations in patients affected by hereditary haemorrhagic teleangiectasia. *Curr Pharm Des*. 2006;12(10):1243-1248. doi:10.2174/138161206776361237
- Gossage JR, Kanj G. Pulmonary arteriovenous malformations. A state of the art review. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 1998;158(2):643-661. doi:10.1164/ajrccm.158.2.9711041
- 3. Lee EY, Boiselle PM, Cleveland RH. Multidetector CT evaluation of congenital lung anomalies. *Radiology*. 2008;247(3):632-648. doi:10.1148/radiol.2473062124
- 4. Faughnan ME, Palda VA, Garcia-Tsao G, et al. International guidelines for the diagnosis and management of hereditary haemorrhagic telangiectasia. *J Med Genet*. 2011;48(2):73-87. doi:10.1136/jmg.2009.069013
- 5. Faughnan ME, Mager JJ, Hetts SW, et al. Second International Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Management of Hereditary Hemorrhagic Telangiectasia. *Ann Intern Med.* 2020;173(12):989-1001. doi:10.7326/M20-1443
- Shovlin CL, Condliffe R, Donaldson JW, Kiely DG, Wort SJ; British Thoracic Society Clinical Statement on Pulmonary Arteriovenous Malformations. *Thorax*. 2017;72(12):1154-1163. doi:10.1136/thoraxjnl-2017-210764
- 7. Hanley M, Ahmed O, Chandra A, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Clinically Suspected Pulmonary Arteriovenous Malformation. *J Am Coll Radiol.* 2016;13(7):796-800. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2016.03.020

Pulmonary Embolism (PE) (CH-25)

Guideline	Page

Pulmonary Embolism (CH-25.1)	138
References (CH-25)	.144

CH.PE.0025.1.A

v1.2.2025

- CT Chest with contrast with PE protocol (CPT[®] 71260) or CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275) if at least one symptom, clinical/laboratory finding or risk factor from each of the lists below are present.
 - With any ONE of the 3:^{6,7,8}
 - Dyspnea, new onset and otherwise unexplained;
 - Chest pain, pleuritic;
 - Tachypnea
 - AND, with any ONE of the 3:^{6,7,8}
 - Abnormal D-dimer test;
 - Wells Criteria score* higher than 4 points;
 - One risk factor** or symptom** of new onset demonstrating high clinical probability of PE

RISK FACTORS** ^{6,7,8}	SYMPTOMS ATTRIBUTED TO PE** ^{6,7,8}
Immobilization at least 3 days or surgery in last 4 weeks or recent trauma	Signs or symptoms of DVT
Previous history of DVT or PE	Hemoptysis
Cancer actively treated in last 6 months or receiving palliative treatment	Right heart strain or failure
Recent history of a long airplane flight	Systolic BP <90
Use of estrogen-based contraceptives (birth control pills, the patch, and vaginal ring)/Oral estrogen ¹	Syncope
Advanced age (≥70)	Cough
Congestive heart failure	Heart Rate >100
Obesity (BMI ≥35)	Palpitations

Chest Imaging Guidelines

RISK FACTORS** ^{6,7,8}	SYMPTOMS ATTRIBUTED TO PE** ^{6,7,8}	
Suspicion or diagnosis of COVID-19		
Well's Criteria for Clinical Probability of PE* ⁶		
Clinical signs/symptoms of DVT (at minimum: leg swelling and pain with palpation of the deep veins)		3
PE is likely or equally likely diagnosis		3
Heart rate >100		1.5
Immobilization at least 3 days or surgery in last 4 weeks		1.5
Previous history of DVT or PE		1.5
Hemoptysis		1
Cancer actively treated in last 6 months or receiving palliative treatment		1
Calculate Probability: Low <2 Moderate 2 to	o 6 High >6	
Using the above criteria, only 3% of individu	als with a low pretest prot	bability had PE

versus 63% of those with a high pretest probability.

- Non-urgent cases which do not meet above 2-step criteria, should undergo prior to advanced imaging:⁹
 - Chest x-ray (to rule out other causes of acute chest pain)
 - Primary cardiac and pulmonary etiologies should be eliminated
- Pregnancy is a risk factor for thrombo-embolic events in and of itself. Additional risk factors are not required. Pregnant individuals with suspected PE are suggested to proceed with:^{11,12,13}
 - If signs/symptoms of DVT are present, Doppler studies of the lower extremities (CPT[®] 93925 bilateral study or CPT[®] 93926 unilateral study) should be performed.
 - If no signs/symptoms of DVT, then chest x-ray should be done first.

