

1 **Non-radiating and low-radiating imaging for diagnosis and management of**
2 **COVID-19 pneumonia**

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27 **40-word summary of the main point of the article.**

28 The COVID-19 pandemic has allowed the use of LDCT and LUS on a large scale. LDCT has
29 performed well in diagnosing and assessing the severity of COVID-19 pneumonia. LUS is
30 also a promising bedside tool in this setting.

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33

34 **Abstract**

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36 The COVID-19 pandemic has provided an opportunity to use low- and non-radiating chest
37 imaging techniques on a large scale in the context of an infectious disease, which has never
38 been done before. Previously, low-dose techniques were rarely used for infectious diseases,
39 despite the recognised danger of ionising radiation. In this review, we give an overview of the
40 contribution of low-dose computed tomography (LDCT) and lung ultrasound (LUS) to the
41 management of COVID-19 pneumonia. Chest LDCT is now performed routinely when
42 diagnosing and assessing the severity of COVID-19, allowing patients to be rapidly triaged.
43 The extent of lung involvement assessed by LDCT is accurate in terms of predicting poor
44 clinical outcomes in COVID-19-infected patients. Infectious disease specialists are less
45 familiar with LUS, but this technique is also of great interest for a rapid diagnosis of patients
46 with COVID-19 and is effective at assessing patient prognosis.

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52 **Introduction**

53 Pneumonia is the most frequent complication of COVID-19 infection and can lead to
54 Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome and the need for ventilatory support [1]. Before the
55 COVID-19 pandemic, confirmation of pneumonia traditionally required the demonstration of
56 a new-onset pulmonary infiltrate on chest X-rays (CXR) or on chest computed tomography
57 (CT) in addition to consistent clinical symptoms and signs [2]. CT is commonly considered as
58 the gold standard for diagnosing pneumonia and the number of chest CTs performed has
59 dramatically increased in recent years, together with total ionising radiation doses for patients
60 [3]. However, ionising radiation damages tissues and alters DNA structure, which has been
61 shown to increase the long-term cancer risk [4]. Low-dose (LD) and ultra-low-dose (ULD)
62 CTs have been developed and applied to lung imaging in order to limit radiation exposure, but
63 usually, these are not routinely performed, except for lung cancer screening [5]. Moreover,
64 lung ultrasounds (LUS), a non-radiating technique that can be quickly performed at the
65 patient's bedside, have also been shown to be accurate for the diagnosis of pneumonia [6].
66 LUS devices were initially reserved to intensivists but are now available in emergency
67 departments (ED), respiratory care units, and also in some infectious disease units, as is the
68 case in the IHU Méditerranée Infection. For viral pneumonia, however, its diagnostic value
69 compared to CT remained unclear, until 2020.

70 Currently, the need to rapidly evaluate patients with COVID-19 when they present
71 with dyspnoea or other respiratory signs is an opportunity to use chest LDCT and LUS on a
72 large scale. In March 2020, radiologists from our centre started to perform LDCT protocols
73 with dedicated scanners for confirmed or suspected cases of COVID-19. Shortly after, chest
74 LDCT was recommended as standard procedure by the British Thoracic Society for COVID-
75 19 diagnosis [7]. This epidemic will, therefore, probably change the way we explore chest
76 and diagnose infectious diseases. In this review, we aim to give an overview of the

77 contribution of low- and non-radiating chest imaging techniques to the diagnosis of COVID-
78 19 pneumonia and the role of these techniques in managing patients in this particular context.

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80 **Low-dose chest CT-scan: latest developments before COVID-19**

81 The goal of LDCT scanning is to maintain a good image resolution while reducing
82 irradiation by optimising scanning parameters and by using iterative reconstruction algorithm
83 [8]. Iterative reconstruction algorithms allow a dose reduction from 12% to 62% depending on
84 solution used [9]. The first chest LDCT was performed in 1990 [10]. In this ground-breaking
85 paper, Naidich *et al.* reported the same diagnostic image quality between LDCT and standard-
86 dose CT scans in two patients with apparently normal lungs and in 10 patients with a range of
87 underlying parenchymal abnormalities (two of whom had pulmonary tuberculosis) [10]. A
88 more widespread use of chest LDCT began in 2011 when this technique showed it could
89 accurately reduce mortality as part of the lung cancer screening campaign in the USA [5].
90 ULDCT emerged in 2013, involving additional reduction of image quality that is again
91 counterbalanced with innovative reconstruction techniques [11]. It is recognised that the
92 radiation dose of chest LDCT should be half that of standard dose CT [12]. Chest ULDCT has
93 a radiation dose equivalent to or lower than CXR (<1mSv) [13]. In comparison, the effective
94 dose for a conventional chest CT is estimated to be 5.5 mSv (range: 2.0 to 20.4 mSv). The
95 performance of ULDCT and LDCT has been demonstrated for the diagnosis of pulmonary
96 infections in prospective cohorts of immunocompromised patients [14], in comparison to
97 standard-dose CT and microbial cultures. However, no guidelines existed about chest LD or
98 ULDCT use during infectious diseases before the COVID-19 pandemic.

