

Thermography

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[Instructions for Use](#)

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Related Policy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Abnormal Uterine Bleeding and Uterine Fibroids

Coverage Rationale

Thermography [including, but not limited to digital infrared thermal imaging, temperature gradient studies, and magnetic resonance (MR) thermography] is unproven and not medically necessary due to insufficient evidence of efficacy.

Applicable Codes

The following list(s) of procedure and/or diagnosis codes is provided for reference purposes only and may not be all inclusive. Listing of a code in this policy does not imply that the service described by the code is a covered or non-covered health service. Benefit coverage for health services is determined by the member specific benefit plan document and applicable laws that may require coverage for a specific service. The inclusion of a code does not imply any right to reimbursement or guarantee claim payment. Other Policies may apply.

CPT Code	Description
76498	Unlisted magnetic resonance procedure (e.g., diagnostic, interventional)
93740	Temperature gradient studies

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Description of Services

Thermography is used to measure the temperature of organs and tissues and may contribute to the diagnosis of a variety of medical conditions. A temperature gradient study involves threading a catheter into coronary arteries to measure the temperature of the walls of the inner walls. All thermography methods are considered complimentary to other techniques and alone are not sufficient to make or confirm a diagnosis.

Clinical Evidence

There is insufficient clinical evidence demonstrating the safety and/or efficacy of thermography for breast cancer screening and/or diagnosis. Current data suggests that thermography technology is insufficient on its own in reaching a definitive diagnosis.

Breast Cancer

In a 2018 retrospective cohort study, Neal et al. aimed to determine the outcome of patients presenting for evaluation of abnormal breast thermography. The study population included thirty-eight female patients who had thermography at a National Cancer Institute-designated comprehensive cancer center and a National Comprehensive Cancer Network center, and were referred for conventional breast imaging (mammogram and/or ultrasound) for evaluation of an abnormal finding. The results showed 95% (36 of 38) of patients who presented for breast imaging evaluation following abnormal thermography did not have breast cancer. The two patients diagnosed with breast cancer had known co-existing suspicious clinical symptoms including palpable mass and erythematous breast. No asymptomatic woman referred for evaluation of a thermography abnormality was found to have breast cancer. None of the patients who had abnormal thermography, negative conventional breast imaging and longer follow-up were found to subsequently have breast cancers, and there were no false-negative mammograms and/or breast ultrasounds. The authors concluded that patients may be referred for breast imaging with mammogram and/or ultrasound after abnormal thermography, and the large majority of patients will have negative conventional breast imaging. This study is limited in part by its retrospective design and very small number of participants.

A prospective study to evaluate the accuracy of thermography in detecting breast abnormalities was performed by Omranipour et al. (2016). All patients (n = 132) who were candidates for breast biopsy were examined by both mammography and thermography before tissue sampling. The authors defined sensitivities and specificities, and positive predictive values (PPVs) and negative predictive values (NPVs), of the 2 modalities in comparison with histologic results as the gold standard. The diagnostic accuracy of thermography was lower than that of mammography (69.7% vs. 76.9%). The sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV, and accuracy for mammography were 80.5%, 73.3%, 85.4%, 66.0%, and 76.9%, respectively, whereas for thermography the figures were 81.6%, 57.8%, 78.9%, 61.9%, and 69.7%, respectively. The authors concluded that the study confirms that thermography cannot substitute for mammography for the early diagnosis of breast cancer.

In a systematic review, Fitzgerald et al. (2012) evaluated the effectiveness of digital infrared thermography for the detection of breast cancer in a screening population and as a diagnostic tool in women with suspected breast cancer. One study reported results for thermography in screening population and five studies reported diagnostic accuracy of thermography in women with suspected breast cancer. According to the authors, overall, studies were of average quality. Sensitivity for thermography as a screening tool was 25% (specificity 74%) compared to mammography. Sensitivity for thermography as a diagnostic tool ranged from 25% (specificity 85%) to 97% (specificity 12%) compared to histology. The authors concluded that currently there is insufficient evidence to support the use of thermography in breast cancer screening. The authors stated that there is also insufficient evidence to show that thermography provides benefit to patients as an adjunctive tool to mammography or to suspicious clinical findings in diagnosing breast cancer.

Kontos et al. (2011) determined the sensitivity and specificity of digital infrared thermal imaging (DITI) in a series of 63 women who underwent surgical excision or core biopsy of benign and malignant breast lesions. Thermography had 90 true-negative, 16 false-positive, 15 false-negative and 5 true-positive results. The sensitivity was 25%, specificity 85%, positive predictive value 24%, and negative predictive value 86%. The authors concluded that because of the low sensitivity for breast cancer, DITI is not indicated for the primary evaluation of symptomatic patients nor should it be used on a routine basis as a screening test for breast cancer.