- If chest x-ray is normal, then V/Q scan (CPT[®] 78580 or CPT[®] 78582) (preferred test), or CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275) or CT Chest with contrast with PE protocol (CPT® 71260)¹
- If chest x-ray is abnormal or after non-diagnostic V/Q scan or if V/Q scanning is not readily available, then CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275) or CT Chest with contrast with PE protocol (CPT[®] 71260).
- Ventilation-perfusion scans, also called V/Q, scans (CPT[®] 78580-Pulmonary Perfusion Imaging; CPT[®] 78582-Pulmonary Ventilation (e.g., Aerosol or Gas) and Perfusion Imaging) or SPECT/CT (CPT[®] 78830):¹⁵
 - Is not a replacement for CTA Chest⁹
 - Can be considered in any of the following:
 - Suspected pulmonary embolism if there is a contraindication to CT or CTA Chest (ventilation-perfusion scans CPT[®] 78582)
 - Suspected pulmonary embolism when a chest x-ray is negative and CTA Chest is not diagnostic (CPT[®] 78580 or CPT[®] 78582)
 - Follow-up of an equivocal or positive recent ventilation-perfusion lung scan to evaluate for interval change (CPT[®] 78580)
 - Suspected Chronic thromboembolic disease or Chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension*, usually after 3 months of effective anticoagulation¹⁴
- Follow-up imaging in stable or asymptomatic individuals with known PE is not warranted^{2,3,4,10}
- Follow-up imaging with CT Chest with contrast with PE protocol (CPT[®] 71260) or CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275) for ANY of the following indications:
 - Recurrent or persistent signs or symptoms such as dyspnea, particularly if present after 3 months of anticoagulation, or
 - Elevated D-dimer which is persistent or recurrently elevated, or
 - Right heart strain or failure identified by EKG, ECHO or heart catheterization
- *Pulmonary Artery Hypertension (PAH) See <u>Pulmonary Artery Hypertension</u> (PAH) – Indications (CD-8.1) in the Cardiac Imaging Guidelines

Evidence Discussion

Symptoms and signs of pulmonary embolus (PE) are nonspecific and common; therefore, knowing whom to test for PE is challenging.(Kahn,2022) In North America, PE is diagnosed in only 5% of people tested for it.(Konstantinides,2019) Chest x-ray (CR) is nonspecific but may rule out other causes of dyspnea and chest pain. (3) Avoiding the overuse of imaging tests is important, given the potential harms of radiation exposure, high costs and complications. The pretest clinical probability has an important effect on the predictive value of CT pulmonary angiography (CTPA). (Konstantinides,2019) Determining the clinical probability of PE depends on clinical judgment, which lacks standardization and is subjective, or prediction rules.

Page 140 of 169

www.EviCore.com

(Konstantinides,2019;Ishaaya,2020) Kahn et al recommend diagnostic imaging in those with a likelihood of PE greater than or equal to 15%, based on the "implicit sense" of the clinician, and either a structured clinical probability score (Wells, Revised or Simplified Geneva score) or a D-dimer above a pre-specified threshold.(Kahn,2022) Other experts recommend that imaging be done in those with a high pretest probability based on empirical clinical judgment or a prediction rule and in those with a low/ intermediate pretest probability and a positive D-dimer.(Konstantinides,2019,Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging,2019) Imaging can be avoided in people with both a structured clinical probability score at or below the given cutoff and a D-dimer below the given cutoff value.(Kahn,2022) Imaging is likewise not appropriate in those with a low/ intermediate pretest probability based on clinical judgement and a normal D-dimer. (Konstantinides,2019,Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging,2019) Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging is likewise not appropriate in those with a low/

CTPA is highly sensitive and specific and is the imaging method of choice for suspected PE.(Kahn,2022;Konstantinides,2019;Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging,2019;Ishaaya,2020) It may also demonstrate other potential causes of the presenting symptoms. CTPA is a CT angiogram with intravenous (IV) contrast. The timing of the scan is tailored so that contrast enhances the pulmonary arterial system to identify potential filling defects. CT with contrast is usually not appropriate. According to the American College of Radiology, when IV contrast is given during CT acquisition for suspected PE, the study should be performed as a CTPA.(Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging,2019)

Planar V/Q may preferentially be used in outpatients with a low clinical probability of PE and normal CR, in young (especially female) patients, pregnant women and patients with a history of contrast allergy or renal failure.(Konstantinides,2019) The proportion of diagnostic V/Q scans is higher in patients with a normal CXR. A normal V/Q scan has a high negative predictive value, but there is a high proportion of non-diagnostic scans and it cannot provide alternative diagnoses.(Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging,2019) Abnormal regional lung perfusion may suggest PE but is not specific and requires correlation with ventilation studies or other imaging. Investigators have studied single-photon emission CT (SPECT) to improve the sensitivity and specificity of V/Q scans. Kahn et al state that V/Q SPECT is a low radiation option to minimize lung and breast tissue irradiation in younger patients.(Kahn,2022) Some authors believe that V/Q SPECT should be the preferred study in the evaluation of suspected PE.(Currie,2023) However, large scale prospective trials are needed to validate SPECT techniques before its widespread incorporation into diagnostic algorithms. (Konstantinides,2019;Parker,2012)

A normal perfusion scan and a negative CTPA appear equally safe for ruling out PE in pregnancy. (Konstantinides, 2019) There is debate regarding which is the first test of choice. CTPA is more expensive and exposes the pregnant woman to more radiation than the fetus; V/Q scans have low radiation and no contrast-related side effects. (Kalaitzopoulos, 2022) A compression duplex ultrasound of the lower extremity should be

performed if there are symptoms/signs of a DVT. If a DVT is diagnosed, anticoagulation can be administered without further imaging. A CXR is usually appropriate. An alternative diagnosis may be found, and it can inform the choice between CTPA and a V/Q scan as the next test when there is no clinical evidence of a DVT.(Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging,2019) If there is no DVT and a CXR is normal, CTPA or a perfusion scan is appropriate. If the perfusion scan is normal, a ventilation scan may not be needed. If the CXR is abnormal, alternative causes have been considered and PE is still suspected, CTPA should be done.(Konstantinides,2019)