99 **The diagnosis of COVID-19 pneumonia with LDCT**

100 During the COVID-19 pandemic, there was a focus on using chest imaging to obtain an
101 early diagnosis in patients with worsening respiratory status or risk factors of disease

102 progression [15]. CXR showed poor sensitivity in mild or early COVID-19 infection [16]. The
103 chest CT pattern [17] and the characteristic evolution of chest CT over time [18] were rapidly
104 described as an important complementary technique for the diagnosis of COVID-19
105 pneumonia. Typical CT findings are represented by patchy ground-glass opacities, areas of
106 consolidations, crazy-paving and bilateral multilobe consolidations in ICU patients [17]. LDCT
107 had already been promoted as the first-line imaging technique by Chinese radiologists as early
108 as March 2020 [19]. Radiologists began to routinely perform chest LDCTs to diagnose an
109 infectious disease, allowing a rapid (5-10 minutes) triage of patients infected by COVID-19
110 with good radiation and efficacy ratios.

111 In our center, we performed 2,065 LDCTs between February and May 2020 on 3,737
112 COVID-19 patients, including 1,449 (70.1%) that detected abnormalities [20]. Interestingly,
113 among 1,108 patients who perceived themselves as non-dyspnoeic, 157 (14.2%) had an oxygen
114 saturation <95% and LDCT revealed pneumonia in 139 of them, demonstrating its important
115 diagnostic value in COVID-19 patients [20]. In March 2020, the British Thoracic Society
116 highlighted the need for a balance between minimising the radiation dose and ensuring high-
117 quality diagnostic images and promoted the use of unenhanced chest LDCT as the standard-of-
118 care for COVID-19 pneumonia imaging [7]. In July 2020, the international Fleishner Society
119 for thoracic radiology recommended chest imaging for three indications during the pandemic
120 in the following situations [15]: medical triage of patients with a high pre-test probability of
121 COVID-19 in resource-constrained environments; suspected cases in patients at risk of
122 COVID-19 progression; and RT-PCR-confirmed cases of COVID-19 with worsening
123 respiratory status. The French college of radiology also recommended that a chest CT scan
124 should be performed in the event of any therapeutic emergency requiring hospitalisation and/or
125 surgery that cannot wait for the results of a SARS-CoV-2 PCR [21].

126 **Assessing the severity of COVID-19 pneumonia with LDCT**

127 In our experience, thanks to close collaboration between infectologists and radiologists,
128 we performed chest LDCTs on a large cohort of COVID-19 patients [20] and developed a CT
129 score [22]. Our score was designed to measure the anatomical extent of lung impairment with
130 LDCT in patients with a positive SARS-CoV-2 diagnosis. We included eighty patients with
131 positive RT-PCR [22]. We visually classified each lung segment according to the presence of
132 typical features of COVID-19 pneumonia, on a chest LDCT that was performed between Day
133 3 and Day 11 after the onset of symptoms. A normal chest LDCT was equivalent to 0. Minimal
134 involvement was defined as the presence of a maximum of 10 secondary lobules of any features
135 and was equivalent to 1 (**Figure 1a**). Intermediate involvement was defined as less than 50%
136 involvement of the segment by any features and was equivalent to 4 (**Figure 1b**). Severe
137 involvement was defined as more than 50% involvement of the segment by any features and
138 was equivalent to 10 (**Figure 1c**). The total score was obtained by adding the score of all
139 segments for the right and left lungs, with the result ranking between 0 and 200. A severe
140 radiological case of COVID-19 pneumonia was defined by a CT score $>50/200$, which was
141 equivalent to a functional lobectomy. We hypothesized that the extent of pneumonia would be
142 predictive of clinical events. Accordingly, we revealed a positive correlation between the LDCT
143 score and the National Early Warning Score (NEWS), which is predictive for ICU admission
144 ($r=0.48$, $p<0.001$)[22,23]. We also found that dyspnoea, high respiratory rate, hypertension and
145 diabetes were associated with a score > 50 . This was consistent with our previous cohort study
146 on patients followed at the IHU Méditerranée Infection, where a normal LDCT was
147 significantly associated with a good clinical outcome, and a CT scan with severe or intermediate
148 lesions was significantly associated with a poor clinical outcome (23.5% vs 1.5% and 37.8% vs
149 9.3% respectively $p<0.05$)[20]. The strength of our study was reflected in the simplicity and
150 rapidity of our score (10–15 minutes per patient), and the inclusion of all consecutive patients
151 presenting themselves at our center with a diagnosis of COVID-19. The extent of lung