Wishart et al. (2010) studied digital infrared breast imaging (Sentinel BreastScan) in 100 women prior to breast needle core biopsy (CB). Analysis of the infrared scans was performed, blinded to biopsy results, in four different ways: Sentinel screening report, Sentinel artificial intelligence (neural network), expert manual review, and NoTouch BreastScan a novel artificial intelligence program. Of 106 biopsies performed in 100 women, 65 were malignant and 41 were benign. Sensitivity of Sentinel screening (53%) and Sentinel neural network (48%) was low but analysis with NoTouch software (70%) was much closer to expert manual review (78%). Sensitivity (78%) and specificity (75%) using NoTouch BreastScan were higher in women under 50 and the combination of mammography and digital infrared breast scan, with NoTouch interpretation, in this age group resulted in a sensitivity of 89%. According to the investigators, digital infrared breast scan using NoTouch is an effective adjunctive test for breast cancer detection in women under 70 and appears to be particularly effective in women under 50 where maximal sensitivity (78%) and specificity (75%) were observed. This study included a small number of participants and does not allow conclusion on the use of thermography instead of mammography. The use of thermography as an adjunct to mammography requires confirmation.

Other Conditions

Thermography has also been investigated for many other conditions including, but not limited to, back pain, complex regional pain syndrome, impingement syndrome, burns and herpes zoster. There is little evidence that the use of thermography improves health outcomes for these and other conditions.

Berner et al. (2021) conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis on the accuracy of infrared thermography for perforator mapping for reconstructive and plastic surgeries. The aim of this study is to determine the specificity and sensitivity of this technology compared to the gold standard, which is direct visualization by incision, as well as more recent additions to the reconstructive planning armamentarium, including handheld doppler, Computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) in and near-infrared fluorescence using indocyanine green (ICG) 13. A total of seven diagnostic accuracy articles were identified, of which six reported true positive and false negative values necessary for a sensitivity meta-analysis. These studies reported a total of 435 perforators in 133 individuals. The most commonly investigated locations were the antero-lateral thigh and abdominal wall. Reported sensitivity values ranged from 73.7% to 100%. A meta-analysis demonstrated a cumulative sensitivity of 95%. Specificity was not routinely reported. All studies presented a moderate to high risk of bias according to QUADAS2. Even though four studies reported specificity values ranging from 65.6% to 98% 20–23, only one contained the required true negative “cold-spots” values for reproducing these calculations. Therefore, no specificity meta-analysis was possible among the eligible articles. Gold-standard measures used in the studies included in this meta-analysis included CTA and direct visualization during surgical exploration. The authors concluded that the conduction of further well-designed and adequately reported diagnostic accuracy studies is required to ascertain the specificity of this technology for perforator detection. Future systematic reviews with meta-analysis would benefit from routine reporting of index test results to determine not only the sensitivity but also the specificity of infrared thermography for perforator detection. Due to the small number of studies eligible for this review, they were unable to further investigate any significant differences between the variety of thermographic devices used and across different anatomical locations, which could ultimately affect the results obtained in the conducted meta-analysis.

A 2020 ECRI Clinical Evidence Assessment: *Infrared Temperature Screening to Identify Potentially Infected Staff or Visitors Presenting to Healthcare Facilities during Infectious Disease Outbreaks* states there is unfavorable evidence to support temperature screening programs using external infrared (IR) temperature screening devices alone or with a questionnaire for mass screening are ineffective for detecting infected individuals, and simulation studies suggest such screening will miss more than half of infected individuals.

Circulatory System

Hegedüs (2018) conducted a case series of randomly selected patients to assess the potential role of thermography in determining the efficacy of stroke rehabilitation in sixteen randomly selected poststroke patients with hemiparesis affecting mainly the upper extremities. Patients began undergoing rehabilitation 13 ±4 days following stroke. Thermograms were taken with a Fluke Ti 20 (Fluke Corporation, WA) pretreatment and post-treatment, and documentation of 15 physiotherapy, massage, and galvanic therapy sessions. The side exhibiting no neurological symptoms was used as the control. The objective was to measure the changes in joint function and microcirculation and to examine the correlation between them. The results showed significant improvement in joint function on the affected side ($p < .05$). Thermographic examinations revealed microcirculatory dysfunction in the affected extremities in 100% of the cases. Following treatment, temperature increased significantly ($p \geq .5^{\circ}\text{C}$) on the affected side. A strong correlation (r) was observed between joint function and temperature change ($p < .05$). The authors concluded that the extremities on the affected side showed microcirculatory dysfunction compared with the control side in 100% of the cases, and that thermography is a reliable method for monitoring the effects of stroke rehabilitation treatment. This study is limited by a small number of participants and a design that does not provide information on the role of the technology to improve patients' outcomes. Additional studies may provide more information on a possible role of thermography for stroke rehabilitation.

