

**American College of Radiology
ACR Appropriateness Criteria®**

Clinical Condition: Neck Mass/Adenopathy

Variant 1: Adult presenting with a nonpulsatile solitary neck mass (afebrile).

Radiologic Procedure	Rating	Comments	<u>RRL*</u>
CT neck with contrast	9		☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without and with contrast	8	See statement regarding contrast in text under "Anticipated Exceptions."	O
MRI neck without contrast	7		O
CT neck without contrast	6	May be appropriate initially if mass relationship to thyroid gland is uncertain.	☼ ☼ ☼
CT neck without and with contrast	5	For selected cases if sialolith is suspected.	☼ ☼ ☼
US neck	4		O
MRA neck with contrast	3		O
CTA neck	3		☼ ☼ ☼
FDG-PET neck	2	Not for primary diagnosis.	☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
Arteriography cervicocerebral	1		☼ ☼ ☼
<u>Rating Scale:</u> 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate			*Relative Radiation Level

Variant 2: Adult presenting with a solitary neck mass (febrile).

Radiologic Procedure	Rating	Comments	<u>RRL*</u>
CT neck with contrast	9		☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without and with contrast	8	See statement regarding contrast in text under "Anticipated Exceptions."	O
CT neck without and with contrast	7		☼ ☼ ☼
CT neck without contrast	6	May be appropriate initially if mass relationship to thyroid gland is uncertain.	☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without contrast	5		O
US neck	4		O
MRA neck with contrast	3		O
CTA neck	3		☼ ☼ ☼
FDG-PET neck	2	Not for primary diagnosis.	☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
Arteriography cervicocerebral	1		☼ ☼ ☼
<u>Rating Scale:</u> 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate			*Relative Radiation Level

Clinical Condition:

Neck Mass/Adenopathy

Variant 3:

Adult presenting with a pulsatile neck mass.

Radiologic Procedure	Rating	Comments	RRL*
CT neck with contrast	9		☼ ☼ ☼
CTA neck	9	May be done at same time as CT neck.	☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without and with contrast	8	See statement regarding contrast in text under "Anticipated Exceptions."	O
MRA neck with contrast	8	May be done at same time as MRI of neck. See statement regarding contrast in text under "Anticipated Exceptions."	O
CT neck without and with contrast	7		☼ ☼ ☼
US neck	6		O
MRI neck without contrast	5		O
CT neck without contrast	4		☼ ☼ ☼
Arteriography cervicocerebral	4	Useful if preoperative embolization of glomus tumor is planned.	☼ ☼ ☼
FDG-PET neck	2		☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
Rating Scale: 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate			*Relative Radiation Level

Variant 4:

Adult presenting with multiple neck masses.

Radiologic Procedure	Rating	Comments	RRL*
CT neck with contrast	9		☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without and with contrast	8	See statement regarding contrast in text under "Anticipated Exceptions."	O
MRI neck without contrast	7		O
CT neck without contrast	6		☼ ☼ ☼
CT neck without and with contrast	5		☼ ☼ ☼
FDG-PET neck	4		☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
US neck	4	To further characterize nodes in anticipation of biopsy.	O
CTA neck	3		☼ ☼ ☼
MRA neck with contrast	3		O
Arteriography cervicocerebral	1		☼ ☼ ☼
Rating Scale: 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate			*Relative Radiation Level

Clinical Condition:

Neck Mass/Adenopathy

Variant 5:

Adult with a history of treatment for cancer presenting with a neck mass.

Radiologic Procedure	Rating	Comments	RRL*
CT neck with contrast	9	Complementary with FDG-PET.	☼ ☼ ☼
FDG-PET neck	9	Complementary with CT of neck with contrast.	☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without and with contrast	8	See statement regarding contrast in text under "Anticipated Exceptions."	O
CT neck without and with contrast	7		☼ ☼ ☼
CT neck without contrast	6		☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without contrast	5		O
US neck	4	Used for localization for biopsy.	O
CTA neck	3		☼ ☼ ☼
MRA neck with contrast	3		O
Arteriography cervicocerebral	1		☼ ☼ ☼
Rating Scale: 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate			*Relative Radiation Level

Variant 6:

Child (up to age 14) presenting with a solitary neck mass or multiple neck masses (afebrile).