Acute PE is treated for at least 3 months with anticoagulation. Whether anticoagulation is stopped after 3 months or continued indefinitely depends on whether the reduced risk of recurrent venous thromboembolism (VTE) outweighs the increased risk of bleeding.(Konstantinides,2019) The risk of recurrent VTE after stopping anticoagulation is related to the risk factor category for the index PE/VTE event. There are many genetic and acquired risk factors for VTE associated with a low, intermediate or high risk of recurrence.(Konstantinides,2019;Ishaaya,2020)

Patency of the pulmonary arterial bed is restored in the majority of people within the first few months, and no routine CTPA imaging is needed.(Konstantinides,2019) Konstantinides et al recommend a transthoracic echocardiogram in those with dyspnea or functional limitation at follow up. If the probability of pulmonary hypertension is felt to be high, planar V/Q is considered the first line imaging test for suspected chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension (CTEPH). CTPA should not be used as a stand alone test to rule out CTEPH. The diagnosis is based upon measurements made during right heart catheterization and mismatched perfusion defects on V/Q scan more than 3 months after an acute PE.(Konstantinides,2019)

Background and Supporting Information

- Pulmonary embolism is found in approximately 10% of all those that present with suspicion of PE. Dyspnea, pleuritic chest pain and tachypnea occur with about 50% incidence with leg swelling or pain just over 50%.
- D-dimer level has a high sensitivity and low specificity for diagnosing PE.
 - A negative D-dimer in combination with low or moderate PE risk classification has a negative predictive value approaching 100%.
 - D-dimer can be falsely elevated with recent surgery, injury, malignancy, sepsis, diabetes, pregnancy, or other conditions where fibrin products are likely to be present.
- CT imaging has supplanted V/Q scanning since the latter is difficult to obtain quickly, does not provide a substantial cost savings, and does not diagnose other pulmonary pathology.
- The decision to terminate anticoagulation treatment after previous pulmonary embolism (PE) with absent or stable symptoms is based on clinical evaluation and risk factors.

Page 143 of 169

www.EviCore.com

 Repeat studies do not allow one the ability to distinguish new from residual clot, with luminal diameter and clot character poorly correlated to symptoms and ECHO findings.

Chest Imaging Guidelines

- Two thirds of individuals with primary thromboembolism have residual pulmonary artery clot at 6 months and 50% remain at one year.
- Subsequent persistence or elevation of D-dimer is associated with increased risk of recurrent PE. ECHO and Right Heart Catheterization (RHC) can identify those with pulmonary hypertension. Yet, 1/2 of all have persistent or new pulmonary hypertension after primary thromboembolism and only half of this latter group has dyspnea at rest or exercise intolerance.
- Of note, pregnancy is accompanied by a progressive increase in D-dimer levels and as such, D-Dimer levels may not be helpful to rule-in or rule-out DVT/PE in pregnancy.^{11,12}

Modality	Fetal radiation exposure in mGy
CXR	0.002-0.1
V/Q	0.32 – 0.74
СТРА	0.03 – 0.66

 Compared with V/Q scan, computed tomography pulmonary angiography (CTPA), is associated with a higher radiation dose to the mother: the calculated doses to breast and lung tissue have been estimated to range from 10 to 60 mGy and 39.5 mGy, respectively with CTPA as compared with 0.98 to 1.07 mGy and 5.7 to 13.5 mGy, respectively with V/Q scan.¹²