Horikoshi et al. (2016) conducted a study to assess the peripheral finger circulation using an infrared thermographic analysis. Thirty-one patients diagnosed with Raynaud Phenomenon (RP) who underwent thermography of their hands and 25 healthy individuals without pre-existing connective tissue disease or the use of medication that could affect the peripheral perfusion (controls) were enrolled in the study. The skin temperatures of the dorsum of all fingernail folds and the metacarpophalangeal (MCP) joints were measured at baseline. Then the hands were immersed in 10°C water for 10 seconds, and the skin temperatures were measured at 0, 3, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 30 minutes after immersion by thermography. The mean temperature, recovery rate and disparity of the nail fold temperatures were calculated. The distal-dorsal difference (DDD) was calculated by

subtracting the mean MCP temperature from the mean nail fold temperature. The baseline nail fold temperature was significantly lower in patients with RP than in controls ($30.8 \pm 3.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ vs. $33.2 \pm 1.8^{\circ}\text{C}$). At 3 and 5 min after immersion, the recovery rate was significantly lower in patients with RP than in controls, and the difference was highest at 5 min (patients with RP: 49.6 ± 27.7 ; controls: 71.5 ± 26.8). The RP patients had a lower recovery rate, lower DDD and higher disparity than the controls. The temperature disparity was significantly higher in patients with RP than in the controls both at baseline and at all time points after immersion. The authors concluded that the temperature disparity between fingers is a useful thermographic parameter for evaluating disturbed peripheral circulation in patients with RP. They stated that these findings suggest that the remodeling in RP patients may be due to the underlying abnormal vasculature, and may result in an uneven response to thermal stimuli. The design of this study does not allow to assess the role that thermography could play in the diagnostic of RP as compared to other diagnostic methods in clinical practice.

Pauling et al. (2012) performed a systematic review evaluating the use of infrared thermography (IRT) as an endpoint in clinical trials of Raynaud's phenomenon (RP). Thirty-two studies evaluating 654 patients with RP were assessed. Significant heterogeneity between studies precluded any attempt at formal meta-analysis. Most studies were small (median 15.5 patients) and open-label design (19/32, 59.4%). The majority of studies (18/32, 56.3%) reported improvements were in both clinical and thermographic endpoints. Thermographic parameters showing agreement with clinical endpoints in therapeutic trials included baseline hand/finger absolute temperature and parameters derived following local cold challenge. The authors concluded that no single thermographic parameter has emerged as the preferred endpoint for clinical trials of RP. According to the authors, objective microvascular imaging tools such as IRT have the potential to overcome the limitations of self-report assessment of RP. Future studies should continue to evaluate IRT in an attempt to validate objective microvascular assessment tools in therapeutic trials of RP. Furthermore, this study does not address the use of IRT in clinical practice above and beyond its possible role in research.

Huang et al. (2011) investigated the usefulness of infrared thermography in evaluating 51 patients at high risk for lower extremity peripheral arterial disease (PAD). Ankle-brachial index (ABI) and segmental pressure were analyzed for PAD diagnosis and stenotic level assessment. The cutaneous temperature at shin and sole were recorded by infrared thermography before and after a walking test. Twenty-eight subjects had abnormal ABI, while PAD was diagnosed in 20. The rest temperatures were similar in PAD and non-PAD patients. However, the post-exercise temperature dropped in the lower extremities with arterial stenosis but was maintained or elevated slightly in the extremities with patent arteries. The authors concluded that infrared thermography offers another non-invasive, contrast-free option in PAD evaluation and functional assessment. However, these findings require confirmation in a larger trial that compare this to other diagnostic approaches.

Schlager et al. (2010) investigated the correlation of infrared thermography (IT) with laser Doppler perfusion imager (LDPI) among patients with primary Raynaud's phenomenon ($n = 25$) and healthy controls ($n = 22$). IT of the volar surface of the subjects' left hands was performed to record skin temperature while skin perfusion of the same area was determined using LDPI. Good correlation of baseline measurements was found between IT and LDPI in primary Raynaud patients and healthy controls. Following cold challenge, correlation was weaker in both groups. Correlation after cold provocation was statistically significant among patients with primary Raynaud's phenomenon in contrast to controls. According to the investigators, a significant correlation was found between IT and LDPI in primary Raynaud patients and in healthy controls. Following cold provocation, correlation decreased in both groups. Thus, at room temperature IT might substitute for skin perfusion measured by LDPI. This study is limited by a small sample size and a design that does not inform on the role that thermography could play in the diagnostic of RP as compared to other diagnostic methods in clinical practice.