152 involvement estimated by CT in COVID-19 pneumonia is now considered as a predictive factor
153 for intubation, prolonged hospital stay, and death [24].

154 **Monitoring COVID-19 pneumonia with LDCT**

155 During the COVID-19 pandemic, the use of chest CTs has enabled the detection of early
156 fibrotic abnormalities of the lung in several infected patients [25]. This acute fibrotic pattern
157 raised the hypothesis of a potential post-infectious chronic interstitial lung disease, as observed
158 when monitoring patients after MERS and SARS infections [25]. Putative risk factors for
159 developing lung fibrosis after COVID-19 pneumonia have recently been reviewed [26] and
160 suggest the following: older age, smoking, chronic alcoholism, severity of the illness, and
161 length of time on mechanical ventilation [26].

162 Usually, the keystone of evaluating interstitial lung disease is the high-resolution CT
163 (HRCT) and the typical findings are reticulations, traction bronchiolectasis, architectural
164 distortion and honeycombing. In our center, we observed early distortive abnormalities in a
165 patient at weeks 3–4 after the onset of symptoms using LDCT (**Figure 2**).

166 HRCT has been proposed by some authors at six months and one year after recovery
167 from COVID-19 infection [25]. We therefore believe that LDCT could be an interesting tool
168 for monitoring lung abnormalities after a COVID-19 infection in order to reduce the ionising
169 radiation dose.

170 **Limitations of LDCT for the diagnosis of pneumonia**

171 Obesity (BMI >25) may be one limitation upon dose reduction due to the attenuation of
172 X-rays by thoracic fat [27]. This is important in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic since
173 obesity is a risk factor for severe pneumonia. The other main limitation of LDCT is its inferiority
174 to standard-dose CT angiography for the diagnosis of pulmonary embolisms [28], a frequent and
175 life-threatening complication of COVID-19 infections. Reduced-dose CT angiography leads to

176 significant reductions in diagnostic certainty and image quality [28], and HRCT remains the
177 gold standard in cases where a pulmonary embolism is suspected.

178 Although chest LDCT may help in the diagnosis of COVID-19 infection, a normal chest CT
179 does not eliminate the diagnosis and can occur in asymptomatic patients or in the first days after
180 the onset of the symptoms [29]. The COVID-19 pneumonia CT pattern is not specific [30]
181 which may lead to false positive results, especially when the prevalence of the virus diminishes
182 in the community. Many acute or chronic, infectious and non-infectious diseases may lead to
183 the same CT findings as COVID-19 infections [30]. For example, ground glass opacities are a
184 common CT finding of pneumocystis and influenza pneumonia.

185 **LUS in treating COVID-19 pneumonia**

186 **Use of lung US before the COVID-19 epidemic**

187 Before the COVID-19 pandemic, LUS was already performed in the emergency
188 department (ED) and in intensive care units (ICU) on patients with acute respiratory failure,
189 as a part of the point-of-care ultrasounds (POC US) [31], due to the main qualities of
190 ultrasounds: its immediate availability at any time, the rapidity of the information given, and
191 the lack of need for patient transport in the context of a communicable disease. In recent
192 years, LUS has been shown to be accurate in diagnosing community acquired pneumonias [6].
193 It is an easy technique with a standardised scanning protocol for each of the 12 lung quadrants
194 [32].

195 **Using LUS to diagnose COVID-19 pneumonia**

196 During the COVID-19 pandemic, LUS has been a useful technique for the early
197 diagnosis of COVID-19 pneumonia [33]. Typical findings of LUS consist in an interstitial
198 syndrome, from focal pleural line irregularities to diffuse and confluent B lines, as well as an
199 alveolar syndrome, from small subpleural hypoechoic images to large alveolar consolidations
200 with air bronchograms [34] (**Figure 3**). As for CT, LUS findings for COVID-19 pneumonia

201 are not specific and have been previously described during influenza pandemics [35]. LUS
202 allows a rapid diagnosis of COVID-19 pneumonia and a triage of patients within only 2–3
203 minutes in the ED with excellent sensitivity and negative predictive value (93.3% and 94.1%,
204 respectively)[36].