References (CH-25)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Canonico M, Plu-Bureau G, Lowe GD, Scarabin PY. Hormone replacement therapy and risk of venous thromboembolism in postmenopausal women: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2008;336(7655):1227-1231. doi:10.1136/bmj.39555.441944.BE.
- Fedullo PF, Auger WR, Kerr KM, Rubin LJ. Chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension. N Engl J Med. 2001;345(20):1465-1472. doi:10.1056/NEJMra010902.
- Kline JA, Steuerwald MT, Marchick MR, Hernandez-Nino J, Rose GA. Prospective evaluation of right ventricular function and functional status 6 months after acute submassive pulmonary embolism: frequency of persistent or subsequent elevation in estimated pulmonary artery pressure. *Chest.* 2009;136(5):1202-1210. doi:10.1378/ chest.08-2988.
- 4. Nijkeuter M, Hovens MM, Davidson BL, Huisman MV. Resolution of thromboemboli in patients with acute pulmonary embolism: a systematic review. *Chest.* 2006;129(1):192-197. doi:10.1378/chest.129.1.192.
- Palareti G, Cosmi B, Legnani C, et al. D-dimer testing to determine the duration of anticoagulation therapy [published correction appears in N Engl J Med. 2006 Dec 28;355(26):2797]. N Engl J Med. 2006;355(17):1780-1789. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa054444.
- Wells PS, Anderson DR, Rodger M, et al. Excluding pulmonary embolism at the bedside without diagnostic imaging: management of patients with suspected pulmonary embolism presenting to the emergency department by using a simple clinical model and d-dimer. *Ann Intern Med.* 2001;135(2):98-107. doi:10.7326/0003-4819-135-2-200107170-00010.
- Wolf SJ, McCubbin TR, Feldhaus KM, Faragher JP, Adcock DM. Prospective validation of Wells Criteria in the evaluation of patients with suspected pulmonary embolism. *Ann Emerg Med.* 2004;44(5):503-510. doi:10.1016/ j.annemergmed.2004.04.002.
- van Belle A, Büller HR, Huisman MV, et al. Effectiveness of managing suspected pulmonary embolism using an algorithm combining clinical probability, D-dimer testing, and computed tomography. *JAMA*. 2006;295(2):172-179. doi:10.1001/jama.295.2.172.
- Expert Panels on Cardiac and Thoracic Imaging:, Kirsch J, Brown RKJ, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria[®] Acute Chest Pain-Suspected Pulmonary Embolism. *J Am Coll Radiol.* 2017;14(5S):S2-S12. doi:10.1016/ j.jacr.2017.02.027.
- Kearon C, Akl EA, Ornelas J, et al. Antithrombotic Therapy for VTE Disease: CHEST Guideline and Expert Panel Report [published correction appears in Chest. 2016 Oct;150(4):988]. *Chest.* 2016;149(2):315-352. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2015.11.026
- 11. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists' Committee on Practice Bulletins—Obstetrics. ACOG Practice Bulletin No. 196: Thromboembolism in Pregnancy [published correction appears in Obstet Gynecol. 2018 Oct;132(4):1068]. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2018;132(1):e1-e17. doi:10.1097/AOG.00000000002706
- 12. Leung AN, Bull TM, Jaeschke R, et al. An official American Thoracic Society/Society of Thoracic Radiology clinical practice guideline: evaluation of suspected pulmonary embolism in pregnancy. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2011;184(10):1200-1208. doi:10.1164/rccm.201108-1575ST
- 13. Lim W, Le Gal G, Bates SM, et al. American Society of Hematology 2018 guidelines for management of venous thromboembolism: diagnosis of venous thromboembolism. *Blood Adv*. 2018;2(22):3226-3256. doi:10.1182/ bloodadvances.2018024828.
- 14. Rivera-Lebron B, McDaniel M, Ahrar K, et al. Diagnosis, Treatment and Follow Up of Acute Pulmonary Embolism: Consensus Practice from the PERT Consortium. *Clin Appl Thromb Hemost*. 2019;25:1076029619853037. doi:10.1177/1076029619853037.
- 15. Derenoncourt PR, Felder GJ, Royal HD, et al. Ventilation-Perfusion Scan: A Primer for Practicing Radiologists. *Radiographics*. 2021;41(7):2047-2070. doi:10.1148/rg.20212100600.
- 16. Konstantinides SV, Meyer G, Becattini C, et al. 2019 ESC Guidelines for the diagnosis and management of acute pulmonary embolism developed in collaboration with the European Respiratory Society (ERS).

Eur Heart J. 2020;41(4):543-603. doi:10.1093/eurheartj/ehz405.

17. Kahn SR, de Wit K. Pulmonary Embolism. N Engl J Med. 2022;387(1):45-57. doi:10.1056/NEJMcp2116489.

Chest Imaging Guidelines

- 18. Expert Panel on Cardiac Imaging, Kirsch J, Wu CC, et al. ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Suspected Pulmonary Embolism: 2022 Update. J Am Coll Radiol. 2022;19(11S):S488-S501. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2022.09.014.
- 19. Ishaaya E, Tapson VF. Advances in the diagnosis of acute pulmonary embolism. F1000Res. 2020;9:F1000 Faculty Rev-44. Published 2020 Jan 24. doi:10.12688/f1000research.21347.1.
- 20. Currie GM, Bailey DL. V/Q SPECT and SPECT/CT in Pulmonary Embolism. J Nucl Med Technol. 2023;51(1):9-15. doi:10.2967/jnmt.122.264880.
- Parker JA, Coleman RE, Grady E, et al. SNM practice guideline for lung scintigraphy 4.0 [published correction appears in J Nucl Med Technol. 2016 Dec;44(4):271.]. J Nucl Med Technol. 2012;40(1):57-65. doi:10.2967/ jnmt.111.101386.
- 22. Kalaitzopoulos DR, Panagopoulos A, Samant S, et al. Management of venous thromboembolism in pregnancy. Thromb Res. 2022;211:106-113. doi:10.1016/j.thromres.2022.02.002.

Pulmonary Hypertension (CH-26)

Guideline	Page

Pulmonary Hypertension (CH-26.1)

CH.PH.0026.1.A

v1.2.2025

• See the Pulmonary Artery Hypertension (PAH) - Indications (CD-8.1)

Subclavian Steal Syndrome (CH-27)

Guideline	Page

Subclavian	Steal Sv	vndrome –	General	(CH-27 0)	149
Cubolaviali		ynaionic	Ochiciai		/	170

Subclavian Steal Syndrome – General (CH-27.0)

CH.SS.0027.0.A

v1.2.2025

 See <u>Subclavian Steal Syndrome (PVD-4.1)</u> for concerns of Subclavian Steal Syndrome in Peripheral Vascular Disease imaging guidelines.