Radiologic Procedure	Rating	Comments	RRL*
US neck	9		O
CT neck with contrast	8		☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without and with contrast	7	See statement regarding contrast in text under "Anticipated Exceptions."	O
MRI neck without contrast	6		O
CT neck without contrast	5		☼ ☼ ☼
CT neck without and with contrast	4		☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
CTA neck	2		☼ ☼ ☼
MRA neck with contrast	2		O
Arteriography cervicocerebral	1		☼ ☼ ☼
FDG-PET neck	1		☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
Rating Scale: 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate			*Relative Radiation Level

Clinical Condition:**Neck Mass/Adenopathy****Variant 7:****Child (up to age 14) presenting with a solitary neck mass (febrile).**

Radiologic Procedure	Rating	Comments	<u>RRL*</u>
US neck	9	For palpable neck mass, except retropharyngeal, where CT would be preferred.	O
CT neck with contrast	8		☼ ☼ ☼
MRI neck without and with contrast	7	See statement regarding contrast in text under "Anticipated Exceptions."	O
MRI neck without contrast	6		O
CT neck without contrast	5		☼ ☼ ☼
CT neck without and with contrast	4		☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
CTA neck	2		☼ ☼ ☼
MRA neck with contrast	2		O
Arteriography cervicocerebral	1		☼ ☼ ☼
FDG-PET neck	1		☼ ☼ ☼ ☼
Rating Scale: 1,2,3 Usually not appropriate; 4,5,6 May be appropriate; 7,8,9 Usually appropriate			*Relative Radiation Level

NECK MASS/ADENOPATHY

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Summary of Literature Review

Initial Diagnosis

Imaging may be requested in a patient who presents with a palpable neck mass. The clinical presentation may be variable, as the patient may be an adult or child, the mass may be painful, or the patient may be febrile. The type of initial imaging study that has been recommended has varied over the past 20 years with the development and maturation of new imaging modalities.

Magnetic Resonance Imaging and Computed Tomography

In adults, a neck mass is likely to be either neoplastic or inflammatory [1-5]. In older patients with a smoking history, the diagnosis is often malignancy [6]. In adults who present with a fever, the etiology is often inflammation [7-9]. Both computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) can accurately diagnose both disease entities [10-12]. Multidetector CT (MDCT) now appears to be the preferred initial modality for evaluating a patient with a palpable neck mass [13]. Both modalities can be used for initial diagnosis of a primary head and neck malignancy and for staging of cervical lymph nodes [14-18]. However, the rapid image acquisition of MDCT reduces physiologic motion and produces a higher consistent image quality compared with MRI [19-21]. MRI and CT are complementary studies, and MRI is superior to CT for soft-tissue characterization. MRI is also superior to CT for detecting perineural

spread, which is important for initial staging for a variety of skull base tumors.

Use of Contrast

Intravenous contrast is recommended for routine cross-sectional imaging in adults or children presenting with a neck mass with no contraindications [22]. Contrast is helpful for assessing tumor margins and is essential for detecting neck abscesses, especially those that are intramuscular [23-25]. Intravenous contrast is also helpful for distinguishing vessels from lymph nodes and determining if the mass is hypervascular, as many “pulsatile” neck masses (especially those in level 2 or 3) are lymph nodes overlying the carotid rather than true vascular masses. Contrast can obscure visualization of sialoliths and noncontrast CT is recommended in patients presenting with a neck mass felt to be due to an obstructing sialolith. MRI may be helpful in patients with nonmineralized sialoliths. Iodine-based contrast may be avoided in patients with thyroid cancer history or when metastatic thyroid cancer is suspected.