Cuisset et al. (2009) assessed intracoronary thermography by measuring intracoronary pressure and temperature variations in 18 patients with an acute myocardial infarction. Crossing the occlusion, the temperature rose by 0.059 ± 0.02 degrees C and this increase was correlated with the distal coronary pressure. A balloon coronary occlusion (BCO) with the sensor distally in the distal part of the vessel (low flow/low pressure conditions) systematically induced an increase in temperature (0.14 ± 0.07 degrees C) while with the sensor proximally to the balloon occlusion (low flow/normal pressure conditions), no change occurred. According to the investigators, the study findings suggest that thermistor-based sensors are not suited for assessing thermal heterogeneity in the vascular wall and that the data obtained so far in patients with acute coronary syndromes might have been flawed by pressure (and flow) artifacts.

Thermography was performed in 40 patients with acute coronary syndrome (ACS). Gradient (ΔT_{max}) between blood temperature and the maximum wall temperature during pullback was measured. In 16 patients (40%) ΔT_{max} was greater than or equal to 0.1 degrees C. In 23 patients (57.5%) the highest ΔT_{max} was found in the culprit segment. The

investigators concluded that thermography was safe and feasible. However, they were not able to convincingly and consistently differentiate between different lesions at risk, despite a selection of lesions that should appear most distinct to differentiate. Difficulty in interpreting the data and the myriad of confounding factors, e.g., impact of blood flow, make this method's practical application difficult to utilize in a daily practice and needs to be addressed in future studies. (Rzeszutko et al., 2006)

Endocrine System

Sivanandam et al. (2012) tested the potential of infrared (IR) thermography in diagnosing as well as predicting type 2 diabetes and its complications compared with biochemical assay of Hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) as standard. The study included 62 individuals (control (n = 32) and diabetic subjects (n = 30)). In the diabetic group, HbA1c showed negative correlation with carotid region and the mean skin temperature was lower than the normal group at body regions namely knee, tibia, forehead, and palm. The palm region showed highest area under the curve of 0.711 and the threshold was set as ≤ 33.85 °C, thereby sensitivity (90%) and specificity (56%) were obtained in determining the undiagnosed diabetes with positive predictive value of 65%, negative predictive value of 85% and accuracy of 73%. As HbA1c increases, skin temperature decreases. According to the authors, skin temperature enables early detection of diabetes as compared to HbA1c. The decrease in skin temperature may be due to the decrease in the basal metabolic rate, poor blood perfusion and high insulin resistance. The authors stated that thermography can be used as a diagnostic as well as prognostic tool for the diabetes. These findings require confirmation in a larger study. In addition, future studies must be powered to address how finding obtained by IRT would change physician management and improve glycemic control in persons with diabetes.

Integumentary System

Dang et al. (2021) conducted a systematic review of the current use of infrared thermography to assess burn depth and healing potential. A total of 19 articles investigating the use of IR thermography for burn wound assessment in adults and pediatric patients were included. The results showed statistically significant correlations between IR thermography and laser doppler imaging (LDI) in 4 studies, and a case report found that IR thermography was more accurate than LDI for assessing burn depth. Five articles investigated the ability of IR thermography to predict healing time. Temperature differences between burnt and unburnt skin were found in 2 studies. IR thermography was compared to clinical assessment in five articles, with varying results regarding accuracy of clinical assessment compared to thermography. The authors concluded that IR thermography is an accurate and simple method of burn wound assessment and has been demonstrated to have significant correlations with other methods of assessing burns such as LDI and can be utilized to accurately assess burn depth and healing potential. This systematic review is limited by the small number of studies comparing IR to the current standard of a clinical burn wound assessment, and by the varying results regarding accuracy of clinical assessment compared to thermography, and more research is needed.

In a 2020 randomized comparative study, Bilska et al. assessed the usefulness of skin surface infrared thermography (SSIT) as a prognostic tool in the treatment of stages III and IV pressure ulcers (PU) with hydrocolloid/hydrogel dressings plus 20 exposures to low-level laser therapy (LLLT), compared with hydrocolloid dressings alone, in a group of 43 long-term bedbound patients. Thermal imaging sessions were carried out at the beginning of the study, and after two and four weeks of treatment. The results showed three different stages of healing; pure healing (H) with minimal granulation; healing with hypergranulation (H+G); and non-healing (NH). The authors analyzed the thermographic patterns at each stage and found it correlated with each stage of healing. They concluded that SSIT may be an effective diagnostic tool for PU treatment with the ability to predict the course of healing, but this should be confirmed with larger studies.