Superior Vena Cava (SVC) Syndrome (CH-28)

Guideline	Page

SVC	Syndrome	(CH-28.1)	 	 151
	,	· /		

SVC Syndrome (CH-28.1)

CH.SV.0028.1.A

v1.2.2025

 See <u>SVC syndrome (PVD-4.2)</u> for concerns of SVC syndrome in Peripheral Vascular Disease imaging guidelines.

Elevated Hemidiaphragm (CH-30)

Guideline	Page

Elevated Hemidiaphragm (CH-30.1)	153
References (CH-30)	

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH 400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924

Elevated Hemidiaphragm (CH-30.1)

CH.EH.0030.1.A

v1.2.2025

- CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260) and/or CT Neck with contrast (CPT[®] 70491) with new diaphragmatic paralysis after:^{1,2}
 - previous chest x-rays are available and reviewed to determine if the diaphragmatic elevation is a new finding, and/or
 - fluoroscopic examination ("sniff test") to differentiate true paralysis from weakness
- CT Abdomen with contrast (CPT[®] 74160) to rule out liver or abdominal process if CT Chest is negative.^{1,2}
- Repeat advanced imaging studies in the absence of new signs or symptoms are not indicated.

Evidence Discussion

Diaphragmatic dysfunction includes eventration, weakness and paralysis. Diagnosis is based in part on static and dynamic imaging tests.(Ricoy,2019) Unilateral diaphragmatic paralysis is often asymptomatic and suspected when an elevated hemidiaphragm is found incidentally on chest x-ray (CR). CR is a simple and effective test to evaluate the pulmonary parenchyma and the diaphragm.(Ricoy,2019) The positive and negative predictive value of an elevated hemidiaphragm on CXR for diaphragmatic dysfunction is 33% and 93%, respectively. The presence of diaphragm elevation is not necessarily a sign of dysfunction, but its absence makes it unlikely.(Ricoy,2019)

Flouroscopy has traditionally been the gold standard for diagnosing diaphragmatic paralysis since it can visualize the diaphragm throughout the respiratory cycle and during forced inspiratory maneuvers (ie the "sniff test"). Some authors now consider US to be the imaging method of choice for the evaluation of diaphragmatic dysfunction. (Ricoy,2019;Windisch,2016) US is non-invasive, portable, quick and does not expose the patient to ionizing radiation. Absence of thickening of the diaphragm during inspiration, absence of caudal movement during normal inspiration or paradoxical movement during the sniff maneuver confirms paralysis.

A common concern is whether there is an underlying serious condition in those patients with unilateral hemidiaphragm paralysis with no evident etiology after a history, physical exam and CR. Piehler et al concluded that such patients are unlikely to have an underlying occult malignant or neurologic condition.(Piehler,1982) However, Windisch et al recommended that a one-time CT chest be done if there is clinical suspicion of possible malignancy with damage to the phrenic nerve.(Windisch,2016)

Additional imaging may be needed to rule out conditions which can cause an elevated hemidiaphragm but are not associated with respiratory muscle weakness. For

©2025 EviCore by EVERNORTH	-
400 Buckwalter Place Boulevard, Bluffton, SC 29910 (800) 918-8924	

example, abdominal imaging can be done for suspected hepatic abscess, ascites, or splenomegaly.

Background and Supporting Information

- The right hemidiaphragm sits about 2 cm higher than the left.
- "Eventration" is thin membranous replacement of muscle, usually on the right, as the most common cause of elevation.
- Any injury to the phrenic nerve from neck to diaphragm can lead to paralysis.
- Common phrenic causes are traumatic or surgical injury or malignancy involving the mediastinum.
- Any loss of lung volume or increased abdominal pressure can lead to diaphragm elevation.

References (CH-30)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Ko MA, Darling GE. Acquired paralysis of the diaphragm. *Thorac Surg Clin*. 2009;19(4):501-510. doi:10.1016/ j.thorsurg.2009.08.011.
- Qureshi A. Diaphragm paralysis. Semin Respir Crit Care Med. 2009;30(3):315-320. doi:10.1055/ s-0029-1222445.
- 3. Ricoy J, Rodríguez-Núñez N, Álvarez-Dobaño JM, Toubes ME, Riveiro V, Valdés L. Diaphragmatic dysfunction. Pulmonology. 2019;25(4):223-235. doi:10.1016/j.pulmoe.2018.10.008.
- Windisch W, Schönhofer B, Magnet FS, Stoelben E, Kabitz HJ. Diagnostik und Therapie der gestörten Zwerchfellfunktion [Diagnosis and Treatment of Diaphragmatic Dysfunction]. Pneumologie. 2016;70(7):454-461. doi:10.1055/s-0042-106694.
- 5. Piehler JM, Pairolero PC, Gracey DR, Bernatz PE. Unexplained diaphragmatic paralysis: a harbinger of malignant disease?. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg. 1982;84(6):861-864.

Thoracic Outlet Syndrome (TOS) (CH-31)

Guideline	Page

Thoracic Outlet Syndrome	e (CH-31.1)	157
--------------------------	-------------	-----

Thoracic Outlet Syndrome (CH-31.1)

CH.TO.0031.1.A

v1.2.2025

 See <u>Thoracic Outlet Syndrome (PVD-4.2)</u> for concerns of Thoracic Outlet Syndrome in Peripheral Vascular Disease imaging guidelines.