Positron Emission Tomography

The role of positron emission tomography (PET) combined with CT for assessing neck masses is evolving [26-31]. Some investigators feel that it is superior to CT alone for evaluating primary site tumor margins [32,33]. It is also superior to CT alone for staging cervical lymph nodes [34]. However, it cannot detect lymph node micrometastases [35-37]. Currently PET/CT is not routinely recommended for initial staging of all patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCCA) [38,39].

Ultrasound

The use of ultrasound (US) for the initial diagnosis of neck masses in adults and children is steadily increasing. In fact, the overall use of neck US in the United States has generally lagged its use in Europe and Southeast Asia, due in part to greater accessibility of cross-sectional modalities such as CT and MRI here [40,41]. US is useful in differentiating between solid cystic neck lesions in both adults and children and is also helpful in discriminating between high-flow and low-flow vascular malformations [42-44]. US is also very helpful for image-guided biopsies of nonpalpable or small lesions that are relatively superficial and for biopsies of indeterminate soft tissue in the treated neck. Studies have shown that US fine-needle aspiration of lymph nodes can be useful in staging the N0 neck [45,46]. The positive predictive value of this technique is high; however, concern has been raised regarding its negative predictive value and its inability to exclude micrometastases. Some studies have suggested that color Doppler US can distinguish between metastatic and inflammatory neck nodes [47-49]. Although these results are promising, the results appear to be user dependent.

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The American College of Radiology seeks and encourages collaboration with other organizations on the development of the ACR Appropriateness Criteria through society representation on expert panels. Participation by representatives from collaborating societies on the expert panel does not necessarily imply society endorsement of the final document.

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Angiography

The role of conventional angiography for initial diagnosis is very limited. The initial imaging modality for evaluating a pulsatile neck mass (glomus tumor, aneurysm) is CT angiography, which now appears to be preferred to MR angiography for these indications [50]. Conventional angiography is used for planning endovascular treatment (tumor embolization, balloon test occlusion, etc) or for further characterization of vascular neck lesions.

Neck Masses in Children

In children who present with neck masses, one must also consider congenital etiologies in addition to neoplasia and inflammation [51]. Because of the risk of sedation and radiation dose, there is some debate as to the recommended imaging study in a child with a neck mass. In children suspected of having a congenital abnormality, US is often performed as it is sufficient for distinguishing a cystic from a solid mass. Color-flow Doppler US is also helpful for characterizing flow in solid lesions [48,52]. Either CT or MRI can be performed in children suspected of having a malignancy or a deep neck abscess that may require surgical drainage. Although it does emit radiation, MDCT tends to be preferred over MRI due to the lower sedation requirements resulting from shorter examination time.

Post-treatment

CT and MRI are beneficial in patients previously treated for HNSCCA [53-58]. Both modalities can evaluate the extent of locoregional recurrence and evaluate for synchronous lesions in the neck [59,60]. MRI is superior to CT for characterizing soft-tissue and detecting perineural spread. However, due to the length of the examination, MRI is more likely to be degraded by motion artifact in patients treated for advanced disease who have developed severe post-treatment mucositis and have difficulty with pooling of secretions. New physiologic techniques such as diffusion weighted MRI, MR spectroscopy, and MR and CT perfusion have shown promise in attempting to differentiate recurrent tumor from post-treatment changes [61-66]. However, the results are preliminary, and further investigations are required.

The current literature suggests that PET/CT may be superior to CT or MRI for detecting recurrent tumor [67-72]. It has the advantage of detecting recurrent HNSCCA based on correlation of anatomic distortion with physiologic abnormality [73]. The sensitivity and specificity of PET/CT for detecting recurrent HNSCCA are in the range of 70%-100%. However, one must be aware of the range of physiologic activity following treatment to avoid false-positive results [74]. Although PET/CT is commonly used to evaluate post-treatment HNSCCA patients, there is no consensus regarding the proper timing of serial post-treatment surveillance studies. The imaging study that is ordered should depend on the clinical indication of the patient and an understanding of the information that the imaging study can provide.