Smit et al. (2018) conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis of the literature regarding the available objective methods to intraoperatively assess free flap tissue perfusion, and the effects on (partial) flap loss. Sixty-four articles were included reporting on 2369 procedures in 2009 patients with various indications. Reported methods were fluorescence imaging (FI), laser Doppler, oxygen saturation, ultrasound, (dynamic) infrared thermography, venous pressure, and microdialysis. Intraoperative tissue perfusion was adequately measured by the use of FI and laser Doppler, leading to surgical intervention or altered flap design, and increased flap survival. The results showed FI and laser Doppler are most suitable to intraoperatively measure free flap tissue perfusion, resulting in improved flap survival. No convincing evidence was found for the use of other methods. The authors concluded that this review is based on limited literature, and additional studies are necessary to investigate the predictive value of intraoperative perfusion measurement.

Oliveira et al. (2017) conducted a systematic review to determine the accuracy of ultrasound, thermography, photography and subepidermal moisture (SEM) in detecting pressure ulcers (PU). Data analysis indicated that photography was not a method

which allowed for the early prediction of PU presence. SEM values increased with increasing tissue damage. Thermography identified temperature changes in tissues and skin that may give an indication of early PU development; however, the data were not sufficiently robust. Ultrasound detected pockets of fluid/edema at different levels of the skin that were comparable with tissue damage. The authors concluded that SEM and ultrasound were the best methods for allowing a more accurate assessment of early skin/tissue damage. There is a lack of high-quality evidence demonstrating a beneficial impact of thermography on health outcomes in patients with pressure ulcers.

Burke-Smith et al. (2015) completed a study to investigate the accuracy of infrared thermography (IRT) and spectrophotometric intracutaneous analysis (SIA) for burn depth assessment, and compared this to the current gold standard: laser Doppler imaging (LDI). They included a comparison of the three modalities in terms of cost, reliability and usability. Twenty patients were recruited with burns. Between 48h and 5 days after burn they recorded imaging using moorLDI2-BI-VR (LDI), FLIR E60 (IRT) and Scanoskin™ (SIA). Twenty-four burn regions were grouped according to burn wound healing: group A healed within 14 days, group B within 14-21 days, and group C took more than 21 days or underwent grafting. Both LDI and IRT accurately determined healing potential in groups A and C but failed to distinguish between groups B and C. Scanoskin™ interpretation of SIA was 100% consistent with clinical outcome. The authors concluded that FLIR E60 and Scanoskin™ both present advantages to moorLDI2-BI-VR in terms of cost, ease-of-use and acceptability to patients. IRT is unlikely to challenge LDI as the gold standard as it is subject to the systematic bias of evaporative cooling. At present, the LDI color-coded palette is the easiest method for image interpretation, whereas Scanoskin™ monochrome color-palettes are more difficult to interpret. The authors stated that the additional analyses of pigment available using SIA may help more accurately indicate the depth of burn compared with perfusion alone and suggested development of Scanoskin™ software to include a simplified color-palette similar to LDI. This is a small study that provide insufficient evidence to define the role of IRT in the clinical management of burn patients.

Nakagami et al. (2010) investigated whether thermography can be used to detect latent inflammation in pressure ulcers and predict pressure ulcer prognosis in a clinical setting. Thirty-five patients with stage II-IV pressure ulcers on the torso, who underwent thermographic assessment on discovery of their pressure ulcer were included in the study. The patients were followed up for at least 3 weeks. Thermography was performed immediately after dressing removal. Pressure ulcers were classified into two groups depending on whether or not the wound site temperature was lower or higher than the periwound skin: the low temperature group and the high temperature group, respectively. The relative risk for delayed healing in high temperature cases was 2.25. Sensitivity was 0.56, specificity was 0.82, positive predictive value was 0.75, and negative predictive value was 0.67. The investigators concluded that the results indicate that using thermography to classify pressure ulcers according to temperature could be a useful predictor of healing at 3 weeks, even though wound appearances may not differ at the point of thermographical assessment. The higher temperature in the wound site, when compared with periwound skin, may imply the presence of critical colonization, or other factors which disturb the wound healing. This study failed to show how thermography would impact patient management or disease outcomes and requires independent confirmation with comparisons to other predictive tests before being translated to clinical practice.

