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COVID-19 - A Brief Review of Radiology Testing



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COVID-19 Radiology Testing

Introduction

As discussed in the SARS and MERS sections of this article, early radiographic studies with regular follow up evaluations, including CT scans is important in helping to characterize and quantify the magnitude of illness, as well as monitor progression, which can be rapid in the highly pathogenic coronaviruses, especially COVID-19, as experience worldwide will attest.¹⁻⁴

In the earlier stages of COVID-19, as with other highly pathogenic coronaviruses that cause a severe acute respiratory syndrome, chest XRays often reveal various stages of pneumonia.¹⁻⁷ In advancing disease clinical features consistent with acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), and acute cardiac injury may be present.^{1, 3-5} Such patients should rapidly receive a CT scan of the chest, which often reveals various forms of ground glass opacity (GGO). In some cases there are multiple GGO located in sub-pleural regions of bilateral lungs. These likely influence the immune response, which may lead to significant pulmonary inflammation.¹⁻⁷

In early work of Hosseiny et al., the diagnosis of COVID-19 is suspected on the basis of symptoms of pneumonia (e.g., dry cough, fatigue, myalgia, fever, and dyspnea) as well as history of recent travel or exposure to a diagnosed positive COVID-19 patient.¹ [See CDC Testing Section on Case Definition and Diagnosis].

Chest imaging plays an important role in both assessment of disease extent and follow-up. Chest radiography typically shows patchy or diffuse asymmetric airspace opacities, similar to other causes of coronavirus pneumonias.⁸ Consistent with various early reports, Hosseiny note the first report of patients with COVID-19 described having bilateral lung involvement on initial chest CT in 40 of 41 patients, with a consolidative pattern seen in patients in the ICU and a predominantly ground-glass pattern in patients who were not in the ICU.^{1,6}

The highly pathogenic coronaviruses SARS, MERS, and COVID-19 share several clinical and radiographic similarities (Table 1) (Figs. 1 and 2), with some notable exceptions.^{1-3,7} The propensity for COVID-19 to involve both lungs more often and earlier in the illness is increasingly well documented.¹ Of note, aggressive testing – radiographic and other modalities, should be utilized

Table 1

Comparison of Clinical and Radiologic Features of SARS, MERS, and COVID-19 From Hosseiny, et al $\left(1\right)$

Feature SARS MERS	COVID-19
CLINICAL SIGNS OR SYMPTOMS	
Fever or chills Yes Yes	Yes
Dyspnea Yes Yes	Yes
Malaise Yes Yes	Yes
Myalgia Yes Yes	Yes
Headache Ves Ves	Ves
Cough Dry Dry or produc	tive Dry (productive
cough bry bry or produc	w/progressive illness)
Diarrhea Yes Yes	+/-
Nausea or vomiting Yes Yes	Less common
Sore throat Yes Uncommon	Less common/but possible
Arthralgia Yes Uncommon	Less common/but possible
IMAGING FINDINGS	
Acute phase of illness SARS MERS	COVID-19
Initial imaging	
Normal 15–20% of patients 17% of patient	s 15–20% of patients
Abnormalities	
Common Peripheral multifocal Diffuse finding	gs similar to Diffuse findings similar to
airspace opacities (GGO, SARS	SARS and MERS; may be
consolidation, or both) on	more diffuse early, or
chest XRay and CT scans	more rapidly progressive.
	B/L lung involvement to
	be expected
Rare Pneumothorax Pneumothora	Pneumothorax
Not seen Cavitation, Cavitation,	Cavitation,
lymphadenopathy lymphadenop	athy lymphadenopathy
Appearance Unilateral, focal (50%); Bilateral, mult	ifocal basal Bilateral, multifocal, as
Multifocal (40%); diffuse airspace on C	KR or Cl well as basal airspace are
(10%) Bilateral, multifocal (80%), isolated	unilateral common findings. Of note,
(20%)	a =15% may present</td
Follow up imaging Unilatoral facal (25%), Extensive inte	with normal CXR
Prograssive (most or peribilar a)	as plaural plaural airspace opacities
appearance Progressive (most or perimital and common can be offusion (22%)	eas, pieurai pieurai airspace opacities
unilatoral and multi focal interlebular e	, ntal
or hilteral with thickening (20	(P)
multi-focal consolidation)	<i>.</i>
Indications of poor Bilateral (like ARDS) four Creater involv	ement of Consolidation vs ground
prognosis or more lung zones the lungs ple	ral glass opacities (CCO)
progressive involvement effusion pre	mothorax
after 12 d	momorux
SARS MFRS	COVID-19
Chronic phase of	Data still being reviewed
illness	Zata still being reviewed
Transient reticular Yes Yes	
opacities (e)	
Air trapping Common (usually	
persistent)	
Fibrosis Rare One-third of p	atients Data still being reviewed