Summary

- CT and MRI are complementary methods for evaluating a patient with a palpable neck mass.
- MDCT is emerging as the preferred modality for the initial diagnostic imaging workup.
- Although PET/CT is not routinely recommended for initial staging of patients with HNSCCA, it may be useful in staging and problem solving in these patients.
- US is increasingly demonstrating usefulness in differentiating solid and cystic neoplasms, in assessing vascular lesions, and in facilitating biopsies.
- CT, MRI, and PET/CT are useful in evaluating the post-treatment cancer patient.

Anticipated Exceptions

Nephrogenic systemic fibrosis (NSF) is a disorder with a scleroderma-like presentation and a spectrum of manifestations that can range from limited clinical sequelae to fatality. It appears to be related to both underlying severe renal dysfunction and the administration of gadolinium-based contrast agents. It has occurred primarily in patients on dialysis, rarely in patients with very limited glomerular filtration rate (GFR) (ie, <30 mL/min/1.73m²), and almost never in other patients. There is growing literature regarding NSF. Although some controversy and lack of clarity remain, there is a consensus that it is advisable to avoid all gadolinium-based contrast agents in dialysis-dependent patients unless the possible benefits clearly outweigh the risk, and to limit the type and amount in patients with estimated GFR rates <30 mL/min/1.73m². For more information, please see the [ACR Manual on Contrast Media](#) [75].

Relative Radiation Level Information

Potential adverse health effects associated with radiation exposure are an important factor to consider when selecting the appropriate imaging procedure. Because there is a wide range of radiation exposures associated with different diagnostic procedures, a relative radiation level (RRL) indication has been included for each imaging examination. The RRLs are based on effective dose, which is a radiation dose quantity that is used to estimate population total radiation risk associated with an imaging procedure. Patients in the pediatric age group are at inherently higher risk from exposure, both because of organ sensitivity and longer life expectancy (relevant to the long latency that appears to accompany radiation exposure). For these reasons, the RRL dose estimate ranges for pediatric examinations are lower as compared to those specified for adults (see Table below). Additional information regarding radiation dose assessment for imaging examinations can be found in the ACR Appropriateness Criteria® [Radiation Dose Assessment Introduction](#) document.

Relative Radiation Level Designations		
Relative Radiation Level*	Adult Effective Dose Estimate Range	Pediatric Effective Dose Estimate Range
O	0 mSv	0 mSv
☼	<0.1 mSv	<0.03 mSv
☼☼	0.1-1 mSv	0.03-0.3 mSv
☼☼☼	1-10 mSv	0.3-3 mSv
☼☼☼☼	10-30 mSv	3-10 mSv
☼☼☼☼☼	30-100 mSv	10-30 mSv

*RRL assignments for some of the examinations cannot be made, because the actual patient doses in these procedures vary as a function of a number of factors (eg, region of the body exposed to ionizing radiation, the imaging guidance that is used). The RRLs for these examinations are designated as NS (not specified).

Supporting Document(s)

- [ACR Appropriateness Criteria® Overview](#)
- [Procedure Contrast Information](#)
- [Evidence Table](#)

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The ACR Committee on Appropriateness Criteria and its expert panels have developed criteria for determining appropriate imaging examinations for diagnosis and treatment of specified medical condition(s). These criteria are intended to guide radiologists, radiation oncologists and referring physicians in making decisions regarding radiologic imaging and treatment. Generally, the complexity and severity of a patient's clinical condition should dictate the selection of appropriate imaging procedures or treatments. Only those examinations generally used for evaluation of the patient's condition are ranked. Other imaging studies necessary to evaluate other co-existent diseases or other medical consequences of this condition are not considered in this document. The availability of equipment or personnel may influence the selection of appropriate imaging procedures or treatments. Imaging techniques classified as investigational by the FDA have not been considered in developing these criteria; however, study of new equipment and applications should be encouraged. The ultimate decision regarding the appropriateness of any specific radiologic examination or treatment must be made by the referring physician and radiologist in light of all the circumstances presented in an individual examination.