Musculoskeletal System

Dias de Lacerda et al. (2022) conducted a systematic review with meta-analysis evaluating the accuracy of infrared thermography in detecting tendinopathy. There were 7 studies included in the meta-analyses. One study was a randomized clinical trial, three were case-control, two are prospective longitudinal, and one is cross-sectional. All seven studies were classified as having a high risk of bias based on author assessment and only two studies described how patients were recruited. The authors calculated an overall sensitivity of 72% (95% CI: 67%-77%) with heterogeneity of 59.77 ($p < 0.0001$) indicating the presence of heterogeneity and the inconsistency was 90%. The overall estimate of specificity was 95% (95% CI: 92%-98%) with heterogeneity of 18.18 ($p = 0.0058$) indicating the presence of heterogeneity and the inconsistency was 67%. The diagnostic odds ratio was 75.94. The authors note that there were important methodological differences between the studies in relation to lack of parameter standardization for thermographic evaluation and interpretation of IT data which limited this meta-analysis. There was also a high level of heterogeneity between the studies when evaluating sensitivity which can lead to an inaccurate estimate. Additionally, the authors noted that there is little research on the subject which limited the volume of evidence.

In a 2021 systematic review, Schiavon et al. assessed the potential and limitations of the use of infrared thermography for joints affected by inflammatory and degenerative pathologies such as osteoarthritis and rheumatic diseases. Thirty-two studies comprised of 2094 patients were selected. Nine studies reported on the use for osteoarthritis, 21 for juvenile and psoriatic arthritis, and 2 for both. Seven studies investigated the correlation of temperature changes with osteoarthritis, 16 with rheumatic

diseases, and 2 with both, whereas 2 focused on the pre-post evaluation to investigate treatment results in patients with osteoarthritis and 5 in patients with rheumatic diseases. The results showed a correlation between thermal findings and disease presence and stage, as well as the clinical assessment of disease activity and response to treatment, at least as reliably as other imaging modalities, and clinical assessments of disease activity such as serologic markers, and clinical examinations.

The authors concluded that infrared thermography is simple, accurate and noninvasive and could be used in addition to the currently available tools for screening, diagnosis, monitoring of disease progression, and treatment outcomes. This review is limited by the low quality and heterogenous nature of the included studies, however the findings could serve as a base for further studies.

de Melo et al (2018) conducted a systematic review to assess the scientific efficacy of infrared thermography (IT) on the diagnosis of temporomandibular joint disorders (TMDs). Two independent reviewers selected the studies, reviewed the abstract information, and assessed the quality. The methodology of the included articles was evaluated by using the QUADAS-2 tool. Nine studies fulfilled the eligibility criteria and were included in the systematic review. Four studies concluded that IT presents low accuracy or is not an accurate instrument for TMD diagnosis, but there was substantial variation in sensitivity, specificity, and receiver operating characteristic curve values. Five studies concluded that IT appears to be promising or may be a complementary diagnostic aid in the evaluation of TMDs. These studies presented sensitivity values ranging from 70% to 90% and specificity values ranging from 62% to 92%. All studies were judged as being "at risk of bias" and as having "concerns regarding applicability." The authors concluded that the literature is still lacking in sufficient number of studies regarding the reliability of IT for the diagnosis of TMDs.

Niehof et al. (2008) assessed the validity of skin surface temperature recordings, based on various calculation methods applied to the thermographic data, to diagnose acute complex regional pain syndrome type 1 (CRPS1) fracture patients. Thermographic recordings of the palmar/plantar side and dorsal side of both hands or feet were made on CRPS1 patients and in control fracture patients with/without and without complaints similar to CRPS1 (total in the three subgroups = 120) just after removal of plaster. Based on the study results, the investigators concluded that the validity of skin surface temperature recordings under resting conditions to discriminate between acute CRPS1 fracture patients and control fracture patients with/without complaints is limited, and only useful as a supplementary diagnostic tool.

Nervous System

Park et al. (2012) examined the usefulness of infrared thermography in acute herpes zoster (HZ) as a predictor for the development of postherpetic neuralgia (PHN). The authors collected data from a total of 55 patients diagnosed with HZ and evaluated the body surface thermographic parameters between the lesion and contralateral normal skin. Temperatures of the lesions were found to be warmer than the control side in most patients with acute HZ. The patient group who developed PHN was compared with those who did not. In logistic regression analysis to identify independent risk factors of PHN, older age (> 60 years old) and temperature difference more than 0.5 °C were found to be statistically significant. According to the authors, further studies are required to support these preliminary results and to understand in depth the association between thermal changes in acute HZ and the development of PHN.

Kamao et al. (2011) evaluated the use of thermography for dry eye screening in a prospective, controlled study. The study included 30 eyes of 30 patients diagnosed with dry eye and 30 eyes of 30 normal subjects. Immediately after eye opening, the temperature in the dry eye did not differ significantly from that in normal eyes in any of the 3 regions tested. The decrease in the ocular surface temperature in dry eyes was significantly greater than that in normal eyes at 10 seconds after eye opening. When the changes in ocular surface temperature of the cornea were used as an index for dry eye, the sensitivity was 0.83 and the specificity was 0.80 after 10 seconds. According to the authors, measurements of the ocular surface temperature obtained with thermography after 10 seconds of eye opening may provide a simple, noninvasive screening test for dry eyes. This study failed to show how thermography would impact patient management or disease outcomes in patients with dry eye.