205 Interestingly, LUS can also predict clinical course and outcomes in COVID-19-positive
206 patients. In a prospective study, the baseline LUS score strongly correlated with the eventual
207 need for invasive mechanical ventilation and death from COVID-19 infection [37]. In one
208 retrospective study, the severity of COVID-19 pneumonia assessed by LUS was highly
209 associated with severity as assessed by chest CT scan, in PCR-positive patients with acute
210 dyspnoea [38]. The LUS score was also associated with the severity of hypoxaemia, and the
211 need for ICU admission and mechanical ventilation [38]. LUS can be performed at the
212 bedside and can diagnose frequent and fatal complications of COVID-19 infection, by
213 visualising pulmonary embolisms or deep venous thrombosis using Color flow Doppler [39].
214 As for any aetiology of acute respiratory failure, ultrasound can incorporate examinations of
215 both the lungs and the cardiovascular system, to detect myocarditis for example and to
216 improve patient care in the case of COVID-19 infection. Finally, during hospitalisation, LUS
217 can be performed on a daily basis to monitor the extent of COVID-19 pneumonia, as
218 progression assessed by the LUS score may predict the final outcome of the disease in patient
219 with ARDS [40].

220

221 **Perspectives**

222 Before the SARS-CoV 2 pandemic, several studies suggested the added value of chest ULD
223 and LDCT over CXR for the diagnosis of pneumonia [13]. The COVID-19 pandemic has
224 demonstrated on a large scale the feasibility of using low-radiating chest imaging and 2020
225 may have heralded the death of CXR, at least for viral respiratory disease outbreaks.

226 Concerning COVID-19 patients in the ICU, experts from the Fleischner Society made a
227 statement against daily monitoring by CXR [15], that is now considered as obsolete, at least
228 for stable, intubated patients.

229 Although LUS is not recommended as the imaging technique of choice for screening and
230 diagnosing COVID-19 pneumonia, it has demonstrated its ability to assess the anatomical
231 severity of pulmonary lesions [38] in the ED and the ICU in order to help in medical triage.
232 The main advantage of this technique is the integration of pulmonary, pleural, cardiac and
233 vascular impairments in the same examination, and its availability at the patient's bedside.

234 Winter is now beginning, and the next few months will provide a better understanding of
235 the value of LDCT and LUS for the diagnosis of COVID-19 and other types of pneumonia
236 caused by seasonal respiratory viruses such as influenza. We also need to improve our
237 knowledge about the value of chest imaging for monitoring the COVID-19 disease. In our
238 opinion, LUS is a promising tool to monitor pneumonia recovery, as it is non-radiating and
239 easy to perform during a consultation. Another advantage of thoracic ultrasounds is the
240 possibility of studying the diaphragmatic function, as diaphragmatic impairment has been
241 associated with pneumonia [41] and mechanical ventilation. A recent study has shown that
242 pulmonary diffusion impairment was observed at 6 months follow-up in 22 to 56% of patients
243 depending on the initial severity of the disease [42] . Also, chest HRCT scores using artificial
244 intelligence software found significant abnormalities at 6 months in these patients [42], but
245 LDCT should be evaluated in this setting. Finally, COVID-19 is currently accelerating the
246 transition to low-dose and "no-dose" imaging techniques to explore infectious pneumonia and
247 their long-term consequences.

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250 **This manuscript has been edited by a native English speaker**

251

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253

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372

373 **Figures**

374 **Figure 1**

375 Low-dose non-contrast chest CT scans with 3D volumetric reconstruction in patients with
376 proven COVID-19 infection. 1a) Minimal lung involvement. 1b) Moderate lung involvement.
377 1c) Severe lung involvement.

378

379 **Figure 2**

380 Low-dose non-contrast CT scan of the chest at day 21 then 6 months after the first SARS-
381 CoV-2 PCR-positive result, in a 69-year-old patient. The black and white arrows indicate
382 bronchiectasis.

383

384 **Figure 3**

385 Lung ultrasound images in patients with proven COVID-19 infection. 3 a) Longitudinal scan
386 with a high-frequency linear probe. White arrows indicate pleural line irregularities. 3 b)
387 Longitudinal scan with a low-frequency convex probe. The dark arrow indicates a subpleural
388 consolidation.