Lung Transplantation (CH-32)

Guideline	Page

Pre-Transplant Imaging Studies (CH-32.1)	. 159
Post-Transplant Imaging Studies (CH-32.2)	161
Reference (CH-32)	. 162

Pre-Transplant Imaging Studies (CH-32.1)

CH.LT.0032.1.A

v1.2.2025

- Individuals on the waiting list or being considered for the lung transplant can undergo advanced imaging per that institution's protocol as long as the studies do not exceed the following:
 - CT Chest with and without contrast (CPT[®] 71270), CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260), or CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250)
 - ECHO
 - Imaging Stress Test (MPI, SE, MRI) or Heart Catheterization (Right and Left); Heart catheterization can also be done after a positive stress test.
 - CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275), and/or CTA Abdomen and Pelvis (CPT[®] 74174) and/or CTA Aorta with bilateral lower extremity run-off (CPT[®] 75635) is indicated without initial ABI's and/or arterial duplex for the following individuals:
 - Prior abdominal or lower extremity vascular intervention (any timeframe is acceptable)
 - Known peripheral artery disease (PAD) from prior imaging
 - Current symptoms of claudication, rest pain or gangrene
 - CTA Chest (CPT[®] 71275) and/or CTA Abdomen and Pelvis (CPT[®] 74174) and/ or CTA Aorta with bilateral lower extremity run-off (CPT[®] 75635) is indicated after initial ABI's and/or arterial duplex for the following individuals:
 - Initial ABI's and/or arterial duplex suggest the presence of PAD per one of the following:
 - ABI of <0.9
 - Presence of plaque
 - Presence of vascular calcification, stenosis or occlusion
 - Small vessel size on the duplex
 - CT Abdomen and Pelvis with or without contrast (CPT[®] 74177 or CPT[®] 74176) for determining extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) candidacy
- Other studies that will be considered include V/Q scan, Six Minute Walk Test.
- See Transplant (CD-1.6) in the Cardiac Imaging Guidelines.

Evidence Discussion

• Computed Tomography (CT) is often performed for evaluation of individuals prior to lung transplantation. CT allows for surgical planning,to delineate extent of the disease

and assess for any contraindications to transplant (Ng, 2009;Kim,2021). CT carries the risk of exposure to iodinated contrast and ionizing radiation.

- Evaluation of donors is commonly performed by chest radiography. (Kim, 2021)
- Cardiac evaluation with echo and/or ischemic evaluation (image stress testing or heart catheterization) is also appropriate prior to lung transplantation.
- Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation (ECMO) has been increasingly utilized for bridging prior to lung transplantation or as an adjunct procedure post-transplant. (Hoetzenecker,2020;Faccioli,2021) Given the risk of vascular complications (Bonicolini, 2019) preoperative evaluation of the vasculature is reasonable. For those that are asymptomatic without previously known peripheral artery disease (PAD) initial work up with ankle-brachial index (ABI) and/or arterial duplex (Gerhard-Herman,2017) is supported. For those that are symptomatic, have a history of known PAD (either from prior imaging or previous vascular intervention) or initial work up has suggested the presence of PAD advanced imaging is indicated for further evaluation (Gerhard-Herman,2017).

CH.LT.0032.2.A

v1.2.2025

- CT Chest with and without contrast (CPT[®] 71270), CT Chest with contrast (CPT[®] 71260), or CT Chest without contrast (CPT[®] 71250) is supported for:²
 - initial post-transplant follow-up
 - suspected complication, either surgical, medical or infectious, (See <u>Background</u> <u>and Supporting Information</u>)
 - worsening PFT's
 - new finding on other imaging, including chest x-ray
- See Transplant (CD-1.6) in the Cardiac Imaging Guidelines.

Evidence Discussion

- There are no universally accepted follow-up protocols for routine post-transplant surveillance (Kim,2021). CT chest is supported for initial post-transplant follow up (Ng, 2009; Kim,2021;DeFreitas,2021). CT carries with it the risk of exposure to iodinated contrast and ionizing radiation.
- Additional follow-up is based on clinical presentation, suspected complication or findings on other imaging. (Ng, 2009;Kim,2021;DeFreitas,2021)

Background and Supporting Information

- Complications from lung transplantation are a major cause of morbidity and mortality.
- The three main categories of complications are surgical, medical and infectious.
 - Surgical complications include; anastomotic complications, bronchial dehiscence, bronchial stenosis, pneumothorax, hemothorax, hematoma, wound dehiscence and infection.
 - Medical complications include; primary graft dysfunction, pulmonary embolism and pulmonary infarction, Tracheobronchomalacia, posttransplant lymphoproliferative disease, primary disease recurrence, acute and chronic allograft rejection, including bronchiolitis obliterans and restrictive allograft syndrome.
 - Infectious complications include; hospital and community acquired nonmycobacterial pulmonary infections, mycobacterial infections, fungal infections, and viral infections, (CMV most common).