Han et al. (2010) examined the usefulness of infrared thermography as a predictor of post-herpetic neuralgia (PHN). Infrared thermography was performed on the affected body regions of 110 patients who had been diagnosed with acute herpes zoster (HZ). The temperature differences between the unaffected and affected dermatome were calculated. Temperature differences were not correlated with pain severity, disease duration, allodynia (pain from stimuli not normally painful, as seen with fibromyalgia), development of PHN, and use of antiviral agents. Based on the results of the study, the authors stated that patient age and disease duration are the most important factors predicting PHN progression, irrespective of thermal findings, and PHN cannot be predicted by infrared thermal imaging.

Magnetic Resonance (MR) Thermography

Liver

Kickhefel et al. (2011) assessed the feasibility, precision, and accuracy of real-time temperature mapping (TMap) during laser-induced thermotherapy (LITT) for liver lesions with a gradient echo (GRE) sequence using the proton resonance frequency (PRF) method. LITT was performed on 34 lesions in 18 patients with simultaneous real-time visualization of relative temperature changes. Correlative contrast-enhanced T1-weighted magnetic resonance (MR) images of the liver were acquired after treatment using the same slice positions and angulations as TMap images acquired during LITT. Based on the results of the study, the authors concluded that MR temperature mapping appears reasonably capable of predicting tissue necrosis on the basis of indicating regions having greater temperatures than 52°C and could be used to monitor and adjust the thermal therapy appropriately during treatment. However, this study was limited by the small sample size and lack of comparison with other approaches to define clinical benefit.

Terraz et al. (2010) evaluated the feasibility and effectiveness of MR-guided radiofrequency (RF) ablation for small liver tumors with poor conspicuity on both contrast-enhanced ultrasonography (US) and computed tomography (CT), using fast navigation and temperature monitoring. Sixteen malignant liver nodules were treated with multipolar RF ablation on a 1.5-T wide-bore MR system in ten patients. Real-time MR-based temperature mapping was performed. MR-specific treatment data were recorded. Correct placement of RF electrodes was obtained in all procedures. MR thermometry was available for 14 of 16 nodules (88%) with an accuracy of 1.6 degrees C in a non-heated region. No correlation was found between the size of the lethal thermal dose and the ablation zone at follow-up imaging. The primary and secondary effectiveness rates were 100% and 91%, respectively. The investigators concluded that RF ablation of small liver tumors can be planned, targeted, monitored and controlled with MR imaging within acceptable procedure times. According to the investigators, temperature mapping is technically feasible, but the clinical benefit remains to be proven.

Puls et al. (2009) evaluated the technical success, technique effectiveness, complications, and survival after laser ablation of liver metastases from colorectal cancer. The study included 87 consecutive patients with 180 liver metastases from colorectal carcinoma. They underwent laser ablation with magnetic resonance (MR) thermometry in 170 sessions. Technical success, technique effectiveness, and complication and survival rates were evaluated retrospectively. Technical success was achieved in 178 of 180 sessions (99%). Follow-up after 24-48 hours demonstrated an effectiveness rate of 85.6%. Local tumor progression rate was 10% after 6 months. Mean survival from the time of diagnosis of the primary tumor was 50.6 months for all patients treated. The investigators concluded that laser ablation of liver metastases of colorectal cancer with MR thermometry appears safe and efficacious. According to the investigators, direct comparison with other ablative modalities in a prospective clinical trial would be necessary to definitely show one modality is superior.

Nervous System

McCracken et al. (2016) Surgery is indicated for cerebral cavernous malformations (CCM) that cause medically refractory epilepsy. Real-time magnetic resonance thermography (MRT)-guided stereotactic laser ablation (SLA) is a minimally invasive approach to treating focal brain lesions. The authors conducted a study of 5 consecutive patients to describe MRT-guided SLA, a novel approach to treating CCM-related epilepsy, with respect to feasibility, safety, imaging, and seizure control. Five patients with medically refractory epilepsy undergoing standard presurgical evaluation were found to have corresponding lesions fulfilling imaging characteristics of CCM and were prospectively enrolled. Each underwent stereotactic placement of a saline-cooled cannula containing an optical fiber to deliver 980-nm diode laser energy via twist drill craniostomy. MR anatomic imaging was used to evaluate targeting prior to ablation. MR imaging provided evaluation of targeting and near real-time feedback regarding extent of tissue thermocoagulation. Patients maintained seizure diaries, and remote imaging (6-21 months post-ablation) was obtained in all patients. The results showed that imaging revealed no evidence of acute hemorrhage following fiber placement within presumed CCM. MRT during treatment and immediate post-procedure imaging confirmed desired extent of ablation, and no adverse events or neurological deficits were seen. Four of 5 (80%) patients achieved freedom from disabling seizures after SLA alone (Engel class 1 outcome), with follow-up ranging 12-28 months. Reimaging of all subjects (6-21 months) indicated lesion diminution with surrounding liquefactive necrosis, consistent with the surgical goal of extended lesionotomy. The authors concluded that MRT-guided SLA of epileptogenic CCM is a potentially safe and effective alternative to open resection. Additional evidence for the role of MRT in this indication and longer follow-up are needed for these findings to be translated to clinical practice.