Acronyms: GGO = ground-glass opacity, ARDS = acute respiratory distress syndrome. aOver a period of weeks or months.

early with moderately to severely ill COVID-19 patients owing to significant extrapulmonary illness. $^{1\!-\!4}$

Consider in Fig. 1⁹ a CT study obtain from a 27 yo MERS patient. Notice the Lower lung image reveals large right lower lobe and small focal left lower lobe subpleural consolidations. Fig. 2¹ is from a 79 yo COVID-19 patient. Notice bilateral multiple, patchy, and peripheral ground glass opacities (GGO)



Fig. 1. ⁹ a CT study obtain from a 27 yo MERS patient. Notice the Lower lung image reveals large right lower lobe and small focal left lower lobe subpleural consolidations.



Fig. 2.¹ (Courtesy of Song F, Shanghai Public Health Clinical CenteShanghai, China) From a 79 yo COVID-19 patient. Notice bilateral multiple, patchy, and peripheral ground glass opacities (GGO).

A study reviewing the initial chest CT findings in 21 individuals with confirmed COVID-19 revealed abnormal findings in 86% of patients, with a majority (16/18) showing bilateral lung involvement.⁷ Multifocal ground-glass opacities (GGO) (57%) and consolidation (29%) were also reported. Of note there was a tendency towards peripheral lung involvement (Figs. 2 and 3).¹

In another study, chest imaging was obtained from a family cluster of seven persons with testing confirmed COVID-19; their studies showed bilateral patchy ground-glass opacities. There was greater involvement of the lungs reported among older family members.^{1, 10}

As noted earlier, although imaging features of COVID-19 resemble those of MERS and SARS,¹⁻⁴ it is important to recognize involvement of *both lungs* on initial imaging is more likely to be seen with COVID-19 (Figs. 3 and 4).¹ By comparison, initial chest imaging abnormalities in SARS and MERS more often are unilateral (Table 1).¹⁻³

Figs. 3 and 4 are from a 79 yo female who presented with fever, dry cough, and chest pain for 3 days. Her husband and daughter-in-law had been recently diagnosed with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). The patient experienced progressive illness, and expired 11 days after admission.¹

The next CT scans (Figs. 5 and 6) were obtained from a 47 yo man with 2-day history of fever, chills, productive cough, sneezing, and fatigue who presented to the emergency department, and was ultimately diagnosed with COVID-19.¹



Fig. 3. ¹ - 79-year-old woman Axial (**A**) CT Image showing multiple patchy, peripheral, bilateral areas of ground-glass opacity (Courtesy of Song F, Shanghai Public Health Clinical Center, Shanghai, China).



Fig. 4. ¹ CT image (Courtesy of Song F, Shanghai Public Health Clinical Center, Shanghai, China) Multiple patchy, peripheral, bilateral areas of ground-glass opacity.



Fig. 5. ¹ 47-year-old COVID-19 patient. Initial CT images obtained show small round areas of mixed ground-glass opacity and consolidation (*rectangles*) at level of aortic arch (**A**) and ventricles (**B**) in right and left lower lobe posterior zones. (Courtesy of Liu M, China-Japan Friendship Hospital, Beijing, China).



Fig. 6. ¹ Initial CT images obtained show small round areas of mixed ground-glass opacity and consolidation (*rectangles*) at level of aortic arch (**A**) and ventricles (**B**) in right and left lower lobe posterior zones. (Courtesy of Liu M, China-Japan Friendship Hospital, Beijing, China).

As noted in the above CT scans, COVID-19 can cause early and significant pulmonary findings on chest CT, which may progress rapidly. The severity of which may portend early or greater extrapulmonary involvement. The astute clinician will anticipate the potential for rapid clinical deterioration, especially in higher risk populations, as described earlier (including advancing age, frailty, immunosuppressed state – from disease or pharmacotherapy, cardiac and other comorbidities) and manage the patient accordingly. It is worth repeating that individuals considered lower risk have also experienced rapid deterioration, and death, such that the use of risk stratification while important in accelerating management, should be used with the caveat we cannot let our guard down for any patient, as COVID-19 demonstrates an ability to cause rapidly progressive illness even among younger and seemingly more robust adult patients.

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