Chest Imaging Guidelines

Reference (CH-32)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Ng YL, Paul N, Patsios D, et al. Imaging of lung transplantation: review. *AJR Am J Roentgenol*. 2009;192(3 Suppl):S1-S19. doi:10.2214/AJR.07.7061.
- DeFreitas MR, McAdams HP, Azfar Ali H, Iranmanesh AM, Chalian H. Complications of Lung Transplantation: Update on Imaging Manifestations and Management. *Radiol Cardiothorac Imaging*. 2021;3(4):e190252. Published 2021 Aug 26. doi:10.1148/ryct.2021190252.
- Mb D, Bao B, Brechot N, et al. Extracorporeal Life Support Organization (ELSO) Ultrasound Guidance for Extra-Corporeal Membrane Oxygenation Veno-Venous ECMO Specific Guidelines. http://www.elso.org/Portals/0/Files/ elso_Ultrasoundguidance_vvecmo_guidelines_MAY2015.pdf.
- Bonicolini E, Martucci G, Simons J, et al. Limb ischemia in peripheral veno-arterial extracorporeal membrane oxygenation: a narrative review of incidence, prevention, monitoring, and treatment. *Crit Care*. 2019;23(1):266. Published 2019 Jul 30. doi:10.1186/s13054-019-2541-3.
- Hoetzenecker K, Benazzo A, Stork T, et al. Bilateral lung transplantation on intraoperative extracorporeal membrane oxygenator: An observational study. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2020;160(1):320-327.e1. doi:10.1016/j.jtcvs.2019.10.155.
- 6. Faccioli E, Terzi S, Pangoni A, et al. Extracorporeal membrane oxygenation in lung transplantation: Indications, techniques and results. *World J Transplant*. 2021;11(7):290-302. doi:10.5500/wjt.v11.i7.290.
- 7. Kim SJ, Azour L, Hutchinson BD, et al. Imaging Course of Lung Transplantation: From Patient Selection to Postoperative Complications. Radiographics. 2021;41(4):1043-1063. doi:10.1148/rg.2021200173.
- Gerhard-Herman MD, Gornik HL, Barrett C, et al. 2016 AHA/ACC Guideline on the Management of Patients With Lower Extremity Peripheral Artery Disease: Executive Summary: A Report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines [published correction appears in Circulation. 2017 Mar 21;135(12):e790. doi: 10.1161/CIR.0000000000000501]. Circulation. 2017;135(12):e686-e725. doi:10.1161/CIR.00000000000470.

Lung Cancer Screening (CH-33)

Guideline

Page

64
65
66
69
(

Chest Imaging Guidelines

U.S. Preventive Services Task Force: Lung Cancer Screening (Commercial and Medicaid) (CH-33.1)

CH.CS.0033.1.A

v1.2.2025

• Low-dose CT Chest (CPT[®] 71271) for lung cancer screening in asymptomatic individuals* annually if all of the following criteria are met:

Screening Indications – Commercial and M	Medicaid Imaging Study
 All criteria below must be met: Individual has not received a low-dos lung screening in less than 12 months Individual has NO health problems substantially limit life expectancy or the willingness to have curative lung surger Individual is between 50 and 80 years of age; and Individual has at least a 20 pack- year history of cigarette smoking; a Currently smokes or quit within the past ≤15 years 	s; and that ability or ry**; and Low-Dose CT Chest without contrast (CPT [®] 71271)

*Symptoms of lung cancer (e.g., hemoptysis, unexplained cough, and/or unexplained weight loss of >15 pounds in the past year) warrant diagnostic evaluation, not screening.

For those that no longer qualify for annual LDCT for lung cancer screening but have known lung nodules, follow criteria for follow-up under CH-16. For example, a nodule that is new on the last screening LDCT may warrant continued diagnostic CT evaluation per CH-16.2.

**This is based on a range of chest or other organ signs, symptoms or conditions which would question the member's ability to undergo surgical or non-surgical treatment if a lung cancer was discovered. For example, congestive heart failure, advanced cancer from another site or a member with COPD who uses oxygen when ambulating, would be examples of conditions that would "substantially limit life expectancy." Conversely, stable COPD and its symptoms, including cough, shortness of breath would not "substantially limit life expectancy."

National Coverage Determination (NCD) for Lung Cancer Screening with Low Dose Computed Tomography (LDCT) (Medicare) (CH-33.2)

CH.CS.0033.2.A

v1.2.2025

Medicare criteria for LDCT for Lung Cancer Screening (CPT[®] 71271) See NCD 210.14

CH.CS.0033.3.A

v1.2.2025

- Any Lung-RADS less than 1 year interval follow-up is coded as Low-Dose CT Chest (CPT[®] 71250) (Not CPT[®] 71271 which is ONLY the annual screen)
- For lung nodules, including incidental findings from studies other than screening LDCT, or if no longer qualify for screening LDCT, See <u>Incidental Pulmonary</u> <u>Nodules Detected on CT Images (CH-16.2)</u>