Reproductive System

In a prospective study, Kim et al. (2012) evaluated the accuracy of the size and location of the ablation zone produced by volumetric magnetic resonance (MR) imaging-guided high-intensity focused ultrasound ablation of uterine fibroids on the basis of MR thermometric analysis and assessed the effects of a feedback control technique in 33 women. Size and location of each ablation zone induced by 527 sonications were analyzed according to the thermal dose obtained with MR thermometry. Based on the results of the study, the authors concluded that sonication accuracy of volumetric MR imaging-guided high-intensity focused ultrasound ablation of uterine fibroids appears clinically acceptable and may be further improved by feedback control to produce more consistent ablation zones. However, the study did not confirm the utility of such findings in improving care and outcome of patients.

Clinical Practice Guidelines

The National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN)

The NCCN Breast Cancer Screening and Diagnosis Clinical Practice Guidelines state that current evidence does not support the routine use of thermography as a screening or diagnostic procedure. (NCCN, 2022)

American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG)

ACOG's Committee on Gynecologic Practice finds that current published evidence does not demonstrate meaningful outcome benefits with alternative screening modalities (e.g., breast tomosynthesis or thermography) in women with dense breasts who do not have additional risk factors. Evidence is lacking to advocate for additional testing until there are clinically validated data that indicate improved screening outcomes. (ACOG, 2015. Reaffirmed 2020)

European Society of Breast Imaging (EUSOBI)

In a 2017 position statement, the EUSOBI (and 30 national breast radiology bodies) states that screening with thermography or other optical tools as alternatives to mammography are discouraged. (Sardanelli 2017)

U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA)

This section is to be used for informational purposes only. FDA approval alone is not a basis for coverage.

On January 12, 2021, the FDA published information regarding the use of thermal imaging systems related to COVID-19. This document states that these imaging systems are not effective at determining if someone has COVID-19 and a diagnostic test must be performed. Refer to the following website for more information: <https://www.fda.gov/medical-devices/general-hospital-devices-and-supplies/thermal-imaging-systems-infrared-thermographic-systems-thermal-imaging-cameras>. (Accessed December 7, 2022)

In April of 2020, the FDA issued the *Enforcement Policy for Telethermographic Systems During the Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) Public Health Emergency*. The guidance sets forth an enforcement policy that is intended to apply to all thermal imaging systems that are intended for medical purposes for the duration of the public health emergency related to COVID-19, and provides recommendations regarding performance and labeling of such systems. Refer to the following website for more information: <https://www.fda.gov/regulatory-information/search-fda-guidance-documents/enforcement-policy-telethermographic-systems-during-coronavirus-disease-2019-covid-19-public-health>. (Accessed December 7, 2022)

The FDA regulates telethermographic systems as Class II devices. The FDA has cleared numerous thermographic imaging systems for marketing under the 510(K) process. Refer to the following website for information regarding product code LHQ (system, telethermographic (adjunctive)): <https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfPMN/pmn.cfm>. (Accessed December 7, 2022)

The FDA states that the mammography is still the most effective screening method for detecting breast cancer in its early, most treatable stages. Women should not rely solely on thermography for the screening or diagnosis of breast cancer as there is no evidence that thermography can take the place of mammography. <https://www.fda.gov/ForConsumers/ConsumerUpdates/ucm257499.htm>. (Accessed December 7, 2022)

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The foregoing Oxford policy has been adapted from an existing UnitedHealthcare national policy that was researched, developed and approved by UnitedHealthcare Medical Technology Assessment Committee. [2023T0448U]

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Policy History/Revision Information

Date	Summary of Changes
04/01/2023	Supporting Information <ul style="list-style-type: none">Updated <i>Clinical Evidence</i> and <i>References</i> sections to reflect the most current informationArchived previous policy version DIAGNOSTIC 028.22 T2

Instructions for Use

This Clinical Policy provides assistance in interpreting UnitedHealthcare Oxford standard benefit plans. When deciding coverage, the member specific benefit plan document must be referenced as the terms of the member specific benefit plan

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