Lung-RADS Primary Category/ Category Descriptor	Management
0: Incomplete	If findings suggestive of an inflammatory or infectious process, follow-up with LDCT (CPT 71250) in 1-3 months
2: Benign appearance or behavior - very low likelihood of becoming a clinically active cancer due to size or lack of growth	Annual LDCT screening (CPT [®] 71271) in 12 months
3: Probably benign finding(s) - short term follow-up suggested; includes nodules with a low likelihood of becoming a clinically active cancer	6 month LDCT (CPT [®] 71250) and if unchanged on this CT it is coded as category 2 and returned to annual LDCT screening (CPT [®] 71271) in 12 months
4A: Suspicious - Findings for which additional diagnostic testing and/ or tissue sampling is recommended	PET/CT (CPT [®] 78815) when there is a ≥8 mm solid nodule or solid-component Follow-up with LDCT (CPT [®] 71250) in 3 months and if stable or decreased in size on this CT, it is coded as category 3 with follow-up LDCT (71250) at 6 months, if stable or decreased in size on this CT, return to annual LDCT screening (CPT [®] 71271) in 12 months

Chest Imaging Guidelines

Lung-RADS Primary Category/ Category Descriptor	Management
4B or 4X: Suspicious - Findings for which additional diagnostic testing and/ or tissue sampling is recommended	CT Chest with or without contrast, PET/ CT (CPT [®] 78815) and/or tissue sampling depending on the probability of malignancy and comorbidities. PET/CT (CPT [®] 78815) when there is a ≥8 mm solid component. If there is low suspicion of lung cancer, follow-up with LDCT (CPT [®] 71250) in 3 months with another LDCT (CPT [®] 71250) in 6 months and if unchanged on this CT return to annual LDCT screening (CPT [®] 71271) in 12 months

For those that no longer qualify for annual LDCT for lung cancer screening but have known lung nodules, follow criteria for follow-up under CH-16. For example, a nodule that is new on the last screening LDCT may warrant continued diagnostic CT evaluation per **CH-16.2**.

For a summary of changes and updates concerning Lung-RADS v2022 by the ACR:

Lung-RADS v2022 Summary Feb2023 (acr.org)

Evidence Discussion

- Low-dose computed tomography (LDCT) Chest for lung cancer screening has been shown to have sensitivity ranging from 59% to 100%, a specificity of 26.4% to 99.7%, a negative predictive value of 97.7% to 100% and a positive predictive value from 3.3% to 43.5%.(US Preventive Services Task Force,2021)The benefit of lung cancer screening is early detection and treatment. The NLST trial showed a relative risk reduction in lung cancer mortality of 20% (US Preventive Services Task Force,2021). The radiation dose of a LDCT is typically 10% to 30% of a standard-dose CT. (US Preventive Services Task Force,2021) The harms of a screening program would include false-positive results and subsequent unnecessary tests and procedures, the exposure to ionizing radiation and ensuing radiation-induced cancer, and increased patient anxiety and distress (US Preventive Services Task Force,2021).
- The risk of malignancy associated with a Lung CT Screening Reporting and Data System (Lung-RADS) score is as follows: a score of 2 is <1%; a score of 3 is 1-2%; a score of 4A is 5-15%; a score of 4B and 4X is >15%. (Lung-RADS,2019) The American College of Radiology (ACR) recommends follow up imaging of incidental pulmonary nodules detected on low dose lung cancer screening CT's based on

the Lung-RADS score (Lung-RADS,2019; Christensen, 2024) however, there is limited data on the impact of screening intervals (Christensen, 2024). The NLST and NELSON studies demonstrating reduction in lung cancer mortality were based on screening intervals of 1 year and 1, 3 and 5.5 years respectively (Christensen, 2024). Multiple studies have shown that the 3 month follow up recommended for Lung-RADS 4A nodules is optimal, but have raised concerns on stepwise downgrading of a stable 4A nodule to a Lung-RAD 2.(Christensen, 2024) Therefore the ACR has modified follow up intervals with stepped management using the following criteria:

- Nodules that are stable or decreased at follow-up are downgraded to the next lower Lung-RADS category Christensen, 2024)
- Nodules that completely resolve or are proven benign after an appropriate diagnostic evaluation are reclassified based on the most concerning finding (Christensen, 2024)
- Follow-up recommendations are timed from the current examination (Christensen, 2024)

References (CH-33)

v1.2.2025

- 1. Christensen J, Prosper AE, Wu CC, et al. ACR Lung-RADS v2022: Assessment Categories and Management Recommendations. *Chest.* 2024;165(3):738-753. doi:10.1016/j.chest.2023.10.028.
- US Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for Lung Cancer: US Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation Statement. JAMA. 2021;325(10):962–970. doi:10.1001/jama.2021.1117.
- 3. CMS Decision Memo for Lung Cancer Screening with Low Dose Computed Tomography (LDCT) (210.14) Effective Date of this Version 2/5/2015.
- 4. Lung-RADS[™] Version 1.1 Assessment Categories Release date: 2022. https://www.acr.org/-/media/ACR/Files/ RADS/Lung-RADS/Lung-RADS-2022.pdf.
- 5. Wolf AMD, Oeffinger KC, Shih TY, et al. Screening for lung cancer: 2023 guideline update from the American Cancer Society. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2024;74(1):50-81. doi:10.3322/caac.21811.
- 6. Christensen J, Prosper AE, Wu CC, et al. ACR Lung-RADS v2022: Assessment Categories and Management Recommendations. *J Am Coll Radiol*. 2024;21(3):473-488. doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2023.09.009.